CS61C : Machine Structures

Lecture 5.2.2
Pipelining I

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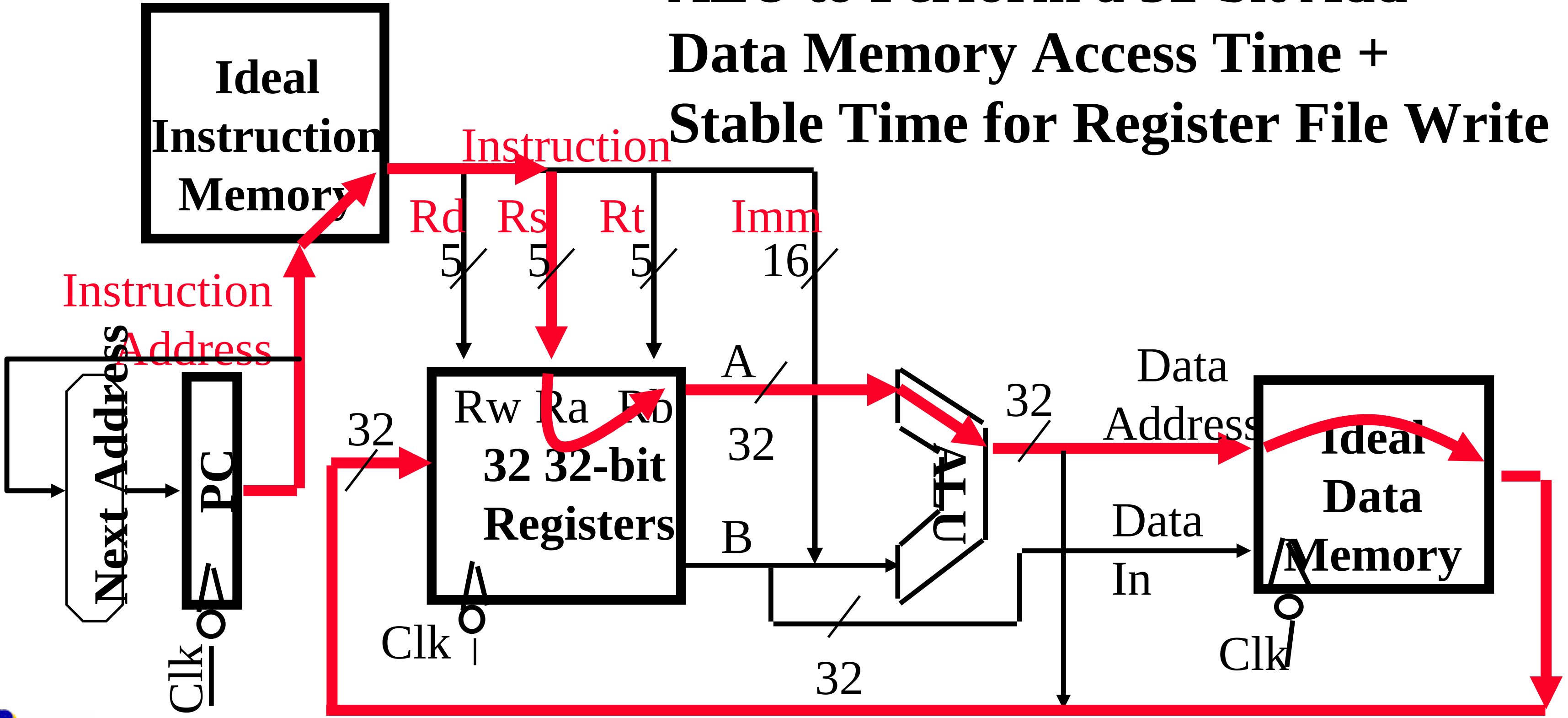
An Abstract View of the Critical Path

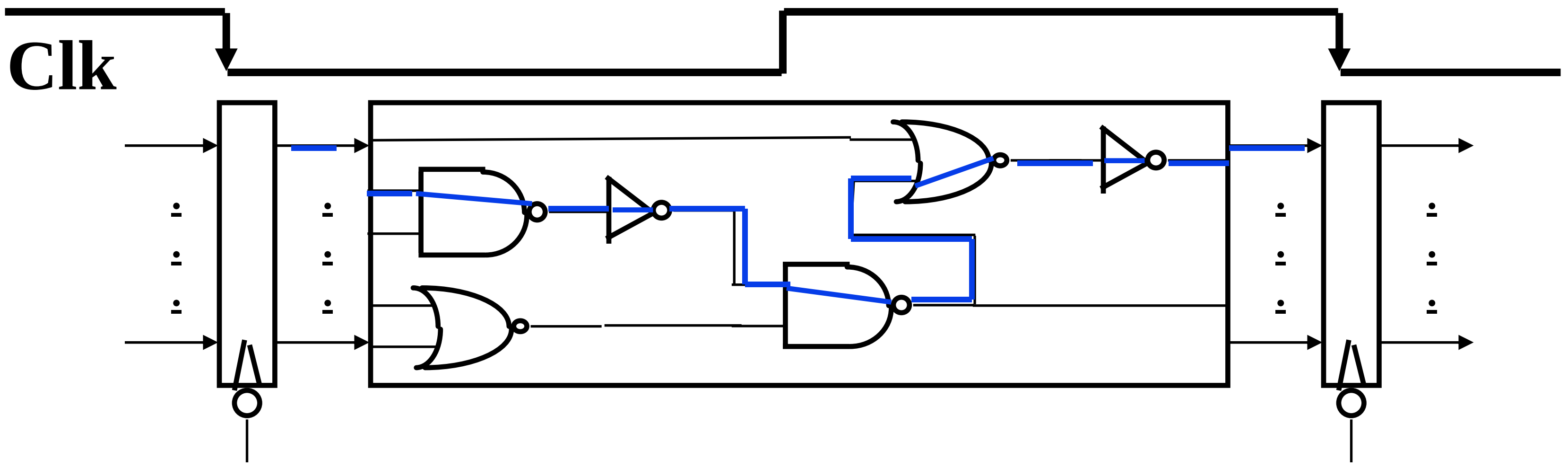
- This affects how much you can overclock your PC!

Critical Path (Load Operation) =

Delay clock through PC (FFs) +
Instruction Memory's Access Time +
Register File's Access Time +
ALU to Perform a 32-bit Add +
Data Memory Access Time +
Stable Time for Register File Write



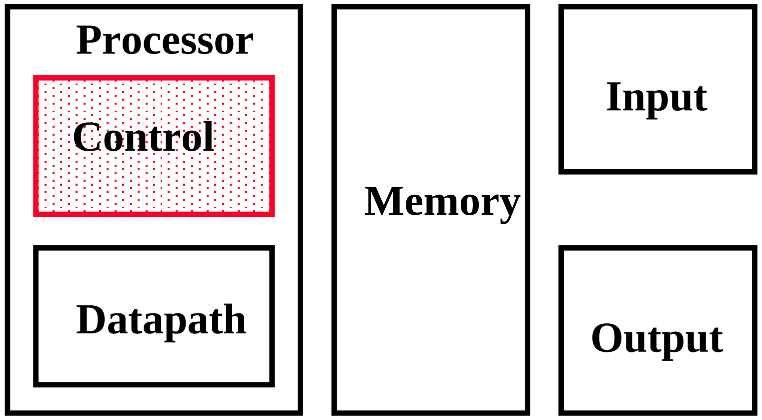
Improve Critical Path ➔ Improve Clock



- "Critical path" (longest path through logic) determines length of clock period
- To reduce clock period ➔ decrease path through CL by inserting State

Review: Single cycle datapath

- 5 steps to design a processor
  - 1. Analyze instruction set => datapath requirements
  - 2. Select set of datapath components & establish clock methodology
  - 3. Assemble datapath meeting the requirements
  - 4. Analyze implementation of each instruction to determine setting of control points that effects the register transfer.
  - 5. Assemble the control logic
- Control is the hard part
- MIPS makes that easier
  - Instructions same size
  - Source registers always in same place
  - Immediates same size, location
  - Operations always on registers/immediates



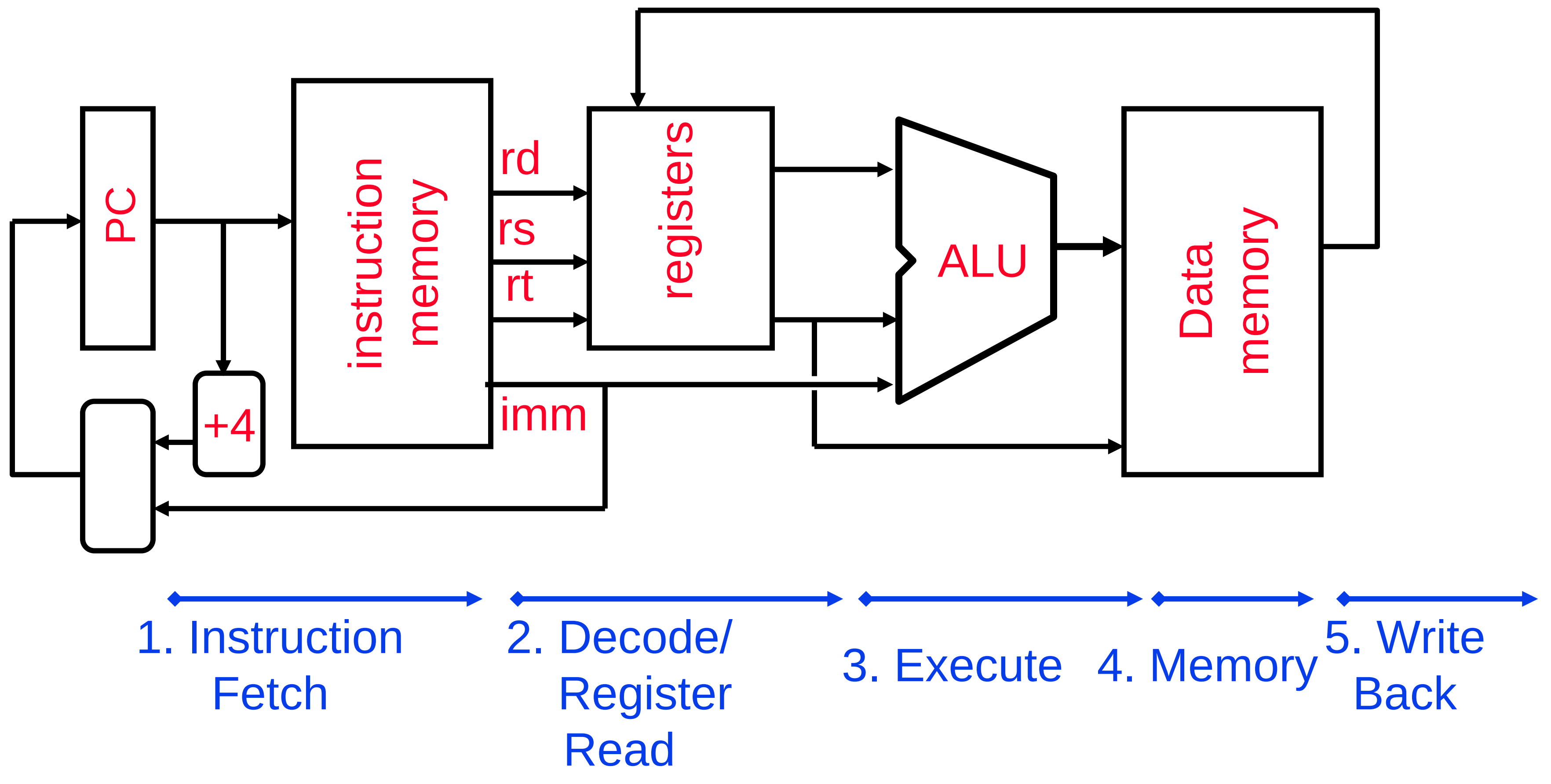
Review Datapath (1/3)

- Datapath is the hardware that performs operations necessary to execute programs.
- Control instructs datapath on what to do next.
- Datapath needs:
  - access to storage (general purpose registers and memory)
  - computational ability (ALU)
  - helper hardware (local registers and PC)

Review Datapath (2/3)

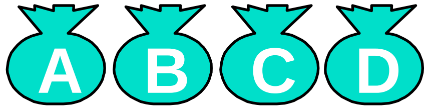
- Five stages of datapath (executing an instruction):
    1. Instruction Fetch (Increment PC)
    2. Instruction Decode (Read Registers)
    3. ALU (Computation)
    4. Memory Access
    5. Write to Registers
- ALL instructions must go through ALL five stages.

Review Datapath (3/3)

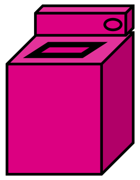


Gotta Do Laundry

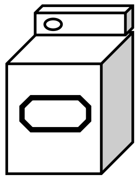
- Ann, Brian, Cathy, Dave each have one load of clothes to wash, dry, fold, and put away



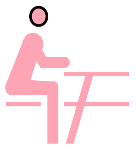
- Washer takes 30 minutes



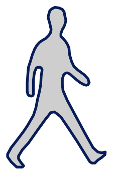
- Dryer takes 30 minutes



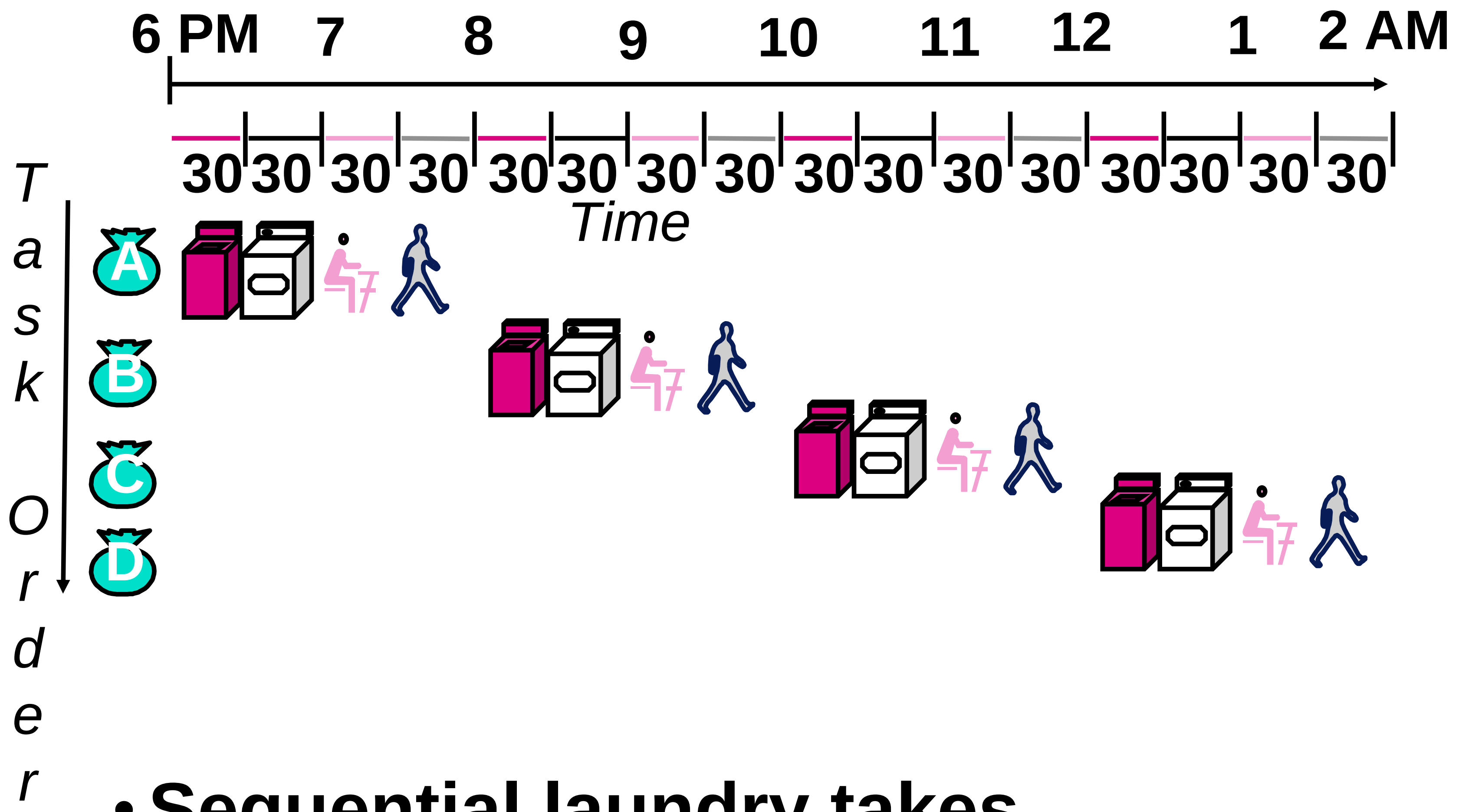
- "Folder" takes 30 minutes



- "Stasher" takes 30 minutes to put clothes into drawers

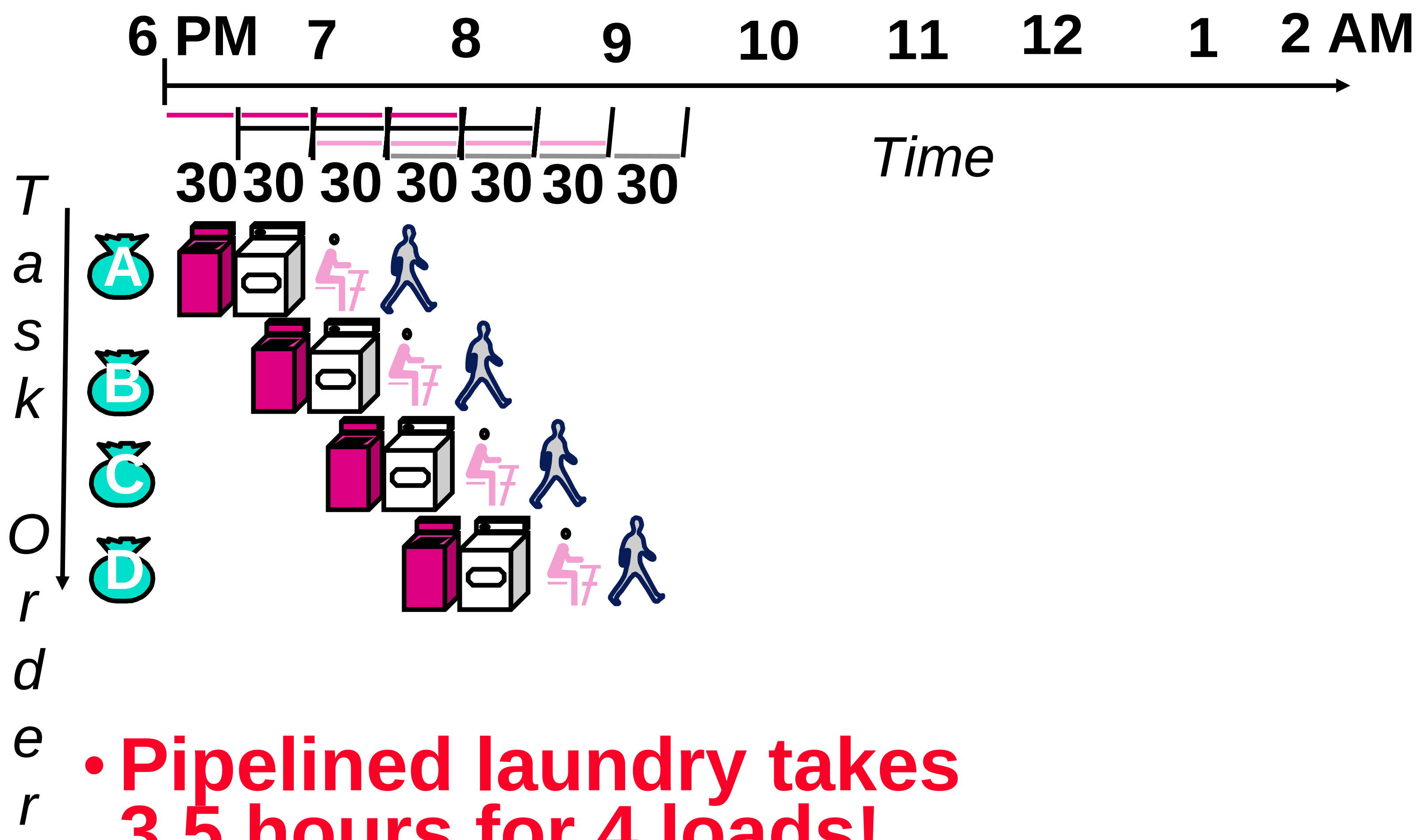


Sequential Laundry



- Sequential laundry takes 8 hours for 4 loads

Pipelined Laundry

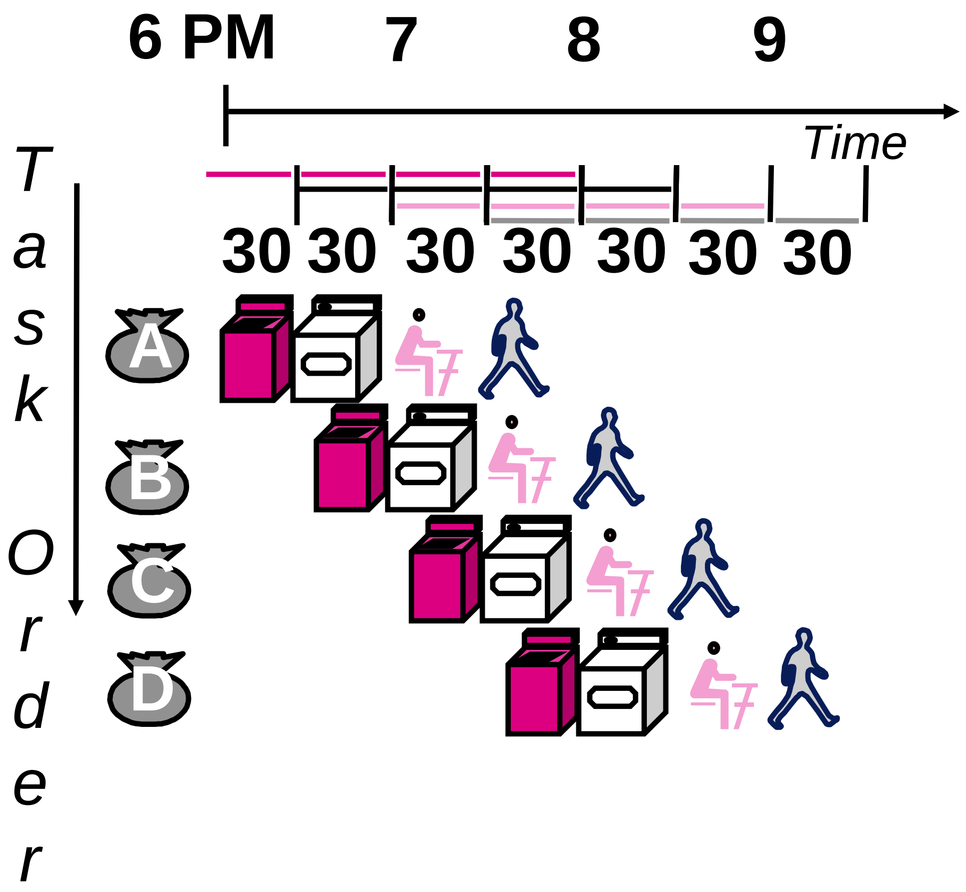


- **Pipelined laundry takes 3.5 hours for 4 loads!**

General Definitions

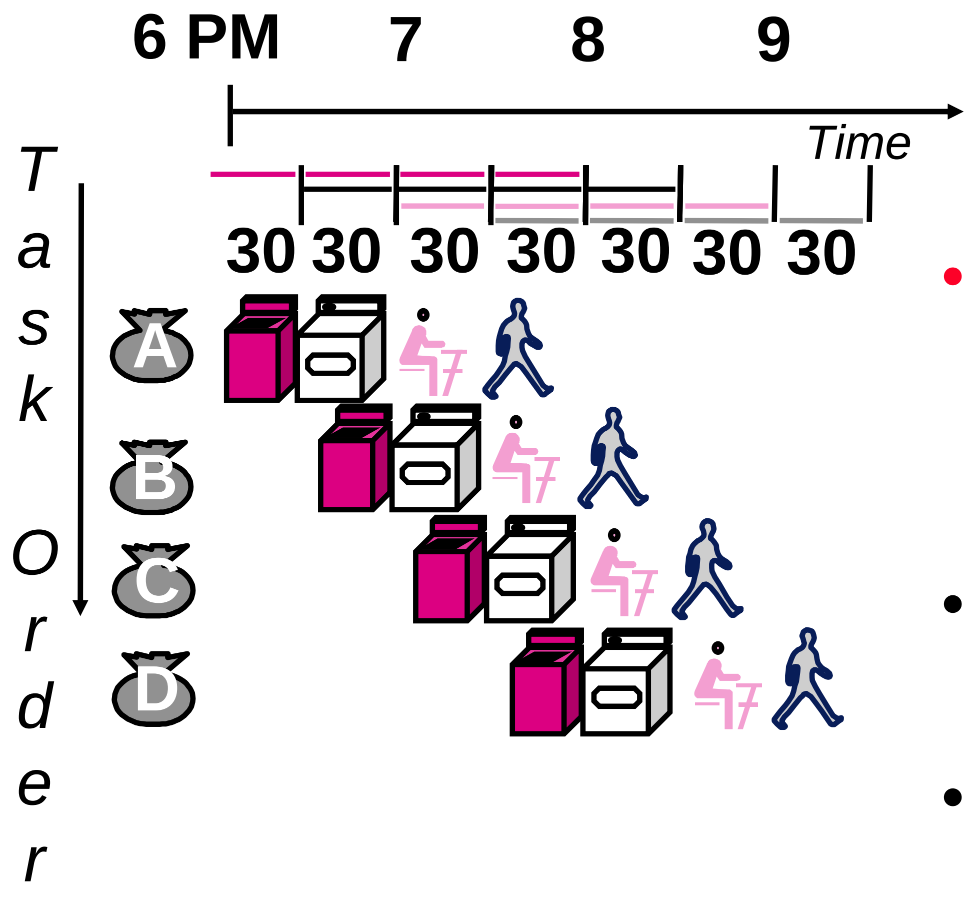
- **Latency: time to completely execute a certain task**
  - **for example, time to read a sector from disk is disk access time or disk latency**
  - **Instruction latency is time from when instruction starts to time when it finishes.**
- **Throughput: amount of work that can be done over a period of time**

Pipelining Lessons (0/2)



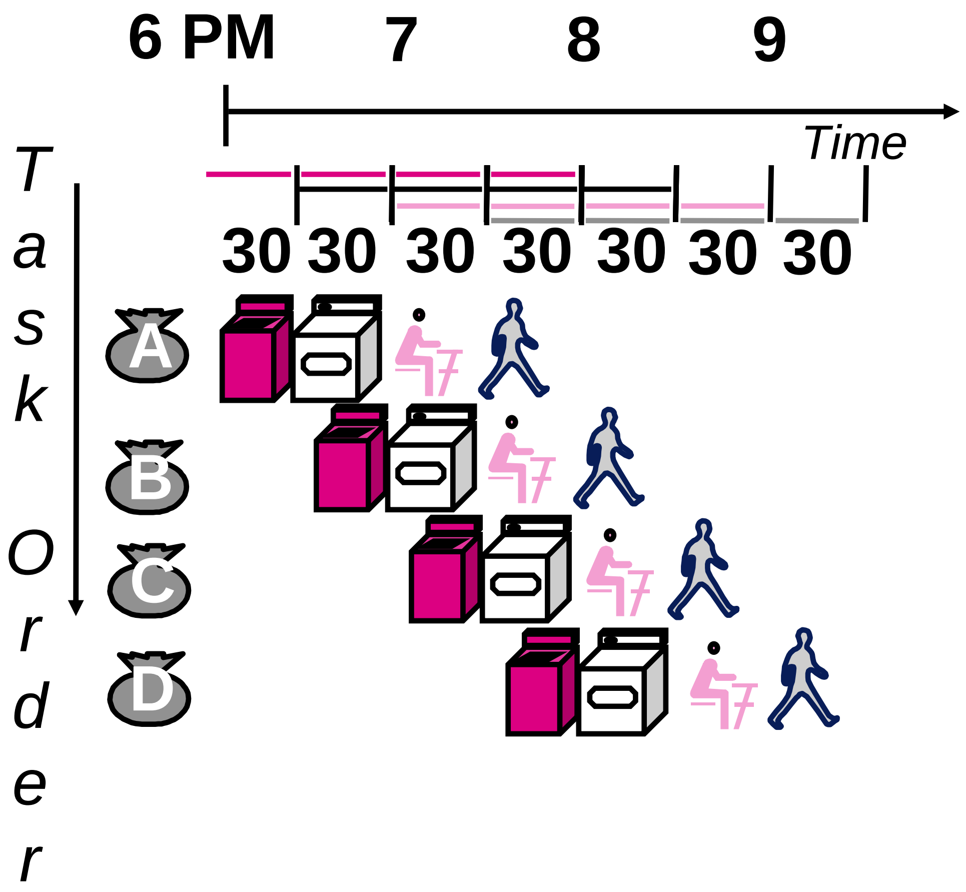
- **Terminology:**
  - **Issue: When instruction goes into first stage of pipe.**
  - **Commit: when instruction finishes last stage**

Pipelining Lessons (1/2)



- Pipelining doesn't help latency of single task, it helps throughput of entire workload
- Multiple tasks operating simultaneously using different resources
- Potential speedup = Number pipe stages
- Time to "fill" pipeline and time to "drain" it reduces speedup: 2.3X v. 4X in this example

Pipelining Lessons (2/2)



- Suppose new Washer takes 20 minutes, new Stasher takes 20 minutes. How much faster is pipeline?
- Pipeline rate limited by slowest pipeline stage
- Unbalanced lengths of pipe stages also reduces speedup

Steps in Executing MIPS

1) IFetch: Fetch Instruction, Increment PC

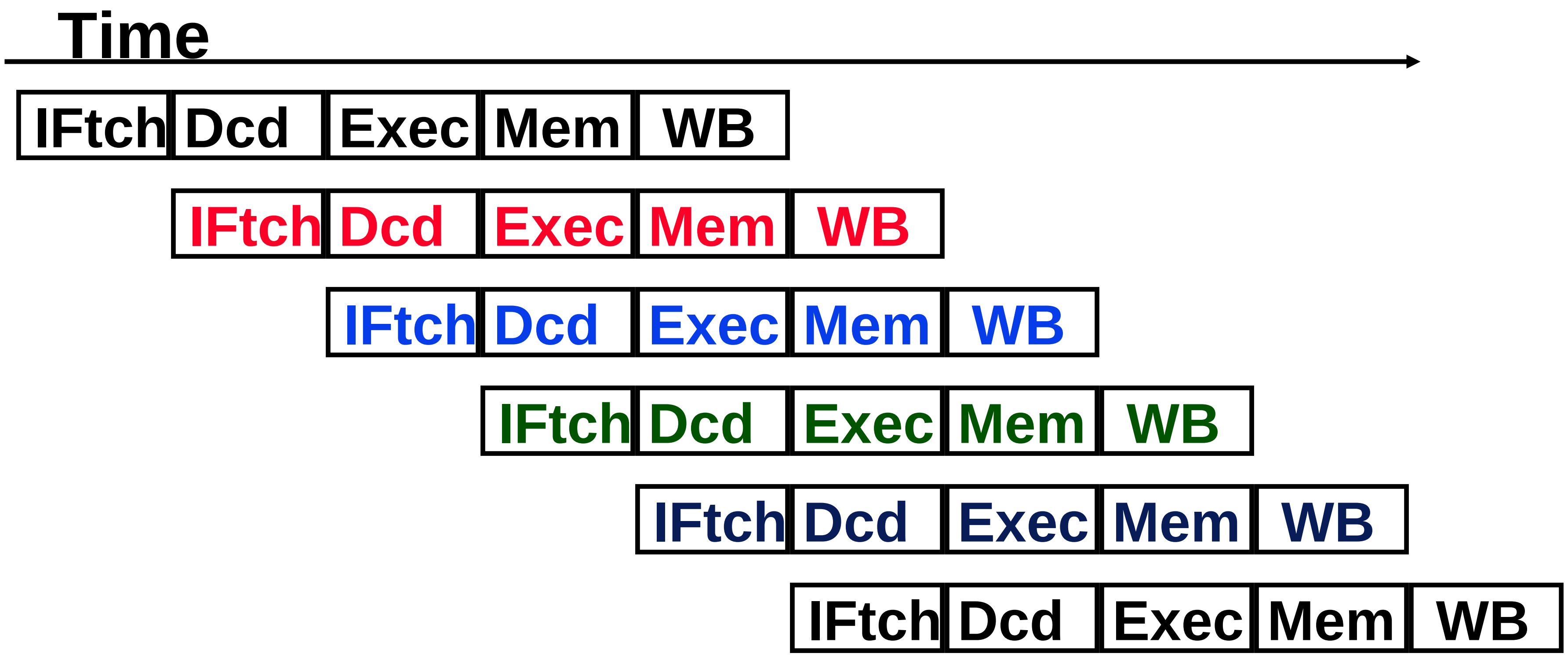
2) Decode Instruction, Read Registers

3) Execute:
   Mem-ref: Calculate Address
   Arith-log: Perform Operation

4) Memory:
   Load: Read Data from Memory
   Store: Write Data to Memory

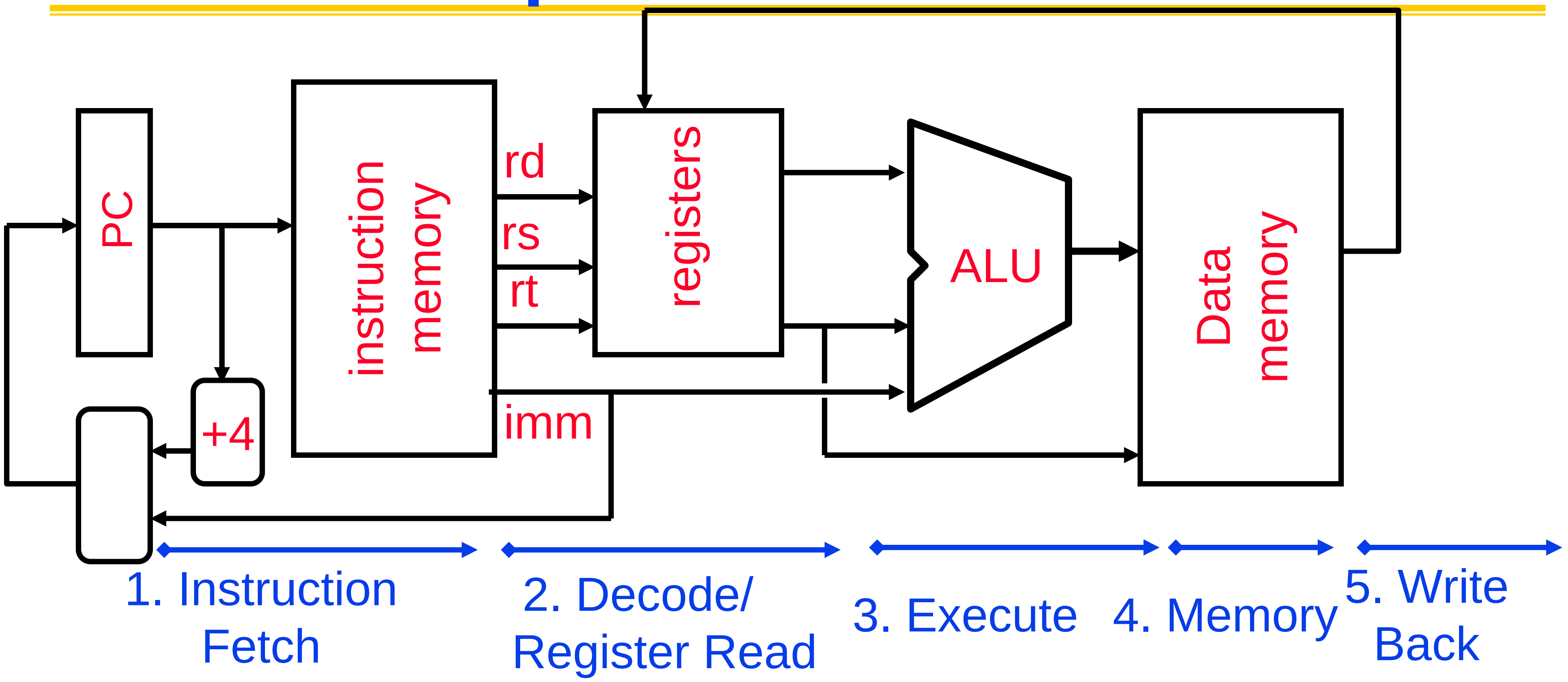
5) Write Back: Write Data to Register

Pipelined Execution Representation

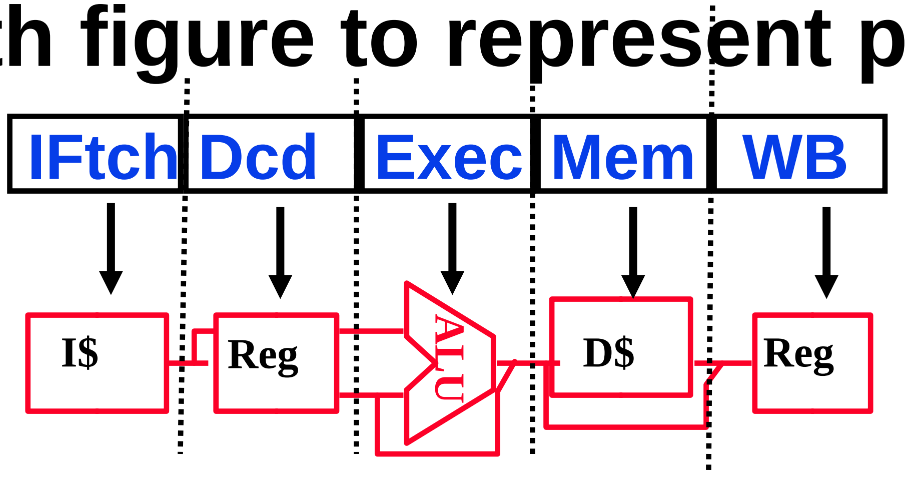


- Every instruction must take same number of steps, also called pipeline "**stages**", so some will go idle sometimes

Review: Datapath for MIPS

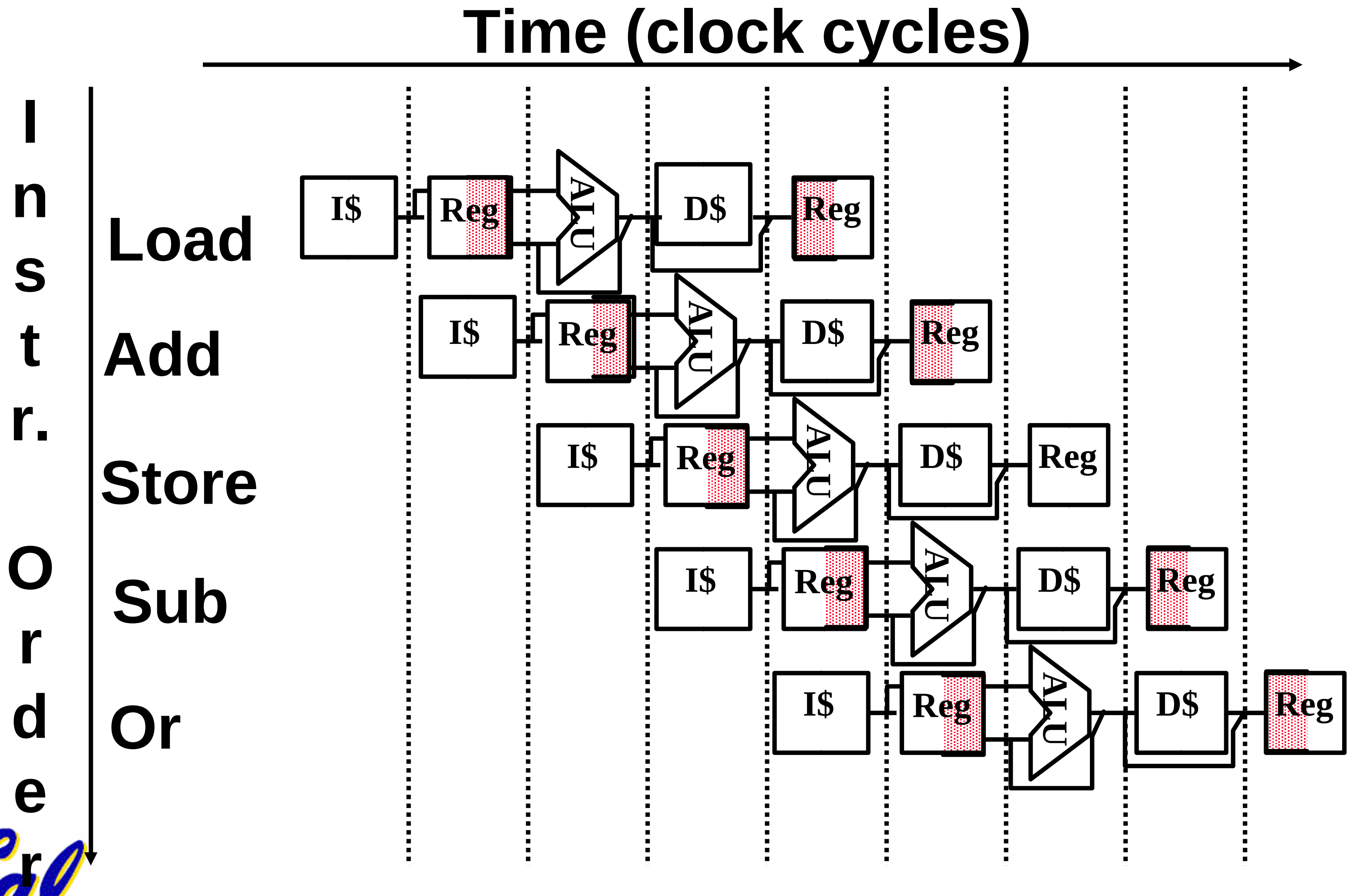


- Use datapath figure to represent pipeline



Graphical Pipeline Representation

(In Reg, right half highlight read, left half write)



Example

- Suppose 2 ns for memory access, 2 ns for ALU operation, and 1 ns for register file read or write; compute instruction throughput
- Nonpipelined Execution:
    - lw : IF + Read Reg + ALU + Memory + Write Reg = 2 + 1 + 2 + 2 + 1 = 8 ns
    - add: IF + Read Reg + ALU + Write Reg = 2 + 1 + 2 + 1 = 6 ns
- Pipelined Execution:
    - Max(IF,Read Reg,ALU,Memory,Write Reg) = 2 ns

Example

- Suppose 2 ns for memory access, 2 ns for ALU operation, and 1 ns for register file read or write; compute instruction latency
- Nonpipelined Execution:
  - lw : IF + Read Reg + ALU + Memory + Write Reg = 2 + 1 + 2 + 2 + 1 = 8 ns
  - add: IF + Read Reg + ALU + Write Reg = 2 + 1 + 2 + 1 = 6 ns
- Pipelined Execution:
  - SUM(IF,Read Reg,ALU,Memory,Write Reg) = 10 ns

Things to Remember

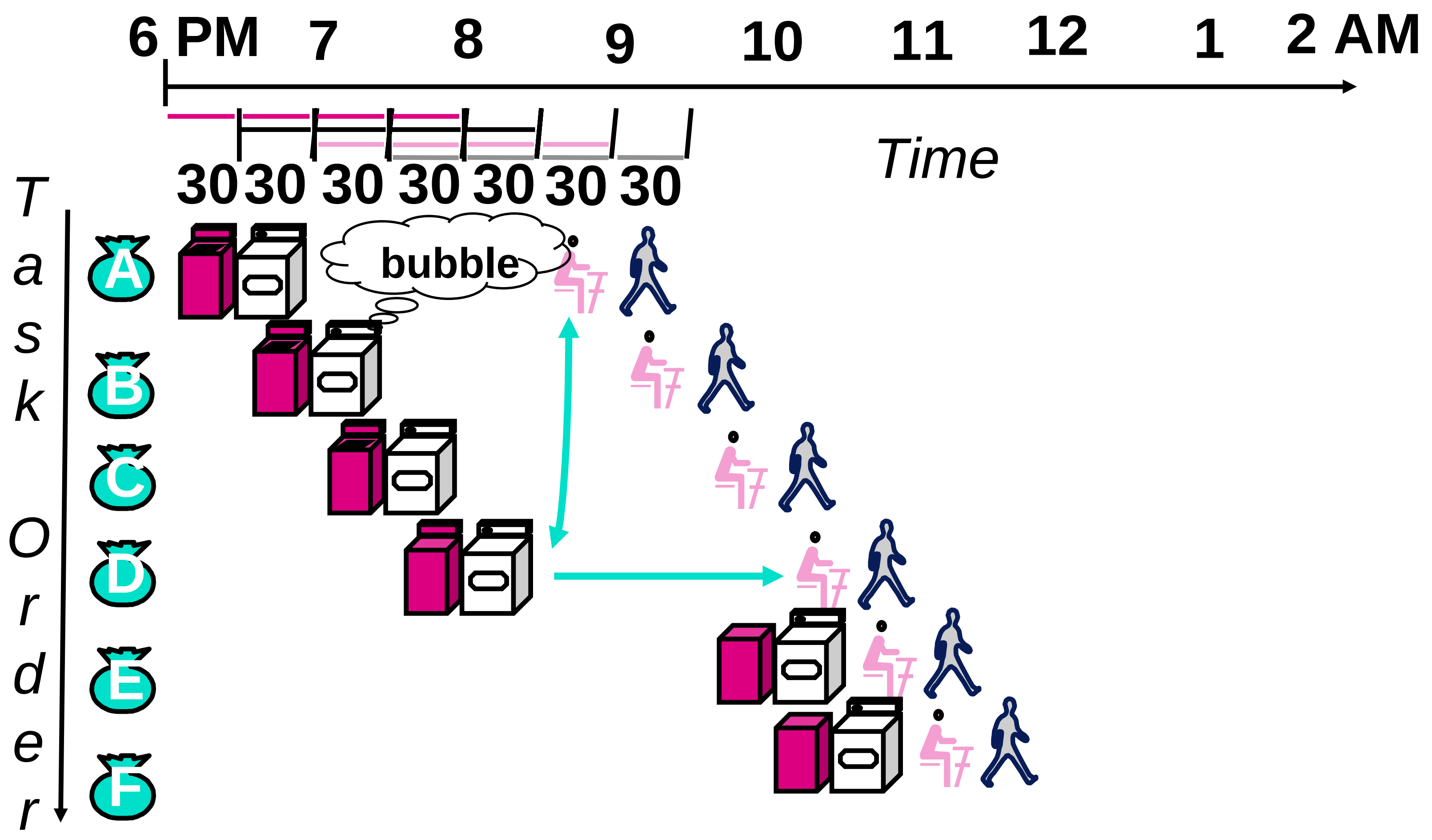
- Optimal Pipeline
  - Each stage is executing part of an instruction each clock cycle.
  - One instruction finishes during each clock cycle.
  - *On average*, executes far more quickly.
- What makes this work?
  - Similarities between instructions allow us to use same stages for all instructions (generally).
  - Each stage takes about the same amount of time as all others: little wasted time.

Pipeline Summary

- Pipelining is a BIG IDEA
  - widely used concept

- What makes it less than perfect? …

Pipeline Hazard: Matching socks in later load

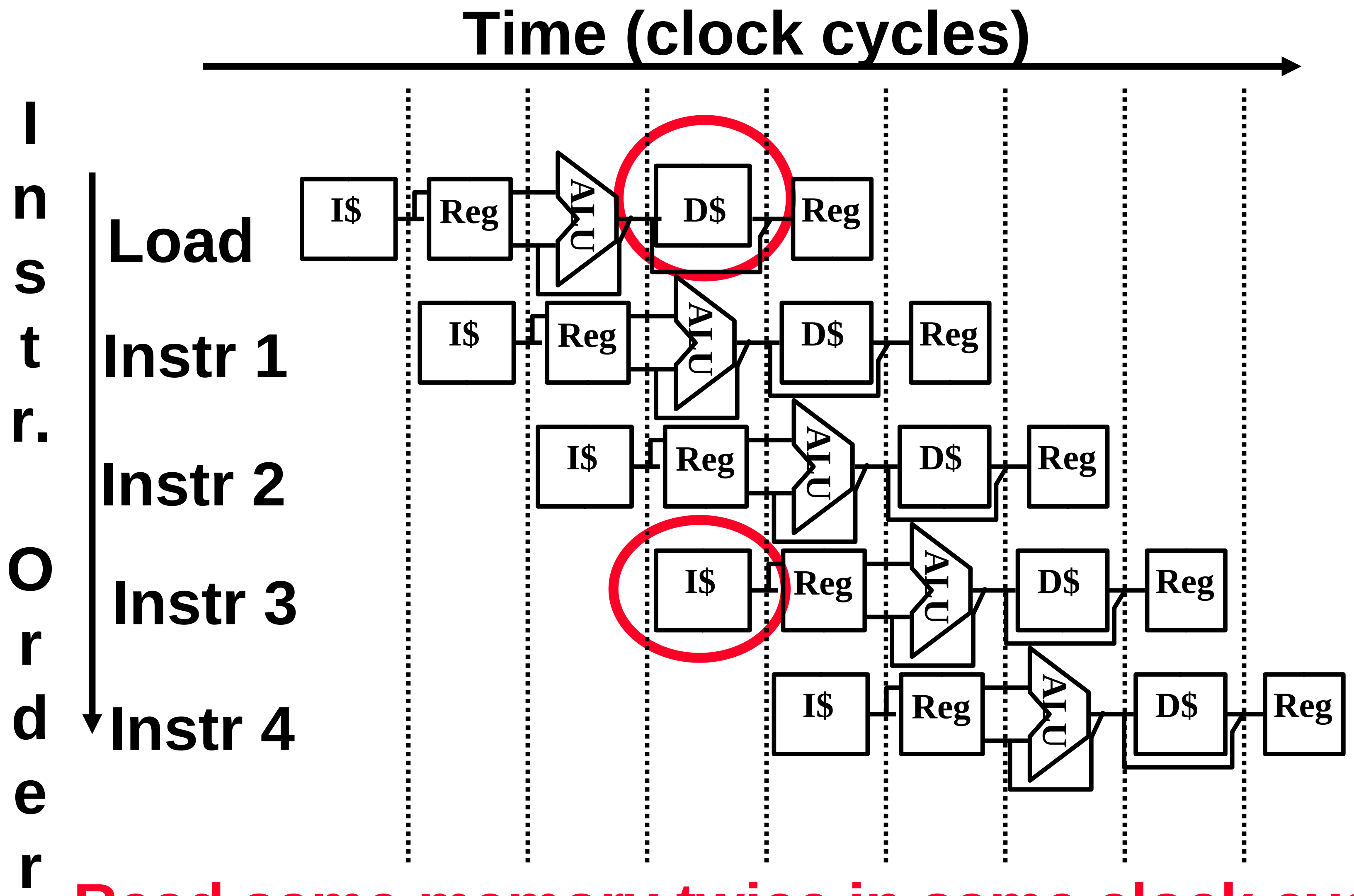


A depends on D; stall since folder tied up

Problems for Computers

- Limits to pipelining: Hazards prevent next instruction from executing during its designated clock cycle
  - Structural hazards: HW cannot support this combination of instructions (single person to fold and put clothes away)
  - Control hazards: Pipelining of branches & other instructions stall the pipeline until the hazard; “bubbles” in the pipeline
  - Data hazards: Instruction depends on result of prior instruction still in the pipeline (missing sock)

Structural Hazard #1: Single Memory (1/2)

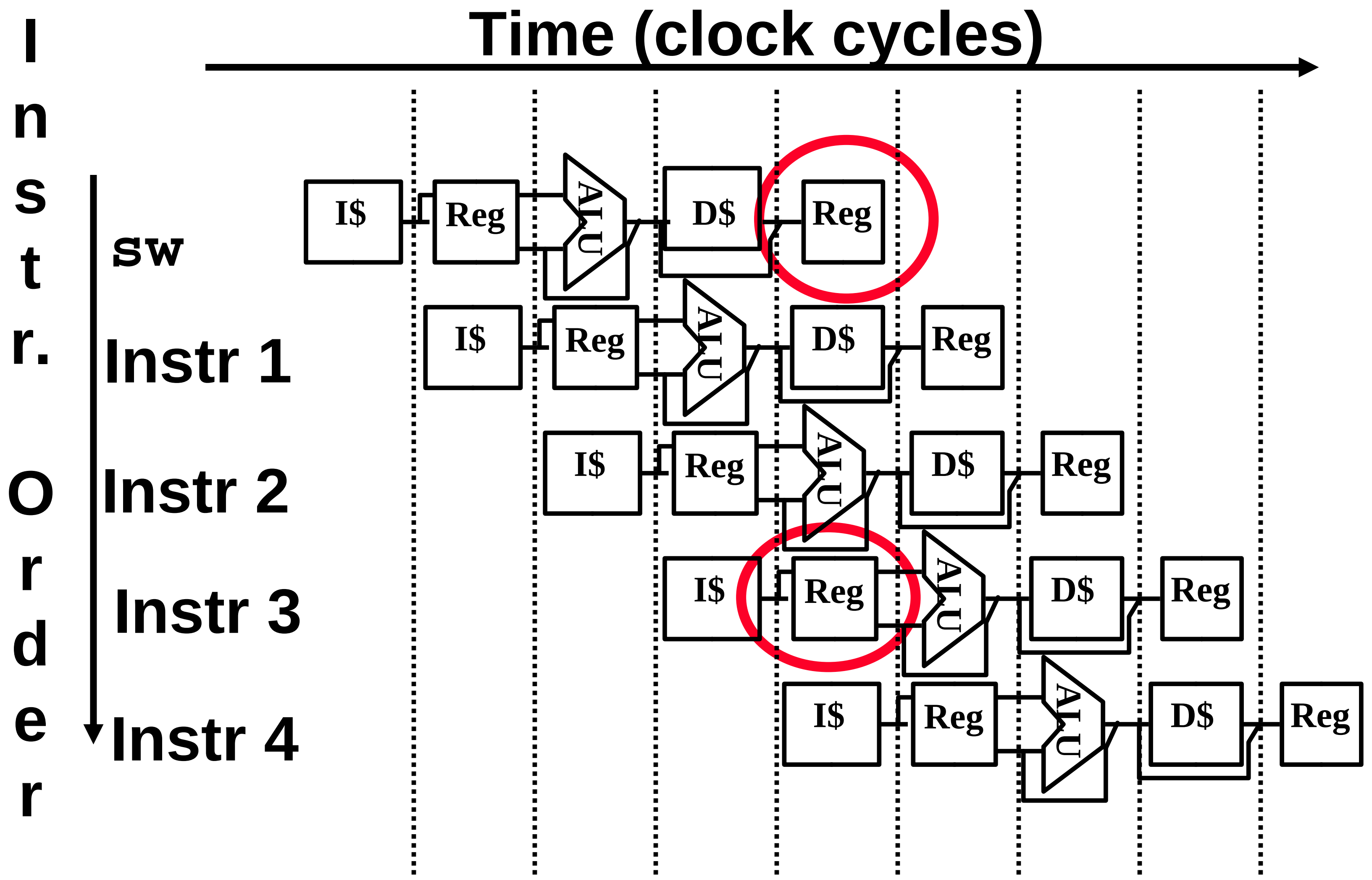


Read same memory twice in same clock cycle

Structural Hazard #1: Single Memory (2/2)

- Solution:
  - infeasible and inefficient to create second memory
  - (We'll learn about this more next week)
  - so simulate this by having two Level 1 Caches (a temporary smaller [of usually most recently used] copy of memory)
  - have both an L1 Instruction Cache and an L1 Data Cache
  - requires complex hardware to control when both caches miss!

Structural Hazard #2: Registers (1/2)

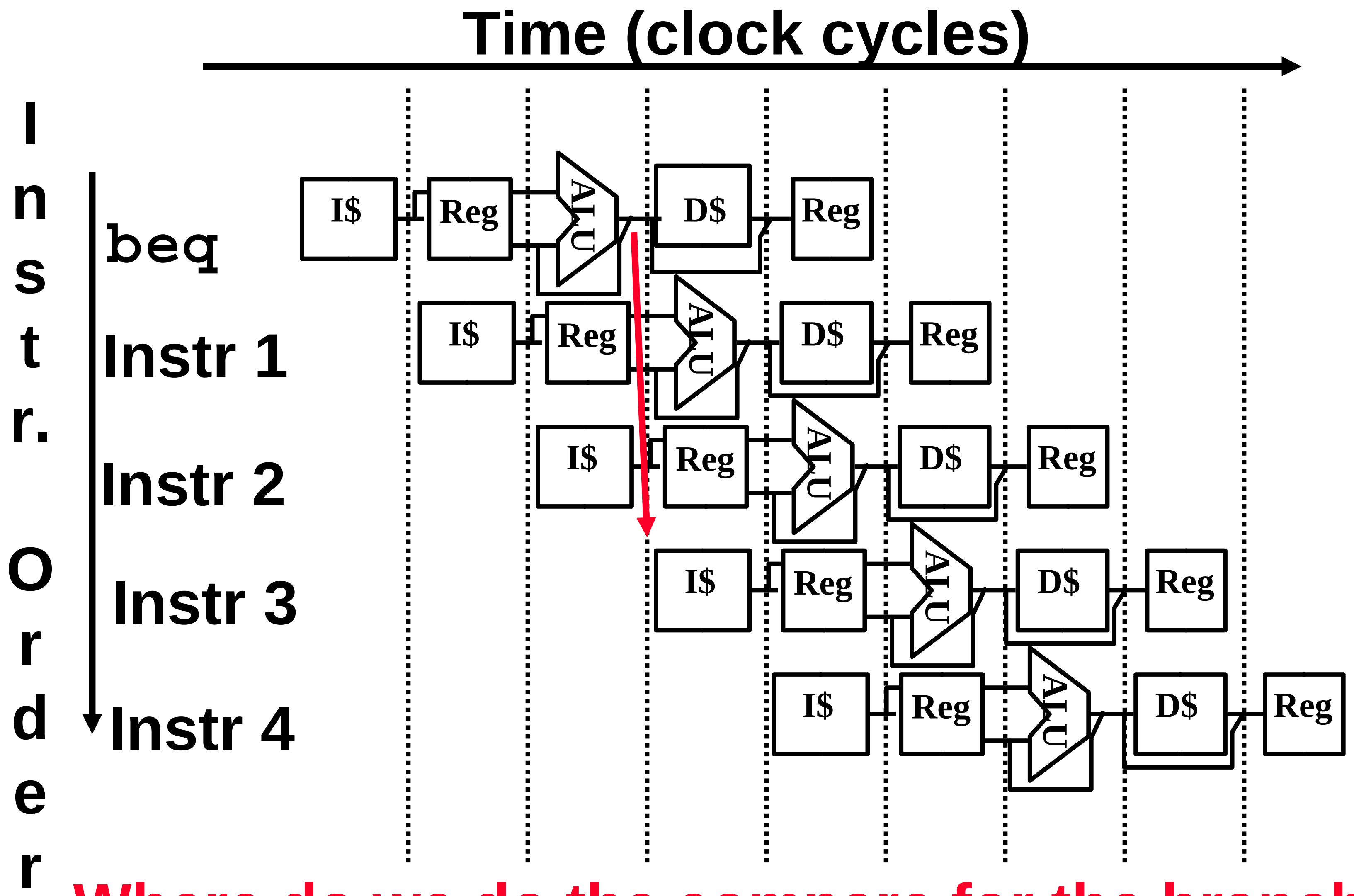


Can’t read and write to registers simultaneously

Structural Hazard #2: Registers (2/2)

- Fact: Register access is *VERY* fast: takes less than half the time of ALU stage
- Solution: introduce convention
  - always Write to Registers during first half of each clock cycle
  - always Read from Registers during second half of each clock cycle (easy when async)
  - Result: can perform Read and Write during same clock cycle

Control Hazard: Branching (1/7)



Where do we do the compare for the branch?

Control Hazard: Branching (2/7)

- We put branch decision-making hardware in ALU stage
  - therefore two more instructions after the branch will *always* be fetched, whether or not the branch is taken
- Desired functionality of a branch
  - if we do not take the branch, don’t waste any time and continue executing normally
  - if we take the branch, don’t execute any instructions after the branch, just go to the desired label

Control Hazard: Branching (3/7)

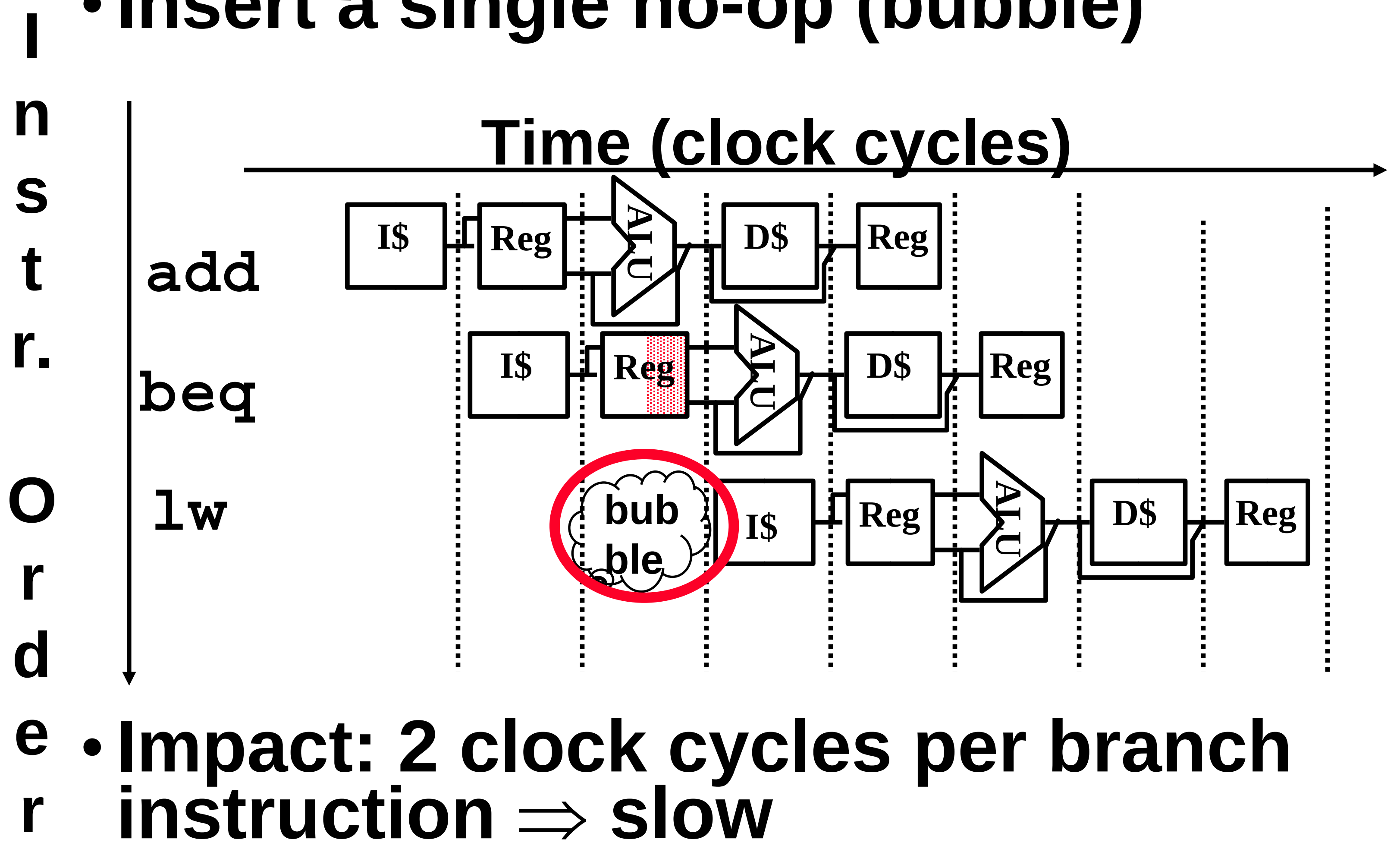
- Initial Solution: Stall until decision is made
    - insert “no-op” instructions: those that accomplish nothing, just take time
    - Drawback: branches take 3 clock cycles each (assuming comparator is put in ALU stage)
    - Drawback: Will still fetch inst at branch+4. Must either decode branch in IF or squash fetched branch+4.

Control Hazard: Branching (4/7)

- Optimization #1:
  - move asynchronous comparator up to Stage 2
  - as soon as instruction is decoded (Opcode identifies is as a branch), immediately make a decision and set the value of the PC (if necessary)
  - Benefit: since branch is complete in Stage 2, only one unnecessary instruction is fetched, so only one no-op is needed
  - Side Note: This means that branches are idle in Stages 3, 4 and 5.

Control Hazard: Branching (5/7)

- Insert a single no-op (bubble)



- Impact: 2 clock cycles per branch instruction ⇒ slow

Control Hazard: Branching (6/7)

- Optimization #2: Redefine branches
    - Old definition: if we take the branch, none of the instructions after the branch get executed by accident
    - New definition: whether or not we take the branch, the single instruction immediately following the branch gets executed (called the branch-delay slot)

Control Hazard: Branching (7/7)

- Notes on Branch-Delay Slot
  - Worst-Case Scenario: can always put a no-op in the branch-delay slot
  - Better Case: can find an instruction preceding the branch which can be placed in the branch-delay slot without affecting flow of the program
    - re-ordering instructions is a common method of speeding up programs
    - compiler must be very smart in order to find instructions to do this
    - usually can find such an instruction at least 50% of the time
    - Jumps also have a delay slot…

Example: Nondelayed vs. Delayed Branch

Nondelayed Branch

```
 or    $8, $9 ,$10

 add $1 ,$2,$3

 sub $4, $5,$6

 beq $1, $4, Exit

 xor $10, $1,$11

Exit:
```

Delayed Branch

```
 add $1 ,$2,$3

 sub $4, $5,$6

 beq $1, $4, Exit

 or    $8, $9 ,$10

 xor $10, $1,$11

Exit:
```

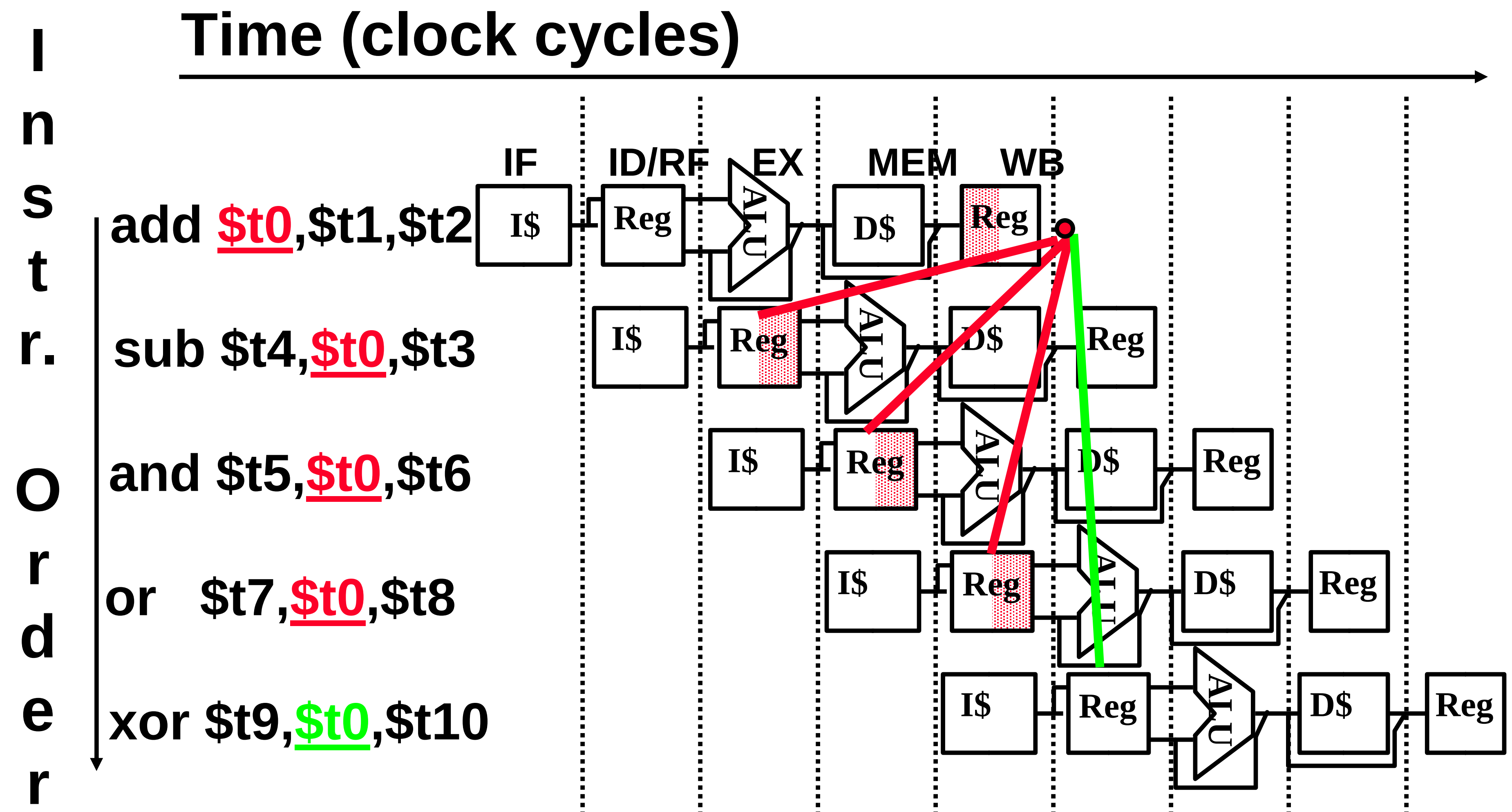
Data Hazards (1/2)

- Consider the following sequence of instructions

```
add $t0, $t1, $t2
sub $t4, $t0 ,$t3
and $t5, $t0 ,$t6
or  $t7, $t0 ,$t8
xor $t9, $t0 ,$t10
```

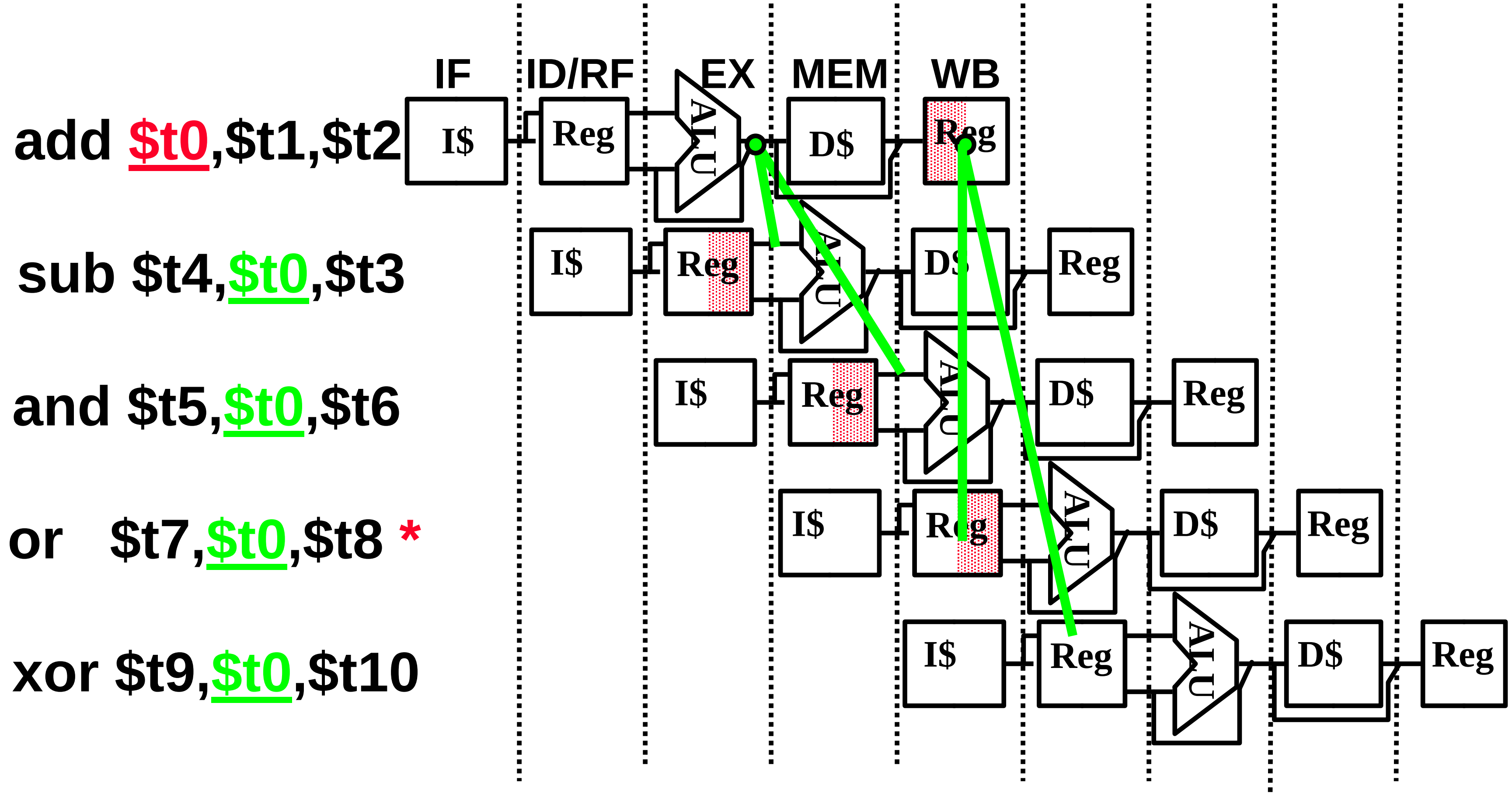
Data Hazards (2/2)

$t0 not written back in time!



Data Hazard Solution: Forwarding

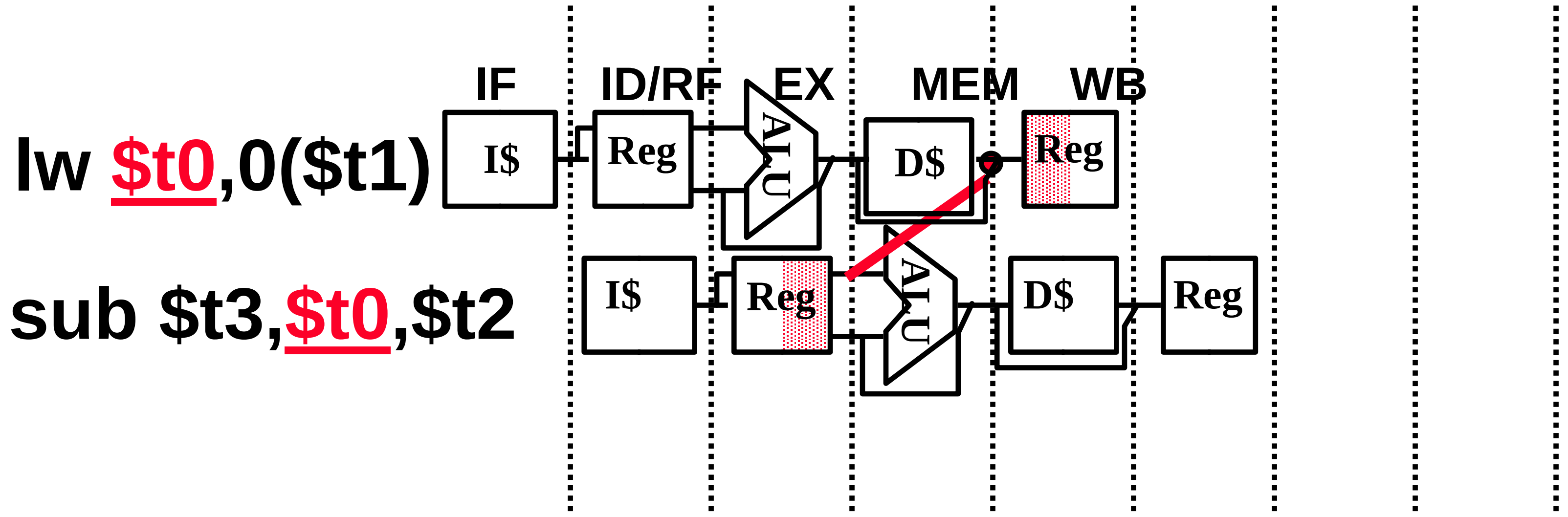
Fix by Forwarding result as soon as we have it to where we need it:



* "or" hazard solved by register hardware

Data Hazard: Loads (1/4)

• Forwarding works if value is available (but not written back) before it is needed. But consider …



•Need result before it is calculated!

•Must stall use (sub) 1 cycle and *then* forward. …

Data Hazard: Loads (2/4)

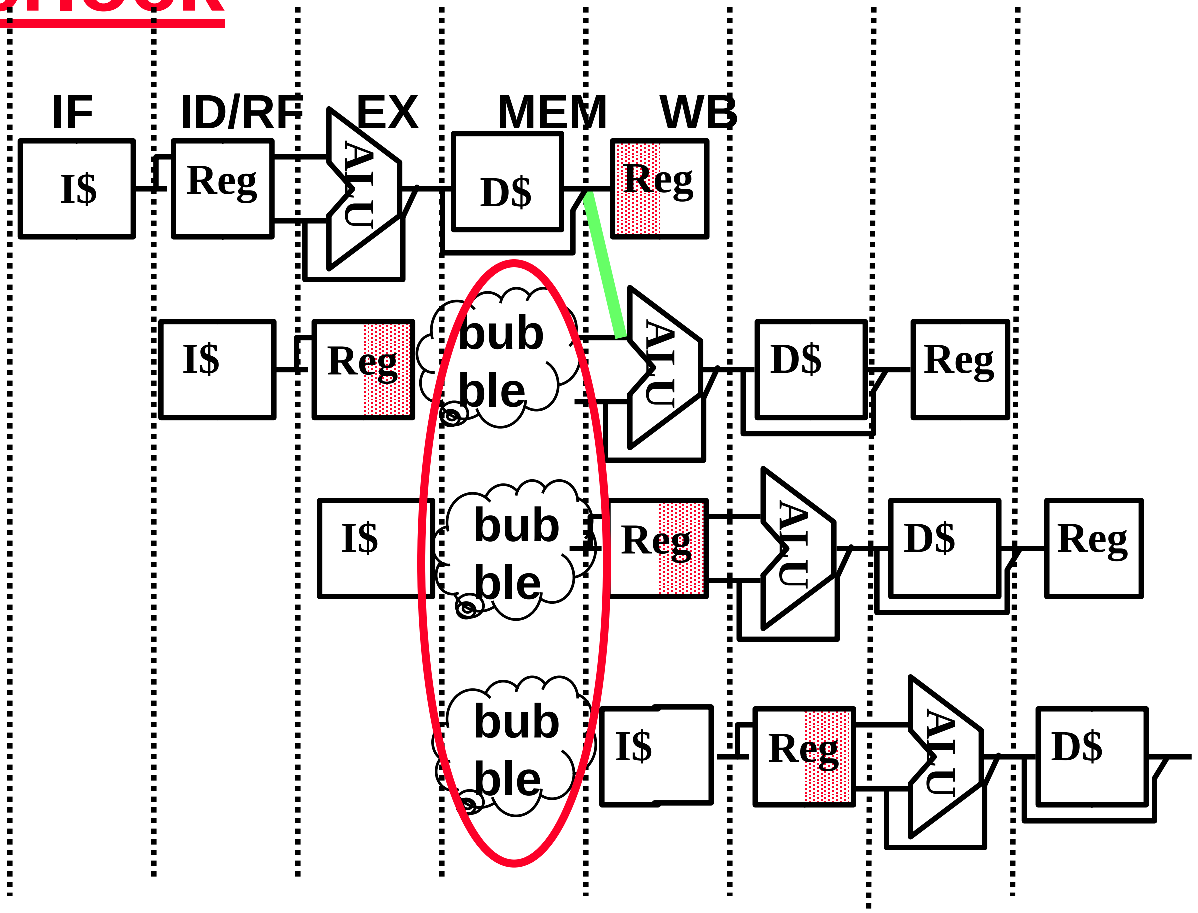
- Hardware must stall pipeline
- Called "interlock"

lw $t0, 0($t1)

sub $t3,$t0,$t2

and $t5,$t0,$t4

or $t7,$t0,$t6



Data Hazard: Loads (3/4)

- Instruction slot after a load is called "<u>load delay slot</u>"
- If that instruction uses the result of the load, then the hardware interlock will stall it for one cycle.
- If the compiler puts an unrelated instruction in that slot, then no stall
- Letting the hardware stall the instruction in the delay slot is equivalent to putting a nop in the slot (except the latter uses more code space)

Data Hazard: Loads (4/4)

- Stall is equivalent to nop

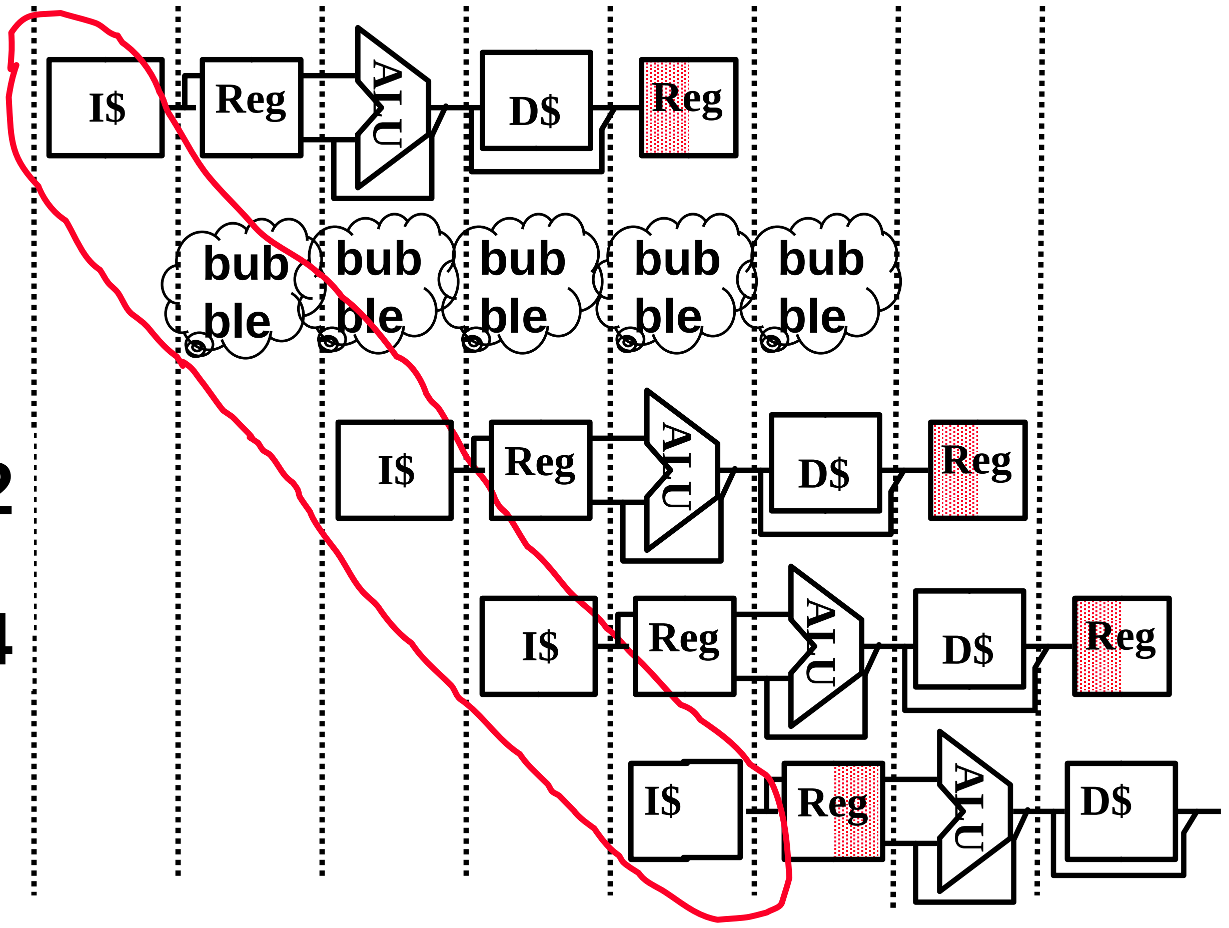
lw $t0, 0($t1)

nop

sub $t3,$t0,$t2

and $t5,$t0,$t4

or $t7,$t0,$t6



C.f. Branch Delay vs. Load Delay

- Load Delay occurs only if necessary (dependent instructions).
- Branch Delay always happens (part of the ISA).
- Why not have Branch Delay interlocked?
  - Answer: Interlocks only work if you can detect hazard ahead of time. By the time we detect a branch, we already need its value … hence no interlock is possible!

Historical Trivia

- First MIPS design did not interlock and stall on load-use data hazard
- Real reason for name behind MIPS:
  Microprocessor without
  Interlocked
  Pipeline
  Stages
  - Word Play on acronym for Millions of Instructions Per Second, also called MIPS
  - Load/Use → Wrong Answer!

“And in Conclusion..”

- Pipeline challenge is hazards
- Forwarding helps w/many data hazards
- Delayed branch helps with control hazard in 5 stage pipeline

- Monday: Pipelined Datapath and Control in Detail!
  - Please finish phase 1 of proj 3 by Monday.