Instruction Pipelining Review

- Instruction pipelining is CPU implementation technique where multiple operations on a number of instructions are overlapped.

- An instruction execution pipeline involves a number of steps, where each step completes a part of an instruction. Each step is called a pipeline stage or a pipeline segment.

- The stages or steps are connected in a linear fashion: one stage to the next to form the pipeline -- instructions enter at one end and progress through the stages and exit at the other end.

- The time to move an instruction one step down the pipeline is equal to the machine cycle and is determined by the stage with the longest processing delay.

- Pipelining increases the CPU instruction throughput: The number of instructions completed per cycle.
  - Under ideal conditions (no stall cycles), instruction throughput is one instruction per machine cycle, or ideal CPI = 1

- Pipelining does not reduce the execution time of an individual instruction: The time needed to complete all processing steps of an instruction (also called instruction completion latency).
  - Minimum instruction latency = n cycles, where n is the number of pipeline stages

(In Appendix A)
MIPS In-Order Single-Issue Integer Pipeline
Ideal Operation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instruction Number</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instruction I</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction I+1</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction I+2</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction I+3</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction I+4</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

MIPS Pipeline Stages:
- **IF** = Instruction Fetch
- **ID** = Instruction Decode
- **EX** = Execution
- **MEM** = Memory Access
- **WB** = Write Back

First instruction, I Completed

Last instruction, I+4 completed

5 pipeline stages

Ideal CPI = 1

Time to fill the pipeline

(In Appendix A)
The pipeline can be thought of as a series of datapaths shifted in time.

(In Appendix A)
A Pipelined MIPS Integer Datapath

- Assume register writes occur in first half of cycle and register reads occur in second half.

The datapath is pipelined by adding a set of registers, one between each pair of pipe stages.

(In Appendix A)
Events on every stage of the MIPS integer pipeline.

(In Appendix A)
Pipelining Performance Example

• Example: For an unpipelined CPU:
  - Clock cycle = 1ns, 4 cycles for ALU operations and branches and 5 cycles for memory operations with instruction frequencies of 40%, 20% and 40%, respectively.
  - If pipelining adds 0.2 ns to the machine clock cycle then the speedup in instruction execution from pipelining is:

Non-pipelined Average instruction execution time = \text{Clock cycle} \times \text{Average CPI}
= 1 \text{ ns} \times ((40\% + 20\%) \times 4 + 40\% \times 5) = 1 \text{ ns} \times 4.4 = 4.4 \text{ ns}

In the pipelined five implementation five stages are used with an average instruction execution time of: 1 ns + 0.2 ns = 1.2 ns

Speedup from pipelining = \frac{\text{Instruction time unpipelined}}{\text{Instruction time pipelined}}
= \frac{4.4 \text{ ns}}{1.2 \text{ ns}} = 3.7 \text{ times faster}
Pipeline Hazards

- Hazards are situations in pipelining which prevent the next instruction in the instruction stream from executing during the designated clock cycle.
- Hazards reduce the ideal speedup gained from pipelining and are classified into three classes:
  - *Structural hazards*: Arise from hardware resource conflicts when the available hardware cannot support all possible combinations of instructions.
  - *Data hazards*: Arise when an instruction depends on the results of a previous instruction in a way that is exposed by the overlapping of instructions in the pipeline.
  - *Control hazards*: Arise from the pipelining of conditional branches and other instructions that change the PC.

(In Appendix A)
Performance of Pipelines with Stalls

• Hazards in pipelines may make it necessary to stall the pipeline by one or more cycles and thus degrading performance from the ideal CPI of 1.

\[
\text{CPI pipelined} = \text{Ideal CPI} + \text{Pipeline stall clock cycles per instruction}
\]

• If pipelining overhead is ignored (no change in clock cycle) and we assume that the stages are perfectly balanced then:

\[
\text{Speedup} = \frac{\text{CPI un-pipelined}}{\text{CPI pipelined}} = \frac{\text{CPI un-pipelined}}{(1 + \text{Pipeline stall cycles per instruction})}
\]
Structural Hazards

• In pipelined machines overlapped instruction execution requires pipelining of functional units and duplication of resources to allow all possible combinations of instructions in the pipeline.

• If a resource conflict arises due to a hardware resource being required by more than one instruction in a single cycle, and one or more such instructions cannot be accommodated, then a structural hazard has occurred, for example:
  – when a machine has only one register file write port
  – or when a pipelined machine has a shared single-memory pipeline for data and instructions.
  → stall the pipeline for one cycle for register writes or memory data access

(In Appendix A)
MIPS with Memory Unit Structural Hazards

A machine with only one memory port will generate a conflict whenever a memory reference occurs.

(In Appendix A)
Resolving A Structural Hazard with Stalling

The structural hazard causes pipeline bubbles to be inserted.

(In Appendix A)
A Structural Hazard Example

- Given that data references are 40% for a specific instruction mix or program, and that the ideal pipelined CPI ignoring hazards is equal to 1.

- A machine with a data memory access structural hazards requires a single stall cycle for data references and has a clock rate 1.05 times higher than the ideal machine. Ignoring other performance losses for this machine:

\[
\text{Average instruction time} = \text{CPI} \times \text{Clock cycle time}_{\text{ideal}}
\]

\[
\text{Average instruction time} = (1 + 0.4 \times 1) \times \frac{\text{Clock cycle time}_{\text{ideal}}}{1.05}
\]

\[
= 1.3 \times \text{Clock cycle time}_{\text{ideal}}
\]
Data Hazards

- Data hazards occur when the pipeline changes the order of read/write accesses to instruction operands in such a way that the resulting access order differs from the original sequential instruction operand access order of the unpipelined machine resulting in incorrect execution.

- Data hazards usually require one or more instructions to be stalled to ensure correct execution.

- Example:

  DADD R1, R2, R3
  DSUB R4, R1, R5
  AND R6, R1, R7
  OR R8, R1, R9
  XOR R10, R1, R11

  - All the instructions after DADD use the result of the DADD instruction
  - DSUB, AND instructions need to be stalled for correct execution.

(In Appendix A)
Figure A.6 The use of the result of the DADD instruction in the next three instructions causes a hazard, since the register is not written until after those instructions read it.

(In Appendix A)
Minimizing Data hazard Stalls by Forwarding

- Forwarding is a hardware-based technique (also called register bypassing or short-circuiting) used to eliminate or minimize data hazard stalls.

- Using forwarding hardware, the result of an instruction is copied directly from where it is produced (ALU, memory read port etc.), to where subsequent instructions need it (ALU input register, memory write port etc.)

- For example, in the MIPS integer pipeline with forwarding:
  - The ALU result from the EX/MEM register may be forwarded or fed back to the ALU input latches as needed instead of the register operand value read in the ID stage.
  - Similarly, the Data Memory Unit result from the MEM/WB register may be fed back to the ALU input latches as needed.
  - If the forwarding hardware detects that a previous ALU operation is to write the register corresponding to a source for the current ALU operation, control logic selects the forwarded result as the ALU input rather than the value read from the register file.
Forwarding of results to the ALU requires the addition of three extra inputs on each ALU multiplexer and the addition of three paths to the new inputs.
A set of instructions that depend on the DADD result uses forwarding paths to avoid the data hazard

(In Appendix A)
Load/Store Forwarding Example

Forwarding of operand required by stores during MEM
Data Hazard Classification

Given two instructions \( I, J \), with \( I \) occurring before \( J \) in an instruction stream:

- **RAW (read after write):** A true data dependence
  \( J \) tried to read a source before \( I \) writes to it, so \( J \) incorrectly gets the old value.

- **WAW (write after write):** A name dependence
  \( J \) tries to write an operand before it is written by \( I \)
  The writes end up being performed in the wrong order.

- **WAR (write after read):** A name dependence
  \( J \) tries to write to a destination before it is read by \( I \),
  so \( I \) incorrectly gets the new value.

- **RAR (read after read):** Not a hazard.
Data Hazard Classification

$I$ (Write) → Shared Operand → $J$ (Read) → $I$ (Write) → Shared Operand → $J$ (Write) → Write after Write (WAW)

$I$ (Read) → Shared Operand → $J$ (Write) → $I$ (Write) → Shared Operand → $J$ (Read) → Read after Read (RAR) not a hazard

$J$ (Read) → Shared Operand → $I$ (Write) → $J$ (Write) → Shared Operand → $I$ (Read) → Write after Read (WAR)
Data Hazards Present in Current MIPS Pipeline

• **Read after Write (RAW) Hazards:** Possible?
  – Results from true data dependencies between instructions.
  – Yes possible, when an instruction requires an operand generated by a preceding instruction with distance less than four.
  – Resolved by:
    • Forwarding or Stalling.

• **Write after Read (WAR):**
  – Results when an instruction overwrites the result of an instruction before all preceding instructions have read it.

• **Write after Write (WAW):**
  – Results when an instruction writes into a register or memory location before a preceding instruction have written its result.

• **Possible?** Both WAR and WAW are impossible in the current pipeline. Why?
  – Pipeline processes instructions in the same sequential order as in the program.
  – All instruction operand reads are completed before a following instruction overwrites the operand.
    → Thus WAR is impossible in current MIPS pipeline.
  – All instruction result writes are done in the same program order.
    → Thus WAW is impossible in current MIPS pipeline.
Data Hazards Requiring Stall Cycles

- In some code sequence cases, potential data hazards cannot be handled by bypassing. For example:
  
  LD R1, 0 (R2)
  DSUB R4, R1, R5
  AND R6, R1, R7
  OR R8, R1, R9

- The LD (load double word) instruction has the data in clock cycle 4 (MEM cycle).

- The DSUB instruction needs the data of R1 in the beginning of that cycle.

- Hazard prevented by hardware pipeline interlock causing a stall cycle.
The load instruction can bypass its results to the AND and OR instructions, but not to the SUB, since that would mean forwarding the result in "negative time."

(In Appendix A)
Hardware Pipeline Interlocks

• A hardware pipeline interlock detects a data hazard and stalls the pipeline until the hazard is cleared.

• The CPI for the stalled instruction increases by the length of the stall.

• For the Previous example, (no stall cycle):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instruction</th>
<th>IF</th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>EX</th>
<th>MEM</th>
<th>WB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LD R1, 0(R1)</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSUB R4, R1, R5</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AND R6, R1, R7</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OR R8, R1, R9</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With Stall Cycle:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instruction</th>
<th>IF</th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>EX</th>
<th>MEM</th>
<th>WB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LD R1, 0(R1)</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSUB R4, R1, R5</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>STALL</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AND R6, R1, R7</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>STALL</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OR R8, R1, R9</td>
<td>STALL</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(In Appendix A)
The load interlock causes a stall to be inserted at clock cycle 4, delaying the SUB instruction and those that follow by one cycle.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situation</th>
<th>Example code sequence</th>
<th>Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No dependence</td>
<td>LW R1, 45 (R2)</td>
<td>No hazard possible because no dependence exists on R1 in the immediately following three instructions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ADD R5, R6, R7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SUB R8, R6, R7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OR R9, R6, R7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependence requiring stall</td>
<td>LW R1, 45 (R2)</td>
<td>Comparators detect the use of R1 in the ADD and stall the ADD (and SUB and OR) before the ADD begins EX.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ADD R5, R1, R7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SUB R8, R6, R7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OR R9, R6, R7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependence overcome by</td>
<td>LW R1, 45 (R2)</td>
<td>Comparators detect use of R1 in SUB and forward result of load to ALU in time for SUB to begin EX.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>forwarding</td>
<td>ADD R5, R6, R7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SUB R8, R1, R7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OR R9, R6, R7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependence with accesses in</td>
<td>LW R1, 45 (R2)</td>
<td>No action required because the read of R1 by OR occurs in the second half of the ID phase, while the write of the loaded data occurred in the first half.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>order</td>
<td>ADD R5, R6, R7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SUB R8, R6, R7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OR R9, R1, R7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Situations that the pipeline hazard detection hardware can see by comparing the destination and sources of adjacent instructions.
Compiler Instruction Scheduling for Data Hazard Stall Reduction

• Many types of stalls resulting from data hazards are very frequent. For example:

\[ A = B + C \]

produces a stall when loading the second data value (B).

• Rather than allow the pipeline to stall, the compiler could sometimes schedule the pipeline to avoid stalls.

• Compiler pipeline or instruction scheduling involves rearranging the code sequence (instruction reordering) to eliminate the hazard.

(In Appendix A)
Compiler Instruction Scheduling Example

- For the code sequence:
  
  \[
  a = b + c \\
  d = e - f
  \]

- Assuming loads have a latency of one clock cycle, the following code or pipeline compiler schedule eliminates stalls:

Original code with stalls:

- \texttt{LD Rb,b}
- \texttt{LD Rc,c}
- \texttt{DADD Ra,Rb,Rc}
- \texttt{SD Ra,a}
- \texttt{LD Re,e}
- \texttt{LD Rf,f}
- \texttt{DADD Rd,Re,Rf}
- \texttt{SD Rd,d}

Scheduled code with no stalls:

- \texttt{LD Rb,b}
- \texttt{LD Rc,c}
- \texttt{LD Re,e}
- \texttt{DADD Ra,Rb,Rc}
- \texttt{SD Ra,a}
- \texttt{LD Rf,f}
- \texttt{SD Rd,d}
Control Hazards

• When a conditional branch is executed it may change the PC and, without any special measures, leads to stalling the pipeline for a number of cycles until the branch condition is known.

• In current MIPS pipeline, the conditional branch is resolved in the MEM stage resulting in three stall cycles as shown below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Branch instruction</th>
<th>IF</th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>EX</th>
<th>MEM</th>
<th>WB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Branch successor</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>stall</td>
<td>stall</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branch successor + 1</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branch successor + 2</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branch successor + 3</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branch successor + 4</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branch successor + 5</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Assuming we stall on a branch instruction:

Three clock cycles are wasted for every branch for current MIPS pipeline

Branch Penalty = 3 Cycles
Reducing Branch Stall Cycles

Pipeline hardware measures to reduce branch stall cycles:

1. Find out whether a branch is taken earlier in the pipeline.
2. Compute the taken PC earlier in the pipeline.

In MIPS:

- In MIPS branch instructions BEQZ, BNE, test a register for equality to zero.
- This can be completed in the ID cycle by moving the zero test into that cycle.
- Both PCs (taken and not taken) must be computed early.
- Requires an additional adder because the current ALU is not useable until EX cycle.
- This results in just a single cycle stall on branches.
The stall from branch hazards can be reduced by moving the zero test and branch target calculation into the ID phase of the pipeline.

(In Appendix A)
Compile-Time Reduction of Branch Penalties

• One scheme discussed earlier is to flush or freeze the pipeline by whenever a conditional branch is decoded by holding or deleting any instructions in the pipeline until the branch destination is known (zero pipeline registers, control lines).

• Another method is to predict that the branch is not taken where the state of the machine is not changed until the branch outcome is definitely known. Execution here continues with the next instruction; stall occurs here when the branch is taken.

• Another method is to predict that the branch is taken and begin fetching and executing at the target; stall occurs here if the branch is not taken.

• Delayed Branch: An instruction following the branch in a branch delay slot is executed whether the branch is taken or not.
## Predict Branch Not-Taken Scheme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Untaken branch instruction</th>
<th>IF</th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>EX</th>
<th>MEM</th>
<th>WB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instruction ( i + 1 )</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction ( i + 2 )</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction ( i + 3 )</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction ( i + 4 )</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Taken branch instruction</th>
<th>IF</th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>EX</th>
<th>MEM</th>
<th>WB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instruction ( i + 1 )</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>idle</td>
<td>idle</td>
<td>idle</td>
<td>idle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branch target</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branch target + 1</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branch target + 2</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The predict-not-taken scheme and the pipeline sequence when the branch is untaken (top) and taken (bottom).

Pipeline stall cycles from branches = frequency of taken branches X branch penalty
Static Compiler Branch Prediction

Two basic methods exist to statically predict branches at compile time:

1. By examination of program behavior and the use of information collected from earlier runs of the program.
   - For example, a program profile may show that most forward branches and backward branches (often forming loops) are taken. The simplest scheme in this case is to just predict the branch as taken.

2. To predict branches on the basis of branch direction, choosing backward branches as taken and forward branches as not taken.
Profile-Based Compiler Branch Misprediction Rates for SPEC92

Figure 3.36 Misprediction rate for a profile-based predictor varies widely but is generally better for the FP programs, which have an average misprediction rate of 9% with a standard deviation of 4%, than for the integer programs, which have an average misprediction rate of 15% with a standard deviation of 5%.
Reduction of Branch Penalties: Delayed Branch

- When delayed branch is used, the branch is delayed by \( n \) cycles, following this execution pattern:
  - conditional branch instruction
  - sequential successor\(_1\)
  - sequential successor\(_2\)
  - \..........\n  - sequential successor\(_n\)
  - branch target if taken

- The sequential successor instruction are said to be in the branch delay slots. These instructions are executed whether or not the branch is taken.

- In Practice, all machines that utilize delayed branching have a single instruction delay slot.

- The job of the compiler is to make the successor instructions valid and useful instructions.
### Delayed Branch Example

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Untaken branch instruction</th>
<th>IF</th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>EX</th>
<th>MEM</th>
<th>WB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Branch delay instruction ((i + 1))</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction (i + 2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction (i + 3)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction (i + 4)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Taken branch instruction</th>
<th>IF</th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>EX</th>
<th>MEM</th>
<th>WB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Branch delay instruction ((i + 1))</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branch target</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branch target + 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branch target + 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The behavior of a delayed branch is the same whether or not the branch is taken.
Delayed Branch-delay Slot Scheduling Strategies

The branch-delay slot instruction can be chosen from three cases:

A An independent instruction from before the branch:
    Always improves performance when used. The branch must not depend on the rescheduled instruction.

B An instruction from the target of the branch:
    Improves performance if the branch is taken and may require instruction duplication. This instruction must be safe to execute if the branch is not taken.

C An instruction from the fall through instruction stream:
    Improves performance when the branch is not taken. The instruction must be safe to execute when the branch is taken.

The performance and usability of cases B, C is improved by using a canceling or nullifying branch.
FIGURE 3.28 Scheduling the branch-delay slot.

(In Appendix A)
Branch-delay Slot: Canceling Branches

• In a canceling branch, a static compiler branch direction prediction is included with the branch-delay slot instruction.

• When the branch goes as predicted, the instruction in the branch delay slot is executed normally.

• When the branch does not go as predicted the instruction is turned into a no-op.

• Canceling branches eliminate the conditions on instruction selection in delay instruction strategies B, C

• The effectiveness of this method depends on whether we predict the branch correctly.
### Scheduling strategy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scheduling strategy</th>
<th>Requirements</th>
<th>Improves performance when?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) From before branch</td>
<td>Branch must not depend on the rescheduled instructions.</td>
<td>Always.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) From target</td>
<td>Must be OK to execute rescheduled instructions if branch is not taken.</td>
<td>When branch is taken. May enlarge program if instructions are duplicated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) From fall through</td>
<td>Must be OK to execute instructions if branch is taken.</td>
<td>When branch is not taken.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Delayed-branch scheduling schemes and their requirements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Untaken branch instruction</th>
<th>IF</th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>EX</th>
<th>MEM</th>
<th>WB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Branch delay instruction ((i + 1))</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>idle</td>
<td>idle</td>
<td>idle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction (i + 2)</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction (i + 3)</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction (i + 4)</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Taken branch instruction</th>
<th>IF</th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>EX</th>
<th>MEM</th>
<th>WB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Branch delay instruction ((i + 1))</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branch target</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branch target + 1</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branch target + 2</td>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The behavior of a predicted-taken cancelling branch depends on whether the branch is taken or not.
### Performance Using Canceling Delay Branches

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benchmark</th>
<th>% conditional branches</th>
<th>% conditional branches with empty slots</th>
<th>% conditional branches that are cancelling</th>
<th>% cancelling branches that are cancelled</th>
<th>% branches with cancelled delay slots</th>
<th>Total % branches with empty or cancelled delay slot</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>compress</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eqntott</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>espresso</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gcc</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>li</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>55%</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integer average</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>doduc</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ear</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hydro2d</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>69%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mdljdp2</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>86%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>su2cor</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>57%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FP average</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall average</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Delayed and cancelling delay branches for DLX allow branch hazards to be hidden 70% of the time on average for these 10 SPEC benchmarks.
Pipeline Performance Example

- Assume the following MIPS instruction mix:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arith/Logic</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Load</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Store</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>branch</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- What is the resulting CPI for the pipelined MIPS with forwarding and branch address calculation in ID stage when using a branch not-taken scheme?

\[
\text{CPI} = \text{Ideal CPI} + \text{Pipeline stall clock cycles per instruction} \\
= 1 + \text{stalls by loads} + \text{stalls by branches} \\
= 1 + .3 \times .25 \times 1 + .2 \times .45 \times 1 \\
= 1 + .075 + .09 \\
= 1.165
\]
The MIPS R4000 Integer Pipeline

- Implements MIPS64 but uses an 8-stage pipeline instead of the classic 5-stage pipeline to achieve a higher clock speed.

Pipeline Stages:
- IF: First half of instruction fetch. Start instruction cache access.
- IS: Second half of instruction fetch. Complete instruction cache access.
- RF: Instruction decode and register fetch, hazard checking.
- EX: Execution including branch-target and condition evaluation.
- DF: Data fetch, first half of data cache access. Data available if a hit.
- DS: Second half of data fetch access. Complete data cache access. Data available if a cache hit
- TC: Tag check, determine data cache access hit.
- WB: Write back for loads and register-register operations.
• Even with forwarding the deeper pipeline leads to a 2-cycle load delay.

(In Appendix A)
MIPS R4000 Branch Penalty

- In the MIPS R4000 pipeline, it takes three pipeline stages before the branch target address is known and an additional cycle before the branch condition is evaluated.

- Assuming no stalls on the registers in the conditional comparison. The branch penalty for basic branch prediction schemes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Branch Scheme</th>
<th>Penalty unconditional</th>
<th>Penalty untaken</th>
<th>Penalty taken</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Flush pipeline</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Predict taken</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Predict untaken</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Predict untaken</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(with delay slot)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Pipelining and Handling of Exceptions

• Exceptions are events that usually occur in normal program execution where the normal execution order of the instructions is changed (often called: interrupts, faults).

• Types of exceptions include:
  • I/O device request
  • Invoking an operating system service
  • Tracing instruction execution
  • Breakpoint (programmer-requested interrupt).
  • Integer overflow or underflow
  • FP anomaly
  • Page fault (not in main memory)
  • Misaligned memory access
  • Memory protection violation
  • Undefined instruction
  • Hardware malfunctions
Characteristics of Exceptions

• Synchronous vs. asynchronous:
  Synchronous: occurs at the same place with the same data and memory allocation
  Asynchronous: Caused by devices external to the processor and memory.

• User requested vs. coerced:
  User requested: The user task requests the event.
  Coerced: Caused by some hardware event.

• User maskable vs. user nonmaskable:
  User maskable: Can be disabled by the user task using a mask.

• Within vs. between instructions:
  Whether it prevents instruction completion by happening in the middle of execution.

• Resuming vs. terminating:
  Terminating: The program execution always stops after the event.
  Resuming: the program continues after the event. The state of the pipeline must be saved to handle this type of exception. The pipeline is restartable in this case.
Handling of Resuming Exceptions

- A resuming exception (e.g. a virtual memory page fault) usually requires the intervention of the operating system.

- The pipeline must be safely shut down and its state saved for the execution to resume after the exception is handled as follows:

1. Force a trap instruction into the pipeline on the next IF.

2. Turn off all writes for the faulting instruction and all instructions in the pipeline. Place zeroes into pipeline latches starting with the instruction that caused the fault to prevent state changes.

3. The execution handling routine of the operating system saves the PC of the faulting instruction and other state data to be used to return from the exception.
Exception Handling Issues

- When using delayed branches, as many PCs as the length of the branch delay plus one need to be saved and restored to restore the state of the machine.

- After the exception has been handled special instructions are needed to return the machine to the state before the exception occurred (RFE, Return to User code in MIPS).

- **Precise exceptions** imply that a pipeline is stopped so the instructions just before the faulting instruction are completed and those after it can be restarted from scratch.

- Machines with arithmetic trap handlers and demand paging must support precise exceptions.
Exceptions in MIPS Integer Pipeline

- The following represent problem exceptions for the MIPS 5 pipeline stages:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IF</th>
<th>Page fault on instruction fetch; misaligned memory access; memory-protection violation.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ID</td>
<td>Undefined or illegal opcode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EX</td>
<td>Arithmetic exception</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>Page fault on data fetch; misaligned memory access; memory-protection violation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WB</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Example: LD IF ID EX MEM WB DADD IF ID EX MEM WB can cause a data page fault and an arithmetic exception at the same time (LD in MEM and DADD in EX).

Handled by dealing with data page fault and then restarting execution, then the second exception will occur but not the first.
Precise Exception Handling in MIPS

• The instruction pipeline is required to handle exceptions of instruction $i$ before those of instruction $i+1$.

• The hardware posts all exceptions caused by an instruction in a status vector associated with the instruction which is carried along with the instruction as it goes through the pipeline.

• Once an exception indication is set in the vector, any control signals that cause a data value write is turned off.

• When an instruction enters WB the vector is checked, if any exceptions are posted, they are handled in the order they would be handled in an unpipelined machine.

• Any action taken in earlier pipeline stages is invalid but cannot change the state of the machine since writes where disabled.
Floating Point/Multicycle Pipelining in MIPS

• Completion of MIPS EX stage floating point arithmetic operations in one or two cycles is impractical since it requires:
  • A much longer CPU clock cycle, and/or
  • An enormous amount of logic.

• Instead, the floating-point pipeline will allow for a longer latency.

• Floating-point operations have the same pipeline stages as the integer instructions with the following differences:
  – The EX cycle may be repeated as many times as needed.
  – There may be multiple floating-point functional units.
  – A stall will occur if the instruction to be issued either causes a structural hazard for the functional unit or cause a data hazard.

• The latency of functional units is defined as the number of intervening cycles between an instruction producing the result and the instruction that uses the result (usually equals stall cycles with forwarding used).

• The initiation or repeat interval is the number of cycles that must elapse between issuing an instruction of a given type.
Extending The MIPS Pipeline to Handle Floating-Point Operations:

Adding Non-Pipelined Floating Point Units

The DLX pipeline with three additional unpipelined, floating-point, functional units.

(In Appendix A)
Extending The MIPS Pipeline: Multiple Outstanding Floating Point Operations

Latency = 6  
Initiation Interval = 1  
Pipelined

Latency = 3  
Initiation Interval = 1  
Pipelined

Latency = 0  
Initiation Interval = 1

Hazards:  
RAW, WAW possible  
WAR Not Possible  
Structural: Possible  
Control: Possible

A pipeline that supports multiple outstanding FP operations.

(In Appendix A)
# Latencies and Initiation Intervals For Functional Units

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Functional Unit</th>
<th>Latency</th>
<th>Initiation Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Integer ALU</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data Memory</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Integer and FP Loads)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FP add</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FP multiply</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(also integer multiply)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FP divide</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(also integer divide)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Latency usually equals stall cycles when full forwarding is used. (In Appendix A)
Pipeline Characteristics With FP Support

- Instructions are still processed in-order in IF, ID, EX at the rate of one instruction per cycle.
- Longer RAW hazard stalls likely due to long FP latencies.
- Structural hazards possible due to varying instruction times and FP latencies:
  - FP unit may not be available; divide in this case.
  - MEM, WB reached by several instructions simultaneously.
- WAW hazards can occur since it is possible for instructions to reach WB out-of-order.
- WAR hazards impossible, since register reads occur in-order in ID.
- Instructions are allowed to complete out-of-order requiring special measures to enforce precise exceptions.

(In Appendix A)
## FP Operations Pipeline Timing Example

All above instructions are assumed independent

*(In Appendix A)*
FP Code RAW Hazard Stalls Example
(with full data forwarding in place)

6 stall cycles which equals latency of FP add functional unit

Third stall due to structural hazard in MEM stage

(In Appendix A)
### FP Code Structural Hazards Example

#### MULTD F0, F4, F6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CC 1</th>
<th>CC 2</th>
<th>CC 3</th>
<th>CC 4</th>
<th>CC 5</th>
<th>CC 6</th>
<th>CC 7</th>
<th>CC 8</th>
<th>CC 9</th>
<th>CC 10</th>
<th>CC 11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>M1</td>
<td>M2</td>
<td>M3</td>
<td>M4</td>
<td>M5</td>
<td>M6</td>
<td>M7</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### ADDD F2, F4, F6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CC 1</th>
<th>CC 2</th>
<th>CC 3</th>
<th>CC 4</th>
<th>CC 5</th>
<th>CC 6</th>
<th>CC 7</th>
<th>CC 8</th>
<th>CC 9</th>
<th>CC 10</th>
<th>CC 11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>A1</td>
<td>A2</td>
<td>A3</td>
<td>A4</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### LD F2, 0(R2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CC 1</th>
<th>CC 2</th>
<th>CC 3</th>
<th>CC 4</th>
<th>CC 5</th>
<th>CC 6</th>
<th>CC 7</th>
<th>CC 8</th>
<th>CC 9</th>
<th>CC 10</th>
<th>CC 11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IF</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>WB</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Maintaining Precise Exceptions in Multicycle Pipelining

- In the MIPS code segment:
  
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Source(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DIV.D</td>
<td>F0, F2, F4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADD.D</td>
<td>F10, F10, F8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUB.D</td>
<td>F12, F12, F14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- The ADD.D, SUB.D instructions can complete before DIV.D is completed causing out-of-order execution completion.

- If SUB.D causes a floating-point arithmetic exception it may prevent DIV.D from completing and draining the floating-point may not be possible causing an imprecise exception.

- Four approaches have been proposed to remedy this type of situation:
  
  1. Ignore the problem and settle for imprecise exception.
  2. Buffer the results of the operation until all the operations issues earlier are done. (large buffers, multiplexers, comparators)
  3. A history file keeps track of the original values of registers (CYBER180/190, VAX)
  4. A future file keeps the newer value of a register; when all earlier instructions have completed the main register file is updated from the future file. On an exception the main register file has the precise values for the interrupted state.

(In Appendix A)