# Handling Hazards



- Structural hazards
  - Stalling: pipeline interlock
  - Code scheduling
- Data hazards
  - Stalling: pipeline interlock
  - Forwarding
  - Load delay
    - Stalling: pipeline interlock
    - Code scheduling: fill the load delay slot
- Control Hazards
  - Early branch resolution
  - Stalling: flushing the pipeline
  - Delayed branch
  - Predict non taken (or taken)
  - Static branch prediction
  - Dynamic branch prediction

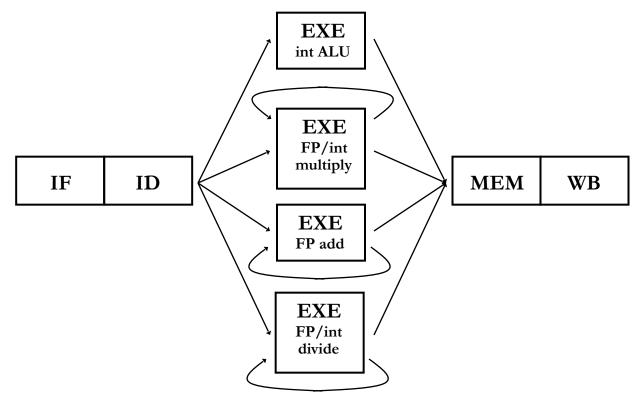


- Recoverable exceptions is a challenge (e.g. pagefault, arithmetic exception)
  - Instructions before must commit
  - Instruction after must be killed
  - Instructions causing exception must be re-executed with same operands
  - Exceptions may overlap in pipeline, or even occur outof-order
- Handling of exception delayed until Instruction reaches last stage.

# **Multicycle Operations**



- Floating point operations take multiple cycles in EXE
- Assume a system with 1 int ALU, 1 FP/int multiplier, 1 FP adder, 1 FP/int divider

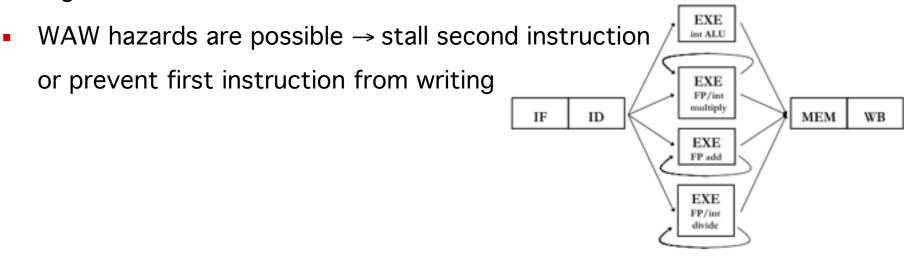




- Instruction latency: cycles to wait for the result of an instruction
  - Usually the number of cycles for the execution pipeline minus 1
  - e.g. 0 cycles for integer ALU since no wait is necessary
- Instruction initiation interval: time to wait to issue another instruction of the same type
  - Not equal to number of cycles, if multicycle operation is pipelined or partially pipelined
- Examples:
  - Integer ALU:
    - 1 EXE cycle  $\rightarrow$  latency = 0; initiation interval = 1
  - FP add, fully pipelined:
    - 4 EXE cycles  $\rightarrow$  latency = 3; initiation interval = 1
  - FP divide, not pipelined: 25 EXE cycles → latency = 24; initiation interval = 25



- Structural hazards can occur when functional unit not fully pipelined (initiation interval > 1) → need to add interlocking
- RAW hazards become longer
- Possibly more than one register write per cycle → either add ports to register file or treat conflict as a hazard and stall
- Possible hazards between integer and FP instructions → use separate register files





for (i=1000; i>0; i--) x[i] = x[i] + s

- Straightforward code and schedule:
  - Assume F2 contains the value of s

```
    Load latency equals 1

                                                 Cycle
   - FP ALU latency 3 to another FP ALU and 2 to a store
                                                   1
              F0,0(R1) ;F0=array element
loop: L.D
                                                   2
                           ;add depends on 1d
      stall
                                                   3
      ADD.D F4,F0,F2
                          ;main computation
                                                   4
      stall
                           ;st depends on add
                                                   5
      stall
                                                   6
      S.D F4,0(R1) ; store result
                                                   7
      DADDUI R1,R1,-8
                          ;decrement index
                                                   8
      stall
                           ; bne depends on add
                                                   9
              R1,R2,loop ;next iteration
      BNE
                                                   10
      stall
                           ;branch delay slot
```



Cycle

- Execution time of straightforward code: 10 cycles/element
- Smart compiler (or human ③) schedule:

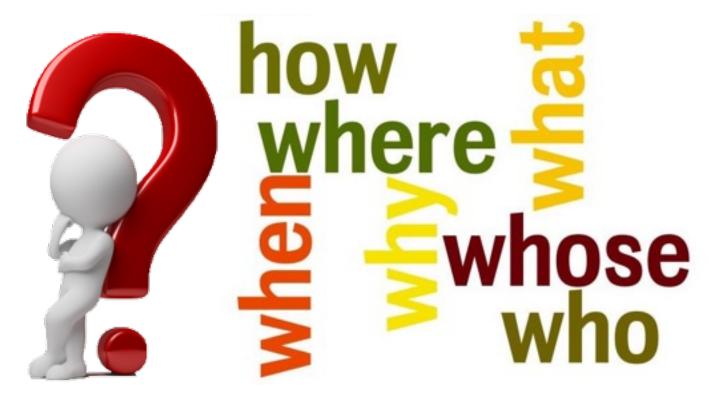
loop:	T. D	F0,0(R1)	;F0=array element	1
1000.		R1,R1,-8	;decrement index	2
		F4,F0,F2	;main computation	3
	stall	, ,	;st depends on add	4
	BNE	R1, R2, loop	;next iteration	5
	S.D	F4,8(R1)	;store result	6

- Immediate offset of store was changed after reordering
- Execution time of scheduled code:

6 cycles/element  $\rightarrow$  Speedup=1.7

Of the 6 cycles, 3 are for actual computation (I.d, add.d, s.d),
 2 are loop overhead (addi, bne), and 1 is a stall





Next topic:

handling control hazards through branch prediction

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- Compiler determines whether branch is likely to be taken or likely to be not taken.
  - How?

When is a branch likely to be taken?
When is a branch likely to be NOT taken?
When is a branch likely to be NOT taken?
When is a branch likely to be NOT taken?

for (i=0;i<1000;i++)
{
 x = a[i];
 if (x==-1)
 {
 break;
 process(x,i);
}



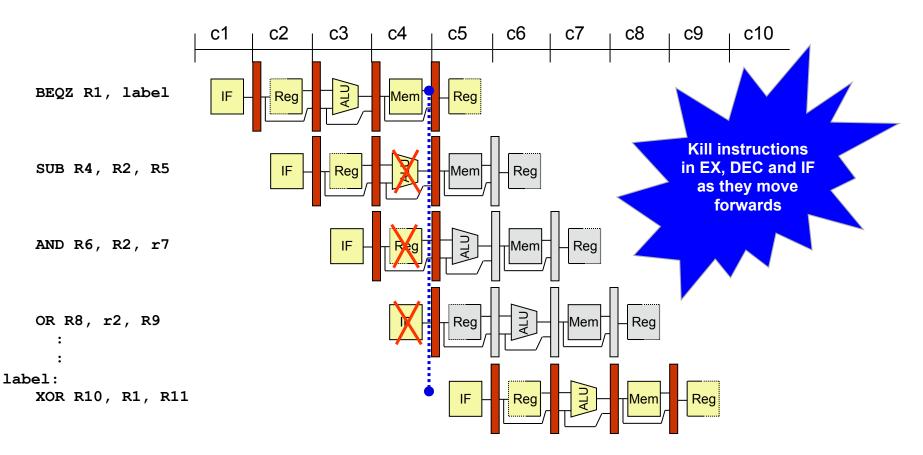


- Compiler determines whether branch is likely to be taken or likely to be not taken.
- Decision is based on analysis or profile information
  - 90% of backward-going branches are taken
  - 50% of forward-going branches are not taken
  - BTFN: "backwards taken, forwards not-taken"
  - Used in ARC 600 and ARM 11
- Decision is encoded in the branch instructions themselves
  - Uses 1 bit: 0 => not likely to branch, 1=> likely to branch
- Prediction may be wrong!
  - Must kill instructions in the pipeline when a bad decision is made
  - Speculatively issued instructions must not change processor state

#### **Recall: Control Hazards**



- When a branch is executed, PC is not affected until the branch instruction reaches the MEM stage.
- By this time 3 instructions have been fetched from the fall-through path.





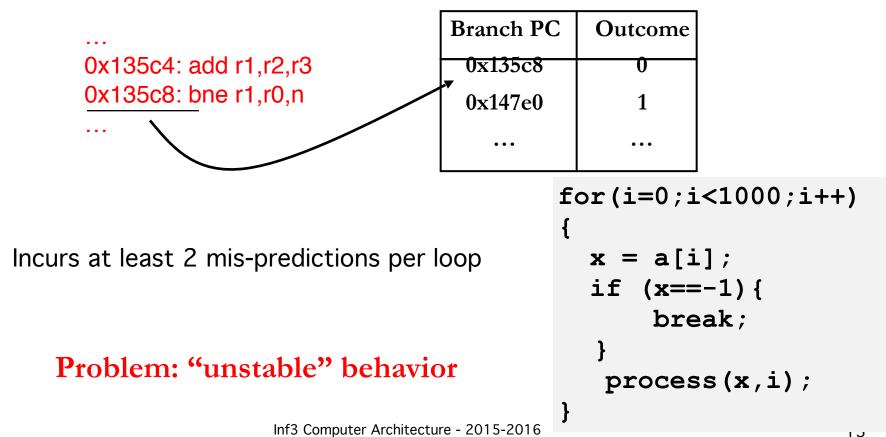
- Monitor branch behavior and learn
  - Key assumption: past behavior indicative of future behavior
- Predict the present (current branch) using learned history
- Identify individual branches by their PC or dynamic branch history
- Predict:
  - Outcome: taken or not taken
  - Target: address of instruction to branch to
- Check actual outcome and update the history
- Squash incorrectly fetched instructions

Simplest dynamic predictor: 1-bit Prediction

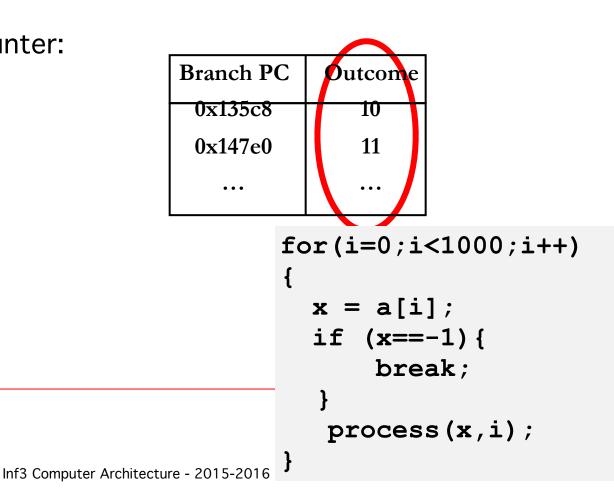


- 1 bit indicating Taken (1) or Not Taken (0)
- Branch prediction buffers:

- Match branch PC during IF or ID stages



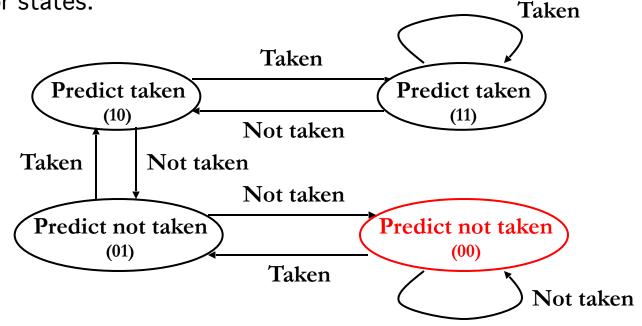
- Idea: add hysteresis
  - Prevent spurious events from affecting the most likely branch outcome
- 2-bit saturating counter:
  - 00: do not take
  - 01: do not take
  - 10: take
  - 11: take





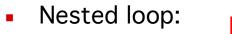


Predictor states:

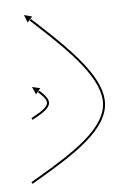


- Learns biased branches
- N-bit predictor:
  - Increment on Taken outcome and decrement on Not Taken outcome
  - If counter> $(2^{n}-1)/2$  then take, otherwise do not take
  - Takes longer to learn, but sticks longer to the prediction









- 1<sup>st</sup> outer loop execution:
  - 00  $\rightarrow$  predict not taken; actually taken  $\rightarrow$  update to 01 (misprediction)
  - 01  $\rightarrow$  predict not taken; actually taken  $\rightarrow$  update to 10 (misprediction)
  - 10  $\rightarrow$  predict taken; actually taken  $\rightarrow$  update to 11
  - 11  $\rightarrow$  predict taken; actually taken
  - ...
  - $11 \rightarrow$  predict taken; actually not taken  $\rightarrow$  update to 10 (misprediction)



- 2<sup>nd</sup> outer loop execution onwards:
  - 10  $\rightarrow$  predict taken; actually taken  $\rightarrow$  update to 11
  - $11 \rightarrow$  predict taken; actually taken
  - ...
  - 11  $\rightarrow$  predict taken; actually not taken  $\rightarrow$  update to 10 (misprediction)
- In practice misprediction rates for 2-bit predictors with 4096 entries in the buffer range from 1% to 18% (higher for integer applications than for fp applications)

- Bottom-line: 2-bit branch predictors work very well for loop-intensive applications
  - n-bit predictors (n>2) are not much better
  - Larger buffer sizes do not perform much better



- 1- and 2-bit predictors exploit most recent history of the current branch
- Realization: branches are correlated!

If both branches are taken, the last branch definitely <u>not taken</u>

```
char s1 = "Bob"
if (s1 != NULL)
  reverse str(s1);
reverse str(char
  if (s1 == NUKL
     return;
s1 definitely <u>not</u> Null
in this calling context
```



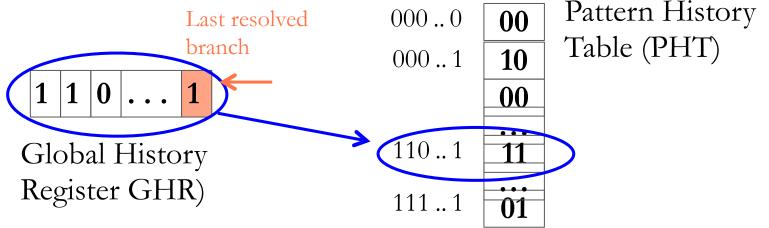
- 1- and 2-bit predictors exploit most recent history of the current branch
- Realization: branches are correlated!

#### Idea: exploit recent history of other branches in prediction

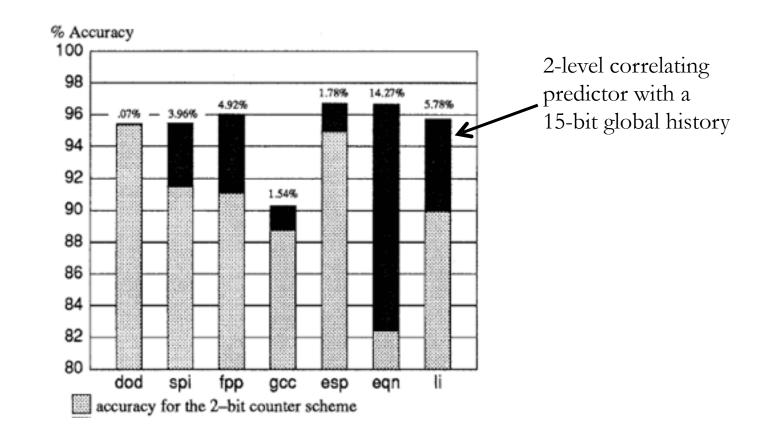
# Two-Level (or Correlating) Predictor



- Prediction depends on the <u>context</u> of the branch
- Context: history (T/NT) of the last N branches
  - First level of the predictor
  - Implemented as a shift register
- Prediction: 2-bit saturating counters
  - Indexed with the "global" history
  - Second level of the predictor







# 2-level predictor improves accuracy by >4%

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Does 4% accuracy improvement matter?



- Assume branches resolve in stage 10
  - Reasonable for a modern high-frequency processor
- 20% of instructions are branches
- Correctly-predicted branches have a 0-cycle penalty (CPI=1)
- 2-bit predictor: 92% accuracy
- 2-level predictor: 96% accuracy

2-bit predictor:

CPI = 0.8 + 0.2 \* (10\*0.08 + 1\*0.92) = 1.114

<u>2-level predictor</u>

CPI = 0.8 + 0.2 \* (10\*0.04 + 1\*0.96) = 1.072

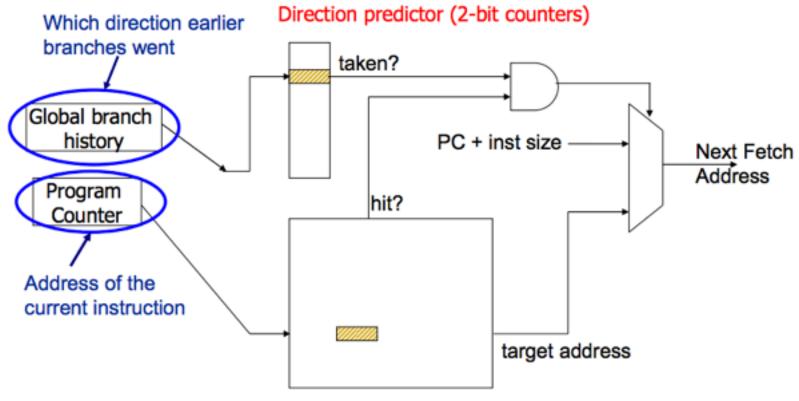
Speedup(2-level over 2-bit): 4%

### Branch Target Buffers (BTB)



- Branch predictors tell whether the branch will be taken or not, but they say nothing about the target of the branch
- To resolve a branch early we need to know both the outcome and the target
- Solution: store the likely target of the branch in a table (cache) indexed by the whole of the branch PC  $\rightarrow$  BTB
- Usually BTB is accessed in the IF stage and the branch predictor is accessed soon after that.
- (Aside: In the practical assignment, you will assume a perfect BTB, and a branch predictor that predicts in the fetch stage. Also, branches are resolved in the execute state.)





Cache of Target Addresses (BTB: Branch Target Buffer)

Source: Onur Mutlu, CMU

# Branch Prediction with only BTB



