# **Performance and Pipelining**

CS 3410, Spring 2014
Computer Science
Cornell University

See P&H Chapter: 1.6, 4.5-4.6

#### **Announcements**

HW 1

Quite long. Do not wait till the end.

PA 1 design doc

Critical to do this, else PA 1 will be hard

HW 1 review session

Fri (2/21) and Sun (2/23). 7:30pm.

Location: Olin 165

Prelim 1 review session

Next Fri and Sun. 7:30pm. Location: TBA

#### **Control Flow: Absolute Jump** 00001010100001001000011000000011 immediate op J-Type 26 bits 6 bits **Description** Mnemonic op $PC = (PC+4)_{31..28} \bullet target \bullet$ 0x2 J target Absolute addressing for jumps $(PC+4)_{31..28}$ will be the same • Jump from 0x30000000 to 0x20000000? But: Jumps from 0x2FFFFFFc to 0x3xxxxxxx are possible, but not reverse • Trade-off: out-of-region jumps vs. 32-bit instruction encoding MIPS Quirk: • jump targets computed using *already incremented* PC

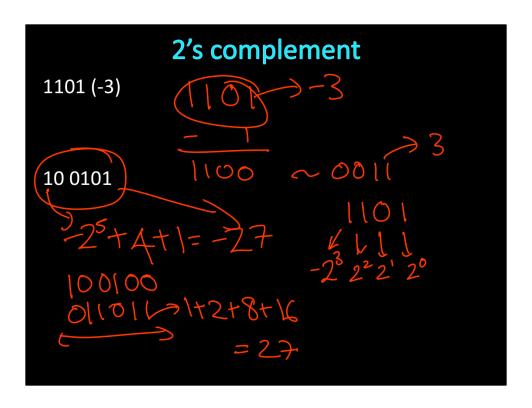
PC: no explicit

#### **Two's Complement Negatives** Non-negatives (two's complement: flip then add 1): (as usual): flip = 1111-0 = 0000+0 = 0000flip = 1110 +1 = 0001 -1 = 1111 flip = 1101+2 = 0010 $-2 = 11\overline{10}$ flip = 1100+3 = 0011 -3 = 1101flip = 1011+4 = 0100 **-4 = 1100** flip = 1010+5 = 0101 -5 = 1011flip = 1001+6 = 0110 -6 = 1010flip = 1000-7 = 1001+7 = 0111 flip = 0111-8 = 1000+8 = 1000

```
choose -8 so we have a sign bit
+0 = -0
wraps from +7 to -8
asymmetric: no +8
```

Range of values with n bits goes from unsigned: 0 to 2^n - 1

For signed: 2^(n-1)-1 to -2^n



Take 1101.

Subtract 1: 1100, flip bits 0011 which is 3. Therefore 1101 represents -3

MSB x  $(-2^{\circ})$  + all the other bits evaluated as usual -8 + 4 + 1 = -8 + 5 = -3

MSB x  $(-2^5)$  + all the other bits evaluated as usual

Try another example

-32 + 5 = -27

Subtract 1: 100100, flip bits 011011. This is 16 + 8 + 3 = 27

MSB x  $(-2^5)$  + all the other bits evaluated as usual

# **Goals for today**

# Performance

- What is performance?
- How to get it?

Pipelining

# **Performance**

# Complex question

- How fast is the processor?
- How fast your application runs?
- How quickly does it respond to you?
- How fast can you process a big batch of jobs?
- How much power does your machine use?

# **Measures of Performance**

#### Clock speed

- 1 MHz, 10<sup>6</sup> Hz: cycle is 1 microsecond (10<sup>-6</sup>)
- 1 Ghz, 10<sup>9</sup> Hz: cycle is 1 nanosecond (10<sup>-9</sup>)
- 1 Thz, 10<sup>12</sup> Hz: cycle is 1 picosecond (10<sup>-12</sup>)

#### Instruction/application performance

- MIPs (Millions of instructions per second)
- FLOPs (Floating point instructions per second)
  - GPUs: GeForce GTX Titan (2,688 cores, 4.5 Tera flops, 7.1 billion transistors, 42 Gigapixel/sec fill rate, 288 GB/sec)
- Benchmarks (SPEC)

Peta: 10^(-15) Exa: 10^(-18) Zotta: 10^(-21) Yotta: 10^(-24)

Benchmarks like SPEC are used to compare across architectures

# **Measures of Performance**

# Latency

- How long to finish my program
  - Response time, elapsed time, wall clock time
  - CPU time: user and system time

#### Throughput

• How much work finished per unit time

Ideal: Want high throughput, low latency ... also, low power, cheap (\$\$) etc.

# How to make the computer faster?

#### **Decrease latency**

#### **Critical Path**

- Longest path determining the minimum time needed for an operation
- Determines minimum length of cycle, maximum clock frequency

#### Optimize for delay on the critical path

- Parallelism (like carry look ahead adder)
- Pipelining
- Both

Is the the AND path or the 32 bit adder path that is going to determine your performance in your ALU from Lab1?

Critical path is what determines what is the slowest path through the logic. And therefore, it determines the minimum length of the cycle. That in turn determines the maximum clock frequency.

For example if the critical path is 1 nanosecond, the clock frequency is at most 1 GHz.

# **Latency: Optimize Delay on Critical Path**

# E.g. Adder performance

32 Bit Adder Design	Space	Time
Ripple Carry	≈ 300 gates	≈ 64 gate delays
2-Way Carry-Skip	≈ 360 gates	≈ 35 gate delays
3-Way Carry-Skip	≈ 500 gates	≈ 22 gate delays
4-Way Carry-Skip	≈ 600 gates	≈ 18 gate delays
2-Way Look-Ahead	≈ 550 gates	≈ 16 gate delays
Split Look-Ahead	≈ 800 gates	≈ 10 gate delays
Full Look-Ahead	≈ 1200 gates	≈ 5 gate delays

# **Multi-Cycle Instructions**

But what to do when operations take diff. times?

#### E.g: Assume:

- load/store: 100 ns  $\leftarrow$  10 MHz ms =  $10^{-3}$  second us =  $10^{-6}$  seconds ns =  $10^{-9}$  seconds
- branches: 33 ns ← 30 MHz

#### Single-Cycle CPU

10 MHz (100 ns cycle) with

1 cycle per instruction

100ns = 10MHz; 50ns = 20MHz; 33ns = 30 MHz

# **Multi-Cycle Instructions**

Multiple cycles to complete a single instruction

#### E.g: Assume:

- load/store:  $100 \text{ ns} \leftarrow 10 \text{ MHz}$  ms =  $10^{-3} \text{ second}$
- arithmetic: 50 ns  $\leftarrow$  20 MHz us =  $10^{-6}$  seconds ns =  $10^{-9}$  seconds
- branches: 33 ns ← 30 MHz

#### Multi-Cycle CPU

30 MHz (33 ns cycle) with

- 3 cycles per load/store
- 2 cycles per arithmetic
- 1 cycle per branch

100ns = 10MHz; 50ns = 20MHz; 33ns = 30 MHz

# **Cycles Per Instruction (CPI)**

*Instruction mix* for some program P, assume:

- 25% load/store ( 3 cycles / instruction)
- 60% arithmetic (2 cycles / instruction)
- 15% branches (1 cycle / instruction)

Multi-Cycle performance for program P:

average cycles per instruction (CPI) = 2.1

Multi-Cycle @ 30 MHz ← 30M cycles/sec ÷2.0 cycles/instr ≈15 MIPS

Single-Cycle @ 10 MHz

MIPS = millions of instructions per second

 $0.25 \times 3 + 0.6 \times 2 + 0.1 \times 1 = 0.75 + 1.2 + .15 = 2.1$ 

# **Total Time**

CPU Time = # Instructions x CPI x Clock Cycle Time

Say for a program with 400k instructions, 30 MHz:

Time =  $400k \times 2.1 \times 33 \text{ ns} = 27 \text{ millisecs}$ 

# **Example**

Goal: Make Multi-Cycle @ 30 MHz CPU (15MIPS) run 2x faster by making arithmetic instructions faster

#### *Instruction mix* (for P):

- 25% load/store, CPI = 3
- 60% arithmetic, CPI = 2
- 15% branches, CPI = 1

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So the goal is to make it run at 30 MIPs.

$$CPI = (.25 \times 3 + .6 \times 2 + .15 \times 1)/1 = 2.1$$

MIPS = 30 MHz/2.1 = 14.28 MIPS. Call it 15 MIPS

Want to double It to 28.56

# Example

Goal: Make Multi-Cycle @ 30 MHz CPU (15MIPS) run 2x faster by making arithmetic instructions faster

*Instruction mix* (for P):

- 25% load/store, CPI = 3
- 60% arithmetic, CPI = 2
- 15% branches, CPI = 1

0.25,3+

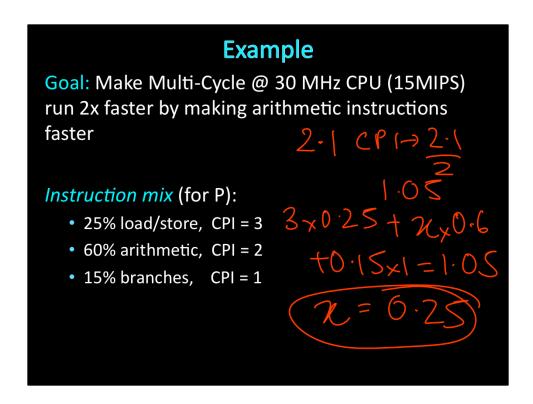
0.15x1

First lets try CPI of 1 for arithmetic. 6-75+0-6+0-13
Is that 2x faster overall? No
How much does it improve performance?

So the goal is to make it run at approximately 30 MIPs.

Original CPI =  $(.25 \times 3 + .6 \times 2 + .15 \times 1)/1 = 2.1$ MIPS = 30 MHz/2.1 = 14.28 MIPS. Call it 15 MIPS

Say you drop the CPI for the arithmetic operation to 1. Will that double it? No.  $.25 \times 3 + .6 + .15 = 1.5$  30 MHz/1.5 = 20MIPS



But we want to half our CPI. Let the new arithmetic operation have a CPI of x.

That's a big improvement you need!

# Example

Goal: Make Multi-Cycle @ 30 MHz CPU (15MIPS) run 2x faster by making arithmetic instructions faster

#### *Instruction mix* (for P):

- 25% load/store, CPI = 3
- 60% arithmetic, CPI = 2
- 15% branches, CPI = 1

To double performance CPI has to go from 2 to 0.25

#### Amdahl's Law

#### Amdahl's Law

Execution time after improvement =

execution time affected by improvement

amount of improvement + execution time unaffected

Or: Speedup is limited by popularity of improved feature

Corollary: Make the common case fast

Caveat: Law of diminishing returns

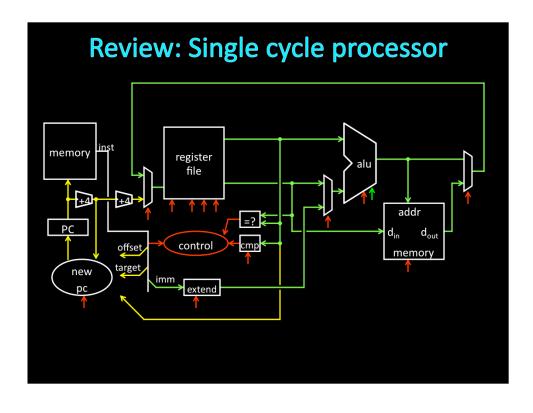
Consider our GPU example with 2k cores.

Say we have a program that takes 2000 seconds to run: 200 seconds is the start up time (reading data), and 1800 is the "main" algorithm.! This doesn't seem so bad. 200/2000 = 10% only of startup and 90% of the program is in the slow algorithm.

We want to speed it up by running on a GPU with 2000 cores! Ideally we would get 2000x speedup and the program will run in 1 second.

But when we port it to the GPU, we can only improve the "main" algorithm which is highly parallelizable. You can improve the 1800 seconds down to < 1 second say, because you can fully parallelize the algorithm on 2000 cores.

But still the time for the whole program is 201 seconds. So you threw 2000 cores at the problem, but your speedup is 2000/201 which is approximately 10x. So with 2000 cores you only got 10x speedup. Amdahl's law expresses that "unfortunate" relation.



# **Review: Single Cycle Processor**

#### **Advantages**

• Single cycle per instruction make logic and clock simple

#### Disadvantages

- Since instructions take different time to finish, memory and functional unit are not efficiently utilized
- Cycle time is the longest delay
  - Load instruction
- Best possible CPI is 1 (actually < 1 w parallelism)</li>
  - However, lower MIPS and longer clock period (lower clock frequency); hence, lower performance

# **Review: Multi Cycle Processor**

#### **Advantages**

- Better MIPS and smaller clock period (higher clock frequency)
- Hence, better performance than Single Cycle processor

#### Disadvantages

• Higher CPI than single cycle processor

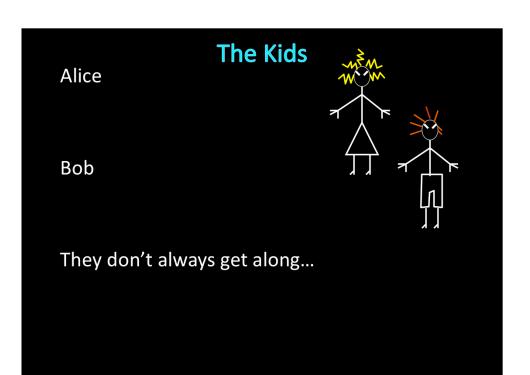
#### Pipelining: Want better Performance

 want small CPI (close to 1) with high MIPS and short clock period (high clock frequency)

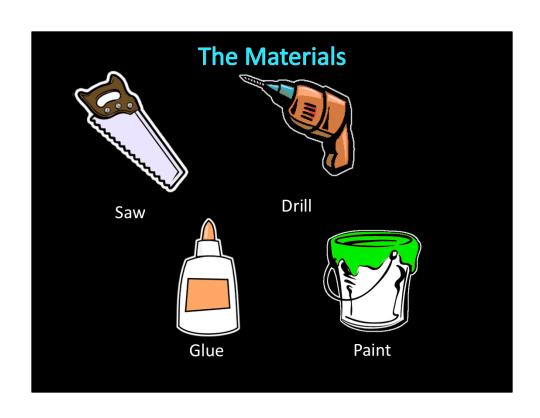
# Improving Performance Parallelism Pipelining Both!

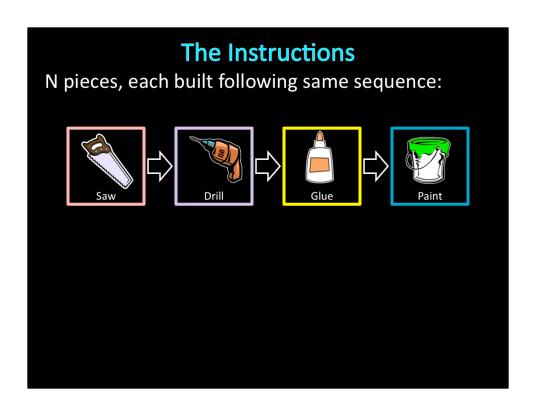
# Single Cycle vs Pipelined Processor

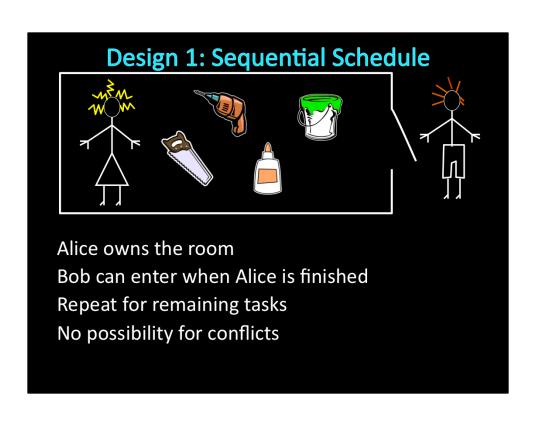
See: P&H Chapter 4.5

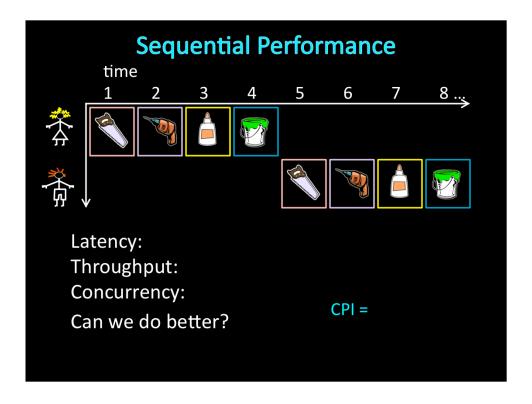












Latency = 4

CPI = 4 (here the instruction is the construction of the bike)

Throughput = 2 bikes in 8 secs. So 1 task in 4 secs. So ¼ throughput

Concurrency: 0

# **Design 2: Pipelined Design**

Partition room into stages of a pipeline

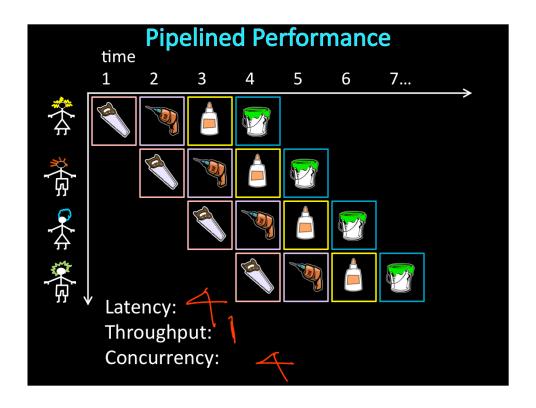


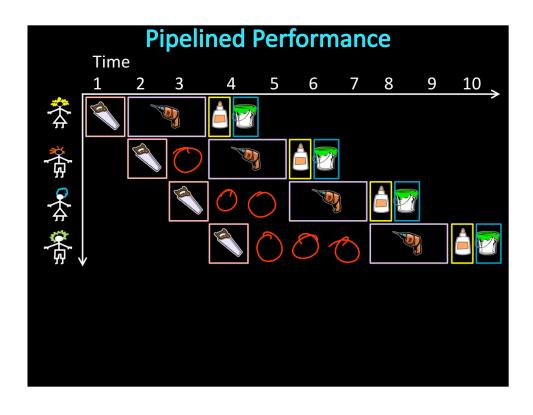
One person owns a stage at a time

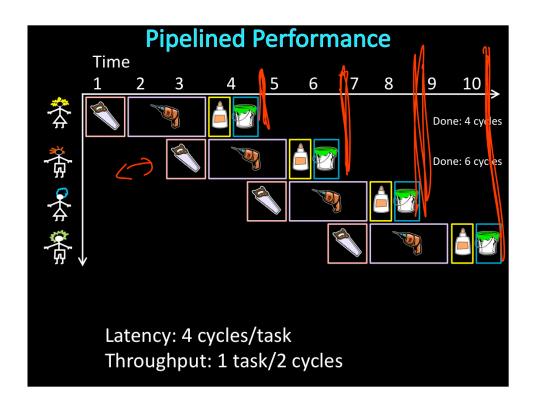
4 stages

4 people working simultaneously

Everyone moves right in lockstep







#### Lessons

# Principle:

Throughput increased by parallel execution Balanced pipeline very important

Else slowest stage dominates performance

# Pipelining:

- Identify pipeline stages
- Isolate stages from each other
- Resolve pipeline *hazards* (next lecture)

# MIPs designed for pipelining

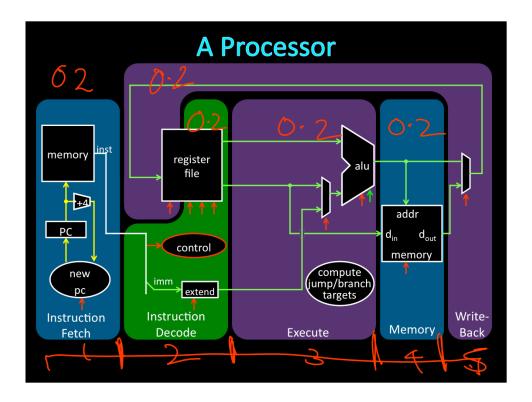
- Instructions same length
  - 32 bits, easy to fetch and then decode
- 3 types of instruction formats
  - Easy to route bits between stages
  - Can read a register source before even knowing what the instruction is
- Memory access through lw and sw only
  - Access memory after ALU

## **Basic Pipeline**

Five stage "RISC" load-store architecture

- 1. Instruction fetch (IF)
  - get instruction from memory, increment PC
- 2. Instruction Decode (ID)
  - translate opcode into control signals and read registers
- 3. Execute (EX)
  - perform ALU operation, compute jump/branch targets
- 4. Memory (MEM)
  - access memory if needed
- 5. Writeback (WB)
  - update register file

This is simpler than the MIPS, but we're using it to get the concepts across – everything you see here applies to MIPS, but we have to deal w/ fewer bits in these examples (that's why I like them)



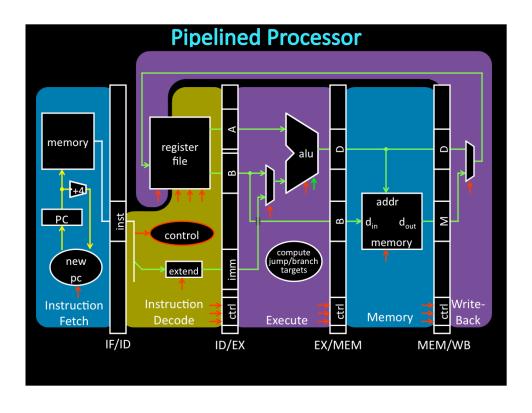
What does that do to a clock cycle. It is the time for 1 stage. So 5 times faster in this case (ASSUMING all stages are approximately equal sized)
Left to right flow except for the write-back phase and the branch targets that can change the PC. Otherwise left to right.

# **Principles of Pipelined Implementation**

Break instructions across multiple clock cycles (five, in this case)

Design a separate stage for the execution performed during each clock cycle

Add pipeline registers (flip-flops) to isolate signals between different stages



IF

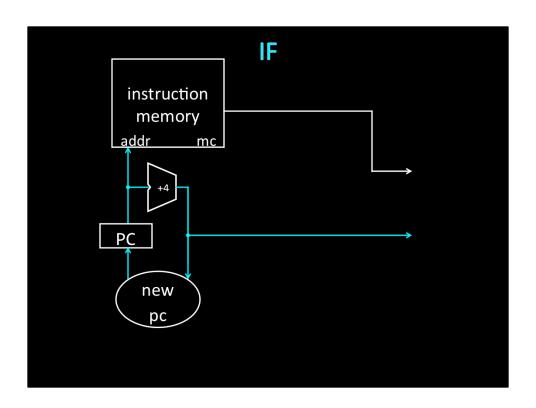
### Stage 1: Instruction Fetch

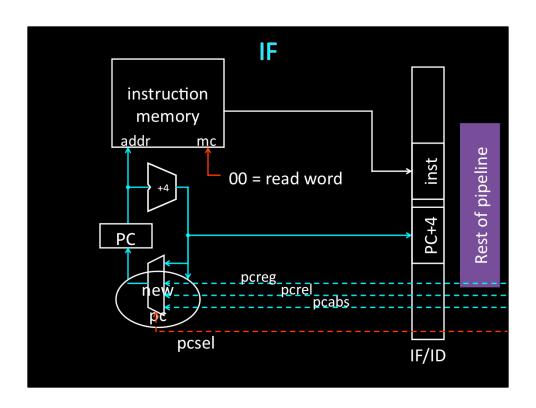
Fetch a new instruction every cycle

- Current PC is index to instruction memory
- Increment the PC at end of cycle (assume no branches for now)

Write values of interest to pipeline register (IF/ID)

- Instruction bits (for later decoding)
- PC+4 (for later computing branch targets)





## ID

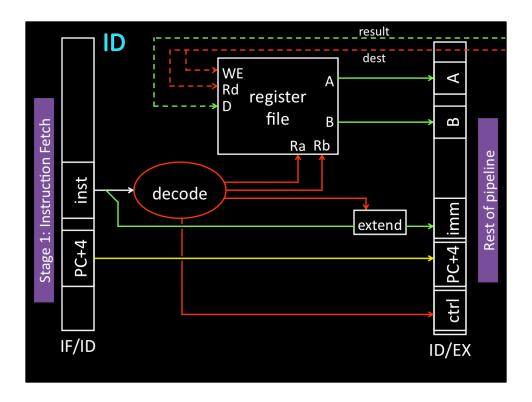
#### Stage 2: Instruction Decode

#### On every cycle:

- Read IF/ID pipeline register to get instruction bits
- Decode instruction, generate control signals
- Read from register file

#### Write values of interest to pipeline register (ID/EX)

- Control information, Rd index, immediates, offsets, ...
- Contents of Ra, Rb
- PC+4 (for computing branch targets later)



Early decode: decode all instr in ID, pass control signals to later stages Late decode: decode some instr in ID, pass instr so each stage computes its own control signals

## EX

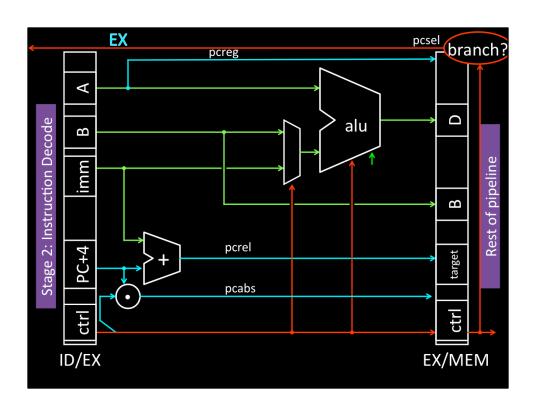
#### Stage 3: Execute

#### On every cycle:

- Read ID/EX pipeline register to get values and control bits
- Perform ALU operation
- Compute targets (PC+4+offset, etc.) in case this is a branch
- Decide if jump/branch should be taken

#### Write values of interest to pipeline register (EX/MEM)

- Control information, Rd index, ...
- Result of ALU operation
- Value in case this is a memory store instruction



## **MEM**

#### Stage 4: Memory

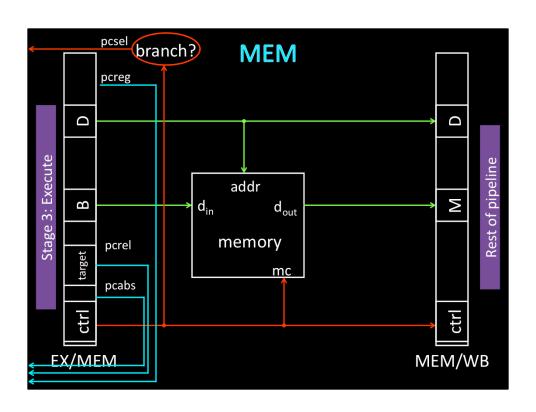
#### On every cycle:

- Read EX/MEM pipeline register to get values and control bits
- Perform memory load/store if needed
  - address is ALU result

### Write values of interest to pipeline register (MEM/WB)

- Control information, Rd index, ...
- Result of memory operation
- Pass result of ALU operation

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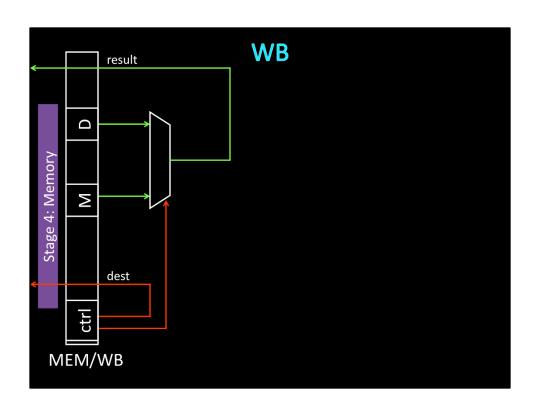


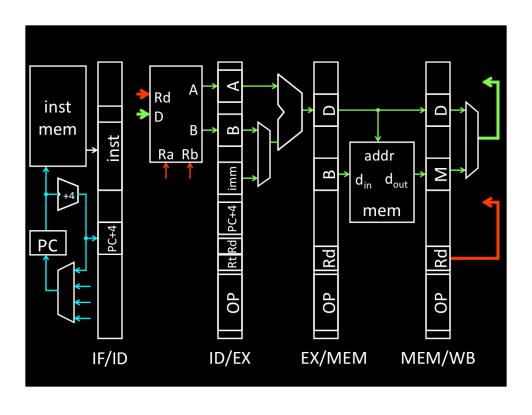
## Stage 5: Write-back

## On every cycle:

- Read MEM/WB pipeline register to get values and control bits
- Select value and write to register file







## **Pipelining Recap**

Powerful technique for masking latencies

- Logically, instructions execute one at a time
- Physically, instructions execute in parallel
  - Instruction level parallelism

## Abstraction promotes decoupling

• Interface (ISA) vs. implementation (Pipeline)