COMPUTER ORGANIZATION AND DESIGN

The Hardware/Software Interface

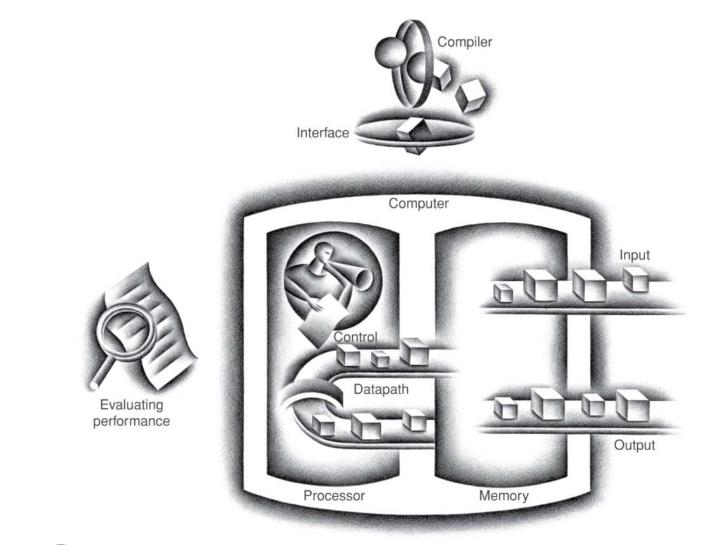


Chapter 4

MORGAN KAUFHAI

The Processor

The Processor ?



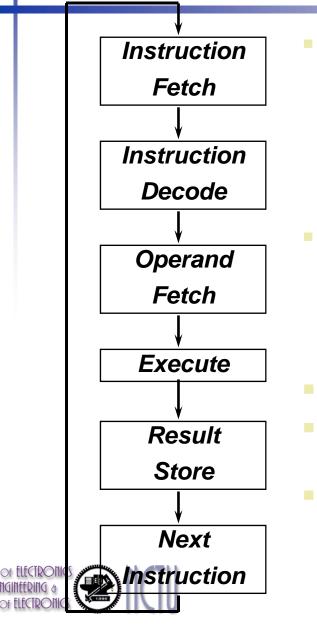


Introduction

- We will learn
 - How the ISA determines many aspects of the implementation
 - How the choice of various implementation strategies affects the clock rate and CPI for the computer
- We will examine two MIPS implementations
 - A simplified version
 - A more realistic pipelined version
- Simple subset, shows most aspects
 - Memory reference: I w, sw
 - Arithmetic/logical operation: add, sub, and, or, sl t
 - Program flow control: beq, j



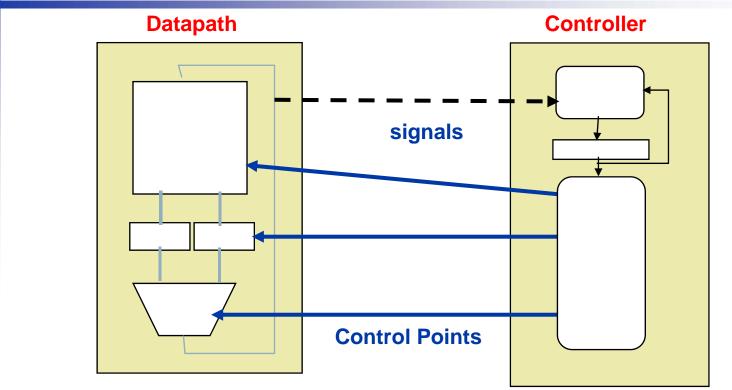
Instruction Cycle



For every instruction, the first three phases are identical:

- Instruction fetch: send PC to the memory and fetch the instruction from the memory
- Instruction decode and operand fetch: read one or two registers, using fields of the instruction to select the register from the register file (RF)
- Use ALU, depending on instruction class, to calculate
 - Arithmetic result
 - Memory address for load/store
 - Branch target address
- Access data memory only for load/store
- Write the ALU or memory back into a register,
 - using fields of the instruction to select the register
 - $PC \leftarrow target address or PC + 4$

Datapath vs Control



- Datapath: Storage, FU, interconnect sufficient to perform the desired functions
 - Inputs are Control Points
 - Outputs are signals
- Controller: State machine to orchestrate/control operation on the data path

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Based on desired function and signals

Five Steps to Implement a Processor

- 1. Analyze the instruction set (datapath requirements)
 - The meaning of each instruction is given by the *register transfers*
 - Datapath must include storage element
 - Datapath must support each register transfer
- 2. Select set of datapath components and establish clocking methodology
- 3. <u>Assemble</u> datapath meeting the requirements
- 4. Analyze the implementation of each instruction to determine setting of control points effecting register transfer
- 5. Assemble the control logic



Step 1: Analyze the Instruction Set

• All MIPS instructions are 32 bits long with 3 formats:

| R-type: | 31 26 | 5 21 | 16 | 11 | 6 | 0 |
|---------|-----------------|----------------|--------------|--------|-----------|-------------|
| | ор | rs | rt | rd | shamt | funct |
| I-type: | 6 bits 31 26 | 5 bits 5 21 | 5 bits 16 | 5 bits | 5 bits | 6 bits 0 |
| | ор | rs | rt | | immediate | |
| J-type: | 6 bits 31 26 | 5 bits | 5 bits | | 16 bits | 0 |
| | ор | target address | | | | |
| | 6 bits | 26 bits | | | | |

- The different fields are:
 - op: operation of the instruction
 - rs, rt, rd: source and/or destination register
 - shamt: shift amount
 - funct: selects variant of the "op" field
 - address / immediate
 - target address: target address of jump



Step 1: Analyze the Instruction Set

- Arithmetic/logical operation:
- add rd, rs, rt sub rd, rs, rt 31 26 21 16 11 6 0 and rd, rs, rt rd op rt shamt funct rs or rd, rs, rt 6 bits 5 bits 5 bits 5 bits 5 bits 6 bits slt rd, rs, rt Load/Store: 31 26 21 16 0 lw rt,rs,imm16 immediate rt op rs sw rt,rs,imm16 6 bits 5 bits 5 bits 16 bits Imm operand: addi rt,rs,imm16 Branch: beq rs,rt,imm16 Jump: 21 31 26 16 0 i target address op

6 bits

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26 bits

Logical Register-Transfer Level (RTL)

 RTL is a design abstraction, which gives the hardware description of the instructions

```
MEM[PC] = op | rs | rt | rd | shamt | funct
```

```
or = op | rs | rt | Imm16
```

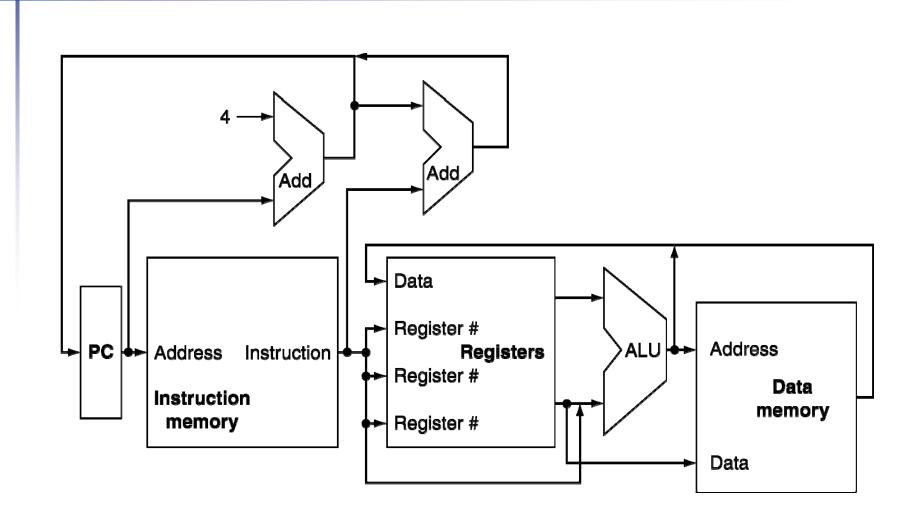
or = op | Imm26 (added at the end)

InstRegister transfersADDR[rd] <- R[rs] + R[rt];</td>PC <- PC + 4</td>

- SUB R[rd] <- R[rs] R[rt]; PC <- PC + 4
- LOAD R[rt] <- MEM[R[rs] + sign_ext(Imm16)]; PC <- PC + 4
- STORE MEM[R[rs] + sign_ext(Imm16)] <-R[rt]; PC <- PC + 4
- ADDI $R[rt] \le R[rs] + sign_ext(Imm16)]; PC \le PC + 4$
- BEQ if (R[rs] == R[rt]) then PC <- PC + 4 + sign_ext(Imm16)] || 00 else PC <- PC + 4
- J PC <- PC[31..28] || Imm 26 || 00

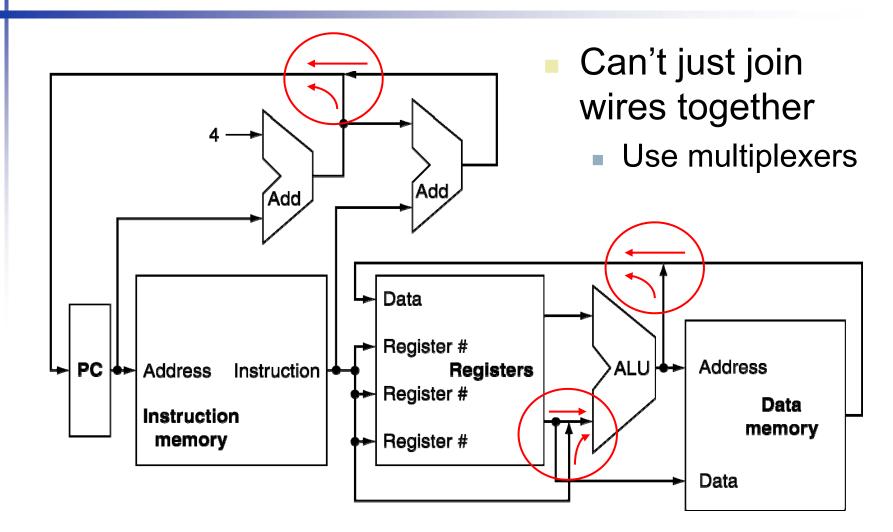


Fig. 4.1 MIPS Datapath (Simplified)



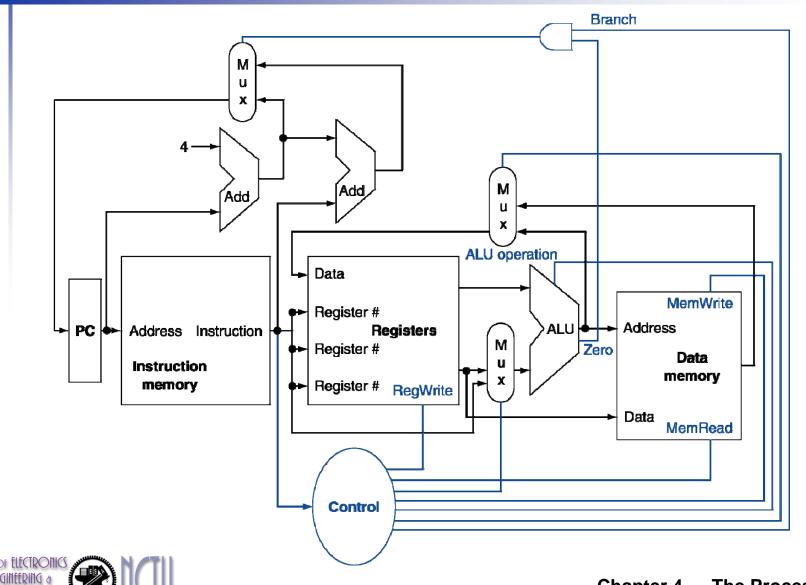


Multiplexers





Control





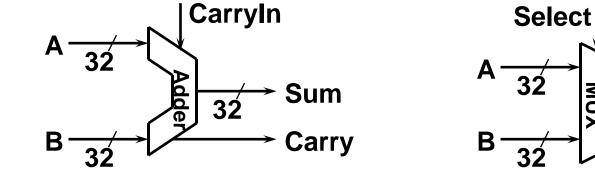
Step 2: Datapath Elements

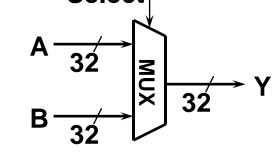
- Information encoded in binary
 - Low voltage = 0, High voltage = 1
 - One wire per bit; Multi-bit data encoded on bus
- Two different types of datapath elements
 - Combinational elements
 - For computation, the output depends only on the current inputs
 - The output is a function of the input(s)
 - State (sequential) elements
 - For storing state/information
 - The output depends on both the input(s) and the contents of the internal state



Combinational Elements

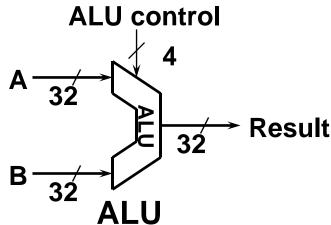
Example of combinational logic elements :





Adder

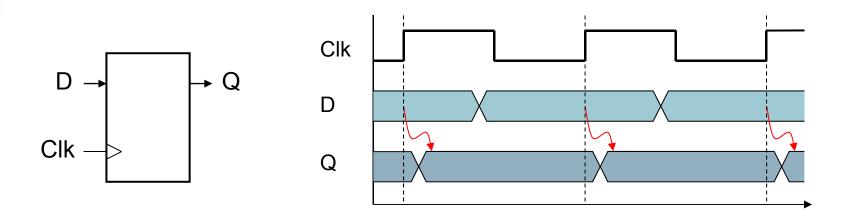






Sequential Elements (1)

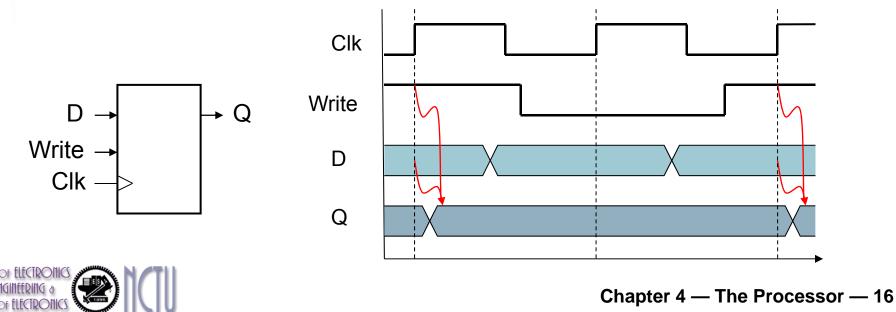
- D-type flip-flop: stores data in a circuit
 - Uses a clock signal to determine when to update the stored value
 - Edge-triggered: update when Clk changes from 0 to 1





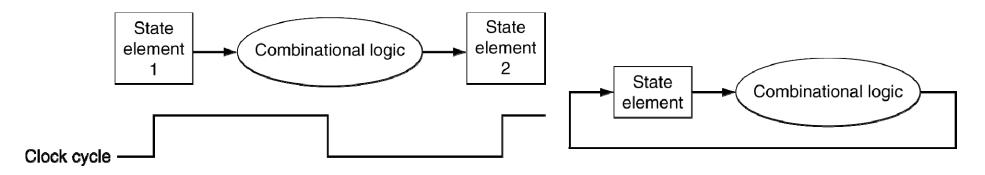
Sequential Elements (2)

- Registers (or register file) and Memory with write control
 - Only updates on clock edge when write_enable control input is 1
 - Used when stored value is required later



Clocking Methodology

- A clocking methodology defines when signals can be read and when they can be written
- Combinational logic transforms data during clock cycles
 - Between clock edges (edge-triggered clocking methodology)
 - Input from state elements, output to state element
 - Longest delay determines clock period



May be encountered a race problem



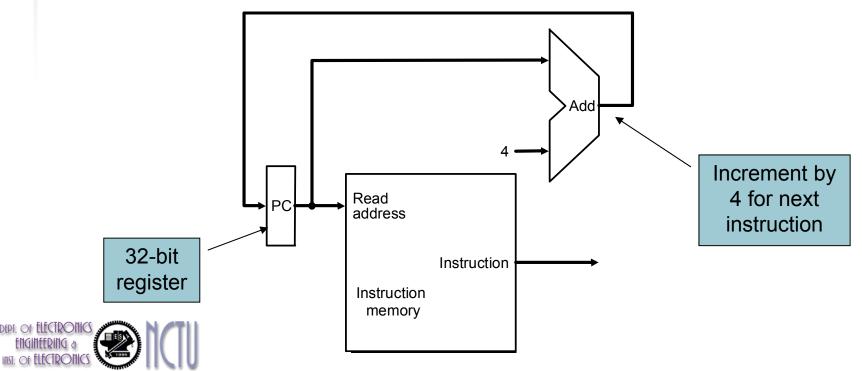
Step 3: Building a Datapath

- Datapath
 - Elements that process data and addresses in the CPU
 - Registers, ALUs, mux's, memories, ...
- We will build a MIPS datapath incrementally
 - Refining the overview design



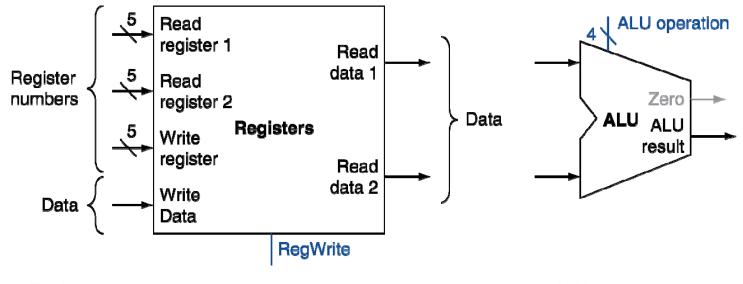
Instruction Fetch Unit

- Instruction fetch unit is used by other parts of the datapath
 - Fetch the instruction: mem[PC]
 - Update the program counter:
 - Sequential code: PC <- PC + 4</p>
 - Branch and Jump: PC <- "Something else"</p>



Step 3a: R-Format Instructions

- Read two register operands
- Perform arithmetic/logical operation
- Write register result



a. Registers

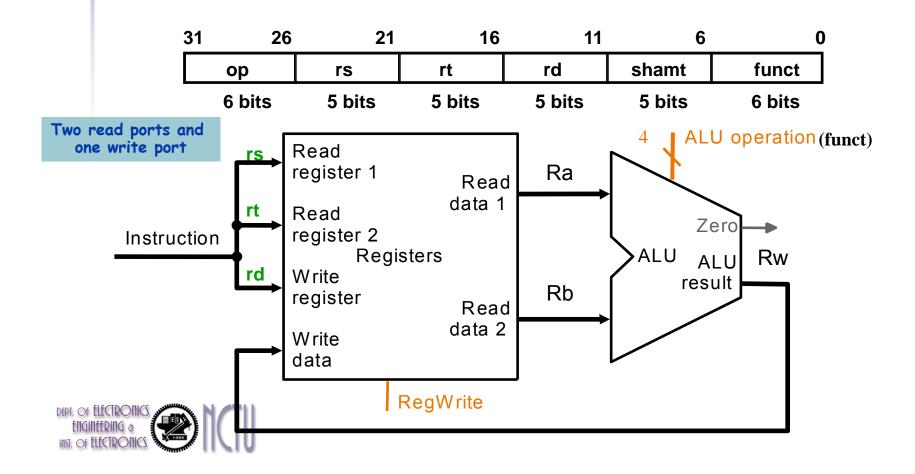




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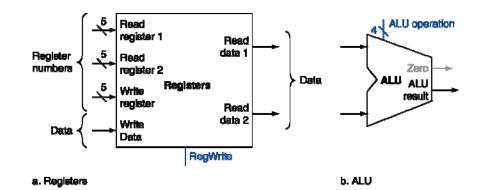
Add and Subtract

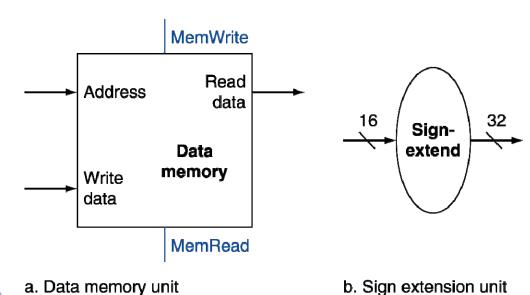
- R[rd] <- R[rs] op R[rt] Ex: add rd, rs, rt</p>
 - Ra, Rb, Rw come from inst.'s rs, rt, and rd fields
 - ALU and RegWrite: control logic after decode



Load/Store Instructions

- Read register operands
- Calculate address using 16-bit offset
 - Use ALU, but sign-extend offset
- Load: Read memory and update register
- Store: Write register value to memory

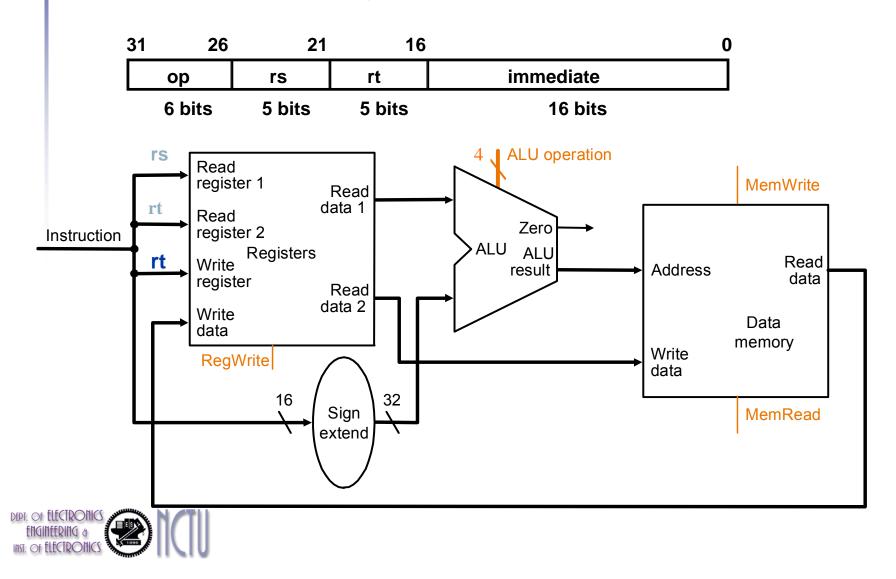




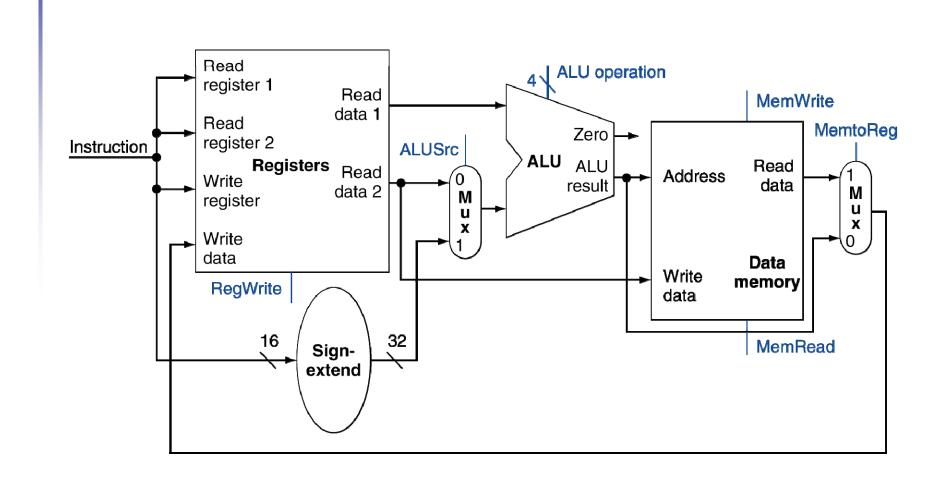


Step 3b: Store/Load Operations

R[rt]<-Mem[R[rs]+SignExt[imm16]] Ex: lw rt,rs,imm16</pre>

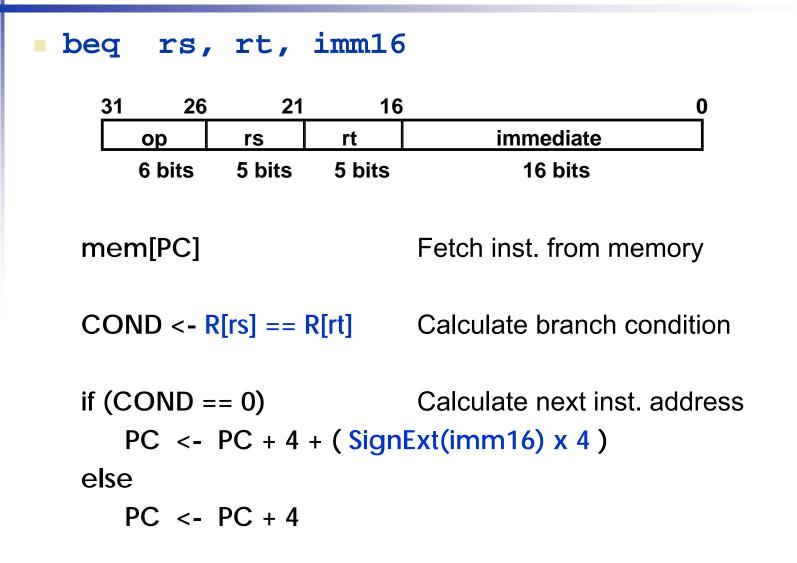


R-Type/Load/Store Datapath





Recall Branch Operations



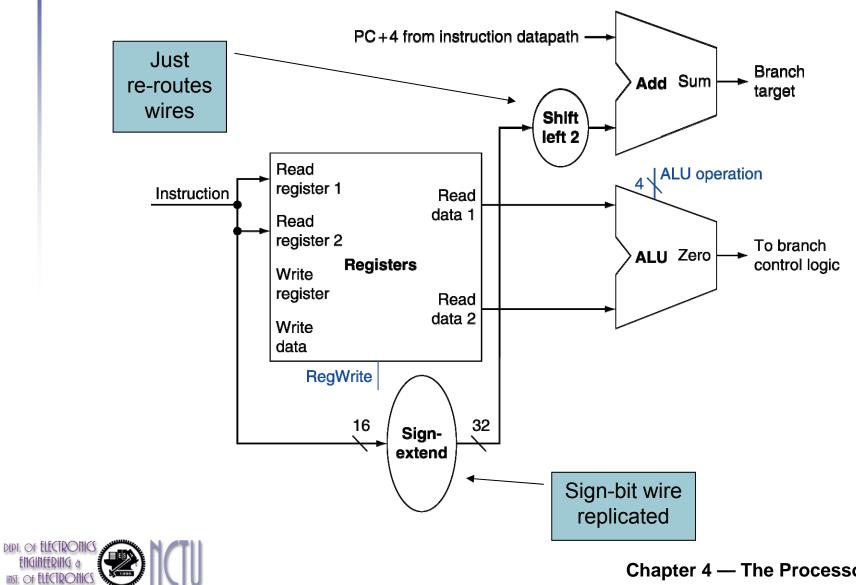


Branch Instructions

- Read register operands
- Compare operands
 - Use ALU, subtract and check Zero output
- Calculate target address
 - Sign-extend displacement
 - Shift left 2 places (word displacement)
 - Add to PC + 4
 - Already calculated by instruction fetch



Step 3c: Branch Instructions

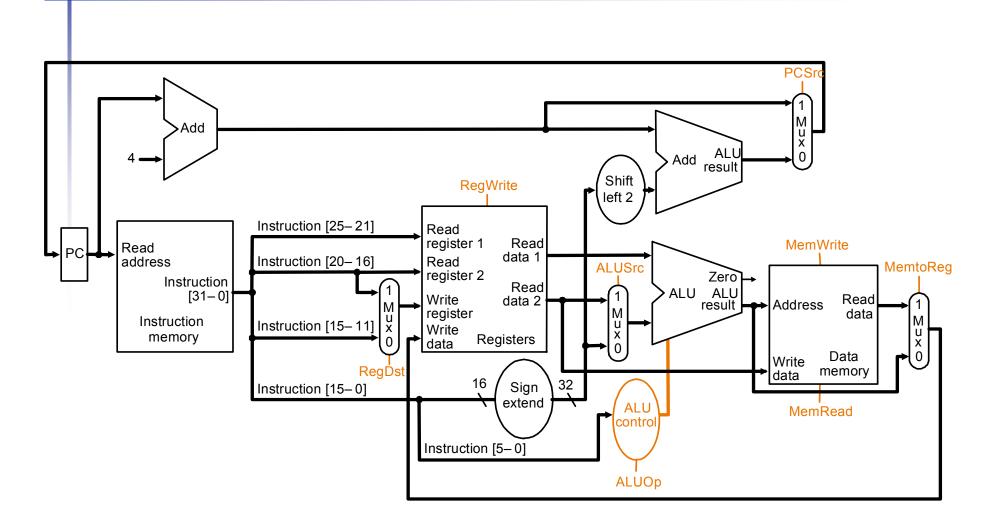


Composing the Elements

- First-cut data path does an instruction in one clock cycle
 - Each datapath element can only do one function at a time
 - Hence, we need separate instruction and data memories
- Use multiplexers where alternate data sources are used for different instructions



A Single Cycle Full Datapath



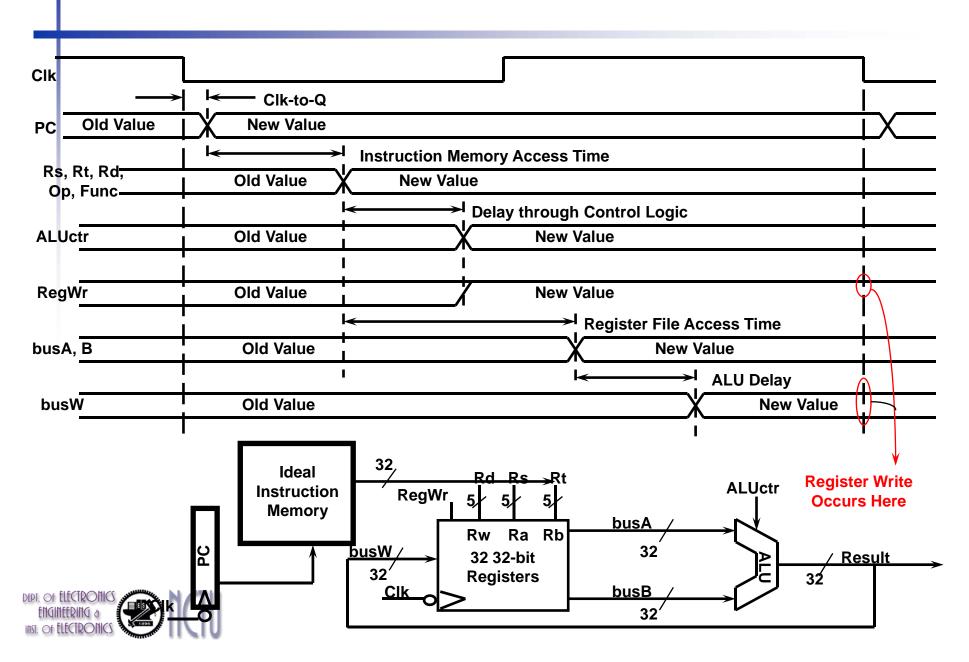


Clocking Methodology

- Define when signals are read and written
- Assume edge-triggered (synchronous design):
 - Values in storage (state) elements updated only on a clock edge
 => clock edge should arrive only after input signals stable
 - Any combinational circuit must have inputs from and outputs to storage elements
 - Clock cycle: time for signals to propagate from one storage element, through combinational circuit, to reach the second storage element
 - A register can be read, its value propagated through some combinational circuit, new value is written back to the same register, all in same cycle => no feedback within a single cycle

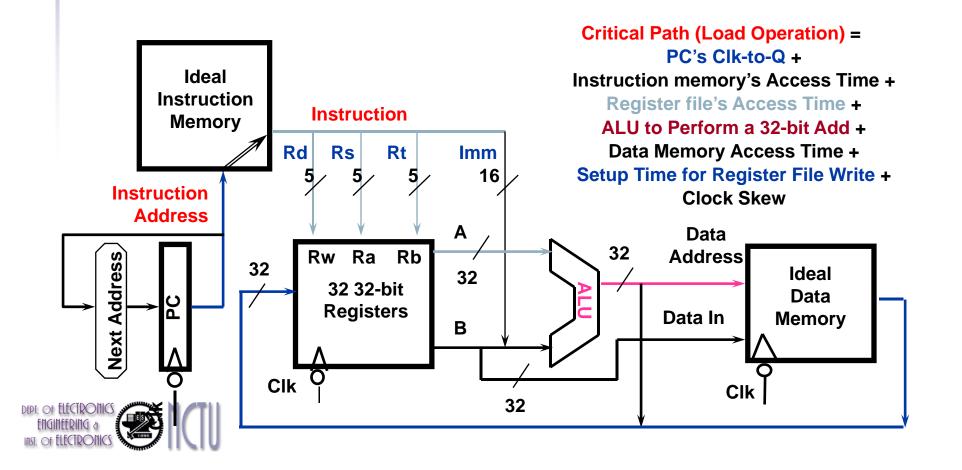


Register-Register Timing



The Critical Path

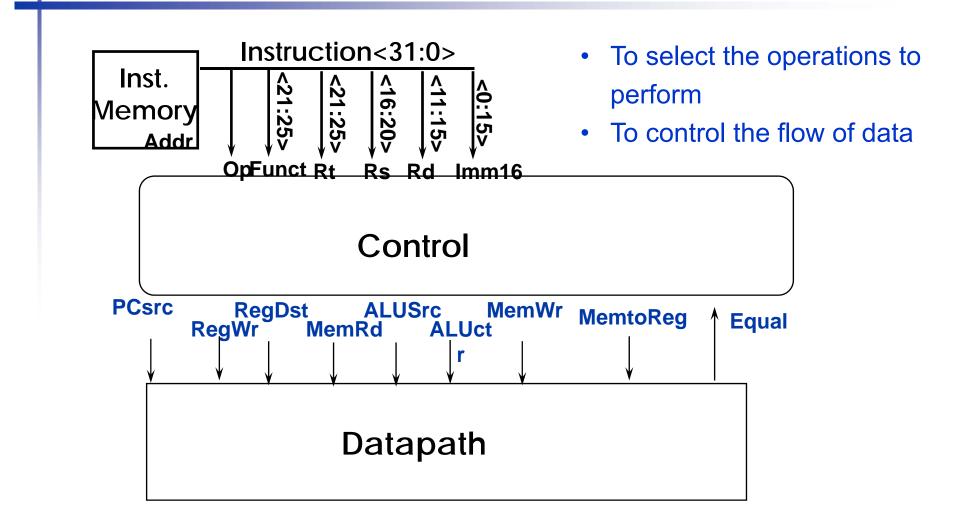
- Register file and ideal memory:
 - During read, behave as combinational logic:
 - Address valid => Output valid after access time



Worst Case Timing (Load)

| Clk | | | | |] |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------|----------------------|------------------|---------------|
| PC Old Value | Clk-to-Q New Value | | | | $\frac{1}{1}$ |
| | | Instruction Memoe | y Access Time | | |
| Rs, Rt, Rd, Op, Func | Old Value | New Value | | | ļ |
| | | ← → De | lay through Contr | ol Logic | |
| ALUc <u>tr</u> | Old Value | X | New Value | | |
| ExtOp | Old Value | | New Value | | |
| ALUSrc | Old Value | | New Value | | |
| MemtoReg | Old Value | / | New Value | Register | + |
| RegWr | Old Value | \ | New Value | Write Occurs | \mathbb{A} |
| | | <u> </u> | Register | File Access Time | Ψ |
| busA | Old Value | | | New Value | |
| | Delay through Exte | ender & Mux ← | | | |
| busB | Old Value | | Xi | New Value | \ I |
| | | | · I _{←−−−→} | ALU Delay | 1 |
| Address | Old Value | | | X New Value | <u> </u> |
| | | Data Me | mory Access Time | | <u>Å</u> |
| | Old Value | | | | W |

Step 4: Control Points and Signals





7 Control Signals

| Signal name | Effect when deasserted | Effect when asserted | | |
|----------------|--|---|--|--|
| RegDst | The register destination number for the Write register comes from the rt field (bits 20:16). | The register destination number for the Write register comes from the rd field (bits 15:11). | | |
| RegWrite | None. | The register on the Write register input is written with the value on the Write data input. | | |
| ALUSrc | The second ALU operand comes from the second register file output (Read data 2). | The second ALU operand is the sign- extended, lower 16 bits of the instruction. | | |
| PCSrc | The PC is replaced by the output of the adder that computes the value of PC + 4. | The PC is replaced by the output of the adder that computes the branch target. | | |
| MemRead | None. | Data memory contents designated by the address input are put on the Read data output. | | |
| MemWrite | None. | Data memory contents designated by the address input are replaced by the value on the Write data input. | | |
| MemtoReg | The value fed to the register Write data input comes from the ALU. | The value fed to the register Write data input comes from the data memory. | | |



ALU Control

- ALU used for
 - Load/Store: F = add
 - Branch: F = subtract
 - R-type: F depends on funct field

| ALU control | Function |
|-------------|------------------|
| 0000 | AND |
| 0001 | OR |
| 0010 | add |
| 0110 | subtract |
| 0111 | set-on-less-than |
| 1100 | NOR |



ALU Control

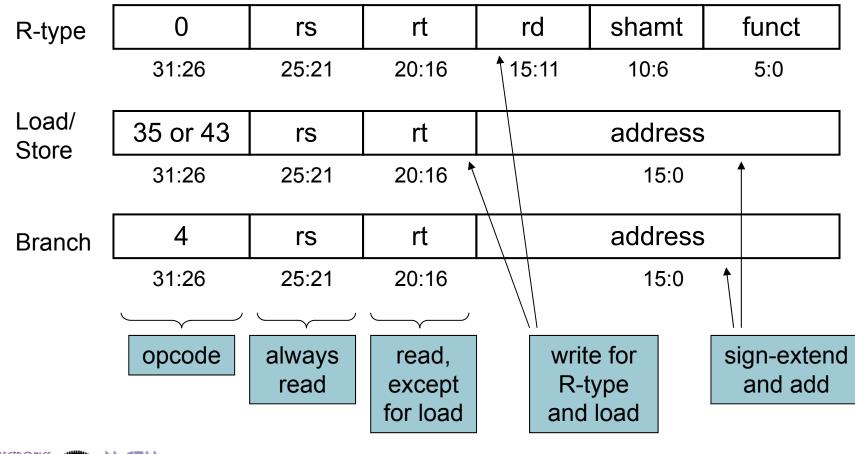
Assume 2-bit ALUOp derived from opcode Combinational logic derives ALU control

| opcode | ALUOp | Operation | funct | ALU function | ALU control |
|--------|-------|------------------|--------|------------------|-------------|
| lw | 00 | load word | XXXXXX | add | 0010 |
| SW | 00 | store word | XXXXXX | add | 0010 |
| beq | 01 | branch equal | XXXXXX | subtract | 0110 |
| R-type | 10 | add | 100000 | add | 0010 |
| | | subtract | 100010 | subtract | 0110 |
| | | AND | 100100 | AND | 0000 |
| | | OR | 100101 | OR | 0001 |
| | | set-on-less-than | 101010 | set-on-less-than | 0111 |



The Main Control Unit

Control signals derived from instruction



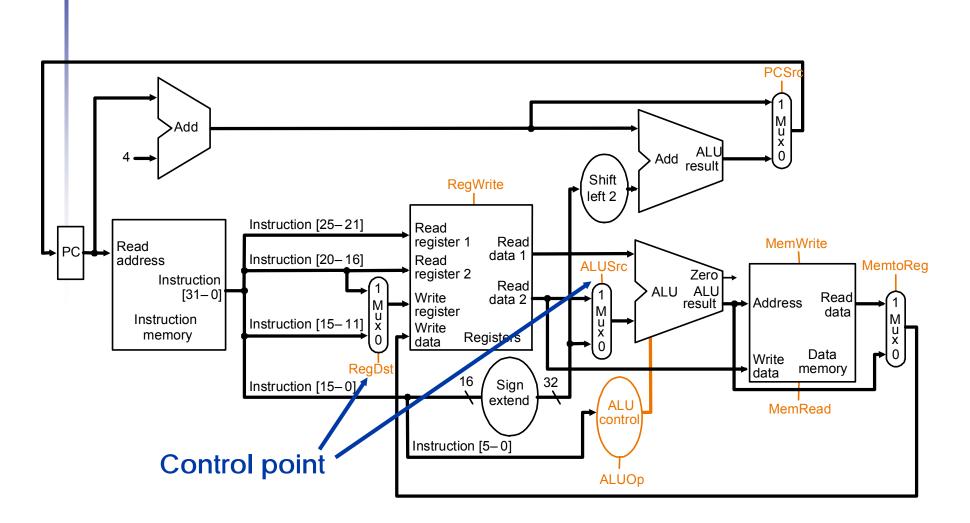


Designing Main Control

- Some observations:
 - opcode (Op[5-0]) is always in bits 31-26
 - two registers to be read are always in rs (bits 25-21) and rt (bits 20-16) (for R-type, beq, sw)
 - base register for lw and sw is always in rs (25-21)
 - 16-bit offset for beq, lw, sw is always in 15-0
 - destination register is in one of two positions:
 - Iw: in bits 20-16 (rt)
 - R-type: in bits 15-11 (rd)
 - => need a multiplex to select the address for written register

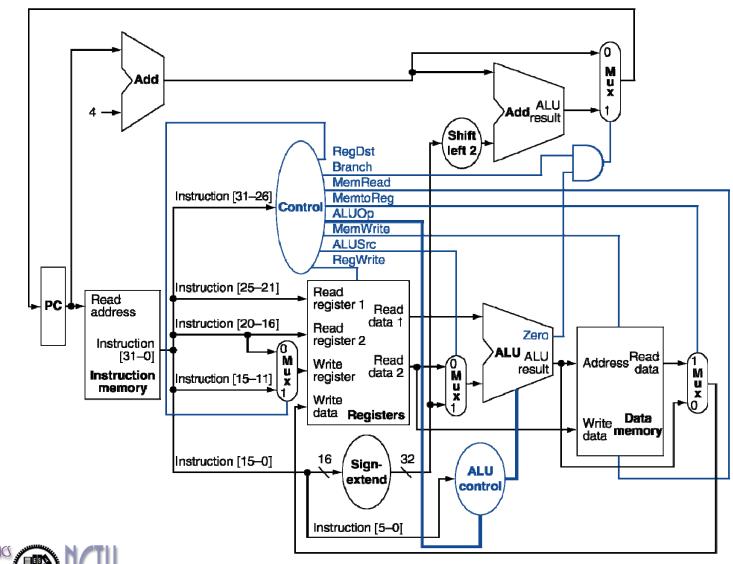


Datapath with Mux and Control



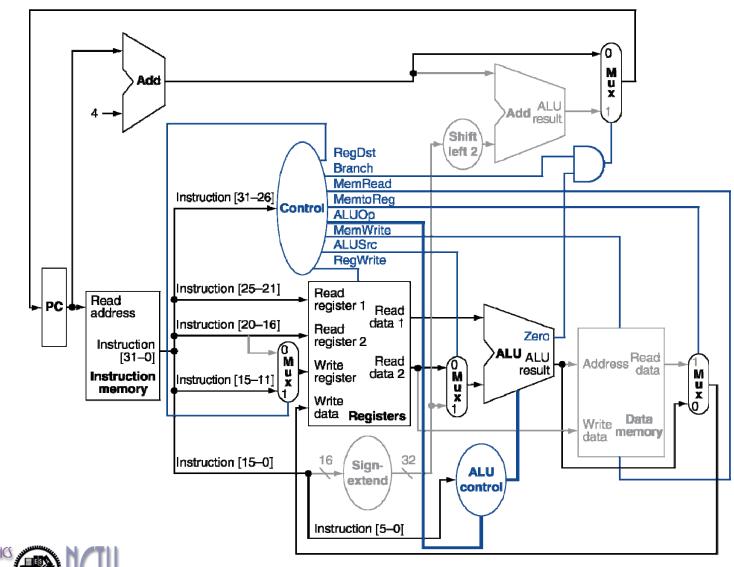


Datapath With Control



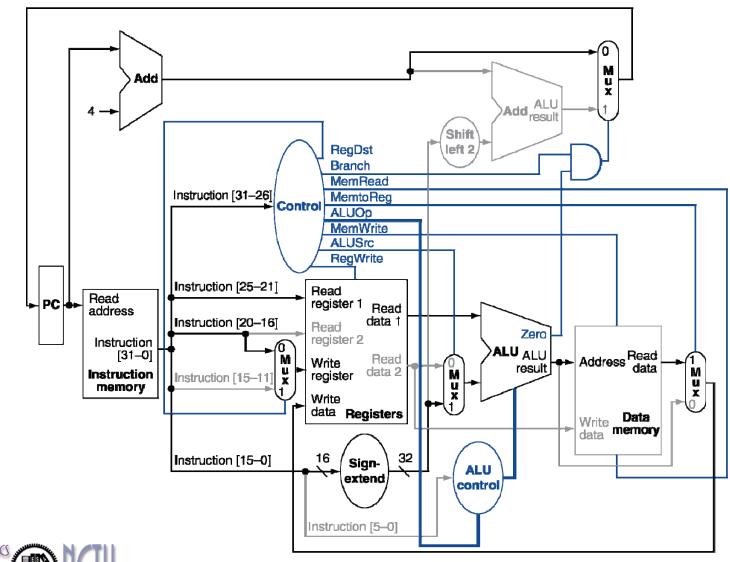


R-Type Instruction



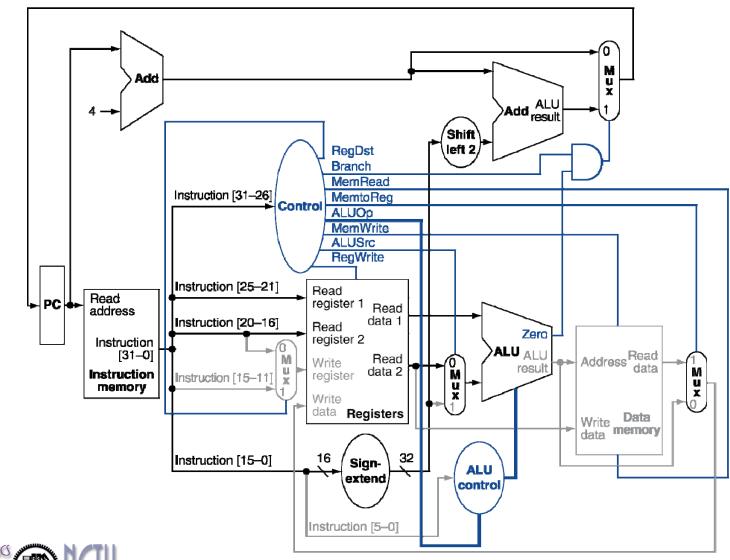


Load Instruction

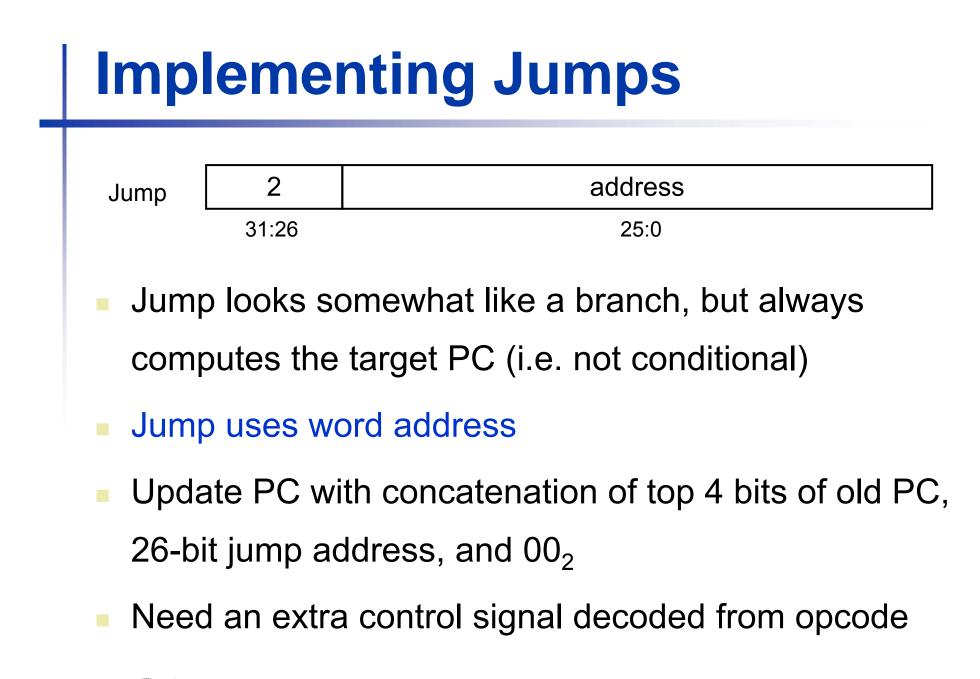




Branch-on-Equal Instruction

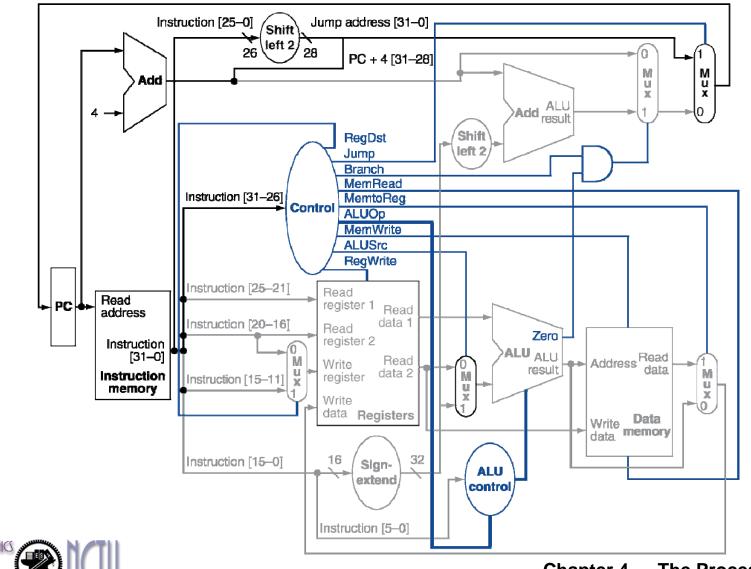








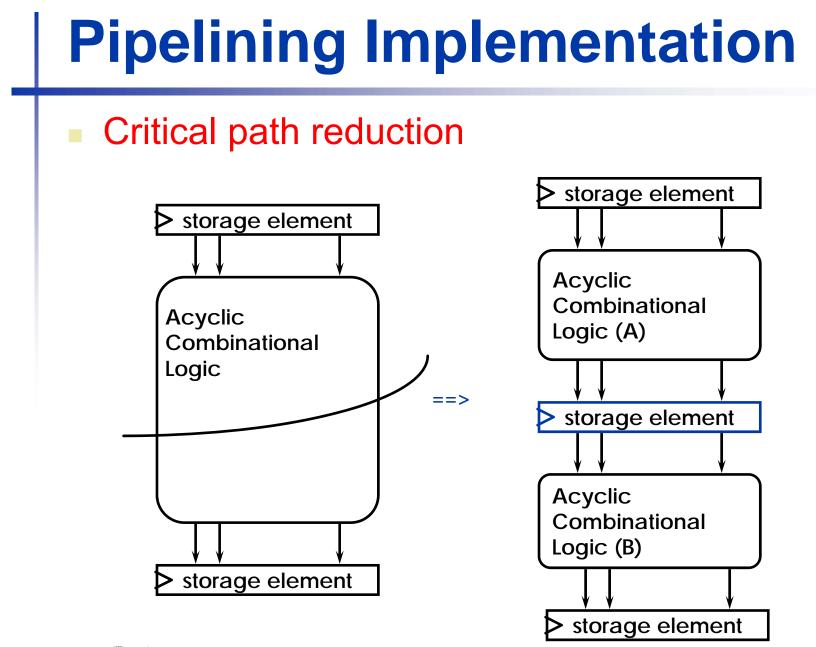
Datapath With Jumps Added



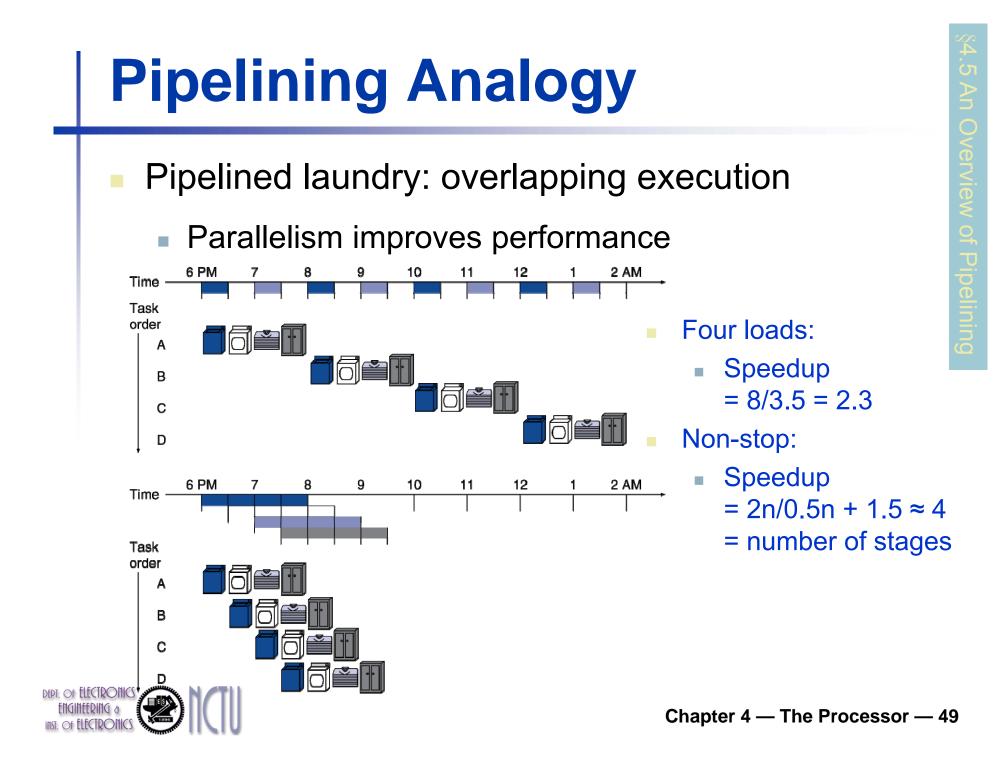
Concluding Remarks

- Not feasible to vary clock period for different instructions
- Longest delay determines clock period
 - Critical path: load instruction
 - Instruction memory → register file → ALU → data memory → register file
- "Making the common case fast" cannot improve the worst-case delay
 Single cycle implementation violates the design principle
- We will improve performance by pipelining







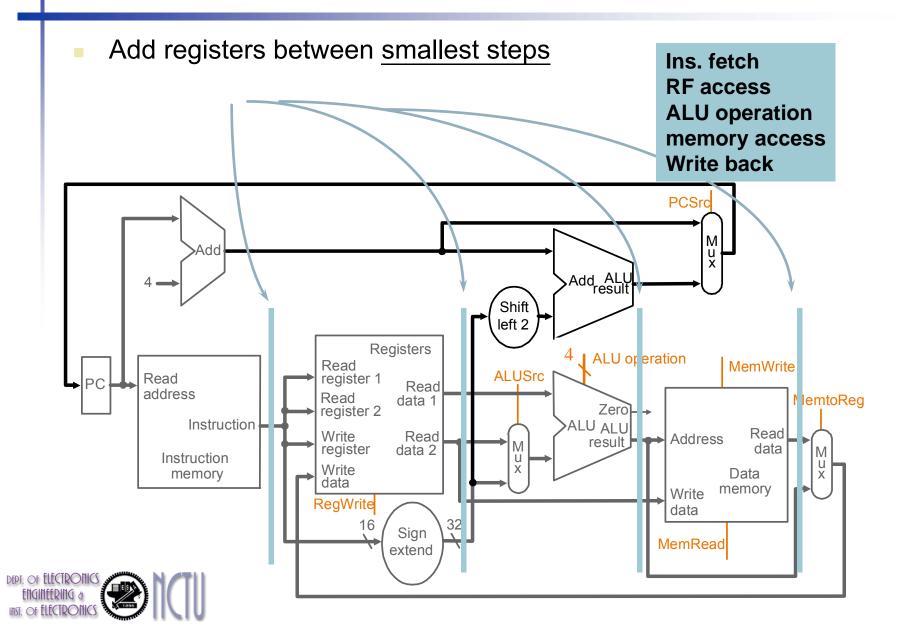


Steps for Designing a Pipelined Processor

- Examine the datapath and control diagram
 - Starting with single cycle datapath
- Partition datapath into stages:
 - IF (instruction fetch), ID (instruction decode and register file read), EX (execution or address calculation), MEM (data memory access), WB (write back)
- Associate resources with stages
- Ensure that flows do not conflict, or figure out how to resolve
- Assert control in appropriate stage



Partition Single-Cycle Datapath



5-Stage MIPS Pipeline

- Five steps, one stage per step
 - 1. IF: Instruction fetch from memory
 - 2. ID: Instruction decode & register read
 - 3. EX: Execute operation or calculate address
 - 4. MEM: Access memory operand
 - 5. WB: Write result back to register



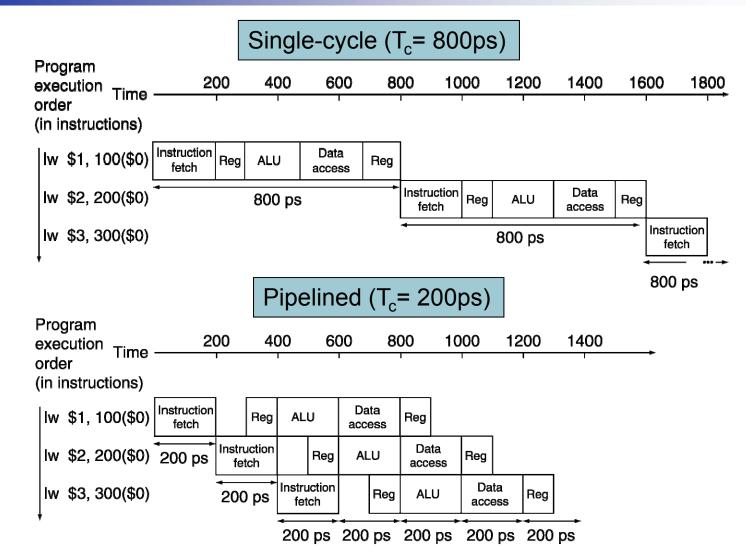
Pipeline Performance

- Assume time for stages is
 - 100ps for register read or write
 - 200ps for other stages
- Compare pipelined datapath with single-cycle datapath

| Instr | Instr fetch | Register read | ALU op | Memory access | Register write | Total time |
|----------|-------------|------------------|--------|------------------|-------------------|------------|
| lw | 200ps | 100 ps | 200ps | 200ps | 100 ps | 800ps |
| SW | 200ps | 100 ps | 200ps | 200ps | | 700ps |
| R-format | 200ps | 100 ps | 200ps | | 100 ps | 600ps |
| beq | 200ps | 100 ps | 200ps | | | 500ps |



Pipeline Performance





Pipeline Speedup

- If all stages are balanced
 - i.e., all take the same time
 - Time between instructions_{pipelined}
 - = Time between instructions_{nonpipelined}

Number of stages

- If not balanced, speedup is less
- Speedup due to increased throughput
 - Latency (time for each instruction) does not decrease



Pipelining Lessons

- Doesn't help latency of single task, but throughput of entire
- Pipeline rate limited by slowest stage
- Multiple tasks working at same time using different resources
- Potential speedup = Number pipe stages
- Unbalanced stage length; time to "fill" & "drain" the pipeline reduce speedup
- Stall for dependences or pipeline hazards



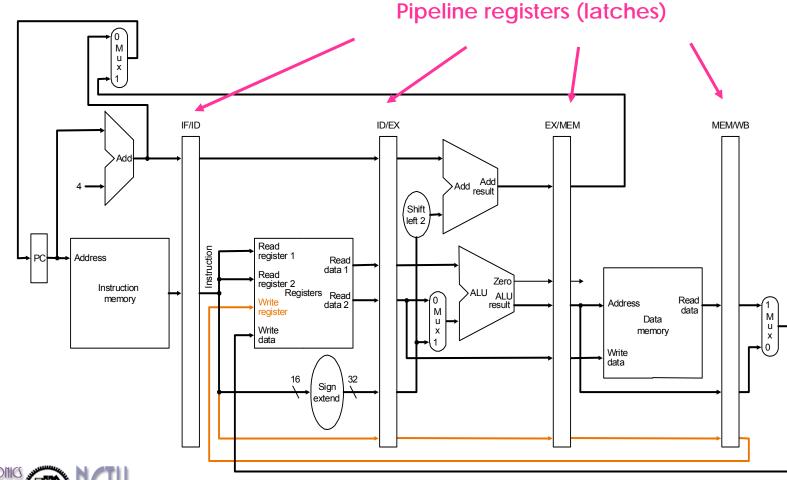
MIPS ISA Designed for Pipelining

- All instructions are 32-bits
 - Easier to fetch and decode in one cycle
 - c.f. x86: 1- to 17-byte instructions
- Few and regular instruction formats
 - Can decode and read registers in one step
- Load/store addressing
 - Can calculate address in 3rd stage, access memory in 4th stage
- Alignment of memory operands
 - Memory access takes only one cycle



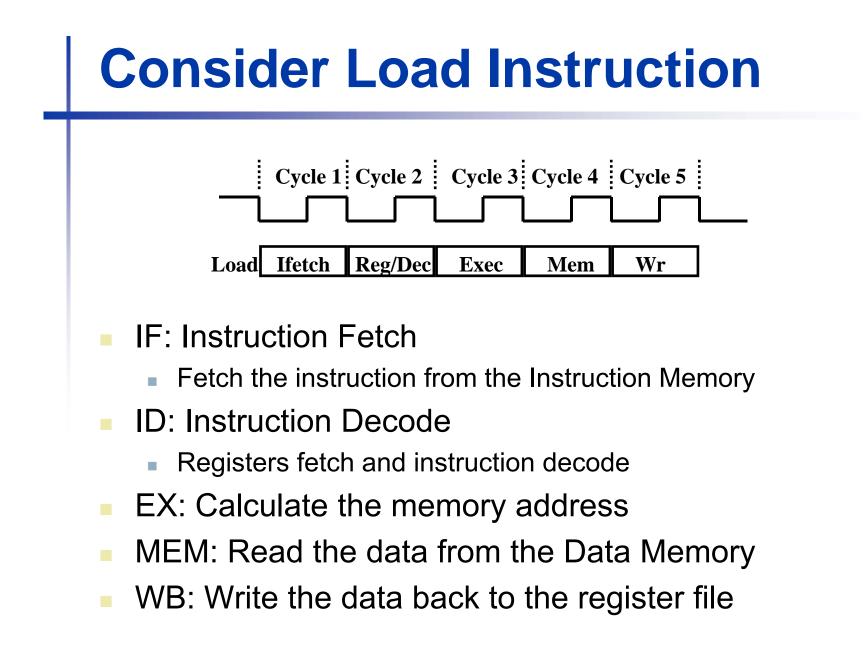
Pipelined Datapath

Use registers between stages to carry data and control



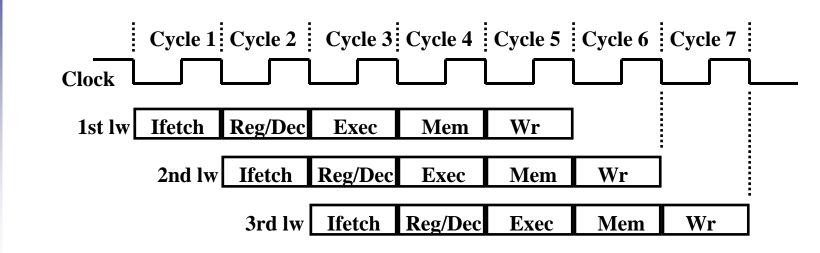
Lecture06 - pipelining (cwliu@twins.ee.nctu.edu.tw) — 58





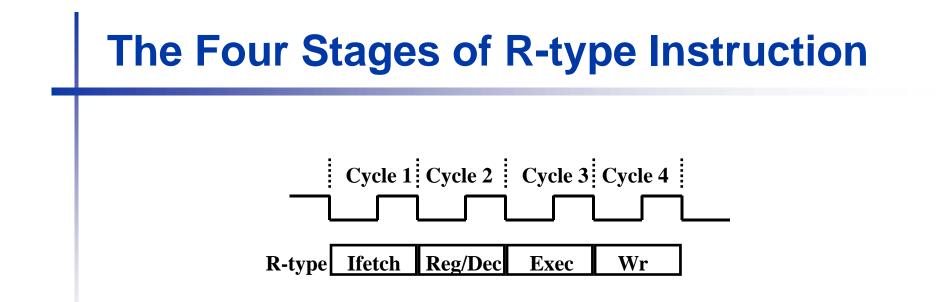


Pipelining 1w Instructions



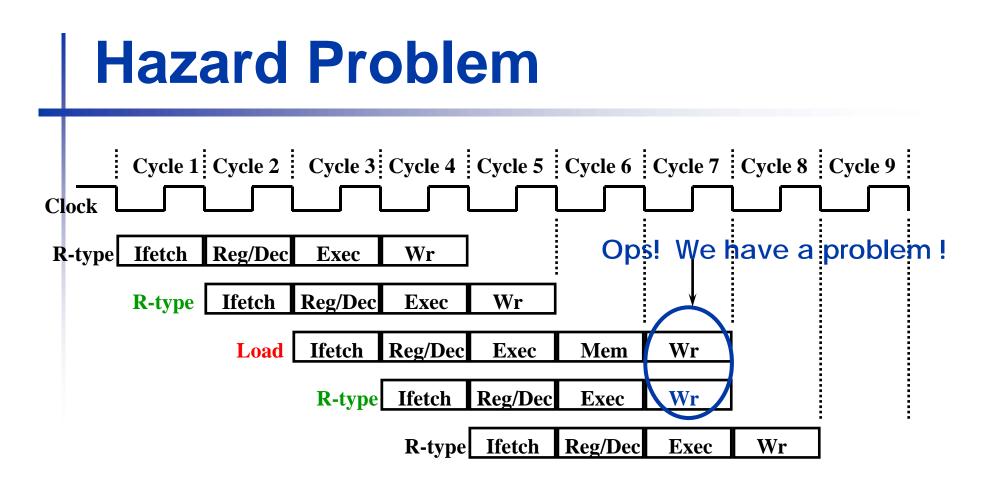
- 5 functional units in the pipeline datapath are:
 - Instruction Memory for the Ifetch stage
 - Register File's Read ports (busA and busB) for the Reg/Dec stage
 - ALU for the Exec stage
 - Data Memory for the MEM stage
 - Register File's Write port (busW) for the WB stage





- IF: fetch the instruction from the Instruction Memory
- ID: registers fetch and instruction decode
- EX: ALU operates on the two register operands
- WB: write ALU output back to the register file





- We have a structural hazard:
 - Two instructions try to write to the RF at the same time, but only one write port !



Pipeline Hazards

- Situations that prevent starting the next instruction in the next cycle
- Structure hazard
 - A required resource is busy
- Data hazard
 - Need to wait for previous instruction to complete its data read/write
- Control hazard
 - Deciding on control action depends on previous instruction
- Several ways to solve: forwarding, adding pipeline bubble, making instructions same length

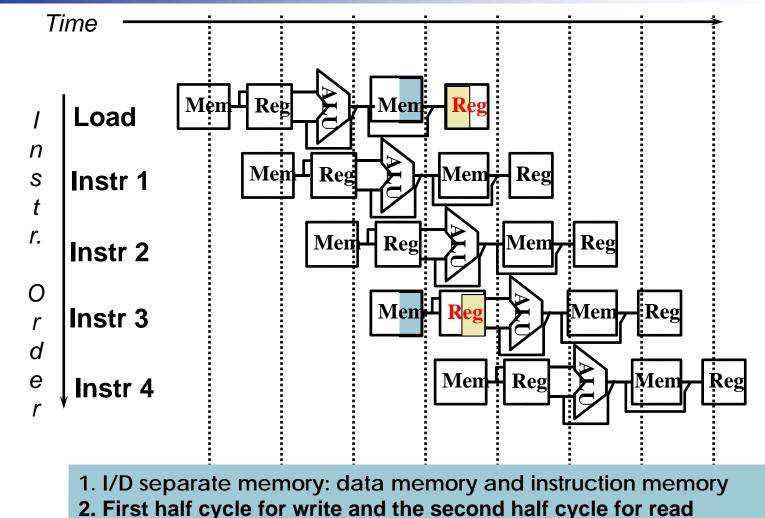


Structure Hazards

- Conflict for use of a resource
- In MIPS pipeline with a single memory
 - Load/store requires data access
 - Instruction fetch would have to stall for that cycle
 - Would cause a pipeline "bubble"
- Hence, pipelined datapaths require separate instruction/data memories
 - Or separate instruction/data caches



Structural Hazard Solution: Seperate I/D Memory

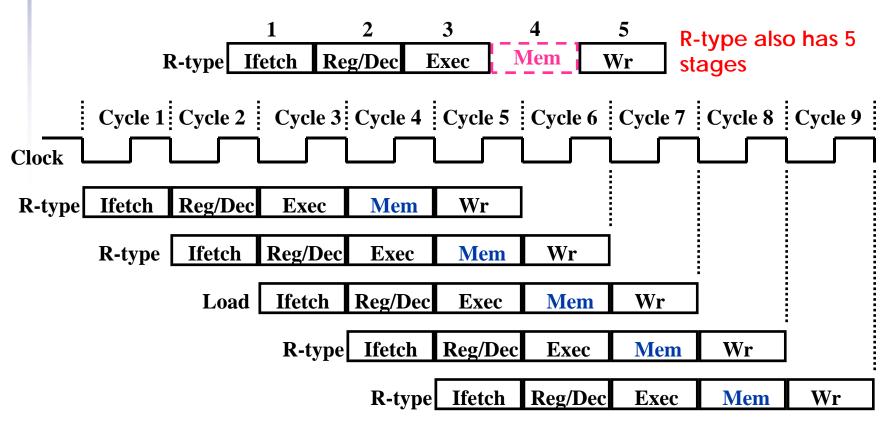




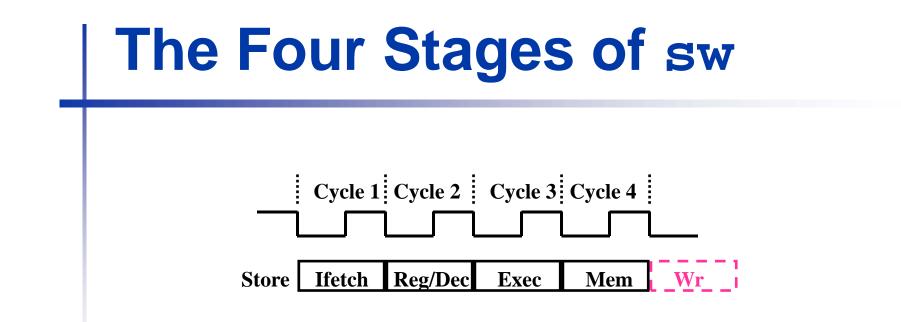
Structural Hazard Solution: Delay R-type's Write



- R-type also use Reg File's write port at Stage 5
- MEM is a NOP stage: nothing is being done.







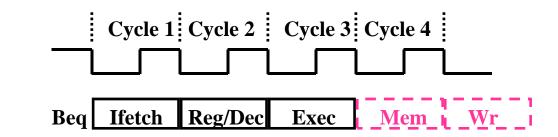
- IF: fetch the instruction from the Instruction Memory
- ID: registers fetch and instruction decode
- EX: calculate the memory address
- MEM: write the data into the Data Memory

Add an extra stage:

WB: NOP



The Three Stages of beq



- IF: fetch the instruction from the Instruction Memory
- ID: registers fetch and instruction decode
- EX:
 - compares the two register operand
 - select correct branch target address
 - Iatch into PC

Add two extra stages:

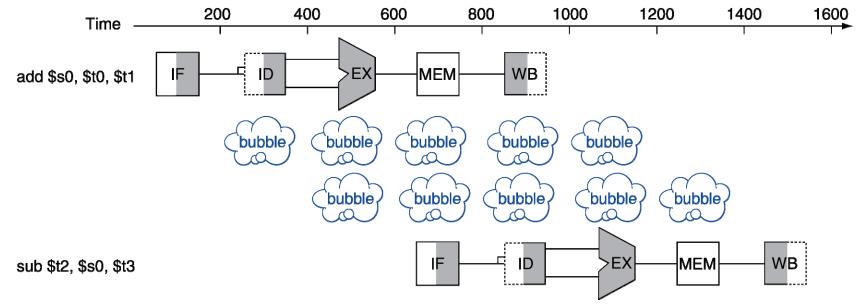
- MEM: NOP
- WB: NOP



Data Hazards

- An instruction depends on completion of data access by a previous instruction
 - add <mark>\$s0</mark>, \$t0, \$t1

sub \$t2, <mark>\$s0</mark>, \$t3





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Types of Data Hazards

Three types: (inst. i1 followed by inst. i2)

- RAW (read after write):
 i2 tries to read operand before i1 writes it
- WAR (write after read):

i2 tries to write operand before i1 reads it

- Gets wrong operand, e.g., autoincrement addr.
- Can't happen in MIPS 5-stage pipeline because:
 - All instructions take 5 stages, and reads are always in stage 2, and writes are always in stage 5
- WAW (write after write):

i2 tries to write operand before i1 writes it

- Leaves wrong result (i1's not i2's); occur only in pipelines that write in more than one stage
- Can't happen in MIPS 5-stage pipeline because:
 - All instructions take 5 stages, and writes are always in stage 5
- RAR?

No dependency



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True data dependency

Name dependency

Name dependency

Handling Data Hazards

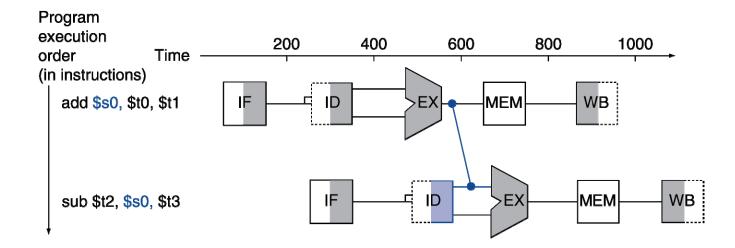
- Use simple, fixed designs
 - Eliminate WAR by always fetching operands early (ID) in pipeline
 - Eliminate WAW by doing all write backs in order (last stage, static)
 - These features have a lot to do with ISA design
- Internal forwarding in register file:
 - Write in first half of clock and read in second half
 - Read delivers what is written, resolve hazard between sub and add
- Detect and resolve remaining ones
 - Compiler inserts NOP, or reorders the code sequence
 - Forward
 - Stall



Forwarding (aka Bypassing)

- Use result when it is computed
 - Don't wait for it to be stored in a register
 - Requires extra connections in the datapath

Hardware complexity 1





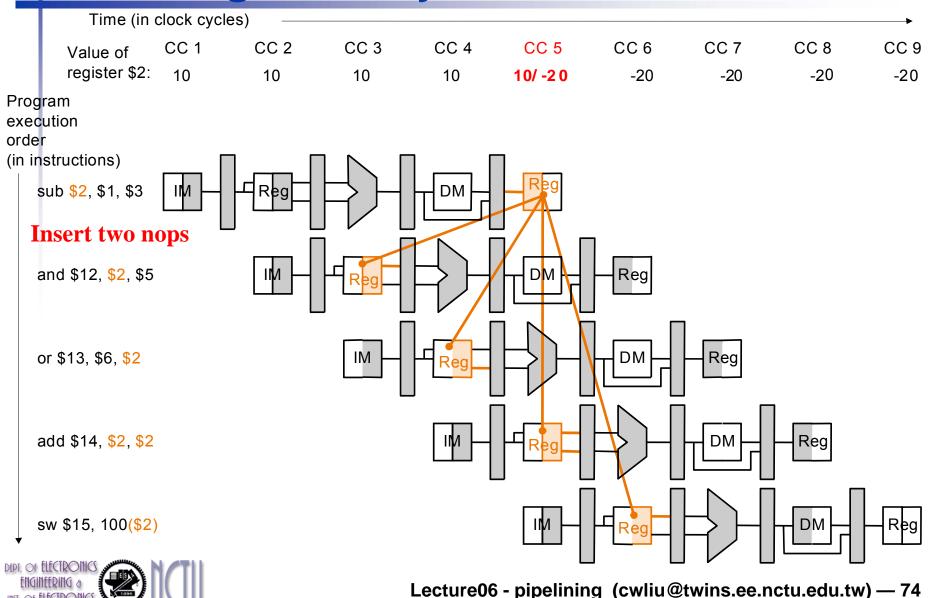
Example

Consider the following code sequence

sub \$2, \$1, \$3
and \$12, \$2, \$5
or \$13, \$6, \$2
add \$14, \$2, \$2
sw \$15, 100(\$2)

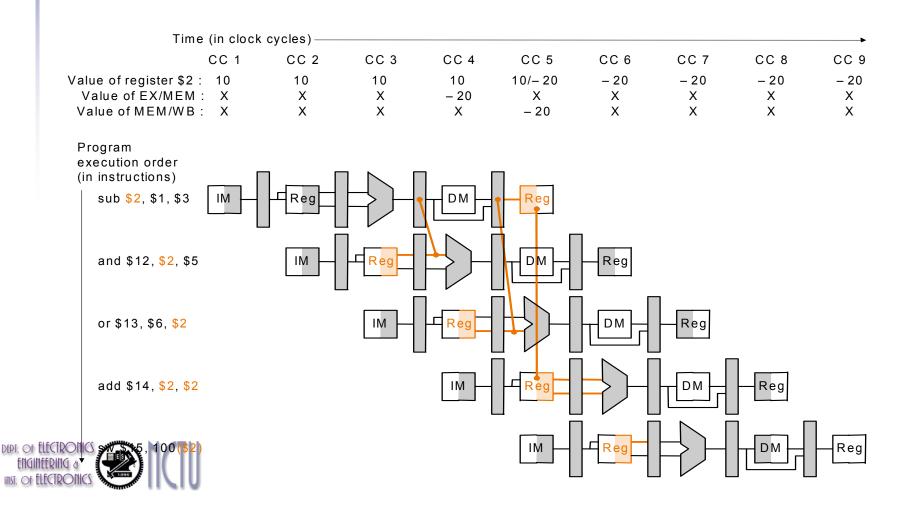


Data Hazards Solution: Inserting NOPs by Software

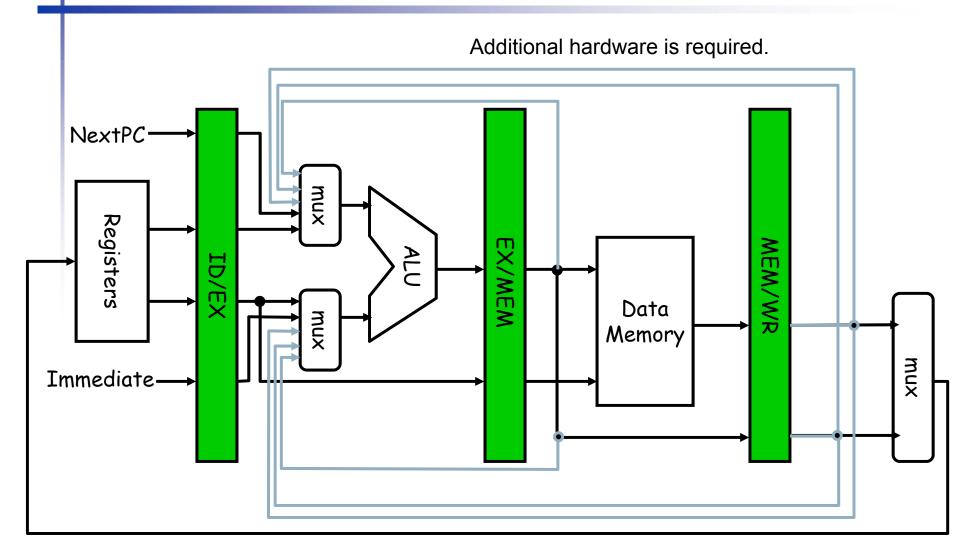


Data Hazards Solution: Internal Forwarding Logic

 Use temporary results, e.g., those in pipeline registers, don't wait for them to be written



HW Change for Forwarding

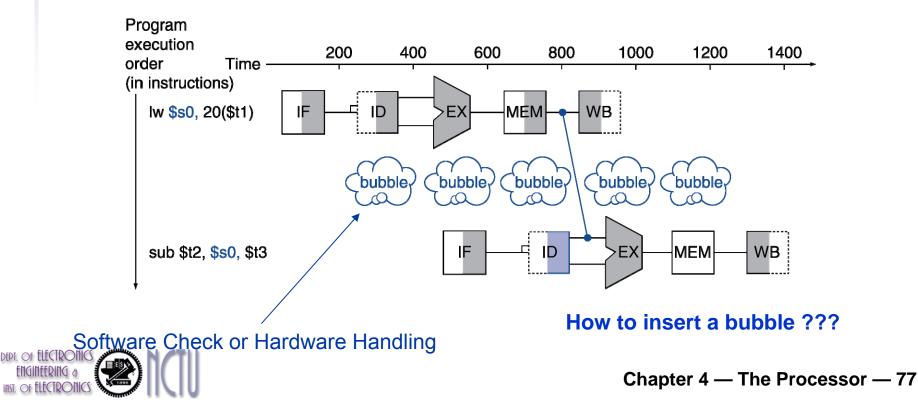




Load-Use Data Hazard

Can't always avoid stalls by forwarding

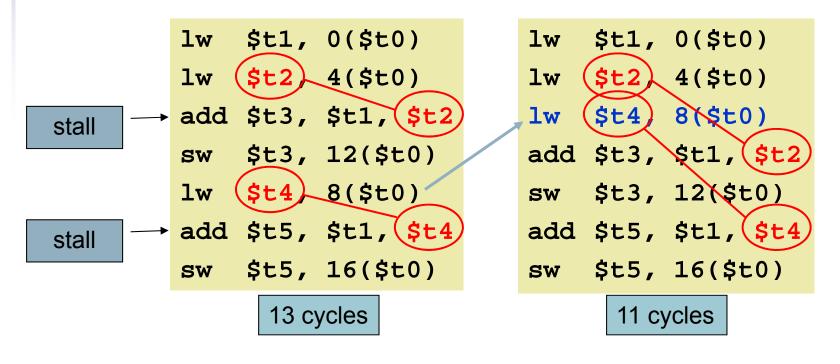
- If value not computed when needed
- Can't forward backward in time!



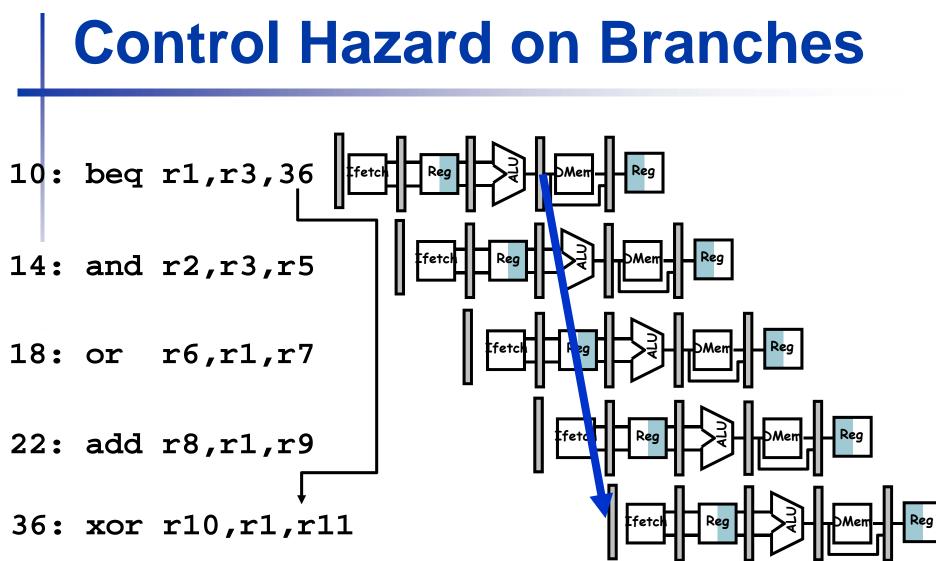
Rescheduling Code to Avoid Stalls

 Compiler reorders the code sequence to avoid use of load result in the next instruction

• C code for A = B + E; C = B + F;







What do you do with the 3 instructions in between?

The simplest solution is to stall the pipeline as soon as a branch instruction is detected



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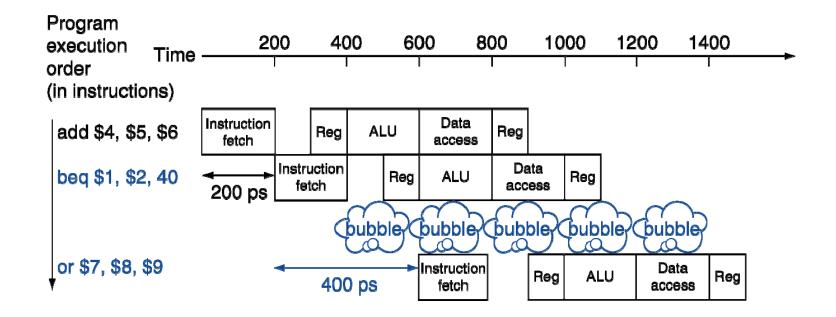
Branch Stall Impact

- If CPI = 1, 30% branch, Stall 3 cycles => new CPI = 1.9!
- Two-part solution:
 - Determine branch taken or not sooner, AND
 - Compute taken branch address earlier
- MIPS branch tests if register = 0 or \neq 0
- MIPS Solution:
 - Move Zero test to ID/RF stage
 - Adder to calculate new PC in ID/RF stage
 - 1 clock cycle penalty for branch versus 3



Stall on Branch

 Wait until branch outcome determined before fetching next instruction



How to add a stall cycle ?



Four Alternatives for Control Hazard

#1: Stall until branch direction is clear

#2: Predict Branch Not Taken

- Execute successor instructions in sequence
- "Squash" instructions in pipeline if branch actually taken
- Advantage of late pipeline state update
- PC+4 already calculated, so use it to get next instruction
- #3: Predict Branch Taken
 - But haven't calculated branch target address in MIPS, it still incurs 1 cycle branch penalty
 - Advantage of branch target is known before outcome



Four Alternatives for Control Hazard

#4: Delayed Branch - make the stall cycle useful

- Define branch to take place AFTER a following instruction

```
branch instruction

sequential successor<sub>1</sub>

.....

sequential successor<sub>2</sub>

.....

sequential successor<sub>n</sub>

Branch delay of length n

These insts. are executed !!

branch target if taken
```

- 0-cycle latency, if all the stall cycles are useful

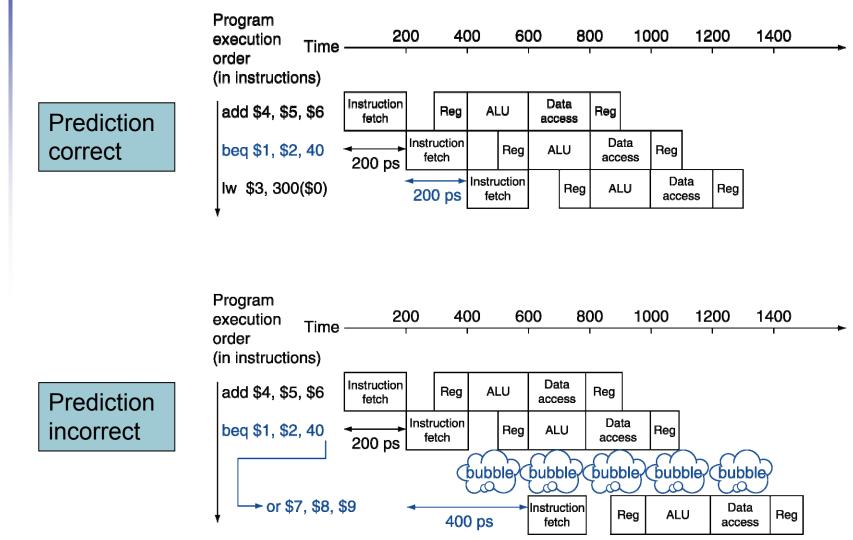


Handling Branch Hazard

- Moving branch execution earlier in the pipeline
 - Move up branch address calculation to ID
 - Check branch equality at ID (using XOR for zero test) by comparing the two registers read during ID
 - Branch decision made at ID => one instruction to flush
 - Add a control signal, IF.Flush, to zero instruction field of IF/ID => making the instruction an NOP (i.e. bubble instruction)
- (Static) Predict branch always not taken
 - Need to add hardware for flushing inst. if wrong
- Compiler rescheduling and delay branch (discussed later)
- Dynamic branch prediction (discussed later)



MIPS with Predict Not Taken





More-Realistic Branch Prediction

- Static n-bit branch prediction
 - Based on typical branch behavior
 - Example: loop and if-statement branches
 - Predict backward branches taken
 - Predict forward branches not taken
- Dynamic branch prediction
 - Hardware measures actual branch behavior
 - e.g., record recent history of each branch
 - Assume future behavior will continue the trend
 - When wrong, stall while re-fetching, and update history



Pipeline Operation

- Cycle-by-cycle flow of instructions through the pipelined datapath
 - "Single-clock-cycle" pipeline diagram
 - Shows pipeline usage in a single cycle
 - Highlight resources used
 - c.f. "multi-clock-cycle" diagram
 - Graph of operation over time

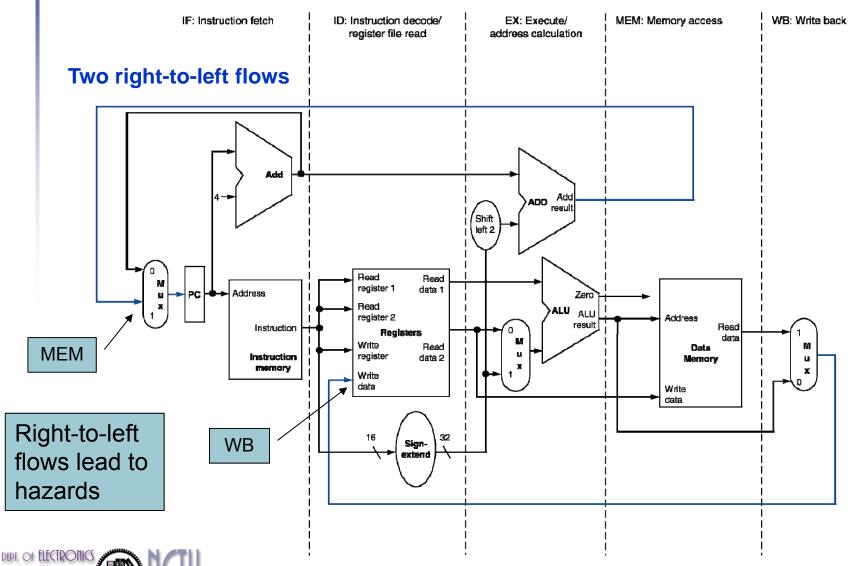


Recall: Steps for Designing a Pipelined Processor

- Examine the datapath and control diagram
 - Starting with single cycle datapath
- Partition datapath into stages:
 - IF (instruction fetch), ID (instruction decode and register file read), EX (execution or address calculation), MEM (data memory access), WB (write back)
- Associate resources with stages
- Ensure that flows do not conflict, or figure out how to resolve
- Assert control in appropriate stage



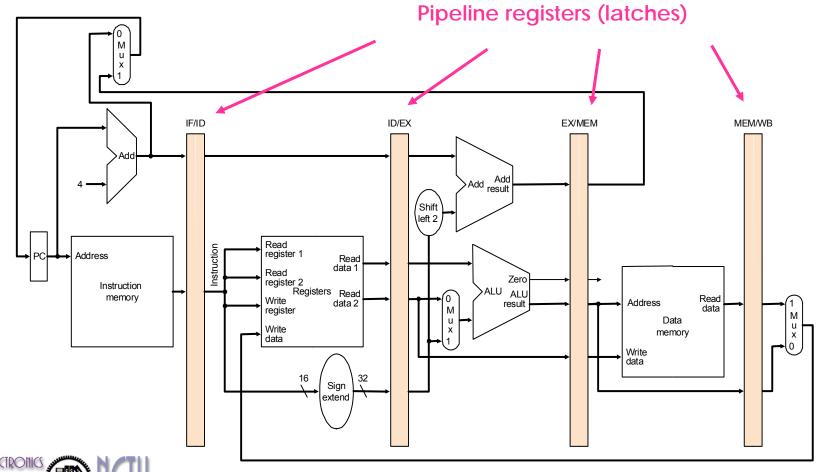
MIPS Single-Cycle Datapath





Pipeline Registers

Use registers between stages to carry data and control



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MIPS ISA Micro-Operations

One way to show what happens in pipelined execution

| Step name | Action for R-type instructions | Action for memory-reference instructions | Action for branches | Action for jumps | | |
|---|---|--|--------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--|--|
| Instruction fetch | IR = Memory[PC] PC = PC + 4 | | | | | |
| Instruction decode/register fetch | A = Reg [IR[25-21]] B = Reg [IR[20-16]] ALUOut = PC + (sign-extend (IR[15-0]) << 2) | | | | | |
| Execution, address computation, branch/ jump completion | ALUOut = A op B | ALUOut = A + sign-extend (IR[15-0]) | if (A ==B) then PC = ALUOut | PC = PC [31-28] II (IR[25-0]<<2) | | |
| Memory access or R-type completion | Reg [IR[15-11]] = ALUOut | Load: MDR = Memory[ALUOut] or Store: Memory [ALUOut] = B | | | | |
| Memory read completion | | Load: Reg[IR[20-16]] = MDR | | | | |



MIPS ISA Micro-Operations

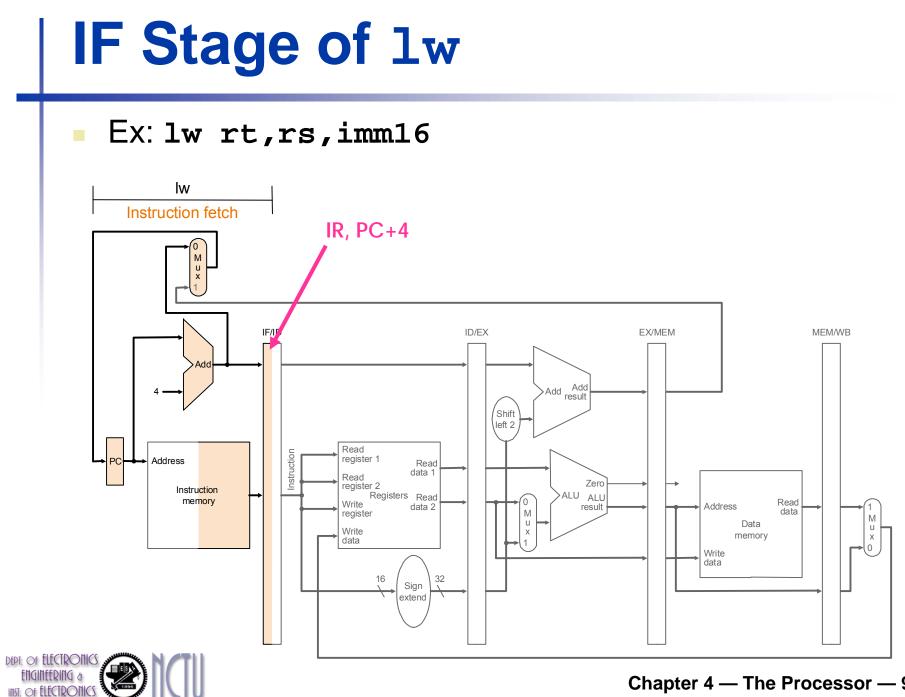
| Step name | Action for R-type instructions | Action for memory-reference instructions | Action for branches | Action for jumps | | | | |
|-------------------------|--|---|---------------------|--------------------|--|--|--|--|
| Instruction fetch | IR = Memory[PC] | | | | | | | |
| | PC = PC + 4 | | | | | | | |
| Instruction decode & | A = Reg [IR[25-21]]; B = Reg [IR[20-16]] | | | | | | | |
| register fetch | if (A ==B) then, ALUOut = PC + (sign-extend (IR[15-0]) << 2) | | | | | | | |
| Execution/ address | ALUOut = A op B | ALUOut = A + sign-extend | | PC = PC [31-28] II | | | | |
| computation | | (IR[15-0]) | | (IR[25-0]<<2) | | | | |
| Memory access or R-type | | Load: MDR = Memory[ALUOut] | | | | | | |
| completion | | or | | | | | | |
| | | Store: Memory [ALUOut] = B | | | | | | |
| Memory read completion/ | Reg [IR[15-11]] = | Load: Reg[IR[20-16]] = MDR | | | | | | |
| R-type completion | ALUOut | LUAU. REGIN[20-10]] - MDR | | | | | | |



Pipeline Operation

- Cycle-by-cycle flow of instructions through the pipelined datapath
 - Shows pipeline usage in a single cycle (stage)
 - Highlight resources used
- We'll look at "single-clock-cycle" diagrams for load instruction

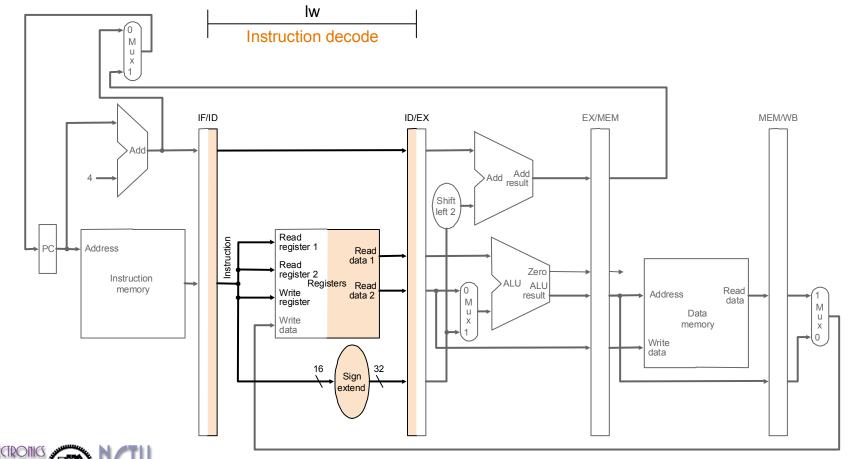




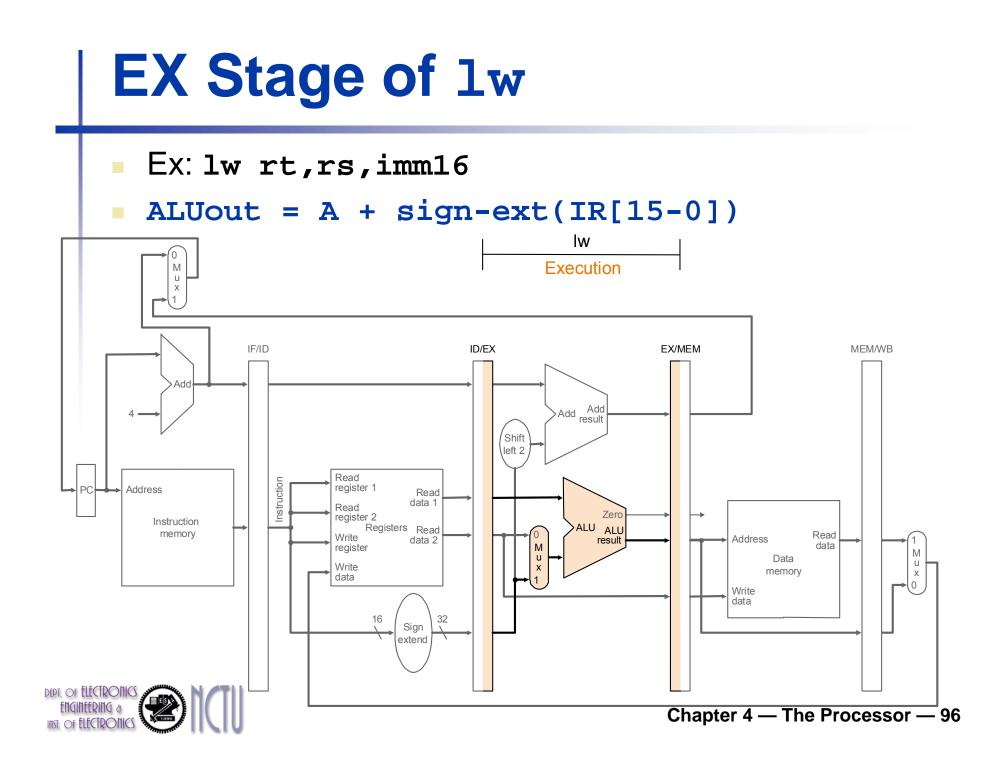
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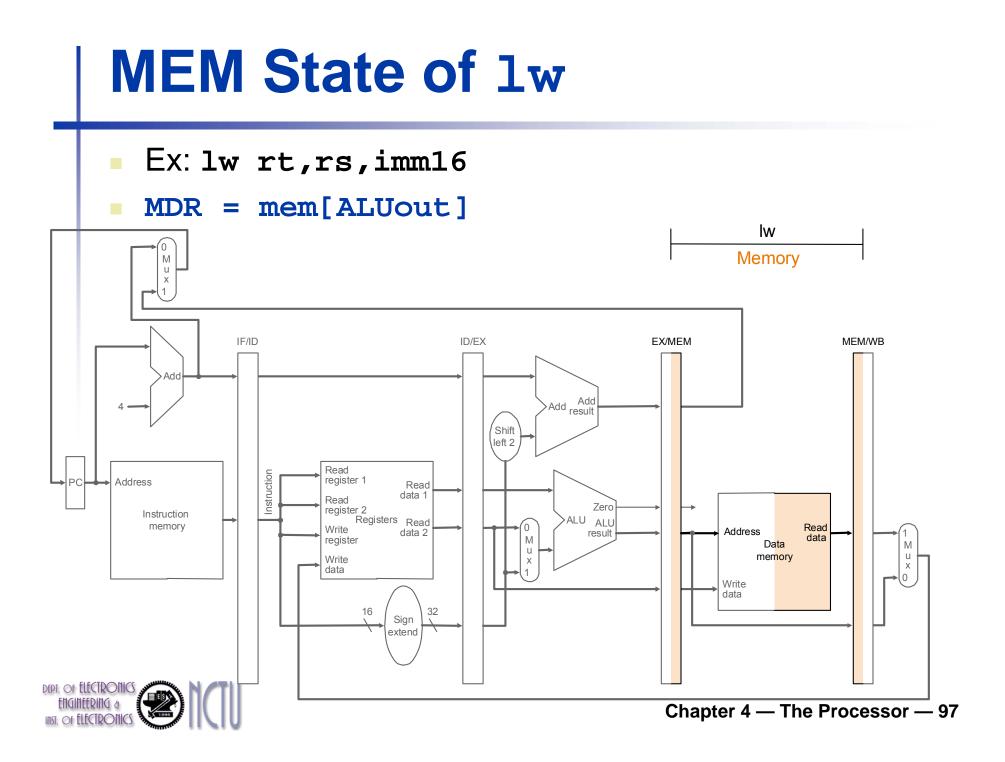
ID Stage of 1w

- Ex: lw rt, rs, imm16
- A = Reg[IR[25-21]];







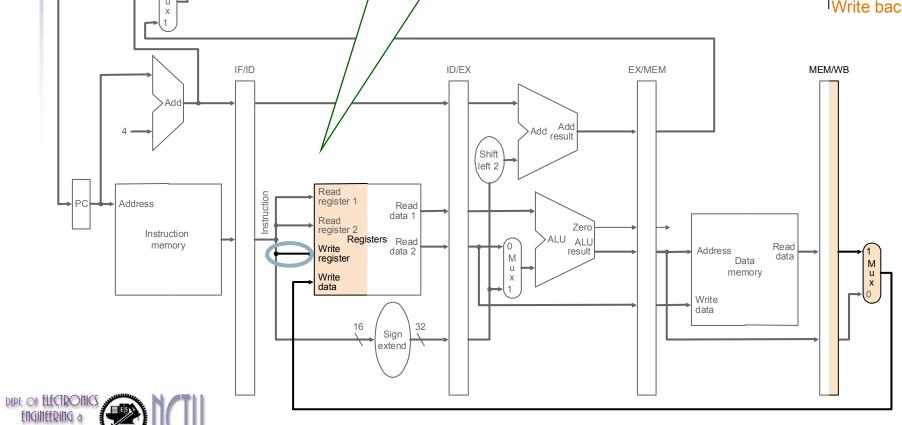


WB Stage of lw Ex: lw rt,rs,imm16 Reg[IR[20-1611 = MDR Who will supply

Μ

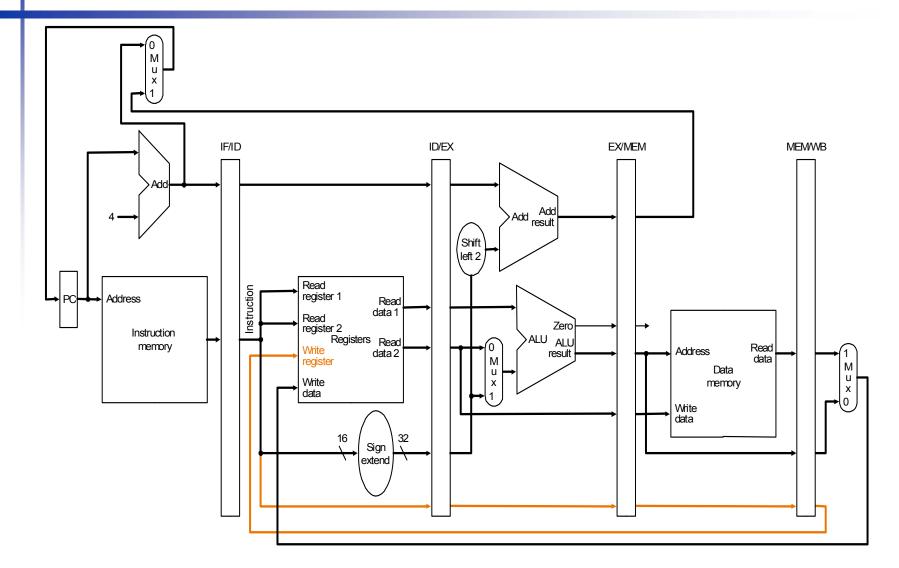
INST. OF ELECTRONICS





this address?

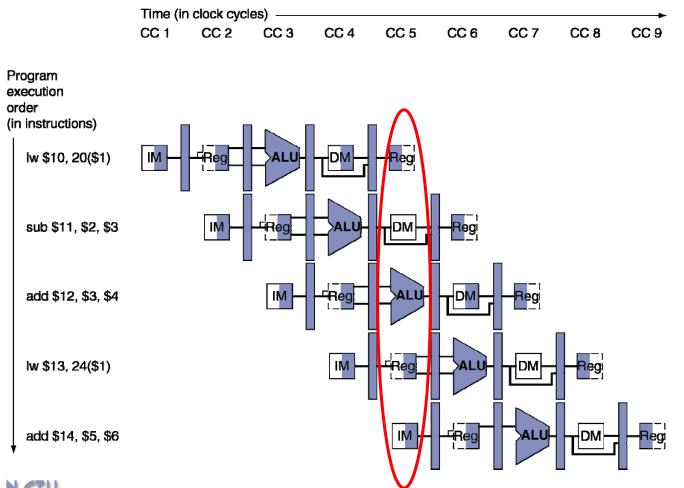
Pipelined Datapath





Pipeline Diagram

Multi-clock-cycle pipeline diagram

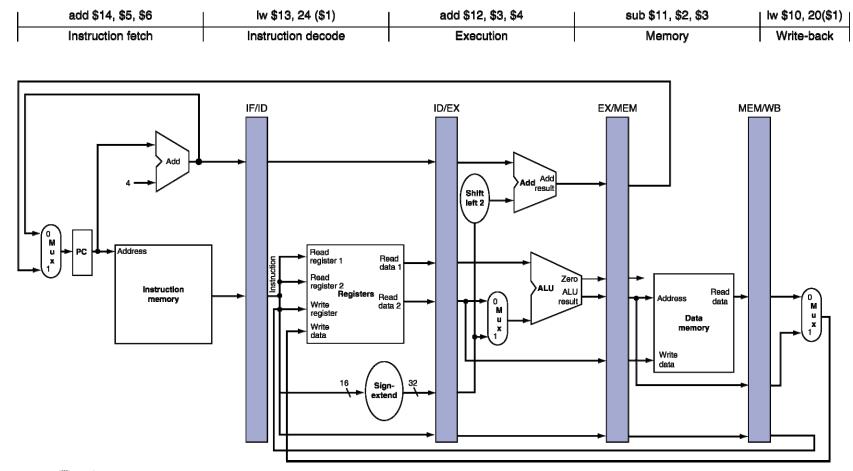




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Pipeline diagram

Single-clock-cycle diagram in a given cycle cc5

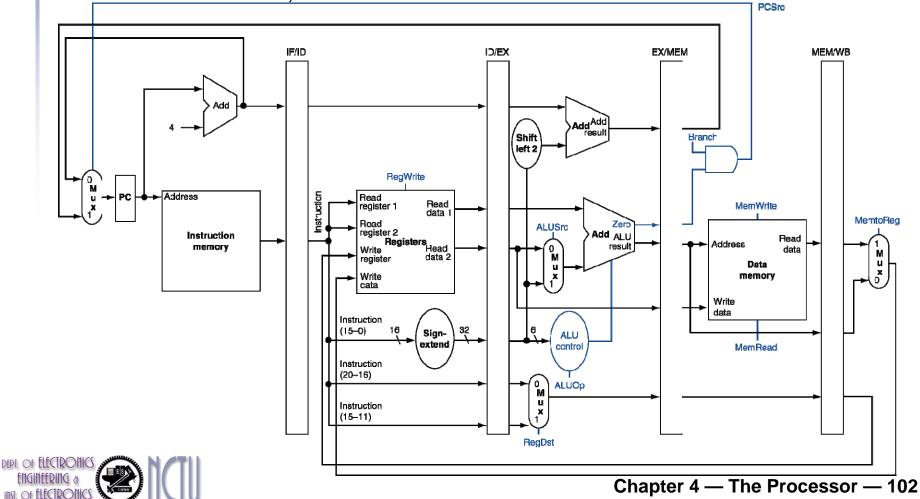




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Pipelined Control (1)

- Start with the (simplified) single-cycle datapath
 - Use the same ALU control logic, branch logic, destination-registernumber MUX, and control lines



Pipelined Control (2)

 To specify control for the pipeline, we need to set control values during each pipeline stage.

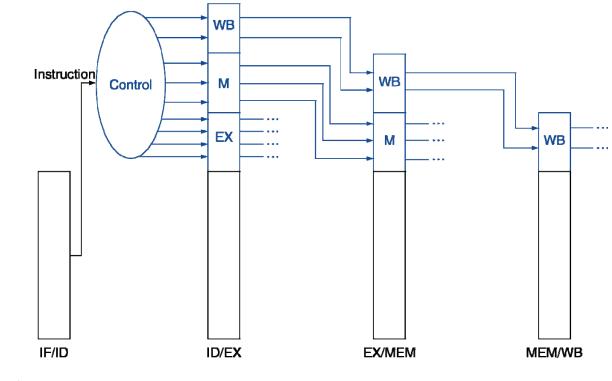
| Instruction | Execution/address calculation stage control lines | | | Memory access stage control lines | | | Write-back stage control lines | | |
|-------------|--|--------|--------|--------------------------------------|--------|--------------|-----------------------------------|---------------|---------------|
| | RegDst | ALUOp1 | ALUOp0 | ALUSrc | Branch | Mem- Read | Mem- Write | Reg- Write | Memto- Reg |
| R-format | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| lw | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| SW | Х | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | X |
| beg | Х | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | X |

 The simplest implementation way is data stationary pipelined control: to extend the pipeline registers to include control information



Data Stationary Pipelined Control

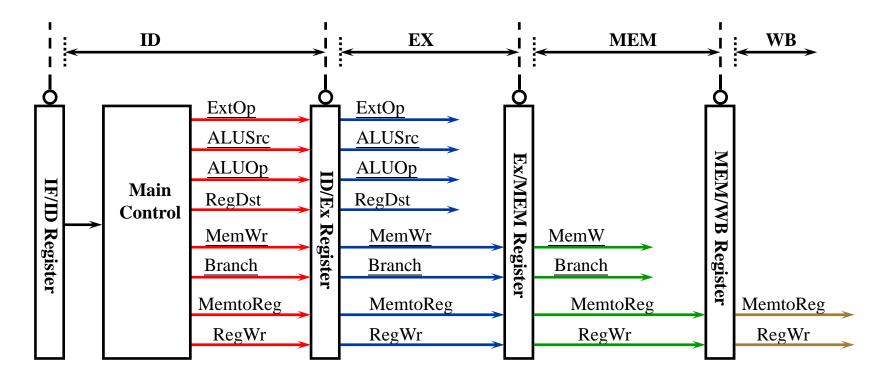
- Control signals derived from instruction
 - Main control generates control signals during ID
 - Pass control signals along just like the data





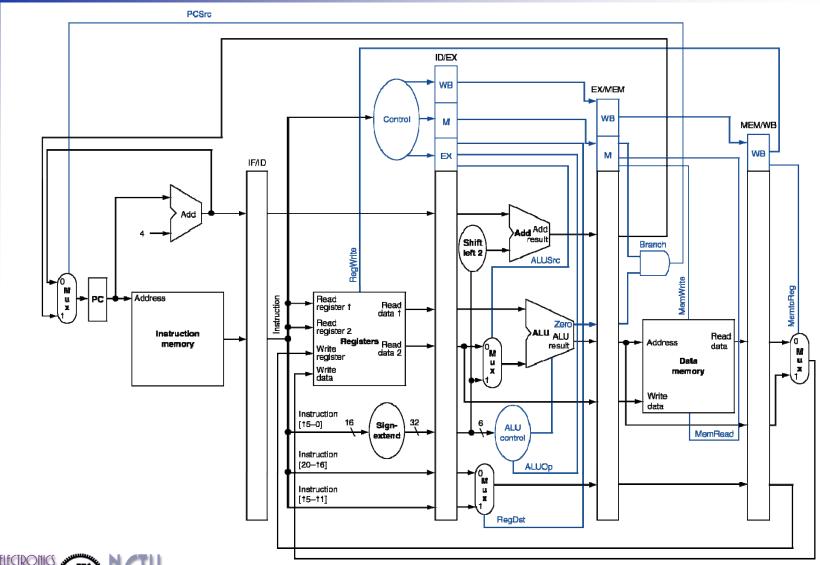
Data Stationary Control

- Signals for EX (ExtOp, ALUSrc, ...) are used 1 cycle later
- Signals for MEM (MemWr, Branch) are used 2 cycles later
- Signals for WB (MemtoReg, MemWr) are used 3 cycles later





Pipelined Control





Hazard Detection

- We can resolve hazards with forwarding, but how do we detect when to forward?
 - RAW (WAR, WAW) dependence check
 - i.e. to compare register number between instructions
 - Pass register numbers along pipeline
 - ID/EX.RegisterRs = register number for Rs sitting in ID/EX pipeline register
 - e.g. ALU operand register numbers in EX stage are given by ID/EX.RegisterRs, ID/EX.RegisterRt
- Data hazards when
 - 1a. EX/MEM.RegisterRd = ID/EX.RegisterRs
 - 1b. EX/MEM.RegisterRd = ID/EX.RegisterRt
 - 2a. MEM/WB.RegisterRd = ID/EX.RegisterRs
 - 2b. MEM/WB.RegisterRd = ID/EX.RegisterRt

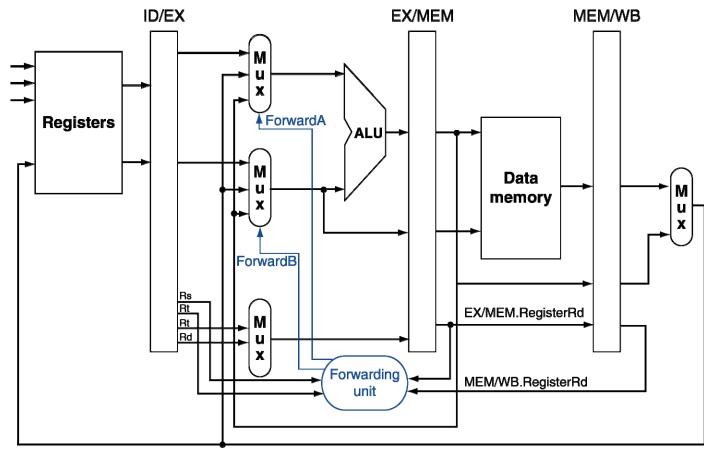


Detecting the Need to Forward

- Not always do fordward if true data hazard
 - But only if forwarding instruction will write to a register!
 - EX/MEM.RegWrite, MEM/WB.RegWrite
 - And only if Rd for that instruction is not \$zero
 - EX/MEM.RegisterRd \neq 0, MEM/WB.RegisterRd \neq 0



Forwarding Paths



b. With forwarding



Forwarding Conditions

EX hazard

- if (EX/MEM.RegWrite and (EX/MEM.RegisterRd ≠ 0) and (EX/MEM.RegisterRd = ID/EX.RegisterRs)) ForwardA = 10
- if (EX/MEM.RegWrite and (EX/MEM.RegisterRd ≠ 0) and (EX/MEM.RegisterRd = ID/EX.RegisterRt))
 ForwardB = 10
- MEM hazard
 - if (MEM/WB.RegWrite and (MEM/WB.RegisterRd ≠ 0) and (MEM/WB.RegisterRd = ID/EX.RegisterRs))
 ForwardA = 01
 - if (MEM/WB.RegWrite and (MEM/WB.RegisterRd ≠ 0) and (MEM/WB.RegisterRd = ID/EX.RegisterRt)) ForwardB = 01



Double Data Hazard

Consider the sequence:

```
add $1,$1,$2
add $1,$1,$3
add $1,$1,$4
```


Revise MEM hazard condition
 Only forward if EX hazard condition isn't true

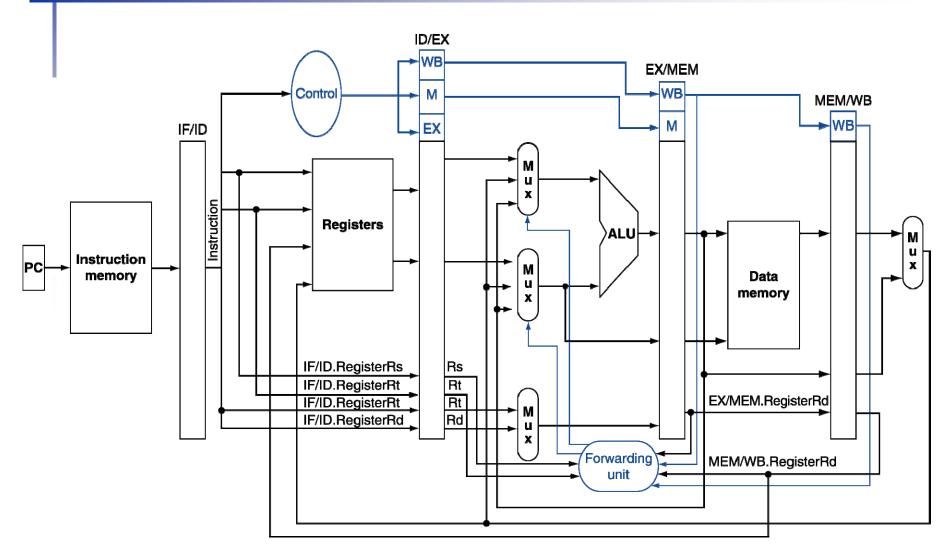


Revised Forwarding Condition

- MEM hazard
 - if (MEM/WB.RegWrite and (MEM/WB.RegisterRd ≠ 0) and not (EX/MEM.RegWrite and (EX/MEM.RegisterRd ≠ 0) and (EX/MEM.RegisterRd = ID/EX.RegisterRs)) and (MEM/WB.RegisterRd = ID/EX.RegisterRs)) ForwardA = 01
 - if (MEM/WB.RegWrite and (MEM/WB.RegisterRd ≠ 0) and not (EX/MEM.RegWrite and (EX/MEM.RegisterRd ≠ 0) and (EX/MEM.RegisterRd = ID/EX.RegisterRt)) and (MEM/WB.RegisterRd = ID/EX.RegisterRt)) ForwardB = 01

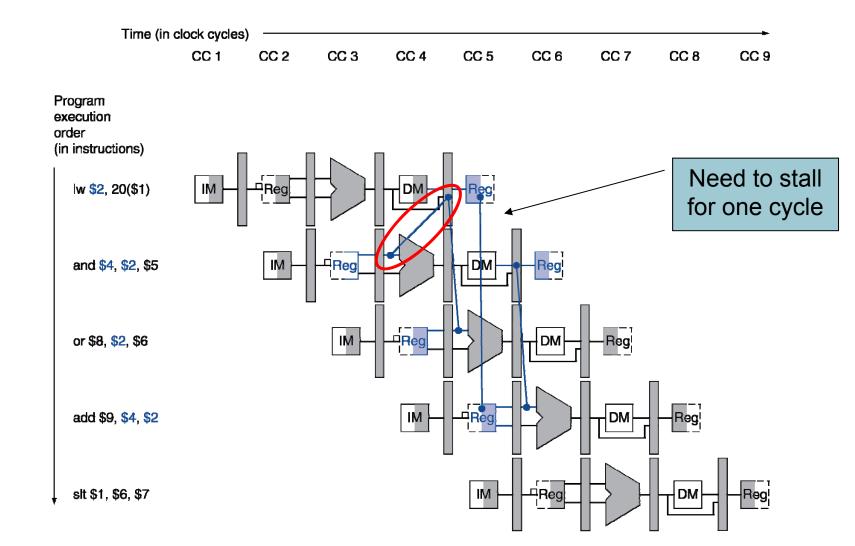


Datapath with Forwarding





Load-Use Data Hazard





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Load-Use Hazard Detection

- Check when using instruction is decoded in ID stage
- ALU operand register numbers in ID stage are given by
 - IF/ID.RegisterRs, IF/ID.RegisterRt
- Load-use hazard when
 - ID/EX.MemRead and

((ID/EX.RegisterRt = IF/ID.RegisterRs) or (ID/EX.RegisterRt = IF/ID.RegisterRt))

If detected, stall and insert bubble

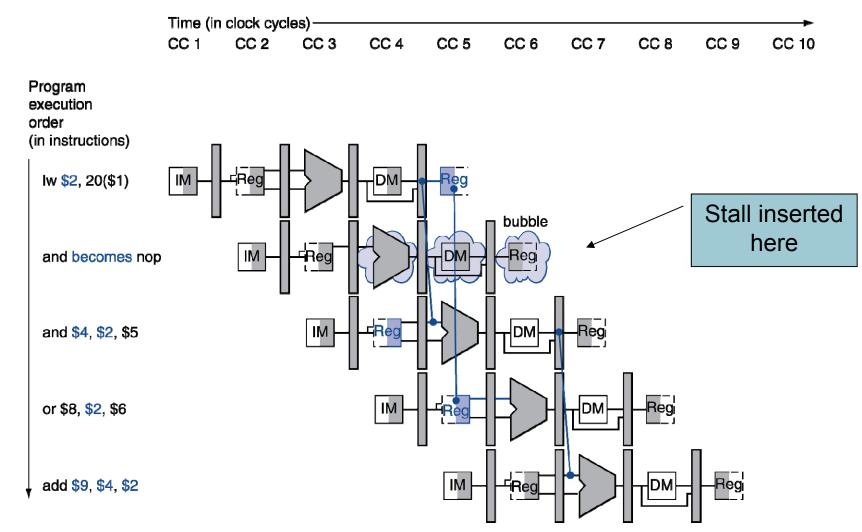


How to Stall the Pipeline

- Force control values in ID/EX register to 0
 - EX, MEM and WB do nop (no-operation)
- Prevent update of PC and IF/ID register
 - Using instruction is decoded again
 - Following instruction is fetched again
 - 1-cycle stall allows MEM to read data for I w
 - Can subsequently forward to EX stage



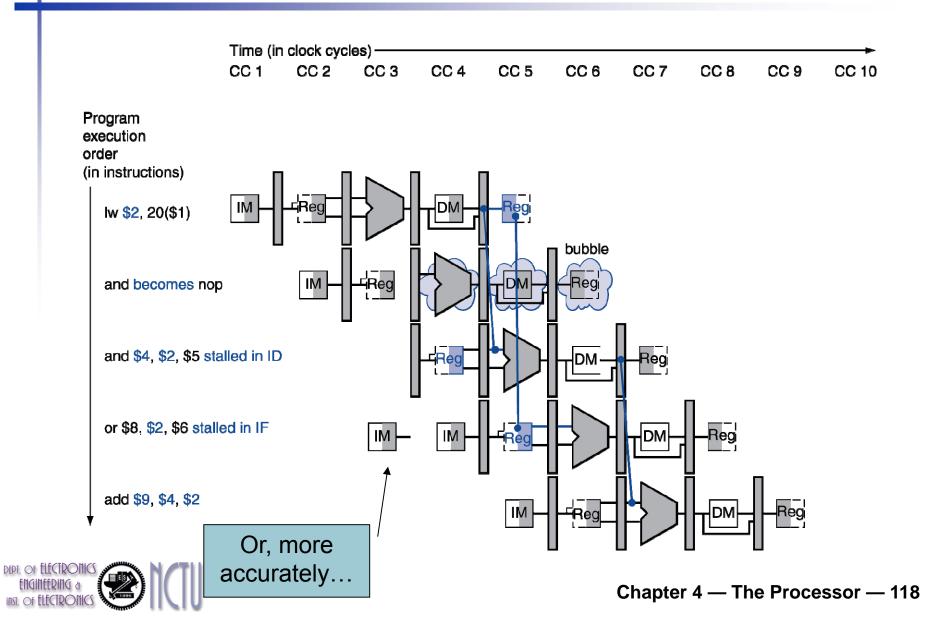
Stall/Bubble in the Pipeline



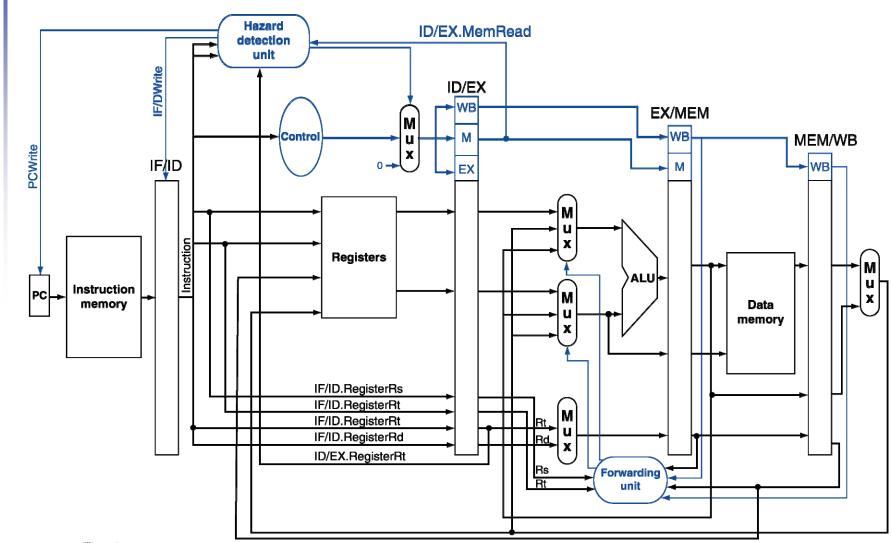


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Stall/Bubble in the Pipeline



Datapath with Hazard Detection





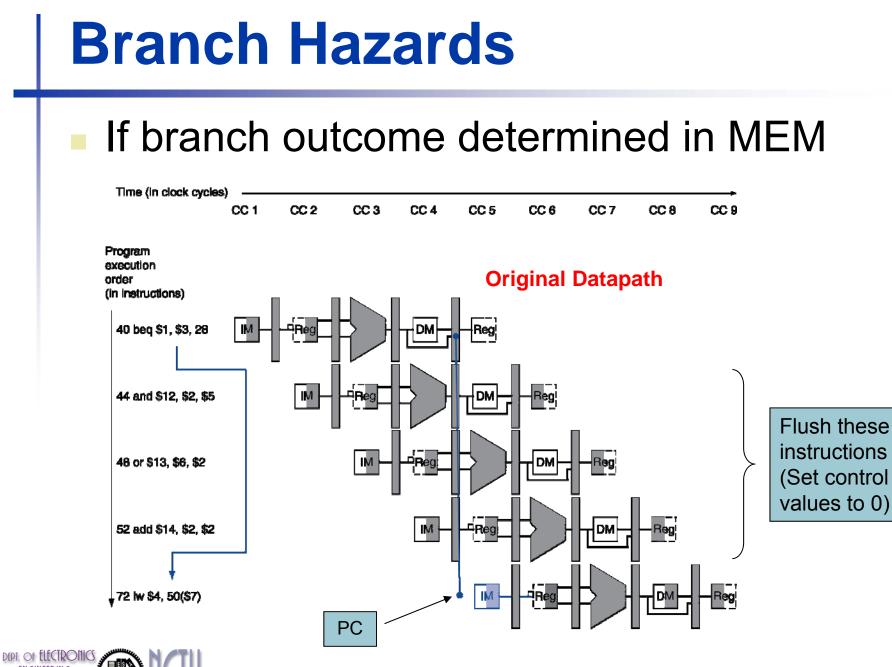
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Stalls and Performance

The BIG Picture

- Stalls reduce performance
 - But are required to get correct results
- Compiler can arrange code to avoid hazards and stalls
 - Requires knowledge of the pipeline structure

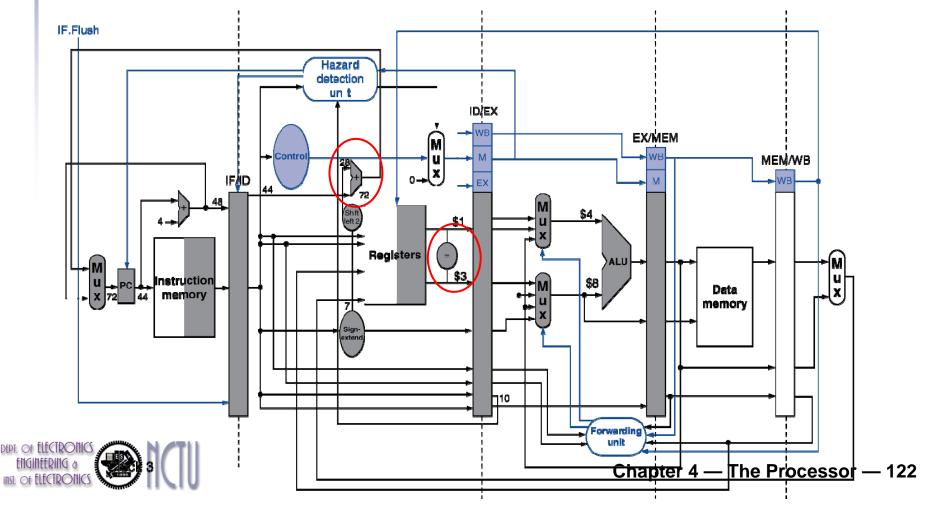






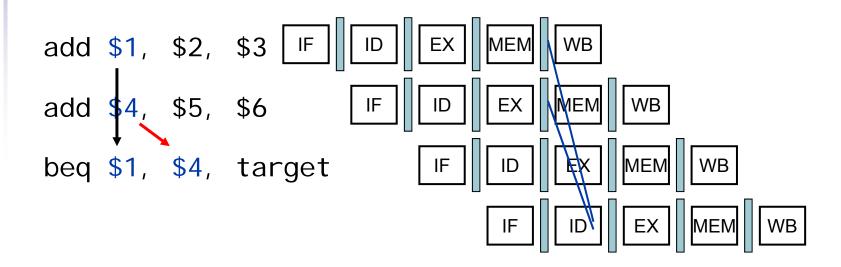
Reducing Branch Delay

- Move hardware to determine outcome to ID stage
 - Target address adder
- additional hardware
- Register comparator



Data Hazards for Branch -- I

If a comparison register is a destination of 2nd or 3rd preceding ALU instruction

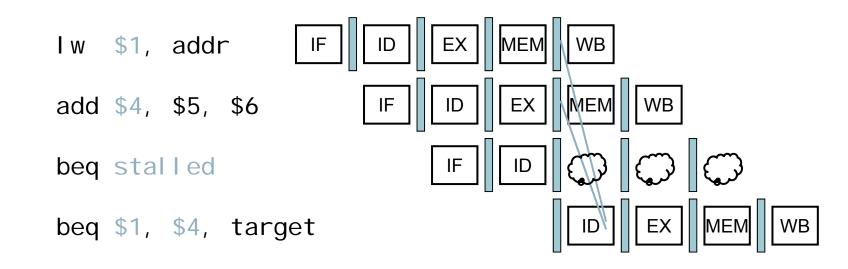


 Can resolve using forwarding, but need 1 stall cycle



Data Hazards for Branch -- I

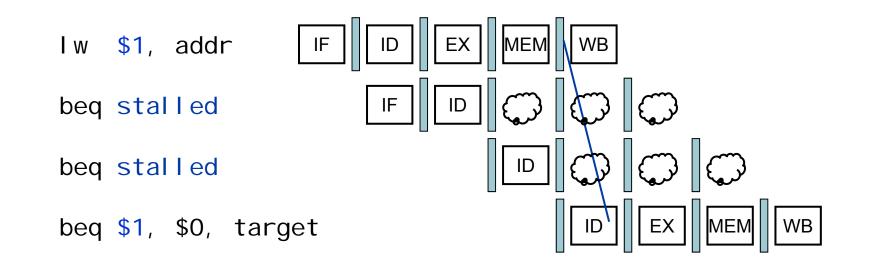
1 stall cycle + forwarding for ALU results





Data Hazards for Branch -- II

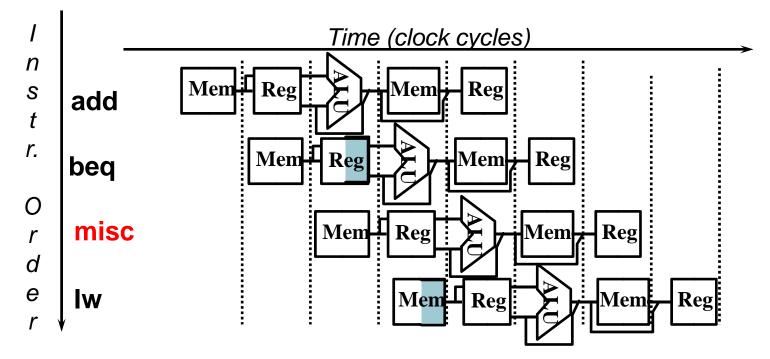
- If a comparison register is a destination of immediately preceding load instruction
 - Can resolve using forwarding, but need 2 stall cycles





Delayed Branch

- Predict-not-taken + branch decision at ID
 - => the following instruction is always executed
 - => branches take effect 1 cycle later

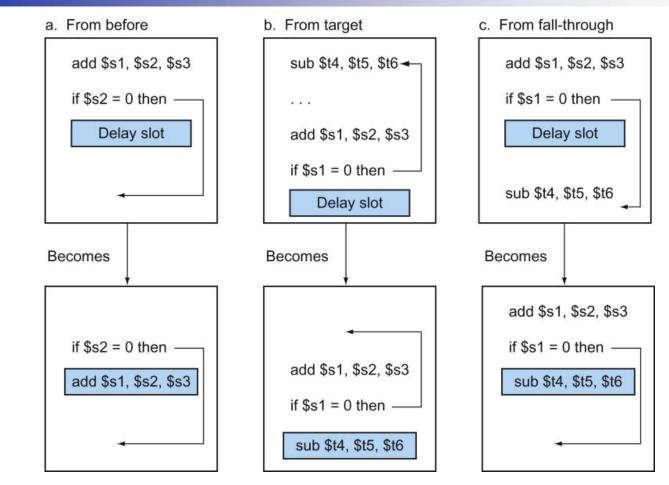


O clock cycle penalty per branch instruction if can find instruction to put in



slot

Scheduling the Branch Delay Slot



- A is the best choice, fills delay slot & reduces instruction count (IC)
- In B, the sub instruction may need to be copied, increasing IC
- In B and C, must be okay to execute **sub** when branch fails

Delay-Branch Scheduling Schemes

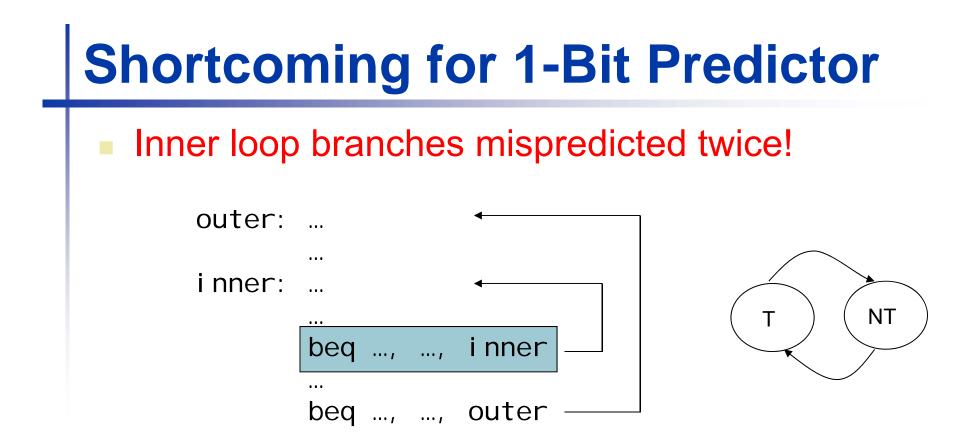
| Scheduling Strategy | Requirements | Improve Performance When? |
|------------------------|--|---|
| From before | Branch must not depend on the rescheduled instructions | Always |
| From target | Must be OK to execute rescheduled instructions if branch is not taken. May need to duplicate instructions | When branch is taken. May enlarge program if instructions are duplicated |
| From fall through | Must be OK to execute instructions if branch is taken | When branch is not taken. |



Dynamic Branch Prediction

- In deeper and superscalar pipelines, branch penalty is more significant
- Use dynamic branch prediction
 - Branch prediction buffer (aka branch history table)
 - Indexed by recent branch instruction addresses
 - Stores outcome (taken/not taken)
 - To execute a branch
 - Check table, expect the same outcome
 - Start fetching from fall-through or target
 - If wrong, flush pipeline and flip prediction → 1-bit predictor



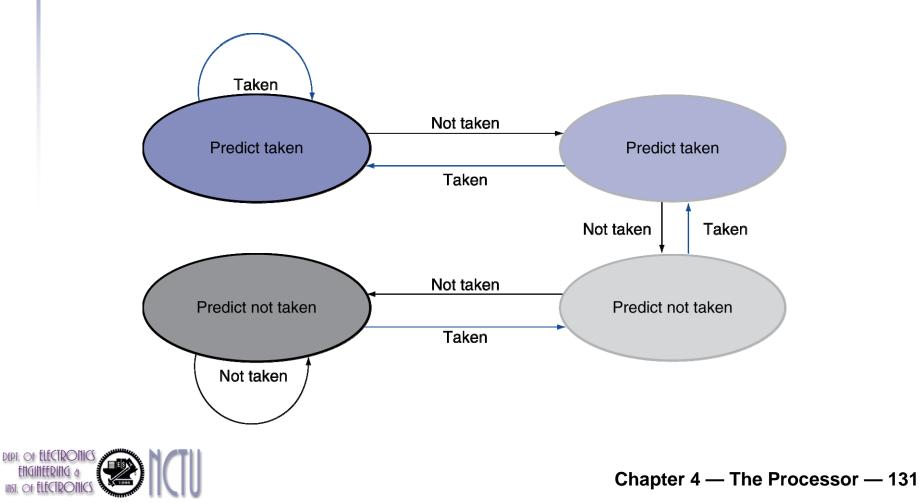


- Mispredict as taken on last iteration of inner loop
- Then mispredict as not taken on first iteration of inner loop next time around



2-Bit Predictor

 Only change prediction on two successive mispredictions



Calculating the Branch Target Address

- Even with predictor, still need to calculate the target address
 - 1-cycle penalty for a taken branch in 5-stage MIPS processor
- Branch target buffer (discussed in CA course)
 - Cache of target addresses
 - Indexed by PC when instruction fetched
 - If hit and instruction is branch predicted taken, can fetch target immediately
 - 0-cycle penalty



Exceptions and Interrupts

- "Unexpected" events requiring change in flow of control
 - Different ISAs use the terms differently
- Exception: Arises within the CPU
 - e.g., undefined opcode, overflow, syscall, …
- Interrupt: From an external I/O controller

| Type of event | From where? | MIPS terminology | |
|---|-------------|------------------------|--|
| I/O device request | External | Interrupt | |
| Invoke the operating system from user program | Internal | Exception | |
| Arithmetic overflow | Internal | Exception | |
| Using an undefined instruction | Internal | Exception | |
| Hardware malfunctions | Either | Exception or interrupt | |

 Dealing with execeptions without sacrificing performance is hard



Handling Exceptions in MIPS

- In MIPS, exceptions managed by a System Control Coprocessor (CP0)
- 1. Save PC of offending (or interrupted) instruction in Exception Program Counter (EPC)
- 2. Save indication of the problem in Cause register
 - Must know the reason for the exception
 - Cause is a status register
 - We'll assume 1-bit
 - 0 for undefined opcode, 1 for overflow
- 3. Save registers in memory (similar to procedure call)
- 4. Jump to exception handler at 8000 00180



An Alternate Mechanism

- Vectored Interrupts
 - Handler address determined by the cause
- Example:
 - Undefined opcode: C000 0000
 - Overflow: C000 0020
 - ...: C000 0040
- Instructions either
 - Deal with the interrupt, or
 - Jump to real handler



Handler Actions

- Read cause, and transfer to relevant handler
- Determine action required
- If restartable
 - Take corrective action

- Must subtract 4 from EPC
- use EPC to return to program (also need to restore the saved registers from memory)
- Otherwise
 - Terminate program
 - Report error using EPC, cause, …

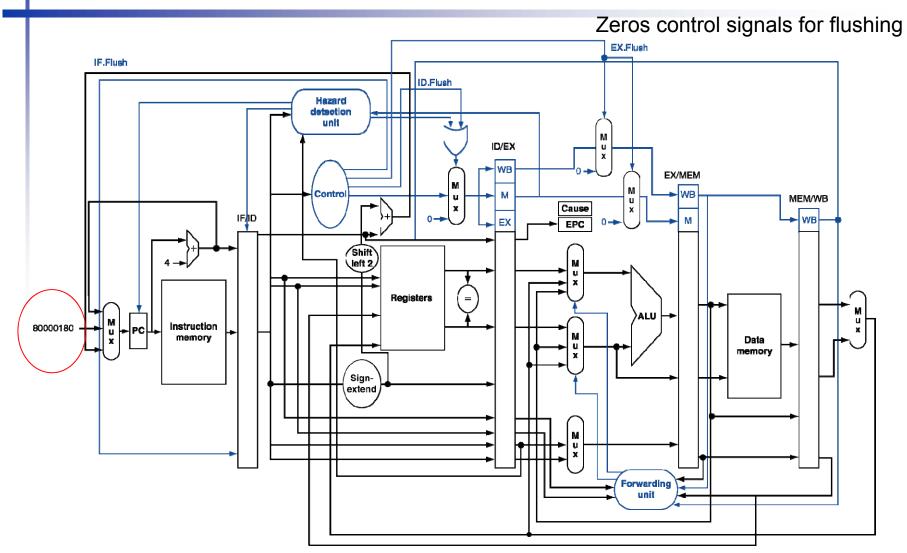


Exceptions in a Pipeline

- Another form of control hazard
- Consider overflow on add in EX stage
 - add \$1, \$2, \$1
 - Prevent \$1 from being clobbered
 - Complete previous instructions
 - Flush add and subsequent instructions
 - Set Cause and EPC register values
 - Transfer control to handler
- Similar to mispredicted branch
 - Use much of the same hardware



Pipeline with Exceptions





Exception Summary

- Restartable exceptions
 - Pipeline can flush the instruction
 - Handler executes, then returns to the instruction
 - Refetched and executed from scratch
- PC saved in EPC register
 - Identifies causing instruction
 - Actually PC + 4 is saved
 - Handler must adjust



Exception Example

Exception on add in

| 40 | sub | \$11, | \$2, | \$4 |
|----|-----|-------|--------------|-----|
| 44 | and | \$12, | \$2 , | \$5 |
| 48 | or | \$13, | \$2, | \$6 |
| 4C | add | \$1, | \$2, | \$1 |
| 50 | slt | \$15, | \$6, | \$7 |
| 54 | lw | \$16, | 50(\$ | 7) |

Handler

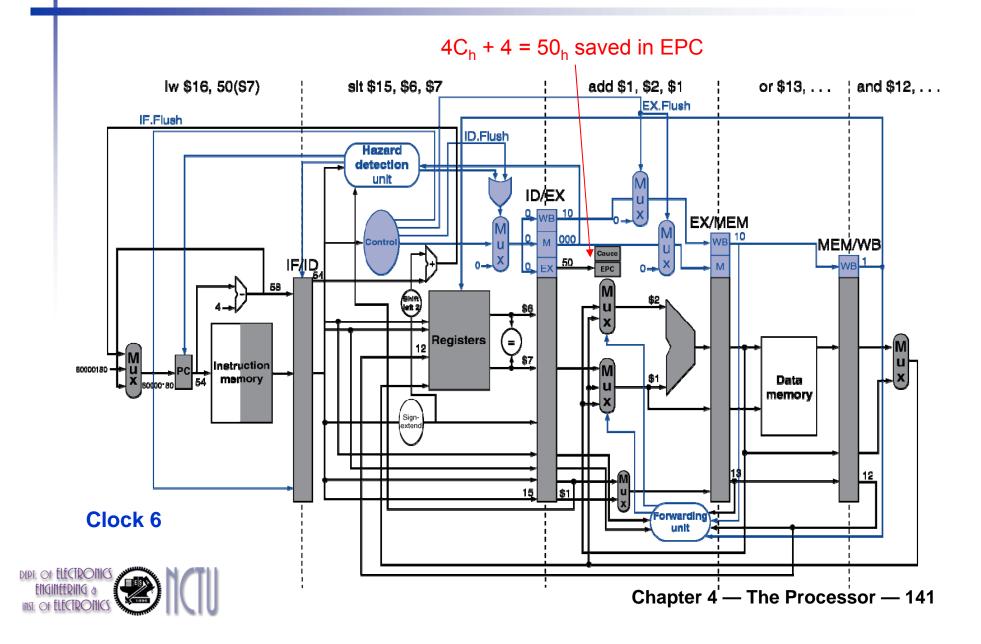
...

...

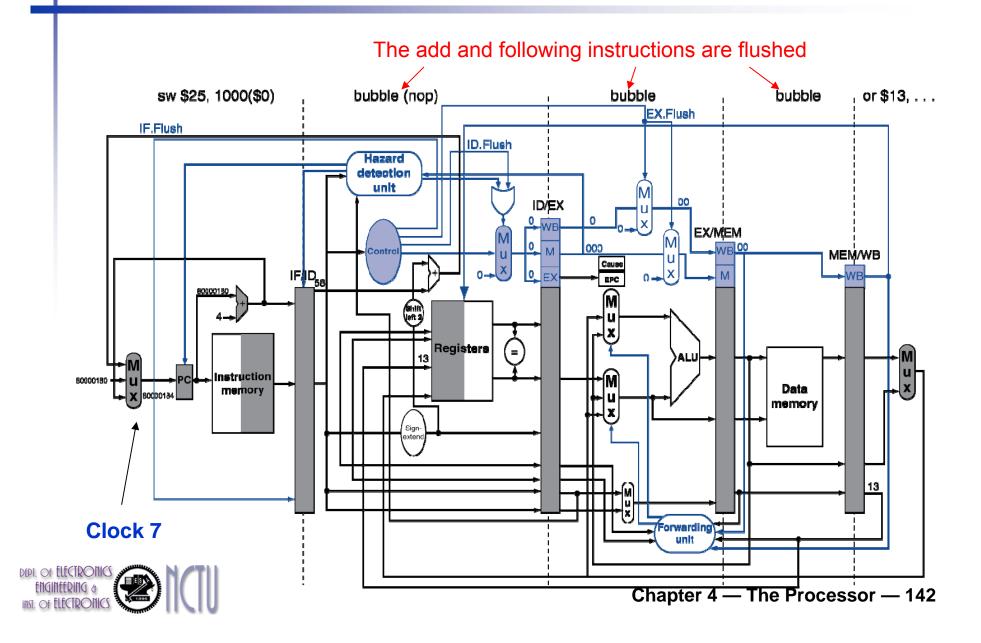
| 80000180 | SW | \$25, | 1000(\$0) |
|----------|----|---------------|-----------|
| 80000184 | SW | \$26 , | 1004(\$0) |

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Exception Example



Exception Example



Multiple Exceptions

- Pipelining overlaps multiple instructions
 - Could have multiple exceptions at once
- Simple approach: deal with exception from earliest instruction
 - Flush subsequent instructions
 - "Precise" exceptions
- In complex pipelines
 - Multiple instructions issued per cycle
 - Out-of-order completion
 - Maintaining precise exceptions is difficult! (discussed in CA course)



Imprecise Exceptions

- Just stop pipeline and save state
 - Including exception cause(s)
- Let the handler work out
 - Which instruction(s) had exceptions
 - Which to complete or flush
 - May require "manual" completion
- Simplifies hardware, but more complex handler software
- Not feasible for complex multiple-issue out-of-order pipelines



Instruction-Level Parallelism (ILP)

- Pipelining: executing multiple instructions in parallel
- To increase ILP
 - Deeper pipeline (increase clock rate)
 - Less work per stage \Rightarrow shorter clock cycle
 - Multiple issue (using multiple ALUs)
 - Replicate pipeline stages ⇒ multiple pipelined datapaths
 - Start multiple instructions per clock cycle
 - CPI < 1, so use Instructions Per Cycle (IPC)</p>
 - E.g., 4GHz 4-way multiple-issue (upto 4 parallel instructions)
 - 16 BIPS, peak CPI = 0.25, peak IPC = 4, ideally
 - But dependencies reduce this in practice



Multiple Issue Processor

- Static multiple issue or VLIW processor
 - Compiler solves hazards, groups instructions to be issued together, and packages them into "issue slots"
 - Compiler detects and avoids hazards
- Dynamic multiple issue or Superscalar processor
 - CPU examines instruction stream and chooses instructions to issue each cycle
 - Compiler can help by reordering instructions
 - CPU resolves hazards using advanced techniques at runtime
- Rescheduling and loop unrolling techniques for multiple issue processors



MIPS with Static Dual Issue

Two-issue packets

- One for ALU/branch instruction and the other for load/store instruction
- 64-bit aligned, 2-issue slot
 - Pad an unused instruction with nop
- Peak IPC = 2

| Address | Instruction type | Pipeline Stages | | | | | | |
|---------|------------------|-----------------|----|----|-----|-----|-----|----|
| n | ALU/branch | IF | ID | EX | MEM | WB | | |
| n + 4 | Load/store | IF | ID | EX | MEM | WB | | |
| n + 8 | ALU/branch | | IF | ID | EX | MEM | WB | |
| n + 12 | Load/store | | IF | ID | EX | MEM | WB | |
| n + 16 | ALU/branch | | | IF | ID | EX | MEM | WB |
| n + 20 | Load/store | | | IF | ID | EX | MEM | WB |



Code Rescheduling

- Loop: lw \$t0, 0(\$s1) addu \$t0, \$t0, \$s2 sw \$t0, 0(\$s1) addi \$s1, \$s1, -4 bne \$s1, \$zero, Loop
- After code rescheduling:
- Loop: lw \$t0, 0(\$s1) addi \$s1, \$s1, -4 addu \$t0, \$t0, \$s2 sw \$t0, 4(\$s1) bne \$s1, \$zero, Loop



Loop Unrolling

- Replicate loop body to expose more parallelism
 - Reduces loop-control overhead
- Use different registers per replication
 - Called "register renaming"
 - Avoid loop-carried "anti-dependencies"
 - Store followed by a load of the same register
 - Aka "name dependence"
 - Reuse of a register name



Multiple-Issue Code Scheduling

2-issue processor

| | ALU or | branch instruction | Data tra | Clock cycle | |
|-------|--------|--------------------|----------|---------------|---|
| Loop: | | | ٦w | \$t0, 0(\$s1) | 1 |
| | addi | \$s1,\$s1,-4 | | | 2 |
| | addu | \$t0,\$t0,\$s2 | | | 3 |
| | bne | \$sl,\$zero,Loop | SW | \$t0, 4(\$s1) | 4 |

• CPI: 4/5 = 0.8 (or IPC = 1.25)

Blank is nop

- Assume the loop index is a multiple of four
- After four-times loop unrolling and code scheduling

| | ALU or branch instruction | | Data transfer instruction | | Clock cycle | |
|-------|---------------------------|------------------|---------------------------|----------------|-------------|--|
| Loop: | addi | \$s1,\$s1,-16 | ٦w | \$t0, 0(\$s1) | 1 | |
| | | | ٦w | \$t1,12(\$s1) | 2 | |
| | addu | \$t0,\$t0,\$s2 | ٦w | \$t2, 8(\$s1) | 3 | |
| | addu | \$t1,\$t1,\$s2 | ٦w | \$t3, 4(\$s1) | 4 | |
| | addu | \$t2,\$t2,\$s2 | SW | \$t0, 16(\$s1) | 5 | |
| | addu | \$t3,\$t3,\$s2 | SW | \$t1,12(\$s1) | 6 | |
| | | | SW | \$t2, 8(\$s1) | 7 | |
| | bne | \$sl,\$zero,Loop | SW | \$t3, 4(\$s1) | 8 | |

• CPI: 8/14 = 0.57 (or IPC = 1.75)



Closer to 2, but at cost of registers and code size

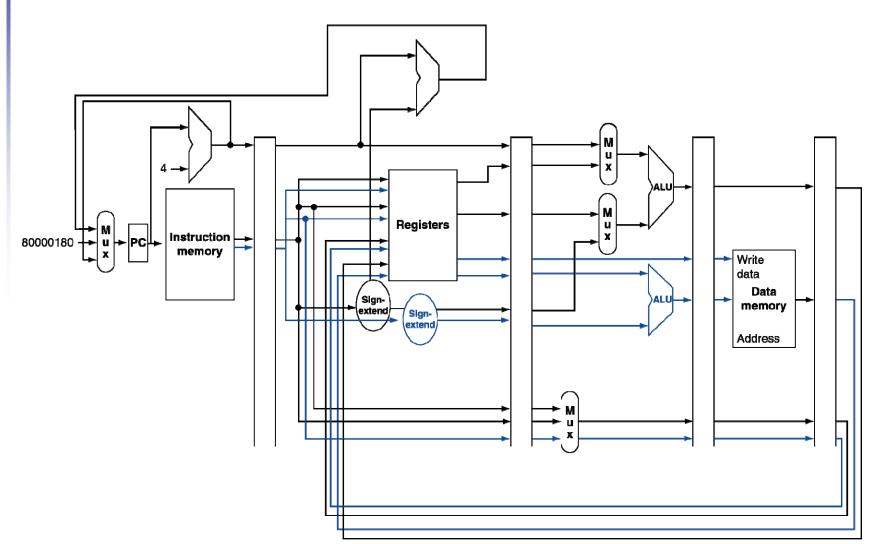
Chapter 4 — The Processor — 150

Static Multiple Issue Processor

- Compiler must remove some/all hazards
 - Reorder instructions into issue packets
 - No dependencies with a packet
 - Possibly some dependencies between packets
 - Varies between ISAs; compiler must know!
 - Insert nop(s), if necessary
 - Software complexity Hardware complexity



Two-Issue MIPS VLIW Processor



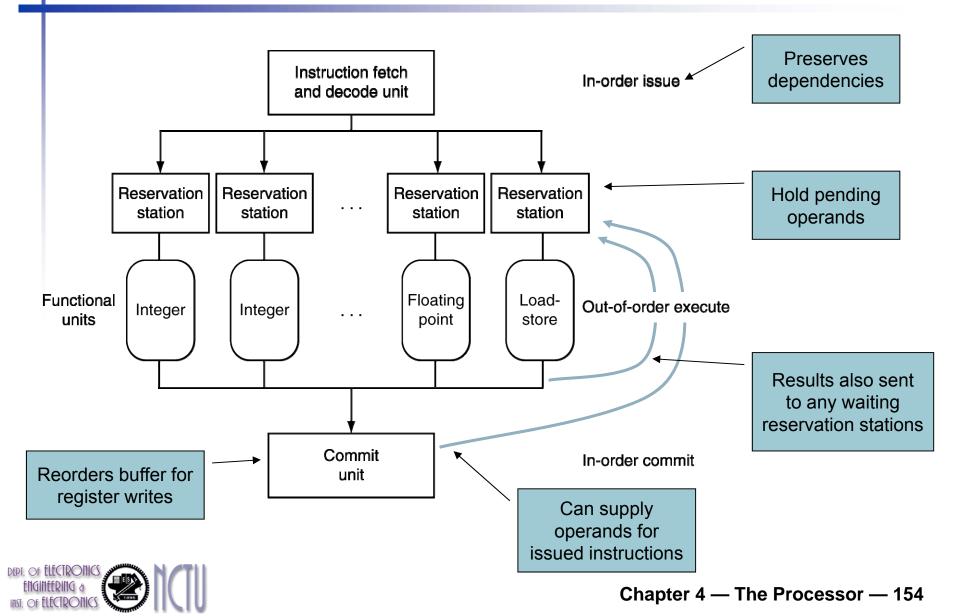


Dynamic Multiple Issue Processor

- CPU decides whether to issue 0, 1, 2, ... each cycle (out-of-order execution and completion)
 - Avoiding structural and data hazards
- Avoids the need for compiler scheduling
 - Though it may still help
 - Code semantics ensured by the CPU
- Old code still run
 - May not re-compile the code for new version
- Hardware complexity Software complexity



Superscalar Processor



Speculation

- Predict and continue to do with an instruction
 - Start operation as soon as possible
 - Check whether guess was right
 - If so, complete the operation
 - If not, roll-back and do the right thing
- Common to static and dynamic multiple issue
- Examples
 - Speculate on branch outcome
 - Roll back if path taken is different
 - Speculate on load
 - Roll back if location is updated



Compiler/Hardware Speculation

- Compiler can reorder instructions
 - e.g., move load before branch
 - Can include "fix-up" instructions to recover from incorrect guess
- Hardware can look ahead for instructions to execute
 - Buffer results until it determines they are actually needed
 - Flush buffers on incorrect speculation



Speculation and Exceptions

- What if exception occurs on a speculatively executed instruction?
 - e.g., speculative load before null-pointer check
- Static speculation
 - Can add ISA support for deferring exceptions
- Dynamic speculation
 - Can buffer exceptions until instruction completion (which may not occur)

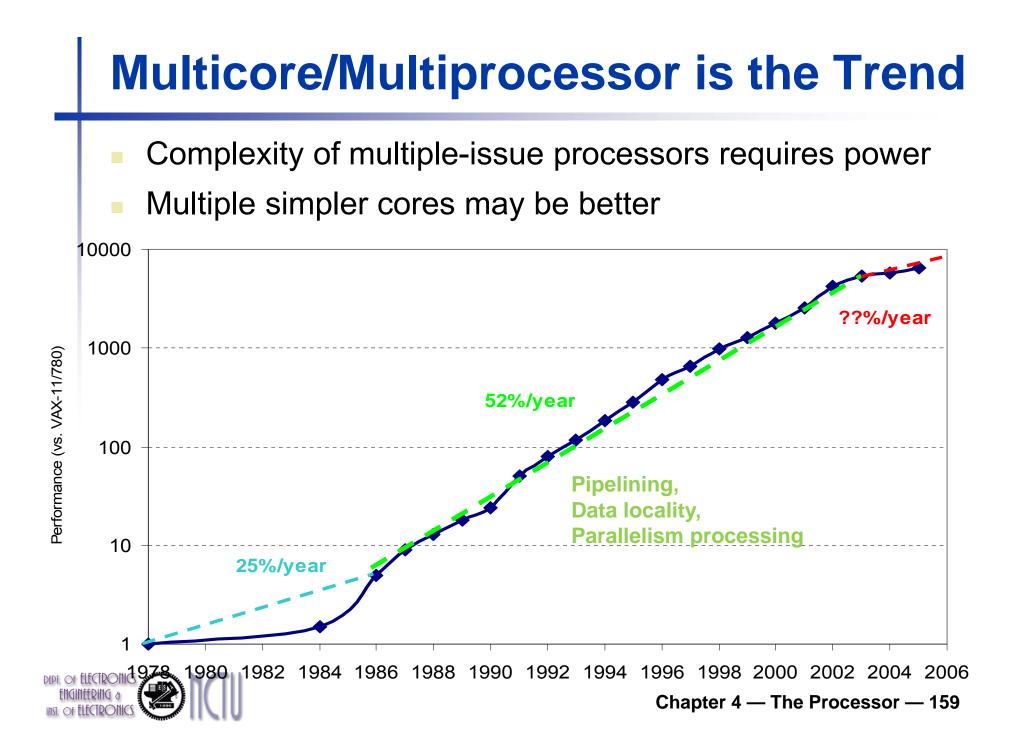


Does Multiple Issue Work?

The BIG Picture

- Yes, but not as much as we'd like
- Programs have real dependencies that limit ILP
- Some dependencies are hard to eliminate
 - e.g., pointer aliasing
- Some parallelism is hard to expose
 - Limited window size during instruction issue
- Memory delays and limited bandwidth
 - Hard to keep pipelines full
- Speculation can help if done well





Cortex A8 and Intel i7

| Processor | ARM A8 | Intel Core i7 920 |
|---------------------------------------|------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| Market | Personal Mobile Device | Server, cloud |
| Thermal design power | 2 Watts | 130 Watts |
| Clock rate | 1 GHz | 2.66 GHz |
| Cores/Chip | 1 | 4 |
| Floating point? | No | Yes |
| Multiple issue? | Dynamic | Dynamic |
| Peak instructions/clock cycle | 2 | 4 |
| Pipeline stages | 14 | 14 |
| Pipeline schedule | Static in-order | Dynamic out-of-order with speculation |
| Branch prediction | 2-level | 2-level |
| 1 st level caches/core | 32 KiB I, 32 KiB D | 32 KiB I, 32 KiB D |
| 2 nd level caches/core | 128-1024 KiB | 256 KiB |
| 3 rd level caches (shared) | - | 2-8 MB |





Fallacies

- Pipelining is easy (!)
 - The basic idea is easy
 - The devil is in the details
 - e.g., detecting data hazards
- Pipelining is independent of technology
 - So why haven't we always done pipelining?
 - More transistors make more advanced techniques feasible
 - Pipeline-related ISA design needs to take account of technology trends
 - e.g., predicated instructions



Pitfalls

- Poor ISA design can make pipelining harder
 - e.g., complex instruction sets (VAX, IA-32)
 - Significant overhead to make pipelining work
 - IA-32 micro-op approach
 - e.g., complex addressing modes
 - Register update side effects, memory indirection
 - e.g., delayed branches
 - Advanced pipelines have long delay slots



Concluding Remarks

- ISA influences design of datapath and control
- Datapath and control influence design of ISA
- Pipelining improves instruction throughput using parallelism
 - More instructions completed per second
 - Latency for each instruction not reduced
- Hazards: structural, data, control
- Multiple issue and dynamic scheduling (ILP)
 - Dependencies limit achievable parallelism
 - Complexity leads to the power wall

