CPU Pipelining

CS/COE 1541 (Fall 2020)

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Clocking Review

Stuff you learned in CS 447

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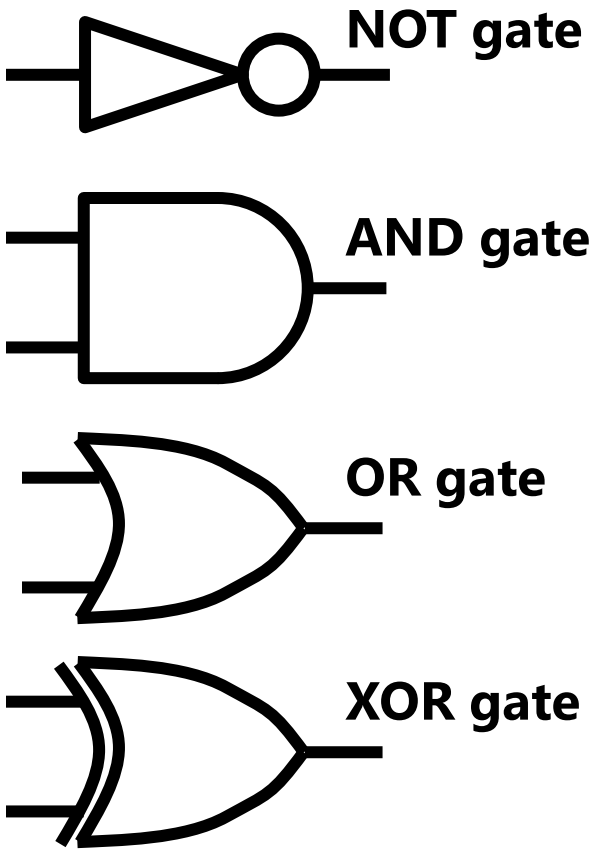
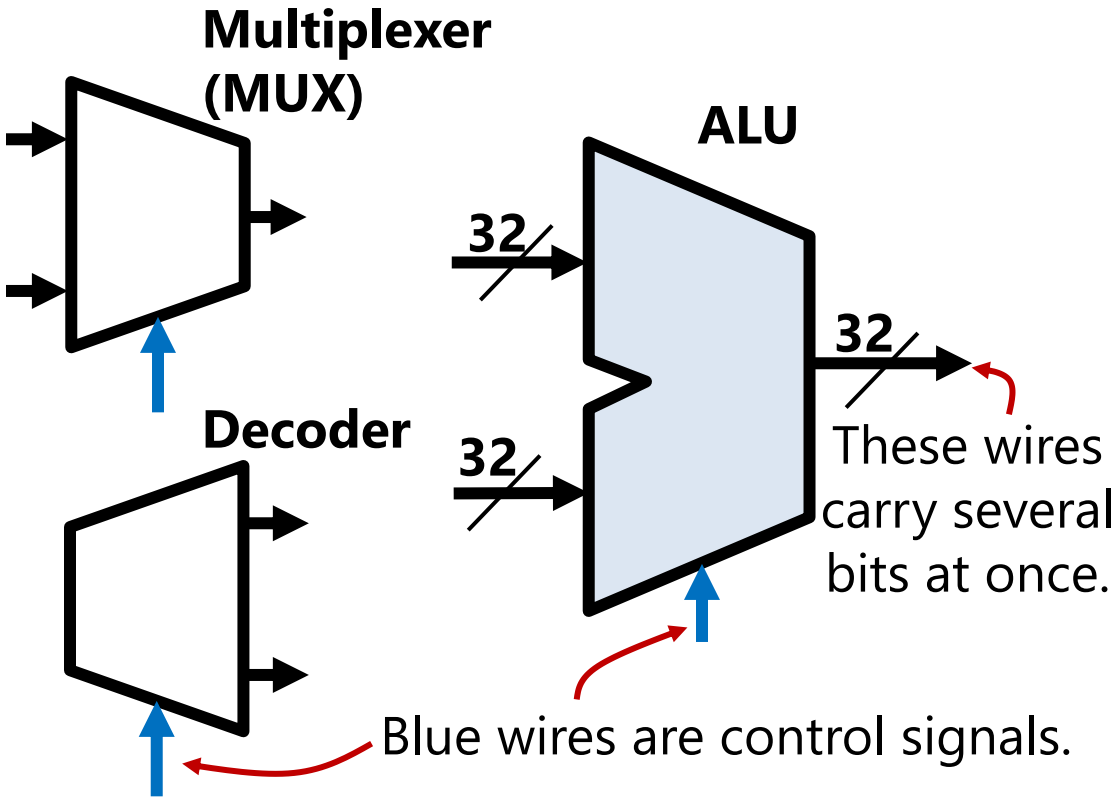
Logic components

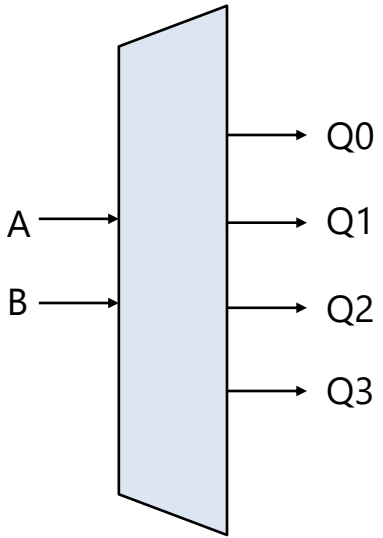
- Do you remember what all these do?





Uses of a Decoder

- Translates a set of input signals to a bunch of output signals.
  - E.g. a binary decoder:



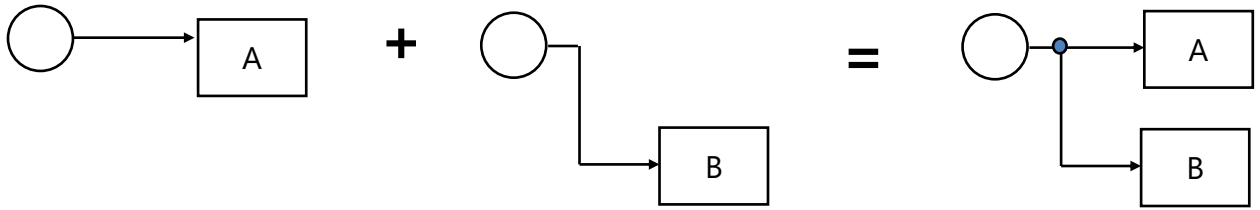
Truth Table for Decoder

A	B	Q0	Q1	Q2	Q3
0	0	1	0	0	0
0	1	0	1	0	0
1	0	0	0	1	0
1	1	0	0	0	1

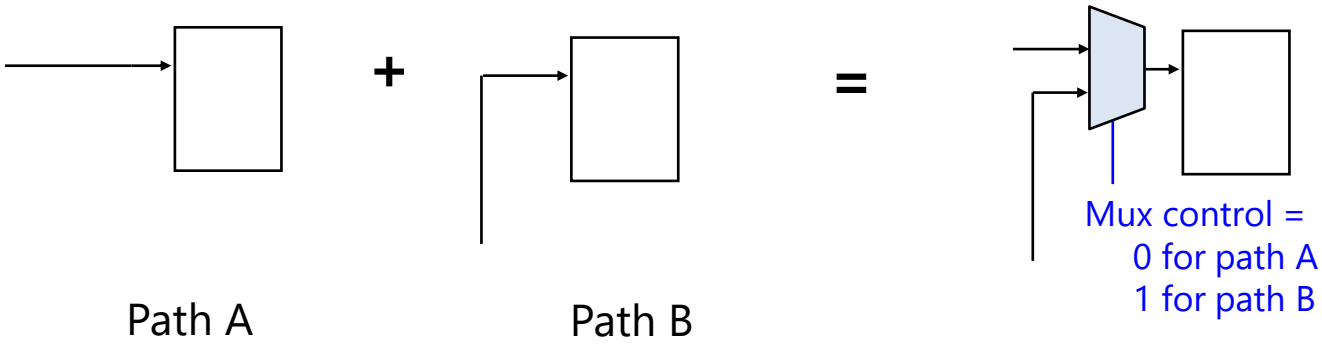
  - You can come up with any truth table and make a decoder for it!

Uses of a Multiplexer

- No problem in fanning out one signal to two points

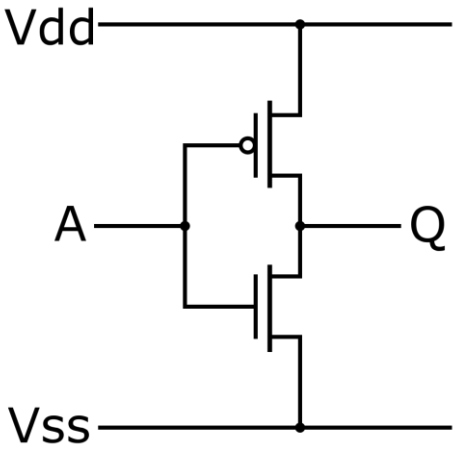


- Cannot connect two signals to one point
  - Must use a multiplexer to *select* between the two

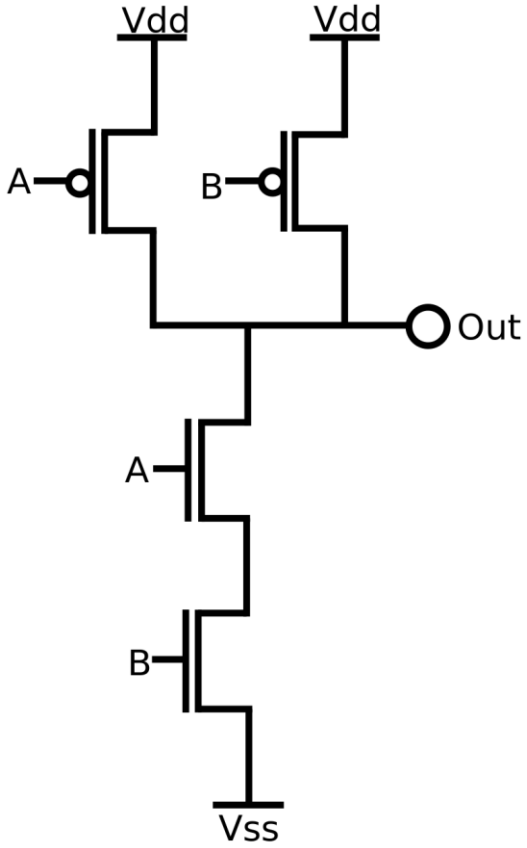


Gates are made of transistors (of course)

- NOT gate

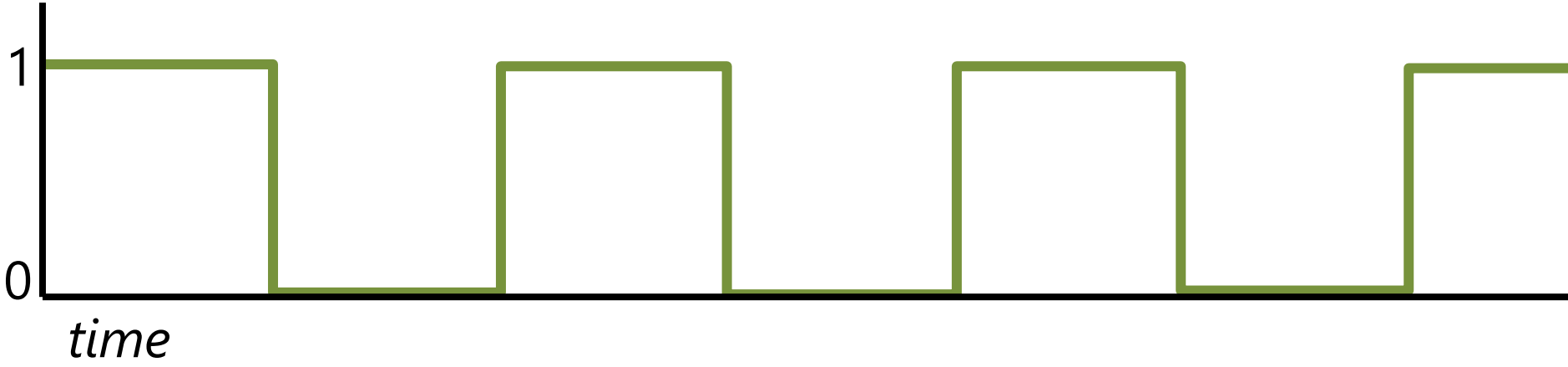


- NAND gate



The clock signal

- The clock is a signal that alternates regularly between 0 and 1:

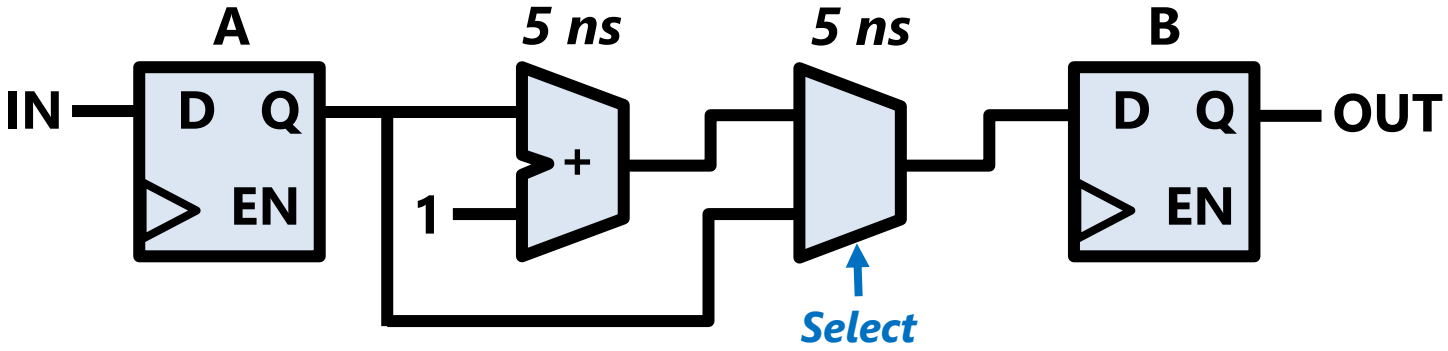


- Bits are latched on to registers and flip-flops on rising edges

- In between rising edges, bits propagate through the logic circuit
  - Composed of ALUs, muxes, decoders, etc.
  - ***Propagation delay***: amount of time it takes from input to output

Critical Path

- ***Critical path***: path in a circuit that has longest propagation delay
  - Determines the overall clock speed.



  - The ALU and the multiplexer both have a 5 ns delay
- How fast can we clock this circuit?
  - Is it 1 / 5 ns (5×10^{-9}s) = 200 MHz?
  - Or is it 1 / 10 ns (10×10^{-9}s) = 100 MHz? ✓

MIPS Review

Stuff you learned in CS 447

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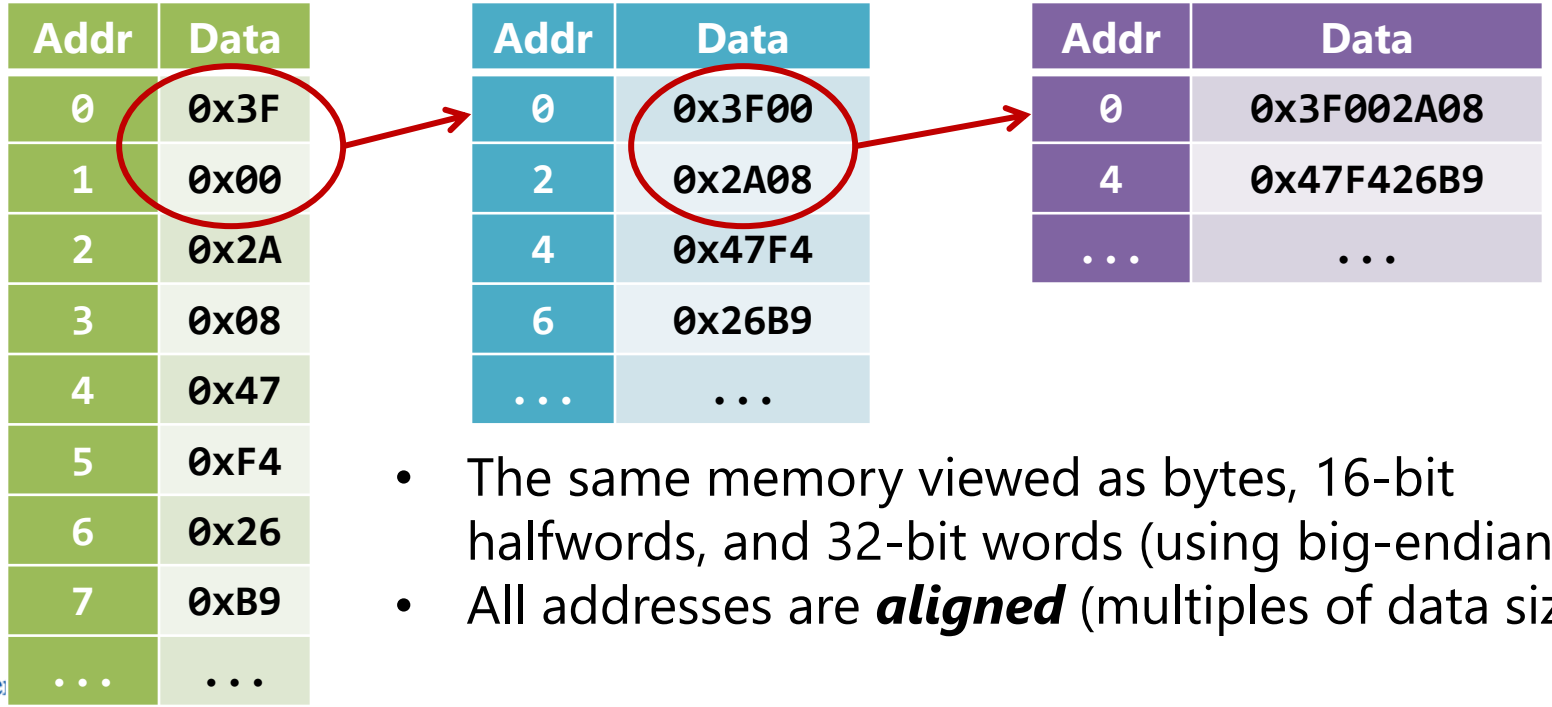
The MIPS ISA - Registers

- MIPS has 32 32-bit registers, with the following usage conventions
  - But really, all are general purpose registers (nothing special about them)

Name	Register number	Usage
`$zero`	`0`	the constant value 0 (can't be written)
`$at`	`1`	assembler temporary
`$v0-$v1`	`2-3`	values for results and expression evaluation
`$a0-$a3`	`4-7`	function arguments
`$t0-$t7`	`8-15`	unsaved temporaries
`$s0-$s7`	`16-23`	saved temporaries (like program variables)
`$t8-$t9`	`24-25`	more unsaved temporaries
`$k0-$k1`	`26-27`	reserved for OS kernel
`$gp`	`28`	global pointer
`$sp`	`29`	stack pointer
`$fp`	`30`	frame pointer
`$ra`	`31`	return address

The MIPS ISA - Memory

- MIPS is a ***RISC (reduced instruction set computer)*** architecture
- It is also a ***load-store*** architecture
  - **All** memory accesses performed by load and store instructions
- Memory is a giant array of 2^{32} bytes



- The same memory viewed as bytes, 16-bit halfwords, and 32-bit words (using big-endian)
- All addresses are ***aligned*** (multiples of data size)

The MIPS ISA - Memory

- Loads move data *from* memory *into* the registers.

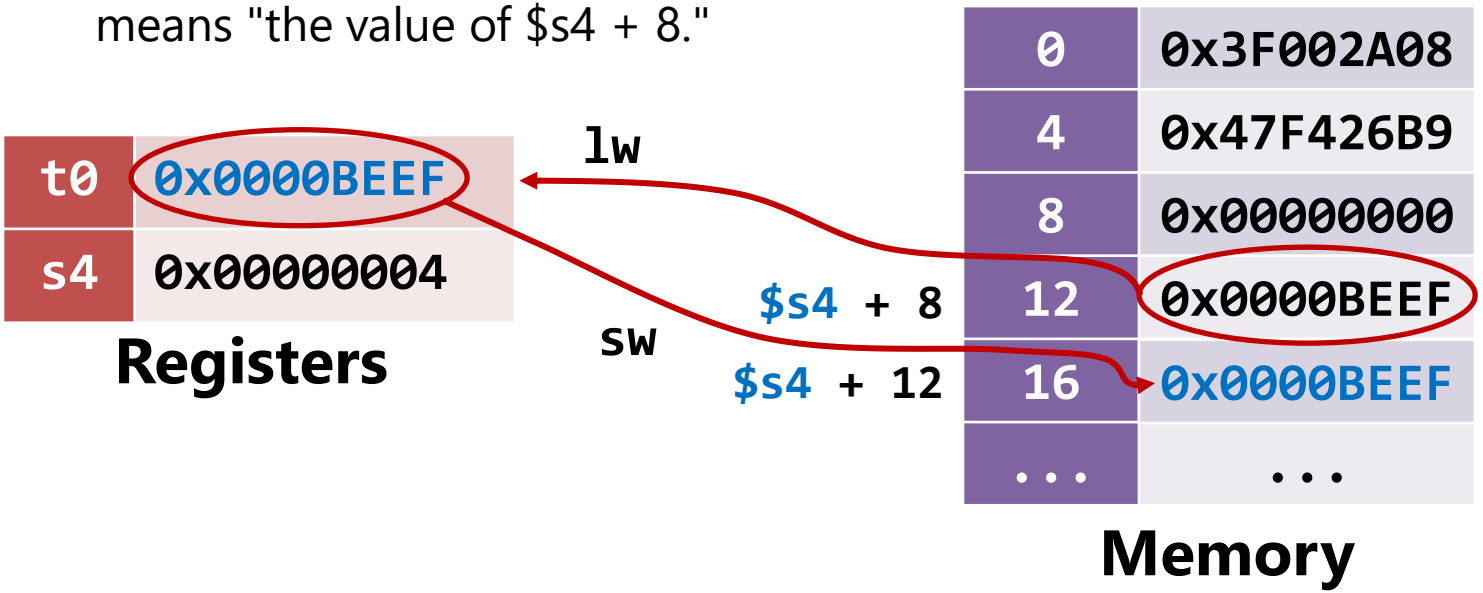
```
lw $t0, 8($s4)
```

This is the address, and it means "the value of $s4 + 8."

- Stores move data *from* the registers *into* memory.

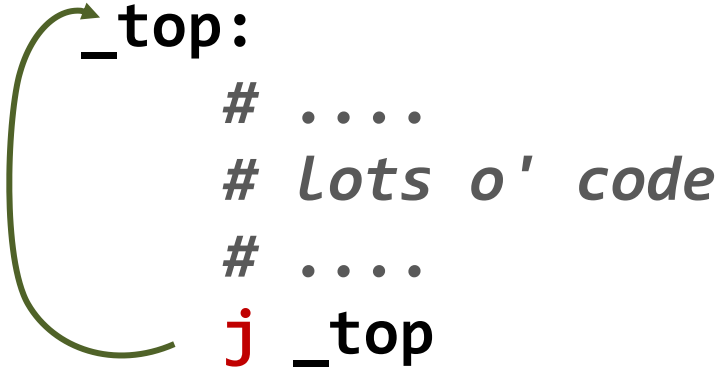
```
sw $t0, 12($s4)
```

$t0 is the SOURCE!



The MIPS ISA – Flow control

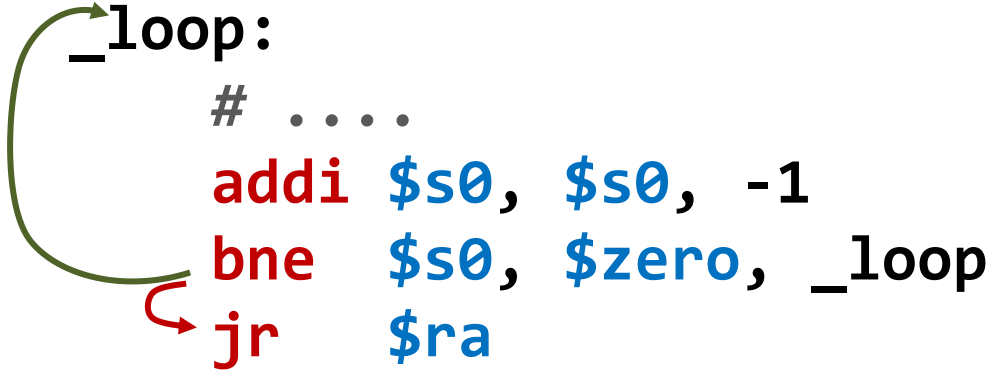
- Jump and branch instructions change the flow of execution.



```
_top:
    # ....
    # lots o' code
    # ....
    j _top
```

j : jumps *unconditionally*

- jumps to **_top**



```
    li   $s0, 10
_loop:
    # ....
    addi $s0, $s0, -1
    bne  $s0, $zero, _loop
    jr   $ra
```

bne : jumps *conditionally*

If **$s0** != **$zero**, jumps to **_loop**

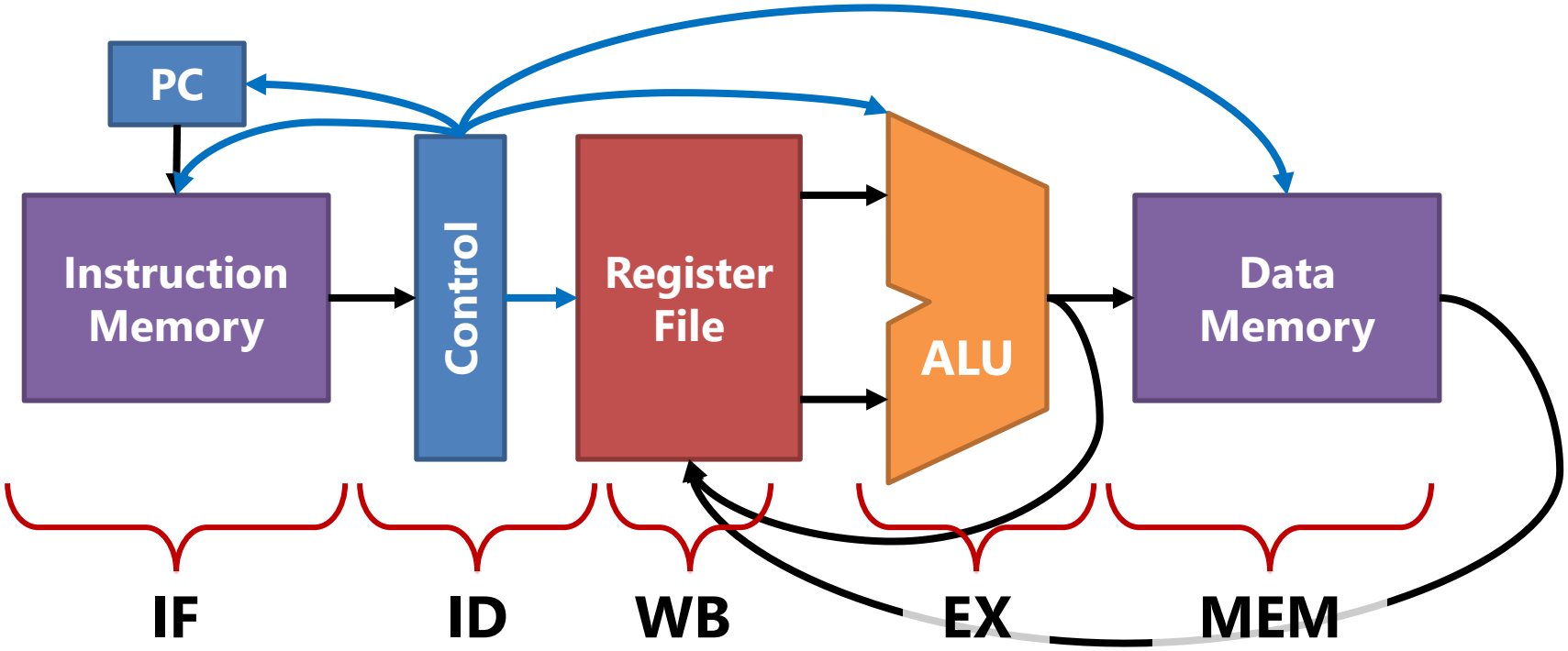
If **$s0** == **$zero**, continues to **jr $ra**

Phases of instruction execution

- In most architectures, there are five phases:
  1. **IF** (Instruction Fetch) – get next instruction from memory
  2. **ID** (Instruction Decode) – figure out what instruction it is
  3. **EX** (Execute – ALU) – do any arithmetic
  4. **MEM** (Memory) – read or write data from/to memory
  5. **WB** (Register Writeback) – write any results to the registers

- Sometimes these phases are chopped into smaller stages

A simple single-cycle implementation



- An instruction goes through IF/ID/EX/MEM/WB in one cycle

"Minimal MIPS"

It’s a “subset” of MIPS

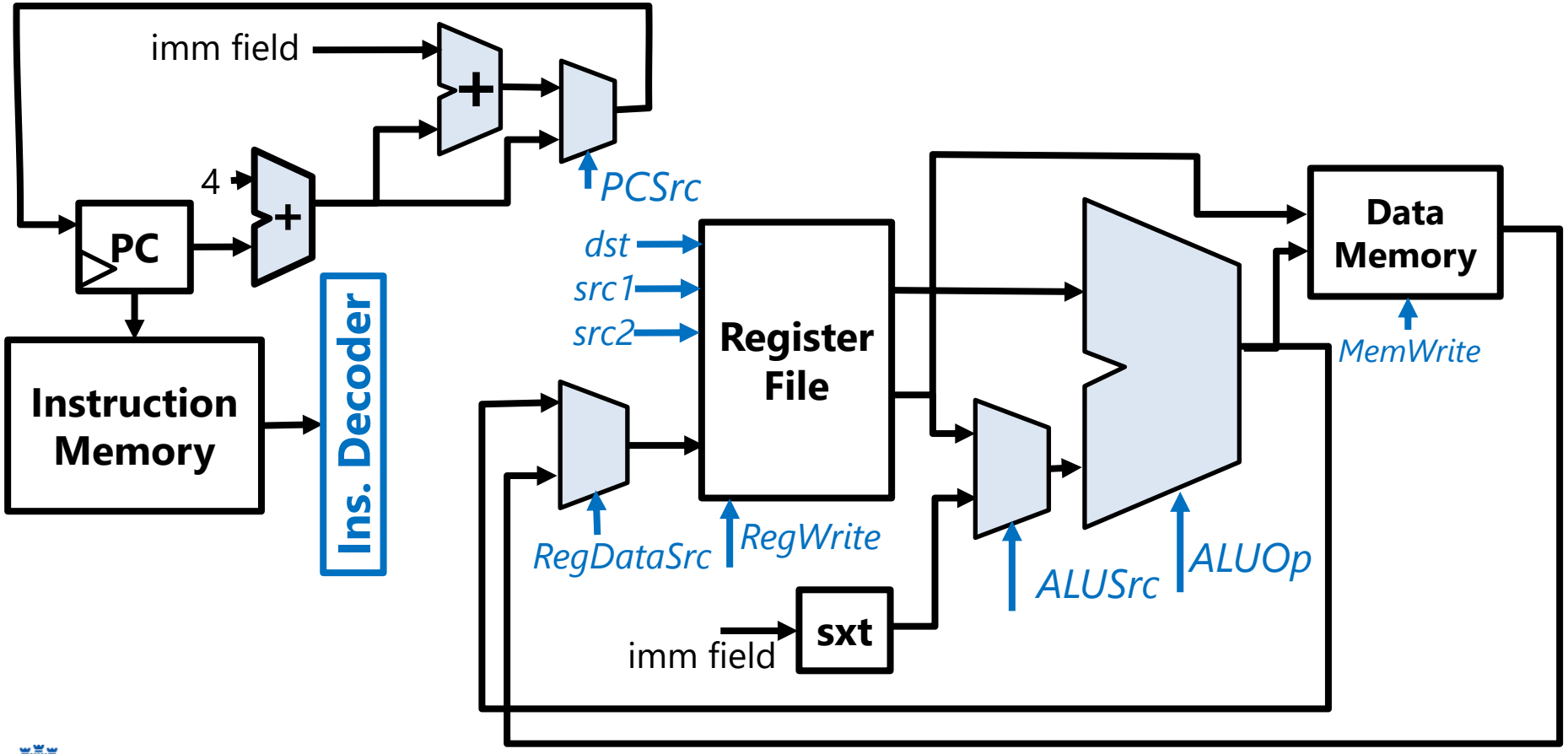
- For pedagogical (teaching) purposes

- Contains only a minimal number of instructions:
  - **lw, sw, add, sub, and, or, slt, beq,** and **j**
  - Other instructions in MIPS are variations on these anyway

- Let's review the Minimal MIPS CPU focusing on the control signals
  - Again, these control signals are decoded from the instruction

The Minimal MIPS single-cycle CPU

- A more detailed view of the 5-phase implementation

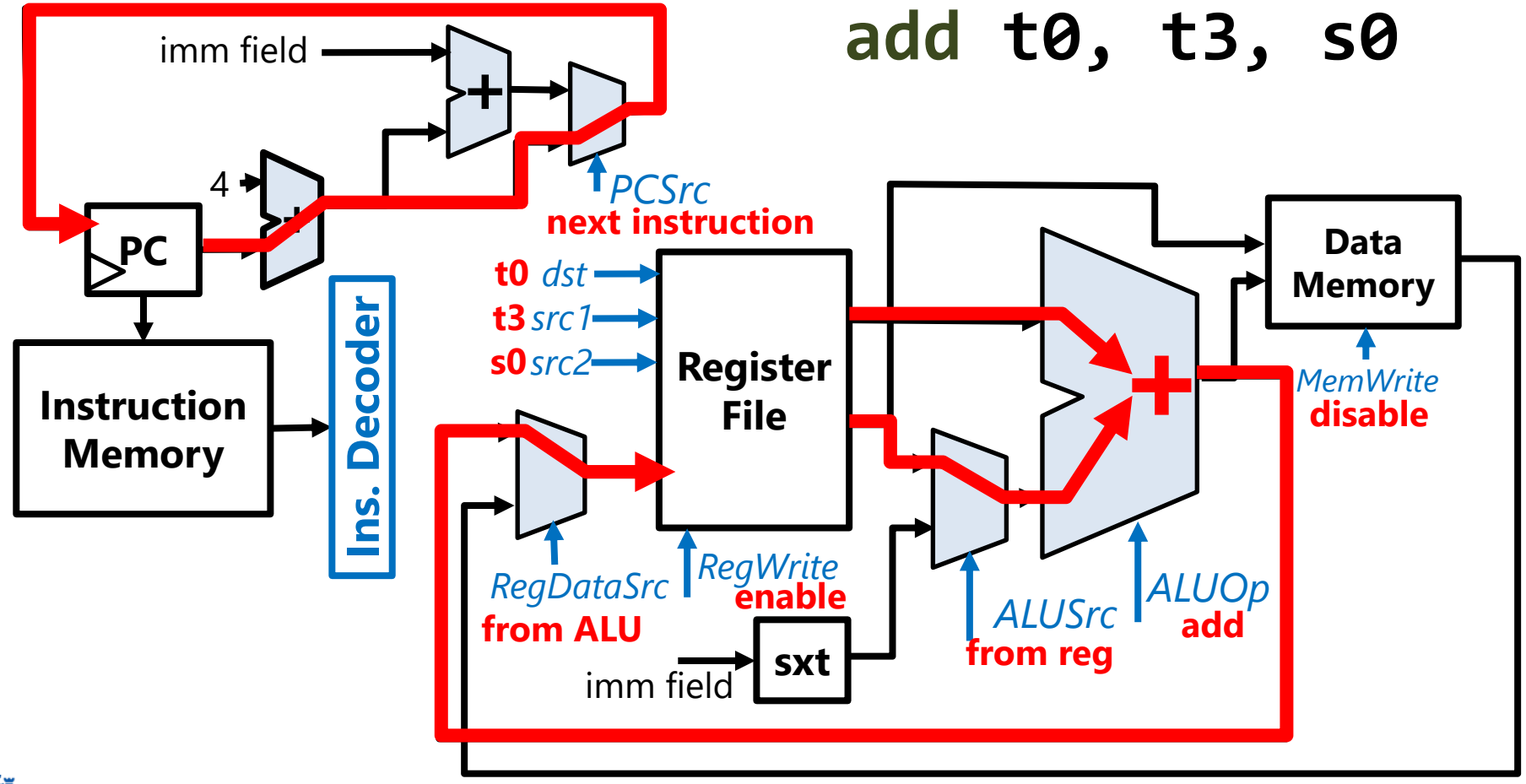


Control signals

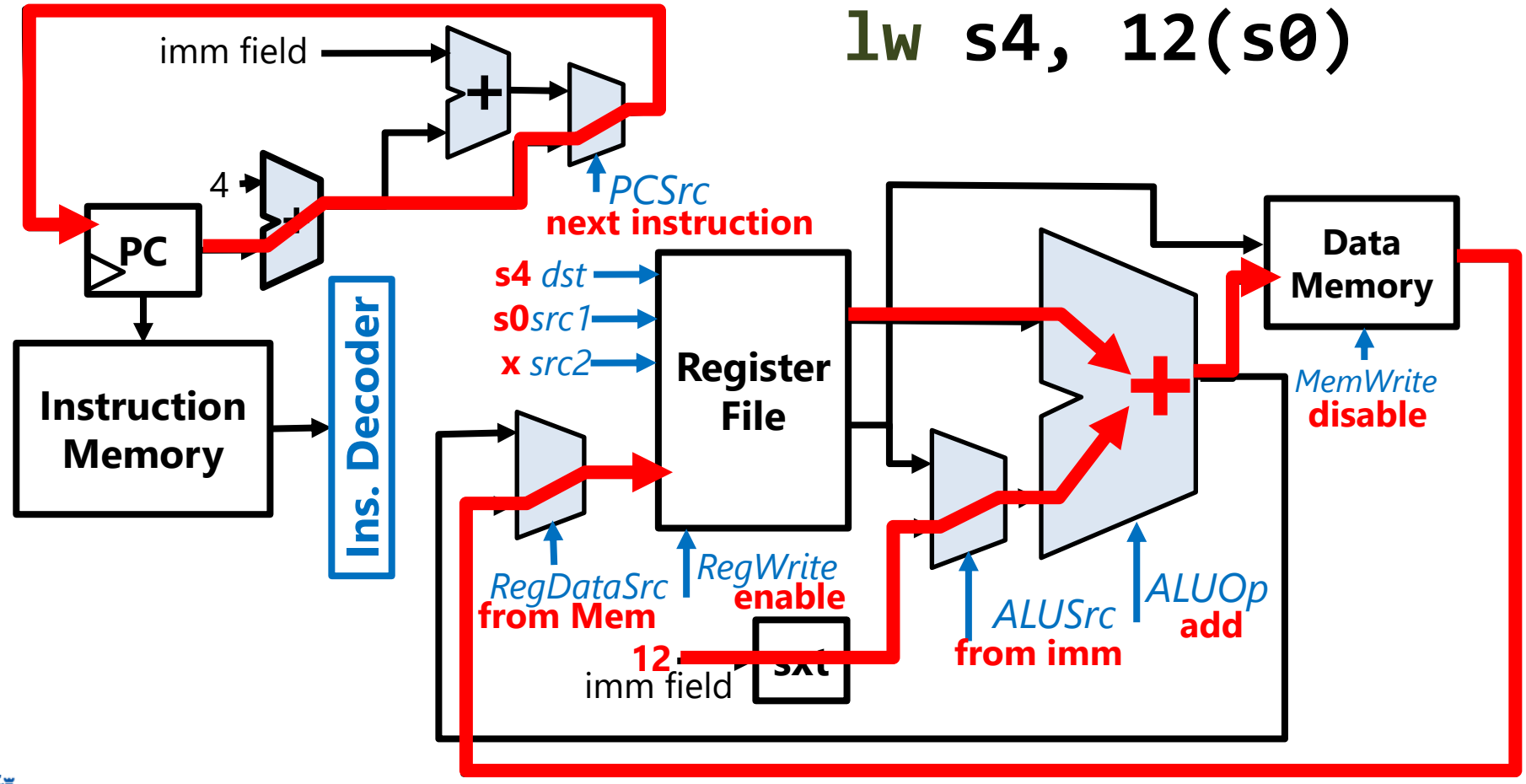
- Registers
  - **RegDataSrc**: controls source of a register write (ALU / memory)
  - **RegWrite**: enables a write to the register file
  - **src1, src2, dst**: the register number for each respective operand
- ALU
  - **ALUSrc**: whether second operand of ALU is a register / immediate
  - **ALUOp**: controls what the ALU will do (add, sub, and, or etc)
- Memory
  - **MemWrite**: enables a write to data memory
- PC
  - **PCSrc**: controls source of next PC (PC + 4 / PC + 4 + imm)

→ All these signals are decoded from the instruction!

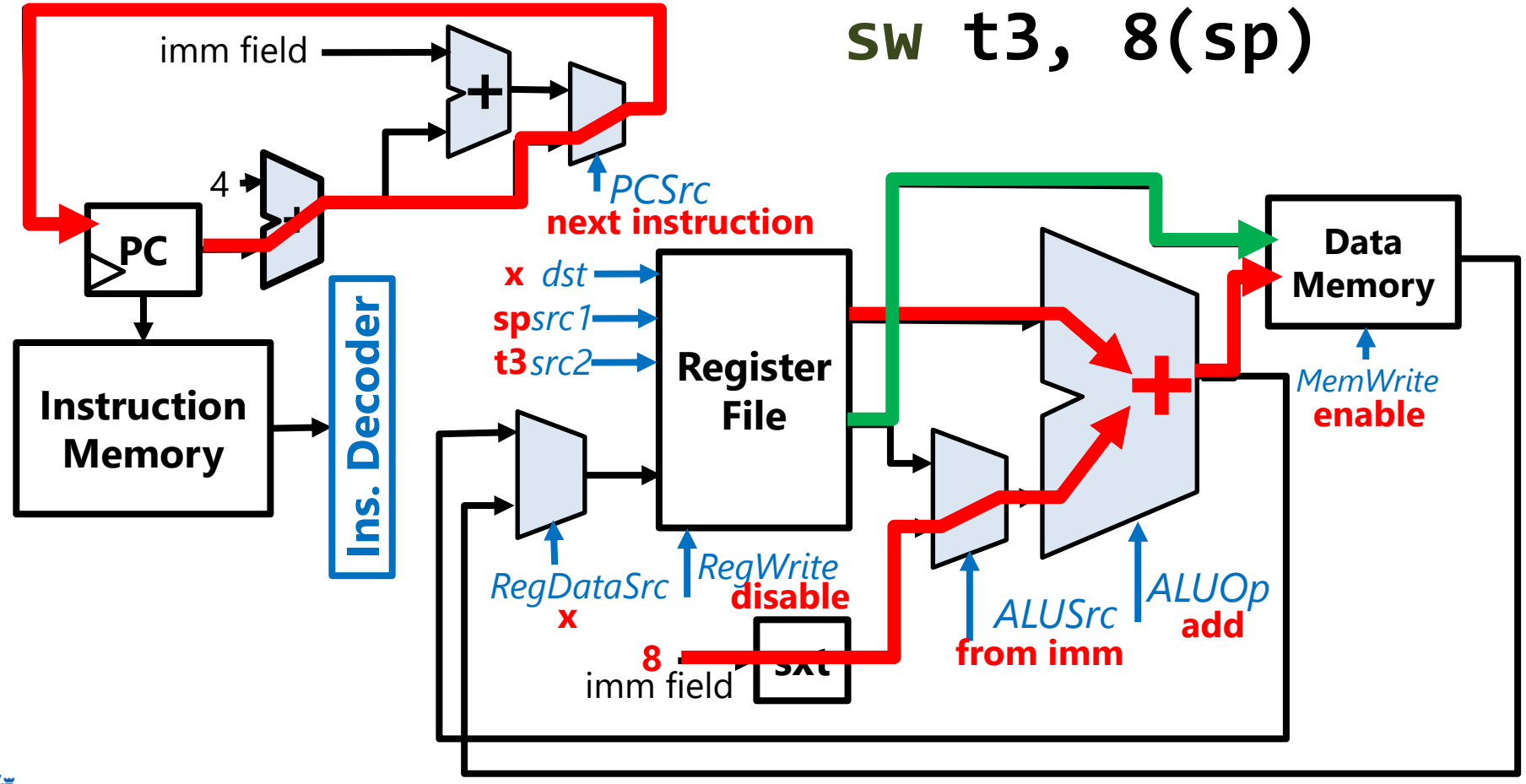
How an **add/sub/and/or/slt** work



How an **lw** works

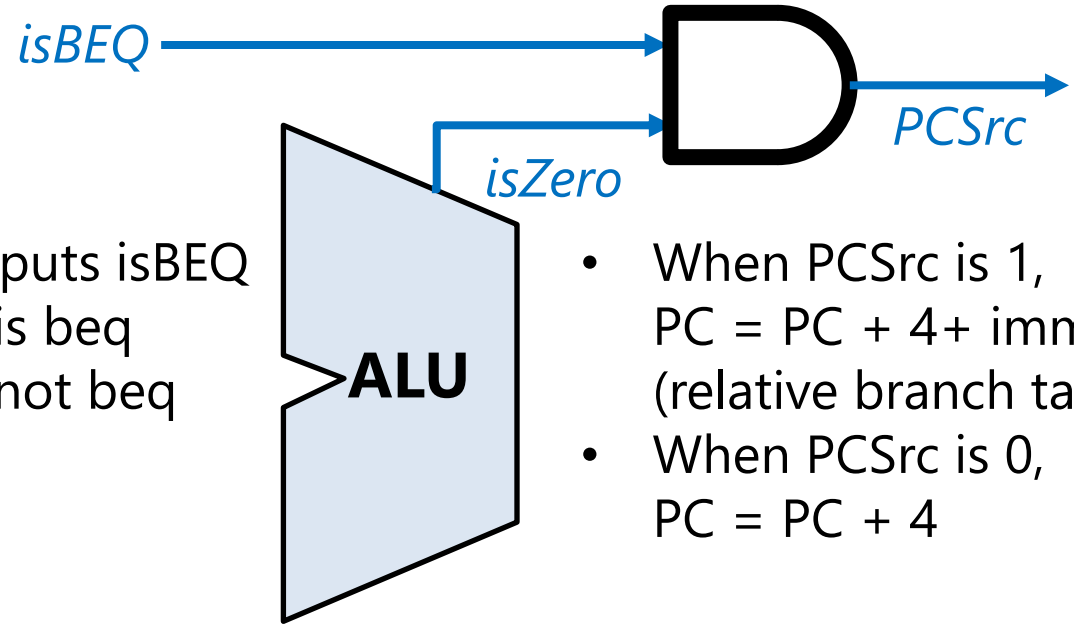


How an **sw** works



What about **beq**?

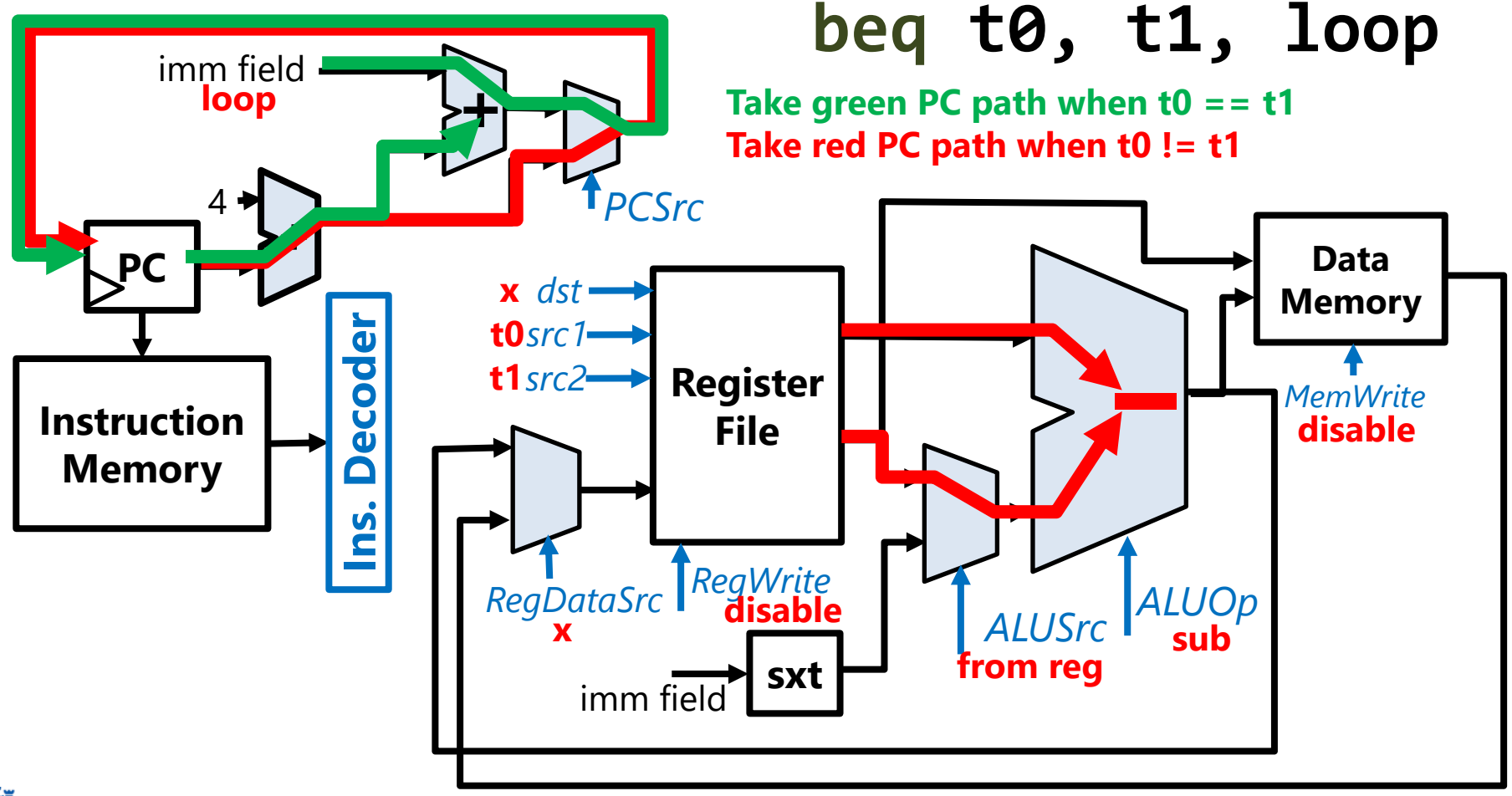
- Compares numbers by subtracting and see if result is 0
  - If result is 0, we set PCSrc to use the branch target.
  - Otherwise, we set PCSrc to PC + 4.



- Instruction decoder outputs isBEQ
  - 1: When instruction is beq
  - 0: When instruction not beq

- When PCSrc is 1, PC = PC + 4+ imm (relative branch target)
- When PCSrc is 0, PC = PC + 4

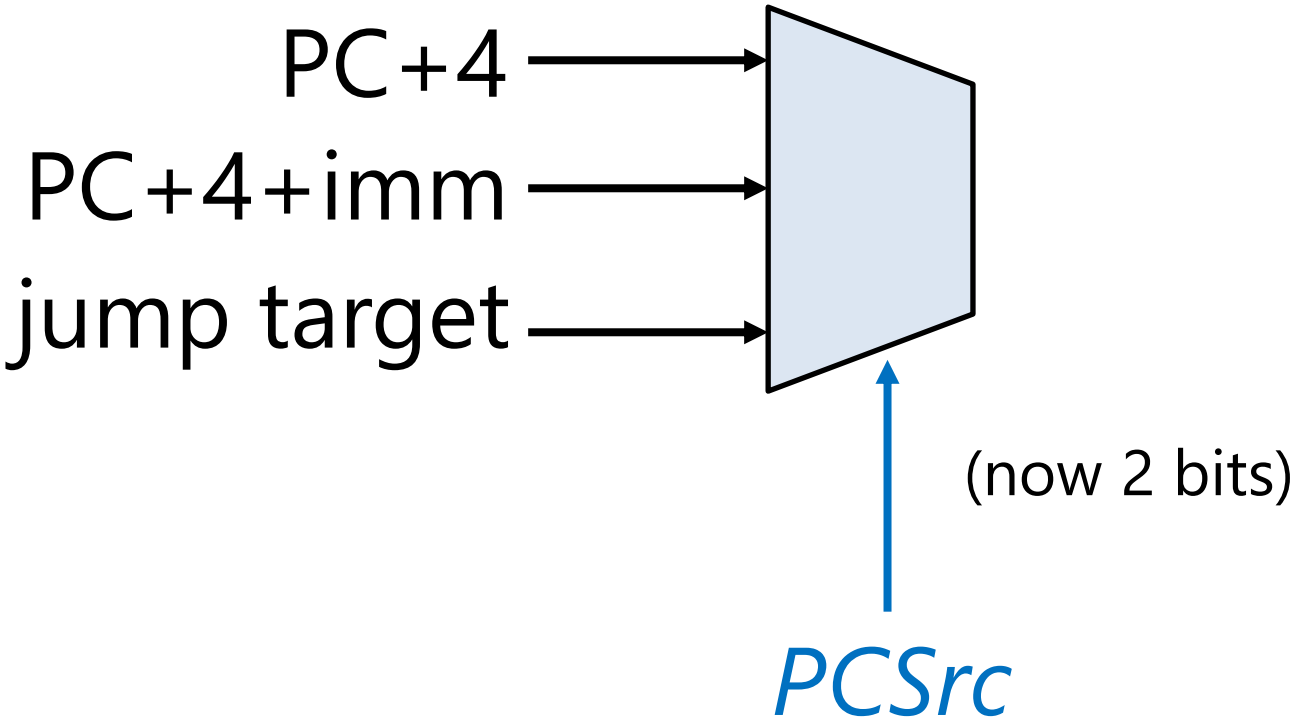
How a **beq** works



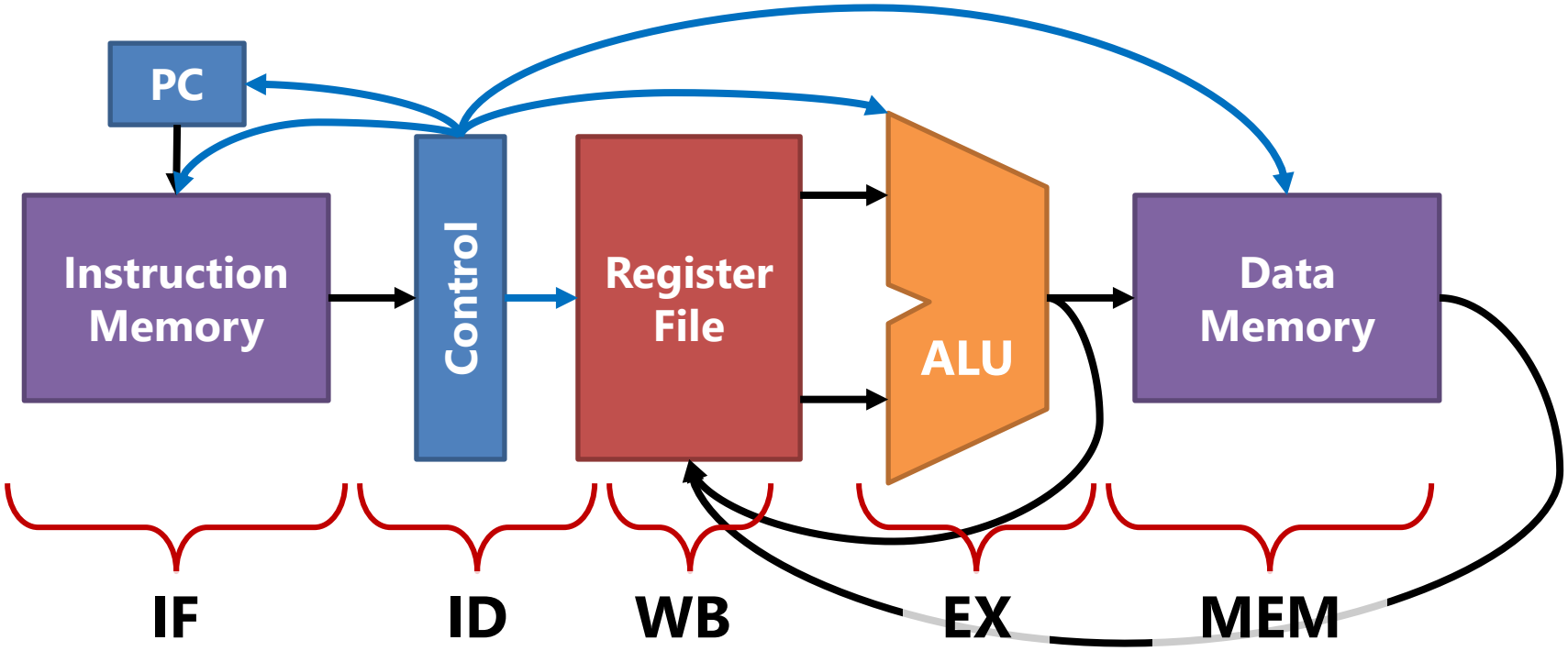
What about **j**?

- We have to add another input to the PCSrc mux.

```
j   top
```



A Single-cycle Implementation is not Optimal



- Why? Since the ***longest*** critical path must be chosen for cycle time
  - And there is a wide variation among different instructions

A Single-cycle Implementation is not Optimal

- In our CPU, the **lw** instruction has the longest critical path
  - Must go through all 5 stages: IF/ID/EX/MEM/WB
  - Whereas **add** goes through just 4 stages: IF/ID/EX/WB

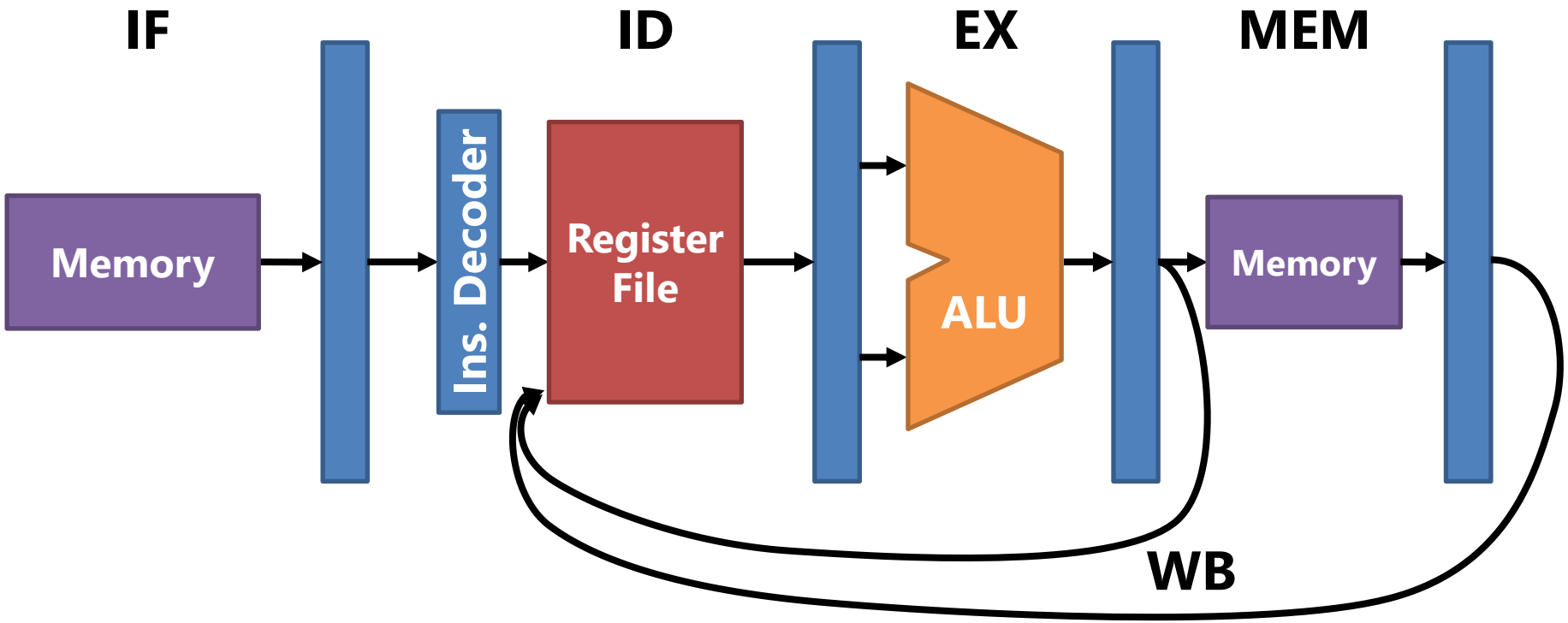
- If each phase takes *1 ns* each, cycle time must be *5 ns*:
  - Because it needs to be able to handle **lw**, which takes *5 ns*
  - **add** also takes *5 ns* when it could have been done in *4 ns*

Q) If **lw** is 1% and **add** is 99% of instruction mix,
what is the average instruction execution time?

A) Still *5 ns*! Even if **lw** is only 1% of instructions!

A Multi-cycle Implementation

- It takes one cycle for each phase through the use of internal latches



A Multi-cycle Implementation is Faster!

- Now each instruction takes different number of cycles to complete
  - **lw** takes 5 cycles: IF/ID/EX/MEM/WB
  - **add** takes 4 cycles: IF/ID/EX/WB

- If each phase takes *1 ns* as before:
  - **lw** takes *5 ns* and **add** takes *4 ns*

Q) If **lw** is 1% and **add** is 99% of instruction mix,
what is the average instruction execution time?

A) 0.01 * *5 ns* + 0.99 * *4 ns* = *4.01 ns* (25% faster than single cycle)

** Caveat: delay due to the added latches not shown, but net win*

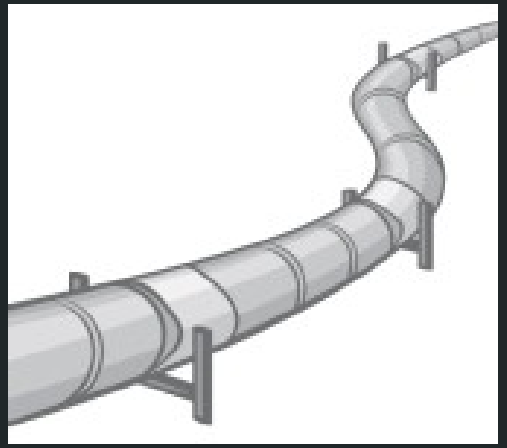
And we can do even better!

- Did you notice?
  - When an instruction is on a particular phase (e.g. IF) …
  - … other phases (ID/EX/MEM/WB) are not doing any work!

- Our CPU is getting chronically ***underutilized***!
  - If CPU is a factory, 80% (4/5) of the workers are idling!

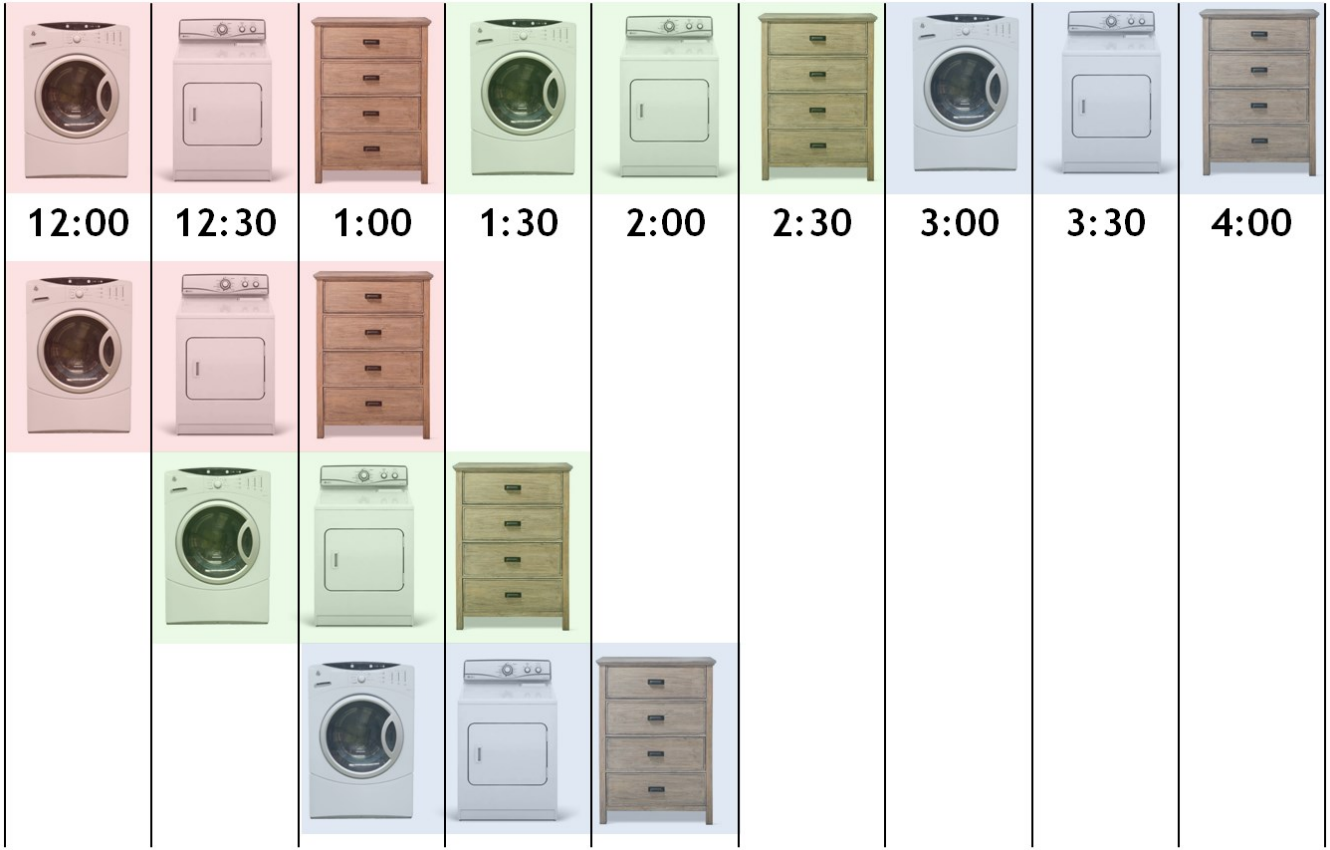
- Car factories create an assembly line to solve this problem
  - No need to wait until a car is finished before starting on next one
  - Our CPU is going to use a ***pipeline*** (similar concept)

Pipelining Basics



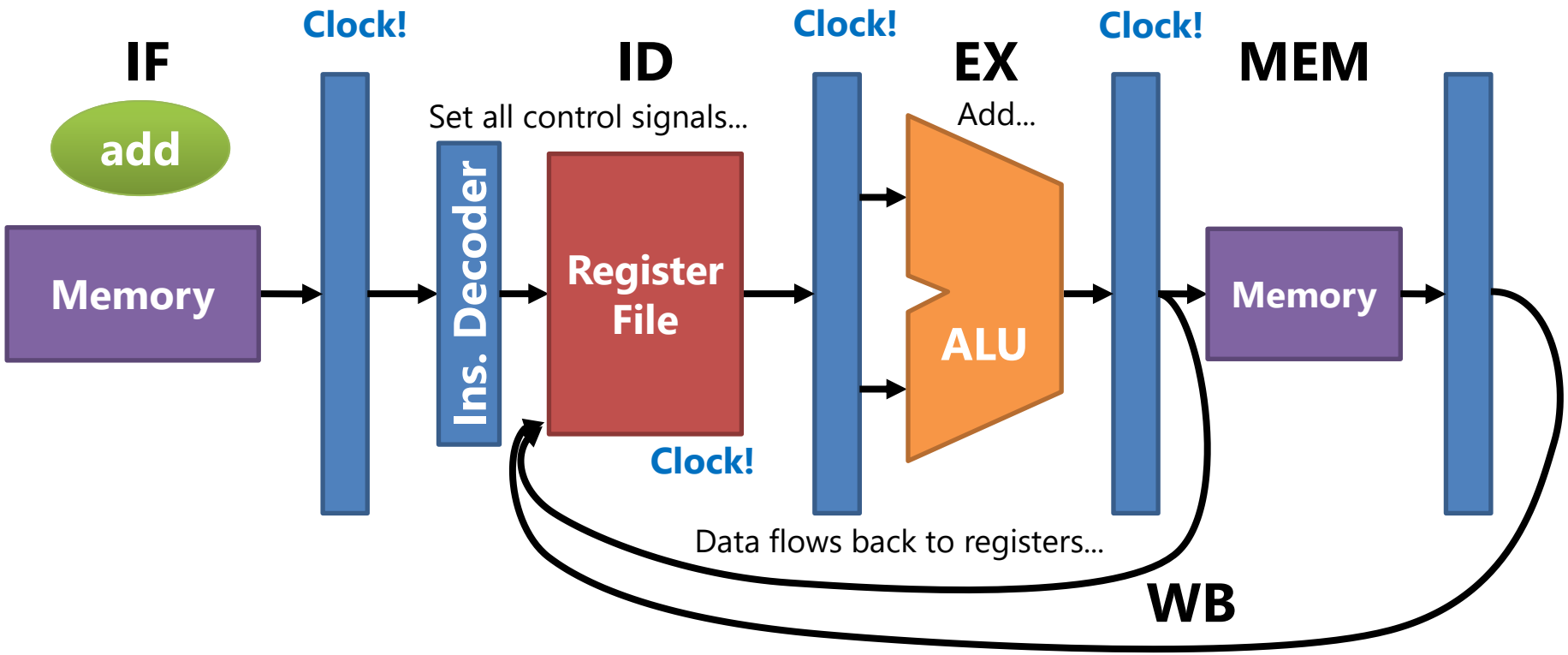
Improving Washer / Dryer / Closet Utilization

- If you work on loads of laundry one by one, you only get ~33% utilization
- If you form an "assembly line", you achieve ~100% utilization!



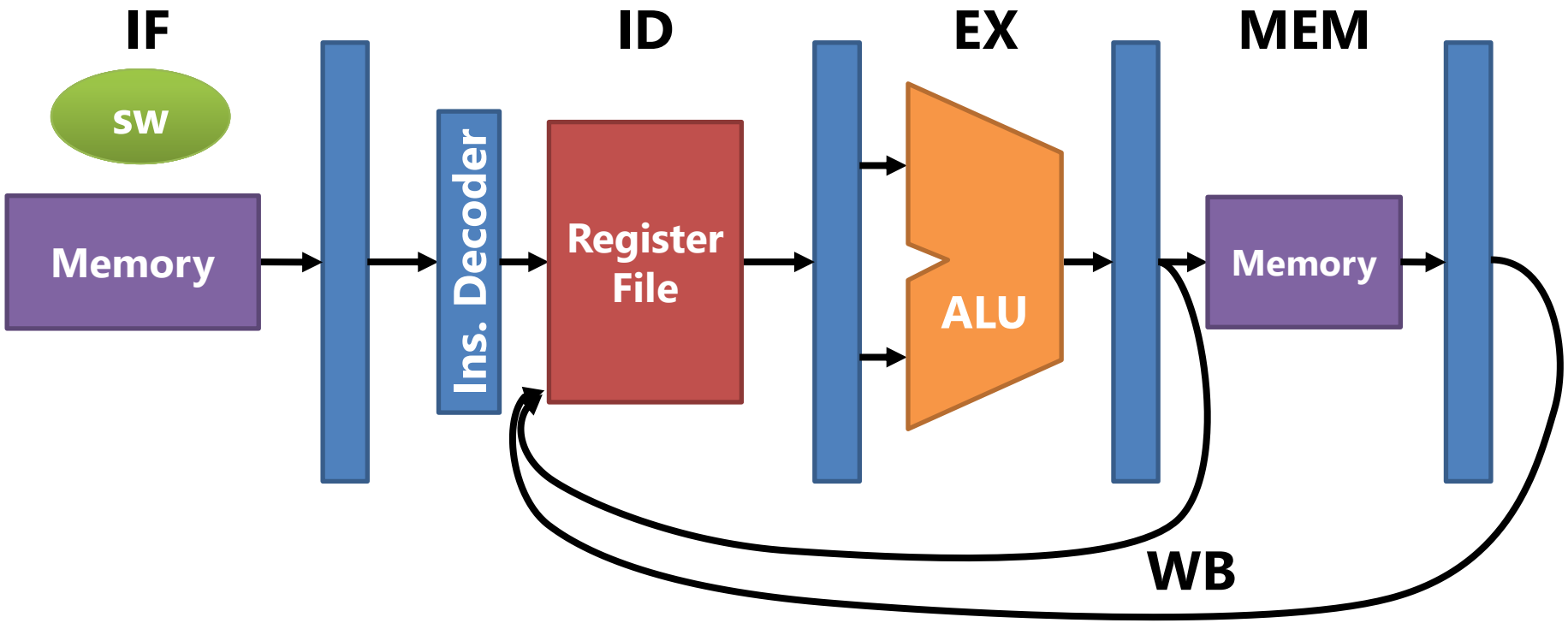
Multi-cycle instruction execution

- Let's watch how an instruction flows through the datapath.



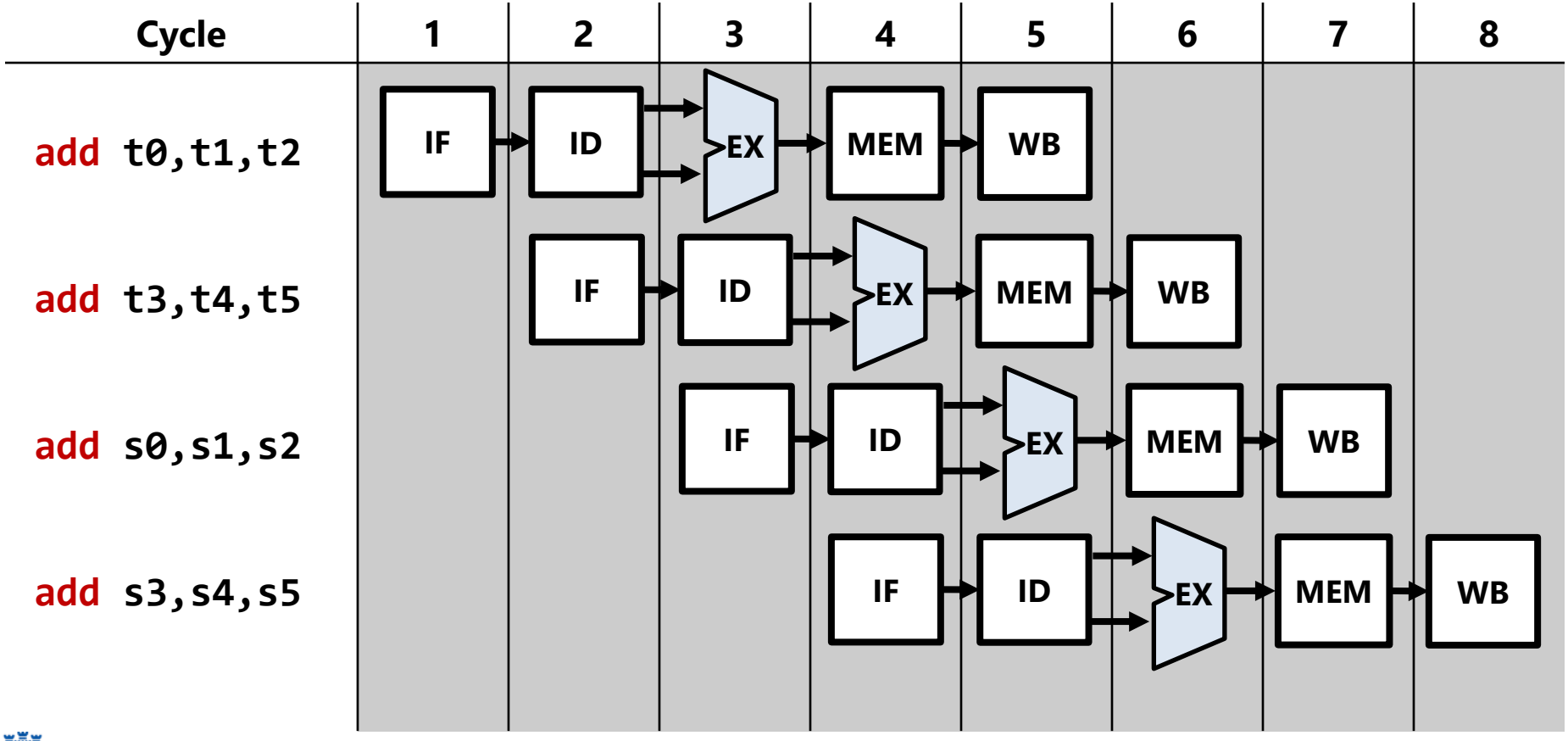
Pipelined instruction execution

- Pipelining allows one instruction to be fetched each cycle!



Pipelining Timeline

- This type of parallelism is called *pipelined parallelism*.



A Pipelined Implementation is even Faster!

- Again each instruction takes different number of cycles to complete
  - **lw** takes 5 cycles: IF/ID/EX/MEM/WB
  - **add** takes 4 cycles: IF/ID/EX/WB

- If each stage takes *1 ns* each:
  - **lw** takes *5 ns* and **add** takes *4 ns*

Q) The average instruction execution time (given 100 instructions)?

A) (*99 ns* + *5 ns*) / 100 = *1.04 ns*
  - Assuming last instruction is a **lw** (a 5-cycle instruction)
  - A ~**5X** speed up from single cycle!

Pipelined vs. Multi-cycle vs. Single-cycle

- What happened to the three components of performance?

$$\frac{\text{instructions}}{\text{program}} \times \frac{\text{cycles}}{\text{instructions}} \times \frac{\text{seconds}}{\text{cycle}}$$

Architecture	Instructions	CPI	Cycle Time (1/F)
Single-cycle	Same	1	5 ns
Multi-cycle	Same	4~5	1 ns
Pipelined	Same	1	1 ns

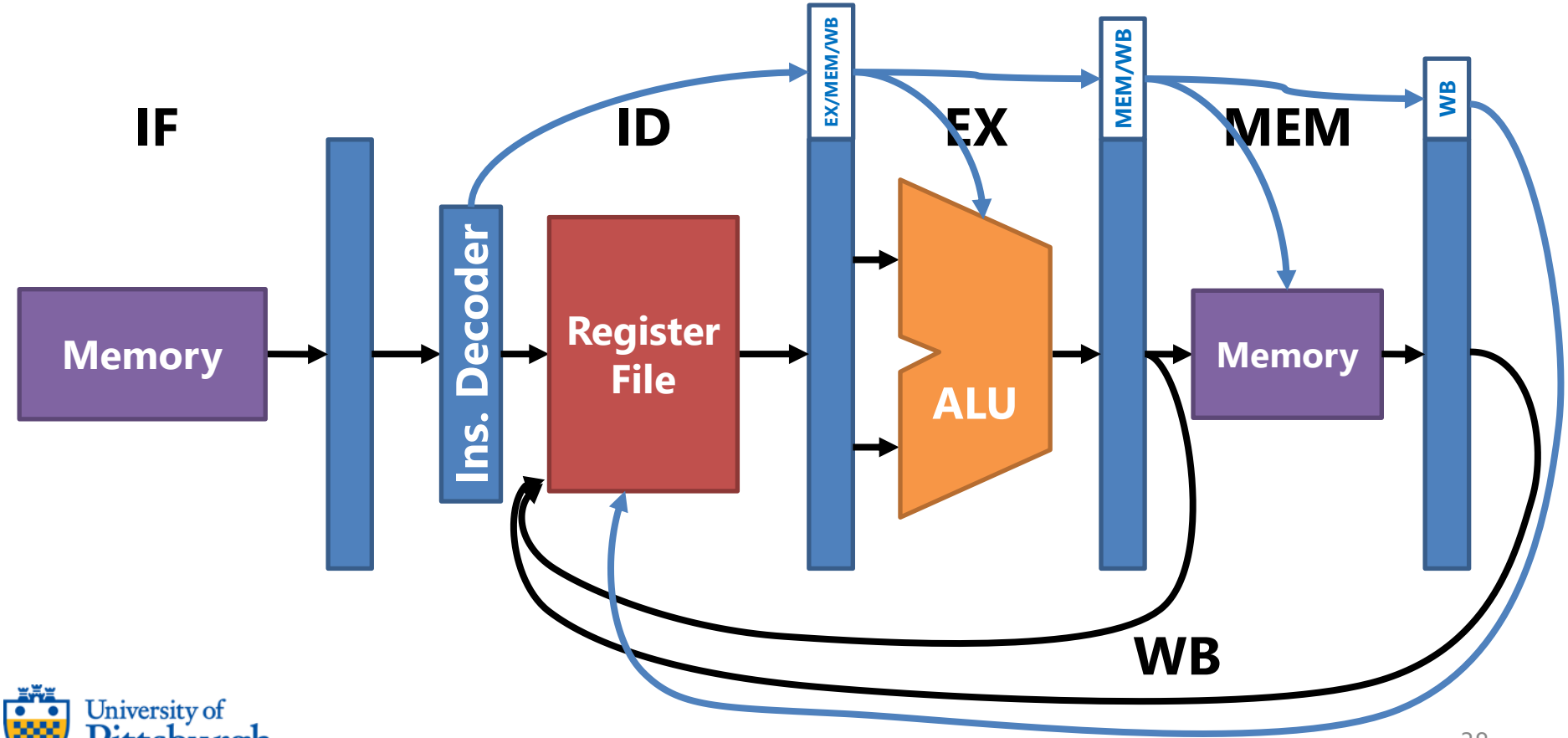
- Compared to single-cycle, pipelining improves clock cycle time
  - Or in other words CPU ***clock frequency***
  - The deeper the pipeline, the higher the frequency will be

** Caveat: latch delay and unbalanced stages can increase cycle time*

** Caveat: pipeline hazards and memory delay can increase CPI*

How about the control signals?

- A new instruction is decoded at every cycle!
- Control signals must be passed along with the data at each stage



Pipeline Hazards

Pipeline Hazards

- For pipelined CPUs, we said CPI is practically 1
  - But that depends entirely on having the pipeline filled
  - In real life, there are ***hazards*** that prevent 100% utilization

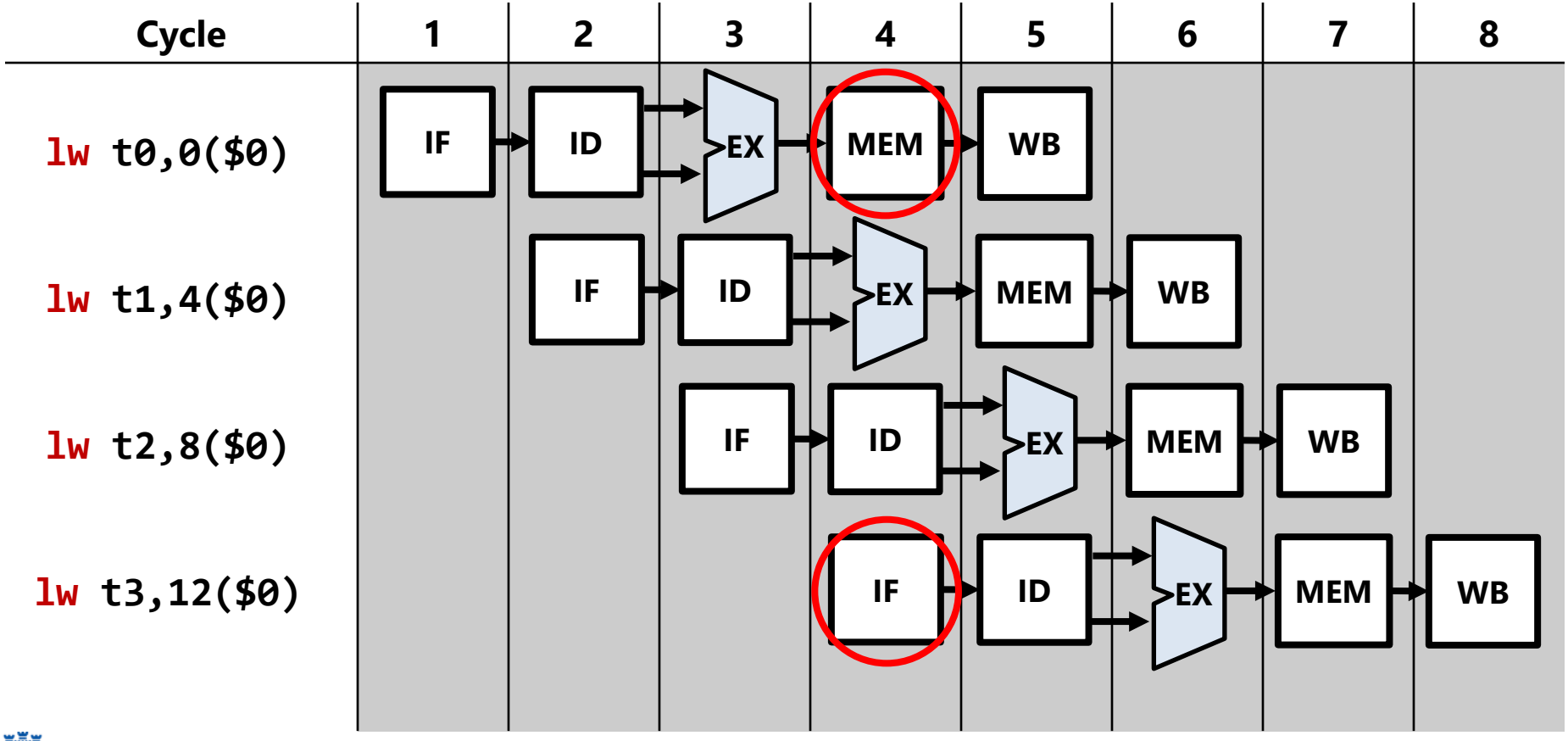
- ***Pipeline Hazard***
  - When the next instruction cannot execute in the following cycle
  - Hazards introduce ***bubbles*** (delays) into the pipeline timeline

- Architects have some tricks up their sleeves to avoid hazards

- But first let's briefly talk about the three types of hazards:
  Structural hazard, *Data hazard*, *Control Hazard*

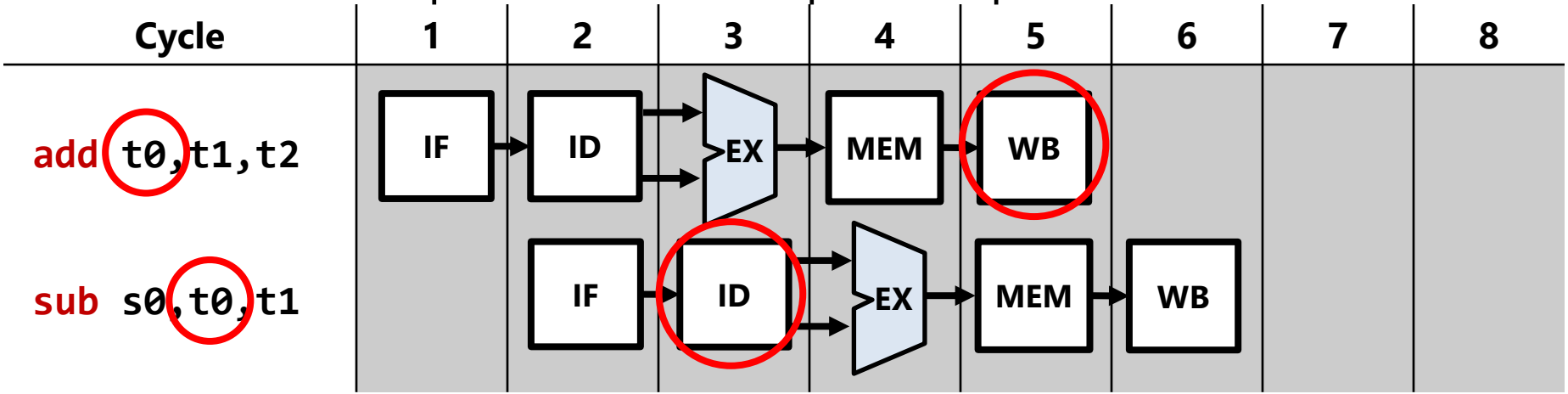
Structural Hazards

- Two instructions need to use the same hardware at the same time.

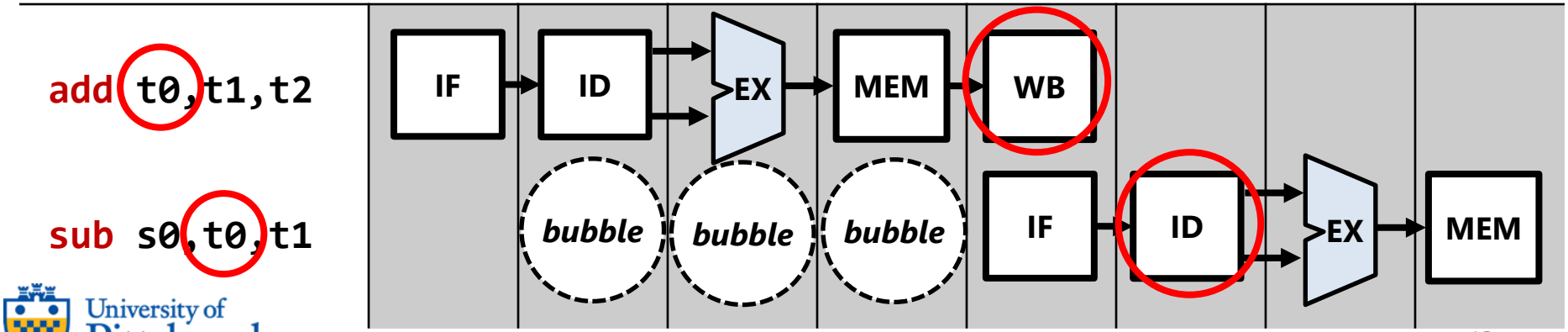


Data Hazards

- An instruction depends on the output of a previous one.



- **sub** must wait until **add**'s WB phase is over before doing its ID phase



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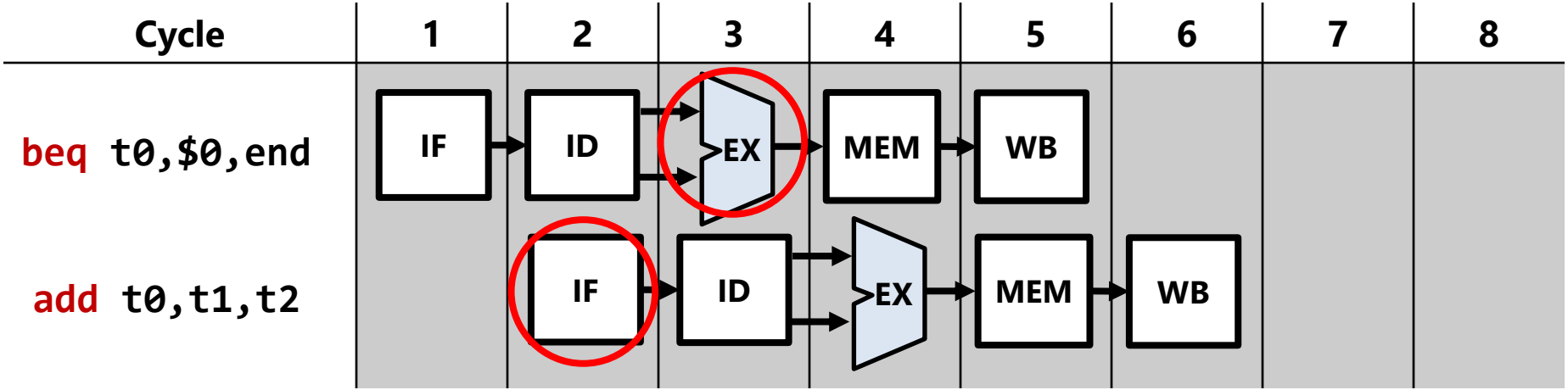
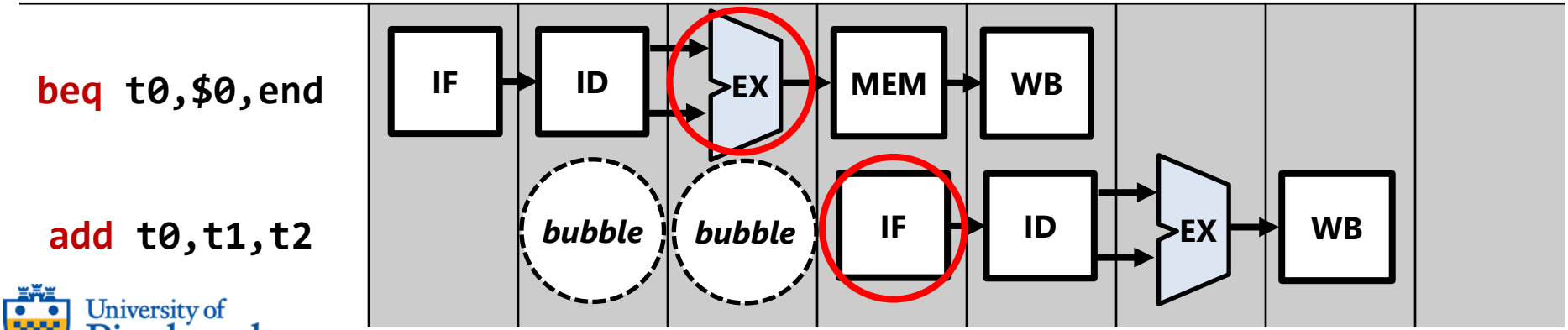
Control Hazards

- You don't know the outcome of a conditional branch.



- **add** must wait until **beq**'s EX phase is over before its IF phase



Dealing with Hazards

- Pipeline must be controlled so that hazards don't cause malfunction

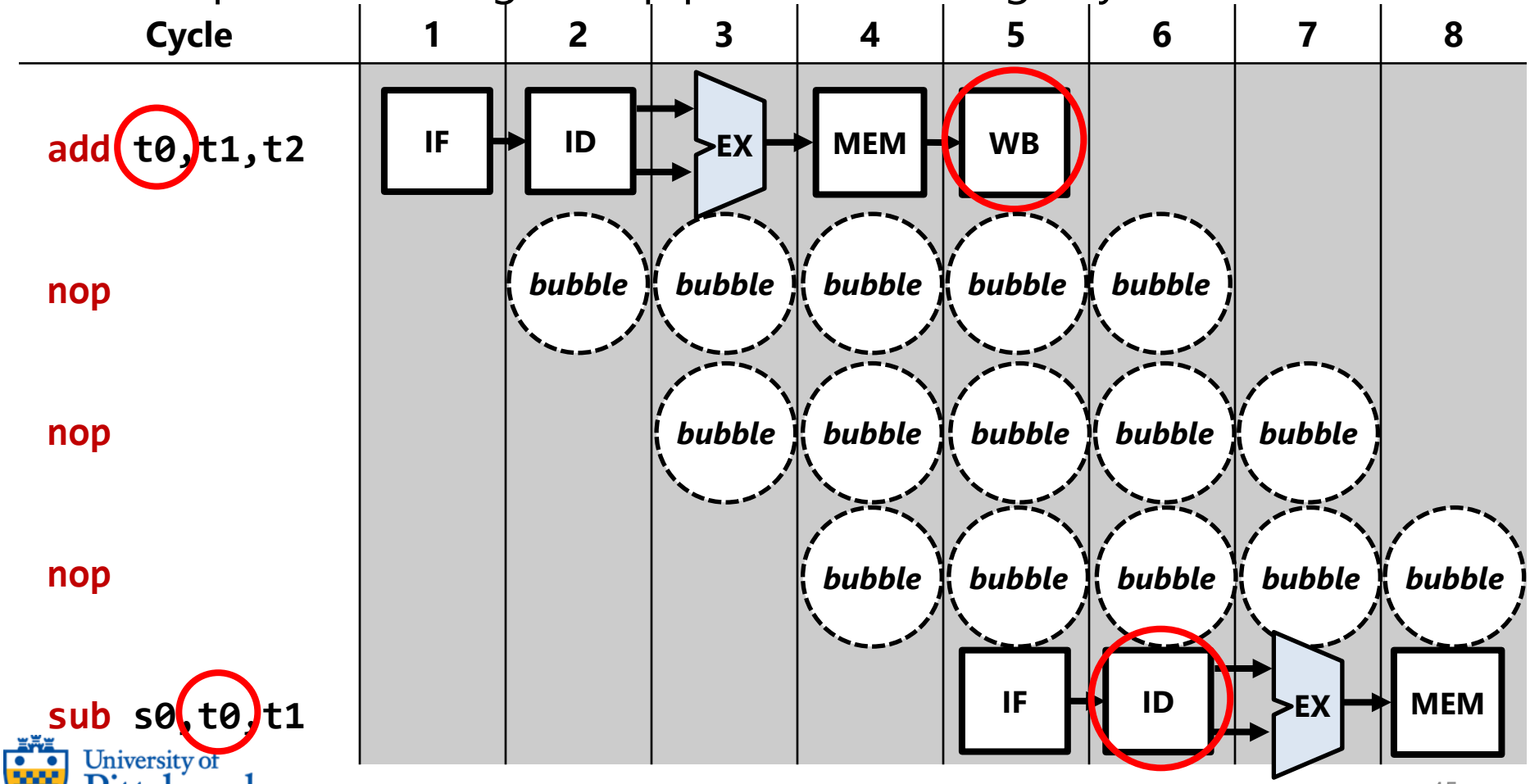
- Who is in charge of that? You have a choice.

1. Compiler can avoid hazards by inserting nops
   - Insert a nop where compiler thinks a hazard would happen

2. CPU can internally avoid hazards using a ***hazard detection unit***
   - If structural/data hazard, pipeline ***stalled*** until resolved
   - If control hazard, pipeline ***flushed*** of wrong path instructions

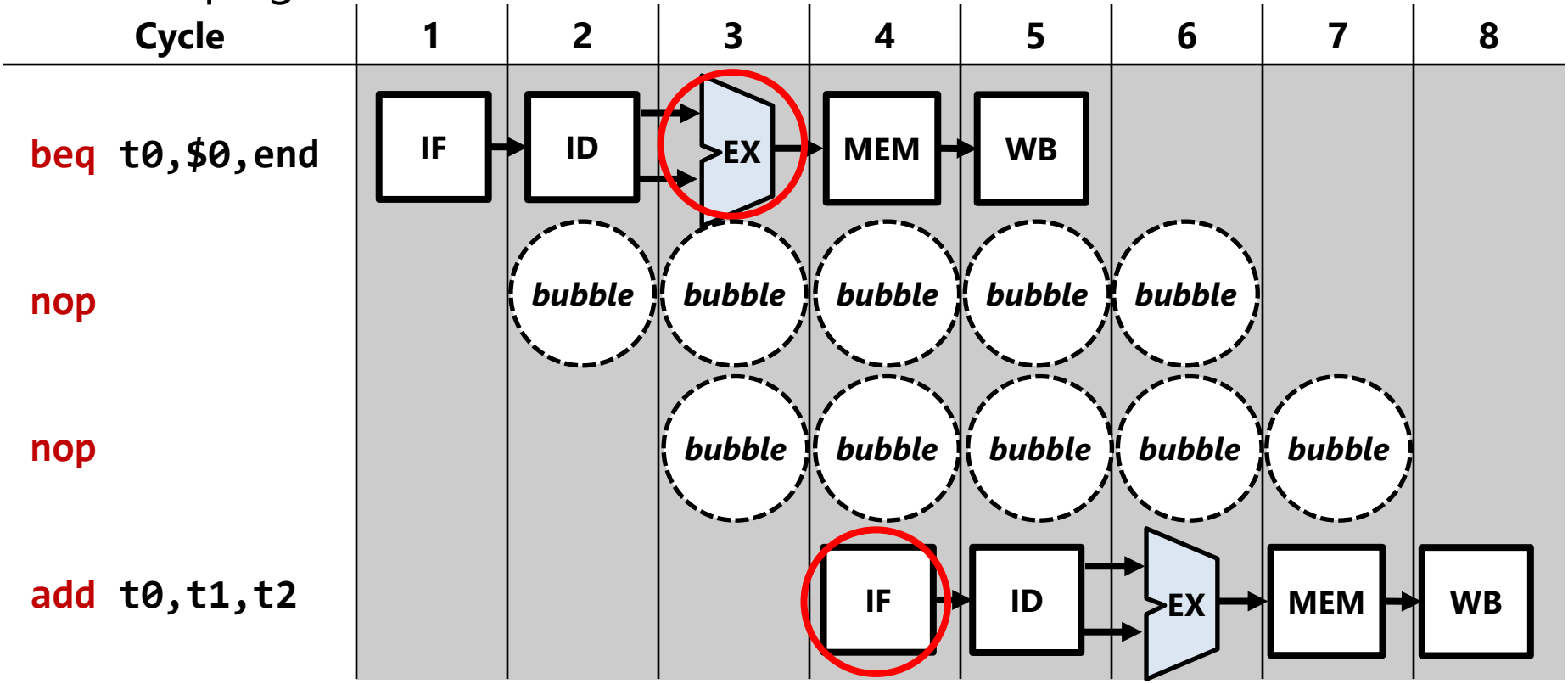
Compiler avoiding a data hazard

- The nops flow through the pipeline not doing any work

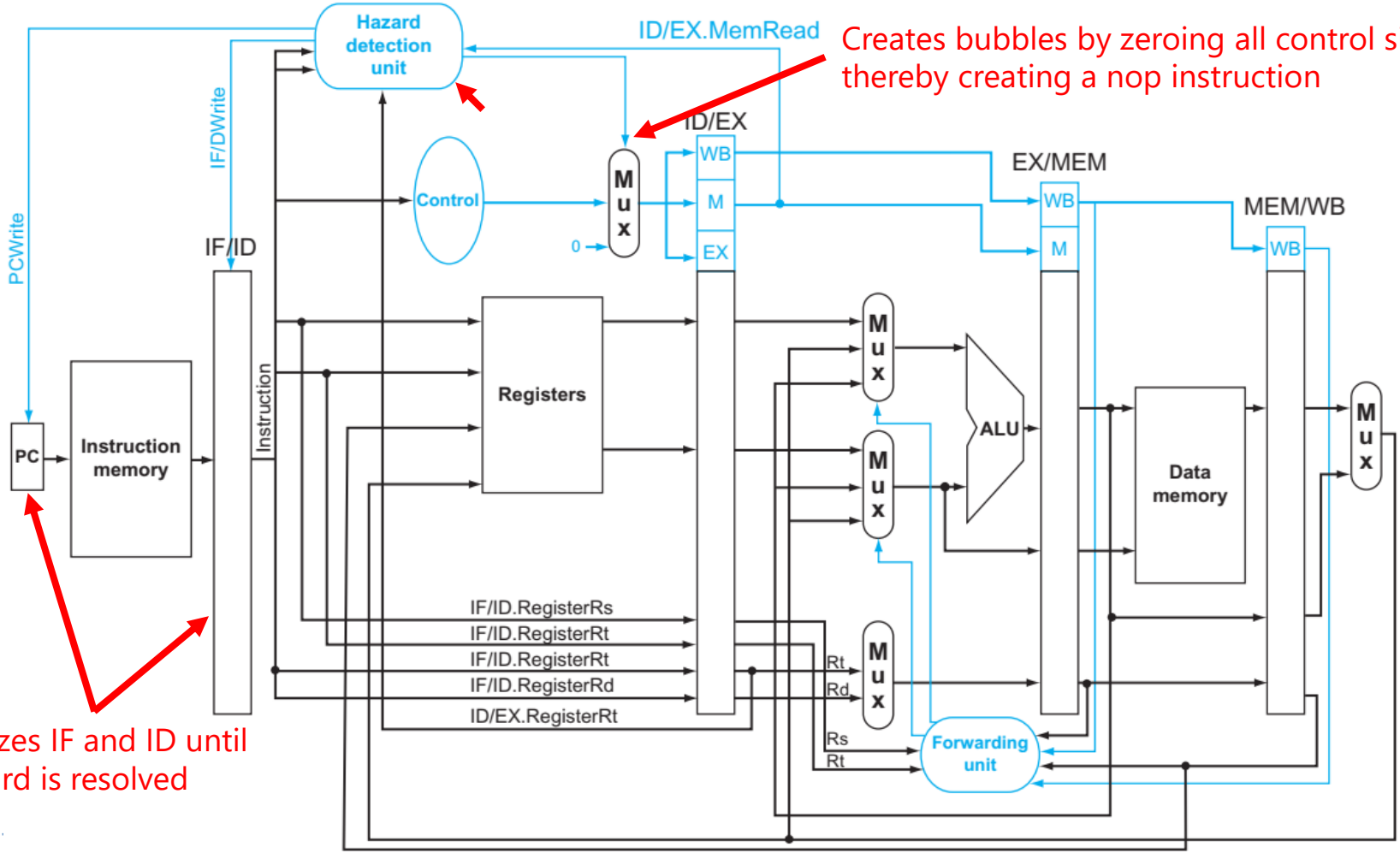


Compiler avoiding a control hazard

- The nops give time for condition to resolve before instruction fetch

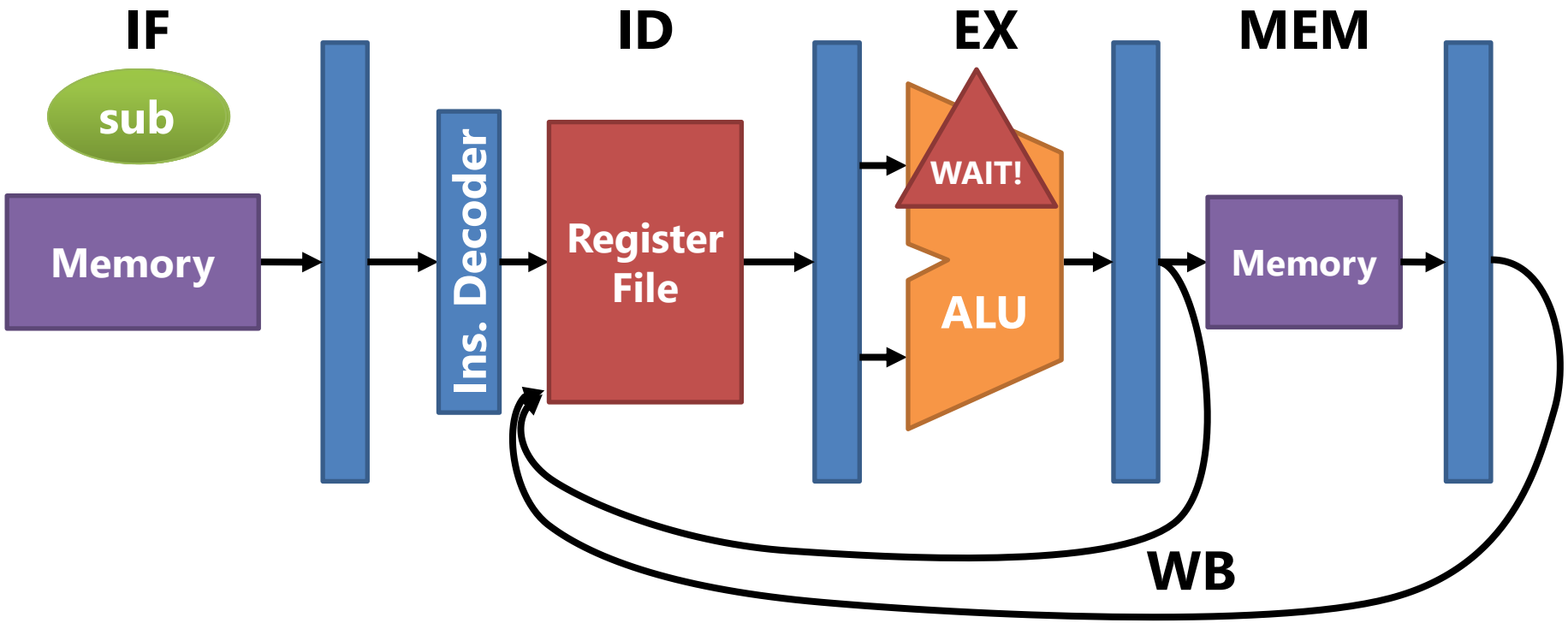


Hazard Detection Unit



Hazard Detection Unit avoiding a data hazard

- Suppose we have an **add** that depends on an **lw**.



Structural / Data Hazards cause stalls

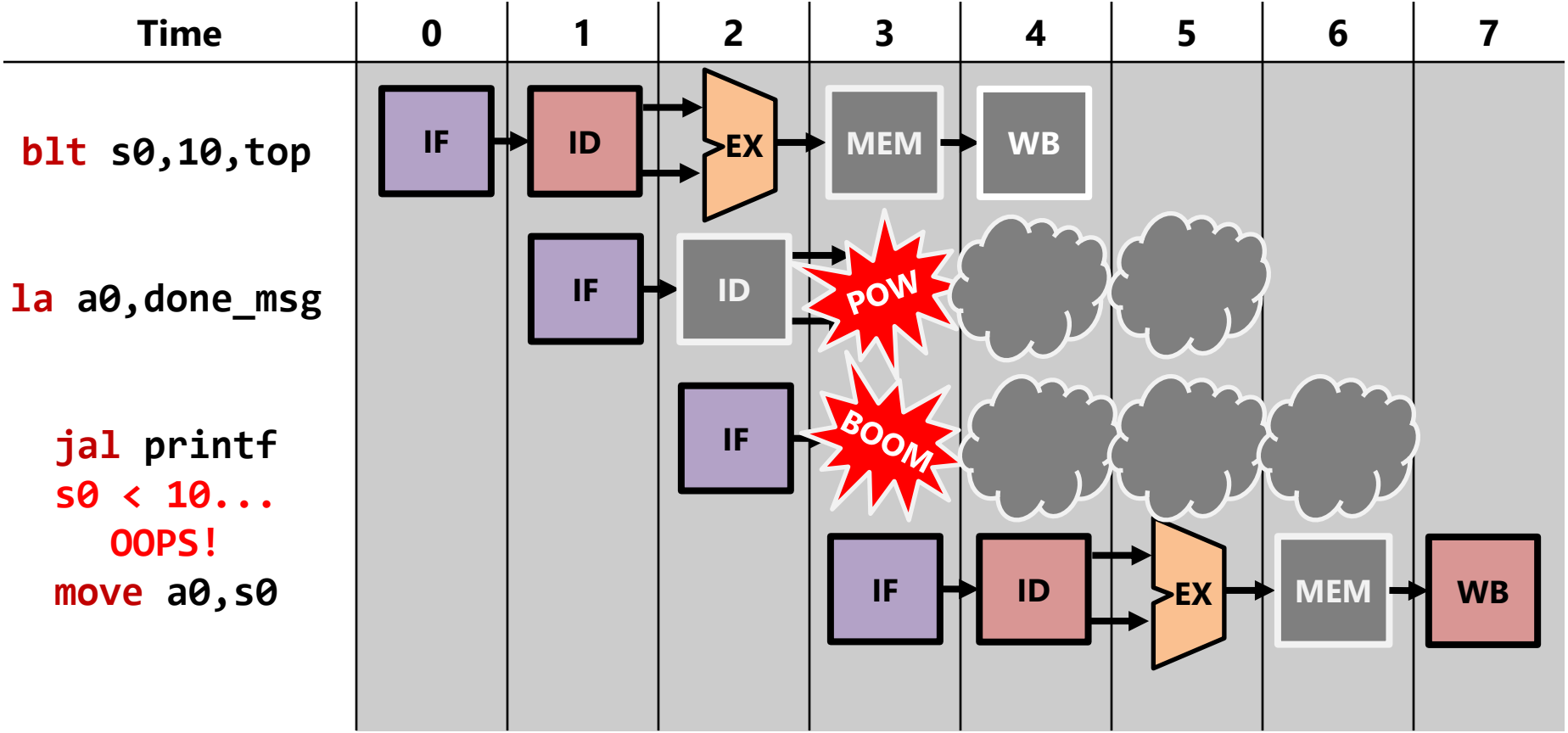
- If HDU detects a structural or data hazard, it does the following:
  - It **stops fetching instructions** (doesn't update the PC).
  - It **stops clocking the pipeline registers for the stalled stages.**
  - The stages after the stalled instructions **are filled with nops.**
    - Change control signals to 0 using the mux!
  - In this way, all following instructions will be stalled

- When structural or data hazard is resolved
  - HDU resumes instruction fetching and clocking of stalled stages

- But what about control hazards?
  - Instructions in wrong path are already in pipeline!
  - Need to ***flush*** these instructions

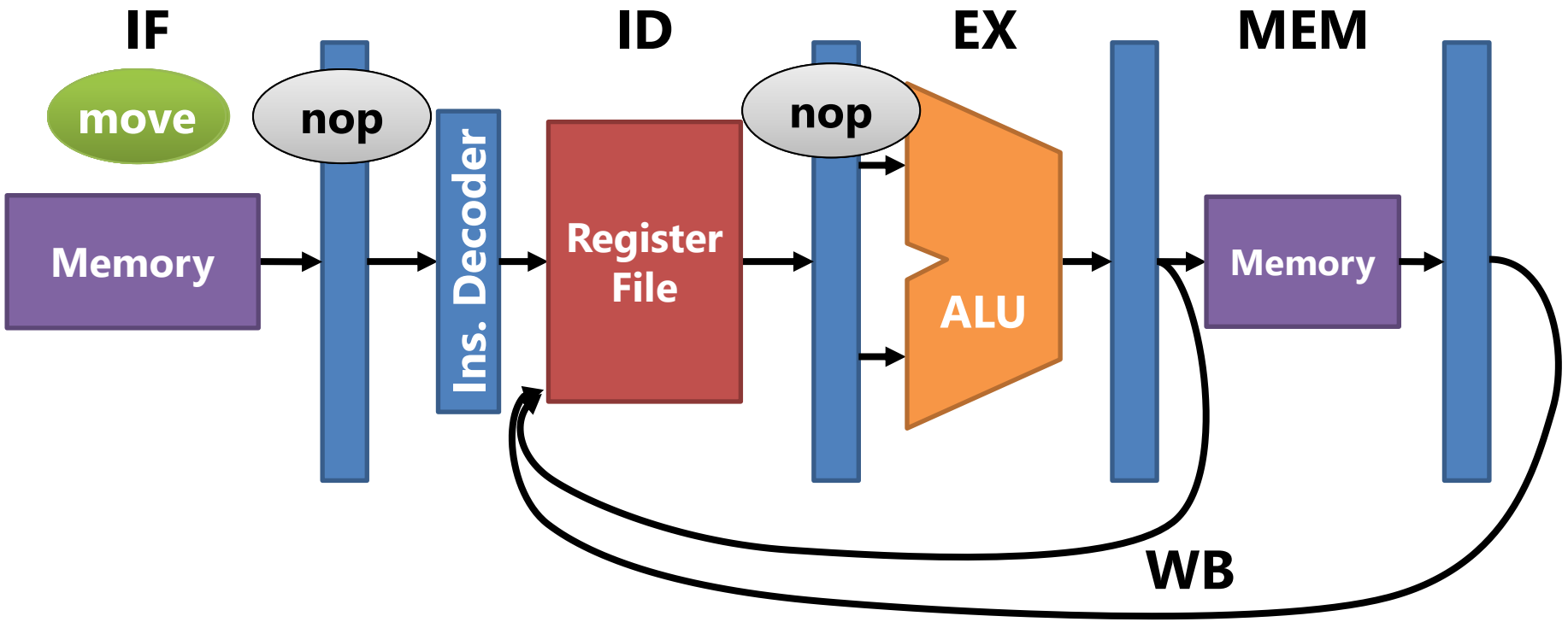
What's a flush?

- A pipeline flush removes all wrong path instructions from pipeline



Hazard Detection Unit avoiding a control hazard

- Let's watch the previous example.



Control Hazards cause flushes

- If a control hazard is detected due to a branch instruction:
  - Any "newer" instructions (those already in the pipeline) are transformed into **nops.**
  - Any "older" instructions (those that came BEFORE the branch) are left alone to finish executing as normal.

Performance penalty of pipeline stalls

- Remember the three components of performance:

$$\frac{\text{instructions}}{\text{program}} \times \frac{\text{cycles}}{\text{instructions}} \times \frac{\text{seconds}}{\text{cycle}}$$

Architecture	Instructions	CPI	Cycle Time (1/F)
Single-cycle	Same	1	5 ns
Ideal 5-stage pipeline	Same	1	1 ns
Pipeline w/ stalls	Same	2	1 ns

- Pipelining increases ***clock frequency*** proportionate to depth
- But stalls increase ***CPI*** (cycles per instruction)
  - If stalls prevent new instructions from being fetched half the time, the CPU will have a CPI of 2 → Only 2.5X speed up (instead of 5X)
- We'd like to avoid this penalty if possible!

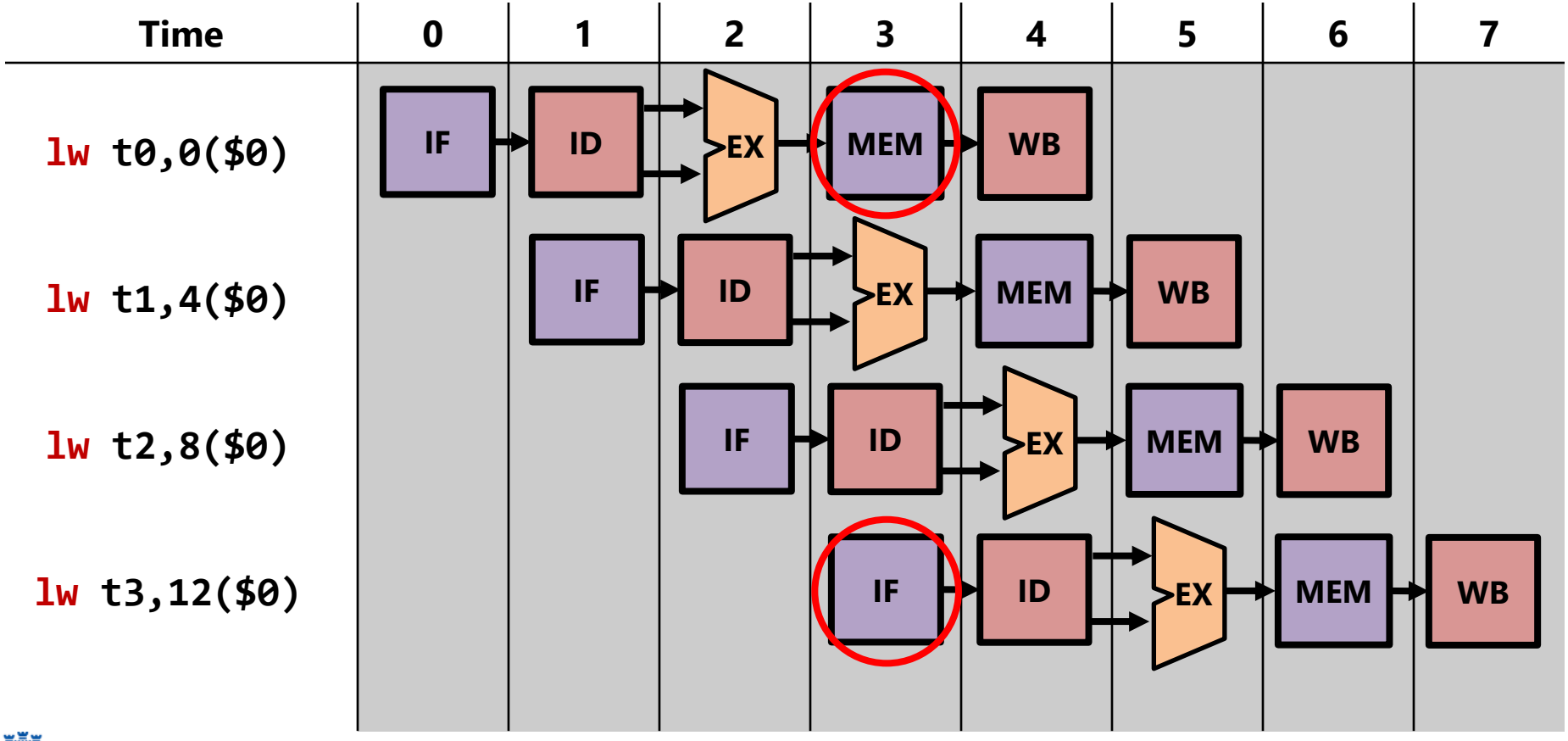
Compiler nops vs. CPU Hazard Detection Unit

- Limitations of compiler nops
  - Compiler must make assumptions about processor design
    - But processor design is not part of ISA
    - What if processor pipeline design changes in next CPU?
  - Length of MEM stage is very hard to predict by the compiler
    - Until now we assumed MEM takes a uniform one cycle
    - But remember what we said about the **Memory Wall**?
    - MEM isn't uniform really and sometimes hundreds of cycles
- But compiler nops is very energy-efficient
  - Hazard Detection Unit can be power hungry
    - A lot of long wires controlling remote parts of the CPU
    - Adds to the **Power Wall** problem
  - Compiler scheduling via nops removes need for HDU

Solving Structural Hazards

Structural Hazard on Memory

- Two instructions need to use the same hardware at the same time.

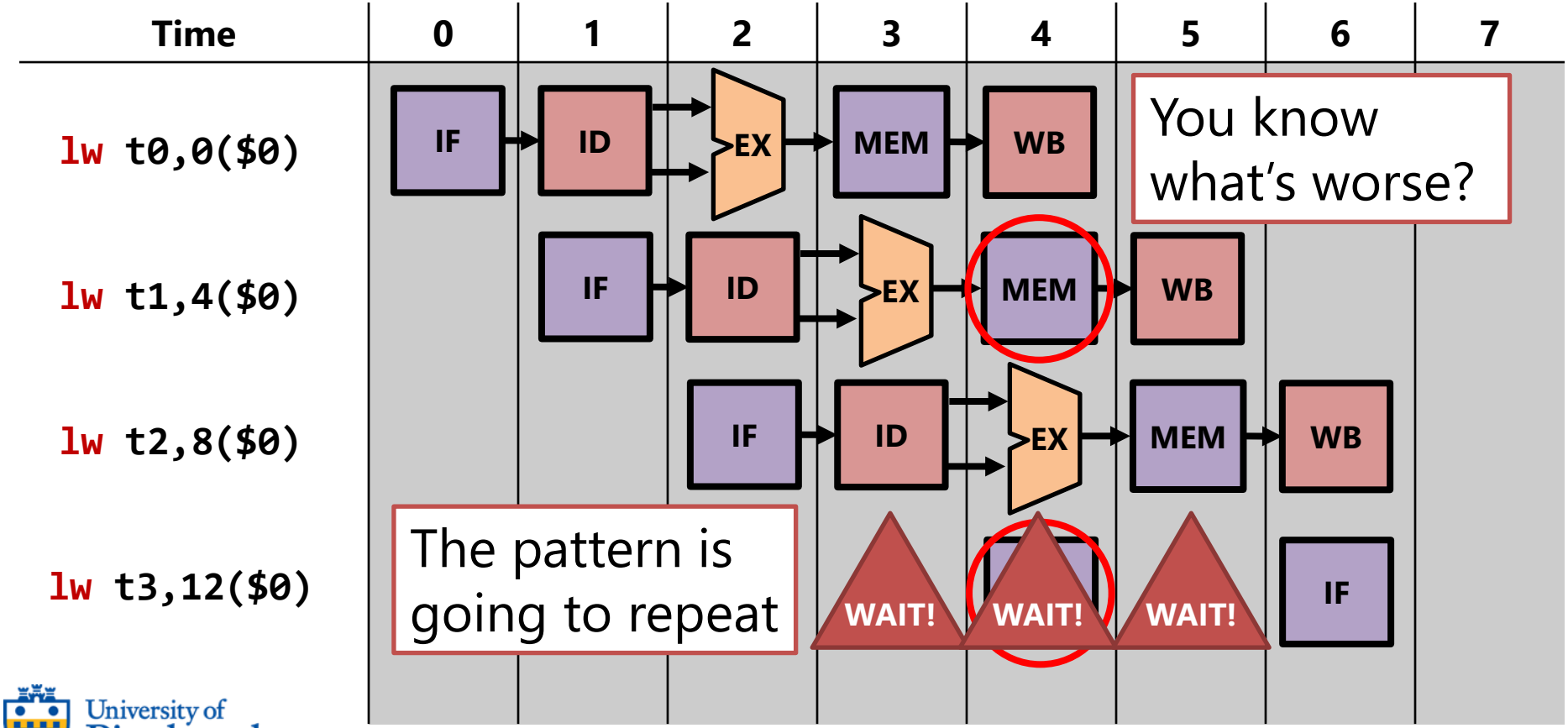


What could we do??

- Two people need to use **one** sink at the same time
  - Well, in this case, it's memory but same idea

We can do something similar!

- One option is to **wait** (a.k.a. **stall**).

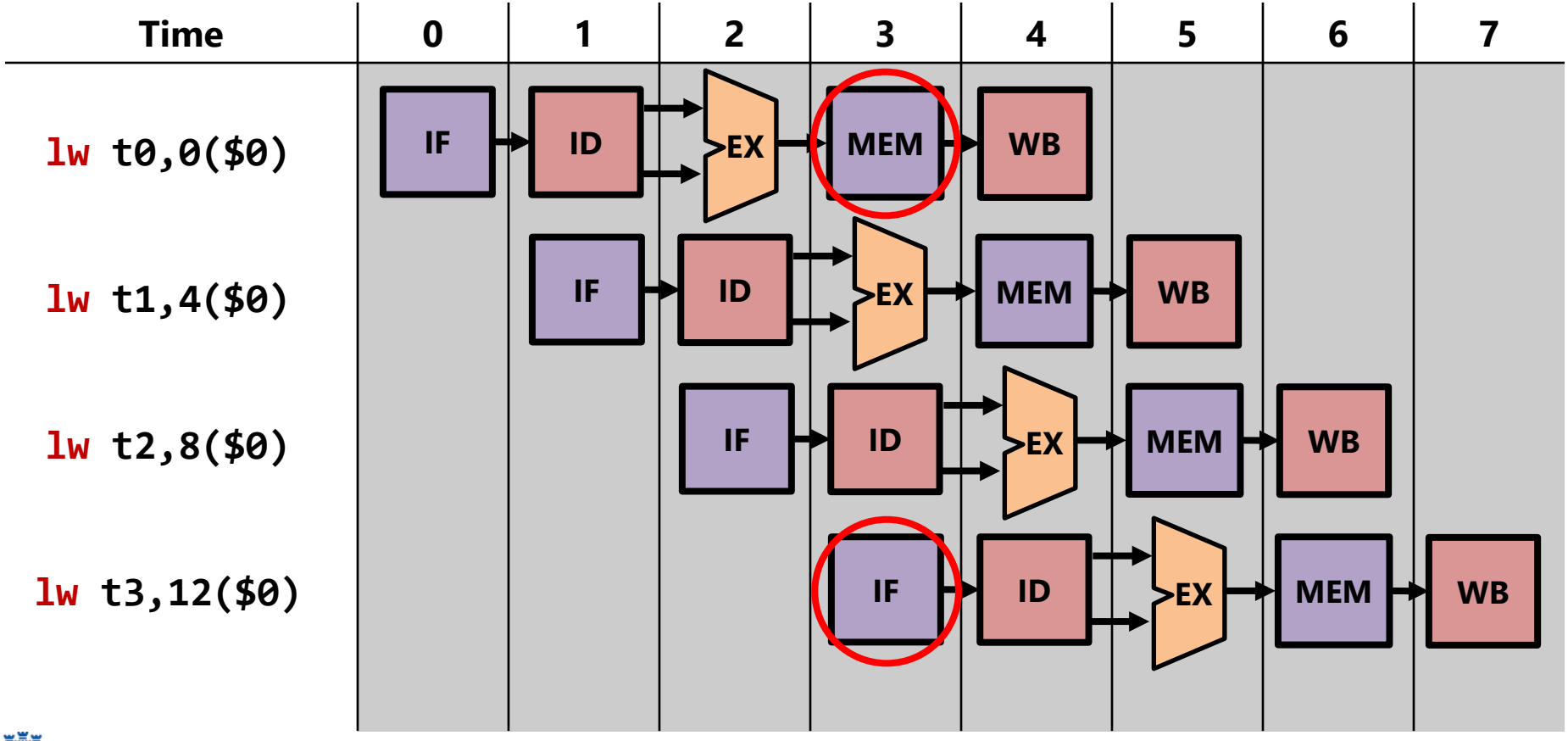


Or we could throw in more hardware!

- For less commonly used CPU resources, stalling can work fine
- But memory (and some other things) is used **CONSTANTLY**
- How do the bathrooms solve this problem?
  - Throw in lots of sinks!
  - In other words, throw more hardware at the problem!
- Memory's a resource with a lot of ***contention***
  - So have two memories, one for instructions, and one for data!
  - Not literally but CPUs have separate ***instruction*** and ***data caches***

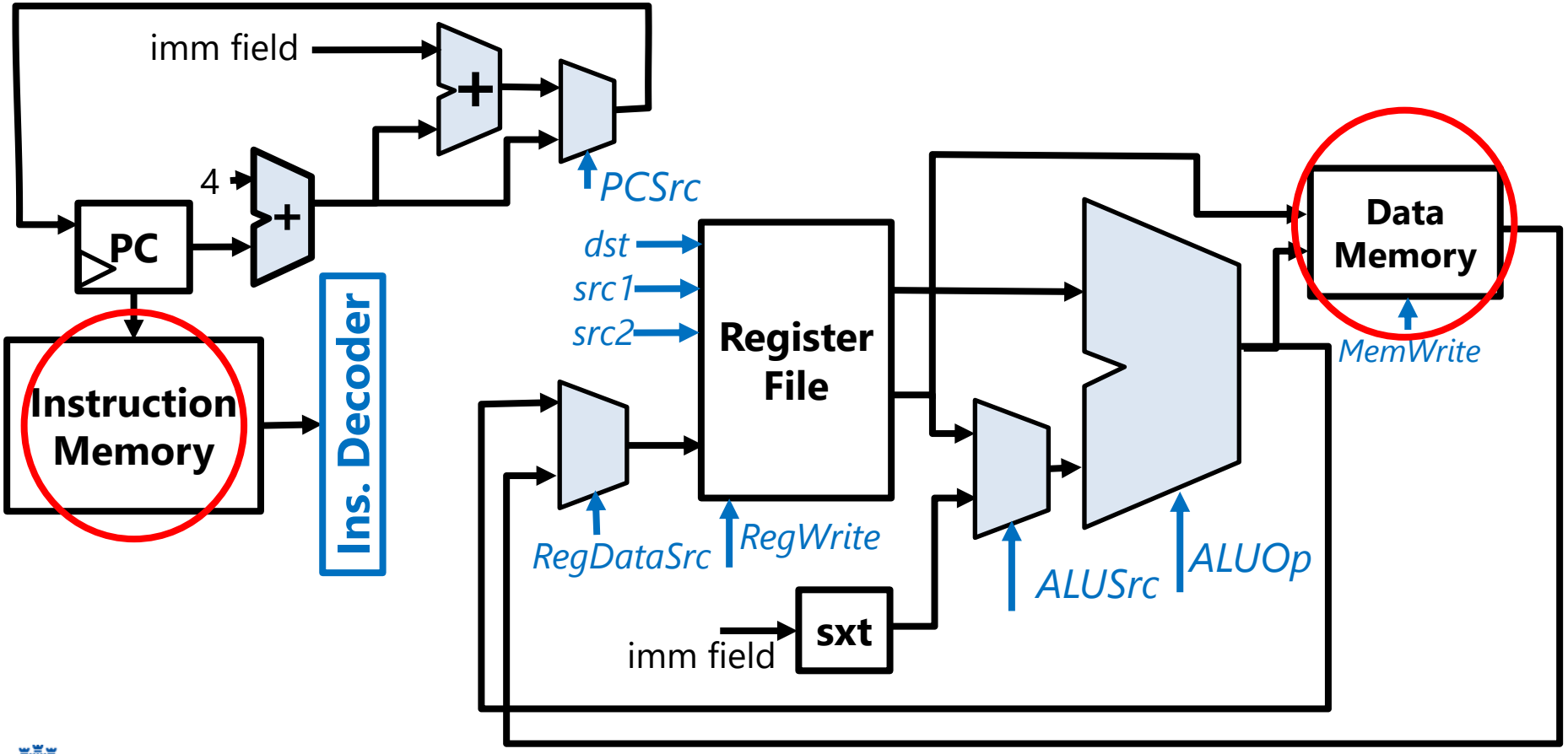
Structural Hazard removed with two Memories

- With separate i-cache and d-cache, MEM and IF can work in parallel



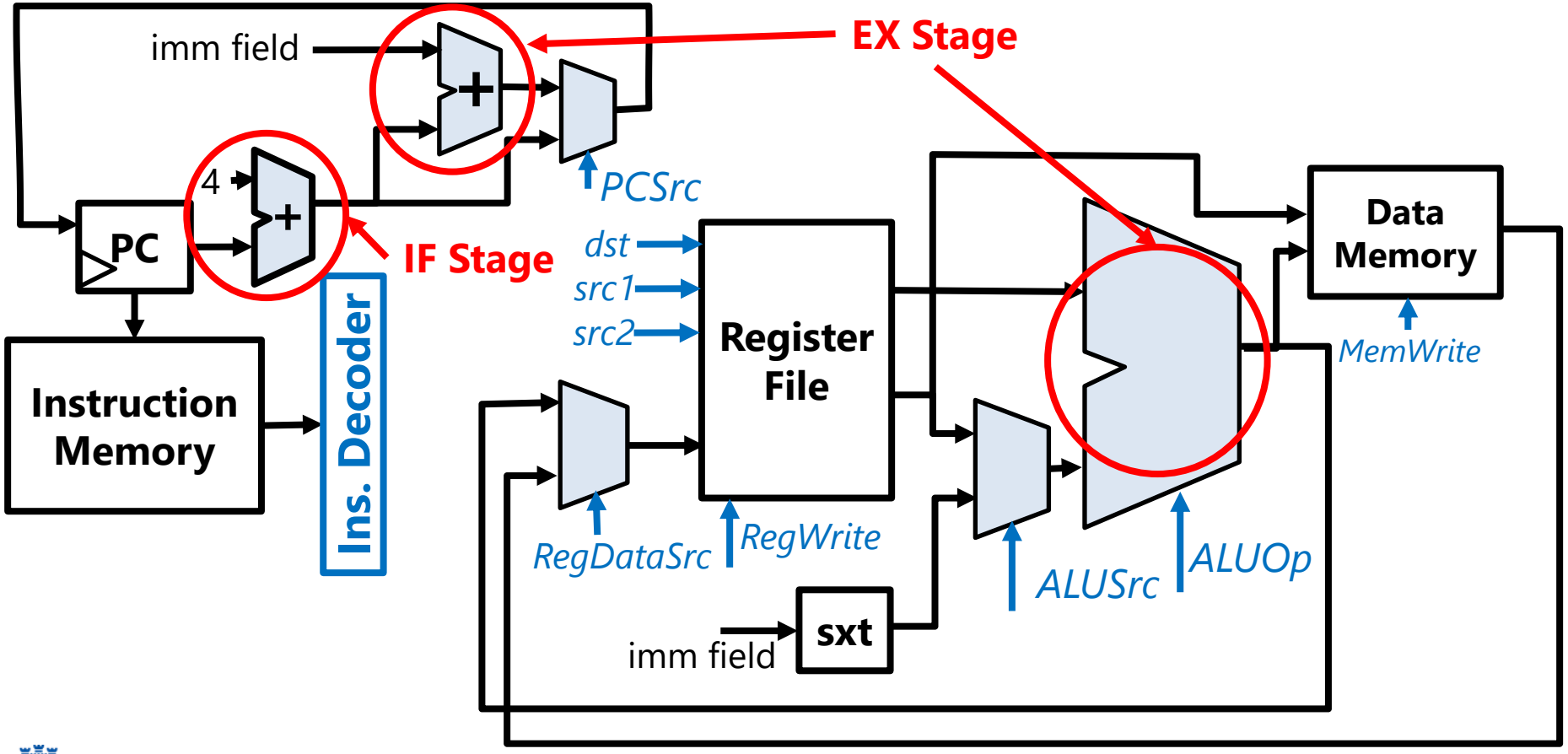
Structural Hazard removed with two Memories

- But is that the only hardware duplication going on here?



Structural Hazards removed with Multiple Adders

- Why do we need 3 adders? To avoid stalls due to contention on ALU!



Solving Structural Hazards

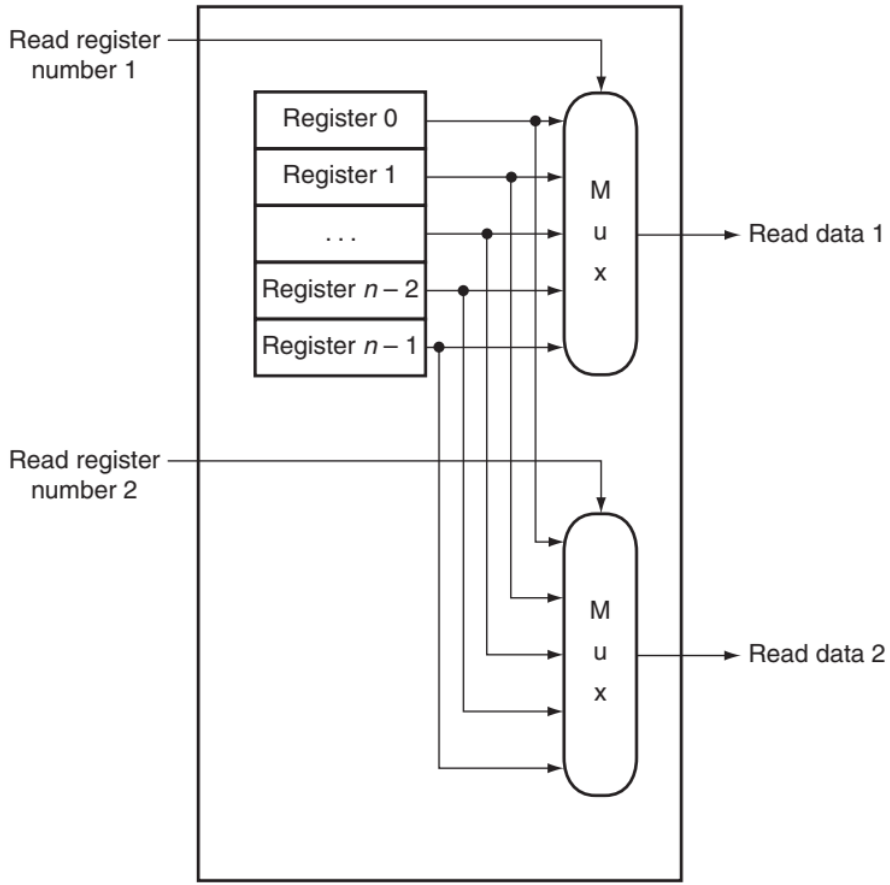
- There are mainly two ways to throw more hardware at the problem

1. Duplicate contentious resource
   - One memory cannot sustain one MEM / one IF stage per cycle
     → Duplicate into one instruction memory, one data memory
   - One ALU cannot sustain one IF / one EX stage per cycle
     → Duplicate into one ALU and two simple adders

2. Add ports to a single shared (memory) resource
   - ***Port***: Circuitry that allows either read or write access to memory
   - If current number of ports cannot sustain rate of access per cycle
     → Add more ports to memory structure for simultaneous access

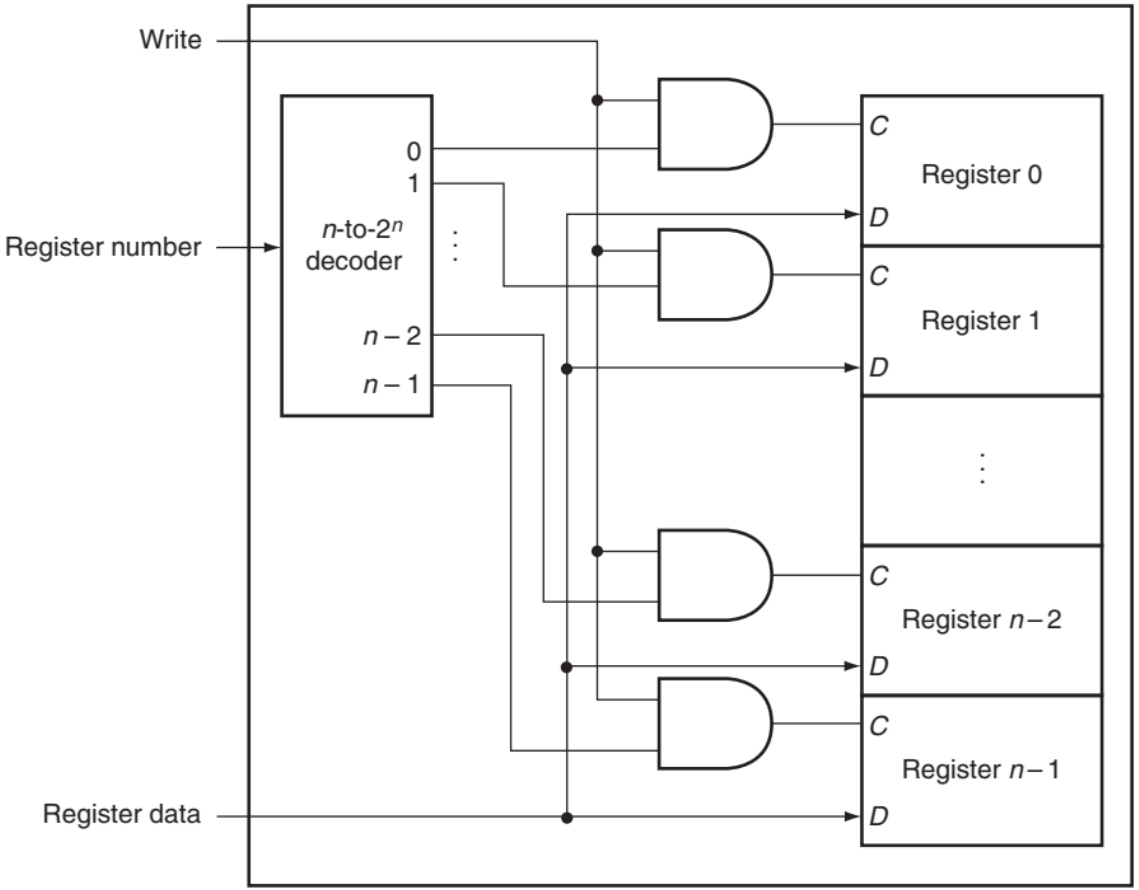
Two Register Read Ports

- By adding more MUXes, you can add even more read ports



One Register Write Port

- By adding more decoders, you can add more write ports



But who would need more register ports?

- With two read ports and one write port
  - Enough to sustain one ID / one WB stage per cycle
  - Enough to sustain CPI = 1 (or in other words IPC = 1)

- But what if we want an IPC > 1?
  - More than one instruction per cycle! (a.k.a superscalar processor)
  - Must sustain more than one ID / WB stage per cycle
  - Need more register read ports and write ports!
  - Not only registers, memory would need more ports too!
  - Like everything else, this consumes lots of **power**

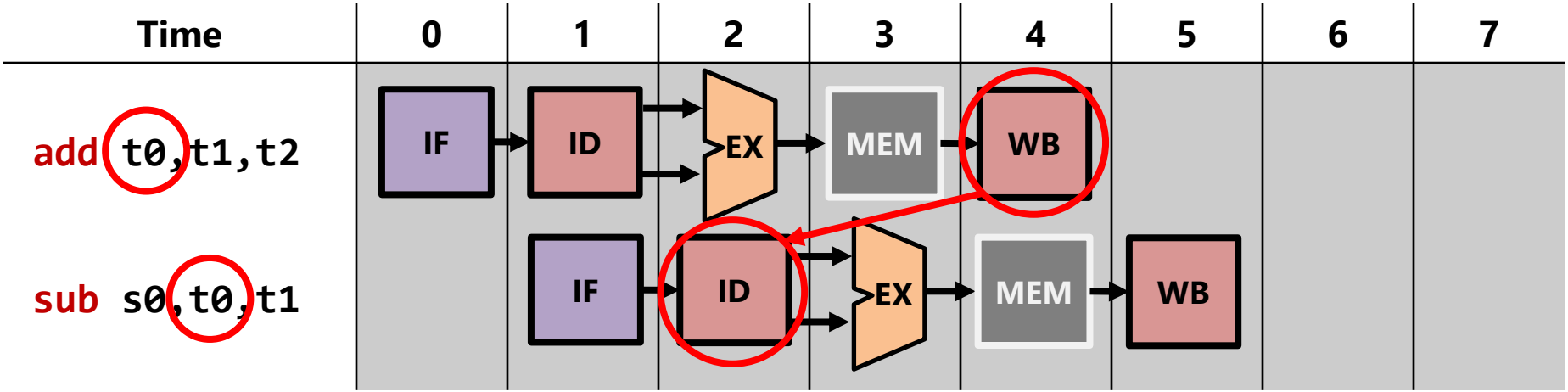
- We'll talk more about this when we discuss superscalars

Solving Data Hazards

University of Pittsburgh

Data Hazards

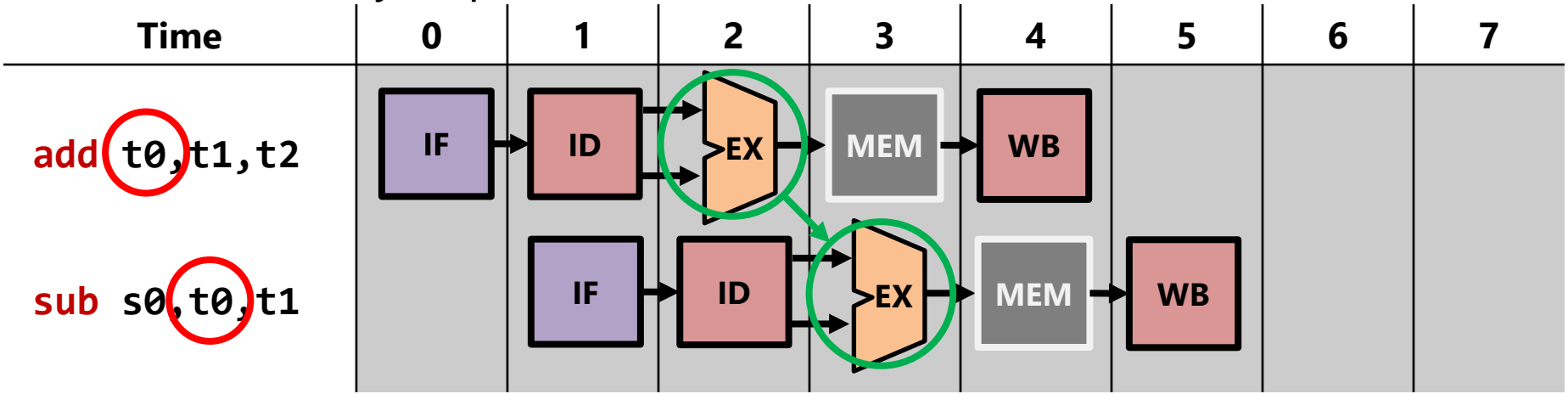
- An instruction depends on the output of a previous one.



- When does **add** finish computing its sum?
- Well then… why not just *use the sum when we need it?*

Data Forwarding

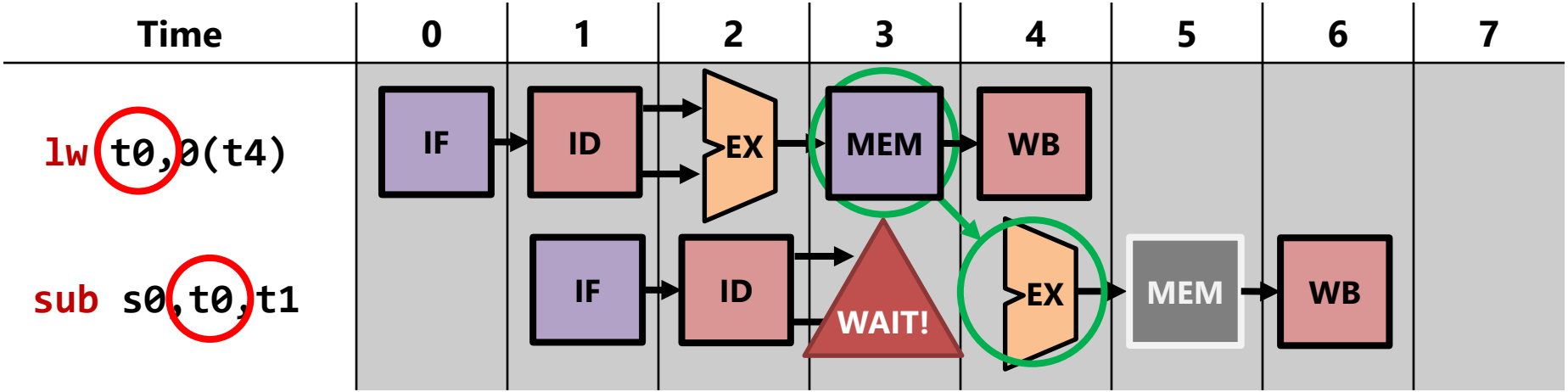
- Since we've pipelined control signals, we can check if instructions in the pipeline depend on each other (see if registers match).
- If we detect any dependencies, we can ***forward*** the needed data.



- This handles one kind of data forwarding...
- Where else can data come from and be written into registers?
  - Memory!

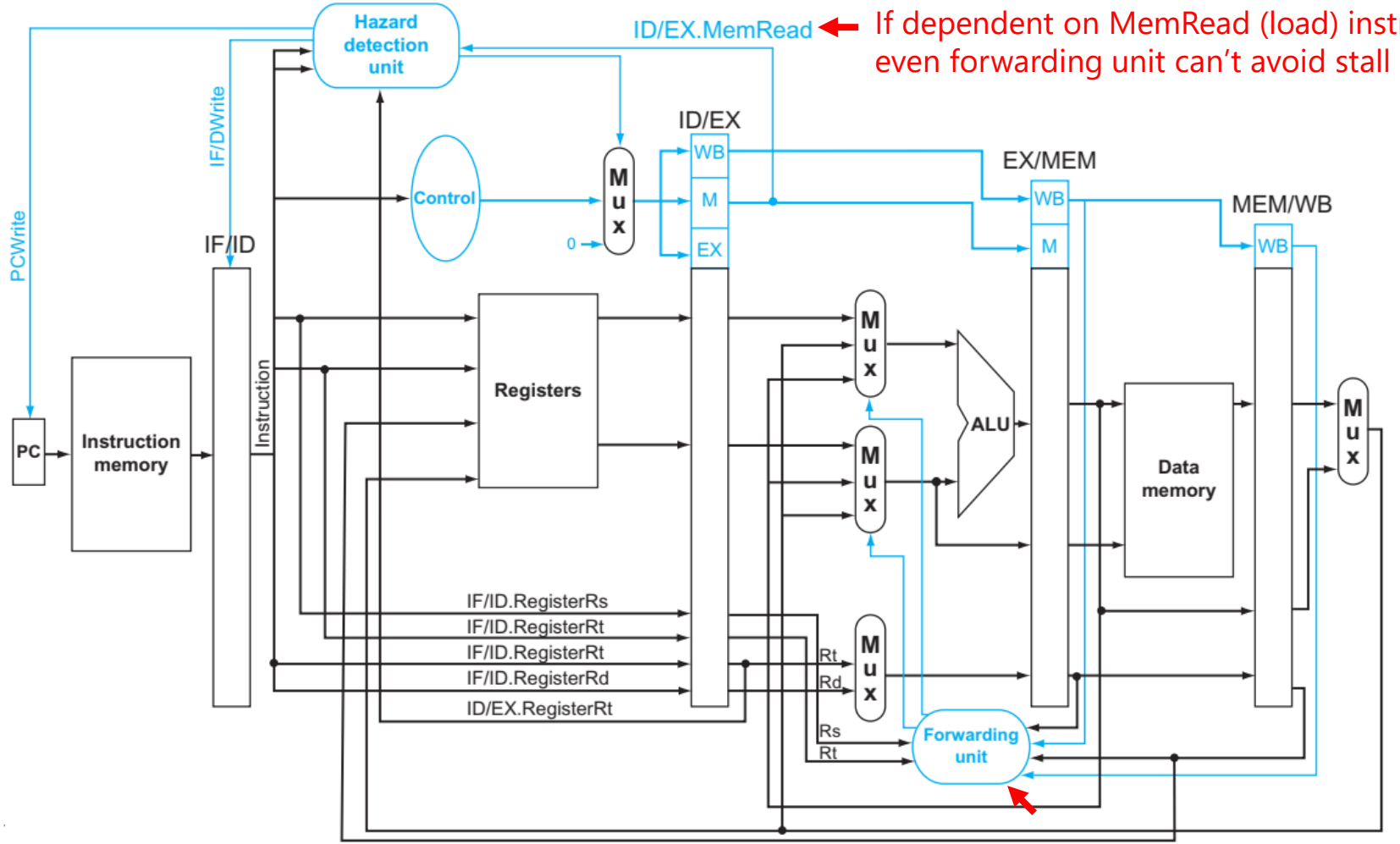
Data Forwarding from Memory

- Well memory accesses happen a cycle later…
- What are we going to have to do?



- This kind of stall is unavoidable in our current pipeline

Forwarding Unit and Use-after-load-hazard



Forwarding Unit

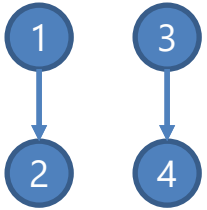
- Just like the HDU, the Forwarding Unit is **power** hungry

- Number of forwarding wires $\propto$ (pipeline stages)^2
  - Why the **quadratic** relationship?
  - Per pipeline stage, N stages after it *from* which data is forwarded
    - In previous picture, number of inputs to MUX before ALU
  - And there are N stages *to* which data must be forwarded
    - In previous picture, only one EX stage is shown, but if there are multiple stages, need MUXes in all those stages

Avoiding memory stalls

- Let's say the following is your morning routine *(2 hours total)*
  1. Have laundry running in washing machine *(30 minutes)*
  2. Have laundry running in dryer *(30 minutes)*
  3. Have some tea boiling in the pot *(30 minutes)*
  4. Drink tea *(30 minutes)*

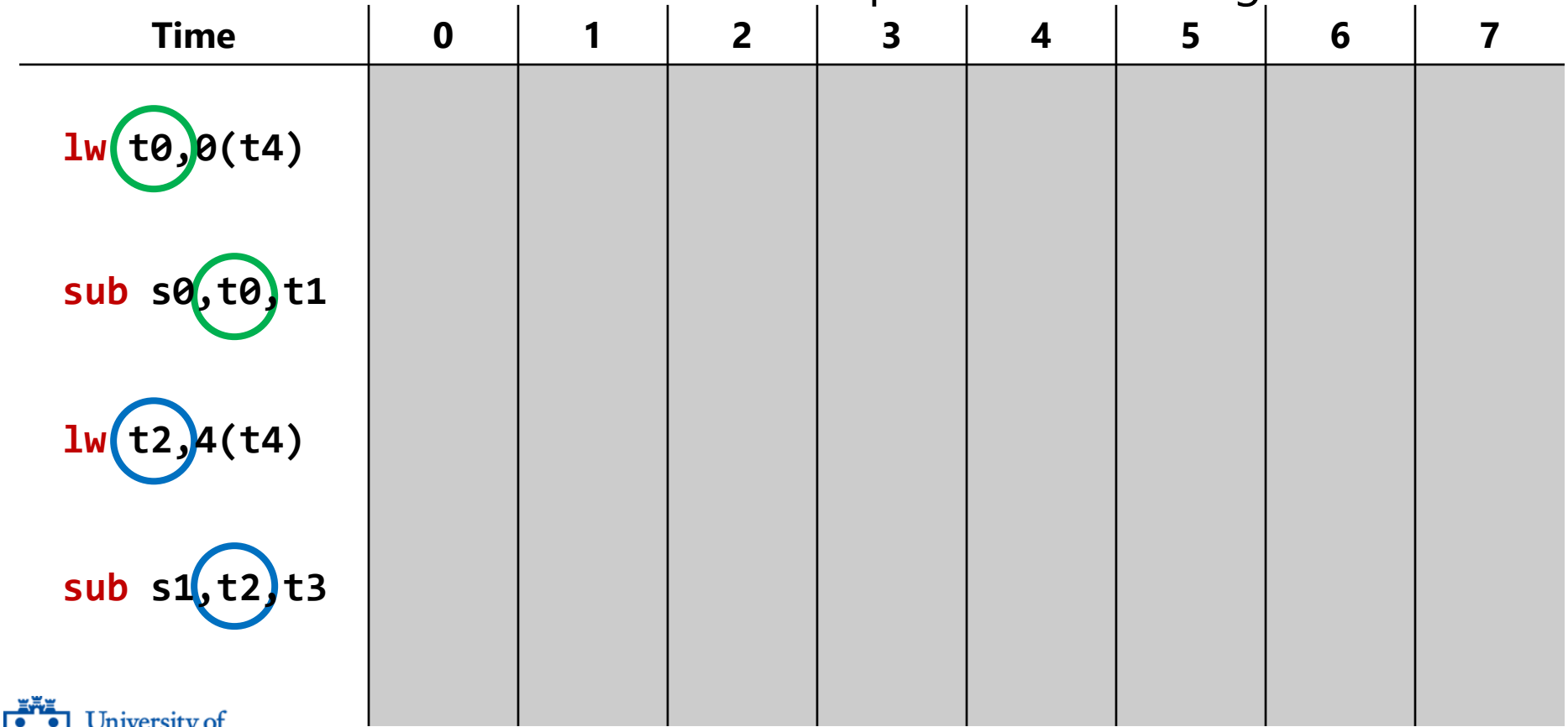
- Can you make this shorter? Yes! *(1 hour total)*
  1. Have washing machine running *and* 3. Tea boiling *(30 minutes)*
  2. Have dryer running *and* 4. Drink tea *(30 minutes)*



- How? By simply by **reordering** our actions
  - Steps 1 → 2 and 3 → 4 have data dependencies
  - Other steps can be freely reordered with each other

Data Hazard removed through Compiler Scheduling

- If the **compiler** has knowledge of how the pipeline works, it can **reorder** instructions to let loads complete before using their data.



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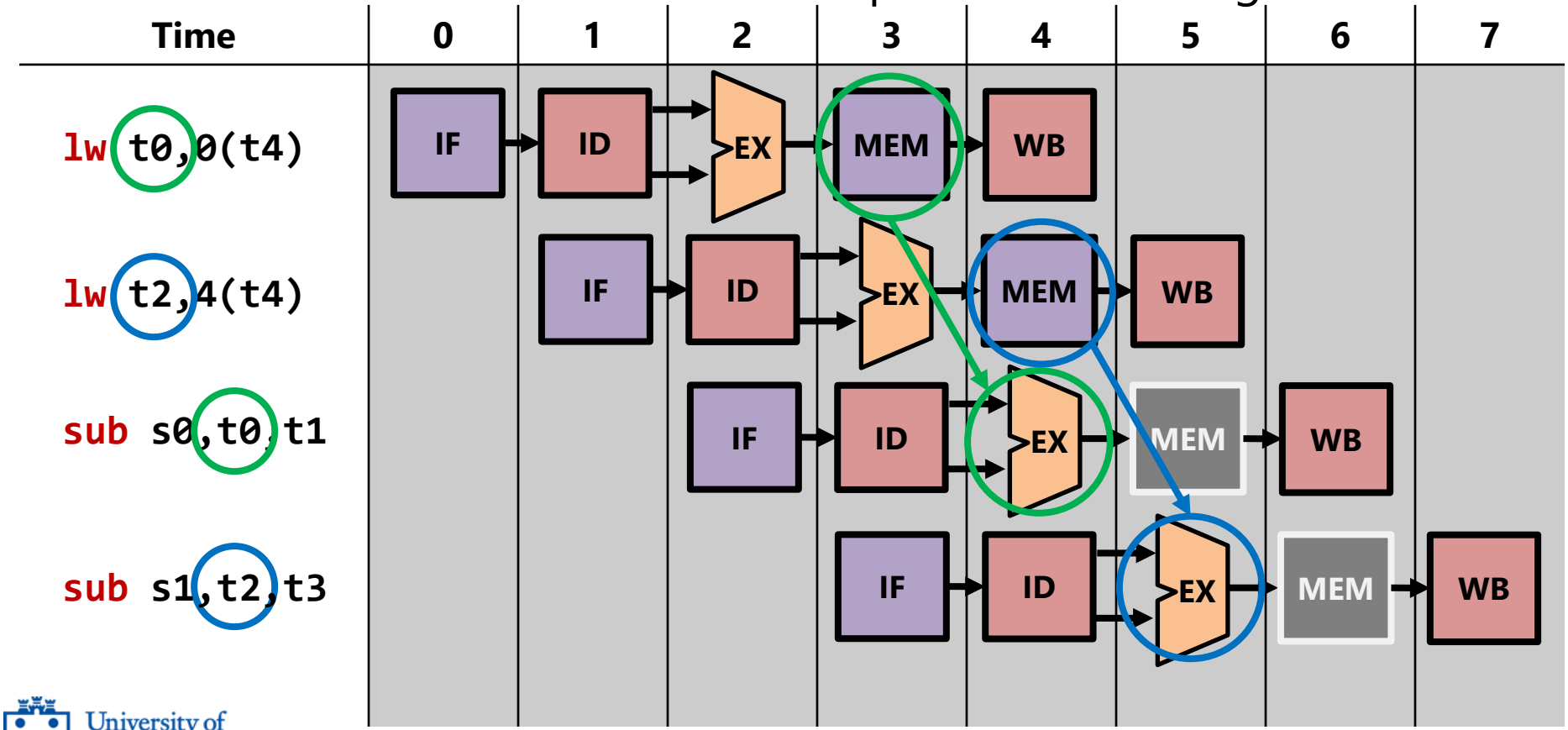


Limits of Static Scheduling

- Scheduling done by the compiler is called ***static scheduling***

- Static scheduling is a powerful tool but is in some ways **limited**
  - Again, compiler must make assumptions about pipeline
  - Length of MEM stage is very hard to predict by the compiler
    - Remember the **Memory Wall**?
  - Data dependencies are hard to figure out by a compiler
    - When data is in registers, trivial to figure out
    - When data is in memory locations, more difficult. Given:

```
lw t0,0(t4)
sw s0,8(t0)
lw t2,4(t4)
```

We want to reorder to remove the data hazard.
But what if 8(t0) and 4(t4) are the same addresses?
This involves *pointer analysis*, a notoriously difficult analysis!

Dynamic scheduling is another option

- ***Dynamic scheduling*** is scheduling done by the CPU

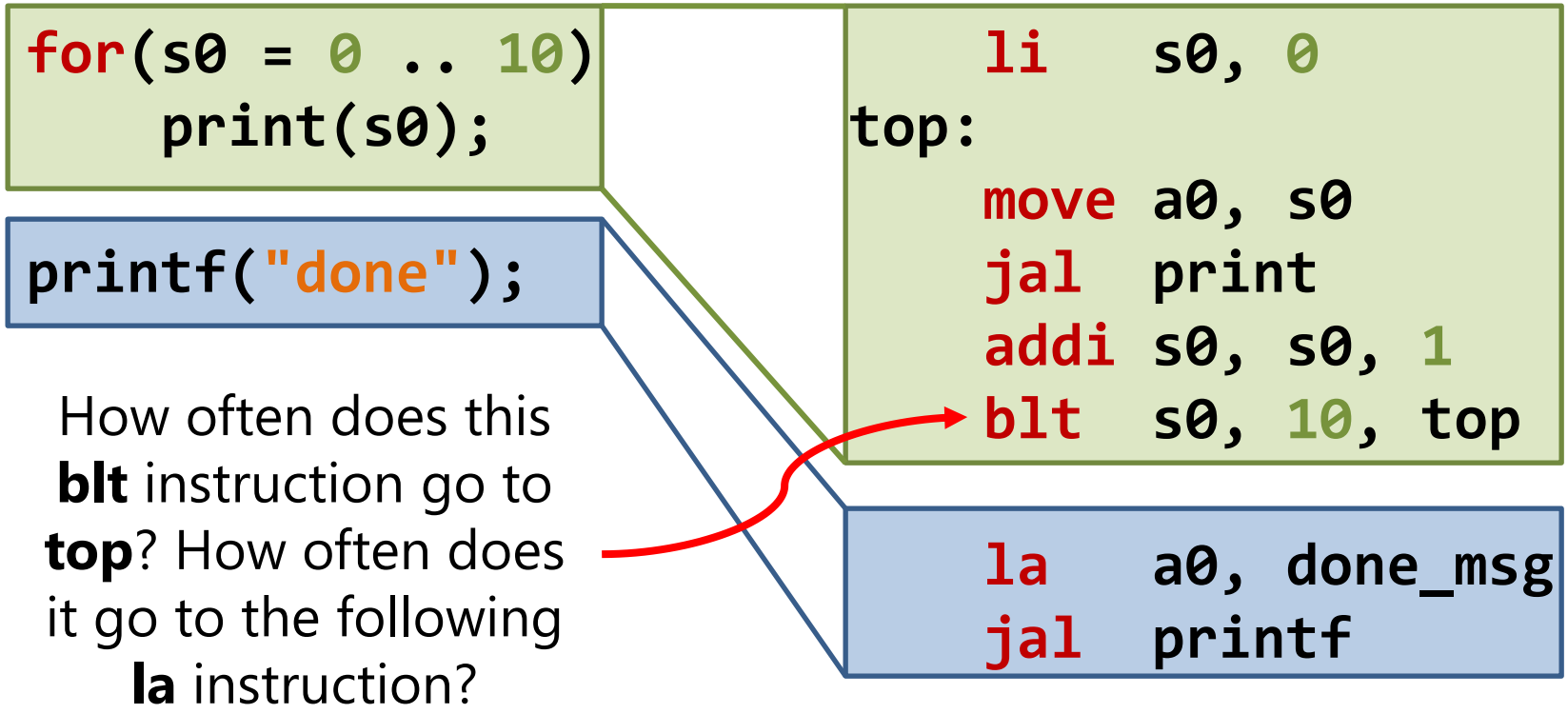
- It doesn't have the limitations of static scheduling
  - It doesn't have to predict memory latency
    - It can adapt as things unfold
  - It's easy to figure out data dependencies, even memory ones
    - At runtime, addresses of 8(t0) and 4(t4) are easily calculated

- But at runtime it uses lots of power for the data analysis
  - … which again causes problems with the **Power Wall**
  - But more on this later

Solving Control Hazards

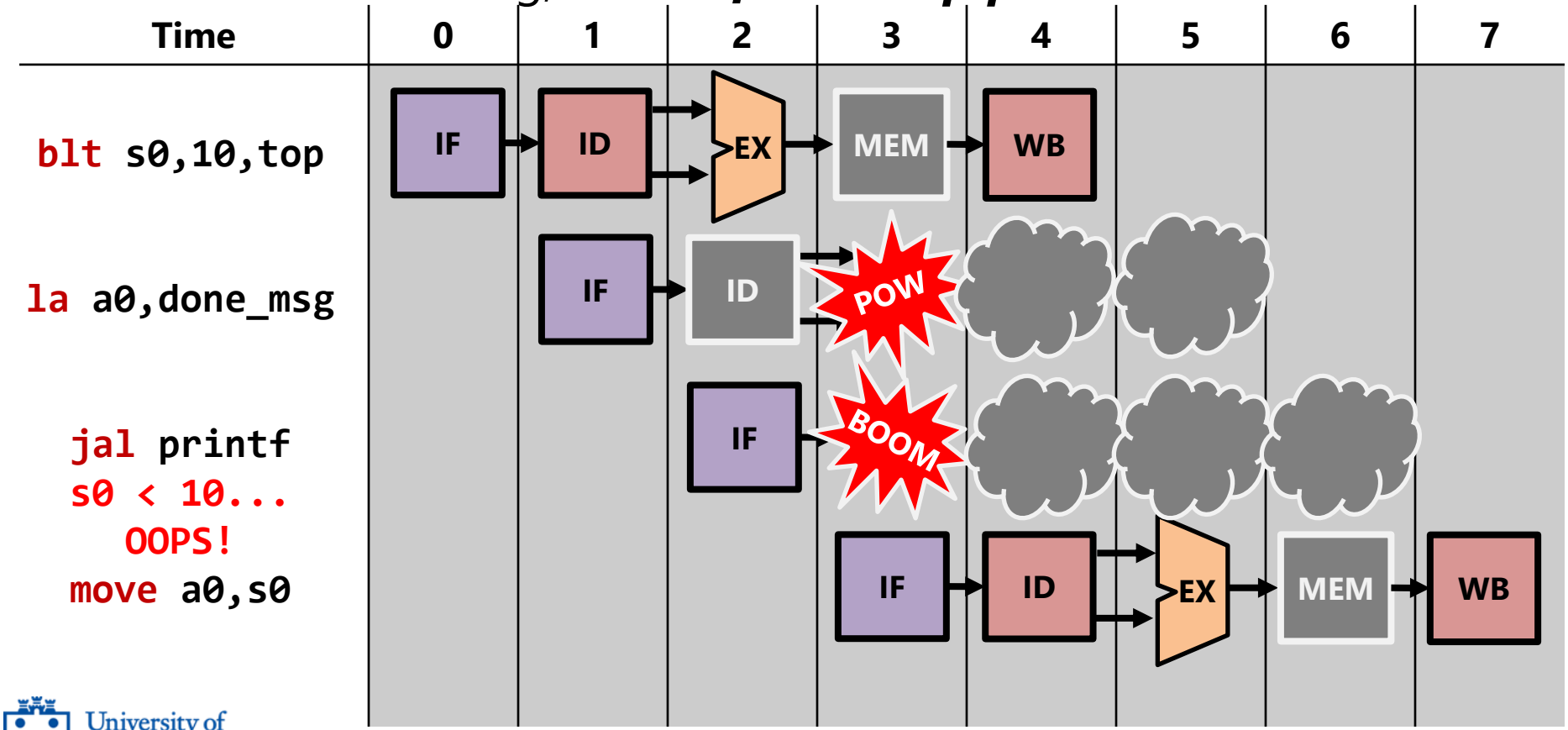
Loops

- Loops happen *all the time* in programs.



Pipeline Flushes

- Let's assume our pipeline *always* fetches the next instruction
  - When CPU is wrong, it must ***flush*** the ***pipeline***



And it just gets worse…

- If the loop is only a few instructions long…
  - That stall is a larger proportion of the time.

- If that loop iterates thousands of times…
  - We'll be spending more time killing instructions than executing!

- The deeper the pipeline gets, the bigger the flush penalty
  - Number of flushed instructions == distance from IF to MEM
  - Current architectures typically have more than a dozen stages!

- How can we solve this?
  - We need to somehow ***predict*** the correct branch outcome
  - But this is complicated! We'll take this up at a later time.