COMP3710 (Class # 5176) Special Topics in Computer Science Computer Microarchitecture

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Plan & Progress

Week 1: Motivation, overview, & ISA revision *Week 2:* Digital logic & Single-Cycle MIPS/ARM CPU *This Week: Performance & In-Order Pipelined CPU*



Single-Cycle CPU Summary ARM Black -> Datapath



Single-Cycle CPU Summary



Performance Analysis

- We want the fastest (best performing) computer for a task
 - How should we measure and report performance?
- Which metric is fair for comparing two computers?
 - Number of instructions
 - Clock frequency
 - Cycles per Instruction (CPI)
 - Number of cores

Important to understand the true, gimmick-free measure of computer performance



Instructions

- RISC computer
 - Many more simple instructions
 - But simple hardware means shorter clock cycle
- CISC computer
 - Small number of instructions
 - But complex hardware means longer clock cycle

Bottomline: Number of instructions alone is not a good metric for quantifying the performance of applications

CISC Instructions vs. Critical Path

sum \$dst-reg, \$src1-reg, #offset(\$src2-reg)
Changes to CPU datapath/ctrl to support sum?



Clock Frequency

- Consider the two scenarios
 - Computer A has a faster clock rate than computer B
 - But A executes more instructions than B
 - Computer A has a faster clock rate than computer B
 - But A takes multiple cycles to execute an instruction
- Is A faster than B?

Bottomline: Clock frequency alone is not a fair metric for comparing the performance of A and B

Cycles per Instruction (CPI)

- Cycles per instruction
 - Ratio of # cycles to # instructions
- A program has 10 instructions. Each instruction takes one cycle
 - Instructions = 10, Cycles = 10, CPI = 1
- A program has 10 instructions. Two out of 10 instructions take two cycles
 - Instructions = 10, Cycles = 12, CPI = 1.2
- The inverse of CPI is called IPC (Instructions per Cycle)
 - Instructions per cycle
 - For the above examples, IPC is 1 and 0.83

CPI

- Reasons why each instruction can take multiple cycles
 - Multi-cycle CPU
 - Memory accesses take multiple cycles
 - Interrupts and exceptions
 - Stalls due to branches, jumps, page faults
- Memory accesses (loads) take variable # cycles because
 - Data may be present in faster (SRAM) cache
 - It may be present in slower main memory (DRAM)
 - Real DRAM has variable latency
 - There is a small SRAM cache called a row buffer for storing recently accessed data

CPI

- Two computers A and B have the same CPI for a specific program.
 - Is there performance equivalent?
 - We need to know the cycle time
 - We need to know the # instructions
- Question: List two conditions which if satisfied make IPC a fair metric for comparing two microarchitectures.

Bottomline: *CPI alone is not a good metric for quantifying the performance of application A*

Cycles per Instructions (CPI)

The # cycles a processor takes to execute a program divided by the total # instructions (*inverse is instructions per cycle or IPC*)

IPC is used in microarchitectural studies (*It reveals insight about the instruction throughput, bottleneck identification*)

It can be estimated using an architectural simulator or performance counter hardware on modern processors

Execution Time

 The time it takes for a program to execute from start to finish is the only true/golden measure of performance

Execution time = $(\#instructions)(\frac{cycles}{instruction})(\frac{seconds}{cycle})$

- seconds per cycle = cycle time
- Execution time is measured in seconds
- Golden metric for quantifying computer performance!

Execution Time

Execution time = $(\#instructions)(\frac{cycles}{instruction})(\frac{seconds}{cycle})$

- # instructions
 - Depends on the ISA, skill of programmer, compiler, algorithm, programming language

cycles per instruction

- Depends on the microarchitecture esp. memory system, compiler, ISA, programming language, algorithm seconds per cycle (a.k.a. clock cycle time, clock rate)
 - critical path, circuit technology, type of adders, gatelevel details, ISA

Exercise: Perf Analysis

 Find the time it takes to execute a program with 100 billion instructions on a single-cycle CPU in 16 nm CMOS manufacturing process. See the table for delays of logic elements.

Parameter	Delay (ps)
t _{pcq_PC}	40
t _{mem}	200
t _{dec}	70
t _{mux}	25
t _{RFread}	100
t _{ALU}	120
t _{RFsetup}	60

$T_{c} = t_{pcq_PC} + 2t_{mem} + $	$t_{dec} + t_{RFread} + t_{ALU} +$
$2t_{mux} + t_{RFsetup}$	

Pick all fair metrics to compare two alternative microarchitectures (same ISA/program/frequency)

 \rightarrow #instructions

- \rightarrow cycle time
- \rightarrow cycles per instruction (CPI)
- \rightarrow execution time

Pick all fair metrics to compare two alternative compilers (same ISA/program/microarchitecture)

- \rightarrow #instructions
- \rightarrow cycle time
- \rightarrow cycles per instruction (CPI)
- \rightarrow execution time

Exercise

Alternative compiled code sequences using instructions in classes A, B, and C

Class	Α	В	С
CPI for class	1	2	3
# instructions sequence 1	2	1	2
# instructions sequence 2	4	1	1

- Sequence 1: # instructions = 5
 - Clock Cycles
 = 2×1 + 1×2 + 2×3
 = 10
 - Avg. CPI = 10/5 = 2.0

- Sequence 2: # instructions = 6
 - Clock Cycles
 = 4×1 + 1×2 + 1×3
 = 9

Is instructions per second (IPS) a fair metric for:

→ comparing two microarchitectures

- \rightarrow comparing two ISAs
- → comparing two compilers
- → comparing two algorithms

Millions of instructions per second (MIPS) was once used for marketing computers (measured against a publicly known benchmark) **Please read Ch-1, Sec 1.6, PH1**



Which components of performance are affected by:

- (A) Algorithm
- (B) Programming language
- (C) Compiler
- (D) ISA



Which components of performance are affected by:

- (A) Algorithm (# instructions, CPI)
- (B) Programming language (# instructions, CPI)
- (C) Compiler (# instructions, CPI)
- (D) ISA (all three)

Measurement Methodology

- The good practice: Take a program of interest and measure its execution time
- The better practice: Take a collection of programs like the programs of interest, and measure their performance
 - In case you do not have the program yet
 - In case someone wants to measure perf. of your machine independently
- This collection of programs is called a *benchmark suite*
 - Dhrystone and CoreMark (embedded systems)
 - SPEC (Standard Performance Evaluation Corporation)
 - SPEC CPU is standard suite for high-performance CPUs

Speed of a Circuit

At a high level, an arbitrary digital circuit processes a group of inputs and produces a group of outputs t_{rad}



We needs metrics to quantify the speed with which we can process inputs to produce outputs (i.e., the performance of a circuit)

- Latency: The time required to produce one group of outputs once the inputs arrive (propagation delay, end-to-end latency)
- **Throughput:** The number of input groups processed per unit of time

Example: Latency/Throughput

- What is the latency and throughput for a tray of cookies?
 - Step # 1: Roll cookies (5 minutes)
 - Step # 2: Bake in the oven (15 minutes)
 - Once cookies are baked, start another tray
- Latency (hours/tray):
- Throughput (trays/hour):



Parallelism

Many scenarios in the real-world requires us to increase the throughput of the digital system

- # add operations per second (ALU)
- # instructions per second (CPU)

Parallelism is the key technique digital systems use to increase throughput

Process several inputs at the same time

Defining a Task

Task: The process of producing a group of outputs from a group of inputs can be considered a task

- Add/Subtract
- Fourier transform

Spatial Parallelism

Spatial Parallelism: Use multiple copies of hardware (circuit) to get multiple tasks done at the same time



- Suppose a task has a latency of L seconds
- No spatial parallelism: Throughput is 1/L (one task per L seconds)
- **N copies of hardware:** Throughput is N/L (N tasks per L seconds)
- Gain in throughput (speedup) = N

Note on Latency

Spatial Parallelism does not improve (reduce) the latency of the circuit. We can finish more tasks per unit of time. But each task still takes L seconds

Temporal Parallelism

Temporal Parallelism (pipelining): Break down a circuit into stages, where each task passes through all stages, and multiple tasks are spread through stages

Automotive pipeline

- Build multiple cars in parallel
- Each car goes through all stages
- Each stage requires different work
- All stages should take (roughly) the same time



Pipelining

If a task is broken into N stages, and all stages are of equal length, then the throughput is N/L



- The challenge of pipelining is to find stages of equal length
- Let's go back to baking cookies

Cookie Parallelism

Ben and Jon are making cookies. Let's study the latency and throughput of rolling/baking many cookie trays with

- No parallelism
- Spatial parallelism
- Pipelining
- Spatial parallelism + pipelining

No Parallelism (Ben Only)



Latency (hours/tray): Throughput (trays/hour):

Spatial Parallelism (Ben & Jon)



Note: Jon owns a tray and oven (hardware duplication)

Pipelining (Ben Only)



Latency (hours/tray): Throughput (trays/hour):

Note: Ben decides not to waste a separate tray and oven

Spatial + Temporal Parallelism


Answers Explained

- No parallelism
 - Latency is clearly 20 minutes (1/3 hours/tray)
 - Throughput is 3 trays per hour
- Spatial parallelism
 - Latency remains unchanged as it still takes 20 mins to finish a tray
 - Throughput is doubled via duplication: 6 trays per hour

Pipelining

- Latency for a single tray remains unchanged
- Throughput: Ben puts a new tray in the oven every 15 minutes, so the throughput is 4 trays per hour
- Note that in the first hour, Ben loses 5 minutes to fill the pipeline
- Spatial parallelism + pipelining
 - Latency remains unchanged
 - Throughput: Ben & Jon combo puts two trays in the oven every 15 minutes, so the throughput is 8 trays per hour

Pipelining Circuits

- Divide a large combinational block/circuit into shorter stages
- Insert registers between the stages
 - The outputs from one stage are copied into a register and communicated to the next stage
- Run the pipelined circuit at a higher clock frequency
 - Each clock cycle, data flows through the pipeline from left to the right
 - Multiple tasks can be spread across the pipeline

Sequential Laundry



Pipelined Laundry



Pipelined Performance

Our pipelined laundry system has four stages

- \rightarrow k = 4, Speed-up approaches k for large workloads
- → Pipeline fill time: # time units it take for the first load to reach the last stage of the pipeline
- → Pipeline drain time: After the last load has entered the system, an additional k time units are needed to drain the pipeline

Pipelining paradox: Each load still takes the same time. Pipelining improves the throughput of the laundry system via parallelism

Pipelining Instruction Execution

We can pipeline the single-cycle implementation of the MIPS ISA

Fetch

Decode + Register Read

Execute (Address gen)

Memory Access

Writeback



Find the average time b/w instructions of a single-cycle implementation to a pipelined implementation.

Instruction class	Instruction fetch	Register read	ALU operation	Data access	Register write	Total time
Load word (]w)	200 ps	100 ps	200 ps	200 ps	100 ps	800 ps
Store word (SW)	200 ps	100 ps	200 ps	200 ps		700 ps
R-format (add, sub, AND, OR, slt)	200 ps	100 ps	200 ps		100 ps	600 ps
Branch (beq)	200 ps	100 ps	200 ps			500 ps

Find the average time b/w instructions of a single-cycle implementation to a pipelined implementation.



internal fragmentation

pipelined cycle time

Ideal period = 160 ps

2400 ps (single cycle) versus 1400 ps (pipelined) → speedup = 1.7 Repeat the analysis for 1,000,003 instructions. Speedup?



2400 ps (single cycle) versus 1400 ps (pipelined) \rightarrow speedup = 1.7 Repeat the analysis for 1,000,000 instructions. Speedup?

Nonpipelined execution time = 800 ps * 1,000,000 + 2400 ps = 800,002,400 ps

Pipelined execution time = 1,000,000 * 200 ps + 1400 ps = 200,001,400 ps

Nonpipelined/pipelined = 4.00

Register File Read/Write

Register file is shared by instruction decode and writeback stages of the pipeline

- → Need a policy to avoid race conditions due to simultaneous read & write
- \rightarrow Read during the second half of the clock cycle
- \rightarrow Write during the first half of the clock cycle



Pipelining Idealism

The laundry system provides an indeal speedup of k (=4), while realistic processor pipelines deliver sub-optimal speedup. *The disparity is due to three idealized assumptions (a.k.a. pipelined idealism) in the lanudry system.*

- 1. Uniform subcomputations
- 2. Identical computations
- 3. Independent computations

1. Uniform Subcomputations

The computation to be pipelined can be evenly partitioned into k uniform-latency subcomputations. *If the latency (clocking period) of the original computation is T, then the clocking period of the pipelined computation is T/k*

In our previous example, instruction fetch has a latency of 200 ps and register read has a latency of 100 ps

- → This inefficiency is called internal fragmentation of the pipeline stages
- \rightarrow The new clock period is T_f divided by k where T_f is the worst-case stage delay

Example

Find the internal fragmentation of the following pipeline

Instruction class	Instruction fetch	Register read	ALU operation	Data access	Register write	Total time
Load word (]w)	200 ps	100 ps	200 ps	200 ps	100 ps	800 ps
Store word (SW)	200 ps	100 ps	200 ps	200 ps		700 ps
R-format (add, sub, AND, OR, slt)	200 ps	100 ps	200 ps		100 ps	600 ps
Branch (beq)	200 ps	100 ps	200 ps			500 ps

Example

Find the internal fragmentation of the following pipeline \rightarrow (200 * 5) – 800 = 200 ps

Instruction class	Instruction fetch	Register read	ALU operation	Data access	Register write	Total time
Load word (]w)	200 ps	100 ps	200 ps	200 ps	100 ps	800 ps
Store word (SW)	200 ps	100 ps	200 ps	200 ps		700 ps
R-format (add, sub, AND, OR, slt)	200 ps	100 ps	200 ps		100 ps	600 ps
Branch (beq)	200 ps	100 ps	200 ps			500 ps

Uniform Subcomputations

No inefficiency due to partitioning of the computation

No additional delays (e.g., due to buffering) → Not realistic for actual processor pipelines

Challenge: Balancing pipeline stages

Sources of imbalanced stages?

 \rightarrow E.g., Memory

Two approaches: (1) Computation merging (2) partitioning Is the MIPS pipeline balanced?

Problem

Two pipeline designs of the 5-stage generic instruction sequence

→ Assume the total latency of five generic computations in the MIPS ISA is 280 ns. The clock cycle times for a 4-stage design and the 11-stage design are 80 ns and 30 ns, respectively. What is the internal fragmentation for the two pipelines? What is the speedup relative to the nonpipelined implementation?





Solution

Two pipeline designs of the 5-stage generic instruction sequence

→ Assume the total latency of five generic computations in the MIPS ISA is 280 ns. The clock cycle times for a 4-stage design and the 11-stage design are 80 ns and 30 ns, respectively. What is the internal fragmentation for the two pipelines? What speedup do they offer relative to the nonpipelined implementation?

Speedup (4-stage) = 3.5X and (11-stage) = 9.3X Frag (4-stage) = 40 ps and (11-stage) = 50 ps





2. Identical Subcomputations

The same computation is repeatedly applied to different data over time

→ Wash, dry, fold, hang, but clothes(Alice) != clothes(Bob)

In a general-purpose pipeline, not all stages are used by all the instructions

- → In a load-store architecture, arithmetic instructions do not use the MEM stage
- → This inefficiency is called external fragmentation of the pipeline stages

Identical Subcomputations

External fragmentaion leads to idle stages for some instruction types

Pipeline fill and drain cycles are also a form of external fragmentation since not all stages are busy during those cycles

Challenge: Unifying instruction types

3. Independent Subcomputations

All computations concurrently residing in the pipeline are independent (i.e., no control or data dependences)

A pipeline with independent computations operates in "streaming mode" or at full speed. If a later computation depends on an earlier computation that has not executed yet, the later computation waits in the pipeline (officially called pipeline stall)

Challenge: Minimizing pipelines stalls

Multi-Clock-Cycle Diagrams

Each instruction (Y-axis) has its own datapath. Timeline on X-axis

Unless we save instructions, data, and control bits in pipeline registers, we lose the information about the previous instruction



Pipeline Registers (PPR)



Width of Pipeline Regs

What is the width of each of the following pipeline registers?

IF/ID

ID/EX

EX/MEM

MEM/WB

Note: We will expand these registers as we build a more realistic pipeline

Width of Pipeline Regs

What is the width of each of the following pipeline registers?

IF/ID: 64

ID/EX: 128

EX/MEM: 97

MEM/WB: 64

Note: We will expand these registers as we build a more realistic pipeline

Single-Clock-Cycle Diagrams

Shows the state of the entire datapath during a single cycle

Vertical slice through a set of multiple clock cycle diagrams

Which instructions occupy what resources in a specific cycle?

Let's look at single-clock cycle diagrams for load and store instructions

IF: Load/Store lw Instruction fetch *Ishaded (left) portion means write* IF/ID ID/EX EX/MEM MEM/WB >Add Add Add result Shift left 2 0 М Address PC Read u ≁ Read register 1 x data 1 Read Zero register 2 ALU Instruction ALU Read Registers Read Address memory 0 data 0 result Write data 2 Μ М register u Data u х Write memory х data Write data 16 32 Signextend



EX: Load





MEM: Load



Iw

WB: Load





WB: Load (Corrected)



EX: Store





MEM: Store



sw

Writeback: Store



SW

Showing Resource Usage


Drawing Pipelines with Less Detail

We will see a lot of these in the in-order to out-of-order transition



Single-Cycle w/t multiple insts



Pipelined Control Unit

Strategy: Set the control lines during each stage Each major component is active during a single stage

	Execution/address calculation stage control lines				Memory access stage control lines			Write-ba contro	ck stage ol lines
Instruction	RegDst	ALUOp1	ALUOp0	ALUSrc	Branch	Mem- Read	Mem- Write	Reg- Write	Memto- Reg
R-format	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
1 w	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1
SW	Х	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	Х
beq	Х	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	Х

Do we need a write signal for PC and pipeline regs?

Where should we store the nine control signals for each instruction?

Pipelined Control

Control signals are generated during the decode stage

They move down the pipeline like any other data





Practice Problem

What is the width of each of the following pipeline registers?

IF/ID

ID/EX

EX/MEM

MEM/WB

Hazards

There are events in pipelining called *hazards* when the next instruction cannot execute in the following clock cycle

Real life hazards



Coping mechanisms: Jump, Walk around, Forewarned, Stop, Find another way

Some hurt performance Others clever ways to get around the hazard

Types of Pipeline Hazards

Structural hazards (e.g., shared instruction/data memory)

Data hazards (dependences)

Control hazards (branches)

Structural Hazards

Hardware cannot support the combination of instructions in the same clock cycle, *e.g., unified instruction/data memory*



Data/Control Hazards



Data/Control Hazards

Instructions and data generally flow from left to right

Right-to-left flow affect future instructions and leads to hazards

- → Writeback stage places the result into the register file (potential for data hazard)
- → Selection of next PC, choice of PC + 4 or branch target address (MEM stage)

Pipeline Data Hazards

Data hazard: When an instruction cannot execute in the proper clock cycle because data is not available

add \$s0 \$t0 \$t1

sub \$t2 \$s0 \$t3

Question: How many cycles the sub instruction needs to wait for the 5-stage MIPS pipeline?

add	\$s0	\$ tO	\$t1
sub	\$t2	\$s0	\$t3

No dependences

Cycle #	add	sub
1	IF	
2	ID	IF
3	EX	ID
4	MEM	EX
5	WB	MEM
6		WB



Read/Write RF in different cycles

Cycle #	add	sub
1	IF	
2	ID	×
3	EX	×
4	MEM	×
5	WB	IF
6		ID
7		EX
8		MEM
9		WB

Read/Write RF in the same cycle

Cycle #	add	sub
1	IF	
2	ID	×
3	EX	×
4	MEM	IF
5	WB	ID
6		EX
7		MEM
8		WB

Question

Who can rescue us from the pipeline stalls due to data hazards?

- \rightarrow Compiler
- \rightarrow Hardware

Compiler can reorder instructions or insert nops but dependences are too frequent. We need a different approach

Question: Does the sub instruction need to wait until the add instruction writes the new value of \$s0 to the register file?

Forwarding or Bypassing

Forwarding: Adding extra hardware to retrieve the missing operand early instead of waiting for the writeback (*resolving data hazards*)



Forwarding or Bypassing

Forwarding: Adding extra hardware to retrieve the missing operand early instead of waiting for the writeback (*resolving data hazards*)



Load-Use Data Hazard

Forwarding cannot prevent all stalls (e.g., load followed by use) Pipeline stall/bubble: A stall introduced to resolve a hazard



Visualizing Bubbles





Is forwarding from II(EX/MEM) to I2(ID/EX) valid? Is forwarding from I1(MEM/WB) to I3(ID/EX) valid? Is forwarding from I1(MEM/WB) to I2(ID/EX) valid?



Is forwarding from II(EX/MEM) to I2(ID/EX) valid? Is forwarding from I1(MEM/WB) to I3(ID/EX) valid? Is forwarding from I1(MEM/WB) to I2(ID/EX) valid?

Forwarding Exercise 2

Find all the hazards and reorder the instructions to avoid stalls.

W	\$t1	0(\$t0)	
lw	\$t2	4(\$t0)	
add	\$ t3	\$t1	\$t2
SW	\$ t3	12(\$t0)	
W	\$t4	8(\$t0)	
add	\$t5	\$t1	\$t4
SW	\$t5	16(\$t0)	

Dependences, Data Hazard, Stall, and Forwarding

Data dependence is a property of the program

 \rightarrow Instruction j reads what instruction i writes

Data dependence leads to hazard (depending on the microarchitecture)

→ We call it read-after-write (RAW) hazard

Stall is a hardware-based RAW-hazard-avoiding mechanism

→ Hurts performance because pipeline does not operate at full speed

Forwarding is another hardware-based RAW-hazard-avoiding mechanism

→ Except load-use hazards, pipeline operates at full speed

Compiler can help

→ Insert nops (still need a hardware mechanism to stall just in case)

→ Reorder instructions (difficult because RAW is too common)

Next Steps

- 1. Forwarding logic and control
- 2. Hazard detection logic (for load-use hazards)
- 3. Inserting pipeline bubbles/stalls/nops

Forwarding Implementation

- 1. Detecting the need to forward (forwarding conditions)
- 2. Designing a new forwarding unit for the processor
- 3. Introducing forwarding paths
- 4. Finalize changes to information in PPRs, and new control signals

Dependences and Hazards

sub\$2\$1\$3and\$12\$2\$5or\$13\$6\$2add\$14\$2\$2sw\$15100(\$2)

Register \$2 before sub instruction = 10 After sub = -20 All subsequent instructions must see -20 for \$2

Dependences and Hazards



Dependences and Hazards



Detecting the Need to Forward

The previous figure illustrates the goal of forwarding: *When an instruction needs a register in the EX stage that an older instruction currently in MEM or WB stage intends to write, forward the result to the input of the ALU*

Detecting the Need to Forward

We need a notation to check for dependences between instructions about to execute and older ones in MEM/WB stages

PPR.Field \rightarrow A specific Field in the pipeline register PPR

EX/MEM.Rd \rightarrow In the EX/MEM pipeline register, the 5-bit field
for the destination register
$ID/EX.Rs \rightarrow$ In the ID/EX pipeline register, the 5-bit field for the
first source register

Four Hazard Types

Type 1a. EX/MEM.RegisterRd = ID/EX.RegisterRs Forward from Type 1b. EX/MEM.RegisterRd = ID/EX.RegisterRt Forward from Type 2a. MEM/WB.RegisterRd = ID/EX.RegisterRs Forward from Type 2b. MEM/WB.RegisterRd = ID/EX.RegisterRt MEM/WB PPR

Only forward when the older instruction intends to write
→ EX/MEM.RegWrite is 1
→ MEM/WB.RegWrite is 1

Exercise

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

Classify the hazard types in the above sequence?

Forwarding Unit



Question

Where should we place the forwarding unit?

How does forwarding impact the logic at the inputs of the ALU in the EX stage?

Forwarding Paths

ID/EX EX/MEM MEM/WB Μ U Х ForwardA Registers ALU **Expanded multiplexors** M Data to add forwarding u Μ memory Х u paths Х ForwardB Rs Rt EX/MEM.RegisterRd Μ Rt Rd U Х Forwarding MEM/WB.RegisterRd unit

Mux control	Source	Explanation
ForwardA = 00	ID/EX	First ALU operand comes from the register file.
ForwardA = 10	EX/MEM	The first ALU operand is forwarded from the prior ALU result.
ForwardA = 01	MEM/WB	The first ALU operand is forwarded from data memory or an earlier ALU result.
ForwardB = 00	ID/EX	The second ALU operand comes from the register file.
ForwardB = 10	EX/MEM	The second ALU operand is forwarded from the prior ALU result.
ForwardB = 01	MEM/WB	The second ALU operand is forwarded from data memory or an earlier ALU result.

Forwarding Conditions

EX hazard:

if (EX/MEM.RegWrite
and (EX/MEM.RegisterRd = ID/EX.RegisterRs))
ForwardA = 10

if (EX/MEM.RegWrite
and (EX/MEM.RegisterRd = ID/EX.RegisterRt))
ForwardB = 10
Forwarding Conditions

MEM hazard:

if (MEM/WB.RegWrite
and (MEM/WB.RegisterRd = ID/EX.RegisterRs))
ForwardA = 01

if (MEM/WB.RegWrite
and (MEM/WB.RegisterRd = ID/EX.RegisterRt))
ForwardB = 01

Double Data Hazard

add	\$1	\$1	\$2
add	\$1	\$1	\$3
add	\$1	\$1	\$4

Hazards between the results of an instruction in the WB stage, the result of an instruction in the MEM stage, and the source operand of an instruction in the ALU stage

 \rightarrow Which stage should forward the result to last add?

Forwarding Conditions

MEM hazard:



Questions to Ponder

What about forwarding in other pipeline stages?

What type of forwarding do you need to accelerate memory copies?

What is the critical path impact of forwarding?

Noad Jestinution (\$2) Asitting here 5 4 3 6 CycleFI 2 EIM M/W DIE F/D Needed W 6 EIMI Loado F MN DIE FID F Store:

ISA Impacts

Fixed width (MIPS) vs. variable width (x86)

→ Fetch (1st stage) + Decode (2nd stage) is difficult with a more complex ISA

Complex addressing modes such as register-memory increase external fragmentation (makes unification of formats harder)

MIPS ISA has a few symmetric instruction formats. Asymmetric formats leads to fragmentation as above

ISA Impacts

Load/Store architecture makes *dependence detection* easy because there are no memory references except load/store insts

Operands in MIPS are aligned in memory (One memory transfer)

Clean and symmetric formats provides a clean *dynamic-static interface* (DSI), i.e., what to do statically (compile time) vs. dynamically (run-time)

MIPS writes one result to the register file and always in the last stage (forwarding is easy)