



ELSEVIER

Available online at [www.sciencedirect.com](http://www.sciencedirect.com)

SCIENCE @ DIRECT®

Microprocessors and Microsystems xx (0000) 1–10

MICROPROCESSORS AND  
MICROSYSTEMS[www.elsevier.com/locate/micpro](http://www.elsevier.com/locate/micpro)57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65  
66  
67  
68  
69  
70  
71  
72  
73  
74  
75  
76  
77  
78  
79  
80  
81  
82  
83  
84  
85  
86  
87  
88  
89  
90  
91  
92  
93  
94  
95  
96  
97  
98  
99  
100  
101  
102  
103  
104  
105  
106  
107  
108  
109  
110  
111  
112

# An effective out-of-order execution control scheme for an embedded floating point coprocessor

Cheol-Ho Jeong<sup>a,\*</sup>, Woo-Chan Park<sup>a</sup>, Tack-Don Han<sup>a</sup>, Sung-Bong Yang<sup>a</sup>, Moon-Key Lee<sup>b</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Department of Computer Science, Yonsei University, 134 Shinchon-Dong, Seodaemoon-Gu, Seoul 120-749, South Korea

<sup>b</sup>Department of Electrical Engineering, Yonsei University, 134 Shinchon-Dong, Seodaemoon-Gu, Seoul 120-749, South Korea

Received 18 June 2002; revised 18 December 2002; accepted 12 January 2003

## Abstract

This paper proposes an out-of-order execution control scheme that can be effectively applied to a coprocessor for embedded systems. A floating-point coprocessor has generally multiple pipelines such as a floating-point adder, a floating-point multiplier, a floating-point divider and a load/store pipelines. In order to utilize fully these pipelines, a constraint-based dynamic control scheme is designed for a coprocessor. This control scheme can be achieved by a data dependency checking, a resource conflict checking, and an exception prediction technique. With this control scheme a coprocessor can execute its instructions out of order without an extra hardware unit for out-of-order execution control.

© 2003 Published by Elsevier Science B.V.

**Keywords:** Floating-point unit; Coprocessor; Out-of-order execution; Embedded system

## 1. Introduction

The embedded systems are the preferred choices of major semiconductor companies and mobile device manufacturers since they need a simple, light, and low power micro-controller rather than a high-performance microprocessor. There are numerous examples of embedded processors in the market. For example, ARM9 and ARM 10 architectures from ARM, SH4 and SH5 architectures from HITACHI, and VR5000/5500 series from NEC Electronics. Those embedded processors have different characteristics for specific applications.

The SH4 processor is a two-way superscalar processor for home entertainment game consoles. It has four pipelines: integer, floating-point, load/store, and branch. It supports in-order issue, in-order exception, and out-of-order completion. Especially, it supports 3D graphics operations with a floating-point vector unit (Inner-production unit) [1].

The latest VR5500 series processor has about two times of pipeline resources compared with the SH4 processor. It is a two-way superscalar processor and has six pipelines: two for integer, two for floating-point, load/store, and branch. It supports out-of-order issue, and out-of-order completion [2]. On the other hand, ARM9 and ARM10 series processors are not for high performance, but for small area and low power consumptions. Every ARM core has a general integer pipeline which executes integer, load/store, and branch instructions. But they can expand their architecture with a coprocessor interface on a single chip. For example, VFP10 (Vector Floating-point coprocessor) can supports single and double precision floating-point arithmetic and has a 5-stage load/store pipeline and a 7-stage execution pipeline [3]. The expandable architecture is a more important feature in the embedded systems for various applications.

The latest design goal of a micro-controller is to achieve lower power and higher performance within certain constraints. Flexible configurations of peripheral devices such as a floating-point unit (FPU), caches, and other I/O blocks, should be provided to meet the requirements for various applications. A coprocessor like an FPU is an auxiliary device that may or may not be used according to

\* Corresponding author. Tel.: +82-2-2123-2715; fax: +82-2-365-2579.

E-mail addresses: [chjeong@kurene.yonsei.ac.kr](mailto:chjeong@kurene.yonsei.ac.kr) (C.H. Jeong), [chan@kurene.yonsei.ac.kr](mailto:chan@kurene.yonsei.ac.kr) (W.C. Park), [hantack@kurene.yonsei.ac.kr](mailto:hantack@kurene.yonsei.ac.kr) (T.D. Han), [yang@mythos.yonsei.ac.kr](mailto:yang@mythos.yonsei.ac.kr) (S.B. Yang), [mkleee@spark.yonsei.ac.kr](mailto:mkleee@spark.yonsei.ac.kr) (M.K. Lee).

the requirement of the applications. Therefore, the control interface for a coprocessor should be simple and flexible. In addition, a coprocessor for an embedded system should consume low power while maintaining high performance within certain constraints, if possible.

Generally, an FPU has multiple data-paths such as a floating-point adder, a floating-point multiplier (FMUL), and a floating-point divider (FDIV). The latencies of a floating-point operation are varied with arithmetic instructions in the execution pipelines [4]. If the in-order execution control scheme is applied in designing an FPU controller, the overall performance may be degraded considerably due to the long latency instructions such as floating-point division (FDIV) and floating-point square root. Thus the out-of-order execution control scheme is essential to achieve high performance. Scoreboarding and Tomasulo's algorithms, which need special hardware blocks such as scoreboard registers and an instruction queue, can support out-of-order execution and completion [5]. Scoreboarding is an instruction issue control mechanism with a big central scoreboard register, which stores information of instruction status, functional unit status, and register status. The performance of scoreboarding can be limited by the number of scoreboard entries, the number and type of functional units. Also, Tomasulo's approach uses distributed reservation stations instead of a central scoreboard and its dependency checking and execution control are done by the reservation station [6]. However, the design cost and complexity of these techniques are too high for micro-controller applications.

In this paper, a constraint-based dynamic control scheme is proposed for a coprocessor with a data dependency checking, a resource conflict checking, and an exception prediction. Constraint-based dynamic scheduling is similar to a reduced set of scoreboarding. A data dependency checking and pipeline resource checking are done by a small amount of information settings on the register file and the instruction decode unit. It has advantages of area because it needs small register bits for instruction control to achieve out-of-order execution instead of a scoreboard or a reservation stations. Also an exception prediction technique can eliminate a special hardware unit like a reorder buffer. All operands of arithmetic instructions are checked for exception at the first stage of the pipeline. If an exception occurs, the coprocessor executes a checked instruction in order for handling the exceptional condition properly, otherwise the coprocessor performs the instructions out of order. With this technique, the coprocessor is able to execute instructions out of order without extra hardware blocks, if the coprocessor does not generate an exception. Also the exception prediction technique eliminates a special hardware unit like a reorder buffer for precise exception.

The proposed constraint-based dynamic control scheme has been used for the design of a floating-point coprocessor for an embedded system [7]. A coprocessor has been implemented with a standard-cell library to save the design

time and cost of its implementation. A hard-macro block is used for a large conventional block—fraction multiplier, barrel shifter, adder, and subtractor.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 illustrates the architecture of a coprocessor. Section 3 describes the out-of-order execution control scheme. Some of examples of coprocessor instruction execution are given in Section 4. Section 5 describes the implementation details. Section 6 presents the conclusions.

## 2. The architecture of a coprocessor

A coprocessor is composed of a hardware floating-point arithmetic and logic unit (FALU), an FMUL, and an FDIV as shown in Fig. 1. It has an independent instruction decoder, a load/store unit, a register file and a coprocessor interface unit. It can execute several instructions simultaneously within some constraints and can execute the instructions out of order if an arithmetic exception is not generated by the current instruction. It has a reduced interrupt recovery mechanism with a simple coprocessor interface and an exception prediction technique.

The coprocessor does not need any hardware unit for the memory access. Instead, it can perform data transfer only with the host processor and the memory through a coprocessor interface. Thus the host processor takes the responsibilities for instruction fetching, address generation and data arrangements for the memory read or write operations. Since it has neither an instruction fetch unit nor a memory address generation unit, the design complexity of a coprocessor is quite low.

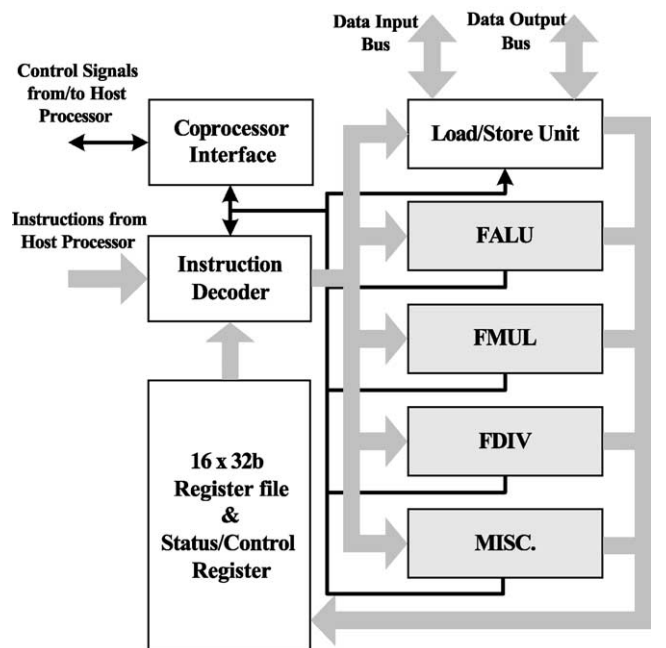


Fig. 1. The block diagram of the coprocessor.

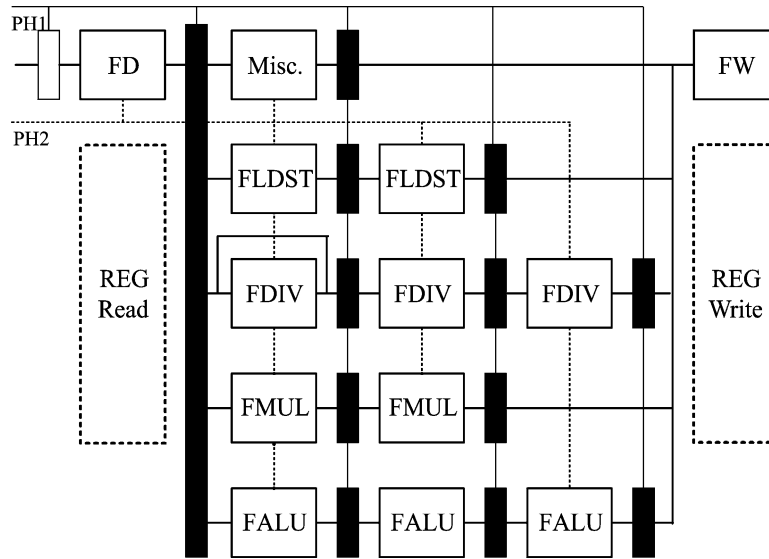


Fig. 2. The pipeline diagram of the coprocessor.

### 2.1. The FPU execution pipelines

Fig. 2 shows the pipeline layout of the coprocessor. It has five separate pipelines; the floating-point ALU pipeline, the FMUL pipeline, the FDIV pipeline, the floating-point load/store pipeline (FLDST), and the miscellaneous pipeline (Misc). As shown in Fig. 2, these pipelines have different operation latencies and all pipelines except FDIV are fully pipelined. The first stage of FDIV has an iterative path that takes 15 clock cycle latencies. Also each arithmetic pipeline has an exception prediction unit at the first pipeline stage, respectively.

FALU is composed of a floating-point addition (FADD)/subtraction (FSUB) unit and a comparison unit. FADD/FSUB takes four processing steps: alignment, fraction addition/subtraction, normalization, and rounding. In order to reduce the rounding overhead, the parallel-rounding algorithm proposed in Ref. [8] is adopted. With this algorithm, fraction addition/subtraction and rounding are executed simultaneously at the second pipeline stage.

FMUL consists of the following two stages. At the first stage, floating-point fraction multiplication and addition of partial products are performed. At the next stage, fraction rounding and normalization are executed. It is designed with a conventional FMUL algorithm. In order to reduce the design time and efforts, a hard macro in a target library is used for an integer multiplier.

FDIV has an iterative stage and a couple of non-iterative stages. At the first stage, the radix-4 SRT division algorithm is used [9,10]. At the second stage, quotient addition is performed. Rounding and normalization are performed at the final stage.

FLDST has two stages to comply with the memory access stage (MEM) in the host processor. At the first stage of FLDST, there is no operation because the coprocessor has no memory access stage, but at the next stage a data read or

write operation is executed through the data input/output buses with the help of host-coprocessor interface signals. The host and coprocessor interface scheme is described in the next section. The Misc pipeline can execute register move, absolute value, negation value and constant (0.0 or 1.0) load operations.

### 2.2. Instruction execution

At first, the host processor reads an instruction from the memory and checks the type of the instruction. If the instruction is a coprocessor instruction, the instruction code is transferred directly to the coprocessor with several control signals. The coprocessor decodes the received instruction and executes it on an appropriate execution pipeline. For load/store operations, the host processor performs the memory address generation and data arrangement for transferring data to the coprocessor or to the memory. The coprocessor has the only responsibility for data arrangement and for data transfer to the host processor through the data bus.

The host processor can continue issuing instructions to the coprocessor until a data dependency or a resource conflict on the coprocessor occurs. The issued instructions are executed simultaneously in the execution pipelines and their operations are completed out of order if a resource conflict is resolved and any of the other pipelines does not generate an exception prediction signal. If an exception prediction signal is generated, the host processor stops issuing instructions until the instruction that has generated the exception prediction signal completes its execution. If an exception prediction is false, the host processor continues the program execution.

At the FW (FPU Write-back) stage, if two or more write-back data are available, only one write-back data is selected among these five pipelines according to the predefined

337 priority and a pipeline stall signal is generated to stop the  
 338 pipeline advance of other pipelines. On the next cycle,  
 339 the write-back data with the highest priority is advanced to  
 340 the FW stage.

341  
 342  
 343 **3. The out-of-order execution control scheme**

344  
 345 This section describes the host-coprocessor interface, the  
 346 proposed out-of-order execution control scheme, and the  
 347 precise exception support. A simple and effective host-  
 348 coprocessor interface unit can support precise exception as  
 349 well as the dynamic control scheme with some constraints.  
 350 The host processor issues instructions sequentially, but the  
 351 issued instruction can be executed out of order within the  
 352 coprocessor.

353  
 354 *3.1. The coprocessor interface*

355  
 356 The coprocessor needs to be synchronized in some cases  
 357 with the host processor; for example, instruction issue may  
 358 not be allowed when the coprocessor has suffered a stall and  
 359 cannot get further instructions from the host processor, the  
 360 host processor is stalled and cannot provide the data for  
 361 coprocessor data transfer instruction, etc [11]. Therefore,  
 362 the special control signals are defined to communicate with  
 363 the coprocessor and the host processor: these signals are  
 364 STXEN, STMEN, STWEN, COPXEN, COPMEN, and  
 365 COPWEN as shown in Fig. 3. These signals are active in the  
 366 low state, where ‘ST’ indicates the host processor status;  
 367 ‘COP’ denotes the coprocessor status; and ‘X’, ‘M’ and ‘W’  
 368 stand for execute stage, memory stage, and write-back  
 369 stage, respectively. The last two letters ‘EN’ denotes enable.

393 For example, if STMEN is high, the instructions in the host  
 394 processor can advance to the next memory stage; if it is low,  
 395 the instruction in the host processor cannot advance to the  
 396 next stage. If COPXEN is in the low state, some pipeline  
 397 stall conditions such as data dependencies, resource  
 398 conflicts, and pipeline full have occurred. Instruction issue  
 399 must be stopped until COPXEN goes high. Instruction issue  
 400 control is, therefore, accomplished with these control  
 401 signals.

402  
 403 *3.2. The constraint-based dynamic control scheme*

404  
 405 The constraint-based dynamic control scheme provides  
 406 out-of-order execution with data dependency checking,  
 407 resource conflict checking, and exception prediction  
 408 technique with the host interface signals. This scheme  
 409 controls instruction issue from the host processor according  
 410 to some constraints such as data dependencies, resource  
 411 conflicts, and exceptions. The instruction that is received  
 412 from the host processor is decoded and is checked for data  
 413 dependencies and resource conflicts. If a data dependency is  
 414 found, a COPXEN signal is generated to stop instruction  
 415 issue. As soon as the data dependency is resolved, the  
 416 COPXEN signal goes high.

417 If a resource conflict is found, a COPXEN signal is used  
 418 to stop instruction issue as in the case of a data dependency.  
 419 There are two possible resource conflicts in the coprocessor.  
 420 The first one occurs when two or more execution pipelines  
 421 attempt to advance simultaneously to the coprocessor write-  
 422 back stage. Since only one write-back data can advance to  
 423 the write-back stage at each clock cycle, other instructions  
 424 in the pipelines must wait until the next clock cycle. Write-  
 425 back data selection is scheduled based on the pre-defined

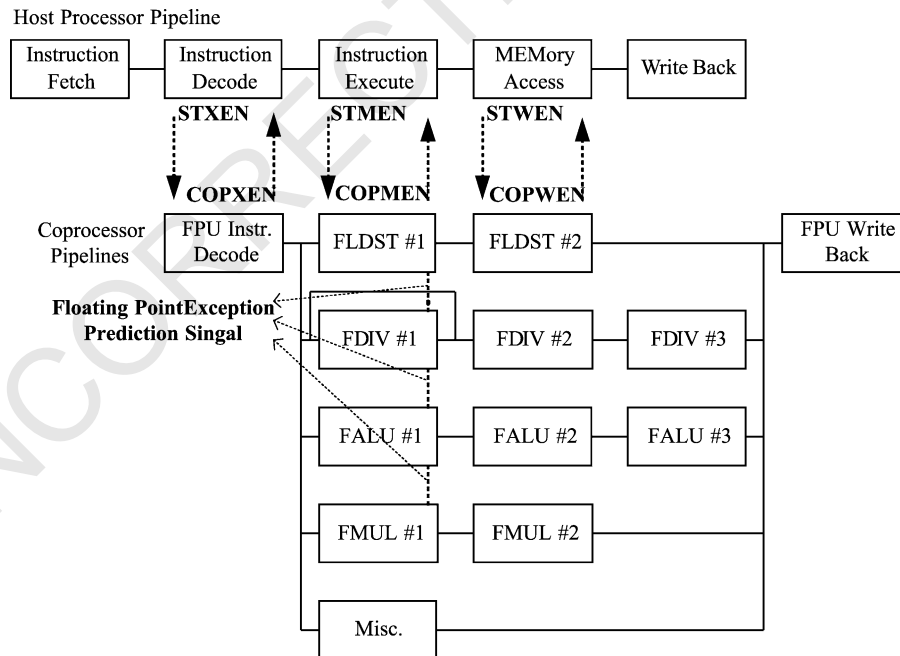


Fig. 3. The host and coprocessor interface signals.



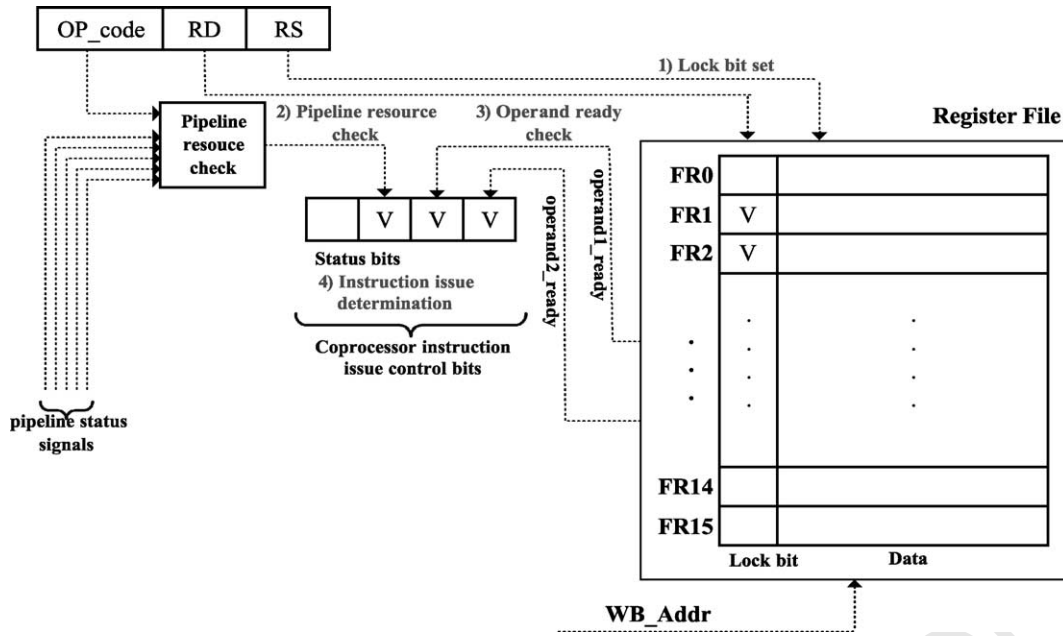


Fig. 4. The constraint-based dynamic control scheme.

priority. The second one happens when one pipeline is full with instructions due to a lower priority; no more instructions that use the pipeline can be executed. But an instruction that uses an empty pipeline can be executed if a data dependency has not occurred. A pipeline resource conflict is controlled with COPXEN signals for instruction scheduling in the host processor.

To implement the constraint-based dynamic control scheme effectively, the register lock bits, the pipeline status bit, and the operand ready bits are added in the control block as shown in Fig. 4. The register lock bits show whether or not the register is the write-back destination of any instruction. The pipeline status bit shows which pipeline is available for instruction execution. That is, it shows that the pipeline is full of instructions or has empty execution stages. The operand ready bits show whether or not two source operands are available for execution. That is, if data are forwarded from the FW stage or if the lock bits of two source registers are not set, the operand ready bit is set for instruction execution. Note that a coprocessor instruction is two-operand type.

Data-dependency checking is achieved by the lock bit setting in the register file and checking operand ready bit at the decode stage. First, the register destination (RD) of the current instruction determines the lock bit position in the register file. Then the operand read bit reads the lock bit of the register of the current instruction. If the lock bit of register source (RS) is set by the previous instruction, a data dependency has occurred.

As soon as the coprocessor instruction is decoded, the lock bit of the destination register is set for a data dependency checking. And then the pipeline status bit and the operand ready bit determine whether the instruction is issued or not. If one of these bits is not set, a data dependency or a resource conflict is found. Both

the coprocessor and the host processor cannot issue the instruction to the coprocessor until these bits are set, that is, the data dependency has been resolved or write-back scheduling is completed. After the execution of the previous instruction the result of the execution is stored into the destination register, and the lock bit of RD is cleared. The next instruction can then be executed.

As shown in Fig. 5, the first FADD instruction and the first FMUL instruction have a data dependency. As soon as the FMUL instruction is decoded, we set the lock bit of the destination register (FR2) and read operand ready bits. But, because the source register of the current instruction (FR0) is the destination register of the previous instruction, one of the operand ready bits is not set. Therefore, the coprocessor generates an interface signal to stop instruction issue and waits for the data dependency resolving. After the first FADD instruction has been executed, the result can be forwarded so that instruction execution and instruction issue can be performed.

For the data load/store operation, the load/store pipeline is designed to communicate with a host processor pipeline. Because the coprocessor cannot access the memory, the host processor reads data from the memory and writes the data to the global data bus, and then the coprocessor reads this data when a load operation for some coprocessor data is executed. For the coprocessor data store operation, the host processor generates the memory addresses and the coprocessor writes the data to be stored to the global data bus. In general the load/store operation could not be done in one-clock cycle when a cache miss occurs. Therefore, the host processor generates coprocessor interface signals to stall the coprocessor on a cache miss. In this case the load/store operation can take multiple clock cycles. But, in case of a cache hit, the load/store operation does not

561  
562  
563  
564  
565  
566  
567  
568  
569  
570  
571  
572  
573  
574  
575  
576  
577  
578  
579  
580  
581  
582  
583  
584  
585  
586  
587  
588  
589  
590  
591  
592  
593  
594  
595  
596  
597  
598  
599  
600  
601  
602  
603  
604  
605  
606  
607  
608  
609  
610  
611  
612  
613  
614  
615  
616

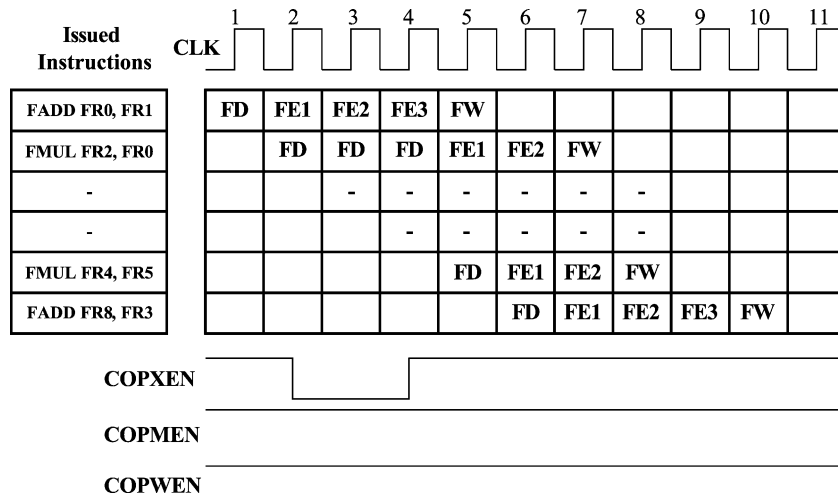


Fig. 5. The pipeline diagram of data dependency case.

generate special control signals by the host processor. On a cache miss, however, the coprocessor must wait for the end of the memory access and data preparation in the host processor. In that case, one or more control signals from the host processor go low to stall a coprocessor load/store pipeline (STMEN, STWEN), but other execution pipelines in the coprocessor can execute another instructions if any of a data dependency, a resource conflict, and an exception prediction does not occur.

3.3. Exception predictions and precise exception

In the proposed architecture an exception prediction technique is employed for precise exception. At the first stage of the arithmetic pipeline, each instruction is checked for the possibility of a exception. If the instruction can make an exception, an exception prediction signal is generated. This signal makes the host processor stall with COPMEN and COPXEN signals. At the last stage of the arithmetic pipeline, a true exception is generated. If any exception does not occur, the host processor continues issuing instructions; otherwise the host processor jumps to the coprocessor a exception handling routine.

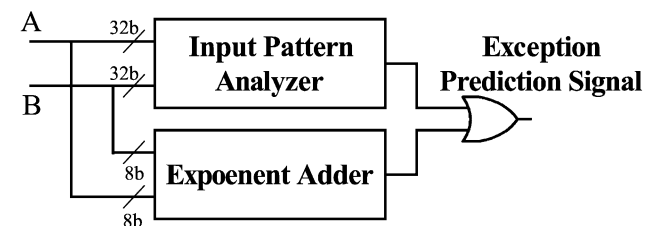
The coprocessor has no special exception recovery unit, while each instruction is checked at the first stage of the corresponding execution pipeline. No further instruction can be issued if an exception prediction signal is active. Thus if all exception prediction signals of the execution pipeline are inactive, it guarantees that arithmetic exceptions never happen on the execution of the instruction. This technique has an advantage in area and design costs because a special hardware unit like a reorder buffer is not required.

Exception predictors are designed individually for each arithmetic pipeline. Exception prediction is to check the result of a floating-point operation for a exception at the first stage of the execution pipeline as shown in Fig. 6. An exception is predicted by the input pattern checking and exponent calculation. First, the input pattern checking

examines the abnormal conditions of an input operand. That is, if the input number is not a number (NaN) and it is negative or positive infinity ( $\pm Inf$ ) on FADD, an invalid exception occurs. If the divisor is floating-point zero on a FDIV, the division by zero exception occurs. Second, the possibility of an overflow or underflow exception is checked by the exponent calculation of the two input numbers. For example, on a FMUL, if the addition result of an input number exceeds the maximum value of the corresponding exponent (254, in case of a single precision floating-point number), an overflow exception should be generated. If the result of the exponent addition is equal to the maximum value of the corresponding exponent, an overflow exception may be generated after the rounding stage. These two cases are included in determining exception prediction.

4. Execution examples

This section describes the execution of some coprocessor instructions with a sample code. In the following pipeline diagram, the letter 'FD', 'FE<sub>x</sub>', and 'FW' mean 'Decode',



$$\text{if } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} m_a = \text{DenormalizedNumber or NaN or } \pm INF \\ m_b = \text{Denormalized Number or NaN or } \pm INF \text{ or } 0 \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\text{if } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} e_a + e_b \geq MAX\_e \text{ or } e_a - e_b \geq MAX\_e \\ e_a + e_b \leq MIN\_e \text{ or } e_a - e_b \leq MIN\_e \end{array} \right\}$$

Fig. 6. The exception prediction.

617  
618  
619  
620  
621  
622  
623  
624  
625  
626  
627  
628  
629  
630  
631  
632  
633  
634  
635  
636  
637  
638  
639  
640  
641  
642  
643  
644  
645  
646  
647  
648  
649  
650  
651  
652  
653  
654  
655  
656  
657  
658  
659  
660  
661  
662  
663  
664  
665  
666  
667  
668  
669  
670  
671  
672

673  
674  
675  
676  
677  
678  
679  
680  
681  
682  
683  
684  
685  
686  
687  
688  
689  
690  
691  
692  
693  
694  
695  
696  
697  
698  
699  
700  
701  
702  
703  
704  
705  
706  
707  
708  
709  
710  
711  
712  
713  
714  
715  
716  
717  
718  
719  
720  
721  
722  
723  
724  
725  
726  
727  
728

729  
730  
731  
732  
733  
734  
735  
736  
737  
738  
739  
740  
741  
742  
743  
744  
745  
746  
747  
748  
749  
750  
751  
752  
753  
754  
755  
756  
757  
758  
759  
760  
761  
762  
763  
764  
765  
766  
767  
768  
769  
770  
771  
772  
773  
774  
775  
776  
777  
778  
779  
780  
781  
782  
783  
784

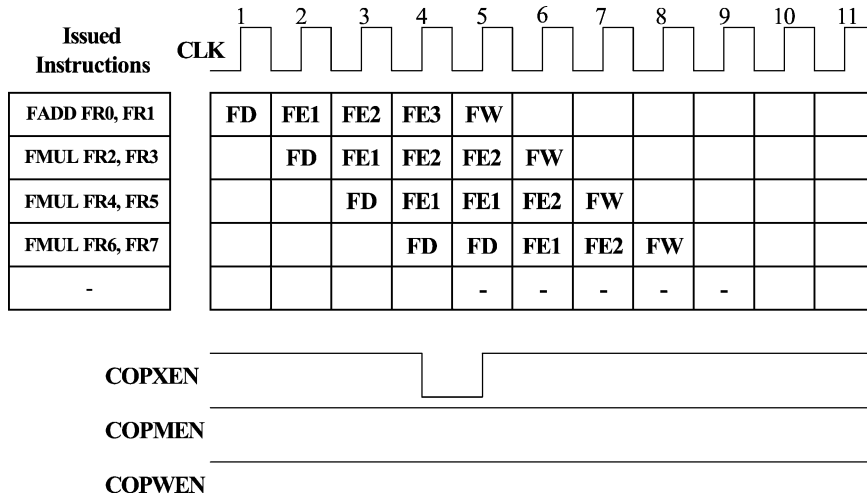


Fig. 7. The pipeline diagram of the exception impossible case.

‘x-th Execute’ and ‘Write-back’ stages in the coprocessor, respectively.

4.1. Exception impossible case and exception possible case

An example in Fig. 7 shows the pipeline of the constraint-based dynamic scheduling in the case of a resource conflict, assuming that all instructions are predicted as exception impossible and that the write-back priority is FLST > FDIV > FALU > FMUL > Misc. As in Fig. 6, the first FMUL instruction cannot advance to the FW stage because of low priority at the 4th clock. The second FMUL instruction cannot also go further because the next pipeline stage is not empty. The third FMUL instruction cannot advance either, although all instructions have no data dependencies. The coprocessor generates a COPXEN signal to stop instruction issue by the host processor.

The next example in Fig. 8 shows an exception possible case. We assume that the FADD instruction has

an exception possible operand. At the first execution pipeline stage of the FADD instruction, the exception prediction signal is generated, and then a COPMEN signal is set to stop instruction execution in the host processor. Although there is no data dependency between the FADD instruction and the first FMUL instruction, the FMUL instruction cannot advance to the next pipeline stage to support precise exception. And a COPXEN signal is generated to stop instruction issuing by the host processor until the truth of exception is decided at the last stage of the pipeline. At the 4th clock, the first FMUL instruction starts to execute because an exception is not actually occurred. The following instructions then continue their execution.

4.2. Out-of-order execution examples

Fig. 9 shows some out-of-execution examples in the coprocessor. All the operands for the instructions are

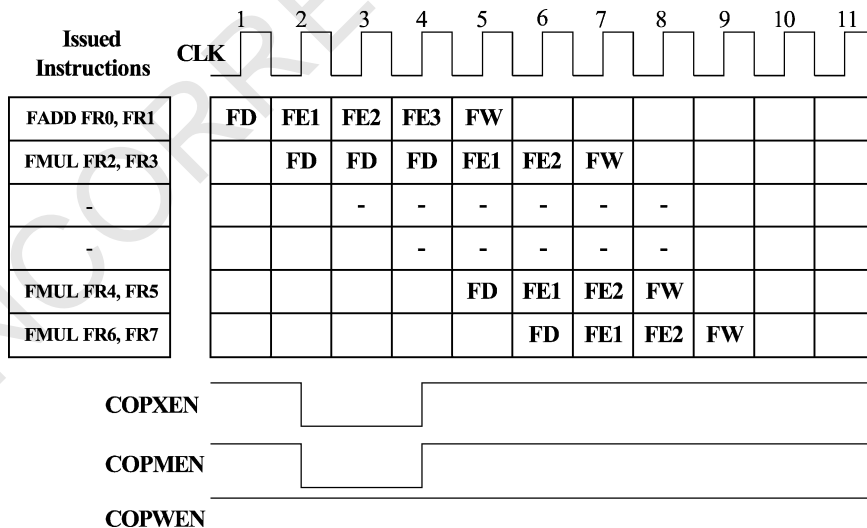


Fig. 8. The pipeline diagram of the exception possible case.

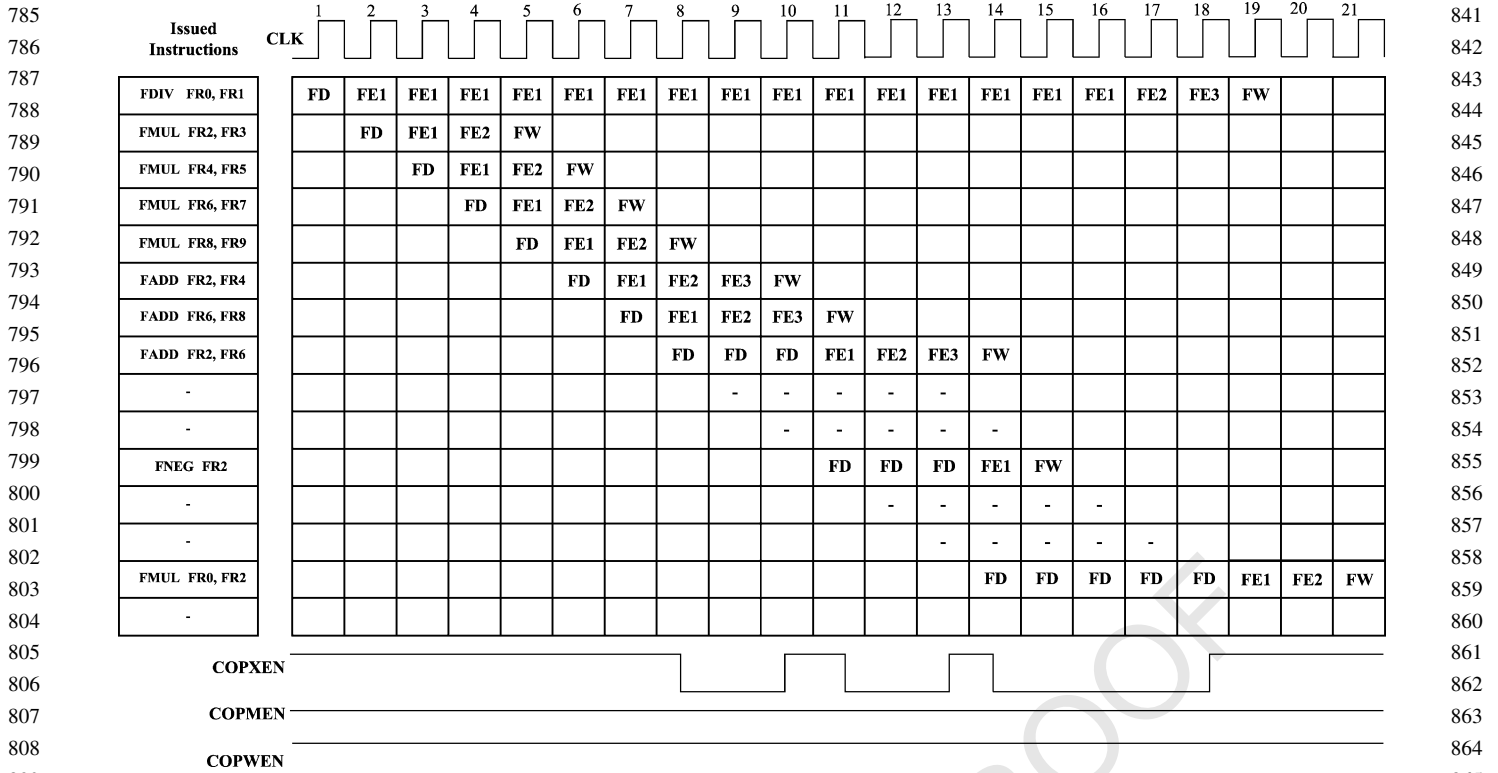


Fig. 9. The pipeline diagram of the out-of-order execution case.

assumed to be safe for an exception. The entire pipeline stall is caused by the data dependency that cannot eliminate due to the sequence of the calculation. With an in-order execution control scheme no other coprocessor instruction can be executed during the FDIV instruction execution and it wastes the execution clock cycles. However, as in Fig. 8, the execution clock cycle loss

can be alleviated with the out-of-execution control scheme and the code optimization.

### 5. Implementation

The coprocessor has been designed with a 0.25 μm standard-cell library which has four metal layers. The

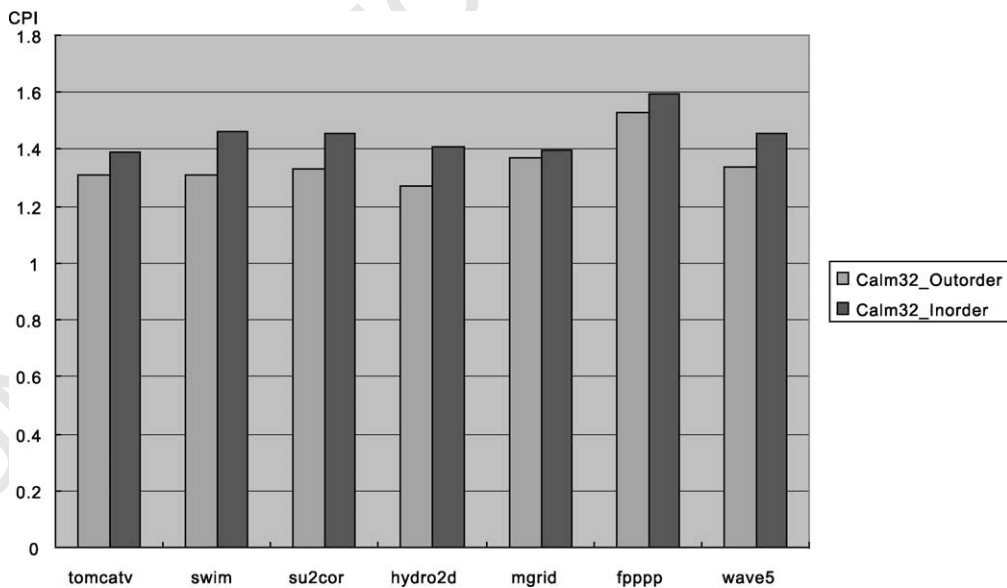


Fig. 10. The performance comparison of in-order issue and out-of-order issue processors the CalmRISC32.



Table 1  
The comparison of instruction issue and execution control

Processors	ARM10 + VFP10	Calm32 + Coprocessor	SH4	VR5500
Inst. issue	In-order	In-order	In-order (2-way)	Out-of-order (2-way)
Inst. execution	In-order	Out-of-order	Out-of-order	Out-of-order
Pipeline resources	1 Integer <sup>a</sup> , 1 FPU	1 Integer, 1 FPU	1 Integer, 1 FPU, 1 Branch, 1 Load/Store	2 Integer, 2 FPU, 1 Branch, 1 Load/Store

<sup>a</sup> ARM10 core can simultaneously execute data processing instructions under the load/store multiple instructions.

coprocessor supports 32 bit single precision floating-point arithmetic instructions; FADD, FSUB, FMUL, FDIV, format conversion (FTOI, ITOF), comparison (FCMP), rounding (FRND), load, store (CLD), etc. The IEEE-754 standard rounding mode and all exception conditions are also supported. For the development of a coprocessor, the behavioral HDL model has been implemented and verified with a simple test vector. All arithmetic data-paths have been verified by comparing the result of the data-path calculation with that of a C program. Then the Synopsys design analyzer has generated a gate-level model. Finally, timing verification with the Samsung's in-house CAD tool, *CubicWare*, has been performed.

### 5.1. Performance evaluation

To evaluate the performance potential of the out-of-order execution coprocessor, an architectural simulation is conducted with the SimpleScalar Tool set [12]. And the simulator is modified with a CalmRISC32 host processor and the coprocessor architecture. The SPEC floating-point benchmark program is also used for simulation. It can estimate the performance potential of the out-of-order execution coprocessor. Fig. 10 shows the simulation results in CPI (Clock per Instruction). Because the host processor CalmRISC32 is an in-order issue processor, Calm32\_Inorder shows the performance of the out-of-order execution coprocessor, and Calm32\_Outorder shows out-of-order issue and out-of-order execution results.

Observe that the result of the out-of-order issue and out-of-order execution architecture simulation is not greatly improved. Because the CalmRISC32 host processor has instruction issue limitation and the amount of its pipeline resources is less than the other processor. Therefore, within limited resources the in-order issue and out-of-order execution control scheme can be an appropriate choice.

To implement the out-of-control scheme, scoreboard uses a centralized scoreboard register and scoreboard control. And Tomasulo's algorithm needs an instruction queue and a separate reservation station for each arithmetic pipeline. Constraint-based dynamic scheduling, however, needs a small number of registers for lock bits, pipeline status bits, and a resource checker. It has advantages of area and design complexity because of efficient dependency checking as well as simple resource checking method.

In Table 1 the comparison of instruction issue and execution control scheme is provided. In general, ARM series processors are optimized for small area and power consumption. Hence, the instruction issue and execution control scheme are not greatly considered. Because those control schemes need special storage elements; both increase area and power consumption would be increased. On the other hand, a high performance embedded processor like VR5500 series processor has multiple pipeline resources, and for the better use of those resources, the reservation station of 20 entries is used for the out-of-order execution control. SH4 processor has a moderate approach for out-of-order execution. Only a pair of possible combination of instructions is checked for instruction issue in the instruction fetch stage. With such a constraint, SH4 can reduce area and control overheads, sacrificing the performance. CalmRISC32 has a minimum effort for out-of-order execution. It issues instructions in-order and executes instructions in-order in the host processor. A coprocessor instruction is issued sequentially by the host processor, but the coprocessor can execute coprocessor instruction out-of-order. It can effectively execute other instructions during the long latency floating-point instruction such as FDIV instruction. It should provide performance improvement potentials for the floating-point intensive applications and give program optimization opportunity.

## 6. Conclusion

In this paper a floating-point co-processor for an embedded system that supports out-of-order execution control with the constraint-based dynamic control scheme has been designed and verified with the standard cell library. The proposed scheme is achieved by the data dependency checking at the decode stage, the resource conflict checking at the write-back stage, and the exception prediction at the first stage of each arithmetic pipeline. It has an advantage in area and design costs because a special hardware unit for out-of-order execution control like an instruction queue or a scoreboard register is not required. For precise exception, the coprocessor instruction stream is scheduled by the simple host

1009 interface and the exception prediction technique, which  
 1010 can eliminate a reorder buffer. It has been applied to a  
 1011 floating-point coprocessor which is a RISC-type copro-  
 1012 cessor. The coprocessor instructions can be executed  
 1013 simultaneously in all pipelines and can be completed out  
 1014 of order. The performance of the coprocessor can be  
 1015 improved with the constraints-based dynamic control  
 1016 scheme and code optimization.

1017  
 1018  
**References**

1019  
 1020  
 1021 [1] F. Arakawa, O. Nishi, K. Uchiyama, N. Nakagawa, SH4 RISC  
 1022 multimedia microprocessor, *IEEE Micro* 18 (2) (1998) 26–34.  
 1023 [2] User's Manual VR5500™ 64/32-Bit Micro processor, NEC elec-  
 1024 tronics, 2002, pp. 25–38.  
 1025 [3] S. Futber, *ARM System-on-Chip Architecture*, Addison-Wesley,  
 1026 London, 2000, pp. 317–346.  
 1027 [4] A.R. Omondi, *Computer Arithmetic Systems: Algorithms Architec-  
 1028 ture and Implementation*, Prentice-Hall, New York, 1994.  
 1029 [5] J. Hennessy, D. Patterson, *Computer Architecture: A Quantitative  
 1030 Approach*, Morgan Kaufman, San Francisco, 1996, pp. 240–261.  
 1031 [6] R.M. Tomasulo, An efficient algorithm for exploiting multiple  
 1032 arithmetic units, *IBM Journal of Research and Development* 11 (1)  
 1033 (1967) 25–33.  
 1034 [7] C.H. Jeong, W.C. Park, S.W. Kim, T.D. Han, M.K. Lee, In-order  
 1035 issue out-of-order execution floating point coprocessor for Calm-  
 1036 RISC32, 15th IEEE Symposium on Computer Arithmetic (2001)  
 1037 195–200.  
 1038 [8] W.C. Park, S.W. Lee, O.Y. Kwon, T.D. Han, Floating-point adder/  
 1039 subtractor performing IEEE rounding and addition/subtraction in  
 1040 parallel, *IEICE Transaction on Information and System* E79-D (4)  
 1041 (1996) 297–305.  
 1042 [9] D.E. Atkins, Higher-Radix division using estimates of the divisor and  
 1043 partial remainder, *IEEE Transactions on Computers* 17 (10) (1968)  
 1044 925–934.  
 1045 [10] S. Oberman, M. Flynn, Division algorithms and implementations,  
 1046 *IEEE Transaction on Computers* 46 (8) (1997) 833–854.  
 1047 [11] S.Y. Cho, S.H. Park, Y.G. Kim, S.W. Jeong, B.Y. Chung, H.L. Roh,  
 1048 C.H. Lee, H.M. Yang, S.H. Kwak, M.K. Lee, CalmRISC™-32: a 32-  
 1049 bit low-power MCU core, *The Second IEEE Asia Pacific Conference  
 1050 on ASICs (2000)* 285–289.  
 1051 [12] D. Burger, T. Austin, *The SimpleScalar Tool Set, Version 2.0*,  
 1052 Computer Science Department, University of Wisconsin, Madison,  
 1053 1997.



**Cheol-Ho Jeong** is a graduate student in the Department of Computer Science at Yonsei University, Korea. He is currently researching computer arithmetic and system for 3D computer graphics. He received an MS in computer science from Yonsei University.



**Woo-Chan Park** is a research professor in the Department of Computer Science at Yonsei University, Korea. His research interests include 3D computer graphics accelerator architecture, micro-architecture, and computer arithmetic. He received a PhD in computer science from Yonsei University.



**Tack-Don Han** is a professor in the Department of Computer Science at the Yonsei University, Korea. His research interests include high performance computer architecture, media system architecture, and wearable computing. He received a PhD in computer engineering from the University of Massachusetts.



**Sung-Bong Yang** is an associate professor in the Department of Computer Science at Yonsei University, Korea. His research interests include Mobile system, 3D computer graphics, and Electronics Commerce. He received a PhD in computer science from the University of Oklahoma.



**Moon-Key Lee** is a professor in the Department of Electrical Engineering at Yonsei University, Korea. His research interests include VLSI design, CAD and embedded system. He received a PhD in electrical engineering from Yonsei University and a PhD in electrical engineering from the University of Oklahoma.

1065  
 1066  
 1067  
 1068  
 1069  
 1070  
 1071  
 1072  
 1073  
 1074  
 1075  
 1076  
 1077  
 1078  
 1079  
 1080  
 1081  
 1082  
 1083  
 1084  
 1085  
 1086  
 1087  
 1088  
 1089  
 1090  
 1091  
 1092  
 1093  
 1094  
 1095  
 1096  
 1097  
 1098  
 1099  
 1100  
 1101  
 1102  
 1103  
 1104  
 1105  
 1106  
 1107  
 1108  
 1109  
 1110  
 1111  
 1112  
 1113  
 1114  
 1115  
 1116  
 1117  
 1118  
 1119  
 1120