## EE5201- COMPUTER ARCHITECTURE

**Processor Structure and Function** 

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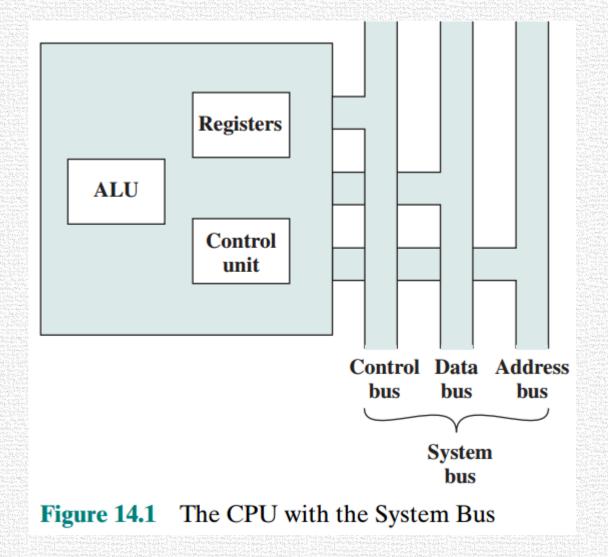
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#### Things done by a processor

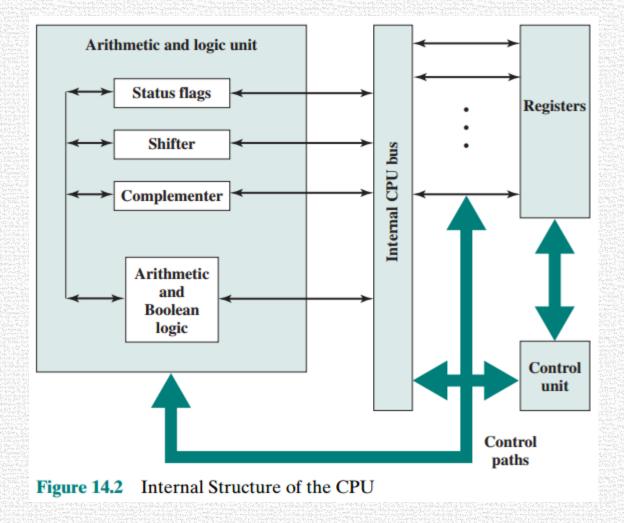
- Fetch instruction
  - The processor reads an instruction from memory (register, cache, main memory)
- Interpret instruction
  - The instruction is decoded to determine what action is required.
- Fetch data
  - The execution of an instruction may require reading data from memory or an I/O module
- Process data
  - The execution of an instruction may require performing some arithmetic or logical operation on data

- Things done by a processor
  - Write data
    - The results of an execution may require writing data to memory or an I/O module
- Processor needs to store some data temporarily
- It must remember the location of the last instruction so that it can know where to get the next instruction
- It needs to store instructions and data temporarily while an instruction is being executed
- The processor needs a small internal memory

- Major components of the processor
  - Arithmetic and Logic Unit (ALU)
  - Control Unit (CU)
  - Set of storage locations, called registers



- Internal processor bus
  - This element is needed to transfer data between the various registers and the ALU
  - ALU in fact operates only on data in the internal processor memory



# Register Organization

- User-Visible Registers
  - Enable the machine or assembly language programmer to minimize main memory references by optimizing use of registers
- Control and status registers
  - Used by the control unit to control the operation of the processor

# Register Organization

- User-Visible Registers
  - Referenced by means of the machine language that the processor executes
    - General-purpose registers
    - Data registers
    - Address registers
    - Condition codes

## User-Visible Registers

- General-purpose registers
  - Can be assigned to a variety of functions by the programmer
  - There may be dedicated registers for floating-point and stack operations
- Data registers
  - May be used only to hold data and cannot be employed in the calculation of an operand address

## User-Visible Registers

- Address registers
  - Segment pointers
    - Segment register holds the address of the base of the segment
  - Index registers
    - These are used for indexed addressing and may be auto indexed
  - Stack pointer
    - If there is user-visible stack addressing, then typically there is a dedicated register that points to the top of the stack

# User-Visible Registers

- Condition codes (flags)
  - Bits set by the processor hardware as the result of operations
  - Example: An arithmetic operation may produce a positive, negative, zero, or overflow
  - In addition to the result itself being stored in a register or memory, a condition code is also set

#### Control and Status Registers

- Registers involved in control operation of the processor
- Not visible to the user
- Four registers essential to instruction execution
  - **Program counter (PC):** Contains the address of an instruction to be fetched
  - **Instruction register (IR):** Contains the instruction most recently fetched
  - Memory address register (MAR): Contains the address of a location in memory
  - Memory buffer register (MBR): Contains a word of data to be written to memory or the word most recently read

### Control and Status Registers

- Program Status Word (PSW)
  - Condition codes plus other status information
  - Sign: Contains the sign bit of the result of the last arithmetic operation.
  - **Zero**: Set when the result is 0
  - Carry: Set if an operation resulted in a carry (addition) into or borrow (subtraction) out of a high-order bit. Used for multiword arithmetic operations
  - Equal: Set if a logical compare result is equality
  - Overflow: Used to indicate arithmetic overflow

# Control and Status Registers

- Program Status Word (PSW)
  - Interrupt Enable/Disable: Used to enable or disable interrupts.
  - **Supervisor**: Indicates whether the processor is executing in supervisor or user mode

# Register Organization

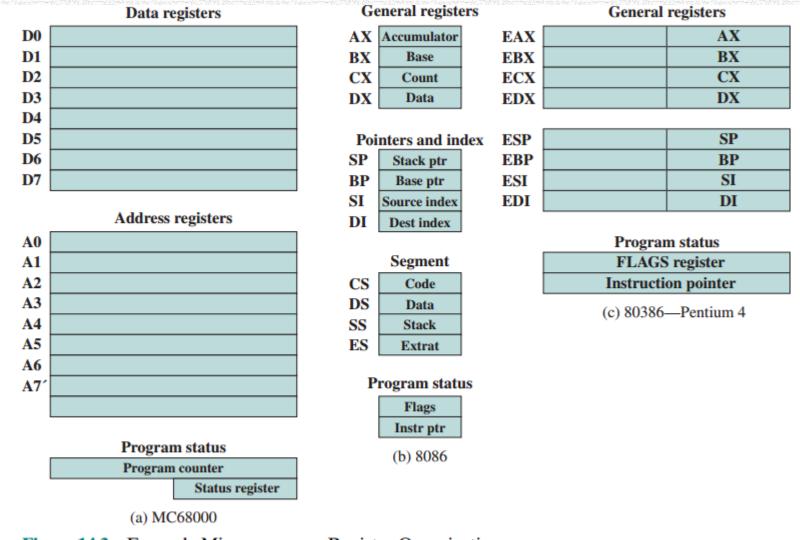
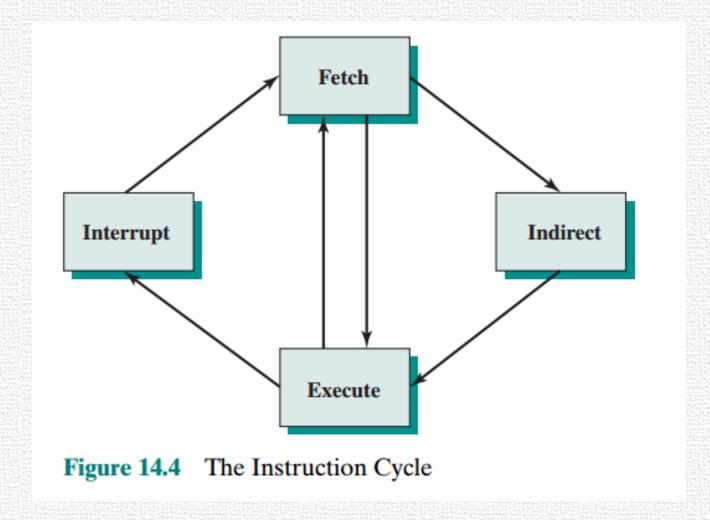


Figure 14.3 Example Microprocessor Register Organizations

## Instruction cycle

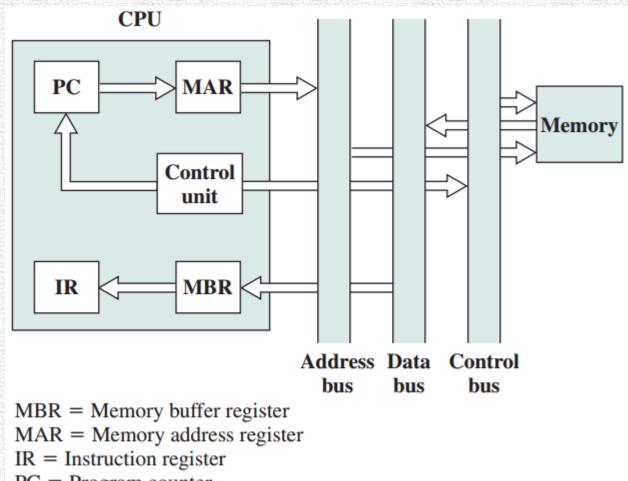
- Instruction cycle includes the following stages
  - Fetch: Read the next instruction from memory into the processor
  - Execute: Interpret the opcode and perform the indicated operation.
  - Interrupt: If interrupts are enabled and an interrupt has occurred, save the current process state and service the interrupt.
  - Indirect addressing: Additional memory accesses are required

# Instruction cycle



- Fetch cycle: An instruction is read from memory
- PC contains the address of the next instruction to be fetched
- This address is moved to the MAR and placed on the address bus
- The control unit requests a memory read
- Result is placed on the data bus and copied into the MBR and then moved to the IR
- PC is incremented by 1, preparatory for the next fetch
- Control unit examines the contents of the IR to determine if it contains an operand specifier using indirect addressing

- Indirect cycle
  - The rightmost *N* bits of the MBR, which contain the address reference, are transferred to the MAR
  - Control unit requests a memory read, to get the desired address of the operand into the MBR



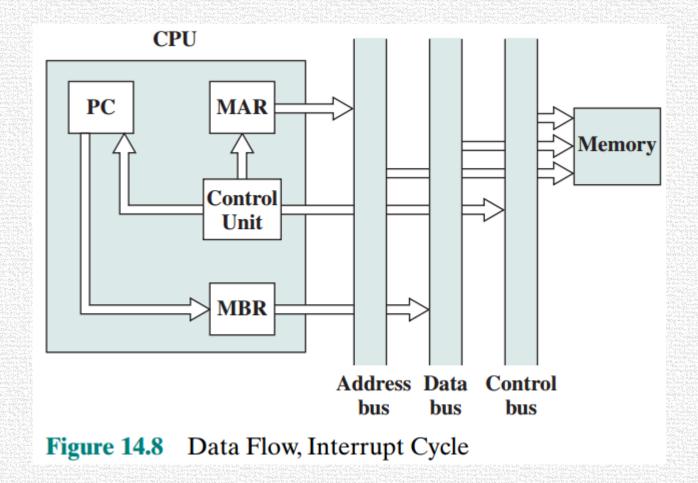
PC = Program counter

Figure 14.6 Data Flow, Fetch Cycle

- Execute cycle takes many forms
  - Involve transferring data among registers
  - Read or write from memory or I/O
  - Invocation of the ALU

- Interrupt cycle
  - Current contents of the PC must be saved so that the processor can resume normal activity after the interrupt
  - Contents of the PC are transferred to the MBR to be written into memory
  - The special memory location reserved for this purpose is loaded into the MAR from the control unit ( might be a stack pointer )
  - PC is loaded with the address of the interrupt routine
  - As a result, the next instruction cycle will begin by fetching the appropriate instruction

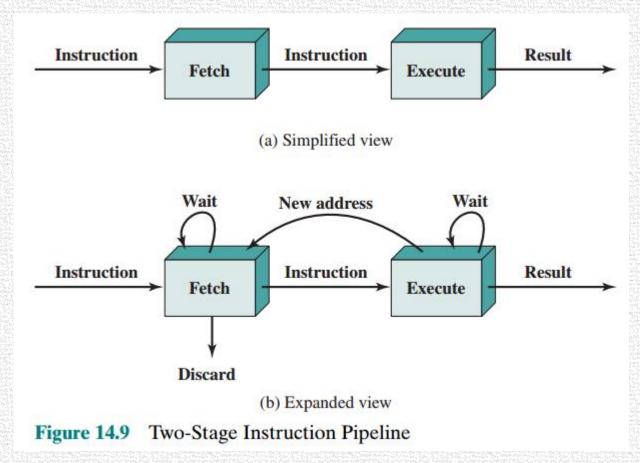
• Interrupt cycle



- Similar to the use of an assembly line in a manufacturing plant
- Products at various stages can be worked on simultaneously (pipelining)
- New inputs are accepted at one end before previously accepted inputs appear as outputs at the other end
- Instruction execution must have number of stages to apply this concept

- Consider subdividing instruction processing into two stages
  - Fetch instruction
  - Execute instruction
- There are times during the execution of an instruction when main memory is not being accessed
- Fetch the next instruction in parallel with the execution of the current one.

- The pipeline has two independent stages
- The first stage fetches an instruction and buffers it
- When the second stage is free, the first stage passes it the buffered instruction.
- While the second stage is executing the instruction, the first stage takes advantage of any unused memory cycles to fetch and buffer the next instruction
- This is called instruction prefetch



- If the fetch and execute stages were of equal duration, the instruction cycle time would be halved
  - The execution time will generally be longer than the fetch time
  - Fetch stage may have to wait for some time
  - A conditional branch instruction makes the address of the next instruction to be fetched unknown
  - Fetch stage must wait until it receives the next instruction address from the execute stage
  - Execute stage may then have to wait while the next instruction is fetched
  - Pipeline can gain further speedup by having more stages

### Decomposition of the instruction processing

- Fetch instruction (FI): Read the next expected instruction into a buffer
- **Decode instruction (DI):** Determine the opcode and the operand specifiers.
- Calculate operands (CO): Calculate the effective address of each source operand. This may involve displacement, register indirect, indirect, or other forms of address calculation.
- Fetch operands (FO): Fetch each operand from memory. Operands in registers need not be fetched
- Execute instruction (EI): Perform the indicated operation and store the result, if any, in the specified destination operand location.
- Write operand (WO): Store the result in memory

• Assume the various stages will be of more nearly equal duration

• Six-stage pipeline can reduce the execution time for 9 instructions

from 54 time units to 14 time units

► If the six stages are not of equal duration, there will be some waiting involved at various pipeline stages

- ► Conditional branch instruction will invalidate several instruction fetches
- ► In an unpredictable event like interrupt

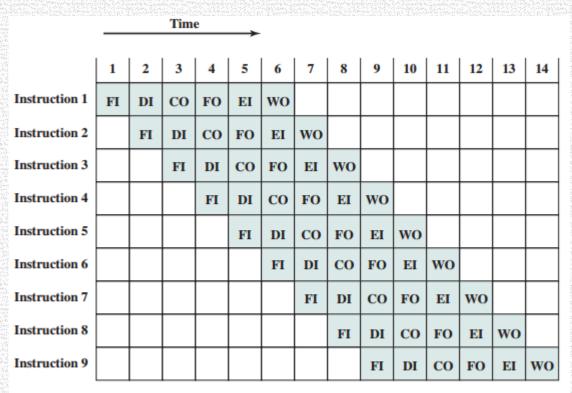


Figure 14.10 Timing Diagram for Instruction Pipeline Operation

- Assume that instruction 3 is a conditional branch to instruction 15
- Until the instruction is executed, there is no way of knowing which instruction will come next
- No instructions complete during time units
  9 through 12
- This is the performance penalty

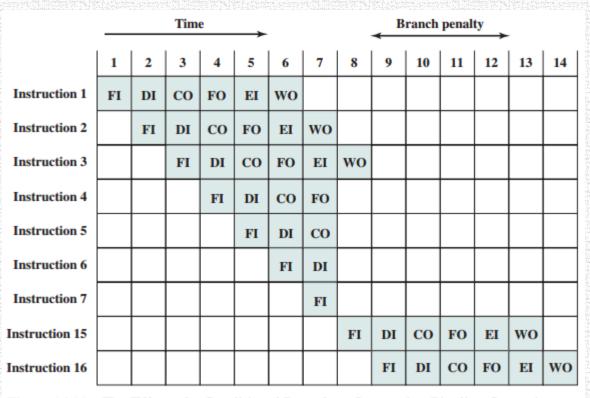


Figure 14.11 The Effect of a Conditional Branch on Instruction Pipeline Operation

• The cycle time of an instruction pipeline is the time needed to advance a set of instructions one stage through the pipeline

$$\tau = \max_{i} [\tau_i] + d = \tau_m + d \quad 1 \le i \le k$$

where

 $\tau_i$  = time delay of the circuitry in the *i*th stage of the pipeline

 $\tau_m$  = maximum stage delay (delay through stage which experiences the largest delay)

k = number of stages in the instruction pipeline

d = time delay of a latch, needed to advance signals and data from one stage to the next

In general, the time delay d is equivalent to a clock pulse and  $\tau_m \gg d$ .

- Let  $T_{k,n}$  be the total time required for a pipeline with k stages to execute n instructions  $T_{k,n} = [k + (n-1)]\tau$
- k cycles are required to complete the execution of the first instruction
- Remaining (n-1) instructions require (n-1) cycles

14 =	[6	+	(9	_	1)	]

	Time													
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Instruction 1	FI	DI	со	FO	EI	wo								
Instruction 2		FI	DI	со	FO	EI	wo							
Instruction 3			FI	DI	со	FO	EI	wo						
Instruction 4				FI	DI	со	FO	EI	wo					
Instruction 5					FI	DI	со	FO	EI	wo				
Instruction 6						FI	DI	со	FO	EI	wo			
Instruction 7							FI	DI	со	FO	EI	wo		
Instruction 8								FI	DI	со	FO	EI	wo	
Instruction 9									FI	DI	со	FO	EI	wo

Figure 14.10 Timing Diagram for Instruction Pipeline Operation

- A processor with equivalent functions but no pipeline
- Assume that the instruction cycle time is  $k\tau$
- The speedup factor for the instruction pipeline compared to execution without the pipeline is defined as

$$S_k = \frac{T_{1,n}}{T_{k,n}} = \frac{nk\tau}{[k+(n-1)]\tau} = \frac{nk}{k+(n-1)}$$

• When n tends to  $\infty$  we get a k-fold speedup

• In a CPU of 5 stage pipeline, first 2 stages take 30ns each while next 3 stages take 50ns each. Assuming no hazards occurring, calculate the speed-up of the CPU for a program of 20 instructions

$$S_k = \frac{T_{1,n}}{T_{k,n}} = \frac{nk\tau}{[k+(n-1)]\tau} = \frac{nk}{k+(n-1)}$$

### Pipeline Hazards

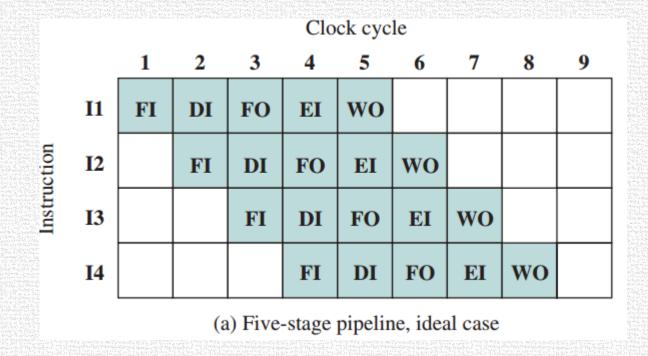
- Pipeline hazard occurs when the pipeline, or some portion of the pipeline, must stall because conditions do not permit continued execution
  - Resource Hazards
  - Data Hazards
  - Control Hazards

### Pipeline Hazards

- A resource hazard occurs when two (or more) instructions that are already in the pipeline need the same resource
- Instructions must be executed in serial rather than parallel for a portion of the pipeline

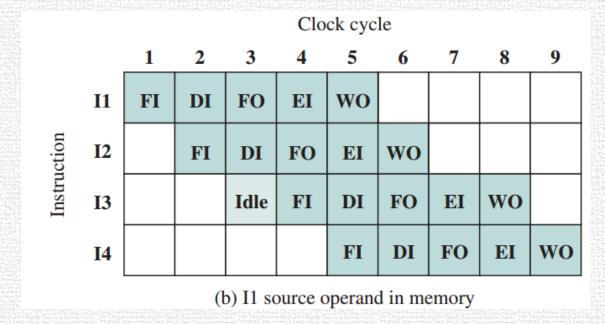
#### Resource Hazards

- Assume a simplified five-stage pipeline, in which each stage takes one clock cycle.
- In ideal case a new instruction enters the pipeline each clock cycle



#### Resource Hazards

- Assume that main memory has a single port and that all instruction fetches and data reads and writes must be performed one at a time
- An operand read to or write from memory cannot be performed in parallel with an instruction fetch
- Fetch instruction stage of the pipeline must idle for one cycle



#### Resource Hazards

- Multiple instructions are ready to enter the execute instruction phase and there is a single ALU
- Solutions to such resource
  - Having multiple ports into main memory
  - Multiple ALU units

#### Data Hazards

• A data hazard occurs when there is a conflict in the access of an operand location

As an example, consider the following x86 machine instruction sequence:

```
ADD EAX, EBX /* EAX = EAX + EBX
SUB ECX, EAX /* ECX = ECX - EAX
```

- The first instruction adds the contents of the 32-bit registers EAX and EBX and stores the result in EAX
- The second instruction subtracts the contents of EAX from ECX and stores the result in ECX
- Such a data hazard results in inefficient pipeline usage

#### Data Hazards

- The ADD instruction does not update register EAX until the end of stage 5
- SUB instruction needs that value at the beginning of its stage 2, which occurs at clock cycle 4
- The pipeline must stall for two clocks cycles

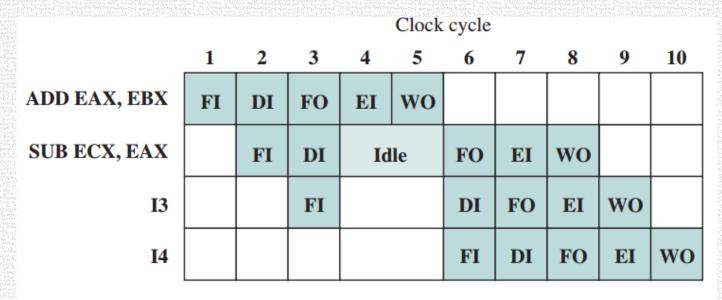


Figure 14.16 Example of Data Hazard

#### Control Hazards

• Pipeline makes the wrong decision on a branch prediction and brings instructions into the pipeline

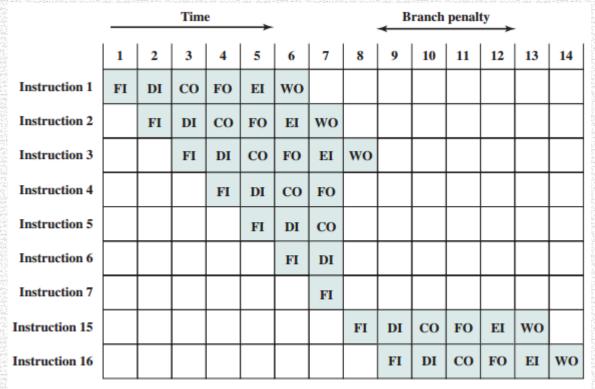


Figure 14.11 The Effect of a Conditional Branch on Instruction Pipeline Operation

#### Reference

- William Stallings Computer Organization and Architecture Designing for Performance (9th Edition)
  - 14.1 Processor Organization
  - 14.2 Register Organization
  - 14.3 Instruction Cycle
  - 14.4 Instruction Pipelining

#### Questions

- List FIVE things done by a processor.
- Explain the stages of Instruction cycle using a diagram.
- Explain the data flow of the fetch cycle using a diagram.
- Derive a equation for Speed-up  $S_{k,n}$  as a function of n-number executed instructions, and k- number of stages of the pipeline assuming ideal conditions
- Explain how data hazard occurs in Instruction Pipelining.