

CPE300: Digital System Architecture and Design

Fall 2011

MW 17:30-18:45 CBC C316

Simple RISC Computer

09122011

Outline

- Recap
- Addressing Modes
- Simple RISC Computer (SRC)
- Register Transfer Notation (RTN)

3,2,1,& 0 Address Instructions

- 3 address instruction
 - Specifies memory addresses for both operands and the result
 - $R \leftarrow \text{Op1 op Op2}$
- 2 address instruction
 - Overwrites one operand in memory with the result
 - $\text{Op2} \leftarrow \text{Op1 op Op2}$
- 1 address instruction
 - Single accumulator register to hold one operand & the result (no address needed)
 - $\text{Acc} \leftarrow \text{Acc op Op1}$
- 0 address
 - Uses a CPU register stack to hold both operands and the result
 - $\text{TOS} \leftarrow \text{TOS op SOS}$ (TOS is Top Of Stack, SOS is Second On Stack)

Example 2.1

- Evaluate $a = (b+c) * d - e$
- for 3- 2- 1- and 0-address machines
- What is size of program and amount of memory traffic in bytes?

Example 2.1

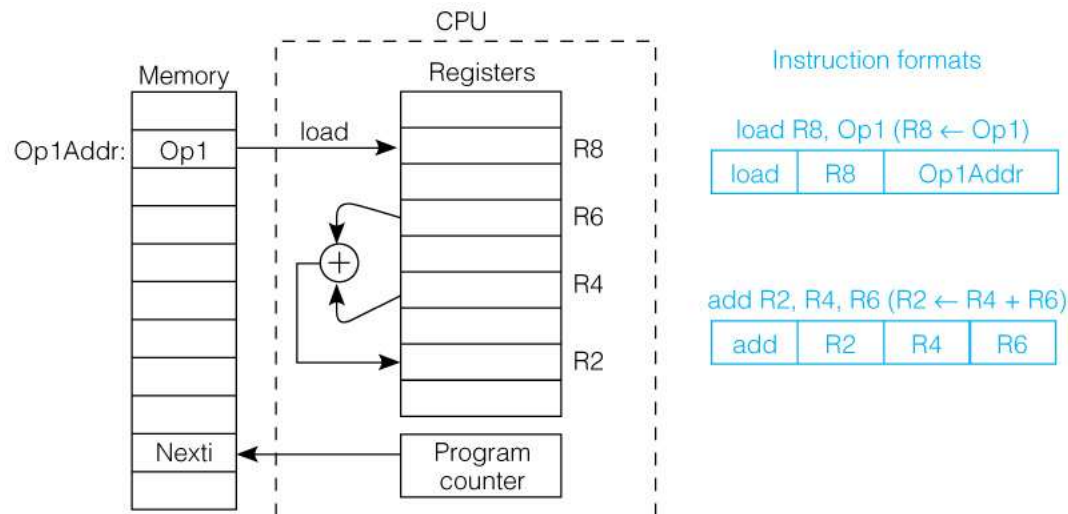
Instructions	3-Address	2-Address	1-Address	0-Address
	add a, b, c	load a, b	lda b	push b
	mult a, a, d	add a, c	add c	push c
	sub a, a, e	mult a, d	mult d	add
		sub a, e	sub e	push d
			sta a	mult
				push e
				sub
				pop a

Bytes size

	3-Address	2-Address	1-Address	0-Address
Instruction	30	28	20	23
Memory	27	33	15	15
Total	57	61	35	38

Fig. 2.8 General Register Machines

- Most common choice for general purpose computers
- Registers specified by “small” address (3 to 6 bits for 8 to 64 registers)
 - Close to CPU for speed and reuse for complex operations



1-1/2 Address Instructions

- “Small” register address = half address
- 1-1/2 addresses
 - Load/store have one long & one short address
 - 2-operand arithmetic instruction has 3 half addresses

Instruction formats

load R8, Op1 ($R8 \leftarrow \text{Op1}$)

load	R8	Op1Addr
------	----	---------

add R2, R4, R6 ($R2 \leftarrow R4 + R6$)

add	R2	R4	R6
-----	----	----	----

Real Machines

- General registers offer greatest flexibility
 - Possible because of low price of memory
- Most real machines have a mixture of 3, 2, 1, 0, 1-1/2 address instructions
 - A distinction can be made on whether arithmetic instructions use data from memory
- Load-store machine
 - Registers used for operands and results of ALU instructions
 - Only load and store instructions reference memory
- Other machines have a mix of register-memory and memory-memory instructions

Instructions/Register Trade-Offs

- 3-address machines have shortest code but large number of bits per instruction
- 0-address machines have longest code but small number of bits per instruction
 - Still require 1-address (push, pop) instructions
- General register machines use short internal register addresses in place of long memory addresses
- Load-store machines only allow memory addresses in data movement instructions (load, store)
- Register access is much faster than memory access
- Short instructions are faster

Addressing Modes

- Addressing mode is hardware support for a useful way of determining a memory address
- Different addressing modes solve different HLL problems
 - Some addresses may be known at compile time, e.g. global vars.
 - Others may not be known until run time, e.g. pointers
 - Addresses may have to be computed
 - Record (struct) components:
 - $\text{variable base}(\text{full address}) + \text{const.}(\text{small})$
 - Array components:
 - $\text{const. base}(\text{full address}) + \text{index var.}(\text{small})$
- Possible to store constant values without using another memory cell by storing them with or adjacent to the instruction itself.

HLL Examples of Structured Addresses

- C language: $\text{Rec} \rightarrow \text{Count}$
 - Rec is a pointer to a record: full address variable
 - count is a field name: fixed byte offset, say 24
- C language: $v[i]$
 - v is fixed base address of array: full address constant
 - i is name of variable index: no larger than array size
- Variables must be contained in registers or memory cells
- Small constants can be contained in the instruction
- Result: need for “address arithmetic.”
 - E.g. Address of $\text{Rec} \rightarrow \text{Count}$ is address of $\text{Rec} + \text{offset of Count}$.

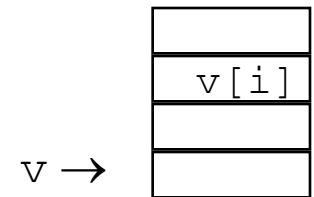
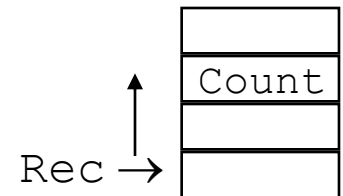
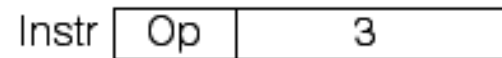


Fig 2.9 Common Addressing Modes a-d

(a) Immediate addressing:

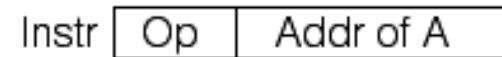
instruction contains
the operand



load #3, ...

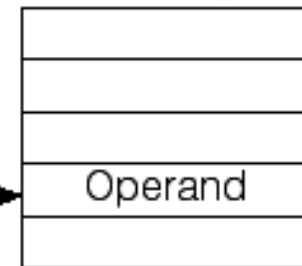
(b) Direct addressing:

instruction contains
address of operand



load A, ...

Memory



(c) Indirect addressing:

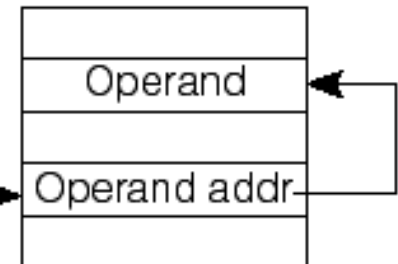
instruction contains
address of address
of operand

Address of address of A



load (A), ...

Memory



Two Memory Accesses!

(d) Register direct addressing:

register contains operand



load R1, ...

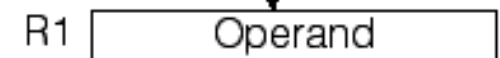
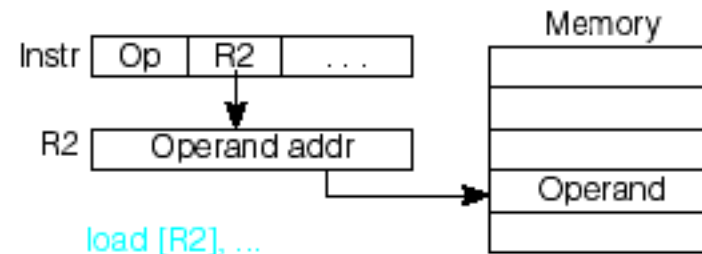


Fig 2.9 Common Addressing Modes e-g

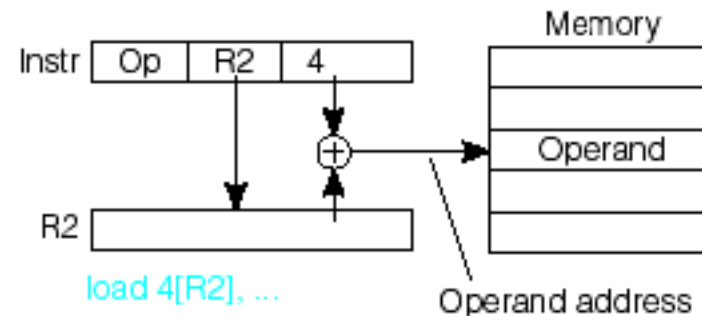
(e) Register indirect addressing:

register contains address of operand



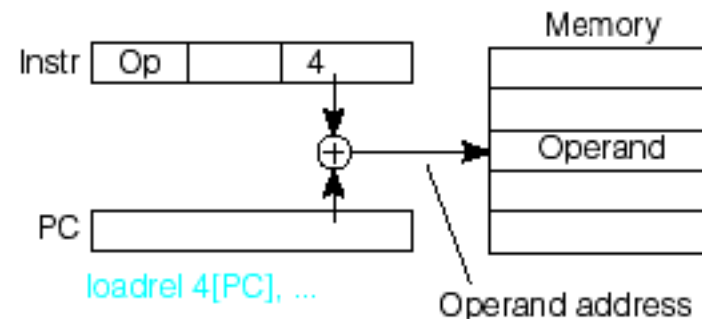
(f) Displacement (based or indexed) addressing:

address of operand = register + constant



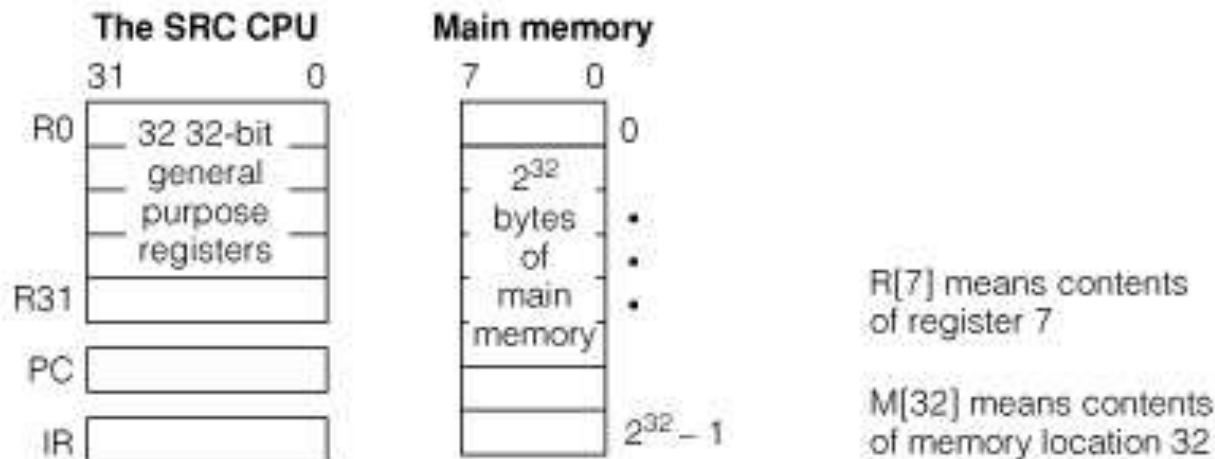
(g) Relative addressing:

address of operand = PC + constant



Simple RISC Computer (SRC)

- 32 general purpose registers (32 bits wide)
- 32 bit program counter (PC) and instruction register (IR)
- 2^{32} bytes of memory address space
- Use C-style array referencing for addresses



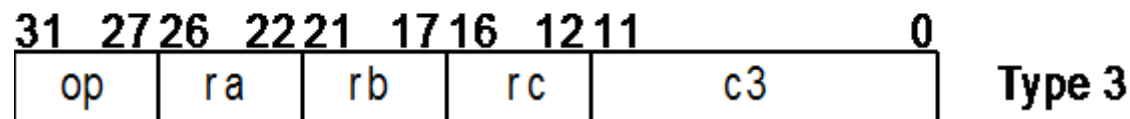
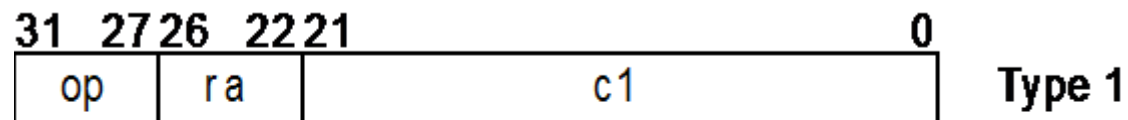
SRC Memory

- 2^{32} bytes of memory address space
- Access is 32 bit words
 - 4 bytes make up word, requires 4 addresses
 - Lower address contains most significant bits (msb) – highest least significant bits (lsb)

	1000				
W0	1001	Bits	31	23	15
W1	1002	Address			7
W2	1003	Value	1001	1002	1003
W4	1004		W0	W1	W2
	1005				W3

SRC Basic Instruction Formats

- There are three basic instruction format types
- The number of register specific fields and length of the constant field vary
- Other formats result from unused fields or parts



Instruction formats

Example

1. ld, st, ls,
addi, andi, ori



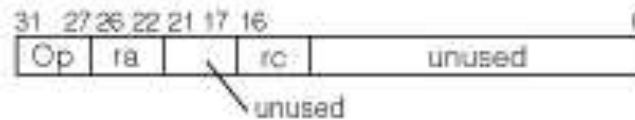
ld r3, A $(R[3] = M[A])$
ld r3, 4(r5) $(R[3] = M[R[5] + 4])$
addi r2, r4, 1 $(R[2] = R[4] + 1)$

2. ldr, str, lsr



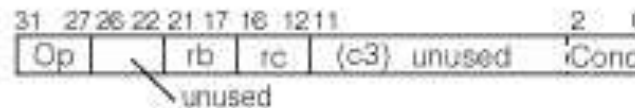
ldr r5, B $(R[5] = M[PC + 8])$
lsr r6, 45 $(R[6] = PC + 45)$

3. neg, not



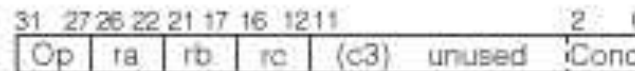
neg r7, r9 $(R[7] = -R[9])$

4. b*



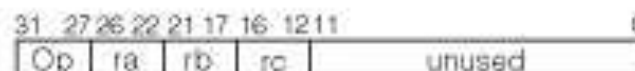
b* r4, r0
(branch to R[4] if R[0] == 0)

5. brl



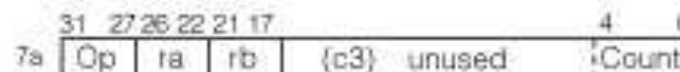
brlnz r6, r4, r0
(R[6] = PC; branch to R[4] if R[0] != 0)

6. add, sub,
andi, ori

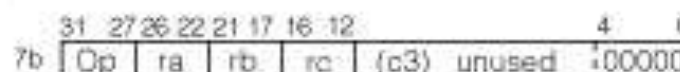


add r0, r2, r4 $(R[0] = R[2] + R[4])$

7. shr, shra
shl, shc



shr r0, r1, 4
(R[0] = R[1] shifted right by 4 bits)



shl r2, r4, r6
(R[2] = R[4] shifted left by count in R[6])

8. nop, stop



stop

Notice the unused space

Trade-off between
- Fixed instruction size
- Wasted memory space

Ch3 -
single instruction
per clock cycle

SRC Characteristics

- (=) Load-store design - only memory access through load/store instructions
- (–) Operations on 32-bit words only (no byte or half-word operations)
- (=) Only a few addressing modes are supported
- (=) ALU instructions are 3-registertype
- (–) Branch instructions can branch unconditionally or conditionally on whether the value in a specified register is = 0, <> 0, >= 0, or < 0.
- (–) Branch-and-link instructions are similar, but leave the value of current PC in any register, useful for subroutine return.
- (–) Can only branch to an address in a register, not to a direct address.
- (=) All instructions are 32-bits (1-word) long.

(=) – Similar to commercial RISC machines

(–) – Less powerful than commercial RISC machines

SRC Assembly Language

- Full Instruction listing available in Appendix B.5
- Form of line of SRC assembly code

`Label: opcode operands ; comments`

- `Label:` = assembly defined symbol
 - Could be constant, label, etc. – very useful but not always present
- `Opcode` = machine instruction or pseudo-op
- `Operands` = registers and constants
 - Comma separated
 - Values assumed to be decimal unless indicated (B, ox)

SRC Load/Store Instructions

- Load/store design provides only access to memory
- Address can be constant, constant+register, or constant+PC
- Memory contents or address itself can be loaded

Instruction	op	ra	rb	c2	Meaning	Addressing Mode
ld r1, 32	1	1	0	32	$R[1] \leftarrow M[32]$	Direct
ld r22, 24(r4)	1	22	4	24	$R[22] \leftarrow M[24+R[4]]$	Displacement
st r4, 0(r9)	3	4	9	0	$M[R[9]] \leftarrow R[4]$	Register indirect
la r7, 32	5	7	0	32	$R[7] \leftarrow 32$	Immediate
ldr r12, -48	2	12	—	-48	$R[12] \leftarrow M[PC -48]$	Relative
lar r3, 0	6	3	—	0	$R[3] \leftarrow PC$	Register (!)

 Note: use of la to load constant

SRC ALU Instructions

Format	Example	Meaning
neg ra, rc	neg r1, r2	;Negate (r1 = -r2)
not ra, rc	not r2, r3	;Not (r2 = r3')
add ra, rb, rc	add r2, r3, r4	;2's complement addition
sub ra, rb, rc		;2's complement subtraction
and ra, rb, rc		;Logical and
or ra, rb, rc		;Logical or
addi ra, rb, c2	addi r1, r3, 1	;Immediate 2's complement add
andi ra, rb, c2		;Immediate logical and
ori ra, rb, c2		;Immediate logical or

- Note:
 - No multiply instruction (can be done based on addition)
 - Immediate subtract not needed since constant in addi may be negative (take care of sign bit)

SRC Branch Instruction

- Only 2 branch opcodes

```
br rb, rc, c3<2..0>           ;branch to R[rb] if R[rc] meets
                               ;the condition defined by c3<2..0>

brl ra, rb, rc, c3<2..0>      ;R[ra] ← PC, branch as above
```

- $c3<2..0>$, the 3 lsbs of $c3$, that define the branch condition

<u>lsbs</u>	<u>condition</u>	<u>Assy language form</u>	<u>Example</u>
000	never	brlnv	brlnv r6
001	always	br, brl	br r5, brl r5
010	if $rc = 0$	brzr, brlzt	brzr r2, r4
011	if $rc \neq 0$	brnz, brlnz	
100	if $rc \geq 0$	brpl, brlpl	
101	if $rc < 0$	brmi, brlmi	

- Note: branch target address is always in register $R[rb]$
 - Must be placed in register explicitly by a previous instruction

Branch Instruction Examples

Ass'y lang.	Example instr.	Meaning	op	ra	rb	rc	c3 ⟨2..0⟩	Branch Cond'n.
brlnv	brlnv r6	$R[6] \leftarrow PC$	9	6	—	—	000	never
br	br r4	$PC \leftarrow R[4]$	8	—	4	—	001	always
brl	brl r6,r4	$R[6] \leftarrow PC;$ $PC \leftarrow R[4]$	9	6	4	—	001	always
brzr	brzr r5,r1	if ($R[1]=0$) $PC \leftarrow R[5]$	8	—	5	1	010	zero
brlzt	brlzt r7,r5,r1	$R[7] \leftarrow PC;$	9	7	5	1	010	zero
brnz	brnz r1, r0	if ($R[0] \neq 0$) $PC \leftarrow R[1]$	8	—	1	0	011	nonzero
brlnz	brlnz r2,r1,r0	$R[2] \leftarrow PC;$ if ($R[0] \neq 0$) $PC \leftarrow R[1]$	9	2	1	0	011	nonzero
brpl	brpl r3, r2	if ($R[2] \geq 0$) $PC \leftarrow R[3]$	8	—	3	2	100	plus
brlpl	brlpl r4,r3,r2	$R[4] \leftarrow PC;$ if ($R[2] \geq 0$) $PC \leftarrow R[3]$	9	4	3	2		plus
brmi	brmi r0, r1	if ($R[1] < 0$) $PC \leftarrow R[0]$	8	—	0	1	101	minus
brlmi	brlmi r3,r0,r1	$R[3] \leftarrow PC;$ if ($r1 < 0$) $PC \leftarrow R[0]$	9	3	0	1		minus

Unconditional Branch Example

- C code
 - `goto Label3`

- SRC

```
lar r0, Label3    ;load branch target address into register r0  
br r0             ;branch
```

```
...
```

```
Label3           ...           ;branch address
```


Conditional Branch Example

- C definition

```
#define Cost 125
if(X<0) x = -x;
```

- SRC assembly

```

        .org 0
Cost:    .equ 125          ;define symbolic constant
        .org 1000         ;next word loaded at address 100010

X:       .dw 1             ;reserve 1 word for variable X
        .org 5000         ;program will be loaded at 500010

        lar r0, Over      ;load address of false jump locations
        ld r1, X           ;get value of X into r1
        brpl r0, r1        ;branch to r0 if r1 >= 0
        neg r1, r1         ;negate r1 value

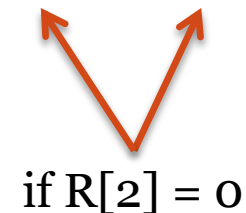
Over:    ...
```

Pseudo-Operations

- Not part of ISA but assembly specific
 - Known as assembler directives
 - No machine code generated – for use by assembler, linker, loader
- Pseudo-ops
 - `.org` = origin
 - `.equ` = equate
 - `.dx` = define (word, half-word, byte)

Synthetic Instructions

- Single instruction (not in machine language) that assembler accepts and converts to single instruction in machine language
 - `CLR R0` `andi r0, r0, 0`
 - `MOVE D0, D1` `or r1, r0, r0`
 - (Other instructions possible besides `and` and `or`)
- Only synthetic instructions in SRC are conditional branches
 - `brzr r1, r2` `br r1, r2, 010`



Miscellaneous Instructions

- `nop` – no operation
 - Place holder or time waster
 - Essential for pipelined implementations
- `stop`
 - Halts program execution, sets Run to zeros
 - Useful for debugging purposes

Register Transfer Notation (RTN)

- Provides a formal means of describing machine structure and function
 - Mix natural language and mathematical expressions
- Does not replace hardware description languages.
 - Formal description and design of electronic circuits (digital logic) – operation, organization, etc.
- Abstract RTN
 - Describes what a machine does without the how
- Concrete RTN
 - Describe a particular hardware implementation (how it is done)
- Meta-language = language to describe machine language

RTN Symbol Definitions (Appendix B.4)

\leftarrow	Register transfer: register on LHS stores value from RHS
$[]$	Word index: selects word or range from named memory
$\langle \rangle$	Bit index: selects bit or bit range from named memory
$n..m$	Index range: from left index n to right index m ; can be decreasing
\rightarrow	If-then: true condition of left yields value and/or action on right
$:=$	Definition: text substitution with dummy variables
$\#$	Concatenation: bits on right appended to bits on left
$:$	Parallel separator: actions or evaluations carried out simultaneously
$;$	Sequential separator: RHS evaluated and/or performed after LHS
$@$	Replication: LHS repetitions of RHS are concatenated
$\{ \}$	Operation modifier: information about preceding operation, e.g., arithmetic type
$()$	Operation or value grouping
$= \neq < \leq \geq >$	Comparison operators: produce binary logical values
$+ - \div \times$	Arithmetic operators
$\wedge \vee \neg \oplus \equiv$	Logical operators: and, or, not, xor, equivalence

Specification Language Notes

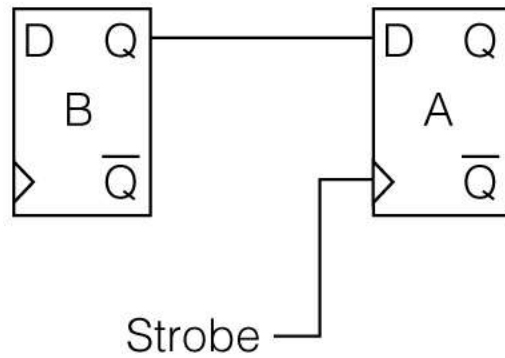
- They allow the description of *what* without having to specify *how*.
- They allow precise and unambiguous specifications, unlike natural language.
- They reduce errors:
 - errors due to misinterpretation of imprecise specifications written in natural language
 - errors due to confusion in design and implementation - “human error.”
- Now the designer must debug the specification!
- Specifications can be automatically checked and processed by tools.
 - An RTN specification could be input to a simulator generator that would produce a simulator for the specified machine.
 - An RTN specification could be input to a compiler generator that would generate a compiler for the language, whose output could be run on the simulator.

Logic Circuits in ISA

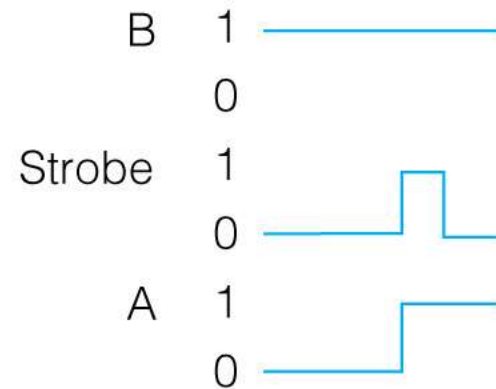
- Logic circuits
 - Gates (AND, OR, NOT) for Boolean expressions
 - Flip-flops for state variables
- Computer design
 - Circuit components support data transmission and storage as well

Logic Circuits for Register Transfer

- RTN statement $A \leftarrow B$



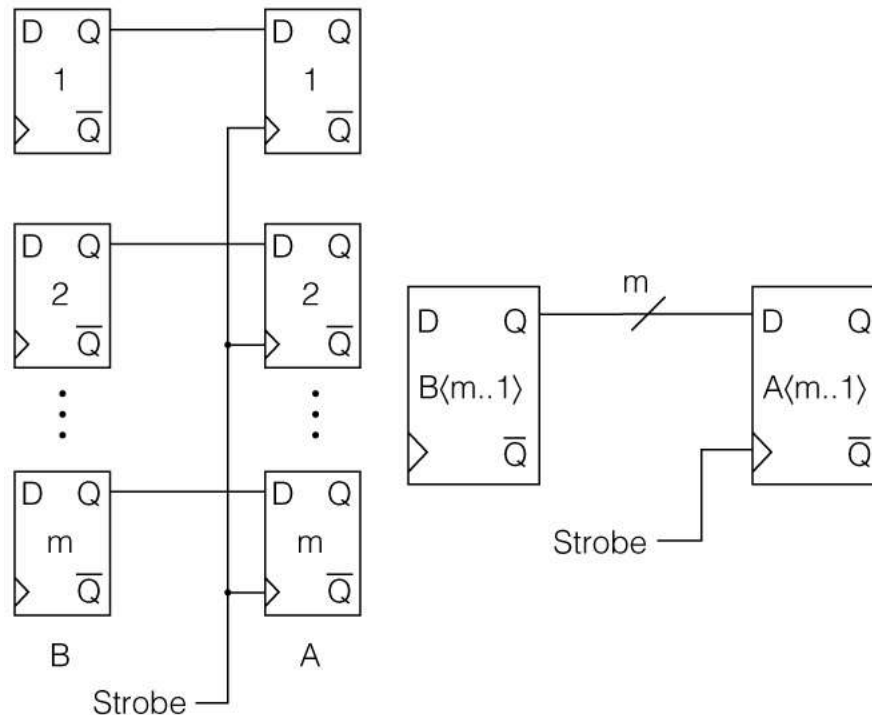
(a) Hardware



(b) Timing

Multi-Bit Register Transfer

- Implementing $A\langle m..1 \rangle \leftarrow B\langle m..1 \rangle$

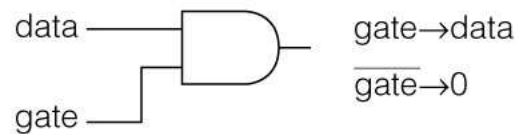


(a) Individual flip-flops

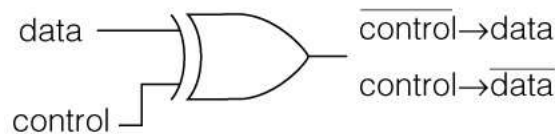
(b) Abbreviated notation

Logic Gates and Data Transmission

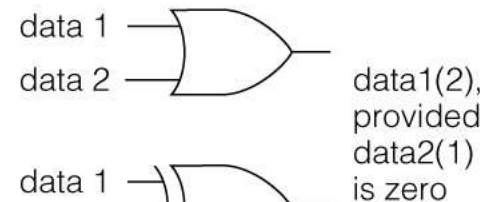
- Logic gates can control transmission of data



Data gate



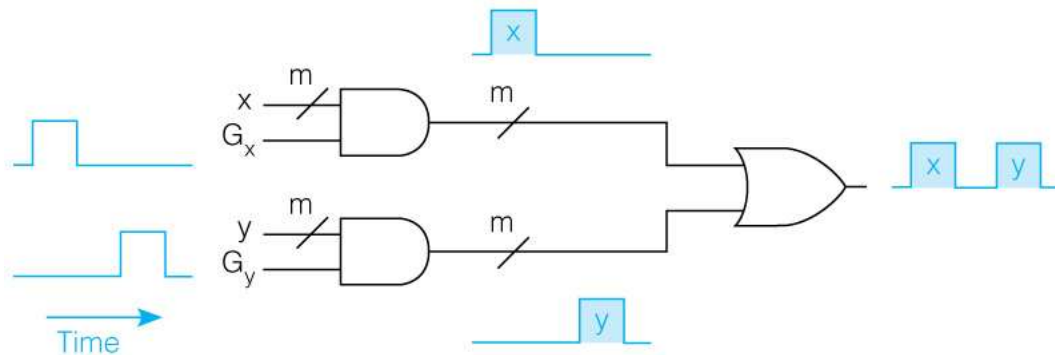
Controlled complement



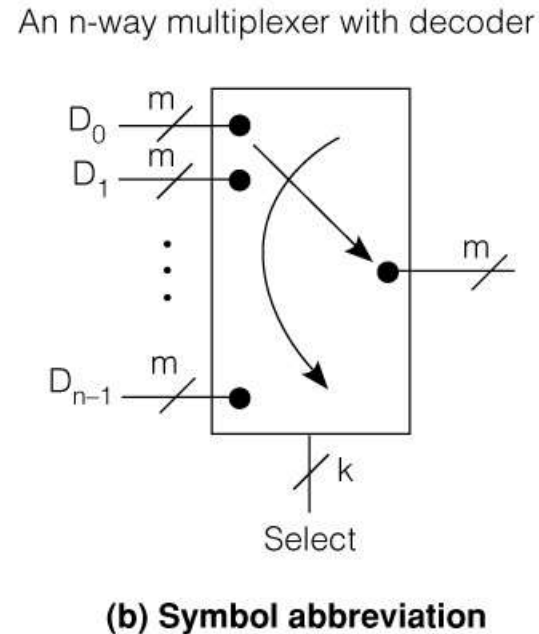
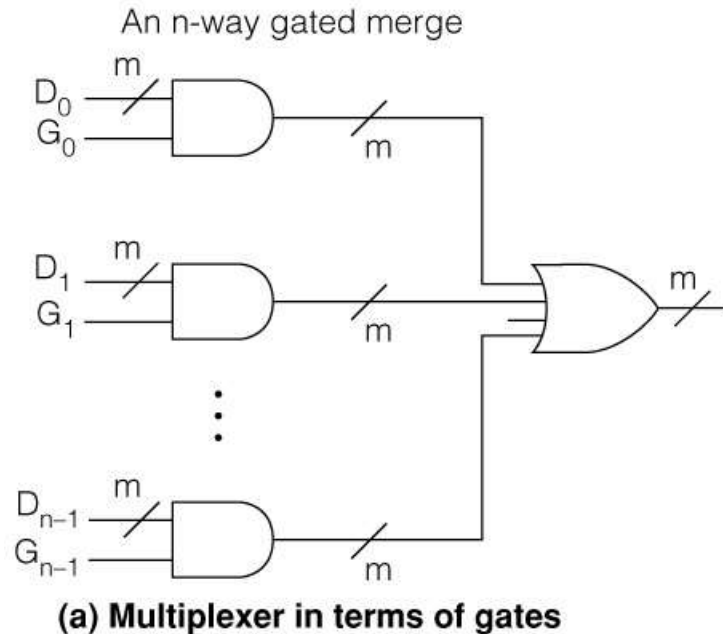
Data merge

2-Way Multiplexer

- Data from multiple sources can be selected for transmission



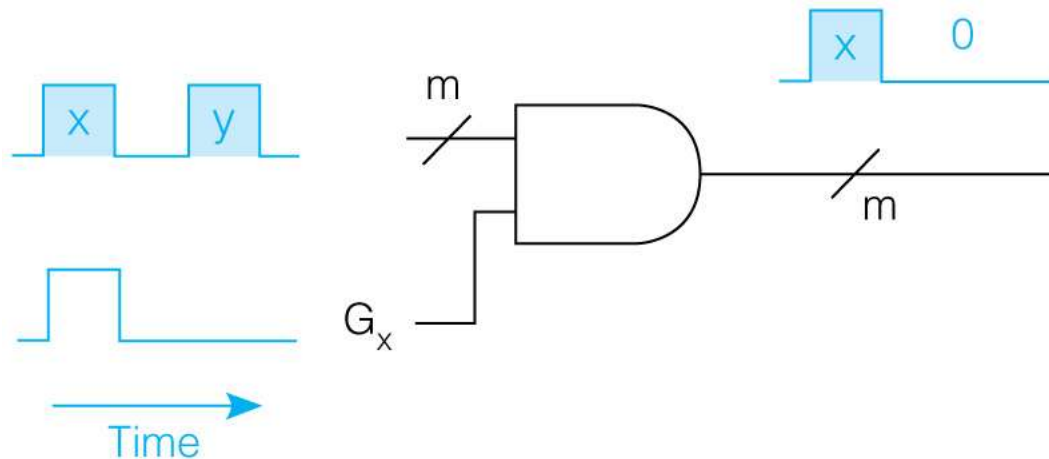
m-Bit Multiplexer



- Multiplexer gate signals G_i may be produced by a binary to one-out-of n decoder
 - How many gates with how many inputs?
 - What is relationship between k and n ?

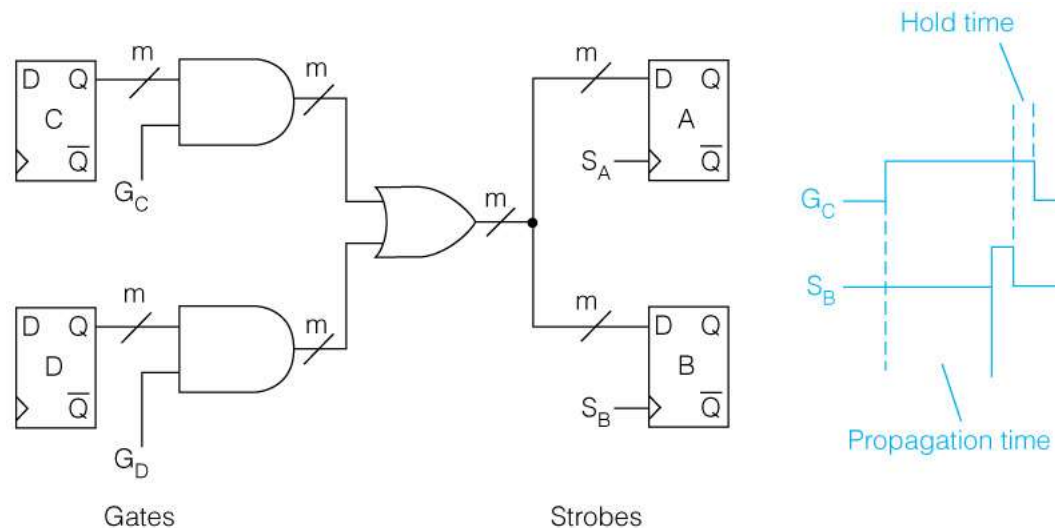
Separating Merged Data

- Merged data can be separated by gating at appropriate time
 - Can be strobed into a flip-flop when valid



Multiplexed Transfers using Gates and Strobes

- Selected gate and strobe determine which Register is transferred to where.
 - $A \leftarrow C$, and $B \leftarrow C$ can occur together, but not $A \leftarrow C$, and $B \leftarrow D$

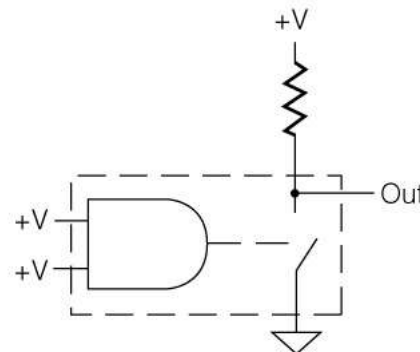


Open-Collector Bus

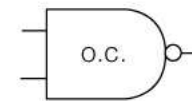
- Bus is a shared datapath (as in previous slides)
- Multiplexer is difficult to wire
 - Or-gate has large number of inputs ($m \times \# \text{gated inputs}$)
- Open-collector NAND gate to the rescue

Inputs		Output	
0v	0v	Open	(Out = +V)
0v	+V	Open	(Out = +V)
+V	0v	Open	(Out = +V)
+V	+V	Closed	(Out = 0v)

(a) Open-collector NAND truth table



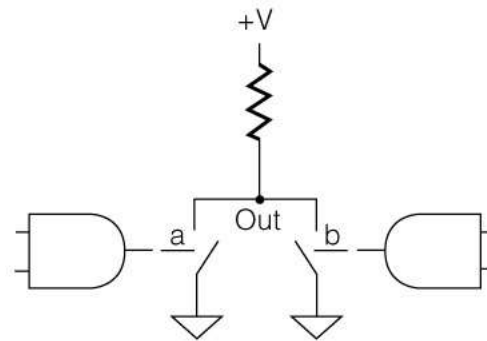
(b) Open-collector NAND



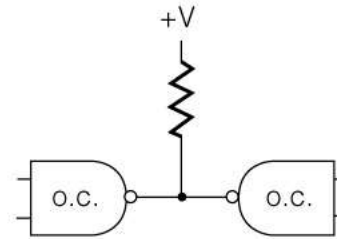
(c) Symbol

Wired AND Connection

- Connect outputs of 2 OC NAND gates
 - Only get high value when both gates are open



(a) Wired AND connection



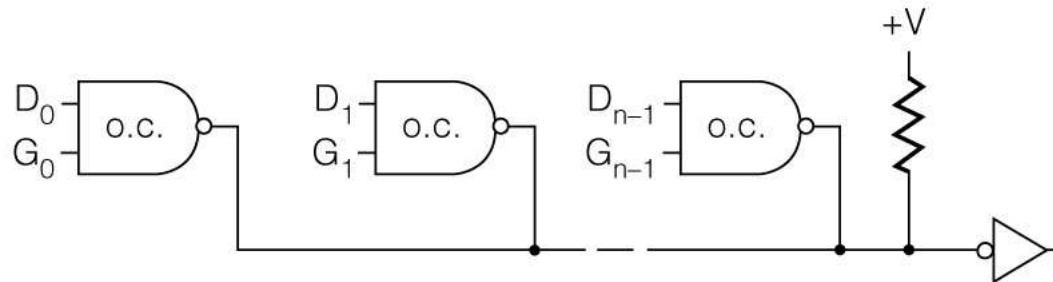
(b) With symbols

Switch		Wired AND output
a	b	
Closed(0)	Closed(0)	0v (0)
Closed(0)	Open (1)	0v (0)
Open (1)	Closed(0)	0v (0)
Open (1)	Open (1)	+V (1)

(c) Truth table

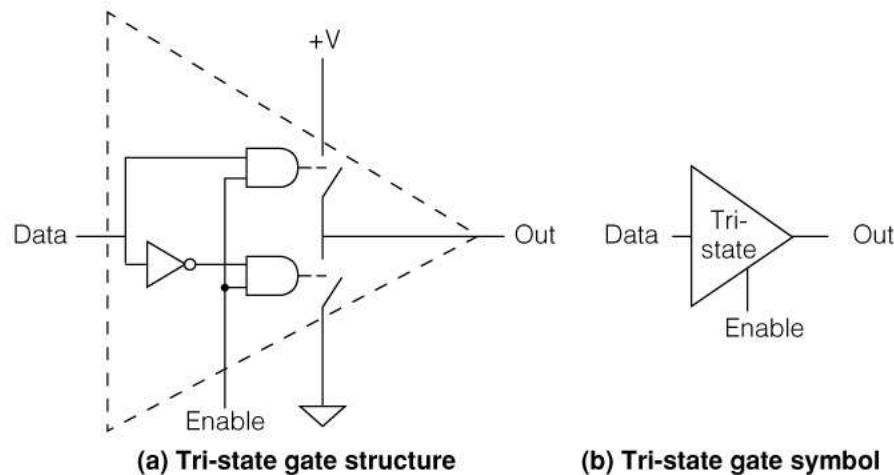
Wired-OR Bus

- Convert AND to OR using DeMorgan's Law
- Single pull-up resistor for whole bus
- OR distributed over the entire connection



Tri-State Gate

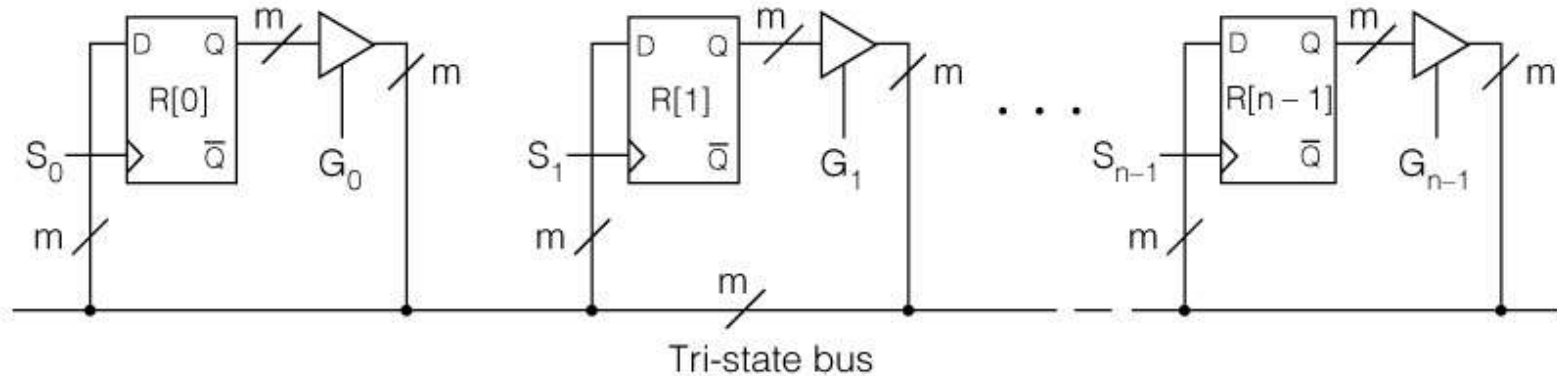
- Controlled gating
 - Only one gate active at a time
 - Undefined output when not active



Enable	Data	Output
0	0	Hi-Z
0	1	Hi-Z
1	0	0
1	1	1

(c) Tri-state gate truth table

Tri-State Bus



- Can make any register transfer $R[i] \leftarrow R[j]$
- Only single gate may be active at a time
 - $G_i \neq G_j$

Chapter 2 Summary

- Classes of computer ISAs
- Memory addressing modes
- SRC: a complete example ISA
- RTN as a description method for ISAs
- RTN description of addressing modes
- Implementation of RTN operations with digital logic circuits
- Gates, strobes, and multiplexers