# CPE300: Digital System Architecture and Design

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Arithmetic Unit 10032011

http://www.egr.unlv.edu/~b1morris/cpe300/

#### Outline

- Recap Chapter 3
- Number Systems
- Fixed Point Arithmetic

# The Motorola MC68000

- Introduced in 1979
  - Computers



- Apple Lisa 2, Apple Macintosh 128, Atari 520STfm and 1040STfm, Commodore Amiga 500 and 1000
- Still in use today (now Freescale Semiconductor)
- Very early 32-bit microprocessor
  - Most operations on 32-bit internal data
  - Some operations may use different number of bits
  - External datapaths may not all be 32 bits wide
    - 24-bit address bus for MC68000
- Complex instruction set computer
  - Large instruction set
  - 14 addressing modes



die

# Motorola MC68000 Highlights

- CISC has many addressing modes and instruction formats
  - Pack as much functionality as possible into small word size
- 16-bit instruction load
  - Some instructions multiple words
- Interrupts and traps (a real machine)
- Memory mapped I/O

# New Concepts from MC68000

- Variable length instructions
  - Large instruction set, variable format
- Operation on many different types
  - Must specify byte, word, longword
- Effective address (EA) calculation
  - 14 Addressing modes
- Subroutines
  - E.g. function calls
- Exceptions
  - Interruption of normal sequential instruction execution
- Memory-mapped I/O
  - Part of CPU memory reserved for I/O

#### MC68000 Programmer's Model



#### **Features of Processor State**

- Distinction between 32-bit data registers and 32-bit address registers
- 16 bit instruction register
  - Variable length instructions handled 16 bits at a time
- Stack pointer registers
  - User and system stack pointers
- Condition code register: System & User bytes
  - Arithmetic status (N, Z, V, C, X) is in user status byte
  - System status has Supervisor & Trace mode flags and the Interrupt Mask

## Main Memory

- Main memory:
  - Mb [0..2<sup>24</sup>-1]<7..0>: memory as bytes
  - Mw[ad]<15..0> := Mb[ad]#Mb[ad+1]: memory as words
  - Ml[ad]<31..0> := Mw[ad]#Mw[ad+2]: memory as
    longwords
- Word and longword forms are big-endian
  - Lowest numbered byte contains most significant bit of word
- Hard word alignment constraints
  - Not described in the RTN
  - Word addresses must in end in on binary o
  - Longword addresses end in two binary o

## Addressing Mode Highlights

 General address of operand specified by 6-bit effective address field



- Modes o-6 use a register to calculate a memory address
  - Based offset modes (5-6) require an extra word (16bits) to specify address
- Mode 7 does not use a register
  - Functionality is expanded by repurposing reg field
  - All variants require extra words to complete the instruction and specify the memory address

### MC68000 Instruction Types

- Instruction fields not standardized
  - Maximize instructions in limited word size (bits)
    Operates on different types (B, W, L)
- Data movement instructions
  - CC can be set during move
- ALU instructions
  - I EA, 1 Dn operand
  - Destination specified by 3-bit mode field
- Program control instructions
  - Use 16 condition codes
  - Has subroutine specific instructions

## Exceptions

- Changes sequential instruction execution
  - Next instruction fetch not from PC location
  - Exception vector
    - Address supplying the next instruction
  - 7 levels of priority
- Arise from instruction execution, hardware faults, external conditions
  - Interrupts externally generated exceptions
  - ALU overflow, power failure, completion of I/O operation, out of range memory access, etc.
- Trace bit = 1 causes exception after every instruction
  - Used for debugging

# Memory-Mapped I/O

- Part of CPU memory is devoted/reserved for I/O
  - No separate I/O space
  - Not popular for machines having limited address bits
- Single bus needed for memory and I/O
  - Less packaging pins
- Size of I/O and memory spaces independent
  - Many or few I/O devices may be installed
  - Much or little memory may be installed
- Spaces are separated by putting I/O at the top end of address space

24-bit address space with top 32K reserved for I/O



Notice top 32K can be addressed by a negative 16-bit value

#### The SPARC Microprocessor

- Scalable Processor Architecture (SPARC)
  RISC microprocessor architecture
  Not a machine specification for implementation
- General register, load/store architecture
- Only 2 addressing modes
  - Reg + Reg
  - Reg + 13-bit constant
- Only 69 basic instructions
  - 32-bit instruction length
  - Separate floating point handling
    - 3 processing units integer unit, FP unit, coprocesser

# SPARC Highlights

- RISC machine has fewer simple instructions
  - Multistep arithmetic operations happen in special units
  - Regular instruction formats and few addressing modes simplify instruction decode
- Load/store machine with ALU only on registers
- Use of branch delays for 4 stage pipeline
- Use of register windows
  - Extend register space for fewer memory operations

# SPARC Processor State

- 32-bit general registers
  - Integer and floating point separate
- Brach delays
  - Requires 2 program counters
- Processor-status register (PSR)
  - Condition codes
- Window-invalid mask (WIM)
  - Used for register windows
- Trap base register
  - Traps and interrupts



## **Register Windows**

- High percentage of memory traffic for saving and restoring registers during procedure calls
  - More registers = less memory traffic
  - Reduce overhead of calls
- Only a small subset of registers is visible to the programmer at a given time (within procedure)
  - Dedicated but overlapping registers groups
    - Global
    - Input parameters
    - Output parameters
    - Local registers
  - Overlap designed to prevent swapping of registers
    - Output parameters in one window become input parameters in the next

#### **Register Windows Mechanism**



#### Window Specifics

- CWP points to register currently called r8
   save moves CWP to former r24
  - restore reverses process
- Parameters placed in r24..r31 by caller are available in r8..r15 by callee
- Spill := attempt to save when all windows have been used
  - save traps to routine to store registers to memory
  - Window wraps around like a circular buffer
    - On overflow, first window is reused

## Main Memory

- Main memory:
  - Mb[0..2<sup>32</sup>-1]<7..0>: memory as bytes
  - Mh[ad]<15..0> := Mb[ad]#Mb[ad+1]: memory as halfwords
  - Mw[ad]<31..0> := Mh[ad]#Mh[ad+2]: memory as words
- Word and halfword forms are big-endian
  - Lowest numbered byte contains most significant bit of word
- Hard word alignment constraints
  - Not described in the RTN
  - Word addresses must in end in binary oo

## Addressing Modes

- Only 2 modes for load/store
  - Sum of two registers
  - Sum of register and sign extended 13-bit constant
- Allows for a variety of addressing modes can be synthesized
  - Indexed
    - Base in one register, index in another
  - Register indirect
    - g0 + rn ; r0 = 0
  - Displacement
    - rn + const. ; n≠0
  - Absolute
    - g0 + const.
    - Can only reach the bottom or top 4K bytes of memory

#### **RTN for Instruction Interpretation**

Instruction\_interpretation := (

- Notice execution occurs before PC updates
  2 PC values to update because of delayed branch
- Interrupts not mentioned in this simple RTN statement

## SPARC MB86900 Pipeline



- 4 stage pipeline
  - Results written to registers in write stage
  - A new inst. is started (issued) before previously issued instructions are complete
  - Instructions guaranteed to complete in order

# RISC vs. CISC Designs

- CISC: Complex Instruction Set Computer
  - Many complex instructions and addressing modes
  - Some instructions take many steps to execute
    - Varying lengths of time
  - Not always easy to find best instruction for a task
- RISC: Reduced Instruction Set Computer
  - Pipeline friendly
    - Few, simple instructions, addressing modes
    - Usually one word per instruction
    - May take several instructions to accomplish what CISC can do in one
    - Should be able to finish (nearly) one instruction per clock cycle
  - Complex address calculations may take several instructions
  - Usually has load-store, general register ISA

# **Problem Solving**

- Homework problems
- 3.1
- 3.2
- 3.3

## Chapter 6

- Number Systems and Radix Conversion
- Fixed-Point Arithmetic
- Seminumeric Aspects of ALU Design
- Floating-Point Arithmetic

#### **Digital Number Systems**

- Expanded generalization of lecture 07 topics
- Number systems have a base (radix) b
- Positional notation of an m digit base b number

• 
$$x = x_{m-1}x_{m-2} \dots x_1 x_0$$
  
• Value $(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} x_i b^i$ 

#### Range of Representation

- Largest number has all digits equal to largest possible base *b* digit, (*b* − 1)
- Max value in closed form for unsigned m digit base b number

• 
$$x_{\max} = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} (b-1) b^i$$
  
•  $x_{\max} = (b-1) \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} b^i = (b-1) \left(\frac{b^{m-1}}{b-1}\right)$   
•  $x_{\max} = b^m - 1$ 

• Sum of geometric series •  $\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} b^i = \left(\frac{b^m - 1}{b - 1}\right)$ 

## Radix Conversion

- Conversion between different number systems involves computation
  - Base of calculation is c (10 typical for us humans)
  - Other base is b
- Calculation based on division
  - For integers a and d, exist integers q and r such that
  - $\bullet \ a = q \cdot d + r$

• 
$$0 \le r \le b - 1$$

• Notation:

$$\ q = \lfloor a/d \rfloor$$

•  $r = a \mod b \pmod{a}$  (mod is remainder)

#### Digit Symbol Correspondence Between Bases

- Each base (b or c) has different symbols to represent digits
- Lookup table given for correspondence between symbols
  - Provides mapping between base b and base c symbols
  - May be more than one digit required to represent a larger base symbol

Base 12	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	В
Base 3	0	1	2	10	11	12	20	21	22	100	101	102

## Base Conversion 1

- Convert base b integer to calculator base c
- 1. Start with base b

$$x = x_{m-1}x_{m-2} \dots x_1 x_0$$

- 2. Set x = 0 in base c
- 3. Left to right, get next symbol  $x_i$
- 4. Lookup base c number  $D_i$  for symbol  $x_i$
- 5. Calculate in base c

• 
$$x = x \cdot b + D_i$$

6. Repeat step 3 until no more digits

- Example:
- Convert 0x3AF to base 10

$$x = 16 \cdot x + 3 = 3$$

$$x = 16 \cdot 3 + 10 (= A) = 58$$

• 
$$x = 16 \cdot 58 + 15 (= F) = 943$$

• 
$$0x3AF = 943_{10}$$

# Base Conversion 2

- Convert calculator base c integer to base b
- 1. Start with base c integer
  - $x = x_{m-1}x_{m-2} \dots x_1 x_0$
- 2. Initialize
  - i = 0
  - v = x
  - Get digits right to left
- **3.** Set
  - $\square \quad D_i = v \bmod b$
  - $v = \lfloor v/b \rfloor$
  - Lookup  $D_i$  to get  $x_i$
- 4. Set
  - *i* = *i* + 1
  - Repeat step 3 if  $v \neq 0$

- Example:
- Convert 3587<sub>10</sub> to base 12 •  $\frac{3587}{12} = 298 (rem = 11) \Rightarrow x_0 = B$ •  $\frac{298}{12} = 24 (rem = 10) \Rightarrow x_1 = A$ •  $\frac{24}{12} = 2 (rem = 0) \Rightarrow x_2 = 0$ •  $\frac{2}{12} = 0 (rem = 2) \Rightarrow x_3 = 2$

#### Fractions and Fixed Point Numbers

- Base b fraction
  - $f=.f_{-1}f_{-2}...f_{-m}$
  - Value is integer  $f_{-1} f_{-2} \dots f_{-m}$  divided by  $b^m$
- Mixed fixed point number
  - $x_{n-1}x_{n-2} \dots x_1 x_0 x_{-1} x_{-2} \dots x_{-m}$
  - Value of n+m digit integer
    - $x_{n-1}x_{n-2} \dots x_1x_0x_{-1}x_{-2} \dots x_{-m}$
  - Divided by  $b^m$
- Moving radix point one place left divides by b
  - Right shift for fixed radix point position
- Moving radix point one place right multiplies by b
  - Left Shift for fixed radix point position

#### **Converting Fractions to Calculator Base**

- Can use integer conversion and divide result by *b*<sup>*m*</sup>
- Alternative algorithm
- 1. Let base b number be
  - $f = f_{-1}f_{-2}\dots f_{-m}$
- 2. Initialize

$$f = 0.0$$

• 
$$i = -m$$

- 3. Find base c equivalent of *D* of digit  $f_i$
- 4. Update

• 
$$f = \frac{f+D}{b}$$

• 
$$i = i + 1$$

5. If i = 0, result is f; otherwise repeat step 3

- Example
- Convert 0.413<sub>8</sub> to base 10

• 
$$f = \frac{0+3}{8} = 0.375$$
  
•  $f = \frac{(0.375+1)}{8} = 0.171875$   
•  $f = \frac{0.171875+4}{8} = 0.521484375$ 

- Notice: there will be precision errors due to numerical roundoff
  - Only a fixed number of digits can be retained

#### Converting Fractions to Base b

- **1.** Start with fraction f in base c
  - $f = f_{-1}f_{-2}\dots f_{-m}$
- 2. Initialize
  - v = f
  - *i* = 1
- 3. Set
  - $D_{-i} = \lfloor b \cdot v \rfloor$
  - $v = b \cdot v D_{-i}$
  - Get base b digit  $f_{-i}$  for  $D_{-i}$ with table
- 4. Increment
  - i = i + 1
  - Repeat Step 3 until
    - v = 0
    - Enough digits generated

- Example
- Convert 0.31<sub>10</sub> to base 8
  - $0.31 \times 8 = 2.48 \Rightarrow f_{-1} = 2$

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- $0.48 \times 8 = 3.84 \Rightarrow f_{-2} = 3$
- $0.84 \times 8 = 6.73 \Rightarrow f_{-3} = 6$
- Notice:
  - Since 8<sup>3</sup> > 10<sup>2</sup>, 0.236<sub>8</sub> has more accuracy than 0.31<sub>10</sub>

## Digit Grouping for Related Bases

- Base  $b = c^k$
- Can convert between bases by replacing single digit symbol in base b with corresponding digits in base c
- (Our favorite method to change base e.g. binary to hex)