BASIC COMPUTER ORGANIZATION AND DESIGN

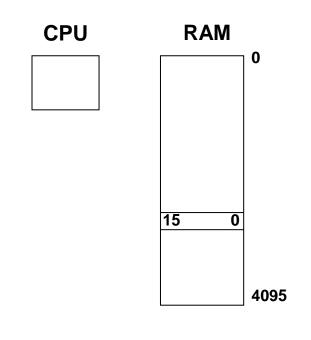
- Instruction Codes
- Computer Registers
- Computer Instructions
- Timing and Control
- Instruction Cycle
- Memory Reference Instructions
- Input-Output and Interrupt
- Complete Computer Description
- Design of Basic Computer
- Design of Accumulator Logic

INTRODUCTION

- Every different processor has its own design
 (different registers, buses, micro-operations, machine instructions, etc)
- Modern processor is a very complex device
- It contains
 - Many registers
 - Multiple arithmetic units, for both integer and floating point calculations
 - The ability to pipeline several consecutive instructions to speed execution
 - Etc.
- However, to understand how processors work, use a simplified processor model
- This is similar to what real processors were like ~25 years ago

THE BASIC COMPUTER

- The Basic Computer has two components, a processor and memory
- The memory has 4096 words in it
 - $-4096 = 2^{12}$, so it takes 12 bits to select a word in memory
- Each word is 16 bits long



INSTRUCTIONS

- Program
 - A sequence of (machine) instructions
- (Machine) Instruction
 - A group of bits that tell the computer to perform a specific operation (a sequence of micro-operation)
- The instructions of a program, along with any needed data are stored in memory
- The CPU reads the next instruction from memory
- It is placed in an Instruction Register (IR)
- Control circuitry in control unit then translates the instruction into the sequence of microoperations necessary to implement it

INSTRUCTION FORMAT

- A computer instruction is often divided into two parts
 - An opcode (Operation Code) that specifies the operation for that instruction
 - An address that specifies the registers and/or locations in memory to use for that operation
- In the Basic Computer, since the memory contains 4096 (= 2¹²) words, we needs 12 bit to specify which memory address this instruction will use
- In the Basic Computer, bit 15 of the instruction specifies the addressing mode (0: direct addressing, 1: indirect addressing)
- Since the memory words, and hence the instructions, are
 16 bits long, that leaves 3 bits for the instruction's opcode

Instruction Format

<u>15 14 12 </u>	11	0
I Opcode	Address	
*		
Addressing mode		

Stored Program Organization

Basic (

- The simplest way to organize a computer is to have one processor register and an instruction code format with two parts.
- The first part specifies the operation to be performed and the second specifies an address.
- The memory address tells the control where to find an operand in memory.
- This operand is read from memory and used as the data to be operated on together with the data stored in the processor register.
- The following figure 2.1 shows this type of organization.

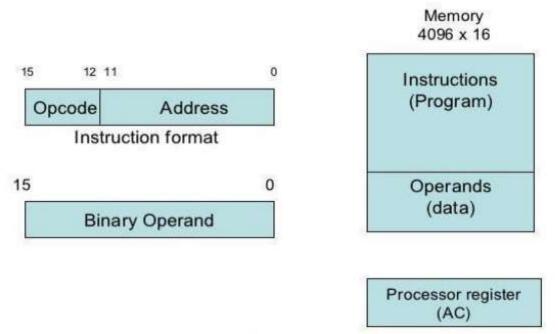
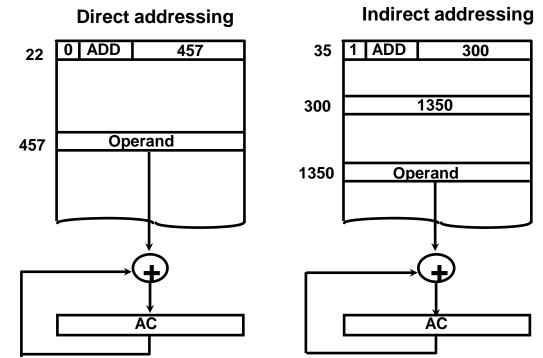


Figure 2.1: Stored Program Organization

- Instructions are stored in one section of memory and data in another.
- For a memory unit with 4096 words, we need 12 bits to specify an address since 2¹² = 4096.

ADDRESSING MODES

- The address field of an instruction can represent either
 - Direct address: the address in memory of the data to use (the address of the operand), or
 - Indirect address: the address in memory of the address in memory of the data to use



- Effective Address (EA)
 - The address, that can be directly used without modification to access an operand for a computation-type instruction, or as the target address for a branch-type instruction

PROCESSOR REGISTERS

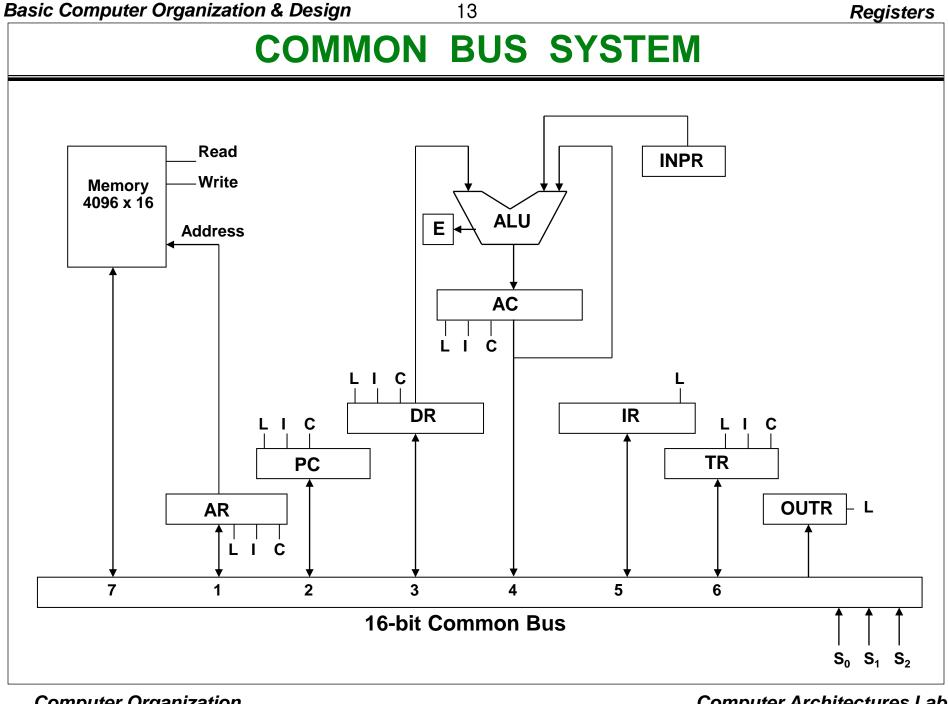
- A processor has many registers to hold instructions, addresses, data, etc
- The processor has a register, the Program Counter (PC) that holds the memory address of the next instruction
 - Since the memory in the Basic Computer only has 4096 locations, the PC only needs 12 bits
- In a direct or indirect addressing, the processor needs to keep track of what locations in memory it is addressing: The Address Register (AR) is used for this
 - The AR is a 12 bit register in the Basic Computer
- When an operand is found, using either direct or indirect addressing, it is placed in the *Data Register* (DR). The processor then uses this value as data for its operation
- The Basic Computer has a single general purpose register the Accumulator (AC)

PROCESSOR REGISTERS

- The significance of a general purpose register is that it can be used for loading operands and storing results
 - e.g. load AC with the contents of a specific memory location; store the contents of AC into a specified memory location
- Often a processor will need a scratch register to store intermediate results or other temporary data; in the Basic Computer this is the *Temporary Register* (TR)
- The Basic Computer uses a very simple model of input/output (I/O) operations
 - Input devices are considered to send 8 bits of character data to the processor
 - The processor can send 8 bits of character data to output devices
- The Input Register (INPR) holds an 8 bit character gotten from an input device
- The Output Register (OUTR) holds an 8 bit character to be send to an output device

COMMON BUS SYSTEM

- The registers in the Basic Computer are connected using a bus
- This gives a savings in circuitry over complete connections between registers



COMMON BUS SYSTEM

 Three control lines, S₂, S₁, and S₀ control which register the bus selects as its input

S ₂ S ₁ S ₀	Register
0 0 0	Х
0 0 1	AR
0 1 0	PC
0 1 1	DR
1 0 0	AC
1 0 1	IR
1 1 0	TR
1 1 1	Memory

- Either one of the registers will have its load signal activated, or the memory will have its read signal activated
 - Will determine where the data from the bus gets loaded
- The 12-bit registers, AR and PC, have 0's loaded onto the bus in the high order 4 bit positions
- When the 8-bit register OUTR is loaded from the bus, the data comes from the low order 8 bits on the bus

BASIC COMPUTER INSTRUCTIONS

Basic Computer Instruction Format

Register-Reference Instructions (OP-code =
$$111$$
, $I = 0$)

15			12	11	0
0	1	1	1	Register operation	

12 11

(OP-code = 111, I = 1)

BASIC COMPUTER INSTRUCTIONS

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S
9
'e
•

INSTRUCTION SET COMPLETENESS

Set of instructions using which user can construct machine language programs to evaluate any computable function.

Instruction Types

Functional Instructions

- Arithmetic, logic, and shift instructions
- ADD, CMA, INC, CIR, CIL, AND, CLA (other than ADD/AND?)

Transfer Instructions

- Data transfers between the main memory and the processor registers
- LDA, STA

Control Instructions

- Program sequencing and control
- BUN(branch unconditionally), BSA(branch nd save return address),

ISZ(Increment and skip if Zero)

Input/Output Instructions

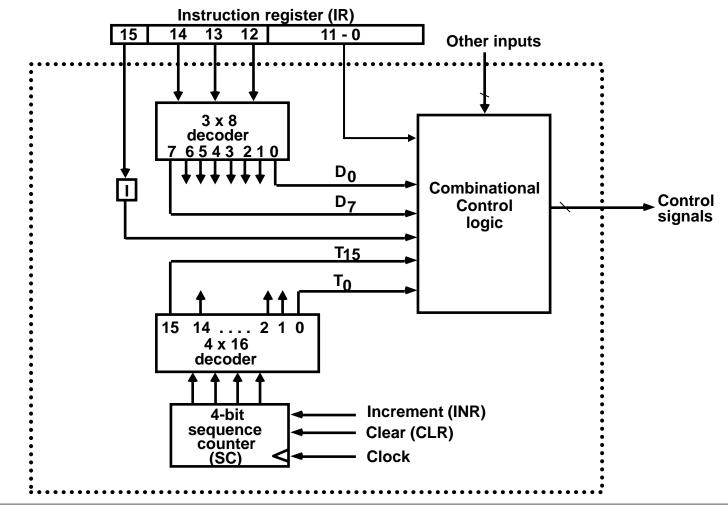
- Input and output
- INP, OUT

CONTROL UNIT

- Control unit (CU) of a processor translates from machine instructions to the control signals (for the micro-operations) that implement them
- Control units are implemented in one of two ways
- Hardwired Control
 - CU is made up of sequential and combinational circuits to generate the control signals
- Microprogrammed Control
 - A control memory on the processor contains microprograms that activate the necessary control signals
- We will consider a hardwired implementation of the control unit for the Basic Computer

TIMING AND CONTROL

Control unit of Basic Computer

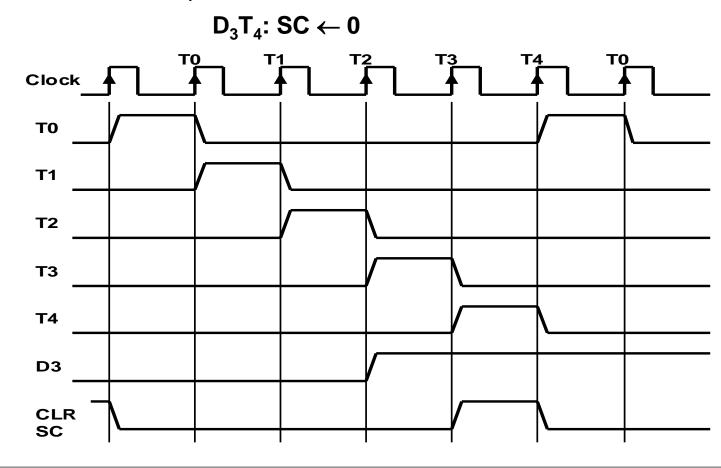


TIMING SIGNALS

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- Generated by 4-bit sequence counter and 4×16 decoder
- The SC can be incremented or cleared.
- Example: $T_0, T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4, T_0, T_1, \dots$

Assume: At time T_4 , SC is cleared to 0 if decoder output D3 is active.



INSTRUCTION CYCLE

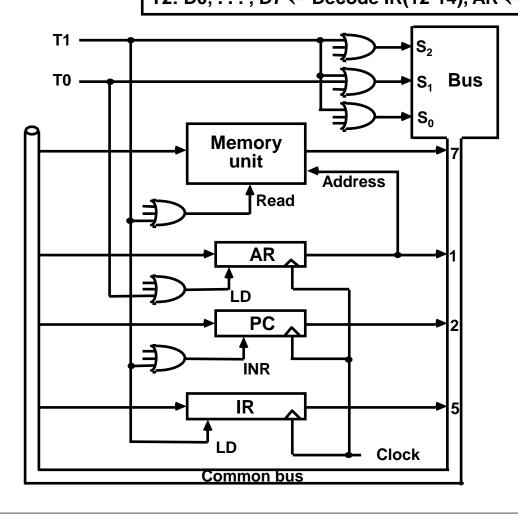
- In Basic Computer, a machine instruction is executed in the following cycle:
 - 1. Fetch an instruction from memory
 - 2. Decode the instruction and calculate effective address (EA)
 - 3. Read the EA from memory if the instruction has an indirect address (Fetch operand)
 - 1. Execute the instruction
- After an instruction is executed, the cycle starts again at step 1, for the next instruction
- Note: Every different processor has its own (different) instruction cycle

FETCH and DECODE

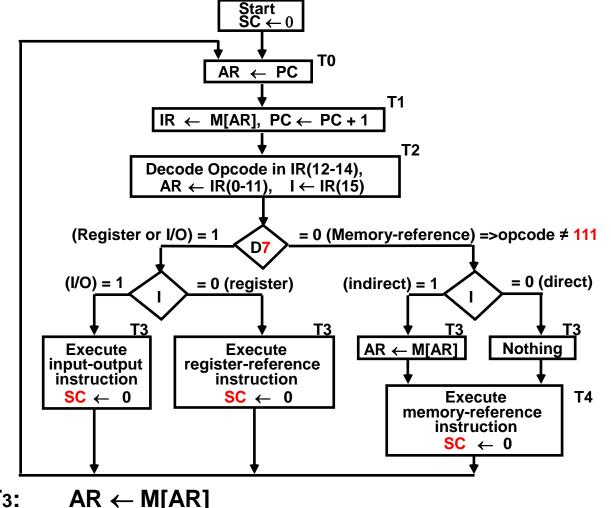
Fetch and Decode

T0: AR \leftarrow PC $(S_0S_1S_2=010, T0=1)$

T1: $IR \leftarrow M$ [AR], $PC \leftarrow PC + 1$ (S0S1S2=111, T1=1) T2: D0, . . . , D7 \leftarrow Decode IR(12-14), AR \leftarrow IR(0-11), $I \leftarrow$ IR(15)



DETERMINE THE TYPE OF INSTRUCTION



D'7lT3: AR ← M[AR] D'7l'T3: Nothing

D7l'T3: Execute a register-reference instr.

D7IT3: Execute an input-output instr.

Register reference instruction.

- When the register-reference instruction is decoded, D7 bit is set to 1.
- Each control function needs the Boolean relation D7 I' T3

9	15		12 11					
	0	1	1	1	Register Operation			

There are 12 register-reference instructions listed below:

	r:	SC←0	Clear SC
CLA	rB11:	AC ← 0	Clear AC
CLE	rB10:	E ← 0	Clear E
CMA	rB ₉ :	AC ← AC'	Complement AC
CME	rB ₈ :	E ← E'	Complement E
CIR	rB ₇ :	$AC \leftarrow shr AC, AC(15) \leftarrow E, E \leftarrow AC(0)$	Circular Right
CIL	rB ₆ :	$AC \leftarrow shl AC, AC(0) \leftarrow E, E \leftarrow AC(15)$	Circular Left
INC	rB ₅ : AC ← AC + 1		Increment AC
SPA	SPA rB4: if $(AC(15) = 0)$ then $(PC \leftarrow PC+1)$ Sk		Skip if positive
SNA rB ₃ : if (AC(15) = 1) then (PC ← PC+1		if $(AC(15) = 1)$ then $(PC \leftarrow PC+1)$	Skip if negative
SZA	rB ₂ :	if (AC = 0) then (PC \leftarrow PC+1)	Skip if AC is zero
SZE	ZE rB_1 : if $(E = 0)$ then $(PC \leftarrow PC+1)$ Skip if E i		Skip if E is zero
HLT	rBo:	S ← 0 (S is a start-stop flip-flop)	Halt computer

- These 12 bits are available in IR (0-11). They were also transferred to AR during time T2.
- These instructions are executed at timing cycle T₃.
- The first seven register-reference instructions perform clear, complement, circular shift, and increment microoperations on the AC or E registers.
- . The next four instructions cause a skip of the next instruction in sequence when

condition is satisfied. The skipping of the instruction is achieved by incrementing PC.

- The condition control statements must be recognized as part of the control conditions.
 The AC is positive when the sign bit in AC(15) = 0; it is negative when AC(15) = 1. The content of AC is zero (AC = 0) if all the flip-flops of the register are zero.
- The HLT instruction clears a start-stop flip-flop S and stops the sequence counter from counting. To restore the operation of the computer, the start-stop flip-flop must be set manually.

Memory reference instructions

When the memory-reference instruction is decoded, D7 bit is set to 0.

15	14	12	11	0
1	000~110		Address	

The following table lists seven memory-reference instructions.

Symbol Operation Decoder		Symbolic Description			
AND	D ₀	$AC \leftarrow AC \land M[AR]$			
ADD	D ₁ $AC \leftarrow AC + M[AR], E \leftarrow C_{out}$				
LDA	D ₂	AC ← M[AR]			
STA	D ₃	$M[AR] \leftarrow AC$			
BUN	D ₄	PC ← AR			
BSA	D 5	$M[AR] \leftarrow PC, PC \leftarrow AR + 1$			
ISZ	D ₆	$M[AR] \leftarrow M[AR] + 1$, if $M[AR] + 1 = 0$ then $PC \leftarrow PC+1$			

- The effective address of the instruction is in the address register AR and was placed there during timing signal T₂ when I = 0, or during timing signal T₃ when I = 1.
- The execution of the memory-reference instructions starts with timing signal T4.

AND to AC

This is an instruction that performs the AND logic operation on pairs of bits in AC and the memory word specified by the effective address. The result of the operation is transferred to AC.

D₀T₄: DR←M[AR]

D₀T₅: $AC \leftarrow AC \land DR, SC \leftarrow 0$

ADD to AC

This instruction adds the content of the memory word specified by the effective address to the value of AC. The sum is transferred into AC and the output carry Cout is transferred to the E (extended accumulator) flip-flop.

D₁T₄: DR \leftarrow M[AR]

D₁T₅: $AC \leftarrow AC + DR, E \leftarrow C_{out}, SC \leftarrow 0$

LDA: Load to AC

This instruction transfers the memory word specified by the effective address to AC.

 D_2T_4 : $DR \leftarrow M[AR]$

D₂T₅: AC \leftarrow DR, SC \leftarrow 0

STA: Store AC

This instruction stores the content of AC into the memory word specified by the effective address.

D₃T₄: $M[AR] \leftarrow AC$, $SC \leftarrow 0$

BUN: Branch Unconditionally

This instruction transfers the program to instruction specified by the effective address. The BUN instruction allows the programmer to specify an instruction out of sequence and the program branches (or jumps) unconditionally.

D₄T₄: $PC \leftarrow AR, SC \leftarrow 0$

BSA: Branch and Save Return Address

This instruction is useful for branching to a portion of the program called a subroutine or procedure. When executed, the BSA instruction stores the address of the next instruction in sequence (which is available in PC) into a memory location specified by the effective address.

$$M[AR] \leftarrow PC, PC \leftarrow AR + 1$$

 $M[135] \leftarrow 21, PC \leftarrow 135 + 1 = 136$

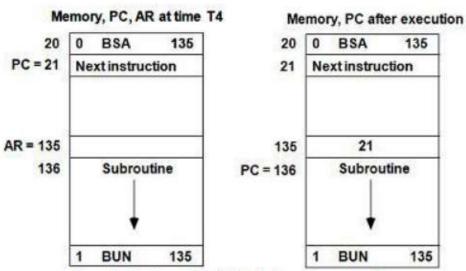


Figure 2.10: Example of BSA instruction execution

It is not possible to perform the operation of the BSA instruction in one clock cycle when we use the bus system of the basic computer. To use the memory and the bus properly, the BSA instruction must be executed with a sequence of two microoperations:

D₅T₄: M[AR]
$$\leftarrow$$
 PC, AR \leftarrow AR + 1

D₅T₅: PC
$$\leftarrow$$
 AR, SC \leftarrow 0

ISZ: Increment and Skip if Zero

These instruction increments the word specified by the effective address, and if the incremented value is equal to 0, PC is incremented by 1. Since it is not possible to

increment a word inside the memory, it is necessary to read the word into DR, increment DR, and store the word back into memory.

D6T4: DR \leftarrow M[AR]

D6T5: DR ← DR + 1

D₆T₄: M[AR] \leftarrow DR, if (DR = 0) then (PC \leftarrow PC + 1), SC \leftarrow 0

Control Flowchart

