

We will examine an implementation that includes a representative subset of the core MIPS instruction set:

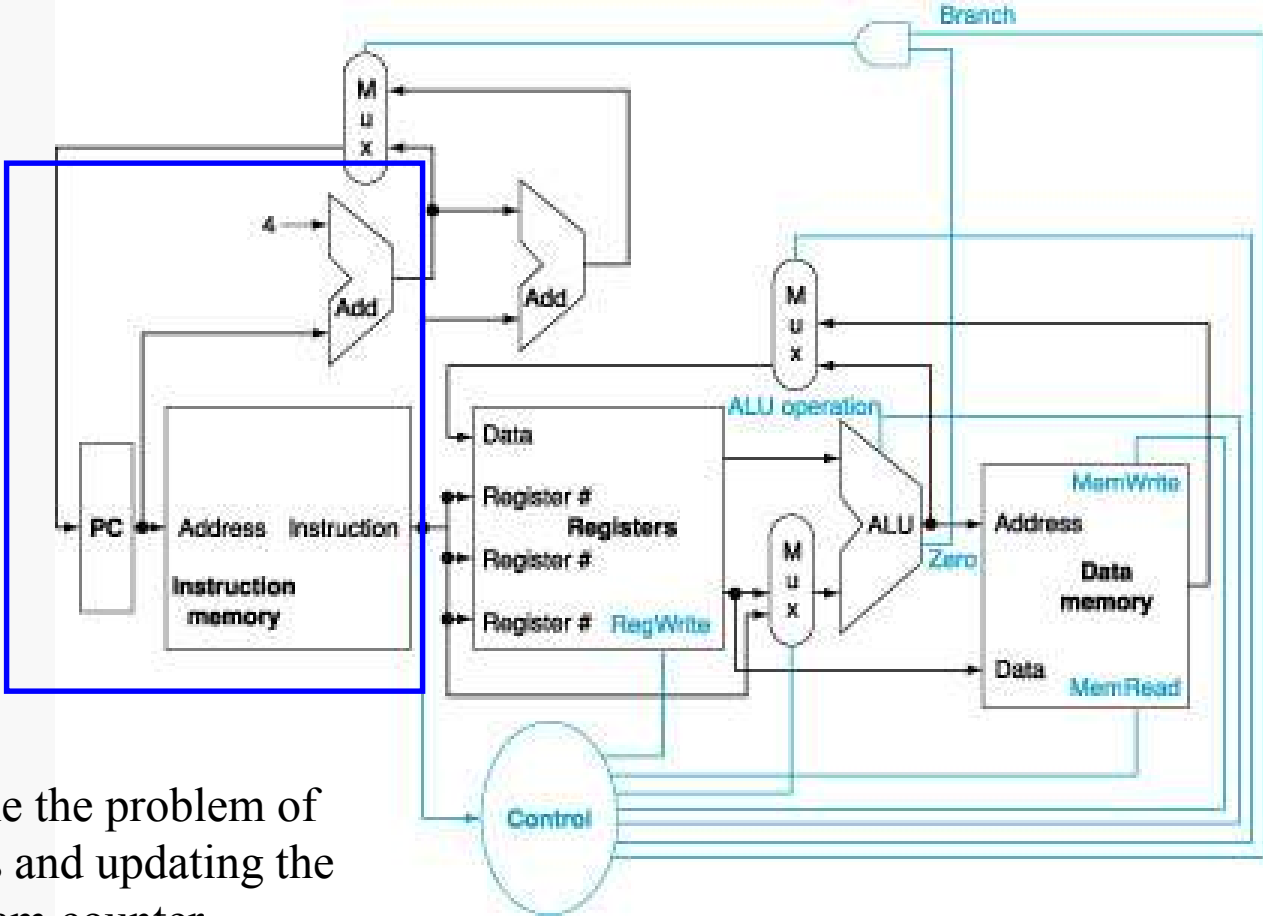
- the arithmetic-logical instructions `add`, `sub`, `and`, `or` and `slt`
- the memory-reference instructions `lw` and `sw`
- the flow-of-control instructions `beq` and `j`

We have already seen how to perform these arithmetic-logical instructions, and provided support within the ALU for the `beq` instruction.

The primary elements that are missing are the logical connections among the primary hardware components, and the control circuitry needed to direct data among the components and to make those components perform the necessary work.

Datapath 2

Here's an updated view of the basic architecture needed to implement our subset of the MIPS environment:



We will first examine the problem of fetching instructions and updating the address in the program counter...

Fetching Instructions

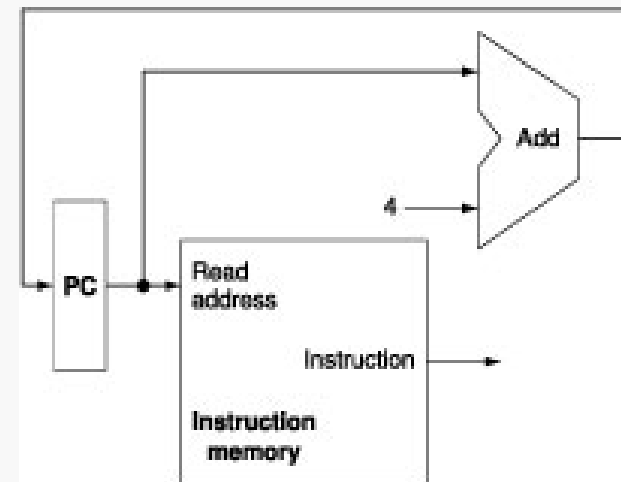
The basic steps are to send the address in the program counter (PC) to the instruction memory, obtain the specified instruction, and increment the value in the PC.

For now, we assume sequential execution.

Eventually the instruction memory will need write facilities (to load programs), but we ignore that for now.

For now, the adder need only add the MIPS word size to the PC to prepare for loading the next instruction.

The fetched instruction will be used by other portions of the datapath...



Arithmetic and Memory-access Instructions

Datapath 4

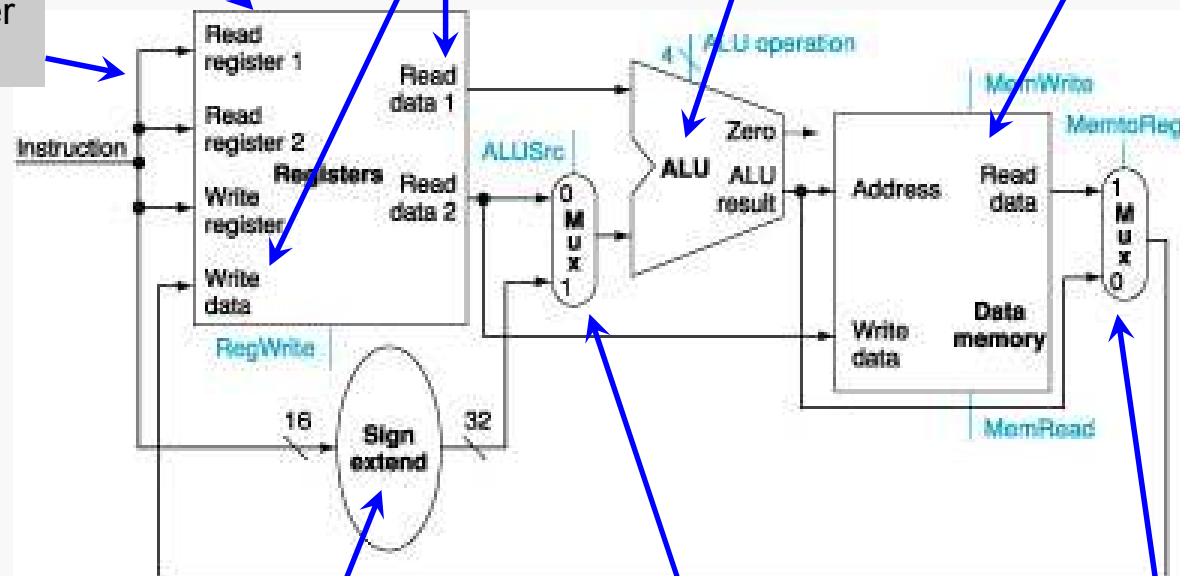
register file contains the 32 registers seen earlier

3 32-bit data lines

ALU as seen earlier

data memory

3 5-bit register address lines



sign-extension needed to prepare 16-bit literal from instruction for input to ALU

mux determines whether ALU receives one operand from instruction (literal) or from register

mux determines whether value from data memory or from ALU is to be placed into register file

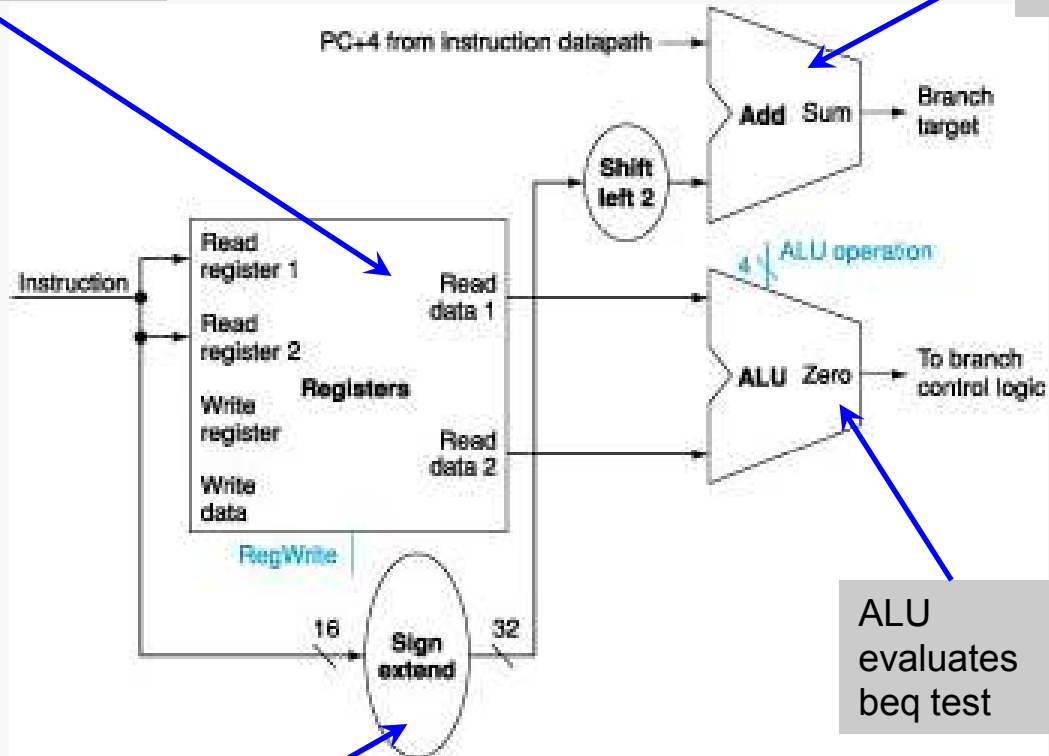
000000	10001	10010	01001	00000	100000
op	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct

Branch Instructions

Datapath 5

register file contains the 32 registers seen earlier

adder computes target address for branch

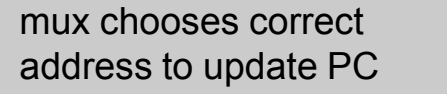


to control logic selects appropriate value for updating PC

ALU evaluates beq test

sign-extension for 16-bit address from instruction

Datapath 6



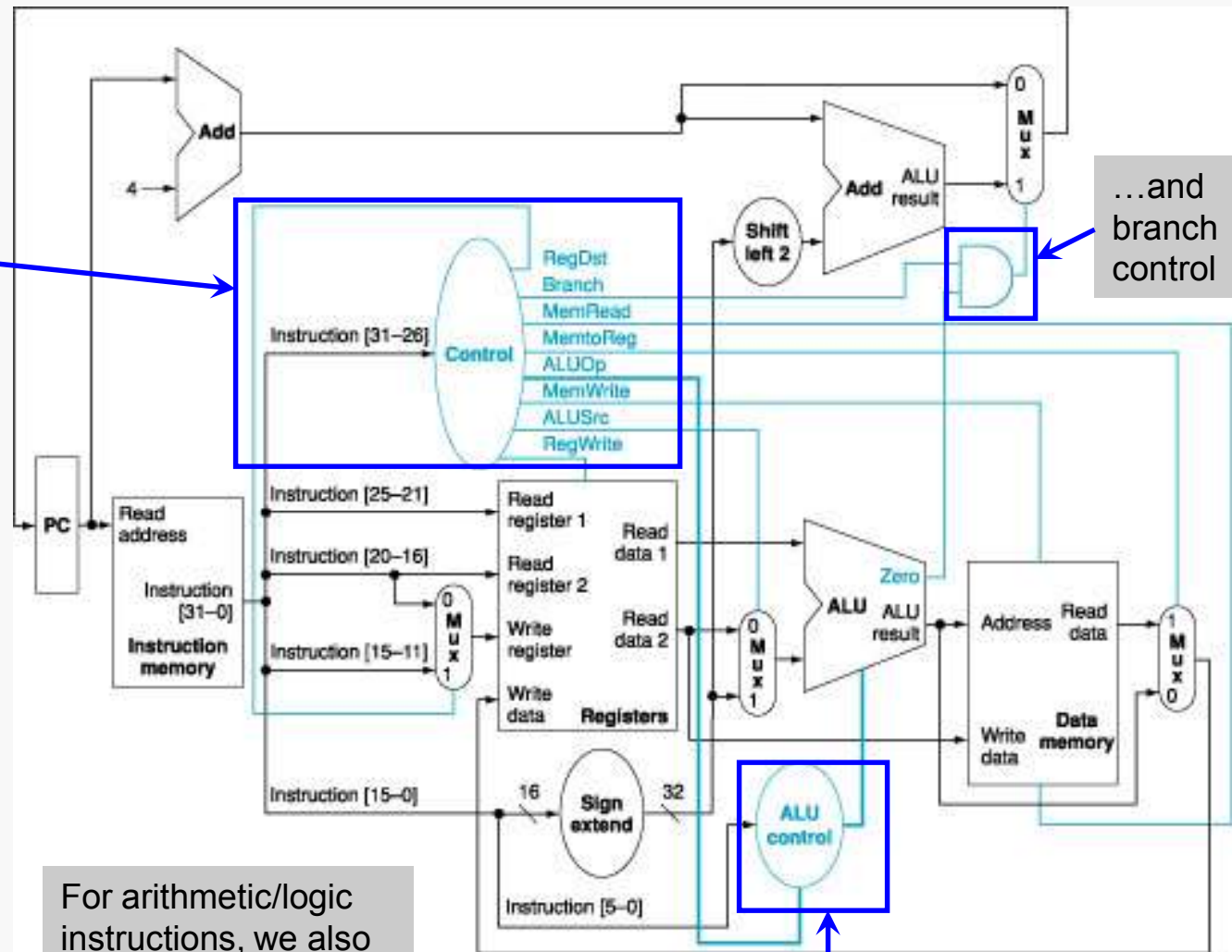
We assume each instruction can be completed during a single clock cycle... that will be addressed later...

... but what about control logic??

Datapath Control Details

Datapath 7

We need a control element to decode the 6-bit opcode



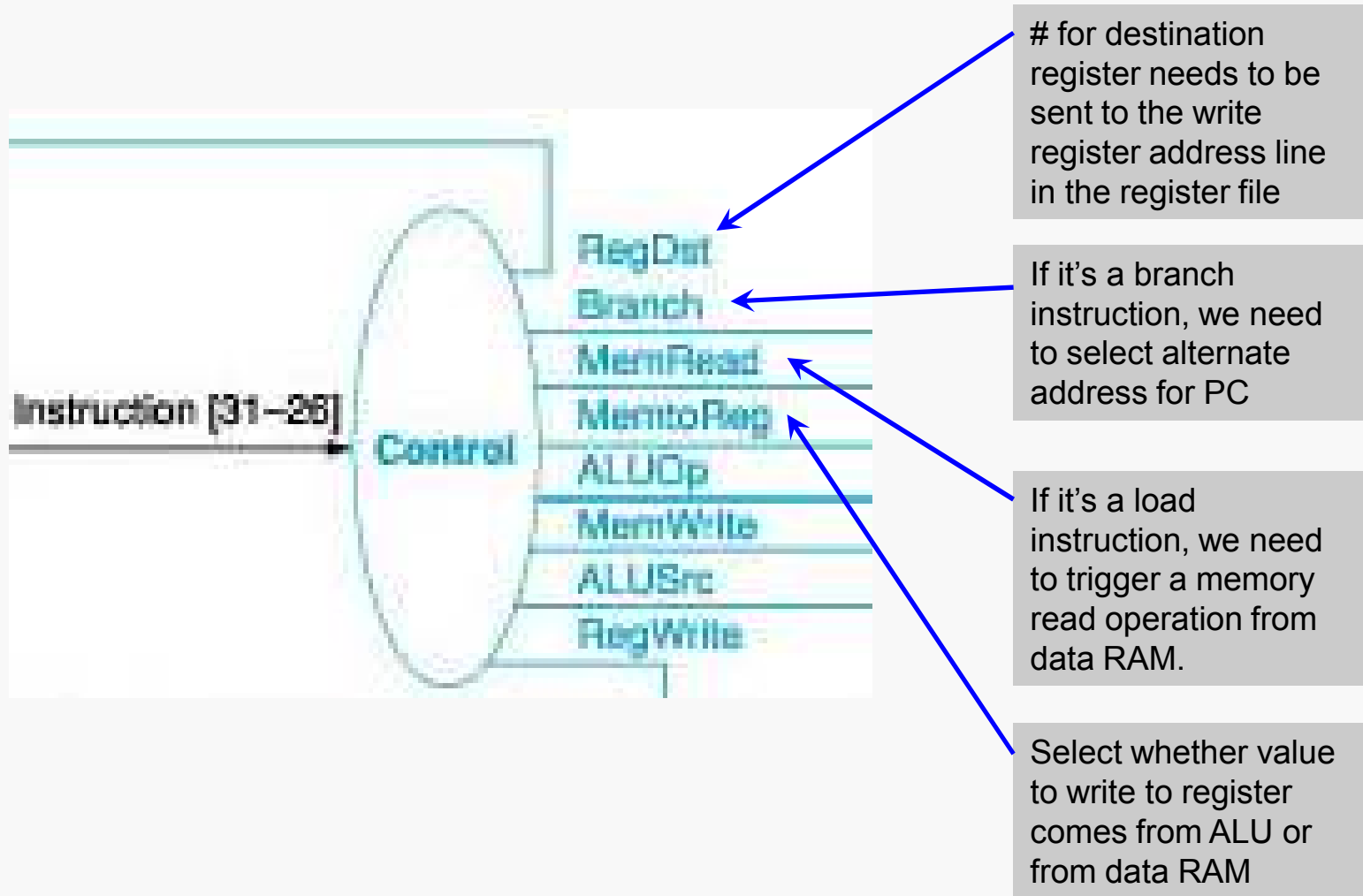
...and branch control

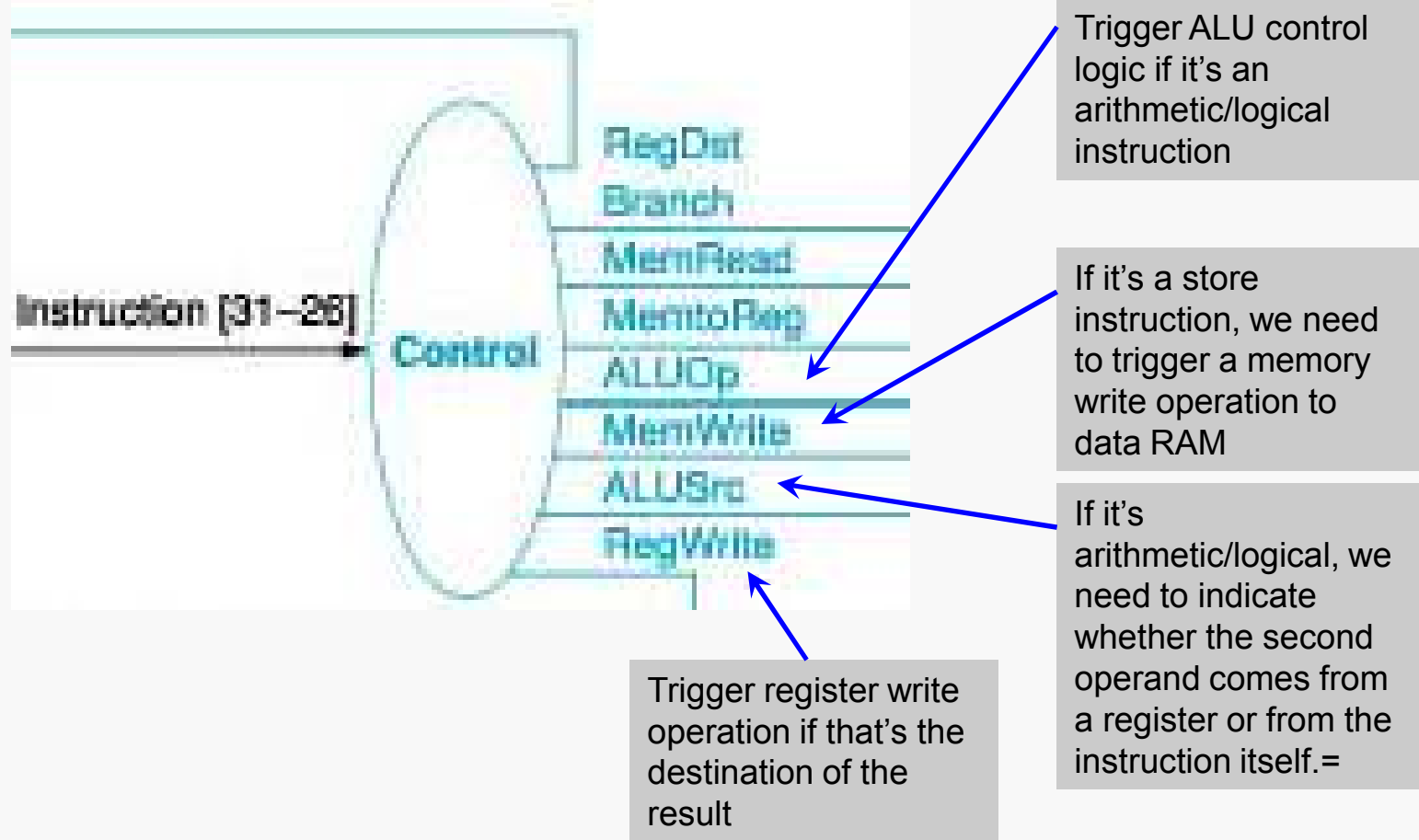
For arithmetic/logic instructions, we also need a control element to decode the fn field

To design the control logic we'll need some details of the specific instructions to be supported:

Instr	fmt	opfield	funct

add	R	000000	100000
sub	R	000000	100010
and	R	000000	100100
or	R	000000	100101
slt	R	000000	101010
lw	I	100011	XXXXXX
sw	I	101011	XXXXXX
beq	I	000100	XXXXXX
j			

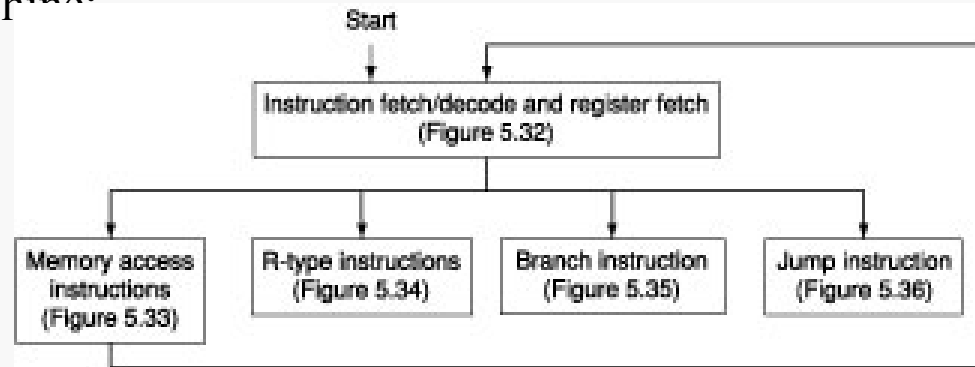




Abstract View of Execution Control

Datapath 11

The diagram below is a high-level view of the overall control logic for execution on our simplified MIPS machine.

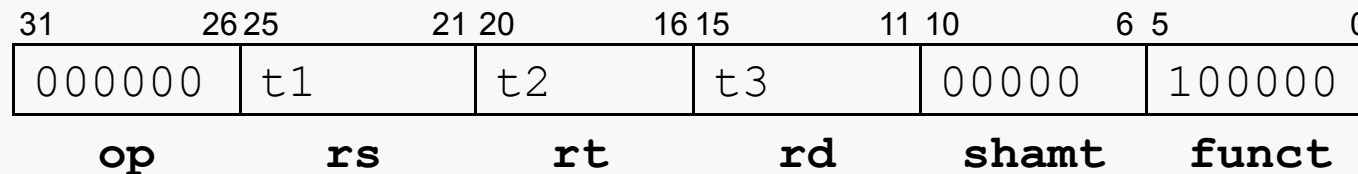


Each box represents a discrete sub-section of the control logic which we will examine shortly.

Datapath Operation with an R-type Instruction

Datapath 12

Consider executing: `add $t1, $t2, $t3`

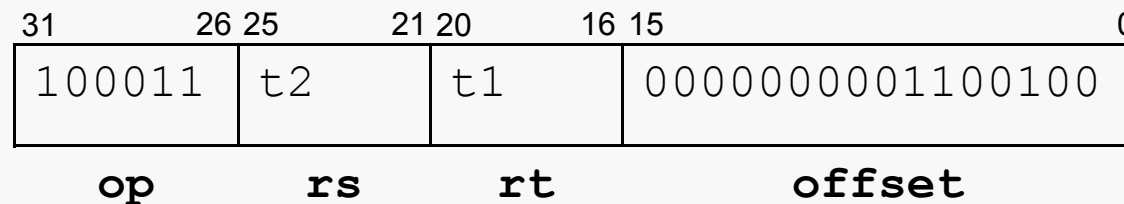


1. The instruction is fetched, the opcode in bits 31:26 is examined, revealing this is an R-type instruction, and the PC is incremented accordingly
2. Data registers, specified by bits 25:21 and 20:16, are read from the register file and the main control unit sets its control lines
3. The ALU control determines the appropriate instruction from the `funct` field bits 5:0, and performs that operation on the data from the register file
4. The result from the ALU is written into the register file at the destination specified by bits 15:11

Datapath Operation with I-type Instruction

Datapath 13

Consider executing the instruction: `lw $t1, 100($t2)`



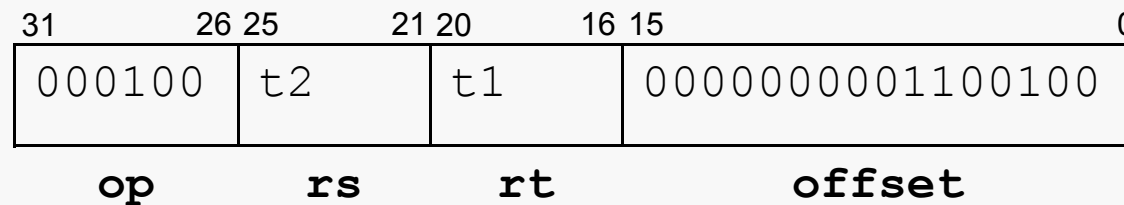
1. The instruction is fetched from memory, the opcode in bits 31:26 is examined, revealing this is an load/store instruction, and the PC is incremented accordingly
2. Data register, specified by bits 25:21, is read from the register file
3. The ALU computes the sum of the retrieved register data and the sign-extended immediate value in bits 15:0
4. The sum from the ALU is used as the address for the data memory
5. The data at the specified address is fetched from memory and written into the register file at the destination specified in bits 20:16 of the instruction

Note that this instruction uses a sequence of five functional processor units.

Datapath Operation with `beq` Instruction

Datapath 14

Consider executing the instruction: `beq $t1, $t2, offset`



1. The instruction is fetched, the opcode in bits 31:26 is examined, revealing this is a `beq` instruction, and the PC is incremented accordingly
2. The data registers, specified by bits 25:21 and 20:16, are read from the register file
3. The ALU computes the difference of the two retrieved register data values; the value of $PC + 4$ is added to the sign-extended value from bits 16:0, shifted left 2 bits
4. The Zero result from the ALU is used to decide which adder result to store in the PC

Up to this point, we have considered a design plan that will use a single clock cycle for fetching and executing each instruction.

That is unrealistic.

- The clock cycle would be determined by the longest possible path in the machine (which seems to be the path for a load instruction).
- Many instructions take much shorter paths through the machine, and so could be executed in a shorter cycle... not doing so would reduce efficiency.

A multi-cycle design allows instructions to take several clock cycles, and for the number to vary from one instruction to another. In this case, this appears to be preferable.

Each step in the execution of an instruction will take one clock cycle.

But, what are the ramifications for the simplified design we have seen?

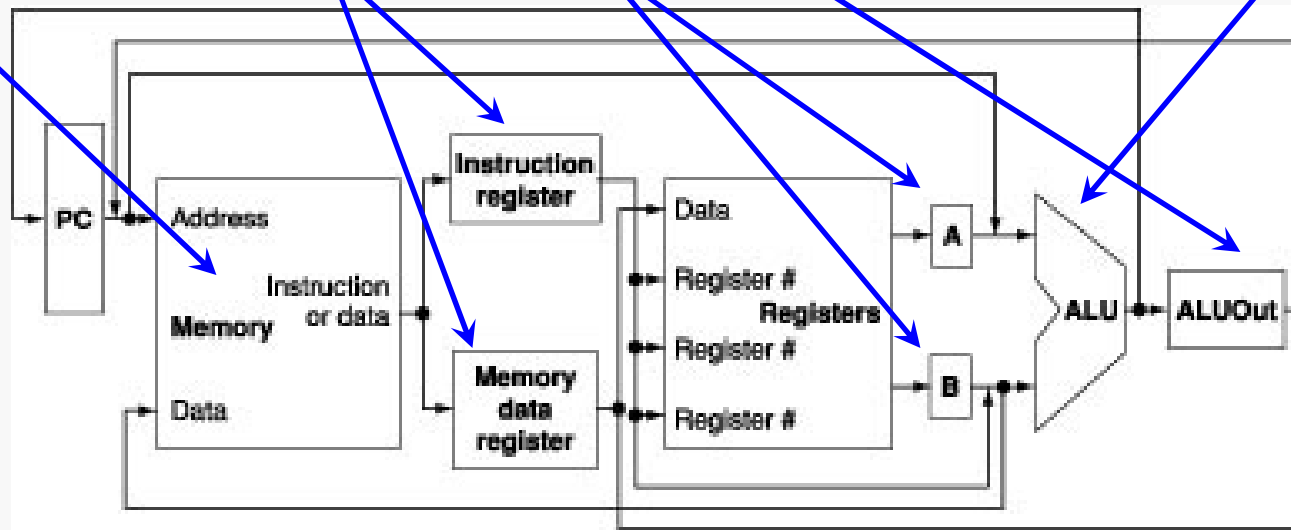
A Simplified Multi-cycle Datapath

Datapath 16

Now we can have a single, shared memory unit. If multiple accesses are required in different steps, that is no problem.

We will need to add some extra registers to preserve values that are produced in a functional unit during one step and needed during a later step.

Similarly, we can get by with a single ALU w/o auxiliary adder units.



We assume that 1 clock cycle can accommodate any one of the following:

a memory access

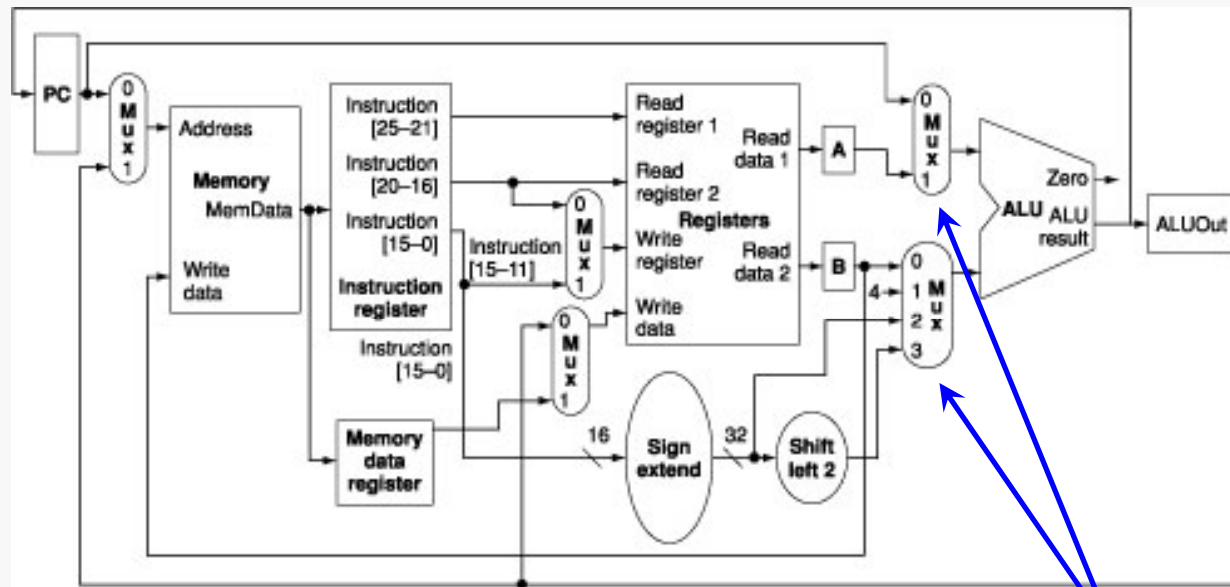
a register file access (2R|1W)

a ALU operation

Details for the Multi-cycle Datapath

Datapath 17

The added elements are small in area compared to the ones that have been eliminated (2nd memory unit, adders), so this should be a cheaper design.



Of course, now the control logic must also change...

The single ALU must now accept operands from additional sources, requiring expanded control logic.

Control in the Multi-cycle Datapath

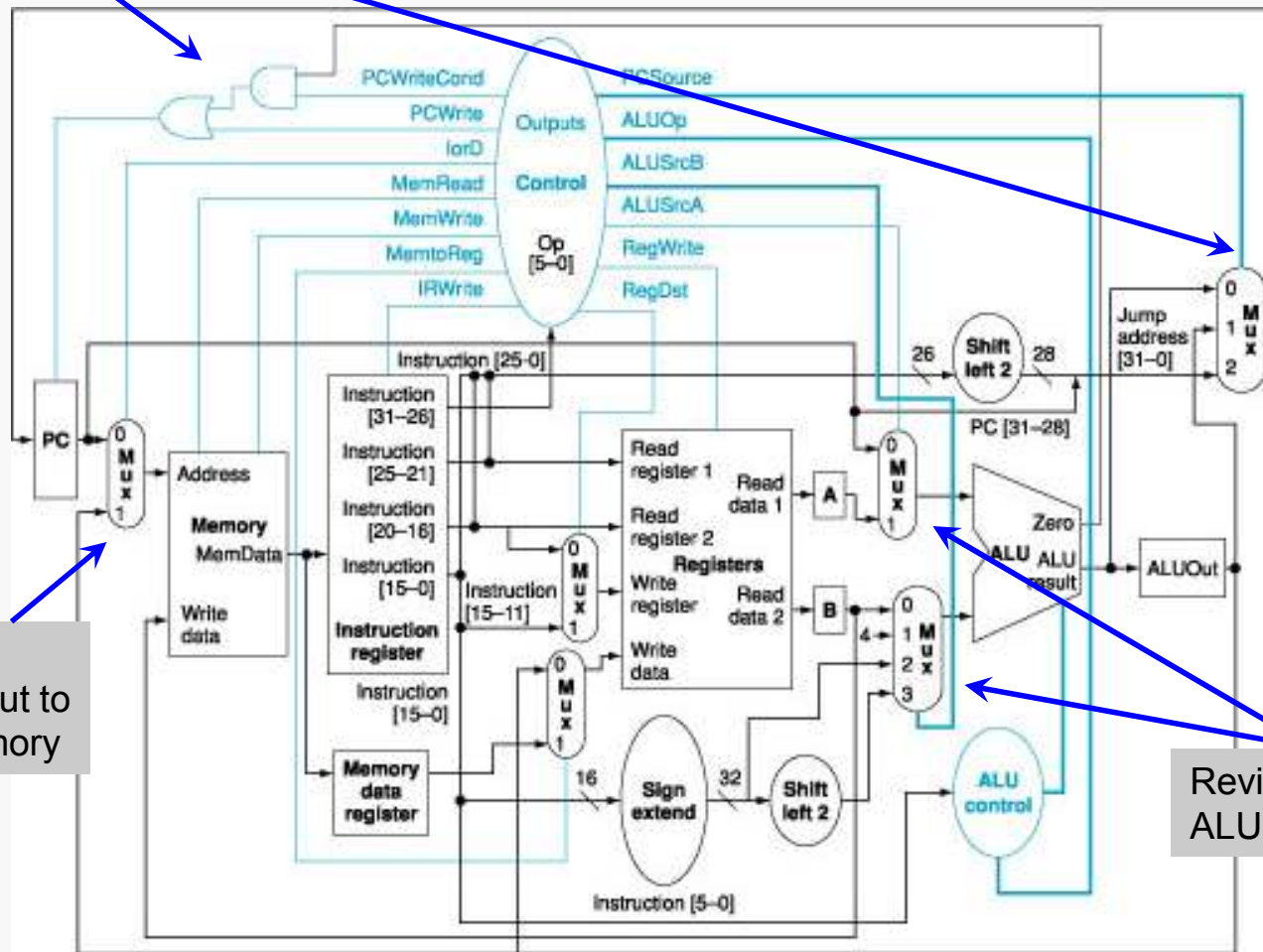
Datapath 18

Revised control for PC update

See Fig 5.29 in P&H for details.

Control for address input to unified memory

Revised control for ALU operands



Multi-cycle Execution: Step 1

Datapath 19

Instruction fetch:

$IR \leftarrow \text{Memory}[PC]$

MemRead = 1

IRWrite = 1

lrd = 0

$PC \leftarrow PC + 4$

ALUSrcA = 0

ALUSrcB = 01

ALUOp = 00

PCSource = 00

PCWrite = 1

Can we do all this in a single clock cycle?

Note that accessing the PC or IR requires only part of a clock cycle, but that reading or writing the register file will take an additional cycle.

Multi-cycle Execution: Step 2

Datapath 20

Instruction decode and register fetch:

$A \leftarrow \text{Reg}[\text{IR}[25:21]]$

$B \leftarrow \text{Reg}[\text{IR}[20:16]]$

$\text{ALUOut} \leftarrow \text{PC} + (\text{sign_extend}(\text{IR}[15:0]) \ll 2)$

We still do not know what instruction was fetched in the prior step...

However, we can perform certain "optimistic" actions so long as they are harmless once the instruction has been identified.

Multi-cycle Execution: Step 3

Datapath 21

Memory address computation, execution, or branch completion:

Memory reference?

$\text{ALUOut} \leftarrow A + (\text{sign_extend}(\text{IR}[15:0]))$

Now we know what the instruction is... what we must do next depends on that.

The ALU can now act on the operands prepared in the previous step...

Arithmetic-logical?

$\text{ALUOut} \leftarrow A \text{ op } B$

ALUSrcA = 1
ALUSrcB = 10
ALUOp = 00

???

Branch?

$\text{if } (A == B) \text{ PC} \leftarrow \text{ALUOut}$

???

Multi-cycle Execution: Step 3

Datapath 22

Memory address computation, execution, or branch completion?

Jump?

$PC \leftarrow \text{concat}(PC[31:28], IR[25:0], 00)$

Multi-cycle Execution: Step 4

Datapath 23

Memory access or R-type instruction completion step:

Memory access:

$\text{MDR} \leftarrow \text{Memory}[\text{ALUOut}]$

or

$\text{Memory}[\text{ALUOut}] \leftarrow \text{B}$

R-type:

$\text{Reg}[\text{IR}[15:11]] \leftarrow \text{ALUOut}$

Multi-cycle Execution: Step 5

Datapath 24

Memory read completion step:

`Reg[IR[20:16]] ← MDR`

Multi-cycle Execution: Summary

Datapath 25

Here's a summary of the steps for the relevant instruction types:

Step	R-type	Memory reference	Branches	Jumps
Instr Fetch	$IR \leftarrow \text{Memory}[PC]$ $PC \leftarrow PC + 4$			
Instr decode/ Register Fetch	$A \leftarrow \text{Reg}[IR[25:21]]$ $B \leftarrow \text{Reg}[IR[20:16]]$ $ALUOut \leftarrow PC + \text{sgn_ext}(IR[15:0]) \ll 2$			
Execution, Addr computation, Branch/Jump completion	$ALUOut \leftarrow A \text{ op } B$	$ALUOut \leftarrow A + \text{sgn_ext}(IR[15:0])$	if (A == B) $PC \leftarrow ALUOut$	$PC \leftarrow \text{concat}(PC[31:28], IR[25:0], 00)$
Memory access, R-type completion	$\text{Reg}[IR[15:11]] \leftarrow ALUOut$	Load: $MDR \leftarrow \text{Mem}[ALUOut]$ Store: $\text{Mem}[ALUOut] \leftarrow B$		
Memory read completion		Load: $\text{Reg}[IR[20:16]] \leftarrow MDR$		

Fetching and Decoding the Type

Datapath 26

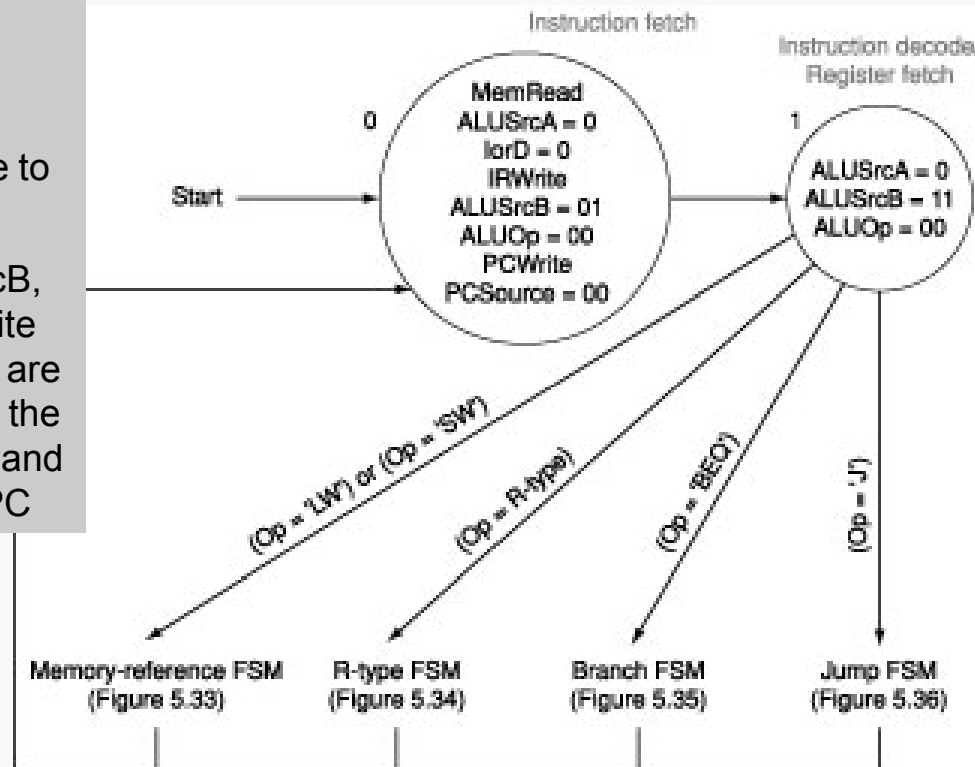
The basic process of fetching and decoding is the same no matter which MIPS machine instruction is involved.

MemRead ON

IRWrite ON

lorD = 0 chooses
address source to
be PC

ALUSrcA, ALUSrcB,
ALUOp, PCWrite
and PCSource are
set to compute the
address PC+4 and
store it to the PC

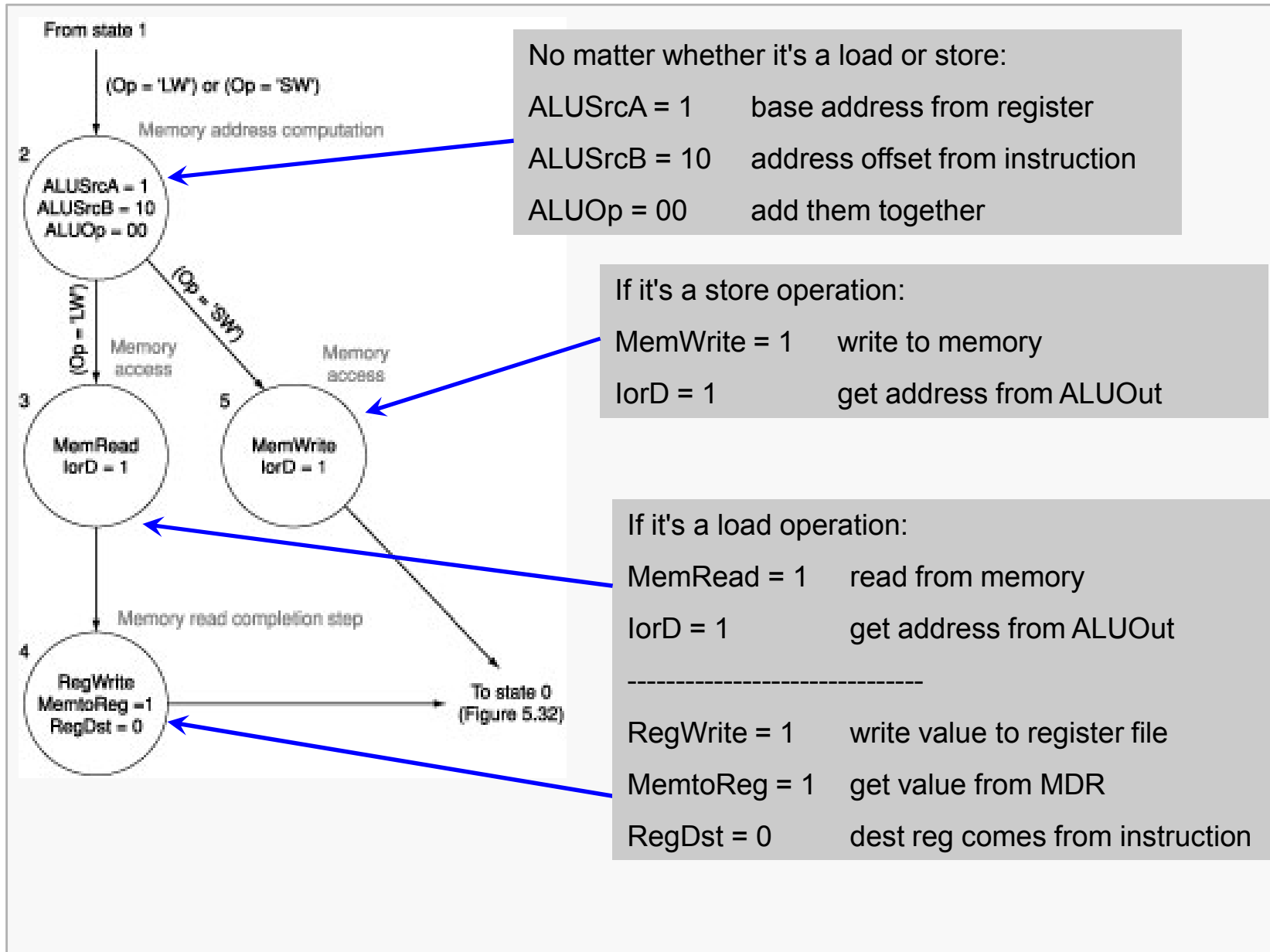


ALU controls are set
to compute a
logical branch
address

Control input unit Op
determines exactly
which type of
instruction is about
to be executed,
and that
information is used
to manage the
next logical
transition

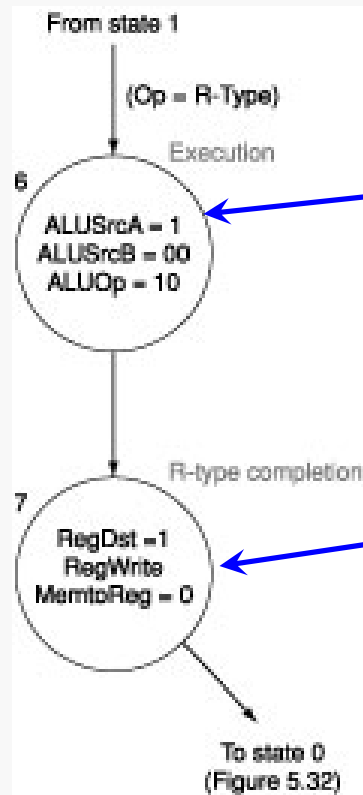
Executing a Load/Store Operation

Datapath 27



Executing an R-type Instruction

Datapath 28

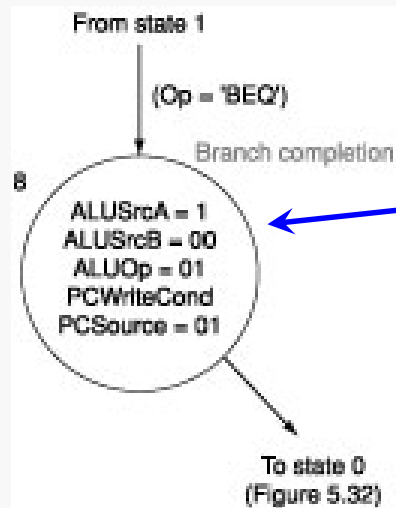


ALUSrcA = 1 operand 1 from register
ALUSrcB = 00 operand 2 from register
ALUOp = 10 ???

RegDst = 1 dest reg from instruction
RegWrite = 1 write result to register file
MemtoReg = 0 value to write is from ALUOut

Executing a BEQ Instruction

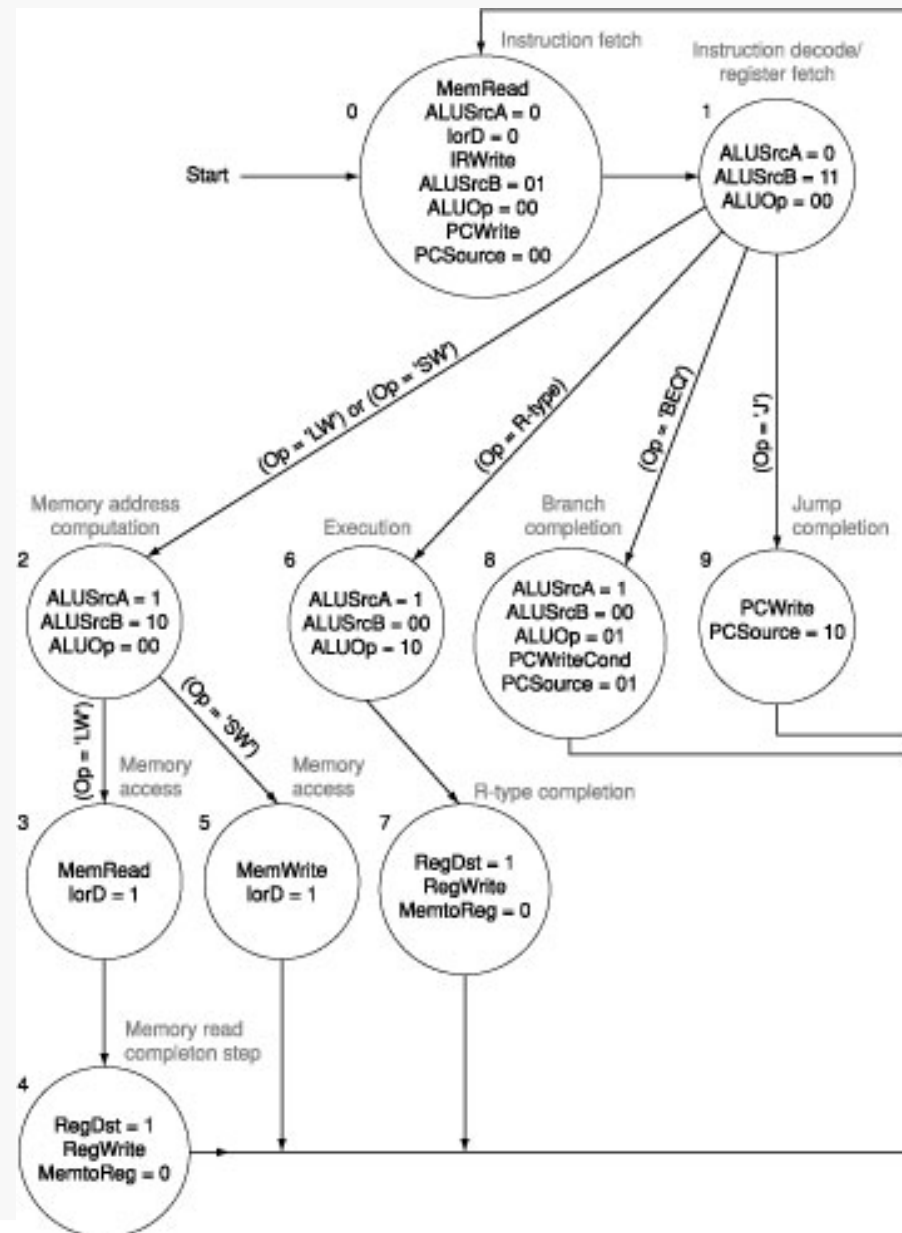
Datapath 29



ALUSrcA = 1	operand 1 from register
ALUSrcB = 00	operand 2 from register
ALUOp = 01	???
PCWriteCond	???
PCSource = 01	address computed by ALU in step 1

Overview of Execution

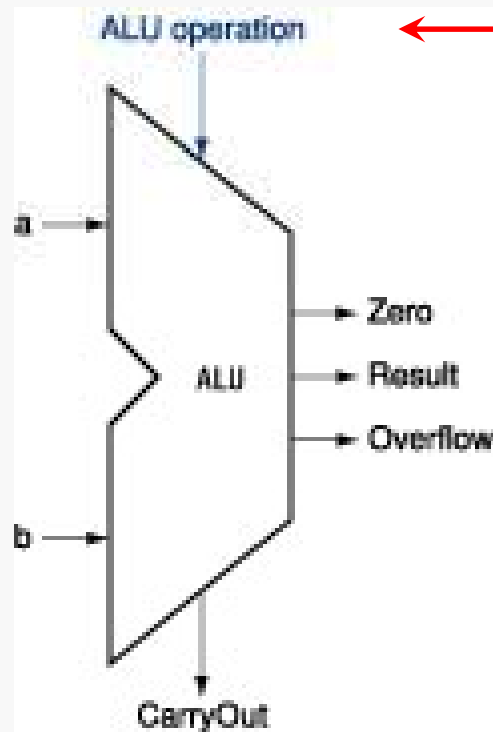
Datapath 30



Recall: Conceptual View of the ALU

Datapath 31

From the user perspective, the ALU may be considered as a black box with a relatively simple interface:



InvA	InvB	FnSel	ALU Fn
0	0	00	AND
0	0	01	OR
0	0	10	add
0	1	10	sub
0	1	11	slt
1	1	00	NOR

4 control bits for ALU

ALU Control Function

Datapath 32

The necessary ALU control bits for our reduced instruction set can be summarized:

Opcode	ALUOp	Operation	funct	ALU action	ALU control
LW	00	load word	XXXXXX	add	0010
SW	00	store word	XXXXXX	add	0010
BEQ	01	branch equal	XXXXXX	subtract	0110
R-type	10	add	100000	add	0010
R-type	10	subtract	100010	subtract	0110
R-type	10	AND	100100	and	0000
R-type	10	OR	100101	or	0001
R-type	10	set on less than	101010	set on less than	0111

The function in the last column depends upon the **ALUOp** values and the `funct` values. We can thus derive a truth table for the necessary control bits...

Control Function Truth Table

Datapath 33

The truth table can be simplified due to the patterns in the relevant columns:

ALUOp		funct						
ALUOp1	ALUOp2	F5	F4	F3	F2	F1	F0	Control
0	0	X	X	X	X	X	X	0010
X	1	X	X	X	X	X	X	0110
1	X	X	X	0	0	0	0	0010
1	X	X	X	0	0	1	0	0110
1	X	X	X	0	1	0	0	0000
1	X	X	X	0	1	0	1	0001
1	X	X	X	1	0	1	0	0111

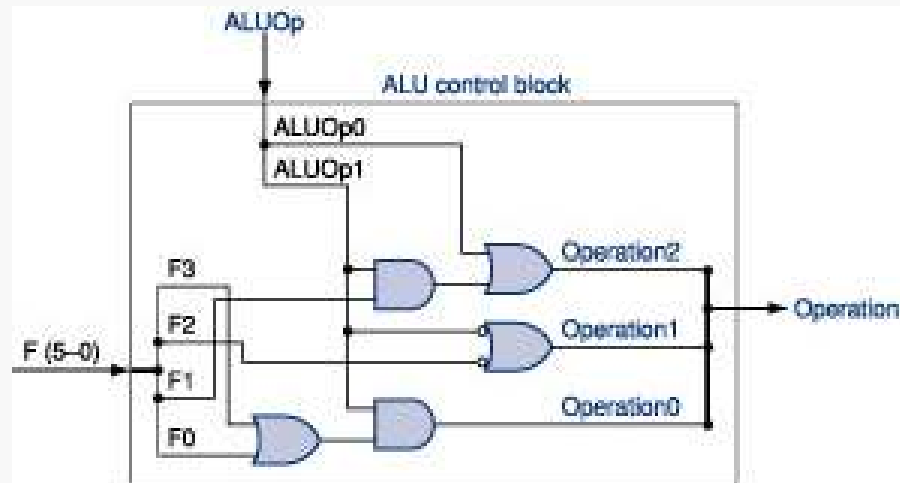
Given the truth table for the function, it is now child's play to implement the necessary combinational logic.

ALU Control Block

Datapath 34

Our ALU control function truth table is somewhat simpler than would be needed for the full MIPS datapath, largely due to the partial instruction set it supports.

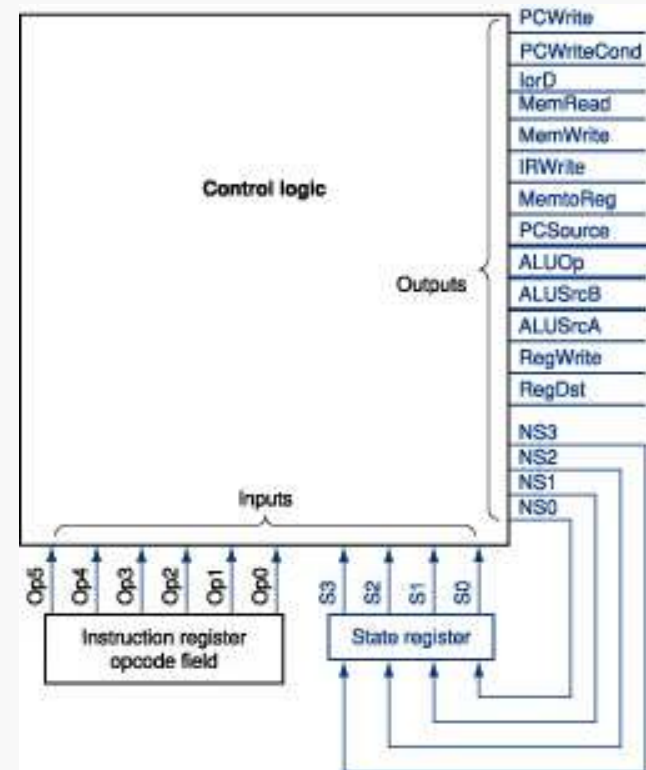
In particular, note that the first bit of the ALU control is always zero; hence we do not need to generate it.



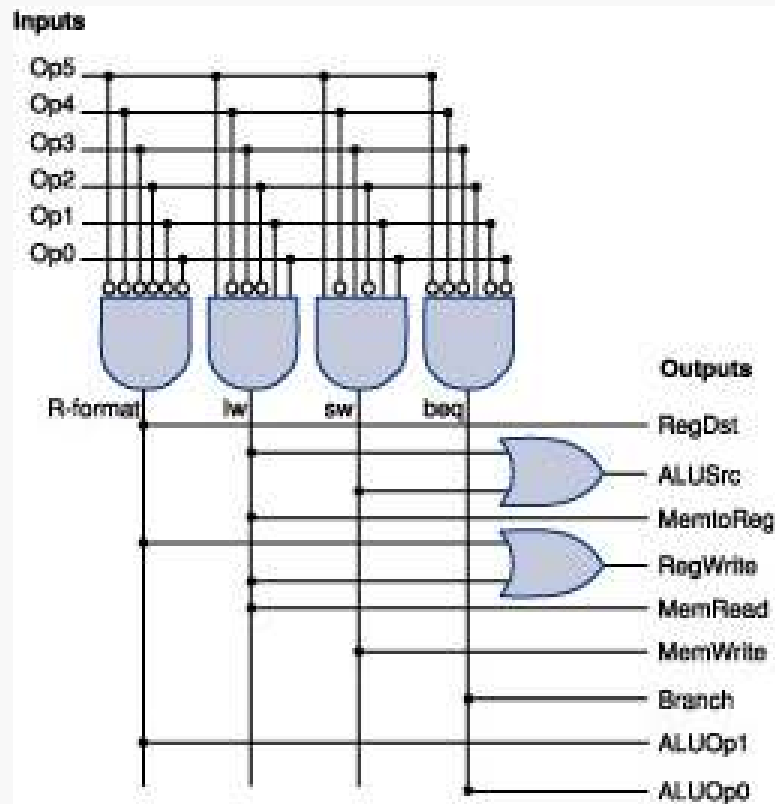
Finite State Machine for General Control

Datapath 35

The general control logic is easily modeled as a FSM:



A similar analysis, based upon the preceding discussion of the particular instructions, leads to the following design for the general controller:



This is shown as a *programmable logic array* (PLA).

A bank of AND gates compute the necessary product terms.

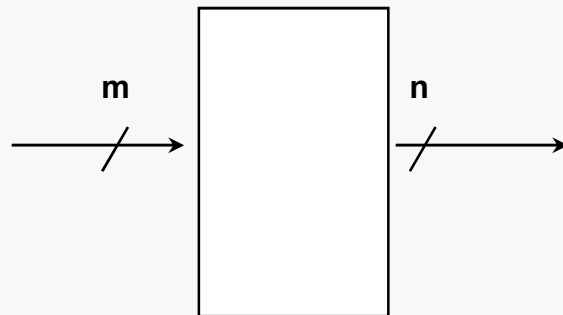
Then, a bank of OR gates form the necessary sums.

ROM = "Read Only Memory"

- values of memory locations are fixed ahead of time

A ROM can be used to implement a truth table

- if the address is m -bits, we can address 2^m entries in the ROM.
- our outputs are the bits of data that the address points to.



0	0	0	0	0	1	1
0	0	1	1	1	0	0
0	1	0	1	1	0	0
0	1	1	1	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	0	0	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	0
1	1	1	0	1	1	1

How many inputs are there?

- 6 bits for opcode, 4 bits for state = 10 address lines
- (i.e., $2^{10} = 1024$ different addresses)

How many outputs are there?

- 16 datapath-control outputs, 4 state bits = 20 outputs

ROM is $2^{10} \times 20 = 20\text{K}$ bits (and a rather unusual size)

Rather wasteful, since for lots of the entries, the outputs are the same

- i.e., opcode is often ignored

Break up the table into two parts

- 4 state bits tell you the 16 outputs, $2^4 \times 16$ bits of ROM
- 10 bits tell you the 4 next state bits, $2^{10} \times 4$ bits of ROM
- total: 4.3K bits of ROM

PLA is much smaller

- can share product terms
- only need entries that produce an active output
- can take into account don't cares

Size is $(\#inputs \times \#product\text{-}terms) + (\#outputs \times \#product\text{-}terms)$

- for this example = $(10 \times 17) + (20 \times 17) = 510$ PLA cells

PLA cells usually about the size of a ROM cell (slightly bigger)