Building an Arithmetic Machine

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HANDOUT

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Today's lecture

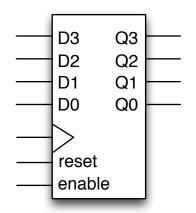
- Register Files, review/cont.
 - Registers
- The Arithmetic Machine
 - Programmable hardware
 - Instruction Set Architectures (ISA)

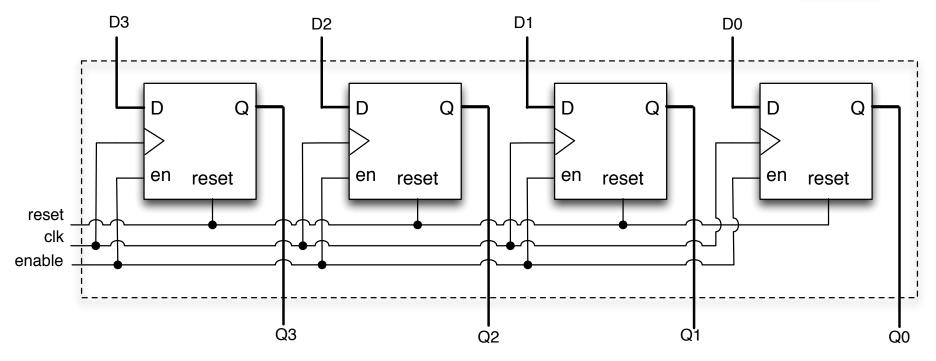


- **Instructions & Registers**
 - Assembly Language
 - Machine Language

How can we store more than 1 bit?

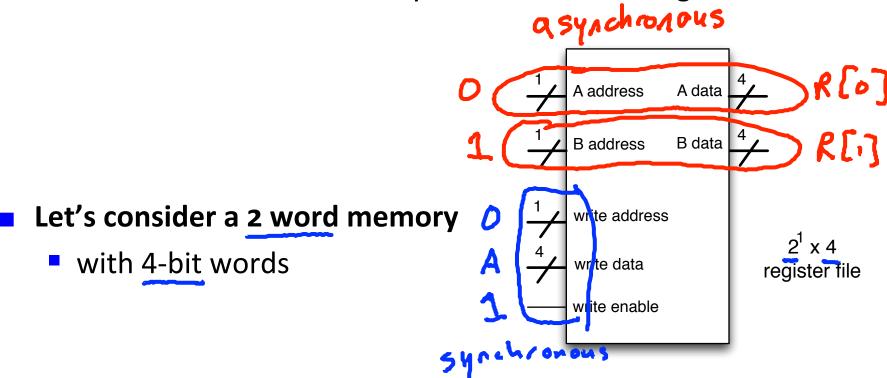
- We build registers out of flip flops.
 - Example 4-bit register made of four D flip flops
 - 1 data input, 1 data output per flip flop
 - All control signals use the same input

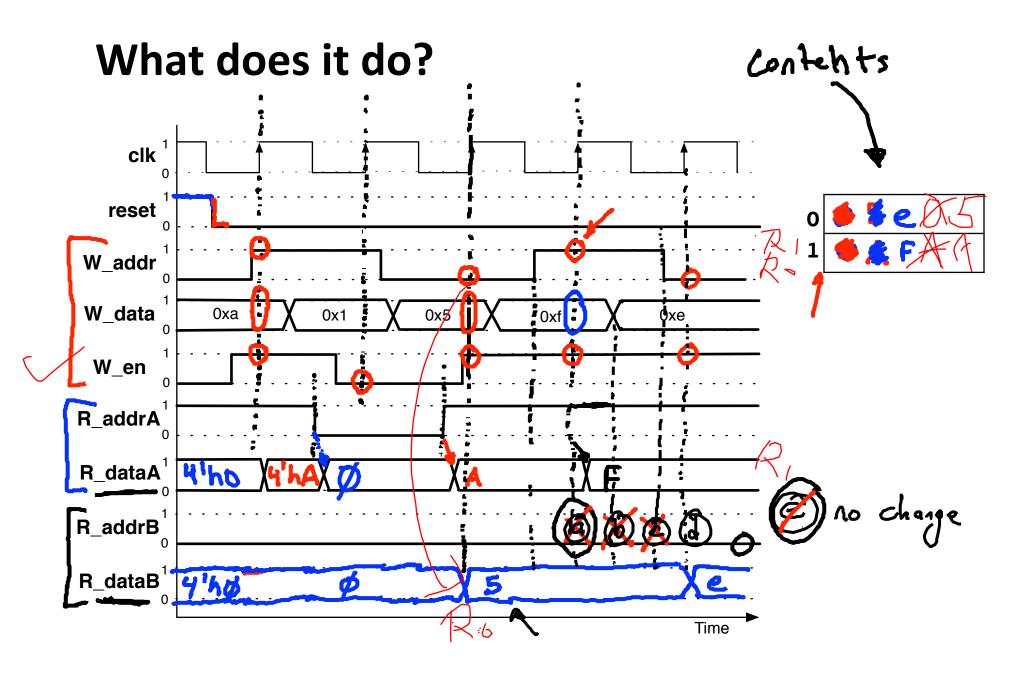




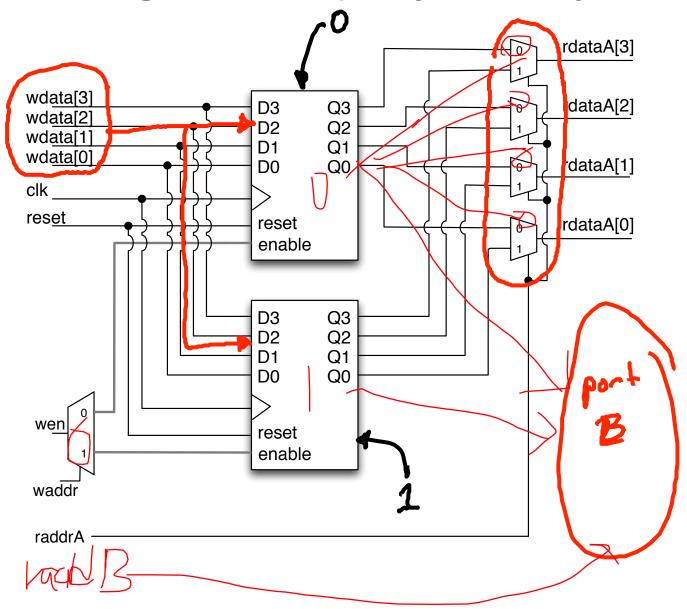
Register file implementation

- A register file has 3 parts
 - The Storage: An array of registers
 - The Read Ports: Output the value of selected register
 - The Write Port: Selectively write one of the registers



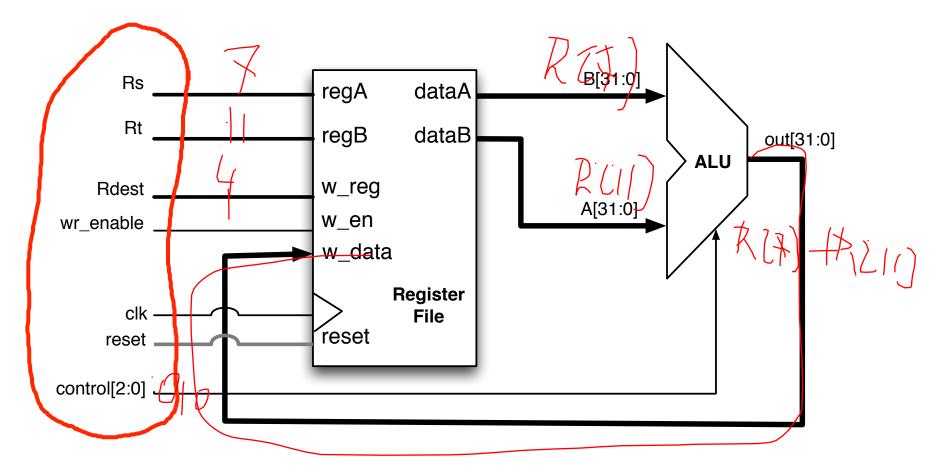


2 x 4-bit register file (only 1 read port shown)



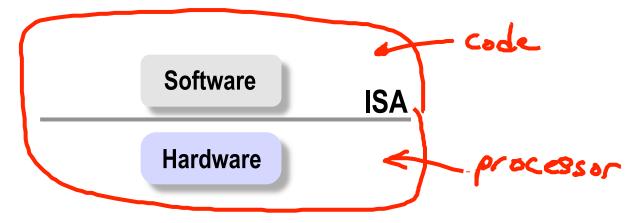
Building an "arithmetic machine"

- With an ALU and a register file, we can build a calculator
 - Here are the essential parts.



Building a computer processor.

- The key feature that distinguishes a computer processor from other digital systems is programmability.
- A processor is a hardware system controlled by software



- An Instruction Set Architecture (ISA) describes the interface between the software and the hardware.
 - Specifies what operations are available
 - Specifies the effects of each operation

A MIPS ISA processor

- Different processor families (x86, PowerPC, ARM, MIPS, ...) use their own instruction set architectures.
- The processor we'll build will execute a subset of the MIPS ISA
 - Of course, the concepts are not MIPS-specific
 - MIPS is just convenient because it is real, yet simple
- **■** The MIPS ISA is widely used. Primarily in embedded systems:
 - Various routers from Cisco
 - Game machines like the <u>Nintendo 64</u> and <u>Sony Playstation 2</u>

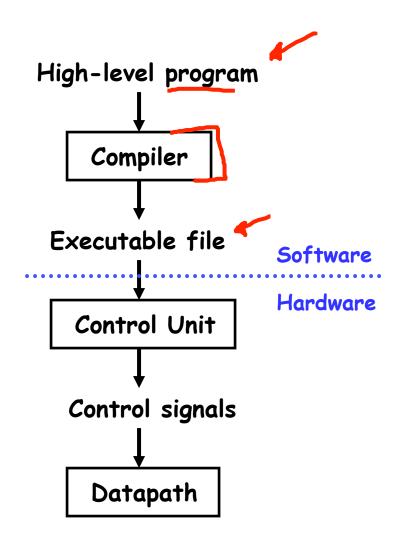






Programming and CPUs

- Programs written in a high-level language like C++ must be compiled to produce an executable program.
- The result is a <u>CPU-specific</u> machine language program. This can be loaded into memory and executed by the processor.
- Machine language serves as the interface between hardware and software.



High-level languages vs. machine language

- High-level languages are designed for human usage:
 - Useful programming constructs (for loops, if/else)
 - Functions for code abstraction; variables for naming data
 - Safety features: type checking, garbage collection
 - Portable across platforms
- Machine language is designed for efficient hardware implementation
 - Consists of very simple statements, called instructions
 - Data is named by where it is being stored
 - Loops, if/else implemented by branch and jump instructions
 - Little error checking provided; no portability

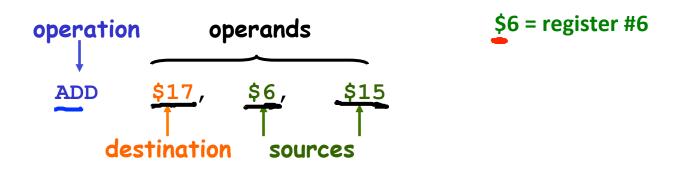
Assembly Language & Instructions

- Machine language is a binary representation of instructions
- Assembly language is a human-readable version
- There is an (almost) one-to-one correspondence between assembly and machine languages; we'll see the relation later.
- Instructions consist of:
 - Operation code (opcode): names the operation to perform
 - Operands: names the data to operate on
- Example:



MIPS: register-to-register, "three address"

- MIPS uses three-address instructions for arithmetic.
 - Each ALU instruction contains a destination and two sources.
- MIPS is a register-to-register architecture.
 - For arithmetic instructions, the destination and sources must all be registers (or constants).
 - Special instructions move values between the register file and memory.
- For example, an addition (a = b + c) might look like:

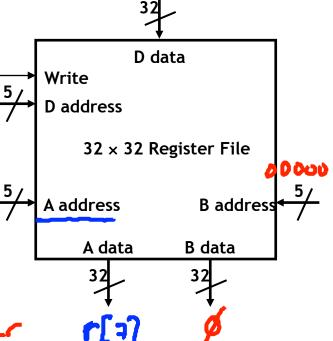


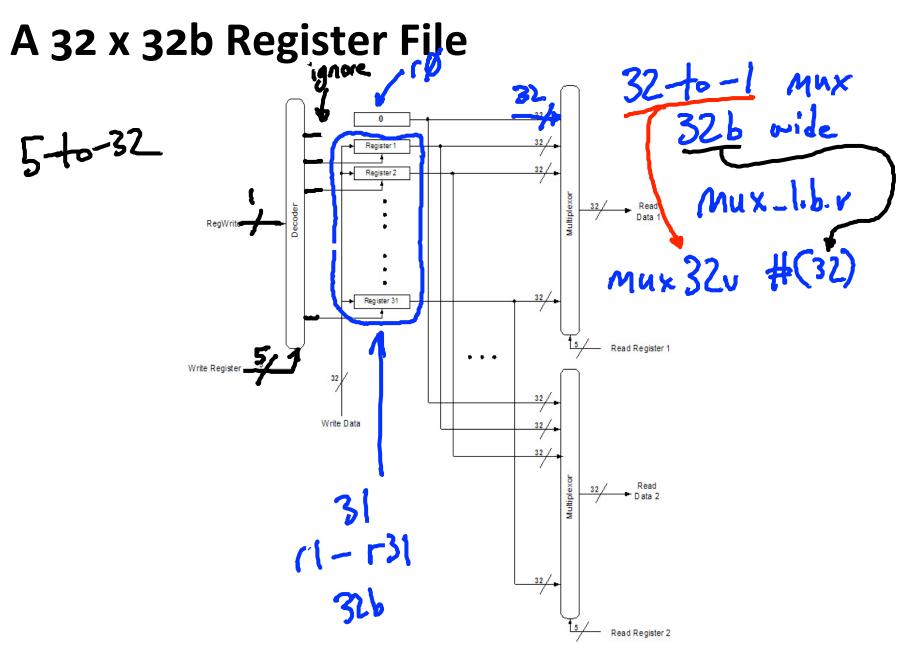
MIPS register file

- MIPS processors have 32 registers, each of which holds a 32-bit value.
 - Register specifiers are 5 bits long.
 - The data inputs and outputs are 32-bits wide.
- Register 0 is special
 - It is always read as the value 0.
 - Writes to it are ignored.
- Two naming conventions for regs:
 - By number: \$0,..., \$17,..., \$31
 - By name: \$zero,..., \$s1,..., \$ra



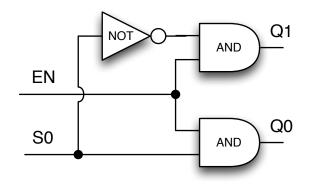
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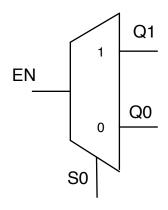




Decoders

- This circuit is a 1-to-2 decoder
 - It decodes a 1-bit address, setting the specified output to 1
 - Assuming the circuit is enabled



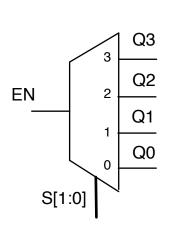


EN	S0	(Q1,Q0)
0	Χ	(0, 0)
1	0	(0, 1)
1	1	(1, 0)

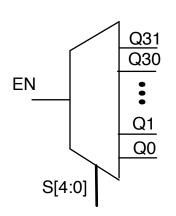
Scaling Decoders

- Decoders can be generalized as follows
- A 1-to-2ⁿ decoder:
 - Has a 1-bit enable input, and an n-bit select input
 - Has 2ⁿ outputs
 - All the outputs are zero, except the selectth if enable = 1
 - If enable = 0, all outputs are zero.

■ A 1-to-4 decoder:



EN	S[1:0]	Q[3:0]
0	X	(0,0,0,0)
1	(0,0)	(0,0,0,1)
1	(0,1)	(0,0,1,0)
1	(1,0)	(0,1,0,0)
1	(1,1)	(1,0,0,0)



EN	S[4:0]	Q[31:0]
0	X	0x0000
1	0	0x0001
1	1	0x0002
1		
1	30	0x4000
1	31	0x8000

Basic arithmetic and logic operations

MIPS provides basic integer arithmetic operations:

add sub mul* div*

And logical operations:

and or nor xor not

Remember that these all require three register operands; for example:

```
add $14, $18, $3 # $14 = $18 + $3
mul $22, $22, $11 # $22 = $22 x $11
```

Note: a full MIPS ISA reference can be found in Appendix A

(linked from website) * We won't implement these in our implementation

Larger expressions

More complex arithmetic expressions may require multiple operations at the instruction level.

$$\$4 = (\$1 + \$2) \times (\$3 - \$4)$$
add \$5, \$1, \$2 # \$5 contains \$1 + \$2
sub \$4, \$3, \$4 # Temporary value \$4 = \$3 - \$4
mul \$4, \$4, \$5 # \$4 contains the final product

- Temporary registers may be necessary, since each MIPS instructions can access only two source registers and one destination.
 - could have re-used \$1 instead of introducing \$5.
 - But be careful not to modify registers that are needed again later.

Immediate operands = [mstart]

- So far, the instructions expect register operands. How do you get data into registers in the first place?
 - Some instructions allow you to specify a signed constant, or "immediate" value, for the second source instead of a register.
 - For example, here is the immediate add instruction, addi:

addi \$15, \$1,
$$4$$
 # \$15 = $$1 + 4$

Immediate operands can be used in conjunction with the \$zero register to write constants into registers:

addi
$$$15$$
, $$0$, 4 # $$15$ = 4

A more complete example

What if we wanted to compute the following?

$$1 + 2 + 3 + 4$$



A more complete example

What if we wanted to compute the following?

```
1 + 2 + 3 + 4
                           II
                                               III
                    addi $1, $0, 1
addi $1,
                                        addi $1, $0, 1
addi $2, 3, 4
                    addi $1, $1, 2
                                        addi $2, $0, 2
                    addi $1, $1, 3
                                        addi $3, $0, 3
add $1, $1, $2
                    addi $1, $1, 4
                                        addi $4, $0, 4
                                        add $1, $1, $2
   none of the above
A:
                                        add $3, $3, $4
    I and II
B:
                                        add $1, $1, $3
C: I and III
  II and III
D:
    all of the above
E:
```