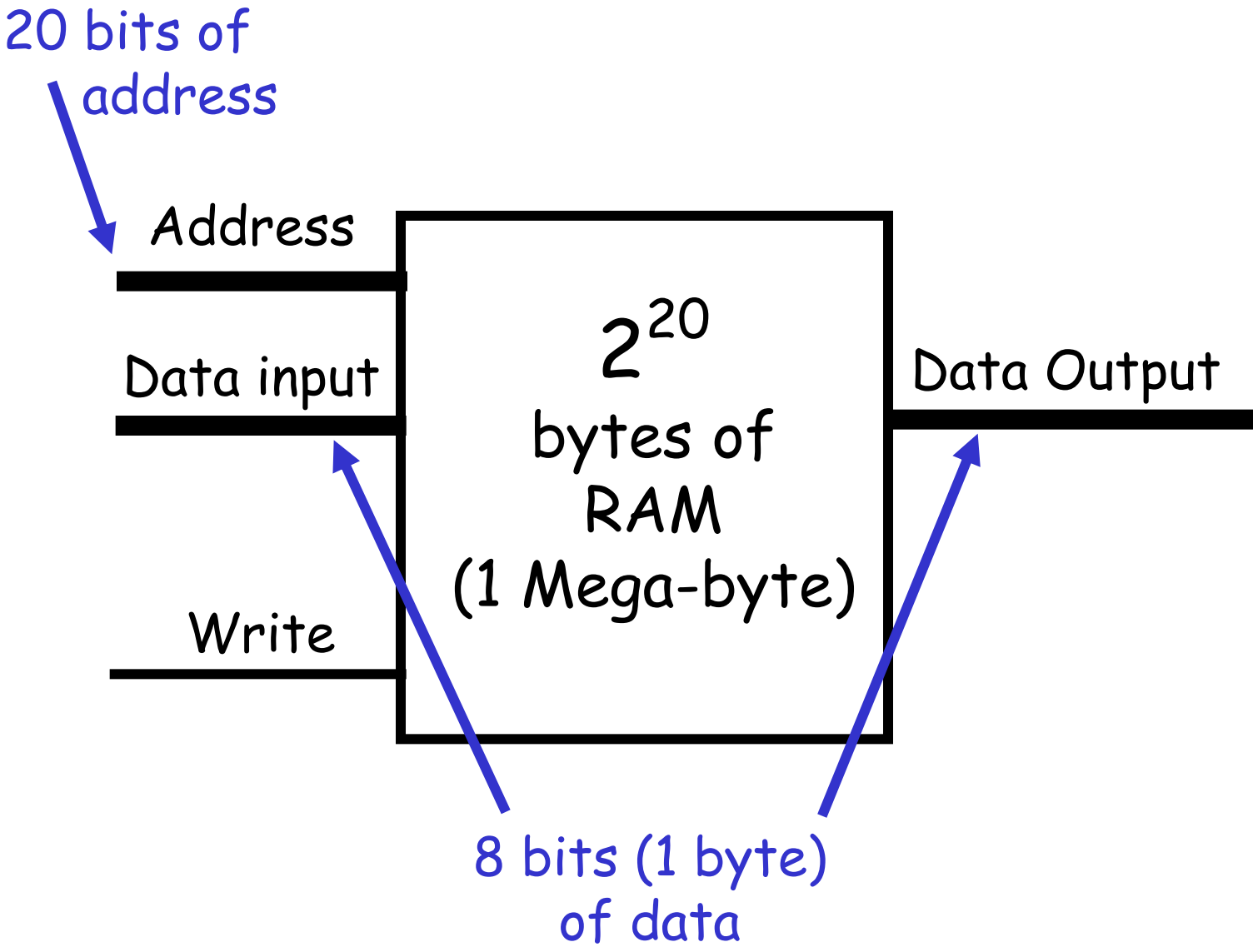
Chapter 5

CENTRAL PROCESSING UNIT

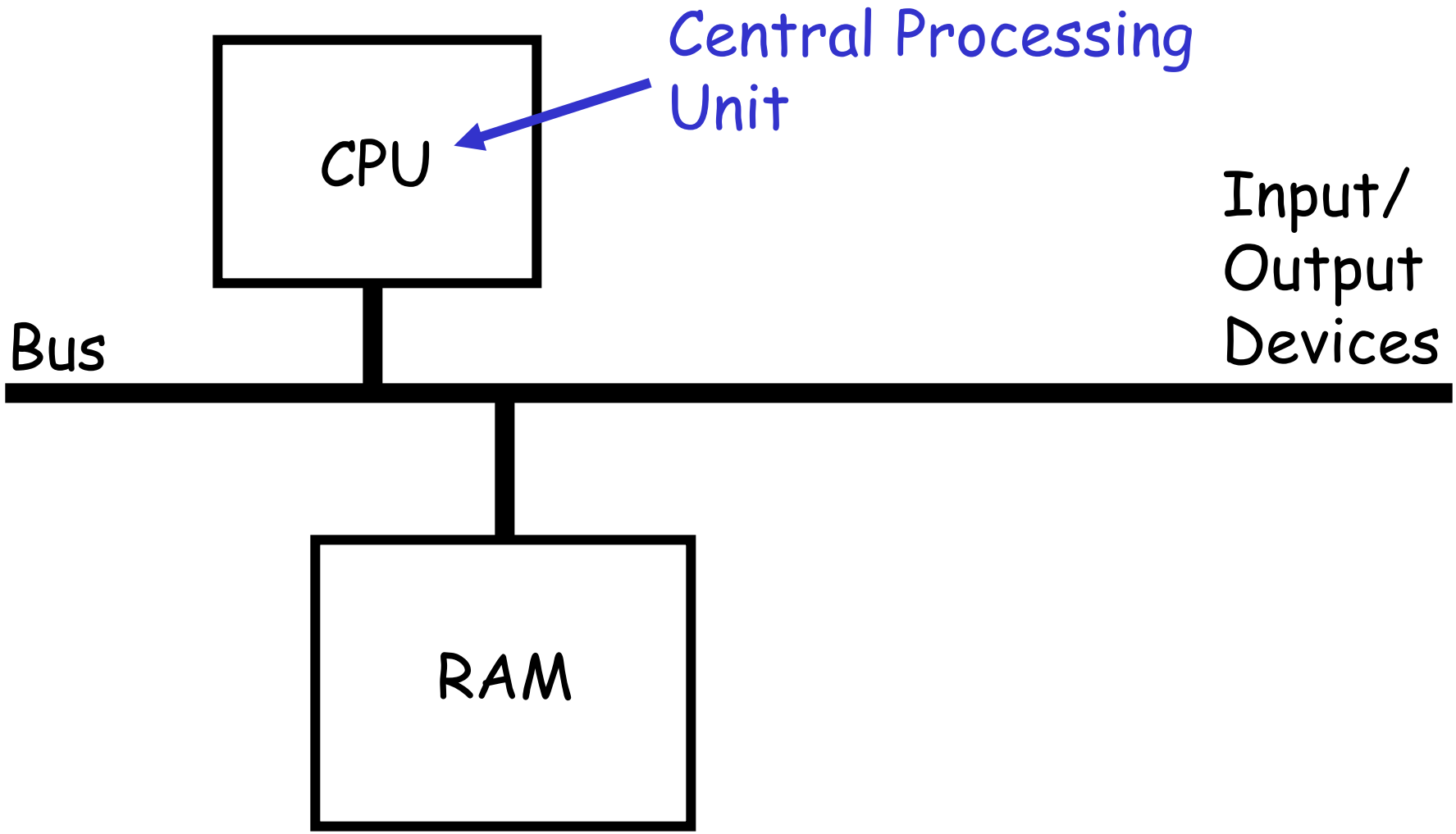
RAM (cont.)

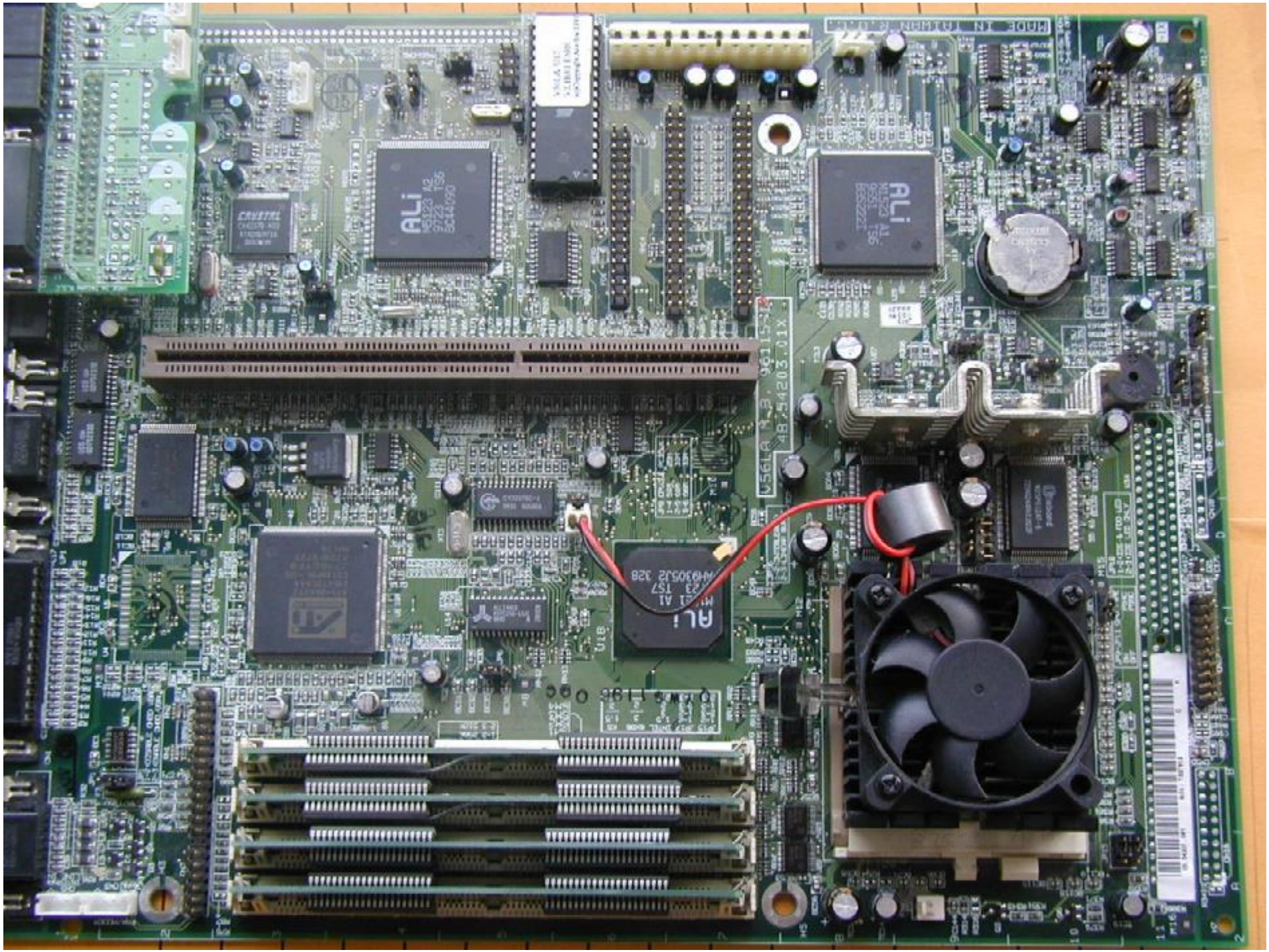

20 bits of address
Address
Data input
Write
2^{20} bytes of RAM (1 Mega-byte)
Data Output
8 bits (1 byte) of data

RAM (cont.)

- When you talk about the memory of a computer, most often you're talking about its RAM.
- If a program is stored in RAM, that means that a sequence of instructions are stored in consecutively addressed bytes in the RAM.
- Data values (variables) are stored anywhere in RAM, not necessarily sequentially
- Both instructions and data are accessed from RAM using addresses
- RAM is one (crucial) part of the computer's overall architecture

Computer Architecture




ALi
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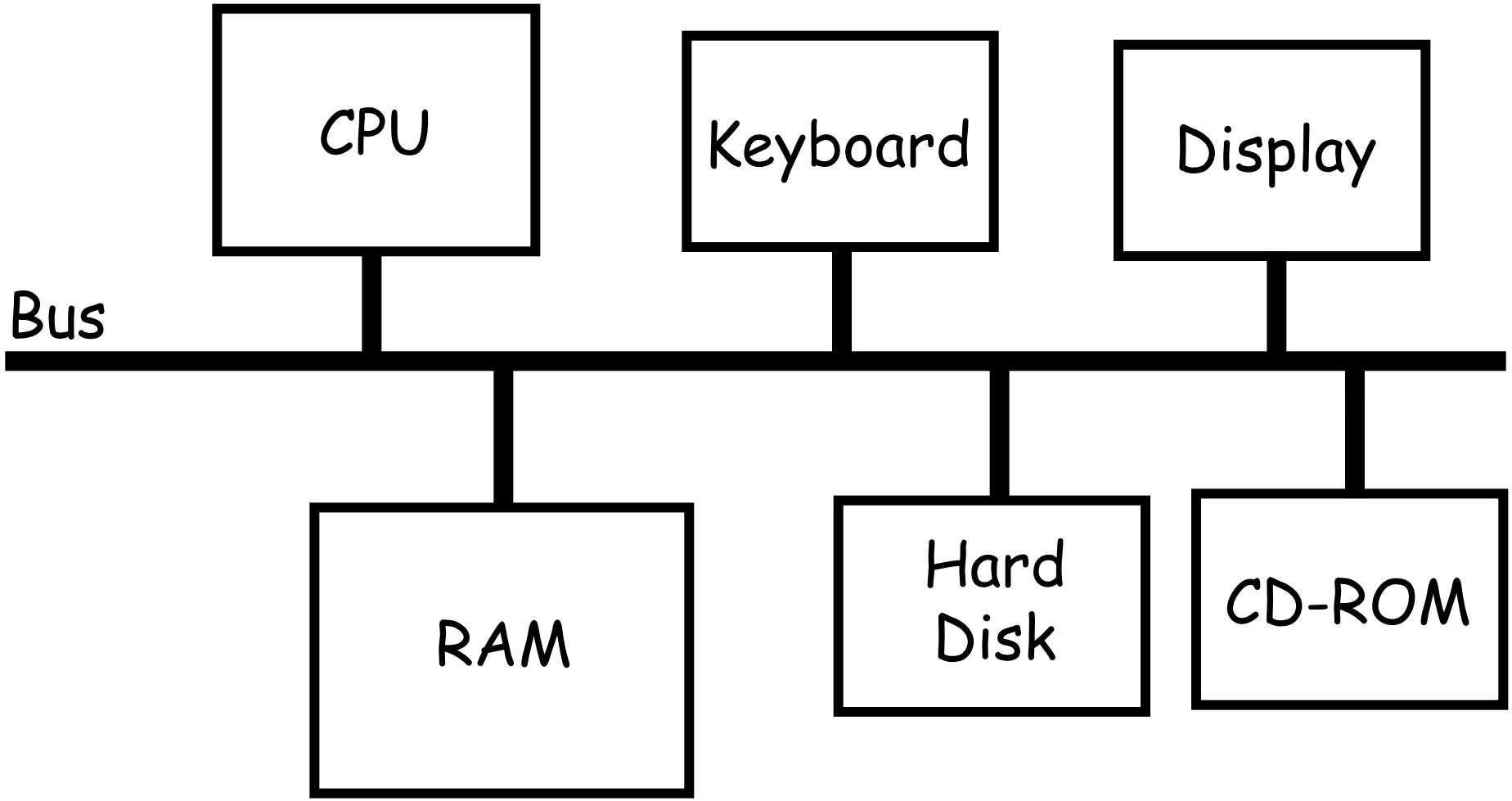
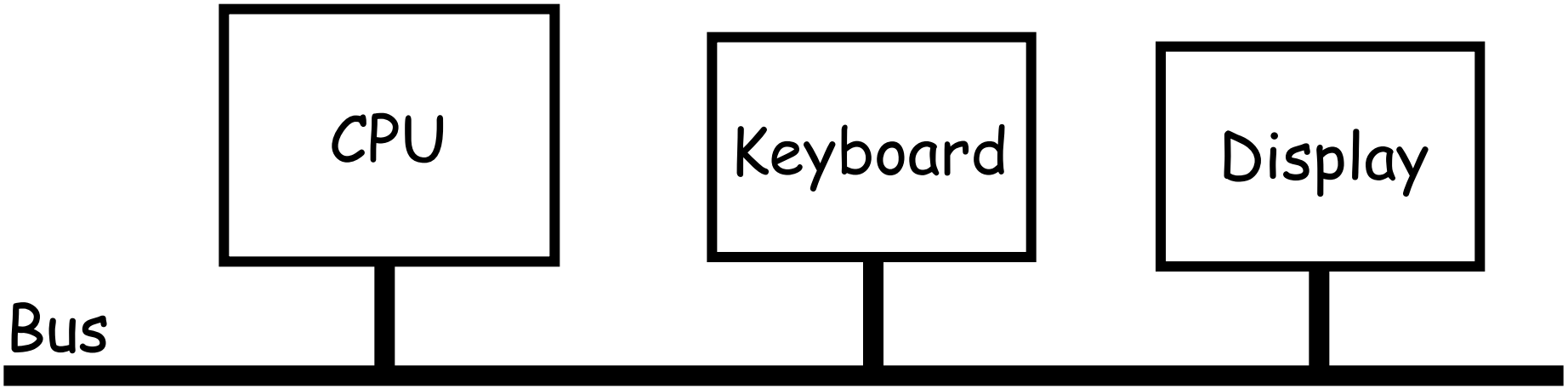
Computer Architecture

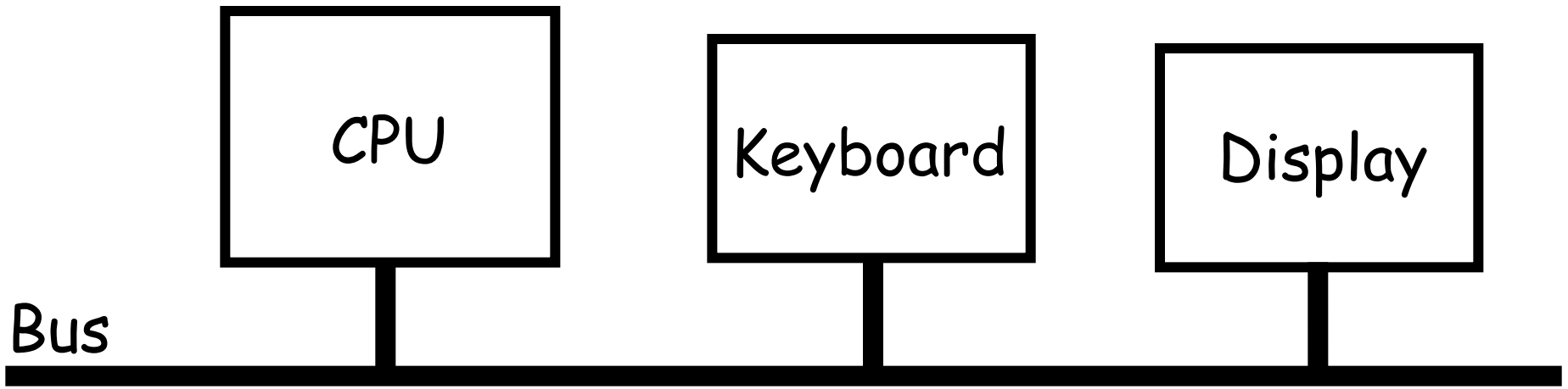


The Bus

- What is a bus?
- It is a simplified way for many devices to communicate to each other.
- Looks like a "highway" for information.
- Actually, more like a "basket" that they all share.

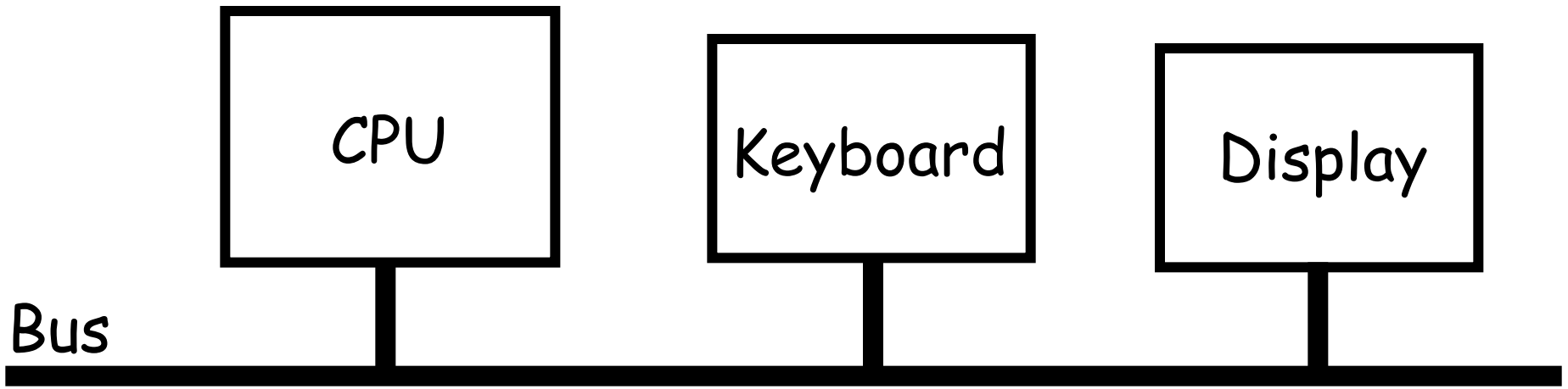


The Bus



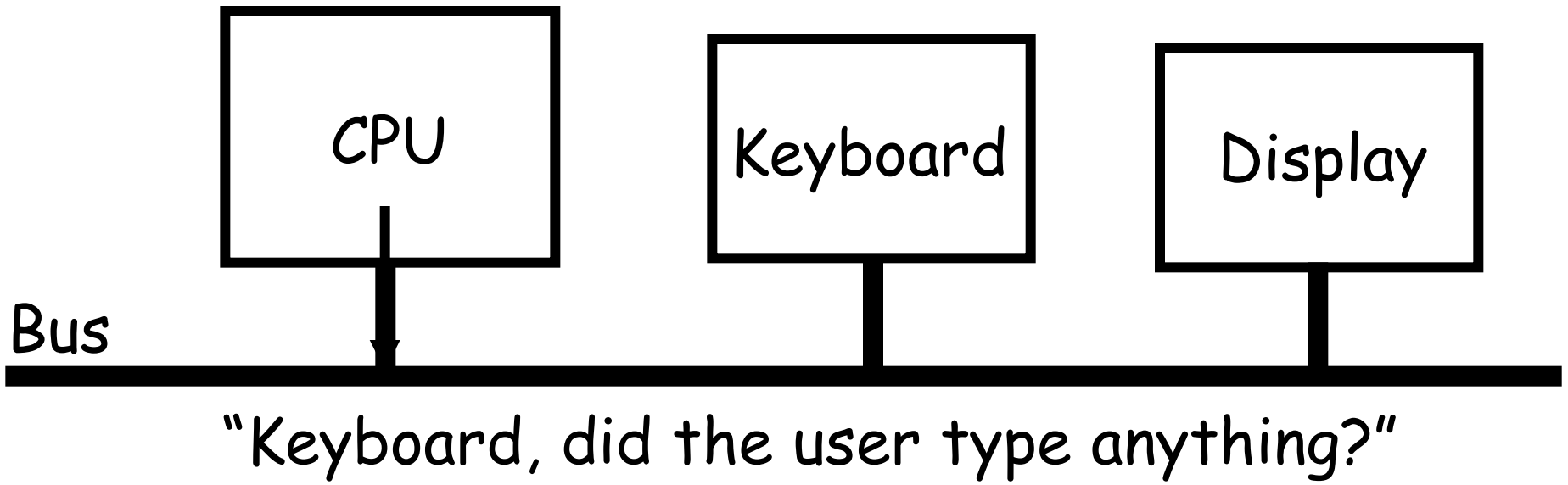
The Bus

- Suppose CPU needs to check to see if the user typed anything.



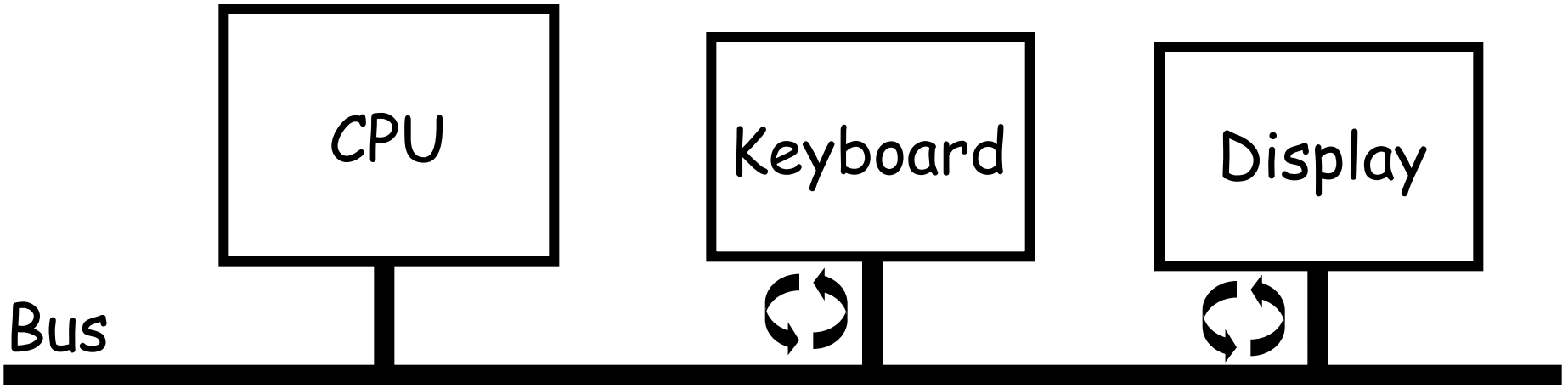
The Bus

- CPU puts "Keyboard, did the user type anything?" (represented in some way) on the Bus.



The Bus

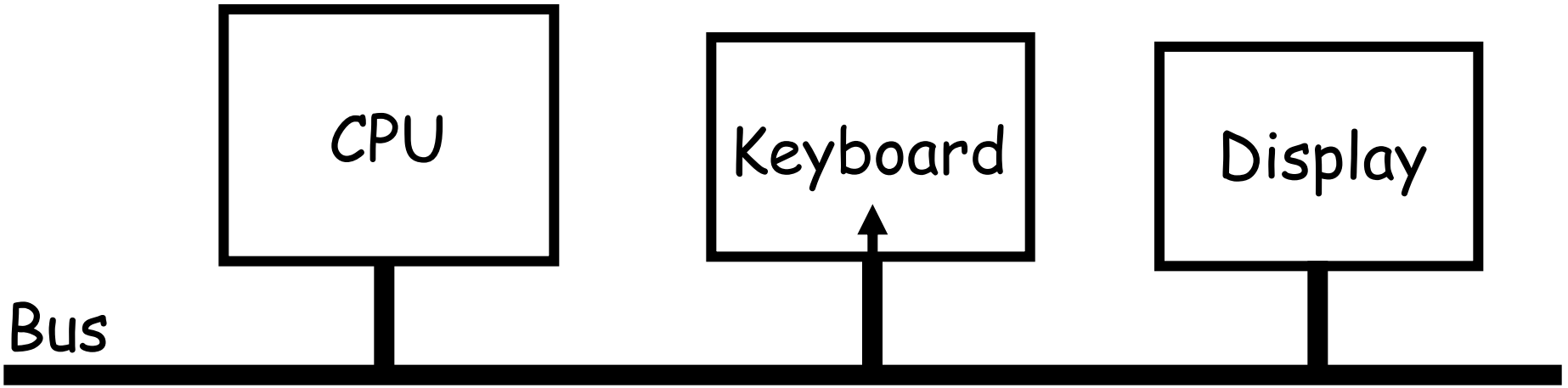
- Each device (except CPU) is a State Machine that constantly checks to see what's on the Bus.



"Keyboard, did the user type anything?"

The Bus

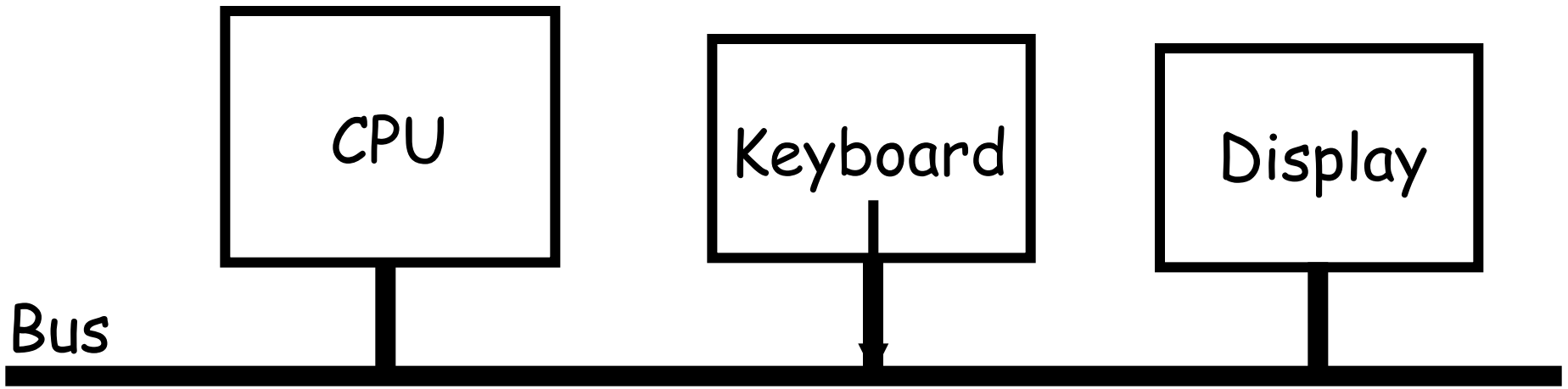
- Keyboard notices that its name is on the Bus, and reads info. Other devices ignore the info.



"Keyboard, did the user type anything?"

The Bus

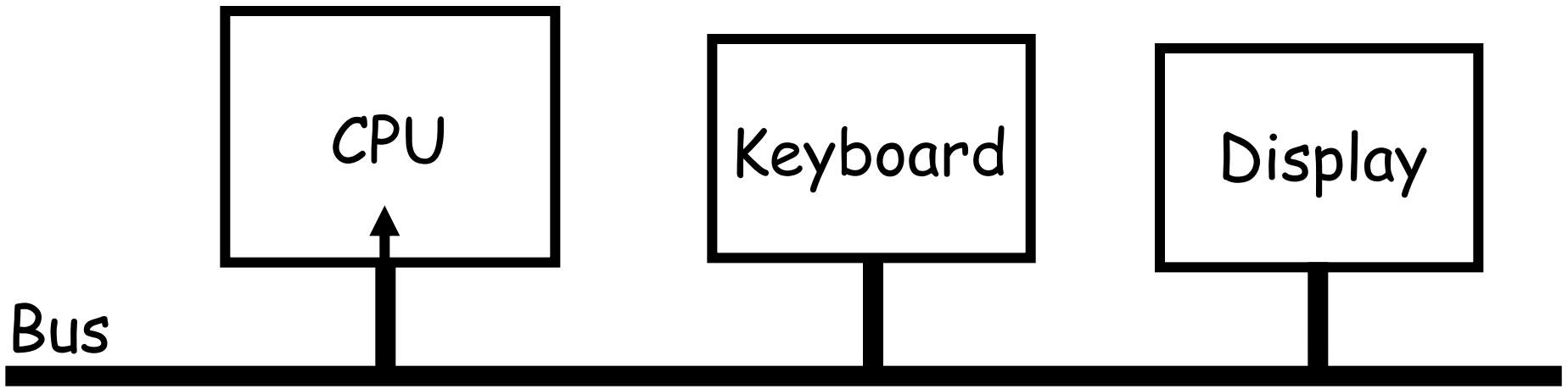
- Keyboard then writes "CPU: Yes, user typed 'a'." to the Bus.



"CPU: Yes, user typed 'a'."

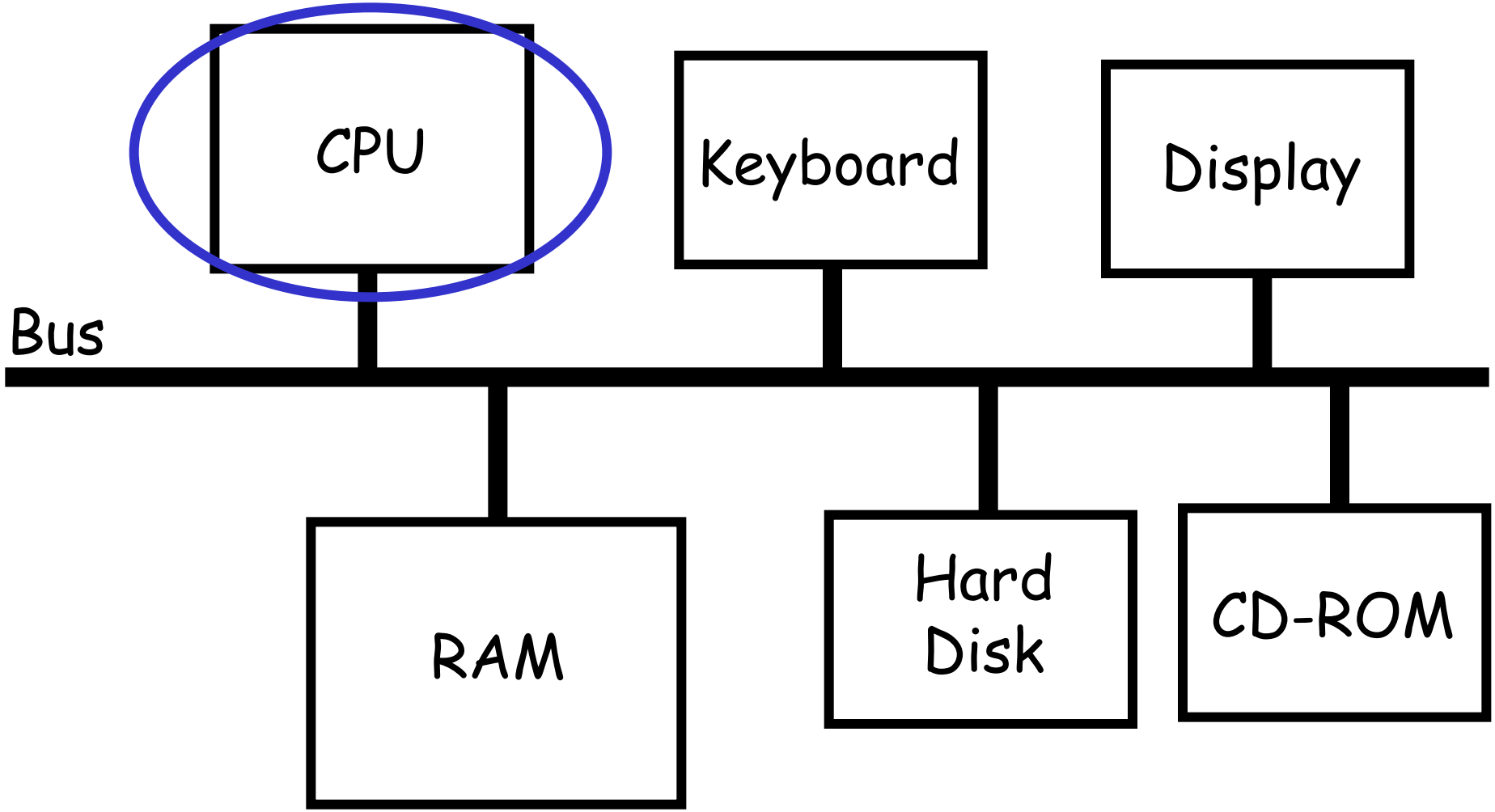
The Bus

- At some point, CPU reads the Bus, and gets the Keyboard's response.



"CPU: Yes, user typed 'a'."

Computer Architecture

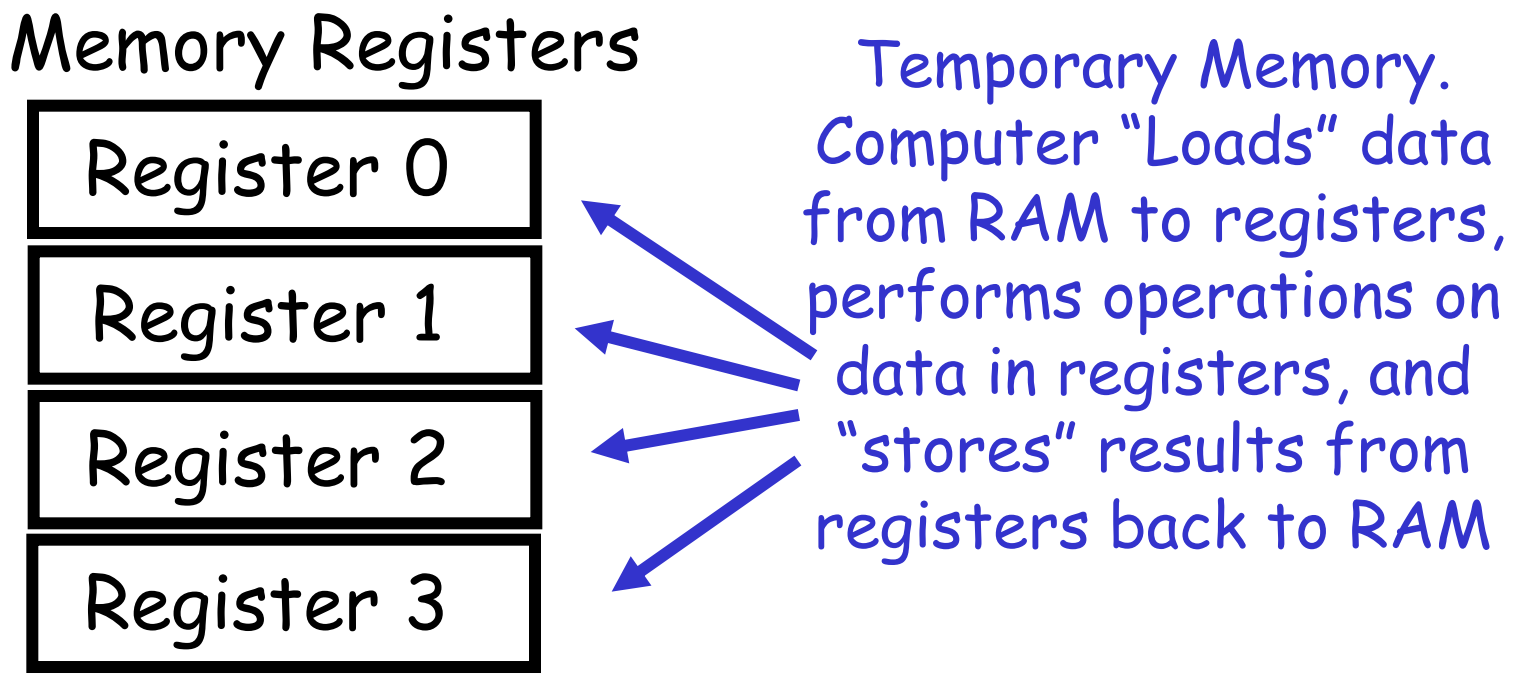


Inside the CPU

- The CPU is the brain of the computer.
- It is the part that actually executes the instructions.

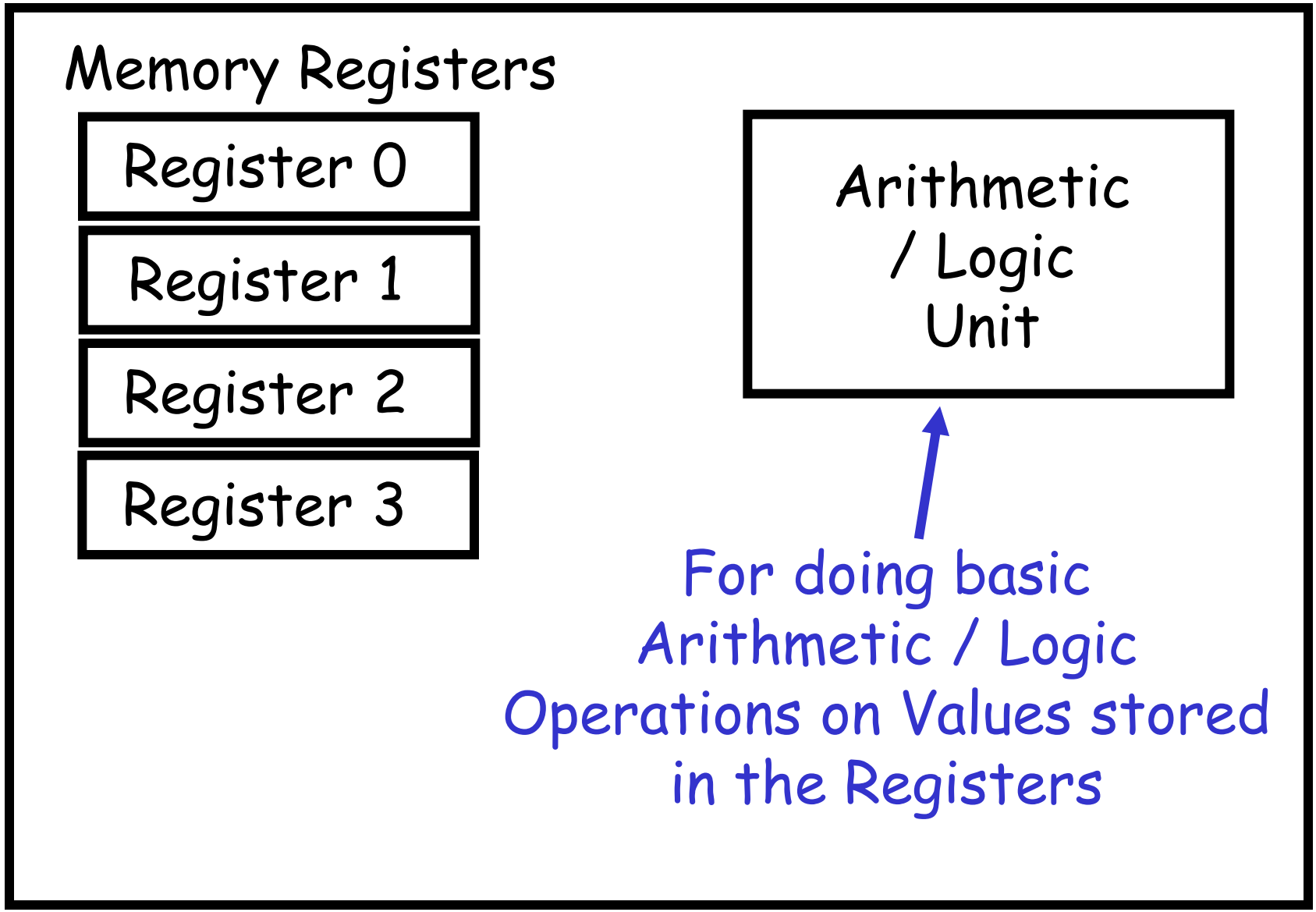
- Let's take a look inside.

Inside the CPU (cont.)

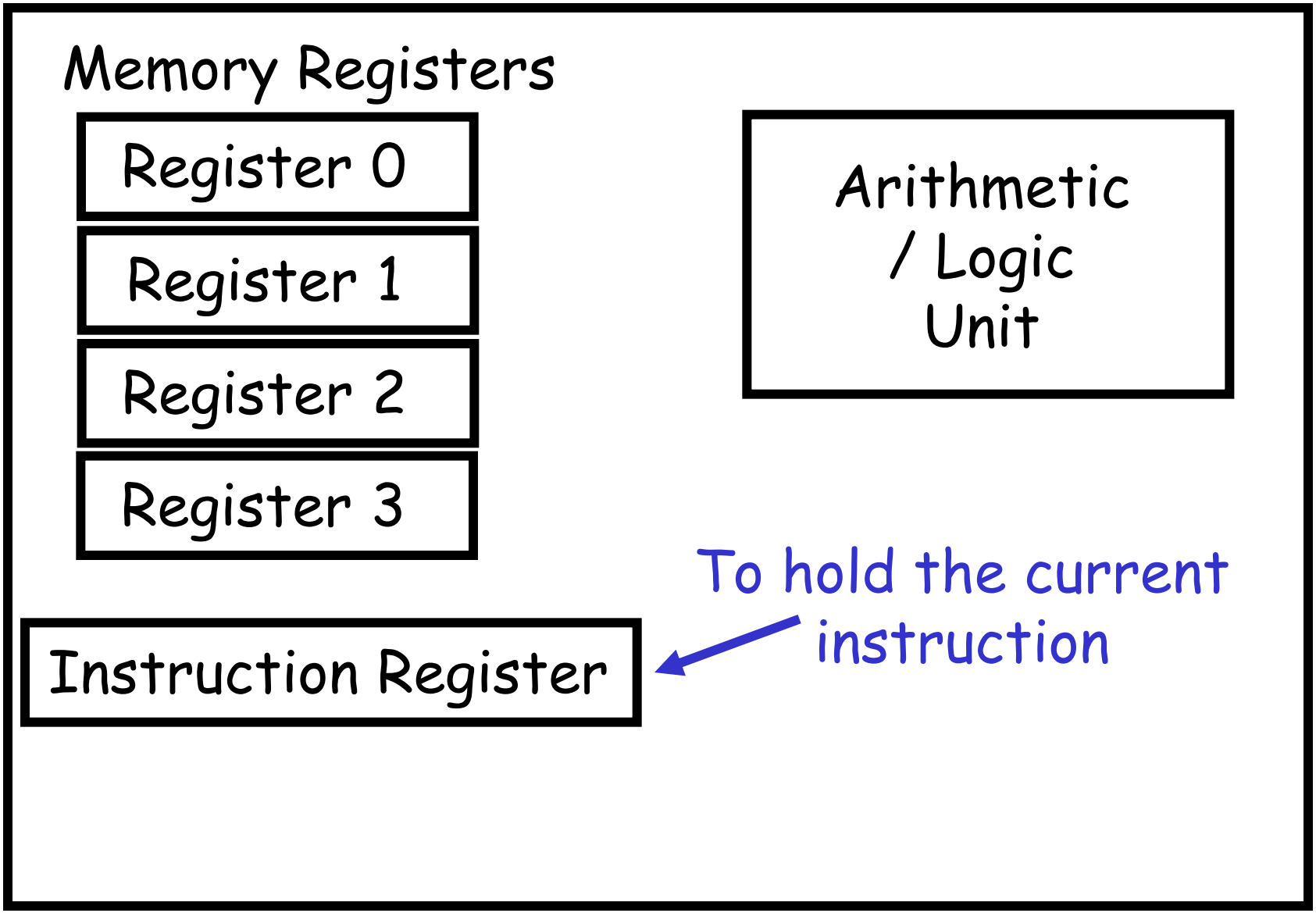


Remember our initial example: "read value of A from memory; read value of B from memory; add values of A and B; put result in memory in variable C." The reads are done to registers, the addition is done in registers, and the result is written to memory from a register.

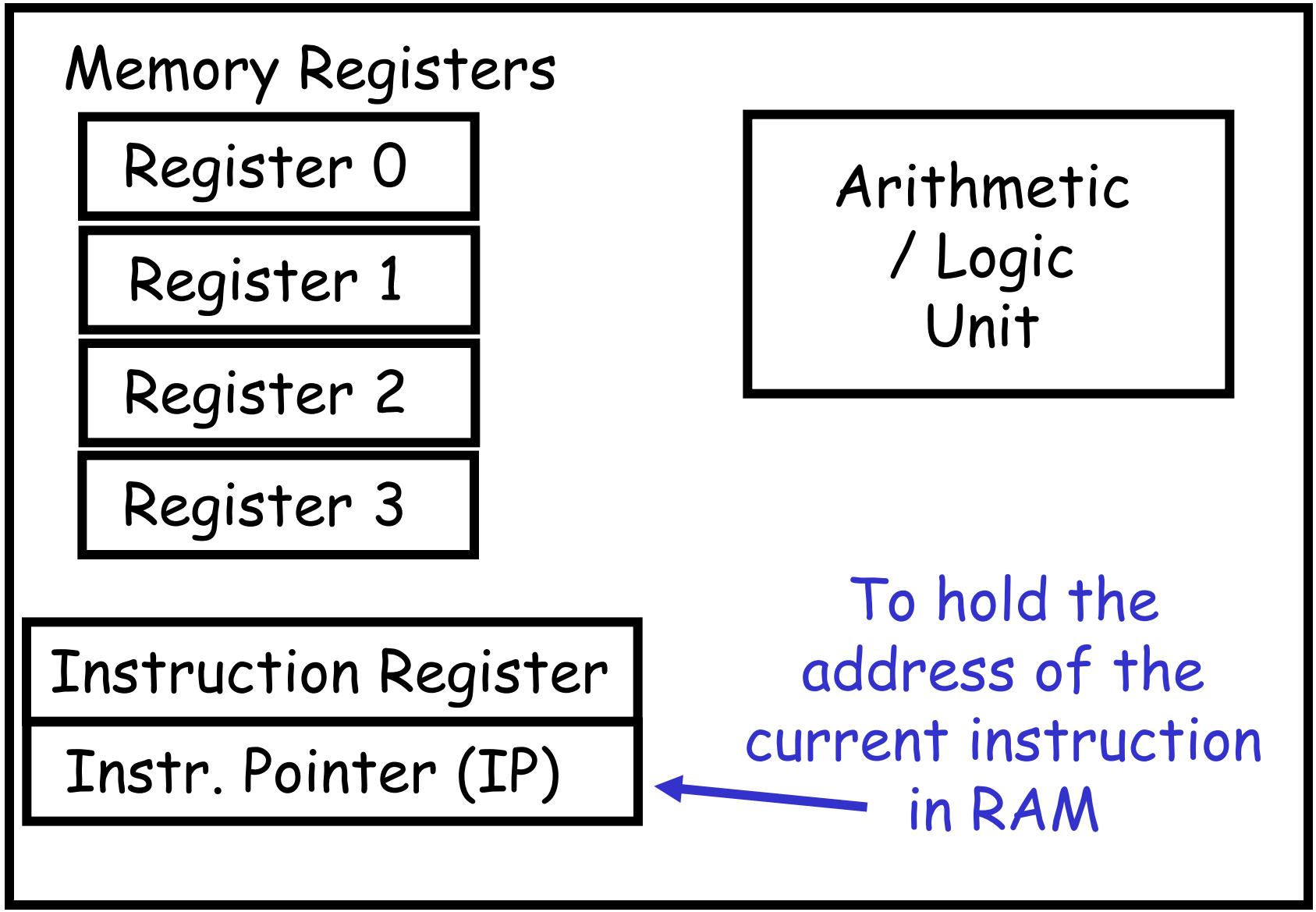
Inside the CPU (cont.)



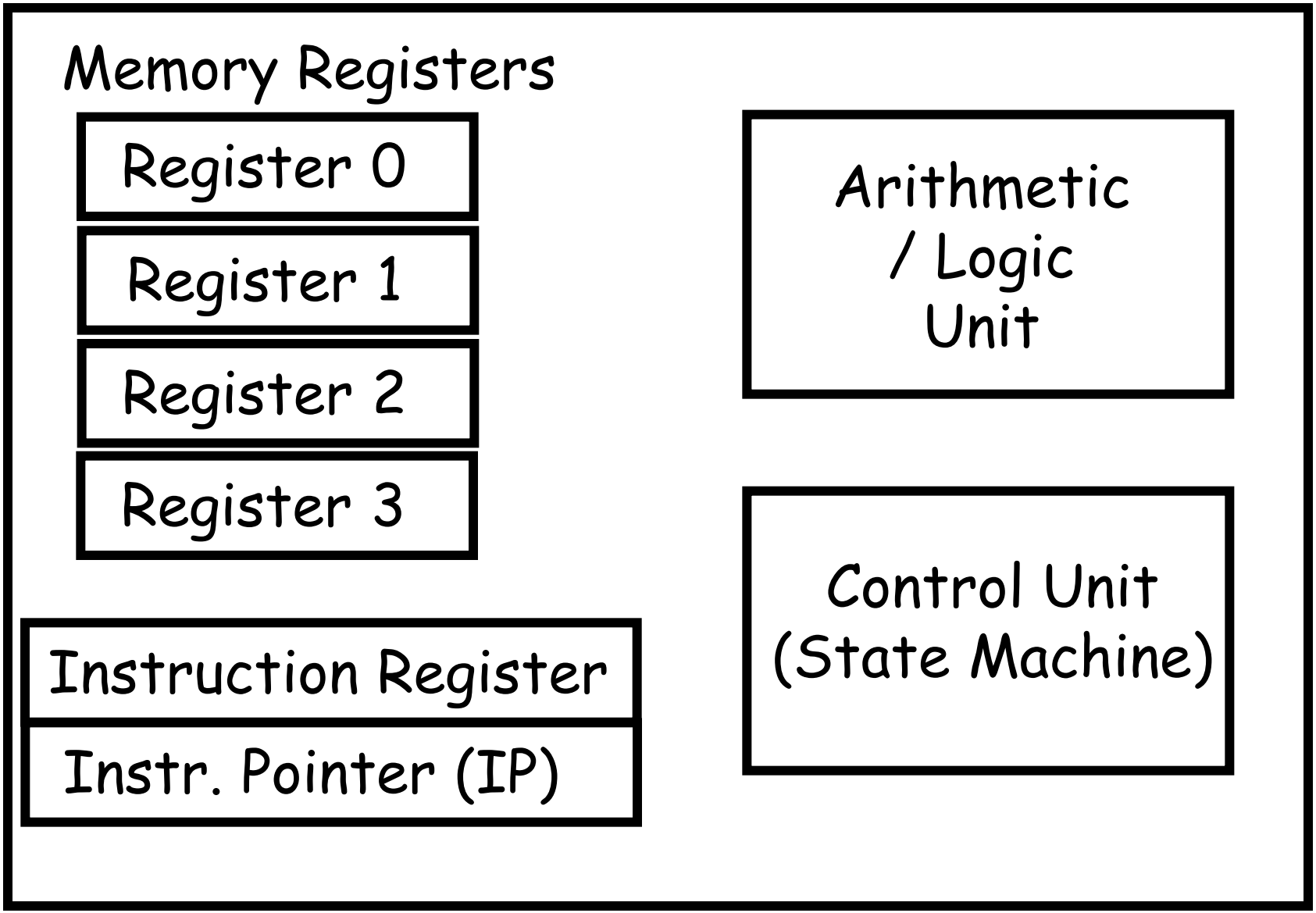
Inside the CPU (cont.)



Inside the CPU (cont.)



Inside the CPU (cont.)



The Control Unit

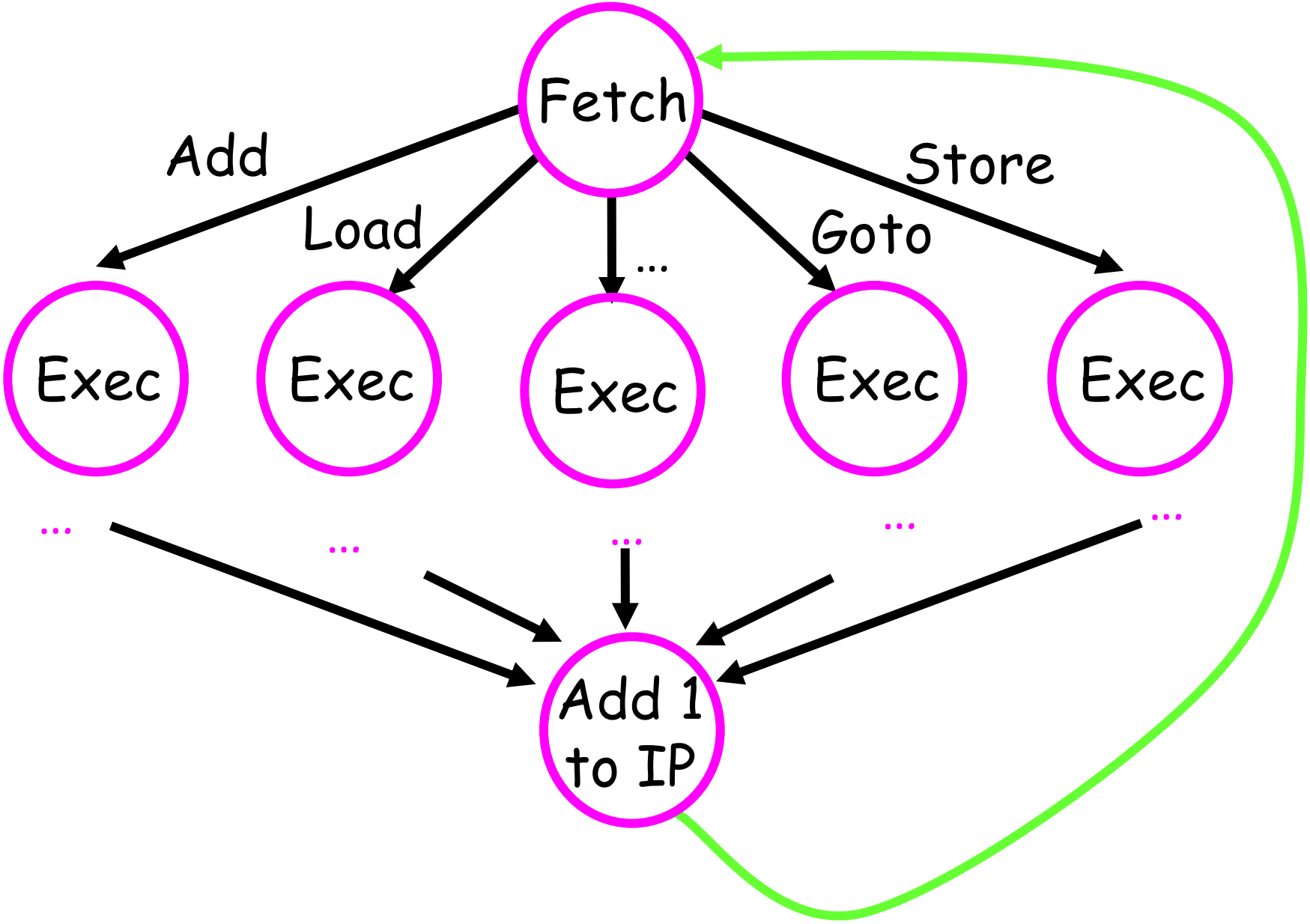
- It all comes down to the Control Unit.
- This is just a State Machine.

- How does it work?

The Control Unit

- Control Unit State Machine has very simple structure:
  - 1) Fetch: Ask the RAM for the instruction whose address is stored in IP.
  - 2) Execute: There are only a small number of possible instructions. Depending on which it is, do what is necessary to execute it.
  - 3) Repeat: Add 1 to the address stored in IP, and go back to Step 1 !

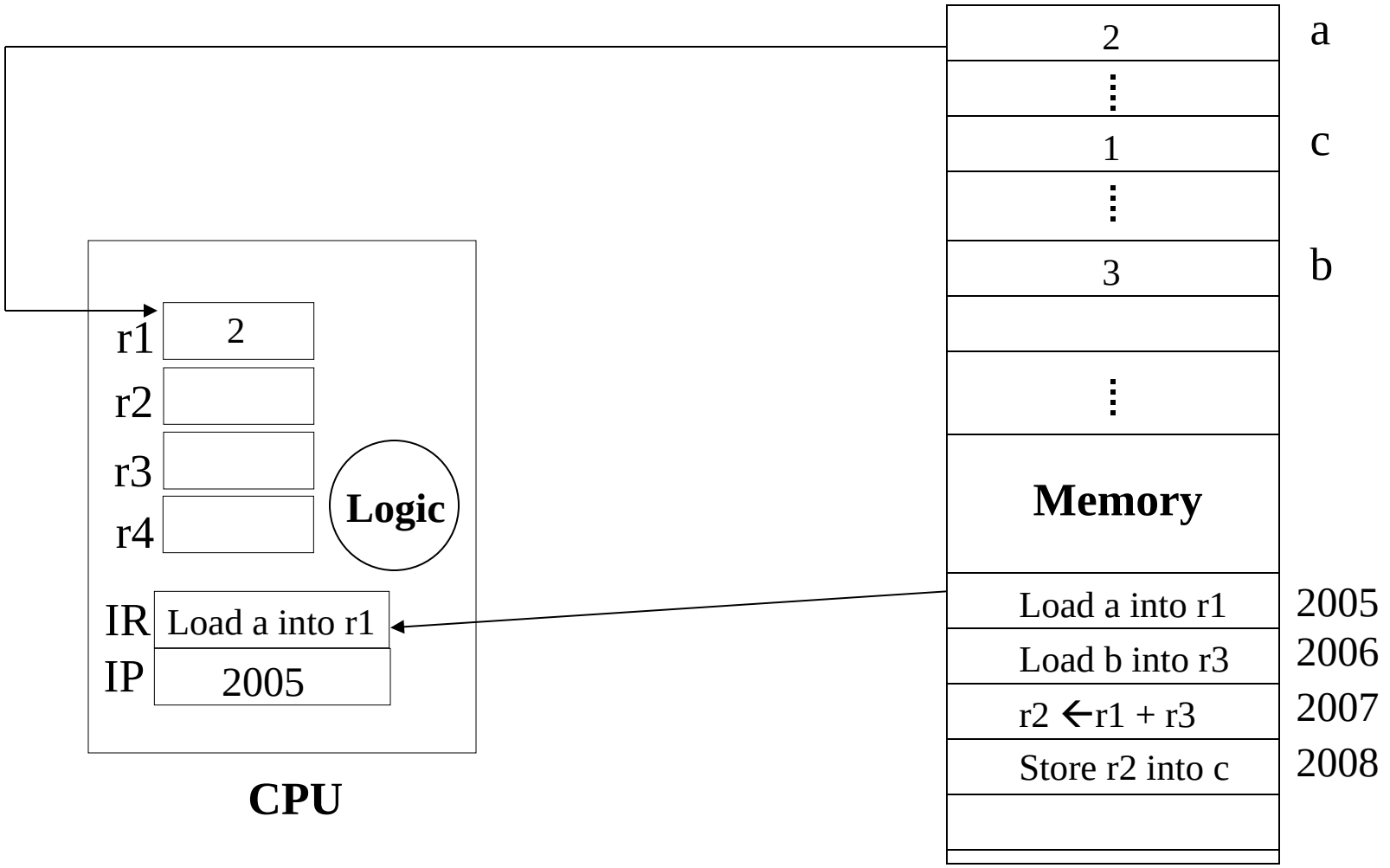
The Control Unit is a State Machine



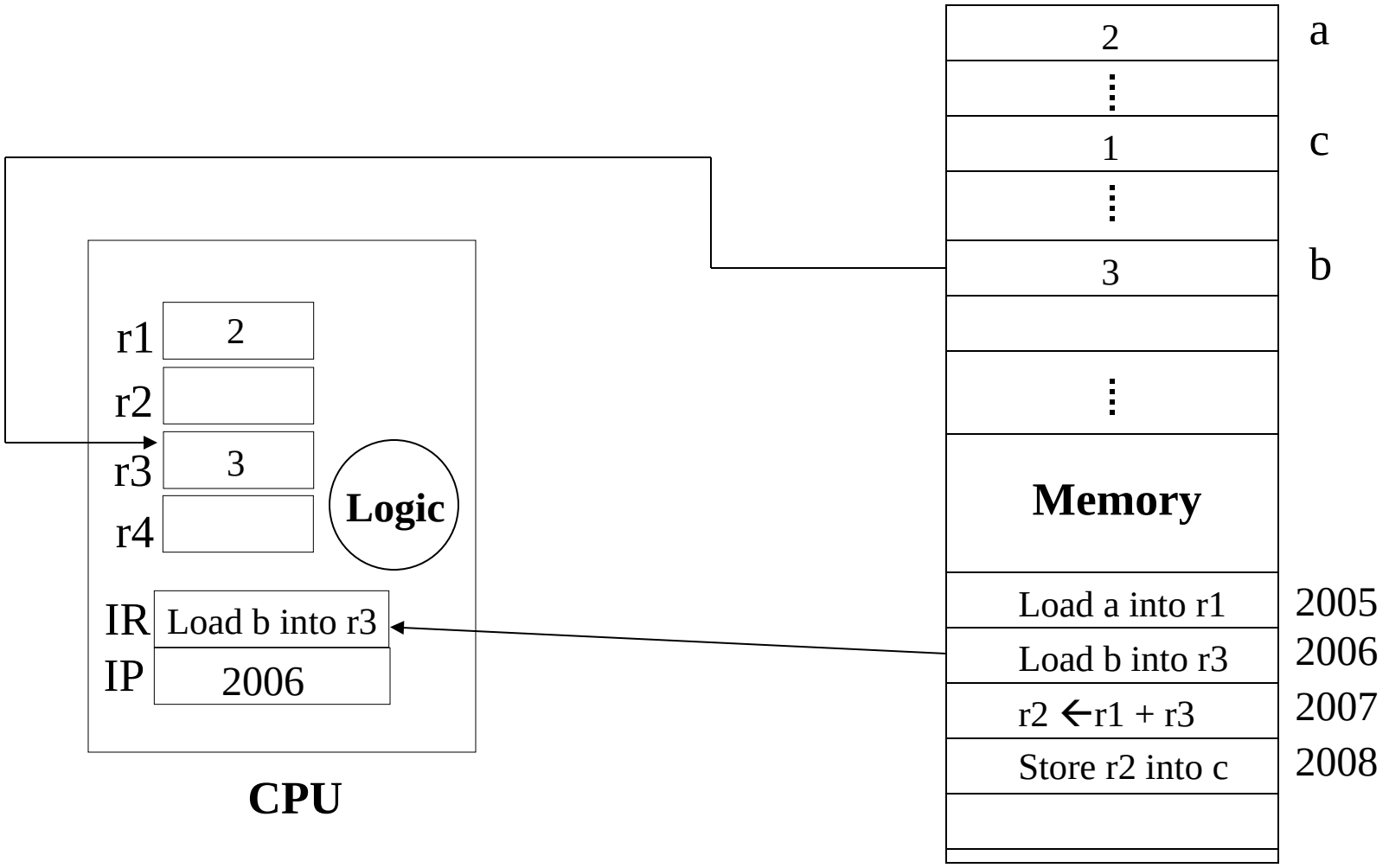
A Simple Program

- Want to add values of variables a and b (assumed to be in memory), and put the result in variable c in memory, I.e. c ← a+b
- Instructions in program
  - Load a into register r1
  - Load b into register r3
  - r2 ← r1 + r3
  - Store r2 in c

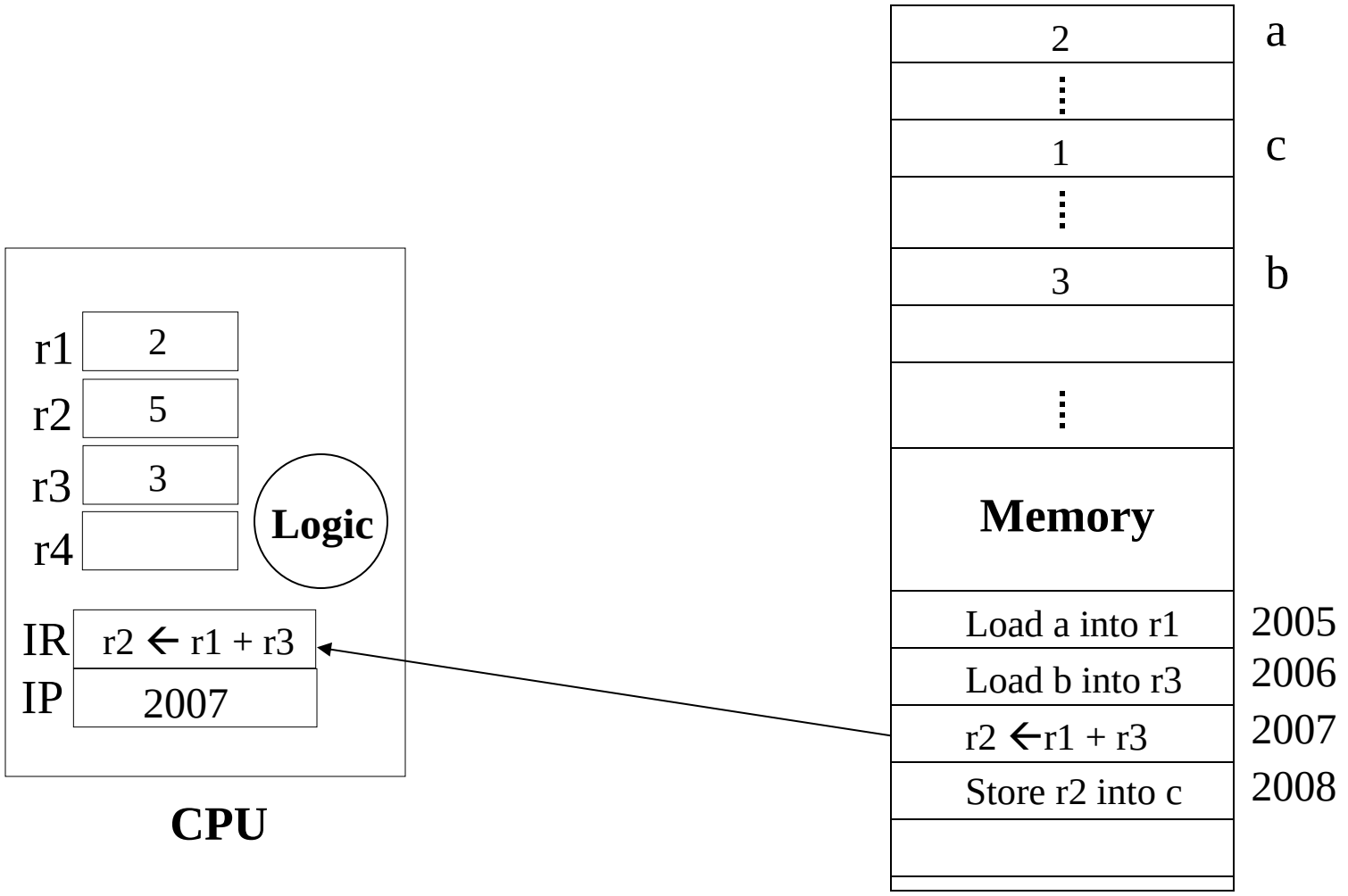
Running the Program



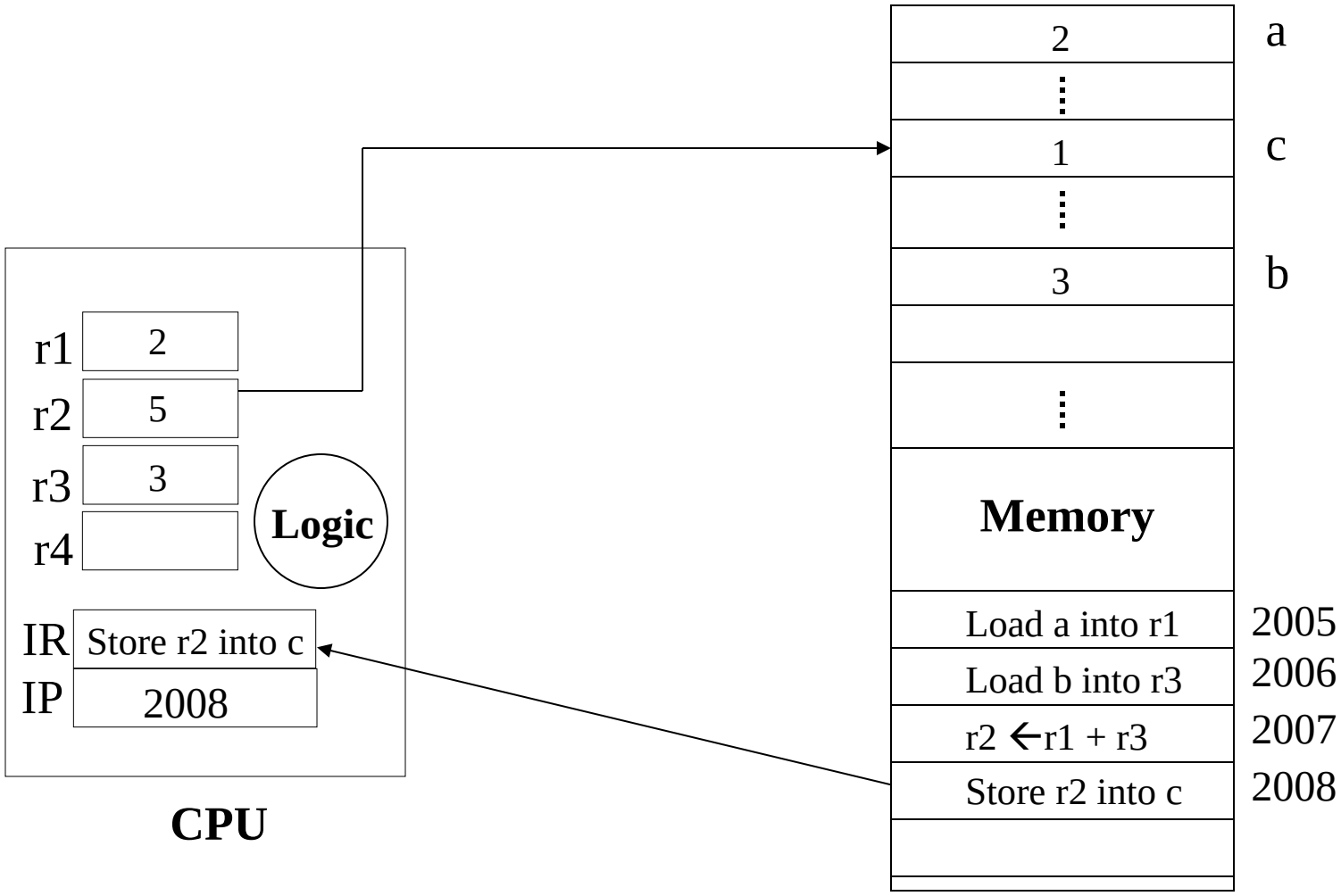
Running the Program



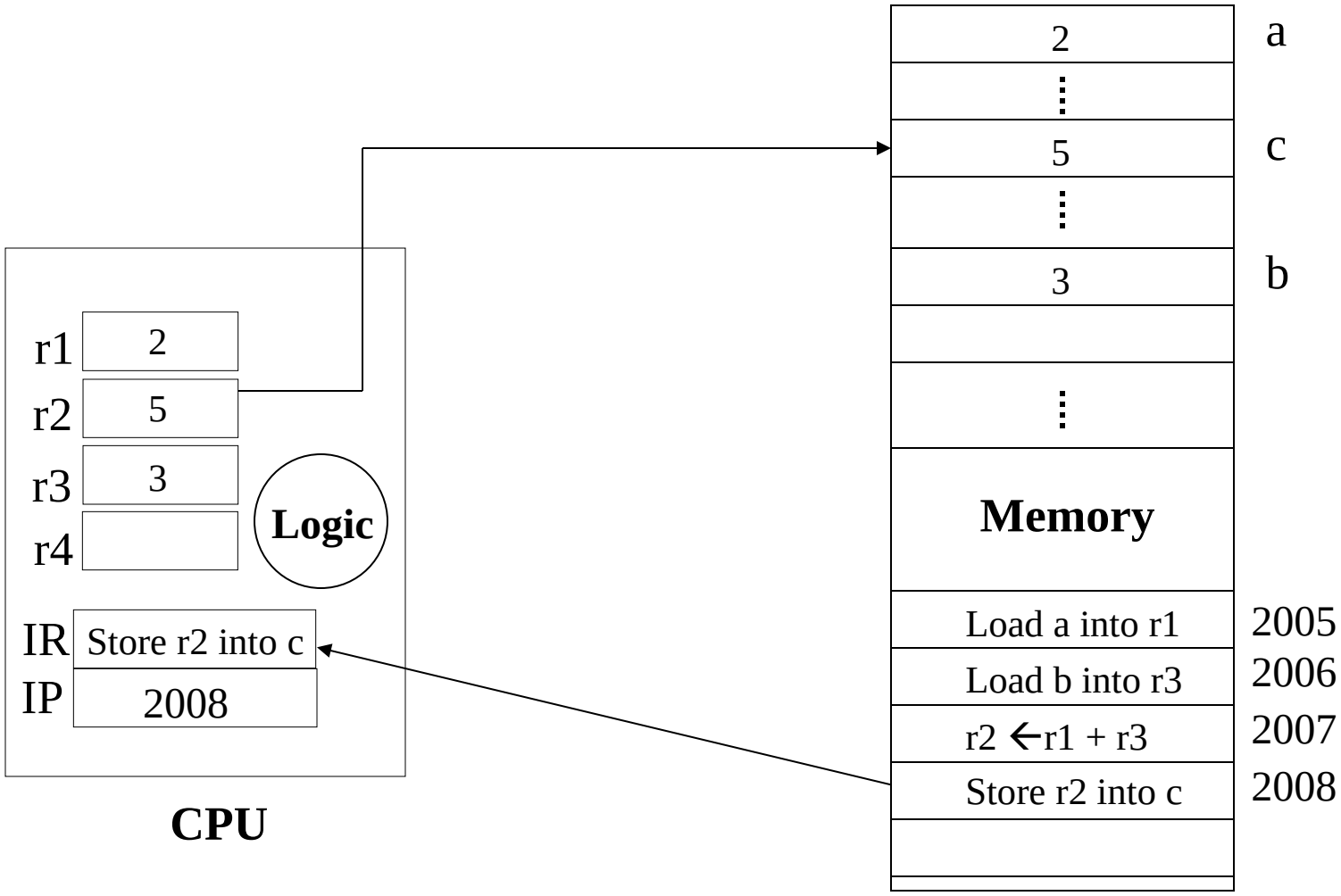
Running the Program



Running the Program

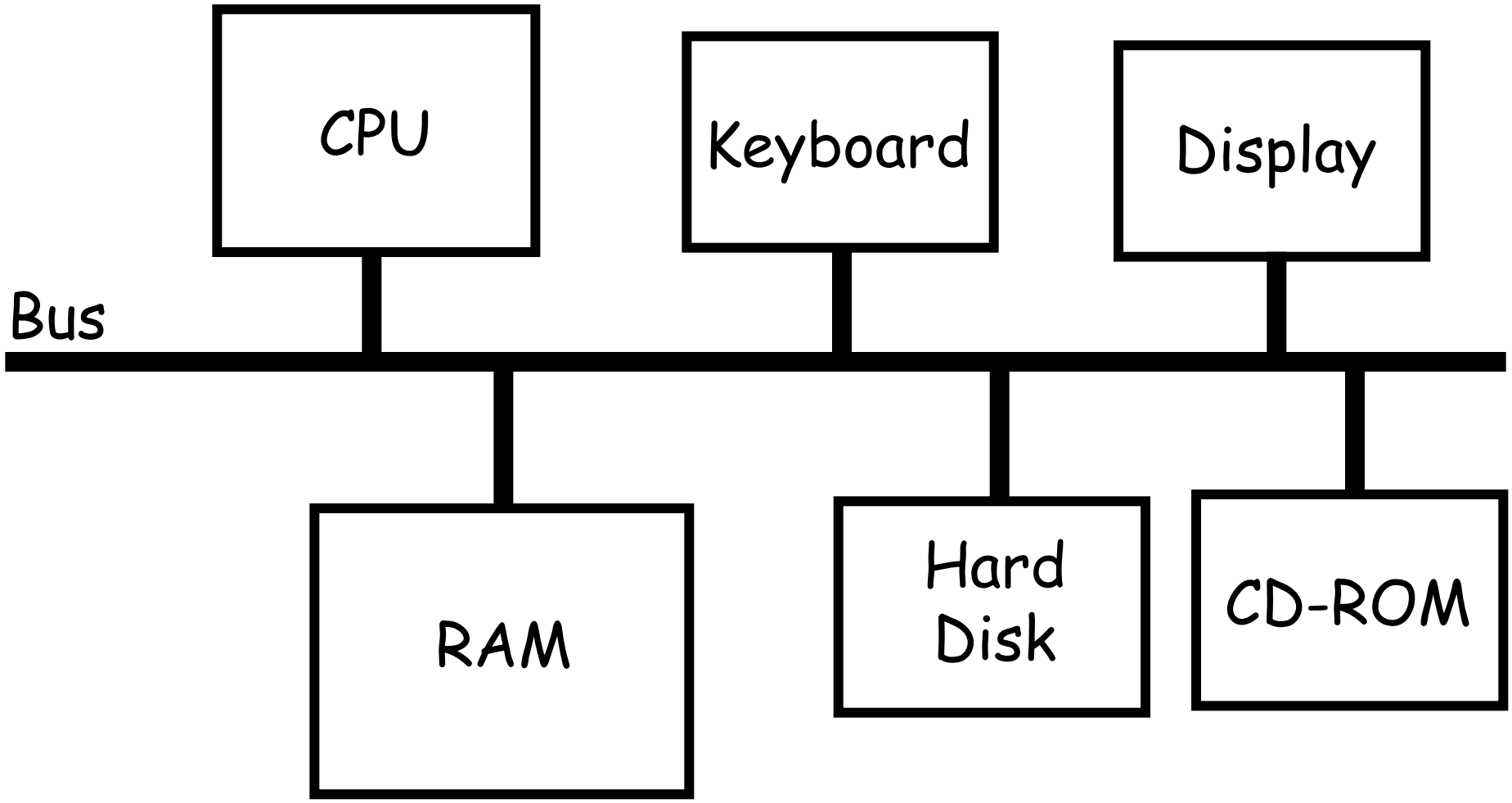


Running the Program



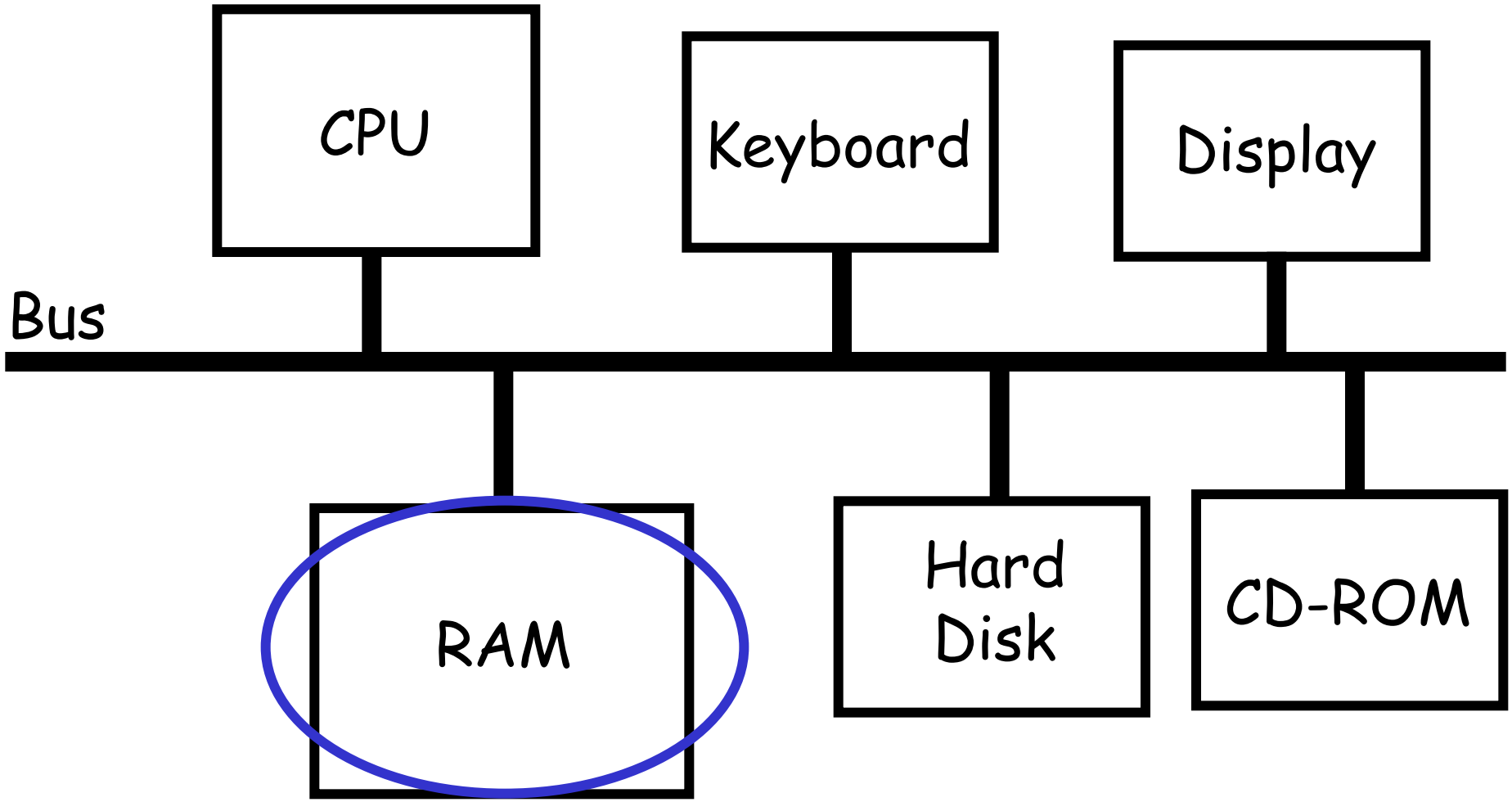
Putting it all together

- Computer has many parts, connected by a Bus:



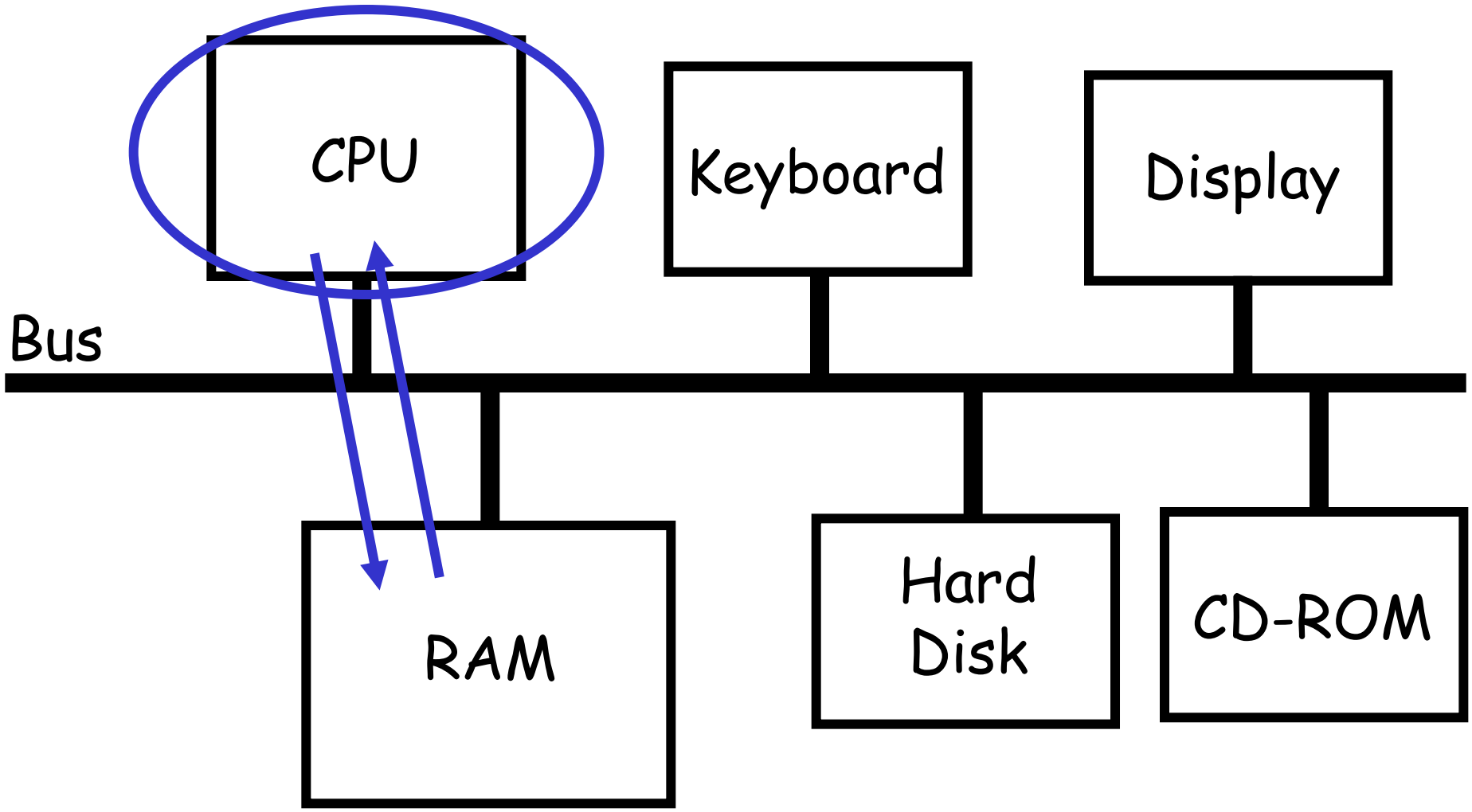
Putting it all together

- The RAM is the computer's main memory.
- This is where programs and data are stored.



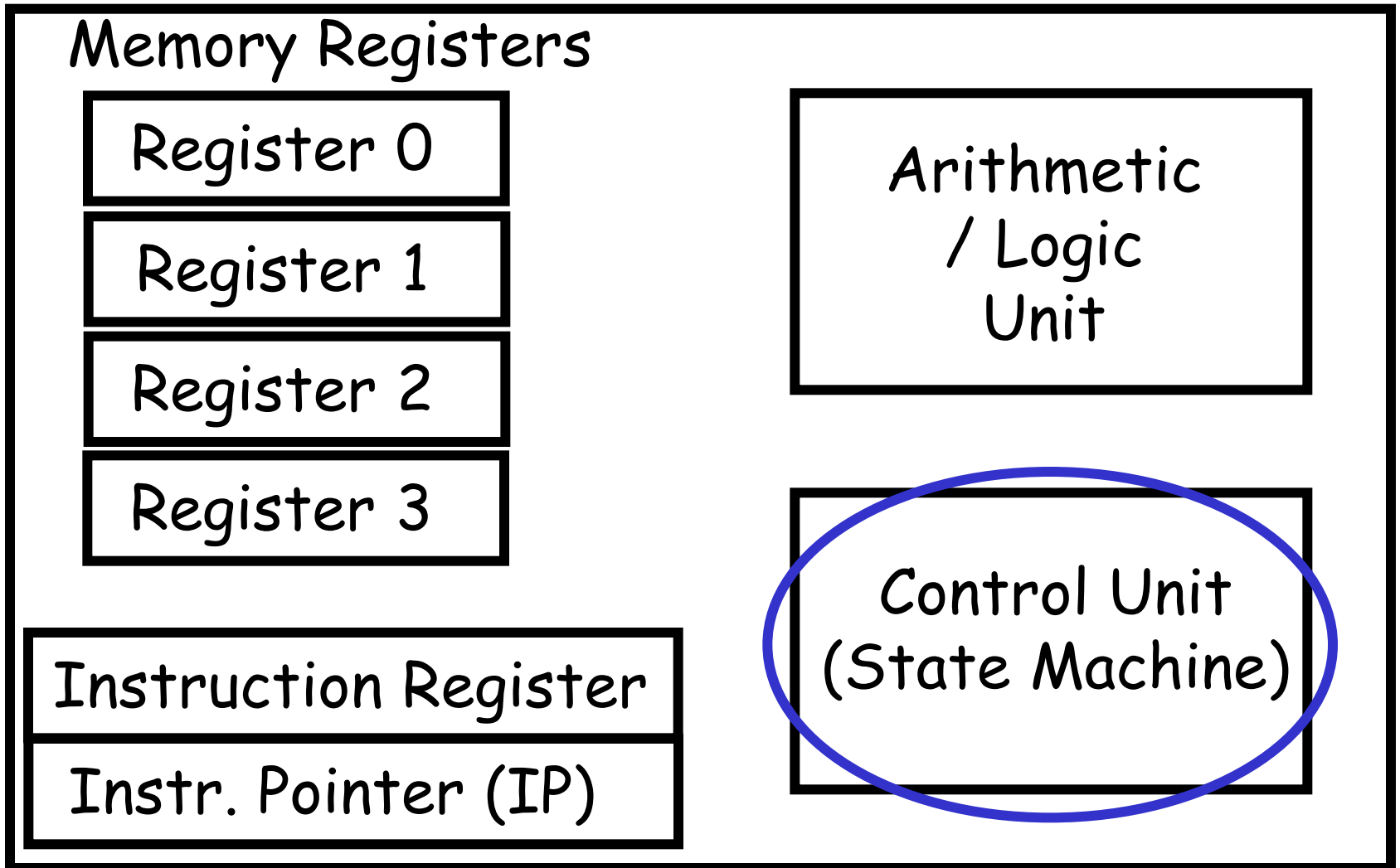
Putting it all together

- The CPU goes in a never-ending cycle, reading instructions from RAM and executing them.



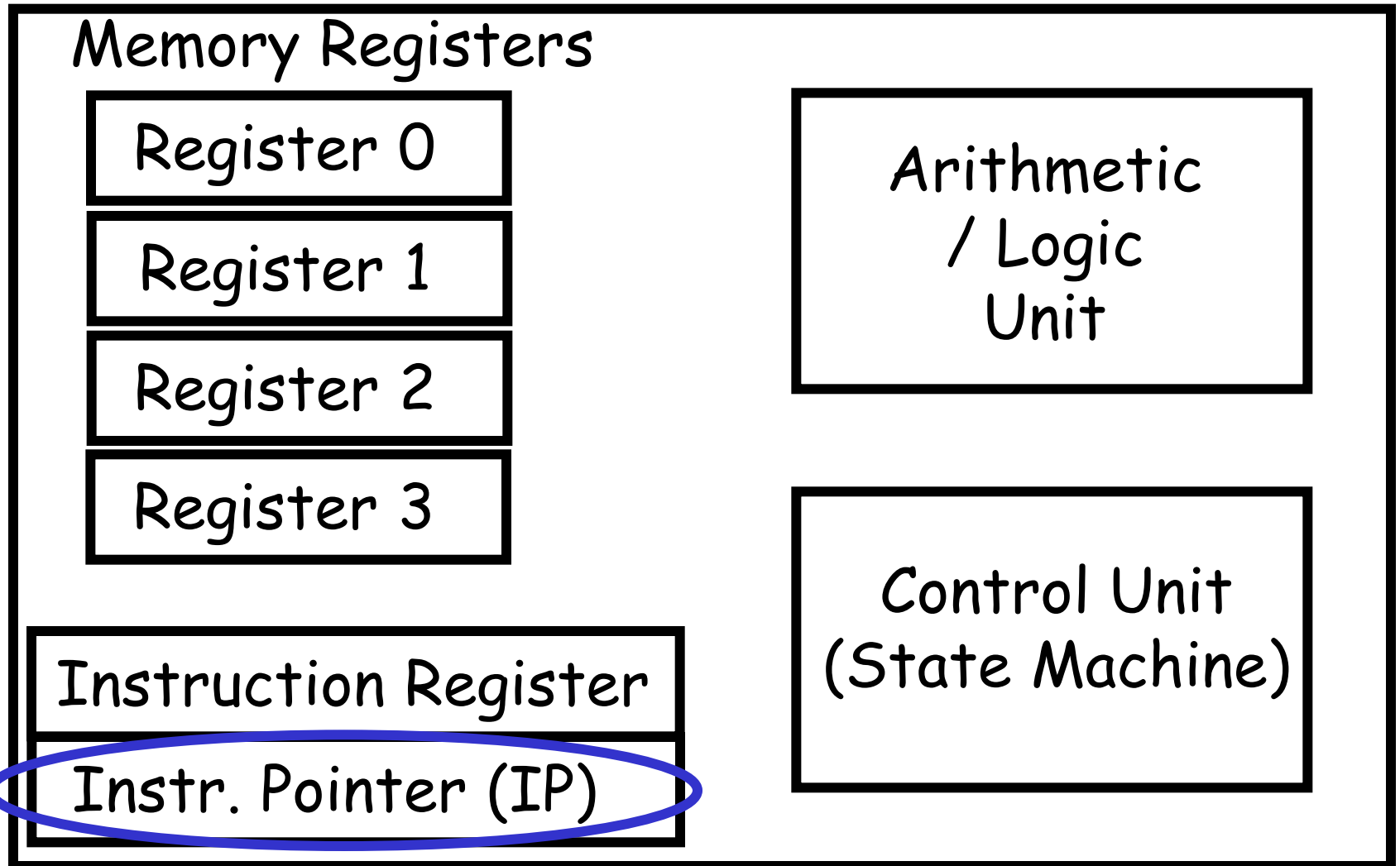
Putting it all together

- This cycle is orchestrated by the Control Unit in the CPU.



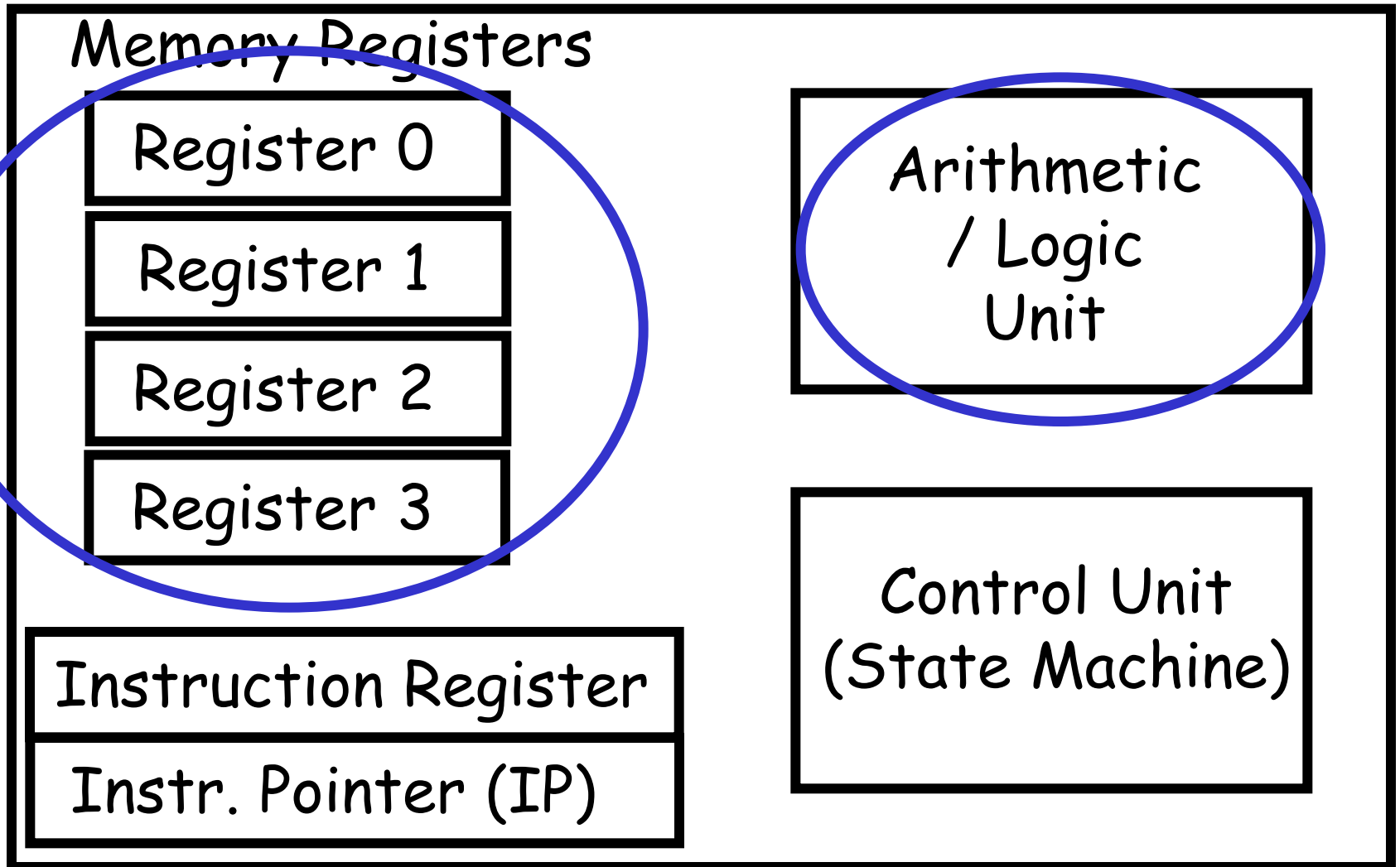
Back to the Control Unit

- It simply looks at where IP is pointing, reads the instruction there from RAM, and executes it.



Putting it all together

- To execute an instruction, the Control Unit uses the ALU plus Memory and/or the Registers.



Programming

Where we are

- Examined the hardware for a computer
  - Truth tables
  - Logic gates
  - States and transitions in a state machine
  - The workings of a CPU and Memory

- Now, want to program the hardware

Programs and Instructions

- Programs are made up of instructions
- CPU executes one instruction every clock cycle
  - Modern CPUS do more, but we ignore that
- Specifying a program and its instructions:
  - Lowest level: Machine language
  - Intermediate level: Assembly language
  - Typically today: High-level programming language

Specifying a Program and its Instructions

- High-level programs: each statement translates to many instructions
  - E.g. $c \leftarrow a + b$ to:

Load a into r1
Load b into r3
r2 ← r1 + r3
Store r2 into c

- Assembly language: specify each machine instruction, using mnemonic form
  - E.g. Load r1, A
- Machine language: specify each machine instruction, using bit patterns
  - E.g. 11011010000011110011

Machine/Assembly Language

- We have a machine that can execute instructions
- Basic Questions:
  - What instructions?
  - How are these instructions represented to the computer hardware?

Complex vs Simple Instructions

- Computers used to have very complicated instruction sets – this was known as:
  - CISC = Complex Instruction Set Computer
  - Almost all computers 20 years ago were CISC.

- 80s introduced RISC:
  - RISC = Reduced Instruction Set Computer

Complex vs Simple Instructions

- RISC = Reduced Instruction Set Computer
  - Fewer, Less powerful basic instructions
  - But Simpler, Faster, Easier to design CPU's
  - Can make "powerful" instructions by combining several wimpy ones

- Shown to deliver better performance than Complex Instruction Set Computer (CISC) for several types of applications.

Complex vs Simple Instructions

- Nevertheless, Pentium is actually CISC !
- Why?

Complex vs Simple Instructions

- Nevertheless, Pentium is actually CISC !
- Why: Compatibility with older software

- Newer application types (media processing etc) perform better with specialized instructions

- The world has become too complex to talk about RISC versus CISC

Typical Assembly Instructions

- Some common assembly instructions include:
  - 1) "Load" – Load a value from RAM into one of the registers
  - 2) "Load Direct" – Put a fixed value in one of the registers (as specified)
  - 3) "Store" - Store the value in a specified register to the RAM
  - 4) "Add" - Add the contents of two registers and put the result in a third register

Typical Assembly Instructions

- Some common instructions include:
  - 5) "Compare" - If the value in a specified register is larger than the value in a second register, put a "0" in Register r0
  - 6) "Jump" - If the value in Register r0 is "0", change Instruction Pointer to the value in a given register
  - 7) "Branch" - If the value in a specified register is larger than that in another register, change IP to a specified value

Machine Languages

- Different types of CPU's understand different instructions
  - Pentium family / Celeron / Xeon / AMD K6 / Cyrix … (Intel x86 family)
  - PowerPC (Mac)
  - DragonBall (Palm Pilot)
  - StrongARM/MIPS (WinCE)
  - Many Others (specialized or general-purpose)
- They represent instructions differently in their assembly/machine languages (even common ones)
- Let's look instructions for a simple example CPU

MAJOR COMPONENTS OF CPU

Storage Components:

Registers

Flip-flops

Execution (Processing) Components:

Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU):

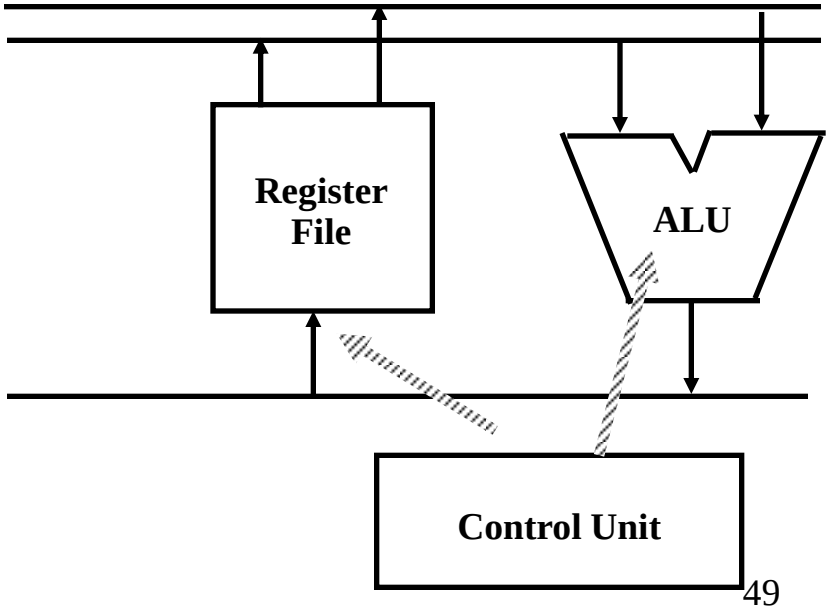
Arithmetic calculations, Logical computations, Shifts/Rotates

Transfer Components:

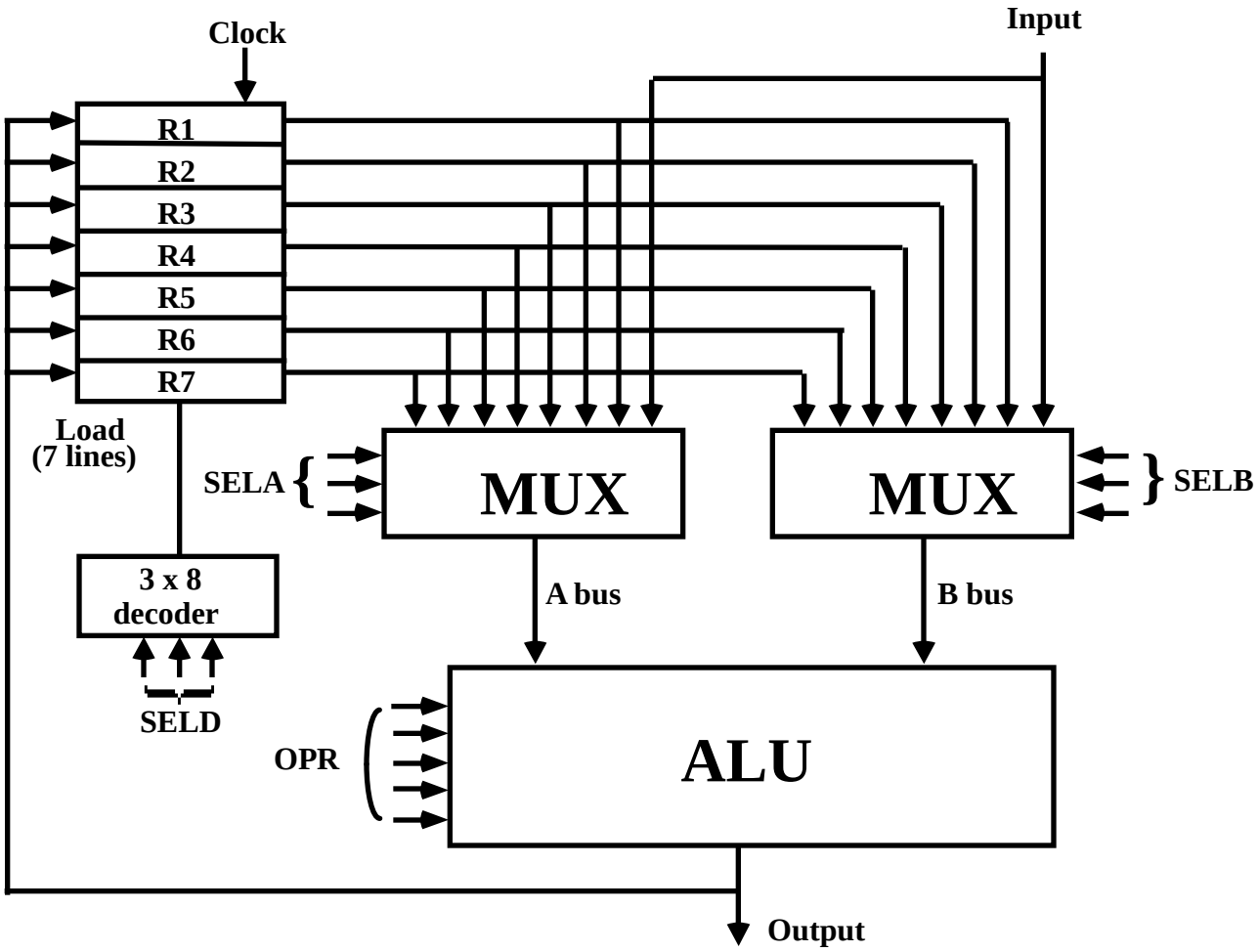
Bus

Control Components:

Control Unit



GENERAL REGISTER ORGANIZATION



OPERATION OF CONTROL UNIT

The control unit directs the information flow through ALU by:

- Selecting various *Components* in the system
- Selecting the *Function* of ALU

Example: R1 <- R2 + R3

[1] MUX A selector (SELA): BUS A ← R2
[2] MUX B selector (SELB): BUS B ← R3
[3] ALU operation selector (OPR): ALU to ADD
[4] Decoder destination selector (SELD): R1 ← Out Bus

Control Word

Encoding of register selection fields

Binary Code	SELA	SELB	SELD
000	Input	Input	None
001	R1	R1	R1
010	R2	R2	R2
011	R3	R3	R3
100	R4	R4	R4
101	R5	R5	R5
110	R6	R6	R6
111	R7	R7	R7

ALU CONTROL

Encoding of ALU operations

OPR Select	Operation	Symbol
00000	Transfer A	TSFA
00001	Increment A	INCA
00010	ADD A + B	ADD
00101	Subtract A - B	SUB
00110	Decrement A	DECA
01000	AND A and B	AND
01010	OR A and B	OR
01100	XOR A and B	XOR
01110	Complement A	COMA
10000	Shift right A	SHRA
11000	Shift left A	SHLA

Examples of ALU Microoperations

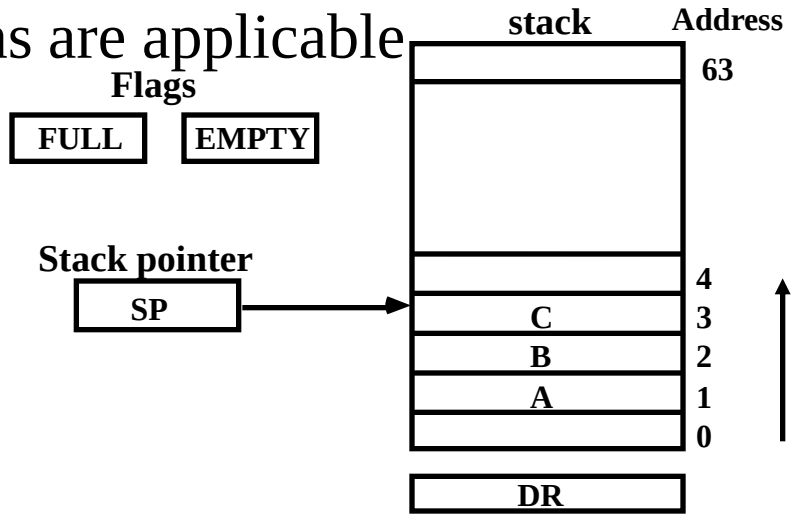
	Symbolic Designation				
Microoperation	SELA	SELB	SELD	OPR	Control Word
R1 ← R2 - R3	R2	R3	R1	SUB	010 011 001 00101
R4 ← R4 ∨ R5	R4	R5	R4	OR	100 101 100 01010
R6 ← R6 + 1	R6	-	R6	INCA	110 000 110 00001
R7 ← R1	R1	-	R7	TSFA	001 000 111 00000
Output ← R2	R2	-	None	TSFA	010 000 000 00000
Output ← Input	Input	-	None	TSFA	000 000 000 00000
R4 ← shl R4	R4	-	R4	SHLA	100 000 100 11000
R5 ← 0	R5	R5	R5	XOR	101 101 101 01100

REGISTER STACK ORGANIZATION

Stack

- Very useful feature for nested subroutines, nested loops control
- Also efficient for arithmetic expression evaluation
- Storage which can be accessed in LIFO
- Pointer: SP
- Only PUSH and POP operations are applicable

Register Stack



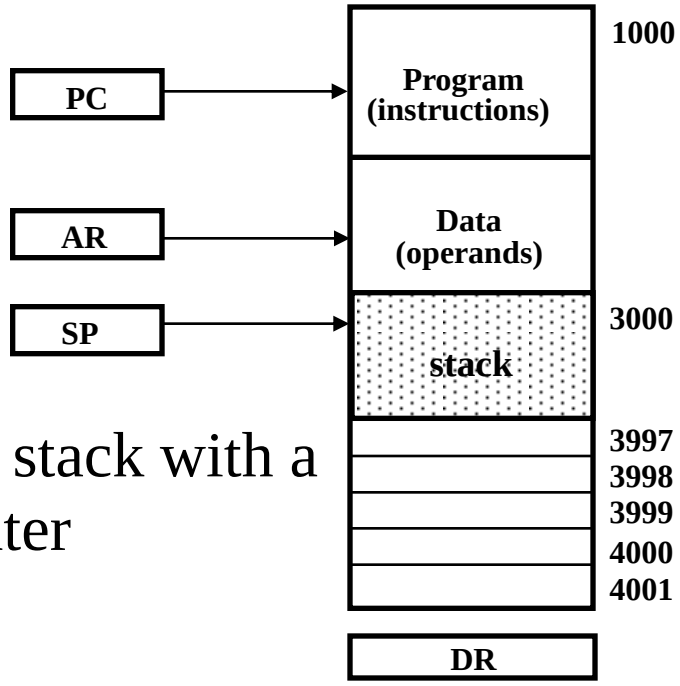
Push, Pop operations

/* Initially, SP = 0, EMPTY = 1, FULL = 0 */

PUSH	**POP**
SP ← SP + 1	**DR ← M[SP]**
M[SP] ← DR	**SP ← SP - 1**
If (SP = 0) then (FULL ← 1)	**If (SP = 0) then (EMPTY ← 1)**
EMPTY ← 0	**FULL ← 0**

MEMORY STACK ORGANIZATION

Memory with Program, Data,
and Stack Segments



- A portion of memory is used as a stack with a processor register as a stack pointer

- PUSH: $SP \leftarrow SP - 1$
  $M[SP] \leftarrow DR$
- POP: $DR \leftarrow M[SP]$
  $SP \leftarrow SP + 1$

- Most computers do not provide hardware to check stack overflow (full stack) or underflow(empty stack)

REVERSE POLISH NOTATION

Arithmetic Expressions: A + B

A + B Infix notation

+ A B Prefix or Polish notation

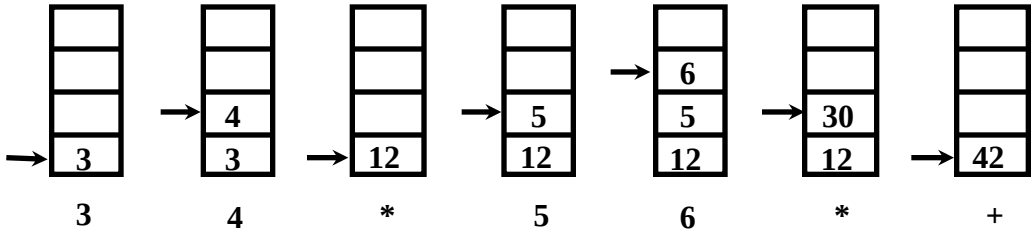
A B + Postfix or reverse Polish notation

- The reverse Polish notation is very suitable for stack manipulation

Evaluation of Arithmetic Expressions

Any arithmetic expression can be expressed in parenthesis-free Polish notation, including reverse Polish notation

(3 * 4) + (5 * 6) ⇒ 3 4 * 5 6 * +



INSTRUCTION FORMAT

Instruction Fields

OP-code field - specifies the operation to be performed

Address field - designates memory address(s) or a processor register(s)

Mode field - specifies the way the operand or the effective address is determined

The number of address fields in the instruction format depends on the internal organization of CPU

- The three most common CPU organizations:

Single accumulator organization:

```
ADD     X               /* AC ← AC + M[X]  */
```

General register organization:

```
ADD     R1, R2, R3        /* R1 ← R2 + R3  */
ADD     R1, R2          /* R1 ← R1 + R2  */
MOV     R1, R2          /* R1 ← R2  */
ADD     R1, X           /* R1 ← R1 + M[X]  */
```

Stack organization:

```
PUSH    X               /* TOS ← M[X]  */
ADD
```

THREE, and TWO-ADDRESS INSTRUCTIONS

Three-Address Instructions:

Program to evaluate X = (A + B) * (C + D) :

```
ADD R1, A, B      /*  R1 ← M[A] + M[B]      */
ADD R2, C, D      /*  R2 ← M[C] + M[D]      */
MUL X, R1, R2     /*  M[X] ← R1 * R2        */
```

- Results in short programs
- Instruction becomes long (many bits)

Two-Address Instructions:

Program to evaluate X = (A + B) * (C + D) :

```
MOV   R1, A       /* R1 ← M[A]          */
ADD   R1, B       /* R1 ← R1 + M[B]     */
MOV   R2, C       /* R2 ← M[C]          */
ADD   R2, D       /* R2 ← R2 + M[D]     */
MUL   R1, R2      /* R1 ← R1 * R2       */
MOV   X, R1       /* M[X] ← R1          */
```

ONE, and ZERO-ADDRESS INSTRUCTIONS

One-Address Instructions:

- Use an implied AC register for all data manipulation
- Program to evaluate X = (A + B) * (C + D) :

```
LOAD    A       /*  AC ← M[A]          */
ADD     B       /* AC ← AC + M[B]      */
STORE   T       /*  M[T] ← AC          */
LOAD    C       /*  AC ← M[C]          */
ADD     D       /*  AC ← AC + M[D]     */
MUL     T       /*  AC ← AC * M[T]     */
STORE   X       /*  M[X] ← AC          */
```

Zero-Address Instructions:

- Can be found in a stack-organized computer
- Program to evaluate X = (A + B) * (C + D) :

```
PUSH    A       /*  TOS ← A            */
PUSH    B       /*  TOS ← B            */
ADD             /*  TOS ← (A + B)      */
PUSH    C       /*  TOS ← C            */
PUSH    D       /*  TOS ← D            */
ADD             /*  TOS ← (C + D)      */
MUL             /*  TOS ← (C + D) * (A + B)  */
POP     X       /*  M[X] ← TOS         */
```

ADDRESSING MODES

Addressing Modes:

* Specifies a rule for interpreting or modifying the address field of the instruction (before the operand is actually referenced)

* Variety of addressing modes

  - to give programming flexibility to the user
  - to use the bits in the address field of the instruction efficiently

TYPES OF ADDRESSING MODES

Implied Mode

Address of the operands are specified implicitly
in the definition of the instruction
- No need to specify address in the instruction
- EA = AC, or EA = Stack[SP], **EA: Effective Address.**

Immediate Mode

Instead of specifying the address of the operand,
operand itself is specified
- No need to specify address in the instruction
- However, operand itself needs to be specified
- Sometimes, require more bits than the address
- Fast to acquire an operand

Register Mode

Address specified in the instruction is the register address
- Designated operand need to be in a register
- Shorter address than the memory address
- Saving address field in the instruction
- Faster to acquire an operand than the memory addressing
- EA = IR(R) (IR(R): Register field of IR)

TYPES OF ADDRESSING MODES

Register Indirect Mode

Instruction specifies a register which contains the memory address of the operand

- Saving instruction bits since register address is shorter than the memory address
- Slower to acquire an operand than both the register addressing or memory addressing
- EA = [IR(R)] ([x]: Content of x)

Auto-increment or Auto-decrement features:

Same as the Register Indirect, but:

- When the address in the register is used to access memory, the value in the register is incremented or decremented by 1 (after or before the execution of the instruction)

TYPES OF ADDRESSING MODES

Direct Address Mode

Instruction specifies the memory address which
can be used directly to the physical memory
- Faster than the other memory addressing modes
- Too many bits are needed to specify the address
for a large physical memory space
- EA = IR(address), (IR(address): address field of IR)

Indirect Addressing Mode

The address field of an instruction specifies the address of a memory location that contains the address of the operand
- When the abbreviated address is used, large physical memory can be addressed with a relatively small number of bits
- Slow to acquire an operand because of an additional memory access
- EA = M[IR(address)]

TYPES OF ADDRESSING MODES

Relative Addressing Modes

The Address fields of an instruction specifies the part of the address (abbreviated address) which can be used along with a designated register to calculate the address of the operand

PC Relative Addressing Mode(R = PC)

- EA = PC + IR(address)

- Address field of the instruction is short
- Large physical memory can be accessed with a small number of address bits

Indexed Addressing Mode

XR: Index Register:

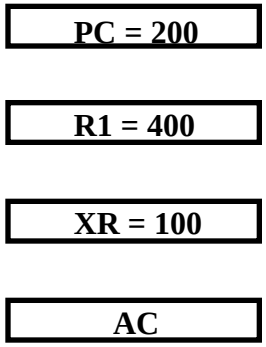
- EA = XR + IR(address)

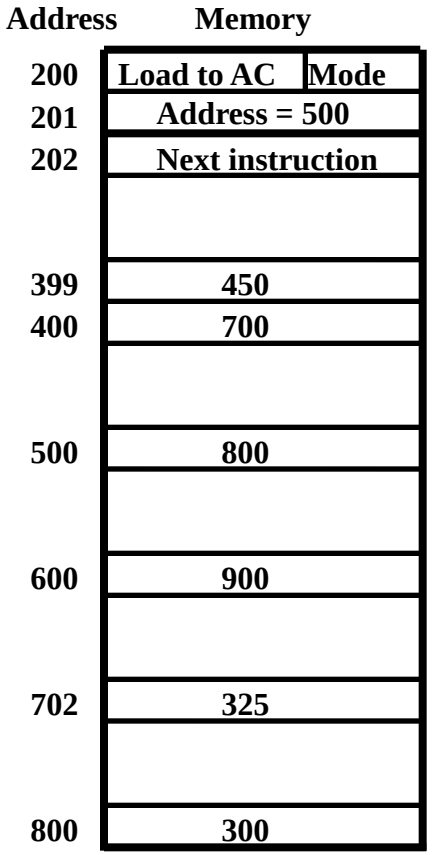
Base Register Addressing Mode

BAR: Base Address Register:

- EA = BAR + IR(address)

ADDRESSING MODES - EXAMPLES





Addressing Mode	Effective Address			Content of AC
Direct address	500	/* AC ← (500)	*/	800
Immediate operand	-	/* AC ← 500	*/	500
Indirect address	800	/* AC ← ((500))	*/	300
Relative address	702	/* AC ← (PC+500)	*/	325
Indexed address	600	/* AC ← (XR+500)	*/	900
Register	-	/* AC ← R1	*/	400
Register indirect	400	/* AC ← (R1)	*/	700
Autoincrement	400	/* AC ← (R1)+	*/	700
Autodecrement	399	/* AC ← -(R)	*/	450

DATA TRANSFER INSTRUCTIONS

Typical Data Transfer Instructions

Name	Mnemonic
Load	LD
Store	ST
Move	MOV
Exchange	XCH
Input	IN
Output	OUT
Push	PUSH
Pop	POP

Data Transfer Instructions with Different Addressing Modes

Mode	Assembly Convention	Register Transfer
Direct address	LD ADR	AC ← M[ADR]
Indirect address	LD @ADR	AC ← M[M[ADR]]
Relative address	LD $ADR	AC ← M[PC + ADR]
Immediate operand	LD #NBR	AC ← NBR
Index addressing	LD ADR(X)	AC ← M[ADR + XR]
Register	LD R1	AC ← R1
Register indirect	LD (R1)	AC ← M[R1]
Autoincrement	LD (R1)+	AC ← M[R1], R1 ← R1 + 1
Autodecrement	LD -(R1)	R1 ← R1 - 1, AC ← M[R1]

DATA MANIPULATION INSTRUCTIONS

Three Basic Types:
- **Arithmetic instructions**
- **Logical and bit manipulation instructions**
- **Shift instructions**

Arithmetic Instructions

Name	Mnemonic
Increment	INC
Decrement	DEC
Add	ADD
Subtract	SUB
Multiply	MUL
Divide	DIV
Add with Carry	ADDC
Subtract with Borrow	SUBB
Negate(2's Complement)	NEG

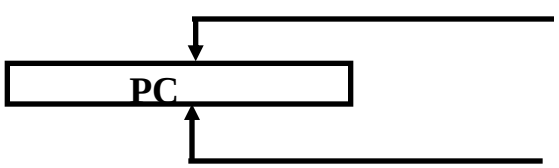
Logical and Bit Manipulation Instructions

Name	Mnemonic
Clear	CLR
Complement	COM
AND	AND
OR	OR
Exclusive-OR	XOR
Clear carry	CLRC
Set carry	SETC
Complement carry	COMC
Enable interrupt	EI
Disable interrupt	DI

Shift Instructions

Name	Mnemonic
Logical shift right	SHR
Logical shift left	SHL
Arithmetic shift right	SHRA
Arithmetic shift left	SHLA
Rotate right	ROR
Rotate left	ROL
Rotate right thru carry	RORC
Rotate left thru carry	ROLC

PROGRAM CONTROL INSTRUCTIONS



+1
In-Line Sequencing
(Next instruction is fetched from the next adjacent location in the memory)

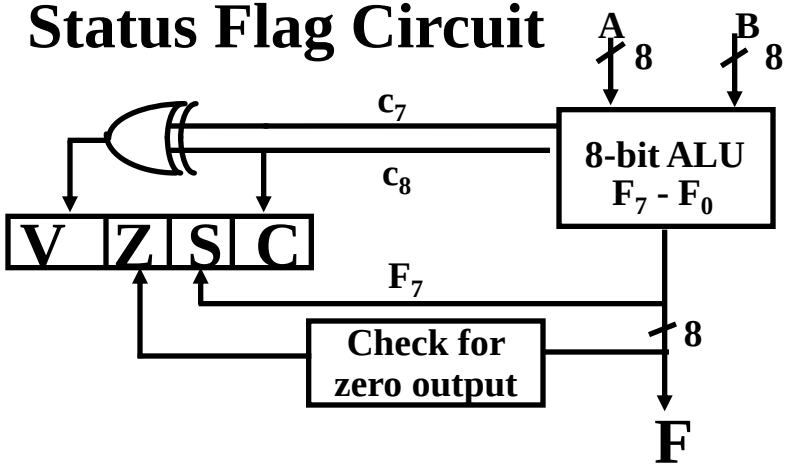
Address from other source; Current Instruction, Stack, etc
Branch, Conditional Branch, Subroutine, etc

Program Control Instructions

Name	Mnemonic
Branch	BR
Jump	JMP
Skip	SKP
Call	CALL
Return	RTN
Compare(by -)	CMP
Test (by AND)	TST

*** CMP and TST instructions do not retain their results of operations(- and AND, respectively). They only set or clear certain Flags.**

Status Flag Circuit



CONDITIONAL BRANCH INSTRUCTIONS

Mnemonic	Branch condition	Tested condition
BZ	**Branch if zero**	**Z = 1**
BNZ	**Branch if not zero**	**Z = 0**
BC	**Branch if carry**	**C = 1**
BNC	**Branch if no carry**	**C = 0**
BP	**Branch if plus**	**S = 0**
BM	**Branch if minus**	**S = 1**
BV	**Branch if overflow**	**V = 1**
BNV	**Branch if no overflow**	**V = 0**
	***Unsigned* compare conditions (A - B)**	
BHI	**Branch if higher**	**A > B**
BHE	**Branch if higher or equal**	**A ≥ B**
BLO	**Branch if lower**	**A < B**
BLOE	**Branch if lower or equal**	**A ≤ B**
BE	**Branch if equal**	**A = B**
BNE	**Branch if not equal**	**A ≠ B**
	***Signed* compare conditions (A - B)**	
BGT	**Branch if greater than**	**A > B**
BGE	**Branch if greater or equal**	**A ≥ B**
BLT	**Branch if less than**	**A < B**
BLE	**Branch if less or equal**	**A ≤ B**
BE	**Branch if equal**	**A = B**
BNE	**Branch if not equal**	**A ≠ B**

SUBROUTINE CALL AND RETURN

SUBROUTINE CALL Call subroutine
Jump to subroutine
Branch to subroutine
Branch and save return address

Two Most Important Operations are Implied;

* Branch to the beginning of the Subroutine
  - Same as the Branch or Conditional Branch

* Save the Return Address to get the address of the location in the Calling Program upon exit from the Subroutine
  - Locations for storing Return Address:
    - Fixed Location in the subroutine(Memory)
    - Fixed Location in memory
    - In a processor Register
    - In a memory stack
      - most efficient way

CALL
SP ← SP - 1
M[SP] ← PC
PC ← EA

RTN
PC ← M[SP]
SP ← SP + 1

PROGRAM INTERRUPT

Types of Interrupts:

External interrupts: External Interrupts initiated from the outside of CPU and Memory

- I/O Device -> Data transfer request or Data transfer complete
- Timing Device -> Timeout
- Power Failure

Internal interrupts (traps): Internal Interrupts are caused by the currently running program

- Register, Stack Overflow
- Divide by zero
- OP-code Violation
- Protection Violation

Software Interrupts: Both External and Internal Interrupts are initiated by the computer Hardware.

Software Interrupts are initiated by texecuting an instruction.

- Supervisor Call -> Switching from a user mode to the supervisor mode

-> Allows to execute a certain class of operations which are not allowed in the user mode

INTERRUPT PROCEDURE

Interrupt Procedure and Subroutine Call

- The interrupt is usually initiated by an internal or an external signal rather than from the execution of an instruction (except for the software interrupt)

- The address of the interrupt service program is determined by the hardware rather than from the address field of an instruction

-An interrupt procedure usually stores all the information necessary to define the state of CPU rather than storing only the PC.

The state of the CPU is determined from;

Content of the PC
Content of all processor registers
Content of status bits

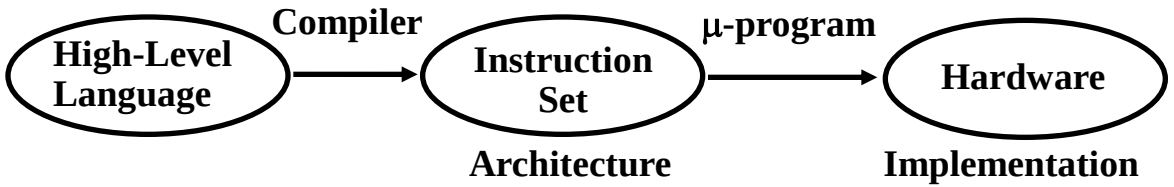
Many ways of saving the CPU state depending on the CPU architectures

RISC: REDUCED INSTRUCTION SET COMPUTERS

Historical Background

IBM System/360, 1964

- The real beginning of modern computer architecture
- Distinction between *Architecture* and *Implementation*
- Architecture: The abstract structure of a computer seen by an assembly-language programmer



Continuing growth in semiconductor memory and microprogramming

-> A much richer and complicated instruction sets
=> CISC(Complex Instruction Set Computer)

- Arguments advanced at that time

Richer instruction sets would simplify compilers

Richer instruction sets would alleviate the software crisis

- move as much functions to the hardware as possible
- close *Semantic Gap* between machine language and the high-level language

Richer instruction sets would improve the *architecture quality*

COMPLEX INSTRUCTION SET COMPUTERS: CISC

High Performance General Purpose Instructions

Characteristics of CISC:

1. A large number of instructions (from 100-250 usually)
2. Some instructions that performs a certain tasks are not used frequently.
3. Many addressing modes are used (5 to 20)
4. Variable length instruction format.
5. Instructions that manipulate operands in memory.

PHYLOSOPHY OF RISC

Reduce the semantic gap between machine instruction and microinstruction

1-Cycle instruction

Most of the instructions complete their execution in 1 CPU clock cycle - like a microoperation

* Functions of the instruction (contrast to CISC)
  - Very simple functions
  - Very simple instruction format
  - Similar to microinstructions
  => No need for microprogrammed control
* Register-Register Instructions
  - Avoid memory reference instructions except Load and Store instructions
  - Most of the operands can be found in the registers instead of main memory
  => Shorter instructions
  => Uniform instruction cycle
  => Requirement of large number of registers
* Employ instruction pipeline

CHARACTERISTICS OF RISC

Common RISC Characteristics

- Operations are register-to-register, with only LOAD and STORE accessing memory

- The operations and addressing modes are reduced

Instruction formats are simple

CHARACTERISTICS OF RISC

RISC Characteristics

- **Relatively few instructions**
- **Relatively few addressing modes**
- **Memory access limited to load and store instructions**
- **All operations done within the registers of the CPU**
- **Fixed-length, easily decoded instruction format**
- **Single-cycle instruction format**
- **Hardwired rather than microprogrammed control**

More RISC Characteristics

- **A relatively large numbers of registers in the processor unit.**
- **Efficient instruction pipeline**
- **Compiler support: provides efficient translation of high-level language programs into machine language programs.**

Advantages of RISC

- **VLSI Realization**
- **Computing Speed**
- **Design Costs and Reliability**
- **High Level Language Support**