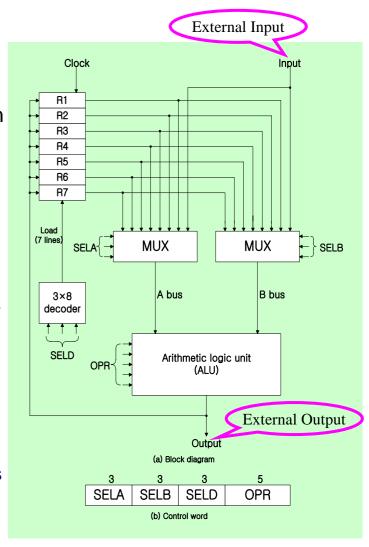
# Chap. 8 Central Processing Unit

- 8-1 Introduction
  - 3 major parts of CPU : Fig. 8-1
    - 1) Register Set
    - 2) ALU
    - 3) Control
  - Design Examples of simple CPU
    - Hardwired Control : Chap. 5
    - Microprogrammed Control : Chap. 7
  - - Describe the organization and architecture of the CPU with an emphasis on the user's view of the computer
    - User who programs the computer in machine/assembly language must be aware
      of
      - » 1) Instruction Formats
        » 2) Addressing Modes
        » 3) Register Sets
    - The last section presents the concept of Reduced Instruction Set Computer (RISC)

## 8-2 General Register Organization

- ◆ Register의 필요성
  - Memory locations are needed for storing pointers, counters, return address, temporary results, and partial products during multiplication (in the programming examples of Chap. 6)
  - Memory access is the most time-consuming operation in a computer
  - More convenient and efficient way is to store intermediate values in processor registers
- Bus organization for 7 CPU registers : Fig. 8-2
  - 2 MUX : select one of 7 register or external data input by SELA and SELB
  - BUS A and BUS B: form the inputs to a common ALU
  - ALU : OPR determine the arithmetic or logic microoperation
    - » The result of the microoperation is available for external data output and also goes into the inputs of all the registers
  - 3 X 8 Decoder: select the register (by SELD)
     that receives the information from ALU



- ♦ Binary selector input : 예제 R1 ← R2 + R3
  - 1) MUX A selector (SELA): to place the content of R2 into BUS A
  - 2) MUX B selector (SELB): to place the content of R3 into BUS B
  - 3) ALU operation selector (OPR): to provide the arithmetic addition R2 + R3
  - 4) Decoder selector (SELD): to transfer the content of the output bus into R1
- Control Word
  - 14 bit control word (*4 fields*) : *Fig. 8-2(b)* 
    - » SELA (3 bits): select a source register for the A input of the ALU
    - » SELB (3 bits): select a source register for the B input of the ALU
    - » SELD (3 bits): select a destination register using the 3 X 8 decoder
    - » OPR (5 bits): select one of the operations in the ALU
  - Encoding of Register Selection Fields: Tab. 8-1
    - » SELA or SELB = 000 (Input) : MUX selects the external input data
    - » SELD = 000 (None): no destination register is selected but the contents of the output bus are available in the external output

      Control Word 
      Control Memory 

      Control Word 
      Control Memory 

      Control Word 
      Control Memory 

      Control Word 
      Control Memory 
      Control Memory
  - Encoding of ALU Operation (OPR): Tab. 8-2
- Examples of Microoperations: Tab. 8-3
  - TSFA (Transfer A):  $R7 \leftarrow R1$ , External Output  $\leftarrow R2$ , External Output  $\leftarrow$  External Input
  - XOR:  $R5 \leftarrow 0 (XOR R5 \oplus R5)$

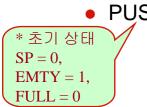
Tab. 8-1

Tab. 8-2

저장하여 Microprogrammed Control 방식으로 제어 가능함

## 8-3 Stack Organization

- Stack or LIFO(Last-In, First-Out)
  - A storage device that stores information
    - » The item stored last is the first item retrieved = a stack of tray
  - Stack Pointer (SP)
    - » The register that holds the address for the stack
    - » SP always points at the top item in the stack
  - Two Operations of a stack : Insertion and Deletion of Items
    - » PUSH : Push-Down = Insertion
    - » POP: Pop-Up = Deletion
  - Stack의 종류
    - » 1) Register Stack (Stack Depth가 제한)
      - a finite number of memory words or register(stand alone)
    - » 2) Memory Stack (Stack Depth가 유동적)
      - a portion of a large memory
- Register Stack : Fig. 8-3



• PUSH:  $SP \leftarrow SP + 1$ 

 $M[SP] \leftarrow DR$ 

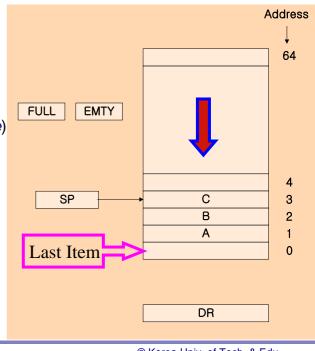
: Increment SP

: Write to the stack

If (SP = 0) then  $(FULL \leftarrow 1)$ : Check if stack is full

 $EMTY \leftarrow 0$ 

: Mark not empty



The first item is stored at address 1, and the last item is stored at address 0

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

: Read item from the top of stack : Decrement Stack Pointer If (SP = 0) then  $(EMTY \leftarrow 1)$ : Check if stack is empty  $FULL \leftarrow 0$ : Mark not full

Memory Stack : Fig. 8-4

• PUSH :  $SP \leftarrow SP - 1$ \* 초기 상태

 $M[SP] \leftarrow DR$ 

» The first item is stored at address 4000

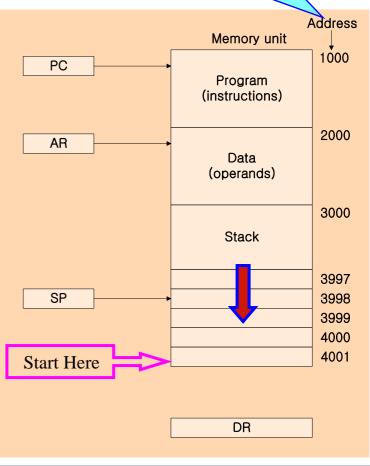
• POP:  $DR \leftarrow M[SP]$  $SP \leftarrow SP + 1$ 

\* Error Condition PUSH when FULL = 1POP when EMTY = 1

Stack Limits

SP = 4001

- Check for stack overflow(full)/underflow(empty)
  - » Checked by using two register
    - Upper Limit and Lower Limit Register
  - » After PUSH Operation
    - SP compared with the upper limit register
  - » After POP Operation
    - SP compared with the lower limit register



\* Memory Stack

\* Register Stack PUSH = Address 증가

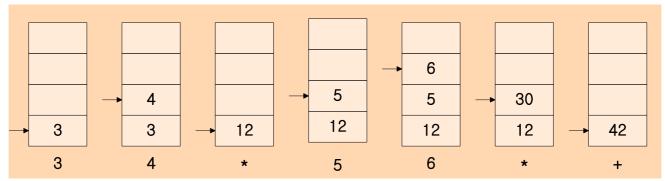
PUSH = Address 감소

RPN (Reverse Polish Notation) \_\_\_\_\_

Stack을 이용한 Arithmetic

- The common mathematical method of writing arithmetic expressions imposes difficulties when evaluated by a computer
- A stack organization is very effective for evaluating arithmetic expressions
- 예제) A \* B + C \* D → AB \* CD \* + : Fig. 8-5

$$(3*4)+(5*6)\rightarrow 34*56*+$$



- 8-4 Instruction Formats
  - Fields in Instruction Formats
    - 1) Operation Code Field: specify the operation to be performed
    - 2) Address Field: designate a memory address or a processor register
    - 3) **Mode Field**: specify the operand or the effective address (*Addressing Mode*)

♦ 3 types of CPU organizations

X = Operand Address

- 1) Single AC Org. : **ADD** X  $AC \leftarrow AC + M[X]$
- 2) General Register Org. : **ADD** R1, R2, R3  $R1 \leftarrow R2 + R3$
- 3) Stack Org. : **PUSH** X  $TOS \leftarrow M[X]$
- The influence of the number of addresses on computer instruction

[예제] 
$$X = (A + B)*(C + D)$$

- 4 arithmetic operations : ADD, SUB, MUL, DIV
- 1 transfer operation to and from memory and general register: MOV
- 2 transfer operation to and from *memory* and *AC register*: **STORE**, **LOAD**
- Operand memory addresses : A, B, C, D
- Result memory address : X
- 1) Three-Address Instruction

ADD R1, A, B 
$$R1 \leftarrow M[A] + M[B]$$
  
ADD R2, C, D  $R2 \leftarrow M[C] + M[D]$   
MUL X, R1, R2  $M[X] \leftarrow R1 * R2$ 

- » Each address fields specify either a processor register or a memory operand
- » 🖳 Short program
- » Dequire too many bit to specify 3 address

#### • 2) Two-Address Instruction

MOV	<b>R1, A</b>	$R1 \leftarrow M[A]$
ADD	<b>R1</b> , <b>B</b>	$R1 \leftarrow R1 + M[B]$
MOV	<b>R2, C</b>	$R2 \leftarrow M[C]$
ADD	<b>R2</b> , <b>D</b>	$R2 \leftarrow R2 + M[D]$
MUL	R1, R2	$R1 \leftarrow R1 * R2$
MOV	X, R1	$M[X] \leftarrow R1$

- » The most common in commercial computers
- » Each address fields specify either a processor register or a memory operand

#### • 3) One-Address Instruction

LOADA
$$AC \leftarrow M[A]$$
ADDB $AC \leftarrow A[C] + M[B]$ STORET $M[T] \leftarrow AC$ LOADC $AC \leftarrow M[C]$ ADDD $AC \leftarrow AC + M[D]$ MULT $AC \leftarrow AC * M[T]$ STOREX $M[X] \leftarrow AC$ 

» All operations are done between the AC register and memory operand

4) Zero-Address Instruction

PUSH	A	$TOS \leftarrow A$
<b>PUSH</b>	В	$TOS \leftarrow B$
ADD		$TOS \leftarrow (A+B)$
<b>PUSH</b>	C	$TOS \leftarrow C$
PUSH	D	$TOS \leftarrow D$
ADD		$TOS \leftarrow (C+D)$
MUL		$TOS \leftarrow (C+D)*(A+B)$
POP	X	$M[X] \leftarrow TOS$

- » Stack-organized computer does not use an address field for the instructions ADD, and MUL
- » PUSH, and POP instructions need an address field to specify the operand
- » Zero-Address : absence of address ( ADD, MUL )

#### RISC Instruction

- Only use LOAD and STORE instruction when communicating between memory and CPU
- All other instructions are executed within the registers of the CPU without referring to memory
- RISC architecture will be explained in Sec. 8-8

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

LOAD	R1, A	$R1 \leftarrow M[A]$
LOAD	R2, B	$R2 \leftarrow M[B]$
LOAD	R3, C	$R3 \leftarrow M[C]$
LOAD	<b>R4</b> , <b>D</b>	$R4 \leftarrow M[D]$
ADD	R1, R1, R2	$R1 \leftarrow R1 + R2$
ADD	R3, R3, R4	$R3 \leftarrow R3 + R4$
MUL	R1, R1, R3	$R1 \leftarrow R1 * R3$
STORE	X, R1	$M[X] \leftarrow R1$

## 8-5 Addressing Modes

- ◆ Addressing Mode의 필요성
  - 1) To give programming versatility to the user
    - » pointers to memory, counters for loop control, indexing of data, ....
  - 2) To reduce the number of bits in the addressing field of the instruction
- Instruction Cycle
  - 1) Fetch the instruction from memory and PC + 1
  - 2) Decode the instruction
  - 3) Execute the instruction



- Program Counter (PC)
  - PC keeps track of the instructions in the program stored in memory
  - PC holds the address of the instruction to be executed next
  - PC is incremented each time an instruction is fetched from memory
- Addressing Mode of the Instruction
  - 1) Distinct Binary Code
    - » Instruction Format 에 Opcode 와 같이 별도에 Addressing Mode Field를 갖고 있음
  - 2) Single Binary Code
    - » Instruction Format에 Opcode 와 Addressing Mode Field가 섞여 있음
- ◆ Instruction Format with mode field : Fig. 8-6

Opcode	Mode	Address
--------	------	---------

- ◆ Implied Mode
  - Operands are specified implicitly in definition of the instruction
  - Examples
    - » COM: Complement Accumulator
      - Operand in AC is implied in the definition of the instruction
    - » PUSH: Stack push
      - Operand is implied to be on top of the stack

- Immediate Mode
  - Operand field contains the actual operand
  - Useful for initializing registers to a constant value
  - Example: LD #NBR
- Register Mode
  - Operands are in registers
  - Register is selected from a register field in the instruction
    - » k-bit register field can specify any one of 2k registers
  - **Example**: LD R1  $AC \leftarrow R1$  Implied Mode
- Register Indirect Mode
  - Selected register contains the address of the operand rather than the operand itself
  - Address field of the instruction uses fewer bits to select a memory address
    - » Register 를 select 하는 것이 bit 수가 적게 소요됨
  - Example: LD (R1)  $AC \leftarrow M[R1]$
- Autoincrement or Autodecrement Mode
  - Similar to the register indirect mode except that
    - » the register is incremented after its value is used to access memory
    - » the register is decrement before its value is used to access memory

- **Example** (Autoincrement): LD (R1)+  $AC \leftarrow M[R1], R1 \leftarrow R1+1$
- Direct Addressing Mode
  - Effective address is equal to the address field of the instruction (Operand)
  - Address field specifies the actual branch address in a branch-type instruction
  - **Example**: LD ADR  $AC \leftarrow M[ADR]$  ADR = Address part of Instruction
- Indirect Addressing Mode
  - Address field of instruction gives the address where the effective address is stored in memory
  - Example: LD @ADR  $AC \leftarrow M[M[ADR]]$
- Relative Addressing Mode
  - PC is added to the address part of the instruction to obtain the effective address
  - Example: LD \$ADR  $AC \leftarrow M[PC + ADR]$
- Indexed Addressing Mode
  - XR (Index register) is added to the address part of the instruction to obtain the
    effective address
  - Example: LD ADR(XR)  $AC \leftarrow M[ADR + XR]$
- Base Register Addressing Mode
   Not Here
  - the content of a (base register) is added to the address part of the instruction to obtain the effective address

- Similar to the indexed addressing mode except that the register is now called a base register instead of an index register
  - » index register (XR) : LD ADR(XR)  $AC \leftarrow M$  [

 $AC \leftarrow M[ADR + XR]$  **ADR** 기준

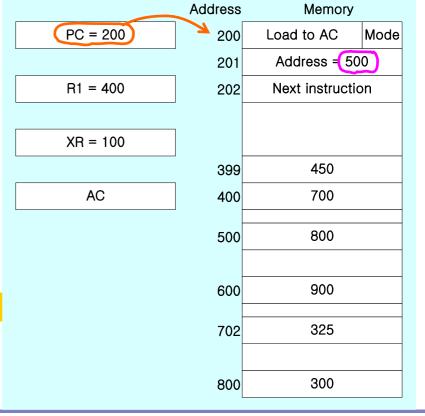
- index register hold an index number that is relative to the address part of the instruction
- » base register (BR) : LD ADR(BR)
- $AC \leftarrow M[BR + ADR]$

BR 기준

- base register hold a base address
- the address field of the instruction gives a displacement relative to this base address

•	Numericai Exam	pie		
	Addressing Mode	Effective Address	s (	Content of AC
lm	mediate Address Mode	201		500
Dii	rect Address Mode	500		800
Ind	direct Address Mode	800		300
Re	egister Mode			400
Re	egister Indirect Mode	400		700
Re	elative Address Mode	702	١.	325
Ind	dexed Address Mode	600		900
Au	utoincrement Mode	400		700
Au	itodecrement Mode	399	Ш	450
			1	R1 = 400
	R1 = 400 (after)		4	500 + 202 ( <b>P</b>
	R1 = 400 -1 ( <b>prior</b> )	`	7	500 + 100 ( <b>XR</b>

Numerical Evente



- 8-6 Data Transfer and Manipulation
  - Most computer instructions can be classified into three categories:
    - 1) Data transfer, 2) Data manipulation, 3) Program control instructions
  - Data Transfer Instruction
    - Typical Data Transfer Instruction : Tab. 8-5
      - » Load : transfer from memory to a processor register, usually an AC (memory read)
      - » Store : transfer from a processor register into memory (memory write)
      - » Move: transfer from one register to another register
      - » Exchange: swap information between two registers or a register and a memory word
      - » Input/Output : transfer data among processor registers and input/output device
      - » Push/Pop: transfer data between processor registers and a memory stack
    - 8 Addressing Mode for the LOAD Instruction: Tab. 8-6
      - » @: Indirect Address
      - » \$ : Address relative to PC
      - » #: Immediate Mode
      - » (): Index Mode, Register Indirect, Autoincrement 에서 register 지정
  - Data Manipulation Instruction
    - 1) Arithmetic, 2) Logical and bit manipulation, 3) Shift Instruction

- Arithmetic Instructions: Tab. 8-7
- Logical and Bit Manipulation Instructions: Tab. 8-8
- Shift Instructions: Tab. 8-9
- 8-7 Program Control
  - Program Control Instruction: Tab. 8-10
    - Branch and Jump instructions are used interchangeably to mean the same thing
  - Status Bit Conditions : Fig. 8-8
    - Condition Code Bit or Flag Bit
      - » The bits are set or cleared as a result of an operation performed in the ALU
  - 4-bit status register
    - Bit C (carry): set to 1 if the end carry C<sub>8</sub> is 1
    - Bit **S** (sign): set to 1 if F<sub>7</sub> is 1
    - Bit **Z** (zero): set to 1 if the output of the ALU contains all 0's
    - Bit V (overflow): set to 1 if the exclusive-OR of the last two carries (C<sub>8</sub> and C<sub>7</sub>) is equal to 1
    - Flag Example: A B = A + (2's Comp. Of B): A =11110000, B = 00010100
       11110000
      - + 11101100 (2's comp. of B) C = 1, S = 1, V = 0, Z = 0

- Conditional Branch: Tab. 8-11
- Subroutine Call and Return

• CALL:  $SP \leftarrow SP - 1$ : Decrement stack point

 $M[SP] \leftarrow PC$ : Push content of PC onto the stack

 $PC \leftarrow Effective \ Address$ : Transfer control to the subroutine

• RETURN :  $PC \leftarrow M[SP]$  : Pop stack and transfer to PC

 $SP \leftarrow SP + 1$ : Increment stack pointer

- Program Interrupt
  - Program Interrupt
    - » Transfer program control from a currently running program to another service program as a result of an external or internal generated request
    - » Control returns to the original program after the service program is executed
  - Interrupt Service Program 과 Subroutine Call 의 차이점
    - » 1) An interrupt is initiated by an internal or external signal (except for software interrupt)
      - A subroutine call is initiated from the execution of an instruction (CALL)
    - » 2) The address of the interrupt service program is determined by the hardware
      - The address of the subroutine call is determined from the address field of an instruction.
    - » 3) An interrupt procedure stores all the information necessary to define the state of the CPU
      - A subroutine call stores only the program counter (Return address)

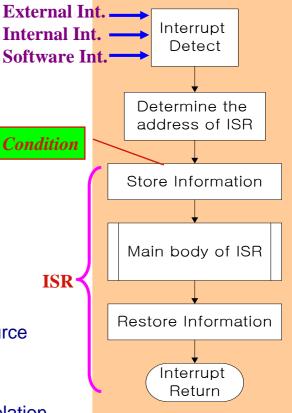
- Program Status Word (PSW)
  - » The collection of all status bit conditions in the CPU
- Two CPU Operating Modes
  - » Supervisor (System) Mode : Privileged Instruction 실행
    - When the CPU is executing a program that is part of the operating system
  - » User Mode : User program 실행

PC, CPU Register, Status Condition

CPU operating mode is determined from special bits in the PSW

### Types of Interrupts

- 1) External Interrupts
  - » come from I/O device, from a timing device, from a circuit monitoring the power supply, or from any other external source
- 2) Internal Interrupts or TRAP
  - » caused by register overflow, attempt to divide by zero, an invalid operation code, stack overflow, and protection violation
- 3) Software Interrupts
  - » initiated by executing an instruction (INT or RST)
  - » used by the programmer to initiate an interrupt procedure at any desired point in the program



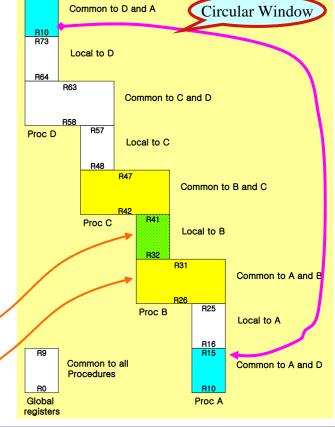
- 8-8 Reduced Instruction Set Computer (RISC)
  - Complex Instruction Set Computer (CISC)
    - Major characteristics of a CISC architecture
      - » 1) A large number of instructions typically from 100 to 250 instruction
      - » 2) Some instructions that perform specialized tasks and are used infrequently
      - » 3) A large variety of addressing modes typically from 5 to 20 different modes
      - » 4) Variable-length instruction formats
      - » 5) Instructions that manipulate operands in memory (RISC 에서는 in register)
  - Reduced Instruction Set Computer (RISC)
    - Major characteristics of a RISC architecture
      - » 1) Relatively few instructions
      - » 2) Relatively few addressing modes
      - » 3) Memory access limited to load and store instruction
      - » 4) All operations done within the registers of the CPU
      - » 5) Fixed-length, easily decoded instruction format
      - » 6) Single-cycle instruction execution
      - » 7) Hardwired rather than microprogrammed control

- Other characteristics of a RISC architecture
  - » 1) A relatively large number of registers in the processor unit
  - » 2) Use of overlapped register windows to speed-up procedure call and return
  - » 3) Efficient instruction pipeline

» 4) Compiler support for efficient translation of high-level language programs into

machine language programs

- Overlapped Register Windows
  - Time consuming operations during procedure call
    - » Saving and restoring registers
    - » Passing of parameters and results
  - Overlapped Register Windows
    - » Provide the passing of parameters and avoid the need for saving and restoring register values by hardware
- Concept of overlapped register windows : Fig. 8-9
  - Total 74 registers : R0 R73
    - » R0 R9 : Global registers
    - » R10 R63 : 4 windows
      - Window A
        Window B
        Window C
        10 Local registers
        +
        2 sets of 6 registers
        - Window D (common to adjacent windows)



- Example) Procedure A calls procedure B
  - » R26 R31
    - Store parameters for procedure B
    - Store results of procedure B
  - » R16 R25 : Local to procedure A
  - » R32 R41 : Local to procedure B
- Window Size = L + 2C + G = 10 + (2 X 6) + 10 = 32 registers
- Register File (total register) = (L + C) X W + G = (10 + 6) X 4 + 10 = 74 registers
  - » 여기서, **G** : Global registers = 10
    - **L**: Local registers = 10
    - **C**: Common registers = 6
    - W: Number of windows = 4
- Berkeley RISC I
  - RISC Architecture 의 기원: 1980 년대 초
    - » Berkeley RISC project : first project = Berkeley RISC I
    - » Stanford MIPS project
  - Berkeley RISC I
    - » 32 bit CPU, 32 bit instruction format, 31 instruction
    - » 3 addressing modes : register, immediate, relative to PC

- Instruction Set: Tab. 8-12
- Instruction Format : Fig. 8-10
- Register Mode : bit 13 = 0
  - » S2 = register
  - » Example) ADD R22, R21, R23
    - ADD Rs, S2, Rd : Rd = Rs + S2
- Register Immediate Mode : bit 13 = 1
  - » S2 = sign extended 13 bit constant
  - » Example) LDL (R22)#150, R5
    - LDL (Rs)S2, Rd : Rd = M[R22] + 150
- PC Relative Mode
  - » Y = 19 bit relative address
  - » Example) JMPR COND, Y
    - Jump to PC = PC + Y
  - » CWP (Current Window Pointer)
    - CALL, RET시 stack pointer 같이 사용됨
- RISC Architecture Originator

