Unit III

Central Processing Unit: General Register Organization, Stack Organization, Addressing Modes, Reduced instruction set computer, Complex instruction set computer, instruction formats

Overview

- > General Register Organization
- > Stack Organization
- > Instruction Formats
- > Addressing Modes
- Data Transfer and Manipulation
- ➤ Program Control
- ➤ RISC and CISC

Major Components of CPU

- Storage Components
 Registers
 Flags
- Execution (Processing) Components
 Arithmetic Logic Unit(ALU)
 Arithmetic calculations, Logical computations, Shifts/Rotates
- Transfer Components
 Bus
- Control Components
 Control Unit

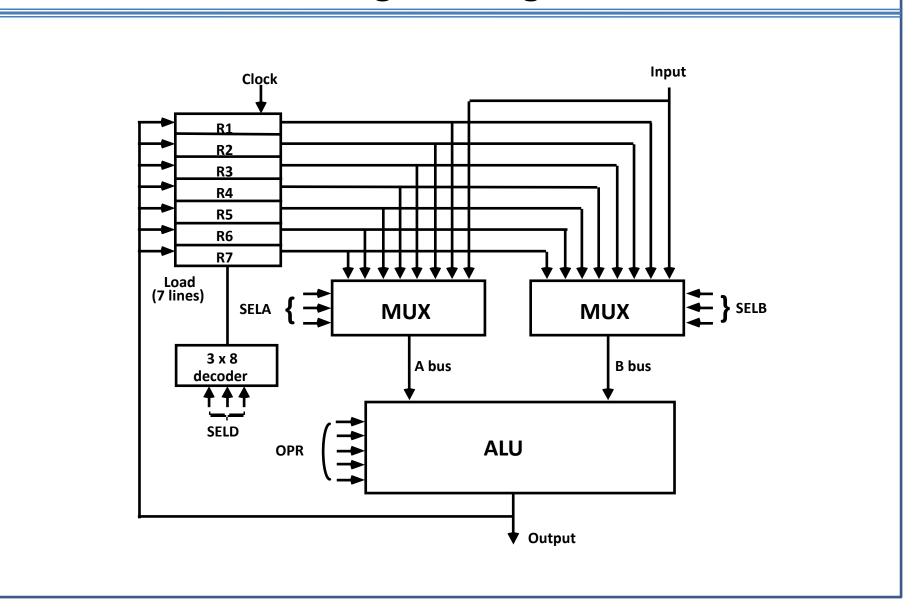
Register

- ➤In Basic Computer, there is only one general purpose register, the Accumulator (AC)
- ➤ In modern CPUs, there are many general purpose registers
- ➤ It is advantageous to have many registers
 - •Transfer between registers within the processor are relatively fast
 - •Going "off the processor" to access memory is much slower

Processor Organization

- In general, most processors are organized in one of 3 ways
 - Single register (Accumulator) organization
 - Basic Computer is a good example
 - Accumulator is the only general purpose register
 - General register organization
 - Used by most modern computer processors
 - Any of the registers can be used as the source or destination for computer operations
 - Stack organization
 - All operations are done using the hardware stack
 - For example, an OR instruction will pop the two top elements from the stack, do a logical OR on them, and push the result on the stack

General Register Organization



Operation of ControlUnit

The control unit

Directs the information flow through ALU by

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

Example: $R1 \leftarrow R2 + R3$

[1] MUX A selector (SELA): BUS A \leftarrow R2

[2] MUX B selector (SELB): BUS B \leftarrow R3

[3] ALU operation selector (OPR): ALU to ADD

[4] Decoder destination selector (SELD): R1 ← Out Bus

Control Word

3	3	3	5
SELA	SELB	SELD	OPR

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

	Symb	olic Desi	ignation		
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

Stack Organization

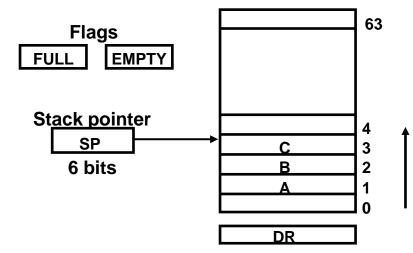
Stack

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

Stack Organization

- **➤** Register Stack Organization
- **➤ Memory Stack Organization**

Register Stack Organization



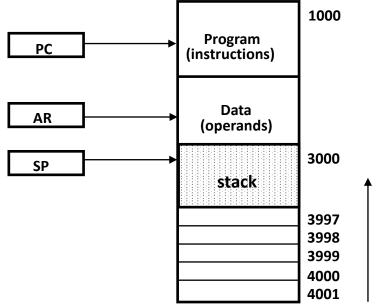
Push, Pop operations

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

```
\begin{array}{cccc} \underline{PUSH} & \underline{POP} \\ SP \leftarrow SP + 1 & DR \leftarrow M[SP] \\ M[SP] \leftarrow DR & SP \leftarrow SP - 1 \\ If (SP = 0) then (FULL \leftarrow 1) & If (SP = 0) then (EMPTY \leftarrow 1) \\ EMPTY \leftarrow 0 & FULL \leftarrow 0 \end{array}
```

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) → must be done in software

Reverse Polish Notation

Stack is very effective in evaluating arithmetic expressions

• Arithmetic Expressions:

Polish Notation (Prefix): Place operator before operand

Reverse Polish Notation (Postfix): Place operator after operand

- 1. (A*B)CD*+
- 2. (A*B) (C*D) +
- 3. (A*B) + (C*D)

$$(A+B) * [C* (D+E)+F] \rightarrow AB+DE+C*F+*$$

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

Instruction Format

Instruction Fields

```
OP-code field - specifies the operation to be performed

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

Mode field - determines how the address field is to be interpreted (to get effective address or the operand)

- 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:
```

```
/* AC \leftarrow AC + M[X] */
  ADD
General register organization:
          R1, R2, R3 /* R1 \leftarrow R2 + R3 */
  ADD
  ADD R1, R2
                 /* R1 \leftarrow R1 + R2 */
                 /* R1 ← R2 */
  MOV R1, R2
          R1, X
                     /* R1 \leftarrow R1 + M[X] */
  ADD
Stack organization:
  PUSH
                           /* TOS \leftarrow M[X] */
          X
  ADD
```

Three & Two Address Instruction

Three-Address Instructions

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

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 */
```

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

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

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

-most common in commercial computer

One Address Instruction

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

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

Zero Address Instruction

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

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

Addressing Modes

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

Computer uses Addressing mode to accommodate one or both of the following provision:

- (1) To give flexibility to programmer by providing facilities such as pointer to memory, counter for loop control, indexing of data, program relocation
- (2) To reduce no. of bits in addressing fields of the instruction

Two modes that need no address field at all:

1. 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]
- Examples from Basic Computer CLA, CME

2. Immediate Mode

- Instead of specifying the address of the operand,
 operand is specified in the instruction itself.
- 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

3. Register Mode

- When address field specifies a processor register, it is said to be in register mode
- 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)

4. 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
- Adv : Fewer address bit reqd. compared to memory address
- EA = [IR(R)]([x]: Content of x)

5. Autoincrement or Autodecrement Mode

- Similar to 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 automatically

6. Direct Address Mode

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

7. 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)]

8. 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
- Address field of the instruction is short
- Large physical memory can be accessed with a small number of address bits
- EA = f(IR(address), R), R is sometimes implied
- -3 different Relative Addressing Modes depending on R;

```
PC Relative Addressing Mode (R = PC)

- EA = PC + IR(address)

Indexed Addressing Mode (R = IX, where IX: Index Register)

- EA = IX + IR(address)

Base Register Addressing Mode

(R = BAR, where BAR: Base Address Register)

- EA = BAR + IR(address)
```

Addressing Mode - Example

PC = 200

R1 = 400

RX = 100

AC

Addressing	Effective		Content
Mode	Address		of AC
Direct address	500	/* AC ← (500) */	800
Immediate opera	nd -		
Indirect address			
Relative address			
Indexed address			
Register			
Register indirect			
Autodecrement			
Autoincrement			

Address Memory				
200	Load to AC Mode			
201	Address = 500			
202	Next instruction			
399	450			
400	700			
.00	100			
500	800			
600	900			
000	900			
702	325			
800	300			

Addressing Mode - Example

PC = 200

R1 = 400

RX = 100

AC

_					
	Addressing Mode	Effective Address			Content of AC
	Direct address	500	/* AC ← (500)	*/	800
	Immediate operan	id -	/* AC ← 500	*/	500
١	Indirect address	800	/* AC ← ((500))	*/	300
١	Relative address	702	$/* AC \leftarrow (PC+500)$	*/	325
١	Indexed address	600	$/* AC \leftarrow (RX+500)$	*/	900
١	Register	-	/* AC ← R1	*/	400
١	Register indirect	400	/* AC ← (R1)	*/	700
١	Autodecrement	399	/* AC ← -(R)	*/	450
	Autoincrement	400	/* AC ← (R1)+	*/	700

Address Memory				
200	Load to AC Mode			
201	Address = 500			
202	Next instruction			
399	450			
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500	800			
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702	325			
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Overview

- ➤ General Register Organization
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- > Instruction Formats
- ➤ Addressing Modes
- Data Transfer and Manipulation
- Program Control
- > RISC and CISC

Data Transfer and Manipulation

•Instruction set of different computers differ from each other mostly in way the operands are determined from the address and mode fields.

The basic set of operations available in a typical computer are:

- Data Transfer Instructions
- Data Manipulation Instruction:
 perform arithmetic, logic and shift operation
- Program Control Instructions decision making capabilities, change the path taken by the program when executed in computer.

Data Transfer Instructions

Move data from one place in computer to another without changing the data content

Most common transfer: processor reg -memory, processor reg -I/O, between processor register themselves

• Typical Data Transfer Instructions

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

Data Transfer Instructions

Some assembly language conventions modify the mnemonic symbol to differentiate between the different addressing modes

• Data Transfer Instructions with Different Addressing Modes

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

Data Maniplulation Instructions

These instruction performs operation on data and provide the computational capabilities for the computer

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

Data Manipulation Instructions

Four basic arithmetic operations : + - * /

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

Data Manipulation Instructions

- →Logical Instructions perform binary operations on string of bits stored in registers
- → Useful for manipulating individual/ group of bits
- → Consider each bit separately
 - 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

AND →Clear selected bits

OR →Set selected bits

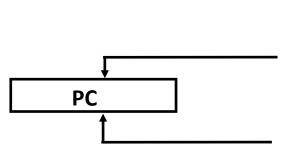
XOR →Complement selected bits

Data Manipulation Instructions

• 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 Instruction



+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, resp.).

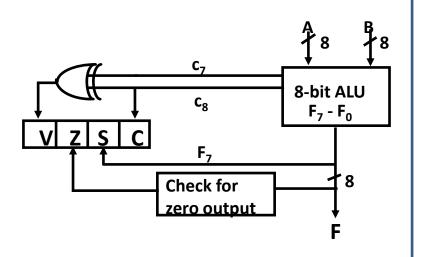
They only set or clear certain Flags.

like carry /sign/zero bit or overflow condition

Flag, Processor Status Word

- In Basic Computer, the processor had several (status) flags 1 bit value that indicated various information about the processor's state FGI, FGO, I, IEN, R
- In some processors, flags like these are often combined into a register the processor status register (PSR); sometimes called a processor status word (PSW)
- Common flags in PSW are
 - C (Carry): Set to 1 if the carry out of the ALU is 1
 - S (Sign): The MSB bit of the ALU's output
 - Z (Zero): Set to 1 if the ALU's output is all 0's
 - V (Overflow): Set to 1 if there is an overflow

Status Flag Circuit



Status Bit Condition

Status Bit	Description	Set to 1	Clear to 0
С	Carry	If end carry C8 =1	If carry=0
S	Sign	Highest order bit F7=1	If F7=0
Z	Zero	O/P of ALU contains all 0	otherwise
V	Overflow	EX-OR of last two carries=1	otherwise

Conditional Branch Instruction

Mnemonic	Branch condition	Tested condition	
BZ	Branch if zero	Z = 1	
BNZ	Branch if not zero	Z = 0	
ВС	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 overflo	w V = 0	
Unsigned compare conditions (A - B)			
ВНІ	Branch if higher	A > B	
BHE	Branch if higher or e	equal A≥B	
BLO	Branch if lower	A < B	
BLOE	Branch if lower or e	qual A≤B	
BE	Branch if equal	A = B	
BNE	Branch if not equal	A ≠ B	
Signed compare conditions (A - B)			
BGT	Branch if greater tha	an A > B	
BGE	Branch if greater or	equal A≥B	
BLT	Branch if less than	A < B	
BLE	Branch if less or equ	ıal A≤B	
BE	Branch if equal	A = B	
BNE	Branch if not equal	$A \neq B$	

Subroutine Call and Return

Subroutine: self contained sequence of instructions that performs a given computation task

Subroutine Call

- **≻**Call subroutine
- >Jump to subroutine
- >Branch to subroutine
- >Branch and save return address
- •Instructions are executed by performing two operations :
 - (1). Save PC as Return Address to get the address of the location in the Calling Program upon exit from the Subroutine
 - (2). Branch to the beginning of the Subroutine
 - Same as the Branch or Conditional Branch
- Locations for storing Return Address
 - First Location in the subroutine (Memory)
 - Fixed Location in memory
 - In a processor Register
 - In memory stack
 - most efficient way

CALL $SP \leftarrow SP - 1$ $M[SP] \leftarrow PC$ $PC \leftarrow EA$ RTN $PC \leftarrow M[SP]$ $SP \leftarrow SP + 1$

Interrupt Procedure

Program Interrupt refers to the transfer of program control from a currently running program to another service program as a result of an external or internal generated request

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

Interrupt Procedure

- CPU does not respond to interrupt until end of instruction cycle, checks just before next fetch phase
- If interrupt pending, control passed to h/w interrupt cycle:
 - Content of PC and PSW is pushed into stack
 - branch address of interrupt transferred to PC and new PSW loaded into status registers
- Service Program executed starting from branch address and status of CPU as specified by new PSW
- Last instruction from service program is return from interrupt instruction

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 supply → Power Failure

Internal interrupts (traps)

Internal Interrupts are arises from illegal or erroneous use of instn. or data

- -→ initiated by program itself rather than external event
- Register, Stack Overflow
- Divide by zero
- OP-code Violation
- Protection Violation

Software Interrupts

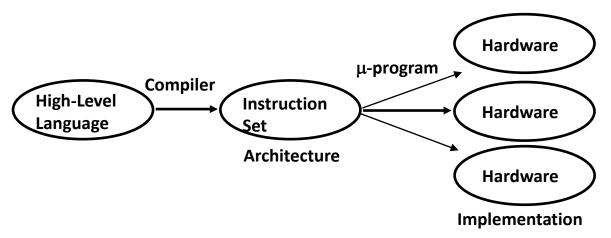
Both External and Internal Interrupts are initiated by the computer HW. Software Interrupts are initiated by the executing an instruction.

- Supervisor Call
- 1. Switching from a user mode to the supervisor mode
 - 2. Allows to execute a certain class of operations which are not allowed in the user mode

RISC- 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)

CISC

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
- Richer instruction sets would improve architecture quality

CISC

- These computers with many instructions and addressing modes came to be known as Complex Instruction Set Computers (CISC)
- One essential goal for CISC machines was to provide a single machine instruction for each statement that is written in high level language.
- Another characteristic was incorporation of variable length instruction format.

Complex Instruction Set Computers

- Another characteristic of CISC computers is that they have instructions that act directly on memory addresses
 - For example,

ADD L1, L2, L3

that takes the contents of M[L1] adds it to the contents of M[L2] and stores the result in location M[L3]

- An instruction like this takes three memory access cycles to execute
- That makes for a potentially very long instruction execution cycle
- The problems with CISC computers are
 - The complexity of the design may slow down the processor,
 - The complexity of the design may result in costly errors in the processor design and implementation,
 - Many of the instructions and addressing modes are used rarely, if ever

Summary: Criticism On CISC

High Performance General Purpose Instructions

- Complex Instruction
 - → Format, Length, Addressing Modes
 - → Complicated instruction cycle control due to the complex decoding HW and decoding process
- Multiple memory cycle instructions
 - → Operations on memory data
 - → Multiple memory accesses/instruction
- Microprogrammed control is necessity
 - → Microprogram control storage takes substantial portion of CPU chip area
 - → Semantic Gap is large between machine instruction and microinstruction
- General purpose instruction set includes all the features required by individually different applications
 - → When any one application is running, all the features required by the other applications are extra burden to the application

RISC – Reduced Instruction Set Computers

- In the late '70s and early '80s there was a reaction to the shortcomings of the CISC style of processors
- Reduced Instruction Set Computers (RISC) were proposed as an alternative
- The underlying idea behind RISC processors is to simplify the instruction set and reduce instruction execution time
- RISC processors often feature:
 - Few instructions
 - Few addressing modes
 - Only load and store instructions access memory
 - All other operations are done using on-processor registers
 - Fixed length instructions
 - Single cycle execution of instructions
 - The control unit is hardwired, not microprogrammed

RISC – Reduced Instruction Set Computers

- Since all but the load and store instructions use only registers for operands, only a few addressing modes are needed
- By having all instructions the same length, reading them in is easy and fast
- The fetch and decode stages are simple
- The instruction and address formats are designed to be easy to decode
- Unlike the variable length CISC instructions, the opcode and register fields of RISC instructions can be decoded simultaneously
- The control logic of a RISC processor is designed to be simple and fast
- The control logic is simple because of the small number of instructions and the simple addressing modes
- The control logic is hardwired, rather than microprogrammed, because hardwired control is faster