
Chapter Four – I (4/4)

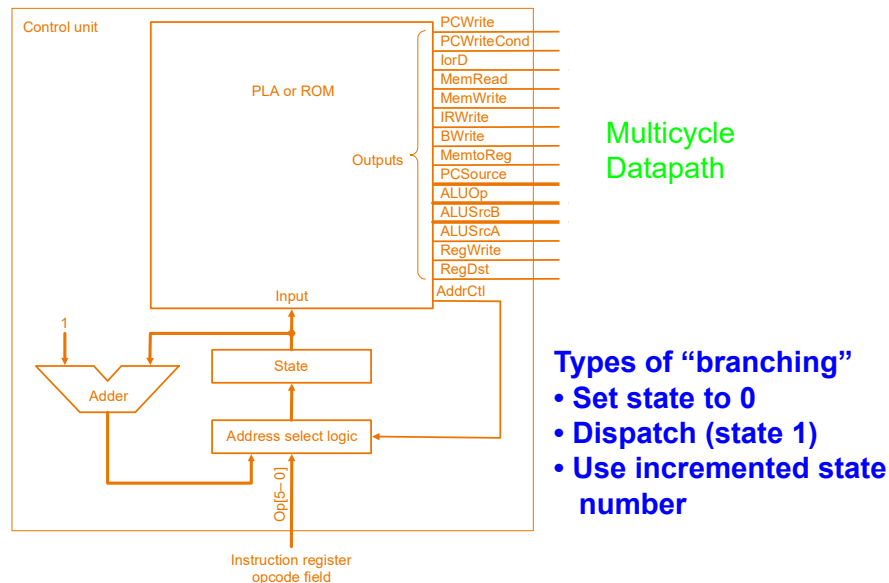
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Microprogramming

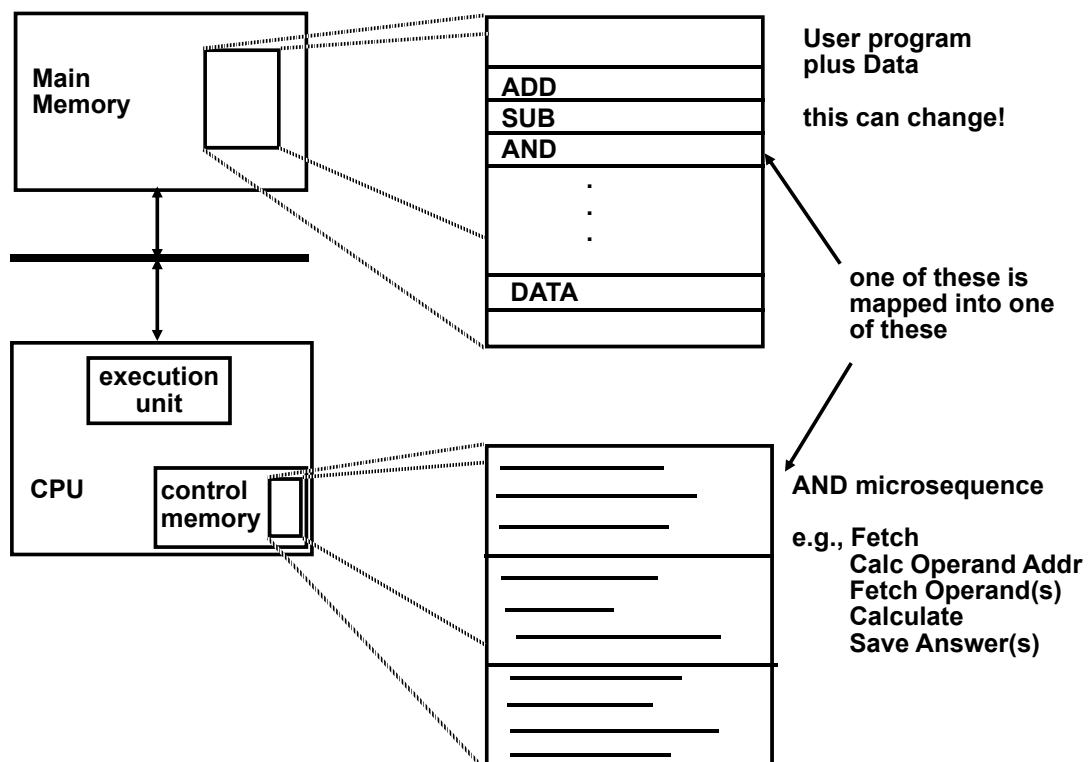
- **Control is the hard part of processor design**
 - Datapath is fairly regular and well-organized
 - Memory is highly regular
 - Control is irregular and global
- **Microprogramming:**
 - **A Particular Strategy for Implementing the Control Unit of a processor by "programming" at the level of register transfer operations**
- **Microarchitecture:**
 - **Logical structure and functional capabilities of the hardware as seen by the microprogrammer**

Sequencer-based control unit

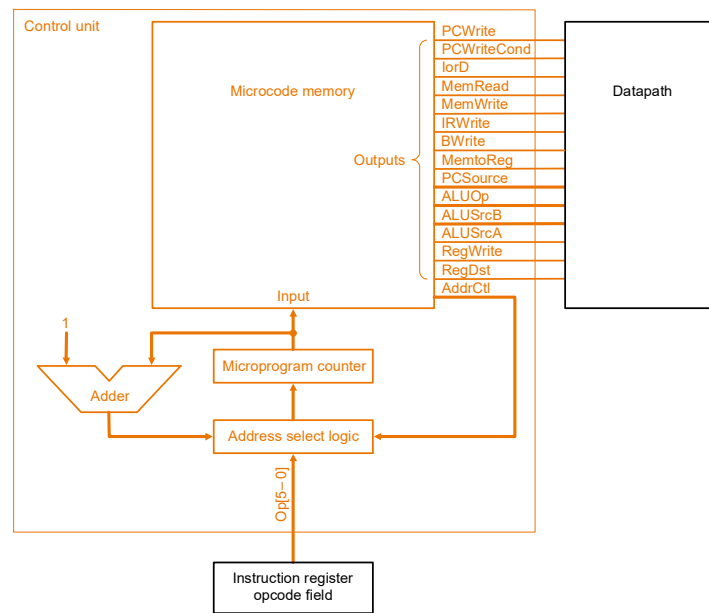
- Complex instructions: the "next state" is often current state + 1



"Macroinstruction" Interpretation



Microprogramming



- What are the “microinstructions” ?

Designing a Microinstruction Set

1. Start with list of control signals
2. Group signals together that make sense (vs. random): called “fields”
3. Places fields in some logical order (e.g., ALU operation & ALU operands first and microinstruction sequencing last)
4. Create a symbolic legend for the microinstruction format, showing name of field values and how they set the control signals
 - Use computers to design computers
5. To minimize the width, encode operations that will never be used at the same time

1&2) List of control signals, grouped into fields

Single Bit Control

Signal name	Effect when deasserted	Effect when asserted
ALUSelA	1st ALU operand = PC	1st ALU operand = Reg[rs]
RegWrite	None	Reg. is written
MemtoReg	Reg. write data input = ALU	Reg. write data input = memory RegDst
	Reg. dest. no. = rt	Reg. dest. no. = rd
TargetWrite	None	Target reg. = ALU
MemRead	None	Memory at address is read
MemWrite	None	Memory at address is written
lorD	Memory address = PC	Memory address = ALU
IRWrite	None	IR = Memory
PCWrite	None	PC = PCSource
PCWriteCond	None	IF ALUzero then PC = PCSource

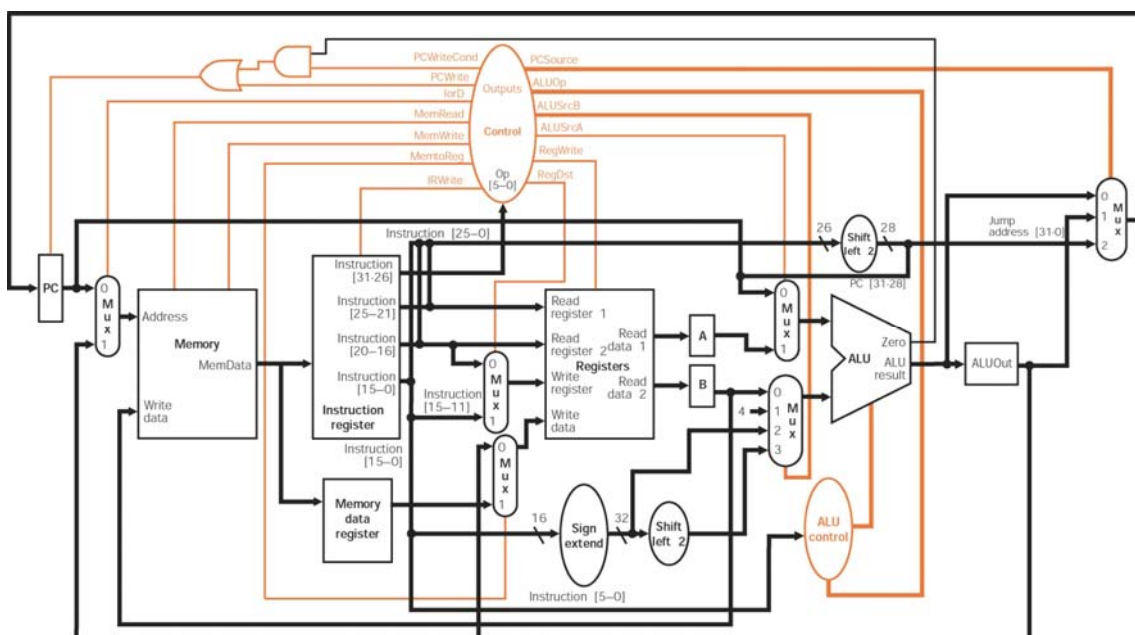
Multiple Bit Control

Signal name	Value	Effect
ALUOp	00	ALU adds
	01	ALU subtracts
	10	ALU does function code
	11	ALU does logical OR
ALUSelB	000	2nd ALU input = Reg[rt]
	001	2nd ALU input = 4
	010	2nd ALU input = sign extended IR[15-0]
	011	2nd ALU input = sign extended, shift left 2 IR[15-0]
	100	2nd ALU input = zero extended IR[15-0]
PCSource	00	PC = ALU
	01	PC = Target
	10	PC = PC+4[29-26] : IR[25-0] << 2

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7

Multicycle Datapath with Control Lines



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8

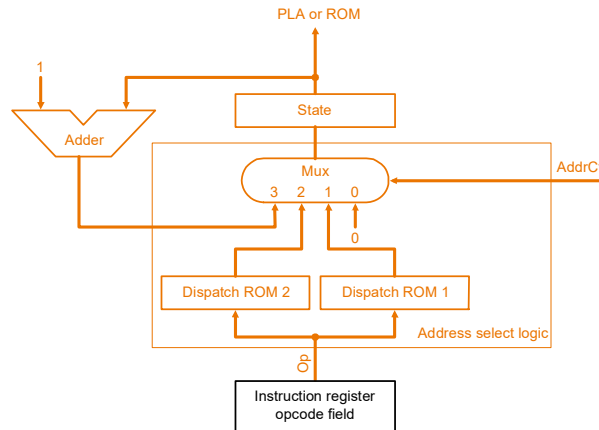
Start with list of control signals, cont'd

- For next state function (next microinstruction address), use Sequencer-based control unit from last lecture
 - Called “microPC” or “μPC” vs. state register

Signal Sequencing

Value Effect

- 00 Next address = 0
- 01 Next address = dispatch ROM 1
- 10 Next address = dispatch ROM 2
- 11 Next address = address + 1



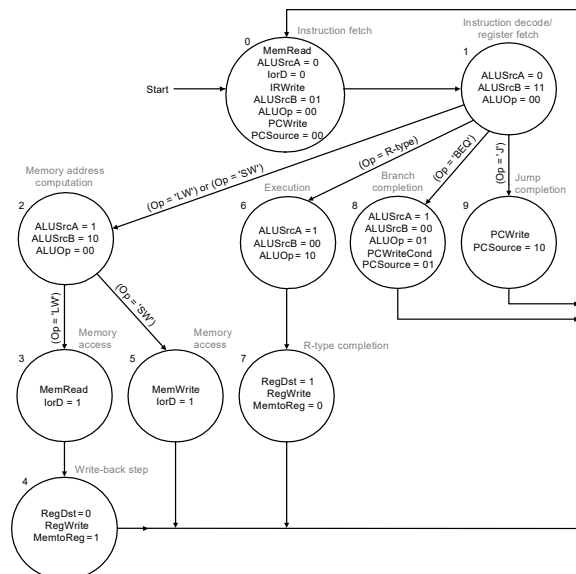
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Details

Dispatch ROM 1		
Op	Opcode name	Value
000000	R-format	0110
000010	jmp	1001
000100	beq	1000
100011	lw	0010
101011	sw	0010

Dispatch ROM 2		
Op	Opcode name	Value
100011	lw	0011
101011	sw	0101

State number	Address-control action	Value of AddrCtl
0	Use incremented state	3
1	Use dispatch ROM 1	1
2	Use dispatch ROM 2	2
3	Use incremented state	3
4	Replace state number by 0	0
5	Replace state number by 0	0
6	Use incremented state	3
7	Replace state number by 0	0
8	Replace state number by 0	0
9	Replace state number by 0	0



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3) Microinstruction Format

- Unencoded (Horizontal) vs. Encoded (Vertical) fields

Field Name	Width		Control Signals Set
	wide	narrow	
ALU Ctrl	3	2	ALUOp
SRC1	2	1	ALUSrcA
SRC2	4	2	ALUSrcB
Reg Ctrl	3	2	RegWrite, MemtoReg, RegDst.
Memory	3	2	MemRead, MemWrite, lorD
PCWrite Ctrl	3	2	PCWrite, PCWriteCond, PCSource
Sequencing	4	2	AddrCtl
Total width	22	13	bits

4) Legend of Fields and Symbolic Names

Field name	Value	Signals active	Comment
ALU control	Add	ALUOp = 00	Cause the ALU to add.
	Subt	ALUOp = 01	Cause the ALU to subtract; this implements the compare for branches.
	Func code	ALUOp = 10	Use the instruction's function code to determine ALU control.
SRC1	PC	ALUSrcA = 0	Use the PC as the first ALU input.
	A	ALUSrcA = 1	Register A is the first ALU input.
SRC2	B	ALUSrcB = 00	Register B is the second ALU input.
	4	ALUSrcB = 01	Use 4 as the second ALU input.
	Extend	ALUSrcB = 10	Use output of the sign extension unit as the second ALU input.
	Extshift	ALUSrcB = 11	Use the output of the shift-by-two unit as the second ALU input.
Register control	Read		Read two registers using the rs and rt fields of the IR as the register numbers and putting the data into registers A and B.
	Write ALU	RegWrite, RegDst = 1, MemtoReg = 0	Write a register using the rd field of the IR as the register number and the contents of the ALUOut as the data.
	Write MDR	RegWrite, RegDst = 0, MemtoReg = 1	Write a register using the rt field of the IR as the register number and the contents of the MDR as the data.
Memory	Read PC	MemRead, lorD = 0	Read memory using the PC as address; write result into IR (and the MDR)
	Read ALU	MemRead, lorD = 1	Read memory using the ALUOut as address; write result into MDR.
	Write ALU	MemWrite, lorD = 1	Write memory using the ALUOut as address, contents of B as the data.
PC write control	ALU	PCSource = 00 PCWrite	Write the output of the ALU into the PC.
	ALUOut-cond	PCSource = 01, PCWriteCond	If the Zero output of the ALU is active, write the PC with the contents of the register ALUOut.
	jump address	PCSource = 10, PCWrite	Write the PC with the jump address from the instruction.
Sequencing	Seq	AddrCtl = 11	Choose the next microinstruction sequentially.
	Fetch	AddrCtl = 00	Go to the first microinstruction to begin a new instruction.
	Dispatch 1	AddrCtl = 01	Dispatch using the ROM 1.
	Dispatch 2	AddrCtl = 10	Dispatch using the ROM 2.

Microprogramming

- A specification methodology
 - appropriate if hundreds of opcodes, modes, cycles, etc.
 - signals specified symbolically using microinstructions

Label	ALU control	SRC1	SRC2	Register control	Memory	PCWrite control	Sequencing
Fetch	Add	PC	4		Read PC	ALU	Seq
	Add	PC	Extshft	Read			Dispatch 1
Mem1	Add	A	Extend				Dispatch 2
LW2					Read ALU		Seq
				Write MDR			Fetch
SW2					Write ALU		Fetch
Rformat1	Func code	A	B				Seq
				Write ALU			Fetch
BEQ1	Subt	A	B			ALUOut-cond	Fetch
JUMP1						Jump address	Fetch

- *Will two implementations of the same architecture have the same microcode?*
- *What would a microassembler do?*

5) Maximally vs. Minimally Encoded

- No encoding:
 - 1 bit for each datapath operation
 - faster, requires more memory (logic)
 - used for Vax 780 — an astonishing 400K of memory!
- Lots of encoding:
 - send the microinstructions through logic to get control signals
 - uses less memory, slower
- Historical context of CISC:
 - Too much logic to put on a single chip with everything else
 - Use a ROM (or even RAM) to hold the microcode
 - **It's easy to add new instructions**

Microprogramming Pros and Cons

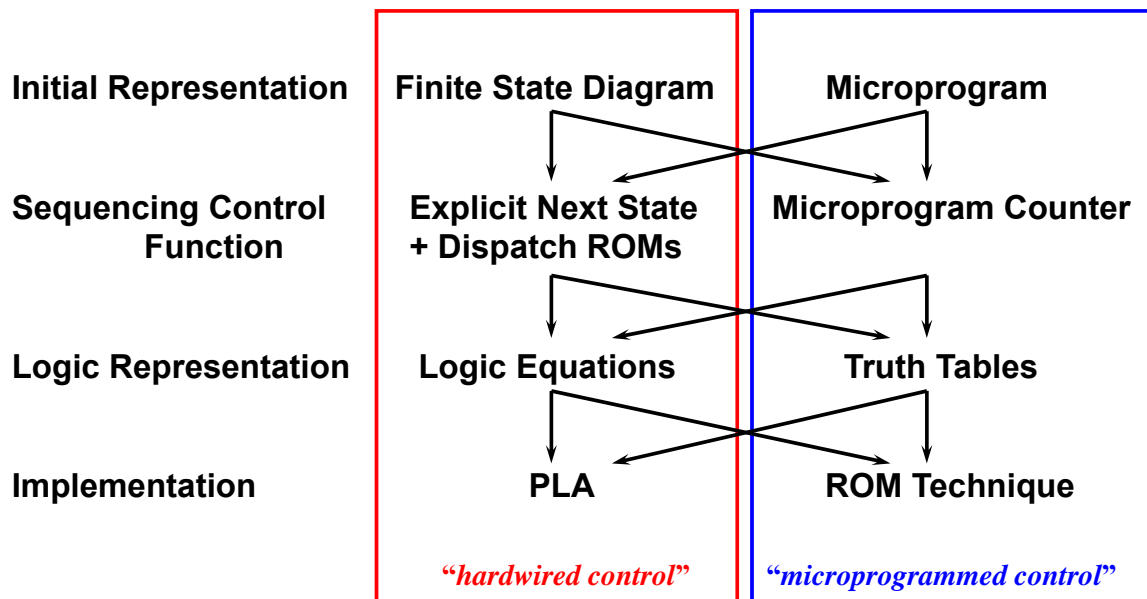
- **Ease of design**
- **Flexibility**
 - Easy to adapt to changes in organization, timing, technology
 - Can make changes late in design cycle, or even in the field
- **Can implement very powerful instruction sets (just more control memory)**
- **Generality**
 - Can implement multiple instruction sets on same machine.
 - Can tailor instruction set to application.
- **Compatibility**
- **Many organizations, same instruction set**
- **Costly to implement**
- **Slow**

Historical Perspective

- **In the '60s and '70s microprogramming was very important for implementing machines**
- **This led to more sophisticated ISAs and the VAX**
- **In the '80s RISC processors based on pipelining became popular**
- **Pipelining the microinstructions is also possible!**
- **Implementations of IA-32 architecture processors since 486 use:**
 - “hardwired control” for simpler instructions
(few cycles, FSM control implemented using PLA / random logic)
 - “microcoded control” for more complex instructions
(large numbers of cycles, central control store)
- **The IA-64 architecture uses a RISC-style ISA and can be implemented without a large central control store**

Overview of Control

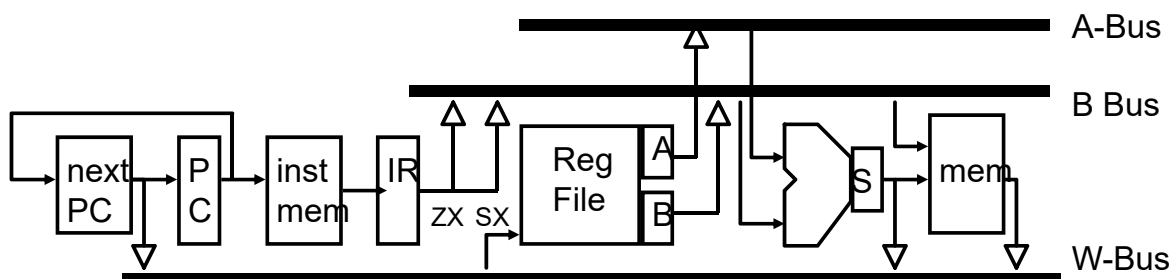
- The control can then be implemented with one of several methods using a structured logic technique.



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17

An Alternative DataPath: “Princeton” Organization



- In each clock cycle, each Bus can be used to transfer from one source
- μ -instruction can simply contain B-Bus and W-Dst fields
- Single memory for instruction and data access
- In this case our state diagram does not change
 - several additional control signals
 - must ensure each bus is only driven by one source on each cycle

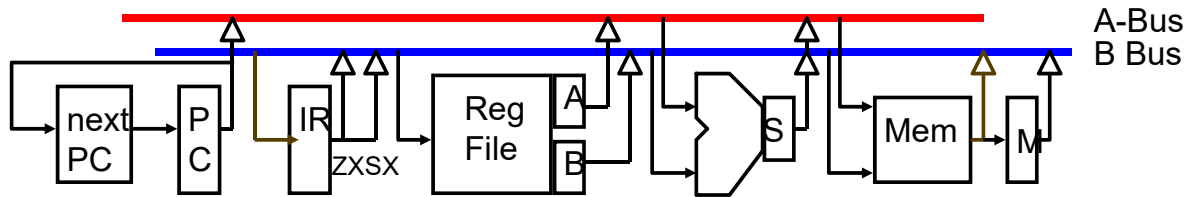
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18

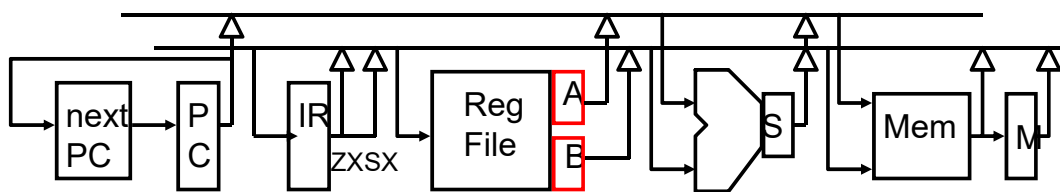
What about a 2-Bus Microarchitecture (datapath)?

- 2-Bus Microarchitecture

Instruction Fetch



Decode / Operand Fetch

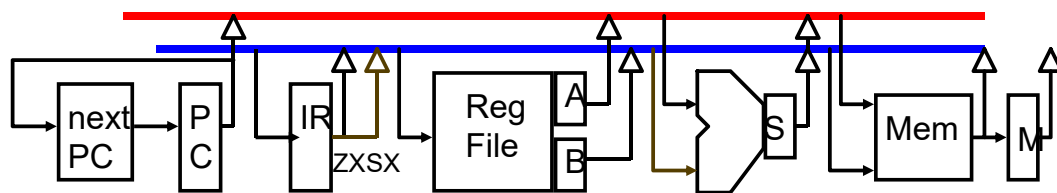


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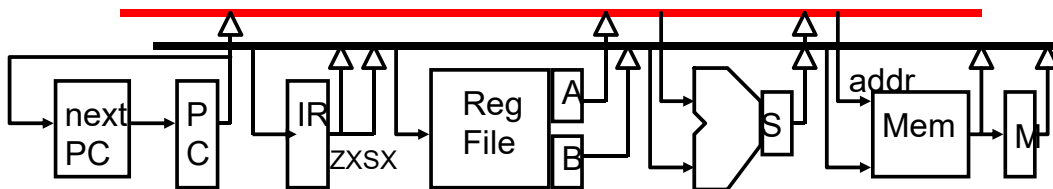
19

Operations of 2-Bus Microarchitecture

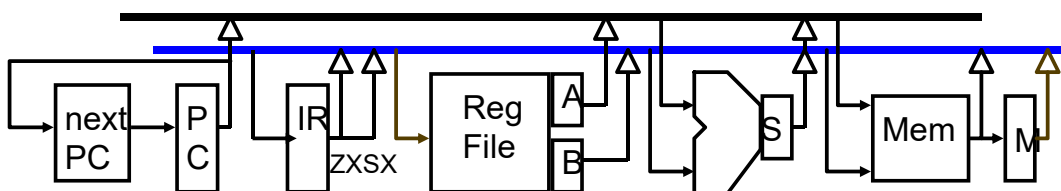
Execute



Mem



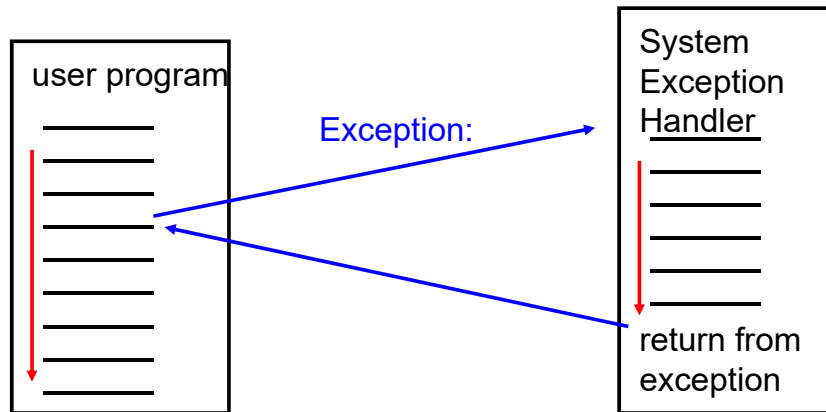
Write-back



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20

Exceptions



normal control flow: sequential, jumps, branches, calls, returns

- **Exception = Unprogrammed control transfer**
 - **system takes action to handle the exception**
 - must record the address of the offending instruction
 - **returns control to user**
 - **must save & restore user state**
- **Allows construction of a “user virtual machine”**

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What happens to Instruction with Exception?

- MIPS architecture defines the instruction as having **no effect** if the instruction causes an exception.
- When get to virtual memory we will see that certain classes of exceptions must prevent the instruction from changing the machine state.
- This aspect of handling exceptions becomes complex and potentially limits performance → why it is hard

Two Types of Exceptions

- **Interrupts**
 - caused by external events
 - asynchronous to program execution
 - may be handled between instructions
 - simply suspend and resume user program
- **Traps**
 - caused by internal events
 - exceptional conditions (overflow)
 - errors (parity)
 - faults (non-resident page)
 - synchronous to program execution
 - condition must be remedied by the handler
 - instruction may be retried or simulated and program continued or program may be aborted

MIPS convention:

- exception means any unexpected change in control flow, without distinguishing internal or external; use the term interrupt only when the event is externally caused.

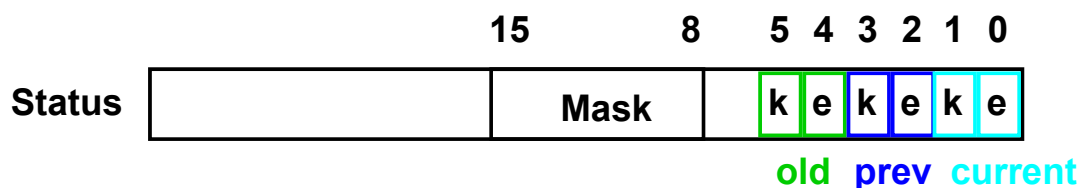
<u>Type of event</u>	<u>where?</u>	<u>MIPS term.</u>
I/O device request	External	Interrupt
Invoke OS from user program	Internal	Exception
Arithmetic overflow	Internal	Exception
Using an undefined instruction	Internal	Exception
Hardware malfunctions	Either Exception or Interrupt	

Additions to MIPS ISA to support Exceptions?

- **EPC**—a 32-bit register used to hold the address of the affected instruction.
- **Cause**—a register used to record the cause of the exception. To simplify the discussion, assume
 - undefined instruction=0
 - arithmetic overflow=1
- **Status** - interrupt mask and enable bits and determines what exceptions can occur.
- Control signals to write EPC , Cause, and Status
- Be able to write exception address into PC, increase mux set PC to exception address (C000 0000_{hex}).
- May have to undo $PC \leftarrow PC + 4$, since want EPC to point to offending instruction (not its successor); $PC \leftarrow PC - 4$

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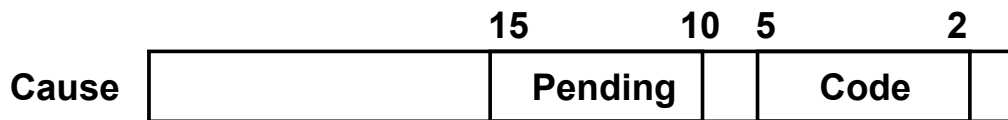
Details of the Status register



- Mask = 1 bit for each of 5 hardware and 3 software interrupt levels
 - 1 => enables interrupts
 - 0 => disables interrupts
- k = kernel/user
 - 0 => was in the kernel when interrupt occurred
 - 1 => was running user mode
- e = interrupt enable
 - 0 => interrupts were disabled
 - 1 => interrupts were enabled
- When interrupt occurs, 6 LSB shifted left 2 bits, setting 2 LSB to 0
 - run in kernel mode with interrupts disabled

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Details of the Cause register

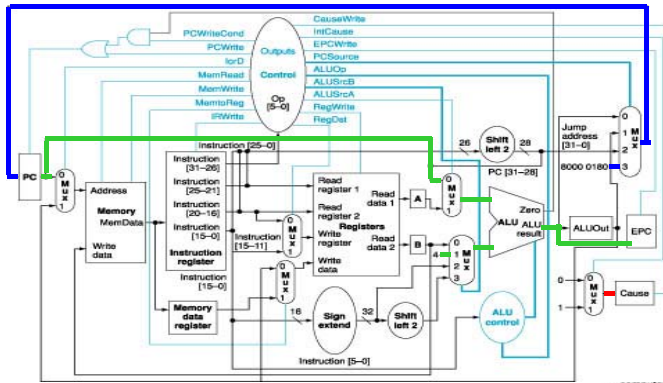


- **Pending Interrupt:**
 - 5 hardware levels: bit set if interrupt occurs but not yet serviced
 - handles cases when more than one interrupt occurs at same time, or while records interrupt requests when interrupts disabled
- **Exception Code:** encodes reasons for interrupt
 - 0 (INT) => external interrupt
 - 4 (ADDRL) => address error exception (load or instr fetch)
 - 5 (ADDRS) => address error exception (store)
 - 6 (IBUS) => bus error on instruction fetch
 - 7 (DBUS) => bus error on data fetch
 - 8 (Syscall) => Syscall exception
 - 9 (BKPT) => Breakpoint exception
 - 10 (RI) => Reserved Instruction exception
 - 12 (OVF) => Arithmetic overflow exception

How Control Detects Exceptions in our FSD

- **Undefined Instruction** – detected when no next state is defined from state 1 for the op value.
 - We handle this exception by defining the next state value for all op values other than lw, sw, 0 (R-type), jmp, beq, and ori as new state 12.
 - Shown symbolically using “other” to indicate that the op field does not match any of the opcodes that label arcs out of state 1.
- **Arithmetic overflow** – included logic in the ALU to detect overflow, and a signal called Overflow is provided as an output from the ALU. This signal is used in the modified finite state machine to specify an additional possible next state
- **Note:** Challenge in designing control of a real machine is to handle different interactions between instructions and other exception-causing events such that control logic remains small and fast.
 - Complex interactions makes the control unit the most challenging aspect of hardware design

Modification to the Control Specification



- Operations for an Exception
 - $EPC \leftarrow PC - 4$
 - $PC \leftarrow exp_addr$
 - $cause \leftarrow 0$ (UI) or 1 (Ovf)

