

Chapter Five

Projeto do Datapath

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The Processor: Datapath & Control

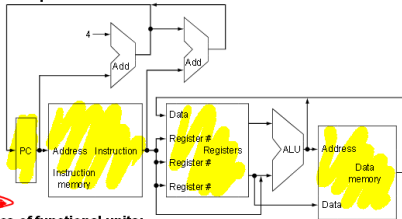
- We're ready to look at an implementation of the MIPS
- Simplified to contain only:
 - memory-reference instructions: lw, sw
 - arithmetic-logical instructions: add, sub, and, or, slt
 - control flow instructions: beq, j
- Generic Implementation:
 - use the program counter (PC) to supply instruction address
 - get the instruction from memory
 - read registers
 - use the instruction to decide exactly what to do
- All instructions use the ALU after reading the registers
 - Why? memory-reference? arithmetic? control flow?

lw \$r1, 8(\$r2)

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More Implementation Details

Abstract / Simplified View:



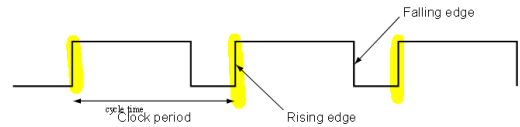
Two types of functional units:

- elements that operate on data values (**combinational**)
- elements that **contain state (sequential)**

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State Elements

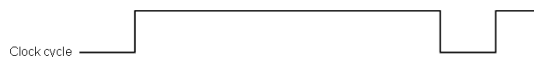
- Unlocked vs. Clocked
- Clocks used in synchronous logic
 - when should an element that contains state be updated?



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Our Implementation

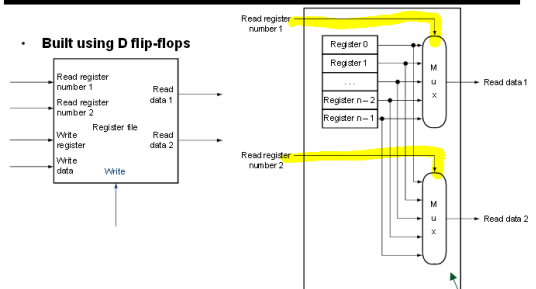
- An edge triggered methodology
- Typical execution:
 - read contents of some state elements,
 - send values through some combinational logic
 - write results to one or more state elements



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Register File

Built using D flip-flops

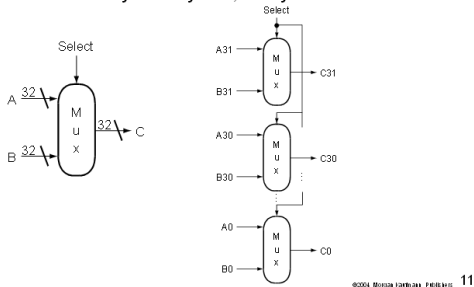


Do you understand? What is the "Mux" above?

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Abstraction

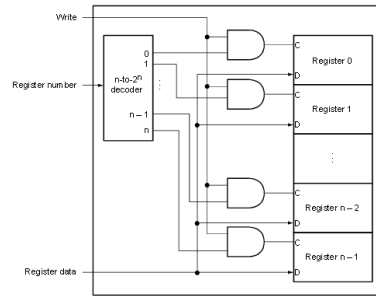
- Make sure you understand the abstractions!
- Sometimes it is easy to think you do, when you don't



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Register File

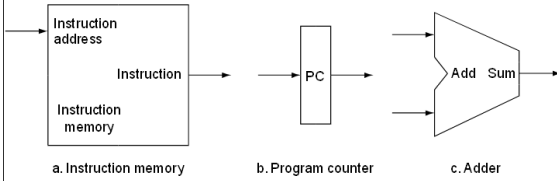
- Note: we still use the real clock to determine when to write



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Simple Implementation

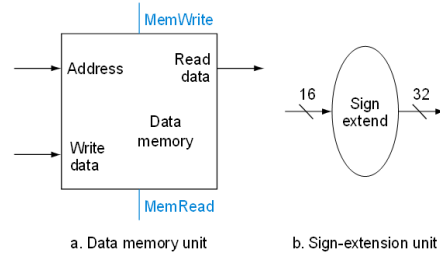
- Include the functional units we need for each instruction



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Simple Implementation

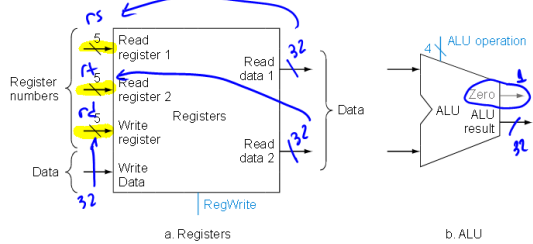
- Include the functional units we need for each instruction



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Simple Implementation

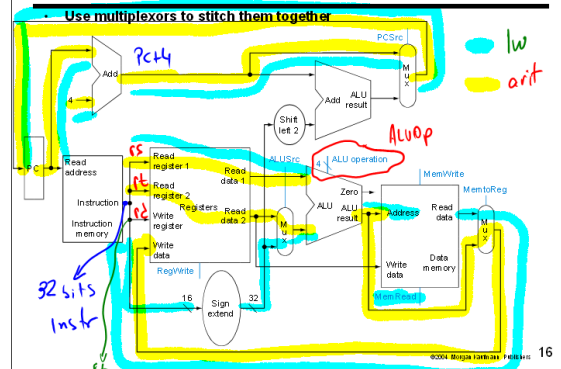
- Include the functional units we need for each instruction



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Building the Datapath

- Use multiplexers to stitch them together



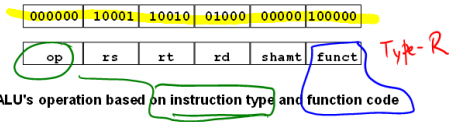
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Control

- Selecting the operations to perform (ALU, read/write, etc.)
- Controlling the flow of data (multiplexer inputs)
- Information comes from the 32 bits of the instruction
- Example:

add \$8, \$17, \$18

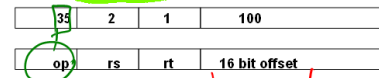
Instruction Format:



- ALU's operation based on instruction type and function code

Control

- e.g. what should the ALU do with this instruction → *endresop*
- Example: **lw \$1, 100(\$2)**



- ALU control input

0000	AND
0001	OR
0010	add
0110	subtract
0111	set-on-less-than
1100	NOR

- Why is the code for subtract 0110 and not 0011?

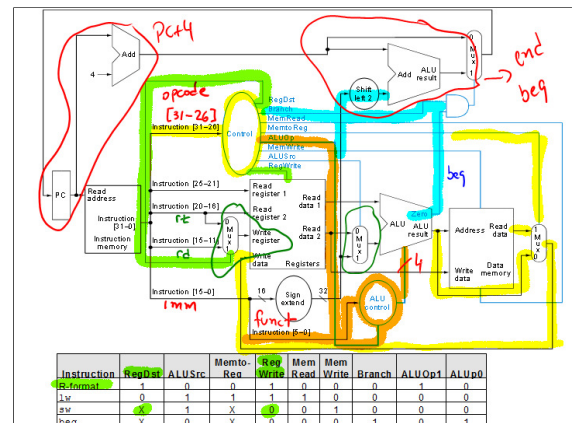
Control

- Must describe hardware to compute 4-bit ALU control input
- given instruction type
 - 00 = lw, sw
 - 01 = beq
 - 10 = arithmetic
- function code for arithmetic

- Describe it using a truth table (can turn into gates):

ALUOp	ALUOp0		ALUOp1		Function field				Operation
	F3	F2	F1	F0	F5	F4	F3	F2	
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0000
1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0100
1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0110
1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0000
1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	0001
1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0111

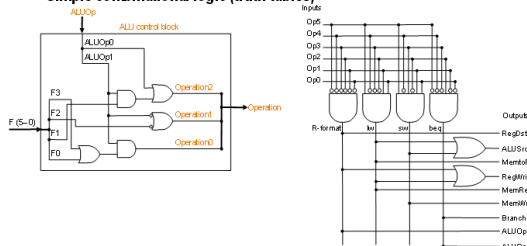
FIGURE 5.13 The truth table for the three ALU control bits (called Operation). The inputs are the ALUOp and function code field. Only the entries for which the ALU control is asserted are shown. Some don't-care entries have been added. For example, the ALUOp does not use the encoding 11, so the truth table contains entries 1X and X1, rather than 10 and 01. Also, when the function field is used, the first two bits (F5 and F4) of these instructions are always 10, so their don't-care terms need not be replaced with X's in the truth table.



Instruction	RegDst	ALUSrc	MemtoReg	RegWrite	MemRead	MemWrite	Branch	ALUOp1	ALUOp0
R-format	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
lw	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
sw	0	1	X	0	0	1	0	0	0
beq	X	0	X	0	0	0	1	0	1

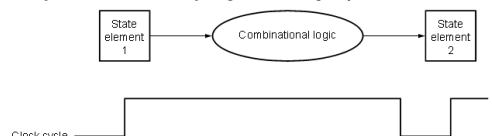
Control

- Simple combinational logic (truth tables)



Our Simple Control Structure

- All of the logic is combinational
- We wait for everything to settle down, and the right thing to be done
 - ALU might not produce “right answer” right away
 - we use write signals along with clock to determine when to write
- Cycle time determined by length of the longest path



We are ignoring some details like setup and hold times

Single Cycle Implementation

- Calculate cycle time assuming negligible delays except:
 - memory (200ps), ALU and adders (100ps), register file access (50ps)

ADD

- 1st instr. (100)
- 1st reg (50)
- = Sum (100)
- Extract reg (50)

400ps

LW ? 600ps

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Where we are headed

- Single Cycle Problems:
 - what if we had a more complicated instruction like floating point?
 - wasteful of area
- One Solution:
 - use a "smaller" cycle time
 - have different instructions take different numbers of cycles
 - a "multicycle" datapath:

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Multicycle Approach

- We will be reusing functional units
 - ALU used to compute address and to increment PC
 - Memory used for instruction and data
- Our control signals will not be determined directly by instruction
 - e.g., what should the ALU do for a "subtract" instruction?
- We'll use a finite state machine for control

base

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Multicycle Approach

- Break up the instructions into steps, each step takes a cycle
 - balance the amount of work to be done
 - restrict each cycle to use only one major functional unit
- At the end of a cycle
 - store values for use in later cycles (easiest thing to do) ✓
 - introduce additional "internal" registers

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Multicycle Approach

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Instructions from ISA perspective

- Consider each instruction from perspective of ISA.
- Example:
 - The add instruction changes a register.
 - Register specified by bits 15:11 of instruction. *rd*
 - Instruction specified by the PC.
 - New value is the sum ("op") of two registers.
 - Registers specified by bits 25:21 and 20:16 of the instruction *rs* *rt*

$$\text{Reg}[\text{Memory}[\text{PC}][15:11]] \leftarrow \text{Reg}[\text{Memory}[\text{PC}][25:21]] \text{ op } \text{Reg}[\text{Memory}[\text{PC}][20:16]]$$

- In order to accomplish this we must break up the instruction. (kind of like introducing variables when programming)

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Breaking down an instruction

- ISA definition of arithmetic:

$\text{Reg}[\text{Memory}[\text{PC}][15:11]] \leftarrow \text{Reg}[\text{Memory}[\text{PC}][25:21]] \text{ op } \text{Reg}[\text{Memory}[\text{PC}][20:16]]$ 4

- Could break down to:

$\text{IR} \leftarrow \text{Memory}[\text{PC}]$
 $\text{A} \leftarrow \text{Reg}[\text{IR}[25:21]]$
 $\text{B} \leftarrow \text{Reg}[\text{IR}[20:16]]$
 $\text{ALUOut} \leftarrow \text{A op B}$
 $\text{Reg}[\text{IR}[15:11]] \leftarrow \text{ALUOut}$

- We forgot an important part of the definition of arithmetic!

$\text{PC} \leftarrow \text{PC} + 4$

Type-R

beg
lw
sw ?

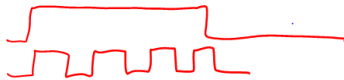
Idea behind multicycle approach

- We define each instruction from the ISA perspective (do this!)
- Break it down into steps following our rule that data flows through at most one major functional unit (e.g., balance work across steps)
- Introduce new registers as needed (e.g. A, B, ALUOut, MDR, etc.)
- Finally try and pack as much work into each step (avoid unnecessary cycles) while also trying to share steps where possible (minimizes control, helps to simplify solution)
- Result: Our book's multicycle implementation!

Five Execution Steps

- Instruction Fetch *let a instr.*
- Instruction Decode and Register Fetch
- Execution, Memory Address Computation, or Branch Completion
- Memory Access or R-type instruction completion
- Write-back step *→ lw*

INSTRUCTIONS TAKE FROM 3 - 5 CYCLES!



Step 1: Instruction Fetch

- Use PC to get instruction and put it in the Instruction Register.
- Increment the PC by 4 and put the result back in the PC.
- Can be described succinctly using RTL "Register-Transfer Language"

$\text{IR} \leftarrow \text{Memory}[\text{PC}];$
 $\text{PC} \leftarrow \text{PC} + 4;$

Can we figure out the values of the control signals?

What is the advantage of updating the PC now?

Step 2: Instruction Decode and Register Fetch

- Read registers *rs* and *rt* in case we need them
- Compute the branch address in case the instruction is a branch
- RTL:

$\text{A} \leftarrow \text{Reg}[\text{IR}[25:21]];$
 $\text{B} \leftarrow \text{Reg}[\text{IR}[20:16]];$
 $\text{ALUOut} \leftarrow \text{PC} + (\text{sign-extend}(\text{IR}[15:0]) \ll 2);$

- We aren't setting any control lines based on the instruction type (we are busy "decoding" it in our control logic)

Step 3 (instruction dependent)

- ALU is performing one of three functions, based on instruction type
- Memory Reference:

$\text{ALUOut} \leftarrow \text{A} + \text{sign-extend}(\text{IR}[15:0]);$ *end*

- R-type:

$\text{ALUOut} \leftarrow \text{A op B};$

- Branch:

$\text{if } (\text{A}=\text{B}) \text{ PC} \leftarrow \text{ALUOut};$ *→ alu do beg*

Step 4 (R-type or memory-access)

- Loads and stores access memory

MDR \leftarrow Memory [ALUOut]; *lw*
 or
 Memory [ALUOut] \leftarrow B; *sw* *final*

- R-type instructions finish

Reg[IR[15:11]] \leftarrow ALUOut; *add, sub, sll, and*

The write actually takes place at the end of the cycle on the edge

Write-back step

- Reg[IR[20:16]] \leftarrow MDR; *lw*

Which instruction needs this?

Summary:

Step name	Action for R-type instructions	Action for memory-reference instructions	Action for branches	Action for jumps
Instruction fetch				
Instruction decode/register fetch				
Execution, address computation, branch/jump condition				
Memory access or R-type computation				
Memory read completion				

FIGURE 5.30 Summary of the steps taken to execute any instruction class. Instruction take from three to five execution steps. The first two steps are independent of the instruction class. After these steps, an instruction takes from one to three more cycles to complete, depending on the instruction class. The empty entries for the Memory access step or the Memory read completion step indicate that the particular instruction class takes fewer cycles. In a multicycle implementation, a new instruction will be started as soon as the current instruction completes, so these cycles are not idly wasted. As mentioned earlier, the register file actually reads every cycle, but as long as the IR does not change, the values read from the register file are identical. In particular, the value read into register B during the Instruction decode stage, for a branch or R-type instruction, is the same as the value stored into B during the Execution stage and then used in the Memory access stage for a store word instruction.

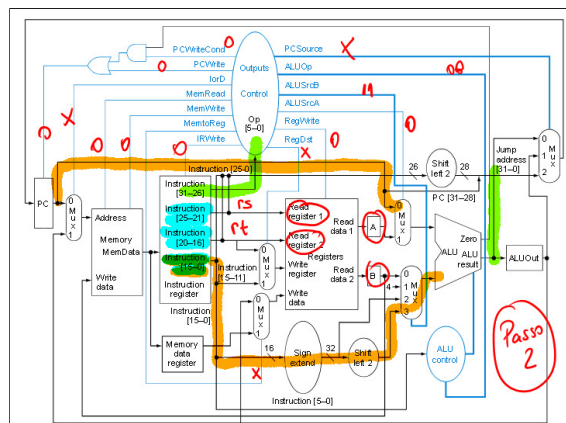
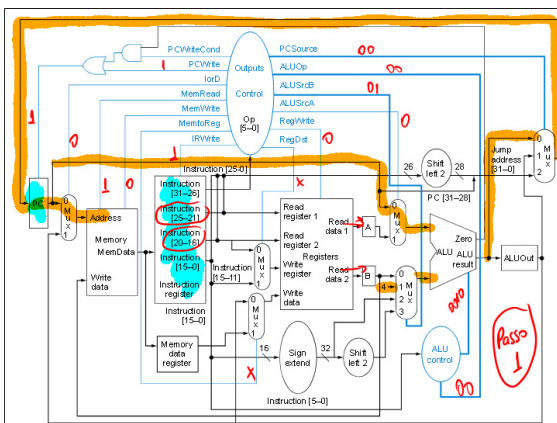
Simple Questions

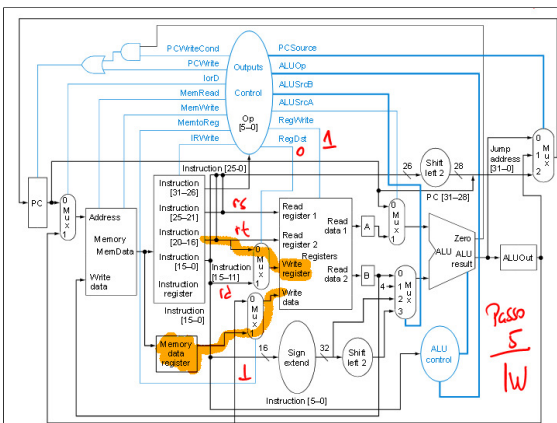
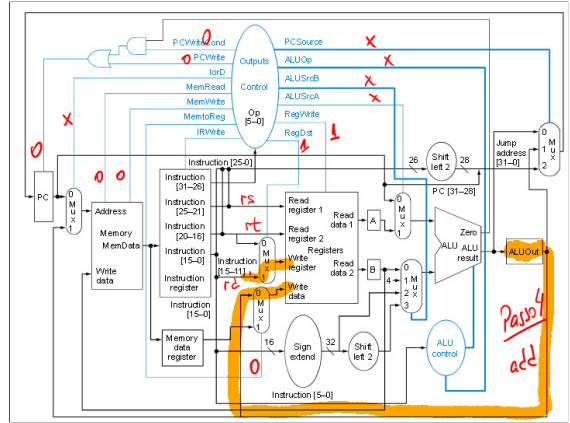
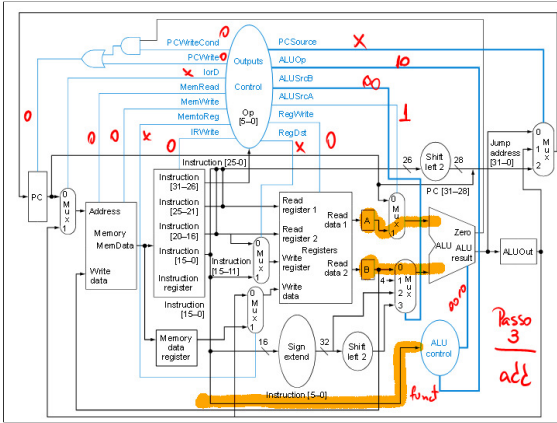
- How many cycles will it take to execute this code?

```

5 lw $t2, 0($t3)
5 lw $t3, 4($t3)
3 beq $t2, $t3, Label #assume not
4 add $t5, $t2, $t3
4 sw $t5, 8($t3)
Label: 21 ...
    
```

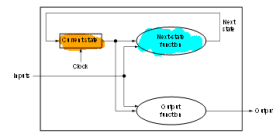
- What is going on during the 8th cycle of execution? *→ Calculo do end. 2: lw*
- In what cycle does the actual addition of \$t2 and \$t3 takes place? *→ 16*





Review: finite state machines

- Finite state machines:
 - a set of states and
 - next state function (determined by current state and the input)
 - output function (determined by current state and possibly input)



- We'll use a Moore machine (output based only on current state)

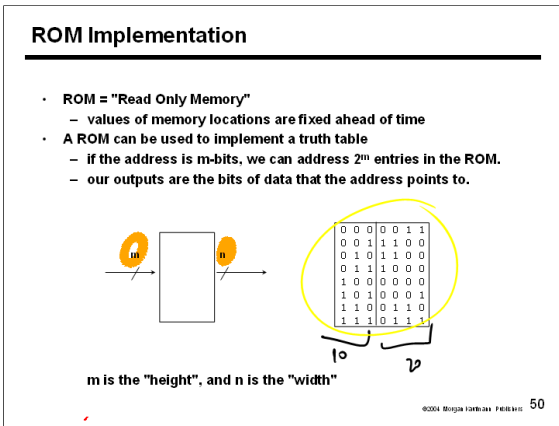
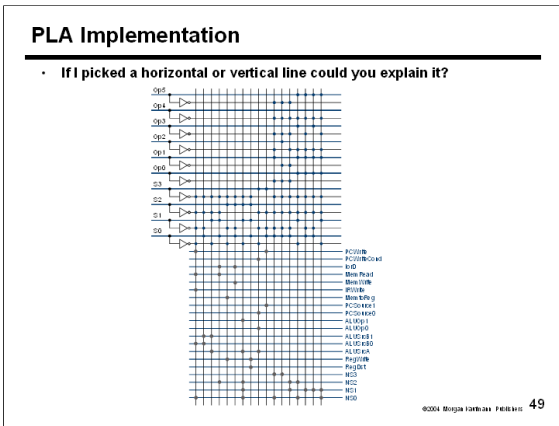
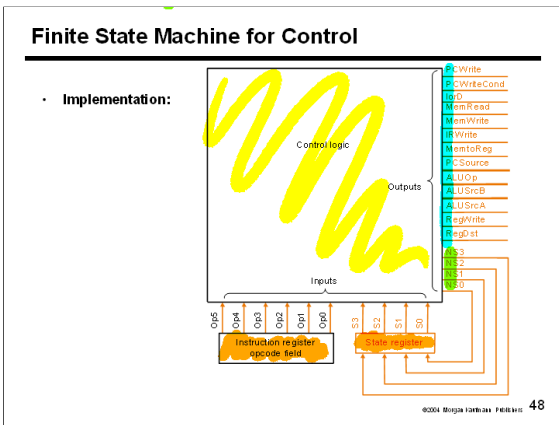
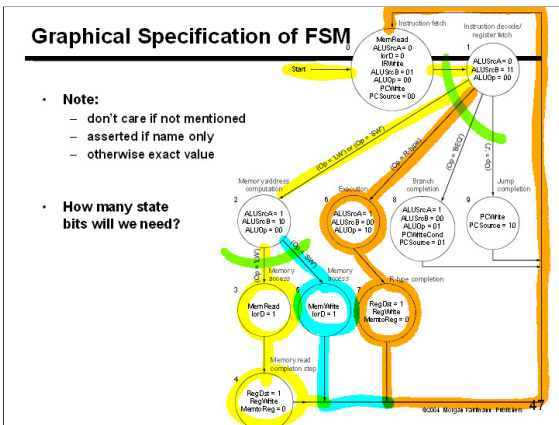
Review: finite state machines

• Example:

B. 37 A friend would like you to build an "electronic eye" for use as a fake security device. The device consists of three lights lined up in a row, controlled by the outputs Left, Middle, and Right, which, if asserted, indicate that a light should be on. Only one light is on at a time, and the light "moves" from left to right and then from right to left, thus scaring away thieves who believe that the device is monitoring their activity. Draw the graphical representation for the finite state machine used to specify the electronic eye. Note that the rate of the eye's movement will be controlled by the clock speed (which should not be too great) and that there are essentially no inputs.

Implementing the Control

- Value of control signals is dependent upon:
 - what instruction is being executed
 - which step is being performed
- Use the information we've accumulated to specify a finite state machine
 - specify the finite state machine graphically, or
 - use microprogramming
- Implementation can be derived from specification



ROM Implementation

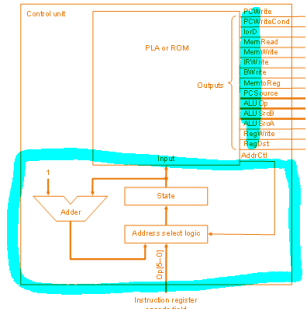
- How many inputs are there?**
6 bits for opcode, 4 bits for state = 10 address lines (i.e., $2^{10} = 1024$ different addresses)
- How many outputs are there?**
16 datapath-control outputs, 4 state bits = 20 outputs
- ROM is $2^{10} \times 20 = 20K$ bits (and a rather unusual size)
- Rather wasteful, since for lots of the entries, the outputs are the same
 - i.e., opcode is often ignored

ROM vs PLA

- Break up the table into two parts**
 - 4 state bits tell you the 16 outputs, $2^4 \times 16$ bits of ROM
 - 10 bits tell you the 4 next state bits, $2^{10} \times 4$ bits of ROM
 - Total: 4.3K bits of ROM
- PLA is much smaller**
 - can share product terms
 - only need entries that produce an active output
 - can take into account don't cares
- Size is (#inputs × #product-terms) + (#outputs × #product-terms)**
For this example = $(10 \times 17) + (20 \times 17) = 510$ PLA cells
- PLA cells usually about the size of a ROM cell (slightly bigger)

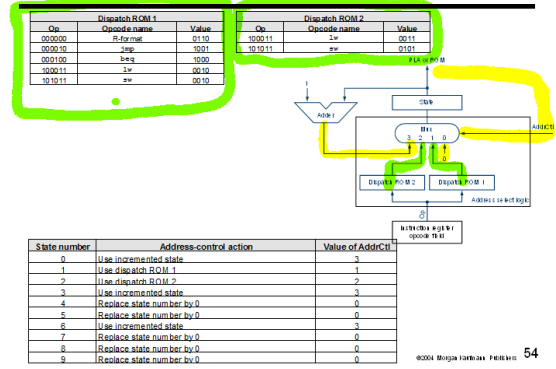
Another Implementation Style

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



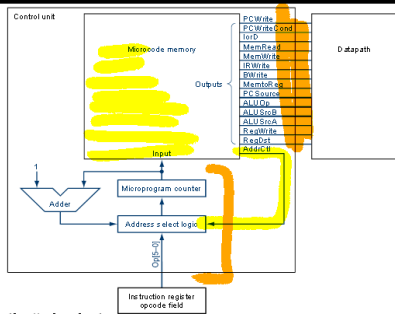
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Details



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Microprogramming



- What are the "microinstructions" ?

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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	4	Extshft			Dispatch h 1
Mem1	Add	A	Extend		Read ALU		Dispatch h 2
LW2							Seq
					Write MDR		Fetch
SW2					Write ALU		Seq
Rformat1	Func code	A	B				Fetch
BEQ1	Subt	A	B	Write ALU		ALUOut-cond	Fetch
JUMP1						Jump address	Fetch

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

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Microinstruction format

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.
SRC1	Func code	ALUSrcA = 10	Use the instruction's function code to determine ALU control.
	PC	ALUSrcA = 0	Use the PC as the first ALU input.
SRC2	A	ALUSrcA = 1	Register A is the first ALU input.
	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.
Extnt	ALUSrcB = 11		Use the output of the instruction unit as the second ALU input.
Register control	Read	RegWrA = 1, MemRstA = 0	Read two registers using the r3 and r4 fields of the IR as the register numbers, and putting the data into registers A and B.
	Write ALU	RegWrA = 1, MemRstA = 0	Write a register using the r4 field of the IR as the register number and the contents of the ALUOut as the data.
Memory	Write MDR	RegWrA = 1, MemRstA = 1	Write a register using the r4 field of the IR as the register number and the contents of the MDR as the data.
	Read PC	MemRead, ALUOp = 1	Read memory using the PC as address; write result into IR (and RALUOut).
PC write control	Read ALU	MemRead, ALUOp = 1	Read memory using the ALUOut as address; write result into MDR.
	Write ALU	MemWrite, ALUOp = 1	Write memory using the ALUOut as address; contents of B as the data.
	ALU	PCSource = 00	Write the output of the ALU into the PC.
	ALUOut-cond	PCSource = 01	If the Zero output of the ALU is active, write the PC with the contents of the register ALUOut.
	Jump address	PCSource = 10	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.

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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 or 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

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Chapter 5 Summary

- If we understand the instructions...
We can build a simple processor!
- If instructions take different amounts of time, **multi-cycle is better**
- Datapath implemented using:
 - Combinational logic for arithmetic
 - State holding elements to remember bits
- Control implemented using:
 - Combinational logic for single-cycle implementation
 - Finite state machine for multi-cycle implementation