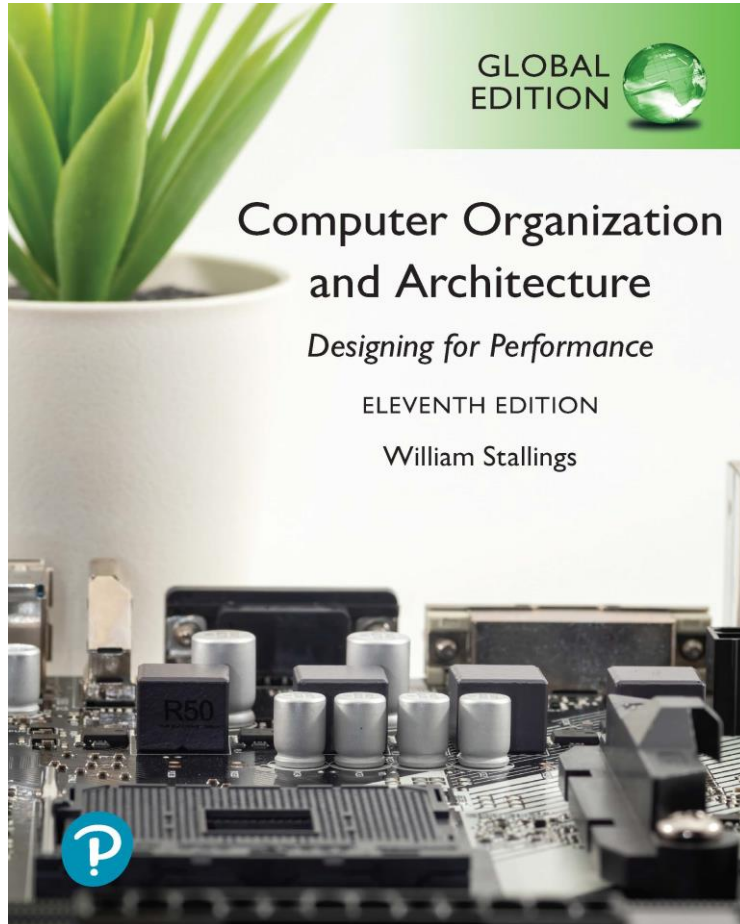


# Computer Organization and Architecture

## Designing for Performance

11<sup>th</sup> Edition, Global Edition



## Chapter 19

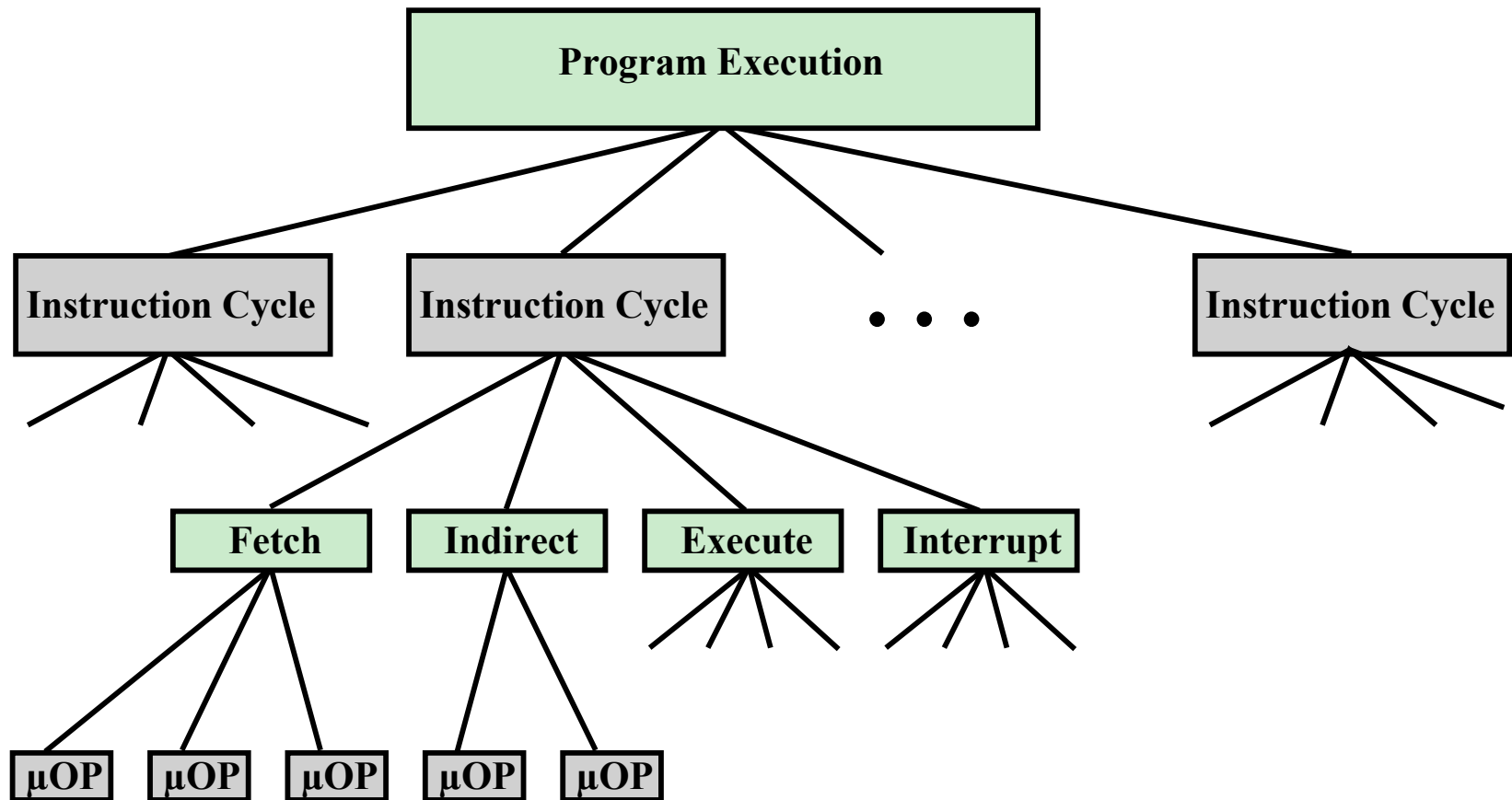
### Control Unit Operation and Microprogrammed Control

# Micro-Operations

- The functional, or atomic, operations of a processor
- Series of steps, each of which involves the processor registers
- *Micro* refers to the fact that each step is very simple and accomplishes very little
- The execution of a program consists of the sequential execution of instructions
  - Each instruction is executed during an instruction cycle made up of shorter subcycles (fetch, indirect, execute, interrupt)
  - The execution of each subcycle involves one or more shorter operations (micro-operations)

# Figure 19.1

## Constituent Elements of a Program Execution



# The Fetch Cycle

- Occurs at the beginning of each instruction cycle and causes an instruction to be fetched from memory
- Four registers are involved:
  - Memory Address Register (MAR)
    - Connected to address bus
    - Specifies address for read or write operation
  - Memory Buffer Register (MBR)
    - Connected to data bus
    - Holds data to write or last data read
  - Program Counter (PC)
    - Holds address of next instruction to be fetched
  - Instruction Register (IR)
    - Holds last instruction fetched

# Figure 19.2

## Sequence of Events, Fetch Cycle

tMAR	
MBR	
PC	0000000001100100
IR	
AC	

(a) Beginning (before  $t_1$ )

MAR	0000000001100100
MBR	
PC	0000000001100100
IR	
AC	

(b) After first step

MAR	0000000001100100
MBR	0001000000100000
PC	0000000001100101
IR	
AC	

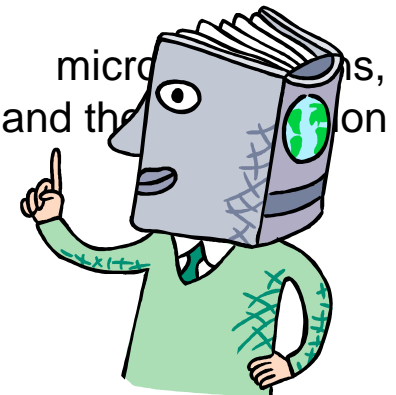
(c) After second step

MAR	0000000001100100
MBR	0001000000100000
PC	0000000001100101
IR	0001000000100000
AC	

(d) After third Step

# Rules for Micro-Operations Grouping

- Proper sequence must be followed
  - MAR  $\leftarrow$  (PC) must precede MBR  $\leftarrow$  (memory)
- Conflicts must be avoided
  - Must not read and write same register at same time
  - MBR  $\leftarrow$  (memory) and IR  $\leftarrow$  (MBR) must not be in same cycle
- One of the micro-operations involves an addition
  - To avoid duplication of circuitry, this addition could be performed by the ALU
  - The use of the ALU may involve additional micro-operations, depending on the functionality of the processor of the ALU and the function



# Indirect Cycle

- Once an instruction is fetched, the next step is to fetch source operands
- Assuming a one-address instruction format, with direct and indirect addressing allowed:
  - If the instruction specifies an indirect address, then an indirect cycle must precede the execute cycle
  - The address field of the instruction is transferred to the MAR
  - This is then used to fetch the address of the operand
  - Finally, the address field of the IR is updated from the MBR, so that it now contains a direct rather than an indirect address
  - The IR is now in the same state as if indirect addressing had not been used, and it is ready for the execute cycle

# Interrupt Cycle

- At the completion of the execute cycle, a test is made to determine whether any enabled interrupts have occurred, and if so, the interrupt cycle occurs
- The nature of this cycle varies greatly from one machine to another
- In a simple sequence of events:
  - In the first step the contents of the PC are transferred to the MBR so that they can be saved for return from the interrupt
  - Then the MAR is loaded with the address at which the contents of the PC are to be saved, and the PC is loaded with the address of the start of the interrupt-processing routine
    - These two actions may each be a single micro-operation
    - Because most processors provide multiple types and/or levels of interrupts, it may take one or more additional micro-operations to obtain the Save\_Address and the Routine\_Address before they can be transferred to the MAR and PC respectively
  - Once this is done, the final step is to store the MBR, which contains the old value of the PC, into memory
  - The processor is now ready to begin the next instruction cycle

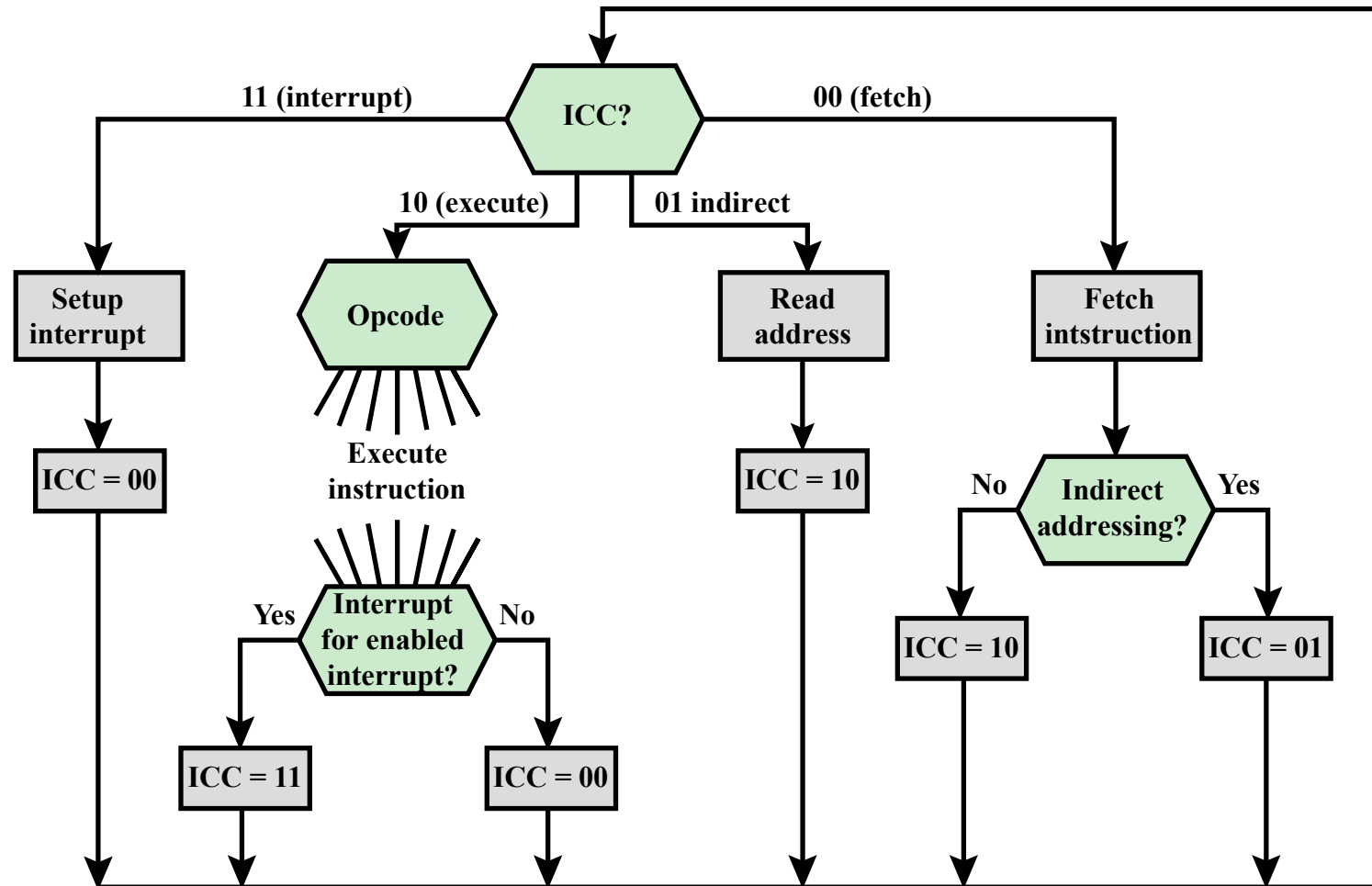


# Execute Cycle

- Because of the variety of opcodes, there are a number of different sequences of micro-operations that can occur
- Instruction decoding
  - The control unit examines the opcode and generates a sequence of micro-operations based on the value of the opcode
- A simplified add instruction:
  - ADD R1, X (which adds the contents of the location X to register R1)
    - In the first step the address portion of the IR is loaded into the MAR
    - Then the referenced memory location is read
    - Finally the contents of R1 and MBR are added by the ALU
    - Additional micro-operations may be required to extract the register reference from the IR and perhaps to stage the ALU inputs or outputs in some intermediate registers

# Figure 19.3

## Flowchart for Instruction Cycle



# Control Unit

## Functional Requirements

- By reducing the operation of the processor to its most fundamental level we are able to define exactly what it is that the control unit must cause to happen
- Three step process to lead to a characterization of the control unit:
  - Define basic elements of processor
  - Describe micro-operations processor performs
  - Determine the functions that the control unit must perform to cause the micro-operations to be performed
- The control unit performs two basic tasks:
  - Sequencing
  - Execution

## Basic elements

We have already performed steps 1 and 2. Let us summarize the results. First, the basic functional elements of the processor are the following:

- ALU
- Registers
- Internal data paths
- External data paths
- Control unit

## Micro-operations and control unit

The execution of a program consists of operations involving these processor elements. As we have seen, these operations consist of a sequence of micro-operations. Upon review of Section 20.1, the reader should see that **all micro-operations** fall into one of the following categories:

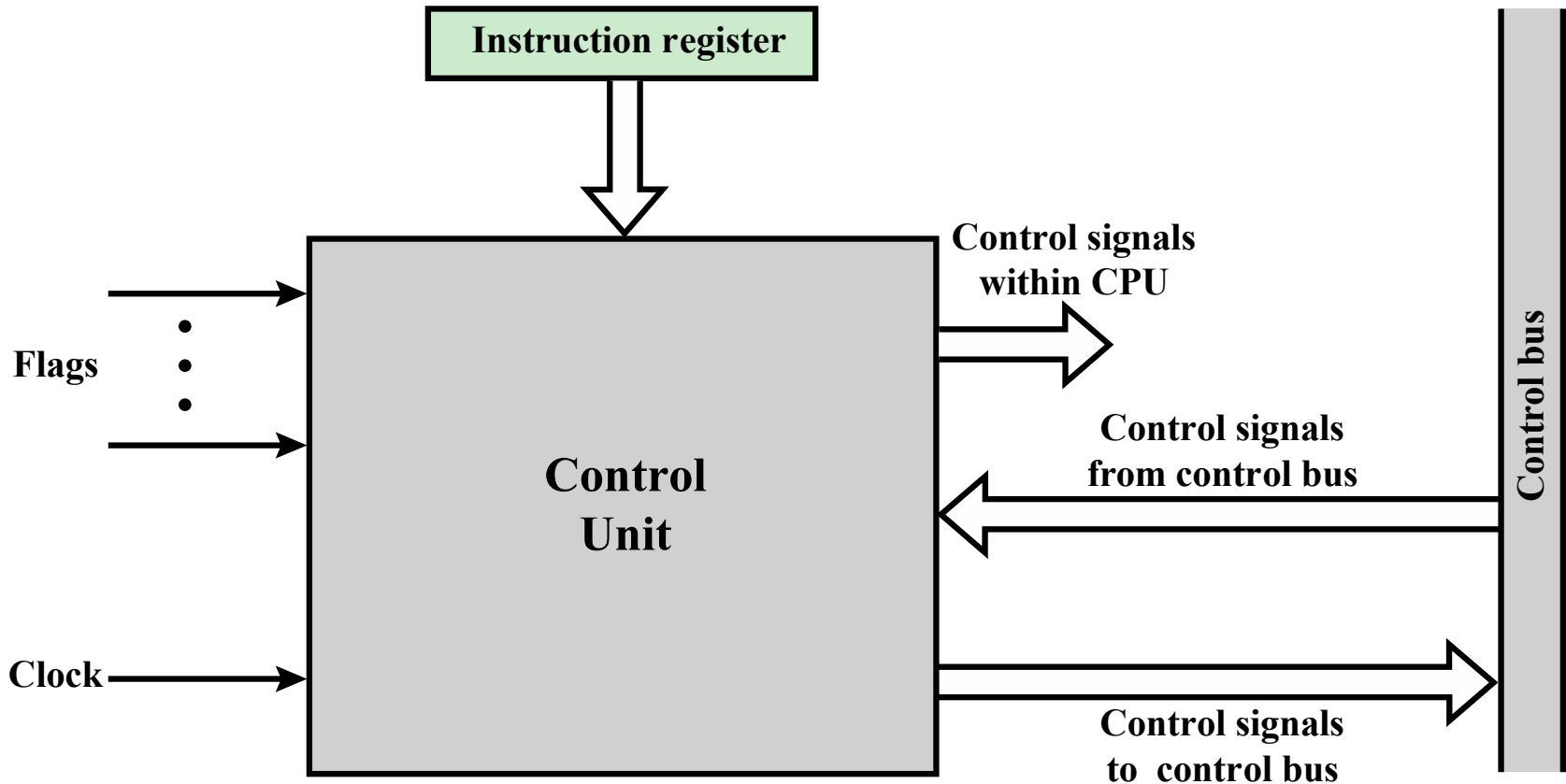
- Transfer data from one register to another.
- Transfer data from a register to an external interface (e.g., system bus).
- Transfer data from an external interface to a register.
- Perform an arithmetic or logic operation, using registers for input and output.

We can now be somewhat more explicit about the way in which the control unit functions. **The control unit performs two basic tasks:**

- **Sequencing:** The control unit causes the processor to step through a series of micro-operations in the proper sequence, based on the program being executed.
- **Execution:** The control unit causes each micro-operation to be performed.

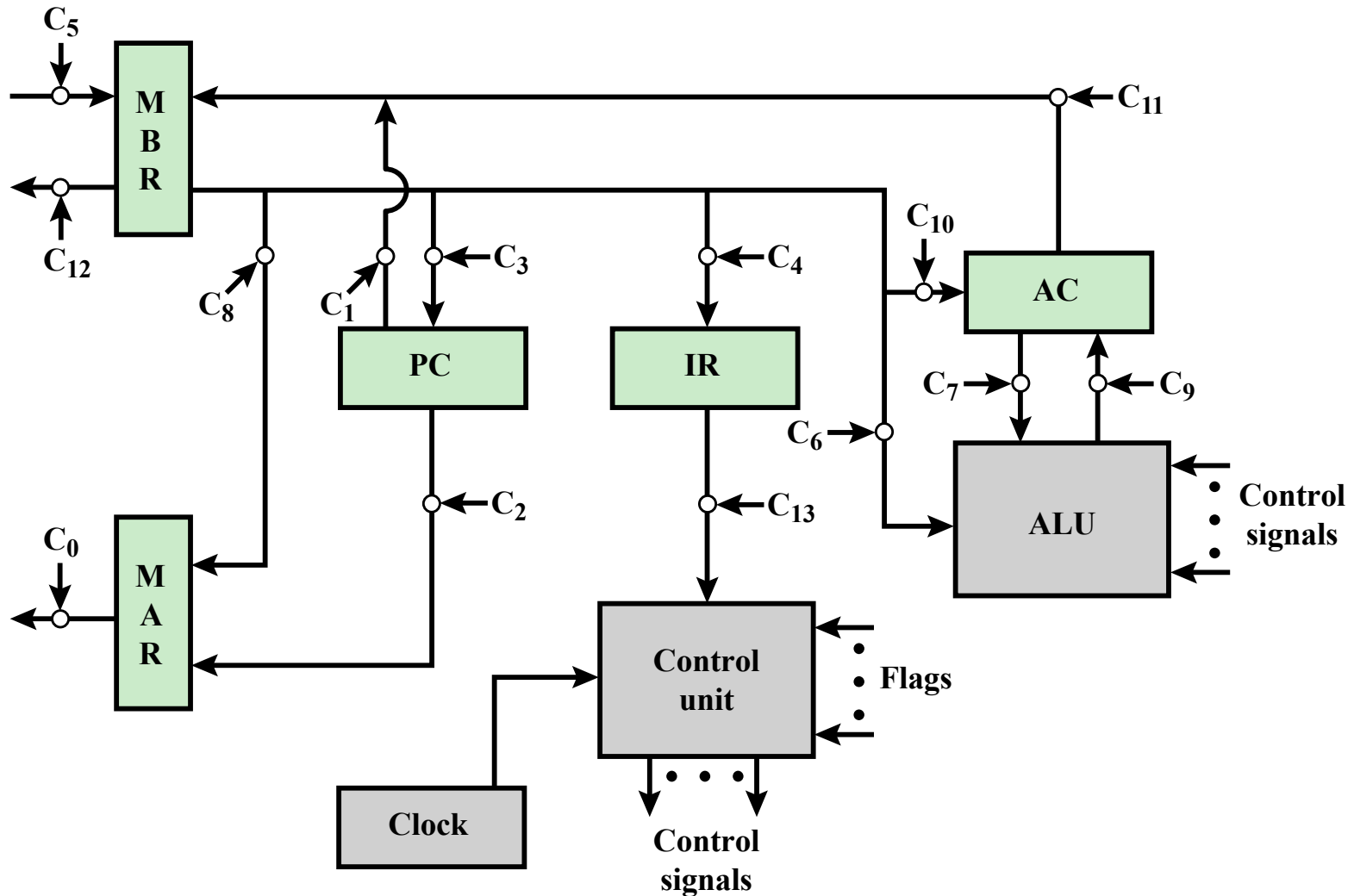
# Figure 19.4

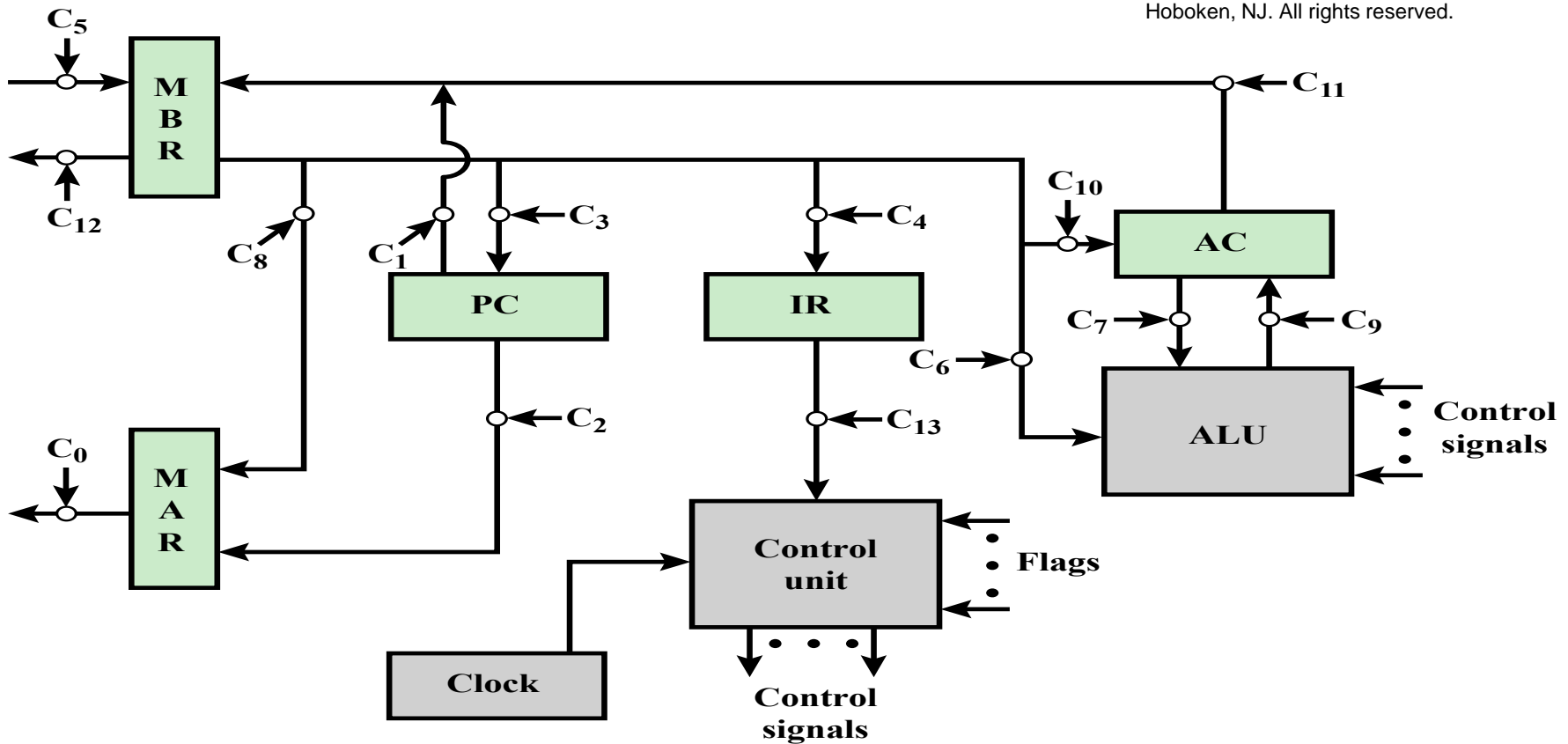
## Block Diagram of the Control Unit



# Figure 19.5

## Data Paths and Control Signals

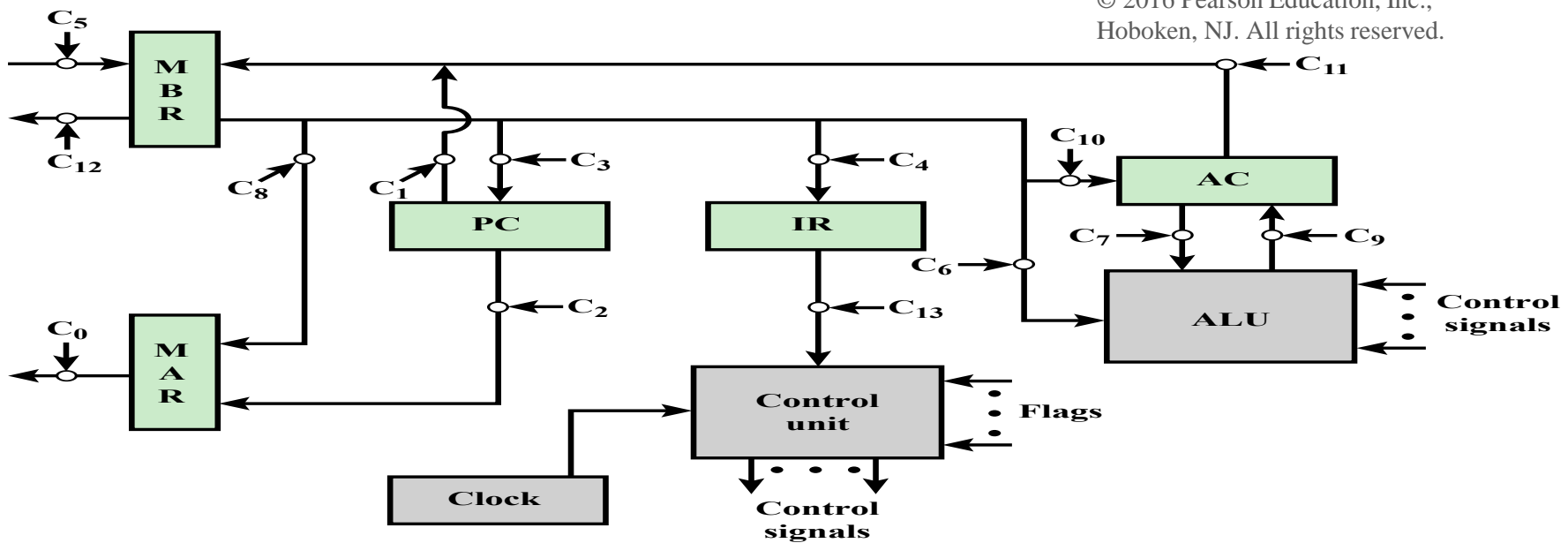




**Figure 20.5 Data Paths and Control Signals**

To illustrate the functioning of the control unit, let us examine a simple example. Figure 20.5 illustrates the example. This is a simple processor with a single accumulator (AC). The data paths between elements are indicated. The control paths for signals emanating from the control unit are not shown, but the terminations of control signals are labeled C<sub>i</sub> and indicated by a circle





**Figure 20.5 Data Paths and Control Signals**

With each clock cycle, the control unit reads all of its inputs and emits a set of control signals. Control signals go to three separate destinations:

- **Data paths:** The control unit controls the internal flow of data. For example, on instruction fetch, the contents of the memory buffer register are transferred to the IR. For each path to be controlled, there is a switch (indicated by a circle in the figure). A control signal from the control unit temporarily opens the gate to let data pass.
- **ALU:** The control unit controls the operation of the ALU by a set of control signals. These signals activate various logic circuits and gates within the ALU.
- **System bus:** The control unit sends control signals out onto the control lines of the system bus (e.g., memory READ).

# Table 19.1

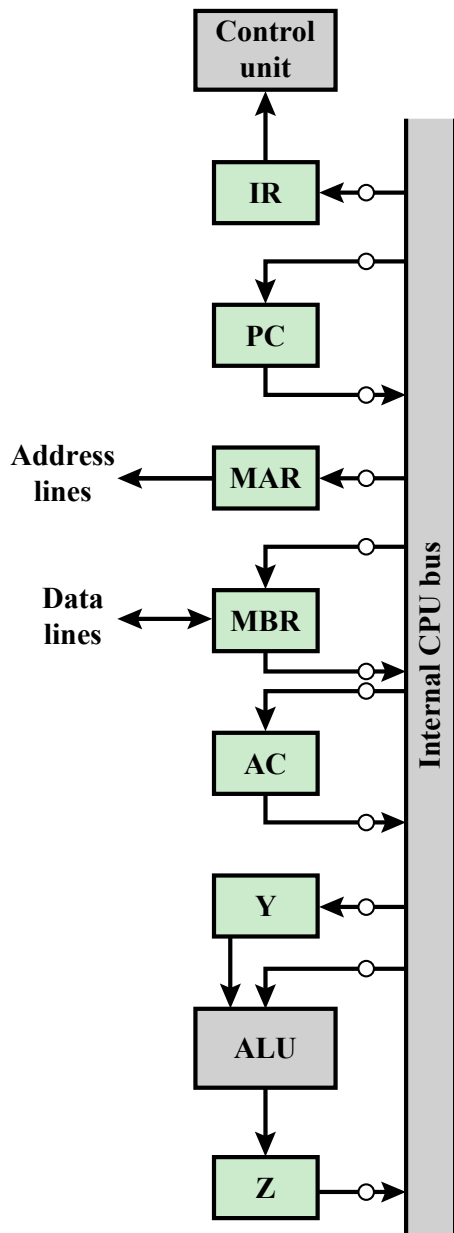
## Micro-operations and Control Signals

	Micro-operations	Active Control Signals
<b>Fetch:</b>	$t_1: \text{MAR} \leftarrow (\text{PC})$	$C_2$
	$t_2: \text{MBR} \leftarrow \text{Memory}$ $\text{PC} \leftarrow (\text{PC}) + 1$	$C_5, C_R$
	$t_3: \text{IR} \leftarrow (\text{MBR})$	$C_4$
<b>Indirect:</b>	$t_1: \text{MAR} \leftarrow (\text{IR}(\text{Address}))$	$C_8$
	$t_2: \text{MBR} \leftarrow \text{Memory}$	$C_5, C_R$
	$t_3: \text{IR}(\text{Address}) \leftarrow (\text{MBR}(\text{Address}))$	$C_4$
<b>Interrupt:</b>	$t_1: \text{MBR} \leftarrow (\text{PC})$	$C_1$
	$t_2: \text{MAR} \leftarrow \text{Save-address}$ $\text{PC} \leftarrow \text{Routine-address}$	
	$t_3: \text{Memory} \leftarrow (\text{MBR})$	$C_{12}, C_W$

$C_R$  = Read control signal to system bus.

(Table can be found on page 681 in the textbook.)

$C_W$  = Write control signal to system bus.

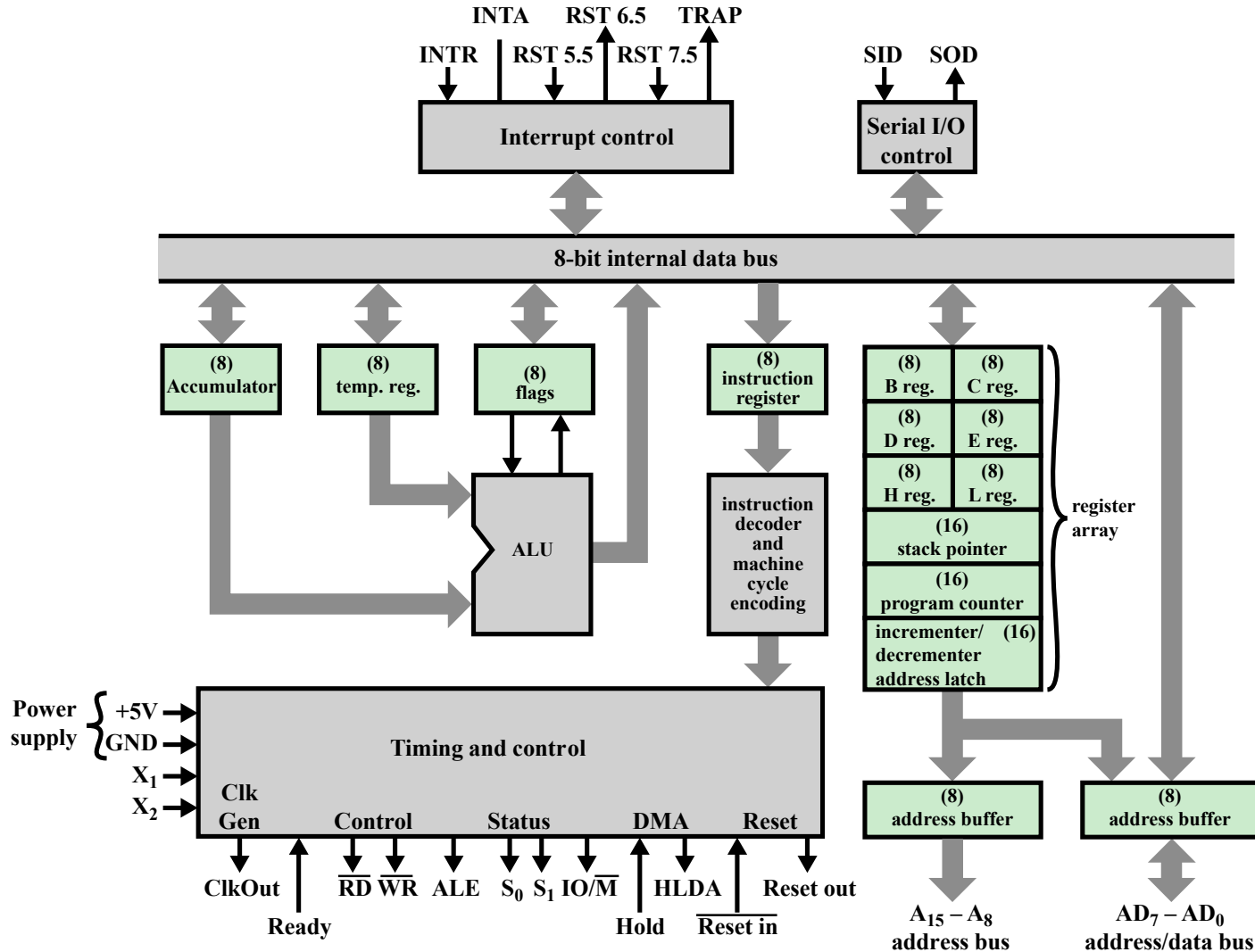


Using an internal processor bus, Figure 20.5 can be rearranged as shown in Figure 20.6. A single internal bus connects the ALU and all processor registers. Gates and control signals are provided for movement of data onto and off the bus from each register. Additional control signals control data transfer to and from the system (external) bus and the operation of the ALU.

Two new registers, labeled Y and Z, have been added to the organization. These are needed for the proper operation of the ALU. When an operation involving two operands is performed, one can be obtained from the internal bus, but the other must be obtained from another source. The AC could be used for this purpose, but this limits the flexibility of the system and would not work with a processor with multiple general-purpose registers. Register Y provides temporary storage for the other input. The ALU is a combinatorial circuit (see Chapter 11) with no internal storage. Thus, when control signals activate an ALU function, the input to the ALU is transformed to the output. Therefore, the output of the ALU cannot be directly connected to the bus, because this output would feed back to the input. Register Z provides temporary output storage.

# Figure 19.7

## Intel 8085 CPU Block Diagram



## *Address and Data Signals*

### **High Address (A15–A8)**

The high-order 8 bits of a 16-bit address.

### **Address/Data (AD7–AD0)**

The lower-order 8 bits of a 16-bit address or 8 bits of data. This multiplexing saves on pins.

### **Serial Input Data (SID)**

A single-bit input to accommodate devices that transmit serially (one bit at a time).

### **Serial Output Data (SOD)**

A single-bit output to accommodate devices that receive serially.

## *Timing and Control Signals*

### **CLK (OUT)**

The system clock. The CLK signal goes to peripheral chips and synchronizes their timing.

### **X1, X2**

These signals come from an external crystal or other device to drive the internal clock generator.

### **Address Latch Enabled (ALE)**

Occurs during the first clock state of a machine cycle and causes peripheral chips to store the address lines.

This allows the address module (e.g., memory, I/O) to recognize that it is being addressed.

### **Status (S0, S1)**

Control signals used to indicate whether a read or write operation is taking place.

### **IO/M**

Used to enable either I/O or memory modules for read and write operations.

### **Read Control (RD)**

Indicates that the selected memory or I/O module is to be read and that the data bus is available for data transfer.

### **Write Control (WR)**

Indicates that data on the data bus is to be written into the selected memory or I/O location.

# Table 19.2 Intel 8085 External Signals (page 1 of 2)

### *Memory and I/O Initiated Symbols*

#### **Hold**

Requests the CPU to relinquish control and use of the external system bus. The CPU will complete execution of the instruction presently in the IR and then enter a hold state, during which no signals are inserted by the CPU to the control, address, or data buses. During the hold state, the bus may be used for DMA operations.

#### **Hold Acknowledge (HOLDA)**

This control unit output signal acknowledges the HOLD signal and indicates that the bus is now available.

#### **READY**

Used to synchronize the CPU with slower memory or I/O devices. When an addressed device asserts READY, the CPU may proceed with an input (DBIN) or output (WR) operation. Otherwise, the CPU enters a wait state until the device is ready.

### *Interrupt-Related Signals*

#### **TRAP**

Restart Interrupts (RST 7.5, 6.5, 5.5)

#### **Interrupt Request (INTR)**

These five lines are used by an external device to interrupt the CPU. The CPU will not honor the request if it is in the hold state or if the interrupt is disabled. An interrupt is honored only at the completion of an instruction. The interrupts are in descending order of priority.

#### **Interrupt Acknowledge**

Acknowledges an interrupt.

### *CPU Initialization*

#### **RESET IN**

Causes the contents of the PC to be set to zero. The CPU resumes execution at location zero.

#### **RESET OUT**

Acknowledges that the CPU has been reset. The signal can be used to reset the rest of the system.

### *Voltage and Ground*

#### **VCC**

+5-volt power supply

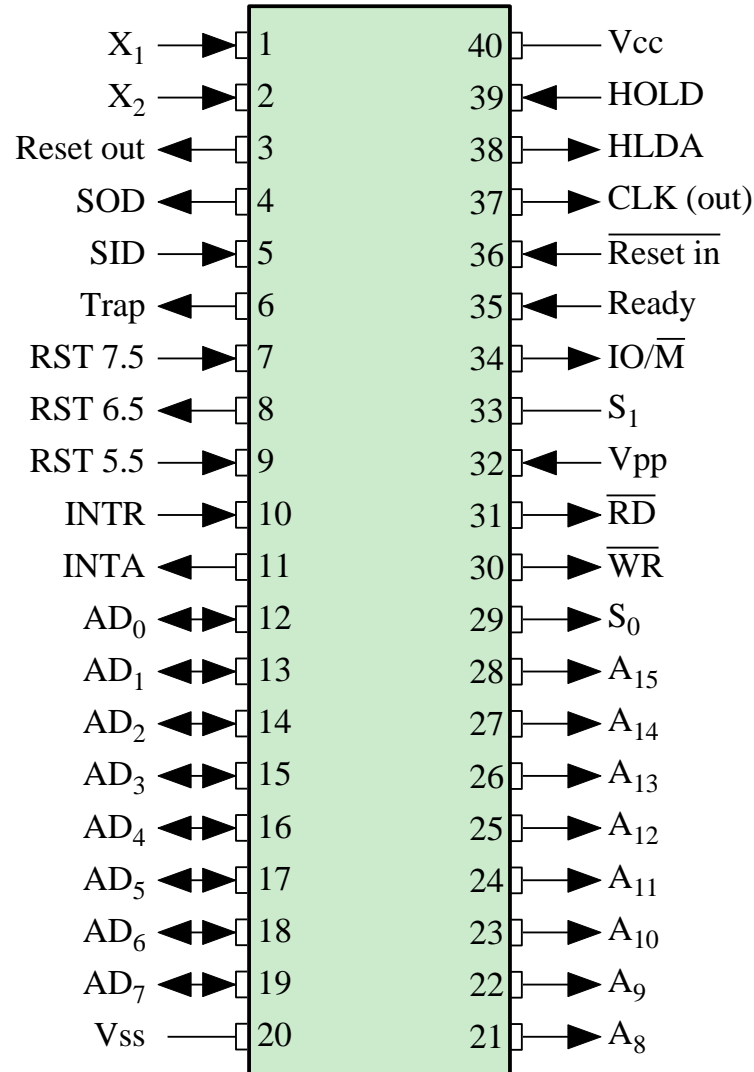
#### **VSS**

Electrical ground

## Table 19.2 Intel 8085 External Signals (page 2 of 2)

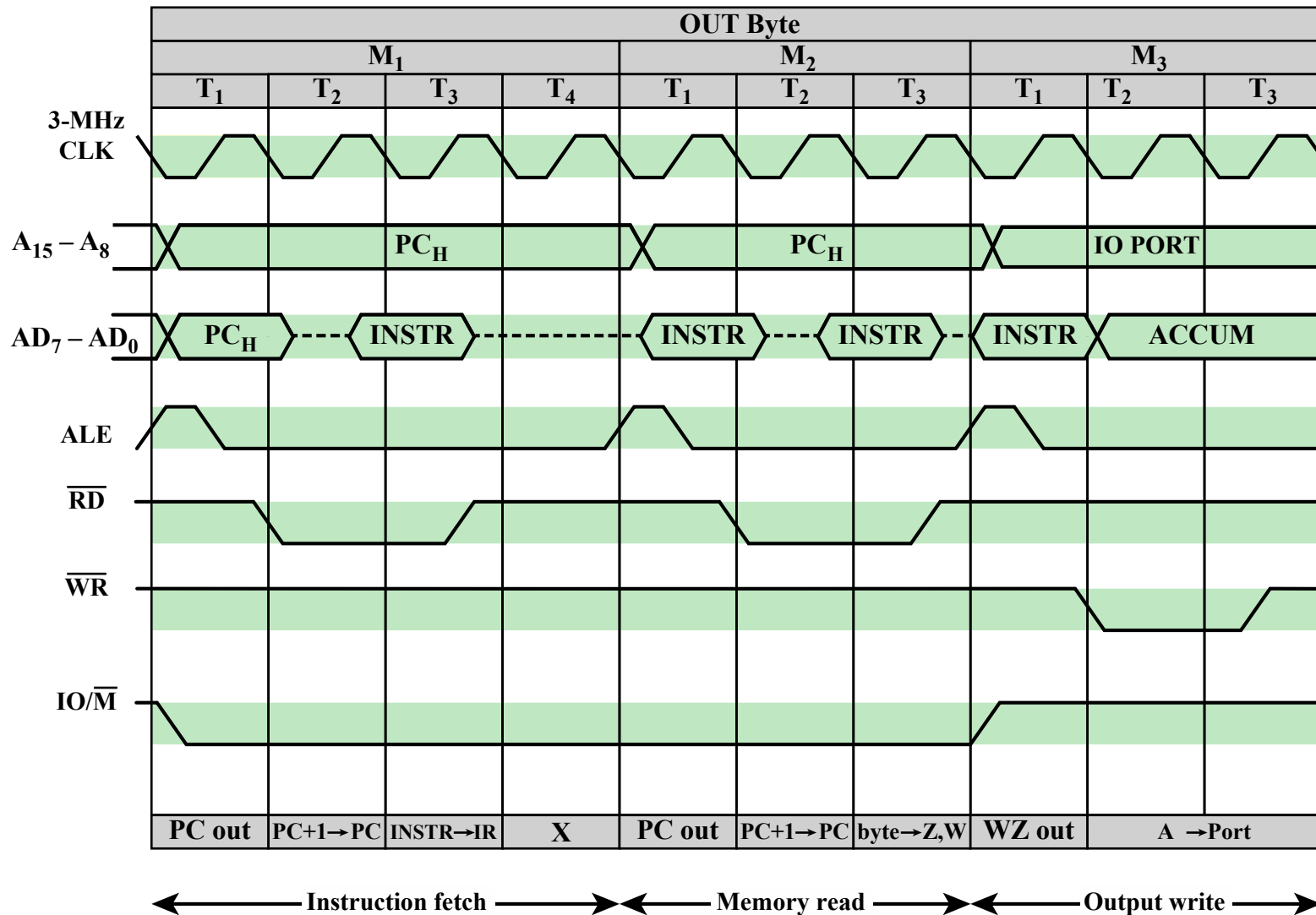
# Figure 19.8

## Intel 8085 Pin Configuration



# Figure 19.9

## Timing Diagram for Intel 8085 OUT Instruction





# Control Unit Implementation

- A wide variety of techniques have been used for control unit implementation
- Most of these fall into two categories:
  - Hardwired implementation
    - The control unit is essentially a state machine circuit
    - Its input logic signals are transformed into a set of output logic signals, which are the control signals
  - Microprogrammed implementation

I1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
I2	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
I3	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
I4	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
O1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
O2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
O3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
O4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
O5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
O6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
O7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
O8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
O9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
O10	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
O11	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
O12	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
O13	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
O14	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
O15	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
O16	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

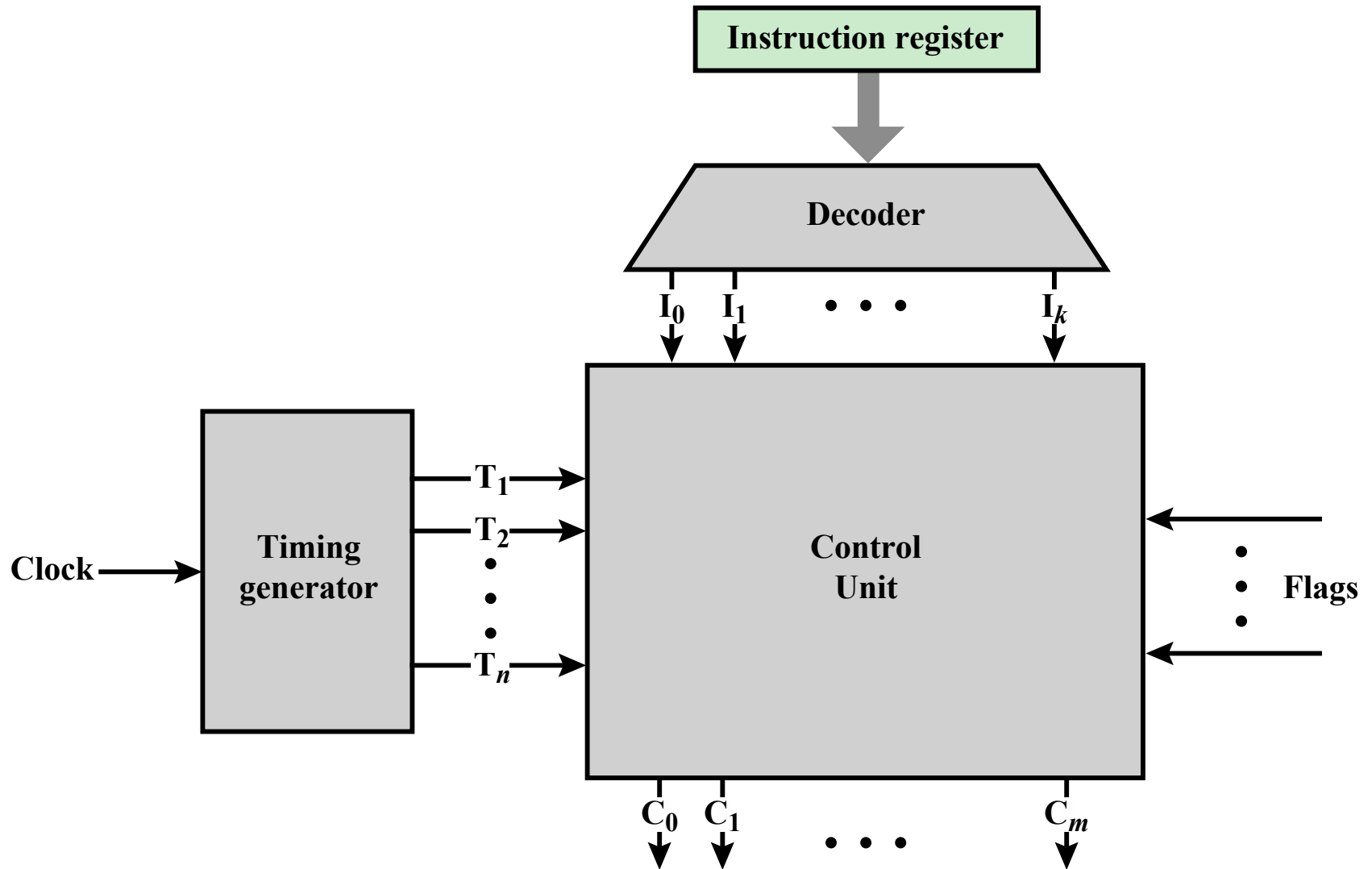
**Table 19.3**

**A  
Decoder  
With  
4 Inputs  
and 16  
Outputs**

(Table can be found on page 687 in the textbook.)

# Figure 19.10

## Control Unit with Decoded Inputs



# Microprogrammed Control

- The term *microprogrammed* was first coined by M.V. Wilkes in the early 1950's
- Wilkes proposed an approach to control unit design that was organized and systematic and avoided the complexities of a hardwired implementation
- The idea intrigued many researchers but appeared unworkable because it would require a fast, relatively inexpensive control memory
- In April of 1964 IBM's System/360 was announced and all but the largest models were microprogrammed
- Microprogramming became a popular technique for implementing the control unit of CISC processors
- In recent years, microprogramming has become less used but remains a tool available to computer designers

# Table 19.4

## Machine Instruction Set for Wilkes Example

Order	Effect of Order
$A n$	$C(Acc) + C(n)$ to $Acc_1$
$S n$	$C(Acc) - C(n)$ to $Acc_1$
$H n$	$C(n)$ to $Acc_2$
$V n$	$C(Acc_2) \times C(n)$ to $Acc$ , where $C(n) \geq 0$
$T n$	$C(Acc_1)$ to $n$ , 0 to $Acc$
$U n$	$C(Acc_1)$ to $n$
$R n$	$C(Acc) \times 2^{(n+1)}$ to $Acc$
$L n$	$C(Acc) \times 2^{n+1}$ to $Acc$
$G n$	IF $C(Acc) < 0$ , transfer control to $n$ ; if $C(Acc) \geq 0$ , ignore (i.e., proceed serially)
$I n$	Read next character on input mechanism into $n$
$O n$	Send $C(n)$ to output mechanism

*Notation:*  $Acc$  = accumulator

$Acc_1$  = most significant half of accumulator

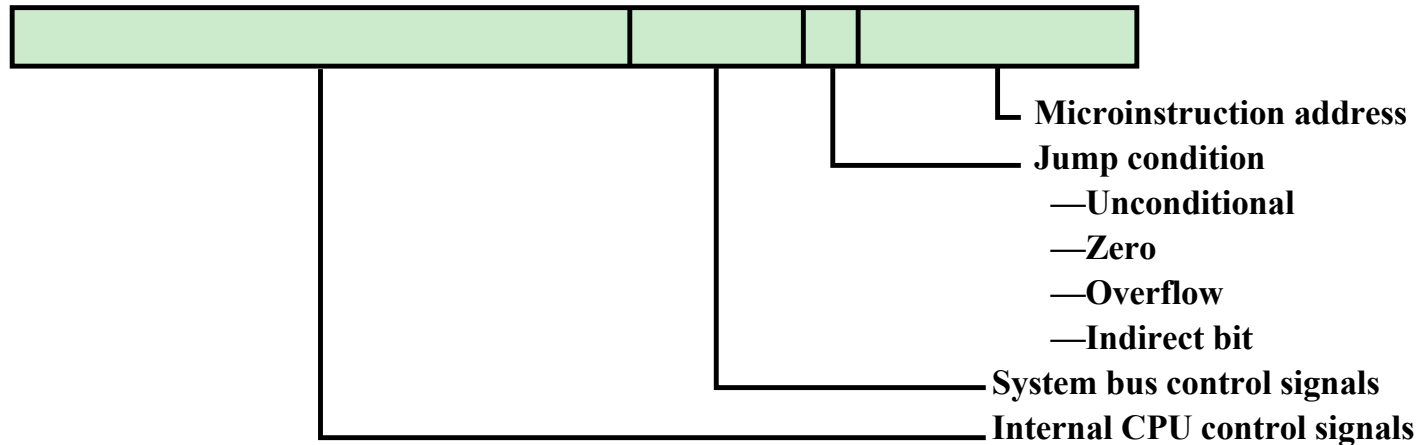
$Acc_2$  = least significant half of accumulator

$n$  = storage location  $n$

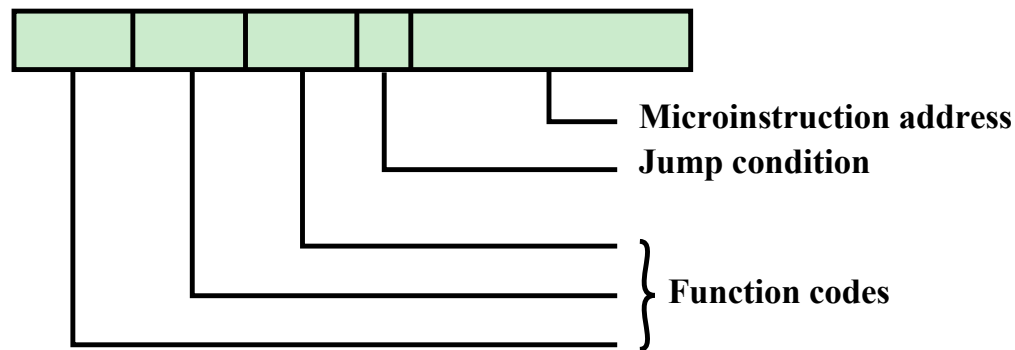
$C(X)$  = contents of  $X$  ( $X$  = register or storage location)

# Figure 19.12

## Typical Microinstruction Formats



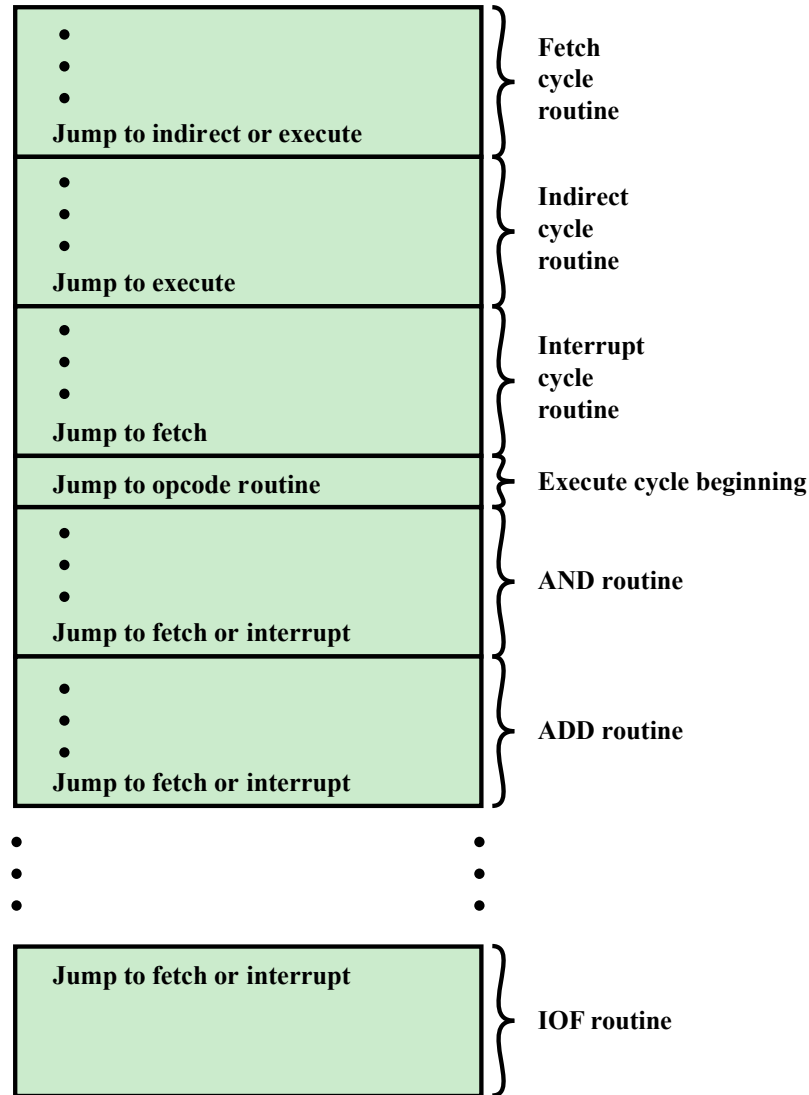
(a) Horizontal microinstruction



(b) Vertical microinstruction

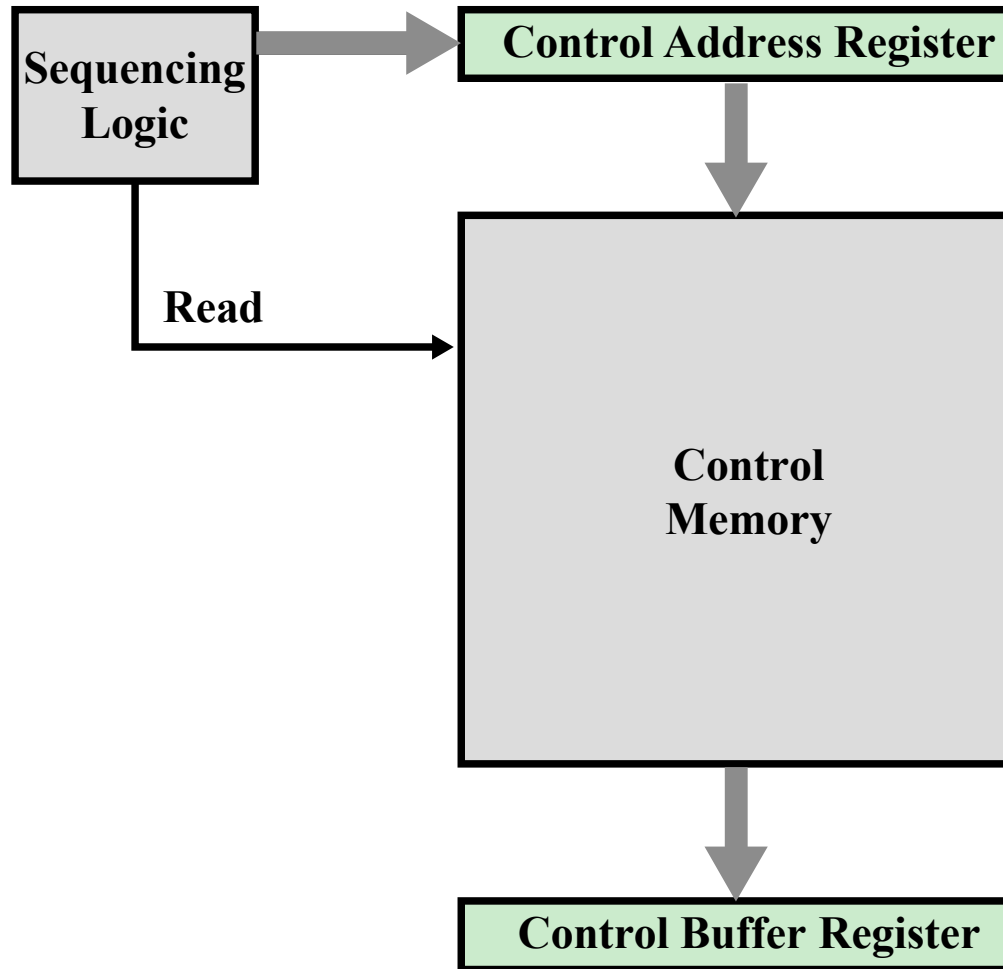
# Figure 19.13

## Organization of Control Memory



# Figure 19.14

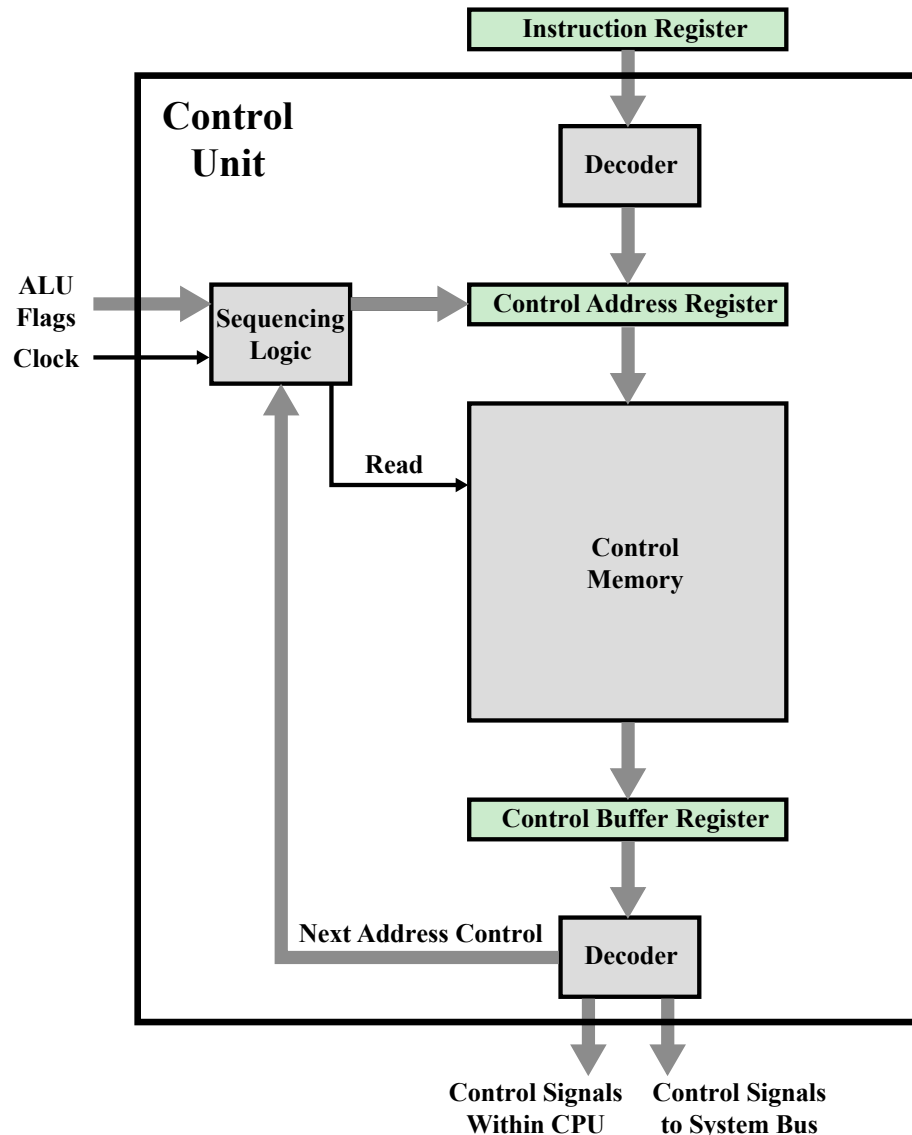
## Control Unit Microarchitecture





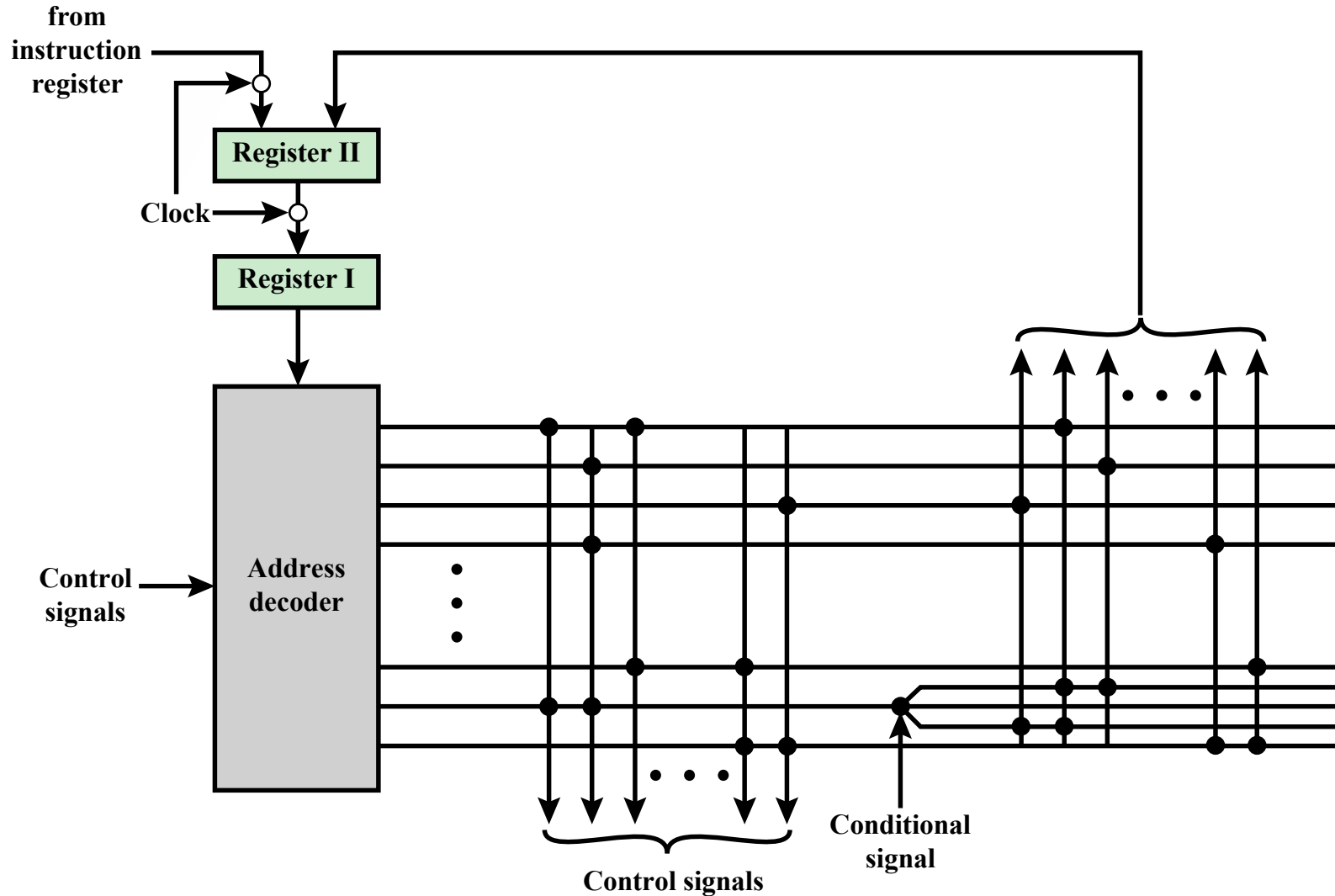
# Figure 19.15

## Functioning of Microprogrammed Control Unit



# Figure 19.16

## Wilkes's Microprogrammed Control Unit



Notations:  $A, B, C, \dots$  stand for the various registers in the arithmetical and control register units.  $C$  to  $D$  indicates that the switching circuits connect the output of register  $C$  to the input register  $D$ ;  $(D + A)$  to  $C$  indicates that the output register of  $A$  is connected to the one input of the adding unit (the output of  $D$  is permanently connected to the other input), and the output of the adder to register  $C$ . A numerical symbol  $n$  in quotes (e.g., “ $n$ ”) stands for the source whose output is the number  $n$  in units of the least significant digit.

		Arithmetical Unit	Control Register Unit	Conditional Flip-Flop		Next Microinstruction	
				Set	Use	0	1
	0		$F$ to $G$ and $E$			1	
	1		$(G$ to “1”) to $F$			2	
	2		Store to $G$			3	
	3		$G$ to $E$			4	
	4		$E$ to decoder			–	
$A$	5	$C$ to $D$				16	
$S$	6	$C$ to $D$				17	
$H$	7	Store to $B$				0	
$V$	8	Store to $A$				27	
$T$	9	$C$ to Store				25	
$U$	10	$C$ to Store				0	
$R$	11	$B$ to $D$	$E$ to $G$			19	
$L$	12	$C$ to $D$	$E$ to $G$			22	
$G$	13		$E$ to $G$	$(1)C_5$		18	
$I$	14	Input to Store				0	
$O$	15	Store to Output				0	
	16	$(D + \text{Store})$ to $C$				0	
	17	$(D - \text{Store})$ to $C$				0	
	18				1	0	1
	19	$D$ to $B$ ( $R$ )*	$(G - 1)$ to $E$			20	
	20	$C$ to $D$		$(1)E_5$		21	

**Table 19.5**  
**Microinstructions**  
**for Wilkes Example**

(Page 1 of 2)

(Table can be found on pages 697-698 in the textbook.)

		Arithmetical Unit	Control Register Unit	Conditional Flip-Flop		Next Microinstruction	
				Set	Use	0	1
	21	$D$ to $C$ ( $R$ )			1	11	0
	22	$D$ to $C$ ( $L$ )†	$(G - 1)$ to $E$			23	
	23	$B$ to $D$		$(1)E_5$		24	
	24	$D$ to $B$ ( $L$ )			1	12	0
	25	"0" to $B$				26	
$A$	26	$B$ to $C$				0	
$S$	27	"0" to $C$	"18" to $E$			28	
$H$	28	$B$ to $D$	$E$ to $G$	$(1)B_1$		29	
$V$	29	$D$ to $B$ ( $R$ )	$(G - "1")$ to $E$			30	
$T$	30	$C$ to $D$ ( $R$ )		$(2)E_5$	1	31	32
$U$	31	$D$ to $C$			2	28	33
$R$	32	$(D + A)$ to $C$			2	28	33
$L$	33	$B$ to $D$		$(1)B_1$		34	
$G$	34	$D$ to $B$ ( $R$ )				35	
$I$	35	$C$ to $D$ ( $R$ )			1	36	37
$O$	36	$D$ to $C$				0	
	37	$(D - A)$ to $C$				0	

**Table 19.5**  
**Microinstructions**  
**for Wilkes Example**

(Page 2 of 2)

(Table can be found on pages 697-698 in the textbook.)

\* Right shift. The switching circuits in the arithmetic unit are arranged so that the least significant digit of the register  $C$  is placed in the most significant place of register  $B$  during right shift micro-operations, and the most significant digit of register  $C$  (sign digit) is repeated (thus making the correction for negative numbers).

† Left shift. The switching circuits are similarly arranged to pass the most significant digit of register  $B$  to the least significant place of register  $C$  during left shift micro-operations.

# Control Unit Operation and Microprogrammed Control

## Summary

### Chapter 19

- Micro-operations
  - The fetch cycle
  - The indirect cycle
  - The interrupt cycle
  - The execute cycle
  - The instruction cycle
- Microprogrammed control
  - Microinstructions
  - Microprogrammed control unit
  - Wilkes control
  - Advantages and disadvantages
- Control of the processor
  - Functional requirements
  - Control signals
  - Internal processor organization
  - The Intel 8085
- Hardwired implementation
  - Control unit inputs
  - Control unit logic