

Microprogramming: architectures and control

Lecture 06 on Dedicated systems

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Table of Contents

1. Microprogramming: architectures and control
2. lecture topics
3. limitations of FSMs
4. the microprogramming idea
5. microprogrammed control architecture
6. benefits of microprogrammed control
7. microinstruction encoding: address field
8. microinstruction encoding: command field
9. microprogrammed datapath
10. microprogrammed architecture example
11. microinstruction encoding example (1)
12. microinstruction encoding example (2)
13. writing microprograms
14. microprogram example for GCD computation
15. references

outline:

- limitations of FSMs
- microprogramming: origins, microprogrammed interpreters
- microprogrammed control: architecture, benefits
- microinstruction encoding
- microprogrammed datapath
- writing microprograms
- examples:
 - microprogrammed architecture
 - microinstruction encoding
 - microprogram for GCD computation

limitations of FSMs

FSM models are well suited to capture the control flow and decision making of algorithms, however, they lack *hierarchy*; this gives rise to severe limitations when dealing with complex control systems

state explosion

the size of the state space of a *product FSM* is the product of the state space sizes of the component FSMs; even worse, if these have independent transition conditions, the number of conditions of the product FSM grows exponentially

exception handling

exceptions are conditions that require transition to an exception handling state regardless of the current state of the machine when they occur; adding exception transitions to a given transition diagram often obfuscates the main course of control

runtime flexibility

the hardwired control flow defined by an FSM cannot be changed in any other way than replacing the implemented FSM with another one; the motivation for greater model flexibility is tied to that for greater hardware flexibility

the microprogramming idea

a more flexible control is obtained by *microprogramming* it

the fixed schedule by an FSM controller is replaced by the variable one that is determined by a *microprogram*, composed of *microinstructions*, each of which is translated into datapath control signals

the first idea of microprogramming was proposed by Maurice Wilkes, in 1951, but it found wide application starting from the sixties, to become dominant in the subsequent decade with the diffusion of *CISC* architectures (*Complex Instruction-Set Computer*)

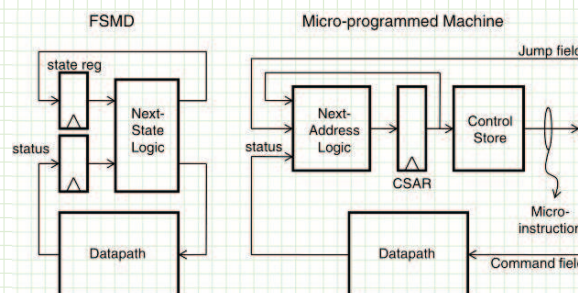
- in this idea, the microprogram is an *interpreter*, resident in a small control store
- the microinterpreter fetches machine instructions from main memory (that here are seen as higher-level instructions) and executes each of them by a *microroutine*, that is a sequence of low-level *microinstructions*

the microarchitecture of a *CISC* processor thus takes the shape of a "processor inside the processor", with a fixed microprogram which, during every machine cycle, fetches an instruction and executes the microroutine that is determined by decoding the opcode of the fetched instruction

microprogrammed control architecture

starting from the eighties, *RISC* architectures (*Reduced Instruction-Set Computer*) have competed with *CISC* ones, to become dominant eventually

microprogramming is still a very useful technique to increase the flexibility of hardware design



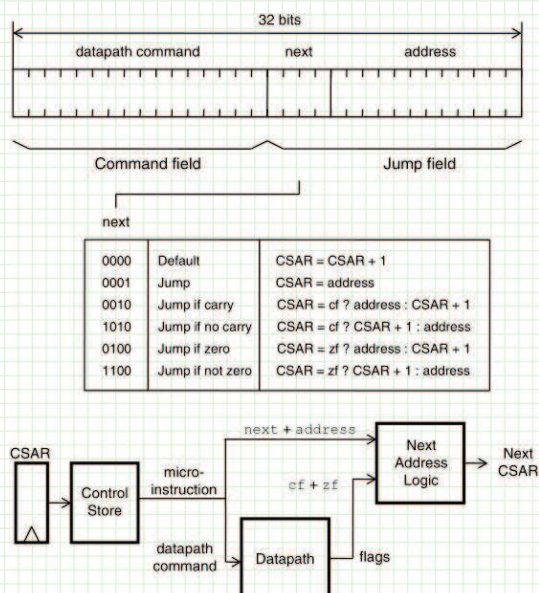
Schaumont, Figure 6.3 - In contrast to FSM-based control, microprogramming uses a flexible control scheme

CSAR (*Control Store Address Register*): analogue of the conventional Program Counter
clock cycle determined by the critical path through the microprogrammed architecture

microprogrammed control solves the problems of FSMs:

- it scales very well with complexity, for example a 12-bit CSAR may address a 4K-instruction control store, whereas a 4K-state FSM would be extremely complicated
- with small additions to the architecture in figure 6.3 hierarchical control may be easily implemented, for example, by adding a register or a stack to save and restore the CSAR, one may define microinstructions for microsubprogram call/return
- exception handling is also easy to deal with, by the next-address logic which would feed the CSAR with the hard-coded address of an exception handling microroutine
- the hardware flexibility advantage is evident, as datapath control may be modified by just rewriting the control store

microinstruction encoding: address field



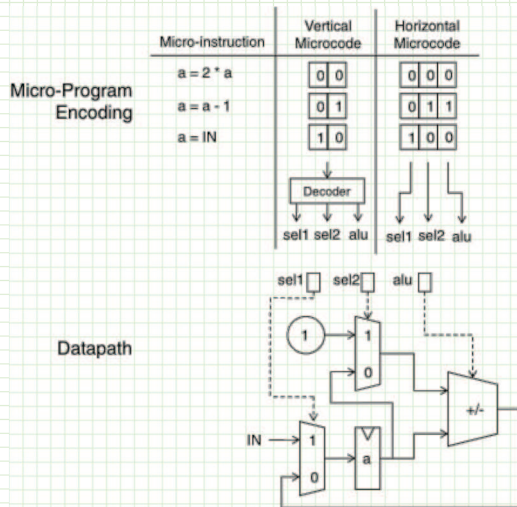
microinstruction format and encoding is driven by design trade-offs; a sample encoding is as follows

- assumption: 32-bit micro-instruction size, half for the datapath command, the other half for the next-address logic; we start with the latter
- 12-bit address field → up to 4K microinstructions in the control store
- 4-bit next field: selects how to compute the next address to be loaded onto CSAR, see table in the figure

Schaumont, Figure 6.4 – Sample format for a 32-bit micro-instruction word

microinstruction encoding: command field

the format in figure 6.4 is not optimal, as the address field is only used for jump instructions—it may be used for other purposes with other instructions



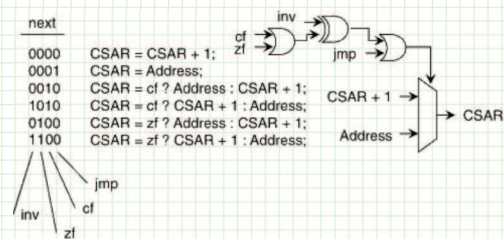
Schaumont, Figure 6.5 - Example of vertical versus horizontal micro-programming

another space-time trade-off is presented by the alternative for the command field:

horizontal encoding: each datapath control bit is assigned a distinct bit

vertical encoding: shortest encoding of datapath control bits

a combined solution is often adopted, e.g. the encoding in the next field:



Schaumont, Figure 6.6 - CSAR encoding

microprogrammed datapath

the datapath of a microprogrammed machine consists of three elements:

- computation units
- storage units (register file)
- communication buses

each of these elements may contribute a few control bits to the microinstruction word, for example:

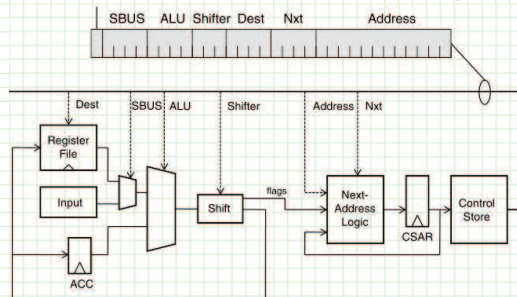
- multi-function computation units: function selection bits
- storage units: address bits and read/write command bits
- communication buses: source/destination control bits

the datapath may also generate status flags for the microprogrammed controller

microprogrammed architecture example

here is an example of microprogrammed control of a datapath that includes: an ALU with shifter unit, a register file with eight entries, an accumulator register, and an input port

mixed horizontal/vertical encoding; overall horizontal, for each unit in the datapath takes a distinct portion of the control word, vertical encoding of each unit control signals in that portion



Schaumont, Figure 6.7 - A micro-programmed datapath

the shifter also generates flags, which are used by the microprogrammed controller to implement conditional jumps

control word fields:

Nxt, Address: used by the microprogrammed controller; the other fields are used by the datapath

ALU: up to 16 ALU operations may be encoded
SBUS: source operand selection for the ALU operation, out of entries in the register file and input port, the other source operand is the accumulator

Dest: destination selection for the ALU+shifter operation, out of entries in the register file and accumulator

Shifter: shift function selection, up to eight functions

the datapath fetches and executes a microinstruction every clock cycle

microinstruction encoding example (1)

table 6.1 presents an example of microinstruction encoding for the given architecture (first part):

Field	Width	Encoding
SBUS	4	Selects the operand that will drive the S-Bus
		0000 R0 0101 R5
		0001 R1 0110 R6
		0010 R2 0111 R7
		0011 R3 1000 Input
		0100 R4 1001 Address/Constant
ALU	4	Selects the operation performed by the ALU
		0000 ACC 0110 ACC S-Bus
		0001 S-Bus 0111 not S-Bus
		0010 ACC + S-Bus 1000 S-Bus + 1
		0011 ACC - S-Bus 1001 ACC + 1
		0100 S-Bus - ACC 1010 0
		0101 ACC & S-Bus 1011 1

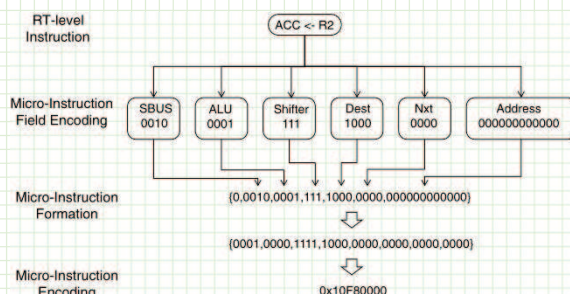
table 6.1 (second part):

Field	Width	Encoding
Shifter	3	Selects the function of the programmable shifter
		000 logical SHL(ALU) 100 arith SHL(ALU)
		001 logical SHR(ALU) 101 arith SHR(ALU)
		010 rotate left ALU 111 ALU
		011 rotate right ALU
Dest	4	Selects the target that will store S-Bus
		0000 R0 0101 R5
		0001 R1 0110 R6
		0010 R2 0111 R7
		0011 R3 1000 ACC
		0100 R4 1111 unconnected
Nxt	4	Selects next-value for CSAR
		0000 CSAR + 1 1010 cf ? CSAR + 1 : Address
		0001 Address 0100 zf ? Address : CSAR + 1
		0010 cf ? Address : CSAR + 1 1100 zf ? CSAR + 1 : Address

writing microprograms

using the encoding defined in table 6.1, a microinstruction is formed by selecting a function for each module in the datapath and a next address for the Address field (with a suitable don't care value for this whenever Nxt is null)

by way of example, let's see how an RTL instruction, such as $ACC \leftarrow R2$, is translated to a microinstruction



- the source operand is in R2: SBUS = 0010
- the ALU passes the S-Bus input to the output: ALU = 0001
- The shifter passes the ALU output unmodified: Shifter = 111
- the output of the shifter updates the accumulator: Dest = 1000
- CSAR gets the default increment: Nxt = 0000 and Address is a don't care, e.g. all zeroes

Schaumont, Figure 6.8 - Forming micro-instructions from register-transfer instructions

complex control operations, such as loops and if-then-else statements, can be expressed as a combination (or sequence) of RTL instructions

as an example, let's develop a micro-program that computes the GCD of two input numbers using Euclid's algorithm

the microprogram is written in a symbolic RTL notation that immediately translates to microinstructions in a similar way as in the previous example

	Command Field		Jump Field
	IN \rightarrow R0		
	IN \rightarrow ACC		
Lcheck:	(R0 - ACC)		JUMP_IF_Z Ldone
	(R0 - ACC) $<<$ 1		JUMP_IF_C Lsmall
	(R0 - ACC) \rightarrow R0		JUMP Lcheck
Lsmall:	ACC - R0 \rightarrow ACC		JUMP Lcheck
Ldone:			JUMP Ldone

Schaumont, Listing 6.1 - Micro-program to evaluate a GCD

references

recommended readings:

Schaumont, Ch. 6, Sect. 6.1-6.4

for further consultation:

Schaumont, Ch. 6, Sect. 6.6-6.8