Lecture No. 9

Reading Material

Handouts

Slides

Summary

- 4) Use of Behavioral Register Transfer Language (RTL) to describe the FALCON-A
- 5) The EAGLE
- 6) The Modified EAGLE

Use of Behavioral Register Transfer Language (RTL) to describe the FALCON-A

The use of RTL (an acronym for the Register Transfer Language) to describe the FALCON-A is discussed in this section. FALCON-A is the sample machine we are building in order to enhance our understanding of processors and their architecture.

Behavior vs. Structure

Computer design involves various levels of abstraction. The behavioral description of a machine is a higher level of abstraction, as compared with the structural description. Topdown approach is adopted in computer design. Designing a computer typically starts with defining the behavior of the overall system. This is then broken down into the behavior of the different modules. The process continues, till we are able to define, design and implement the structure of the individual modules.

As mentioned earlier, we are interested in the behavioral description of our machine, the FALCON-A, in this section.

Register Transfer Language

The RTL is a formal way of expressing the behavior and structure of a computer. **Behavioral RTL**

Behavioral Register Transfer Language is used to describe what a machine does, i.e. it is used to define the functionality the machine provides. Basically, the behavioral architecture describes the algorithms used in a machine, written as a set of process statements. These statements may be sequential statements or concurrent statements, including signal assignment statements and wait statements.

Structural RTL

Structural RTL is used to describe the hardware implementation of the machine. The structural architecture of a machine is the logic circuit implementation (components and their interconnections), that facilitates a certain behavior (and hence functionality) for that machine.

Using RTL to describe the static properties of the FALCON-A

We can employ the RTL for the description of various properties of the FALCON-A that we have already discussed.

Specifying Registers

In RTL, we will refer to a register by its abbreviated, alphanumeric name, followed by the number of bits in the register enclosed in angle brackets '< >'. For instance, the instruction register (IR), of 16 bits (numbered 0 to 15), will be referred to as, IR<15..0>

Naming of the Fields in a Register

We can name the different fields of a register using the := notation. For example, to name the most significant bits of the instruction register as the operation code (or simply op), we may write:

op<4..0> := IR<15..11>

Note that using this notation to name registers or register fields will not create a new copy of the data or the register fields; it is simply an alias for an already existing register, or part of a register.

Fields in the FALCON-A Instructions

We now use the RTL naming operator to name the various fields of the RTL instructions. Naming the fields appropriately helps us make the study of the behavior of a processor more readable.

op<40>:= IR<1511>:	operation code field
ra<20> := IR<108>:	target register field
rb<20> := IR<75>:	operand or address index
rc<20> := IR<42>:	second operand
c1<40> := IR<40>:	short displacement field
c2<70> := IR<70>:	long displacement or the immediate field
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We are already familiar with these fields, and their usage in the various instruction formats of the RTL.

Describing the Processor State using RTL

The processor state defines the contents of all the register internal to the CPU at a given time. Maintaining or restoring the machine or processor state is important to many operations, especially procedure calls and interrupts; the processor state needs to be restored after a procedure call or an interrupt so normal operation can continue.

Our processor state consists of the following:

PC<15..0>: program counter (the PC holds the memory address of the next instruction)

IR<150>:	instruction register (used to hold the current instruction)
Run:	one bit run/halt indicator
Strt:	start signal
R [07]<150>:	8 general purpose registers, each consisting of 16 bits

FALCON-A in a black box

The given figure shows what a processor appears as to a user. We see a start button that is basically used to start up the processor, and a run indicator that turns on when the processor is in the running state.



There may be several other indicators as well. The start button as well as the run indicator can be observed on many machines.

Using RTL to describe the dynamic properties of the FALCON-A

We have just described some of the static properties of the FALCON-A. The RTL can also be employed to describe the dynamic behavior of the processor in terms of instruction interpretation and execution.

Conditional expressions can be specified using the RTL. For instance, we may specify a

conditional subtraction operation employing RTL as

(op=2) : R[ra] \leftarrow R[rb] - R[rc];

This instruction means that "if" the operation code of the instruction equals 2 (00010 in binary), then subtract the value stored in register rc from that of register rb, and store the resulting value in register ra.

Effective address calculations in RTL (performed at runtime)

The operand or the destination address may not be specified directly in an instruction, and it may be required to compute the effective address at run-time. Displacement and relative addressing modes are instances of such situations. RTL can be used to describe these effective address calculations.

Displacement address

A displacement address is calculated, as shown:

disp $<15..0> := (R[rb] + (11\alpha c1 < 4>) \odot c1 < 4..0>);$

This means that the address is being calculated by adding the constant value specified by the field c1 (which is first sign extended), to the value specified by the register rb. **Relative address**

A relative address is calculated by adding the displacement to the contents of the program counter register (that holds the instruction to be executed next in a program flow). The constant is first sign-extended. In RTL this is represented as,

rel<15..0>:=PC+(8ac2<7>)©c2<7..0>;

Range of memory addresses

Using the displacement or the relative addressing modes, there is a specific range of memory addresses that can be accessed.

- Range of addresses when using direct addressing mode (displacement with rb=0)
 - If c1<4>=0 (positive displacement) absolute addresses range: 00000b to 01111b (0 to +15)
 - If c1<4>=1 (negative displacement) absolute addresses range: 11111b to 10000b (-1 to -16)
- Address range in case of relative addressing
 - The largest positive value that can be specified using 8 bits (since we have only 8 bits available in c2 < 7..0 >), is 2^7 -1, and the most negative value that can be represented using the same is 2^7 . Therefore, the range of addresses or locations that can be referred to using this addressing mode is 127 locations forward or 128 locations backward from the Program Counter (PC).

Instruction Fetch Operation (using RTL)

We will now employ the notation that we have learnt to understand the fetch-execute

cycle of the FALCON-A processor.

The RTL notation for the instruction fetch process is instruction Fetch := (!Run&Strt : Run $\leftarrow 1$, Run : (IR \leftarrow M[PC], PC \leftarrow PC + 2; instruction Execution)); This is how the instruction-fetch phase of the fetch-execute cycle for FALCON-A can be represented using RTL. Recall that ":=' is the naming operator, "!" implies a logical NOT, "&" implies a logical AND, "←" represents a transfer operation, is used to separate sequential statements, and concurrent statements are separated by ",". We can observe that in the instruction Fetch phase, if the machine is not in the running state and the start bit has been set, then the run bit is also set to true. Concurrently, an instruction is fetched from the instruction memory; the program counter (PC) holds the next instruction address, so it is used to refer to the memory location from where the instruction is to be fetched. Simultaneously, the PC is incremented by 2 so it will point to the next instruction. (Recall that our instruction word is 2 bytes long, and the instruction memory is organized into 1byte cells). The next step is the instruction execution phase. Difference between "," and ";" in RTL

We again highlight the difference between the "," and ";". Statements separated by a "," take place during the same clock pulse. In other words, the order of execution of statements separated by "," does not matter.

On the other hand, statements separated by a ";" take place on successive clock pulses. In other words, if statements are separated by ";" the one on the left must complete before the one on the right starts. However, some things written with one RTL statement can take several clocks to complete.

We return to our discussion of the instruction-fetch phase. The statement

<u>!Run&Strt : Run ← 1</u>

is executed when 'Run' is 0, and 'Strt' is 1, that is, Strt has been set. It is used to set the Run bit. No action takes place when both 'Run' and 'Strt' are 0.

The following two concurrent register transfers are performed when 'Run' is set to 1, (as ':' is a conditional operator; if the condition is met, the specified action is taken).

IR ← M[PC] $PC \leftarrow PC + 2$

Since these instructions appear concurrent, and one of the instructions is using the value of PC that the other instruction is updating, a question arises; which of the two values of the PC is used in the memory access? As a rule, all right hand sides of the register transfers are evaluated before the left hand side is evaluated/updated. In case of simultaneous register transfers (separated by a ","), all the right hand side expressions are evaluated in the same clock-cycle, before they are assigned. Therefore, the old, unincremented value of the PC is used in the memory access, and the incremented value is assigned to the PC afterwards. This corresponds to "master-slave" flip-flop operation in logic circuits.

This makes the PC point to the next instruction in the instruction memory. Once the instruction has been fetched, the instruction execution starts. We can also use i.F for instruction_Fetch and i.E for instruction_Execution. This will make the Fetch operation easy to write.

iF := (!Run&Strt : Run \leftarrow 1, Run : (IR \leftarrow M[PC], PC \leftarrow PC + 2; iE));

Instruction Execution (Describing the Execute operation using RTL)

Once an instruction has been fetched from the instruction memory, and the program counter has been incremented to point to the next instruction in the memory, instruction execution commences. In the instruction fetch-execute cycle we showed in the preceding discussion, the entire instruction execution code was aliased iE (or instruction_Execution), through the assignment operator ":=". Now we look at the instruction execution in detail.

```
iE := (
```

```
(op<4..0>= 1) : R[ra] \leftarrow R[rb]+ (11a c1<4>) \odot c1<4..0>, 
(op<4..0>= 2) : R[ra] \leftarrow R[rb]-R[rc], 
... 
(op<4..0>=31) : Run \leftarrow 0,); iF );
```

As we can see, the instruction execution can be described in RTL by using a long list of concurrent, conditional operators that are inherently 'disjoint'. Being inherently disjointed implies that at any instance, only one of the conditions can be met; hence one of the statements is executed. The long list of statements is basically all of the instructions that are a part of the FALCON-A instruction set, and the condition for their execution is related to the operation code of the instruction fetched. We will take a closer look at the entire list in our subsequent discussion. Notice that in the instruction execute

phase, besides the long list of concurrent, disjoint instructions, there is also the instruction fetch or iF sequenced at the end. This implies that once one of the instructions from the list is executed, the instruction fetch is called to fetch the next instruction. As shown before, the instruction fetch will call the instruction execute after fetching a certain instruction, hence the instruction fetch-execute cycle continues.



The instruction fetch-execute cycle is shown schematically in the above given figure. We now see how the various instructions in the execute code of the fetch-execute cycle of FALCON-A, are represented using the RTL. These instructions form the instruction set of the FALCON-A.

jump instructions

Some of the instructions listed for the instruction execution phase are jump instruction, as shown. (Note '. . .' implies that more instructions may precede or follow, depending on whether it is placed before the instructions shown, or after).

iE := (

•••

If op-code is 20, the branch is taken unconditionally (the jump instruction).

(op < 4..0 > = 20) : (cond : PC \leftarrow R[ra]+C2(sign extended)),

If the op-code is 16, the condition for branching is checked, and if the condition is being met, the branch is taken; otherwise it remains untaken, and normal program flow will continue.

(op<4..0>= 16) : cond : (PC ← PC+C2 (sign extended))

•••

Arithmetic and Logical Instructions

Several instructions provide arithmetic and logical operations functionality. Amongst the list of concurrent instructions of the iE phase, the instructions belonging to this category are highlighted:

iE := (. . .

If op-code is 0, the instruction is 'add'. The values in register rb and rc are added and the result is stored in register rc

$(op < 4..0 >= 0) : R[ra] \leftarrow R[rb] + R[rc],$

Similarly, if op-code is 1, the instruction is addi; the immediate constant specified by the constant field C1 is sign extended and added to the value in register rb. The result is stored in the register ra.

(op<4..0>=1) : R[ra] ←R[rb] + (11α C1<4>)© C1<4..0>,

For op-code 2, value stored in register rc is subtracted from the value stored in register rb, and the result is stored in register ra.

 $(op < 4..0 >= 2) : R[ra] \leftarrow R[rb] - R[rc],$

If op-code is 3, the immediate constant C1 is sign-extended, and subtracted from the value stored in rb. Result is stored in ra.

 $(op<4..0>=3): R[ra] \leftarrow R[rb]-(11\alpha C1<4>) \odot C1<4..0>,$

For op-code 4, values of rb and rc register are multiplied and result is stored in the destination register.

(op<4..0>=4) : R[ra] ← R[rb] * R[rc],

If the op-code is 5, contents of register rb are divided by the value stored in rc, result is concatenated with 0s, and stored in ra. The remainder is stored in R0.

$$(op < 4..0 > = 5) : R[ra] \leftarrow R[0] \otimes R[rb]/R[rc],$$

$$\mathbf{R}[\mathbf{0}] \leftarrow \mathbf{R}[\mathbf{0}] \ \mathbb{C}\mathbf{R}[\mathbf{rb}] \ \% \mathbf{R}[\mathbf{rc}],$$

If op-code equals 8, bit-wise logical AND of rb and rc register contents is assigned to ra. $(op<4..0>=8): R[ra] \leftarrow R[rb] \& R[rc],$

If op-code equals 8, bit-wise logical OR of rb and rc register contents is assigned to ra. $(op<4..0>=10): R[ra] \leftarrow R[rb] \sim R[c],$

For op-code 14, the contents of register specified by field rc are inverted (logical NOT is taken), and the resulting value is stored in register ra.

 $(op < 4..0 > = 14) : R[ra] \leftarrow ! R[rc],$

. . .

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Shift Instructions

The shift instructions are also a part of the instruction set for FALCON-A, and these are listed in the instruction execute phase in the RTL as shown.

iE := (

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If the op-code is 12, the contents of the register rb are shifted right N bits. N is the number specified in the constant field. The space that has been created due to the shift out of bits is filled with 0s through concatenation. In RTL, this is shown as:

 $(op<4..0>=12): R[ra]<15..0> \leftarrow R [rb]<(15-N)..0> O(Na0),$

If op-code is 13, rb value is shifted left, and 0s are inserted in place of shifted out contents at the right side of the value. The result is stored in ra.

 $(op<4..0>=13): R[ra]<15..0> \leftarrow (Na0)@R [rb]<(15)..N>,$

For op-code 15, arithmetic shift right operation is carried out on the value stored in rb. The arithmetic shift right shifts a signed binary number stored in the source register to the right, while leaving the sign-bit unchanged. Note that α means replication, and \mathbb{C} means concatenation.

$(op<4..0>=15): R[ra]<15..0> \leftarrow N\alpha(R [rb]<15>) \odot (R [rb]<15..N>),$

•••

. . . Data transfer instructions

Several of the instructions belong to the data transfer category.

iE := (

Op-code 29 specifies the load instruction, i.e. a memory location is referenced and the value stored in the memory location is copied to the destination register. The effective address of the memory location to be referenced is calculated by sign extending the immediate field, and adding it to the value specified by register rb.

(op<4..0>=29) : R[ra]← M[R[rb]+ (11α C1<4>)© C1<4..0>],

A value is stored back to memory from a register using the op-code 28. The effective address in memory where the value is to be stored is calculated in a similar fashion as the load instruction.

 $(op<4..0>=28): M[R[rb]+(11\alpha C1<4>) \odot C1<4..0>] \leftarrow R [ra],$

The move instruction has the op-code 6. The contents of one register are copied to another register through this instruction.

(op<4..0>=6) : R[ra] ← R[rb],

To store an immediate value (specified by the field C2 of the instruction) in a register, the op-code 7 is employed. The constant is first sign-extended.

(op < 4..0 > = 7): R[ra] $\leftarrow (8\alpha C2 < 7 >) \odot C2 < 7..0 >$,

If the op-code is 24, an input is obtained from a certain input device, and the input word

is stored into register ra. The input device is selected by specifying its address through the

constant C2.

$(op < 4..0 > = 24) : R[ra] \leftarrow IO[C2],$

Unconditional branch (jump)If the op-code is 25, an output (the register ra value) is sent to an output device (where the address of the output device is specified by the constant C2).

```
(op < 4..0 > = 25) : IO[C2] \leftarrow R[ra],
```

```
•••
```

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Miscellaneous instructions

Some more instruction included in the FALCON-A are

iE := (...

. . .

The no-operation (nop) instruction, if the op-code is 21. This instructs the processor to do nothing.

(op<4..0>= 21) :

If the op-code is 31, setting the run bit to 0 halts the processor.

(op < 4..0 >= 31): Run $\leftarrow 0$, Halt the processor (halt)

At the end of this concurrent list of instructions, there is an instruction i.F (the instruction fetch). Hence when an instruction is executed, the next instruction is fetched, and the cycle continues, unless the processor is halted.

); iF);

Note: For Assembler and Simulator Consult Appendix.

The EAGLE

(Original version)

Another processor that we are going to study is the EAGLE. We have developed two versions of it, an original version, and a modified version that takes care of the limitations in the original version. The study of multiple processors is going to help us get thoroughly familiar with the processor design, and the various possible designs for the processor. However, note that these machines are simplified versions of what a real machine might look like.

Introduction

The EAGLE is an accumulator-based machine. It is a simple processor that will help us in our understanding of the processor design process.

EAGLE is characterized by the following:

- Eight General Purpose Registers of the CPU. These are named R0, R1...R7. Each register is 16-bits in length.
- Two 16-bit system registers transparent to the programmer are the Program Counter (PC) and the Instruction Register (IR). (Being transparent to the programmer implies the programmer may not directly manipulate the values to these registers. Their usage is the same as in any other processor)
- Memory word size is 16 bits
- The available memory space size is 2^{16} bytes
- Memory organization is $2^{16} \times 8$ bits. This means that there are 2^{16} memory cells, each one byte long.
- Memory is accessed in 16 bit words (i.e., 2 byte chunks)
- Little-endian byte storage is employed.

Programmer's View of the EAGLE

The programmer's view of the EAGLE processor is shown by means of the given figure.

EAGLE: Notation

Let us take a look at the notation that will be employed for the study of the EAGLE. Enclosing the register name in square brackets refers to register contents; for instance, R[3] means contents of register R3.



Enclosing the location address in square brackets, preceded by 'M', lets us refer to memory contents. Hence M [8] means contents of memory location 8.

As little endian storage is employed, a memory word at address x is defined as the 16 bits at address x + 1 and x. For instance, the bits at memory location 9,8 define the memory word at location 8. So employing the special notation for 16-bit memory words, we have



M [8] < 15...0 > := M [9] @M [8]

Where © is used to represent concatenation

EAGLE Features

The following features characterize the EAGLE.

- Instruction length is variable. Instructions are either 8 bits or 16 long, i.e., instruction size is either 8-bits or 16-bits.
- The instructions may have either one or two operands. •
- The only way to access memory is through load and store instructions.
- Limited addressing modes are supported

EAGLE: Instruction Formats

There are five instruction formats for the EAGLE. These are

Type Z Instruction Format

The Z format instructions are half-word (1 byte) instructions, containing just the op-code field of 8 bits, Type Z as shown

Type Y Instruction Format

The type Y instructions are also half-word. There is Type Y an op-code field of 5 bits, and a register operand field ra.

Type X Instruction Format

Type X instructions are also half-word instructions,



opcode

opcode

3 2

0

Û

ra

with a 2-bit op-code field, and two 3-bit operand register fields, as shown.

Type W instruction format

The instructions in this type are 1.	1	5 8	0_
word (16-bit) in length 8 bits are	Type W	opcode	constant
reserved for the on code while the remain	∠ ining 8 hi	its form the constan	nt (immediate value)

reserved for the op-code, while the remaining 8 bits form the constant (immediate value) field.

Type V instruction format

Type V instructions are also 1-word		15 11	10 8	7
instructions, containing an op-code	Type V	opcode	ra	constant
field of 5 bits, an operand register field				

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of 3 bits, and 8 bits for a specifying a constant. **Encoding of the General Purpose Registers**

Code

The encoding for the eight GPRs is shown in the table. These binary codes are to be used in place of the 'place-holders' ra, rb in the actual instructions of the processor EAGLE.

register	Code	register	Code
RO	000	R4	100
R1	001	R5	101
R2	010	R6	110
R3	011	R7	111

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Code

Listing of EAGLE instructions with respect to instruction formats

The following is a brief introduction to the various instructions of the processor EAGLE, categorized with respect to the instruction formats.

Type Z

There are four type Z instructions,

- halt(op-code=250)
 This instruction halts the processor
- nop(op-code=249) nop, or the no-operation instruction stalls the processor for the time of execution of a single instruction. It is useful in pipelining.
- init(op-code=251) This instruction is used to initialize all the registers, by setting them to 0
- reset(op-code=248)

This instruction is used to initialize the processor to a known state. In this instruction the control step counter is set to zero so that the operation begins at the start of the instruction fetch and besides this PC is also set to a known value so that machine operation begins at a known instruction.

Type Y

Seven instructions of the processor are of type Y. These are

add(op-code=11)
 The type Y add instruction adds register ra's contents to register R0. For example, add r1
 In the behavioral RTL, we show this as R[0] ← R[1]+R[0]

• and(op-code=19)

This instruction obtains the logical AND of the value stored in register specified by field ra and the register R0, and assigns the result to R0, as shown in the example:

and r5which is represented in RTL as $R[0] \leftarrow R[1]\&R[0]$

• div(op-code=16)

This instruction divides the contents of register R0 by the value stored in the register ra, and assigns result to R0. The remainder is stored in the divisor register, as shown in example,

div r6 In RTL, this is $R[0] \leftarrow R[0]/R[6]$

 $R[6] \leftarrow R[0]\%R[6]$ • mul (op-code = 15)

This instruction multiplies the values stored in register R0 and the operand register, and assigns the result to R0). For example,

mul r4

In RTL, we specify this as

 $R[0] \leftarrow R[0]*R[4]$

• not (op-code = 23)

The not instruction inverts the operand register's value and assigns it back to the same register, as shown in the example

not r6

- $R[6] \leftarrow ! R[6]$
- or (op-code=21)

The or instruction obtains the bit-wise OR of the operand register's and R0's value, and assigns it back to R0. An example,

or r5

 $R[0] \leftarrow R[0] \sim R[5]$

• sub (op-code=12)

The sub instruction subtracts the value of the operand register from R0 value, assigning it back to register R0. Example: sub r7

In RTL:

 $R[0] \leftarrow R[0] - R[7]$

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Only one instruction falls under this type. It is the 'mov' instruction that is useful for register transfers

 mov (op-code = 0) The contents of one register are copied to the destination register ra. Example: mov r5, r1 RTL Notation: R[5]← R[1]

Type W

Again, only one instruction belongs to this type. It is the branch instruction

 br (op-code = 252) This is the unconditional branch instruction, and the branch target is specified by the 8-bit immediate field. The branch is taken by incrementing the PC with the new value. Hence it is a 'near' jump. For instance, br 14 PC ← PC+14

Type V

Most of the instructions of the processor EAGLE are of the format type V. These are

• addi (op-code = 13)

The addi instruction adds the immediate value to the register ra, by first signextending the immediate value. The result is also stored in the register ra. For example,

addi r4, 31 In behavioral RTL, this is $R[4] \leftarrow R[4]+(8\alpha c^{7}) \odot c^{7}...0>;$

• and i (op-code = 20)

Logical 'AND' of the immediate value and register ra value is obtained when this instruction is executed, and the result is assigned back to register ra. An example, and r6, 1

 $R[6] \leftarrow R[6] \& 1$

• in (op-code=29)

This instruction is to read in a word from an IO device at the address specified by the immediate field, and store it in the register ra. For instance,

in r1, 45

In RTL this is

 $R[1] \leftarrow IO[45]$

• load (op-code=8)

The load instruction is to load the memory word into the register ra. The immediate field specifies the location of the memory word to be read. For instance,

load r3, 6

 $R[3] \leftarrow M[6]$

• brn (op-code = 28)

Upon the brn instruction execution, the value stored in register ra is checked, and if it is negative, branch is taken by incrementing the PC by the immediate field value. An example is

brn r4, 3

In RTL, this may be written as

if R[4]<0, PC \leftarrow PC+3

• brnz (op-code = 25)

For a brnz instruction, the value of register ra is checked, and if found non-zero, the PC-relative branch is taken, as shown in the example, brnz r6, 12

Which, in RTL is if R[6]!=0, PC \leftarrow PC+12

• brp (op-code=27)

brp is the 'branch if positive'. Again, ra value is checked and if found positive, the PC-relative near jump is taken, as shown in the example: brp r1, 45

In RTL this is

if R[1] > 0, $PC \leftarrow PC+45$

```
• brz (op-code=8)
```

In this instruction, the value of register ra is checked, and if it equals zero, PC-relative branch is taken, as shown,

```
brz r5, 8
In RTL:
if R[5]=0, PC ← PC+8
```

• loadi (op-code=9)

The loadi instruction loads the immediate constant into the register ra, for instance,

loadi r5,54

 $R[5] \leftarrow 54$

• ori (op-code=22)

The ori instruction obtains the logical 'OR' of the immediate value with the ra register value, and assigns it back to the register ra, as shown,

```
ori r7, 11
In RTL,
R[7] ← R[7]~11
```

• out (op-code=30)

The out instruction is used to write a register word to an IO device, the address of which is specified by the immediate constant. For instance, out 32, r5

In RTL, this is represented by

 $IO[32] \leftarrow R[5]$

• shiftl (op-code=17)

This instruction shifts left the contents of the register ra, as many times as is specified through the immediate constant of the instruction. For example: shiftl r1, 6

• shiftr(op-code=18)

This instruction shifts right the contents of the register ra, as many times as is specified through the immediate constant of the instruction. For example: shiftr r2, 5

• store (op-code=10)

The store instruction stores the value of the ra register to a memory location specified by the immediate constant. An example is,

store r4, 34

RTL description of this instruction is

- $M[34] \leftarrow R[4]$
- subi (op-code=14)

The subi instruction subtracts the immediate constant from the value of register ra, assigning back the result to the register ra. For instance, subi r3, 13

RTL description of the instruction $R[3] \leftarrow R[3]-13$ (ORIGINAL) ISA for the EAGLE (16-bit registers, 16-bit PC and IR, 8-bit memory)

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	opcode	operand	operand2	constant		
mnemonic					Format	Behavioral RTL
		3 bits	3 bits	8 bits		
add	01011	ra	-	-	Y	$R [0] \leftarrow R [ra] + R [0];$
addi	01101	ra	-	с	V	$R [ra] \leftarrow R [ra] + (8\alpha c < 7 >) \odot c;$
and	10011	ra	-	-	Y	$R[0] \leftarrow R[ra]\&R[0];$
andi	10100	ra	-	с	V	$R [ra] \leftarrow R [ra] \& (8\alpha c < 7 >) ©c;$
br	11111100	-	-	с	W	$PC \leftarrow PC+(8\alpha c < 7>) \odot c;$
brnv	11100	ra	-	с	V	(R [ra]<0): PC \leftarrow PC+(8 α c<7>)©c;
brnz	11001	ra	-	с	V	(R [ra] $<>0$): PC \leftarrow PC+(8 α c $<7>$)©c;
brpl	11011	ra	-	с	V	(R [ra]>0): PC \leftarrow PC+(8 α c<7>)©c;
brzr	11010	ra	-	с	V	(R [ra]=0): PC \leftarrow PC+(8 α c<7>)©c;
div	10000	ra	-	-	Y	$R [0] \leftarrow R [0]/R [a], R [ra] \leftarrow R [0]\%R [ra],$
halt	11111010	-	-	-	Ζ	$RUN \leftarrow 0;$
in	11101	ra	-	с	V	$R [ra] \leftarrow IO[c];$
init	11111011	-	-	-	Ζ	$R[70] \leftarrow 0;$
load	01000	ra	-	с	V	$R [ra] \leftarrow M[c];$
loadi	01001	ra	-	с	V	$R [ra] \leftarrow (8\alpha c < 7 >) \odot c;$
mov	00	ra	rb	-	Х	$R [ra] \leftarrow R [rb];$
mul	01111	ra	-	-	Y	$R [ra] \odot R [r0] \leftarrow R [ra] R [0];$
nop	11111001	-	-	-	Ζ	. ,
not	10111	ra	-	-	Y	$R [ra] \leftarrow ! (R [ra]);$
or	10101	ra	-	-	Y	$R [0] \leftarrow R [ra] \sim R [0];$
ori	10110	ra	-	с	V	R [ra] ← R [ra]~ (8αc<7>)©c;
out	11110	ra	-	с	V	$IO[c] \leftarrow R [ra];$
reset	11111000	-	-	-	Ζ	TBD;
shiftl	10001	ra	-	с	V	R [ra] ← R [ra]<(7-n)0>©(nα0);
shiftr	10010	ra	-	с	V	$R [ra] \leftarrow (n\alpha 0) \mathbb{C}R [ra] < 7n >;$
store	01010	ra	-	c	V	$M[c] \leftarrow R \overline{[ra]};$
sub	01100	ra	-	-	Y	$R [0] \leftarrow R [0]-R [a];$
subi	01110	ra	-	c	V	$R [ra] \leftarrow R [ra] - (8\alpha c < 7 >) \odot c;$

Symbol	Meaning	Symbol	Meaning
α	Replication	%	Remainder after integer division
©	Concatenation	&	Logical AND
:	Conditional constructs (IF-THEN)	~	Logical OR
;	Sequential constructs	!	Logical NOT or complement
,	Concurrent constructs	<i>←</i>	LOAD or assignment operator

Limitations of the ORIGINAL EAGLE ISA

The original 16-bit ISA of EAGLE has severe limitations, as outlined below.**1.** Use of R0 as accumulator

In most cases, the register R0 is being used as one of the source operands as well as the destination operand. Thus, R0 has essentially become the accumulator. However, this will require some additional instructions for use with the accumulator. That should not be a problem since there are some unused op-codes available in the ISA.

2. Unequal and inefficient op-code assignment The designer has apparently tried to extend the number of operations in the ISA by op-code extension. Op-code 11111 combine three additional bits of the instruction for five instructions: unconditional branch, nop, halt, reset and init.while there is a possibility of including three more instructions in this scheme, notice that op-code 00 for register to register mov is causing a "loss" of eight "slots" in the original 5-bit op-code assignment. (The mov instruction is, in effect, using eight op-codes). A better way would be to assign a 5-bit op-code to mov and use the remaining opcodes for other instructions.

3. Number of the operands

Looking at the **mov** instruction again, it can be noted that this is the only instruction that uses two operands, and thus requires a separate format (Format#1) for instruction enoding. If the job of this instruction is given to two instructions (copy register to accumulator, and copy accumulator to register), the number of instruction formats can be reduced thereby, simplifying the assembler and the compiler needed for this ISA.

4. Use of registers for branch conditions

Note that one of the GPRs is being used to hold the branch condition. This would require that the result from the accumulator be copied to the particular GPR before the branch instruction. Including flags with the ALSU can eliminate this restriction

The Modified EAGLE

The modified EAGLE is an improved version of the processor EAGLE. As we have already discussed, there were several limitations in EAGLE, and these have been remedied in the modified EAGLE processor.

Introduction

The modified EAGLE is also an accumulator-based processor. It is a simple, yet complex enough to illustrate the various concepts of a processor design. The modified EAGLE is characterized by

- A special purpose register, the 16-bit accumulator: ACC
- 8 General Purpose Registers of the CPU: R0, R1, ..., R7; 16-bits each
- Two 16-bit system registers transparent to the programmer are the Program Counter (PC) and the Instruction Register (IR).
- Memory word size: 16 bits
- Memory space size: 2^{16} bytes
- Memory organization: $2^{16} \times 8$ bits
- Memory is accessed in 16 bit words (i.e., 2 byte chunks)
- Little-endian byte storage is employed

Programmer's View of the Modified EAGLE the

The given figure is programmer's view of modified EAGLE processor.

Notation

The notation that is employed for the study of the modified EAGLE is the same as the original EAGLE processor. Recall that we know that:



Enclosing the register name in square brackets refers to register

contents; for instance, R [3] means contents of register R3.

Enclosing the location address in square brackets, preceded by 'M', lets us refer to memory contents. Hence M [8] means contents of memory location 8.

As little endian storage is employed, a **memory word** at address x is defined as the 16 bits at address x+1 and x. For instance, the bits at memory location 9.8 define the memory word at location 8. So employing the special notation for 16-bit memory words, we have

M[8] < 15...0 > = M[9] @M[8]

Where $^{\odot}$ is used to represent concatenation

The memory word access and copy to a register is shown in the figure.

Features

The following features characterize the modified EAGLE processor.

• Instruction length is variable. Instructions are either 8 bits or 16 long, i.e., instruction size is either half a word or 1 word.

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- The instructions may have either one or two operands.
- The only way to access memory is through load and store instructions
- Limited addressing modes are supported

Note that these properties are the same as the original EAGLE processor

Instruction formats

There are four instruction format types in the modified EAGLE processor as well. These are





Encoding of the General Purpose Registers

The encoding for the eight GPRs is shown in the table. These are binary codes assigned to the registers that will be used in place of the ra, rb in the actual instructions of the modified processor EAGLE.

Register	Code	Register	Code
RO	000	R4	100
R1	001	R5	101
R2	010	R6	110
R3	011	R7	111

ISA for the Modified EAGLE

(16-bit registers, 16-bit ACC, PC and IR, 8-bit wide memory, 256 I/O ports)

OperandConstan					
Mnemonic	Op-code	3bits	8 bits	Format	Behavioral RTL
Unused	00111				
addi	00100	ra	C1	Х	ACC \leftarrow R[ra] +(8 α C1<7>) \odot C1;
subi	00101	ra	C1	Х	ACC \leftarrow R[ra] - (8 α C1<7>) \odot C1;
shiftl	01010	ra	C1	Х	$R[ra] \leftarrow R[ra] \leq (15-n)0 \geq \mathbb{O}(n\alpha 0);$
shiftr	01011	ra	C1	Х	$R[ra] \leftarrow (n\alpha 0) @R[ra] < 15n >;$
andi	01100	ra	C1	Х	ACC \leftarrow R[ra] & (8 α C1<7>) \odot C1;
ori	01101	ra	C1	Х	ACC \leftarrow R[ra] ~ (8 α C1<7>) \odot C1;
asr	01110	ra	C1	Х	$R[ra] \leftarrow (n\alpha R[ra] < 15) \otimes R[ra] < 15n >;$
in	10001	ra	C1	Х	$R[ra] \leftarrow IO[C1];$
ldacc	10010	ra	C1	Х	ACC \leftarrow M[R[ra] +(8 α C1<7>) \odot C1];
movir	10100	ra	C1	Х	$R[ra] \leftarrow (8\alpha C1 < 7 >) \odot C1;$
out	10101	ra	C1	Х	$IO[C1] \leftarrow R[ra];$
stacc	10111	ra	C1	Х	$M[R[ra] + (8\alpha C1 < 7 >) \odot C1] \leftarrow ACC;$
movia	10011		C1	W	ACC \leftarrow (8 α C1<7>) \odot C1;
br	11000	-	C1	W	$PC \leftarrow PC + 8\alpha C1 < 7 >) \odot C1;$
brn	11001		C1	W	(S=1): PC \leftarrow PC+(8 α C1<7>) \odot C1;
brnz	11010		C1	W	(Z=0): PC \leftarrow PC+(8 α C1<7>) \odot C1;
brp	11011		C1	W	(S=0): PC \leftarrow PC+(8 α C1<7>) \odot C1;
brz	11100		C1	W	(Z=1): PC \leftarrow PC+(8 α C1<7>) \odot C1;
add	00000	ra	-	Y	$ACC \leftarrow ACC + R[ra];$
sub	00001	ra	-	Y	$ACC \leftarrow ACC - R[a];$
					$ACC \leftarrow (R[ra] \odot ACC)/R[a],$
div	00010	ra	-	Y	
					$R[ra] \leftarrow (R[ra] \otimes ACC) \% R[a];$
mul	00011	ra	-	Y	$R[ra] \odot ACC \leftarrow R[ra]^*ACC;$
and	01000	ra	-	Y	$ACC \leftarrow ACC \& R[ra];$
or	01001	ra	-	Y	$ACC \leftarrow ACC \sim R[ra];$
not	01111	ra	-	Y	ACC $\leftarrow !(R[ra]);$
a2r	10000	ra	-	Y	$R[ra] \leftarrow ACC$
r2a	10110	ra		Y	$ACC \leftarrow R[ra]$
cla	00110			Z	ACC \leftarrow 0;
halt	11101	-	-	Ζ	$RUN \leftarrow 0;$

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nop	11110	-	-	Z	· ·
reset	11111	-	-	Ζ	TBD;

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· ,	Sequential constructs	!	Logical NOT or complement
,	Concurrent constructs	\leftarrow	LOAD or assignment operator