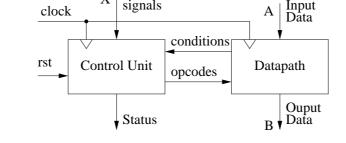
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• A processor is a digital device that implements either general or specialised algorithm described by a multi-step procedure.

Control

• Structurally, a processor consists of the datapath and the control unit .

X

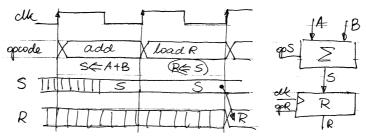


- Both parts of the processor are synchronised with the same clock signal.
- The control unit receives two type of signals: **control signals** like "start of the processing, or " input data ready", etc, from the outside world and **conditions** from the datapath.
- The control unit generates two types of signals: opcodes to blocks of datapath, and **status signals**, e.g. "ready" to the outside world
- The datapath processes input data into output data.

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- A typical datapath consists of
 - registers to store variable of the algorithm
 - ALU and other combinational blocks that implement operation (operators) of the algorithm
 - Step counters that implement the loop counters.
- A typical control unit is a sequential state machine, typically called an **algorithmic state machine**, that implements the structure of the algorithm and generates opcodes to the blocks of the datapath and possibly status signals to the outside world.
- In a typical processor all sequential blocks are synchronised by the same clock signal.
- Therefore, the duration of each processing step, equivalent to one state of the control unit is fixed.
- Assuming that an opcode for a **sequential block** like a register (e.g. load R) is generated during the current clock cycle, the result of the operation is known during the **next clock cycle**.
- Combinational circuits, like adders, form the result during the current clock cycle.



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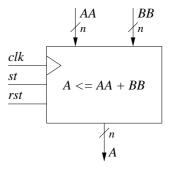
12.1 Example: A bit-serial adder

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• As an example of a very simple processor let us consider a problem of a serial addition of two *n*-bit 2's complement numbers

$$A = A + B$$

- We start with specification of the top level component (entity) and the algorithm to be performed.
- The arguments of the addition and the results are n-bit numbers
- In addition we specify a reset signal, rst, and a start signal st.
- Subsequently we specify the concept of the algorithm in a top-level pseudo-language that can be of the following form:



- $\begin{array}{l} A = AA; \; B = BB; \; c = 0; \\ \text{for} \; \left(k = 0 \; ; \; \; k \leq n \; ; \; \; k + + \right) \{ \\ \quad \left(c, A[k]\right) = A[k] + B[k] + c; \\ \} \end{array}$
- Variables on the left-hand side of the equations are normally need to be stored in registers, hence, we infer that two *n*-bit registers *A* and *B*, and a 1-bit carry register, *c* are needed.

• We shift registers to the right inserting at the vacated position of the A-register the sum s, and B[0] at

the vacated position of the *B*-register, thus implementing cyclic right shift/rotation.

- Since the addition is performed in a serial fashion, a 1-bit adder is needed.
- Finally, a step counter is needed to count the number of speps.

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- We first consider a way of extracting *k*-th bit from a register as required by the algorithm.
- A possible solution is based on using a *n*-to-1 selector/multiplexer driven by the loop variable
- Output from the selector is a required single bit A[k]
- However, there is a simple way of avoiding a selector/multiplexer by shifting the register contents at each step so that the required bit is in a fixed position, say the least significant one, A[0]
- Details are presented in the following modified pseudo-code:

```
 \begin{array}{l} A = AA; \; B = BB; \; c = 0; \\ \text{for } (k = 0 \; ; \; \; k \leq n \; ; \; \; k + + ) \; \{ \\ (d, s) = A[0] + B[0] + c \; ; \\ c = d; \; A = \operatorname{shr}(s, A); \; B = \operatorname{shr}(B[0], B); \\ \} \end{array}
```

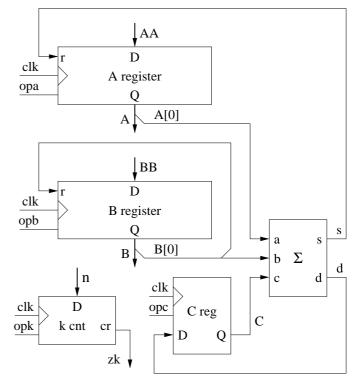
AA clk D opa A register Q A k MuxA A[k]с b а Σ d s

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- A complete **datapath** of the serial adder looks as follows:
- Note that the least significant bits of the A and B registers are being added by the serial adder together with the current carry bit stored in a 1-bit register C.
- The least significant bit of the register B is connected to its serial shift-right input. As a result its contents is restored after *n* cyclic shifts (rotations).
- The step counter loads the number of steps to be performer *n* and counts down to 0 when the signal **zk** is generated.
- For each register and counter, we have to specify the **set/table of operations**, typically some of operations like: hold (nop), load, shift, count, etc.

Details have been discussed in sec. 10.

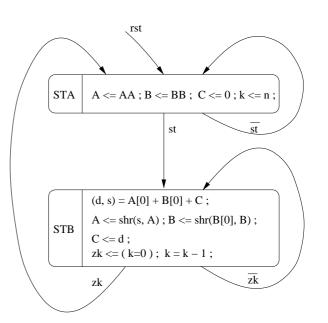


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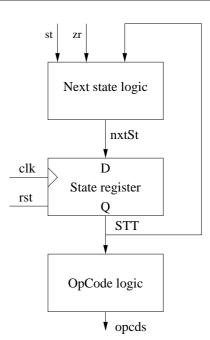
- The control unit
- A good way to start is to prepare a flow-chart of operations in a form of a **state transition diagram** which describes details of the algorithmic state machine.
- Note that the state transition diagram consists of only two states, so that the related state register, STT, will be 1-bit.
- The reset signal **rst** transfers the state machine to its initial state **STA**
- The external control signal, **st** (start), has been added to initialize the addition operation.
- When st = 0 we stay in the initial state STA waiting for the start signal st = 1
- At the rising edge of the clock at the end of the STA sate registers and counters are initialised as indicated.
- The main operation is performed in the state STA wher the sum is formed bit by bit.
- The step counter generates the signal zk indicating the end of summation.



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- The structure of the control unit is typical and consists of
 - the D flip-flops referred to as the **state register** (1-bit in this case),
 - The "Next State" combinational circuit, and
 - The "OpCode logic" that produces the opcodes to all blocks of the datapath.
- In order to properly interpret the state transition diagrams you have to remember that
 - all sequential circuits are updated at the end of the current clock cycle, whereas
 - combinational circuits form results during the current clock cycle.
- This becomes obvious when you analyze the time waveforms.



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Generation of the opcodes

- It can be observed that each datapath block performes only two operations: one in the STA state, the other in the STB state.
- Therefore the **OpCode** logic is trivial and all **opcodes** are equal to **STT**, that is the output from the 1-bit state register.

Next state logic

The next state logic can be derived from the following excitation table:

st	zk	STT	nxtSt
0	_	0	0
1	_	0	1
-	0	1	1
-	1	1	0

$$\mathbf{nxtSt} = \overline{\mathbf{STT}} \cdot \mathbf{st} + \mathbf{STT} \cdot \overline{\mathbf{zk}}$$