Processor Datasheet

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Overview of Features

- 32-bit architecture
- 32 x 64-bit general purpose registers
- 255 x 64-bit data memory registers

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1 Architecture Overview

1.1 Simplified Block Diagram

Figure 1.1. Simplified block diagram of processor

1.2 Description of Architecture Features

1.2.1 Program Counter

The PC is the program counter. The program counter counts by 4 for each instruction the processor executes. The program counter is how the processor knows what line of assembly to execute at any given time.

1.2.2 Instruction Memory

Instruction memory is where you write to/load the information into the register file. This may include changing the value of a register of moving the value of one register to another.

1.2.3 Registers

A register is temporary memory. For the register file, you can either write or read the data that it within each individual register. In total there is 32 x 64-bit registers.

1.2.4 ALU

The arithmetic logic unit (ALU) is the place where all the arithmetic and logic operations happen. The inputs of the ALU are the specific registers that were selected from the register file.

1.2.5 Data Memory

The data memory is another source to store memory. For our design, the data memory is our RAM file.

2 Register File Design

2.1 Figure of Register File Design

Figure 2.1. Register file block diagram.

2.2 Description of Design

This processor contains a register file housing 32 registers, each with 64 bits of memory. This processor's register file has two read busses, as well as one writes bus. To read data from the register file, the read address lines (rdAddrA and rdAddrB) need to be set to the 5-bit binary address of the register for which you wish to read from. Data from the registers will be made available to the ALU on the data output busses rdDataA and rdDataB. To write to the register file, the 5 bits write address (wrAddr) needs to be configured to the register number you wish to write to. The 64 bits of data to write will need to be present and stable on the write data bus (wrData), the write enable will need to be high, and on the next clock pulse, the data will be written to the selected register. All of the output and input busses to the register file are routed to the ALU, while the select addresses are routed to the control unit.

2.3 Testbench Screenshots and Description

Figure 2.2. Cristine's Register File Testbench Screenshot

Within the testbench, there was a random number generator, so we can make sure each register can be written to when the write input is high. It also makes sure that each register can be read from. The fifth line down shows when the write function is high and low. When it is high, you can see all the registers (lines 9 to the end) are all being written to with different numbers. Since the numbers are showing up, it also shows that the register files can be read from. Since none of the register files are being written to when the write function is low, we can conclude that the write input is working properly. With all the parts working individually, we can conclude that our register file works properly.

2.3.2 Krutik

	Reg_testbench/rdAddrA	10110		
	$R = \sqrt{\text{Reg_testbench/rdAddrB}}$	10110		
	Reg_testbench/wrAddr	10111		
	Reg_testbench/wrData			
	/Reg_testbench/write			
	/Reg_testbench/reset			
	/Reg_testbench/clk			
	Reg_testbench/rdDataA		TA TANATA TA TINA TA TANATA TA TINA TA TANATA TA TINA TA TANATA TA TINA TA TINA TA TA TINA TA TA TINA TA TA T	
H-1	Reg_testbench/rdDataB /			
	$R-$ /Req testbench/R00			
	\triangleright /Reg_testbench/R01			
	Reg_testbench/R02			
	$R = \sqrt{Req_t}$ (Reg. testbench/R03			
	$R = \sqrt{Reg_testbench/RO4}$		(0000	
	$R = \sqrt{Reg_testbench/R05}$			
	$R-$ /Reg_testbench/R06			
	$R-$ /Reg_testbench/R07	011111001111110111101001111110011110001100110111001001001100110		
	Reg_testbench/R08			
	$R-$ /Reg_testbench/R09			
	\blacksquare / Reg_testbench/R10			
	$R-$ /Reg_testbench/R11		(0000000000000000000))(01111001001100000110100111110010111001110110110110110110011101110	
	$R = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}$ /Req. testbench/R12			
	$R = \sqrt{Req_t}$ (Reg. testbench/R13			
	$R-$ /Reg_testbench/R14			
	$R = \sqrt{Reg_t}$ (Reg. testbench/R15			
	$R-$ /Reg_testbench/R16			
	$R-$ /Req testbench/R17	0101010101111000010001011010101011001110110011001100110010011101		
	$R-$ /Reg_testbench/R18			
	$R-$ /Req testbench/R19			
	$R-$ /Reg_testbench/R20			
	$R = \sqrt{Req}$ testbench/R21			
	Reg_testbench/R22			
	$R = \sqrt{Reg_testbench/R23}$			
	Reg_testbench/R24			
	R - \leftrightarrow /Reg_testbench/R25			
	$R = \sqrt{Reg_testbench/R26}$			
	R - \leftrightarrow /Reg_testbench/R27			
	$R-$ /Req testbench/R28			
	$R-$ /Req testbench/R29			
	$R-$ /Reg_testbench/R30			
	$R-$ /Reg_testbench/R31			
	Now	0.645 _{ns}	0.2 _{ns} 0.3 _{ns} 0.4 _{ns} 0.1ns 0.5 _{ns} 0.6 ns	. 1
	Cursor 1	0.556 ns	0.556 ns	

Figure 2.3. Krutik's Register File Testbench Screenshot

Similarly, to Cristine's testbench simulation, the random number generator is used to write to the registers using randomly generated values. The registers are being written to when the write input is high, and the registers will stop taking data when the write input is low. Since the numbers are visible for all registers, that means the read variables are working as well. The figure above is just the output values being read from the register. When the registers are being read a constant line of zeros, that just means the register has yet to be written to at that point in time. Every time the clock goes high the next register will get data, as long as the write enable is high as well. This testbench is merely just writing to and reading from the 64-bit registers.

2.3.3 Logan

Figure 2.4. Logan's Register File Testbench Screenshot

As you can see in [Figure 2.4](#page-9-1) [above,](#page-9-1) the testbench is storing and extracting data from the register file. To test the register file with many different scenarios, a random number generator was created in the testbench file. The random number generator was configured to generate 64-bit binary numbers and write them into the 32 registers of the register file (numbered 0 through 31). Looking at the results on the right side of the testbench, we can see the triangle of zeros on the left side of the output window. Since all registers started with 64 zeros in them, this makes sense to see. Since only one register is written at a time, we can see the triangle effect that advances down one step each time the clock goes high. We can see that at once all the registers have been written, the write line is pulled to zero, and all of the registers hold their data as they are supposed to.

3 ALU Design

3.1 Figure of ALU

Figure 3.1. General ALU Layout

3.2 Function Select Codes and RTL Operations

To understand what function to preform, the ALU needs to have its function select bits set by the control unit. The 5-bit options [below](#page-10-5) i[n Table 3.1](#page-10-5) show the function select bits required for the desired RTL operations in the right column to take place.

Table 3.1. Function selects codes and RTL Operations.

3.3 Description of Design and Optimization Steps

The processor's arithmetic logic unit (ALU) is the heart of the processor. Its job is to perform the requested mathematical operation provided by the programmer in assembly form. The ALU has two 64 bit busses as inputs that are passed to it from the register file. To control the operation to perform with the inputs, there is a 5-bit function select input. When processing the function select input, the

processor uses the first three bits (bits 4:2) to determine which operation to perform. The last two bits of the input (bits 1:0) are used denote whether the ALU needs to invert the A or B bus inputs.

The ALU has two outputs, the 64-bit output data bus and a 4-bit status output. The 64-bit output data bus is routed to the write data bus of the register file, while the status signal is routed to the control unit. As you can see i[n Table 3.2](#page-11-3) [below,](#page-11-3) the four status lines each have their own purpose, and are all fed into the control unit.

Stat bit	Signal	Description
Ω	7	(zero) the result from operation
		is zero.
	N	(negative) indicates if the result
		was negative.
	C	(Carry out) indicates overflow of
		unsigned arithmetic.
		Indicated overflow of signed
		arithmetic.

Table 3.2. Status bit functions

3.4 Testbench Design

The testbenches below showcase different functions of the ALU. Note that not all the functions that the ALU can compute are shown below, however we have tried to provide some of the core functions in the testbenches shown. Below i[s Table 3.3](#page-11-4) which shows all of the logic operations that the ALU can compute.

3.4.1 Cristine

$\blacksquare \rightarrow \rightarrow \blacksquare$ /ALU_TB/A		4 I D'										
\rightarrow /ALU_TB/B												
\rightarrow /ALU_TB/FS	00100	00000	00.LL	TOILL	101	110 110 111		111	101	101	ľ01	100
\leftrightarrow /ALU_TB/Cin												
\Box /ALU_TB/F		(000000000	100	100	100			100	100	$[00$ 11		-100
\blacksquare /ALU_TB/stat	10000	(0000						10001 10000	11100 10000			
ALU_TB/Cout									<i>TARALLE</i>			

Figure 3.2. Cristine's ALU Testbench

The lines in order are variables A, B, FS (function select), Cin, F(output), stat, Cout. To determine if the value is correct, you have to test all of the function select bits and test different values of A and B. For the example that is selected on, $A = 1101$, $B=1$, $FS=00100$, $Cin=1$, $F=1101$, stat =0000 and Cout=0. The function select bits are selected on the or function. This means is either A or B has a 1 value the output will have the same output value. This is correct for our function since all of the positions with 1's in it has 1. The stat being 0000 means that it does not meet any of the signal description; it is our default function. It means that the result is not zero or negative and there is no overflow. This is true for this case.

A /ALU_TB/A												
\mathbf{B} /ALU_TB/B	Innonnon	00000000000								nonnonndonoon		
/ALU_TB/FS	01000	00000	100100							f nannn	01000	nuuuu 00000
//ALU_TB/Cin												
B- ALU_TB/F		(0000000000000	[0000		0000.11	10000	00000.	10000	(0000 л.	0000	0000	0000
ALU_TB/stat	0000	10000					1000.			0000		
A /ALU TB/Cout									22222		,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	

Figure 3.3. Krutik's ALU Testbench

When FS is selected at 01000, this operation is A+B. A = 1101, and B = 0110. Theoretically, since this is a 64-bit number, there is no carry bit and the last 5 bits of the operation would result in 10011 when you add A and B, and this is evident in the testbench simulation above. Since the result is not zero, negative, and no overflow, the status signal is 0000. This testbench simulation shows that it is doing the required functions.

3.4.3 Logan

Figure 3.4. Logan's ALU Testbench

In [Figure 3.4](#page-12-3) [above,](#page-12-3) you can see that the ALU is preforming an XOR operation using data from a simulated register file. Input A is set to 1101 and input B is set to 0110. Computing the XOR of these two 4-bit numbers gives the result of 1011, which we can see the ALU reports on the "F" line above in the grey region. The ALU also output the status as 0000, which is correct for this combination of inputs and outputs. This shows that the ALU's XOR function is working correctly. Other team members have tested different functions of the ALU in their testbenches.

4 Memory Organization

4.1 Memory Address Spaces

Figure 4.1. Schematic of RAM

4.2 Design and Implementation

When RAM is placed into the top-level entity, it acts as a short-term data storage that you can write to. The RAM stores the information that your computer is currently using. The bigger the RAM, the more programs the computer can run since it can allocate more memory to it. For our specific RAM, the memory is 255 bits with 64 different registers. It has a write function to prevent the function from being written to and read from simultaneously.

Figure 4.2. RAM Testbench

To test the processor's memory, we created a testbench that wrote and read random data to the RAM to make sure that it was fully functional. One set of results can be seen [above](#page-13-5) in [Figure 4.2.](#page-13-5) The RAM address to write to is incremented each clock cycle as you can see on the first line of the testbench. The RAM data input line is connected to a 64-bit random number generator. The write line on the RAM is pulled high, so each time we change the address and data, the data is written to the specified address. We can verify that this is working by looking at the RAM output line. For the first clock cycle, we see a red line – this is normal since there is nothing in the RAM at this point. The RAM is configured to output values on the negative clock edge, while it writes values on the positive clock edge as it cannot do both

simultaneously, it will cause errors when reading and writing to the same memory address. After the first negative clock edge, we can see that the output of the memory is what the input was before (in the first case – all zeros). During the next clock cycle, the random number is changed, and once the clock edge falls, you can see that the RAM reports the same random number on the output line.

5 Datapath

Figure 5.1. Process of Instructor Register

5.2 Figure of Program Counter Design and Description

Figure 5.2. Diagram of Program Counter (Note all 32-bit inputs should be 64-bit)

The program counter is the portion of the processor that keeps track of what line of assembly in the program is being executed. The program counter increments by 4 for each instruction it runs.

5.3 Figure of Datapath

Figure 5.3. ARM Processor Datapath

5.4 Control Word

assign {PS, DA, SA, SB, FS, regW, ramW, EN_MEM, EN_ALU, EN_B, EN_PC, selB, PCsel, SL} = controlWord;

Table 5.1. Control Signals, Their Function and What Each Value Does

Control Word Portion	Name	Description	Values
[30:29]	PS	Program Counter Control	$00: PC \leftarrow PC$ $01: PC < - PC + 4$ $10: PC < - in$ 11: PC $<-$ PC + 4 + in $*$ 4
[28:24]	DA	Register Data Address (Write Register #)	5-bit select for 32 registers
[23:19]	SA	Register A Address (Read Register # A)	5-bit select for 32 registers
[18:14]	SB	Register B Address (Read Register # B)	5-bit select for 32 registers
[13:9]	FS	Function Select	FS[0]: B Invert FS[1]: A Invert 000XX: AND 001XX: OR 010XX: ADD 011XX: XOR 100XX: SHIFT LEFT 101XX: SHIFT RIGHT
[8]	regW	Write to Register (Write)	0: Don't write 1: Write
$[7]$	ramW	Write to RAM (RAMWrite)	0: Don't write 1: Write
[6]	EN_MEM	Enable RAM on Data Bus	0: Don't use 1: Use
[5]	EN_ALU	Enable ALU on Data Bus	0: Don't use 1: Use
$[4]$	EN_B	Enable Register B output on Data Bus	0: Don't use 1: Use
$[3]$	EN_PC	Enable PC+4 output on Data Bus	0: Don't use 1: Use

5.5 Description of Design Choices and Capabilities of Datapath

The Datapath is determined by the control word. Based on the control word, different values will be set to all of the variables. It does this by accessing different modules within the program. This will allow to processor to do operations like addition, branching and moving.

5.6 Testbench

We did not finish the control unit so we could not build a complete Datapath. But we did finish the program counter, so here is a testbench for that.

	Msgs		
\leftrightarrow /PC_TB/dock			
PC_TB/reset			
P^4 /PC_TB/pc_in			
P^{\prime} PC_TB/ps	11		
P^{\prime} /PC_TB/pc_out		(00000000	
P^4 /PC_TB/PC4		(00000000	
△顧● Now	190293720 ps	100 ps 50 _{ps}	150 ps 200 ps 250 ps
6/6 Cursor 1	145 _{ps}	145 ps	

Figure 5.4. Program counter testbench.

As you can see in [Figure 5.4](#page-17-2) [above,](#page-17-2) the program counter is counting by 4 each time a clock cycle passes. When the processor is reset, it clears out the program counter, so the code execution returns to the first line.

6 Control Unit

6.1 Figure(s) of Control unit design
 Control Unit of a Basic Computer:

Figure 6.1. Control unit depiction

6.2 State diagram of control unit

Figure 6.2. Control unit state diagram

6.3 Description of design approach

For each type data type, we created a table. Within each data type, there are different operations that needed to be accomplished. For each one of those there was a column made. From there, each column was filled with the values needed to achieve those.

After all of the tables were filled, it was transferred to code. Each operation got their own module, which would set the values needed to the respective variable.

6.4 Description of CU registers

Table 6.1. Control Signal Descriptions

6.5 Description of testing done and testbench design.

For the test bench, we tested each control word individually. Mathematically, we can determine what the output values would be from the input values. Our hand calculations would then be compared to the outcome. If they were the same, then we knew it was correct.

7 CPU

7.1 Figure of Datapath, control unit, and memories.

Figure 7.1. CPU Block Diagram

7.2 Description of testing done to validate the CPU and the testbench design.

The best way for us to test the CPU is for us to write a meaningful program in assembly and run it on the CPU. Since we were unable to complete the datapath, we were unable to run code on our CPU.

8 Instruction Set

8.1 Section for common Instructions:

8.1.1 Table of opcode field descriptions / terminology

Table 8.1. Assembly Instructions to Opcode

8.1.2 Figure of instruction formats

Figure 8.1. Bitfield addresses for different instruction formats

8.1.3 Table of instruction set summary

Table 8.2. Instruction Set Summary

8.1.4 Table of instructions and control words

Table 8.3. Branch Control Word

	B	BL	B.cond	CBZ	CBNZ	BR
PS	11	11				
DA	11111	11111	XXXXX	XXXXX	XXXXX	XXXXX
SA	11111	11111	XXXXX	XXXXX	XXXXX	XXXXX
SB	11111	11111	XXXXX	XXXXX	XXXXX	XXXXX
FS	00000	00000	00000	00000	00000	00000
regW	0		0	1	1	0
ramW	0	0	1	1	1	1
EN MEM	0	0	0	0	0	0

Table 8.4. Arithmetic Control Word

Table 8.5. Arithmetic Immediate Control Word

Table 8.7. Wide Immediate Control Word

	MOVZ	MOVK
PS	01	01
DA	XXXXX	XXXXX
SA	XXXXX	XXXXX
SB	XXXXX	XXXXX
FS	0100	0100
regW	1	1
ramW	0	0
EN MEM	0	0
EN ALU	1	1
EN B	$\overline{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$
EN PC	1	1
selB	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$
PCsel	0	1
SL	0	0
nextS	01	01

Table 8.8. Data Transfer Control Word

8.1.5 Detailed instruction set list and descriptions

MOVZ moves an immediate value (16-bit value) to a register, and all the other bits outside the immediate value are set to Zero.

MOVK moves an immediate value (16-bit value) to a register, and all the other bits outside the immediate value remain the same.

9 Programming Examples

9.1 Section for each team member's program

Each member worked on the code together to make one collective script.

9.1.1 Table of assembly instructions and binary instruction words

Refer to the tables within section 8.1.4.

9.1.2 Description of what your program does

The program takes in a control word which dictates the Datapath. This will determine what signals are off and on. From there values are added into the registers and the operation is done within the ALU.

10 Performance

Performance can be improved by allowing the length of the control word to be changed. If it changes, then the time it takes for the program to run would be shortened. The same goes for the ALU and Register file. If the number within the files are small enough to be represented by a smaller number of bits, then it should be. Adding a pipelined datapath would also increase the overall speed of the processor due to not waiting for each instruction to make it all of the way thorough the CPU. We could also add some peripherals for more versatility in real world applications.

11 Errata

11.1 Listing of features that do not work as expected.

- 1. Control unit
- 2. Datapath

11.2 Description with as much detail as is known about why these problems exist.

The control unit and Datapath were a part of the same lab. The group was having trouble determining the values for the different variables such as PS and DA. We could not figure out all the values for each one. This caused the code to not function properly. In the end, we did not have enough time to work out all the different values, so that the control unit and Datapath could properly work.