

Chapter – 3 Control Unit

3.1 Control Memory

- The function of the *control unit* in a digital computer is to initiate *sequences of microoperations*.
- When the control signals are generated by hardware using conventional logic design techniques, the control unit is said to be *hardwired*.
- *Microprogramming* is a second alternative for designing the control unit of a digital computer.
 - The principle of microprogramming is an elegant and systematic method for controlling the microoperation sequences in a digital computer.
- In a bus-organized systems, the control signals that specify microoperations are groups of bits that select the paths in multiplexers, decoders, and arithmetic logic units.
- A control unit whose binary control variables are stored in memory is called a *microprogrammed control unit*.
- A memory that is part of a control unit is referred to as a *control memory*.
 - Each word in control memory contains within it a microinstruction.
 - A sequence of microinstructions constitutes a microprogram.
 - Can be either read-only memory(*ROM*) or writable control memory (*dynamic microprogramming*)
- A computer that employs a microprogrammed control unit will have two separate memories:
 - A main memory
 - A control memory
- The general configuration of a microprogrammed control unit is demonstrated in the block diagram of Fig. 3.1.
 - The *control memory* is assumed to be a ROM, within which all control information is permanently stored.
 - The *control address register* specifies the address of the microinstruction.
 - The *control data register* holds the microinstruction read from memory.
- Thus a microinstruction contains bits for initiating microoperations in the data processor part and bits that determine the address sequence for the control memory.

Extra Stuff:

Microprogram

- Program stored in memory that generates all the control signals required to execute the instruction set correctly
- Consists of microinstructions

Microinstruction

- ❖ Contains a control word and a sequencing word
 - Control Word - All the control information required for one clock cycle
 - Sequencing Word - Information needed to decide the next microinstruction address
- ❖ Vocabulary to write a microprogram

Control Memory (Control Storage: CS)

- Storage in the microprogrammed control unit to store the microprogram

Writeable Control Memory (Writeable Control Storage: WCS)

- ❖ CS whose contents can be modified
 - Allows the microprogram can be changed
 - Instruction set can be changed or modified

Dynamic Microprogramming

- Computer system whose control unit is implemented with a microprogram in WCS
- Microprogram can be changed by a systems programmer or a user

Microrogrammed Sequencer

- The next address generator is sometimes called a *microprogram sequencer*, as it determines the address sequence that is read from control memory.
- Typical functions of a microprogram sequencer are:
 - Incrementing the control address register by one
 - Loading into the control address register an address from control memory
 - Transferring an external address
 - Loading an initial address to start the control operations

Pipeline Register

- The data register is sometimes called a *pipeline register*.
 - It allows the execution of the microoperations specified by the control word simultaneously with the generation of the next microinstruction.
 - This configuration requires a *two-phase clock*
 - The system can operate by applying a *single-phase clock* to the address register.
 - Without the control data register
 - Thus, the control word and next-address information are taken directly from the control memory.

Advantages

- The main advantage of the microprogrammed control is the fact that once the hardware configuration is established; there should be no need for further hardware or wiring change.
- Most computers based on the reduced instruction set computer (RISC) architecture concept use *hardwired control* rather than a *control memory with a microprogram*. (Why?)

A Microprogram Control Unit that determines the Microinstruction Address to be executed in the next clock cycle

- In-line Sequencing
- Branch
- Conditional Branch
- Subroutine
- Loop
- Instruction OP-code mapping

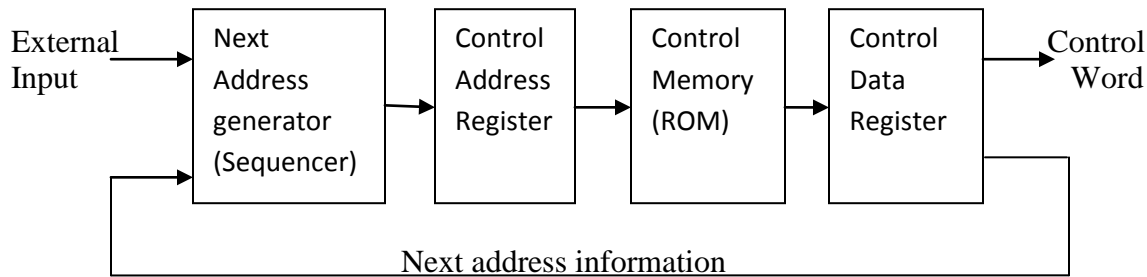


Fig 3-1: Microprogrammed Control Organization

3.2 Addressing sequencing

- Microinstructions are stored in control memory in groups, with each group specifying a *routine*.
- Each computer instruction has its own microprogram routine in control memory to generate the microoperations that execute the instruction.
- To appreciate the address sequencing in a microprogram control unit:
 - An initial address is loaded into the control address register when power is turned on in the computer.
 - This address is usually the address of the first microinstruction that activates the instruction fetch routine.
 - The control memory next must go through the routine that determines the effective address of the operand.
 - The next step is to generate the microoperations that execute the instruction fetched from memory.
- The transformation from the instruction code bits to an address in control memory where the routine is located is referred to as a *mapping* process.
- The address sequencing capabilities required in a control memory are:
 - Incrementing of the control address register
 - Unconditional branch or conditional branch, depending on status bit conditions
 - A mapping process from the bits of the instruction to an address for control memory
 - A facility for subroutine call and return
- Fig. 3-2 shows a block diagram of a control memory and the associated hardware needed for selecting the next microinstruction address.
- The microinstruction in control memory contains
 - a set of bits to initiate microoperations in computer registers
 - Other bits to specify the method by which the next address is obtained

Sequencing Capabilities Required in Control Storage

- Incrementing of the control address register
- Unconditional and conditional branches
- A mapping process from the bits of the machine instruction to an address for control memory
- A facility for subroutine call and return

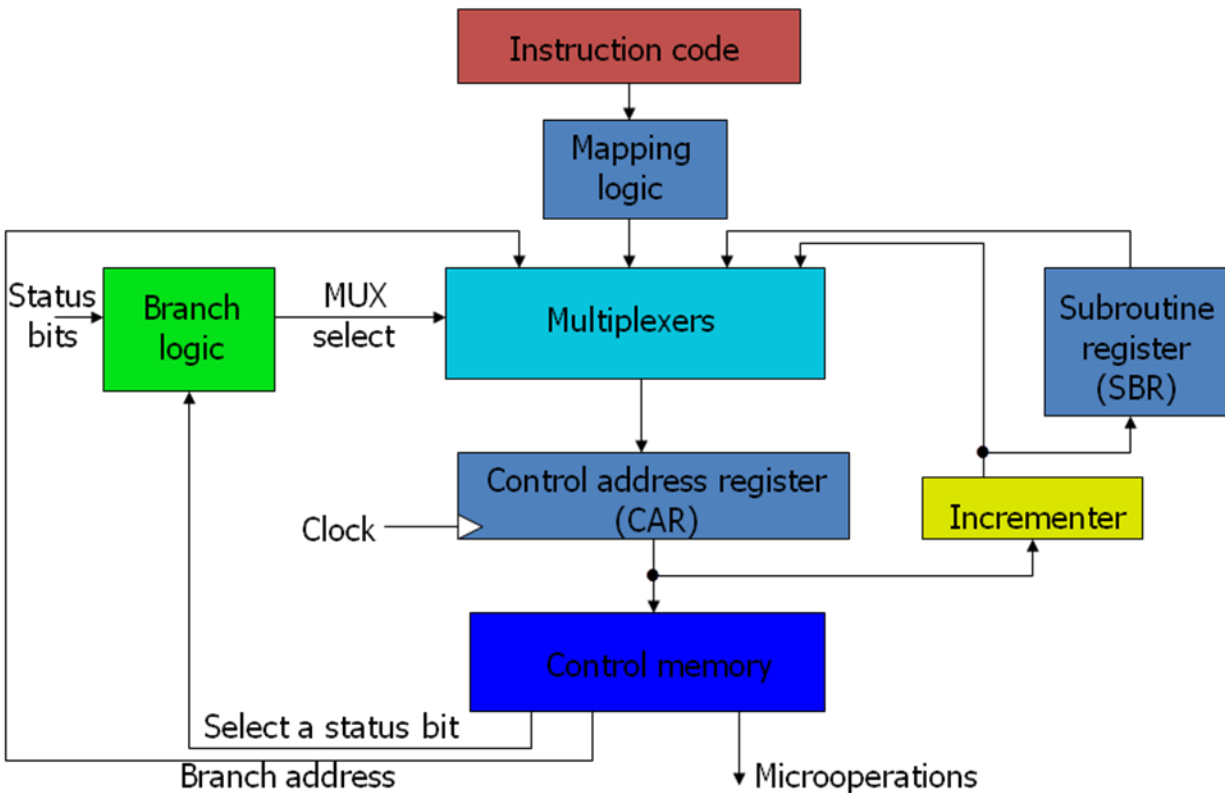


Fig 3-2: Selection of address for control memory

Conditional Branching

- The branch logic of Fig. 3-2 provides decision-making capabilities in the control unit.
- The status conditions are special bits in the system that provides parameter information.
 - e.g. the carry-out, the sign bit, the mode bits, and input or output status
- The status bits, together with the field in the microinstruction that specifies a branch address, control the conditional branch decisions generated in the branch logic.
- The branch logic hardware may be implemented by multiplexer.
 - Branch to the indicated address if the condition is met;
 - Otherwise, the address register is incremented.
- An unconditional branch microinstruction can be implemented by loading the branch address from control memory into the control address register.
- If Condition is true, then Branch (address from the next address field of the current microinstruction)
else Fall Through
- Conditions to Test: O(overflow), N(negative), Z(zero), C(carry), etc.

Unconditional Branch

- Fixing the value of one status bit at the input of the multiplexer to 1

Mapping of Instructions

- A special type of branch exists when a microinstruction specifies a branch to the first word in control memory where a microprogram routine for an instruction is located.

- The status bits for this type of branch are the bits in the operation code part of the instruction.
- One simple mapping process that converts the 4-bit operation code to a 7-bit address for control memory is shown in Fig. 3-3.
 - Placing a 0 in the most significant bit of the address
 - Transferring the four operation code bits
 - Clearing the two least significant bits of the control address register
- This provides for each computer instruction a microprogram routine with a capacity of *four microinstructions*.
 - If the routine needs *more than* four microinstructions, it can use addresses 1000000 through 1111111.
 - If it uses *fewer than* four microinstructions, the unused memory locations would be available for other routines.
- One can extend this concept to a more general mapping rule by using a *ROM* or *programmable logic device (PLD)* to specify the mapping function.

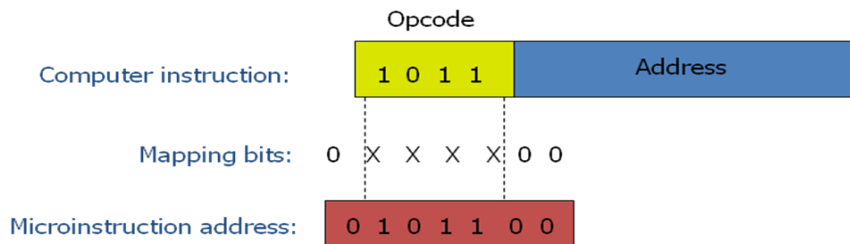


Fig 3-3: Mapping from instruction code to microinstruction address

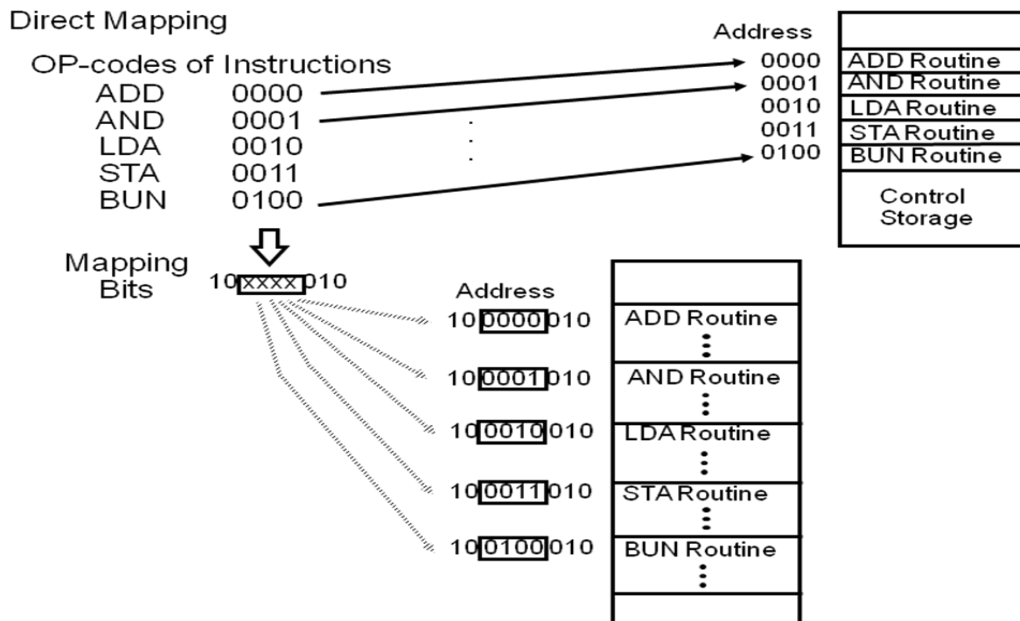


Fig 3-3 (a): Direct mapping

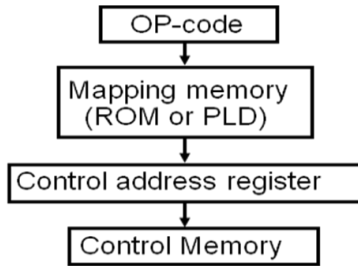


Fig 3-3 (b): Mapping Function Implemented by ROM and PLD

Mapping from the OP-code of an instruction to the address of the Microinstruction which is the starting microinstruction of its execution microprogram.

Subroutine

- Subroutines are programs that are used by other routines to accomplish a particular task.
- Microinstructions can be saved by employing subroutines that use common sections of microcode.
- e.g. effective address computation
- The subroutine register can then become the source for transferring the address for the return to the main routine.
- The best way to structure a register file that stores addresses for subroutines is to organize the registers in a last-in, first-out (LIFO) stack.

3.3 Computer configuration

- Once the configuration of a computer and its microprogrammed control unit is established, the designer's task is to generate the *microcode* for the control memory.
- This microcode generation is called *microprogramming*.
- The block diagram of the computer is shown in Below Fig.
- Two memory units
 - A main memory for storing instructions and data
 - A control memory for storing the microprogram
- Four registers are associated with the processor unit
 - Program counter *PC*, address register *AR*, data register *DR*, accumulator register *AC*
- The control unit has a control address register *CAR* and a subroutine register *SBR*.
- The control memory and its register are organized as a *microprogrammed control unit*, as shown in Fig. 3-2.
- The transfer of information among the registers in the processor is done through *multiplexers rather than a common bus*.

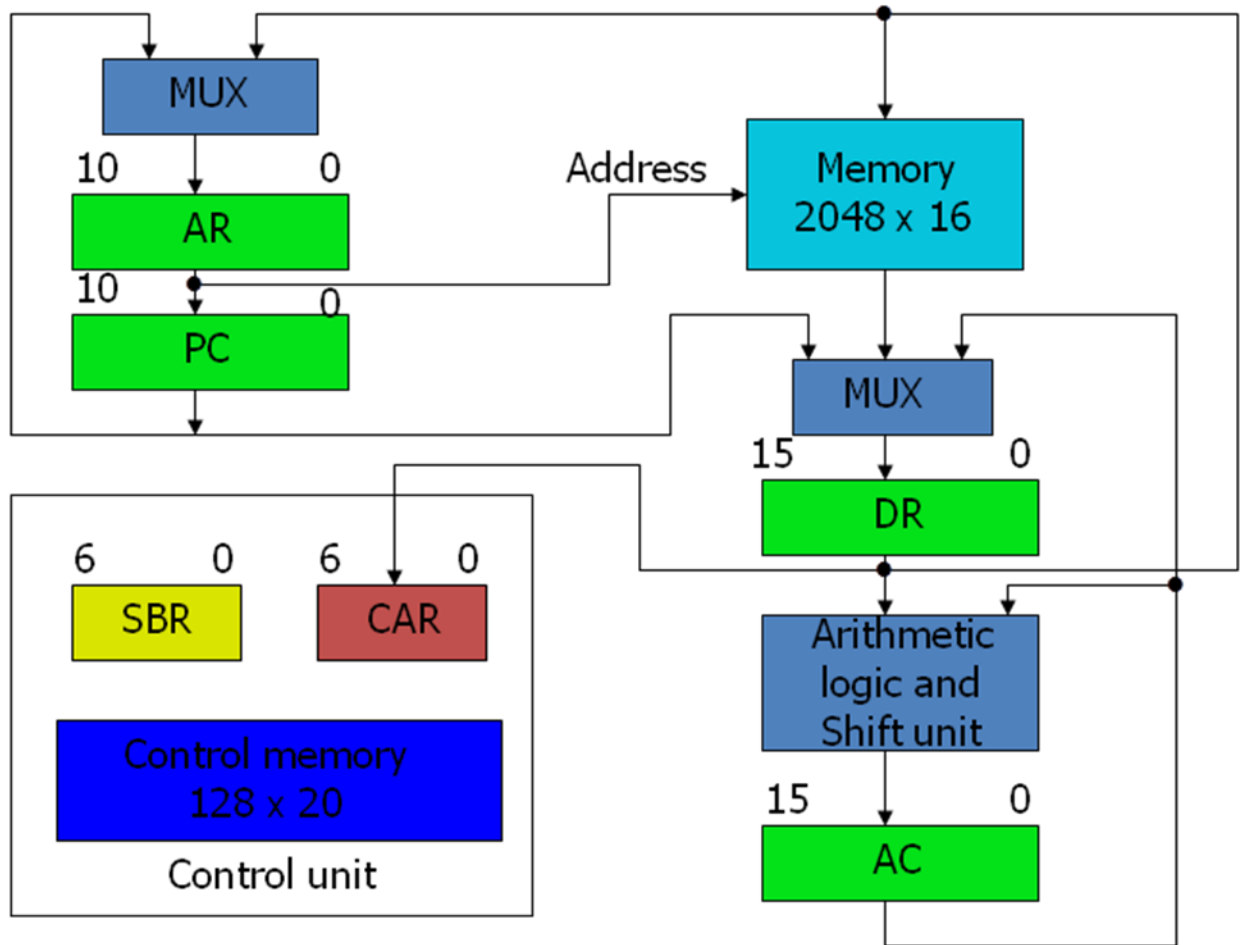


Fig 3-4: Computer hardware configuration

3.4 Microinstruction Format

Computer Instruction Format

- The computer instruction format is depicted in Fig. 3-5(a).
- It consists of three fields:
 - A 1-bit field for indirect addressing symbolized by *I*
 - A 4-bit operation code (*opcode*)
 - An 11-bit address field
- Fig. 3-5(b) lists four of the 16 possible memory-reference instructions.



Fig. 3-5 (a): Instruction Format

Symbol	Opcode	Description
ADD	0000	$AC \leftarrow AC + M[EA]$
BRANCH	0001	If($AC < 0$) then ($PC \leftarrow EA$)
STORE	0010	$M[EA] \leftarrow AC$
EXCHANGE	0011	$AC \leftarrow M[EA], M[EA] \leftarrow AC$

EA is the effective address

Fig 3-5 (b): Four Computer Instructions

Microinstruction Format

- The microinstruction format for the control memory is shown in Fig. 3-6.
- The 20 bits of the microinstruction are divided into four functional parts.
 - The three fields F1, F2, and F3 specify *microoperations* for the computer.
 - The CD field selects *status bit conditions*.
 - The BR field specifies *the type of branch*.
 - The AD field contains a *branch address*.



F1, F2, F3: Microoperation fields

CD: Condition for branching

BR: Branch field

AD: Address field

Fig 3-6: Microinstruction code format

Microoperations

- The three bits in each field are encoded to specify *seven distinct microoperations* as listed in Table 3-1.
 - No more than *three* microoperations can be chosen for a microinstruction, one from each field.
 - If fewer than three microoperations are used, one or more of the fields will use the binary code 000 for no operation.
- It is important to realize that two or more conflicting microoperations cannot be specified simultaneously. e.g. 010 001 000
- Each microoperation in Table 3-1 is defined with a register transfer statement and is assigned a symbol for use in a *symbolic microprogram*.

F1	Microoperation	Symbol
000	None	NOP
001	$AC \leftarrow AC + DR$	ADD
010	$AC \leftarrow 0$	CLRAC
011	$AC \leftarrow AC + 1$	INAC
100	$AC \leftarrow DR$	DRTAC
101	$AR \leftarrow DR(0-10)$	DRTAR
110	$AR \leftarrow PC$	PCTAR
111	$M[AR] \leftarrow DR$	WRITE

F2	Microoperation	Symbol
000	None	NOP
001	$AC \leftarrow AC - DR$	SUB
010	$AC \leftarrow AC \vee DR$	OR
011	$AC \leftarrow AC \wedge DR$	AND
100	$DR \leftarrow M[AR]$	READ
101	$DR \leftarrow AC$	ACTDR
110	$DR \leftarrow DR + 1$	INCDR
111	$DR(0-10) \leftarrow PC$	PCTDR

F3	Microoperation	Symbol
000	None	NOP
001	$AC \leftarrow AC \oplus DR$	XOR
010	$AC \leftarrow \overline{AC}$	COM
011	$AC \leftarrow shl AC$	SHL
100	$AC \leftarrow shr AC$	SHR
101	$PC \leftarrow PC + 1$	INPC
110	$PC \leftarrow AR$	ARTPC
111	Reserved	

CD	Condition	Symbol	Comments
00	Always = 1	U	Uncondition branch
01	DR(15)	I	Indirect address bit
10	AC(15)	S	Sign bit of AC
11	AC = 0	Z	Zero value in AC

BR	Symbol	Function
00	JMP	CAR \leftarrow AD if condition = 1 CAR \leftarrow CAR +1 if condition = 0
01	CALL	CAR \leftarrow AD, SBR \leftarrow CAR +1 if condition = 1 CAR \leftarrow CAR +1 if condition = 0
10	RET	CAR \leftarrow SBR (Return from subroutine)
11	MAP	CAR(2-5) \leftarrow DR(11-14), CAR(0, 1, 6) \leftarrow 0

Table 3-1 : Symbols and Binary code for Microinstruction Fields

Condition and Branch Field

- The CD field consists of two bits which are encoded to specify four status bit conditions as listed in Table 3-1.
- The BR field consists of two bits. It is used, in conjunction with the address field AD, to choose the address of the next microinstruction.
 - The *jump and call* operations depend on the value of the CD field.
 - The two operations are identical except that a call microinstruction stores the *return address* in the subroutine register SBR.
 - Note that the last two conditions in the BR field are *independent of* the values in the CD and AD fields.

3.5 Symbolic Microinstructions

- The symbols defined in Table 3-1 can be used to specify microinstructions in symbolic form.
- Symbols are used in microinstructions as in assembly language
- The simplest and most straightforward way to formulate an assembly language for a microprogram is to define symbols for each field of the microinstruction and to give users the capability for defining their own symbolic addresses.
- A symbolic microprogram can be translated into its binary equivalent by a microprogram assembler.

Sample Format

Five fields: label; micro-ops; CD; BR; AD

- The label field: may be empty or it may specify a symbolic address terminated with a colon
- The microoperations field: of one, two, or three symbols separated by commas, the NOP symbol is used when the microinstruction has no microoperations
- The CD field: one of the letters {U, I, S, Z} can be chosen where
 - U: Unconditional Branch
 - I: Indirect address bit
 - S: Sign of AC
 - Z: Zero value in AC
- The BR field: contains one of the four symbols {JMP, CALL, RET, MAP}
- The AD field: specifies a value for the address field of the microinstruction with one of {Symbolic address, NEXT, empty}
 - When the BR field contains a RET or MAP symbol, the AD field is left empty

Fetch Subroutine

During FETCH, Read an instruction from memory and decode the instruction and update PC.

- The first 64 words are to be occupied by the routines for the 16 instructions.
- The last 64 words may be used for any other purpose.
 - A convenient starting location for the fetch routine is address 64.
- The three microinstructions that constitute the fetch routine have been listed in three different representations.

- The register transfer representation:

```
AR ← PC
DR ← M[AR], PC ← PC + 1
AR ← DR(0-10), CAR(2-5) ← DR(11-14), CAR(0,1,6) ← 0
```

- The symbolic representation:

```
FETCH:   ORG 64
          PCTAR      U JMP NEXT
          READ.INCPC U JMP NEXT
          DRTAR      U MAP
```

- The binary representation:

Binary address	F1	F2	F3	CD	BR	AD
1000000	110	000	000	00	00	1000001
1000001	000	100	101	00	00	1000010
1000010	101	000	000	00	11	0000000

3.6 Symbolic Microprogram

- Control Storage: 128 20-bit words
- The first 64 words: Routines for the 16 machine instructions 0, 4, 8, ..., 60 gives four words in control memory for each routine.
- The last 64 words: Used for other purpose (e.g., fetch routine and other subroutines)
- The execution of the third (MAP) microinstruction in the fetch routine results in a branch to address 0xxxx00, where xxxx are the four bits of the operation code. e.g. ADD is 0000
- In each routine we must provide microinstructions for evaluating the effective address and for executing the instruction.
- The indirect address mode is associated with all memory-reference instructions.
- A saving in the number of control memory words may be achieved if the microinstructions for the indirect address are stored as a subroutine.
- This subroutine, INDRCT, is located right after the fetch routine, as shown in Table 3-2.
- Mapping: OP-code XXXX into 0XXXX00, the first address for the 16 routines are 0(0 0000 00), 4(0 0001 00), 8, 12, 16, 20, ..., 60

- To see how the transfer and return from the indirect subroutine occurs:
 - MAP microinstruction caused a branch to address 0
 - The first microinstruction in the ADD routine calls subroutine INDRCT when $I=1$
 - The return address is stored in the subroutine register *SBR*.
 - The INDRCT subroutine has two microinstructions:
INDRCT: READ U JMP NEXT
DRTAR U RET
 - Therefore, the memory has to be accessed to get the effective address, which is then transferred to *AR*.
 - The execution of the ADD instruction is carried out by the microinstructions at addresses 1 and 2
 - The first microinstruction reads the operand from memory into *DR*.
 - The second microinstruction performs an add microoperation with the content of *DR* and *AC* and then jumps back to the beginning of the fetch routine.

Label	Microoperations	CD	BR	AD
ADD:	ORG 0			
	NOP	I	CALL	INDRCT
	READ	U	JMP	NEXT
	ADD	U	JMP	FETCH
BRANCH:	ORG 4			
	NOP	S	JMP	OVER
	NOP	U	JMP	FETCH
OVER:	NOP	I	CALL	INDRCT
	ARTPC	U	JMP	FETCH
STORE:	ORG 8			
	NOP	I	CALL	INDRCT
	ACTDR	U	JMP	NEXT
	WRITE	U	JMP	FETCH
EXCHANGE:	ORG 12			
	NOP	I	CALL	INDRCT
	READ	U	JMP	NEXT
	ACTDR, DRTAC	U	JMP	NEXT
	WRITE	U	JMP	FETCH
FETCH:	ORG 64			
	PCTAR	U	JMP	NEXT
	READ, INCPC	U	JMP	NEXT
INDRCT:	DRTAR	U	MAP	
	READ	U	JMP	NEXT
	DRTAR	U	RET	

Table 3-2: Symbolic Microprogram for Control Memory (Partial)

Binary Microprogram

- The symbolic microprogram must be translated to binary either by means of an assembler program or by the user if the microprogram is simple.
- The equivalent binary form of the microprogram is listed in Table 7-3.
- Even though address 3 is not used, some binary value, e.g. all 0's, must be specified for each word in control memory.
- However, if some unforeseen error occurs, or if a noise signal sets CAR to the value of 3, it will be wise to jump to address 64.

Micro Routine	Address		Binary microinstruction					
	Decimal	Binary	F1	F2	F3	CD	BR	AD
ADD	0	0000000	000	000	000	01	01	1000011
	1	0000001	000	100	000	00	00	0000010
	2	0000010	001	000	000	00	00	1000000
	3	0000011	000	000	000	00	00	1000000
BRANCH	4	0000100	000	000	000	10	00	0000110
	5	0000101	000	000	000	00	00	1000000
	6	0000110	000	000	000	01	01	1000011
	7	0000111	000	000	110	00	00	1000000
STORE	8	0001000	000	000	000	01	01	1000011
	9	0001001	000	101	000	00	00	0001010
	10	0001010	111	000	000	00	00	1000000
EXCHANGE	11	0001011	000	000	000	00	00	1000000
	12	0001100	000	000	000	01	01	1000011
	13	0001101	001	000	000	00	00	0001110
	14	0001110	100	101	000	00	00	0001111
	15	0001111	111	000	000	00	00	1000000
FETCH	64	1000000	110	000	000	00	00	1000001
	65	1000001	000	100	101	00	00	1000010
	66	1000010	101	000	000	00	11	0000000
INDRCT	67	1000011	000	100	000	00	00	1000100
	68	1000100	101	000	000	00	10	0000000

Table 3-3: Binary Microprogram for control memory (Partial)

Control Memory

- When a ROM is used for the control memory, the microprogram binary list provides the truth table for fabricating the unit.
 - To modify the instruction set of the computer, it is necessary to generate a new microprogram and mask a new ROM.
- The advantage of employing a RAM for the control memory is that the microprogram can be altered simply by writing a new pattern of 1's and 0's without resorting to hardware procedure.
- However, most microprogram systems use a ROM for the control memory because it is cheaper and faster than a RAM.

3.7 Control Unit Operation

Microoperations

- A computer executes a program consisting instructions. Each instruction is made up of shorter sub-cycles as fetch, indirect, execute cycle, interrupt.
- Performance of each cycle has a number of shorter operations called micro-operations.
- Called so because each step is very simple and does very little.
- Thus micro-operations are functional atomic operation of CPU.

- Hence events of any instruction cycle can be described as a sequence of micro-operations

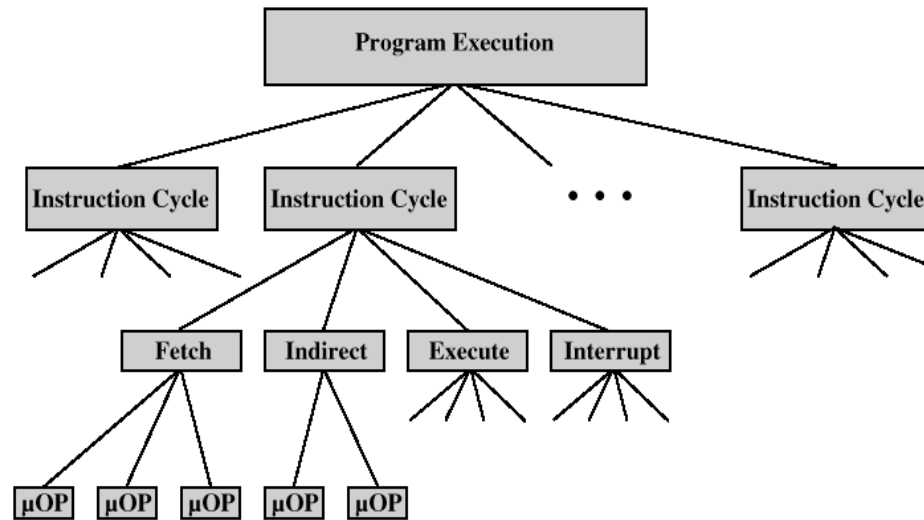


Fig 3-7: Constituent Elements of Program Execution

Steps leading to characterization of CU

- Define basic elements of processor
- Describe micro-operations processor performs
- Determine functions control unit must perform

Types of Micro-operation

- Transfer data between registers
- Transfer data from register to external interface
- Transfer data from external interface to register
- Perform arithmetic/logical ops with register for i/p, o/p

Functions of Control Unit

- Sequencing
- Causing the CPU to step through a series of micro-operations
- Execution
- Causing the performance of each micro-op

These are done using Control Signals

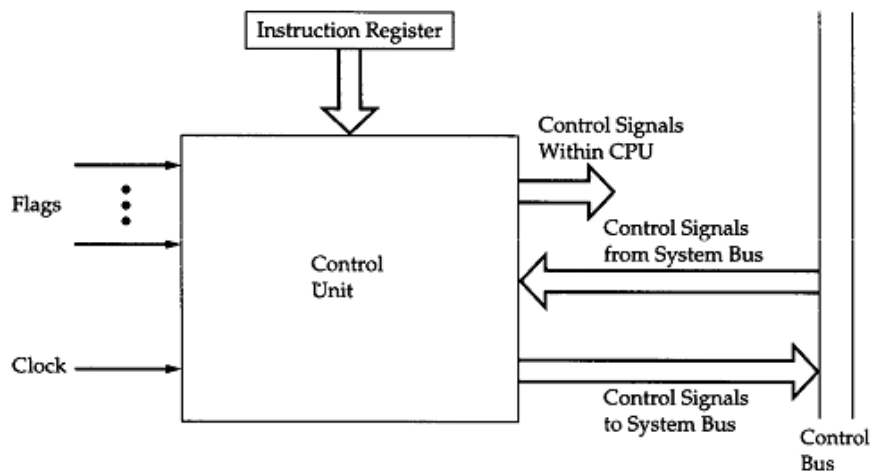


Fig 3-8: Control Unit Layout

Inputs to Control Unit

- Clock
 - CU causes one micro-instruction (or set of parallel micro-instructions) per clock cycle
- Instruction register
 - Op-code for current instruction determines which micro-instructions are performed
- Flags
 - State of CPU
 - Results of previous operations
- From control bus
 - Interrupts
 - Acknowledgements

CU Outputs (Control Signals)

- Within CPU(two types)
 - Cause data movement
 - Activate specific ALU functions
- Via control bus(two types)
 - To memory
 - To I/O modules
- Types of Control Signals
 - Those that activate an ALU
 - Those that activate a data path
 - Those that are signal on external system bus or other external interface.
- All these are applied as binary i/p to individual logic gates

Hardwired Implementation

- In this implementation, CU is essentially a combinational circuit. Its i/p signals are transformed into set of o/p logic signal which are control signals.
- Control unit inputs
 - Flags and control bus
 - Each bit means something
- Instruction register
 - Op-code causes different control signals for each different instruction
 - Unique logic for each op-code
 - Decoder takes encoded input and produces single output
 - Each decoder i/p will activate a single unique o/p
- Clock
 - Repetitive sequence of pulses
 - Useful for measuring duration of micro-ops
 - Must be long enough to allow signal propagation along data paths and through processor circuitry
 - Different control signals at different times within instruction cycle
 - Need a counter as i/p to control unit with different control signals being used for t_1, t_2 etc.
 - At end of instruction cycle, counter is re-initialised

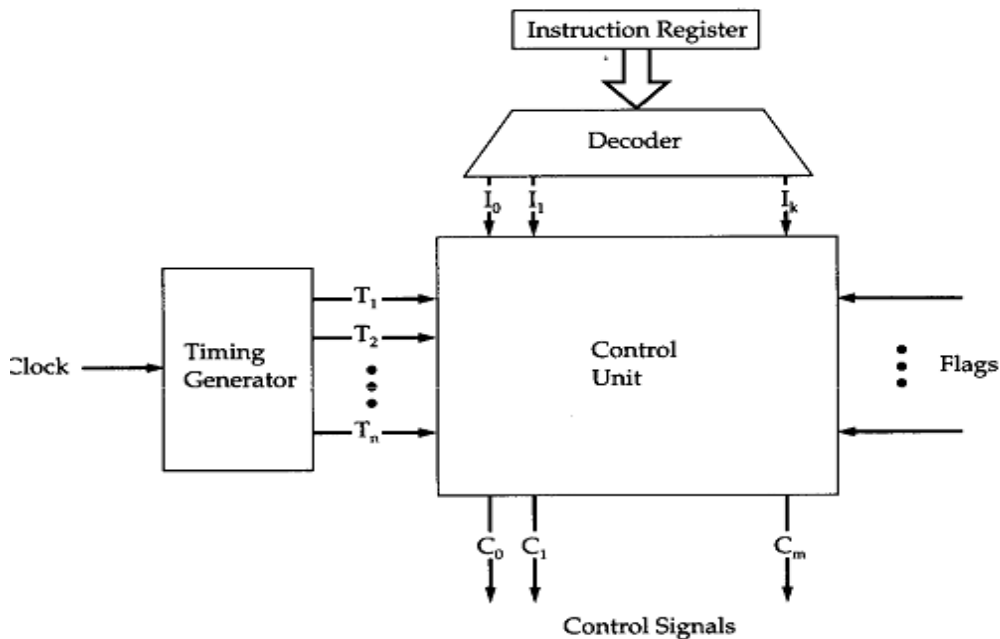


Fig 3-9: Control Unit With Decoded Input

Implementation

- For each control signal, a Boolean expression of that signal as a function of the inputs is derived
- With that the combinatorial circuit is realized as control unit.

Problems With Hard Wired Designs

- Complex sequencing & micro-operation logic
- Difficult to design and test
- Inflexible design
- Difficult to add new instructions

Micro-programmed Implementation

- An alternative to hardwired CU
- Common in contemporary CISC processors
- Use sequences of instructions to perform control operations performed by micro operations called micro-programming or firmware

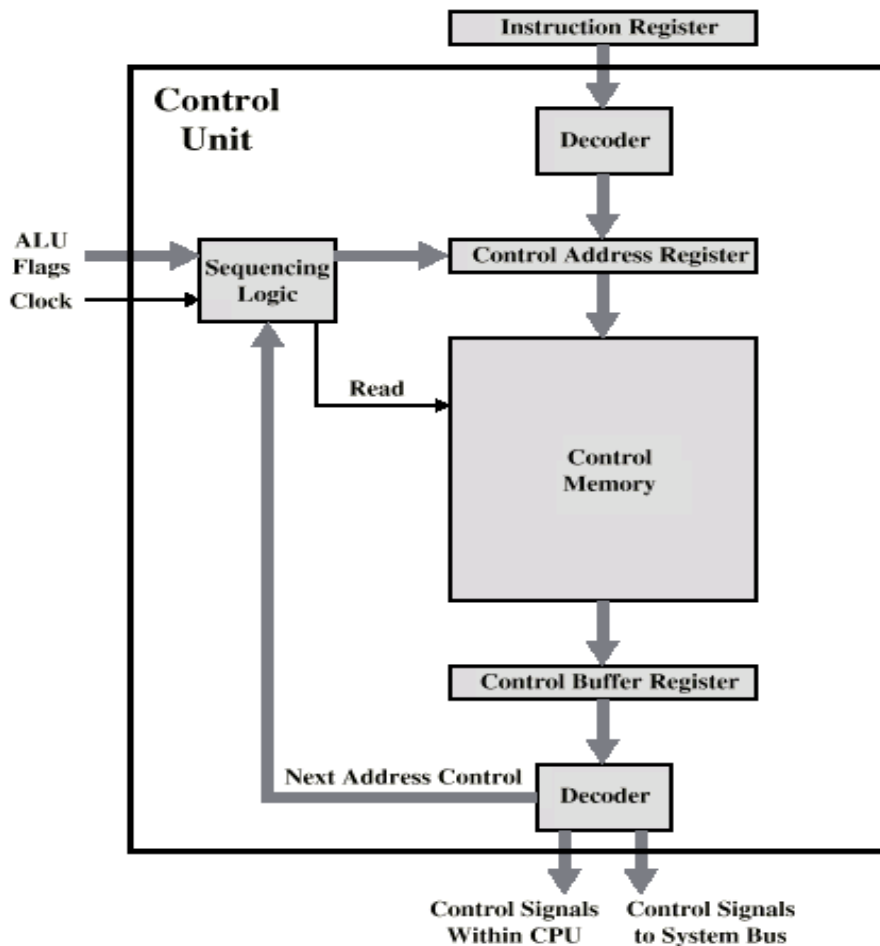


Fig 3-10: Microprogrammed Control Unit

- Set of microinstructions are stored in control memory
- Control address register contains the address of the next microinstruction to be read
- As it is read, it is transferred to control buffer register.
- For horizontal micro instructions, reading a microinstruction is same as executing it.
- Sequencing unit loads the control address register and issues a read command

CU functions as follows to execute an instruction:

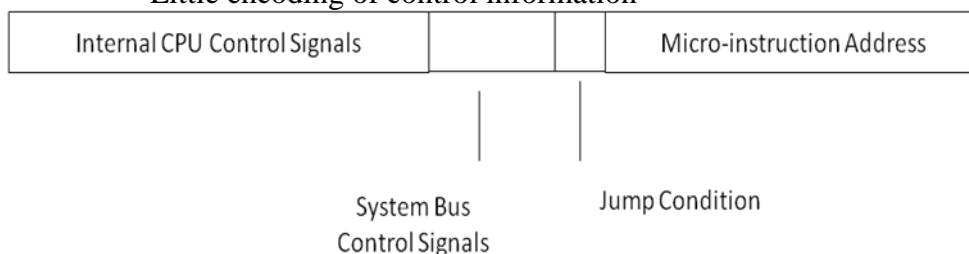
- Sequencing logic issues read command to control memory
- Word whose address is in control address register is read into control buffer register.
- Content of control buffer register generates control signals and next address instruction for the sequencing logic unit.
- Sequencing logic unit loads new address into control address register depending upon the value of ALU flags, control buffer register.
- One of following decision is made:
 - add 1 to control address register
 - load address from address field of control buffer register
 - load the control address register based on opcode in IR
- Upper decoder translates the opcode of IR into control memory address.
- Lower decoder used for vertical micro instructions.

Micro-instruction Types

- Each micro-instruction specifies single or few micro-operations to be performed - *vertical* micro-programming
- Each micro-instruction specifies many different micro-operations to be performed in parallel - *horizontal* micro-programming

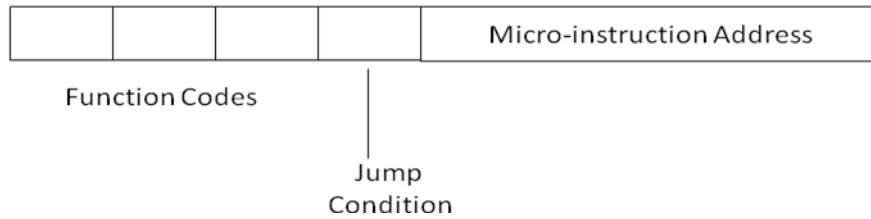
Horizontal Micro-programming

- Wide memory word
- High degree of parallel operations possible
- Little encoding of control information



Vertical Micro-programming

- Width is narrow
- n control signals encoded into $\log_2 n$ bits
- Limited ability to express parallelism
- Considerable encoding of control information requires external memory word decoder to identify the exact control line being manipulated



3.8 Design of Control Unit

- The bits of the microinstruction are usually divided into fields, with each field defining a distinct, separate function.
- The various fields encountered in instruction formats provide:
 - Control bits to initiate microoperations in the system
 - Special bits to specify the way that the next address is to be evaluated
 - An address field for branching
- The number of control bits that initiate microoperations can be reduced by grouping *mutually exclusive* variables into fields by encoding the k bits in each field to provide 2^k microoperations.
- Each field requires a decoder to produce the corresponding control signals.
 - Reduces the size of the microinstruction bits
 - Requires additional hardware external to the control memory
 - Increases the delay time of the control signals
- Fig. 3-11 shows the three decoders and some of the connections that must be made from their outputs.
- Outputs 5 or 6 of decoder F1 are connected to the load input of AR so that when either one of these outputs is active; information from the multiplexers is transferred to AR.
- The transfer into AR occurs with a clock pulse transition only when output 5 (from DR (0-10) to AR i.e. DRTAR) or output 6 (from PC to AR i.e. PCTAR) of the decoder are active.
- The arithmetic logic shift unit can be designed instead of using gates to generate the control signals; it comes from the outputs of the decoders.

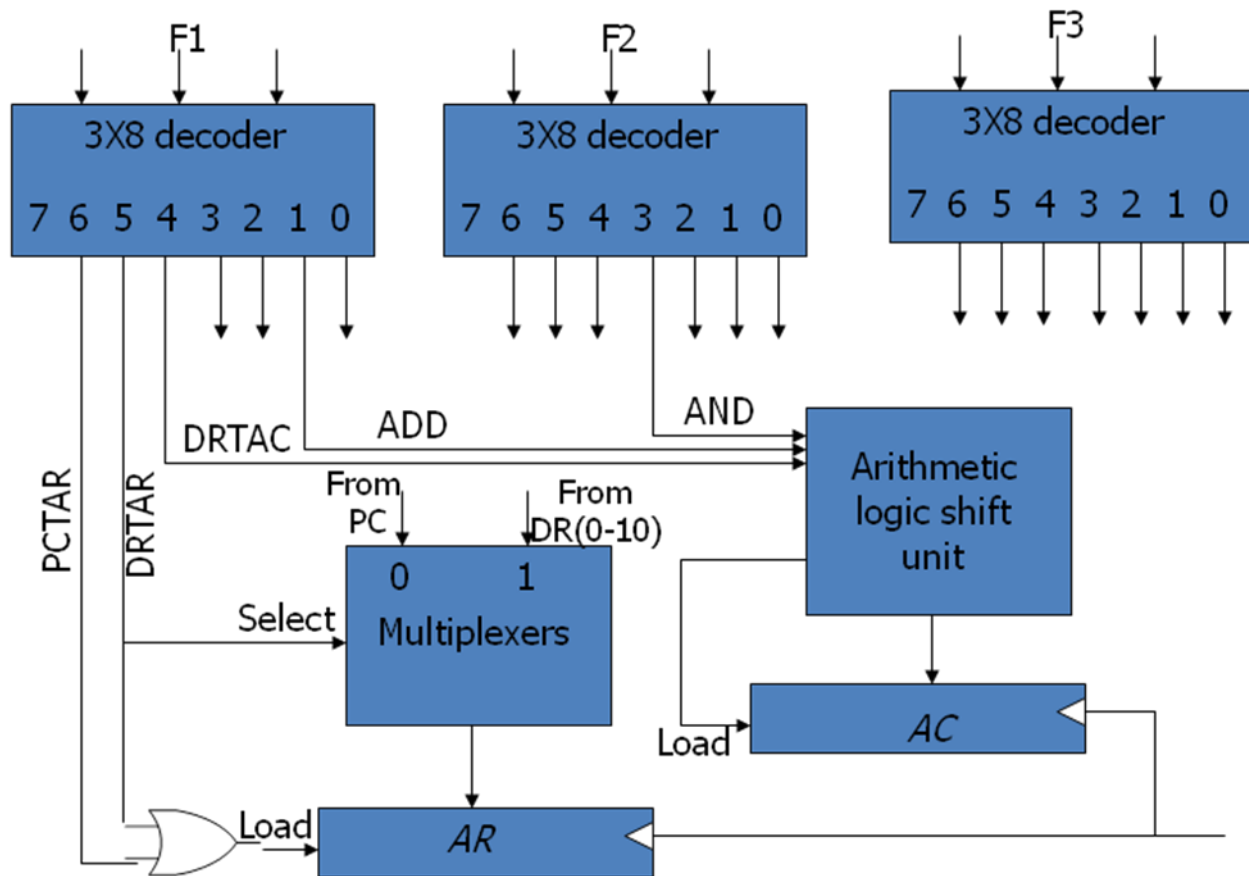


Fig 3-11: Decoding of Microoperation fields

Microprogram Sequencer

- The basic components of a microprogrammed control unit are the *control memory* and *the circuits that select the next address*.
- The address selection part is called a *microprogram sequencer*.
- A microprogram sequencer can be constructed with *digital functions* to suit a particular application.
- To guarantee a wide range of acceptability, an *integrated circuit sequencer* must provide an internal organization that can be adapted to a wide range of application.
- The purpose of a microprogram sequencer is to present an address to the control memory so that a microinstruction may be read and executed.
- The block diagram of the microprogram sequencer is shown in Fig. 3-12.
 - The control memory is included to show the interaction between the sequencer and the attached to it.
 - There are two multiplexers in the circuit; first multiplexer selects an address from one of the four sources and routes to CAR, second multiplexer tests the value of the selected status bit and result is applied to an input logic circuit.
 - The output from CAR provides the address for control memory, contents of CAR incremented and applied to one of the multiplexers input and to the SBR.

- Although the diagram shows a *single subroutine register*, a typical sequencer will have a *register stack* about four to eight levels deep. In this way, a push, pop operation and stack pointer operates for subroutine call and return instructions.
- The CD (Condition) field of the microinstruction selects one of the status bits in the second multiplexer.
- The Test variable (either 1 or 0) i.e. T value together with the two bits from the BR (Branch) field go to an input logic circuit.
- The input logic circuit determines the type of the operation.

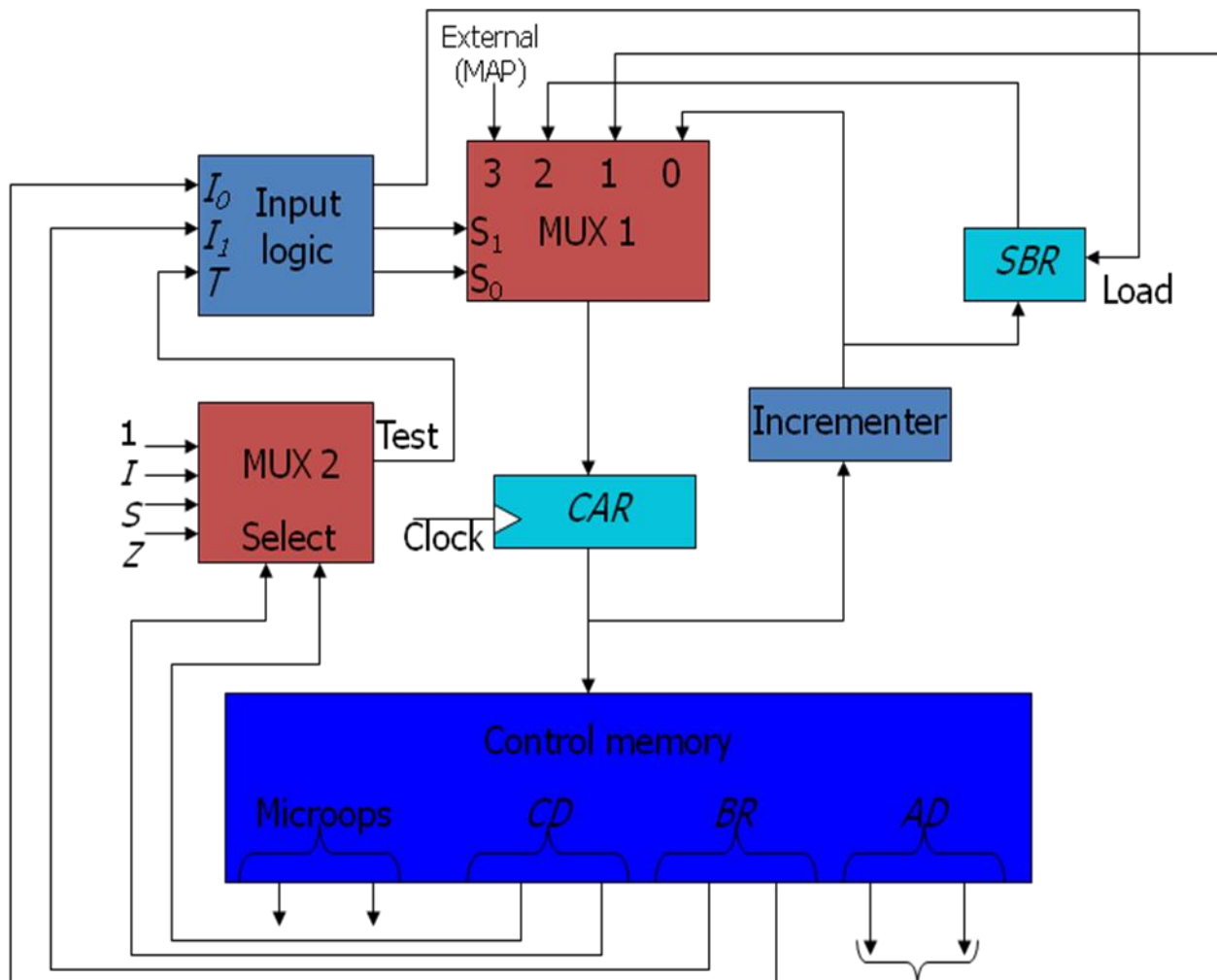


Fig 3-12: Microprom Sequencer for a Control Memory

Design of Input Logic

- The input logic in a particular sequencer will determine the type of operations that are available in the unit.
- Typical sequencer operations are: *increment, branch or jump, call and return from subroutine, load an external address, push or pop the stack, and other address sequencing operations.*

- Based on the function listed in each entry was defined in Table 3-1, the truth table for the input logic circuit is shown in Table 3-4.
- Therefore, the simplified Boolean functions for the input logic circuit can be given as:

$$S_1 = I_1$$

$$S_0 = I_1 I_0 + I_1' T$$

$$L = I_1' I_0 T$$

BR Field	Input I_1 I_0 T	MUX 1 S_1 S_0	Load SBR L
0 0	0 0 0	0 0	0
0 0	0 0 1	0 1	0
0 1	0 1 0	0 0	0
0 1	0 1 1	0 1	1
1 0	1 0 X	1 0	0
1 1	1 1 X	1 1	0

Table 3-4: Input logic truth table for microprogram sequencer

- The bit values for S1 and S0 are determined from the stated function and the path in the multiplexer that establishes the required transfer.
- Note that the incrementer circuit in the sequencer of Fig. 7-12 is not a counter constructed with flip-flops but rather a combinational circuit constructed with gates.