

8086

Simulated 16-bit Intel Microprocessor

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Abstract—Create an homage to the Intel 8086 microprocessor from 1979 with the Nexys 4 DDR FPGA development board. We have emulated a portion of the instruction set from the original processor, these instructions consisting of add, add with carry, jump, exchange register, the carry flag instructions, and halt. The emulation of the 8086 offered insight into the methodology behind a CPU, and because of the 8086’s historical relevance, insight into the architecture of modern day CPU’s as well.

I. INTRODUCTION

The Intel 8086, despite being a very early microprocessor in the age of home computers, was quite a complex chip, with special pipelining and optimization taking place to ensure performance [1]. The 8088, the 8086’s 8-bit cousin, was used in IBM’s model 5150 PC, which spiked these CPU’s popularity. Because of this, all modern-day CPUs in personal computers are derived from this original architecture, appropriately named “The x86 Architecture”. The 8086 was the first in this long line of CPU development [2].

The goal of this project is to create a high-level simulation of the 8086. To do this, we have emulated a portion of the 8086’s instruction set. We then ran simulations of these processes in action, and eventually implemented a physical example on the Nexys 4 DDR FPGA. Our motivation for doing this was our interest in the inner workings of CPUs, and the 8086 offered excellent insight into this. We learned about many topics pertaining to CPU emulation in class. The programming language VHDL was essential in completing this emulation. We certainly had to do some digging on our own in order to complete this project. We did a significant amount of research into the instruction set of the 8086, and in general how it functions. The breakdown of our emulation is addressed below.

II. METHODOLOGY

Because we are creating a high-level simulation, and have the power to run at much higher clock frequencies than the original hardware if necessary, we are not focused on pipelining or optimization. Instead, we have two basic running states, fetch/decode, and execute.

A. Primary State Machine

i. Fetch/Decode State

The fetch/decode state aims to read the entire instruction into internal registers for later execution. This is not a simple task, as Intel’s architecture has many flags and within instructions which change the length of the instruction. Our code allows for this, and contains a LUT which returns the length and type of an instruction. See figure 5.

ii. Execute State

The Execute state uses a large multiplexor to execute the proper instruction according to the decode phase. These modules would theoretically be all of the 8086’s instruction set, but in our case, we have only implemented a limited amount of opcodes, mainly relating to addition. The opcodes we have implemented are the following:

1. ADD – Adds an immediate value to the register. Note that this instruction does consider the carry flag
2. ADC – Add with Carry, this adds and immediate value to the register and includes the carry flag in the operation. Thus the carry flag is essentially treated as C_{in} .
3. JMP – An unconditional Jump, will transfer control to another portion of the program, this allows us to move to a different instruction, instead of simply moving through the sequence
4. JZ – A conditional Jump is the zero flag (ZF) is set to 1
5. JNZ – A conditional Jump if the zero flag (ZF) is set to 0
6. STC – Sets the carry flag to 1
7. CLC – Sets the carry flag to 0, or in other words, clears the carry flag
8. CMC – Inverts the carry flag, therefore, if $CF = 1$, then $CF = 0$ and vice versa
9. XCHG – Exchange, this exchanges the values of two registers, their values will flip flop
10. HLT – This enters the halt state, all execution will stop until the CPU is reset

Detailed descriptions of all of the original 8086 opcodes can be found in the Intel 8086 Family User’s Manual. The created opcodes above are based off of the originals from

this manual [1]. For our purposes, these are the instructions that can be executed during the execute state. Depending on what the decode state specifies, one of the following will be executed. The instruction is skipped if it is invalid.

These two primary states contain most of the functionality. When actually functioning, the CPU toggles between these two states, loading an instruction from memory in the decode state, and then executing the instruction in the execute state. These two states make up the bulk of emulation, however there are two other states that are used.

iii. Halt State

The halt state is entered with the HLT opcode is executed. When the halt state is entered, all functionality ceases. In our case, the program then stays put until the reset button is pressed, at which point the state machine restarts and functionality resumes as normal.

iv. Reset State

When the reset button is pressed, the reset state is entered. This sets us back at the beginning of the primary state machine, and sets all registers and flags back to their default values. Note that this is not necessarily zero, as not all registers and flags have a default of zero. From reset the CPU can then continue into the decode state.

See figure 5 for an illustration of this state machine.

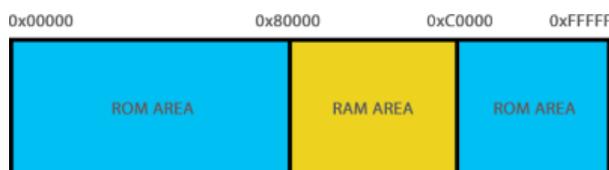
B. Address Segmentation Calculations

The processor works with segmented addresses, 16-bit addresses with 16-bit segment pointers. These are added to produce a 20-bit address, allowing for 1MB of addressable memory. The calculation shifts the segment by 4 bits to the left and then adds it to the selected address to create a 20-bit address.

C. Memory Controller

The memory controller connects directly to the 1MB addressable memory bus on the CPU. In this case, the memory controller devotes the area from 0x80000 to 0xC0000 to RAM and the remaining area to ROM, as shown in the following diagram. Simulating this much RAM was unnecessary and slowed down the simulation, so we have a mere 64 bytes of RAM being emulated. Any RAM outside these 64 bytes will not be written to and will return 0x0000 when read.

Figure 1: System Memory Map



D. ROM

ROM is generated using a NodeJS script which creates a VHDL case statement returning the values corresponding to the code. In this way, the ROM functions more like a very large LUT within the FPGA. The CPU could, however, execute instructions from the RAM as well, if user programmability was desired.

E. Instruction Info Module

The instruction info module connects directly into the main finite state machine. It takes the first two bytes of instruction from the processor, and combinationally returns a value for length and the operation defined for that opcode. This allows the processor to read the correct number of bytes for the instruction from memory. Again, this works as a large LUT.

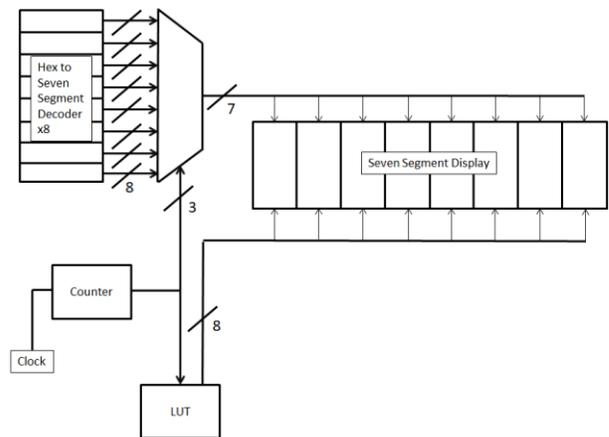
F. Clock Divider Module

The clock divider module is a variable speed clock generator used for our project. The output from this generator is either 10MHz or 4Hz and is controller with the "slow" signal. The generator expects a clock of 100MHz as an input. The clock speed can be changed on the fly and the circuit will guarantee no clock pulse is shorter than intended for maximum stability.

G. Display Module

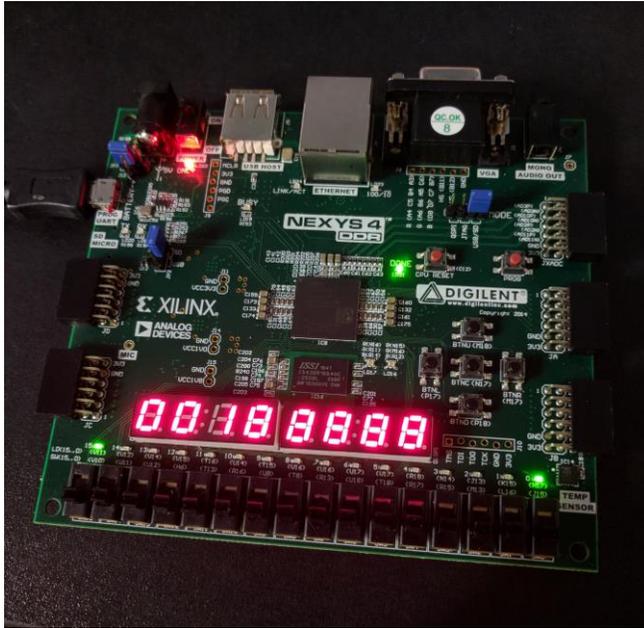
The display module drives a bank of 8 seven segment displays at a refresh rate of 240Hz. It runs on the full 100MHz clock and has a self-contained clock divider for the 1.92 kHz necessary to drive all 8 displays at the required speed. It takes two 16-bit words as inputs and outputs all of the necessary display signals. The VHDL code generates 8 of the Hex to 7 Segment LUT converters, and then the 1.92 kHz clock is used to switch between outputs.

Figure 2: 7 Segment Display Driver Circuitry



The testbench is excellent for examining various processor states that you would not be able to see when watching the processor run on the FPGA.

Below is a picture of the Nexys 4 board running the emulation. The leftmost four seven segment displays always displayed the current instruction pointer. The rightmost four could be set to display either ax or bx. The displays are switching so quickly that it is impossible for the camera to capture the values on screen.



CONCLUSIONS

This emulation offered valuable insight into the inner workings of a rather complicated CPU. We learned through

this process that although CPU's are incredibly complicated engineering wise, when broken down they can be understood, and eventually emulated. To further this project, we could implement additional opcodes from the 8086's original instruction set. Because of the scope of this project, we were only able to implement a limited amount and the uses for this CPU were highly limited. With all opcodes implemented, this emulation could act as a fully functioning CPU, and would be able to run programs created with the x86 architecture for the original 8086.

We have interest in adding VGA support to this project. VGA support would allow us to use an external monitor. With this, we could write the display code in such a way that we could see all of the registers at once. The displays were a limitation with the development board for us. As the project stands now, we are limited to only seeing a few registers at a time. This project itself would be very impressive if one could see all the registers undergo modifications simultaneously.

As well, if attempting to implement programs meant for the original 8086, there would likely be compatibility issues with certain interrupts. Due to the fact that our code is running on the "bare metal" CPU currently and the system is not running a BIOS, any code which made use of BIOS functions would not work until a suitable BIOS ROM was built.

REFERENCES

- [1] Intel Corporation. (1979). Intel 8086: Family User's Manual. MA: Intel Corporation.
- [2] Edwards, Benj. "Birth of a Standard: The Intel 8086 Microprocessor" PC World. 16 Jun. 2008, www.pcworld.com. Accessed 7 Dec. 2015.

Figure 5: Primary State Machine in the CPU Emulation

