U. Wisconsin CS/ECE 552 Introduction to Computer Architecture

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Instructions (Chapter 2)

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Slides combined and enhanced by Karu Sankaralingam from work by Falsafi, Hill, Marculescu, Nagle, Patterson, Roth, Rutenbar, Schmidt, Shen, Sohi, Sorin, Thottethodi, Vijaykumar, & Wood

Instruction Set Architecture (ISA)

- The "contract" between software and hardware
 - Functional definition of operations, modes, and storage locations supported by hardware
 - Precise description of how software can invoke and access them
- Strictly speaking, ISA is the architecture
 - Informally, architecture is also used to talk about the big picture of implementation
 - Better to call this micro-architecture

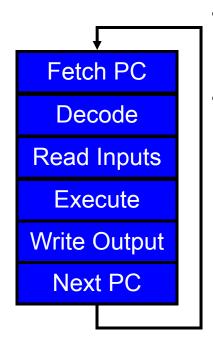
Microarchitecture

- ISA specifies what hardware does, not how it does it
 - No guarantees regarding
 - How operations are implemented
 - Which operations are fast and which are slow
 - Which operations take more power and which take less
 - These issues are determined by the microarchitecture
 - Microarchitecture = how hardware implements architecture
 - All Pentiums implement the x86 architecture

Aspects of ISAs

- 1. The Von Neumann model
 - Implicit structure of all modern ISAs
- 2. Format
 - Length and encoding
- 3. Operations
- 4. Operand model
 - Where are operands stored and how do address them?
- 5. Datatypes and operations
- 6. Control
- Running example: MIPS
- Your project will use 16-bit MIPS-lite
- Touch on x86

(1) The Sequential (Von Neumann) Model



Implicit model of all modern ISAs

•

- Key: program counter (PC)
 - Defines total order of dynamic instructions
 - Next PC is PC++ unless insn says otherwise
 - Order and named storage define computation
 - Value flows from insn X to Y via storage A iff...
 - X names A as output, Y names A as input...
 - And Y after X in total order
- Processor logically executes loop at left
 - Instruction execution assumed atomic
 - Instruction X finishes before insn X+1 starts

(2) Instruction Format

Length

- 1. Fixed length
 - 32 or 64 bits (your project: 16 bit ISA)
 - Simple implementation: compute next PC using only PC
 - Code density
- 2. Variable length
 - Complex implementation
 - + Code density
- 3. Compromise: two lengths
 - Example: MIPS₁₆

Encoding

- A few simple encodings simplify decoder implementation
- Complex encoding can improve code density

MIPS Format

- Length
 - 32-bits
 - MIPS₁₆: 16-bit variants of common instructions for density
- Encoding
 - 3 formats, simple encoding
 - Q: how many operation types can be encoded in 6-bit opcode?

R-type	Op(6)	Rs(5)	Rt(5)	Rd(5)	Sh(5)	Func(6)
I-type	Op(6)	Rs(5)	Rt(5)	lı	mmed(1	16)
J-type	Op(6)	Target(26)				

R Format

opcode	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
6	5	5	5	5	6

• E.g., add \$1, \$2, \$3

```
000000 00010 00011 00001 00000 100000 alu-rr 2 3 1 zero add/signed
```

How do you store the number 4,392,992?

•

I Format

- All loads and stores use I-format
- Assembly: lw \$1, 100(\$2)
- Machine:

```
100011 00010 00001 0000000001100100 lw 2 1 100 (in binary)
```

opcode	rs	rt	addr/immediate
6	5	5	16

I Format, cont.

- ALU ops with immediates
 - addi \$1, \$2, 100
 - $-001000 \quad 00010 \ 00001 \ 0000000001100100$
- Conditional branches
 - beq \$1, \$2, 7
 - 000100 00001 00010 0000 0000 0000 0111
 - $-PC = PC + (0000\ 0111 << 2)$ // word offset

J Format

Weird Direct Jump:

```
opcode addr
6 26
```

- Jump to:
 - New PC = 4 MSB of PC || addr || 00
 - -4+26+2 = 32 bits for jump target

(3) Operations

- Operation type encoded in instruction opcode
- Many types of operations
 - Integer arithmetic: add, sub, mul, div, mod/rem (signed/unsigned)
 - FP arithmetic: add, sub, mul, div, sqrt
 - Integer logical: and, or, xor, not, sll, srl, sra
 - Packed integer: padd, pmul, pand, por... (saturating/wraparound)
- What other operations might be useful?
- More operation types == better ISA??
- DEC VAX computer had LOTS of operation types
 - E.g., instruction for polynomial evaluation (no joke!)
 - But many of them were rarely/never used

(4) Operations Act on Operands

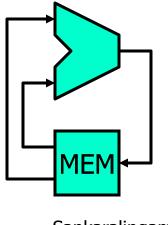
- If you're going to add, you need at least 3 operands
 - Two source operands, one destination operand
- Question #1: Where can operands come from?
- Question #2: And how are they specified?
- Running example: A = B + C
 - Several options for answering both questions
- Discuss: Memory-Only & Registers
- Optional: Accumulator & Stack

Operand Model I: Memory Only

Memory only

add A,B,C

mem[A] = mem[B] + mem[C]



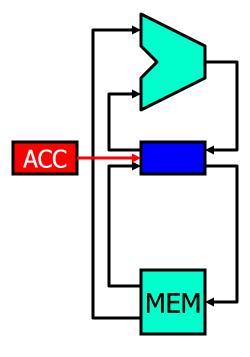
Operand Model II: Accumulator

Accumulator: implicit single-element stack

load B ACC = mem[B]

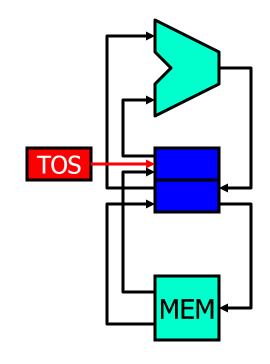
add C ACC = ACC + mem[C]

store A mem[A] = ACC



Operand Model III: Stack

Stack: top of stack (TOS) is implicit in instructions



Operand Model: Registers

General-purpose registers: multiple explicit accumulators

Load-store: GPR and only loads/stores access memory

load R1,B

add R1,R1,R2

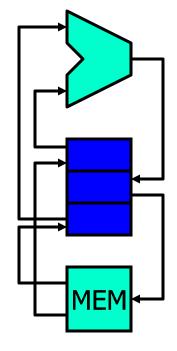
store R1,A

R1 = mem[B]

R2 = mem[C]

R1 = R1 + R2

mem[A] = R1



Operand Model Pros and Cons

- Metric I: static code size
 - Number of instructions needed to represent program, size of each
 - Evaluation: register < load-store < memory only
- Metric II: data memory traffic
 - Number of bytes moved to and from memory
 - Evaluation: load-store < register < memory only
- Metric III: instruction latency
 - Want low latency to execute instructions
 - Evaluation: load-store < register < memory only
- Upshot: most current ISAs are load-store

MIPS Operand Model

- MIPS is load-store
 - 32 32-bit integer registers
 - Actually 31: r0 is hardwired to value 0 → why?
 - 32 32-bit FP registers
 - Can also be treated as 16 64-bit FP registers
 - HI,LO: destination registers for multiply/divide
- Integer register conventions
 - Allows separate function-level compilation and fast function calls

Memory Addressing

- ISAs assume "virtual" address size
 - Either 32 or 64 bits
 - Program can name 2³² bytes (4GB) or 2⁶⁴ bytes (16PB)
 - ISA point? no room for even one address in a 32-bit instruction
- Addressing mode: way of specifying address

• **Direct**: ld R1, (R2) R1=mem[R2]

• **Displacement**: 1d R1,8(R2) R1=mem[R2+8]

• Indexed: ld R1, (R2,R3) R1=mem[R2+R3]

• Memory-indirect: ld R1,@(R2) R1=mem[mem[R2]]

• Auto-update: ld R1,8(R2) R2+=8; R1=mem[R2]

• Scaled: ld R1, (R2, R3, 32, 8) R1=mem[R2+R3*32+8]

What high-level program idioms are these used for?

MIPS Addressing Modes

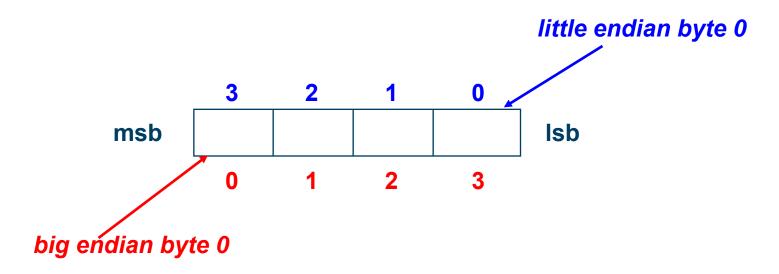
- MIPS implements only displacement
 - Why? Experiment on VAX (ISA with every mode) found distribution
 - Disp: 61%, reg-ind: 19%, scaled: 11%, mem-ind: 5%, other: 4%
 - 80% use displacement or register indirect (=displacement 0)
- I-type instructions: 16-bit displacement
 - Is 16-bits enough?
 - Yes! VAX experiment showed 1% accesses use displacement >16

I-type Op(6) Rs(5) Rt(5) Immed(16)

Addressing Issue: Endian-ness

Byte Order

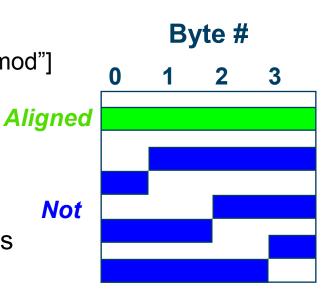
- Big Endian: byte 0 is 8 most significant bits IBM 360/370, Motorola 68k, MIPS, SPARC, HP PA-RISC
- Little Endian: byte 0 is 8 least significant bits Intel 80x86, DEC Vax, DEC/Compaq Alpha



Another Addressing Issue: Alignment

- Alignment: require that objects fall on address that is multiple of their size
- 32-bit integer
 - Aligned if address % 4 = 0 [% is symbol for "mod"]
 - Aligned: lw @xxxx00
 - Not: lw @xxxx10
- 64-bit integer?
 - Aligned if?
- Question: what to do with unaligned accesses (uncommon case)?
 - Support in hardware? Makes all accesses slow
 - Trap to software routine? Possibility
 - MIPS? ISA support: unaligned access using two instructions:

```
lw @XXXX10 = lwl @XXXX10; lwr @XXXX10
```



(5) Datatypes

- Datatypes
 - Software view: property of data
 - Hardware view: data is just bits, property of operations
- Hardware datatypes
 - Integer: 8 bits (byte), 16b (half), 32b (word), 64b (long)
 - IEEE754 FP: 32b (single-precision), 64b (double-precision)
 - Packed integer: treat 64b int as 8 8b int's or 4 16b int's

MIPS Datatypes (and Operations)

- Datatypes: all the basic ones (byte, half, word, FP)
 - All integer operations read/write 32-bits
 - No partial dependences on registers
 - Only byte/half variants are load-store
 lb, lbu, lh, lhu, sb, sh
 - Loads sign-extend (or not) byte/half into 32-bits
- Operations: all the basic ones
 - Signed/unsigned variants for integer arithmetic
 - Immediate variants for all instructions
 add, addu, addiu
 - Regularity/orthogonality: all variants available for all operations
 - Makes compiler's "life" easier

(6) Control Instructions I

- One issue: testing for conditions
 - Option I: compare and branch instructions

```
blti $1,10,target
```

- + Simple, two ALUs: one for condition, one for target address
- Option II: implicit condition codes

```
subi $2,$1,10  // sets "negative" CC
bn target
```

- + Condition codes set "for free", implicit dependence is tricky
- Option III: condition registers, separate branch insns

```
slti $2,$1,10
bnez $2,target
```

Additional instructions, + one ALU per, + explicit dependence

MIPS Conditional Branches

- MIPS uses combination of options II and III
 - Compare 2 registers and branch: beq, bne
 - Equality and inequality only
 - + Don't need an adder for comparison
 - Compare 1 register to zero and branch: bgtz, bgez, bltz, blez
 - Greater/less than comparisons
 - + Don't need adder for comparison
 - Set explicit condition registers: slt, sltu, slti, sltiu, etc.
- Why? 86% of branches in programs are (in)equalities or comparisons to 0

Control Instructions II

- Another issue: computing targets
 - Option I: PC-relative
 - Position-independent within procedure
 - Used for branches and jumps within a procedure
 - Option II: Absolute
 - Position independent outside procedure
 - Used for procedure calls
 - Option III: Indirect (target found in register)
 - Needed for jumping to dynamic targets
 - Used for returns, dynamic procedure calls, switches
 - How far do you need to jump?
 - Typically not so far within a procedure (they don't get that big)
 - Further from one procedure to another

MIPS Control Instructions

- MIPS uses all three
 - PC-relative → conditional branches: bne, beq, blez, etc.
 - 16-bit relative offset, <0.1% branches need more
 - PC = PC + 4 + immediate if condition is true (else PC=PC+4)

- Absolute → unconditional jumps: j target
 - 26-bit offset (can address 2^{28} words $< 2^{32} \rightarrow$ what gives?)

Indirect → Indirect jumps: jr \$rd

R-type Op(6) Rs(5) Rt(5) Rd(5) Sh(5) Func(6)

Control Instructions III

- Another issue: support for procedure calls?
 - We "link" (remember) address of the calling instruction + 4 (current PC + 4) so we can return to it after the procedure

MIPS

- Implicit return address register is \$ra(=\$31)
- Direct jump-and-link: jal address

```
\rightarrow $ra = PC+4; PC = address
```

- Can then return from call with: jr \$ra
- Or can call with indirect jump-and-link: jalr \$rd, \$rs
 → \$rd = PC+4; PC = \$rs // explicit return address register
- Then return with: jr \$rd

Control Idiom: If-Then-Else

- Understanding programs helps with architecture
 - Know what common programming idioms look like in assembly
 - Why? How can you MCCF if you don't know what CC is?

Control Idiom: Arithmetic For Loop

Second idiom: for loop with arithmetic induction

```
int A[100], sum, i, N;
                               // assume: i in $s1, N in $s2
for (i=0; i<N; i++) {
                               // &A[i] in $s3, sum in $s4
  sum += A[i];
}
          sub $s1,$s1,$s1 // initialize i to 0
                              // if i<N, then $t1=1
   loop: slt $t1,$s1,$s2
                              // test for exit at loop header
          beqz $t1,exit
          1w $t1,0($s3) // $t1 = A[i] (not &A[i])
          add $s4,$s4,$t1
                              // sum = sum + A[i]
                               // increment &A[i] by sizeof(int)
          addi $s3,$s3,4
                               // j++
          addi $s1,$s1,1
                               // backward jump
          j loop
   exit:
```

Outline

- Instruction Sets in General
- MIPS Assembly Programming
- Other Instruction Sets
 - Goals of ISA Design
 - RISC vs. CISC
 - Intel x86 (IA-32)

RISC vs. CISC

- RISC: reduced-instruction set computer
 - Coined by P+H in early 80's
- CISC: complex-instruction set computer
 - Not coined by anyone, term didn't exist before "RISC"
- Religious war (one of several) started in mid 1980's
 - RISC (MIPS, Alpha) "won" the technology battles
 - CISC (IA32 = x86) "won" the commercial war
 - Compatibility a stronger force than anyone (but Intel) thought
 - Intel beat RISC at its own game ... more on this soon

Intel 80x86 ISA (aka x86 or IA-32 now)

- Long history
- Binary compatibility across generations
- 1978: 8086, 16-bit, registers have dedicated uses
- 1980: 8087, added floating point (stack)
- 1982: 80286, 24-bit
- 1985: 80386, 32-bit, new instrs → GPR almost
- 1989-95: 80486, Pentium, Pentium II
- 1997: Added MMX instructions (for graphics)
- 1999: Pentium III
- 2002: Pentium 4
- 2004: "Nocona" 64-bit extension (to keep up with AMD)

Intel x86: The Penultimate CISC (VAX ultimate)

- Variable length instructions: 1-16 bytes
- Few registers: 8 and each one has a special purpose
- Multiple register sizes: 8,16,32 bit (for backward compatibility)
- Accumulators for integer instrs, and stack for FP instrs
- Multiple addressing modes: indirect, scaled, displacement
- Register-register, memory-register, and memory-register insns
- Condition codes
- Instructions for memory stack management (push, pop)
- Instructions for manipulating strings (entire loop in one instruction)

Summary: yuck!

80x86 Registers and Addressing Modes

- Eight 32-bit registers (not truly general purpose)
 - EAX, ECX, EDX, EBX, ESP, EBP, ESI, EDI
- Six 16-bit Registers for code, stack, & data
- 2-address ISA
 - One operand is both source and destination
- NOT a Load/Store ISA
 - One operand can be in memory

80x86 Addressing Modes

- Register Indirect
 - mem[reg]
 - not ESP or EBP
- Base + displacement (8 or 32 bit)
 - mem[reg + const]
 - not ESP or EBP
- Base + scaled index
 - mem[reg + (2^{scale} x index)]
 - scale = 0,1,2,3
 - base any GPR, index not ESP
- Base + scaled index + displacement
 - mem[reg + (2^{scale} x index) + displacement]
 - scale = 0,1,2,3
 - base any GPR, index not ESP

Condition Codes

- x86 ISA has condition codes
- Special HW register that has values set as side effect of instruction execution
- Example conditions
 - Zero
 - Negative
- Example use

```
subi $t0, $t0, 1
```

bz loop

80x86 Instruction Encoding

- Variable size 1-byte to 17-bytes
- Jump (JE) 2-bytes
- Push 1-byte
- Add Immediate 5-bytes
- W bit says 32-bits or 8-bits
- D bit indicates direction
 - memory → reg or reg → memory
 - movw EBX, [EDI + 45]
 - movw [EDI + 45], EBX

Decoding x86 Instructions

- Is a nightmare!
- Instruction length is variable from 1 to 17 bytes!
- Prefixes, postfixes
- Crazy "formats" → register specifiers move around
- But key instructions not terrible
- Yet, everything must work correctly

How x86 Won Anyway

- X86 won because it was the first 16-bit chip by 2 years
- IBM put it into its PCs because no competing choice
- Software written to x86 so x86 is the standard
- Hard to complete with Intel
 - X86 is difficult ISA to implement
 - Intel can amortize design effort over vast sales
 - Intel uses RISC "underneath"
- Moore's law has helped in a big way
 - Most engineering problems can be solved with more transistors