

### Computer Systems and Networks

ECPE 170 – Jeff Shafer – University of the Pacific

# Instruction Set Architecture

#### Schedule

#### Today

Closer look at instruction sets

#### Thursday

- Brief discussion of real ISAs
- Quiz 4 (over Chapter 5, i.e. HW #10 and HW #11)
  - Endianness?
  - Infix vs postfix notation?
  - Instructions / expanding opcodes?
  - Addressing modes?
  - Basic pipelines?
  - **尽 RISC vs CISC?**

#### Problem 5.2 – Endianness

- 32-bit number 0x456789A1 starting at address 0x10
  - How is this saved in memory on a big endian system? On a little endian system?

| Address | Big-Endian | Little-Endian |
|---------|------------|---------------|
| 0x10    | 45         | A1            |
| 0x11    | 67         | 89            |
| 0x12    | 89         | 67            |
| 0x13    | A1         | 45            |

One byte (8 bits) per location!

#### Related Problem

| Addr | Value |
|------|-------|
| 0x10 | 45    |
| 0x11 | 67    |
| 0x12 | 89    |
| 0x13 | A1    |

- If the data starting at address 10 is interpreted on a <u>little-endian</u> system as an IEEE 754 single-precision value, what is the decimal value?
- Read off number in correct order (0xA1896745) and convert to binary:
  - **7** 1010 0001 1000 1001 0110 0111 0100 0101
- Interpret:
  - **♂** Sign: 1 (negative)
  - $\pi$  Exp: 01000011 (67 -127 = -60)
  - Significand: **1.**00010010110011101000101
- Result: -1.00010010110011101000101 x 2<sup>-60</sup>

#### Problem 5.9(c) – Infix to Postfix

- Convert from infix to postfix (RPN) notation:  $5 \times (4 + 3) \times 2 6$
- $5 \times (43 +) \times 2 6$
- $(543 + \times) \times 2 6$
- $7 543 + \times 2 \times -6$
- $7543 + \times 2 \times 6 -$

#### Problem 5.11(c) — Postfix to Infix

**Convert from postfix to infix notation:** 

$$357+21-\times1++$$

Use a stack!

#### 5.15 – Expanding Opcodes

- Example computer:
  - 11 bit long instructions
  - 4-bit long address fields
- Can we fit the following instructions into the specified instruction format?
  - 5 2-address instructions
  - 45 1-address instructions
  - 32 0-address instructions
- Let's look at the raw bits and see...

#### Instruction Types



#### Instruction types

- **7 broad categories** of processor instructions:
  - Data movement
  - Arithmetic
  - Boolean
  - Bit manipulation
  - 7 1/0
  - Control transfer
  - Special purpose

Take 3 minutes and brainstorm examples of each

#### Instruction Types – Data Movement

#### Data movement

- Moves data between memory, registers, or both
- Examples
  - MARIE instructions: LOAD X and STORE X
  - PUSH and POP instructions
  - **₹ EXCHANGE**: swap two values
  - May be different instructions for different sizes or types of data (LOADINT and LOADFLT)

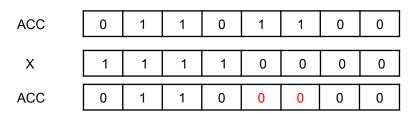
#### Instruction Types - Arithmetic

#### Arithmetic

- Operations which involve the ALU to perform a calculation
- Examples
  - MARIE instructions: ADD X, SUBT X, ADDI X
  - MULTIPLY and DIVIDE
  - INCREMENT and DECREMENT: add or subtract 1 from a value
  - **尽** NEGATE: unary minus
  - Integer and floating point instructions
  - Some instruction sets even include scientific operations (SINE, SQRT, etc)

#### Instruction Types – Boolean

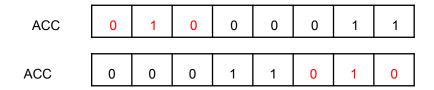
- Boolean
  - Logical operations on groups of bits
- Examples
  - **↗** AND X
    - Performs "bit-wise" operations



OR, NOT, XOR, COMPARE instructions

#### Instruction Types – Bit Manipulation

- Bit manipulation
  - Non-Boolean operations on bits
- Examples
  - ROTATE and SHIFT instructions
- ROTATE moves all bits left or right, and bits which are "shoved out" one side get "shoved in" the other
  - **₹** Example: ROTATEL 3 / rotate left 3 bits



#### Instruction Types – Bit Manipulation

- SHIFT moves all bits left or right, and bits which are "shoved out" are discarded
- For left shifts, 0's are shifted in
- For right shifts, the bits shifted in depends on whether the shift is logical or arithmetic
  - Logical: Shift in 0's
  - Arithmetic: Copy the leftmost bit (sign bit)
    - Thus, a negative number stays negative!

#### Instruction Types – I/O

- Input / Output
  - Transfer data from system to/from external devices
- Examples
  - MARIE instructions: INPUT and OUTPUT
  - Some processors have no special I/O instruction and instead use memory-mapped I/O, treating I/O devices like "special" memory

#### Instruction Types – Control Transfer

#### Control transfer

- Alter the normal sequence of program execution
- Examples
  - MARIE's JUMP, JUMPI, JNS, SKIPCOND, and HALT
  - Other processors have instructions like
    - BEQ/BNE (branch equal/not equal)
    - DJNZ (decrement and jump if not zero)
    - CJNE (compare and jump if not equal)

#### Instruction Types – Special Purpose

- Special purpose
  - Just about everything not covered above
  - These can provide access to special hardware specific to the CPU
    - Intel's SSE (Streaming SIMD Extensions) and AMD's 3DNow! instructions for multimedia applications
    - String manipulation instructions

#### Instruction Types

- One goal of instruction set design is *orthogonality*
- The instructions should be
  - Unique not duplicating the function of any other instruction
  - **Consistent** (for example, the type of operands should not depend on the type of instruction)
- Hard to implement perfectly in practice!
  - Different engineers make difference decisions on best ISA practices

#### 50-Word Problem from HW #10

Describe the key design traits that classify a computer processor as either "CISC" or "RISC" design and state which part of the CPU performance equation each design attempts to optimize



- Addressing modes specify where an operand is located
- Choices?
  - Constant?
  - Register?
  - Memory location?
- The actual location of an operand is called its effective address
- Certain addressing modes allow us to determine the address of an operand dynamically

- Immediate addressing
  - **7** The data is part of the instruction
  - **₹** Example: ADD 1 (where 1 is data, not an address)
- Direct addressing
  - The address of the data is given in the instruction
  - Example: ADD ONE (where "ONE" is a label)
- Register addressing
  - The number / name of the register that holds the data is given in the instruction
  - Example: ADD R1

- Indirect addressing
  - The address of the address of the data is given in the instruction
  - Example: ADDI POINTER
- Register indirect addressing
  - A register stores the address of the address of the data
  - Example: ADDI R1

- Indexed addressing
  - Instruction names two things: **index register** (might be implicit) and an address
    - Index Register holds an offset number (the "index number")
    - Address is a base address
  - **7** Effective address of data = base + offset
  - **Example:** ADD 4(R1)
- Based addressing
  - Same idea, but fields are reversed!
  - Instruction names two things: base register and a displacement address
    - Base register holds the base address
    - Displacement address is the offset ("index")
  - **7** Effective address of data = base + offset

- Stack addressing
  - Operand is assumed to be on top of the stack
- (Even more) variations to these addressing modes!
  - Indirect indexed
  - Self-relative
  - Auto increment / auto decrement
  - **₹** Too much detail for ECPE 170...

Let's look at an example of the principal addressing modes

#### Addressing Modes Example

- For the instruction shown, what value is loaded into the accumulator for each addressing mode?
  - Assume R1 is implied for Indexed mode...

| Memory |      |
|--------|------|
| 800    | 900  |
|        |      |
| 900    | 1000 |
| ***    |      |
| 1000   | 500  |
|        |      |
| 1100   | 600  |
|        |      |
| 1600   | 700  |

LOAD 800

| R1 | 800 |  |
|----|-----|--|
|    |     |  |

| Mode      | Value Loaded into AC |
|-----------|----------------------|
| Immediate |                      |
| Direct    |                      |
| Indirect  |                      |
| Indexed   |                      |

#### Addressing Modes Example

#### Memory

R1 800

LOAD 800

| Mode      | Value Loaded into AC |
|-----------|----------------------|
| Immediate | 800                  |
| Direct    | 900                  |
| Indirect  | 1000                 |
| Indexed   | 700                  |

#### Addressing Modes Exercise

Exercise: For the instruction shown, what value is loaded into the accumulator for each addressing mode?

|      | moae |
|------|------|
| Men  | nory |
| 800  | 900  |
|      |      |
| 900  | 1000 |
|      |      |
| 1000 | 500  |
|      |      |
| 1100 | 600  |
|      |      |
| 1600 | 700  |

LOAD 900

200

R1

| Mode      | Value Loaded into AC |
|-----------|----------------------|
| Immediate |                      |
| Direct    |                      |
| Indirect  |                      |
| Indexed   |                      |

# Instruction Pipelining



#### Instruction Pipelining

- Some CPUs divide the fetch-decode-execute cycle into smaller steps
  - These steps can often to be executed in parallel to increase processor throughput (i.e. more instructions per cycle!)
- Called instruction pipelining
  - Provides for instruction level parallelism (ILP)
  - Executing more than one instruction at a time

### Instruction Pipelining Example

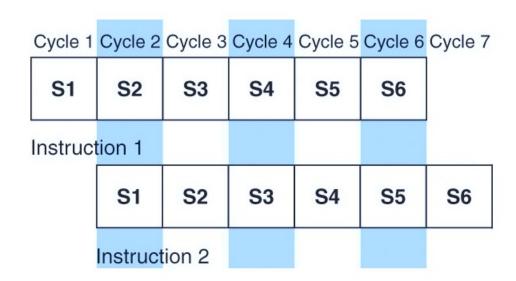
- Suppose a fetch-decode-execute cycle were broken into the following smaller steps:
  - 1. Fetch instruction
  - 2. Decode opcode
  - 3. Calculate effective address of operands

- 4. Fetch operands
- 5. Execute instruction
- 6. Store result

We can implement this cycle with a six-stage pipeline

### Instruction Pipelining Example

- For every clock cycle, one small step is carried out, and the stages are **overlapped** 
  - S1. Fetch instruction
  - S2. Decode opcode
  - S3. Calculate effective address of operands
  - S4. Fetch operands
  - S5. Execute
  - S6. Store result



- What is the <u>theoretical</u> speedup offered by a pipeline?
- Let  $t_p$  be the time per stage. Each instruction represents a task, T, in the pipeline.
- The first task (instruction) requires  $k \times t_p$  time to complete in a k-stage pipeline. The remaining (n 1) tasks emerge from the pipeline one per cycle. So the total time to complete the remaining tasks is (n 1) $t_p$ .
- 7 Thus, to complete n tasks using a k-stage pipeline requires:

7 
$$(k \times t_p) + (n - 1)t_p = (k + n - 1)t_p$$

If we take the time required to complete n tasks without a pipeline (n\*t<sub>n</sub>) and divide it by the time it takes to complete n tasks using a pipeline, we find:

Speedup 
$$S = \frac{nt_n}{(k+n-1)t_p}$$

If we take the limit as n approaches infinity, (k + n - 1) approaches n, which results in a theoretical speedup of:

$$t_n = k * t_p$$
 Speedup  $S = \frac{k t_p}{t_p} = k$ 

- **Example:** 
  - Non-pipelined CPU has a clock period  $t_n = 100ps$
  - CPU is redesigned to be pipelined
    - **★** k=5 stages
    - $\nearrow$  clock period  $t_p = 20ps$
- 7 The theoretical speed-up is 100ps/20ps = 5.
- If we execute n=1,000 sequential tasks (instructions), the actual speed-up is

$$S = \frac{nt_n}{(k+n-1)t_p} = \frac{1000 \times 100 \, ps}{(5+1000-1) \times 20 \, ps} = \frac{100,000 \, ps}{20,080 \, ps} = 4.98$$

#### Exercise

- Suppose we have a non-pipelined CPU with a clock period t<sub>n</sub> of 150ps
- We redesign the CPU to be a 6 stage pipeline with a clock period t<sub>p</sub> of 30ps.
- What is theoretical speed-up?
- If we execute n=500 sequential tasks (instructions), what is the actual speed-up?

- The theoretical speed-up is 150ps/30ps = 5.
- If we execute n=500 sequential tasks (instructions), the actual speed-up is

$$\frac{500 \times 150 ps}{(6+500-1)\times 30 ps} = \frac{75,000 ps}{15,150 ps} = 4.950495...$$

- Real life is not as perfect as these examples would indicate!
- We made a huge assumption here:  $t_n = k * t_p$
- If this is true, then the pipeline is perfectly balanced
  - The hardware in every stage takes the exact same amount of time to operate
- Most pipelines are not balanced
  - **尽** Some stage takes longer to operate than others
    - Example: getting data from memory is slower than decoding the opcode
  - When the pipeline is not balanced, t<sub>p</sub> is determined by the **slowest** stage
  - If  $t_n < k * t_p$ , the speedup of a k-stage pipeline cannot be k

- Real life is even worse there are more problems than simply having some stages be slower than others!
- The architecture may not support fetching instructions and data in parallel
  - Need separate memories
  - → More hardware = more \$\$

- We might not always be able to keep the pipeline full of instructions
  - Hazards cause pipeline conflicts and stalls
- Example hazards
  - Data hazards (dependencies)
  - Structural hazards (resource conflicts)
  - Control hazards (conditional branching)
- Your 50-word problem for HW #12 asks you to explain these hazards
  - **70**-word limit for this one!

- Hazards can cause pipeline to stall or flush
  - **♂ Stall** pipeline is delayed for a cycle
  - Flush all instructions in pipeline are deleted
- Clever hardware or clever assembly programmers (or *optimizing* compilers) can reduce the effects of these hazards
  - **₹** But not fully eliminate them...