CIS 371 Computer Organization and Design

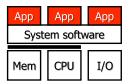
Unit 1: Instruction Set Architectures

Based on slides by Prof. Amir Roth & Prof. Milo Martin

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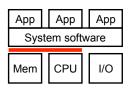
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240 Review: Applications



- **Applications** (Firefox, iTunes, Skype, Word, Google)
 - Run on hardware ... but how?

Instruction Set Architecture (ISA)

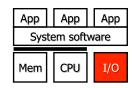


- What is an ISA?
 - And what is a good ISA?
- Aspects of ISAs
 - With examples: LC4, MIPS, x86
- RISC vs. CISC
- Compatibility is a powerful force
 - \bullet Tricks: binary translation, $\mu ISAs$
- Readings
 - Introduction
 - P&H, Chapter 1
 - ISAs
 - P&H, Chapter 2, x86 info on CD

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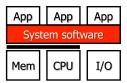
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240 Review: I/O



- Apps interact with us & each other via I/O (input/output)
 - With us: display, sound, keyboard, mouse, touch-screen, camera
 - With each other: disk, network (wired or wireless)
 - Most I/O proper is analog-digital and domain of EE
 - I/O devices present rest of computer a digital interface (1s and 0s)

240 Review: OS

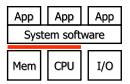


- I/O (& other services) provided by **OS (operating system)**
 - A super-app with privileged access to all hardware
 - Abstracts away a lot of the nastiness of hardware
 - Virtualizes hardware to isolate programs from one another
 - Each application is oblivious to presence of others
 - Simplifies programming, makes system more robust and secure
 - Privilege is key to this
 - Commons OSes are Windows, Linux, MACOS

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240 Review: LC4



- LC4: a toy ISA you know
 - 16-bit ISA (what does this mean?)
 - 16-bit insns
 - 8 registers (integer)
 - ~30 different insns
 - Simple OS support

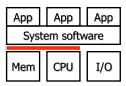
Assembly language

Human-readable ISA representation

array .BLKW #100 .FILL #0 .CODE .FALIGN array sum CONST R5, #0 LEA R1, array LEA R2, sum array sum loop LDR R3, R1, #0 LDR R4, R2, #0 ADD R4, R3, R4 STR R4, R2, #0 ADD R1, R1, #1 ADD R5, R5, #1 CMPI R5, #100 BRn array sum loop

.DATA

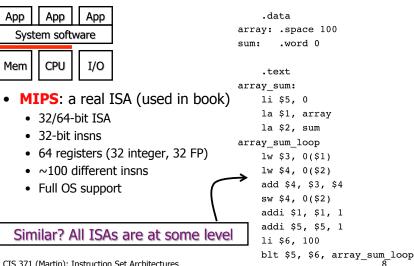
240 Review: ISA



- App/OS are software ... execute on hardware
- HW/SW interface is ISA (instruction set architecture)
 - A "contract" between SW and HW
 - Encourages compatibility, allows SW/HW to evolve independently
 - Functional definition of HW storage locations & operations
 - Storage locations: registers, memory
 - Operations: add, multiply, branch, load, store, etc.
 - Precise description of how to invoke & access them
 - Instructions (bit-patterns hardware interprets as commands)

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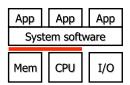
371 Preview: MIPS



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240 Review: C



```
int array[100], sum;
void array_sum (void) {
  for (int i=0; i<100; i++)
     sum += array[i];
}</pre>
```

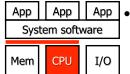
- C: "high-level" programming language
 - Java, Python, C# much higher
 - Hierarchical, structured control: loops, functions, conditionals
 - Hierarchical, structured data: scalars, arrays, pointers, structures
- Compiler: translates HLL to assembly
 - · Straight translation is formulaic and canonical
 - Compiler also optimizes
 - Compiler itself another application ... who compiled compiler?

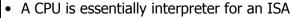
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240 Review: VonNeumann Model





- Logically executes VonNeumann loop
- Program order: total order on dynamic insns
- Order & storage define computation
- Atomic: insn X finishes before insn X+1 starts
 - Actually, only has to "appear" atomic



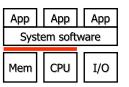
• Feature: program counter (PC)

- Insn itself at memory[PC]
- Next PC is PC++ unless insn says otherwise

Program is just "data in memory"

• Makes computers programmable ("universal")

240 Review: Machine Language



• Machine language

- Machine-readable ISA representation
- 1s and 0s

Assembler

- Translates assembly to machine
- Hex(adecimal)
 - 1/0 short form
 - Each group of 4 bits is 0-F

```
x9200 // CONST R1, array
xD320 // HICONST R1, array
x9464 // CONST R2, sum
xD520 // HICONST R2, sum
x6640 // LDR R3, R1, #0
x6880 // LDR R4, R2, #0
x18C4 // ADD R4, R3, R4
x7880 // STR R4, R2, #0
x1261 // ADD R1, R1, #1
x1BA1 // R5, R5, #1
x2B64 // CMPI R5, #100
x03F8 // BRN array sum loop
```

x9A00 // CONST R5, #0

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What is an ISA?

What Is An ISA?

- ISA (instruction set architecture)
 - A well-defined hardware/software interface
 - The "contract" between software and hardware
 - Functional definition of operations, modes, and storage locations supported by hardware
 - Precise description of how to invoke, and access them
- Not in the "contract"
 - How operations are implemented
 - Which operations are fast and which are slow and when
 - · Which operations take more power and which take less
- Instruction → Insn
 - 'Instruction' is too long to write in slides

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The Sequential Model



- Basic structure of all modern ISAs
 - Often called VonNeuman, but in ENIAC before
- **Program order**: total order on dynamic insns
 - Order and **named storage** define computation
- Convenient feature: program counter (PC)
 - Insn itself at memory[PC]
 - Next PC is PC++ unless insn says otherwise
- Processor logically executes loop at left
- **Atomic**: insn X finishes before insn X+1 starts
 - Can break this constraint physically (pipelining)
 - But must maintain illusion to preserve programmer sanity

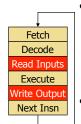
A Language Analogy for ISAs

- Communication
 - Person-to-person → software-to-hardware
- Similar structure
 - Narrative → program
 - Sentence → insn
 - Verb → operation (add, multiply, load, branch)
 - Noun → data item (immediate, register value, memory value)
 - Adjective → addressing mode
- Many different languages, many different ISAs
 - Similar basic structure, details differ (sometimes greatly)
- Key differences between languages and ISAs
 - Languages evolve organically, many ambiguities, inconsistencies
 - ISAs are explicitly engineered and extended, unambiguous

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Where Does Data Live?



Registers

- Named directly in instructions
- "short term memory"
- Faster than memory, quite handy
- Memory
 - Fundamental storage space
 - "longer term memory"
- Immediates
 - Values spelled out as bits in instructions
 - Input only

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LC4

- · LC4 highlights
 - 1 datatype: 16-bit 2C integer
 - Addressable memory locations, insns also 16 bits
 - Most arithmetic operations
 - 8 registers, load-store model, one addressing mode
 - Condition codes for branches
- Why is LC4 this way? (and not some other way?)
- What are some other options?

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Real World Other ISAs

- LC4 has the basic features of a real-world ISA
 - ± Lacks a good bit of realism
 - Only 16-bit
 - Only one data type
 - Little support for system software, none for multiprocessing
 - Talk about these later on in semester
- Two real world ISAs
 - Intel x86
 - MIPS (used in book)

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What Makes a Good ISA?

Programmability

• Easy to express programs efficiently?

Implementability

- Easy to design high-performance implementations?
- More recently
 - Easy to design low-power implementations?
 - Easy to design high-reliability implementations?
 - Easy to design low-cost implementations?

Compatibility

- Easy to maintain programmability (implementability) as languages and programs (technology) evolves?
- x86 (IA32) generations: 8086, 286, 386, 486, Pentium, PentiumII, PentiumII, Pentium4, Core2...

ISA Design Goals

Programmability

- · Easy to express programs efficiently?
 - For whom?
- Before 1985: human
 - Compilers were terrible, most code was hand-assembled
 - Want high-level coarse-grain instructions
 - As similar to high-level language as possible
- After 1985: compiler
 - · Optimizing compilers generate much better code that you or I
 - Want low-level fine-grain instructions
 - Compiler can't tell if two high-level idioms match exactly or not

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Implementability

- Lends itself to high-performance implementations
 - Every ISA can be implemented
 - · Not every ISA can be implemented well
- Background: CPU performance equation
 - Execution time: **seconds/program**
 - Convenient to factor into three pieces
 - (insns/program) * (cycles/insn) * (seconds/cycle)
 - Insns/program: dynamic insns executed
 - Seconds/cycle: clock period
 - Cycles/insn (CPI)
- For high performance all three factors should be low

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ISAs & Performance

- Performance equation:
 - (instructions/program) * (cycles/instruction) * (seconds/cycle)
- A good ISA balances three three aspects
- One example:
 - Big complicated instructions:
 - Reduce "insn/program" (good!)
 - Increases "cycles/instruction" (bad!)
 - Simpler instructions
 - Reverse of above

Insns/Program: Compiler Optimizations

- Compilers do two things
- · Translate high-level languages to assembly functionally
 - Deterministic and fast compile time (gcc −00)
 - "Canonical": not an active research area
 - CIS 341
- "Optimize" generated assembly code
 - "Optimize"? Hard to prove optimality in a complex system
 - In systems: "optimize" means improve... hopefully
 - Involved and relatively slow compile time (gcc -04)
 - Some aspects: reverse-engineer programmer intention
 - Not "canonical": being actively researched
 - CIS 570

Compiler Optimizations

- Primarily reduce insn count
 - Eliminate redundant computation, keep more things in registers
 - + Registers are faster, fewer loads/stores
 - An ISA can make this difficult by having too few registers
- But also...
 - · Reduce branches and jumps (later)
 - Reduce cache misses (later)
 - Reduce dependences between nearby insns (later)
 - An ISA can make this difficult by having implicit dependences
- How effective are these?
 - + Can give 4X performance over unoptimized code
 - Collective wisdom of 40 years ("Proebsting's Law"): 4% per year
 - Funny but ... shouldn't leave 4X performance on the table

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Seconds/Cycle and Cycle/Insn: Hmmm...

- For simple "single-cycle" datapath
 - Cycle/insn: 1 by definition
 - Seconds/cycle: proportional to "complexity of datapath"
 - ISA can make seconds/cycle high by requiring a complex datapath

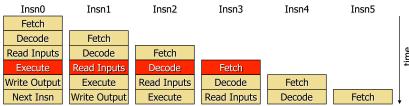
Compiler Optimization Example (LC4)

```
;; temp = *first
   ;; temp = *first
LDR R7, R5, #2 ; R7=first
                                  LDR R7, R5, #2
LDR R4, R7, #0
                                  LDR R4, R7, #0
                                  STR R4, R5, #-1; unneeded
STR R4, R5, #-1
   ;; *first = *second
                                     ;; *first = *second
LDR R3, R5, #3; R3=second
                                  LDR R3, R5, #3
LDR R2, R3, #0
                                  LDR R2, R3, #0
LDR R7, R5, #2; redundant
STR R2, R7, #0
                                  STR R2, R7, #0
   ;; *second = temp
                                     ;; *second = temp
LDR R4, R5, #-1
                                  LDR R4, R5, #-1; uneeded
LDR R3, R5, #3; redundant
STR R4, R3, #0
                                  STR R4, R3, #0
```

- Left: common sub-expression elimination
 - Remove calculations whose results are already in some register
- Right: register allocation
- Keep temporary in register across statements, avoid stack spill/fill CIS 371 (Martin): Instruction Set Architectures

Foreshadowing: Pipelining

- Sequential model: insn X finishes before insn X+1 starts
 - An illusion designed to keep programmers sane
- **Pipelining**: important performance technique
 - Hardware overlaps "processing iterations" for insns
 - Variable insn length/format makes pipelining difficult
 - Complex datapaths also make pipelining difficult (or clock slow)
 - · More about this later



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Instruction Granularity: RISC vs CISC

- RISC (Reduced Instruction Set Computer) ISAs
 - Minimalist approach to an ISA: simple insns only
 - + Low "cycles/insn" and "seconds/cycle"
 - Higher "insn/program", but hopefully not as much
 - · Rely on compiler optimizations
- CISC (Complex Instruction Set Computing) ISAs
 - A more heavyweight approach: both simple and complex insns
 - + Low "insns/program"
 - Higher "cycles/insn" and "seconds/cycle"
 - We have the technology to get around this problem
- More on this later, but first ISA basics

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Array Sum Loop: LC4

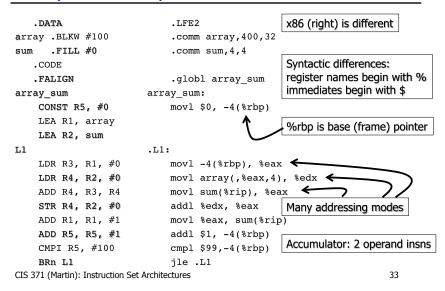
```
.DATA
array .BLKW #100
     .FILL #0
   .CODE
   .FALIGN
                                   int array[100];
array sum
                                   int sum;
    CONST R5, #0
    LEA R1, array
                                    void array_sum(void) {
    LEA R2, sum
                                       for (int i=0; i<100;i++)
                                          sum += array[i];
    LDR R3, R1, #0
    LDR R4, R2, #0
    ADD R4, R3, R4
    STR R4, R2, #0
    ADD R1, R1, #1
    ADD R5, R5, #1
    CMPI R5, #100
    BRn L1
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```

Array Sum Loop: LC4 → MIPS

ISA Code Example

```
MIPS (right) similar to LC4
   .DATA
                             .data
array .BLKW #100
                        array: .space 100
     .FILL #0
                        sum: .word 0
   .CODE
   .FALIGN
                             .text
                                              Syntactic differences:
                        array sum:
array sum
                                              register names begin with $
    CONST R5, #0
                            li $5, 0
                                              immediates are un-prefixed
    LEA R1, array
                            la $1, array
    LEA R2, sum
                             la $2, sum
                                              Displacement addressing syntax:
    LDR R3, R1, #0
                            lw $3, 0($1)
                                              displacement(reg)
    LDR R4, R2, #0
                            lw $4, 0($2)
    ADD R4, R3, R4
                            add $4, $3, $4
                             sw $4, 0($2)
    STR R4, R2, #0
                             addi $1, $1, 1
    ADD R1, R1, #1
    ADD R5, R5, #1
                             addi $5, $5, 1
    CMPI R5, #100
                            li $6, 100
    BRn L1
                            blt $5, $6, L1
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                                                                     32
```

Array Sum Loop: LC4 → x86



Aspects of ISAs

Array Sum Loop: x86 → Optimized x86

```
.LFE2
                                       .LFE2
                                           .comm array, 400,32
    .comm array, 400, 32
                                           .comm sum, 4, 4
    .comm sum, 4, 4
                                           .globl array sum
    .globl array sum
array sum:
                                      array sum:
    mov1 $0, -4(%rbp)
                                         movl sum(%rip), %edx
                                         xorl %eax, %eax
                                      .L1:
.L1:
    movl -4(%rbp), %eax
                                         addl array(%rax), %edx
    movl array(,%eax,4), %edx
                                         addq $4, %rax
    movl sum(%rip), %eax
                                         cmpq $400, %rax
    addl %edx, %eax
                                         jne .L1
    movl %eax, sum(%rip)
    addl $1, -4(%rbp)
    cmpl $99,-4(%rbp)
    jle .L1
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```

Length and Format



Length

- Fixed length
 - Most common is 32 bits
 - + Simple implementation (next PC often just PC+4)
 - Code density: 32 bits to increment a register by 1
- Variable length
 - + Code density
 - x86 can do increment in one 8-bit instruction
 - Complex fetch (where does next instruction begin?)
- Compromise: two lengths
 - E.g., MIPS16 or ARM's Thumb

Encoding

- A few simple encodings simplify decoder
 - x86 decoder one nasty piece of logic

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LC4/MIPS/x86 Length and Encoding

• LC4: 2-byte insns, 3 formats

0-reg	Op(4) Offset(12)
1-reg	Op(4)R(3) Offset(9)
2-reg	Op(4)R(3)R(3)Offset(6)
3-reg	Op(4)R(3)R(3)U(3)R(3)

• MIPS: 4-byte insns, 3 formats

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

• x86: 1–16 byte insns, many formats

Prefix (1-4) OP OPEXL MOURIN SIB DISP (1-4) IIIIII (1-	Prefix*(1-4)	Op	OpExt*	ModRM*	SIB*	Disp*(1-4)	Imm*(1-4)
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Operations and Datatypes



- Datatypes
 - · Software: attribute of data
 - Hardware: attribute of operation, data is just 0/1's
- All processors support
 - Integer arithmetic/logic (8/16/32/64-bit)
 - IEEE754 floating-point arithmetic (32/64-bit)
- More recently, most processors support
 - "Packed-integer" insns, e.g., MMX
 - "Packed-fp" insns, e.g., SSE/SSE2
 - For multimedia, more about these later
- Other, infrequently supported, data types
 - Decimal, other fixed-point arithmetic
 - Binary-coded decimal (BCD)

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LC4/MIPS/x86 Operations and Datatypes

- LC4
 - 16-bit integer: add, and, not, sub, mul, div, or, xor, shifts
 - No floating-point
- MIPS
 - 32(64) bit integer: add, sub, mul, div, shift, rotate, and, or, not, xor
 - 32(64) bit floating-point: add, sub, mul, div
- x86
 - 32(64) bit integer: add, sub, mul, div, shift, rotate, and, or, not, xor
 - 80-bit floating-point: add, sub, mul, div, sqrt
 - 64-bit packed integer (MMX): padd, pmul...
 - 64(128)-bit packed floating-point (SSE/2): padd, pmul...

Where Does Data Live?



Memory

• Fundamental storage space

- Registers
 - Faster than memory, guite handy
 - Most processors have these too
- Immediates
 - Values spelled out as bits in instructions
 - Input only

How Many Registers?

- Registers faster than memory, have as many as possible?
 - No
- One reason registers are faster: there are fewer of them
 - Small is fast (hardware truism)
- Another: they are **directly addressed** (no address calc)
 - More registers, means more bits per register in instruction
 - Thus, fewer registers per instruction or larger instructions
- Not everything can be put in registers
 - Structures, arrays, anything pointed-to
 - · Although compilers are getting better at putting more things in
- More registers means more saving/restoring
 - Across function calls, traps, and context switches
- Trend: more registers: 8 (x86) → 32 (MIPS) → 128 (IA64)
 - 64-bit x86 has 16 64-bit integer and 16 128-bit FP registers

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How Much Memory? Address Size

- What does "64-bit" in a 64-bit ISA mean?
 - Each program can address (i.e., use) 2⁶⁴ bytes
 - 64 is the virtual address (VA) size
 - Alternative (wrong) definition: width of arithmetic operations
- Most critical, inescapable ISA design decision
 - Too small? Will limit the lifetime of ISA
 - May require nasty hacks to overcome (E.g., x86 segments)
- x86 evolution:
 - 4-bit (4004), 8-bit (8008), 16-bit (8086), 24-bit (80286),
 - 32-bit + protected memory (80386)
 - 64-bit (AMD's Opteron & Intel's Pentium4)
- All ISAs moving to 64 bits (if not already there)

LC4/MIPS/x86 Registers

- LC4
 - 8 16-bit integer registers
 - · No floating-point registers
- MIPS
 - 32 32-bit integer registers (\$0 hardwired to 0)
 - 32 32-bit floating-point registers (or 16 64-bit registers)
- x86
 - 8 8/16/32-bit integer registers (not general purpose)
 - No floating-point registers!
- 64-bit x86
 - 16 64-bit integer registers
 - 16 128-bit floating-point registers

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LC4/MIPS/x86 Memory Size

- LC4
 - 16-bit (216 16-bit words) x 2 (split data and instruction memory)
- MIPS
 - 32-bit
 - 64-bit
- x86

8086: 16-bit80286: 24-bit80386: 32-bit

• AMD Opteron/Athlon64, Intel's newer Pentium4, Core 2: 64-bit

How Are Memory Locations Specified?

- · Registers are specified directly
 - Register names are short, can be encoded in instructions
 - Some instructions implicitly read/write certain registers
- How are addresses specified?
 - Addresses are as big or bigger than insns
 - Addressing mode: how are insn bits converted to addresses?
 - Think about: what high-level idiom addressing mode captures

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LC4/MIPS/x86 Addressing Modes

- LC4
 - Displacement: R1+offset (6-bit)
- MIPS
 - Displacement: R1+offset (16-bit)
 - Experiments showed this covered 80% of accesses on VAX
- x86 (MOV instructions)
 - Absolute: zero + offset (8/16/32-bit)
 - **Displacement**: R1+offset (8/16/32-bit)
 - Indexed: R1+R2
 - **Scaled:** R1 + (R2*Scale) + offset (8/16/32-bit) Scale = 1, 2, 4, 8
 - PC-relative: PC + offset (32-bit)

Memory Addressing

- Addressing mode: way of specifying address
 - Used in memory-memory or load/store instructions in register ISA
- Examples
 - **Displacement:** R1=mem[R2+immed]
 - Index-base: R1=mem[R2+R3]
 - Memory-indirect: R1=mem[mem[R2]]
 - Auto-increment: R1=mem[R2], R2= R2+1
 - **Auto-indexing:** R1=mem[R2+immed], R2=R2+immed
 - **Scaled:** R1=mem[R2+R3*immed1+immed2]
 - **PC-relative:** R1=mem[PC+imm]
- What high-level program idioms are these used for?
- What implementation impact? What impact on insn count?

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x86 Addressing Modes

```
LFE2
    .comm array, 400,32
    .comm sum, 4, 4
    .globl array sum
                                  Displacement
array sum:
    mov1 $0, -4(%rbp)
                                  Scaled: address = array + ([\%eax] * 4)
                                   Used for sequential array access
    movl -4(%rbp), %eax
    movl array(,%eax,4), %edx
    movl sum(%rip), %eax ◀
                                   PC-relative
    addl %edx, %eax
    movl %eax, sum(%rip)
    addl $1, -4(%rbp)
    cmpl $99,-4(%rbp)
                             Note: movl is load, store, reg-move, load-const
    jle .L1
```

Two More Addressing Issues

- Access alignment: address % size == 0?
 - Aligned: load-word @XXXX00, load-half @XXXXX0
 - Unaligned: load-word @XXXX10, load-half @XXXXX1
 - Question: what to do with unaligned accesses (uncommon case)?
 - Support in hardware? Makes all accesses slow
 - Trap to software routine? Possibility
 - Use regular instructions
 - Load, shift, load, shift, and
 - MIPS? ISA support: unaligned access using two instructions

lwl @XXXX10; lwr @XXXX10

- Endian-ness: arrangement of bytes in a word
 - Big-endian: sensible order (e.g., MIPS, PowerPC)
 - A 4-byte integer: "00000000 00000000 00000010 00000011" is 515
 - Little-endian: reverse order (e.g., x86)
 - A 4-byte integer: "00000011 00000010 00000000 00000000 " is 515
 - Why little endian? To be different? To be annoying? Nobody knows

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Operand Model: Register or Memory?

- "Load/store" architectures
 - Memory access instructions (loads and stores) are distinct
 - Separate addition, subtraction, divide, etc. operations
 - Examples: MIPS, ARM, SPARC, PowerPC
- Alternative: mixed operand model (x86, VAX)
 - Operand can be from register **or** memory
 - x86 example: addl 100, 4(%eax)
 - 1. Loads from memory location [4 + %eax]
 - 2. Adds "100" to that value
 - 3. Stores to memory location [4 + %eax]
 - Would requires three instructions in MIPS, for example.

How Many Explicit Operands / ALU Insn?

- Operand model: how many explicit operands / ALU insn?
 - 3: general-purpose

```
add R1,R2,R3 means [R1] = [R2] + [R3] (MIPS uses this)
```

• 2: multiple explicit accumulators (output doubles as input)

add R1,R2 means [R1] = [R1] + [R2] (x86 uses this)

• 1: one implicit accumulator

add R1 means ACC = ACC + [R1]

- 4+: useful only in special situations
- Why have fewer?
 - Primarily code density (size of each instruction in program binary)
- Examples show register operands...
 - But operands can be memory addresses, or mixed register/memory
 - ISAs with register-only ALU insns are "load-store"

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LC4/MIPS/x86 Operand Models

- LC4
 - Integer: 8 general-purpose registers, load-store
 - Floating-point: none
- MIPS
 - Integer/floating-point: 32 general-purpose registers, load-store
- x86
 - Integer (8 registers) reg-reg, reg-mem, mem-reg, but no mem-mem
 - Floating point: stack (why x86 floating-point lagged for years)
 - SSE introduced 16 general purpose floating-point registers
 - Note: also reg-mem and mem-mem string functions in hardware

• Note: integer push, pop for managing software stack

- x86-64
 - Integer/floating-point: 16 registers

x86 Operand Model: Accumulators

```
.LFE2
                             • RISCs use general-purpose registers
    .comm array, 400,32
                             • x86 uses explicit accumulators
    .comm sum, 4, 4
                                 • Both register and memory
    .globl array sum

    Distinguished by addressing mode

array sum:
    mov1 $0, -4(%rbp)
                             Register accumulator: %eax = %eax + %edx
.L1:
    movl -4(%rbp), %eax
   movl array(,%eax,4), %edx
   movl sum(%rip), %eax
    addl %edx, %eax 	
    mov1 %eax, sum(%rip)
    addl $1, -4(%rbp)
    cmpl $99,-4(%rbp)
                            Memory accumulator: -4(\%rbp) = -4(\%rbp) + $1
    ile .L1
                                                                   53
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```

Control Transfers



- Default next-PC is PC + sizeof(current insn)
- Branches and jumps can change that
 - Otherwise dynamic program == static program
- Computing targets: where to jump to
 - · For all branches and jumps
 - PC-relative: for branches and jumps with function
 - · Absolute: for function calls
 - Register indirect: for returns, switches & dynamic calls
- Testing conditions: whether to jump at all
 - For (conditional) branches only

Operand Model & Compiler Optimizations

- How do operand model & addressing mode affect compiler?
- Again, what does a compiler try to do?
 - Reduce insn count, reduce load/store count (important), schedule
- What features enable or limit these?
 - + (Many) general-purpose registers let you reduce stack accesses
 - Implicit operands clobber values
 - addl %edx, %eax destroys initial value in %eax
 - Requires additional insns to preserve if needed
 - Implicit operands also restrict scheduling
 - Classic example, condition code
 - Upshot: you want a general-purpose register load-store ISA (MIPS)

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Control Transfers I: Computing Targets

- The issues
 - How far (statically) do you need to jump?
 - Not far within procedure, further from one procedure to another
 - Do you need to jump to a different place each time?
- PC-relative
 - Position-independent within procedure
 - Used for branches and jumps within a procedure
- Absolute
 - Position independent outside procedure
 - Used for procedure calls
- **Indirect** (target found in register)
 - Needed for jumping to dynamic targets
 - Used for returns, dynamic procedure calls, switch statements

Control Transfers II: Testing Conditions

Compare and branch insns

branch-less-than R1,10, target

- + Fewer instructions
- Two ALUs: one for condition, one for target address
- Less room for target in insn
- Extra latency

• Implicit condition codes (x86, LC4)

cmp R1,10 // sets "negative" CC
branch-neg target

- + More room for target in insn, condition codes often set "for free"
- + Branch insn simple and fast
- Implicit dependence is tricky

Condition registers, separate branch insns (MIPS)

set-less-than R2,R1,10
branch-not-equal-zero R2,target
± A compromise

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ISAs Also Include Support For...

- Function calling conventions
 - Which registers are saved across calls, how parameters are passed
- Operating systems & memory protection
 - · Privileged mode
 - System call (TRAP)
 - Exceptions & interrupts
 - Interacting with I/O devices
- Multiprocessor support
 - "Atomic" operations for synchronization
- Data-level parallelism
 - Pack many values into a wide register
 - Intel's SSE2: four 32-bit float-point values into 128-bit register
 - Define parallel operations (four "adds" in one cycle)

LC4, MIPS, x86 Control Transfers

- LC4
 - 9-bit offset PC-relative branches (condition codes)
 - 11-bit offset PC-relative jumps
 - 11-bit absolute 16-byte aligned calls
- MIPS
 - 16-bit offset PC-relative conditional branches
 - Uses register for condition
 - Compare 2 regs: beq, bne or reg to 0: bgtz, bgez, bltz, blez
 - + Don't need adder for these, cover 80% of cases
 - Explicit condition registers: slt, sltu, slti, sltiu, etc.
 - 26-bit target absolute jumps and calls
- x86
 - 8-bit offset PC-relative branches
 - Uses condition codes
 - Explicit compare instructions (and others) to set condition codes

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The RISC vs. CISC Debate

RISC and CISC

- RISC: reduced-instruction set computer
 - Coined by Patterson in early 80's
 - RISC-I (Patterson), MIPS (Hennessy), IBM 801 (Cocke)
 - Examples: PowerPC, ARM, SPARC, Alpha, PA-RISC
- **CISC**: complex-instruction set computer
 - Term didn't exist before "RISC"
 - Examples: x86, VAX, Motorola 68000, etc.
- Philosophical war (one of several) started in mid 1980's
 - RISC "won" the technology battles
 - CISC won the high-end commercial war (1990s to today)
 - Compatibility a stronger force than anyone (but Intel) thought
 - RISC won the embedded computing war

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Role of Compilers

- Who is generating assembly code?
- Humans like high-level "CISC" ISAs (close to prog. langs)
 - + Can "concretize" ("drill down"): move down a layer
 - + Can "abstract" ("see patterns"): move up a layer
 - Can deal with few things at a time \rightarrow like things at a high level
- Computers (compilers) like low-level "RISC" ISAs
 - + Can deal with many things at a time \rightarrow can do things at any level
 - + Can "concretize": 1-to-many lookup functions (databases)
 - Difficulties with abstraction: many-to-1 lookup functions (AI)
 - Translation should move strictly "down" levels
- Stranger than fiction
 - People once thought computers would execute prog. lang. directly

The Context

- Pre 1980
 - Bad compilers (so assembly written by hand)
 - Complex, high-level ISAs (easier to write assembly)
 - Slow multi-chip micro-programmed implementations
 - Vicious feedback loop
- Around 1982
 - Moore's Law makes single-chip microprocessor possible...
 - ...but only for small, simple ISAs
 - Performance advantage of this "integration" was compelling
 - · Compilers had to get involved in a big way
- RISC manifesto: create ISAs that...
 - · Simplify single-chip implementation
 - · Facilitate optimizing compilation

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Early 1980s: The Tipping Point

- Moore's Law makes single-chip microprocessor possible...
 - ...but only for small, simple ISAs
- Performance advantage of "integration" was compelling
- RISC manifesto: create ISAs that...
 - Simplify implementation
 - Facilitate optimizing compilation
 - Some guiding principles ("tenets")
 - Single cycle execution/hard-wired control
 - Fixed instruction length, format
 - Lots of registers, load-store architecture
- No equivalent "CISC manifesto"

The RISC Tenets

- Single-cycle execution
 - · CISC: many multicycle operations
- Hardwired control
 - CISC: microcoded multi-cycle operations
- Load/store architecture
 - CISC: register-memory and memory-memory
- · Few memory addressing modes
 - CISC: many modes
- Fixed-length instruction format
 - · CISC: many formats and lengths
- Reliance on compiler optimizations
 - CISC: hand assemble to get good performance
- Many registers (compilers are better at using them)
 - CISC: few registers

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The Debate

- RISC argument
 - CISC is fundamentally handicapped
 - For a given technology, RISC implementation will be better (faster)
 - Current technology enables single-chip RISC
 - When it enables single-chip CISC, RISC will be pipelined
 - When it enables pipelined CISC, RISC will have caches
 - When it enables CISC with caches, RISC will have next thing...
- CISC rebuttal
 - CISC flaws not fundamental, can be fixed with more transistors
 - Moore's Law will narrow the RISC/CISC gap (true)
 - Good pipeline: RISC = 100K transistors, CISC = 300K
 - By 1995: 2M+ transistors had evened playing field
 - Software costs dominate, **compatibility** is paramount

CISCs and RISCs

- The CISCs: x86, VAX (Virtual Address eXtension to PDP-11)
 - Variable length instructions: 1-321 bytes!!!
 - 14 registers + PC + stack-pointer + condition codes
 - Data sizes: 8, 16, 32, 64, 128 bit, decimal, string
 - · Memory-memory instructions for all data sizes
 - Special insns: crc, insque, polyf, and a cast of hundreds
 - x86: "Difficult to explain and impossible to love"
- The RISCs: MIPS, PA-RISC, SPARC, PowerPC, Alpha, ARM
 - 32-bit instructions
 - 32 integer registers, 32 floating point registers, load-store
 - 64-bit virtual address space
 - Few addressing modes
 - Why so many basically similar ISAs? Everyone wanted their own

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Compatibility

- In many domains, ISA must remain compatible
 - IBM's 360/370 (the first "ISA family")
 - Another example: Intel's x86 and Microsoft Windows
 - x86 one of the worst designed ISAs EVER, but survives
- Backward compatibility
 - New processors supporting old programs
 - Can't drop features (caution in adding new ISA features)
 - Or, update software/OS to emulate dropped features (slow)
- Forward (upward) compatibility
 - Old processors supporting new programs
 - Include a "CPU ID" so the software can test of features
 - Add ISA hints by overloading no-ops (example: x86's PAUSE)
 - New firmware/software on old processors to emulate new insn

Intel's Compatibility Trick: RISC Inside

- 1993: Intel wanted "out-of-order execution" in Pentium Pro
 - Hard to do with a coarse grain ISA like x86
- Solution? Translate x86 to RISC **pops** in hardware

```
push $eax
becomes (we think, uops are proprietary)
store $eax [$esp-4]
addi $esp,$esp,-4
```

- + Processor maintains x86 ISA externally for compatibility
- + But executes **RISC** μ**ISA internally for implementability**
- Given translator, x86 almost as easy to implement as RISC
 - Intel implemented out-of-order before any RISC company
 - Also, OoO also benefits x86 more (because ISA limits compiler)
- Idea co-opted by other x86 companies: AMD and Transmeta

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Translation and Virtual ISAs

- New compatibility interface: ISA + translation software
 - Binary-translation: transform static image, run native
 - Emulation: unmodified image, interpret each dynamic insn
 - Typically optimized with just-in-time (JIT) compilation
 - Examples: FX!32 (x86 on Alpha), Rosetta (PowerPC on x86)
 - Performance overheads reasonable (many recent advances)
 - Transmeta's "code morphing" translation layer
 - Performed with a software layer below OS
 - Looks like x86 to the OS & applications, different ISA underneath
- Virtual ISAs: designed for translation, not direct execution
 - Target for high-level compiler (one per language)
 - Source for low-level translator (one per ISA)
 - Goals: Portability (abstract hardware nastiness), flexibility over time
 - Examples: Java Bytecodes, C# CLR (Common Language Runtime)

More About Micro-ops

- Two forms of hardware translation
 - Hard-coded logic: fast, but complex
 - Table: slow, but "off to the side", doesn't complicate rest of machine
- x86: average ~1.6 μops / x86 insn
 - Logic for common insns that translate into 1–4 μops
 - Table for rare insns that translate into 5+ μops
- x86-64: average ~1.1 μops / x86 insn
 - More registers (can pass parameters too), fewer pushes/pops
 - Core2: logic for 1–2 μops, table for 3+ μops?
- More recent: "macro-op fusion" and "micro-op fusion"
 - Intel's recent processors fuse certain instruction pairs
 - Macro-op fusion: fuses "compare" and "branch" instructions
 - Micro-op fusion: fuses load/add pairs, fuses store "address" & "data"

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Ultimate Compatibility Trick

- Support old ISA by...
 - ...having a simple processor for that ISA somewhere in the system
 - How first Itanium supported x86 code
 - x86 processor (comparable to Pentium) on chip
 - How PlayStation2 supported PlayStation games
 - Used PlayStation processor for I/O chip & emulation

Current Winner (Revenue): CISC

- x86 was first 16-bit microprocessor by ~2 years
 - IBM put it into its PCs because there was no competing choice
 - Rest is historical inertia and "financial feedback"
 - x86 is most difficult ISA to implement and do it fast but...
 - Because Intel sells the most **non-embedded** processors...
 - It has the most money...
 - Which it uses to hire more and better engineers...
 - Which it uses to maintain competitive performance ...
 - And given competitive performance, compatibility wins...
 - So Intel sells the most non-embedded processors...
 - AMD as a competitor keeps pressure on x86 performance
- Moore's law has helped Intel in a big way
 - Most engineering problems can be solved with more transistors

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Redux: Are ISAs Important?

- Does "quality" of ISA actually matter?
 - Not for performance (mostly)
 - Mostly comes as a design complexity issue
 - Insn/program: everything is compiled, compilers are good
 - \bullet Cycles/insn and seconds/cycle: $\mu ISA,$ many other tricks
 - What about power efficiency? *Maybe*
 - ARMs are most power efficient today...
 - ...but Intel is moving x86 that way (e.g, Intel's Atom)
 - Open question: can x86 be as power efficient as ARM?
- Does "nastiness" of ISA matter?
 - Mostly no, only compiler writers and hardware designers see it
- Even compatibility is not what it used to be
 - · Software emulation
 - Open question: will "ARM compatibility" be the next x86?

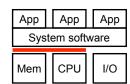
Current Winner (Volume): RISC

- ARM (Acorn RISC Machine → Advanced RISC Machine)
 - First ARM chip in mid-1980s (from Acorn Computer Ltd).
 - 3 billion units sold in 2009 (>60% of all 32/64-bit CPUs)
 - Low-power and **embedded** devices (phones, for example)
 - Significance of embedded? ISA Compatibility less powerful force
- 32-bit RISC ISA
 - 16 registers, PC is one of them
 - Many addressing modes, e.g., auto increment
 - Condition codes, each instruction can be conditional
- Multiple implementations
 - X-scale (design was DEC's, bought by Intel, sold to Marvel)
 - Others: Freescale (was Motorola), Texas Instruments, STMicroelectronics, Samsung, Sharp, Philips, etc.

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Summary



- What is an ISA?
 - A functional contract
- All ISAs are basically the same
 - But many design choices in details
 - Two "philosophies": CISC/RISC
- Good ISA enables high-performance
 - At least doesn't get in the way
- Compatibility is a powerful force
 - \bullet Tricks: binary translation, $\mu ISAs$
- Next: single-cycle datapath/control