

Material from sections 2.1, 2.2, and 2.3.

Outline

ISA Design Choices

It's more than just picking instructions.

ISA Design Choice Details

Screw up, and you'll be cursed for decades.

I. Organization

- A. Data types (supported by ISA).
- B. Memory and register organization.
- C. Addressing modes.

II. Instruction Choices

- A. Data movement instructions.
- B. Arithmetic and logical instructions.
- C. Control transfer instructions (CTIs). (Branch, jump, call, return.)
- D. Process and processor management instructions.

III. Instruction Coding

Outline

Data Types

Memory and Register Organization

ISA Classification

Addressing Modes

Displacement and Immediate Sizes

To include a new data type:

Determine its size.

Define operations.

Add new instructions to operate on it.

Data Types for Simple 32-bit Machine

Type	Special Instructions
32-bit signed integer	
32-bit unsigned integer	<code>addu</code>
16-bit signed integer	<code>lh</code> , load half-word.
16-bit unsigned integer	<code>lhu</code> , load half-word unsigned.
8-bit signed integer	<code>lb</code> , load byte.
8-bit unsigned integer	<code>lbu</code> , load unsigned byte.
32-bit float	<code>addf</code> , add 32-bit floating-point.
64-bit float (double)	<code>addd</code> , add 64-bit floating-point.

Signed integer types operated on by integer arithmetic instructions.

Unsigned integers operated on by logical and unsigned integer arithmetic instructions.

The basic 32-bit load instruction not appropriate for smaller types.

The `lh`, `lhu`, `lb`, and `lbu` instructions ...

... place data in low portion of 32-bit registers ...

... and place zeros or a sign bit high portion.

Data Type Tradeoffs

Possible benefit of a new data type.

Using one of the new instructions faster than many old instructions.

Possible drawbacks of a new data type.

Execution not much faster because ...

... data type is used infrequently or ...

... execution using other instructions nearly as fast.

More performance would be obtained if chip area used for new instructions was used elsewhere.

Data Type Tradeoff Examples

Start with integer-only ISA.

Example of a good new data type: floating-point.

FP hardware many times faster than software.

Floating-point arithmetic used frequently in many programs.

Example of a bad new data type: time.

Detail of time data type:

Size 64 bits. (The number of seconds since 1970 UTC, avoid Y2.038k [s4G?] problem.).

Some Instructions:

`t.add.day` **<sumtime>** **<time>** **<days>** ...

... All operands are registers. ...

... Add **<days>** days (an integer) to **<time>** (a time), store result in **<sumtime>**.

`t.to.dom` **<dom>** **<time>** ...

... All operands are registers. ...

... Store the day of month (integer) for time **<time>** in register **<dom>**.

`t.diff` **<diff>** **<time1>** **<time2>** ...

... All operands are registers. ...

... Store the difference between **<time1>** and **<time2>** in **<diff>**.

Problems with time data type.

Instructions would not be used often enough.

Possibly not much faster.

Complex control, about the same as transcendental functions (sin, etc.).

Therefore chip area and unused opcodes should be used for other new data types.

Common Data Type Sizes

Type usually specified with a size.

- *Byte, char, octet.* 1 byte (8 bits here).
- *Half word.* 2 bytes.
- *Word.* 4 bytes.
- *Doubleword.* 8 bytes.
- *Quadword.* 16 bytes.

Common Types and Sizes

- *Unsigned integer* and *integer*. Byte, half word, word, doubleword.

Used for address computation and throughout programs.

Integer size (along with address space) defines ISA size: 32-bit, 64-bit, etc.

Integers are sign-extended when moved into a larger register ...
... while unsigned integers are not.

- *Floating-point*. Word, doubleword, quadword.

Most newer machines use the IEEE 754 format.

- *BCD*. Word, etc.

Each word holds several BCD digits of a **single** fixed-point number.

E.g., word holds a 8-digit BCD integer.

Decimal fractions such as .03 exactly represented.

Used for financial computations, typically in Cobol programs.

Used primarily in older architectures.

- *Packed integer, packed fixed-point*. Word, double word.

Holds **several** small integer or fixed-point values.

Operated on by *saturating* arithmetic instructions.

Used by *packed-operand* instructions which operate on each small value in parallel.

Used in newer ISA versions. *E.g.*, Sun VIS, Intel MMX, HP PA MAX.

Consider integers 1239_{10} and 5678_{10} .

As half-word-size (short) integers: ...

... $1239_{10} = 0x04d7 =$

	0		0x04d7
31	16	15	0

 (in 32-bit register) and ...

... $5678_{10} = 0x162e =$

	0		0x1628
31	16	15	0

As BCD integers:

$1239_{10} = 0x1239 =$

	0	0	0	0	1	2	3	9							
31	28	27	24	23	20	19	16	15	12	11	8	7	4	3	0

$5678_{10} = 0x5678 =$

	0	0	0	0	5	6	7	8							
31	28	27	24	23	20	19	16	15	12	11	8	7	4	3	0

Consider two lists of integers: $\{1, 2, 3, 9\}$ and $\{5, 6, 7, 8\}$.

As packed 4-bit unsigned integer (8 4-bit numbers per word):

$$\{1, 2, 3, 9\} = 0x1239 = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 9 & & & & & & & \\ \hline 31 & 28 & 27 & 24 & 23 & 20 & 19 & 16 & 15 & 12 & 11 & 8 & 7 & 4 & 3 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\{5, 6, 7, 8\} = 0x5678 = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & & & & & & & \\ \hline 31 & 28 & 27 & 24 & 23 & 20 & 19 & 16 & 15 & 12 & 11 & 8 & 7 & 4 & 3 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Addition:	Integer	BCD	Packed Int.
	0x04d7	0x1239	0x1239
	+ 0x162e	+ 0x5678	+ 0x5678
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	0x1b05	0x6917	0x68af
	= 6917 ₁₀	= 6917 ₁₀	= {6, 8, 10, 15}

	Sign	Short Int.
0x1b05 =	0	0x1b05
	31	16 15 0

	MSD								LSD							
0x6917 =	0	0	0	0	6	9	1	7								
	31	28	27	24	23	20	19	16	15	12	11	8	7	4	3	0

0x68af =	0	0	0	0	6	8	a	f								
	31	28	27	24	23	20	19	16	15	12	11	8	7	4	3	0

Addition of packed integers is *saturating*: ...

... result is maximum value if sum exceeds maximum value.

For example, $12 + 8 = 15$, assuming 15 is the maximum value.

Data below for SPEC92 programs on VAX.

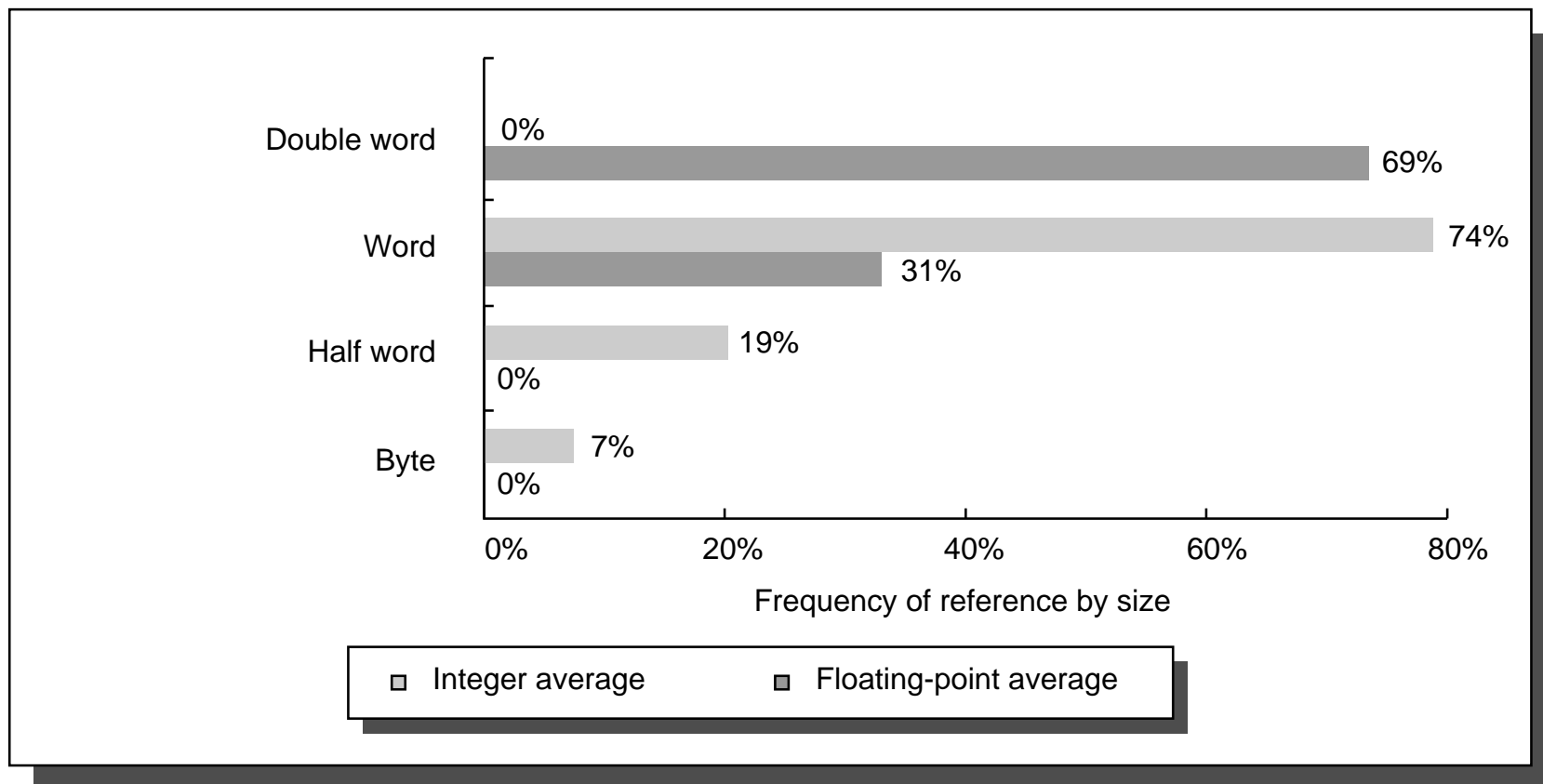


FIGURE 2.16 Distribution of data accesses by size for the benchmark programs.

Size Tradeoffs

Integer: size of fastest integer (usually) equals address size.

E.g., word on a 32-bit machine, doubleword on a 64-bit machine.

On most machines a smaller integer saves space, but not time.

Floating-point: doubleword usually best choice.

Word may be faster, but can be slower ...

... when double result must be rounded to word size.

How data type coded:

In opcode. (Used in many ISAs.)

Integer multiply instruction, floating-point add.

In instruction's type field. (Used in many ISAs.)

Tagged, type specified in data. (Used in a few ISAs.)

Suppose data type were word-sized, ...

... 30 bits might hold the number ...

... 2 bits would indicate what type the data was ...

... such as integer, unsigned integer, float, or string.

Consider: $\text{ADD } \langle \text{sum} \rangle = \langle \text{op1} \rangle + \langle \text{op2} \rangle$

Operands $\langle \text{op1} \rangle$ and $\langle \text{op2} \rangle$ can refer to:

- A Constant (Immediate)
- Something Written Earlier

Since “Something Written Earlier” is part of instruction ...
... the ISA must define names for that storage.

Since storage defined by ISA it's called *architecturally visible storage*.

Common types of architecturally visible storage:

- Registers
Sometimes there are multiple sets.
- Memory
Sometimes there are multiple address spaces.

Other types are less common.

What ISA Defines for Architecturally Visible Storage

- Names.

For registers, *r1*, *f30*, *g6*. For memory, 53023.

- Result of writing and reading storage.

For systems covered in this class result is obvious (value read is last value written).

Not obvious with multiple readers and writers.

Registers (Internal Storage)

Store what is actively being worked on.

E.g. Math expression parts, array indices.

Implemented using highest speed memory.

Given short names.

E.g. `r1`, `g1`, `AL`.

Small number of registers provided.

E.g. 32, 64.

Goal: fastest access.

Memory

Stores code and data.

Simple to programmer ... despite complex implementation.

Many locations, $2^{32} = 4294967296$ and $2^{64} = 18446744073709551616$ ¹ are common.

$2^{128} = 340282366920938463463374607431768211456$ ² is a long way off or may never be used.

Named using integers called *addresses*...

... and some address space identifier.

Goal: large size.

Rule of thumb: address space needed grows by one bit per year.

Very difficult to change ISA's address space size ...

... so chosen to be much larger than contemporary needs.

¹ Eighteen quintillion, four hundred forty-six quadrillion, seven hundred forty-four trillion, seventy-three billion, seven hundred nine million, five hundred fifty-one thousand, six hundred sixteen.

² Three hundred forty undecillion, two hundred eighty two decillion, three hundred sixty six nonillion, nine hundred twenty octillion, nine hundred thirty eight septillion, four hundred sixty three sextillion, four hundred sixty three quintillion, three hundred seventy four quadrillion, six hundred seven trillion, four hundred thirty one billion, seven hundred sixty eight million, two hundred eleven thousand, four hundred fifty six.

Address Interpretation

Sequence of memory locations (usually bytes) starting at address.

Size of sequence depends upon instruction.

E.g., DLX `lw`, load word, instruction reads four bytes.

E.g., DLX `lb`, load byte, instruction reads one byte.

Example:

```
lw  r1, 0(r2)  ! Load r1 with 4 bytes starting at addr. in r2.
lb  r3, 0(r2)  ! Load r3 with byte at address in r2.
! Register r1 = r3 if r1 < 128 and r1 > 0.
```

Alignment

Addresses may be subject to *alignment* restrictions...
...when used in certain instructions.

E.g., a *word-aligned* address must be divisible by 4 (usual word size).

Example.

```
! In an unaligned ISA both instructions can execute.  
! In an aligned ISA at most one could execute, the other would  
! cause an error (memory access violation exception).  
lw  r1, 0(r2)    ! Load r1 with data at address r2.  
lw  r3, 1(r2)    ! Load r3 with data at address r2 + 1.
```

Addressing modes used by many ISAs.

Register

Data in register.

```
Move r4, r3      ! r4 = r3      Data in r3.  
add  r4, r2, r3  ! r5 = r2 + r3  Data in r2 and r3.
```

Useful when data recently produced and is still in register.

All ISAs with registers have register addressing.

Immediate Addressing:

Data in instruction.

```
Move r4, #3      ! r4 = 3.      Data, 3, in instruction.
```

```
add  r4, r2, #3  ! r4 = r2 + 3. Data, 3, in instruction.
```

All ISAs have some form of immediate addressing.

ISA design parameter: immediate size (maximum immediate value).

Memory Addressing Modes

With *memory* addressing modes data is in memory.

Modes specify an *effective address*, the memory location at which data located.

There are many ways to specify a memory address:

Direct Addressing:

Effective address is a constant in instruction.

```
load r1, (1024)    ! r1 = MEM[ 1024 ] Data at 1024.  
add  r4, r2, (1024) ! r4 = r2 + MEM[ 1024 ]
```

The add instruction could not be in load/store ISA.

ISA may need large instructions to accommodate the address.

Included in ISAs with variable instruction sizes.

Register Deferred Addressing: or *Register Indirect Addressing*
Effective address in register.

```
Load r4, (r1)      ! r4 = MEM[r1]
add  r4, r2, (r1)  ! r4 = r2 + MEM[r1]
```

Note: the add instruction could not be in load/store ISA.

Included in most ISAs.

Displacement:

Effective address is register plus constant.

```
Load r4, 100(r1) ! r4 = MEM[ r1 + 100 ]
```

Useful for accessing elements of a structure:

```
! In c: struct { int i; short int j; unsigned char c; } str;  
! r1 = &str;  
lw  r2, 0(r1)    ! (load word) r2 = str.i;  
lh  r3, 4(r1)    ! (load half) r3 = str.j;  
lbu r4, 6(r1)    ! (load byte unsigned) r4 = str.c;
```

Displacement, continued.

Useful in ISAs without direct addressing and short immediates.

```
! lw r1, (0x12345678)  ! Alas, no such instruction in DLX.
lhi r2, #0x1234        ! Load high part of r2: r2 = 0x12340000
lw  r1, 0x5678(r2)     ! r1 = MEM[0x5678+r2] = MEM[0x12345678]
```

ISA design parameter: displacement size.

Included in most ISAs.

Indexed Addressing:

Effective address is sum of two registers.

```
Load r4, (r1+r2) ! r4 = MEM[ r1 + r2 ]
```

Useful for array access. (**r1** address of first element.)

Included in most ISAs.

Memory Indirect Addressing:

Address of effective address is in register.

```
Load r1,@(r3) ! r1 = MEM[ MEM[ r3 ] ].
```

Useful for dereferencing: **i = *ptr**

Included in some ISAs.

Others omit it since two loads would be as fast.

Autoincrement Addressing:

Perform register indirect access, then add constant to register.

```
Load r1,(r2)+ ! r1 = MEM[ r2 ]; r2 = r2 + 1
```

Useful for loops.

Included in some ISAs.

Autodecrement:

Subtract constant from register then perform register indirect access.

```
Load r1,-(r2) ! r2 = r2 - 1; r1 = MEM[ r2 ];
```

Useful for loops.

Included in some ISAs.

Scaled:

Effective address is $\text{constant1} + \text{reg1} + \text{reg2} * \text{constant2}$.

Load $r1, 100(r2)[r3] ! r1 = \text{MEM}[100 + r2 + r3 \times d]$

Useful for array access.

Included in some ISAs.

There's no limit to how many addressing modes one could think of.

Which addressing modes?

Affects cost and may limit future performance.

Which instructions get which addressing modes?

Affects cost and may limit future performance.

Maximum displacement size?

Limited by instruction size.

Maximum immediate size?

Limited by instruction size.

Do we really need all those addressing modes?

Memory Addressing Usage in VAX Code.

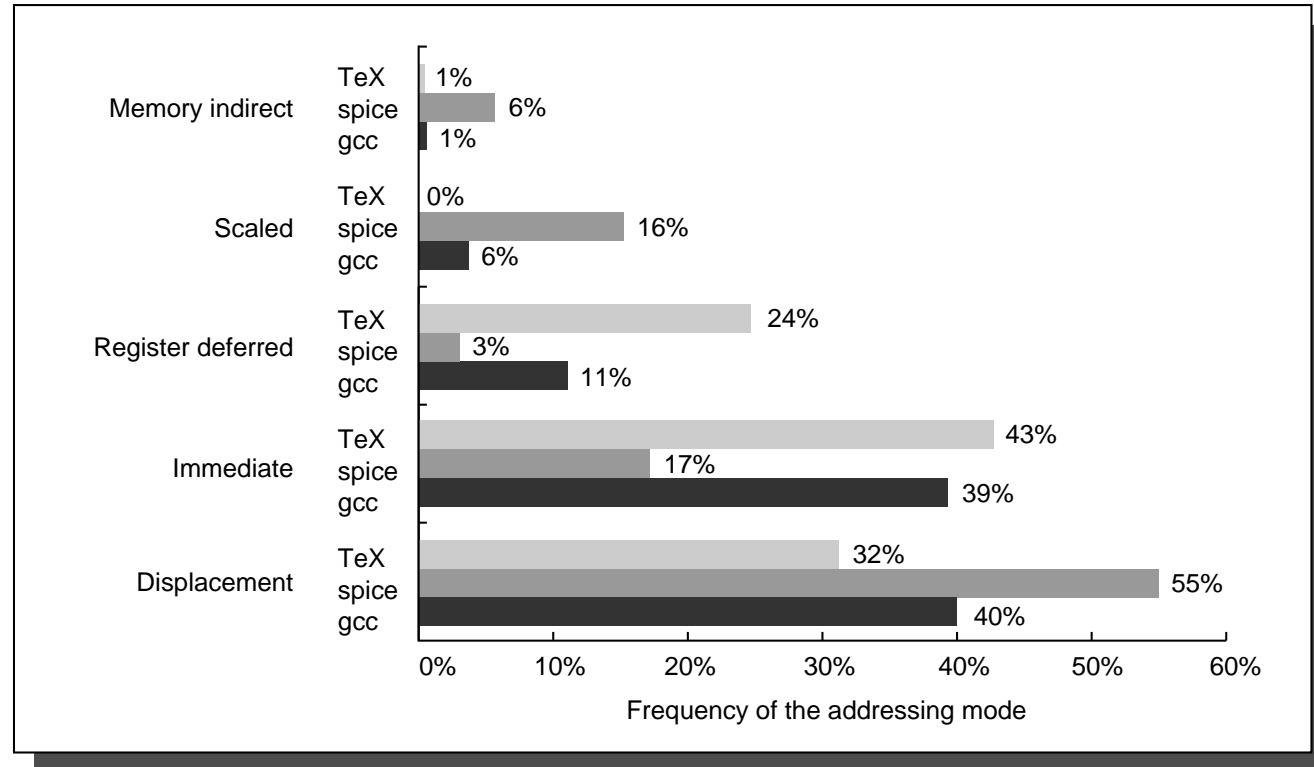


FIGURE 2.6 Summary of use of memory addressing modes (including immediates).

Do we really need all those addressing modes?

Memory Addressing Usage in VAX Code.

VAX uses all of addressing modes described earlier.

Modes used less than 1% of time omitted.

Large differences between programs.

Since a few modes account for most accesses ...

... others could be omitted with little impact on performance ...

... saving silicon area (but programs would have to be rewritten).

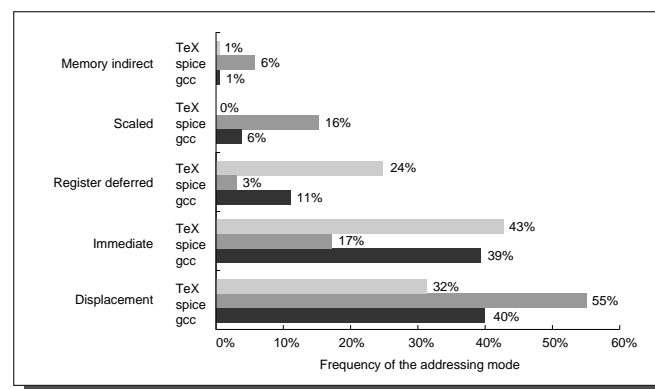


FIGURE 2.6 Summary of use of memory addressing modes (including immediates).

What should the maximum displacement size be?

Too large: difficult to code instruction.

Too small: won't be very useful.

Displacement Size in SPECint92 and SPECfp92 Programs on MIPS.

Wide range of displacements used.

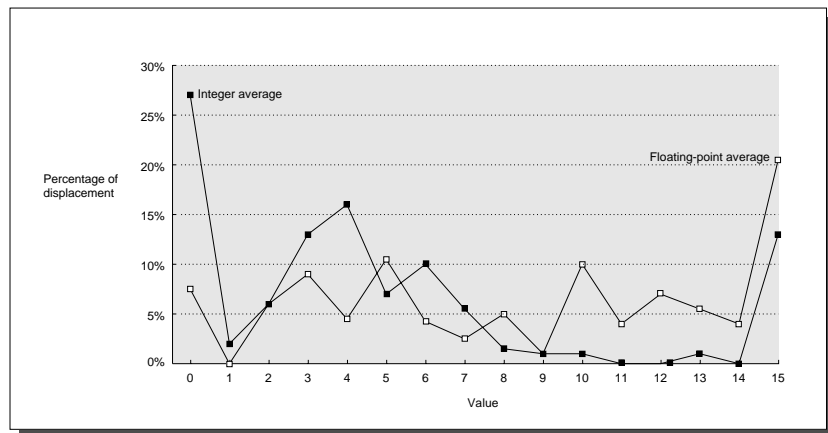


FIGURE 2.7 Displacement values are widely distributed.

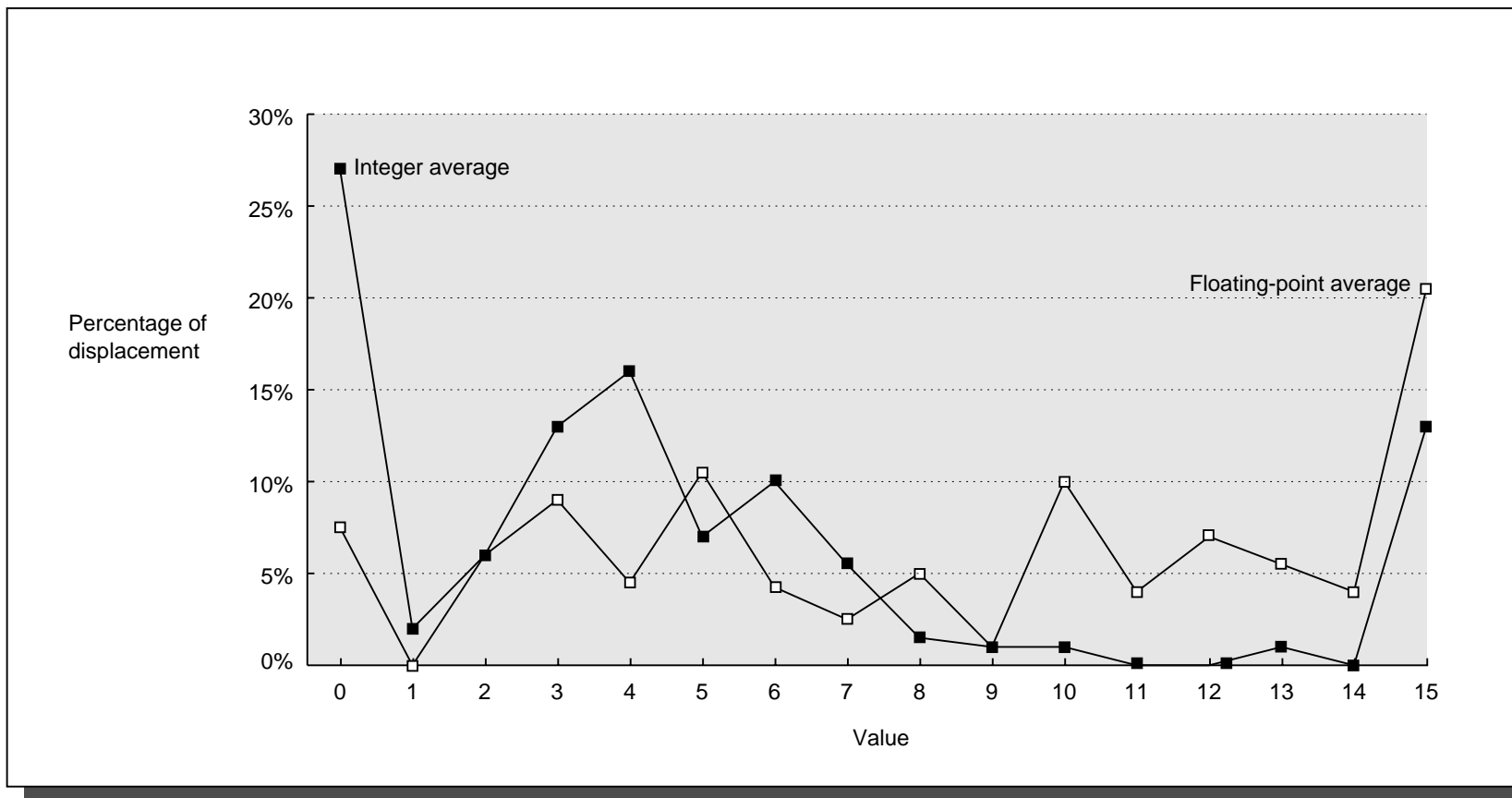


FIGURE 2.7 Displacement values are widely distributed.

What should the maximum immediate size be?

Too large: difficult to code instruction.

Too small: won't be very useful.

Immediate Sizes in VAX Code

Smaller values used more frequently.

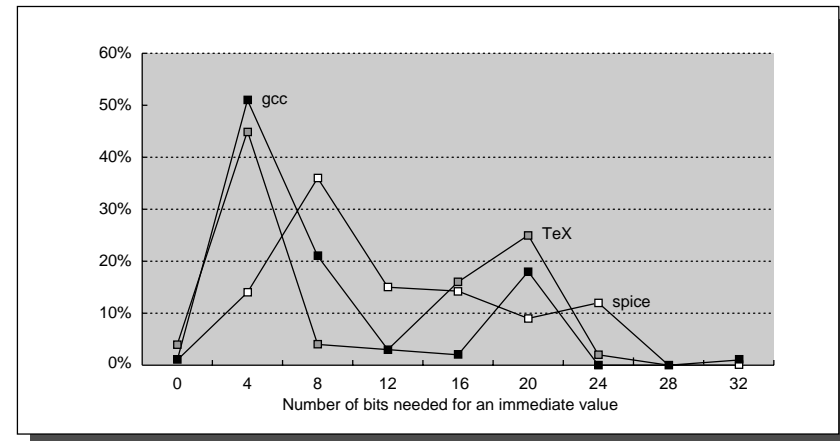


FIGURE 2.9 The distribution of immediate values is shown.

Immediate Sizes in VAX Code

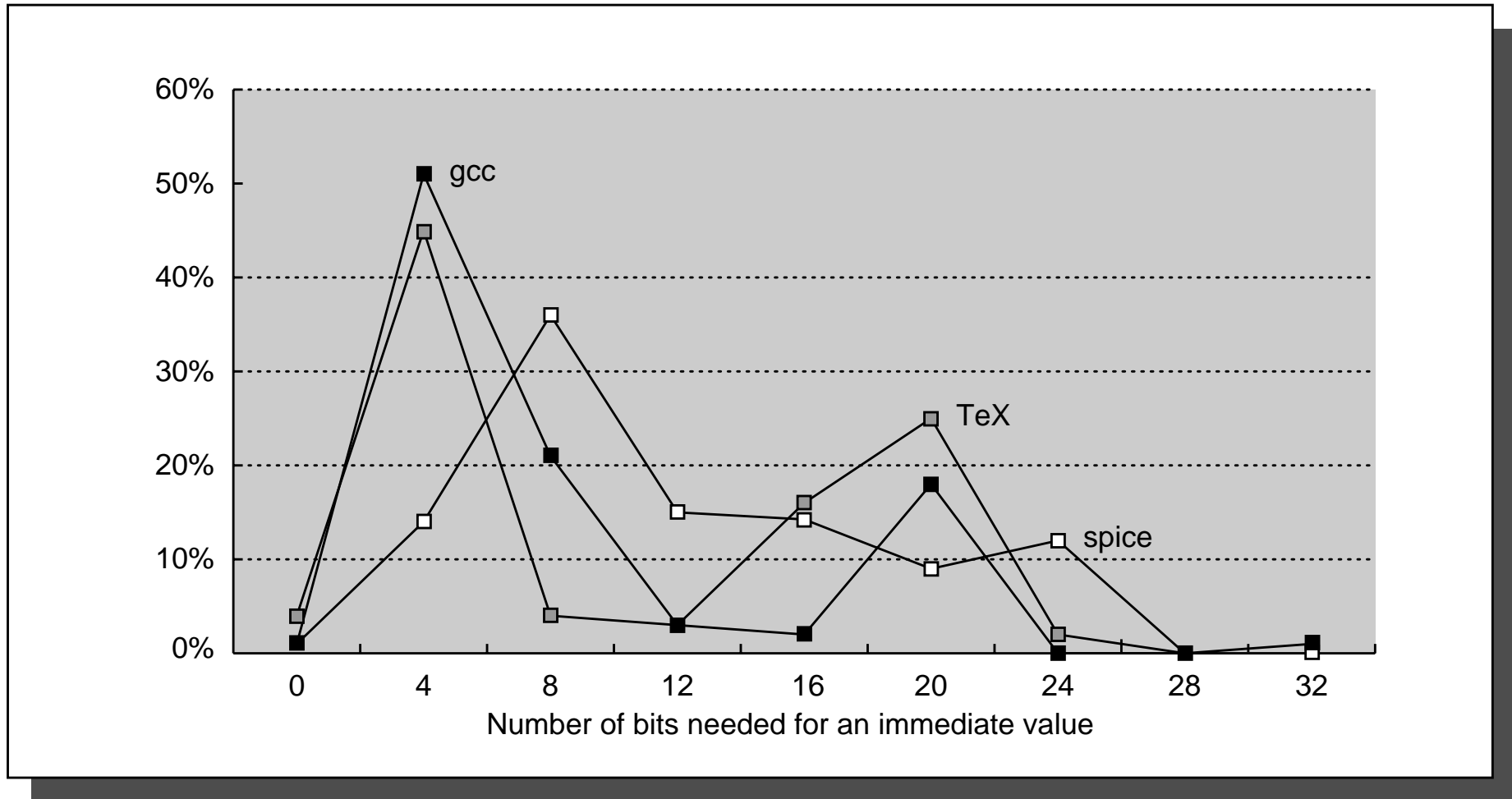


FIGURE 2.9 The distribution of immediate values is shown.

Registers can be specified explicitly in instructions ...

```
add r1, r2, r3
```

... but some ISAs allow them to be specified implicitly ...

... that is, there is no need to specify a register number for some operands ...

... because the instruction will always use a particular register.

Two Common Cases

Accumulator: A register for holding results.

Stack: A set of registers (and memory).

Accumulator

ISA specifies a special accumulator register ...
... for example, `ra`.

Arithmetic instructions use accumulator for destination and for one source operand.

For example: `add r4 !ra = ra + r4`

Advantage: Smaller instruction coding possible.

Disadvantage: “Extra” instructions needed to move data in and out of accumulator.

Stack

Registers organized as stack. Stack may extend into memory.

Most instructions read top one or two elements.

Example: Use register names: **r1**, **r2**, **r3**, with **r1** top of stack, etc.

```
! Before r1 = 1, r2 = 2, r3, = 4, r4 = 8
add    ! Pop top two elements off stack, add, push sum on stack.
! After r1 = 3, r2 = 4, r3, = 8
```

Special *Stack Machine* Instructions

push **<addr>** Read memory at **<addr>** and push on stack.

pop **<addr>** Pop data off stack and write to memory at **<addr>**.

Advantage: Very short instructions possible.

Disadvantage: Some code requires extra instructions.

Miscellaneous Variations

Operands per Instruction

Three typically used.

Two sometimes used.

Factors:

Instruction coding (bits to specify operands).

Addresses per ALU Instruction

Zero typically used (load/store).

One, two, even three sometimes.

Factors

Instruction coding.

(Addresses take up lots of space.)

Benefit over multiple instructions.