Notes

Implementation of RISC-V in SME

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Contents

Chapter 1

Placeholder

Figure out a title for this chapter

1.1 Communicating Sequential Processes

Rewrite this section

add examples of a process and channels

The problem with multiprocessor workloads is the sharing of memory. This creates a whole slew of problems. There are many different processes going on at once all having access to the same memory. Unless you got superpowers it is very hard to determine where in the program something goes wrong. It all boils down to the non-determinism.

For example if you are going to print multiple strings using multiple threads you don't know which string i going to be printed first it's gonna depend on the operating system not on anything in your code. That can create race conditions (meaning the behaviour in your code is dependent on the timing of different threads) which can cause unpredictable behaviour and therefore bugs which is undesirable.

This has been tried to been solved with mutexes or locks but this also have its downside inform of deadlocks where multiple processes are waiting for each other and because these processes are non-deterministic it is very hard to reproduce errors in your code which in turn makes it hard to debug and therefore hard to make reliable software.

This is where Communicating Sequential Processes (CSP) comes in. CSP was an algebra first proposed by Hoare [1]. CSP is build on two very basic primitives one is the process (which should not be confused with operating system processes) which could be an ordered sequence of operations. These processes do not share any memory so one process cannot access a specific value in another process (which solves a lot the problems we had with shared memory).

The other primitive is channels which is the way the processes communicate which each other. You can pass whatever you want through these channels and once you pass a value you loose access to it.

There is a lot of ways the processes and channels can be arranged the most simple one

can be found in figure 1.1 which illustrates process 1 which passes a value onto a channel which process 2 takes as input. Some different configuations can be found in figures 1.2-1.4

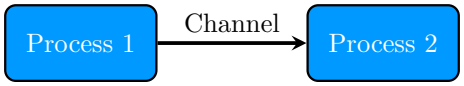

Figure 1.1: CSP one to one

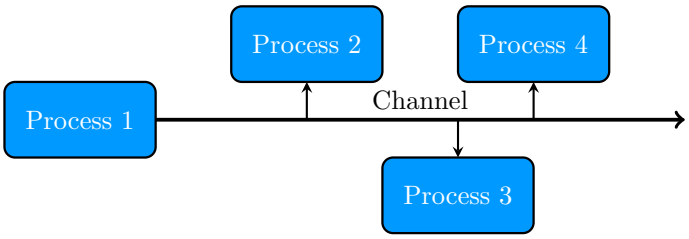

Figure 1.2: CSP one to many

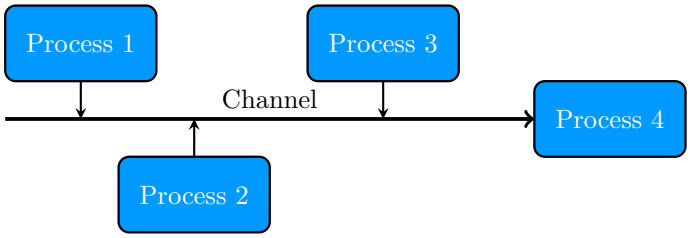

Figure 1.3: CSP many to one

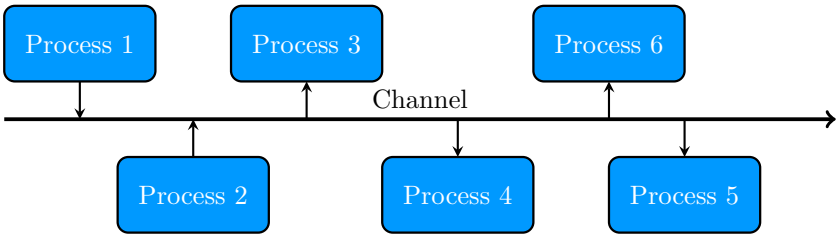

Figure 1.4: CSP many to many

1.2 Synchronous Message Exchange

Vinter and Skovhede [3] Vinter and Skovhede [4]

Chapter 2

Logic Design

Chapter sections are subject to change in name and order

This chapter aims to introduce the reader to the basics of logic design, which will be imperative to the understanding the subsequent chapters. The general structure of this chapter will be based on Appendix A in [2].

We will begin in section 2.1 by introducing the fundamental algebra and the physical building blocks, used to implement the algebra, such as the OR gate.

Hereafter we will be using these building blocks to design and create the core components used in the RISC-V architecture such as the decoder and multiplexer in section 2.2.

2.1 Boolean algebra

The fundamental tool used in logic design is a branch of mathematical logic called Boolean algebra. Compared to elementary algebra, where we deal with variables which represents some real or complex number, in Boolean algebra the variables are viewed as statements or propositions which is either *true* or *false*.

In addition to the variables in elementary algebra we also had a means of manipulating them. These manipulations are called operations which operates on the variables (operands) where the basic operators of algebra consists of

- The addition ($+$) operator which finds the total amount between two given operands.
- The subtraction ($-$) operator which finds the difference between two given operands.
- The multiplication ($\cdot$) operator which repeats the addition operation a given number of times. For example $3 \cdot 4 = 12$ would then be 3 times the addition operation with 4 as the variable $4 + 4 + 4 = 12$.
- The division ($\div$) operator which can be viewed as the inverse of the multiplication operation. For example as before we had $3 \cdot 4 = 12$ and to inverse it we would divide the right hand side like so $3 = 12 \div 4$.

In Boolean algebra we have a distinction between operators which work on one operand compared to two operands. These are called unary and binary operators respectively. We would go through a description of these in the following section.

2.1.1 Unary operators

make ven diagrams to show the operator function

Logical complement

For our first basic Boolean operator we have the logical complement operator, which is represented by NOT, !, $\neg$ or $\bar{x}$ in various literature and commonly referred to as the negation operator.

The negation operator inverts an operand such that $\overline{true} = false$ and $\overline{false} = true$. Using a table we can neatly represent the complete function of the negation operator. These tables are called logic tables.

A logic table has been created for the negation operator as can be seen in table 2.1. The first column represents our proposition and all its possible arguments $true$ and $false$. The second column is then the negated proposition.

p	$\neg p$
$true$	$false$
$false$	$true$

Table 2.1: Logic table of the negation operator where the proposition p, which is either true or false, can be found in the first column. In the second column we find $\neg p$, which is read as NOT p, and its return values.

Logical identity

Hereafter we have the logical identity operator which we will represent as the function $I(x)$. The logical identity operator takes an argument and returns it as is.

A logic table for the identity operator has been created and can be found in table 2.2. In the first column we find our preposition p and its arguments. In the second column we find the return values of the identity operator with the prepositions as the argument $I(p)$.

p	$I(p)$
$true$	$true$
$false$	$false$

Table 2.2: Logic table of the identity operator where the proposition p, which is either true or false, can be found in the first column. In the second column we find $I(p)$, which is the identity operator with p as its argument, and its return values.

Logical true

Next we have logical true which we will represent as the function $T(x)$. Logical true takes an argument and always returns true.

A logic table for the true operator has been created and can be found in table 2.3. In the first column we find our preposition p and its arguments. In the second column we find the return values of the true operator with the prepositions as the argument $T(p)$.

p	$T(p)$
$true$	$true$
$false$	$true$

Table 2.3: Logic table of the true operator where the proposition p, which is either true or false, can be found in the first column. In the second column we find $T(p)$, which is the true operator with p as its argument, and its return values.

Logical false

Lastly we have logical false which we will represent as the function $F(x)$. Logical false takes an argument and always return false.

A logic table for the false operator has been created and can be found in table 2.4. In the first column we find our preposition p and its arguments. In the second column we find the return values of the false operator with the prepositions as the argument $F(p)$.

p	$F(p)$
$true$	$false$
$false$	$false$

Table 2.4: Logic table of the false operator where the proposition p, which is either true or false, can be found in the first column. In the second column we find $F(p)$, which is the false operator with p as its argument, and its return values.

2.1.2 Binary operators and disjunctive normal form

With two binary operands, p and q, there exist four possible combinations between their respectable values namely $(true, true)$, $(true, false)$, $(false, true)$, $(false, false)$.

Since we have 4 possible input values to our yet undefined operator $X(p, q)$, there exist 16 unique set of outputs therefore 16 unique operators. An example of a set of outputs could be

$$X(p, q) = \{true, false, false, false\} \tag{2.1}$$

where $(p, q) = \{(true, true), (true, false), (false, true), (false, false)\}$ is the set of possible inputs.

All output sets are summarized in table 2.5 where each unlabeled column represents an undefined operator.

We will in this section start by defining the basic operators from which we will derive the rest. This choice is arbitrary but I have chosen the operators for which is the easiest to derive all other operators, since there exists a method to convert any truth table into a Boolean expression using these which we will get into later.

p	q																
t	t	t	t	t	t	f	t	f	f	t	t	f	t	f	f	f	f
t	f	t	t	t	f	t	t	t	f	f	f	t	f	t	f	f	f
f	t	t	t	f	t	t	f	t	t	f	t	f	f	f	t	f	f
f	f	t	f	t	t	t	f	f	t	t	f	t	f	f	f	t	f

Table 2.5: Logic table of possible binary operators where $t = true$ and $f = false$. Each unlabeled column represents an undefined operator.

Logical conjunction

The logical conjunction operator is represented by $\wedge$ in mathematics; AND, &, && in computer science and a $\cdot$ in electronic engineering and commonly referred to as the AND operator or the logical product. The AND operator only results in a true value if both of the operands are true.

remember to tell why this is later

Using table 2.5 we see that the set of outputs which corresponds to this definition is column 14 counting from the left and is summarized in table 2.6.

Here we have the propositions p and q in the first two columns and all possible permutations between them in the following rows. The last column then shows the resulting value after doing the AND operation between p and q.

p	q	$p \wedge q$
$true$	$true$	$true$
$true$	$false$	$false$
$false$	$true$	$false$
$false$	$false$	$false$

Table 2.6: Logic table of the AND operator where p is the first proposition and q is the second. All possible permutations are then specified in each row for each proposition. The third column then shows the resulting value of the AND operation between p and q.

Logical disjunction

The logical disjunction operator is represented by $\vee$ in mathematics; OR, |, || in computer science and a + in electronic engineering and commonly referred to as the OR operator or the logical sum. The OR operator results in a true value if one or more of the operands are

remember to tell why this is later

true.

Using table 2.5 we see that the set of outputs which corresponds to this definition is column 4 counting from the left and is summarized in table 2.7.

Here we have the propositions p and q in the first two columns and all possible permutations between them in the following rows. The last column then shows the resulting value after doing the OR operation between p and q.

p	q	$p \vee q$
$true$	$true$	$true$
$true$	$false$	$true$
$false$	$true$	$true$
$false$	$false$	$false$

Table 2.7: Logic table of the OR operator where p is the first proposition and q is the second. All possible permutations are then specified in each row for each proposition. The third column then shows the resulting value of the OR operation between p and q.

We choose AND, OR and NOT to form our basic or primitive operators from which we will derive all remaining operators.

Exclusive disjunction and disjunctive normal form

The exclusive disjunction is represented by $\veebar$ in mathematics or XOR, $\wedge$ in computer science and commonly referred to as the XOR or exclusive OR operator. The XOR operator results in a true value only if the operands differ.

Using table 2.5 we see that the set of outputs which corresponds to this definition is column 9 counting from the left and is summarized in table 2.8.

Here we have the propositions p and q in the first two columns and all possible permutations between them in the following rows. The last column then shows the resulting value after doing the XOR operation between p and q.

p	q	$p \veebar q$
$true$	$true$	$false$
$true$	$false$	$true$
$false$	$true$	$true$
$false$	$false$	$false$

Table 2.8: Logic table of the XOR operator where p is the first proposition and q is the second. All possible permutations are then specified in each row for each proposition. The third column then shows the resulting value of the XOR operation between p and q.

We can define this operator in disjunctive normal form using our basic operators AND, OR and NOT.

To do this we first identify all true output in 2.8 namely row 3 and 4. We then take a look at the corresponding input values

$$(p, q) = (true, false) \quad \text{and} \quad (p, q) = (false, true) \tag{2.2}$$

and applying the NOT operator on all the false values. We now have the two tuples

$$(p, \neg q) = (true, \neg false) \quad \text{and} \quad (\neg p, q) = (\neg false, true). \tag{2.3}$$

Hereafter we apply the AND operator between the values in each tuple of input such that

$$p \wedge \neg q = true \wedge \neg false \quad \text{and} \quad \neg p \wedge q = false \wedge \neg true. \tag{2.4}$$

Lastly we apply the OR operators between each tuple and we have the final expression for XOR in terms of the basic operators

$$p \veebar q = (p \wedge \neg q) \vee (\neg p \wedge q). \tag{2.5}$$

The procedure is summarized as follows

1. Find all output values which is true.
2. Negate all false input for corresponding true output value.
3. Apply AND operator between each value in each input tuple.
4. Lastly apply OR operator between each input tuple.

Using this procedure any logic table can be expressed as a Boolean expression and will be used extensively throughout this thesis.

Joint denial

Joint denial is represented by $\downarrow$ in mathematics or NOR in computer science and commonly referred to as the NOR operator. The NOR operator results in a true value only if both operands are false.

Using table 2.5 we see that the set of outputs which corresponds to this definition is column 17 counting from the left and is summarized in table 2.9.

Here we have the propositions p and q in the first two columns and all possible permutations between them in the following rows. The last column then shows the resulting value after doing the NOR operation between p and q.

In disjunctive normal form the NOR operator can be expressed in the following form

$$p \downarrow q = (\neg p \wedge \neg q) \tag{2.6}$$

p	q	$p \downarrow q$
$true$	$true$	$false$
$true$	$false$	$false$
$false$	$true$	$false$
$false$	$false$	$true$

Table 2.9: Logic table of the NOR operator where p is the first proposition and q is the second. All possible permutations are then specified in each row for each proposition. The third column then shows the resulting value of the NOR operation between p and q.

using the procedure previously mentioned.

Alternative denial

Alternative denial is represented by $\uparrow$ in mathematics or NAND in computer science and commonly referred to as the NAND operator. The NAND operator results in a true value only if one or more of the operands are false.

Using table 2.5 we see that the set of outputs which corresponds to this definition is column 7 counting from the left and is summarized in table 2.10.

Here we have the propositions p and q in the first two columns and all possible permutations between them in the following rows. The last column then shows the resulting value after doing the NAND operation between p and q.

p	q	$p \uparrow q$
$true$	$true$	$false$
$true$	$false$	$true$
$false$	$true$	$true$
$false$	$false$	$true$

Table 2.10: Logic table of the NAND operator where p is the first proposition and q is the second. All possible permutations are then specified in each row for each proposition. The third column then shows the resulting value of the NAND operation between p and q.

In disjunctive normal form the NAND operator can be expressed in the following form

$$p \uparrow q = (p \wedge \neg q) \vee (\neg p \wedge q) \vee (\neg p \wedge \neg q) \tag{2.7}$$

using the procedure previously mentioned.

Logical biconditional

The logical biconditional is represented by $\leftrightarrow$ in mathematics or XNOR in computer science and commonly referred to as the exclusive NOR operator. The XNOR operator results in a true value only if both operands are either true or false.

Using table 2.5 we see that the set of outputs which corresponds to this definition is column 11 counting from the left and is summarized in table 2.11.

Here we have the propositions p and q in the first two columns and all possible permutations between them in the following rows. The last column then shows the resulting value after doing the XNOR operation between p and q.

p	q	$p \leftrightarrow q$
$true$	$true$	$true$
$true$	$false$	$false$
$false$	$true$	$false$
$false$	$false$	$true$

Table 2.11: Logic table of the XNOR operator where p is the first proposition and q is the second. All possible permutations are then specified in each row for each proposition. The third column then shows the resulting value of the XNOR operation between p and q.

In disjunctive normal form the XNOR operator can be expressed in the following form

$$p \leftrightarrow q = (p \wedge q) \vee (\neg p \wedge \neg q) \tag{2.8}$$

using the procedure previously mentioned.

Material implication

Material implication is represented by $\rightarrow$ in mathematics. The material implication operator results in a false value only if the second operand q is false.

Using table 2.5 we see that the set of outputs which corresponds to this definition is column 6 counting from the left and is summarized in table 2.12.

Here we have the propositions p and q in the first two columns and all possible permutations between them in the following rows. The last column then shows the resulting value after doing the material implication operation between p and q.

p	q	$p \rightarrow q$
$true$	$true$	$true$
$true$	$false$	$false$
$false$	$true$	$true$
$false$	$false$	$true$

Table 2.12: Logic table of the material implication operator where p is the first proposition and q is the second. All possible permutations are then specified in each row for each proposition. The third column then shows the resulting value of the material implication operation between p and q.

In disjunctive normal form the material implication operator can be expressed in the

following form

$$p \rightarrow q = (p \wedge q) \vee (\neg p \wedge q) \vee (\neg p \wedge \neg q) \tag{2.9}$$

using the procedure previously mentioned.

Converse implication

Converse implication is represented by $\leftarrow$ in mathematics. The converse implication operator results in a false value only if the first operand p is false.

Using table 2.5 we see that the set of outputs which corresponds to this definition is column 5 counting from the left and is summarized in table 2.13.

Here we have the propositions p and q in the first two columns and all possible permutations between them in the following rows. The last column then shows the resulting value after doing the converse implication operation between p and q.

p	q	$p \leftarrow q$
$true$	$true$	$true$
$true$	$false$	$false$
$false$	$true$	$true$
$false$	$false$	$true$

Table 2.13: Logic table of the converse implication operator where p is the first proposition and q is the second. All possible permutations are then specified in each row for each proposition. The third column then shows the resulting value of the converse implication operation between p and q.

In disjunctive normal form the converse implication operator can be expressed in the following form

$$p \leftarrow q = (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge \neg q) \vee (\neg p \wedge \neg q) \tag{2.10}$$

using the procedure previously mentioned.

Material nonimplication

Material nonimplication is represented by $\not\rightarrow$ in mathematics. The material nonimplication operator results in a true value only if the second operand q is false.

Using table 2.5 we see that the set of outputs which corresponds to this definition is column 15 counting from the left and is summarized in table 2.14.

Here we have the propositions p and q in the first two columns and all possible permutations between them in the following rows. The last column then shows the resulting value after doing the material nonimplication operation between p and q.

In disjunctive normal form the material nonimplication operator can be expressed in the following form

$$p \rightarrow q = p \wedge \neg q \tag{2.11}$$

p	q	$p \not\to q$
$true$	$true$	$false$
$true$	$false$	$true$
$false$	$true$	$false$
$false$	$false$	$false$

Table 2.14: Logic table of the material nonimplication operator where p is the first proposition and q is the second. All possible permutations are then specified in each row for each proposition. The third column then shows the resulting value of the material nonimplication operation between p and q.

using the procedure previously mentioned.

Converse nonimplication

Converse nonimplication is represented by $\not\leftarrow$ in mathematics. The converse nonimplication operator results in a true value only if the first operand p is false.

Using table 2.5 we see that the set of outputs which corresponds to this definition is column 16 counting from the left and is summarized in table 2.15.

Here we have the propositions p and q in the first two columns and all possible permutations between them in the following rows. The last column then shows the resulting value after doing the converse nonimplication operation between p and q.

p	q	$p \not\leftarrow q$
$true$	$true$	$false$
$true$	$false$	$false$
$false$	$true$	$true$
$false$	$false$	$false$

Table 2.15: Logic table of the converse nonimplication operator where p is the first proposition and q is the second. All possible permutations are then specified in each row for each proposition. The third column then shows the resulting value of the converse nonimplication operation between p and q.

In disjunctive normal form the converse nonimplication operator can be expressed in the following form

$$p \leftarrow q = \neg p \wedge q \tag{2.12}$$

using the procedure previously mentioned.

p	q		$\vee$	$\leftarrow$	$\rightarrow$	$\uparrow$		$\veebar$		$\leftrightarrow$			$\wedge$	$\not\to$	$\not\leftarrow$	$\downarrow$	
t	t	t	t	t	t	f	t	f	f	t	t	f	t	f	f	f	f
t	f	t	t	t	f	t	t	t	f	f	f	t	f	t	f	f	f
f	t	t	t	f	t	t	f	t	t	f	t	f	f	f	t	f	f
f	f	t	f	t	t	t	f	f	t	t	f	t	f	f	f	t	f

Table 2.16: Logic table of binary operators where $t = true$ and $f = false$

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2.1.3 Derivative binary operators

2.1.4 Logic equations

2.1.5 Gates

2.2 Combinational logic

2.2.1 Decoder

2.2.2 Multiplexor

2.2.3 Two-level logic

2.2.4 Programmable logic array

Chapter 3

Introduction to RISC-V instructions

This chapter aims to introduce the reader to the basics of machine language. Based on chapter 2 in [2]

Chapter sections are subject to change in name and order

3.1 RISC-V Assembly

3.2 Operands

3.2.1 Register

3.2.2 Memory Format

3.2.3 Const vs imm

3.3 Numeral system of a computer

3.3.1 base 2

3.3.2 signed unsigned

3.4 Instruction representation in binary

3.5 Operators

Chapter 4

The RISC-V processor

This chapter aims to introduce the reader to the basics of machine language. Based on chapter 4 in [2]

Chapter sections are subject to change in name and order

4.1 Single Cycle RISC-V Units

make a better title

4.1.1 Program Counter

4.1.2 Instruction Memory

4.1.3 incrementor?

figure out a name for this subsection

4.1.4 Register

4.1.5 Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU)

4.1.6 Immediate generator

4.1.7 Data Memory

Need to figure out more sections to explain whole datapath

4.2 Designing the Control

4.3 Single Cycle RISC-V datapath

4.4 Improving the datapath

figure out better naming for sections

4.4.1 RV64I Base Instructions Support

4.4.2 Supporting R-Format

4.4.3 Supporting I-Format

4.4.4 Supporting S-Format

4.4.5 Supporting B-Format

4.4.6 Supporting U-Format

4.4.7 Supporting J-Format

4.5 Debugging the instructions

4.5.1 Writing assembly to test instructions

4.5.2 Writing simple C code to run on RISC-V

Risc V Reference Card

Instruction Formats

31 25	24 20	19 15	14 12	11 7	6 0	
funct7	rs2	rs1	funct3	rd	opcode	R-type
imm[11:0]		rs1	funct3	rd	opcode	I-type
imm[11:6]	imm[5:0]	rs1	funct3	rd	opcode	I-type*
imm[11:5]	rs2	rs1	funct3	imm[4:0]	opcode	S-type
imm[12|10:5]	rs2	rs1	funct3	imm[4:1|11]	opcode	B-type
imm[31:12]				rd	opcode	U-type
imm[20|10:1|11|19:12]				rd	opcode	J-type

* This is a special case of the RV64I I-type format used by slli, srli and srai instructions where the lower 6 bits in the immediate are used to determine the shift amount (shamt). If slliw, srliw and sraiw are used it should generate an error if imm[6] $\neq 0$

RV64I Base Instructions

Name	Fmt	Opcode	Funct3	Funct7/ imm[11:5]	Assembly	Description (in C)
Add	R	0110011	000	0000000	add rd, rs1, rs2	rd = rs1 + rs2
Subtract	R	0110011	000	0100000	sub rd, rs1, rs2	rd = rs1 − rs2
AND	R	0110011	111	0000000	and rd, rs1, rs2	rd = rs1 & rs2
OR	R	0110011	110	0000000	or rd, rs1, rs2	rd = rs1 | rs2
XOR	R	0110011	100	0000000	xor rd, rs1, rs2	rd = rs1 ^ rs2
Shift Left Logical	R	0110011	001	0000000	sll rd, rs1, rs2	rd = rs1 ≪ rs2
Set Less Than	R	0110011	010	0000000	slt rd, rs1, rs2	rd = (rs1 < rs2)?1:0
Set Less Than (U)*	R	0110011	011	0000000	sltu rd, rs1, rs2	rd = (rs1 < rs2)?1:0
Shift Right Logical	R	0110011	101	0000000	srl rd, rs1, rs2	rd = rs1 ≫ rs2
Shift Right Arithmetic†	R	0110011	101	0100000	sra rd, rs1, rs2	rd = rs1 ≫ rs2
Add Word	R	0111011	000	0000000	addw rd, rs1, rs2	rd = rs1 + rs2
Subtract Word	R	0111011	000	0100000	subw rd, rs1, rs2	rd = rs1 − rs2
Shift Left Logical Word	R	0111011	001	0000000	sllw rd, rs1, rs2	rd = rs1 ≪ rs2
Shift Right Logical Word	R	0111011	101	0000000	srlw rd, rs1, rs2	rd = rs1 ≫ rs2
Shift Right Arithmetic Word†	R	0111011	101	0100000	sraw rd, rs1, rs2	rd = rs1 ≫ rs2
Add Immediate	I	0010011	000		addi rd, rs1, imm	rd = rs1 + imm
AND Immediate	I	0010011	111		and rd, rs1, imm	rd = rs1 & imm
OR Immediate	I	0010011	110		or rd, rs1, imm	rd = rs1 | imm
XOR Immediate	I	0010011	100		xor rd, rs1, imm	rd = rs1 ^ imm
Shift Left Logical Immediate	I	0010011	001	0000000	slli rd, rs1, shamt	rd = rs1 ≪ shamt
Shift Right Logical Immediate	I	0010011	101	0000000	srli rd, rs1, shamt	rd = rs1 ≫ shamt
Shift Right Arithmetic Immediate†	I	0010011	101	0100000	srai rd, rs1, shamt	rd = rs1 ≫ shamt
Set Less Than Immediate	I	0010011	010		slti rd, rs1, imm	rd = (rs1 < imm)?1:0
Set Less Than Immediate (U)*	I	0010011	011		sltiu rd, rs1, imm	rd = (rs1 < imm)?1:0
Add Immediate Word	I	0011011	000		addiw rd, rs1, imm	rd = rs1 + imm
Shift Left Logical Immediate Word	I	0011011	001	0000000	slliw rd, rs1, shamt	rd = rs1 ≪ shamt
Shift Right Logical Immediate Word	I	0011011	101	0000000	srliw rd, rs1, shamt	rd = rs1 ≫ shamt
Shift Right Arithmetic Imm Word†	I	0011011	101	0100000	sraiw rd, rs1, shamt	rd = rs1 ≫ shamt
Load Byte	I	0000011	000		lb rd, rs1, imm	rd = M[rs1+imm][0:7]
Load Half	I	0000011	001		lh rd, rs1, imm	rd = M[rs1+imm][0:15]
Load Word	I	0000011	010		lw rd, rs1, imm	rd = M[rs1+imm][0:31]
Load Doubleword	I	0000011	011		ld rd, rs1, imm	rd = M[rs1+imm][0:63]
Load Byte (U)*	I	0000011	100		lbu rd, rs1, imm	rd = M[rs1+imm][0:7]
Load Half (U)*	I	0000011	101		lhu rd, rs1, imm	rd = M[rs1+imm][0:15]
Load Word (U)*	I	0000011	110		lwu rd, rs1, imm	rd = M[rs1+imm][0:31]
Store Byte	S	0100011	000		sb rs1, rs2, imm	M[rs1+imm][0:7] = rs2[0:7]
Store Half	S	0100011	001		sh rs1, rs2, imm	M[rs1+imm][0:15] = rs2[0:15]
Store Word	S	0100011	010		sw rs1, rs2, imm	M[rs1+imm][0:31] = rs2[0:31]
Store Doubleword	S	0100011	011		sd rs1, rs2, imm	M[rs1+imm][0:63] = rs2[0:63]
Branch If Equal	B	1100011	000		beq rs1, rs2, imm	if(rs1 == rs2) PC += imm
Branch Not Equal	B	1100011	001		bne rs1, rs2, imm	if(rs1 != rs2) PC += imm
Branch Less Than	B	1100011	100		blt rs1, rs2, imm	if(rs1 < rs2) PC += imm
Branch Greater Than Or Equal	B	1100011	101		bge rs1, rs2, imm	if(rs1 ≥ rs2) PC += imm
Branch Less Than (U)*	B	1100011	110		bltu rs1, rs2, imm	if(rs1 < rs2) PC += imm
Branch Greater Than Or Equal (U)*	B	1100011	111		bgeu rs1, rs2, imm	if(rs1 ≥ rs2) PC += imm
Load Upper Immediate	U	0110111			lui rd, imm	rd = imm ≪ 12
Add Upper Immediate To PC	U	0010111			auipc rd, imm	rd = PC + (imm ≪ 12)
Jump And Link	J	1101111			jal rd, imm	rd = PC + 4; PC += imm
Jump And Link Register	I	1100111	000		jalr rd, rs1, imm	rd = PC + 4; PC = rs1 + imm

*Assumes values are unsigned integers and zero extends † Fills in with sign bit during right shift and msb (most significant bit) extends

RV64M Standard Extension Instructions

Name	Fmt	Opcode	Funct3	Funct7	Assembly	Description (in C)
Multiply	R	0110011	000	0000001	mul rd, rs1, rs2	rd = (rs1 · rs2)[63:0]
Multiply Upper Half	R	0110011	001	0000001	mulh rd, rs1, rs2	rd = (rs1 · rs2)[127:64]
Multiply Upper Half Sign/Unsigned†	R	0110011	010	0000001	mulhsu rd, rs1, rs2	rd = (rs1 · rs2)[127:64]
Multiply Upper Half (U)*	R	0110011	011	0000001	mulhu rd, rs1, rs2	rd = (rs1 · rs2)[127:64]
Divide	R	0110011	100	0000001	div rd, rs1, rs2	rd = rs1 / rs2
Divide (U)*	R	0110011	101	0000001	divu rd, rs1, rs2	rd = rs1 / rs2
Remainder	R	0110011	110	0000001	rem rd, rs1, rs2	rd = rs1 % rs2
Remainder (U)*	R	0110011	111	0000001	remu rd, rs1, rs2	rd = rs1 % rs2
Multiply Word	R	0111011	000	0000001	mulw rd, rs1, rs2	rd = (rs1 · rs2)[63:0]
Divide Word	R	0111011	100	0000001	divw rd, rs1, rs2	rd = rs1 / rs2
Divide Word (U)*	R	0111011	101	0000001	divuw rd, rs1, rs2	rd = rs1 / rs2
Remainder Word	R	0111011	110	0000001	remw rd, rs1, rs2	rd = rs1 % rs2
Remainder Word (U)*	R	0111011	111	0000001	remuw rd, rs1, rs2	rd = rs1 % rs2

*Assumes values are unsigned integers and zero extends † Multiply with one operand signed and the other unsigned

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