Digital Design & Computer Arch.

Lecture 9: Von Neumann Model & Instruction Set Architectures

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ETH Zürich
Spring 2021
25 March 2021

Assignment: Required Lecture Video

- Why study computer architecture? Why is it important?
- Future Computing Platforms: Challenges & Opportunities

Required Assignment

- Watch one of Prof. Mutlu's lectures and analyze either (or both)
- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kgiZISOcGFM (May 2017)
- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mskTeNnf-i0 (Feb 2021)

Optional Assignment – for 1% extra credit

- Write a 1-page summary of one of the lectures and email us
 - What are your key takeaways?
 - What did you learn?
 - What did you like or dislike?
 - Submit your summary to <u>Moodle</u> Deadline: April 5

Extra Assignment 2: Moore's Law (I)

- Paper review
- G.E. Moore. "Cramming more components onto integrated circuits," Electronics magazine, 1965

- Optional Assignment for 1% extra credit
 - Write a 1-page review
 - Upload PDF file to Moodle Deadline: April 5

 I strongly recommend that you follow my guidelines for (paper) review (see next slide)

Extra Assignment 2: Moore's Law (II)

- Guidelines on how to review papers critically
 - Guideline slides: pdf ppt
 - Video: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tOL6FANAJ8c
 - Example reviews on "Main Memory Scaling: Challenges and Solution Directions" (link to the paper)
 - Review 1
 - Review 2
 - Example review on "Staged memory scheduling: Achieving high performance and scalability in heterogeneous systems" (link to the paper)
 - Review 1

Agenda for Today & Next Few Lectures

- The von Neumann model
- LC-3: An example of von Neumann machine
- LC-3 and MIPS Instruction Set Architectures
- LC-3 and MIPS assembly and programming
- Introduction to microarchitecture and single-cycle microarchitecture
- Multi-cycle microarchitecture

Required Readings

This week

- Von Neumann Model, ISA, LC-3, and MIPS
 - P&P, Chapters 4, 5
 - H&H, Chapter 6 (until 6.5)
 - P&P, Appendices A and C (ISA and microarchitecture of LC-3)
 - H&H, Appendix B (MIPS instructions)
- Programming
 - P&P, Chapter 6
- Recommended: H&H Chapter 5, especially 5.1, 5.2, 5.4, 5.5

Next week

- Introduction to microarchitecture and single-cycle microarchitecture
 - H&H, Chapter 7.1-7.3
 - P&P, Appendices A and C
- Multi-cycle microarchitecture
 - H&H, Chapter 7.4
 - P&P, Appendices A and C

What Will We Learn Today?

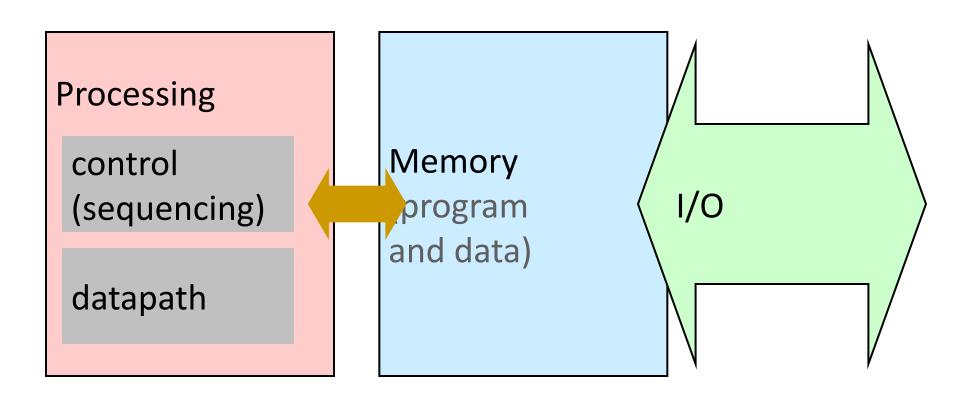
- Basic elements of a computer & the von Neumann model
 - LC-3: An example von Neumann machine
- Instruction Set Architectures: LC-3 and MIPS
 - Operate instructions
 - Data movement instructions
 - Control instructions
- Instruction formats
- Addressing modes

Problem
Algorithm
Program/Languag
System Software
SW/HW Interface
Micro architecture
Logic
Devices
Electrons

Building a Computing System

Recall: What is A Computer?

We will cover all three components



Building Up to A Basic Computer Model

- In past lectures, we learned how to design
 - Combinational logic structures
 - Sequential logic structures
- With logic structures, we can build
 - Execution units
 - Decision units
 - Storage units
 - Communication units

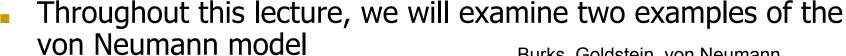
Problem
Algorithm
Program/Languag
System Software
SW/HW Interface
Micro architecture
Logic
Devices
Electrons

- All are basic elements of a computer
 - We will raise our abstraction level today
 - Use logic structures to construct the basic computer model

Basic Components of a Computer

- To get a task done by a computer, we need
 - A computer program
 - That specifies what the computer must do
 - The computer itself
 - To carry out the specified task
- Program: A set of instructions
 - Each instruction specifies a well-defined piece of work for the computer to carry out
 - Instruction: the smallest piece of specified work in a program
- Instruction set: All possible instructions that a computer is designed to be able to carry out

- In order to build a computer, we need an execution model for processing computer programs
- John von Neumann proposed a fundamental model in 1946
- The von Neumann Model consists of 5 components
 - Memory (stores the program and data)
 - Processing unit
 - Input
 - Output
 - Control unit (controls the order in which instructions are carried out)

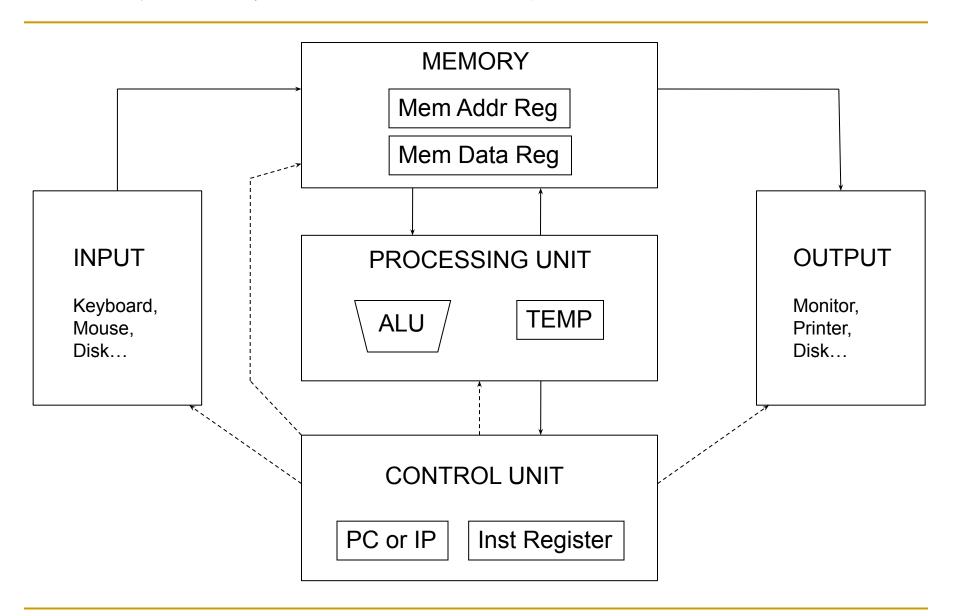


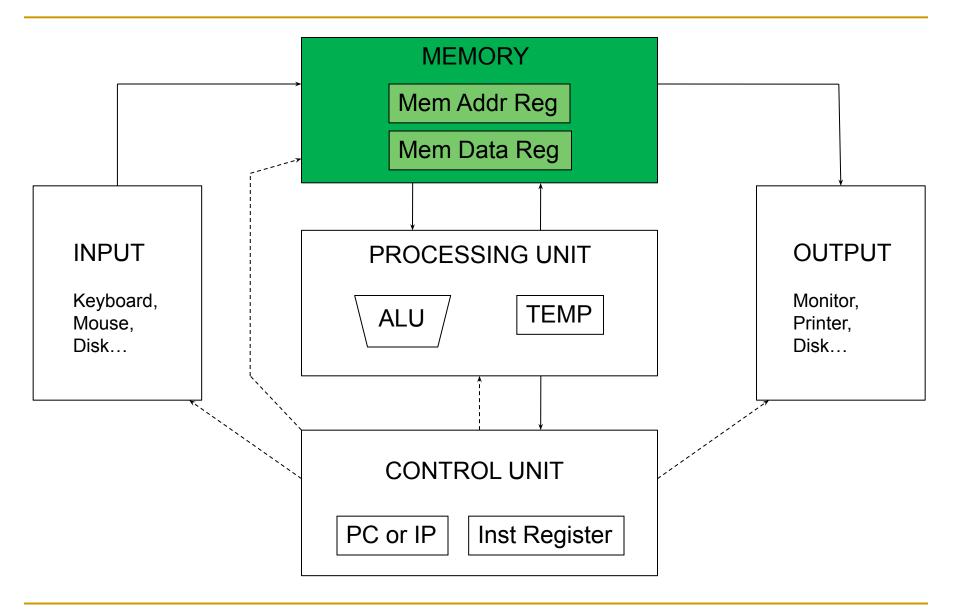
LC-3

MIPS

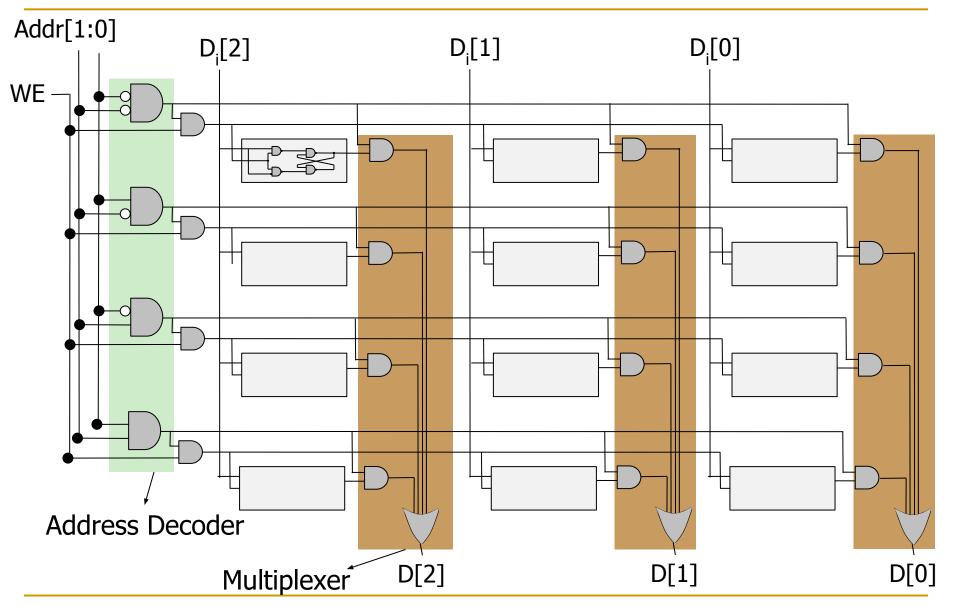
Burks, Goldstein, von Neumann, "Preliminary discussion of the logical design of an electronic computing instrument," 1946.







Recall: A Memory Array (4 locations X 3 bits)



Memory

- Memory stores
 - Programs
 - Data
- Memory contains bits
 - □ Bits are logically grouped into bytes (8 bits) and words (e.g., 8, 16, 32 bits)
- Address space: Total number of uniquely identifiable locations in memory
 - In LC-3, the address space is 2^{16}
 - 16-bit addresses
 - \Box In MIPS, the address space is 2^{32}
 - 32-bit addresses
 - \Box In x86-64, the address space is (up to) 2^{48}
 - 48-bit addresses
- Addressability: How many bits are stored in each location (address)
 - E.g., 8-bit addressable (or byte-addressable)
 - E.g., word-addressable
 - A given instruction can operate on a byte or a word

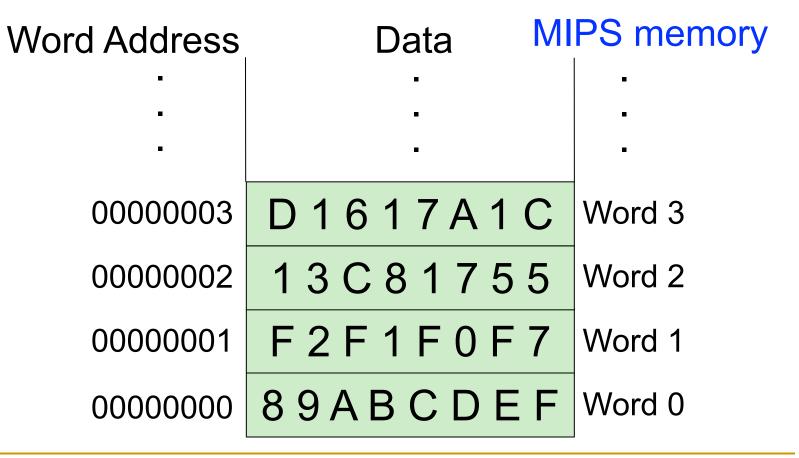
A Simple Example

- A representation of memory with 8 locations
- Each location contains 8 bits (one byte)
 - Byte addressable memory; address space of 8
 - Value 6 is stored in address 4 & value 4 is stored in address 6
- How can we make this bit addressable?

| Address | Data Value | |
|---------|------------|--|
| 000 | | |
| 001 | | |
| 010 | | |
| 011 | | |
| 100 | 00000110 | |
| 101 | | |
| 110 | 00000100 | |
| 111 | | |

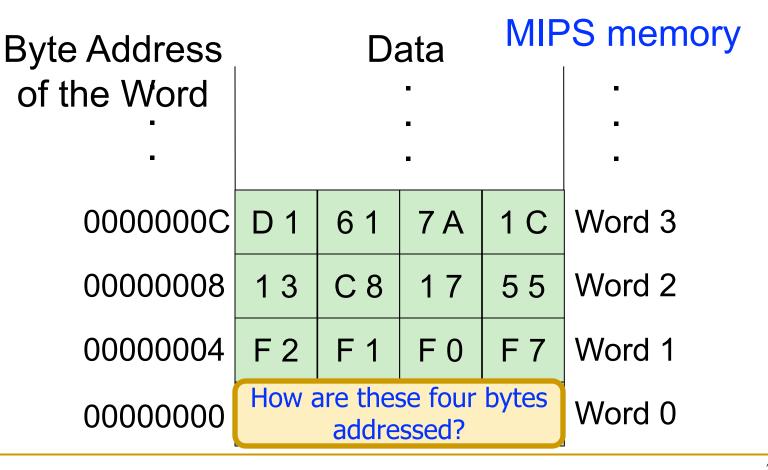
Word-Addressable Memory

- Each data word has a unique address
 - In MIPS, a unique address for each 32-bit data word
 - In LC-3, a unique address for each 16-bit data word



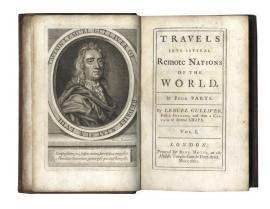
Byte-Addressable Memory

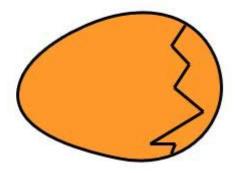
- Each byte has a unique address
 - MIPS is actually byte-addressable
 - LC-3b (updated version of LC-3) is also byte-addressable



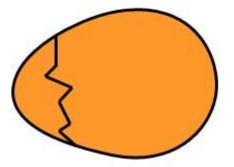
Big Endian vs. Little Endian

- Jonathan Swift's Gulliver's Travels
 - Little Endians broke their eggs on the little end of the egg
 - Big Endians broke their eggs on the big end of the egg



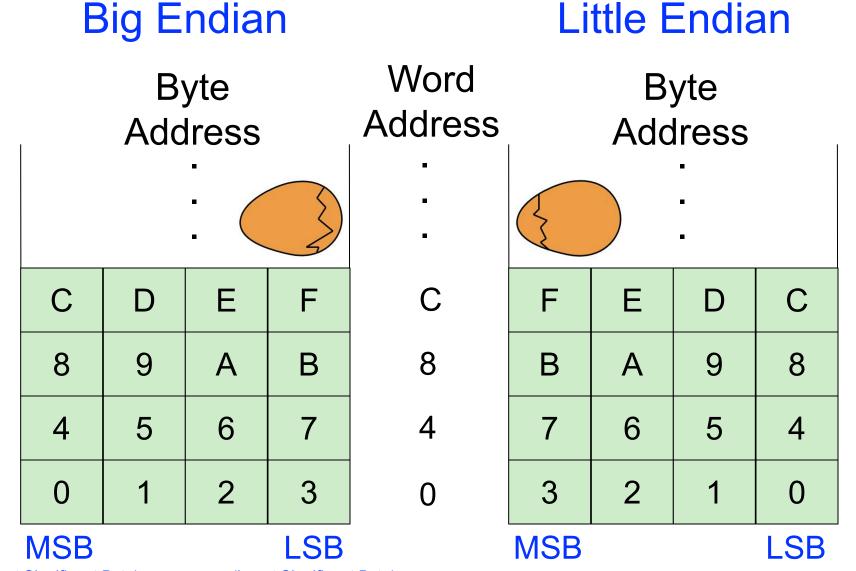


BIG ENDIAN - The way people always broke their eggs in the Lilliput land



LITTLE ENDIAN - The way the king then ordered the people to break their eggs

Big Endian vs. Little Endian



Big Endian vs. Little Endian

Big Endian

Little Endian

Does this really matter?

Answer: No, it is a convention

Qualified answer: No, except when one big-endian system and one little-endian system have to share or exchange data

MSB

LSB

MSB

LSB

Accessing Memory: MAR and MDR

- There are two ways of accessing memory
 - Reading or loading data from a memory location
 - Writing or storing data to a memory location
- Two registers are usually used to access memory
 - Memory Address Register (MAR)
 - Memory Data Register (MDR)

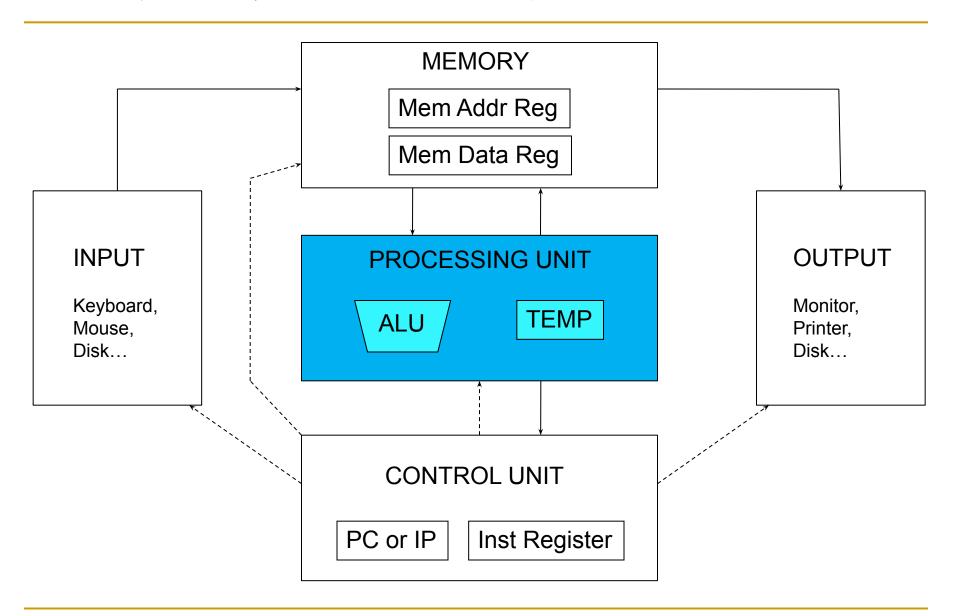


To read

- Step 1: Load the MAR with the address we wish to read from
- Step 2: Data in the corresponding location gets placed in MDR

To write

- Step 1: Load the MAR with the address and the MDR with the data we wish to write
- Step 2: Activate Write Enable signal
 Urganish value in MDR is written to address specified by MAR



Processing Unit

- Performs the actual computation(s)
- The processing unit can consist of many functional units
- We start with a simple Arithmetic and Logic Unit (ALU), which executes computation and logic operations
 - □ LC-3: ADD, AND, NOT (XOR in LC-3b)
 - MIPS: add, sub, mult, and, nor, sll, slr, slt...
- The ALU processes quantities that are referred to as words
 - Word length in LC-3 is 16 bits
 - Word length in MIPS is 32 bits

Recall: ALU (Arithmetic Logic Unit)

- Combines a variety of arithmetic and logical operations into a single unit (that performs only one function at a time)
- Usually denoted with this symbol:

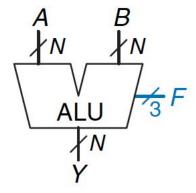


Figure 5.14 ALU symbol

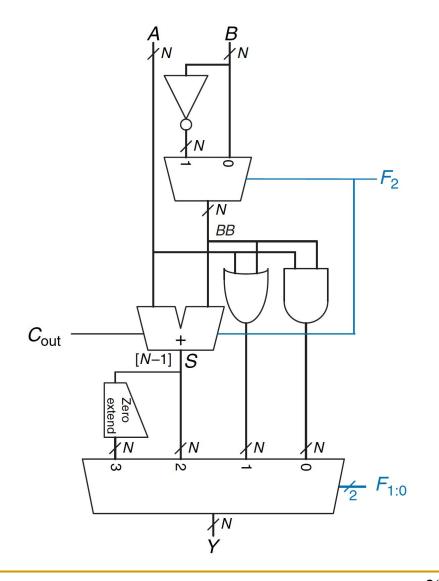
Table 5.1 ALU operations

| $F_{2:0}$ | Function |
|-----------|----------------------|
| 000 | A AND B |
| 001 | A OR B |
| 010 | A + B |
| 011 | not used |
| 100 | A AND \overline{B} |
| 101 | A OR \overline{B} |
| 110 | A - B |
| 111 | SLT |

Recall: Example ALU (Arithmetic Logic Unit)

Table 5.1 ALU operations

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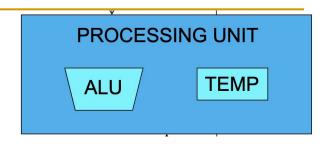


Processing Unit: Fast Temporary Storage

- It is almost always the case that a computer provides a small amount of storage very close to ALU
 - Purpose: to store temporary values and quickly access them later
- E.g., to calculate ((A+B)*C)/D, the intermediate result of A+B can be stored in temporary storage
 - Why? It is too slow to store each ALU result in memory & then retrieve it again for future use
 - A memory access is much slower than an addition, multiplication or division
 - Ditto for the intermediate result of ((A+B)*C)
- This temporary storage is usually a set of registers
 - Called Register File

Registers: Fast Temporary Storage

Memory is large but slow

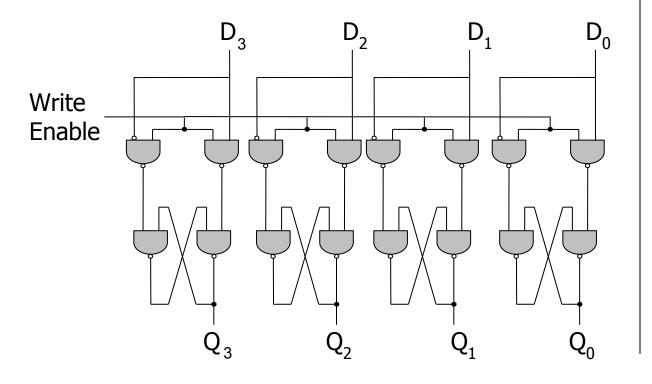


- Registers in the Processing Unit
 - Ensure fast access to values to be processed in the ALU
 - Typically one register contains one word (same as word length)
- Register Set or Register File
 - Set of registers that can be manipulated by instructions
 - LC-3 has 8 general purpose registers (GPRs)
 - R0 to R7: 3-bit register number
 - Register size = Word length = 16 bits
 - MIPS has 32 general purpose registers
 - R0 to R31: 5-bit register number (or Register ID)
 - Register size = Word length = 32 bits

Recall: The Register

How can we use D latches to store **more** data?

- Use more D latches!
- A single WE signal for all latches for simultaneous writes



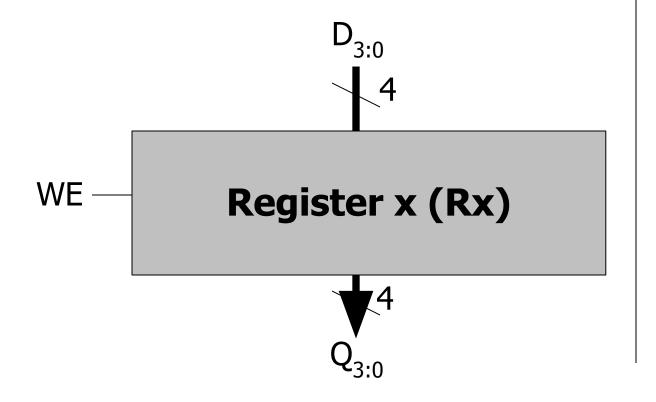
register, or a structure that stores more than one bit and can be read from and written to

This **register** holds 4 bits, and its data is referenced as Q[3:0]

Recall: The Register

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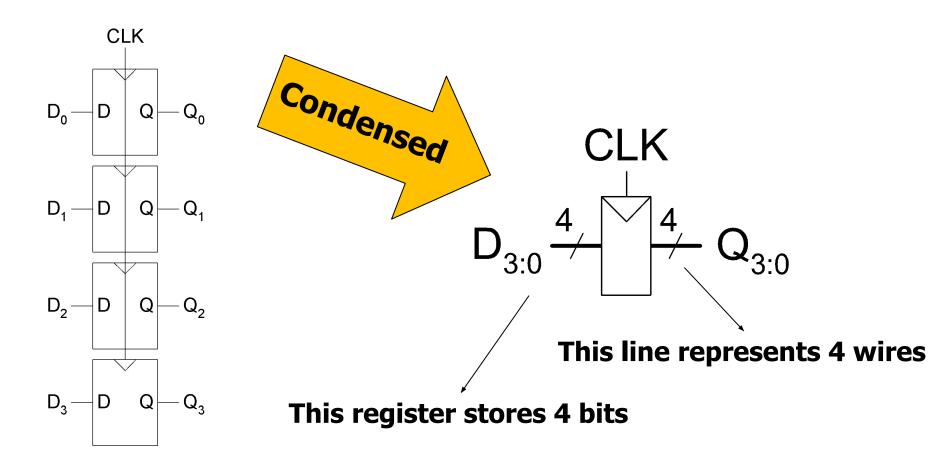


Here we have a register, or a structure that stores more than one bit and can be read from and written to

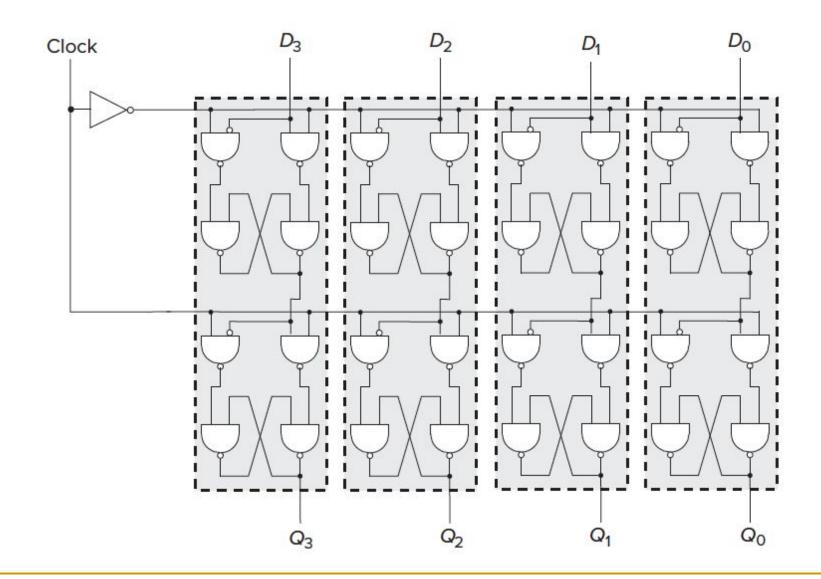
This **register** holds 4 bits, and its data is referenced as Q[3:0]

Recall: D Flip-Flop Based Register

Multiple parallel D flip-flops, each of which storing 1 bit

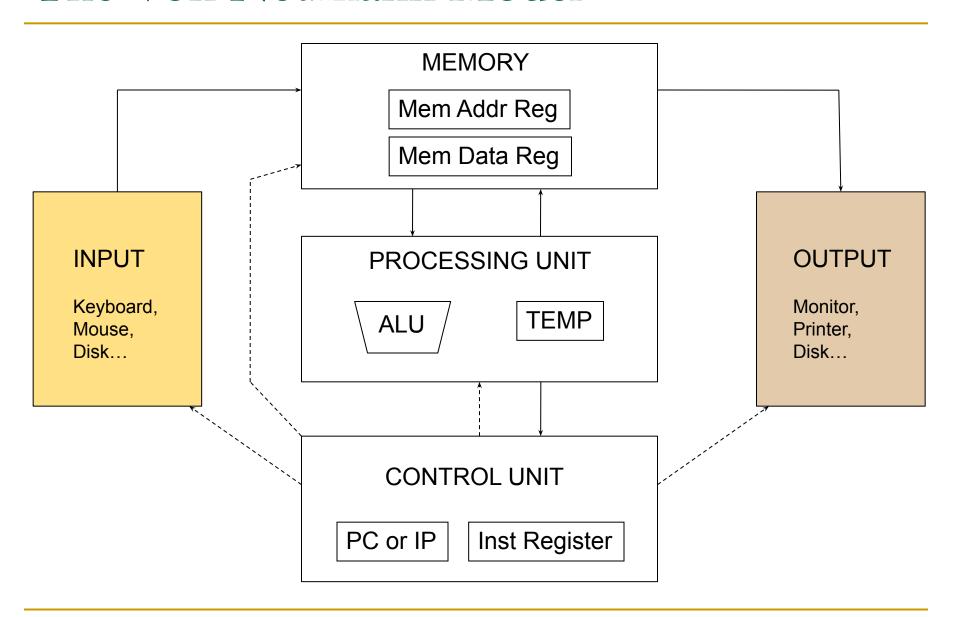


Recall: A 4-Bit D-Flip-Flop-Based Register (Internally)



MIPS Register File

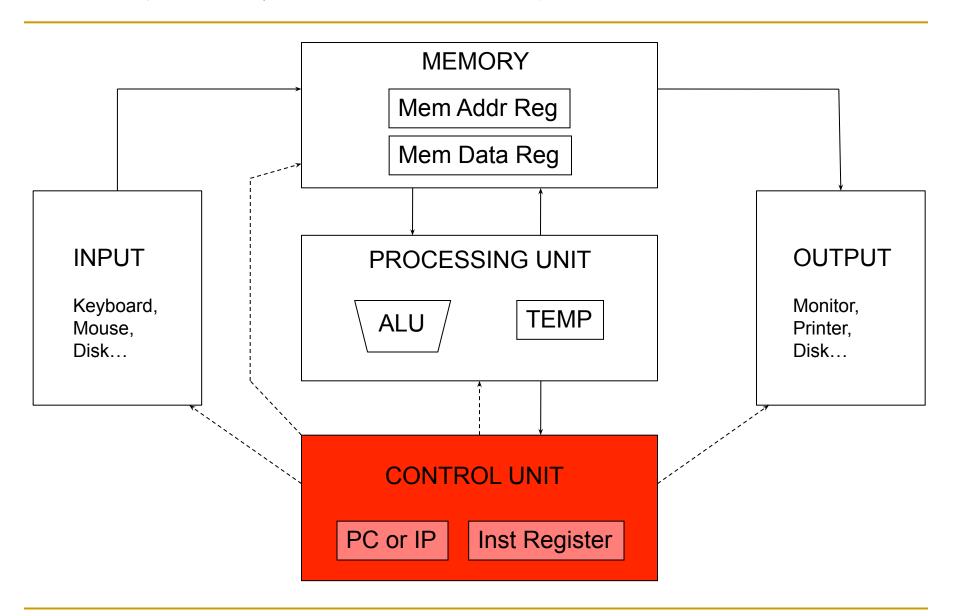
| Name | Register Number | Usage |
|-----------|-----------------|-------------------------|
| \$0 | 0 | the constant value 0 |
| \$at | 1 | assembler temporary |
| \$v0-\$v1 | 2-3 | function return value |
| \$a0-\$a3 | 4-7 | function arguments |
| \$t0-\$t7 | 8-15 | temporary variables |
| \$s0-\$s7 | 16-23 | saved variables |
| \$t8-\$t9 | 24-25 | temporary variables |
| \$k0-\$k1 | 26-27 | OS temporaries |
| \$gp | 28 | global pointer |
| \$sp | 29 | stack pointer |
| \$fp | 30 | frame pointer |
| \$ra | 31 | function return address |



Input and Output

- Enable information to get into and out of a computer
- Many devices can be used for input and output
- They are called peripherals
 - Input
 - Keyboard
 - Mouse
 - Scanner
 - Disks
 - Etc.
 - Output
 - Monitor
 - Printer
 - Disks
 - Etc.
 - □ In LC-3, we consider keyboard and monitor

The Von Neumann Model

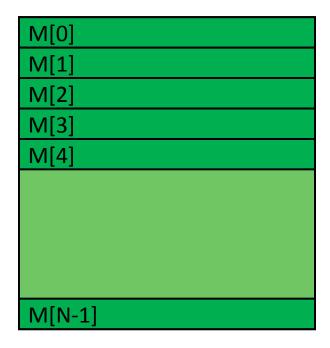


Control Unit

- The control unit is like the conductor of an orchestra
- It conducts the step-by-step process of executing (every instruction in) a program
- It keeps track of which instruction being processed, via
 - Instruction Register (IR), which contains the instruction
- It also keeps track of which instruction to process next, via
 - Program Counter (PC) or Instruction Pointer (IP), another register that contains the address of the (next) instruction to process

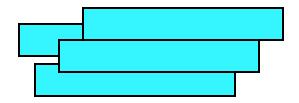
CONTROL UNIT
PC or IP Inst Register

Programmer Visible (Architectural) State



Memory

array of storage locations indexed by an address



Registers

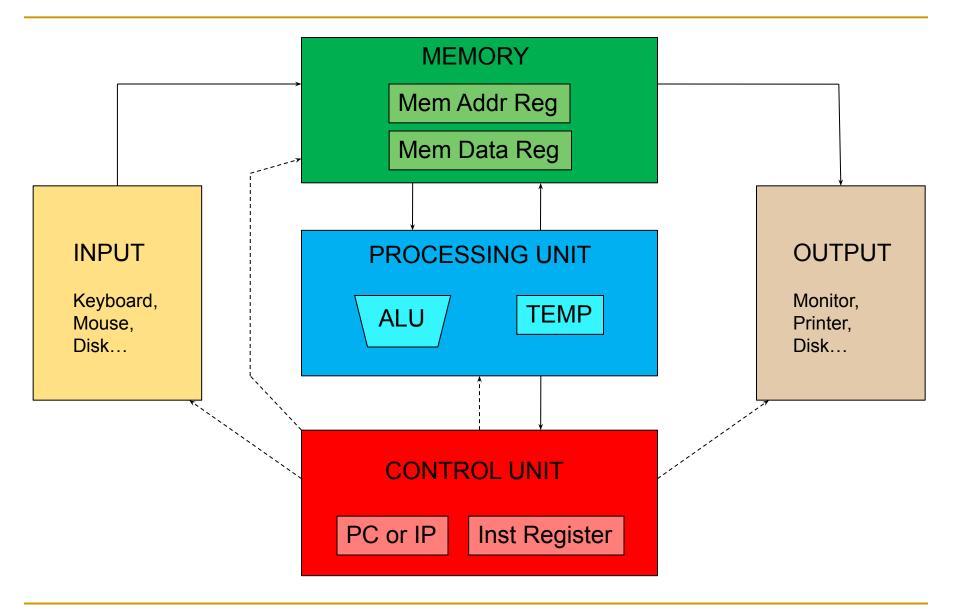
- given special names in the ISA (as opposed to addresses)
- general vs. special purpose

Program Counter

memory address of the current (or next) instruction

Instructions (and programs) specify how to transform the values of programmer visible state

The von Neumann Model



von Neumann Model: Two Key Properties

 Von Neumann model is also called stored program computer (instructions in memory). It has two key properties:

Stored program

- Instructions stored in a linear memory array
- Memory is unified between instructions and data
 - The interpretation of a stored value depends on the control signals

Sequential instruction processing

- One instruction processed (fetched, executed, completed) at a time
- Program counter (instruction pointer) identifies the current instruction
- Program counter is advanced sequentially except for control transfer instructions

LC-3: A von Neumann Machine

LC-3: A von Neumann Machine



LC-3: A von Neumann Machine

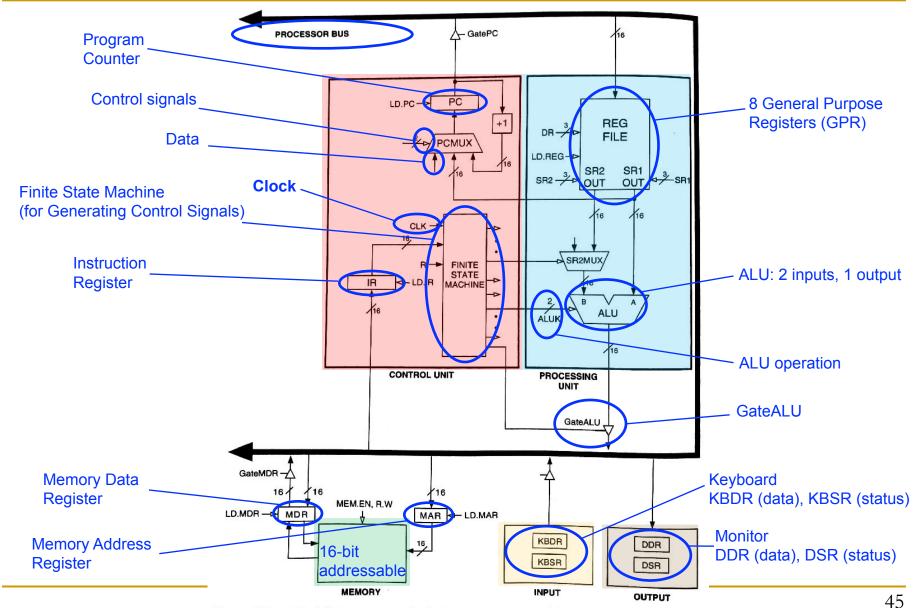


Figure 4.3 The LC-3 as an example of the von Neumann model

Stored Program & Sequential Execution

- Instructions and data are stored in memory
 - Typically the instruction length is the word length
- The processor fetches instructions from memory sequentially
 - Fetches one instruction
 - Decodes and executes the instruction
 - Continues with the next instruction
- The address of the current instruction is stored in the program counter (PC)
 - If word-addressable memory, the processor increments the PC by 1 (in LC-3)
 - If byte-addressable memory, the processor increments the PC by the word length (4 in MIPS)
 - In MIPS the OS typically sets the PC to 0x00400000 (start of a program)

A Sample Program Stored in Memory

- A sample MIPS program
 - 4 instructions stored in consecutive words in memory
 - No need to understand the program now. We will get back to it

MIPS assembly

```
lw $t2, 32($0)
add $s0, $s1, $s2
addi $t0, $s3, -12
sub $t0, $t3, $t5
```

Machine code (encoded instruct.)

| 0x8C0A0020 | |
|------------|--|
| 0x02328020 | |
| 0x2268FFF4 | |
| 0x016D4022 | |

| Byte Address | Instructions | |
|--------------|-----------------|------|
| | | |
| | | |
| 0040000C | 016D4022 | |
| 00400008 | 2268FFF4 | |
| 00400004 | 02328020 | |
| 00400000 | 8 C 0 A 0 0 2 0 | ← PC |
| | | |

The Instruction

- An instruction the most basic unit of computer processing
 - Instructions are words in the language of a computer
 - Instruction Set Architecture (ISA) is the vocabulary
- The language of the computer can be written as
 - Machine language: Computer-readable representation (that is, 0's and 1's)
 - Assembly language: Human-readable representation
- We will study LC-3 instructions and MIPS instructions

The Instruction: Opcode & Operands

- An instruction is made up of two parts
 - Opcode and Operands
- Opcode specifies what the instruction does
- Operands specify who the instruction is to do it to
- Both are specified in instruction format (or instr. encoding)
 - An LC-3 instruction consists of 16 bits (bits [15:0])
 - Bits [15:12] specify the opcode □ 16 distinct opcodes in LC-3
 - Bits [11:0] are used to figure out where the operands are

| 15 | 14 | 13 | 12 | 11 | 10 | 9 | 8 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
|-----|----|----|----|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|---|----|---|---|---|
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| ADD | | | R6 | | | R2 | | | | | | R6 | | | |

Instruction Types

- There are three main types of instructions
- Operate instructions
 - Execute instructions in the ALU
- Data movement instructions
 - Read from or write to memory
- Control flow instructions
 - Change the sequence of execution
- Let us start with some example instructions

An Example Operate Instruction

Addition

High-level code

Assembly

$$a = b + c;$$

- add: mnemonic to indicate the operation to perform
- b, c: source operands
- a: destination operand
- $a \leftarrow b + c$

Registers

We map variables to registers

Assembly

add a, b, c

LC-3 registers

$$b = R1$$

$$c = R2$$

$$a = R0$$

MIPS registers

$$b = \$s1$$

$$c = $s2$$

$$a = $s0$$

From Assembly to Machine Code in LC-3

Addition

LC-3 assembly

ADD RO, R1, R2

Field Values

| OP | DR | SR1 | | | SR2 |
|----|----|-----|---|----|-----|
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 00 | 2 |

Machine Code (Instruction Encoding)

 OP
 DR
 SR1
 SR2

 0 0 0 1
 0 0 0
 0 0 1
 0 0 0
 0 1 0

 15 14 13 12
 11 10 9
 8 7 6
 5 4 3 2 1 0

0x1042

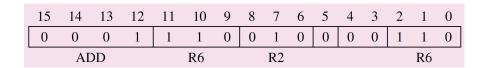
Machine Code, in short (hexadecimal)

Instruction Format (or Encoding)

LC-3 Operate Instruction Format

| _ | 15 14 13 12 | 11 10 9 | 8 7 6 | 5 | 4 3 | 2 1 0 |
|---|-------------|---------|--------|---|-----|--------|
| | OP | DR | SR1 | 0 | 00 | SR2 |
| | 4 bits | 3 bits | 3 bits | | | 3 bits |

- OP = opcode (what the instruction does)
 - E.g., ADD = 0001
 - □ Semantics: DR ← SR1 + SR2
 - E.g., AND = 0101
 - □ Semantics: DR ← SR1 AND SR2
- □ SR1, SR2 = source registers
- □ DR = destination register



From Assembly to Machine Code in MIPS

Addition

MIPS assembly

Field Values

| ор | rs | rt | rd | shamt | funct |
|----|----|----|----|-------|-------|
| 0 | 17 | 18 | 16 | 0 | 32 |

$$rd \leftarrow rs + rt$$

Machine Code (Instruction Encoding)

| 0 | ор | | rs | | rt | | d | shamt | | fui | nct | |
|--------|----|------------|----|-----|-------|----|-------|-------|-------|-----|--------|--|
| 000000 | | 0000 10001 | | 100 | 10010 | | 10000 | | 00000 | | 100000 | |
| 31 | 26 | 25 | 21 | 20 | 16 | 15 | 11 | 10 | 6 | 5 | 0 | |

0x02328020

Instruction Format: R-Type in MIPS

MIPS R-type Instruction Format

3 register operands

| 0 | rs | rt | rd | shamt | funct |
|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| 6 bits | 5 bits | 5 bits | 5 bits | 5 bits | 6 bits |

- \bigcirc 0 = opcode
- rs, rt = source registers
- rd = destination register
- shamt = shift amount (only shift operations)
- funct = operation in R-type instructions

Reading Operands from Memory

- With operate instructions, such as addition, we tell the computer to execute arithmetic (or logic) computations in the ALU
- We also need instructions to access the operands from memory
 - Load them from memory to registers
 - Store them from registers to memory
- Next, we see how to read (or load) from memory
- Writing (or storing) is performed in a similar way, but we will talk about that later

Reading Word-Addressable Memory

Load word

High-level code

Assembly

```
a = A[i];
```

load a, A, i

- load: mnemonic to indicate the load word operation
- A: base address
- □ i: offset
 - E.g., immediate or literal (a constant)
- a: destination operand
- □ Semantics: a ← Memory[A + i]

Load Word in LC-3 and MIPS

LC-3 assembly

High-level code

$$a = A[2];$$

LC-3 assembly

$$R3 \leftarrow Memory[R0 + 2]$$

MIPS assembly

High-level code

$$a = A[2];$$

MIPS assembly

$$$s3 \leftarrow Memory[$s0 + 2]$$

These instructions use a particular addressing mode (i.e., the way the address is calculated), called base+offset

Load Word in Byte-Addressable MIPS

MIPS assembly

High-level code

$$a = A[2];$$

MIPS assembly

```
lw $s3, 8($s0)

$s3 ← Memory[$s0 + 8]
```

- Byte address is calculated as: word_address * bytes/word
 - 4 bytes/word in MIPS
 - ☐ If LC-3 were byte-addressable (i.e., LC-3b), 2 bytes/word

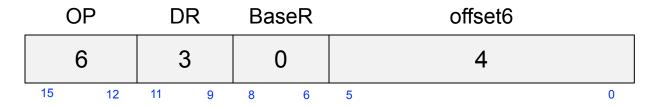
Instruction Format With Immediate

LC-3

LC-3 assembly

LDR R3, R0, #4

Field Values

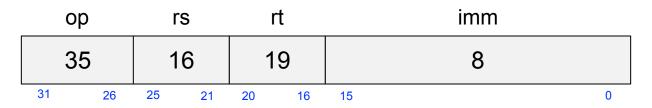


MIPS

MIPS assembly

lw \$s3, 8(\$s0)

Field Values



I-Type

Instruction (Processing) Cycle

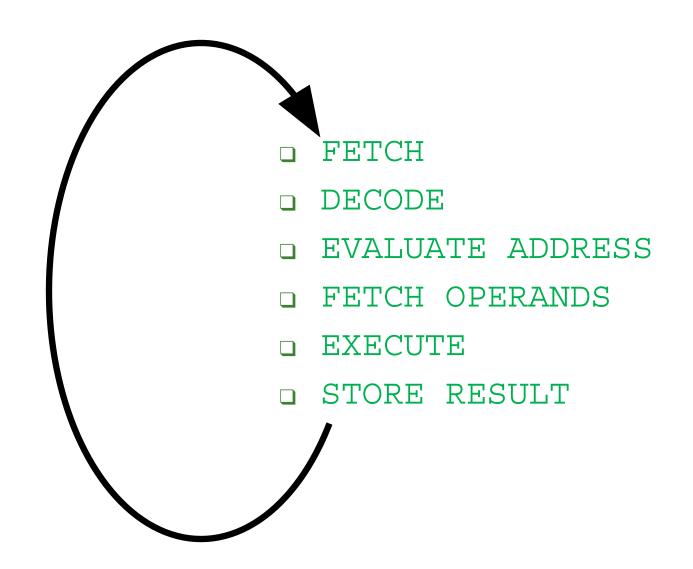
How Are These Instructions Executed?

- By using instructions we can speak the language of the computer
- Thus, we now know how to tell the computer to
 - Execute computations in the ALU by using, for instance, an addition
 - Access operands from memory by using the load word instruction
- But, how are these instructions executed on the computer?
 - The process of executing an instruction is called is the instruction cycle (or, instruction processing cycle)

The Instruction Cycle

- The instruction cycle is a sequence of steps or phases, that an instruction goes through to be executed
 - FETCH
 - DECODE
 - EVALUATE ADDRESS
 - □ FETCH OPERANDS
 - EXECUTE
 - □ STORE RESULT
- Not all instructions have the six phases
 - LDR does **not** require EXECUTE
 - ADD does **not** require EVALUATE ADDRESS
 - Intel x86 instruction ADD [eax], edx is an example of instruction with six phases

After STORE RESULT, a New FETCH



FETCH

- The FETCH phase obtains the instruction from memory and loads it into the Instruction Register (IR)
- This phase is common to every instruction type
- Complete description
 - Step 1: Load the MAR with the contents of the PC, and simultaneously increment the PC
 - Step 2: Interrogate memory. This results in the instruction being placed in the MDR by memory
 - Step 3: Load the IR with the contents of the MDR

FETCH in LC-3

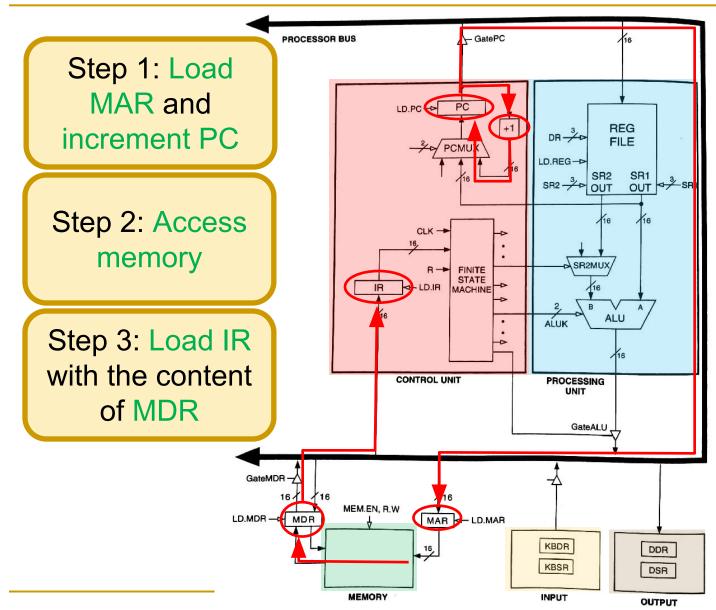


Figure 4.3 The LC-3 as an example of the von Neumann model

DECODE

- The DECODE phase identifies the instruction
 - Also generates the set of control signals to process the identified instruction in later phases of the instruction cycle
- Recall the decoder (from Lecture 5)
 - A 4-to-16 decoder identifies which of the 16 opcodes is going to be processed
- The input is the four bits IR[15:12]
- The remaining 12 bits identify what else is needed to process the instruction

DECODE in LC-3

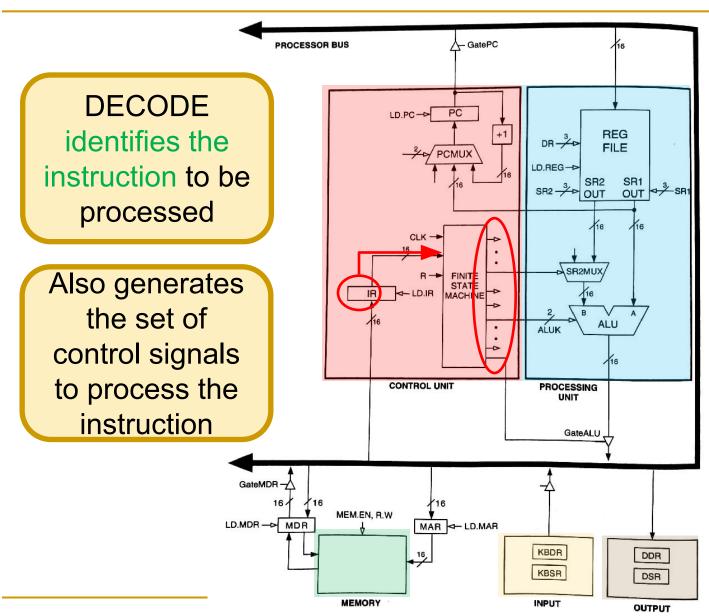


Figure 4.3 The LC-3 as an example of the von Neumann model

EVALUATE ADDRESS

- The EVALUATE ADDRESS phase computes the address of the memory location that is needed to process the instruction
- This phase is necessary in LDR
 - It computes the address of the data word that is to be read from memory
 - By adding an offset to the content of a register
- But not necessary in ADD

EVALUATE ADDRESS in LC-3

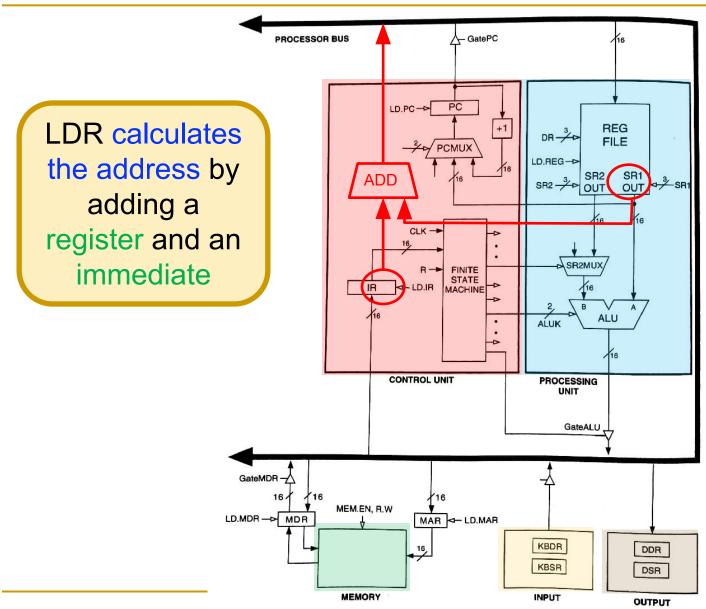


Figure 4.3 The LC-3 as an example of the von Neumann model

FETCH OPERANDS

 The FETCH OPERANDS phase obtains the source operands needed to process the instruction

In LDR

- Step 1: Load MAR with the address calculated in EVALUATE ADDRESS
- Step 2: Read memory, placing source operand in MDR
- In ADD
 - Obtain the source operands from the register file
 - In some microprocessors, operand fetch from register file can be done at the same time the instruction is being decoded

FETCH OPERANDS in LC-3

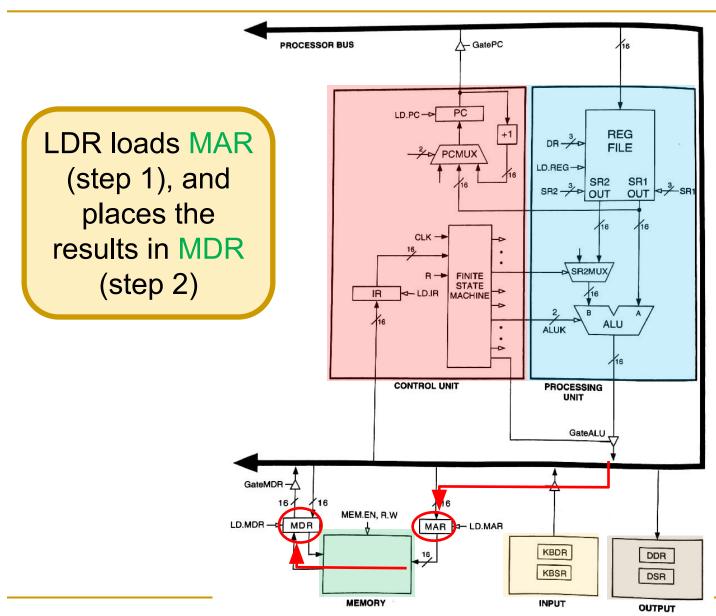


Figure 4.3 The LC-3 as an example of the von Neumann model

EXECUTE

- The EXECUTE phase executes the instruction
 - In ADD, it performs addition in the ALU
 - In XOR, it performs bitwise XOR in the ALU

..

EXECUTE in LC-3

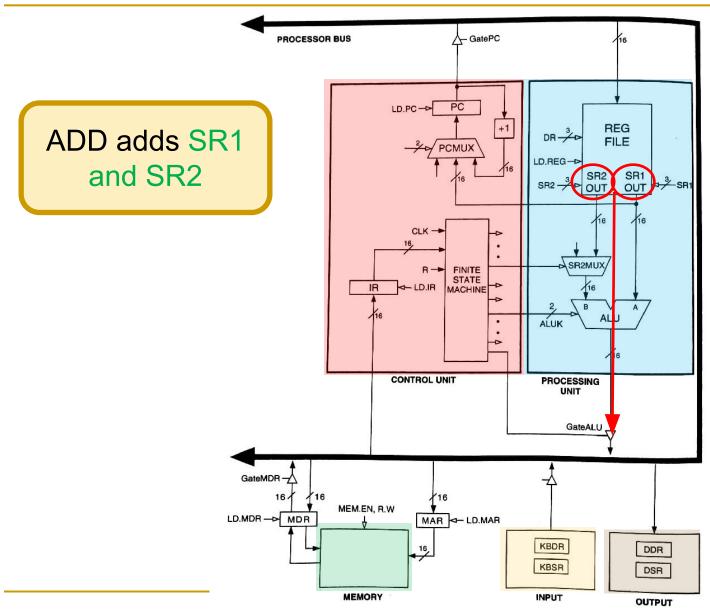


Figure 4.3 The LC-3 as an example of the von Neumann model

STORE RESULT

- The STORE RESULT phase writes the result to the designated destination
- Once STORE RESULT is completed, a new instruction cycle starts (with the FETCH phase)

STORE RESULT in LC-3

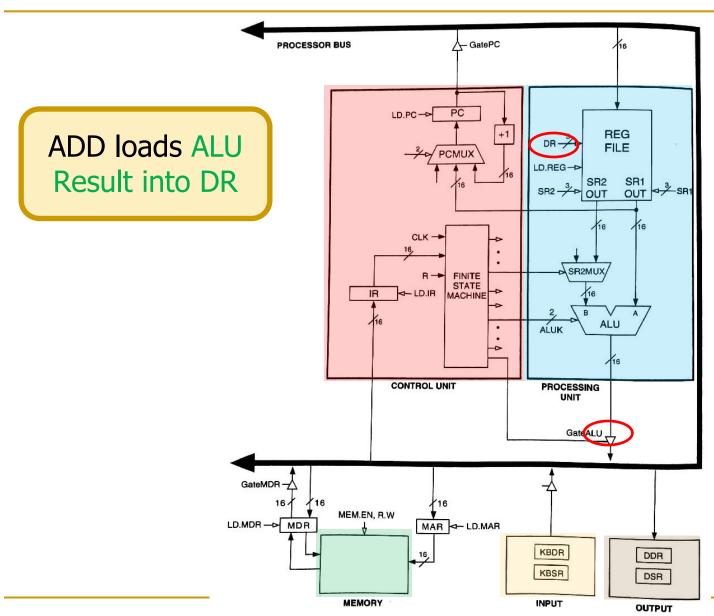


Figure 4.3 The LC-3 as an example of the von Neumann model

STORE RESULT in LC-3

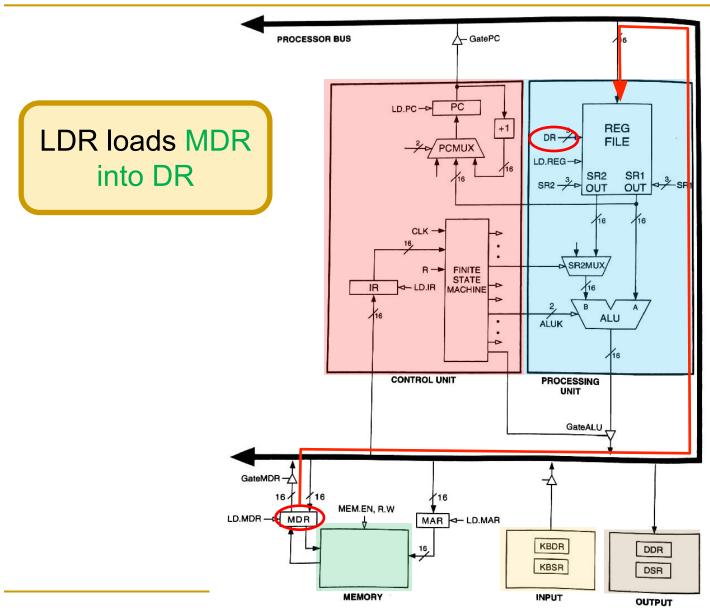
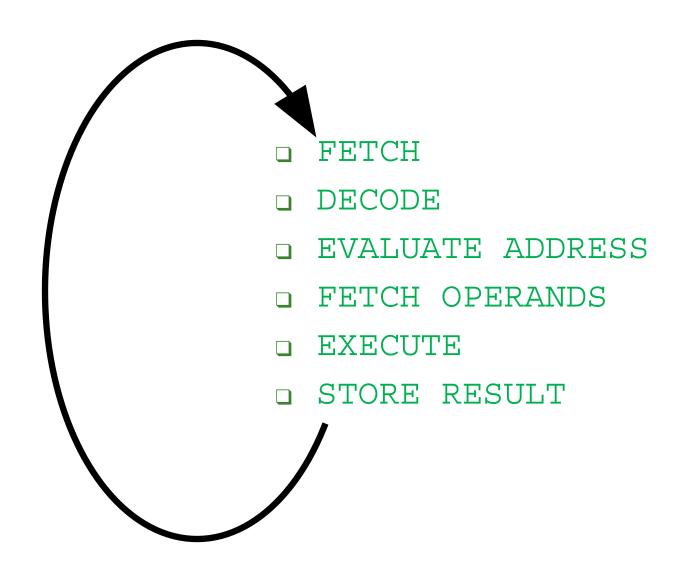


Figure 4.3 The LC-3 as an example of the von Neumann model

The Instruction Cycle



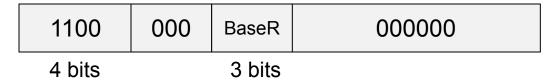
Changing the Sequence of Execution

- A computer program executes in sequence (i.e., in program order)
 - First instruction, second instruction, third instruction and so on
- Unless we change the sequence of execution
- Control instructions allow a program to execute out of sequence
 - They can change the PC by loading it during the EXECUTE phase
 - That wipes out the incremented PC (loaded during the FETCH phase)

Jump in LC-3

- Unconditional branch or jump
- LC-3

JMP R2



- BaseR = Base register
- □ PC ← R2 (Register identified by BaseR)

This is register addressing mode

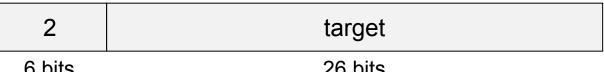
- Variations
 - RET: special case of JMP where BaseR = R7
 - JSR, JSRR: jump to subroutine

Jump in MIPS

Unconditional branch or jump

MIPS

target



- J-Type 6 bits 26 bits
- \Box 2 = opcode
- target = target address
- $PC \leftarrow PC^{\dagger}[31:28] \mid sign-extend(target) * 4$
- **Variations**
 - jal: jump and link (function calls)
 - jr: jump register

jr \$s0

juses pseudo-direct addressing mode

jr uses register addressing mode

LC-3 Data Path

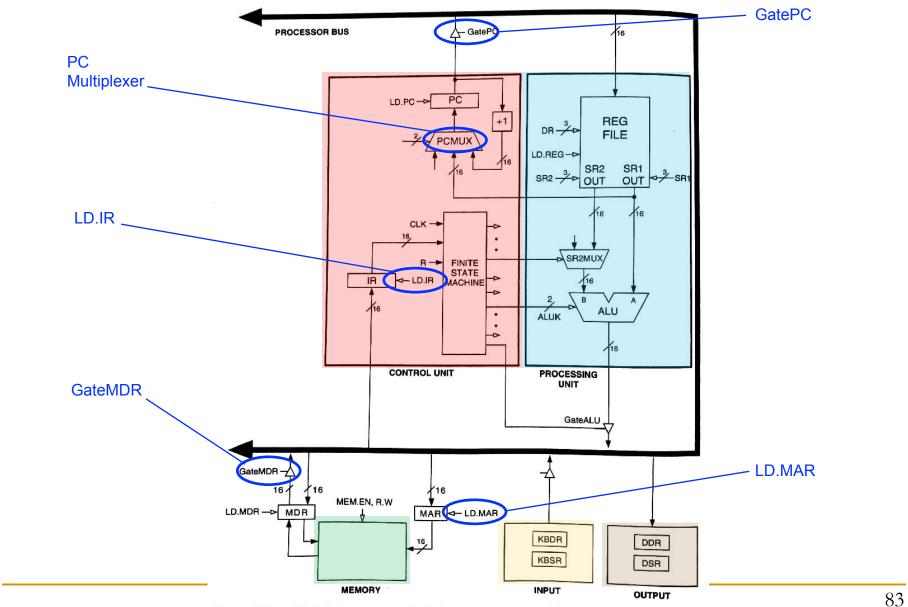
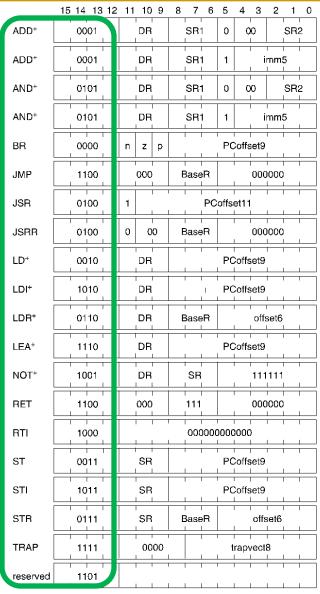


Figure 4.3 The LC-3 as an example of the von Neumann model

Opcodes in LC-3



 $\begin{array}{ll} {\rm Figure~5.3} & {\rm Formats~of~the~entire~LC-3~instruction~set.~NOTE:} & {\rm indicates~instructions} \\ & {\rm that~modify~condition~codes} \end{array}$

Control of the Instruction Cycle

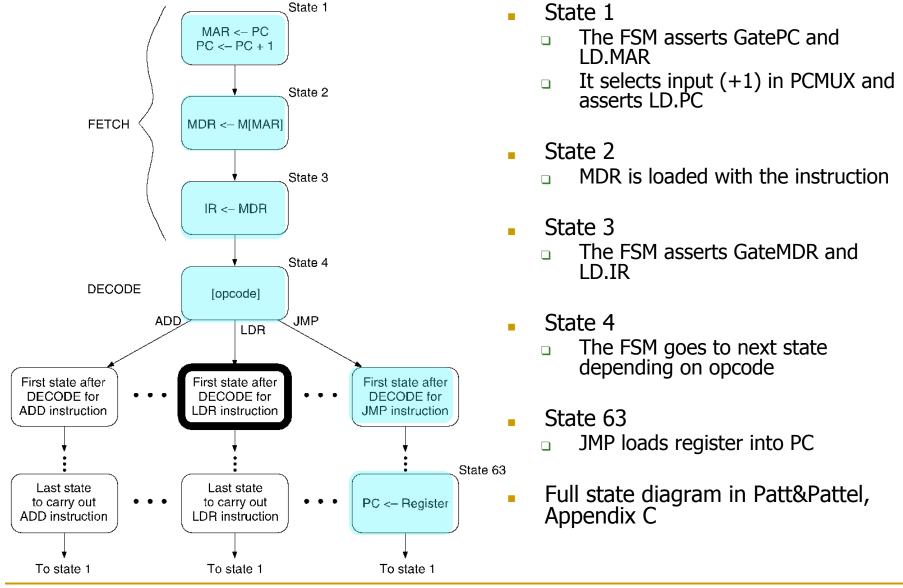
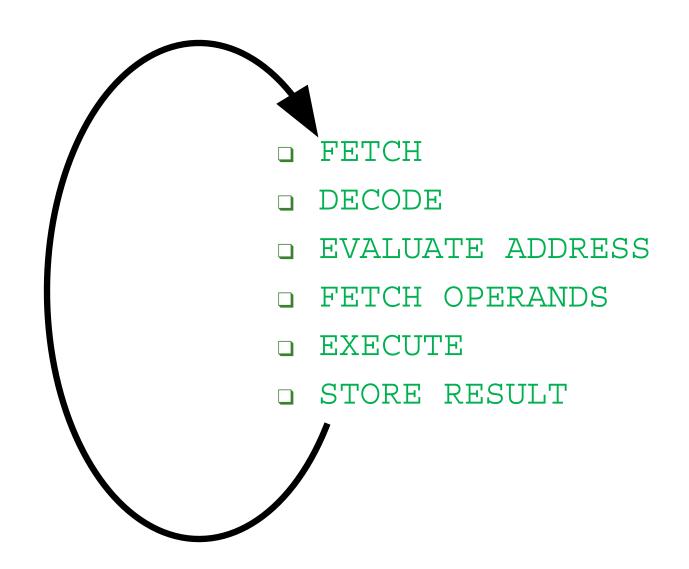


Figure 4.4 An abbreviated state diagram of the LC-3

The Instruction Cycle



Digital Design & Computer Arch.

Lecture 9: Von Neumann Model & Instruction Set Architectures

Prof. Onur Mutlu

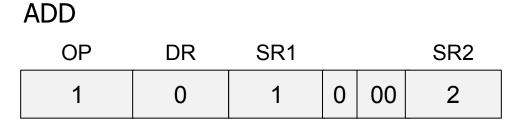
ETH Zürich
Spring 2021
25 March 2021

The Remaining Slides Are Not Covered in This Lecture

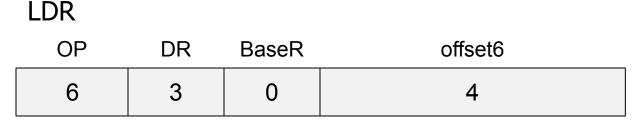
LC-3 and MIPS Instruction Set Architectures

The Instruction Set

- It defines opcodes, data types, and addressing modes
- ADD and LDR have been our first examples



Register mode



Base+offset mode

The Instruction Set Architecture

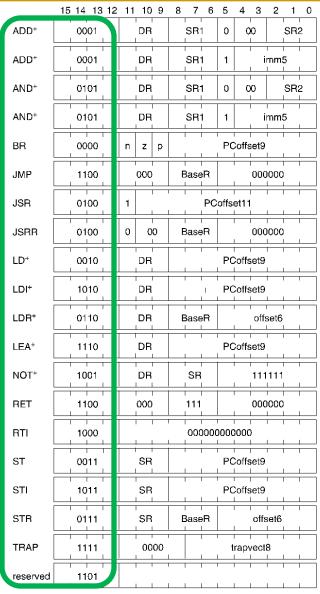
- The ISA is the interface between what the software commands and what the hardware carries out
- The ISA specifies
 - The memory organization
 - Address space (LC-3: 2¹⁶, MIPS: 2³²)
 - Addressability (LC-3: 16 bits, MIPS: 32 bits)
 - Word- or Byte-addressable
 - The register set
 - R0 to R7 in LC-3
 - 32 registers in MIPS
 - The instruction set
 - Opcodes
 - Data types
 - Addressing modes

Problem
Algorithm
Program
ISA
Microarchitecture
Circuits
Electrons

Opcodes

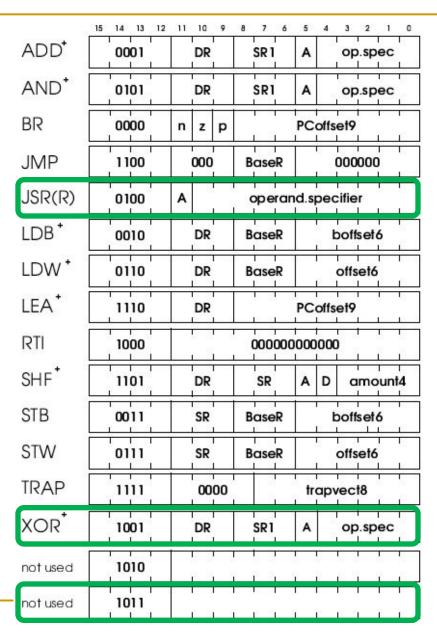
- Large or small sets of opcodes could be defined
 - E.g, HP Precision Architecture: an instruction for A*B+C
 - E.g, x86 ISA: multimedia extensions (MMX), later SSE and AVX
 - E.g, VAX ISA: opcode to save all information of one program prior to switching to another program
- Tradeoffs are involved
 - Hardware complexity vs. software complexity
- In LC-3 and in MIPS there are three types of opcodes
 - Operate
 - Data movement
 - Control

Opcodes in LC-3



 $\begin{array}{ll} {\rm Figure~5.3} & {\rm Formats~of~the~entire~LC-3~instruction~set.~NOTE:} & {\rm indicates~instructions} \\ & {\rm that~modify~condition~codes} \end{array}$

Opcodes in LC-3b



Funct in MIPS R-Type Instructions (I)

Opcode is 0
in MIPS
R-Type
instructions.
Funct defines
the operation

Table B.2 R-type instructions, sorted by funct field

| Funct | Name | Description | Operation |
|-------------|-------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| 000000 (0) | sll rd. rt. shamt | shift left logical | [rd] = [rt] << shant |
| 000010 (2) | srl rd. rt. shamt | shift right logical | [rd] = [rt] >> shamt |
| 000011 (3) | sraird, rt. shamt | shift right arithmetic | [rd] = [rt] >>> shamt |
| 000100 (4) | sllv rd, rt, rs | shift left logical variable | [rd] = [rt] << [~s] _{4:0} |
| 000110 (6) | srlvird, rt. rs | shift right logical variable | [rd] = [rt] >> [rs] _{4:0} |
| 000111 (7) | srav rd, rt. rs | shift right arithmetic variable | [rd] = [rt] >>> [~s] _{4:0} |
| 001000 (8) | jr rs | jump register | PC = [rs] |
| 001001 (9) | jalr rs | jump and link register | \$ra = PC + 4, PC = [rs] |
| 001100 (12) | syscall | system call | systemicall exception |
| 001101 (13) | break | break | break exception |
| 010000 (16) | mfhí rd | move from hi | [rd] = [n˙] |
| 010001 (17) | mthi rs | move to hi | [ni] = [rs] |
| 010010 (18) | mſlord | move from lo | [rd] = [lo] |
| 010011 (19) | mtlo rs | move to lo | []o] = [rs] |
| 011000 (24) | mult rs. rt | multiply | $\{[ni], []c]\} = [rs] \times [rt]$ |
| 011001 (25) | mullurs, rl | multiply unsigned | $\{[ni], []c]\} = [rs] \times [rt]$ |
| 011010 (26) | div rs, rt | divide | [lo] = [rs]/[rt]. [ni] = [rs]%[rt] |
| 011011 (27) | divu rs, rt | divide unsigned | [lo] = [rs]/[rt], [ni] - [rs]%[rt] |

(continued)

Funct in MIPS R-Type Instructions (II)

Table B.2 R-type instructions, sorted by funct field—Cont'd

| Funct | Name | Description | Operation |
|-------------|-----------------|------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 100000 (32) | add rd, rs, rt | add | [rd] = [rs] + [rt] |
| 100001 (33) | addu rd, rs, rt | add unsigned | [rd] = [rs] + [rt] |
| 100010 (34) | sub rd, rs, rt | subtract | [rd] = [rs] - [rt] |
| 100011 (35) | subu rd, rs, rt | subtract unsigned | [rd] = [rs] - [rt] |
| 100100 (36) | and rd, rs, rt | and | [rd] = [rs] & [rt] |
| 100101 (37) | or rd, rs, rt | or | [rd] = [rs] [rt] |
| 100110 (38) | xor rd, rs, rl | xor | [rd] = [rs] ^ [rl] |
| 100111 (39) | nor rd, rs, rt | nor | [rd] = ~([rs] [rt]) |
| 101010 (42) | slt rd, rs, rt | set less than | [rs] < [rt] ? [rd] = 1 : [rd] = 0 |
| 101011 (43) | sltu rd, rs, rt | set less than unsigned | [rs] < [rt] ? [rd] = 1 : [rd] = 0 |

Find the complete list of instructions in the H&H Appendix B

Data Types

- An ISA supports one or several data types
- LC-3 only supports 2's complement integers
 - Negative of a 2's complement binary value X = NOT(X) + 1
- MIPS supports
 - 2's complement integers
 - Unsigned integers
 - Floating point
- Again, tradeoffs are involved
 - What data types should be supported and what should not be?

Data Type Tradeoffs

- What is the benefit of having more or high-level data types in the ISA?
- What is the disadvantage?
- Think compiler/programmer vs. microarchitect
- Concept of semantic gap
 - □ Data types coupled tightly to the semantic level, or complexity of instructions □ how close are instrs. to high-level languages
- Example: Early RISC architectures vs. Intel 432
 - Early RISC machines: Only integer data type
 - Intel 432: Object data type, capability based machine
 - VAX: Complex types, e.g., doubly-linked list

Addressing Modes

- An addressing mode is a mechanism for specifying where an operand is located
- There are five addressing modes in LC-3
 - Immediate or literal (constant)
 - The operand is in some bits of the instruction
 - Register
 - The operand is in one of R0 to R7 registers
 - Three memory addressing modes
 - PC-relative
 - Indirect
 - Base+offset
- MIPS has pseudo-direct addressing (for j and jal), additionally, but does not have indirect addressing

Operate Instructions

Operate Instructions

- In LC-3, there are three operate instructions
 - NOT is a unary operation (one source operand)
 - It executes bitwise NOT
 - ADD and AND are binary operations (two source operands)
 - ADD is 2's complement addition
 - AND is bitwise SR1 & SR2
- In MIPS, there are many more
 - Most of R-type instructions (they are binary operations)
 - E.g., add, and, nor, xor...
 - I-type versions (i.e., with one immediate operand) of the R-type operate instructions
 - F-type operations, i.e., floating-point operations

NOT in LC-3

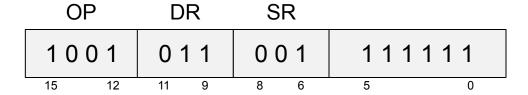
NOT assembly and machine code
 LC-3 assembly

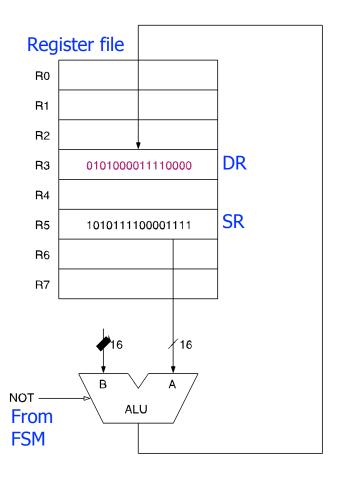
NOT R3, R5

Field Values

| OP | DR | SR | |
|----|----|----|--------|
| 9 | 3 | 5 | 111111 |

Machine Code





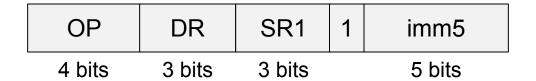
There is no NOT in MIPS. How is it implemented?

Operate Instructions

- We are already familiar with LC-3's ADD and AND with register mode (R-type in MIPS)
- Now let us see the versions with one literal (i.e., immediate) operand
- Subtraction is another necessary operation
 - How is it implemented in LC-3 and MIPS?

Operate Instr. with one Literal in LC-3

ADD and AND



- □ OP = operation
 - E.g., ADD = 0001 (same OP as the register-mode ADD)
 □ DR ← SR1 + sign-extend(imm5)
 - E.g., AND = 0101 (same OP as the register-mode AND)
 □ DR ← SR1 AND sign-extend(imm5)
- SR1 = source register
- DR = destination register
- imm5 = Literal or immediate (sign-extend to 16 bits)

ADD with one Literal in LC-3

ADD assembly and machine code

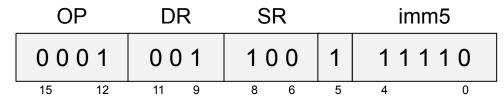
LC-3 assembly

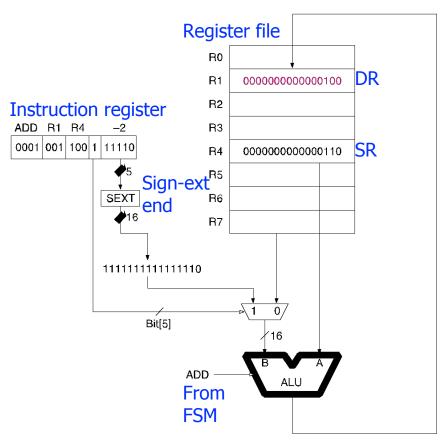
ADD R1, R4, #-2

Field Values

| OP | DR | SR | | imm5 |
|----|----|----|---|------|
| 1 | 1 | 4 | 1 | -2 |

Machine Code





Instructions with one Literal in MIPS

- I-type MIPS Instructions
 - 2 register operands and immediate
- Some operate and data movement instructions

| opcode | rs | rt | imm |
|--------|--------|--------|---------|
| 6 bits | 5 bits | 5 bits | 16 bits |

- opcode = operation
- rs = source register
- □ rt =
 - destination register in some instructions (e.g., addi, lw)
 - source register in others (e.g., sw)
- imm = Literal or immediate

Add with one Literal in MIPS

Add immediate

MIPS assembly

Field Values

| ор | rs | rt | imm |
|----|----|----|-----|
| 0 | 17 | 16 | 5 |

rt ← rs + sign-extend(imm)

Machine Code

| ор | rs | rt | imm |
|--------|-------|-------|---------------------|
| 001000 | 10001 | 10010 | 0000 0000 0000 0101 |

0x22300005

Subtract in LC-3

MIPS assembly

High-level code

$$a = b + c - d;$$

MIPS assembly

LC-3 assembly

High-level code

$$a = b + c - d;$$

Tradeoff in LC-3

- More instructions
- But, simpler control logic

LC-3 assembly

Subtract Immediate

MIPS assembly

High-level code

$$a = b - 3;$$



Is subi necessary in MIPS?

MIPS assembly

LC-3

High-level code

$$a = b - 3;$$

LC-3 assembly

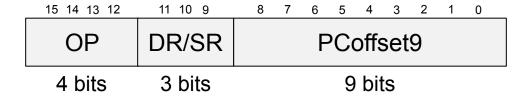
Data Movement Instructions and Addressing Modes

Data Movement Instructions

- In LC-3, there are seven data movement instructions
 - □ LD, LDR, LDI, LEA, ST, STR, STI
- Format of load and store instructions
 - Opcode (bits [15:12])
 - DR or SR (bits [11:9])
 - Address generation bits (bits [8:0])
 - Four ways to interpret bits, called addressing modes
 - PC-Relative Mode
 - Indirect Mode
 - Base+Offset Mode
 - Immediate Mode
- In MIPS, there are only Base+offset and immediate modes for load and store instructions

PC-Relative Addressing Mode

LD (Load) and ST (Store)



- \bigcirc OP = opcode
 - E.g., LD = 0010
 - E.g., ST = 0011
- DR = destination register in LD
- SR = source register in ST
- □ LD: DR ← Memory[PC¹¹ + sign-extend(PCoffset9)]
- ST: Memory[PC¹ + sign-extend(PCoffset9)] ← SR

LD in LC-3

LD assembly and machine code

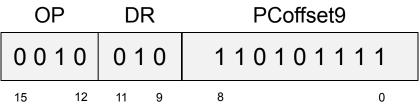
LC-3 assembly

LD R2, 0x1AF

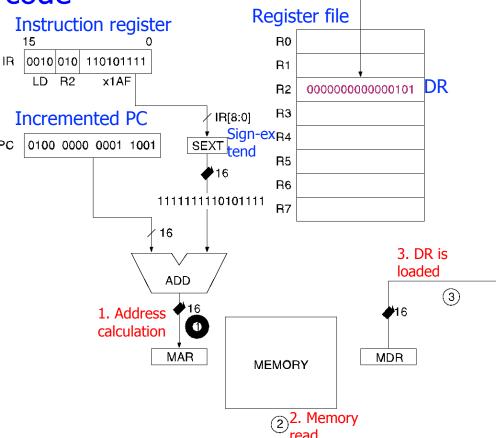
Field Values

| OP | DR | PCoffset9 |
|----|----|-----------|
| 2 | 2 | 0x1AF |

Machine Code



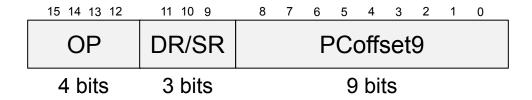
The memory address is only +255 to -256 locations away of the LD or ST instruction



Limitation: The PC-relative addressing mode cannot address far away from the instruction

Indirect Addressing Mode

LDI (Load Indirect) and STI (Store Indirect)



- \Box OP = opcode
 - E.g., LDI = 1010
 - E.g., STI = 1011
- DR = destination register in LDI
- SR = source register in STI
- □ LDI: DR \leftarrow Memory[Memory[PC †† + sign-extend(PCoffset9)]]
- □ STI: Memory[Memory[PC †† + sign-extend(PCoffset9)]] \leftarrow SR

LDI in LC-3

LDI assembly and machine code

LC-3 assembly

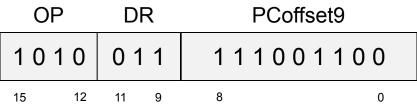
LDI R3, 0x1CC

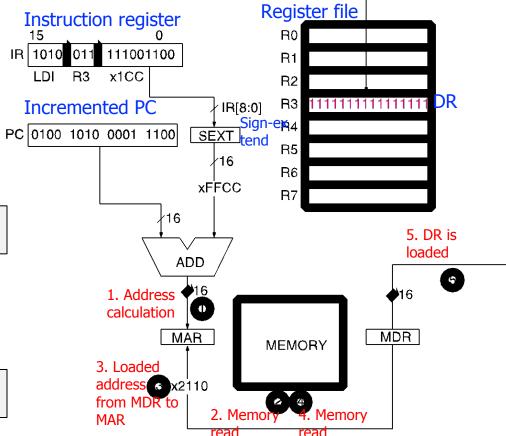
Field Values

OP DR PCoffset9

A 3 0x1CC

Machine Code

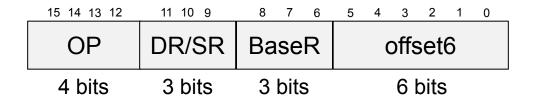




Now the address of the operand can be anywhere in the memory

Base+Offset Addressing Mode

LDR (Load Register) and STR (Store Register)



- \Box OP = opcode
 - E.g., LDR = 0110
 - E.g., STR = 0111
- DR = destination register in LDR
- SR = source register in STR
- □ LDR: DR ← Memory[BaseR + sign-extend(offset6)]
- □ STR: Memory[BaseR + sign-extend(offset6)] ← SR

LDR in LC-3

LDR assembly and machine code

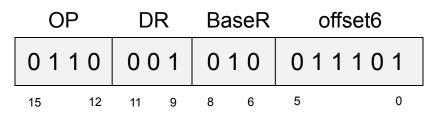
LC-3 assembly

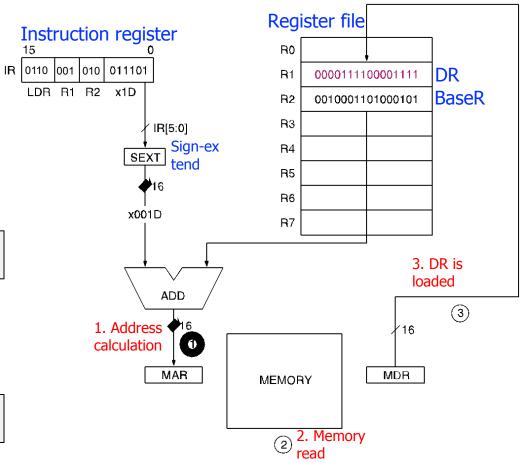
LDR R1, R2, 0x1D

Field Values

| OP | DR | BaseR | offset6 |
|----|----|-------|---------|
| 6 | 1 | 2 | 0x1D |

Machine Code





Again, the address of the operand can be anywhere in the memory

Base+Offset Addressing Mode in MIPS

 In MIPS, lw and sw use base+offset mode (or base addressing mode)

High-level code

$$A[2] = a;$$

MIPS assembly

Memory[
$$\$$$
s0 + 8] \leftarrow $\$$ s3

Field Values

| ор | rs | rt | imm |
|----|----|----|-----|
| 43 | 16 | 19 | 8 |

imm is the 16-bit offset, which is sign-extended to 32 bits

An Example Program in MIPS and LC-3

High-level code

```
a = A[0];
c = a + b - 5;
B[0] = C;
```

MIPS registers LC-3 registers

```
A = R0
b = R2
B = R1
```

MIPS assembly

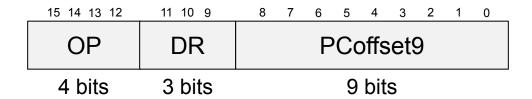
```
lw $t0, 0($s0)
add $t1, $t0, $s2
addi $t2, $t1, -5
sw $t2, 0($s1)
```

LC-3 assembly

```
LDR R5, R0, #0
ADD R6, R5, R2
ADD R7, R6, #-5
STR R7, R1, #0
```

Immediate Addressing Mode

LEA (Load Effective Address)



- □ OP = 1110
- □ DR = destination register
- LEA: DR ← PC[†] + sign-extend(PCoffset9)

What is the difference from PC-Relative addressing mode?

Answer: Instructions with PC-Relative mode access memory, but LEA does not □ Hence the name *Load Effective Address*

LEA in LC-3

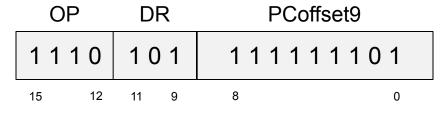
LEA assembly and machine code

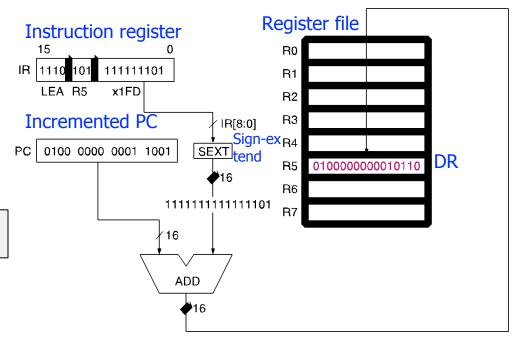
LC-3 assembly

Field Values

| OP | DR | PCoffset9 |
|----|----|-----------|
| E | 5 | 0x1FD |

Machine Code





Immediate Addressing Mode in MIPS

- In MIPS, lui (load upper immediate) loads a 16-bit immediate into the upper half of a register and sets the lower half to 0
- It is used to assign 32-bit constants to a register

High-level code

```
a = 0x6d5e4f3c;
```

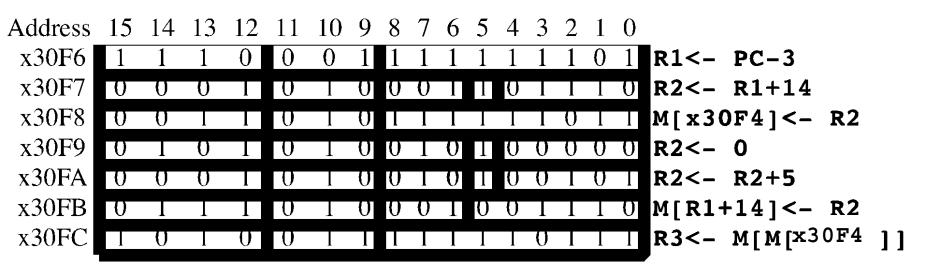
MIPS assembly

```
# $s0 = a
lui $s0, 0x6d5e
ori $s0, 0x4f3c
```

Addressing Example in LC-3

What is the final value of R3?

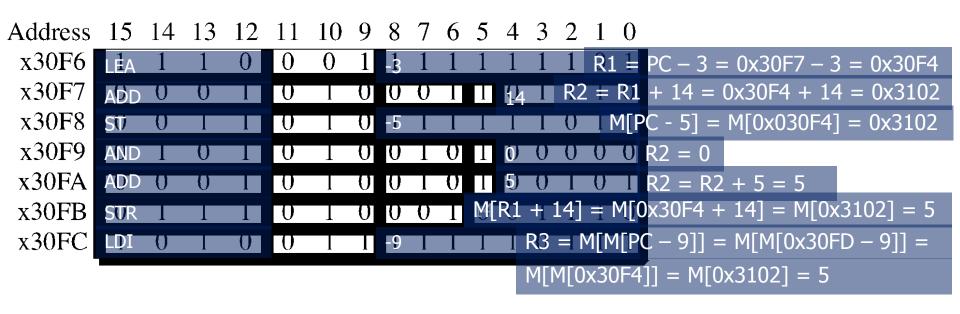
P&P, Chapter 5.3.5



Addressing Example in LC-3

What is the final value of R3?

P&P, Chapter 5.3.5



The final value of R3 is 5

Control Flow Instructions

Control Flow Instructions

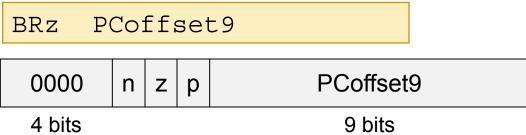
- Allow a program to execute out of sequence
- Conditional branches and unconditional jumps
 - Conditional branches are used to make decisions
 - E.g., if-else statement
 - In LC-3, three condition codes are used
 - Jumps are used to implement
 - Loops
 - Function calls
 - JMP in LC-3 and j in MIPS

Condition Codes in LC-3

- Each time one GPR (R0-R7) is written, three single-bit registers are updated
- Each of these condition codes are either set (set to 1) or cleared (set to 0)
 - If the written value is negative
 - N is set, Z and P are cleared
 - □ If the written value is zero
 - Z is set, N and P are cleared
 - If the written value is positive
 - P is set, N and Z are cleared
- x86 and SPARC are examples of ISAs that use condition codes

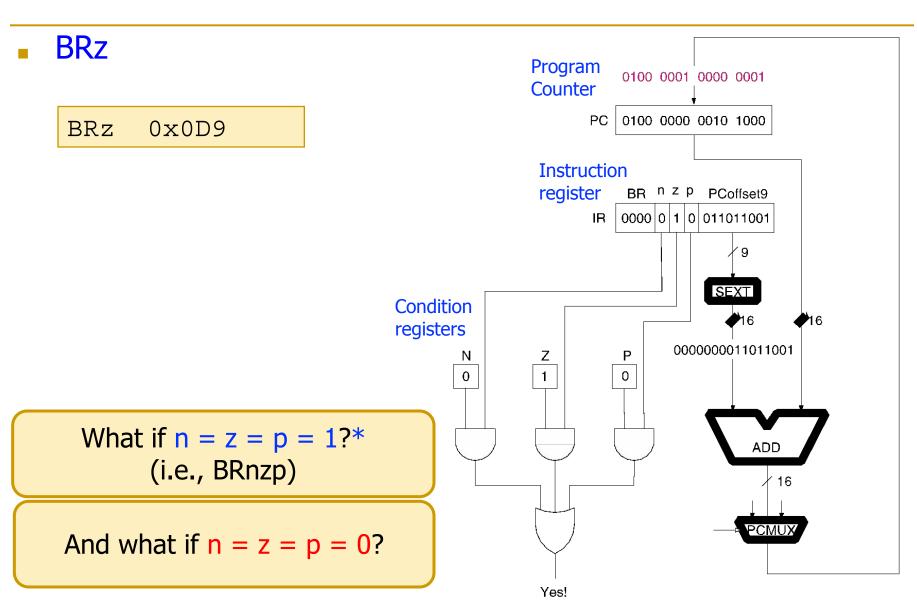
Conditional Branches in LC-3

BRz (Branch if Zero)



- \neg n, z, p = which condition code is tested (N, Z, and/or P)
 - n, z, p: instruction bits to identify the condition codes to be tested
 - N, Z, P: values of the corresponding condition codes
- PCoffset9 = immediate or constant value
- □ if ((n AND N) OR (p AND P) OR (z AND Z))
 - then PC ← PC[†] + sign-extend(PCoffset9)
- Variations: BRn, BRz, BRp, BRzp, BRnp, BRnz, BRnzp

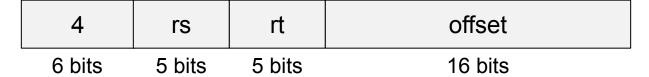
Conditional Branches in LC-3



Conditional Branches in MIPS

beq (Branch if Equal)

beq \$s0, \$s1, offset



- \Box 4 = opcode
- rs, rt = source registers
- offset = immediate or constant value
- if rs == rt
 then PC ← PC¹¹ + sign-extend(offset) * 4
- Variations: beq, bne, blez, bgtz

Branch If Equal in MIPS and LC-3

MIPS assembly

```
beq $s0, $s1, offset
```

LC-3 assembly

```
NOT R2, R1
ADD R3, R2, #1
ADD R4, R3, R0

BRz offset

Subtract (R0 - R1)
```

- This is an example of tradeoff in the instruction set
 - The same functionality requires more instructions in LC-3
 - But, the control logic requires more complexity in MIPS

What We Learned

- Basic elements of a computer & the von Neumann model
 - LC-3: An example von Neumann machine
- Instruction Set Architectures: LC-3 and MIPS
 - Operate instructions
 - Data movement instructions
 - Control instructions
- Instruction formats
- Addressing modes

