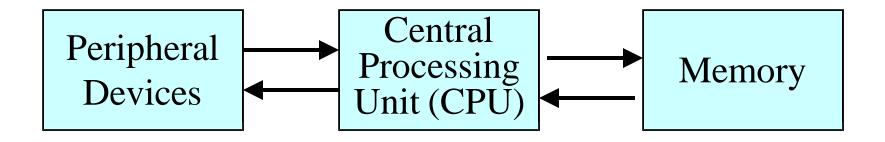
IT 1206 Section 5.0

CPU Organization and Instruction Set Architecture (ISA)





Hardware Components of a Typical Computer

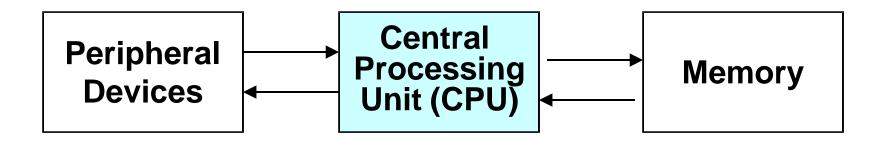


Buses allow components to pass data to each other





Hardware Components of a Typical Computer - CPU



Central Processing Unit (CPU)

- Performs the basic operations
- Consists of two parts:
 - Arithmetic / Logic Unit (ALU) data manipulation
 - Control Unit coordinate machine's activities





Central Processing Unit (CPU)

- Fetches, decodes and executes program instructions
- Two principal parts of the CPU
 - Arithmetic-Logic Unit (ALU)
 - Connected to registers and memory by a data bus
 - All three comprise the Datapath
 - Control unit
 - Sends signals to CPU components to perform sequenced operations





CPU: Registers, ALU and Control Unit

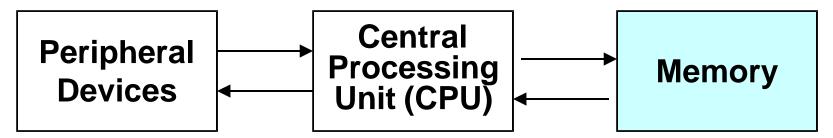
Registers

- Hold data that can be readily accessed by the CPU
- Implemented using D flip-flops
 - A 32-bit register requires 32 D flip-flops
- Arithmetic-logic unit (ALU)
 - Carries out logical and arithmetic operations
 - Often affects the status register (e.g., overflow, carry)
 - Operations are controlled by the control unit
- Control unit (CU)
 - Policeman or traffic manager
 - Determines which actions to carry out according to the values in a program counter register and a status register





Hardware Components of a Typical Computer - Memory



Main Memory

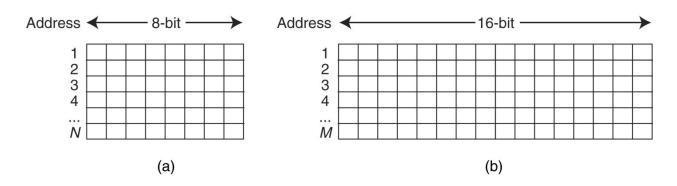
- Holds programs and data
- Stores bits in fixed-sized chunks: "word" (8, 16, 32 or 64 bits)
- Each word has a unique address
- The words can be accessed in any order € random-access memory or "RAM"





Memory

Consists of a linear array of addressable storage cells



- A memory address is represented by an unsigned integer
- Can be byte-addressable or word-addressable
 - Byte-addressable: each byte has a unique address
 - Word-addressable: a word (e.g., 4 bytes) has a unique address



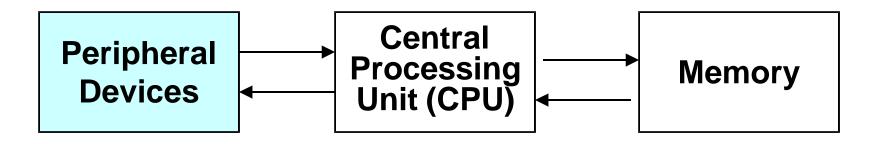
Memory: Example

- A memory word size of a machine is 16 bits
- A 4MB × 16 RAM chip gives us 4 megabytes of 16-bit memory locations
 - $-4MB = 2^2 * 2^{20} = 2^{22} = 4,194,304$ unique locations (each location contains a 16-bit word)
 - Memory locations range from 0 to 4,194,303 in unsigned integers
- 2^N addressable units of memory require N bits to address each location
 - Thus, the memory bus of this system requires at least 22 address lines
 - The address lines "count" from 0 to 2²² -1 in binary





Hardware Components of a Typical Computer – Peripheral Devices that Communicate with the Outside World



Input/Output (I/O)

- Input: keyboard, mouse, microphone, scanner, sensors (camera, infra-red), punch-cards
- Output: video, printer, audio speakers, etc

Communication

modem, ethernet card





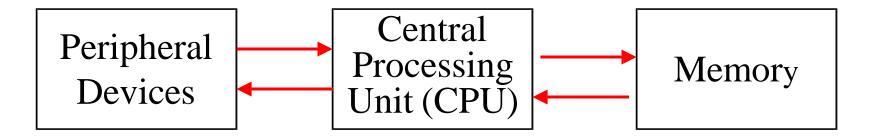
Hardware Components of a Typical Computer – Peripheral Devices that Store Data Long Term

- Secondary (mass) storage
- Stores information for long periods of time as files
 - Examples: hard drive, floppy disk, tape, CD-ROM (Compact Disk Read-Only Memory), flash drive, DVD (Digital Video/Versatile Disk)





Hardware Components of a Typical Computer – Buses



Buses

- Used to share data between system components inside and outside the CPU
- · Set of wires (lines) that
 - act as a shared path
 - allow parallel movement of bits





Typical Bus Transactions

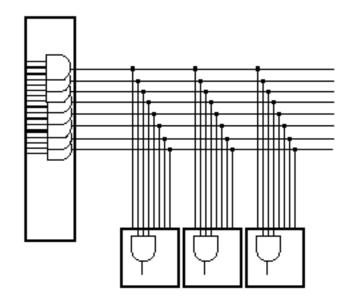
- Sending an address (for performing a read or write)
- Transferring data from memory to register and vice versa
- Transferring data for I/O reads and writes from peripheral devices





Buses

- Physically a bus is a group of conductors that allows all the bits in a binary word to be copied from a source component to a destination component
- Buses move binary values inside the CPU between registers and other components

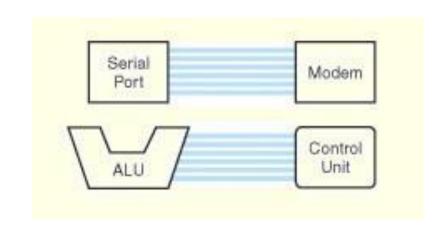


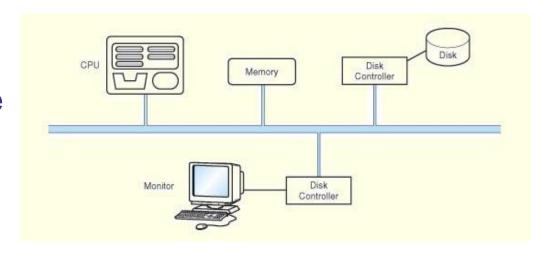
 Buses are also used outside the CPU, to copy values between the CPU registers and main memory, and between the CPU registers and the I/O sub-system



Types of Buses: Source and Destination

- Point-to-point: connects two specific components
- Multi-point: a shared resource that connects several components
 - access to it is controlled through protocols, which are built into the hardware



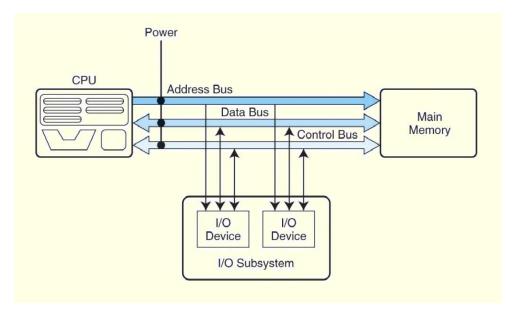






Types of Buses: Contents

- Data bus: conveys bits from one device to another
- Control bus: determines the direction of data flow and when each device can access the bus
- Address bus: determines the location of the source or destination of the data





Clock

- Every computer contains at least one clock that synchronizes the activities of its components
 - A fixed number of clock cycles are required to carry out each data movement or computational operation
 - The clock frequency determines the speed of all operations
 - Measured in megaHertz or gigaHertz
- Generally the term clock refers to the CPU (master) clock
 - Buses can have their own clocks which are usually slower
- Most machines are synchronous
 - Controlled by a master clock signal
 - Registers must wait for the clock to tick before loading new data



Clock Speed (I)

- Clock cycle time is the reciprocal of clock frequency
 - Example, an 800 MHz clock has a cycle time of 1.25 ns
 - $1/800,000,000 = 0.00000000125 = 1.25 * 10^{-9}$
- Clock-speed ≠ CPU-performance
 - The CPU time required to run a program is given by the general performance equation:

$$\texttt{CPU Time} = \frac{\texttt{seconds}}{\texttt{program}} = \frac{\texttt{instructions}}{\texttt{program}} \times \frac{\texttt{avg. cycles}}{\texttt{instruction}} \times \frac{\texttt{seconds}}{\texttt{cycle}}$$





Clock Speed (II)

Therefore, we can improve CPU throughput when we reduce

- the number of instructions in a program
- the number of cycles per instruction
- the number of nanoseconds per clock cycle

But, in general

- Multiplication takes longer than addition
- Floating point operations require more cycles than integer operations
- Accessing memory takes longer than accessing registers



Features of Computers: Speed and Reliability

- Speed
 - CPU speed
 - System-clock / Bus speed
 - Memory-access speed
 - Peripheral device speed
- Reliability





CPU Speed

- CPU clock speed: in cycles per second ("hertz")
 - Example: 700MHz Pentium III, 3GHz Pentium IV
- but different CPU designs do different amounts of work in one clock cycle
- Other measures of speed
 - "flops" (floating-point operations per second)
 - "mips" (million instructions per second)





System-Clock / Bus Speed

- Speed of communication between CPU, memory and peripheral devices
- Depends on main board design
 - Examples:
 - Intel 1.50GHz Pentium-4 works on a 400MHz bus speed





Memory-Access Speed

RAM

- about 60ns (1 nanosecond = a billionth of a second), and getting faster
- may be rated with respect to "bus speed" (e.g., PC-100)

Cache memory

- faster than main memory (about 20ns access speed), but more expensive
- contains data which the CPU is likely to use next





Peripheral Device Speed

Mass storage

- Examples:
 - 3.5in 1.4MB floppy disk: about 200kb/sec at 300 rpm (revolutions per minute)
 - Hard drive: up to 160 GB of storage, average seek time about 6 milliseconds, and 7,200 rpm

Communications

 Examples: modems at 56 kilobits per second, and network cards at 10 or 100 megabits per second

I/O

Examples: ISA, PCI, IDE, SCSI, ATA, USB, etc....



Cache Memory and Virtual Memory

- Cache memory random access memory that a processor can access more quickly than regular RAM
- Virtual memory an "extension" of RAM using the hard disk
 - allows the computer to behave as though it has more memory than what is physically available





Interrupts and Exceptions

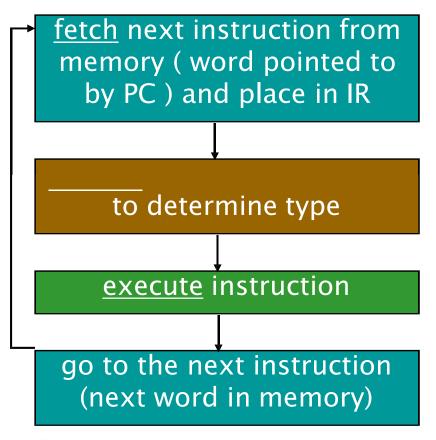
- Events that alter the normal execution of a program
- Exceptions are triggered within the processor
 - Arithmetic errors, overflow or underflow
 - Invalid instructions
 - User-defined break points
- Interrupts are triggered outside the processor
 - I/O requests
- Each type of interrupt or exception is associated with a procedure that directs the actions of the CPU





Fetch-decode-execute Cycle

A computer runs programs by performing fetch-decode-execute cycles



Example: instruction word
at mem[PC] is 0x20A9FFFD

Send reg \$5 and -3 to ALU, add them, put result in reg \$9

$$PC = PC + 4$$



Accessing Memory (I)

- Every memory access needs an address word to be sent from CPU to memory
 - Address range is 0x00000000 to 0xFFFFFFF
 - about 4 billion bytes of addressable space
- Addresses output by the CPU go to the Memory Address Register (MAR)
 - During a fetch access, the PC value is copied to MAR
 - During a load/store access, a "computed address" from the ALU is copied to MAR





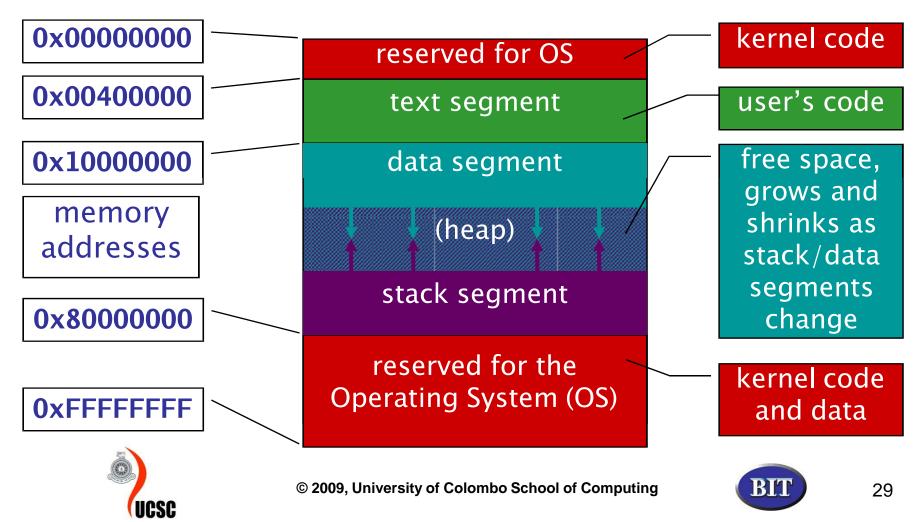
Accessing Memory (II)

- Why compute load/store addresses?
 - 32(instruction bits) 6(opcode bits) = 26(available bits)
 - insufficient to hold a full memory address
- Solution: register based addressing
 - use 26-bits to specify a base address GPR, a target GPR, plus a 16-bit signed offset
 - ALU computes memory reference address "on the fly"as: MAR = base GPR + offset
 - target GPR receives/supplies memory data



Memory Segments

Memory is organized into segments, each with its own purpose



Text Segment

- Starts at memory address 0x00400000
 - runs up to address 0x0FFFFFF
- Contains user's executable program code (often called the code segment)
- PC register value is a CPU "reference" into this memory segment



Data Segment

- Starts at memory address 0x10000000
 - expands upwards towards stack
- Contains program's static data, i.e., data and variables whose location in memory is fixed (and known to the assembler)

In C	In Java
global variables	public, static
string constants	objects





Stack Segment

- Starts at memory address 0x7FFFFFFF
 - grows in the direction of decreasing memory addresses (i.e., towards the data segment)
- Contains system stack
- Used for temporary storage of:
 - local variables of functions
 - function parameter values
 - return addresses of functions
 - saved register values





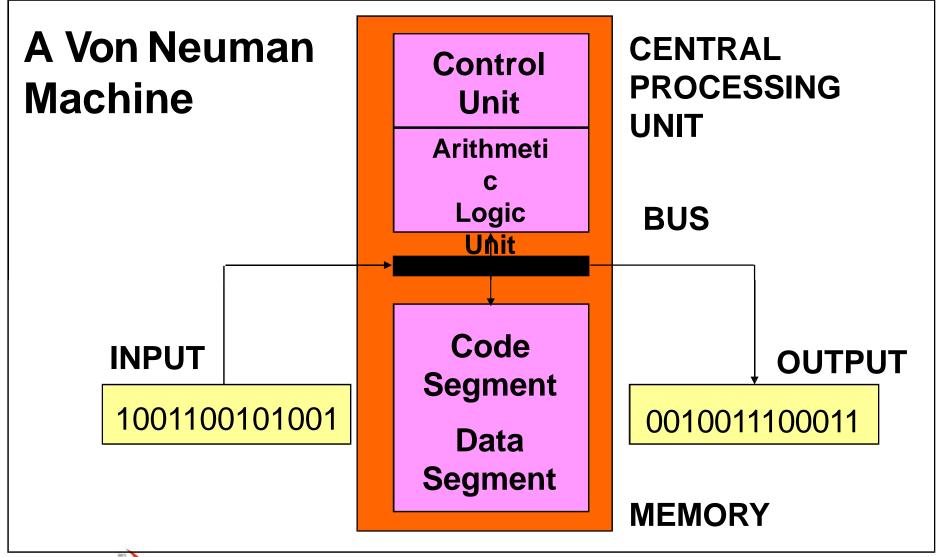
Heap

- Technically part of data segment
 - located at end of data segment, after all static data
- Empty at start of program execution
- Dynamically allocated memory is taken from heap for program to use
- Freed memory (by user or garbage collection) is returned to heap





Block Diagram of the System



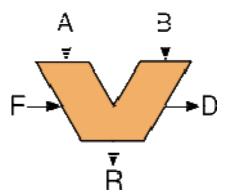




Arithmetic Logic Unit

ALU

 The part of a computer that performs all arithmetic computations, such as addition and multiplication, and all comparison operations



A typical schematic symbol for an ALU: A & B are operands; R is the output; F is the input from the Control Unit; D is an output status



Arithmetic Logic Unit...

- The component where data is held temporarily
- Calculations occur here
- It knows how to perform operations such as ADD,
 SUB, LOAD, STORE, SHIFT
- It knows the commands that make up the machine language of the CPU
- It is the calculator





Control Unit

- A computer's control unit keeps things synchronized
 - Makes sure that the correct components are activated as the components are needed
 - Sends bits down control lines to trigger events
 - E.g., when Add is performed, the control signal tells the ALU to Add
 - How do these control lines become asserted?
 - Hardwired control: controllers implement this program using digital logic components
 - Microprogrammed control: a small program is placed into read-only memory in the microcontroller





Control Unit: Hardwired Control

 Physically connect all of the control lines to the actual machine instruction

 Instructions are divided into fields and different bits are combined with various digital logic components (which

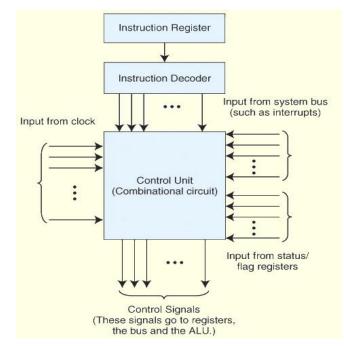
drive the control line)

The control unit is implemented using hardware

 The digital circuit uses inputs to generate the control signal to drive various components

Advantage: very fast

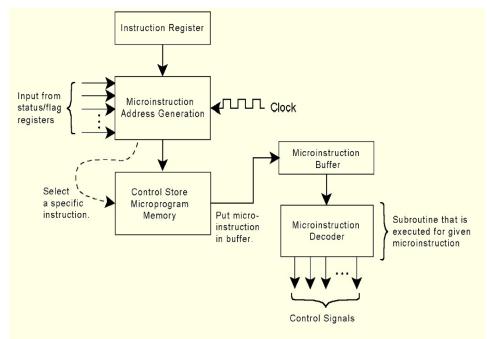
 Disadvantage: instruction set and digital logic are locked





Control Unit: Microprogrammed Control

- Microprogram: software stored in the CPU control unit
- Converts machine instructions (binary) into control signals
- One subroutine for each machine instruction
- Advantage: very flexible
- Disadvantage: additional layer of interpretation







Registers

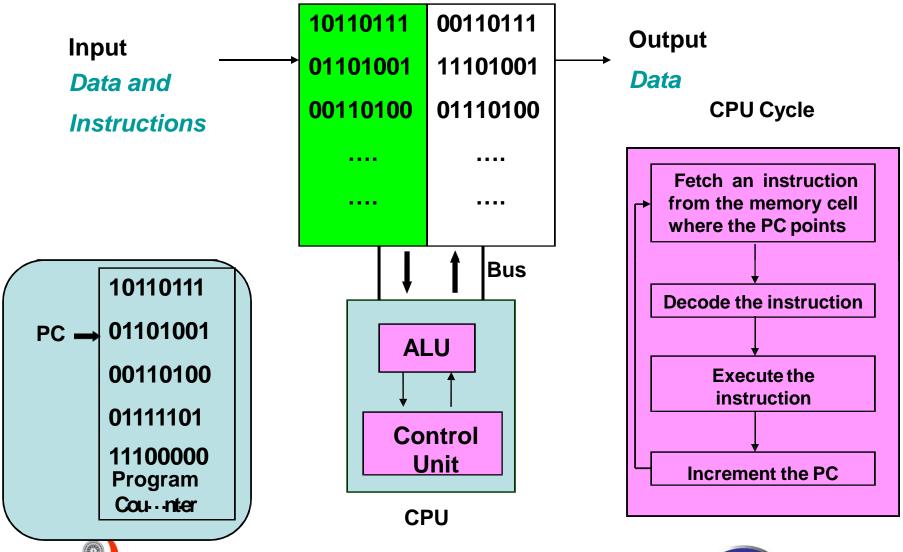
- "A register is a single, permanent storage location within the CPU used for a PARTICULAR, defined purpose"
- "A register is used to hold a binary value temporarily for storage, for manipulation, and/or for simple calculations"
- Registers have special addresses





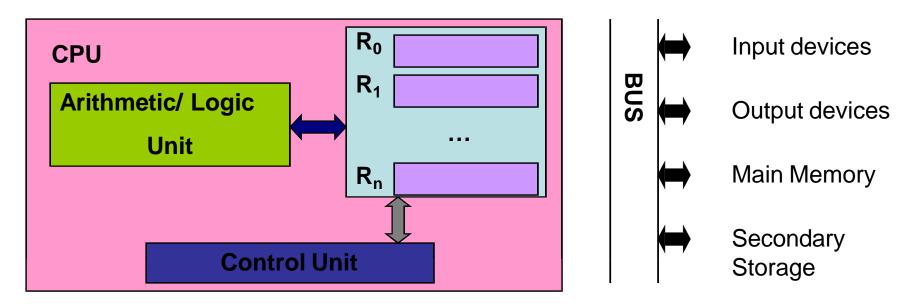
Von Neuman Machine Model





UCSC

Registers



Registers are used to hold the data immediately applicable to the operation at hand;

Main memory is used to hold the data that will be needed in the near future

Secondary storage is used to hold data that will be likely not be needed in the near future

UCSC

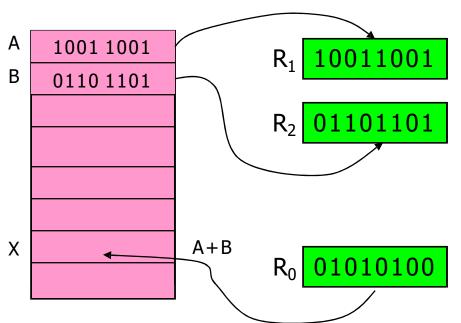
Example: Machine Architecture

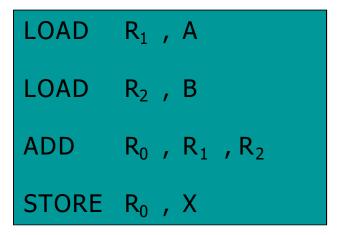
- Consider a machine with
 - 256 byte Main Memory: 00-FF
 - 16 General Purpose Registers: 0-F
 - 16 Bit Instruction
 - 8 Bit Integer Format (2's Complement)
 - 8 Bit Floating Point Format
 - 1 Sign Bit
 - 3 Exponent Bits
 - 4 Bit Mantissa
 - 16 Instructions: 1-F

00	0001 0001
01	0011 0000
02	0001 0010
03	0100 0000
04	0011 0001
	0100 0000
ff	0100 0000



Example: Addition Operation





Load the first number from memory cell A into register R₁

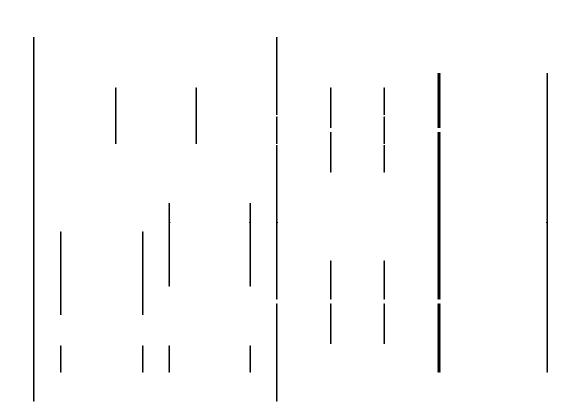
Load the second number from memory cell **B** into register **R**₂

Adding the numbers in these two registers and put the result in register R₀

Store the result in R₀ into the memory call X



Block Diagram of the CPU



CPU - Central Processing Unit

MAR - Memory Address Register

IR - Instruction Register

MDR - Memory Data Register

PC - Program Counter

ALU - Arithmetic Logic Unit



Instruction Fetch

- The address in the Program Counter is placed in MAR
- The addressed instruction is read from memory (through the MDR) and placed into the Instruction Register





Instruction Execute

- The Instruction Decoder examines the instruction in the Instruction Register and sends appropriate signals to other parts of the CPU to carry out the actions specified by the instruction. This may include:
 - Reading operands from memory or registers into the Arithmetic Logic Unit,
 - Enabling the circuits of the Arithmetic Logic Unit to perform arithmetic or other computations,
 - Storing data values into memory or registers,
 - Changing the value of the Program Counter





The CPU Cycle

The processor endlessly repeats the cycle:

fetch, execute, fetch ...





Fetch and Execute Cycle

- At the beginning of each cycle the CPU presents the value of the program counter on the address bus
- The CPU then fetches the instruction from main memory (possibly via a cache and/or a pipeline) via the data bus into the instruction register





Fetch and Execute Cycle

- From the instruction register, the data forming the instruction is decoded and passed to the control unit
- It sends a sequence of control signals to the relevant function units of the CPU to perform the actions required by the instruction such as reading values from registers, passing them to the ALU to add them together and writing the result back to a register





Fetch and Execute Cycle

 The program counter is then incremented to address the next instruction and the cycle is repeated





- Instruction sets definition and features
 - Instruction types
 - Operand organization
 - Number of operands and instruction length
 - Addressing
 - Instruction execution pipelining
- Features of two machine instruction sets (CISC and RISC)
- Instruction format



- Machine instructions
 - Opcodes and operands
- High level languages
 - Hide detail of the architecture from the programmer
 - Easier to program
- Why learn computer architectures and assembly language?
 - To understand how the computer works
 - To write more efficient programs





Instruction sets are differentiated by

- Instructions
 - types of instructions
 - instruction length and number of operands
- Operands
 - type (addresses, numbers, characters) and access mode
 - location (CPU or memory)
 - organization (stack or register based)
 - number of addressable registers
- Memory organization
 - byte- or word-addressable
- CPU instruction execution
 - with/without pipelining



- The instruction set format is critical to the machine's architecture
- Performance of instruction set architectures is measured by
 - Main memory space occupied by a program
 - Instruction complexity
 - Instruction length (in bits)
 - Total number of instructions





- Instruction types
- Operand organization
- Number of operands and instruction length
- Addressing
- Instruction execution pipelining





- An instruction set, or instruction set architecture (ISA) describes the aspects of a computer architecture visible to a programmer, including the native data-types, instructions, registers, addressing modes, memory architecture, interrupt and exception handling, and external I/O (if any)
- An ISA includes a specification of the set of all binary codes (opcodes) that are the native form of commands implemented by a particular CPU design
- The set of opcodes for a particular ISA is also known as the machine language for the ISA





ISAs commonly implemented in hardware

- Alpha AXP (DECAlpha)
- ARM (Acorn RISC Machine) (Advanced RISC Machine nowARM Ltd)
- IA-64 (Itanium)
- _ MIPS

Motorola 68k

- PA-RISC (HP Precision Architecture)
- _ IBM POWER
- PowerPC
- SPARC
- SuperH

UCSC

- VAX (Digital Equipment Corporation)
- x86 (IA-32, Pentium, Athlon) (AMD64, EM64T)



Machine Instructions

- <u>Data Transfer</u>: transfer data between registers and memory cells
- Arithmetic/Logic Operations: perform addition, AND, OR, XOR and etc.
- Control Operations: control the execution of the program





Data Transfer Instructions

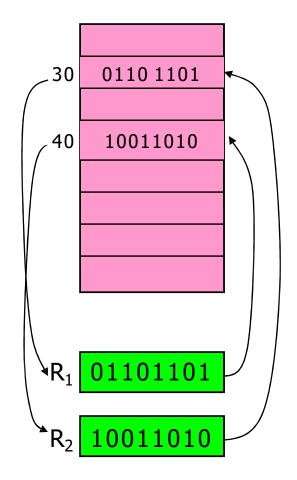
- 1. L R , A <u>LOAD</u> the register R with the content of memory cell A
- 2. LI R , I LOAD the register R with I (I is called an immediate number)
- 3. ST R, A STORE the content of the register R to the memory cell whose address is A
- 4. LR R1, R2 LOAD the register R₁ with the content of the register R₂



Example: Data Transfer Instructions

Swap the content of two memory cells $30_{(16)}$ and $40_{(16)}$

L 1,30	$/*Load\ R_1$ with the content in memory cell 30 */
L 2,40	/* Load R ₂ with the content in memory cell 40 */
ST 1 , 40	/* Store R ₁ to 40 */
ST 2, 30	/* Store R ₂ to 30 */



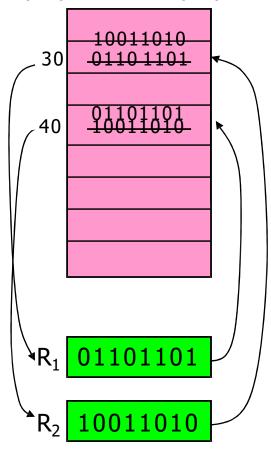




Example: Data Transfer Instructions

<u>Swap</u> the content of two memory cells $30_{(16)}$ and $40_{(16)}$

L 1,30	$/*Load\ R_1$ with the content in memory cell 30 */
L 2,40	/* Load R ₂ with the content in memory cell 40 */
ST 1 , 40	/* Store R ₁ to 40 */
ST 2, 30	/* Store R ₂ to 30 */







Arithmetic/Logic Instructions (I)

Arithmetic Instructions

5. ADD R0, R1, R2

ADD the numbers in R_1 and R_2 representing in 2's complement and place the result in R_0

6. AFP R0, R1, R2

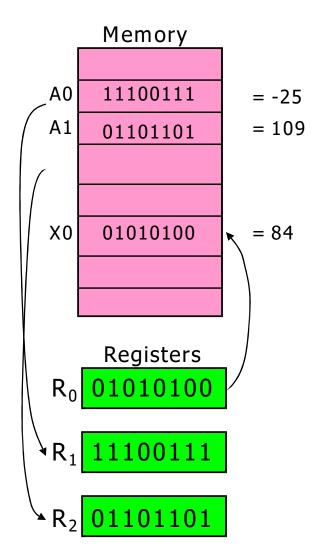
ADD the numbers in R_1 and R_2 representing in floating-point and place the result in R_0



Arithmetic/Logic Instructions (I)

Example: Addition

L 1, A0
L 2, A1
ADD 0, 1, 2
ST 0, X0





Arithmetic/Logic Instructions (II)

Logic Instructions

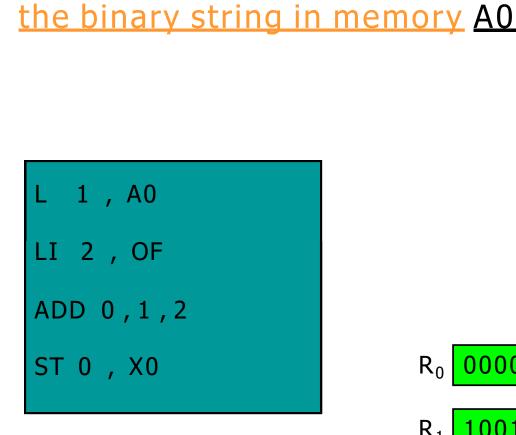
7. OR R0, R1, R2 OR the bit patterns in R_1 and R_2 and place the result in R_0

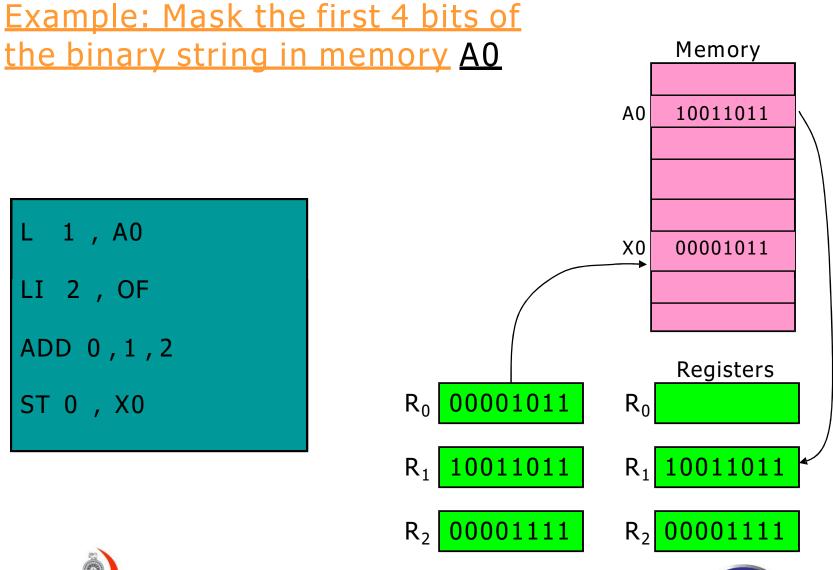
AND RO R1 R2 AND the bit patterns in R_1 and R_2 and place the result in R_0

9. XOR R0, R1, R2 XOR the bit patterns in R_1 and R_2 and place the result in R_0



Arithmetic/Logic Instructions (II)

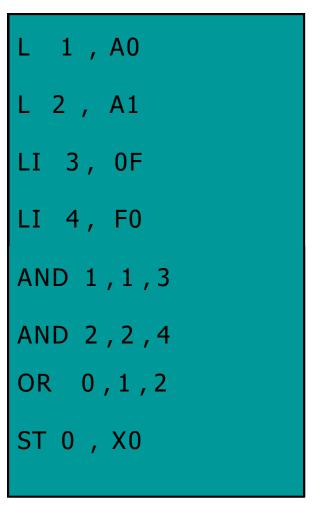


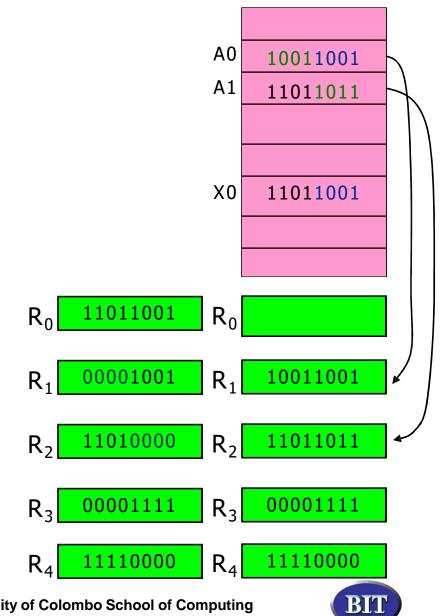




Arithmetic/Logic Instructions (II)









Arithmetic/Logic Instructions (III)

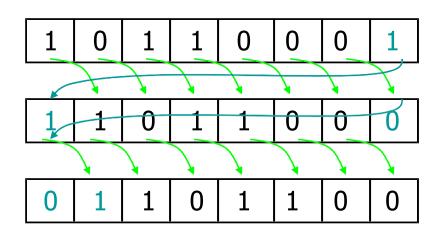
Bit String Operating Instructions

B. RR R, I

ROTATE the bit patterns in R to right I times. Each time place the bit that started at the *low-order* end at the *high-order* end

Example RR, 0, 02

Original String



Resulting String



Control Instructions

E. JMP R,A

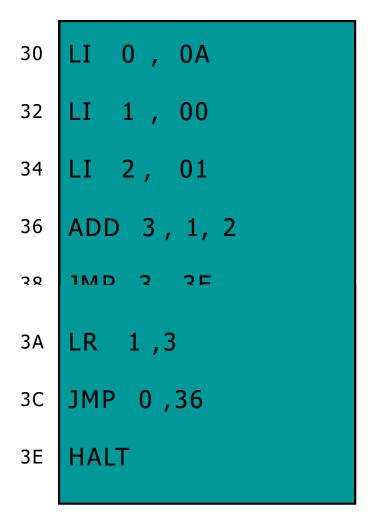
JUMP the instruction located in the memory cell **A** if the bit pattern in **R** is equal to the one in **R**

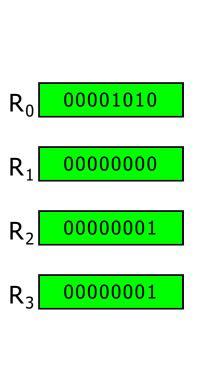
F. HALT

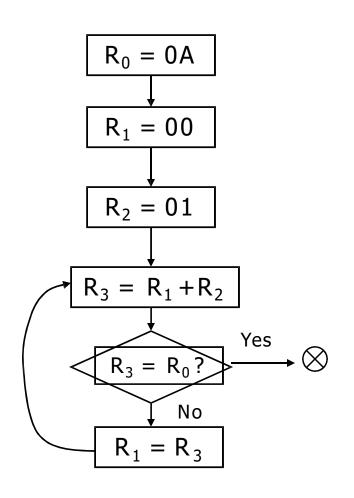
HALT the execution



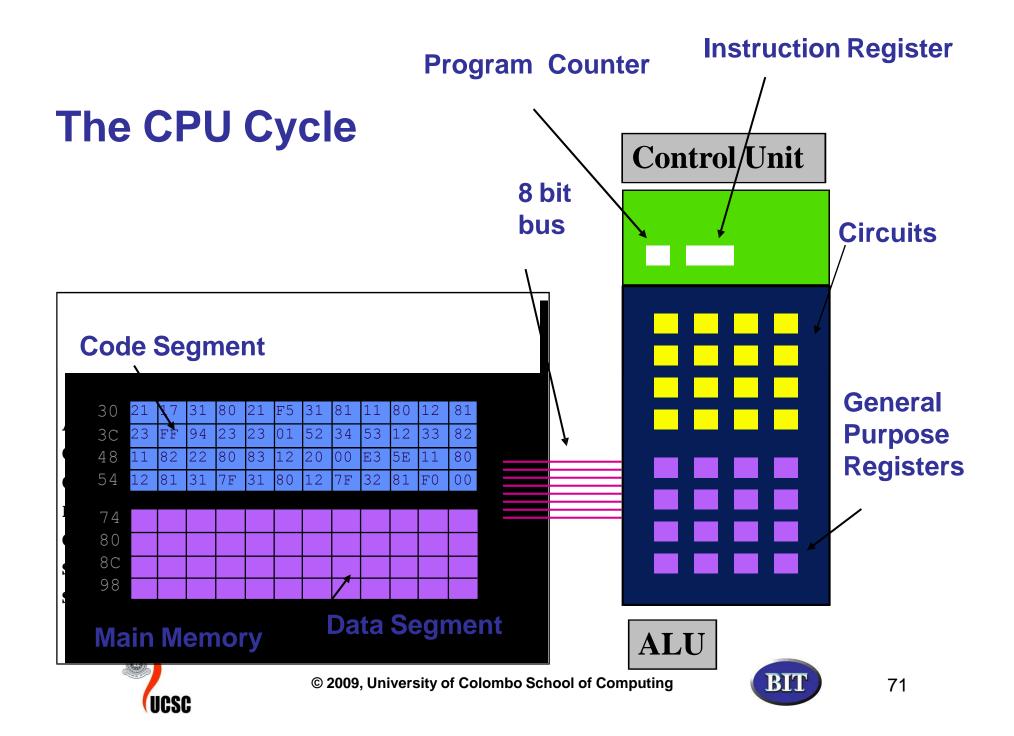
Example: Control Instructions











Operand Organization

- Three choices
 - Accumulator architecture
 - General Purpose Register (GPR) architecture
 - Stack architecture





Operand Organization – Accumulator Architecture

- One operand of a binary operation is implicitly in the accumulator
- Advantage
 - Minimizes the internal complexity of the machine
 - Allows for very short instructions
- Disadvantage
 - Memory traffic is very high
 - Programming is cumbersome





Operand Organization – General Purpose Register (GPR) Architecture

- Uses sets of general purpose registers
- Advantage
 - Register sets are faster than memory
 - Easy for compilers to deal with
 - Due to low costs large numbers of these registers are being added
- Disadvantage
 - Results in longer instructions (longer fetch and decode times)





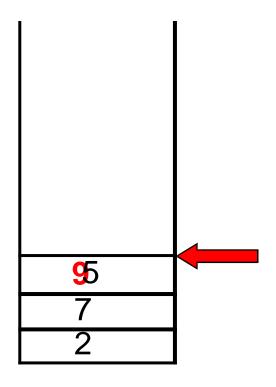
Operand Organization – General Purpose Register (GPR) Architecture

- Three types
 - Memory-memory
 - may have two or three operands in memory
 - an instruction may perform an operation without requiring any operand to be in a register
 - Register-memory
 - at least one operand must be in a register and one in memory
 - Load-store
 - requires data to be moved into registers before any operation is performed



Operand Organization – Stack Architecture

- Uses a stack to execute instructions
- Operations:
 - PUSH put a value on top of the stack
 - POP read top value and move down the "stack pointer"
- Example:
 - POP
 - **PUSH 9**





Operand Organization – Stack Architecture

- Instructions implicitly refer to values at the top of the stack
 - data can be accessed only from the top of the stack, one word at a time

Advantage

- Good code density
- Simple model for evaluation of expressions

Disadvantage

- Restricts the sequence of operand processing
- Execution bottleneck (the stack is located in memory)





Operand Organization – Stack Architecture

- Stack architecture requires us to think about arithmetic expressions in a new way
 - We are used to *Infix notation*
 - E.g., Z = X + Y
 - Stack arithmetic requires *Postfix notation*:
 - E.g., Z = XY +
 - Postfix notation is also know as *Reverse Polish Notation*





Stack Architecture – Postfix Notation

- Postfix notation doesn't need parentheses
- E.g.,
 - The infix expression Z = (X * Y) + (W * U) is the postfix expression Z = X Y * W U * +
 - Calculating Z = X Y * W U * + in a stack ISA

PUSH X

PUSH Y

MULT

PUSH W

PUSH U

MULT

ADD

POP Z

Binary operators

- pop the two operands on the stack top, and
- push the result on the stack



Number of Operands and Instruction Length

- The number of operands in each instruction affects the length of the instruction
- Instruction length can be
 - Fixed quick to decode but wastes space
 - Variable more complex to decode but saves space
- All architectures limit the number of operands allowed per instruction
 - Stack architecture has 0 or 1 explicit operand
 - Accumulator architecture has 0 or 1 explicit operand
 - GPR architecture has 1, 2 or 3 operands



Number of Operands - Example

Calculating the infix expression Z = X * Y + W * U

One operand

LOAD X

MULT Y

STORE TEMP

LOAD W

MULT U

ADD TEMP

STORE Z

Two operands

LOAD R1,X

MULT R1,Y

LOAD R2,W

MULT R2,U

ADD R1,R2

STORE Z,R1

Three operands

MULT R1,X,Y

MULT R2,W,U

ADD Z,R1,R2

The accumulator is the destination for the result of the instruction

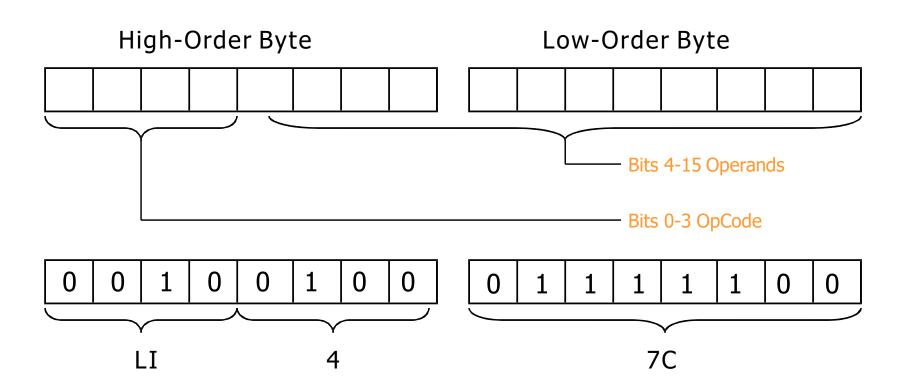
The first operand is often the destination for the result of the instruction





Coding Instruction

16 bit Instruction (2 bytes)



The machine code 0010010001111100 represents the instruction LI 4, 7C



Instruction Formats

16 bit Instruction (2 bytes)

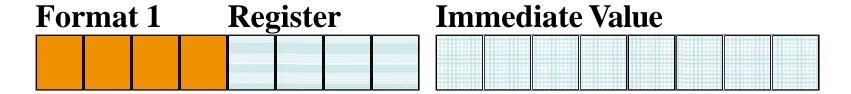
Format 1	Register	Immediate Value
Format 2	Register	Memory Address
Format 3	Register	Register Register
Format 3	Register	Register Register
Format 3 Format 4	Register Unused (zero)	





Format 1 Instruction

Format 1 Instruction

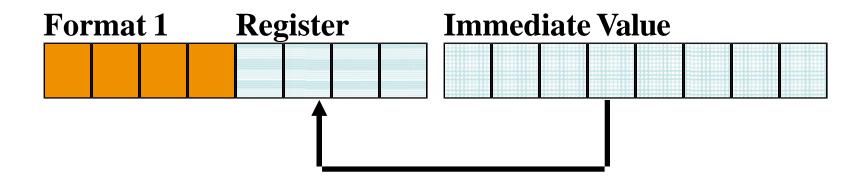


Opcode	Instr	uction	Meaning
2	LI	R , I	Load Immediate
Α	RL	R , I	Rotate Left
В	RR	R , I	Rotate Right
С	SL	R, I	Shift Left
D	SR	R , I	Shift Right





Format 1 Instruction



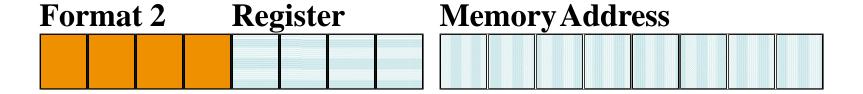
- 1. COPY THE BIT PATTERN IN THE LOW-ORDER BYTE INTO THE SPECIFIED REGISTER, OR
- 2. SHIFT/ROTATE THE BITS IN THE SPECIFIED REGISTER THE NUMBER OF PLACES SPECIFIED IN THE LOW-ORDER BYTE.





Format 2 Instruction

Format 2 Instruction

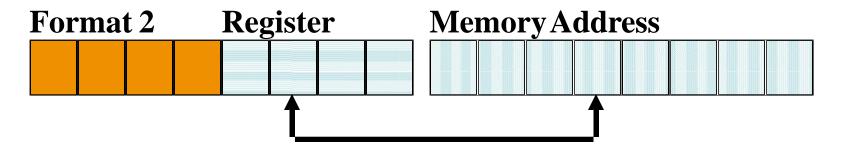


<u>Opcode</u>	Instruction	<u>Meaning</u>
1	L R,A	Load from Memory
3	ST R , A	Store to Memory
E	JMP R,A	Conditional Jump





Format 2 Instruction



- 1. Load Copy the value stored at the Memory Address into the specified register
- 2. Store Copy the value in the specified register to the Memory Address
- 3. Jump Compare the contents of the specified register and the contents of Register 0. If equal reset the Program Counter to the Memory Address





Format 3 Instruction

Format 3 Instruction

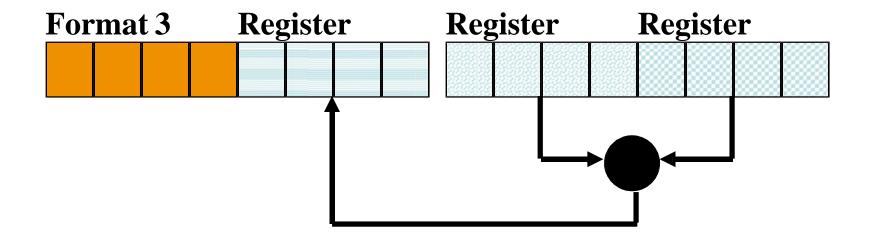
Format 3	Register	Register	Register

Opcode	Instruction	Meaning
5	ADD R_0, R_1, R_2	Load Immediate
6	$AFP R_0, R_1, R_2$	Rotate Left
7	$OR R_0, R_1, R_2$	Rotate Right
8	AND R_0 , R_1 , R_2	Shift Left
9	$XOR R_0, R_1, R_2$	Shift Right





Format 3 Instruction



Apply the operation to the two values in the registers specified in the Low-Order byte and store the result in the register specified in the High-Order byte





Format 4 Instruction

Format 4 Instruction

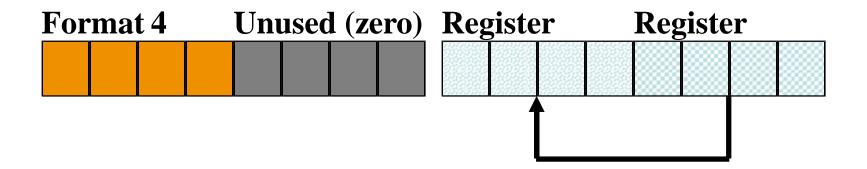


<u>Opcode</u>	Instruction	<u>Meaning</u>
4	LR R_1 , R_2	Load Register





Format 4 Instruction



Copy the value in the second register specified in the Low-Order byte to the first register specified in the Low-Order byte





Full Instruction Set

- 1. L R, A
- 2. LI R , I
- 3. ST R , A
- 4. LR R₁, R₂
- 5. ADD R_0 , R_1 , R_2
- 6. AFP R_0 , R_1 , R_2
- 7. OR R_0 , R_1 , R_2
- 8. AND R_0 , R_1 , R_2

- 9. XOR R_0 , R_1 , R_2
- A. RL R, I
- B. RR R, I
- C. SL R, I
- D. SR R, I
- E. JMP R, A
- F. HALT



Examples of OpCode

Name	Comment	Syntax
	TRANSFER	
MOV	Move (copy)	MOV Dest,Source
PUSH	Push onto stack	PUSH Source
POP	Pop from stack	POP Dest
IN	Input	IN Dest, Port
OUT	Output	OUT Port, Source
	ARITHMETIC	
ADD	Add	ADD Dest,Source
SUB	Subtract	SUB Dest,Source
DIV	Divide (unsigned)	DIV Op
MUL	Multiply (unsigned)	MUL Op
INC	Increment	INC Op
DEC	Decrement	DEC Op
CMP	Compare	CMP Op1,Op2





Examples of OpCode

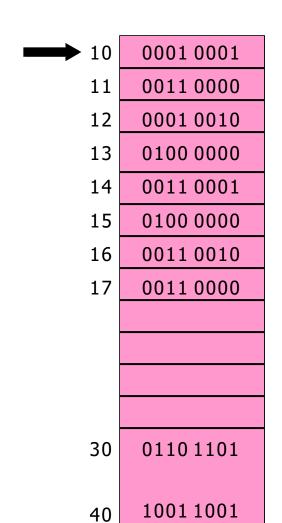
Name	Comment	Syntax
	LOGIC	
NEG	Negate (two-complement)	NEG Op
NOT	Invert each bit	NOT Op
AND	Logical and	AND Dest,Source
OR	Logical or	OR Dest,Source
XOR	Logical exclusive or	XOR Dest,Source
	JUMPS	
CALL	Call subroutine	CALL Proc
JMP	Jump	JMP Dest
JE	Jump if Equal	JE Dest
JZ	Jump if Zero	JZ Dest
RET	Return from subroutine	RET
JNE	Jump if not Equal	JNE Dest
JNZ	Jump if not Zero	JNZ Dest

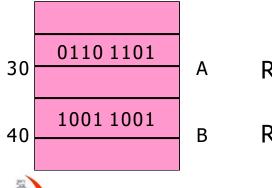




Coding Program: Example

Assembler	Machine Code	Hexa
L 1,30	0001 0001 0011 0000	1130
L 2, 40	0001 0010 0100 0000	1240
ST 1, 40	0011 0001 0100 0000	3140
ST 2, 30	0011 0010 0011 0000	3230





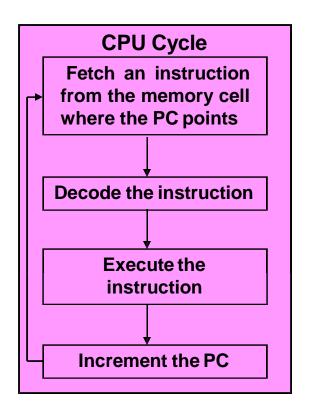
UCSC

R₁ 0110 1101

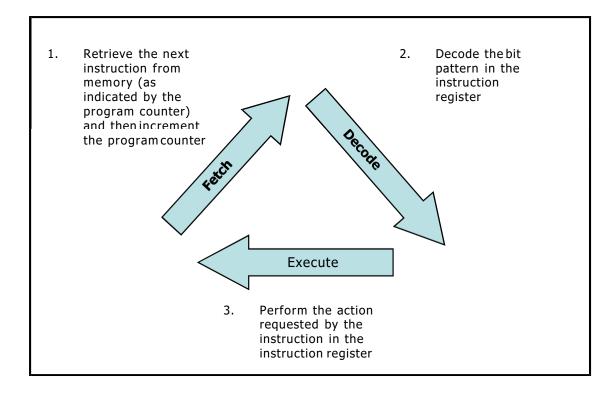
R₂ 1001 1001

BIT

CPU Cycle (Machine Cycle)



- FETCH
- DECODE
- EXECUTE





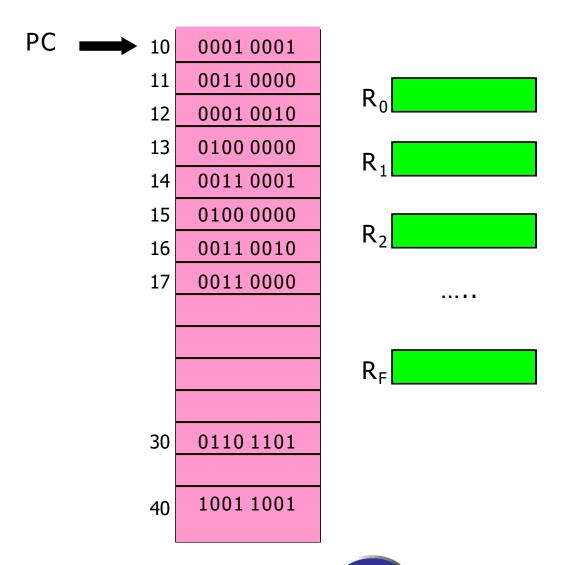


Program Execution: Swap Example

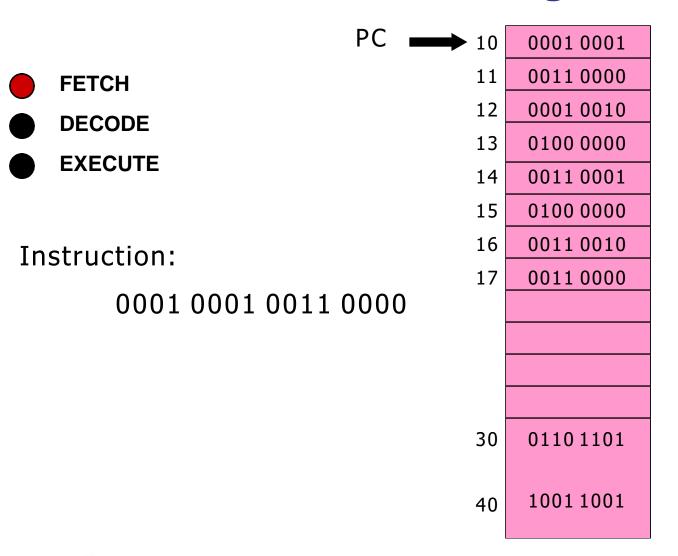


- DECODE
- EXECUTE

L	1 , 30	1130
L	2, 40	1240
ST	1, 40	3140
ST	2, 30	3230











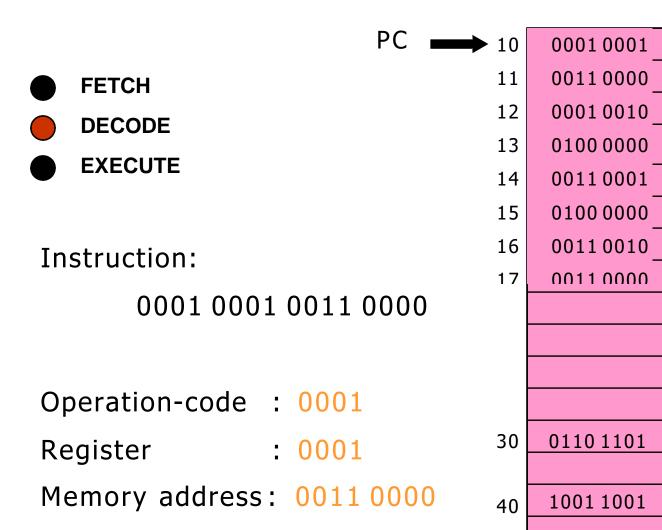


....



L 1, 30 L 2, 40 ST 1, 40 ST 2, 30

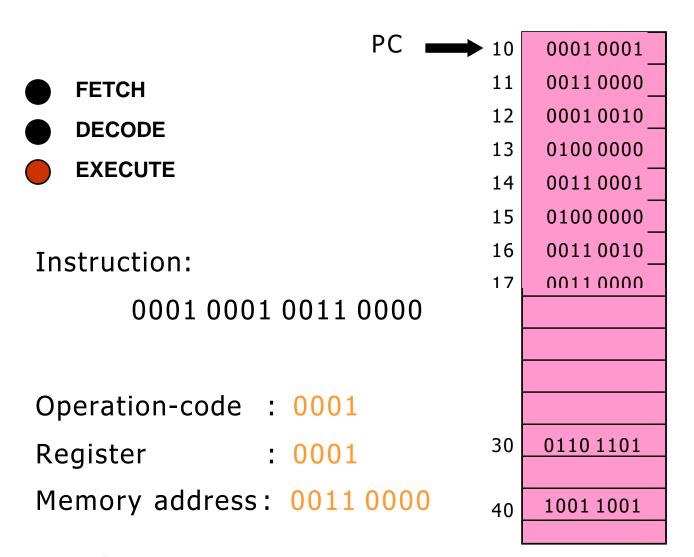




R_0		
R_1		
R_2		
R_F		
L	1 ,	30
L	2,	40
ST	1,	40
ST	2,	30



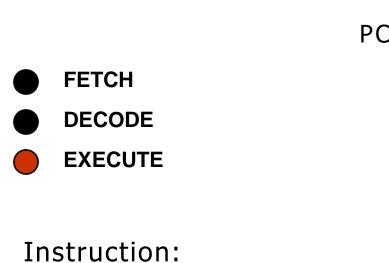
BIT



R_0			
R_1			
R_2			
R_F			
L	1,	30	
L	2,	40	
ST	1,	40	
ST	2,	30	



BIT

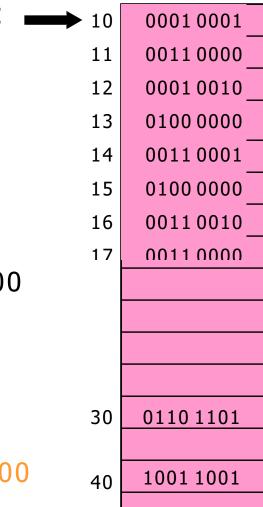




Operation-code : 0001

Register : 0001

Memory address: 0011 0000

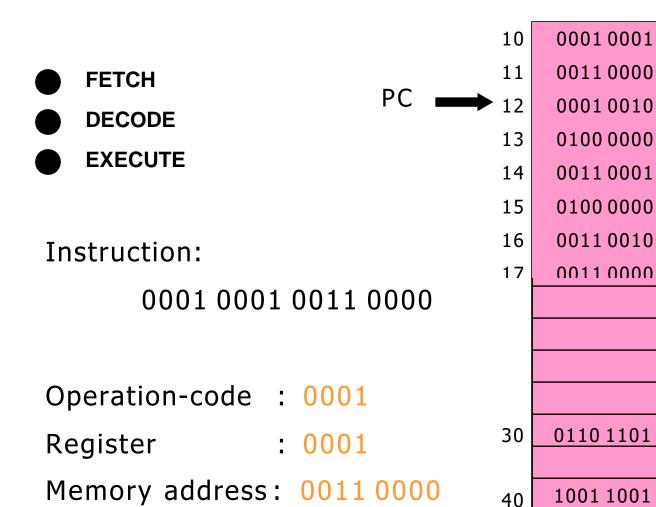


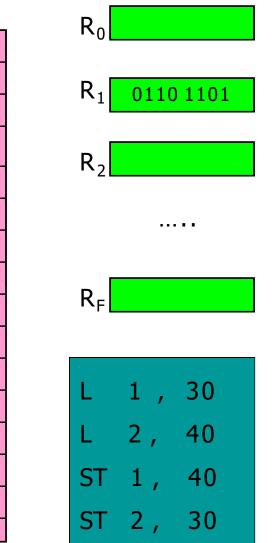


$$R_2$$

---**-**

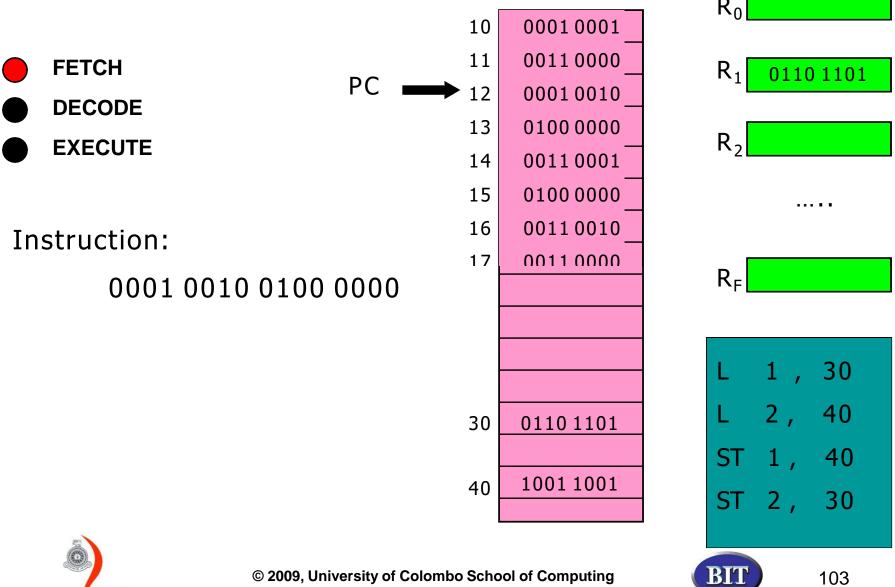


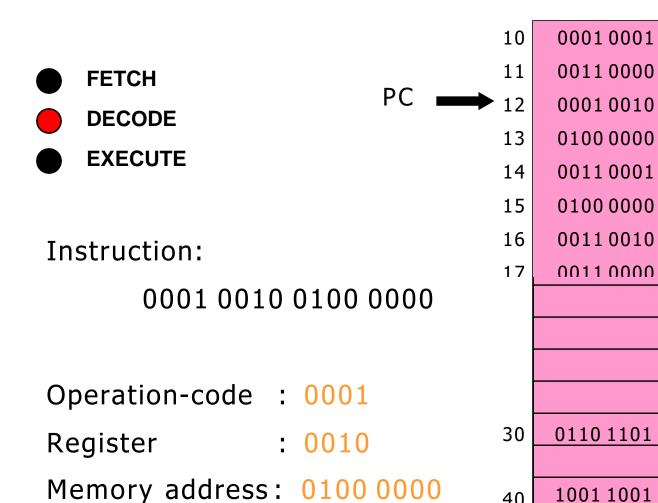


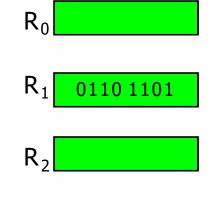




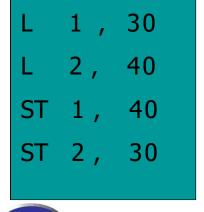
BIT





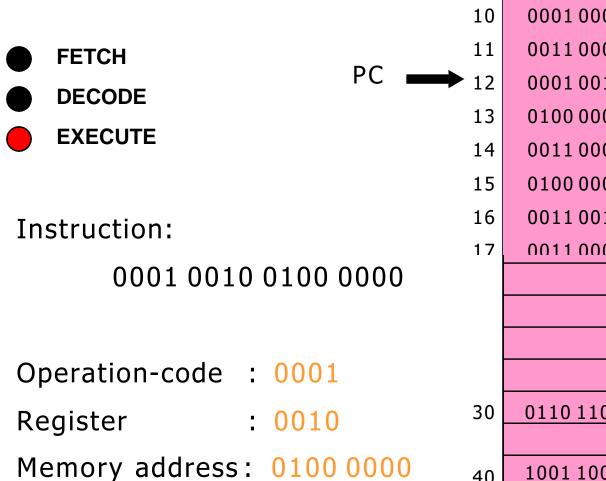








40

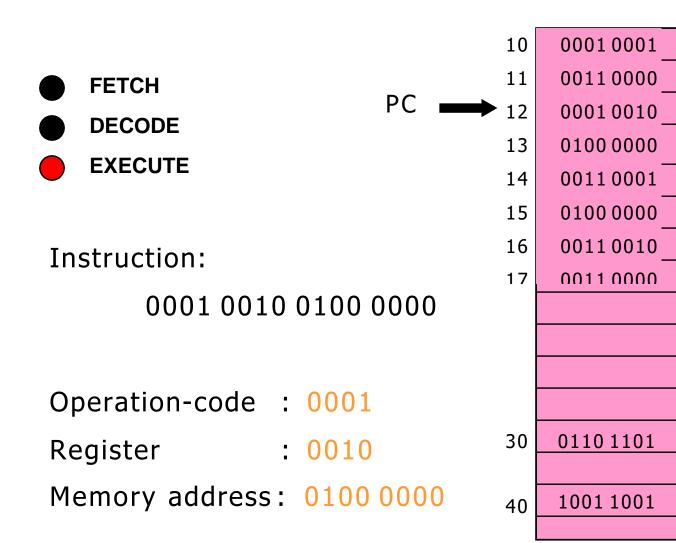


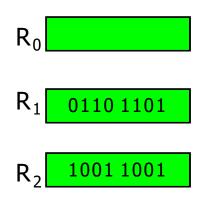
001 0001	
011 0000 _	R ₁ 0110 1101
001 0010	1 01101101
100 0000	R_2
011 0001 _	1.2
100 0000 _	
011 0010 _	
011 0000	R_{F}
	IXF
	L 1, 30
110 1101	L 2, 40
	ST 1, 40
001 1001	ST 2, 30

BIT



40





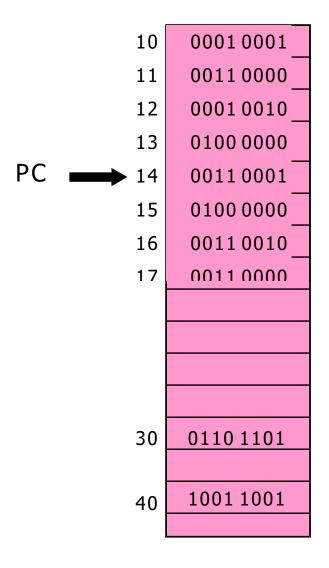






DECODE

EXECUTE



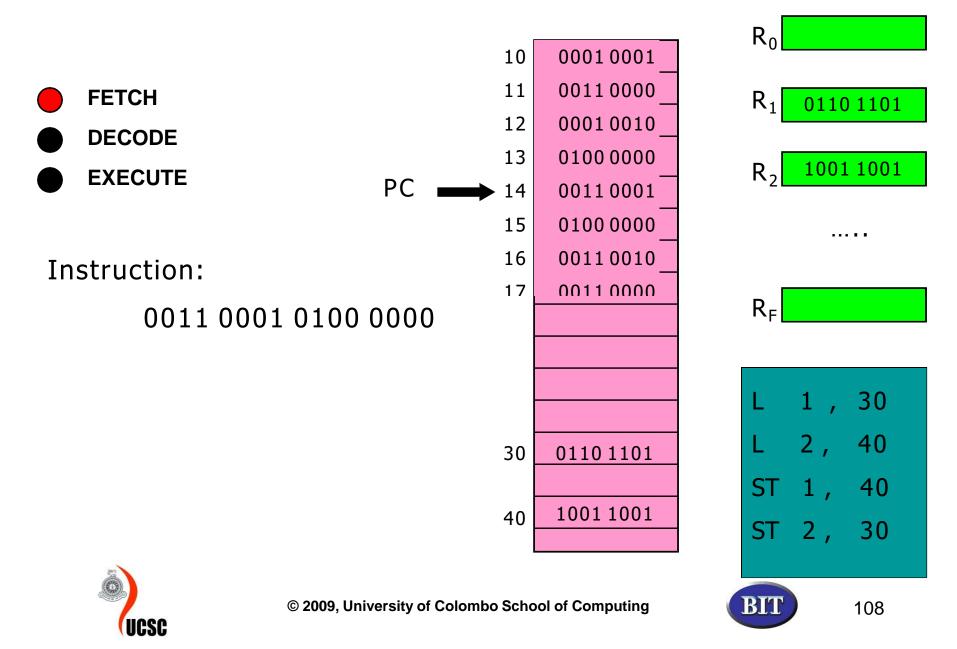


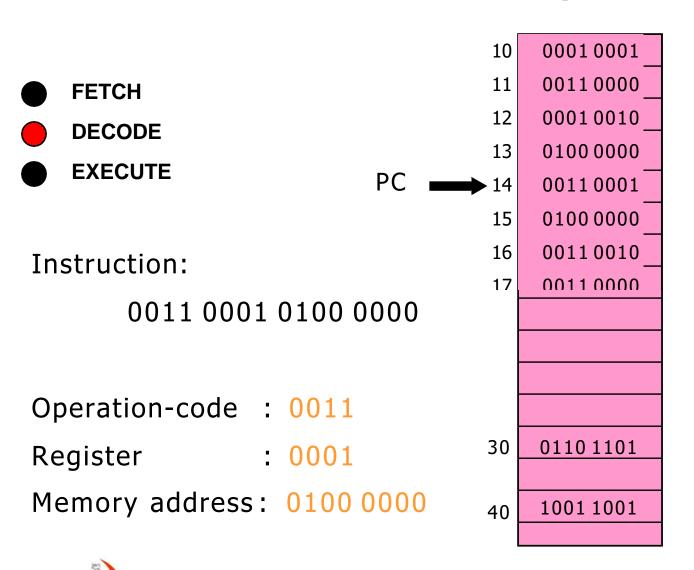
. . . .

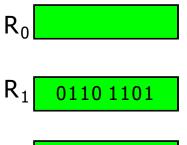
$$R_{\mathsf{F}}$$

L 1, 30 L 2, 40 ST 1, 40 ST 2, 30





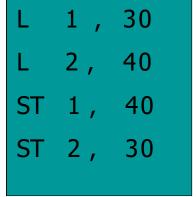




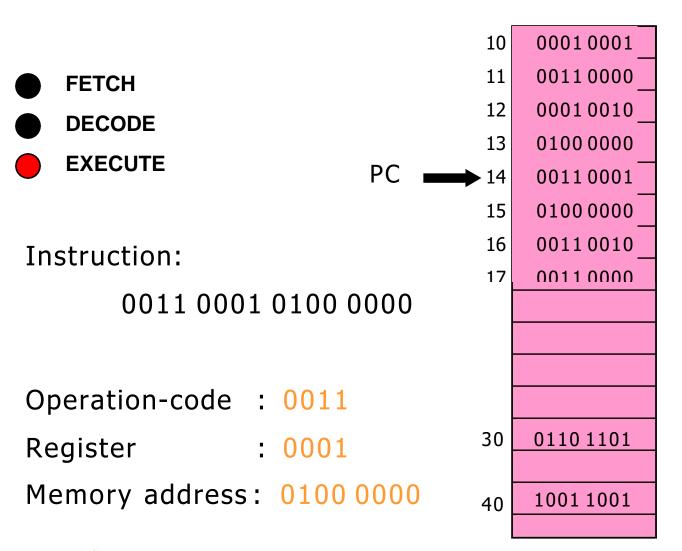


....

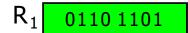












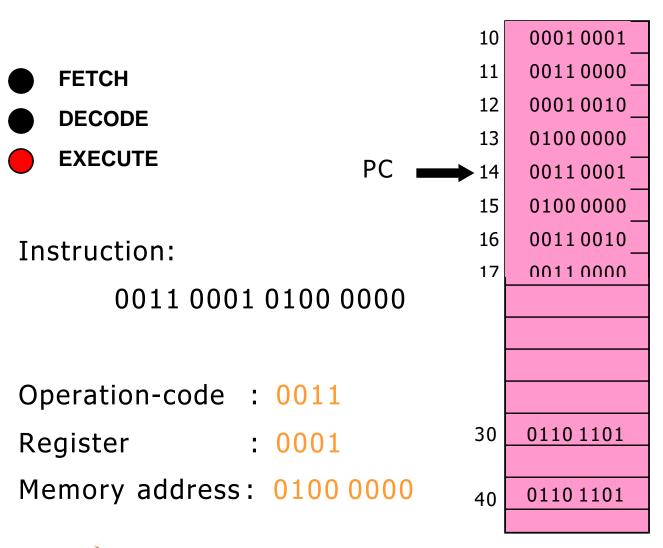
.

2, 40

ST 1, 40

ST 2, 30







. . . .

$$R_{\mathsf{F}}$$

L 2, 40

ST 1, 40

ST 2, 30

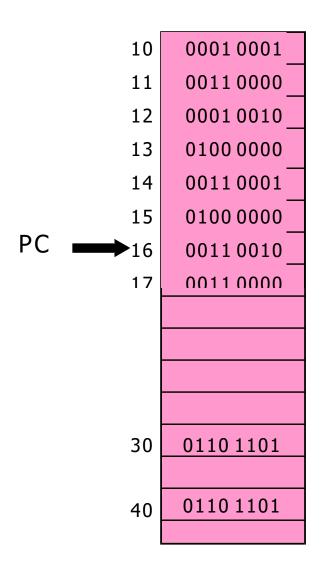
BIT



FETCH

DECODE

EXECUTE





R₁ 0110 1101

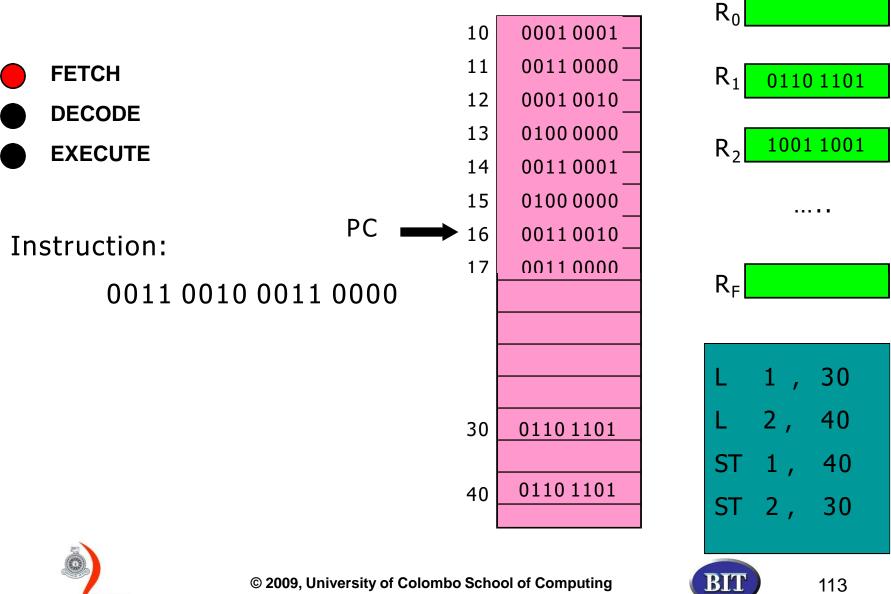
R₂ 1001 1001

. . . .

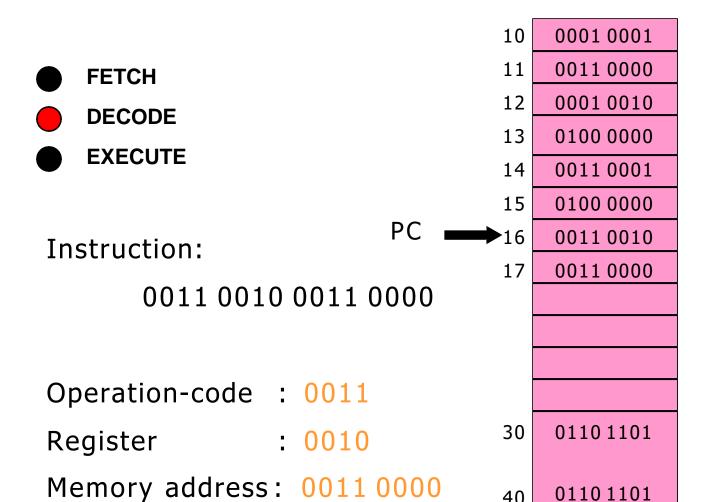
$$R_{\mathsf{F}}$$

L 1, 30 L 2, 40 ST 1, 40 ST 2, 30

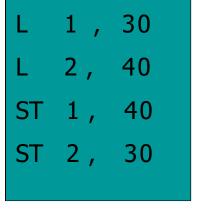








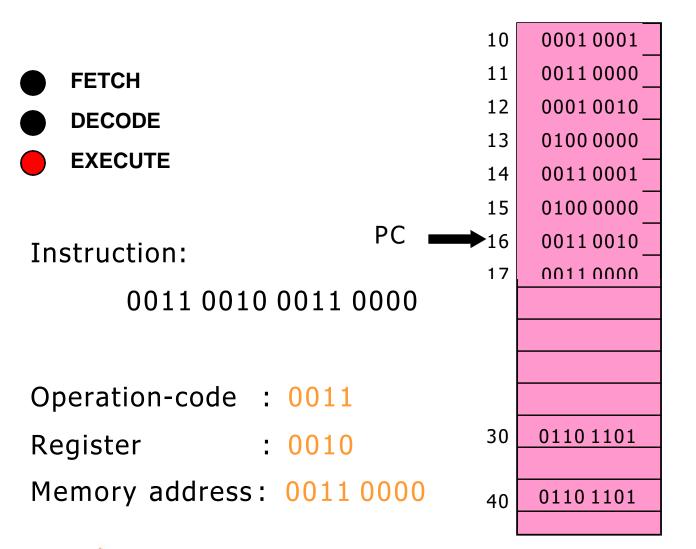
R_0	
R_1	0110 1101
R_2	1001 1001
2	
R_{F}	





40

01101101





R₁ 0110 1101

R₂ 1001 1001

. . . .

 R_{F}

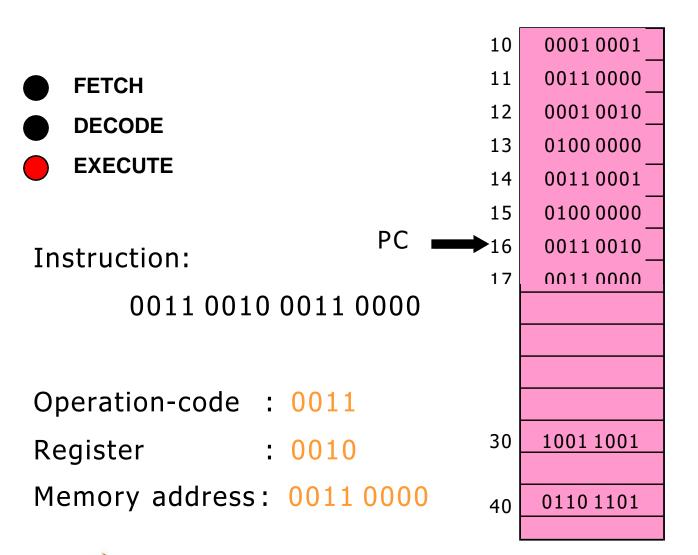
L 1, 30

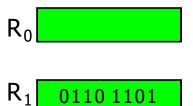
L 2, 40

ST 1, 40

ST 2, 30







R₂ 1001 1001

. . . .

 R_{F}

L 1, 30 L 2, 40

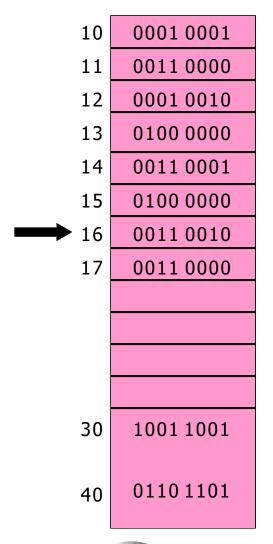
ST 1, 40

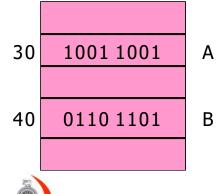
ST 2, 30



Coding Program: An Example

Assembler	Machine Code	Hexa
L 1,30	0001 0001 0011 0000	1130
L 2, 40	0001 0010 0100 0000	1240
ST 1, 40	0011 0001 0100 0000	3140
ST 2, 30	0011 0010 0011 0000	3230





UCSC

A R₁ 0110 1101

R₂ 1001 1001

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Assembler Code for A:=23, B:=-11;

LI 1 , 17 LOAD 23 IN HEX INTO R1
ST 1 , A STORE VALUE AT A
LI 1 , F5 LOAD -11 IN HEX INTO R1
ST 1 , B STORE VALUE AT B





Machine Code for A:=23, B:=-11;

LI 1 , 17	2117	00100001 00010111
ST 1, A	3180	00110001 10000000
LI 1, F5	21F5	00100001 11110101
ST 1, B	3181	00110001 10000001





Assembler Code for C:=A-B;

 $oxedsymbol{\mathsf{LOAD}}$ A INTO R1

L 2 , B LOAD B INTO R2

LI 3 , FF SET MASK TO FLIP B

XOR 4,2,3 FLIP B

LI 3 , 01 LOAD 1 INTO R3

ADD 2,3,4 ADD 1 TO FLIPPED B

ADD 3, 1, 2 NOW DO R3 = A + B

ST 3, C STORE R3 AT C



Machine Code for C:=A-B;

L 1, A	1180	00010001 10000000
L 2, B	1281	00010010 10000001
LI 3 , FF	23FF	00100011 11111111
XOR 4,2,3	9423	10010100 00100011
LI 3 , 01	2301	00100011 00000001
ADD 2,3,4	5234	01010010 00110100
ADD 3,1,2	5312	01010011 00010010
ST 3, C	3382	00110011 10000010



Example Program

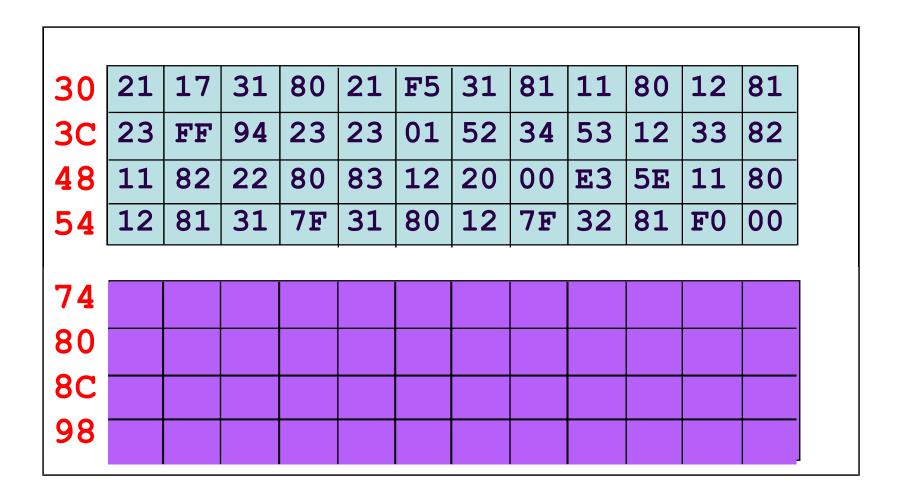
```
PROGRAM Sort;
  VAR
     A,B,C: INTEGER;
  PROCEDURE Swap (VAR X,Y: INTEGER);
 VAR
     Temp: INTEGER;
BEGIN (Swap)
 Temp := A;
 A := B;
 B := Temp;
END {Swap};
BEGIN (Sort)
 C := A-B;
 IF C = 0 THEN
    Swap (A,B);
END {Sort}.
```

Assembler and Machine Code

30	LI 1,17	2117	48	L 1,C	1182
32	ST 1,A	3180	4A	LI 2,80	2280
34	LI 1,F5	21F5	4C	AND 3,1,2	8312
36	ST 1,B	3181	4E	LI 0,00	2000
38	L 1,A	1180	50		E35E
3 A	L 2,B	1281		L 1,A	
3C	LI 3,FF	23FF			
3 E	XOR4,2,3	9423		L 2,B	1281
40	LI 3,01	2301	56	ST 1, TEMP	
42	ADD2,3,4	5234	EO	Om 0 %	2100
44	ADD3,1,2	5312			
46	ST 3,C	3382	5C	ST 2,B	3281
			5 E	HALT	F000

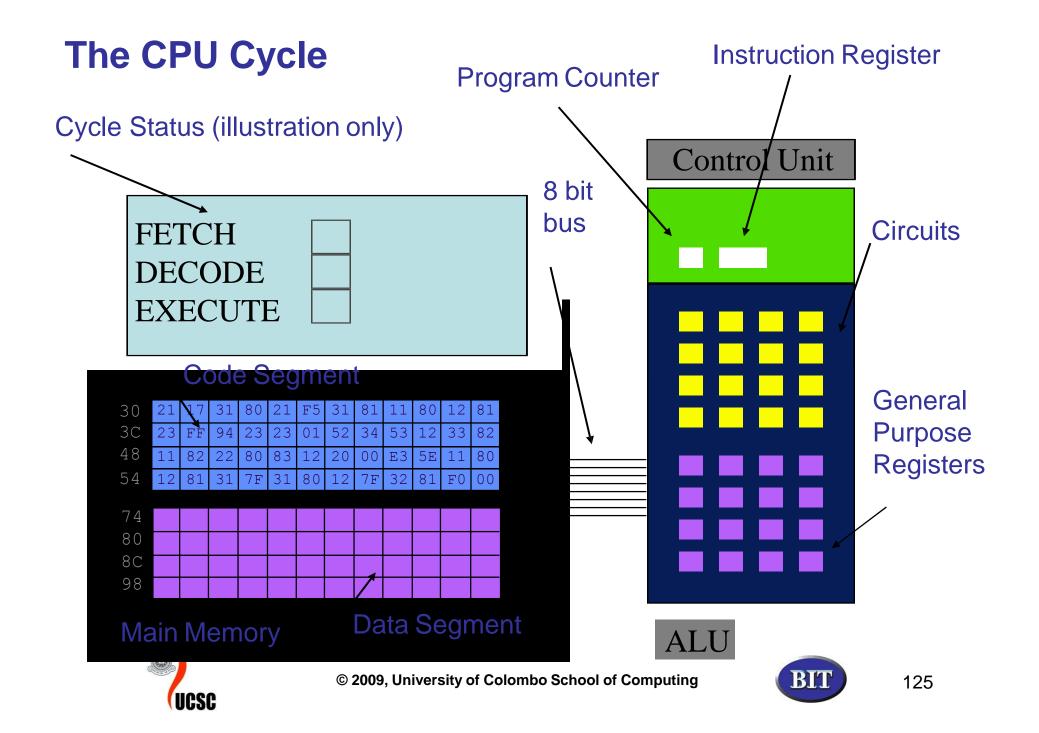


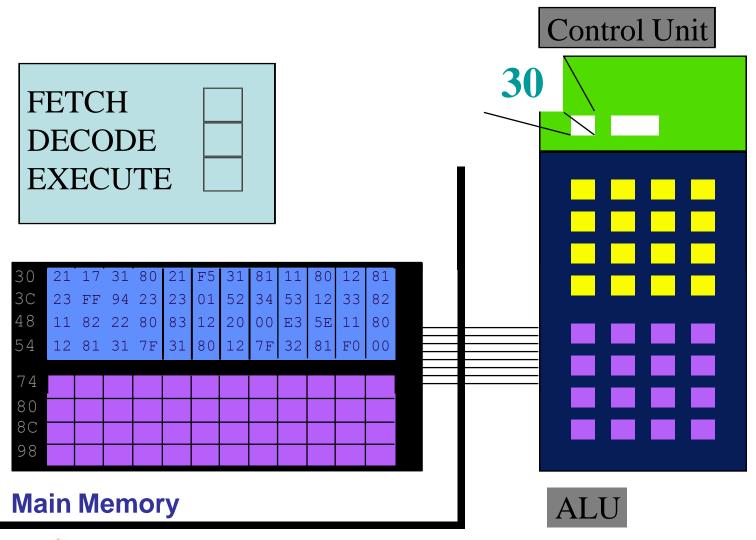
Code Loaded in Memory





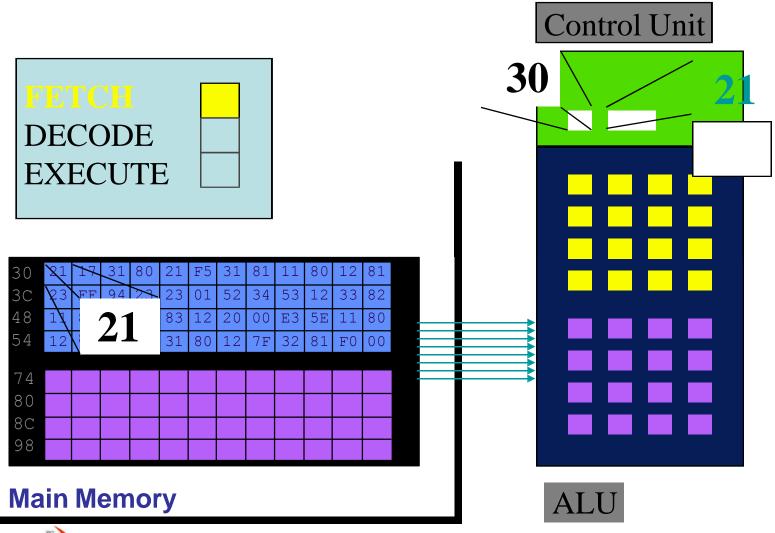




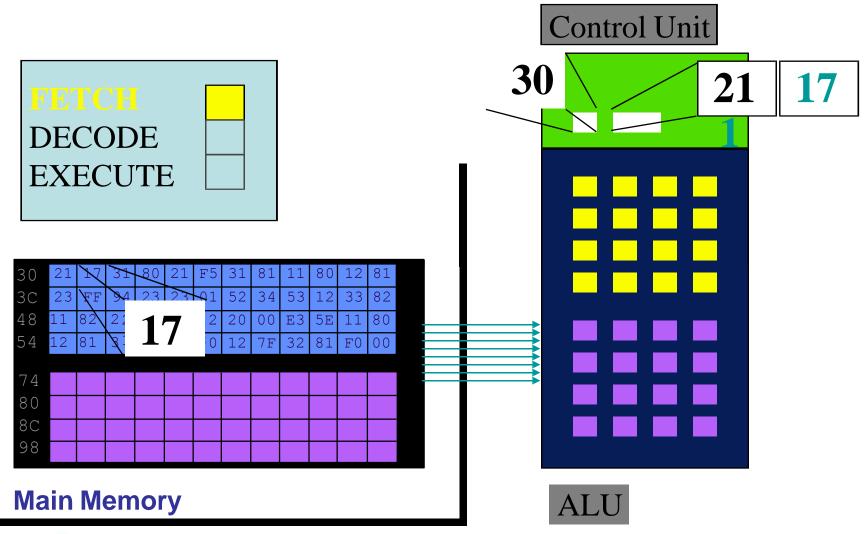






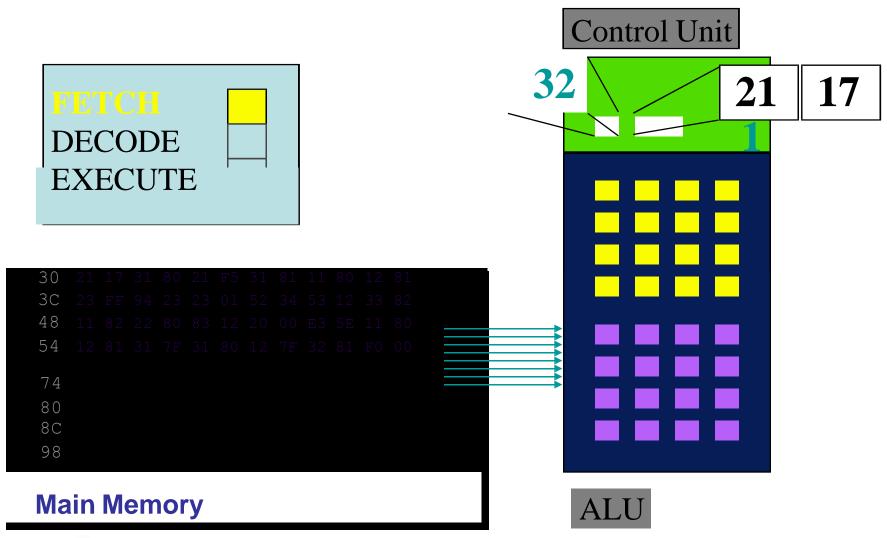






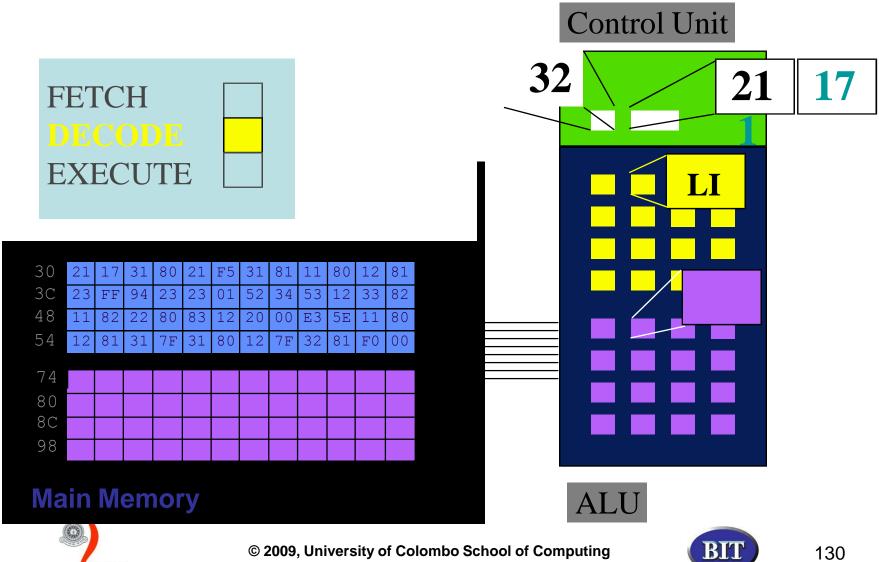


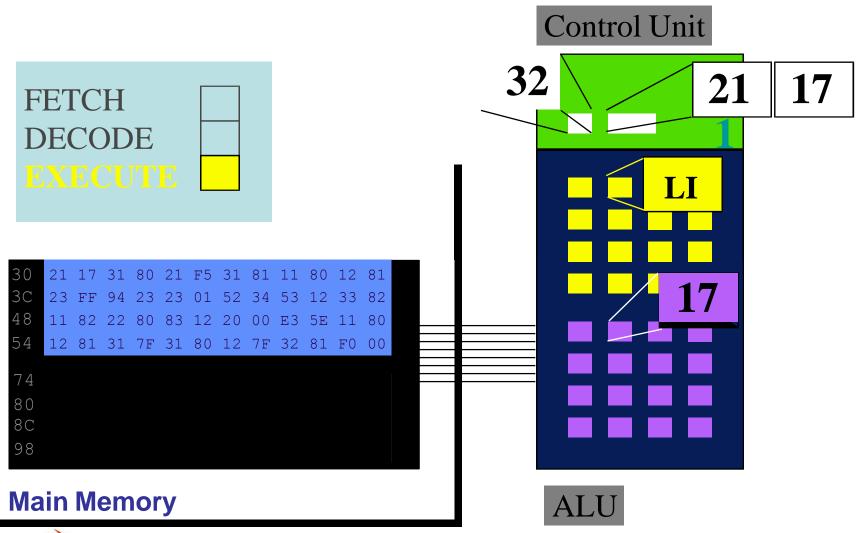




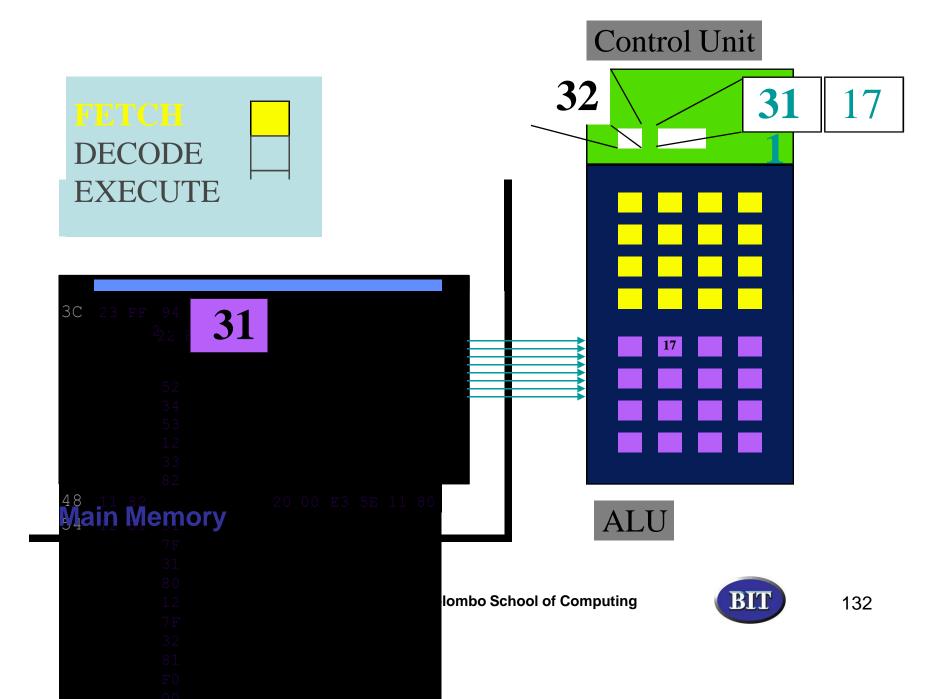


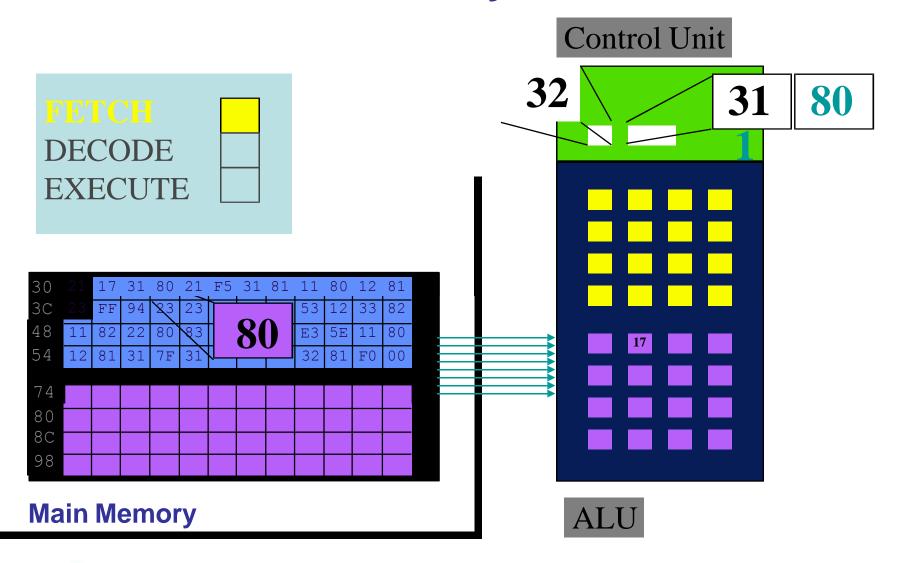






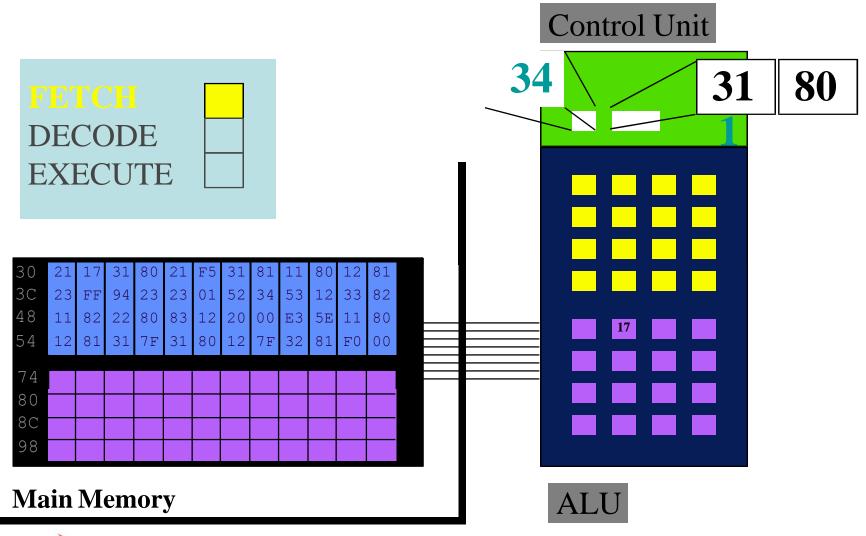




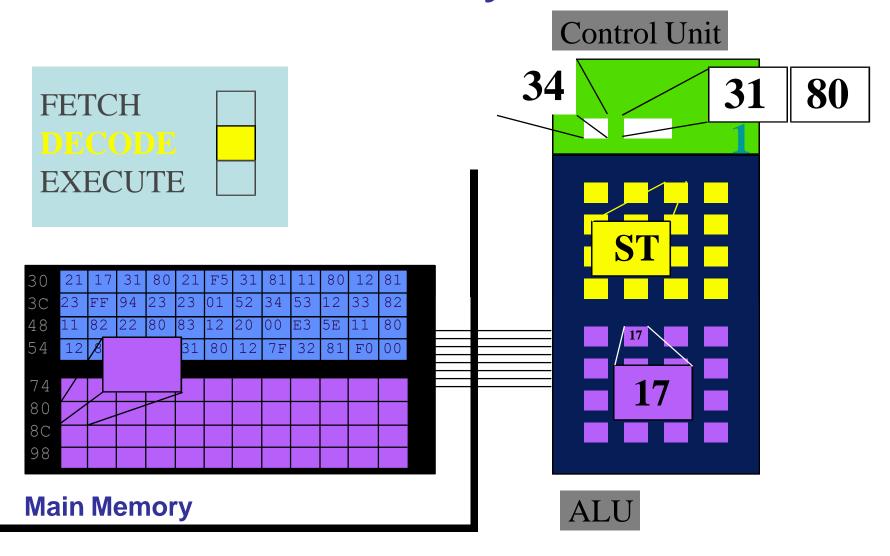






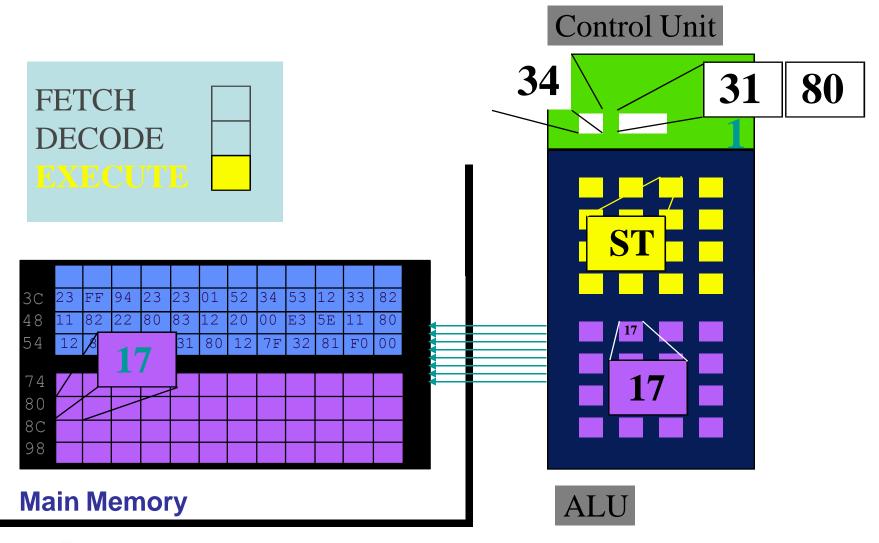






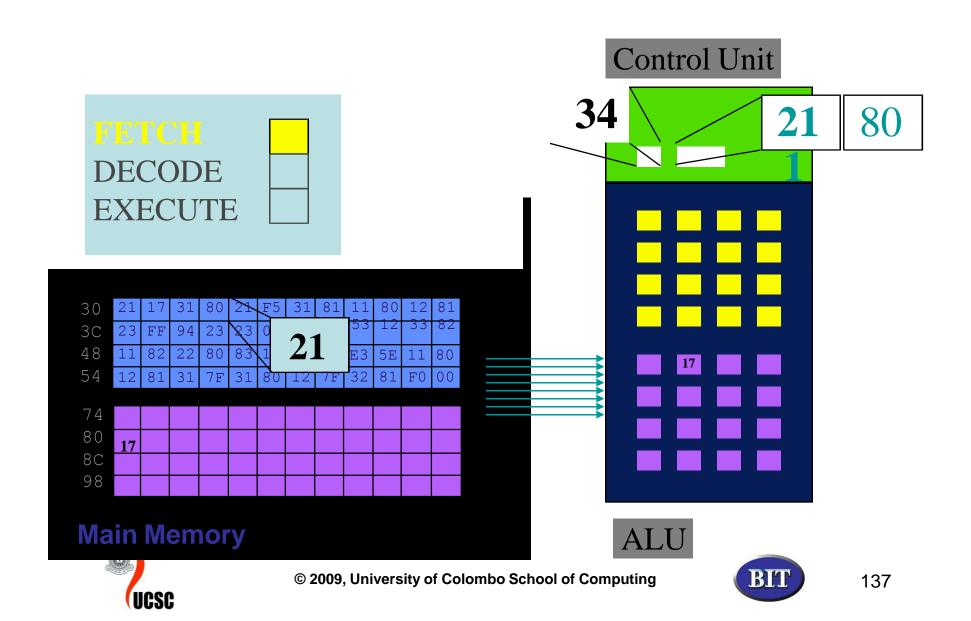


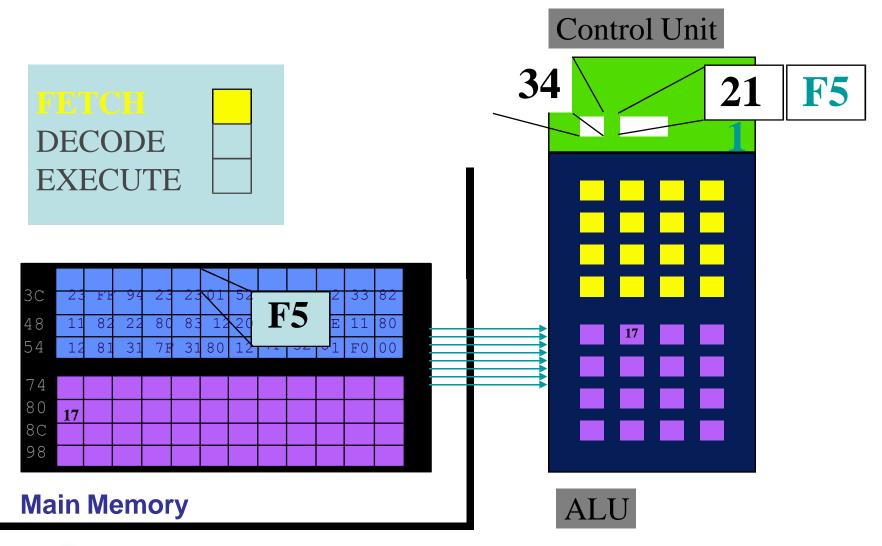






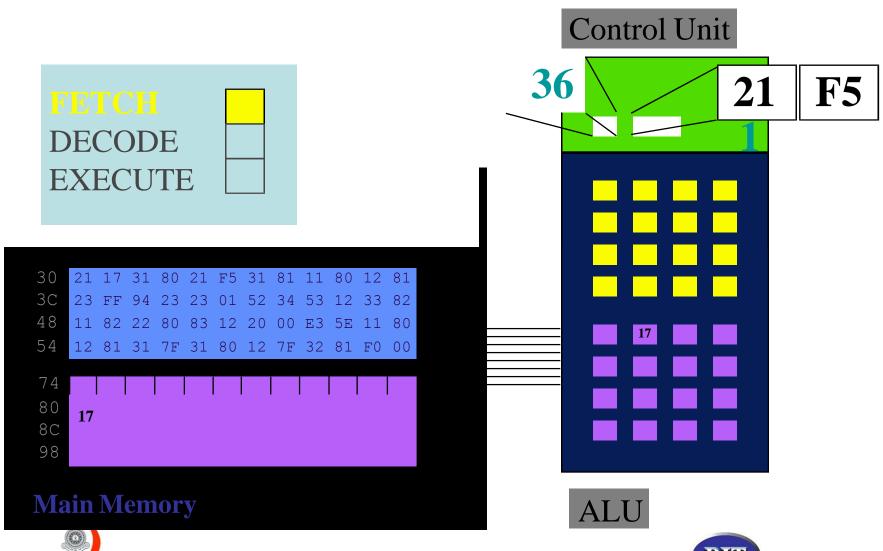




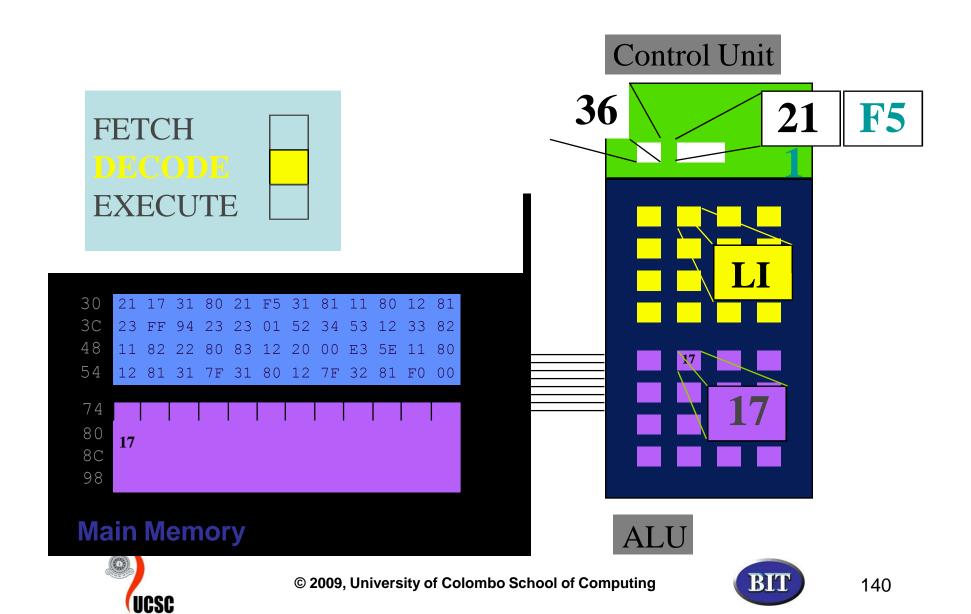


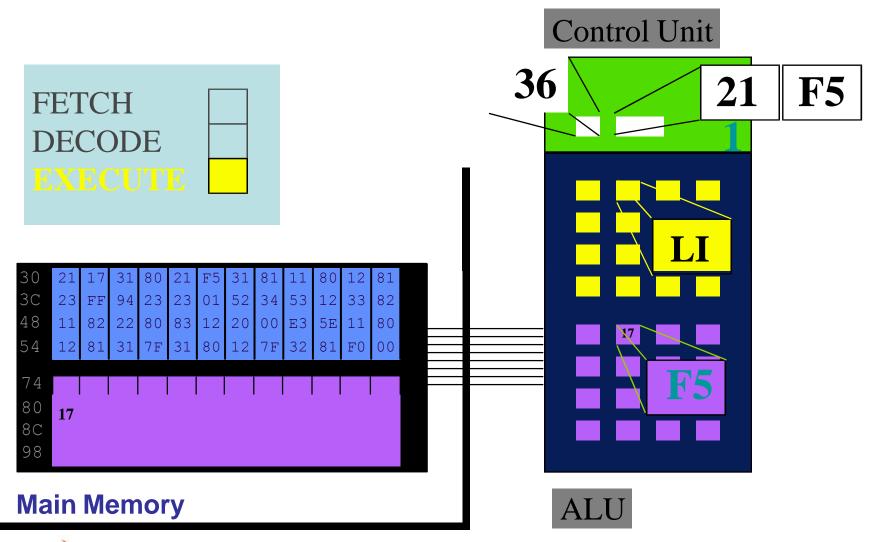






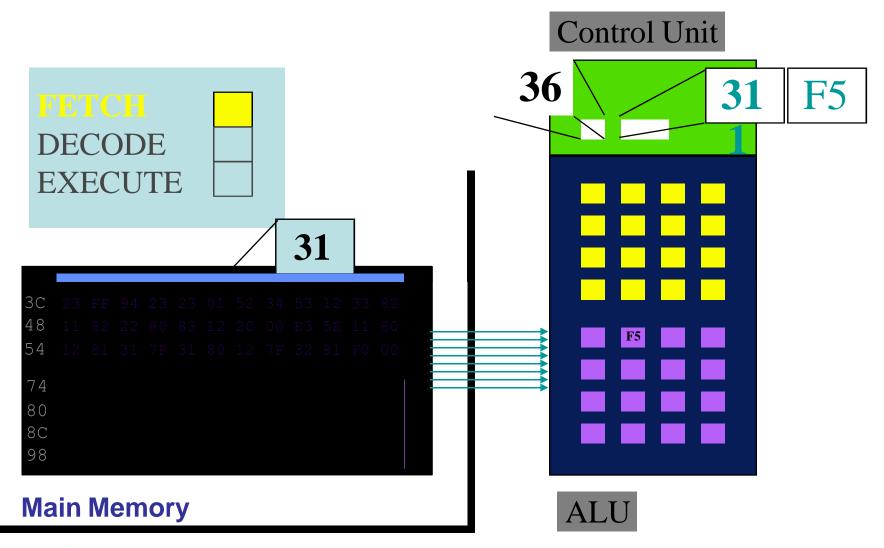
UCSC





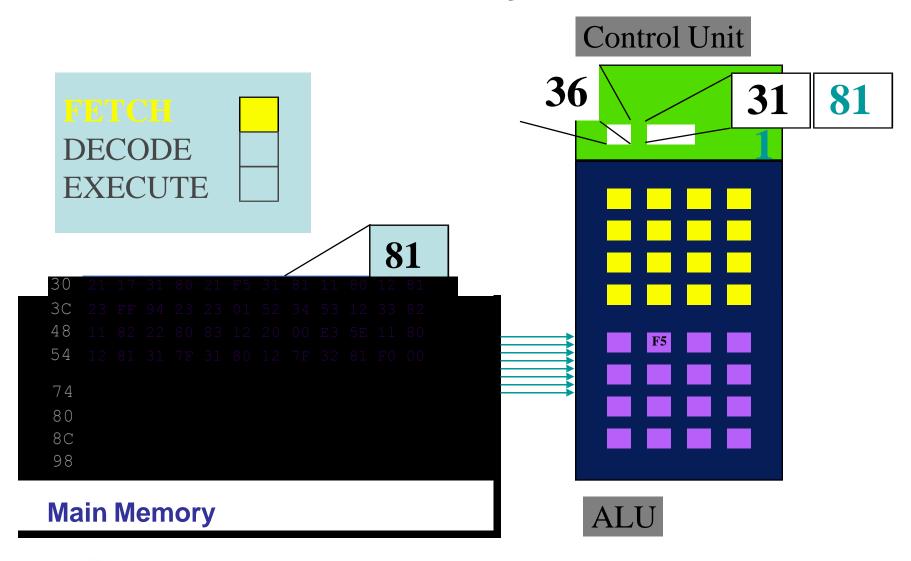






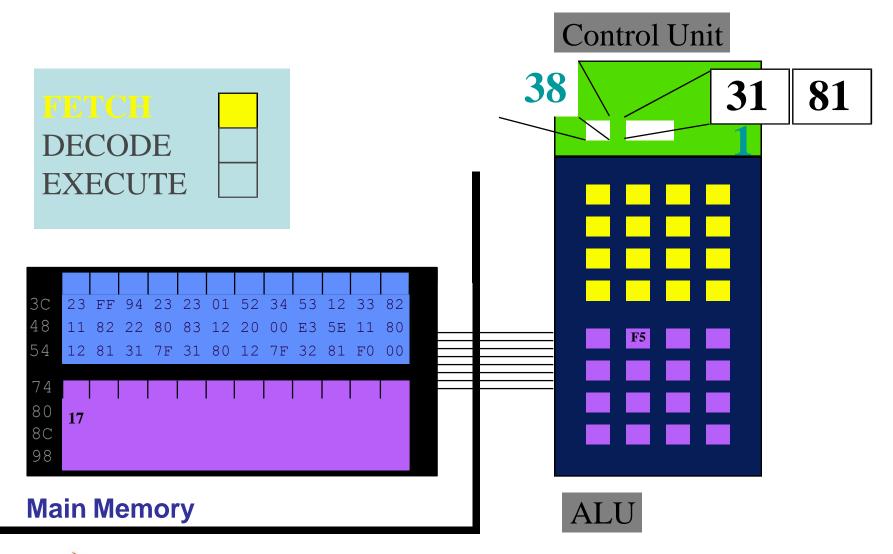






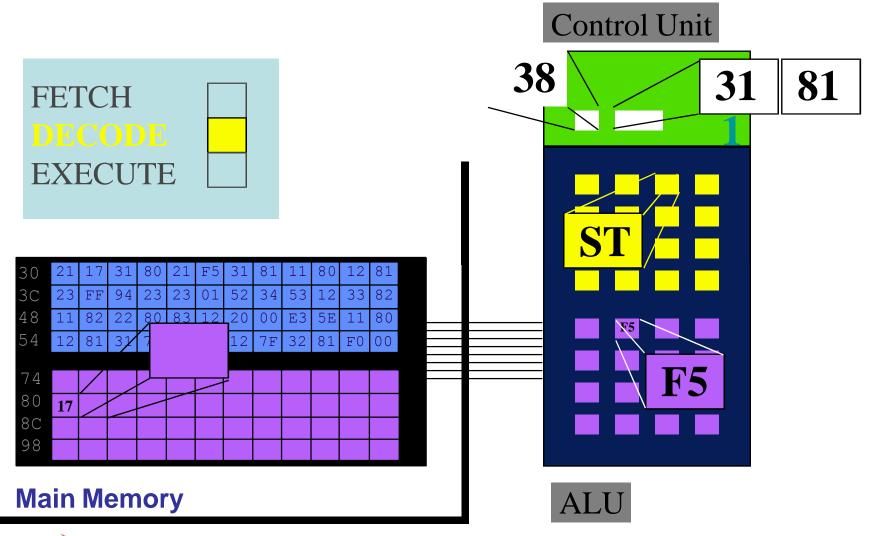






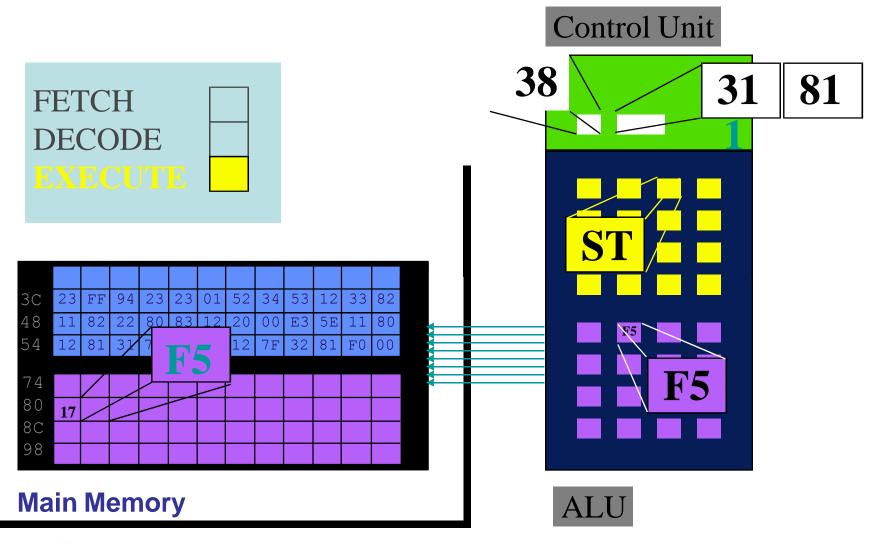






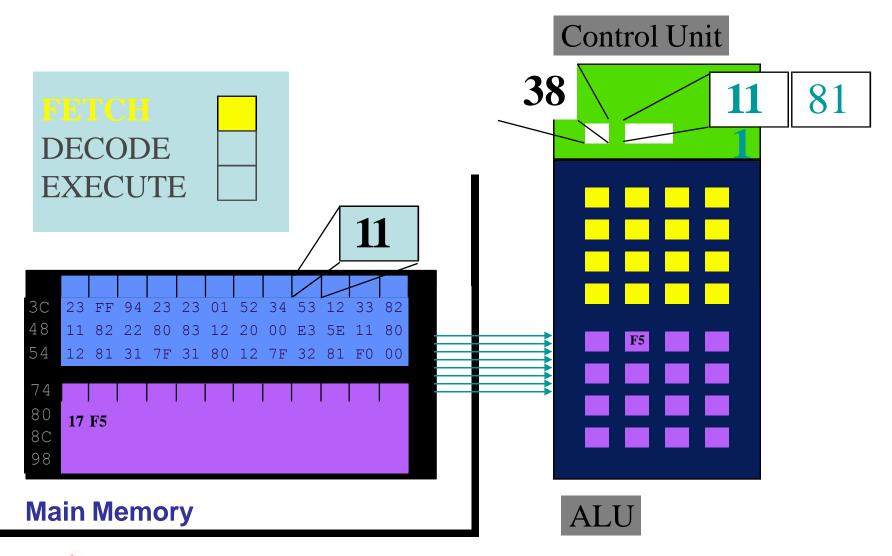




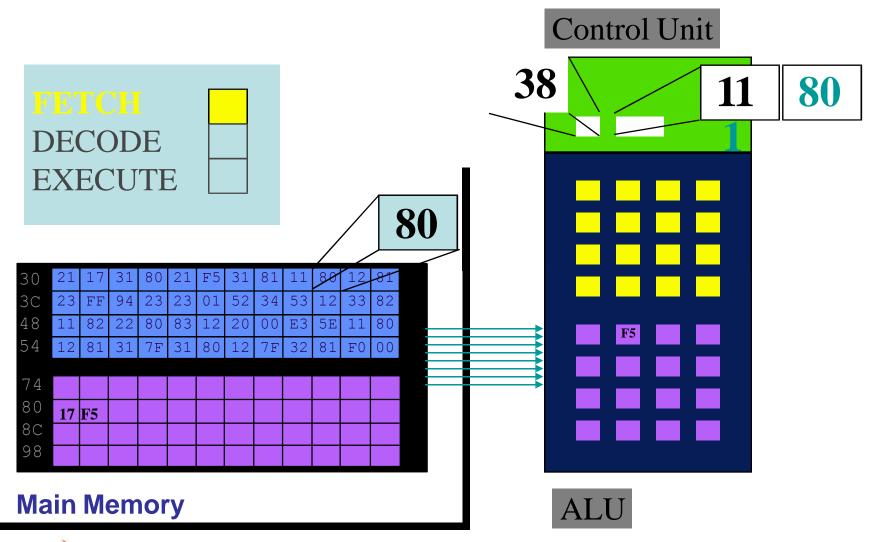




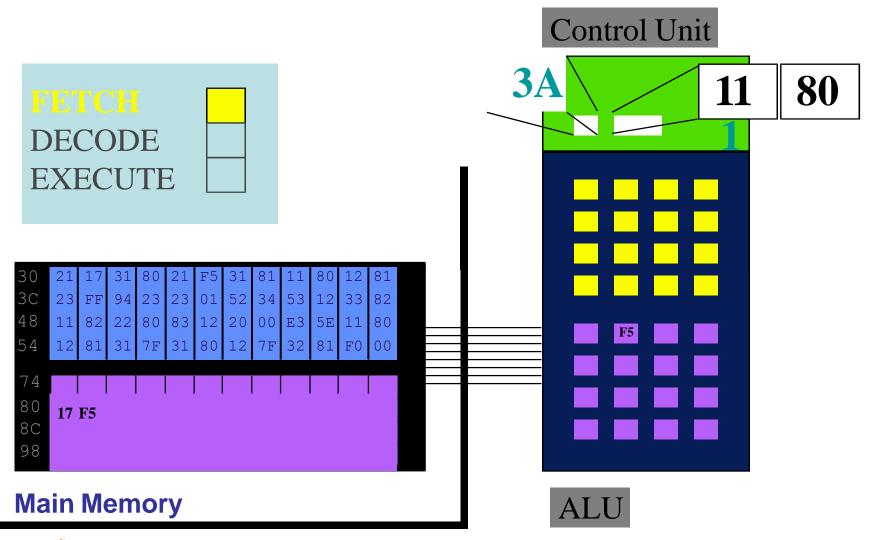






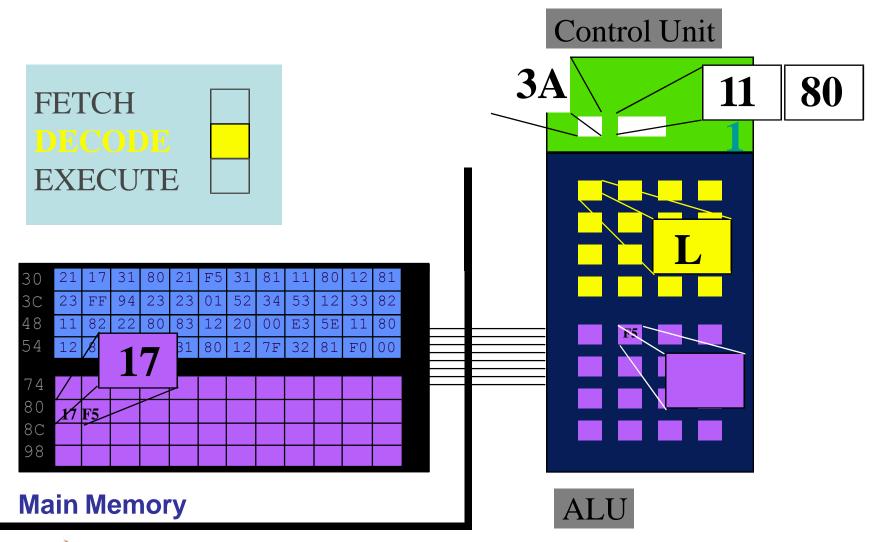






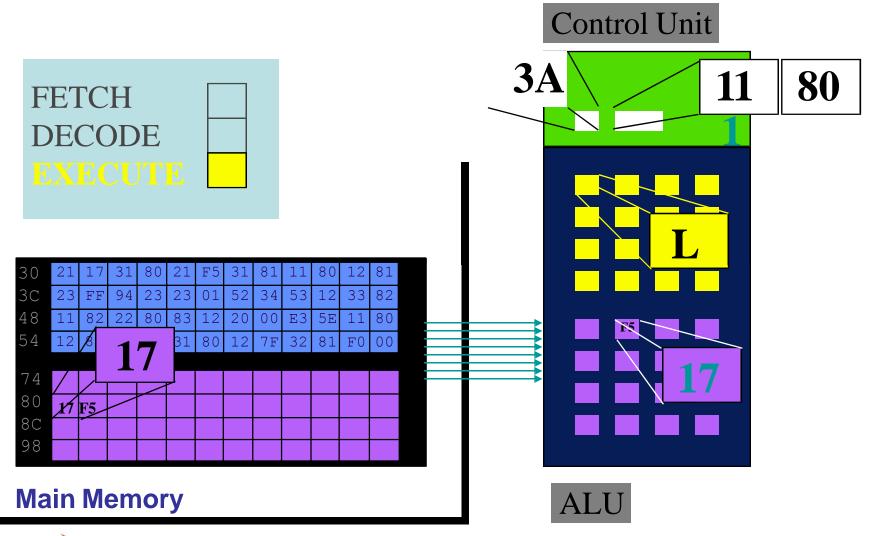








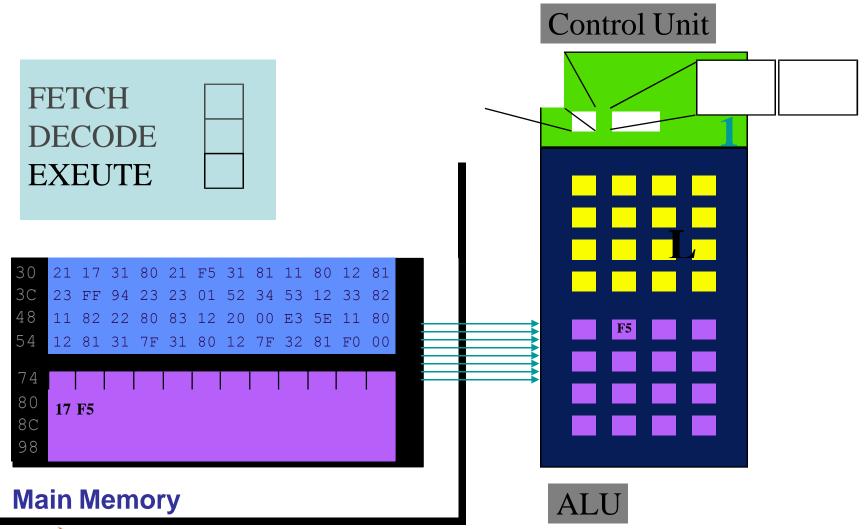








The CPU Cycle – and so on...





Instruction Execution - Pipelining

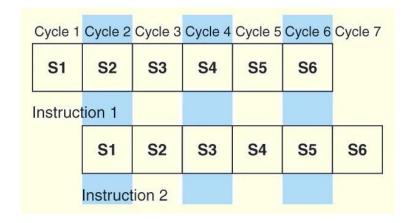
- Some CPUs divide the fetch-decode-execute cycle into smaller steps
- Instruction Level Pipelining overlaps these smaller steps for consecutive instructions in order to increase throughput
 - Need to balance the time taken by each pipeline stage





Instruction Level Pipelining - Example

- Suppose a fetch-decode-execute cycle were broken into the following smaller steps:
 - 1. Fetch instruction
 - 2. Decode opcode
 - 3. Calculate the address of operands
 - 4. Fetch operands
 - 5. Execute instruction
 - 6. Store result
- For every clock cycle, one small step is carried out, and the stages are overlapped





Instruction Level Pipelining - Speed

- There are n instructions
- There are k stages in the pipeline, and the time per stage is t_p
 - The first instruction requires $k \times t_p$ time to complete
- The remaining (n-1) instructions emerge from the pipeline one per stage
 - The total time to complete the remaining instructions is $(n-1) t_p$
- Thus, the time required to complete n tasks using a k-stage pipeline is

$$(k * t_p) + (n-1) t_p = (k+n-1) t_p$$



Instruction Level Pipelining - Speed

Speedup gained by using a pipeline

time without pipeline

$$Speedup = \frac{n \times k \, t_p}{(k+n-1)t_p}$$
 time with pipeline

• As n approaches infinity, (k + n - 1) approaches n, which results in a theoretical speedup of

$$Speedup = \frac{n \times k \, t_p}{n \, t_p} = k$$



Instruction Level Pipelining - Issues

Assumptions

- the architecture supports fetching instructions and data in parallel
- the pipeline can be kept filled at all times
 - This is not always the case due to pipeline conflicts
- It may appear that more stages imply faster performance, but
 - the amount of control logic increases with the number of stages
 - pipeline conflicts affect the execution of instructions





Instruction Level Pipelining – Pipeline Conflicts

Resource conflicts

 One instruction is storing a value to memory while another instruction is being fetched from memory

Data dependencies

 When the not-yet-available result of one instruction is the operand of a subsequent instruction

Conditional branch statements

 Several instructions can be fetched and decoded before the execution of a preceding branch instruction is finished





Thank You



