Unit 2

The Central Processing Unit

RoadMap

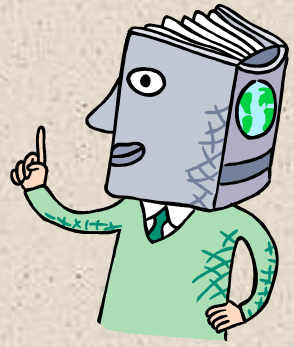
Chapter

Instruction Sets: Characteristics and Functions

- Machine instruction characteristics
  - Elements of a machine instruction
  - Instruction representation
  - Instruction types
  - Number of addresses
  - Instruction set design
- Types of operands
  - Numbers
  - Characters
  - Logical data
- Intel x86 and ARM data types
- Types of operations
  - Data transfer
  - Arithmetic
  - Logical
  - Conversion
  - Input/output
  - System control
  - Transfer of control
- Intel x86 and ARM operation types

1. Machine Instruction Characteristics

- The operation of the processor is determined by the instructions it executes, referred to as *machine instructions* or *computer instructions*
- The collection of different instructions that the processor can execute is referred to as the processor's *instruction set*
- Each instruction must contain the information required by the processor for execution



Elements of a Machine Instruction

Operation code (opcode)

- Specifies the operation to be performed. The operation is specified by a binary code, known as the operation code, or *opcode*

Source operand reference

- The operation may involve one or more source operands, that is, operands that are inputs for the operation

Result operand reference

- The operation may produce a result

Next instruction reference

- This tells the processor where to fetch the next instruction after the execution of this instruction is complete

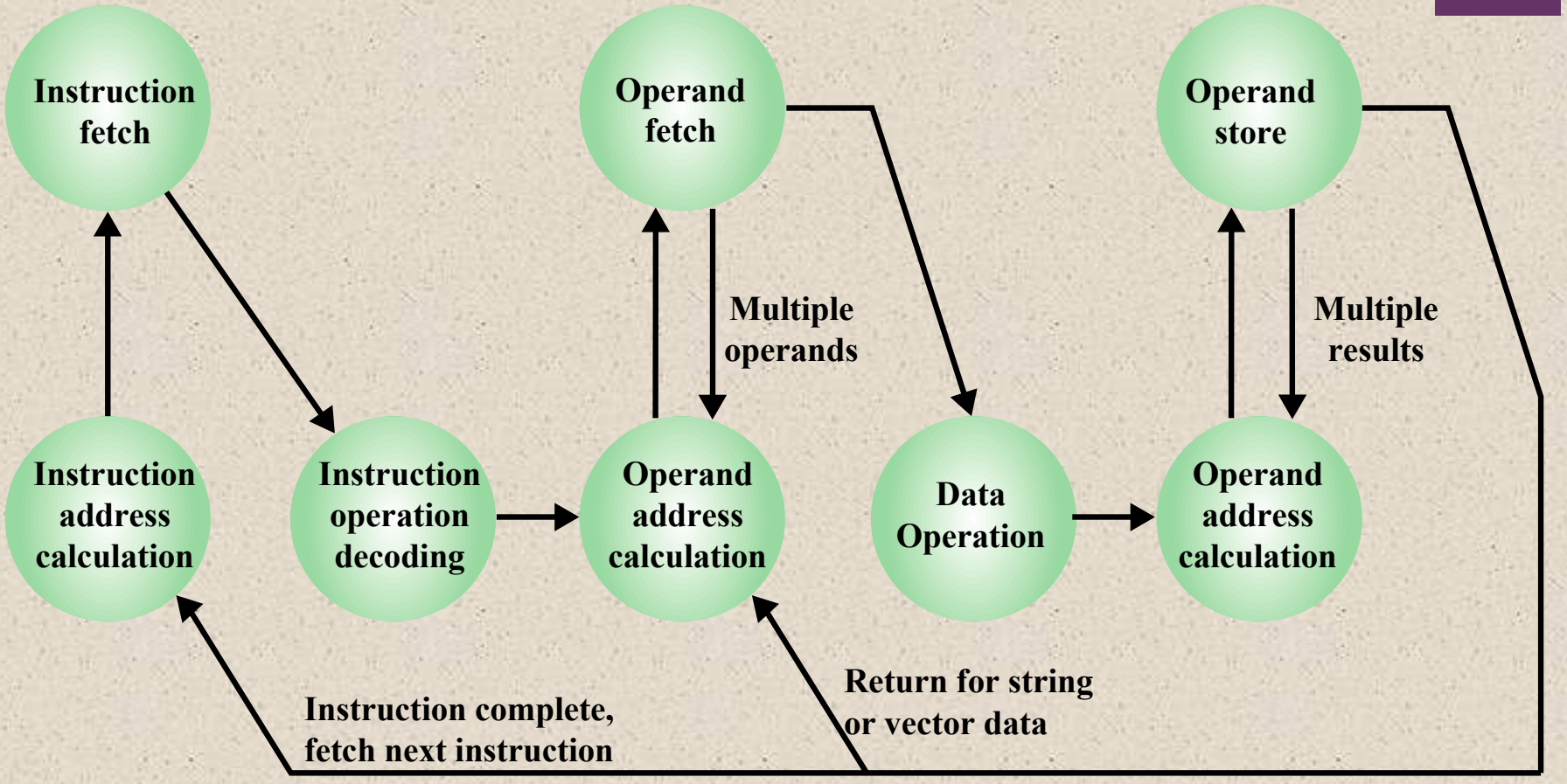


Figure 12.1 Instruction Cycle State Diagram

Source and result operands can be in one of four areas:

1) Main or virtual memory
   - As with next instruction references, the main or virtual memory address must be supplied

2) I/O device
   - The instruction must specify the I/O module and device for the operation. If memory-mapped I/O is used, this is just another main or virtual memory address

3) Processor register
   - A processor contains one or more registers that may be referenced by machine instructions.
   - If more than one register exists each register is assigned a unique name or number and the instruction must contain the number of the desired register

4) Immediate
   - The value of the operand is contained in a field in the instruction being executed

Instruction Representation

- Within the computer each instruction is represented by a sequence of bits
- The instruction is divided into fields, corresponding to the constituent elements of the instruction

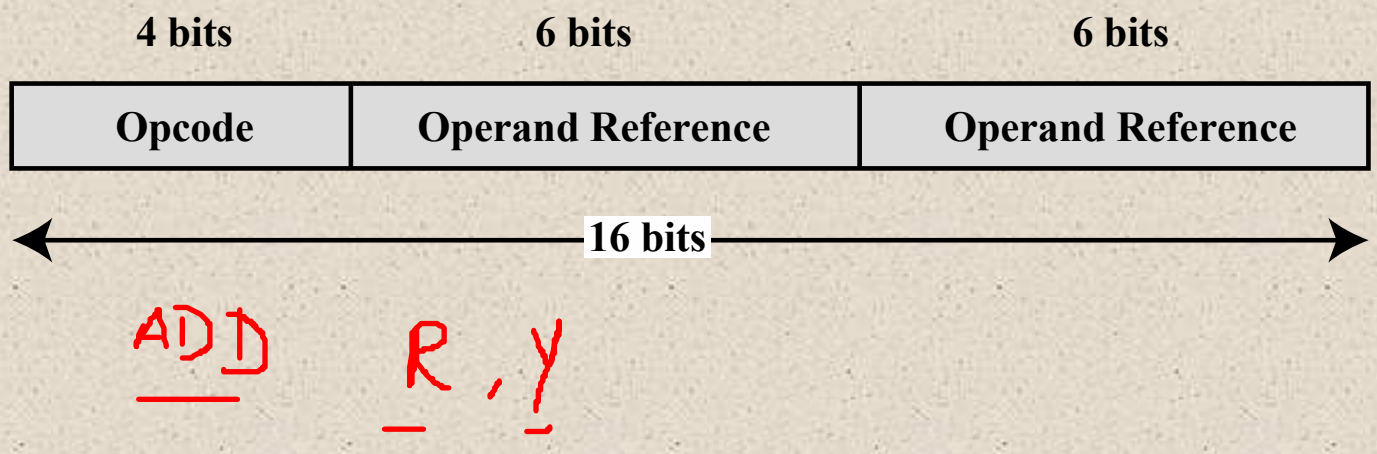


Figure 12.2 A Simple Instruction Format

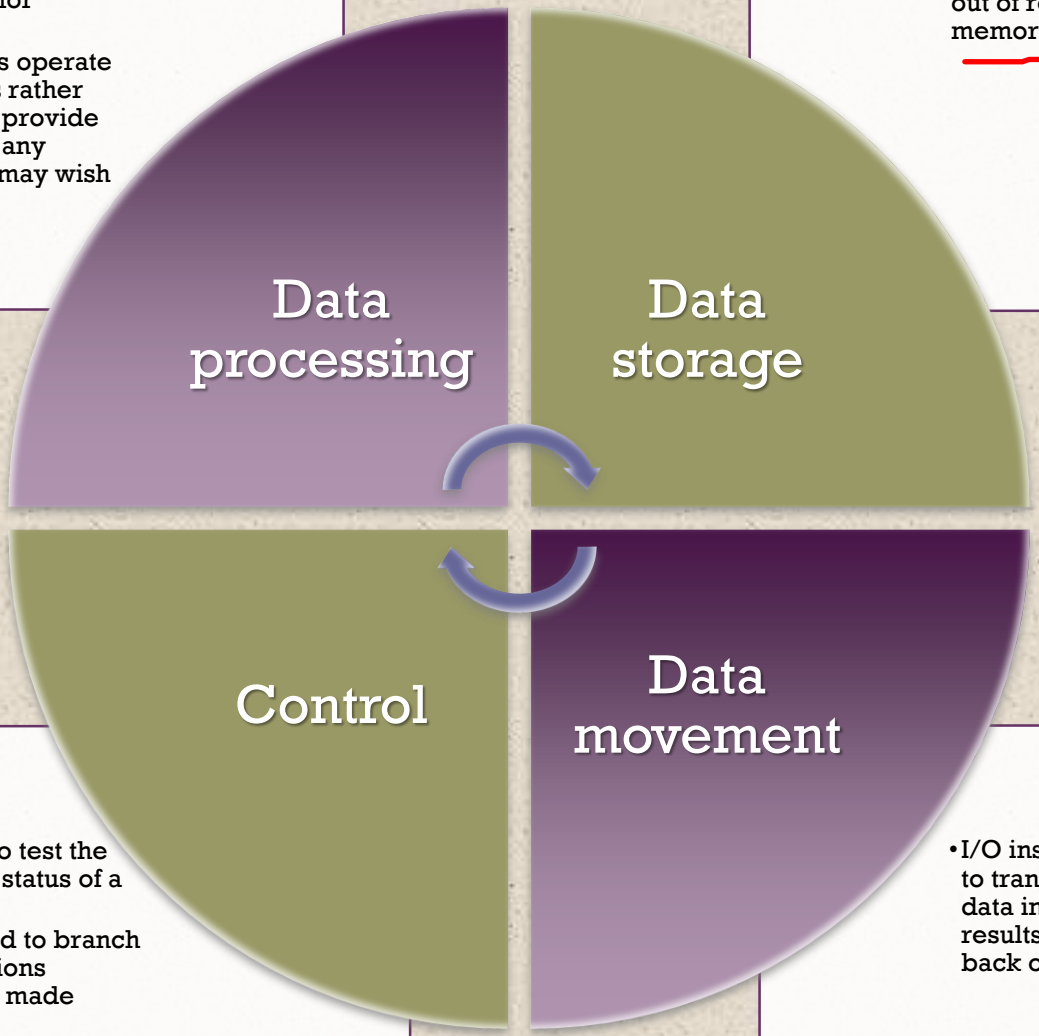
Instruction Representation

- Opcodes are represented by abbreviations called *mnemonics*
- Examples include:
  - ADD Add
  - SUB Subtract
  - MUL Multiply
  - DIV Divide
  - LOAD Load data from memory
  - STOR Store data to memory
- Operands are also represented symbolically
- Each symbolic opcode has a fixed binary representation
  - The programmer specifies the location of each symbolic operand

Instruction Types

- Arithmetic instructions provide computational capabilities for processing numeric data
- Logic (Boolean) instructions operate on the bits of a word as bits rather than as numbers, thus they provide capabilities for processing any other type of data the user may wish to employ

- Movement of data into or out of register and or memory locations



- Test instructions are used to test the value of a data word or the status of a computation
- Branch instructions are used to branch to a different set of instructions depending on the decision made

- I/O instructions are needed to transfer programs and data into memory and the results of computations back out to the user

Instruction		Comment
SUB	Y, A, B	Y ← A – B
MPY	T, D, E	T ← D × E
ADD	T, T, C	T ← T + C
DIV	Y, Y, T	Y ← Y ÷ T

(a) Three-address instructions

Instruction		Comment
MOVE	Y, A	Y ← A
SUB	Y, B	Y ← Y – B
MOVE	T, D	T ← D
MPY	T, E	T ← T × E
ADD	T, C	T ← T + C
DIV	Y, T	Y ← Y ÷ T

(b) Two-address instructions

Instruction		Comment
LOAD	D	AC ← D
MPY	E	AC ← AC × E
ADD	C	AC ← AC + C
STOR	Y	Y ← AC
LOAD	A	AC ← A
SUB	B	AC ← AC – B
DIV	Y	AC ← AC ÷ Y
STOR	Y	Y ← AC

(c) One-address instructions

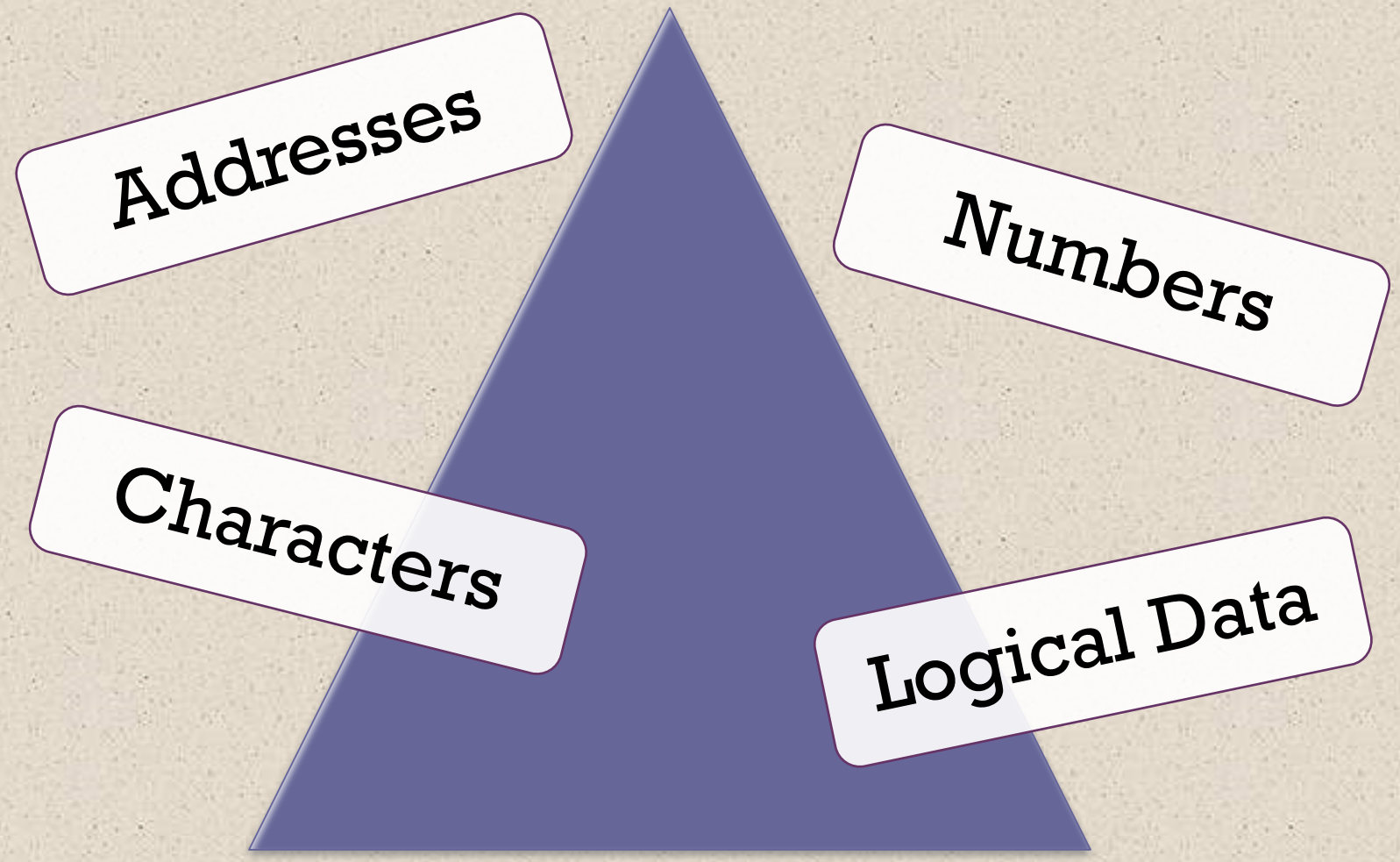
Figure 12.3 Programs to Execute $Y = \frac{A - B}{C + (D \times E)}$

Table 12.1
Utilization of Instruction Addresses (Nonbranching Instructions)

Number of Addresses	Symbolic Representation	Interpretation
3	OP A, B, C	A ← B OP C
2	OP A, B	A ← A OP B
1	OP A	AC ← AC OP A
0	OP	T ← (T – 1) OP T

AC = accumulator
T = top of stack
(T – 1) = second element of stack
A, B, C = memory or register locations

2. Types of Operands



Numbers

- All machine languages include numeric data types
- Numbers stored in a computer are limited:
  - Limit to the magnitude of numbers representable on a machine
  - In the case of floating-point numbers, a limit to their precision
- Three types of numerical data are common in computers:
  - Binary integer or binary fixed point
  - Binary floating point
  - Decimal
- Packed decimal
  - Each decimal digit is represented by a 4-bit code with two digits stored per byte
  - To form numbers 4-bit codes are strung together, usually in multiples of 8 bits

Characters

- A common form of data is text or character strings
- Textual data in character form cannot be easily stored or transmitted by data processing and communications systems because they are designed for binary data
- Most commonly used character code is the International Reference Alphabet (IRA)
  - Referred to in the United States as the American Standard Code for Information Interchange (ASCII)
- Another code used to encode characters is the Extended Binary Coded Decimal Interchange Code (EBCDIC)
  - EBCDIC is used on IBM mainframes

Logical Data

- An *n*-bit unit consisting of *n* 1-bit items of data, each item having the value 0 or 1
- Two advantages to bit-oriented view:
  - Memory can be used most efficiently for storing an array of Boolean or binary data items in which each item can take on only the values 1 (true) and 0 (false)
  - To manipulate the bits of a data item
    - If floating-point operations are implemented in software, we need to be able to shift significant bits in some operations
    - To convert from IRA to packed decimal, we need to extract the rightmost 4 bits of each byte

Data Type	Description
General	Byte, word (16 bits), doubleword (32 bits), quadword (64 bits), and double quadword (128 bits) locations with arbitrary binary contents.
Integer	A signed binary value co4ntained in a byte, word, or doubleword, using twos complement representation.
Ordinal	An unsigned integer contained in a byte, word, or doubleword.
Unpacked binary coded decimal (BCD)	A representation of a BCD digit in the range 0 through 9, with one digit in each byte.
Packed BCD	Packed byte representation of two BCD digits; value in the range 0 to 99.
Near pointer	A 16-bit, 32-bit, or 64-bit effective address that represents the offset within a segment. Used for all pointers in a nonsegmented memory and for references within a segment in a segmented memory.
Far pointer	A logical address consisting of a 16-bit segment selector and an offset of 16, 32, or 64 bits. Far pointers are used for memory references in a segmented memory model where the identity of a segment being accessed must be specified explicitly.
Bit field	A contiguous sequence of bits in which the position of each bit is considered as an independent unit. A bit string can begin at any bit position of any byte and can contain up to 32 bits.
Bit string	A contiguous sequence of bits, containing from zero to $2_{32} - 1$ bits.
Byte string	A contiguous sequence of bytes, words, or doublewords, containing from zero to $2_{32} - 1$ bytes.
Floating point	See Figure 12.4.
Packed SIMD (single instruction, multiple data)	Packed 64-bit and 128-bit data types

Table 12.2

x86 Data Types

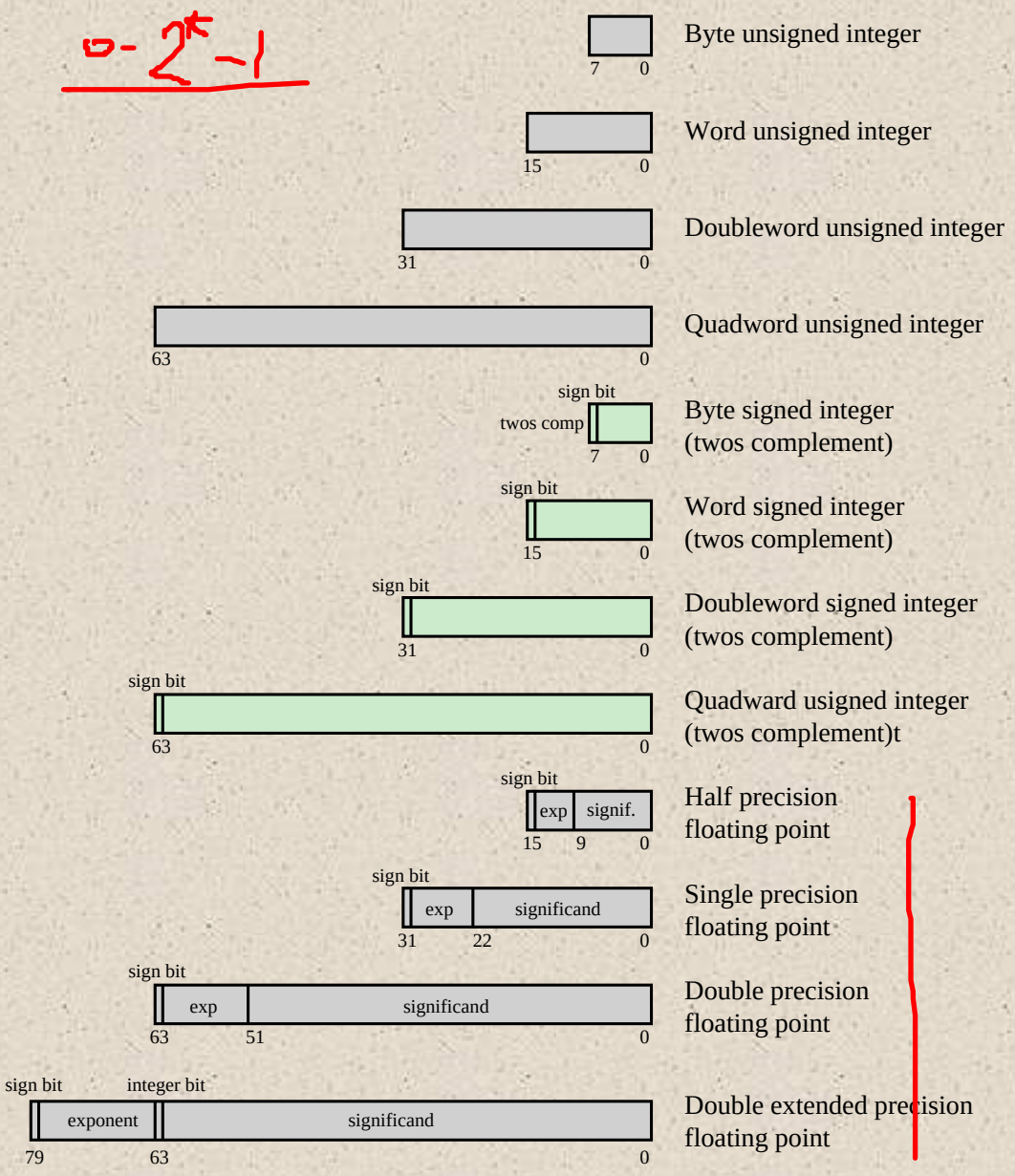
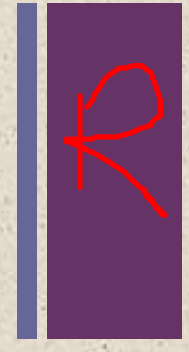


Figure 12.4 x86 Numeric Data Formats

Single-Instruction-Multiple-Data (SIMD) Data Types

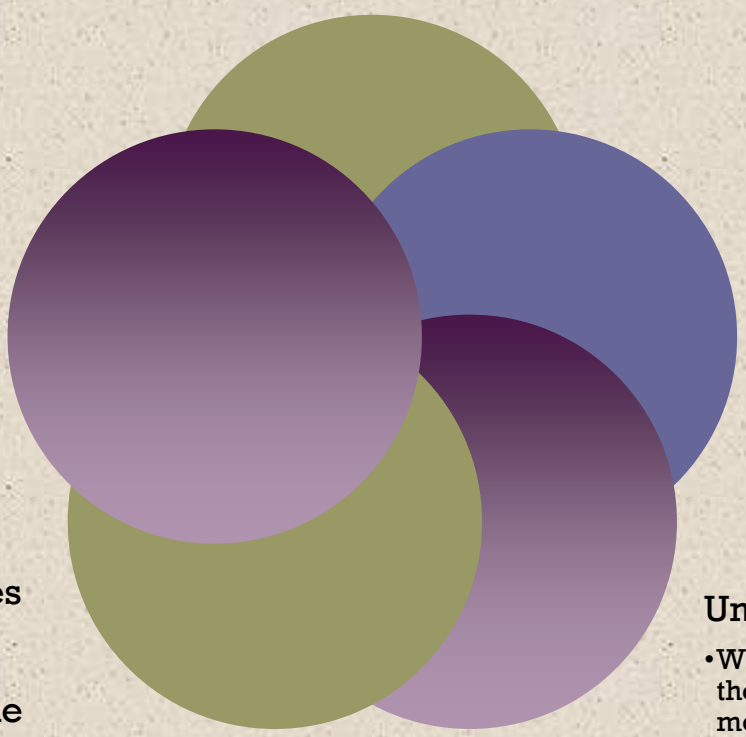


- Introduced to the x86 architecture as part of the extensions of the instruction set to optimize performance of multimedia applications
- These extensions include MMX (multimedia extensions) and SSE (streaming SIMD extensions)
- Data types:
  - Packed byte and packed byte integer
  - Packed word and packed word integer
  - Packed doubleword and packed doubleword integer
  - Packed quadword and packed quadword integer
  - Packed single-precision floating-point and packed double-precision floating-point

ARM Data Types

ARM processors support data types of:

- 8 (byte)
- 16 (halfword)
- 32 (word) bits in length



All three data types can also be used for twos complement signed integers

For all three data types an unsigned interpretation is supported in which the value represents an unsigned, nonnegative integer

Alignment checking

- When the appropriate control bit is set, a data abort signal indicates an alignment fault for attempting unaligned access

Unaligned access

- When this option is enabled, the processor uses one or more memory accesses to generate the required transfer of adjacent bytes transparently to the programmer

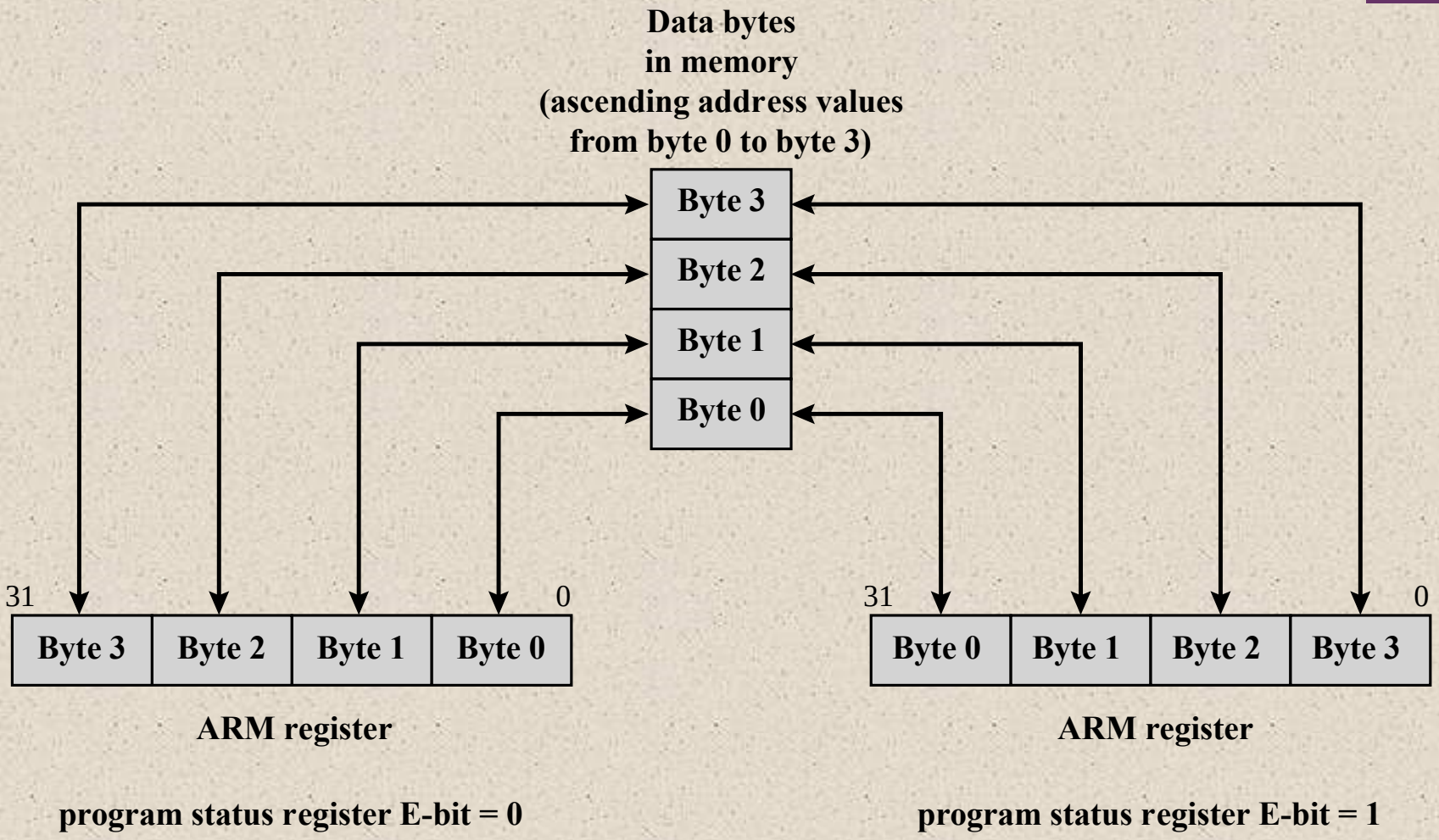


Figure 12.5 ARM Endian Support - Word Load/Store with E-bit

Type	Operation Name	Description
Data Transfer	Move (transfer)	Transfer word or block from source to destination
	Store	Transfer word from processor to memory
	Load (fetch)	Transfer word from memory to processor
	Exchange	Swap contents of source and destination
	Clear (reset)	Transfer word of 0s to destination
	Set	Transfer word of 1s to destination
	Push	Transfer word from source to top of stack
	Pop	Transfer word from top of stack to destination
Arithmetic	Add	Compute sum of two operands
	Subtract	Compute difference of two operands
	Multiply	Compute product of two operands
	Divide	Compute quotient of two operands
	Absolute	Replace operand by its absolute value
	Negate	Change sign of operand
	Increment	Add 1 to operand
	Decrement	Subtract 1 from operand
Logical	AND	Perform logical AND
	OR	Perform logical OR
	NOT (complement)	Perform logical NOT
	Exclusive-OR	Perform logical XOR
	Test	Test specified condition; set flag(s) based on outcome
	Compare	Make logical or arithmetic comparison of two or more operands; set flag(s) based on outcome
	Set Control Variables	Class of instructions to set controls for protection purposes, interrupt handling, timer control, etc.
	Shift	Left (right) shift operand, introducing constants at end
	Rotate	Left (right) shift operand, with wraparound end

3. Type Of Operations

Common Instruction Set Operations (page 1 of 2)

(Table can be found on page 426 in textbook.)

Type	Operation Name	Description
Transfer of Control	Jump (branch)	Unconditional transfer; load PC with specified address
	Jump Conditional	Test specified condition; either load PC with specified address or do nothing, based on condition
	Jump to Subroutine	Place current program control information in known location; jump to specified address
	Return	Replace contents of PC and other register from known location
	Execute	Fetch operand from specified location and execute as instruction; do not modify PC
	Skip	Increment PC to skip next instruction
	Skip Conditional	Test specified condition; either skip or do nothing based on condition
	Halt	Stop program execution
	Wait (hold)	Stop program execution; test specified condition repeatedly; resume execution when condition is satisfied
	No operation	No operation is performed, but program execution is continued
Input/Output	Input (read)	Transfer data from specified I/O port or device to destination (e.g., main memory or processor register)
	Output (write)	Transfer data from specified source to I/O port or device
	Start I/O	Transfer instructions to I/O processor to initiate I/O operation
	Test I/O	Transfer status information from I/O system to specified destination
Conversion	Translate	Translate values in a section of memory based on a table of correspondences
	Convert	Convert the contents of a word from one form to another (e.g., packed decimal to binary)

Table 12.3

Common Instruction Set Operations (page 2 of 2)

(Table can be found on page 426 in textbook.)

Table 12.4
Processor Actions for Various Types of Operations

Data Transfer	Transfer data from one location to another
	If memory is involved: Determine memory address Perform virtual-to-actual-memory address transformation Check cache Initiate memory read/write
Arithmetic	May involve data transfer, before and/or after
	Perform function in ALU
	Set condition codes and flags
Logical	Same as arithmetic
Conversion	Similar to arithmetic and logical. May involve special logic to perform conversion
Transfer of Control	Update program counter. For subroutine call/return, manage parameter passing and linkage
I/O	Issue command to I/O module
	If memory-mapped I/O, determine memory-mapped address

(Table can be found on page 427 in textbook.)

Data Transfer

Most fundamental type of machine instruction

Must specify:

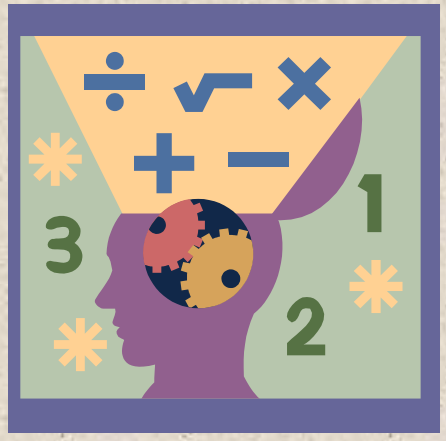
- Location of the source and destination operands
- The length of data to be transferred must be indicated
- The mode of addressing for each operand must be specified

Table 12.5
Examples of IBM EAS/390 Data Transfer Operations

Operation Mnemonic	Name	Number of Bits Transferred	Description
L	Load	32	Transfer from memory to register
LH	Load Halfword	16	Transfer from memory to register
LR	Load	32	Transfer from register to register
LER	Load (Short)	32	Transfer from floating-point register to floating-point register
LE	Load (Short)	32	Transfer from memory to floating-point register
LDR	Load (Long)	64	Transfer from floating-point register to floating-point register
LD	Load (Long)	64	Transfer from memory to floating-point register
ST	Store	32	Transfer from register to memory
STH	Store Halfword	16	Transfer from register to memory
STC	Store Character	8	Transfer from register to memory
STE	Store (Short)	32	Transfer from floating-point register to memory
STD	Store (Long)	64	Transfer from floating-point register to memory

(Table can be found on page 428 in textbook.)

Arithmetic

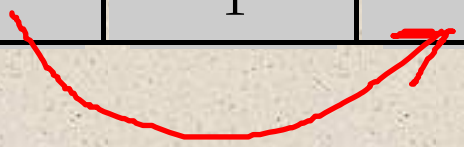


- Most machines provide the basic arithmetic operations of add, subtract, multiply, and divide
- These are provided for signed integer (fixed-point) numbers
- Often they are also provided for floating-point and packed decimal numbers
- Other possible operations include a variety of single-operand instructions:
  - Absolute
    - Take the absolute value of the operand
  - Negate
    - Negate the operand
  - Increment
    - Add 1 to the operand

  Decrement
    - Subtract 1 from the operand

Table 12.6
Basic Logical Operations

	P	Q	NOT P	P AND Q	P OR Q	P XOR Q	P=Q
1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
2	0	1	1	0	1	1	0
3	1	0	0	0	1	1	0
4	1	1	0	1	1	0	1



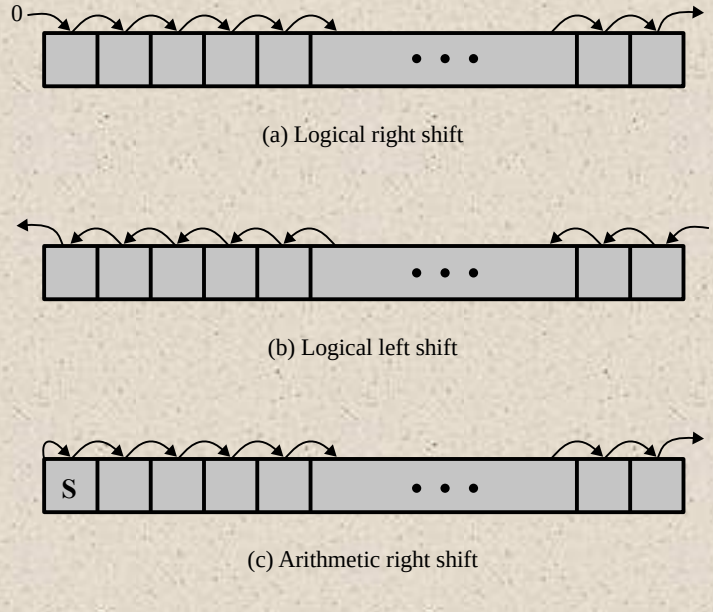


Figure 12.6 Shift and Rotate Operations

Table 12.7

Examples of Shift and Rotate Operations

Input	Operation	Result
10100110	Logical right shift (3 bits)	00010100
10100110	Logical left shift (3 bits)	00110000
10100110	Arithmetic right shift (3 bits)	11110100
10100110	Arithmetic left shift (3 bits)	10110000
10100110	Right rotate (3 bits)	11010100
10100110	Left rotate (3 bits)	00110101

Conversion

Instructions that change the format or operate on the format of data

An example is converting from decimal to binary

An example of a more complex editing instruction is the EAS/390 Translate (TR) instruction

Input/Output

- Variety of approaches taken:
  - Isolated programmed I/O
  - Memory-mapped programmed I/O
  - DMA
  - Use of an I/O processor
- Many implementations provide only a few I/O instructions, with the specific actions specified by parameters, codes, or command words

System Control

Instructions that can be executed only while the processor is in a certain privileged state or is executing a program in a special privileged area of memory

Typically these instructions are reserved for the use of the operating system

Examples of system control operations:

- A system control instruction may read or alter a control register
- An instruction to read or modify a storage protection key
- Access to process control blocks in a multiprogramming system

Transfer of Control

- Reasons why transfer-of-control operations are required:
  - It is essential to be able to execute each instruction more than once
  - Virtually all programs involve some decision making
  - It helps if there are mechanisms for breaking the task up into smaller pieces that can be worked on one at a time
- Most common transfer-of-control operations found in instruction sets:
  - Branch
  - Skip
  - Procedure call

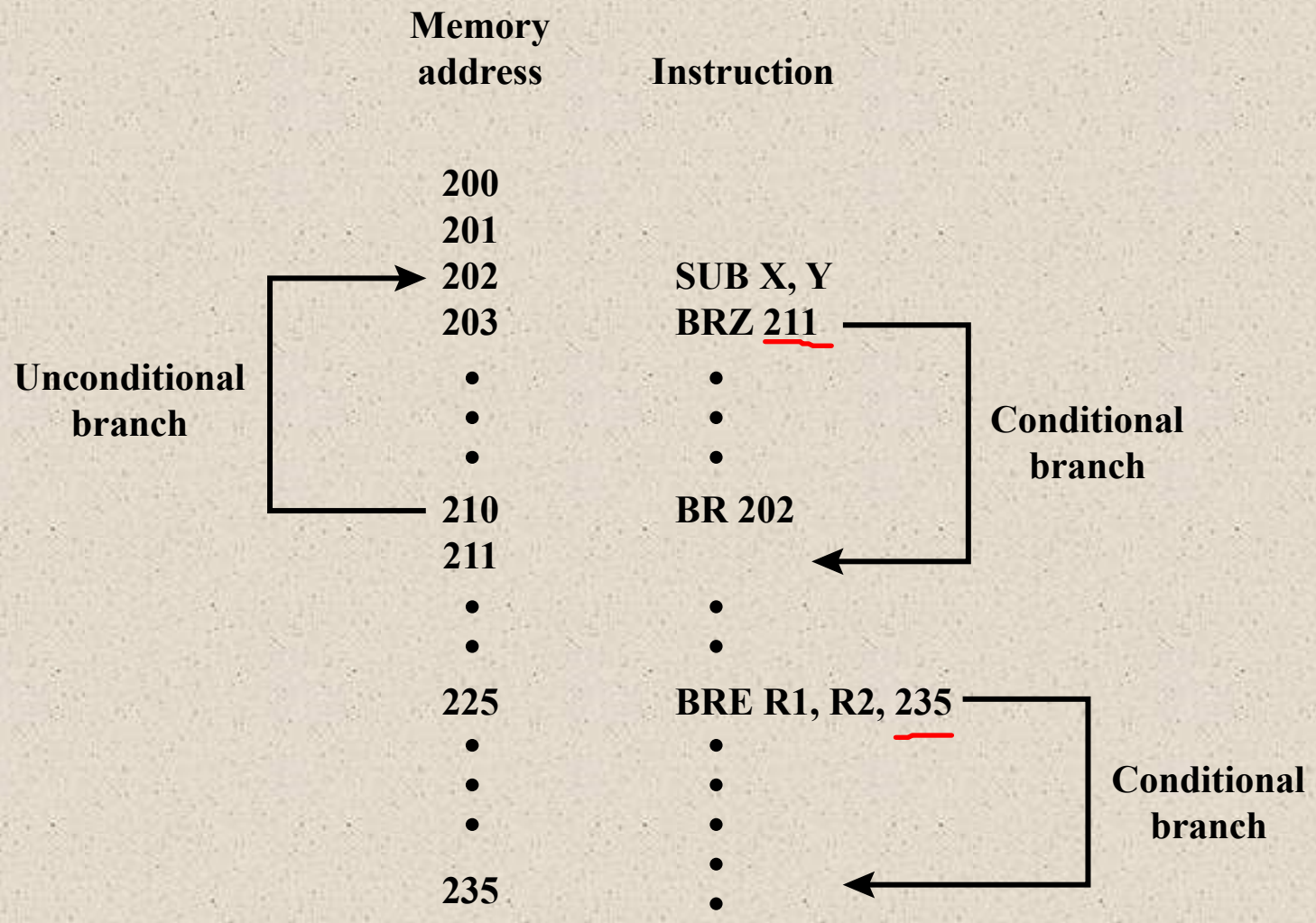


Figure 12.7 Branch Instructions

Skip Instructions

Includes an implied address

Typically implies that one instruction be skipped, thus the implied address equals the address of the next instruction plus one instruction length

Because the skip instruction does not require a destination address field it is free to do other things

Example is the increment-and-skip-if-zero (ISZ) instruction

Procedure Call Instructions

- Self-contained computer program that is incorporated into a larger program
  - At any point in the program the procedure may be invoked, or *called*
  - Processor is instructed to go and execute the entire procedure and then return to the point from which the call took place
- Two principal reasons for use of procedures:
  - Economy
    - A procedure allows the same piece of code to be used many times
  - Modularity
- Involves two basic instructions:
  - A call instruction that branches from the present location to the procedure
  - Return instruction that returns from the procedure to the place from which it was called

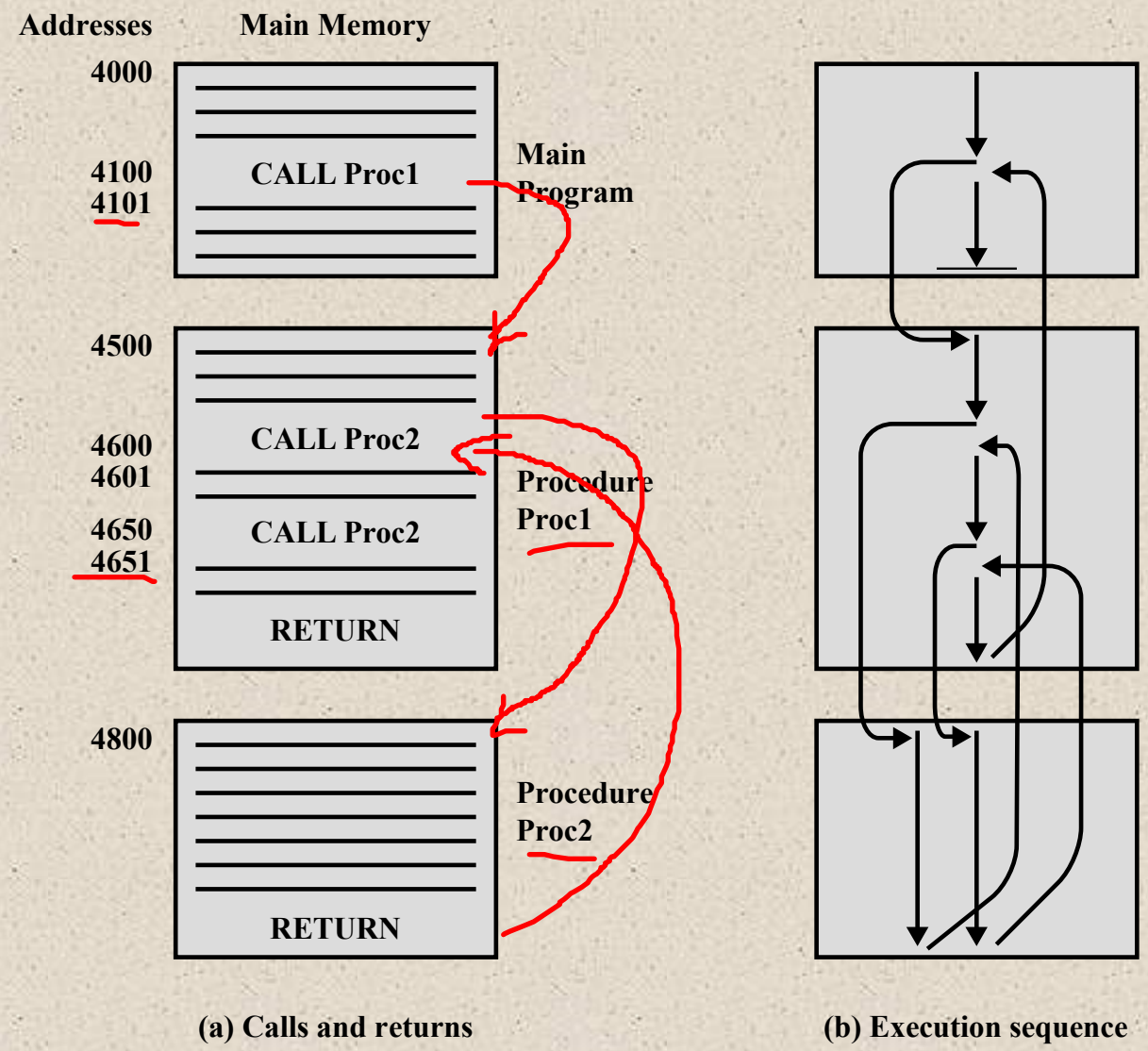


Figure 12.8 Nested Procedures

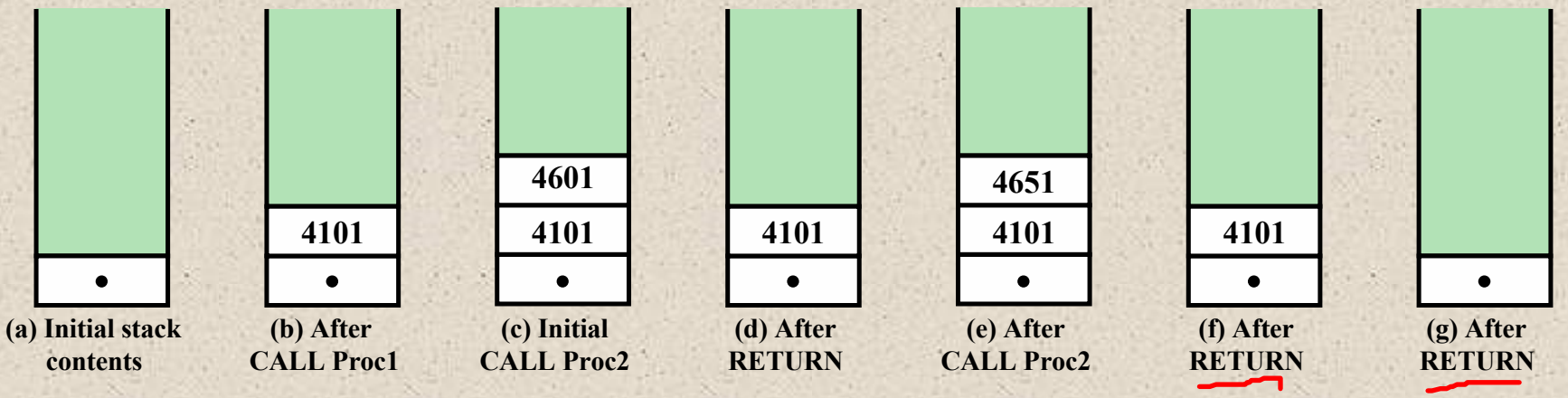


Figure 12.9 Use of Stack to Implement Nested Procedures of Figure 12.8

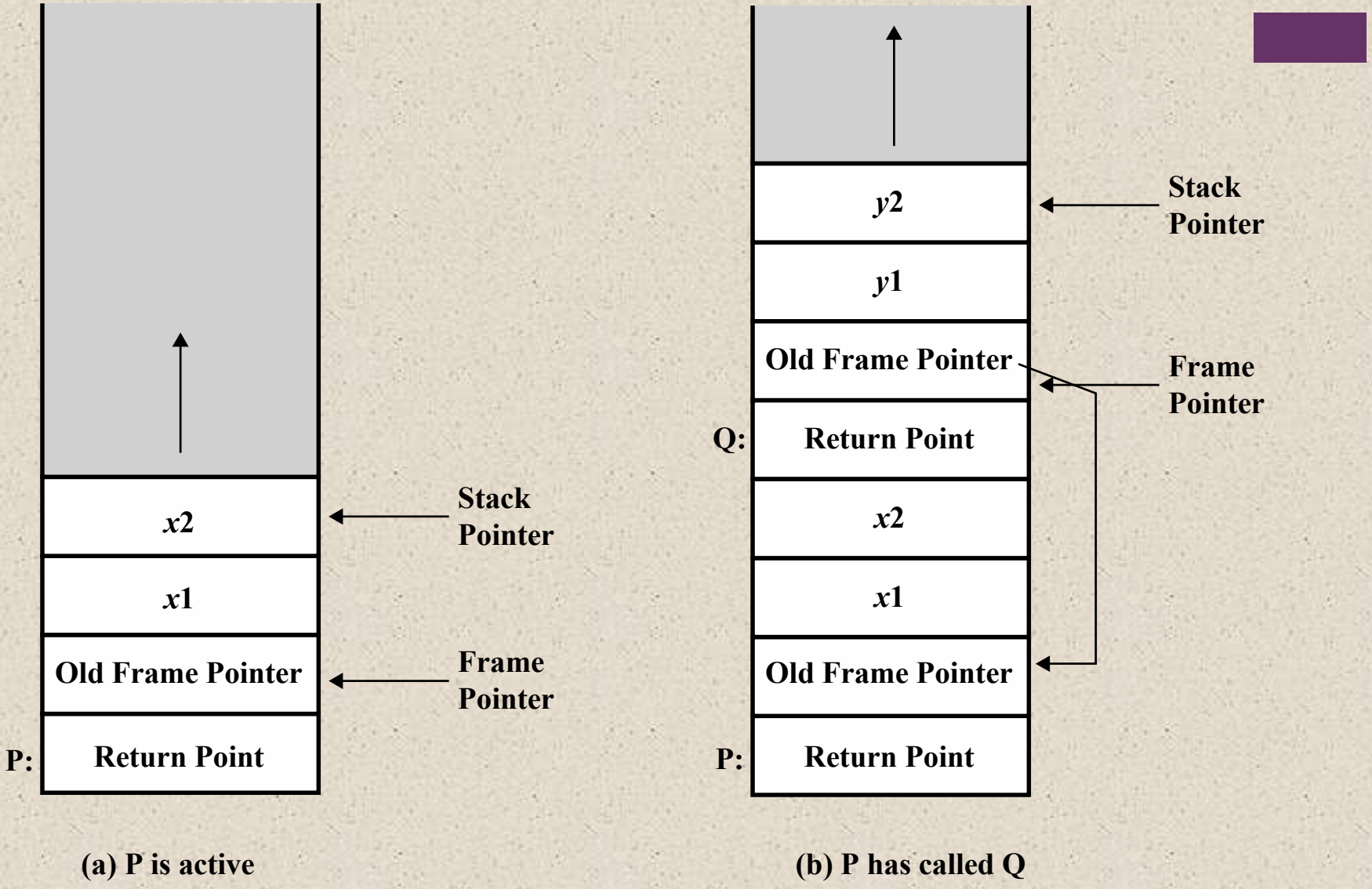
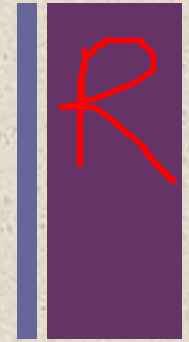


Figure 12.10 Stack Frame Growth Using Sample Procedures P and Q

x86 Operation Types



- The x86 provides a complex array of operation types including a number of specialized instructions
- The intent was to provide tools for the compiler writer to produce optimized machine language translation of high-level language programs
- Provides four instructions to support procedure call/return:
  - CALL
  - ENTER
  - LEAVE
  - RETURN
- When a new procedure is called the following must be performed upon entry to the new procedure:
  - Push the return point on the stack
  - Push the current frame pointer on the stack
  - Copy the stack pointer as the new value of the frame pointer
  - Adjust the stack pointer to allocate a frame

Table 12.8
x86 Status Flags

Status Bit	Name	Description
CF	Carry	Indicates carrying or borrowing out of the left-most bit position following an arithmetic operation. Also modified by some of the shift and rotate operations.
PF	Parity	Parity of the least-significant byte of the result of an arithmetic or logic operation. 1 indicates even parity; 0 indicates odd parity.
AF	Auxiliary Carry	Represents carrying or borrowing between half-bytes of an 8-bit arithmetic or logic operation. Used in binary-coded decimal arithmetic.
ZF	Zero	Indicates that the result of an arithmetic or logic operation is 0.
SF	Sign	Indicates the sign of the result of an arithmetic or logic operation.
OF	Overflow	Indicates an arithmetic overflow after an addition or subtraction for twos complement arithmetic.

Symbol	Condition Tested	Comment
A, NBE	CF=0 AND ZF=0	Above; Not below or equal (greater than, unsigned)
AE, NB, NC	CF=0	Above or equal; Not below (greater than or equal, unsigned); Not carry
B, NAE, C	CF=1	Below; Not above or equal (less than, unsigned); Carry set
BE, NA	CF=1 OR ZF=1	Below or equal; Not above (less than or equal, unsigned)
E, Z	ZF=1	Equal; Zero (signed or unsigned)
G, NLE	[(SF=1 AND OF=1) OR (SF=0 and OF=0)] AND [ZF=0]	Greater than; Not less than or equal (signed)
GE, NL	(SF=1 AND OF=1) OR (SF=0 AND OF=0)	Greater than or equal; Not less than (signed)
L, NGE	(SF=1 AND OF=0) OR (SF=0 AND OF=1)	Less than; Not greater than or equal (signed)
LE, NG	(SF=1 AND OF=0) OR (SF=0 AND OF=1) OR (ZF=1)	Less than or equal; Not greater than (signed)
NE, NZ	ZF=0	Not equal; Not zero (signed or unsigned)
NO	OF=0	No overflow
NS	SF=0	Not sign (not negative)
NP, PO	PF=0	Not parity; Parity odd
O	OF=1	Overflow
P	PF=1	Parity; Parity even
S	SF=1	Sign (negative)

Table 12.9

x86 Condition Codes for Conditional Jump and SETcc Instructions

(Table can be found on page 440 in the textbook.)

Category	Instruction	Description
Arithmetic	PADD [B, W, D]	Parallel add of packed eight bytes, four 16-bit words, or two 32-bit doublewords, with wraparound.
	PADDS [B, W]	Add with saturation.
	PADDUS [B, W]	Add unsigned with saturation
	PSUB [B, W, D]	Subtract with wraparound.
	PSUBS [B, W]	Subtract with saturation.
	PSUBUS [B, W]	Subtract unsigned with saturation
	PMULHW	Parallel multiply of four signed 16-bit words, with high-order 16 bits of 32-bit result chosen.
	PMULLW	Parallel multiply of four signed 16-bit words, with low-order 16 bits of 32-bit result chosen.
	PMADDWD	Parallel multiply of four signed 16-bit words; add together adjacent pairs of 32-bit results.
Comparison	PCMPEQ [B, W, D]	Parallel compare for equality; result is mask of 1s if true or 0s if false.
	PCMPGT [B, W, D]	Parallel compare for greater than; result is mask of 1s if true or 0s if false.
Conversion	PACKUSWB	Pack words into bytes with unsigned saturation.
	PACKSS [WB, DW]	Pack words into bytes, or doublewords into words, with signed saturation.
	PUNPCKH [BW, WD, DQ]	Parallel unpack (interleaved merge) high-order bytes, words, or doublewords from MMX register.
	PUNPCKL [BW, WD, DQ]	Parallel unpack (interleaved merge) low-order bytes, words, or doublewords from MMX register.
Logical	PAND	64-bit bitwise logical AND
	PNDN	64-bit bitwise logical AND NOT
	POR	64-bit bitwise logical OR
	PXOR	64-bit bitwise logical XOR
Shift	PSLL [W, D, Q]	Parallel logical left shift of packed words, doublewords, or quadword by amount specified in MMX register or immediate value.
	PSRL [W, D, Q]	Parallel logical right shift of packed words, doublewords, or quadword.
	PSRA [W, D]	Parallel arithmetic right shift of packed words, doublewords, or quadword.
Data Transfer	MOV [D, Q]	Move doubleword or quadword to/from MMX register.
State Mgt	EMMS	Empty MMX state (empty FP registers tag bits).

Note: If an instruction supports multiple data types [byte (B), word (W), doubleword (D), quadword (Q)], the data types are indicated in brackets.

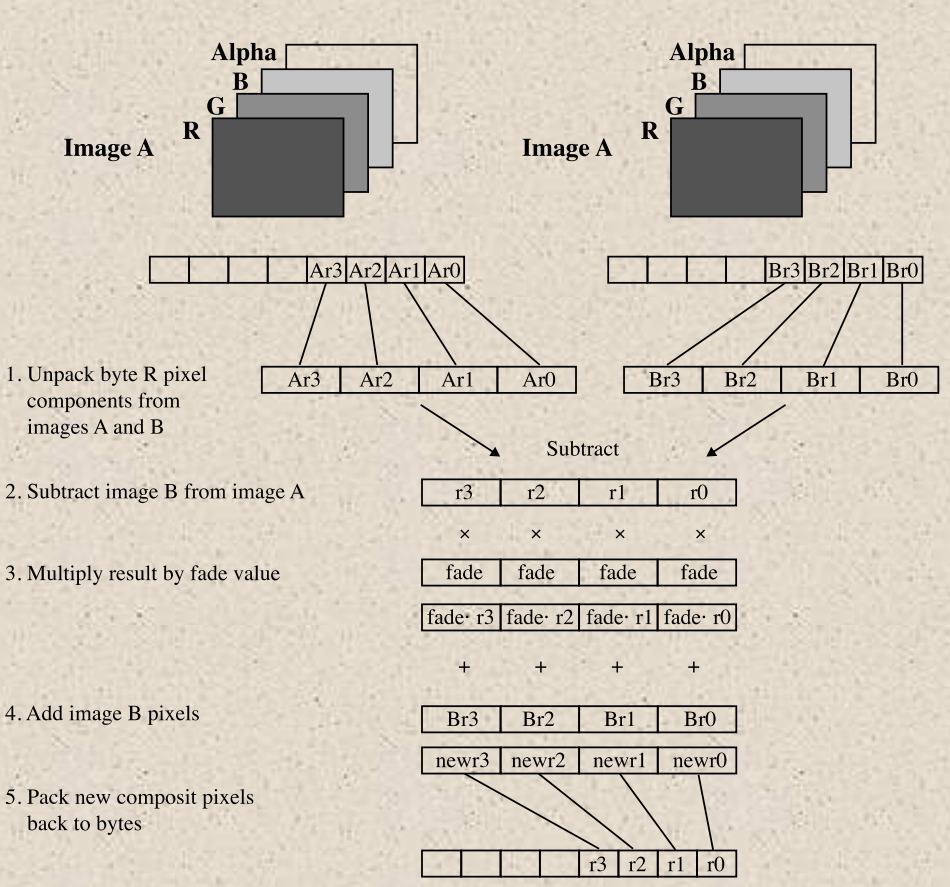
Table 12.10

MMX Instruction Set

(Table can be found on page 442 in the textbook.)

x86 Single-Instruction, Multiple-Data (SIMD) Instructions

- 1996 Intel introduced MMX technology into its Pentium product line
  - MMX is a set of highly optimized instructions for multimedia tasks
- Video and audio data are typically composed of large arrays of small data types
- Three new data types are defined in MMX
  - Packed byte
  - Packed word
  - Packed doubleword
- Each data type is 64 bits in length and consists of multiple smaller data fields, each of which holds a fixed-point integer



MMX code sequence performing this operation:

```
pxor      mm7, mm7      ;zero out mm7
movq      mm3, fad_val  ;load fade value replicated 4 times
movd      mm0, imageA   ;load 4 red pixel components from image A
movd      mm1, imageB   ;load 4 red pixel components from image B
punpckblw mm0, mm7      ;unpack 4 pixels to 16 bits
punpckblw mm1, mm7      ;unpack 4 pixels to 16 bits
psubw     mm0, mm1      ;subtract image B from image A
pmulhw    mm0, mm3      ;multiply the subtract result by fade values
padddw    mm0, mm1      ;add result to image B
packuswb  mm0, mm7      ;pack 16-bit results back to bytes
```

Figure 12.11 Image Compositing on Color Plane Representation

ARM Operation Types

- Load and store instructions
- Branch instructions
- Data-processing instructions
- Multiply instructions
- Parallel addition and subtraction instructions
- Extend instructions
- Status register access instructions

Code	Symbol	Condition Tested	Comment
0000	EQ	Z = 1	Equal
0001	NE	Z = 0	Not equal
0010	CS/HS	C = 1	Carry set/unsigned higher or same
0011	CC/LO	C = 0	Carry clear/unsigned lower
0100	MI	N = 1	Minus/negative
0101	PL	N = 0	Plus/positive or zero
0110	VS	V = 1	Overflow
0111	VC	V = 0	No overflow
1000	HI	C = 1 AND Z = 0	Unsigned higher
1001	LS	C = 0 OR Z = 1	Unsigned lower or same
1010	GE	N = V [(N = 1 AND V = 1) OR (N = 0 AND V = 0)	Signed greater than or equal
1011	LT	N ≠ V [(N = 1 AND V = 0) OR (N = 0 AND V = 1)]	Signed less than
1100	GT	(Z = 0) AND (N = V)	Signed greater than
1101	LE	(Z = 1) OR (N ≠ V)	Signed less than or equal
1110	AL	—	Always (unconditional)
1111	—	—	This instruction can only be executed unconditionally

Table 12.11

ARM Conditions for Conditional Instruction Execution

(Table can be found on Page 445 in the textbook.)

RoadMap

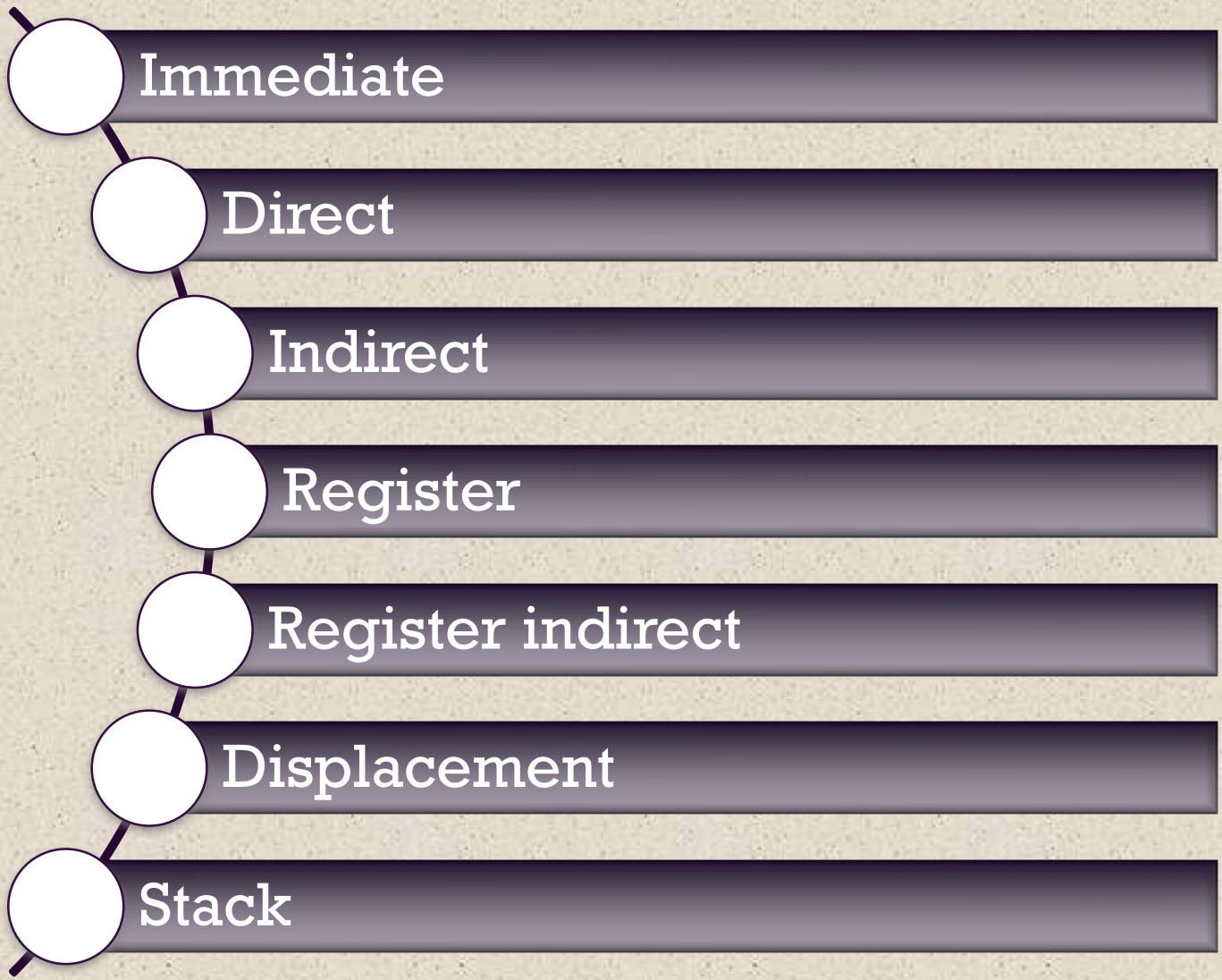
Chapter

- Addressing modes
  - Immediate addressing
  - Direct addressing
  - Indirect addressing
  - Register addressing
  - Register indirect addressing
  - Displacement addressing
  - Stack addressing
- Assembly language

Instruction Sets: Addressing Modes and Formats

- x86 addressing modes
- ARM addressing modes
- Instruction formats
  - Instruction length
  - Allocation of bits
  - Variable-length instructions
- X86 instruction formats
- ARM instruction formats

4. Addressing Modes



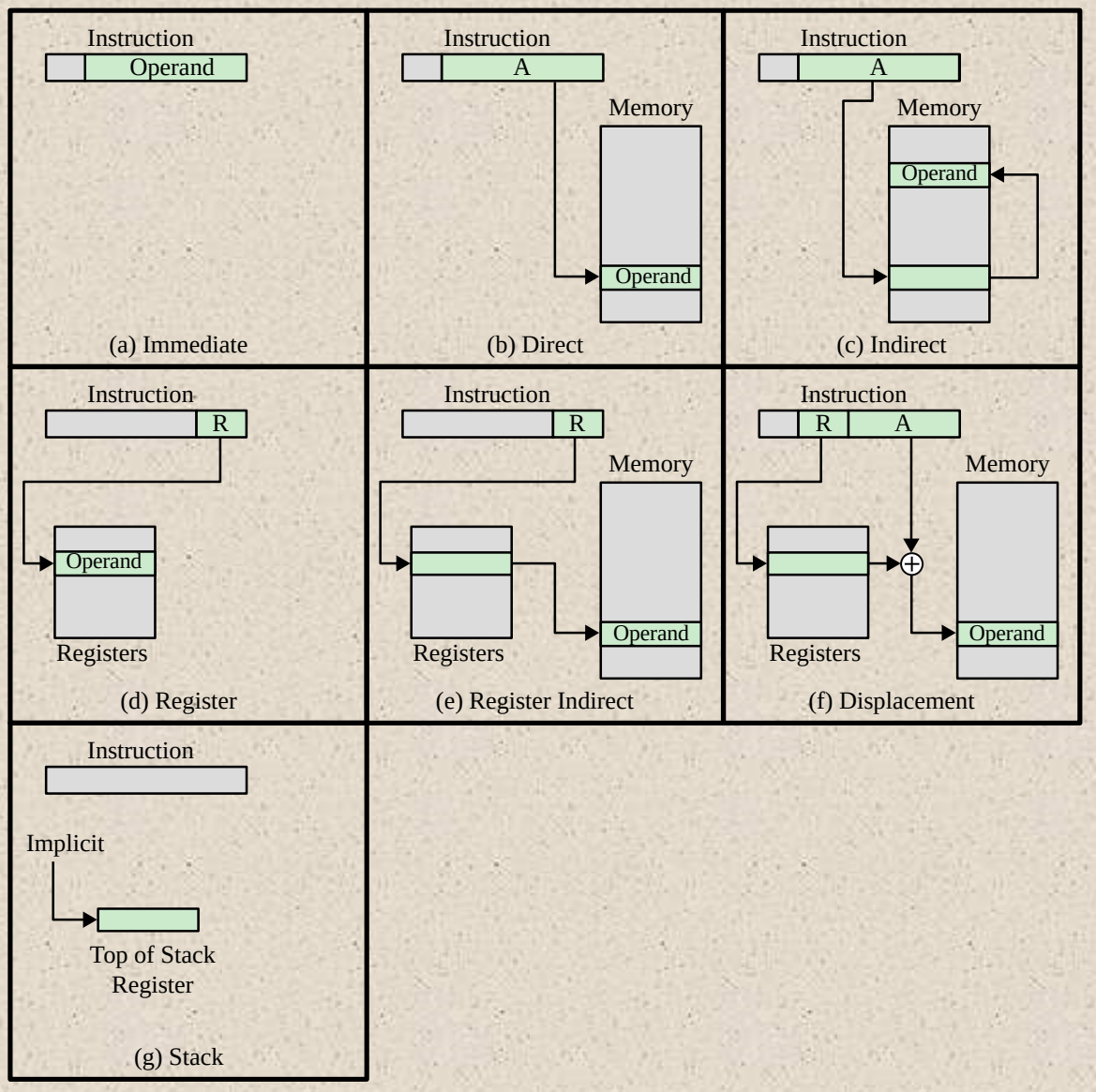


Figure 13.1 Addressing Modes

Table 13.1
Basic Addressing Modes

Mode	Algorithm	Principal Advantage	Principal Disadvantage
Immediate	Operand = A	No memory reference	Limited operand magnitude
Direct	EA = A	Simple	Limited address space
Indirect	EA = (A)	Large address space	Multiple memory references
Register	EA = R	No memory reference	Limited address space
Register indirect	EA = (R)	Large address space	Extra memory reference
Displacement	EA = A + (R)	Flexibility	Complexity
Stack	EA = top of stack	No memory reference	Limited applicability

Immediate Addressing

- Simplest form of addressing
- Operand = A
- This mode can be used to define and use constants or set initial values of variables
  - Typically the number will be stored in twos complement form
  - The leftmost bit of the operand field is used as a sign bit
- Advantage:
  - No memory reference other than the instruction fetch is required to obtain the operand, thus saving one memory or cache cycle in the instruction cycle
- Disadvantage:
  - The size of the number is restricted to the size of the address field, which, in most instruction sets, is small compared with the word length

Direct Addressing

Address field contains the effective address of the operand

Effective address (EA) = address field (A)

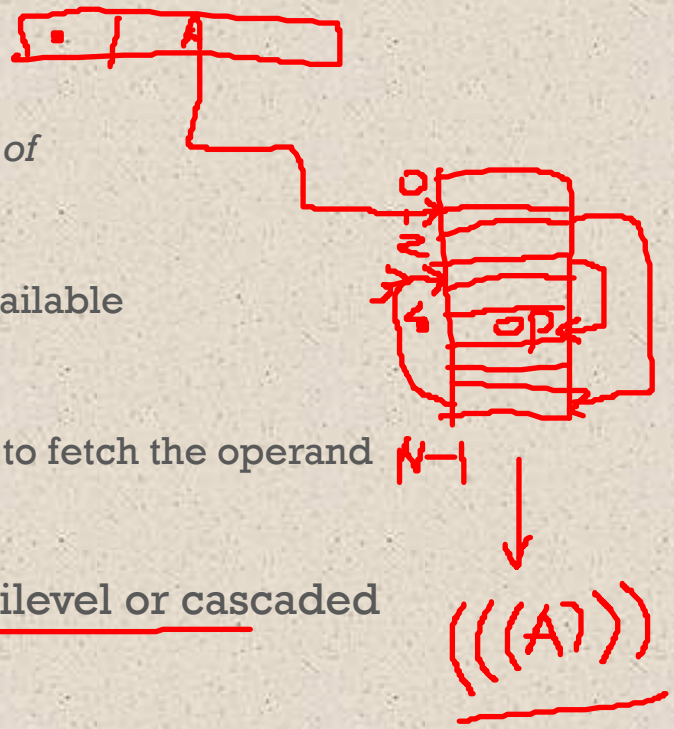
Was common in earlier generations of computers

Requires only one memory reference and no special calculation

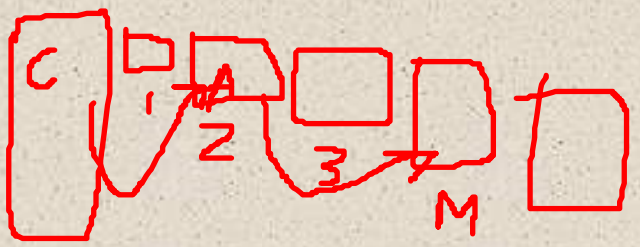
Limitation is that it provides only a limited address space

Indirect Addressing

- Reference to the address of a word in memory which contains a full-length address of the operand
- EA = (A)
  - Parentheses are to be interpreted as meaning *contents of*
- Advantage:
  - For a word length of *N* an address space of 2^N is now available
- Disadvantage:
  - Instruction execution requires two memory references to fetch the operand
    - One to get its address and a second to get its value
- A rarely used variant of indirect addressing is multilevel or cascaded indirect addressing
  - EA = (. . . (A) . . .)
  - Disadvantage is that three or more memory references could be required to fetch an operand



Register Addressing



Address field refers to a register rather than a main memory address

EA = R

Advantages:

- Only a small address field is needed in the instruction
- No time-consuming memory references are required

Disadvantage:

- The address space is very limited

Register Indirect Addressing

- Analogous to indirect addressing
  - The only difference is whether the address field refers to a memory location or a register
- EA = (R)
- Address space limitation of the address field is overcome by having that field refer to a word-length location containing an address
- Uses one less memory reference than indirect addressing

Displacement Addressing

- Combines the capabilities of direct addressing and register indirect addressing
- EA = A + (R)
- Requires that the instruction have two address fields, at least one of which is explicit
  - The value contained in one address field (value = A) is used directly
  - The other address field refers to a register whose contents are added to A to produce the effective address
- Most common uses:
  - Relative addressing
  - Base-register addressing
  - Indexing

Relative Addressing

The implicitly referenced register is the program counter (PC)

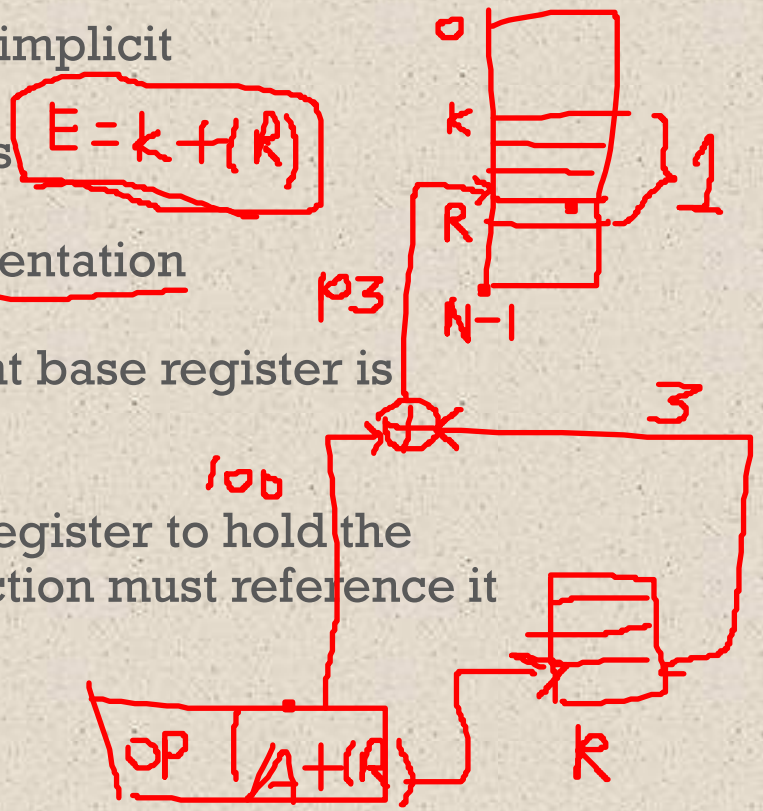
- The next instruction address is added to the address field to produce the EA
- Typically the address field is treated as a twos complement number for this operation
- Thus the effective address is a displacement relative to the address of the instruction

Exploits the concept of locality

Saves address bits in the instruction if most memory references are relatively near to the instruction being executed

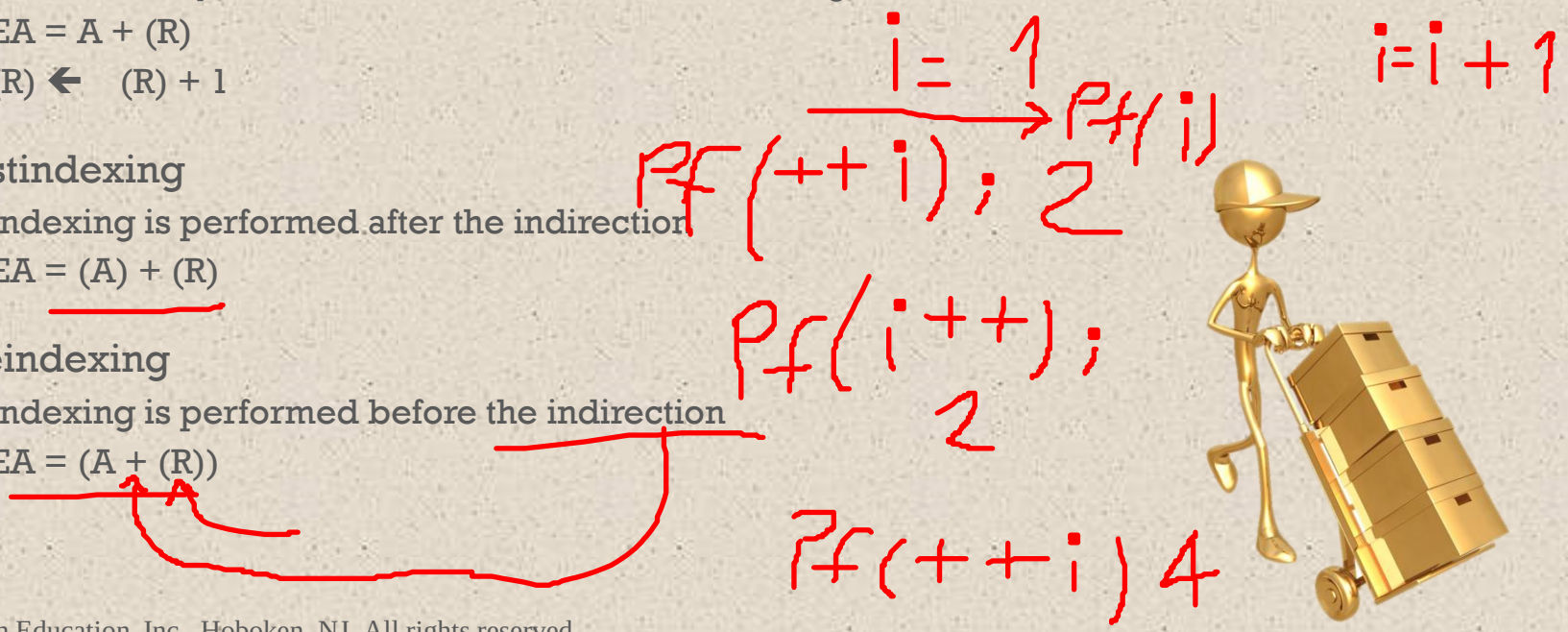
Base-Register Addressing

- The referenced register contains a main memory address and the address field contains a displacement from that address
- The register reference may be explicit or implicit
- Exploits the locality of memory references
- Convenient means of implementing segmentation
- In some implementations a single segment base register is employed and is used implicitly
- In others the programmer may choose a register to hold the base address of a segment and the instruction must reference it explicitly



Indexing

- The address field references a main memory address and the referenced register contains a positive displacement from that address
- The method of calculating the EA is the same as for base-register addressing
- An important use is to provide an efficient mechanism for performing iterative operations
- Autoindexing
  - Automatically increment or decrement the index register after each reference to it
  - EA = A + (R)
  - (R) ← (R) + 1
- Postindexing
  - Indexing is performed after the indirection
  - EA = (A) + (R)
- Preindexing
  - Indexing is performed before the indirection
  - EA = (A + (R))



Stack Addressing

- A stack is a linear array of locations
  - Sometimes referred to as a *pushdown list* or *last-in-first-out queue*
- A stack is a reserved block of locations
  - Items are appended to the top of the stack so that the block is partially filled
- Associated with the stack is a pointer whose value is the address of the top of the stack
  - The stack pointer is maintained in a register
  - Thus references to stack locations in memory are in fact register indirect addresses
- Is a form of implied addressing
- The machine instructions need not include a memory reference but implicitly operate on the top of the stack

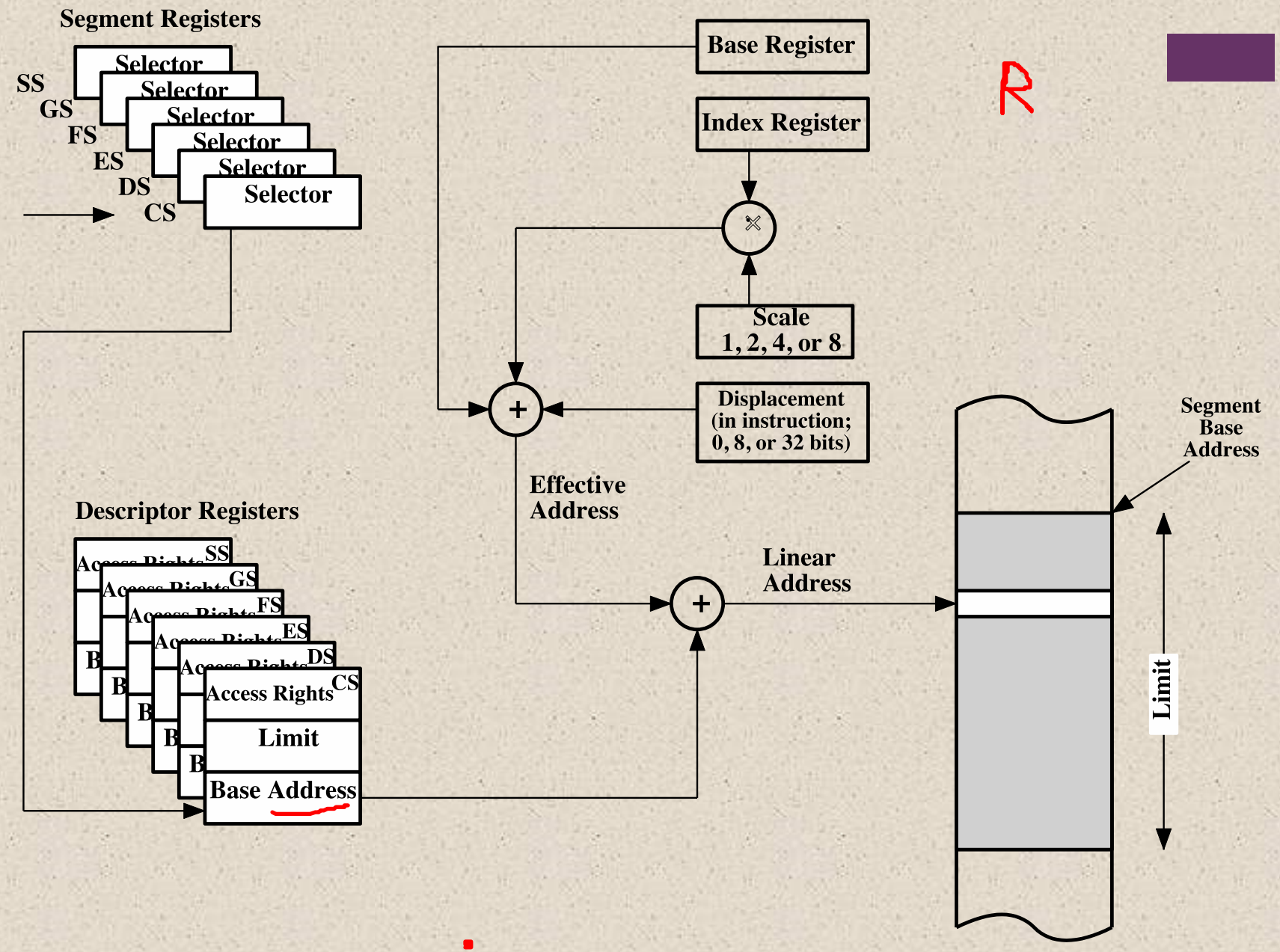


Figure 13.2 x86 Addressing Mode Calculation

Table 13.2
x86 Addressing Modes

Mode	Algorithm
Immediate	Operand = A
Register Operand	LA = R
Displacement	LA = (SR) + A
Base	LA = (SR) + (B)
Base with Displacement	LA = (SR) + (B) + A
Scaled Index with Displacement	LA = (SR) + (I) ´ S + A
Base with Index and Displacement	LA = (SR) + (B) + (I) + A
Base with Scaled Index and Displacement	LA = (SR) + (I) ´ S + (B) + A
Relative	LA = (PC) + A

LA	=	linear address
(X)	=	contents of X
SR	=	segment register
PC	=	program counter
A	=	contents of an address field in the instruction
R	=	register
B	=	base register
I	=	index register
S	=	scaling factor

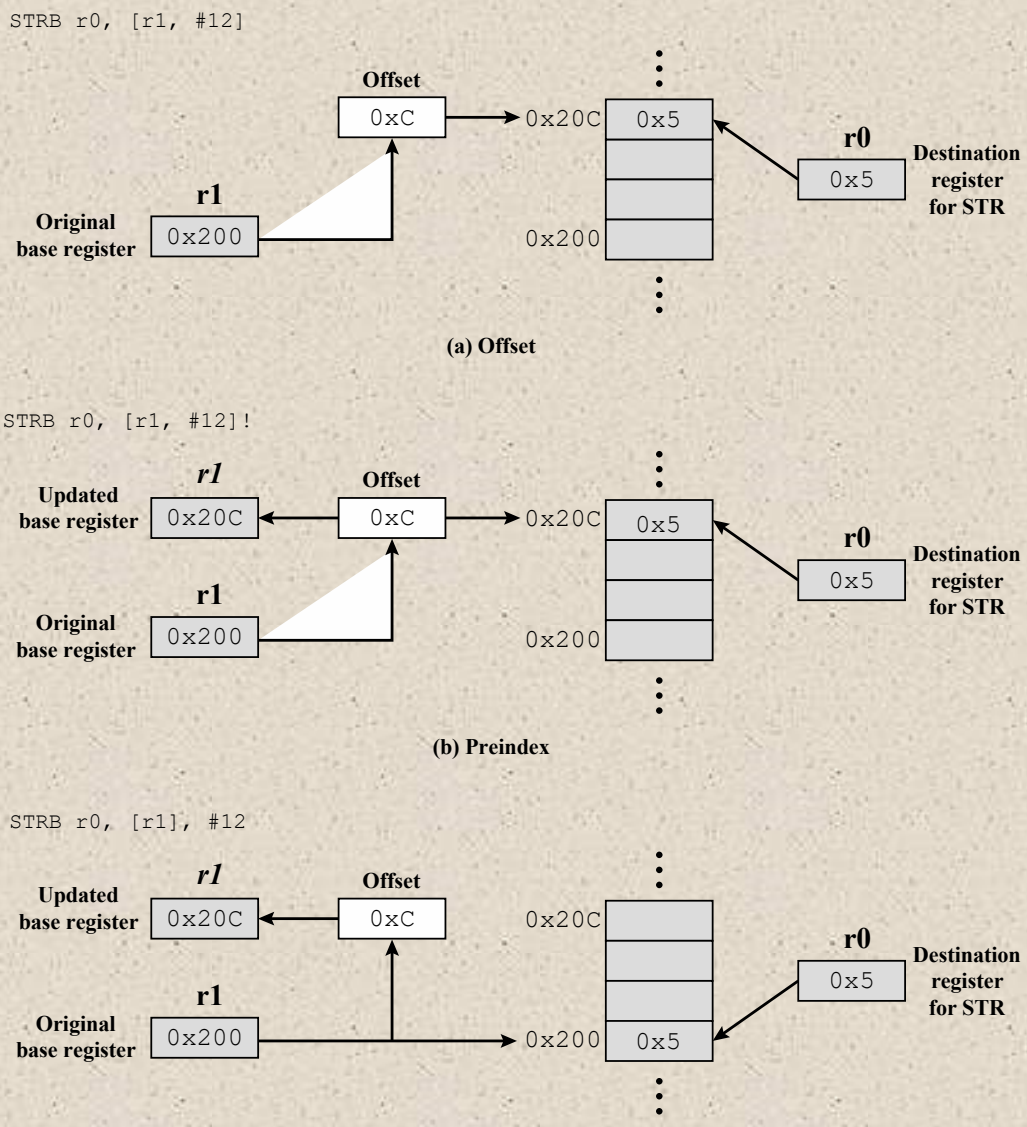


Figure 13.3 ARM Indexing Methods

ARM Data Processing Instruction Addressing and Branch Instructions

- Data processing instructions
  - Use either register addressing or a mixture of register and immediate addressing
  - For register addressing the value in one of the register operands may be scaled using one of the five shift operators

- Branch instructions
  - The only form of addressing for branch instructions is immediate
  - Instruction contains 24 bit value
    - Shifted 2 bits left so that the address is on a word boundary
    - Effective range ± 32MB from from the program counter

```
LDMxx r10, {r0, r1, r4}
STMxx r10, {r0, r1, r4}
```

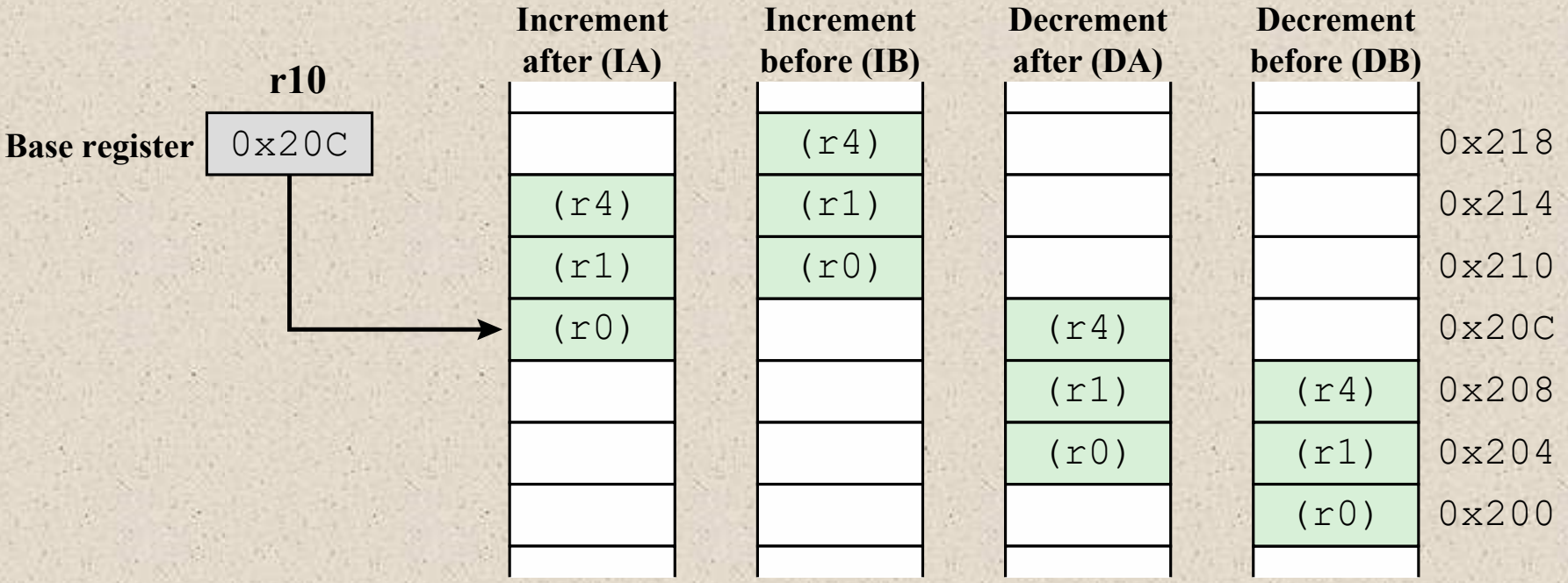


Figure 13.4 ARM Load/Store Multiple Addressing

5. Instruction Formats

Define the layout of the bits of an instruction, in terms of its constituent fields

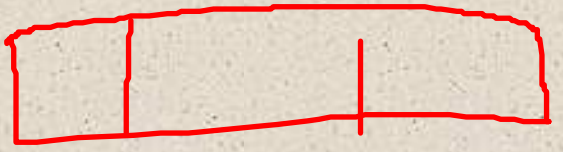
Must include an opcode and, implicitly or explicitly, indicate the addressing mode for each operand

For most instruction sets more than one instruction format is used

Instruction Length

- Most basic design issue
- Affects, and is affected by:
  - Memory size
  - Memory organization
  - Bus structure
  - Processor complexity
  - Processor speed
- Should be equal to the memory-transfer length or one should be a multiple of the other
- Should be a multiple of the character length, which is usually 8 bits, and of the length of fixed-point numbers

Allocation of Bits



Number of addressing modes

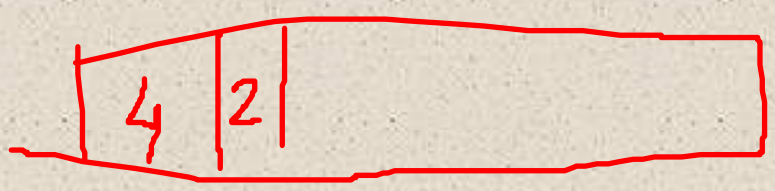
Number of operands

Register versus memory

Number of register sets

Address range

Address granularity



Memory Reference Instructions

Opcode			D/I	Z/C	Displacement						
0		2	3	4	5						11

Input/Output Instructions

1	1	0	Device							Opcode		
0		2	3						8	9		11

Register Reference Instructions

Group 1 Microinstructions

1	1	1	0	CLA	CLL	CMA	CML	RAR	RAL	BSW	IAC
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11

Group 2 Microinstructions

1	1	1	1	CLA	SMA	SZA	SNL	RSS	OSR	HLT	0
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11

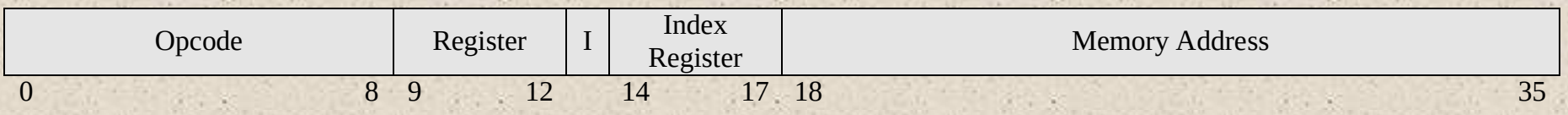
Group 3 Microinstructions

1	1	1	1	CLA	MQA	0	MQL	0	0	0	1
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11

D/I = Direct/Indirect address
Z/C = Page 0 or Current page
CLA = Clear Accumulator
CLL = Clear Link
CMA = CoMplement Accumulator
CML = CoMplement Link
RAR = Rotate Accumultator Right
RAL = Rotate Accumulator Left
BSW = Byte SWap

IAC = Increment ACcumulator
SMA = Skip on Minus Accumulator
SZA = Skip on Zero Accumulator
SNL = Skip on Nonzero Link
RSS = Reverse Skip Sense
OSR = Or with Switch Register
HLT = HaLT
MQA = Multiplier Quotient into Accumulator
MQL = Multiplier Quotient Load

Figure 13.5 PDP-8 Instruction Formats

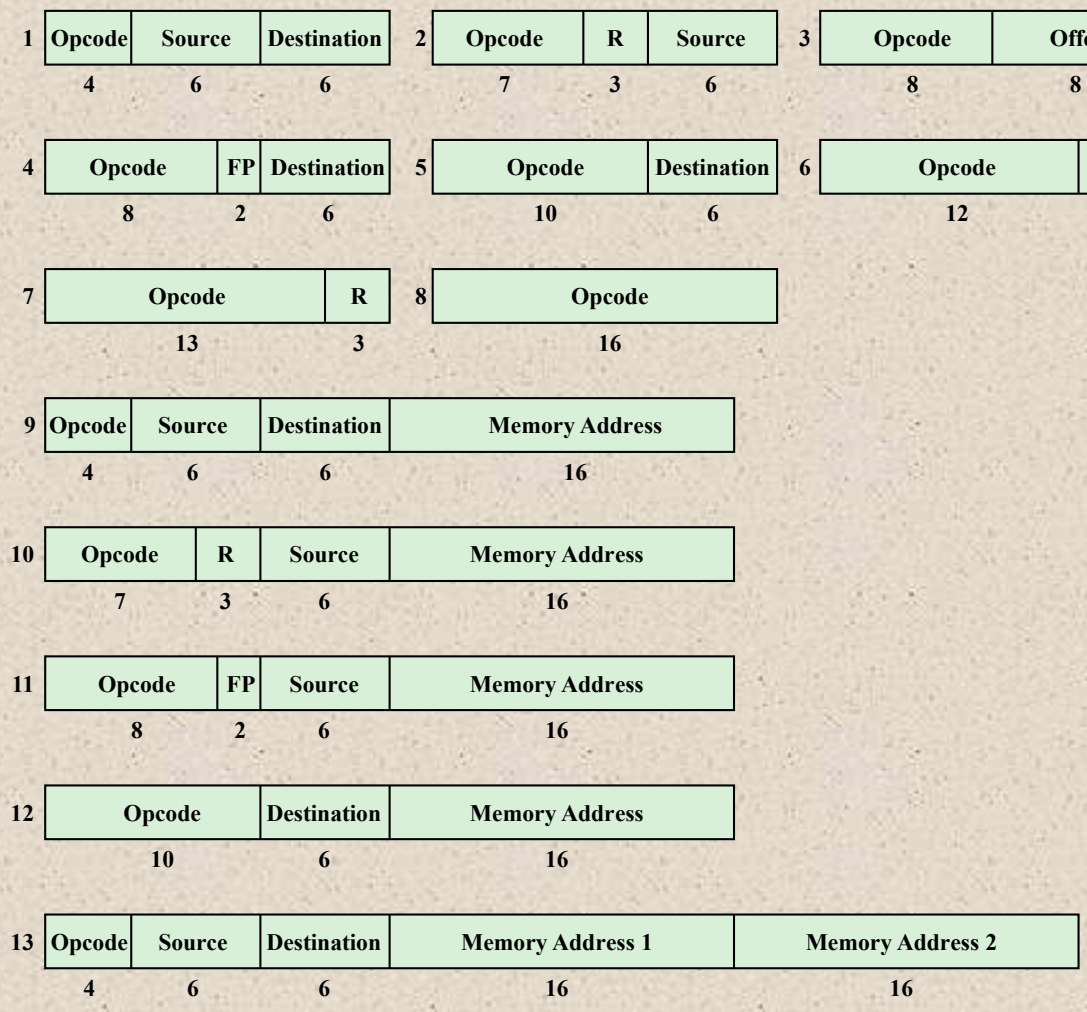


I = indirect bit

Figure 13.6 PDP-10 Instruction Format

Variable-Length Instructions

- Variations can be provided efficiently and compactly
- Increases the complexity of the processor
- Does not remove the desirability of making all of the instruction lengths integrally related to word length
  - Because the processor does not know the length of the next instruction to be fetched a typical strategy is to fetch a number of bytes or words equal to at least the longest possible instruction
  - Sometimes multiple instructions are fetched



Numbers below fields indicate bit length
Source and Destination each contain a 3-bit addressing mode field and a 3-bit register number
FP indicates one of four floating-point registers
R indicates one of the general-purpose registers
CC is the condition code field

Figure 13.7 Instruction Formats for the PDP-11

Hexadecimal Format	Explanation	Assembler Notation and Description
8 bits 0 5	Opcode for RSB	RSB Return from subroutine
D 4 5 9	Opcode for CLRL Register R9	CLRL R9 Clear register R9
B 0 C 4 6 4 0 1 A B 1 9	Opcode for MOVW Word displacement mode, Register R4 356 in hexadecimal Byte displacement mode, Register R11 25 in hexadecimal	MOVW 356(R4), 25(R11) Move a word from address that is 356 plus contents of R4 to address that is 25 plus contents of R11
C 1 0 5 5 0 4 2 D F [ ]	Opcode for ADDL3 Short literal 5 Register mode R0 Index prefix R2 Indirect word relative (displacement from PC) Amount of displacement from PC relative to location A	ADDL3 #5, R0, @A[R2] Add 5 to a 32-bit integer in R0 and store the result in location whose address is sum of A and 4 times the contents of R2

Figure 13.8 Examples of VAX Instructions

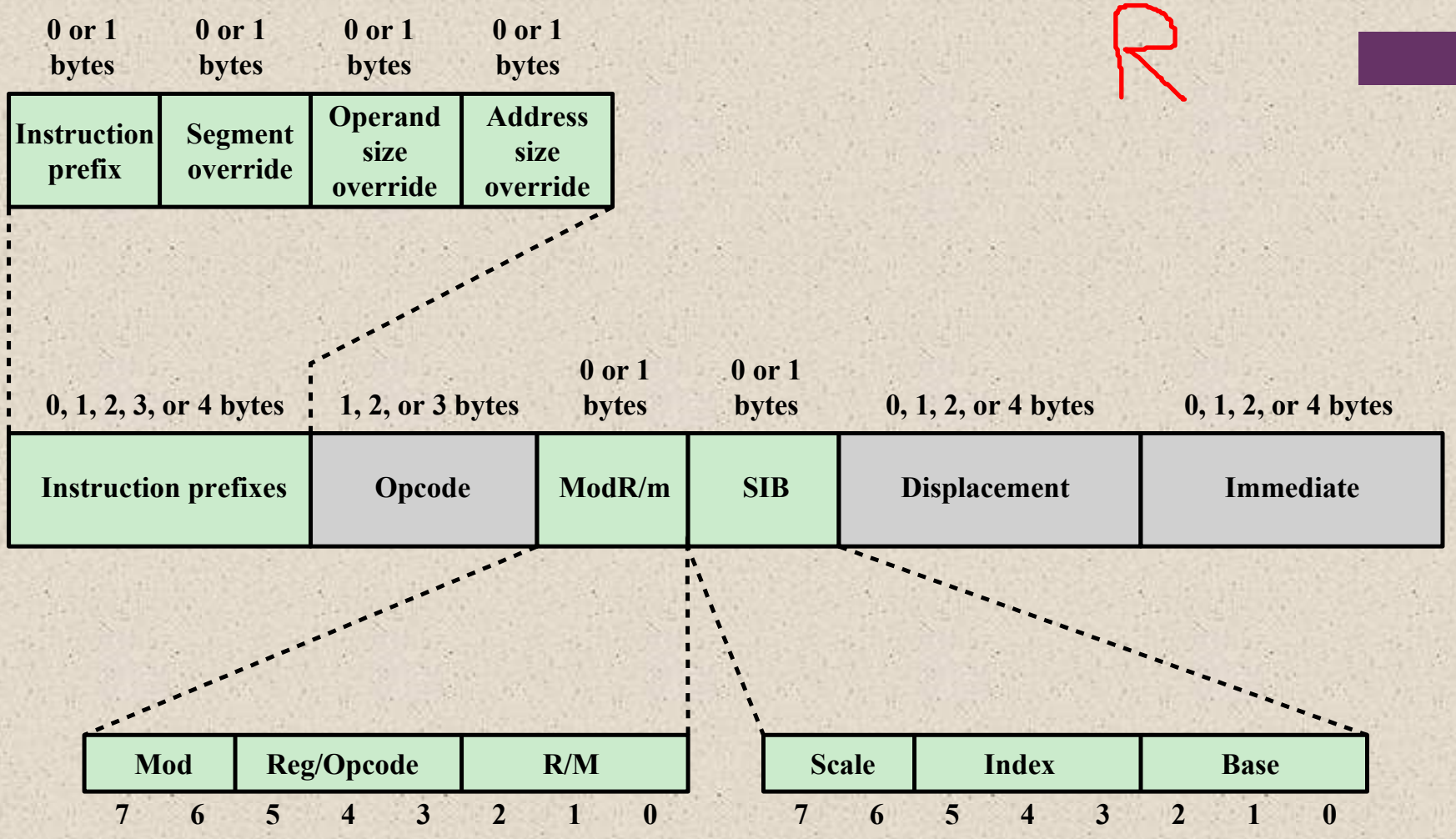
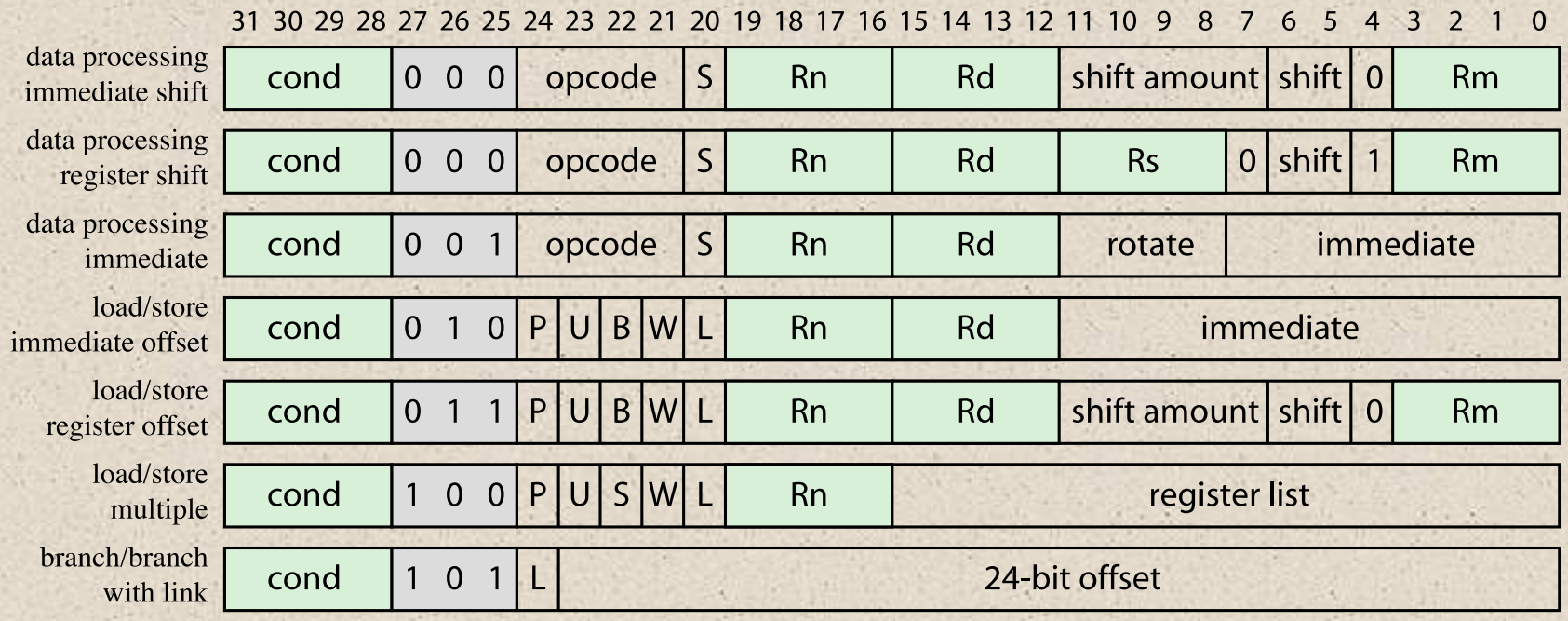


Figure 13.9 x86 Instruction Format



S = For data processing instructions, signifies that the instruction updates the condition codes

S = For load/store multiple instructions, signifies whether instruction execution is restricted to supervisor mode

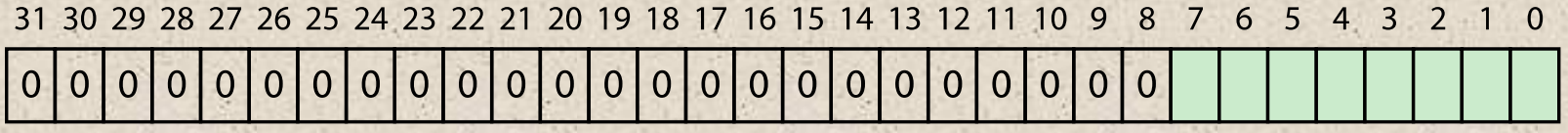
P, U, W = bits that distinguish among different types of addressing_mode

B = Distinguishes between an unsigned byte (B==1) and a word (B==0) access

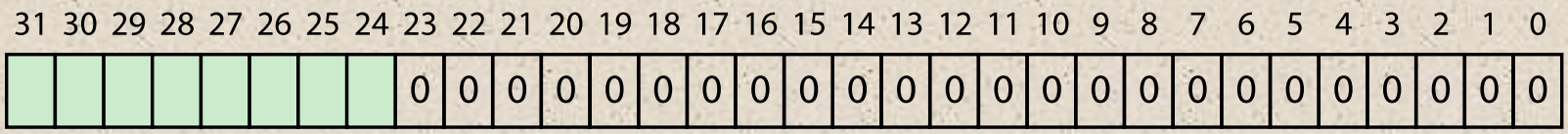
L = For load/store instructions, distinguishes between a Load (L==1) and a Store (L==0)

L = For branch instructions, determines whether a return address is stored in the link register

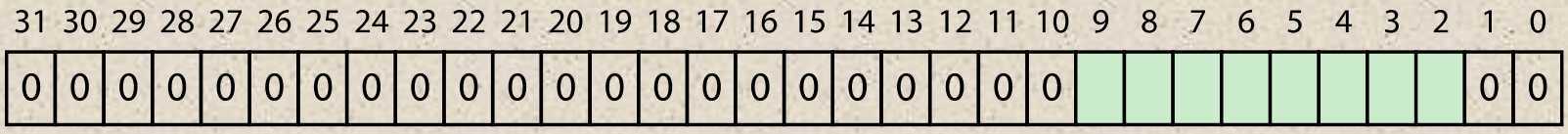
Figure 13.10 ARM Instruction Formats



ror #0 - range 0 through 0x000000FF - step 0x00000001



ror #8 - range 0 through 0xFF000000 - step 0x01000000



ror #30 - range 0 through 0x000003FC - step 0x00000004

Figure 13.11 Examples of Use of ARM Immediate Constants

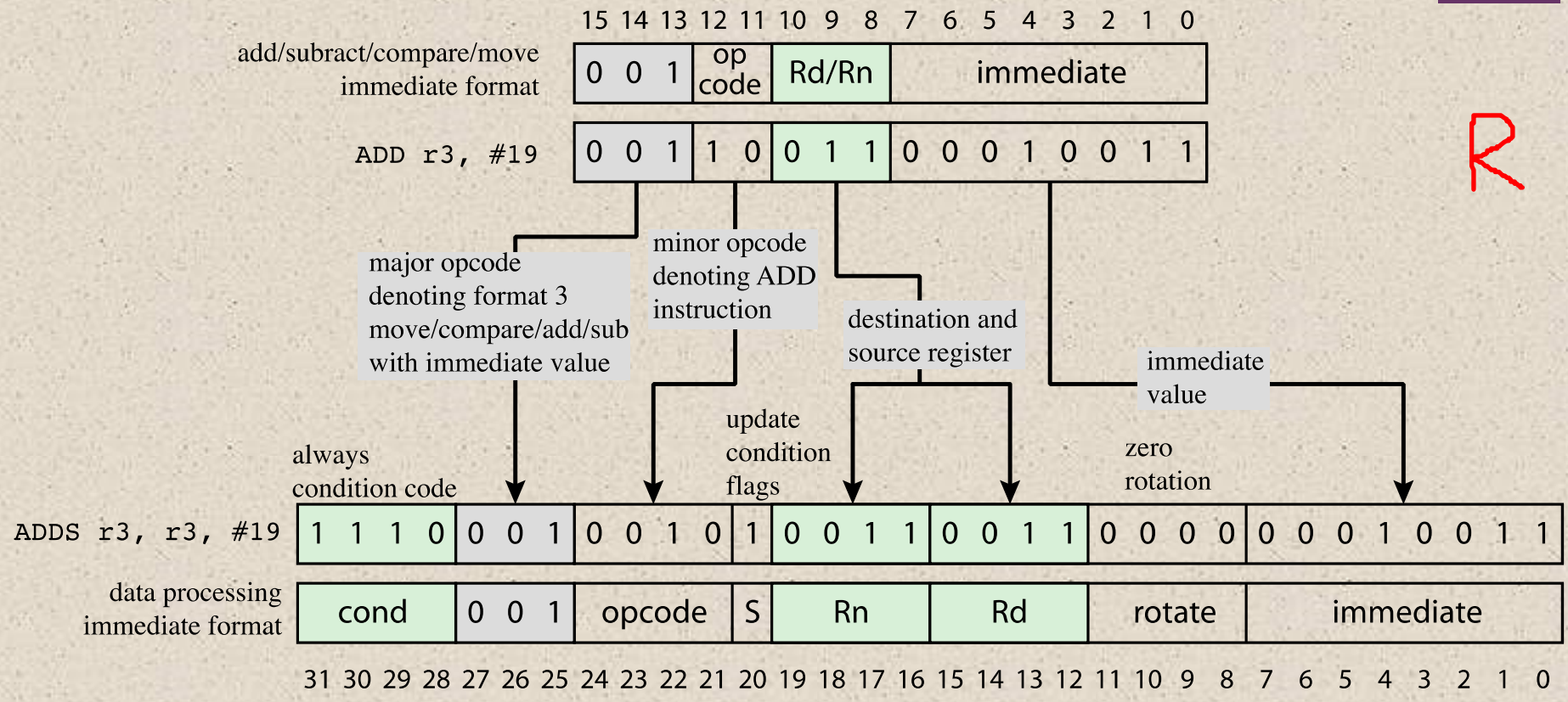
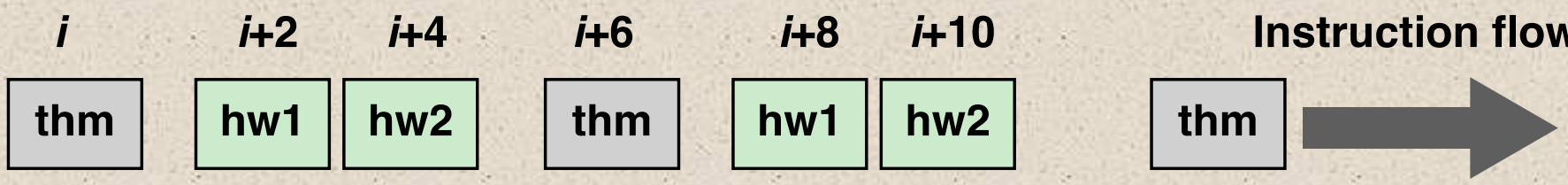


Figure 13.12 Expanding a Thumb ADD Instruction into its ARM Equivalent

Thumb-2 Instruction Set

- The only instruction set available on the Cortex-M microcontroller products
- Is a major enhancement to the Thumb instruction set architecture (ISA)
  - Introduces 32-bit instructions that can be intermixed freely with the older 16-bit Thumb instructions
  - Most 32-bit Thumb instructions are unconditional, whereas almost all ARM instructions can be conditional
  - Introduces a new If-Then (IT) instruction that delivers much of the functionality of the condition field in ARM instructions
- Delivers overall code density comparable with Thumb, together with the performance levels associated with the ARM ISA
- Before Thumb-2 developers had to choose between Thumb for size and ARM for performance



Halfword 1 [15:13]	Halfword1 [12:11]	Length	Functionality
Not 111	xx	16 bits (1 halfword)	16-bit Thumb instruction
111	00	16 bits (1 halfword)	16-bit Thumb unconditional branch instruction
111	Not 00	32 bits (2 halfwords)	32-bit Thumb-2 instruction

Figure 13.13 Thumb-2 Encoding

Address	Contents			
101	0010	0010	101	2201
102	0001	0010	102	1202
103	0001	0010	103	1203
104	0011	0010	104	3204
201	0000	0000	201	0002
202	0000	0000	202	0003
203	0000	0000	203	0004
204	0000	0000	204	0000

(a) Binary program

Address	Contents
101	2201
102	1202
103	1203
104	3204
201	0002
202	0003
203	0004
204	0000

(b) Hexadecimal program

Address	Instruction	
101	LDA	201
102	ADD	202
103	ADD	203
104	STA	204
201	DAT	2
202	DAT	3
203	DAT	4
204	DAT	0

(c) Symbolic program

Label	Operation	Operand
FORMUL	LDA	I
	ADD	J
	ADD	K
	STA	N
I	DATA	2
J	DATA	3
K	DATA	4
N	DATA	0

(d) Assembly program

Figure 13.14 Computation of the Formula N = I + J+ K

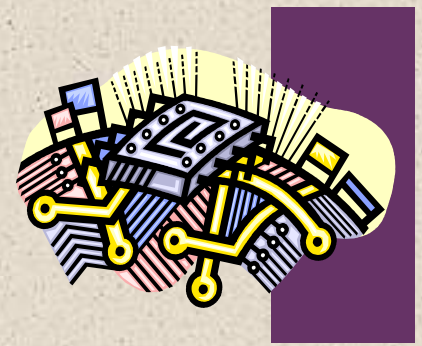
RoadMap

Chapter

Processor Structure and Function

- Processor organization
- Register organization
  - User-visible registers
  - Control and status registers
- Instruction cycle
  - The indirect cycle
  - Data flow
- The x86 processor family
  - Register organization
  - Interrupt processing
- Instruction pipelining
  - Pipelining strategy
  - Pipeline performance
  - Pipeline hazards
  - Dealing with branches
  - Intel 80486 pipelining
- The Arm processor
  - Processor organization
  - Processor modes
  - Register organization
  - Interrupt processing

6. Processor Organization



Processor Requirements:

- Fetch instruction
  - The processor reads an instruction from memory (register, cache, main memory)
- Interpret instruction
  - The instruction is decoded to determine what action is required
- Fetch data
  - The execution of an instruction may require reading data from memory or an I/O module
- Process data
  - The execution of an instruction may require performing some arithmetic or logical operation on data
- Write data
  - The results of an execution may require writing data to memory or an I/O module
- In order to do these things the processor needs to store some data temporarily and therefore needs a small internal memory

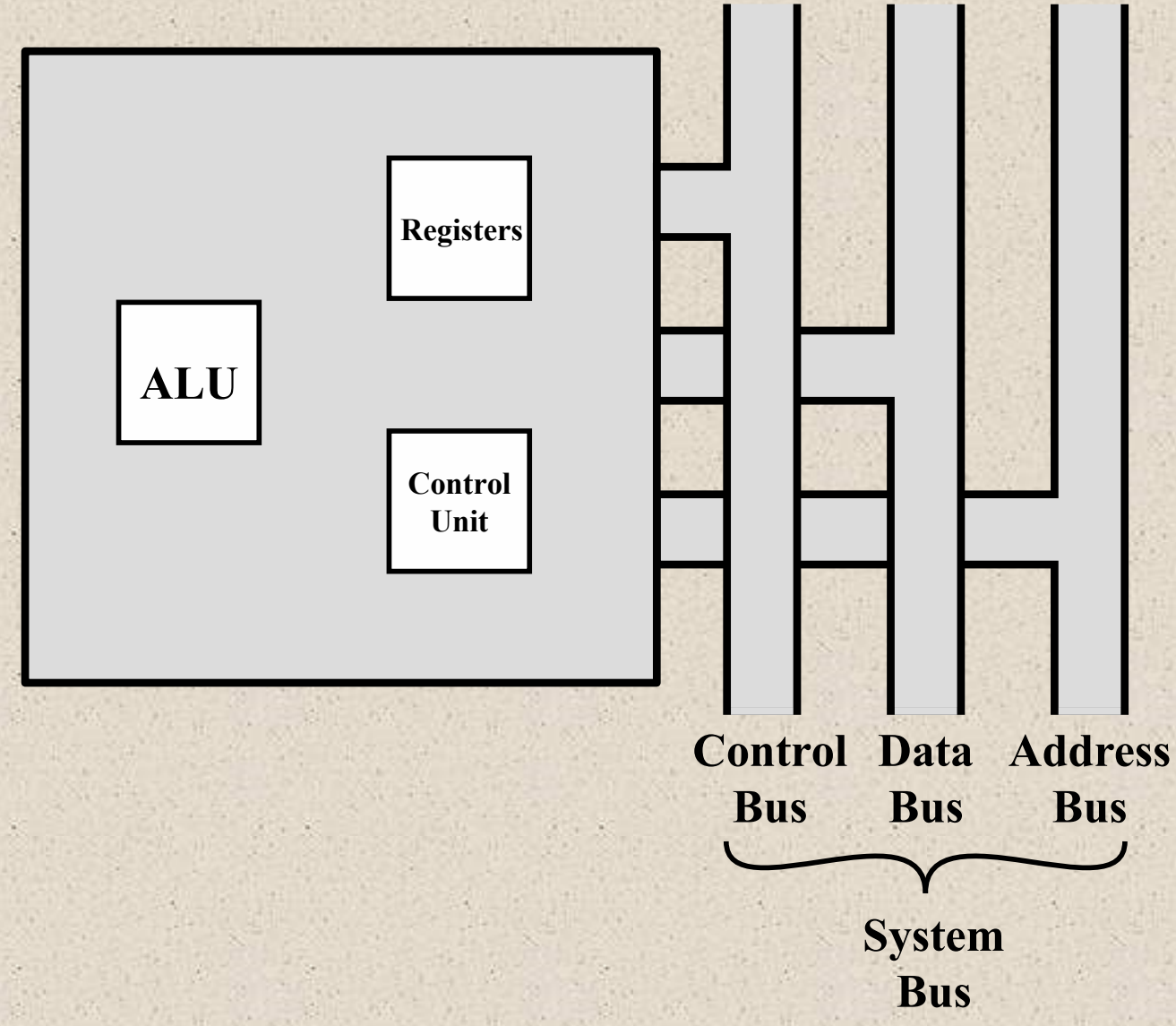


Figure 14.1 The CPU with the System Bus

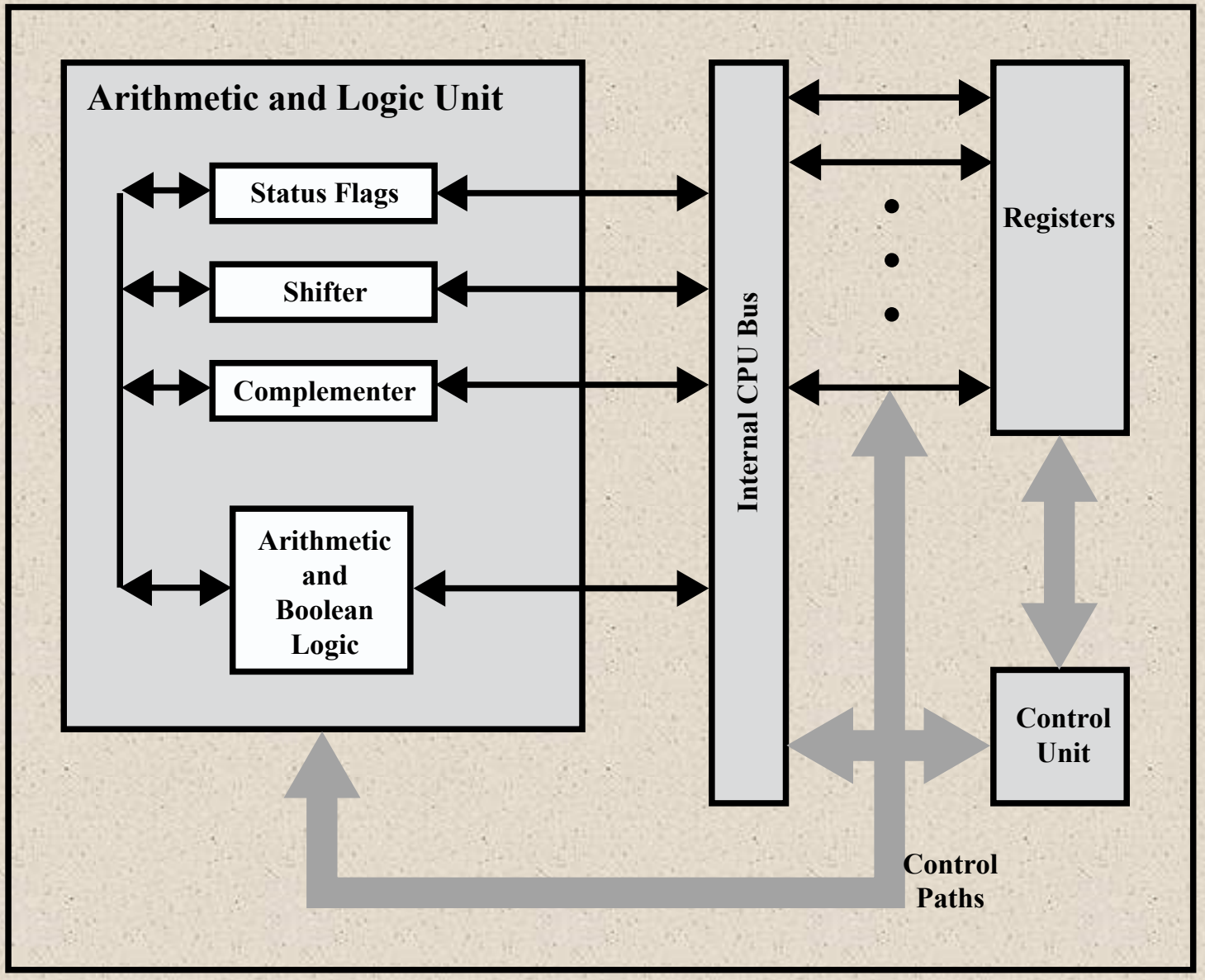
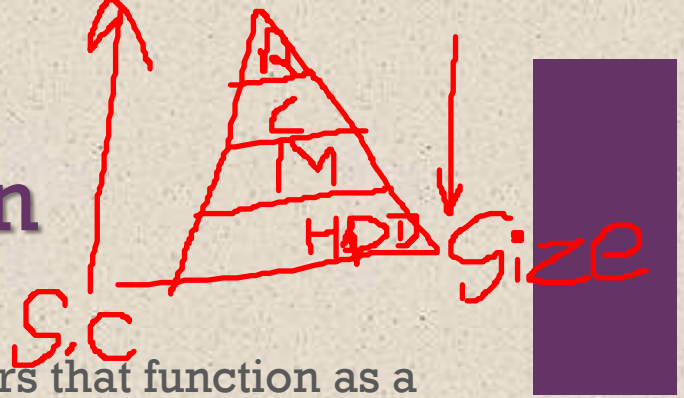


Figure 14.2 Internal Structure of the CPU

7. Register Organization



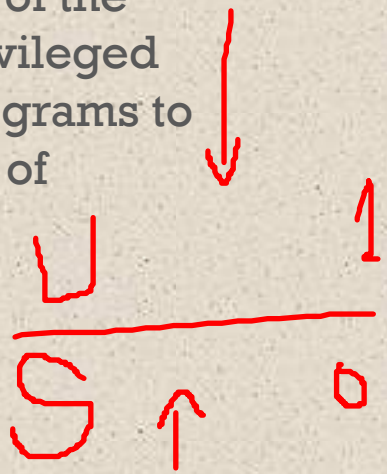
- Within the processor there is a set of registers that function as a level of memory above main memory and cache in the hierarchy
- The registers in the processor perform two roles:

User-Visible Registers

- Enable the machine or assembly language programmer to minimize main memory references by optimizing use of registers

Control and Status Registers

- Used by the control unit to control the operation of the processor and by privileged operating system programs to control the execution of programs



User-Visible Registers

Referenced by means of the machine language that the processor executes

Categories:

- **General purpose**
  - Can be assigned to a variety of functions by the programmer
- **Data**
  - May be used only to hold data and cannot be employed in the calculation of an operand address
- **Address**
  - May be somewhat general purpose or may be devoted to a particular addressing mode
  - Examples: segment pointers, index registers, stack pointer
- **Condition codes**
  - Also referred to as *flags*
  - Bits set by the processor hardware as the result of operations

Table 14.1
Condition Codes

Advantages	Disadvantages
1. Because condition codes are set by normal arithmetic and data movement instructions, they should reduce the number of COMPARE and TEST instructions needed.	**1.** Condition codes add complexity, both to the hardware and software. Condition code bits are often modified in different ways by different instructions, making life more difficult for both the microprogrammer and compiler writer.
2. Conditional instructions, such as BRANCH are simplified relative to composite instructions, such as TEST AND BRANCH.	**2.** Condition codes are irregular; they are typically not part of the main data path, so they require extra hardware connections.
3. Condition codes facilitate multiway branches. For example, a TEST instruction can be followed by two branches, one on less than or equal to zero and one on greater than zero.	**3.** Often condition code machines must add special non-condition-code instructions for special situations anyway, such as bit checking, loop control, and atomic semaphore operations.
4. Condition codes can be saved on the stack during subroutine calls along with other register information.	**4.** In a pipelined implementation, condition codes require special synchronization to avoid conflicts.

Control and Status Registers

Four registers are essential to instruction execution:

- Program counter (PC)
  - Contains the address of an instruction to be fetched
- Instruction register (IR)
  - Contains the instruction most recently fetched
- Memory address register (MAR)
  - Contains the address of a location in memory
- Memory buffer register (MBR)
  - Contains a word of data to be written to memory or the word most recently read

Program Status Word (PSW)

Register or set of registers that contain status information

Common fields or flags include:

- Sign
- Zero
- Carry
- Equal
- Overflow
- Interrupt Enable/Disable
- Supervisor

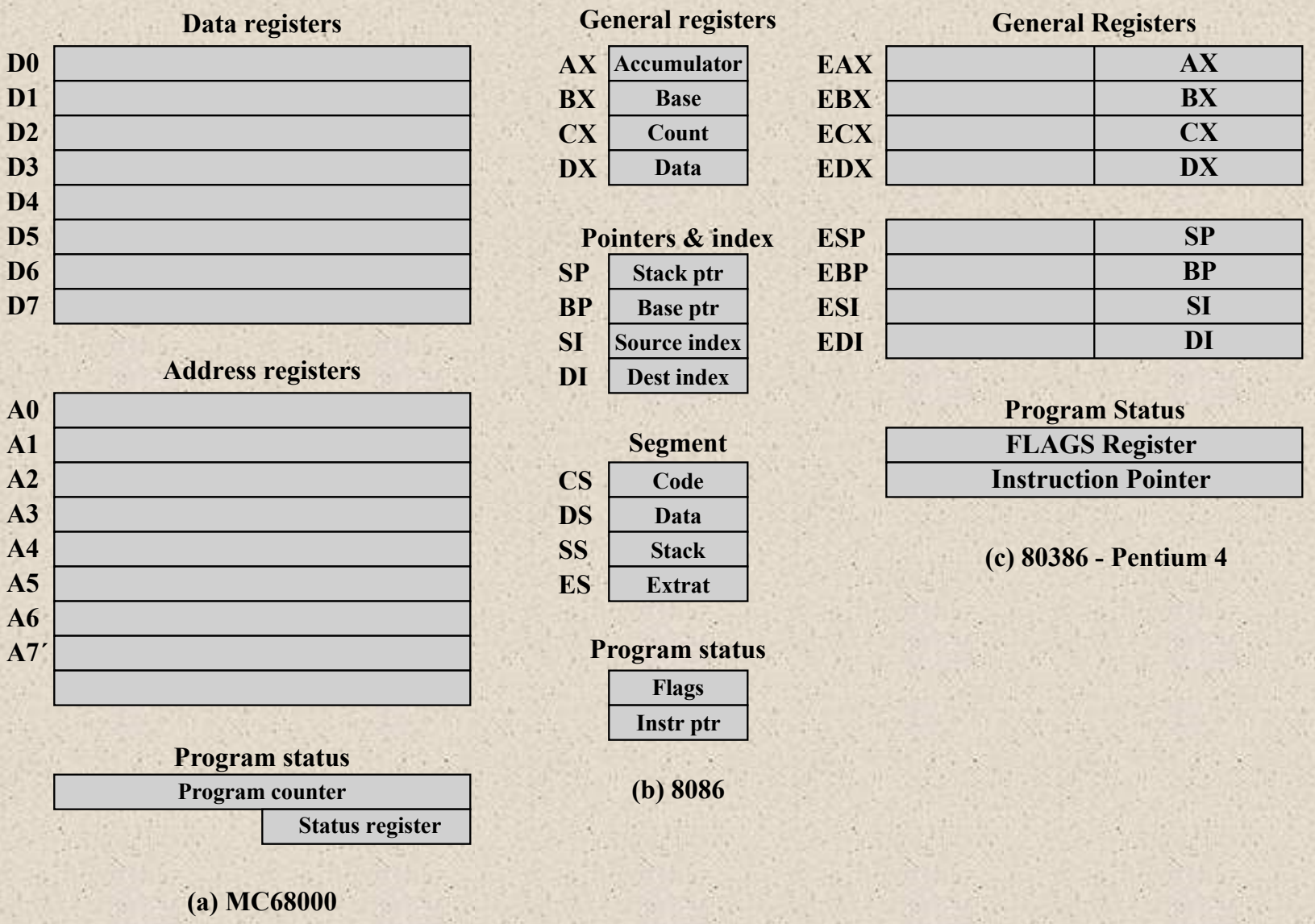
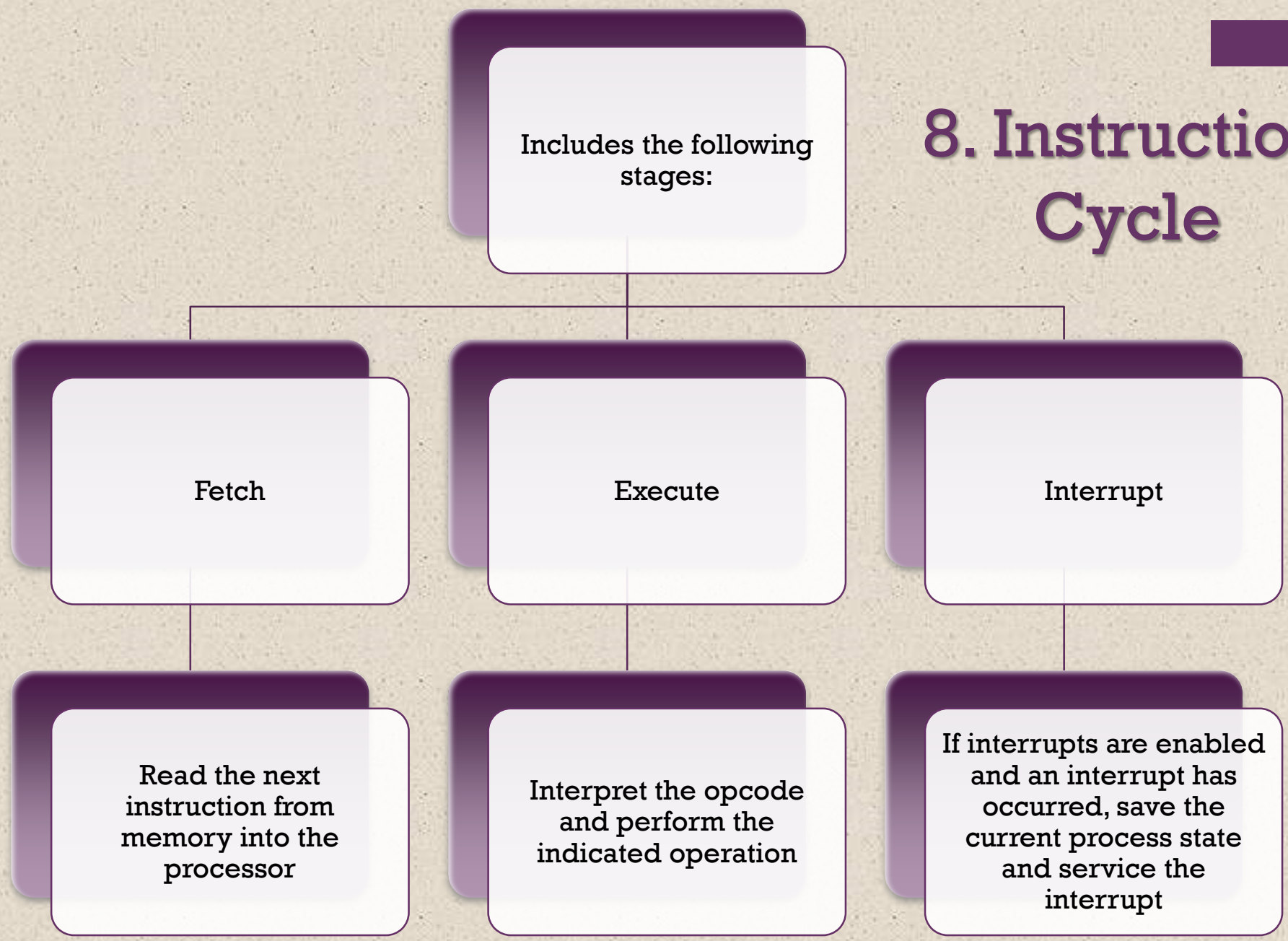


Figure 14.3 Example Microprocessor Register Organizations

8. Instruction Cycle



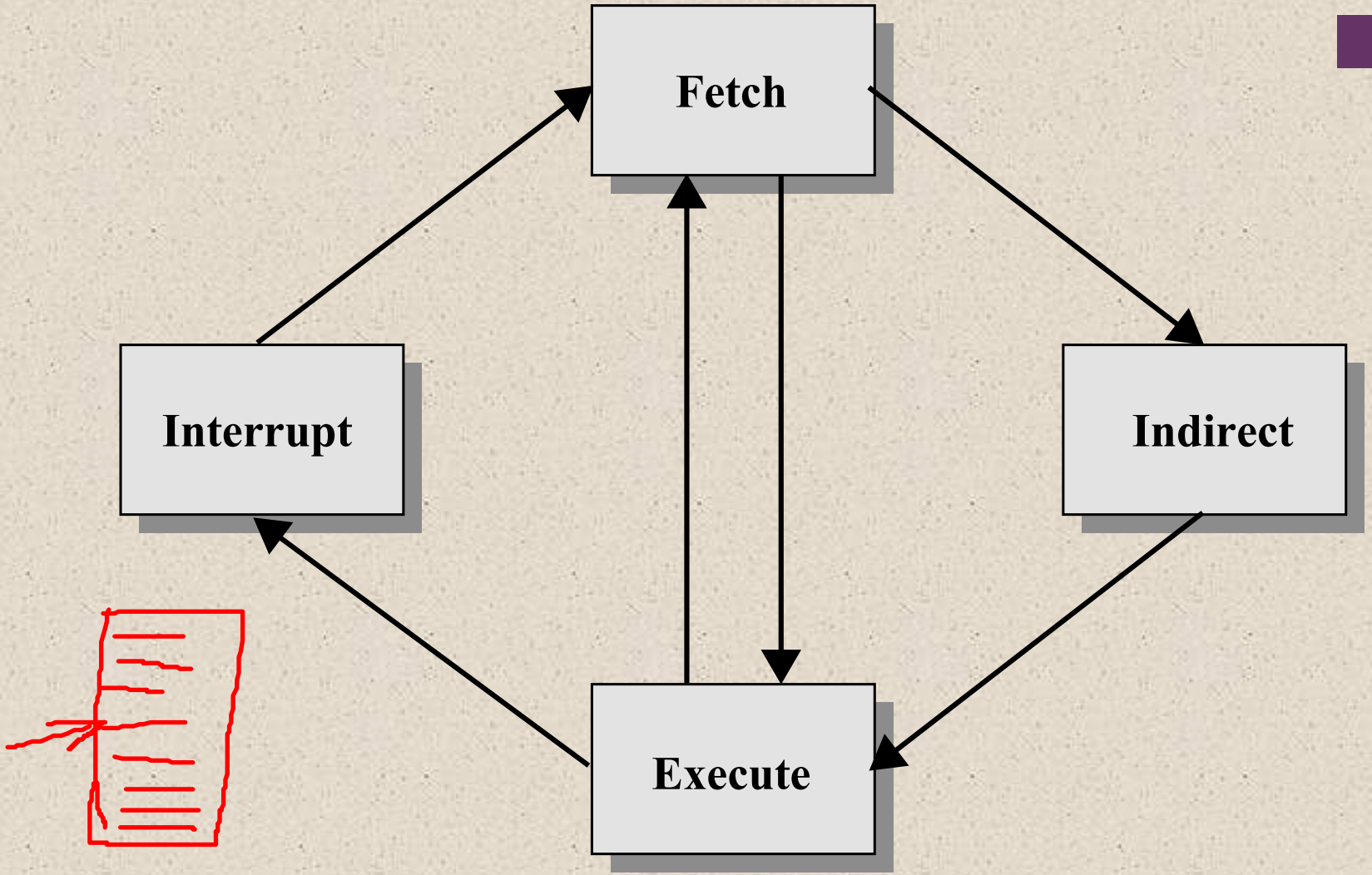


Figure 14.4 The Instruction Cycle

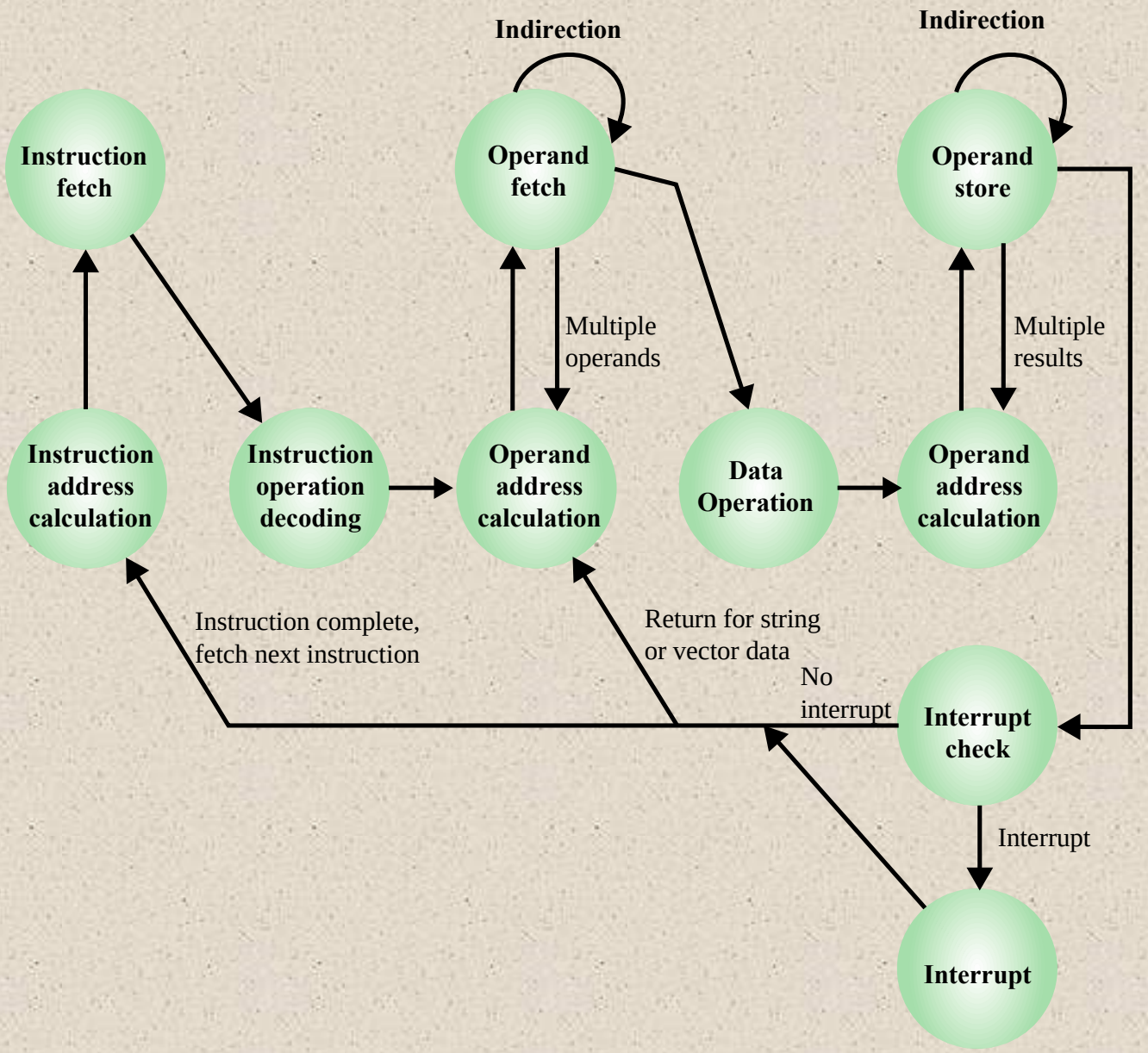
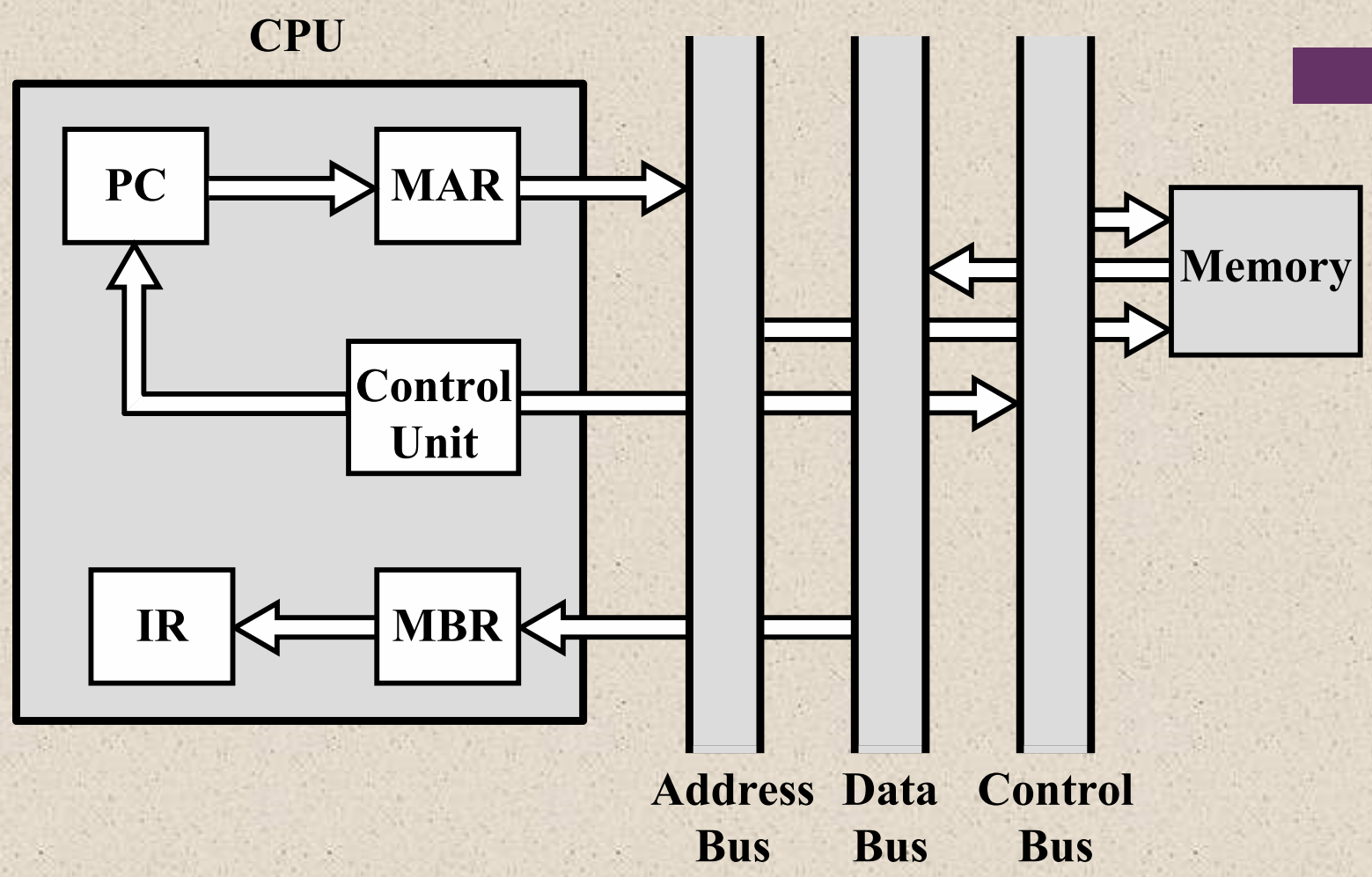


Figure 14.5 Instruction Cycle State Diagram



MBR = Memory buffer register
MAR = Memory address register
IR = Instruction register
PC = Program counter

Figure 14.6 Data Flow, Fetch Cycle

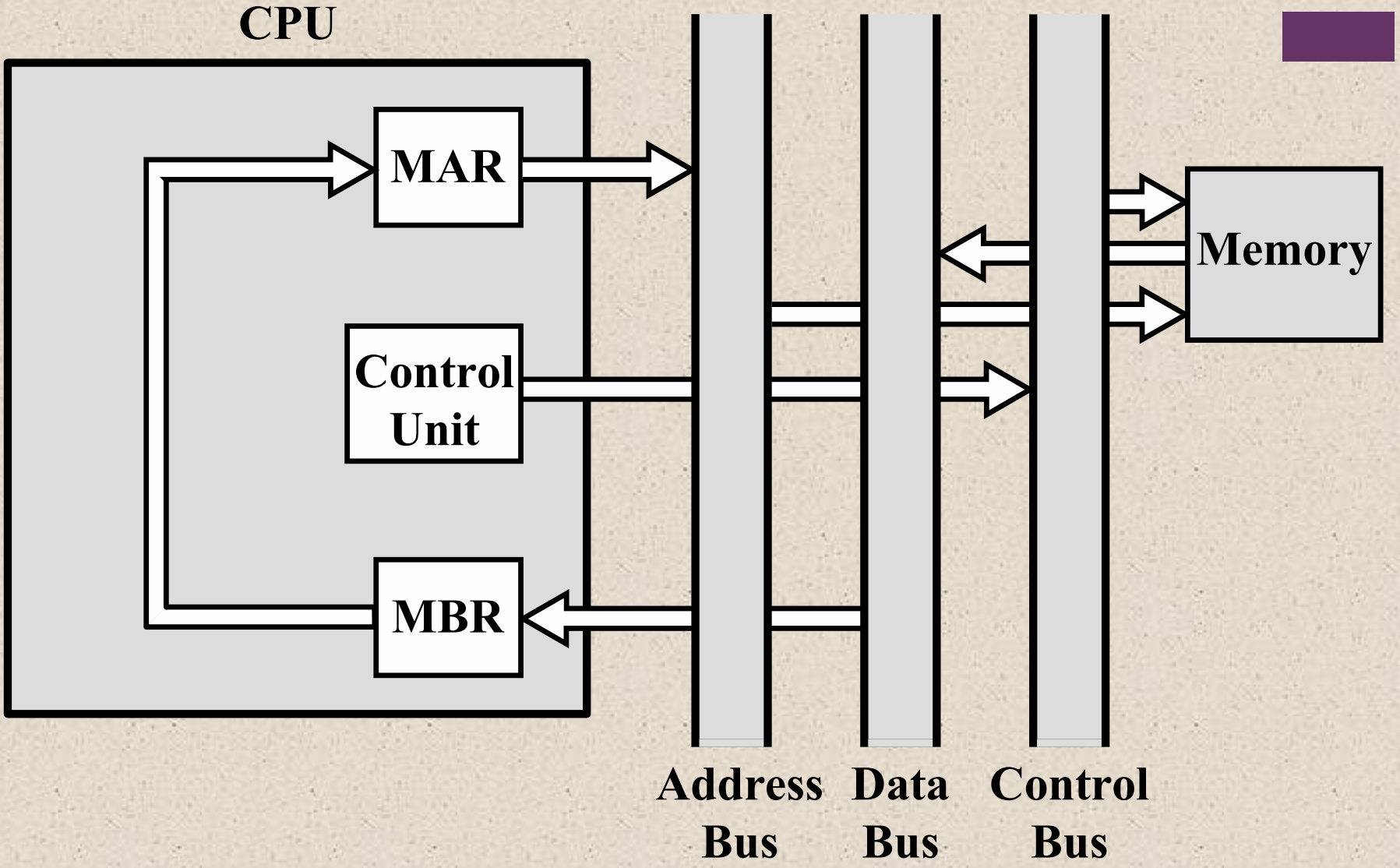


Figure 14.7 Data Flow, Indirect Cycle

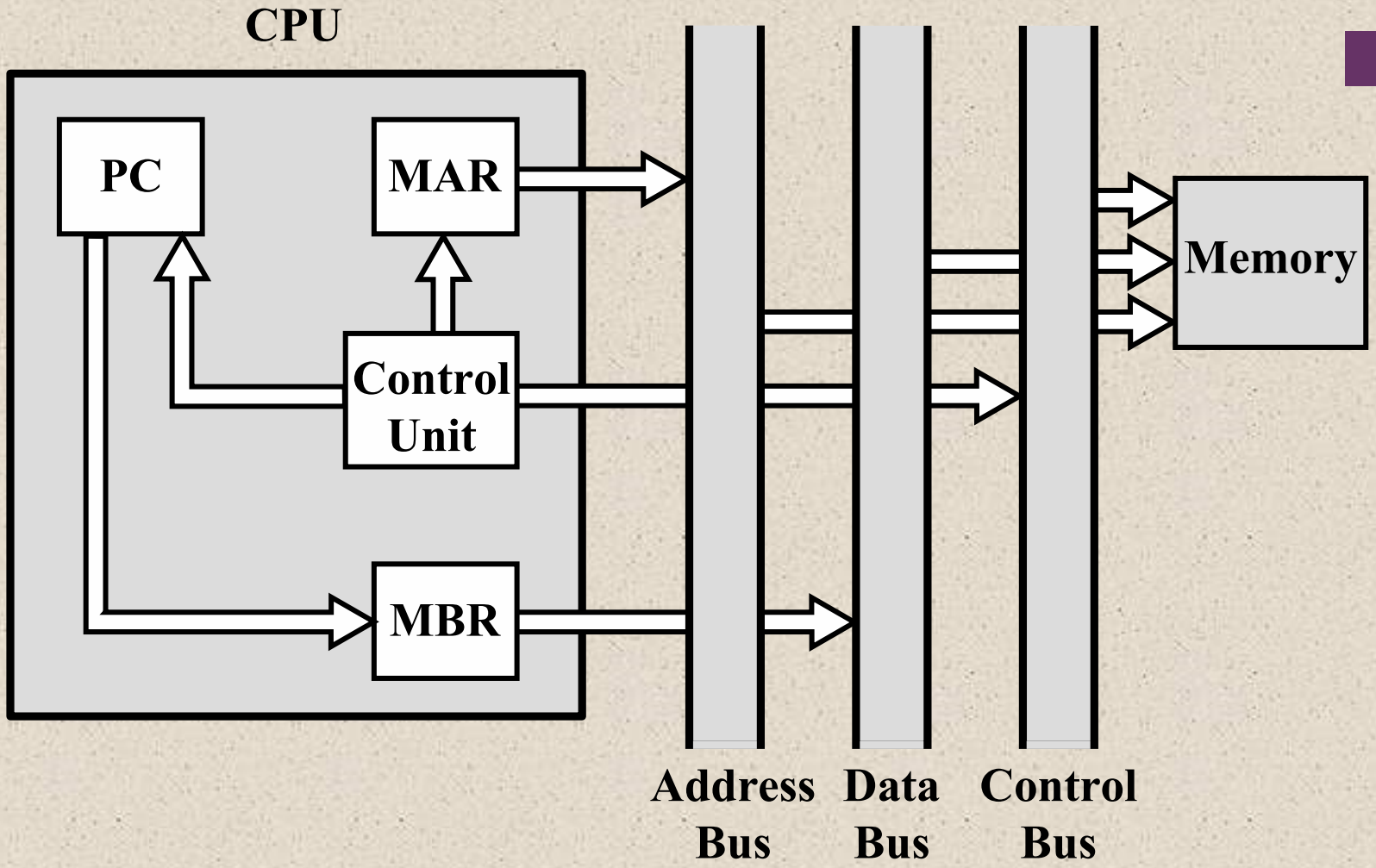


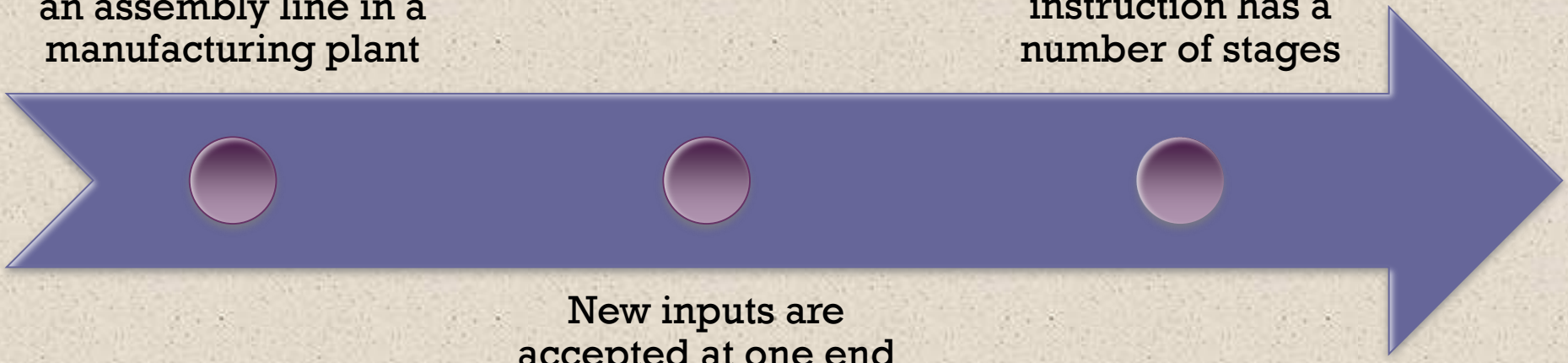
Figure 14.8 Data Flow, Interrupt Cycle

9.Instruction Pipelining

Pipelining strategy :

Similar to the use of an assembly line in a manufacturing plant

To apply this concept to instruction execution we must recognize that an instruction has a number of stages



New inputs are accepted at one end before previously accepted inputs appear as outputs at the other end

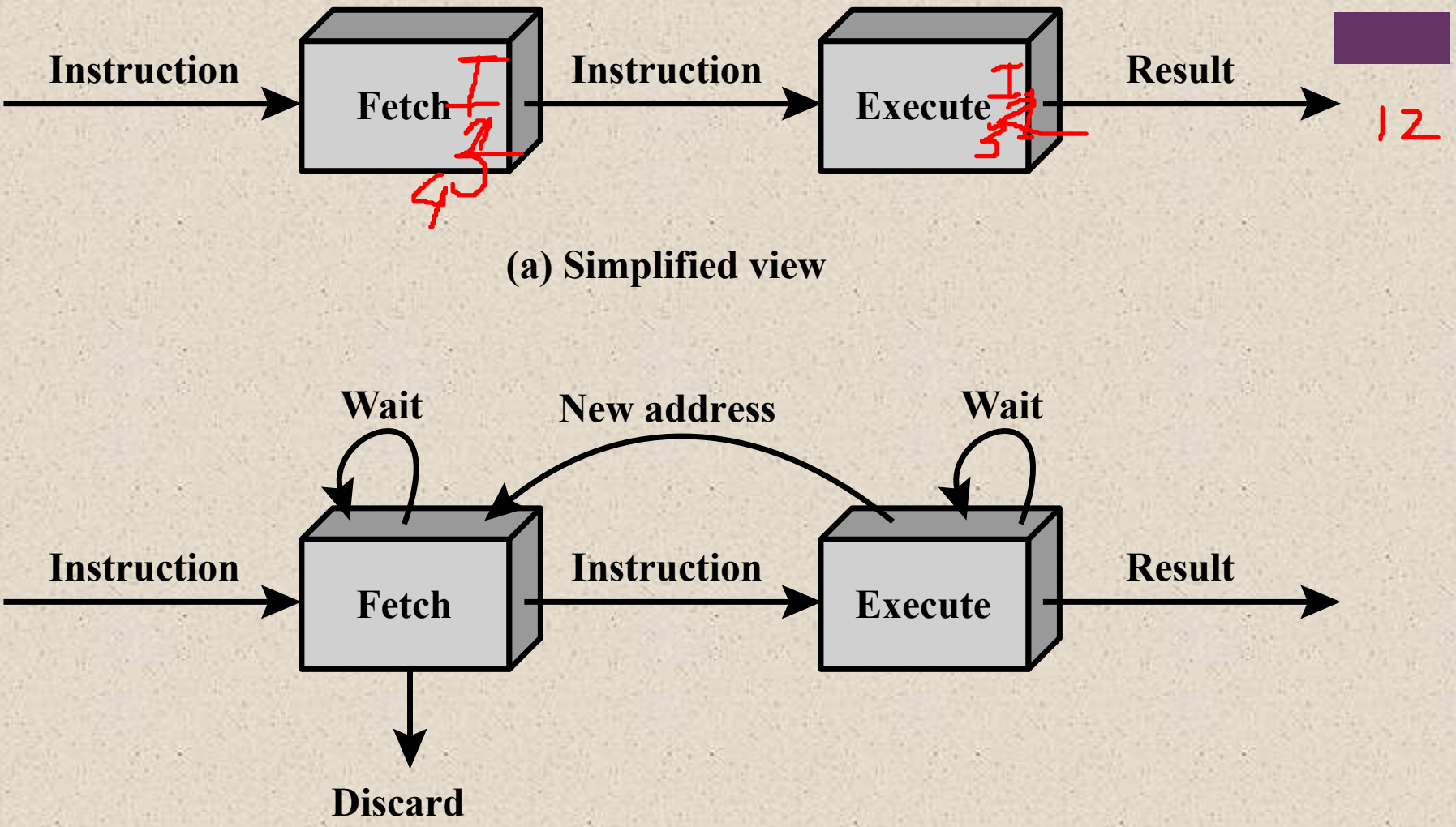


Figure 14.9 Two-Stage Instruction Pipeline

Additional Stages

- Fetch instruction (FI)
  - Read the next expected instruction into a buffer
- Decode instruction (DI)
  - Determine the opcode and the operand specifiers
- Calculate operands (CO)
  - Calculate the effective address of each source operand
  - This may involve displacement, register indirect, indirect, or other forms of address calculation
- Fetch operands (FO)
  - Fetch each operand from memory
  - Operands in registers need not be fetched
- Execute instruction (EI)
  - Perform the indicated operation and store the result, if any, in the specified destination operand location
- Write operand (WO)
  - Store the result in memory

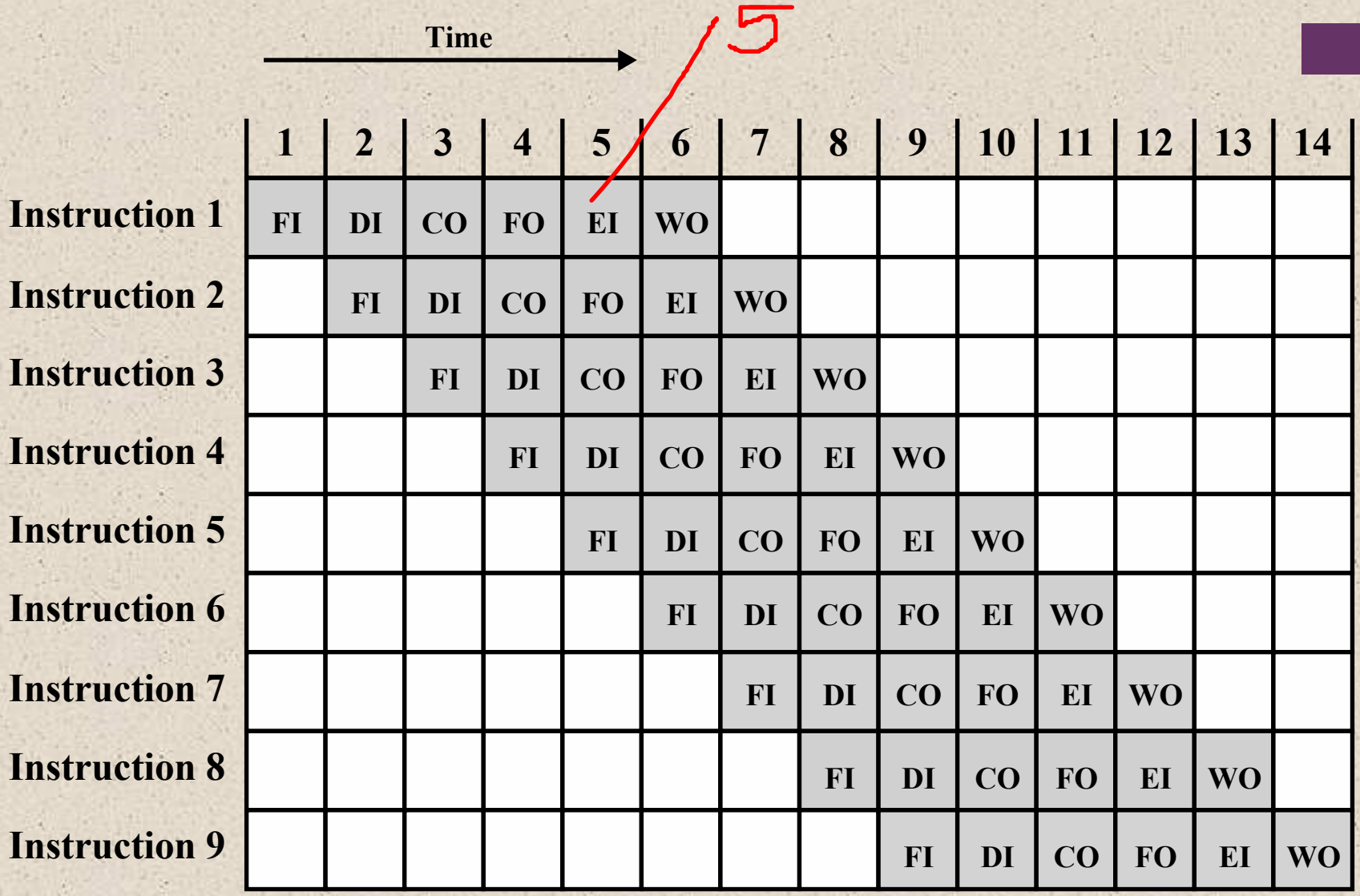


Figure 14.10 Timing Diagram for Instruction Pipeline Operation

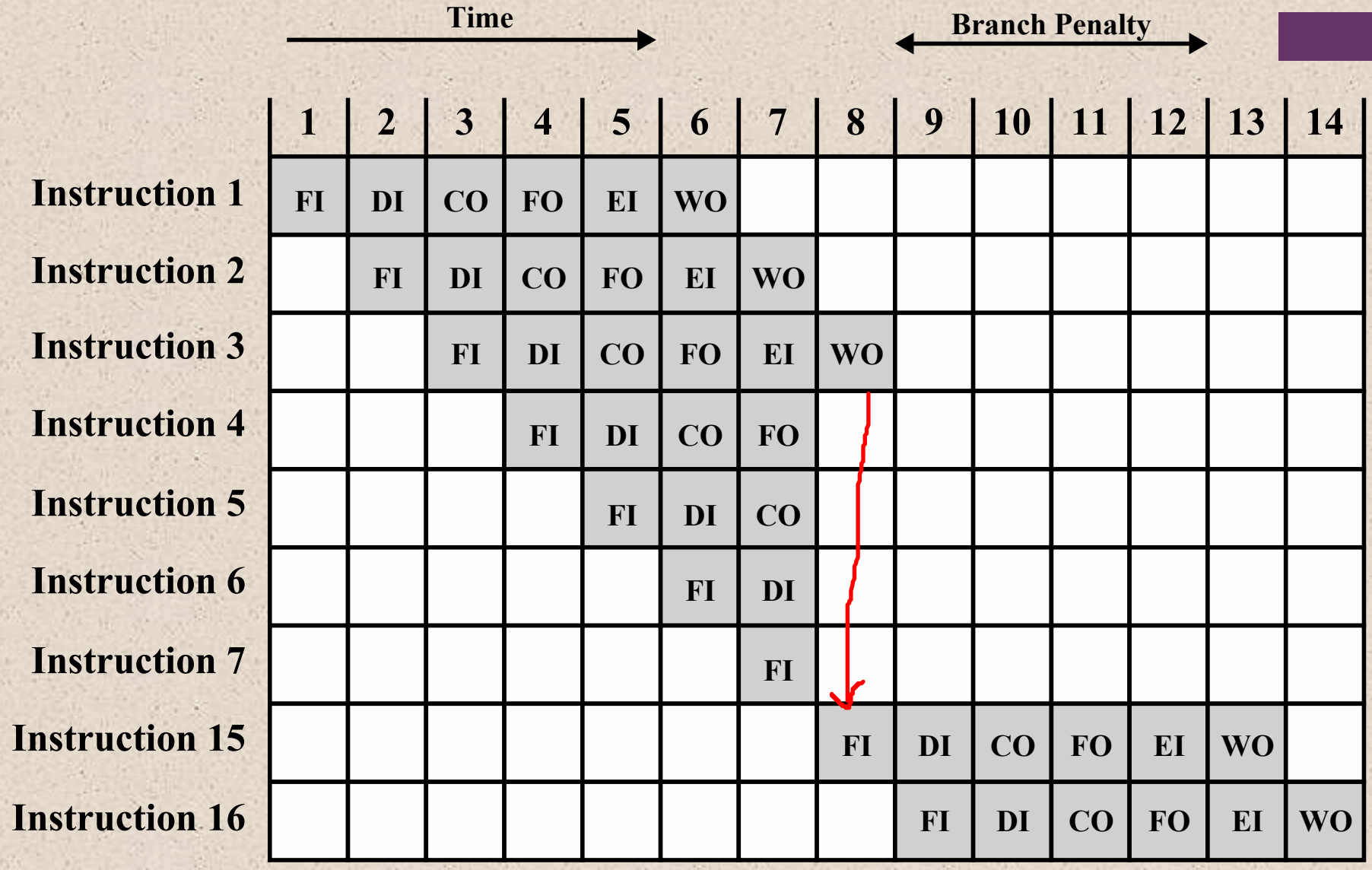


Figure 14.11 The Effect of a Conditional Branch on Instruction Pipeline Operation

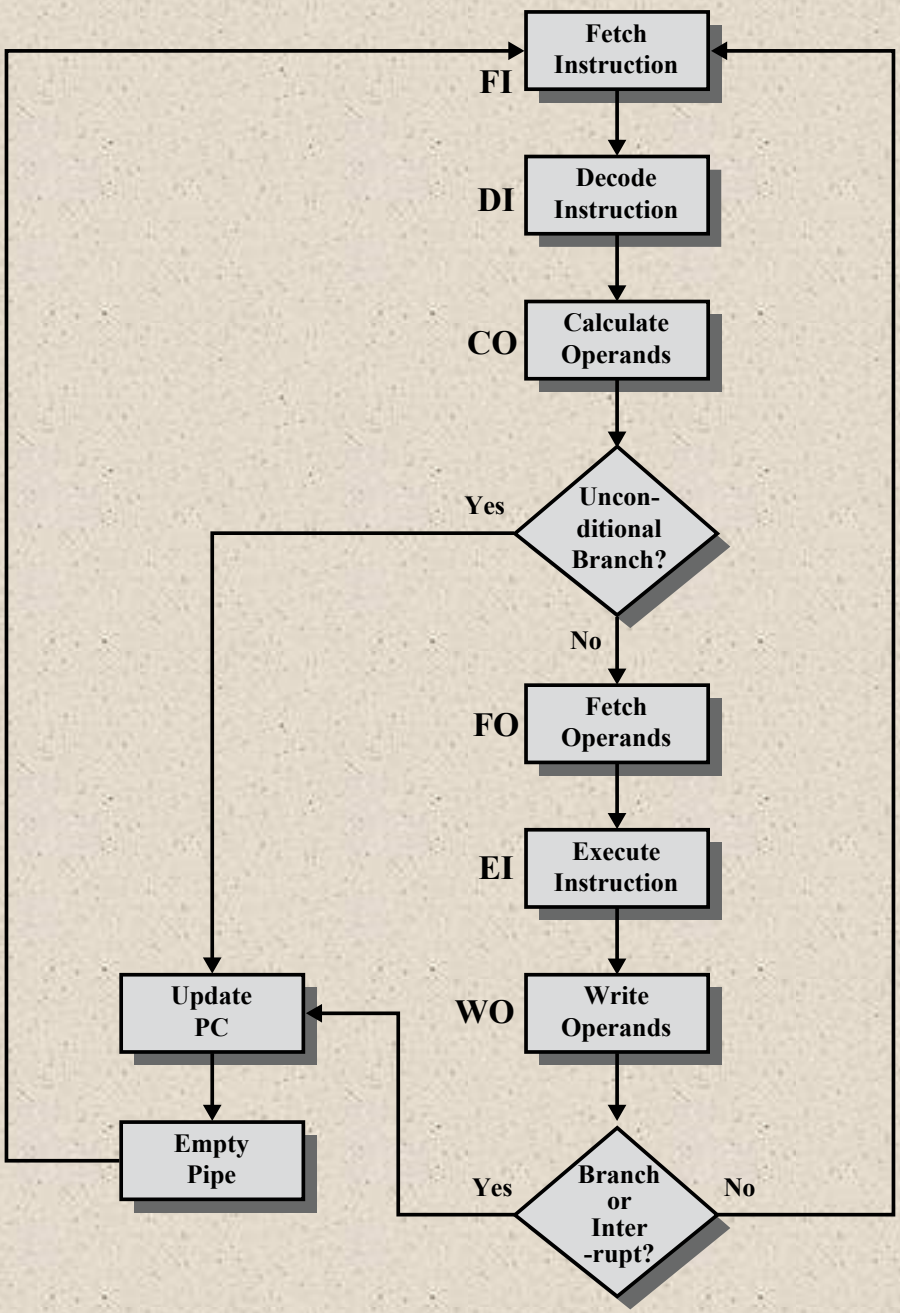
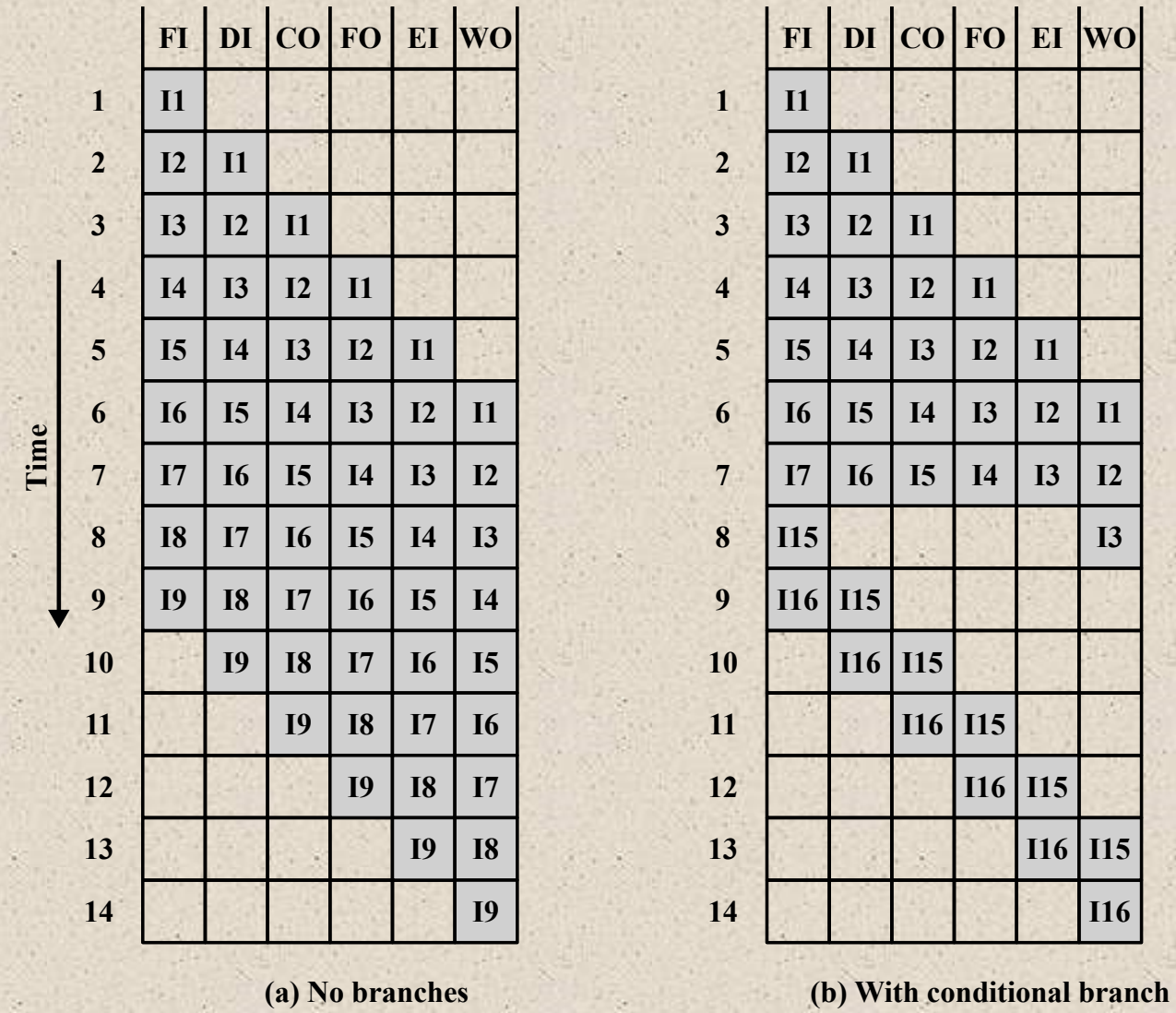


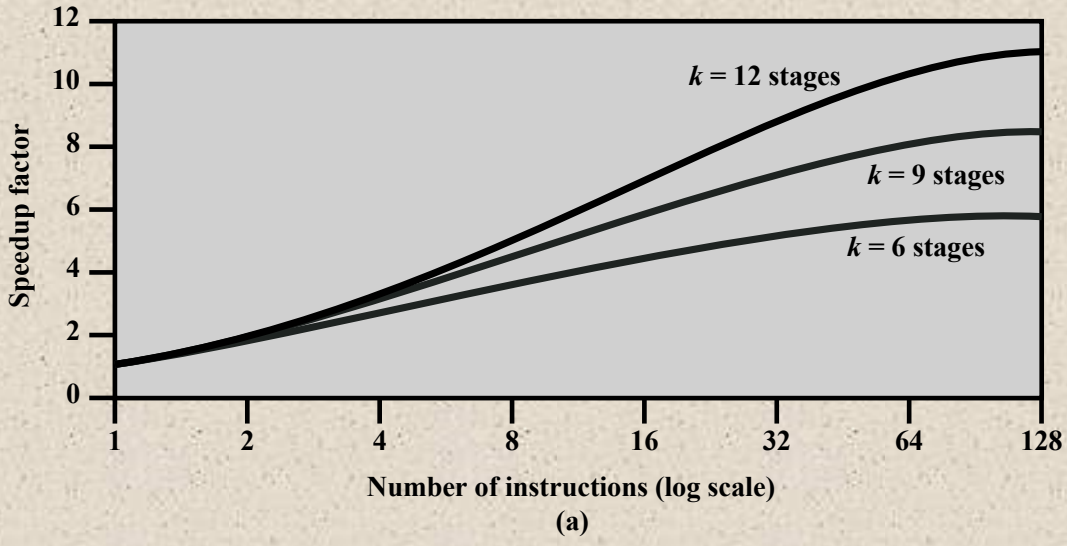
Figure 14.12 Six-Stage Instruction Pipeline



(a) No branches

(b) With conditional branch

Figure 14.13 An Alternative Pipeline Depiction



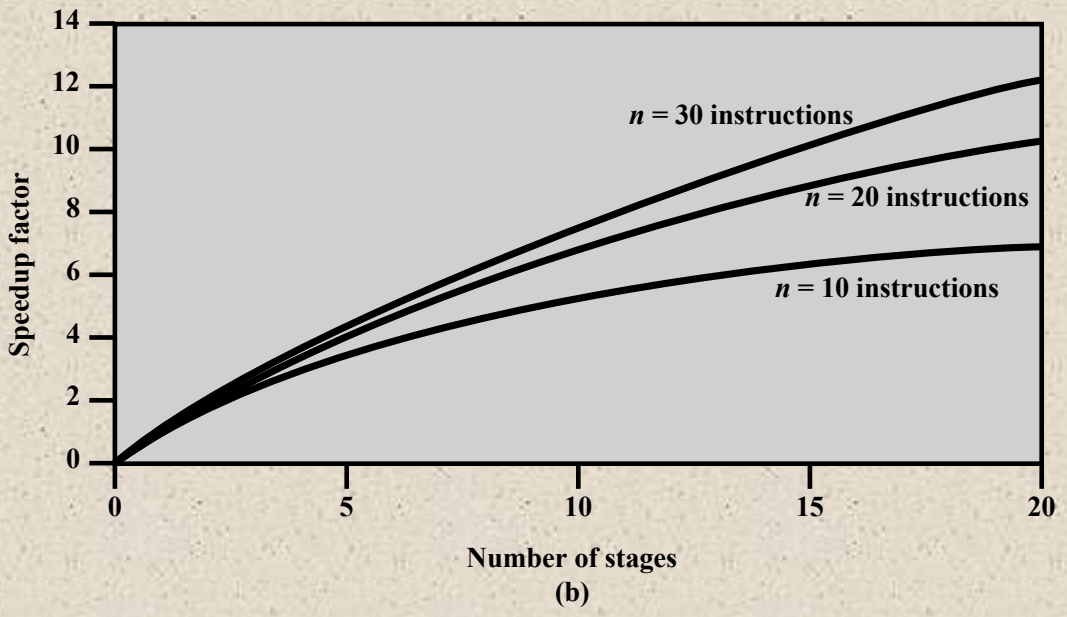


Figure 14.14 Speedup Factors with Instruction Pipelining

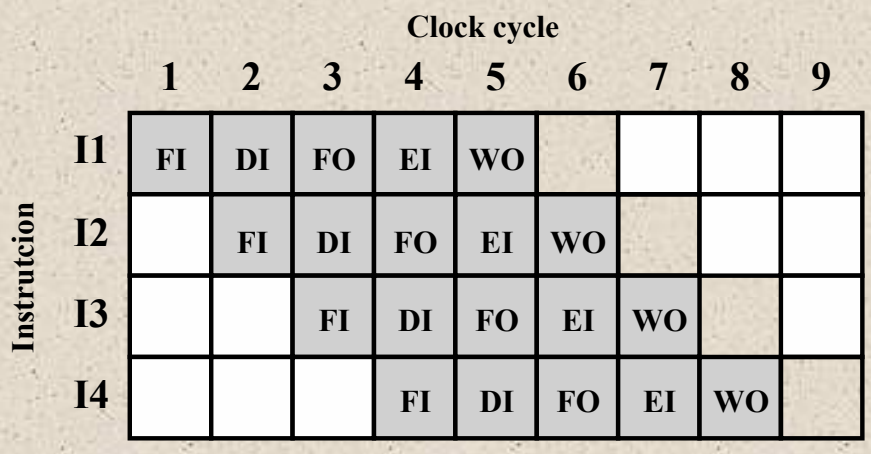
Pipeline Hazards

Occur when the pipeline, or some portion of the pipeline, must stall because conditions do not permit continued execution

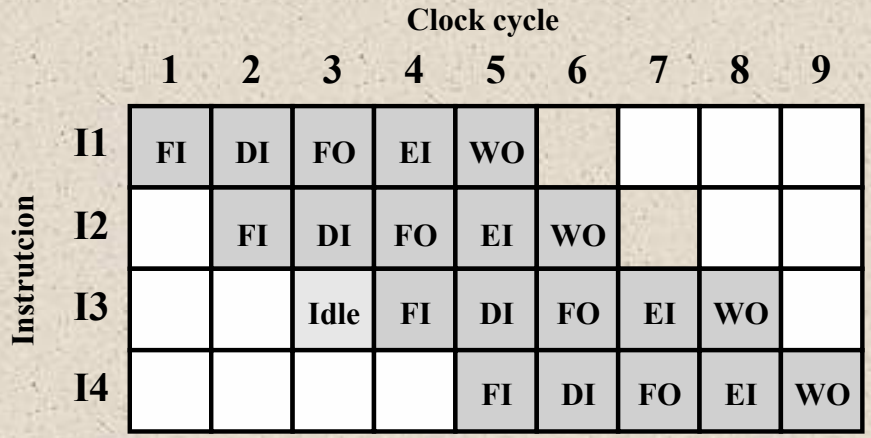
There are three types of hazards:

- Resource
- Data
- Control

Also referred to as a *pipeline bubble*



(a) Five-stage pipeline, ideal case



(b) I1 source operand in memory

Figure 14.15 Example of Resource Hazard

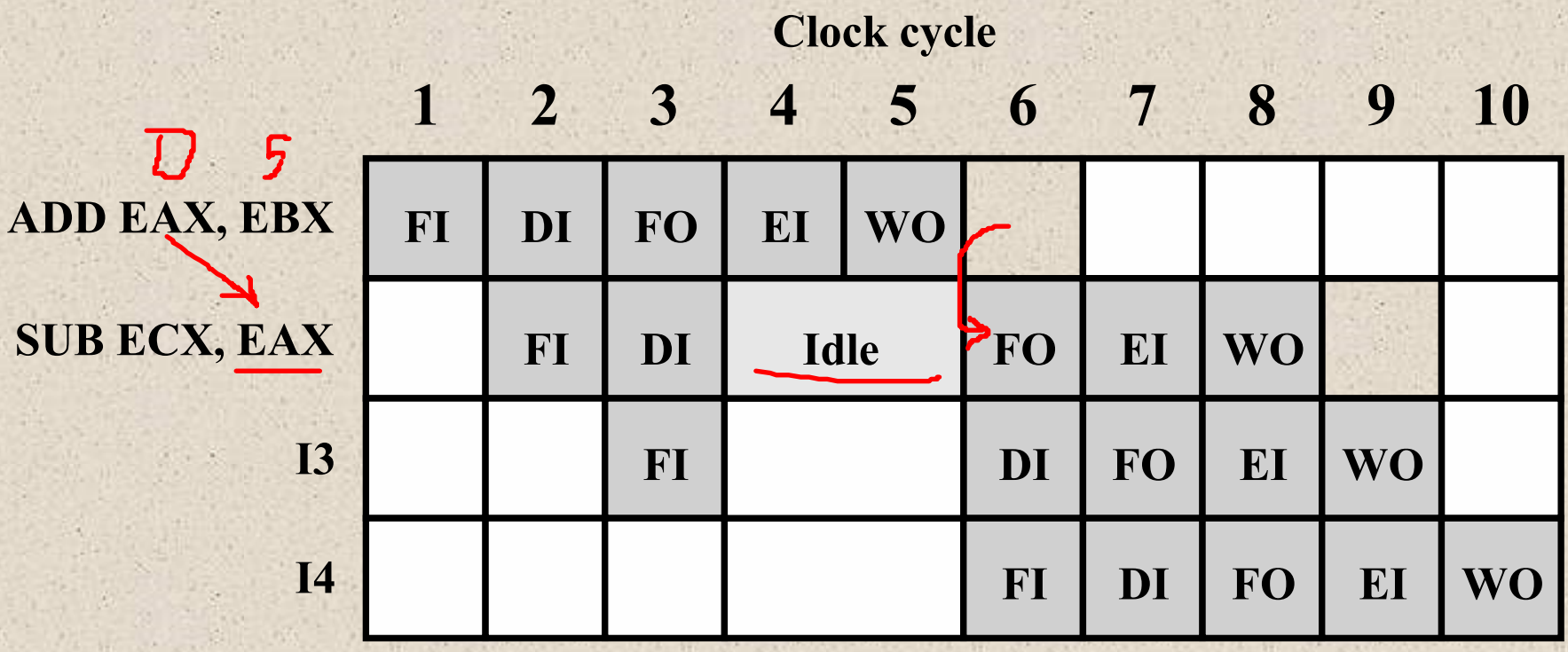


Figure 14.16 Example of Data Hazard

Types of Data Hazard

- Read after write (RAW), or true dependency
  - An instruction modifies a register or memory location
  - Succeeding instruction reads data in memory or register location
  - Hazard occurs if the read takes place before write operation is complete
- Write after read (WAR), or antidependency
  - An instruction reads a register or memory location
  - Succeeding instruction writes to the location
  - Hazard occurs if the write operation completes before the read operation takes place
- Write after write (WAW), or output dependency
  - Two instructions both write to the same location
  - Hazard occurs if the write operations take place in the reverse order of the intended sequence

Control Hazard

- Also known as a *branch hazard*
- Occurs when the pipeline makes the wrong decision on a branch prediction
- Brings instructions into the pipeline that must subsequently be discarded
- Dealing with Branches:
  - Multiple streams
  - Prefetch branch target
  - Loop buffer
  - Branch prediction
  - Delayed branch

Multiple Streams

A simple pipeline suffers a penalty for a branch instruction because it must choose one of two instructions to fetch next and may make the wrong choice

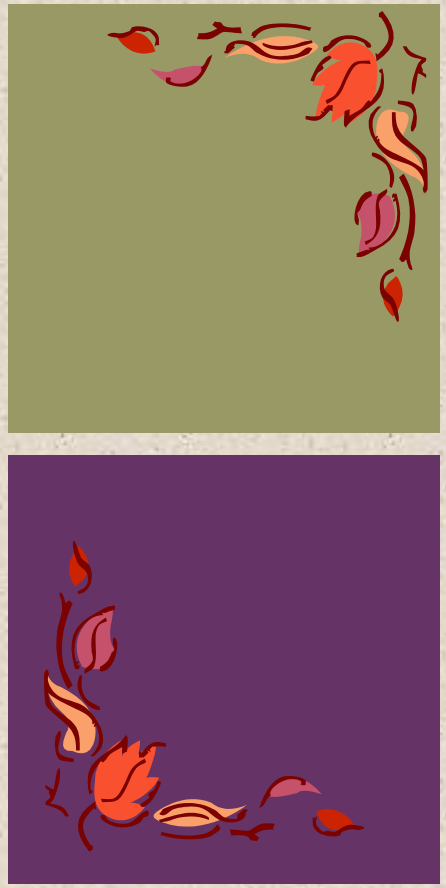
A brute-force approach is to replicate the initial portions of the pipeline and allow the pipeline to fetch both instructions, making use of two streams

Drawbacks:

- With multiple pipelines there are contention delays for access to the registers and to memory
- Additional branch instructions may enter the pipeline before the original branch decision is resolved

Prefetch Branch Target

- When a conditional branch is recognized, the target of the branch is prefetched, in addition to the instruction following the branch
- Target is then saved until the branch instruction is executed
- If the branch is taken, the target has already been prefetched
- IBM 360/91 uses this approach



Loop Buffer

- Small, very-high speed memory maintained by the instruction fetch stage of the pipeline and containing the *n* most recently fetched instructions, in sequence
- Benefits:
  - Instructions fetched in sequence will be available without the usual memory access time
  - If a branch occurs to a target just a few locations ahead of the address of the branch instruction, the target will already be in the buffer
  - This strategy is particularly well suited to dealing with loops
- Similar in principle to a cache dedicated to instructions
  - Differences:
    - The loop buffer only retains instructions in sequence
    - Is much smaller in size and hence lower in cost

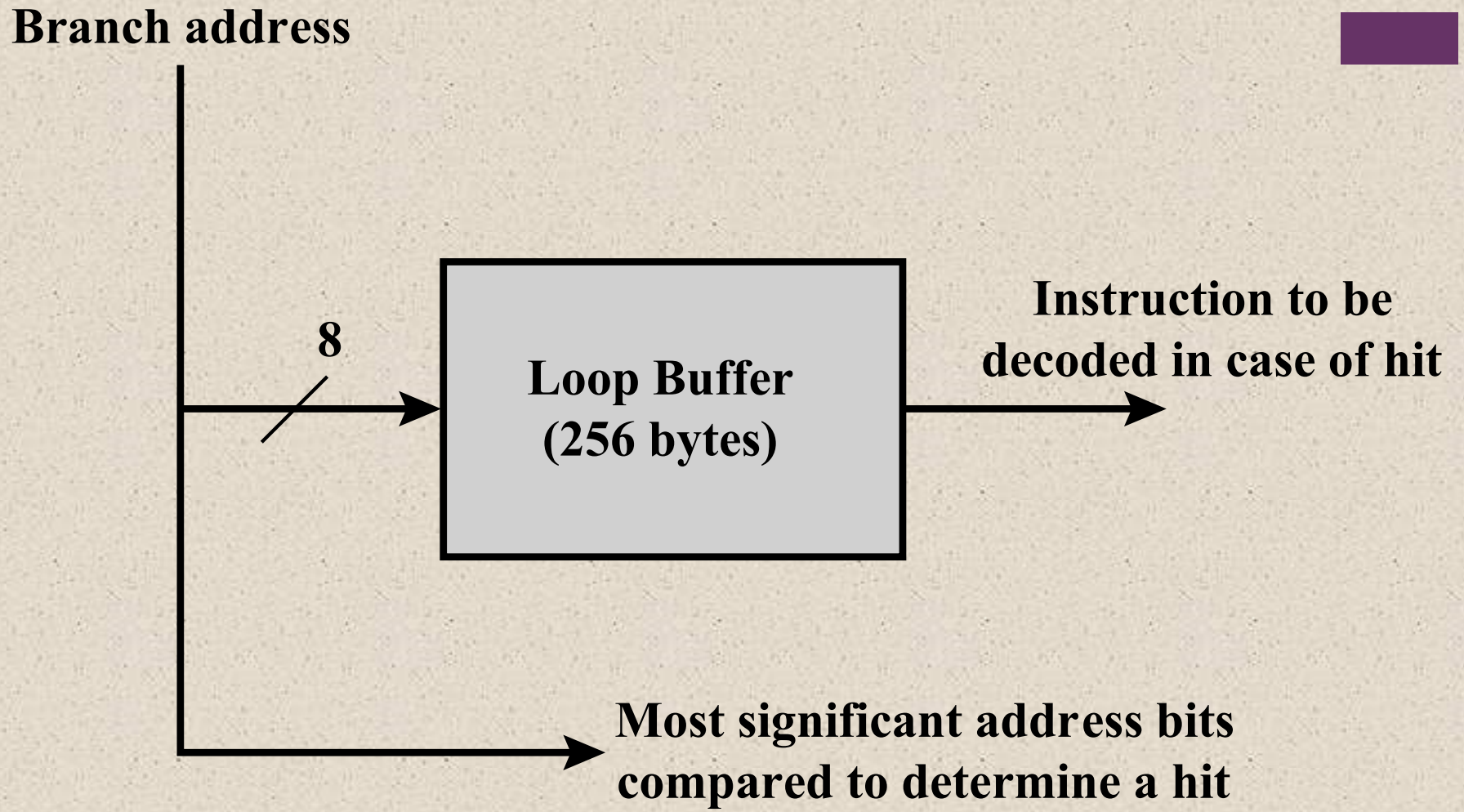


Figure 14.17 Loop Buffer

Branch Prediction

- Various techniques can be used to predict whether a branch will be taken:

1. Predict never taken
2. Predict always taken
3. Predict by opcode

- These approaches are static
- They do not depend on the execution history up to the time of the conditional branch instruction

1. Taken/not taken switch
2. Branch history table

- These approaches are dynamic
- They depend on the execution history

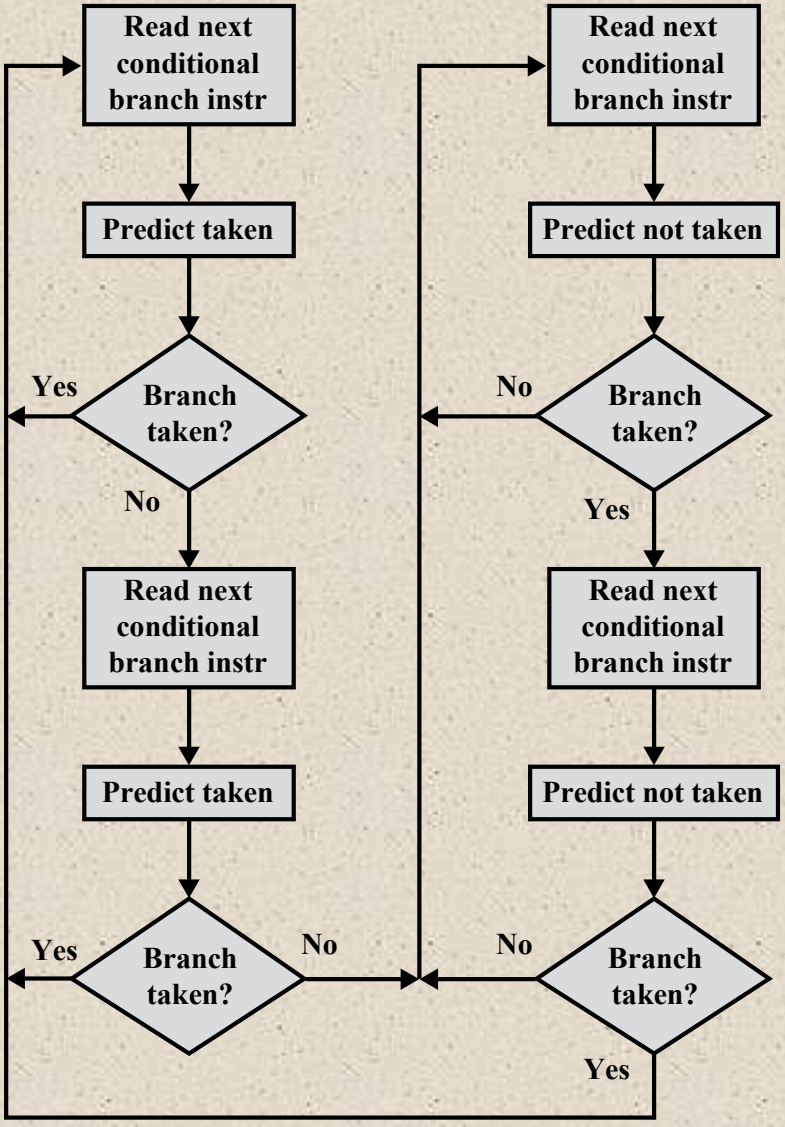


Figure 14.18 Branch Prediction Flow Chart

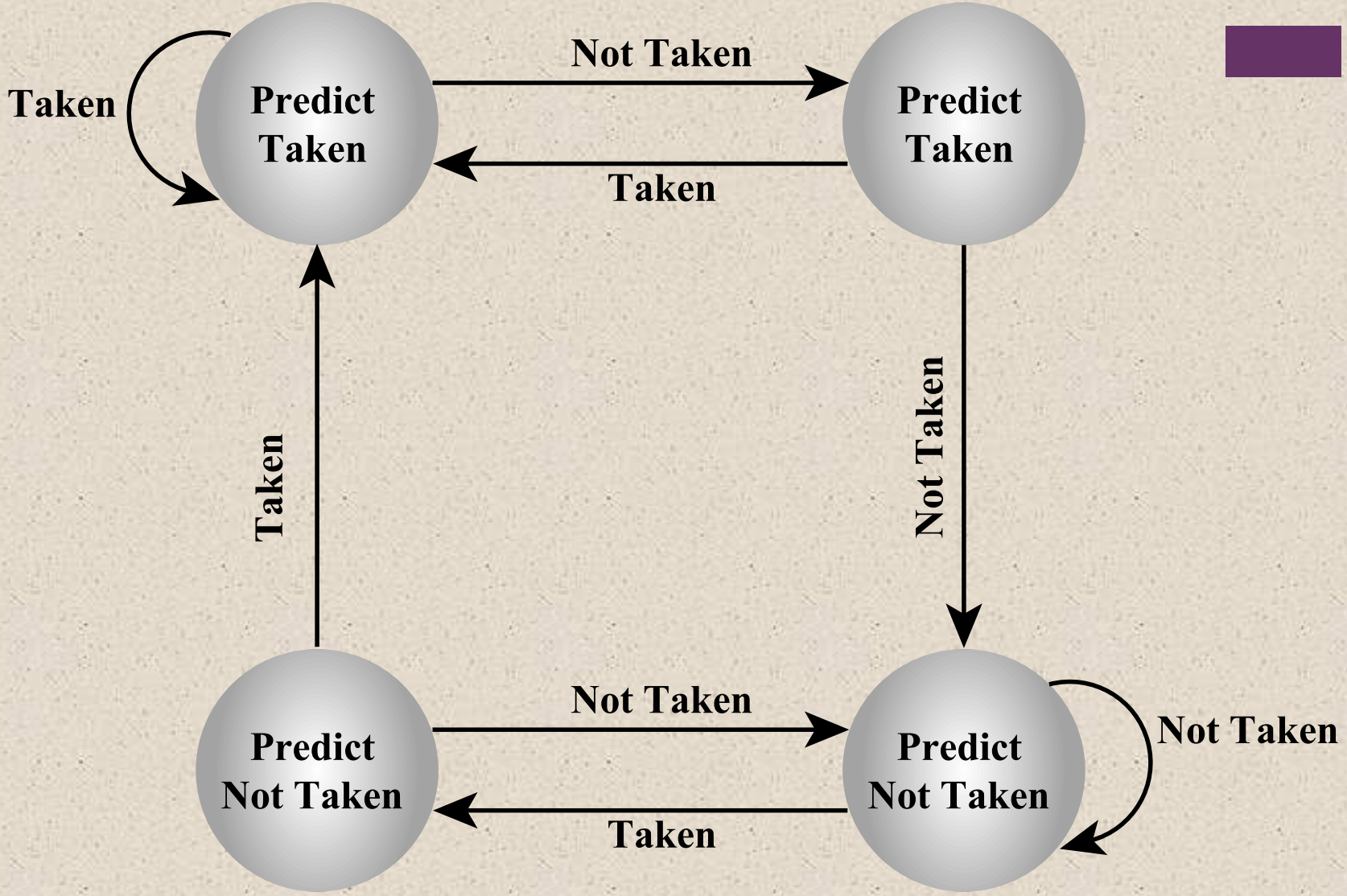


Figure 14.19 Branch Prediction State Diagram

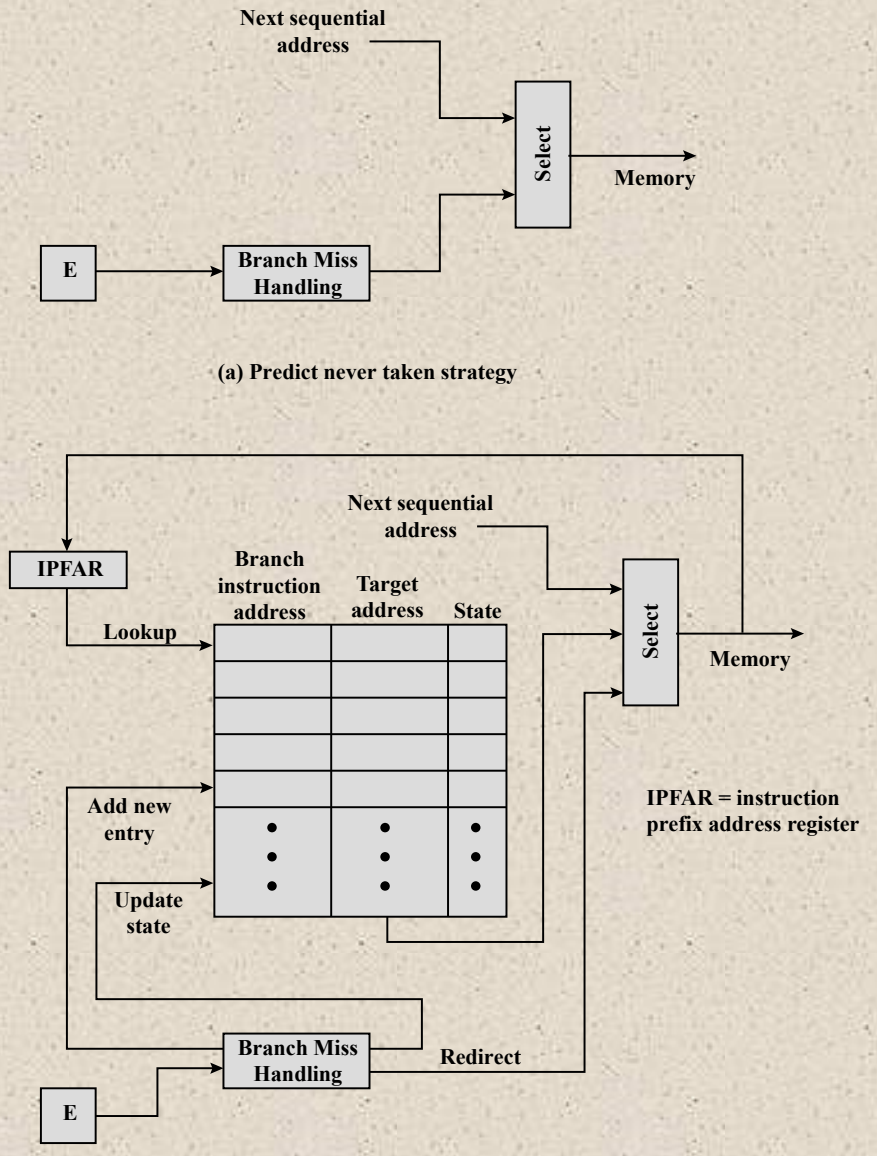


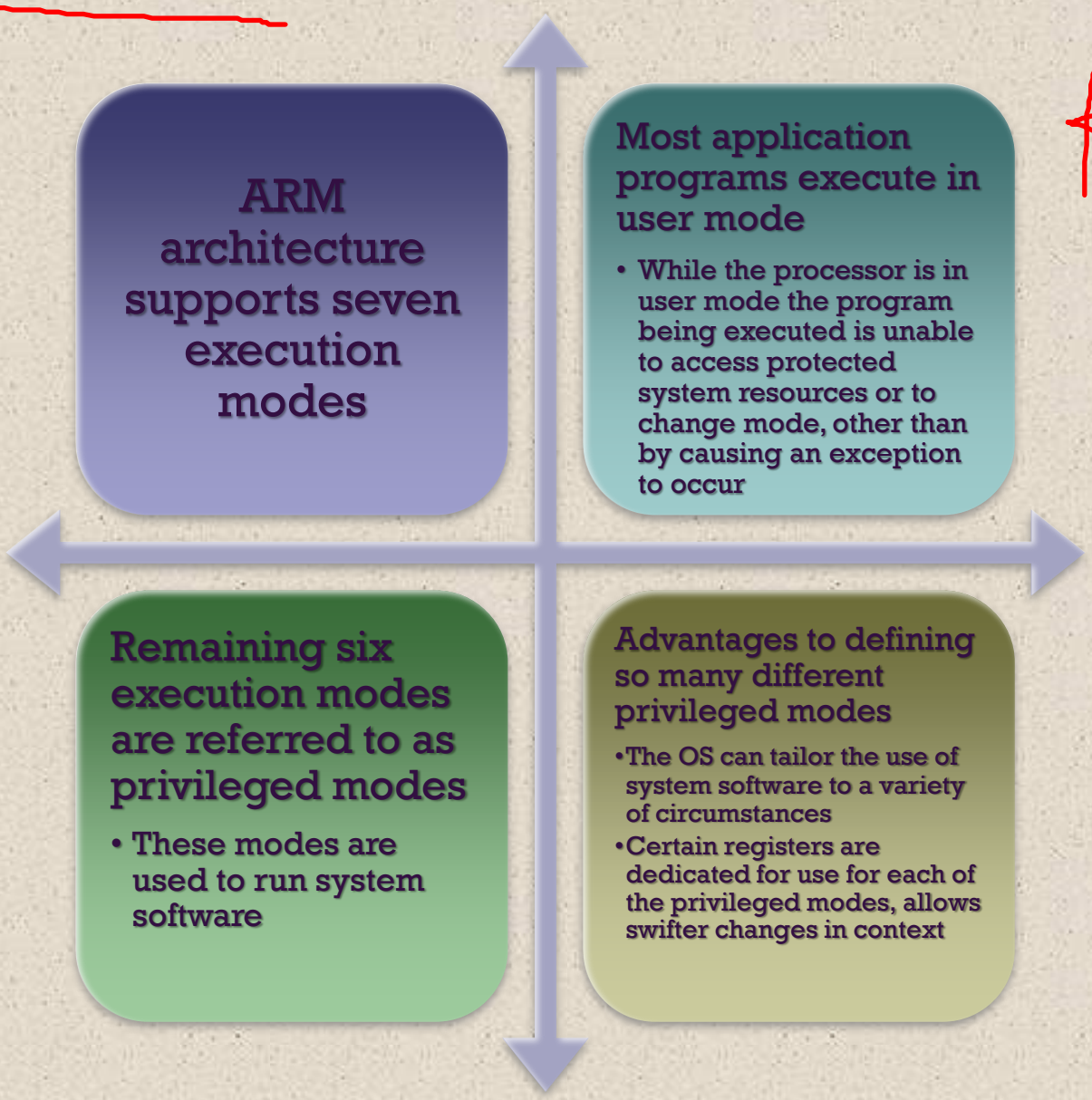
Figure 14.20 Dealing with Branches

Interrupt Processing

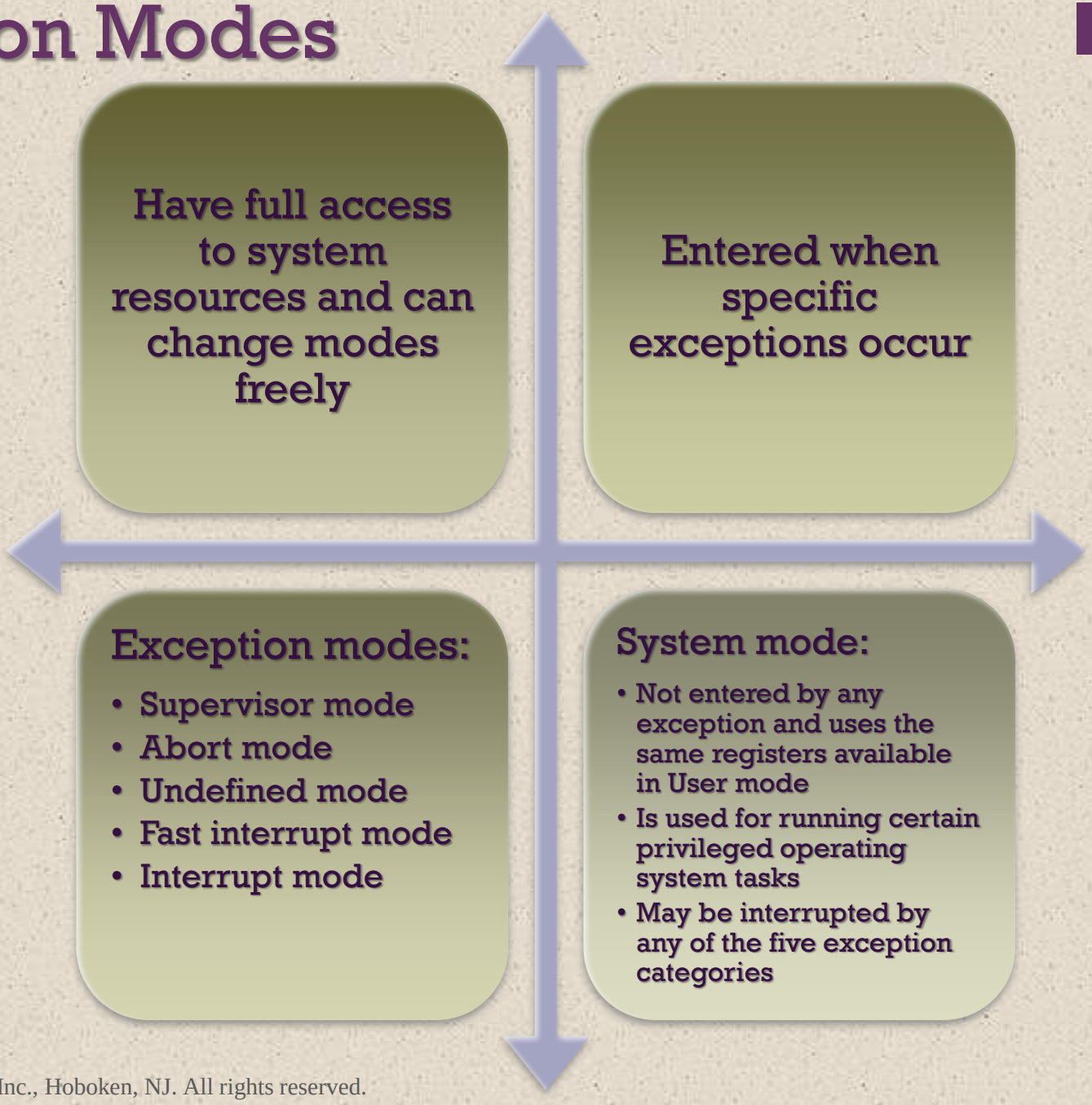
Interrupts and Exceptions

- Interrupts
  - Generated by a signal from hardware and it may occur at random times during the execution of a program
  - Maskable
  - Nonmaskable
- Exceptions
  - Generated from software and is provoked by the execution of an instruction
  - Processor detected
  - Programmed
- Interrupt vector table
  - Every type of interrupt is assigned a number
  - Number is used to index into the interrupt vector table

Processor Modes



Exception Modes



Have full access to system resources and can change modes freely

Entered when specific exceptions occur

Exception modes:

- Supervisor mode
- Abort mode
- Undefined mode
- Fast interrupt mode
- Interrupt mode

System mode:

- Not entered by any exception and uses the same registers available in User mode
- Is used for running certain privileged operating system tasks
- May be interrupted by any of the five exception categories

Thank You!!!