18-447

Computer Architecture Lecture 5: ISA Wrap-Up and Single-Cycle Microarchitectures

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Homework 0

Was due Wednesday!

34 received

Reminder: Homeworks for Next Two Weeks

Homework 1

- Due Monday Jan 28, right before lecture
- Turn in via AFS (hand-in directories)
- MIPS warmup, ISA concepts, basic performance evaluation

Homework 2

Will be assigned next week. Stay tuned...

Reminder: Lab Assignment 1

- Due next Friday (Feb 1), at the end of Friday lab
- A functional C-level simulator for a subset of the MIPS ISA
- Study the MIPS ISA Tutorial
 - □TAs will cover this in Lab Sessions this week

A Note on Lab and Homework Dates

- Intended dates are on your syllabus
 - http://www.ece.cmu.edu/~ece447/s13/lib/exe/fetch.php?medi
 a=syllabus-18-447-mutlu-s13.pdf
 - We will try to stick to them.
- Last year's website can provide you a good lookahead into what is coming...
 - http://www.ece.cmu.edu/~ece447/s12/doku.php
 - http://www.ece.cmu.edu/~ece447/s12/doku.php?id=wiki:lect ures

Readings for Next Lecture

- P&P, Revised Appendix C
 - Microarchitecture of the LC-3b
 - Appendix A (LC-3b ISA) will be useful in following this
- P&H, Appendix D
 - Mapping Control to Hardware
- Optional
 - Maurice Wilkes, "The Best Way to Design an Automatic Calculating Machine," Manchester Univ. Computer Inaugural Conf., 1951.

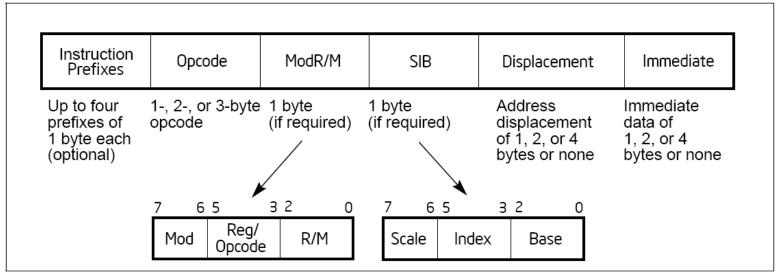
Review of Last Lecture: ISA Tradeoffs

- Complex vs. simple instructions: concept of semantic gap
- Use of translation to change the tradeoffs
- Fixed vs. variable length, uniform vs. non-uniform decode
- Number of registers

- What is the benefit of translating complex instructions to "simple instructions" before executing them?
 - In hardware (a la Intel, AMD)?
 - In software (a la Transmeta)?
- Which ISA is easier to extend: fixed length or variable length?
- How can you have a variable length, uniform decode ISA?

Review: x86 vs. Alpha Instruction Formats

x86:



Alpha:

| 31 26 | 25 21 | 20 16 | 15 | 5 | 4 0 | _ | | |
|--------|-------|-------|----------------|---------------|-----|----------------|--|--|
| Opcode | | | PALcode Format | | | | | |
| Opcode | RA | | Disp | Branch Format | | | | |
| Opcode | RA | RB | Disp | | | Memory Format | | |
| Opcode | RA | RB | Function | Function RC | | Operate Format | | |

Review: ISA-level Tradeoffs: Number of Registers

Affects:

- Number of bits used for encoding register address
- Number of values kept in fast storage (register file)
- (uarch) Size, access time, power consumption of register file

Large number of registers:

- + Enables better register allocation (and optimizations) by compiler → fewer saves/restores
- -- Larger instruction size
- -- Larger register file size

ISA-level Tradeoffs: Addressing Modes

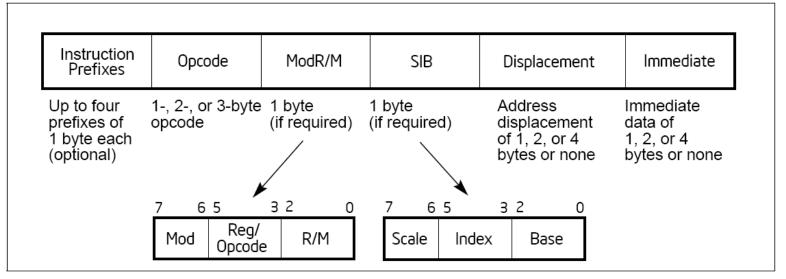
- Addressing mode specifies how to obtain an operand of an instruction
 - Register
 - Immediate
 - Memory (displacement, register indirect, indexed, absolute, memory indirect, autoincrement, autodecrement, ...)

More modes:

- + help better support programming constructs (arrays, pointerbased accesses)
- -- make it harder for the architect to design
- -- too many choices for the compiler?
 - Many ways to do the same thing complicates compiler design
 - Wulf, "Compilers and Computer Architecture," IEEE Computer 1981

x86 vs. Alpha Instruction Formats

x86:



Alpha:

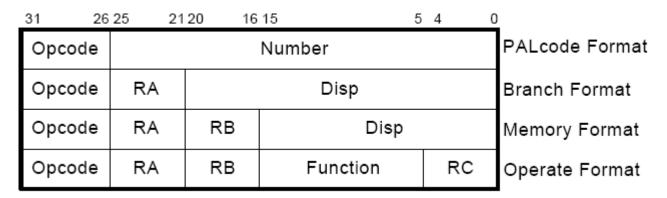


Table 2-2. 32-Bit Addressing Forms with the ModR/M Byte

| | Table 2-2 | . 32-l | BIT Add | ressing | g Form | s with | tne M | OOK/M | Byte | | |
|----------|---|--------|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| • | r8(/r) r16(/r) r32(/r) r32(/r) xmm(/r) xmm(/r) (In decimal) /digit (Opcode) (In binary) REG = | | | AL AX EAX MMO XMMO 0 0 | CL CX ECX MM1 XMM1 1 001 | DL DX EDX MM2 XMM2 2 010 | BL BX EBX MM3 XMM3 3 011 | AH SP ESP MM4 XMM4 4 100 | CH BP EBP MM5 XMM5 5 101 | DH SI ESI MM6 XMM6 5 110 | BH DI EDI MM7 XMM7 7 111 |
| | Effective Address | Mod | R/M | | Value | of Mod | R/M By | /te (in l | lexade | cimal) | |
| <u></u> | [EAX] (EDX) (EBX) (-)[-] ¹ disp32 ² (ESI) (EDI) | 00 | 000 001 010 011 100 101 110 111 | 00 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 | 08 09 0A 0B 0C 0D 0F | 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 | 18 19 1A 1B 1C 1D 1E 1F | 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 | 28 29 2A 2B 2C 2D 2E 2F | 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 | 38 39 38 38 30 35 35 35 |
| <u> </u> | [EAX]+disp8 ³ [ECX]+disp8 [EDX]+disp8 [EBX]+disp8 [-][-]+disp8 [ESI]+disp8 [EDI]+disp8 | 01 | 000 001 010 011 100 101 110 111 | 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 | 48 49 4A 4B 4C 4D 4F 4F | 50 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 | 58 59 5B 5C 5D 5E 5F | 60 61 62 63 64 65 66 67 | 68 69 68 60 60 66 6F | 70 71 72 73 74 75 76 77 | 78 79 7A 7B 7C 7D 7E 7F |
| | [EAX]+disp32 [ECX]+disp32 [EDX]+disp32 [EBX]+disp32 [](]+disp32 [EBP]+disp32 [ESI]+disp32 [EDI]+disp32 | 10 | 000 001 010 011 100 101 110 111 | 80 81 82 83 84 85 86 87 | 88 89 8A 8B 8C 8D 8E 8F | 90 91 92 93 94 95 96 97 | 98 99 9A 9B 9C 9D 9E 9F | A0 A1 A2 A3 A4 A5 A6 A7 | A8 A9 AB AC AD AF AF | B0 B1 B2 B3 B4 B5 B6 B7 | B8 B9 BA BB BC BD BE BF |
| | EAX/AX/AL/MM0/XMM0 ECX/CX/CL/MM/XMM1 EDX/DX/DL/MM2/XMM2 EBX/BX/BL/MM3/XMM3 ESP/SP/AH/MM4/XMM4 EBP/BP/CH/MM5/XMM5 ESI/SI/DH/MM6/XMM6 EDI/DI/BH/MM7/XMM7 | 11 | 000 001 010 011 100 101 110 111 | 85888585 | 89588888 | D0 D1 D2 D3 D4 D5 D6 | D8 D9 DA DB DC DD DE DF | 81284567 | 89686666 | F0 F1 F2 F3 F4 F5 F6 F7 | F8 F9 FA FB FC FD FF FF |

NOTES:

x86

register

indirect

absolute

register +

displacement

register

- The [--][--] nomenclature means a SIB follows the ModR/M byte.
- The disp32 nomenclature denotes a 32-bit displacement that follows the ModR/M byte (or the SIB byte if one is present) and that is added to the index.
- The disp8 nomenclature denotes an 8-bit displacement that follows the ModR/M byte (or the SIB byte if one is present) and that is sign-extended and added to the index.

Table 2-3 is organized to give 256 possible values of the SIB byte (in hexadecimal).

x86

indexed

(base +

index)

Table 2-3. 32-Bit Addressing Forms with the SIB Byte

| | | Idule 2 | 5. 52 | -DIL AU | niessiii | g roini | s with | tile 31b | byte | | |
|---|---|---------|--|--|--|--|--|---|--|---|--|
| | r32 (In decimal) Base = (In binary) Base = | | | EAX 0 000 | ECX 1 001 | EDX 2 010 | EBX 3 011 | ESP 4 100 | [*] 5 101 | ESI 6 110 | EDI 7 111 |
| • | Scaled Index | SS | Index Value of SIB Byte (in Hexadecimal) | | | | | | | | |
| 7 | [EAX] [ECX] [EDX] [EBX] none [EBP] [ESI] [EDI] | 00 | 000 001 010 011 100 101 110 | 00 08 10 18 20 28 30 38 | 01 09 11 19 21 29 31 39 | 02 0A 12 1A 22 2A 32 3A | 03 0B 13 1B 23 2B 33 3B | 04 0C 14 1C 24 2C 34 3C | 05 0D 15 1D 25 2D 35 3D | 06 0E 16 1E 26 2E 36 3E | 07 0F 17 1F 27 2F 37 3F |
| | [EAX*2] [ECX*2] [EDX*2] [EBX*2] none [EBP*2] [ESI*2] [EDI*2] | 01 | 000 001 010 011 100 101 110 111 | 40 48 50 58 60 68 70 78 | 41 49 51 59 61 69 71 79 | 42 4A 52 5A 62 6A 72 7A | 43 4B 53 5B 63 6B 73 7B | 44 40 54 50 64 60 74 70 | 45 4D 55 5D 65 6D 75 7D | 46 4E 56 5E 66 6E 76 7E | 47 4F 57 5F 67 6F 77 7F |
| 7 | [EAX*4] [ECX*4] [EDX*4] [EBX*4] none [EBP*4] [ESI*4] [EDI*4] | 10 | 000 001 010 011 100 101 110 111 | 80 88 90 98 A0 A8 B0 B8 | 81 89 91 89 A1 A9 B1 B9 | 82 8A 92 9A A2 AA B2 BA | 83 8B 93 9B A3 AB B3 BB | 84 80 94 90 84 80 84 80 | 85 8D 95 9D A5 AD B5 BD | 86 8E 96 9E A6 AE B6 BE | 87 8F 97 9F A7 AF B7 BF |
| | [EAX*8] ECX*8] [EDX*8] [EBX*8] none [EBP*8] [ESI*8] [EDI*8] | 11 | 000 001 010 011 100 101 110 111 | 080808C8 | C1 C9 D1 E1 E9 F1 F9 | C2 CA D2 DA E2 EA FA | CB C | 404 64 64 64 64 64 64 64 64 64 64 64 64 64 | 56565656 | 66.00 | 77 CF D7 GF F7 FF |

scaled (base + index*4)

NOTES:

MOD bits Effective Address

- 00 [scaled index] + disp32
- 01 [scaled index] + disp8 + [EBP]
- 10 [scaled index] + disp32 + [EBP]

The [*] nomenclature means a disp32 with no base if the MOD is 00B. Otherwise, [*] means disp8
or disp32 + [EBP]. This provides the following address modes:

X86 SIB-D Addressing Mode

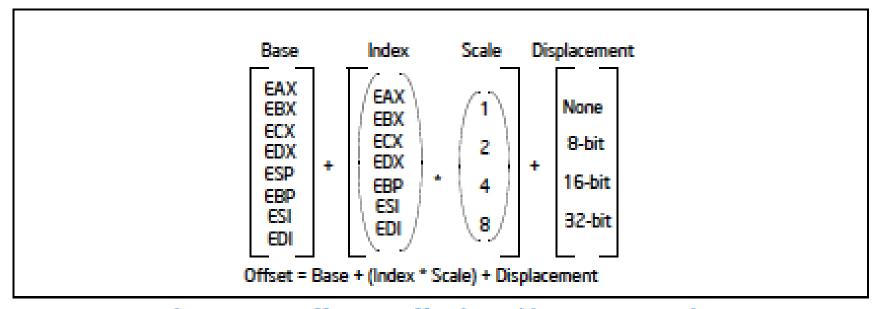


Figure 3-11. Offset (or Effective Address) Computation

x86 Manual Vol. 1, page 3-22 -- see course resources on website Also, see Section 3.7.3 and 3.7.5

X86 Manual: Suggested Uses of Addressing Modes

The following addressing modes suggest uses for common combinations of address components.

- Displacement A displacement alone represents a direct (uncomputed) offset to the operand. Because the
 displacement is encoded in the instruction, this form of an address is sometimes called an absolute or static
 address. It is commonly used to access a statically allocated scalar operand.
- Base A base alone represents an indirect offset to the operand. Since the value in the base register can
 change, it can be used for dynamic storage of variables and data structures.
- Base + Displacement A base register and a displacement can be used together for two distinct purposes:
 - As an index into an array when the element size is not 2, 4, or 8 bytes—The displacement component
 encodes the static offset to the beginning of the array. The base register holds the results of a calculation to
 determine the offset to a specific element within the array.
 - To access a field of a record: the base register holds the address of the beginning of the record, while the
 displacement is a static offset to the field.

An important special case of this combination is access to parameters in a procedure activation record. A procedure activation record is the stack frame created when a procedure is entered. Here, the EBP register is the best choice for the base register, because it automatically selects the stack segment. This is a compact encoding for this common function.

x86 Manual Vol. 1, page 3-22 -- see course resources on website Also, see Section 3.7.3 and 3.7.5

X86 Manual: Suggested Uses of Addressing Modes

- (Index * Scale) + Displacement This address mode offers an efficient way
 to index into a static array when the element size is 2, 4, or 8 bytes. The
 displacement locates the beginning of the array, the index register holds the
 subscript of the desired array element, and the processor automatically converts
 the subscript into an index by applying the scaling factor.
- Base + Index + Displacement Using two registers together supports either
 a two-dimensional array (the displacement holds the address of the beginning of
 the array) or one of several instances of an array of records (the displacement is
 an offset to a field within the record).
- Base + (Index * Scale) + Displacement Using all the addressing components together allows efficient indexing of a two-dimensional array when the elements of the array are 2, 4, or 8 bytes in size.

x86 Manual Vol. 1, page 3-22 -- see course resources on website Also, see Section 3.7.3 and 3.7.5

Other Example ISA-level Tradeoffs

- Condition codes vs. not
- VLIW vs. single instruction
- Precise vs. imprecise exceptions
- Virtual memory vs. not
- Unaligned access vs. not
- Hardware interlocks vs. software-guaranteed interlocking
- Software vs. hardware managed page fault handling
- Cache coherence (hardware vs. software)
- **...**

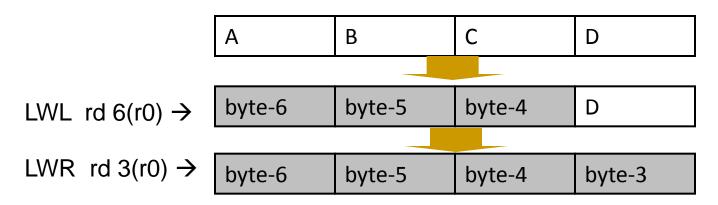
Back to Programmer vs. (Micro)architect

- Many ISA features designed to aid programmers
- But, complicate the hardware designer's job
- Virtual memory
 - vs. overlay programming
 - Should the programmer be concerned about the size of code blocks fitting physical memory?
- Addressing modes
- Unaligned memory access
 - Compile/programmer needs to align data

MIPS: Aligned Access

| MSB | byte-3 | byte-2 | byte-1 | byte-0 | LSB |
|-----|--------|--------|--------|--------|-----|
| | byte-7 | byte-6 | byte-5 | byte-4 | |

- LW/SW alignment restriction: 4-byte word-alignment
 - not designed to fetch memory bytes not within a word boundary
 - not designed to rotate unaligned bytes into registers
- Provide separate opcodes for the "infrequent" case



- LWL/LWR is slower
- Note LWL and LWR still fetch within word boundary

X86: Unaligned Access

- LD/ST instructions automatically align data that spans a "word" boundary
- Programmer/compiler does not need to worry about where data is stored (whether or not in a word-aligned location)

4.1.1 Alignment of Words, Doublewords, Quadwords, and Double Quadwords

Words, doublewords, and quadwords do not need to be aligned in memory on natural boundaries. The natural boundaries for words, double words, and quadwords are even-numbered addresses, addresses evenly divisible by four, and addresses evenly divisible by eight, respectively. However, to improve the performance of programs, data structures (especially stacks) should be aligned on natural boundaries when ever possible. The reason for this is that the processor requires two memory accesses to make an unaligned memory access; aligned accesses require only one memory access. A word or doubleword operand that crosses a 4-byte boundary or a quadword operand that crosses an 8-byte boundary is considered unaligned and requires two separate memory bus cycles for access.

X86: Unaligned Access

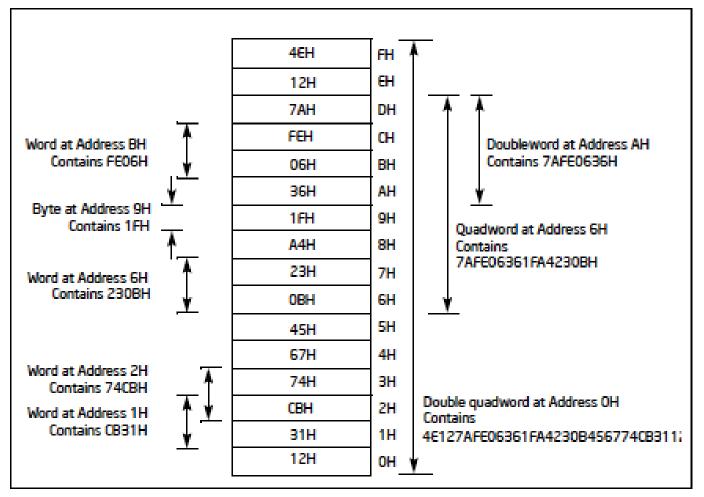


Figure 4-2. Bytes, Words, Doublewords, Quadwords, and Double Quadwords in Memory

Aligned vs. Unaligned Access

Pros of having no restrictions on alignment

Cons of having no restrictions on alignment

Filling in the above: an exercise for you...

Implementing the ISA: Microarchitecture Basics

How Does a Machine Process Instructions?

- What does processing an instruction mean?
- Remember the von Neumann model

A = Architectural (programmer visible) state before an instruction is processed

Process instruction

A' = Architectural (programmer visible) state after an

 Processing an instruction: Transforming A to A' according to the ISA specification of the instruction

instruction is processed

The "Process instruction" Step

- ISA specifies abstractly what A' should be, given an instruction and A
 - It defines an abstract finite state machine where
 - State = programmer-visible state
 - Next-state logic = instruction execution specification
 - From ISA point of view, there are no "intermediate states" between A and A' during instruction execution
 - One state transition per instruction
- Microarchitecture implements how A is transformed to A'
 - There are many choices in implementation
 - We can have programmer-invisible state to optimize the speed of instruction execution: multiple state transitions per instruction
 - Choice 1: $A \rightarrow A'$ (transform A to A' in a single clock cycle)
 - Choice 2: A → A+MS1 → A+MS2 → A+MS3 → A' (take multiple clock cycles to transform A to A')

A Very Basic Instruction Processing Engine

- Each instruction takes a single clock cycle to execute
- Only combinational logic is used to implement instruction execution
 - No intermediate, programmer-invisible state updates

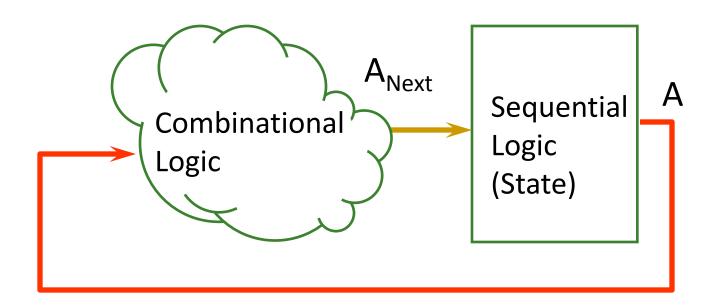
A = Architectural (programmer visible) state at the beginning of a clock cycle

Process instruction in one clock cycle

A' = Architectural (programmer visible) state at the end of a clock cycle

A Very Basic Instruction Processing Engine

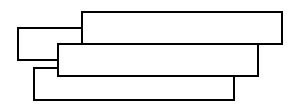
Single-cycle machine



- What is the clock cycle time determined by?
- What is the *critical path* of the combinational logic determined by?

Remember: Programmer Visible (Architectural) State

| M[0] |
|--------|
| M[1] |
| M[2] |
| M[3] |
| M[4] |
| |
| |
| |
| |
| M[N-1] |



Registers

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

Memory

array of storage locations indexed by an address

Program Counter

memory address
of the current instruction

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

Single-cycle vs. Multi-cycle Machines

Single-cycle machines

- Each instruction takes a single clock cycle
- All state updates made at the end of an instruction's execution
- Big disadvantage: The slowest instruction determines cycle time → long clock cycle time

Multi-cycle machines

- Instruction processing broken into multiple cycles/stages
- State updates can be made during an instruction's execution
- Architectural state updates made only at the end of an instruction's execution
- Advantage over single-cycle: The slowest "stage" determines cycle time
- Both single-cycle and multi-cycle machines literally follow the von Neumann model at the microarchitecture level

Instruction Processing "Cycle"

- Instructions are processed under the direction of a "control unit" step by step.
- Instruction cycle: Sequence of steps to process an instruction
- Fundamentally, there are six phases:
- Fetch
- Decode
- Evaluate Address
- Fetch Operands
- Execute
- Store Result
- Not all instructions require all six stages (see P&P Ch. 4)

Instruction Processing "Cycle" vs. Machine Clock Cycle

- Single-cycle machine:
 - All six phases of the instruction processing cycle take a single machine clock cycle to complete
- Multi-cycle machine:
 - All six phases of the instruction processing cycle can take multiple machine clock cycles to complete
 - In fact, each phase can take multiple clock cycles to complete

Instruction Processing Viewed Another Way

- Instructions transform Data (AS) to Data' (AS')
- This transformation is done by functional units
 - Units that "operate" on data
- These units need to be told what to do to the data
- An instruction processing engine consists of two components
 - Datapath: Consists of hardware elements that deal with and transform data signals
 - functional units that operate on data
 - hardware structures (e.g. wires and muxes) that enable the flow of data into the functional units and registers
 - storage units that store data (e.g., registers)
 - Control logic: Consists of hardware elements that determine control signals, i.e., signals that specify what the datapath elements should do to the data

Single-cycle vs. Multi-cycle: Control & Data

- Single-cycle machine:
 - Control signals are generated in the same clock cycle as data signals are operated on
 - Everything related to an instruction happens in one clock cycle
- Multi-cycle machine:
 - Control signals needed in the next cycle can be generated in the previous cycle
 - Latency of control processing can be overlapped with latency of datapath operation
- We will see the difference clearly in microprogrammed multi-cycle microarchitecture

Many Ways of Datapath and Control Design

- There are many ways of designing the data path and control logic
- Single-cycle, multi-cycle, pipelined datapath and control
- Single-bus vs. multi-bus datapaths
 - See your homework 2 question
- Hardwired/combinational vs. microcoded/microprogrammed control
 - Control signals generated by combinational logic versus
 - Control signals stored in a memory structure
- Control signals and structure depend on the datapath design

Flash-Forward: Performance Analysis

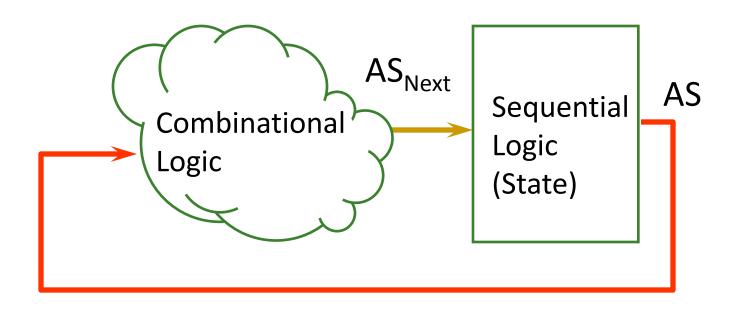
- Execution time of an instruction
 - □ {CPI} x {clock cycle time}
- Execution time of a program
 - Sum over all instructions [{CPI} x {clock cycle time}]
 - {# of instructions} x {Average CPI} x {clock cycle time}
- Single cycle microarchitecture performance
 - \Box CPI = 1
 - Clock cycle time = long
- Multi-cycle microarchitecture performance
 - CPI = different for each instruction
 - Average CPI → hopefully small
 - Clock cycle time = short

Now, we have two degrees of freedom to optimize independently

A Single-Cycle Microarchitecture A Closer Look

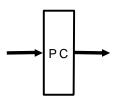
Remember...

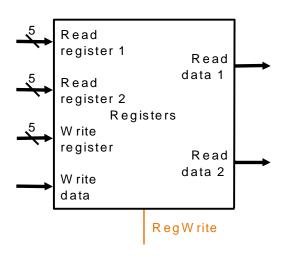
Single-cycle machine

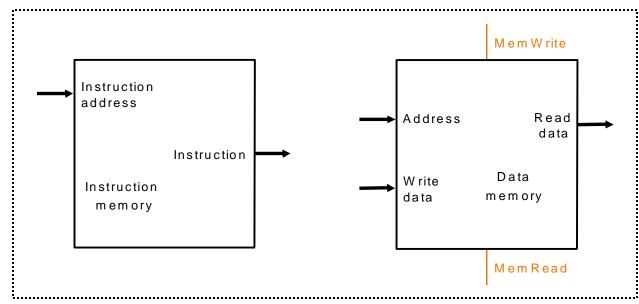


Let's Start with the State Elements

Data and control inputs





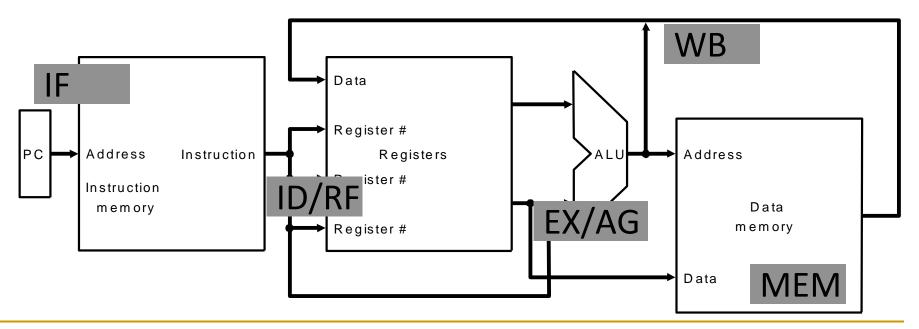


For Now, We Will Assume

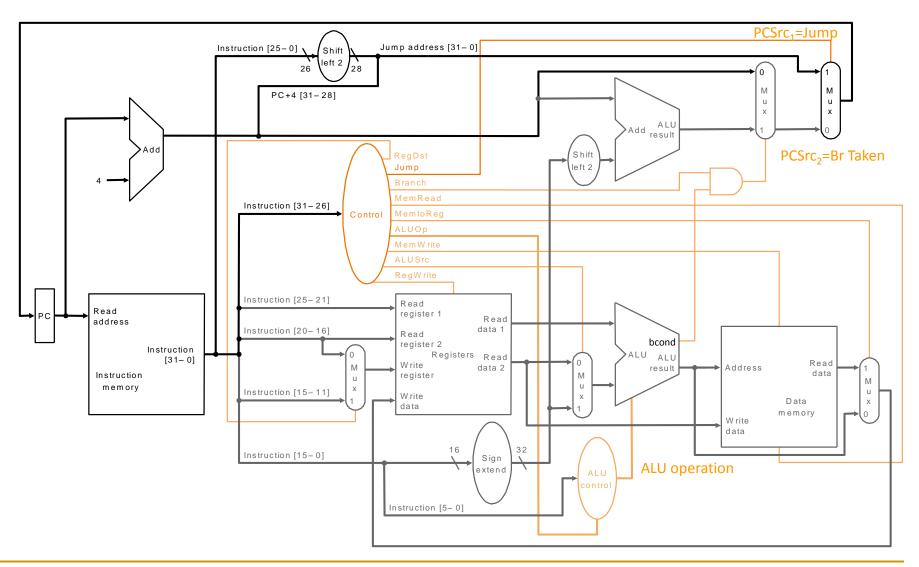
- "Magic" memory and register file
- Combinational read
 - output of the read data port is a combinational function of the register file contents and the corresponding read select port
- Synchronous write
 - the selected register is updated on the positive edge clock transition when write enable is asserted
 - Cannot affect read output in between clock edges
 - Can affect read output at clock edges (but who cares?)
- Single-cycle, synchronous memory
 - Contrast this with memory that tells when the data is ready
 - i.e., Ready bit: indicating the read or write is done

Instruction Processing

- 5 generic steps (P&H)
 - Instruction fetch (IF)
 - Instruction decode and register operand fetch (ID/RF)
 - Execute/Evaluate memory address (EX/AG)
 - Memory operand fetch (MEM)
 - Store/writeback result (WB)



What Is To Come: The Full Datapath



Single-Cycle Datapath for Arithmetic and Logical Instructions

R-Type ALU Instructions

- Assembly (e.g., register-register signed addition)
 ADD rd_{req} rs_{req} rt_{req}
- Machine encoding

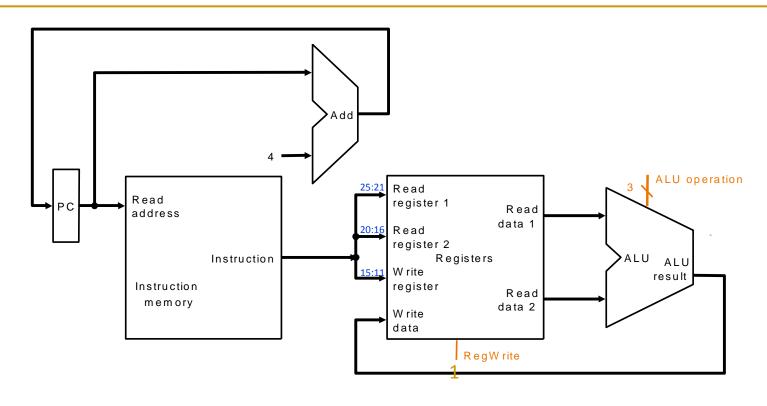
| 0 | rs | rt | rd | 0 | ADD | R-type |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------|
| 6-bit | 5-bit | 5-bit | 5-bit | 5-bit | 6-bit | |

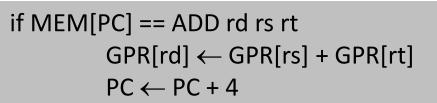
Semantics

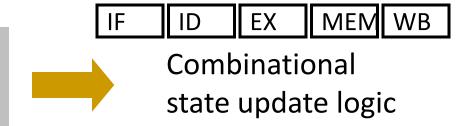
if MEM[PC] == ADD rd rs rt
$$GPR[rd] \leftarrow GPR[rs] + GPR[rt]$$

$$PC \leftarrow PC + 4$$

ALU Datapath







I-Type ALU Instructions

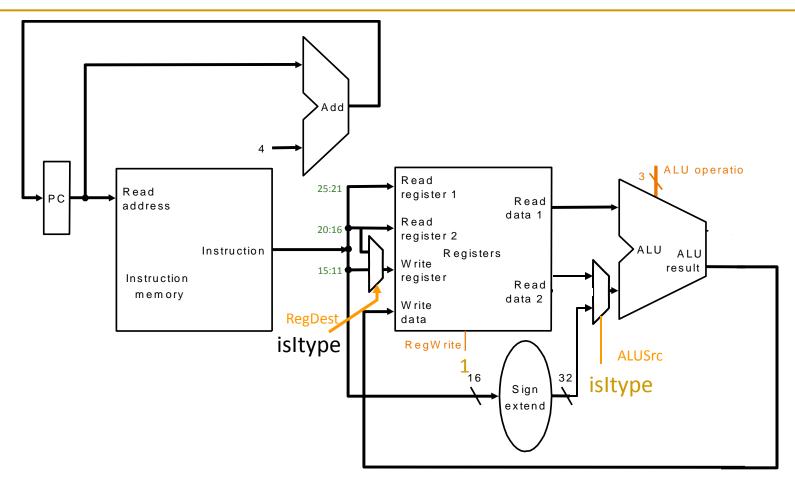
- Assembly (e.g., register-immediate signed additions)
 ADDI rt_{reg} rs_{reg} immediate₁₆
- Machine encoding

| ADDI | rs | rt | immediate | I-type |
|-------|-------|-------|-----------|--------|
| 6-bit | 5-bit | 5-bit | 16-bit | |

Semantics

if MEM[PC] == ADDI rt rs immediate
GPR[rt]
$$\leftarrow$$
 GPR[rs] + sign-extend (immediate)
PC \leftarrow PC + 4

Datapath for R and I-Type ALU Insts.



if MEM[PC] == ADDI rt rs immediate GPR[rt] \leftarrow GPR[rs] + sign-extend (immediate) PC \leftarrow PC + 4 IF ID EX MEM WB

Combinational state update logic 46

Single-Cycle Datapath for Data Movement Instructions

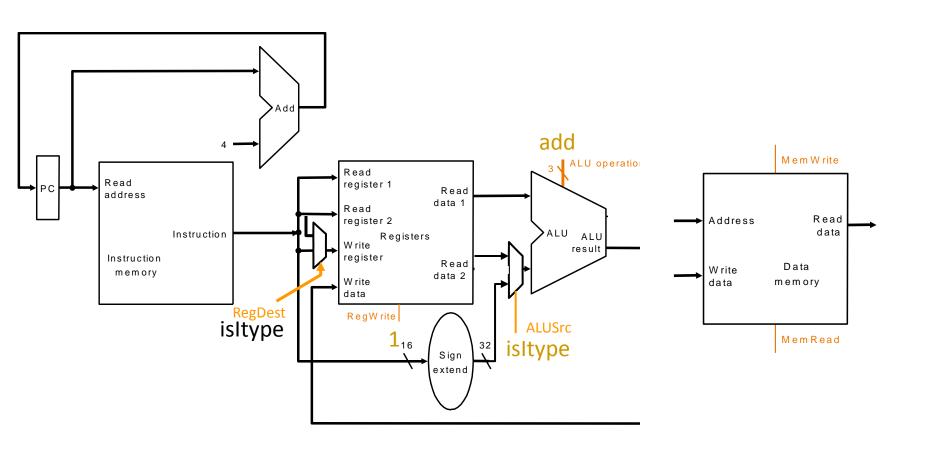
Load Instructions

- Assembly (e.g., load 4-byte word)
 LW rt_{req} offset₁₆ (base_{req})
- Machine encoding

| LW | base | rt | offset | l-type |
|-------|-------|-------|--------|--------|
| 6-bit | 5-bit | 5-bit | 16-bit | |

Semantics

LW Datapath



if MEM[PC]==LW rt offset₁₆ (base)

EA = sign-extend(offset) + GPR[base]

GPR[rt] \leftarrow MEM[translate(EA)]

PC \leftarrow PC + 4

Combinational
state update logic 49

Store Instructions

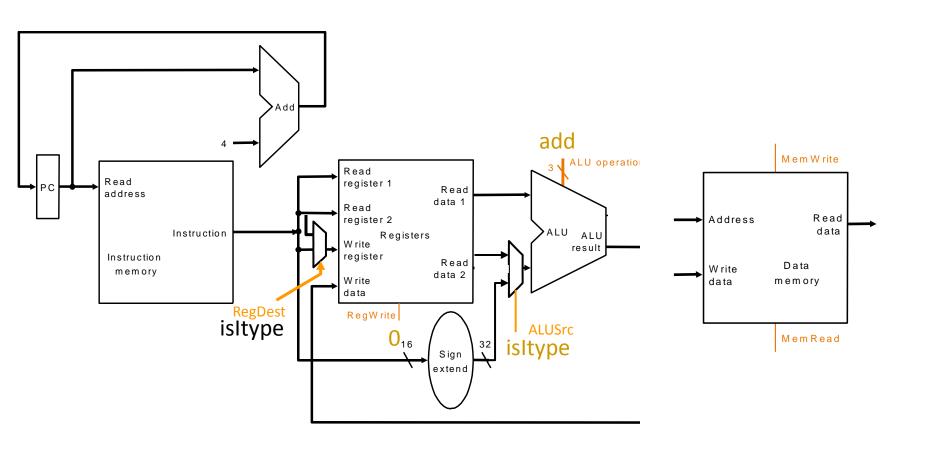
- Assembly (e.g., store 4-byte word)
 SW rt_{req} offset₁₆ (base_{req})
- Machine encoding

| SW | base | rt | offset | I-type |
|-------|-------|-------|--------|--------|
| 6-bit | 5-bit | 5-bit | 16-bit | |

Semantics

if MEM[PC]==SW rt offset₁₆ (base)
EA = sign-extend(offset) + GPR[base]
MEM[translate(EA)]
$$\leftarrow$$
 GPR[rt]
PC \leftarrow PC + 4

SW Datapath



if MEM[PC]==SW rt offset₁₆ (base)

EA = sign-extend(offset) + GPR[base]

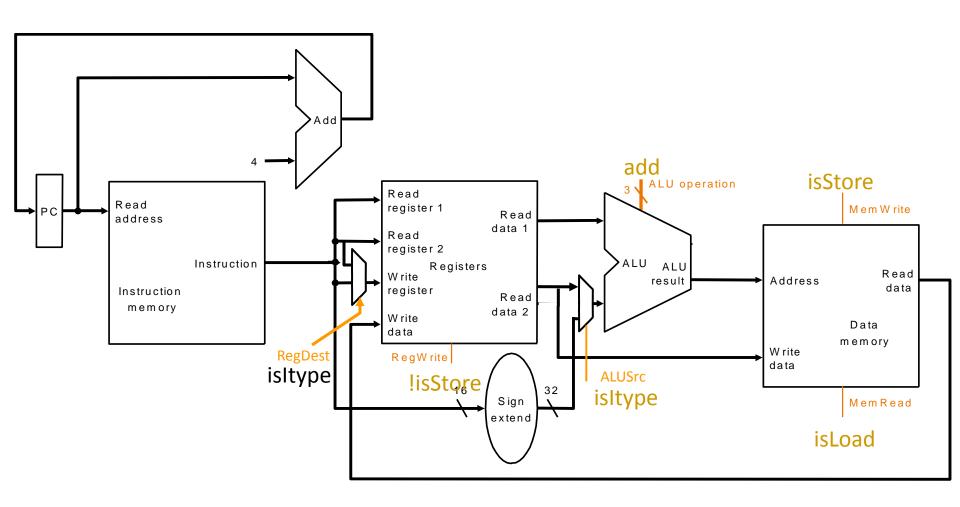
MEM[translate(EA)] \leftarrow GPR[rt]

PC \leftarrow PC + 4

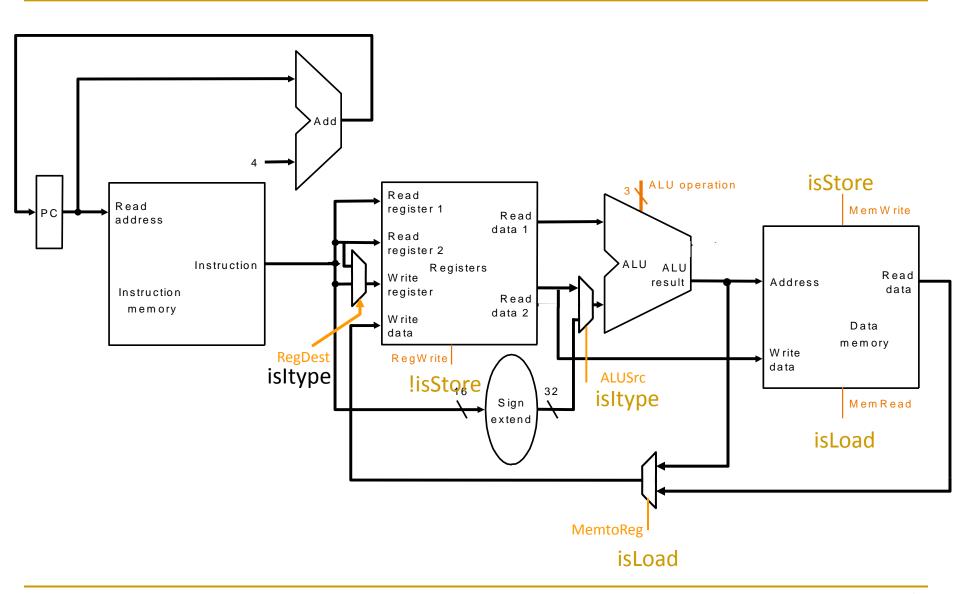
Combinational

state update logic 51

Load-Store Datapath



Datapath for Non-Control-Flow Insts.



Single-Cycle Datapath for Control Flow Instructions

Unconditional Jump Instructions

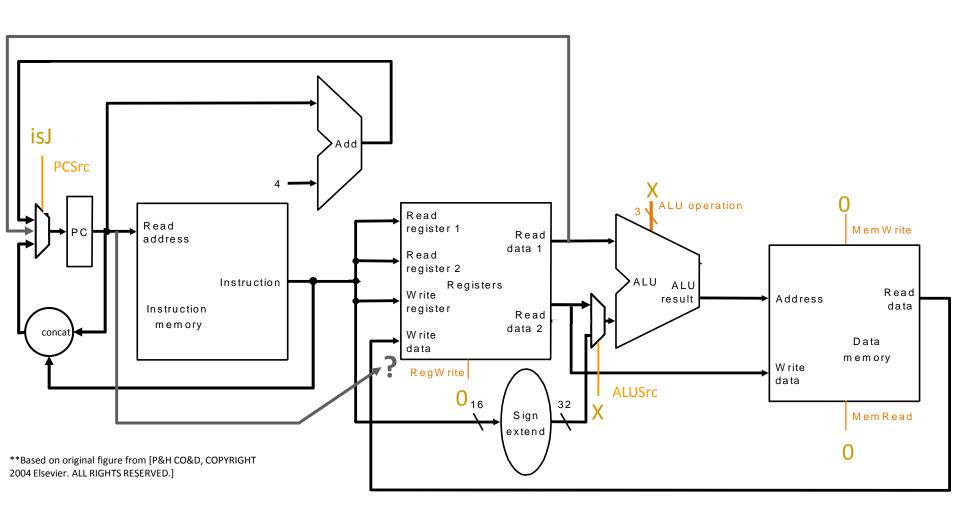
- AssemblyJ immediate₂₆
- Machine encoding

```
J immediate J-type
```

Semantics

```
if MEM[PC]==J immediate<sub>26</sub>
target = { PC[31:28], immediate<sub>26</sub>, 2' b00 }
PC ← target
```

Unconditional Jump Datapath



Conditional Branch Instructions

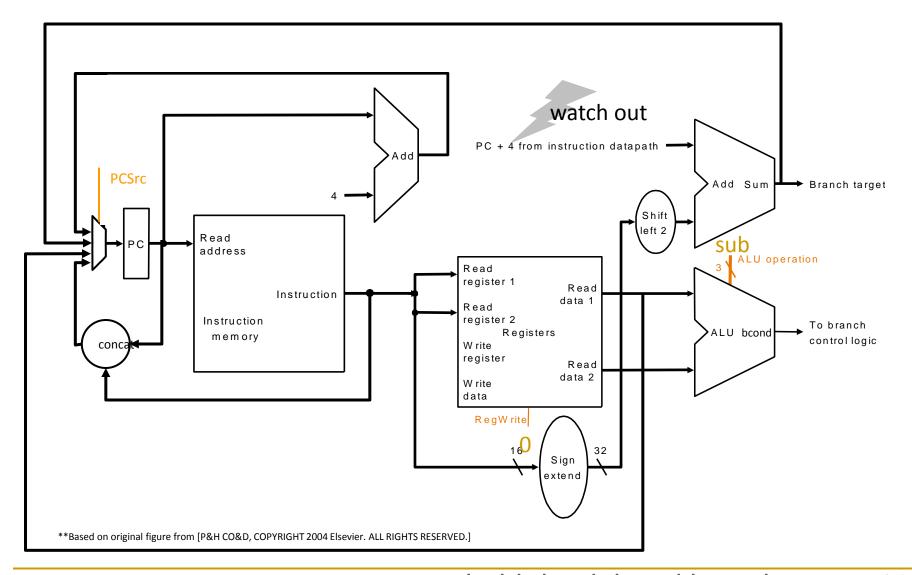
- Assembly (e.g., branch if equal)
 BEQ rs_{reg} rt_{reg} immediate₁₆
- Machine encoding

| BEQ | rs | rt | immediate | I-type |
|-------|-------|-------|-----------|--------|
| 6-bit | 5-bit | 5-bit | 16-bit | |

Semantics (assuming no branch delay slot)
 if MEM[PC]==BEQ rs rt immediate₁₆
 target = PC + 4 + sign-extend(immediate) x 4

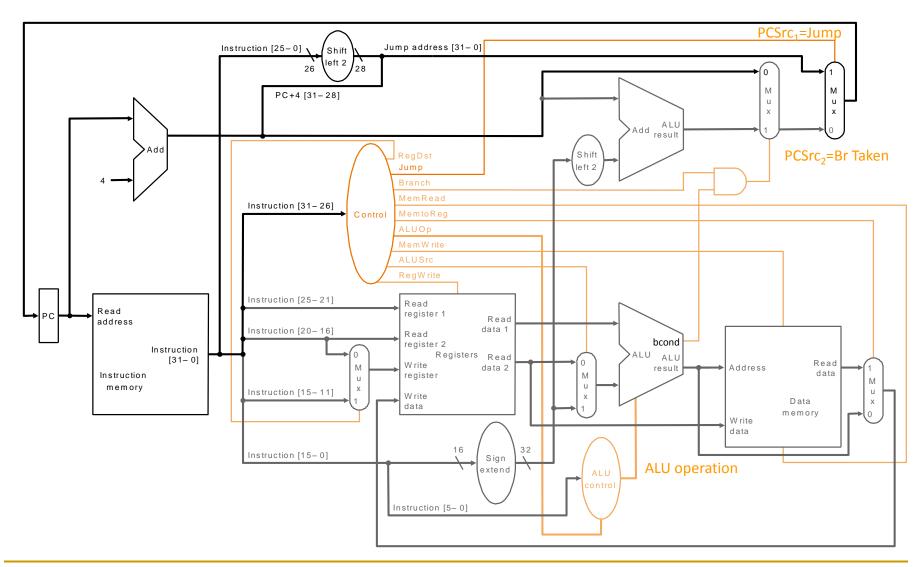
if
$$GPR[rs] = = GPR[rt]$$
 then $PC \leftarrow target$
else $PC \leftarrow PC + 4$

Conditional Branch Datapath (For You to Fix)



How to uphold the delayed branch semanties?

Putting It All Together

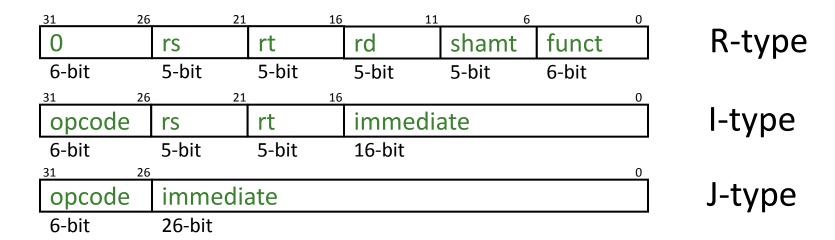


We did not cover the following slides in lecture. These are for your preparation for the next lecture.

Single-Cycle Control Logic

Single-Cycle Hardwired Control

As combinational function of Inst=MEM[PC]



- Consider
 - All R-type and I-type ALU instructions
 - LW and SW
 - BEQ, BNE, BLEZ, BGTZ
 - J, JR, JAL, JALR

Single-Bit Control Signals

| | When De-asserted | When asserted | Equation |
|----------|---|--|--|
| RegDest | GPR write select according to rt, i.e., inst[20:16] | GPR write select according to rd, i.e., inst[15:11] | opcode==0 |
| ALUSrc | 2 nd ALU input from 2 nd GPR read port | 2 nd ALU input from sign- extended 16-bit immediate | (opcode!=0) && (opcode!=BEQ) && (opcode!=BNE) |
| MemtoReg | Steer ALU result to GPR write port | steer memory load to GPR wr. port | opcode==LW |
| RegWrite | GPR write disabled | GPR write enabled | (opcode!=SW) && (opcode!=Bxx) && (opcode!=J) && (opcode!=JR)) |

Single-Bit Control Signals

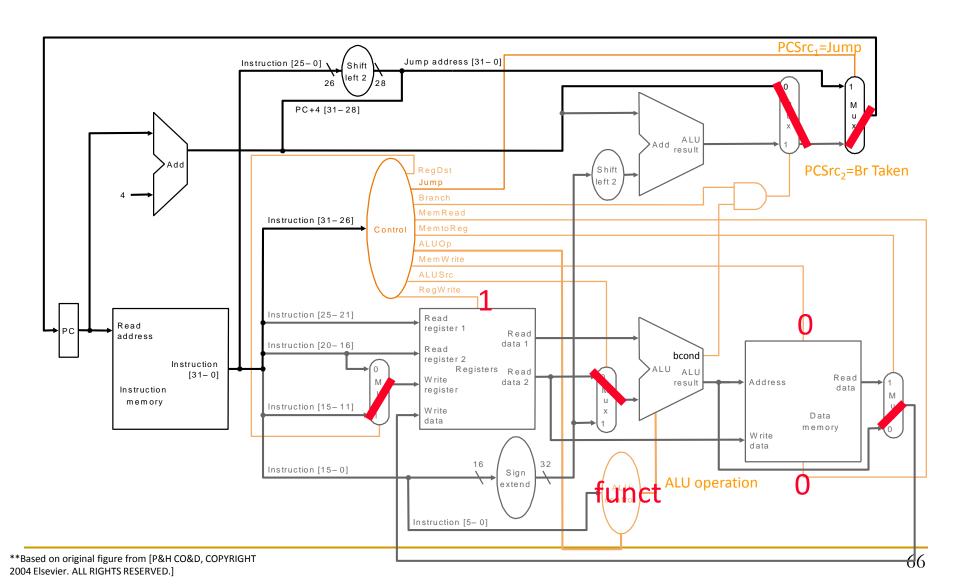
| | When De-asserted | When asserted | Equation |
|--------------------|---------------------------------|---|--|
| MemRead | Memory read disabled | Memory read port return load value | opcode==LW |
| MemWrite | Memory write disabled | Memory write enabled | opcode==SW |
| PCSrc ₁ | According to PCSrc ₂ | next PC is based on 26- bit immediate jump target | (opcode==J) (opcode==JAL) |
| PCSrc ₂ | next PC = PC + 4 | next PC is based on 16- bit immediate branch target | (opcode==Bxx) && "bcond is satisfied" |

ALU Control

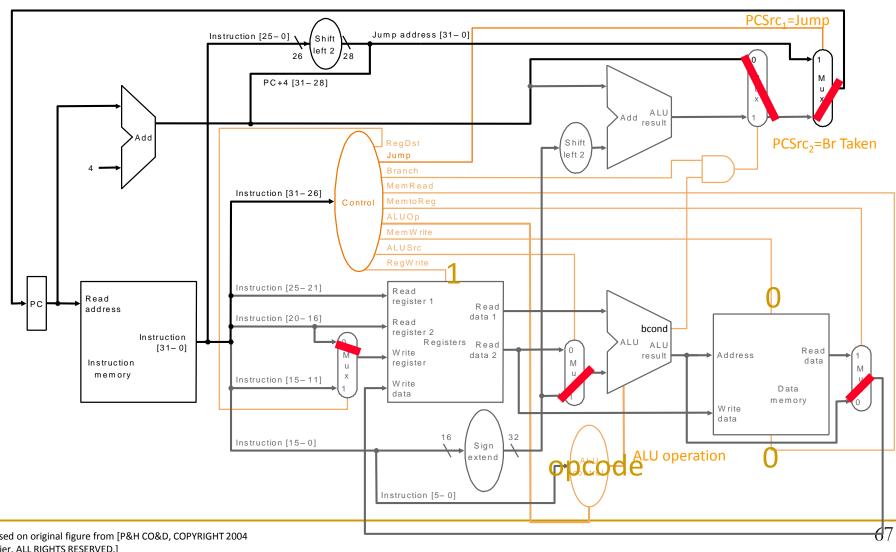
case opcode

- '0' ⇒ select operation according to funct
 'ALUi' ⇒ selection operation according to opcode
 'LW' ⇒ select addition
 'SW' ⇒ select addition
 'Bxx' ⇒ select bcond generation function
 ⇒ don't care
- Example ALU operations
 - ADD, SUB, AND, OR, XOR, NOR, etc.
 - bcond on equal, not equal, LE zero, GT zero, etc.

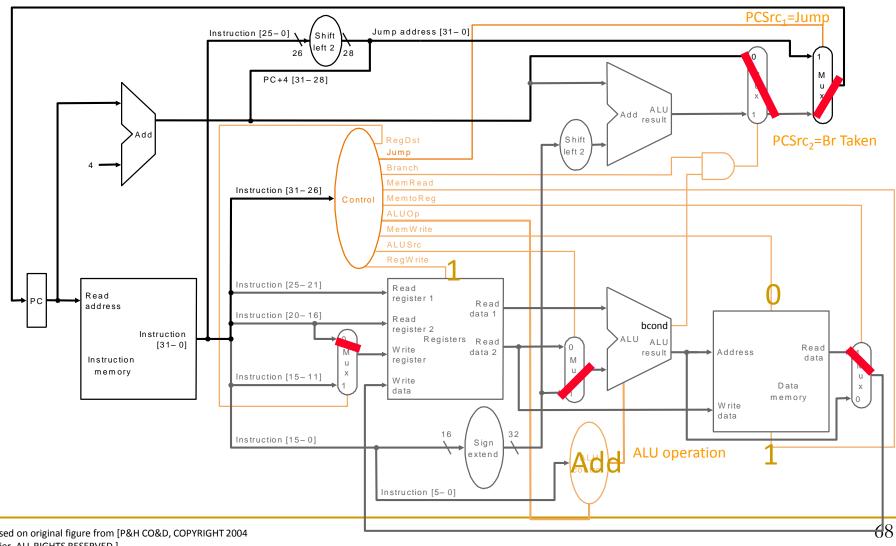
R-Type ALU

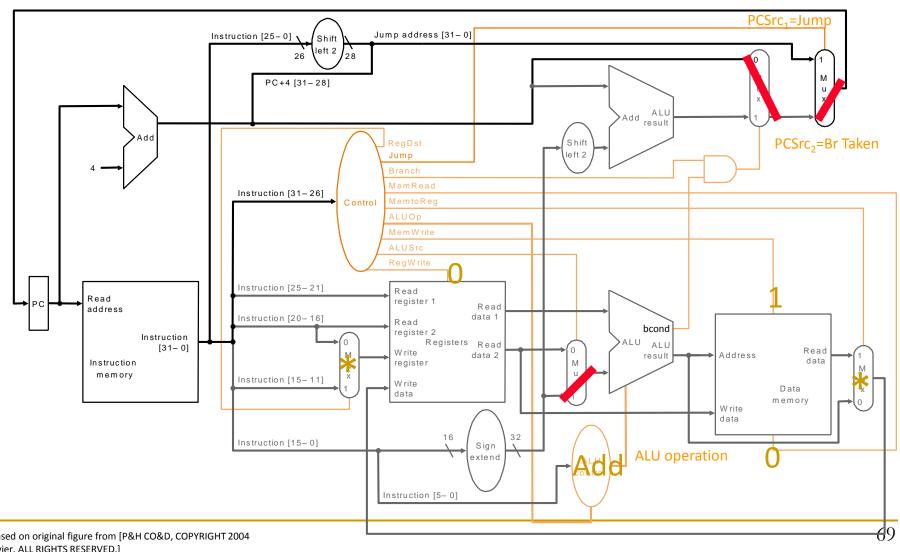


I-Type ALU

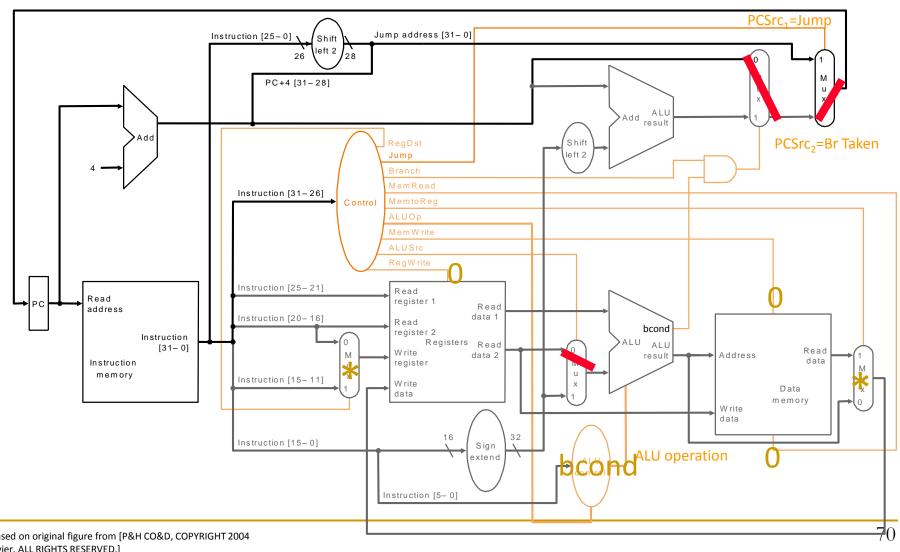




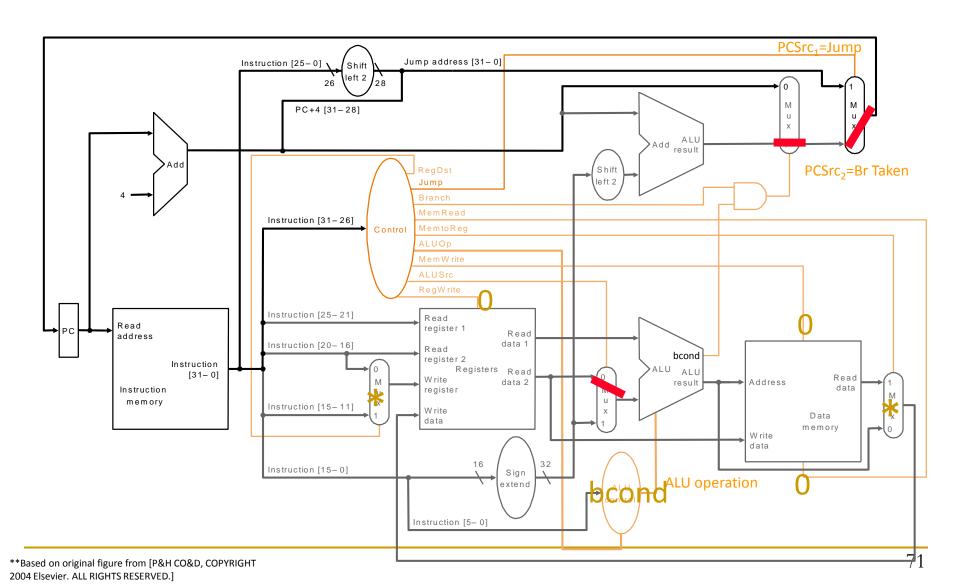


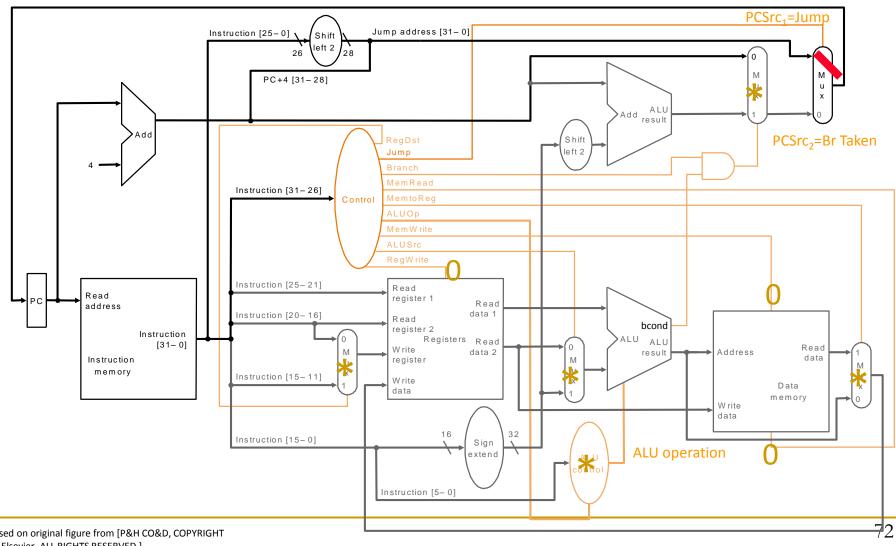


Branch Not Taken



Branch Taken





What is in That Control Box?

- Combinational Logic → Hardwired Control
 - Idea: Control signals generated combinationally based on instruction
- Sequential Logic → Sequential/Microprogrammed Control
 - Control Store
 - Idea: A memory structure contains the control signals associated with an instruction