

COMPSYS304 Notes 2017

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1 Lecture 1

1.1 Improvements

- Semiconductor technology and computer architecture has increased lots in last 50 years
- Performance, which has also increased can be measured from standardised benchmarks
- Clock rate/frequency has also increased considerably in this time.

1.2 Computer Architecture

ISA: Boundary between hardware and software

Oragnisation: high level computer design aspects

Hardware: detailed logic and circuit design

Note: You want to separate your instruction set from implementation

1.3 Memory Organisation

- See memory as single 1D array
- Address is index of this array, points to byte of memory.
- Memory Access Time: time to read data to/from memory
- Memory Speed != Processor speed.
- Fast memory is very expensive. Heirarchy used to maintain fluid functionality and keep things cheap.

Processor Registers

- Smallest and fastest memory for CPU
- about 32-64 of them.
- Each are 32/64bits in size.
- Nanosecond access time

Cache Memory

- Slower than register
- 8-256k
- Few nanoseconds access time
- Levels to this as well. L1, L2, L3 cache used in multiprocessor systems.

Main Memory

- Slower than cache
- Megabytes to gigabytes of size.
- Tens of nanoseconds lookup time.

1.4 Instruction Set Architecture (ISA)

ISA is interface between hardware and low level software.

Modern ISA include 80x86, MIPS, ARM

1.4.1 Using Fixed ISAs

Uses old instruction set (1970s), also used with extensions to enable newer technologies such as internet, etc...

Advantages

- AMD/Intel both have same ISA but different implementation.

Disadvantages

- power consumption is higher than things like iPad which use different ISA and consume a lot less power
- Also prevent some new innovation since it is so widely used in today's world.

1.4.2 ISA Design

Need to ask:

- What operations do the CPU need to do?
- How to provide data for given operations?
- How to store results of these calculations?

Need to define:

- Instruction Format and Encoding
- Data types and their sizes
- Location of operands and where to store results

Operands and Opcodes To carry out these calculations, an **opcode** must be defined to define these calculations. Upon these opcodes, zero to three **operands** are used for data inputs and result outputs.

1.5 Architecture Types

1.5.1 Stack Base Architecture

- Top of stack will contain result of operation.
- If receive ADD then processor knows next 2 inputs contain 2 numbers that need to be added.
- PUSH add something to top of stack.
- POP use value in top of stack.
- JVM designed to use Stack based architecture.
- ADD function has no operators. Operates on last 2 loaded values.

1.5.2 Accumulator Based Architecture.

- Using inputs from memory.
- Not used anymore today. Used in 1970s
- ADD function takes one operator, *mem_address* which contains the value to add to above loaded value.

1.5.3 Register Memory Architecture

- Currently used today as x86
- Uses register for input as well as access values from memory.
- ADD function contains 3 operator.
 1. **Rd** Destination Register
 2. **Rs** Source Register
 3. **mem_address** Address of value to add from memory

1.5.4 Register-Register Architecture

- Operands from register.
- LOAD and STORE only way to access memory.
- Need to specify destination register for output.
- ADD function has 3 operators.
 1. **Rd** Destination Register
 2. **Rs** Source Register
 3. **Rt** Register containing other value you want to add

1.5.5 Examples

Example is $A(1000) + B(2000) = C(3000)$ in the 4 types of architectures

Stack Based Architecture

```
PUSH 1000
PUSH 2000
ADD
POP 3000
```

Accumulator Based

```
LOAD 1000
ADD 2000
STORE 3000
```

Register Memory

```
LOAD R2, 1000
ADD R1, R2, 2000
STORE R1, 3000
```

Register Register

```
LOAD R2, 1000
LOAD R3, 2000
ADD R1, R2, R3
STORE R1, 3000
```

1.6 ISA Classes

Classification generally based on: Instruction word size, number of different instructions, and number of clock cycles to complete a given instruction.

1.6.1 Classes

RISC (Reduced Instruction Set Computers) is where size of all instruction words are the same. May lead to simpler decoding hardware.

MIPS is an example processor that uses this type of ISA.

CISC (Complex Instruction Set Computers) are when the size of instruction words may vary. This is more complex than RISC but code footprint may become smaller due to condensing multiple RISC instructions into one CISC instruction.

Intel x86 is an example of processors based off this.

EPIC (Explicitly Parallel Instruction Computers) include parallel operations in their instruction set. The compiler is very important in EPIC architectures.

Intel Itanium uses this kind of ISA.

1.6.2 Abstractions

Abstractions remove unnecessary details and hide complexity so that it is easier to understand.

Instruction Processing in CPU

1. **Fetching** accesses memory to get to next instruction. Gets the correct memory address on the bus, and reads its contents.
2. **Decoding** Interprets the bits of the instruction word. Identifies which operation to do and data required (from memory/registers)
3. **Execution** Performs the operation. Uses processor and writes result to register/memory.

1.6.3 Questions to ask when designing ISA

1. What type of ISA should be used?
2. What operations are needed?
3. How data (operands) are provided in instructions?
4. Instruction and Data word sizes?

1.7 Extras

Types of operations

- **Arithmetic** Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication, Division
- **Logical** AND, OR, Lshift, Rshift
- **Memory Access** LOAD, STORE
- **Control Transfer** Conditional/Unconditional Branches
- **Special Purpose** will talk later

Notes: Shifting You have to be careful when shifting as if you're dealing with signed integers then you may be messing with the sign bit when trying to multiply/divide

ALU operations Lecture 3 & 4 Addimmediate uses value, not pointer to register No Subimmediate as if Addimmediate allows negative numbers then we good.

Destination register always before source register/s

Register 0 is static containing all 0s, and cannot be written to

Sizes of things 4 bytes word 2 bytes halfword 1 byte

Endianness (Byte order) Little Endian Least significant bit at top of memory Big Endian Most significant bit at top of memory

Course will use MIPS simulator on PC called SPIM

Memory address in MIPS machine is $C(r_x)$ Where C is constant which may be used to reserve part of memory. Offset or displacement or something, NOT 100% And R_x is the contents of a given register

lw, sw = Load/Store word lh, sh = Load/Store half-word lb, sb = Load/Store byte

lbu = Load byte unsigned. No need to sbu as it will only store the relevant least significant byte in register

Example lb \$5, 0(\$25) Load byte at memory address 0 + value at register 25?

Class exercise `addi $10, $0, 0x3000 ori $12, $0, 0x8015 sw $12, 512($10)`

$\$10 = 00003000$ $\$12 = 00008015$ sw register to put $\$10$ is $512_{10} + 8015_{16} = 0x00003200$

Therefore Big 00 00 80 15 Little 15 80 00 00

INSTRUCTION ENCODING if 32 register then need 5bits to encode which register used.

Opcode needs 6bits to represent this. Can encode 64 opcodes.

RTYPE [Opcode][Register][Register][Register][Shift][FunctionCode] [6bits][5bits][5bits][5bits][5bits][6bits] Therefore 27 bits used out of 32. So shift related 5 bits added to signify amount of shift needed.

ITYPE [Opcode][Register][Register][ImmediateValue] [6bits][5bits][5bits][16bits] 16 bits can be used for the immediate value for given operation.

Program Counter PC is used to

Conditional/Unconditional control transfer used to change order of execution in case of if/else and loops. MIPS uses branch=conditional, and jump=unconditional

Jump [OpCode][Something else] [6bits][26bits] This 26 bits shifted left 2 times to create 00 on the end. Then use 4 MSB of PC (appended to left of 28 bits) to get the 32 bit target memory address.

2ND HALF `beq` = branch equal, taking 2 inputs `bne` = branch not equal, taking 2 inputs.

`slide20` Else and Exit are kind of like GOTO (symbolic name) Need dollar sign if doing assembly.

`bne` and `beq` only have 16 extra bits. Therefore need to get to 32bits again somehow for target address. Need to use PC again. Use 14 bits after shifting the 16bits in `bne/beq` to left by 2.

Another example target address = $0100\ 0400 + 4$ (from PC+4) + 400 (from $0x100 * 4$ [left shift 2]) = $0100\ 0804$ Have to also consider is little/big Endian by looking at the machine code of original instruction. The 16bit offset at the end will let you know.

Yay another example, so excited ATTEMPT Start: if pc `bne $10 + 32*100 + 32` Exit shift right 3 pc

Start

Exit: hi there

ANSWER Need to make a counter, use `addi` for increment/decrement

`addi $11, $0, 100` //Initialise counter as 100 `lw $8, 0($10)` // Load word from R10 into R8 `sra $9, $8, 3` // Shift right arithmetic on that and save in R9 `sw` //Store contents of R9 back into R10 `addu $10, $10, 4` `addi $11, $11, -1` `bne $11, $0, L1`

OP DES SRC

OP SRC DEST