CSC 631: High-Performance Computer Architecture

Fall 2022
Lecture 2: Instruction Set Architectures

Last Time in Lecture 1

- Technology and Applications shape Computer Architecture
 - History provides lessons for the future
- First 130 years of CompArch, from Babbage to IBM 360
 - Move from calculators (no conditionals) to fully programmable machines
 - Rapid change started in WWII (mid-1940s), move from electro-mechanical to pure electronic processors
- Cost of software development becomes a large constraint on architecture (need compatibility)
- IBM 360 introduces notion of "family of machines" running same ISA but very different implementations
 - Six different machines released on same day (April 7, 1964)
 - "Future-proofing" for subsequent generations of machine

Instruction Set Architecture (ISA)

- The contract between software and hardware
- Typically described by giving all the programmer-visible state (registers + memory) plus the semantics of the instructions that operate on that state
- IBM 360 was first line of machines to separate ISA from implementation (aka. *microarchitecture*)
- Many implementations possible for a given ISA
 - E.g., Soviets built code-compatible clones of the IBM360, as did Amdahl after he left IBM.
 - E.g.2., AMD, Intel, VIA processors run the AMD64 ISA
 - E.g.3: many cellphones use the ARM ISA with implementations from many different companies including Apple, Qualcomm, Samsung, Huawei, etc.
- This course uses RISC-V as standard ISA (www.riscv.org)
 - Many companies and open-source projects build RISC-V implementations

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ISA to Microarchitecture Mapping

 ISA often designed with particular microarchitectural style in mind, e.g.,

Accumulator ⇒ hardwired, unpipelined

CISC \Rightarrow microcoded

RISC \Rightarrow hardwired, pipelined

VLIW ⇒ fixed-latency in-order parallel pipelines

JVM \Rightarrow software interpretation

- But can be implemented with any microarchitectural style
 - Intel Ivy Bridge: hardwired pipelined CISC (x86) machine (with some microcode support)
 - Apple M1 (native ARM ISA, emulates x86 in software)
 - Spike: Software-interpreted RISC-V machine
 - ARM Jazelle: A hardware JVM processor
 - This lecture: a microcoded RISC-V machine

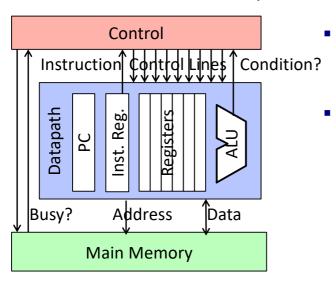
Why Learn Microprogramming?

- To show how to build very small processors with complex ISAs
- To help you understand where CISC* machines came from
- Because still used in common machines (x86, IBM360, PowerPC)
- As a gentle introduction into machine structures
- To help understand how technology drove the move to RISC*
 - * "CISC"/"RISC" names much newer than style of machines they refer to.

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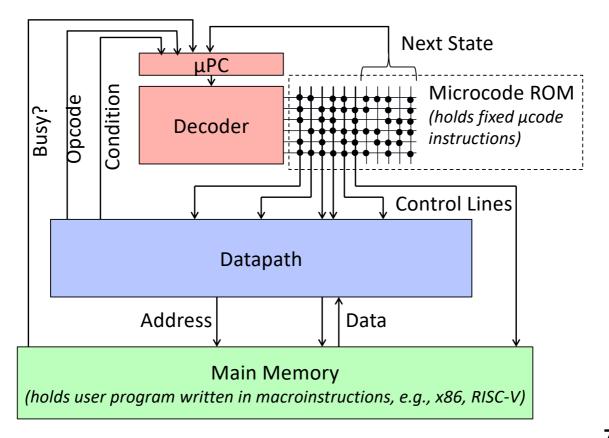
Control versus Datapath

 Processor designs can be split between datapath, where numbers are stored and arithmetic operations computed, and control, which sequences operations on datapath



- Biggest challenge for early computer designers was getting control circuitry correct
- Maurice Wilkes invented the idea of microprogramming to design the control unit of a processor for EDSAC-II, 1958

Microcoded CPU



Technology Influence

- When microcode appeared in 1950s, different technologies for:
 - Logic: Vacuum Tubes
 - Main Memory: Magnetic cores
 - Read-Only Memory: Diode matrix, punched metal cards, ...
- Logic very expensive compared to ROM or RAM
- ROM cheaper than RAM
- ROM much faster than RAM

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RISC-VISA

- New fifth-generation RISC design from UC Berkeley
- Realistic & complete ISA, but open & small
- Not over-architected for a certain implementation style
- Both 32-bit (RV32) and 64-bit (RV64) address-space variants
- Designed for multiprocessing
- Efficient instruction encoding
- Easy to subset/extend for education/research
- RISC-V spec available on Foundation website and github
- Increasing momentum with industry adoption

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RV32I Processor State

Program counter (pc)

32x32-bit integer registers (x0-x31)

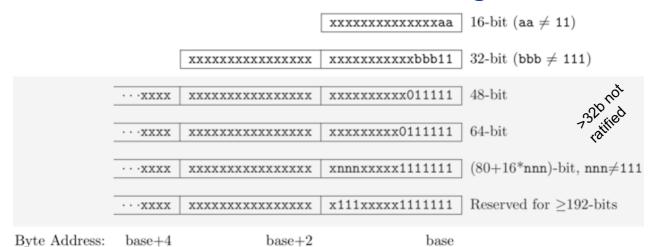
• x0 always contains a 0

32 floating-point (FP) registers (**f0-f31**)
• each can contain a single- or double-precision FP value (32-bit or 64-bit IEEE FP)

FP status register (**fcsr**), used for FP rounding mode & exception reporting

XLEN-1	0	FLEN-1	0
x0 / zero		fO	
x1		f1	
x2		f2	
x3		f3	
x4		f4	
x5		f5	
x6		f6	
x7		f7	
x8		f8	
x9		f9	
x10		f10	
x11		f11	
x12		f12	
x13		f13	
x14		f14	
x15		f15	
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x23		f23	
x24		f24	
x25		f25	
x26		f26	
x27		f27	
x28		f28	
x29		f29	
x30		f30	
x31		f31	
XLEN		FLEN	
XLEN-1	0	31	0
pc		fcsr	
XLEN		32	
			10

RISC-V Instruction Encoding

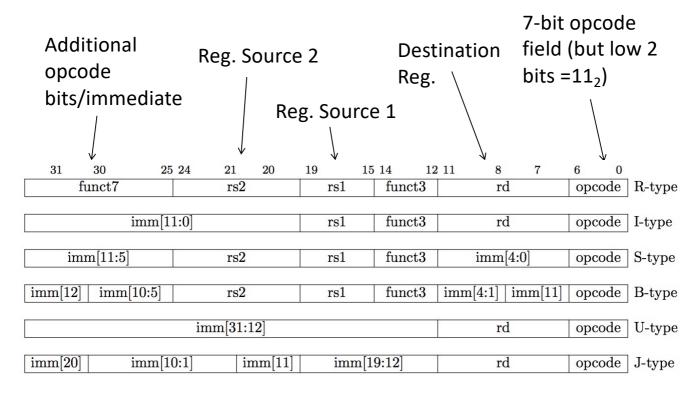


Can support variable-length instructions.

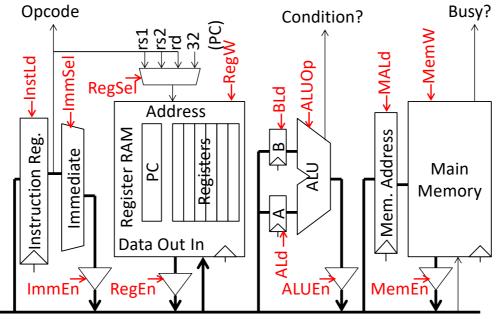
- Base instruction set (RV32) always has fixed 32-bit instructions lowest two bits = 112
- All branches and jumps have targets at 16-bit granularity (even in base ISA where all instructions are fixed 32 bits)

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RISC-V Instruction Formats



Single-Bus Datapath for Microcoded RISC-V



Microinstructions written as register transfers:

- MA:=PC means RegSel=PC; RegW=0; RegEn=1; MALd=1
- B:=Reg[rs2] means RegSel=rs2; RegW=0; RegEn=1; BLd=1
- Reg[rd]:=A+B means ALUop=Add; ALUEn=1; RegSel=rd; RegW=1

RISC-V Instruction Execution Phases

- Instruction Fetch
- Instruction Decode
- Register Fetch
- ALU Operations
- Optional Memory Operations
- Optional Register Writeback
- Calculate Next Instruction Address

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Microcode Sketches (1)

Instruction Fetch: MA,A:=PC

PC:=A+4

wait for memory

IR:=Mem

dispatch on opcode

ALU: A:=Reg[rs1]

B:=Reg[rs2]

Reg[rd]:=ALUOp(A,B)

goto instruction fetch

ALUI: A:=Reg[rs1]

B:=Imml //Sign-extend 12b immediate

Reg[rd]:=ALUOp(A,B)

goto instruction fetch

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Microcode Sketches (2)

LW: A:=Reg[rs1]

B:=Imml //Sign-extend 12b immediate

MA:=A+B

wait for memory
Reg[rd]:=Mem

goto instruction fetch

JAL: Reg[rd]:=A // Store return address

A:=A-4 // Recover original PC B:=ImmJ // Jump-style immediate

PC:=A+B

goto instruction fetch

Branch: A:=Reg[rs1]

B:=Reg[rs2]

if (!ALUOp(A,B)) goto instruction fetch //Not taken A:=PC //Microcode fall through if branch taken

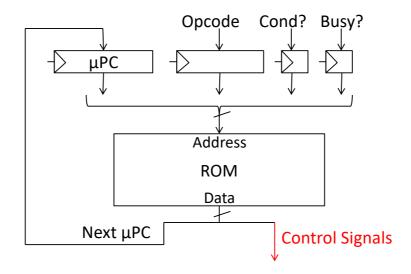
A:=A-4

B:=ImmB// Branch-style immediate

PC:=A+B

goto instruction fetch

Pure ROM Implementation



- How many address bits?
 - $|\mu address| = |\mu PC| + |opcode| + 1 + 1$
- How many data bits?
 |data| = |μPC|+|control signals| = |μPC| + 18
- Total ROM size = 2 | µaddress | x | data |

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Pure ROM Contents

	Addres	S		Data	
μРС	Opcod	e Cond	l? Busy?	Control Lines	Next μPC
fetch0	Χ	Χ	Χ	MA,A:=PC	fetch1
fetch1	Χ	Χ	1		fetch1
fetch1	Χ	Χ	0	IR:=Mem	fetch2
fetch2	ALU	Χ	Χ	PC:=A+4	ALU0
fetch2	ALUI	Χ	Χ	PC:=A+4	ALUI0
fetch2	LW	Χ	Χ	PC:=A+4	LW0
ALU0	Χ	Χ	Χ	A:=Reg[rs1]	ALU1
ALU1	Χ	Χ	Χ	B:=Reg[rs2]	ALU2
ALU2	Χ	Χ	Χ	Reg[rd]:=ALUOp(A,B)	fetch0

Single-Bus Microcode RISC-V ROM Size

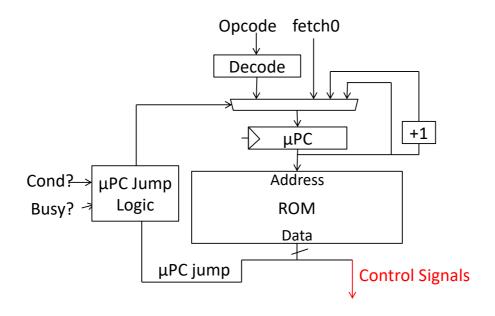
- Instruction fetch sequence 3 common steps
- ~12 instruction groups
- Each group takes ~5 steps (1 for dispatch)
- Total steps 3+12*5 = 63, needs 6 bits for μPC
- Opcode is 5 bits, ~18 control signals
- Total size = $2^{(6+5+2)}x(6+18)=2^{13}x24 = ^25KiB!$

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Reducing Control Store Size

- Reduce ROM height (#address bits)
 - Use external logic to combine input signals
 - Reduce #states by grouping opcodes
- Reduce ROM width (#data bits)
 - Restrict μPC encoding (next, dispatch, wait on memory,...)
 - Encode control signals (vertical μcoding, nanocoding)

Single-Bus RISC-V Microcode Engine



 μ PC jump = next | spin | fetch | dispatch | ftrue | ffalse

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μPC Jump Types

- *next* increments μPC
- spin waits for memory
- fetch jumps to start of instruction fetch
- dispatch jumps to start of decoded opcode group
- ftrue/ffalse jumps to fetch if Cond? true/false

Encoded ROM Contents

<u>Data</u>	
Control Lines	Next μPC
MA,A:=PC	next
IR:=Mem	spin
PC:=A+4	dispatch
A:=Reg[rs1]	next
B:=Reg[rs2]	next
Reg[rd]:=ALUOp(A,B)	fetch
A:=Reg[rs1]	next
B:=Reg[rs2]	next
A:=PC	ffalse
A:=A-4	next
B:=ImmB	next
PC:=A+B	fetch
	Control Lines MA,A:=PC IR:=Mem PC:=A+4 A:=Reg[rs1] B:=Reg[rs2] Reg[rd]:=ALUOp(A,B) A:=Reg[rs1] B:=Reg[rs2] A:=PC A:=A-4 B:=ImmB

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Implementing Complex Instructions

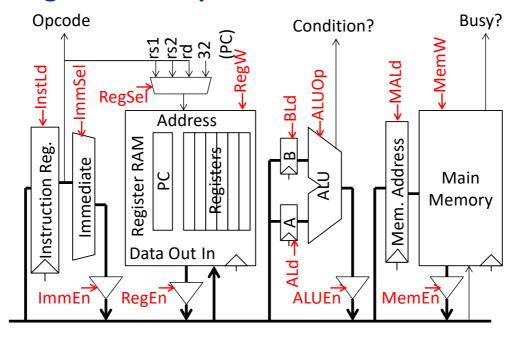
Memory-memory add: M[rd] = M[rs1] + M[rs2]

Address	<u>Data</u>		
μΡϹ	Control Lines	Next μPC	
MMA0	MA:=Reg[rs1]	next	
MMA1	A:=Mem	spin	
MMA2	MA:=Reg[rs2]	next	
MMA3	B:=Mem	spin	
MMA4	MA:=Reg[rd]	next	
MMA5	Mem:=ALUOp(A,B)	spin	
MMA6	1	fetch	

Complex instructions usually do not require datapath modifications, only extra space for control program

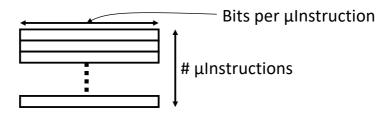
Very difficult to implement these instructions using a hardwired controller without substantial datapath modifications

Single-Bus Datapath for Microcoded RISC-V



Datapath unchanged for complex instructions!

Horizontal vs Vertical µCode



- Horizontal μcode has wider μinstructions
 - Multiple parallel operations per µinstruction
 - Fewer microcode steps per macroinstruction
 - Sparser encoding ⇒ more bits
- Vertical μcode has narrower μinstructions
 - Typically a single datapath operation per μinstruction
 - separate μinstruction for branches
 - More microcode steps per macroinstruction
 - More compact \Rightarrow less bits
- Nanocoding
 - Tries to combine best of horizontal and vertical μcode

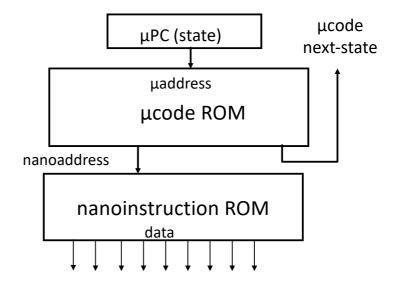
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Nanocoding

Exploits recurring control signal patterns in μ code, e.g.,

ALU0 A \leftarrow Reg[rs1] ... ALUI0 A \leftarrow Reg[rs1]

• •



- Motorola 68000 had 17-bit μcode containing either 10-bit μjump or 9-bit nanoinstruction pointer
 - Nanoinstructions were 68 bits wide, decoded to give 196 control signals

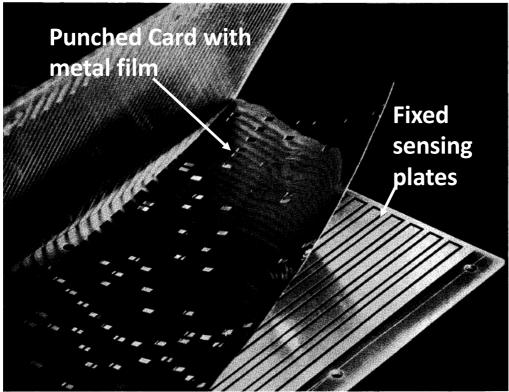
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Microprogramming in IBM 360

	M30	M40	M50	M65
Datapath width (bits)	8	16	32	64
μinst width (bits)	50	52	85	87
μcode size (K μinsts)	4	4	2.75	2.75
μstore technology	CCROS	TCROS	BCROS	BCROS
μstore cycle (ns)	750	625	500	200
memory cycle (ns)	1500	2500	2000	750
Rental fee (\$K/month)	4	7	15	35

Only the fastest models (75 and 95) were hardwired

IBM Card-Capacitor Read-Only Storage



[IBM Journal, January 1961]

Microcode Emulation

- IBM initially miscalculated the importance of software compatibility with earlier models when introducing the 360 series
- Honeywell stole some IBM 1401 customers by offering translation software ("Liberator") for Honeywell H200 series machine
- IBM retaliated with optional additional microcode for 360 series that could emulate IBM 1401 ISA, later extended for IBM 7000 series
 - one popular program on 1401 was a 650 simulator, so some customers ran many 650 programs on emulated 1401s
 - i.e., 650 simulated on 1401 emulated on 360

Microprogramming thrived in '60s and '70s

- Significantly faster ROMs than DRAMs were available
- For complex instruction sets, datapath and controller were cheaper and simpler
- New instructions, e.g., floating point, could be supported without datapath modifications
- Fixing bugs in the controller was easier
- ISA compatibility across various models could be achieved easily and cheaply

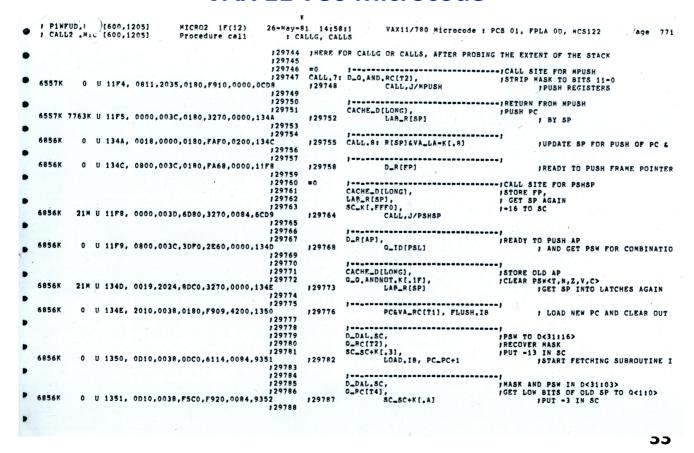
Except for the cheapest and fastest machines, all computers were microprogrammed

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Microprogramming: early 1980s

- Evolution bred more complex micro-machines
 - Complex instruction sets led to need for subroutine and call stacks in $\mu code$
 - Need for fixing bugs in control programs was in conflict with read-only nature of μROM
 - → Writable Control Store (WCS) (B1700, QMachine, Intel i432, ...)
- With the advent of VLSI technology assumptions about ROM & RAM speed became invalid → more complexity
- Better compilers made complex instructions less important.
- Use of numerous micro-architectural innovations, e.g., pipelining, caches and buffers, made multiple-cycle execution of reg-reg instructions unattractive

VAX 11-780 Microcode



Writable Control Store (WCS)

- Implement control store in RAM not ROM
 - MOS SRAM memories now almost as fast as control store (core memories/DRAMs were 2-10x slower)
 - Bug-free microprograms difficult to write
- User-WCS provided as option on several minicomputers
 - Allowed users to change microcode for each processor
- User-WCS failed
 - Little or no programming tools support
 - Difficult to fit software into small space
 - Microcode control tailored to original ISA, less useful for others
 - Large WCS part of processor state expensive context switches
 - Protection difficult if user can change microcode
 - Virtual memory required restartable microcode

Microprogramming is far from extinct

- Played a crucial role in micros of the Eighties
 - DEC uVAX, Motorola 68K series, Intel 286/386
- Plays an assisting role in most modern micros
 - e.g., AMD Zen, Intel Sky Lake, Intel Atom, IBM PowerPC, ...
 - Most instructions executed directly, i.e., with hard-wired control
 - Infrequently-used and/or complicated instructions invoke microcode
- Patchable microcode common for post-fabrication bug fixes, e.g. Intel processors load μcode patches at bootup
 - Intel had to scramble to resurrect microcode tools and find original microcode engineers to patch Meltdown/Spectre security vulnerabilities

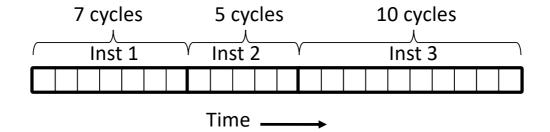
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"Iron Law" of Processor Performance

```
<u>Time</u> = <u>Instructions</u> <u>Cycles</u> <u>Time</u>
Program * Instruction * Cycle
```

- Instructions per program depends on source code, compiler technology, and ISA
- Cycles per instructions (CPI) depends on ISA and µarchitecture
- Time per cycle depends upon the µarchitecture and base technology

CPI for Microcoded Machine



Total clock cycles =
$$7+5+10 = 22$$

Total instructions = 3
CPI = $22/3 = 7.33$

CPI is always an average over a large number of instructions.

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IC Technology Changes Tradeoffs

- Logic, RAM, ROM all implemented using MOS transistors
- Semiconductor RAM ~ same speed as ROM

Reconsidering Microcode Machine Chocoded 68000 example

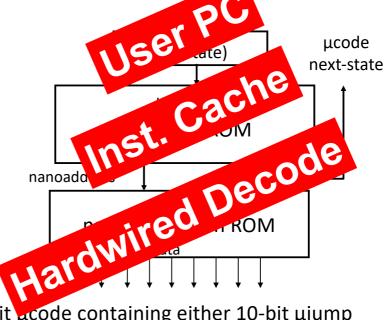
Exploit recurring control signal patterns in μ code, e.g.,

ALU0 A \leftarrow Reg[rs1]

...

ALUIO $A \leftarrow Reg[rs1]$

...



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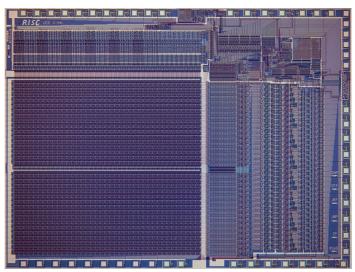
From CISC to RISC

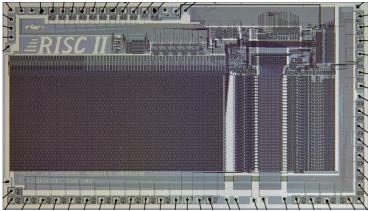
- Use fast RAM to build fast instruction cache of user-visible instructions, not fixed hardware microroutines
 - Contents of fast instruction memory change to fit application needs
- Use simple ISA to enable hardwired pipelined implementation
 - Most compiled code only used few CISC instructions
 - Simpler encoding allowed pipelined implementations
 - RISC ISA comparable to vertical microcode
- Further benefit with integration
 - In early '80s, finally fit 32-bit datapath + small caches on single chip
 - No chip crossings in common case allows faster operation

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Berkeley RISC Chips

RISC-I (1982) Contains 44,420 transistors, fabbed in 5 μ m NMOS, with a die area of 77 mm², ran at 1 MHz. This chip is probably the first VLSI RISC.





RISC-II (1983) contains 40,760 transistors, was fabbed in 3 μ m NMOS, ran at 3 MHz, and the size is 60 mm².

Stanford built some too...

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Acknowledgements

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