Instruction Set Architecture

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Instruction Set Architecture

Instruction Set Architecture Definition

Instruction Set Architecture (ISA)

- It is an **abstract** concept which defines the portion of a computer that is visible to both the programmer and the compiler.
- It is part of the link between an application (something a human does such as video recording, playing music, editing a spreadsheet, etc) and the physical layer of the computer, *i.e.* Hardware (HW).

- ISA **theoretically** describes how a computer executes its programs.
- It describes:
 - The fundamental operations, which are simply referred to as *instructions*, that the computer can execute.
 - How these instructions are executed.
 - The semantics and rules required for the interaction of the different building blocks of a computer.

- Overall, ISA provides valuable information to the programmer.
 - Is a computer stack-, accumulator- or register-based?
 - Does the computer have memory? Does it have registers?
 - How many steps, i.e. clock cycles, does it take to execute instructions?
 - Where are operands fetched from?
 - Where is the result stored?
 - How big are data types?

Microarchitecture (μ A)

- μ A is more closely related to the **physical** implementation of a design, *i.e.*, μ A determines how the ISA is implemented in HW.
 - For example, it describes which building are necessary in order to model a Microprocessor (μ P) and how these building blocks are connected with each other.

- The same ISA may be physically implemented in a variety of μ As.
 - For example, one ISA could be implemented by different HW
 approaches and vendors such as Intel, ARM or AMD, and all three
 could have different performances.
- A naive adder example:
 - ISA specifies data width as 64-bits.
 - μA defines the adder as ripple-carry, carry-lookahead, carry-save, carry-select, etc.

- The goal of a processor designer is to evaluate the different trade-offs between ISA and μA in order to find a Pareto optimal system.
 - Power consumption.
 - Latency How long does it take to complete a task.
 - Throughput How many tasks can be completed in a given time.
 - Chip area.

Instruction Set Architecture

Same ISA, different μ A- 45 nm technology

- x86 ISA.
- Quad Core.
- 2.6 GHz.
- 125 W.

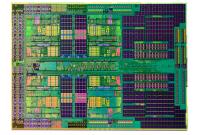


Figure 1: AMD Phenom X4

- x86 ISA.
- Dual Core.
- 1.6 GHz.
- 2 W.

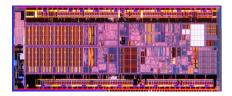


Figure 2: Intel Atom

Instruction Set Architecture

Different ISA, different μ A- 45 nm technology

- x86 ISA.
- Quad Core.
- 2.6 GHz.
- 125 W.

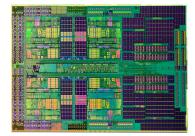


Figure 3: AMD Phenom X4

- Power ISA.
- Octa Core.
- 4.25 GHz.
- 200 W.

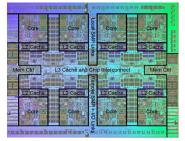


Figure 4: IBM Power7

- Type and size of instructions.
- Type and size of operands.
- Instruction encoding.
- Addressing modes.
- Registers

Registers

Registers

This is list of registers commonly found in $\mu \mathbf{P}$. Note that generally, $\mu \mathbf{P}\mathbf{s}$ do not implement every single register in this list.

- Program Counter (PC). Also called IP, points to the memory address of the next instruction to be executed.
- Register File (RF). Set of registers used to store data.
- Stack Pointer (SP). Points to the next location in the stack. Used in PUSH and POP operations.

Basic registers of a computer

- Instruction Register (IR). Holds the instruction currently being executed.
- Memory Address Register (MAR). Also called Address Register (AR), points to the memory address to/from which data is stored/fetched to/from.
- Instruction Memory (IM). Memory that stores the instructions that the μ P will execute.

Basic registers of a computer

- Accumulator (ACC). Holds the result of arithmetic and logic operations.
- Data Memory (DM). Also called Data Register (DR), holds operand(s) to be used in arithmetic and logic operations.
- General Purpose Register (GPR). Registers to temporary store data or addresses.
- Status Register (SR). Also called Flag Register (FR), holds the special conditions of the result of arithmetic and logic operations, as well as branch and jump status. For example, indicates if a comparison resulted in an equality, if the result of an operation is zero, overflow, etc.

Basic registers of a computer

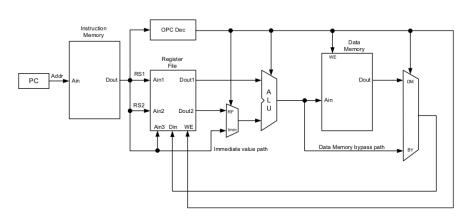


Figure 5: Basic structure of a μ P.

- Instructions are the basic operations that a μP can understand and perform.
- The complete set of instructions that a μ P may perform is called instruction set, which is not the same as Instruction Set Architecture!

Instruction type	$\mathbf{Example}^{1}$
Arithmetic & logical	ADD, SUB, AND, OR
Data transfer	LOAD, SW, MOV, PUSH, POP
Conditional branch	BNE, BEQ
Unconditional jumps	JMP, JAL, CALL, RET
System	RD_INT, PRNT_CHR
Floating Point	FADD, FMULT
String	MOVSB, STR_MV, STR_CMP
Signal processing ²	ADD_ARRAY, MULT_ARRAY, FFT

 $^{^1\}mathrm{These}$ examples are not specific to a particular ISA.

²Typically found in Single Instruction Multiple Data (SIMD) ISAs.

Table 1: Intel's 80x86 top ten instructions based on five SPECint92 programs³.

Rank	Type	Distribution
1	load	22%
2	conditional branch	20%
3	compare	16%
4	store	12%
5	add	8%
6	and	6%
7	sub	5%
8	move register-register	4%
9	call	1%
10	return	1%
	Total	96%

 $^{^3}$ J. L. Hennessy and D. A. Patterson, Computer architecture: A quantitative approach, 6th ed., p A-4, Morgan Kaufmann, 2019.

Operands and operations

Operands and operations

- Where do operands come from?
- Where are results stored?
- What is the size of the operands?
- How many steps does an instruction take?

Operands and operations

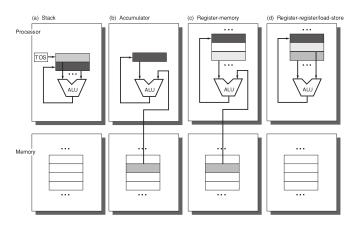
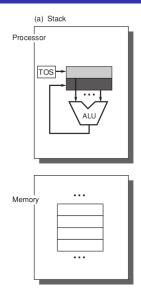


Figure 6: Operand locations for different ISAs [Figure A.1] ⁴.

⁴J. L. Hennessy and D. A. Patterson, Computer architecture: A quantitative approach, 6th ed., p A-4, Morgan Kaufmann, 2019.

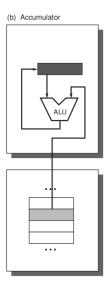
Operands and operations



Stack-based ISA C = A + B

Push A Push B Add Pop C

Operands and operations

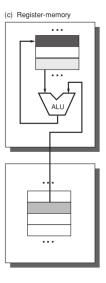


Accumulator-based ISA

$$C = A + B$$

Load A Add B Store C

Operands and operations

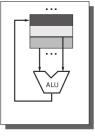


Memory-Register-based ISA C = A + B

Load R1 A
Add R3 R1 B
Store R3 C

Operands and operations

(d) Register-register/load-store





Register-Register-based ISA

$$C = A + B$$

Load R1 A

Load R2 B

Add R3 R1 R2

Store R3 C

Addressing Modes

Addressing modes

- How can we read/write data from/into memory?
- What types of memory exist?

Addressing modes

Table 2: Examples of addressing modes $\,$

Mode	Example	Meaning
Immediate	Add R4, 3	R4 ← R4 + 3
Register	Add R4 , R3	R4 ← R4 + R3
Absolute (Direct)	Add R2 , (100)	$R2 \leftarrow R2 + Mem[100]$
Register indirect	Add R4 , (R1)	R4 ← R4 + Mem[R1]
Indexed	Add R3 , (R1 + R2)	$R3 \leftarrow R3 + Mem[R1 + R2]$
Displacement	Add R4 , 100(R1)	$\texttt{R4} \leftarrow \texttt{R4} + \texttt{Mem[100+R1]}$
Memory indirect	Add R1 , @(R3)	$\texttt{R1} \leftarrow \texttt{R1} + \texttt{Mem[Mem[R3]]}$

Addressing modes

Table 3: Examples of addressing modes

Mode	Example	Meaning	
Autoincrement	t Add R1 , (R2)+	$\texttt{R1} \leftarrow \texttt{R1} + \texttt{Mem[R2]}$	
Automerement		$R2 \leftarrow R2 + d$	
Autodecrement	t Add R1 , -(R2)	$R2 \leftarrow R2 - d$	
Autodecrement		$\mathtt{R1} \leftarrow \mathtt{R1} + \mathtt{Mem}[\mathtt{R2}]$	
Scaled Add R1 , 100(R2)	MAA D1	$R1 \leftarrow R1 + Mem[100+R2]$	
	Add M1 , 100(M2)[M3]	+ R3 *d]	

Note that Autoincrement and Autodecrement modes, the order of + and - signs influence the order of the operations. For example, -(R2) indicates decrementing R2 before accessing to memory.

Addressing modes: Example

• Let's assume that registers Ri, $i \in [1, 4]$, and selected memory locations of a computer store the following values.

\mathbf{Reg}	Val
R1	23
R2	11
R3	7
R4	19

-	
Mem	Val
7	23
11	13
13	31
23	17
34	37
100	13
123	29
132	41

Addressing modes: Example

Mode	Example	Meaning
Immediate	Add R4, 3	$R4 \leftarrow R4 + 3$

R4 = ?

Val
23
11
7
19

Mem	Val
7	23
11	13
13	31
23	17
34	37
100	13
123	29
132	41

Addressing modes: Example

Mode	Example	Meaning
Register	Add R4 , R3	$R4 \leftarrow R4 + R3$

Val
23
11
7
19

Mem	Val	R4 = ?
7	23	
11	13	
13	31	
23	17	
34	37	
100	13	
123	29	
132	41	

Addressing modes: Example

Mode	Example	Meaning
Absolute (Direct)	Add R2 , (100)	$R2 \leftarrow R2 + Mem[100]$

R2 = ?

Reg	Val
R1	23
R2	11
R3	7
R4	19

Mem	Val
7	23
11	13
13	31
23	17
34	37
100	13
123	29
132	41

Addressing modes: Example

Mode	Example	Meaning
Register indirect	Add R4 , (R1)	$\mathtt{R4} \leftarrow \mathtt{R4} + \mathtt{Mem}[\mathtt{R1}]$

R4 = ?

Reg	Val
R1	23
R2	11
R3	7
R4	19

Mem	Val
7	23
11	13
13	31
23	17
34	37
100	13
123	29
132	41

Mode	Example	Meaning	
Indexed	Add R3 , (R1 + R2)	$R3 \leftarrow R3 + Mem[R1 + R2]$	

Reg	Val
R1	23
R2	11
R3	7
R4	19

Mem	Val
7	23
11	13
13	31
23	17
34	37
100	13
123	29
132	41

$$R3 = ?$$

Addressing modes: Example

Mode	Example	Meaning
Displacement	Add R4 , 100(R1)	$\texttt{R4} \leftarrow \texttt{R4} + \texttt{Mem[100+R1]}$

R4 = ?

\mathbf{Reg}	Val	\mathbf{Me}	m	Val
R1	23		7	23
R2	11		11	13
R3	7		13	31
R4	19		23	17
			34	37
		1	00	13
		1	23	29
		1	32	41

Addressing modes: Example

Mode	Example	Meaning
Memory indirect	Add R1 , @(R3)	$\texttt{R1} \leftarrow \texttt{R1} + \texttt{Mem[Mem[R3]]}$

R1 = ?

Reg	Val
R1	23
R2	11
R3	7
R4	19
R4	19

Mem	Val
7	23
11	13
13	31
23	17
34	37
100	13
123	29
132	41

Mode	Example	Meaning	
Autoincrement	Add D1 (D2)+	$\begin{array}{ c c c }\hline \texttt{R1} \leftarrow \texttt{R1} + \texttt{Mem} \texttt{[R2]}\\ \texttt{R2} \leftarrow \texttt{R2} + d\end{array}$	
	Add KI , (K2)+		

Reg	Val
R1	23
R2	11
R3	7
R4	19
R4	19

Mem	Val
7	23
11	13
13	31
23	17
34	37
100	13
123	29
132	41

$$\begin{aligned} d &= 3 \\ \text{R1} &= ? \end{aligned}$$

Mode	Example	Meaning
Autodecrement Add R1, -(R2)	$\texttt{R2} \leftarrow \texttt{R2} - \textit{d}$	
	Add K1 , -(K2)	$\mathtt{R1} \leftarrow \mathtt{R1} + \mathtt{Mem}[\mathtt{R2}]$

Reg	Val
R1	23
R2	11
R3	7
R4	19

Mem	Val
7	23
11	13
13	31
23	17
34	37
100	13
123	29
132	41

$$\begin{array}{l} d=4 \\ {\rm R1}=? \end{array}$$

Mode	Example	Meaning	
Sanlad	Add R1 , 100(R2)[R3]	$R1 \leftarrow R1 + Mem[100+R2]$	
Scaled		+ R3 *d]	

Reg	Val
R1	23
R2	11
R3	7
R4	19

Mem	Val
7	23
11	13
13	31
23	17
34	37
100	13
123	29
132	41

$$\begin{aligned} d &= 3 \\ \text{R1} &= ? \end{aligned}$$

Instruction encoding

Instructions encoding

- In stored-program computers, instructions and data are stored in memory.
- So, how does a processor know
 - how to differentiate between operations and operands?
 - which instruction to perform?
 - which Reg or Mem locations are the operands located?
 - which Reg or Mem locations should the result be stored to?
 - how to differentiate between

```
R1 \leftarrow R2 + R3
R1 \leftarrow R2 + Mem[R3]
R1 \leftarrow R2 + Mem[Mem[R3]]
R1 \leftarrow Mem[R2] + Mem[R3]
```

• Instruction encoding is a convention used to differentiate the various operations in a μP , as well as operations from operands.

Instructions encoding

- Instructions are encoded using binary representation.
- Suppose we want to design a processor that can implement the following instructions.

$$\begin{array}{lll} \text{R1} & \leftarrow & \text{R2} + \text{R3} \\ \text{R1} & \leftarrow & \text{R2} + \text{Mem[R3]} \\ \text{R1} & \leftarrow & \text{R2} + \text{Mem[Mem[R3]]} \\ \text{R1} & \leftarrow & \text{Mem[R2]} + \text{Mem[R3]} \end{array}$$

• We could assign a binary code to each of these 4 operations.

Instruction	Binary code
R1 ← R2 + R3	00
R1 ← R2 + Mem[R3]	01
$\texttt{R1} \leftarrow \texttt{R2} + \texttt{Mem[Mem[R3]]}$	10
$\texttt{R1} \leftarrow \texttt{Mem[R2]} + \texttt{Mem[R3]}$	11

• Let's try to expand this implementation.

Instructions encoding: A naive example

- Let Rd be the destination register and Rsi the source register, where $d \in [0,3]$ and $i \in [0,3]$.
- We could assign a binary code for each combination of Rd and Rsi in the instruction Rd ← Rs1 + Rs2.

Instruction	Binary code	Hex code
$R0 \leftarrow R0 + R0$	00 0000	00h
RO ← RO + R1	00 0001	01h
:	:	:
R1 ← R2 + R3	01 1011	1Bh
:	:	:
R2 ← R3 + R0	10 1100	2Ch
:	:	:
R3 ← R3 + R3	11 1111	3Fh

Instructions encoding: A naive example

• What about the μ A of this encoding?

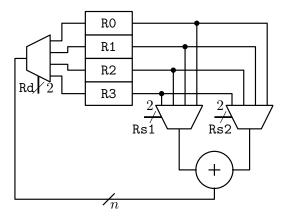


Figure 7: A naive μA for adding two registers.

Instructions encoding

- Is our previous scheme feasible?
- What's wrong with it?
- Could it be generalised?
- What about other addressing modes?
- How could we include other operations such as subtractions or jumps?
- Are all instructions represented using the same number of bits?

Instructions encoding

- We can continue to expand this scheme in order to add other operations, *e.g.*, subtraction and logical operations.
- Moreover, we can continue to include bits that represent different addressing modes.
- The ultimate goal of this, is to design an encoding feasible for all operations and addressing modes in our ISA.

Instructions encoding

• We could have a bit for selecting addition/subtraction in our previous design.

Table 4: Naive encoding for adding and subtracting two numbers.

Instruction	Binary code	Hex code
R0 ← R0 + R0	000 0000	00h
i	:	:
R1 ← R2 + R3	0 01 1011	1Bh
:	:	:
R3 ← R3 + R3	0 11 1111	3Fh
$RO \leftarrow RO - RO$	1 00 0000	10h
:	:	:
R1 ← R2 - R3	1 01 1011	5Bh
:		:
R3 ← R3 - R3	1 11 1111	7Fh

Instructions encoding

- As seen in the previous example, the source, destination and operation type may be represented with a **single** binary code.
- This concept may be further expanded for other operations and addressing modes.
- For this purpose, we may use longer binary codes, which may be divided into several fields.
- For example, we may use a field called **opcode** in order to represent the type of operation to be performed.
- Another field may represent the **source**, *i.e.*, the memory location where data to operate with is.
- Another field may represent the **destination**, *i.e.*, the memory location where the result of the operation should be stored to.

Instructions encoding

Variable encoding

Operation & Addressing Mode #Operands 1	Address 1	•••	$ \begin{array}{c} \operatorname{Addressing} \\ \operatorname{Mode} \\ n \end{array} $	$\operatorname*{Address}_{n}$
---	--------------	-----	--	-------------------------------

Fixed encoding

Operation	Address 1	Address 2	Address 3
-----------	-----------	-----------	-----------

Hybrid encoding



Figure 8: Generalised instruction encoding.

Instructions encoding

• Variable encoding.

- Supports any number of operands, with each operand having a specific addressing mode.
- The number of encoded bits varies between instructions.
- Compact machine programs.
- Harder to decode.

• Fixed encoding.

- Every instruction has the same number of operands, with addressing modes specified in the opcode.
- The number of encoded bits is always the same regardless of the instruction or addressing modes of the operands.
- Easier to decode.
- Wasted bits in some instructions.

• Hybrid encoding.

• Instructions with two different encoding lengths (16- and 32-bits, for example).

Instructions encoding

- ISAs may be classified into two main categories according to the complexity of their instruction encoding.
- Reduced Instruction Set Computer (RISC).
- Complex Instruction Set Computer (CISC).

ISA characteristics cisc

CISC

- ISAs that perform complex operations and the instruction formats are not uniform.
- Large number of instructions available.
- Microcode approach.
 - A single instruction may be divided into several smaller instructions.
 - For example, a single instruction may perform a load from memory, an arithmetic operation and a store to memory.
- Reduced size of the compiled code due to variable-length encoding.
 - Shortest encodings represent the most commonly used instructions.

ISA characteristics cisc

RISC

- ISAs that have a small number of simple, fixed-length instructions.
- Single-cycle instructions.
- Load-store approach.
 - Only load and store instructions are used for transferring data between registers and memory.

CISC vs RISC

```
mul16:
 2:
             pushl
                     %ebp
                                           01010101
                     %esp, %ebp
 3.
             movl
                                           1000100111100101
             movl
                     8(%ebp), %ecx
                                         ; 100010000100110100001000
 4:
             pushl
                     %ebx
                                           01010011
 5:
 6:
             mov1
                     12(%ebp), %edx
                                           100010110101010100001100
 7 .
                     %ebx, %ebx
                                         ; 0011000111011011
             xorl
                     $15. %eax
 8:
             movl
                                           1011100000001111
 9:
             .p2align 2,,3
                                           : 100011010111011000000000
10:
     .L6:
                     $1, %dl
11:
             testb
                                           111101101100001000000001
12:
             jе
                     .L5
                                         ; 0111010000000010
13.
                     %ecx, %ebx
                                          : 0000000111001011
             addl
14:
     .L5:
15:
             sall
                     %ecx
                                         ; 1101000111100001
16.
             shrl
                     %edx
                                          : 1101000111101010
17:
             decl
                     %eax
                                           01001000
                                           0111100111110010
18:
             jns
                     .L6
19:
             Ivom
                     %ebx, %eax
                                          ; 1000100111011000
20:
             popl
                     %ebx
                                          : 01011011
             leave
21:
                                          : 11001001
22:
                                         ; 11000011
             ret
```

Figure 9: CISC code example.

CISC vs RISC

```
mul16:
 1 .
 2:
                     $6, $0
                                           00000000000000000011000000100001
             move
 3:
             li
                     $3, 15
                                           00100100000000110000000000001111
 4:
     $L6:
 5:
             andi
                     $2. $5, 0x1
                                           0011000010100010000000000000000001
 6:
             addiu
                     $3, $3, -1
                                           001001000110001111111111111111111
 7 .
             bea
                     $2, $0, $L5
                                           8 .
             srl
                     $5, $5, 1
                                           00000000000001010010100001000010
 9:
             addu
                     $6, $6, $4
                                           00000000110001000011000000100001
10:
     $L5:
11:
             baez
                     $3, SL6
                                           00000100011000011111111111111010
12:
             sll
                     $4, $4, 1
                                           0000000000000100001000001000000
13:
                     $31
                                           000000111110000000000000000001000
14:
                     $2, $6
                                           0000000011000000001000000100001
             move
```

Figure 10: RISC code example.

RISC-V

RISC-V example

RISC-V main features.

- 32-bit encoding.
- 4 types of instructions.
 - R-type. Register.
 - $\bullet\,$ I-type. Immediate.
 - S-type. Store, compare and branch.
 - U-type. Jump.

$\ensuremath{\mathrm{RISC\text{-}V}}$ example

31	25 24	20	19	15	1 4 1	12 1	11 7	6	0	
funct7		rs2	rs1		funct3	3	rd	op	ocode	R-type
imm[1	1:0]		rs1		funct3	3	rd	op	ocode	I-type
										_
imm[11:5]		rs2	rs1		funct3	3	imm[4:0]	op	ocode	S-type
	im	m[31:12	2]				rd	op	ocode	U-type

Figure 11: RISC instruction format.

RISC encoding example

- funct7 and funct3 complement the opcode.
- rd, rs1 and rs2 are destination, source 1 and source 2 registers, respectively.
- imm is an immediate value.

RISC encoding example

Instruction format	Primary use	rd	rs1	rs2	Immediate
R-type	Register-register ALU instructions	Destination	First source	Second source	
I-type	ALU immediates Load	Destination	First source base register		Value displacement
S-type	Store Compare and branch		Base register first source	Data source to store second source	Displacement offset
U-type	Jump and link Jump and link register	Register destination for return PC	Target address for jump and link register		Target address for jump and link

Figure 12: RISC instruction description.

Instructions encoding

QUIZ

- Which of the following are affected by the instruction encoding?
 - A) The execution time of each instruction.
 - B) The μ A of the processor.
 - C) Global warming.
 - D) The size of the compiled program.
 - E) All of the above.
 - F) None of the above.

Instructions encoding

QUIZ

- Which of the following are affected by the instruction encoding?
 - A) The execution time of each instruction.⁵
 - B) The μ A of the processor.
 - C) Global warming.
 - D) The size of the compiled program.
 - E) All of the above.
 - F) None of the above.

Summary

Summary

- ISA is the link between applications and HW.
- μ A refers to the physical implementation of the ISA.
- The same ISA can be implemented in different μ As.
- ISA encloses
 - Type and size of instructions and operands.
 - Addressing modes.
 - Instruction encoding.
- There are RISC and CISC ISAs.
- There are several trade-offs associated between ISAs and μ As, and our goal is to find a Pareto-optimal design.

Further Reading

• Read about the difference between Von-Neumann and Harvard architectures.