

Q+2 A 64-bit homebrew superscalar
processor

Qupls2 Reference Manual

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Preface

Who This Book is For

This book is for the FPGA enthusiast who's looking to do a more complex project. It's advisable that one have a good background in digital electronics and computer systems before attempting a read. Examples are provided in the SystemVerilog language, it would be helpful to have some understanding of HDL languages. Finally, a lot about computer architecture is contained within these pages, some previous knowledge would also be helpful. If you're into electronics and computers as a hobby FPGA's can be a lot of fun. This book primarily describes the Qupls2 ISA. It is for anyone interested in instruction set architectures.

About the Author

First a warning: I'm an enthusiastic hobbyist like yourself, with a ton of experience. I've spent a lot of time at home doing research and implementing several soft-core processors, almost maniacally. One of the first cores I worked on was a 6502 emulation. I then went on to develop the Butterfly32 core. Later the Raptor64. I have progressed slowly from the simple to the complex. I have about 25 years professional experience working on banking applications at a variety of language levels including assembler. So, I have some real-world experience developing complex applications. I also have a diploma in electronics engineering technology. Some of the cores I work on these days are too complex and too large to do at home on an inexpensive FPGA. I await bigger, better, faster boards yet to come. To some extent larger boards have arrived. The author is a bit wary of larger boards. Larger FPGAs increase build times by their nature.

Motivation

The author desired a CPU core supporting 128-bit floating-point operations for the precision. He also wanted a core he could develop himself. The simplest approach to supporting 128-bit floats is to use 128-bit wide registers, which leads to 128-bit wide busses in the CPU and just generally a 128-bit design. It was not the author's goal to develop a 128-bit machine. There would be very little demand for such a beast. There are good ways of obtaining 128-bit floating-point precision on 64-bit or even 32-bit machines, but it adds some complexity. Complexity is something the author must manage to get the project done and a flat 128-bit design is simpler.

Good single thread performance is also a goal.

Having worked on Qupls for several months, the author finally realized that it did not have very good code density. Having a reasonably good code density is desirable as it is unknown where the CPU will end up. Earlier designs were better in that regard. So, Qupls2 arrived and is a mix of the best from previous designs. Qupls2 aims to improve code density over earlier versions.

Some efficiency is being traded off for design simplicity. Some of the most efficient designs are 32-bit.

The processor presented here isn't the smallest, most efficient, and fastest RISC processor. It's also not a simple beginner's example. Those weren't my goals. Instead, it offers reasonable performance and hopefully design simplicity. Having worked on the project the design simplicity is somewhat suspect. It's also designed around the idea of using a simple compiler. Some operations like multiply and divide could have been left out and supported with software generated by a compiler rather than having hardware support. But I was after a simple compiler design. There's lots of room for expansion in the future. I chose a 64-bit design supporting 128-bit ops in part anticipating more than 4GB of memory available sometime down the road. A 64-bit architecture is doable in FPGA's today, although it uses two or more times the resources that a 32-bit design would.

History

Qupls2 is a work in progress beginning February 2025. It is a major re-write from earlier versions. Thor which originated from RiSC-16 by Dr. Bruce Jacob. RiSC-16 evolved from the Little Computer (LC-896) developed by Peter Chen at the University of Michigan. The author has tried to be innovative with this design borrowing ideas from many other processing cores.

Qupls2's graphics engine originate from the ORSoC GFX accelerator core posted at opencores.org by Per Lenander, and Anton Fosselius.

Features of Qupls2

- Variable length instruction set with four sizes: 24/48/72/96-bit.
- Four way out-of-order superscalar operation
- Four operating modes, machine, hypervisor, supervisor, and user.
- 64-bit data path, support for 128-bit floats
- 16 (or more) entry re-order buffer
- 64 general purpose registers. The register file is unified; it may contain either integer or float data.
- Three dedicated link registers.
- Independent control of sign for each register for many instructions.
- Register renaming to remove dependencies.
- Dual operation instructions, $R_t = R_a \text{ op1 } R_b \text{ op2 } R_c$
- Standard suite of ALU operations, add subtract, compare, multiply and divide.
- Pair shifting instructions. Arithmetic right shift with rounding.
- Conditional branches with 21 effective displacement bits.
- 1024 Entry Three-way TLB shared between data and code.

Feature Discussion

The variable length instruction set is an attempt to obtain good code density. The goal of the minimum instructions parcel size of 24-bits is to capture a high percentage of the most common instructions. Some DSP type designs use 24-bit parcels. A 16-bit parcel was also considered. 24-bits gains code density over 32-bit instructions, but the next size up, 48-bits, loses out against 32-bit instructions for a certain percentage of instructions. 48-bits gains over 64-bit forms though.

Four way out-of-order superscalar operation is the way good single thread performance is achieved.

Four operating modes are critical to support software that can run multiple operating systems at the same time as is typical of modern systems.

Dedicating three registers specifically for subroutine linkage allows just two bits to be used to identify the register in call and return instructions. This conservation of instruction bits allows a larger target displacement to be used.

Independent sign control in instructions allows many more forms of instructions while retaining a relatively small opcode size.

Dual-operation instructions make use of the three source register fields to improve performance in some cases. Dual-ops allow the processor to effectively perform up to

eight operations per clock cycle. However, being able to make effective use of dual-op instructions is an issue. Dual-op instructions fell out of the presence of three source register fields. There were extra bits available in most instructions allowing a second operation to be specified.

Pair shifting instructions allow the manipulation of bits spanning two data words.

Getting Started

To get started designing an ISA or CPU core some basic tools are required.

Choosing an Implementation Language

A high-level hardware description language (HDL) of some sort is needed to develop a processor.

It is a good idea to become accustomed to any number of languages. It helps to review the work of others and a lot can be learned by studying code from existing projects. This project assumes one is familiar with programming languages in general.

Choosing a language is somewhat of a personal choice. One should choose whatever works best for themselves. There are two popular HDL languages (Verilog, and VHDL) and number of others. I encourage you to search the web for HDL languages and find something you're comfortable with. Additional languages include things like Java or C++ classes that people have developed to output HDL. Or language translators such as a 'C' to Verilog translator, for people who wish to work in 'C'. Not everybody speaks the same language as easily as everybody else, and it does have a little bit to do with linguistics. The author knows of some people who will only work with schematics. The author's personal favorite is System Verilog. VHDL is more verbose than Verilog and has tighter control of types. Qupls2 is implemented in the System Verilog HDL language.

Support Tools

One wouldn't be able to achieve anything without the appropriate supporting toolsets. If you can't get your hands on the tools required to do the work you may have to roll some of your own. It can be quite an investment and it's up to you to

decide. You have the power and control over your hobby. Many thanks to the vendors who supply free toolsets for use with their FPGA's. One may have to develop one's own tools to some extent. It's almost like a circus performance to get one's own toolsets working well. Is it the processor that's broken? or the toolset? That program didn't work because the assembler didn't assemble it correctly, it wasn't a bug in the processor. Keeping everything 'in sync' is like a dance, one goes around and around in circles. The author has had to develop his own assembler, disassembler, compiler, glyph editing program and other things. It's more involved than one might anticipate in the beginning. For instance, to get character display on-screen a glyph editor was needed. The author looked at a couple of free ones available on the net, but they didn't quite do what was needed. Something was needed that could output FPGA vendor compatible files, and the free glyph editors were geared towards graphics files formats. After spending about a day trying to modify an existing editor, the author gave up and decided to roll his own. The author first developed a simple assembler about 35 years ago for use at school; it is still using the same source code with many, many updates. The assembler has become quite powerful now. The author mentions this for a point; it can take considerable time to become familiar enough with tools to develop a processor project.

Documenting the Design

Any processor design is likely to have a few documents associated with it. One needs to be able to refer to things like what opcode does what, outside of the implementation code itself. For general tasks the author is using MS Office. Word for word processing, and Excel for spreadsheets. OpenOffice is another toolset that may be used. A spreadsheet is handy for representing tables like opcode tables. One will likely need some sort of word processor that supports tables for documentation purposes. A simple text editor probably isn't enough.

Building the System

To produce an implementation some sort of FPGA developer tools will be required. The FPGA devices typically must be programmed with a bit file generated by tools supplied by the FPGA vendor. It's the vendors who know the requirements for programming their devices; the author does not know of any third-party software that can generate bitstreams from source code. The author has used both free toolsets from Altera and Xilinx.

Software for the Target Architecture

The problem with an original home-grown processor is that there's no software for it. Fortunately, there is a lot of free software with source code available on the internet. One of the first things one will need is an assembler for the target architecture. One can assemble opcodes by hand with a reference chart handy, but it gets boring quickly. The author usually ends up doing some hand assembly to do some simple tests on the processor before the assembler is working. Then he takes an existing assembler and modifies it for the new processor. One assembler found on the net is for the 6809 (listed in the resources section) was modified for a 6809-enhancement core. The author has two assemblers one written in C++ the other in Visual Basic. Visual Basic's a little easier to work in for string handling. Some sort of text scripting language is a good place to start with a simple assembler. Some projects use Python. Much (older) software is written in C. It's a good language to know.

Once an assembler is working there are other languages that may be useful and easy to adapt. The author has adapted a version of Tiny Basic to several different homebrew projects now. Forth is another language popular with small systems. Once some of the simpler pieces of software are working, one may want to try one's hand at a toolset.

There are several toolsets available that can be utilized during development of soft-core processors like Qupls2. One of these is the LCC compiler. The LCC compiler was used for the Butterfly32 project. It's straightforward to implement the compiler for a new ISA especially if your ISA is similar to an existing one. Another toolset is the gcc compiler. The author has not put this toolset to use yet, but has had a look at it. It seems somewhat daunting. GCC is very general in nature and supports a lot of target architectures. People have put a lot of work into making this compiler available for any architecture. The author knows some people have been turned off by the complexity, however. The compiler the author uses a fair bit is a modified 68000 'C' compiler that was found on the net a while ago. One may have to study compilers for a while before being able to modify one or create one oneself. Compilers tend to be complex, and if you want good results for an original ISA you will have to write a good part of a compiler yourself. Not to worry, many homebrew projects get by without a compiler.

Testing and Debugging

A lot of testing is required to get something working. This section seems short for the amount of testing the author does. 90% of the work is in the testing. It is only human not to get things perfect the first time. It is a story of try and try again. This is a book about implementing or developing a processor, not a book about testing. Whole books could easily be written about testing. The key to avoiding backtracking and wasted time down the road is lots of testing along the way. Every bug fix is a test. When one bug is fixed, the next one shows up. Sometimes they seem like a two-headed hydra. Good testing skills are a requirement for developing and debugging a processor. Once one has managed to get such a thing working one is probably an ace at testing. Sometimes the processor and programming cannot help one to find a bug in the processor itself. One must be able to think in terms of ‘what test can I do?’ to fix the bug. There are usually at least several wow-zzy bugs. For example, the author found a bug where a register exchange instruction only failed on a cache miss, when the instruction was at the end of a cache line. Many programs worked fine, and the processor seemed not to work intermittently. It took quite a while to find. The author finally noticed the instruction failed when the cache was turned off. So, one thing to try for testing is turning the cache on or off.

Test Benches

If one is going to build it there must be some way to perform testing. The author recommends writing a test-bench first and trying the code in a simulator before trying out the code in an FPGA. A test bench is an artificial environment setup specifically to test a component. Inputs simulating a real environment are sent to the component then the output of the component is monitored for correctness. In the test bench usually so-called corner cases are tested, which are cases testing the extremes to which the component should work. If the component works in the extremes of the test bench it'll certainly work when it's put to real use is the general idea. A simulator is a tool built specifically for running test benches. The simulator has features to aid in debugging logic. One may set breakpoints, points which force the logic to stop at a particular place and view the outputs of a component.

A simple test bench for the Thor divider circuit is shown below. Note that most test bench files don't have any input or output ports. Instead, signals are selected in the simulator for viewing.

In this case arguments for the divider were manually altered in the test bench to check for specific cases.

```

module Thor_divider_tb();
parameter WID=64;
reg rst;
reg clk;
reg ld;
wire done;
wire [WID-1:0] qo,ro;

initial begin
    clk = 1;
    rst = 0;
    #100 rst = 1;
    #100 rst = 0;
    #100 ld = 1;
    #150 ld = 0;
end

always #10 clk = ~clk;    // 50 MHz

Thor_divider #(WID) u1
(
    .rst(rst),
    .clk(clk),
    .ld(ld),
    .sgn(1'b1),
    .isDivi(1'b0),
    .a(64'd10005),
    .b(64'd27),
    .imm(64'd123),
    .qo(qo),
    .ro(ro),
    .dvByZr(),
    .done(done)

```

```
);
```

```
endmodule
```

Note that it is possible to automate test cases and even use file I/O in some tools. Test benches can become quite complex. The author feels that one should not lose sight of the goal while developing test benches. The test bench is just for testing; it is not the project itself. Test benches for the float components often use a test input file containing the operands for the design under test, DUT, and output the results along with the input operands in a results output file. The output file can then be studied at leisure for issues to correct. Having a file output allows different revisions of the core to be compared and may make regression testing easier.

It is extremely unlikely that one would get the HDL code perfect the first time. The processor is not likely to be working, so how does one fix it up ? One needs debugging dumps of course, and those are only available from a simulator. Judiciously placed debug output can be real aid to getting the cpu working. Unless a fix-up is minor and well-known, the author runs simulator traces before attempting to run the code in an FPGA.

As a first test running software code in the FPGA try something simple like turning an LED on or off. One of the first lines of code Table888 executes is:

```
start
    sei                                ; disable interrupts
    ld      r1,$FF
    st      r1,LEDS
```

which turns on all the LEDs on the board.

This idea is popular for debugging hardware. The IBM PC had a “post-code” which was a byte value periodically written to an I/O port during startup for debugging. Depending on the display of the byte one could tell where in start-up it failed. Something like a missing or bad display adapter would end up with a specific code.

Another suggestion for test-benches is to use the actual system being loaded into the FPGA device as a component of the test-bench. If one keeps the system simple enough to start with then it’s possible to debug using the test-bench.

Using Emulators

An invaluable tool for debugging software prior to the processor being finished is the software emulator. A software emulator is an emulation of the device or system

written as a software program to run on a workstation. Software emulators are often significantly slower than the real hardware. It's also a tool where events applied to the system can be generated by user input. The code for the software emulation of a system mirrors the code for processor implementation itself. The code is just written in a different language. Having an emulator available allows for consistency checks between the emulation and the "real" device. Ideally the emulator should produce the same results as the real device would, except that it's in a virtual environment of the emulator. The emulator can help resolve software problems that would be too difficult to do using the logic simulator.

Emulators can be cycle-exact, meaning they emulate what happens during each cycle of the processor's clock. Cycle-exact emulators are often slower than non-cycle exact ones. An emulator that is not cycle exact may only emulate running software, interpreting object code, rather than performing all the internal operations that the CPU does.

Bootstrap Code vs the "Real Code"

The next thing to do after getting simpler I/O tests working is more complex I/O like a video display. Being able to display things on-screen can be invaluable (a character LCD display or LED display works well too). Many low-cost FPGA boards come with numeric LED displays for output and buttons for input. It's slightly more challenging to drive a numeric display and may make a good second test. Also being able to get a keystroke can be valuable too. One of the first routines the author's processors execute is the clear-screen routine. If it can't clear the screen he knows something's seriously wrong in the start-up. While the blue screen-of-death may be a bad sign, it's a good sign at least the processor is working that much. When setting the processor software up (bootstrapping) don't go for the most complex algorithms to begin with. Go with simple things. The author has two versions of keyboard routines. The one that 'works the right way' and the one he uses for bootstrapping. The bootstrapping routine goes directly to the keyboard port to read a character. It's very simple and pauses the whole machine waiting for a character.

Data Alignment

Are your variables mysteriously getting over-written? There could be a problem with address generation in the processor, or perhaps a problem with the external address decoding.

One approach to aligning data structures in memory is to ensure that the structures don't have partially overlapping addresses. This may help if there are memory

addressing problems. For instance, if data structure addresses all end in xxx000, then if there is an address decoding problem, all the structures may get overwritten by values intended for other variables. If the variable addresses are somewhat mangled for example 0xxxx004,xx1018, xx2036 (ending in different LSB's) then it may be less likely for data to be corrupted. This is a temporary debugging approach. One would want to have the var's properly listed in a program.

Get Rid of Complexity

One of the best ways to be able to debug something is to get rid of all the extra complexities involved with it. Many is the time that the author has backtracked on a project and removed features in favor of getting something to work. Add one feature at a time, make it a component that can be easily disabled or removed from the design. Disable the complex features of the design. It's great to be able to do a complex design. But all the complicated stuff started out small and simple. One doesn't need caches, interrupts, branch predictors, and so on to have a working design. It's very rewarding to have even the simplest design working.

Disabling Interrupts

This bit only applies if one has managed to get some sort of interrupt facility working. Several smaller, simpler systems don't make use of interrupts. The original Apple computer did not use interrupts. Interrupts aren't something that one must get working right away. They would be part of a longer-term project goal (if at all). Start small and simple and expand from there. There are alternatives to interrupts the main one being polling in a loop.

When working with the real hardware having a set of switches available can be invaluable. The switches can be wired to key signals in the design to offer a manual override option. There may be times when one desires to disable a feature under development while other aspects of the project are taking place. For instance, eventually at some point in time one might want to venture into the world of interrupt processing. Interrupts are a challenge to get working. It's nice to be able to disable interrupts using an external switch. Also, there are times when one wants to know if the processor is capable of executing a linear sequence of instructions, without the interference of interrupts. Debugging the processor with interrupts enabled can be tricky. Development of an interrupt system is something for a later stage of development. Get the processor running longer sequences of code successfully first before trying to deal with interrupts.

The author has found there are different levels of complexity for interrupts. It is best to start simple then expand one's horizons. About the simplest form of interrupt is a direct wired one. These are present in many early microprocessors. Another whole level of complexity is message-signaled interrupts. Message signaling generally requires bus mastering in the devices signaling an interrupt.

The IRQ Live Indicator

The IRQ live indicator is one of the first debug techniques the author uses once the core can run some code. An indicator that IRQ's are happening seems like a friendly image. It can be useful to see that IRQ's are happening on a regular basis. An IRQ indicator can let one know if the machine is just busy, or really, really stuck. This can be accomplished by incrementing a character at a fixed location on-screen. If that character stops flipping around, one knows there's real trouble. Another common approach is to use an LED to indicate the presence of IRQ's. Turning a LED on and off at a low frequency can be handy to visually detect the presence of IRQs. One can even get fancy with multi-color LEDs which change color when different interrupts are present.

Disable Caching

This tip applies only if a cache is present. Implementing a cache isn't priority number one. The first few projects the author did, did not include any caching. It was too complex to add a cache to begin with. As mentioned before, it sometimes necessary to disable the cache. Nice-to-have instructions are a cache-on and cache-off instruction. The processor should end up with the same results regardless of whether caching is enabled. If results seem flaky try disabling the cache.

Clock Frequency

Be conservative when choosing a clock frequency. Don't try to run at the fastest possible frequency until the design is thoroughly debugged. Sometimes changing the clock frequency will provide clues to timing or synchronization problems. If the problem varies with a change in clock frequency, then maybe it's a timing problem. If the problem is consistent regardless of the clock frequency, it's likely some other problem. Note we are dealing with debugging probabilities here. Just because a problem is consistent at different clock frequencies doesn't mean it's not a timing problem.

Another nice aspect of a conservative clock frequency is that the tools used for building the system often work much faster if it's easy for the tools to meet the

timing requirements. A conservative clock frequency is a way to speed up the development cycle.

More Advanced Debugging Options

The following debugging mechanisms fall under the category of being more sophisticated in nature and more difficult to do, but they can sometime prove invaluable. They require interrupts or exceptions.

Debug Registers

One option that aids primarily software debugging is the presence and use of debug registers. Adding debug registers to the core may make software debugging easier to do. Typically, there are one or more address matching registers that cause an interrupt or exception when the processor's program counter or data address matches the one in the debug register. One must have a working interrupt system for this to be usable. The author has found that typically the processor is basically working by the time debug registers can be put to use.

Trace / Program Counter History

One of the debug facilities that the author has added to cores is the capability to capture the history of the program counter. While the processor is running at full speed, the program counter is stored in a small history table which is usually some sort of shift register. When an exceptional condition occurs in the processor core the history capture is turned off. In the exception processing routine, the program counter history can then be dumped to the screen showing where the program went awry. Another common way to handle a dump is to automatically send to a serial or debug port.

The technique is called "trace". A good trace history will often be able to be triggered perhaps at a specific address or via debug match register. The trace may record all instructions, but it is common to record only the branch history, and then a few of the instruction addresses for synchronization purposes. Since branches are either taken or not taken a single bit can be used to record the history making trace very compact. With only a couple of block RAMs a trace history of thousands of instructions is possible.

Stuck on a Bug ?

This is a brain trick. Try changing the code around the bug. Sometimes just by changing the code, refactoring without really changing operation, you will be able to spot a bug that wasn't readily apparent. It's a bit like moving your eyes around on the

horizon to try and spot an enemy. The action of changing or simply moving the code causes a bug to pop out, out of the shadows.

The Rare Chance

There is a rare chance that it's a problem in the toolset. A problem like this can make things really difficult, especially if it's a free toolset with no technical support. In about 20 years or so, of using toolsets the author has found a few bugs. The toolsets generally speaking are superb, so the chance of it being a bug in a toolset is extremely remote but not impossible. The one bug run into was in extending a complement of a single bit value. The toolset returned a binary "10" the value two when a single bit was being inverted. It should have returned a zero. The author was able to work around this problem by zero extending the value manually. The author found the bug by tracking the location of it down and dumping values using debug outputs.

Bugs in toolsets are often obvious. The most recent one caused the toolset to crash and quit running depending on how simulation was started. There was a work-around by restarting the simulation fresh every time which takes longer than the usual restart.

If you suspect a bug in the toolset, try searching the web for information on it. If it's a common problem, it's bound to be posted on the web somewhere. There are also usually forums on the web where one can post about problems, and even sometimes get replies.

Nomenclature

There has been some mix-up in the naming of load and store instructions as computer systems have evolved. A while ago, a "word" referred to a 16-bit quantity. This is reflected in the mnemonics of instructions where move instructions are qualified with a ".w" for a 16-bit move. Some machines referred to 32-bits as a word. Times have changed and 64-bit workstations are now more common. In the author's parlance a word refers to the word size of a machine, which may be 16, 32, 64 bits or some other size. What does ".w" or ".d", and ".l" refer to? To some extent it depends on the architecture.

The ISA refers to primitive object sizes following the convention suggested by Knuth of using Greek.

Number of Bits		Instructions	Comment
8	byte	LDB, STB	UTF8 usage
16	wyde	LDW, STW	
32	tetra	LDT, STT	
64	octa	LDO, STO	
128	hexi	LDH, STH	

The register used to address instructions is referred to as the instruction pointer or IP register. The instruction pointer is a synonym for program counter or PC register.

Design Choices

For something as complex as a CPU there are many design choices to be made. The author cannot emphasize this enough. The hard part is not deciding what to include, but what to leave out. Almost anything could be included.

RISC vs CISC

No computer book would be complete without mentioning the RISC vs CISC paradigms.

There are two extremes to processor architecture. Most machines fall somewhere in-between. Qupls2 is somewhere in-between, leaning towards being a RISC machine, but it hardly has a reduced instruction set. At the extreme end of RISC the architecture may support as little as single instruction, or just a handful like eight or sixteen. At the other extreme a CISC architecture may support thousands of instruction variants. RISC architectures are typically load/store, large register array, and few instructions of a fixed format size. CISC architectures tend to have memory operands, varying register array sizes, lots of instructions of varying formats and sizes. The goal behind a RISC architecture is high performance by using a simple processor that operates at a high clock frequency. The goal behind a CISC architecture is high performance by providing a more customized instruction set. CISC architectures may combine multiple operations into a single instruction attempting to increase performance. Examples include stack linkage instructions,

looping constructs, and complex memory addressing modes. Qupls2 has some of the better features from a CISC style machine.

Little Endian vs big Endian

One choice to make is whether the architecture is little endian or big endian. There's a never-ending argument by computer folks as to which endian is better. In reality they are about the same or there wouldn't be an argument. The author has seen claims that little-endian has won. There seem to be more little-endian designs recently than big-endian. In a little-endian architecture, the least significant byte is stored at the lowest memory address. In a big-endian architecture the most significant byte is stored at the lowest memory address. The author is partial to little endian machines; it just seems more natural to him although he knows people who swear by the opposite. Whichever endian is chosen, often the machine has instructions(s) for converting from one endian to the other. The author does not bother with endian conversion; it's a feature that he probably wouldn't use. Some implementations even allow the endian of the machine to be set by the user. This seems like overkill to the author. The endian of data is important because some file types depend on data being in little or big-endian format. Qupls2 is a little-endian machine.

Endian

Qupls2 is a little-endian machine. The difference between big endian and little endian is in the ordering of bytes in memory. Bits are also numbered from lowest to highest for little endian and from highest to lowest for big endian.

Shown is an example of a 32-bit word in memory.

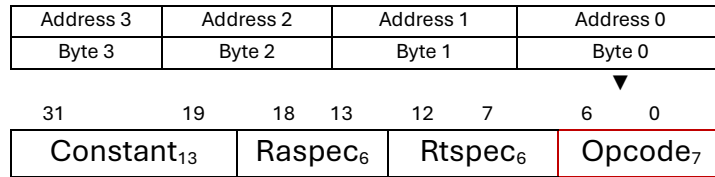
Little Endian:

Address	3	2	1	0
Byte	3	2	1	0

Big Endian:

Address	3	2	1	0
Byte	0	1	2	3

For Qupls2 the root opcode is at the lower end of the instruction and bytes are shown from right to left in increasing order. As the following table shows.



Deciding on the Degree of Pipelining

How much pipelining is going to be done can impact the instruction set architecture (ISA). Some things are easier or harder to do depending on the pipelining present. For instance, handling large constants in an overlapped-pipelined design can be tricky, so one may want to stick with specific approaches. If one wants to support complex addressing mode, such a memory indirect indexed it may be a lot easier to implement with a non-overlapped pipeline. The pipeline for Table888 is basically a non-overlapped pipeline, a couple of goals for the processor were a high clock frequency and complex instructions. The author wanted to be able to implement complex instructions easily using state machines. He has found non-pipelined designs easier to debug as well. The following chart shows the relationship ship between pipelining, clock frequency, and design complexity. It's based on the author's own experiences developing processor for FPGA's. It's a little bit of an Apple's to Orange's comparison, but it may be good for a general sense.

CPU	Max Clock Frequency	Peak Operations per clock	MIPS	Logic Cells	Processor Architecture
	100 MHz	0.3333	33	2000	Sequential, non-overlapped
Raptor ⁶⁴	60 MHz	0.6666	40	10000	Overlapped pipeline
Thor	40 MHz	1.5	53	100000	Superscalar 2 way
Qupls2	20 MHz	8.0	142	160000	Superscalar 4-way

Note that what one chooses to do can depend on resource budgets of the whole system. If the CPU is going to stall waiting for a shared memory access most of the time, then it might as well be using multiple clock cycles to accomplish tasks. It doesn't matter how fast the CPU is if memory access is limited.

Choosing a Bus Standard

The processor interacts with the outside world using a bus. The author encourages one to use one of the commonly known bus standards. A well-known bus standard makes it possible to use peripheral cores developed by others.

As an example, Table888 uses a WISHBONE compatible bus to communicate with the outside world. Specs for the WISHBONE bus can be found at OpenCores.org. WISHBONE bus is straightforward and easy to understand and free. It is used by other projects. The external bus used by Table888 is a 32-bit bus. This is the size of the system's data bus. All the peripherals in the test system use a 32-bit data bus. The ROM's and RAM's in the system are all 32 bits wide. Also, the interface to the dynamic RAM memory is only 32 bits. Table888 makes use of two word burst memory accesses to load the instruction cache. A burst access is several accesses that occur rapidly in a row in a sequence. Since instructions are only 40 bits it works okay with a 32-bit bus. Loading or storing a word to memory requires two bus accesses.

Having mentioned the use of a standard bus, for Qupls2 the author decided to use his own bus standard with the goal of achieving higher performance. Qupls2 uses a bus called 'FTA bus' standing for Finitron Asynchronous bus. FTA bus described in an appendix, is a single event bus. All bus operations occur in a single clock cycle.

Choosing an ISA

The author would suggest as a first project to use an existing ISA and pick something simple. The author notes that many people interested in processor design have started this way. Designing one's own processor tends to be project N rather than project #1. It can be quite daunting to have to develop all the tools necessary to support one's own ISA, and an existing ISA is likely to have ready-made tools on the web. There are many projects that implement existing ISA's. MIPS and variants must have been done about 100 times. An existing ISA is also likely to have examples of implementations in various languages. If one wants to roll one's own ISA, it's a lot of fun. There are many things that factor into the choice of an ISA. What is the processor geared towards? Is it to be designed for a specific task? What kind of resources will be available to the processor? Is there lots of memory available, or is the amount significantly limited? It is said that one of the pitfalls of ISA design is not allowing for growth in memory requirements.

Readability

One of the first issues to consider is readability. This is a human factor. Believe it or not, sometimes people read machine code. Having an instruction set that contains odd sized bit fields is difficult to read (at least for the author). Byte code instruction sets were partly done the way they were to facilitate reading the machine code, so that it would be easier for developers to write software. These days most software is

written in high-level languages. As such, there is less emphasis on producing human readable machine code and more emphasis on performance. For this processor the author chose to forego to a byte-oriented design because he was interested in performance and planning to program in high level languages.

Planning for the future

If one leaves no room for future instructions, it'll be difficult to upgrade the processor later. This has been a problem for several commercial processors. Table888's instruction set has a base of 256 opcodes available; most of the opcode space is unused and reserved for future expansion. Future expansion includes things like floating point, vector operations, and SIMD operations. While working on the instruction set for the Raptor64, which is another 64-bit processor, the author found the seven-bit opcode somewhat cramped. The instruction set for that processor just fit with little room left over. If possible, leave several open opcodes for future expansion; that way it'll be possible to at least use them as prefix instructions for subsequent pages of opcodes. For an example of using page prefixes see the 6809 processor. The 65C816 processor has just a single opcode left, wisely reserved for future expansions.

Qupls2 uses a seven-bit primary opcode. Of the 128 possible primaries there are about 20 open codes left that could be assigned.

Part of the reason to develop a 64-bit processor isn't that it's really required right now, but that it has some room to grow over the next 20 years. The typical "small" FPGA board has megabytes of RAM available. To address that much memory, one needs an ISA that supports the address range. A question the author has heard from time to time is "How do I get my micro-controller to access more memory?". Needing to access more memory is a common problem. What might be needed is a processor with greater memory accessing capacity. One can only shoehorn so much before the shoe splits.

Opcode / Instruction Size:

What works the best? For implementing the CPU in a small FPGA device the ISA must be relatively simple. Some of the first microprocessors (6800, 6502, Z80, 8085 and others) were byte code oriented. They would fetch the first byte of an instruction and begin processing from there, fetching additional opcode bytes as needed. For Qupls2 ISA the author has chosen to implement a variable length instruction set with a parcel size of 24-bits. He would not recommend using an

oddball sized instruction set; it can be done, but one would need to put a lot of work into building a toolset that understood the ISA. The author is speaking from experience. A CPU was developed with 36-bit instructions. It was about 10x the ordinary amount of work to get the tools to deal with nibbles instead of bytes. The instruction size should at least be a multiple of eight bits. The author has chosen 24/48/72/96 bits because a lot of bits are required to represent the number of registers available in the design. The instruction sizes are limited to four to keep the instruction fetch simple otherwise it would be necessary to implement a decoder calculating the size for each instruction. In Qupls2 the instruction size is specified by the first two bits of the instruction. The key point here is that it is simple to detect the size.

Variable Length Instruction Sets

One of the goals of a variable length instruction set is to minimize the number of bytes required to represent a program. Shorter code can sometimes execute faster because it makes better use of the cache. For embedded systems a shorter code may allow the use to smaller less expensive ROMs. Implementing a variable length instruction set adds some hurdles to the project. Instruction cache design for instructions varying in width is a challenge as well. A sample of a processor with varying sized instructions is the RTF65003 which makes use of a table to track instruction sizes. If choosing a variable length instruction set the author would advise setting up the instruction set so that the first few bits of the opcode can be used to determine the instruction size. RISC-V processing core uses this approach. For the Thor core the size of the instruction can be determined primarily by looking at the opcode byte.

The author has found that decoding the length of an instruction for a variable sized instruction set can be on the critical timing path, at least for an FPGA based processor. He decided to use a fixed length encoding for Qupls to help improve timing.

Instruction Bundles

Qupls (not Qupls2) originally used 40-bit instructions. 40 bits might sound okay but a 40-bit instruction size doesn't work well with an instruction cache, because it results in an oddball cache line length. For simplicity, typically cache lines are a power of two in length, otherwise a fast division would be required to find out which cache line to load. 128 is a power of two and it's close to the size of three instructions (120 bits). So, one solution in addition to having an instruction size of 40

bits would be to pack the 40-bit instructions into a 128-bit instruction bundle. A suggested bundle format:

127 120	119 80	79 40	39 0
Debug	Slot2	Slot1	Slot0

The extra bits in the bundle would be used for debugging information. In some processors the extra bits serve a different function. For instance, in the IA64-Itanium architecture these are template bits which control the classes of instructions in the instruction slots.

For Qupls using an instruction bundle was seriously considered but ultimately discarded. Instead, a more complex instruction cache is used which allows instructions spanning cache-lines to be fetched. An issue with using a bundled format is that one may be restricted to processing instructions in specific groups. A non-bundled format can vary the number of instructions fetched and processing more easily.

Data Size

While the size of instructions in an instruction set may vary, typically data does not. The author would strongly recommend against using unusual data sizes. One would be incompatible with everything else if an unusual data size is used. It becomes a nightmare to transport and convert data files. Primitive data types should be a multiple of two of the size of a byte (eight bits). That is 8, 16, 32, or 64 bits. There are a great many well-known file formats in existence. They all rely on common data sizes. If one were to choose a nine-bit byte for instance they would have trouble packing it into the eight bits that everybody else uses. One should make an effort to find out what existing data formats are. If one's application uses a specific type of data object, it's likely that someone else has already run into the same type of object. They may have encountered issues with using the object that one hasn't thought about yet.

Registers

Number of General-Purpose Registers

Some research reveals that typically somewhere around 24 registers is a sweet spot for performance when dealing with high-level compiled languages. Machines with fewer registers start to suffer ill effects of moving data between registers and memory. Machines with more registers don't improve very much in performance

over having 20 or so registers. Having more registers impacts the task switch time because they must be swapped to memory during a task switch. Some common examples are the ARM processor which has a working set of the sixteen registers. Also, the latest processors from INTEL support sixteen registers. The original INTEL 80x88 processor sported a register set of eight registers. Later more registers were added to the design. SPARC uses a register windowing scheme where there are eight global registers and twenty-four local registers which rotate around using a circular register buffer. If starting out small, it might be advisable to leave some means to extend the architecture with more registers.

A sixteen-register machine is a good choice for performance reasons. Why aren't there twenty-four registers if it's a sweet spot? It's a trade-off between using bits in the instruction set to represent the registers and performance impacts. The choice is really between 32 and 16 registers because either four or five bits must be used in an instruction to represent the register number. For the author's design he has chosen to use 64 registers. Another consideration is that within the FPGA memory resources are allocated in blocks. These blocks are typically 512 or 4096 bytes in size.

Yet another consideration is technical. Use of register renaming in the processor requires more registers than what appear to the programmer. About three times as many registers is a good number of rename registers. So, 96 registers are required for a 32-register machine.

Register Access

Are registers going to be accessed in parallel or in sequence? Some instructions require more than a single register. It may be desirable for performance reasons to be able to access more than one register at a time. To do this the register file must have multiple register read 'ports'. On the other hand, multiple read ports increase the size and cost of a register file. If one wants to keep a smaller register file, then the registers will have to be accessed in sequence. Many instructions require only a single register read access, for example the typical add immediate or compare immediate instructions. The most frequently used memory operation, load a register, usually only needs to read a single register. With so many instructions requiring only a single register (or even no registers) accessing the register file sequentially across several clock cycles is a consideration for when multiple registers need to be read. Table888 uses three register read ports, mainly for simplicity, a few instructions read three registers (stores with indexed addressing for

example); accessing registers sequentially can add complexity to the state machine and register read file path.

Qupls2, as a four-way superscalar processor, has lots of register read ports. There are about 20 read ports in a smaller configuration of Qupls2. This is to support executing multiple instructions at the same time. For instance, two ALUs require eight read ports, three for source operands and one for the target operand. With two ALUs, two FPUS, a flow control unit, and two data memory units a lot of ports are needed. Even more ports are required to support multiple write ports. To write multiple results at the same time requires multiplying the number of reads ports by the number of write ports.

Segment Registers

As part of the memory management portion of a CPU segment registers are often provided. There are usually multiple segment registers to support multiple segments which are typically part of a program. Common program segments are the code segment, the data segment, the uninitialized data segment and the stack segment. There are often other segments as well. 80x88 is famous for its segment registers, but other processors like IBM's PowerPC also use them as well. Segment registers are an easy to understand and a low cost, low overhead memory management approach. The memory address from an instruction is added to a value from a segment register to form a final address. The segment register is often shifted left as it is added to allow a greater physical memory range than the range directly supported by the architecture. Segment registers allow programs to be written as if they had specific memory addresses available to them, such as starting at location zero, while the actual physical address of the program is much different. Once a design seems to be working well, the author tends to add segment registers to the design as a first step at providing memory management features. Table888 does not include segment registers at this point.

For Qupls2 the author decided not to include segment registers. Qupls2 uses a paged memory management unit and segment registers would be largely redundant.

Other Registers

There are often other registers that are not general purpose in nature associated with a design. A common register is the status register, or machine control register as it is sometimes called. The status register often contains flags, and interrupt masks. It may contain other mode controlling bits like the decimal flag on the 6502

or the up/down flag on the 80x88. Many designs support additional registers such as an interrupt table base address register, a tick count register, debug registers, memory management control registers, cache control registers and others. Usually, these other registers are handled with a simple move instruction between the register and a general-purpose register. Table 888 has a handful of special registers that are accessed with the 'mtspr' (move to special register) and 'mfspir'. Qupls2 follows the convention of calling these registers CSRs for control and status registers. The CSRs are accessible with CSR register read and write instructions. The author encourages the reader to review the Qupls2 instruction set for these instructions, found later in the book.

Moving Register Values

A common operation is transferring data from one register to another. This operation is commonly done with a move instruction of some sort (MOV). Some simpler processors don't supply a register-to-register move operation. Instead, they rely on using another instruction that doesn't affect the data transfer, such as a register 'or' instruction. For example, `or r1,r2,r0` effectively moves r2 to r1 because r1 is or'd with zero. It can be confusing looking at an assembly language dump, because it looks like there is an 'or' instruction. Another puzzle piece is that an explicit register move instruction uses only a single register read port. This is sometimes important in more advanced processors. Another related instruction that is less often used is the exchange registers instruction. Exchanging two registers can be tricky to implement because two register updates must take place. Exchanging registers is not always offered in processor architectures, when it is supported, it is often a multi-cycle operation. Qupls2 supports an explicit register move instruction because the move operation can move between more registers than what is possible with other instructions like OR.

Register Usage

While the general-purpose register array may be considered general in nature, and any register may be used for any purpose, registers are often given specific usages by convention for software purposes. As far as hardware is concerned it doesn't care how general registers are used. But from a software perspective it is beneficial to assign specific registers to some tasks. For instance, often a general register is reserved for use by the operating system, meaning that application programs should not use it. This is a convention enforced by a compiler, not the hardware itself. Qupls2 has some basic register usage constraints.

Handling Immediate Values

First some background information. A significant proportion of instructions (for example 40%) use immediate or constant values. Immediate values or constants vary widely in the number of bits required for representation, although most constants are small. Placing small constants using a field in the instruction works not too badly. The problem to solve is how to place and use large constants in the instruction stream. There are a few goals to achieve here. 1) Minimizing processor complexity. 2) Minimizing code and data size bloat. 3) Maximizing performance. There are six basic methods of handling immediate constants that the author knows of besides including the constant directly in the instruction stream. Large constants may be included directly in the instruction stream by varying the length of instructions containing constant.

- 1) SETHI / LUI – is an instruction to set the high order bits of a register
- 2) IMMxx – is an immediate prefix for the following instruction
- 3) IMMxx – is an immediate postfix for the previous instruction
- 4) LW table – placing constants in a table
- 5) Half-operand or shifted operand instructions – instructions operating on only part of a register
- 6) Referencing constants in the instruction stream using relative offsets.

Qupls2 architecture uses the third method – immediate postfixes.

SETHI

No, this is not the search for extra-terrestrials. The author likes the moniker because it reminds him of the existence of other things. SETHI is often called LUI which stands for ‘load upper immediate’.

One solution is to load an immediate value into a register using a pair of “set” instructions, then perform a register-register operation rather than a register-immediate operation. It looks like this:

ALU op used only to set the low order bits of a register ->
SETHI Instruction ->
Instruction Needing Large Immediate- translated into register operand ->

```
OR  Rb,R0,#Low ; load low order
SETHI Rb,#High ; load high order
ADD Rt, Ra, Rb
```

Disadvantages of this approach:

- 1) It often requires more memory than other solutions would. Using a large immediate requires three instructions rather than the two that a prefix would require. A 64-bit processor may also require more set instructions to handle middle bits of a constant.
- 2) It uses up a register(s).

Advantages of this approach:

- 1) It's simple.
- 2) It doesn't require processor interlocks, or re-execution of the prefix when interrupts occur. Allows instructions to execute as independent units.

IMMxx - Prefix

Second solution: use an immediate prefix instruction. The constant prefix instruction simply contains the bits of the constant that wouldn't fit in the following instruction. It looks like the following:

Immediate prefix Instruction ->	IMM16 #HighBits
Instruction Needing Large Immediate ->	ADD Rt,Ra,#Lowbits

Advantages:

It requires less memory space as the prefix needs only to contain bits to specify an immediate. Often the prefix can be arranged to contain sufficient information so that only a single instruction is needed, rather than the two that would be required for other solutions.

Disadvantages:

It can be complicated. It may require processor interlocks or re-execution of instructions when an interrupt occurs.

IMMxx - POSTfix

Third solution: use an immediate postfix instruction. This is one of the author's favorites. For a long time, the Qupls design used postfix immediates. The constant postfix instruction simply contains the bits of the constant that wouldn't fit in the previous instruction. It looks like the following:

Instruction Needing Large Immediate ->	ADD Rt,Ra,#Lowbits
Immediate postfix Instruction ->	IMM16 #HighBits

Advantages:

It requires less memory space as the postfix needs only to contain bits to specify an immediate. Often the postfix can be arranged to contain

sufficient information so that only a single instruction is needed, rather than the two that would be required for other solutions.

The postfix also has the advantage that it can be read from the cache-line as if it were part of the current instruction. It is a little bit easier to process a postfix instead of a prefix.

Disadvantages:

It can be complicated. It may require processor interlocks or re-execution of instructions when an interrupt occurs.

LW Table

Fourth solution: place the large constants in a table in memory, then use regular load and store operations to load the constant into a register. This is the author's least favorite method. He is of the opinion that constants belong in the instruction stream and are better stored in the instruction cache rather than polluting the data cache. However, many systems use the load from table method.

Load Instruction – retrieves value from table ->	LW Rb, constantAddress
Instruction Needing Large Immediate – translated into a register operand ->	ADD Rt,Ra,Rb

Advantage:

It's simple. It doesn't require a special means (instructions) to handle constants. Uses a means already present in the processor. This may be useful when the size and complexity of a processor is an issue.

Disadvantages:

- 1) It's often slow. Load / store operations generally occur through the data port of the processor rather than the instruction port. There may be delays for memory access.

It uses a register.

Half or SHIFTED Operand Instructions

Fifth solution: provide instructions that can operate on part of a register. This looks like the following:

Instruction Needing Large Immediate (operates on lower half of register) ->	ADD Rt,Ra,#Low
Instruction operating on upper half of registers ->	ADDHI Rt,Ra,#High

Advantages:

- 1) Minimizes code size.

- 2) It often doesn't require the use of extra registers.
- 3) Does not require instruction interlocks

Disadvantages:

- 1) The number of instructions in the instruction set is increased. This may cause problems with the representation of instructions.
- 2) Increases the complexity of the processor.

This is the method that Qupls (not Qupls2) uses to process large constants. Qupls includes several instructions that shift an immediate value by multiples of 21-bits before use.

Relative Offsets

Constants can be embedded in the instruction stream, for instance at the end of a cache line. They can then be referenced using offsets encoded in the instruction which are offsets relative to the beginning of the cache line.

Advantages

- 1) Minimal code size
- 2) Does not require additional registers
- 3) Does not require instruction interlocks

Disadvantages:

- 1) May require an additional read port on the instruction cache
- 2) May add complexity to the instruction fetch

The Branch Set

One of the first things the author looks at when evaluating an ISA is the branch set. Is it semi-sensible or non-sense? Branches may represent up to one quarter of instruction executed. Branches are one item that must be well done in an architecture. What conditions will the processor branch on? Is it a simple branch on zero / non-zero test or are there more complex conditions available? What the branch set supports impacts what other instructions need to be available in the architecture. If branching only supports a zero / non-zero test, then other instructions must be present to setup the branch test. In the DLX architecture for instance, there are a set of 'set' instructions that set a register to a one or zero based

on a condition. After a set instruction is done, then a conditional branch may occur. Many architectures include a compare instruction(s). For instance, the MMIX architecture includes both signed (CMP) and unsigned compare (CMPU) instructions that set the value of a register to -1, 0, or 1 for less than, equal, or greater than another register. The same paradigm was used for the Raptor64 processor. For the Table888 processor there is a standard set of branches that act like they are branching on a flag register value. If you're used to the 6800 / 68x00 / 6502 series processor, these branches will look familiar.

Qupls2 uses combined compare-and-branch instructions to help reduce the dynamic instruction count. Effectively a compare operation and a branch operation are fused together.

Branch Targets

Branches which change program flow conditionally are usually implemented as relative branches. One reason to implement using relative addresses is that it takes fewer bits to represent the target address of the branch. In many designs, typically 16 bits are allowed for, for a branch displacement even though only 12 bits are what is necessary. It has to do with keeping the format of instructions simple and there is usually room in a branch instruction for sixteen bits. Even in byte-code architectures that use eight-bit branch displacements by default, there is often a longer form for branches supported (for example the 6809). A lot of software expects at least a sixteen-bit branch displacement. Eighteen effective bits is recommended. Qupls2 has effectively over 20 bits of displacement. A second reason to use relative branching is that it allows code to be relocated in memory. Changing the location of the code in memory often does not require updating relative addresses associated with branch instructions. Note that if some form of memory management is present, it is possible to move a program in memory without having to worry about fixing up non-relative addresses, so the value of relative branches for this reason is limited.

A relative branch branches relative to the address of the branch instruction or the address of the next instruction (do not make it otherwise). The author strongly recommends using the address of the next instruction as the reference point for branches. It just makes it a bit more readable in machine code. A branch with a zero displacement arrives at the next instruction. As a ground rule, the displacement field should be at least 12 bits.

As mentioned previously, Qupls2 has effectively a 20-bit displacement. The displacement constant is encoded as an 20-bit value, but it is in terms of the number of instructions are opposed to the number of bytes. Since instructions are a

multiple of three bytes in size the displacement in terms of bytes is three times as much. This may seem like overkill, but it's trying to look into the future of branches. When people write structured subroutines, they typically don't create a routine more than a few pages long. This results in branching that branches within a few kilobytes of the branch location because branches are located within a subroutine. Hence the reason 12 bits is adequate most of the time. However, if one is using an automated code generator, the code generator may generate larger subroutines.

Unconditional branches in Qupls2 use a byte displacement value rather than an instruction displacement because subroutines could be located at any byte address. They also have a larger 30+-bit displacement which is needed to hit subroutine targets. Unconditional branches are often used to enter or exit routines.

Branch Prediction

Branch prediction enhances performance by predicting which direction a conditional branch instruction will take. It is often used in overlapped or superscalar pipeline designs. Branch prediction can turn branches into a single cycle operation rather than a multi-cycle one which is what happens when a branch is taken in an overlapped pipeline design. Branch prediction has little value for the Table888 processor as it's a non-overlapped pipeline. It takes multiple cycles to execute a branch whether prediction is present. Branch prediction adds additional complexity to the processor. The Raptor64 includes a (2,2) correlating branch predictor, for an example of a branch predictor.

Qupls2 includes two branch predictors, one called a branch-target-buffer operating at the fetch stage of the processor, and a second predictor called a gselect predictor operating at the decode stage of the processor.

Branch prediction is quite a complex topic. More recent predictors are using neural-network type prediction which learns from previous branch experience.

Looping Constructs

Sometimes processors support looping constructs directly. 680x0 has a decrement and branch instruction. 80x88 has loop instructions which decrement the CX register and branch. Decrementing a register then branching if it is non-zero is a common operation, so some processors implement these two operations together with a single instruction. It's really like executing two instructions at once. Table888 supports a decrement and branch instruction for loop constructs. Qupls2 supports increment (or decrement)-and-branch instructions. Incrementing a loop counter at the end of a loop is more common than a decrement.

Other Control Flow Instructions

Subroutine Calls

Subroutine calls represent about 1% of instructions executed, but it's an important 1%. Some architectures store the return address for a subroutine call in a processor register, typically a general-purpose register. These architectures may make use of a jump-and-link (JAL) instruction to both call a subroutine and return from it (for example xr16 – Grey Research). The PowerPC architecture makes use of a dedicated link register (LR). This works only for a single level of subroutine call, and the register must be saved onto the stack before calling a nested subroutine. Table888 automatically stores the return address on the stack for a subroutine call. Using a JAL instruction to return from a subroutine allows a return to a point past the original calling address. This is occasionally useful to skip over inline parameters passed to a subroutine. What's more useful is removing parameters from the stack during a return operation. This is useful enough that a number of architectures incorporate it as part of a return instruction (680x0, 80x88). Quspl2 directly supports both a return past the calling point, and adding onto the stack pointer to remove arguments.

Qupls2 supports branch-to-subroutine, [BSR](#), with over 30-bit displacements which should be sufficient for most software. It also supports jumping to a subroutine at an absolute address, [JSR](#). To use the full address range the target address of the subroutine must be loaded into a register before using JSR. Otherwise, the address range is more limited.

Memory Indirect Jumps

A common operation that must be performed by a running program is to jump to address from a table of addresses. This can be done using a load instruction then a jump to register instruction, but it often has hardware supporting the operation, called a memory indirect jump. Qupls2 has a memory indirect jump instruction which may set part of the instruction pointer, so that the jump table size may be limited to smaller entries.

Returning From Subroutines

Returning from a subroutine is the reverse operation to calling one. In a machine that uses registers this can be as simple as loading the PC with the register value. Some RISC architectures store the return address in a register. Table888 like many architectures, loads the return address off the stack. Qupls2 return-and-deallocate

instruction, [RET](#), returns from a subroutine, deallocates the stack, and allows a return a few instructions past the calling point.

System Calls

System calls are used to call the system. They are often called software interrupts or traps. The 80x88 uses the name 'int'. 6809 calls this a 'SWI' for software interrupt. In 6502 parlance it's the BRK instruction. They are called TRAPs on the 680x0 series. All these instructions do much the same thing. They are almost like a jump to subroutine instruction with an implied address. The system call instruction usually saves more machine state on the stack than a subroutine call would. These instructions may also switch the processor operating mode into a more protected level. Table888 calls this a break (BRK) instruction. Qupls2 uses the [CHK](#) instruction that always fails to perform system calls. CHK accepts a cause code argument encoded in the instruction which determines which exception vector will be invoked.

Qupls2 uses an internal state stack to store CPU state during a system call. This is much faster than using external memory. Multiple items such as the instruction pointer, and status register are stored on the state stack in a single clock cycle. This stack is small, only eight entries deep.

Returning from Interrupt Routines

Like a subroutine, interrupt routines also require a method of return. Typically returning from an interrupt routine requires loading some of the machine state from the stack in addition to the return address. Hardware interrupts are not normally invoked with parameters, so there are no parameters to pop off the stack at the end of an interrupt routine. Qupls uses the RTI also called [RTE](#) instruction to return from an interrupt or system call. This instruction loads both the instruction pointer and status register from the internal stack. A feature of the Qupls RTE instruction is the ability to perform a two-up return, returning twice from a system call which would otherwise be difficult to do since an internal state stack is used.

Jumps

Strange as it may seem, unconditional jumps are very rarely used. Usually, one wants the program to branch conditionally or call a subroutine. An unconditional relative branch is usually used for jumping within a program. Jumps are sometimes used to handle exceptional conditions, where the normal subroutine return is circumvented. For instance, a jump may be used to implement a program abort. Another place where jumps are used sometimes is with jump tables. Addresses of

subroutines are stored in a table in memory. Functions in the table are called by loading a register with an index number, loading the address from the table using the index into the table and jumping to it. This operation can be done with registers and a jump-to-register value instruction. Table888 implements this complex operation directly as an indexed memory indirect jump.

Conditional Moves

Conditional moves are available in many modern architectures. The idea behind conditional moves is to avoid branches which are usually timely to execute. So, a conditional move is a performance enhancing instruction. A conditional move 'conditionally' moves a value into a register based upon whether the condition is true. It's like having a branch instruction combined with a load instruction. Table888 does not currently have any conditional move instructions. Qupls2 has conditional moves in the form of the [CMOVNZ](#) instruction. It also supports zero-or-set, or just plain set instructions which are also a form of conditional move.

Predicated Instruction Execution

Some processors include the ability to execute virtually any instruction conditionally, for example the ARM processor or INTEL Itanium IA64. It's a powerful means of removing branches from the instruction stream. And removing branches from the instruction stream is good for performance. Sequences of instructions executed with predicates rather than branching around the instructions should be kept short. The issue is the amount of time spent fetching the instructions and treating them as NOPs versus the time it would take to branch around the instructions. A compiler can optimize this and choose the best means. One of the problems of predicates is that they use up bits in the instruction regardless of whether they're useful, and much of the time they are not useful. For instance, the Itanium has a six-bit field in virtually every instruction. The result is that a wider instruction format of 41 bits is used. A second problem with predicates is that they act like a second instruction being executed at the same time as the instruction they are associated with. The predicate operation requires a predicate register read, and a predicate evaluation operation. This adds complexity to the processor. Predicate registers are another form of register that must be present and bypassed in an overlapped or superscalar design.

The Thor processing core features uses a whole byte for predicates but gains back some of the opcode space by using redundant forms of the predicates as single byte instructions.

Qupls2 uses the [PRED](#) instruction modifier to perform predicated operations. The modifier may be applied before a group of instructions to be predicated. The author got the idea for the PRED modifier by browsing the comp.arch newsgroup and learning about its use in the My66000 CPU. Use of a modifier partly solves the issue of wasting instruction bits specifying predicate registers, and the issue of accessing another register for predicate operation. In Qupls2 any general-purpose register may be used as a predicate.

Comparison Results

Another issue to resolve is whether to use a flag register(s) or a result stored in a general-purpose register to determine when to branch conditionally. Avoiding the use of a flags register makes it easier to implement an overlapped pipelined or superscalar design. However, most processors in large scale use, use explicit flags registers (80x88, SPARC, ARM, PowerPC uses eight flag registers). It is somewhat simpler architecturally just to use a general-purpose register and branch based on the value in the register. The most common form of branching is branching on whether a register is zero, so a simpler architecture just uses the register directly (for example the DLX). The architecture presented here stores the flag result from a compare operation in a general-purpose register. That register can then be tested using a branch instruction. Part of the benefit of having so many general-purpose registers in the design is that they can act as a substitute for other forms of registers, in this case a flags register. Several of the general-purpose registers in Table 888 are designated as 'flags registers' by convention. For Qupls2 any register may be used to store flag results.

Dual Operation Instructions

Dual operation instructions are not commonly done, not many compilers support them. Qupls2 uses them because there are instruction bits available to represent them and they are occasionally useful to reduce register usage and instruction counts. A dual operation instruction performs two operations on data instead of one. The first operation is performed between two source registers followed by a second operation on the result of the first and an additional source register. An example of a dual-operation instruction is the [AND_OR](#) instruction.

Dual operand instructions can boost the number of operations performed in a clock cycle.

Arithmetic Operations

In the simplest RISC machines one can by with just and ADD instruction. It's possible to synthesize other operations like multiply from an ADD instruction. So, instructions beyond the ADD instruction are provided for performance enhancement and programmer convenience. In some instruction sets multiply and divide operations are not supported as they consume hardware resources. Multiply and divide require multiple clock cycles to complete and have several states of their own.

Arithmetic operations include addition, subtraction, multiplication and division. These are available in Qupls2 with the ADD, SUB, MUL, and DIV instructions.

There are both signed and unsigned versions of the arithmetic operations.

Logical Operations

In the simplest of RISC machines one can get away with just a single inverting logical operation like NAND, or NOR. Other logical operations can be synthesized from the aforementioned ones. Once again additional instructions are supported for performance and programmer convenience.

Qupls logic operations include logical 'and', logic 'or' and logical exclusive 'or' and others. The mnemonics are as follows: AND, OR, EOR, ANDN, NAND, NOR, ENOR, and ORN. Note there are no immediate forms for the following: NAND, NOR, ENOR, and ORN. The instructions formats for logical operations are the same as those for arithmetic ones.

With Qupls2 supporting sign control on registers a small number of logic instructions are capable of performing a wide variety of operations. For instance, AND and NAND are the same instruction. The difference is that the result is complemented for a NAND, achievable using sign control on the target register.

Shift Instructions

Shift instructions can take the place of some multiplication and division instructions. Some architectures provide shifts that shift only by a single bit. Others use counted shifts, the original 80x88 used multiple clock cycles to shift by an amount stored in the CX register. Table888 uses a barrel shifter to allow shifting by an arbitrary amount in a single clock cycle. Shifts are infrequently used, and a barrel (or funnel) shifter is relatively expensive in terms of hardware resources.

In Table 888 the shift immediate instructions are implemented as a subset of the RR (register to register) instruction group because the immediate value only needs to be six bits. This small value fits nicely into what is normally the register field for the instruction. It would be wasteful to implement these immediate mode instructions in the major opcode grouping.

Qupls2 shift instructions have their own instruction group, more opcode bits are used as the shift instructions may shift pairs of registers. This is done in some architectures as it allows the implementation of rotate operations. It also allows manipulating bit spanning two data words. The Qupls2 arithmetic shift right instruction, [ASR](#), features rounding options on the result.

Mystery Operations

There is a class of instructions available on some processors that the author likes to call 'Mystery Operations'. For a mystery operation the operation to be performed isn't known until runtime, and hence is a mystery. This class of instructions is present to aid in the avoidance of writing self-modifying code. In some cases, it's desirable to control the code itself without resorting to complex (and slow) branching. For instance, in a graphics plot routine, it may be desirable to control the raster operation (AND, OR, XOR, COPY, etc.). Rather than use a case statement with many branches, instead the raster operation code is loaded into a register. The program then executes the code from the register rather than branching. Code executed with mystery ops can run substantially faster than code using branches.

However, mystery operations are not typically available in modern CPUs they can wreck-havoc on a pipeline depending on how they are implemented. Instead, other means like just-in-time, JIT, compilation are used.

Other Instructions

Branching to registers. Some higher performance designs include the capacity to conditionally branch to a location contained in a register. Supporting this functionality significantly increases the number of branch instructions. The benefit to being able to branch to a register is that the register value doesn't have to be calculated like a branch displacement does. Therefore, the target address of the branch can be known sooner.

Bit-field instructions. Bit-field instructions are nice-to-have, but one can get by without them. Compilers can easily synthesize extract and insert of bit-fields using shift and 'and' or 'or' masking operations, at some performance cost. Many high-

level languages do not support bit-fields. The 'C' language does support bitfields. The arpl compiler directly supports bitfield operations on primitive data types.

Bitmap instructions. Bitmap instructions used to manipulate bitmaps are nice-to-have but once again they are instructions that can be synthesized by a compiler at some performance cost.

SIMD instructions. SIMD instructions are straightforward to implement, however they take up a lot of room because of the parallel hardware. They also may require additional registers to implement. SIMD instructions are often done with wide registers (for example 128 bits or more). SIMD instructions can considerably enhance performance for some applications because they operate on multiple data items at the same time using a single instruction. The Qupls2 ISA supports SIMD instructions. Most instructions have a precision field that indicates how to treat values in registers.

String instructions. String type operations include block moving, block set, and block compare operations. The 80x88 has some string operations. Once again these operations can be performed using existing instructions at some performance cost. String operations can considerably enhance performance for some applications.

Exception Handling

Software exceptions are just a special form of branching. When an exception occurs during an instruction, there is an automatic call to an exception handler which is located at an implied address. Almost the same thing can be done without software exceptions by using existing instructions to test for exceptional conditions, then branching if an exceptional condition is found. The reason to do things automatically is to improve performance and reduce code size. When exception handling is present, there's no need to explicitly test for exceptional conditions in program code, the processor does it internally. There are fewer instructions fetched and executed and hence code runs faster.

Hardware Interrupts

Hardware interrupts are in some ways like software exceptions and many processors use the same hardware resources to implement both. The difference between a software exception and a hardware interrupt is that a software exception occurs as the result of executing an instruction and a hardware interrupt may occur at any time being triggered by an external event. Software exceptions are usually *synchronous*, occurring when a specific instruction is executed. Hardware

interrupts are *asynchronous* events. Hardware interrupts are such a powerful mechanism and so useful that virtually all processors have support of some kind for them. A hardware interrupt allows the processor to respond to external events. The external event directly triggers a jump to hardware interrupt handling routine, rather than having the processor poll for the external event. The hardware interrupt ‘interrupts’ whatever the processor happens to be doing. Table888 supports hardware interrupts and uses the break (BRK) instruction in the implementation of hardware interrupts. Qupls2 also supports hardware interrupts and software interrupts with the CHK instruction. Having made a big boo about hardware interrupts it should be noted that it’s possible to get by without them. The original Apple machine didn’t make use of interrupts. Even something as sophisticated as the Apple Macintosh used a system of co-operative multi-tasking rather than interrupt driven tasking. It’s entirely possible to setup a decent polling system, many embedded systems work this way.

Interrupt Vectoring

A design question to answer is “how does the processor know where to go when an interrupt occurs? About the simplest mechanism to use is to have the processor vector to code at fixed addresses when an interrupt occurs. This mechanism is used by many RISC processors. This is like “when hardware interrupt #1 occurs, go to address \$100, when hardware interrupt #2 occurs go to address \$200, and so on. The original Table888 used a variation of this method, where the upper address bits were determined by another register in the processor. The z80 uses a similar mechanism.

A slightly more sophisticated method of determining the vector address is to use an interrupt vector table. The vector table contains a list of addresses of where to vector to for a given interrupt. This mechanism is used on a lot of processors including but not limited to the x86 series, the 68x00 series, SPARC and even many 8-bit machines like the 6502, 6800, and 6809.

Interrupt Vector Table

The interrupt vector table is a table full of addresses of the interrupt routines. The vector table may be located at a fixed memory address meaning, usually that’s where the system ROM would be placed. Many eight-bit machines have a fixed address for this table. In a slightly more advanced, and more expensive system, the location of the interrupt vector table is relocatable in memory via an interrupt base address register. This is one piece in providing the capability of writing hyper-visor’s for the machine. Table888 calls this register the VBR (vector base register).

In Table888 the interrupt vector number supplied by the BRK instruction indexes into the interrupt vector table to determine which vector to load. The BRK instruction acts like a memory indirect jump then. There are 512 interrupt vectors allowed for by Table888.

Qupls2 uses a separate vector table for each operating mode of the processor. The location of vector tables is stored in one of the TVEC CSRs. The exception vector table and [exceptions](#) in general for Qupls2 are outline in the Qupls2 specific section of the document.

Getting and Putting Data

To have data to work on some means must be present to transfer it to or from memory or an I/O device. Are there going to be explicit I/O instructions or is I/O memory mapped? There is some appeal to having explicit I/O instructions. I/O typically does not require the same range of addressing that general memory does. I/O devices may be limited to a 64k page of memory as on for example the 80x88. In the test system the author built, all the I/O is within a single megabyte address range even though there are gigabytes available. This would allow the use of shorter instructions to access the I/O. Another appealing aspect of explicit I/O instructions is that it makes it easy to indicate when data caching should not be used. One way to think of I/O instructions is as if they were un-cached memory load / store instructions. Some designs have explicit un-cached memory load / store operations, this is almost another way of saying I/O.

Transferring data to / from memory is what the load and store instructions are for.

Data doesn't all come in the same size. Data size for different structures varies widely. Examples of large data structures are video frame buffers or a movie clip. A smaller structure may be a name such as a person's name or place. About the best we can do here is load or store a portion of a data structure at a time. The processor handles the most primitive data types directly, these include bytes (8 bit), characters (16 bit), half-words (32 bit) and words (64 bit). Note that as a convention the author calls a 16-bit quantity a wyde. To him, a word is the word size of the machine, a half-word is half that size, and a byte is always eight bits. These quantities are called a byte (8 bits) a wyde (16 bits), a tetra (32 bits) and an octet (64 bits) by Knuth. The RISC paradigm is that the only instructions accessing memory are load or store instructions. This design doesn't quite follow the paradigm. It also supports explicit stack push and stack pop operations in addition to load and store instructions. Pushing values onto the stack is a common way argument passing is

implemented in high-level languages. RISC machines synthesize this quite nicely using load and store instructions. The author finds push / pop instructions easier to read and understand while reading code. Is that store for a subroutine push? or a general memory op? Explicit push and pop instructions may also have better code density if they can support pushing and popping multiple registers with a single instruction.

Aligned and Unaligned Memory Access

Memory access alignment is an issue that crops up on a machine supporting multiple data sizes larger than a byte. On a machine that's byte addressable with varying data sizes, one must decide how to support unaligned memory accesses. If the data-bus size of the machine is eight bytes wide, a word access could potentially start at any one of those bytes. If the access starts at any byte other than zero, then it would wrap around into the next memory word. This is called an unaligned access. Directly supporting unaligned memory accesses requires multiple bus accesses for unaligned data. This isn't too bad to do in a state machine driven design, but it's difficult to do in an overlapped pipelined design. Many machines simply stipulate that unaligned memory access is not allowed. Other machines implement unaligned accesses using traps where software can implement the unaligned access (this makes unaligned memory access quite slow). Table888 does not currently support unaligned memory accesses. Because the bus size is only 32 bits in the current implementation there is a potential to easily allow words to be half-word aligned in memory. Qupls2 ISA supports unaligned memory access.

Load / Store Multiple

With a machine with a lot of registers there is often a means to load or store more than a single register at a time. For instance, the PowerPC has a LMW instruction standing for 'load multiple words'. Table888 supports loading and storing multiple registers at the same time with the LMR (load multiple registers) and SMR (store multiple registers) instructions. The range of registers between Ra and Rb is loaded or stored to an address identified by Rc. Part of the value of the LMR and SMR instruction is that they can save considerable cache space over having many independent load / store instructions. For example, one might use 16 SMR instructions rather than 256 SW instructions to save the register state during a task switch. Qupls2 supports loading and storing multiple registers with the PUSH, POP, PUSHA, POPA, LDCTX and STCTX instructions.

The Stack

This architecture has an explicitly defined stack. Oftentimes with RISC machines there is no explicit stack pointer. Instead, one chooses a general register to use and uses regular load and store instructions. It's a little bit less intuitive a way of doing things.

In this architecture register R31 is used as the stack pointer. The stack may be used to pass arguments to functions. There are instructions supporting stack operations which include [PUSH](#) and [POP](#).

Note that while some machines allow pushing or popping the entire register set with a single instruction, that is deemed to be not a good idea for a machine with 64 registers like Qupls2. It would create too much latency when other processing like interrupts is going on. The only other option is to be able to push or pop a subset of registers, which is allowed. In Qupls2 the push / pop instructions push or pop any six of 64 registers. Note that the same register may be pushed or popped multiple times with the instruction.

A push tends to be used more often than pops. Instead of popping arguments off the stack after a subroutine call, usually the stack pointer is simply incremented because we don't care about getting the argument values back. Copies of the arguments were placed on the stack. Adding onto the stack pointer turns the pop operation into a single instruction, and often a single cycle operation, rather than a series of memory operations.

One consideration for the POP instruction is whether to support popping multiple items with one instruction. It adds a level of complexity to the processor to pop more than one item per instruction because most other instructions only update one register. Register write ports are expensive so often there's only a single write port to the register array. That means doing multiple updates to the register array requires multiple clock cycles. In an overlapped pipelined design, it's desirable to stick to a single register update per instruction. Providing for multiple register updates makes the design really complex. If the author were going to turn Table888 into an overlapped pipelined design one thing he would seriously consider is limiting the pop instruction to a single register.

Qupls2 handles popping multiple values off the stack by implementing pop as a macro instruction. The pop instruction invokes micro-code which uses a separate load instruction for each value popped from the stack.

Data Caching

Qupls2 has a 64kB data cache. While a data cache can improve performance it adds complexity and can be tricky to debug. Store operations which typically write to memory may be effectively un-cached anyway provided a write-through cache policy is used. Also, I/O operations should not be cached. For some critical applications data isn't even allowed to be cached.

There are several policies associated with caches. A given cache may implement multiple policies as options. I mention the most prominent ones here.

A write-back cache policy delays the writing of data back to main memory until the dirty cache line is dumped. This may be when the data cache controller decides it's a good time to update memory, and also when a new incoming cache data would replace the dirty line. The cache is updated immediately on a data store operation, but main memory is not.

A write-through cache policy updates the data in both the cache (if it is in the cache) and main memory immediately.

A write-allocate cache policy is a cache that loads the cache line from memory when a write cycle takes place.

Address Modes

A point of sale from a marketing perspective in the past has been the number and type of address modes available in the processor. "Use any address mode with any instruction." was a statement about the simplicity of the processor when coding in assembly language. Symmetry of address modes for instructions was a selling point. These days load / store architectures are popular and in these architectures address modes really apply to only the load and store instructions. The author follows this paradigm. While it is possible to have quite a general set of address modes including things like memory indirect addressing and automatic incrementing or decrementing of registers (see the 680x0 architecture for example), complex address mode can be synthesized from simpler ones and the synthesized address modes execute just as fast as built in ones, albeit with slightly lower code density. Complex addressing modes were just an attempt a programmer convenience while programming in assembly language. Unless the language compiler is really sophisticated it's unlikely to even be able to use some of the more complex address modes. Many RISC designs include only a single addressing mode – register indirect with displacement or sometimes only register indirect. They then

rely on a compiler to synthesize other address modes are required. Table888 implements two address modes for load and store instructions. The modes are register indirect with displacement, and indexed addressing with a scaled index register. The author happens to like the scaled indexed address mode. It's sometimes convenient to use the scaling. Qupls2, like Table888 has both register indirect with displacement and scaled indexed addressing.

Register Direct Mode

In this mode the data is available directly in a register. Unless the CPU is strictly a memory-to-memory machine, this mode will be available in some form.

Immediate Mode

In this mode, immediate constant data is placed in the instruction stream and may be referenced relative to the program counter. For example, the constant may be located at PC+4. Usually, small immediate constants are encoded directly in the instruction. This mode is available in most machines.

Register Indirect Addressing

This is one of the simpler address modes. The data is loaded from the memory address specified in a register. This mode is not used as often as register indirect with displacement addressing. Usually there are extra opcode bits available in an instruction, so they are used to add onto register indirect addressing.

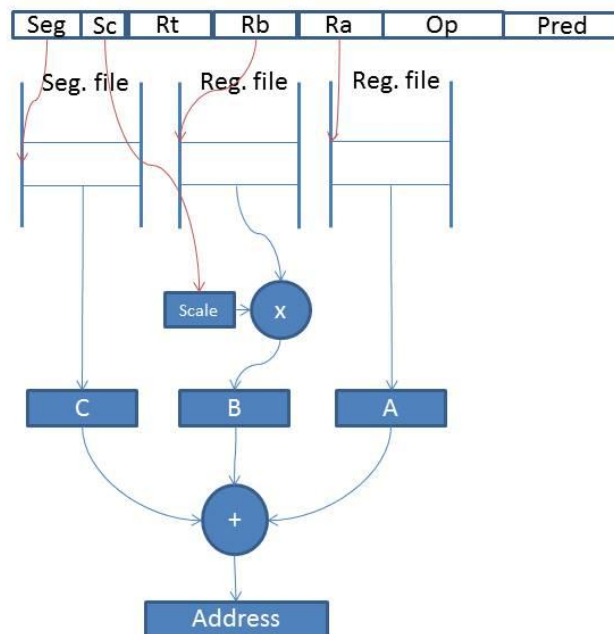
Scaled Index Addressing

Indexed addressing with a scaled index register works by adding two registers together with an offset to form the address of the data. The second index register may be optionally multiplied by 2, 4, or 8, this is called scaling. The idea behind scaling is that data may be accessed by an ordinal number, incrementing a register by one unit at a time to access the next data item. The scale factor accounts for the size of the data which may be one, two, four, or eight bytes in size. Without scaling it is necessary to use another register and perform a multiplication or shift operation prior to the load / store. A compiler will output the necessary multiply and add instructions to do indexing. It's a bit of a trick to get the compiler to use scaled indexing which only applies when the object size is 2,4, or 8 bytes in size. Note that for Table888 scaled indexed addressing mode uses an offset and not a displacement. The difference between an offset and a displacement is that an offset is always positive, and a displacement may be either positive or negative. The offset is limited to eleven bits. If a larger offset or displacement is required, it will

have to be managed using registers. Qupls2 scaled indexed addressing uses a displacement which may be one of 16, 40, or 64 bits.

The following diagram shows how scaled indexed addresses are formed. The diagram is pertinent to the Thor processing core and so shows a predicate field in the instruction but illustrates the address formation.

Scaled Indexed Addressing



Register Indirect with Displacement Addressing

The other addressing mode that is highly useful is register indirect with displacement. In this address mode a register is added to a displacement to form the data address. Several other address modes may be emulated using this one. Setting the register to zero results in a displacement only mode and setting the displacement to zero results in a register indirect mode. Qupls2 has only a single address mode: scaled indexed addressing.

Memory Indirect Addressing

Memory indirect addressing is not often used in RISC designs. The mode is easily synthesized using other instructions and is rarely used. Memory indirect addressing loads the address of the memory data to load from the address supplied in the

instruction. One place where memory indirect addressing is used, is a table based [JMP](#) or [JSR](#). These are present in the Qupls2 ISA.

Support for Semaphores

While semaphores can be implemented using software only, it is an extremely expensive operation and slow to perform only with software. Ideally there is some support for semaphore operations supported by the processor itself. Instructions that support semaphores include instructions that atomically read-modify-write memory. A compare and swap instruction has been implemented on many processors to support semaphore operations. Other instructions include test-and-set bit, or increment, decrement or rotate memory.

An alternative to atomic memory instructions are instructions that perform a load and then a conditional store. These are called a locked or linked load and store. The load operation sets a flag in the processor that a semaphore access is desired. A following store operation checks this flag and aborts the store if the flag isn't set. The flag may be reset when another processor accesses the memory region identified by the load.

Table888 did not support a compare-and-swap or other atomic memory operations. Instead, semaphores will have to be implemented with software or external hardware. The test system has a set of 1024 hardware semaphore registers available to use which can be accessed like a memory device.

Qupls2 supports compare-and-swap and other atomic memory operations.

Memory Management

Segmentation and Paging

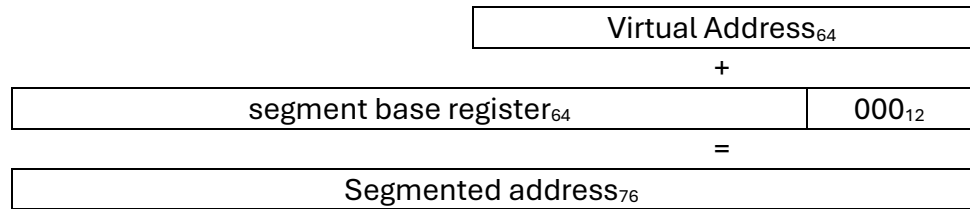
Unless the system is simple, it will have some form of memory management. Segmentation and paging are the two main choices for memory management beyond some simpler mechanisms like bank switching. The goal for Table888 was to implement both. Several commercial processors implement both segmentation and paging. Although segmentation has fallen out of favor somewhat it is still used. Typically, the segmentation part of the CPU has a handful of segment registers loaded with a flat memory model, then is for the most part ignored. One place where segmentation is still used in a modern OS is in establishing the global storage area, and the thread local storage area. Qupls2 has only paging.

Segmentation Overview

As part of the memory management portion of a CPU segment registers are often provided. There are usually multiple segment registers to support multiple segments which are typically part of a program. Common program segments are the code segment, the data segment, the uninitialized data segment and the stack segment. There are often other segments as well. 80x88 is famous for its segment registers, but other processors like IBM's PowerPC or the PA-RISC machine also use them as well. Segment registers are an easy to understand, and a low-cost memory management approach. The memory address from an instruction is combined (added) to a value from a segment register to form a final address. The segment register is often shifted left as it is added to allow a greater physical memory range than the range directly supported by the architecture. Segment registers allow programs to be written as if they had specific memory addresses available to them, such as starting at location zero, while the actual physical address of the program is much different. Once a design seems to be working well, the author tends to add segment registers to the design as a first step at providing memory management features. Table888mmu uses sixteen segment registers. Table888mmu's segmentation system is modelled after the INTEL 80286 segmentation model. The basic concepts are the same, but the layout and size of fields has been altered. Qupls2 does not use segmentation.

Address Formation

The virtual address is added to a segment base register to form a final address.



The Table888mmu sample shifts the segment base register left by 12 bits before adding it to the virtual address. The resulting segmented address could be 76 bit is size, however fewer bits are implemented in the sample.

The number of bits shifted to the left is referred to as the paragraph size.

Number of Registers

The number of segment registers that are useful seems not to be quantified as closely as the number of general-purpose registers. However, four registers were deemed not enough for the 80x86 architecture, and two more segment registers were added. Also, a couple of additional registers in the 80x86 design were added to support the segmentation architecture and they act a lot like segment registers. These include the task register and the local descriptor table register. So, we have about eight segment registers in the 80x86 architecture. PA-RISC uses eight “space” registers that act a bit like segment base registers. PowerPC uses an array of sixteen registers. Table888 uses sixteen segment registers. Segments registers are typically initialized to a flat memory model then forgotten about.

The segment registers in Table888mmu contain a selector which is 24 bits in size. This size was chosen as they are used as an index into a segment descriptor table. The segment descriptor table in this case contains a maximum of 512k entries.

Paging Overview

Paging uses a set of tables to perform mapping of virtual addresses to physical ones. Unlike segmentation, paging cannot resolve maps right down to individual bytes. Instead, memory is broken up into pages and managed on that basis.

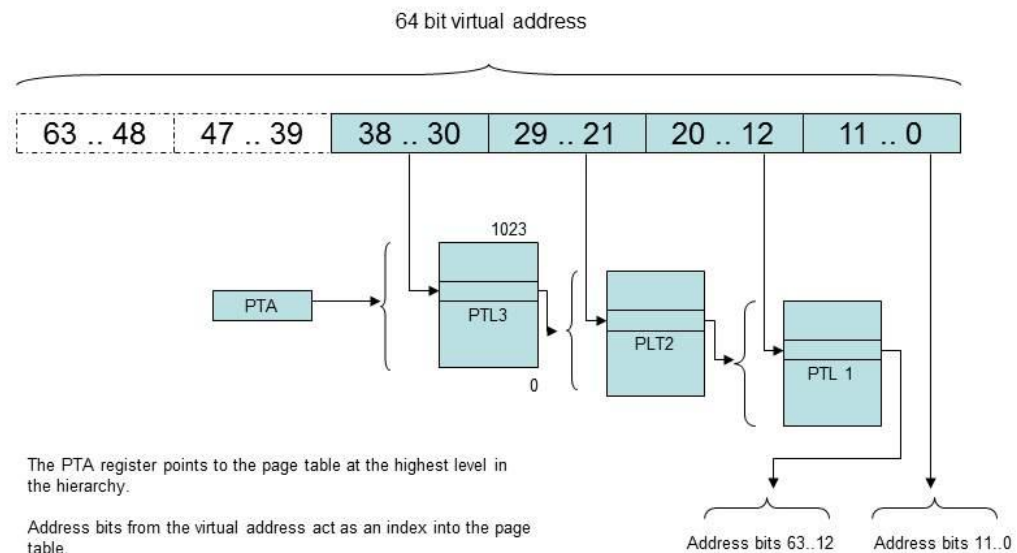
Page Size

A typical page size is 4kB. The VAX architecture had a page size of 512B which was generally regarded as too small. Newer designs have been encouraged to use larger page sizes such as 8 to 16kB. The page size is normally a power of two, otherwise multi-level page tables become difficult to manage.

Address Translation

The virtual address is divided up and each part of the virtual address is used to index into a table.

Virtual to Physical Translation



* Translations apply only in application mode.

The table at the highest level of the hierarchy is usually permanently resident in the computer's memory for performance reasons. Because there is a fair amount of work to be done in mapping addresses, address mappings are usually cached in an additional unit called a translation look-aside buffer (or TLB). This unit is also sometimes called an Address Translation Cache (ATC). A paging system tends to have more overhead associated with it compared to a segmented system.

One of the nice features of paging is that it is almost invisible from a software perspective. There aren't any registers like segment registers, to worry about when paging is active. Paging simply works behind the scenes.

The Qupls2 paging system can map the entire 64-bit address space. A multi-level system of page directories and subdirectories is used. In most cases the address space mapped will be less than a full 64-bit address space. The paging system accommodates this by using a smaller directory hierarchy. For instance, if an application is less than 512B in size, a single level page system is used. If the application can fit within 8TB only two levels are required. The depth of the directory system is controllable on an application basis. The page memory management unit takes care of walking the page tables in hardware to find a translation. Translations are stored in a translation look-aside buffer (TLB) which is a translation cache, so that the page tables don't have to be walked for every translation.

Registers

The primary register that controls paging is the page table address register (PTA), page table base register, PTBR or as it is alternately called control register number three. (CR3). This register contains the base address of the root page table in memory. Once the PTBR is set, the processor knows where to begin looking up virtual to physical address translations. The PTBR is a register that needs to be saved and restored when the context changes.

Page Tables

Page tables are the central piece of a paging system. There are two types of page tables, page directory tables and page leaf tables. For Qupls2 page directory tables are 8kB in size and contain 1024, 8-byte entries. Page Leaf tables are also 8kB in size and contain 1024, 8-byte entries. Details of the Qupls2 [paged memory management](#) system are available later in the book. The paged mmu knows where in the hierarchy the page table is, so it can determine if the table is a directory table or a leaf table. Page tables at the bottom of the hierarchy are always leaf tables.

NOP Ramps

A brief word about NOP ramps used with the Tabl888 architecture. It shows that sometimes software can aid resolving hardware issues.

In a paged memory management unit, address translations take place continuously, not just at segment load time as would be for a segmentation unit. One nice feature about segmentation is that one can be sure that if the segment is loaded it is a continuously available memory range.

With paging on the other hand, page faults may occur at page boundaries. When the page isn't present in memory, it must be loaded then the instruction can be executed. In Table888 most instructions are a single instruction word in length, so they won't cross a page boundary. However, there are several prefix instructions, when combined with a prefix an instruction might cross a page boundary. This is bad news. The problem is that the prefixing would get lost in the shuffle to move the missing page into memory. There are two solutions, one is to go back a page in memory and re-execute the prefix after the missing page is loaded. This is complicated by the fact that both pages are required to be present in memory, otherwise the processor would thrash back and forth trying to execute the instruction. In Table888 it is safe to re-execute the prefix instructions as they don't modify the processor's state until the following instruction is executed. That means going back a page and re-executing the prefixed instruction is simple to do. The second solution is to force the instruction stream to output the prefixes so that they don't cross page boundaries. This can be handled by the assembler. The assembler handles the occasional case where a prefix instruction would cause an instruction to span a page boundary by outputting a series of NOPs to force the instruction onto the next memory page. The following example shows that the prefix instruction to a store byte operation is forced onto the next page of memory.

00008FF0	41 F8 2A 90 00	bne	f10,kbdi2
00008FF5	16 01 24 00 00	ldi	r1,#36
00008FFA	EA EA EA EA EA	; imm	
00009000	EA EA EA EA EA		
00009005	FD 70 FF 03 10		
0000900A	A0 00 01 00 18	sb	r1,LEDS

Note that the NOP ramp's won't work if address space defined by a segment is paged out of memory and the segment isn't aligned on a 4kB boundary. This shouldn't be the case in Table888 as the segment paragraph size is the same as the paged mmu page size.

Protection Mechanisms

Table888's protection mechanism is like that of the 80x86 series. If you are comfortable with the 80x86 protection mechanism, then Table888's mechanism will seem familiar. The format of descriptors is different, but the fields are similar. Table888 has sixteen protection ring levels.

Qupls2 reduces the number of rings to four, called operating modes.

Often there are hardware supported protection mechanisms for a given architecture. Many architectures are bi-modal, with kernel / system / supervisor modes and user/application modes. Even processors supporting more modes are often used in a bi-modal fashion by the OS. The x86 series processor has four levels of privilege. Usually, all the features of the processor are available in kernel mode, while a subset of features are available in application mode. Limiting application code to a subset of the processor features is one way of protecting the system. Qupls2 supports 256 privilege levels in addition to having four operating modes.

The segment limit in a segmented system protects against memory access outside of the segment. If an access is attempted beyond the limit a bounds violation exception occurs. If the segment descriptors are only accessible from kernel mode, then application code can't modify them to gain access to data outside of the segment.

Protection Rules

Code cannot access data at more protected level. This is checked by comparing the processor's current privilege level to the privilege level of the segment that is pending access. The check is performed when a segment register is loaded using the mtspr instruction. In paged MMU system the check is performed when the page is accessed.

Code at a high protection level cannot call code at a lower level. In Table888's case this is checked when a jump to subroutine or jump instruction is executed with a jump selector prefix. For Qupls2, a CHK instruction is used to switch protection levels.

The code segment may only be loaded with code type descriptors. If an attempt is made to load a data descriptor into a code segment a segment type violation exception occurs.

The data segments may only be loaded with data type descriptors. If an attempt is made to load a code segment into a data segment a segment type violation exception occurs.

The protection rules refer to a privilege level. The current privilege level of the processor is maintained in the status register, this is called the CPL.

Triple Mode Redundancy (TMR)

Triple mode redundancy is a feature to improve the reliability of the system. Operations are performed in triplicate and majority logic used to determine the correct results.

The Table888 MMU features a triple redundancy mode that was spawned when it was believed that problems due to bad memory were cropping up. In triple redundant mode memory loads and stores are performed in triples. Ideally each load/store operation of the triple goes to a different memory bank. For example, a store operation stores the data to an address in memory bank#1, then repeats the store to memory bank#2 and #3. Part of the output address is supplied by a two-bit counter which selects the DRAM bank. This reduces the effective amount of memory that the processor sees by a factor of four. The triple redundant memory loads and stores also use three times as many memory cycles and so slows the program down considerably.

During a load operation, the operation is repeated three times, each time loading into a separate load buffer. When all three loads are complete the values are compared using majority logic. Whichever values are the most common (2 or all 3 bits the same) are deemed the correct values.

There is currently no provision to correct values in memory if a bit error occurs.

Table888's CR0 bits 6, 7 and 8 enable triple mode redundancy for reads, writes, and instruction fetches (execute) respectively.

Note that triple mode redundancy should be turned off while performing I/O operations. Some I/O devices reset internal values automatically on the first read of a register. These devices would not return valid data if triple mode redundancy were on. Additionally, performing three writes to an I/O device likely wouldn't have the desired effect. For instance, one wants to transmit a single character using a UART device, not a character repeated three times which is what happens with triple redundant stores.

Triple mode redundancy on the register file is also available as a build option.

Performance Measurement / Counters

In some processors there are performance measurement registers present. These are particularly present in machines designed for research purposes. A common

register is the tick count register which simply increments every clock cycle. The tick count register may be settable, or it may simply count beginning at zero after a reset.

There may be other performance registers available such as a breakdown of counts for various types of instructions. For example, the number of instruction fetches, the number of load or store operations.

It's also common in embedded systems to have built in counters. The counters are used with comparators to provide periodic interrupt capabilities. A periodic interrupt source is a commonly present hardware component, often integrated with the processor. Many simple software task switchers use a periodic interrupt in their operation.

Table888 uses an external interrupt to provide periodic interrupts. The Qupls2 MPU has an interval timer component to it, which connects to the interrupt controller.

TICK count

The Qupls2 tick count register begins counting from zero after a reset and is not alterable. This register may be used to measure things like the number of clock cycles per instruction. It may also be used as a micro-delay timer. It is not recommended to use the tick count for precise timing measurement, however. The frequency of the tick count varies with processor frequency. A wall-clock time register is better suited to many forms of measurement.

Power Management

Related to performance is power management. Decreasing the amount of power consumed often mean decreasing the performance. One means to decrease power consumption is to limit the clock frequency. Power consumed is proportional to frequency, so lowering the operating frequency lowers the power consumption. Another means to reduce power consumption is to gate off functional units that are not in use. Table888 or Qupls2 doesn't provide this capability.

Some CPUs provide instructions that allow the clock to be stopped until an external event occurs. This often called a stop (STP) or halt (HLT) instruction.

Floating Point

The author must confess his knowledge of floating point is somewhat limited, but constantly growing. The author's experience is limited mainly to using double precision numbers with banking applications. One can get by without hardware floating point. Most early micro-processors did not include floating point support.

Floating point support is often implemented in software. External floating-point units were later offered as an optional co-processor. Finally floating-point operations were incorporated directly into the CPU chip. Floating-point support has become more common as transistor budgets have increased. Floating point almost exclusively follows the IEEE standard. Very few floating-point units are non-standard these days.

Precision

One of the issues with floating point is the available precision. There are a number of standard precisions possible. Sometimes software is used in lieu of greater precision than that available with hardware. Higher precision numbers may be built up out of lower precision representations by using multiple values, but it gets to be complex. Try having a look at the double-double precision library. There is movement lately towards support for quadruple precision numbers in hardware. It seems that people like their precision, especially in financial, scientific and engineering applications. Achieving higher precision is often slower and lower performance than lower precision. For some applications where performance is critical, and precision is not required low precision floating point may be in use. The precision required is application dependent. Table888 only supports double precision operations. The Qupls2 ISA has support for four precisions, half, single, double, and quad precision. Precision can also be applied to integer operations.

Operations

Not too long ago, floating-point coprocessors typically supported a wide range of operations including trigonometric and exponential / logarithmic functions all in hardware. A more recent trend is to provide only basic operations in hardware, this trend has alleviated somewhat.

Qupls2 includes floating point operations as part of the instruction set. Basic operations such as FADD, FSUB, FMUL, FDIV and multiply-add are supported. Qupls2 also supports some more complex operations like SIN and COS or reciprocal SQRT. Fortunately, most floating-point operations don't take many cycles to complete (they are faster than an integer divide for instance). For instance, Qupls2 basic floating-point operations take eight clock cycles or less.

The floating-point operations unit itself is a module separate from the processor but incorporated within it. The unit is capable of much higher performance than achieved in the processor implementation. Most operations can be pipelined, and a

new operation can start every clock cycle (excepting divide). However, this feature is not used when implemented in Qupls2.

Floating Point Number Format

The floating-point number format used by Qupls2 is the IEEE standard double precision format:

1	1	10	52 + 1 hidden bit
S _m	S _e	EEEEEEEEEE	.MMMMMMM.....MMMMMMMM

S_m = sign of mantissa

S_e = sign of exponent

The exponent and mantissa are both represented as two's complement numbers, however the sign bit of the exponent is inverted.

S _e EEEEEEEEEE	
1111111111	Maximum exponent
....	
0111111111	exponent of zero
....	
0000000000	Minimum exponent

The exponent ranges from -1024 to +1023

Half, single, and quad precision are also supported.

Qupls2 also supports quad precision *decimal* floating-point. In the author's opinion there is no real justification to using decimal floating-point except perhaps when a lot of decimal precision is required. It is better to use binary floating-point as it is faster and consumes less power. It's only drawback for some applications is inexact decimal results.

Floating Point Registers

Many architectures keep separate register files for floating-point and general-purpose registers. This helps improve floating-point performance which often relies on a lot of registers. It also compartmentalizes the floating-point making it possible to configure without floating-point support.

For Qupls2 floating-point values may be stored in the general-purpose register array. This is part of the reason Qupls2 has 64 GPRs.

Pipeline Design

Qupls2 is a four-way superscalar out-of-order design. The pipeline is very complex and deep with about nine stages to it.

Table888 is a non-overlapped pipelined design. A pipelined design implements the processor with a number of pipeline stages that data and instructions pass through. Most processors are pipelined in one fashion or another. In an overlapped pipeline design, there can be multiple instructions and multiple data items in the pipeline at the same time. Each instruction and data item can be present in each stage of the pipeline. Data and instruction dependencies between pipeline stages are resolved by hardware. An overlapped pipeline design is like a bucket-brigade where every person in the line has a bucket of water. A non-overlapped design is like a bucket brigade where there is only a single bucket of water available to be handled. Obviously, an overlapped-pipeline design has better performance. The Tabl888 design does not use an overlapped pipeline, an overlapped pipeline is (a) more complex to implement, trickier to debug, harder to understand and (b) results in a slightly lower clock frequency for the design. However, the overall performance of an overlapped pipelined design is much greater than that of a non-overlapped design (for example by about a factor of two or more). The Raptor64 is an example of an overlapped-pipelined design. It has a CPI of around 1.5. The RTF65003 is a non-overlapped design, it has a CPI of about 3.0. The clock frequencies of the designs are comparable, although the RTF65003 has a slightly higher clock frequency achievable.

A superscalar pipeline design has parallel pipeline lanes associated with it. It is like multiple lines of bucket-brigade where everyone has a bucket.

Processor Stages / States

This section gives a general overview of what is done during each pipeline stage. The description of these stages is not particular to this design. These stages are commonly found in many designs. The author seems to intermix the term 'stage' with 'state'. The two are similar. However, a stage may contain multiple states. For instance, an often-identified stage is the memory stage. This stage often contains multiple states for interfacing to memory. A stage is a higher level of looking at the design.

RESET

Long running reset operations, like invalidating the cache, are done by this state. There are usually registers that need to be reset before the processor can begin operations. For instance, in Qupls2 the TLB registers must be preset to allow access to the ROM boot memory.

IFETCH

Instruction fetch – This is often called a stage because sometimes multiple states are present. At this stage instructions are fetched from memory or a cache and made ready to be decoded. Register file access may also begin at this stage depending on the instruction. This stage transitions to the DECODE stage (or the ICACHE stage if there is a cache miss). This stage may have a branch-target-buffer predictor associated with it.

IALIGN

Instruction align – in a CPU instructions are often not where they need to be for subsequent processing. This stage typically shifts the instruction into a better position. Hardware decoders may be present only at specific positions relative to the beginning of an instruction.

Extract / PARSE

This stage extracts the instruction(s) from the output of the align stage.

DECODE

Decode / Register access – at this stage the instruction is decoded, in parallel registers may be accessed from the register file. Constant values are also setup at this stage.

Decoding instructions is done with a big case statement. All instructions are processed by the instruction decoder. Some of the simpler instructions may also be executed at this stage depending on the pipeline. Instructions that don't require register values right away may begin execution. This stage transitions into the EXECUTE stage or back to the IFETCH stage for some instructions. This stage also transitions in the memory load and store stages.

Register File Access

During the decode stage, register file access may begin as well.

In the Table 888 ISA the target register field “floats around” while the Ra, Rb, and Rc register read ports are always located at the same positions in the instruction set. For Qupls2 the register fields float around but remain the same in particular classes of instructions. For many designs, the register fields are in a fixed position. This allows the incoming instruction to feed the register port number directly to the register file to begin reading registers right away. The target register field can “float” because it isn't needed until the register file is updated during the next IFETCH

cycle. This means that the target register can be set in the decode stage. Shown in the code below, the register specs are taken directly from the IR (instruction register) while the Rt field is another register waiting to be loaded in the DECODE stage.

```
wire [7:0] Ra = ir[15:8];  
wire [7:0] Rb = ir[23:16];  
wire [7:0] Rc = ir[31:24];  
reg [7:0] Rt;
```

Rename

Registers are renamed at this stage to remove false dependencies. The rename stage is present only in higher performance designs.

Enqueue

This stage places a decoded and renamed instruction into a queue for further processing.

Schedule

Instructions are scheduled for execution. This stage may not be present depending on the pipelining. For a simpler pipeline the instructions simply execute in sequence, there is no reason to schedule them. For a more complex machine where instructions are in a queue the scheduler will attempt to pick the best instruction to execute that has ready arguments. The scheduler in a superscalar design can pick multiple instructions to execute at the same time.

EXECUTE

At this stage instructions are “executed”. Results are calculated based on the decoding of the previous stage.

This is the last stage for many instructions. Branches and other control flow instructions are executed during this stage. Memory loads and stores are also begun. It is possible to execute any instructions now because the register values from the register fetch or decode stage are stable.

By the time the EXECUTE stage is reached, all instructions will have been setup for execution, or already executed in the DECODE stage. Once again, like the DECODE stage, the EXECUTE stage uses a big case statement. At the end of the case list there is a default case. This is the place that unimplemented instructions would be

handled. The normal procedure would be to invoke an unimplemented instruction exception. However, for simplicity this processor just treats the unimplemented instruction like a NOP operation.

Table 8.88 approaches ALU operations by using an inline ALU to keep things simple. The ALU is incorporated directly into the EXECUTE state. Usually, the ALU is a separate distinct unit. Having a distinct ALU unit would probably allow for better optimization.

Qupls2 has two ALUs; however, ALU simple instructions may also be executed on the FPUs. This allows four ALU instructions to be processed in a single clock. Since instructions may be dual-operand, up to eight operations may be done.

MEMORY STAGE

During this stage data is loaded from or stored to memory. This stage often contains multiple load and store states.

Writeback

At this stage results are written to the register file.

Commit

At this stage the result of instruction execution is committed to the machine's architectural state.

Retire

This is another name for the commit stage, at least in the author's parlance.

Instruction Cache

It's almost pointless to try to execute instructions at a high clock frequency without an instruction cache present. An instruction cache adds much to the performance of a machine. As much as 75% of memory accesses can be for instruction fetches. Loading of the instruction cache can make use of burst memory transactions, which further increases performance. Without an instruction cache, performance is limited by the speed of external memory. External memory tends to be quite slow compared to processor speeds. Without a cache there can be no overlapping of instruction fetches when another device is accessing memory, and the CPU must wait while the device does its memory access. If one anticipates operating without an instruction cache, and with long memory cycle times, one can develop a

processor that uses lots of clock cycles to execute instructions. Perhaps a bit-serial resource scrounging processor could be developed.

If one wants instructions to fetch from an instruction cache that must be accounted for during the instruction fetch stage. It is sometimes desirable to bypass an instruction cache during instruction fetches. That means there must be a multiplexer somewhere to switch between cached and un-cached instructions.

Nice-to-Have Hardware Features

Clock stopping. Ideally the processor should be able to stop the clock under certain conditions. this is often done with a stop (STP) instruction. The Stop instruction often puts the processor in a lower power mode to conserve energy. Some processor cannot operate with a stopped clock due to the implementation technology. They may have dynamically refreshed registers.

As it is now, the processor only implements 32 address bits for external addressing. 32 bits is enough to support 4GB of memory. The board has only a 1GB of memory, so it would be wasteful to implement a 64-bit addressing scheme.

Checking for unaligned memory access. Currently the processor does not validate that the address for data is properly aligned. It'll go ahead and try to load data from unaligned addresses if they are specified that way; but it won't work properly.

Check for unimplemented instructions. Unimplemented instructions should exception to a handler routine. This isn't present in the processor, and it just treats an unimplemented instruction like a NOP.

Additional arithmetic operations such as square root, minimum and maximum functions.

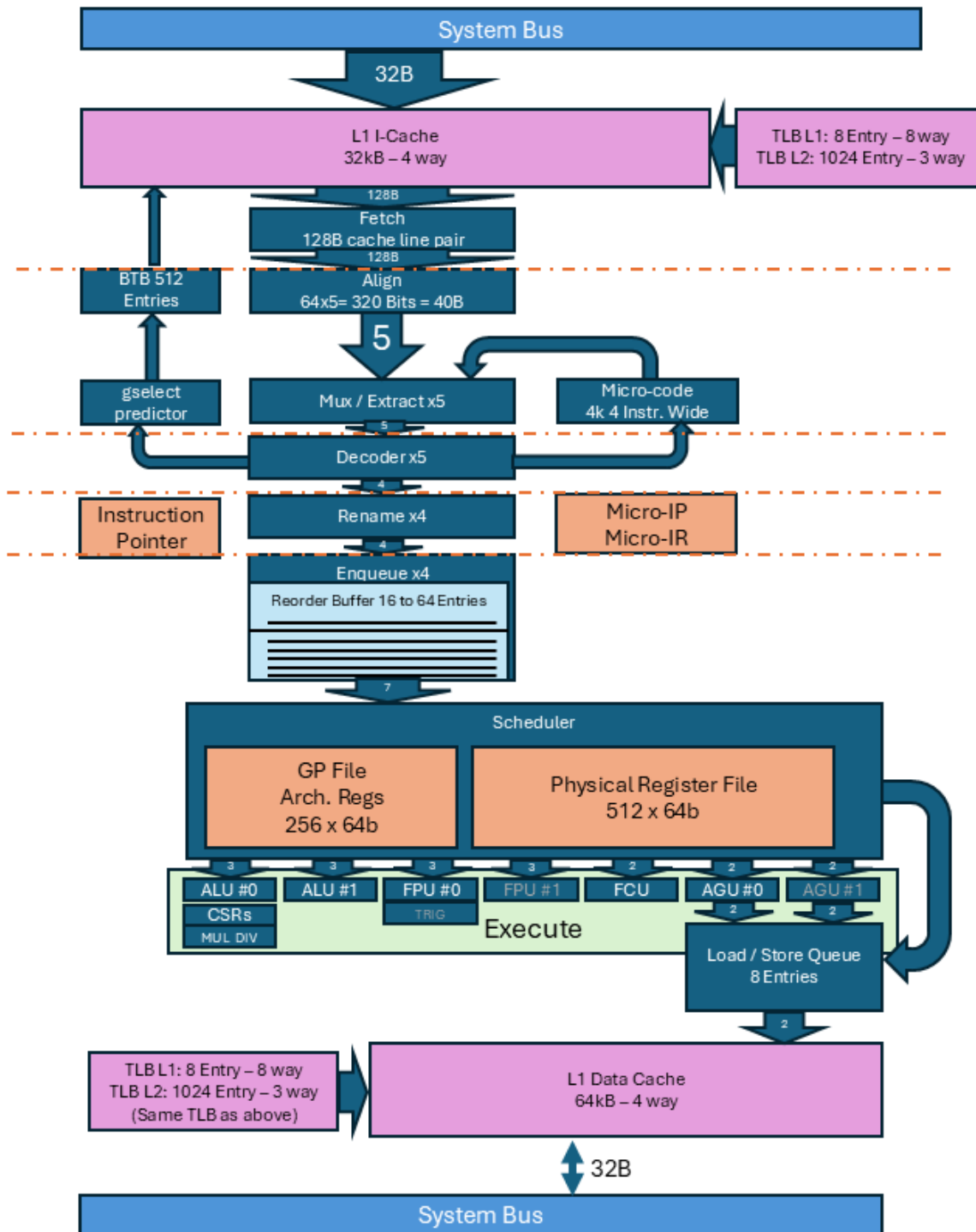
Compare-and-swap and other instructions supporting semaphore operations.

Protection mechanism.

Q+2

MPU Block Diagram

Q+ Block Diagram



Programming Model

Register File

General Purpose Registers

The register file contains 64 64-bit general purpose registers.

Some instructions may access only registers 0 to 31.

The register file is *unified* and may hold either integer or floating-point values. The stack pointer is register 31.

Register r0 is special in that it always reads as a zero.

Register ABI

Regno	ABI	ABI Usage
0	0	Always zero – read only
1	A0	First argument / return value register
2	A1	Second argument / return value register
3	A2	Third argument register
4 to 8	A3 to A7	Argument registers
9 to 18	T0 to T9	Temporary register, caller save
19 to 27	S0 to S8	Saved register, register variables
28	LC	Loop counter
29	GP	Global Pointer – data
30	FP	Frame Pointer
31	SP	Stack pointer alias / Safe stack pointer (hidden from app)
32 to 35	xSP	Stack pointers for operating mode
36 to 39	MC0 to MC3	Micro-code temporaries
40	MCLR	Micro-code link register
41 to 43	LR1 to LR3	Subroutine link registers
44 to 63		high-order registers

Predicate Registers

Predicate registers are part of the general-purpose register file and may be manipulated using the same instructions as for other registers. Each bit of a predicate value corresponds to a byte in the target register. If the bit in the predicate register is set, then the corresponding byte of the target register is updated. Otherwise, the byte retains its value.

Predicate register #0 is preset to all ones, and read-only, which will allow all bytes of the target register to be updated. It is the default predicate if no predicate is supplied in the assembler code.

Code Address Registers

Many architectures have registers dedicated to addressing code. Almost every modern architecture has a program counter or instruction pointer register to identify the location of instructions. Many architectures also have at least one link register or return address register holding the address of the next instruction after a subroutine call. There are also dedicated branch address registers in some architectures. These are all code addressing registers.

It is possible to do an indirect method call using any register.

Link Registers

There are three registers in the Qupls2 ABI reserved for subroutine linkage. These registers are used to store the address after the calling instruction. They may be used to implement fast returns for three levels of subroutines or to used to call milli-code routines. The jump to subroutine, [JSR](#), and branch to subroutine, [BSR](#), instructions update a link register. The return from subroutine, [RTS](#), instruction is used to return to the next instruction. Note that the link register number is encoded into only two bits of the instruction.

Regno	ABI	Encode	ABI Usage
0	Zero	0	No linkage
36	LR1	1	Link register #1
37	LR2	2	Link register #2
38	LR3	3	Link register #3

Instruction Pointer

This register points to the currently executing instruction. The instruction pointer increments as instructions are fetched, unless overridden by another flow control

instruction. The instruction pointer may be set to any byte address. There is no alignment restriction. It is possible to write position independent code, PIC, using IP relative addressing.

SR - Status Register (CSR 0x?004)

The processor status register holds bits controlling the overall operation of the processor, state that needs to be saved and restored across interrupts. The bits have individual bit set / clear capability using the CSRRS, CSRRC instructions. Only the user interrupt enable bit is available in user mode, other bits will read as zero.

Bit		Usage
0	uie	User interrupt enable
1	sie	Supervisor interrupt enable
2	hie	Hypervisor interrupt enable
3	mie	Machine interrupt enable
4	die	Debug interrupt enable
5 to 10	ipl	Interrupt level
11	ssm	Single step mode
12	te	Trace enable
13 to 14	om	Operating mode
15 to 16	ps	Pointer size
17	ab	Absolute conditional branches
18	dbg	Debug mode
19	mprv	memory privilege
20 to 22	Swstk	Software stack
23		reserved
24 to 31	cpl	Current privilege level

CPL is the current privilege level the processor is operating at.

T indicates that trace mode is active.

OM processor operating mode.

PS: indicates the size of pointers in use. This may be one of 32, 64 or 128 bits.

AB: indicates that conditional branches should use absolute(1) or relative (0) addressing.

AR: Address Range indicates the number of address bits in use. 0 = near or short (32-bit) addressing is in use. When short addressing is in use only the low order 32-bit are significant and stored or loaded to or from the stack.

IPL is the interrupt mask level

MPRV Memory Privilege, indicates to use previous operating mode for memory privileges

Special Purpose Registers

SC - Stack Canary (GPR 53)

This special purpose register is available in the general register file as register 53. The stack canary register is used to alleviate issues resulting from buffer overflows on the stack. The canary register contains a random value which remains consistent throughout the run-time of a program. In the right conditions, the canary register is written to the stack during the function's prolog code. In the function's epilog code, the value of the canary on stack is checked to ensure it is correct, if not a check exception occurs.

[U/S/H/M]_IE (0x?004)

See status register.

This register contains interrupt enable bits. The register is present at all operating levels. Only enable bits at the current operating level or lower are visible and may be set or cleared. Other bits will read as zero and ignore writes. Only the lower four bits of this register are implemented. The bits have individual bit set / clear capability using the CSRRS, CSRRC instructions.

63		4	3	2	1	0
~			mie	hie	sie	uie

[U/S/H/M]_CAUSE (CSR- 0x?006)

This register contains a code indicating the cause of an exception or interrupt. The break handler will examine this code to determine what to do. Only the low order 16 bits are implemented. The high order bits read as zero and are not updateable. The info field, filled in by hardware, may supply additional information related to the exception.

63		16	15	8	7	0
~				Info		Cause

U_REPBUF - (CSR – 0x008)

This register contains information needed for the REP instruction that must be saved and restored during context switches and interrupts. Note that the loop counter should also be saved.

127-112	121	48	47-44	43	42-40	39	8	7	6	0
Resv	pc		Resv2	V	Icnt	Limit		resv	Ins[15:9]	

Pc: (64 bits) the address of the instruction following the REP

V: REP valid bit, 1 only if a REP instruction is active

Icnt: the current instruction count, distance from REP instruction.

Limit: a 32-bit amount to compare the loop counter against.

Ins: bits 9 to 15 of the REP instruction which contains the instruction count of instruction included in the repeat and condition under which the repeat occurs.

[U/S/H/M]_SCRATCH – CSR 0x?041

This is a scratchpad register. Useful when processing exceptions. There is a separate scratch register for each operating mode.

S_PTBR (CSR 0x1003)

This register is now located in the page table walker device.

S_ASID (CSR 0x101F)

This register contains the address space identifier (ASID) or memory map index (MMI). The ASID is used in this design to select (index into) a memory map in the paging tables. Only the low order sixteen bits of the register are implemented.

S_KEYS (CSR 0x1020 to 0x1027)

These eight registers contain the collection of keys associated with the process for the memory lot system. Each key is twenty-four bits in size. All eight registers are searched in parallel for keys matching the one associated with the memory page. Keyed memory enhances the security and reliability of the system.

			23	0
1020			key0	
1021			key1	
...			...	
1027			key7	

M_CORENO (CSR 0x3001)

This register contains a number that is externally supplied on the coreno_i input bus to represent the hardware thread id or the core number. It should be non-zero.

M_TICK (CSR 0x3002)

This register contains a tick count of the number of clock cycles that have passed since the last reset. Note that this register should not be used for precise timing as the processor's clock frequency may vary for performance and power reasons. The TIME CSR may be used for wall-clock timing as it has its own timing source.

M_SEED (CSR 0x3003)

This register contains a random seed value based on an external entropy collector. The most significant bit of the state is a busy bit.

63	60	59	16	15	0
State ₄	~ ₄₄			seed ₁₆	

State ₄ Bit	
0	dead
1	test
2	valid, the seed value is valid
3	Busy, the collector is busy collecting a new seed value

M_BADADDR (CSR 0x3007)

This register contains the address for a load / store operation that caused a memory management exception or a bus error. Note that the address of the instruction causing the exception is available in the EIP register.

M_BAD_INSTR (CSR 0x300B)

This register contains a copy of the exceptioned instruction.

M_SEMA (CSR 0x300C)

This register contains semaphores. The semaphores are shared between all cores in the MPU.

M_TVEC – CSR 0x3030 to 0x3034

These registers contain the address of the exception handler table for a given operating mode. TVEC[0] to TVEC[2] are used by the REX instruction.

A sync instruction should be used after modifying one of these registers to ensure the update is valid before continuing program execution.

Reg #	
0x3030	TVEC[0] – user mode
0x3031	TVEC[1] - supervisor mode
0x3032	TVEC[2] – hypervisor mode
0x3033	TVEC[3] – machine mode
0x3034	TVEC[4] - debug

M_SR_STACK (CSR 0x3080 to CSR 0x3087)

This set of registers contains a stack of the status register which is pushed during exception processing and popped on return from interrupt. There are only eight slots as that is the maximum nesting depth for interrupts.

M_MC_STACK (CSR 0x3090 to CSR 0x3097)

This set of registers is a stack for the micro-code instruction register (MCIR) and the micro-code instruction pointer (MCIP). MCIR and MCIP need to be retained through exception processing.

Bits 52 to 63 of the register contain the MCIP. Bits 0 to 51 contain the MCIR.

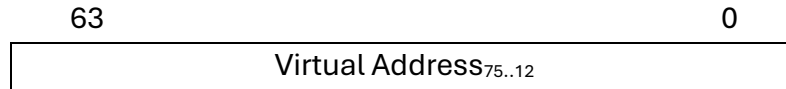
M_IOS – IO Select Register (CSR 0x3100)

The location of IO is determined by the contents of the IOS control register. The select is for a 1MB region. This address is a virtual address. The low order 16 bits of this register should be zero and are ignored.

63	16	15	0
Virtual Address _{67..20}			0 ₁₆

M_CFGS – Configuration Space Register (CSR 0x3101)

The location of configuration space is determined by the contents of the CFGS control register. The select is for a 256MB region. This address is a virtual address. The low order 12 bits of this address are assumed to be zero. The default value of this registers is \$FF...FD000



M_EIP (CSR 0x3108 to 0x310F)

This set of registers contains the address stack for the program counter used in exception handling.

Reg #	Name
0x3108	EIP0
...	
0x310F	EIP7

Operating Modes

The core operates in one of four basic modes: application/user mode, supervisor mode, hypervisor mode or machine mode. Each core may operate in only a single mode.

Most modern OSs require at least two modes of operation, a user mode, and a more secure system mode. It can be advantageous to have more operating modes as it eases the software implementation when dealing with multiple operating systems running on the same machine at the same time.

A subset of instructions is limited to machine mode.

Mode Bits	Mode
0	User / App
1	Supervisor
2	Hypervisor
3	Machine

Each operating mode has its own vector table. Different sets of CSR registers are visible to each operating mode.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0								
1								
2	Load	Store						
3	Fp20	Fp40	Fp80					

Exceptions

External Interrupts

There is little difference between an externally generated exception and an internally generated one. An externally caused exception will set the exception cause code for the currently fetched instruction. A hardware interrupt displaces the instruction at the point the interrupt occurred with a TRAP.

There are eight priority interrupt levels for external interrupts. When an external interrupt occurs the mask level is set to the level of the current interrupt. A subsequent interrupt must exceed the mask level to be recognized.

Effect on Machine Status

The operating mode is always switched to machine mode on exception. It is up to the machine mode code to redirect the exception to a lower operating mode when desired. Further exceptions at the same or lower interrupt level are disabled automatically. Machine mode code must enable interrupts at some point.

Exception Stack

The status register and instruction pointer are pushed onto an internal stack when an exception occurs. This stack is at least 8 entries deep to allow for nested interrupts and multiply nested traps and exceptions. The stack pointer is also switched to one corresponding to the machine's operating mode.

Vector Table

The machine mode kernel vector is always used to locate the exception routine. The exception routine may then redirect the exception to a lower operating mode using the REX instruction. When an exception occurs the CPU just jumps to the entry in the vector table. The entry should contain a branch instruction to the exception handler.

Vector	Usage
0	Debug Breakpoint (BRK)
1	Debug breakpoint – single step
2	Bus Error
3	Address Error
4	Unimplemented Instruction
5	Privilege Violation

6	Page fault
7	Instruction trace
8	Stack Canary
9	Abort
10	Interrupt
11	Non-maskable interrupt
12	Reset
13	Alternate Cause
14, 15	Reserved

32

33	
34	Instruction Address
33 to 63	Trap #1 to 31
	Applications Usage
64	Divide by zero
65	Overflow
66	Table Limit
67 to 251	Unassigned usage
252	Reset value of stack pointer
253	Reset value of instruction pointer
254, 255	Reserved

Breakpoint Fault (0)

The breakpoint instruction, 0, was encountered.

Bus Error Fault (2)

The bus error fault is performed if the bus error signal was active during the bus transaction. This could be due to a bad or missing device.

Unimplemented Instruction Fault (4)

An unimplemented instruction causes this fault.

Page Fault (6)

The page table walker was unable to find a valid translation for the virtual address.

Stack Canary Fault (8)

This fault is caused if the stack canary was overwritten. A load instruction using the canary register did not match the value in the canary register.

Abort (9)

The external abort input signal was asserted.

Interrupt (10)

The external interrupt signal was asserted, and the interrupt level was greater than the current mask level.

Reset Vector (12)

This vector is the address that the processor begins running at.

Alternate Cause (13)

The alternate cause vector is jumped to if the cause code is greater than 15.

Reset

Reset is treated as an exception. The reset routine should exit using an RTE instruction. The status register should be setup appropriately for the return.

The core begins executing instructions at the address defined by the reset vector in the exception table. At reset the exception table is set to the last 512 bytes of memory \$FF...FFC00. All registers are in an undefined state.

Precision

Exceptions in Qupls are precise. They are processed according to program order of the instructions. If an exception occurs during the execution of an instruction, then an exception field is set in the pipeline buffer. The exception is processed when the instruction commits which happens in program order. If the instruction was executed in a speculative fashion, then no exception processing will be invoked unless the instruction makes it to the commit stage.

Hardware Description

Caches

Overview

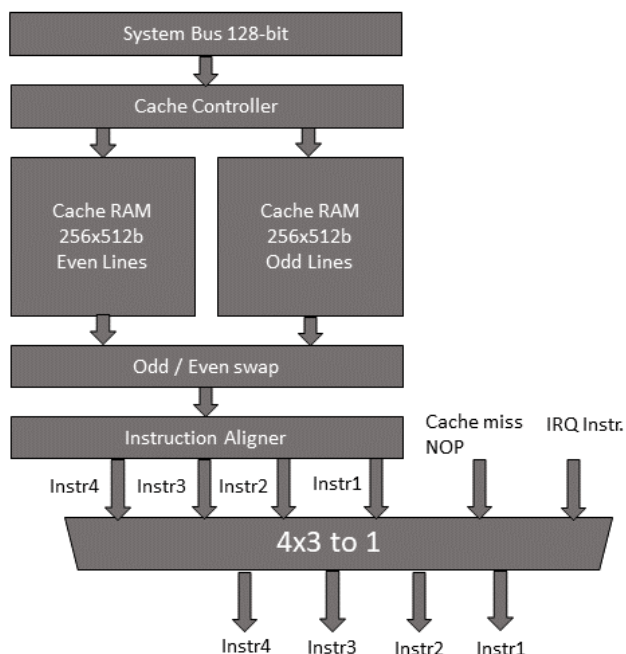
The core has both instruction and data caches to improve performance. Both caches are single level. The cache is four-way associative. The cache sizes of the instruction and data cache are available for reference from one of the info lines return by the CPUID instruction.

Instructions

Since the instruction format affects the cache design it is mentioned here. For this design instructions are of a variable length being 24, 48, 72 or 96 bits in size. Specific formats are listed under the instruction set description section of this book.

L1 Instruction Cache

L1 is 32kB in size and made from block RAM with a single cycle of latency. L1 is organized as an odd, even pair of 256 lines of 64 bytes. The following illustration shows the L1 cache organization for Qupls.



The cache is organized into odd and even lines to allow instructions to span a cache line. Two cache lines are fetched for every access; the one the instruction is located on, and the next one in case the instruction spans a line.

A 256-line cache was chosen as that matches the inherent size of block RAM component in the FPGA. It is the author's opinion that it would be better if the L1 cache were larger because it often misses due to its small size. In short the current design is an attempt to make it easy for the tools to create a fast implementation.

Note that supporting interrupts and cache misses, a requirement for a realistic processor design, adds complexity to the instruction stream. Reading the cache ram, selecting the correct instruction word and accounting for interrupts and cache misses must all be done in a single clock cycle.

While the L1 cache has single cycle reads it requires two clock cycles to update (write) the cache. The cache line to update needs to be provided by the tag memory which is unknown until after the tag updates.

Data Cache

The data cache organization is somewhat simpler than that of the instruction cache. Data is cached with a single level cache because it's not critical that the data be available within a single clock cycle at least not for the hobby design. Some of the latency of the data cache can be hidden by the presence of non-memory operating instructions in the instruction queue.

The data cache is organized as 512 lines of 64 bytes (32kB) and implemented with block ram. Access to the data cache is multicycle. The data cache may be replicated to allow more memory instructions to be processed at the same time; however, just a single cache is in use for the demo system. The policy for stores is write-through. Stores always write through to memory. Since stores follow a write-through policy the latency of the store operation depends on the external memory system. It isn't critical that the cache be able to update in single cycle as external memory access is bound to take many more cycles than a cache update. There is only a single write port on the data cache.

Capabilities Tag Cache

The capabilities tag cache supports the capability system. Every eight bytes of memory has a capabilities tag bit associated with it. If there is a valid capability stored at the address the tag bit will be set, otherwise it will be clear. The tag cache

is 512 lines of 16 bytes of tag bits for a capacity of 64k tags. It is a direct mapped cache.

Cache Enables

The instruction cache is always enabled to keep hardware simpler and faster. Otherwise, an additional multiplexor and control logic would be required in the instruction stream to read from external memory.

For some operations, it may be desirable to disable the data cache so there is a data cache enable bit in control register #0. This bit may be set or cleared with one of the CSR instructions.

Cache Validation

A cache line is automatically marked as valid when loaded. The entire cache may be invalidated using the CACHE instruction. Invalidating a single line of the cache is not currently supported, but it is supported by the ISA. The cache may also be invalidated due to a write by another core via a snoop bus.

Un-cached Data Area

The address range \$F...FDxxxxx is an un-cached 1MB data area. This area is reserved for I/O devices. The data cache may also be disabled in control register zero. There is also a field in the load instructions that allows bypassing the data cache.

Fetch Rate

The fetch rate is four instructions per clock cycle.

Return Address Stack Predictor (RSB)

There is an address predictor for return addresses which can in some cases eliminate the flushing of the instruction queue when a return instruction is executed. The RETD instruction is detected in the fetch stage of the core and a predicted return address is used to fetch instructions following the return. The return address stack predictor has a stack depth of 64 entries. On stack overflow or underflow, the prediction will be wrong, however performance will be no worse than not having a predictor. The return address stack predictor checks the address of the instruction queued following the RET against the address fetched for the RET instruction to make sure that the address corresponds.

Branch Predictor

The branch predictor is a (2, 2) correlating predictor. The branch history is maintained in a 512- entry history table. It has four read ports for predicting branch outcomes, one port for each instruction fetched. The branch predictor may be disabled by a bit in control register zero. When disabled all branches are predicted as not taken, unless specified otherwise in the branch instruction.

To conserve hardware the branch predictor uses a fifo that can queue up to four branch outcomes at the same time. Outcomes are removed from the fifo one at a time and used to update the branch history table which has only a single write port. In an earlier implementation of the branch predictor, two write ports were provided on the history table. This turned out to be relatively large compared to its usefulness.

Correctly predicting a branch turns the branch into a single cycle operation. During execution of the branch instruction the address of the following instruction queued is checked against the address depending on the branch outcome. If the address does not match what is expected, then the queue will be flushed, and new instructions loaded from the correct program path.

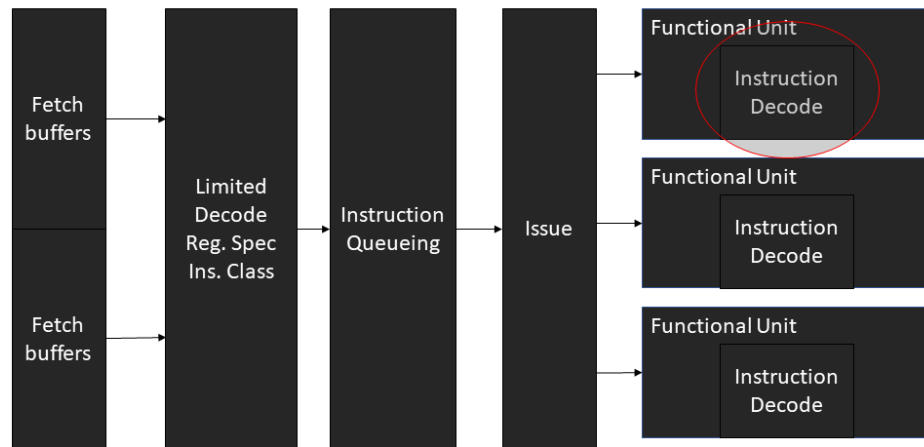
Branch Target Buffer (BTB)

The core has a 1k entry branch target buffer for predicting the target address of flow control instructions where the address is calculated and potentially unknown at time of fetch. Instructions covered by the BTB include jump-and-link, interrupt return and breakpoint instructions and branches to targets contained in a register.

Decode Logic

Instruction decode is distributed about the core. Although a number of decodes take place between fetch and instruction queue. Broad classes of instructions are decoded for the benefit of issue logic along with register specifications prior to instruction enqueue. Most of the decodes are done with modules under the decoder folder. Decoding typically involves reducing a wide input into a smaller number of output signals. Other decodes are done at instruction execution time with case statements.

Placement of Instruction Decode

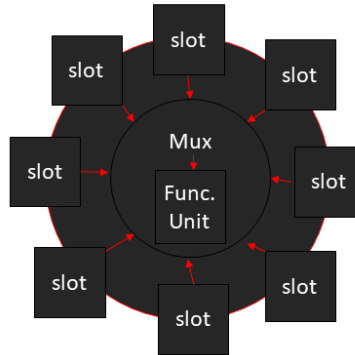


Limited decode takes place between fetch and queue. Between fetch and queue register specifications are decoded along with general instruction classes for the benefit of issue. A handful of additional signals (like sync) that control the overall operation of the core are also decoded. Much of the instruction decode is actually done in the functional unit. The instruction register is passed right through to the functional units in the core.

Instruction Queue (ROB)

The instruction queue is a 32-entry re-ordering buffer (ROB). The instruction queue tracks an instructions progress. Each instruction in queue may be in one of several different states. The instruction queue is a circular buffer with head and tail pointers. Instructions are queued onto the tail and committed to the machine state at the head. Queue and commit takes place in groups of up to four instructions.

Instruction Queue – Re-order Buffer



The instruction queue is circular with eight slots. Each slot feeds a multiplexor which in turn feeds a functional unit. Providing arguments to the functional unit is done under the vise of issue logic. Output from the functional unit is fed back to the same queue slot that issued to the functional unit. The queue slots are fed from the fetch buffers.

Queue Rate

Up to four instructions may queue during the same clock cycle depending on the availability of queue slots.

Sequence Numbers

The queue maintains a 7-bit instruction sequence number which gives other operations in the core a clue as to the order of instructions. The sequence number is assigned when an instruction queues. Branch instructions need to know when the next instruction has queued to detect branch misses. The program counter cannot be used to determine the instruction sequence because there may be a software loop at work which causes the program counter to cycle backwards even though it's really the next instruction executing.

Input / Output Management

Before getting into memory management a word or two about I/O management is in order. Memory management depends on several I/O devices. I/O in Qupls is memory mapped or MMIO. Ordinary load and store instructions are used to access I/O registers. I/O is mapped as a non-cacheable memory area.

Device Configuration Blocks

I/O devices have a configuration block associated with them that allows the device to be discovered by the OS during bootup. All the device configuration blocks are located in the same 256MB region of memory in the address range \$FF...D0000000 to \$FF...DFFFFFFF. Each device configuration block is aligned on a 4kB boundary. There is thus a maximum of 64k device configuration blocks.

Reset

At reset the device configuration blocks are not accessible. They must be mapped into memory for access. However, the devices have default addresses assigned to them, so it may not be necessary to map the device control block into memory before accessing the device. The device itself also needs to be mapped into the memory space for access though.

Devices Built into the CPU / MPU

Devices present in the CPU itself include:

Device	Bus	Device	Func	IRQ	Config Block Address	Default Address
Interrupt Controller	0	6	0	~	\$FF..FD0030000	\$FF..FEE2xxxx
Interval Timers	0	4	0	29	\$FF..FD0020000	\$FF..FEE4xxxx
Memory Region Table	0	12	0	~	\$FF..FD0060000	\$FF..FEEFxxxx
Page Table Walker	0	14	0	~	\$FF..FD0070000	\$FF..FFF4xxxx
Hardware Card Table	0		0	~		

System Devices

Device	Bus	Device	Func	IRQ	Config Block Address	Default Address
Interrupt Reflector	0		0	~	TBD	TBD
Interrupt Logger	0		0	~	TBD	TBD

Function is mapped to address bits 12 to 14

Device is mapped to address bits 15 to 19

Bus is mapped to address bits 20 to 27

External Interrupts

Overview

External interrupts are interrupts external to the CPU and are usually generated by peripheral devices. External interrupts are usually events occurring asynchronously with respect to software running on a CPU. Q+ external interrupts make use of message signaling. Qupls does not follow the MSI / MSI-X standard exactly, although it is similar. The goal of Q+MSI is to be frugal with logic resources. Q+MSI Interrupts are signaled by peripheral devices placing an interrupt message on the peripheral slave response bus. This reuses the response bus pathway to the processing core. Slave peripherals do not need to include bus mastering logic that is normally present with MSI-X.

Interrupt Messages

Interrupt messages are placed on the response bus with an error status indicating an IRQ occurred. The interrupt message identifies the vector number, servicing operating mode, and servicing interrupt controller. This information is stored in a register in the peripheral. An additional 32-bit data word is present in the device to hold extended message information. Q+MSI differs from MSI-X in the storage location of the extended interrupt message information. MSI-X stores this information in the interrupt table whereas Q+ stores it in the device. MSI-X requires the device to perform a write operation to the interrupt table, whereas Q+MSI does not. MSI-X interrupts normally specify an I/O address to post to and a 32-bit data word. Unfortunately, in the Q+ system there are not enough bits in a 32-bit response bus to mimic MSI-X. The vector number combined with the interrupt controller number take the place of the I/O address. Additional information passed by the interrupt message (in the response address field) identifies the source of the interrupt, the desired priority level, and the software stack required for processing.

Interrupt Controller

The Q+ interrupt controller (QIC) is a slave peripheral device that detects interrupt messages occurring on the CPU response bus. It stores the interrupt message in a priority queue. The interrupt vector for the highest priority interrupt is looked up from an internal vector table. Information in the vector determines a list of possible target CPU cores and the software stack that must be available. Either the address of the interrupt subroutine (ISR) or, an instruction for the CPU to execute is provided. There may be multiple interrupt controllers in the system. Currently a six-bit controller

number is present in the interrupt message limiting the number of controllers to 63. With 63 interrupt controllers and each one servicing 63 CPU cores, a maximum of approximately 3900 CPU cores may be connected to interrupts.

The interrupt controller has some capacity to detect interrupt overruns. There is a “stuck interrupt” detector which flags an interrupt signal as being stuck if the same interrupt message is posted in a short time-frame. The queue full status flag is also available in the controller allowing software to detect if a queue is full. A full queue may also indicate a stuck interrupt.

There is more detail pertaining to QIC in the QIC device description later in this document.

Interrupt Vector Table

The interrupt vector table is internal to the interrupt controller. The table is laid out in four sections, one for each available operating mode. There are 2048 (512 in the demo system) vectors available for each operating mode. Note there may be multiple interrupt controllers in the system, and hence multiple vector tables. Which vector table to use is identified in a device control register in the form of specifying an interrupt controller number.

Interrupt Group Filter

There may be more than one CPU core connected to a QIC; up to 63 CPU cores may be connected to a QIC. Note that groups of CPU cores may be specified to handle an interrupt. There is a filter in the MPU that detects the lowest priority CPU core that is ready to handle an interrupt. The information from the QIC about the interrupt is passed to connected CPU cores.

To be ready to handle an interrupt, the current interrupt level of the CPU core must be less than that of the interrupting device, and the CPU core must be operating using the software stack appropriate for the interrupt.

Interrupt Reflector

The interrupt reflector is a peripheral device that allows a bus master to trigger an interrupt. Because interrupts are posted on the response bus for Q+ a bus master would not be able to trigger an interrupt directly. The reflector moves a request from the bus master request bus over the response bus. It can then be detected by the

interrupt controller. This allows IPI (inter-processor interrupts) generated by software to be used.

Interrupt Logger

Logging of interrupts can be useful for the system. It is handy for debugging. The interrupt logger is a peripheral device that monitors the CPU response bus for interrupts (like the QIC) and logs all interrupts to a file in memory. The file can be subsequently processed for system management purposes.

Memory Management

This section is somewhat pedantic and reviews technical approaches before getting into Qupls details.

Bank Swapping

About the simplest form of memory management is a single bank register that selects the active memory bank. This is the mechanism used on many early microcomputers. The bank register may be an eight bit I/O port supplying control over some number of upper address bits used to access memory.

The Page Map

The next simplest form of memory management is a single table map of virtual to physical addresses. The page map is often located in a high-speed dedicated memory. An example of a mapping table is the 74LS612 chip. It may map four address bits on the input side to twelve address bits on the output side. This allows a physical address range eight bits greater than the virtual address range. A more complicated page map is something like the MC6829 MMU. It may map 2kB pages in a 2MB physical address space for up to four different tasks.

Regions

In any processing system there are typically several different types of storage assigned to different physical address ranges. These include memory mapped I/O, MMIO, DRAM, ROM, configuration space, and possibly others. Qupls has a region table that supports up to eight separate regions.

The region table is a list of region entries. Each entry has a start address, an end address, an access type field, and a pointer to the PMT, page management table. To determine legal access types, the physical address is searched for in the region table, and the corresponding access type returned. The search takes place in parallel for all eight regions.

Once the region is identified the access rights for a particular page within the region can be found from the PMT corresponding to the region. Global access rights for the entire region are also specified in the region table. These rights are gated with value from the PMT and TLB to determine the final access rights.

Region Table Location

The region table in Q+ is a memory mapped I/O device and has a device configuration block associated with it. The default address of the device is \$FF...FEEF0000.

Region Table Description

Reg	Bits	Field	Description
0000	128	Pmt	associated PMT address
0010	128	cta	Card table address
0020	128	at	Four groups of 32-bit memory attributes, 1 group for each of user, supervisor, hypervisor and machine.
0030	128	...	Not used
0040 to 01F0		...	7 more register sets

PMT Address

The PMT address specifies the location of the associated PMT.

CTA – Card Table Address

The card table address is used during the execution of the store pointer, STPTR instruction to locate the card table.

Attributes

Bitno																
0	X	may contain executable code														
1	W	may be written to														
2	R	may be read														
3	~	reserved														
4-7	C	Cache-ability bits														
8-10	G	granularity <table><tr><td>G</td><td></td></tr><tr><td>0</td><td>byte accessible</td></tr><tr><td>1</td><td>wyde accessible</td></tr><tr><td>2</td><td>tetra accessible</td></tr><tr><td>3</td><td>octa accessible</td></tr><tr><td>4</td><td>hexi accessible</td></tr><tr><td>5 to 7</td><td>reserved</td></tr></table>	G		0	byte accessible	1	wyde accessible	2	tetra accessible	3	octa accessible	4	hexi accessible	5 to 7	reserved
G																
0	byte accessible															
1	wyde accessible															
2	tetra accessible															
3	octa accessible															
4	hexi accessible															
5 to 7	reserved															
11	~	reserved														
12-14	S	number of times to shift address to right and store for telescopic STPTR stores.														
16-23	T	device type (rom, dram, eeprom, I/O, etc)														
24-31	~	reserved														

PMA - Physical Memory Attributes Checker

Overview

The physical memory attributes checker is a hardware module that ensures that memory is being accessed correctly according to its physical attributes.

Physical memory attributes are stored in an eight-entry region table. Three bits in the PTE select an entry from this table. The operating mode of the CPU also determines which 32-bit set of attributes to apply for the memory region.

Most of the entries in the table are hard-coded and configured when the system is built. However, they may be modified.

Physical memory attributes checking is applied in all operating modes.

The region table is accessible as a memory mapped IO, MMIO, device.

Page Management Table - PMT

Overview

For the first translation of a virtual to physical address, after the physical page number is retrieved from the TLB, the region is determined, and the page management table is referenced to obtain the access rights to the page. PMT information is loaded into the TLB entry for the page translation. The PMT contains an assortment of information most of which is managed by software. Pieces of information include the key needed to access the page, the privilege level, and read-write-execute permissions for the page. The table is organized as rows of access rights table entries (PMTEs). There are as many PMTEs as there are pages of memory in the region.

For subsequent virtual to physical address translations PMT information is retrieved from the TLB.

As the page is accessed in the TLB, the TLB may update the PMT.

Location

The page management table is in main memory and may be accessed with ordinary load and store instructions. The PMT address is specified by the region table.

PMTE Description

There is a wide assortment of information that goes in the page management table. To accommodate all the information an entry size of 128-bits was chosen.

Page Management Table Entry

V	N	M	\sim_9	C	E	AL ₂	\sim_4	mrwx	hrwx	srwx	urwx
ACL ₁₆							Share Count ₁₆				
Access Count ₃₂											
PL ₈			Key ₂₄								

Access Control List

The ACL field is a reference to an associated access control list.

Share Count

The share count is the number of times the page has been shared to processes. A share count of zero means the page is free.

Access Count

This part uses the term 'access count' to refer to the number of times a page is accessed. This is usually called the reference count, but that phrase is confusing because reference counting may also refer to share counts. So, the phrase 'reference count' is avoided. Some texts use the term reference count to refer to the share count. Reference counting is used in many places in software and refers to the number of times something is referenced.

Every time the page of memory is accessed, the access count of the page is incremented. Periodically the access count is aged by shifting it to the right one bit.

The access count may be used by software to help manage the presence of pages of memory.

Key

The access key is a 24-bit value associated with the page and present in the key ring of processes. The keyset is maintained in the keys CSRs. The key size of 20 bits is a minimum size recommended for security purposes. To obtain access to the page it is necessary for the process to have a matching key OR if the key to match is set to zero in the PMTE then a key is not needed to access the page.

Privilege Level

The current privilege level is compared with the privilege level of the page, and if access is not appropriate then a privilege violation occurs. For data access, the current privilege level must be at least equal to the privilege level of the page. If the page privilege level is zero anybody can access the page.

N

indicates a conforming page of executable code. Conforming pages may execute at the current privilege level. In which case the PL field is ignored.

M

indicates if the page was modified, written to, since the last time the M bit was cleared. Hardware sets this bit during a write cycle.

E

indicates if the page is encrypted.

AL

indicates the compression algorithm used.

C

The C indicator bit indicates if the page is compressed.

urwx, srwx, hrwx, mrwx

These are read-write-execute flags for the page.

Page Tables

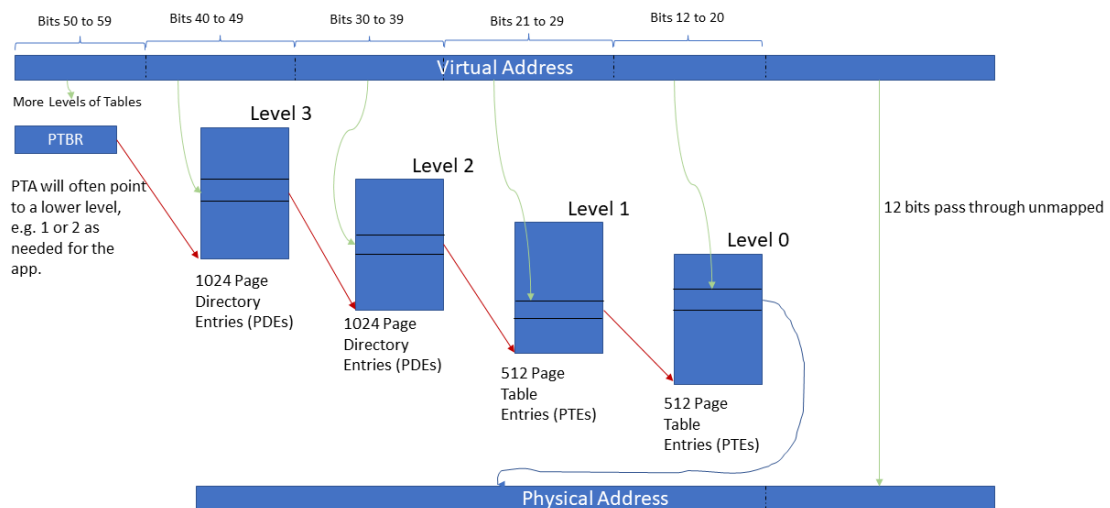
Intro

Page tables are part of the memory management system used map virtual addresses to real physical addresses. There are several types of page tables. Hierarchical page tables are probably the most common. Almost all page tables map only the upper bits of a virtual address, called a page. The lower bits of the virtual address are passed through without being altered. The page size often 4kB which means the low order 12-bits of a virtual address will be mapped to the same 12-bits for the physical address.

Hierarchical Page Tables

Hierarchical page tables organize page tables in a multi-level hierarchy. They can map the entire virtual address range but often only a subrange of the full virtual address space is mapped. This can be determined on an application basis. At the topmost level a register points to a page directory, that page directory points to a page directory at a lower level until finally a page directory points to a page containing page table entries. To map an entire 64-bit virtual address range approximately five levels of tables are required.

Paged MMU Mapping



Inverted Page Tables

An inverted page table is a table used to store address translations for memory management. The idea behind an inverted page table is that there are a fixed

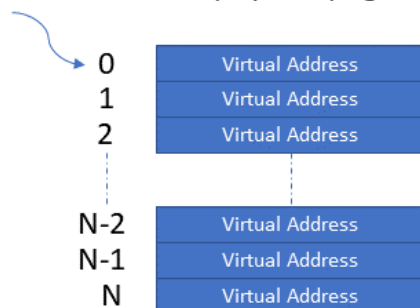
number of pages of memory no matter how it is mapped. It should not be necessary to provide for a map of every possible address, which is what the hierarchical table does, only addresses that correspond to real pages of memory need be mapped. Each page of memory can be allocated only once. It is either allocated or it is not. Compared to a non-inverted paged memory management system where tables are used to map potentially the entire address space an inverted page table uses less memory. There is typically only a single inverted page table supporting all applications in the system. This is a different approach than a non-inverted page table which may provide separate page tables for each process.

The Simple Inverted Page Table

The simplest inverted page table contains only a record of the virtual address mapped to the page, and the index into the table is used as the physical page number. There are only as many entries in the inverted page table as there are physical pages of memory. A translation can be made by scanning the table for a matching virtual address, then reading off the value of the table index. The attraction of an inverted page table is its small size compared to the typical hierarchical page table. Unfortunately, the simplest inverted page table is not practical when there are thousands or millions of pages of memory. It simply takes too long to scan the table. The alternative solution to scanning the table is to hash the virtual address to get a table index directly.

Inverted Page Table

Entry number identifies physical page number



Hashed Page Tables

Hashed Table Access

Hashes are great for providing an index value immediately. The issue with hash functions is that they are just a hash. It is possible that two different virtual address

will hash to the same value. What is then needed is a way to deal with these hash collisions. There are a couple of different methods of dealing with collisions. One is to use a chain of links. The chain has each link in the chain pointing to the next page table entry to use in the event of a collision. The hash page table is slightly more complicated then as it needs to store links for hash chains. The second method is to use open addressing. Open addressing calculates the next page table entry to use in the event of a collision. The calculation may be linear, quadratic or some other function dreamed up. A linear probe simply chooses the next page table entry in succession from the previous one if no match occurred. Quadratic probing calculates the next page table entry to use based on squaring the count of misses.

Clustered Hash Tables

A clustered hash table works in the same manner as a hashed page table except that the hash is used to access a cluster of entries rather than a single entry. Hashed values may map to the same cluster which can store multiple translations. Once the cluster is identified, all the entries are searched in parallel for the correct one. A clustered hash table may be faster than a simple hash table as it makes use of parallel searches. Often accessing memory returns a cache line regardless of whether a single byte or the whole cached line is referenced. By using a cache line to store a cluster of entries it can turn what might be multiple memory accesses into a single access. For example, an ordinary hash table with open addressing may take up to 10 memory accesses to find the correct translation. With a clustered table that turns into 1.25 memory accesses on average.

Shared Memory

Another memory management issue to deal with is shared memory. Sometimes applications share memory with other apps for communication purposes, and to conserve memory space where there are common elements. The same shared library may be used by many apps running in the system. With a hierarchical paged memory management system, it is easy to share memory, just modify the page table entry to point to the same physical memory as is used by another process. With an inverted page table having only a single entry for each physical page is not sufficient to support shared memory. There needs to be multiple page table entries available for some physical pages but not others because multiple virtual addresses might map to the same physical address. One solution would be to have multiple buckets to store virtual addresses in for each physical address. However, this would waste a lot of memory because much of the time only a single mapped address is needed. There must be a better solution. Rather than reading off the table index as the

physical page number, the association of the virtual and physical address can be stored. Since we now need to record the physical address multiple times the simple mechanism of using the table index as the physical page number cannot be used. Instead, the physical page number needs to be stored in the table in addition to the virtual page number.

That means a table larger than the minimum is required. A minimally sized table would contain only one entry for each physical page of memory. So, to allow for shared memory the size of the table is doubled. This smells like a system configuration parameter.

Specifics: Qupls Page Tables

Qupls Hash Page Table Setup

Hash Page Table Entries - HPTE

We have determined that a page table entry needs to store both the physical page number and the virtual page number for the translations. To keep things simple, the page table stores only the information needed to perform an address translation. Other bits of information are stored in a secondary table called the page management table, PMT. The author did a significant amount of juggling around the sizes of various fields, mainly the size of the physical and virtual page numbers. Finally, the author decided on a 192-bit HPTE format.

V	LVL/BC ₅	RGN ₃	M	A	T	S	G	SW ₂	CACHE ₄	MRWX ₃	HRWX ₃	SRWX ₃	URWX ₃
PPN _{31..0}													
PPN _{63..32}													
VPN _{37..6}													
VPN _{69..38}													
~ ₄		ASID _{11..0}						~ ₂		VPN _{83..70}			

Fields Description

V	1	translation Valid
G	1	global translation
RGN	3	region
PPN	64	Physical page number
VPN	84	Virtual page number
RWX	3	readable, writeable, executable
ASID	12	address space identifier
LVL/BC	5	bounce count

M	1	modified
A	1	accessed
T	1	PTE type (not used)
S	1	Shared page indicator
SW	3	OS usage

The page table does not include everything needed to manage pages of memory. There is additional information such as share counts and privilege levels to take care of, but this information is better managed in a separate table.

Small Hash Page Table Entries - SHPTE

The small HPTE is used for the test system which contains only 512MB of physical RAM to conserve hardware resources. The SHPTE is 72-bits in size. A 32-bit physical address is probably sufficient for this system. So, the physical page number could be 18-bits or less depending on the page size.

V	LVL/BC ₅	RGN ₃	M	A	T	S	G	SW	CACHE ₄	ASID _{3..0}	HRWX ₃	SRWX ₃	URWX ₃
VPN _{15..0}									PPN _{15..0}				
											ASID _{7..4}		VPN _{19..16}

Page Table Groups – PTG

We want the search for translations to be fast. That means being able to search in parallel. So, PTEs are stored in groups that are searched in parallel for translations. This is sometimes referred to as a clustered table approach. Access to the group should be as fast as possible. There are also hardware limits to how many entries can be searched at once while retaining a high clock rate. So, the convenient size of 1024 bits was chosen as the amount of memory to fetch.

A page table group then contains five HPTE entries. All entries in the group are searched in parallel for a match. Note that the entries are searched as the PTG is loaded, so that the PTG group load may be aborted early if a matching PTE is found before the load is finished.

191	0
PTE0	
PTE1	
PTE2	
PTE3	
PTE4	

Small Page Table Group

For the small page table, a fetch size of 576 bits was chosen. This allows eight SHPTes to fit into one group.

Size of Page Table

There are several conflicting elements to deal with, with regards to the size of the page table. Ideally, the hash page table is small enough to fit into the block RAM resources available in the FPGA. It may be practical to store the hash page table in block RAM as there would be only a single table for all apps in the system. This probably would not be practical for a hierarchical table.

About 1/6 of the block RAMs available are dedicated to MMU use. At the same time a multiple of the number of physical pages of memory should be supported to support page sharing and swapping pages to secondary storage. To support swapping pages, double the number of physical entries were chosen. To support page sharing, double that number again. Therefore, a minimum size of a page table would contain at least four times the number of physical pages for entries. By setting the size of the page table instead of the size of pages, it can be worked backwards how many pages of memory can be supported.

For a system using 256k block RAM to store PTEs. $256k / 8 = 32768$ entries. $32,768 / 4 = 8,192$ physical pages. Since the RAM size is 512MB, each page would be $512MB / 8,192 = 64kB$. Since half the pages may be in secondary storage, 1GB of address range is available.

Since there are 32,768 entries in the table and they are grouped into groups of eight, there are 4,096 PTGs. To get to a page table group fast a hash function is needed then that returns a 12-bit number.

Reworking things with a 64kB page size and 32,768 PTEs. The maximum memory size that can be supported is: 2.0 GB. This is only 4x the amount of RAM in the system, but may be okay for demo purposes.

Hash Function

The hash function needs to reduce the size of a virtual address down to a 10-bit number. The asid should be considered part of the virtual address. Including the asid of 10-bits and a 32-bit address is 42 bits. The first thing to do is to throw away the lowest eighteen bits as they pass through the MMU unaltered. We now have 24-

bits to deal with. We can probably throw away some high order bits too, as a process is not likely to use the full 32-bit address range.

The hash function chosen uses the asid combined with virtual address bits 20 to 29. This should space out the PTEs according to the asid. Address bits 18 and 19 select one of four address ranges. the PTG supports seven PTEs. The translations where address bits 18 and 19 are involved are likely consecutive pages that would show up in the same PTG. The hash is the asid exclusively or'd with address bits 20 to 29.

Collision Handling

Quadratic probing of the page table is used when a collision occurs. The next PTG to search is calculated as the hash plus the square of the miss count. On the first miss the PTG at the hash plus one is searched. Next the PTG at the hash plus four is searched. After that the PTG at the hash plus nine is searched, and so on.

Finding a Match

Once the PTG to be searched is located using the hash function, which PTE to use needs to be sorted out. The match operation must include both the virtual address bits and the asid, address space identifier, as part of the test for a match. It is possible that the same virtual address is used by two or more different address spaces, which is why it needs to be in the match.

Locality of Reference

The page table group may be cached in the system read cache for performance. It is likely that the same PTG group will be used multiple times due to the locality of reference exhibited by running software.

Access Rights

To avoid duplication of data the access rights are stored in another table called the PMT for access rights table. The first time a translation is loaded the access rights are looked-up from the PMT. A bit is set in the TLB entry indicating that the access rights are valid. On subsequent translations the access rights are not looked up, but instead they are read from values cached in the TLB.

Qupls2 Hierarchical Page Table Setup

Overview

Qupls2 hierarchical page tables are setup like a tree. Branch pages contain pointers to other pages and leaf pages contain pointers to block of memory that an application has access to. The entries in branch pages are referred to as page table pointers, PTPs, since they point at other page tables. The entries in leaf pages are referred to as page table entries, PTEs. Pages are 8kB in size. There may be from one to seven levels of page tables. A single page table level is sufficient to map 8MB of memory.

Page Table Pointer Format – PTP

The PTP occupies 64-bits. 1024 PTPs will fit into an 8kB page. A physical address range maximum of 2^{70} bytes of memory may be mapped.

LVL ₃	S	Rgn ₃	PPN _{56...0}
------------------	---	------------------	-----------------------

Page Table Entry Format – PTE

The PTE format may map up to 2^{58} bytes of contiguous memory. The upper address bits for the translation are supplied by bits 45 to 56 of the PTP. The PTE is eight bytes in size. 1024 PTEs will fit into an 8kB page.

LVL ₃	S	Rgn ₃	M	A	AVL ₃	CACHE ₃	U ₁	RWX ₃	PPN _{44...0}
------------------	---	------------------	---	---	------------------	--------------------	----------------	------------------	-----------------------

Field	Size	Purpose
PPN	45	Physical page number
RWX	3	read-write-execute
U	1	1=User page, 0 = Supervisor
CACHE	3	Cache-location
AVL	3	OS software usage
A	1	1=accessed/used
M	1	1=modified
RGN	3	Memory region
S	1	1=shortcut
LVL	3	010 to 111 = PTP, 001 = PTE, 000 = invalid

Shortcut Translations

Translation mappings may be shortcut for the first three levels of page tables allowing the page table to map 8GB, 8TB, or 8XB of memory using just a single level table.

For a shortcut page, the low order bits of the page number indicate a limit on the size of the memory area mapped. For instance, if LVL=010 is a shortcut, the low order 10 bits of the PPN specify the limit in terms of number of 8kB pages. The upper bits of the PPN represent a map to an 8GB area of memory.

Location of Page Table

The page table walker contains a register specifying the base location of the page table. Please refer to the Qupls2 [page table walker](#) for more information.

TLB – Translation Lookaside Buffer

Overview

A simple page map is limited in the translations it can perform because of its size. The solution to allowing more memory to be mapped is to use main memory to store the translations tables.

However, if every memory access required two or three additional accesses to map the address to a final target access, memory access would be quite slow, slowed down by a factor of two or three, possibly more. To improve performance, the memory mapping translations are stored in another unit called the TLB standing for Translation Lookaside Buffer. This is sometimes also called an address translation cache ATC. The TLB offers a means of address virtualization and memory protection. A TLB works by caching address mappings between a real physical address and a virtual address used by software. The TLB deals with memory organized as pages. Typically, software manages a paging table whose entries are loaded into the TLB as translations are required.

The TLB is a cache specialized for address translations. Qupls's TLB is two level. The first level contains eight full associative entries making translations possible within one clock cycle. The second level contains 1024 three-way associative entries. If there is a miss on the first TLB level the second level will be searched for a translation. If available a translation is possible within two clock cycles. On a second level TLB miss the page table is searched for a translation by a hardware-based page table walker and if found the translation is stored in one of the ways of the TLB. The way selected is determined randomly.

Size / Organization

The first level TLB has 8 fully associative entries.

The second level TLB has 1024 entries per set for 8kB pages and 128 entries per set for 8MB pages.

TLB Entries - TLBE

Closely related to page table entries are translation look-aside buffer, TLB, entries. TLB entries have additional fields to match against the virtual address. The count field is used to invalidate the entire TLB.

V	Count ₆	ASID ₁₆	NRU ₁
---	--------------------	--------------------	------------------

LVL ₃	S	RGN ₃	M	A	AVL ₃	CACHE ₂	U ₁	RWX ₃
------------------	---	------------------	---	---	------------------	--------------------	----------------	------------------

PPN _{56...0}

VPN _{50...0}

What is Translated?

The TLB processes addresses including both instruction and data addresses for all modes of operation. It is known as a *unified* TLB.

Page Size

Because the TLB caches address translations it can get away with a much smaller page size than the page map can for a larger memory system. 4kB is a common size for many systems. There are some indications in contemporary documentation that a larger page size would be better. In this case the TLB uses 8kB. For a 1GB system (the size of the memory in the test system) there are 131072 8kB pages.

Ways

The L1TLB is eight-way associative. The L2TLB is three-way associative.

Management

The TLB unit is updated by a hardware page table walker.

RWX₃

Otherwise RWX attributes are typically set by OS software and determined by the region table.

CACHE₃

The cache₃ field indicates the location of data in the cache hierarchy.

TLB Entry Replacement Policies

The TLB uses random replacement. Random replacement chooses a way to replace at random.

Flushing the TLB

The TLB maintains the address space (ASID) associated with a virtual address. This allows the TLB translations to be used without having to flush old translations from the TLB during a task switch.

Reset

On a reset the TLB is preloaded with translations that allow access to the system ROM.

PTW - Page Table Walker

The page table walker is a CPU device used to update the TLB. Whenever a TLB miss occurs the page table walker is triggered. The page table walker walks the page tables to find the translation. Once found the TLB is updated with the translation. If a translation cannot be found, then a page fault occurs.

The page table walker manages several variables associated with memory management. These include the page table base register, PT_BASE, page fault address and ASID. These registers are available to software using load and store instructions.

For a page fault the miss address and ASID are stored in a register in the page-table-walker. The PTW also contains the PT_BASE(page table base register) which is used to locate the page table.

The page table walker is a device located in the CPU and has a device configuration block associated with it. The default address of the device is \$FF...FF40000.

Register	Name	Description
\$FF00	PF_ADDR	Page fault address
\$FF10	PF_ASID	Page fault asid
\$FF20	PT_BASE	Page table base register
\$FF30	PT_ATTR	Page table attributes

Page Table Base Register

The page table base register locates the page table in memory. Address bits 3 to 63 are specified. The page table must be octa-byte aligned. Normally the root page table will occupy 8kB of memory and be 8kB aligned. However, for smaller apps it may be desirable to share the memory page the page table is located in with multiple applications.

63	3	2	0
Page Table Address _{63..3}			0

Default Reset Value = 0xFFFFFFFFFF80000

Page Table Attributes Register

The attributes register contains attributes of the page table.

63	26	25	24	12	11	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
~ ₃₈		~	Root Page Table Limit _{12..0}			Levels		AL ₂	~ ₂		S	~	Type	

Type: 0 = inverted page table, 1 = hierarchical page table

S: 1=software managed TLB miss, 0 = hardware table walking, 0 is the only currently supported option.

AL₂: TLB entry replacement algorithm, 0=fixed,1=LRU,2=random,3=reserved, 2 is the only currently supported option.

Levels are ignored for the inverted page table. For a normal page table gives the top entry level.

Root Page Table Limit specifies the number of entries in the root page table. A maximum of 8192 entries is supported.

Default Reset Value = 0x1FFF081

63	26	25	24	12	11	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
~ ₃₈	~		1FFFh	0	2	~ ₂	0	~	1					

Card Table

Overview

Also present in the memory system is the Card table. The card table is a telescopic memory which reflects with increasing detail where in the memory system a pointer write has occurred. This is for the benefit of garbage collection systems. Card table is updated using a write barrier when a pointer value is stored to memory, or it may be updated automatically using the STPTR instruction.

Organization

At the lowest level memory is divided into 256-byte card memory pages. Each card has a single byte recording whether a pointer store has taken place in the corresponding memory area.

To cover a 1GB memory system 4MB card memory is required at the outermost layer. A byte is used rather than a bit to allow byte store operations to update the table directly without having to resort to multiple instructions to perform a bit-field update.

To improve the performance of scanning a hardware card table, HCT, is present which divides memory at an upper level into 8192-byte pages. The hardware card table indicates if a pointer store operation has taken place in one of the 8192-byte pages. It is then necessary to scan only cards representing the 8192-byte page rather than having to scan the entire 4MB card table. Note that this memory is organized as 2048 64-bit words. Allowing 64-bits at a time to be tested.

To further improve performance a master card table, MCT, is present which divides memory at the uppermost layer into 16-MB pages.

Layer	Resolving Power	
0	4 MB	256B pages
1	128k bits	8kB pages
2	64 bits	16 MB pages

There is only a single card memory in the system, used by all tasks.

Location

The card memory location is stored in the region table. A card table may be setup for each region of memory.

Operation

As a program progresses it writes pointer values to memory using the write barrier. Storing a pointer triggers an update to all the layers of card memory corresponding to the main memory location written. A bit or byte is set in each layer of the card memory system corresponding to the memory location of the pointer store.

The garbage collection system can very quickly determine where pointer stores have occurred and skip over memory that has not been modified.

Sample Write Barrier

```
; Milli-code routine for garbage collect write barrier.  
; This sequence is short enough to be used in-line.  
; Three level card memory.  
; a2 is a register pointing to the card table.  
; STPTR will cause an update of the master card table, and hardware card table.  
;
```

GCWriteBarrier:

STPTR	a0,[a1]	; store the pointer value to memory at a1
LSR	t0,a1,#8	; compute card address
STIB	\$0,[a2+t0]	; clear byte in card memory

Instruction Set

Overview

Qupls2 is a variable length instruction set with lengths of 24, 48, 72 or 96 bits. There are several different classes of instructions including arithmetic, memory operate, branch, floating-point and others.

Code Alignment

Program code may be relocated at any byte address. However, within a subroutine code should be contiguous.

Instruction Length

A 24-bit instruction parcel size was chosen to try and capture as many instructions as possible using only 24-bits. This is more compact than a 32-bit parcel but is not capable of encoding as many instructions. Although individual instructions may be denser the length of program code may not be depending on the instruction mix. It may take more 24-bit instructions to encode a program than 32-bit ones.

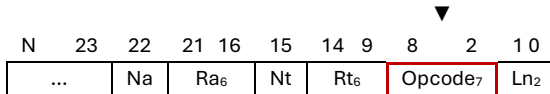
To simplify decoding, the length of an instruction is encoded directly as the two LSBs of every instruction.

N	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
...	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	Ln ₂				

Ln ₂	Bits
0	24
1	48
2	72
3	96

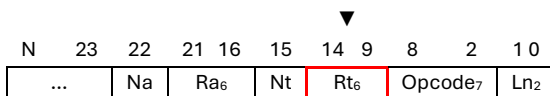
Root Opcode

The root opcode determines the class of instructions executed. Some commonly executed instructions are also encoded at the root level to make more bits available for the instruction. The root opcode is always present in all instructions as bits two to eight of the instruction.



Target Register Spec

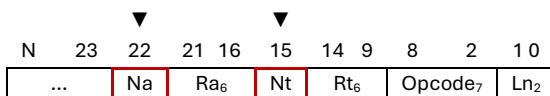
Most instructions have a target register. The register spec for the target register is always in the same position, bits 9 to 14 of an instruction. For some instructions, such as stores, the target register field acts as a source register.



Sign Control

Many instructions feature sign control for each register of the instruction. Loads / stores and branches do not have sign control.

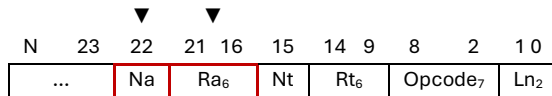
Each register may have its sign negated or complemented during the operation. Arithmetic operations will negate, bitwise operations will complement.



Nt/Na/Nb/Nc	
0	No effect
1	Negate (arithmetics) or Complement (logical)

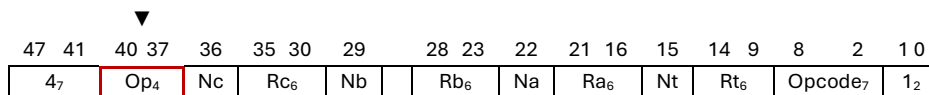
Source Register Spec

Most instructions have at least one source register. There may be as many as three source register specs. Please refer to individual instruction descriptions for the location of the source register specification fields.



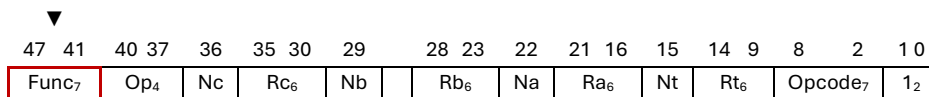
Secondary Opcode

Register-register operate instructions often have slightly different forms depending on a secondary opcode. The secondary opcode generally controls the operation between the result from the first two source register and the third source register.



Primary Function Code

For register to register operate instructions the primary function code is in the most significant seven bits of the instruction, bits 41 to 47. This function code typically controls the operation between registers Ra and Rb; sometimes Rc is also included.



Precision

The CPU supports multiple precisions for most operations. The precision selected is often controlled by the opcode. A register may be treated as 1 64-bit values, 2 32-bit values, or 4 16-bit values. The same operation is applied for each value. A pair of registers may be treated as a 128-bit value for some instructions.

Opcode ₇	Values
2	1 x 128 bit
104	8 x 8-bit
105	4 x 16 bit
106	2 x 32-bit
107	1 x 64-bit

Instruction Descriptions

Instruction Length

Ln_2	Bits
0	24
1	48
2	96
3	

Arithmetic Operations

Representations

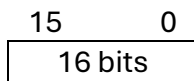
int



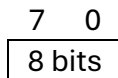
short int



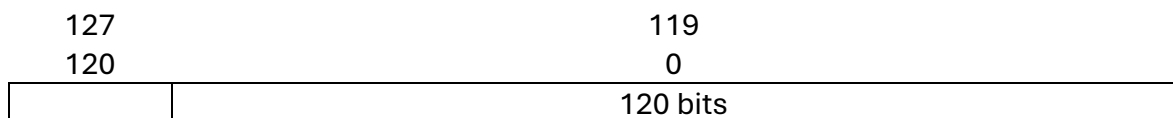
wyde



byte



decimal



Decimal integers use densely packed decimal format which provide 36 digits of precision.

Arithmetic Operations

Arithmetic operations include addition, subtraction, multiplication and division. These are available with the ADD, SUB, CMP, MUL, and DIV instructions. There are several variations of the instructions to deal with signed and unsigned values. Multiply may either multiply two values and add a third returning the low order bits, or return the entire product, referred to as a widening instruction. Divide may return both the quotient and the remainder with one instruction. The format of the typical immediate mode instruction is shown below:

ADD.sz Rt, Ra, Imm₂₃

Instruction Format: RI

47		25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₂₃				Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		4 ₇		1 ₂	

Precision

Four different precisions are supported encoded by the Prc₂ field of an instruction. The precision of an operation may be specified with an instruction qualifier following the mnemonic as in ADD.T to add tetras together. The assembler assumes an octa-byte operation if the size is not specified.

Prc ₂	Register treated as: Bits x lanes
0	8 x 8
1	16 x 4
2	32 x 2
3	64 x 1

If the precision field is not present in the instruction, then an octa-byte operation is assumed.

ABS – Absolute Value

Description:

This instruction computes the absolute value of the contents of the source operand and places the result in Rt.

Instruction Format: R1

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
13 ₇	Op ₄	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Nb	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	O ₂								

Opcode ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	octa
2	hexi

OP ₄		Mnemonic
3	Rt = $\pm \text{ABS}((\pm \text{Ra} \pm \text{Rb}) \pm \text{Rc})$	ABS_SUM

Operation:

If Source < 0
Rt = -Source
else
Rt = Source

Execution Units: Integer ALU #0

Clock Cycles: 1

Exceptions: none

Notes:

ADD - Register-Register

Description:

Add three registers and place the sum in the target register. All register values are integers. If Rc is not used, it is assumed to be zero.

Instruction Format: R3

23	19	18	14	13	9	8	2	1	0
Rb ₅		Ra ₅		Rt ₅		16 ₇		0 ₂	

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0			
4 ₇		Op ₄		Nc		Rc ₆		Nb		Rb ₆		Na		Ra ₆		Nt		Rt ₆		Opcode ₇		1 ₂

Operation:

Opcode ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	octa
2	hexi

OP ₄		Mnemonic
0	$Rt = (Ra \pm Rb) \& Rc$	ADD_AND
1	$Rt = (Ra \pm Rb) Rc$	ADD_OR
2	$Rt = (Ra \pm Rb) ^ Rc$	ADD_EOR
3	$Rt = (Ra \pm Rb) \pm Rc$	ADD_ADD
11	$Rt = (Ra \pm Rb) \pm Rc$	ADDGC
4 to 15	Reserved	

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All Integer ALUs, all FPUs

Exceptions: none

Notes:

ADDI - Add Immediate

Description:

Add a register and immediate value and place the sum in the target register. The immediate is sign extended to the machine width.

Instruction Format: RI

23	19	18	14	13	9	8	2	1	0
Imm ₅		Ra ₅		Rt ₅		4 ₇		0 ₂	

47				25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₂₃					Prc ₂		Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		4 ₇		1 ₂	

71				25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₄₇					Prc ₂		Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		4 ₇		2 ₂	

95				25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₇₁					Prc ₂		Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		4 ₇		3 ₂	

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All ALUs, all FPUs

Operation:

$$Rt = Ra + \text{immediate}$$

Exceptions:

Notes:

ADD2UI - Add Immediate

Description:

Add a register and immediate value and place the sum in the target register. The register value is shifted left once before the addition. The immediate is zero extended to the machine width.

Instruction Format: RI

23	19	18	14	13	9	8	2	1	0
Imm ₅		Ra ₅		Rt ₅		60 ₇		0 ₂	

47		25	2423	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
Immediate ₂₃			Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		60 ₇		1 ₂

71		25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₄₇			Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	60 ₇	2 ₂					

95		25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₇₁			Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		60 ₇		3 ₂		

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All ALU's

Operation:

$$Rt = (Ra \ll 1) + \text{immediate}$$

Exceptions:

Notes:

ADD4UI - Add Immediate

Description:

Add a register and immediate value and place the sum in the target register. The register value is shifted left twice before the addition. The immediate is zero extended to the machine width.

Instruction Format: RI

23	19	18	14	13	9	8	2	1	0
Imm ₅		Ra ₅		Rt ₅		61 ₇		0 ₂	

47				25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₂₃					Prc ₂		Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		61 ₇		1 ₂	

71				25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₄₇					Prc ₂		Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		61 ₇		2 ₂	

95				25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₇₁					Prc ₂		Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		61 ₇		3 ₂	

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All ALU's

Operation:

$$Rt = (Ra \ll 2) + \text{immediate}$$

Exceptions:

Notes:

ADD8UI - Add Immediate

Description:

Add a register and immediate value and place the sum in the target register. The register value is shifted left three times before the addition. The immediate is zero extended to the machine width.

Instruction Format: RI

23	19	18	14	13	9	8	2	10
Imm ₅	Ra ₅	Rt ₅	62 ₇	0 ₂				

47	25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
Immediate ₂₃	Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	62 ₇	1 ₂					

71	25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
Immediate ₄₇	Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	62 ₇	2 ₂					

95	25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
Immediate ₇₁	Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	62 ₇	3 ₂					

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All ALU's

Operation:

$$Rt = (Ra \ll 3) + \text{immediate}$$

Exceptions:

Notes:

ADD16UI - Add Immediate

Description:

Add a register and immediate value and place the sum in the target register. The register value is shifted left four times before the addition. The immediate is zero extended to the machine width.

Instruction Format: RI

23	19	18	14	13	9	8	2	10
Imm ₅	Ra ₅	Rt ₅	63 ₇	0 ₂				

47	25	2423	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
Immediate ₂₃		Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		63 ₇		1 ₂

71	25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
Immediate ₄₇		Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		63 ₇		2 ₂	

95	25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
Immediate ₇₁		Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆	63 ₇		3 ₂		

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All ALU's

Operation:

$$Rt = (Ra \ll 4) + \text{immediate}$$

Exceptions:

Notes:

AUIIP - Add Unsigned Immediate to Instruction Pointer

Description:

Add an immediate value to the instruction pointer and place the result in a target register. This instruction may be used in the formation of instruction pointer relative addresses.

Instruction Format: RI

23	19	18	14	13	9	8	2	1	0
Imm ₅		~ ₅		Rt ₅		58 ₇		0 ₂	

47					25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₂₃						~ ₂		~	~ ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		58 ₇		1 ₂	

71					25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₄₇						~ ₂		~	~ ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		58 ₇		2 ₂	

95					25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₇₁						~ ₂		~	~ ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		58 ₇		3 ₂	

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All ALU's

Operation:

$$Rt = IP + \text{immediate}$$

Exceptions:

Notes:

BYTENDX – Character Index

Description:

This instruction searches Ra, which is treated as an array of characters, for a character value specified by Rb and places the index of the character into the target register Rt. If the character is not found -1 is placed in the target register. A common use would be to search for a null character. The index result may vary from -1 to +7. The index of the first found byte is returned (closest to zero). The result is -1 if the character could not be found.

A masking operation may be performed on the Ra operand to allow searches for ranges of characters according to an immediate constant. For instance, the constant could be set to 0x78 and the mask 'anded' with Ra to search for any ascii control character.

Rb may be replaced by an immediate value.

Supported Operand Sizes: .b, .w, .t

Instruction Format: R3 (byte)

47	41	40	39	38	37	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
37 ₇	Bi	Op ₂	Mask ₈			Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	107 ₇	1 ₂						

Op2	Mask Operation
0	a
1	a & imm
2	a imm
3	a ^ imm

Operation:

$Rt = \text{Index of } (Rb \text{ in } \text{Mask}(Ra))$

Execution Units: All Integer ALU's

Exceptions: none

Notes:

CHK/CHKU – Check Register Against Bounds

Description:

A register, Ra, is compared to two values. If the register is outside of the bounds defined by Rb and Rc then an exception specified by the cause code will occur. Comparisons may be signed (CHK) or unsigned (CHKU), indicated by 'S', 1 = signed, 0 = unsigned. The constant Offs₆ is multiplied by three and added to the instruction pointer address of the CHK instruction and stored on an internal stack. This allows a return to a point up to 192 bytes after the CHK. Typical values are zero or two.

The CHK type given by the Op₄ field is copied to the CAUSE CSR register as the info field.

Instruction Format: R3

47	44	43	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Op ₄		~ ₇		Nc		Rc ₆		Nb		Rb ₆		Nb		Ra ₆		S	Offs ₆	112 ₇	1 ₂

Op ₄	exception when not	
0	Ra >= Rb and Ra < Rc	
1	Ra >= Rb and Ra <= Rc	
2	Ra > Rb and Ra < Rc	
3	Ra > Rb and Ra <= Rc	
4	Not (Ra >= Rb and Ra < Rc)	
5	Not (Ra >= Rb and Ra <= Rc)	
6	Not (Ra > Rb and Ra < Rc)	
7	Not (Ra > Rb and Ra <= Rc)	
8	Ra >= CPL	CHKCPL – code privilege level
9	Ra <= CPL	CHKDPL – data privilege level
10	Ra == SC	Stack canary check

Operation:

IF check failed
PUSH SR onto internal stack
PUSH IP plus Offs₆ * 3 onto internal stack
Cause = CHK
Cause.info = Op₄

IP = vector at (tvec[3] + cause*8)

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: Integer ALU

Exceptions: bounds check

Notes:

The system exception handler will typically transfer processing back to a local exception handler.

CNTLO – Count Leading Ones

Description:

This instruction counts the number of consecutive one bits beginning at the most significant bit towards the least significant bit for the register Ra.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
26 ₇	Op ₄	~	1 ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Nb	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂								

Opcode ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	octa
2	hexi

Operation:

Execution Units: Integer ALU #0

Clock Cycles: 1

Exceptions: none

Notes:

CNTLZ – Count Leading Zeros

Description:

This instruction counts the number of consecutive zero bits beginning at the most significant bit towards the least significant bit for the register Ra.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
26 ₇	Op ₄	~	0 ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Nb	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂								

Opcode ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	octa
2	hexi

Operation:

Execution Units: Integer ALU #0

Clock Cycles: 1

Exceptions: none

Notes:

CNTPOP – Count Population

Description:

This instruction counts the number of bits set in a register (Ra).

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
26 ₇	Op ₄	~	2 ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Nb	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂								

Opcode ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	octa
2	hexi

Operation:

Execution Units: Integer ALU #0

Clock Cycles: 1

Exceptions: none

Notes:

CNTTZ – Count Trailing Zeros

Description:

This instruction counts the number of consecutive zero bits beginning at the least significant bit towards the most significant bit. This instruction can also be used to get the position of the first one bit from the right-hand side.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
26 ₇	Op ₄	~	6 ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Nb	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂								

Opcode ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	octa
2	hexi

Operation:

Execution Units: Integer ALU #0

Clock Cycles: 1

Exceptions: none

Notes:

CPUID – Get CPU Info

Description:

This instruction returns general information about the core. The sum of Rb and register Ra is used as a table index to determine which row of information to return.

Supported Operand Sizes: N/A

Instruction Formats: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
7 ₇		~ ₄		~		Uimm ₆	Nb		Rb ₆	Na		Ra ₆	Nt		Rt ₆	107 ₇		1 ₂	

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: ALU #0 only

Operation:

$Rt = \text{Info}([imm+Ra+Rb])$

Exceptions: none

Index	bits	Information Returned
0	0 to 63	The processor core identification number. This field is determined from an external input. It would be hard wired to the number of the core in a multi-core system.
2	0 to 63	Manufacturer name first eight chars “Finitron”
3	0 to 63	Manufacturer name last eight characters
4	0 to 63	CPU class “64BitSS”
5	0 to 63	CPU class
6	0 to 63	CPU Name “Qupls”
7	0 to 63	CPU Name
8	0 to 63	Model Number “M2”
9	0 to 63	Serial Number “1234”
10	0 to 63	Features bitmap
11	0 to 31	Instruction Cache Size (32kB)
11	32 to 63	Data cache size (64kB)
12	0 to 7	Maximum vector length – number of elements
13	0 to 7	Maximum vector length in bytes

CSR – Control and Special Registers Operations

Description:

Perform an operation on a CSR. The previous value of the CSR is placed in the target register.

Operation	Op ₃	Mnemonic
Read CSR	0	CSRRD
Write CSR	1	CSRRW
Or to CSR (set bits)	2	CSRRS
And complement to CSR (clear bits)	3	CSRRC
Reserved	4	
Write Immediate CSR	5	CSRRW
Or Immediate to CSR	6	CSRRS
And Immediate complement to CSR	7	CSRRC

Supported Operand Sizes: N/A

Instruction Formats: CSR

47	45	40	37	36	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Op ₃	~	Regno ₁₄				Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	7 ₇			1 ₂		

Instruction Formats: CSRI

47	45	40	37	36	23	22	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Op ₃	~	Regno ₁₄				Uimm ₇		Nt	Rt ₆	7 ₇			1 ₂	

Notes:

The top two bits of the Regno field correspond to the operating mode.

LOADA – Load Address

Description:

This instruction computes the scaled indexed virtual address and places it in the target register. It matches the format used by the load and store instructions.

Instruction Format: d[Ra+Rb*]

47	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₁₆	~ ₂	SC ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	88 ₇	1 ₂	

71	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₄₀	~ ₂	SC ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	88 ₇	2 ₂	

95	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₆₄	~ ₂	SC ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	88 ₇	3 ₂	

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All ALU's

Operation:

$$Rt = Ra + Rb * \text{Scale} + \text{displacement}$$

Exceptions:

Notes:

PTRDIF – Difference Between Pointers

Asm: PTRDIF Rt, Ra, Rb, Rc

Description:

Subtract two values then shift the result right. Both operands must be in a register. The right shift is provided to accommodate common object sizes. It may still be necessary to perform a divide operation after the PTRDIF to obtain an index into odd sized or large objects.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
32 ₇	Op ₄	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂							

Opcode ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	Octa
2	Hexi

Op4		Operation	Comment
0	PTRDIF	$Rt = \text{abs}(Ra - Rb) \gg Rc_{[5:0]}$	
1	AVG	$Rt = (Ra + Rb) \gg Rc_{[5:0]}$, trunc	Arithmetic shift right
2	AVG	$Rt = (Ra + Rb) \gg Rc_{[5:0]}$, round up	Arithmetic shift right
3		Reserved	
8	PTRDIF	$Rt = \text{abs}(Ra - Rb) \gg Uimm_6$	
9	AVG	$Rt = (Ra + Rb) \gg Uimm_6$, trunc	Arithmetic shift right
10	AVG	$Rt = (Ra + Rb) \gg Uimm_6$, round up	Arithmetic shift right
11		Reserved	

Operation:

$Rt = \text{Abs}(Ra - Rb) \gg Rc_{[5:0]}$

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: ALU #0 only

Exceptions:

None

MAJ – Majority Logic

Description:

Determines the bitwise majority of three values in registers Ra, Rb and Rc and places the result in the target register Rt.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
14 ₇	~ ₄	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂								

Opcode ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	octa
2	hexi

Execution Units: ALU #0 only

Operation:

$$Rt = (Ra \& Rb) | (Ra \& Rc) | (Rb \& Rc)$$

SQRT – Square Root

Description:

This instruction computes the integer square root of the contents of the source operand and places the result in Rt.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
26 ₇	Op ₄	~	4 ₆	~	~ ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂								

Opcode ₇	Precision	Clocks
104	Byte parallel	
105	Wyde parallel	
106	Tetra parallel	
107	octa	72
2	hexi	

Operation:

$Rt = \text{SQRT}(Ra)$

Execution Units: Integer ALU #0 Only

Exceptions: none

Notes:

SUBFI – Subtract from Immediate

Description:

Subtract a register from an immediate value and place the difference in the target register. The immediate is sign extended to the machine width.

Instruction Format: RI

23	19	18	14	13	9	8	2	1	0
Imm ₅		Ra ₅		Rt ₅		5 ₇		0 ₂	

47				25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₂₃					Prc ₂		Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		5 ₇		1 ₂	

71				25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₄₇					Prc ₂		Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		5 ₇		2 ₂	

95				25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₇₁					Prc ₂		Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		5 ₇		3 ₂	

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All ALUs, all FPUs

Operation:

$$Rt = \text{immediate} - Ra$$

Exceptions:

Notes:

TETRANDX – Character Index

Description:

This instruction searches Ra, which is treated as an array of characters, for a character value specified by Rb and places the index of the character into the target register Rt. If the character is not found -1 is placed in the target register. A common use would be to search for a null character. The index result may vary from -1 to +1. The index of the first found tetra is returned (closest to zero). The result is -1 if the character could not be found.

A masking operation may be performed on the Ra operand to allow searches for ranges of characters according to an immediate constant. For instance, the constant could be set to 0x1F8 and the mask 'anded' with Ra to search for any ascii control character.

Supported Operand Sizes: .b, .w, .t

Instruction Format: R3 (tetra)

47	41	40	39:38	37	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
39 ₇	Bi	Op ₂	Mask ₈	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	107 ₇	1 ₂						

Op ₂	Mask Operation
0	a
1	a & imm
2	a imm
3	a ^ imm

Operation:

Rt = Index of (Rb in Ra)

Execution Units: All Integer ALU's

Exceptions: none

Notes:

WYDENDX – Character Index

Description:

This instruction searches Ra, which is treated as an array of characters, for a character value specified by Rb and places the index of the character into the target register Rt. If the character is not found -1 is placed in the target register. A common use would be to search for a null character. The index result may vary from -1 to +3. The index of the first found wyde is returned (closest to zero). The result is -1 if the character could not be found.

A masking operation may be performed on the Ra operand to allow searches for ranges of characters according to an immediate constant. For instance, the constant could be set to 0xF8 and the mask 'anded' with Ra to search for any ascii control character.

Supported Operand Sizes: .b, .w, .t

Instruction Format: R3 (wyde)

Instruction Format: R3 (byte)

47	41	40	3938	37	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
38 ₇	Bi	Op ₂	Mask ₈	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	107 ₇	1 ₂						

Op2	Mask Operation
0	a
1	a & imm
2	a imm
3	a ^ imm

Operation:

Rt = Index of (Rb in Ra)

Execution Units: All Integer ALU's

Exceptions: none

Notes:

Multiply / Divide

BMM – Bit Matrix Multiply

BMM Rt, Ra, Rb

Description:

The BMM instruction treats the bits of register Ra and register Rb as an 8x8 matrix and performs a bit matrix multiply of the two registers and stores the result in the target register. An alternate mnemonic for this instruction is MOR.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	38	37	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
34 ₇	Op ₃	~	~ ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	107 ₇	1 ₂								

Operation:

for I = 0 to 7

for j = 0 to 7

$$Rt.bit[i][j] = (Ra[i][0] \& Rb[0][j]) \mid (Ra[i][1] \& Rb[1][j]) \mid \dots \mid (Ra[i][7] \& Rb[7][j])$$

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: First Integer ALU

Exceptions: none

Notes:

The bits are numbered with bit 63 of a register representing I,j = 0,0 and bit 0 of the register representing I,j = 7,7.

DIV – Signed Division

Description:

Divide source dividend operand by divisor operand and place the quotient in the target register. All registers are integer registers. Arithmetic is signed twos-complement values.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
17 ₇	Op ₄	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Nb	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	0 ₂							

Opcode ₇	Precision	Clocks
104	Byte parallel	
105	Wyde parallel	
106	Tetra parallel	
107	octa	34
2	hexi	

OP ₄		Mnemonic
0	Rt = (Ra / Rb) & Rc	DIV_AND
1	Rt = (Ra / Rb) Rc	DIV_OR
2	Rt = (Ra / Rb) ^ Rc	DIV_EOR
3	Rt = (Ra / Rb) + Rc	DIV_ADD
others	Reserved	

Operation:

$$Rt = Ra / Rb$$

Execution Units: ALU #0 Only

Exceptions: DBZ

Notes:

DIVI – Signed Immediate Division

Description:

Divide source dividend operand by divisor operand and place the quotient in the target register. All registers are integer registers. Arithmetic is signed twos-complement values.

Instruction Format: RI

23	19	18	14	13	9	8	2	10
Imm ₅	Ra ₅	Rt ₅	13 ₇	0 ₂				

47	25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
Immediate ₂₃				Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	13 ₇	1 ₂		

71	25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
Immediate ₄₇				Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	13 ₇	2 ₂		

95	25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
Immediate ₇₁				Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	13 ₇	3 ₂		

Operation:

$$Rt = Ra / Imm$$

Execution Units: ALU #0 Only

Exceptions: none

Notes:

DIVU – Unsigned Division

Description:

Divide source dividend operand by divisor operand and place the quotient in the target register. All registers are integer registers. Arithmetic is unsigned twos-complement values.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
20 ₇	Op ₄	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Nb	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	0 ₂								

Opcode ₇	Precision	Clocks
104	Byte parallel	
105	Wyde parallel	
106	Tetra parallel	
107	octa	34
2	hexi	

OP ₄		Mnemonic
0	Rt = (Ra * Rb) & Rc	MUL_AND
1	Rt = (Ra * Rb) Rc	MUL_OR
2	Rt = (Ra * Rb) ^ Rc	MUL_EOR
3	Rt = (Ra * Rb) + Rc	MUL_ADD
others	Reserved	

Operation:

$$Rt = Ra / Rb$$

Execution Units: ALU #0 Only

Exceptions: none

Notes:

DIVUI – Unsigned Immediate Division

Description:

Divide source dividend operand by divisor operand and place the quotient in the target register. All registers are integer registers. Arithmetic is unsigned twos-complement values.

Instruction Format: RI

23	19	18	14	13	9	8	2	10
Imm ₅	Ra ₅	Rt ₅	21 ₇	0 ₂				

47	25	2423	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
Immediate ₂₃		Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		21 ₇		1 ₂

71	25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
Immediate ₄₇		Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		21 ₇		2 ₂	

95	25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
Immediate ₇₁		Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆	21 ₇		3 ₂		

Operation:

$$Rt = Ra / Imm$$

Execution Units: ALU #0 Only

Exceptions: none

Notes:

MUL – Multiply Register-Register

Description:

Multiply two registers and place the product in the target register. All registers are integer registers. Values are treated as signed integers.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
16 ₇	Op ₄	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Nb	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	0 ₂								

Opcode ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	octa
2	hexi

OP ₄		Mnemonic
0	$Rt = (Ra * Rb) \& Rc$	MUL_AND
1	$Rt = (Ra * Rb) Rc$	MUL_OR
2	$Rt = (Ra * Rb) ^ Rc$	MUL_EOR
3	$Rt = (Ra * Rb) + Rc$	MUL_ADD
others	Reserved	

Operation: R2

$$Rt = Ra * Rb + Rc$$

Clock Cycles: 4

Execution Units: All Integer ALUs

Exceptions: none

Notes:

MULI - Multiply Immediate

Description:

Multiply a register and immediate value and place the product in the target register. The immediate is sign extended to the machine width. Values are treated as signed integers.

Instruction Format: RI

23	19	18	14	13	9	8	2	10
Imm ₅	Ra ₅	Rt ₅	6 ₇	0 ₂				

47		25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
Immediate ₂₃			Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	6 ₇	1 ₂				

71		25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
Immediate ₄₇			Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	6 ₇	2 ₂				

95		25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
Immediate ₇₁			Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	6 ₇	3 ₂				

Clock Cycles: 4

Execution Units: All ALUs

Operation:

$$Rt = Ra * \text{immediate}$$

Exceptions:

Notes:

MULSU – Multiply Signed Unsigned

Description:

Multiply two registers and place the product in the target register. All registers are integer registers. The first operand is signed, the second unsigned.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
21 ₇	Op ₄	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Nb	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	0 ₂								

Opcode ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	octa
2	hexi

Operation: R2

$$Rt = Ra * Rb + Rc$$

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All Integer ALUs

Exceptions: none

Notes:

MULU – Unsigned Multiply Register-Register

Description:

Multiply two registers and place the product in the target register. All registers are integer registers. Values are treated as unsigned integers.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
19 ₇	Op ₄	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Nb	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	0 ₂								

Opcode ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	octa
2	hexi

OP ₄		Mnemonic
0	$Rt = (Ra * Rb) \& Rc$	MUL_AND
1	$Rt = (Ra * Rb) Rc$	MUL_OR
2	$Rt = (Ra * Rb) ^ Rc$	MUL_EOR
3	$Rt = (Ra * Rb) + Rc$	MUL_ADD
9	$Rt = (Ra * Imm) Rc$	MUL_OR
others	Reserved	

Operation: R2

$$Rt = Ra * Rb + Rc$$

Clock Cycles: 4

Execution Units: All Integer ALUs

Exceptions: none

Notes:

MULUI - Multiply Unsigned Immediate

Description:

Multiply a register and immediate value and place the product in the target register. The immediate is sign extended to the machine width. Values are treated as unsigned integers.

Instruction Format: RI

23	19	18	14	13	9	8	2	1	0
Imm ₅		Ra ₅		Rt ₅		14 ₇		0 ₂	

47		25	2423	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
Immediate ₂₃			Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		14 ₇		1 ₂

71		25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₄₇			Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		14 ₇		2 ₂		

95		25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₇₁			Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		14 ₇		3 ₂		

Clock Cycles: 4

Execution Units: All ALUs

Operation:

$$Rt = Ra * \text{immediate}$$

Exceptions:

Notes:

REM – Signed Remainder

Description:

Divide source dividend operand by divisor operand and place the remainder in the target register. All registers are integer registers. Arithmetic is signed twos-complement values.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
25 ₇	Op ₄	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Nb	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	0 ₂							

Opcode ₇	Precision	Clocks
104	Byte parallel	
105	Wyde parallel	
106	Tetra parallel	
107	octa	34
2	hexi	

OP ₄		Mnemonic
0	$Rt = (Ra \% Rb) \& Rc$	REM_AND
1	$Rt = (Ra \% Rb) Rc$	REM_OR
2	$Rt = (Ra \% Rb) ^ Rc$	REM_EOR
3	$Rt = (Ra \% Rb) + Rc$	REM_ADD
others	Reserved	

Operation:

$Rt = Ra \% Rb$

Execution Units: ALU #0 Only

Exceptions: DBZ

Notes:

REMU – Unsigned Remainder

Description:

Divide source dividend operand by divisor operand and place the remainder in the target register. All registers are integer registers. Arithmetic is unsigned twos-complement values.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
28 ₇	Op ₄	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Nb	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	0 ₂							

Opcode ₇	Precision	Clocks
104	Byte parallel	
105	Wyde parallel	
106	Tetra parallel	
107	octa	34
2	hexi	

OP ₄		Mnemonic
0	Rt = (Ra % Rb) & Rc	REMU_AND
1	Rt = (Ra % Rb) Rc	REMU_OR
2	Rt = (Ra % Rb) ^ Rc	REMU_EOR
3	Rt = (Ra % Rb) + Rc	REMU_ADD
others	Reserved	

Operation:

$Rt = Ra \% Rb$

Execution Units: ALU #0 Only

Exceptions: none

Notes:

Data Movement

BMAP – Byte Map

Description:

First the target register is cleared, then bytes are mapped from the 8-byte source Ra into bytes in the target register. This instruction may be used to permute the bytes in register Ra and store the result in Rt. This instruction may also pack bytes, wydes or tetras. The map is determined by the low order 32-bits of register Rc. Bytes which are not mapped will end up as zero in the target register. Each nybble of the 32-bit value indicates the target byte in the target register.

Instruction Format: R3

BMAP Rt, Ra, Rb

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
35 ₇	Op ₄	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂							

Opcode ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	octa
2	hexi

Sz2	Unit Operated On
0	Bytes
1	wydes
2	tetras

Op4		
0	Byte map	Uses Rc
1	Reverse byte order	
2	Broadcast byte	
3	Mix	
4	Shuffle	
5	Alt	
6 to 15	reserved	

Operation:

Vector Operation

Execution Units: First Integer ALU

Exceptions: none

Notes:

CMOV – Conditional Move if Non-Zero

CMOV Rt, Ra, Rb, Rc

Description:

If Ra is non-zero then the target register is set to Rb, otherwise the target register is to Rc.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
12 ₇		~ ₄		Nc		Rc ₆	Nb		Rb ₆	Na		Ra ₆	Nt		Rt ₆	Opc ₇		1 ₂

Opcode ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	octa
2	hexi

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: ALU #0 only

Operation:

If Ra then
 Rt = Rb
else
 Rt = Rc

Exceptions: none

MAX3 – Maximum Signed Value

Description:

Determines the maximum of three values in registers Ra, Rb and Rc and places the result in the target register Rt. Operands values are treated as signed integers.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
18 ₇	2 ₄	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opc ₇	1 ₂							

Opcode ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	Octa
2	Hexi

Execution Units: ALU #0 only

Operation:

IF (Ra > Rb and Ra > Rc)

Rt = Ra

Else if (Rb > Rc)

Rt = Rb

Else

Rt = Rc

MAXU3 – Maximum Unsigned Value

Description:

Determines the maximum of three values in registers Ra, Rb and Rc and places the result in the target register Rt. Operands values are treated as unsigned integers.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
23 ₇	2 ₄	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opc ₇	1 ₂								

Opcode ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	octa
2	hexi

Execution Units: ALU #0 only

Operation:

IF ($Ra > Rb$ and $Ra > Rc$)

$Rt = Ra$

Else if ($Rb > Rc$)

$Rt = Rb$

Else

$Rt = Rc$

MID3 – Middle Value

Description:

Determines the middle value of three values in registers Ra, Rb and Rc and places the result in the target register Rt.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
18 ₇	1 ₄	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opc ₇	1 ₂							

Opcode ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	octa
2	hexi

Execution Units: ALU #0 only

Operation:

IF ($Ra > Rb$ and $Ra < Rc$)

Rt = Ra

Else if ($Rb > Ra$ and $Rb < Rc$)

Rt = Rb

Else

Rt = Rc

MIDU3 – Middle Unsigned Value

Description:

Determines the middle value of three values in registers Ra, Rb and Rc and places the result in the target register Rt.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
23 ₇	1 ₄	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opc ₇	1 ₂							

Opcode ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	octa
2	hexi

Execution Units: ALU #0 only

Operation:

IF ($Ra > Rb$ and $Ra < Rc$)

Rt = Ra

Else if ($Rb > Ra$ and $Rb < Rc$)

Rt = Rb

Else

Rt = Rc

MIN3 – Minimum Value

Description:

Determines the minimum of three values in registers Ra, Rb and Rc and places the result in the target register Rt. Values are treated as signed integers.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
18 ₇		0 ₄		Nc		Rc ₆	Nb		Rb ₆	Na		Ra ₆	Nt		Rt ₆	Opc ₇		1 ₂	

Opcode ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	octa
2	hexi

Execution Units: ALU #0 only

Operation:

IF ($Ra < Rb$ and $Ra < Rc$)

$Rt = Ra$

Else if ($Rb < Rc$)

$Rt = Rb$

Else

$Rt = Rc$

MINU3 – Minimum Unsigned Value

Description:

Determines the minimum of three values in registers Ra, Rb and Rc and places the result in the target register Rt. Values are treated as unsigned integers.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
23 ₇	0 ₄	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opc ₇	1 ₂								

Opcode ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	octa
2	hexi

Execution Units: ALU #0 only

Operation:

IF ($Ra < Rb$ and $Ra < Rc$)

$Rt = Ra$

Else if ($Rb < Rc$)

$Rt = Rb$

Else

$Rt = Rc$

MOVE – Move Register to Register

Description:

Move register-to-register. This instruction may move between different types of registers. Raw binary data is moved. No data conversions are applied. Some registers are accessible only in specific operating modes. Some registers are read-only. Normally referencing the stack pointer register r31 will map to the stack pointer according to the operating mode, however the 'A' bit of the instruction may be set to disable this.

Instruction Format: R1

23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
A	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	15 ₇	0 ₂				

Operation: R2

Rt = Ra

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All Integer ALU's

Exceptions: none

Notes:

Ra ₆ / Rt ₆	Register file	Mode Access	RW
0 to 30	General purpose registers 0 to 30	USHM	RW
31	Safe stack pointer	SHM	RW
32	User stack pointer	USHM	RW
33	Supervisor stack pointer	SHM	RW
34	Hypervisor stack pointer	HM	RW
35	Machine stack pointer	M	RW
36 to 39	Micro-code temporaries #0 to #3	HM	RW
40	micro-code link register	HM	RW
41 to 43	Link registers	USHM	RW
44 to 63		USHM	RW

MUX – Multiplex

MUX Rt, Ra, Rb, Rc

Description:

If element Ra is set then the element of the target register is set to the corresponding element in Rb, otherwise the element in the target register is set to the corresponding element in Rc.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
35 ₇	Op ₄	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Op _{c7}	1 ₂								

Mnemonic	Opcode ₇	OP ₄	Precision
MUXB	104	0	byte
MUXW	105	0	wyde
MUXT	106	0	tetra
MUXO	107	0	octa
MUXH	2	0	hexi
MUX	107	1	Bit

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: ALU #0 only

Operation (bit):

For n = 0 to 63

If Ra_[n] is set then

Rt_[n] = Rb_[n]

else

Rt_[n] = Rc_[n]

Exceptions: none

REV – Reverse Order

Description:

This instruction reverses the order of bits in Ra and stores the result in Rt.

Instruction Format: R1

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
26 ₇	Op ₄	~	5 ₆	~	~ ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂								

Opcode ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	octa
2	hexi

Op ₄	Precision	Mnemonic
0	bit	REVBIT
1	Bit pair	REVBITP
2	nybble	REVN
3	Byte	REVB
4	wyde	RE VW
5	tetra	REVT
6	octa	REVO

Operation:

Execution Units: ALU #0 Only

Clock Cycles: 1

Exceptions: none

Notes:

SX – Sign Extend

SXB Rt, 7

Description:

A value in a target register is sign extended from the specified bit.

Instruction Format: R1

23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
0	1	Imm ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	3 ₇	0 ₂				

23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
1	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	3 ₇	0 ₂				

Operation:

Clock Cycles:

Execution Units: All Integer ALUs

Exceptions: none

Notes:

ZX – Zero Extend

ZXB Rt, 7

Description:

A value in a target register is zero extended from the specified bit.

Instruction Format: R1

23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
0	0	Imm ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	3 ₇	0 ₂				

Operation:

Clock Cycles:

Execution Units: All Integer ALUs

Exceptions: none

Notes:

Logical Operations

AND – Bitwise And

Description:

And three registers and place the result in the target register. All register values are integers. If Rc is not used, it is assumed to be zero.

Instruction Format: R3

23	19	18	14	13	9	8	2	1	0
Rb ₅		Ra ₅		Rt ₅		16 ₇		0 ₂	

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
0 ₇		Op ₄		Nc	Rc ₆		Nb	Rb ₆		Nb	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		Opcode ₇		1 ₂	

Operation:

Opcode ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	octa
2	hexi

OP ₄		Mnemonic
0	Rt = (Ra & Rb) & Rc	AND_AND
1	Rt = (Ra & Rb) Rc	AND_OR
2	Rt = (Ra & Rb) ^ Rc	AND_EOR
3	Rt = (Ra & Rb) + Rc	AND_ADD
4 to 7	Reserved	

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All Integer ALUs, all FPU's

Exceptions: none

Notes:

ANDI - Add Immediate

Description:

And a register and immediate value and place the result in the target register. The immediate is one extended to the machine width.

Instruction Format: RI

23	19	18	14	13	9	8	2	1	0
Imm ₅		Ra ₅		Rt ₅		8 ₇		0 ₂	

47				25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₂₃					Prc ₂		Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		8 ₇		1 ₂	

71				25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₄₇					Prc ₂		Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		8 ₇		2 ₂	

95				25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₇₁					Prc ₂		Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		8 ₇		3 ₂	

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All ALUs, all FPUs

Operation:

$$Rt = Ra + \text{immediate}$$

Exceptions:

Notes:

EOR – Bitwise Exclusive Or

Description:

Bitwise exclusively or three registers and place the result in the target register. All registers are integer registers.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
2 ₇	Op ₄	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Nb	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂								

OP ₄		Mnemonic
0	$Rt = (Ra \wedge Rb) \& Rc$	EOR_AND
1	$Rt = (Ra \wedge Rb) Rc$	EOR_OR
2	$Rt = (Ra \wedge Rb) \wedge Rc$	EOR_EOR
3	$Rt = (Ra \wedge Rb) + Rc$	EOR_ADD
4 to 14	Reserved	
15	$Rt = (\wedge Ra) \wedge (\wedge Rb) \wedge (\wedge Rc)$	PAR (triple parity)

Operation: R3

$$Rt = Ra \wedge Rb \wedge Rc$$

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All Integer ALUs, all FPU's

Exceptions: none

Notes:

EORI – Exclusive Or Immediate

Description:

Exclusive Or a register and immediate value and place the sum in the target register.
The immediate is zero extended to the machine width.

Instruction Format: RI

23	19	18	14	13	9	8	2	1	0
Imm ₅		Ra ₅		Rt ₅		10 ₇		0 ₂	

47				25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₂₃					Prc ₂		Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		10 ₇		1 ₂	

71				25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₄₇					Prc ₂		Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		10 ₇		2 ₂	

95				25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₇₁					Prc ₂		Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		10 ₇		3 ₂	

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All ALUs, all FPUs

Operation:

$$Rt = Ra \wedge \text{immediate}$$

Exceptions:

Notes:

OR – Bitwise Or

Description:

Bitwise or three registers and place the result in the target register. All registers are integer registers.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
1 ₇	Op ₄	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Nb	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂								

Operation:

OP ₄		Mnemonic
0	$Rt = (Ra \mid Rb) \& Rc$	OR_AND
1	$Rt = (Ra \mid Rb) \mid Rc$	OR_OR
2	$Rt = (Ra \mid Rb) \wedge Rc$	OR_EOR
3	$Rt = (Ra \mid Rb) + Rc$	OR_ADD
4 to 14	Reserved	
15	$Rt = (Ra \& Rb) \mid (Ra \& Rc) \mid (Rb \& Rc)$	MAJ

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All Integer ALUs, all FPU's

Exceptions: none

Notes:

ORI – Inclusive Or Immediate

Description:

Inclusive Or a register and immediate value and place the sum in the target register.
The immediate is zero extended to the machine width.

Instruction Format: RI

23	19	18	14	13	9	8	2	1	0
Imm ₅		Ra ₅		Rt ₅		9 ₇		0 ₂	

47				25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₂₃					Prc ₂		Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		9 ₇		1 ₂	

71				25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₄₇					Prc ₂		Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		9 ₇		2 ₂	

95				25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₇₁					Prc ₂		Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		9 ₇		3 ₂	

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All ALUs, all FPUs

Operation:

$Rt = Ra \mid \text{immediate}$

Exceptions:

Notes:

Comparison Operations

Overview

There are two basic types of comparison operators. The first type, compare, returns a bit vector indicating the relationship between the operands, the second type, set, returns a false or a constant depending on the result of the comparison.

CMP - Comparison

Description:

Compare two source operands and place the result in the target register. The result is a bit vector identifying the relationship between the two source operands as signed integers. The compare may be cumulative by or'ing the result of previous comparisons with the current one. This may be used to test for the presence or absence of data in an array.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
3 ₇	Op ₄	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Nb	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	0 ₂								

31	27	26	22	21	17	16	12	11	7	6	0
3 ₅	Rc ₈	Rb ₅	Ra ₅	Rt ₅	7 ₉						

Op ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	octa
2	hexi

OP ₄		Mnemonic
0	Rt = (Ra ? Rb) & Rc	CMP_AND
1	Rt = (Ra ? Rb) Rc	CMP_OR
2	Rt = (Ra ? Rb) ^ Rc	CMP_EOR
3	Rt = (Ra ? Rb) + Rc	CMP_ADD
4 to 14	Reserved	
15	Range Check	CMP_RNG

F_{n4}	Unsigned	Signed	Comparison Test
0	EQ	ENOR	Equal
1	NE	EOR	not equal
2	LTU	LT	less than
3	LEU	LE	less than or equal
4	GEU	GE	greater or equal
5	GTU	GT	greater than
6	BC		Bit clear
7	BS		Bit set
8	BC		Bit clear imm
9	BS		Bit set imm
10	NANDB	NAND	And zero
11	ANDB	AND	And non-zero
12	NORB	NOR	Or zero
13	ORB	OR	Or non-zero
15			
others			reserved

Operation:

$R_t = R_a ? R_b$

$R_t = (R_a ? R_b) | R_c$; cumulative

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All Integer ALUs, all FPU's

Exceptions: none

Notes:

Rt Bit	Mnem.	Meaning	Test
		Integer Compare Results	
0	EQ	= equal	$a == b$
1	NE	< > not equal	$a <> b$
2	LT	< less than	$a < b$
3	LE	<= less than or equal	$a <= b$
4	GE	>= greater than or equal	$a >= b$
5	GT	> greater than	$a > b$
6	BC	Bit clear	$!a[b]$
7	BS	Bit set	$a[b]$

Range Check:

Rt Bit	Mnem.	Meaning	Test
		Integer Compare Results	
0	GEL		$a >= b \text{ and } a < c$
1	GELE		$a >= b \text{ and } a <= c$
2	GL		$a > b \text{ and } a < c$
3	GLE		$a > b \text{ and } a <= c$
4	NGEL		Not $(a >= b \text{ and } a < c)$
5	NGELE		Not $(a >= b \text{ and } a <= c)$
6	NGL		Not $(a > b \text{ and } a < c)$
7	NGLE		Not $(a > b \text{ and } a <= c)$

CMPI – Compare Immediate

Description:

Compare two source operands and place the result in the target register. The result is a vector identifying the relationship between the two source operands as signed integers.

Operation:

$Rt = Ra ? Imm$

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All Integer ALUs, all FPU's

Exceptions: none

Notes:

Instruction Format: RI

23	19	18	14	13	9	8	2	1	0
Imm ₅		Ra ₅		Rt ₅		11 ₇		0 ₂	

47		25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₂₃				Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		11 ₇		1 ₂	

71		25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₄₇				Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		11 ₇		2 ₂	

95		25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₇₁				Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		11 ₇		3 ₂	

Rt Bit	Mnem.	Meaning	Test
		Integer Compare Results	
0	EQ	= equal	$a == b$
1	NE	< > not equal	$a <> b$
2	LT	< less than	$a < b$
3	LE	<= less than or equal	$a <= b$
4	GE	>= greater than or equal	$a >= b$
5	GT	> greater than	$a > b$
6	BC	Bit clear	$!a[b]$

7	BS	Bit set	a[b]
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CMPU – Unsigned Comparison

Description:

Compare two source operands and place the result in the target register. The result is a bit vector identifying the relationship between the two source operands as signed integers. The compare may be cumulative by or'ing the result of previous comparisons with the current one. This may be used to test for the presence or absence of data in an array.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
6 ₇	Op ₄	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Nb	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	0 ₂								

Op ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	octa
2	hexi

OP ₄		Mnemonic
0	$Rt = (Ra \text{ ? } Rb) \& Rc$	CMPU_AND
1	$Rt = (Ra \text{ ? } Rb) Rc$	CMPU_OR
2	$Rt = (Ra \text{ ? } Rb) ^ Rc$	CMPU_EOR
3	$Rt = (Ra \text{ ? } Rb) + Rc$	CMPU_ADD
4 to 14	Reserved	
15	Range Check	CMPU_RNG

F_{n4}	Unsigned	Signed	Comparison Test
0	EQ	ENOR	Equal
1	NE	EOR	not equal
2	LTU	LT	less than
3	LEU	LE	less than or equal
4	GEU	GE	greater or equal
5	GTU	GT	greater than
6	BC		Bit clear
7	BS		Bit set
8	BC		Bit clear imm
9	BS		Bit set imm
10	NANDB	NAND	And zero
11	ANDB	AND	And non-zero
12	NORB	NOR	Or zero
13	ORB	OR	Or non-zero
15			
others			reserved

Operation:

$R_t = R_a \text{ ? } R_b$

$R_t = (R_a \text{ ? } R_b) | R_c$; cumulative

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All Integer ALUs, all FPU's

Exceptions: none

Notes:

Rt Bit	Mnem.	Meaning	Test
		Integer Compare Results	
0	EQ	= equal	$a == b$
1	NE	< > not equal	$a <> b$
2	LT	< less than	$a < b$
3	LE	<= less than or equal	$a <= b$
4	GE	>= greater than or equal	$a >= b$
5	GT	> greater than	$a > b$
6	BC	Bit clear	$!a[b]$
7	BS	Bit set	$a[b]$

Range Check:

Rt Bit	Mnem.	Meaning	Test
		Integer Compare Results	
0	GEL		$a >= b \text{ and } a < c$
1	GELE		$a >= b \text{ and } a <= c$
2	GL		$a > b \text{ and } a < c$
3	GLE		$a > b \text{ and } a <= c$
4	NGEL		Not ($a >= b \text{ and } a < c$)
5	NGELE		Not ($a >= b \text{ and } a <= c$)
6	NGL		Not ($a > b \text{ and } a < c$)
7	NGLE		Not ($a > b \text{ and } a <= c$)

CMPUI – Compare Immediate

Description:

Compare two source operands and place the result in the target register. The result is a vector identifying the relationship between the two source operands as unsigned integers.

Operation:

$R_t = R_a ? Imm$

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All Integer ALUs, all FPU's

Exceptions: none

Notes:

Instruction Format: RI

23	19	18	14	13	9	8	2	1	0
Imm ₅		Ra ₅		Rt ₅		19 ₇		0 ₂	

47		25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₂₃				Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		19 ₇		1 ₂	

71		25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₄₇				Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		19 ₇		2 ₂	

95		25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₇₁				Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		19 ₇		3 ₂	

Rt Bit	Mnem.	Meaning	Test
		Integer Compare Results	
0	EQ	= equal	$a == b$
1	NE	< > not equal	$a <> b$
2	LT	< less than	$a < b$
3	LE	<= less than or equal	$a <= b$
4	GE	>= greater than or equal	$a >= b$
5	GT	> greater than	$a > b$
6	BC	Bit clear	$!a[b]$

7	BS	Bit set	a[b]
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CMOVEQ – Conditional Move if Equal

CMOVEQ Rt, Ra, Rb, Rc, Imm₄

Description:

Compare two source operands {Ra, Rb} for equality and if equal place Rc in target register, otherwise place N in target register. N may be either the original value of the target register, or a constant from -7 to +7.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
96 ₇	N ₄	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Nb	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂								

Operation: R3

$Rt = (Ra == Rb) ? Rc : N == 8 ? Rt : N$

Opc ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	octa
2	hexi

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All Integer ALUs

Exceptions: none

Notes:

CMOVLE – Conditional Move if Less Than or Equal

CMOVLE Rt, Ra, Rb, Rc, Imm₄

Description:

Compare two source operands {Ra, Rb} for Ra less than or equal to Rb and if so place Rc in target register, otherwise place N in target register. N may be either the original value of the target register, or a constant from -7 to +7.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
99 ₇	N ₄	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Nb	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂							

Operation: R3

$Rt = (Ra \leq Rb) ? Rc : N == 8 ? Rt : N$

Opc ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	octa
2	hexi

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All Integer ALUs

Exceptions: none

Notes:

CMOVLt – Conditional Move if Less Than

CMOVLt Rt, Ra, Rb, Rc, Imm₄

Description:

Compare two source operands {Ra, Rb} for Ra less than Rb and if so place Rc in target register, otherwise place N in target register. N may be either the original value of the target register, or a constant from -7 to +7.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
98 ₇	N ₄	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Nb	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂								

Operation: R3

$Rt = (Ra < Rb) ? Rc : N == 8 ? Rt : N$

Opc ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	octa
2	hexi

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All Integer ALUs

Exceptions: none

Notes:

CMOVNE – Conditional Move if Not Equal

CMOVNE Rt, Ra, Rb, Rc, Imm₄

Description:

Compare two source operands {Ra, Rb} for inequality and if not equal place Rc in target register, otherwise place N in target register. N may be either the original value of the target register, or a constant from -7 to +7.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
97 ₇	N ₄	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Nb	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂							

Operation: R3

$Rt = (Ra == Rb) ? Rc : N == 8 ? Rt : N$

Opc ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	octa
2	hexi

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All Integer ALUs

Exceptions: none

Notes:

SEQI –Set if Equal

SEQ Rt, Ra, imm

Description:

Compare two source operands for equality and place the result in the target predicate register. The result is a Boolean value of one. The first operand is in a register, the second operand is an immediate constant.

Instruction Format: R3

47	25	24 23	22	21 16	15	14 9	8	2	1 0
Immediate ₂₃	Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	22 ₇	1 ₂		

71	25	24 23	22	21 16	15	14 9	8	2	1 0
Immediate ₄₇	Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	22 ₇	2 ₂		

95	25	24 23	22	21 16	15	14 9	8	2	1 0
Immediate ₇₁	Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	22 ₇	3 ₂		

Operation: R3

$Rt = (Ra == Imm) ? 1 : Rt$

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All Integer ALUs

Exceptions: none

Notes:

SLE – Set if Less or Equal

SLE Rt, Ra, Rb, Rc, Imm₄

Description:

Compare two source operands {Ra, RB} for signed less than or equal to and if Ra is less than or equal to Rb place Rc in target register, otherwise place N in target register. N may be either the original value of the target register, or a constant from -7 to +7.

Instruction Format: R3

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10				
99 ₇		N ₄		Nc		Rc ₆		Nb		Rb ₆		Nb		Ra ₆		Nt		Rt ₆		Opcode ₇		1 ₂

Operation: R3

$Rt = (Ra \leq Rb) ? Rc : N == 8 ? Rt : N$

Opc ₇	Precision
104	Byte parallel
105	Wyde parallel
106	Tetra parallel
107	octa
2	hexi

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All Integer ALUs

Exceptions: none

Notes:

ZSEQL –Zero or Set if Equal

ZSEQ Rt, Ra, imm

Description:

Compare two source operands for equality and place the result in the target predicate register. The result is a Boolean value of one or zero. The first operand is in a register, the second operand is an immediate constant.

Instruction Format: R3

47	25	2423	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
Immediate ₂₃		Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		94 ₇		1 ₂

71	25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₄₇			Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		94 ₇		2 ₂	

95	25	24	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₇₁		Prc ₂	Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		94 ₇		3 ₂		

Operation: R3

$Rt = (Ra == Imm) ? 1 : 0$

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All Integer ALUs

Exceptions: none

Notes:

Shift, Rotate and Bitfield Operations

Shift instructions can take the place of some multiplication and division instructions. Some architectures provide shifts that shift only by a single bit. Others use counted shifts, the original 80x88 used multiple clock cycles to shift by an amount stored in the CX register. Table888 and Thor use a barrel shifter to allow shifting by an arbitrary amount in a single clock cycle. Shifts are infrequently used, and a barrel (or funnel) shifter is relatively expensive in terms of hardware resources.

Qupls2 has a full complement of shift instructions including rotates.

Precision

Qupls2 supports four precisions for shift operations.

Opcode ₇	Precision
80	Byte parallel
81	Wyde parallel
82	Tetra parallel
83	octa

CLR – Clear Bit Field

Description:

Clear a bitfield in a target register pair. This is an alternate mnemonic for the deposit, DEP, instruction where the value to deposit is zero.

Instruction Format: SHIFT

47	44	43	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
5 ₄		~ ₇		Nc		Rc ₆	0		0 ₆	Na		Ra ₆	Nt		Rt ₆	Opcode ₇		1 ₂	

Instruction Format: SHIFTI

47	44	43	37	36	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
13 ₄		ME ₇		MB ₇		0		0 ₆	Na		Ra ₆	Nt		Rt ₆	Opcode ₇		1 ₂	

Operation:

{Ra, Rt}[ME:MB] = 0

Clock Cycles:

Execution Units: All Integer ALUs

Exceptions: none

Notes:

COM – Complement Bit Field

COM Rt, Ra, Rc

Description:

This is an alternate mnemonic for the DEPXOR instruction where the value to xor is -1.

A bit field in the source operand is one's complemented and the result placed in the target register. Rb specifies the first bit of the bitfield, Rc specifies the last bit of the bitfield. Immediate constants may be substituted for Rb and Rc.

Instruction Format: SHIFT

47	44	43	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
6 ₄	~ ₇	Nc	Rc ₆	1	0 ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂							

Instruction Format: SHIFTI

47	44	43	37	36	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
14 ₄	ME ₇	MB ₇	1	0 ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂							

Operation:

$$\{Ra, Rt\}[ME:MB] = \{Ra, Rt\}[ME:MB] \wedge -1$$

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All Integer ALUs

Exceptions: none

Notes:

DEP –Deposit Bitfield

Description:

Deposit a value into a bit-field which may span two words.

Left shift an operand value by an operand value and place the result in the target registers {Ra, Rt}. The register shifted is specified by Rb. The third operand may be either a register specified by the Rc field of the instruction, or an immediate value.

If Rc is used, mask-begin and mask-end are specified by bits 0 to 7 and 8 to 15 of the value in Rc respectively.

Instruction Format: SHIFT

47	44	43	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0			
5 ₄		~ ₇		Nc		Rc ₆		Nb		Rb ₆		Na		Ra ₆		Nt		Rt ₆		Opcode ₇		1 ₂

Instruction Format: SHIFTI

47	44	43	37	36	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10			
13 ₄		ME ₇		MB ₇		Nb		Rb ₆		Na		Ra ₆		Nt		Rt ₆		Opcode ₇		1 ₂

Operation:

{Ra, Rt}[ME:MB] = Rb

Operation Size: .o

Execution Units: integer ALU

Exceptions: none

Example:

DEPXOR –Deposit Bitfield

Description:

Exclusively Or deposit a value into a bit-field which may span two words.

Left shift an operand value by an operand value and xor the result to the target registers {Ra, Rt}. The register shifted is specified by Rb. The third operand may be either a register specified by the Rc field of the instruction, or an immediate value.

If Rc is used, mask-begin and mask-end are specified by bits 0 to 7 and 8 to 15 of the value in Rc respectively.

Instruction Format: SHIFT

47	44	43	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10				
6 ₄		~ ₇		Nc		Rc ₆		Nb		Rb ₆		Na		Ra ₆		Nt		Rt ₆		Opcode ₇		1 ₂

Instruction Format: SHIFTI

47	44	43	37	36	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10			
14 ₄		ME ₇		MB ₇		Nb		Rb ₆		Na		Ra ₆		Nt		Rt ₆		Opcode ₇		1 ₂

Operation:

$$\{Ra, Rt\}[ME:MB] = \{Ra, Rt\}[ME:MB] \wedge Rb$$

Operation Size: .o

Execution Units: integer ALU

Exceptions: none

Example:

EXT – Extract Bit Field

EXT Rt, Ra, Rb, Rc

Description:

A bit field is extracted from the source operand, sign extended, and the result placed in the target register. This is an alternate mnemonic for the SRAP instruction.

Instruction Format: SHIFT

47	44	43	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10				
2 ₄		~ ₇		Nc		Rc ₆		Nb		Rb ₆		Na		Ra ₆		Nt		Rt ₆		Opcode ₇		1 ₂

Instruction Format: SHIFTI

47	44	43	37	36	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10			
10 ₄		ME ₇		MB ₇		Nb		Rb ₆		Na		Ra ₆		Nt		Rt ₆		Opcode ₇		1 ₂

Opcode ₇	Precision
80	Byte parallel
81	Wyde parallel
82	Tetra parallel
83	octa

Operation:

$Rt = \text{sign extend}(\{Rb, Ra\}[ME:MB])$

Clock Cycles:

Execution Units: All Integer ALUs

Exceptions: none

Notes:

EXTU – Extract Unsigned Bit Field

EXTU Rt, Ra, Rb, Rc

Description:

A bit field is extracted from the source operand, zero extended, and the result placed in the target register. This is an alternate mnemonic for the SRLP instruction.

Instruction Format: SHIFT

47	44	43	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10				
1 ₄		~ ₇		Nc		Rc ₆		Nb		Rb ₆		Na		Ra ₆		Nt		Rt ₆		Opcode ₇		1 ₂

Instruction Format: SHIFTI

47	44	43	37	36	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10			
9 ₄		ME ₇		MB ₇		Nb		Rb ₆		Na		Ra ₆		Nt		Rt ₆		Opcode ₇		1 ₂

Opcode ₇	Precision
80	Byte parallel
81	Wyde parallel
82	Tetra parallel
83	octa

Operation:

$Rt = \text{zero extend}(\{Rb, Ra\}[ME:MB])$

Clock Cycles:

Execution Units: All Integer ALUs

Exceptions: none

Notes:

ROL –Rotate Left

ROL Rt, Ra, N

Description:

This is an alternate mnemonic for the SLLP instruction. Rotate left an operand value by an operand value and place the result in the target register. The most significant bits are shifted into the least significant bits. The first operand must be in a register specified by Ra and Rb. The second operand may be either a register specified by the Rc field of the instruction, or an immediate value.

Ra and Rb should specify the same register for a rotate to occur.

Instruction Format: SHIFT

47	44	43	42 37	36	35 30	29	28 23	22	21 16	15	14 9	8	2	10
0 ₄	H	~ ₆	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂		

Instruction Format: SHIFTI

47	44	43	42 37	36	30	29	28 23	22	21 16	15	14 9	8	2	10
8 ₄	H	~ ₆	Imm ₇	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂			

Operation:

$Rt = \{Rb, Ra\} \ll Rc$

Or

$Rt = \{Rb, Ra\} \ll Imm$

Operation Size: .o

Execution Units: integer ALU

Exceptions: none

Example:

SET – Set Bit Field

SET Rt, Ra, Rc

Description:

Set a bitfield in a target register pair. This is an alternate mnemonic for the deposit, DEP, instruction where the value to deposit is -1.

Instruction Format: SHIFT

47	44	43	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
5 ₄		~ ₇		Nc		Rc ₆	1		0 ₆	Na		Ra ₆		Nt		Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂

Instruction Format: SHIFTI

47	44	43	37	36	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
13 ₄		ME ₇		MB ₇		1		0 ₆	Na		Ra ₆		Nt		Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂

Operation:

{Ra, Rt}[ME:MB] = -1

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All Integer ALUs

Exceptions: none

Notes:

ROR –Rotate Right

Description:

Rotate right an operand value by an operand value and place the result in the target register. The least significant bits are shifted into the most significant bits. The first operand must be in a register specified by Ra and Rb. The second operand may be either a register specified by the Rc field of the instruction, or an immediate value.

Ra and Rb should specify the same register for a rotate to occur.

Instruction Format: SHIFT

47	44	43	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10				
1 ₄		~ ₇		Nc		Rc ₆		Nb		Rb ₆		Na		Ra ₆		Nt		Rt ₆		Opcode ₇		1 ₂

Instruction Format: SHIFTI

47	44	43	37	36	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
9 ₄	ME ₇			MB ₇		Nb	Rb ₆		Na	Ra ₆		Nt	Rt ₆		Opcode ₇		1 ₂

Opcode ₇	Precision
80	Byte parallel
81	Wyde parallel
82	Tetra parallel
83	octa

Operation:

$$Rt = \{Rb, Ra\} \gg Rc$$

Operation Size: .o

Execution Units: integer ALU

Exceptions: none

Example:

SLL –Shift Left Logical

SLL Rt, Ra, N

Description:

Left shift an operand value by an operand value and place the result in the target register. The second operand is an immediate value.

Instruction Format: SLL

23 19	18 14	13 9	8 2	1 0
Imm ₅	Ra ₅	Rt ₅	Opcode ₇	0 ₂

Operation:

$$Rt = \{Ra\} \ll Imm$$

Operation Size: .b, .w, .t, .o

Execution Units: integer ALU

Exceptions: none

Example:

SLLP –Shift Left Logical Pair

Description:

Left shift a pair of operand values by an operand value and place the result in the target register. The pair of registers shifted is specified by Ra (lower bits), Rb (upper bits). The third operand may be either a register specified by the Rc field of the instruction, or an immediate value. If the 'H' bit is set, the upper 64-bits of the result are transferred to the target register, Rt.

This instruction may be used to perform a rotate operation by specifying the same register for Ra and Rb. It may also be used to implement a ring counter by inverting Ra during the shift.

Instruction Format: SHIFT

47	44	43	42	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
0 ₄	H	~ ₆	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂								

Instruction Format: SHIFTI

47	44	43	42	37	36	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
8 ₄	H	~ ₆	Imm ₇	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂							

Operation:

$$Rt = \{Rb, Ra\} \ll Rc$$

Operation Size: .o

Execution Units: integer ALU

Exceptions: none

Example:

SRAP –Shift Right Arithmetic Pair

Description:

Right shift an operand value by an operand value and place the sign extended result in the target register. The first operand must be in a pair of registers specified by {Rb,Ra}. The second operand may be either a register specified by the Rc field of the instruction, or an immediate value.

Instruction Format: SHIFT

47	44	43	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
2 ₄	~ ₇	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂								

Instruction Format: SHIFTI

47	44	43	37	36	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
10 ₄	ME ₇	MB ₇	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂								

Opcode ₇	Precision
80	Byte parallel
81	Wyde parallel
82	Tetra parallel
83	octa

Operation:

$Rt = \{Rb, Ra\} \gg Rc$

Operation Size: .o

Execution Units: integer ALU

Exceptions: none

Example:

SRAPRZ –Shift Right Arithmetic Pair, Round toward Zero

Description:

This instruction may be used to extract bit-fields spanning two words, or it may be used to perform a simple right shift operation with appropriate settings for the mask fields.

Right shift an operand value by an operand value and place the sign extended result in the target register. The first operand must be in a pair of registers specified by {Rb,Ra}. The second operand may be either a register specified by the Rc field of the instruction, or an immediate value.

If the result is negative, then it is rounded up.

Instruction Format: SHIFT

47	44	43	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
3 ₄	~ ₇	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂								

Instruction Format: SHIFTI

47	44	43	37	36	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
11 ₄	ME ₇	MB ₇	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂								

Opcode ₇	Precision
80	Byte parallel
81	Wyde parallel
82	Tetra parallel
83	octa

Operation:

$Rt = \{Rb, Ra\} \gg Rc$

Operation Size: .o

Execution Units: integer ALU

Exceptions: none

Example:

SRAPRU –Shift Right Arithmetic Pair, Round Up

Description:

This instruction may be used to extract bit-fields spanning two words, or it may be used to perform a simple right shift operation with appropriate settings for the mask fields.

Right shift an operand value by an operand value and place the sign extended result in the target register. The first operand must be in a pair of registers specified by {Rb,Ra}. The second operand may be either a register specified by the Rc field of the instruction, or an immediate value.

One is added to the result if there was a carry out of the LSB.

Instruction Format: SHIFT

47	44	44	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
4 ₄		~ ₇		Nc		Rc ₆	Nb		Rb ₆	Na		Ra ₆	Nt		Rt ₆	Opcode ₇		1 ₂

Instruction Format: SHIFTI

47	44	43	37	36	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
12 ₄		ME ₇		MB ₇		Nb		Rb ₆	Na		Ra ₆	Nt		Rt ₆	Opcode ₇		1 ₂

Opcode ₇	Precision
80	Byte parallel
81	Wyde parallel
82	Tetra parallel
83	octa

Operation:

$Rt = \{Rb, Ra\} \gg Rc$

Operation Size: .o

Execution Units: integer ALU

Exceptions: none

Example:

SRLP –Shift Right Logical Pair

Description:

This instruction may be used to extract bit-fields spanning two words, or it may be used to perform a simple right shift operation with appropriate settings for the mask fields.

Right shift an operand value by an operand value and place the result in the target register. The first operand must be in a pair of registers specified by {Rb,Ra}. The second operand may be either a register specified by the Rc field of the instruction, or an immediate value.

Instruction Format: SHIFT

47	44	43	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
1 ₄	~ ₇	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂								

Instruction Format: SHIFTI

47	44	43	37	36	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
9 ₄	Me ₇	MB ₇	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂								

Opcode ₇	Precision
80	Byte parallel
81	Wyde parallel
82	Tetra parallel
83	octa

Operation:

$Rt = \{Rb, Ra\} \gg Rc$

Operation Size: .o

Execution Units: integer ALU

Exceptions: none

Example:

Floating-Point Operations

Precision

Three storage formats are supported for binary floats: 64-bit double precision and 32-bit single precision.

Opcode ₇	Qualifier	Precision
56	H	Half precision
48	S	Single precision
16	D	Double precision
90	Q	Quad precision

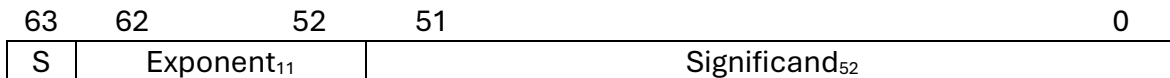
Representations

Binary Floats

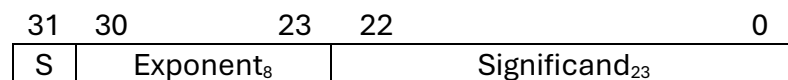
Double Precision, Float:64

The core uses a 64-bit double precision binary floating-point representation.

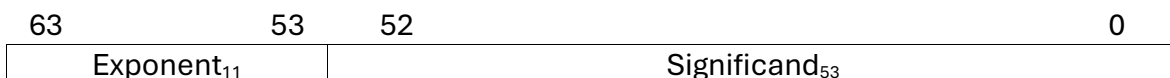
Double Precision



Single Precision, float

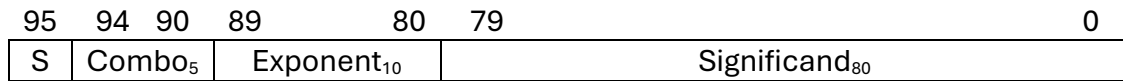


Double Precision, Two's Complement Form:



Decimal Floats

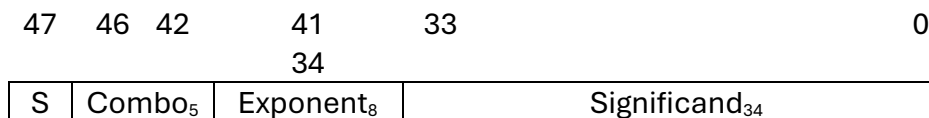
The core uses a 96-bit densely packed decimal double precision floating-point representation.



The significand stores 25 densely packed decimal digits. One whole digit before the decimal point.

The exponent is a power of ten as a binary number with an offset of 1535. Range is 10^{-1535} to 10^{1536}

48-bit single precision decimal floating point:

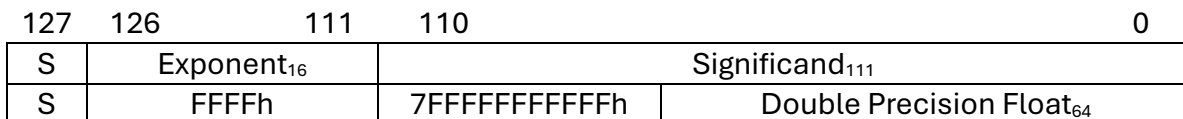


The significand stores 11 DPD digits. One whole digit before the decimal point.

NaN Boxing

Lower precision values are ‘NaN boxed’ meaning all the bits needed to extend the value to the width of the register are filled with ones. The sign bit of the number is preserved. Thus, lower precision values encountered in calculations are treated as NaNs.

Example: NaN boxed double precision value.



Rounding Modes

Binary Float Rounding Modes

Rm3	Rounding Mode
000	Round to nearest ties to even
001	Round to zero (truncate)
010	Round towards plus infinity
011	Round towards minus infinity
100	Round to nearest ties away from zero
101	Reserved
110	Reserved

111	Use rounding mode in float control register
-----	---------------------------------------------

Decimal Float Rounding Modes

Rm3	Rounding Mode
000	Round ceiling
001	Round floor
010	Round half up
011	Round half even
100	Round down
101	Reserved
110	Reserved
111	Use rounding mode in float control register

1-7-12

Immediate ₁₇	Ra ₆	Func ₃	Rt ₆	Opcode ₅	P ₃
-------------------------	-----------------	-------------------	-----------------	---------------------	----------------

Opcode ₂₅	Rc ₆	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Func ₃	Rt ₆	Opcode ₅	P ₃
----------------------	-----------------	-----------------	-----------------	-------------------	-----------------	---------------------	----------------

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0								
1								
2	Load	Store						
3	Fp20	Fp40	Fp80					

FABS – Absolute Value

Description:

This instruction computes the absolute value of the contents of the source operand and places the result in Rt. The sign bit of the value is cleared. No rounding occurs.

Integer Instruction Format: FLT1

FABS Rt, Ra

47	41	40	39	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
32 ₇	~	~ ₃	~	~ ₆	~	~ ₆	Na	Ra ₆	0	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂								

Operation:

$$Ft = \text{Abs}(Fa)$$

Execution Units: All FPU's, All ALUs

Clock Cycles: 1

Exceptions: none

Notes:

Opcode ₇		Precision	Clocks
56	H	Half precision	1
57	S	Single precision	1
58	D	Double precision	1
90	Q	Quad precision	1

FADD –Float Addition

FADD Rt, Ra, Rb

Description:

Add two source operands and place the sum in the target register. Values are treated as floating-point values.

Supported Operand Sizes:

Instruction Format: FLT

47	41	40	39	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
4 ₇	~	Rm ₃	~	~ ₆	0	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂							

Operation:

$$Rt = Ra + Rb$$

Execution Units: All FPU's

Exceptions: none

Notes:

Opcode ₇		Precision	Clocks
56	H	Half precision	8
57	S	Single precision	8
58	D	Double precision	8
90	Q	Quad precision	8

FCMP - Comparison

FCMP Rt, Ra, Rb

Description:

Compare two source operands and place the result in the target register. The result is a vector identifying the relationship between the two source operands as floating-point values. This instruction may compare against lower precision immediate values to conserve code space. The source operands are floating-point values, the target operand is an integer. No rounding occurs.

Instruction Format: FLT

47	41	40	39	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
13 ₇	~	Rm ₃	~	~ ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂							

Operation:

Rt = Ra ? Rb or Rt = Ra ? Imm

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All Integer ALUs, all FPUs

Exceptions: none

Rt bit	Mnem.	Meaning	Test
		Float Compare Results	
0	EQ	equal	!nan & eq
1	NE	not equal	!eq
2	GT	greater than	!nan & !eq & !lt & !inf
3	UGT	Unordered or greater than	Nan (!eq & !lt & !inf)
4	GE	greater than or equal	Eq (!nan & !lt & !inf)
5	UGE	Unordered or greater than or equal	Nan (!lt eq)
6	LT	Less than	Lt & (!nan & !inf & !eq)
7	ULT	Unordered or less than	Nan (!eq & lt)
8	LE	Less than or equal	Eq (lt & !nan)
9	ULE	unordered less than or equal	Nan (eq lt)
10	GL	Greater than or less than	!nan & (!eq & !inf)
11	UGL	Unordered or greater than or less than	Nan !eq

12	ORD	Greater than less than or equal / ordered	!nan
13	UN	Unordered	Nan
14		Reserved	
15		reserved	

FCONST – Load Float Constant

Description:

This instruction loads a constant from the constant ROM and places the value in Rt.

Integer Instruction Format: R1

FCONST Rt, N

47	41	40	39	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
? ₇	~	~	~ ₃	~	0 ₆	~	4 ₆	~	N ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂							

Clock Cycles: 1

Operation:

$$Ft = FConst[N]$$

Execution Units: FPU #0

Clock Cycles: 1

Exceptions: none

Notes:

N ₆	Binary64	Decimal	
0	3fe0000000000000	0.5	
1	3ff0000000000000	1.0	
2	4000000000000000	2.0	
3	3ff8000000000000	1.5	
4	0x5FE6EB50C7B537A9		Lomont reciprocal square root magic
21			
22			
23			
57	7FF0000000000000		infinity
58	7FF0000000000001		Nan – infinity - infinity
59	7FF0000000000002		Nan – infinity / infinity
60	7FF0000000000003		Nan – zero / zero
61	7FF0000000000004		Nan – infinity * zero
62	7FF0000000000005		Nan – square root of infinity
63	7FF0000000000006		Nan – square root of negative

FCOS – Float Cosine

Description:

This instruction computes an approximation of the co-sine value of the contents of the source operand and places the result in Rt.

Integer Instruction Format: R1

FCOS Rt, Ra

47	41	40	39	37	36	33	32	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
65 ₇	~	Rm ₃	~ ₄	Prc ₃	~	~ ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂								

Operation:

$Rt = \cos(Ra)$

Execution Units: FPU #0

Exceptions: none

Notes:

Prc ₃		Precision	Clocks
0	H	Half precision	24
1	S	Single precision	36
2	D	Double precision	42
3	Q	Quad precision	

Opcode ₇		Precision	Clocks
56	H	Half precision	1
57	S	Single precision	1
58	D	Double precision	1
90	Q	Quad precision	1

FMA –Float Multiply and Add

Description:

Multiply two source operands, add a third operand and place the result in the target register. All register values are treated as floating-point values.

Instruction Format: FLT3

FMA Rt, Ra, Rb, Rc

47	41	40	39	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
1 ₇	~	Rm ₃	0	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂							

Opcode ₇	Precision
56	
57	Half
58	Single
59	Double
90	Quad

Operation:

$$Rt = Ra * Rb + Rc$$

Clock Cycles: 8

Execution Units: All FPUs

Exceptions: none

Notes:

FMS –Float Multiply and Subtract

FMS Rt, Ra, Rb, Rc

Description:

Multiply two source operands, subtract a third operand and place the result in the target register. All register values are treated as quad precision floating-point values.

Instruction Format: FLT3

47	41	40	39	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
1 ₇	~	Rm ₃	1	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂							

Operation:

$$Rt = Ra * Rb - Rc$$

Clock Cycles: 8

Execution Units: All FPUs

Exceptions: none

Notes:

FNABS – Negative Absolute Value

FNABS Rt, Ra

Description:

This instruction computes the negative absolute value of the contents of the source operand and places the result in Rt. The sign bit of the value is set. No rounding occurs.

Integer Instruction Format: FLT1

47	41	40	39	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
32 ₇	~	~ ₃	~	~ ₆	~	~ ₆	Na	Ra ₆	1	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂							

Operation:

$$Ft = Fnabs(Fa)$$

Execution Units: All FPU's, All ALUs

Clock Cycles: 1

Exceptions: none

Notes:

Opcode ₇		Precision	Clocks
56	H	Half precision	1
57	S	Single precision	1
58	D	Double precision	1
90	Q	Quad precision	1

FSLT – Float Set if Less Than

FSLT Rt, Ra, Rb

Description:

Compares two source operands for less than and places the result in the target register. The target register is a predicate register. The result is a Boolean true or false. Positive and negative zero are considered equal. For FSLT if either operand is a NaN zero the result is false. No rounding occurs. This instruction may also test for greater than by swapping operands.

Instruction Formats:

47	41	40	39	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
10 ₇	~	~ ₃	~	~ ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂							

Operation:

$Rt = Ra < Rb$

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All FPU's

Exceptions: none

Notes:

FSNE – Float Set if Not Equal

FSNE Rt, Ra, Bb

Description:

Compares two source operands for equality and places the result in the target predicate register. The result is a Boolean true or false. Positive and negative zero are considered equal. 16, 32, 64, and 128-bit immediates are supported. No rounding occurs.

Instruction Format:

47	41	40	39	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
9 ₇	~	~ ₃	~	~ ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂								

Operation:

$Rt = Ra \neq Rb$ or $Rt = Ra \neq Imm$

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All FPU's

Exceptions: none

Notes:

FSQRT – Floating point square root

Description:

Take the square root of the floating-point number in register Ra and place the result into target register Rt. The sign bit (bit 63) of the register is set to zero. This instruction can generate NaNs.

Instruction Format: FLT

47	41	40	39	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
40 ₇	~	Rm ₃	~	~ ₆	~	~ ₆	Na	Ra ₆	0	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂								

Operation:

$Rt = \text{fsqrt}(Ra)$

Clock Cycles: 72

Execution Units: Floating Point

FSUB –Float Subtraction

FSUB Rt, Ra, Rb

Description:

Subtract two source operands and place the difference in the target register.

Supported Operand Sizes:

Instruction Format: FLT

47	41	40	39	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
4 ₇	~	Rm ₃	~	~ ₆	1	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂							

Operation:

$$Rt = Ra - Rb$$

Clock Cycles: 8

Execution Units: All FPUs

Exceptions: none

Notes:

FTRUNC – Truncate Value

Description:

The FTRUNC instruction truncates off the fractional portion of the number leaving only a whole value. For instance, ftrunc(1.5) equals 1.0. Ftrunc does not change the representation of the number. To convert a value to an integer in a fixed-point representation see the FTOI instruction.

Instruction Format: FLT

47	41	40	39	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
53 ₇	~	Rm ₃	~	~ ₆	~	~ ₆	Na	Ra ₆	0	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂							

Clock Cycles: 1

Execution Units: All FPUs

FTX – Trigger Floating Point Exceptions

Description:

This instruction triggers floating point exceptions. The Exceptions to trigger are identified as the bits set in the union of register Ra and an immediate field in the instruction. Either the immediate or Ra should be zero.

Instruction Format: EX

47	41	40	39	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
2 ₇	~	~ ₃	~	Uimm ₆	~	~ ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	112 ₇	1 ₂								

Execution Units: All Floating Point

Operation:

Exceptions:

Bit	Exception Enabled
0	global invalid operation
1	overflow
2	underflow
3	divide by zero
4	inexact operation
5	reserved

Load / Store Instructions

Overview

Addressing Modes

Load and store instructions primary addressing mode is scaled indexed addressing.
24-bit forms of loads and stores use register indirect with displacement addressing.

Data Type

Six data types are supported:

Opcode Load	Opcode Store	Data Type
64	72	Integer
65	73	Unsigned integer
66	74	Floating point
67	75	Decimal floating point
68	76	Posit
69	77	Capability

Precision

Prc ₂	Integer	Float	Decimal Float	Posit	Capability
0	Byte		Double		64-bit
1	Wyde	half	Quad	half	128-bit
2	Tetra	single		Single	
3	Octa	double		double	

Scaled Indexed with Displacement Format

For scaled indexed with displacement format the load or store address is the sum of register Ra, scaled register Rb, and a displacement constant found in the instruction.

Instruction Format: d[Ra+Rb*]

47	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Immediate ₁₆	Prc ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂	

71	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Immediate ₄₀	Prc ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	2 ₂	

95	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Immediate ₆₄	Prc ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	3 ₂	

CACHE <cmd>, <ea>

Description:

Issue command to cache controller.

Instruction Format: d[Ra+Rb*]

47	33	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Immediate ₁₆	Prc ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Cmd ₆	70 ₇	1 ₂	

Notes:

Cmd ₆	Cache	
???000	Ins.	Invalidate cache
???001	Ins.	Invalidate line
???010	TLB	Invalidate TLB
???011	TLB	Invalidate TLB entry
000???	Data	Invalidate cache
001???	Data	Invalidate line
010???	Data	Turn cache off
011???	Data	Turn cache on

LDsz Rn, <ea> - Load Register

Description:

Load register Rt with data from source. The source value is sign extended to the machine width. The memory address is the value in register Ra plus the value in register Rb scaled by 1,2,4,8,16,32, 64, or 128 plus a 16, 40 or 64-bit displacement.

The capabilities tag bit of the register is always cleared, unless a capabilities load instruction is taking place.

Instruction Format: d[Ra]

23	19	18	14	13	9	8	2	10
Disp ₅	Ra ₅	Rt ₅	64 ₇	0 ₂				

Instruction Format: d[Ra+Rb*Sc]

47	32	31	30	29	27	26	21	20	15	14	9	8	2	10
Displacement ₁₆	Prc ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂							

71	32	31	30	29	27	26	21	20	15	14	9	8	2	10
Displacement ₄₀	Prc ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	2 ₂							

95	32	31	30	29	27	26	21	20	15	14	9	8	2	10
Displacement ₆₄	Prc ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	Opcode ₇	3 ₂							

Prc₂

	Prc			
Opcode	0	1	2	3
64	LDB	LDW	LDT	LDO
65	LDBU	LDWU	LDTU	
66		FLDH	FLDS	FLDD
67	DFLDD	DFLDQ		
68		PLDW	PLDT	PLDO
69	LDCAPD	LDCAPQ		
70				CACHE

Execution Units: AGEN, MEM

Exceptions:

Notes:

LDB Rn, <ea> - Load Byte

Description:

Load register Rt with a byte of data from source. The source value is sign extended to the machine width. The memory address is the value in register Ra plus the value in register Rb scaled by 1,2,4,8,16,32, 64, or 128 plus a 16, 40 or 64-bit displacement.

The capabilities tag bit of the register is always cleared, unless a capabilities load instruction is taking place.

Instruction Format: d[Ra+Rb*Sc]

47	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₁₆	0 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	64 ₇	1 ₂	

71	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₄₀	0 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	64 ₇	2 ₂	

95	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₆₄	0 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	64 ₇	3 ₂	

Execution Units: AGEN, MEM

Exceptions:

Notes:

LDBU Rn, <ea> - Load Unsigned Byte

Description:

Load register Rt with a byte of data from source. The source value is zero extended to the machine width. The memory address is the value in register Ra plus the value in register Rb scaled by 1,2,4,8,16,32, 64, or 128 plus a 16, 40 or 64-bit displacement.

The capabilities tag bit of the register is always cleared, unless a capabilities load instruction is taking place.

Instruction Format: d[Ra+Rb*Sc]

47	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₁₆	0 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	65 ₇	1 ₂	

71	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₄₀	0 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	65 ₇	2 ₂	

95	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₆₄	0 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	65 ₇	3 ₂	

Execution Units: AGEN, MEM

Exceptions:

Notes:

LDO Rn, <ea> - Load Octa Byte

Description:

Load register Rt with an octa byte of data from source. The memory address is the value in register Ra plus the value in register Rb scaled by 1,2,4,8,16,32, 64, or 128 plus a 16, 40 or 64-bit displacement.

The capabilities tag bit of the register is always cleared, unless a capabilities load instruction is taking place.

Instruction Format: d[Ra]

For this format, the displacement is shift left three times before use.

23	19	18	14	13	9	8	2	1	0
Disp ₅			Ra ₅		Rt ₅		64 ₇		0 ₂

Instruction Format: d[Ra+Rb*Sc]

47	32	31	30	29	27	26	21	20	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Displacement ₁₆				3 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆		Ra ₆		Rt ₆		64 ₇		1 ₂	

71	32	31	30	29	27	26	21	20	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Displacement ₄₀				3 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆		Ra ₆		Rt ₆		64 ₇		2 ₂	

95	32	31	30	29	27	26	21	20	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Displacement ₆₄				3 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆		Ra ₆		Rt ₆		64 ₇		3 ₂	

Execution Units: AGEN, MEM

Exceptions:

Notes:

LOAD Rn, <ea> - Load

Description:

This is an alternate mnemonic for the LDO instruction. Load register Rt with an octa byte of data from source. The memory address is the value in register Ra plus the value in register Rb scaled by 1,2,4,8,16,32, 64, or 128 plus a 16, 40 or 64-bit displacement.

The capabilities tag bit of the register is always cleared, unless a capabilities load instruction is taking place.

Instruction Format: d[Ra]

For this format, the displacement is shift left three times before use.

23	19	18	14	13	9	8	2	10
Disp ₅	Ra ₅	Rt ₅	64 ₇	0 ₂				

Instruction Format: d[Ra+Rb*Sc]

47	32	31	30	29	27	26	21	20	15	14	9	8	2	10
Displacement ₁₆				3 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	64 ₇	1 ₂				

71	32	31	30	29	27	26	21	20	15	14	9	8	2	10
Displacement ₄₀				3 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	64 ₇	2 ₂				

95	32	31	30	29	27	26	21	20	15	14	9	8	2	10
Displacement ₆₄				3 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	64 ₇	3 ₂				

Execution Units: AGEN, MEM

Exceptions:

Notes:

LDT Rn, <ea> - Load Tetra

Description:

Load register Rt with a tetra byte (4 bytes) of data from source. The source value is sign extended to the machine width. The memory address is the value in register Ra plus the value in register Rb scaled by 1,2,4,8,16,32, 64, or 128 plus a 16, 40 or 64-bit displacement.

The capabilities tag bit of the register is always cleared, unless a capabilities load instruction is taking place.

Instruction Format: d[Ra+Rb*Sc]

47	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₁₆	2 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	64 ₇	1 ₂	

71	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₄₀	2 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	64 ₇	2 ₂	

95	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₆₄	2 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	64 ₇	3 ₂	

Execution Units: AGEN, MEM

Exceptions:

Notes:

LDTU Rn, <ea> - Load Unsigned Tetra

Description:

Load register Rt with a tetra byte of data from source. The source value is zero extended to the machine width. The memory address is the value in register Ra plus the value in register Rb scaled by 1,2,4,8,16,32, 64, or 128 plus a 16, 40 or 64-bit displacement.

The capabilities tag bit of the register is always cleared, unless a capabilities load instruction is taking place.

Instruction Format: d[Ra+Rb*Sc]

47	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₁₆	2 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	65 ₇	1 ₂	

71	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₄₀	2 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	65 ₇	2 ₂	

95	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₆₄	2 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	65 ₇	3 ₂	

Execution Units: AGEN, MEM

Exceptions:

Notes:

LDW Rn, <ea> - Load Wyde

Description:

Load register Rt with a wyde of data from source. The source value is sign extended to the machine width. The memory address is the value in register Ra plus the value in register Rb scaled by 1,2,4,8,16,32, 64, or 128 plus a 16, 40 or 64-bit displacement.

The capabilities tag bit of the register is always cleared, unless a capabilities load instruction is taking place.

Instruction Format: d[Ra+Rb*Sc]

47	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₁₆	1 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	64 ₇	1 ₂	

71	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₄₀	1 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	64 ₇	2 ₂	

95	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₆₄	1 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	64 ₇	3 ₂	

Execution Units: AGEN, MEM

Exceptions:

Notes:

LDWU Rn, <ea> - Load Unsigned Wyde

Description:

Load register Rt with a wyde of data from source. The source value is zero extended to the machine width. The memory address is the value in register Ra plus the value in register Rb scaled by 1,2,4,8,16,32, 64, or 128 plus a 16, 40 or 64-bit displacement.

The capabilities tag bit of the register is always cleared, unless a capabilities load instruction is taking place.

Instruction Format: d[Ra+Rb*Sc]

47	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₁₆	1 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	65 ₇	1 ₂	

71	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₄₀	1 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	65 ₇	2 ₂	

95	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₆₄	1 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	65 ₇	3 ₂	

Execution Units: AGEN, MEM

Exceptions:

Notes:

STsz Rn, <ea> - Store Register

Description:

Store register Rs to memory. The memory address is the value in register Ra plus the value in register Rb scaled by 1,2,4,8,16,32, 64, or 128 plus a 16, 40 or 64-bit displacement.

Instruction Format: d[Ra]

23	19	18	14	13	9	8	2	10
Disp ₅	Ra ₅	Rs ₅	72 ₇	0 ₂				

Instruction Format: d[Ra+Rb*Sc]

47		32	31	30	29	27	26	21	20	15	14	9	8	2	10
Immediate ₁₆					Prc ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rs ₆	Opcode ₇	1 ₂				

Prc₂

	Prc			
Opcode	0	1	2	3
72	STB	STW	STT	STO
73	STIB	STIW	STIT	STIO
74		FSTH	FSTS	FSTD
75				DFSTD
76		PSTW	PSTT	PSTO
77	STCAPD	STCAPQ		
78	STPTRT	STPTR		

Execution Units: AGEN, MEM

Exceptions:

Notes:

STIsz \$N, <ea> - Store Immediate to Memory

Description:

Store an immediate value to memory. The immediate value stored may be extended up to 64-bits with a postfix instruction. The memory address is the value in register Ra plus the value in register Rb scaled by 1,2,4,8,16,32, 64, or 128 plus a 16, 40 or 64-bit displacement.

Instruction Format: d[Ra]

23	19	18	14	13	9	8	2	10
Disp ₅	Ra ₅	Imm ₅	73 ₇	0 ₂				

Instruction Format: d[Ra+Rb*Sc]

47	32	31	30	29	27	26	21	20	15	14	9	8	2	10
Displacement ₁₆	Prc ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Imm ₆	73 ₇	1 ₂							

71	32	31	30	29	27	26	21	20	15	14	9	8	2	10
Displacement ₄₀	Prc ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Imm ₆	73 ₇	2 ₂							

95	32	31	30	29	27	26	21	20	15	14	9	8	2	10
Displacement ₆₄	Prc ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Imm ₆	73 ₇	3 ₂							

Prc₂

	Prc			
Opcode	0	1	2	3
72	STB	STW	STT	STO
73	STIB	STIW	STIT	STIO
74		FSTH	FSTS	FSTD
75				DFSTD
76		PSTW	PSTT	PSTO

STB Rn, <ea> - Store Register

Description:

Store the lowest byte from register Rs to memory. The memory address is the value in register Ra plus the value in register Rb scaled by 1,2,4,8,16,32, 64, or 128 plus a 16, 40 or 64-bit displacement.

Instruction Format: d[Ra+Rb*Sc]

47	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Immediate ₁₆	O ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rs ₆	7 ₂	1 ₂	

71	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₄₀	O ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	7 ₂	2 ₂	

95	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₆₄	O ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	7 ₂	3 ₂	

Execution Units: AGEN, MEM

Exceptions:

Notes:

STO Rn, <ea> - Store Register

Description:

Store register Rs to memory. The memory address is the value in register Ra plus the value in register Rb scaled by 1,2,4,8,16,32, 64, or 128 plus a 16, 40 or 64-bit displacement.

Instruction Format: d[Ra]

For this format, the displacement is shift left three times before use.

23	19	18	14	13	9	8	2	1	0
Disp ₅		Ra ₅		Rs ₅		72 ₇		0 ₂	

Instruction Format: d[Ra+Rb*Sc]

47		32	31	30	29	27	26	21	20	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₁₆				3 ₂		Sc ₃		Rb ₆		Ra ₆		Rs ₆		72 ₇		1 ₂

71		32	31	30	29	27	26	21	20	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Displacement ₄₀				3 ₂		Sc ₃		Rb ₆		Ra ₆		Rt ₆		72 ₇		2 ₂

95		32	31	30	29	27	26	21	20	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
Displacement ₆₄				3 ₂		Sc ₃		Rb ₆		Ra ₆		Rt ₆		72 ₇		3 ₂

Execution Units: AGEN, MEM

Exceptions:

Notes:

STORE Rn, <ea> - Store Register

Description:

This is an alternate mnemonic for the [STO](#) instruction. Store register Rs to memory. The memory address is the value in register Ra plus the value in register Rb scaled by 1,2,4,8,16,32, 64, or 128 plus a 16, 40 or 64-bit displacement.

Instruction Format: d[Ra]

For this format, the displacement is shift left three times before use.

23	19	18	14	13	9	8	2	1	0
Disp ₅		Ra ₅		Rs ₅		72 ₇		0 ₂	

Instruction Format: d[Ra+Rb*Sc]

47	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Immediate ₁₆		3 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rs ₆	72 ₇	1 ₂

71	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₄₀		3 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	72 ₇	2 ₂

95	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₆₄		3 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	72 ₇	3 ₂

Execution Units: AGEN, MEM

Exceptions:

Notes:

STPTR Rn, <ea> - Store Pointer

Description:

Store a 64-bit pointer from register Rs to memory. The memory address is the value in register Ra plus the value in register Rb scaled by 1,2,4,8,16,32, 64, or 128 plus a 16, 40 or 64-bit displacement. Storing a pointer to memory also updates the hardware card table, indicating roughly where the pointer was stored.

Instruction Format: d[Ra]

For this format, the displacement is shift left three times before use.

23	19	18	14	13	9	8	2	10
Disp ₅	Ra ₅	Rs ₅	78 ₇	0 ₂				

Instruction Format: d[Ra+Rb*Sc]

47	32	31	30	29	27	26	21	20	15	14	9	8	2	10
Immediate ₁₆				1 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rs ₆	78 ₇	1 ₂				

71	32	31	30	29	27	26	21	20	15	14	9	8	2	10
Displacement ₄₀				1 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	78 ₇	2 ₂				

95	32	31	30	29	27	26	21	20	15	14	9	8	2	10
Displacement ₆₄				1 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	78 ₇	3 ₂				

Execution Units: AGEN, MEM

Exceptions:

Notes:

STT Rn, <ea> - Store Register

Description:

Store the lowest tetra from register Rs to memory. The memory address is the value in register Ra plus the value in register Rb scaled by 1,2,4,8,16,32, 64, or 128 plus a 16, 40 or 64-bit displacement.

Instruction Format: d[Ra+Rb*Sc]

47	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Immediate ₁₆	2 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rs ₆	7 ₂	1 ₂	

71	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₄₀	2 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	7 ₂	2 ₂	

95	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₆₄	2 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	7 ₂	3 ₂	

Execution Units: AGEN, MEM

Exceptions:

Notes:

STW Rn, <ea> - Store Register

Description:

Store the lowest wyde from register Rs to memory. The memory address is the value in register Ra plus the value in register Rb scaled by 1,2,4,8,16,32, 64, or 128 plus a 16, 40 or 64-bit displacement.

Instruction Format: d[Ra+Rb*Sc]

47	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Immediate ₁₆	1 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rs ₆	7 ₂	1 ₂	

71	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₄₀	1 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	7 ₂	2 ₂	

95	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₆₄	1 ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	7 ₂	3 ₂	

Execution Units: AGEN, MEM

Exceptions:

Notes:

Branch / Flow Control Instructions

Overview

Mnemonics

There are mnemonics for specifying the comparison method. Floating-point comparisons prefix the branch mnemonic with 'F' as in FBEQ. Decimal-floating point comparisons prefix the branch mnemonic with 'DF' as in DFBEQ. And finally posit comparisons prefix the branch mnemonic with a 'P' as in 'PBEQ'. There is no prefix for integer branches. For branches that increment register Ra, the mnemonic is prefixed with an 'I' as in 'IBNE'.

Predicated Execution

Branch instructions will execute only if both the predicate and branch condition are true.

Conditions

Conditional branches branch to the target address only if the condition is true. The condition is determined by the comparison or logical / arithmetic operation of two general-purpose registers.

The original Thor machine used instruction predicates to implement conditional branching. Another instruction was required to set the predicate before branching. Combining compare and branch in a single instruction may reduce the dynamic instruction count. An issue with comparing and branching in a single instruction is that it may lead to a wider instruction format.

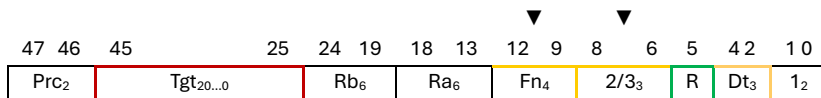
Conditional Branch Format

Branches are 48-bit opcodes.

A 32-bit opcode does not leave a large enough target field for all cases and would end up using two or more instructions to implement most branches. With the prospect of using two instructions to perform compare then branches as many architectures do, it is more space efficient to simply use a wider instruction format.

Branch Conditions

The branch opcode determines the condition under which the branch will execute.



3x	2x	Data Type Compared
30h	28h	(Unsigned) Address
31h	29h	(Signed) Integers
32h	2Ah	Reserved
33h	2Bh	Decimal Float
34h	2Ch	Binary Float
35h	2Dh	Posit
36h	2Eh	Incr. Integer
37h	2Fh	Decr. Integer

Integer / Address Conditions

Fn ₄	Unsigned	Signed	Comparison Test
2	LTU	LT	less than
4	GEU	GE	greater or equal
3	LEU	LE	less than or equal
5	GTU	GT	greater than
0	EQ / ENORB	ENOR	Equal
1	NE / EORB	EOR	not equal
6	BC		Bit clear
7	BS		Bit set
8	BC		Bit clear imm
9	BS		Bit set imm
10	NANDB	NAND	And zero
11	ANDB	AND	And non-zero
12	NORB	NOR	Or zero
13	ORB	OR	Or non-zero
15	IRQ	BADDO	IPL > SR.IM
others			reserved

Float Conditions

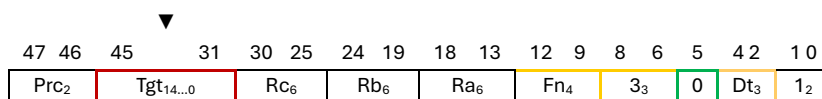
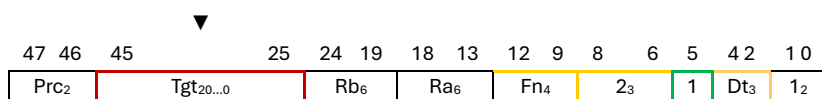
F _{n4}	Mnem.	Meaning	Test
0	EQ	equal	$!nan \ \& \ eq$
1	NE	not equal	$!eq$
2	GT	greater than	$!nan \ \& \ !eq \ \& \ !lt \ \& \ !inf$
3	UGT	Unordered or greater than	$Nan \ \ (!eq \ \& \ !lt \ \& \ !inf)$
4	GE	greater than or equal	$Eq \ \ (!nan \ \& \ !lt \ \& \ !inf)$
5	UGE	Unordered or greater than or equal	$Nan \ \ (!lt \ \ eq)$
6	LT	Less than	$Lt \ \& \ (!nan \ \& \ !inf \ \& \ !eq)$
7	ULT	Unordered or less than	$Nan \ \ (!eq \ \& \ lt)$
8	LE	Less than or equal	$Eq \ \ (lt \ \& \ !nan)$
9	ULE	unordered less than or equal	$Nan \ \ (eq \ \ lt)$
10	GL	Greater than or less than	$!nan \ \& \ (!eq \ \& \ !inf)$
11	UGL	Unordered or greater than or less than	$Nan \ \ !eq$
12	ORD	Greater than less than or equal / ordered	$!nan$
13	UN	Unordered	Nan
14		Reserved	
15		reserved	

Branch Target

Conditional Branches

For conditional branches, the target address is formed in one of three ways. **One**, as the sum of the instruction pointer and a constant specified in the instruction. Relative branches have a range of approximately $\pm 3\text{MB}$ or 22.5 displacement bits. The target field contains an instruction number relative displacement to the target location. This is the byte displacement divided by three. Encoding targets in this way allows fewer bits to be used to encode the target. Within a subroutine, instructions will always be a multiple of three bytes apart. **Two**, as the absolute address specified by the target address field multiplied by three. Absolute address branching must be selected by setting the 'ab' bit in the processor status register. **Three**, the target address may come from the contents of register Rc.

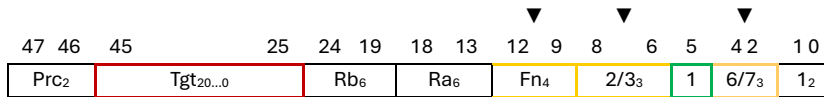
The target displacement field is recommended to be at least 16-bits. It is possible to get by with a displacement as small as 12-bits before a significant percentage of branches must be implemented as two or more instructions. The author decided to use a division by three since instructions are multiples of three bytes in size and the target must be a multiple of three bytes away from the branches IP. Dividing by three effectively adds 1 1/2 more displacement bits.



R	Target
1	Displacement / Address
0	Register Indirect (Rc)

Incrementing / Decrementing Branches

Branches may increment or decrement the Ra register by one after performing the branch comparison or logical operation. The opcode field of the instruction indicates when a change should occur. Incrementing or decrementing branches make use of both the flow control unit and an ALU at the same time.



Opcode	Effect on Ra
Other	No change
46/54	Increment Ra
47/55	Decrement Ra

Unconditional Branches

Note that for unconditional branches the target displacement field is byte relative. This occurs because code functions or subroutines may be relocated at byte addresses. An unconditional subroutine branch call is usually performed to go outside of the current subroutine to a target routine that may be at any byte address. The target displacement field is large enough to accommodate a $\pm 2^{35}$ range.



Jumps and Subroutine Calls

The unconditional jump ([JMP](#), [CJMP](#)) and jump-to-subroutine ([JSR](#), [CJSR](#)) instructions use scaled indexed addressing to perform direct address jumps and memory indirect jumps. Refer to the documentation of the instructions for more details.

BAND –Branch if Logical And True

BAND Ra, Rb, label

Description:

Branch if the logical and of source operands results in a non-zero value. The displacement is relative to the address of the branch instruction. This ‘and’ operation reduces the source operand values to a Boolean true or false before performing the operation. A non-zero value is considered true, zero is considered false.

Formats Supported: BR

47	46	45		25	24	19	18	13	12	9	8	2	10
Prc ₂			Tgt _{20...0}		Rb ₆		Ra ₆		11 ₄		41 ₇		1 ₂

Register Indirect Target

47	46	45		31	30	25	24	19	18	13	12	9	8	2	10
Prc ₂			Tgt _{14...0}		Rc ₆		Rb ₆		Ra ₆		11 ₄		49 ₇		1 ₂

Clock Cycles: 13

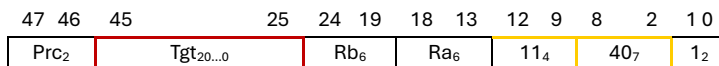
BANDB –Branch if Bitwise And True

BANDB Ra, Rb, label

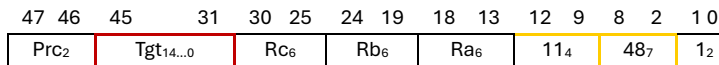
Description:

Branch if the bitwise and of source operands results in a non-zero value. The displacement is relative to the address of the branch instruction.

Formats Supported: BR



Register Indirect Target



Clock Cycles: 13

BBC – Branch if Bit Clear

Description:

This instruction branches to the target address if bit Rb of Ra is clear, otherwise program execution continues with the next instruction. For a further description see Branch Instructions.

Register Form

Formats Supported: BR

47	46	45	25	24	19	18	13	12	9	8	2	1	0
Prc ₂		Tgt _{20...0}			Rb ₆		Ra ₆		6 ₄		40 ₇		1 ₂

Register Indirect Target

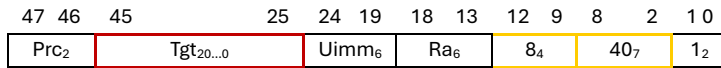
47	46	45	31	30	25	24	19	18	13	12	9	8	2	1	0
Prc ₂		Tgt _{14...0}			Rc ₆		Rb ₆		Ra ₆		6 ₄		48 ₇		1 ₂

Operation:

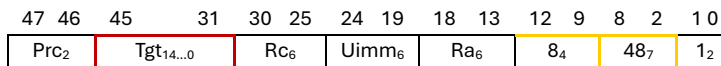
If (Ra.bit[Rb] == 0)
IP = IP + Constant

Immediate Form

Formats Supported: BR



Register Indirect Target



Operation:

If (Ra.bit[imm] == 0)
IP = IP + Constant

Clock Cycles: 13

Execution Units: Branch

Exceptions: none

Notes:

BBS – Branch if Bit Set

Description:

This instruction branches to the target address if bit Rb of Ra is set, otherwise program execution continues with the next instruction. For a further description see Branch Instructions.

Register Form

Formats Supported: BR

47	46	45		25	24	19	18	13	12	9	8	2	1	0
Prc ₂		Tgt _{20...0}				Rb ₆		Ra ₆	7 ₄		40 ₇		1 ₂	

Register Indirect Target

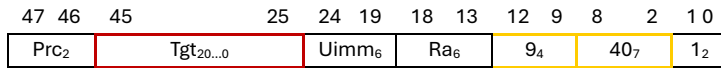
47	46	45		31	30	25	24	19	18	13	12	9	8	2	1	0
Prc ₂		Tgt _{14...0}				Rc ₆		Rb ₆		Ra ₆		7 ₄		48 ₇		1 ₂

Operation:

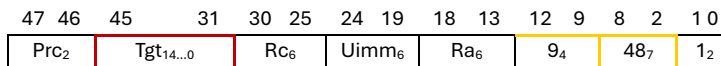
If (Ra.bit[Rb] == 1)
IP = IP + Constant

Immediate Form

Formats Supported: BR



Register Indirect Target



Operation:

If (Ra.bit[imm] == 1)
IP = IP + Constant

Clock Cycles: 13

Execution Units: Branch

Exceptions: none

Notes:

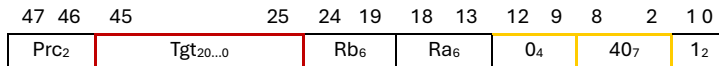
BEQ –Branch if Equal

BEQ Ra, Rb, label

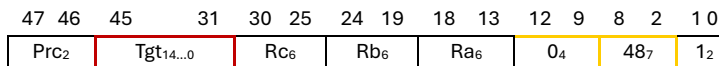
Description:

Branch if source operands are equal. Values are treated as unsigned integers.

Formats Supported: BR



Register Indirect Target



Clock Cycles: 13

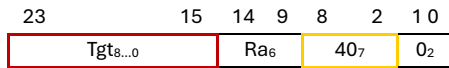
BEQZ –Branch if Equal Zero

BEQZ Ra, label

Description:

Branch if source operand is equal to zero. Values are treated as unsigned integers.

Formats Supported: BR



Clock Cycles: 13

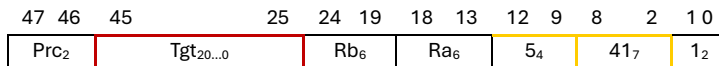
BGE –Branch if Greater than or Equal

BGE Ra, Rb, label

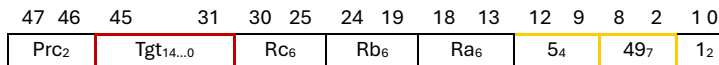
Description:

Branch if source operand Ra is greater than or equal to Rb. Values are treated as signed integers.

Formats Supported: BR



Register Indirect Target



Clock Cycles: 13

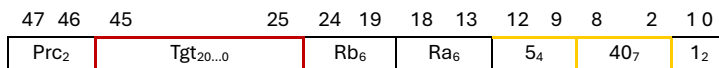
BGEU –Branch if Unsigned Greater than or Equal

BGEU Ra, Rb, label

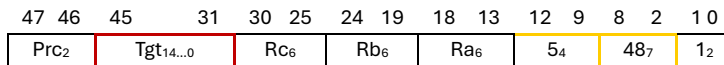
Description:

Branch if source operand Ra is greater than or equal to Rb. Values are treated as unsigned integers.

Formats Supported: BR



Register Indirect Target



Clock Cycles: 13

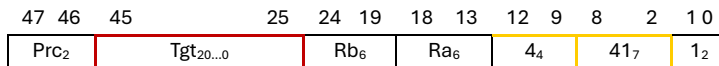
BGT –Branch if Greater Than

BGT Rm, Rn, label

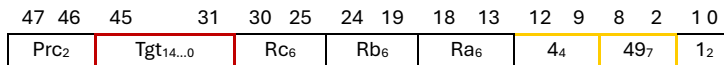
Description:

Branch if the first source operand is greater than the second. Both operands are treated as signed integer values.

Formats Supported: BR



Register Indirect Target



Clock Cycles: 13

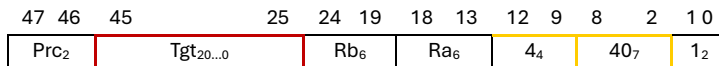
BGTU –Branch if Unsigned Greater Than

BGTU Rm, Rn, label

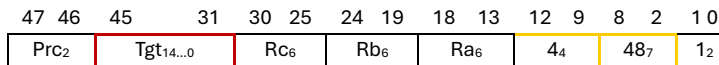
Description:

Branch if the first source operand is greater than the second. Both operands are treated as unsigned integer values.

Formats Supported: BR



Register Indirect Target



Clock Cycles: 13

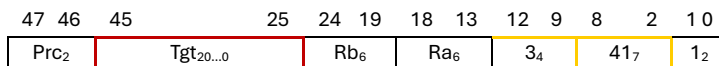
BLE –Branch if Less than or Equal

BLE Ra, Rb, label

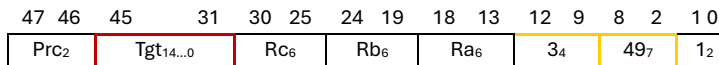
Description:

Branch if source operand Ra is less than or equal to Rb. Values are treated as signed integers.

Formats Supported: BR



Register Indirect Target



Clock Cycles: 13

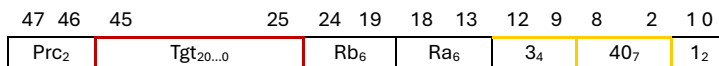
BLEU –Branch if Unsigned Less Than or Equal

BLEU Ra, Rb, label

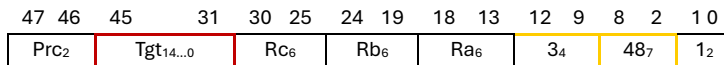
Description:

Branch if the first source operand is less than or equal to the second. Both operands are treated as unsigned integer values.

Formats Supported: BR



Register Indirect Target



Clock Cycles: 13

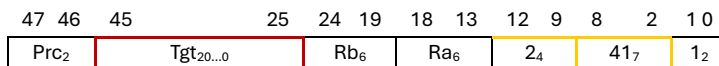
BLT –Branch if Less Than

BLT Ra, Rb, label

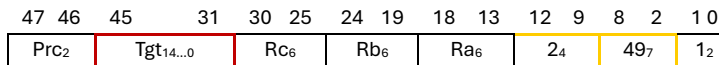
Description:

Branch if the first source operand is less than the second. Both operands are treated as signed integer values.

Formats Supported: BR



Register Indirect Target



Clock Cycles: 13

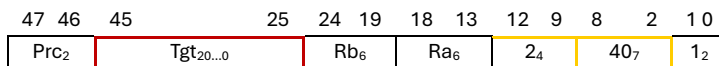
BLTU –Branch if Unsigned Less Than

BLTU Ra, Rb, label

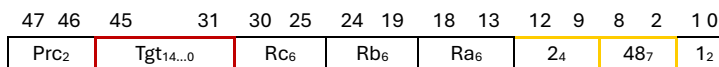
Description:

Branch if the first source operand is less than the second. Both operands are treated as unsigned integer values. The displacement is relative to the address of the branch instruction.

Formats Supported: BR



Register Indirect Target



Clock Cycles: 13

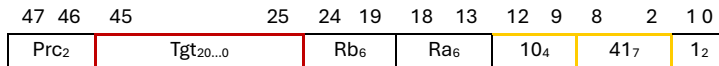
BNAND –Branch if Logical And False

BNAND Ra, Rb, label

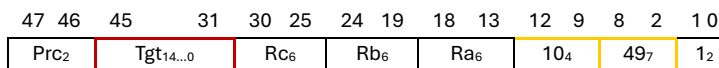
Description:

Branch if the logical ‘and’ of source operands results in a zero value.

Formats Supported: BR



Register Indirect Target



Clock Cycles: 13

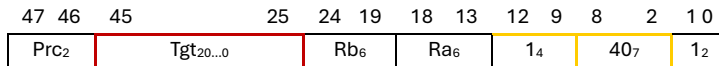
BNE –Branch if Not Equal

BNE Ra, Rb, label

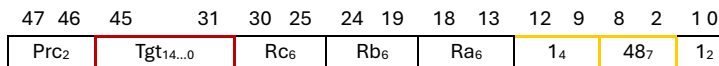
Description:

Branch if source operands are not equal. Values are treated as unsigned integers.

Formats Supported: BR



Register Indirect Target



Clock Cycles: 13

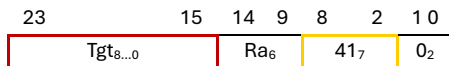
BNEZ –Branch if Not Equal Zero

BNEZ Ra, label

Description:

Branch if source operand is not equal to zero. Values are treated as unsigned integers.

Formats Supported: BR



Clock Cycles: 13

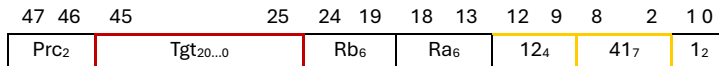
BNOR –Branch if Logical Or False

BNOR Ra, Rb, label

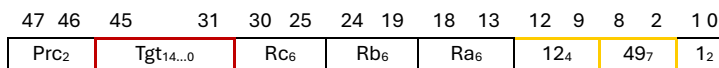
Description:

Branch if the logical ‘or’ of source operands results in a zero value.

Formats Supported: BR



Register Indirect Target



Clock Cycles: 13

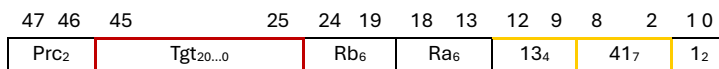
BOR –Branch if Logical Or True

BOR Ra, Rb, label

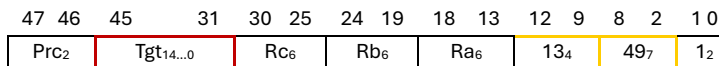
Description:

Branch if the logical or of source operands results in a non-zero value. This ‘or’ operation reduces the source operand values to a Boolean true or false before performing the operation. A non-zero value is considered true, zero is considered false.

Formats Supported: BR



Register Indirect Target



Clock Cycles: 13

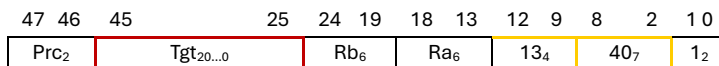
BORB –Branch if Bitwise Or True

BORB Ra, Rb, label

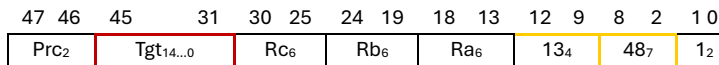
Description:

Branch if the bitwise ‘or’ of source operands results in a non-zero value. The displacement is relative to the address of the branch instruction.

Formats Supported: BR



Register Indirect Target



Clock Cycles: 13

BRANCH – Branch Always

Description:

This instruction always jumps to the target address using relative addressing. The target address range is $\pm 2^{36}$ bits. This is an alternate mnemonic for the BSR instruction where the link register is r0.

Formats Supported: BSR



Operation:

IP = IP + Constant

Execution Units: Flow Control

Clock Cycles: 13

Exceptions: none

Notes:

BSR – Branch to Subroutine

Description:

This instruction always jumps to the target address using relative addressing. The address of the next instruction is stored in a link register. The target address range is $\pm 2^{36}$ bits.

Formats Supported: BSR



Operation:

Lkt = next IP

IP = IP + Constant

Execution Units: Flow Control

Exceptions: none

Notes:

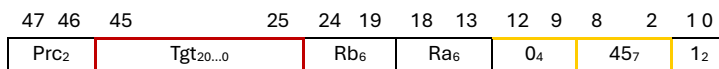
CBEQ –Branch if Capabilities Equal

CBEQ Ra, Rb, label

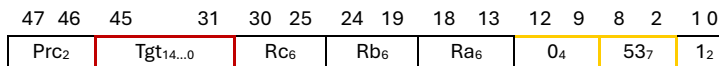
Description:

Branch if capabilities in registers Ra and Rb are exactly identical, including reserved and tag bits. Values are treated as capabilities. For 128-bit capabilities the quad extension prefix must be used. In that case register pairs {Rc,Ra} and {Rd,Rb} must be exactly identical.

Formats Supported: BR



Register Indirect Target



Clock Cycles: 13

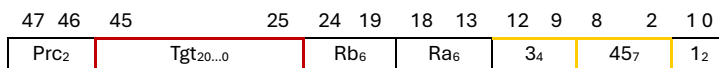
CBLE –Branch if Capability is a Subset or Equal

CBLE Ra, Rb, label

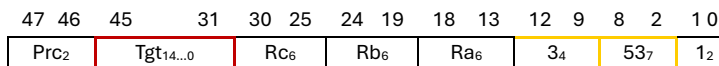
Description:

Branch if capability bounds and permissions in register Ra are a subset of capability bounds and permissions of Rb and the tags are the same OR capabilities in registers Ra and Rb are exactly identical, including reserved and tag bits. Values are treated as capabilities. For 128-bit capabilities the quad extension prefix must be used. In that case register pairs {Rc,Ra} and {Rd,Rb} are tested.

Formats Supported: BR



Register Indirect Target



Clock Cycles: 13

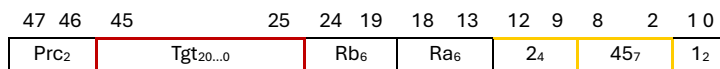
CBLT –Branch if Capability is a Subset

CBLT Ra, Rb, label

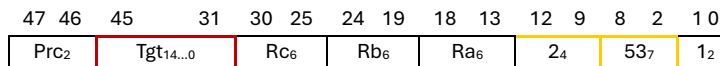
Description:

Branch if capability bounds and permissions in register Ra are a subset of capability bounds and permissions of Rb and the tags are the same. Values are treated as capabilities. For 128-bit capabilities the quad extension prefix must be used. In that case register pairs {Rc,Ra} and {Rd,Rb} are tested.

Formats Supported: BR



Register Indirect Target



Clock Cycles: 13

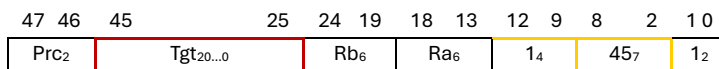
CBNE –Branch if Capabilities Not Equal

CBNE Ra, Rb, label

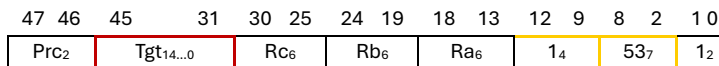
Description:

Branch if capabilities in registers Ra and Rb are not exactly identical, including reserved and tag bits. Values are treated as capabilities. For 128-bit capabilities the quad extension prefix must be used. In that case register pairs {Rc,Ra} and {Rd,Rb} must not be exactly identical.

Formats Supported: BR



Register Indirect Target



Clock Cycles: 13

CJSR – Jump to Subroutine

Description:

Direct Address Form:

This instruction always jumps to the target address. The PCC of the next instruction is stored in a capability link register Lkt and sealed as a sentry. The target address range is 2^{37} bytes.

Formats Supported: BSR



Operation:

Lkt = next IP, sealed

PCC = Constant

Exceptions:

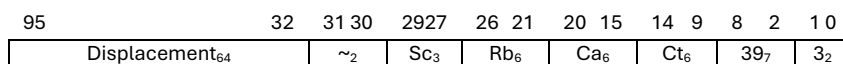
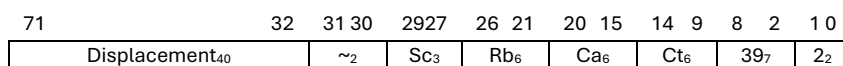
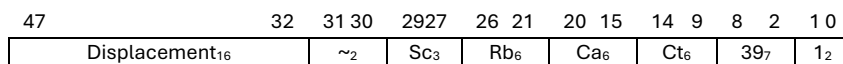
FLT_CAPBOUNDS

New PCC.address < PCC.base or PCC.address + max_intruction_bytes > PCC.top

Scaled Indexed Addressing Form:

This instruction always jumps to the target address. The capability IP of the next instruction is stored in capability register Ct, which would normally be a link register, and sealed as a sentry. A constant is added to the sum of the address in capability Ca and scaled index register Rb and loaded into the capability IP.

Instruction Format: d[Ca.address+Rb*Sc]



Operation:

Lkt = next capability IP, sealed

IP.address = Ca.address + (Rb * scale) + Displacement

Exceptions:

FLT_CAPBOUNDS

New IP.address < IP.base or IP.address + max_intruction_bytes > IP.top

FLT_CAPTAG

Ca tag is clear

FLT_CAPPERMS

Ca does not grant PERMIT_EXECUTE

Memory Indirect Scaled Indexed Addressing Form:

This instruction always jumps to the target address. The capability IP of the next instruction is stored in capability register Ct, which would normally be a link register, and sealed as a sentry. The target address is calculated from a value loaded from a table in memory whose base address is contained in register Ca. The value is loaded from memory at the base address plus an index calculated as the scaled contents of register Rb. The table index must be greater than or equal to zero and less than the limit set in the instruction. If the index is greater than or equal to the limit, then the entry at the limit will be jumped to.

Instruction Format: d[Ca.address+Rb*Sc]

47	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₁₆	~ ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ca ₆	Ct ₆	39 ₇	1 ₂	

71	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₄₀	~ ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ca ₆	Ct ₆	39 ₇	2 ₂	

95	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₆₄	~ ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ca ₆	Ct ₆	39 ₇	3 ₂	

Sc ₃	Operation
0	Load only the low order 8-bits of the instruction pointer, upper bits remain the same
1	Load only the low order 16-bits of the instruction pointer, upper bits remain the same

2	Load only the low order 32-bits of the instruction pointer, upper bits remain the same
3	Load only the low order 64-bits of the instruction pointer, upper bits remain the same
4	Load entire instruction pointer

Operation:

Lkt = next IP

IP = Memory[Ca.address + Rb * scale]

Execution Units: Branch

Exceptions:

FLT_CAPTAG

Ca tag is clear

FLT_CAPBOUNDS

New IP.address < IP.base or IP.address + max_intruction_bytes > IP.top

Notes:

Low order bits of the instruction pointer may be loaded while keeping the higher order bits constant. This allows efficient implementation of jump tables.

DBNE – Decrement and Branch if Not Equal

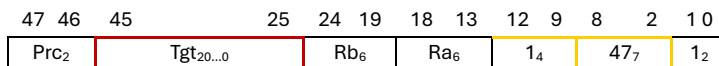
DBNE Ra, Rb, label

Description:

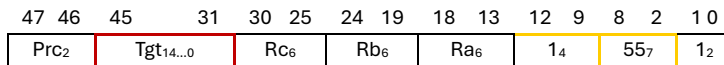
Branch if source operands are not equal. Values are treated as unsigned integers.

Register Ra is decremented.

Formats Supported: BR



Register Indirect Target



Clock Cycles: 13

IBNE – Increment and Branch if Not Equal

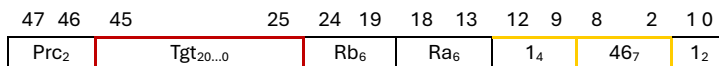
DBNE Ra, Rb, label

Description:

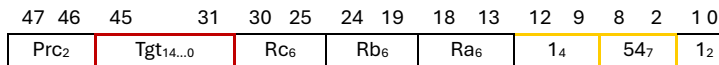
Branch if source operands are not equal. Values are treated as unsigned integers.

Register Ra is decremented.

Formats Supported: BR



Register Indirect Target



Clock Cycles: 13

JMP – Jump to Address

Description:

This instruction always jumps to the target address using absolute addressing. See also [BRANCH](#) for position independent code. JMP is rarely used as most software uses relative branching.

Direct Address Form:

This instruction always jumps to the target address. The target address range is 2^{37} bits. If a greater address range is required, the scaled-indexed form of the instruction must be used.

Formats Supported: BSR



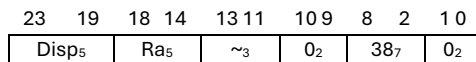
Operation:

IP = Constant

Register Indirect with Displacement Form:

This instruction always jumps to the target address. A displacement constant is added to Ra and loaded into the IP.

Instruction Format: d[Ra]



Scaled Indexed Addressing Form:

This instruction always jumps to the target address. A constant is added to the sum of Ra and scaled index register Rb and loaded into the IP.

Instruction Format: d[Ra+Rb*Sc]

47	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₁₆	~ ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	0 ₆	38 ₇	1 ₂	

71	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₄₀	~ ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	0 ₆	38 ₇	2 ₂	

95	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₆₄	~ ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	0 ₆	38 ₇	3 ₂	

Operation:

Rt = next IP

IP = Ra + (Rb * scale) + displacement

Memory Indirect Form:

Instruction Format: d[Ra+Rb*Sc]

47	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Limit ₁₆	Ar ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	0 ₆	36 ₇	1 ₂	

71	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Limit ₄₀	Ar ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	0 ₆	36 ₇	2 ₂	

95	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Limit ₆₄	Ar ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	0 ₆	36 ₇	3 ₂	

Operation:

If (Ar)

 If (Rb * scale > limit OR Rb < 0)

 IP = IP + Memory [Ra + (limit * scale)]

 else

 IP = IP + Memory [Ra + (Rb * scale)]

else

If ($Rb * scale > limit$ OR $Rb < 0$)
 $IP = Memory [Ra + (limit * scale)]$
 else
 $IP = Memory [Ra + (Rb * scale)]$

Exceptions: none

AR Abs/rel	Sc ₃	Operation
0	0	Load only the low order 8-bits of the instruction pointer, upper bits remain the same
0	1	Load only the low order 16-bits of the instruction pointer, upper bits remain the same
0	2	Load only the low order 32-bits of the instruction pointer, upper bits remain the same
0	3	Load only the low order 64-bits of the instruction pointer, upper bits remain the same
0	4	Load entire instruction pointer
1	0	Add 8-bit value to instruction pointer
1	1	Add 16-bit value to instruction pointer
1	2	Add 32-bit value to instruction pointer
1	3	Add 64-bit value to instruction pointer
1	4	

Execution Units: Branch

Exceptions: none

Notes:

JSR – Jump to Subroutine

Description:

This instruction always jumps to the target address using absolute addressing. The address of the next instruction is stored in a link register. See also [BSR](#) for position independent code.

Direct Address Form:

This instruction always jumps to the target address. The address of the next instruction is stored in a link register. The target address range is 2^{37} bits. If a greater address range is required, the scaled-indexed form of the instruction must be used.

Formats Supported: BSR



Operation:

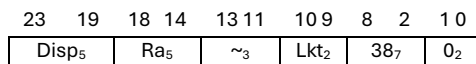
Lkt = next IP

IP = Constant* 8

Register Indirect with Displacement Form:

This instruction always jumps to the target address. The IP of the next instruction is stored in link register Lkt. A displacement constant is added to Ra and loaded into the IP.

Instruction Format: d[Ra]



Scaled Indexed Addressing Form:

This instruction always jumps to the target address. The IP of the next instruction is stored in register Rt which would normally be a link register. A constant is added to the sum of Ra and scaled index register Rb and loaded into the IP.

Instruction Format: d[Ra+Rb*Sc]

47	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₁₆	~ ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	38 ₇	1 ₂	

71	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₄₀	~ ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	38 ₇	2 ₂	

95	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Displacement ₆₄	~ ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	38 ₇	3 ₂	

Operation:

Rt = next IP

IP = Ra + (Rb * scale) + displacement

Exceptions: none

Memory Indirect Form:

Description:

This instruction jumps to the target address calculated from a value in a table. The IP of the next instruction is stored in register Rt which would normally be a link register. The target address is calculated from a value loaded from a table in memory whose base address is contained in register Ra. The value is loaded from memory at the base address plus an index calculated as the scaled contents of register Rb. The table index must be greater than or equal to zero and less than the limit set in the instruction. If the index is greater than or equal to the limit, then the entry at the limit will be jumped to.

Instruction Format: d[Ra+Rb*Sc]

47	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Limit ₁₆	Ar ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	36 ₇	1 ₂	

71	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Limit ₄₀	Ar ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	36 ₇	2 ₂	

95	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Limit ₆₄	Ar ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rt ₆	36 ₇	3 ₂	

Operation:

Rt = next IP

If (Ar)

 If (Rb * scale > limit OR Rb < 0)

 IP = IP + Memory [Ra + (limit * scale)]

 else

 IP = IP + Memory [Ra + (Rb * scale)]

else

 If (Rb * scale > limit OR Rb < 0)

 IP = Memory [Ra + (limit * scale)]

 else

 IP = Memory [Ra + (Rb * scale)]

Exceptions: none

AR Abs/rel	Sc ₃	Operation
0	0	Load only the low order 8-bits of the instruction pointer, upper bits remain the same
0	1	Load only the low order 16-bits of the instruction pointer, upper bits remain the same
0	2	Load only the low order 32-bits of the instruction pointer, upper bits remain the same
0	3	Load only the low order 64-bits of the instruction pointer, upper bits remain the same
0	4	Load entire instruction pointer
1	0	Add 8-bit value to instruction pointer
1	1	Add 16-bit value to instruction pointer

1	2	Add 32-bit value to instruction pointer
1	3	Add 64-bit value to instruction pointer
1	4	

Execution Units: Branch

Exceptions: none

Notes:

NOP – No Operation

NOP

Description:

This instruction does not perform any operation. Any value for bits 9 to 23 may be used.

Instruction Format:

23	9	8	2	10
0x7FFF ₁₅	127 ₇	0 ₂		

Notes:

RET – Return from Subroutine and Deallocate

RET Ra, N

Description:

This instruction returns from a subroutine by transferring program execution to the address stored in a link register specified by Ra plus an offset amount. Additionally, the stack pointer is incremented by the amount specified.

Formats Supported: RET

23	19	18	14	13	12	9	8	2	1	0
Imm ₅		Ra ₅		0	Offs ₄		35 ₇		0 ₂	

47	25				24	23	22	21	16	15	14	13	12	9	8	2	10
Immediate ₂₃						~ ₂	Na	Ra ₆		~	0 ₂		Offs ₄		35 ₇		1 ₂

95	25				24	23	22	21	16	15	14	13	12	9	8	2	1	0
Immediate ₇₁					~ ₂		Na	Ra ₆		~	0 ₂		Offs ₄		35 ₇		3 ₂	

Operation:

$IP \leq Ra + Offs * 3, Ra \neq 0$

$SP = SP + Constant$

Execution Units: Branch

Exceptions: none

Notes:

Return address prediction hardware may make use of the RTS instruction.

RTE – Return from Exception

Description:

This instruction returns from an exception routine by transferring program execution to the address stored in an internal stack. This instruction may perform a two-up level return.

Formats Supported: RTE

23	19	18	14	13	12	9	8	2	10
1 ₅	0 ₅	1	Offs ₄	35 ₇	0 ₂				

Formats Supported: RTE – Two up level return.

23	19	18	14	13	12	9	8	2	10
2 ₅	0 ₅	1	Offs ₄	35 ₇	0 ₂				

Operation:

Optionally pop the status register and always pop the instruction pointer from the internal stack. Add Offs * 3 bytes to the instruction pointer. If returning from an application trap the status register is not popped from the stack.

Execution Units: Branch

Exceptions: none

Notes:

Capabilities Instructions

Overview

The capabilities instruction set is modelled after the RISC-V capabilities instructions present in the capabilities document. It is very similar but there are some differences. A couple of the test instructions are replaced with a capability compare instruction. The opcodes are different to suit Qupls.

Please refer to: University of Cambridge technical report 987:

[Capability Hardware Enhanced RISC Instructions: CHERI Instruction-Set Architecture \(Version 9\) \(cam.ac.uk\)](#)

Capability Register Representation

Capabilities are represented using a modified CHERI concentrate compression. The CHERI capability can resolve small regions to the byte. The format presented here has a minimum granularity of eight bytes.

Capability Register Format

31	20	19	18	15	14	13	11	10	8	7	3	2	0
P ₁₂				f	Otype ₄		le	T[8:6]		Te ₃	B[10:6]		Be ₃
Address ₃₂													

le=0	le=1
E=0 T[2:0] = 0 B[2:0] = 0 T[5:3] = Te ₃ B[5:3] = Be ₃ Lcarryout = T[8:3] < B[8:3] Lmsb = 0	E = {Te ₃ , Be ₃ } T[5:0] = 0 B[5:0] = 0 Lcarryout = T[8:6] < B[8:6] Lmsb = 1

$$T[10:9] = B[10:9] + Lcarryout + Lmsb$$

Bounds decoding

Address, a =	Atop = a[63:E+14]	Amid = a[E+13:E]	Alow = a[E-1:0]
Top, t=	Atop + ct	T[13:0]	{E{0}}
Base, b=	Atop + cb	B[13:0]	{E{0}}

Calculating ct and cb

$A3 = A[E+13:E+11]$

$B3 = B[13:11]$

$T3 = T[13:11]$

$R = B3 - 1$

$A3 < R$	$T3 < R$	ct		$A3 < R$	$B3 < R$	cb
false	false	0		false	false	0
false	true	+1		false	true	+1
True	False	-1		True	False	-1
True	True	0		True	True	0

Permissions

0	Global	
1	Permit execute	
2	Permit load	
3	Permit store	
4	Permit load capability	
5	Permit store capability	
6	Permit store local capability	
7	Permit seal	
8	Permit invoke	
9	Permit unseal	
10	Permit access system registers	
11	Permit set CID	

64-bit pointer (requires 128-bit register pairs)

63	48	47	46	45	44	27	26	25	17	16	14	13	3	2	0
P_{16}	f				$Otype_{18}$	le		$T[11:3]$	Te_3		$B[13:3]$		Be_3		
Address ₆₄															

LDCAP Cn, <ea> - Load Capability

Description:

Load a capability from memory to Ct. If Ca.perms does not grant PERMIT_LOAD_CAPABILITY then Ct.tag is cleared. The quad extension prefix is needed to load 128-bit capabilities.

Instruction Format: d[Ra+Rb*Sc]

47	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Immediate ₁₆	Prc ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ca ₆	Ct ₆	69 ₇	1 ₂	

Execution Units: AGEN, MEM

Exceptions:

- Ca tag not set
- Ca is sealed
- Ca.perms does not grant PERMIT_LOAD
- Ca.address + displacement < Ca.base
- Ca.address + displacement + CLen/8 > Ca.top

Notes:

STCAP Cn, <ea> - Store Capability

Description:

Store a capability from register Cs to memory. The capability at address Ca.address plus the displacement is replaced with the capability from Ca. The quad extension prefix is needed to store 128-bit capabilities.

Instruction Format: d[Ra+Rb*Sc]

47	32	31 30	29 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
Immediate ₁₆	Prc ₂	Sc ₃	Rb ₆	Ca ₆	Cs ₆	77 ₇	1 ₂	

Execution Units: AGEN, MEM

Exceptions:

Ra tag not set

Ra is sealed

Ra.perms does not grant PERMIT_STORE

Ra.perms does not grant PERMIT_STORE_CAPABILITY and Rs.tag is set

Ra.perms does not grant PERMIT_STORE_LOCAL_CAPABILITY and Rs.tag is set and

Rs.perms does not grant GLOBAL

Ra.address + displacement < Ra.base

Ra.address + displacement + CLEN/8 > Ra.top

Notes:

CAndPerm

Description:

Capability Ct is replaced with Ca and sealed with the perms field set to the bitwise ‘and’ of its value and the value in register Rb. If Ca is sealed, then the tag field of Ct is cleared.

Instruction Format R3:

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
32 ₇	~ ₄	~	~ ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ca ₆	Nt	Ct ₆	1 ₇	1 ₂							

Instruction Format CRI:

47	41	40		23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	10
48 ₇	Imm ₁₈				Na	Ca ₆	Nt	Ct ₆	1 ₇	1 ₂			

Execution Units:

Exceptions:

Notes:

CBuildCap

Description:

Capability Ct is replaced with Ca with its base, address, length, perms, uperms and flags replaced with the value of those fields from Cb. If Cb is a sentry, then Ct is sealed as a sentry. If one of the following conditions is true:

- the resulting capability is not a subset of Ca in bounds or permissions, or is not a legally derivable capability,
- Ca does not have its tag field set,
- Ca is sealed

then Ct is replaced with Cb with its tag field clear.

The quad extension prefix is needed to build 128-bit capabilities.

Instruction Format:

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
33 ₇	~ ₄	~	~ ₆	~	Cb ₆	~	Ca ₆	~	Ct ₆	1 ₇	1 ₂								

Execution Units:

Exceptions:

Notes:

CClearTag

Description:

Capability Ct is replaced with Ca, the tag field of Ct is cleared.

Instruction Format:

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
64 ₇	~ ₄	~	~ ₆	~	~ ₆	~	Ca ₆	~	Ct ₆	1 ₇	1 ₂								

Execution Units:

Exceptions:

Notes:

CCmp

Description:

Compares capabilities. This instruction replaces the CTestSubset, CSetEqualsExact, and CGetSealed instructions as outlined for RISC-V in the CHERI document.

If capabilities registers Ca and Cb are exactly identical, including reserved and tag bits, then the register Rt condition equals bit (bit zero) is set.

If capabilities register Ca bounds and permissions are a subset of capabilities Cb and the tags are the same, then the register Rt less than or equals bit is set.

If Ca is unsealed, the overflow bit of Rt is cleared; otherwise, the overflow bit is set.

Instruction Format:

47	41	40	37	36	35	30	29	28	23	22	21	16	15	14	9	8	2	1	0
44 ₇	~ ₄	~	~ ₆	~	Cb ₆	~	Ca ₆	~	Rt ₆	1 ₇	1 ₂								

Execution Units:

Clocks: 1

Exceptions: none

Notes:

Capabilities comparisons are also performed by the compare-and-branch instructions.

System Instructions

BRK – Break

Description:

This instruction initiates the processor debug routine. The processor enters debug mode. The cause code register is set to indicate execution of a BRK instruction. Interrupts are disabled. The instruction pointer is reset to the vector located from the contents of tvec[3] and instructions begin executing. There should be a jump instruction placed at the break vector location. The address of the BRK instruction is stored in the EIP.

Instruction Format: BRK

23	9	8	2	10
~ ₁₅	0 ₇	0 ₂		

Operation:

PUSH SR

PUSH IP

EIP = IP

IP = vector at (tvec[3])

Execution Units: Branch

Clock Cycles:

Exceptions: none

Notes:

Macro Instructions

These instructions are implemented with micro-code.

ENTER – Enter Routine

Description:

This instruction is used for subroutine linkage at entrance into a subroutine. First it pushes the frame pointer and return address onto the safe stack, next the safe stack pointer is loaded into the frame pointer, next saved registers are stored to the safe stack, and finally the stack space is allocated. This instruction is code dense, replacing eight or more other instructions with a single instruction.

A maximum of 128GB may be allocated on the stack. An immediate postfix may not be used with this instruction. The stack and frame pointers are assumed to be r31 and r30 respectively.

Note that the constant must be a negative number and a multiple of eight.

Note that the instruction reserves room for two words in addition to the return address and frame pointer. One use for the extra words may to store exception handling information.

Integer Instruction Format: RI

47	13	12	9	8	2	10
Constant _{37..3}			Ns ₄	84 ₇	1 ₂	

Operation:

SafeSP = SafeSP - 32

Memory[SafeSP] = FP

Memory8[SafeSP] = LR0

Memory16[SafeSP] = 0 ; zero out catch handler address

Memory24[SafeSP] = 0

FP = SP

SafeSP = SafeSP – Ns * 8

Memory[SafeSP] = S0

Memory8[SafeSP] = S1

...

Memory((Ns-1)*8) = S[Ns-1]

$SP = SP + \text{constant}$

LEAVE – Leave Routine

Description:

This instruction is used for subroutine linkage at exit from a subroutine. It reverses the operations performed by ENTER. First it pops the specified number of callee saved registers from the safe stack. Next it moves the frame pointer to the stack pointer deallocating any stack memory allocations. Next the frame pointer and return address are popped off the safe stack. The stack pointer is adjusted by the amount specified in the instruction. Then a jump is made to the return address. This instruction is code dense, replacing between six and sixteen other instructions with a single instruction. The stack pointer adjustment is multiplied by eight keeping the stack pointer word aligned. A six-bit constant is added to the link register to form the return address. This allows returning up to 64 bytes past the normal return address.

Instruction Format: LEAVE

47	18	17	14	13	9	8	2	10
Constant ₃₀				NS ₄	Cnst ₅	85 ₇	1 ₂	

Operation:

```
If (NS > 0) S0 = Memory[SafeSP]
If (NS > 1) S1 = Memory8[SafeSP]
...
If (NS > 9) S9 = Memory72[SafeSP]
SafeSP = SafeSP + Ns * 8
SP = FP
FP = Memory[SafeSP]
LR0 = Memory8[SafeSP]
SafeSP = SafeSP + 32
SP = SP + Constant30 * 8
PC = LR0 + Cnst5
```

POP – Pop Registers from Stack

Description:

This instruction pops up to six registers from the stack. Note 'N' may only vary between one and six. Registers are popped off the stack according to the operating mode.

Instruction Format: POP

47	45	44	39	38	33	32	27	26	21	20	15	14	9	8	2	10
N ₃		Re ₆		Rd ₆		Rc ₆		Rb ₆		Ra ₆		Rt ₆		87 ₇		1 ₂

Operation:

If (N > 0) Rt = Mem[SP]

If (N > 1) Ra = Mem[SP+8]

If (N > 2) Rb = Mem[SP+16]

If (N > 3) Rc = Mem[SP+24]

If (N > 4) Rd = Mem[SP+32]

If (N > 5) Re = Mem[SP+40]

SP = SP + N * 8

PUSH – Push Registers on Stack

Description:

This instruction pushes up to six registers onto the stack. ‘N’ encodes the register count, 1 to 6. Registers are pushed on the stack according to the operating mode.

Instruction Format: PUSH

47 45	44 39	38 33	32 27	26 21	20 15	14 9	8 2	1 0
N ₃	Re ₆	Rd ₆	Rc ₆	Rb ₆	Ra ₆	Rs ₆	86 ₇	1 ₂

Operation:

$$SP = SP - N * 8$$

if (N > 5) Memory₈[SP+(N-5)*8] = Re

if (N > 4) Memory₈[SP+(N-4)*8] = Rd

if (N > 3) Memory₈[SP+(N-3)*8] = Rc

if (N > 2) Memory₈[SP+(N-2)*8] = Rb

if (N > 1) Memory₈[SP+(N-1)*8] = Ra

if (N > 0) Memory₈[SP+N*8] = Rs

Modifiers

ATOM Modifier

Description:

Treat the following sequence of instructions as an “atom”. The instruction sequence is executed with interrupts set to the specified mask level. Interrupts may be disabled for up to eleven instructions. The non-maskable interrupt may not be masked.

The 33-bit mask is broken into eleven three-bit interrupt level numbers. Bit 7 to 9 represent the interrupt level for the first instruction, bits 10 to 12 for the second and so on.

Note that since the processor fetches instructions in groups the mask effectively applies to the group. The mask guarantees that at least as many instructions as specified will be masked, but more may be masked depending on group boundaries.

Instruction Format: ATOM

23	9	8	2	10
Mask ₁₅	122 ₇	0 ₂		

47	43	42	10	9	8	2	10
~ ₅	Mask ₃₃	0	122 ₇	1 ₂			

Scope Modifier	Mask Bit	
	0 to 2	Instruction zero (always 7)
	3 to 5	Instruction one
	6 to 8	Instruction two
	9 to 11	Instruction three
	12 to 14	Instruction four
	15 to 17	Instruction five
	18 to 20	Instruction six
	21 to 23	Instruction seven
	24 to 27	Instruction eight
	28 to 30	Instruction nine
	31 to 33	Instruction ten

Assembler Syntax:

Example:

```
ATOM "777777"  
LOAD a0,[a3]  
SLT t0,a0,a1  
PRED t0,~t0,r0,"AAB"  
STORE a2,[a3]  
LDI a0,1  
LDI a0,0
```

```
ATOM "6666"  
LOAD a1,[a3]  
ADD t0,a0,a1  
MOV a0,a1  
STORE t0,[a3]
```

QEXT Prefix

Description:

This prefix extends the register selection for quad precision. Quad precision operations need to use register pairs to contain a quad precision value. The QEXT prefix specifies the registers used to contain bits 64 to 127 of the quad precision values.

Quad precision values are calculated using the QEXT prefix before the quad precision instruction.

Note that any of 64 registers may be selected.

Instruction Format: QEXT

47	37	36	35 30	29	28 23	22	21 16	15	14 9	8 2	10
~ ₁₁	Nc	Rc ₆	Nb	Rb ₆	Na	Ra ₆	Nt	Rt ₆	120 ₇	1 ₂	

PFX[ABCT] – A/B/C/T Immediate Postfix

PFXA \$1234

Description:

This instruction supplies immediate constant bits five to N for the preceding instruction, allowing a N-bit constant to be used in place of a register. The first five bits of the constant are specified by the register number field of the instruction. The A/B/C field of the instruction specifies which register is to be used as a constant.

ABC	Substitute Immediate for:
0	Ra
1	Rb
2	Rc
3	Rt

*Only one postfix is supported per instruction.

Instruction Format:

23	11	10	9	8	2	10
Immediate _{13...5}	ABC	124 ₇	0 ₂			

47	11	10	9	8	2	10
Immediate _{41...5}	ABC	124 ₇	1 ₂			

95	11	10	9	8	2	10
Immediate _{89...5}	ABC	124 ₇	2 ₂			

Notes:

Qupls2 Opcodes

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0x	0 BRK	1 {CAP}	2 {R3.128}	3 {BFLD}	4 ADDI	5 SUBFI	6 MULI	7 CSR
	8 ANDI	9 ORI	10 EORI	11 CMPI	12	13 DIVI	14 MULUI	15 MOV
1x	16	17 {DFLT}	18 {PST}	19 CMPUI	20	21 DIVUI	22 SEQI	23 SNEI
	24 SLTI	25 SLEI	26 SGTI	27 SGEI	28 SLTUI	29 SLEUI	30 SGTUI	31 SGEUI
2x	32 BRA BSR	33 JMP addr JSR addr	34 CJMP addr CJSR addr	35 RET IRET JMPX	36 JMP ind JSR ind	37 CJMP ind CJSR ind	38	39
	40 BccU	41 Bcc	42 FBcc	43 DFBcc	44 PBcc	45 CBcc	46 IBcc	47 DBcc
3x	48 BccU r	49 Bcc r	50 FBcc r	51 DFBcc r	52 PBcc r	53 CBcc r	54 IBcc r	55 DBcc r
	56	57 {FLT.16}	58 {FLT.32}	59 {FLT.64}	60 ADD2UI	61 ADD4UI	62 ADD8UI	63 ADD16UI
4x	64 LDxU	65 LDx	66 FLDx	67 DFLDx	68 PLDx	69 LDCAP	70 CACHE	71 CHKSC
	72 STX	73 STI	74 FSTx	75 DFSTx	76 PSTx	77 STCAP	78 STPTR	79 STCTX
5x	80 {SHFT.8}	81 {SHFT.16}	82 {SHFT.32}	83 {SHFT.64}	84 ENTER	85 LEAVE	86 PUSH	87 POP
	88 LDA	89 BLEND	90 {FLT.128}	91	92 AMO	93 CAS	94 ZSEQI	95 ZSNEI
6x	96 ZSLTI	97 ZSLEI	98 ZSGTI	99 ZSGEI	100 ZSLTUI	101 ZSLEUI	102 ZSGTUI	103 ZSGEUI
	104 {R3.8}	105 {R3.16}	106 {R3.32}	107 {R3.64}	108 BFIND	109 BCMP	110	111 {BLOCK}
7x	112 CHK	113 STOP	114 FENCE	115 PFI	116	117	118	119
	120 QEXT	121 PRED	122 ATOM	123	124 PFXABC	125	126	127 NOP

{CAP} Map – Opcode 1

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	8 CRetd	9	10	11	12 CInvoke	13	14	15
	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31
	32 CAndPerm	33 CBuildCap	34 CCopyType	35 CIncOffs	36 CSeal	37 CSetAddr	38 CSetBounds	39 CSetFlags
	40 CSetHigh	41 CSetOffs	42 CSpeicalRW	43 CUnseal	44	45	46	47
	48 CAndPermi	49	50	51	52	53	54	55
	56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63
	64 CClearTag	65 CGetFlags	66 CGetHigh	67 CGetLen	68 CGetOffs	69 CGetPerms	70 CGetTag	71 CGetTop
	72 CGetType	73 CLoadTags	74 CAlignMsk	75 CRoundLen	76 CSealEntry	77 CGetBase	78	79
	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87
	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95
	96	97	98	99	100	101	102	103
	104	105	106	107	108	109	110	111
	112	113	114	115	116	117	118	119
	120	121	122	123	124	125	126	127

{R1} Operations

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0x	0 CNTLZ	1 CNTLO	2 CNTPOP	3 ABS	4 SQRT	5 REVBIT	6 CNTTZ	7 NOT
	8 NNA_TRIG	9 NNA_STAT	10 NNA_MFACT	11	12 MKBOOL	13 REX	14 SM3P0	15 SM3P1
1x	16	17	18 AES64DS	19 AES64DSM	20 AES64ES	21 AES64ESM	22 AES64IM	23
	24 SHA256 SIG0	25 SHA256 SIG1	26 SHA256 SUM0	27 SHA256 SUM1	28 SHA512 SIG0	29 SHA512 SIG1	30 SHA512 SUM0	31 SHA512 SUM1

{R3} Operations

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0	0 AND	1 OR	2 EOR	3 CMP	4 ADD	5	6 CMPU	7 CPUID
	8 NAND	9 NOR	10 ENOR	11 CMOVNZ	12 CMOVNZ	13 ABS	14 MAJ	15
1	16 MUL	17 DIV	18 {MINMAX}	19 MULU	20 DIVU	21 MULSU	22 DIVSU	23 {MINMAXU}
	24 MULW	25 MOD	26 {R1}	27 MULUW	28 MODU	29 MULSUW	30 MODSU	31
2	32 PTRDIF	33 MUX	34 BMM	35 BMAP	36 DIF	37 CHARNDX	38 CHARNDX	39 CHARNDX
	40 NNA MTWT	41 NNA MTIN	42 NNA MTBIAS	43 NNA MTFB	44 NNA MTMC	45 NNA MTBC	46	47
3	48 V2BITS	49 BITS2V	50 VEX	51 VEINS	52 VGNDX	53	54 VSHLV	55 VSHRV
	56	57	58 VSETMASK	59	60	61	62 VSHLVI	63 VSHRVI
4	64 AES64K1I	65 AES64KS2	66 SM4ED	67 SM4KS	68	69	70 CLMUL	71
	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79
5	80 SEQ	81 SNE	82 SLT	83 SLE	84 SLTU	85 SLEU	86	87 DIVMOD
	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95 DIVMODU
6	96 SEQ	97 SNE	98 SLT	99 SLE	100 SLTU	101 SLEU	102	103
	104	105	106	107	108	109	110	111
7	112 ZSEQ	113 ZSNE	114 ZSLT	115 ZSLE	116 ZSLTU	117 ZSLEU	118	119
	120 ZSEQ	121 ZSNE	122 ZSLT	123 ZSLE	124 ZSLTU	125 ZSLEU	126	127 MVVR

{Shift} Operations

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	0 SLLP	1 SRLP	2 SRAP	3 SRAPRU	4 SRAPRZ	5 DEP	6 DEPXOR	7
	8 SLLPI	9 SRLPI	10 SRAPI	11 SRAPRUI	12 SRAPRZI	13 DEPI	14 DEPXOR	15

{FLT} Operations

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	0 FNOP	1 {FMxx}	2 FMIN	3 FMAX	4 FADD	5 FSUB	6 FMUL	7 FDIV
	8 FSEQ	9 FSNE	10 FSLT	11 FSLE	12	13 FCMP	14 FNXT	15 FREM
	16 FSGNJ	17 FSGNJN	18 FSGNJX	19	20 FSCALEB	21	22	23
	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31
16	32 FABS	33 FNEG	34 FTOI	35 ITOF	36 FCONST	37	38 FSIGN	39 FSIG
	40 FSQRT	41 FCVTS2D	42 FCVTS2Q	43 FCVTD2Q	44 FCVTH2S	45 FCVTH2D	46 ISNAN	47 FINITE
	48 FCVTQ2H	49 FCVTQ2S	50 FCVTQ2D	51	52 FCVTH2Q	53 FTRUNC	54 FRSQRT	55 FRES
	56	57 FCVTD2S	58	59	60	61	62 FCLASS	63
16	64 FSIN	65 FCOS	66 FTAN	67	68	69	70	71
	72	73	74 FATAN	75	76	77	78	79
	80 FSIGMOID	81	82	83	84	85	86	87
	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95

{DFLT3} Operations

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	0 FMA	1 FMS	2 FNMA	3 FNMS	4 VFMA	5 VFMS	6 VFNMA	7 VFNMS
	8 {DFLT2}	9	10	11	12 {VDFLT2}	13 {VSFLT2}	14	15

{FLT2} Operations

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	0 DFSCALEB	1 {DFLT1}	2 DFMIN	3 DFMAX	4 DFADD	5 DFSUB	6 DFMUL	7 DFDIV
	8 DFSEQ	9 DFSNE	10 DFSLT	11 DFSLE	12	13 DFCMP	14 DFNXT	15 DFREM
	16 DFSGNJ	17 DFSGNJN	18 DFSGNJX	19	20	21	22	23
	24	25	26	27	28	29	30 FNMUL	31

{AMO} – Atomic Memory Ops

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
92	0 AMOADD	1 AMOAND	2 AMoor	3 AMOEOR	4 AMOMIN	5 AMOMAX	6 AMOSWAP	7
	8 AMOASL	9 AMOLSR	10 AMOROL	11 AMOROR	12 AMOMINU	13 AMOMAXU	14	15

{EX} Exception Instructions

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	0 IRQ	1	2 FTX	3 FCX	4 FDX	5 FEX	6	7 REX
	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15

MPU Hardware

QIC – Qupls Interrupt Controller

Overview

The Qupls system uses message-signaled interrupts (QMSI). QIC snoops the response bus going to the CPU core(s) for interrupt responses. Interrupt responses are stored in priority queues in the controller.

The Qupls interrupt controller presents an interrupt signal bus to the CPU core(s). The QIC may be used in a multi-CPU system as a shared interrupt controller. The QIC can guide the interrupt to the specified core(s). The QIC is a 64-bit slave I/O device.

System Usage

For the demo system there is just a single interrupt controller in the system. However, there may be up to 63 interrupt controllers in a system, numbered 1 to 63. Each interrupt controller may support up to 63 CPU cores, making the total number of CPU cores processing interrupts approximately 3900. QIC supports 63 different priority levels.

The QIC registers are located at an address determined by BAR0 in the configuration space. The interrupt table is located at a address determined by BAR1.

Priority Resolution

Interrupts have a fixed priority relationship with priority 63 having the highest priority and priority 1 the lowest. As interrupt messages are detected, they are placed in a queue according to their priority. (There are 63 small queues). The QIC sends the highest priority interrupt in the queues to the CPU. Periodically, once every 64 clock cycles, interrupt priorities are inverted.

Config Space

A 256-byte config space is supported. Most of the config space is unused. The only configuration is for the I/O address of the register set.

Regno	Width	R/W	Moniker	Description		
000	32	RO	REG_ID	Vendor and device ID		
004	32	R/W				
008	32	RO				

00C	32	R/W				
010	32	R/W	REG_BAR0	Base Address Register		
014	32	R/W	REG_BAR1	Base Address Register		
018	32	R/W	REG_BAR2	Base Address Register		
01C	32	R/W	REG_BAR3	Base Address Register		
020	32	R/W	REG_BAR4	Base Address Register		
024	32	R/W	REG_BAR5	Base Address Register		
028	32	R/W				
02C	32	RO		Subsystem ID		
030	32	R/W		Expansion ROM address		
034	32	RO				
038	32	R/W		Reserved		
03C	32	R/W		Interrupt		
040 to 0FF	32	R/W		Capabilities area		

REG_BAR0 defaults to \$FEE20001 which is used to specify the address of the controller's registers in the I/O address space.

The controller will respond with a memory size request of 0MB (0xFFFFFFFF) when BAR0 is written with all ones. The controller contains its own dedicated memory and does not require memory allocated from the system.

Parameters

CFG_BUS defaults to zero

CFG_DEVICE defaults to six

CFG_FUNC defaults to zero

Config parameters must be set correctly. CFG device and vendors default to zero.

Registers

The QIC contains an interrupt vector table with a maximum of 2048 128-bit vectors available for each of four operating modes. (The number of vectors supported is parameterized). This vector table occupies 128kB of I/O space. An additional 522 registers are spread out through another 8k byte I/O region. All registers are 64-bit and only 64-bit accessible. The interrupt vector table is byte accessible.

Regno	Access	Moniker	Purpose
00	RW	UVTB	Base address for user interrupt vector table

08	RW	SVTB	Base address for supervisor interrupt vector table	
10	RW	HVTB	Base address for hypervisor interrupt vector table	
18	RW	MVTB	Base address for hypervisor machine vector table	
20	RW	VTL	Vector table limit	
28	RW	STAT	Bit	
			0	Que full, set if any que is full, cleared by software if written with a zero
			1	Set if stuck interrupt detected
			2 to 62	reserved
			63	Set if an interrupt is being requested
30	R	QUEL	Output of the priority queues, bits 0 to 63	
38	R	QUEH	Output of the priority queues, bits 64 to 127	
40	R	EMP	Queue empty status, one bit for each queue, 1=empty	
48	R	OVR	Queue overflow status, one bit for each queue, 1=overflowed	
380	RW	GE	Bit 0 = global interrupt enable	
390	RW	THRES	Interrupt threshold (0 to 63), IRQ priority must exceed this to be recognized.	
CPU affinity group table follows				
There are 256 groups that may be set. The interrupt vector references one of these groups to determine which CPU cores should be notified of an interrupt.				
800	RW	AFNx	CPU group, one bit for each CPU that should be notified	
...	RW		More CPU groups	
FF8	RW		Last CPU group	
Interrupt pending and enable tables follow. There are 128 64-bit entries for each table. This is enough to cover up to 2047 interrupts for each of four operating modes. User mode is entries 0 to 31, supervisor mode is entries 32 to 63, hypervisor 64 to 95 and machine 96 to 127.				
1000	RW	IP	Interrupt enable bits	
...			More IE bit registers	
13F8	RW	IP		
1400	RW	IE	Interrupt pending bits	
...			More interrupt pending bits	
17F8	RW	IE		

Base Address Fields

The base address fields default to zero. The address fields are present should the controller be adapted to use main memory instead of dedicated BRAM. The address fields act as an index into the dedicated vector table for the location of the vectors for each operating mode.

CPU Affinity Group Table

This table is an array of groups of CPU cores that should be notified of an interrupt. The interrupt vector selects one of these groups for the group of CPUs to notify. Note that normally only a single CPU core will ultimately be selected to process the interrupt. If bit zero of the CPU group is set, then the interrupt will be broadcast to all CPU cores in the group.

Interrupt Enable Bits

The interrupt enable bit array offers a fast way to enable or disable interrupts without having to update the interrupt vector table. Both the enable bit in the enable bit array and the enable bit in the vector table must be set for an interrupt to be enabled.

Interrupt Pending Bits

Writing a pending bit register clears the bit specified by the write data. If the MSB of the value written is a 1 then the corresponding interrupt is immediately triggered.

Interrupt Vector Table

The interrupt vector table has a default address of \$FF...FECC0000 to \$FF...FECDFFFF. This address may be changed by altering the BAR1 register in the config space. The interrupt vector table has four consecutive sections to it, one for each CPU operating mode. There are 2048 vectors available for each mode. The vector format is as follows:

127	112	111	104	103	101	100	98	97	96	95	0
Data ₁₆				CPU group ₈		~ ₃		Swstk ₃	IE	AI	Address ₆₄ or Instruction ₉₆

Field Description

AI: This field indicates that the vector contains an address (0) or an instruction (1)

IE: This field indicates if the interrupt is disabled (0) or enabled (1)

Swstk: This field contains the index of the software stack required to process the interrupt

CPU group: This field is an index into the CPU affinity group table which identifies which processor cores are candidates to receive the interrupt.

Data: This field is populated with data from the interrupt message.

QIT – Qupls Interval Timer

Overview

Many systems have at least one timer. The timing device may be built into the cpu, but it is frequently a separate component on its own. The programmable interval timer has many potential uses in the system. It can perform several different timing operations including pulse and waveform generation, along with measurements. While it is possible to manage timing events strictly through software it is quite challenging to perform in that manner. A hardware timer comes into play for the difficult to manage timing events. A hardware timer can supply precise timing. In the test system there are two groups of four timers. Timers are often grouped together in a single component. The QIT is a 64-bit peripheral. The QIT while powerful turns out to be one of the simpler peripherals in the system.

System Usage

One programmable timer component, which may include up 32 timers, is used to generate the system time slice interrupt and timing controls for system garbage collection. The second timer component is used to aid the paged memory management unit. There are free timing channels on the second timer component.

Each QIT is given an 8kB-byte memory range to respond to for I/O access. As is typical for I/O devices part of the address range is not decoded to conserve hardware.

PIT#1 is located at \$FFFFFFFFFEE40000 to \$FFFFFFFFFEE41FFF

PIT#2 is located at \$FFFFFFFFFEE50000 to \$FFFFFFFFFEE51FFF

Config Space

A 256-byte config space is supported. Most of the config space is unused. The only configuration is for the I/O address of the register set and the interrupt line used.

Regno	Width	R/W	Moniker	Description		
000	32	RO	REG_ID	Vendor and device ID		
004	32	R/W				
008	32	RO				
00C	32	R/W				
010	32	R/W	REG_BAR0	Base Address Register		
014	32	R/W	REG_BAR1	Base Address Register		
018	32	R/W	REG_BAR2	Base Address Register		

01C	32	R/W	REG_BAR3	Base Address Register		
020	32	R/W	REG_BAR4	Base Address Register		
024	32	R/W	REG_BAR5	Base Address Register		
028	32	R/W				
02C	32	RO		Subsystem ID		
030	32	R/W		Expansion ROM address		
034	32	RO				
038	32	R/W		Reserved		
03C	32	R/W		Interrupt		
040 to 0FF	32	R/W		Capabilities area		

REG_BAR0 defaults to \$FEE40001 which is used to specify the address of the controller's registers in the I/O address space. Note for additional groups of timers the REG_BAR0 must be changed to point to a different I/O address range. Note the core uses only bits determined by the address mask in the address range comparison. It is assumed that the I/O address select input, cs_io, will have bits 24 and above in its decode and that a 8kB page is required for the device, matching the MMU page size.

The controller will respond with a mask of 0xFFFFFFFF when BAR0 is written with all ones.

Parameters

CFG_BUS defaults to zero

CFG_DEVICE defaults to four

CFG_FUNC defaults to zero

CFG_ADDR_MASK defaults to 0x00FF0000

CFG_IRQ_LINE defaults to 29

Config parameters must be set correctly. CFG device and vendors default to zero.

Parameters

NTIMER: This parameter controls the number of timers present. The default is eight. The maximum is 32.

BITS: This parameter controls the number of bits in the counters. The default is 48 bits. The maximum is 64.

PIT_ADDR: This parameter sets the I/O address that the PIT responds to. The default is \$FEE40001.

PIT_ADDR_ALLOC: This parameter determines which bits of the address are significant during decoding. The default is \$00FF0000 for an allocation of 64kB. To compute the address range allocation required, 'or' the value from the register with \$FF000000, complement it then add 1.

Registers

The PIT has 134 registers addressed as 64-bit I/O cells. It occupies 2048 consecutive I/O locations. All registers are read-write except for the current counts which are read-only. All registers are 64-bit accessible; all 64 bits must be read or written. Values written to registers do not take effect until the synchronization register is written.

Note the core may be configured to implement fewer timers in which case timers that are not implemented will read as zero and ignore writes. The core may also be configured to support fewer bits per count register in which case the unimplemented bits will read as zero and ignore writes.

Regno	Access	Moniker	Purpose
00	R	CC0	Current Count
08	RW	MC0	Max count
10	RW	OT0	On Time
18	RW	CTRL0	Control
20 to 7F8	Groups of four registers for timer #1 to #63
800	RW	USTAT	Underflow status
808	RZW	SYNC	Synchronization register
810	RW	IE	Interrupt enable
818	RW	TMP	Temporary register
820	RO	OSTAT	Output status
828	RW	GATE	Gate register
830	RZW	GATEON	Gate on register
838	RZW	GATEOFF	Gate off register

Control Register

This register contains bits controlling the overall operation of the timer.

Bit		Purpose
0	LD	setting this bit will load max count into current count, this bit automatically resets to zero.
1	CE	count enable, if 1 counting will be enabled, if 0 counting is disabled and the current count register holds its value. On counter underflow this bit will be reset to zero causing the count to halt unless auto-reload is set.
2	AR	auto-reload, if 1 the max count will automatically be reloaded into the current count register when it underflows.
3	XC	external clock, if 1 the counter is clocked by an external clock source. The external clock source must be of lower frequency than the clock supplied to the PIT. The PIT contains edge detectors on the external clock source and counting occurs on the detection of a positive edge on the clock source. This bit is forced to 0 for timers 4 to 31.
4	GE	gating enable, if 1 an external gate signal will also be required to be active high for the counter to count, otherwise if 0 the external gate is ignored. Gating the counter using the external gate may allow pulse-width measurement. This bit is forced to 0 for timers 4 to 31.
5 to 63	~	not used, reserved

Current Count

This register reflects the current count value for the timer. The value in this register will change by counting downwards whenever a count signal is active. The current count may be automatically reloaded at underflow if the auto reload bit (bit #2) of the control byte is set. The current count may also be force loaded to the max count by setting the load bit (bit #0) of the counter control byte.

Max Count

This register holds onto the maximum count for the timer. It is loaded by software and otherwise does not change. When the counter underflows the current count may be automatically reloaded from the max count register.

On Time

The on-time register determines the output pulse width of the timer. The timer output is low until the on-time value is reached, at which point the timer output switches high. The timer output remains high until the counter reaches zero at which point the timer output is reset back to zero. So, the on time reflects the length

of time the timer output is high. The timer output is low for max count minus the on-time clock cycles.

Underflow Status

The underflow status register contains a record of which timers underflowed.

Writing the underflow register clears the underflows and disable further interrupts where bits are set in the incoming data. Interrupt processing should read the underflow register to determine which timers underflowed, then write back the value to the underflow register.

Synchronization Register

The synchronization register allows all the timers to be updated simultaneously. Values written to timer registers do not take effect until the synchronization register is written. The synchronization register must be written with a '1' bit in the bit position corresponding to the timer to update. For instance, writing all one's to the sync register will cause all timers to be updated. The synchronization register is write-only and reads as zero.

Interrupt Enable Register

Each bit of the interrupt enable register enables the interrupt for the corresponding timer. Interrupts must also be globally enabled by the interrupt enable bit in the config space for interrupts to occur. A '1' bit enables the interrupt, a '0' bit value disables it.

Temporary Register

This is merely a register that may be used to hold values temporarily.

Output Status

The output status register reflects the current status of the timers output (high or low). This register is read-only.

Gate Register

The internal gate register is used to temporarily halt or resume counting for the timer corresponding to the bit position of this register. Writing a value to this register will turn on all timers where there is a '1' bit in the value and turn off all timers where there is a '0' bit in the value.

Gate On Register

The internal gate 'on' register is used to resume counting for the timer corresponding to the bit position of this register. Writing a value to this register will turn on all timers

where there is a '1' bit in the value. Where there is a '0' in the value the timer will not be affected. This register reads as zero.

Gate Off Register

The internal gate 'off' register is used to halt counting for the timer corresponding to the bit position of this register. Writing a value to this register will turn off all timers where there is a '1' bit in the value. Where there is a '0' in the value the timer will not be affected. This register reads as zero.

Programming

The PIT is a memory mapped i/o device. The PIT is programmed using 64-bit load and store instructions (LDO and STO). Byte loads and stores (LDB, STB) may be used for control register access. It must reside in the non-cached address space of the system.

Interrupts

The core is configured use interrupt signal #29 by default. This may be changed with the CFG_IRQ_LINE parameter. Interrupts may be globally disabled by writing the interrupt disable bit in the config space with a '1'. Individual interrupts may be enabled or disabled by the setting of the interrupt enable register in the I/O space.

Glossary

ABI

An acronym for application binary interface. An ABI is a description of the interface between software and hardware, or between software modules. It includes things like the expected register usage by the compiler. Some registers hardware has specific requirements for are noted in the ABI, for instance r0 may always be zero or it may be a usable register. The stack pointer may need to be a specific register. A good ABI is an aid to guaranteeing that software works when coming from multiple sources.

AMO

AMO stands for atomic memory operation. An atomic memory operation typically reads then writes to memory in a fashion that may not be interrupted by another processor. Some examples of AMO operations are swap, add, and, and or. AMO operations are typically passed from the CPU to the memory controller and the memory controller performs the operation.

Assembler

A program that translates mnemonics and operands into machine code OR a low-level language used by programmers to conveniently translate programs into machine code. Compilers are often capable of generating assembler code as an output.

ATC

ATC stands for address translation cache. This buffer is used to cache address translations for fast memory access in a system with an mmu capable of performing address translations. The address translation cache is more commonly known as the TLB.

Base Pointer

An alternate term for frame pointer. The frame or base pointer is used by high-level languages to access variables on the stack.

Burst Access

A burst access is several bus accesses that occur rapidly in a row in a known sequence. If hardware supports burst access the cycle time for access to the

device is drastically reduced. For instance, dynamic RAM memory access is fast for sequential burst access, and somewhat slower for random access.

BTB

An acronym for Branch Target Buffer. The branch target buffer is used to improve the performance of a processing core. The BTB is a table that stores the branch target from previously executed branch instructions. A typical table may contain 1024 entries. The table is typically indexed by part of the branch address. Since the target address of a branch type instruction may not be known at fetch time, the address is speculated to be the address in the branch target buffer. This allows the machine to fetch instructions in a continuous fashion without pipeline bubbles. In many cases the calculated branch address from a previously executed instruction remains the same the next time the same instruction is executed. If the address from the BTB turns out to be incorrect, then the machine will have to flush the instruction queue or pipeline and begin fetching instructions from the correct address.

Card Memory

A card memory is a memory reserved to record the location of pointer stores in a garbage collection system. The card memory is much smaller than main memory; there may be card memory entry for a block of main memory addresses. Card memory covers memory in 128 to 512-byte sized blocks. Usually, a byte is dedicated to record the pointer store status even though a bit would be adequate, for performance reasons. The location of card memory to update is found by shifting the pointer value to the right some number of bits (7 to 9 bits) and then adding the base address of the table. The update to the card memory needs to be done with interrupts disabled.

Commit

As in commit stage of processor. This is the stage where the processor is dedicated or committed to performing the operation. There are no prior outstanding exceptions or flow control changes to prevent the instruction from executing. The instruction may execute in the commit stage, but registers and memory are not updated until the retire stage of the processor.

Decimal Floating Point

Floating point numbers encoded specially to allow processing as decimal numbers. Decimal floating point allows processing every-day decimal numbers rounding in the same manner as would be done by hand.

Decode

The stage in a processor where instructions are decoded or broken up into simpler control signals. For instance, there is often a register file write signal that must be decoded from instructions that update the register file.

Diadic

As in diadic instruction. An instruction with two operands.

DUT

An acronym for Design Under Test.

Endian

Computing machines are often referred to as big endian or little endian. The endian of the machine has to do with the order bits and bytes are labeled. Little endian machines label bits from right to left with the lowest bit at the right. Big endian machines label bits from left to right with the lowest numbered bit at the left.

FIFO

An acronym standing for 'first-in first-out'. Fifo memories are used to aid data transfer when the rate of data exchange may have momentary differences. Usually when fifos transfer data the average data rate for input and output is the same. Data is stored in a buffer in order then retrieved from the buffer in order. Uarts often contain fifos.

FPGA

An acronym for Field Programmable Gate Array. FPGA's consist of a large number of small RAM tables, flip-flops, and other logic. These are all connected with a programmable connection network. FPGA's are 'in the field' programmable, and usually re-programmable. An FPGA's re-programmability is typically RAM based. They are often used with configuration PROM's so they may be loaded to perform specific functions.

Floating Point

A means of encoding numbers into binary code to allow processing. Floating point numbers have a range within which numbers may be processed, outside of this range the number will be marked as infinity or zero. The range is usually large enough that it is not a concern for most programs.

Frame Pointer

A pointer to the current working area on the stack for a function. Local variables and parameters may be accessed relative to the frame pointer. As a program progresses a series of “frames” may build up on the stack. In many cases the frame pointer may be omitted, and the stack pointer used for references instead. Often a register from the general register file is used as a frame pointer.

HDL

An acronym that stands for ‘Hardware Description Language’. A hardware description language is used to describe hardware constructs at a high level.

HLL

An acronym that stands for “High Level Language”

Instruction Bundle

A group of instructions. It is sometimes required to group instructions together into bundle. For instance, all instructions in a bundle may be executed simultaneously on a processor as a unit. Instructions may also need to be grouped if they are oddball in size for example 41 bits, so that they can be fit evenly into memory. Typically, a bundle has some bits that are global to the bundle, such as template bits, in addition to the encoded instructions.

Instruction Pointers

A processor register dedicated to addressing instructions in memory. It is also often called a program counter. The program counter got its name because it usually increments (or counts) automatically after an instruction is fetched. In early machines in some rare cases the program counter did not count in a sequential binary fashion, but instead used other forms of a counter such as a grey counter or linear feedback shift register. In some

machines the program counter addresses bundles of instructions rather than individual instructions. This is common with some stack machines where multiple instructions are packed into a memory word.

Instruction Prefix

An instruction prefix applies to the following instruction to modify its operation. An instruction prefix may be used to add more bits to a following immediate constant, or to add additional register fields for the instruction. The prefix essentially extends the number of bits available to encode instructions. An instruction prefix usually locks out interrupts between the prefix and following instruction.

Instruction Modifier

An instruction modifier is similar to an instruction prefix except that the modifier may apply to multiple following instructions.

ISA

An acronym for Instruction Set Architecture. The group of instructions that an architecture supports. ISA's are sometimes categorized at extreme edges as RISC or CISC. RTF64 falls somewhere in between with features of both RISC and CISC architectures.

IPI

An acronym for Inter-Processor-Interrupt. An inter-processor interrupt is an interrupt sent from one processor to another.

JIT

An acronym standing for Just-In-Time. JIT compilers typically compile segments of a program just before usage, and hence are called JIT compilers.

Keyed Memory

A memory system that has a key associated with each page to protect access to the page. A process must have a matching key in its key list in order to access the memory page. The key is often 20 bits or larger. Keys for pages are usually cached in the processor for performance reasons. The key may be part of the paging tables.

Linear Address

A linear address is the resulting address from a virtual address after segmentation has been applied.

Machine Code

A code that the processing machine is able execute. Machine code is lowest form of code used for processing and is not usually dealt with by programmers except in debugging cases. While it is possible to assemble machine code by hand usually a tool called an assembler is used for this purpose.

Milli-code

A short sequence of code that may be used to emulate a higher-level instruction. For instance, a garbage collection write barrier might be written as milli-code. Milli-code may use an alternate link register to return to obtain better performance.

Monadic

An instruction with just a single operand.

MSI

An acronym for Message Signaled Interrupt. A message signaled interrupt is an interrupt processed using a message sent to a CPU using in-band resources.

Opcode

A short form for operation code, a code that determines what operation the processor is going to perform. Instructions are typically made up of opcodes and operands.

Operand

The data that an opcode operates on, or the result produced by the operation. Operands are often located in registers. Inputs to an operation are referred to as source operands, the result of an operation is a destination operand.

Physical Address

A physical address is the final address seen by the memory system after both segmentation and paging have been applied to a virtual address. One can think of a physical address as one that is “physically” wired to the memory.

Physical Memory Attributes (PMA)

Memory usually has several characteristics associated with it. In the memory system there may be several different types of memory, rom, static ram, dynamic ram, eeprom, memory mapped I/O devices, and others. Each type of memory device is likely to have different characteristics. These characteristics are called the physical memory attributes. Physical memory attributes are associated with address ranges that the memory is located in. There may be a hardware unit dedicated to verifying software is adhering to the attributes associated with the memory range. The hardware unit is called a physical memory attributes checker (PMA checker).

PIC

An acronym for Position Independent Code. Position independent code is code that will execute properly no matter where it is located. The code may be moved in memory without needing to be modified.

Posits

An alternate representation of numbers.

Program Counter

A processor register dedicated to addressing instructions in memory. It is also often and perhaps more aptly called an instruction pointer. The program counter got its name because it usually increments (or counts) automatically after an instruction is fetched. In early machines in some rare cases the program counter did not count in a sequential binary fashion, but instead used other forms of a counter such as a grey counter or linear feedback shift register. In some machines the program counter addresses bundles of instructions rather than individual instructions. This is common with some stack machines where multiple instructions are packed into a memory word.

RAT

Anacronym for Register Alias Table. The RAT stores mappings of architectural registers to physical registers.

Retire

As in retire an instruction. This is the stage in processor in which the machine state is updated. Updates include the register file and memory. Buffers used for instruction storage are freed.

ROB

An acronym for ReOrder Buffer. The re-order buffer allows instructions to execute out of order yet update the machine's state in order by tracking instruction state and variables. In FT64 the re-order buffer is a circular queue with a head and tail pointers. Instructions at the head are committed if done to the machine's state then the head advanced. New instructions are queued at the buffer's tail as long as there is room in the queue. Instructions in the queue may be processed out of the order that they entered the queue in depending on the availability of resources (register values and functional units).

RSB

An acronym that stands for return stack buffer. A buffer of addresses used to predict the return address which increases processor performance. The RSB is usually small, typically 16 entries. When a return instruction is detected at time of fetch the RSB is accessed to determine the address of the next instruction to fetch. Predicting the return address allows the processing core to continuously fetch instructions in a speculative fashion without bubbles in the pipeline. The return address in the RSB may turn out to be detected as incorrect during execution of the return instruction, in which case the pipeline or instruction queue will need to be flushed and instructions fetched from the proper address.

SIMD

An acronym that stands for 'Single Instruction Multiple Data'. SIMD instructions are usually implemented with extra wide registers. The registers contain multiple data items, such as a 128-bit register containing four 32-bit numbers. The same instruction is applied to all the data items in the register

at the same time. For some applications SIMD instructions can enhance performance considerably.

Stack Pointer

A processor register dedicated to addressing stack memory. Sometimes this register is assigned by convention from the general register pool. This register may also sometimes index into a small dedicated stack memory that is not part of the main memory system. Sometimes machines have multiple stack pointers for different purposes, but they all work on the idea of a stack. For instance, in Forth machines there are typically two stacks, one for data and one for return addresses.

Telescopic Memory

A memory system composed of layers where each layer contains simplified data from the topmost layer downwards. At the topmost layer data is represented verbatim. At the bottom layer there may be only a single bit to represent the presence of data. Each layer of the telescopic memory uses far less memory than the layer above. A telescopic memory could be used in garbage collection systems. Normally however the extra overhead of updating multiple layers of memory is not warranted.

TLB

TLB stands for translation look-aside buffer. This buffer is used to store address translations for fast memory access in a system with an mmu capable of performing address translations.

Trace Memory

A memory that traces instructions or data. As instructions are executed the address of the executing instruction is stored in a trace memory. The trace memory may then be dumped to allow debugging of software. The trace memory may compress the storage of addresses by storing branch status (taken or not taken) for consecutive branches rather than storing all addresses. It typically requires only a single bit to store the branch status. However, even when branches are traced, periodically the entire address of the program executing is stored. Often trace buffers support tracing thousands of instructions.

Triadic

An instruction with three operands.

Vector Chaining

Vector chaining is a form of pipelining used with vector processors. A CPU that supports vector chaining can begin processing additional vector instructions before previous ones are complete. The processing of vector instructions is overlapped.

Vector Length (VL register)

The vector length register controls the maximum number of elements of a vector that are processed. The vector length register may not be set to a value greater than the number of elements supported by hardware. Vector registers often contain more elements than are required by program code. It would be wasteful to process all elements when only a few are needed. To improve the processing performance only the elements up to the vector length are examined.

Vector Mask (VM)

A vector mask is used to restrict which elements of a vector are processed during a vector operation. A one bit in a mask register enables the processing for that element, a zero bit disables it. The mask register is commonly set using a vector set operation.

Virtual Address

The address before segmentation and paging has been applied. This is the primary type of address a program will work with. Different programs may use the same virtual address range without being concerned about data being overwritten by another program. Although the virtual address may be the same the final physical addresses used will be different.

Writeback

A stage in a pipelined processing core where the machine state is updated. Values are 'written back' to the register file.

Miscellaneous

Reference Material

Below is a short list of some of the reading material the author has studied. The author has downloaded a fair number of documents on computer architecture from the web. Too many to list.

Modern Processor Design Fundamentals of Superscalar Processors by John Paul Shen, Mikko H. Lipasti. Waveland Press, Inc.

Computer Architecture A Quantitative Approach, Second Edition, by John L Hennessy & David Patterson, published by Morgan Kaufman Publishers, Inc. San Francisco, California is a good book on computer architecture. There is a newer edition of the book available.

Memory Systems Cache, DRAM, Disk by Bruce Jacob, Spencer W. Ng., David T. Wang, Samuel Rodriguez, Morgan Kaufman Publishers

PowerPC Microprocessor Developer's Guide, SAMS publishing. 201 West 103rd Street, Indianapolis, Indiana, 46290

80386/80486 Programming Guide by Ross P. Nelson, Microsoft Press

Programming the 286, C. Vieillefond, SYBEX, 2021 Challenger Drive #100, Alameda, CA 94501

Tech. Report UMD-SCA-2000-02 ENEE 446: Digital Computer Design — An Out-of-Order RiSC-16

Programming the 65C816, David Eyes and Ron Lichty, Western Design Centre Inc.

Microprocessor Manuals from Motorola, and Intel,

The SPARC Architecture Manual Version 8, SPARC International Inc, 535 Middlefield Road, Suite 210 Menlo Park California, CA 94025

The SPARC Architecture Manual Version 9, SPARC International Inc, San Jose California, PTR Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 07632

The MMIX processor: [5](#)

RISCV 2.0 Spec, Andrew Waterman, Yunsup Lee, David Patterson, Krste Asanović CS Division, EECS Department, University of California, Berkeley
 {waterman|yunsup|patterson|krste}@eecs.berkeley.edu

The Garbage Collection Handbook, Richard Jones, Antony Hosking, Eliot Moss published by CRC Press 2012

RISC-V Cryptography Extensions Volume I Scalar & Entropy Source Instructions See github.com/riscv/riscv-crypto for more information.

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WISHBONE Compatibility Datasheet

The Qupls core now uses the FTA bus which is not compatible with WISHBONE. Many signals serve a similar function to those on the WISHBONE bus so they are listed here. A bus bridge is required to interface FTA bus to WISHBONE as WISHBONE is a synchronous bus and FTA is asynchronous.

WISHBONE Datasheet		
WISHBONE SoC Architecture Specification, Revision B.3		
Description:	Specifications:	
General Description:	Central processing unit (CPU core)	
Supported Cycles:	MASTER, READ / WRITE MASTER, READ-MODIFY-WRITE MASTER, BLOCK READ / WRITE, BURST READ (FIXED ADDRESS)	
Data port, size:	128 bit	
Data port, granularity:	8 bit	
Data port, maximum operand size:	128 bit	
Data transfer ordering:	Little Endian	
Data transfer sequencing	any (undefined)	
Clock frequency constraints:	tm_clk_i must be >= 10MHz	
Supported signal list and cross reference to equivalent WISHBONE signals	Signal Name:	WISHBONE Equiv.
	Resp.ack_i	ACK_I
	Req.adr_o(31:0)	ADR_O()
	clk_i	CLK_I
	resp.dat(127:0)	DAT_I()
	req.dat(127:0)	DAT_O()
	req.cyc	CYC_O
	req.stb	STB_O
	req.wr	WE_O

	req.sel(7:0) req.cti(2:0) req.bte(1:0)	SEL_O CTI_O BTE_O
Special Requirements:		

FTA Bus

Overview

The FTA bus is an asynchronous bus meaning it does not wait for responses before beginning the next bus cycle. It is a request and response bus. Requests are outgoing from a bus master and incoming to a bus slave. Responses are output by a bus slave and input by a bus master. FTA bus includes standard signals for address, data, and control. These signals should be like those found on many other busses.

Bus Tags

The bus has tagged transactions; there is an id tag associated with each bus transaction. The id tag contains identifiers for the core, channel, and transaction. The core is a core number for a multi-core CPU. Channel selects a particular channel in the core which may for instance be a data channel or an instruction channel. Finally, the transaction id identifies the specific transaction. Incoming responses are matched against transactions that were outgoing. For instance, a bus master may issue a burst request for four bus transactions to fill a cache line. Each transaction will have an id associated with it. When the slave receives the transactions it sends back responses for each of the four requests with ids that match those in the request. The slave does not necessarily send back responses in the same order. Transaction requests from the master may not arrive in order.

*An id tag of all zeros is illegal – it represents the bus available state.

Single Cycle

The bus operates on a single cycle basis. Transaction requests and responses are routed through the soc interconnect network as the bus is available and are present for only a single clock cycle. Bus bridges may buffer the transactions for a short period of time. Generally, requests going out from masters do not need buffering as access to the bus will have been arbitrated before the bus cycle begins. Responses coming back from slaves may need to be buffered as two slaves may respond at the same time.

Retry

If the bus is unavailable the retry response signal is asserted to the master. The master must retry the transaction.

Signal Description

Following is a signal description for requests and responses for a 128-bit data version of the bus. Signal values have been chosen so that a value of zero represents a bus idle state. If nothing is on the bus it will be all zeros.

Requests

Signal	Width	Description	
Om	2	Operating mode	
Cmd	5	Command for bus controller or memory controller	
Bte	3	Burst type	
Cti	3	Cycle type	
Blen	6	Burst length -1 (0=1 to 63=64)	
sz	4	Transfer size	
Segment	3	Code, data, or stack	
Cyc	1	Bus cycle is valid	
Stb	1	Data strobe	
We	1	Write enable	
Asid	16	Address space id	
Vadr	32/64	Virtual address	
Padr	32/64	Physical address	
Sel	16	Byte lane selects	
Data1	128	First data item	
Data2	128	Second data item	
Tid	13	Transaction id	
Csr	1	Clear or set address reservation	
Pl	8	Privilege level	
Pri	4	Transaction priority (higher is better)	
Cache	4	Transaction cacheability	

Responses

Signal	Width	Description	
Tid	13	Transaction id	
Stall	1	Stall pipeline	
Next	1	Advance to next transaction	
Ack	1	Request acknowledgement (data is available)	
Rty	1	Retry transaction	
Err	3	Error code	
Pri	4	Transaction priority	

Adr	32/64	Physical address	
Dat	32/64/128/256	Response data	

Om

Operating mode, this corresponds to the operating mode of the CPU. Some devices are limited to specific modes.

Cmd

Command for memory controller. This is how the memory controller knows what to do with the data.

Ordinal		
0	CMD_NONE	No command
1	CMD_LOAD	Perform a sign extended data load operation
2	CMD_LOADZ	Perform a zero extended data load operation
3	CMD_STORE	Perform a data store operation
4	CMD_STOREPTR	Perform a pointer store operation
7	CMD_LEA	Load the effective address
10	CMD_DCACHE_LOAD	Perform load operation intended for data cache
11	CMD_ICACHE_LOAD	Perform load operation intended for instruction cache
13	CMD_CACHE	Issue a cache control command
16	CMD_SWAP	AMO swap operation
18	CMD_MIN	AMO min operation
19	CMD_MAX	AMO max operation
20	CMD_ADD	AMO add operation
22	CMD_ASL	AMO left shift operation
23	CMD_LSR	AMO right shift operation
24	CMD_AND	AMO and operation
25	CMD_OR	AMO or operation
26	CMD_EOR	AMO exclusive or operation
28	CMD_MINU	AMO unsigned minimum operation
29	CMD_MAXU	AMO unsigned maximum operation
31	CMD_CAS	AMO compare and swap
Others		reserved

BTE

Burst type extension.

Ordinal	
0	Linear

1	Wrap 4
2	Wrap 8
3	Wrap 16
4	Wrap 32
5	Wrap 64
6	Wrap 128
7	reserved

CTI

Cycle Type Indicator

Ordinal		Comment
0	Classic	
1	fixed	Constant data address
2	Incr	Incrementing data address
3	erc	Record errors on write
4	Irqa	Interrupt acknowledge
7	Eob	End of burst
others		reserved

Normally write cycles do not send a response back to the master. The ERC cycle type indicates that the master wants a response back from a write operation.

Blen

Burst length, this is the number of transactions in the burst minus one. There is a maximum of 64 transactions. With a 128-bit bus this is 1024 bytes of data.

Sz

Transfer size.

Ordinal		Transfer size
0	Nul	Nothing is transferred
1	Byt	A single byte
2	Wyde	Two bytes
3	Tetra	Four bytes
4	Penta	Five bytes
5	Octa	Eight bytes
6	Hexi	Sixteen bytes

10	vect	A vector 64 bytes (512 bit bus)
Others		Reserved

Segment

The memory segment associated with the transfer.

Ordinal	
0	data
6	stack
7	code
others	reserved

TID

Transaction ID. This is made up of three fields.

Size	Use
6	Core number
3	Channel
4	Tran id

Cache

Cache-ability of transaction. A transaction may be non-cacheable meaning as it progresses through the cache hierarchy it does not store data in the cache. It only stores data when it reaches the final memory destination.

Ordinal		
0	NC_NB	Non cacheable, non bufferable
1	NON_CACHEABLE	
2	CACHEABLE_NB	Cacheable, non bufferable
3	CACHEABLE	
8	WT_NO_ALLOCATE	Write-through without allocating
9	WT_READ_ALLOCATE	
10	WT_WRITE_ALLOCATE	
11	WT_READWRITE_ALLOCATE	
12	WB_NO_ALLOCATE	Write-back without allocating

13	WB_READ_ALLOCATE	
14	WB_WRITE_ALLOCATE	
15	WB_READWRITE_ALLOCATE	

Message Signaled Interrupts

FTA bus provides for message signaled interrupts. A MSI interrupt transfers the required information to an interrupt controller without needing a request for it. This trims cycle time off an interrupt request. The interrupt controller constantly snoops the CPU response bus for IRQ requests.

Up to 62 interrupt controllers may be targeted to process interrupts messages. The interrupt table located in the controller specifies which of 62 target CPU cores to notify of the interrupt. Therefore about 3800 CPU cores may be easily used for interrupt processing.

There is a response code ('IRQ') on the response bus to support message signaled interrupts. A slave may place an IRQ message on a response bus (the 'err' field) to interrupt the master.

Signal	Description
ack	This signal indicates a valid response; should be high for MSI
err	Value = IRQ
dat	Interrupt message data. Typically 32-bits
tid	The coreno (upper 6 bits) should reflect the target core servicing the interrupt. This is an interrupt controller number. The interrupt priority is in the lower 6 -bits.
adr	The 'adr' field of the response indicates the bus/device/function generating the interrupt.