UNIVERSITY COLLEGE LONDON

DEPARTMENT OF ELECTRONIC AND ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING

Performance characterisation of 8-bit RISC and OISC architectures

Author:
Mindaugas
JARMOLOVIČIUS
zceemja@ucl.ac.uk

Supervisor:
Prof. Robert
KILLEY
r.killey@ucl.ac.uk

Second Assessor:
Dr. Ed
ROMANS
e.romans@ucl.ac.uk

A BEng Project Final Report

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Abstract

To be added

Contents

1 Introduction

Since the 70s there has been a rise of many processor architectures that try to fulfil specific performance and power application constraints. One of more noticeable cases are ARM RISC (Reduced Instruction Set Computer) architecture being used in mobile devices instead of the more popular and robust x86 CISC (Complex Instruction Set Computer) architecture in favour of simplicity, cost and lower power consumption [1, 2]. It has been shown that in low power applications, such as IoTs (Internet of Things), OISC (One Instruction Set Computer) implementation can be superior in power and data throughput comparing to traditional RISC architectures [3, 4]. This project proposes to compare two novel RISC and OISC 8bit architectures and compare their performance, design complexity and efficiency.

1.1 Aims and Objectives

The project has three main objectives:

1. Design and build a RISC based processor.

2. Design and build an OISC based processor.

3. Design and perform a fair benchmark on both processors.

1.2 Supporting Theory

This section goes though supporting theory of RISC and OISC architectures, and their comparison.

Principal functions of general OISC architecture should have advantage in performance and power consumption while having lower transistor count. There are several theoretical models to implement a processor using only one instruction, most important are subtract and branch, MOVE and half adder architectures [25].

Some researches have proven benefits of subtract and branch architecture over RISC:

- Using OISC `SUBLEQ` (SUBtract and jump if Less or EQuial to zero) as a coprocessor for the MIPS-ISA processor to emulate the functionality of different classes shows desirable area/performance/power trade-offs [4].
- Comparing OISC `SUBLEQ` multicore to RISC achieves better performance and lower energy for streaming data processing [3].

Looking at OISC `MOVE` type, it has been researched since early 90s. It has been shown that `MOVE` can benefits of VLIW (very large instruction word) arrangement, classifying it as SIMO (single instruction, multiple operation) or SIMT (single instruction, multiple transports) architectures. Problem with all of these arrangement is that they exhibit poor or complex hardware utilization. OISC `MOVE` has been proposed as a design framework enabling lower complexity, better hardware utilization, and scalable performance [5]. In this framework a Transport Triggered Architecture (TTA) is described which describes how single instruction should transport data. To support theoretical benefits, a `MOVE32INT` TTA has been designed [6] and proven to be superior architecture to RISC. Using $1.6 \mu m$ fabrication technology RISC achieved 20MHz clock with 20Mops/second, `MOVE32INT` implemented using SoGs (Sea of Gates) achieved 80MHz with 320Mops/second [7].

TTA framework as further used in other researches to implement Application-Specific Instruction Set Processors (ASIPs) to solve various problems. Some of the relevant examples are RSA calculation [8]; matrix inversion [9]; Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) [10]; IWEP, RC4 and 3DES encryption [11]; Parallel Finite Impulse Response (FIR) filter [12]; Low-Density Parity-Check (LDPC) encoding [13]; Software Defined Radio (SDR) [14]. One of the most recent researches use TTA architecture to solve Compressive Sensing algorithms. It showed 9 times of energy efficiency that

of FPGA implemented NIOS II processor, and theoretical 20 time energy efficiency that of ARM Cortex-A15 [15]. This particular research however, ARM Cortex-A15 uses 28nm Metal Gate CMOS technology, comparing to 60nm Silicon Gate CMOS technology used in Altera Cyclone IV-EP4CE115F29C7 FPGA which been used for implementing particular TTA. Both processor implementations cannot be directly compared.

Most of these researches show that TTA has greater power efficiency, higher clock frequency, lower logic resource count.

These benefits come with an expense, VLIW has bigger instruction word therefore bigger program size. TTA especially suffers from this due to redundant instructions. Some proposed solutions are variable length instructions and instruction templates, which reduced program size between 30% and 44%; [16, 17]; compression based on arithmetic coding [18]; and methods to remove redundant instructions [19]. Software is another difficulty as compiler need to take additional steps for data transportation optimisations. TTA software can be easily exploited however, to embed software pipelining and parallelism without need of extra hardware [20].

With proposed `MOVE` framework, hardware utilisation shown to be improved by reducing transition activity [21], reducing interconnects shown saving 13% of energy [22] on small scale. A novel architecture named SynZEN also showed a further improvements by using adaptable processing unit and simple control logic [23].

1.3   Project contents

Section 2 will go more in details behind motivation and project decisions based on Supporting Theory. Section 3 explains theory and result predictions. Section 4 explains both processor design choices and how each processor part is implemented on OISC and RISC processor. It also includes assembly design. In section 5, results will be discussed, including benchmark methods. Summary and conclusion of design and results can be found in section 6. Appendix in section 7 includes any other information such as both processor instruction set.

2 Goals and Objectives

This project can be classified as Design and Construction type, which explores alternative designs of processor architecture and microarchitecture. Main goals are:

1. Study and explore computer architectures, SystemVerilog and assembly languages.

2. Compare how well OISC `MOVE` architecture would perform in low performance microcontroller application comparing to equivalent and most commonly used RISC architecture.

3. View an alternative method of using OISC `MOVE` in a SISO (single instruction, single operation) structure, comparing to more commonly implemented TTAs VLIW architectures that are either SIMO or SIMT structure.

2.1 RISC Processor

As this is aimed for low power and performance applications it will be 8bit word processor with four general purpose registers, structure is similar to MIPS. RISC architecture will be mainly based on MIPS architecture explained in [24], except it this RISC processor would have 8bit databus and would have multiple optimisations related to 8bit limits. Some minimalistic ideas was also from [25].

2.2 OISC Processor

OISC `MOVE` has many benefits from VLIW and SIMO or SIMT design, however there is a lack of research investigating and comparing more general purpose OISC `MOVE` 8bit processor with short instruction word and SISO configuration. The main theory for building OISC architecture will be based on [25].

2.3 Design Criteria

In order for fair comparison between both architectures, a common design criteria:

- Minimal instruction size

- Minimalistic design

- 8bit data bus width

- 16bit ROM address width

- 24bit RAM address width

- 16bit RAM word size

When constructing these points, time and equipment resources were taken into consideration.

2.4 Benchmark

This benchmark include different algorithms that are commonly used in 8bit microcontrollers, IoT devices or similar low power microprocessor applications.

3 Theory and Analytical Bases

In this section differences in RISC and OISC are explained. It includes predictions and theory behind it.

This paper will be exploring is classical SISO processors. TTAs described section 1.2 are usually of type SIMT (single instruction, multiple transports) [7]; A middle between these two classes is SIMO type (single instruction, multiple operation).

3.1 RISC Processor

In this project, proposed RISC microarchitecture is mainly based on MIPS microarchitecture [24]. Figure 3.1.1 represents simplified diagram of proposed RISC processor. In this architecture, program data travels from program memory to the control block where instruction is decoded. Then control
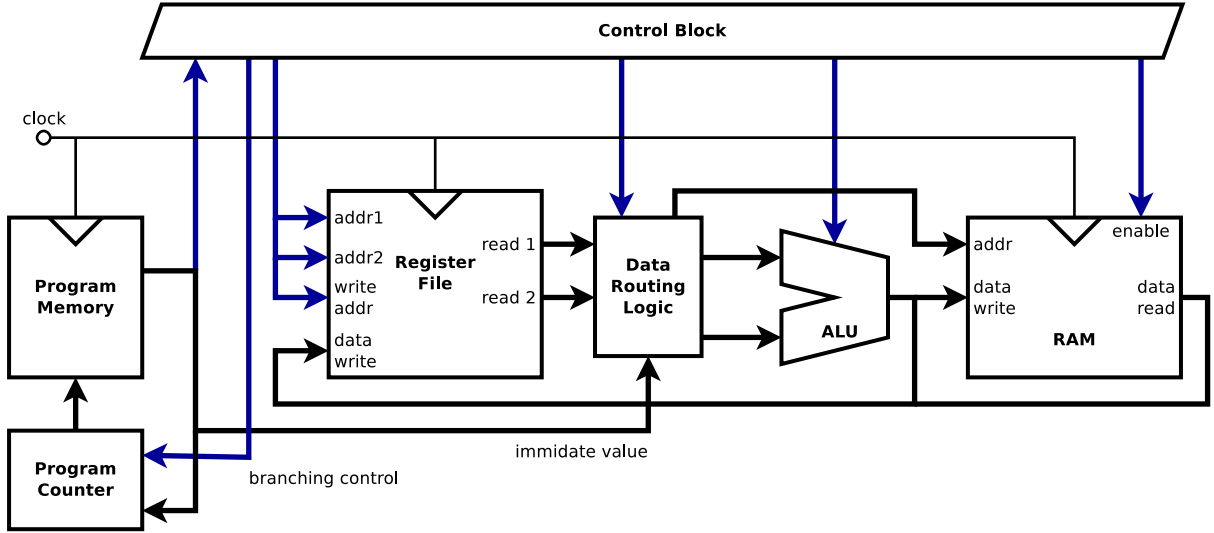
4

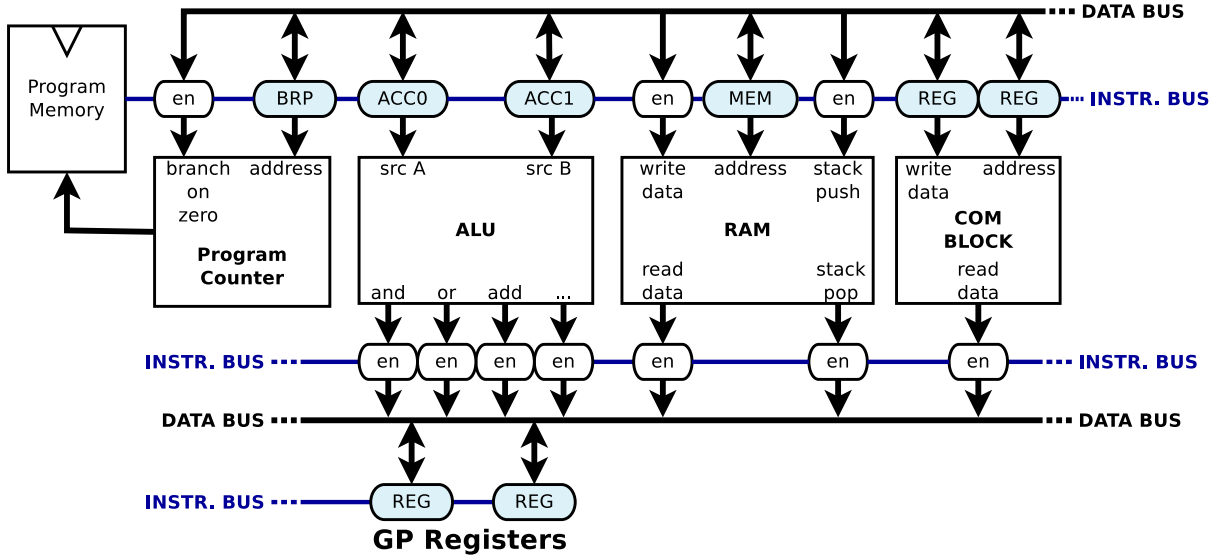***Figure 3.1.1:*** *Abstract diagram of proposed RISC structure*

Figure 3.1.2: *Abstract diagram of proposed OISC structure*

block further decides how data is directed in the datapath block. Such structure requires a complicated control block and additional data routing blocks. Depending on instruction, control block sets ALU, register file, memory operations and how data flows from one to other. Therefore, if non of blocks are bypassed, data can flow though every of these blocks, creating a log chain of combinational logic and increasing critical path. However this enables great flexibility allowing multiple operations to happen during single step, for example load value from register to memory, while address value is immediate offset by other register value using ALU. In order to increase performance of such processor, pipelining or multiple cores may be used.

3.1.1   Pipelining

$$T_c = t_{pcq} + t_{ROM} + t_{register} + \\ t_{routing} + t_{ALU} + t_{RAM} + t_{setup} \quad (1)$$

Equation 1 shows maximum processor cycle period T_c which depends on combina-

tional logic delay of every logic block, flip-flop time of propagation from clock to output of synchronous sequential circuit t_{pcq} and flip-flop setup time t_{setup}.

$$T_{cp} = max \begin{pmatrix} t_{pcq} + t_{ROM} + t_{setup}, \\ t_{pcq} + t_{register} + t_{setup}, \\ t_{pcq} + t_{ALU} + t_{setup}, \\ t_{pcq} + t_{RAM} + t_{setup} \end{pmatrix} \quad (2)$$

Pipelinig separates each processor datapath block with a flip-flop. This changes combinational logic critical path this reducing cycle period. Pipelined processor cycle period T_{cp} is represented in equation 2. Such modification could technically increase clock frequency by 2 or 3 times.

Pipelining, however, introduces other design complications. Instructions that depend on each other, for example operation $R = A + B + C$ needs to be executed in two steps, $t = A + B$ and $R = t + C$. Second step is depends and previous step result. Therefore additional logic is required to detect such dependencies and bypass datapath stages, or stall pipelining. Furthermore, breaching would also require stalling, temporary saving datapath stage and restoring it if needed when branching is concluded, or further branch prediction logic. Such dependency and branching issue requires hazards prevention logic which increases processor complexity and required resources.

3.1.2 Multiple cores

Multicore system is a solution to increase processor throughput by having multiple datapath and control logic instances, each running separate instructions. Cores share other resources such as RAM.

Multicore processor requires software adjustments as each processor core would execute separate programs. Therefore, some synchronisation between them is needed. A single additional core would also double the control and datapath blocks, substantially increasing resource requirements too. In addition, problems most often cannot be perfectly divided to parallel tasks due to some result dependencies between each task. Therefore, doubling processor core count would not likely result double the performance.

3.2 OISC Processor

Figure 3.1.2 represents simplified structure of OISC MOVE architecture. In simplest case, processor has a pair of buses - data and instruction. Instruction bus has source and destination address that connects two parts of processor via data bus. This mechanism allows data to flow around processor. Computation is accomplished by setting accumulators at destination addresses and taking computed values from source addresses. Other actions can be performed by at destination node for instance check value for branching or sending data to memory.

Needs to be finished.

3.3 Predictions

To be added.

6

4 Technical Method

This section describes methods and design choices used to construct two processors.

4.1 Machine Code

4.1.1 RISC

As the aim of instruction size to be as minimal as possible, RISC instruction decided to be 8bits with optional additional immediate value from 1 to 3 bytes. Immediate values are explained in section 4.7.

Decision was made to have instruction compose of operation code two operands - source/destination and source, which is similar to x86 architecture rather than MIPS. Three possible combinations of register address sizes are possible in such case from one to three bits. Two was selected as it allow having four general purpose registers which is sufficient for most applications, and allow four bits for operation code - allowing up to 16 instructions.

Due to small amount of available operation codes and not all instructions requiring two operands (for example JUMP instruction may not need any operands or could use one operand to have address offset), other two type instructions are added to the design - with one and zero operands. See figure 4.1.1. This enabled processor to have 45 different instructions while maintaining minimal instruction size. Final design has:

- **8** 2-operand instructions

- **32** 1-operand instructions

- **5** 0-operand instructions

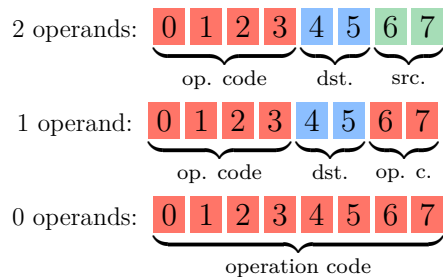Full list of RISC instructions are listed in table 7.1.1 in Appendix section.

Figure 4.1.1: *RISC instructions composition. Number inside box represents bit index. Destination (dst.) bits represents of source and destination register address.*

4.1.2 OISC

As OISC requires only a single instruction, composition of instruction mainly requires two parts - source and destination. To allow higher instruction flexibility a immediate bit has been added to replace source address by immediate value. Composition of finalised machine code is shown in figure 4.1.2.
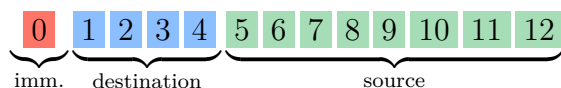
Figure 4.1.2: *OISC instruction composition. Number inside box represents bit index.*

Decision was made to have source address to be eight bits to allow it be replaced with immediate value. Destination address was chosen to be as minimal as possible, leaving only four bits or 16 possible destinations. Final design has **15** destination and **41** source addresses. This is not the most space efficient design as 41 source addresses would require only six bits for address, wasting two bits every time non-immediate source is used.

Full list of OISC sources and destinations are listed in table 7.1.2 in Appendix section.

4.2 Data flow

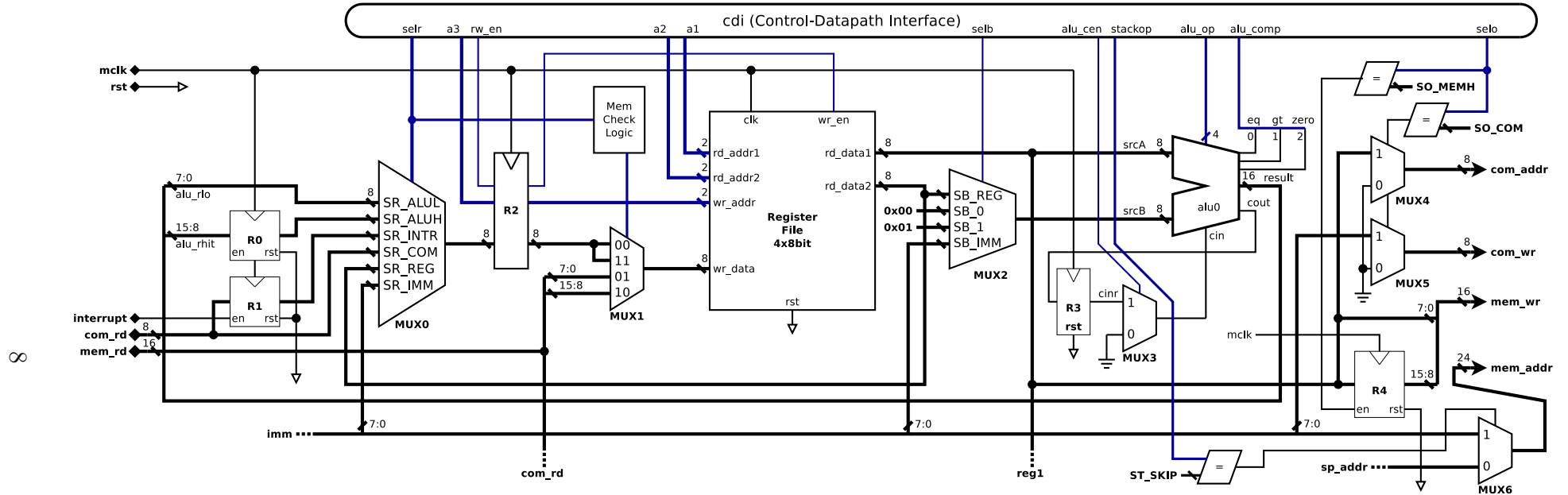### 4.2.1 RISC Datapath

Figure 4.2.1: *Digital diagram of RISC datapath*

Figure 4.2.1 above represents partial RISC datapath. Program counter, Stack pointer and Immediate Override logics are represented in figures 4.4.1, 4.3.1 and 4.7.1 respectively. CDI (Control-Data Interface) is HDL concept that connects datapath and control unit. Immediate value to datapath is provided by IMO block described in section 4.7.1.

Data to register file is selected and saved with *MUX0*. This data is delayed 1 cycle with *R2* to match timing that of data is taken from memory. If `LWLO` or `LWHI` is executed, *MUX1* select high or low byte from memory to read. To compensate for timing as value written to register file is delayed by 1 cycle, register file has internal logic that outputs *wr_data* to *rd_data1* or/and *rd_data2* immediately if *wr_en* is high and *rd_addr1* or/and *rd_addr2* matches *wr_addr*.

4.2.2 OISC Datapath

OISC datapath only consists of instruction and data buses, and small circuit that connect them to logic blocks that process the data. These logic blocks can represent ALU operation combinational logic, or any other part of a processor.

Figure 4.2.2 represents common destination circuit. It checks if particular block destination matches one on instruction bus, then enables latch and also sets flag to further logic.
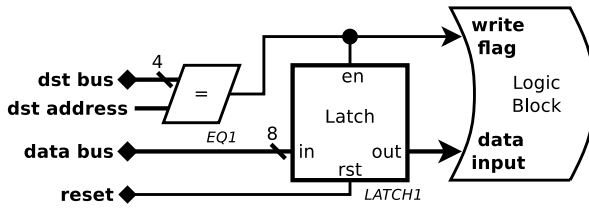

Figure 4.2.2: *OISC processor data bus to destination connection logic*

Similarly Figure 4.2.3 represents source circuit connecting output of logic block. As logic block may only involve combinational logic a register is placed at the output of it. Buffer is used to connect data in register to data bus. This ensures that only one bus driver is present, ensuring do data collision.
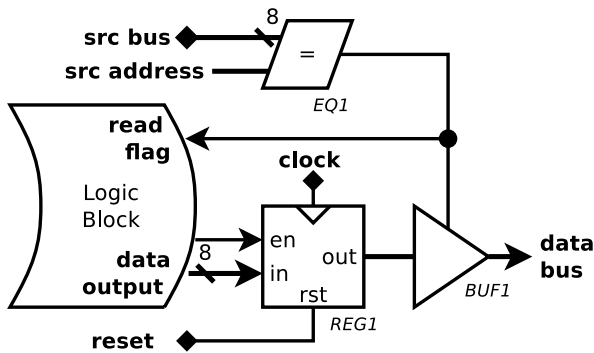

Figure 4.2.3: *OISC processor data bus to source connection logic*

The general timing is designed so that the information at the source is immediately ready in data bus at rise of the processor clock. The source is connected to the destination connection where combinational logic is present.

4.2.3 OISC Datapath Implementation Problems

The complete implementation using latches for destination was not successful. Latches did not operate correctly when synthesised on FPGA. This issue might be caused by some timing problem between some source and destination logic combination. Exact cause was not resolved.

As a quick solution, latches at destination has been replaced with a clocked register that is triggered at opposite to source register clock edge (negative). This resolved this issue, however it effectively reduce period that data can propagate though logic blocks between source and destination by two.

4.3 Stack

This section describes RISC and OISC dedicated logic for stack pointer control. Stack pointer starts from the highest memory address value and "stacks" to lower memory address values. Both designs were simplified to only operate on two byte addresses, meaning that stack pointer has a constant `0xFF` value at least significant byte.

4.3.1 RISC Stack

RISC processor implements the stack pointer that is used in `PUSH`, `POP`, `CALL` and `RET` instructions. The stack pointer's initial address starts at the highest memory address (`0xFFFF`) and subtracts 1 when data is put to stack. Figure 4.3.1 represents the digital diagram for stack pointer. Note that the stack is only 16bit in size and the most significant byte is set to `0xFF`. The stack pointer circuit also supports *pc_halted* signal from program counter to prevent the stack pointer from being added by 1 twice during `RET` instruction.

One of the problems with the current stack pointer implementation is 8bit data stored in 16bit memory address, wasting a byte. This can be avoided by adding a high
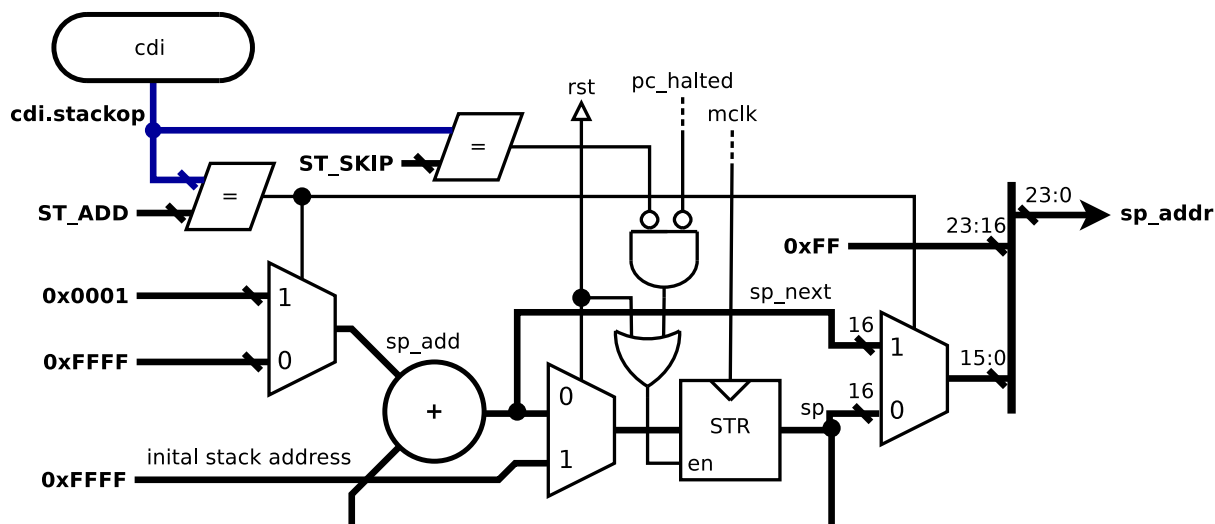
Figure 4.3.1: *Digital diagram of RISC stack pointer logic*

byte register, however then it would cause problems when a 16bit program pointer is stored with `CALL` instruction. This can still be improved with a more complex circuit, or by using memory cache with 8bit data input. However with current implementation this does not affect processor comparison, it only increases stack size in memory.

4.3.2 OISC Stack

Stack pointer in OISC is very similar to RISC. In basic operation, when reset, push or pop flags are set, it changes the state of stack pointer by adding or subtracting its value by one, or resetting it to default. Logic diagram is shown in Figure 4.3.2

Logic diagram of stack control unique to OISC processor is shown in Figure 4.3.3. Push and pop flags are taken from source and destination logic. A cached value of

last stored value is kept, so that it would be immediately available on source request. Pop flag is delayed by one cycle which ensures that once popped, lower stack value is written to cache during next cycle.

4.4 Program Counters

In this subsection, program counter and their differences will be described.

4.4.1 RISC Program Counter

Figure 4.4.1 represents the digital diagram for program counter. There are a few key features about this design: it can take values from memory for `RET` instruction; immediate value (*PC_IMM2* is shifted by 1 byte to allow `BEQ`, `BGT`, `BGE` instructions as first immediate byte used as ALU source B); can jump to interrupt address; produces
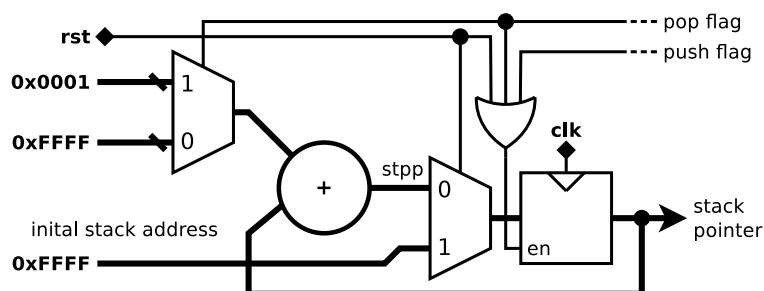
Figure 4.3.2: *Digital diagram of OISC stack pointer logic*

Figure 4.3.3: *Digital diagram of OISC stack control logic*

Figure 4.4.1: *Digital diagram of RISC program counter*
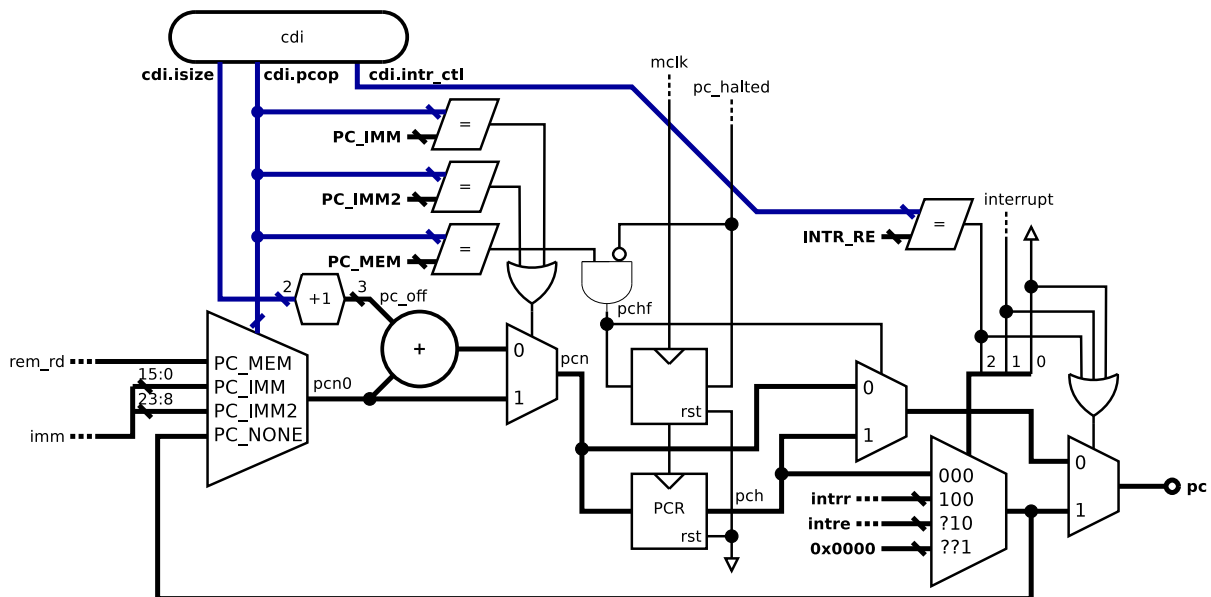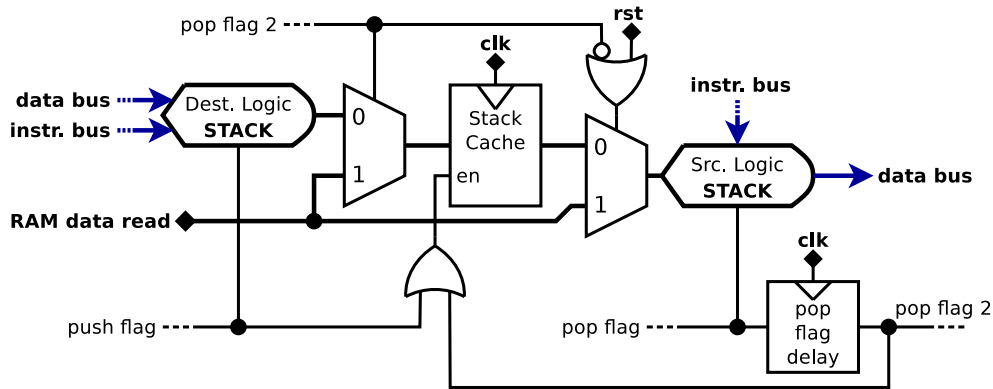
pc_halted signal when memory is read (RET instruction takes 2 cycles, because cycle one fetches the address from stack and second cycle fetches the instruction from the instruction memory).

4.4.2 OISC Program Counter

OISC program counter is much simpler than RISC, as it does not have variable length instruction, delay flags instructions, or logic for selecting branch source address.

Figure 4.4.2: *Digital diagram of OISC program counter*

Looking at Figure 4.4.2 bottom, the ba-

sic operation is to just add one to previous program counter with *ADDER1* and *REG1*, reset it to zero at reset with *MUX2*. Two destination logic blocks are used as accumulators to store branch address. Once instruction with BRZ destination is executed, *EQ2* check if data bus value is zero, which enables *MUX1* and overrides program counter to address stored in BR0 and BR1 accumulators. Unlike in RISC however, it requires three instructions to set new address and jump. Similarly, *CALL* and *RET* requires five and three instructions respectively. These RISC equivalent instructions are show in Listing 1.

Listing 1: *OISC assembly code emulating RISC JUMP, CALL and RET instructions.*

```
%macro JUMP 1
  BR1 %1 @1
  BR0 %1 @0
  BRZ 0x00
%endmacro

%macro CALL 1
  BR1 %1 @1
  BR0 %1 @0
  STACK %%return @1
  STACK %%return @0
  BRZ 0x00
  %%return:
%endmacro

%macro RET 0
  BR0 STACK
  BR1 STACK
  BRZ 0x00
%endmacro
```

4.5 Arithmetic Logic Unit

This section will discuss ALU implementations of both processors. For fair comparison between OISC and RISC, ALU in both system will have the same capabilities described in table 4.5.1.

Name	Description
ADD	Arithmetic addition (inc. carry)
SUB	Arithmetic subtraction (inc. carry)
AND	Bitwise AND
OR	Bitwise OR
XOR	Bitwise XOR
SLL	Shift left logical
SRL	Shift right logical
ROL	Shifted carry from previous SLL
ROR	Shifted carry from previous SRL
MUL	Arithmetic multiplication
DIV	Arithmetic division
MOD	Arithmetic modulus

Table 4.5.1: *Supported ALU commands for both processors*

4.5.1 OISC ALU

Due to the structure of OISC processor, ALU source A and B are two latches that are written into when ALU0 or ALU1 destination address is present. ALU sources are connected with every ALU operator and performed in single clock cycle. This value is stored in register so that it would immediately available in a next clock cycle as a source data. Figure 4.5.1 represents logic diagram of ALU with only addition and multiplication operators present. Note that output of *EQ3* is connected to enable of *REG3*, enabling output of carry to be only read after ADD source is requested. This previous source memory is also used for SUB, ROL and ROR operations. This allows processor to perform other operations such as store or load values, before accessing carry bit, or carried byte for ROL and ROR operations.

4.5.2 RISC ALU

RISC processor has very similar structure to OISC with two exceptions. Inputs to ALU comes from logic router that decided how to route data in datapath. Output buffers are replaced by one multiplexer that selects single output from all ALU operations. An-

other point is that RISC ALU output is 16bit, higher byte saved in "ALU high byte register" for `MUL`, `MOD`, `ROL` and `ROR` operations. This register is accessible with `GETAH` instruction.

4.6 Program Memory

This section describes how instruction memory (ROM) is implemented for both processors.

4.6.1 RISC Program Memory

In order to allow dynamic instruction size from one to four bytes a special memory arrangement is made. A system was required to access word (8bits) from memory and next three words. To achieve this four ROM blocks been utilised, each containing one fourth of sliced original data. Input address is offset by adders *ADDER1-3* and further divided by four by removing two least significant bits at **addr0-3**. Before concatenating output of each ROM block into final four bytes, ROM outputs **q0-3** are rearranged depending on **ar** signal. Note that *MUX1-4* each input is different, this

may be better visualised with Verilog code in listing 2.

Listing 2: *RISC sliced ROM memory multiplexer arrangement Verilog code*

```
case(ar)
  2'b00:  data={q3,q2,q1,q0};
  2'b01:  data={q0,q3,q2,q1};
  2'b10:  data={q1,q0,q3,q2};
  2'b11:  data={q2,q1,q0,q3};
endcase
```

4.6.2 OISC Program Memory

OISC instructions are fixed 13 bits, which causes different problems to RISC sliced memory - non-standard memory word size. To implement ROM in FPGA, Altera Cyclone IV M9K memory configurable blocks were used. Each blocks as 9kB of memory each allowing 1024x9bit configuration. Combining three of such blocks together yields 27bits if readable data in single clock cycle. To store instruction code to such configuration, pairs of instruction machine code sliced into three parts plus one bit for parity check, see figure 4.6.2. Circuit extract-
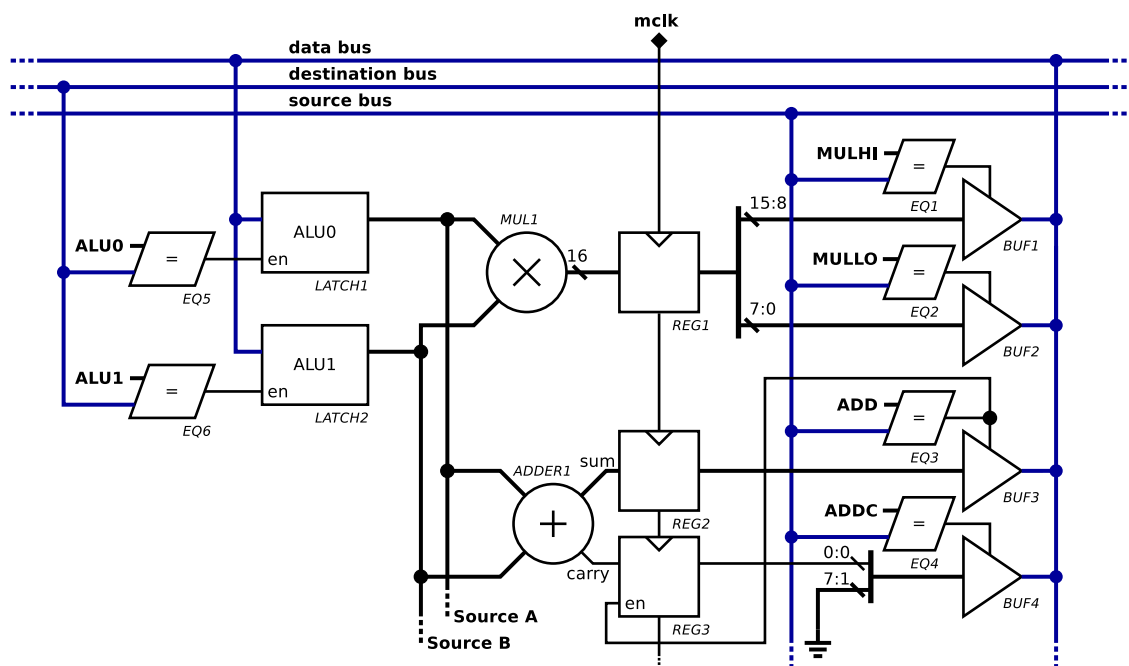

Figure 4.5.1: *Digital diagram of OISC partial ALU logic*

ing each instruction is fairly simple, shown in figure 4.6.3.

4.7 Instruction decoding

This section describes RISC and OISC differences between instruction decoding and immediate value handling.

4.7.1 RISC

Already described in previous section 4.6, instruction from memory comes as 4 bytes. Least significant byte is sent to control block, other three bytes are sent to immediate override block (IMO) shown in figure 4.7.1. These three bytes are labelled as **immr**.

IMO block is a solution to change immediate value which enabled dynamically calculated memory pointers, branches dependant on register value or any other function that needs instruction immediate value been replaced by calculated register value. IMO is controlled by control block and **cdi.imoctl** signal, which is changed by CI0, CI1 and CI2 instructions. When signal is 0h, this block is transparent connecting **immr** directly to **imm**. When any of CI instructions executed, one of IMO register is overridden by *reg1* value from register file. In order to override two or three bytes of immediate, CI instructions need to be executed in order. Only for one next instruction after last CI will have immediate bytes changed depending on what are values in *IMO* registers.

This circuit has two disadvantages:

1. Overriding immediate bytes takes one or more clock cycles,

2. At override, **immr** bytes are ignored therefore they are wasting instruction memory space.

Second point can be resolved by designing a circuit that would subtract the amount of overridden IMO bytes from *pc_off* signal (program counter offset that is dependant on i-size value) at the program counter, thus effectively saving instruction memory space. This solution however would introduce a complication with the assembler as additional checks would need to be done during compiling to check if IMO instruction are used.

4.7.2 OISC

OISC immediate value is set in instruction decoder shown in figure 4.7.2. Decoder operation is simple - instruction machine code is split into three parts as described in 4.1.2.
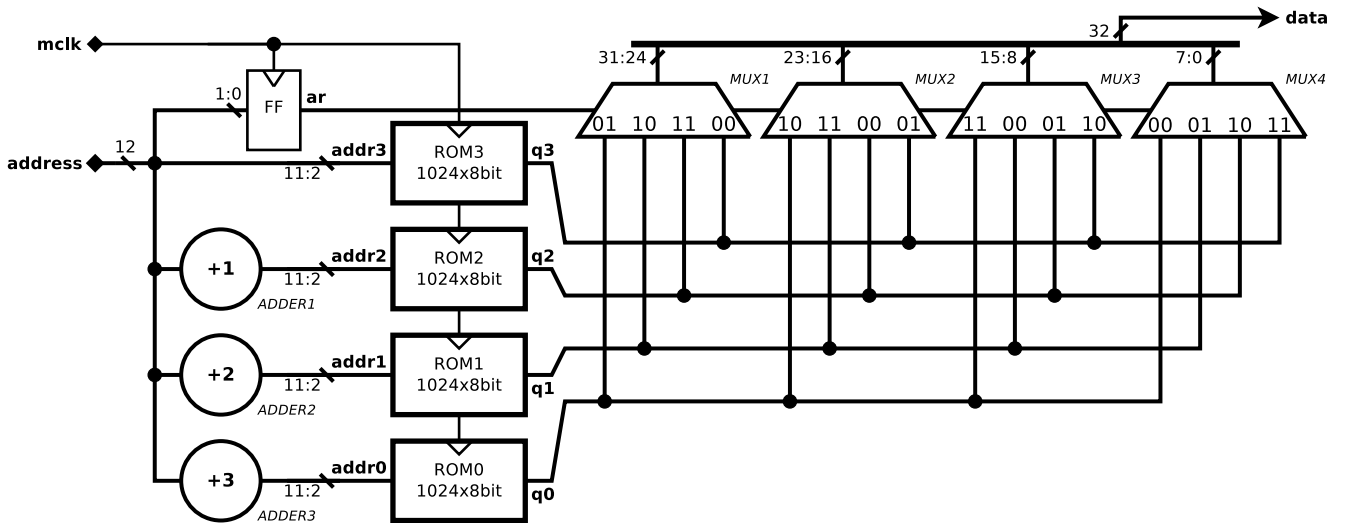

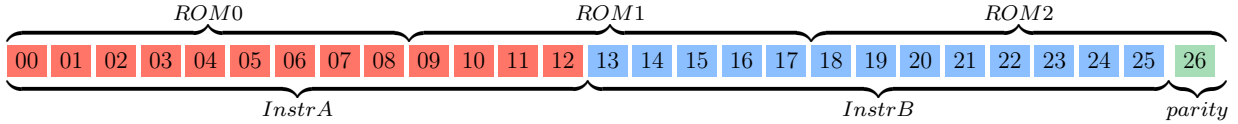***Figure 4.6.1:*** *Digital diagram of RISC sliced ROM memory logic*

Figure 4.6.2: *OISC three memory words composition. Number inside box represents bit index.*
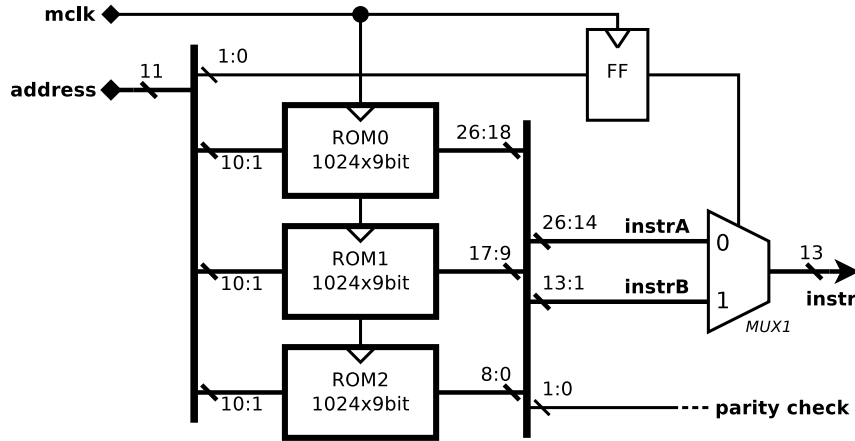

Figure 4.6.3: *Digital diagram of OISC instruction ROM logic*

If instruction source address is `00h`, connect data bus with constant 0 via *MUX2*. If immediate bit is 1, set source address to `00h` (to make sure no other buffer source connects to data bus), and connect instruction source address (immediate value) to databus via *MUX2* and *BUF1*.

4.8 Assembly

There are two steps between assembly code and its execution on a processor. First it needs to be converted to binary machine code. Secondly, binary data needs to be sliced to different parts described in section 4.6. These slices also need to be converted into appropriate formats, as simulation, HDL synthesis and flashing memory directly to FPGA memory, all use different formats.

A universal assembler was implemented with python for both processors. Flowchart in figure 4.8.1 represents general structure of assembler process. It splits assembly file into three parts - sections, definitions and macros. Definitions are keywords mapped to values which are saved in global label dictionary. Macros are a chunk of assembly code and is used as templates.

There are only two sections implemented in assembler - `.text` and `.data`. Section `.text` contains all machine instructions which will be stored in program ROM memory. Section `.data` is used for global and static data, and it will be written into RAM memory. This section contains values such as strings and structures uninitialised data as labels which data is RAM memory location.

Section `.text` is processed line by line. Each has label, instruction name and instruction arguments. Label however is optional, if line contains it, label is saved to global label dictionary with program address. If line instruction name is a macro, line is replaces by macro and instruction arguments are used as macro arguments. Otherwise instruction name is decoded and stored in instruction list with original arguments.
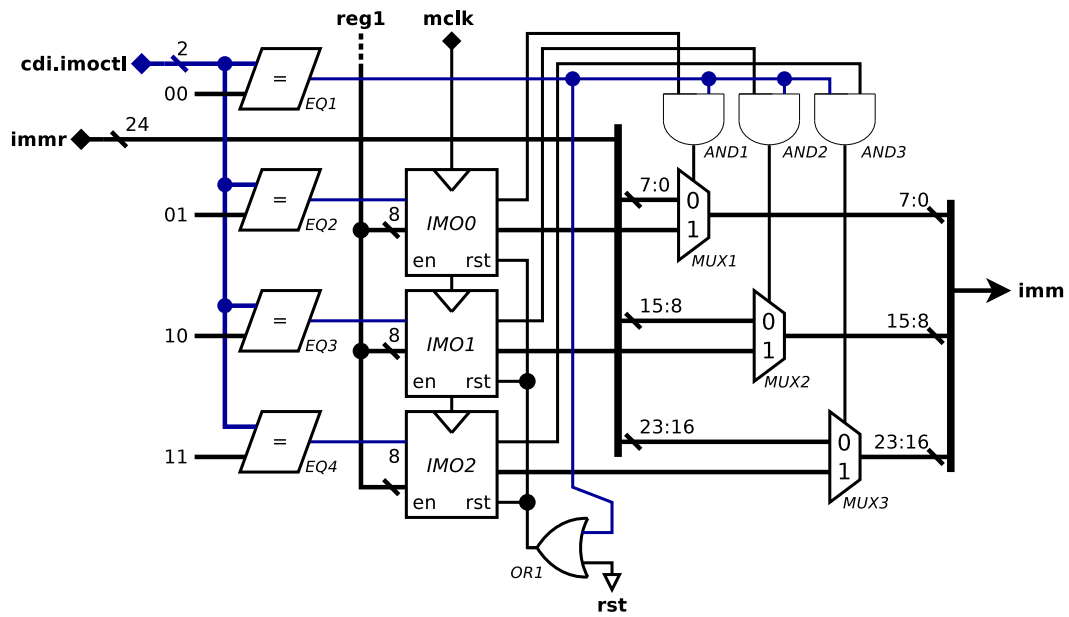
Figure 4.7.1: *Digital diagram of RISC immediate override system*
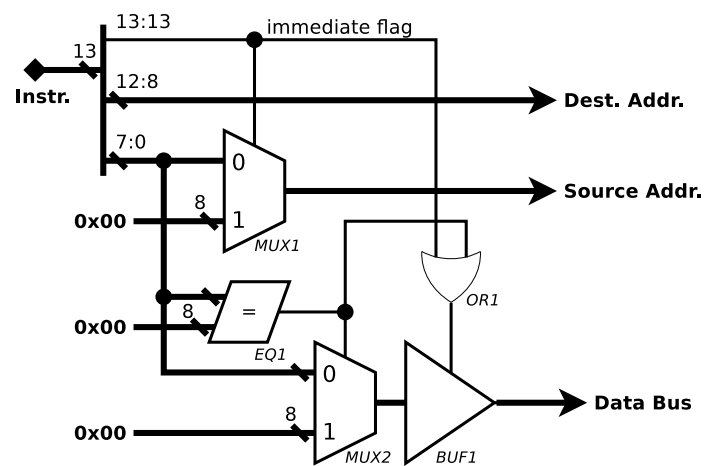

Figure 4.7.2: *Digital diagram of OISC instruction decoder*

After all instruction lines are completed, each stored instruction arguments are processed, labels are replaced with binary values, any other processing is done such as addition by constant, byte selection, etc. Completed list is then saved as raw binary. Similarly, `.data` section labels also replaced and it is saved as binary data.
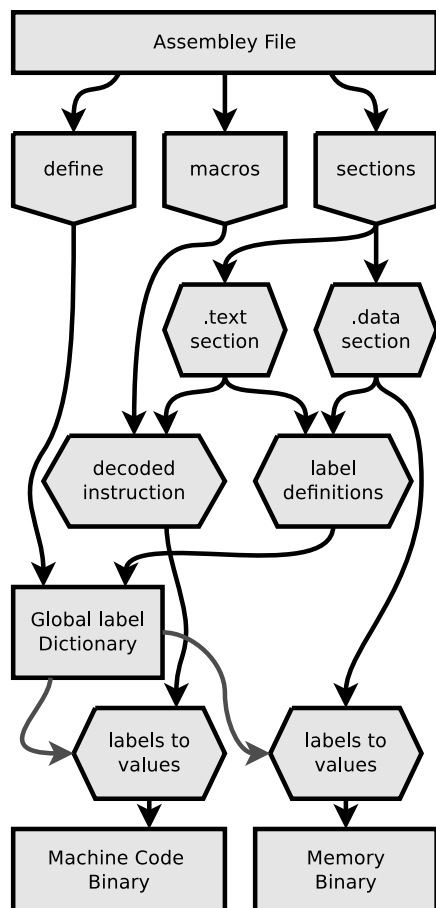

Figure 4.8.1: *Flow chart of assermer converting assembly code into machine code and memory binary.*

4.9 System setup

Description to be added. Include FPGA used, makefile, how programs are flashed into memory via JTAG and debugging tools

5 Results and Analysis

5.1 FPGA logic component composition

This subsection looks at test and its results to find how much FPGA logic components each processor takes and what is composition of each part.

Test was performed with Quartus synthesis tool and viewing flow summary report. This report includes synthesised design metrics including total logic elements, registers, memory bits and other FPGA resources. Test will only look at logic elements and registers. Total number of logic elements was found out by synthesising full processors, then commenting relevant parts of code, re-synthesising and viewing changes in total logic elements. Such method may not be the most accurate, because during HDL synthesis circuit is optimised an unused connections removed. This means that more logic may be not synthesised than intended.

There are four parts of each processor that will be tested:

1. **Common** - processor auxiliary logic that is used by both processors. It includes communication block with UART, RAM and PLL (Phase-Locked Loop, for master clock generation).

2. **ALU** - as described in section 4.5, both processors have slightly different implementation of ALU.

3. **Memory** - processors memory management, including stack.

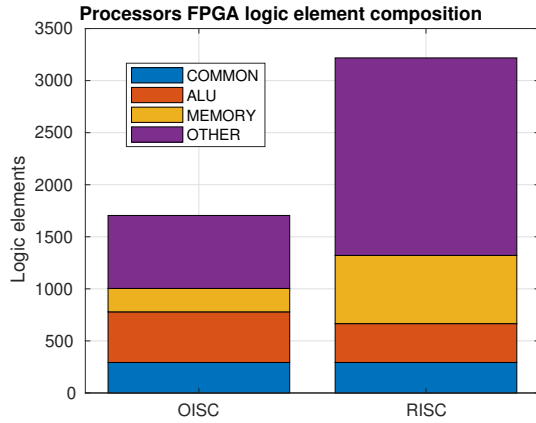4. **Other** - reminding logic of processor that was not analysed.

Figure 5.1.1: *Bar graph of FPGA logic components taken by each processor.*

Results of a test are shown in figures 5.1.1 and 5.1.2. Common logic uses 293 logic elements and 170 registers. OISC uses 1705 logic elements, while RISC uses 3218. Excluding common logic, OISC takes 48.3% of RISC's logic elements.
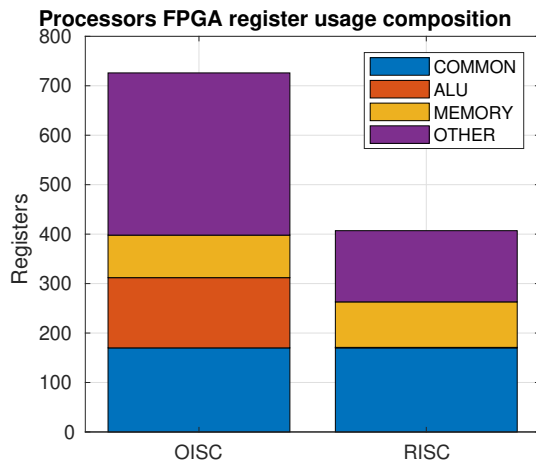

Figure 5.1.2: *Bar graph of FPGA register resources taken by each processor.*

OISC uses 726 logic elements, while RISC uses 407. Excluding common logic, OISC uses 78.4% more registers than RISC.

Looking at composition, OISC ALU takes 30.2% more logic gates. Looking at figure 5.1.2, high number of OISC ALU registers can be observed which concludes, that higher resource usage is OISC ALU code include buffer logic.

Memory logic elements composition of OISC is only 34.4% of RISC's and 7% lower for register resources, comparing to RISC.

This indicate that by removing memory logic for RISC, synthesis tool may removed also other parts of processor, possibly part of control block because it mostly contains combinational logic.

Other logic includes instruction decoding with ROM, register file, program counter. RISC exclusively has control block. Note that OISC uses only three ROM memory blocks whereas RISC uses four as explained in section 4.6, however this should make a minimal difference as M9K memory blocks are not included in FPGA logic element or register count. Comparing both processors, OISC has only 37% of other logic components to RISC, however it has 2.28 times more registers. This shows a logic component - register trade-off. OISC buffer and common registers logic that connects bus require many more registers whereas RISC uses combination logic in control block in order to control same data in datapath.

Much higher logic components in RISC can be also explained more complicated register file, ROM memory logic and program counter. All of these components has some additional logic for timing correction or additional functionality required by these blocks integration into datapath.

5.2 Power analysis

Power analysis was performed to analyse power consumption of both processors. This has been accomplished by connecting FPGA board to a laboratory power supply with 4V to an external power input. A shunt resistor of was used of 1.020Ω was connected in series to calculate current. Supply voltage and voltage across shut resistor were measured using oscilloscope with data sampling feature. Multiple tests have been performed with different processor configurations. Between each tests a period of about 5 minutes was given for FPGA to reach steady state.
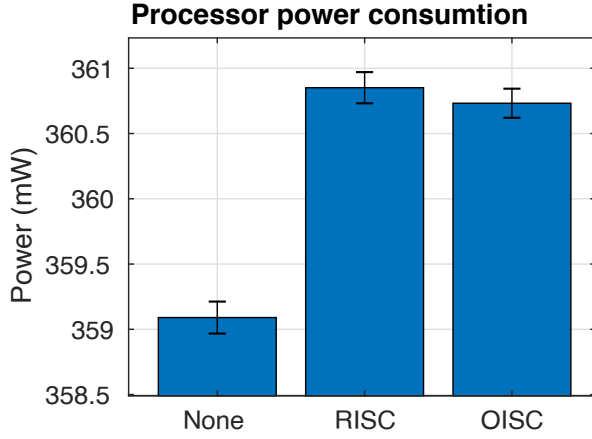
Figure 5.2.1: *Measured power of processors when implemented on FPGA, running 16bit multiplication function in loop. None indicates auxiliary-only power.*

Figure 5.2.1 represents power results. Auxiliary power includes whole FPGA board, voltage regulators, and synthesised logic on FPGA required to support a processor (such as PLL, UART, Input/Output control, RAM). RISC and OISC bars in the graph indicate auxiliary power plus processor power, which means that the processor itself takes relatively small amount comparing to auxiliary power, about 0.5%.

During this test clock frequency of 1MHz was used. Due to equipment unavailability, further tests were not carried out to investigate power consumption at different frequencies.

5.2.1 Activity Factor

An activity factor could be also found using Equation 3 where P is power, C_{total} indicate total gate capacitance and V_{DD} indicate voltage supplied to the transistors.

$$\alpha = \frac{P}{C_{total} \cdot f \cdot V_{DD}^2} \quad (3)$$

As C_{total} and V_{DD} are constants, measuring power at different frequencies allows finding activity factor. This value could be used to compare how much of a processor circuit is active. Further design improvements could be used to optimise power [10, 14, 21, 22].

5.3 Benchmark Programs

Description of each function in benchmark to be added.

5.3.1 Performance

Data of benchmark functions timings to be added.

5.3.2 Instruction composition

This test is performed to investigate instruction composition of each function to see how similar it is between RISC and OISC processors.

- **MOVE** - All instructions that move data around internal processor registers.

- **ALU** - Instructions that are used to perform ALU operation.

- **MEMORY** - Instructions that are required to send/retrieve data from system memory, except stack.

- **STACK** - Instructions that push/pop data from memory stack.

- **COM** - Instruction(s) that send/receive data from communication block.

- **BRANCH** - Instructions that are used to make program branching.

- **OTHER** - Any other instructions.

Name	Instructions
MOVE	MOVE, CPY0, CPY1, CPY2, CPY3, CI0, CI1, CI2
ALU	ADD, ADDI, SUB, SUBI, AND, ANDI, OR, ORI, XOR, XORI, DIV, MUL, ADDC, SUBC, INC, DEC, SLL, SRL, SRA, GETAH
MEMORY	LWLO, LWHI, SWLO, SWHI
STACK	PUSH, POP
COM	COM
BRANCH	BEQ, BGT, BGE, BZ, JUMP, CALL, RET

Table 5.3.1: *RISC processor instruction groups used in instruction composition test.*

Name	Destination
MOVE	REG0, REG1
ALU	ALU0, ALU1
MEMORY	MEM0, MEM1, MEM2, MEMLO, MEMHI
STACK	STACK
COM	COMA, COMD
BRANCH	BR0, BR1, BRZ

Table 5.3.2: *OISC processor instruction desination groups used in instruction composition test*

Name	Instructions
MOVE	ALU0, ALU1, REG0, REG1, PC0, PC1, NULL, IMMEDIATE
ALU	ADD, ADDC, SUB, SUBC, AND, OR, XOR, SLL, SRL, EQ, GT, GE, NE, LT, LE, MULLO, MULHI, DIV, MOD, ADC, SBC, ROL, ROR
MEMORY	MEM0, MEM1, MEM2, MEMLO, MEMHI
STACK	STACK
COM	COMA, COMD
BRANCH	BR0, BR1

Table 5.3.3: *OISC processor instruction source groups used in instruction composition test*

Each function was ran on simulated processor, program counter and instruction been recorded into file at every cycle. File recording was done with SytemVerilog test bench, it started recording when program counter matched `.start` location and stopped when it matched `.done` location. Code shown in listings **??** and **??** enabled both location to be static, not depending on test function executed.

Listing 3: *RISC assembly frame for executring tests*

```
setup:
JUMP .start
.done:
JUMP .done
.start:
; Setup values
; Call function
JUMP .done
```

Listing 4: *OISC assembly frame for executring tests*

```
setup:
BR1 .start @1
BR0 .start @0
BRZ 0x00
.done:
BRZ 0x00
.start:
; Setup values
; Call function
BR1 .done @1
BR0 .done @0
BRZ 0x00
```

Each function recorded file then was further analysed and each instruction was grouped. Recorded program counter was used to find effective program space. This has been achieved by calculating unique instances of program counter and summing up instruction size for each of them. In RISC, dynamic instruction size has been taken into account.

Results or each function composition are represented in figure 5.3.1.

5.3.3 Program space

Figure 5.3.2 represents effective program size for each test function. Effective program size only includes instruction that been executed depending on argument, meaning that it does not fully represent complete function. A specific argument
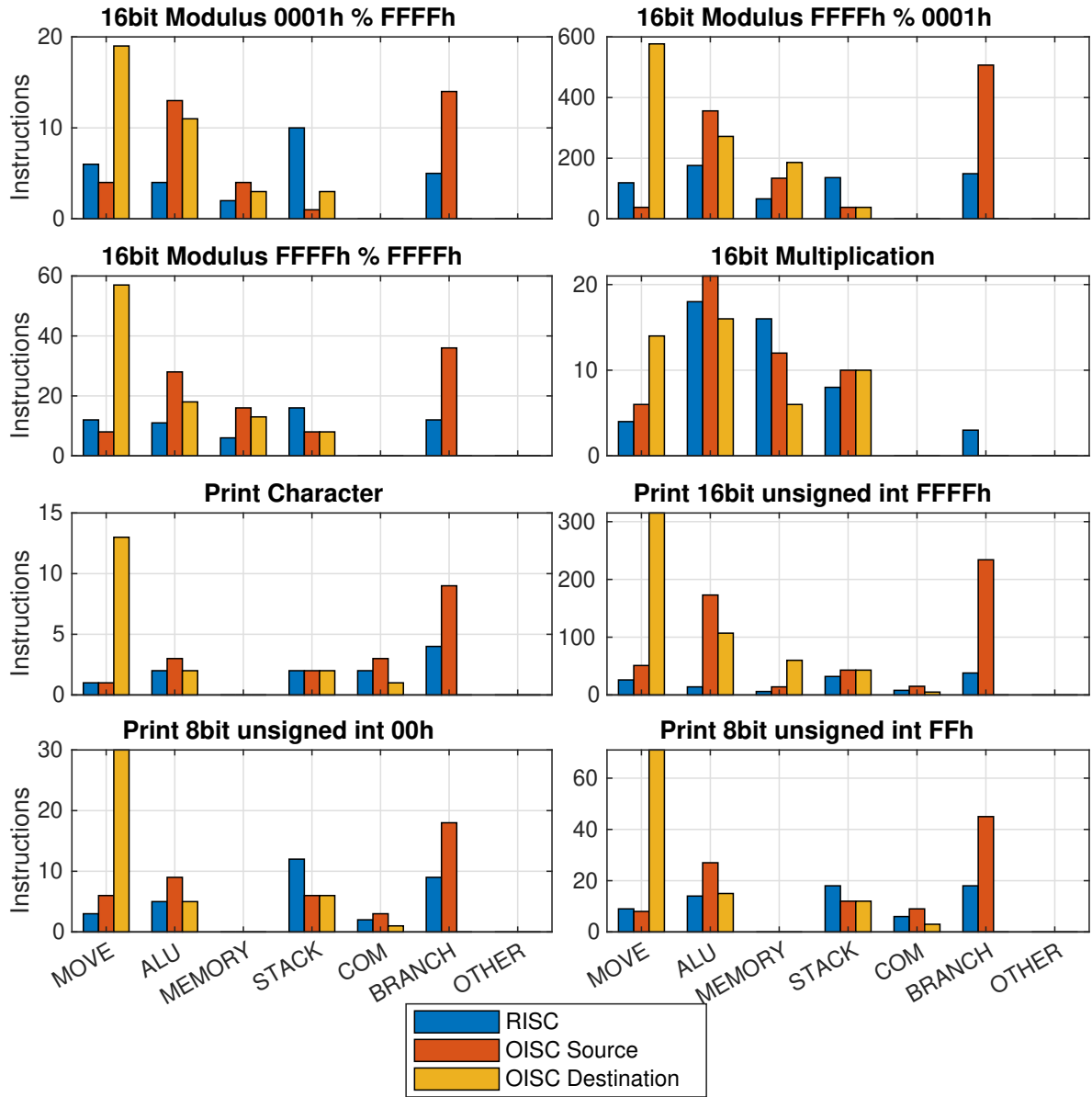
Figure 5.3.1: *Graph of instruction composition for every benchmark program.*

might cause branching and skipping some function code which would not be added to effective program size. In this test, the main objective is to look difference in instruction size required to execute the same function, therefore not representing full program size is not relevant.
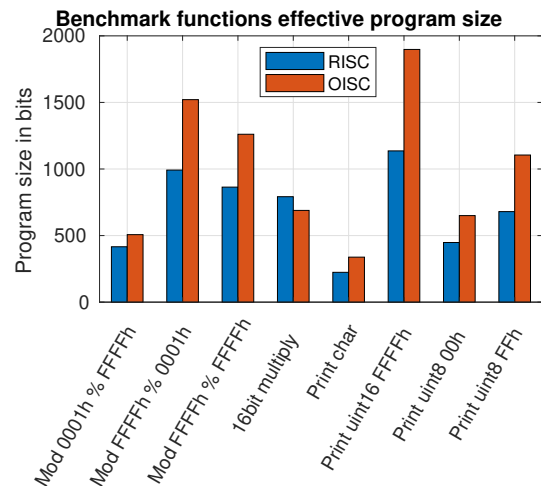
Figure 5.3.2: *Bar graph showing effective size in bits each benchmark function is taking in program memeory.*

5.4 Maximum clock frequency

To find maximum clock frequency, processors were loaded with basic print string function an d 16bit multiplication. Then frequency was constantly increased until resulting output though UART was not correct.

In order to change clock frequency, three parameters were changed and HDL code resynthesised:

- **PLL frequency multiplier and divider:** PLL takes 50MHz clock that is sourced from crystal on FPGA board and converts it to master clock f_{mclk}. Multiplier and divider values are used to adjust f_{mclk}.

- **UART frequency divider:** Division value was calculated as $D = \left\lfloor \frac{f_{mclk}}{4f_{baud}} \right\rfloor$. UART rate was set to 9600 baud. UART module itself has four times oversample.

Frequency was changed in 5MHz increments.

Theoretical maximum frequency was found using Quartus Timing Analysis tool. Slow 1200mV 85°C model was used.

	Theoretical	Actual
RISC	114.08MHz	75-70MHz
OISC	64.68MHz	45-40MHz

Table 5.4.1: *Theoretical and actual maximum frequencies of both processors.*

Theoretical and actual results show unexpected results shown in Table 5.4.1, RISC operated at about 40% higher maximum frequency than OISC.

As explained in Subsection 4.2.3, OISC logic blocks has about twice less time for data propagation. Keeping that in mind, and assuming that latch propagation and register setup periods are insignificant to critical path of OISC logic block, maximum OISC frequency could be double as high as, reaching 80-90MHz. This also assumes that there is no other part of processor would have limit. Further timing analysis needs to be carried out to confirm this.

5.5 Future work

Description to be added.

6 Conclusion

Description to be added.

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7 Appendix

7.1 Processor instruction set tables

Table 7.1.1: *Instruction set for RISC processor. * Required immediate size in bytes*

Instr.	Description	I-size *
2 register instructions		
MOVE	Copy value from one register to other	0
ADD	Arithmetical addition	0
SUB	Arithmetical subtraction	0
AND	Logical AND	0
OR	Logical OR	0
XOR	Logical XOR	0
MUL	Arithmetical multiplication	0
DIV	Arithmetical division (inc. modulus)	0
1 register instructions		
COPY0	Copy intimidate to a register 0	1
COPY1	Copy intimidate to a register 1	1
COPY2	Copy intimidate to a register 2	1
COPY3	Copy intimidate to a register 3	1
ADDC	Arithmetical addition with carry bit	0
ADDI	Arithmetical addition with immediate	1
SUBC	Arithmetical subtraction with carry bit	0
SUBI	Arithmetical subtraction with immediate	1
ANDI	Logical AND with immediate	1
ORI	Logical OR with immediate	1
XORI	Logical XOR with immediate	1
CI0	Replace intimidate value byte 0 for next instruction	1
CI1	Replace intimidate value byte 1 for next instruction	1
CI2	Replace intimidate value byte 2 for next instruction	1
SLL	Shift left logical	1
SRL	Shift right logical	1
SRA	Shift right arithmetical	1
LWHI	Load word (high byte)	3
SWHI	Store word (high byte, reg. only)	0
LWLO	Load word (low byte)	3
SWLO	Store word (low byte, stores high byte reg.)	3
INC	Increase by 1	0
DEC	Decrease by 1	0
GETAH	Get ALU high byte reg. (only for MUL & DIV & ROL & ROR)	0
GETIF	Get interrupt flags	0
PUSH	Push to stack	0
POP	Pop from stack	0
COM	Send/Receive to/from com. block	1
BEQ	Branch on equal	3
BGT	Branch on greater than	3

Table 7.1.1: *Instruction set for RISC processor. * Required immediate size in bytes*

Instr.	Description	I-size *
BGE	Branch on greater equal than	3
BZ	Branch on zero	2
0 register instructions		
CALL	Call function, put return to stack	2
RET	Return from function	0
JUMP	Jump to address	2
RETI	Return from interrupt	0
INTRE	Set interrupt entry pointer	2

Table 7.1.2: *Instructions for OISC processor.*

Name	Description
Destination Addresses	
ACC0	Set ALU source A accumulator
ACC1	Set ALU source B accumulator
BR0	Set Branch pointer register (low byte)
BR1	Set Branch pointer register (high byte)
BRZ	If source value is 0, set program counter to branch pointer
STACK	Push value to stack
MEM0	Set Memory pointer register (low byte)
MEM1	Set Memory pointer register (middle byte)
MEM2	Set Memory pointer register (high byte)
MEMHI	Save high byte to memory at memory pointer
MEMLO	Save low byte to memory at memory pointer
COMA	Set communication block address register
COMD	Send value to communication block
REG0	Set general purpose register 0
REG1	set general purpose register 1
Source Addresses	
NULL	Get constant 0
ALU0	Get value at ALU source A accumulator
ALU1	Get value at ALU source B accumulator
ADD	Get Arithmetical addition of ALU sources
ADDC	Get Arithmetical addition carry
ADC	Get Arithmetical addition of ALU sources and carry
SUB	Get Arithmetical subtraction of ALU sources
SUBC	Get Arithmetical subtraction carry
SBC	Get Arithmetical subtraction of ALU sources and carry
AND	Get Logical AND of ALU sources
OR	Get Logical OR of ALU sources
XOR	Get Logical XOR of ALU sources
SLL	Get ALU source A shifted left by source B
SRL	Get ALU source A shifted right by source B
ROL	Get rolled off value from previous SLL instance
ROR	Get rolled off value from previous SRL instance

Table 7.1.2: *Instructions for OISC processor.*

Name	Description
MULLO	Get Arithmetical multiplication of ALU sources (low byte)
MULHI	Get Arithmetical multiplication of ALU sources (high byte)
DIV	Get Arithmetical division of ALU sources
MOD	Get Arithmetical modulus of ALU sources
EQ	Check if ALU source A is equal to source B
GT	Check if ALU source A is greater than source B
GE	Check if ALU source A is greater or equal to source B
NE	Check if ALU source A is not equal to source B
LT	Check if ALU source A is less than source B
LE	Check if ALU source A is less or equal to to source B
BR0	Get Branch pointer register value (low byte)
BR1	Get Branch pointer register value (high byte)
PC0	Get Program counter value (low byte)
PC1	Get Program counter value (high byte)
MEM0	Get Memory pointer register value (low byte)
MEM1	Get Memory pointer register value (middle byte)
MEM2	Get Memory pointer register value (high byte)
MEMHI	Load high byte from memory at memory pointer
MEMLO	Load low byte from memory at memory pointer
STACK	Pop value from stack
ST0	Get stack address value (low byte)
ST1	Get stack address value (high byte)
COMA	Get communication block address register value
COMD	Read value from communication block
REG0	Get value from general purpose register 0
REG1	Get value from general purpose register 1