

Relatively speaking...

• Let's illustrate how the 6-instruction processor fits into the grand scheme of modern computer architectures...



A quick look: more complex ISAs

□ 6-instruction processor:

Add instruction: 0010 $ra_3ra_2ra_1ra_0 ra_3ra_2ra_1ra_0 ra_3ra_2ra_1ra_0 ra_3ra_2ra_1ra_0$ Add Ra, Rb, Rc—specifies the operation RF[a]=RF[b] + RF[c]

□ MIPS processor:

Assembly: add \$9, \$7, \$8 # add rd, rs, rt: RF[rd] = RF[rs]+RF[rt]



Machine:

B:	000000	00111	01000	01001	xxxxx	100000
D:	0	7	8	9	х	32

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In terms of assignments:

- In class and in homework assignments, we look at design issues that relate to modern machines
- In labs, we apply these ideas on a smaller scale (i.e. the 6-instruction processor) and tie lessons learned in the lab back to class work
- Before we talk more about MIPS, let's spend a few slides thinking about how this fits into the big picture.



Instructions Sets

- "Instruction set architecture is the structure of a computer that a machine language programmer (or a compiler) must understand to write a correct (timing independent) program for that machine"
 - IBM introducing 360 (1964)
- an instruction set specifies a processor's functionality
 - what operations it supports
 - what storage mechanisms it has & how they are accessed
 - how the programmer/compiler communicates programs to processor

So, what are the goals of this course? At the end of the semester, you should be able to... - ... understand how code written in a high-level language (e.g. C) is eventually executed on-chip... In Java: public static void insertionSort(int[] list, int length) { int firstOutOfOrder, location, temp: for(firstOutOfOrder = 1; firstOutOfOrder < length; firstOutOfOrder++) { if(list[firstOutOfOrder] < list[firstOutOfOrder - 1]) { temp = list[firstOutOfOrder] location = firstOutOfOrder: do { list[location] = list[location-1]; location-while (location > 0 && list[location-1] > temp); list[location] = temp:

Both programs could be run on the same processor... how does this happen?

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Instruction Set Architecture

- Must have instructions that •
 - Access memory (read and write)
 - Perform ALU operations (add, multiply, etc.)
 - Implement control flow (jump, branch, etc.)
 - I.e. to take you back to the beginning of a loop
- Largest difference is in accessing memory
 - Operand location
 - (stack, memory, register)
 - Addressing modes
 - (computing memory addresses)
 - (Let's digress on the board and preview how MIPS does a load)
 - (Compare to 6-instruction processor?)

What makes a good instruction set

- implementability
 - supports a (performance/cost) range of implementations
 - implies support for high performance implementations
 - programmability A bit more on this one...

- easy to express programs (for human and/or compiler)

backward/forward compatibility

- implementability & programmability across generations
 - e.g., x86 generations: 8086, 286, 386, 486, Pentium, Pentium II, Pentium III, Pentium 4...
- think about these issues as we discuss aspects of ISAs

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Programmability

- a history of programmability
 - pre 1975: most code was hand-assembled
 - 1975 1985: most code was compiled
 - but people thought that hand-assembled code was superior
 - 1985 present: most code was compiled
 - and compiled code was at least as good as hand-assembly

over time, a big shift in what "programmability" means

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pre-1975: Human Programmability

- focus: instruction sets that were easy for humans to program
 - ISA semantically close to high-level language (HLL)
 - closing the "semantic gap"
 - semantically heavy (CISC-like) instructions
 - · automatic saves/restores on procedure calls
 - e.g., the VAX had instructions for polynomial evaluation
 - people thought computers would someday execute HLL directly

ncluding instructions for such complex

- never materialized
- one problem with this app The VAX has been precived as the quintessential C
 - "semantic clash": not exa

nal instruction ped virtual nt h in turn was sing d machine as queue				
	Manufacturer:	Digital Equipment Corporation		
	Byte size:	8 bits (octet)		
	Address bus size:	32 bits		
	Peripheral bus:	Unibus, Massbus, Q-Bus, XMI, VAXBI		
	Architecture:	CISC, virtual memory		
	Operating systems:	VAX/VMS, Ultrix, BSD UNIX		

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Today's Semantic Gap

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- popular argument: today's ISAs are targeted to one HLL, and it just so happens that this HLL (C) is very low-level (assembly++)
 - would ISAs be different if Java was dominant?
 - more object oriented?
 - support for garbage collection (GC)?
 - support for bounds-checking?
 - security support?



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Instruction Set Aspects

- #1 format
 - length, encoding
- #2 operations
 - operations, data types, number & kind of operands
- #3 storage
 - internal: accumulator, stack, general-purpose register
 - memory: address size, addressing modes, alignments
- #4 control
 - branch conditions, special support for procedures, predication

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Aspect #1: Instruction Format

- fixed length (most common: 32-bits)
 - (plus) easy for pipelining(e.g. overlap) and for multiple issue (superscalar)
 - don't have to decode current instruction to find next instruction
 - (minus) not compact
 - Does the MIPS add "waste" bits?
- variable length
 - (plus) more compact
 - (minus) hard (but do-able) to superscalarize/pipeline
 - PC = PC + ???

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How is the operation specified?

- Typically in a bit field called the opcode
- Also must encode addressing modes, etc.
- Some options:





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Data Sizes and Types

- fixed point (integer) data
 - 8-bit (byte), 16-bit (half), 32-bit (word), 64-bit (double)
- floating point data
 - 32/64 bit (IEEE754 single/double precision)
 - 80-bit (Intel proprietary)
- address size (aka "machine size")
 - e.g., 32-bit machine means addresses are 32-bits
 - virtual memory size key: 32-bits -> 4GB (not enough)
 - especially since 1 bit is often used to distinguish I/O addresses
 - famous lesson:
 - one of the few big mistakes in an architecture is not enabling a large enough address space

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Aspect #3: Internal Storage Model

- choices
 - stack
 - accumulator
 - memory-memory
 - register-memory
 - register-register (also called "load/store")
- running example:
 - add C, A, B (C := A + B)



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Storage Model: Accumulator

load A accum = M[A]; add B accum += M[B]; store C M[C] = accum;

- acc is implicit destination/source in all instructions
- ALU operations have one operand
 - · (plus) less hardware, better code density (acc implicit)
 - (minus) memory bottleneck
- mostly pre-1960's
 - examples: UNIVAC, CRAY
 - x86 (IA32) uses extended accumulator for integer code

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Storage Model: Memory-Memory

add C,A,B M[C] = M[A] + M[B];

- no registers

- (plus) best code density (most compact)
 - Why? Total # of instructions smaller for one...
- (minus) large variations in instruction lengths
- (minus) large variations in work per-instruction
- (minus) memory bottleneck
- no current machines support memory-memory

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Storage Model: Memory-Register

load R1,A R1 = M[A]; add R1,B R1 = R1 + M[B]; store C,R1 M[C] = R1;

- like an explicit (extended) accumulator
 - (plus) can have several accumulators at a time
 - (plus) good code density, easy to decode instructions
- asymmetric operands, asymmetric work per instruction
- 70's and early 80's
 - · IBM 360/370
 - Intel x86, Motorola 68K



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