# **Computer Organization**

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# Processor Types And Instruction Sets

# What Instructions Should A Processor Offer?

- Minimum set is sufficient, but inconvenient
- Extremely large set is convenient, but inefficient
- Architect must consider additional factors
  - Physical size of processor
  - Expected use
  - Power consumption

#### **The Point About Instruction Sets**

The set of operations a processor provides represents a tradeoff among the cost of the hardware, the convenience for a programmer, and engineering considerations such as power consumption.

# Representation

- Architect must choose
  - Set of instructions
  - Exact representation hardware uses for each instruction (*instruction format*)
  - Precise meaning when instruction executed
- Above items define the *instruction set*

# **Parts Of An Instruction**

- Opcode specifies instruction to be performed
- Operands specify data values on which to operate
- Result location specifies where result will be placed

# **Instruction Format**

- Instruction represented as binary string
- Typically
  - Opcode at beginning of instruction
  - Operands follow opcode

# **Illustration Of Typical Instruction Format**

opcode operand 1	operand 2	
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# **Instruction Length**

- Fixed-length
  - Every instruction is same size
  - Hardware is less complex
  - Hardware can run faster
- Variable-length
  - Some instructions shorter than others
  - Appeals to programmers
  - More efficient use of memory

#### **The Point About Fixed-Length Instructions**

When a fixed-length instruction set is employed, some instructions contain extra fields that the hardware ignores. The unused fields should be viewed as part of a hardware optimization, not as an indication of a poor design.

# **General-Purpose Registers**

- High-speed storage device
- Typically part of the processor
- Each register small size (typically, each register can accommodate an integer)
- Basic operations are *fetch* and *store*
- Numbered from 0 through N-1
- Many processors require operands for arithmetic operations to be placed in general-purpose registers

# **Floating Point Registers**

- Usually separate from general-purpose registers
- Each holds one floating-point value
- Many processors require operands for floating point operations to be placed in floating point registers

# **Example Of Programming With Registers**

- Add X and Y, and place result in Z
- Steps
  - Load a copy of X into register 3
  - Load a copy of Y into register 4
  - Add the value in register 3 to the value in register 4, and direct the result to register 5
  - Store a copy of the value in register 5 in Z
- Note: assumes registers 3, 4, and 5 are free

# Terminology

- *Register spilling* 
  - Refers to placing current contents of registers in memory for later recall
  - Occurs when registers needed for other computation
- Register allocation
  - Choose which values to keep in registers at any time
  - Programmer or compiler decides

#### **Double Precision**

- Refers to value that is twice as large as usual
- Hardware often uses a contiguous pair of registers to hold a double precision value

# **Types Of Instruction Sets**

- Two basic forms
  - Complex Instruction Set Computer (CISC)
  - Reduced Instruction Set Computer (RISC)

# **CISC Instruction Set**

- Many instructions (often hundreds)
- Given instruction can require arbitrary time to compute
- Examples of CISC instructions
  - Move graphical item on bitmapped display
  - Memory copy or clear
  - Floating point computation

# **RISC Instruction Set**

- Few instructions (typically 32 or 64)
- Each instruction executes in one clock cycle
- Example: MIPS instruction set

#### **Summary Of Instruction Sets**

A processor is classified as CISC if the instruction set contains instructions that perform complex computations that can require long times; a processor is classified as RISC if it contains a small number of instructions that can each execute in one clock cycle.

# **Execution Pipeline**

- Hardware optimization technique
- Allows processor to complete instructions faster
- Typically used with RISC instruction set

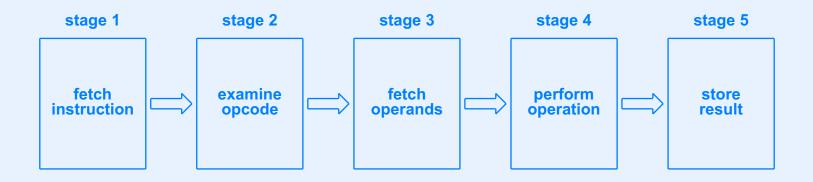
# **Typical Instruction Cycle**

- Fetch the next instruction
- Examine the opcode to determine how many operands are needed
- Fetch each of the operands (e.g., extract values from registers)
- Perform the operation specified by the opcode
- Store the result in the location specified (e.g., a register)

# **To Optimize Instruction Cycle**

- Build separate hardware block for each step
- Arrange to pass instruction through sequence of hardware blocks

#### **Illustration Of Execution Pipeline**



• Example pipeline has five stages

# **Pipeline Speed**

- All stages operate in parallel
- Given stage can start to process a new instruction as soon as current instruction finishes
- Effect: N-stage pipeline can operate on N instructions simultaneously

# **Illustration Of Instructions In A Pipeline**

	clock	stage 1	stage 2	stage 3	stage 4	stage 5
Time	1	inst. 1				
	2	inst. 2	inst. 1	-	-	-
	3	inst. 3	inst. 2	inst. 1	-	-
	4	inst. 4	inst. 3	inst. 2	inst. 1	
	5	inst. 5	inst. 4	inst. 3	inst. 2	inst. 1
	6	inst. 6	inst. 5	inst. 4	inst. 3	inst. 2
+	7	inst. 7	inst. 6	inst. 5	inst. 4	inst. 3
	8	inst. 8	inst. 7	inst. 6	inst. 5	inst. 4

#### **RISC Processors And Pipelines**

Although a RISC processor cannot perform all steps of the fetch-execute cycle in a single clock cycle, an instruction pipeline with parallel hardware provides approximately the same performance: once the pipeline is full, one instruction completes on every clock cycle.

# **Using A Pipeline**

- Pipeline is *transparent* to programmer
- Disadvantage: programmer who does not understand pipeline can produce inefficient code
- Reason: hardware automatically *stalls* pipeline if items are not available

# **Example Of Instruction Stalls**

- Assume
  - Need to perform addition and subtraction operations
  - Operands and results in registers A through E
  - Code is:

Instruction K: $C \leftarrow add \land B$ Instruction K+1: $D \leftarrow subtract \land E \land C$ 

• Second instruction stalls to wait for operand *C* 

# **Effect Of Stall On Pipeline**

_	clock	stage 1	stage 2	stage 3	stage 4	stage 5
<b>T</b> :	1	inst. K	inst. K-1	inst. K-2	inst. K-3	inst. K-4
Time	2	inst. K+1	inst. K	inst. K-1	inst. K-2	inst. K-3
	3	inst. K+2	inst. K+1	inst. K	inst. K-1	inst. K-2
	4	inst. K+3	inst. K+2	(inst. K+1)	inst. K	inst. K-1
	5	-		(inst. K+1)		inst. K
	6	-		inst. K+1		-
+	7	inst. K+4	inst. K+3	inst. K+2	inst. K+1	-
	8	inst. K+5	inst. K+4	inst. K+3	inst. K+2	inst. K+1

• *Bubble* passes through pipeline

# **Potential Causes Of A Pipeline Stall**

- Access external storage
- Invoke a coprocessor
- Branch to a new location
- Call a subroutine

# **Achieving Maximum Speed**

- Program must be written to accommodate instruction pipeline
- To minimize stalls
  - Avoid introducing unnecessary branches
  - Delay references to result register(s)

# **Example Of Avoiding Stalls**

- $C \leftarrow add \land B$
- $D \leftarrow subtract E C$
- $F \leftarrow add G H$
- $M \leftarrow add K L$
- $P \leftarrow subtract M N \qquad P \leftarrow subtract M N$

- $C \leftarrow add A B$
- $F \leftarrow add G H$
- $M \leftarrow add K L$
- $J \leftarrow subtract I F \qquad D \leftarrow subtract E C$ 
  - $J \leftarrow subtract I F$

#### **(a)**

- **(b)**
- Stalls eliminated by rearranging (a) to (b)

# **A Note About Pipelines**

Although hardware that uses an instruction pipeline will not run at full speed unless programs are written to accommodate the pipeline, a programmer can choose to ignore pipelining and assume the hardware will automatically increase speed whenever possible.

# **No-Op Instructions**

- Have no effect on
  - Registers
  - Memory
  - Program counter
  - Computation
- Can be inserted to avoid instruction stalls
- Often used by a compiler

#### **Use Of No-OP**

• Example

Instruction K:  $C \leftarrow add \land B$ Instruction L+1: no-op Instruction K+2:  $D \leftarrow subtract \ E \ C$ 

• No-op allows time for result from register *C* to be fetched for *subtract* operation

# Forwarding

- Hardware optimization to avoid stall
- Allows ALU to reference result in next instruction
- Example

Instruction K:  $C \leftarrow add \land B$ Instruction K+1:  $D \leftarrow subtract \ E \ C$ 

• Forwarding hardware passes result of *add* operation directly to next instruction

# **Aesthetic Aspects Of Instruction Sets**

- Elegance
  - Balanced
  - No frivolous or useless instructions
- Orthogonality
  - No unnecessary duplication
  - No overlap among instructions

# **Principle Of Orthogonality**

The principle of orthogonality specifies that each instruction should perform a unique task without duplicating or overlapping the functionality of other instructions.

# **Condition Codes**

- Hardware bits
- Set by ALU
- Tested in conditional branch instruction

#### **Example Of Condition Code**

cmp	r4, r5	#	compare regs. 4 & 5, an	d set	condition	code
be	lab1	#	branch to lab1 if cond.	code	specifies	equal
mov	r3, 0	#	place a zero in registe	r 3		

lab1: ... program continues at this point

# **Questions?**