



# EI 338: Computer Systems Engineering (Operating Systems & Computer Architecture)

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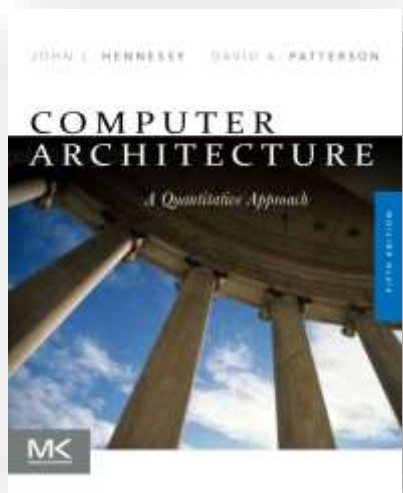
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# Computer Architecture

## A Quantitative Approach, Fifth Edition



## Appendix A

## Instruction Set Principles



# Outline

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- **Instruction Set Architecture**
- **5 stage pipelining**
- **Structural and Data Hazards**
- **Forwarding**
- **Branch Schemes**
- **Exceptions and Interrupts**
- **Conclusion**



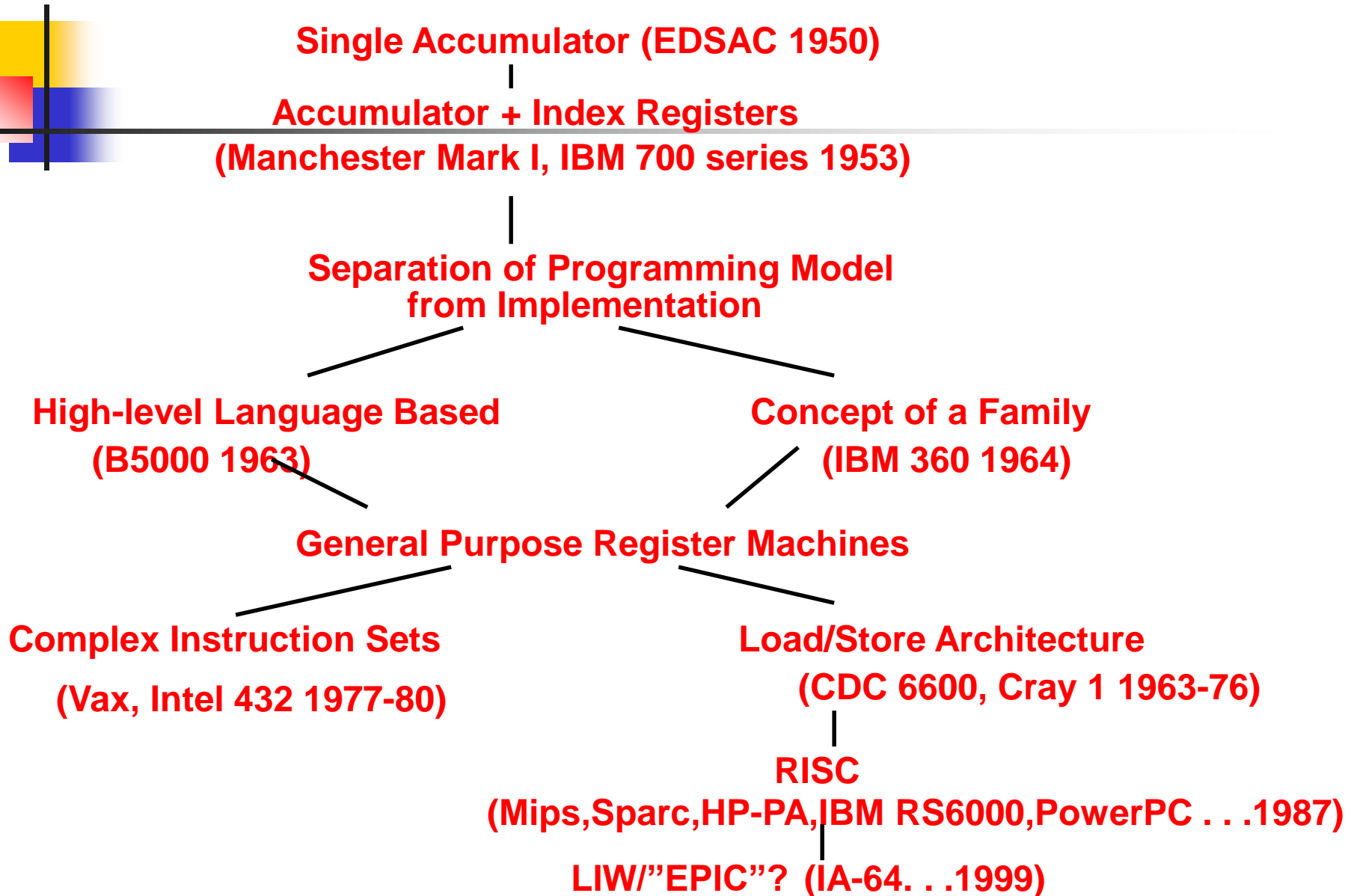
# Instruction Set Architecture

- **Instruction set architecture is the structure of a computer that a machine language programmer must understand to write a correct (timing independent) program for that machine.**
- **The instruction set architecture is also the machine description that a hardware designer must understand to design a correct implementation of the computer.**

# Evolution of Instruction Sets



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# Evolution of Instruction Sets

- **Major advances in computer architecture are typically associated with landmark instruction set designs**
  - **Ex: Stack vs GPR (System 360)**
- **Design decisions must take into account:**
  - **technology**
  - **machine organization**
  - **programming languages**
  - **compiler technology**
  - **operating systems**
- **And they in turn influence these**



# Instructions Can Be Divided into 3 Classes (I)

- **Data movement instructions**
  - Move data from a memory location or register to another memory location or register without changing its form
  - ***Load***—source is memory and destination is register
  - ***Store***—source is register and destination is memory
- **Arithmetic and logic (ALU) instructions**
  - Change the form of one or more operands to produce a result stored in another location
  - ***Add, Sub, Shift***, etc.
- **Branch instructions (control flow instructions)**
  - Alter the normal flow of control from executing the next instruction in sequence
  - ***Br Loc, Brz Loc2***,—unconditional or conditional branches





# Classifying ISAs

## Accumulator (before 1960):

1 address

add A

$acc \leftarrow acc + mem[A]$

## Stack (1960s to 1970s):

0 address

add

$tos \leftarrow tos + next$

## Memory-Memory (1970s to 1980s):

2 address

add A, B

$mem[A] \leftarrow mem[A] + mem[B]$

3 address

add A, B, C

$mem[A] \leftarrow mem[B] + mem[C]$

## Register-Memory (1970s to present):

2 address

add R1, A

$R1 \leftarrow R1 + mem[A]$

load R1, A

$R1 \leftarrow mem[A]$

## Register-Register (Load/Store) (1960s to present):

3 address

add R1, R2, R3

$R1 \leftarrow R2 + R3$

load R1, R2

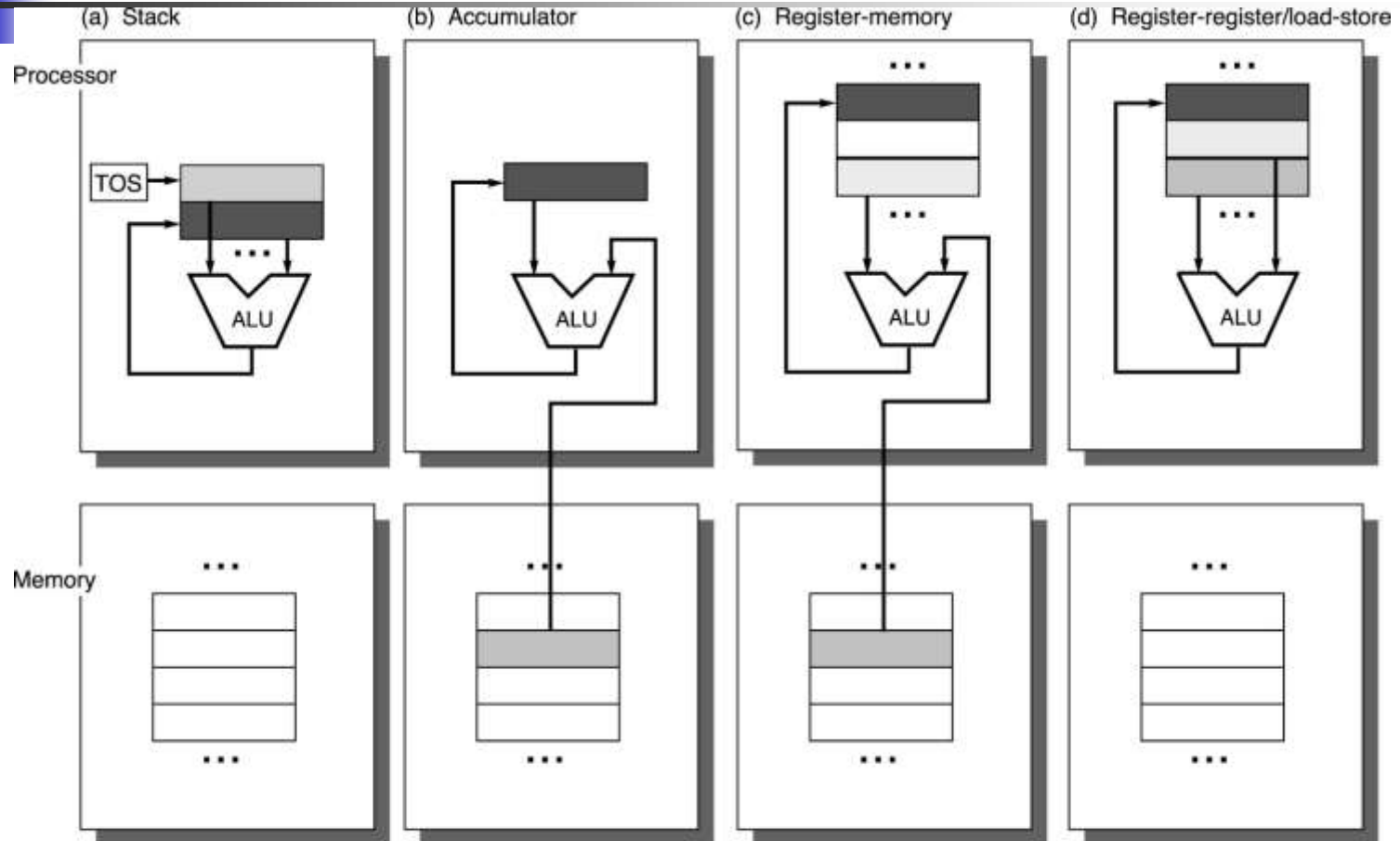
$R1 \leftarrow mem[R2]$

store R1, R2

$mem[R1] \leftarrow R2$



# Classifying ISAs





# Stack Architectures

## Instruction set:

add, sub, mult, div, . . .

push A, pop A

## ■ Example: $A * B - (A + C * B)$

push A

push B

mul

push A

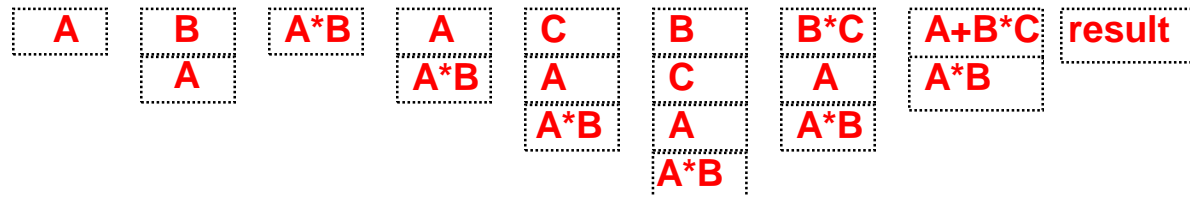
push C

push B

mul

add

sub





# Stacks: Pros and Cons

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## ■ Pros

- **Good code density (implicit operand addressing → top of stack)**
- **Low hardware requirements**
- **Easy to write a simpler compiler for stack architectures**

## ■ Cons

- **Stack becomes the bottleneck**
- **Little ability for parallelism or pipelining**
- **Data is not always at the top of stack when need, so additional instructions like TOP and SWAP are needed**
- **Difficult to write an optimizing compiler for stack architectures**



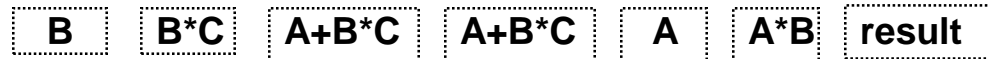
# Accumulator Architectures

- Instruction set:

add A, sub A, mult A, div A, . . .

load A, store A

- Example:  $A*B - (A+C*B)$



load B

mul C

add A

store D

load A

mul B

sub D



# Accumulators: Pros and Cons

---

- **Pros**
  - Very low hardware requirements
  - Easy to design and understand
- **Cons**
  - Accumulator becomes the bottleneck
  - Little ability for parallelism or pipelining
  - High memory traffic



# Memory-Memory Architectures

- **Instruction set:**  
**(3 operands)    add A, B, C    sub A, B, C    mul A, B, C**
- **Example:  $A*B - (A+C*B)$** 
  - **3 operands**  
**mul D, A, B**  
**mul E, C, B**  
**add E, A, E**  
**sub E, D, E**



# Memory-Memory: Pros and Cons

---

- **Pros**
  - Requires fewer instructions (especially if 3 operands)
  - Easy to write compilers for (especially if 3 operands)
- **Cons**
  - Very high memory traffic (especially if 3 operands)
  - Variable number of clocks per instruction (especially if 2 operands)
  - With two operands, more data movements are required





# Register-Memory Architectures

- Instruction set:

add R1, A

sub R1, A      mul R1, B

load R1, A

store R1, A

- Example:  $A*B - (A+C*B)$

load R1, A

mul R1, B

*/\**       $A*B$       *\*/*

store R1, D

load R2, C

mul R2, B

*/\**       $C*B$       *\*/*

add R2, A

*/\**       $A + CB$       *\*/*

sub R2, D

*/\**       $AB - (A + C*B)$       *\*/*



# Memory-Register: Pros and Cons

---

- **Pros**
  - Some data can be accessed without loading first
  - Instruction format easy to encode
  - Good code density
- **Cons**
  - Operands are not equivalent (poor orthogonality)
  - Variable number of clocks per instruction
  - May limit number of registers



# Load-Store Architectures

- Instruction set:

add R1, R2, R3      sub R1, R2, R3      mul R1, R2, R3  
load R1, R4                      store R1, R4

- Example:  $A*B - (A+C*B)$

load R1, &A

load R2, &B

load R3, &C

load R4, R1

load R5, R2

load R6, R3

mul R7, R6, R5                      /\*      C\*B                      \*/

add R8, R7, R4                      /\*      A + C\*B                      \*/

mul R9, R4, R5                      /\*      A\*B                      \*/

sub R10, R9, R8                      /\*      A\*B - (A+C\*B)                      \*/



# Load-Store: Pros and Cons

---

- **Pros**

- Simple, fixed length instruction encoding
- Instructions take similar number of cycles
- Relatively easy to pipeline

- **Cons**

- Higher instruction count
- Not all instructions need three operands
- Dependent on good compiler



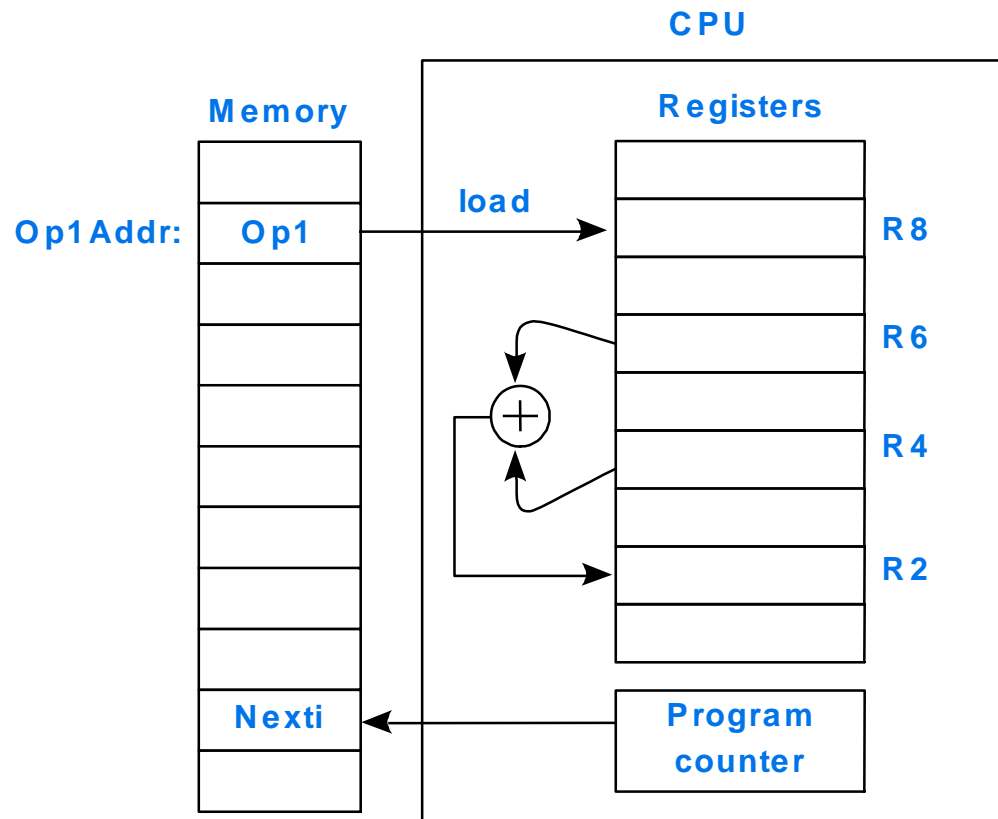
# Registers: Advantages and Disadvantages

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- **Advantages**
  - Faster than cache (no addressing mode or tags)
  - Deterministic (no misses)
  - Can replicate (multiple read ports)
  - Short identifier (typically 3 to 8 bits)
  - Reduce memory traffic
- **Disadvantages**
  - Need to save and restore on procedure calls and context switch
  - Can't take the address of a register (for pointers)
  - Fixed size (can't store strings or structures efficiently)
  - Compiler must manage



# General Register Machine and Instruction Formats



## Instruction formats

load R8, Op1 (R8  $\Leftarrow$  Op1)

load	R8	Op1Addr
------	----	---------

add R2, R4, R6 (R2  $\Leftarrow$  R4 + R6)

add	R2	R4	R6
-----	----	----	----



# General Register Machine and Instruction Formats

- It is the most common choice in today's general-purpose computers
- *Which* register is specified by small "address" (3 to 6 bits for 8 to 64 registers)
- Load and store have one long & one short address: One and half addresses
- Arithmetic instruction has 3 "half" addresses



## Real Machines Are Not So Simple

- Most real machines have a mixture of 3, 2, 1, 0, and 1- address instructions
- A distinction can be made on whether arithmetic instructions use data from memory
- If ALU instructions only use registers for operands and result, machine type is **load-store**
  - Only load and store instructions reference memory
- Other machines have a mix of register-memory and memory-memory instructions





# Alignment Issues

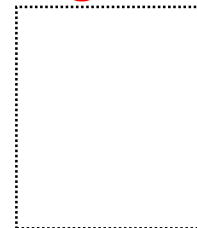
- If the architecture does not restrict memory accesses to be aligned then
  - Software is simple
  - Hardware must detect misalignment and make 2 memory accesses
  - Expensive detection logic is required
  - All references can be made slower
- Sometimes unrestricted alignment is required for backwards compatibility
- If the architecture restricts memory accesses to be aligned then
  - Software must guarantee alignment
  - Hardware detects misalignment access and traps
  - No extra time is spent when data is aligned
- Since we want to make the common case fast, having restricted alignment is often a better choice, unless compatibility is an issue



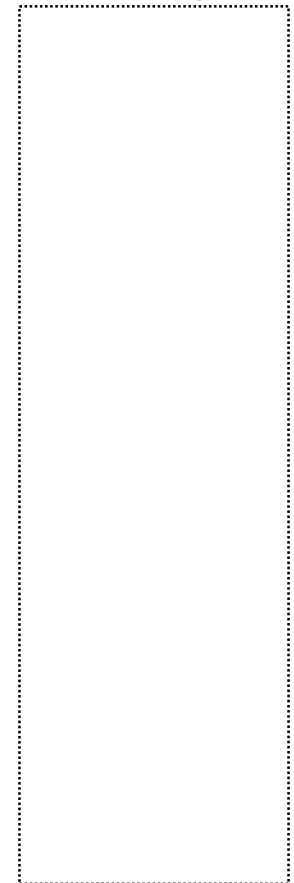
# Types of Addressing Modes (VAX)

1. Register direct  $R_i$
2. Immediate (literal)  $\#n$
3. Displacement  $M[R_i + \#n]$
4. Register indirect  $M[R_i]$
5. Indexed  $M[R_i + R_j]$
6. Direct (absolute)  $M[\#n]$
7. Memory Indirect  $M[M[R_i]]$
8. Autoincrement  $M[R_i++]$
9. Autodecrement  $M[R_i--]$
10. Scaled  $M[R_i + R_j * d + \#n]$

reg. file

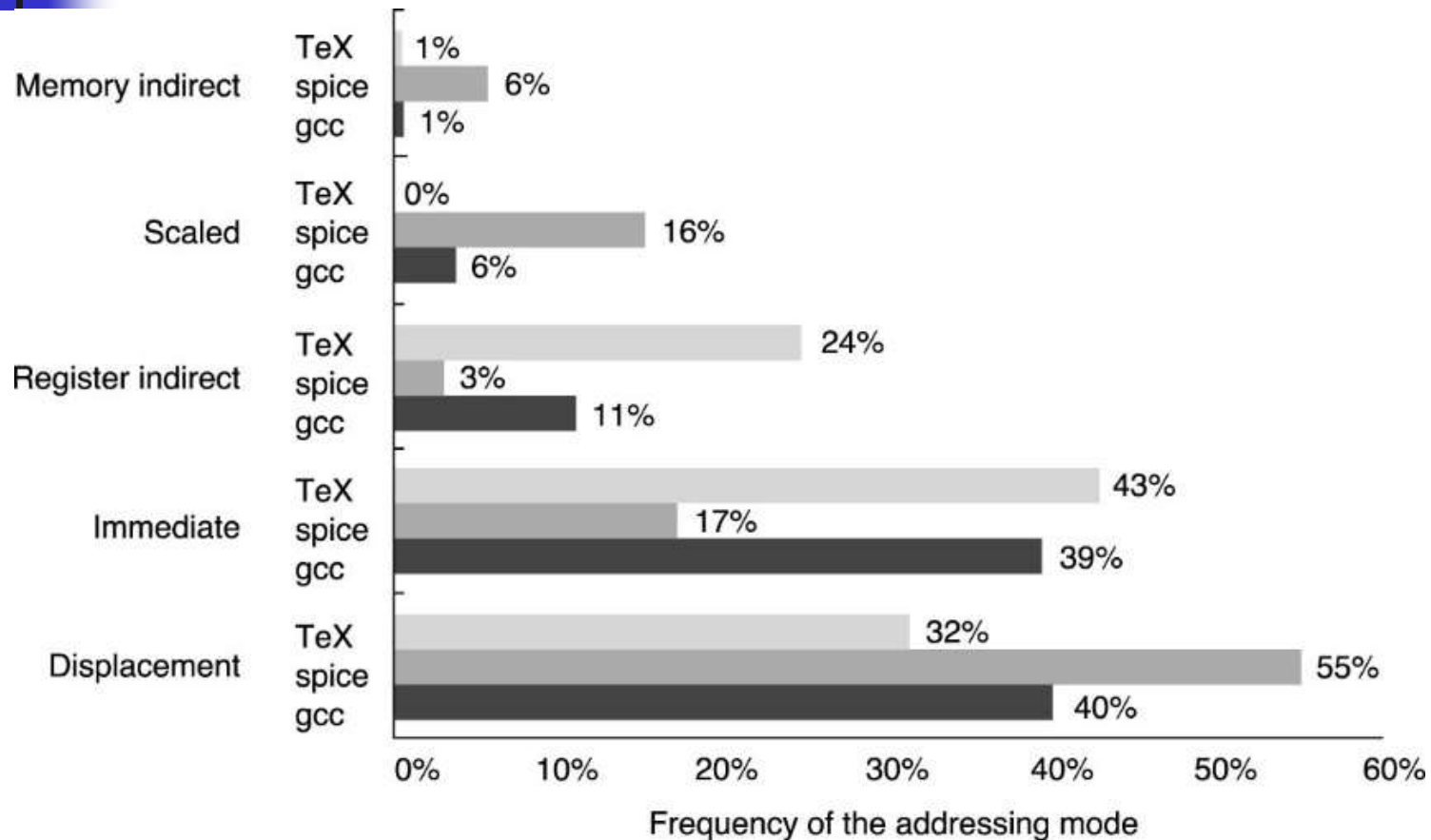


memory



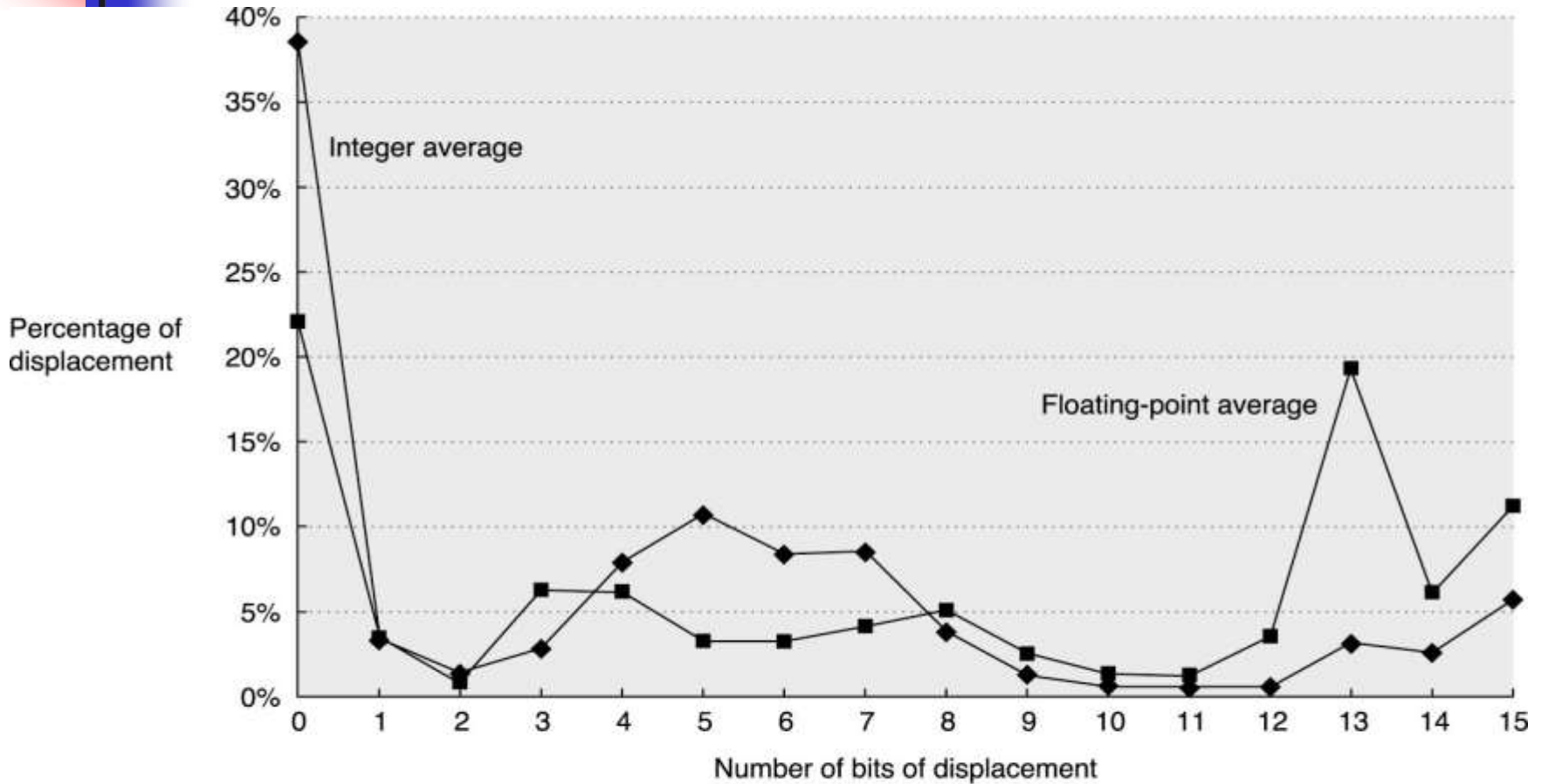


# Summary of Use of Addressing Modes



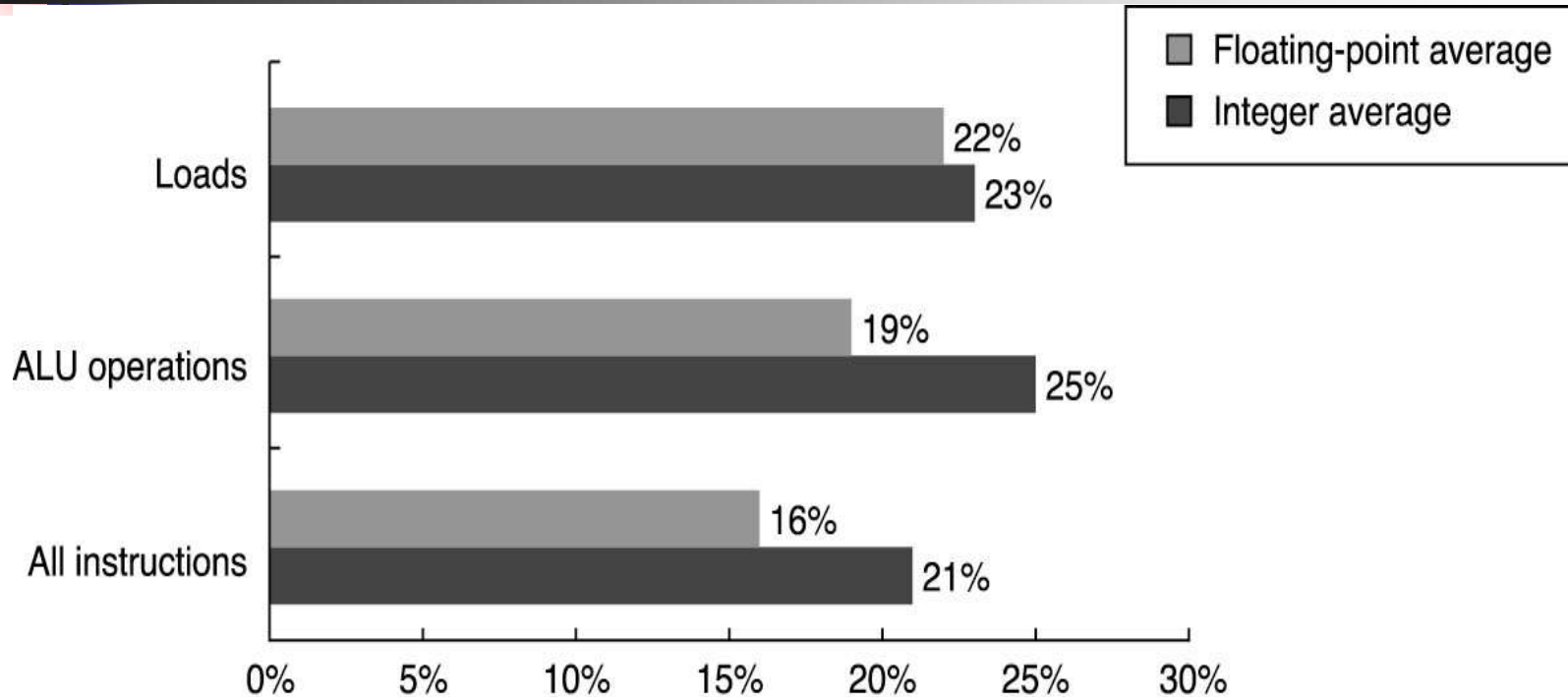


# Distribution of Displacement Values





# Frequency of Immediate Operands



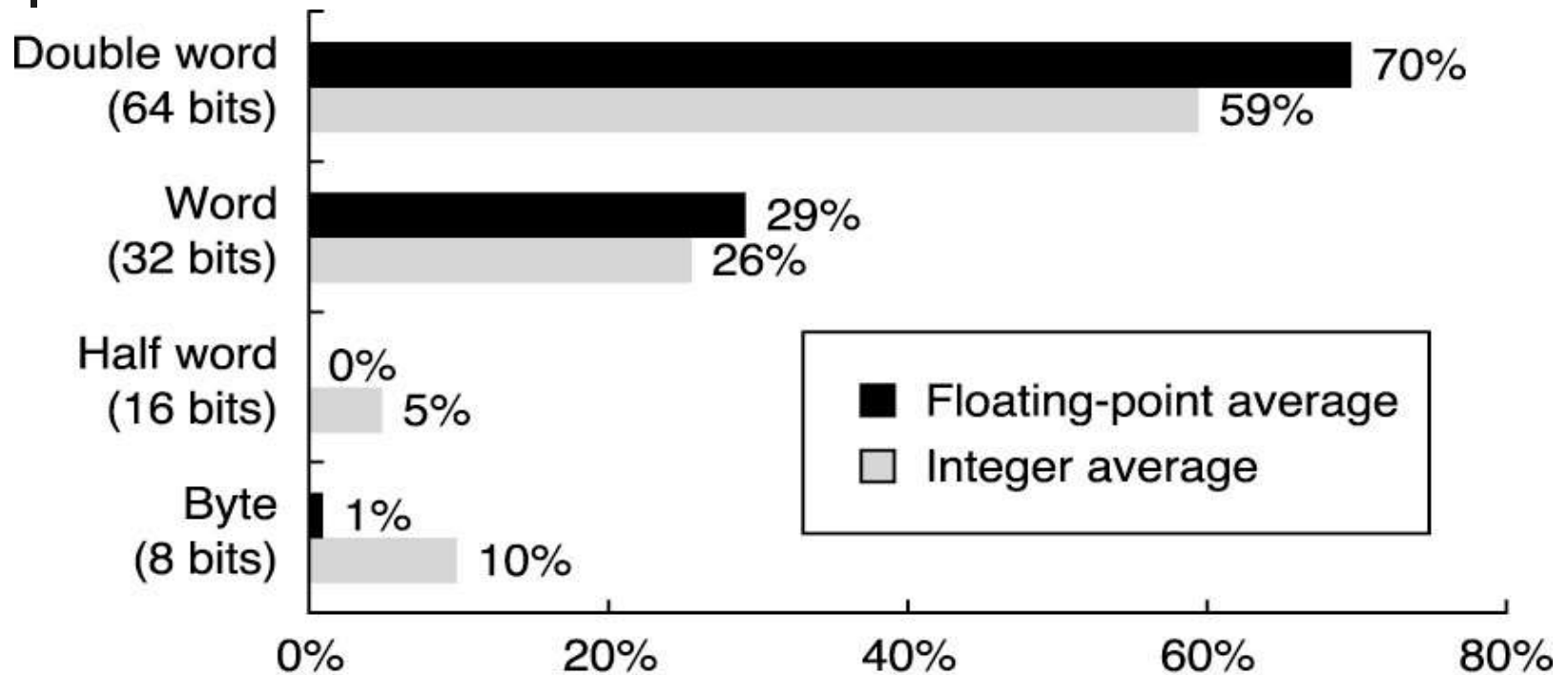


# Types of Operations

- **Arithmetic and Logic: AND, ADD**
- **Data Transfer: MOVE, LOAD, STORE**
- **Control BRANCH, JUMP, CALL**
- **System OS CALL, VM**
- **Floating Point ADDF, MULF, DIVF**
- **Decimal ADDD, CONVERT**
- **String MOVE, COMPARE**
- **Graphics (DE)COMPRESS**

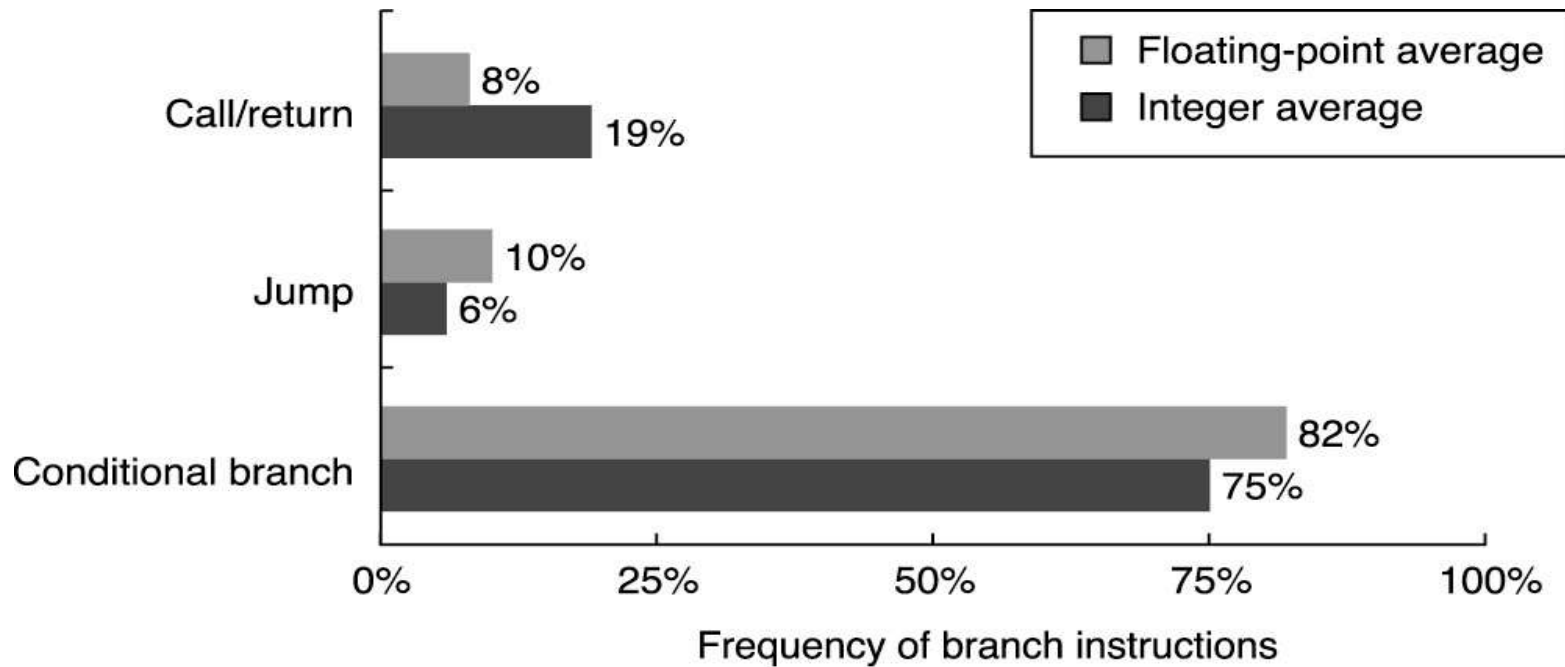


# Distribution of Data Accesses by Size





# Relative Frequency of Control Instructions





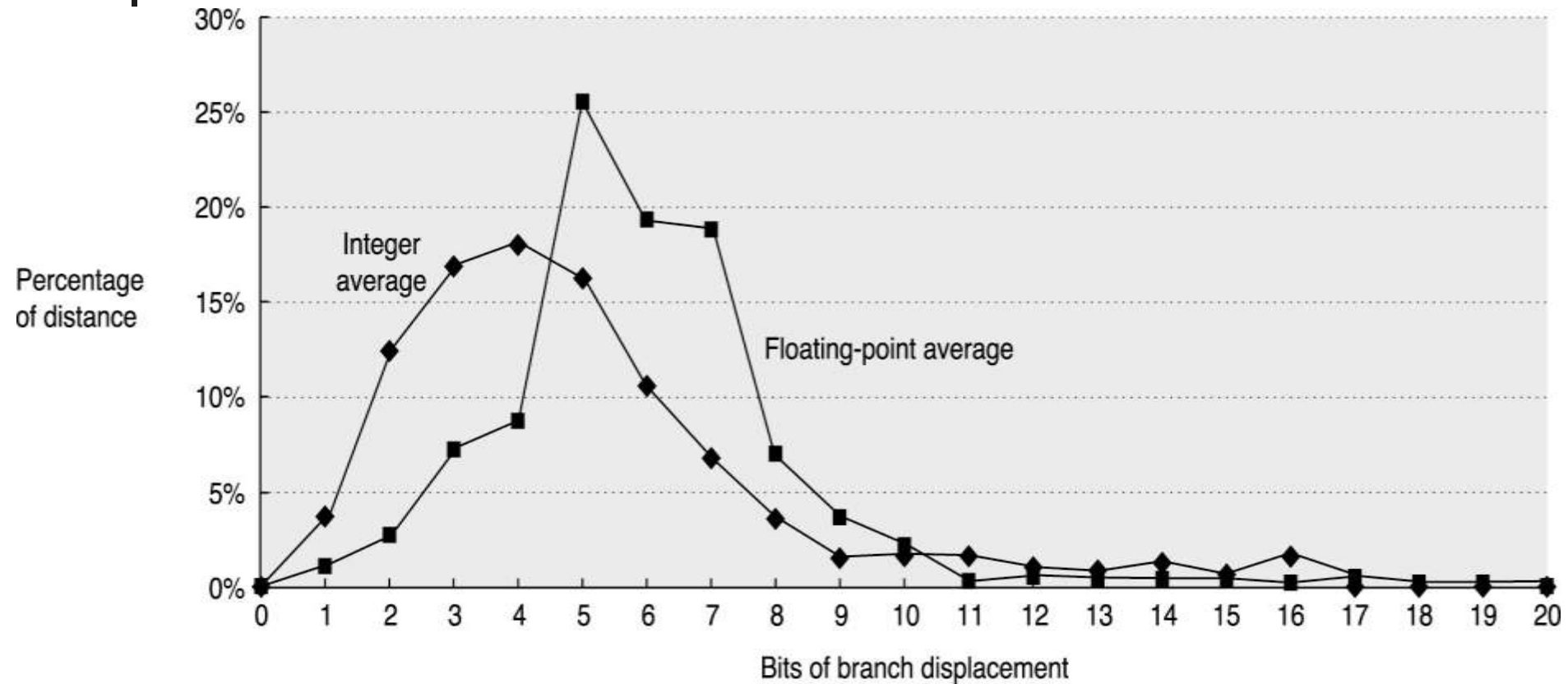


## Control instructions (contd.)

- **Addressing modes**
  - **PC-relative addressing (independent of program load & displacements are close by)**
    - Requires displacement (how many bits?)
    - Determined via empirical study. [8-16 works!]
  - **For procedure returns/indirect jumps/kernel traps, target may not be known at compile time.**
    - Jump based on contents of register
    - Useful for switch/(virtual) functions/function ptrs/dynamically linked libraries etc.

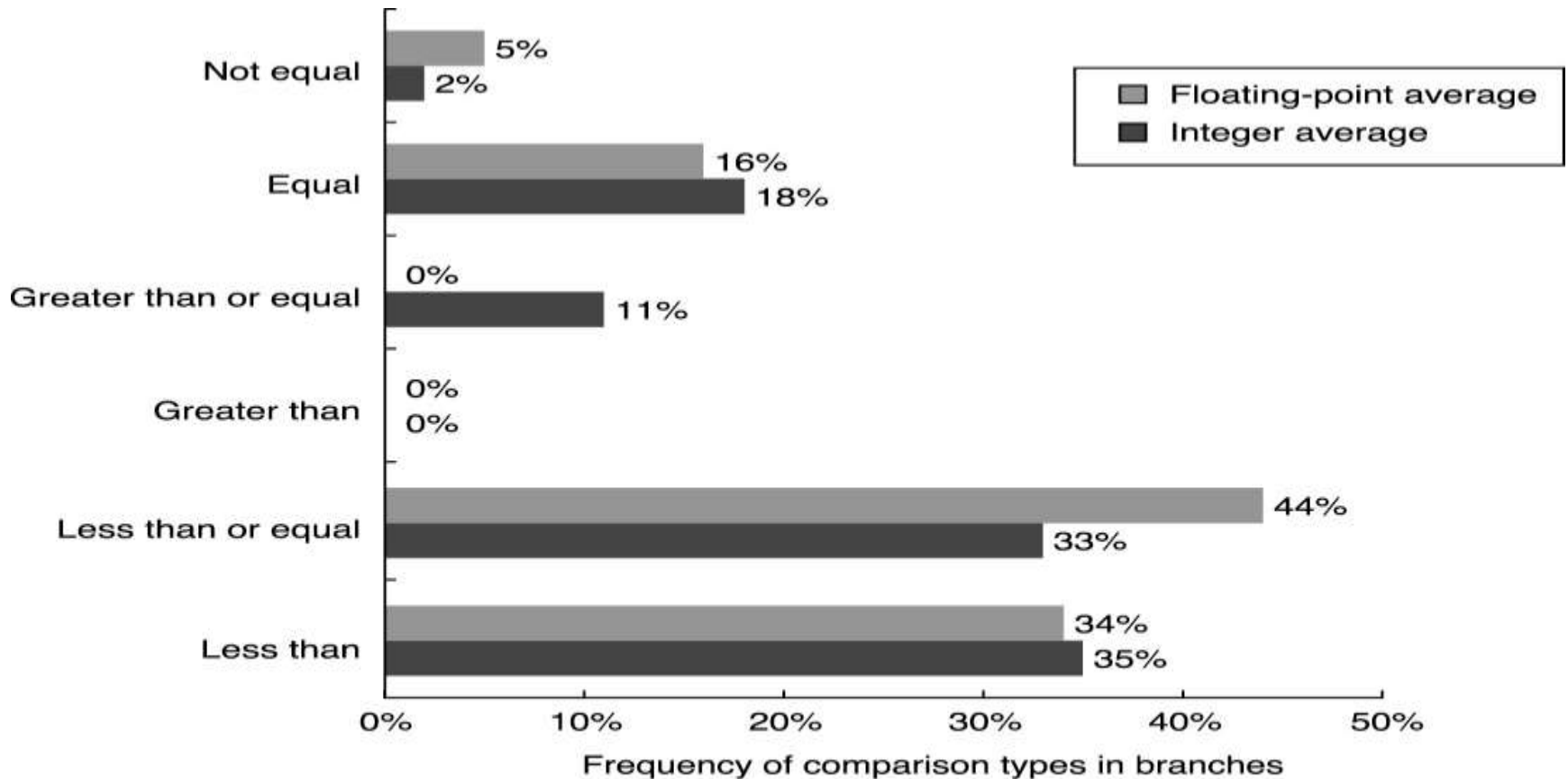


# Branch Distances (in terms of number of instructions)





# Frequency of Different Types of Compares in Conditional Branches





## Encoding an Instruction set

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- a desire to have as many registers and addressing mode as possible
- the impact of size of register and addressing mode fields on the average instruction size and hence on the average program size
- a desire to have instruction encode into lengths that will be easy to handle in the implementation



# Three choice for encoding the instruction set

Operation and no. of operands	Address specifier 1	Address field 1	...	Address specifier	Address field
-------------------------------	---------------------	-----------------	-----	-------------------	---------------

(a) Variable (e.g., VAX, Intel 80x86)

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

(b) Fixed (e.g., Alpha, ARM, MIPS, PowerPC, SPARC, SuperH)

Operation	Address specifier	Address field
-----------	-------------------	---------------

Operation	Address specifier 1	Address specifier 2	Address field
-----------	---------------------	---------------------	---------------

Operation	Address specifier	Address field 1	Address field 2
-----------	-------------------	-----------------	-----------------

(c) Hybrid (e.g., IBM 360/70, MIPS16, Thumb, TI TMS320C54x)



# Compilers and ISA

## ■ Compiler Goals

- All correct programs compile correctly
- Most compiled programs execute quickly
- Most programs compile quickly
- Achieve small code size
- Provide debugging support

## ■ Multiple Source Compilers

- Same compiler can compile different languages

## ■ Multiple Target Compilers

- Same compiler can generate code for different machines



# Compilers Phases

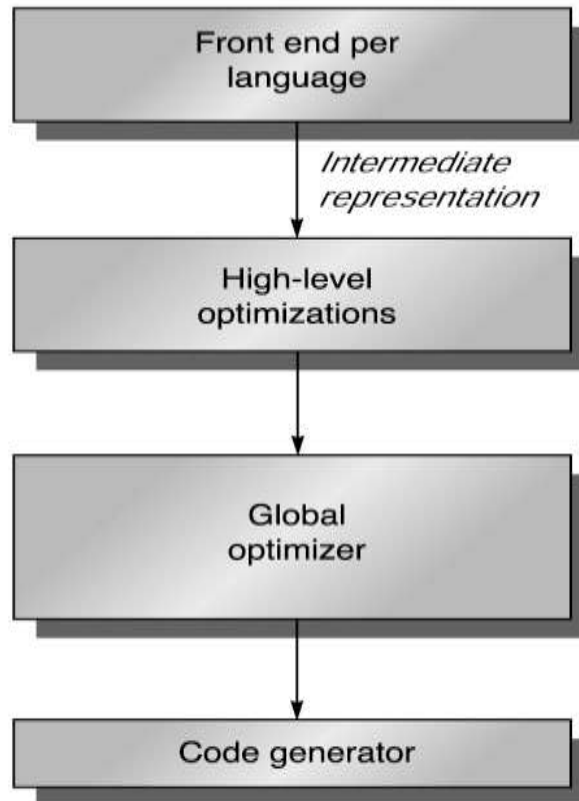
## Dependencies

\_language dependent;  
nachine independent

Somewhat language dependent;  
argely machine independent

Small language dependencies;  
nachine dependencies slight  
(e.g., register counts/types)

-highly machine dependent;  
anguage independent



## Function

Transform language to  
common intermediate form

For example, loop  
transformations and  
procedure inlining  
(also called  
procedure integration)

Including global and local  
optimizations + register  
allocation

Detailed instruction selection  
and machine-dependent  
optimizations; may include  
or be followed by assembler



# Compiler Based Register Optimization

- **Assume small number of registers (16-32)**
- **Optimizing use is up to compiler**
- **HLL programs have no explicit references to registers**
  - usually – is this always true?
- **Assign symbolic or virtual register to each candidate variable**
- **Map (unlimited) symbolic registers to real registers**
- **Symbolic registers that do not overlap can share real registers**
- **If you run out of real registers some variables use memory**





# Allocation of Variables

## Stack

- used to allocate local variables
- grown and shrunk on procedure calls and returns
- register allocation works best for stack-allocated objects
- Global data area
  - used to allocate global variables and constants
  - many of these objects are arrays or large data structures
  - impossible to allocate to registers if they are *aliased*
- Heap
  - used to allocate dynamic objects
  - heap objects are accessed with pointers
  - never allocated to registers



# Designing ISA to Improve Compilation

- **Provide enough general purpose registers to ease register allocation ( more than 16).**
- **Provide regular instruction sets by keeping the operations, data types, and addressing modes orthogonal.**
- **Provide primitive constructs rather than trying to map to a high-level language.**
- **Simplify trade-off among alternatives.**
- **Allow compilers to help make the common case fast.**



# ISA Metrics

- **Orthogonality**
  - **No special registers, few special cases, all operand modes available with any data type or instruction type**
- **Completeness**
  - **Support for a wide range of operations and target applications**
- **Regularity**
  - **No overloading for the meanings of instruction fields**
- **Streamlined Design**
  - **Resource needs easily determined. Simplify tradeoffs.**
- **Ease of compilation (programming?), Ease of implementation, Scalability**





# ISA Metrics

## Aesthetics:

- **Orthogonality**
  - **No special registers, few special cases, all operand modes available with any data type or instruction type**
- **Completeness**
  - **Support for a wide range of operations and target applications**
- **Regularity**
  - **No overloading for the meanings of instruction fields**
- **Streamlined**
  - **Resource needs easily determined**

**Ease of compilation (programming?)**

**Ease of implementation**

**Scalability**



## A "Typical" RISC

- 32-bit fixed format instruction (3 formats)
- 32 32-bit GPR (R0 contains zero, Double Precision takes a register pair)
- 3-address, reg-reg arithmetic instruction
- Single address mode for load/store:  
base + displacement
  - no indirection
- Simple branch conditions
- Delayed branch

see: SPARC, MIPS, MC88100, AMD2900, i960, i860  
PARisc, DEC Alpha, Clipper,  
CDC 6600, CDC 7600, Cray-1, Cray-2, Cray-3



# MIPS data types

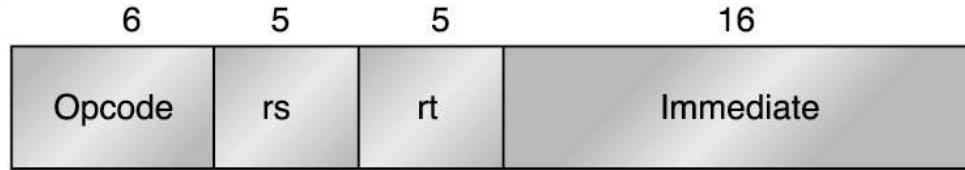
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- **Bytes**
  - characters
- **Half-words**
  - Short ints, OS related data-structures
- **Words**
  - Single FP, Integers
- **Doublewords**
  - Double FP, Long Integers (in some implementations)

# Instruction Layout for MIPS



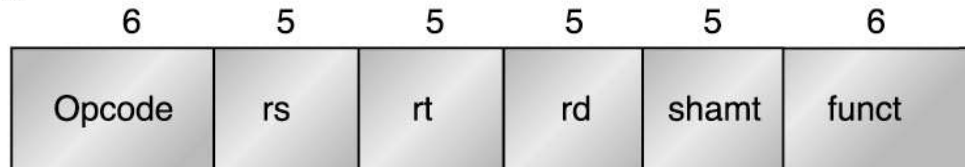
## I-type instruction



Encodes: Loads and stores of bytes, half words, words, double words. All immediates ( $rt \leftarrow rs \text{ op immediate}$ )

Conditional branch instructions (rs is register, rd unused)  
Jump register, jump and link register  
(rd = 0, rs = destination, immediate = 0)

## R-type instruction



Register-register ALU operations:  $rd \leftarrow rs \text{ funct } rt$   
Function encodes the data path operation: Add, Sub, . . .  
Read/write special registers and moves

## J-type instruction



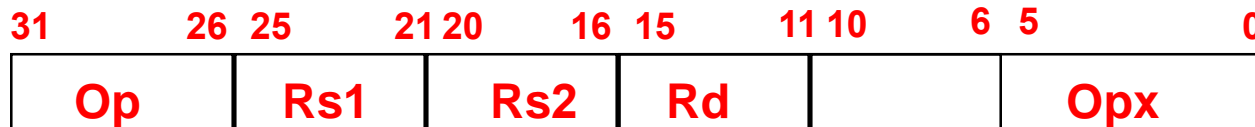
Jump and jump and link  
Trap and return from exception



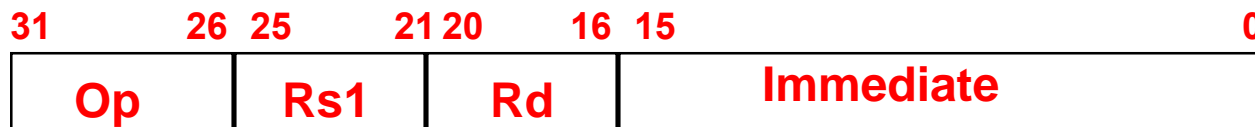


# MIPS (32 bit instructions)

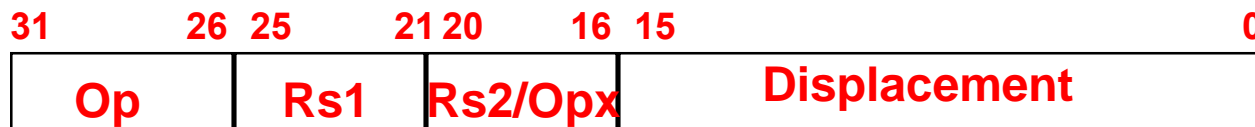
## 1. Register-Register



## 2a. Register-Immediate



## 2b. Branch (displacement)



## 3. Jump / Call





## MIPS (addressing modes)

- Register direct
- Displacement
- Immediate
- Byte addressable & 64 bit address
- $R0 \leftarrow$  always contains value 0
- Displacement = 0  $\rightarrow$  register indirect
- $R0 + \text{Displacement} = 0 \rightarrow$  absolute addressing



# Types of Operations

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- **Loads and Stores**
- **ALU operations**
- **Floating point operations**
- **Branches and Jumps (control-related)**



# Load/Store Instructions

Example instruction	Instruction name	Meaning
LD R1,30(R2)	Load double word	$\text{Regs}[R1] \leftarrow_{64} \text{Mem}[30+\text{Regs}[R2]]$
LD R1,1000(R0)	Load double word	$\text{Regs}[R1] \leftarrow_{64} \text{Mem}[1000+0]$
LW R1,60(R2)	Load word	$\text{Regs}[R1] \leftarrow_{64} (\text{Mem}[60+\text{Regs}[R2]]_0)^{32} \#\# \text{Mem}[60+\text{Regs}[R2]]$
LB R1,40(R3)	Load byte	$\text{Regs}[R1] \leftarrow_{64} (\text{Mem}[40+\text{Regs}[R3]]_0)^{56} \#\# \text{Mem}[40+\text{Regs}[R3]]$
LBU R1,40(R3)	Load byte unsigned	$\text{Regs}[R1] \leftarrow_{64} 0^{56} \#\# \text{Mem}[40+\text{Regs}[R3]]$
LH R1,40(R3)	Load half word	$\text{Regs}[R1] \leftarrow_{64} (\text{Mem}[40+\text{Regs}[R3]]_0)^{48} \#\# \text{Mem}[40+\text{Regs}[R3]] \#\# \text{Mem}[41+\text{Regs}[R3]]$
L.S F0,50(R3)	Load FP single	$\text{Regs}[F0] \leftarrow_{64} \text{Mem}[50+\text{Regs}[R3]] \#\# 0^{32}$
L.D F0,50(R2)	Load FP double	$\text{Regs}[F0] \leftarrow_{64} \text{Mem}[50+\text{Regs}[R2]]$
SD R3,500(R4)	Store double word	$\text{Mem}[500+\text{Regs}[R4]] \leftarrow_{64} \text{Regs}[R3]$
SW R3,500(R4)	Store word	$\text{Mem}[500+\text{Regs}[R4]] \leftarrow_{32} \text{Regs}[R3]$
S.S F0,40(R3)	Store FP single	$\text{Mem}[40+\text{Regs}[R3]] \leftarrow_{32} \text{Regs}[F0]_{0..31}$
S.D F0,40(R3)	Store FP double	$\text{Mem}[40+\text{Regs}[R3]] \leftarrow_{64} \text{Regs}[F0]$
SH R3,502(R2)	Store half	$\text{Mem}[502+\text{Regs}[R2]] \leftarrow_{16} \text{Regs}[R3]_{48..63}$
SB R2,41(R3)	Store byte	$\text{Mem}[41+\text{Regs}[R3]] \leftarrow_8 \text{Regs}[R2]_{56..63}$

**Figure 2.28** The load and store instructions in MIPS. All use a single addressing mode and require that the memory value be aligned. Of course, both loads and stores are available for all the data types shown.



## Sample ALU Instructions

Example instruction	Instruction name	Meaning
DADDU R1,R2,R3	Add unsigned	$\text{Regs}[R1] \leftarrow \text{Regs}[R2] + \text{Regs}[R3]$
DADDIU R1,R2,#3	Add immediate unsigned	$\text{Regs}[R1] \leftarrow \text{Regs}[R2] + 3$
LUI R1,#42	Load upper immediate	$\text{Regs}[R1] \leftarrow 0^{32} \# \# 42 \# \# 0^{16}$
DSLL R1,R2,#5	Shift left logical	$\text{Regs}[R1] \leftarrow \text{Regs}[R2] \ll 5$
DSLT R1,R2,R3	Set less than	if ( $\text{Regs}[R2] < \text{Regs}[R3]$ ) $\text{Regs}[R1] \leftarrow 1$ else $\text{Regs}[R1] \leftarrow 0$

Figure 2.29 Examples of arithmetic/logical instructions on MIPS, both with and without immediates.



# Control Flow Instructions

Example instruction	Instruction name	Meaning
J name	Jump	$PC_{36..63} \leftarrow \text{name}$
JAL name	Jump and link	$\text{Regs}[R31] \leftarrow PC+4$ ; $PC_{36..63} \leftarrow \text{name}$ ; $((PC+4)-2^{27}) \leq \text{name} < ((PC+4)+2^{27})$
JALR R2	Jump and link register	$\text{Regs}[R31] \leftarrow PC+4$ ; $PC \leftarrow \text{Regs}[R2]$
JR R3	Jump register	$PC \leftarrow \text{Regs}[R3]$
BEQZ R4, name	Branch equal zero	if $(\text{Regs}[R4] == 0)$ $PC \leftarrow \text{name}$ ; $((PC+4)-2^{17}) \leq \text{name} < ((PC+4)+2^{17})$
BNE R3, R4, name	Branch not equal zero	if $(\text{Regs}[R3] \neq \text{Regs}[R4])$ $PC \leftarrow \text{name}$ ; $((PC+4)-2^{17}) \leq \text{name} < ((PC+4)+2^{17})$
MOVZ R1, R2, R3	Conditional move if zero	if $(\text{Regs}[R3] == 0)$ $\text{Regs}[R1] \leftarrow \text{Regs}[R2]$

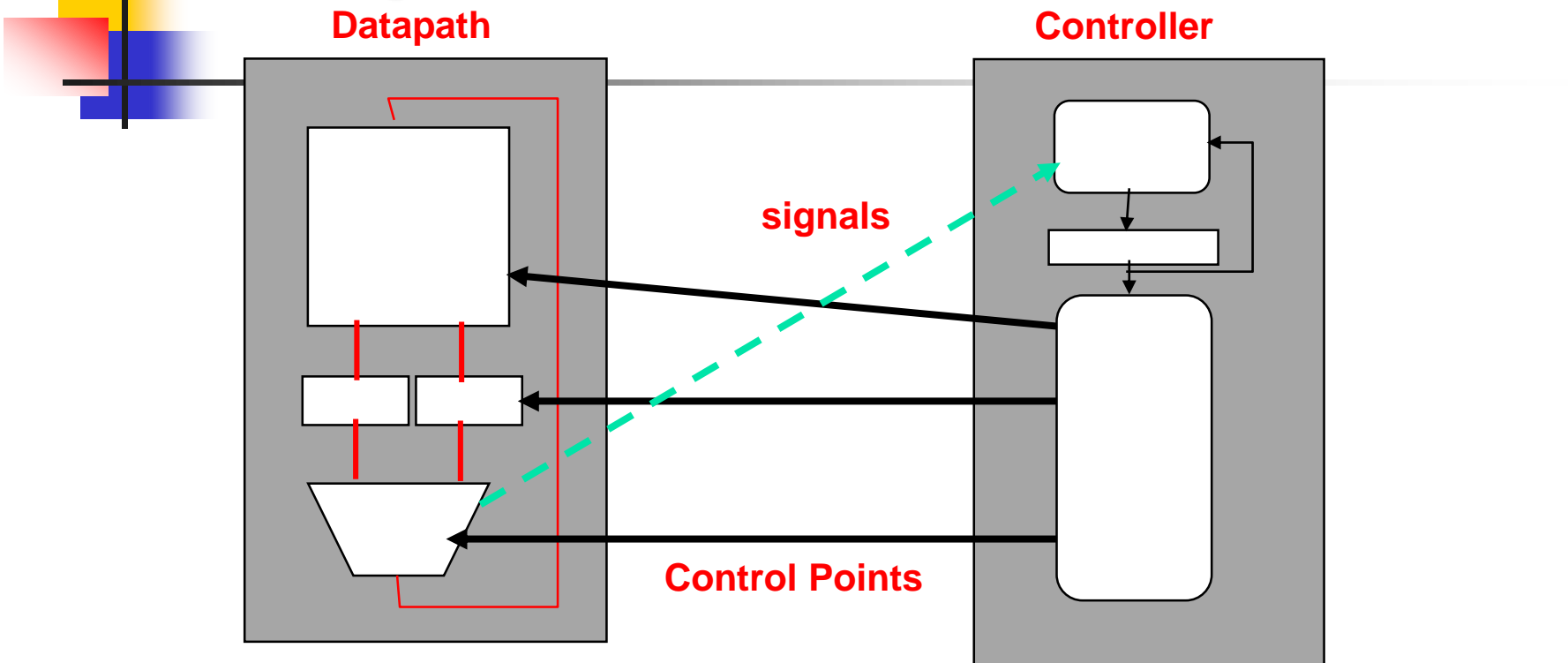
**Figure 2.30** Typical control flow instructions in MIPS. All control instructions, except jumps to an address in a register, are PC-relative. Note that the branch distances are longer than the address field would suggest; since MIPS instructions are all 32 bits long, the byte branch address is multiplied by 4 to get a longer distance.

Instruction type/opcode	Instruction meaning
<i>Data transfers</i>	
LB, LBU, SB	Move data between registers and memory, or between the integer and FP or special registers; only memory address mode is 16-bit displacement + contents of a GPR Load byte, load byte unsigned, store byte (to/from integer registers)
LH, LHU, SH	Load half word, load half word unsigned, store half word (to/from integer registers)
LW, LWU, SW	Load word, load word unsigned, store word (to/from integer registers)
LD, SD	Load double word, store double word (to/from integer registers)
L.S, L.D, S.S, S.D	Load SP float, load DP float, store SP float, store DP float
MFC0, MTC0	Copy from/to GPR to/from a special register
MOV.S, MOV.D	Copy one SP or DP FP register to another FP register
MFC1, MTC1	Copy 32 bits from/to FP registers to/from integer registers
<i>Arithmetic/logical</i>	
DADD, DADDI, DADDU, DADDIU	Operations on integer or logical data in GPRs; signed arithmetic trap on overflow Add, add immediate (all immediates are 16 bits); signed and unsigned
DSUB, DSUBU	Subtract: signed and unsigned
DMUL, DMULU, DDIV, DDIVU, MADD	Multiply and divide, signed and unsigned; multiply-add; all operations take and yield 64-bit values
AND, ANDI	And, and immediate
OR, ORI, XOR, XORI	Or, or immediate, exclusive or, exclusive or immediate
LUI	Load upper immediate; loads bits 32 to 47 of register with immediate, then sign-extends
DSLL, DSRL, DSRA, DSLLV, DSRLV, DSRAV	Shifts: both immediate (DS__) and variable form (DS__V); shifts are shift left logical, right logical, right arithmetic
SLT, SLTI, SLTU, SLTIU	Set less than, set less than immediate; signed and unsigned
<i>Control</i>	
BEQZ, BNEZ	Conditional branches and jumps; PC-relative or through register Branch GPR equal/not equal to zero; 16-bit offset from PC + 4
BEQ, BNE	Branch GPR equal/not equal; 16-bit offset from PC + 4
BC1T, BC1F	Test comparison bit in the FP status register and branch; 16-bit offset from PC + 4
MOVN, MOVZ	Copy GPR to another GPR if third GPR is negative, zero
J, JR	Jumps: 26-bit offset from PC + 4 (J) or target in register (JR)
JAL, JALR	Jump and link: save PC + 4 in R31, target is PC-relative (JAL) or a register (JALR)
TRAP	Transfer to operating system at a vectored address
ERET	Return to user code from an exception; restore user mode
<i>Floating point</i>	
<i>FP operations on DP and SP formats</i>	
ADD.D, ADD.S, ADD.PS	Add DP, SP numbers, and pairs of SP numbers
SUB.D, SUB.S, ADD.PS	Subtract DP, SP numbers, and pairs of SP numbers
MUL.D, MUL.S, MUL.PS	Multiply DP, SP floating point, and pairs of SP numbers
MADD.D, MADD.S, MADD.PS	Multiply-add DP, SP numbers and pairs of SP numbers
DIV.D, DIV.S, DIV.PS	Divide DP, SP floating point, and pairs of SP numbers
CVT. __	Convert instructions: CVT.x.y converts from type x to type y, where x and y are L (64-bit integer), W (32-bit integer), D (DP), or S (SP). Both operands are FPRs.
C.__.D, C.__.S	DP and SP compares: " __ " = LT, GT, LE, GE, EQ, NE; sets bit in FP status register

**Figure 2.31** Subset of the instructions in MIPS64. Figure 2.27 lists the formats of these instructions. SP = single precision; DP = double precision. This list can also be found on the page preceding the back inside cover.



# Datapath vs Control



- **Datapath: Storage, Functional Units, Interconnections sufficient to perform the desired functions**
  - Inputs are Control Points
  - Outputs are signals
- **Controller: State machine to orchestrate operation on the data path**
  - Based on desired function and signals



# Approaching an ISA



## ■ Instruction Set Architecture

- Defines set of operations, instruction format, hardware supported data types, named storage, addressing modes, sequencing

■ Meaning of each instruction is described by RTL (register transfer language) on *architected registers* and memory

## ■ Given technology constraints, assemble adequate datapath

- Architected storage mapped to actual storage
- Function Units (FUs) to do all the required operations
- Possible additional storage (eg. Internal registers: **MAR**, **MDR**, **IR**, ...{**M**emory **A**ddress **R**egister, **M**emory **D**ata **R**egister, **I**nstruction **R**egister})
- Interconnect to move information among registers and function units

## ■ Map each instruction to a sequence of RTL operations

## ■ Collate sequences into symbolic controller state transition diagram (STD)

## ■ Lower symbolic STD to control points

## ■ Implement controller



# Homework

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- **A.1, A.5, A.7**