William Stallings **Computer Organization** and Architecture

Chapter 10 Instruction Sets: Characteristics and Functions

What is an instruction set?

- The complete collection of instructions that are understood by a CPU
- The instruction set is the specification of the expected behaviour of the CPU
- How this behaviour is obtained is a matter of CPU implementation

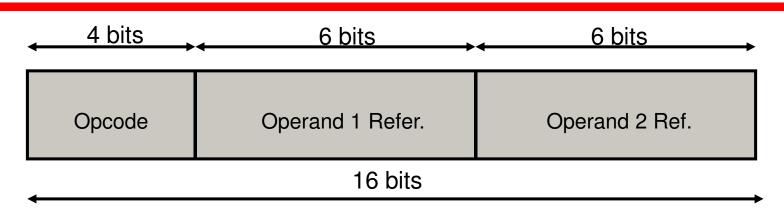
Elements of an Instruction

- Operation code (Opcode)
 - Do this
- Source Operand(s) reference(s)
 - To this (and this ...)
- Result Operand reference
 - Put the answer here
- The Opcode is the only mandatory element

Instruction Types

- Data processing
- Data storage (main memory)
- Data movement (internal transfer and I/O)
- Program flow control

Instruction Representation



- There may be many instruction formats
- For human convenience a symbolic representation is used for both opcodes (MPY) and operand references (RA RB)
 - e.g. 0110 001000 001001 MPY RA RB (symbolic assembly code)

Design Decisions (1)

- Operation repertoire
 - How many opcodes?
 - What can they do?
 - How complex are they?
- Data types
- Instruction formats
 - Length and structure of opcode field
 - Number and length of reference fields

Design Decisions (2)

- Registers
 - Number of CPU registers available
 - Which operations can be performed on which registers?
- Addressing modes (later...)

Types of Operand references

- Main memory
- Virtual memory (usually slower)
- Cache (usually faster)
- I/O device (slower)
- CPU registers (faster)

Number of References/ **Addresses/ Operands**

- 3 references
 - ADD RA RB RC $RA+RB \rightarrow RC$
- 2 references (reuse of operands)
 - ADD RA RB $RA+RB \rightarrow RA$
- 1 reference (some implicit operands)
 - ADD RA

- $Acc+RA \rightarrow Acc$
- 0 references (all operands are implicit)
 - S_ADD

 $Acc+Buf \rightarrow Acc$

How Many References

- More references
 - More complex (powerful?) instructions
 - Fewer instructions per program
 - Slower instruction cycle
- Fewer references
 - Less complex (powerful?) instructions
 - More instructions per program
 - Faster instruction cycle

Example

- Compute (A-B)/(A+(C*D)), assuming each of them is in a read-only register which cannot be modified.
- Additional writable registers X and Y can be used if needed.
- Try to minimize the number of operations
- Incremental constraints on the number of operands allowed for instructions

Example: three operands (1)

- Syntax<operation><destination><source-1><source-2>
- Meaning
 <source-1><operation><source-2> → <destination>
- Remember

```
<source-n> is any of A, B, C, D, X, Y <destination> is any of X, Y
```

Arithmetic instructions
 ADD, SUB, MUL, DIV

Example: three operands (2)

- A solution
 - MUL X C D C*D → X
 - ADD X A X $A+X \rightarrow X$
 - SUB Y A B A-B → Y
 - DIV X Y X $Y/X \rightarrow X$

Example: two operands (1)

- Syntax<operation><destination><source>
- Meaning
 <destination><operation><source> → <destination>
 (the destination is also the first source operand)
- Remember
 <source-n> is any of A, B, C, D, X, Y
 <destination> is any of X, Y
- Arithmetic instructions
 ADD, SUB, MUL, DIV
- One more instruction for moving data
 MOV <destination> <source> (<source> → <destination>)

Example: two operands (2)

A solution (using the new movement instruction)

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$$C \rightarrow X$$

$$X*D \rightarrow X$$

$$X+A \rightarrow X$$

$$A \rightarrow Y$$

$$Y-B \rightarrow Y$$

$$Y/X \rightarrow Y$$

Can we avoid using MOV ?

Example: two operands (3)

 A different solution (a trick avoids using the new movement instruction)

Sl	JB	X	X
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$$X-X \rightarrow X$$
 (set X to zero)

$$X+C \rightarrow X$$
 (move C to X)

$$X*D \rightarrow X$$

$$X+A \rightarrow X$$

$$Y-Y \rightarrow Y$$

$$Y+A \rightarrow Y$$
 (move A to Y)

$$Y/X \rightarrow Y$$

 $Y-B \rightarrow Y$

Example: one operand (1)

- Meaning
 ACCUMUL. <operation> < source> → ACCUMUL.
 (the accumulator is both the destination and the first source operand)
- Remember
 <source> is any of A, B, C, D, X, Y
 The only destination is by default the accumulator!
- Arithmetic instructions ADD, SUB, MUL, DIV
- Two more instructions

```
LOAD <source> (<source> \rightarrow Acc)
STORE <destination> (Acc \rightarrow <destination>)
<destination> is any of X, Y
```

Example: one operand (2)

 A solution (using the new instructions to move data to and from the accumulator)

```
LOAD C C → Acc
```

■ MUL D
$$Acc*D \rightarrow Acc$$

• STORE X
$$Acc \rightarrow X$$

■ DIV X
$$Acc/X \rightarrow Acc$$

Can we avoid using LOAD and STORE?

Example: one operand (3)

A different solution

- requires at the beginning the accumulator stores zero
- uses the accumulator as a source operand
- STORE is needed: no other instruction moves data into a register
- ADD C $Acc+C \rightarrow Acc$ (move C to Accumul.)
- MUL D $Acc*D \rightarrow Acc$
- ADD A $Acc+A \rightarrow Acc$
- STORE X $Acc \rightarrow X$
- SUB Acc Acc Acc Acc Acc (set Acc. to zero)
- ADD A $Acc+A \rightarrow Acc$ (move A to Accumul.)
- SUB B Acc-B → Acc
- DIV X $Acc/X \rightarrow Acc$

Example: zero operands (1)

- Syntax <operation>
- Meaning

(all *arithmetic* operations make reference to the accumulator and a buffer) ACCUMUL. <operation> BUFFER → ACCUMUL.

 Arithmetic instructions ADD, SUB, MUL, DIV

 Three more instructions to move data into/from registers (no STORE!)

```
LOAD <source>(<source> \rightarrow Acc)PUSH <source>(<source> \rightarrow Buf)TOP <destination>(Buf \rightarrow <destination>)
```

Remember

```
<source> is any of A, B, C, D, X, Y, and Acc <destination> is any of X, Y, and Acc
```

Example: zero operands (2)

Here is a solution

•	LOAD C	$C \rightarrow Acc$

• PUSH D
$$D \rightarrow Buf$$

• PUSH A
$$A \rightarrow Buf$$

• PUSH Acc
$$Acc \rightarrow Buf$$

• TOP X Buf
$$\rightarrow$$
 X

• PUSH B
$$B \rightarrow Buf$$

• LOAD A
$$A \rightarrow Acc$$

• PUSH X
$$X \rightarrow Buf$$

Can we avoid using LOAD ?

Example: zero operands (3)

- For a given register R
 - LOAD $\langle R \rangle$ $\langle R \rangle \rightarrow Acc$
- The following two instructions have the same effect
 - PUSH $\langle R \rangle$ $\langle R \rangle \rightarrow Buf$
 - POP Acc Buf → Acc

... unless the buffer contains something not to be lost...

Example: zero operands (4)

This solution uses only PUSH and POP to load values into the Accumulator

PUSH C	$C \to Buf$	(equiv. to LOAD C)
TOP Acc	Buf \rightarrow Acc	(equiv. to LOAD C)
PUSH D	$D \to Buf$	

MUL Acc*Buf → Acc
 PUSH A A → Buf

ADD Acc+Buf → Acc

■ PUSH Acc Acc oup Buf■ TOP X Buf oup X

PUSH A A → Buf (equiv. to LOAD A)
 TOP Acc Buf → Acc (equiv. to LOAD A)
 PUSH B B → Buf note the inversion

SUB Acc-Buf → Acc
 PUSH X X → Buf

DIV Acc/Buf → Acc

Types of Operand

- Addresses
- Numbers
 - Integer/floating point
- Characters
 - ASCII etc.
- Logical Data
 - Bits or flags
- The type of operand is determined by the used instruction

Instruction Types (more detail)

- Arithmetic
- Logical
- Conversion
- Transfer of data (internal)
- I/O
- System Control
- Transfer of Control

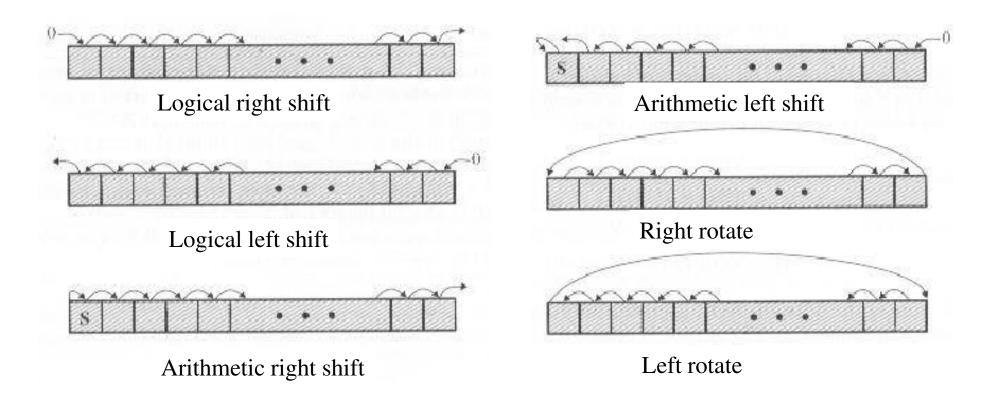
Arithmetic

- Add, Subtract, Multiply, Divide
- Signed Integer
- Floating point ?
- May include
 - Increment (a++)
 - Decrement (a--)
 - Negate (-a)
 - Absolute (|a|)
 - Arithmetic shift (take care of sign bit and overflow!)

Logical

- Bit manipulation operations
 - shift, rotate, ...
- Boolean logic operations (bitwise)
 - AND, OR, NOT, ...
- Test operations
 - To set (indirectly through the ALU) control bits in the Program Status Word

Shift and rotate operations



Conversion

e.g. Binary to Decimal

Transfer of data

- Specify
 - Source and Destination
 - Amount of data
- May be different instructions for different movements
 - e.g. MOVE, STORE, LOAD, PUSH
- Or one instruction and different addresses
 - e.g. MOVE B C, MOVE A M, MOVE M A, MOVE A S

Input/Output

- May be specific instructions
- May be done using data movement instructions (memory mapped)
- May be done by a separate controller (DMA)

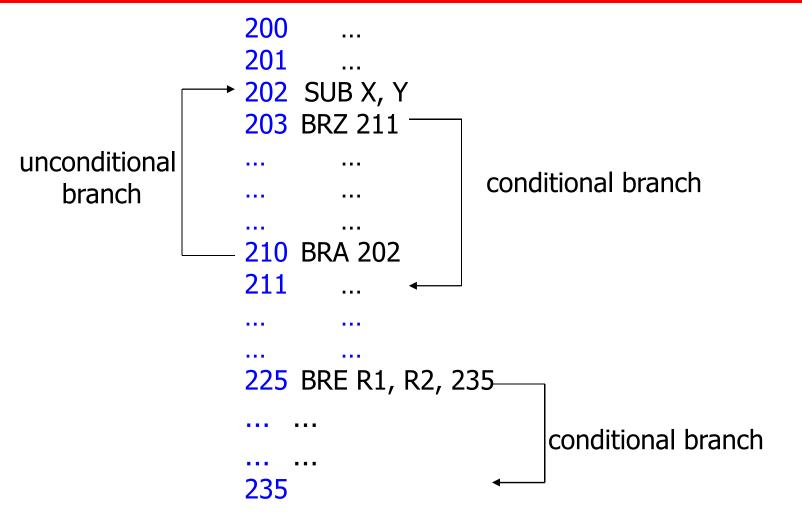
System Control

- For managing the system is convenient to have reserved instruction executable only by some programs with special privileges (e.g., to halt a running program)
- These privileged instructions may be executed only if CPU is in a specific state (or mode)
- Kernel or supervisor or protected mode
- Privileged programs are part of the operating system and run in protected mode

Transfer of Control (1)

- Needed to
 - Take decisions (branch)
 - Execute repetitive operations (loop)
 - Structure programs (subroutines)
- Branch (examples)
 - BRA X: branch (i.e., go) to X (unconditional jump)
 - BRZ X: branch to X if accumulator value is 0
 - BRE R1, R2, X: branch to X if (R1)=(R2)

An example



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Transfer of control (2)

- Skip (example)
 - Increment register R and skip next instruction if result is 0

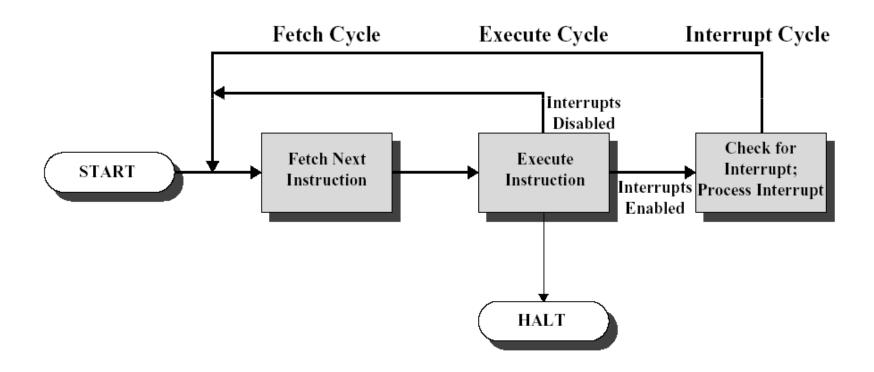
```
X: ...
ISZ R
BRA X (loop)
... (exit)
```

- Interrupts (the basic form of control transfer)
- Subroutine call (a kind of interrupt serving)

Interrupts

- Mechanism by which other modules (e.g. I/O) may interrupt normal sequence of processing
- Program error
 - e.g. overflow, division by zero
- Time scheduling
 - Generated by internal processor timer
 - Used to execute operations at regular intervals
- I/O operations (usually much slower)
 - from I/O controller (end operation, error, ...)
- Hardware failure
 - e.g. memory parity error, power failure, ...

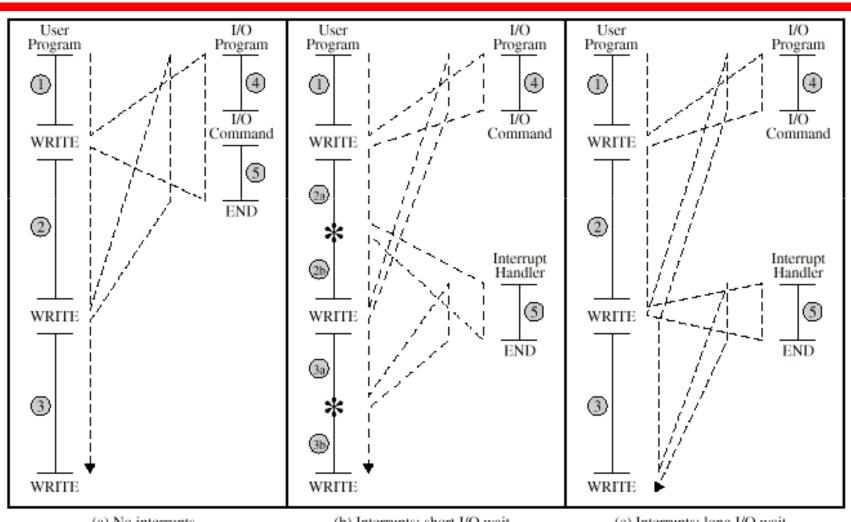
Instruction Cycle with Interrupt



Interrupt Cycle

- Added to instruction cycle
- Processor checks for interrupt
 - Indicated by an interrupt signal
- If no interrupt, fetch next instruction
- If interrupt pending:
 - Suspend execution of current program
 - Save context
 - Set PC to start address of interrupt handler routine
 - Process interrupt
 - Restore context and continue interrupted program

Program Flow Control

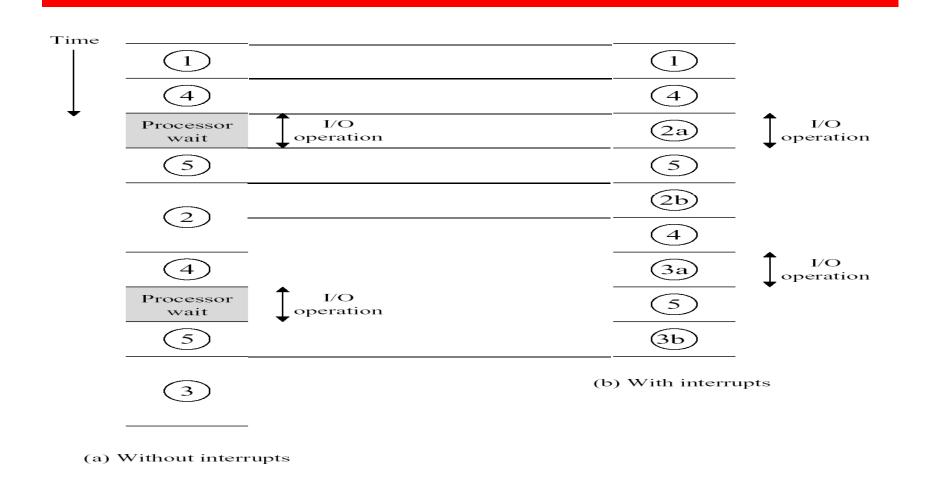


(a) No interrupts

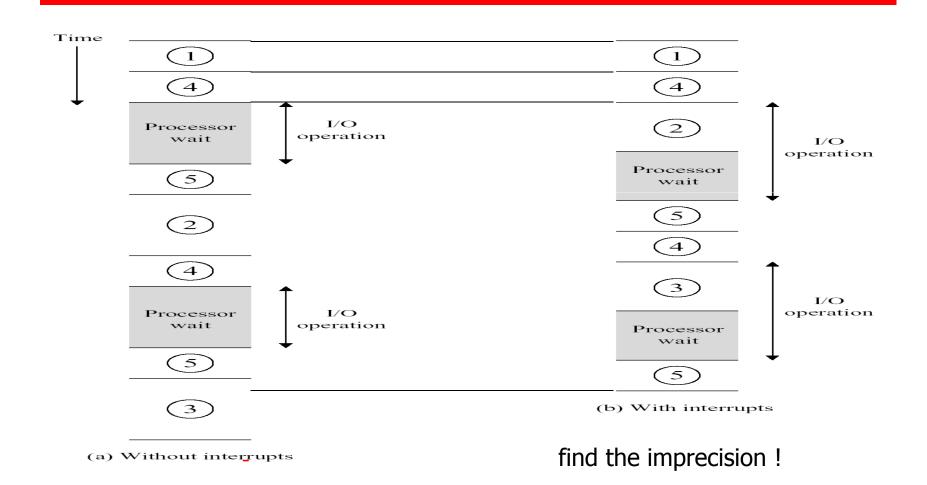
(b) Interrupts; short I/O wait

(c) Interrupts; long I/O wait

Temporal view of control flow (short I/O wait)



Temporal view of control flow (long I/O wait)

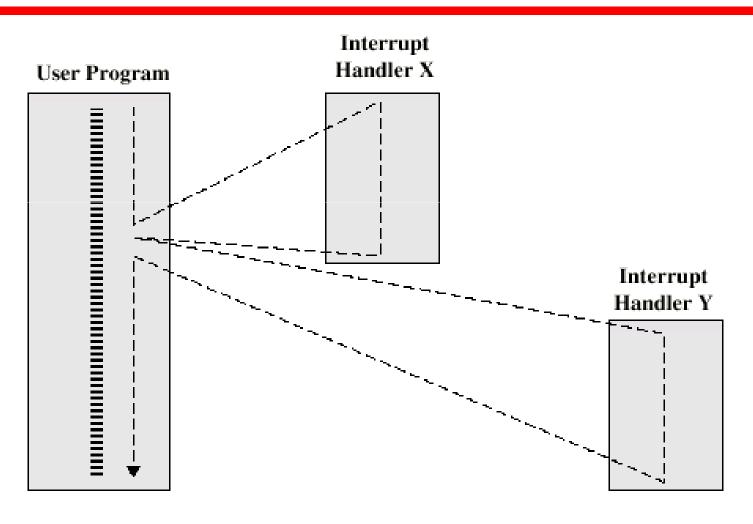


Multiple Interrupts

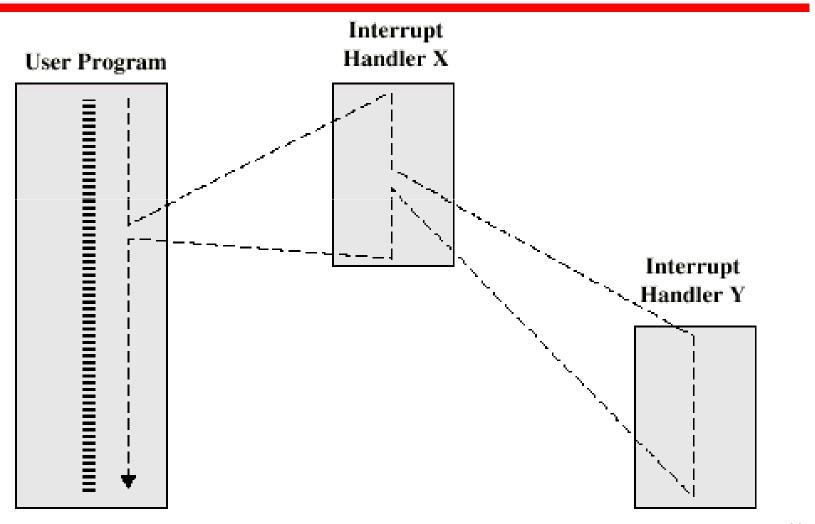
- 1st solution: Disable interrupts
 - Processor will ignore further interrupts whilst processing one interrupt
 - Interrupts remain pending and are checked after first interrupt has been processed
 - Interrupts handled in sequence as they occur
- 2nd solution: Define priorities
 - Low priority interrupts can be interrupted by higher priority interrupts
 - When higher priority interrupt has been processed, processor returns to previous interrupt

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Multiple Interrupts - Sequential



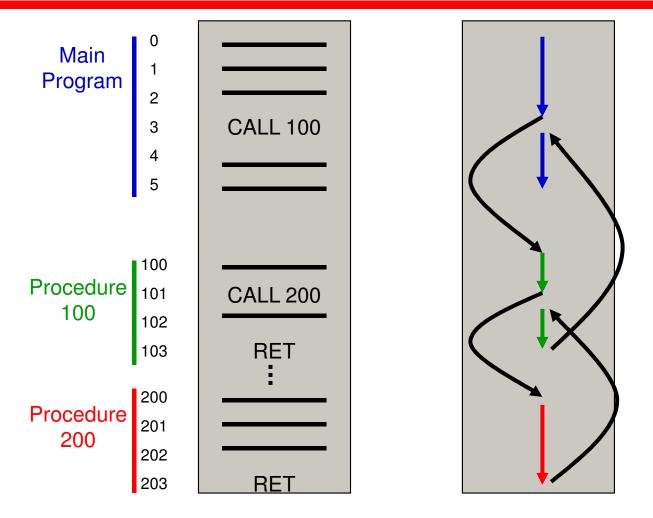
Multiple Interrupts - Nested



Subroutine (or procedure) call

- Why?
 - economy
 - modularity

Subroutine (or procedure) call



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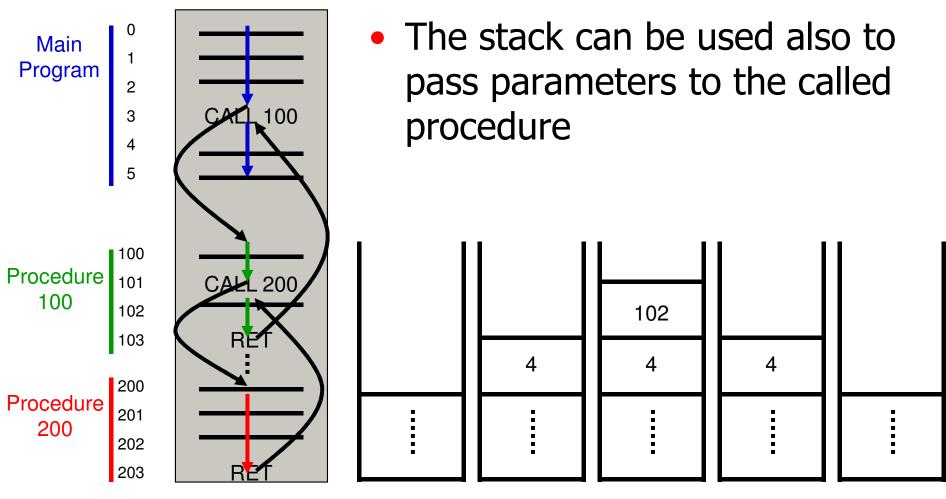
Alternative for storing the return address from a subroutine

- In a pre-specified register
 - Limit the number of nested calls since for each successive call a different register is needed
- In the first memory cell of the memory zone storing the called procedure
 - Does not allow recursive calls
- At the top of the stack (more flexible)

Return using the stack (1)

- Use a reserved zone of memory managed with a stack approach (last-in, first-out)
 - In a stack of dirty dishes the last to become dirty is the first to be cleaned
- Each time a subroutine is called, before starting it the return address is put on top of the stack
- Even in the case of multiple calls or recursive calls all return addresses keep their correct order

Return using the stack (2)



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Passing parameters to a procedure

- In general, parameters to a procedure might be passed
 - Using registers
 - Limit the number of parameters that can be passed, due to the limited number of registers in the CPU
 - Limit the number of nested calls, since each successive calls has to use a different set of registers
 - Using pre-defined zone of memory
 - Does not allow recursive calls
 - Through the stack (more flexible)

Byte Order

- What order do we read numbers that occupy more than one cell (byte)
- 12.345.678 can be stored in 4 locations of 8 bits each as it follows

Address	Value (1)	Value(2)
184	12	78
185	34	56
186	56	34
187	78	12

i.e. read top down or bottom up ?

Byte Order Names

- The problem is called Endian
- The reference point is the INITIAL address of bytes
- The system on the left has the MOST significant byte in the INITIAL address
- This is called big-endian
- The system on the left has the LEAST significant byte in the INITIAL address
- This is called *little-endian*

Standard...What Standard?

- Pentium (80x86), VAX are little-endian
- IBM 370, Motorola 680x0 (Mac), and most RISC are big-endian
- Internet is big-endian
 - Makes writing Internet programs on PC more awkward!
 - WinSock provides htoi and itoh (Host to Internet & Internet to Host) functions to convert