# **Evolution of ISAs**

Instruction set architectures have changed over computer generations with changes in the

- cost of the hardware
- density of the hardware
- design philosophy
- potential performance gains

## One way to characterize ISAs:

- number of addresses/instruction
- regularity of instruction formats
- number of addressing modes

# **Number & Type of Operands/Instruction**

# One address & an implied accumulator register

- hardware was expensive
- accumulator architecture: EDSAC (1949)

```
load AddressB # accum = Memory[AddressB]
add AddressC # accum = accum + Memory[AddressC]
store AddressA # Memory[AddressA] = accum
```

### One address & a few special purpose registers

- extended accumulator (special-purpose register) architecture:
   Intel 8086
  - registers for:
    - data
    - addresses
    - segment pointers
    - special, e.g., PC

# Number & Type of Operands/Instruction

### **General-purpose registers**

- register-memory architectures
  - one operand is in memory: IBM 360 (1964) addreg10, AddressA
- memory-memory architectures
  - all operands can be in memory: VAX 780 (1977) add AddressA, AddressB, AddressC
- load-store architectures
  - CDC 6600 (1963), Cray 1
  - current RISCs (1982 and on)

### One address & no registers

- stack architectures: Burroughs 5000, Intel 8087
  - use the top of the stack for other, implied operands

# **Regularity of Instruction Formats**

Started with 1 format (!)

• for ease of programming (programming on the binary level!)

Then 3 or 4 formats, not necessarily the same length

assembly language & compilers made programming easier

More formats & encoding of variable length instructions

- small, low density, expensive memory
- CPU-to-memory bottleneck
- ISAs reflected high-level language operations

Back to fixed length instructions, few formats

- memory is large & cheap
- simple encoding facilitates faster hardware interpretation of instructions

# **CISC Instruction Formats**

#### Lots of instruction formats

- IBM 360: 5
- Intel x86: lots, in part due to lots of addressing modes
- Digital VAX: also lots
- orthogonal design: all opcodes can be used with any addressing mode & any information unit

### Instructions have varying lengths

- IBM 360: instructions can be 2,4 or 6 bytes
- Intel x86:, 1 to 17 bytes
- Digital VAX: 1 to 54 bytes

# **IBM 360 Formats**

RR format: [ opcode ][R1][R2] r1 <- r1 op r2

RX format: [opcode ][R1][X2][B2][displ] r1 <- r1 op mem[x2+b2+displ]

RS format: [opcode ][r1][r3][b2][displ] mem[b2+displ] <- r1 op r3

SI format: [opcode][value][b2][displ]
mem[b2+displ] <- mem[b2+displ] op value

SS format: [opcode][count][r1][addr][r2][addr2]
mem[addr2+r2+i] <- mem[addr1+r1+i], 0 <=i<count

# **Addressing Modes**

Start with immediate, direct, indirect (or deferred) indirect: register contains the address of the operand

Then index registers special registers for an array index

Then index + base allow the sum of 2 registers to be an address

Even more....

# **VAX Addressing Modes**

#### **Immediate**

different addressing modes for constants of different sizes different addressing modes for data and address constants

Register: reg

the register contains the operand

Register deferred: (reg)

the register contains the address of the operand

Autoincrement: (reg)+

the register contains the address of the operand & is incremented by the size of the operand *after* it's accessed

Autodecrement: -(reg)

the address in the register is decremented before the access

Autoincrement deferred: @(reg)+

address in the register is a *pointer* to the address of the operand & is incremented by the size of the operand

#### PC-relative:

both regular & deferred

# **VAX Addressing Modes**

Displacement: displ(reg)

separate addressing modes for each information unit which is stored only in the number of bits needed & then sign extended both regular & deferred

#### Indexed:

used in conjunction with other addressing modes the contents of the **index** register is multiplied by the size of the operand in bytes & added to the contents of the other register

- register deferred indexed: (reg)[IndexReg]
- autoincrement indexed: (reg)+[IndexReg]
- autodecrement indexed: -(reg)[IndexReg]
- autoincrement deferred indexed: @(reg)+[IndexReg]
- displacement indexed: displ(reg)[IndexReg]
- displacement deferred indexed: {@displ(reg)}[IndexReg]

add the displacement & the contents of reg to form a pointer to the base address (the address where the base address is stored); the base address is fetched & added to the adjusted index in IndexReg to form the operand address; the operand is then fetched

## Intel x86

85% of the microprocessors in the world (not counting embedded processors)

Only 8 GPRs (other registers are special purpose)

Register-memory architecture

- 2 operand instructions; 1 is both source & destination
- Addressing relies on segments (code, stack & static data)

String instructions in addition to computation, data transfer, control

Condition codes instead of condition registers

No regularity in the ISA

- ISA for 8 bits & an extended ones for 16, 32 & 64 bits
- Lots of addressing modes (but fewer than the VAX)
  - some can't use certain registers
- Variable length instructions, variable length opcodes (later)
  - addresses in bytes, not instructions
- Encoding is complicated (see Figure 3.35)

#### **RISC**

### general philosophy:

simple instructions execute faster than complex instructions

- less to do
- fewer choices; therefore it takes less time to decide what is being executed now (smaller circuitry)
- **simplicity leads to regularity** in the hardware design easier to get the hardware right & to debug it
  - use simple instructions as building blocks for more complex operations
  - short cycle time & single-cycle instructions; therefore more instructions executed per time unit
  - few instructions, simple instructions
  - few addressing modes
  - fixed-length instructions (32 bits)
  - few instruction formats: (almost) fixed fields within an instruction
  - load/store architecture
  - hardwired control
  - conducive to **pipelining** because each instruction takes about the same amount of time to execute (*later*)
  - expose the implementation to the compiler/programmer

#### CISC

### general philosophy:

get faster execution by having a better match between the high-level operations & the hardware operations direct execution of one instruction in hardware is faster

direct execution of one instruction in hardware is faster than many instructions in software

tight encoding & fewer instructions => fewer bytes brought in from memory

#### developed when:

- memory was expensive
- caching was not so widespread
- large number of instructions examples:
  - sobgtr for loop indexing
  - search for a substring
  - evaluate a polynomial
- many addressing modes
- variable-length instructions

#### CISC, cont'd.

- lots of instruction formats; use the same fields for different purposes
- memory-to-memory architecture
- microprogrammed control
- difficult to pipeline because instructions take vastly different amount of time to execute (later)
- implementation hidden from the compiler/programmer; separation of architecture & implementation

### Why the change to RISC?

- performance studies showed that:
  - few instructions were used most of the time (VAX study: 15/90%. 26/95%)
  - very complex instructions were never generated
- increase in technology density
  - instruction caches for loops
- advances in compiler technology that enabled code to be scheduled to hide operation latencies in a pipeline (later)

#### **Bottom line:**

• fast instruction execution, pipelining, compiler support for pipelining, onchip caches, more general-purpose registers

### more important than

- encoded instructions & functionality in hardware
- result: lots of fast instructions executed more quickly than slower, fewer instructions

### A comparison is difficult today

- Pentium Pro hardware translates instructions into **uops** (very RISC-like micro operations) & pipelines uop execution
- improvements in implementation that are somewhat architecture-independent
  - superscalar execution (wide issue width)
  - speculative execution
  - out-of-order execution & register renaming
  - branch prediction with 96% accuracy
  - huge on-chip caches
  - multithreading
- majority of microprocessor market \$\$\$ more engineers on microprocessor design teams & better fabrication lines

# MIPS is Not the Only RISC

RISC architectures began (again) in the 1980's in reaction to more complex CISCs

- Cray & CDC 6600 were early load-store architectures
- research at IBM on the IBM 801 (the first RISC processor) became the RT/PC RS6000 PowerPC
- research at Stanford on the MIPS led to MIPS Rxxx
- research at Berkeley on the RISC I & II led to Sun SPARC processors
- HP Precision
- DEC Alphas (the fastest cycle time today)