

Processor Design Basics: Instruction Set Architecture

Overview

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Block Diagram of a Generic Processor



- We can divide the design of a processor into three parts:
 - An Instruction Set is the programmer's interface to the processor.
 - The Datapath does all of the actual data processing.
 - A Control unit uses the programmer's instructions to tell the datapath what to do.

But first, Where Do The Program and Data Go?

Von Neumann vs. Harvard Architecture

Von Neumann Architecture

• A *single main memory* that holds both program instructions and data.



Harvard Architecture

- It includes two memory units: instruction and data memory.
 - The instruction memory holds the program instructions.
 - The separate data memory is used for computations.
- The advantage is that we can read an instruction (from the instruction memory) and load or store data (from/to the data memory) in the same clock cycle.



Further, we will consider a processor with Harvard architecture.

Example of a Simple 8-bit Processor



- The processor has a Harvard Architecture, i.e., separate Instruction and Data memory.
- This is an 8-bit processor because all operations performed by the Arithmetic and Logic Unit (ALU) are on 8-bit operands.
- The operands are stored in the Register File that consists of four 8-bit general purpose registers (R0 to R3).

Example of a Simple 8-bit Processor (cont.)



- The register file is very small but very fast temporary storage needed by the ALU for operands and intermediate results.
- A larger but slower storage is the Data Memory. The processor can move data from the register file to the data memory and back.
- When operations like "addition", "subtraction", etc. are performed by the ALU the following may happen:
 - Carry or Overflow situation may occur.
 - The result may be Zero or Negative.
- Thus, the ALU generates status bits stored in the Status Register (SR) to indicate if carry, overflow, zero, or negative situation has occurred.
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Example of a Simple 8-bit Processor (cont.)



- The Control Unit fetches instructions from the Instruction Memory to determine what operation needs to be executed.
- A register called Program Counter keeps the address of the instruction to be executed.
- After an instruction is fetched from the Instruction Memory it is decoded by the Instruction Decoder and control signals are sent to instruct the Datapath what operation to perform.
- Next, the Program Counter is loaded with the address of the next instruction to be executed.

Example of a Simple 8-bit Processor (cont.)



- There are two possibilities to load the PC:
 - Simply the PC is incremented, i.e., PC = PC + 1 (Hence the name "Program Counter").
 - The PC is loaded with a number taken from the instruction or some of the registers in the register file. In this case we say that the processor makes a branch/jump in the program.
- The Branch Control unit determines whether the PC should be incremented or loaded to make a branch/jump.
 - The decision depends on the current instruction (whether it is a branch/jump instruction) and the value of the status bits.
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Some Basic Terminology

- The first step in a processor design is to specify the operations that the processor should perform, i.e.,
 - to specify the instruction set of the processor.
- An instruction is a collection of bits that instructs the processor to perform a specific operation.
- An instruction set is the collection of all instructions for a processor.
- A program is a list of instructions that specifies
 - the operations to be performed by the processor
 - their sequence

 A thorough description of the instruction set for a processor is called instruction set architecture (ISA).
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Instruction Set Architecture (ISA)

- Any instruction set architecture has the following three major components
- Programming Model:
 - This is the processor structure as viewed by a user programming the processor in a language that directly specifies the instructions to be executed.
 - Such language is called assembly language (more details later!)

Instruction Specifications:

 They describe each of the distinct instructions that can be executed by a processor.

Instruction Formats:

 They determine the meaning of the bits used to encode each instruction.

Programming Model for our Processor



Program Counter

Status Register

Register File with 4 general purpose registers called accumulators.

- It gives the resources of our processor that the user sees available for storing information.
 - The model has two memories,
 - one for storage of instructions (with size 32K 16-bit words)
 - one for storage of data (with size 32KB).
 - A register file with four 8-bit Registers (R0 to R3)
- Also, visible to the programmer are
 - the 16-bit Program Counter (PC)
 - the Status Register (SR) of our processor.

Instruction Specifications for our Processor

Instruction Type	Operation	Mnemonic	Operation	Status Bits	Description
	•	LDR Rj, Ri	Rj ← Ri	Z, N	
		INC Rj, Ri	Rj ← Ri + 1	Z, N	
		DEC Rj, Ri	Rj ← Ri - 1	Z, N	
Data Manipulation Instructions		ADD Rj, Ri	Rj ← Rj + Ri	C, V, Z, N	
	Register-format	ADDC Rj, Ri	Rj ← Rj + Ri + C	C, V, Z, N	
	Arithmetic &	SUB Rj, Ri	Rj ← Rj + Ri' + 1	C, V, Z, N	
	Logic	AND Rj, Ri	Rj ← Rj ∧ Ri	Z, N	
	Operations	OR Rj, Ri	Rj ← Rj ∨ Ri	Z, N	
		XOR Rj,Ri	Rj ← Rj ⊕ Ri	Z, N	
		NOT Rj, Ri	Rj ← Ri'	Z, N	
	Register-format	SHL Rj, Ri	Rj ← Ri << 1	NO effect	
	Shift Operations	SHR Rj, Ri	Rj ← Ri >> 1	NO effect	
	Memory write (from registers)	ST (Rj), Ri	Mem[R0 Rj] ← Ri	NO effect	
Data Movement Instructions	Memory read (to registers)	LD Rj, (Ri)	Rj ← Mem[R0 Ri]	NO effect	
	Immediate	LDI Rj, #const8	Rj ← const8	NO effect	
	transfer operations	STI (Rj), #const8	Mem[R0 Rj] ← const8	NO effect	
	Branches	BZ #offset11	PC ← PC + offset11	NO effect	
		BNZ #offset11	PC ← PC + offset11	NO effect	
		BC #offset11	PC ← PC + offset11	NO effect	
		BNC #offset11	PC ← PC + offset11	NO effect	
Control Flow		BV #offset11	PC ← PC + offset11	NO effect	
Instructions		BNV #offset11	PC ← PC + offset11	NO effect	
		BN #offset11	PC ← PC + offset11	NO effect	
		BNN #offset11	PC ← PC + offset11	NO effect	
	Jump	JMP Rj, Ri	PC ← Rj Ri	NO effect	

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Data Manipulation Instructions

- Data manipulation instructions correspond to Arithmetic, Logic, and Shift operations.
- Consider instruction **ADDC** of our processor:
 - It corresponds to <u>arithmetic</u> operation "addition with carry-in".
 - It has <u>two</u> operands.
 - It modifies the Carry, oVerflow, Zero, and Negative bits in the processor's Status Register.



Register transfer notation:

- Consider instruction XOR of our processor:
 - It corresponds to <u>logic</u> operation "bitwise XOR".
 - It has <u>two</u> operands.
 - It modifies bits Z and N in the Status Register.





Data Manipulation Instructions (cont.)

- Consider instruction **NOT** of our processor:
 - It corresponds to <u>logic</u> operation "complement".
 - It has <u>one</u> operand.
 - It modifies bits Z and N in the Status Register.



Register transfer notation:

Rj ← Ri′

- Consider instruction **SHL** of our processor:
 - It corresponds to <u>shift</u> operation "shift-left with one bit and fill with 0".
 - It has <u>one</u> operand.
 - It does NOT modify bits in the Status Register.



Register transfer notation:

Rj ← Ri << 1

Data Movement Instructions

- Data movement instructions correspond to transfer operations of data between the Data Memory and the Register File. Also, operations that load/store a constant in a register/memory cell are considered here.
- Consider instruction ST of our processor:
 - It copies (stores) data from a register to a memory cell.
 - It does **NOT** modify bits in the Status Register.



Data Movement Instructions (cont.)

- Consider instruction STI of our processor:
 - It stores an 8-bit constant to a memory cell.
 - It does NOT modify bits in the Status Register.



- Consider instruction LDI of our processor:
 - It loads a register with an 8-bit constant.
 - It does NOT modify bits in the Status Register.



Addressing Modes

- We have seen several instructions containing the # or () symbols.
- The # and () are important!
- These symbols are ways of specifying different addressing modes.
- For our simple processor we use three addressing modes: direct mode, index mode () and immediate mode #.
 - <u>Direct mode</u> when we address a register (no specific symbol is used!)

LDR R3, R1	// R3 ← R1
SUB R2, R0	// R2 \leftarrow R2 + R0' + 1

 <u>Index mode</u> - when we address a memory cell by using the content of registers as address. Here we use the symbol ()!

ST (R3), R1	// Mem[R0 R3] \leftarrow R1
LD R3 , (R1)	// R3 \leftarrow Mem[R0 R1]

Immediate mode - when we refer to a constant we use the symbol # !

LDI R2 , #35 // R2 \leftarrow 35 STI (R3) , #10 // Mem[R0|R3] \leftarrow 10

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Control Flow Instructions

- Programs consist of a sequence of instructions, which are meant to be executed one after another.
- Thus, programs are stored in the program memory so that:
 - Each program instruction occupies one memory cell.
 - Instructions are stored one after another.

• • •			
Addr	0x0010:	LDI R0, #0x25	// R0 \leftarrow 0x25
Addr	0x0011:	LDI R1, #0xfc	// R1 \leftarrow 0xfc
Addr	0x0012:	LD R3, (R1)	// R3 \leftarrow Mem[0x25fc]
Addr	0x0013:	INC R3, R3	// R3 ← R3 + 1
Addr	0x0014:	ST (R1),R3	// Mem[0x25fc] \leftarrow R3

- A Program Counter (PC) keeps track of the current instruction address.
 - Ordinarily, the PC just increments after executing each instruction.
 - But sometimes we need to change this normal sequential behavior, with special control flow instructions.
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Control Flow Instructions (cont.)

- Control Flow Instructions change the value stored in the Program Counter.
- Thus, the programmer can use them when it is necessary to change the sequence of executions of instructions in the program.
- The change of the instruction sequence can be unconditional or conditional.
- An unconditional change is accomplished by using <u>Jump</u> instructions.
- A conditional change is accomplished by using <u>Branch</u> instructions.

Jump Instructions

- A jump instruction <u>always</u> changes the value of the PC.
 - The operand specifies exactly how to change the PC.
- For example, a program can skip certain instructions.

```
0x0010:LDI R1, \#0x00// R1 \leftarrow 0x000x0011:LDI R2, \#0x15// R2 \leftarrow 0x150x0012:JMP R1, R2// PC \leftarrow 0x0015 (go to address 0x0015)0x0013:LDI R1, \#0x20// These two instructions0x0014:LDI R2, \#0x04// would be skipped0x0015:SUB R3, R0// R3 \leftarrow R3 + R0' + 10x0016:ADD R3, R3// R3 \leftarrow R3 + R3
```

You can also use jumps to repeat instructions.

0x0010:	LDI R1,	#0x00	// R1 \leftarrow 0x00	
0x0011:	LDI R2,	#0x12	// R2 \leftarrow 0x12	
0x0012:	ADD R0,	R3	// R0 ← R0 + R3	
0x0013:	JMP R1,	R2	// PC \leftarrow 0x0012 (go to address 0x0012)	

Branch Instructions

- A branch instruction <u>may</u> change the PC, depending on whether a given condition is true.
- Branch conditions are often based on the result of Arithmetic and Logic operations.
- This is what the Status Register bits C, V, Z and N are used for. With them we can implement various branch instructions like the ones below for our simple processor.

Instruction Mnemonic	Condition	Status bit
BV	Branch on overflow	V = 1
BNV	Branch on no overflow	V = 0
BC	Branch if carry set	C = 1
BNC	Branch if carry clear	C = 0
BN	Branch if negative	N = 1
BNN	Branch if positive	N = 0
BZ	Branch if zero	Z = 1
BNZ	Branch if non-zero	Z = 0

 Other branch conditions (e.g., branch if greater, equal or less) can be derived from these, along with the right Arithmetic/Logic operation.

Branch Instructions Example

- Let us write the program on the right for our simple processor.
- Below, you see that we need many instructions for this simple program but that is how processors work.

if Mem[0x5a38] ≥ *R*2 *then Mem*[0x5a38] = *Mem*[0x5a38] + 1; *else Mem*[0x5a38] = *R*2 + 1;

end if;

• • •			
0x0010:	LDI	R0, #0x5a	// R0 \leftarrow 0x5a
0x0011:	LDI	R1, #0x38	// R1 \leftarrow 0x38
0x0012:	LD	R3, (R1)	// R3 \leftarrow Mem[0x5a38]
0x0013:	SUB	R3, R2	// R3 \leftarrow R3 + R2' + 1
0x0014 :	BNC	#0x005	// if Carry = 0 then PC \leftarrow PC + 0x005
			(go to address <mark>0x0019</mark>).
0x0015:	INC	R3, R3	// R3 \leftarrow R3 + 1
0x0016:	ST	(R1),R3	// Mem[0x5a38] \leftarrow R3
0x0017:	SUB	R3, R3	<pre>// This two lines are equal to a jump</pre>
0x0018:	BZ	#0x003	// instruction because always PC \leftarrow PC + 0x003
			(always go to address 0x001B).
0x0019:	INC	R2, R2	$// R2 \leftarrow R2 + 1$
0x001A:	ST	(R1),R2	// Mem[0x5a38] \leftarrow R2
0x001B:	• • •		

Instruction Formats

- So far, we have discussed two major components of an Instruction Set Architecture, namely <u>Programming Model</u> and <u>Instruction Specifications</u>.
- The last major component we have to discuss here is the <u>Instruction Formats</u>.
- Recall, an instruction is a collection of bits that instructs the processor to perform a specific operation.
- Thus, each instruction has to be encoded uniquely using bits (we will discuss this in another lecture!).
- The bits encoding an instruction have a meaning given by the <u>Instruction Formats</u>.

Instruction Formats for our Processor

- We have 3 instruction formats because the instructions of our processor can be divided into 3 groups:
 - Instructions that require two registers (Rj and Ri) from the register file to be specified. See Format1 below.
 - Instructions that require one register (Rj) from the register file and one 8-bit constant (*const*) to be specified. See Format2 below.
 - Instructions that require one 11-bit constant (offset) to be specified. See Format3 below.
- Format1: for Arithmetic&Logic, Shift, Memory, and Jump instructions:

15	11 10	98					2	1 0
Opcode	Source a Destinat	nd/or on (Rj) X X	Х	Х	Х	Х	X	Source(Ri)

• **Format2:** for Immediate Transfer instructions:

<u>15</u>	11 10	98	7	0
Opcode	Destir	nation (Rj) χ		Immediate Operand (const8)

Format3: for Branch instructions:

15 11		1 10				
	Opcode	Immediate Operand (offset11)				
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Recall the Instruction Specifications ...

Instruction Type	Operation	Mnemonic	Operation	Status Bits	Description
	-	LDR Rj, Ri	Rj ← Ri	Z, N	-
		INC Rj, Ri	Rj ← Ri + 1	Z, N	
		DEC Rj, Ri	Rj ← Ri - 1	Z, N	
		ADD Rj, Ri	Rj ← Rj + Ri	C, V, Z, N	
Data Manipulation	Register-format	ADDC Rj, Ri	Rj ← Rj + Ri + C	C, V, Z, N	
Instructions	Arithmetic &	SUB Rj, Ri	Rj ← Rj + Ri' + 1	C, V, Z, N	
	Logic	AND Rj, Ri	Rj ← Rj ∧ Ri	Z, N	
	Operations	OR Rj, Ri	Rj ← Rj ∨ Ri	Z, N	
		XOR Rj,Ri	Rj ← Rj ⊕ Ri	Z, N	
		NOT Rj, Ri	Rj ← Ri'	Z, N	
	Register-format	SHL Rj, Ri	Rj	NO effect	
	Shift Operations	SHR Rj, Ri	Rj ← Ri >> 1	NO effect	
	Memory write (from registers)	ST (Rj), Ri	Mem[R0 Rj] ← Ri	NO effect	
Data Movement	Memory read	LD Rj, (Ri)	Rj ← Mem[R0 Ri]	NO effect	
Instructions	(to registers)				
	Immediate	LDI Rj, #const8	Rj ← const8	NO effect	
	transfer operations	STI (Rj), #const8	Mem[R0 Ri] ← const8	NO effect	
	Branches	BZ #offset11	PC ← PC + offset11	NO effect	
		BNZ #offset11	PC ← PC + offset11	NO effect	
		BC #offset11	PC ← PC + offset11	NO effect	
		BNC #offset11	PC ← PC + offset11	NO effect	
Instructions		BV #offset11	$PC \leftarrow PC + offset11$	NO effect	
		BNV #offset11	$PC \leftarrow PC + ottset11$	NO effect	
		BIN #OTTSET11	$PC \leftarrow PC + offset11$	NU effect	
	-	BININ #OTTSet11		NU effect	
	Jump	JMP Rj, Ri	I PC ← Ri Ri	NO effect	

Instruction Formats for our Processor (cont.)

- Each instruction format contains 16 bits because our program memory is 16-bit wide and each program memory cell stores one instruction.
- The 5-bit Opcode (bits 15 to 11) encodes the operation performed by each instruction:
 - We have 25 instructions, i.e., 25 distinct operations, therefore we need at least 5-bit Opcode in order to have a unique code for each operation.
- The rest of the bits (10 to 0) specify registers and/or immediate operand.
 - Each Opcode determines the exact meaning of the rest of the bits in the instruction.
 - Thus, the processor first "looks" at the Opcode to identify the instruction format and the operation to be performed.

15		11	10	9	8						2	1	0
	Opcode		Source a Destinati	and/or on (Rj)	X	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Source	(Ri)
15		11	10	9	8	7							0
	Opcode		Destinati	ion (Rj)	X		In	nmed	diate	Ope	rand	d (consi	t8)

15		11 10		0
	Opcode		Immediate Operand (offset11)	

Format1: for Arithmetic & Logic, Shift, Memory, and Jump Instructions



Format2: for Immediate Transfer Instructions



<u>NOTE:</u> We have to use only 8-bit constants because the 4 registers (R0 to R3) in our processor's register file and the data memory are 8-bit wide, i.e., they can store only 8-bit values.

Format3: for Branch Instructions



How to Program our Processor

- Programs written in a high-level languages like C/C++ must be compiled to produce an executable program.
- The result is a processor-specific machine language program.
 - This can be loaded into the program memory and executed by the processor.
- The machine language serves as an interface between hardware and software.
- In this course we focus on stuff below the dotted blue line.
- Therefore, we will not build a compiler for our processor.
- So, we will use directly the machine language (instruction set) of our processor to program it.



High-level Languages

- High-level languages like C/C++, Java, Basic, Pascal, Fortran, Modula-2, Ada provide many useful programming constructs.
 - For, while, and do loops
 - If-then-else statements
 - Functions and procedures for code abstraction
 - Variables and arrays for storage
- Many languages provide safety features as well.
 - Static and dynamic type checking
 - Garbage collection
- High-level languages are also relatively portable.
 - Theoretically, you can write one program and compile it on many different processors.
- It may be hard to understand what is so "high-level" here, until you compare these languages with...

Low-level Languages

- Each processor has its own low-level instruction set, or machine language, which closely reflects the processors' design.
- Unfortunately, this means instruction sets are not easy for humans to work with!
 - Control flow is limited to "jump" and "branch" instructions, which you
 must use to make your own loops and conditionals.
 - Support for functions and procedures may be limited.
 - Memory addresses must be explicitly specified. You can not just declare new variables and use them!
 - Very little error checking is provided.
 - It is difficult to convert machine language programs to different processors.
- Later we will look at some rough translations from C to our simple processor's low-level language.

Assembly and Machine Languages

Machine language instructions are sequences of bits in a specific order.



- To make things simpler, people typically use assembly language (as we have done so far in this lecture).
 - We assign "mnemonic" names to instructions and operands (see the instruction specifications of our processor!).
 - There is (almost) a one-to-one correspondence between these mnemonics and machine instructions, so it is very easy to convert assembly programs to machine language.
- In this lecture we have used assembly code for our processor to introduce the basic ideas. In your design project you will learn how to switch to machine language!

Compiling

- Processors cannot execute programs written in high-level languages directly,
 - a special program called a compiler is needed to translate high-level programs into low-level machine code.
- In the "good" old days, people often wrote machine language programs by hand
 - to make their programs faster, smaller, or both.
- Now, compilers almost always do a better job than people
 - Programs are becoming more complex
 - hard for humans to write and maintain large, efficient machine language code
 - Processors are becoming more complex
 - difficult to write code that takes full advantage of a processor's

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Simple High-level C Programs

Consider the following simple C programs:

 <u>Program1</u>: It contains a statement which executes only if some condition is true.

```
// Find the absolute value of X and increment it
int X;
...
if (X < 0) {
        X = -X; // This statement is not executed if X ≥ 0
}
X++;</pre>
```

 <u>Program2</u>: It contains a loop that causes a statement to be executed many times.

```
// Sum the integers from 1 to 20 and store the result in X
int X = 0;
for (char i = 1; i <= 20; i++) {
        X = X + i; // This statement is executed 20 times
}</pre>
```

Translating Program 1

 We can use branch instructions to translate high-level conditional statements into assembly code for our simple processor.

```
// Find the absolute value of X and increment it
int X;
...
if (X < 0) {
        X = -X; // This statement is not executed if X ≥ 0
}
X++;</pre>
```



0x0010:	LDI R0, #0x00	\int Load the address where X is stored in the
0x0011:	LDI R1, #0xff	\int memory (we assume the address is 0x00ff)
0x0012:	LD R3, (R1)	<pre>// load the value of X in register R3</pre>
0x0013:	ADD R3, R0	// x = x + 0
0x0014 :	BNN #0x003	// if $X \ge 0$ then go to address 0×0017
0x0015:	NOT R3, R3	$\mathbf{x} = -\mathbf{x}$
0x0016:	INC R3, R3	
0x0017:	INC R3, R3	
0x0018:	ST (R1), R3	

Translating Program 2

Here is a translation of the for loop, using branch and jump instructions.

```
// Sum the integers from 1 to 20 and store the result in X
int X = 0;
for (char i = 1; i <= 20; i++) {
    X = X + i; // This statement is executed 20 times
}</pre>
```

```
0 \times 0010: LDI R1, \# 0 \times 00 // X = 0
0x0011: LDI R2, #0x01 // R2 stores the loop index i
0x0012: LDI R3, #0x14 // R3 stores the upper loop bound 20
0x0013: SUB R3, R2
                             if i > 20 then go to address 0 \times 001 A
0x0014: BNC #0x006
0 \times 0015: ADD R1, R2 // X = X + i
0x0016: INC R2
                          // i++
0x0017: LDI R0, #0x00
0x0018: LDI R3, #0x12
0x0019: JMP R0, R3
                          // Go back to loop test (address 0 \times 0012)
0x001A: LDI R0, #0x3c
0x001B: LDI R3, #0xff
0x001C: ST (R3), R1 // Store X in data memory at address 0x3cff
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```

Summary

- The machine language is the interface between software and the processors (hardware).
- High-level programs must be translated into machine language before they can be run.
- There are three main categories of instructions.
 - Data manipulation instructions, such as adding or shifting.
 - Data movement instructions to copy data between registers and RAM.
 - Control flow instructions to change the execution order.
- Specifying Instruction Set Architecture is the first step in the design of a processor.
 - Datapath and Control Unit of a processor must be designed according to the processor's instruction set architecture.
 - The complexity of the instruction set architecture determines the complexity of the hardware needed to implement a processor.