

Campus de Gualtar 4710-057 Braga



# **Computer Organization and Architecture**

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## **III. THE CENTRAL PROCESSING UNIT.**

- 8. ...
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## Introduction

- RISC is one of the few true innovations in computer organization and architecture in the last 50 years of computing.
- Key elements common to most designs:
  - o A limited and simple instruction set
  - A large number of general purpose registers, or the use of compiler technology to optimize register usage
  - o An emphasis on optimizing the instruction pipeline

## Instruction Execution Characteristics (12.1)

• Overview

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- Semantic Gap the difference between the operations provided in high-level languages and those provided in computer architecture
- Symptoms of the semantic gap:
  - Execution inefficiency
  - Excessive machine program size
  - Compiler complexity
  - New designs had features trying to close gap:
    - Large instruction sets
    - Dozens of addressing modes
    - Various HLL statements in hardware
- o Intent of these designs:
  - Make compiler-writing easier
  - Improve execution efficiency by implementing complex sequences of operations in microcode
  - Provide support for even more complex and sophisticated HLL's
- o Concurrently, studies of the machine instructions generated by HLL programs
  - Looked at the characteristics and patterns of execution of such instructions
  - Results lead to using simpler architectures to support HLL's, instead of more complex
- $\circ~$  To understand the reasoning of the RISC advocates, we look at study results on 3 main aspects of computation:
  - Operations performed the functions to be performed by the CPU and its interaction with memory.
  - Operands used types of operands and their frequency of use. Determine memory organization and addressing modes.
  - Execution Sequencing determines the control and pipeline organization.
- $\circ~$  Study results are based on dynamic measurements (during program execution), so that we can see effect on performance

- Operations
  - Simple counting of statement frequency indicates that assignment (data movement) predominates, followed by selection/iteration.
  - o Weighted studies show that call/return actually accounts for the most work
  - o Target architectural organization to support these operations well
  - Patterson study also looked at dynamic frequency of occurrence of classes of variables. Results showed a preponderance of references to highly localized scalars:
    - Majority of references are to simple scalars
    - Over 80% of scalars were local variables
    - References to arrays/structures require a previous ref to their index or pointer, which is usually a local scalar
- Operands
  - Another study found that each instruction (DEC-10 in this case) references 0.5 operands in memory and 1.4 registers.
  - o Implications:
    - Need for fast operand accessing
    - Need for optimized mechanisms for storing and accessing local scalar variables
- Execution Sequencing
  - o Subroutine calls are the time-consuming operation in HLL's
  - Minimize their impact by
    - Streamlining the parameter passing
    - Efficient access to local variables
    - Support nested subroutine invocation
  - o Statistics
    - 98% of dynamically called procedures passed fewer than 6 parameters
    - 92% use less than 6 local scalar variables
    - Rare to have long sequences of subroutine calls followed by returns (e.g., a recursive sorting algorithm)
    - Depth of nesting was typically rather low
- Implications
  - Reducing the semantic gap through complex architectures may not be the most efficient use of system hardware
  - Optimize machine design based on the most time-consuming tasks of typical HLL programs
  - o Use large numbers of registers
    - Reduce memory reference by keeping variables close to CPU (more register refs instead)
    - Streamlines instruction set by making memory interactions primarily loads and stores
  - Pipeline design
    - Minimize impact of conditional branches
  - Simplify instruction set rather than make it more complex

#### Large Register Files (12.2)

- How can we make programs use registers more often?
  - Software optimizing compilers
    - Compiler attempts to allocate registers to those variables that will be used most in a given time period
      - Requires sophisticated program-analysis algorithms
  - o Hardware
    - Make more registers available, so that they'll be used more often by ordinary compilers
    - Pioneered at Berkeley by first commercial RISC product, the Pyramid
- Register Windows
  - o Naively adding registers will not effectively reduce need to access memory
    - Since most operand references are to local scalars, obviously store them in registers, with maybe a few for global variables
    - Problem: Definition of local changes with each procedure call and return (which happen a lot!)
      - On call, locals must be moved from registers to memory to make room for called subroutine
      - Parameters must be passed
      - On return, parent variables must move back to registers
  - Remember study results:
    - A typical procedure uses only a few passed parameters and local variables
    - The depth of procedure activation fluctuates within a relatively narrow range
  - o **So**:
- Use multiple small sets of registers, each assigned to a different procedure
- A procedure call automatically switches the CPU to use a different fixedsize window of registers (no saving registers in memory!)
- Windows for adjacent procedures are overlapped to allow parameter passing
- o Since there is a limit to number of windows, we use a circular buffer of windows
  - Only hold the most recent procedure activations in register windows
  - Older activations must be saved to memory and later restored
    - An N-window register file can hold only N-1 procedure activations
      - One study found that with 8 windows, a save or restore is needed on only 1% of calls or returns
- Global variables
  - o Could just use memory, but would be inefficient for frequently used globals
  - $\circ\;$  Incorporate a set of global registers in the CPU. Then, the registers available to a procedure would be split:
    - some would be the global registers
    - the rest would be in the current window.
  - Hardware would have to also:
    - decide which globals to put in registers
    - accommodate the split in register addressing

- Large Register File vs. Cache
  - Why not just build a big cache? Answer not clear cut
    - Window holds all local scalars
    - Cache holds selection of recently used data
    - Cache can be forced to hold data it never uses (due to block transfers)
    - Current data in cache can be swapped out due to accessing scheme used
    - Cache can easily store global and local variables
    - Addressing registers is cleaner and faster

#### **Compiler-Based Register Optimization (12.3)**

- In this case, the number of registers is small compared to the large register file implementation
- The compiler is responsible for managing the use of the registers
- Compiler must map the current and projected use of variables onto the available registers
  - Similar to a graph coloring problem
  - Form a graph with variables as nodes and edges that link variables that are active at the same time
  - Color the graph with as many colors as you have registers
  - Variables not colored must be stored in memory

## **Reduced Instruction Set Architecture (12.4)**

- Why CISC?
  - o CISC trends to richer instruction sets
    - More instructions
    - More complex instructions
  - o **Reasons** 
    - To simplify compilers
    - To improve performance
- Are compilers simplified?
  - Assertion: If there are machine instructions that resemble HLL statements, compiler construction is simpler
  - Counter-arguments:
    - Complex machine instructions are often hard to exploit because the compiler must find those cases that fit the construct
    - Other compiler goals
      - Minimizing code size
      - Reducing instruction execution count
        - Enhancing pipelining
        - are more difficult with a complex instruction set
    - Studies show that most instructions actually produced by CISC compilers are the relatively simple ones
- Is performance improved?
  - o Assertion: Programs will be smaller and they will execute faster
    - Smaller programs save memory
    - Smaller programs have fewer instructions, requiring less instruction fetching
    - Smaller programs occupy fewer pages in a paged environment, so have fewer page faults

- o Counter-
  - Inexpensive memory makes memory savings less compelling

used may not be smaller

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Opcodes require more bits

to register identifiers (which are the usual case for RISC)

operations, so even the more often-

• The speedup for complex instructions may be mostly due to their implementation as simpler

that the CISC designer must decide a priori which instructions to speed up in this way)

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o One instruction per cycle

registers, perform and ALU operation, and store the result in a register RISC machine instructions should be no more complicated than, and execute s fast as microinstructions on a CISC machine

- No microcoding needed, and simple instructions will execute faster than their
- o Register- -register operations

ions access memory

Simplifies instruction set and control unit

Ex. VAX has 25 different ADD instructions

Encourages optimization of register use

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- Almost all instructions use simple register addressing
- - More complex addressing is implemented in software from the simpler ones Further simplifies instruction set and control unit

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- Only a few formats are used
- Instruction length is fixed and aligned on word boundaries
  Optimizes instruction fetching
  - I
- Field locations (especially the opcode) are fixed Allows simul
- Potential benefits

More effective optimizing compilers

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- $\circ$   $\;$  Instruction pipelining can be applied more effectively with a reduced instruction set

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They are checked between rudimentary operations

No need for complex instruction restarting mechanisms

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- Requires less "real estate" for control unit (6% in RISC I vs. about 50% for CISC microcode store)
- o Less design and implementation time

## **RISC Pipelining (12.5)**

- The simplified structure of RISC instructions allows us to reconsider pipelining
  - o Most instructions are register-to-register, so an instruction cycle has 2 phases
    - I: Instruction Fetch
    - E: Execute (an ALU operation w/ register input and output)
  - o For load and store operations, 3 phases are needed
    - I: Instruction fetch
    - E: Execute (actually memory address calculation)
    - D: Memory (register-to-memory or memory-to-register)
- Since the E phase usually involves an ALU operation, it may be longer than the other phases. In this case, we can divide it into 2 sub phases:
  - o E1: Register file read
  - E2: ALU operation and register write

## Optimization of Pipelining

- Delayed Branch
  - We've seen that data and branch dependencies reduce the overall execution rate in the pipeline
  - $\circ\,$  Delayed branch makes use of a branch that does not take effect until after the execution of the following instruction
    - Note that the branch "takes effect" during its execution phase
    - So, the instruction location immediately following the branch is called the delay slot
    - This is because the instruction fetching order is not affected by the branch until the instruction after the delay slot
    - Rather than wasting an instruction with a NOOP, it may be possible to move the instruction preceding the branch to the delay slot, while still retaining the original program semantics.
- Conditional branches
  - If the instruction immediately preceding the branch cannot alter the branch condition, this optimization can be applied
  - Otherwise a NOOP delay is still required.
  - Experience with both the Berkeley RISC and IBM 801 systems shows that a majority of conditional branches can be optimized this way.
- Delayed Load
  - o On load instructions, the register to be loaded is locked by the processor
  - The processor continues execution of the instruction stream until reaching an instruction needing a locked register
  - o It then idles until the load is complete
  - If load takes a specific maximum number of clock cycles, it may be possible to rearrange instructions to avoid the idle.

## Superpipelining

• A superpipelined architecture is one that makes use of more, and finer-grained, pipeline stages.

- The MIPS R3000 is an example of superpipelining
  - All instructions follow the same sequence of 5 pipeline stages (the 60-ns clock cycle is divided into two 30-ns phases)
  - But the activities needed for each stage may occur in parallel, and may not use an entire stage
- Essentially then, we can break up the external instruction and data cache operations, and the ALU operations, into 2 phases

φ1	φ <sub>2</sub>	φι	φ <sub>2</sub>	φ <sub>1</sub>	φ <sub>2</sub>	φ1	φ <sub>2</sub>	φ1	φ <sub>2</sub>
1	F		RD	A	ALU .	Ν	ſEM		WB

	I-Cache	RF	ALU	J OP	D-Cache	WB
ITLB		IDEC	DA	DTLB		
		IA				

(a) Detailed R3000 pipeline

Cycle	Cycle	Cy	cle	Су	cle	Су	cle	Су	cle
ITLB	I-Cache	RF	AI	JU	DT	LB	D-C	ache	WB

(b) Modified R3000 pipeline with reduced latencies

Cycle	Cyc	le (	Cycle	Cycl	e	Cycle	
ITLB	RF	ALU	D-0	ache	TC	WB	

IF	=	Instruction fetch
RD	=	Read
MEM	=	Memory access
WB	=	Write back
I-Cache	=	Instruction cache access
RF	÷	Fetch operand from register
D-Cache	=	Data cache access
ITLB	=	Instruction address translation
IDEC	=	Instruction decode
IA	=	Compute instruction address
DA	=	Calculate data virtual address
DTLB	=	Data address translation
TC	=	Data cache tag check

(c) Optimized R3000 pipeline with parallel TLB and cache accesses

- In general:
  - In a superpipelined system existing hardware is used several times per cycle by inserting pipeline registers to split up each pipe stage
  - o Each superpipeline stage operates at a multiple of the base clock frequency
  - The multiple depends on the degree of superpipelining (the number of phases into which each stage is split)
- The MIPS R4000 (which has improvements over the R3000 of the previous slide) is an example of superpipelining of degree 2 (see section 12.6 for details).

S.	ψ <sub>2</sub>							6		
IC1	IC2	RF	ALU	ALU	DC1	DC2	TC1	TC2	WB	
	IC1	IC2	RF	ALU	ALU	DC1	DC2	TC1	TC2	WB

IF = Instruction fetch first half (a) Superpipelined implmentation of the optimized R3000 pipeline IS = Instruction fetch second half RF = Fetch operands from register EX = Instruction execute IC = Instruction cache (b) R4000 pipeline DC = Data cache Clock Cycle DF = Data cache first half DS = Data cache second half TC = Tag check φ2 φ2 φ1 ψ. φ, φ. IF IS RF EX DF DS TC WB IF IS RF EX DF DS TC WB

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#### The RISC vs. CISC Controversy (12.8)

- In spite of the apparent advantages of RISC, it is still an open question whether the RISC approach is demonstrably better.
- Studies to compare RISC to CISC are hampered by several problems (as of the textbook writing):
  - o There is no pair of RISC and CISC machines that are closely comparable
  - No definitive set of test programs exist.
  - o It is difficult to sort out hardware effects from effects due to skill in compiler writing.
- Most of the comparative analysis on RISC has been done on "toy" machines, rather than commercial products.
- Most commercially available "RISC" machines possess a mixture of RISC and CISC characteristics.
- The controversy has died down to a great extent
  - o As chip densities and speeds increase, RISC systems have become more complex
  - To improve performance, CISC systems have increased their number of generalpurpose registers and increased emphasis on instruction pipeline design.