Instruction Set Architecture (ISA)

- What is a good ISA?
- Aspects of ISAs
- RISC vs. CISC

ISA Design Goals

Readings

- H+P
  - Appendix B
  - Appendix J.2 (RISC ISAs) and J.3 (x86)
    - On the Book’s CD

- Paper
  - The Evolution of RISC Technology at IBM by John Cocke

- Much of this chapter will be “on your own reading”
  - Hard to talk about ISA features without knowing what they do
  - We will revisit many of these issues in context
What Is An ISA?

- **ISA (instruction set architecture)**
  - A well-defined hardware/software interface
  - The “contract” between software and hardware
    - **Functional definition** of operations, modes, and storage locations supported by hardware
    - **Precise description** of how to invoke, and access them
  - Not in the “contract”: non-functional aspects
    - How operations are implemented
    - Which operations are fast and which are slow and when
    - Which operations take more power and which take less

- Instruction → Insn
  - ‘Instruction’ is too long to write in slides

A Language Analogy for ISAs

- **Communication**
  - Person-to-person → software-to-hardware

- **Similar structure**
  - Narrative → program
  - Sentence → insn
  - Verb → operation (add, multiply, load, branch)
  - Noun → data item (immediate, register value, memory value)
  - Adjective → addressing mode

- Many different languages, many different ISAs
  - Similar basic structure, details differ (sometimes greatly)

- Key differences between languages and ISAs
  - Languages evolve organically, many ambiguities, inconsistencies
  - ISAs are explicitly engineered and extended, unambiguous

RISC vs CISC Foreshadowing

- Recall performance equation:
  - \( (\text{instructions/program}) \times (\text{cycles/instruction}) \times (\text{seconds/cycle}) \)

- **CISC (Complex Instruction Set Computing)**
  - Reduce "instructions/program" with "complex" instructions
    - But tends to increase CPI or clock period
  - Easy for assembly-level programmers, good code density

- **RISC (Reduced Instruction Set Computing)**
  - Improve "cycles/instruction" with many single-cycle instructions
  - Increases "instruction/program", but hopefully not as much
  - Help from smart compiler
  - Perhaps improve clock cycle time (seconds/cycle)
    - via aggressive implementation allowed by simpler instructions

What Makes a Good ISA?

- **Programmability**
  - Easy to express programs efficiently?

- **Implementability**
  - Easy to design high-performance implementations?
    - More recently
      - Easy to design low-power implementations?
      - Easy to design high-reliability implementations?
      - Easy to design low-cost implementations?

- **Compatibility**
  - Easy to maintain programmability (implementability) as languages and programs (technology) evolves?
  - x86 (IA32) generations: 8086, 286, 386, 486, Pentium, PentiumII, PentiumIII, Pentium4, Core2...
Programmability

• Easy to express programs efficiently?
  • For whom?

• Before 1985: human
  • Compilers were terrible, most code was hand-assembled
  • Want high-level coarse-grain instructions
    • As similar to high-level language as possible

• After 1985: compiler
  • Optimizing compilers generate much better code that you or I
  • Want low-level fine-grain instructions
    • Compiler can’t tell if two high-level idioms match exactly or not

Human Programmability

• What makes an ISA easy for a human to program in?
  • Proximity to a high-level language (HLL)
    • Closing the “semantic gap”
  • Semantically heavy (CISC-like) insns that capture complete idioms
    • “Access array element”, “loop”, “procedure call”
    • Example: SPARC save/restore
    • Bad example: x86 rep movsb (copy string)
    • Ridiculous example: VAX insque (insert-into-queue)
    • “Semantic clash”: what if you have many high-level languages?

• Stranger than fiction
  • People once thought computers would execute language directly
  • Fortunately, never materialized (but keeps coming back around)

Today’s Semantic Gap

• Today’s ISAs are actually targeted to one language...
  • Just so happens that this language is very low level
    • The C programming language

• Will ISAs be different when Java/C# become dominant?
  • Object-oriented? Probably not
  • Support for garbage collection? Maybe
  • Support for bounds-checking? Maybe
  • Why?
    • Smart compilers transform high-level languages to simple instructions
    • Any benefit of tailored ISA is likely small

Compiler Programmability

• What makes an ISA easy for a compiler to program in?
  • Low level primitives from which solutions can be synthesized
    • Wulf: “primitives not solutions”
  • Computers good at breaking complex structures to simple ones
    • Requires traversal
    • Not so good at combining simple structures into complex ones
    • Requires search, pattern matching
    • Easier to synthesize complex insns than to compare them

• Rules of thumb
  • Regularity: “principle of least astonishment”
  • Orthogonality & composability
  • One-vs.-all
Aside: Compiler Optimizations

- Compilers do two things
  
  **Code generation**
  - Translate HLL to machine insns naively, one statement at a time
  - Canonical, there are compiler-generating programs

  **Optimization**
  - Transform insns to preserve meaning but improve performance
  - Active research area, but some standard optimizations
    - Register allocation, common sub-expression elimination, loop-invariant code motion, loop unrolling, function inlining, code scheduling (to increase insn-level parallelism), etc.

- Primarily reduce dynamic insn count
  - Eliminate redundant computation, keep more things in registers
    - Registers are faster, fewer loads/stores
      - An ISA can make this difficult by having too few registers
  - But also...
    - Reduce branches and jumps
    - Reduce cache misses
    - Reduce dependences between nearby insns (for parallelism)
      - An ISA can make this difficult by having implicit dependences

  **How effective are these?**
  - Can give 4X performance over unoptimized code
  - Collective wisdom of 40 years ("Proebsting's Law"): 4% per year
  - Funny but ... shouldn't leave 4X performance on the table

Implementability

- Every ISA can be implemented
  - Not every ISA can be implemented efficiently

- Classic high-performance implementation techniques
  - Pipelining, parallel execution, out-of-order execution (more later)

- Certain ISA features make these difficult
  - Variable instruction lengths/formats: complicate decoding
  - Implicit state: complicates dynamic scheduling
  - Variable latencies: complicates scheduling
  - Difficult to interrupt instructions: complicate many things

Compatibility

- No-one buys new hardware... if it requires new software
  - Intel was the first company to realize this
  - ISA must remain compatible, no matter what
    - x86 one of the worst designed ISAs EVER, but survives
      - As does IBM's 360/370 (the first "ISA family")

  **Backward compatibility**
  - New processors must support old programs (can't drop features)
    - Critically important

  **Forward (upward) compatibility**
  - Old processors must support new programs (with software help)
    - New processors redefine only previously-illegal opcodes
    - Allow software to detect support for specific new instructions
    - Old processors emulate new instructions in low-level software
The Compatibility Trap

- Easy compatibility requires forethought
  - Temptation: use some ISA extension for 5% performance gain
  - Frequent outcome: gain diminishes, disappears, or turns to loss
    - **Must continue to support gadget for eternity**

- Example: register windows (SPARC)
  - Adds difficulty to out-of-order implementations of SPARC

The Compatibility Trap Door

- Compatibility’s friends
  - **Trap**: instruction makes low-level “function call” to OS handler
  - **Nop**: “no operation” - instructions with no functional semantics

- Backward compatibility
  - Handle rarely used but hard to implement “legacy” opcodes
  - Define to trap in new implementation and emulate in software
    - Rid yourself of some ISA mistakes of the past
    - Problem: performance suffers

- Forward compatibility
  - Reserve sets of trap & nop opcodes (don’t define uses)
  - Add ISA functionality by overloading traps
    - Release firmware patch to “add” to old implementation
  - Add ISA hints by overloading nops (example: x86’s PAUSE)

Aspects of ISAs

- **VonNeumann model**
  - Implicit structure of all modern ISAs

- Format
  - Length and encoding

- **Operand model**
  - Where (other than memory) are operands stored?

- Datatypes and operations

- Control

- Overview only
  - Read about the rest in the book and appendices
The Sequential Model

- Implicit model of all modern ISAs
  - Often called VonNeuman, but in ENIAC before
- Basic feature: the program counter (PC)
  - Defines total order on dynamic instruction
    - Next PC is PC++ unless insn says otherwise
  - Order and named storage define computation
    - Value flows from insn X to Y via storage A iff...
    - X names A as output, Y names A as input...
    - And Y after X in total order
- Processor logically executes loop at left
  - Instruction execution assumed atomic
  - Instruction X finishes before insn X+1 starts

- More parallel alternatives have been proposed

Length and Format

- **Length**
  - Fixed length
    - Most common is 32 bits
      + Simple implementation (next PC often just PC+4)
      - Code density: 32 bits to increment a register by 1
  - Variable length
    + Code density
      - x86 can do increment in one 8-bit instruction
      - Complex fetch (where does next instruction begin?)
    - Compromise: two lengths
      - E.g., MIPS16 or ARM’s Thumb

- **Encoding**
  - A few simple encodings simplify decoder
    - x86 decoder one of nastiest pieces of logic
Examples Instruction Encodings

- **MIPS**
  - Fixed length
  - 32-bits, 3 formats, simple encoding
  - (MIPS16 has 16-bit versions of common insn for code density)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R-type</th>
<th>Op(6)</th>
<th>Rs(5)</th>
<th>Rt(5)</th>
<th>Rd(5)</th>
<th>Sh(5)</th>
<th>Func(6)</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>I-type</td>
<td>Op(6)</td>
<td>Rs(5)</td>
<td>Rt(5)</td>
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<td>Immed(16)</td>
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<td>J-type</td>
<td>Op(6)</td>
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<td>Target(26)</td>
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- **x86**
  - Variable length encoding (1 to 16 bytes)

Operations and Datatypes

- **Datatypes**
  - Software: attribute of data
  - Hardware: attribute of operation, data is just 0/1’s

- **All processors support**
  - 2C integer arithmetic/logic (8/16/32/64-bit)
  - IEEE754 floating-point arithmetic (32/64 bit)
  - Intel has 80-bit floating-point

- **More recently, most processors support**
  - "Packed-integer" insns, e.g., MMX
  - "Packed-fp" insns, e.g., SSE/SSE2
  - For multimedia, more about these later

- **Processor no longer (??) support**
  - Decimal, other fixed-point arithmetic
  - Binary-coded decimal (BCD)

Where Does Data Live?

- **Memory**
  - Fundamental storage space

- **Registers**
  - Faster than memory, quite handy
  - Most processors have these too

- **Immediates**
  - Values spelled out as bits in instructions
  - Input only

How Much Memory? Address Size

- **What does “64-bit” in a 64-bit ISA mean?**
  - **Support memory size of 2^{64}**
  - Alternative (wrong) definition: width of calculation operations

- **Virtual address size**
  - Determines size of addressable (usable) memory
  - Current 32-bit or 64-bit address spaces
  - All ISAs moving to (if not already at) 64 bits
  - Most critical, inescapable ISA design decision
  - Too small? Will limit the lifetime of ISA
  - May require nasty hacks to overcome (E.g., x86 segments)

- **x86 evolution:**
  - 4-bit (4004), 8-bit (8008), 16-bit (80186), 24-bit (80286),
  - 32-bit + protected memory (80386)
  - 64-bit (AMD's Opteron & Intel's EM64T Pentium4)
How Many Registers?

- Registers faster than memory, have as many as possible?
  - No
  - One reason registers are faster is that there are **fewer of them**
    - Small is fast (hardware truism)
  - Another is that they are **directly addressed** (no address calc)
    - More of them, means larger specifiers
    - Fewer registers per instruction or indirect addressing
- **Not everything can be put in registers**
  - Structures, arrays, anything pointed-to
  - Although compilers are getting better at putting more things in
    - More registers means **more saving/restoring**
  - Upshot: trend to more registers: 8 (x86) → 32 (MIPS) → 128 (IA64)
    - 64-bit x86 has 16 64-bit integer and 16 128-bit FP registers

Register Windows

- **Register windows**: hardware activation records
  - Sun SPARC (from the RISC I)
    - 32 integer registers divided into: 8 global, 8 local, 8 input, 8 output
  - Explicit **save/restore** instructions
    - Global registers fixed
    - **save**: inputs “pushed”, outputs → inputs, locals zeroed
    - **restore**: locals zeroed, inputs → outputs, inputs “popped”
    - Hardware stack provides few (4) on-chip register frames
    - Spilled-to/filled-from memory on over/under flow
    - Automatic parameter passing, caller-saved registers
    - No memory traffic on shallow (<4 deep) call graphs
    - Hidden memory operations (some restores fast, others slow)
    - A nightmare for register renaming (more later)

How Are Memory Locations Specified?

- Registers are specified **directly**
  - Register names are short, can be encoded in instructions
  - Some instructions implicitly read/write certain registers

- How are addresses specified?
  - Addresses are long (64-bit)
  - **Addressing mode**: how are insn bits converted to addresses?
  - Think about: what high-level idiom addressing mode captures

Memory Addressing

- **Addressing mode**: way of specifying address
  - Used in memory-memory or load/store instructions in register ISA

- Examples
  - **Register-Indirect**: R1=mem[R2]
  - **Displacement**: R1=mem[R2+immed]
  - **Index-base**: R1=mem[R2+R3]
  - **Memory-indirect**: R1=mem[mem[R2]]
  - **Auto-increment**: R1=mem[R2], R2= R2+1
  - **Auto-indexing**: R1=mem[R2+immed], R2=R2+immed
  - **Scaled**: R1=mem[R2+R3*immed1+immed2]
  - **PC-relative**: R1=mem[PC+imm]

- What high-level program idioms are these used for?
- What implementation impact? What impact on insn count?
MIPS Addressing Modes

- MIPS implements only displacement
  - Why? Experiment on VAX (ISA with every mode) found distribution
    - Disp: 61%, reg-ind: 19%, scaled: 11%, mem-ind: 5%, other: 4%
    - 80% use small displacement or register indirect (displacement 0)

- I-type instructions: 16-bit displacement
  - Is 16-bits enough?
  - Yes? VAX experiment showed 1% accesses use displacement >16

- SPARC adds Reg+Reg mode
  - Why? What impact on both implementation and insn count?

Addressing Modes Examples

- MIPS
  - **Displacement**: R1+offset (16-bit)
    - Experiments showed this covered 80% of accesses on VAX
  - x86 (MOV instructions)
    - **Absolute**: zero + offset (8/16/32-bit)
    - **Register indirect**: R1
    - **Indexed**: R1+R2
    - **Displacement**: R1+offset (8/16/32-bit)
    - **Scaled**: R1 + (R2*Scale) + offset(8/16/32-bit) Scale = 1, 2, 4, 8

Two More Addressing Issues

- **Access alignment**: address % size == 0?
  - Aligned: load-word @XXXX00, load-half @XXXXX0
  - Unaligned: load-word @XXXX10, load-half @XXXXX1
  - Question: what to do with unaligned accesses (uncommon case)?
    - Support in hardware? Makes all accesses slow
    - Trap to software routine? Possibility
    - Use regular instructions
      - Load, shift, load, shift, and
  - **MIPS? ISA support**: unaligned access using two instructions
    - lw1 @XXXX10; lwr @XXXX10

- **Endian-ness**: arrangement of bytes in a word
  - Big-endian: sensible order (e.g., MIPS, PowerPC)
    - A 4-byte integer: "00000000 00000000 0000010 0000011" is 515
  - Little-endian: reverse order (e.g., x86)
    - A 4-byte integer: "0000011 0000010 00000000 00000000" is 515
  - Why little endian? To be different? To be annoying? Nobody knows

How Many Explicit Operands / ALU Insn?

- **Operand model**: how many explicit operands / ALU insn?
  - **3**: general-purpose
    - add R1, R2, R3 means [R1] = [R2] + [R3] (MIPS uses this)
  - **2**: multiple explicit accumulators (output doubles as input)
    - add R1, R2 means [R1] = [R1] + [R2] (x86 uses this)
  - **1**: one implicit accumulator
    - add R1 means ACC = ACC + [R1]
  - **0**: hardware stack (like Java bytecodes)
    - add means STK[TOS+++] = STK[--TOS] + STK[--TOS]
  - **4+**: useful only in special situations

- Examples show register operands...
  - But operands can be memory addresses, or mixed register/memory
  - ISAs with register-only ALU insns are "load-store"
MIPS and x86 Operand Models

- **MIPS**
  - Integer: 32 32-bit general-purpose registers (load/store)
  - Floating point: same (can also be used as 16 64-bit registers)
  - 16-bit displacement addressing
- **x86**
  - Integer: 8 accumulator registers (reg-reg, reg-mem, mem-reg)
    - Can be used as 8/16/32 bits
  - Floating point: 80-bit stack (why x86 had slow floating point)
  - Displacement, absolute, reg indirect, indexed and scaled addressing
    - All with 8/16/32 bit constants (why not?)
  - Note: integer push, pop for managing software stack
  - Note: also reg-mem and mem-mem string functions in hardware
- **x86-64** (i.e., IA32-EM64T)
  - Integer: 16 64-bit accumulator registers
  - Floating point: 16 128-bit accumulator registers

Operand Model Pros and Cons

- **Metric I:** static code size
  - Want: many Implicit operands (stack), high level insns
- **Metric II:** data memory traffic
  - Want: as many long-lived operands in on-chip storage (load-store)
- **Metric III:** CPI
  - Want: short latencies, little variability (load-store)

Control Transfers

- Default next-PC is PC + sizeof(current insn)
- Branches and jumps can change that
  - Otherwise dynamic program == static program
  - Not useful
- **Computing targets**: where to jump to
  - For all branches and jumps
  - Absolute / PC-relative / indirect
- **Testing conditions**: whether to jump at all
  - For (conditional) branches only
  - Compare-branch / condition-codes / condition registers

Control Transfers I: Computing Targets

- The issues
  - How far (statically) do you need to jump?
    - Not far within procedure, further from one procedure to another
    - Do you need to jump to a different place each time?
  - **PC-relative**
    - Position-independent within procedure
    - Used for branches and jumps within a procedure
  - **Absolute**
    - Position independent outside procedure
    - Used for procedure calls
  - **Indirect** (target found in register)
    - Needed for jumping to dynamic targets
    - Used for returns, dynamic procedure calls, switch statements
Control Transfers II: Testing Conditions

- **Compare and branch insns**
  
  \[ \text{branch-less-than } R1,10, \text{target} \]
  
  + Simple
  - Two ALUs: one for condition, one for target address
  - Extra latency

- **Implicit condition codes (x86, LC3)**
  
  \[
  \begin{align*}
  &\text{subtract R2,R1,10} & \text{// sets “negative” CC} \\
  &\text{branch-neg target} & \\
  \end{align*}
  \]
  
  + Condition codes set “for free”
  - Implicit dependence is tricky

- **Conditions in regs, separate branch (MIPS, P37X)**
  
  \[
  \begin{align*}
  &\text{set-less-than } R2,R1,10 \\
  &\text{branch-not-equal-zero } R2, \text{target} \\
  \end{align*}
  \]
  
  - Additional insns
  + one ALU per insn, explicit dependence

MIPS and x86 Control Transfers

- **MIPS**
  
  - 16-bit offset PC-relative conditional branches
  - **Uses register for condition**
  - Compare 2 regs: \(\text{beq, bne}\) or reg to 0: \(\text{bgtz, bgez, bltz, blez}\)
  - Why?
    - More than 80% of branches are (in)equalities or comparisons to 0
    - Don’t need adder for these cases (fast, simple)
    - OK to take two insns to do remaining branches
      - It’s the uncommon case
    - Explicit “set condition into registers”: \(\text{slt, sltu, slti, sltiu, etc.}\)

- **x86**
  
  - 8-bit offset PC-relative branches
  - **Uses condition codes**
  - Explicit compare instructions (and others) to set condition codes

MIPS Control Instructions

- PC-relative conditional branches: \(\text{bne, beq, blez, etc.}\)
  - 16-bit relative offset, <0.1% branches need more
  
  \[
  \begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c}
  \text{Op(6)} & \text{Rs(5)} & \text{Rt(5)} & \text{Immed(18)} \\
  \hline
  \text{I-type} & & & \end{array}
  \]

  + Absolute jumps unconditional jumps: \(j\)
    - 26-bit offset
    
    \[
    \begin{array}{c|c|c}
    \text{Op(6)} & \text{Target(26)} \\
    \hline
    \text{J-type} & & \end{array}
    \]

  + Indirect jumps: \(jr\)
    - R-type
    
    \[
    \begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c}
    \text{Op(6)} & \text{Rs(5)} & \text{Rt(5)} & \text{Rd(5)} & \text{Sh(5)} & \text{Func(6)} \\
    \hline
    \text{R-type} & & & & & \end{array}
    \]

The RISC vs. CISC Debate
RISC and CISC

- **RISC**: reduced-instruction set computer
  - Coined by Patterson in early 80's
  - Berkeley RISC-I (Patterson), Stanford MIPS (Hennessy), IBM 801 (Cocke)
  - Examples: PowerPC, ARM, SPARC, Alpha, PA-RISC
- **CISC**: complex-instruction set computer
  - Term didn't exist before "RISC"
  - x86, VAX, Motorola 68000, etc.

Philosophical war (one of several) started in mid 1980's
- RISC "won" the technology battles
- CISC won the high-end commercial war (1990s to today)
  - Compatibility a stronger force than anyone (but Intel) thought
- RISC won the embedded computing war

The Setup

- Pre 1980
  - Bad compilers
  - Complex, high-level ISAs
  - Slow multi-chip micro-programmed implementations
    - Vicious feedback loop
- Around 1982
  - Moore's Law makes single-chip microprocessor possible...
  - ...but only for small, simple ISAs
  - Performance advantage of this "integration" was compelling
  - Compilers had to get involved in a big way
- **RISC manifesto**: create ISAs that...
  - Simplify single-chip implementation
  - Facilitate optimizing compilation

The RISC Tenets

- **Single-cycle execution**
  - CISC: many multicycle operations
- **Hardwired control**
  - CISC: microcoded multi-cycle operations
- **Load/store architecture**
  - CISC: register-memory and memory-memory
- **Few memory addressing modes**
  - CISC: many modes
- **Fixed instruction format**
  - CISC: many formats and lengths
- **Reliance on compiler optimizations**
  - CISC: hand assemble to get good performance

CISCs and RISCs

- The CISCs: x86, VAX (Virtual Address eXtension to PDP-11)
  - Variable length instructions: 1-321 bytes!!!
  - 14 GPRs + PC + stack-pointer + condition codes
  - Data sizes: 8, 16, 32, 64, 128 bit, decimal, string
  - Memory-memory instructions for all data sizes
  - Special insns: crc, insque, polyf, and a cast of hundreds
  - x86: "Difficult to explain and impossible to love"
- The RISCs: MIPS, PA-RISC, SPARC, PowerPC, Alpha
  - 32-bit instructions
  - 32 integer registers, 32 floating point registers, load-store
  - 64-bit virtual address space
  - Few addressing modes (Alpha has one, SPARC/PowerPC have more)
  - Why so many basically similar ISAs? Everyone wanted their own
The Debate

• RISC argument
  • CISC is fundamentally handicapped
  • For a given technology, RISC implementation will be better (faster)
    • Current technology enables single-chip RISC
    • When it enables single-chip CISC, RISC will be pipelined
    • When it enables pipelined CISC, RISC will have caches
    • When it enables CISC with caches, RISC will have next thing...

• CISC rebuttal
  • CISC flaws not fundamental, can be fixed with more transistors
  • Moore’s Law will narrow the RISC/CISC gap (true)
    • Good pipeline: RISC = 100K transistors, CISC = 300K
    • By 1995: 2M+ transistors had evened playing field
  • Software costs dominate, compatibility is paramount

Current Winner (Volume): RISC

• ARM (Acorn RISC Machine → Advanced RISC Machine)
  • First ARM chip in mid-1980s (from Acorn Computer Ltd).
  • 1.2 billion units sold in 2004 (>50% of all 32/64-bit CPUs)
  • Low-power and embedded devices (iPod, for example)
    • Significance of embedded? New ISAs easier to pull off

• 32-bit RISC ISA
  • 16 registers, PC is one of them
  • Many addressing modes, e.g., auto increment
  • Condition codes, each instruction can be conditional

• Multiple implementations
  • X-scale (design was DEC’s, bought by Intel, sold to Marvel)
  • Others: Freescale (was Motorola), Texas Instruments, STMicroelectronics, Samsung, Sharp, Philips, etc.

Current Winner (Revenue): CISC

• x86 was first 16-bit chip by ~2 years
  • IBM put it into its PCs because there was no competing choice
  • Rest is historical inertia and “financial feedback”
    • x86 is most difficult ISA to implement and do it fast but...
    • Because Intel sells the most non-embedded processors...
    • It has the most money...
    • Which it uses to hire more and better engineers...
    • Which it uses to maintain competitive performance ...
    • And given competitive performance, compatibility wins...
  • So Intel sells the most non-embedded processors...
  • AMD as a competitor keeps pressure on x86 performance

• Moore’s law has helped Intel in a big way
  • Most engineering problems can be solved with more transistors

Intel’s Compatibility Trick: RISC Inside

• 1993: Intel wanted out-of-order execution in Pentium Pro
  • OoO was very hard to do with a coarse grain ISA like x86

• Solution? Translate x86 to RISC µops in hardware
  • push $eax
  • becomes (we think, uops are proprietary)
  • store $eax [$esp-4]
  • addi $esp,$esp,-4

  + Processor maintains x86 ISA externally for compatibility
  + But executes RISC µISA internally for implementability

• Given translator, x86 almost as easy to implement as RISC
  • Result: Intel implemented OoO before any RISC company
  • Also, OoO also benefits x86 more (because ISA limits compiler)
  • Idea co-opted by other x86 companies: AMD and Transmeta
More About Micro-ops

- Even better? Two forms of hardware translation
  - Hard-coded logic: fast, but complex
  - Table: slow, but “off to the side”, doesn’t complicate rest of machine

- x86: average 1.6 μops / x86 insn
  - Logic for common insns that translate into 1–4 μops
  - Table for rare insns that translate into 5+ μops

- x86-64: average 1.1 μops / x86 insn
  - More registers (can pass parameters too), fewer pushes/pops
  - Core2: logic for 1–2 μops, Table for 3+ μops?

- More recent: “macro-op fusion” and “micro-op fusion”
  - Intel’s recent processors fuse certain instruction pairs

Ultimate Compatibility Trick

- Support old ISA by...
  - ...having a simple processor for that ISA somewhere in the system
  - How first Itanium supported x86 code
    - x86 processor (comparable to Pentium) on chip
  - How PlayStation2 supported PlayStation games
    - Used PlayStation processor for I/O chip & emulation

Translation and Virtual ISAs

- New compatibility interface: ISA + translation software
  - Binary-translation: transform static image, run native
  - Emulation: unmodified image, interpret each dynamic insn
    - Typically optimized with just-in-time (JIT) compilation
    - Examples: FXI32 (x86 on Alpha), Rosetta (PowerPC on x86)
    - Performance overheads reasonable (many recent advances)

- Virtual ISAs: designed for translation, not direct execution
  - Target for high-level compiler (one per language)
  - Source for low-level translator (one per ISA)
  - Goals: Portability (abstract hardware nastiness), flexibility over time
  - Examples: Java Bytecodes, C# CLR (Common Language Runtime)

Transmeta’s Take: Code Morphing

- Code morphing: x86 translation in software
  - Crusoe/Astro are x86 emulators, no actual x86 hardware anywhere
  - Only “code morphing” translation software written in native ISA
  - Native ISA is invisible to applications and even OS
  - Different Crusoe versions have (slightly) different ISAs: can’t tell
  - How was it done?
    - Code morphing software resides in boot read-only memory (ROM)
    - On startup, hijacks 16MB of main memory
    - Translator loaded into 512KB, rest is translation cache
    - Software starts running in interpreter mode
    - Interpreter profiles to find “hot” regions: procedures, loops
    - Hot region compiled to native, optimized, cached
    - Gradually, more and more of application starts running native
**Post-RISC: VLIW and EPIC**

- ISAs explicitly targeted for multiple-issue (superscalar) cores
  - VLIW: Very Long Insn Word
  - Later rebranded as “EPIC”: Explicitly Parallel Insn Computing

- Intel/HP IA64 (Itanium): 2000
  - EPIC: 128-bit 3-operation bundles
  - 128 64-bit registers
    - Some neat features: Full predication, explicit cache control
      - Predication: every instruction is conditional (to avoid branches)
    - But lots of difficult to use baggage as well: software speculation
      - Every new ISA feature suggested in last two decades
    - Relies on younger (less mature) compiler technology
    - Not doing well commercially

**ISA Research**

- Compatibility killed ISA research for a while
  - But binary translation/emulation has revived it

- Current ISA-related projects
  - "WaveScalar" [Washington], "TRIPS EDGE" [Texas]
  - Explicit dataflow ISAs (vonNeumann alternatives)
  - "Mini-graphs: Application-Specific RISC/CISC Hybrid" [Penn]
    - A programmable µISA: µISA/binary-rewriting hybrid
    - Similar project at Michigan too
  - DISE: Dynamic Instruction Stream Editor” [Corliss, Lewis, Roth]
    - A programmable µISA: µISA/binary-rewriting hybrid
  - "Hardbound” [Devietti, Blundell, Martin, Zdancewic]
    - Hardware support for bounds checking C programs

**Redux: Are ISAs Important?**

- Does “quality” of ISA actually matter?
  - Not for performance (mostly)
    - Mostly comes as a design complexity issue
    -Insn/program: everything is compiled, compilers are good
    - Cycles/insn and seconds/cycle: µISA, many other tricks
  - What about power efficiency?
    - Maybe
    - ARM is most power efficient today..
      - ...but Intel is moving x86 that way (e.g, Intel’s Atom)
  - Does “nastiness” of ISA matter?
    - Mostly no, only compiler writers and hardware designers see it
  - Even compatibility is not what it used to be
    - Software emulation

**Summary**

- What makes a good ISA
  - {Programm|Implement|Compat}-ability
  - Compatibility is a powerful force
  - Compatibility and implementability: µISAs, binary translation

- Aspects of ISAs
- CISC and RISC