CSC 252/452: Computer Organization Fall 2024: Lecture 10

Instructor: Yanan Guo

Department of Computer Science
University of Rochester

Announcement

- Programming Assignment 1 grade is out
 - You got a "0" if dlc could not compile your code
 - Mainly due to the "parse error"
 - Talk to a TA about this (within two weeks)

Announcement

- Programming Assignment 2
 - Details: https://www.cs.rochester.edu/courses/252/fall2024/labs/assignment2.html
 - Due on Oct. 2nd (Wednesday), 11:59 PM (extended two days)
 - You (may still) have 3 slip days
- Programming Assignment 3 will be released Wednesday instead

Announcement

- Midterm on Oct. 9th, Wednesday
 - Open-book; e-book allowed.
 - No cheat sheet.
 - Exams for CSC 252 and CSC 452 will be slightly different
 - More problems
 - Covers everything until today's lecture (Sep. 30th)
- Review Lecture (Oct. 7th, Monday)
 - Instructor traveling from Oct. 7th to Oct. 11th.
 - Lecture Recorded
- Taking a look at previous exams would help
 - On course website

Vulnerable Buffer Code

```
/* Echo Line */
void echo()
{
    char buf[4]; /* Way too small! */
    gets(buf);
    puts(buf);
}
```

```
void call_echo() {
    echo();
}
```

Vulnerable Buffer Code

```
/* Echo Line */
void echo()
{
    char buf[4]; /* Way too small! */
    gets(buf);
    puts(buf);
}
```

```
void call_echo() {
    echo();
}
```

```
unix>./bufdemo-nsp
Type a string:012345678901234567890123
012345678901234567890123
```

Vulnerable Buffer Code

```
/* Echo Line */
void echo()
{
    char buf[4]; /* Way too small! */
    gets(buf);
    puts(buf);
}
```

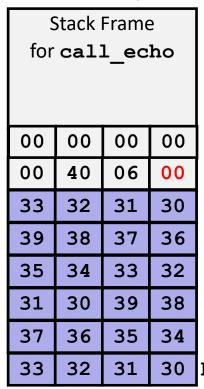
```
void call_echo() {
    echo();
}
```

```
unix>./bufdemo-nsp
Type a string:012345678901234567890123
012345678901234567890123
```

```
unix>./bufdemo-nsp
Type a string:0123456789012345678901234
Segmentation Fault
```

Buffer Overflow Stack Example

After call to gets



register_tm_clones:

```
400600:
                  %rsp,%rbp
          mov
400603:
                  %rax,%rdx
          mov
400606:
          shr
                  $0x3f,%rdx
40060a:
          add
                  %rdx,%rax
40060d:
          sar
                  %rax
400610:
                  400614
          jne
400612:
                  %rbp
          pop
400613:
          retq
```

buf ←—%rsp

"Returns" to unrelated code Could be code controlled by attackers!

What to do about buffer overflow attacks

- Avoid overflow vulnerabilities
- Have compiler use "stack canaries"
- Employ system-level protections

1. Avoid Overflow Vulnerabilities in Code (!)

```
/* Echo Line */
void echo()
{
    char buf[4]; /* Way too small! */
    fgets(buf, 4, stdin);
    puts(buf);
}
```

- For example, use library routines that limit string lengths
 - fgets instead of gets
 - strncpy instead of strcpy

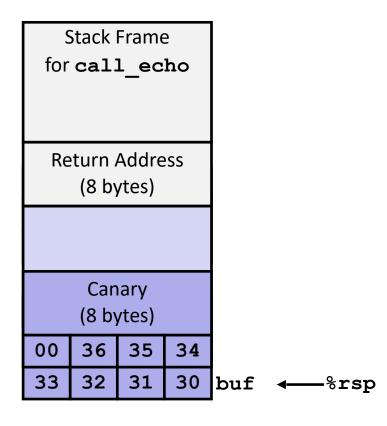
2. Stack Canaries can help

• Idea

- Place special value ("canary") on stack just beyond buffer
- Check for corruption before exiting function

GCC Implementation

- -fstack-protector
- Now the default (disabled earlier)



2. Stack Canaries can help

Idea

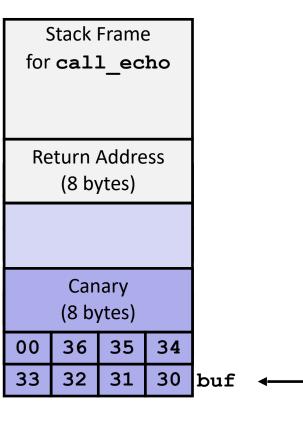
- Place special value ("canary") on stack just beyond buffer
- Check for corruption before exiting function

GCC Implementation

- -fstack-protector
- Now the default (disabled earlier)

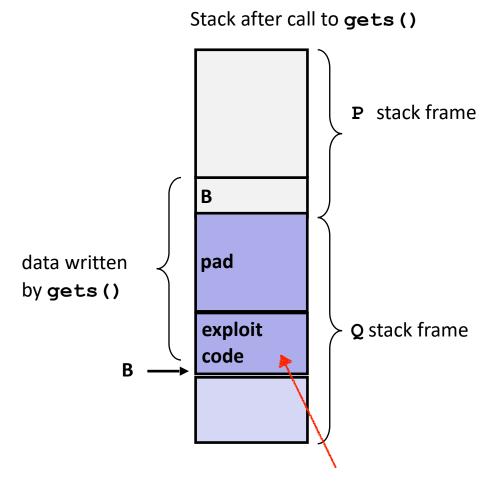
```
unix>./bufdemo-sp
Type a string:0123456
0123456
```

```
unix>./bufdemo-sp
Type a string:01234567
*** stack smashing detected ***
```



3. System-Level Protections can help

- Nonexecutable code segments
 - In traditional x86, can mark region of memory as either "read-only" or "writeable"
 - · Can execute anything readable
 - X86-64 added explicit "execute" permission
 - Stack marked as nonexecutable



Any attempt to execute this code will fail

Buffer Overflow Stack Example

After call to gets

Stack Frame for call_echo						
00	00	00	00			
00	40	06	00			
33	32	31	30			
39	38	37	36			
35	35 34 33 32					
31	31 30 39 38					
37	37 36 35 34					
33 32 31 30						

register_tm_clones:

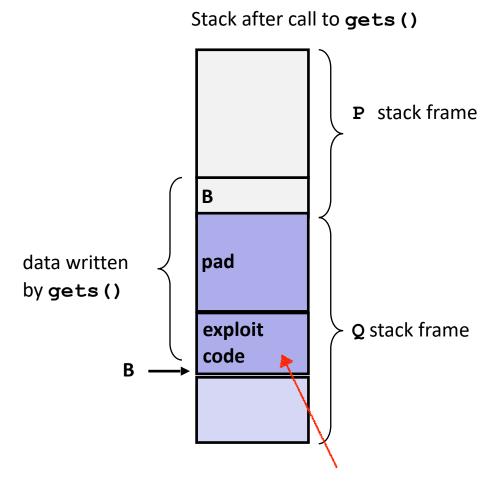
```
400600:
                 %rsp,%rbp
          mov
400603:
                 %rax,%rdx
          mov
400606:
                 $0x3f,%rdx
          shr
                 %rdx,%rax
40060a:
          add
40060d:
                 %rax
          sar
400610:
                 400614
          jne
400612:
                 %rbp
          pop
400613:
          retq
```

buf ←—%rsp

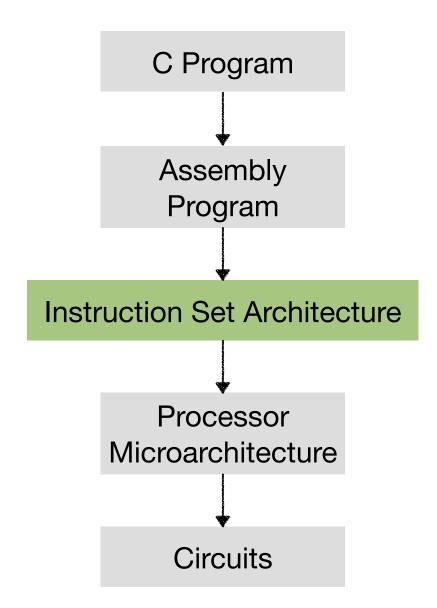
"Returns" to unrelated code Could be code controlled by attackers!

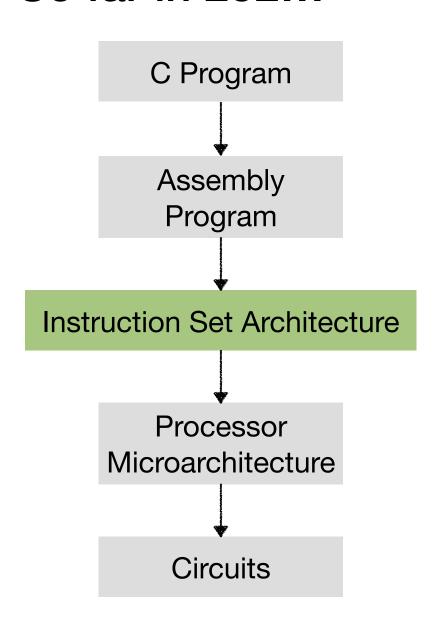
3. System-Level Protections can help

- Nonexecutable code segments
 - In traditional x86, can mark region of memory as either "read-only" or "writeable"
 - · Can execute anything readable
 - X86-64 added explicit "execute" permission
 - Stack marked as nonexecutable

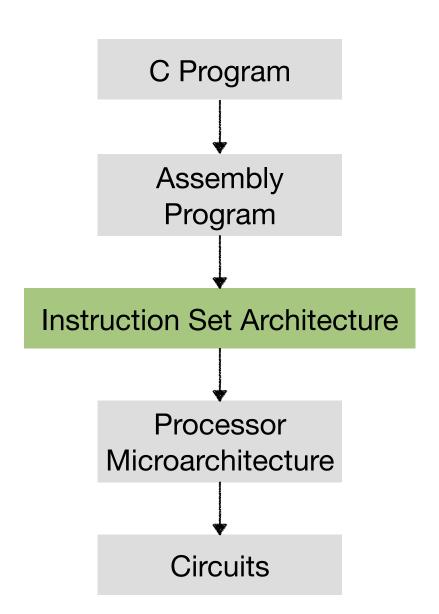


Any attempt to execute this code will fail



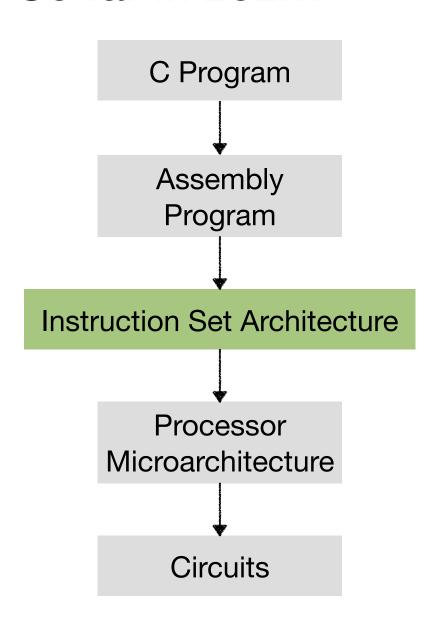


ret, call
movq, addq
jmp, jne



```
movq %rsi, %rax
imulq %rdx, %rax
jmp .done
```

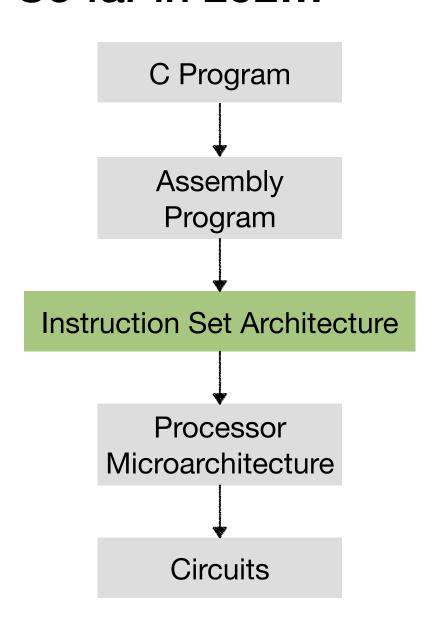
ret, call
movq, addq
jmp, jne



```
int, float
if, else
+, -, >>
```

```
movq %rsi, %rax
imulq %rdx, %rax
jmp .done
```

ret, call
movq, addq
jmp, jne

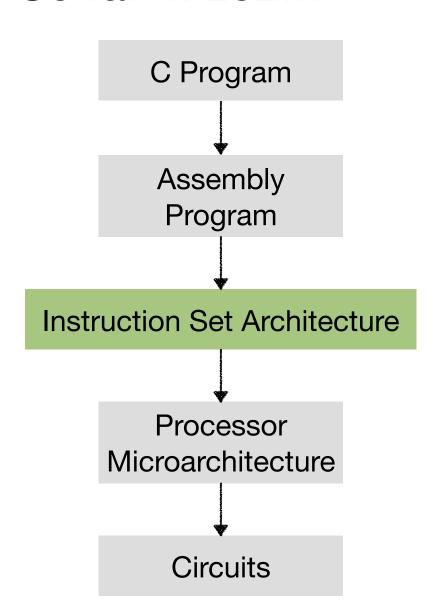


```
int, float
if, else
+, -, >>
```

```
movq %rsi, %rax
imulq %rdx, %rax
jmp .done
```

```
ret, call
movq, addq
jmp, jne
```

Logic gates



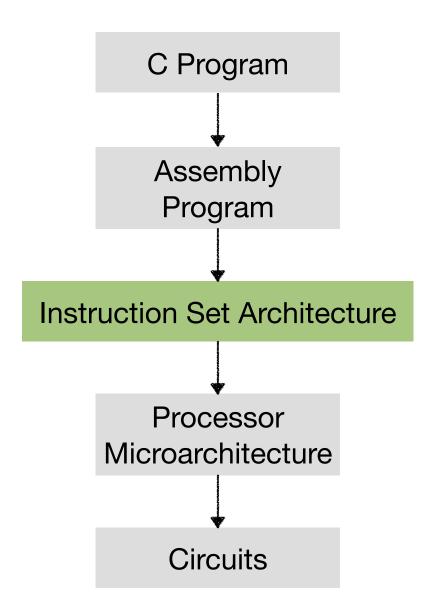
```
int, float
if, else
+, -, >>
```

```
movq %rsi, %rax
imulq %rdx, %rax
jmp .done
```

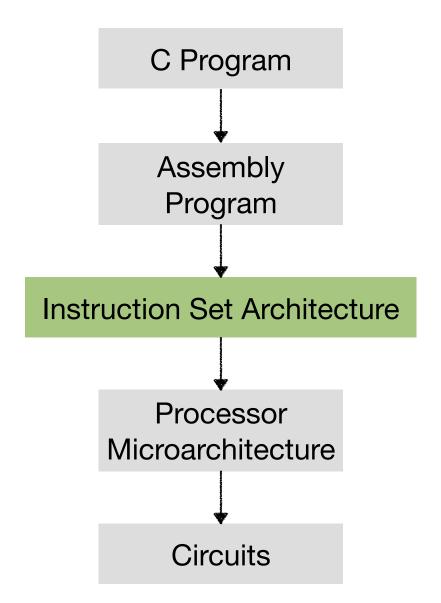
```
ret, call
movq, addq
jmp, jne
```

Logic gates

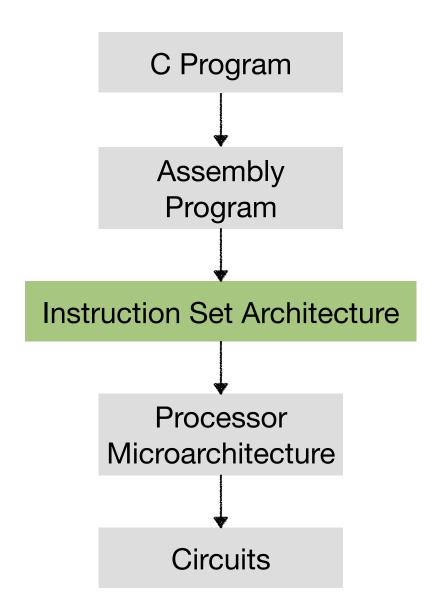
Transistors



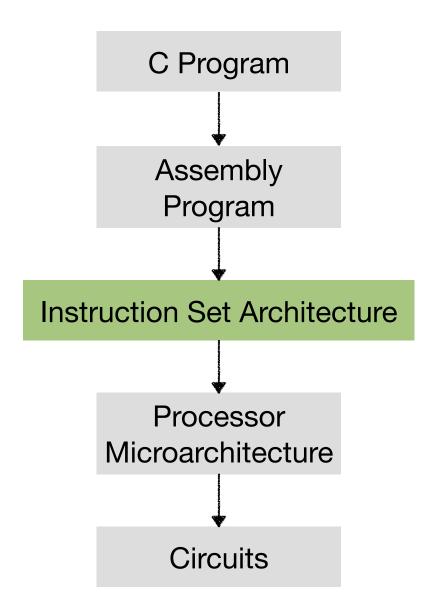
 ISA is the interface between assembly programs and microarchitecture



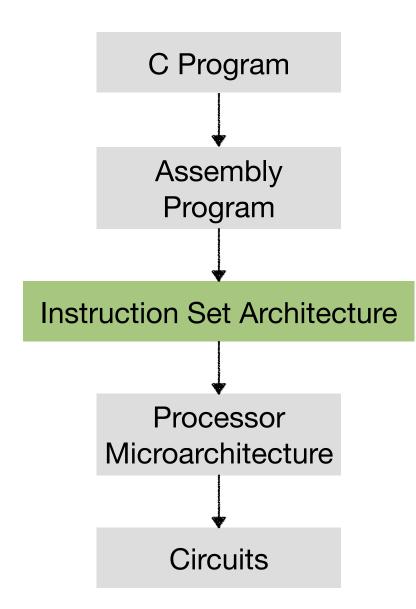
- ISA is the interface between assembly programs and microarchitecture
- Assembly view:



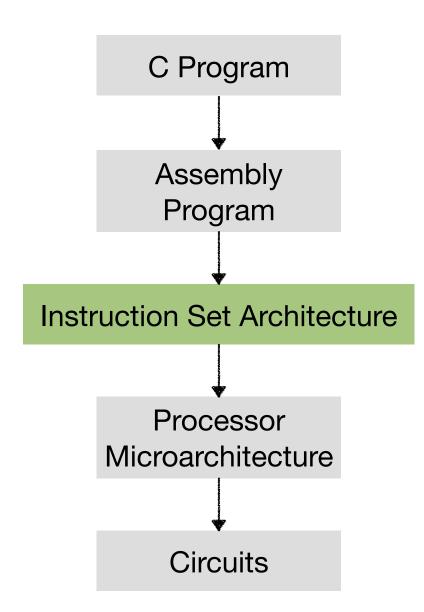
- ISA is the interface between assembly programs and microarchitecture
- Assembly view:
 - How to program the machine, based on instructions and processor states (registers, memory, condition codes, etc.)?



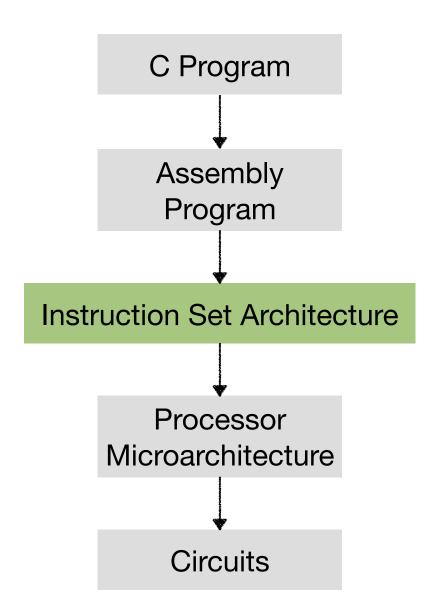
- ISA is the interface between assembly programs and microarchitecture
- Assembly view:
 - How to program the machine, based on instructions and processor states (registers, memory, condition codes, etc.)?
 - Instructions are executed sequentially.



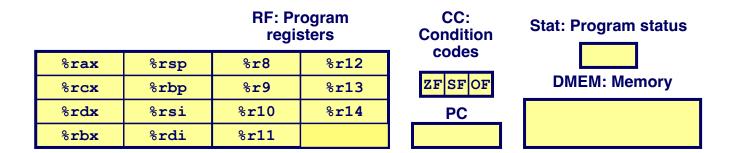
- ISA is the interface between assembly programs and microarchitecture
- Assembly view:
 - How to program the machine, based on instructions and processor states (registers, memory, condition codes, etc.)?
 - Instructions are executed sequentially.
- Microarchitecture view:



- ISA is the interface between assembly programs and microarchitecture
- Assembly view:
 - How to program the machine, based on instructions and processor states (registers, memory, condition codes, etc.)?
 - Instructions are executed sequentially.
- Microarchitecture view:
 - What hardware needs to be built to run assembly programs?



- ISA is the interface between assembly programs and microarchitecture
- Assembly view:
 - How to program the machine, based on instructions and processor states (registers, memory, condition codes, etc.)?
 - Instructions are executed sequentially.
- Microarchitecture view:
 - What hardware needs to be built to run assembly programs?
 - How to run programs as fast (energy-efficient) as possible?



 Processor state is what's visible to assembly programs. Also known as architecture state.

		RF: Program registers		Co	CC:	Stat: Program status
%rax	%rsp	%r8	%r12		odes	
%rcx	%rbp	% r9	%r13	ZF	SF OF	DMEM: Memory
%rdx	%rsi	%r10	%r14		PC	
%rbx	%rdi	%r11				

- Processor state is what's visible to assembly programs. Also known as architecture state.
- Program Registers: 15 registers.

		RF: Program registers		CC: Condition	Stat: Program status
%rax	%rsp	% r8	%r12	codes	
%rcx	%rbp	% r9	%r13	ZF SF OF	DMEM: Memory
%rdx	%rsi	%r10	%r14	PC	
%rbx	%rdi	%r11			

- Processor state is what's visible to assembly programs. Also known as architecture state.
- Program Registers: 15 registers.
- Condition Codes: Single-bit flags set by arithmetic or logical instructions (ZF, SF, OF)

		RF: Program registers		CC: Condition	Stat: Program status
%rax	%rsp	% r8	%r12	codes	
%rcx	%rbp	% r9	%r13	ZF SF OF	DMEM: Memory
%rdx	%rsi	%r10	%r14	PC_	
%rbx	%rdi	%r11			

- Processor state is what's visible to assembly programs. Also known as architecture state.
- Program Registers: 15 registers.
- Condition Codes: Single-bit flags set by arithmetic or logical instructions (ZF, SF, OF)
- Program Counter: Indicates address of next instruction

		RF: Program registers		CO Condi	tion	Stat: Program status
%rax	%rsp	% r8	%r12	cod		
%rcx	%rbp	% r9	%r13	ZF SE	OF	DMEM: Memory
%rdx	%rsi	%r10	% r14	PC	<u>; </u>	
%rbx	%rdi	%r11				

- Processor state is what's visible to assembly programs. Also known as architecture state.
- Program Registers: 15 registers.
- Condition Codes: Single-bit flags set by arithmetic or logical instructions (ZF, SF, OF)
- Program Counter: Indicates address of next instruction
- Program Status: Indicates either normal operation or error condition

		RF: Program registers		CC: Condition	Stat: Program status
%rax	%rsp	% r8	%r12	codes	
%rcx	%rbp	% r9	%r13	ZF SF OF	DMEM: Memory
%rdx	%rsi	%r10	%r14	PC	
%rbx	%rdi	%r11			

- Processor state is what's visible to assembly programs. Also known as architecture state.
- Program Registers: 15 registers.
- Condition Codes: Single-bit flags set by arithmetic or logical instructions (ZF, SF, OF)
- Program Counter: Indicates address of next instruction
- Program Status: Indicates either normal operation or error condition
- Memory
 - Byte-addressable storage array
 - Words stored in little-endian byte order

Why Have Instructions?

Why do we need an ISA? Can we directly program the hardware?

Why Have Instructions?

- Why do we need an ISA? Can we directly program the hardware?
- Simplifies interface
 - Software knows what is available
 - Hardware knows what needs to be implemented

Why Have Instructions?

- Why do we need an ISA? Can we directly program the hardware?
- Simplifies interface
 - Software knows what is available
 - Hardware knows what needs to be implemented
- Abstraction protects software and hardware
 - Software can run on new machines
 - Hardware can run old software

Why Have Instructions?

- Why do we need an ISA? Can we directly program the hardware?
- Simplifies interface
 - Software knows what is available
 - Hardware knows what needs to be implemented
- Abstraction protects software and hardware
 - Software can run on new machines
 - Hardware can run old software
- Alternatives: Application-Specific Integrated Circuits (ASIC)
 - No instructions, (largely) not programmable, fixed-functioned, so no instruction fetch, decoding, etc.
 - So could be implemented extremely efficiently.
 - Examples: video/audio codec, (conventional) image signal processors, (conventional) IP packet router

Today: Instruction Encoding

- How to translate assembly instructions to binary
 - Essentially how an assembler works
- Using the Y86-64 ISA: Simplified version of x86-64

How are Instructions Encoded in Binary?

- Remember that instructions are stored in memory as bits (just like data)
- Each instruction is fetched (according to the address specified in the PC), decoded, and executed by the CPU
- The ISA defines the format of an instruction (syntax) and its meaning (semantics)
- Idea: encode the two major fields, opcode and operand, separately in bits.
 - The OPCODE field says what the instruction does (e.g. ADD)
 - The OPERAND field(s) say where to find inputs and outputs

Y86-64 Instructions

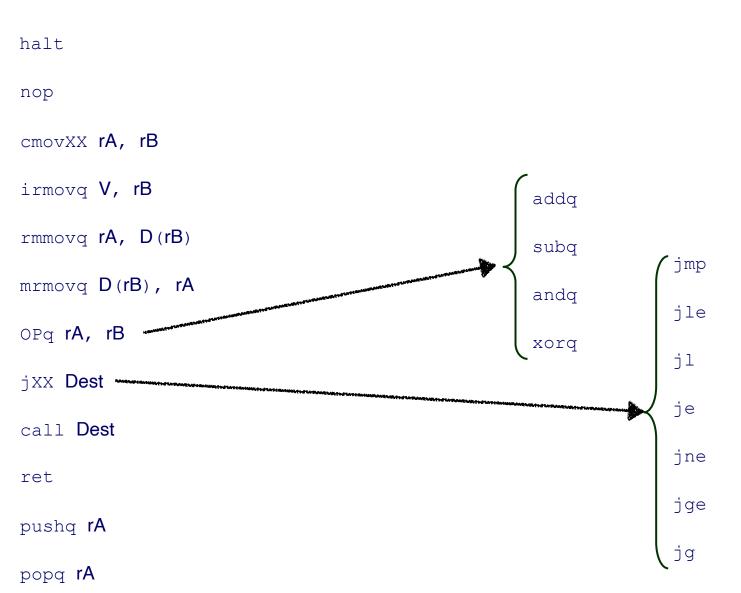
```
halt
nop
cmovXX rA, rB
irmovq V, rB
rmmovq rA, D(rB)
mrmovq D(rB), rA
OPq rA, rB
jxx Dest
call Dest
ret
pushq rA
```

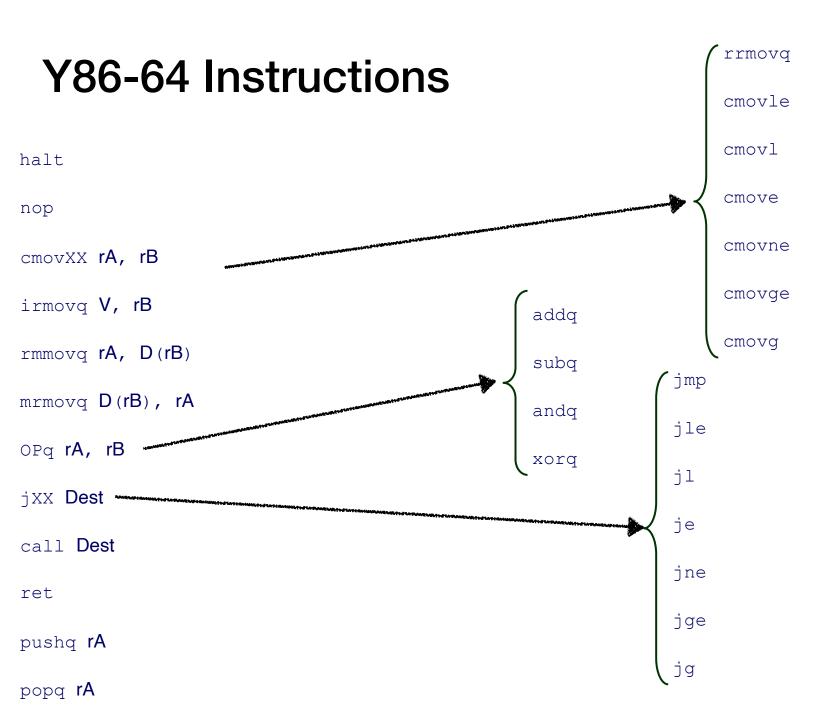
popq rA

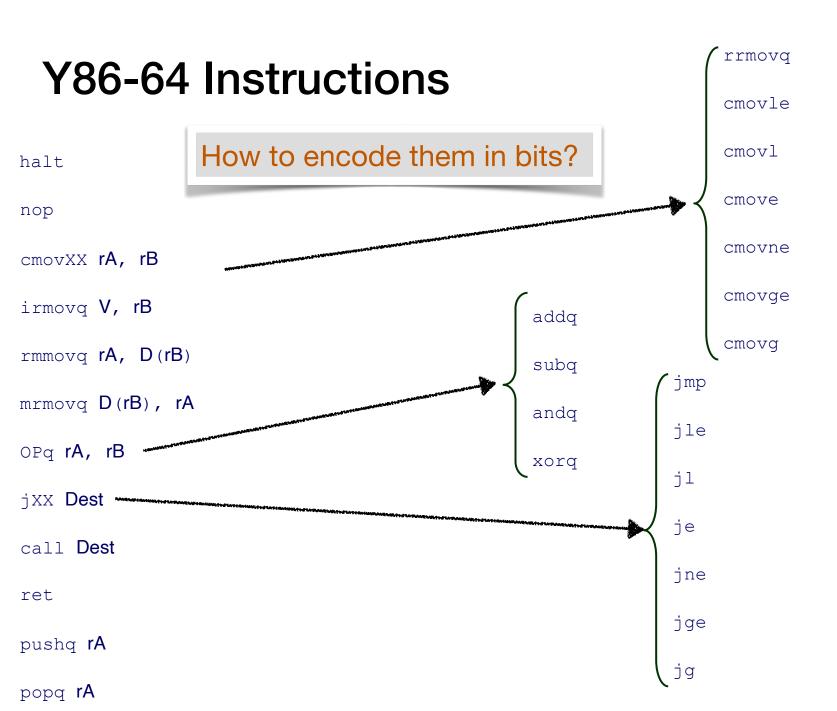
Y86-64 Instructions

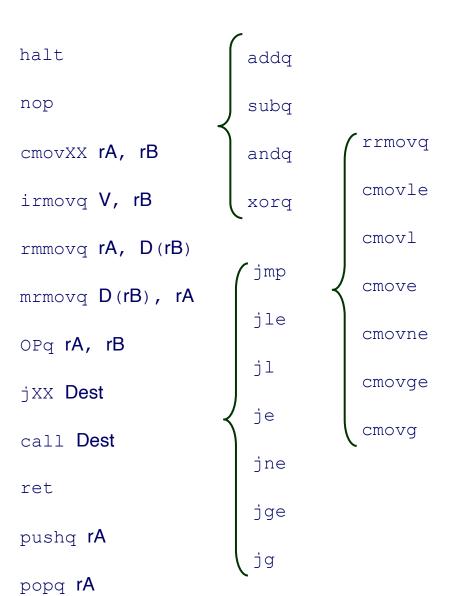
```
halt
nop
cmovXX rA, rB
irmovq V, rB
rmmovq rA, D(rB)
mrmovq D(rB), rA
OPq rA, rB
jxx Dest ---
call Dest
                                                               jne
ret
pushq rA
popq rA
```

Y86-64 Instructions

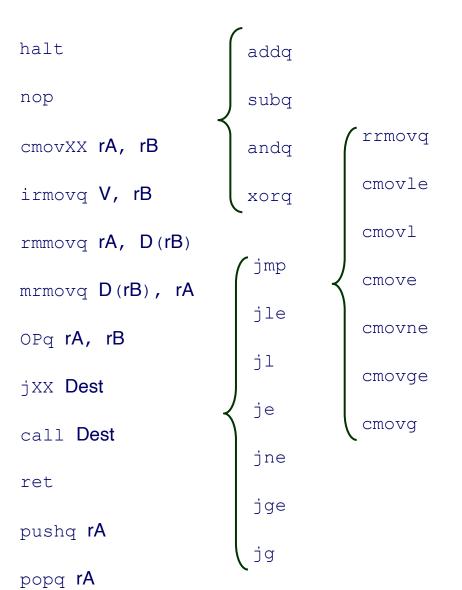








 27 Instructions, so need 5 bits for encoding the operand



- 27 Instructions, so need 5 bits for encoding the operand
- Or: group similar instructions, use one opcode for them, and then use more bits to indicate specific instructions within a group.

```
halt
nop
cmovXX rA, rB
irmovq V, rB
rmmovq rA, D(rB)
mrmovq D(rB), rA
OPa rA, rB
jxx Dest
call Dest
ret
pushq rA
popq rA
```

```
addq
subq
           rrmovq
andq
           cmovle
xorq
           cmovl
jmp
           cmove
jle
           cmovne
jl
           cmovae
jе
           cmova
```

jne

jqe

jg

- 27 Instructions, so need 5 bits for encoding the operand
- Or: group similar instructions, use one opcode for them, and then use more bits to indicate specific instructions within a group.
- E.g., 12 categories, so 4 bits

```
halt
nop
cmovXX rA, rB
irmovq V, rB
rmmovq rA, D(rB)
mrmovq D(rB), rA
OPa rA, rB
jxx Dest
call Dest
ret
pushq rA
popq rA
```

```
addq
subq
           rrmovq
andq
           cmovle
xorq
           cmovl
jmp
           cmove
jle
           cmovne
jl
           cmovae
jе
           cmovq
jne
```

jqe

jg

- 27 Instructions, so need 5 bits for encoding the operand
- Or: group similar instructions, use one opcode for them, and then use more bits to indicate specific instructions within a group.
- E.g., 12 categories, so 4 bits
- There are four instructions within the OPq category, so additional
 2 bits. Similarly, 3 more bits for jxx and cmovxx, respectively.

```
halt
nop
cmovXX rA, rB
irmovq V, rB
rmmovq rA, D(rB)
mrmovq D(rB), rA
OPa rA, rB
jxx Dest
call Dest
ret
pushq rA
popq rA
```

```
addq
subq
           rrmovq
andq
           cmovle
xorq
           cmovl
jmp
           cmove
jle
           cmovne
jl
           cmovae
jе
           cmovq
jne
```

jqe

jg

- 27 Instructions, so need 5 bits for encoding the operand
- Or: group similar instructions, use one opcode for them, and then use more bits to indicate specific instructions within a group.
- E.g., 12 categories, so 4 bits
- There are four instructions within the OPq category, so additional
 2 bits. Similarly, 3 more bits for jxx and cmovxx, respectively.
- Which one is better???

Byte halt. nop cmovXX rA, rB fn irmovq V, rB rmmovq rA, D(rB)mrmovq D(rB), rAOPa rA, rB fn jxx Dest fn call Dest ret pushq rA

popq rA

- Design decision chosen by the textbook authors (don't have to be this way!)
 - Use 4 bits to encode the instruction category
 - Another 4 bits to encode the specific instructions within a category
 - So 1 bytes for encoding opcode
 - Is this better than the alternative of using 5 bits without classifying instructions?
 - Trade-offs.

4

Encoding Registers

Each register has 4-bit ID

- Same encoding as in x86-64
- Register ID 15 (0xF) indicates "no register"

%rax	0
%rcx	1
%rdx	2
%rbx	3
%rsp	4
%rbp	5
%rsi	6
%rdi	7

8
9
A
В
С
D
E
F

Encoding Registers

Byte	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
halt	0 0									
nop	1 0									
cmovXX rA, rB	2 fn	rA rB								
irmovq V, rB	3 0	F rB	3							
rmmovq rA, D(rB)	4 0	rA rB	3							
mrmovq D(rB), rA	5 0	rA rB								
OPq rA, rB	6 fn	rA rB	3							
jxx Dest	7 fn									
call Dest	8 0									
ret	9 0									
pushq rA	A 0	rA F								
popq rA	В 0	rA F								

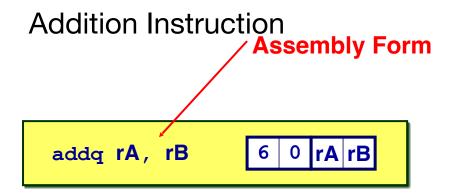
Instruction Example

Addition Instruction

```
addq rA, rB 6 0 rA rB
```

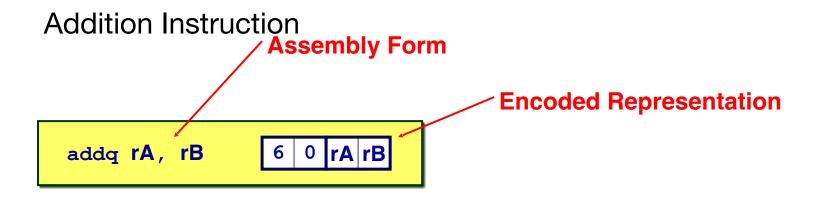
- Add value in register rA to that in register rB
 - Store result in register rB
- Set condition codes based on result
- e.g., addq %rax, %rsi Encoding: 60 06
- Two-byte encoding
 - First indicates instruction type
 - Second gives source and destination registers

Instruction Example



- Add value in register rA to that in register rB
 - Store result in register rB
- Set condition codes based on result
- e.g., addq %rax, %rsi Encoding: 60 06
- Two-byte encoding
 - First indicates instruction type
 - Second gives source and destination registers

Instruction Example



- Add value in register rA to that in register rB
 - Store result in register rB
- Set condition codes based on result
- e.g., addq %rax, %rsi Encoding: 60 06
- Two-byte encoding
 - First indicates instruction type
 - Second gives source and destination registers

Arithmetic and Logical Operations

Add



Subtract (rA from rB)

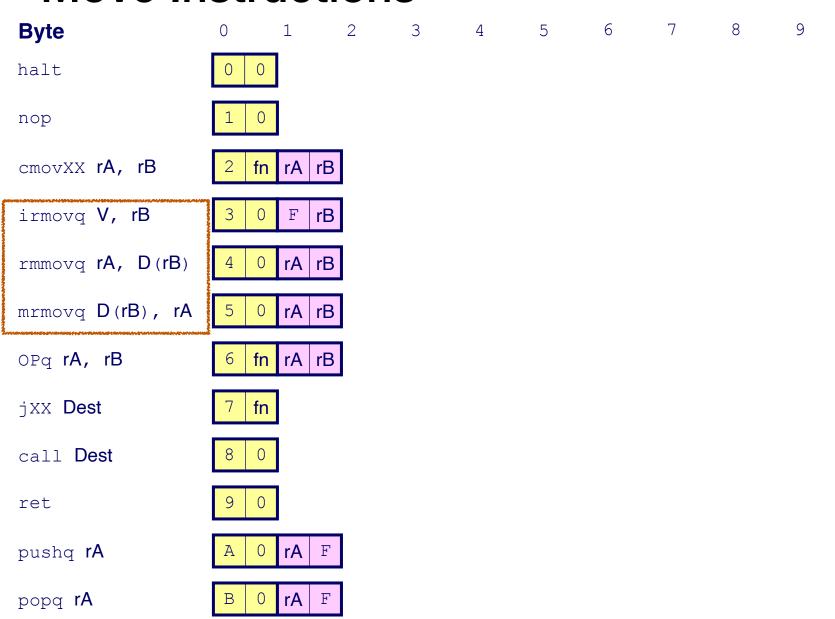


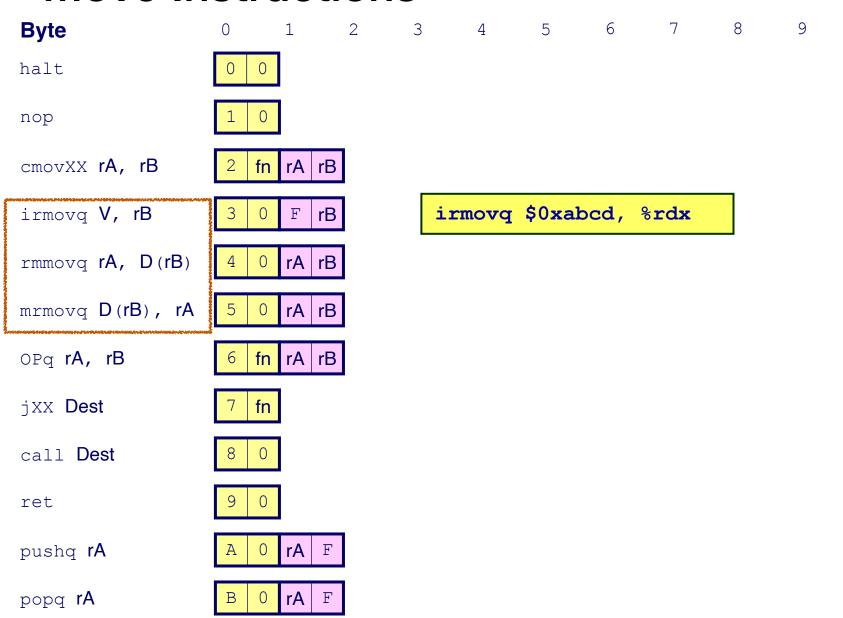
- Refer to generically as "OPq"
- Encodings differ only by "function code"
 - Low-order 4 bits in first instruction byte
- Set condition codes as side effect

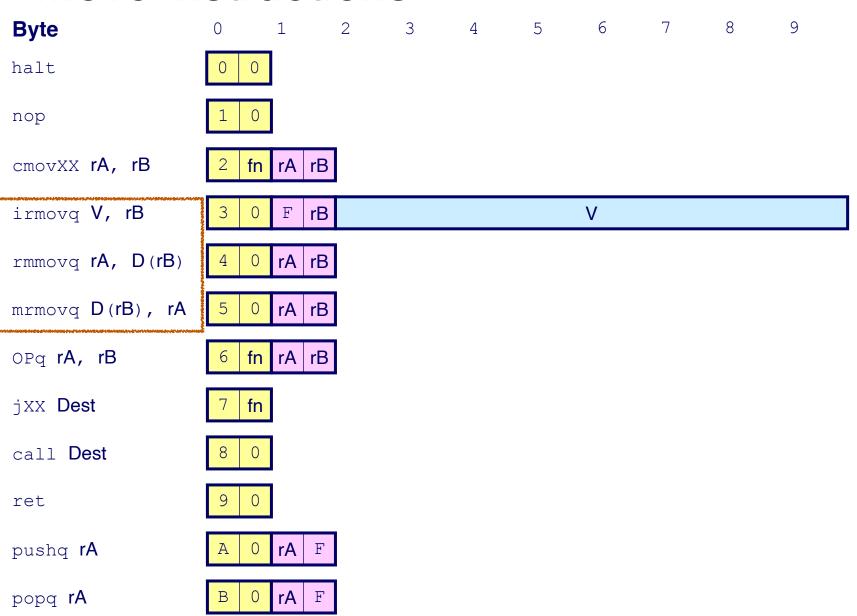
And

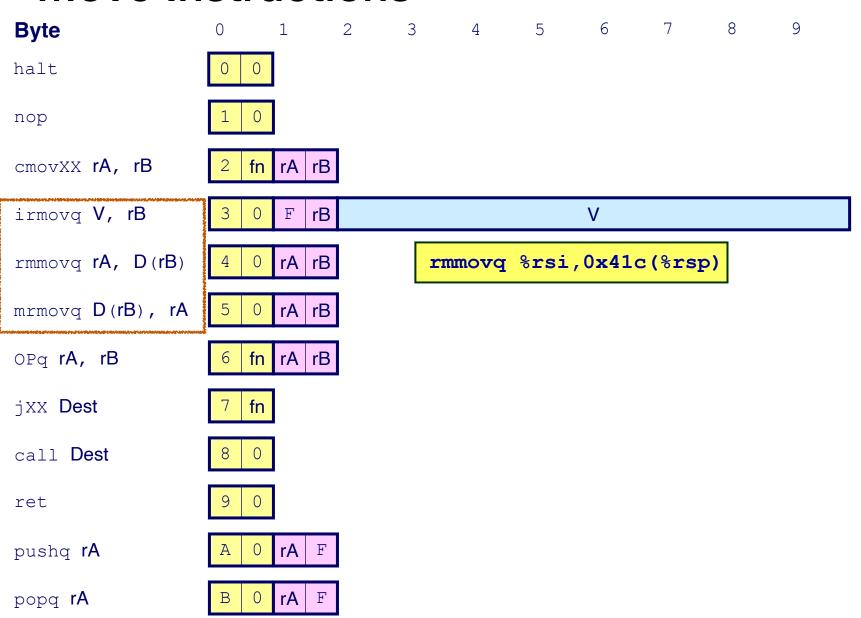
Exclusive-Or

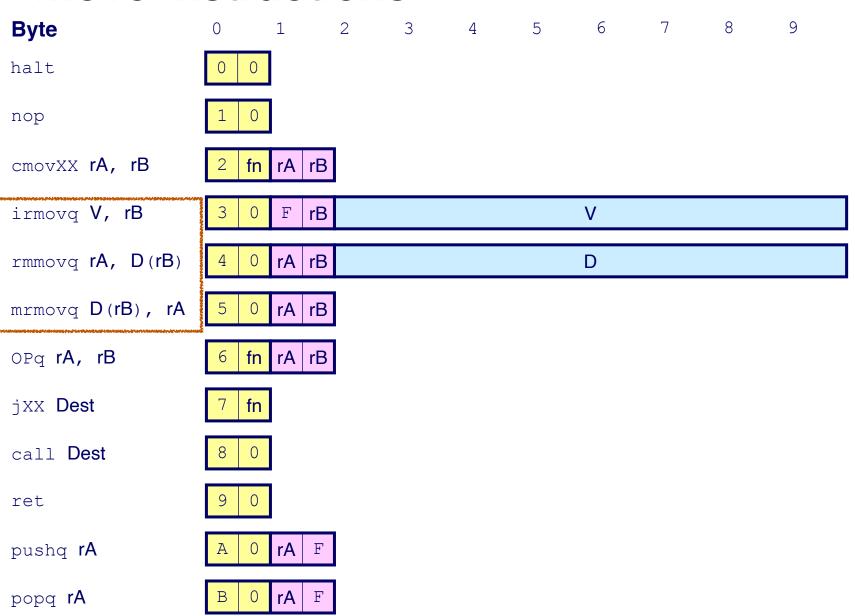
xorq rA, rB 6 3 rA rB

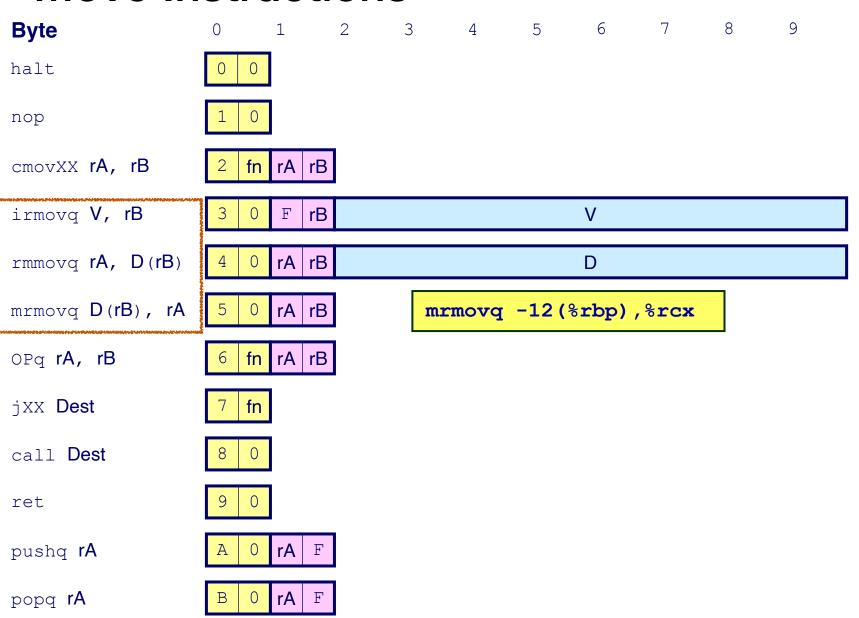


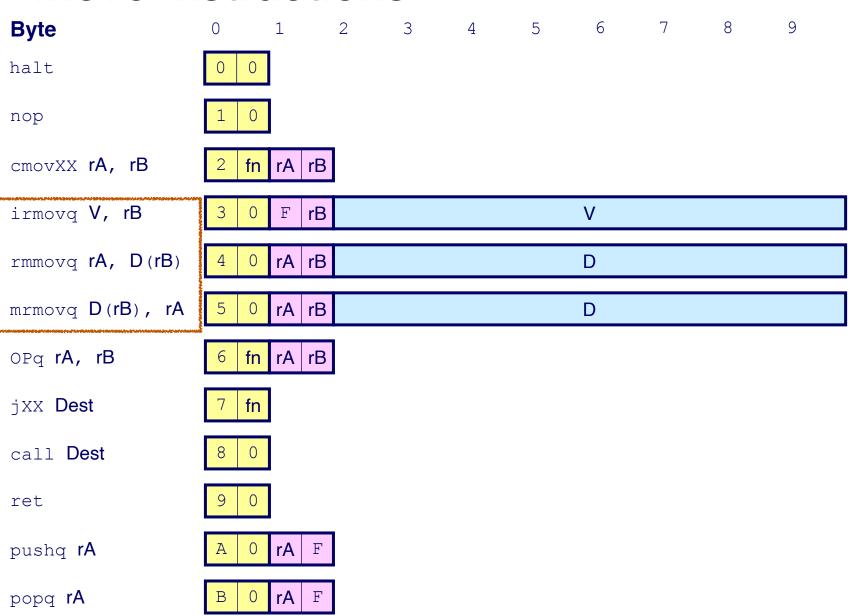


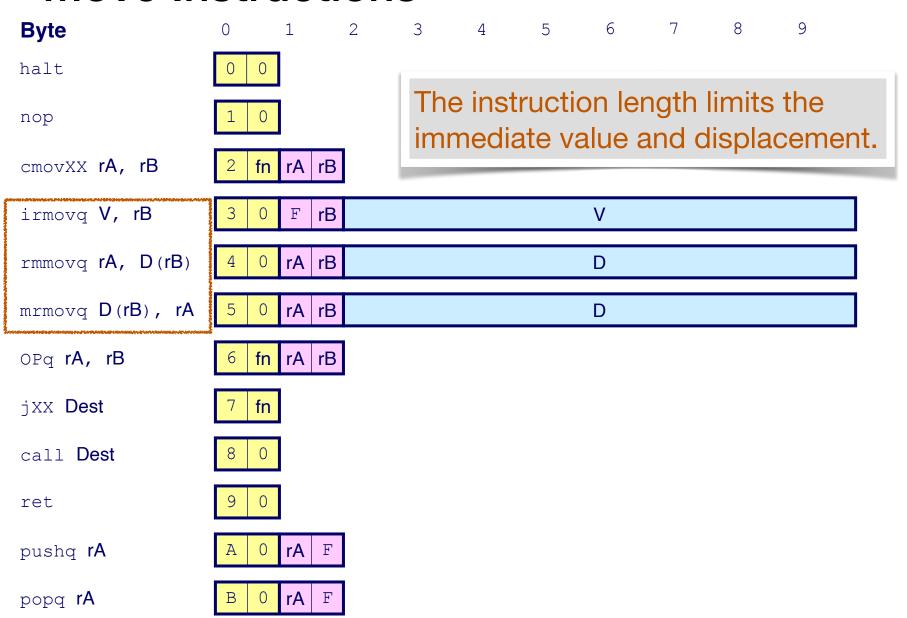












Move Instruction Examples

Y86-64

```
irmovq $0xabcd, %rdx
```

Encoding: 30 f2 cd ab 00 00 00 00 00 00

```
rrmovq %rsp, %rbx
```

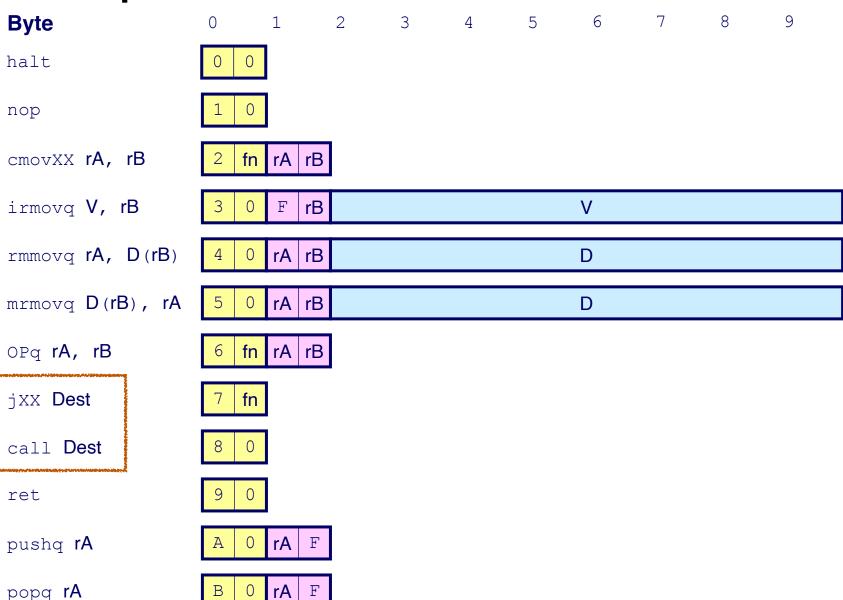
Encoding: 20 43

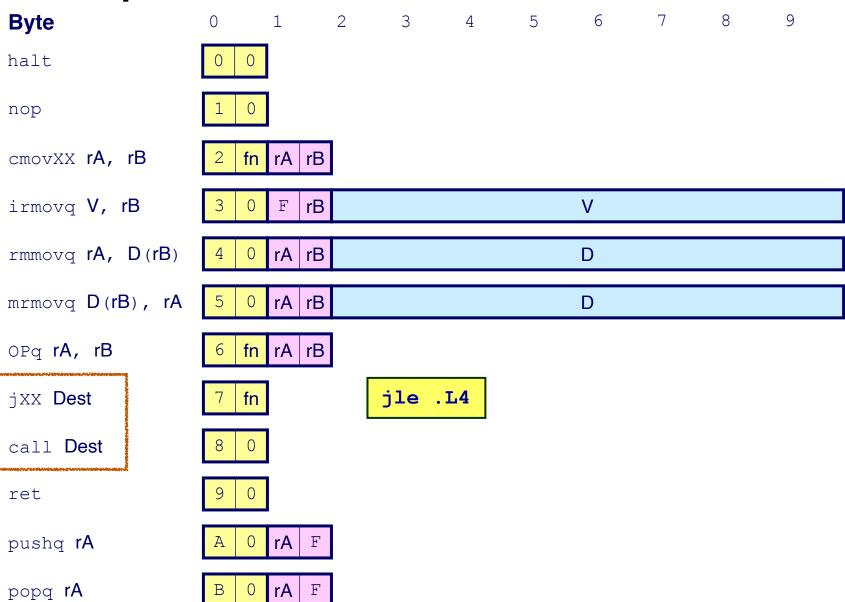
mrmovq -12(%rbp),%rcx

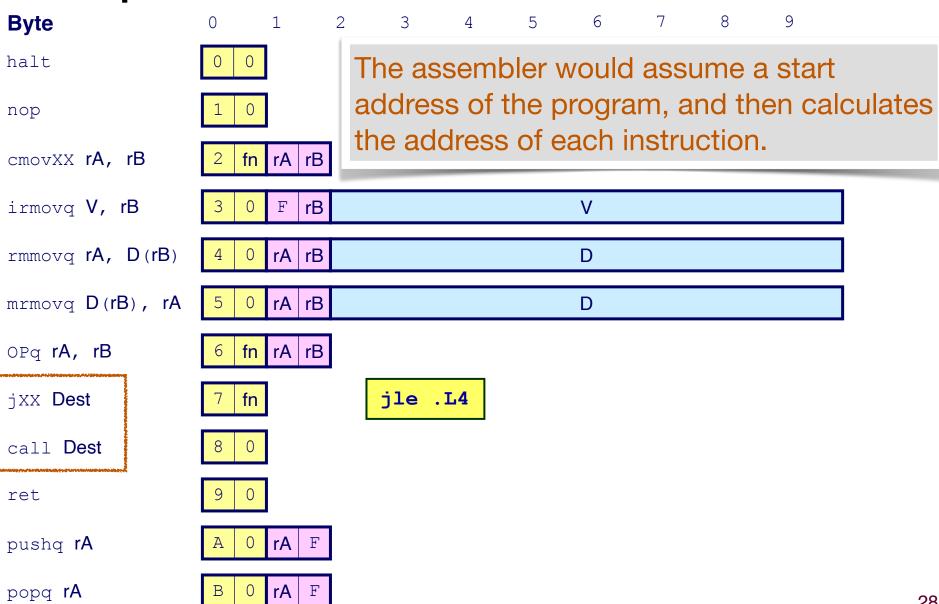
Encoding: 50 15 f4 ff ff ff ff ff ff

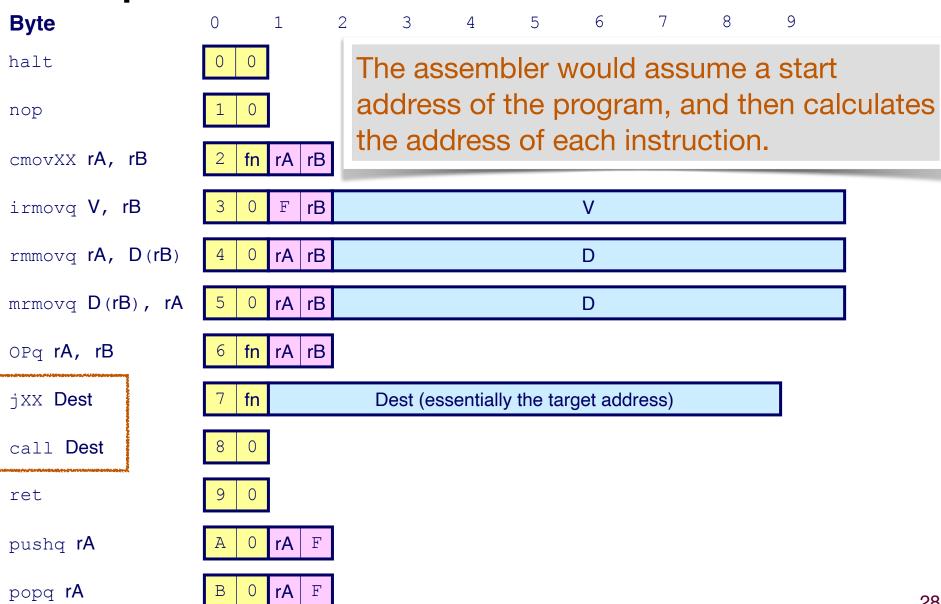
rmmovq %rsi,0x41c(%rsp)

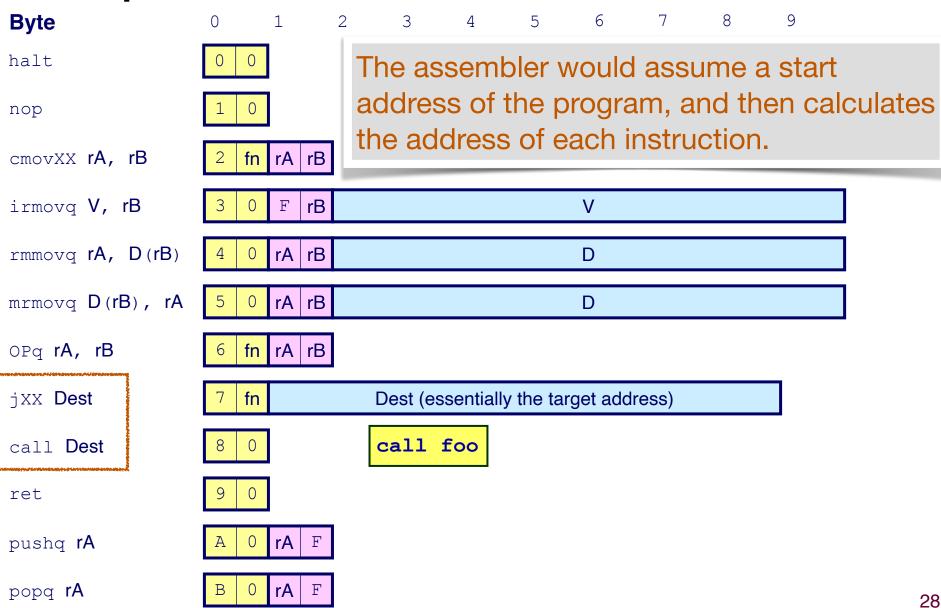
Encoding: 40 64 1c 04 00 00 00 00 00 00

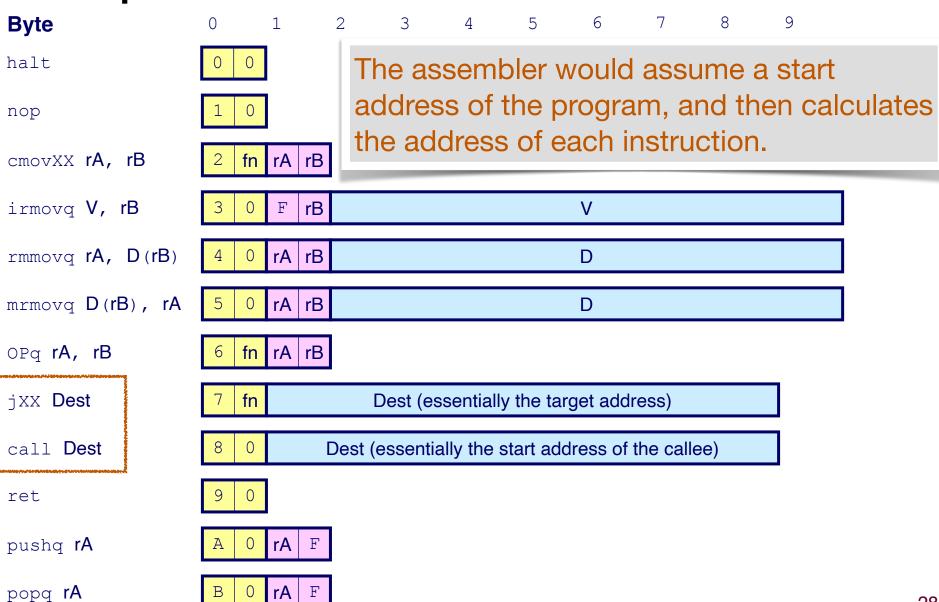


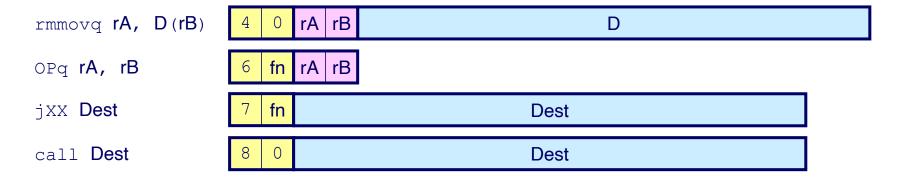


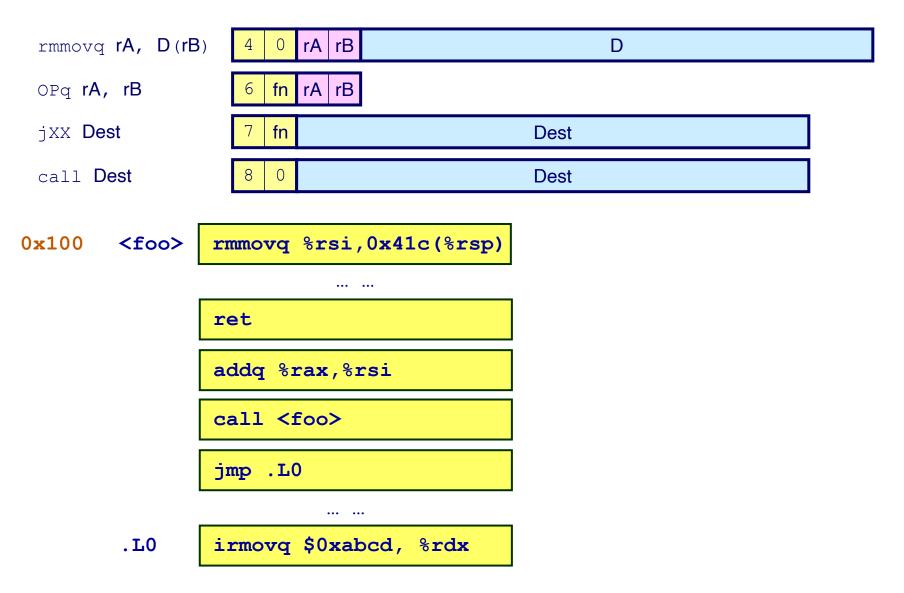


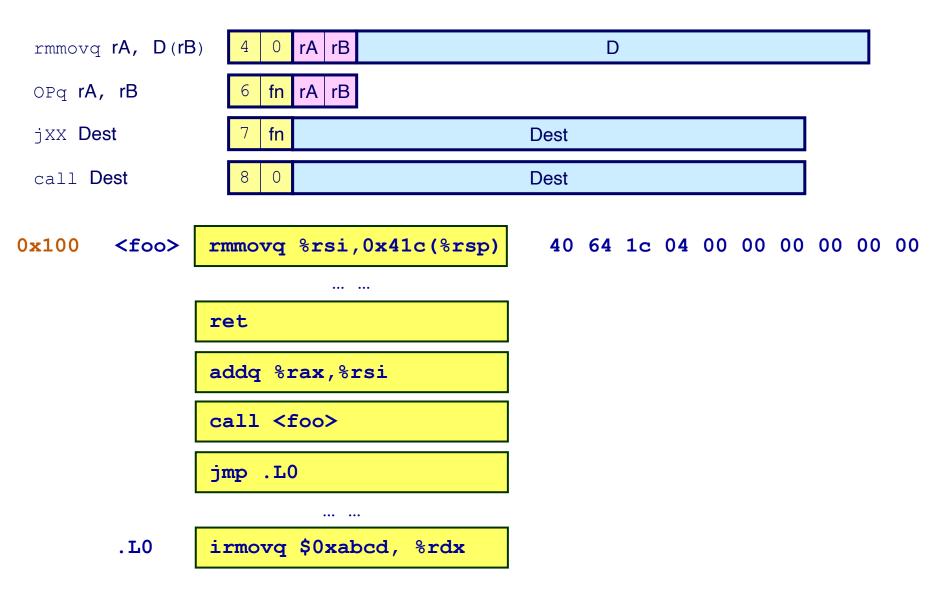


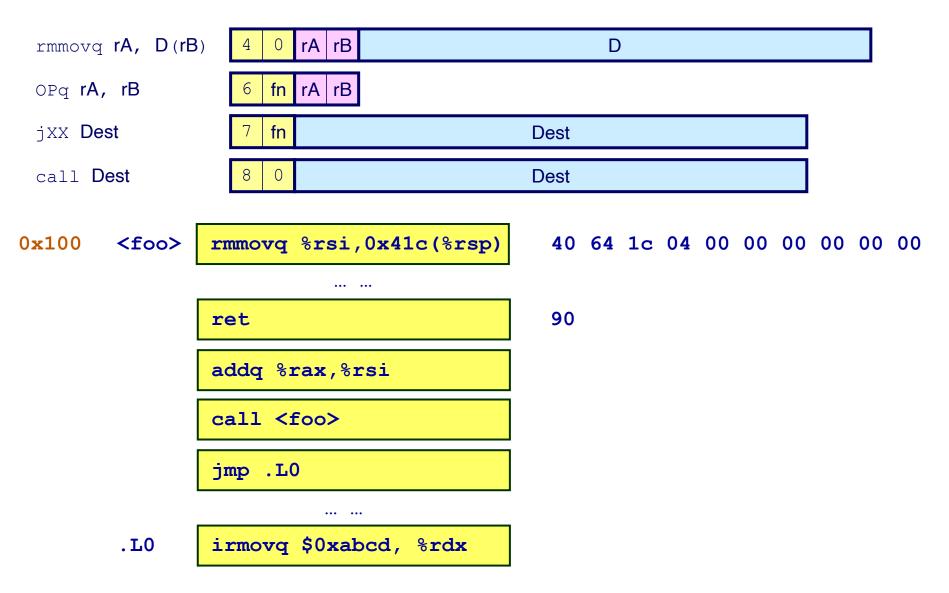


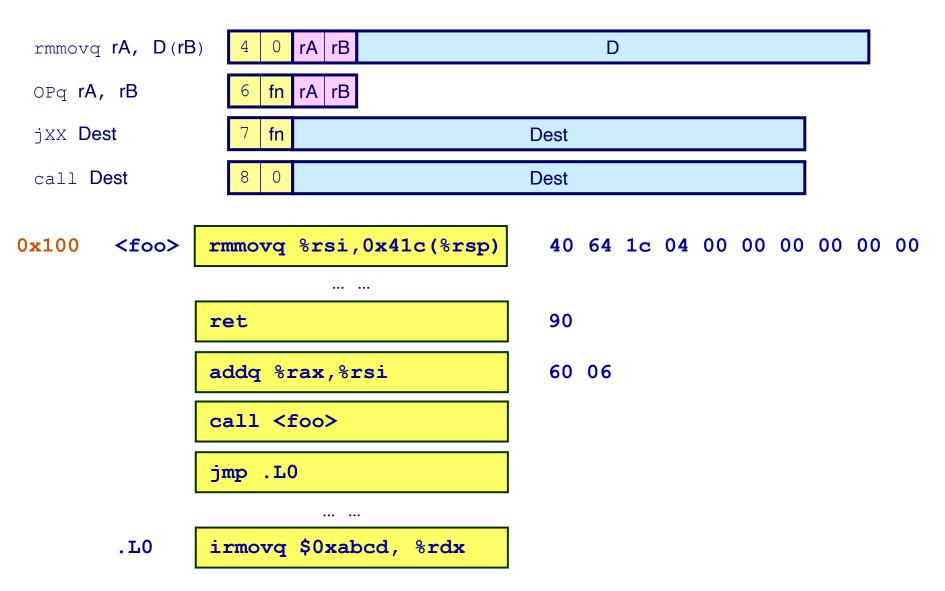


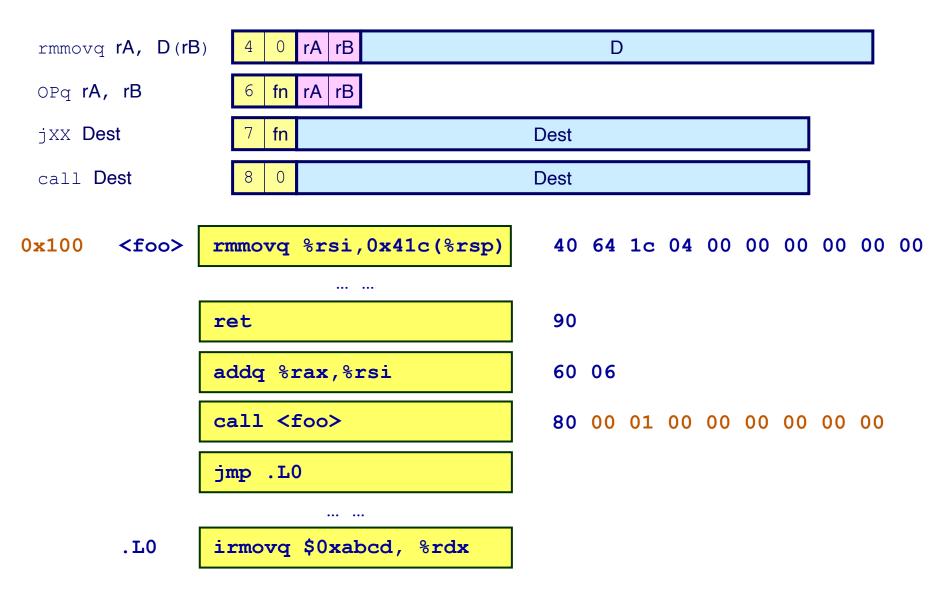


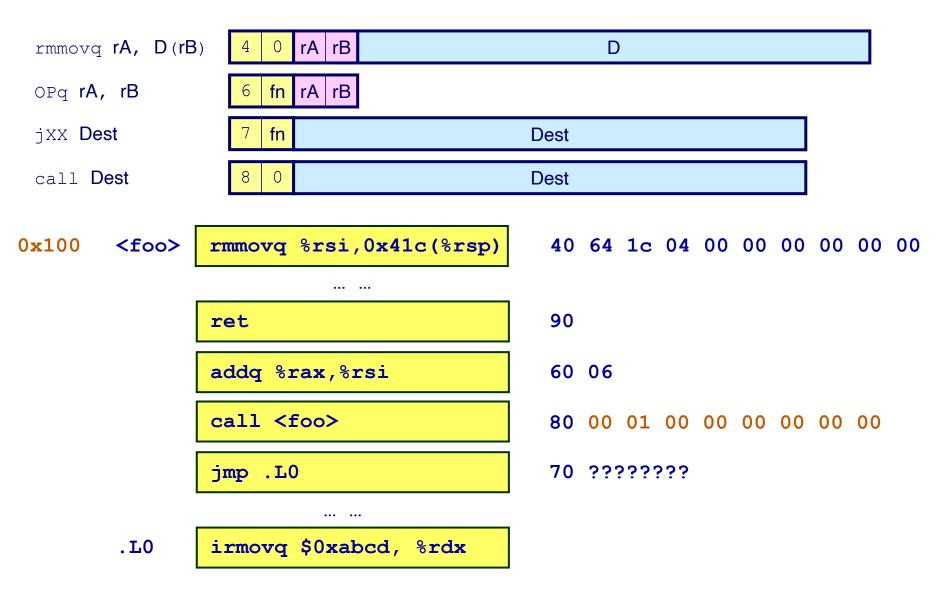


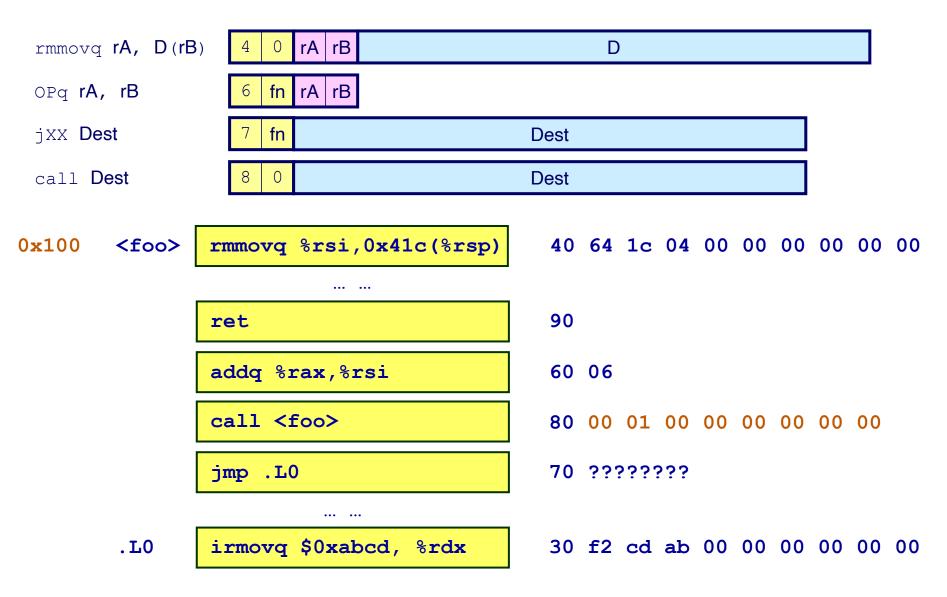


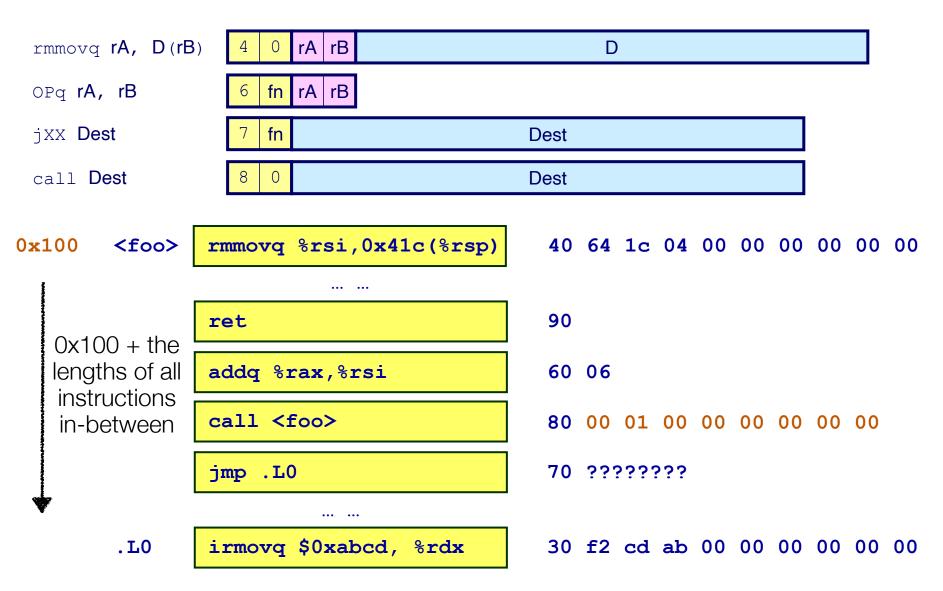


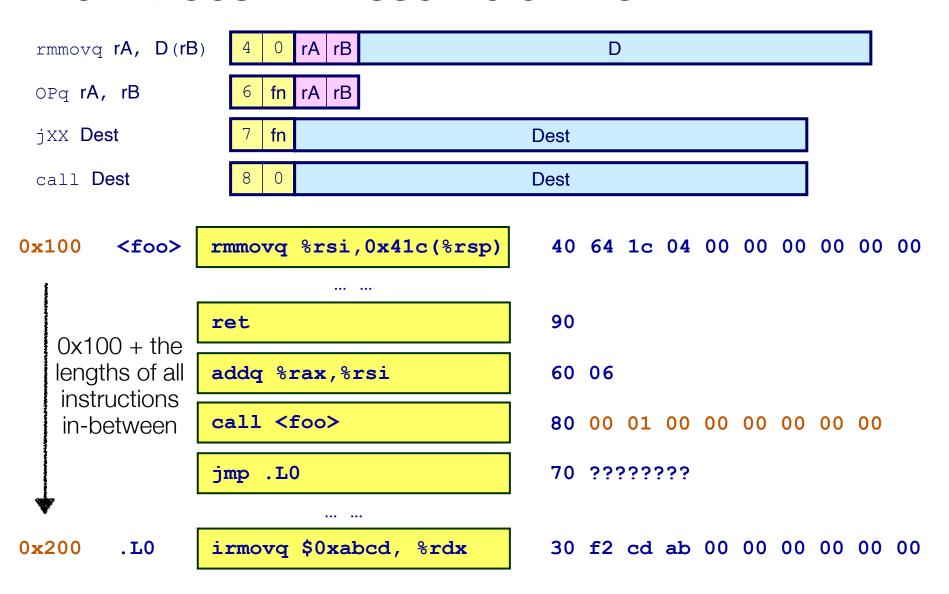


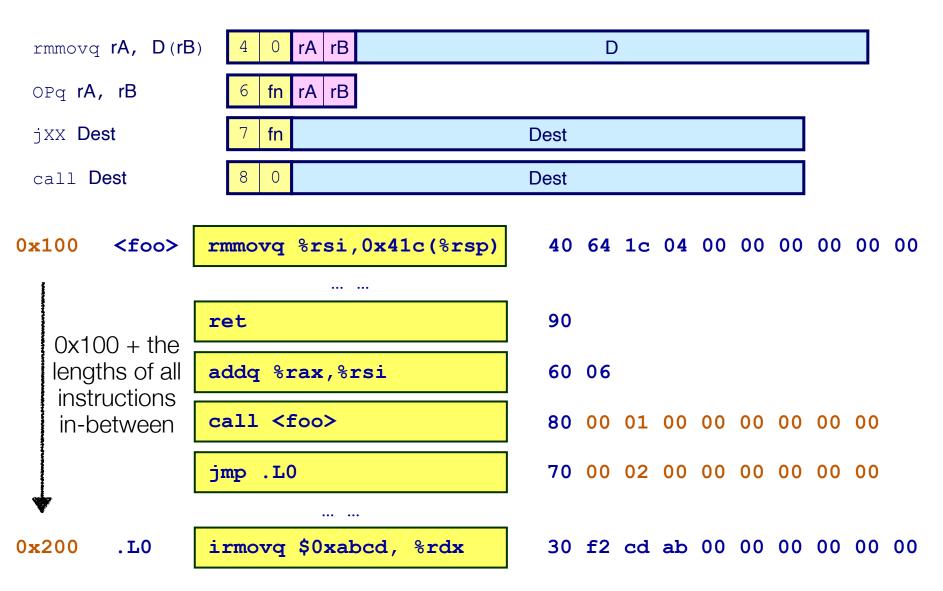




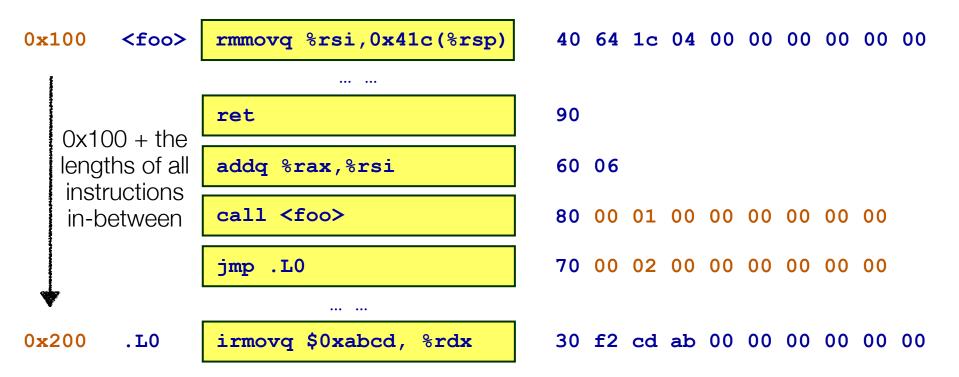








- The assembler is a program that translates assembly code to binary code
- The OS tells the assembler the start address of the code (sort of...)
- Translate the assembly program line by line
- Need to build a "label map" that maps each label to its address



Jump Instructions

Jump Uncon	ditionally								
jmp Dest	7 0	Dest							
Jump When Less or Equal									
jle Des t	7 1	Dest							
Jump When Less									
jl Dest	7 2	Dest							
Jump When Equal									
je Des t	7 3	Dest							
Jump When Not Equal									
jne Dest	7 4	Dest							
Jump When Greater or Equal									
jge <mark>Dest</mark>	7 5	Dest							
Jump When Greater									
jg Dest	7 6	Dest							

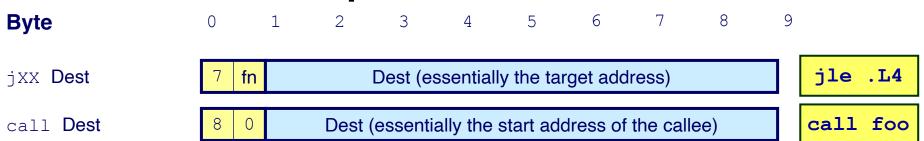
Subroutine Call and Return

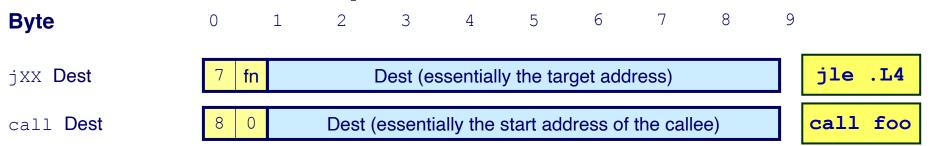


- Push address of next instruction onto stack
- Start executing instructions at Dest
- Like x86-64

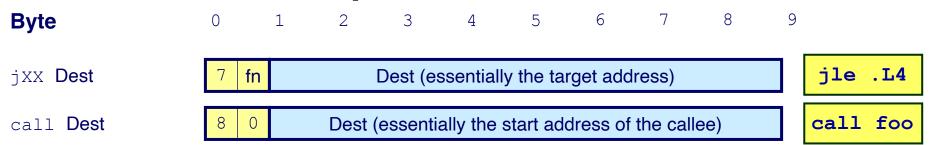
ret 9 0

- Pop value from stack
- Use as address for next instruction
- Like x86-64

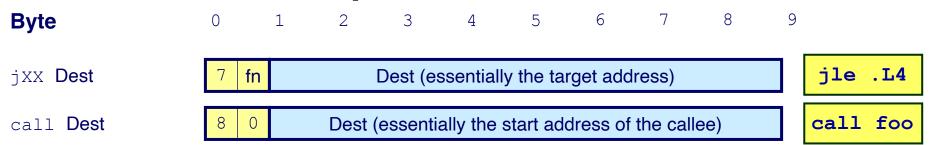




• The instruction length limits how far you can jump/call functions. What if the jump target has a very long address that can't fit in 8 bytes?

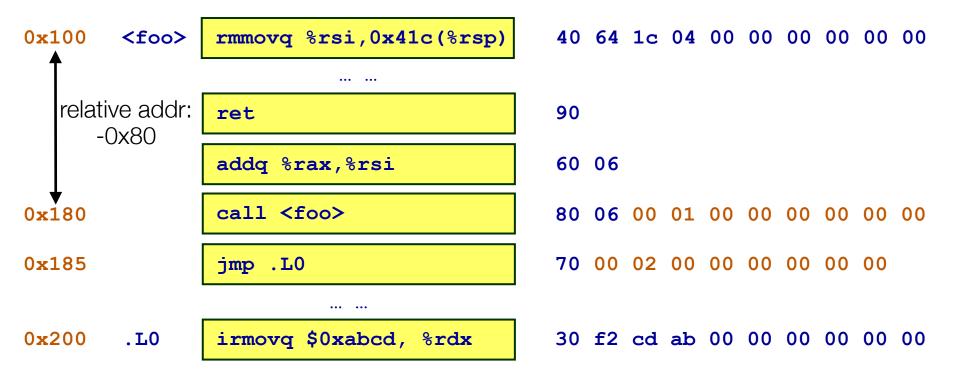


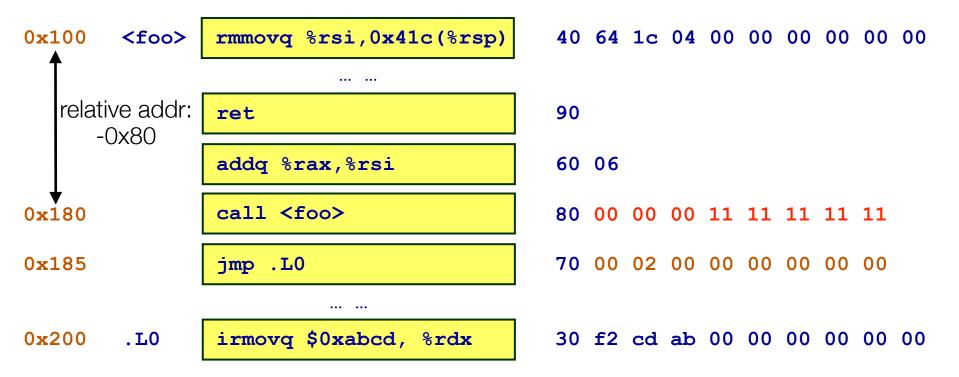
- The instruction length limits how far you can jump/call functions. What if the jump target has a very long address that can't fit in 8 bytes?
- One alternative: use a super long instruction encoding format.
 - Simple to encode, but space inefficient (waste bits for jumps to short addr.)

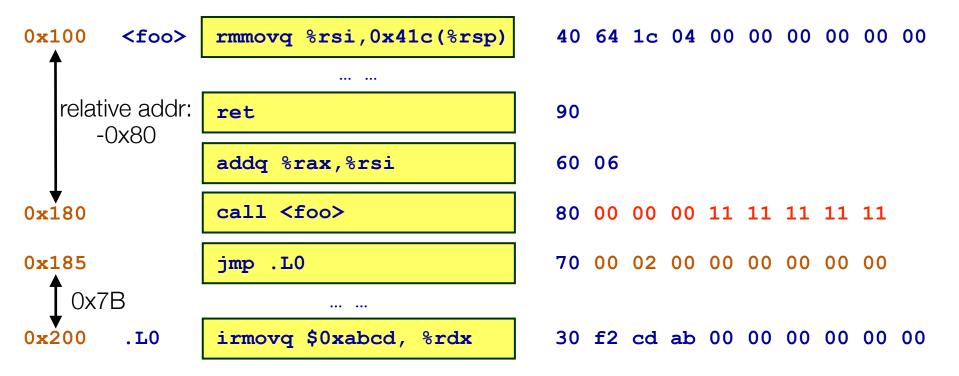


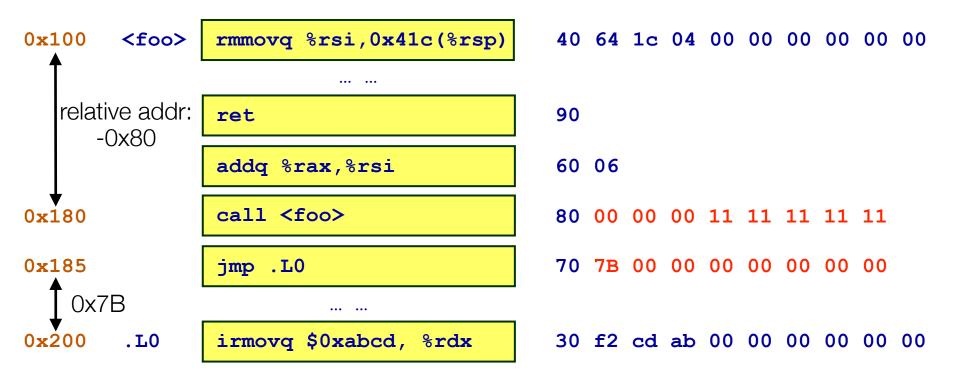
- The instruction length limits how far you can jump/call functions. What if the jump target has a very long address that can't fit in 8 bytes?
- One alternative: use a super long instruction encoding format.
 - Simple to encode, but space inefficient (waste bits for jumps to short addr.)
- Another alternative: encode the relative address, not the absolute address
 - E.g., encode (.L4 current address) in Dest

0x100	<foo></foo>	rmmovq %rsi,0x41c(%rsp)	40	64	1c	04	00	00	00	00	00	00
		ret	90									
		addq %rax,%rsi	60	06								
0x180		call <foo></foo>	80	06	00	01	00	00	00	00	00	00
0 x 185		jmp .LO	70	00	02	00	00	00	00	00	00	
0x200	.LO	irmovq \$0xabcd, %rdx	30	f2	cd	ab	00	00	00	00	00	00

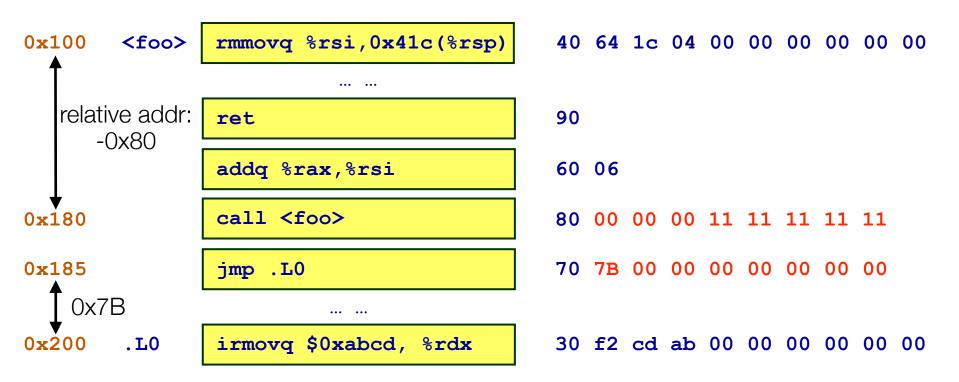




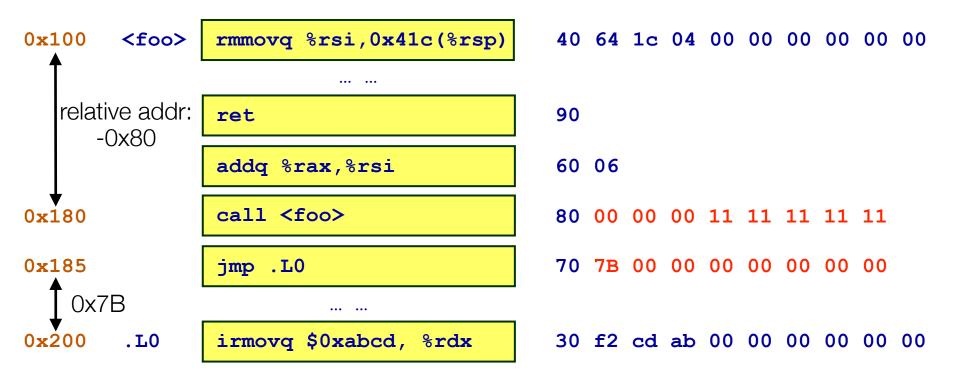


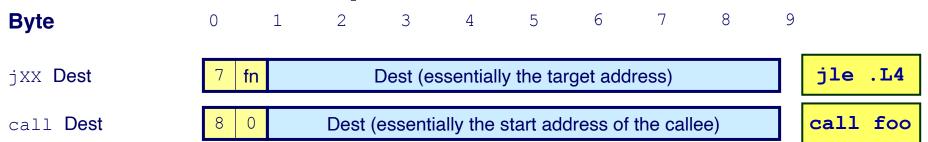


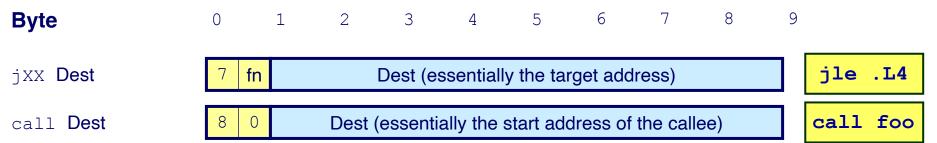
- What if the ISA encoding uses relative address for jump and call?
- If we use relative address, the exact start address of the code doesn't matter. Why?



- What if the ISA encoding uses relative address for jump and call?
- If we use relative address, the exact start address of the code doesn't matter. Why?
- This code is called Position-Independent Code (PIC)







- What if you want to jump really far away from the current instruction?
 - indirect jump, use a combination of absolute + relative addresses ("Far jumps" in x86). Elegant design.

Stack Operations



- Decrement %rsp by 8
- Store word from rA to memory at %rsp
- Like x86-64



- Read word from memory at %rsp
- Save in rA
- Increment %rsp by 8
- Like x86-64

Miscellaneous Instructions



Don't do anything



- Stop executing instructions
- Usually can't be executed in the user mode, only by the OS
- Encoding ensures that program hitting memory initialized to zero will halt

 X86 (and Y86) is a variable length ISA (1 to 15 bytes), where different instructions have different lengths.

- X86 (and Y86) is a variable length ISA (1 to 15 bytes), where different instructions have different lengths.
- There are fixed length ISAs: all instructions have the same length

- X86 (and Y86) is a variable length ISA (1 to 15 bytes), where different instructions have different lengths.
- There are fixed length ISAs: all instructions have the same length
 - ARM's ISA for micro-controllers have a 4-bit ISA. Very Long Instruction Word (VLIW) ISAs have instructions that are hundreds of bytes long.

- X86 (and Y86) is a variable length ISA (1 to 15 bytes), where different instructions have different lengths.
- There are fixed length ISAs: all instructions have the same length
 - ARM's ISA for micro-controllers have a 4-bit ISA. Very Long Instruction Word (VLIW) ISAs have instructions that are hundreds of bytes long.
 - Or you can have a combination of both: e.g., 16-bit ISA with 32-bit extensions (e..g, ARM Thumb-extension).

- X86 (and Y86) is a variable length ISA (1 to 15 bytes), where different instructions have different lengths.
- There are fixed length ISAs: all instructions have the same length
 - ARM's ISA for micro-controllers have a 4-bit ISA. Very Long Instruction Word (VLIW) ISAs have instructions that are hundreds of bytes long.
 - Or you can have a combination of both: e.g., 16-bit ISA with 32-bit extensions (e..g, ARM Thumb-extension).
- Advantages of variable length ISAs

- X86 (and Y86) is a variable length ISA (1 to 15 bytes), where different instructions have different lengths.
- There are fixed length ISAs: all instructions have the same length
 - ARM's ISA for micro-controllers have a 4-bit ISA. Very Long Instruction Word (VLIW) ISAs have instructions that are hundreds of bytes long.
 - Or you can have a combination of both: e.g., 16-bit ISA with 32-bit extensions (e..g, ARM Thumb-extension).
- Advantages of variable length ISAs
 - More compact. Some instructions do not need that many bits. (Actually what's the optimal way of encoding instructions in a variable length ISA?)

- X86 (and Y86) is a variable length ISA (1 to 15 bytes), where different instructions have different lengths.
- There are fixed length ISAs: all instructions have the same length
 - ARM's ISA for micro-controllers have a 4-bit ISA. Very Long Instruction Word (VLIW) ISAs have instructions that are hundreds of bytes long.
 - Or you can have a combination of both: e.g., 16-bit ISA with 32-bit extensions (e..g, ARM Thumb-extension).
- Advantages of variable length ISAs
 - More compact. Some instructions do not need that many bits. (Actually what's the optimal way of encoding instructions in a variable length ISA?)
 - Can have arbitrary number of instructions: easy to add new inst.

- X86 (and Y86) is a variable length ISA (1 to 15 bytes), where different instructions have different lengths.
- There are fixed length ISAs: all instructions have the same length
 - ARM's ISA for micro-controllers have a 4-bit ISA. Very Long Instruction Word (VLIW) ISAs have instructions that are hundreds of bytes long.
 - Or you can have a combination of both: e.g., 16-bit ISA with 32-bit extensions (e..g, ARM Thumb-extension).
- Advantages of variable length ISAs
 - More compact. Some instructions do not need that many bits. (Actually what's the optimal way of encoding instructions in a variable length ISA?)
 - Can have arbitrary number of instructions: easy to add new inst.
- What is the down side?

- X86 (and Y86) is a variable length ISA (1 to 15 bytes), where different instructions have different lengths.
- There are fixed length ISAs: all instructions have the same length
 - ARM's ISA for micro-controllers have a 4-bit ISA. Very Long Instruction Word (VLIW) ISAs have instructions that are hundreds of bytes long.
 - Or you can have a combination of both: e.g., 16-bit ISA with 32-bit extensions (e..g, ARM Thumb-extension).
- Advantages of variable length ISAs
 - More compact. Some instructions do not need that many bits. (Actually what's the optimal way of encoding instructions in a variable length ISA?)
 - Can have arbitrary number of instructions: easy to add new inst.
- What is the down side?
 - Fetch and decode are harder to implement. More on this later.

- X86 (and Y86) is a variable length ISA (1 to 15 bytes), where different instructions have different lengths.
- There are fixed length ISAs: all instructions have the same length
 - ARM's ISA for micro-controllers have a 4-bit ISA. Very Long Instruction Word (VLIW) ISAs have instructions that are hundreds of bytes long.
 - Or you can have a combination of both: e.g., 16-bit ISA with 32-bit extensions (e..g, ARM Thumb-extension).
- Advantages of variable length ISAs
 - More compact. Some instructions do not need that many bits. (Actually what's the optimal way of encoding instructions in a variable length ISA?)
 - Can have arbitrary number of instructions: easy to add new inst.
- What is the down side?
 - Fetch and decode are harder to implement. More on this later.
- A good writeup showing some of the complexity involved: http://www.c-jump.com/CIS77/CPU/x86/lecture.html