

COMPUTER ORGANIZATION AND DESIGN

The Hardware/Software Interface



Chapter 2

Instructions: Language of the Computer

Instruction Set

- The repertoire of instructions of a computer
- Different computers have different instruction sets
 - But with many aspects in common
- Early computers had very simple instruction sets
 - Simplified implementation
- Many modern computers also have simple instruction sets



The MIPS Instruction Set

- Used as the example throughout the book
- Stanford MIPS commercialized by MIPS Technologies (<u>www.mips.com</u>)
- Large share of embedded core market
 - Applications in consumer electronics, network/storage equipment, cameras, printers, ...
- Typical of many modern ISAs
 - See MIPS Reference Data tear-out card, and Appendixes B and E

Arithmetic Operations

- Add and subtract, three operands
 - Two sources and one destination
 - add a, b, c # a gets b + c
- All arithmetic operations have this form
- Design Principle 1: Simplicity favours regularity
 - Regularity makes implementation simpler
 - Simplicity enables higher performance at lower cost



Arithmetic Example

C code:

```
f = (g + h) - (i + j);
```

Compiled MIPS code:

```
add t0, g, h # temp t0 = g + h add t1, i, j # temp t1 = i + j sub f, t0, t1 # f = t0 - t1
```

Register Operands

- Arithmetic instructions use register operands
- MIPS has a 32 x 32-bit register file
 - Use for frequently accessed data
 - Numbered 0 to 31
 - 32-bit data called a "word"
- Assembler names
 - \$t0, \$t1, ..., \$t9 for temporary values
 - \$s0, \$s1, ..., \$s7 for saved variables
- Design Principle 2: Smaller is faster
 - c.f. main memory: millions of locations



Register Operand Example

C code:

```
f = (g + h) - (i + j);

• f, ..., j in $s0, ..., $s4
```

Compiled MIPS code:

```
add $t0, $s1, $s2
add $t1, $s3, $s4
sub $s0, $t0, $t1
```

Memory Operands

- Main memory used for composite data
 - Arrays, structures, dynamic data
- To apply arithmetic operations
 - Load values from memory into registers
 - Store result from register to memory
- Memory is byte addressed
 - Each address identifies an 8-bit byte
- Words are aligned in memory
 - Address must be a multiple of 4
- MIPS is Big Endian
 - Most-significant byte at least address of a word
 - c.f. Little Endian: least-significant byte at least address



Memory Operand Example 1

C code:

```
g = h + A[8];
```

- g in \$s1, h in \$s2, base address of A in \$s3
- Compiled MIPS code:
 - Index 8 requires offset of 32
 - 4 bytes per word

Memory Operand Example 2

C code:

```
A[12] = h + A[8];
```

- h in \$s2, base address of A in \$s3
- Compiled MIPS code:
 - Index 8 requires offset of 32

```
lw $t0, 32($s3)  # load word
add $t0, $s2, $t0
sw $t0, 48($s3)  # store word
```

Registers vs. Memory

- Registers are faster to access than memory
- Operating on memory data requires loads and stores
 - More instructions to be executed
- Compiler must use registers for variables as much as possible
 - Only spill to memory for less frequently used variables
 - Register optimization is important!



Immediate Operands

- Constant data specified in an instruction addi \$s3, \$s3, 4
- No subtract immediate instruction
 - Just use a negative constant addi \$s2, \$s1, -1
- Design Principle 3: Make the common case fast
 - Small constants are common
 - Immediate operand avoids a load instruction



The Constant Zero

- MIPS register 0 (\$zero) is the constant 0
 - Cannot be overwritten
- Useful for common operations
 - E.g., move between registers add \$t2, \$s1, \$zero

Unsigned Binary Integers

Given an n-bit number

$$x = x_{n-1}2^{n-1} + x_{n-2}2^{n-2} + \dots + x_12^1 + x_02^0$$

- Range: 0 to +2ⁿ 1
- Example
 - 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 1011₂ = 0 + ... + $1 \times 2^3 + 0 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0$ = 0 + ... + 8 + 0 + 2 + 1 = 11_{10}
- Using 32 bits
 - 0 to +4,294,967,295



2s-Complement Signed Integers

Given an n-bit number

$$x = -x_{n-1}2^{n-1} + x_{n-2}2^{n-2} + \dots + x_12^1 + x_02^0$$

- Range: −2ⁿ⁻¹ to +2ⁿ⁻¹ − 1
- Example
- Using 32 bits
 - -2,147,483,648 to +2,147,483,647

2s-Complement Signed Integers

- Bit 31 is sign bit
 - 1 for negative numbers
 - 0 for non-negative numbers
- $-(-2^{n-1})$ can't be represented
- Non-negative numbers have the same unsigned and 2s-complement representation
- Some specific numbers
 - 0: 0000 0000 ... 0000
 - —1: 1111 1111 ... 1111
 - Most-negative: 1000 0000 ... 0000
 - Most-positive: 0111 1111 ... 1111



Signed Negation

- Complement and add 1
 - Complement means 1 → 0, 0 → 1

$$x + x = 1111...111_2 = -1$$

 $x + 1 = -x$

- Example: negate +2
 - $+2 = 0000 0000 \dots 0010_2$
 - $-2 = 1111 \ 1111 \ \dots \ 1101_2 + 1$ = 1111 \ 1111 \ \dots \ 1110_2

Sign Extension

- Representing a number using more bits
 - Preserve the numeric value
- In MIPS instruction set
 - addi: extend immediate value
 - 1b, 1h: extend loaded byte/halfword
 - beq, bne: extend the displacement
- Replicate the sign bit to the left
 - c.f. unsigned values: extend with 0s
- Examples: 8-bit to 16-bit
 - +2: 0000 0010 => 0000 0000 0000 0010
 - -2: 1111 1110 => 1111 1111 1111 1110

Representing Instructions

- Instructions are encoded in binary
 - Called machine code
- MIPS instructions
 - Encoded as 32-bit instruction words
 - Small number of formats encoding operation code (opcode), register numbers, ...
 - Regularity!
- Register numbers
 - \$t0 \$t7 are reg's 8 15
 - \$t8 \$t9 are reg's 24 25
 - \$s0 \$s7 are reg's 16 23



MIPS R-format Instructions

op	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	6 bits

Instruction fields

- op: operation code (opcode)
- rs: first source register number
- rt: second source register number
- rd: destination register number
- shamt: shift amount (00000 for now)
- funct: function code (extends opcode)



R-format Example

ор	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	6 bits

add \$t0, \$s1, \$s2

special	\$s1	\$s2	\$tO	0	add
0	17	18	8	0	32
000000	10001	10010	01000	00000	100000

 $00000010001100100100000000100000_2 = 02324020_{16}$

Hexadecimal

- Base 16
 - Compact representation of bit strings
 - 4 bits per hex digit

0	0000	4	0100	8	1000	С	1100
1	0001	5	0101	9	1001	d	1101
2	0010	6	0110	а	1010	е	1110
3	0011	7	0111	b	1011	f	1111

- Example: eca8 6420
 - 1110 1100 1010 1000 0110 0100 0010 0000

MIPS I-format Instructions

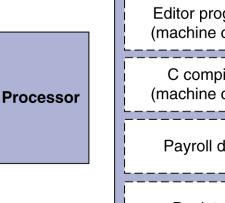


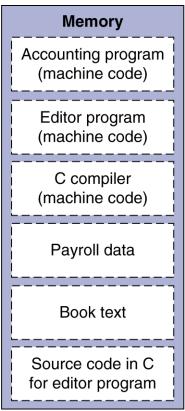
- Immediate arithmetic and load/store instructions
 - rt: destination or source register number
 - Constant: -2¹⁵ to +2¹⁵ 1
 - Address: offset added to base address in rs
- Design Principle 4: Good design demands good compromises
 - Different formats complicate decoding, but allow 32-bit instructions uniformly
 - Keep formats as similar as possible



Stored Program Computers

The BIG Picture





- Instructions represented in binary, just like data
- Instructions and data stored in memory
- Programs can operate on programs
 - e.g., compilers, linkers, ...
- Binary compatibility allows compiled programs to work on different computers
 - Standardized ISAs

Logical Operations

Instructions for bitwise manipulation

Operation	С	Java	MIPS
Shift left	<<	<<	sll
Shift right	>>	>>>	srl
Bitwise AND	&	&	and, andi
Bitwise OR			or, ori
Bitwise NOT	~	~	nor

 Useful for extracting and inserting groups of bits in a word

Shift Operations



- shamt: how many positions to shift
- Shift left logical
 - Shift left and fill with 0 bits
 - s11 by i bits multiplies by 2i
- Shift right logical
 - Shift right and fill with 0 bits
 - srl by i bits divides by 2i (unsigned only)



AND Operations

- Useful to mask bits in a word
 - Select some bits, clear others to 0

```
and $t0, $t1, $t2
```

```
$t2 | 0000 0000 0000 0000 00<mark>00 11</mark>01 1100 0000
```

OR Operations

- Useful to include bits in a word
 - Set some bits to 1, leave others unchanged

```
or $t0, $t1, $t2
```

```
$t2 | 0000 0000 0000 0000 00<mark>00 11</mark>01 1100 0000
```

\$t0 | 0000 0000 0000 0000 00<mark>11 11</mark>01 1100 0000

NOT Operations

- Useful to invert bits in a word
 - Change 0 to 1, and 1 to 0
- MIPS has NOR 3-operand instruction
 - a NOR b == NOT (a OR b)

```
nor $t0, $t1, $zero ← —
```

Register 0: always read as zero

```
$t1 | 0000 0000 0000 0001 1100 0000 0000
```

\$t0 | 1111 1111 1111 1100 0011 1111 1111

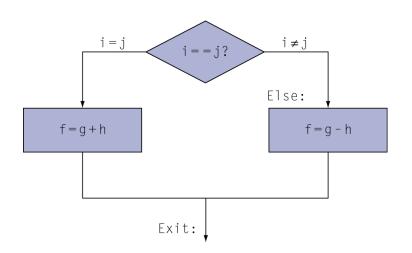
Conditional Operations

- Branch to a labeled instruction if a condition is true
 - Otherwise, continue sequentially
- beq rs, rt, L1
 - if (rs == rt) branch to instruction labeled L1;
- bne rs, rt, L1
 - if (rs != rt) branch to instruction labeled L1;
- j L1
 - unconditional jump to instruction labeled L1

Compiling If Statements

C code:

- f, g, ... in \$s0, \$s1, ...
- Compiled MIPS code:



```
bne $s3, $s4, Else
add $s0, $s1, $s2
j Exit
Else: sub $s0, $s1, $s2
```

Exit: *...

Assembler calculates addresses

Compiling Loop Statements

C code:

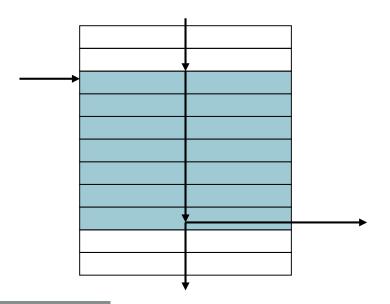
```
while (save[i] == k) i += 1;
```

- i in \$s3, k in \$s5, address of save in \$s6
- Compiled MIPS code:

```
Loop: sll $t1, $s3, 2
add $t1, $t1, $s6
lw $t0, 0($t1)
bne $t0, $s5, Exit
addi $s3, $s3, 1
j Loop
Exit: ...
```

Basic Blocks

- A basic block is a sequence of instructions with
 - No embedded branches (except at end)
 - No branch targets (except at beginning)



- A compiler identifies basic blocks for optimization
- An advanced processor can accelerate execution of basic blocks

More Conditional Operations

- Set result to 1 if a condition is true
 - Otherwise, set to 0
- slt rd, rs, rt
 - if (rs < rt) rd = 1; else rd = 0;
- slti rt, rs, constant
 - if (rs < constant) rt = 1; else rt = 0;</p>
- Use in combination with beq, bne

```
slt $t0, $s1, $s2 # if ($s1 < $s2)
bne $t0, $zero, L # branch to L</pre>
```

Branch Instruction Design

- Why not blt, bge, etc?
- Hardware for <, ≥, ... slower than =, ≠</p>
 - Combining with branch involves more work per instruction, requiring a slower clock
 - All instructions penalized!
- beg and bne are the common case
- This is a good design compromise

Signed vs. Unsigned

- Signed comparison: slt, slti
- Unsigned comparison: sltu, sltui
- Example

 - slt \$t0, \$s0, \$s1 # signed
 - $-1 < +1 \Rightarrow $t0 = 1$
 - sltu \$t0, \$s0, \$s1 # unsigned
 - $+4,294,967,295 > +1 \Rightarrow $t0 = 0$
 - sltu useful in arrays bound checking (see book)



Procedure Calling

- Steps required
 - 1. Place parameters in registers
 - 2. Transfer control to procedure
 - 3. Acquire storage for procedure
 - 4. Perform procedure's operations
 - 5. Place result in register for caller
 - 6. Return to place of call



Register Usage Conventions

- \$a0 \$a3: arguments (reg's 4 7)
- \$v0, \$v1: result values (reg's 2 and 3)
- \$t0 \$t9: temporaries
 - Can be overwritten by callee
- \$s0 \$s7: saved
 - Must be saved/restored by callee
- \$gp: global pointer for static data (reg 28)
- \$sp: stack pointer (reg 29)
- \$fp: frame pointer (reg 30)
- \$ra: return address (reg 31)

Procedure Call Instructions

- Procedure call: jump and link jal ProcedureLabel
 - Address of following instruction put in \$ra
 - Jumps to target address
- Procedure return: jump register jr \$ra
 - Copies \$ra to program counter
 - Can also be used for computed jumps
 - e.g., for case/switch statements



Leaf Procedure Example

C code:

```
int leaf_example (int g, h, i, j)
{ int f;
    f = (g + h) - (i + j);
    return f;
}
```

- Arguments g, ..., j in \$a0, ..., \$a3
- f in \$s0 (hence, need to save \$s0 on stack)
- Result in \$v0

Leaf Procedure Example

MIPS code:

<pre>leaf_example:</pre>							
addi	\$sp,	\$sp,	-4				
SW	\$s0,	0(\$sp	o)				
add	\$t0,	\$a0,	\$a1				
add	\$t1,	\$a2,	\$a3				
sub	\$s0,	\$t0,	\$t1				
add	\$v0,	\$s0,	\$zero				
٦w	\$s0,	0(\$sp)				
addi	\$sp,	\$sp,	4				
jr	\$ra						

Save \$s0 on stack

Procedure body

Result

Restore \$s0

Return

Non-Leaf Procedures

- Procedures that call other procedures
- For nested call, caller needs to save on the stack:
 - Its return address
 - Any arguments and temporaries needed after the call
- Restore from the stack after the call

Non-Leaf Procedure Example

C code:

```
int fact (int n)
{
  if (n < 1) return f;
  else return n * fact(n - 1);
}</pre>
```

- Argument n in \$a0
- Result in \$v0

Non-Leaf Procedure Example

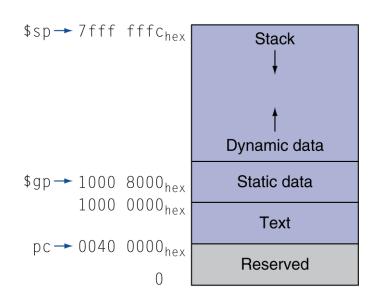
MIPS code:

```
fact:
   addi $sp, $sp, -8 # adjust stack for 2 items
   sw $ra, 4($sp)
                        # save return address
   sw $a0, 0($sp)
                        # save argument
   slti $t0, $a0, 1
                        # test for n < 1
   beq $t0, $zero, L1
   addi $v0, $zero, 1
                        # if so, result is 1
   addi $sp, $sp, 8
                        # pop 2 items from stack
   jr $ra
                        # and return
L1: addi $a0, $a0, -1
                        # else decrement n
   jal fact
                        # recursive call
   Tw $a0, 0($sp)
                        # restore original n
                        # and return address
   lw $ra, 4($sp)
   addi $sp, $sp, 8
                        # pop 2 items from stack
   mul $v0, $a0, $v0
                        # multiply to get result
                        # and return
        $ra
   jr
```



Memory Layout Conventions

- Usually followed by assemblers
- Text: program code
 - Static data: global variables
 - e.g., static variables in C, constant arrays and strings
 - \$gp initialized to address allowing ±offsets into this segment
- Dynamic data: heap
 - E.g., malloc in C, new in Java
- Stack: automatic storage





Character Data

- Byte-encoded character sets
 - ASCII: 128 characters
 - 95 graphic, 33 control
 - Latin-1: 256 characters
 - ASCII, +96 more graphic characters
- Unicode: 32-bit character set
 - Used in Java, C++ wide characters, ...
 - Most of the world's alphabets, plus symbols
 - UTF-8, UTF-16: variable-length encodings



Byte/Halfword Operations

- Could use bitwise operations
- MIPS byte/halfword load/store
 - String processing is a common case

```
lb rt, offset(rs) lh rt, offset(rs)
```

Sign extend to 32 bits in rt

```
lbu rt, offset(rs) lhu rt, offset(rs)
```

Zero extend to 32 bits in rt

```
sb rt, offset(rs) sh rt, offset(rs)
```

Store just rightmost byte/halfword



String Copy Example

- C code (naïve):
 - Null-terminated string

```
void strcpy (char x[], char y[])
{ int i;
    i = 0;
    while ((x[i]=y[i])!='\0')
        i += 1;
}
```

- Addresses of x, y in \$a0, \$a1
- i in \$s0

String Copy Example

MIPS code:

```
strcpy:
   addi $sp, $sp, -4
                         # adjust stack for 1 item
   sw $s0, 0($sp)
                         # save $s0
   add $s0, $zero, $zero # i = 0
L1: add $t1, $s0, $a1
                         # addr of y[i] in $t1
   1bu $t2, 0($t1)
                         # $t2 = y[i]
                         # addr of x[i] in $t3
   add $t3, $s0, $a0
   sb $t2, 0($t3)
                         \# x[i] = y[i]
                         # exit loop if y[i] == 0
   beq $t2, $zero, L2
                         # i = i + 1, byte offset
   addi $s0, $s0, 1
                         # next iteration of loop
        L1
L2: lw $s0, 0($sp)
                         # restore saved $s0
   addi $sp, $sp, 4
                         # pop 1 item from stack
                         # and return
        $ra
   jr
```

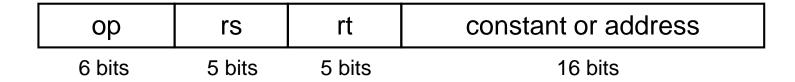
32-bit Constants

- Most constants are small
 - 16-bit immediate is sufficient
- For the occasional 32-bit constant lui rt, constant
 - Copies 16-bit constant to left 16 bits of rt
 - Clears right 16 bits of rt to 0



Branch Addressing

- Branch instructions specify
 - Opcode, two registers, target address
- Most branch targets are near branch
 - Forward or backward



- PC-relative addressing
 - Target address = PC + offset x 4
 - PC already incremented by 4 by this time

Jump Addressing

- Jump (j and jal) targets could be anywhere in text segment
 - Encode full address in instruction

ор	address
6 bits	26 bits

- (Pseudo)Direct jump addressing
 - Target address = $PC_{31...28}$: (address × 4)

Target Addressing Example

- Loop code from earlier example
 - Assume Loop at location 80000

Loop:	s11	\$t1,	\$s3,	2	80000	0	0	19	9	4	0
	add	\$t1,	\$t1,	\$ s6	80004	0	9	22	9	0	32
	٦w	\$t0,	0(\$t1	L)	80008	35	9	8		0	
	bne	\$t0,	\$s5,	Exit	80012	5	8	21	****	2	
	addi	\$s3,	\$s3,	1	80016	8	19	19	A R R R	1	
	j	Loop			80020	2	NEW RESERVE	20000			
Exit:					80024						

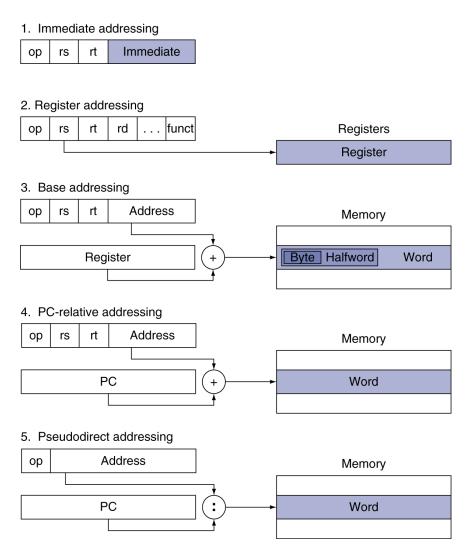
Branching Far Away

- If branch target is too far to encode with 16-bit offset, assembler rewrites the code
- Example

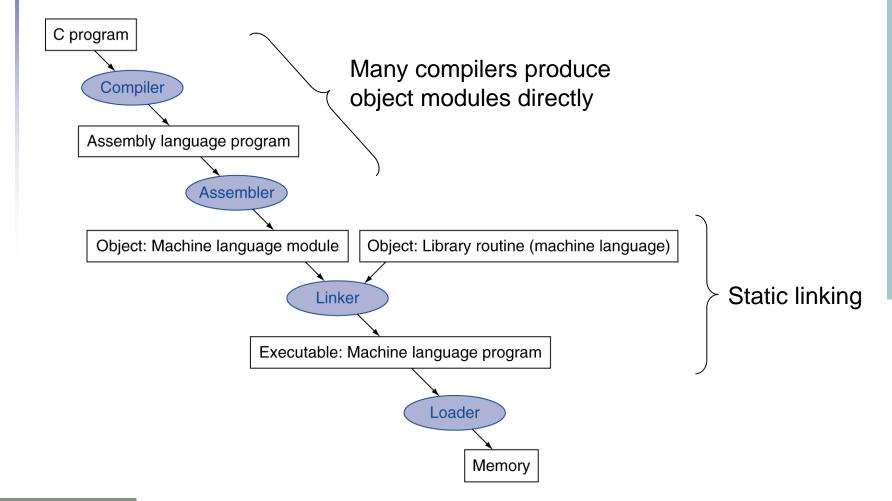
```
beq $s0,$s1, L1

↓
bne $s0,$s1, L2
j L1
L2: ...
```

Addressing Mode Summary



Translation and Startup





Assembler Pseudoinstructions

- Most assembler instructions represent machine instructions one-to-one
- Pseudoinstructions: figments of the assembler's imagination that helps assembly language programmers

```
move $t0, $t1 \rightarrow add $t0, $zero, $t1 blt $t0, $t1, L \rightarrow slt $at, $t0, $t1 bne $at, $zero, L
```

- \$at (register 1): assembler temporary
- Other such pseudoinstructions are listed in the manual that has been uploaded

Producing an Object Module

- Assembler (or compiler) translates program into machine instructions
- Provides information for building a complete program from the pieces
 - Header: described contents of object module
 - Text segment: translated instructions
 - Static data segment: data allocated for the life of the program
 - Relocation info: for contents that depend on absolute location of loaded program
 - Symbol table: global definitions and external refs
 - Debug info: for associating with source code



Linking Object Modules

- Produces an executable image
 - 1. Merges segments
 - 2. Resolve labels (determine their addresses)
 - 3. Patch location-dependent and external refs
- Could leave location dependencies for fixing by a relocating loader
 - But with virtual memory, no need to do this
 - Program can be loaded into absolute location in virtual memory space

Loading a Program

- Load from image file on disk into memory
 - 1. Read header to determine segment sizes
 - 2. Create virtual address space
 - 3. Copy text and initialized data into memory
 - Or set page table entries so they can be faulted in
 - 4. Set up arguments on stack
 - 5. Initialize registers (including \$sp, \$fp, \$gp)
 - 6. Jump to startup routine
 - Copies arguments to \$a0, ... and calls main
 - When main returns, do exit syscall



Dynamic Linking

- Only link/load library procedure when it is called
 - Requires procedure code to be relocatable
 - Avoids image bloat caused by static linking of all (transitively) referenced libraries
 - Automatically picks up new library versions

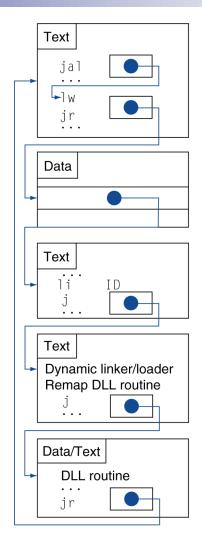
Lazy Linkage

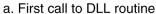
Indirection table

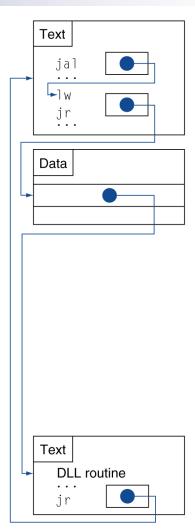
Stub: Loads routine ID, Jump to linker/loader

Linker/loader code

Dynamically mapped code







b. Subsequent calls to DLL routine



C Sort Example

- Illustrates use of assembly instructions for a C bubble sort function
- Swap procedure (leaf)
 void swap(int v[], int k)
 {
 int temp;
 temp = v[k];
 v[k] = v[k+1];
 v[k+1] = temp;
 }
 - v in \$a0, k in \$a1, temp in \$t0



The Procedure Swap

The Sort Procedure in C

Non-leaf (calls swap) void sort (int v[], int n) int i, j; for (i = 0; i < n; i += 1) { for (j = i - 1;j >= 0 && v[j] > v[j + 1];i -= 1) { swap(v,j);v in \$a0, k in \$a1, i in \$s0, j in \$s1



The Procedure Body

```
move $s2, $a0
                             # save $a0 into $s2
                                                             Move
       move $s3, $a1  # save $a1 into $s3
                                                             params
       move $s0, $zero # i = 0
                                                             Outer loop
for1tst: slt $t0, $s0, $s3 # $t0 = 0 if $s0 \ge $s3 (i \ge n)
        beq t0, zero, exit1 # go to exit1 if s0 \ge s3 (i \ge n)
        addi $$1, $$0, -1  # j = i - 1
for2tst: s1ti t0, s1, 0 # t0 = 1 if s1 < 0 (j < 0)
        bne t0, zero, exit2 # go to exit2 if s1 < 0 (j < 0)
        sll $t1, $s1, 2 # $t1 = j * 4
                                                             Inner loop
        add $t2, $s2, $t1 # $t2 = v + (j * 4)
       1w $t3, 0($t2) # $t3 = v[j]
       1w $t4, 4($t2) # $t4 = v[j + 1]
        \$1t \$t0, \$t4, \$t3  # \$t0 = 0 if \$t4 \ge \$t3
        beq t0, zero, exit2 # go to exit2 if t4 \ge t3
       move $a0, $s2  # 1st param of swap is v (old $a0)
                                                             Pass
        move $a1, $s1 # 2nd param of swap is j
                                                             params
                                                             & call
        jal swap # call swap procedure
        addi $s1, $s1, -1 # j -= 1
                                                             Inner loop
                     # jump to test of inner loop
        i for2tst
exit2:
        addi $s0, $s0, 1 # i += 1
                                                             Outer loop
        j for1tst
                             # jump to test of outer loop
```



The Full Procedure

```
addi $sp,$sp, -20
                            # make room on stack for 5 registers
sort:
        sw $ra, 16($sp)
                            # save $ra on stack
        sw $s3,12($sp)
                        # save $s3 on stack
        sw $s2, 8($sp) # save $s2 on stack
        sw $s1, 4($sp) # save $s1 on stack
        sw $s0, 0(\$sp)
                            # save $s0 on stack
                            # procedure body
        exit1: lw $s0, 0($sp) # restore $s0 from stack
        lw $s1, 4($sp) # restore $s1 from stack
       lw $s2, 8($sp)  # restore $s2 from stack
       lw $s3,12($sp) # restore $s3 from stack
        lw $ra,16($sp) # restore $ra from stack
        addi $sp,$sp, 20 # restore stack pointer
        jr $ra
                            # return to calling routine
```

Fallacies

- Powerful instruction ⇒ higher performance
 - Fewer instructions required
 - But complex instructions are hard to implement
 - May slow down all instructions, including simple ones
 - Compilers are good at making fast code from simple instructions
- Use assembly code for high performance
 - But modern compilers are better at dealing with modern processors
 - More lines of code ⇒ more errors and less productivity

