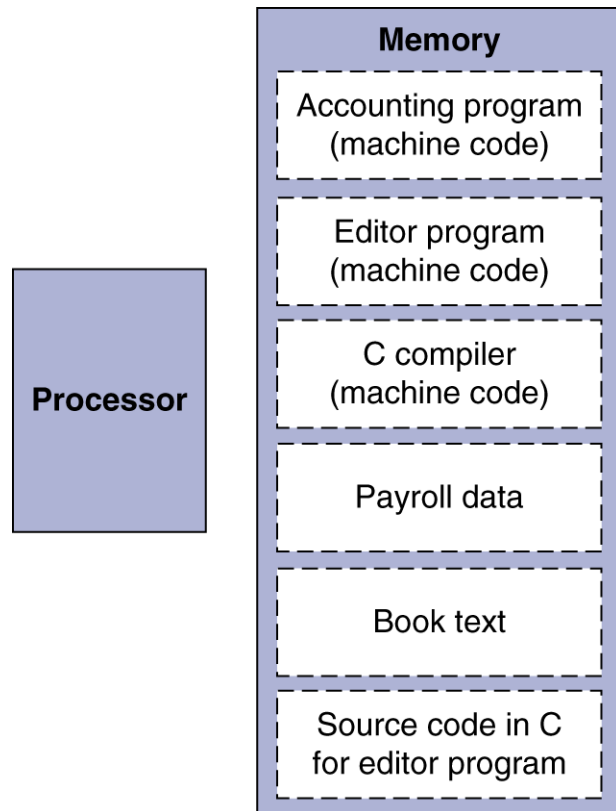


Chapter 2

Instructions: Language of
the Computer

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

MIPS Machine Language

- The processor doesn't *understand* things like this:

`add $s0, $s0, $s2`

- It does *understand* things like this:

`100001010010100011000100000000101`

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 (www.mips.com)
- Large share of embedded core market
 - Applications in consumer electronics, network/storage equipment, cameras, printers, ...
- Typical of many modern ISAs
 - See the MIPS Reference Data tear-out card, as well as Appendix A

Arithmetic Operations

- Add and subtract, three operands
 - Two sources and one destination
$$\text{add } a, b, c \quad \# \quad a = b + c$$
$$\text{sub } a, b, c \quad \# \quad a = b - c$$
- All arithmetic operations use this form
- *Design Principle 1:*
 - **Simplicity favors regularity**
 - Regularity makes implementation simpler
 - Simplicity enables higher performance at lower cost

Instruction Formats

- How do we encode instructions?
- Break up the 32-bit word into *fields*.
- Each field is an encoding of part of the instruction, including:
 - what registers to use
 - what operation should be performed
 - constants
 - etc.
- (We'll return to this in a few minutes)

Simplicity Favors Regularity

- Let's translate this example C code...
 $a = b + c;$
 $d = a - e;$
- ...into MIPS assembly language code:
 add a, b, c # $a = b + c$
 sub d, a, e # $d = a - e$
- We have therefore achieved: $d = b + c - e;$
- Typical MIPS instruction only has two source operands and places the results in a destination operand
 - There are a few exceptions to this rule

Arithmetic Example

- C code:

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

- Corresponding 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
```

Arithmetic Example (HW 2)

- C code (no parentheses!):

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

- Corresponding MIPS code:

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

(really this is MIPS pseudo-code...)

Register Operands

- Arithmetic instructions make use of specific register operands
- MIPS has a 32×32-bit register file
 - Used for frequently accessed data/variables
 - Registers are numbered 0 to 31
 - Each 32-bit register contains a “word”
- Assembler register names
 - \$t0, \$t1, ..., \$t9 for temporary values
 - \$s0, \$s1, ..., \$s7 for “saved” variables
- *Design Principle 2: Smaller is faster*
 - Registers provide a very small and very fast memory (as compared to main memory)

32/64-bit MIPS

- Most 32-bit systems fall into ILP32
 - Integer, Long, Pointer all 32 bits long (i.e., 4 bytes)
- Most 64-bit systems fall into LP64
 - Long, Pointer both 64 bits (i.e., 8 byte)
- In both ILP32 and LP64:
 - char is 8 bits (i.e., 1 byte)
 - short is 16 bits (i.e., 2 bytes)
 - long long is 64 bits (i.e., 8 bytes)

Arithmetic Example (HW 2)

- C code (no parentheses!):

$f = g + h - i - j;$

- Corresponding actual MIPS code (not pseudo-code):

```
add $t0,$s1,$s2    # temp t0 = g + h
sub $t1,$t0,$s3     # temp t1 = t0 - i
sub $s0,$t1,$s4     # f = t1 - j
```

$f = g + h - i - j ;$

$s0 = s1 + s2 - s3 - s4 ;$

Memory Operands

- Main memory used for composite data
 - Arrays, structures, dynamic data
- To apply arithmetic operations
 - Load values from memory into registers
 - Store results from registers (back) into 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 address of a word

Memory as Words

20	01001000	11010100	01111001	11010001
16	11010111	01011010	10000100	00001000
12	01001010	11001010	01000111	01000000
8	00000000	00000000	00000000	00000000
4	00000000	00000000	00000000	00000100
0	01001000	11010100	01111001	11010001

Address

Data

Memory Operand Example 1

- C code:

`g = h + A[3];`

- `g` in `$s1`, `h` in `$s2`, base address of `A` in `$s3`

- Corresponding MIPS code:

- Index 3 requires offset of 12

- 4 bytes per word

`lw $t0, 12($s3) # load word`

`add $s1, $s2, $t0`

offset

base register

Memory Operand Example 2

- C code:

`A[5] = h + A[3];`

- `h` in `$s2`, base address of `A` in `$s3`

- Corresponding MIPS code:

- Index 3 requires offset of 12
- Index 5 requires offset of 20

```
lw    $t0, 12($s3)    # load word
add   $t0, $s2, $t0
sw    $t0, 20($s3)    # store word
```

Registers vs. Memory

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

Bytes vs. Words

- MIPS registers are each 32 bits wide (i.e., 1 word).
- Memory is organized into 8-bit bytes
- In the MIPS architecture, *words* must begin at addresses that are a multiple of 4
 - inherent alignment restriction
 - on 64-bit architectures, note that words are 8-byte aligned

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 always available as the constant 0
 - Cannot be overwritten
- Useful for common operations
 - E.g., move between registers
add \$t2, \$s1, \$zero

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



- 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

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

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

special	\$s1	\$s2	\$t0	0	add
---------	------	------	------	---	-----

0	17	18	8	0	32
---	----	----	---	---	----

000000	10001	10010	01000	00000	100000
--------	-------	-------	-------	-------	--------

$00000010001100100100000000100000_2 = 02324020_{16}$

MIPS I-format Instructions



- Immediate arithmetic and load/store instructions
 - rt: destination or source register number
 - Constant: -2^{15} to $+2^{15} - 1$
 - 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 to be uniform
 - Keep formats as similar as possible

Load Instructions

- *Load* means to move from memory into a register.
- The load instruction needs two things:
 - which register??
 - which memory location (the address)??

lw: Load Word

- The *load word* instruction needs to be told an address that is a multiple of 4
- In MIPS, the way to specify an address is as the sum of:
 - a constant
 - name of a register that holds an address.
 - here we have only 2 register operands and the 3rd is the constant (a compromise!!)

lw destreg, const(addrreg)

“Load Word”

Name of register
to put value in

A number

Name of register to get
base address from

destreg = contents of (***addrreg*** + ***const***)

Example: `lw $s0, 4($s3)`

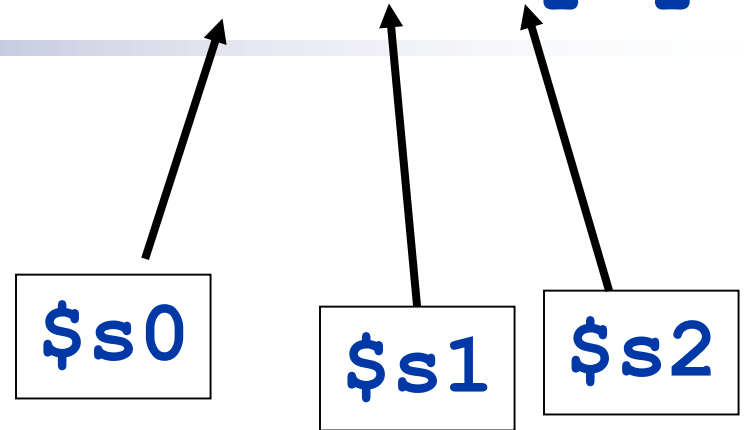
- If `$s3` has the value 100, this will copy the word at memory location 104 to the register `$s0`

`$s0 <- Memory[104]`

Why the odd address mode?

- We need to supply a *base* (the contents of the register) and an *offset* (the constant).
- Why not just specify the address as a constant?
 - some instruction sets include this type of addressing.
- It simplifies the instruction set and helps support arrays and structures.

Integer Array Ex: $a = b + c[8]$



```
lw $t0, 8($s2)      # $t0 = c[8]
add $s0, $s1, $t0    # $s0 = $s1 + $t0
```

Is this right?

NO!

Words vs. Bytes

- Each byte in memory has a unique address.
- If the integer array C starts at address 100:

$C[0]$ starts at address 100

$C[1]$ starts at address 104

$C[2]$ starts at address 108

$C[i]$ starts at address $100 + i * 4$

$a = b + c[8]$ (fixed)

\$s0

\$s1

\$s2

address of $c[8]$ is $c + 8 * 4$

`lw $t0, 32($s2)`

`# $t0 = c[8]`

`add $s0, $s1, $t0`

`# $s0 = $s1 + $t0`

Moving from Reg -> Memory

- *Store* means to move from a register to memory.
- The store instruction looks like the load instruction - it needs two things:
 - which register
 - which memory location (the address).

sw srcreg, const(addrreg)

“Store Word”

A number

Name of register
to get value from

Name of register to get
base address from

Actual address = (*addrreg* + *const*)

Example: `sw $s0, 4($s3)`

- If `$s3` has the value 100, this will copy the word in register `$s0` to memory location 104.

`Memory[104] <- $s0`

Example: C to MIPS

- Write the MIPS instructions that would correspond to the following C code:

`c[3]=a+c[2];`

- assume that `a` is `$s0` and that `c` is an array of 32 bit integers whose starting address is in `$s1`

$c[3] = a + c[2]$

lw	\$t0, 8(\$s1)	# \$t0 = c[2]
add	\$t0, \$t0, \$s0	# \$t0 = \$t0 + \$s0
sw	\$t0, 12(\$s1)	# c[3] = \$t0

Variable Array Index: $a = b + c[i]$

- Now the index to the array is a variable.
- We have to remember that the address of $c[i]$ is the base address + $4 * i$
- We haven't done multiplication yet, but we can still do this example.

a=b+c[i]

add \$t0,\$s3,\$s3	# \$t0=i+i
add \$t0,\$t0,\$t0	# \$t0=i+i+i+i
add \$t0,\$t0,\$s1	# \$t0=c+i*4
lw \$t1,0(\$t0)	# \$t1=c[i]
add \$s0,\$s1,\$t1	# \$s0=b+c[i]

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 $+2^n - 1$

- Example

- $0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 1011_2$
 $= 0 + \dots + 1 \times 2^3 + 0 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0$
 $= 0 + \dots + 8 + 0 + 2 + 1 = 11_{10}$

- 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: -2^{n-1} to $+2^{n-1} - 1$

- Example

- $1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1100_2$
 $= -1 \times 2^{31} + 1 \times 2^{30} + \dots + 1 \times 2^2 + 0 \times 2^1 + 0 \times 2^0$
 $= -2,147,483,648 + 2,147,483,644 = -4_{10}$

- 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 $1 \rightarrow 0, 0 \rightarrow 1$

$$x + \bar{x} = 1111 \dots 111_2 = -1$$

$$\bar{x} + 1 = -x$$

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

Pop Quiz

- What is -31 in 2s complement? (1 byte of data)
- A: 00011111
- B: 11100000
- C: 11100001
- D: 10010000

Sign Extension

- Representing a number using more bits
 - Preserve the numeric value
- In MIPS instruction set
 - addi: extend immediate value
 - lb, lh: extend loaded byte/halfword
 - beq, bne: extend the displacement
- Replicate the sign bit to the left
 - 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

Hexadecimal

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

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

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

Logical Operations

- Instructions for bitwise manipulation

Operation	C	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

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

- shamt: how many positions to shift
- Shift left logical
 - Shift left and fill with 0 bits
 - srl by i bits multiplies by 2^i
- Shift right logical
 - Shift right and fill with 0 bits
 - srl by i bits divides by 2^i (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 0000 1101 1100 0000
\$t1	0000 0000 0000 0000 0011 1100 0000 0000
\$t0	0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 1100 0000 0000

Pop Quiz

- How do we get the following mask value in C?

0000 0000 0000 0000 0011 1100 0000 0000

- A: $0xC \ll 10$
- B: $0xF \ll 10$
- C: $1111 \ll 10$
- D: $0xFF \ll 10$

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 0000 1101 1100 0000
\$t1	0000 0000 0000 0000 0011 1100 0000 0000
\$t0	0000 0000 0000 0000 0011 1101 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
 - $a \text{ NOR } b == \text{NOT} (a \text{ OR } b)$

`nor $t0, $t1, $zero` ←

Register 0: always
read as zero

\$t1 0000 0000 0000 0000 0011 1100 0000 0000

\$t0 1111 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

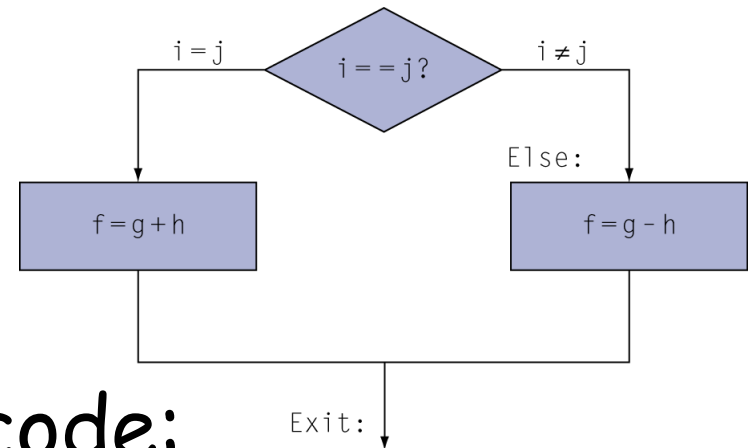
- C code:

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

- f, g, \dots in $\$s0, \$s1, \dots$

- Corresponding 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

- Corresponding 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:  ...
```