

## Sample Instructions

**LDR r0,address** *Load* the contents of the memory location at **address** into register **r0**.

**STR r0,address** *Store* the contents of register **r0** at the specified **address** in memory.

**ADD r0,r1,r2** *Add* the contents of register **r1** to the contents of register **r2** and store the result in register **r0**.

**SUB r0,r1,r2** *Subtract* the contents of register **r2** from the contents of register **r1** and store the result in register **r0**.

**BPL target** *If* the result of the previous operation was *plus* (*+ve* or *zero*) *then* branch to the instruction at address **target**.

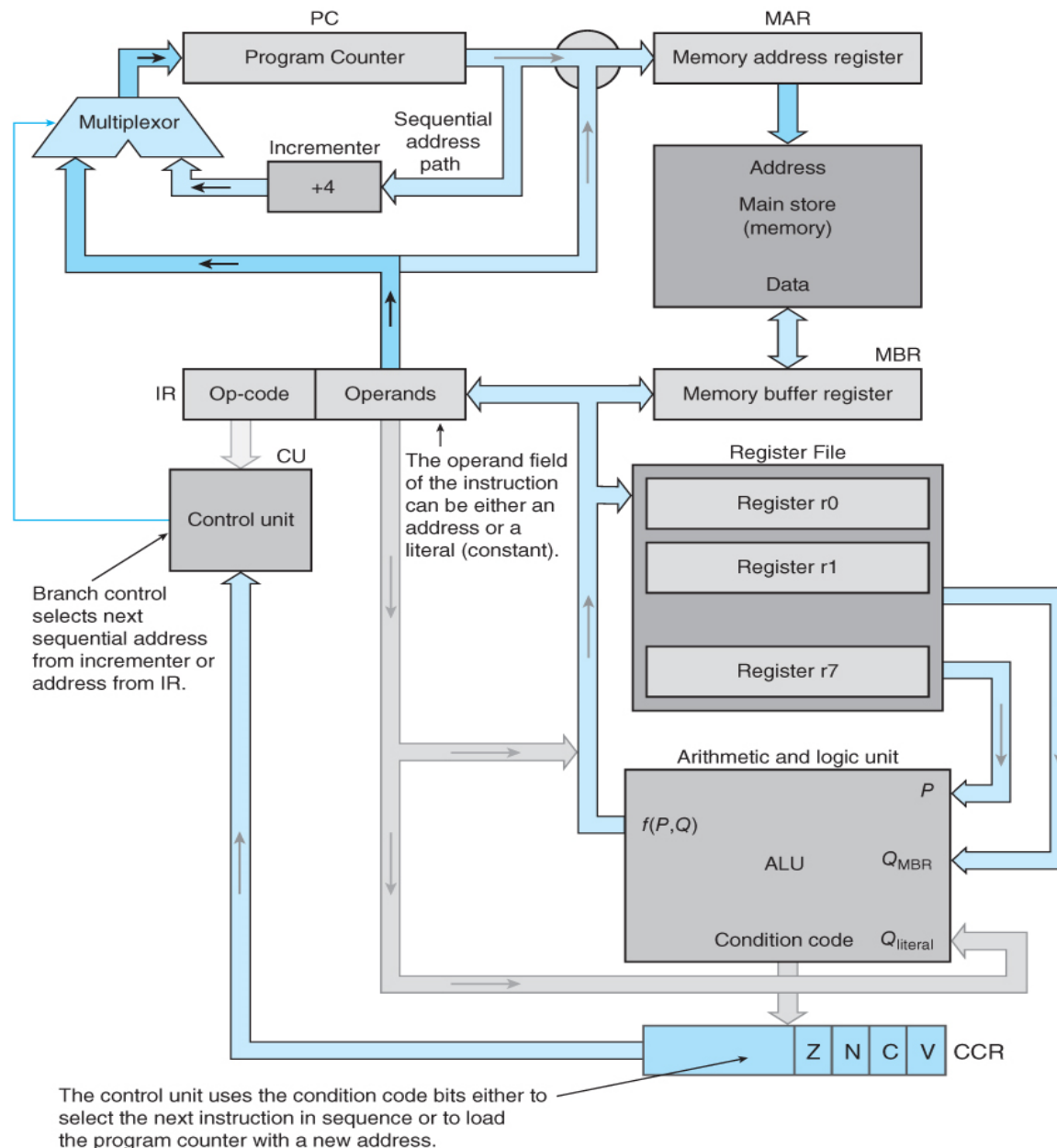
**BEQ target** *If* the result of the previous operation was *zero*, *then* branch to the instruction at address **target**.

**B target** *Branch unconditionally* to the instruction stored at the memory address **target**.

Note the number of operands in each instruction.

## Flow Control

FIGURE 3.5 Implementing conditional behavior at the machine level

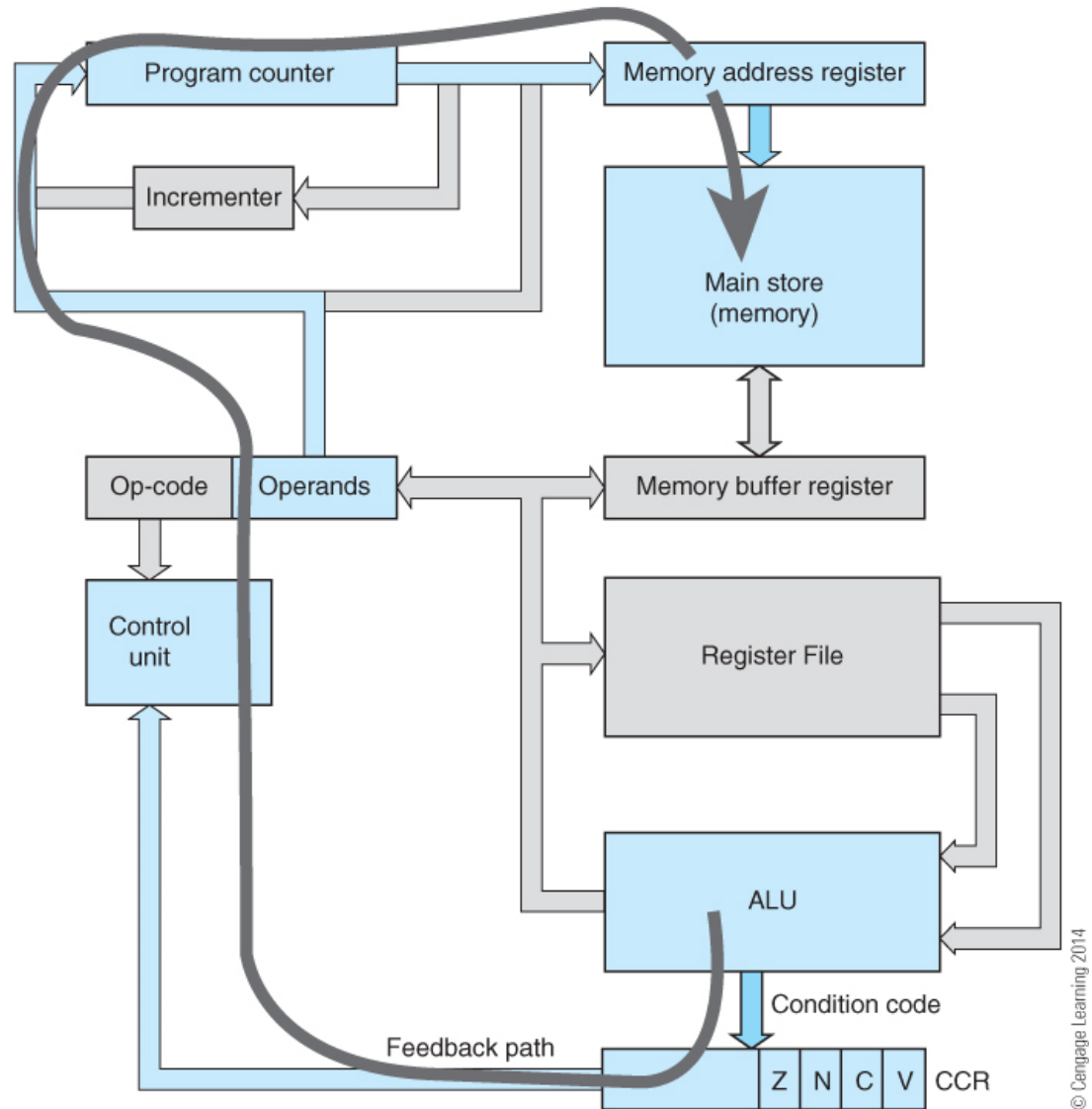


- ❑ *Flow control* refers to any action that *modifies* the strict instruction-by-instruction sequence of a program.
- ❑ *Conditional behavior* allows a processor to select one of two possible courses of action.
- ❑ A *conditional instruction* like BEQ results in either
  - continuing program execution normally, or
  - loading the program counter with a new value and executing a *branch* to another region of code.

# Flow Control

**FIGURE 3.6** Feedback from ALU to instruction

Figure 3.6 illustrate how the result from the ALU can be used to modify the sequence of instructions.



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## Status Bits (Flags)

- ❑ When the computer performs an operation, it stores *status* or *condition* information in the *Condition Code Register (CCR)*.
- ❑ The processor records whether the result is
  - **Zero (Z)**,
  - **Negative in two's complement terms (N)**,
  - **generated a Carry (C)**, or
  - **arithmetic oVerflow (V)**.

## Status Bits (Flags)

### □ Example:

```
00110011
+01000010
-----
```

```
01110101
```

Z = 0, N = 0

C = 0, V = 0

```
11111111
+00000001
-----
```

```
10000000
```

Z = 1, N = 0

C = 1, V = 0

```
01011100
+01000001
-----
```

```
10011101
```

Z = 0, N = 1

C = 0, V = 1

```
11011100
+11000001
-----
```

```
11001101
```

Z = 0, N = 1

C = 1, V = 0

51

+66

---

117

-1

+1

---

0

92

+65

---

-99

-36

-63

---

-99

**CISC means COMPLEX Instruction Set Computer**

- **CISC** processors, like the *Intel IA32*
  - update status flags after each operation.

**RISC means REDUCED Instruction Set Computer**

- **RISC** processors, like the *ARM*,
  - require the programmer to request updating the status flags.
- The *ARM* does it *by appending an S to the instruction*;
  - for example SUBS or ADDS.

## Example of a Conditional Operation

```
        SUBS  r5,r5,#1  ;Subtract 1 from r5
        BEQ   onZero    ;IF zero then go to the line labeled 'onZero'
notZero ADD   r1,r2,r3   ;ELSE continue from here
        .
        .
onZero  SUB    r1,r2,r3   ;Here's where we end up if we take the branch
```

### Explanation

#### SUBS r5,r5,#1

- ❑ subtracts 1 from the contents of register r5.
- ❑ After completing this operation the number remaining in r5 may, or may not, be zero.

#### BEQ onZero

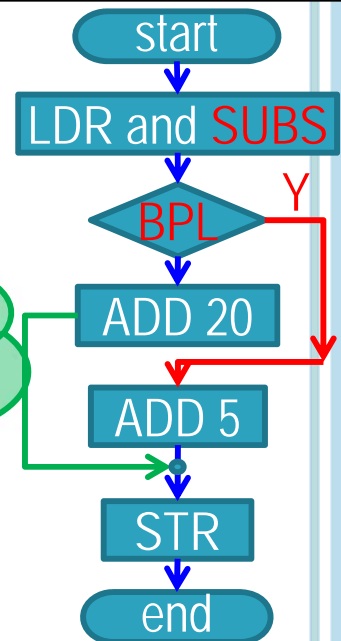
- ❑ forces a branch to the line labeled '**onZero**' if the outcome of the last operation was zero.
- ❑ Otherwise the next instruction in sequence after the BEQ is executed.

## Example of a Conditional Operation

$P \geq Q$   
is the same as  
 $P - Q \geq 0$

```
IF P ≥ Q THEN X = P + 5
ELSE X = P + 20
```

This is an unconditional branching that prevents the following instruction from being executed.



```

LDR    r0,P      ;Load r0 with the contents of location P
LDR    r1,Q      ;Load r1 with the contents of location Q
SUBS   r2,r0,r1  ;Subtract the contents of Q from P
BPL    THEN      ;IF P - Q ≥ 0 then execute the 'THEN' part
ADD    r0,r0,#20 ;ELSE Add 20 to the contents of r0 to get P + 20
B      EXIT      ;Skip past 'THEN' part to 'EXIT'
  
```

```

THEN ADD    r0,r0,#5 ;Add 5 to r0 to get P + 5
EXIT STR    r0,X     ;Store r0 in memory location X
STOP
  
```

```

P      DCD    12      ;These three lines reserve memory space for
Q      DCD    9        ;the three operands P, Q, X. The memory
X      DCD    0        ;locations are 36, 40, and 44, respectively.
  
```

Here's where the test and conditional branching take place

DCD means, Define Constant Data

## Example of a Conditional Operation

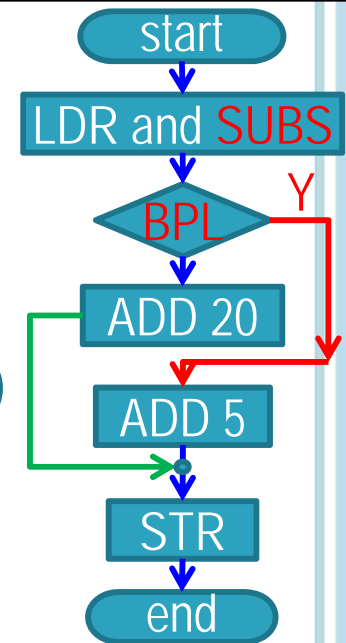
IF  $P \geq Q$  THEN  $X = P + 5$   
 ELSE  $X = P + 20$

Same example,  
 but with  
 RTL comments

```

LDR    r0,P      ;[r0] ← [P]
LDR    r1,Q      ;[r1] ← [Q]
SUBS   r2,r0,r1  ;[r2] ← [r0] - [r1]
BPL    THEN      ;IF [r2] ≥ 0 [PC] ← THEN
ADD    r0,r0,#20 ;[r0] ← [r0] + 20
B      EXIT      ;[PC] ← EXIT
THEN   ADD    r0,r0,#5 ;[r0] ← [r0] + 5
EXIT   STR    r0,X   ;[X] ← [r0]
STOP
  
```

P     DCD    12     ;These three lines reserve memory space for  
 Q     DCD    9     ;the three operands P, Q, X. The memory  
 X     DCD    0     ;locations are 36, 40, and 44, respectively.



How are the locations P, Q, and X calculated?



## Example of a Conditional Operation

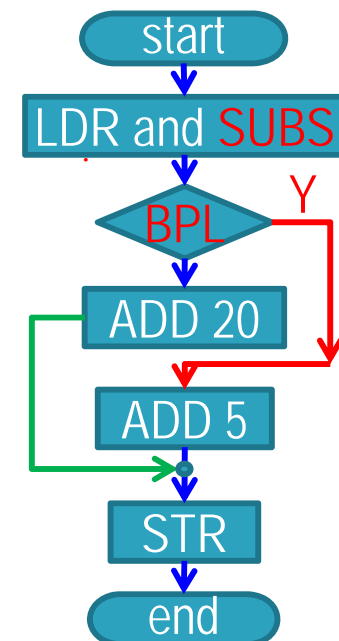
Case 1:  $P = 12$ ,  $Q = 9$ , and hence the conditional branch is *taken* (i.e., will branch to *THEN*)

0	LDR	r0,36
4	LDR	r1,40
8	SUBS	r2,r0,r1
12	BPL	24
16	ADD	r0,r0,#20
20	B	28
24	ADD	r0,r0,#5
28	STR	r0,44
32	STOP	
36		12
40		9
44		

Next instruction

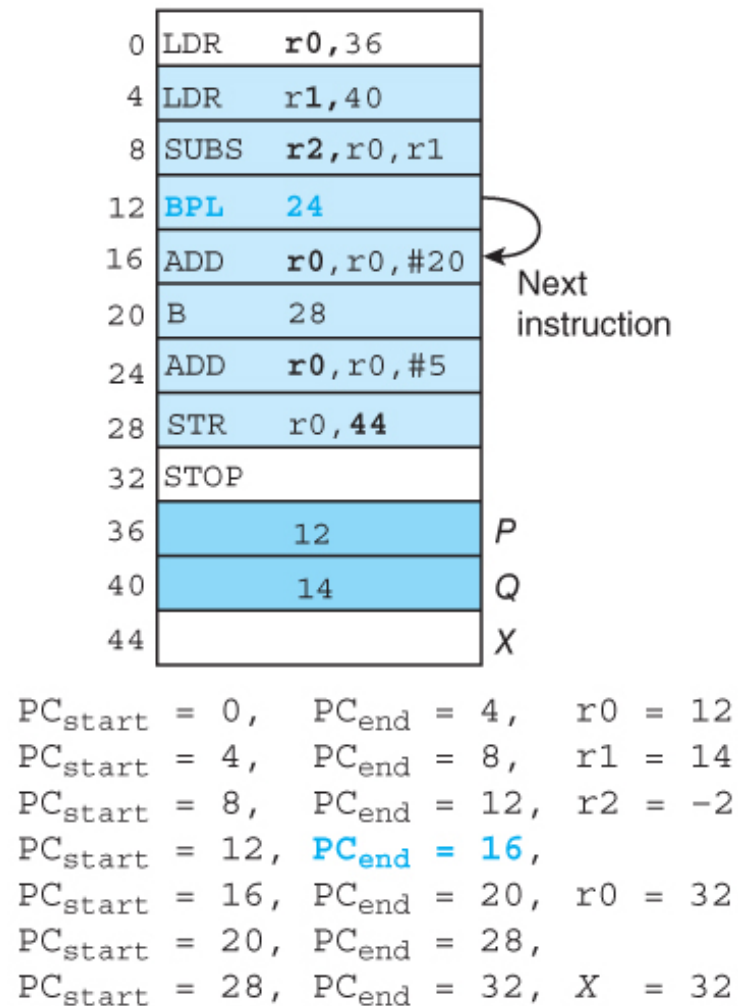
LDR	r0,P	;[r0] ← [P]
LDR	r1,Q	;[r1] ← [Q]
SUBS	r2,r0,r1	;[r2] ← [r0] - [r1]
BPL	THEN	;IF [r2] ≥ 0 [PC] ← THEN
ADD	r0,r0,#20	;[r0] ← [r0] + 20
B	EXIT	;[PC] ← EXIT
ADD	r0,r0,#5	;[r0] ← [r0] + 5
STR	r0,X	;[X] ← [r0]
STOP		
P	DCD	12
Q	DCD	9
X	DCD	0

$PC_{start} = 0, \quad PC_{end} = 4, \quad r0 = 12$   
 $PC_{start} = 4, \quad PC_{end} = 8, \quad r1 = 9$   
 $PC_{start} = 8, \quad PC_{end} = 12, \quad r2 = 3$   
 $PC_{start} = 12, \quad PC_{end} = 24,$   
 $PC_{start} = 24, \quad PC_{end} = 28, \quad r0 = 17$   
 $PC_{start} = 28, \quad PC_{end} = 32, \quad X = 17$



## Example of a Conditional Operation

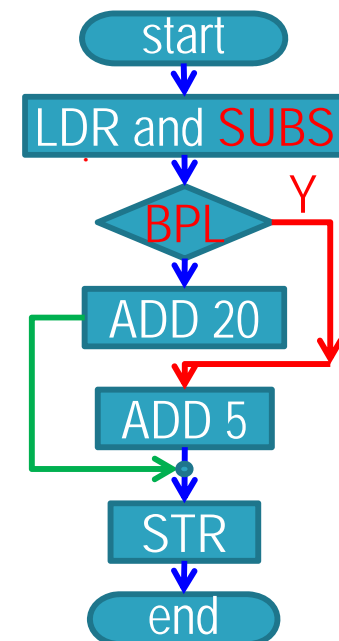
Case 2: **P = 12**, **Q = 14**, and hence the conditional branch is *not taken* (i.e., will **NOT** branch to **THEN**)



LDR	r0,P	;[r0] ← [P]
LDR	r1,Q	;[r1] ← [Q]
SUBS	r2,r0,r1	;[r2] ← [r0] - [r1]
BPL	THEN	;IF [r2] ≥ 0 [PC] ← THEN
ADD	r0,r0,#20	;[r0] ← [r0] + 20
B	EXIT	;[PC] ← EXIT
ADD	r0,r0,#5	;[r0] ← [r0] + 5
STR	r0,X	;[X] ← [r0]
STOP		

P	DCD	12
Q	DCD	14
X	DCD	0



## Example of a Conditional Operation

❑ Consider the code needed to calculate  $1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + \dots + 20$

```
MOV  r0,#1      ;Put 1 in register r0 (the counter)
MOV  r1,#0      ;Put 0 in register r1 (the sum)
Next ADD  r1,r1,r0 ;REPEAT: Add current counter to sum
      ADD  r0,r0,#1 ; Add 1 to the counter
      CMP  r0,#21  ; Have we added all 20 numbers?
      BNE  Next    ;UNTIL we have made 20 iterations
      STOP          ;If we have then stop
```

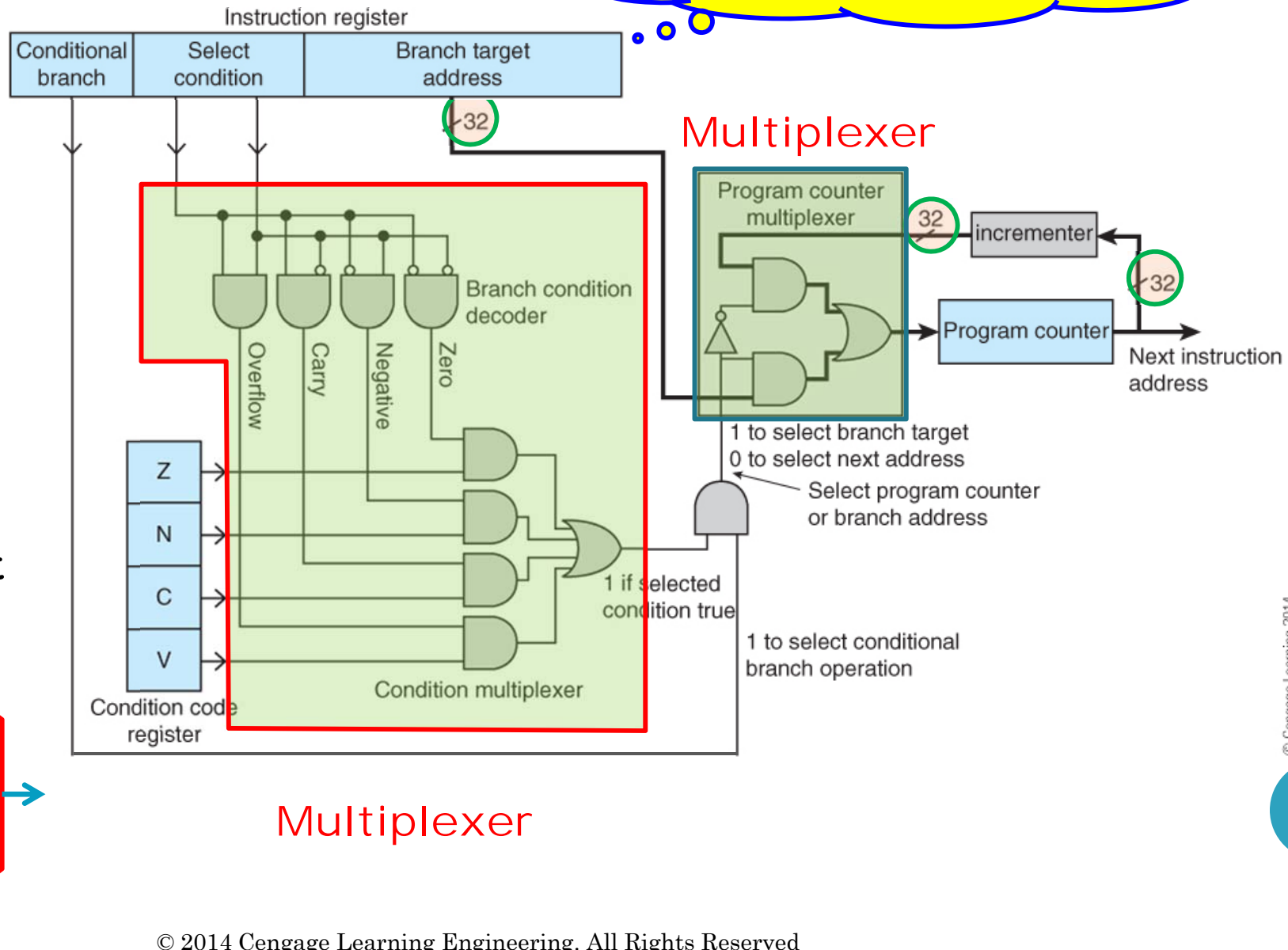
MOV and CMP instructions need ONLY two operands.

CMP compares the value in a register with *Operand2*,  
i.e., subtracting *Operand2* from the register value.

It *updates* the condition flags on the result,  
but does *not* place the result in any register.

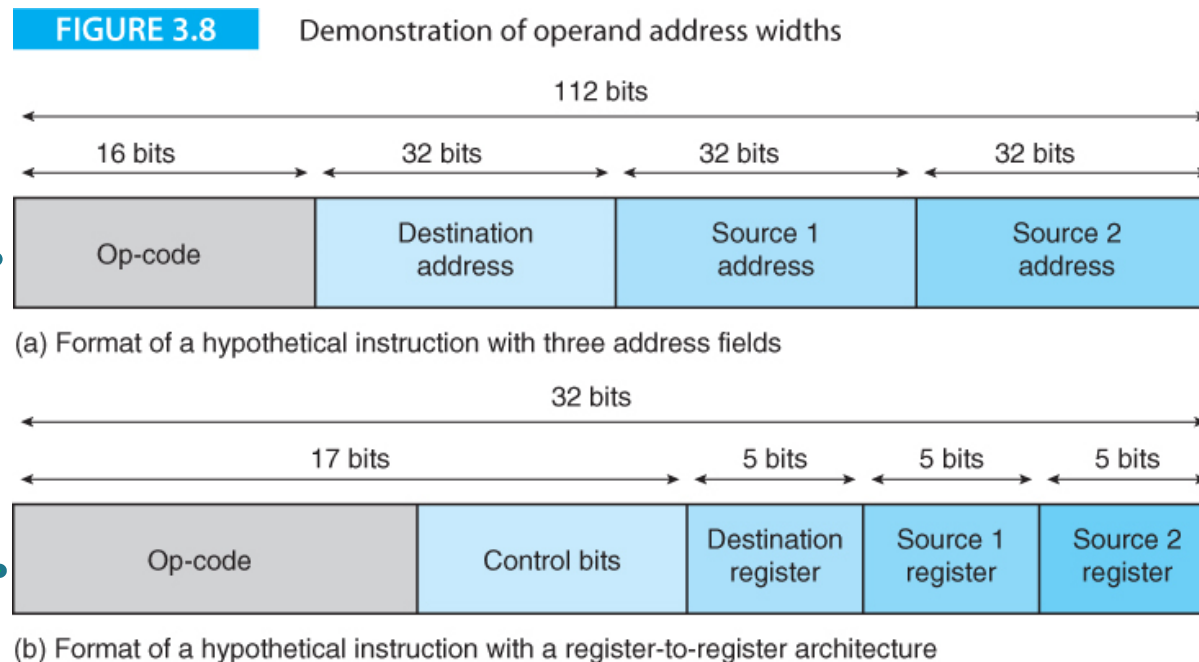
# Example of a Conditional Operation

This is a hypothetical instruction



# Memory-to-memory vs Register-to-register instructions

- ❑ Figure 3.8a illustrates an instruction that implements ADD A,B,C where A, B, and C are 32-bit memory addresses. The width is 112 bits which is unfeasibly large.
- ❑ Figure 3.8b illustrates the format of a hypothetical RISC processor with a *register-to-register* format that can execute ADD R1,R2,R3 where the registers are chosen from 32 possible registers (requiring a 5-bit register address field).
  - Such a format is used by most 32-bit RISC processors with small variations.



14 bytes

4 bytes

These are hypothetical instructions

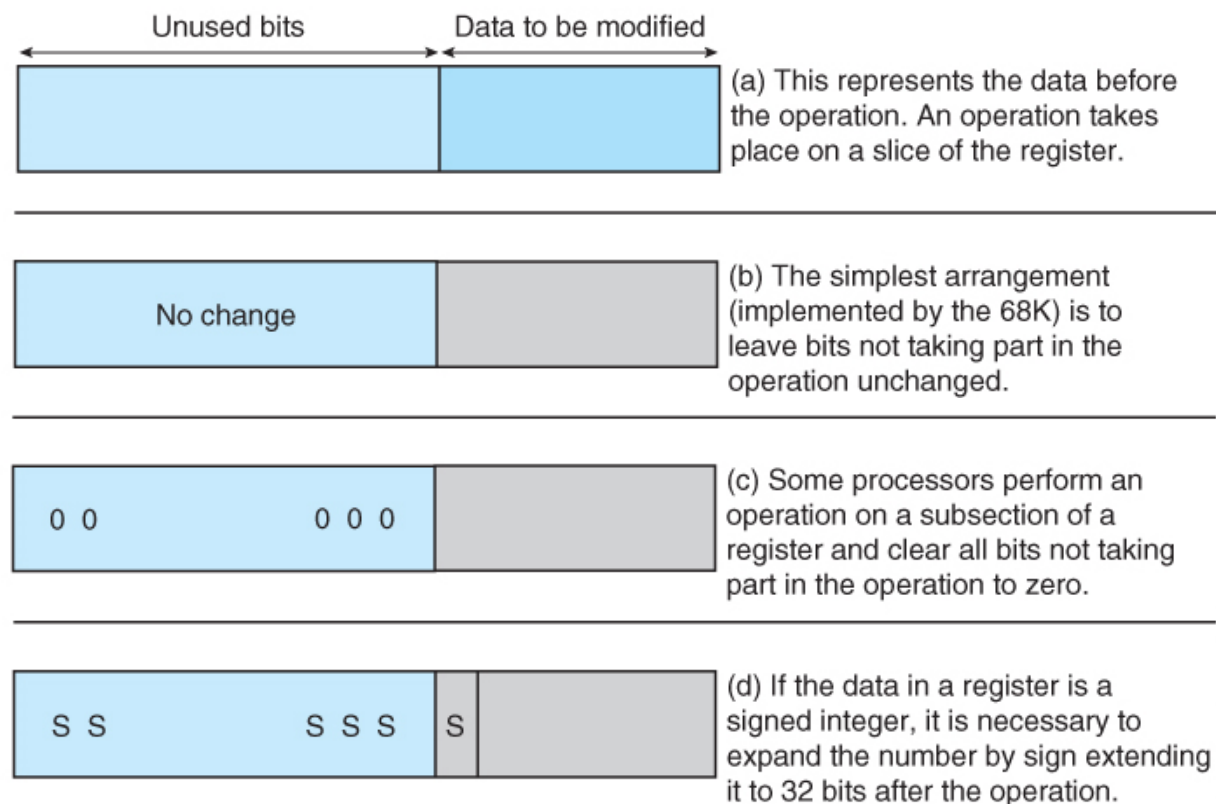
## General-Purpose Registers

- ❑ Registers usually have the same width as the fundamental word of a computer (*but not always so*).
- ❑ Computers might have
  - *special-purpose* (dedicated ) registers
  - *general-purpose registers*
- ❑ The **ARM** processors have
  - general-purpose registers, and
  - two special purpose registers (have special hardware-defined functions)
    - cannot be used by the programmer for general-purpose data processing.

## Data Extension

- ❑ Sometimes registers hold data values smaller than their actual length
  - for example a 16-bit (halfword in a 32-bit word register).
- ❑ What happens to the other bits? (*processor dependent*)
  - some leave the unused bits unchanged,
  - some set the unused bits to 0, and
  - some sign-extend the 16-bit halfword to 32-bits (*two's complement*)

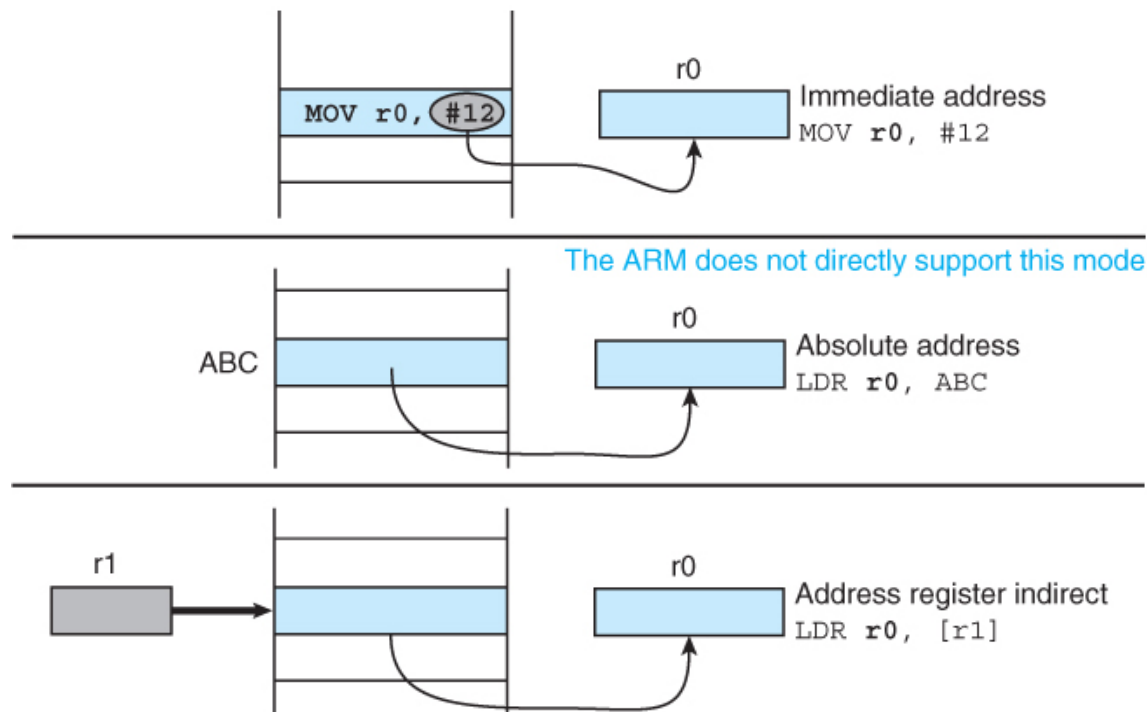
**FIGURE 3.9** Operations on a subsection of a register



# Addressing Modes

- There are three fundamental addressing modes
  - *Literal or immediate*
    - the actual value is part of the instruction
  - *Direct or absolute*
    - the instruction provides the memory address of the operand
    - *The ARM architecture does not directly support this mode*
  - *Register indirect or pointer based or indexed*
    - a register contains the address of the operand

**FIGURE 3.10** Progressive sequence of addressing modes





## Instruction Types

- ❑ **Memory-to-register**
  - The source operands are in memory and
  - the destination operand is in a register
- ❑ **Register-to-memory**
  - The source operands are in registers and
  - the destination operand is in memory
- ❑ **Register-to-register**
  - Both operands are in registers.

**CISC means COMPLEX Instruction Set Computer**

- ❑ **CISC processors** like the Intel IA32 family and Motorola/Freescale 68K family *allow memory-to-register* and *register-to memory data-processing* operations.

**RISC means REDUCED Instruction Set Computer**

- ❑ **RISC processors** like the ARM and MIPS *allow only register-to-register data-processing* operations.
- ❑ **RISC processors** *have a special LOAD and a special STORE instructions (pseudo instructions) to transfer data between memory and a register.*

# Operands and Instructions

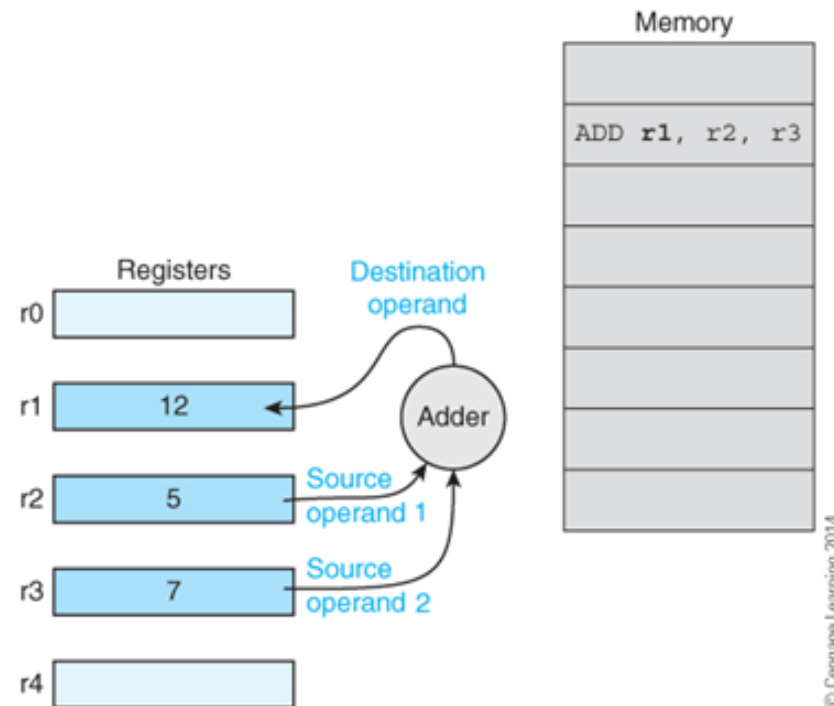
- ❑ **Processors** can have
  - *three-address* instructions,
  - *two-address* instructions,
  - *one-address* instructions, and
  - *zero-address* instructions.
  
- ❑ **CISC** processors *typically* have
  - *Two-address* instructions where
    - *one* address is *memory* and the *other* is a *register*.
  
- ❑ **RISC** processors *typically* have a
  - *three-address* data processing instruction where
    - *the three* operand addresses *are registers*.
  
  - They *also have two* special *two-address* instructions,
    - **LOAD** and **STORE**.

## Three Address Machines

- ❑ Processors *do not* implement *three memory address* instructions (*why?*)
- ❑ A typical **RISC** processor *allows three register addresses* in an instruction
  - For example:

ADD r1,r2,r3      ;Add r2 to r3 and put the result in r1

FIGURE 3.11 The three address instruction



## Two Address Machines

- ❑ Typically, the *operands* are either
  - two registers or
  - one a register and one a memory location;

For example, the **ADD** instruction in a **68K processor** can be written as:

Instruction	RTL definition	Mode
ADD D0,D1	$:[D1] \leftarrow [D1] + [D0]$	Register-to-register
ADD P,D2	$:[D2] \leftarrow [D2] + [P]$	Memory-to-register
ADD D7,P	$:[P] \leftarrow [P] + [D7]$	Register-to-memory

- ❑ The *price* of a *two-operand* instruction format is
  - the *destruction (overwriting)* of one of the source operands.
- ❑ A **CISC** has a *two-address* instruction format.
  - You can execute  $Q \leftarrow Q + P$ .
  - One operand appears *twice*,
    - first as a *source* and then
    - as a *destination*.

## One Address Machines

- ❑ A *one-address* machine specifies just one operand in the instruction.
- ❑ The *second operand* is a fixed register called an *accumulator* that doesn't have to be specified.
- ❑ For example, the operation one-address instruction ADD P means  $[A] \leftarrow [A] + [P]$ . The notation  $[A]$  indicates the contents of the accumulator.
- ❑ The simple operation  $R = P + Q$  can be implemented by the following fragment of 8-bit code from a first-generation 6800 8-bit processor.

```
LDA  P    ;load accumulator with P
ADD  Q    ;add Q to accumulator
STA  R    ;store accumulator in R
```

## Zero Address Machines

- ❑ A *zero-address* machine uses instructions that *do not have an address at all*.
- ❑ A *zero-address* machine *operates* on data that is *at the top of a stack*
  - normally referred to as *stack machines*.
- ❑ A *pure zero-address* machine *is not practical*, as *load and store* instructions *are needed* to read and put data from and to memory
- ❑ *Example*: the code used to evaluate the expression  $Z = (A + B) * (C - D)$  might be written as:

PUSH A	Push A on stack
PUSH B	Push B on stack
ADD	Add top two items and push A+B on the stack
PUSH C	Push C on the stack
PUSH D	Push D on the stack
SUB	Subtract top two items and push C - D on the stack
MUL	Multiply top two items on stack (C - D), (A + B) push result
POP Z	Pull the top item off the stack (the result)

## Zero Address Machines

❑ Stack machines can easily handle Boolean logic.

❑ **Example**, consider if  $(A < B)$  or  $(C == D)$ .

This can be expressed as:

PUSH A    Push A on stack

PUSH B    Push B on stack

LT        Pull A and B and perform comparison. Push true or false

PUSH C    Push C

PUSH D    Push D

EQ        Push C and D and test for equality. Push true or false

OR        Pull top two Boolean values off stack. Perform OR push result.

❑ The Boolean value on the stack can be used with a branch on true or a branch on false command as in the case of any other computer.