

Digital Logic Design + Computer Architecture

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Instruction Set Architecture

How to talk to a Computer?

- Computers can be given “instructions”
- We have a set of instructions for every computer — called **instruction set**
- When you write a program, you write instructions..
 - More details later...
 - Every instruction some hardware circuit implemented inside the processor to get its job done.
- **Instruction Set Architecture:** specifies the set of instructions a processor understands, their encoding, how they access memory etc...

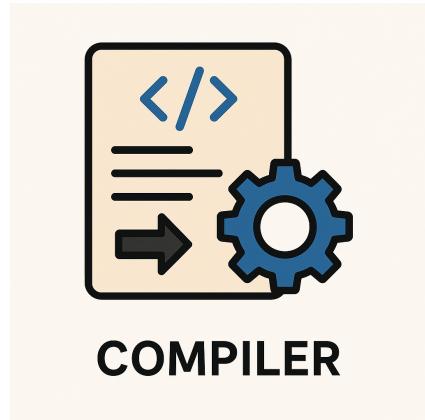


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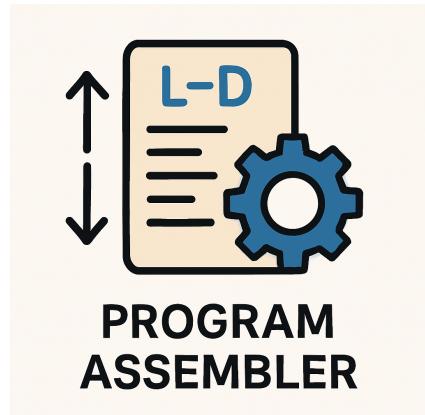
What happens when you write a program

- Say we write:

- $a = b + c;$



- There is a software program called **compiler**
 - Takes our code and encodes in terms of the instructions available for the computer
 - add reg1, reg2, reg3



- There is another program called **assembler** which converts the instruction (sequence) to bits
 - 0101110000110101



Image generated by ChatGPT

How to talk to a Computer?

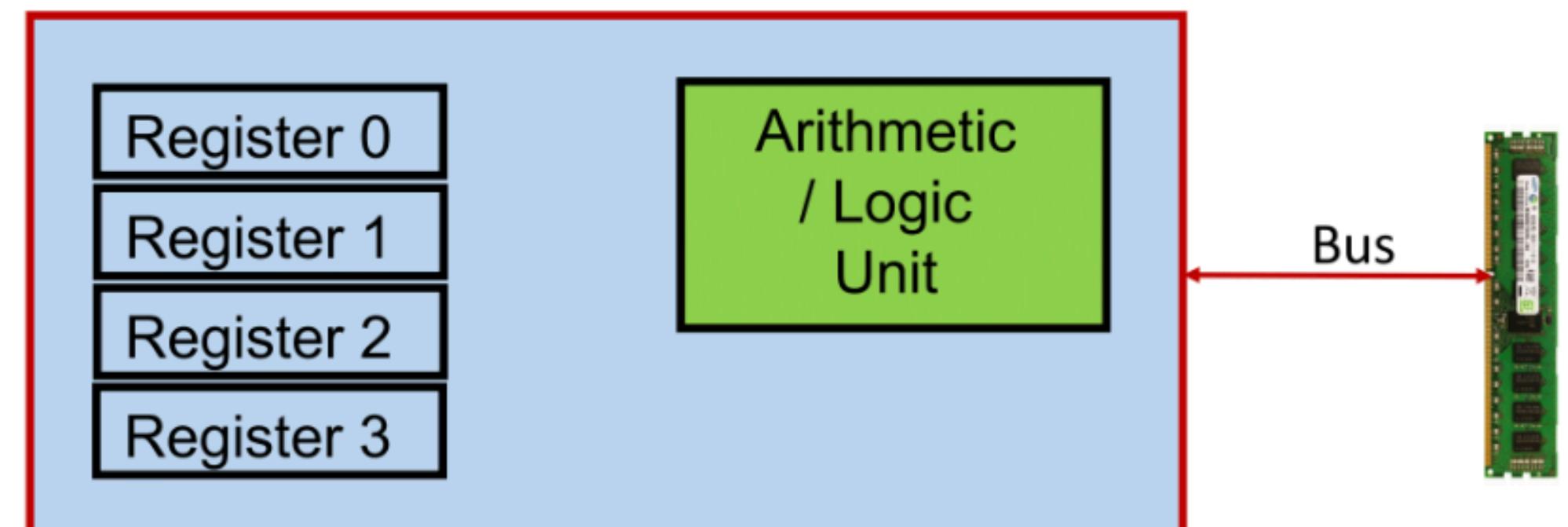
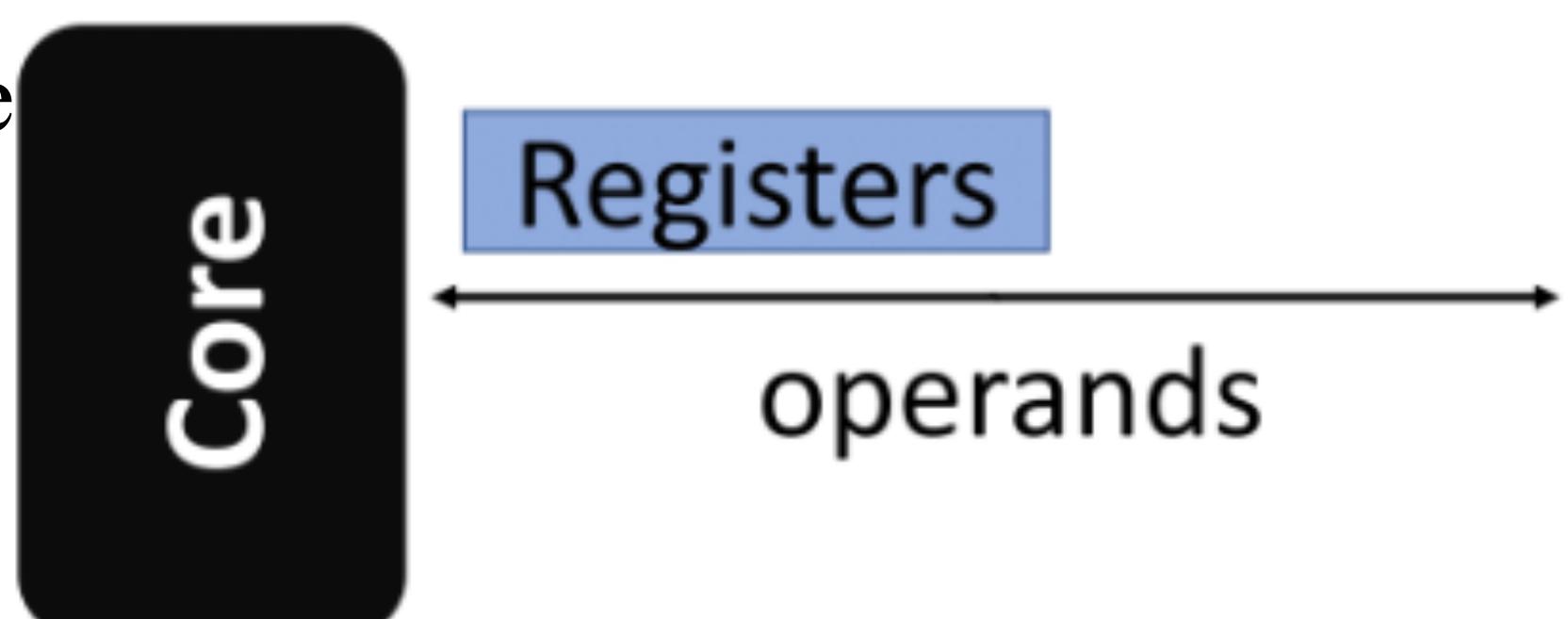
- **Instruction Set Architecture:** specifies the set of instructions a processor understands, their encoding, how they access memory etc...
 - **End of the day even your ChatGPT is a sequence of instructions** (many billions or trillions).
 - Instruction set is basically an **abstraction layer**
 - **Hides the complexity of hardware from the software designers,**
 - **Interfaces the software and hardware.**



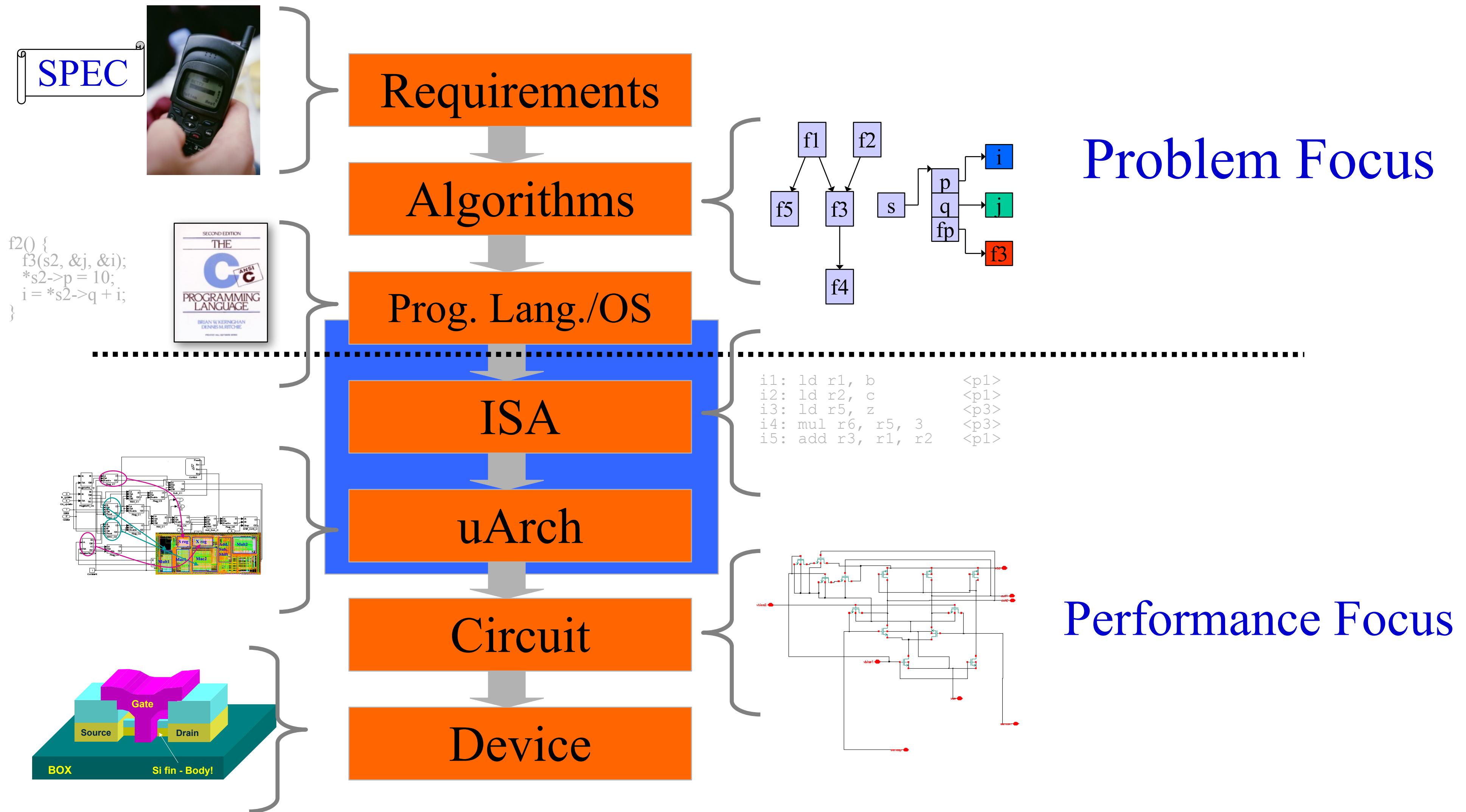
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Let's get into the processor a bit

- It is a sequential circuit with a **limited** number of registers.
 - It interacts with an external “memory”.
 - Every instruction operates on some **operands** and generate results.
- Results and operands are stored in **registers**.
 - **But they can also be in memory as the number of registers are limited**
- Note that typically such memory (called **DRAM** or **Dynamic Random Access Memory**) is off chip —**outside the processor**
 - **To operate, you have to bring the data from memory and store the results back**

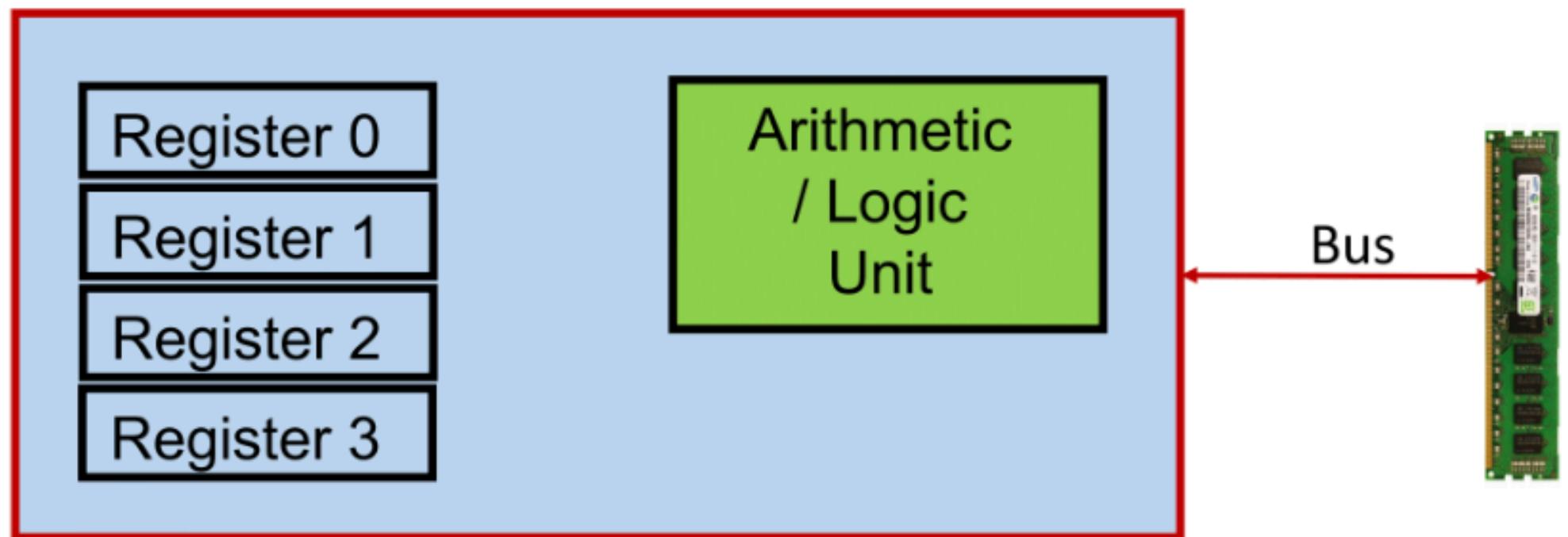
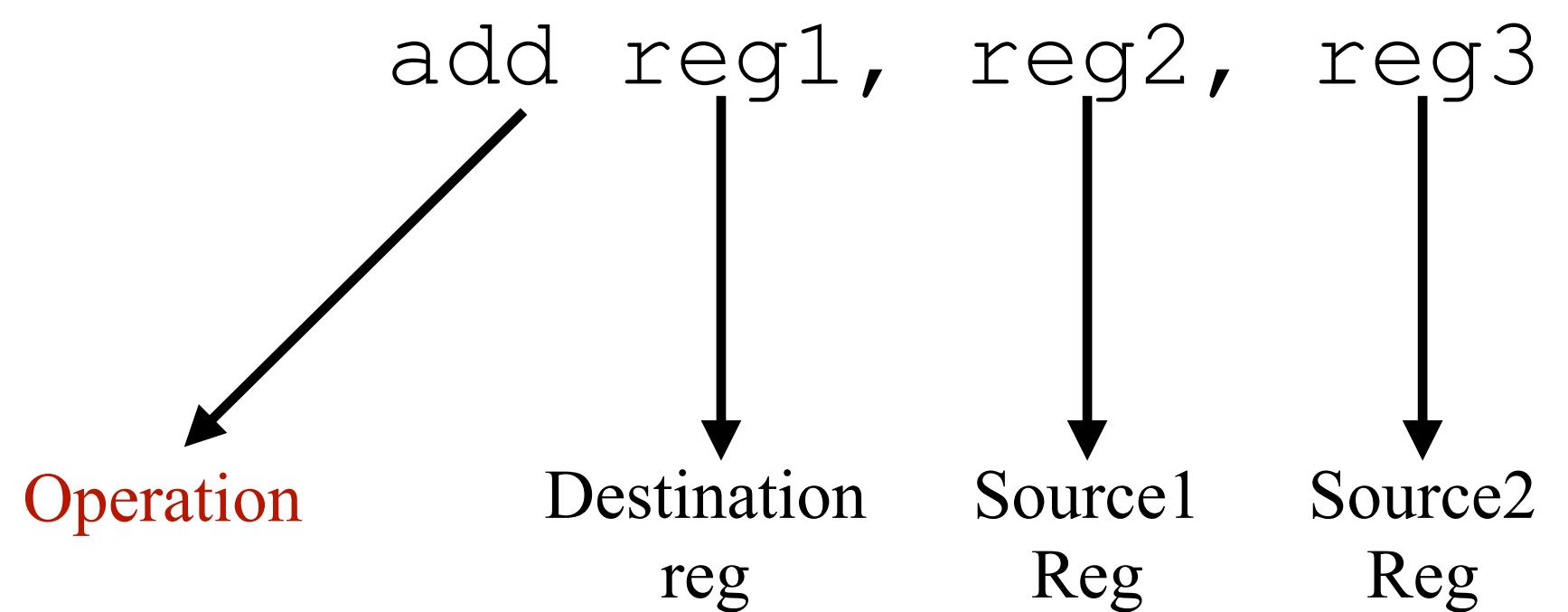


The Big Picture



Dissection of an Instruction

- Let's focus on the simplistic view of the processor



- Most of the arithmetic/logical instructions can take this form — not all though

Instruction Set Architectures (ISA)

- There are many...
 - Intel uses **X86**
 - Apple uses a version of **AArch64** (ARM)
 - The entire world of embedded processors like ST-Microelectronics uses ARM
 - Now **RISC-V** is becoming a mainstream trend.
 - We shall study MIPS — a simple to understand ISA

Instruction Set Architectures (ISA)

- We shall study MIPS — a simple to understand ISA
 - Great for beginning...
 - Similar to ARM
 - Still in use in the embedded devices
 - Your smart card
 - Modems
 - Bitcoin-wallets

Now let's write some MIPS

- We shall name the registers as \$0, \$1, or \$a0, \$g1 etc...
- Now we shall try something a bit more complex...

add reg1, reg2, reg3
↓
add \$0, \$1, \$2

Now let's write some MIPS

- Let's compute: $a = b + c - d$
- No idea? — get idea :P

add reg1, reg2, reg3
↓
add \$0, \$1, \$2

Now let's write some MIPS

- Let's compute: $a = b + c - d$
add \$0, \$1, \$2
- Assume we have add and sub instructions taking two
sources and one destination register
sub \$0, \$1, \$2

Now let's write some MIPS

- Let's compute: $a = b+c-d$
add \$0, \$1, \$2
- Assume we have add and sub instructions taking two sources and one destination register
sub \$0, \$1, \$2
- First' let's simplify :
 - $t = b+c$
 - $a = t-d$
- Now, I can map to instructions..
 - add \$r0, \$r1, \$r2 // $t = b+c$
 - sub \$d0, \$r0, \$r3 // $a = t-d$

• **Observe:** I use a temporary register...

Now let's write some MIPS

- Let's try: $f = (g+h) - (i+j)$

Now let's write some MIPS

- Let's try: $f = (g+h) - (i+j)$

- add \$r0, \$r1, \$r2 // $x = g+h$
- add \$r3, \$r4, \$r5 // $y = i+j$
- Sub \$r0, \$r0, \$r3 // $f = x-y$

- **Food of thought:** Well, do I really need to reuse registers???



Ok...A Few MIPS Details...

- We have 32 registers in the processor
 - So we have to reuse registers, no other option...
 - Typically, registers are 32-bits...
- But why don't we have infinite number of registers
 - Well, every piece of register is a real hardware...



- But: Why 32??

Ok...A Few MIPS Details...

- We have 32 registers in the processor
 - So we have to reuse registers, no other option...
 - Typically, registers are 32-bits...
 - Each instruction also encoded in 32 bits



- But: Why 32??

- But why don't we have infinite number of registers
 - Well, every piece of register is a real hardware...

The choice depends on several factors, like the speed of the execution, the usage and size of memory, the size of code, the encoding and decoding of instructions....**It's not a random choice...**

Immediate Instructions...

- $b = a + 7$
`addi $r0, $r1, 7`
 - We don't need a register for the constant...
 - Can you tell me why?? Just guess...



Immediate Instructions...

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- i stands for ‘immediate’
- The constant is in **2's complement form and of 16 bits.**
- Question: Do I need a subi instruction??

Zero Is Very Special in Our Life...

- MIPS has a register which is called \$zero
 - It stores 0
 - What is the purpose?
 - Well, a lot...you will see
 - A simple use of \$zero

```
add $r1, $r0, $zero // a = b
```

- But again, why???



Zero Is Very Special in Our Life...

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```
add $r1, $r0, $zero // a = b
```

- But again, why??? — just not needed



a=b...The Pseudo-Instructions

- You can still write...

```
move $r1, $r0 // a = b
```

- But it is a pseudo-instruction
- Internally it converts to add
- Once again an engineering choice
- There are many such pseudo-instructions. See:

https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/MIPS_Assembly/Pseudoinstructions

Logical Instructions

- Your good old Boolean algebra

sll, srl, and, or, nor, andi, ori etc

No **not** instruction ☺, well not is nor with one operand=0

- Remember: These are **bitwise operations...**
 - Treats the operands as bit strings instead of numbers

Logical Instructions

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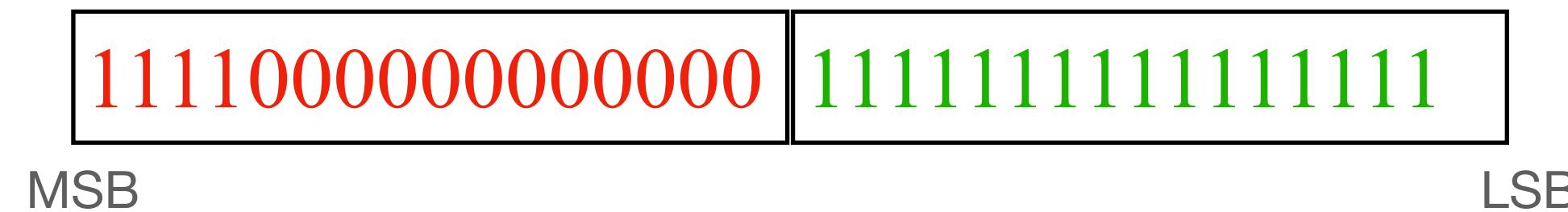
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Critical Thinking...

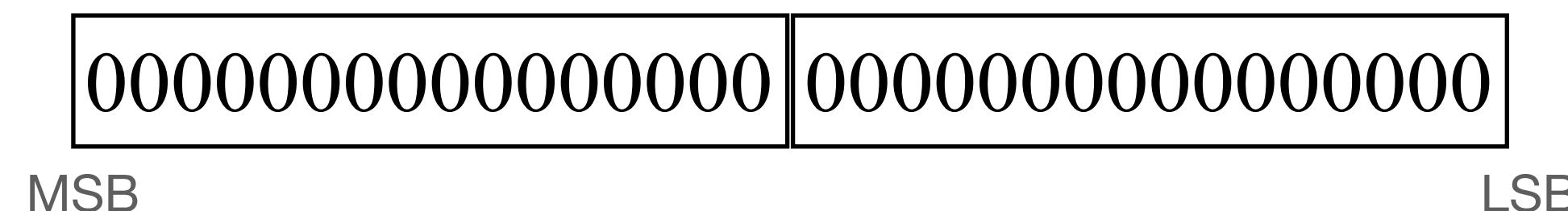
- We have seen that constants are 16 bits...
- But registers are 32-bits...
- How to store a 32-bit constant in a register???
 - Let's say the constant is:
 - 11110000000000001111111111111111
 - In Hex: 0xF000FFFF
- Info: You have the following new instruction:
 - **lui \$r0, const** // loads const in the upper 16 bits of the register \$r0

Critical Thinking...

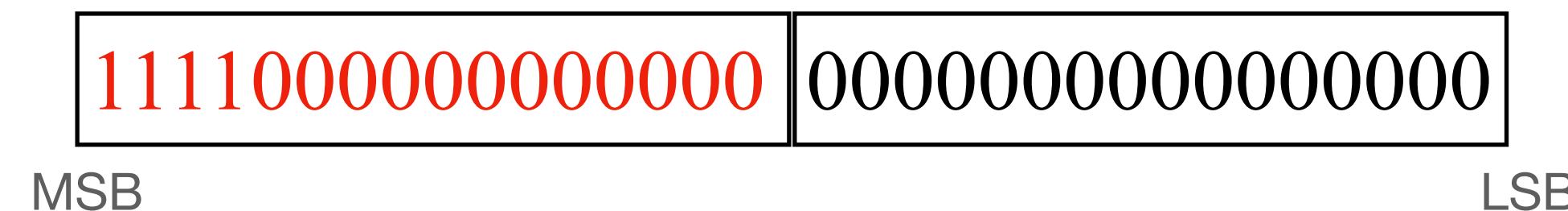
- Think, how the data will be represented inside your register...



- Initially The register \$r0 is at (simplifying assumption...does not matter)

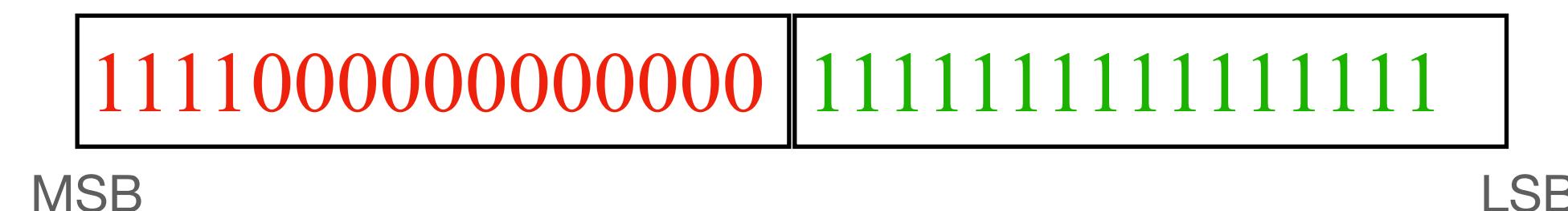


- Now do: lui \$r0, 0xF000



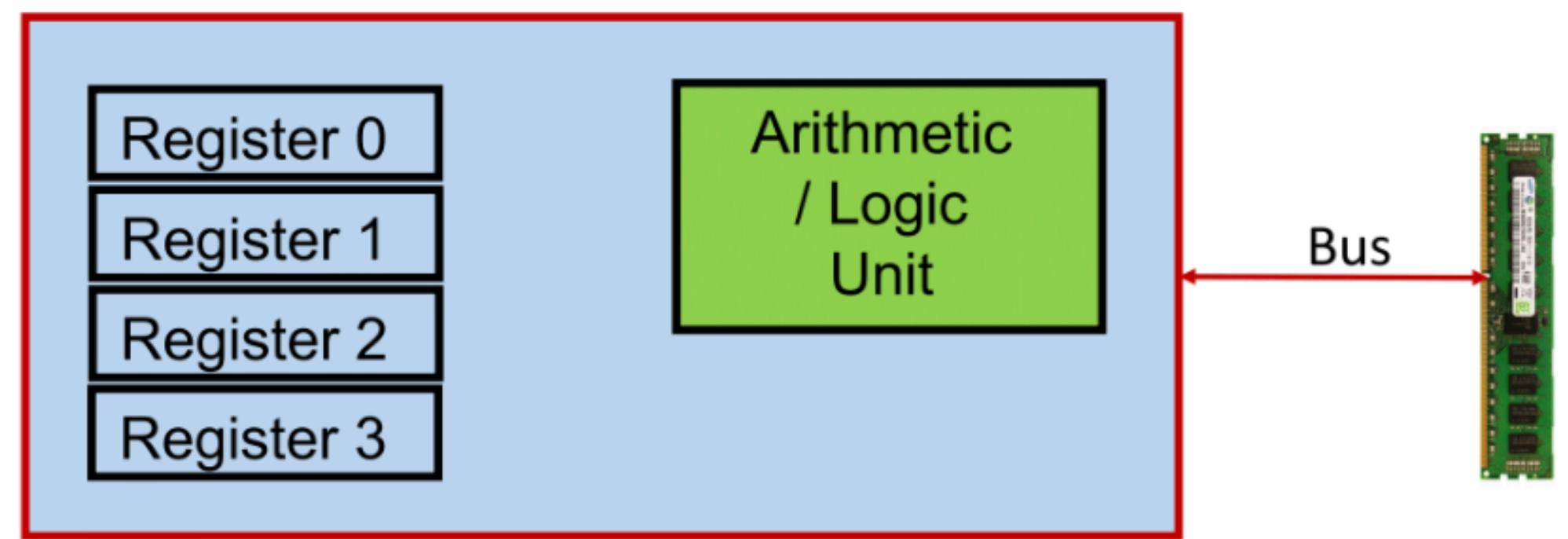
- Now do, addi \$r0, 0xFFFF

• You can also do ori



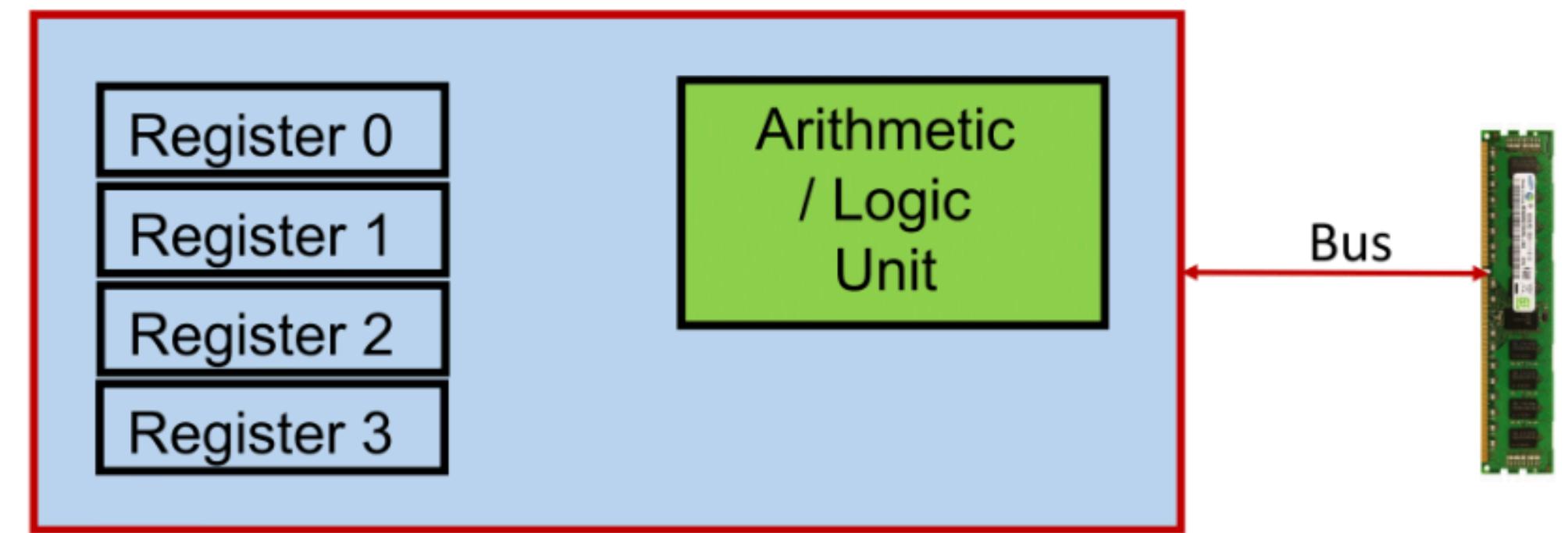
How to Use Your Memory??

- Recall, that MIPS only have 32 registers.
- Have you ever cared about counts while declaring variables in your program? — No way...
- Then how things work?
 - How can every program fits itself in 32 registers?



How to Use Your Memory??

- Solution:
 - Just store things in an external memory
 - Fetch the data to registers whenever it is required
 - Store the results after processing.
 - But still something is missing here...What is that??



How to Use Your Memory??

- Name this person?



How to Use Your Memory??

- Name this person?
 - John Luis von Neumann



How to Use Your Memory??

- In the old days, “programming” involved actually changing a machine’s physical configuration:
 - by flipping switches or connecting wires.
 - Memory only stored data that was being operated on.
- Then around 1944, **John von Neumann and others got the idea to encode instructions in a format that could be stored in memory just like data. — Stored program paradigm**
 - The processor interprets and executes instructions from memory



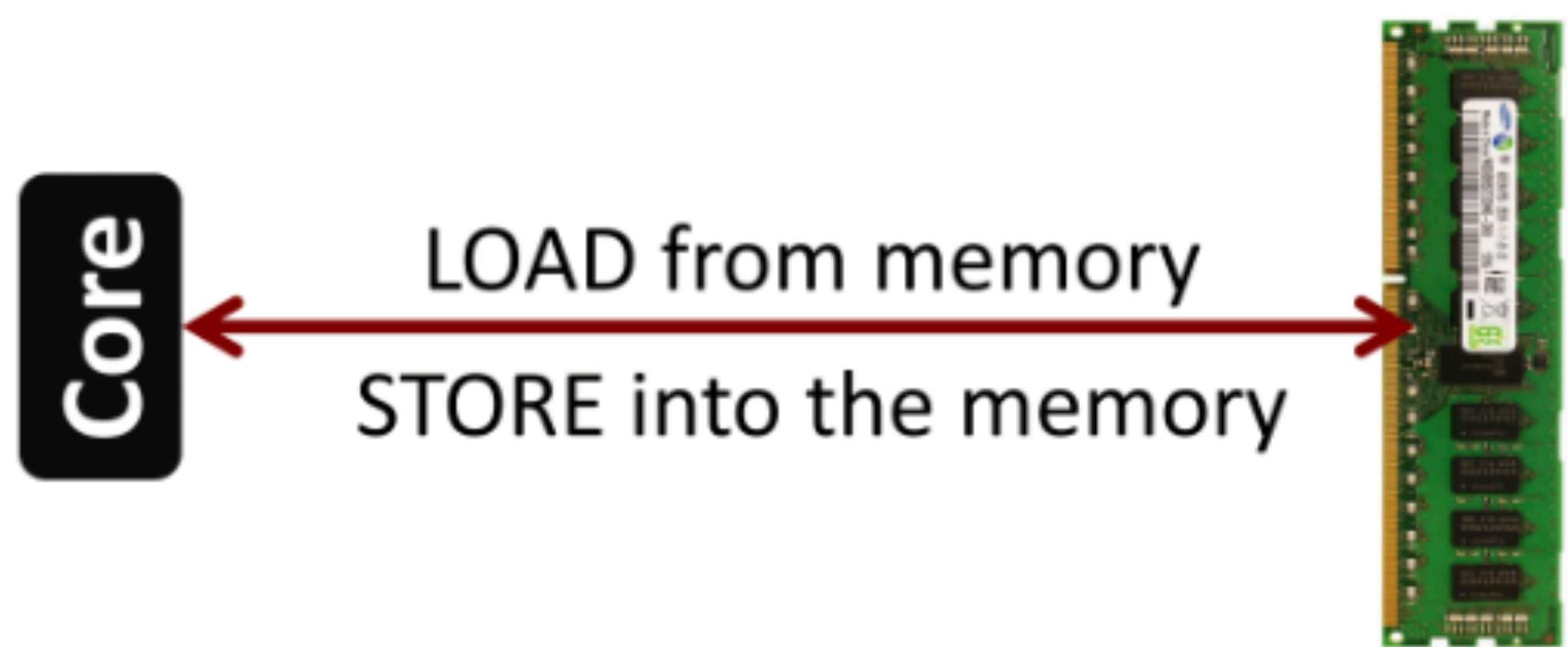
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Memory Instructions

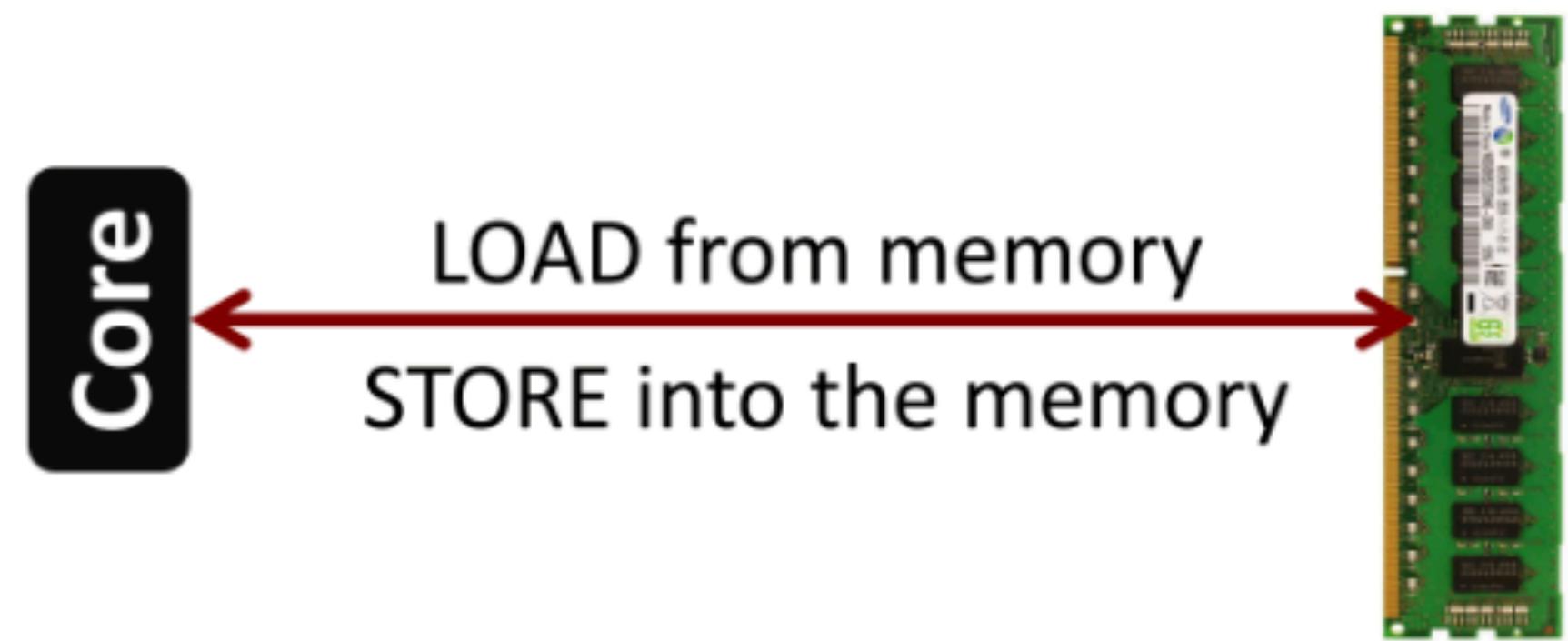
- Load-Store Architecture:
 - Load your data to process
 - Store it back...
- Instructions are handled in a slightly different manner....will come to that...



lw \$t0, 1(\$a0) # \$t0 = Memory[\$a0 + 1]
sw \$t0, 1(\$a0) # Memory[\$a0 + 1] = \$t0

Memory Instructions

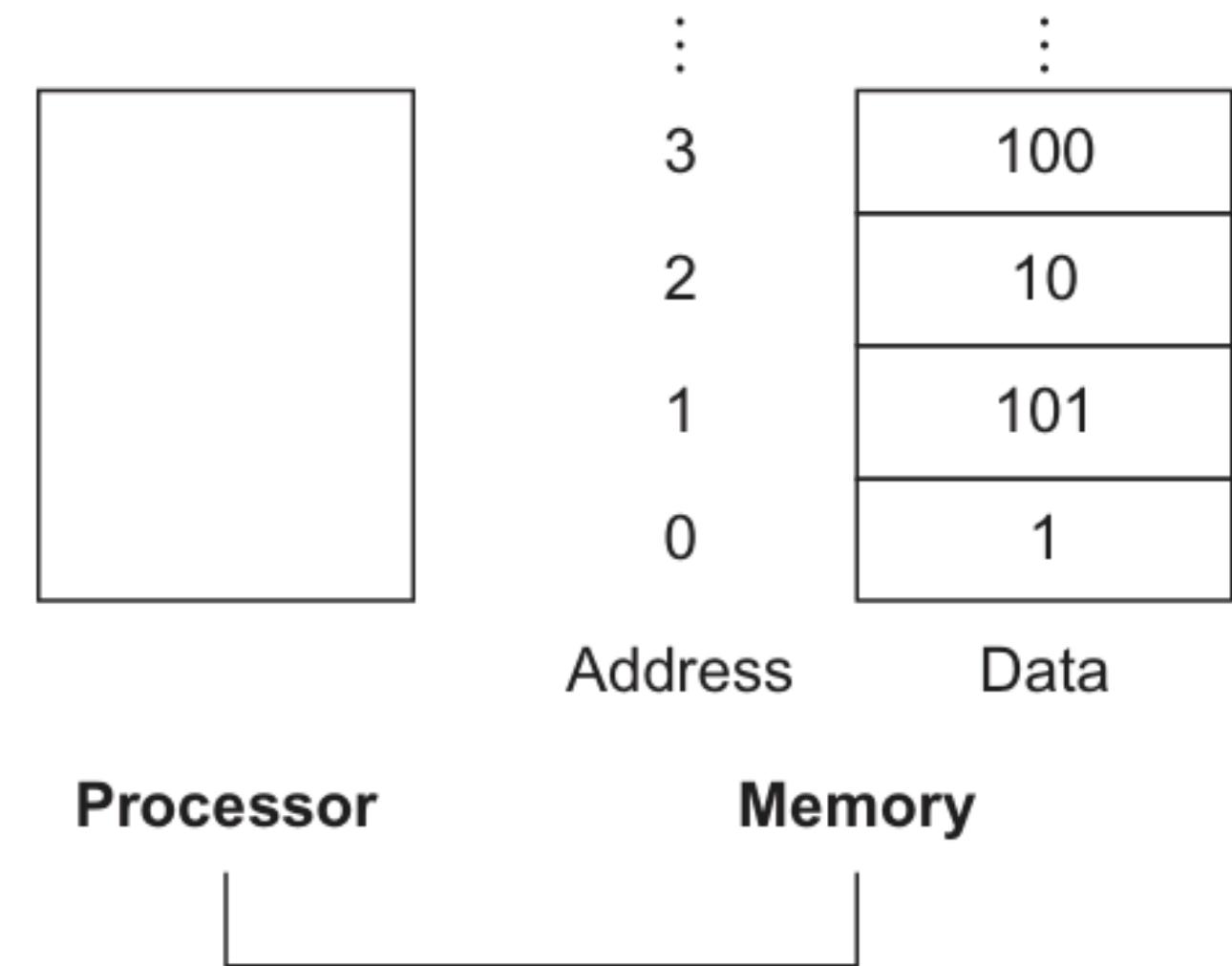
- Load-Store Architecture:
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- But, a critical question:
 - How do you know where to find the data inside memory?



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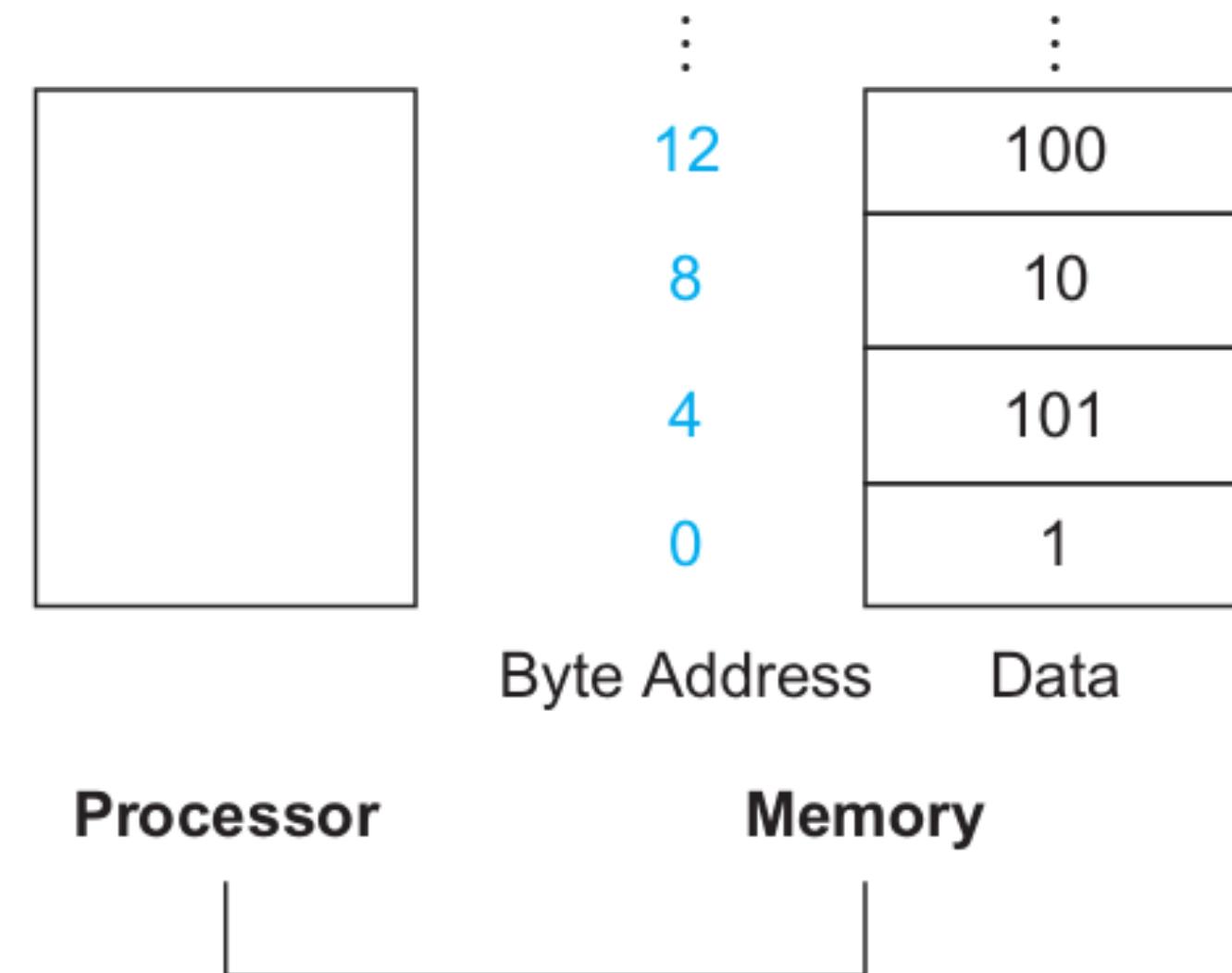
- But, a critical question:
 - How do you know where to find the data inside memory?
 - Memory has addresses
 - Think it like a large contiguous array...
 - **Every byte in memory has an unique address**
 - **Byte-addressable**
 - **BTW, each address is 32-bit in MIPS**



Memory Instructions

```
lw $t0, 1($a0)    # $t0 = Memory[$a0 + 1]  
sw $t0, 1($a0)    # Memory[$a0 + 1] = $t0
```

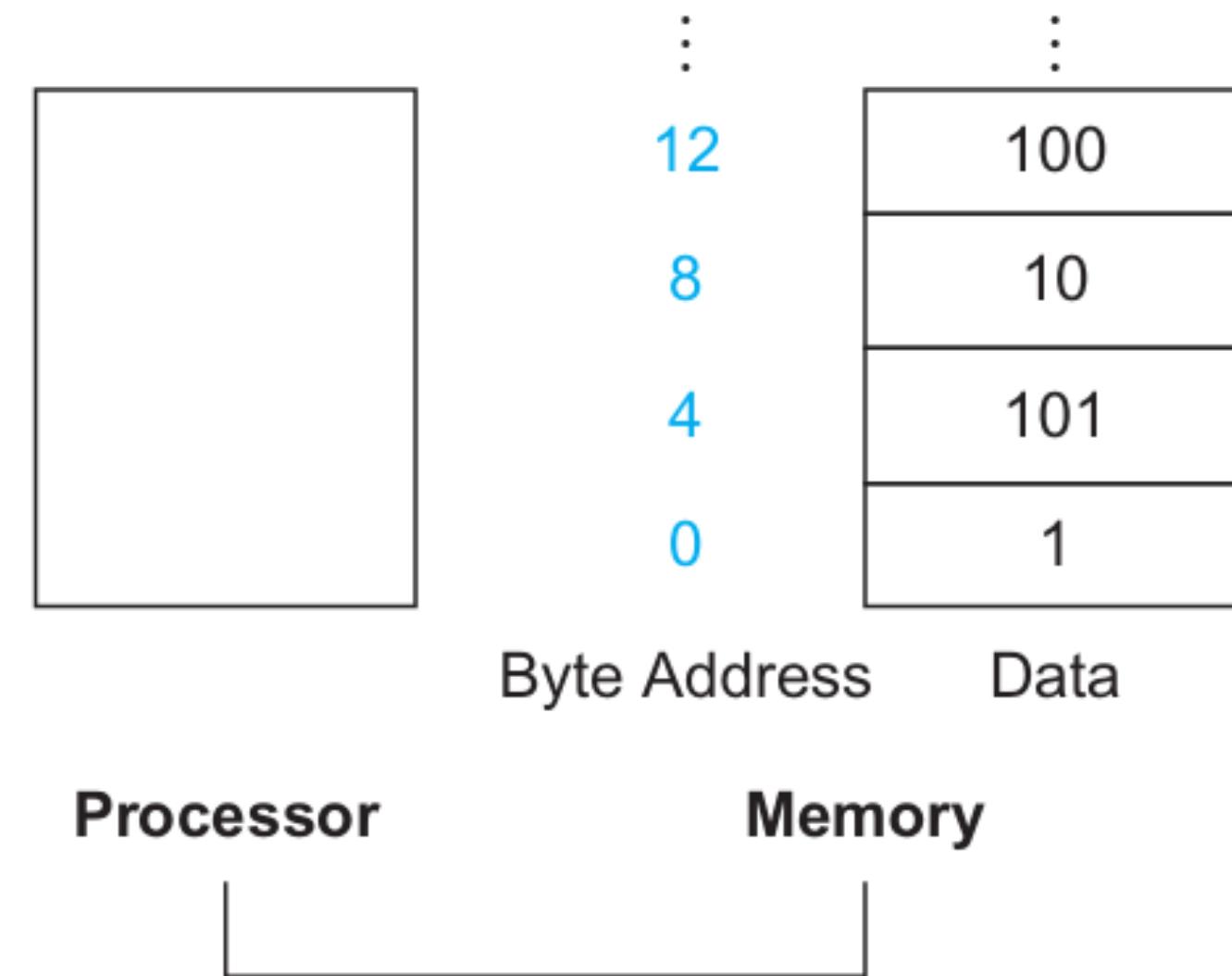
- The **lw** is interpreted as “load word”
 - MIPS also have other variants like “load byte” (**lb**)
- Data comes in **\$t0**.
- But what is the **1(\$a0)** part signify?
 - **\$a0** is the *base address* of the location you want to read from memory
 - **1** is called the *offset*.
- But why don’t you read directly?



Memory Instructions

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 - **\$a0** is the *base address* of the location you want to read from memory
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- But why don’t you read directly?
 - Again a design choice, to ease compilation, programming, and hardware design...

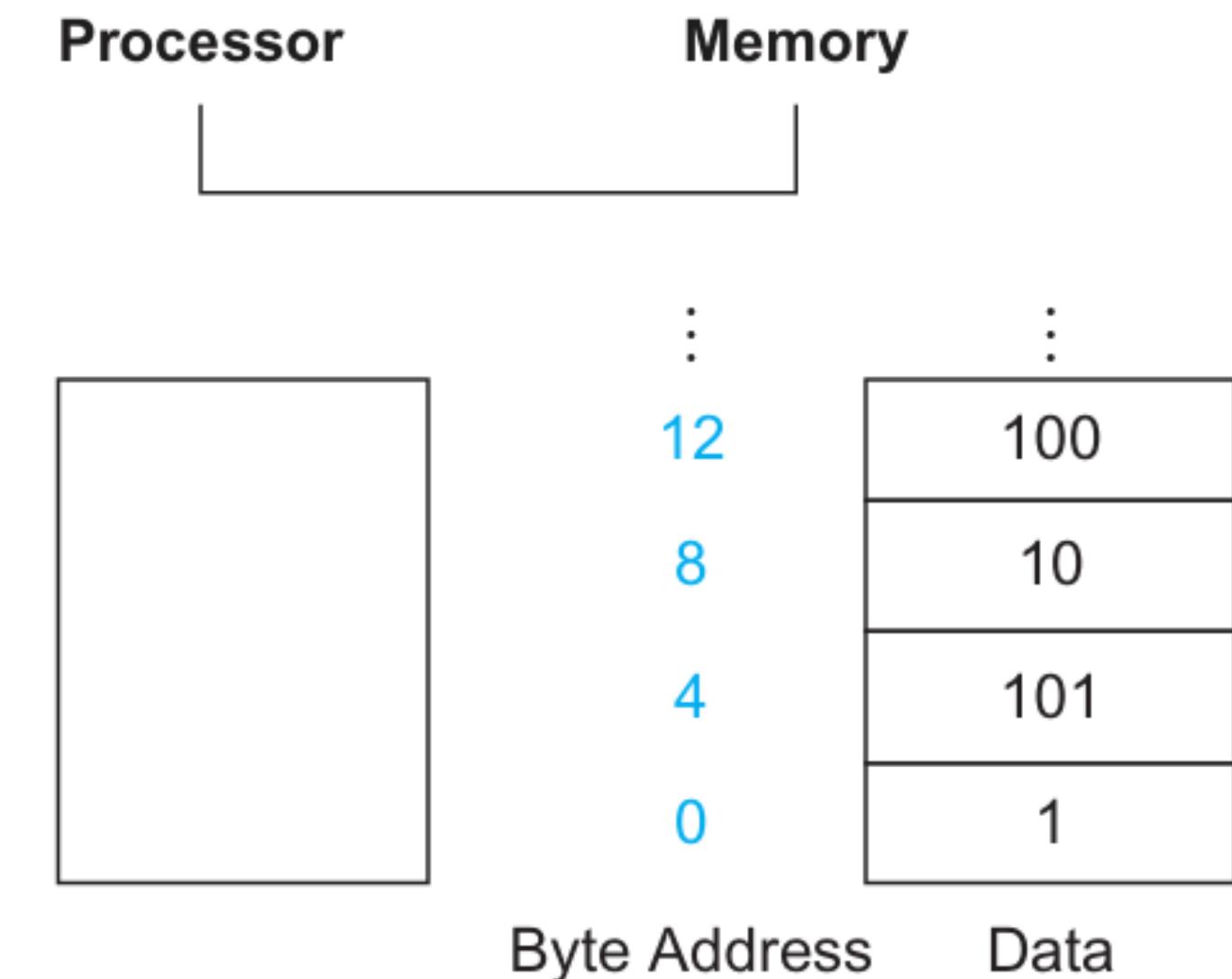
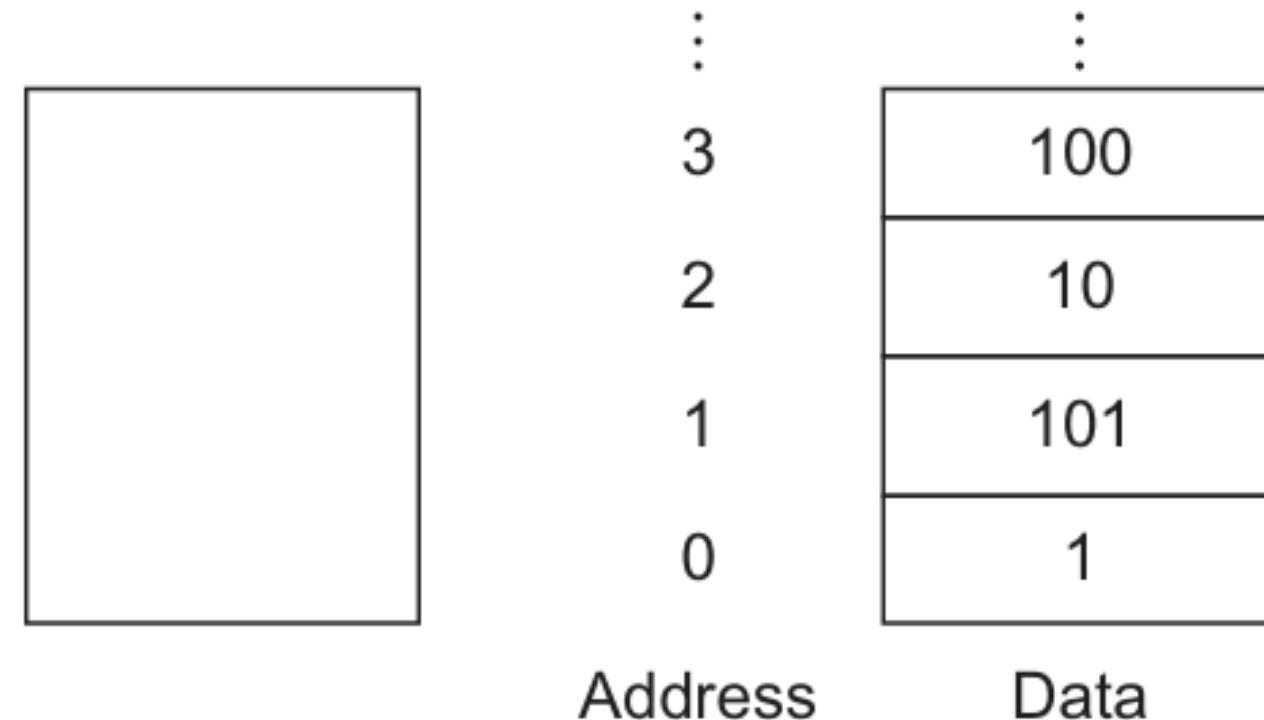


Memory Instructions: Word vs. Byte

lw \$t0, 1(\$s0)

lb \$t0, 1(\$s0)

- `lw` is interpreted as “load word”
- `lb` is “load byte”
- For the `lw`, we need the base+offset ($\$s0 + 1$) to be **always divisible by 4 — word alignment**
- Why?
- Nothing such for `lb`
- **What Lies Beneath?**
 - `lb` just read the byte in the calculated address
 - `lw` reads four consecutive bytes starting from the calculated address.
- Why word alignment — again, it simplifies hardware
OS, compiler....

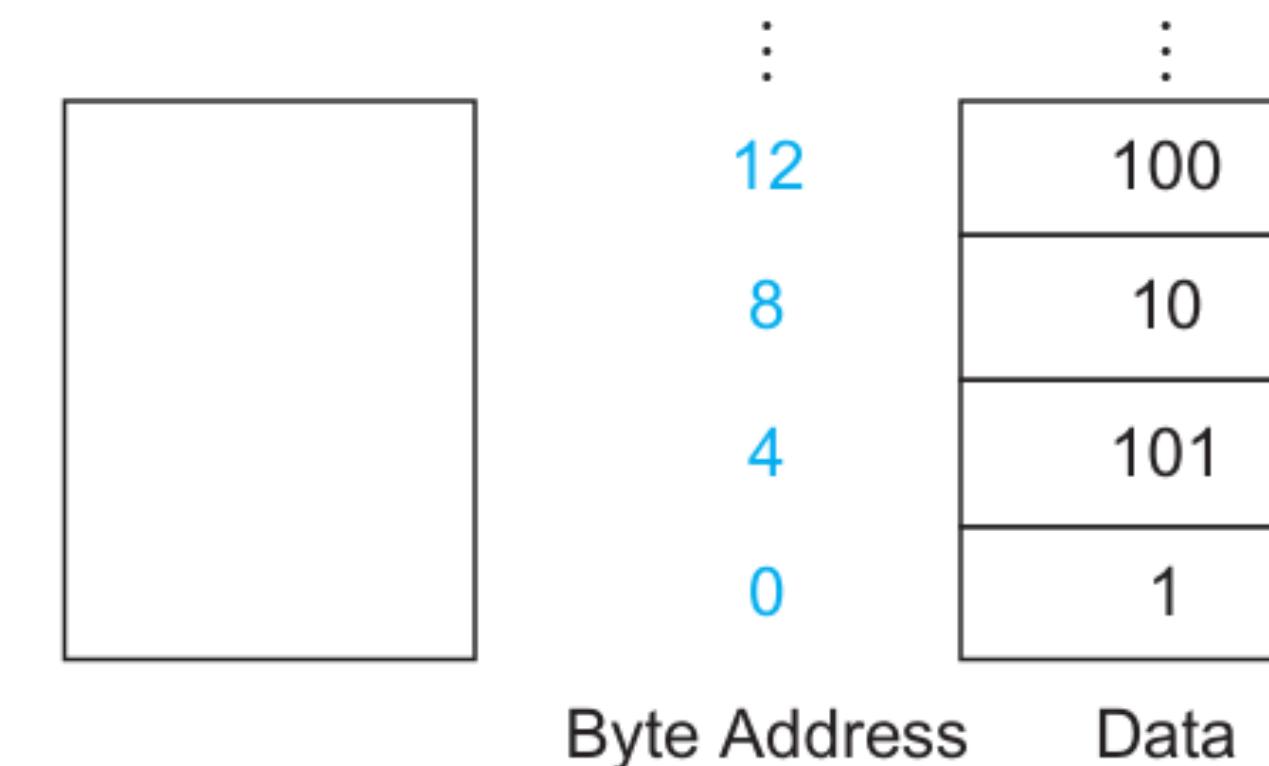
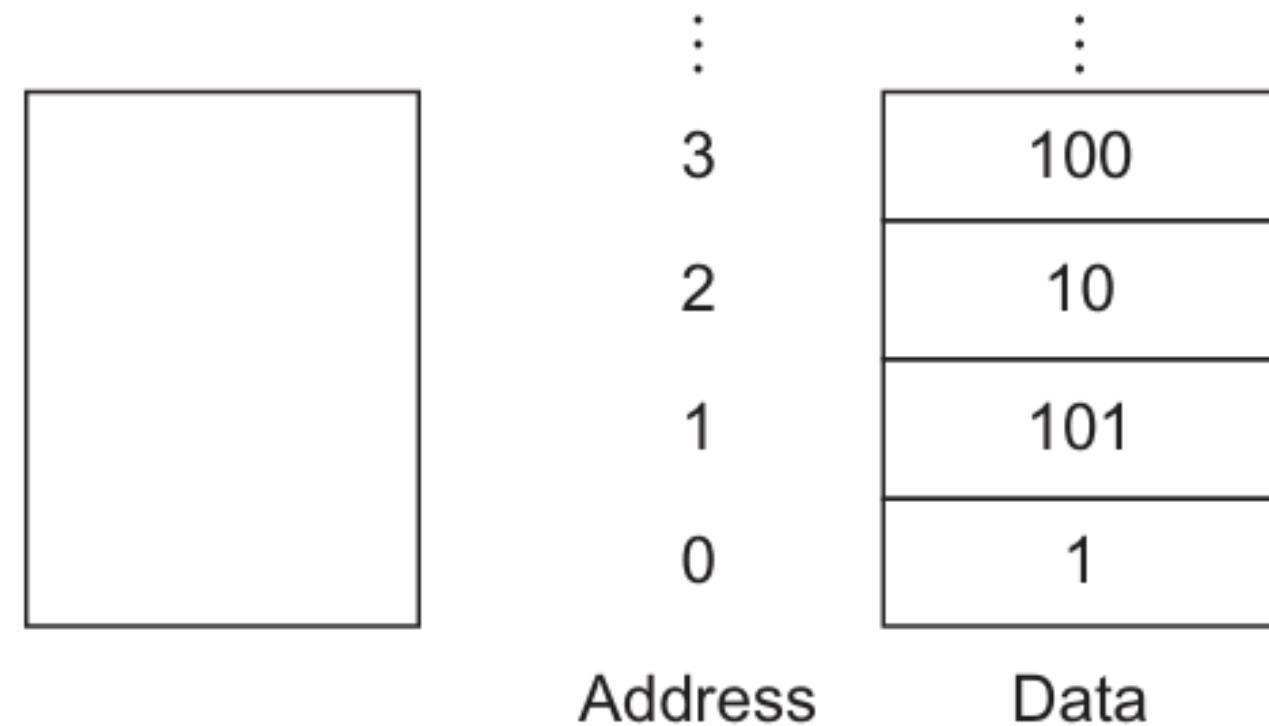


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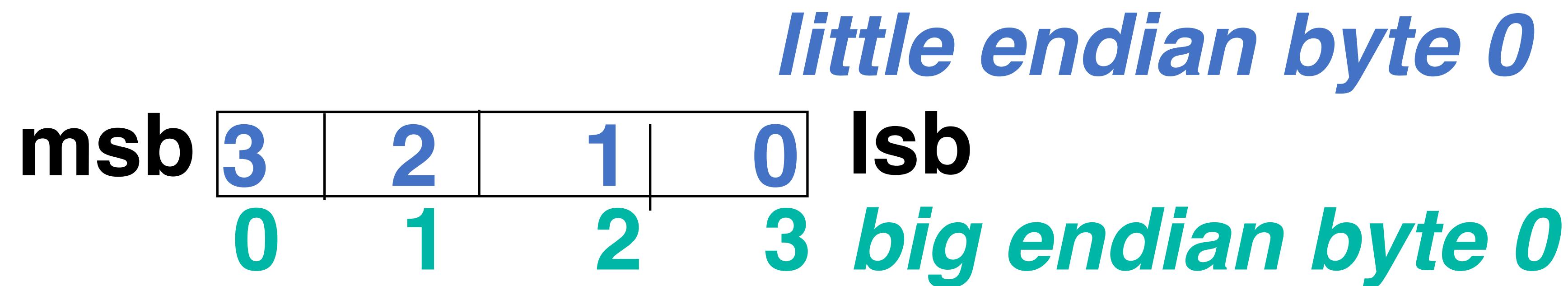
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Endianness (Byte ordering within a word)

- **Big Endian:** address of most significant byte = word address
(**xx00** = Big end of word), MIPS
- **Little Endian:** address of least significant byte = word address
(**xx00** = Little end of word), x86



Just for an example, do not take it for granted ...

```
unsigned int i = 1;  
char *c = (char*)&i; // reading the LSB  
Printf ("%d", *c);
```

```
unsigned int i = 12345678;  
char *c = (char*)&i;  
Printf ("%d", *c);
```

```
unsigned int i = 1;  
char *c = (char*)&i; // reading the LSB
```

```
Printf ("%d", *c);
```

Little endian: 1

Big endian: 0

```
unsigned int i = 12345678;
```

```
char *c = (char*)&i;
```

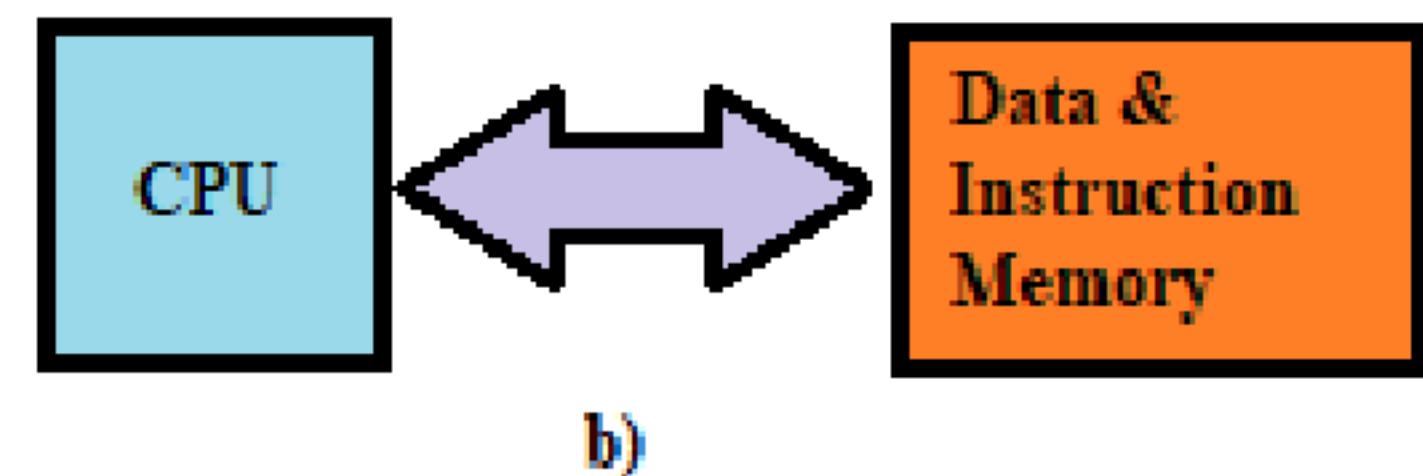
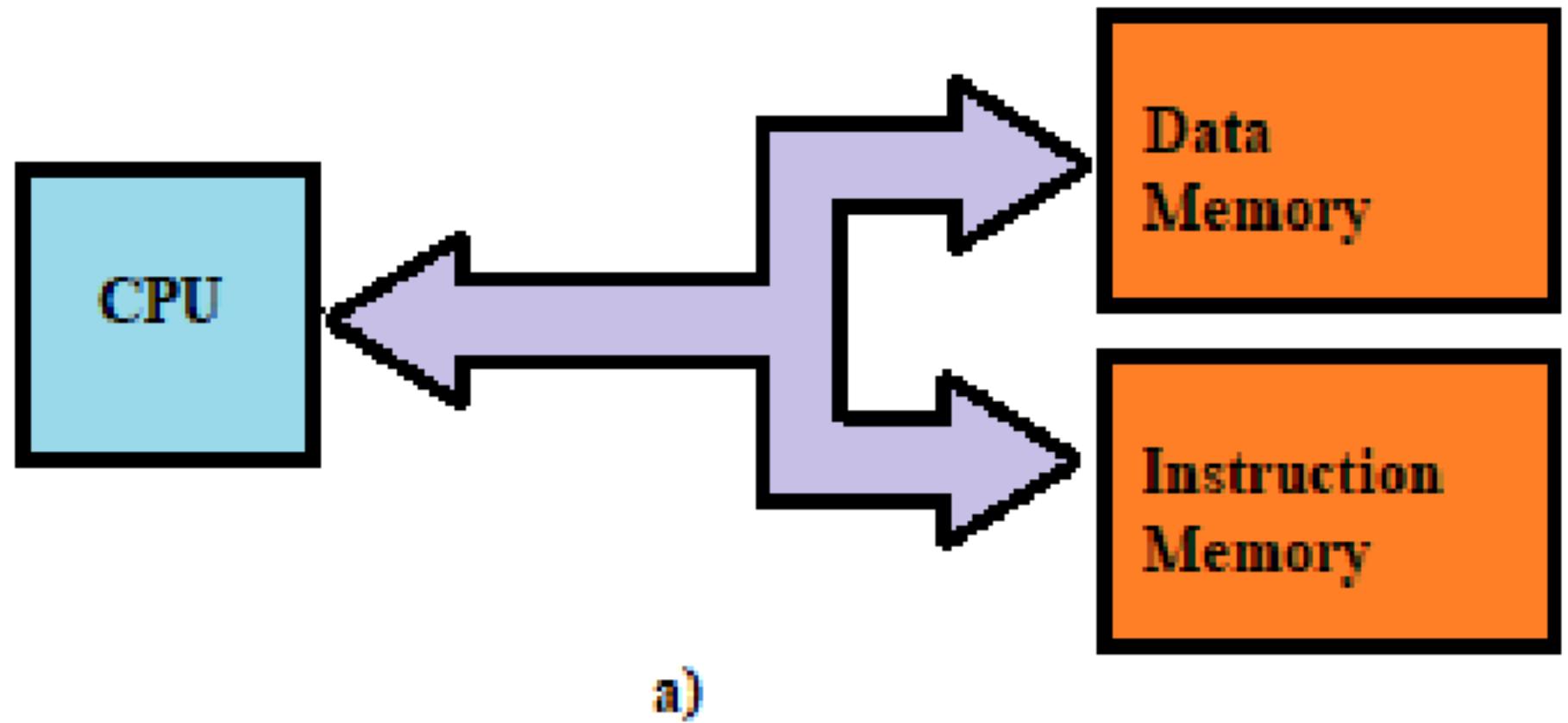
```
Printf ("%d", *c);
```

Little endian: 78

Big endian: 12

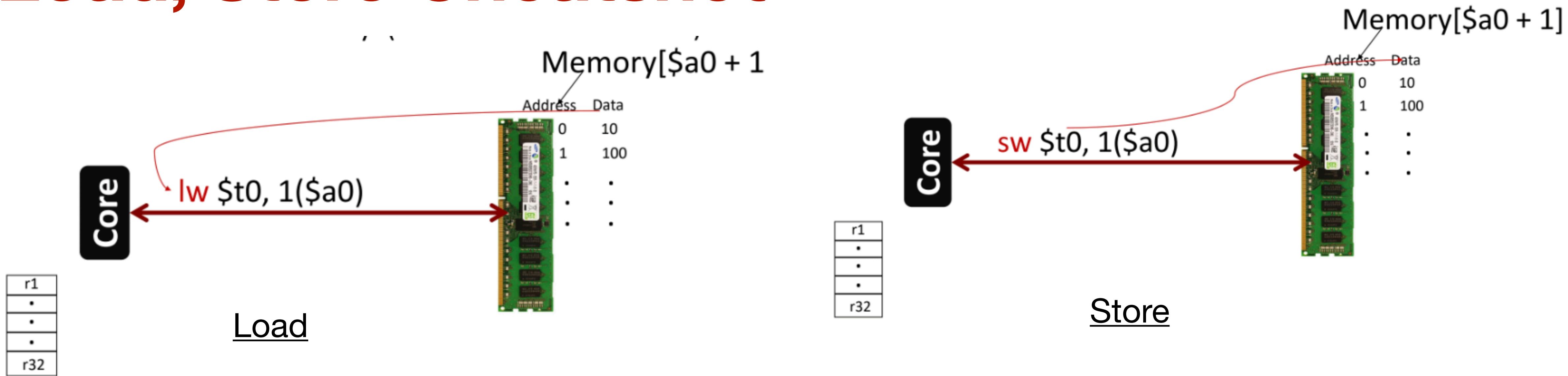
Another Important Point...

- Ok, **Von Neumann** said, data and code both are stored in the same memory.
 - In practice, this may lead to an issue — at a specific interval of time, **you can either fetch a data or an instruction.**
 - Affects parallelisation
 - **What if you separate the data and instruction memory and buses?**
 - That is called **Harvard Architecture.**
 - Modern commercial systems use a combination of both
 - RAM stores both instruction and data
 - But there are other intermediate memory (**caches**) which are separated for instruction and data



Source: Internet

Load, Store Cheatsheet



Program Counter

Points to the next instruction in the memory to be fetched

$g = h + A[8];$

PCX: `lw $t0, 8($3) # A[8]`
PCY: `add $s1, $s2, $t0 # g = h + t0`

$PCY = PCX + 4$



Load+Store+Instruction-fetch

Summary...

- Data and instructions at the same place
 - Registers are limited — 32 bit wide
 - Instructions are 32 bit wide
 - Registers are accessed by names
 - Memory is accessed by addresses

