CCSYA

Instructions: Language of the Computer

Part I

Departamento de Engenharia Informática Instituto Superior de Engenharia do Porto

Luís Nogueira (lmn@isep.ipp.pt)

Levels of Program Code

High-level language

- Level of abstraction closer to problem domain
- Provides for productivity and portability

Assembly language

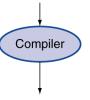
Textual representation of instructions

Hardware representation

- Binary digits (bits)
- Encoded instructions and data

High-level language program (in C)

swap(int v[], int k){int temp; temp = v[k]; v[k] = v[k+1]: v[k+1] = temp:



Assembly language program (for MIPS)





Binary machine language program (for MIPS)

000000010100001000000000011000 0000000000110000001100000100001 101011000110001000000000000000100

Instruction Set

- To command a computer's hardware, you must speak its language
- The words of a computer's language are called instructions, and its vocabulary is called an instruction set
- Computer languages are quite similar, more like regional dialects than like independent languages
 - Hence, once you learn one, it is easy to pick up others

Complex Instruction Set (CISC)

- Primary goal is to complete a task in few lines of assembly instruction as possible
 - Each instruction can execute several low-level operations, such as a load from memory, an arithmetic operation, and a memory store, all in a single instruction
- Complexity is on the hardware
 - Variable length instructions
 - Multiple addressing modes
 - Instructions require multiple clock cycles to execute
 - · ...
- VAX, Motorola 68000, Intel x86, ...

The Intel x86 ISA

Evolution with backward compatibility

- 8080 (1974): 8-bit microprocessor
 - Accumulator, plus 3 index-register pairs
- 8086 (1978): 16-bit extension to 8080
 - Complex instruction set (CISC)
- 8087 (1980): floating-point coprocessor
 - Adds FP instructions and register stack
- 80286 (1982): 24-bit addresses, MMU
 - Segmented memory mapping and protection
- 80386 (1985): 32-bit extension (now IA-32)
 - Additional addressing modes and operations
 - Paged memory mapping as well as segments

The Intel x86 ISA

Further evolution...

- i486 (1989): pipelined, on-chip caches and FPU
 - Compatible competitors: AMD, Cyrix, ...
- Pentium (1993): superscalar, 64-bit datapath
 - Later versions added MMX (Multi-Media eXtension) instructions
 - The infamous FDIV bug
- Pentium Pro (1995), Pentium II (1997)
 - New microarchitecture (see Colwell, The Pentium Chronicles)
- Pentium III (1999)
 - Added SSE (Streaming SIMD Extensions) and associated registers
- Pentium 4 (2001)
 - New microarchitecture
 - Added SSE2 instructions

The Intel x86 ISA

And further...

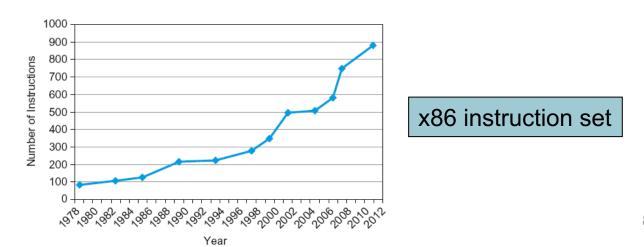
- AMD64 (2003): extended architecture to 64 bits
- EM64T Extended Memory 64 Technology (2004)
 - AMD64 adopted by Intel (with refinements)
 - Added SSE3 instructions
- Intel Core (2006)
 - Added SSE4 instructions, virtual machine support
- AMD64 (announced 2007): SSE5 instructions
 - Intel declined to follow, instead…
- Advanced Vector Extension (announced 2008)
 - Longer SSE registers, more instructions

If Intel didn't extend with compatibility, its competitors would!

Technical elegance ≠ market success

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
- Backward compatibility ⇒ instruction set doesn't change
 - But they do accrete more instructions



Implementing x86 ISA

Complex instruction set makes implementation difficult

- Hardware translates instructions to simpler microoperations
 - Simple instructions: 1–1
 - Complex instructions: 1—many
- Micro engine similar to RISC
- Market share makes this economically viable

Comparable performance to RISC

Compilers avoid complex instructions

x86 ISA

- What the x86 lacks in style, it made up for in market size, making it beautiful from the right perspective
 - Its saving grace is that the most frequently used x86 architectural components are not too difficult to implement
- In the PostPC era, however, despite considerable architectural and manufacturing expertise, x86 has not yet been competitive in the personal mobile device

Reduced Instruction Set (RISC)

 A small set of simple and general instructions that can be executed within one clock cycle

Complexity is on the software

- Primary goal is to speedup individual instruction execution at the cost of a higher number of instructions in a program
- A larger number of registers

Load/store architecture

- Memory is accessed through specific instructions rather than as a part of most instructions
- ARM, MIPS, IBM PowerPC, Sun Sparc, ...

The MIPS Instruction Set

- Used as the example throughout the course
- Stanford MIPS commercialized by MIPS Technologies (<u>www.mips.com</u>)
- Similar ISAs have a large share of embedded core market
 - Applications in consumer electronics, network/storage equipment, cameras, printers, ...
 - ARMv8 is very similar to MIPS

MIPS Simplified Implementation

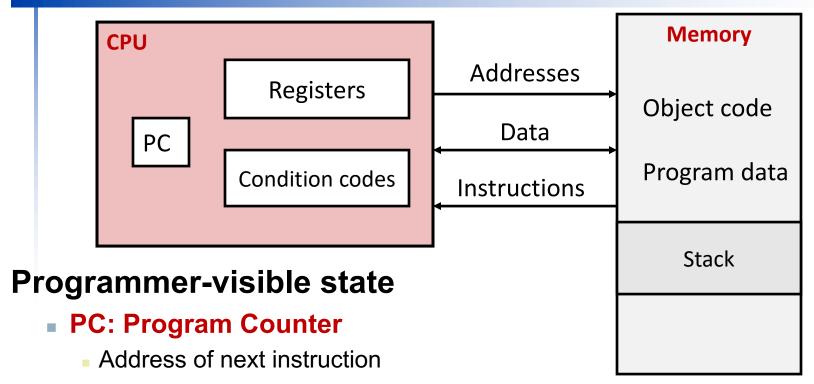
We will consider a simplified implementation of the MIPS instruction set architecture

 As a way to illustrate how it determines many aspects of the implementation, and how the choice of different implementation strategies affects the clock rate and CPI for the computer

A subset of the core MIPS instruction set:

- Arithmetic-logical instructions: add, sub, and, or, slt, ...
- Memory reference instructions: lw(load word), sw(store word)
- Control transfer instructions: beq(branch equal), bne (branch not equal), j(jump unconditionally), ...

Assembly programmer's view



Registers

Heavily used program data

Condition codes

- Store status information about most recent arithmetic operation
- Used for conditional branching

Memory

- Byte addressable array
- Code and user data
- Stack to support procedures

Arithmetic Operations

- Example: add
 - Two sources and one destination

add a, b, c # a gets b + c

All arithmetic operations have this form

Design Principle 1: Simplicity favors regularity

Regularity makes implementation simpler Simplicity enables higher performance at lower cost

Register Operands

Arithmetic instructions use register operands

MIPS has a 32 × 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
- \$\$0,\$\$1,...,\$\$7 for saved variables

Design Principle 2: Smaller is faster

The designer must balance the craving of programs for more registers with the designer's desire to keep the clock cycle fast

Register Operand Example

C code:

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

Compiled MIPS code:

• f, ..., j in \$s0, ..., \$s4

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

Immediate Operands

Constant data specified in an instruction

- No subtract immediate instruction
 - Just use a negative constant

Design Principle 3: Make the common case fast

Small constants are common
Immediate operand avoids a load instruction
Operations are much faster and use less energy than if
constants were loaded from memory

The Constant Zero

MIPS register 0 (\$zero) is the constant 0

- Cannot be overwritten
- Its main role is to simplify the instruction set by offering useful variations

Useful for common operations

E.g., move between registers

Bitwise Operations

Instructions for bitwise manipulation

Useful for extracting and inserting groups of bits in a word

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

Shift Operations

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)

$$srl $t2,$s0,4 # $t2 = $s0 >> 4$$

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

\$t2 | 0000 0000 0000 0000 00 11 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)

\$t1 | 0000 0000 0000 0001 1100 0000 0000

\$t0 | 1111 | 1111 | 1111 | 1100 | 0011 | 1111 | 1111

Arithmetic and Bitwise Instructions

add	\$1, \$2, \$3	\$s1 = \$2 + \$3	add
addu	\$1, \$2, \$3	\$s1 = \$2 + \$3	add unsigned
addi	\$1, \$2, imm	\$s1 = \$2 + imm	add immediate
addiu	\$1, \$2, imm	\$s1 = \$2 + imm	add immediate unsigned
sub	\$1, \$2, \$3	\$s1 = \$2 - \$3	subtract
and	\$s1, \$s2, \$s3	\$s1= \$s2 & \$s3	bitwise and
andi	\$s1, \$s2, imm	\$s1= \$s2 & \$s3	bitwise and immediate
or	\$s1, \$s2, \$s3	\$s1= \$s2 \$s3	bitwise or
nor	\$s1, \$s2, \$s3	\$s1= ~(\$s2 \$s3)	bitwise not
sll	\$s1, \$s2, imm	\$s1= \$s2 << imm	shift left logical
srl	\$s1, \$s2, imm	\$s1= \$s2 >> imm	shift right logical

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!

Memory Operands

Main memory used for composite data

Arrays, structures, dynamic data

Memory is byte addressed

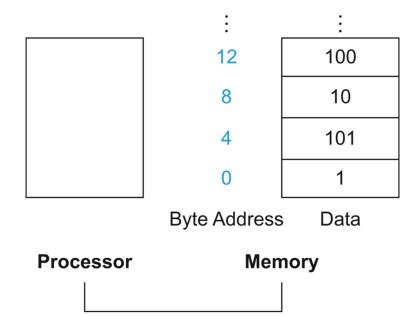
- Just a large, single-dimensional array, with the address acting as the index to that array
- Words are aligned in memory (address must be a multiple of 4)

MIPS is Big Endian

- Most-significant byte at least address of a word
- c.f. Little Endian: least-significant byte at least address
- SPIM simulator's byte order is the same as the byte order of the underlying machine that runs the simulator

Accessing memory

- Arithmetic operations occur only on registers
- Data transfer instructions
 - Transfer data between memory and registers
- lw/sw instructions must supply the memory address to access a word in memory



Addressing Modes

Base or displacement addressing

 The operand is at the memory location whose address is the sum of a register and a constant in the instruction

Immediate addressing

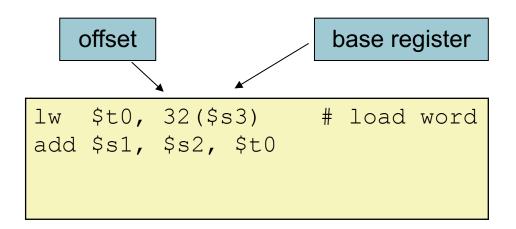
 The operand is a constant in the instruction itself (for jumps and conditional branches)

Memory Operand Example 1

C code:

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

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



Memory Operand Example 2

C code:

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

Compiled MIPS code:

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

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

Byte/Halfword Operations

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

Data Transfer Instructions

lw	\$s1,	imm(\$s2)	\$s1 = MEM[\$2 + imm]	load word from memory
lh	\$s1,	imm(\$s2)	s1 = MEM[s2 + imm]	load half word (2 bytes)
lhu	\$s1,	imm(\$s2)	s1 = MEM[s2 + imm]	load half word unsigned
1b	\$s1,	imm(\$s2)	s1 = MEM[s2 + imm]	load byte
lbu	\$s1,	imm(\$s2)	s1 = MEM[s2 + imm]	load byte unsigned
li	\$s1,	imm	\$s1 = imm	load immediate
la	\$s1,	L	\$s1 = L	load address
sw	\$s1,	imm(\$s2)	MEM[\$2 + imm] = \$1	store word to memory
sh	\$s1,	imm(\$s2)	MEM[\$2 + imm] = \$1	store half word (2 bytes)
sb	\$s1,	imm(\$s2)	MEM[\$2 + imm] = \$1	store byte
move	• \$s1	, \$2	\$s1 = \$2	data move

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
- Notice that the assembler relieves the compiler and the assembly language programmer from the tedium of calculating addresses for branches
 - Just as it does for calculating data addresses for loads and stores

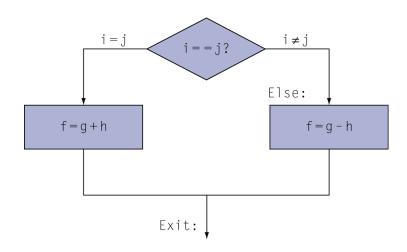
Jump Instructions

- There is another kind of branch, often called an unconditional branch
 - These instructions say that the processor always follows the branch
- The MIPS name for this type of instruction is jump
 - To distinguish between conditional and unconditional branches,
- j L1
 - Unconditional jump to instruction labeled L1

Compiling If Statements

C code:

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



Compiled MIPS code:

• f, g, ... in \$s0, \$s1, ...

```
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;
```

Compiled MIPS code:

i in \$s3, k in \$s5, address of save in \$s6

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

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;</p>
- slti rt, rs, constant
 - if (rs < constant) rt = 1; else rt = 0;</p>
- Usually used in combination with beq, bne

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

Branch Instruction Design

- Why not blt, bge, etc in hardware?
- Hardware for <, ≥, ... slower than =, ≠</p>
 - Combining with branch involves more work per instruction, requiring a slower clock
 - All instructions penalized!
- beq and bne are the common case
- Another example of the great idea of making the common case fast

Assembler Pseudo-instructions

Most assembler instructions represent machine instructions one-to-one

Pseudo-instructions

- The assembler can also treat common variations of machine instructions as if they were instructions in their own right
- The hardware does not implement the pseudo-instructions, but their appearance in assembly language simplifies programming

```
move $t0, $t1
li $s1, 20
blt $t0, $t1, L

slt $at, $t0, $t1
bne $at, $zero, L
```

\$at (register 1): assembler temporary

Branch Instructions

beq \$1,\$2,L	if(\$s1 == \$2) goto L	branch on equal
bne \$1,\$2,L	if(\$s1 != \$2) goto L	branch on not equal
blt \$1,\$2,L	if(\$s1 < \$2) goto L	branch on less than
bgt \$1,\$2,L	if(\$s1 > \$2) goto L	branch on greater than
ble \$1,\$2,L	if(\$s1 <= \$2) goto L	branch on less than or equal
bge \$1,\$2,L	if(\$s1 >= \$2) goto L	branch on greater than or equal

Jump Instructions

j	imm	goto imm	jump to target address
j	L	goto L	jump to target label
jal	L	\$ra=PC+4; goto L	jump and link (for procedure call)
jr	\$ra	goto \$ra	jump register (for procedure return)

Concluding Remarks

- Above the machine level is assembly language, a language that humans can read
 - Each category of MIPS instructions is associated with constructs that appear in high-level programming languages
- The assembler translates it into the binary numbers that machines can understand...
- ...and it even "extends" the instruction set by creating symbolic instructions that aren't in the hardware
 - Hiding details from the higher level is another example of the great idea of abstraction