

COMPUTER ORGANIZATION AND DESIGN

The Hardware/Software Interface

Chapter 2

Instructions: Language of the Computer

heeyoul choi hchoi@handong.edu

School of CS and EE Handong Global University

Instruction Set

- Instructions
 - the words of a computer's language
- Instruction set
 - the vocabulary of commands understood by a given architecture
- 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
- 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 Appendix A
- other popular instruction sets
 - ARMv7, Intel x86, ARMv8
 - similar because of the same goal on similar hardware



goal of this chapter

- to teach an instruction set
- to show how it is represented in hardware
- to show the relationship between high-level language and more primitive one.
 - for the high-level language, examples are in C



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 (three operands)
- Design Principle 1: Simplicity favors regularity
 - Regularity makes implementation simpler
 - Simplicity enables higher performance at lower cost
- at most one instruction at a line



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
```



Arithmetic Example

C code:

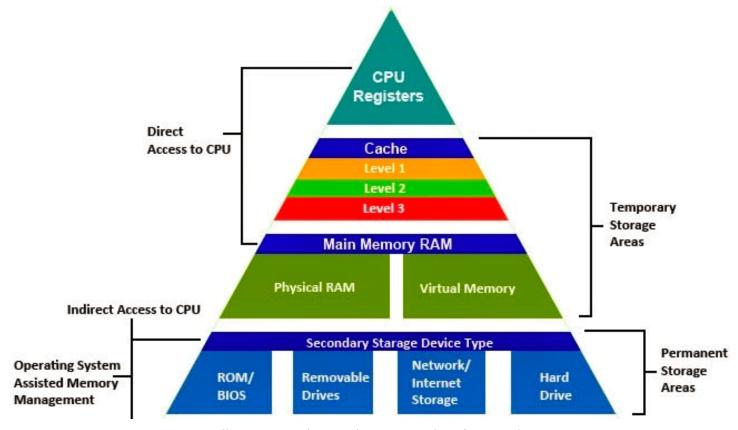
$$a = b + c + d$$

Compiled MIPS code:



Register

- Reside in CPU
- Faster and smaller than main memory



https://tvtropes.org/pmwiki/pmwiki.php/UsefulNotes/MemoryHierarchy



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
 - \$s0, \$s1, ..., \$s7 for saved variables

NAME	NUMBER	USE
\$zero	0	The Constant Value 0
\$at	1	Assembler Temporary
\$v0-\$v1	2-3	Values for Function Results and Expression Evaluation
\$a0-\$a3	4-7	Arguments
\$t0-\$t7	8-15	Temporaries
\$s0-\$s7	16-23	Saved Temporaries
\$t8-\$t9	24-25	Temporaries
\$k0-\$k1	26-27	Reserved for OS Kernel
\$gp	28	Global Pointer
\$sp	29	Stack Pointer
\$fp	30	Frame Pointer
\$ra	31	Return Address

- Design Principle 2: Smaller is faster
 - c.f. main memory: millions of locations

only 32 registers

- the more registers may increase the clock cycle time.
- trade off between more registers and clock cycle.



Register Operand Example

C code:

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

• f, ..., j in $s0, ..., $s4
```

Compiled MIPS code:

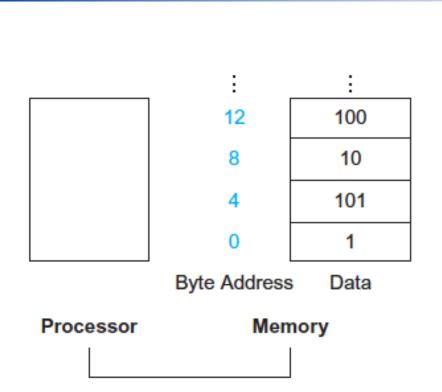
```
add $t0, $s1, $s2
add $t1, $s3, $s4
sub $s0, $t0, $t1
```

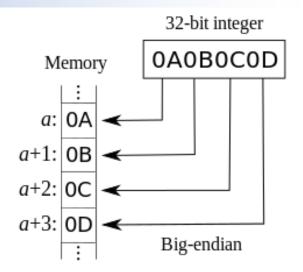
Memory Operands

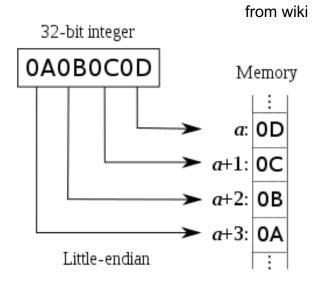
- Main memory used for composite data
 - Arrays, structures, dynamic data→ more elements than registers
- To apply arithmetic operations
 - Load values from memory into registers
 - Store the results from registers to memory
- Memory is byte addressed
 - Each address identifies an 8-bit byte
- Words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



Memory Operands









Memory Operand Example 1

C code: assuming that A is an array of 100 words

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

- 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

```
lw $t0, 32($s3)  # load word
add $s1,/$s2,\$t0

offset
base register
```



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 constantaddi \$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 ← move \$t2, \$s1



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
 - $0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 1011_2$ $= 0 + ... + 1 \times 2^3 + 0 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0$ $= 0 + ... + 8 + 0 + 2 + 1 = 11_{10}$
- 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: -2^{n-1} to $+2^{n-1}-1$
- 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 2scomplement 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

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

 $x + 1 = -x$

two's complement

- Example: negate +2
 - **+2** = 0000 0000 ... 0010₂
 - $-2 = 1111 \ 1111 \dots \ 1101_2 + 1$ = 1111 \ 1111 \ \dots \ \ 1110_2

8-bit ones'-complement integers

Bits +	Unsigned +	Ones' complement + value
0111 1111	127	127
0111 1110	126	126
0000 0010	2	2
0000 0001	1	1
0000 0000	0	0
1111 1111	255	-0
1111 1110	254	-1
1111 1101	253	-2
1000 0001	129	-126
1000 0000	128	-127



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



signed integer

from textbook p. 79

What is the decimal value of this 64-bit two's complement number?

- 1) -4_{ten}
- 2) -8_{ten}
- $3) 16_{ten}$
- 4) 18,446,744,073,709,551,609_{ten}



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: reg's 8 – 15

■ \$t8 – \$t9: reg's 24 – 25

■ \$s0 – \$s7: reg's 16 – 23

NAME	NUMBER	USE	PRESERVEDACROS A CALL?
\$zero	0	The Constant Value 0	N.A.
\$at	1	Assembler Temporary	No
\$v0-\$v1	2-3	Values for Function Results and Expression Evaluation	No
\$a0-\$a3	4-7	Arguments	No
\$t0-\$t7	8-15	Temporaries	No
\$s0-\$s7	16-23	Saved Temporaries	Yes
\$t8-\$t9	24-25	Temporaries	No
\$k0-\$k1	26-27	Reserved for OS Kernel	No
\$gp	28	Global Pointer	Yes
\$sp	29	Stack Pointer	Yes
\$fp	30	Frame Pointer	Yes
\$ra	31	Return Address	No



MIPS R-format Instructions

ор	p rs		rt rd		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) for shift instructions
- 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	s1 \$s2 \$t0		0	add	
0	17	18	18 8		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

ор	rs	rt	constant or address
6 bits	6 bits 5 bits 5		16 bits

- Immediate arithmetic and load/store instructions
 - rt: destination or source register number (load or store)
 - 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



MIPS I-format Instructions

ор		rs	rt	constant or address
	6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	16 bits
lw sw	,	32(\$s 48(\$s		<pre># load word # store word</pre>

35	19(\$s3)	8(\$t0)	32
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	16 bits

43	19(\$s3)	8(\$t0)	48
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	16 bits



MIPS Instruction encoding

Instruction	Format	ор	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct	address
add	R	0	reg	reg	reg	0	32 _{ten}	n.a.
sub (subtract)	R	0	reg	reg	reg	0	34 _{ten}	n.a.
add immediate	1	8 _{ten}	reg	reg	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	constant
ไพ (load word)	1	35 _{ten}	reg	reg	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	address
SW (store word)	I	43 _{ten}	reg	reg	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	address

FIGURE 2.5 MIPS instruction encoding. In the table above, "reg" means a register number between 0 and 31, "address" means a 16-bit address, and "n.a." (not applicable) means this field does not appear in this format. Note that add and sub instructions have the same value in the op field; the hardware uses the funct field to decide the variant of the operation: add (32) or subtract (34).

from C to machine language

C code

A[300] = h + A[300];

\$t1 has the base of the array A \$s2 corresponds to h

compiled into assembly language

```
lw $t0,1200($t1) # Temporary reg $t0 gets A[300]
add $t0,$s2,$t0 # Temporary reg $t0 gets h + A[300]
sw $t0,1200($t1) # Stores h + A[300] back into A[300]
```

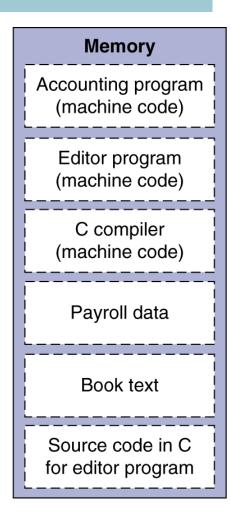
translated into machine language instructions (in decimal numbers)

Ор	rs	rt	rd	address/ shamt	funct	
35	9	8				
0	18	8	8	0	32	
43	9	8		1200		
100011	01001	01000	0000 0100 1011 0000			
000000	10010	01000	01000	00000	100000	
101011	01001	01000	0000 0100 1011 0000			



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



Processor

example

What MIPS instruction does this represent? Choose from one of the four options below.

from textbook p. 87

ор	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
0	8	9	10	0	34

- 1. sub \$t0, \$t1, \$t2
- 2. add \$t2, \$t0, \$t1
- 3. sub \$t2, \$t1, \$t0
- 4. sub \$t2, \$t0, \$t1

NAME	NUMBER
\$zero	0
\$at	1
\$v0-\$v1	2-3
\$a0-\$a3	4-7
\$t0-\$t7	8-15
\$s0-\$s7	16-23
\$t8-\$t9	24-25
\$k0-\$k1	26-27
\$gp	28
\$sp	29
\$fp	30
\$ra	31

Instruction	Format	ор	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct	address
add	R	0	reg	reg	reg	0	32 _{ten}	n.a.
sub (subtract)	R	0	reg	reg	reg	0	34 _{ten}	n.a.



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

ор	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	6 bits
0					0/2
					sll/srl

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



Shift Operations

\$11 \$t2,\$s0,4 # reg \$t2 = reg \$s0 << 4 bits

op O	rs 0	16	rd 10	shamt 4	funct 0
	unused	\$s0	\$t2		

0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 $1001_{two} = 9_{ten}$



shift left by 4

0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 1001 $0000_{two} = 144_{ten}$ = 9×2^4



AND Operations

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

and \$t0, \$t1, \$t2

φιΖ	0000 0000 0000 0000 00	00 11	01 1100 0000
\$t1	0000 0000 0000 0000 00	11 11	00 0000 0000
Ψ			

0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 1101 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 <mark>00 11</mark> 01 1100 0000
\$t1	0000 0000 0000 0000 0011 1100 0000 0000
\$t0	0000 0000 0000 00011 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 (NOT OR)
 - a NOR b == NOT (a OR b)
 - a NOR 0 == NOT (a OR 0) == NOT (a)

nor \$t0, \$t1, \$zero ←

Register 0: always read as zero

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

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



example: isolate a field

from textbook p. 89

Which operations can isolate a field in a word?

- 1. AND
- 2. A shift left followed by a shift right



Conditional Operations

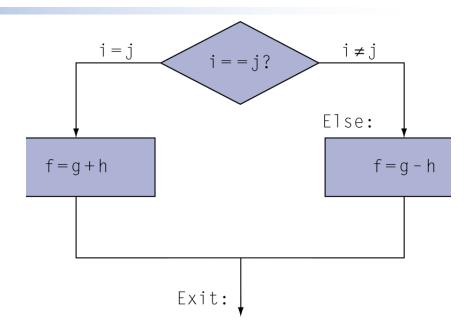
- Branch to a labeled instruction if a condition is true
 - Otherwise, continue sequentially
- beq rs, rt, L1 branch if equal
 - if (rs == rt) branch to instruction labeled L1;
- bne rs, rt, L1 branch if not equal
 - if (rs != rt) branch to instruction labeled L1;
- j L1
 - unconditional jump to instruction labeled L1



Compiling If Statements

C code:

• f, g, ... in \$s0, \$s1, ...



Compiled MIPS code:

bne \$s3, \$s4, Else conditional branch add \$s0, \$s1, \$s2

j Exit unconditional branch Else: sub \$s0, \$s1, \$s2

Exit:

Assembler calculates addresses

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Compiling Loop Statements

C code:

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

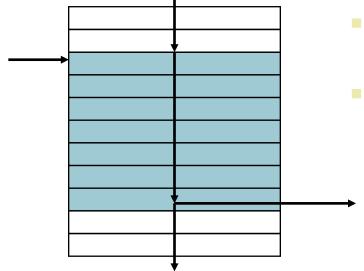
- i in \$s3, k in \$s5, base address of save in \$s6
- Compiled MIPS code:

```
Loop: sll $t1, $s3, 2 $t1 = i * 4 add $t1, $t1, $s6 byte addressing problem 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 the end)
 - No branch targets (except at the 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
 set on less than
 if (rs < rt) rd = 1; else rd = 0;</pre>
- 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>
```



Compiling Loop Statements

C code:

```
for (i=0; i < k; i++) save[i] = 2+i;
```

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

```
move $s3, $zero # i = 0 Loop:
```

Exit: ...



Compiling Loop Statements

C code:

```
for (i=0; i < k; i++) save[i] = 2+i;
```

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

```
move $s3, $zero  # i = 0
Loop: beq $s3, $s5, Exit
    s11 $t1, $s3, 2
    add $t1, $t1, $s6 #t1 = &save[i]
    addi $t2, $s3, 2 #t2 = 2+i
    sw $t2, 0($t1)
    addi $s3, $s3, 1
    j Loop
Exit: ...
```



Branch Instruction Design

- Why not blt, bge, etc? (branch on less than)
- Hardware for <, ≥, ... is slower than =, ≠</p>
 - Combining with branch involves more work per instruction, requiring a slower clock
 - All instructions penalized!
- beq and bne are the common cases
 - for blt, (slt and beq) would be enough
- This is a good design compromise



Signed vs. Unsigned

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

 - \$s1 = 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0001
 - slt \$t0, \$s0, \$s1 # signed
 -1 < +1 ⇒ \$t0 = 1</pre>
 - sltu \$t0, \$s0, \$s1 # unsigned
 - $+4,294,967,295 > +1 \Rightarrow $t0 = 0$
- treating signed numbers as if they were unsigned.
 - "x < y" \rightarrow "0 <= x AND x < y"
 - sltu \$t0, \$s1, \$t2 # \$t0 = 0, if \$s1>=\$t2 or \$s1<0
 - beq \$t0, \$zero, IndexOutOfBounds



Procedure Calling

- Steps required
 - 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

- \$a0 \$a3: arguments to pass params (reg's 4 7)
- \$v0, \$v1: result values to return (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 to return (reg 31)



Procedure Call Instructions

- Procedure call: jump and link jal ProcedureLabel
 - Puts the address of following instruction in \$ra
 - Jumps to the 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



Procedure Call Instructions

- Jump
 - J 1000 : PC **←** 1000

J: | op=2 | target=250 (word address)

- Jump Register
 - JR \$ra : PC ← \$ra

R: op=0 rs=31 rt=0 rd=0 shamt=0 func=8

- Jump and Link
 - JAL 1000 : \$ra ← PC; PC ← 1000

J: op=3 target=250 (word address)



Leaf Procedure Example

C code:

Result in \$v0

```
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)
```



Leaf Procedure Example

MIPS code:

<pre>leaf_example:</pre>								
addi	\$sp,	\$sp,	-4					
SW	\$s0,	0(\$s	o)					
add	\$t0,	\$a0,	\$a1					
add	\$t1,	\$a2,	\$a3					
sub	\$s0,	\$t0,	\$t1					
add	\$v0,	\$s0,	\$zero					
l lw	\$s0,	0(\$5	o)					
addi	\$sp,	\$sp,	4					
jr	\$ra							

Save \$s0 on stack

Procedure body

Result

Restore \$s0

Return



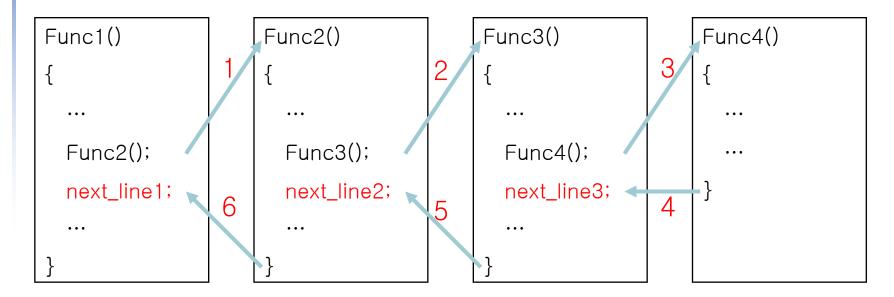
Leaf Procedure Example

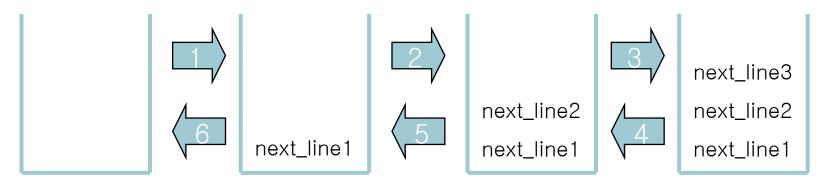
```
addi $sp, $sp, -12 # adjust stack to make room for 3 items
    $t1, 8($sp) # save register $t1 for use afterwards
SW
sw $t0, 4($sp) # save register $t0 for use afterwards
    $s0, O($sp) # save register $s0 for use afterwards
SW
                                                      High address
                                                           stack
$sp→
                                                           grows
                        Contents of register $11
                                                           down
                        Contents of register $t0
                       Contents of register $s0
                                                      Low address
lw $s0, 0($sp) # restore register $s0 for caller
lw $t0, 4($sp) # restore register $t0 for caller
lw $t1, 8($sp) # restore register $t1 for caller
addi $sp,$sp,12 # adjust stack to delete 3 items
```



Stack in Computer System

At function call, return address is saved in stack







Non-Leaf Procedures

- Procedures that call other procedures
- For nested call, use stack to save:
 - Its return address
 - Any arguments and temporaries needed after the call
- Restore from the stack after the call
- Caller pushes
 - argument registers (\$a0-\$a3)
 - temporary registers (\$t0-\$t9) that are needed after the call
- Callee pushes
 - the return address register (\$ra)
 - any saved registers (\$s0-\$s7) used by callee



Non-Leaf Procedure Example

C code:

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

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

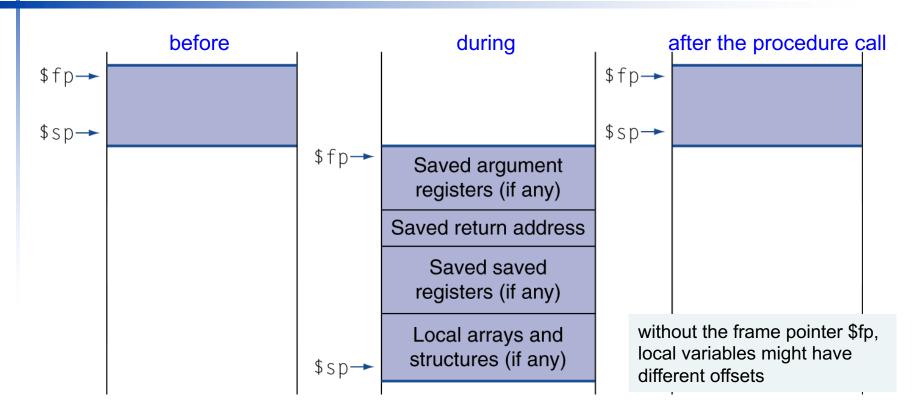
Non-Leaf Procedure Example

MIPS code:

fact	t:			
	addi	\$sp,	\$sp, −8	<pre># adjust stack for 2 items</pre>
		•	4(\$sp)	<pre># save return address</pre>
	SW	\$a0,	0(\$sp)	<pre># save argument</pre>
	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	<pre># pop 2 items from stack</pre>
	jr	\$ra		<pre># and return</pre>
L1:	addi	\$a0,	\$a0, -1	# else decrement n
	jal	fact		<pre># recursive call</pre>
	٦w	\$a0,	0(\$sp)	# restore original n
	٦w	\$ra,	4(\$sp)	<pre># and return address</pre>
			\$sp, 8	<pre># pop 2 items from stack</pre>
		\$v0,	\$a0, \$v0	<pre># multiply to get result</pre>
	jr	\$ra		# and return



Local Data on the Stack

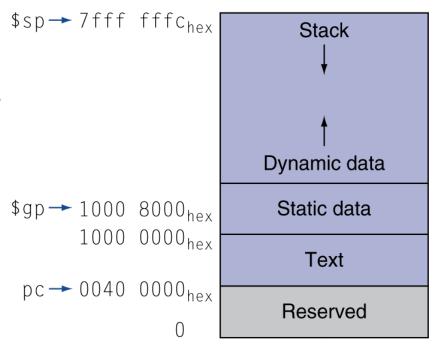


- Local data allocated by callee (e.g., C automatic variables)
- Procedure frame (activation record)
 - Used by some compilers to manage stack storage
- Frame Pointer
 - the location of the saved regs and local vars for a given procedure



Memory Layout

- Text: program code (machine 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:
                          # adjust stack for 1 item
   addi $sp, $sp, -4
        $s0, 0($sp)
                          # save $s0
    SW
    add \$s0, \$zero, \$zero # i = 0
                          # addr of y[i] in $t1
L1: add $t1, $s0, $a1
    lbu $t2, 0($t1)
                          # $t2 = y[i]
    add $t3, $s0, $a0
                          # addr of x[i] in $t3
    sb $t2, 0($t3)
                          \# x[i] = y[i]
    beq $t2, $zero, L2
                          # exit loop if y[i] == 0
                           \# i = i + 1
    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
         $ra
                          # and return
    jr
```



32-bit Constants

- Most constants are small
 - 16-bit immediate is sufficient
- For the occasional 32-bit constant

lui rt, constant

load upper immediate

- Copies 16-bit constant to left 16 bits of rt
- Clears right 16 bits of rt to 0



Branch Addressing

- The conditional branch instructions specify
 - Opcode, two registers, target address
- Most branch targets are near branch
 - Forward or backward -2¹⁵ ~ +2¹⁵ words

ор	rs rt		constant or address				
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	16 bits				

- PC-relative addressing
 - Target address = PC + offset × 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) concat

leaving the upper 4 bits unchanged.



Target Addressing Example

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

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

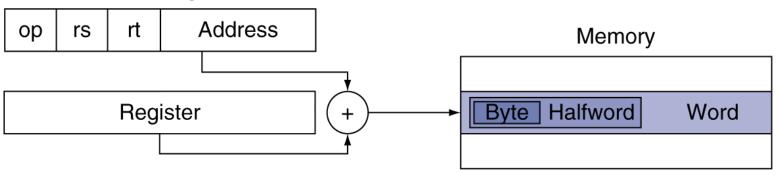
1. Immediate addressing



2. Register addressing



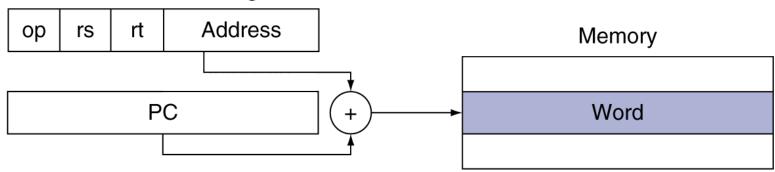
3. Base addressing



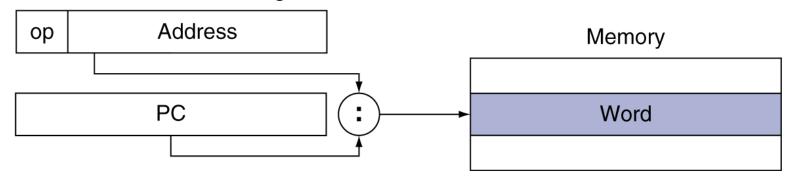


Addressing Mode Summary

4. PC-relative addressing



5. Pseudodirect addressing





MIPS instruction formats

Name	Fields					
Field size	6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	6 bits
R-format	op	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
I-format	op	rs	rt	address/immediate		
J-format	op	target address				

Name	Comments		
Field size	All MIPS instructions are 32 bits long		
R-format	Arithmetic instruction format		
I-format	Transfer, branch, i mm. format		
J-format	Jump instruction format		



Decoding machine code

assembly language corresponding to this machine instruction?

00af8020hex

- → Binary representation, reformat/decoding and translation.
 - 1. binary

0000 0000 1010 1111 1000 0000 0010 0000

2. reformat/decoding

3. translation

add \$s0.\$a1.\$t7



Synchronization

- Two processors sharing an area of memory
 - P1 writes, then P2 reads
 - Data race if P1 and P2 don't synchronize
 - Result depends on the order of accesses
- Hardware support required
 - Atomic read/write memory operation
 - No other access to the location allowed between the read and write
- Could be a single instruction
 - E.g., atomic swap of register ↔ memory
 - Or an atomic pair of instructions



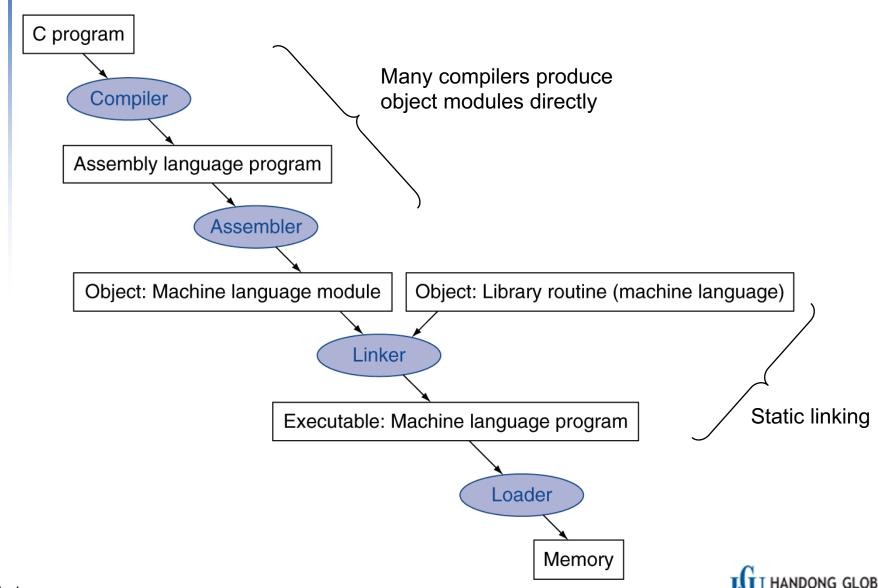
Synchronization in MIPS

- Load linked: 11 rt, offset(rs)
- Store conditional: sc rt, offset(rs)
 - Succeeds if location not changed since the 11
 - Returns 1 in rt
 - Fails if location is changed
 - Returns 0 in rt
- Example: atomic swap (to test/set lock variable)

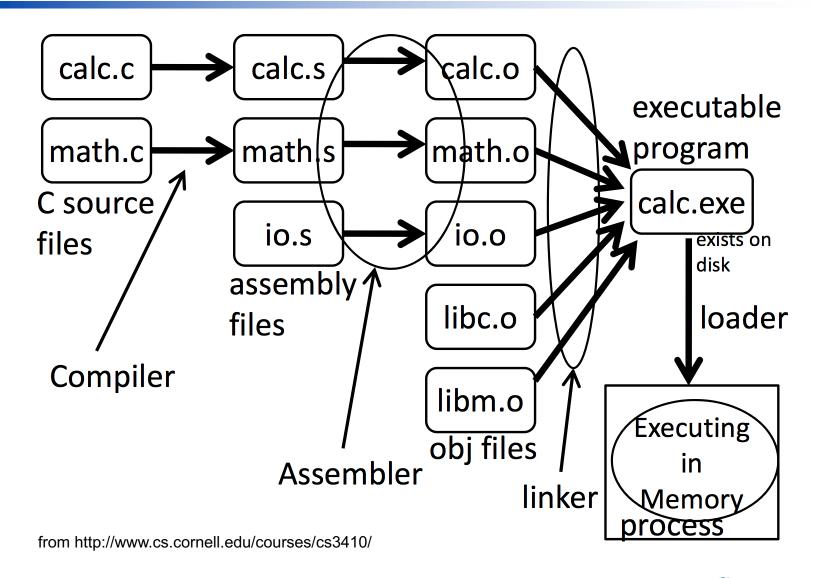
the content of \$s4 and the memory at \$s1: atomically exchanged



Translation and Startup



translation example

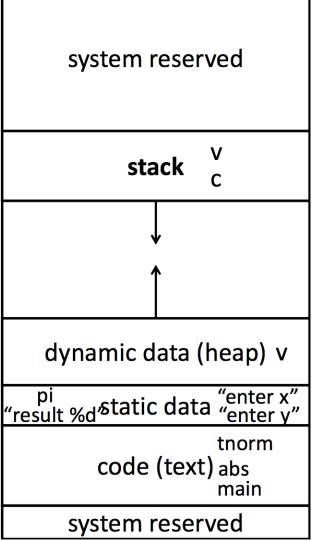


program layout example

```
vector* (v = malloc(8);
v->x = prompt("enter x");
v->y = prompt("enter y");
int(c) = pi + tnorm(v);
print("result %d", c);
```

```
int tnorm(vector* v) {
  return abs(v->x)+abs(v->y);
}
```

```
global variable: pi
entry point: prompt
entry point: print
entry point: malloc
```



Assembler Pseudoinstructions

- Most assembler instructions represent machine instructions one-to-one
- Pseudoinstructions: figments of the assembler's imagination

```
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

bgt, bge, and ble



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
 - global vars, strings, constants
 - Relocation info: for contents that depend on absolute location of loaded program (lw/sw, jal)
 - Symbol table: global definitions and external refs (in other files)
 - 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



example

after compile

A starts at 40 0000 and the size is 10 Then B starts at 40 0100

\$sp→7fff fffchex Stack

Dynamic data

\$gp→1000 8000hex 1000 0000hex

pc→0040 0000hex

Reserved

Reserved

h. choi

	Object file header			
		Name	Procedure A	
		Text size	100 _{hex}	
		Data size	20 _{hex}	
	Text segment	Address	Instruction	
		0	lw \$a0, 0(\$gp)	
		4	jal O	
			•••	
	Data segment	0	(X)	
			•••	
	Relocation information	Address	Instruction type	Dependency
		0	1w	X
		4	jal	В
	Symbol table	Label	Address	
		Х	_	
100		В	-	
	Object file header			
		Name	Procedure B	
		Text size	200 _{hex}	
		Data size	30 _{hex}	
	Text segment	Address	Instruction	
		0	sw \$a1, 0(\$gp)	
		4	jal O	
	Data segment	0	(Y)	
		•••	•••	
	Relocation information	Address	Instruction type	Dependency
		0	SW	Υ
		4	jal	A
	Symbol table	Label	Address	
		Υ	_	
		A	_	

example

after link

 $p = 1000 8000_{hex}$

 $\frac{\text{signed } 16bit}{1000\ 8000 + (8000) = 1000\ 0000}$

Executable file header		
	Text size	300 _{hex}
	Data size	50 _{hex}
Text segment	Address	Instruction
	0040 0000 _{hex}	lw \$a0, 8000 _{hex} (\$gp)
	0040 0004 _{hex}	jal 40 0100 _{hex}
	•••	
	0040 0100 _{hex}	sw \$a1, 8020 _{hex} (\$gp)
	0040 0104 _{hex}	jal 40 0000 _{hex}
	•••	
Data segment	Address	
	1000 0000 _{hex}	(X)
	1000 0020 _{hex}	(Y)

load from X
jal B
store to Y

jal A



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



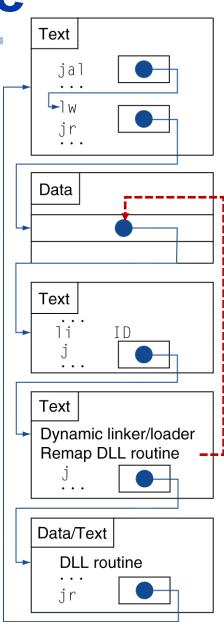
Lazy Linkage

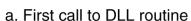
Indirection table

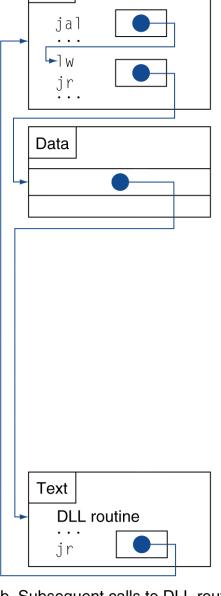
Stub: Loads routine ID, Jump to linker/loader

Linker/loader code

Dynamically mapped code



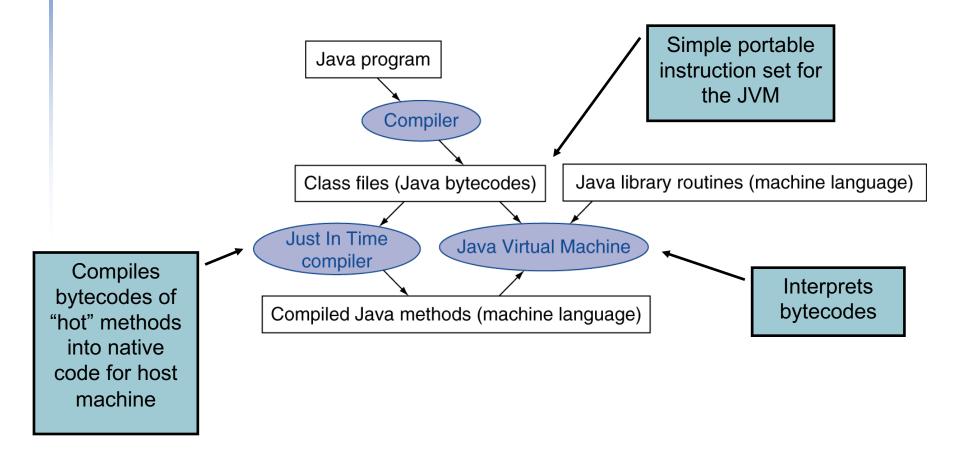




Text

b. Subsequent calls to DLL routine

Starting Java Applications





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]; j-=1) {
 swap(v,j);
 }
 }
 v in \$a0, n in \$a1, i in \$s0, j in \$s1



The Procedure Body

n	move	\$s2,	\$a0	#	save \$a0 into \$s2	Move
n	move	\$s3,	\$a1	#	save \$a1 into \$s3	params
n	move	\$s0,	\$zero	#	i = 0	0.4
for1tst: s	slt	\$t0,	\$s0, \$s3	#	$t0 = 0 \text{ if } s0 \ge s3 \ (i \ge n)$	Outer loop
k	beq	\$t0,	<pre>\$zero, exit1</pre>	#	go to exit1 if $$s0 \ge $s3 (i \ge n)$	
ā	addi	\$s1,	\$s0, -1	#	j = i - 1	
for2tst: s	slti	\$t0,	\$s1, 0	#	$t0 = 1 \text{ if } s1 < 0 \ (j < 0)$	
k	bne	\$t0,	<pre>\$zero, exit2</pre>	#	go to exit2 if \$s1 < 0 (j < 0)	
9	s11	\$t1,	\$s1, 2	#	\$t1 = j * 4	Inner loop
ā	add	\$t2,	\$s2, \$t1	#	t2 = v + (j * 4)	milet loop
1	٦w	\$t3,	0(\$t2)	#	t3 = v[j]	
7	٦w	\$t4,	4(\$t2)	#	t4 = v[j + 1]	
9	slt	\$t0,	\$t4, \$t3	#	$t0 = 0 \text{ if } t4 \ge t3$	
k	beq	\$t0,	<pre>\$zero, exit2</pre>	#	go to exit2 if \$t4 ≥ \$t3	
n	move	\$a0,	\$s2	#	1st param of swap is v (old \$a0)	Pass
n	move	\$a1,	\$s1	#	2nd param of swap is j	params
j	jal	swap		#	call swap procedure	& call
ā	addi	\$s1,	\$s1, -1	#	j -= 1	lana an lana
j	j	for2t	tst	#	jump to test of inner loop	Inner loop
exit2: a	addi	\$s0,	\$s0, 1	#	i += 1	Outonless
j	j	for1t	tst	#	jump to test of outer loop	Outer loop

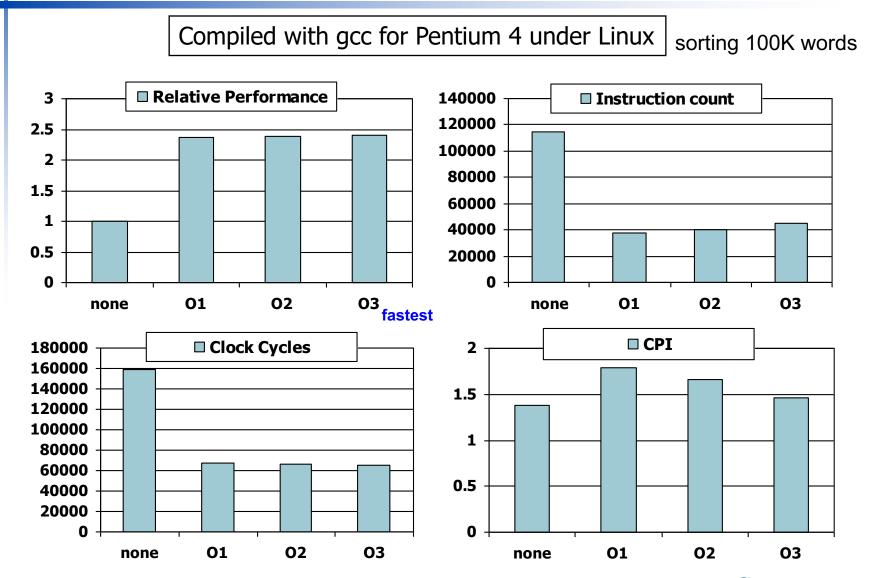


The Full Procedure

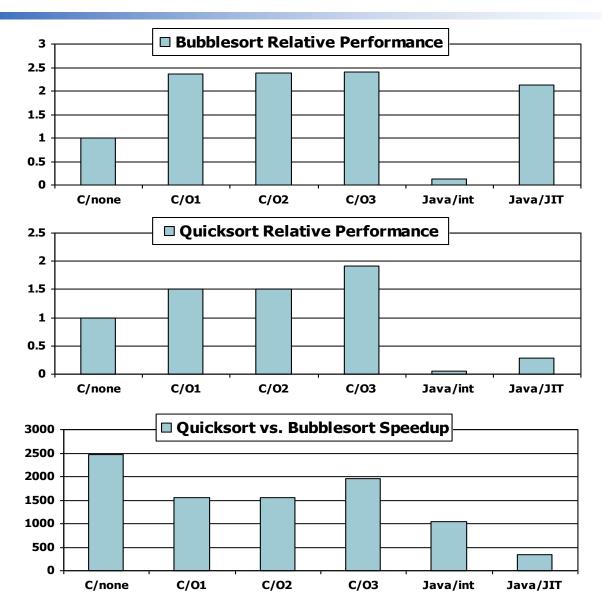
```
# make room on stack for 5 registers
        addi $sp,$sp, -20
sort:
        sw $ra, 16($sp)
                              # save $ra on stack
        sw $s3, 12($sp)
                              # save $s3 on stack
        sw $s2, 8($sp)
                              # save $s2 on stack
        sw $s1, 4($sp)
                              # save $s1 on stack
                              # save $s0 on stack
        sw $s0, 0($sp)
                              # procedure body in the prev slide
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
        ir $ra
                              # return to calling routine
```



Effect of Compiler Optimization



Effect of Language and Algorithm





Lessons Learnt

- Instruction count and CPI are not good performance indicators in isolation
- Compiler optimizations are sensitive to the algorithm
- Java/JIT compiled code is significantly faster than JVM interpreted
 - Comparable to optimized C in some cases
- Nothing can fix a dumb algorithm!



Arrays vs. Pointers

- Array indexing involves
 - Multiplying index by element size
 - Adding to array base address
- Pointers correspond directly to memory addresses
 - Can avoid indexing complexity



Example: Clearing and Array

```
clear1(int array[], int size) {
                                       clear2(int *array, int size) {
  int i:
                                         int *p:
  for (i = 0; i < size; i += 1)
                                         for (p = \&array[0]; p < \&array[size];
   array[i] = 0;
                                              p = p + 1
}
                                           *p = 0:
      move t0,\zero # i = 0
                                              move t0,a0 # p = & array[0]
                                              sll $t1,$a1,2 # $t1 = size * 4
loop1: sll $t1,$t0,2  # $t1 = i * 4
      add t2,a0,t1 # t2 =
                                              add $t2,$a0,$t1 # $t2 =
                           &array[i]
                                                                 &array[size]
                       #
                                                              #
      sw zero, 0(t2) # array[i] = 0
                                       loop2: sw zero,0(t0) # Memory[p] = 0
      addi $t0,$t0,1 # i = i + 1
                                              addi t0,t0,4 # p = p + 4
      slt $t3,$t0,$a1 # $t3 =
                                              s1t $t3,$t0,$t2 # $t3 =
                         (i < size)
                                                              #(p<&array[size])
      bne $t3,$zero,loop1 # if (...)
                                              bne $t3,$zero,loop2 # if (...)
                       # goto loop1
                                                              # goto loop2
```



Comparison of Array vs. Ptr

- Multiply "strength reduced" to shift
- Array version requires shift to be inside loop
 - Part of index calculation for incremented i
 - c.f. incrementing pointer
- Compiler can achieve same effect as manual use of pointers
 - Induction variable elimination
 - Better to make program clearer and safer



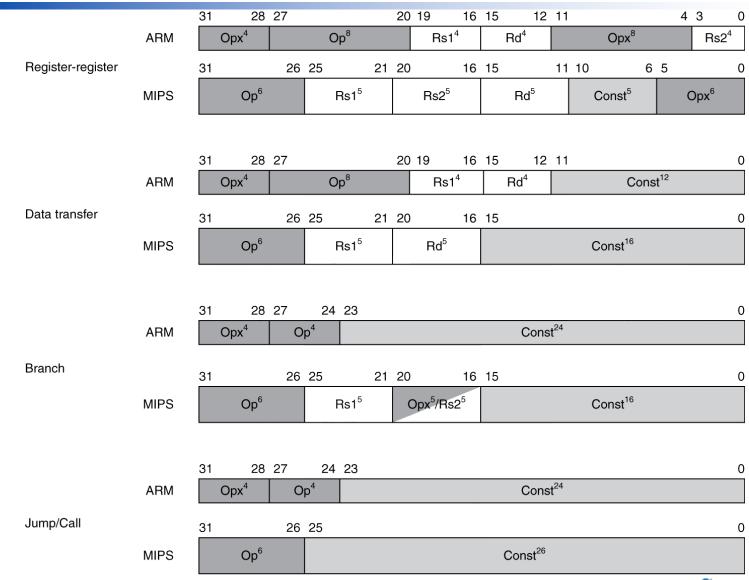
ARM & MIPS Similarities

- ARM: the most popular embedded core
- Similar basic set of instructions to MIPS

	ARM	MIPS
Date announced	1985	1985
Instruction size	32 bits	32 bits
Address space	32-bit flat	32-bit flat
Data alignment	Aligned	Aligned
Data addressing modes	9	3
Registers	15 × 32-bit	31 × 32-bit
Input/output	Memory mapped	Memory mapped



Instruction Encoding





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 not general purpose register architecture
 - Complex instruction set (CISC)
 - 8087 (1980): floating-point coprocessor
 - Adds FP instructions and register stack
 - 80286 (1982): 24-bit addresses, MMU (memory management unit)
 - Segmented memory mapping and protection
 - 80386 (1985): 32-bit extension (now IA-32) Intel arthitecture 32-bit
 - Additional addressing modes and operations
 - Paged memory mapping as well as segments
 - nearly general purpose register architecture



The Intel x86 ISA

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



The Intel x86 ISA

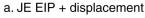
- And further...
 - AMD64 (2003): extended architecture to 64 bits
 - EM64T Extended Memory 64 Technology (2004)
 - AMD64 adopted by Intel (with refinements)
 - Added SSE3 instructions
 - Intel Core (2006)
 - Added SSE4 instructions, virtual machine support
 - AMD64 (announced 2007): SSE5 instructions
 - 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

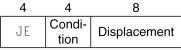


x86 Instruction Encoding

Variable length encoding from 1 byte to 15 bytes

- Postfix bytes specify addressing mode
- Prefix bytes modify operation
 - Operand length, repetition, locking, ...





b. CALL



c. MOV EBX, [EDI + 45]

6	1	1	8	8
MOV	d	w	r/m Postbyte	Displacement

d. PUSH ESI



e. ADD EAX, #6765



f. TEST EDX, #42

7	1	8	32
TEST	w	Postbyte	Immediate



Implementing IA-32

- Complex instruction set makes implementation difficult
 - Hardware translates instructions to simpler microoperations
 - Simple instructions: 1–1
 - Complex instructions: 1–many
 - Microengine similar to RISC
 - Market share makes this economically viable
- Comparable performance to RISC
 - Compilers avoid complex instructions



ARM v8 Instructions

- In moving to 64-bit, ARM did a complete overhaul
- ARM v8 resembles MIPS
 - Changes from v7:
 - No conditional execution field
 - Immediate field is 12-bit constant
 - Dropped load/store multiple
 - PC is no longer a GPR
 - GPR set expanded to 32
 - Addressing modes work for all word sizes
 - Divide instruction
 - Branch if equal/branch if not equal instructions



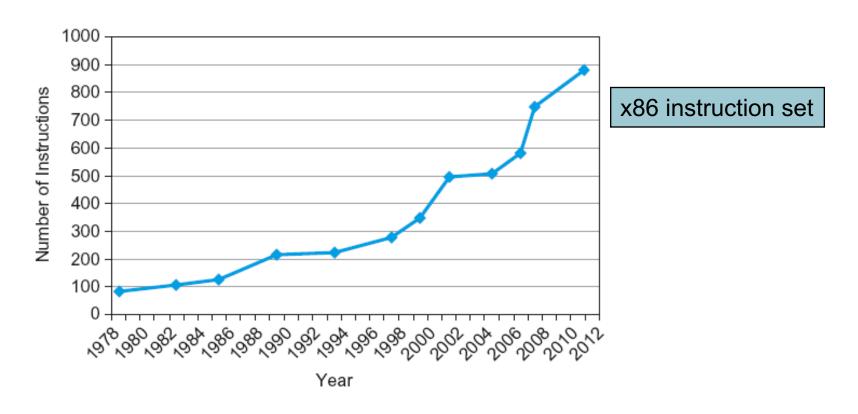
Fallacies (wrong)

- Powerful instruction ⇒ higher performance (X)
 - 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 (X)
 - But modern compilers are better at dealing with modern processors
 - More lines of code ⇒ more errors and less productivity



Fallacies

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





Pitfalls (risk)

- Sequential words are not at sequential addresses
 - Increment by 4, not by 1!
- Keeping a pointer to an automatic variable after procedure returns
 - e.g., passing pointer back via an argument
 - Pointer becomes invalid when stack popped



Concluding Remarks

- Design principles
 - 1. Simplicity favors regularity
 - 2. Smaller is faster
 - 3. Make the common case fast
 - 4. Good design demands good compromises
- Layers of software/hardware
 - Compiler, assembler, hardware
- MIPS: typical of RISC ISAs
 - c.f. x86



Concluding Remarks

- Measure MIPS instruction executions in benchmark programs
 - Consider making the common case fast
 - Consider compromises

Instruction class	MIPS examples	SPEC2006 Int	SPEC2006 FP
Arithmetic	add, sub, addi	48%	
Data transfer	lw, sw, lb, lbu, lh, lhu, sb, lui	35%	36%
Logical	and, or, nor, andi, ori, sll, srl	12%	4%
Cond. Branch	beq, bne, slt, slti, sltiu	34%	8%
Jump j, jr, jal		2%	0%



Thanks!

