

COMPUTER ORGANIZATION AND DESIGN



The Hardware/Software Interface

Chapter 2

Instructions: Language of the Computer

Instruction Set

- The repertoire of instructions of a computer
- Different computers have different instruction sets
 - But with many aspects in common
- Early computers had very simple instruction sets
 - Simplified implementation
- Many modern computers also have simple instruction sets



The MIPS Instruction Set

- Used as the example throughout the book
- Stanford MIPS commercialized by MIPS Technologies (<u>www.mips.com</u>)
- 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 Appendixes B and E



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
- Design Principle 1: Simplicity favours regularity
 - Regularity makes implementation simpler
 - Simplicity enables higher performance at lower cost



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
```



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



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
- To apply arithmetic operations
 - Load values from memory into registers
 - Store result from register 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
 - c.f. Little Endian: least-significant byte at least address



Memory Operand Example 1

C code:

```
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 constant addi \$s2, \$s1, -1
- Design Principle 3: Make the common case fast
 - Small constants are common
 - Immediate operand avoids a load instruction



The Constant Zero

- MIPS register 0 (\$zero) is the constant 0
 - Cannot be overwritten
- Useful for common operations
 - E.g., move between registers add \$t2, \$s1, \$zero



Unsigned Binary Integers

Given an n-bit number

$$x = x_{n-1}2^{n-1} + x_{n-2}2^{n-2} + ? + x_12^1 + x_02^0$$

- Range: 0 to +2ⁿ 1
- Example
 - 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 1011₂

$$= 0 + ... + 1 \times 2^{3} + 0 \times 2^{2} + 1 \times 2^{1} + 1 \times 2^{0}$$

$$= 0 + ... + 8 + 0 + 2 + 1 = 11_{10}$$

- Using 32 bits
 - 0 to +4,294,967,295



2s-Complement Signed Integers

Given an n-bit number

$$x = -x_{n-1}2^{n-1} + x_{n-2}2^{n-2} + ? + x_12^1 + x_02^0$$

- 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 2s-complement representation
- Some specific numbers
 - 0: 0000 0000 ... 0000
 - —1: 1111 1111 ... 1111
 - Most-negative: 1000 0000 ... 0000
 - Most-positive: 0111 1111 ... 1111



Signed Negation

- Complement and add 1
 - Complement means 1 → 0, 0 → 1

$$x + \overline{x} = 1111...111_2 = -1$$

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

Example: negate +2

$$- +2 = 0000 \ 0000 \ \dots \ 0010_2$$

$$-2 = 1111 \ 1111 \dots \ 1101_2 + 1$$

= 1111 \ 1111 \ \dots \ \ 1110_2



Sign Extension

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



Representing Instructions

- Instructions are encoded in binary
 - Called machine code
- MIPS instructions
 - Encoded as 32-bit instruction words
 - Small number of formats encoding operation code (opcode), register numbers, ...
 - Regularity!
- Register numbers
 - \$t0 \$t7 are reg's 8 15
 - \$t8 \$t9 are reg's 24 25
 - \$s0 \$s7 are reg's 16 23



MIPS R-format Instructions

	ор	rs	rt	rd	shamt	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)
- funct: function code (extends opcode)



R-format Example

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

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

special	\$s1	\$s2	\$tO	0	add
0	17	18	8	0	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	5 bits	5 bits	16 bits

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

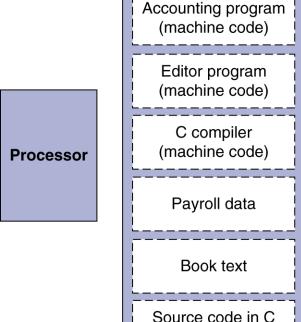


Stored Program Computers

The BIG Picture

Memory

for editor program



- 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



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



- shamt: how many positions to shift
- Shift left logical
 - Shift left and fill with 0 bits
 - sll 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)



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 1101 1100 0000
```

\$t0 | 0000 0000 0000 0000 1100 0000 0000



OR Operations

- Useful to include bits in a word
 - Set some bits to 1, leave others unchanged

```
or $t0, $t1, $t2
```



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)

nor \$t0, \$t1, \$zero

Register 0: always read as zero

\$t1 | 0000 0000 0000 0001 1100 0000 0000

\$t0 | 1111 1111 1111 1100 0011 1111 1111



Conditional Operations

- Branch to a labeled instruction if a condition is true
 - Otherwise, continue sequentially
- beq rs, rt, L1
 - if (rs == rt) branch to instruction labeled L1;
- bne rs, rt, L1
 - if (rs != rt) branch to instruction labeled L1;
- j L1
 - unconditional jump to instruction labeled L1



Compiling If Statements

C code:

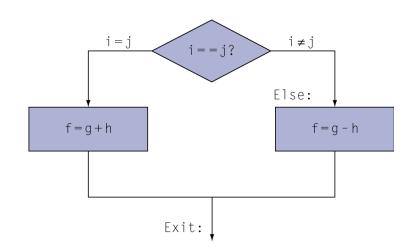
```
if (i==j) f = g+h;
else f = g-h;
```

- f, g, ... in \$s0, \$s1, ...
- Compiled MIPS code:

```
bne $s3, $s4, Else
add $s0, $s1, $s2
j Exit
```

Else: sub \$s0, \$s1, \$s2

Exit:



Assembler calculates addresses



Compiling Loop Statements

C code:

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

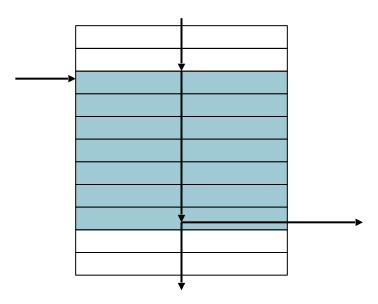
- i in \$s3, k in \$s5, address of save in \$s6
- Compiled MIPS code:

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



Basic Blocks

- A basic block is a sequence of instructions with
 - No embedded branches (except at end)
 - No branch targets (except at 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
 - if (rs < rt) rd = 1; else rd = 0;
- 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
```



Branch Instruction Design

- Why not blt, bge, etc?
- 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
- This is a good design compromise



Signed vs. Unsigned

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

 - slt \$t0, \$s0, \$s1 # signed
 - $-1 < +1 \Rightarrow $t0 = 1$
 - sltu \$t0, \$s0, \$s1 # unsigned
 - $+4,294,967,295 > +1 \Rightarrow $t0 = 0$



Procedure Calling

- Steps required
 - 1. 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 (reg's 4 7)
- \$v0, \$v1: result values (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 (reg 31)



Procedure Call Instructions

- Procedure call: jump and link jal ProcedureLabel
 - Address of following instruction put in \$ra
 - Jumps to 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



Leaf Procedure Example

C code:

```
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)

 Result in $v0
```



Leaf Procedure Example

MIPS code:

leaf_example:
addi \$sp, \$sp, -4
sw \$s0, 0(\$sp)
add \$t0, \$a0, \$a1
add \$t1, \$a2, \$a3
sub \$s0, \$t0, \$t1
add \$v0, \$s0, \$zero
lw \$s0, 0(\$sp)
addi \$sp, \$sp, 4
jr \$ra

Save \$s0 on stack

Procedure body

Result

Restore \$s0

Return



Non-Leaf Procedures

- Procedures that call other procedures
- For nested call, caller needs to save on the stack:
 - Its return address
 - Any arguments and temporaries needed after the call
- Restore from the stack after the call



Non-Leaf Procedure Example

C code: int fact (int n) if (n < 1) return f; else return n * fact(n - 1); Argument n in \$a0 Result in \$v0



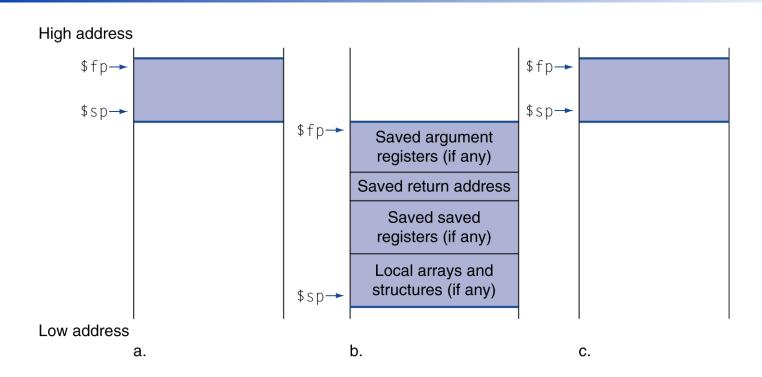
Non-Leaf Procedure Example

MIPS code:

```
fact:
  addi $sp, $sp, -8 # adjust stack for 2 items
  sw $ra, 4($sp) # save return address
  sw $a0, 0($sp) # save argument
  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 # pop 2 items from stack
  jr $ra # and return
L1: addi $a0, $a0, -1 # else decrement n
  jal fact # recursive call
  lw $a0, 0($sp) # restore original n
  lw $ra, 4($sp) # and return address
  addi $sp, $sp, 8 # pop 2 items from stack
  mul $v0, $a0, $v0 # multiply to get result
  ir $ra # and return
```



Local Data on the Stack

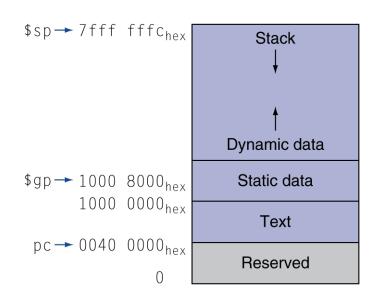


- Local data allocated by callee
 - e.g., C automatic variables
- Procedure frame (activation record)
 - Used by some compilers to manage stack storage



Memory Layout

- Text: program 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

Ib rt, offset(rs) Ih 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:
  addi $sp, $sp, -4 # adjust stack for 1 item
  sw $s0, 0($sp) # save $s0
  add $s0, $zero, $zero # i = 0
L1: add $t1, $s0, $a1 # addr of y[i] in $t1
  Ibu $t2, O(\$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, uercent = 0
  addi $s0, $s0, 1 \# i = i + 1
    L1 # next iteration of loop
L2: lw $s0, 0($sp) # restore saved $s0
  addi $sp, $sp, 4 # pop 1 item from stack
  ir $ra # and return
```



32-bit Constants

- Most constants are small
 - 16-bit immediate is sufficient
- For the occasional 32-bit constant
 lui rt, constant
 - Copies 16-bit constant to left 16 bits of rt
 - Clears right 16 bits of rt to 0

lhi \$s0, 61

ori \$s0, \$s0, 2304

0000 0000 0111 1101 0000 1001 0000 0000



Branch Addressing

- Branch instructions specify
 - Opcode, two registers, target address
- Most branch targets are near branch
 - Forward or backward

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)



Target Addressing Example

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

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

80000	0	0	19	9	4	0		
80004	0	9	22	9	0	32		
80008	35	9	8	0				
80012	5	8	21	*************2				
80016	8	19	19	1				
80020	2	20000						
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

