

Computer Architecture (Assembly Language Overview)



विद्याधनं सर्वधनं प्रधानम्

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Overview of Assembly Language

Assembly Language

What is an Assembly Language?

The term **assembly language** refers to a family of low-level programming languages that are specific to an ISA. They have a generic structure that consists of a sequence of assembly statements.

Assembly Language - Basic Characteristics

- A low level programming language that uses simple statements.
- Each statement corresponds to **typically** just one machine instruction.
- These languages are specific to the ISA (Instruction Set Architecture).
- **Typically**, each assembly statement has two parts:
 - 1 Instruction Code that is a mnemonic for a basic machine instruction,
 - 2 A list of operands.

Need for Learning Assembly Language

- Understanding processor and memory function
- Complete control over a system's resources
- Understanding processor and memory function
- Direct access to hardware
- Software developers' perspective
 - ▶ Write highly efficient code.
 - ▶ Suitable for the core parts of games, and mission critical software.
 - ▶ Write code for operating systems and device drivers.
 - ▶ Use features of the machine that are not supported by standard programming languages.

Hardware Designers Perspective

- Learning the assembly language is the same as learning the intricacies of the instruction set.
- For Hardware designers: what to build?

Assembly Language is Transparent

- This is largely since it has a small number of operations.
- So, this is very helpful for algorithm analysis
- Less worry about semantics and flow of control.
- Easier for debugging, as it is less complex.
- Less overhead as compared to high-level languages.

Assemblers

Assembler

An Assembler is program that converts programs written in Assembly Language (i.e., low level languages) to machine code (0s and 1s).

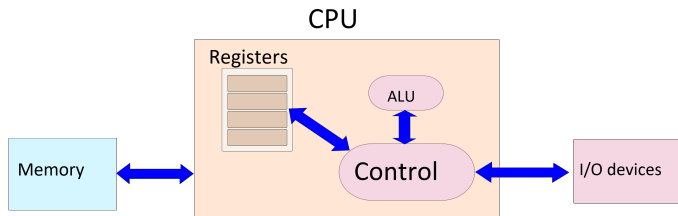
Examples: **nasm**, **tasm**, and **masm** for x86 ISAs

Using Assembler in UNIX system

- On a linux system try :
- `gcc -S <filename.c>`
- `filename.s` is its assembly representation
- Then type: `gcc filename.s` (will generate a binary: `a.out`)

A Simple Computer Model

Machine Model – Von Neumann Machine



View of Registers

Registers → named storage locations

- in ARM: r0, r1, ... r15
- in x86: eax, ebx, ecx, edx, esi, edi

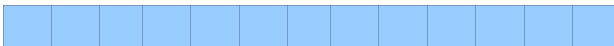
Machine specific registers (MSR)

- Examples: Control the machine such as the speed of fans, power control settings
- Read the on-chip temperature.

Registers with special functions

- stack pointer
- program counter
- return address

View of Memory



- Memory
 - ▶ One large array of bytes
 - ▶ Each location has an address
 - ▶ The address of the first location is 0, and increases by 1 for each subsequent location
- The program is stored in a part of the memory
- The program counter contains the address of the current instruction

Storage of Data in Memory

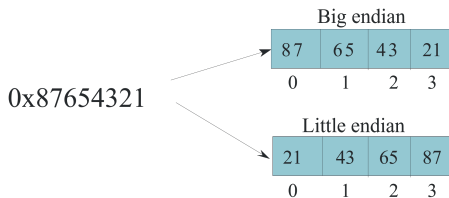
Data Types

- char (1 byte)
- short (2 bytes)
- int (4 bytes)
- long int (8 bytes)

multibyte variables stored in memory

- Example: How is a 4 byte integer stored?
 - ▶ Save the 4 bytes in consecutive locations
- Next question: which order? Little endian or Big endian.
 - ▶ Little endian representation (used in ARM and x86) → The LSB is stored in the lowest location
 - ▶ Big endian representation (Sun Sparc, IBM PPC) → The MSB is stored in the lowest location

Arrangements of Bytes - Little Endian vs Big Endian



Note the order of the storage of bytes

Storage of Arrays in Memory



- Single dimensional arrays.
- Consider an array of integers: `a[100]`
- Each integer is stored in either a little endian or big endian format
- 2 dimensional arrays :
 - ▶ `int a[100][100]`
 - ▶ `float b[100][100]`
 - ▶ Two methods: row major and column major

Row Major vs Column Major

Row Major (C, Python)

- Store the first row as an 1D array
- Then store the second row, and so on.

Column Major (Fortran, Matlab)

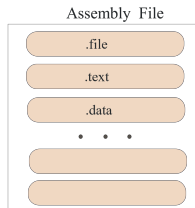
- Store the first column as an 1D array
- Then store the second column, and so on

Multidimensional arrays

Store the entire array as a sequence of 1D arrays

Assembly Language Syntax

Assembly Language Program Structure



- Divided into different sections
- Each section contains some data, or assembly instructions

Meaning of Different Sections

- .file
- name of the source file
- .text
- contains the list of instructions
- .data
- data used by the program in terms of read only variables, and constants

Structure of Instruction



- instruction: textual identifier of a machine instruction
- operand: Usually can be any or mix of these
 - ▶ constant (also known as an immediate)
 - ▶ register
 - ▶ memory location

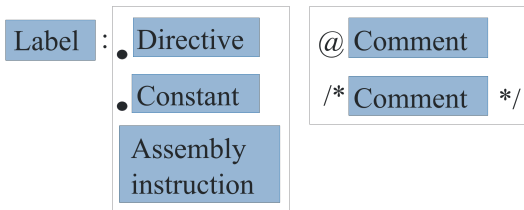
Examples of Instructions

- subtract the contents of r2 from the contents of r1, and save the result in r3
- multiply the contents of r2 with the contents of r1, and save the results in r3

```
sub r3, r1, r2  
mul r3, r1, r2
```

We will see a lot more examples later on.

Generic Statement Structure in Assembly Language Program



- label → identifier of a statement
- directive → tells the assembler to do something like declare a function
- constant → declares a constant
- assembly statement → contains the assembly instruction, and operands
- comment → textual annotations ignored by the assembler

Types of Instructions

Data Processing Instructions

add, subtract, multiply, divide, compare, logical or, logical and

Data Transfer Instructions

transfer values between registers, and memory locations

Branch instructions

branch to a given label

Special instructions

interact with peripheral devices, and other programs, set machine specific parameters

Survey of Instruction Sets

ISA	Type	Year	Vendor	Bits	Endianness	Registers
VAX	CISC	1977	DEC	32	little	16
SPARC	RISC	1986	Sun	32	big	32
	RISC	1993	Sun	64	bi	32
PowerPC	RISC	1992	Apple,IBM,Motorola	32	bi	32
	RISC	2002	Apple,IBM	64	bi	32
PA-RISC	RISC	1986	HP	32	big	32
	RISC	1996	HP	64	big	32
m68000	CISC	1979	Motorola	16	big	16
	CISC	1979	Motorola	32	big	16
MIPS	RISC	1981	MIPS	32	bi	32
	RISC	1999	MIPS	64	bi	32
Alpha	RISC	1992	DEC	64	bi	32
x86	CISC	1978	Intel,AMD	16	little	8
	CISC	1985	Intel,AMD	32	little	8
	CISC	2003	Intel,AMD	64	little	16
ARM	RISC	1985	ARM	32	bi(little default)	16
	RISC	2011	ARM	64	bi(little default)	31

SimpleRISC ISA

SimpleRisc - Hypothetical Design only

- Simple RISC ISA
- Contains only 21 instructions
- We will design an assembly language for SimpleRisc
- Design a simple binary encoding,
- Hardware Design & Implementation
- Performance Improvement by redesigning Hardware

Registers & Fundamental Model

SimpleRisc has 16 registers

- Numbered: $r0 \dots r15$
- $r14$ is also referred to as the stack pointer (sp)
- $r15$ is also referred to as the return address register (ra)

View of Memory

- Von Neumann model
- One large array of bytes

Special flags register

- Special flags register \rightarrow contains the result of the last comparison
- $\text{flags.E} = 1$ (equality), $\text{flags.GT} = 1$ (greater than)

SimpleRISC: Moving data

Instructions for Moving Data

Find the Requirements

- Where can we have our data?
- Register, memory, immediate literal value.
- What kind of data movements are required?

Variations on Data Movement

- Moving data between registers. [**mov** instruction]
- Moving an immediate value into a register. [**mov** instruction]
- Moving data between register and memory. [**ld** and **st** instructions - will study later on]

mov instruction

mov instruction - snapshot

Instruction Snapshot	Explanation
mov <i>dest</i> , <i>src</i>	$dest \leftarrow src$
mov r1, r2	$r1 \leftarrow r2$
mov r1, 3	$r1 \leftarrow 3$

- Transfer the contents of one register to another
- Or, transfer the contents of an immediate to a register
- The value of the immediate is embedded in the instruction
 - ▶ SimpleRisc has 16 bit immediates
 - ▶ Range -215 to 215 - 1

SimpleRISC: Arithmetic Instructions

Arithmetic Instructions

- SimpleRisc has 6 arithmetic instructions
- add, sub, mul, div, mod, cmp

Instruction Snapshot	Explanation
add r1, r2, r3	$r1 \leftarrow r2 + r3$
add r1, r2, 10	$r1 \leftarrow r2 + 10$
sub r1, r2, r3	$r1 \leftarrow r2 - r3$
mul r1, r2, r3	$r1 \leftarrow r2 * r3$
div r1, r2, r3	$r1 \leftarrow r2 / r3$ (quotient)
mod r1, r2, r3	$r1 \leftarrow r2 \bmod r3$ (remainder)
cmp r1, r2	set flags

Arithmetic Instructions - Example 1

Convert the following code to assembly

```
a = 3  
b = 5  
c = a + b  
d = c - 5
```

Solution:

Assign the variables to registers

- $a \leftarrow r0, b \leftarrow r1, c \leftarrow r2, d \leftarrow r3$

```
mov r0, 3  
mov r1, 5  
add r2, r0, r1  
sub r3, r2, 5
```

Arithmetic Instructions - Example 2

Convert the following code to assembly

```
a = 3  
b = 5  
c = a * b  
d = c mod 5
```

Solution:

- Assign the variables to registers
- $a \leftarrow r0$, $b \leftarrow r1$, $c \leftarrow r2$, $d \leftarrow r3$

```
mov r0, 3  
mov r1, 5  
mul r2, r0, r1  
mod r3, r2, 5
```

Compare Instruction - Example 1

Convert the following code to assembly & get the value of the flags

```
a = 3  
b = 5  
compare a and b
```

Solution:

- Assign the variables to registers
- $a \leftarrow r0, b \leftarrow r1$

```
mov r0, 3  
mov r1, 5  
cmp r0, r1
```

- flags.E = 0, flags.GT = 0

Compare Instruction - Example 2

Convert the following code to assembly & get the value of the flags

```
a = 5  
b = 3  
compare a and b
```

Solution:

- Assign the variables to registers
- $a \leftarrow r0, b \leftarrow r1$

```
mov r0, 5  
mov r1, 3  
cmp r0, r1
```

- $\text{flags.E} = 0, \text{flags.GT} = 1$

Compare Instruction - Example 3

Convert the following code to assembly & get the value of the flags

```
a = 5  
b = 5  
compare a and b
```

Solution:

- Assign the variables to registers
- $a \leftarrow r0, b \leftarrow r1$

```
mov r0, 5  
mov r1, 5  
cmp r0, r1
```

- $\text{flags.E} = 1, \text{flags.GT} = 0$

More Involved Arithmetic Computations - Example

Write Assembly Code for the following.

Compute: $31 / 29 - 50$, and save the result in r4.

Solution:

- Assign the variables to registers
- Let us keep r4 free for the result.
- $31 \leftarrow r1, 29 \leftarrow r2, r3 \leftarrow 31 / 29, r4 \leftarrow (31 / 29 - 50)$

```
mov r1, 31
mov r2, 29
div r3, r1, r2
sub r4, r3, 50
```

SimpleRISC: Logical Instructions

Logical Instructions

Instruction Snapshot	Explanation	Textual Explanation
and r1, r2, r3	$r1 \leftarrow r2 \& r3$	bitwise AND
or r1, r2, r3	$r1 \leftarrow r2 r3$	bitwise OR
not r1, r2	$r1 \leftarrow \tilde{r2}$	logical complement

The second argument can either be a register or an immediate value.

Logical Instructions - Example

Compute $(a \mid b)$

Solution:

- Assign the variables to registers.
- $a \leftarrow r0$, $b \leftarrow r1$, $r2$ to store the result.

or r2, r0, r1

SimpleRISC: Shift Instructions

Logical & Arithmetic Shift Concept

Logical shift left (lsl) – We use \ll operator

- $0010 \ll 2$ is equal to 1000 [Note: **0 is entering from right**]
- $(\ll n)$ is the same as multiplying by 2^n

logical shift right (lsr) – We use \ggg operator

- $1000 \ggg 2 = 0010$ [Note: **0 is entering from left**]
- $(\ggg n)$ is the same as dividing the unsigned representation by 2^n

Arithmetic shift right (asr) – We use \gg operator

- $0010 \gg 1 = 0001$ [Note: **0 is entering from left**]
- $1000 \gg 2 = 1110$ [Note: **1 is entering from left**]
- Input is assumed to be a **signed integer**.
- $(\gg n)$ same as dividing a signed number by 2^n

Shift Instructions

Instruction Snapshot	Explanation
lsl r3, r1, r2	$r3 \leftarrow r1 \ll r2$ (shift left)
lsl r3, r1, 4	$r3 \leftarrow r1 \ll 4$ (shift left)
lsr r3, r1, r2	$r3 \leftarrow r1 \gg r2$ (shift right logical)
lsr r3, r1, 4	$r3 \leftarrow r1 \gg 4$ (shift right logical)
asr r3, r1, r2	$r3 \leftarrow r1 \gg r2$ (arithmetic shift right)
asr r3, r1, 4	$r3 \leftarrow r1 \gg r2$ (arithmetic shift right)

Shift Instructions - Example 1

Compute $101 * 6$ with shift operators

- We need to compute $101 * (4 + 2)$
- $= 101 * 4 + 101 * 2$, or, $101 * 2^2 + 101 * 2^1$
 - ▶ Let $a = 101 * 2^2 \rightarrow 101 \ll 2$
 - ▶ Let $b = 101 * 2^1 \rightarrow 101 \ll 1$
 - ▶ Let $c = a + b$

```
mov r0, 101
lsl r1, r0, 1
lsl r2, r0, 2
add r3, r1, r2
```

Shift Instructions - Example 2

Compute $102 * 7.5$ with shift operators

- We need to compute $102 * (8 - 0.5)$
- $= 102 * 8 - 102 * 0.5$, or, $101 * 2^3 + 102 * 2^{-1}$
 - ▶ Let $a = 102 * 2^3 \rightarrow 101 \ll 3$
 - ▶ Let $b = 102 * 2^1 \rightarrow 101 \gg 1$
 - ▶ Let $c = a - b$

```
mov r0, 102
lsl r1, r0, 3
lsr r2, r0, 1
sub r3, r1, r2
```

SimpleRISC: Load & Store Instructions

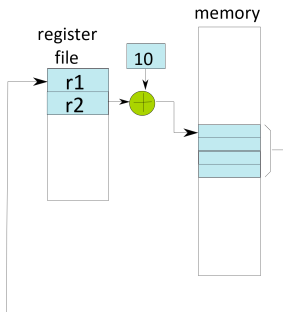
Memory Access - Load & Store Instructions

Instruction Snapshot	Explanation	Meaning
ld r1, 10[r2]	$r1 \leftarrow [r2 + 10]$	Load value from memory
st r1, 10[r2]	$[r2 + 10] \leftarrow r1$	Store value into memory

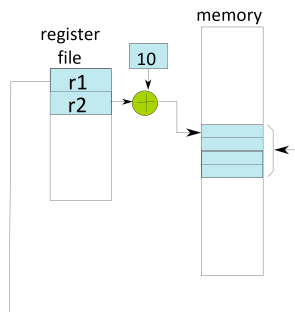
- 2 address format, base-offset addressing
- Fetch the contents of r2, add the offset (10), and then perform the memory access

Load-Store

ld r1, 10[r2]



st r1, 10[r2]



Note the direction of arrow between register and memory.

Load/Store - Example 1

Translate

```
int arr[10];  
arr[3] = 5;  
arr[4] = 8;  
arr[5] = arr[4] + arr[3];
```

```
/* assume base of array saved in r0 */  
mov r1, 5  
st r1, 12[r0]  
mov r2, 8  
st r2, 16[r0]  
add r3, r1, r2  
st r3, 20[r0]
```

SimpleRISC: Branch Instructions

Branch Instructions

Unconditional branch instruction

Instruction Snapshot	Meaning
b .foo	branch to .foo

Example branch

```
add r1, r2, r3
b .foo
...
...
.foo:
add r3, r1, r4
```

Conditional Branch Instructions

The flags are only set by cmp instructions.

Snapshot	Explanation	Textual Explanation
beq .foo	branch to .foo if flags.E = 1	branch if equal
bgt .foo	branch to .foo if flags.GT = 1	branch if greater than

Conditional Branch Instructions - Example 1

Example - Conditional Branch

If $r1 > r2$, then save 4 in $r3$, else save 5 in $r3$.

```
cmp r1, r2
bgt .gtlabel
mov r3, 5
...
...
.gtlable: mov r3, 4
```

Conditional Branch Instructions - Example 2

Example - Conditional Branch & C Code

Compute the factorial of the variable num.

```
int prod = 1;
int idx;
for(idx = num; idx > 1; idx --) {
    prod = prod * idx
}
```

Solution: Conditional Branch & Assembly Code

```
mov r1, 1 /* prod = 1 */
mov r2, r0 /* idx = num */
.loop:
    mul r1, r1, r2 /* prod = prod * idx */
    sub r2, r2, 1 /* idx = idx - 1 */
    cmp r2, 1 /* compare (idx, 1) */
    bgt .loop /* if (idx > 1) goto .loop*/
```


SimpleRISC: Modifiers in Instructions

Modifiers - immediate operand

- Following modifiers to an instruction that has an immediate operand
- Modifier :
 - ▶ default: mov → treat the 16 bit immediate as a signed number (automatic sign extension)
 - ▶ (u) : movu → treat the 16 bit immediate as an unsigned number
 - ▶ (h) : movh → left shift the 16 bit immediate by 16 positions

Mechanism of Computing with Modifiers

- The processor internally converts a 16 bit immediate to a 32 bit number
- It uses this 32 bit number for all the computations
- Valid only for arithmetic/logical insts
- We can control the generation of this 32 bit number
 - ▶ sign extension (default)
 - ▶ treat the 16 bit number as unsigned (u suffix)
 - ▶ load the 16 bit number in the upper bytes (h suffix)

mov Instruction Modifier - Example 1

default : mov r1, 0xAB 12



unsigned : movu r1, 0xAB 12



high: movh r1, 0xAB 12



mov Instruction Modifier - Example 2

Move : 0x FF FF A3 2B in r0

```
mov r0, 0xA32B
```

Move : 0x 00 00 A3 2B in r0

```
movu r0, 0xA32B
```

Move : 0x A3 2B 00 00 in r0

```
movh r0, 0xA32B
```

mov Instruction Modifier - Example 3

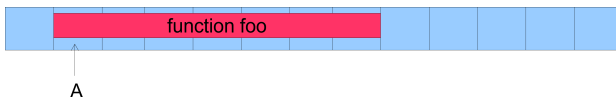
Set r0 \leftarrow 0x 12 AB A9 2D

```
movh r0, 0x 12 AB  
addu r0, 0x A9 2D
```

Functions and Stacks

Implementing Functions

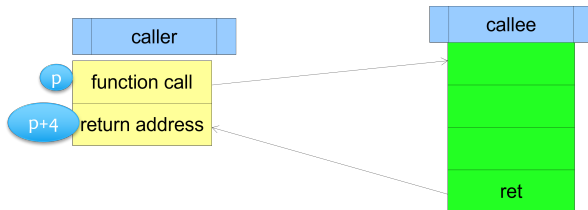
- Functions are blocks of assembly instructions that can be repeatedly invoked to perform a certain action
- Every function has a starting address in memory
- Eg., foo has a starting address A



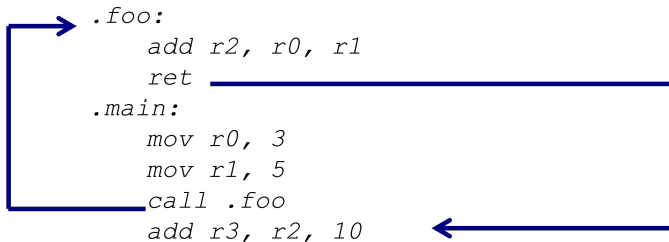
- To call a function, we need to set :
 - ▶ $pc \leftarrow A$
- We also need to store the location of the pc that we need to come to after the function returns (Called as **return address**)
- We can call any function, execute its instructions, and then return to the saved return address

Notion of the Return Address

- PC of the call instruction $\rightarrow p$
- PC of the return address $\rightarrow p + 4$
 - ▶ because, every instruction takes 4 bytes)



Passing Arguments / Return Value - using register



The diagram illustrates a function call and return sequence. A blue arrow points from the `call .foo` instruction in the `.main` section to the `.foo` section. Another blue arrow points from the `ret` instruction in the `.foo` section back to the instruction immediately following `call .foo` in the `.main` section.

```
.foo:
    add r2, r0, r1
    ret
.main:
    mov r0, 3
    mov r1, 5
    call .foo
    add r3, r2, 10
```

Problems of Using Registers for Storing

Space Problem

- We have a limited number of registers
- We cannot pass more than 16 arguments
- Solution: Use memory also

Overwrite Problem

- What if a function calls itself ? (recursive call)
- The callee can overwrite the registers of the caller
- Solution: Spilling

Register Spilling

Register Spilling into Memory

- Save the set of registers its needs (including the PC)
- Call the function
- And, then restore the set of registers after the function returns.

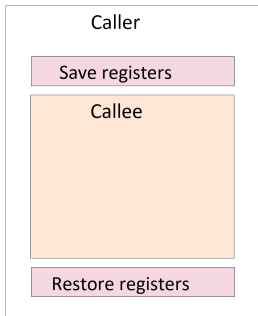
Caller saved scheme

The caller the registers before calling the function, and later restores them after the function returns.

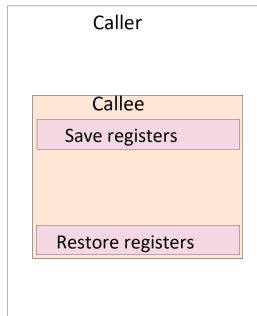
callee saved scheme

The callee the registers before calling the function, and later restores them after the function returns.

Register Spilling - Caller & Callee



(a) Caller saved



(b) Callee saved

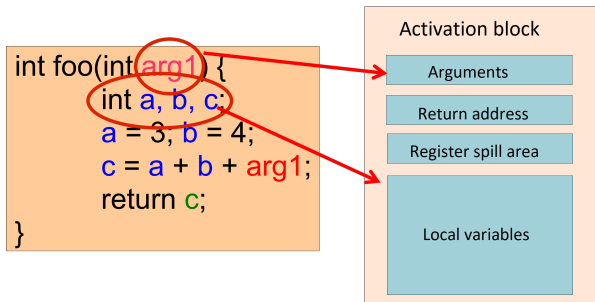
Where to Store in Memory

- Using memory, and spilling solves both the space problem and overwrite problem
- However, there needs to be :
 - ▶ a strict agreement between the caller and the callee regarding the set of memory locations that need to be used
 - ▶ Secondly, after a function has finished execution, all the space that it uses needs to be reclaimed

Activation Block

Activation block:

The memory map of a function arguments, register spill area, local vars.



Using Activation Blocks

Caller saved scheme:

- Before calling a function:
 - ▶ Allocate the activation block of the callee
 - ▶ Spill the registers
 - ▶ Write the arguments to the activation block of the callee
- Call the function
- In the called function:
 - ▶ Read the arguments and transfer to registers (if required)
 - ▶ Save the return address if the called function can call other functions
 - ▶ Allocate space for local variables
 - ▶ Execute the function
- Once the function ends:
 - ▶ Restore the value of the return address register (if required)
 - ▶ Write the return values to registers, or activation block of the caller
 - ▶ Destroy the activation block of the callee

Activation Blocks Organization on Stack

Organising Activation Blocks

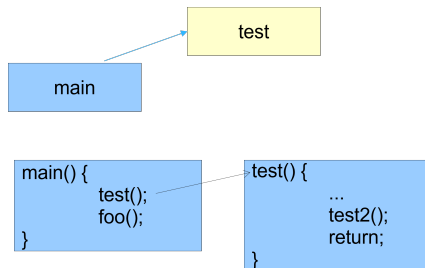
- All the information of an executing function is stored in its activation block
- These blocks need to be dynamically created and destroyed – millions of times
- What is the correct way of managing them, and ensuring their fast creation and deletion ?
- Is there a pattern ?foo

Function Call - Example - 1 - Page 1

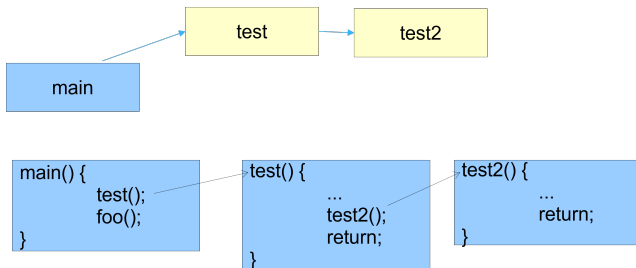
main

```
main() {  
    test();  
    foo();  
}
```

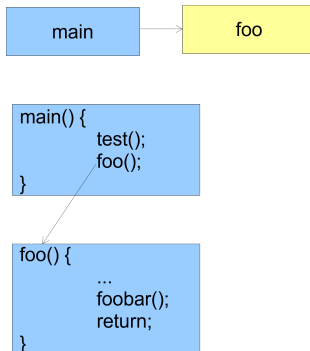
Function Call - Example - 1 - Page 2



Function Call - Example - 1 - Page 3



Function Call - Example - 1 - Page 4



Function Call - Example - 1 - Page 5

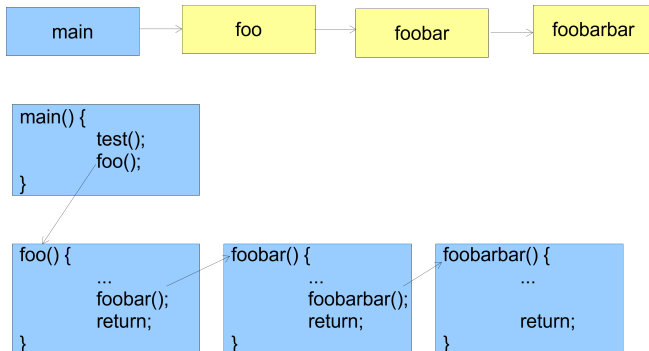


```
main() {  
    test();  
    foo();  
}
```

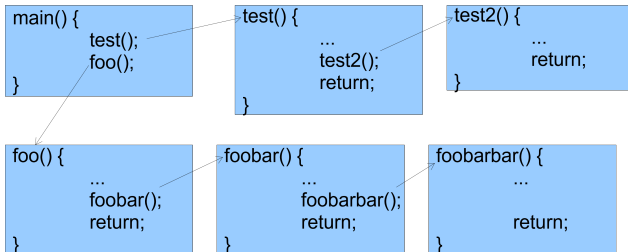
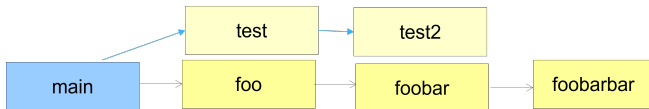
```
foo() {  
    ...  
    foobar();  
    return;  
}
```

```
foobar() {  
    ...  
    foobarbar();  
    return;  
}
```

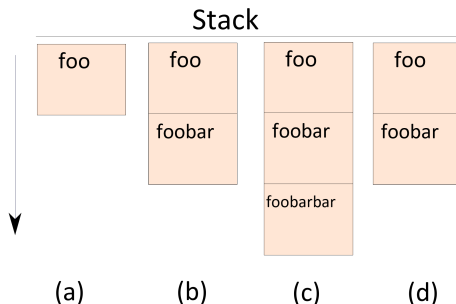
Function Call - Example - 1 - Page 6



Function Call - Example - 1 - Page 7



Function Call - Example - 1 - Stack Grow & Sink



- Last in First Out
- Use a stack to store activation blocks

Working with the Stack

- Allocate a part of the memory to save the stack
- Traditionally stacks are downward growing.
 - ▶ The first activation block starts at the highest address
 - ▶ Subsequent activation blocks are allocated lower addresses
- The stack pointer register (sp (R14)) points to the beginning of an activation block
- Allocating an activation block :
 - ▶ $sp \leftarrow sp - \langle \text{constant} \rangle$
- De-allocating an activation block :
 - ▶ $sp \leftarrow sp + \langle \text{constant} \rangle$

Issues Solved using Stack

- Space problem: Pass as many parameters as required in the activation block
- Overwrite problem: Solved by activation blocks
- Management of activation blocks: Solved by the notion of the stack

Function Calling Instructions

call and ret instructions

Return address register

ra (or r15) \rightarrow return address register

In ARM, this register is called **lr** (**link register**)

Instr.	Explanation	Textual Explanation
call .foo	$ra \leftarrow PC + 4$; $PC \leftarrow \text{address}(.foo)$	call instruction: Puts $pc + 4$ in ra, and jumps to the function
ret	$PC \leftarrow ra$	ret instruction: Puts value of ra into pc

Recursive Factorial Program - Example 1

```
int factorial(int num) {  
    if (num <= 1) return 1;  
    return num * factorial(num - 1);  
}  
void main() {  
    int result = factorial(10);  
}
```

Factorial in SimpleRisc - Example 1

```
.factorial:
    cmp r0, 1 /* compare (1,num) */
    beq .return
    bgt .continue
    b .return

.continue:
    sub sp, sp, 8 /* create space on the stack */
    st r0, [sp] /* push r0 on the stack */
    st ra, 4[sp] /* push the return address register */
    sub r0, r0, 1 /* num = num - 1 */
    call .factorial /* result will be in r1 */
    ld r0, [sp] /* pop r0 from the stack */
    ld ra, 4[sp] /* restore the return address */
    mul r1, r0, r1 /* factorial(n) = n * factorial(n-1) */
    add sp, sp, 8 /* delete the activation block */
    ret

.return: mov r1, 1
        ret

.main:   mov r0, 10
        call .factorial
```


nop instruction

- `nop` \rightarrow does nothing
- Example: `nop`

SimpleRISC: Instruction Encoding

Encoding of Opcode in Instructions

- Encode the SimpleRisc ISA using 32 bits.
- We have 21 instructions. Let us allot each instruction an unique code (opcode)

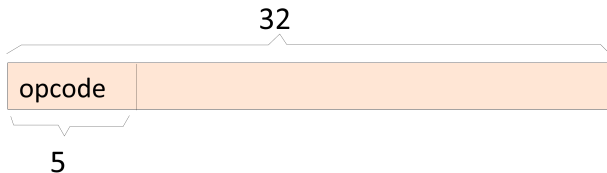
Instruction	Code	Instruction	Code	Instruction	Code
add	00000	not	01000	beq	10000
sub	00001	mov	01001	bgt	10001
mul	00010	lsl	01010	b	10010
div	00011	lsr	01011	call	10011
mod	00100	asr	01100	ret	10100
cmp	00101	nop	01101		
and	00110	ld	01110		
or	00111	st	01111		

Basic Instruction Format



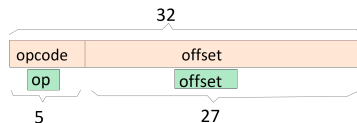
Inst.	Code	Format	Inst.	Code	Format
add	00000	add rd,rs1, (rs2/imm)	lsl	01010	lsl rd, rs1, (rs2/imm)
sub	00001	sub rd,rs1, (rs2/imm)	lsr	01011	lsr rd, rs1, (rs2/imm)
mul	00010	mul rd, rs1, (rs2/imm)	asr	01100	asr rd, rs1, (rs2/imm)
div	00011	div rd, rs1, (rs2/imm)	nop	01101	nop
mod	00100	mod rd, rs1, (rs2/imm)	ld	01110	ld rd,imm[rs1]
cmp	00101	cmp rs1, (rs2/imm)	st	01111	st rd, imm[rs1]
and	00110	and rd, rs1, (rs2/imm)	beq	10000	beq offset
or	00111	or rd,rs1, (rs2/imm)	bgt	10001	bgt offset
not	01000	not rd, (rs2/imm)	b	10010	b offset
mov	01001	mov rd, (rs2/imm)	call	10011	call offset
ret	10100	ret			

0-Address Instructions



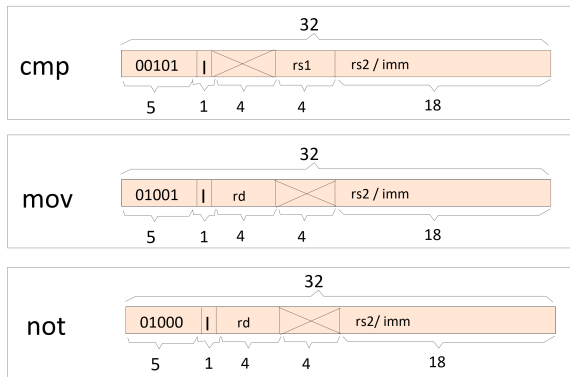
- nop and ret instructions

1-Address Instructions



- Instructions – call, b, beq, bgt
- Use the branch format
- Fields :
 - ▶ 5 bit opcode
 - ▶ 27 bit offset (PC relative addressing)
 - ▶ Since the offset points to a 4 byte word address
 - ▶ The actual address computed is : $PC + \text{offset} * 4$

2-Address Instructions

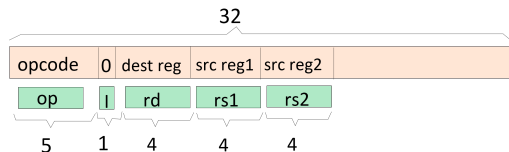


- **cmp**, **not**, and **mov**
- Use the 3 address: immediate or register formats
- Do not use one of the fields

3-Address Instructions

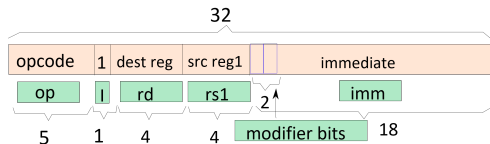
- Instructions – add, sub, mul, div, mod, and, or, lsl, lsr, asr
- Generic 3 address instruction
 - ▶ `<opcode> rd, rs1, <rs2/imm>`
- 1 bit to specify if the second operand is an immediate or a register.
 - ▶ $I = 0 \rightarrow$ second operand is a register
 - ▶ $I = 1 \rightarrow$ second operand is an immediate
- Since we have 16 registers, we need 4 bits to specify a register

3-Address Instructions - Register Format



- opcode → type of the instruction
- I bit → 0 (second operand is a register)
- dest reg → rd
- source register 1 → rs1
- source register 2 → rs2

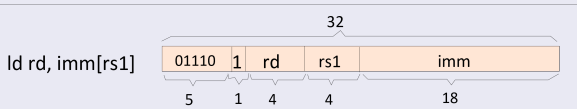
3-Address Instructions - Immediate Format



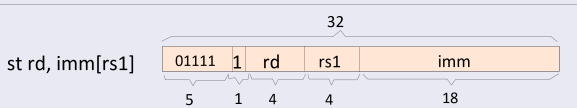
- opcode → type of the instruction
- I bit → 1 (second operand is an immediate)
- dest reg → rd
- source register 1 → rs1
- Immediate → imm
- modifier bits → 00 (default), 01 (u), 10 (h)

Instruction Format - Load & Store

Load



Store



Load and Store Instructions

Load

- `ld rd, imm[rs1]`
- `rs1` → base register
- Use the immediate format.

Store Instruction

- `st reg1, imm[reg2]`
- has two register sources, no register destination, 1 immediate
 - ▶ Let us make an exception and use the immediate format.
 - ▶ We use the `rd` field to save one of the source registers
 - ▶ `st rd, imm[rs1]`

Summary of Instruction Formats

Format	Definition					
<i>branch</i>	<i>op</i> (28-32)	<i>offset</i> (1-27)				
<i>register</i>	<i>op</i> (28-32)	<i>I</i> (27)	<i>rd</i> (23-26)	<i>rs1</i> (19-22)	<i>rs2</i> (15-18)	
<i>immediate</i>	<i>op</i> (28-32)	<i>I</i> (27)	<i>rd</i> (23-26)	<i>rs1</i> (19-22)	<i>imm</i> (1-18)	
<i>op</i> → opcode, <i>offset</i> → branch offset, <i>I</i> → immediate bit, <i>rd</i> → destination register						
<i>rs1</i> → source register 1, <i>rs2</i> → source register 2, <i>imm</i> → immediate operand						

- branch format → nop, ret, call, b, beq, bgt
- register format → ALU instructions
- immediate format → ALU, ld/st instructions