

18-447

# Computer Architecture

## Lecture 4: ISA Tradeoffs (Continued) and MIPS ISA

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Spring 2015, 1/21/2015

# Agenda for Today

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- Finish off ISA tradeoffs
- A quick tutorial on MIPS ISA
- Upcoming schedule:
  - **Lab 1.5 & 2** are out today
  - Friday (1/23): **Lab 1** due
  - Friday (1/23): Recitation
  - Wednesday (1/28): **HW 1** due

# Upcoming Readings

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- Next week (Microarchitecture):
  - P&H, Chapter 4, Sections 4.1-4.4
  - P&P, revised Appendix C – LC3b datapath and microprogrammed operation

# Last Lecture Recap

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- Instruction processing style
  - 0, 1, 2, 3 address machines
- Elements of an ISA
  - Instructions, data types, memory organizations, registers, etc
- Addressing modes
- Complex (CISC) vs. simple (RISC) instructions
- Semantic gap
- ISA translation

# ISA-level Tradeoffs: Instruction Length

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- **Fixed length:** Length of all instructions the same
  - + Easier to decode single instruction in hardware
  - + Easier to decode multiple instructions concurrently
  - Wasted bits in instructions (**Why is this bad?**)
  - Harder-to-extend ISA (how to add new instructions?)
- **Variable length:** Length of instructions different (determined by opcode and sub-opcode)
  - + Compact encoding (**Why is this good?**)
    - Intel 432: Huffman encoding (sort of). 6 to 321 bit instructions. **How?**
  - More logic to decode a single instruction
  - Harder to decode multiple instructions concurrently
- **Tradeoffs**
  - Code size (memory space, bandwidth, latency) vs. hardware complexity
  - ISA extensibility and expressiveness vs. hardware complexity
  - Performance? Energy? Smaller code vs. ease of decode

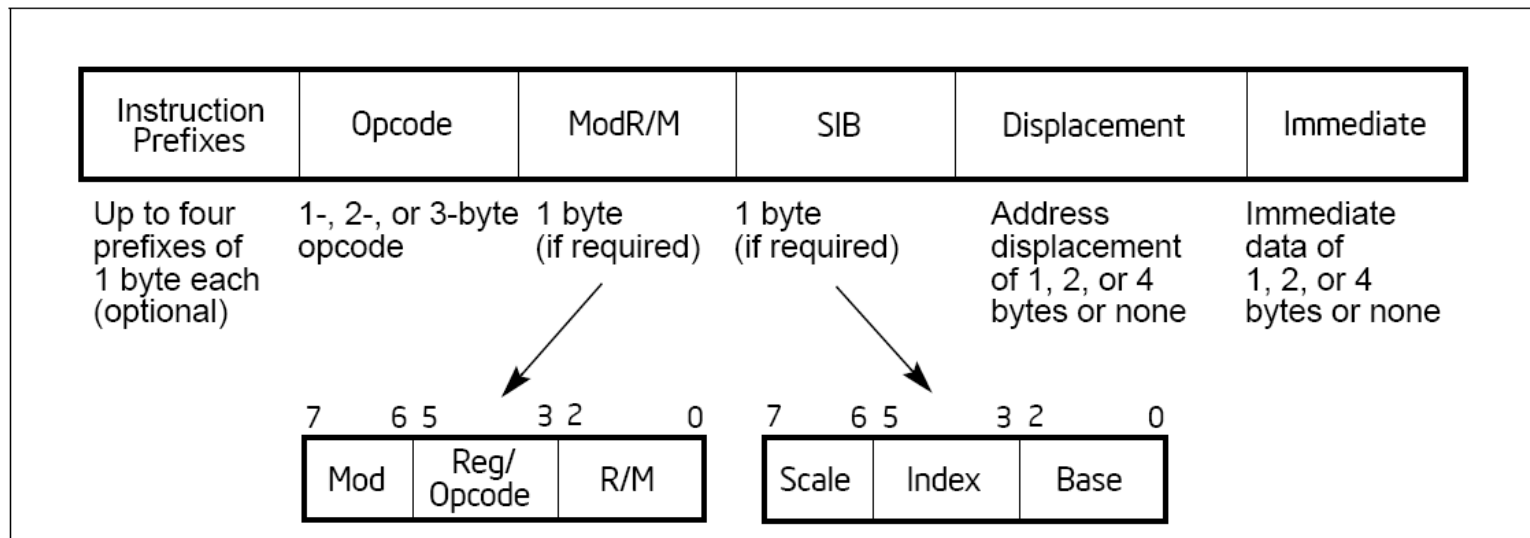
# ISA-level Tradeoffs: Uniform Decode

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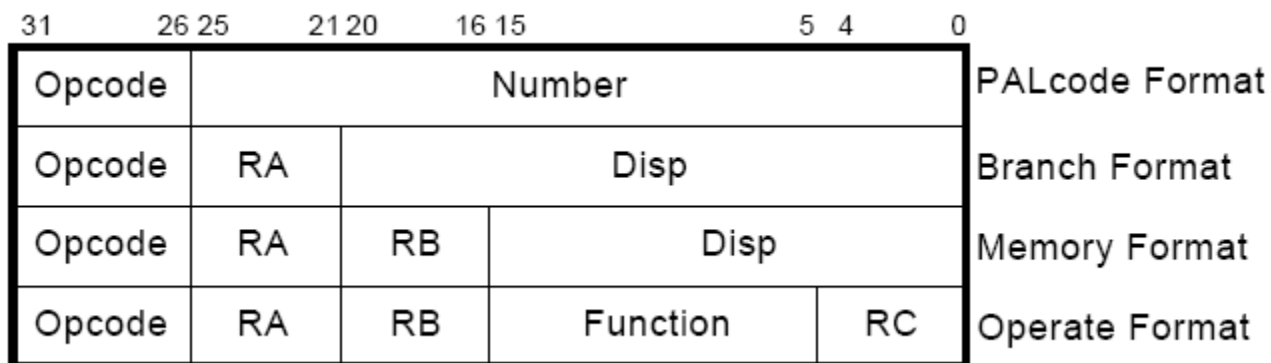
- **Uniform decode:** Same bits in each instruction correspond to the same meaning
  - Opcode is always in the same location
  - Ditto operand specifiers, immediate values, ...
  - Many “RISC” ISAs: Alpha, MIPS, SPARC
  - + Easier decode, simpler hardware
  - + Enables parallelism: generate target address before knowing the instruction is a branch
  - Restricts instruction format (fewer instructions?) or wastes space
- **Non-uniform decode**
  - E.g., opcode can be the 1st-7th byte in x86
  - + More compact and powerful instruction format
  - More complex decode logic

# x86 vs. Alpha Instruction Formats

## ■ x86:



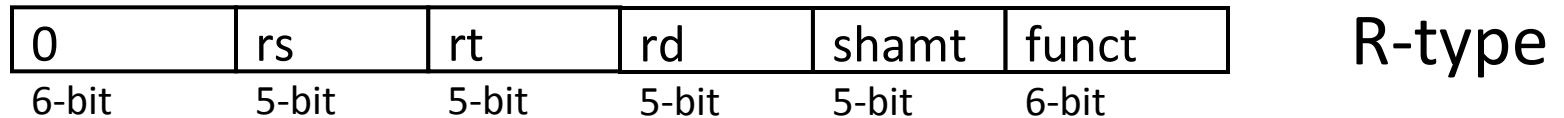
## ■ Alpha:



# MIPS Instruction Format

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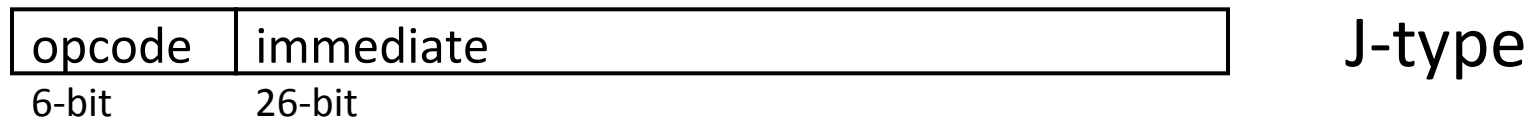
- R-type, 3 register operands



- I-type, 2 register operands and 16-bit immediate operand



- J-type, 26-bit immediate operand



- Simple Decoding

- 4 bytes per instruction, regardless of format
- must be 4-byte aligned (2 lsb of PC must be 2b'00)
- format and fields easy to extract in hardware



3 3 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0  
 1 0 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0

Cond	0	0	1	Opcode				S	Rn	Rd	Operand 2						<i>Data Processing / PSR Transfer</i>						
Cond	0	0	0	0	0	0	A	S	Rd	Rn	Rs	1	0	0	1	Rm	<i>Multiply</i>						
Cond	0	0	0	0	1	U	A	S	RdHi	RdLo	Rn		1	0	0	1	Rm	<i>Multiply Long</i>					
Cond	0	0	0	1	0	B	0	0	Rn	Rd	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	Rm	<i>Single Data Swap</i>			
Cond	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	Rn	<i>Branch and Exchange</i>
Cond	0	0	0	P	U	0	W	L	Rn	Rd	0	0	0	0	1	S	H	1	Rm	<i>Halfword Data Transfer: register offset</i>			
Cond	0	0	0	P	U	1	W	L	Rn	Rd	Offset		1	S	H	1	Offset	<i>Halfword Data Transfer: immediate offset</i>					
Cond	0	1	1	P	U	B	W	L	Rn	Rd	Offset						<i>Single Data Transfer</i>						
Cond	0	1	1													1		<i>Undefined</i>					
Cond	1	0	0	P	U	S	W	L	Rn	Register List							<i>Block Data Transfer</i>						
Cond	1	0	1	L	Offset											<i>Branch</i>							
Cond	1	1	0	P	U	N	W	L	Rn	CRd	CP#	Offset				<i>Coprocessor Data Transfer</i>							
Cond	1	1	1	0	CP Opc				CRn	CRd	CP#	CP	0	CRm	<i>Coprocessor Data Operation</i>								
Cond	1	1	1	0	CP Opc			L	CRn	Rd	CP#	CP	1	CRm	<i>Coprocessor Register Transfer</i>								
Cond	1	1	1	1	Ignored by processor											<i>Software Interrupt</i>							

3 3 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0  
 1 0 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0

Figure 4-1: ARM instruction set formats

# A Note on Length and Uniformity

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- Uniform decode usually goes with fixed length
- In a variable length ISA, uniform decode can be a property of instructions of the same length
  - It is hard to think of it as a property of instructions of different lengths

# A Note on RISC vs. CISC

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- Usually, ...
- RISC
  - Simple instructions
  - Fixed length
  - Uniform decode
  - Few addressing modes
- CISC
  - Complex instructions
  - Variable length
  - Non-uniform decode
  - Many addressing modes

# ISA-level Tradeoffs: Number of Registers

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- Affects:
  - Number of bits used for encoding register address
  - Number of values kept in fast storage (register file)
  - (uarch) Size, access time, power consumption of register file
- Large number of registers:
  - + Enables better register allocation (and optimizations) by compiler → fewer saves/restores
  - Larger instruction size
  - Larger register file size

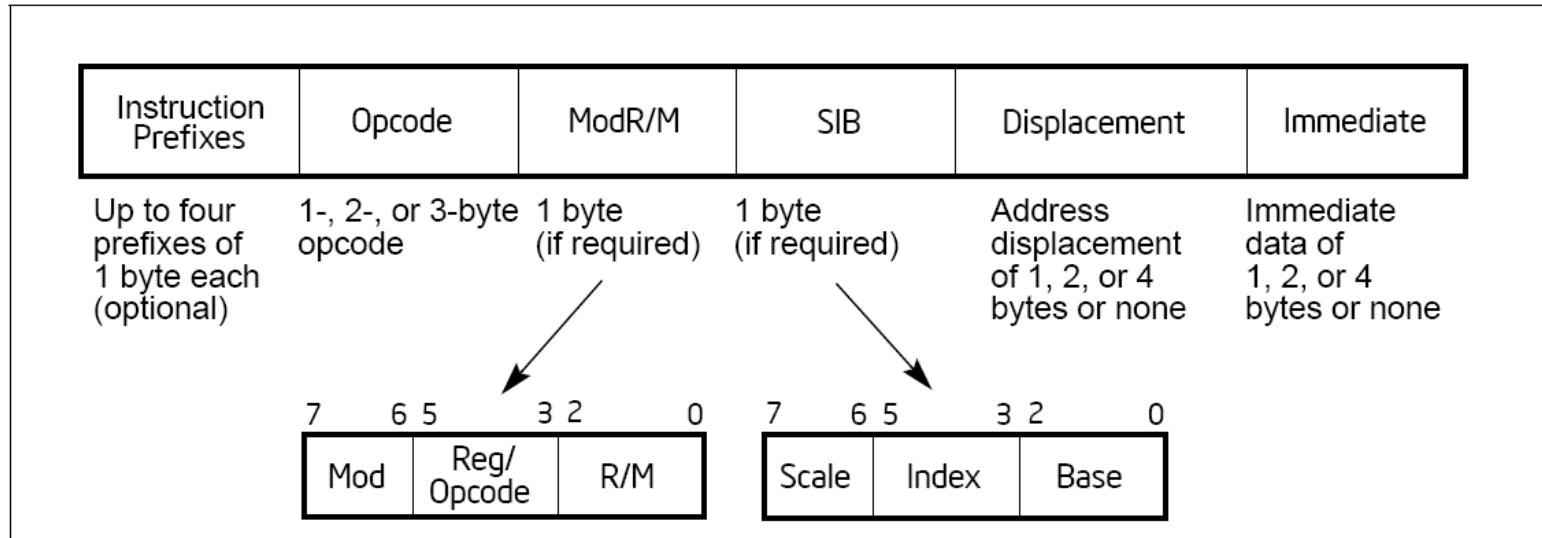
# ISA-level Tradeoffs: Addressing Modes

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- Addressing mode specifies how to obtain an operand of an instruction
  - Register
  - Immediate
  - Memory (displacement, register indirect, indexed, absolute, memory indirect, autoincrement, autodecrement, ...)
- More modes:
  - + help better support programming constructs (arrays, pointer-based accesses)
  - make it harder for the architect to design
  - too many choices for the compiler?
    - Many ways to do the same thing complicates compiler design
    - *Wulf, “Compilers and Computer Architecture,” IEEE Computer 1981*

# x86 vs. Alpha Instruction Formats

## ■ x86:



## ■ Alpha:

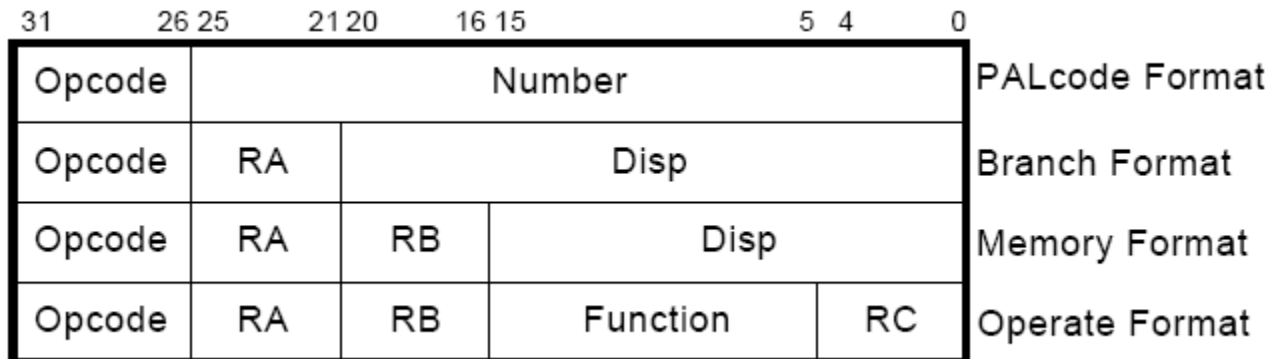


Table 2-2. 32-Bit Addressing Forms with the ModR/M Byte

x86

			AL	CL	DL	BL	AH	CH	DH	BH
			AX	CX	DX	BX	SP	BP	SI	DI
			EAX	ECX	EDX	EBX	ESP	EBP	ESI	EDI
			MM0	MM1	MM2	MM3	MM4	MM5	MM6	MM7
			XMM0	XMM1	XMM2	XMM3	XMM4	XMM5	XMM6	XMM7
			0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
			000	001	010	011	100	101	110	111
			REG =							
Effective Address	Mod	R/M	Value of ModR/M Byte (in Hexadecimal)							
[EAX]	00	000	00	08	10	18	20	28	30	38
[ECX]		001	01	09	11	19	21	29	31	39
[EDX]		010	02	0A	12	1A	22	2A	32	3A
[EBX]		011	03	0B	13	1B	23	2B	33	3B
[--][--] <sup>1</sup>		100	04	0C	14	1C	24	2C	34	3C
disp32 <sup>2</sup>		101	05	0D	15	1D	25	2D	35	3D
[ESI]		110	06	0E	16	1E	26	2E	36	3E
[EDI]	111	07	0F	17	1F	27	2F	37	3F	
[EAX]+disp8 <sup>3</sup>	01	000	40	48	50	58	60	68	70	78
[ECX]+disp8		001	41	49	51	59	61	69	71	79
[EDX]+disp8		010	42	4A	52	5A	62	6A	72	7A
[EBX]+disp8		011	43	4B	53	5B	63	6B	73	7B
[--][--]+disp8		100	44	4C	54	5C	64	6C	74	7C
[EBP]+disp8		101	45	4D	55	5D	65	6D	75	7D
[ESI]+disp8		110	46	4E	56	5E	66	6E	76	7E
[EDI]+disp8	111	47	4F	57	5F	67	6F	77	7F	
[EAX]+disp32	10	000	80	88	90	98	A0	A8	B0	B8
[ECX]+disp32		001	81	89	91	99	A1	A9	B1	B9
[EDX]+disp32		010	82	8A	92	9A	A2	AA	B2	BA
[EBX]+disp32		011	83	8B	93	9B	A3	AB	B3	BB
[--][--]+disp32		100	84	8C	94	9C	A4	AC	B4	BC
[EBP]+disp32		101	85	8D	95	9D	A5	AD	B5	BD
[ESI]+disp32		110	86	8E	96	9E	A6	AE	B6	BE
[EDI]+disp32	111	87	8F	97	9F	A7	AF	B7	BF	
EAX/AX/AL/MM0/XMM0	11	000	C0	C8	D0	D8	E0	E8	F0	F8
ECX/CX/CL/MM1/XMM1		001	C1	C9	D1	D9	E1	E9	F1	F9
EDX/DX/DL/MM2/XMM2		010	C2	CA	D2	DA	E2	EA	F2	FA
EBX/BX/BL/MM3/XMM3		011	C3	CB	D3	DB	E3	EB	F3	FB
ESP/SP/AH/MM4/XMM4		100	C4	CC	D4	DC	E4	EC	F4	FC
EBP/BP/CH/MM5/XMM5		101	C5	CD	D5	DD	E5	ED	F5	FD
ESI/SI/DH/MM6/XMM6		110	C6	CE	D6	DE	E6	EE	F6	FE
EDI/DI/BH/MM7/XMM7		111	C7	CF	D7	DF	E7	EF	F7	FF

register indirect

absolute

SIB + displacement

register + displacement

register

Memory

NOTES:

Register

1. The [--][--] nomenclature means a SIB follows the ModR/M byte.
2. The disp32 nomenclature denotes a 32-bit displacement that follows the ModR/M byte (or the SIB byte if one is present) and that is added to the index.
3. The disp8 nomenclature denotes an 8-bit displacement that follows the ModR/M byte (or the SIB byte if one is present) and that is sign-extended and added to the index.

Table 2-3 is organized to give 256 possible values of the SIB byte (in hexadecimal). General purpose registers used as a base are indicated across the top of the table.

Table 2-3. 32-Bit Addressing Forms with the SIB Byte

r32 (In decimal) Base – (In binary) Base –			EAX 0 000	ECX 1 001	EDX 2 010	EBX 3 011	ESP 4 100	[*] 5 101	ESI 6 110	EDI 7 111
Scaled Index	SS	Index	Value of SIB Byte (in Hexadecimal)							
[EAX] [ECX] [EDX] [EBX] none [EBP] [ESI] [EDI]	00	000 001 010 011 100 101 110 111	00 08 10 18 20 28 30 38	01 09 11 19 21 29 31 39	02 0A 12 1A 22 2A 32 3A	03 0B 13 1B 23 2B 33 3B	04 0C 14 1C 24 2C 34 3C	05 0D 15 1D 25 2D 35 3D	06 0E 16 1E 26 2E 36 3E	07 0F 17 1F 27 2F 37 3F
[EAX+2] [ECX+2] [EDX+2] [EBX+2] none [EBP+2] [ESI+2] [EDI+2]	01	000 001 010 011 100 101 110 111	40 48 50 58 60 68 70 78	41 49 51 59 61 69 71 79	42 4A 52 5A 62 6A 72 7A	43 4B 53 5B 63 6B 73 7B	44 4C 54 5C 64 6C 74 7C	45 4D 55 5D 65 6D 75 7D	46 4E 56 5E 66 6E 76 7E	47 4F 57 5F 67 6F 77 7F
[EAX+4] [ECX+4] [EDX+4] [EBX+4] none [EBP+4] [ESI+4] [EDI+4]	10	000 001 010 011 100 101 110 111	80 88 90 98 A0 A8 B0 B8	81 89 91 89 A1 A9 B1 B9	82 8A 92 9A A2 AA B2 BA	83 8B 93 9B A3 AB B3 BB	84 8C 94 9C A4 AC B4 BC	85 8D 95 9D A5 AD B5 BD	86 8E 96 9E A6 AE B6 BE	87 8F 97 9F A7 AF B7 BF
[EAX+8] [ECX+8] [EDX+8] [EBX+8] none [EBP+8] [ESI+8] [EDI+8]	11	000 001 010 011 100 101 110 111	C0 C8 D0 D8 E0 E8 F0 F8	C1 C9 D1 D9 E1 E9 F1 F9	C2 CA D2 DA E2 EA F2 FA	C3 CB D3 DB E3 EB F3 FB	C4 CC D4 DC E4 EC F4 FC	C5 CD D5 DD E5 ED F5 FD	C6 CE D6 DE E6 EE F6 FE	C7 CF D7 DF E7 EF F7 FF

indexed  
(base +  
index)

scaled  
(base +  
index\*4)

**NOTES:**

- The [\*] nomenclature means a disp32 with no base if the MOD is 00B. Otherwise, [\*] means disp8 or disp32 + [EBP]. This provides the following address modes:

MOD bits	Effective Address
00	[scaled index] + disp32
01	[scaled index] + disp8 + [EBP]
10	[scaled index] + disp32 + [EBP]



# X86 SIB-D Addressing Mode

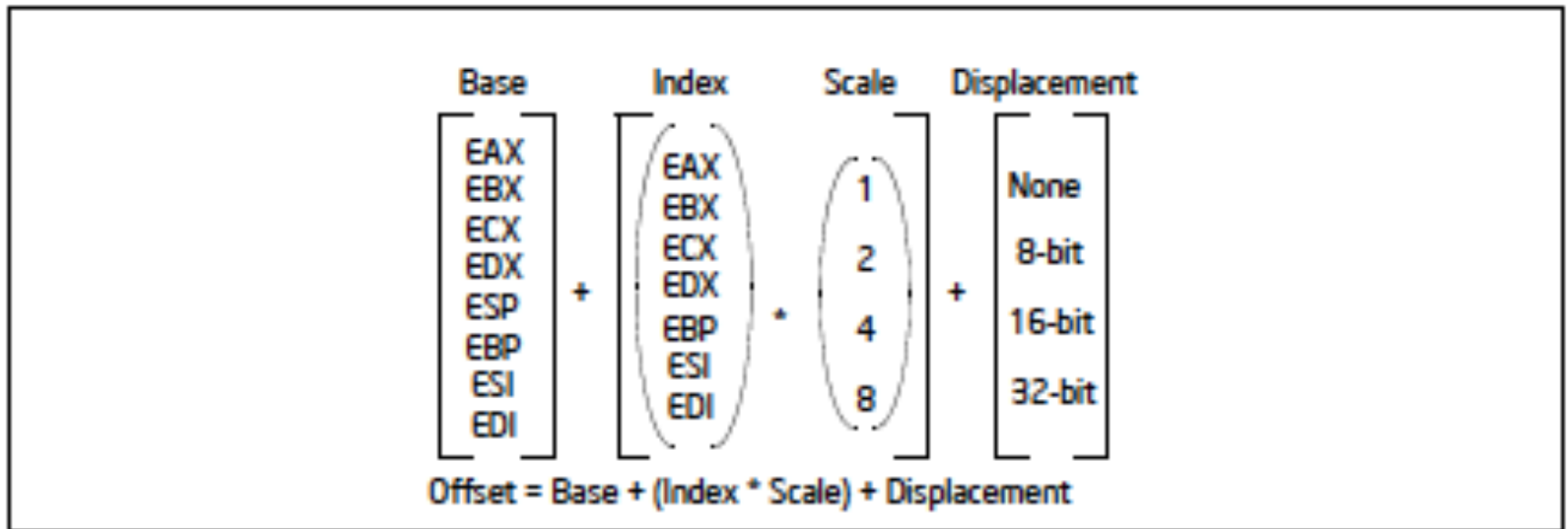


Figure 3-11. Offset (or Effective Address) Computation

x86 Manual Vol. 1, page 3-22 -- see course resources on website  
Also, see Section 3.7.3 and 3.7.5

# X86 Manual: Suggested Uses of Addressing Modes

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The following addressing modes suggest uses for common combinations of address components.

- **Displacement** — A displacement alone represents a direct (uncomputed) offset to the operand. Because the displacement is encoded in the instruction, this form of an address is sometimes called an absolute or static address. It is commonly used to access a statically allocated scalar operand. **Static address**
- **Base** — A base register plus a displacement represents a dynamic offset to the operand. Since the value in the base register can change, it can be used to access a dynamic set of variables and data structures. **Dynamic storage**
- **Base + Displacement** — A base register and a displacement can be used together for two distinct purposes:
  - As an index into an array when the element size is not 2, 4, or 8 bytes—The displacement component encodes the static offset to the beginning of the array. The base register holds the results of a calculation to determine the offset to a specific element within the array. **Arrays**
  - To access a field of a record: the base register holds the address of the beginning of the record, while the displacement is a static offset to the field. **Records**

An important special case of this combination is access to parameters in a procedure activation record. A procedure activation record is the stack frame created when a procedure is entered. Here, the EBP register is the best choice for the base register, because it automatically selects the stack segment. This is a compact encoding for this common function.

x86 Manual Vol. 1, page 3-22 -- see course resources on website  
Also, see Section 3.7.3 and 3.7.5

# X86 Manual: Suggested Uses of Addressing Modes

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- **(Index \* Scale) + Displacement** — This address mode offers an efficient way to index into a static array when the element size is 2, 4, or 8 bytes. The displacement locates the **Static arrays w/ fixed-size elements** holds the subscript of the desired array element, and the processor automatically converts the subscript into an index by applying the scaling factor.
- **Base + Index + Displacement** — Using two registers together supports either a two-dimensional array **2D arrays** placement holds the address of the beginning of the array) or one of several instances of an array of records (the displacement is an offset to a field within the record).
- **Base + (Index \* Scale) + Displacement** — Using all the addressing components together **2D arrays** efficient indexing of a two-dimensional array when the elements of the array are 2, 4, or 8 bytes in size.

x86 Manual Vol. 1, page 3-22 -- see course resources on website  
Also, see Section 3.7.3 and 3.7.5

# Other Example ISA-level Tradeoffs

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- Condition codes vs. not
- VLIW vs. single instruction
- Precise vs. imprecise exceptions
- Virtual memory vs. not
- Unaligned access vs. not
- Hardware interlocks vs. software-guaranteed interlocking
- Software vs. hardware managed page fault handling
- Cache coherence (hardware vs. software)
- ...

# Back to Programmer vs. (Micro)architect

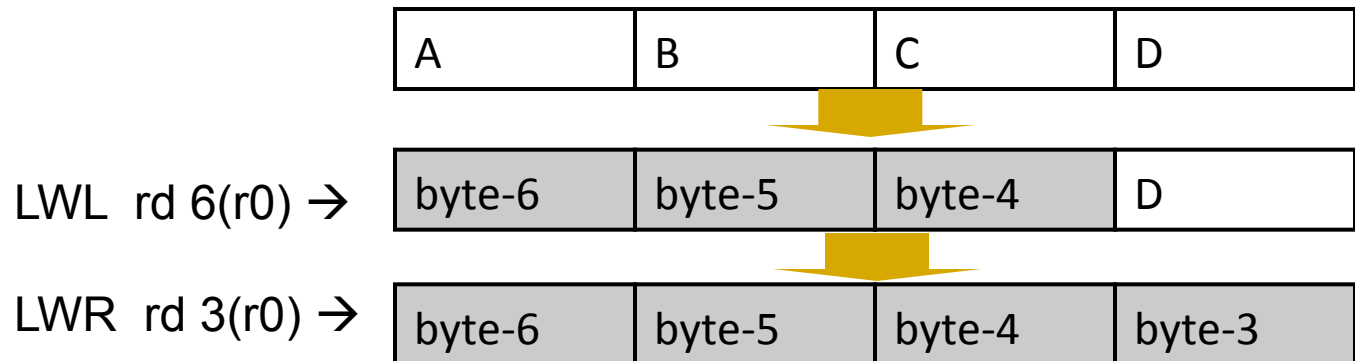
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- Many ISA features designed to aid programmers
- But, complicate the hardware designer's job
  
- Virtual memory
  - vs. overlay programming
  - Should the programmer be concerned about the size of code blocks fitting physical memory?
- Addressing modes
- Unaligned memory access
  - Compiler/programmer needs to align data

# MIPS: Aligned Access

MSB	byte-3	byte-2	byte-1	byte-0	LSB
	byte-7	byte-6	byte-5	byte-4	

- LW/SW alignment restriction: 4-byte word-alignment
  - not designed to fetch memory bytes not within a word boundary
  - not designed to rotate unaligned bytes into registers
- Provide separate opcodes for the “infrequent” case



- LWL/LWR is slower
- Note LWL and LWR still fetch within word boundary

# X86: Unaligned Access

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- LD/ST instructions automatically align data that spans a “word” boundary
- Programmer/compiler does not need to worry about where data is stored (whether or not in a word-aligned location)

## 4.1.1 Alignment of Words, Doublewords, Quadwords, and Double Quadwords

Words, doublewords, and quadwords do not need to be aligned in memory on natural boundaries. The natural boundaries for words, double words, and quadwords are even-numbered addresses, addresses evenly divisible by four, and addresses evenly divisible by eight, respectively. However, to improve the performance of programs, data structures (especially stacks) should be aligned on natural boundaries when ever possible. The reason for this is that the processor requires two memory accesses to make an unaligned memory access; aligned accesses require only one memory access. A word or doubleword operand that crosses a 4-byte boundary or a quadword operand that crosses an 8-byte boundary is considered unaligned and requires two separate memory bus cycles for access.

# X86: Unaligned Access

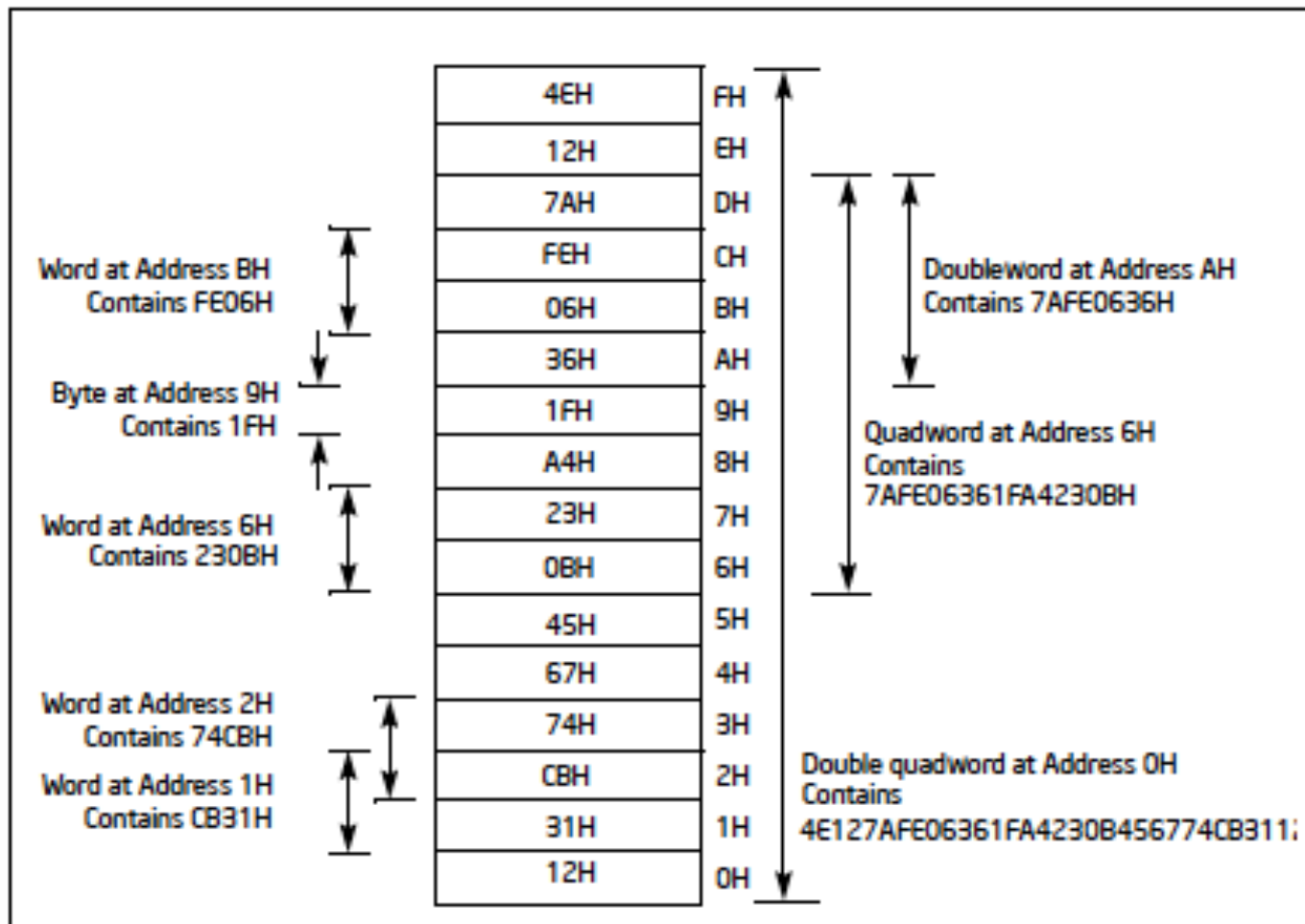


Figure 4-2. Bytes, Words, Doublewords, Quadwords, and Double Quadwords in Memory



# What About ARM?

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- [https://www.scss.tcd.ie/~waldroj/3d1/arm\\_arm.pdf](https://www.scss.tcd.ie/~waldroj/3d1/arm_arm.pdf)
  - Section A2.8

# Aligned vs. Unaligned Access

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- Pros of having no restrictions on alignment
  
- Cons of having no restrictions on alignment
  
- Filling in the above: an exercise for you...

# 18-447 MIPS ISA

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Dept of ECE, CMU



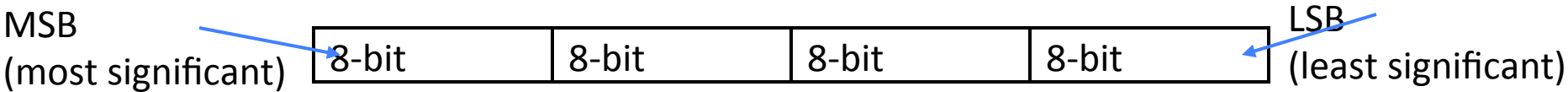
# Data Format

- ◆ Most things are 32 bits
  - instruction and data addresses
  - signed and unsigned integers
  - just bits
- ◆ Also 16-bit word and 8-bit word (aka byte)
- ◆ Floating-point numbers
  - IEEE standard 754
  - float: 8-bit exponent, 23-bit significand
  - double: 11-bit exponent, 52-bit significand

# Big Endian vs. Little Endian

(Part I, Chapter 4, Gulliver's Travels)

- ◆ 32-bit signed or unsigned integer comprises 4 bytes



- ◆ On a byte-addressable machine . . . . .

## Big Endian

## Little Endian

MSB			LSB
byte 0	byte 1	byte 2	byte 3
byte 4	byte 5	byte 6	byte 7
byte 8	byte 9	byte 10	byte 11
byte 12	byte 13	byte 14	byte 15
byte 16	byte 17	byte 18	byte 19

MSB			LSB
byte 3	byte 2	byte 1	byte 0
byte 7	byte 6	byte 5	byte 4
byte 11	byte 10	byte 9	byte 8
byte 15	byte 14	byte 13	byte 12
byte 19	byte 18	byte 17	byte 16

pointer points to the big end

pointer points to the little end

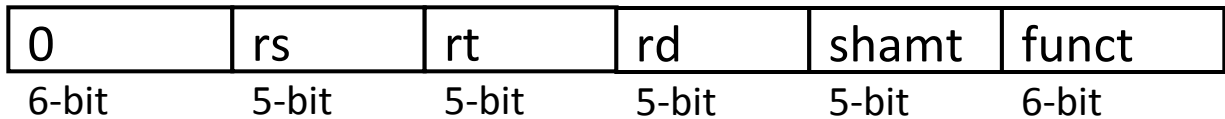
- ◆ What difference does it make?

check out [htonl\(\)](#), [ntohl\(\)](#) in in.h

# Instruction Formats

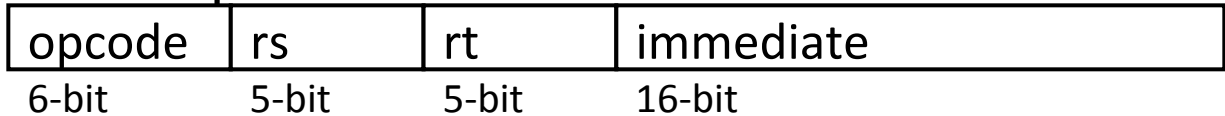
◆ 3 simple formats

- R-type, 3 register operands



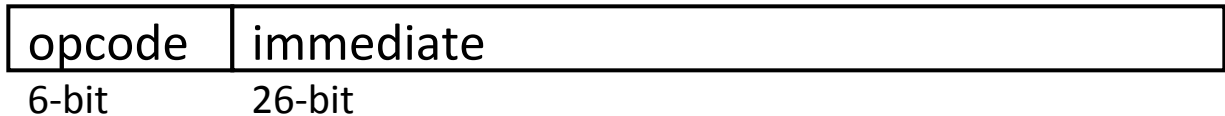
R-type

- I-type, 2 register operands and 16-bit immediate



I-type

- J-type, 26-bit immediate operand



J-type

◆ Simple Decoding

- 4 bytes per instruction, regardless of format
- must be 4-byte aligned (2 lsb of PC must be 2b' 00)
- format and fields readily extractable

# ALU Instructions

- ◆ Assembly (e.g., register-register signed addition)

```
ADD rdreg rsreg rtreg
```

- ◆ Machine encoding



- ◆ Semantics

- $GPR[rd] \leftarrow GPR[rs] + GPR[rt]$
- $PC \leftarrow PC + 4$

- ◆ Exception on “overflow”

- ◆ Variations

- Arithmetic: {signed, unsigned} x {ADD, SUB}
- Logical: {AND, OR, XOR, NOR}
- Shift: {Left, Right-Logical, Right-Arithmetic}



# Reg-Reg Instruction Encoding

		SPECIAL function							
		2...0							
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5...3	0	SLL	*	SRL	SRA	SLLV	*	SRLV	SRAV
	1	JR	JALR	*	*	SYSCALL	BREAK	*	SYNC
	2	MFHI	MTHI	MFLO	MTLO	DSLLV $\epsilon$	*	DSRLV $\epsilon$	DSRAV $\epsilon$
	3	MULT	MULTU	DIV	DIVU	DMULT $\epsilon$	DMULTU $\epsilon$	DDIV $\epsilon$	DDIVU $\epsilon$
	4	ADD	ADDU	SUB	SUBU	AND	OR	XOR	NOR
	5	*	*	SLT	SLTU	DADD $\epsilon$	DADDU $\epsilon$	DSUB $\epsilon$	DSUBU $\epsilon$
	6	TGE	TGEU	TLT	TLTU	TEQ	*	TNE	*
	7	DSLL $\epsilon$	*	DSRL $\epsilon$	DSRA $\epsilon$	DSLL32 $\epsilon$	*	DSRL32 $\epsilon$	DSRA32 $\epsilon$

[MIPS R4000 Microprocessor User's Manual]

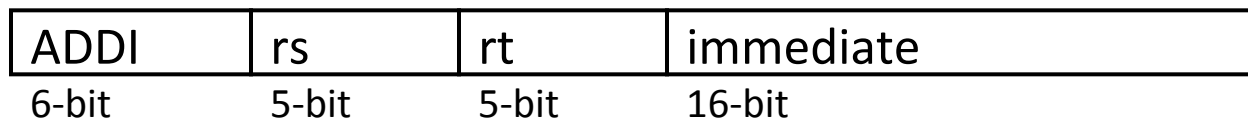
What patterns do you see? Why are they there?

# ALU Instructions

- ◆ Assembly (e.g., regi-immediate signed additions)

ADDI  $rt_{reg}$   $rs_{reg}$   $immediate_{16}$

- ◆ Machine encoding



I-type

- ◆ Semantics

- $GPR[rt] \leftarrow GPR[rs] + \text{sign-extend}(immediate)$
- $PC \leftarrow PC + 4$

- ◆ Exception on “overflow”

- ◆ Variations

- Arithmetic: {signed, unsigned} x {ADD, ~~SUB~~}
- Logical: {AND, OR, XOR, LUI}

# Reg-Immed Instruction Encoding

		Opcode							
28...26		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31...29	0	SPECIAL	REGIMM	J	JAL	BEQ	BNE	BLEZ	BGTZ
	1	ADDI	ADDIU	SLTI	SLTIU	ANDI	ORI	XORI	LUI
	2	COP0	COP1	COP2	*	BEQL	BNEL	BLEZL	BGTZL
	3	DADDI $\epsilon$	DADDIU $\epsilon$	LDL $\epsilon$	LDR $\epsilon$	*	*	*	*
	4	LB	LH	LWL	LW	LBU	LHU	LWR	LWU $\epsilon$
	5	SB	SH	SWL	SW	SDL $\epsilon$	SDR $\epsilon$	SWR	CACHE $\delta$
	6	LL	LWC1	LWC2	*	LLD $\epsilon$	LDC1	LDC2	LD $\epsilon$
	7	SC	SWC1	SWC2	*	SCD $\epsilon$	SDC1	SDC2	SD $\epsilon$

[MIPS R4000 Microprocessor User's Manual]

# Assembly Programming 101

- ◆ Break down high-level program constructs into a sequence of elemental operations

- ◆ E.g. High-level Code

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

- ◆ Assembly Code

- suppose  $f, g, h, i, j$  are in  $r_f, r_g, r_h, r_i, r_j$
- suppose  $r_{temp}$  is a free register

```
add r_temp r_g r_h    # r_temp = g+h
add r_f r_i r_j       # r_f = i+j
sub r_f r_temp r_f    # f = r_temp - r_f
```

# Load Instructions

- ◆ Assembly (e.g., load 4-byte word)

$LW\ rt_{reg}\ offset_{16}\ (base_{reg})$

- ◆ Machine encoding



- ◆ Semantics

- $effective\_address = sign\_extend(offset) + GPR[base]$
- $GPR[rt] \leftarrow MEM[ translate(effective\_address) ]$
- $PC \leftarrow PC + 4$

- ◆ Exceptions

- address must be “word-aligned”  
 What if you want to load an unaligned word?
- MMU exceptions

# Store Instructions

- ◆ Assembly (e.g., store 4-byte word)

$$SW \text{ } rt_{reg} \text{ } offset_{16} \text{ } (base_{reg})$$

- ◆ Machine encoding



- ◆ Semantics

- $effective\_address = sign\_extend(offset) + GPR[base]$
- $MEM[ translate(effective\_address) ] \leftarrow GPR[rt]$
- $PC \leftarrow PC + 4$

- ◆ Exceptions

- address must be “word-aligned”
- MMU exceptions

# Assembly Programming 201

## ◆ E.g. High-level Code

$$A[8] = h + A[0]$$

where **A** is an array of integers (4-byte each)

## ◆ Assembly Code

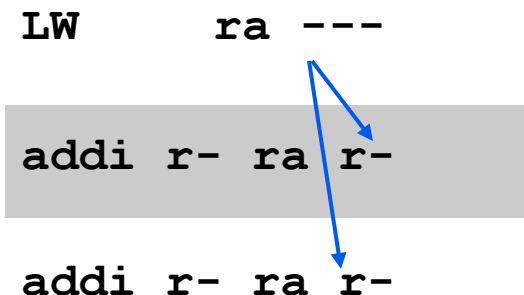
- suppose **&A**, **h** are in  $r_A$ ,  $r_h$
- suppose  $r_{temp}$  is a free register

```

LW  $r_{temp}$  0( $r_A$ )      #  $r_{temp} = A[0]$ 
add  $r_{temp}$   $r_h$   $r_{temp}$  #  $r_{temp} = h + A[0]$ 
SW  $r_{temp}$  32( $r_A$ )    #  $A[8] = r_{temp}$ 
                          # note  $A[8]$  is 32 bytes
                          # from  $A[0]$ 

```

# Load Delay Slots



- ◆ R2000 load has an architectural latency of 1 inst\*.
  - the instruction immediately following a load (in the “delay slot”) still sees the old register value
  - the load instruction no longer has an atomic semantics

Why would you do it this way?

- ◆ Is this a good idea? (hint: R4000 redefined LW to complete atomically)

\*BTW, notice that latency is defined in “instructions” not cyc. or sec.

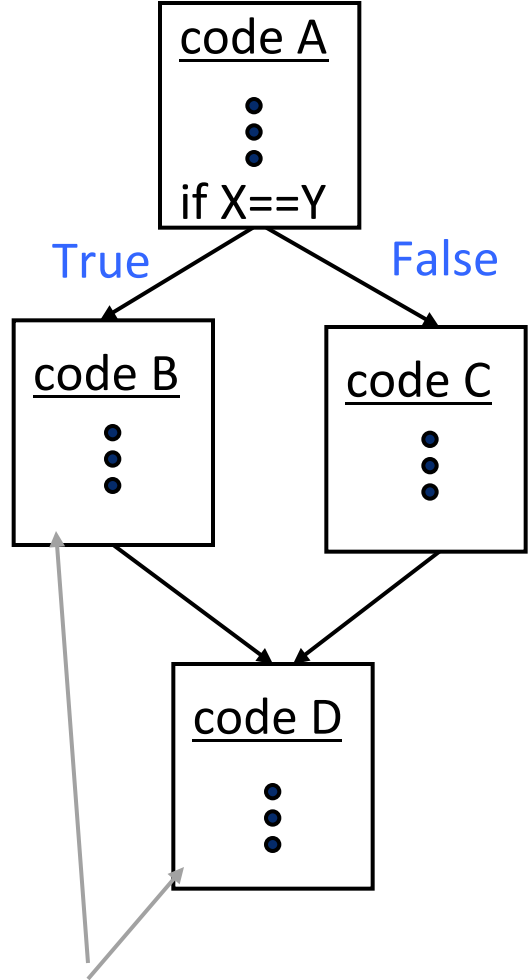


# Control Flow Instructions

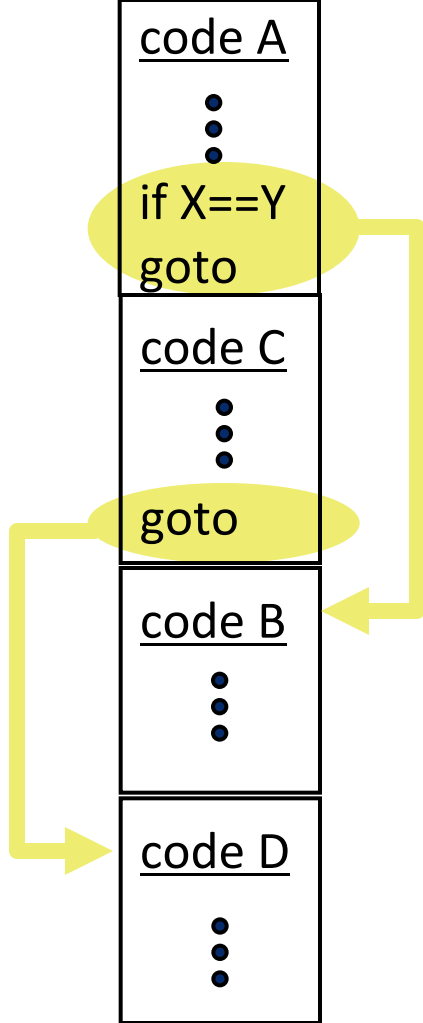
◆ C-Code

```
{ code A }
if X==Y then
    { code B }
else
    { code C }
{ code D }
```

## Control Flow Graph



## Assembly Code (linearized)



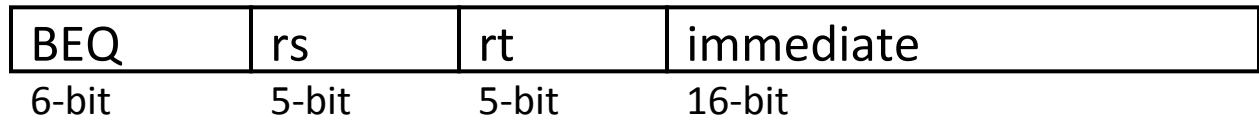
these things are called basic blocks

# (Conditional) Branch Instructions

- ◆ Assembly (e.g., branch if equal)

```
BEQ rsreg rtreg immediate16
```

- ◆ Machine encoding



I-type

- ◆ Semantics

- target = PC + sign-extend(immediate) x 4
- if GPR[rs]==GPR[rt] then PC ← target
- else PC ← PC + 4

- ◆ How far can you jump?

- ◆ Variations

- BEQ, BNE, BLEZ, BGTZ

**PC + 4 w/  
branch delay slot**

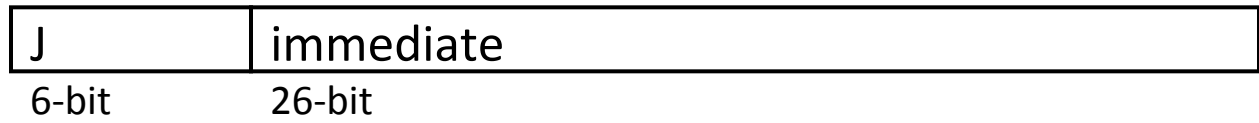
Why isn't there a BLE or BGT instruction?

# Jump Instructions

- ◆ Assembly

J immediate<sub>26</sub>

- ◆ Machine encoding



J-type

- ◆ Semantics

- target = PC[31:28]x2<sup>28</sup> | bitwise-or zero-extend(immediate)x4
- PC ← target

- ◆ How far can you jump?

- ◆ Variations

- Jump and Link
- Jump Registers

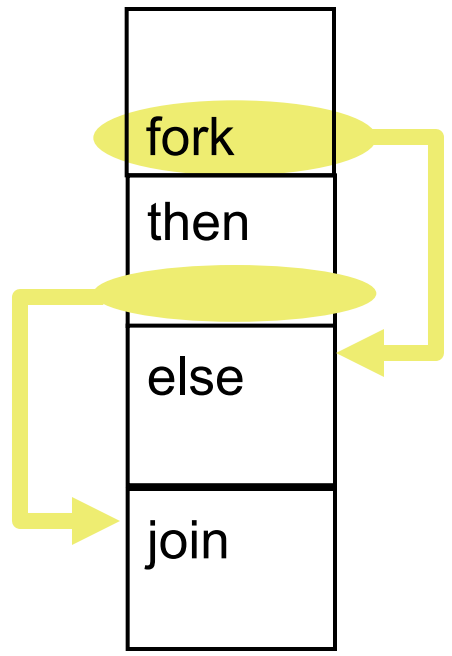
**PC + 4 w/  
branch delay slot**

# Assembly Programming 301

◆ E.g. High-level Code

```

if (i == j) then
    e = g
else
    e = h
f = e
    
```



◆ Assembly Code

- suppose  $e, f, g, h, i, j$  are in  $r_e, r_f, r_g, r_h, r_i, r_j$

```

        bne  r_i  r_j  L1      # L1 and L2 are addr labels
                                # assembler computes offset
        add  r_e  r_g  r0      # e = g
        j   L2
L1:     add  r_e  r_h  r0      # e = h
L2:     add  r_f  r_e  r0      # f = e
        . . . .
    
```

# Branch Delay Slots

- ◆ R2000 branch instructions also have an architectural latency of 1 instructions
  - the instruction immediately after a branch is always executed (in fact PC-offset is computed from the delay slot instruction)
  - branch target takes effect on the 2<sup>nd</sup> instruction

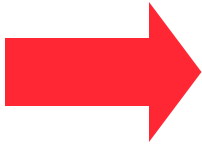
```

bne ri rj L1

add re rg r0
j L2

L1: add re rh r0

L2: add rf re r0
. . . .
    
```



```

bne ri rj L1
nop

j L2
add re rg r0

L1: add re rh r0

L2: add rf re r0
. . . .
    
```

# Strangeness in the Semantics

Where do you think you will end up?

```
_s:   j  L1  
       j  L2  
       j  L3  
  
L1:   j  L4  
L2:   j  L5  
  
L3:   foo  
L4:   bar  
L5:   baz
```

# Function Call and Return

- ◆ Jump and Link:  $JAL \text{ offset}_{26}$ 
  - return address =  $PC + 8$
  - target =  $PC[31:28] \times 2^{28} \mid_{\text{bitwise-or}} \text{zero-extend}(\text{immediate}) \times 4$
  - $PC \leftarrow \text{target}$
  - $GPR[r31] \leftarrow \text{return address}$

On a function call, the callee needs to know where to go back to afterwards

- ◆ Jump Indirect:  $JR \text{ rs}_{\text{reg}}$ 
  - target =  $GPR[rs]$
  - $PC \leftarrow \text{target}$

PC-offset jumps and branches always jump to the same target every time the same instruction is executed

Jump Indirect allows the same instruction to jump to any location specified by  $rs$  (usually  $r31$ )

# Assembly Programming 401

Caller

```
... code A ...
JAL _myfxn
... code C ...
JAL _myfxn
... code D ...
```

Callee

```
_myfxn:    ... code B ...
          JR r31
```

- ◆ ..... **A**  $\xrightarrow{\text{call}}$  **B**  $\xrightarrow{\text{return}}$  **C**  $\xrightarrow{\text{call}}$  **B**  $\xrightarrow{\text{return}}$  **D** .....
- ◆ How do you pass argument between caller and callee?
- ◆ If **A** set **r10** to **1**, what is the value of **r10** when **B** returns to **C**?
- ◆ What registers can **B** use?
- ◆ What happens to **r31** if **B** calls another function



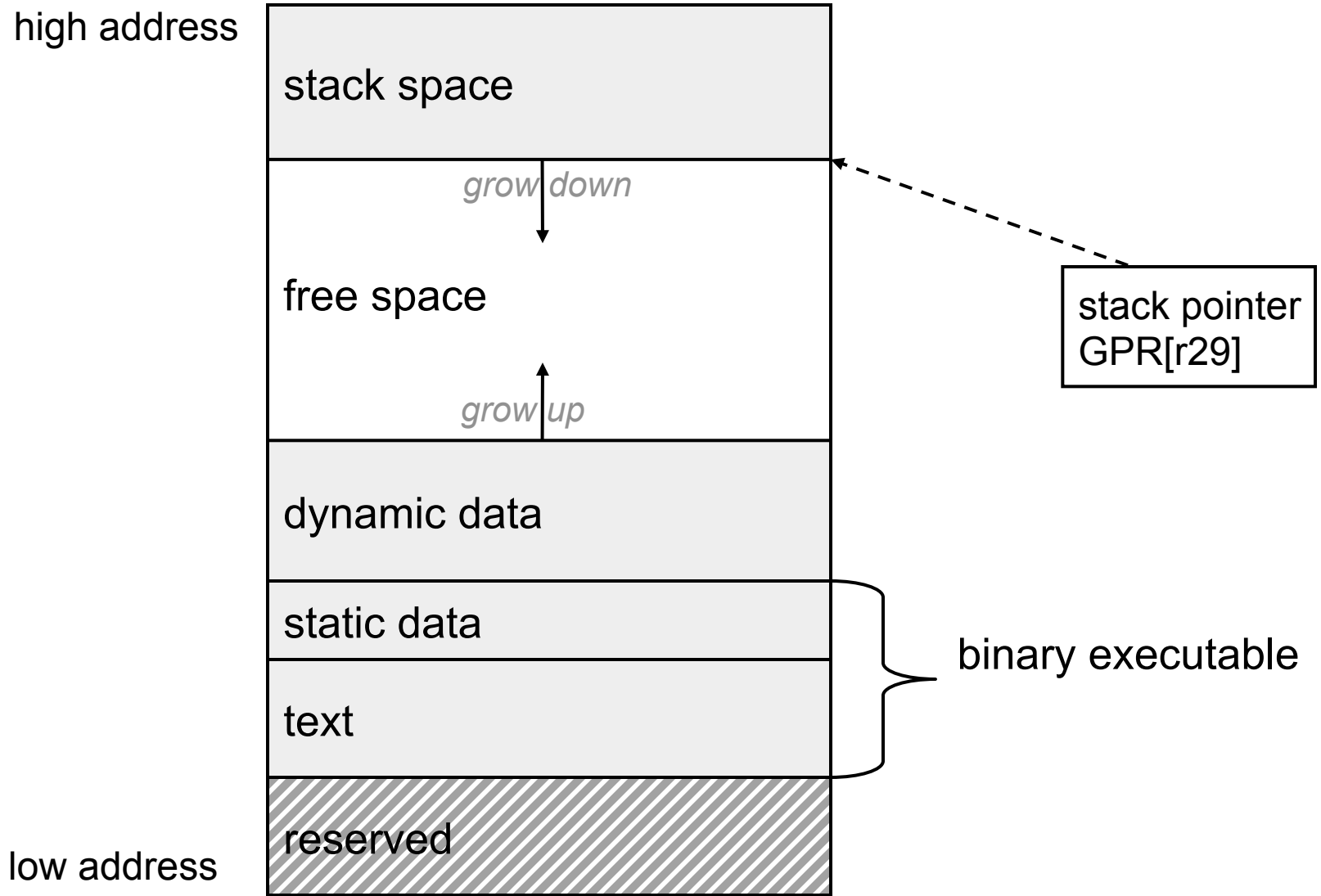
# Caller and Callee Saved Registers

- ◆ Callee-Saved Registers
  - Caller says to callee, “The values of these registers should not change when you return to me.”
  - Callee says, “If I need to use these registers, I promise to save the old values to memory first and restore them before I return to you.”
  
- ◆ Caller-Saved Registers
  - Caller says to callee, “If there is anything I care about in these registers, I already saved it myself.”
  - Callee says to caller, “Don’ t count on them staying the same values after I am done.”

# R2000 Register Usage Convention

- ◆ r0: always 0
- ◆ r1: reserved for the assembler
- ◆ r2, r3: function return values
- ◆ r4~r7: function call arguments
- ◆ r8~r15: “caller-saved” temporaries
- ◆ r16~r23 “callee-saved” temporaries
- ◆ r24~r25 “caller-saved” temporaries
- ◆ r26, r27: reserved for the operating system
- ◆ r28: global pointer
- ◆ r29: stack pointer
- ◆ r30: callee-saved temporaries
- ◆ r31: return address

# R2000 Memory Usage Convention



# Calling Convention

.....

1. caller saves caller-saved registers
2. caller loads arguments into r4~r7
3. caller jumps to callee using JAL
4. callee allocates space on the stack (dec. stack pointer)
5. callee saves callee-saved registers to stack (also r4~r7, old r29, r31)

} prologue

..... body of callee (can “nest” additional calls) .....

6. callee loads results to r2, r3
7. callee restores saved register values
8. JR r31

} epilogue

9. caller continues with return values in r2, r3

.....

# To Summarize: MIPS RISC

- ◆ Simple operations
  - 2-input, 1-output arithmetic and logical operations
  - few alternatives for accomplishing the same thing
- ◆ Simple data movements
  - ALU ops are register-to-register (need a large register file)
  - “Load-store” architecture
- ◆ Simple branches
  - limited varieties of branch conditions and targets
- ◆ Simple instruction encoding
  - all instructions encoded in the same number of bits
  - only a few formats

Loosely speaking, an ISA intended for compilers rather than assembly programmers