ISA Part III Logical and Shift Operations Instruction Representation

MIPS Instructions (Quick Summary)

Name	Example	Comments		
	\$s0-\$s7, \$t0-\$t9, \$zerc	Fast locations for data. In MIPS, data must be in registers to perform		
32 registers \$a0-\$a3, \$v0-\$v1,		arithmetic. MIPS register \$zero always equals 0. Register \$at is		
	\$fp, \$sp, \$ra, \$at	reserved for the assembler to handle large constants.		
Memory[0],		Accessed only by data transfer instructions. MIPS uses byte addresses, so		
2 ³⁰ memory Memory[4],,		sequential words differ by 4. Memory holds data structures, such as arrays		
words	Memory[4294967292]	and spilled registers, such as those saved on procedure calls.		

MIPS assembly language

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Category	Instruction	Example	Meaning	Comments	
	add	add \$s1, \$s2, \$s3	\$s1 = \$s2 + \$s3	Three operands; data in registers	
Arithmetic	subtract	sub \$s1, \$s2, \$s3	\$s1 = \$s2 - \$s3	Three operands; data in registers	
	add immediate	addi \$s1, \$s2, 100	\$s1 = \$s2 + 100	Used to add constants	
	load word	lw \$s1, 100(\$s2)	\$s1 = Memory[\$s2 + 100]	Word from memory to register	
	store word	sw \$s1, 100(\$s2)	Memory[\$s2 + 100] = \$s1	Word from register to memory	
Data transfer	load byte	lb \$s1, 100(\$s2)	\$s1 = Memory[\$s2 + 100]	Byte from memory to register	
	store byte	sb \$s1, 100(\$s2)	Memory[\$s2 + 100] = \$s1	Byte from register to memory	
	load upper immediate	lui \$s1, 100	\$s1 = 100 * 2 ¹⁶	Loads constant in upper 16 bits	
	branch on equal	beq \$s1, \$s2, 25	if (\$s1 == \$s2) go to PC + 4 + 100	Equal test; PC-relative branch	
Conditional	branch on not equal	bne \$s1, \$s2, 25	if (\$s1 != \$s2) go to PC + 4 + 100	Not equal test; PC-relative	
branch	set on less than	slt \$s1, \$s2, \$s3	if ($$s2 < $s3$) $$s1 = 1$; else $$s1 = 0$	Compare less than; for beq, bne	
	set less than immediate	slti \$s1, \$s2, 100	if ($$s2 < 100$) $$s1 = 1$; else $$s1 = 0$	Compare less than constant	
	jump	j 2500	go to 10000	Jump to target address	
Uncondi-	jump register	jr \$ra	go to \$ra	For switch, procedure return	
tional jump	jump and link	jal 2500	\$ra = Chtapter 30098	For procedure call	

Overview

- Logical Instructions
- Shifts
- Instruction Formats

Bitwise Operations

- Up until now, we've done arithmetic (add, sub, addi), memory access (lw and sw), and branches and jumps.
- All of these instructions view contents of register as a single quantity (such as a signed or unsigned integer)
- New Perspective: View contents of register as 32 bits rather than as a single 32-bit number
- Since registers are composed of 32 bits, we may want to access individual bits (or groups of bits) rather than the whole.
- Introduce two new classes of instructions:
 - Logical Operators
 - Shift Instructions

Logical Operators

- Two basic logical operators:
 - AND: outputs 1 only if both inputs are 1
 - OR: outputs 1 if at least one input is 1

Logical Operators

- Two basic logical operators:
 - AND: outputs 1 only if both inputs are 1
 - OR: outputs 1 if at least one input is 1
- Truth Table: standard table listing all possible combinations of inputs and resultant output for each
- Truth Table for AND and OR

В	AND	OR	
0	0	0	
1	0	1	
0	0	1	
1	1	1	

Logical Operators

- Instruction Names:
 - and, or: Both of these expect the third argument to be a register
 - andi, ori: Both of these expect the third argument to be an immediate
- MIPS Logical Operators are all bitwise, meaning that bit 0 of the output is produced by the respective bit 0's of the inputs, bit 1 by the bit 1's, etc.

Uses for Logical Operators

- Note that anding a bit with 0 produces a 0 at the output while anding a bit with 1 produces the original bit.
- This can be used to create a mask.
 - Example:

1011 0110 1010 0100 0011 1101 1001 1010

0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 1111 1111 1111

- The result of anding these two is:

0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 1101 1001 1010

• The second bit string in the example is called a mask. It is used to isolate the rightmost 12 bits of the first bit string by masking out the rest of the string (e.g. setting it to all 0s).

Uses for Logical Operators

- Thus, the and operator can be used to set certain portions of a bit string to 0s, while leaving the rest alone.
 - In particular, if the first bit string in the above example were in \$t0,
 then the following instruction would mask it:

```
andi $t0,$t0,0xFFF
```

- Similarly, note that oring a bit with 1 produces a 1 at the output while oring a bit with 0 produces the original bit.
- This can be used to force certain bits of a string to 1s.
 - For example, if \$t0 contains 0x12345678, then after this instruction:

```
ori $t0, $t0, 0xFFFF
```

 \$t0 contains 0x1234FFFF (e.g. the high-order 16 bits are untouched, while the low-order 16 bits are forced to 1s).

Shift Instructions (1/3)

- Move (shift) all the bits in a word to the left or right by a number of bits.
 - Example: shift right by 8 bits

0001 0010 0011 0100 0101 0110 0111 1000

0000 0000 0001 0010 0011 0100 0101 0110

Example: shift left by 8 bits

0001 0010 0011 0100 0101 0110 0111 1000

0011 0100 0101 0110 0111 1000 0000 0000

Shift Instructions (2/3)

Shift instruction syntax:

- 1 2,3,4
- -Where
- 1) operation name
- 2) register that will receive value
- 3) first operand (register)
- 4) shift amount (constant <= 32)

MIPS shift instructions:

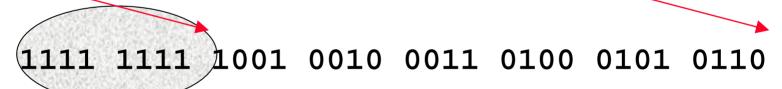
- 1. sll (shift left logical): shifts left and fills emptied bits with 0s
- 2. srl (shift right logical): shifts right and fills emptied bits with 0s
- 3. sra (shift right arithmetic): shifts right and fills emptied bits by sign extending

Shift Instructions (3/3)

• Example: shift right arithmetic by 8 bits

```
0001 0010 0011 0100 0101 0110 0111 1000
0000 0000 0001 0010 0011 0100 0101 0110
```

Example: shift right arithmetic by 8 bits
 1001 0010 0011 0100 0101 0110 0111 1000



• Example: shift right logical by 8 bits
1001 0010 0011 0100 0101 0110 0111 1000

0000 0000 1001 0010 0011 0100 0101 0110

Uses for Shift Instructions (1/4)

 Suppose we want to isolate byte 0 (rightmost 8 bits) of a word in \$t0. Simply use:

 Suppose we want to isolate byte 1 (bit 15 to bit 8) of a word in \$t0. We can use:

But then we still need to shift to the right by 8 bits...

Uses for Shift Instructions (2/4)

Could use instead:

```
sll $t0,$t0,16
                          srl $t0,$t0,24
0001 0010 0011 0100 0101 0110 0111 1000
 0101 0110 0111 1000 0000 0000 0000 0000
0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0101 0110
```

Uses for Shift Instructions (3/4)

In binary:

Multiplying by 2 is same as shifting left by 1:

$$11_2 \times 10_2 = 110_2$$

$$1010_2 \times 10_2 = 10100_2$$

Multiplying by 4 is same as shifting left by 2:

$$11_2 \times 100_2 = 1100_2$$

$$1010_2 \times 100_2 = 101000_2$$

Multiplying by 2ⁿ is same as shifting left by n

In decimal:

Multiplying by 10 is same as shifting left by 1:

$$714_{10} \times 10_{10} = 7140_{10}$$

$$56_{10} \times 10_{10} = 560_{10}$$

Multiplying by 100 is same as shifting left by 2:

$$714_{10} \times 100_{10} = 71400_{10}$$

$$56_{10} \times 100_{10} = 5600_{10}$$

Multiplying by 10ⁿ is same as shifting left by n

Uses for Shift Instructions (4/4)

 Since shifting may be faster than multiplication, a good compiler usually notices when C code multiplies by a power of 2 and compiles it to a shift instruction:

Likewise, shift right to divide by powers of 2

```
-remember to use sra (shift arithmetic)
```

Big Idea: Stored-program Concept

- Computers built on 2 key principles:
 - 1) instructions are represented as numbers.
 - 2) therefore, entire programs can be stored in memory to be read or written just like numbers (data).
- Simplifies SW/HW of computer systems:
 - 1. Memory technology for data also used for programs.
 - 2. Data and Instructions are just 1's and 0's.

Result #1: Everything Addressed

- Since all instructions and data are stored in memory as numbers, everything has a memory address: instructions, data words
 - both branches and jumps use these
- C pointers are just memory addresses: they can point to anything in memory
 - Unconstrained use of addresses can lead to nasty bugs; up to you in C; limits in Java
- One register keeps address of instruction being executed: (Program Counter' (PC)
 - Basically a pointer to memory: Intel calls it Instruction Address
 Pointer, which is better

Result #2: Binary Compatibility

- Programs are distributed in binary form
 - Programs bound to specific instruction set
 - Different version for Macintosh and IBM PC
- New machines want to run old programs ('binaries') as well as programs compiled to new instructions
- Leads to instruction set evolving over time
- Selection of Intel 8086 in 1981 for 1st IBM PC is major reason latest PCs still use 80x86 instruction set (Pentium 4); Could still run program from 1981 PC today

Instructions As Numbers

- Currently all data we work with is in words (32-bit blocks):
 - Each register is a word.
 - lw and sw both access memory one word at a time.
- So how do we represent instructions?
 - Remember: computer only understands 1s and 0s, so 'add \$t0,\$0,\$0' is meaningless.
 - MIPS wants simplicity: since data is in words, make instructions be words...

- One word is 32 bits, so divide instruction word into "fields".
- Each field tells computer something about instruction.
- We could define different fields for each instruction, but MIPS is based on simplicity, so define 3 basic types of instruction formats:
 - R-format
 - I-format
 - J-format

Format Instructions

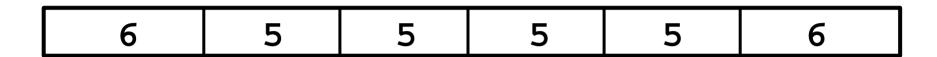
- J-format: used for j and jal
- I-format: used for instructions with immediates, 1w and sw (since the offset counts as an immediate), and the branches (beq and bne),

(But not the shift instructions; Later)

- R-format: used for all other instructions
- It will soon become clear why the instructions have been partitioned in this way.

R-Format Instructions (1/3)

Define 'fields' of the following number of bits each:



For simplicity, each field has a name:

opcode rs rt rd shamt funct

• Important: Each field is viewed as a 5- or 6-bit unsigned integer, not as part of a 32-bit integer.

Consequence: 5-bit fields can represent any number 0-31, while 6-bit fields can represent any number 0-63.

R-Format Instructions (2/3)

What do these field integer values tell us?

- opcode: partially specifies what instruction it is (Note: This number is equal to 0 for all R-Format instructions.)
- funct: combined with opcode, this number exactly specifies the instruction

More fields:

- rs (Source Register): generally used to specify register containing first operand
- rt (Target Register): generally used to specify register containing second operand (note that name is misleading)
- rd (Destination Register): generally used to specify register
 which will receive result of computation

R-Format Instructions (3/3)

Notes about register fields:

- Each register field is exactly 5 bits, which means that it can specify any unsigned integer in the range 0-31. Each of these fields specifies one of the 32 registers by number.
- The word 'generally' was used because there are exceptions, such as:
 - mult and div have nothing important in the rd field since the dest registers are hi and lo
 - mfhi and mflo have nothing important in the rs and rt fields since the source is determined by the instruction

Final field:

- shamt: This field contains the amount a shift instruction will shift by. Shifting a 32-bit word by more than 31 is useless, so this field is only 5 bits (so it can represent the numbers 0-31).
- This field is set to 0 in all but the shift instructions.
- For a detailed description of field usage for each instruction, see back cover of textbook.

R-Format Example (1/2)

MIPS Instruction:

```
add $8,$9,$10
```

```
opcode = 0 (look up in table) ←
funct = 32 (look up in table) ←
rs = 9 (first operand)
rt = 10 (second operand)
rd = 8 (destination)
shamt = 0 (not a shift)
```

See page A-55

R-Format Example (2/2)

MIPS Instruction:

add \$8,\$9,\$10

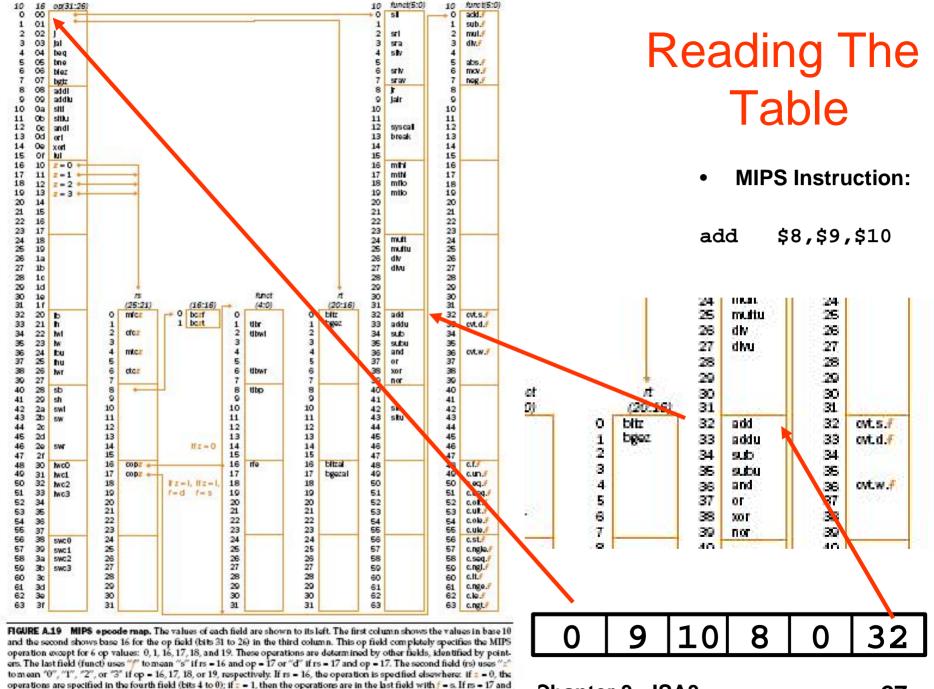
decimal representation:



binary representation:

000000 01001 01010 01000 00000 100000

Called a Machine Language Instruction



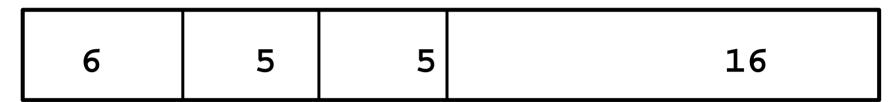
z = 1, then the operations are in the last field with f = d.

I-format Instructions

- What about instructions with immediates?
 - 5-bit field only represents numbers up to the value 31: immediates may be much larger than this.
 - Ideally, MIPS would have only one instruction format (for simplicity): unfortunately, we need to compromise.
- Define new instruction format that is partially consistent with rformat:
 - First notice that, if instruction has immediate, then it uses at most 2 registers.

I-format Instructions

Define 'fields' of the following number of bits each:



Again, each field has a name:

opcode rs rt immediate

• Key Concept: Only one field is inconsistent with Rformat. Most importantly, opcode is still in same location.

I-format Instructions

The immediate field:

- addi, slti, slitu, the immediate is sign-extended to 32 bits.
 Thus, it's treated as a signed integer.
- 16 bits can be used to represent immediate up to 2¹⁶ different values.
- This is large enough to handle the offset in a typical lw or sw, plus a
 vast majority of values that will be used in the slti instruction.

I-format Example

MIPS Instruction:

```
addi $21,$22,-50

opcode = 8 (look up in table)

rs = 22 (register containing operand)

rt = 21 (target register)

immediate = -50 (by default, this is decimal)

decimal representation:
```

8 22 21 -50

binary representation:

001000 10110 10101 1111111111001110

Use I-Format



- opcode specifies beq v. bne
- Rs and Rt specify registers to compare
- What can immediate specify?
 - o Immediate is only 16 bits
 - o PC is 32-bit pointer to memory
 - o So immediate cannot specify entire address to branch to.

- How do we usually use branches?
 - Answer: if-else, while, for
 - Loops are generally small: typically up to 50 instructions
 - Function calls and unconditional jumps are done using jump instructions (j and jal), not the branches.
- Conclusion: though we may want to branch to anywhere in memory, a single branch will generally change the PC by a very small amount.

- Solution: pc-relative addressing
- Let the 16-bit immediate field be a signed two's complement integer to be added to the PC if we take the branch.
- Now we can branch +/- 2¹⁵ bytes from the PC, which should be enough to cover any loop.
- Any ideas to further optimize this?

- Note: instructions are words, so they're word aligned (byte address is always a multiple of 4, which means it ends with 00 in binary).
 - So the number of bytes to add to the PC will always be a multiple of 4.
 - So specify the immediate in words.
- Now, we can branch +/- 2¹⁵ words from the PC (or +/- 2¹⁷ bytes), so we can handle loops 4 times as large.

Final calculation:

– If we don't take the branch:

$$PC = PC + 4$$
.

– If we do take the branch:

$$PC = (PC + 4) + (immediate * 4).$$

- Observations.
 - Immediate field specifies the number of words to jump, which is simply the number of instructions to jump.
 - Immediate field can be positive or negative.
 - Due to hardware, add immediate to (PC+4), not to PC; Will be clearer why later in course.

Branch Example (1/3)

MIPS Code:

```
Loop: beq $9,$0,End add $8,$8,$10 addi $9,$9,-1 j Loop
End:
```

Branch is I-Format:

```
opcode = 4 (look up in table)
rs = 9 (first operand)
rt = 0 (second operand)
immediate = ???
```

Branch Example (2/3)

MIPS Code:

```
Loop: beq $9,$0,End add $8,$8,$10 addi $9,$9,-1 j Loop
End:
```

Immediate Field:

- Number of instructions to add to (or subtract from) the PC, starting at the instruction *following* the branch.
- In this case, immediate = 3

Branch Example (3/3)

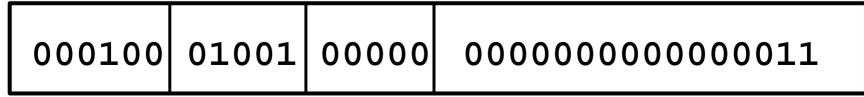
MIPS Code:

```
Loop: beq $9,$0,End add $8,$8,$10 addi $9,$9,-1 j Loop
```

decimal representation:

4 9 0	3
-------	---

binary representation:



Things to Remember

- Simplifying MIPS: define instructions to be same size as data (one word) so that they can use the same memory (can use 1w and sw).
- Machine language instruction: 32 bits representing a single instruction.

R	opcode	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
I	opcode rs r		rt		immediate	

Computer actually stores programs as a series of these.

I-Format Problems (1/3)

Problem 1:

- Chances are that addi, lw, sw and slti will use immediates small enough to fit in the immediate field.
- What if too big?
 - We need a way to deal with a 32-bit immediate in any Iformat instruction.

I-Format Problems (2/3)

Possible Solutions to Problem 1:

- Handle it in software
- Don't change the current instructions: instead, add a new instruction to help out

New instruction:

```
lui register, immediate
```

- stands for Load Upper Immediate
- takes 16-bit immediate and puts these bits in the upper half (high order half) of the specified register
- sets lower half to 0s

I-Format Problems (3/3)

- Solution to Problem 1 (continued):
 - So how does lui help us?
 - Example:

```
addi $t0,$t0, 0xABABCDCD
```

becomes:

```
lui     $at, 0xABAB

ori     $at, $at, 0xCDCD

add     $t0,$t0,$at
```

Now each I-format instruction has only a 16-bit immediate.