## ISA Part III Logical and Shift Operations Instruction Representation

MIPS Instructions (Quick Summary)

| Name | Example | Comments |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | $\$ s 0-\$ s 7, \$ t 0-\$ t 9, \$ z e r o$ | Fast locations for data. In MIPS, data must be in registers to perform |
| 32 registers | $\$ a 0-\$ a 3, \$ v 0-\$ v 1, \$ g p$, | arithmetic. MIPS register \$zero always equals 0. Register \$at is |
|  | $\$ f p, \$ s p, \$ r a, \$ a t$ | 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

| Category | Instruction | Example | Meaning | Comments |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Arithmetic | add | add \$s1, \$s2, \$s3 | \$s1 = \$s2 + \$s3 | Three operands; data in registers |
|  | 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 |
| Data transfer | 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 |
|  | 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 |
| Conditional branch | branch on equal | beq \$s1, \$s2, 25 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { if (\$s1 == \$s2 ) go to } \\ & \text { PC + } 4+100 \end{aligned}$ | Equal test; PC-relative branch |
|  | branch on not equal | bne \$s1, \$s2, 25 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { if (\$s1 ! = \$s2 ) go to } \\ & \text { PC + } 4+100 \end{aligned}$ | Not equal test; PC-relative |
|  | set on less than | slt \$s1, \$s2, \$s3 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { if }(\$ s 2<\$ s 3) \$ s 1=1 ; \\ & \text { else \$s1 }=0 \end{aligned}$ | Compare less than; for beq, bne |
|  | set less than immediate | slti \$s1, \$s2, 100 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { if (\$s2 < 100) \$s1 = 1; } \\ & \text { else \$s1 = } 0 \end{aligned}$ | Compare less than constant |
| Unconditional jump | jump | j 2500 | go to 10000 | Jump to target address |
|  | jump register | jr \$ra | go to \$ra | For switch, procedure return |
|  | jump and link | jal 2500 | \$ra = P0fatigeto 30098 | Agr 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

| A | B | AND | OR |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | $\mathbf{0}$ | $\mathbf{0}$ |
| 0 | 1 | $\mathbf{0}$ | $\mathbf{1}$ |
| 1 | 0 | $\mathbf{0}$ | $\mathbf{1}$ |
| 1 | 1 | $\mathbf{1}$ | $\mathbf{1}$ |

## 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:

```
1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 ~ 0 0 1 1 ~ 1 1 0 1 ~ 1 0 0 1 ~ 1 0 1 0 ~
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 ~ 0 0 0 0 ~ 1 1 1 1 ~ 1 1 1 1 ~ 1 1 1 1 ~
- The result of anding these two is:
```

```
0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 1101 1001 1010
```

```
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 0 s , 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 1 s .
- For example, if $\$ t 0$ contains $0 \times 12345678$, 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 1 s ).


## 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

00010010001101000101011001111000


00000000000100100011010001010110

- Example: shift left by 8 bits

00010010001101000101011001111000

00110100010101100111100000000000

## 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 00010010001101000101011001111000 00000000000100100011010001010110
- Example: shift right arithmetic by 8 bits 10010010001101000101011001111000

11111111100100100011010001010110

- Example: shift right logical by 8 bits 10010010001101000101011001111000

00000000100100100011010001010110

## Uses for Shift Instructions (1/4)

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

$$
\text { andi } \$ t 0, \$ t 0,0 x f f
$$

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

$$
\text { andi } \quad \$ t 0, \$ t 0,0 x f f 00
$$

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

00010010001101000101011001111000

01010110011110000000000000000000

00000000000000000000000001010110

## Uses for Shift Instructions (3/4)

- In binary:

Multiplying by 2 is same as shifting left by 1 :

$$
\begin{aligned}
11_{2} \times 10_{2} & =110_{2} \\
1010_{2} \times 10_{2} & =10100_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Multiplying by 4 is same as shifting left by 2 :

$$
\begin{aligned}
11_{2} \times 100_{2} & =1100_{2} \\
1010_{2} \times 100_{2} & =101000_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Multiplying by $2^{n}$ is same as shifting left by $n$

- In decimal:

Multiplying by 10 is same as shifting left by 1 :

$$
\begin{aligned}
714_{10} \times 10_{10} & =7140_{10} \\
56_{10} \times 10_{10} & =560_{10}
\end{aligned}
$$

Multiplying by 100 is same as shifting left by 2 :

$$
\begin{aligned}
714_{10} \times 100_{10} & =71400_{10} \\
56_{10} \times 100_{10} & =5600_{10}
\end{aligned}
$$

Multiplying by $10^{n}$ 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:

$$
\begin{equation*}
a^{*}=8 ; \tag{inC}
\end{equation*}
$$

would compile to:
sll \$s0,\$s0,3 (in MIPS)

- 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 $80 \times 86$ 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 1 s and 0 s , so 'add $\$ t 0, \$ 0, \$ 0$ ' 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 $\mathbf{j}$ and jal
- I-format: used for instructions with immediates, lw 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.
- Define 'fields' of the following number of bits each:

| 6 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 6 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

- For simplicity, each field has a name:


## opcode

${ }^{\circ}$ 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 031, 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 $r s$ and $r t$ 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 32bit 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)
$r t=10$ (second operand)
$r d=8$ (destination)
shamt $=0$ (not a shift)


## R-Format Example (2/2)

- MIPS Instruction:
add \$8,\$9,\$10
decimal representation:

| 0 | 9 | 10 | 8 | 0 | 32 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

binary representation:

| 000000 | 01001 | 01010 | 01000 | 00000 | 100000 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Called a Machine Language Instruction


## 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 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |

${ }^{\circ}$ 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 $2^{16}$ 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 $\quad \$ 21, \$ 22,-50$ |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| opcode $=$ | 8 (look up in table) |
| $r s=$ | 22 (register containing operand) |
| $r t=$ | 21 (target register) |
| immediate $=$ | -50 (by default, this is decimal) |
| decimal representation: |  |


binary representation:


## Branches: PC-relative Addressing

- 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.


## Branches: PC-relative Addressing

- 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 $\mathrm{j} a \mathrm{l}$ ), 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.


## Branches: PC-relative Addressing

- 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 +l- $\mathbf{2}^{15}$ bytes from the PC, which should be enough to cover any loop.
- Any ideas to further optimize this?


## Branches: PC-relative Addressing

- 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 +l- $2^{15}$ words from the PC (or $+/-2^{17}$ bytes), so we can handle loops 4 times as large.


## Branches: PC-relative Addressing

- Final calculation:
- If we don't take the branch:
$\mathrm{PC}=\mathrm{PC}+4$.
- 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
```

End:
decimal representation:

binary representation:

| 000100 | 01001 | 00000 | 0000000000000011 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

## 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 lw and sw ).
- Machine language instruction: 32 bits representing a single instruction.

| R | opcode | rs | rt | rd | shamt |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| I funct |  |  |  |  |  |
| opcode | rs | 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 l-format instruction has only a 16-bit immediate.

