

Computer Architecture and Assembly Language

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Goals of Today's Lecture



- Computer architecture
 - Central processing unit (CPU)
 - Fetch-decode-execute cycle
 - Memory hierarchy, and other optimization
- Assembly language
 - Machine vs. assembly vs. high-level languages
 - Motivation for learning assembly language
 - Intel Architecture (IA32) assembly language

Levels of Languages



Machine language

- What the computer sees and deals with
- Every command is a sequence of one or more numbers

Assembly language

- Command numbers replaced by letter sequences that are easier to read
- Still have to work with the specifics of the machine itself

High-level language

- Make programming easier by describing operations in a natural language
- A single command replaces a group of low-level assembly language commands

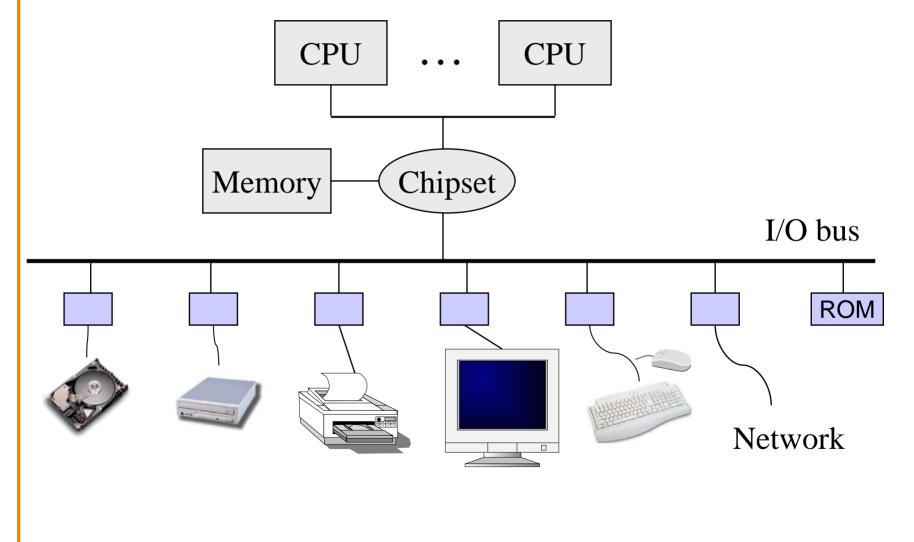
Why Learn Assembly Language?



- Understand how things work underneath
 - Learn the basic organization of the underlying machine
 - Learn how the computer actually runs a program
 - Design better computers in the future
- Write faster code (even in high-level language)
 - By understanding which high-level constructs are better
 - o ... in terms of how efficient they are at the machine level
- Some software is still written in assembly language
 - Code that really needs to run quickly
 - Code for embedded systems, network processors, etc.

A Typical Computer

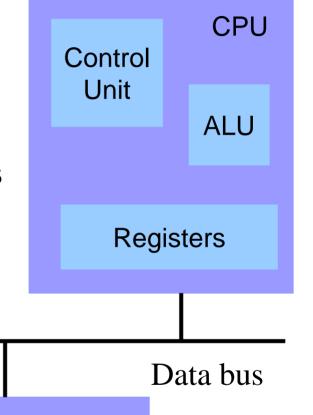




Von Neumann Architecture



- Central Processing Unit
 - Control unit
 - Fetch, decode, and execute
 - Arithmetic and logic unit
 - Execution of low-level operations
 - General-purpose registers
 - High-speed temporary storage
 - Data bus
 - Provide access to memory
- Memory
 - Store instructions
 - Store data



Random Access Memory (RAM)

Control Unit



- Instruction pointer
 - Stores the location of the next instruction
 - Address to use when reading from memory
 - Changing the instruction pointer
 - Increment by one to go to the next instruction
 - -Or, load a new value to "jump" to a new location
- Instruction decoder
 - Determines what operations need to take place
 - Translate the machine-language instruction
 - Control the registers, arithmetic logic unit, and memory
 - E.g., control which registers are fed to the ALU
 - E.g., enable the ALU to do multiplication
 - E.g., read from a particular address in memory

Example: Kinds of Instructions



```
count = 0;
while (n > 1) {
  count++;
  if (n & 1)
    n = n*3 + 1;
  else
    n = n/2;
```

```
    Storing values in registers
```

```
count = 0n
```

Arithmetic and logic operations

```
Increment: count++
```

Multiply: n * 3

Divide: n/2

Logical AND: n & 1

Checking results of comparisons

```
while (n > 1)
```

∘ if (n & 1)

Jumping

- To the end of the while loop (if "n > 1")
- Back to the beginning of the loop
- To the else clause (if "n & 1" is 0)

Size of Variables



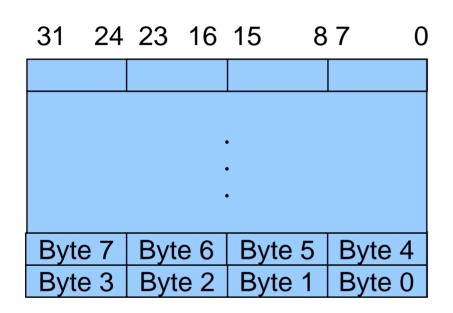
- Data types in high-level languages vary in size
 - Character: 1 byte
 - Short, int, and long: varies, depending on the computer
 - Pointers: typically 4 bytes
 - Struct: arbitrary size, depending on the elements

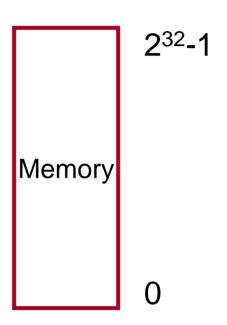
Implications

- Need to be able to store and manipulate in multiple sizes
- Byte (1 byte), word (2 bytes), and extended (4 bytes)
- Separate assembly-language instructions
 - -e.g., addb, addw, addl
- Separate ways to access (parts of) a 4-byte register

Four-Byte Memory Words







Byte order is little endian

IA32 General Purpose Registers



31	15 8	7 0	16-bit	32-bit
	AH	AL	AX	EAX
	BH	BL	BX	EBX
	CH	CL	CX	ECX
	DH	DL	DX	EDX
	SI			ESI
)I		EDI

General-purpose registers

Registers for Executing the Code



- Execution control flow
 - Instruction pointer (EIP)
 - Address in memory of the current instruction
 - Flags (EFLAGS)
 - Stores the status of operations, such as comparisons
 - E.g., last result was positive/negative, was zero, etc.
- Function calls (more on these later!)
 - Stack register (ESP)
 - Address of the top of the stack
 - Base pointer (EBP)
 - Address of a particular element on the stack
 - Access function parameters and local variables

Other Registers that you don't much care about



- Segment registers
 - CS, SS, DS, ES, FS, GS
- Floating Point Unit (FPU) (x87)
 - Eight 80-bit registers (ST0, ..., ST7)
 - 16-bit control, status, tag registers
 - 11-bit opcode register
 - 48-bit FPU instruction pointer, data pointer registers
- MMX
 - Eight 64-bit registers
- SSE and SSE2
 - Eight 128-bit registers
 - 32-bit MXCRS register
- System
 - I/O ports
 - Control registers (CR0, ..., CR4)
 - Memory management registers (GDTR, IDTR, LDTR)
 - Debug registers (DR0, ..., DR7)
 - Machine specific registers
 - Machine check registers
 - Performance monitor registers

Reading IA32 Assembly Language



- Assembler directives: starting with a period (".")
 - E.g., ".section .text" to start the text section of memory
 - E.g., ".loop" for the address of an instruction
- Referring to a register: percent size ("%")
 - E.g., "%ecx" or "%eip"
- Referring to a constant: dollar sign ("\$")
 - E.g., "\$1" for the number 1
- Storing result: typically in the second argument
 - E.g. "addl \$1, %ecx" increments register ECX
 - E.g., "movl %edx, %eax" moves EDX to EAX
- Comment: pound sign ("#")
 - E.g., "# Purpose: Convert lower to upper case"

Detailed Example

n %edx count %ecx



```
count=0;
while (n>1)
  count++;
  if (n&1)
    n = n*3+1;
  else
   n = n/2;
```

```
movl $0, %ecx
.loop:
     cmpl $1, %edx
     jle .endloop
     addl $1, %ecx
     movl %edx, %eax
     andl $1, %eax
     je .else
     movl %edx, %eax
     addl %eax, %edx
     addl %eax, %edx
     addl $1, %edx
     jmp .endif
.else:
     sarl $1, %edx
.endif:
     jmp .loop
.endloop:
```

Flattening Code Example



```
count=0;
while (n>1) {
  count++;
  if (n&1)
    n = n*3+1;
  else
    n = n/2;
```

Machine-Language Instructions



Instructions have the form

```
op source, dest "dest ← dest ⊕ source"
```

operation (move, add, subtract, etc.)

first operand (and destination)

second operand

Instruction Format:

opcode	operand	operand
--------	---------	---------

Instruction



- Opcode
 - What to do
- Source operands
 - Immediate (in the instruction itself)
 - Register
 - Memory location
 - ∘ I/O port
- Destination operand
 - Register
 - Memory location
 - I/O port
- Assembly syntax

Opcode source1, [source2,] destination

How Many Instructions to Have?



- Need a certain minimum set of functionality
 - Want to be able to represent any computation that can be expressed in a higher-level language
- Benefits of having many instructions
 - Direct implementation of many key operations
 - Represent a line of C in one (or just a few) lines of assembly
- Disadvantages of having many instructions
 - Larger opcode size
 - More complex logic to implement complex instructions
 - Hard to write compilers to exploit all the available instructions
 - Hard to optimize the implementation of the CPU

CISC vs. RISC



Complex Instruction Set Computer

(old fashioned, 1970s style)

Examples:

Vax (1978-90)

Motorola 68000 (1979-90)

8086/80x86/Pentium (1974-2025)

Instructions of various lengths, designed to economize on memory (size of instructions)

Reduced Instruction Set Computer

("modern", 1980s style)

Examples:

MIPS (1985-?)

Sparc (1986-2006)

IBM PowerPC (1990-?)

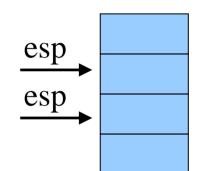
ARM

Instructions all the same size and all the same format, designed to economize on decoding complexity (and time, and power drain)

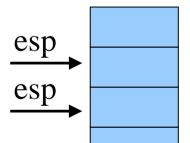
Data Transfer Instructions



- mov{b,w,1} source, dest
 - General move instruction
- •push{w,1} source



•pop{w,1} dest



- Many more in Intel manual (volume 2)
 - Type conversion, conditional move, exchange, compare and exchange, I/O port, string move, etc.

Data Access Methods



- Immediate addressing: data stored in the instruction itself
 - movl \$10, %ecx
- Register addressing: data stored in a register
 - movl %eax, %ecx
- Direct addressing: address stored in instruction
 - movl 2000, %ecx
- Indirect addressing: address stored in a register
 - movl (%eax), %ebx
- Base pointer addressing: includes an offset as well
 - movl 4(%eax), %ebx
- Indexed addressing: instruction contains base address, and specifies an index register and a multiplier (1, 2, or 4)
 - movl 2000(,%ecx,1), %ebx

Effective Address



```
eax
            eax
                        ebx
            ebx
                                            None
                        ecx
            ecx
                                             8-bit
                        edx
            edx
Offset =
                        esp
            esp
                                            16-bit
                        ebp
            ebp
                        esi
                                            32-bit
            esi
                        edi
            edi
                                scale displacement
                       Index
          Base
```

- Displacement
- Base
- Base + displacement
- (Index * scale) + displacement movl (, %eax, 4), %ebx

- movl foo, %ebx
- movl (%eax), %ebx
- movl foo(%eax), %ebx
- movl 1(%eax), %ebx
- Base + (index * scale) + displacement movl foo(, %eax, 4), %ebx

Bitwise Logic Instructions



Simple instructions

```
and{b,w,l} source, dest

or{b,w,l} source, dest

xor{b,w,l} source, dest

not{b,w,l} dest

sal{b,w,l} source, dest (arithmetic)

sar{b,w,l} source, dest (arithmetic)

sar{b,w,l} source, dest (arithmetic)

sar{b,w,l} source, dest (arithmetic)
```

Many more in Intel Manual (volume 2)

- Logic shift
- Rotation shift
- Bit scan
- Bit test
- Byte set on conditions

Arithmetic Instructions



Simple instructions

```
    add{b,w,l} source, dest
    sub{b,w,l} source, dest
    inc(b,w,l) dest
    dest = dest - source
    dest = dest + 1
    dec{b,w,l} dest
    neg(b,w,l) dest
    cmp{b,w,l} source1, source2
```

Multiply

Divide

Many more in Intel manual (volume 2)

adc, sbb, decimal arithmetic instructions

EFLAG Register & Condition Codes



31	22 21 20 19 18 17 16 15 14 13 12 11 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0
Reserved (set to 0)	I V V A W R O N IO P F F F F F O A O P 1 C
Identification flag Virtual interrupt pending Virtual interrupt flag Alignment check Virtual 8086 mode Resume flag Nested task flag I/O privilege level Overflow flag Direction flag Interrupt enable flag Trap flag Sign flag Zero flag Auxiliary carry flag or adjunction flag Parity flag	
Carry flag	

Branch Instructions



Conditional jump

j{l,g,e,ne,...} target

if (condition) {eip = target}

Comparison	Signed	Unsigned	
=	е	е	"equal"
≠	ne	ne	"not equal"
>	g	a	"greater,above"
>	ge	ae	"or-equal"
<	1	b	"less,below"
≤	le	be	"or-equal"
overflow/carry	0	С	
no ovf/carry	no	nc	

Unconditional jump

- jmp target
- jmp *register

Making the Computer Faster



Memory hierarchy

- Ranging from small, fast storage to large, slow storage
- E.g., registers, caches, main memory, disk, CDROM, ...

Sophisticated logic units

- Have dedicated logic units for specialized functions
- E.g., right/left shifting, floating-point operations, graphics, network,...

Pipelining

- Overlap the fetch-decode-execute process
- E.g., execute instruction i, while decoding i-1, and fetching i-2

Branch prediction

- Guess which way a branch will go to avoid stalling the pipeline
- E.g., assume the "for loop" condition will be true, and keep going
- And so on... see the Computer Architecture class!

Memory Hierarchy



Capacity Access time

10² bytes Register: 1x

10⁴ bytes L1 cache: 2-4x

10⁵ bytes L2 cache: ~10x

10⁶ bytes L3 cache: ~50x

10⁹ bytes DRAM: ~200-500x

10¹¹ bytes Disks: ~30M x

10¹² bytes CD-ROM Jukebox: >1000M x

Conclusion



Computer architecture

- Central Processing Unit (CPU) and Random Access Memory (RAM)
- Fetch-decode-execute cycle
- Instruction set

Assembly language

- Machine language represented with handy mnemonics
- Example of the IA-32 assembly language

Next time

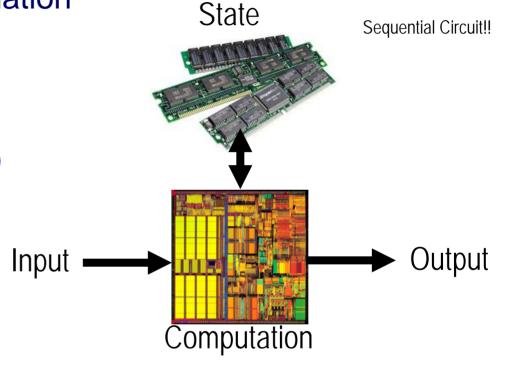
- Portions of memory: data, bss, text, stack, etc.
- Function calls, and manipulating contents of the stack

Instructions



Computers process information

- Input/Output (I/O)
- State (memory)
- Computation (processor)



- Instructions instruct processor to manipulate state
- Instructions instruct processor to produce I/O in the same way

State



Typical modern machine has this architectural state:

- 1. Main Memory
- 2. Registers
- 3. Program Counter

Architectural – Part of the assembly programmer's interface (Implementation has additional microarchitectural state)

State – Main Memory



Main Memory (AKA: RAM – Random Access Memory)

- Data can be accessed by address (like a big array)
- Large but relatively slow

Decent desktop machine: 1 Gigabyte, 800MHz

Address	Data
0000	010110012
0001	F5 ₁₆
0002	78 ₁₆
0003	3A ₁₆
	•••
FFFF	000000002



Byte Addressable

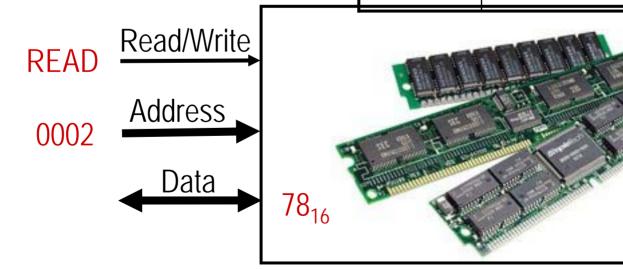
State – Main Memory



Read:

- 1. Indicate READ
- 2. Give Address
- 3. Get Data

Address	Data
0000	010110012
0001	F5 ₁₆
0002	78 ₁₆
0003	3A ₁₆
FFFF	000000002



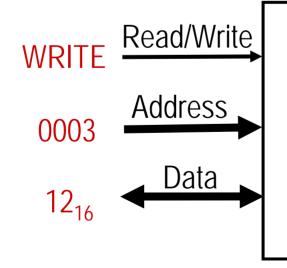
State – Main Memory

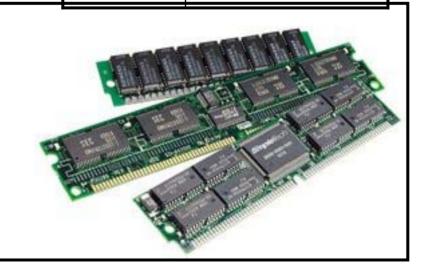


Write:

- 1. Indicate WRITE
- 2. Give Address and Data

Address	Data
0000	010110012
0001	F5 ₁₆
0002	12 ₁₆
0003	3A ₁₆
•••	
FFFF	000000002





State – Registers (Register File)



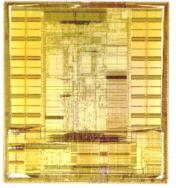
Data can be accessed by register number (address)

- Small but relatively fast (typically on processor chip)
- Decent desktop machine: 8 32-bit registers, 3 GHz



Register	Data in Reg
0	00000000 ₁₆
1	F629D9B5 ₁₆
2	7B2D9D08 ₁₆
3	0000001 ₁₆
	• • •
8	DEADBEEF ₁₆



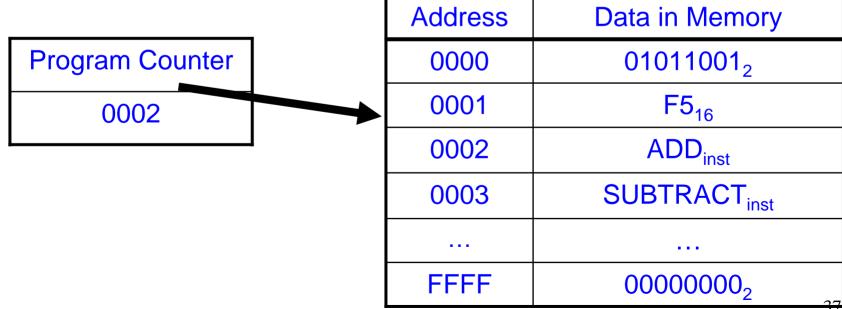


State – Program Counter



Program Counter (AKA: PC, Instruction Pointer, IP)

- Instructions change state, but which instruction now?
- PC holds memory address of currently executing instruction

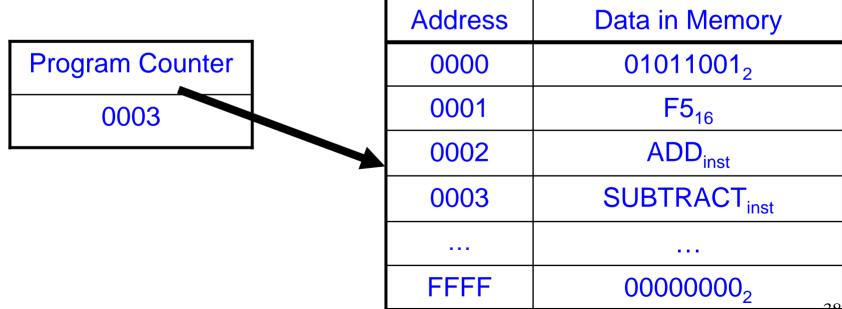


State – Program Counter



Program Counter (AKA: PC, Instruction Pointer, IP)

- Instructions change state, but which instruction now?
- PC holds address of currently executing instruction
- PC is updated after each instruction



State – Summary



Typical modern machine has this architectural state:

- 1. Main Memory Big, Slow
- 2. Registers Small, Fast (always on processor chip)
- 3. Program Counter Address of executing instruction

Architectural – Part of the assembly programmer's interface (implementation has additional microarchitectural state)

An Aside: State and The Core Dump



- Core Dump: the state of the machine at a given time
- Typically at program failure
- Core dump contains:
 - Register Contents
 - Memory Contents
 - PC Value



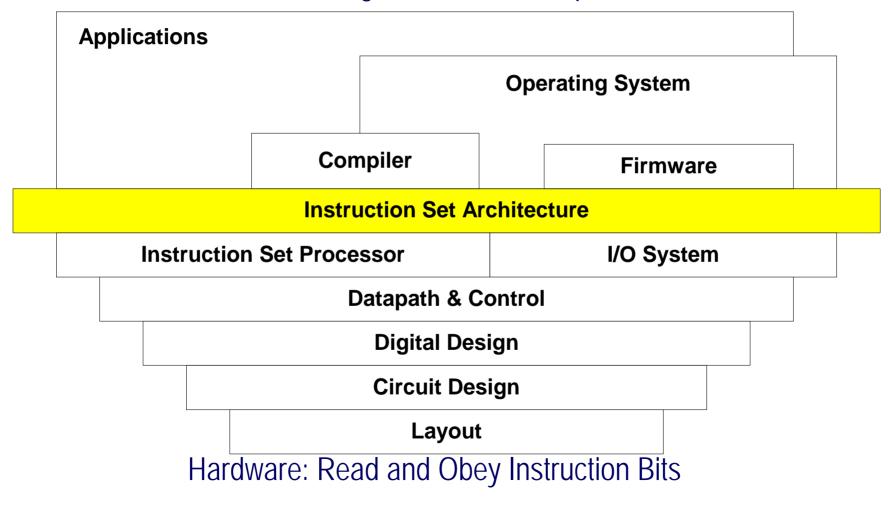
Registers							
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0000	0788	в700	0010	0401	0002	0003	00A0
8	9	A	В	C	D	E	F
0000	0788	в700	0010	0401	0002	0003	00A0

Main Memory								
00:	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000
08:	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000
10:	9222	9120	1121	A120	1121	A121	7211	0000
18:	0000	0001	0002	0003	0004	0005	0006	0007
20:	0008	0009	000A	000B	000C	000D	000E	000F
28:	0000	0000	0000	FE10	FACE	CAFE	ACED	CEDE
•								
•								
E8:	1234	5678	9ABC	DEF0	0000	0000	F00D	0000
F0:	0000	0000	EEEE	1111	EEEE	1111	0000	0000
F8:	B1B2	F1F5	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000

Interfaces in Computer Systems

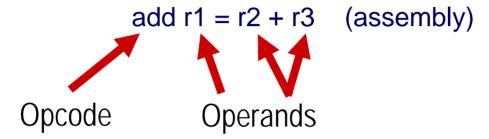


Software: Produce Bits Instructing Machine to Manipulate State or Produce I/O





An ADD Instruction:



Parts of the Instruction:

- Opcode (verb) what operation to perform
- Operands (noun) what to operate upon
- Source Operands where values come from
- Destination Operand where to deposit data values

Instructions:

"The vocabulary of commands"

Specify how to operate on state

Example:

40: add r1 = r2 + r3

44: sub r3 = r1 - r0

48: store M[r3] = r1

52: load r2 = M[2]

Register	Data
0	0
1	15
2	1
3	2
•••	•••
31	0

Address	Data
0	0
1	25
2	5
3	9
•••	•••
FFFFFFF	0

Instructions:

"The vocabulary of commands"

Specify how to operate on state

Example: 3

40: add r1 = r2 + r3

44: sub r3 = r1 - r0

48: store M[r3] = r1

52: load r2 = M[2]

Register	Data
register	Data
0	0
1	15
2	1
3	2
31	0

Address	Data
0	0
1	25
2	5
3	9
•••	• • •
FFFFFFF	0

Example:

40: add r1 = r2 + r3

44: sub r3 = r1 - r0

48: store M[r3] = r1

52: load r2 = M[2]

Program Counter

40

Register	Data
0	0
1	3
2	1
3	2
•••	•••
31	0

Address	Data
0	0
1	25
2	5
3	9
•••	• • •
FFFFFFF	0

Instructions:

"The vocabulary of commands"

Specify how to operate on state

Example:

40: add r $\frac{3}{3}$ r2 + r3

44: sub r3 = r1 - r0

48: store M[r3] = r1

52: load r2 = M[2]

	(4) \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \
Register	Data Data
0	0
1	3
2	1
3	2
•••	• • •
31	0

Address	Data
0	0
1	25
2	5
3	9
•••	•••
FFFFFFF	0

Instructions:

"The vocabulary of commands"

Specify how to operate on state

Example:

40: add r1 = r2 + r3

44: sub r3 = r1 - r0 3

48: store M[r3] = r1

52: load r2 = M[2]

Register	Data
0	0
1	3
2	1
3	3
	•••
31	0

Address	Data
0	0
1	25
2	5
3	9
•••	• • •
FFFFFFF	0

Instructions:

"The vocabulary of commands"

Specify how to operate on state

Example:

40: add r1 = r2 + r3

44: sub r3 = r1 - r0

48: store [5, r3] = r1

52: load r2 = M[2]

	(P) (P)
Register	Data
0	0
1	3
2	1
3	3
	•••
31	0

Address	Data
0	0
1	25
2	5
3	3
	• • •
FFFFFFF	0

Instructions:

"The vocabulary of commands"

Specify how to operate on state

Example:

40: add r1 = r2 + r3

44: sub r3 = r1 - r0

48: store M[r3] = r1

52: load r2 = M[2]

	(P) (P)
Register	Data Data
0	0
1	3
2	5
3	3
•••	•••
31	0

Address	Data
0	0
1	25
2	5
3	3
•••	• • •
FFFFFFF	0

Note:

- 1. Insts Executed in Order
- 2. Addressing Modes

Example:

40: add r1 = r2 + r3

44: sub r3 = r1 - r0

48: store M[r3] = r1

52: load r2 = M[2]

	® ▼ ▼\$
Register	Data
0	0
1	3
2	5
3	3
•••	
31	0

Address	Data
0	0
1	25
2	5
3	3
•••	•••
FFFFFF	0

Assembly Instructions and C



```
main() {
                       int a = 15, b = 1, c = 2;
add r1 = r2 + r3
                       a = b + c; /* a gets 3 */
sub r3 = r1 - r0
                       c = a; /* c gets 3 */
                      *(int *)c = a;
store M[ r3 ] = r1
                                 /* M[c] = a */
                       b = *(int *)(2);
load r2 = M[2]
                                 /* b gets M[2] */
```



Branching



Suppose we could only execute instructions in sequence.

Recall from our example:

40: add r1 = r2 + r3

44: sub r3 = r1 - r0

48: store M[r3] = r1

52: load r2 = M[2]

- In a decent desktop machine, how long would the longest program stored in main memory take?
- Assume: 1 instruction per cycle
 - An instruction is encoded in 4 bytes (32 bits)

Therefore...



- Some instructions must execute more than once
- PC must be updated

Example:

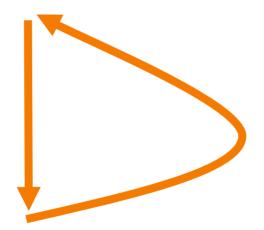
40: add r1 = r2 + r3

44: sub r3 = r1 - r0

48: store M[r3] = r1

52: load r2 = M[2]

56: PC = 40



Unconditional Branches



- Unconditional branches always update the PC
- AKA: Jump instructions

Example:

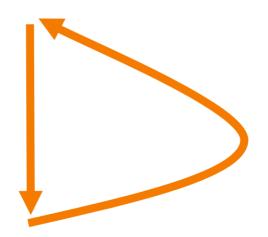
40: add r1 = r2 + r3

44: sub r3 = r1 - r0

48: store M[r3] = r1

52: load r2 = M[2]

56: jump 40



How long with the program take?

Conditional Branch



- Conditional Branch sometimes updates PC
- AKA: Branch, Conditional Jump

Example

```
40: r1 = 10
```

44: r1 = r1 - 1

48: branch r1 > 0, 44 if r1 is greater than 0, PC = 44

52: halt

How long will this program take?

Conditional Branch



What does this look like in C?

```
Example
10: "Hello\n" ; data in memory
36: arg1 = 10 ; argument memory address is 10
40: r1 = 10
44: r1 = r1 - 1
48: call printf ; printf(arg1)
52: branch r1 > 0, 44
56: halt
```

Details about red instructions/data next time...

Indirect Branches



- Branch address may also come from a register
- AKA: Indirect Jump

Example:

40: add r1 = r2 + r3

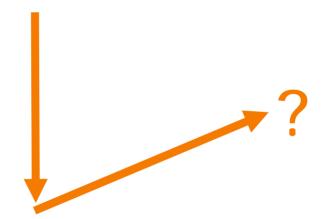
44: sub r3 = r1 - r0

48: store M[r3] = r1

52: load r2 = M[2]

56: jump r4

60: halt



Branch Summary



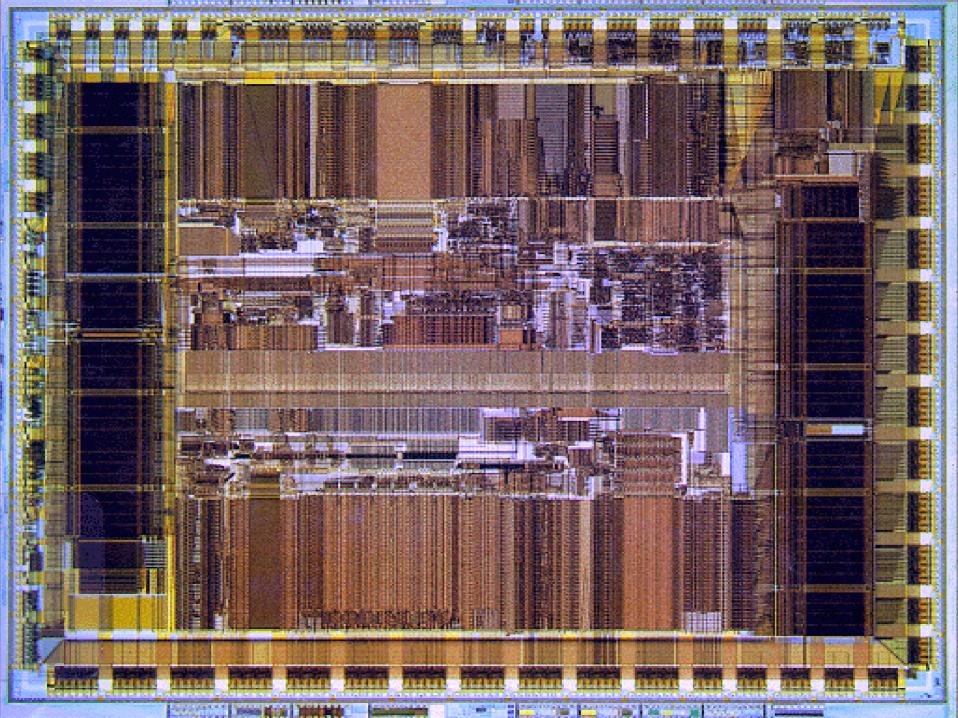
- Reduce, Reuse, Recycle (instructions)
- Branch instructions update state



PC 10

	Registers							
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
0000	0788	в700	0010	0401	0002	0003	00A0	
8	9	A	В	C	D	E	F	
0000	0788	в700	0010	0401	0002	0003	00A0	

	Main Memory							
00:	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000
08:	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000
10:	9222	9120	1121	A120	1121	A121	7211	0000
18:	0000	0001	0002	0003	0004	0005	0006	0007
20:	0008	0009	000A	000B	000C	000D	000E	000F
28:	0000	0000	0000	FE10	FACE	CAFE	ACED	CEDE
•								
•								
E8:	1234	5678	9ABC	DEF0	0000	0000	F00D	0000
F0:	0000	0000	EEEE	1111	EEEE	1111	0000	0000
F8:	B1B2	F1F5	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000



A Note on Notation...



- Assembly syntax is somewhat arbitrary
- Equivalent "Add" Instructions

```
add r1, r2, r3
add r1 = r2, r3
r1 = r2 + r3
add r1 = r2 + r3
add $1, $2, $3
...
```

Equivalent "Store Word" Instructions

```
sw $1, 10($2)
M[r2 + 10] = r1
st.w M[r2 + 10] = r1
...
```



• MIPS - SGI Workstations, Nintendo, Sony...

State:

- 32-bit addresses to memory (32-bit PC)
- 32 32-bit Registers
- A "word" is 32-bits on MIPS
- Register \$0 (\$zero) always has the value 0
- By convention, certain registers are used for certain things
 - more next time…



Some Arithmetic Instructions:

- Add:
 - Assembly Format: add <dest>, <src1>, <src2>
 - Example: add \$1, \$2, \$3
 - Example Meaning: r1 = r2 + r3

- Subtract:
 - Same as add, except "sub" instead of "add"



Some Memory Instructions:

Load Word:

- Assembly Format: lw <dest>, <offset immediate> (<src1>)
- Example: lw \$1, 100 (\$2)
- Example Meaning: r1 = M[r2 + 100]

Store Word:

- Assembly Format: sw <src1>, <offset immediate> (<src2>)
- Example: sw \$1, 100 (\$2)
- Example Meaning: M[r2 + 100] = r1



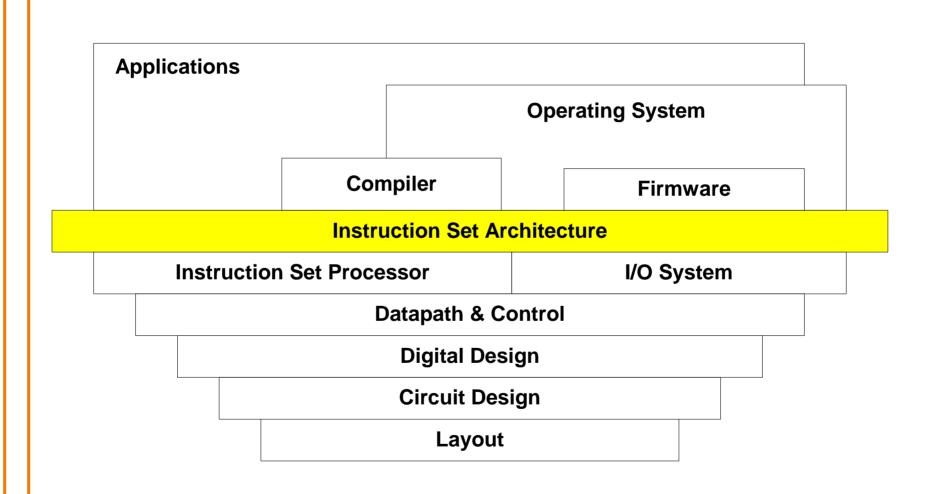
Some Branch Instructions:

- Branch Equal:
 - Assembly Format: beq <src1>, <src2>, <target immediate>
 - Example: beq \$1, \$2, 100
 - Example Meaning: branch r1 == r2, 100
 If r1 is equal to r2, PC = 100
- Branch Not Equal: Same except beq -> bne
- Jump:
 - Assembly Format: j <target immediate>
 - Example: j 100
 - Example Meaning: jump 100

$$PC = 100$$

How are MIPS Instructions Encoded?





MIPS Encodings 32-bits/Instruction



	6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	6 bits
R:	op	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
ı		T				
I:	op	rs	rt	address / immediate		
J:	op		t	arget addre	ess	

op: basic operation of the instruction (opcode)

rs: first source operand register

rt: second source operand register

rd: destination operand register

shamt: shift amount

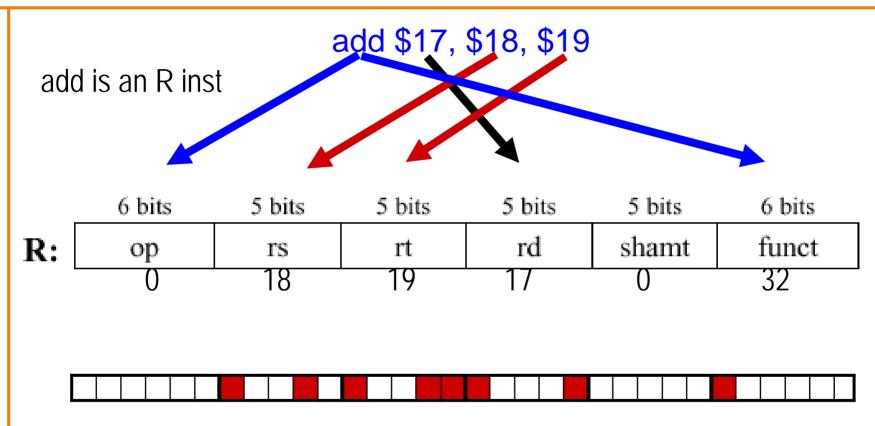
funct: selects the specific variant of the opcode (function code)

address: offset for load/store instructions (+/-215)

immediate: constants for immediate instructions

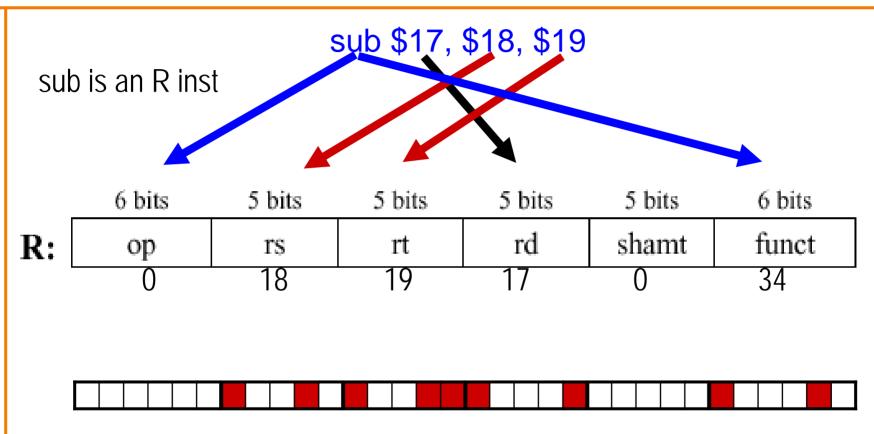
MIPS Add Instruction Encoding





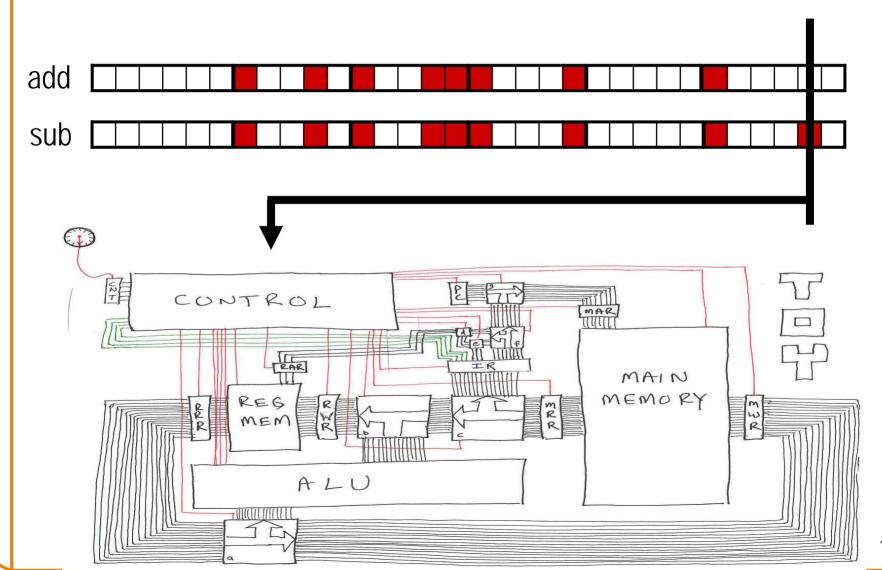
MIPS Add Instruction Encoding





Add and Subtract A little foreshadowing...







Memory Addressing



0	8 bits of data
1	8 bits of data
2	8 bits of data
3	8 bits of data
4	8 bits of data
5	8 bits of data
6	8 bits of data

View memory as a single-dimensional array

Since 1980: Elements of array are 8-bits

We say "byte addressable"

Assuming 32-bit words:

1. How are bytes laid out in word read?

2. Can a word start at any address?

Memory Organization



- Bytes are nice, but most data items use larger "words"
- For MIPS, a word is 32 bits or 4 bytes.

0	32 bits of data
4	32 bits of data
8	32 bits of data
12	32 bits of data

Registers hold 32 bits of data

• • •

- 2³² bytes with byte addresses from 0 to 2³²-1
- 2³⁰ words with byte addresses 0, 4, 8, ... 2³²-4
- Words are aligned

 i.e., what are the least 2 significant bits of a word address?

Addressing Modes



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Addressing	mode	Example	Meaning

Register Add R4,R3 R4← R4+R3

Immediate Add R4,#3 R4 ← R4+3

Displacement Add R4,100(R1) R4 \leftarrow R4+Mem[100+R1]

Register indirect Add R4,(R1) $R4 \leftarrow R4+Mem[R1]$

Indexed / Base Add R3,(R1+R2) R3 \leftarrow R3+Mem[R1+R2]

Direct or absolute Add R1,(1001) $R1 \leftarrow R1+Mem[1001]$

Memory indirect Add R1,@(R3) R1 \leftarrow R1+Mem[Mem[R3]]

Auto-increment Add R1,(R2)+ R1 \leftarrow R1+Mem[R2]; R2 \leftarrow R2+d

Auto-decrement Add R1,–(R2) R2 \leftarrow R2–d; R1 \leftarrow R1+Mem[R2]

Scaled Add R1,100(R2)[R3] $R1 \leftarrow R1+Mem[100+R2+R3*d]$

Hello World



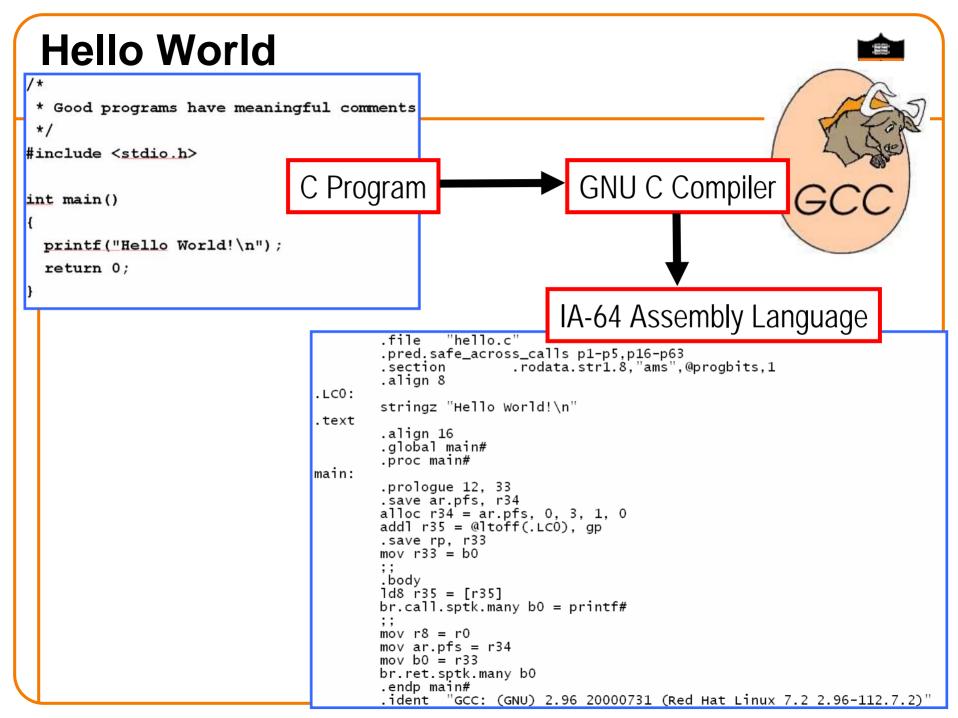
The Hello World Algorithm:

1. Emit "Hello World"

2. Terminate

C Program

```
* Good programs have meaningful comments
 */
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
  printf("Hello World!\n");
  return 0;
```



Hello World

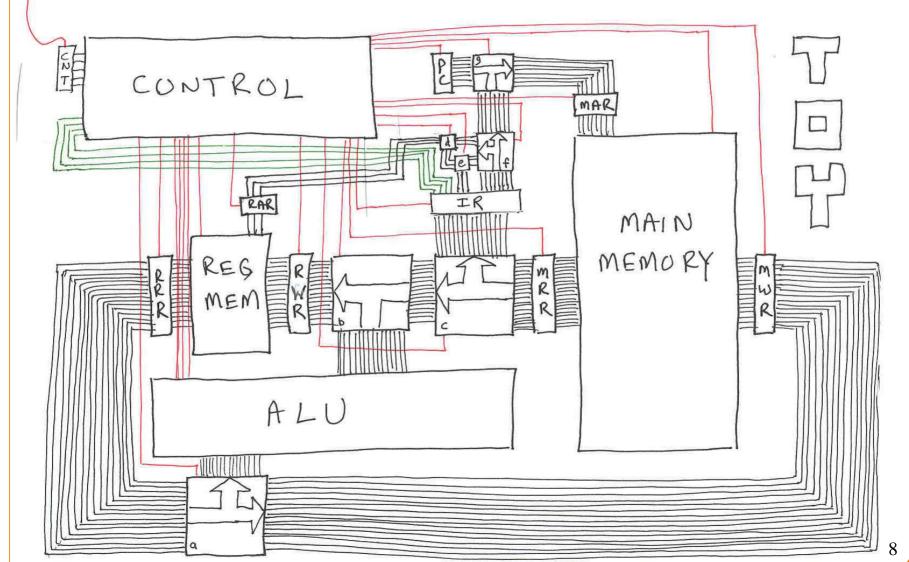


IA-64 Assembly Language

```
"hello.c"
        file
        .pred.safe_across_calls p1-p5,p16-p63
                         .rodata.str1.8, "ams", @progbits.1
        .section
        .align 8
.LC0:
        stringz "Hello World!\n"
.text
        .align 16
        .global main#
        .proc main#
main:
        .prologue 12, 33
        .save ar.pfs, r34
        alloc r34 = ar.pfs, 0, 3, 1, 0
        addl r35 = @ltoff(.Lc0), gp
        .save rp, r33
        mov r33 = b0
        .body
        1d8 r35 = [r35]
        br.call.sptk.many b0 = printf#
        mov r8 = r0
        mov ar.pfs = r34
        mov b0 = r33
        br.ret.sptk.many b0
        .endp main#
        .ident "GCC: (GNU) 2.96 20000731 (Red Hat Linux 7.2 2.96-112.7.2)"
```

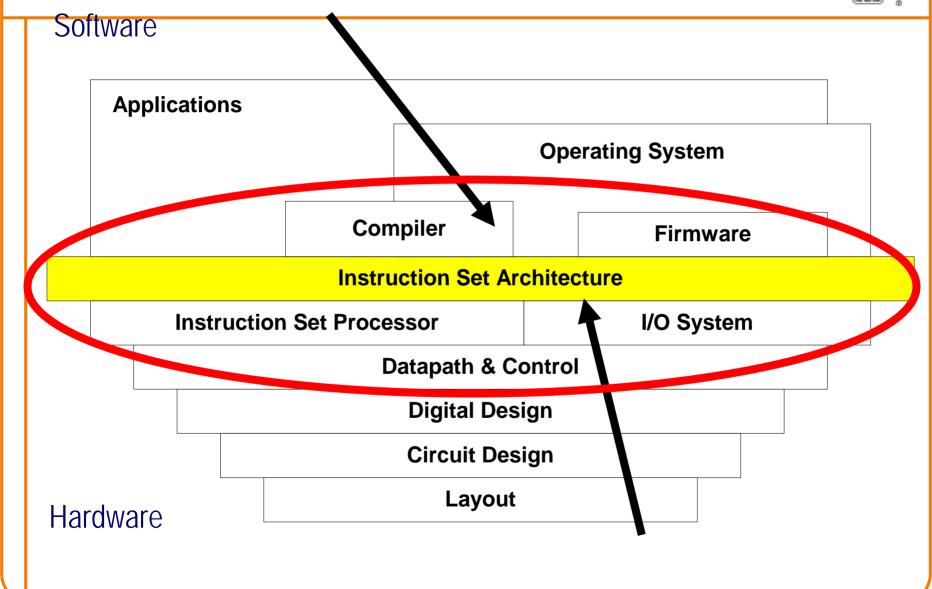
Control (from the back of a napkin)





The Hardware/Software Interface





The Instruction Set Architecture



"The vocabulary of commands"

- Defined by the Architecture (x86)
- Implemented by the Machine (Pentium 4, 3.06 GHz)
- An Abstraction Layer: The Hardware/Software Interface
- Architecture has longevity over implementation
- Example:

add
$$r1 = r2 + r3$$
 (assembly)

001 001 010 011 (binary)

