Design of Digital Circuits

Lecture 9: Von Neumann Model, ISA, LC-3 and MIPS

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Agenda for Today & Next Few Lectures

- The von Neumann model
- LC-3: An example of von Neumann machine
- LC-3 and MIPS Instruction Set Architectures
- LC3 and MIPS assembly and programming
- Introduction to microprogramming and single-cycle microarchitectures
- Multi-cycle microarchitecture
- Microprogramming

Readings

This week

- Von Neumann Model, LC-3, and MIPS
 - P&P, Chapter 4, 5
 - H&H, Chapter 6
 - P&P, Appendices A and C (ISA and microarchitecture of LC-3)
 - H&H, Appendix B (MIPS instructions)
- Digital Building Blocks
 - H&H, Chapter 5

Next week

- Introduction to microarchitecture and single-cycle microarchitecture
 - P&P, Appendices A and C
 - H&H, Chapter 7.1-7.3
- Multi-cycle microarchitecture
 - P&P, Appendices A and C
 - H&H, Chapter 7.4
- Microprogramming
 - P&P, Appendices A and C

What Will We Learn Today?

- The von Neumann model
 - □ LC-3: An example of von Neumann machine
- Instruction Set Architectures: LC-3 and MIPS
 - Operate instructions
 - Data movement instructions
 - Control instructions
- Instruction formats
- Addressing modes

Basic Elements of a Computer

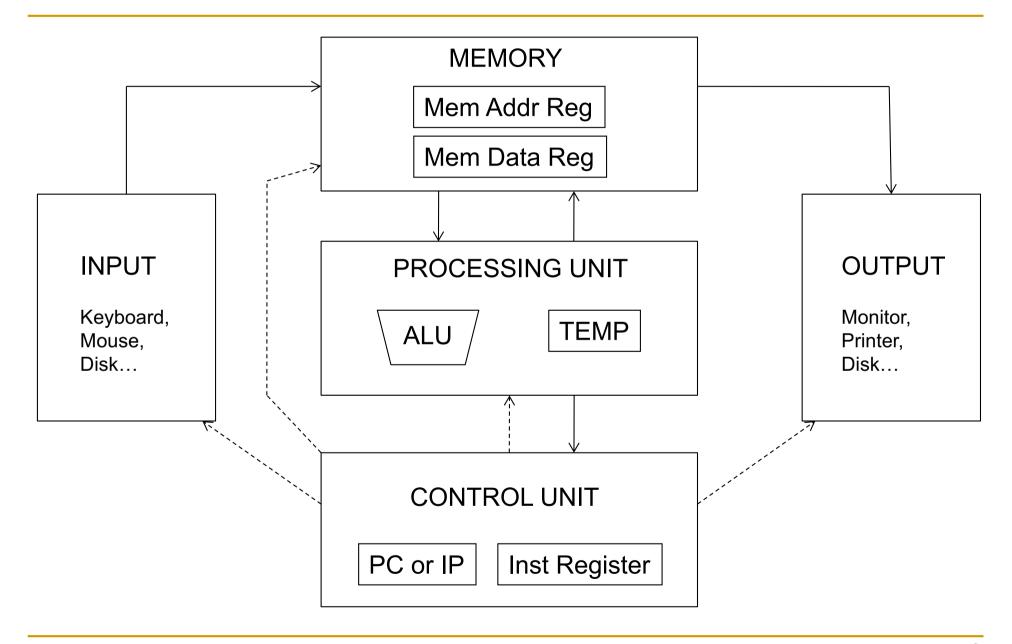
- In past lectures we learned
 - Combinational circuits
 - Sequential circuits
- With them, we can build
 - Decision elements
 - Storage elements
- Basic elements of a computer
- To get a task done by a computer we need
 - Computer
 - Data
 - Program: A set of instructions
 - Instruction: the smallest piece of work in a computer

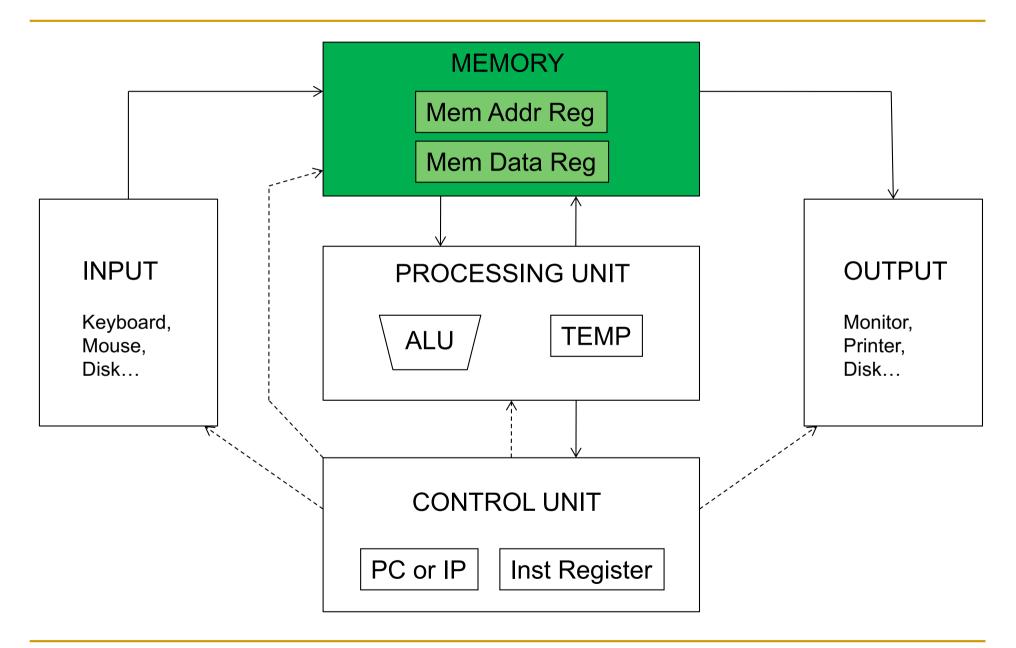
- Let's start building the computer
- In order to build a computer we need a model
- John von Neumann proposed a fundamental model in 1946
- It consists of 5 parts
 - Memory
 - Processing unit
 - Input
 - Output
 - Control unit



- Throughout this lecture, we consider two examples of the von Neumann model
 - □ LC-3
 - MIPS

Burks, Goldstein, von Neumann, "Preliminary discussion of the logical design of an electronic computing instrument," 1946.





Memory

- The memory stores
 - Data
 - Programs
- The memory contains bits
 - □ Bits are grouped into bytes (8 bits) and words (e.g., 8, 16, 32 bits)
- How the bits are accessed determines the addressability
 - E.g., word-addressable
 - E.g., 8-bit addressable (or byte-addressable)
- The total number of addresses is the address space
 - In LC-3, the address space is 2¹⁶
 - 16-bit addresses
 - □ In MIPS, the address space is 2³²
 - 32-bit addresses

Word-Addressable Memory

- Each data word has a unique address
 - In MIPS, a unique address for each 32-bit data word
 - In LC-3, a unique address for each 16-bit data word

Word Address	Data M	PS memory
•	-	•
•	• •	
		_
0000003	D1617A1C	Word 3
0000002	13C81755	Word 2
0000001	F2F1F0F7	Word 1
0000000	89ABCDEF	Word 0

Byte-Addressable Memory

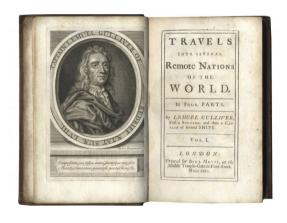
- Each byte has a unique address
 - Actually, MIPS is byte-addressable
 - LC-3b is byte-addressable, too

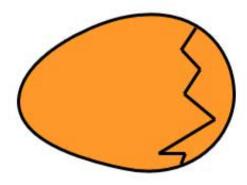
Word Address	Data			memory	
•			•		•
•			•		•
-	-			-	
000000C	D 1	6 1	7 A	1 C	Word 3
8000000	13	C 8	17	5 5	Word 2
0000004	F 2	F 1	F 0	F 7	Word 1
0000000	How are these four bytes addressed?			Word 0	

MIPS

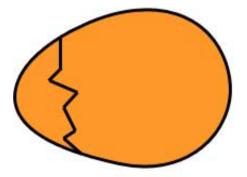
Big Endian vs Little Endian

- Jonathan Swift's Gulliver's Travels
 - Little Endians broke their eggs on the little end of the egg
 - Big Endians broke their eggs on the big end of the egg





BIG ENDIAN - The way people always broke their eggs in the Lilliput land



LITTLE ENDIAN - The way the king then ordered the people to break their eggs

Big Endian vs Little Endian

Big Endian Little Endian					an			
	Byte Address •		Word Address •	Byte Address •				
С	D	E	F	С	F	Е	D	С
8	9	Α	В	8	В	Α	9	8
4	5	6	7	4	7	6	5	4
0	1	2	3	0	3	2	1	0
MSB	MSB LSB MSB LSE				LSB			

Big Endian vs Little Endian

Big Endian

Little Endian

Byte

Word

Byte

Does this really matter?

Answer: No, it is a convention

Qualified answer: No, except when one bigendian system and one little-endian system have to share data

MSB

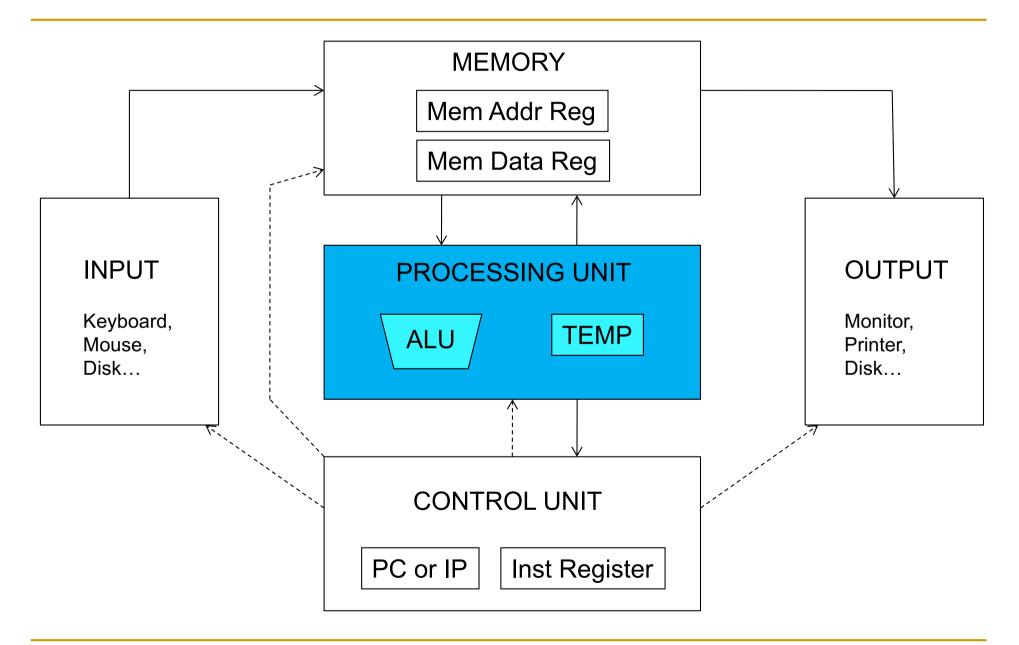
LSB

MSB

LSB

Accessing Memory: MAR and MDR

- There are two ways of accessing memory
 - Reading or loading
 - Writing or storing
- Two registers are necessary to access memory
 - Memory Address Register (MAR)
 - Memory Data Register (MDR)
- To read
 - Step 1: Load the MAR with the address
 - Step 2: Data is placed in MDR
- To write
 - Step 1: Load the MAR with the address and the MDR with the data
 - Step 2: Activate Write Enable signal



Processing Unit

- The processing unit can consist of many functional units
- We start with a simple Arithmetic and Logic Unit (ALU)
 - □ LC-3: ADD, AND, NOT (XOR in LC-3b)
 - MIPS: add, sub, mult, and, nor, sll, slr, slt...
- The ALU processes quantities that are referred to as words
 - Word length in LC-3 is 16 bits
 - □ In MIPS it is 32 bits
- Temporary storage: Registers
 - E.g., to calculate (A+B)*C, the intermediate result of A+B is stored in a register

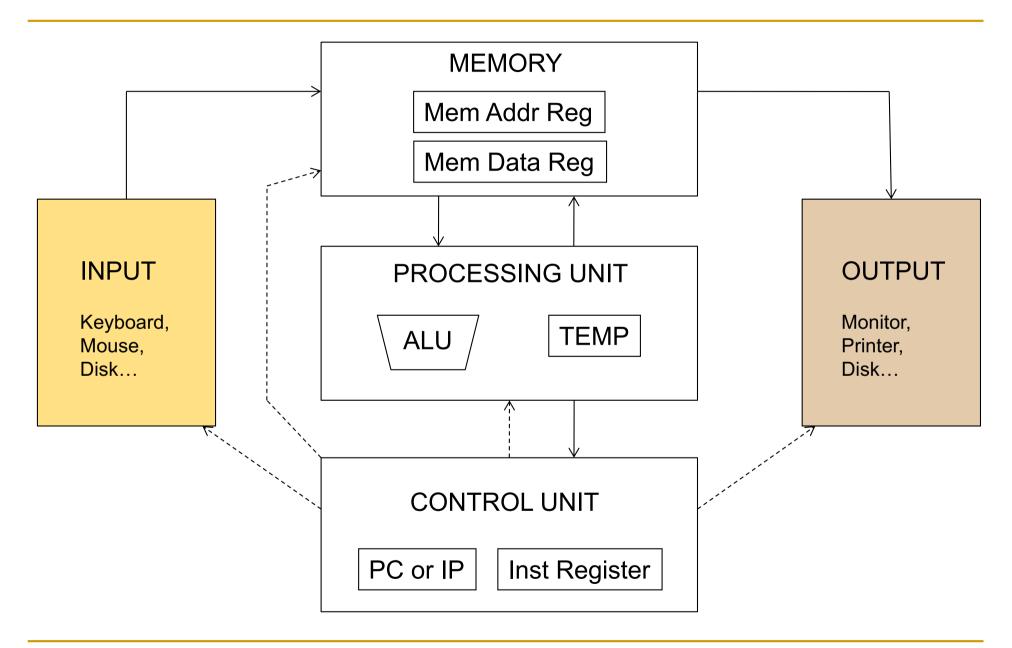
Registers

Memory is big but slow

- Registers
 - Ensure fast access to operands
 - Typically one register contains one word
- Register set or file
 - LC-3 has 8 general purpose registers (GPR)
 - R0 to R7: 3-bit register number
 - Register size = Word length = 16 bits
 - MIPS has 32 registers
 - Register size = Word length = 32 bits

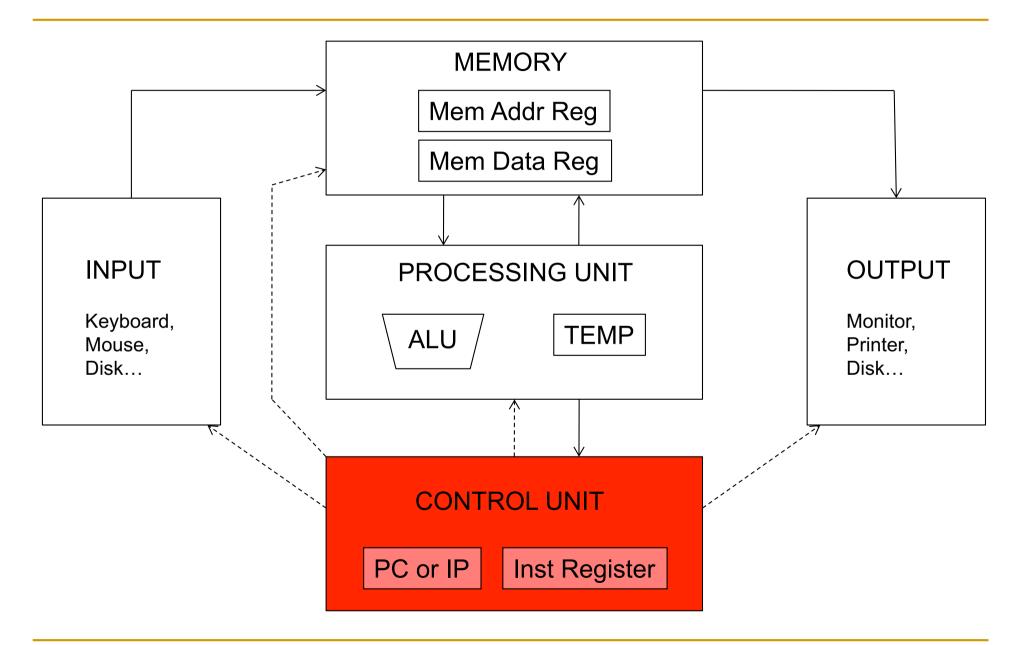
MIPS Register File

Name	Register Number	Usage
\$0	0	the constant value 0
\$at	1	assembler temporary
\$v0-\$v1	2-3	function return value
\$a0 - \$a3	4-7	function arguments
\$t0-\$t7	8-15	temporary variables
\$s0 - \$s7	16-23	saved variables
\$t8-\$t9	24-25	temporary variables
\$k0-\$k1	26-27	OS temporaries
\$gp	28	global pointer
\$sp	29	stack pointer
\$fp	30	frame pointer
\$ra	31	function return address



Input and Output

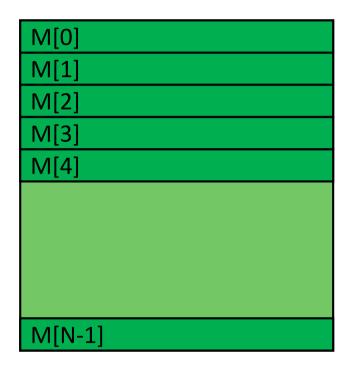
- Many devices can be used for input and output
- They are called peripherals
 - Input
 - Keyboard
 - Mouse
 - Scanner
 - Disks
 - Etc.
 - Output
 - Monitor
 - Printer
 - Disks
 - Etc.
 - In LC-3, we consider keyboard and monitor



Control Unit

- The control unit is the conductor of the orchestra
- It conducts the step-by-step process of executing a program
- It keeps track of the instruction being executed with an instruction register (IR), which contains the instruction
- Another register contains the address of the next instruction to execute. It is called program counter (PC) or instruction pointer (IP)

Programmer Visible (Architectural) State



Memory

array of storage locations indexed by an address



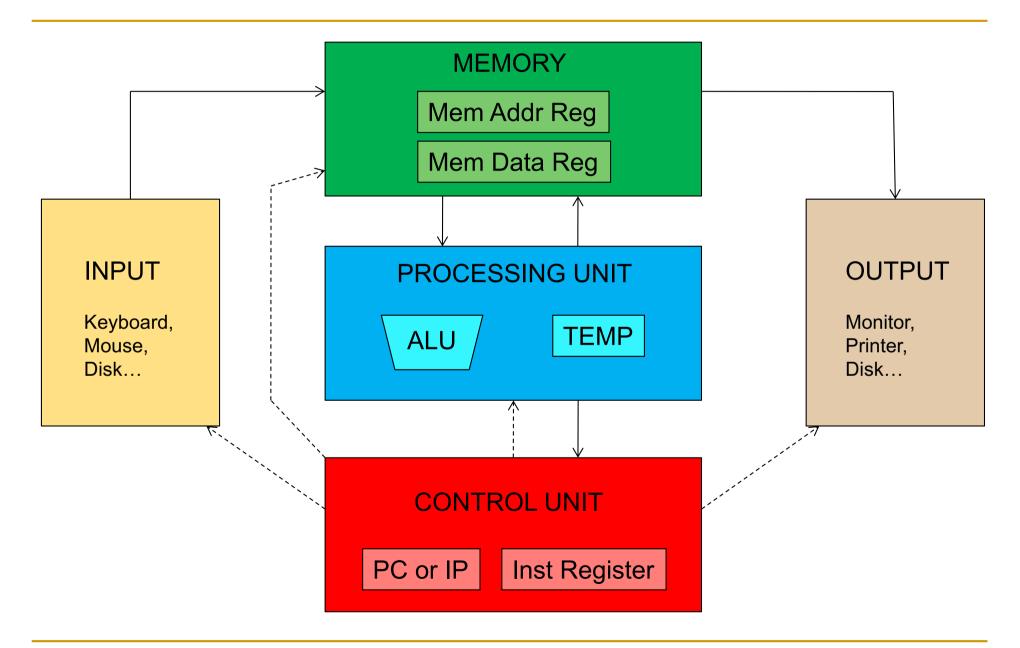
Registers

- given special names in the ISA (as opposed to addresses)
- general vs. special purpose

Program Counter

memory address of the current instruction

Instructions (and programs) specify how to transform the values of programmer visible state



LC-3: A Von Neumann Machine

LC-3: A Von Neumann Machine

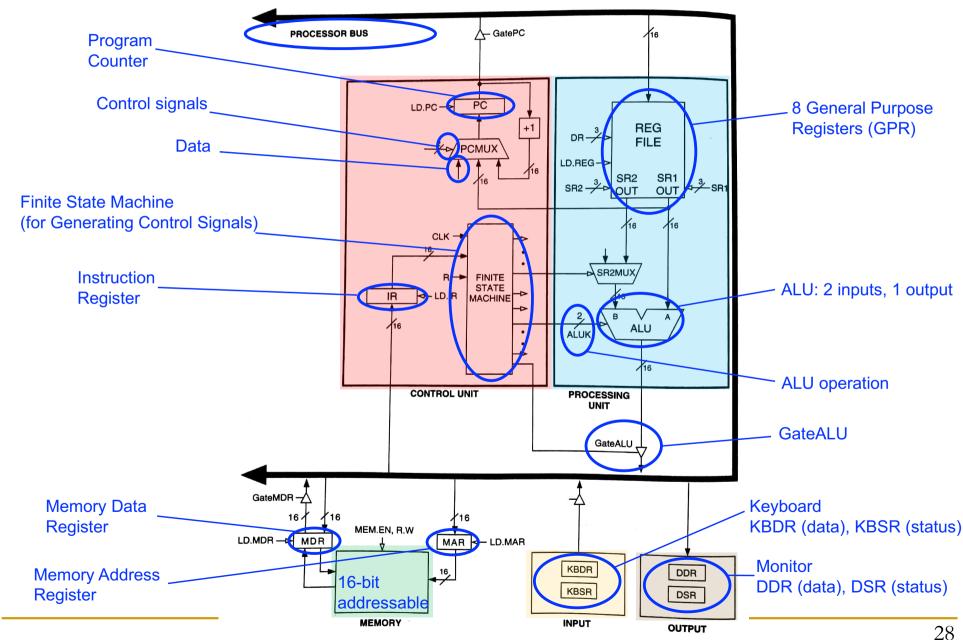


Figure 4.3 The LC-3 as an example of the von Neumann model

Stored Program & Sequential Execution

- Instructions and data are stored in memory
 - Typically the instruction length is the word length
- The processor fetches instructions from memory sequentially
 - Fetches one instruction
 - Decodes and executes the instruction
 - Continues with the next instruction
- The address of the current instruction is stored in the program counter (PC)
 - If word-addressable memory, the processor increments the PC by 1 (in LC-3)
 - If byte-addressable memory, the processor increments the PC by the word length (4 in MIPS)
 - In MIPS the OS typically sets the PC to 0×00400000

A Sample Program Stored in Memory

A sample MIPS program

- 4 instructions stored in consecutive words in memory
 - No need to understand the program now. We will get back to it

MIPS assembly

lw	\$t2,	32(\$0)
add	\$s0,	\$s1, \$s2
addi	\$t0,	\$s3, -12
sub	\$t0,	\$t3, \$t5

Machine code

0x8C0A0020	
0x02328020	
0x2268FFF4	
0x016D4022	

Address	Instructions	1
0040000C	016D4022	
00400008	2268FFF4	
00400004	02328020	
00400000	8 C 0 A 0 0 2 0	← PC
	• • •	

The Instruction

- An instruction the most basic unit of computer processing
 - Instructions are words in the language of a computer
 - Instruction Set Architecture (ISA) is the vocabulary
- The language of the computer can be written as
 - Machine language: Computer-readable representation (that is, 0's and 1's)
 - Assembly language: Human-readable representation
- We learn LC-3 instructions and MIPS instructions
- Let us start with some examples of instructions

Instruction Types

- There are three main types of instructions
- Operate instructions
 - Execute instructions in the ALU
- Data movement instructions
 - Read from or write to memory
- Control flow instructions
 - Change the sequence of execution

An Example of Operate Instruction

Addition

High-level code

$$a = b + c;$$

- add: mnemonic to indicate the operation to perform
- b, c: source operands
- a: destination operand
- $a \leftarrow b + c$

Registers

We map variables to registers

Assembly

add a, b, c

LC-3 registers

$$b = R1$$

c = R2

a = R0

MIPS registers

$$b = \$s1$$

c = \$s2

a = \$s0

From Assembly to Machine Code in LC-3

Addition

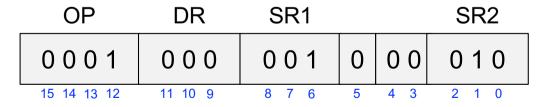
LC-3 assembly

ADD R0, R1, R2

Field Values

OP	DR	SR1			SR2
1	0	1	0	00	2

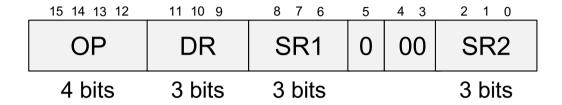
Machine Code



0x1042

Instruction Format or Encoding

■ LC-3



- OP = opcode (what the instruction does)
 - E.g., ADD = 0001
 - □ DR ← SR1 + SR2
 - E.g., AND = 0101
 - □ DR ← SR1 AND SR2
- □ SR1, SR2 = source registers
- DR = destination register

From Assembly to Machine Code in MIPS

Addition

MIPS assembly

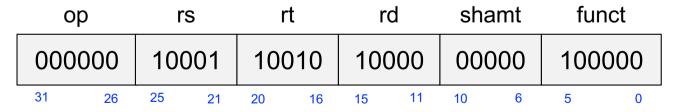
add \$s0, \$s1, \$s2

Field Values

ор	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
0	17	18	16	0	32

$$rd \leftarrow rs + rt$$

Machine Code



0x02328020

Instruction Formats: R-Type in MIPS

- R-type
 - 3 register operands
- MIPS

0	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	6 bits

- \bigcirc 0 = opcode
- rs, rt = source registers
- □ rd = destination register
- shamt = shift amount (only shift operations)
- funct = operation in R-type instructions

Reading Operands from Memory

- With the operate instructions, such as addition, we tell the computer to execute arithmetic (or logic) computations in the ALU
- We also need instructions to access the operands from memory
- Next, we see how to read (or load) from memory
- Writing (or storing) is performed in a similar way, but we will talk about that later

Reading Word-Addressable Memory

Load word

High-level code

Assembly

$$a = A[i];$$

load a, A, i

- load: mnemonic to indicate the load word operation
- A: base address
- □ i: offset
 - E.g., immediate or literal (a constant)
- a: destination operand
- \Box a \leftarrow Memory[A + i]

Load Word in LC-3 and MIPS

LC-3 assembly

High-level code

$$a = A[2];$$

LC-3 assembly

$$R3 \leftarrow Memory[R0 + 2]$$

MIPS assembly

High-level code

$$a = A[2];$$

MIPS assembly

$$$s3 \leftarrow Memory[$s0 + 2]$$

These instructions use a particular addressing mode (i.e., the way the address is calculated), called base+offset

Load Word in Byte-Addressable MIPS

MIPS assembly

High-level code

$$a = A[2];$$

MIPS assembly

```
lw $s3, 8($s0)
$s3 ← Memory[$s0 + 8]
```

- Byte address is calculated as: word_address * bytes/word
 - 4 bytes/word in MIPS
 - □ If LC-3 were byte-addressable (i.e., LC-3b), 2 bytes/word

Instruction Format With Immediate

■ LC-3

LC-3 assembly

LDR R3, R0, #4

Field Values

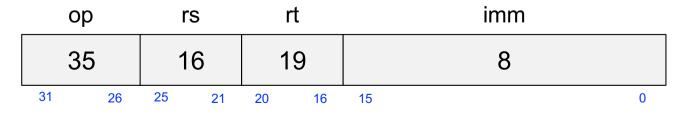
0	P	D	R	Bas	seR		offset6	
6	6	3	3	()		4	
15	12	11	9	8	6	5		0

MIPS

MIPS assembly

lw \$s3, 8(\$s0)

Field Values



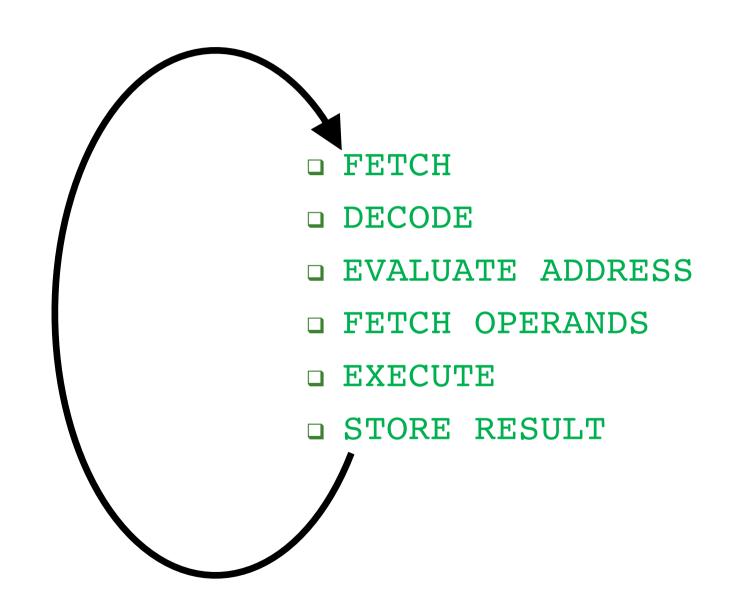
How are these Instructions Executed?

- By using instructions we can speak the language of the computer
- Thus, we now know how to tell the computer to
 - Execute computations in the ALU by using, for instance, an addition
 - Access operands from memory by using the load word instruction
- But, how are these instructions executed on the computer?
 - The process of executing an instruction is called is the instruction cycle

The Instruction Cycle

- The instruction cycle is a sequence of steps or phases, that an instruction goes through to be executed
 - □ FETCH
 - DECODE
 - □ EVALUATE ADDRESS
 - □ FETCH OPERANDS
 - EXECUTE
 - □ STORE RESULT
- Not all instructions have the six phases
 - LDR does not require EXECUTE
 - ADD does not require EVALUATE ADDRESS
 - Intel x86 instruction ADD [eax], edx is an example of instruction with six phases

After STORE RESULT, a New FETCH



FETCH

- The FETCH phase obtains the instruction from memory and loads it into the instruction register
- This phase is common to every instruction type
- Complete description
 - Step 1: Load the MAR with the contents of the PC, and simultaneously increment the PC
 - Step 2: Interrogate memory. This results the instruction to be placed in the MDR
 - Step 3: Load the IR with the contents of the MDR

FETCH in LC-3

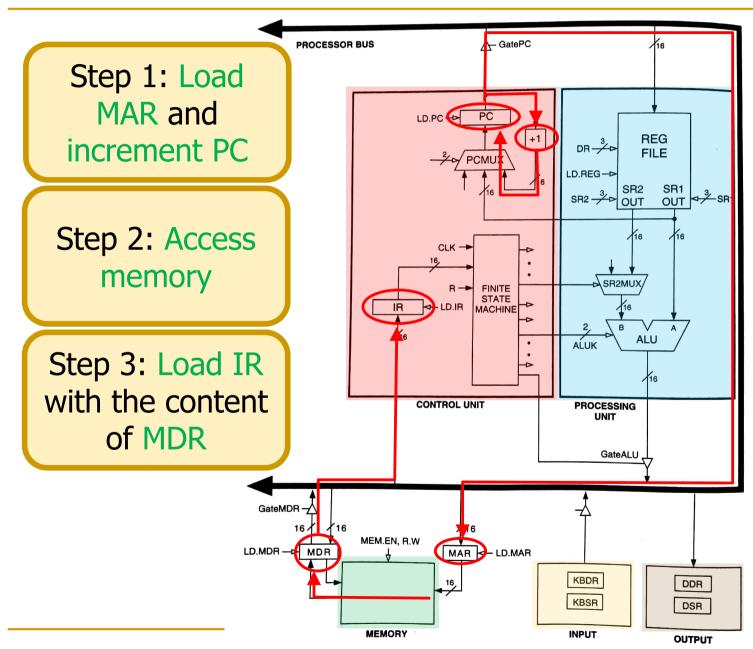


Figure 4.3 The LC-3 as an example of the von Neumann model

DECODE

- The DECODE phase identifies the instruction
- Recall the decoder (Lecture 6, Slides 26-27)
 - A 4-to-16 decoder identifies which of the 16 opcodes is going to be processed
- The input is the four bits IR[15:12]
- The remaining 12 bits identify what else is needed to process the instruction

DECODE in LC-3

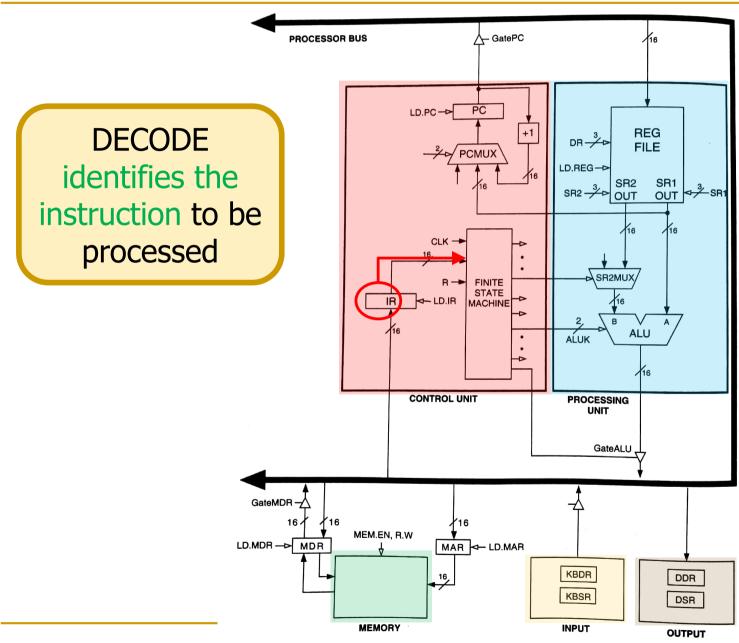


Figure 4.3 The LC-3 as an example of the von Neumann model

EVALUATE ADDRESS

- The EVALUATE ADDRESS phase computes the address of the memory location that is needed to process the instruction
- This phase is necessary in LDR
 - It computes the address of the data word that is to be read from memory
 - By adding an offset to the content of a register
- But not necessary in ADD

EVALUATE ADDRESS in LC-3

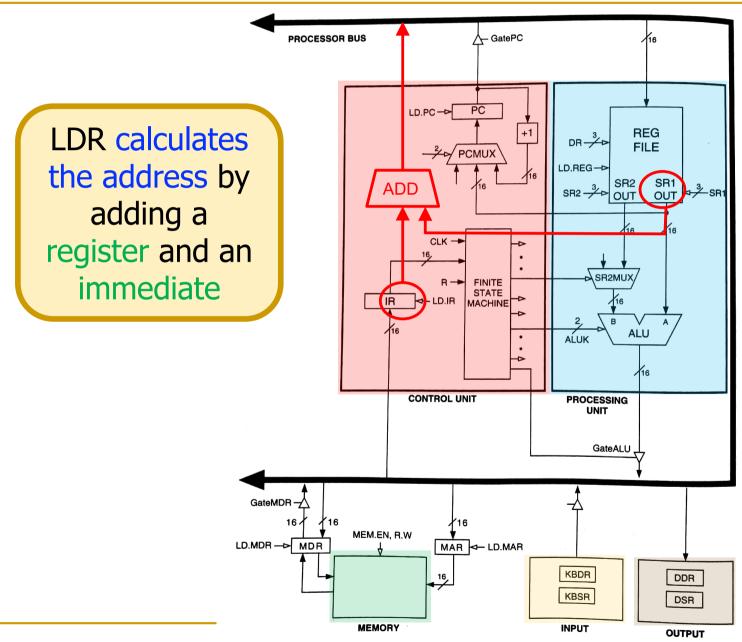


Figure 4.3 The LC-3 as an example of the von Neumann model

FETCH OPERANDS

 The FETCH OPERANDS phase obtains the source operands needed to process the instruction

In LDR

- Step 1: Load MAR with the address calculated in EVALUATE ADDRESS
- Step 2: Read memory, placing source operand in MDR
- In ADD
 - Obtain the source operands from the register file
 - In most current microprocessors, this phase can be done at the same time the instruction is being decoded

FETCH OPERANDS in LC-3

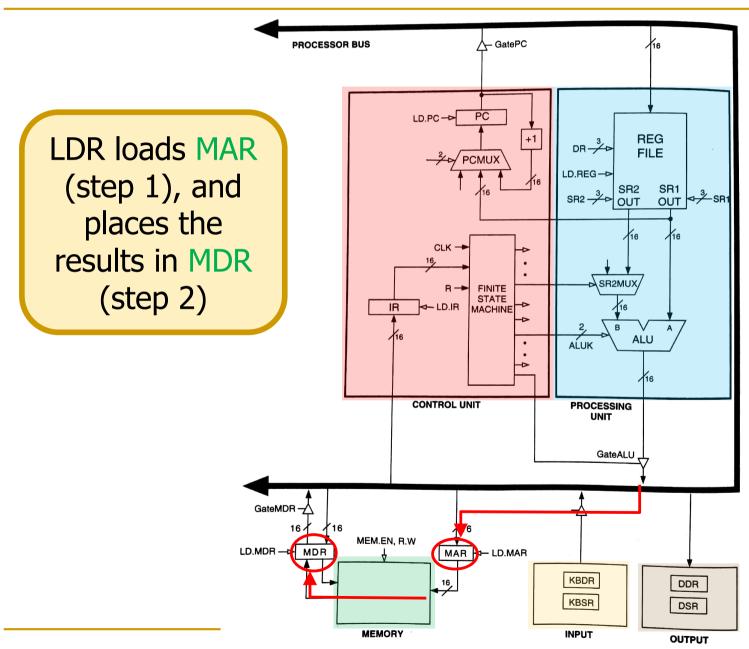


Figure 4.3 The LC-3 as an example of the von Neumann model

EXECUTE

- The EXECUTE phase executes the instruction
 - In ADD, it performs addition in the ALU

EXECUTE in LC-3

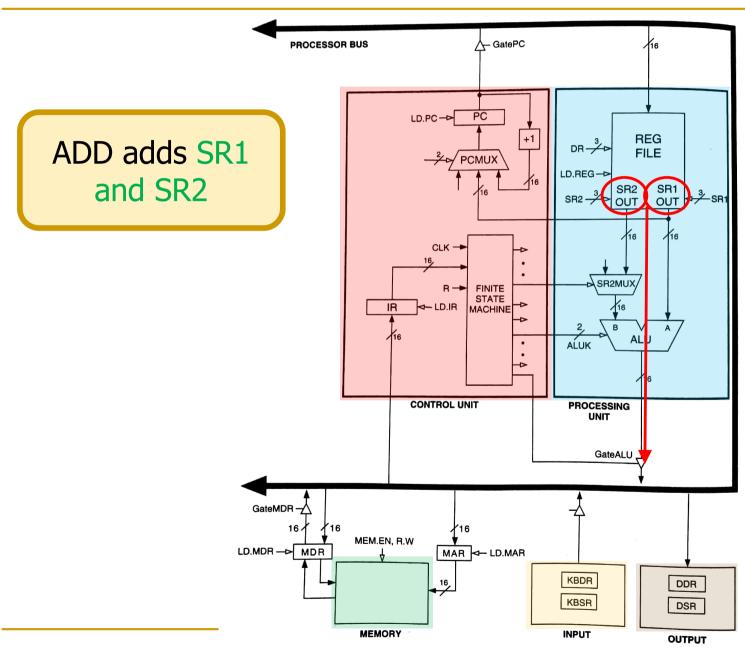


Figure 4.3 The LC-3 as an example of the von Neumann model

STORE RESULT

The STORE RESULT phase writes to the designated destination

 Once STORE RESULT is completed, a new instruction cycle starts (with the FETCH phase)

STORE RESULT in LC-3

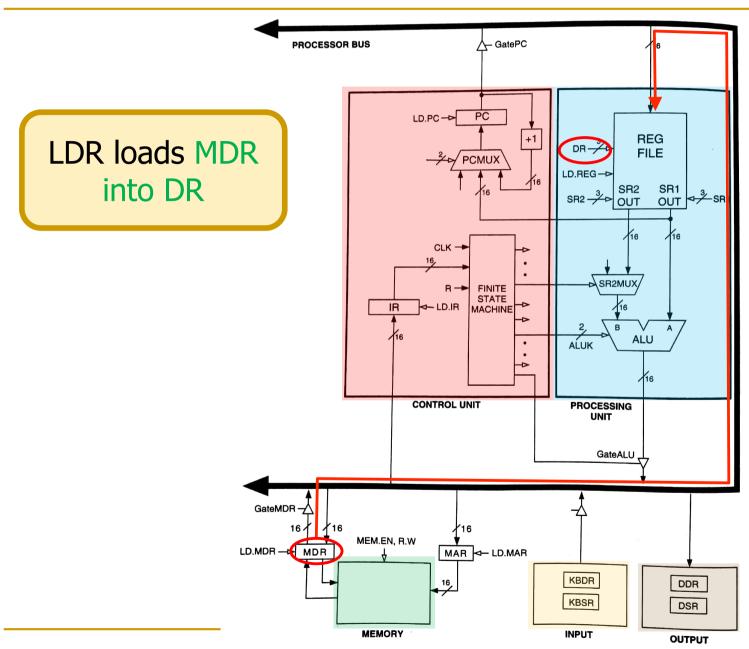
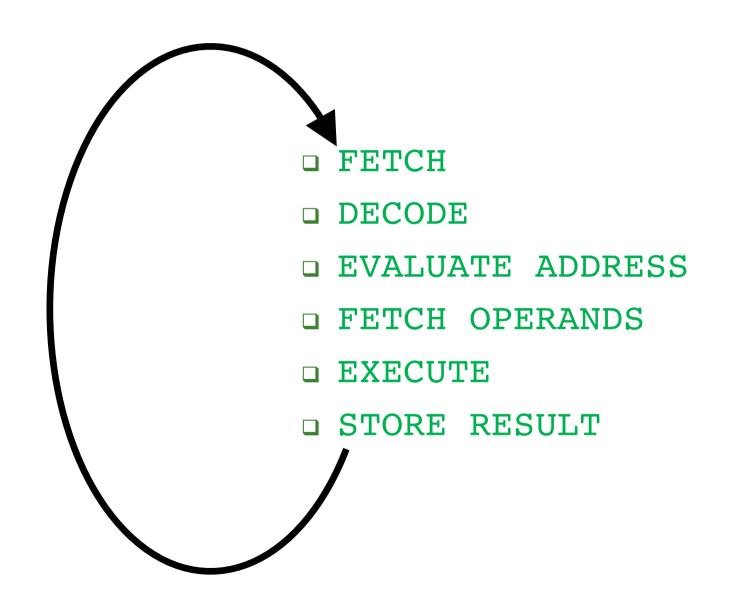


Figure 4.3 The LC-3 as an example of the von Neumann model

The Instruction Cycle



Changing the Sequence of Execution

- A computer program executes in sequence (i.e., in program order)
 - First instruction, second instruction, third instruction and so on
- Unless we change the sequence of execution
- Control instructions allow a program to execute out of sequence
 - They can change the PC by loading it during the EXECUTE phase
 - That wipes out the incremented PC (loaded during the FETCH phase)

Jump in LC-3

- Unconditional branch or jump
- LC-3

JMP R2

1100	000	BaseR	000000
4 bits		3 bits	

- BaseR = Base register
- □ PC ← R2 (Register identified by BaseR)

This is register addressing mode

- Variations
 - RET: special case of JMP where BaseR = R7
 - JSR, JSRR: jump to subroutine

Jump in MIPS

- Unconditional branch or jump
- MIPS

j	target	
---	--------	--

2	target
6 bits	26 bits

- \square 2 = opcode
- target = target address
- □ $PC \leftarrow PC^{\dagger}[31:28] \mid sign-extend(target) * 4$
- Variations
 - jal: jump and link (function calls)
 - jr: jump register

jr \$s0

j uses pseudodirect addressing mode

jr uses register addressing mode

LC-3 Data Path

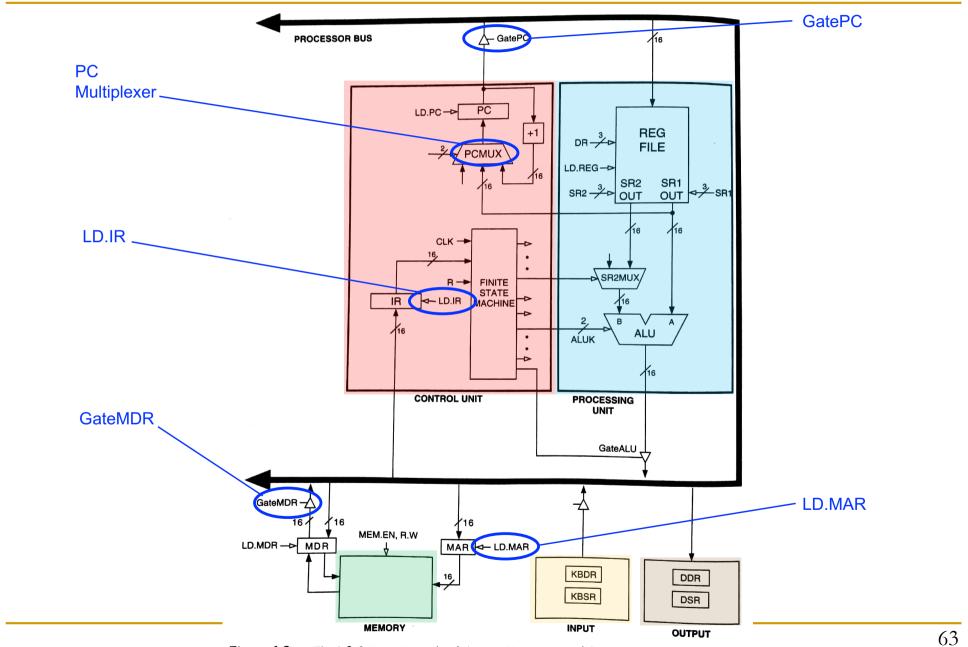


Figure 4.3 The LC-3 as an example of the von Neumann model

Control of the Instruction Cycle

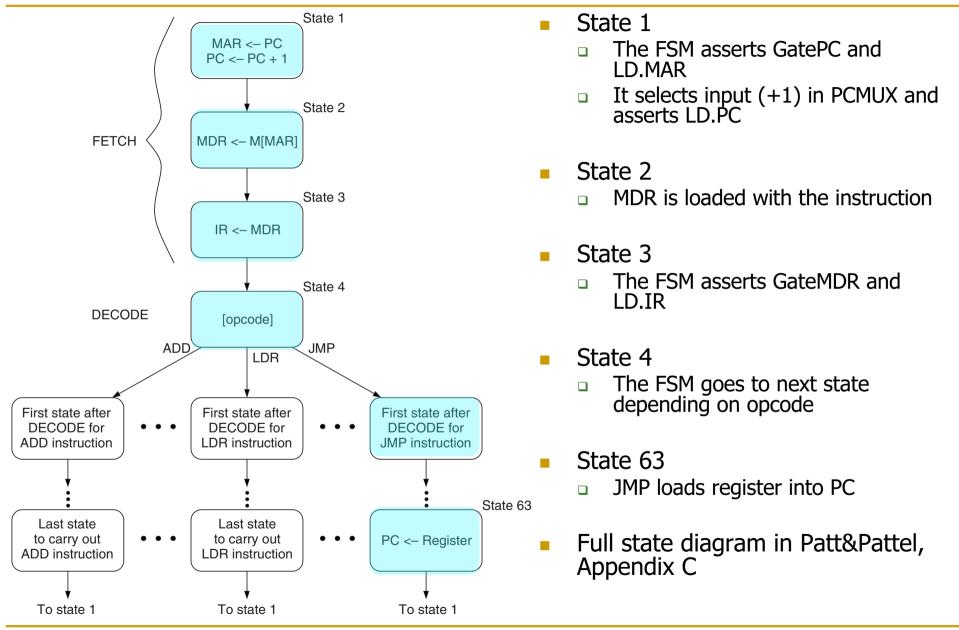
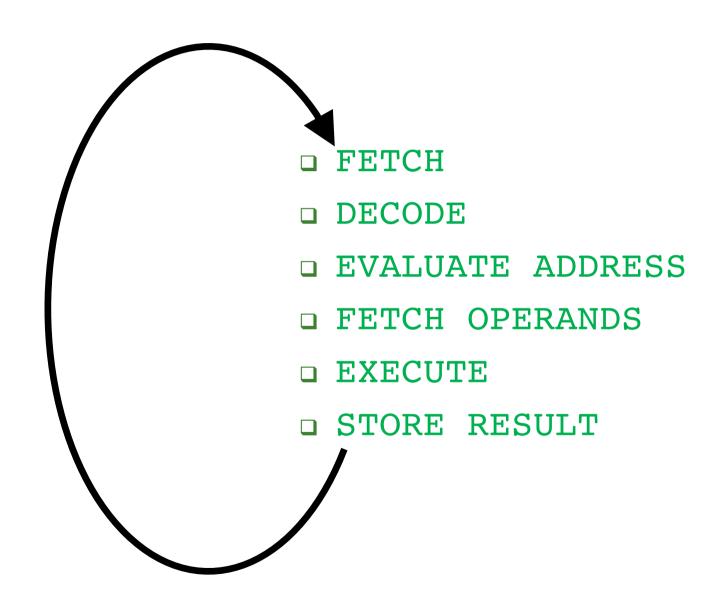


Figure 4.4 An abbreviated state diagram of the LC-3

The Instruction Cycle



LC-3 and MIPS Instruction Set Architectures

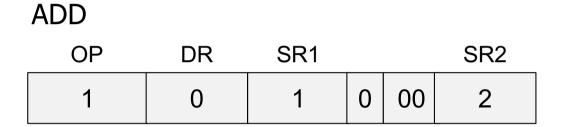
The Instruction Set Architecture

- The ISA is the interface between what the software commands and what the hardware carries out
- The ISA specifies
 - The memory organization
 - Address space (LC-3: 2¹⁶, MIPS: 2³²)
 - Addressability (LC-3: 16 bits, MIPS: 32 bits)
 - Word- or Byte-addressable
 - The register set
 - R0 to R7 in LC-3
 - 32 registers in MIPS
 - The instruction set
 - Opcodes
 - Data types
 - Addressing modes

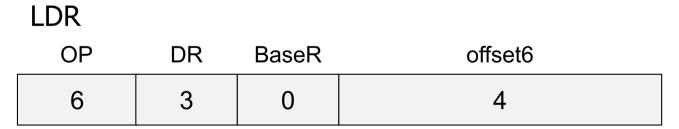
Problem
Algorithm
Program
ISA
Microarchitecture
Circuits
Electrons

The Instruction Set

- It defines opcodes, data types, and addressing modes
- ADD and LDR have been our first examples



Register mode



Base+offset mode

Opcodes

- Large or small sets of opcodes could be defined
 - □ E.g, HP Precision Architecture: an instruction for A*B+C
 - E.g, x86: multimedia extensions
 - E.g, VAX: opcode to save all information of one program prior to switching to another program
- Tradeoffs are involved
 - Hardware complexity vs. software complexity
- In LC-3 and in MIPS there are three types of opcodes
 - Operate
 - Data movement
 - Control

Opcodes in LC-3

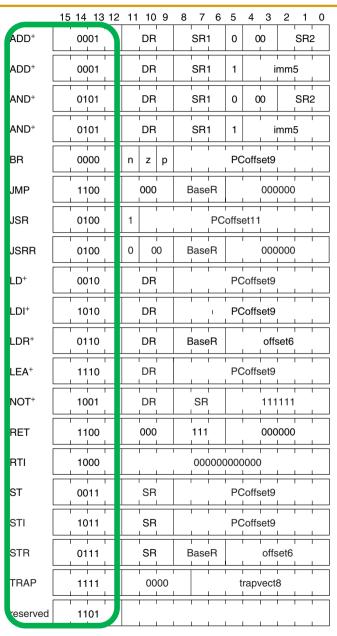
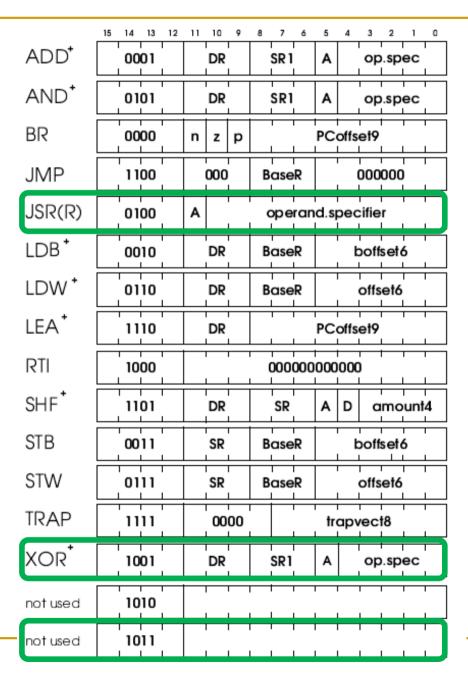


Figure 5.3 Formats of the entire LC-3 instruction set. NOTE: ⁺ indicates instructions that modify condition codes

Opcodes in LC-3b



Funct in MIPS R-Type Instructions (I)

Table B.2 R-type instructions, sorted by funct field

Opcode is 0
in MIPS RType
instructions.
Funct defines
the operation

Funct	Name	Description	Operation
000000 (0)	sll rd, rt, shamt	shift left logical	[rd] = [rt] << shamt
000010 (2)	srl rd, rt, shamt	shift right logical	[rd] = [rt] >> shamt
000011 (3)	sra rd, rt, shamt	shift right arithmetic	[rd] = [rt] >>> shamt
000100 (4)	sllv rd, rt, rs	shift left logical variable	[rd] = [rt] << [rs] _{4:0}
000110 (6)	srlv rd, rt, rs	shift right logical variable	[rd] = [rt] >> [rs] _{4:0}
000111 (7)	srav rd, rt, rs	shift right arithmetic variable	[rd] = [rt] >>> [rs] _{4:0}
001000 (8)	jr rs	jump register	PC = [rs]
001001 (9)	jalr rs	jump and link register	<pre>\$ra = PC + 4, PC = [rs]</pre>
001100 (12)	syscall	system call	system call exception
001101 (13)	break	break	break exception
010000 (16)	mfhi rd	move from hi	[rd] = [hi]
010001 (17)	mthi rs	move to hi	[hi] = [rs]
010010 (18)	mflo rd	move from lo	[rd] = [lo]
010011 (19)	mtlo rs	move to lo	[]o] = [rs]
011000 (24)	mult rs, rt	multiply	{[hi],[]o]} = [rs] × [rt]
011001 (25)	multurs,rt	multiply unsigned	{[hi],[]o]} = [rs] × [rt]
011010 (26)	div rs, rt	divide	[lo] = [rs]/[rt], [hi] = [rs]%[rt]
011011 (27)	divu rs, rt	divide unsigned	[lo] = [rs]/[rt], [hi] = [rs]%[rt]

(continued)

Funct in MIPS R-Type Instructions (II)

Table B.2 R-type instructions, sorted by funct field—Cont'd

Funct	Name	Description	Operation
100000 (32)	add rd, rs, rt	add	[rd] = [rs] + [rt]
100001 (33)	addu rd, rs, rt	add unsigned	[rd] = [rs] + [rt]
100010 (34)	sub rd, rs, rt	subtract	[rd] = [rs] - [rt]
100011 (35)	subu rd, rs, rt	subtract unsigned	[rd] = [rs] - [rt]
100100 (36)	and rd, rs, rt	and	[rd] = [rs] & [rt]
100101 (37)	or rd, rs, rt	or	[rd] = [rs] [rt]
100110 (38)	xor rd, rs, rt	xor	[rd] = [rs] ^ [rt]
100111 (39)	nor rd, rs, rt	nor	[rd] = ~([rs] [rt])
101010 (42)	slt rd, rs, rt	set less than	[rs] < [rt] ? [rd] = 1 : [rd] = 0
101011 (43)	sltu rd, rs, rt	set less than unsigned	[rs] < [rt] ? [rd] = 1 : [rd] = 0

Find the complete list of instructions in the appendix

Data Types

- An ISA supports one or several data types
- LC-3 only supports 2's complement integers
- MIPS supports
 - 2's complement integers
 - Unsigned integers
 - Floating point
- Again, tradeoffs are involved

Data Type Tradeoffs

- What is the benefit of having more or high-level data types in the ISA?
- What is the disadvantage?
- Think compiler/programmer vs. microarchitect
- Concept of semantic gap
 - Data types coupled tightly to the semantic level, or complexity of instructions
- Example: Early RISC architectures vs. Intel 432
 - Early RISC (e.g., MIPS): Only integer data type
 - Intel 432: Object data type, capability based machine

Addressing Modes

- An addressing mode is a mechanism for specifying where an operand is located
- There five addressing modes in LC-3
 - Immediate or literal (constant)
 - The operand is in some bits of the instruction
 - Register
 - The operand is in one of R0 to R7 registers
 - Three of them are memory addressing modes
 - PC-relative
 - Indirect
 - Base+offset
- In addition, MIPS has pseudo-direct addressing (for j and jal), but does not have indirect addressing

Operate Instructions

Operate Instructions

- In LC-3, there are three operate instructions
 - NOT is a unary operation (one source operand)
 - It executes bitwise NOT
 - ADD and AND are binary operations (two source operands)
 - ADD is 2's complement addition
 - AND is bitwise SR1 & SR2
- In MIPS, there are many more
 - Most of R-type instructions (they are binary operations)
 - E.g., add, and, nor, xor...
 - I-type versions of the R-type operate instructions
 - F-type operations, i.e., floating-point operations

NOT in LC-3

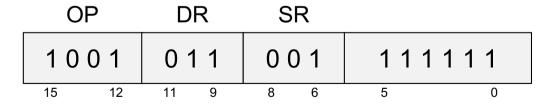
NOT assembly and machine code
 LC-3 assembly

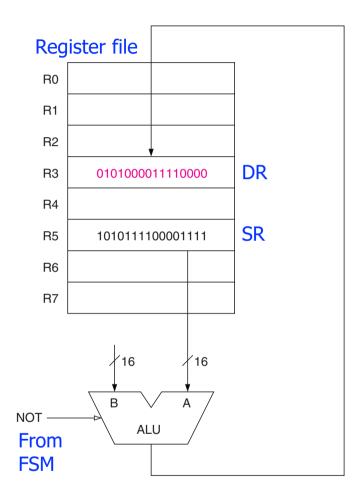
NOT R3, R5

Field Values

OP	DR	SR	
9	3	5	111111

Machine Code





There is no NOT in MIPS. How is it implemented?

Operate Instructions

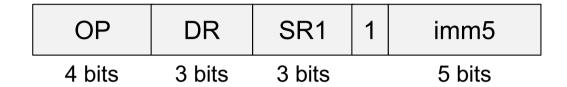
- We are already familiar with LC-3's ADD and AND with register mode (R-type in MIPS)
- Now let us see the versions with one literal (i.e., immediate) operand
- Subtraction is another necessary operation
 - How is it implemented in LC-3 and MIPS?

We did not cover the following slides in lecture.

These are for your preparation for the next lecture

Operate Instr. with one Literal in LC-3

ADD and AND



- □ OP = operation
 - E.g., ADD = 0001 (same OP as the register-mode ADD)
 □ DR ← SR1 + sign-extend(imm5)
 - E.g., AND = 0101 (same OP as the register-mode AND)
 □ DR ← SR1 AND sign-extend(imm5)
- □ SR1 = source register
- DR = destination register
- imm5 = Literal or immediate (sign-extend to 16 bits)

ADD with one Literal in LC-3

ADD assembly and machine code

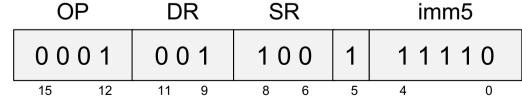


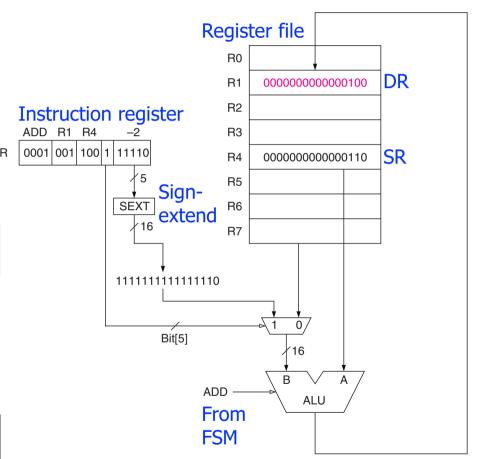
ADD R1, R4, #-2

Field Values

OP	DR	SR		imm5		
1	1	4	1	-2		

Machine Code





Instructions with one Literal in MIPS

- I-type
 - 2 register operands and immediate
- Some operate and data movement instructions

opcode	rs	rt	imm
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	16 bits

- opcode = operation
- rs = source register
- □ rt =
 - destination register in some instructions (e.g., addi, lw)
 - source register in others (e.g., sw)
- □ imm = Literal or immediate

Add with one Literal in MIPS

Add immediate

MIPS assembly

addi \$s0, \$s1, 5

Field Values

op	rs	rt	imm
0	17	16	5

 $rt \leftarrow rs + sign-extend(imm)$

Machine Code

 op
 rs
 rt
 imm

 001000
 10001
 10010
 0000 0000 0000 0101

0x22300005

Subtract in LC-3

MIPS assembly

High-level code

$$a = b + c - d;$$

MIPS assembly

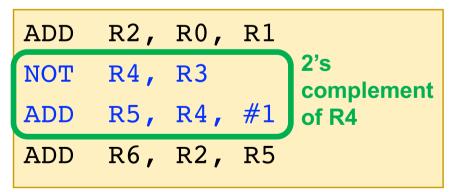
LC-3 assembly

High-level code

$$a = b + c - d;$$

- Tradeoff in LC-3
 - More instructions
 - But, simpler control logic

LC-3 assembly

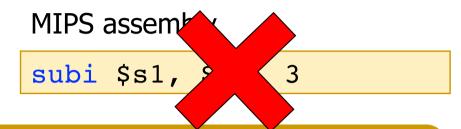


Subtract Immediate

MIPS assembly

High-level code

$$a = b - 3;$$



Is subi necessary in MIPS?

MIPS assembly

addi \$s1, \$s0, -3

LC-3

High-level code

$$a = b - 3;$$

LC-3 assembly

ADD R1, R0, #-3

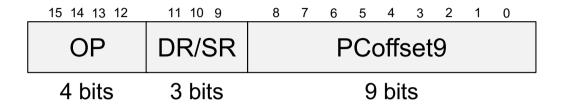
Data Movement Instructions and Addressing Modes

Data Movement Instructions

- In LC-3 there are seven data movement instructions
 - □ LD, LDR, LDI, LEA, ST, STR, STI
- Format of load and store instructions
 - Opcode (bits [15:12])
 - DR or SR (bits [11:9])
 - Address generation bits (bits [8:0])
 - Four ways to interpret bits, called addressing modes
 - PC-Relative Mode
 - Indirect Mode
 - Base+offset Mode
 - Immediate Mode
- In MIPS there are only Base+offset and immediate modes for load and store instructions

PC-Relative Addressing Mode

LD (Load) and ST (Store)



- □ OP = opcode
 - E.g., LD = 0010
 - E.g., ST = 0011
- DR = destination register in LD
- SR = source register in ST
- □ LD: DR ← Memory[PC[†] + sign-extend(PCoffset9)]
- ST: Memory[PC[†] + sign-extend(PCoffset9)] ← SR

LD in LC-3

LD assembly and machine code

LC-3 assembly

LD R2, 0x1AF

Field Values

OP DR PCoffset9

2 2 0x1AF

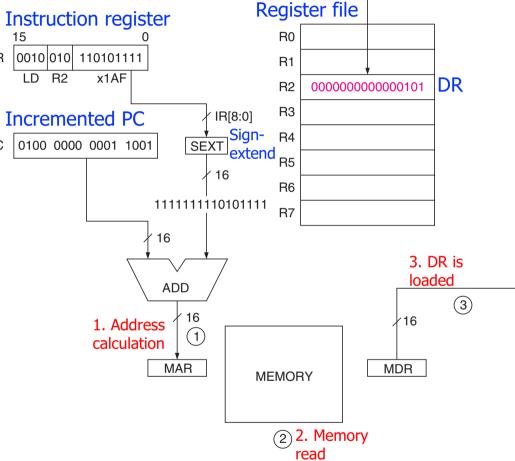
Machine Code

OP DR PCoffset9

 0 0 1 0
 0 1 0
 1 1 0 1 0 1 1 1 1

 15
 12
 11
 9
 8
 0

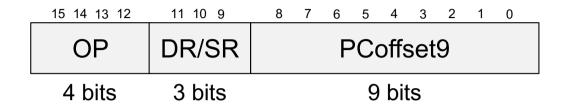
The memory address is only +256 to -255 locations away of the LD or ST instruction



Limitation: The PC-relative addressing mode cannot address far away from the instruction

Indirect Addressing Mode

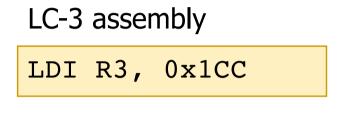
LDI (Load Indirect) and STI (Store Indirect)



- □ OP = opcode
 - E.g., LDI = 1010
 - E.g., STI = 1011
- DR = destination register in LDI
- □ SR = source register in STI
- □ LDI: DR ← Memory[Memory[PC[†] + sign-extend(PCoffset9)]]
- STI: Memory[Memory[PC[†] + sign-extend(PCoffset9)]] ← SR

LDI in LC-3

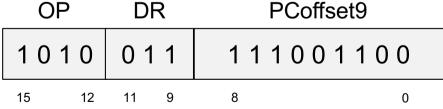
LDI assembly and machine code

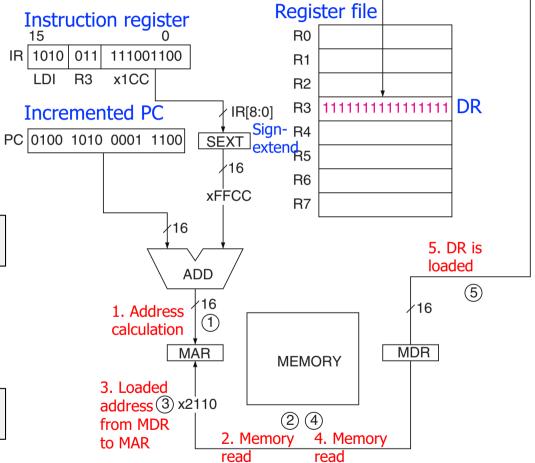


Field Values



Machine Code

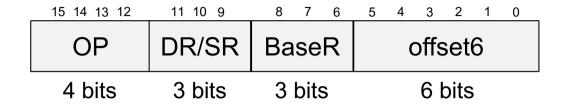




Now the address of the operand can be anywhere in the memory

Base+Offset Addressing Mode

LDR (Load Register) and STR (Store Register)



- \Box OP = opcode
 - E.g., LDR = 0110
 - E.g., STR = 0111
- DR = destination register in LDR
- SR = source register in STR
- □ LDR: DR ← Memory[BaseR + sign-extend(offset6)]
- □ STR: Memory[BaseR + sign-extend(offset6)] ← SR

LDR in LC-3

LDR assembly and machine code

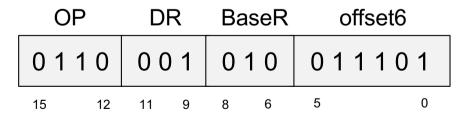
LC-3 assembly

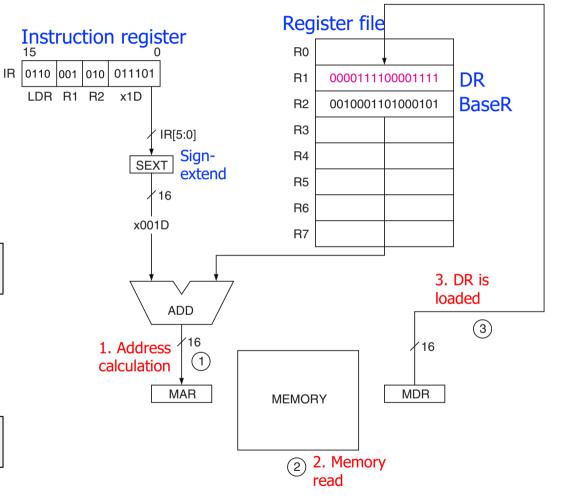
LDR R1, R2, 0x1D

Field Values

_	OP	DR	BaseR	offset6
	6	1	2	0x1D

Machine Code





The address of the operand can also be anywhere in the memory

Base+Offset Addressing Mode in MIPS

 In MIPS, lw and sw use base+offset mode (or base addressing mode)

High-level code

$$A[2] = a;$$

MIPS assembly

Memory[
$$\$$$
s0 + 8] \leftarrow $\$$ s3

Field Values

ор	rs	rt	imm						
43	16	19	8						

imm is the 16-bit offset, which is sign-extended to 32 bits

An Example Program in MIPS and LC-3

High-level code

```
a = A[0];
c = a + b - 5;
B[0] = c;
```

MIPS registers LC-3 registers

MIPS assembly

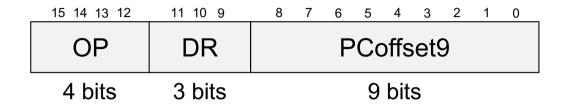
```
lw $t0, 0($s0)
add $t1, $t0, $s2
addi $t2, $t1, -5
sw $t2, 0($s1)
```

LC-3 assembly

```
LDR R5, R0, #0
ADD R6, R5, R2
ADD R7, R6, #-5
STR R7, R1, #0
```

Immediate Addressing Mode

LEA (Load Effective Address)



- □ OP = 1110
- DR = destination register
- □ LEA: DR \leftarrow PC[†] + sign-extend(PCoffset9)

What is the difference from PC-Relative addressing mode?

Answer: Instructions with PC-Relative mode access memory, but LEA does not

LEA in LC-3

LEA assembly and machine code

LC-3 assembly

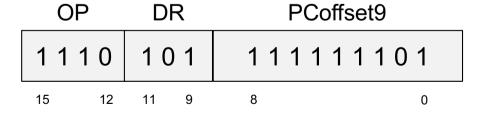
LEA R5, #-3

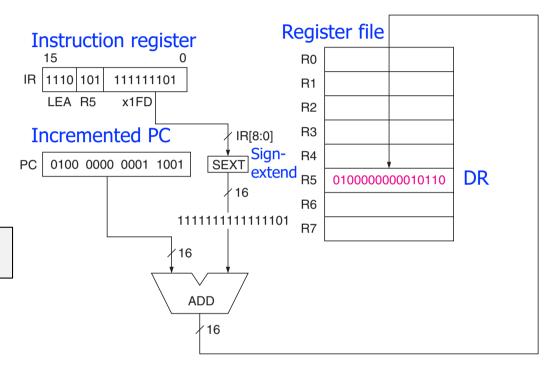
Field Values

OP DR PCoffset9

E 5 0x1FD

Machine Code





Immediate Addressing Mode in MIPS

- In MIPS, lui (load upper immediate) loads a 16-bit immediate into the upper half of a register and sets the lower half to 0
- It is used to assign 32-bit constants to a register

High-level code

```
a = 0x6d5e4f3c;
```

MIPS assembly

```
# $s0 = a
lui $s0, 0x6d5e
ori $s0, 0x4f3c
```

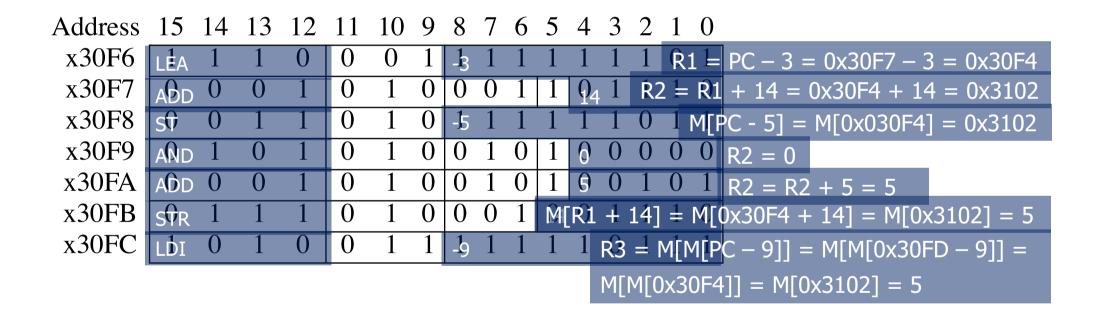
Addressing Example in LC-3

What is the final value of R3?

Address	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	
x30F6	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	R1<- PC-3
x30F7	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	R2<- R1+14
x30F8	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	M[x30F4] < - R2
x30F9	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	R2<- 0
x30FA	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	R2<- R2+5
x30FB	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	M[R1+14]<- R2
x30FC	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	R3 < - M[M[x30F4]]

Addressing Example in LC-3

What is the final value of R3?



The final value of R3 is 5

Control Flow Instructions

Control Flow Instructions

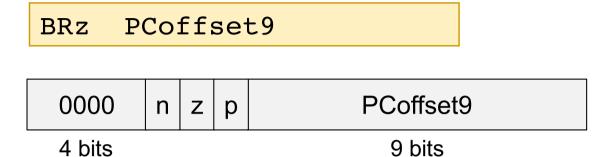
- Allow a program to execute out of sequence
- Conditional branches and jumps
 - Conditional branches are used to make decisions
 - E.g., if-else statement
 - In LC-3, three condition codes are used
 - Jumps are used to implement
 - Loops
 - Function calls
 - JMP in LC-3 and j in MIPS

Condition Codes in LC-3

- Each time one GPR (R0-R7) is written, three single-bit registers are updated
- Each of these condition codes are either set (set to 1) or cleared (set to 0)
 - If the written value is negative
 - N is set, Z and P are cleared
 - If the written value is zero
 - Z is set, N and P are cleared
 - If the written value is positive
 - P is set, N and P are cleared
- SPARC and x86 are examples of ISAs that use condition codes

Conditional Branches in LC-3

BRz



- \neg n, z, p = which N, Z, and/or P is tested
- PCoffset9 = immediate or constant value
- □ if ((n AND N) OR (p AND P) OR (z AND Z))
 - then $PC \leftarrow PC^{\dagger} + sign-extend(PCoffset9)$
- Variations: BRn, BRz, BRp, BRzp, BRnp, BRnz, BRnzp

Conditional Branches in LC-3

BRz **Program** 0100 0001 0000 0001 Counter 0100 0000 0010 1000 0x0D9 BRz Instruction register BR n z p PCoffset9 0000 0 1 0 011011001 SEXT Condition **∤**16 **∤**16 registers 000000011011001 0 0 What if n = z = p = 1? ADD (i.e., BRnzp) 16 And what if n = z = p = 0? Yes!

Conditional Branches in MIPS

Branch if equal

beq \$s0, \$s1, offset



- = 4 = opcode
- rs, rt = source registers
- offset = immediate or constant value
- if rs == rt
 then PC ← PC[†] + sign-extend(offset) * 4
- Variations: beq, bne, blez, bgtz

Branch If Equal in MIPS and LC-3

MIPS assembly

beq \$s0, \$s1, offset

LC-3 assembly

```
NOT R2, R1
ADD R3, R2, #1
ADD R4, R3, R0

BRz offset

Subtract (R0-R1)
```

- This is an example of tradeoff in the instruction set
 - The same functionality requires more instructions in LC-3
 - But, the control logic requires more complexity in MIPS

Lecture Summary

- The von Neumann model
 - □ LC-3: An example of von Neumann machine
- Instruction Set Architectures: LC-3 and MIPS
 - Operate instructions
 - Data movement instructions
 - Control instructions
- Instruction formats
- Addressing modes

Design of Digital Circuits

Lecture 9: Von Neumann Model, ISA, LC-3 and MIPS

Dr. Juan Gómez Luna Prof. Onur Mutlu ETH Zurich Spring 2018 22 March 2018