

**MK** COMPUTER ORGANIZATION AND DESIGN  
The Hardware/Software Interface 

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EECS 2021

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Computer Organization  
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Based on slides by the author and prof.  
Mary Jane Irwin of PSU.

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**Chapter Summary**

- Stored-program concept
- Assembly language
- Number representation
- Instruction representation
- Supporting procedures in hardware
- MIPS addressing
- Some real-world stuff
- Fallacies and Pitfalls

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**Stored-Program Concept**

- Program instructions are stored in the memory.
- Every cycle, an instruction is read from the memory (fetched).
- The instruction is examined to decide what to do (decode)
- Then we perform the operation stated in the instruction (execute)
- Fetch-Decode-Execute cycle.

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### Instruction Set

- The repertoire of instructions of a computer
- Different computers have different instruction sets
  - But with many aspects in common
- Early computers had very simple instruction sets
  - Simplified implementation
- Many modern computers also have simple instruction sets RISC vs. CISC



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### The MIPS Instruction Set

- Used as the example throughout the book
- Stanford MIPS commercialized by MIPS Technologies ([www.mips.com](http://www.mips.com))
- Large share of embedded core market
  - Applications in consumer electronics, network/storage equipment, cameras, printers, ...
- Typical of many modern ISAs
  - See MIPS Reference Data tear-out card, and Appendixes B and E



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### The Four Design Principles

1. Simplicity favors regularity.
2. Smaller is faster.
3. Make the common case fast.
4. Good design demands good compromises



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### Arithmetic Operations

- Add and subtract, three operands
  - Two sources and one destination  
add a, b, c # a gets b + c
- All arithmetic operations have this form
- **Design Principle 1: Simplicity favors regularity**
  - Regularity makes implementation simpler
  - Simplicity enables higher performance at lower cost

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### Arithmetic Example

- C code:  
f = (g + h) - (i + j);
- Compiled MIPS code: *(almost, this is not really assembly)*  

```
add t0, g, h # temp t0 = g + h
add t1, i, j # temp t1 = i + j
sub f, t0, t1 # f = t0 - t1
```

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### Register Operands

- Arithmetic instructions use **register operands**
- MIPS has a 32 **32-bit register file**
  - Use for frequently accessed data
  - Numbered 0 to 31
  - 32-bit data called a "word"
- Assembler names
  - \$t0, \$t1, ..., \$t9 for temporary values
  - \$s0, \$s1, ..., \$s7 for saved variables
- **Design Principle 2: Smaller is faster**
  - c.f. main memory: millions of locations

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## Memory Access

Another way to put it  
**Big Endian:** leftmost byte is word address  
**Little Endian:** rightmost byte is word address

**little endian**    **LSB**                    **MSB**

Bytes address    0   1   2   3

**big endian**                    **MSB**                    **LSB**

Alignment restriction: requires that objects fall on address that is multiple of their size

0   1   2   3

*Aligned*

*Not Aligned*

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32-bit integer    32-bit integer

Memory    OAOBOCOD    Memory    OAOBOCOD

a: OA    a: OD

a+1: OB    a+1: OC

a+2: OC    a+2: OB

a+3: OD    a+3: OA

Big-endian    Little-endian

Big-Endian                    Little-Endian

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## Loading and Storing Bytes

- MIPS provides special instructions to move bytes
 

```
lb    $t0, 1($s3) #load byte from memory
sb    $t0, 6($s3) #store byte to memory
```
- What 8 bits get loaded and stored?
  - load byte places the byte from memory in the rightmost 8 bits of the destination register
    - what happens to the other bits in the register?
  - store byte takes the byte from the rightmost 8 bits of a register and writes it to the byte in memory
    - leaving the other bytes in the memory word unchanged

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### Example

Given the following code sequence and memory state what is the state of the memory after executing the code?

```

add $s3, $zero, $zero
lb $t0, 1($s3)
sb $t0, 6($s3)
    
```

□ What value is left in \$t0?  
 \$t0 = 0x00000090

□ What word is changed in Memory and to what?  
 mem(4) = 0xFFFF90FF

□ What if the machine was little Endian?  
 \$t0 = 0x00000012  
 mem(4) = 0xFF12FFFF

Memory	
24	0x 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
20	0x 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
16	0x 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
12	0x 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 0
8	0x 0 1 0 0 0 4 0 2
4	0x F F F F F F F F
0	0x 0 0 9 0 1 2 A 0

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### Example

lbu \$12, 2(\$3)

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### Example

lb \$12, 2(\$3)

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### Example

sb \$12, 2(\$3)

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### Byte/Halfword Operations

- Could use bitwise operations
- MIPS byte/halfword load/store
  - String processing is a common case

lb rt, offset(rs)    lh rt, offset(rs)

- Sign extend to 32 bits in rt

lbu rt, offset(rs)    lhu rt, offset(rs)

- Zero extend to 32 bits in rt

sb rt, offset(rs)    sh rt, offset(rs)

- Store just rightmost byte/halfword

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### Memory Operand Example 1

- C code:
  - $g = h + A[8];$ 
    - g in \$s1, h in \$s2, base address of A in \$s3
- Compiled MIPS code:
  - Index 8 requires offset of 32
    - 4 bytes per word

lw \$t0, 32(\$s3)    # load word  
add \$s1, \$s2, \$t0

offset    base register

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### Memory Operand Example 2

- C code:
  - A[12] = h + A[8];
    - h in \$s2, base address of A in \$s3
- Compiled MIPS code:
  - Index 8 requires offset of 32

```
lw $t0, 32($s3) # load word
add $t0, $s2, $t0
sw $t0, 48($s3) # store word
```



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### Registers vs. Memory

- Registers are faster to access than memory
- Operating on memory data requires loads and stores
  - More instructions to be executed
- Compiler must use registers for variables as much as possible
  - Only spill to memory for less frequently used variables
  - Register optimization is important!



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### Immediate Operands

- Constant data specified in an instruction
 

```
addi $s3, $s3, 4
```
- No subtract immediate instruction
  - Just use a negative constant
 

```
addi $s2, $s1, -1
```
- **Design Principle 3: Make the common case fast**
  - Small constants are common
  - Immediate operand avoids a load instruction



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## The Constant Zero

- MIPS register 0 (\$zero) is the constant 0
  - Cannot be overwritten
- Useful for common operations
  - E.g., move between registers  
add \$t2, \$s1, \$zero



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