

Instruction code: An instruction code is a group of bits that instruct the computer to perform a specific operation.

- \* It is usually divided into parts, each having its own particular interpretation.
- \* One part of an instruction code specify the operation code and other part specify the registers or the memory words (Address of operand) where the operands are to be found, as well as the register or memory word where the result is to be stored.

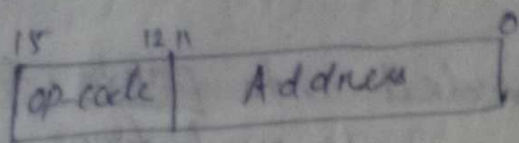
\* The operation code of an instruction is a group of bits that define such operations as add, subtract, multiply, shift and complement.

\* The number of bits required for the operation code of an instruction depends on the total number of operation available in the computer.

\* There are many variations for arranging the binary code of instructions and each computer has its own particular instruction code format.

\* The simplest way to organize a computer is to have one processor register and an instruction code format with two parts.

\* The first part specifies the operation to be performed, and the second specifies an address.



A Simple Instruction format

### INSTRUCTION FORMATS :-

Computers may have instructions of several different lengths containing varying number of addresses. The no of address fields in the instruction format of a computer depends on the internal organization of its registers. Most computers fall into one of three types of CPU organizations.

1. Single accumulator organization
2. General register organization
3. Stack organization.

To illustrate the influence of the number of addresses on computer programs, we will evaluate the arithmetic statement

$X = (A+B) * (C+D)$  using three, two, one, zero address instructions.

(1) Three-Address Instructions: Computers with three-address instruction formats can use

\* (11)

each address field to specify either a Processor register or a memory operand.

\* The assembly language program for

$$X = (A+B) * (C+D) \text{ is}$$

ADD R<sub>1</sub>, A, B                      R<sub>1</sub> ← M[A] + M[B]

ADD R<sub>2</sub>, C, D                      R<sub>2</sub> ← M[C] + M[D]

MUL X, R<sub>1</sub>, R<sub>2</sub>                    M[X] ← R<sub>1</sub> \* R<sub>2</sub>

\* It is assumed that the computer has two Processor registers R<sub>1</sub> and R<sub>2</sub> and M[A] denote the content of memory location A.

\* Advantage: Short programs

\* Disadvantage: Requires too many bits to specify three addresses

Ex: cyber 170.

(ii) Two-Address Instruction:

Here each address field can specify either a Processor register or a memory word.

The program for  $X = (A+B) * (C+D)$

MOV R<sub>1</sub>, A

R<sub>1</sub> ← M[A]

ADD R<sub>1</sub>, B

R<sub>1</sub> ← R<sub>1</sub> + M[B]

MOV R<sub>2</sub>, C

R<sub>2</sub> ← M[C]

ADD R<sub>2</sub>, D

R<sub>2</sub> ← R<sub>2</sub> + M[D]

MUL R<sub>1</sub>, R<sub>2</sub>

R<sub>1</sub> ← R<sub>1</sub> \* R<sub>2</sub>

MOV X, R<sub>1</sub>

M[X] ← R<sub>1</sub>

### (iii) One-Address Instructions :

- \* One address instructions use an implied accumulator (AC) register for all data manipulation.
- \* Accumulator contains the result of all operations. All operations are done between the AC register and a memory operand. T is the address of a temporary memory location required for storing the intermediate result.

<u>Program</u>		
LOAD	A	$AC \leftarrow M[A]$
ADD	B	$AC \leftarrow AC + M[B]$
STORE	T	$M[T] \leftarrow AC$
LOAD	C	$AC \leftarrow M[C]$
ADD	D	$AC \leftarrow AC + M[D]$
MUL	T	$AC \leftarrow AC * M[T]$
STORE	X	$M[X] \leftarrow AC$

### (iv) Zero-Address Instructions :

- \* A stack-organized computer doesn't use an address field for the instructions such as ADD and MUL etc.
- \* The PUSH and POP instructions need an address field to specify the operand that communicates with the stack.

Program

## Instruction Set Completeness

The set of instructions are said to be complete if the computer includes a sufficient number of instructions in each of the following categories.

1. Arithmetic, Logical and Shift instructions
2. Instructions for moving information to and from memory and processor registers.
3. Program Control instructions.
4. Input and Output instructions.

Most computer instructions can be classified into ~~three~~ <sup>three</sup> categories.

1. Data transfer instructions
2. Data manipulation instructions
3. Program Control instructions.

## Data Transfer Instructions

- \* Data transfer instructions move data from one place in the computer to another without changing the data content.
- \* The most common transfers are between memory and processor registers, between processor registers and input or output and between the processor registers themselves.
- \* Data transfer instruction must specify  
(i) the location of the source and destination operand

The shift instructions are

Name	Mnemonic	Diagram
Logical Shift right	SHR	
Logical Shift left	SHL	
Arithmetic " right	SHRA	
Arithmetic " left	SHLA	
Rotate right	ROR	
Rotate left	ROL	

\* The logical shift inserts 0 to the end bit position. The position is the leftmost bit for shift right and the rightmost bit position for the shift left.

\* The arithmetic shift-right instruction must preserve sign bit in the leftmost position. The sign bit is shifted to the right together with the rest of the number but the sign bit itself remains unchanged. The arithmetic shift-left instruction inserts 0 to the position and is identical to the logical shift-left instruction.

\* The rotate instructions produce a circular shift. Bits shifted out at one end of the word are not lost as in a logical shift but are ~~inserted~~ circulated back into the other end.

## Instruction set completeness (continued)

Program control instructions: A Program control type of instruction, when executed, may change the address value in the Program counter and cause the flow of control to be altered. Program control instructions specify conditions for altering the contents of the Program counter, when these instructions get executed it changes the value of the Program counter as a result this causes a break in the sequence of instruction execution.

System control: - These instructions are reserved for the use of operating system.

Ex: - A system control instruction may read or alter a control register.

Transfer of control: - We usually assume that the next instruction to be performed is the one that immediately follows, in memory, the current instruction.

\* However, a significant number of instructions in any program change the sequence of instruction execution.

\* For these instructions, the operation performed by the CPU is to update the Program counter to contain the address of some instruction in memory.

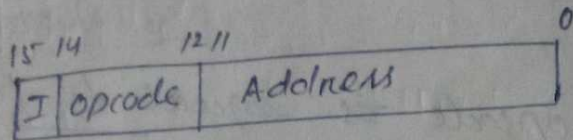
\* There are a number of reasons why transfer of control operations are required, so they are:

(i) Looping (ii) Decision making (iii) Subroutine (function)

# Instruction Types

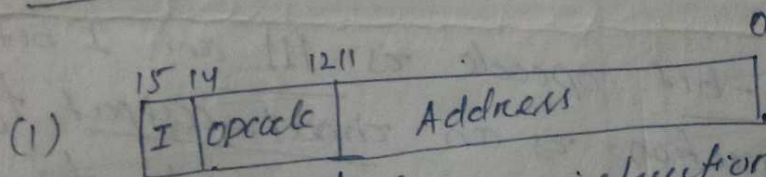
The basic computer instruction format has 16-bits, and is divided into three different fields.

- (i) Addressing mode (bit no-15)
- (ii) opcode (bit no-12 to 14)
- (iii) Address / Register type operation / I/O type operation (bit no:- 0 to 11)



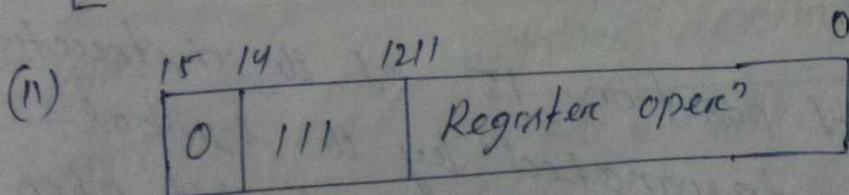
(Instruction format)

The type of instruction is recognized by the computer control from the four bits in positions 12 through 15 of the instruction.



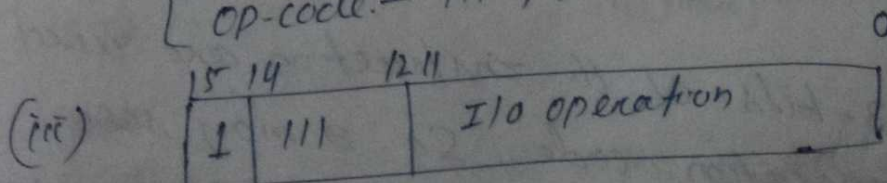
(Memory-Reference instruction)

Op-code: - 000 through 110 and I is 0  
 I is 0 for direct Addressing  
 and I is 1 for indirect Addressing



(Register-Reference Instruction)

[Op-code:- 111, I = 0]



Input-Output Instruction

[Op-code:- 111]  
 I = 1



(i) If the three opcode bits in positions 12 through 14 are not equal to 111, the instruction is a memory-reference type and bit position 15 is taken as the addressing mode I. I is equal to 0 for direct addressing and to 1 for indirect addressing mode.

Other 12-bits (0-11) to specify an address.

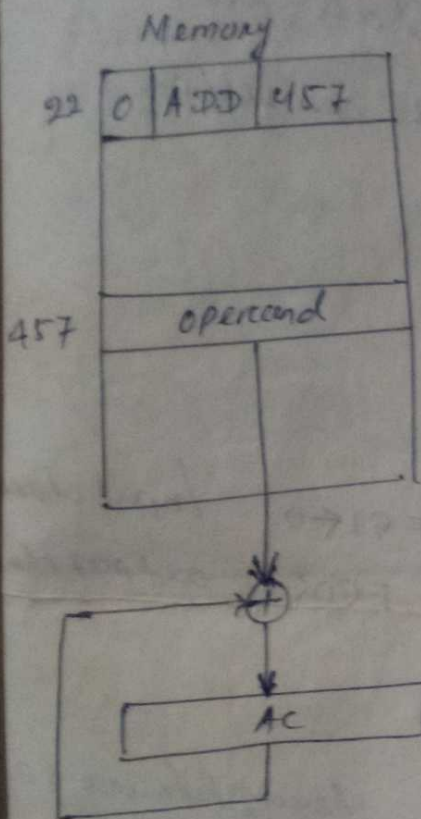
(ii) If the 3-bit opcode is equal to 111 and I bit is 0, the instruction is a Register-Reference type and other 12-bits are used to specify the operation or test to be executed on Ac register.

(iii) If the 3-bit opcode is 111 and I bit is 1, the instruction is an input-output type and remaining 12-bits are used to specify the type of input-output operation or test performed.

\* ~~Only~~ Bit position 15 of the instruction code is designated by the symbol I but is not used as a mode bit when operation code is equal to 111.

\* Only 3-bits of the instruction are used for the operation code, so it may seem that the computer is restricted to maximum

of eight distinct operations. But ~~the~~ Register-Reference and Input-Output instructions use the remaining 12-bits as part of the operation code, so the total no of instructions ~~we'll~~ exceed eight.



Direct Address

Some of the instructions are given below.

Memory-Reference Instructions :-

Symbol

AND

ADD

LDA ~~STA~~

STA

~~BCW~~  
BCW

Symbol description

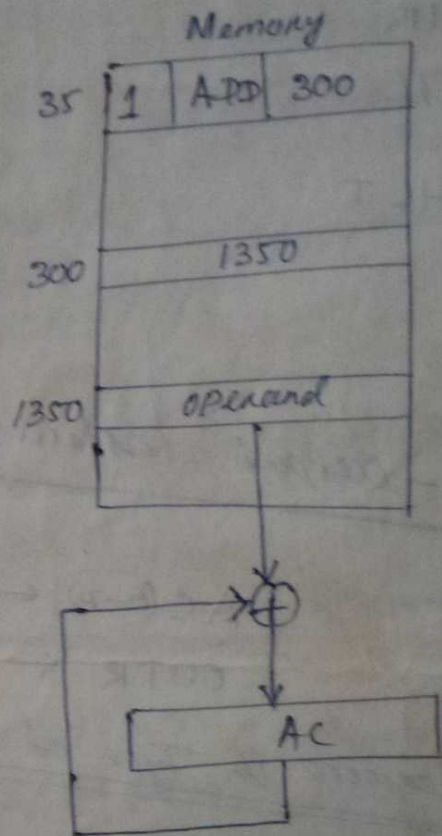
$AC \leftarrow AC \wedge M[MAR]$

$AC \leftarrow AC + M[MAR]$

$AC \leftarrow M[MAR]$

$M[MAR] \leftarrow AC$

$PC \leftarrow AR$  (Branch unconditional)



Indirect Address.

# Register-Reference Instructions

CLA

Clear AC

CMA

$AC \leftarrow \overline{AC}$

CIR

Calculate Right

CIL

Calculate Left

HLT

Halt computer

# Input-output Instructions

INP

$AC(0-7) \leftarrow INPR \quad FGI \leftarrow 0$

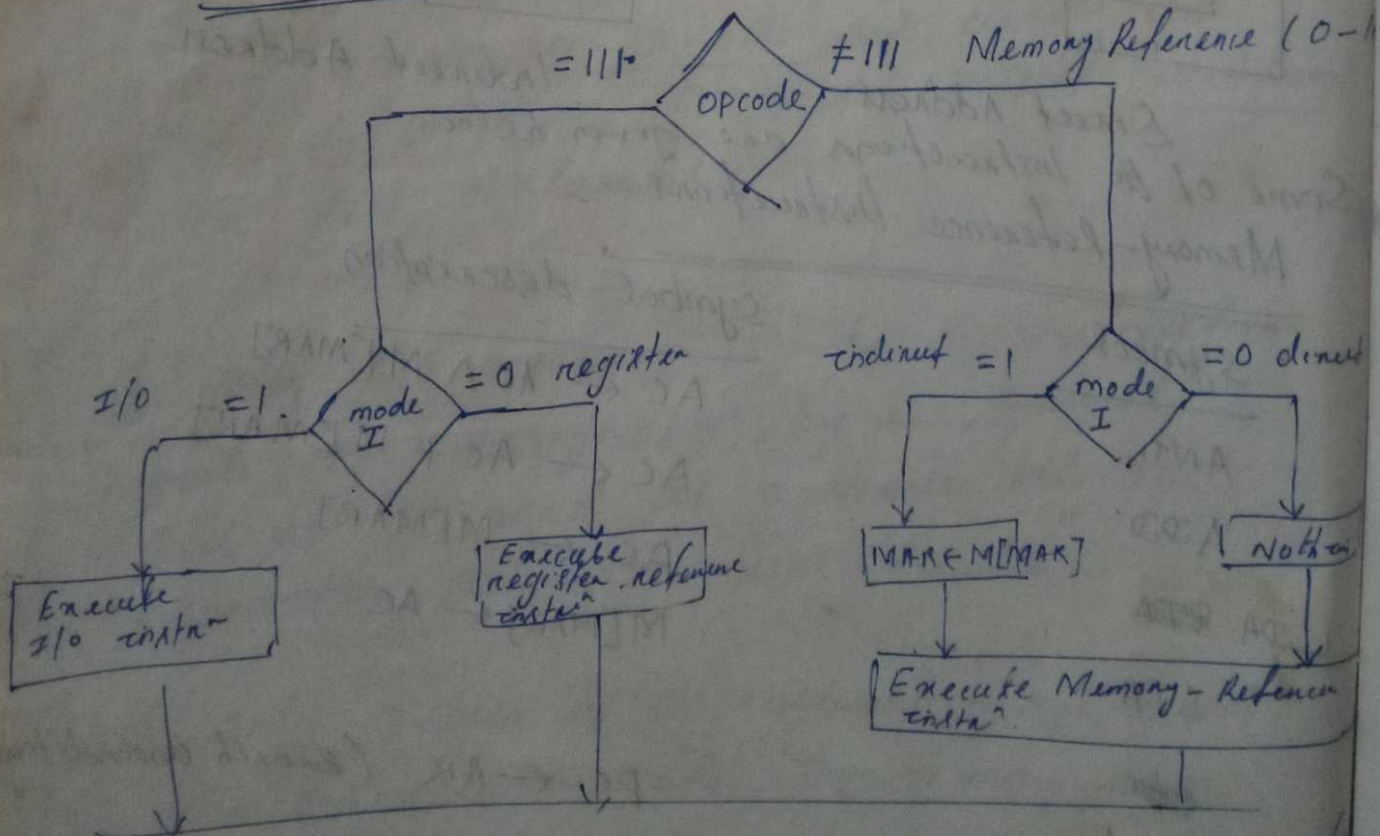
Input channel

OUT

$OUTR \leftarrow AC(0-7) \quad FGO \leftarrow 0$

Output channel

# Determine the Type of Instruction

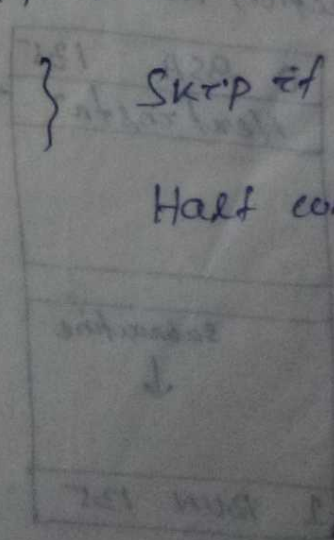
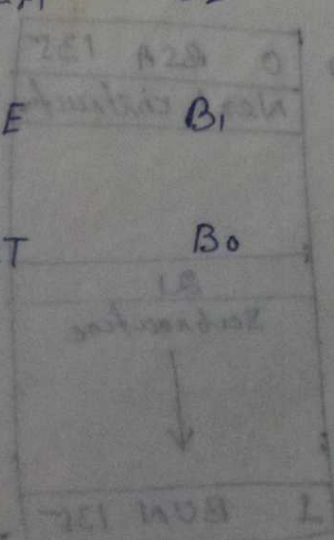


Flowchart for instruction cycle

# Register Reference instructions

$IR(i) = B_i$  [bit in IR (0-11) that specifies the <sup>register</sup> operation]

Symbol	bit	Operation	Description
CLA	B <sub>11</sub>	$AC \leftarrow 0$	clear AC
CLE	B <sub>10</sub>	$E \leftarrow 0$	clear E
CMA	B <sub>9</sub>	$AC \leftarrow \bar{AC}$	complement AC
CME	B <sub>8</sub>	$E \leftarrow \bar{E}$	complement E
CIR	B <sub>7</sub>	$AC \leftarrow shr AC,$ $AC(15) \leftarrow E,$ $E \leftarrow AC(0)$	Circulate right
CIL	B <sub>6</sub>	$AC \leftarrow shl AC,$ $AC(0) \leftarrow E$ $E \leftarrow AC(15)$	Circulate left
INC	B <sub>5</sub>	$AC \leftarrow AC + 1$	Increment AC
SPA	B <sub>4</sub>	if $(AC(15) = 0)$ then $PC \leftarrow PC + 1$	Skip if +ve
SNA	B <sub>3</sub>	if $(AC(15) = 1)$ then $PC \leftarrow PC + 1$	Skip if -ve
SZA	B <sub>2</sub>	if $(AC = 0)$ then $PC \leftarrow PC + 1$	Skip if Zero
SZE	B <sub>1</sub>	if $(E = 0)$ then $PC \leftarrow PC + 1$	Skip if E-zero
HLT	B <sub>0</sub>	$S \leftarrow 0$	Halt computer.

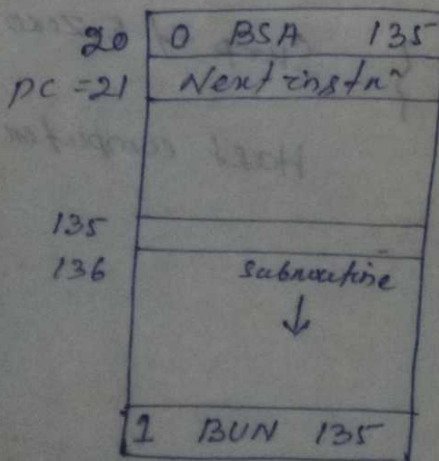


# Memory-Reference Instructions

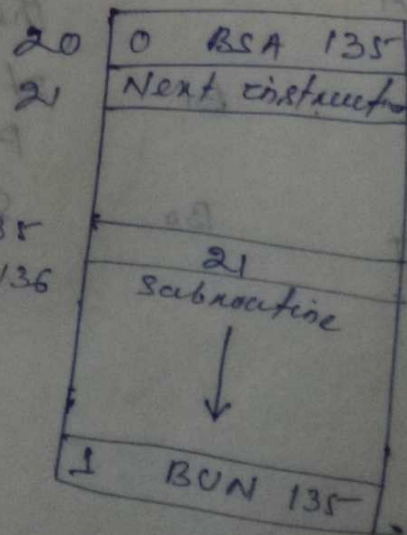
<u>Symbol</u>	<u>Operation decoder</u>	<u>Symbolic description</u>
AND	$D_0$	$AC \leftarrow AC \wedge M[MAR]$
ADD	$D_1$	$AC \leftarrow AC + M[MAR]$
LDA (Load)	$D_2$	$E \leftarrow Count$ $AC \leftarrow M[MAR]$
STA (Store)	$D_3$	$M[MAR] \leftarrow AC$
BUN (Branch unconditionally)	$D_4$	$PC \leftarrow MAR$
BSA	$D_5$	$M[MAR] \leftarrow PC$ $PC \leftarrow MAR + 1$
ISZ (Increment by 1)	$D_6$	$M[MAR] \leftarrow M[MAR] + 1$ If $M[MAR] + 1 = 0$ then $PC \leftarrow PC + 1$

BSA ( $D_5$ ) :- Branch and Save Return Address

The BSA instruction is assumed to be in memory at address 20. The I-bit is 0 and the address part of the instruction is 135.



Return Address



135  
PC = 136

After fetch and decode the PC is incremented to 21 which is the return address.

\* MAR holds the effective address 135. The ISA instruction performs the following numerical operation.

$$M[135] \leftarrow 21, \quad PC \leftarrow 135 + 1 = 136$$

\* The return address 21 is stored in memory location 135 and control continues with the subroutine program starting from address 136.

\* The return to the original program (at address 21) is accomplished by means of an indirect BUN instruction placed at the end of the subroutine.

## Input-Output Instructions