



University of  
**Nottingham**

UK | CHINA | MALAYSIA

# MIPS Programming 1

Dr. Heng Yu

AY2023-24, Spring Semester  
COMP1047: Systems and Architecture  
Week 2



- **MIPS Instruction Basics**

- **MIPS Operands**

- Register operands and their organization
- Memory operands and data transfer
- Immediate operands

- **Other MIPS Operations**

- Shift and bitwise operations







# Learning Objectives

- Know the Von Neumann architecture used to store and execute the instructions
- Understand the syntax and know how to use the instructions taught in this lecture
- Understand registers, memory organization (addressing mode, endianness, etc.)
- Write simple MIPS programs with instruction taught in this lecture.





- **MIPS Instruction Basics**

- **MIPS Operands**

- Register operands and their organization
- Memory operands and data transfer
- Immediate operands

- **Other MIPS Operations**

- Shift and bitwise operations



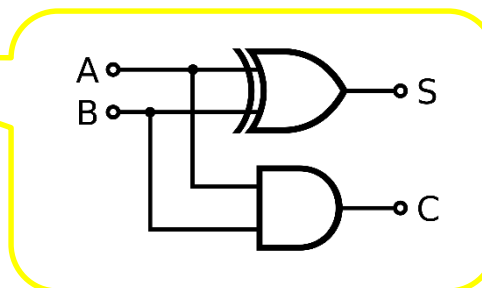
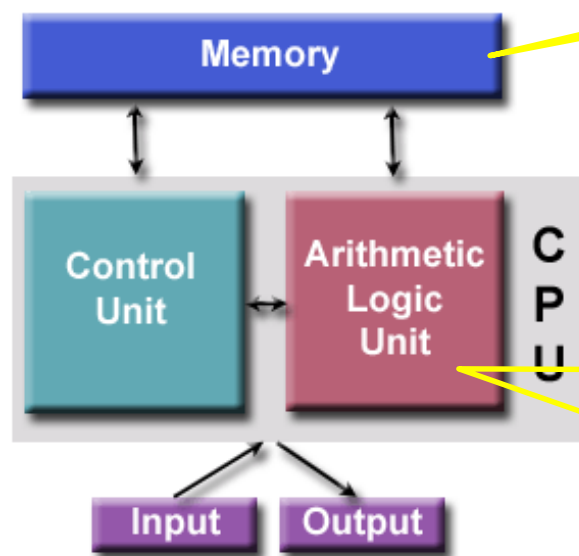


- Bit
  - Binary digit
  - Either 0 or 1
  - limited to represent two values
- Byte
  - A sequence of bits
  - Since the mid 1960's, a byte has 8 bits in length
  - 256 possible sequences
- Word
  - Amount of data computer can process in one step
  - Today most CPUs have a word size of 32 or 64 bits
  - On the 32-bit MIPS, a word is 4 bytes long



# Inside the Computer Architecture

- Processor: A bunch of digital circuits that operates on 0's and 1's
- Memory: A bunch of digital circuits that stores and provides 0's and 1's for processors
- Those 0's and 1's: Instructions and Data
- Also called “stored program architecture”



'add 1, 3' →  
0101 0110 0001 0011

Data transferred through bus

0101 0110 0001 0011

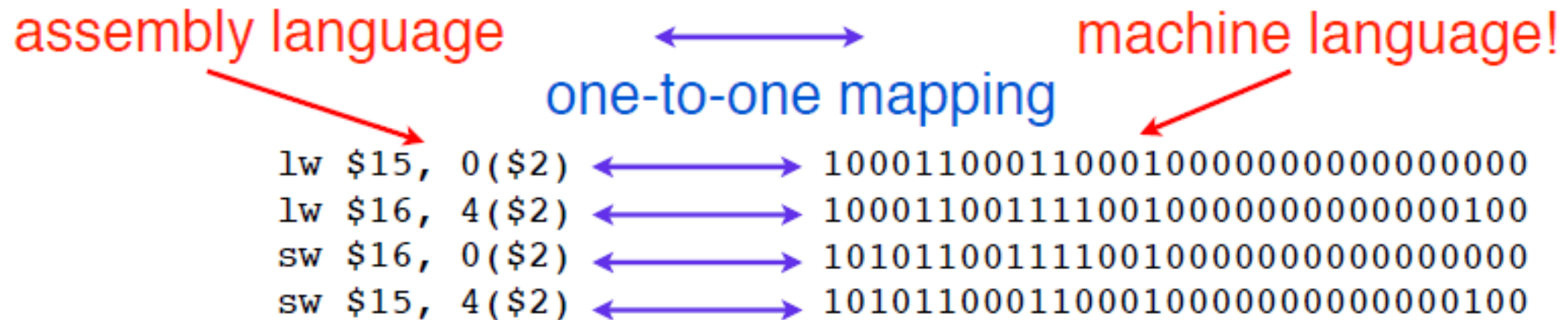
Taken by control unit to  
activate the adder

Values of 1 and 3 are input to  
adder's input, then calculate



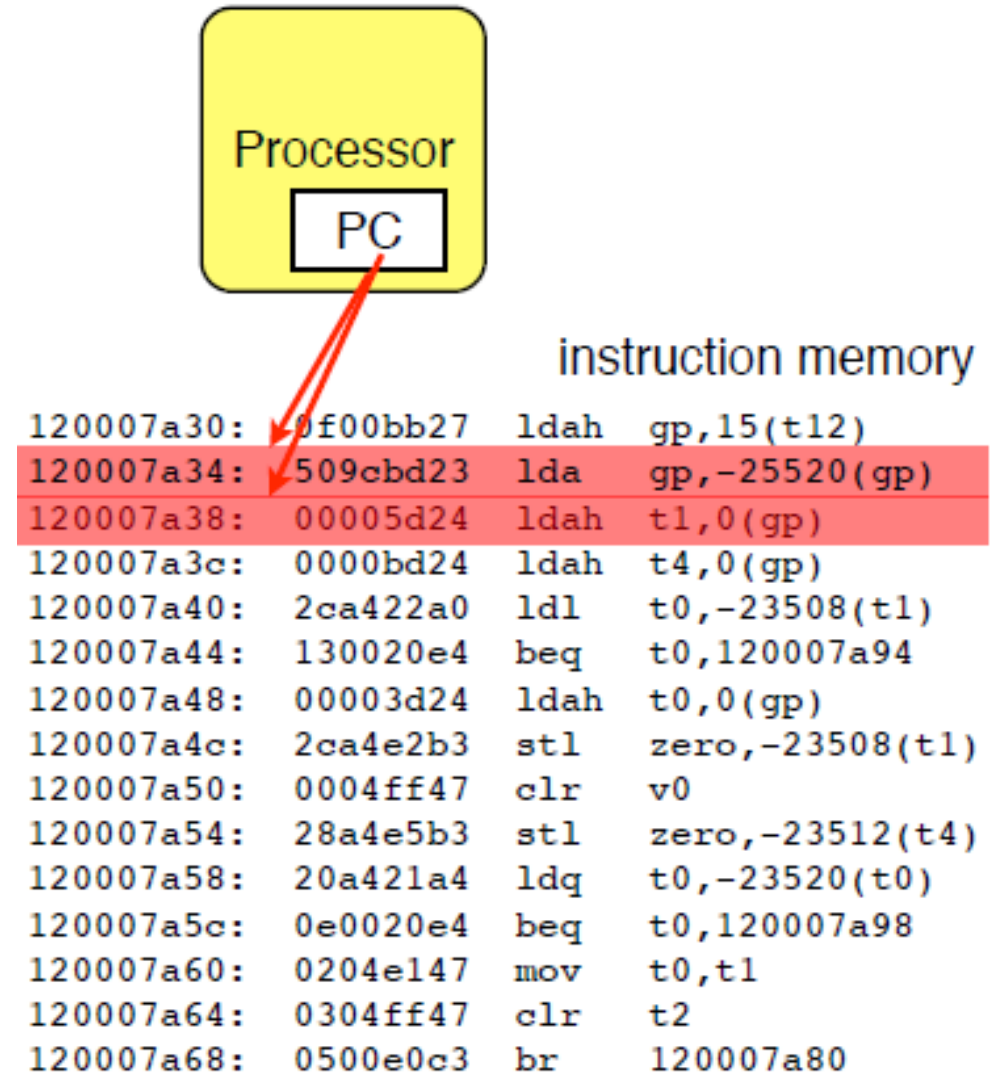
# Languages that communicate

- Processor (More accurately, digital circuits) understands machine languages: 100010101010100101...
- Programmer would write machine languages, but in mnemonic:  
*Assembly language*



# The stored program model

- A snapshot of instruction memory:
- Program Counter (PC)
  - Points to the memory location of the current instruction
  - Processor fetches instructions from where PC points
  - Advances/changes for the next instruction.
- PC is a piece of hardware placed in CPU.







- Base 16
  - Compact representation of bit strings
  - 4 bits per hex digit

0	0000	4	0100	8	1000	c	1100
1	0001	5	0101	9	1001	d	1101
2	0010	6	0110	a	1010	e	1110
3	0011	7	0111	b	1011	f	1111

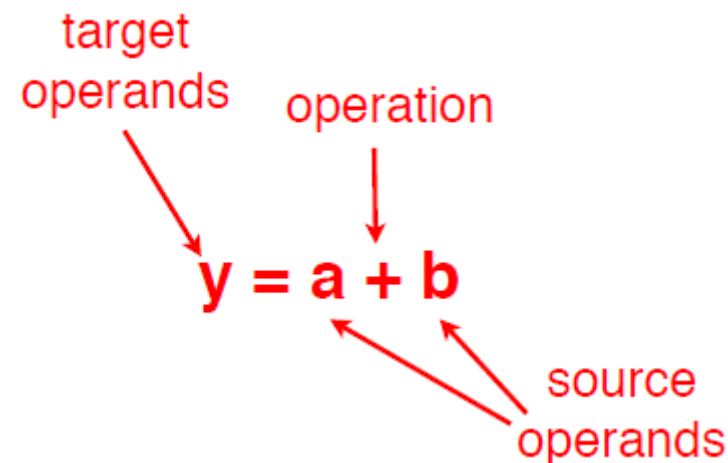
**Example: eca8 6420**

1110 1100 1010 1000 0110 0100 0010 0000



# How should an instruction look like?

- Operations
  - What operations?  
e.g. add, sub, mul, and etc.
  - How many operations?
- Operands
  - How many operand?
  - What type of operands?
  - Memory/register/label/number(i.e., immediate value)
- Instruction Format
  - Length? How many bits? Formats?



add \$r3, \$r1, \$r2

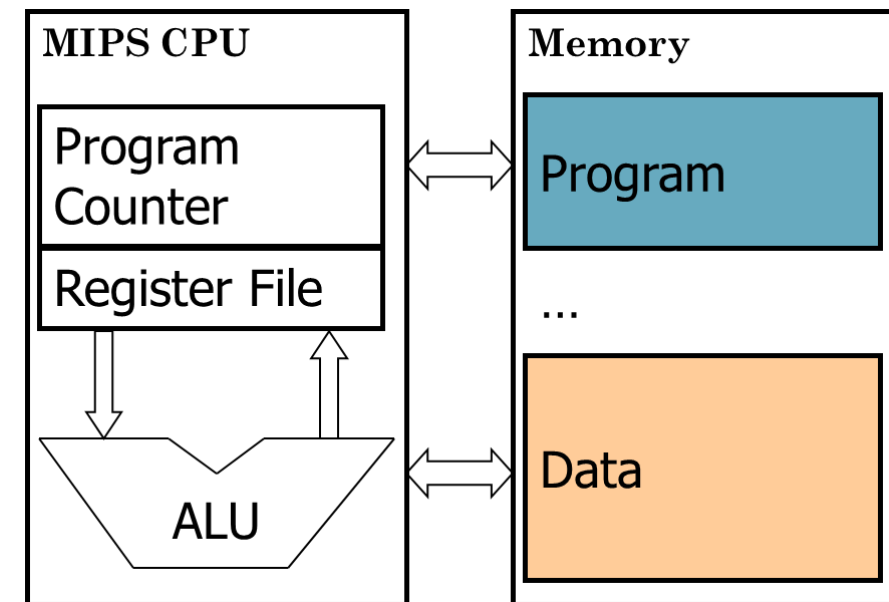


- MIPS (Microprocessor without Interlocked Processor States)
  - Instruction Set Architecture (ISA) based on Reduced Instruction Set Computing (RISC) CPU design strategy
  - Make instructions simple, but execute them fast
  - In contrast with Complex Instruction Set Computing(CISC)
    - expensive/slow memory, writing machine code difficult
    - each instruction does as much as possible
    - e.g. Intel Pentium
- 32-bit version was introduced by a team led by John L. Hennessy at Stanford University in the 1980s
  - Basic concept is to increase performance through the use of deep instruction pipelines
- 64-bit version was introduced in 1991
- Used in embedded systems like game consoles (Nintendo, Sony Playstation 1,2, PSP), graphics workstation (SGI), and Loongson

# A sample MIPS program

```
msg:  .data
      .asciiz "Hello, world!\n"
      .text
      .globl main

main:  la $a0, msg      #load label msg
      li $v0, 4        #load immediate
      syscall          # print it
      li $v0, 10
      syscall          # exit
```







# MIPS Basic Syntax

- **Assembler directives** begin with a dot ‘.’
  - **.data**
    - Start assembling data used by the program
  - **.text**
    - Start assembling program instructions
  - **.asciiz**
    - Place a null-terminated ASCII string in memory
- **Labels** are names followed by a colon ‘:’
  - Descriptive names chosen by programmers
  - The assembler will assign memory addresses to labels for later reference
  - The label “main” is the entry of the program
- Machine **instructions**
  - Lines after “main:” contain symbolic machine instructions
- **Comments** begin with a hash key ‘#’, until end of line

```
                .data
msg:            .asciiz "Hello, world!\n"
                .text
                .globl main

main:
    la $a0, msg    #load label msg
    li $v0, 4       #load immediate
    syscall        # print it
    li $v0, 10
    syscall        # exit
```



- **MIPS Instruction Basics**
- **MIPS Operands**
  - Register operands and their organization
  - Memory operands and data transfer
  - Immediate operands
- **Other MIPS Operations**
  - Shift and bitwise operations



- General syntax

Three operands	Two operands	Other
op dst, src, src	op dst, src	op
op dst, src, imm	op dst, imm	op src

- dst – destination register/memory
- src – source register/memory
- imm – immediate value (16 bits)

add \$r3, \$r1, \$r2

Syntax of **add** instruction:

1        2        3        4  
**add** \$s0, \$s1, \$s2

1 -> operation name

2 -> operand getting result (“destination”)

3 -> 1st operand for operation (“source1”)

4 -> 2nd operand for operation (“source2”)

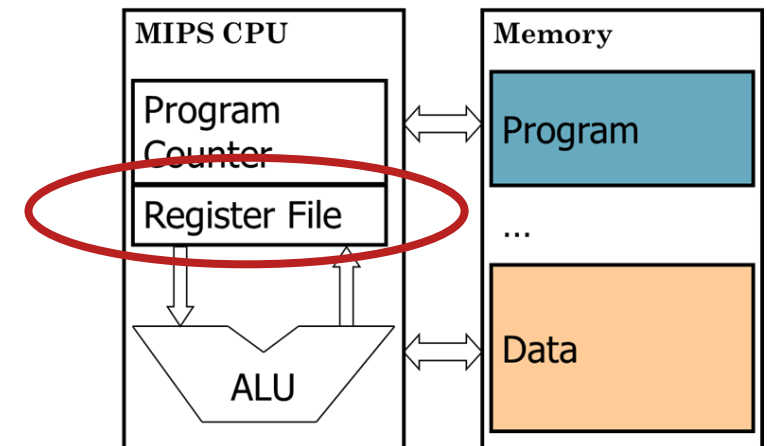
- Add the contents of the register **rs1** and **rs2** and store the sum in the register **rd**.
- In high-level language:  $c = a + b$
- Example: **add \$s0, \$t0, \$t1**

	Before	After
\$s0	4	<b>11</b>
\$t0	5	5
\$t1	6	6



# MIPS Registers

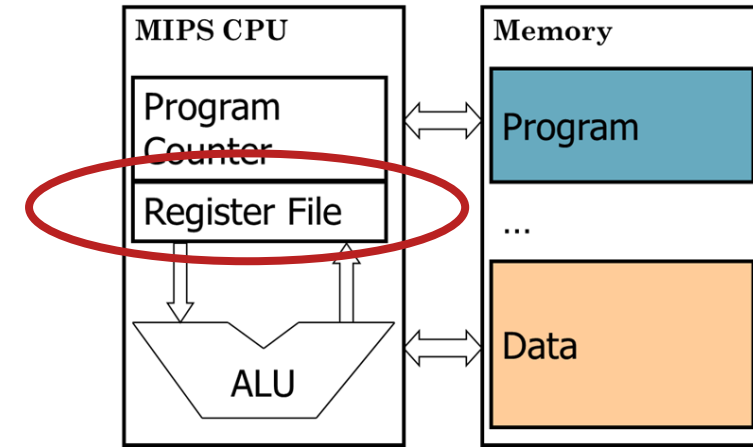
- Unlike high-level language, assembly don't use variables  
=> (most) assembly operands are registers
  - ✓ Limited number (32 for MIPS) of special hardware built directly inside the CPU
  - ✓ Operations are performed on them directly
- Benefits:
  - ✓ Registers in CPU => faster than memory
  - ✓ Registers are easier for a compiler to use
    - ✓ e.g., as a place for temporary storage
  - ✓ Registers can hold variables to reduce memory traffic



# MIPS Registers

- 32 registers, each is 32 bits wide
  - Groups of 32 bits called a *word* in MIPS
  - Registers are numbered from 0 to 31
  - Each can be referred to by number or name
  - Number references:  
\$0, \$1, \$2, ... \$30, \$31
  - By convention, each register also has a name to make it easier to code, e.g.,  

\$16 – \$23	➔	\$s0 – \$s7	(for variables)
\$8 – \$15	➔	\$t0 – \$t7	(for temporary)
- 32 x 32-bit FP registers
- Others: PC, etc.





# MIPS Register Conventions

0	<b>zero</b>	constant 0
1	<b>at</b>	reserved for assembler
2	<b>v0</b>	expression evaluation &
3	<b>v1</b>	function results
4	<b>a0</b>	arguments
5	<b>a1</b>	
6	<b>a2</b>	
7	<b>a3</b>	
8	<b>t0</b>	temporary: caller saves
...		(callee can clobber)
15	<b>t7</b>	
16	<b>s0</b>	callee saves
...		(caller can clobber)
23	<b>s7</b>	
24	<b>t8</b>	temporary (cont'd)
25	<b>t9</b>	
26	<b>k0</b>	reserved for OS kernel
27	<b>k1</b>	
28	<b>gp</b>	pointer to global area
29	<b>sp</b>	stack pointer
30	<b>fp</b>	frame pointer
31	<b>ra</b>	return address (HW)



# MIPS Arithmetic: Subtract

`sub rd, rs1, rs2`

- Subtract the contents of the register `rs1` and `rs2` and store the sum in the register `rd`.
- In high-level language:  $c = a - b$
- Example: `sub $s0, $t0, $t1`

	Before	After
<code>\$s0</code>	4	<b>-1</b>
<code>\$t0</code>	5	5
<code>\$t1</code>	6	6





- Given the C statement:  
$$f = (g + h) - (i + j);$$
- **Question: How do we translate it into assembly language?**

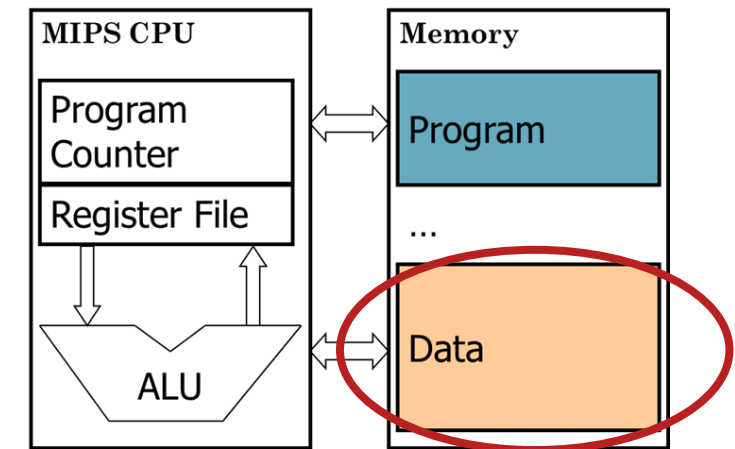


- **MIPS Instruction Basics**
- **MIPS Operands**
  - Register operands and their organization
  - **Memory operands and data transfer**
  - Immediate operands
- **Other MIPS Operations**
  - Shift and bitwise operations



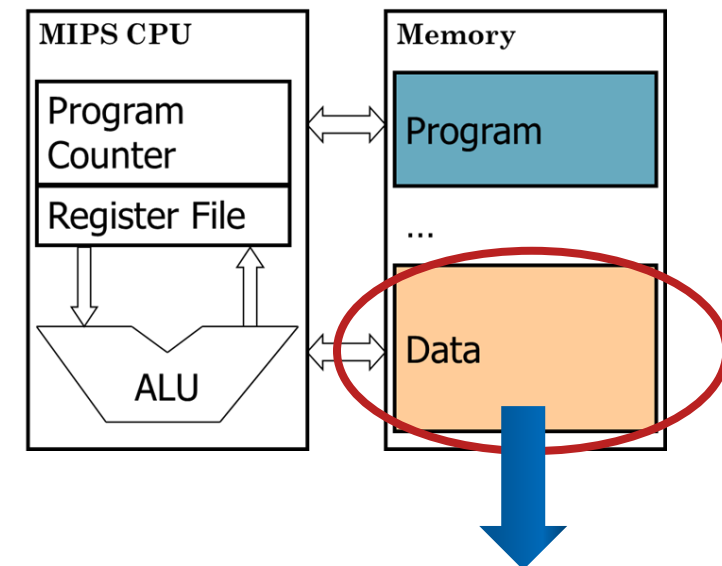
# Memory Operands

- C/Java variables map onto registers; what about large data structures like arrays?
  - Memory contains such data structures
- But MIPS arithmetic instructions operate on registers, not directly on memory
  - Data transfer instructions (`lw`, `sw`, `lb`, `sb`, etc.) to transfer between memory and register.



# Data Transfer: Memory to Register

- To transfer a word of data, need to specify two things:
  - Register: specify which register to send the data
    - By number (0 - 31)
  - Memory address:
    - Think of memory as a 1D array
    - Address it by supplying a pointer to a memory address
    - Offset (in bytes) from this pointer
    - The desired memory address is the sum of these two values, e.g., 8(\$t0)
      - Specifies the memory address pointed to by the value in \$t0, plus 8 bytes.
    - Each address is 32 bits



120007a48:	00003d24
120007a4c:	2ca4e2b3
120007a50:	0004ff47
120007a54:	28a4e5b3
120007a58:	20a421a4
120007a5c:	0e0020e4
120007a60:	0204e147
120007a64:	0304ff47
120007a68:	0500e0c3





# Data Transfer: Memory to Register

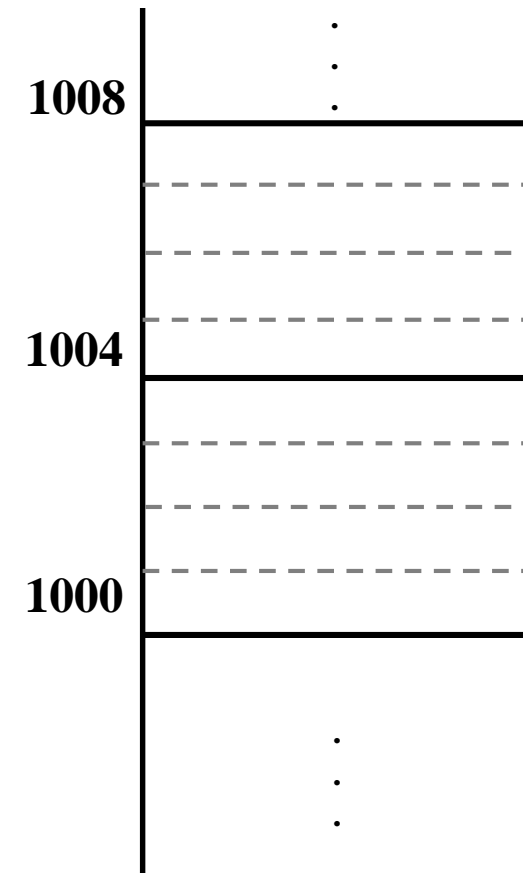
1 word = 4 bytes

1111 0000 1111 0001 1111 0010 1111 0011

How about

0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0011

Memory





# Data Transfer: Memory to Register

- Load Instruction Syntax:

**1**      **2**      **3**      **4**  
`lw    $t0, 12($s0)`

1 operation name (op code)

2 register that will receive value

3 numerical offset in bytes

4 register containing pointer to memory

- Example: `lw $t0, 12($s0)`

- lw (Load Word, so a word (32 bits) is loaded at a time)
- Take the pointer in \$s0, add 12 bytes to it, and then load the value from the memory pointed by this calculated sum into register \$t0

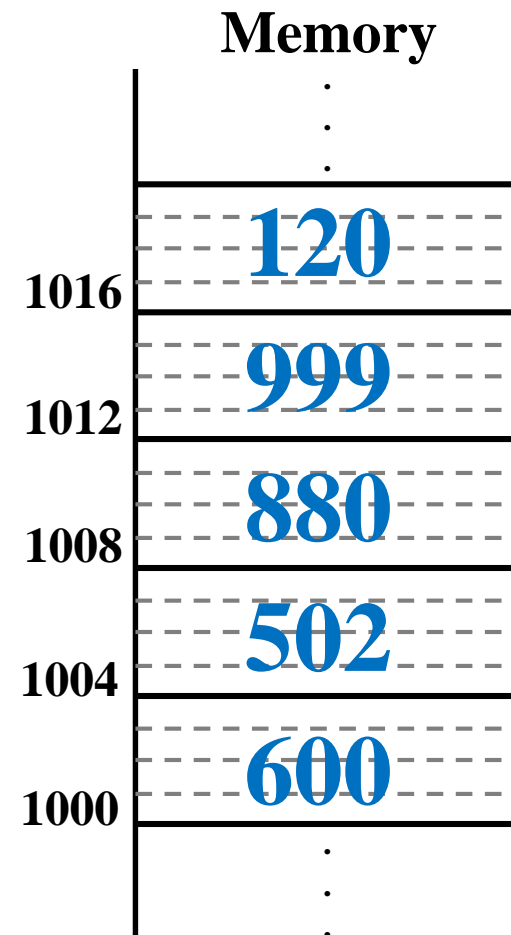
- Notes:

- \$s0 is called the *base register*, 12 is called the *offset*
- Offset is generally used in accessing elements of array
- Base register points to the beginning of the array

- \$s0 = 1000

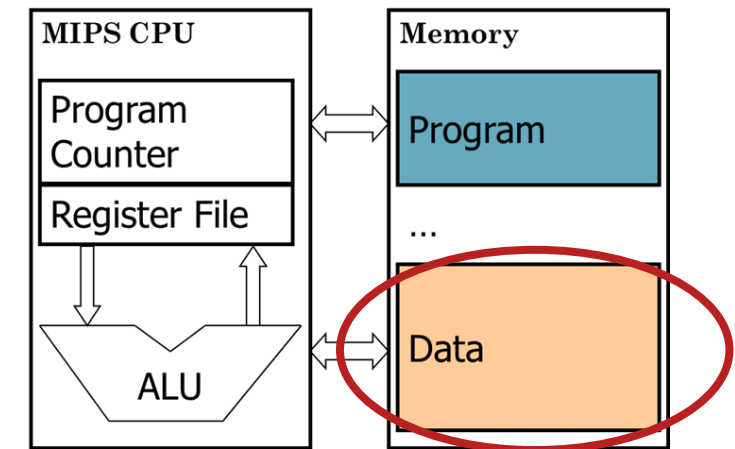
- lw \$t0, 12(\$s0)

- \$t0 = ?



# Data Transfer: Register to Memory

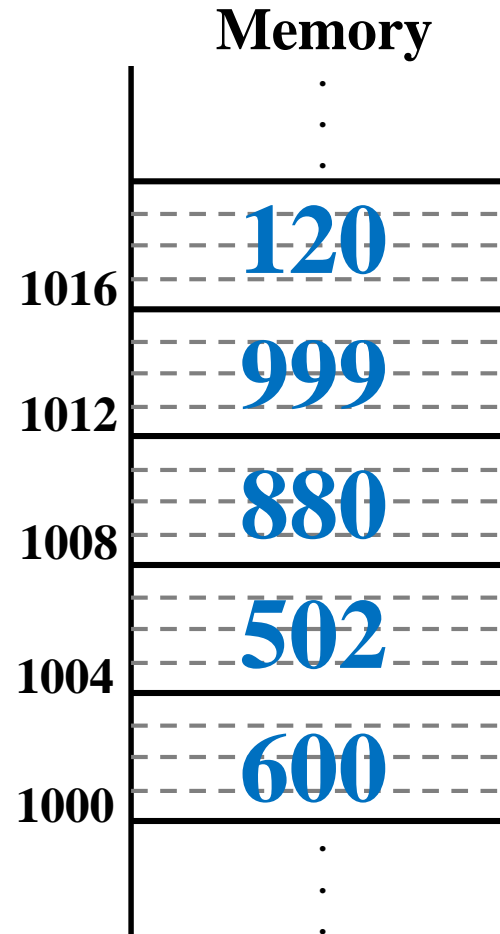
- Also want to store value from a register into memory
- Store instruction syntax is identical to Load instruction syntax
- Example: `sw $t0, 12($s0)`
  - sw (Store Word, a word (32 bits) is stored at a time)
  - This instruction will take the pointer in \$s0, add 12 bytes to it, and then store the value from register \$t0 into the memory address pointed to by the calculated sum





# Data Transfer: Memory to Register

- $\$s0 = 1000$
- $\$t0 = 25$
- `sw $t0, 12($s0)`
- $M[1012] = 25$





# Memory Addressing

- Only load and store instructions can access memory
- byte, half words, words are aligned

Byte addresses

Address	Data
0x0000	0xAA
0x0001	0x15
0x0002	0x13
0x0003	0xFF
0x0004	0x76
...	.
0xFFFFE	.
0xFFFFF	.

Half Word Addresses

Address	Data
0x0000	0xAA15
0x0002	0x13FF
0x0004	.
0x0006	.
...	.
...	.
...	.
0xFFFC	.

Word Addresses

Address	Data
0x0000	0xAA1513FF
0x0004	.
0x0008	.
0x000C	.
...	.
...	.
...	.
0xFFFC	.



# Byte-Addressable Memory

- MIPS memory is byte-addressable (not word addressable)
- Each byte has a unique address
- Load and store single bytes: **load byte (lb)** and **store byte (sb)**
- Each 32-bit words has 4 bytes, so the word address increments by 4

Word Address	Data								
⋮	⋮								⋮
0000000C	4	0	F	3	0	7	8	8	Word 3
00000008	0	1	E	E	2	8	4	2	Word 2
00000004	F	2	F	1	A	C	0	7	Word 1
00000000	A	B	C	D	E	F	7	8	Word 0

← width = 4 bytes →



# Reading Byte-Addressable Memory

- The address of a memory word must now be multiplied by 4. For example,
  - the **address** of memory **word 2** is  $2 \times 4 = 8$
  - the address of memory **word 10** is  $10 \times 4 = 40$  (**0x28**)
- Load a word of data (word 1) at memory address 4 into \$s3.
- \$s3 holds the value 0xF2F1AC07 after the instruction completes.

## MIPS assembly code

```
lw $s3, 4($0)    # read memory word 1 into $s3
```

Word Address	Data								
⋮	⋮								⋮
0000000C	4	0	F	3	0	7	8	8	Word 3
00000008	0	1	E	E	2	8	4	2	Word 2
00000004	F	2	F	1	A	C	0	7	Word 1
00000000	A	B	C	D	E	F	7	8	Word 0

← width = 4 bytes →





# Writing Byte-Addressable Memory

The assembly code below stores the value held in \$t7 into memory address 0x2C (44).

- \$t7 = 0xF2F1AC07

## MIPS assembly code

```
sw $t7, 44($0)  # write $t7 into memory word 11
```

Word Address	Data								
⋮	⋮								⋮
00000034	4	0	F	3	0	7	8	8	Wd 13
00000030	0	1	E	E	2	8	4	2	Wd 12
0000002C	F	2	F	1	A	C	0	7	Wd 11
00000028	A	B	C	D	E	F	7	8	Wd 10

← width = 4 bytes →

lw and sw use bytes in offset!!!



# Big-Endian and Little-Endian Memory

- How to order the bytes within a word?
- Word address is the same for big- or little-endian
- Little-endian: orders bytes **starting at the little (least significant) end** (e.g., Intel IA-32, some MIPS CPUs)
- Big-endian: order bytes **starting at the big (most significant) end** (e.g., IBM PowerPC, some MIPS CPUs)

## Big-Endian

Byte Address			
⋮			
C	D	E	F
8	9	A	B
4	5	6	7
0	1	2	3
MSB		LSB	

## Little-Endian

Byte Address			
⋮			
F	E	D	C
B	A	9	8
7	6	5	4
3	2	1	0
MSB		LSB	



# Writing Byte-Addressable Memory

The assembly code below stores the value held in \$t7 into memory address 0x2C (44).

- \$t7 = 0xF2F1AC07

## MIPS assembly code

```
sw $t7, 44($0)  # write $t7 into memory word 11
```

Word Address	Data							
⋮	⋮							
00000034	4	0	F	3	0	7	8	8
00000030	0	1	E	E	2	8	4	2
0000002C	0	7	A	C	F	1	F	2
00000028	A	B	C	D	E	F	7	8

width = 4 bytes

This is a big-endian memory.  
How about little-endian?



# Role of Registers vs. Memory

- What if there are more variables than registers in your code?
  - Compiler tries to keep most frequently used variables in registers
  - Puts less common variables into memory: [spilling](#)
- Why not keep all variables in memory?
  - **Design Principle: Smaller is faster**
    - Registers are faster than memory
  - Registers are more versatile:
    - MIPS arithmetic instructions can read 2 registers, operate on them, and write to 1 register per instruction
    - MIPS data transfers only read or write 1 register per instruction



- **MIPS Instruction Basics**

- **MIPS Operands**

- Register operands and their organization
- Memory operands and data transfer
- **Immediate operands**

- **Other MIPS Operations**

- Shift and bitwise operations
- Floating point and multiplication/division





# Constants

- Small constants are used frequently (50% of operands)

e.g.,     $A = A + 5;$   
           $B = B + 1;$   
           $C = C - 18;$

- Constant data specified/hardwired in an instruction:

```
addi $29, $29, 4  
slti $8, $18, 10  
andi $29, $29, 6  
ori  $29, $29, 4
```



# Immediate Operands

- Immediate: *numerical constants*
  - Often appear in code, so there are special instructions for them
  - Add Immediate:

**f = g + 10** (in Java)

**addi \$s0,\$s1,10** (in MIPS)

where \$s0,\$s1 are associated with f,g

- Syntax similar to add instruction, except that **the last argument is a number** instead of a register
- **No subtract immediate instruction**
  - Just use a negative constant

**addi \$s2, \$s1, -1**





# The Constant Zero

- The number zero (0), appears very often in code; so we define **register zero to be constant 0**
- MIPS register 0 (\$zero) is the constant 0
  - Cannot be overwritten
  - This is defined in hardware, so an instruction like

**addi \$0, \$0, 5** will not do anything

- Useful for common operations
  - E.g., move between registers

**add \$t2, \$s1, \$zero**



- **MIPS Instruction Basics**
- **MIPS Operands**
  - Register operands and their organization
  - Memory operands and data transfer
  - Immediate operands
- **Other MIPS Operations**
  - Shift and bitwise operations





- Up until now, we've done arithmetic (`add`, `sub`, `addi`) and memory access (`lw` and `sw`)
- All of these instructions view contents of register as a single quantity (such as a signed or unsigned integer)
- New perspective: View contents of register **as 32 bits** rather than as a single 32-bit number
- Operate **bit-wise**.
- Introduce two new classes of instructions:
  - Shift instructions
  - Logical operators



# Logical Operations

- Instructions for bitwise manipulation
- Useful for extracting and inserting groups of bits in a word

Operation	C	Java	MIPS
Shift left	<<	<<	sll
Shift right	>>	>>	srl
Bitwise AND	&	&	and, andi
Bitwise OR			or, ori
Bitwise NOT	~	~	Nor \$0



# Shift Instructions

- Shift Instruction Syntax:

**1**        **2**        **3**        **4**  
`sll`    `$t2,`   `$s0,`   `4`

1 operation name (op code)

2 register that will receive value

3 first operand (register)

4 shift amount (constant)

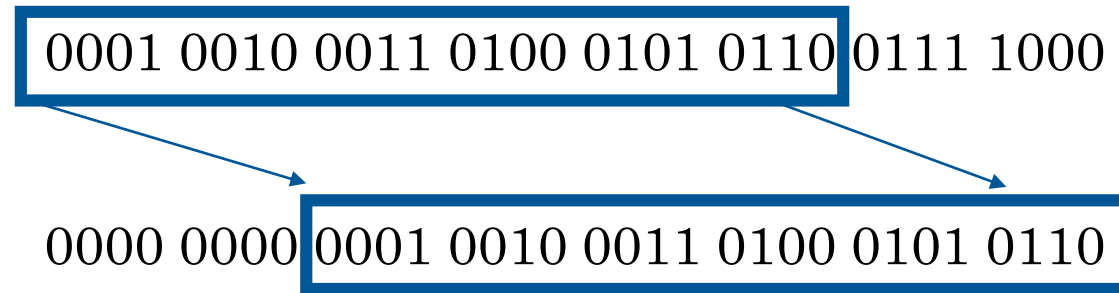
- MIPS has three shift instructions:

- `sll` (shift left logical): shifts left, fills empties with 0s
- `srl` (shift right logical): shifts right, fills empties with 0s
- `sra` (shift right arithmetic): shifts right, fills empties by sign extending

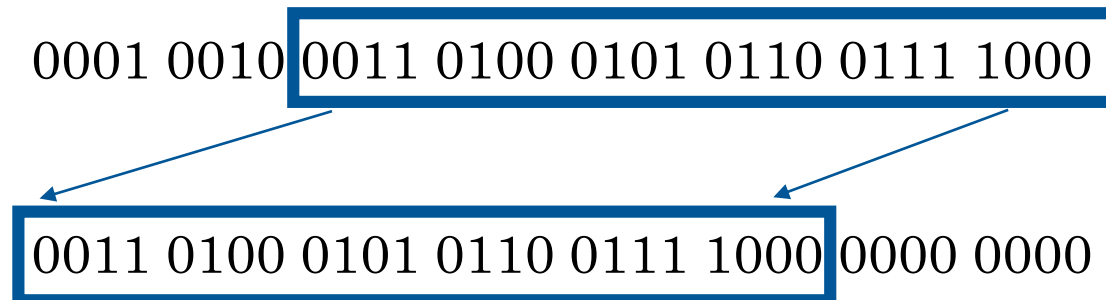


# Shift Instructions

- **sll, srl**: Move (shift) all the bits in a word to the left or right by a number of bits, filling the emptied bits with 0s.
- Example: shift right logic by 8 bits



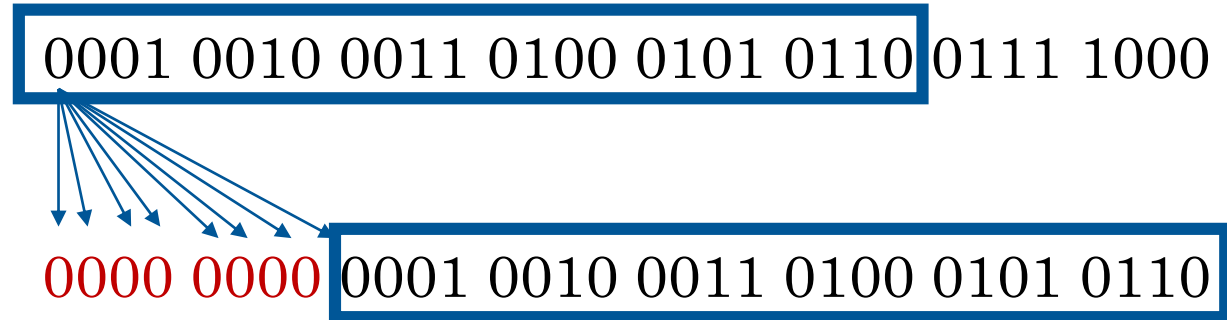
- Example: shift left by 8 bits



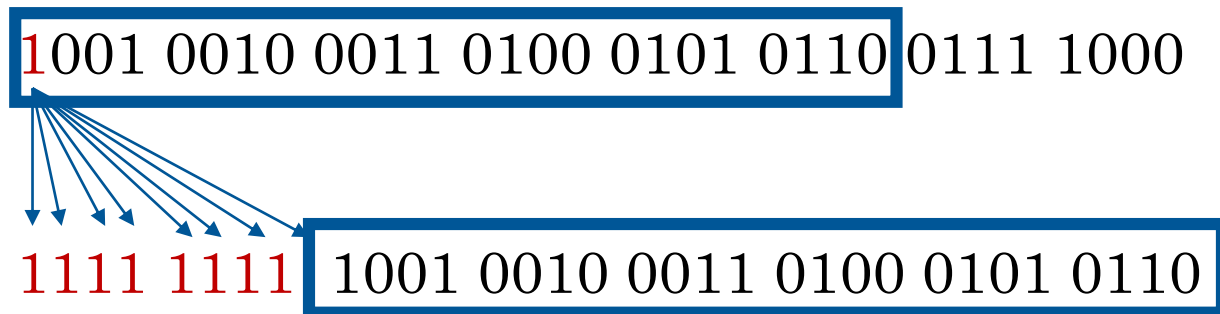


# Shift Instructions

- **sra** example: shift right arithmetic by 8 bits



- Example: shift right arithmetic by 8 bits







# Shift Instructions

- Shift for multiplication: in binary
  - Multiplying by 4 is same as shifting left by 2:
    - $11_2 \times 100_2 = 1100_2$
    - $1010_2 \times 100_2 = 101000_2$
  - Multiplying by  $2^n$  is same as shifting left by  $n$
- Since shifting is so much faster than multiplication (you can imagine how complicated multiplication is), a good compiler usually notices when C/Java code multiplies by a power of 2 and compiles it to a shift instruction:

`a *= 8;` (in C)

would compile to:

`sll $s0, $s0, 3` (in MIPS)



# AND operations

- Useful to **mask** bits in a word
  - Select some bits, clear others to 0

**and \$t0, \$t1, \$t2**

\$t2	0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 1101 1100 0000
\$t1	0000 0000 0000 0000 0011 1100 0000 0000
\$t0	0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 1100 0000 0000



# OR operations

- Useful to **include** bits in a word
  - Set some bits to 1, leave others unchanged

**or \$t0, \$t1, \$t2**

\$t2	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	11	01	1100	0000
\$t1	0000	0000	0000	0000	00	11	1100	0000	0000
\$t0	0000	0000	0000	0000	00	11	1101	1100	0000



# NOT operations

- Useful to invert bits in a word
  - Change 0 to 1, and 1 to 0
- MIPS uses NOR, a 3-operand instruction
  - $a \text{ NOR } b == \text{NOT } (a \text{ OR } b)$

**nor \$t0, \$t1, \$zero**

\$t1	0000	0000	0000	0000	0011	1100	0000	0000
\$t0	1111	1111	1111	1111	1100	0011	1111	1111



# Bitwise operations

- Question: `and $s0, $s1, $s2` (assuming 8-bit reg.)

Registers	Before	After
\$s0	1010 1110	?
\$s1	1011 1010	?
\$s2	0011 1001	?



# Bitwise operations

- E.g. `nor $s0, $s1, $zero` (assuming 8-bit reg.)

Registers	Before	After
<code>\$s0</code>	1010 1110	?
<code>\$s1</code>	1011 1010	1011 1010
<code>\$zero</code>	0000 0000	0000 0000

- Note there is no `norl` operation



- **Stored Program Model**
- **Three types of MIPS operands**
  - Register, Memory, Immediate
  - Memory organizations
- **MIPS Instructions**
  - Addition, subtraction, immediate, load/store, bitwise, shift, etc.
  - Hex representation of binary numbers.







University of  
**Nottingham**

UK | CHINA | MALAYSIA

**Stay Tuned.**