

#### Lecture #7

#### **MIPS**

Part I: Introduction



# Lecture #7: MIPS Part 1: Introduction (1/2)

- 1. Instruction Set Architecture
- 2. Machine Code vs Assembly Language
- 3. Walkthrough
- 4. General Purpose Registers
- 5. MIPS Assembly Language
  - 5.1 General Instruction Syntax
  - 5.2 Arithmetic Operation: Addition
  - 5.3 Arithmetic Operation: Subtraction
  - 5.4 Complex Expression
  - 5.5 Constant/Immediate Operands
  - 5.6 Register Zero (\$0 or \$zero)

# Lecture #7: MIPS Part 1: Introduction (1/2)

- 5. MIPS Assembly Language
  - 5.7 Logical Operations: Overview
  - 5.8 Logical Operations: Shifting
  - 5.9 Logical Operations: Bitwise AND
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  - 5.11 Logical Operations: Bitwise NOR
  - 5.12 Logical Operations: Bitwise XOR
- 6. Large Constant: Case Study
- 7. MIPS Basic Instructions Checklist

## Recap

High-level language program (in C)

Assembly

language

program

(for MIPS)

swap(int v[], int k){int temp: temp = v[k]; v[k] = v[k+1];v[k+1] = temp;Compiler swap: muli \$2, \$5,4 \$2, \$4,\$2 \$15, 0(\$2) \$16, 4(\$2) \$16.0(\$2) \$15, 4(\$2) SW \$31 Assembler

Binary machine language program (for MIPS)  You write programs in high level programming languages, e.g., C/C++, Java:

$$A + B$$

Compiler translates this into assembly language statement:

 Assembler translates this statement into machine language instructions that the processor can execute:

1000 1100 1010 0000

# 1. Instruction Set Architecture (1/2)

- Instruction Set Architecture (ISA):
  - An abstraction on the interface between the hardware and the low-level software.

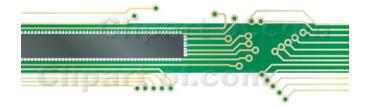
#### Software

(to be translated to the instruction set)



#### **Instruction Set Architecture**

# Hardware (implementing the instruction set)



# 1. Instruction Set Architecture (2/2)

- Instruction Set Architecture
  - Includes everything programmers need to know to make the machine code work correctly
  - Allows computer designers to talk about functions independently from the hardware that performs them
- This abstraction allows many implementations of varying cost and performance to run identical software.
  - Example: Intel x86/IA-32 ISA has been implemented by a range of processors starting from 80386 (1985) to Pentium 4 (2005)
  - Other companies such as AMD and Transmeta have implemented IA-32 ISA as well
  - A program compiled for IA-32 ISA can execute on any of these implementations

## 2. Machine Code vs Assembly Language

#### Machine code

- Instructions are represented in binary
- 1000110010100000 is an instruction that tells one computer to add two numbers
- Hard and tedious for programmer

#### Assembly language

- Symbolic version of machine code
- Human readable
- add A, B is equivalent to 1000110010100000
- Assembler translates from assembly language to machine code
- Assembly can provide 'pseudo-instructions' as syntactic sugar
- When considering performance, only real instructions are counted.

#### **MIPS** instruction

**sll \$8**, \$9, **4** 

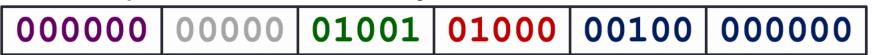


Note the placement of the source register

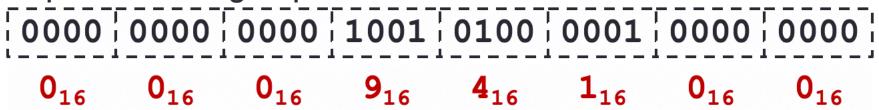
Field representation in decimal:

opcode	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
0	0	9	8	4	0

Field representation in binary:



Split into 4-bit groups for hexadecimal conversion:



#### 3. Walkthrough: An Example Code (1/15)

- Let us take a journey with the execution of a simple code:
  - Discover the components in a typical computer
  - Learn the type of instructions required to control the processor
  - Simplified to highlight the important concepts ©

```
// assume res is 0 initially
for (i=1; i<10; i++) {
    res = res + i;
}</pre>
```



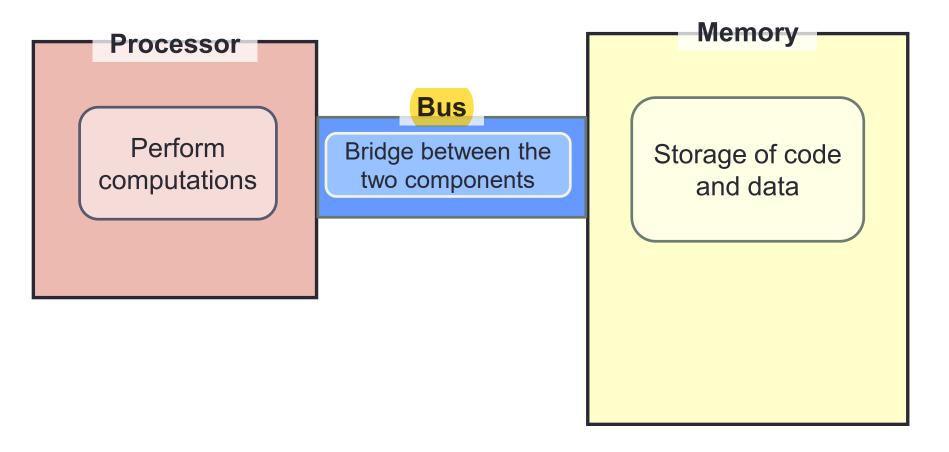
res ← res + i
i ← i + 1
if i < 10, repeat

C-like code fragment

"Assembly" Code

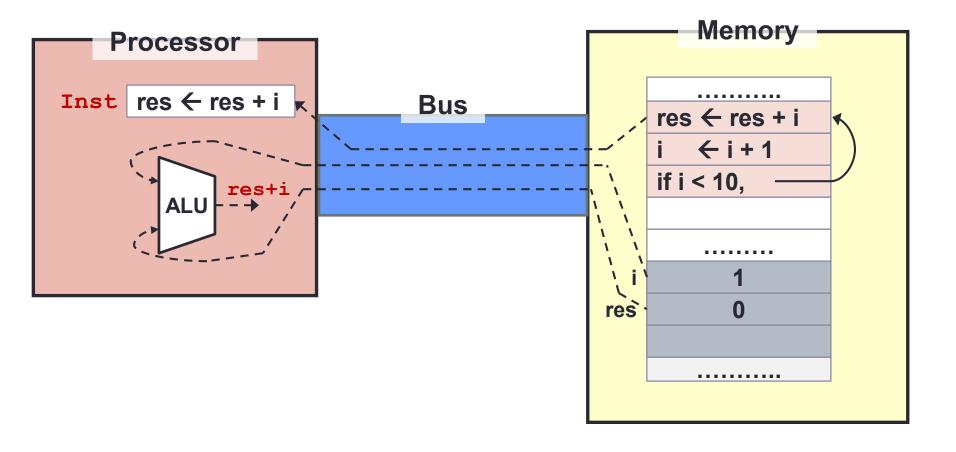
#### 3. Walkthrough: The Components (2/15)

- The two major components in a computer
  - Processor and Memory
  - Input/Output devices omitted in this example



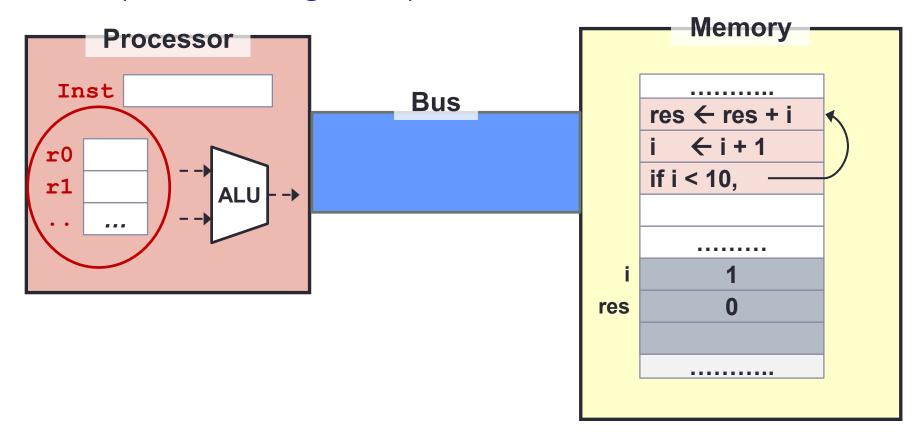
#### 3. Walkthrough: The Code in Action (3/15)

- The code and data reside in memory
  - Transferred into the processor during execution



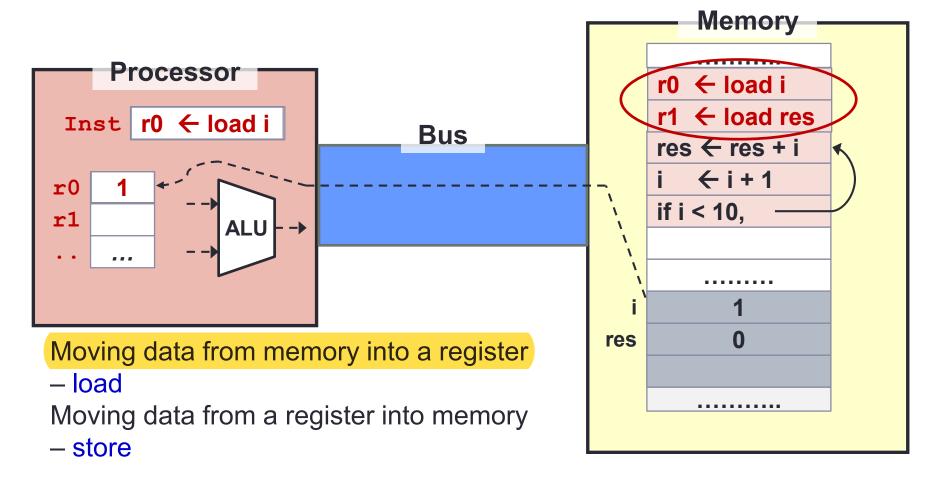
### 3. Walkthrough: Memory Access is Slow! (4/15)

- To avoid frequent access of memory
  - Provide temporary storage for values in the processor (known as registers)



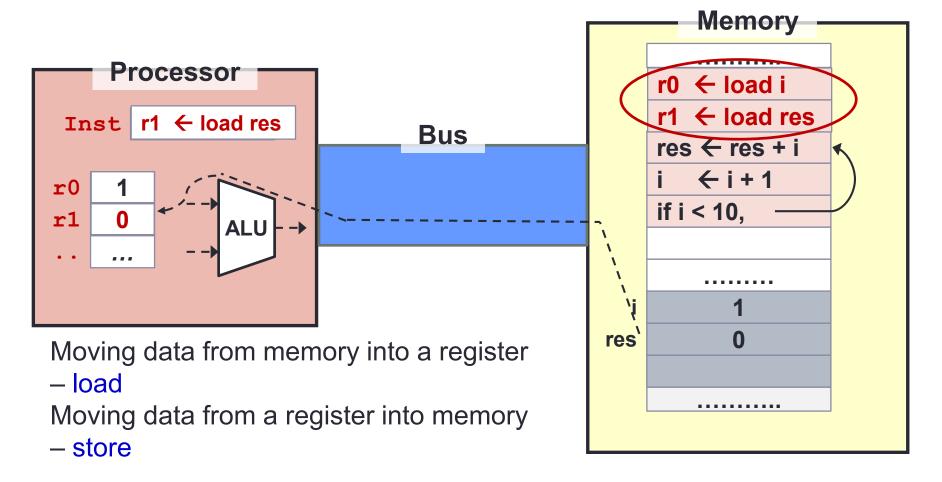
#### 3. Walkthrough: Memory Instruction (5/15)

- Need instruction to move data into registers
  - Also to move data from registers to memory later



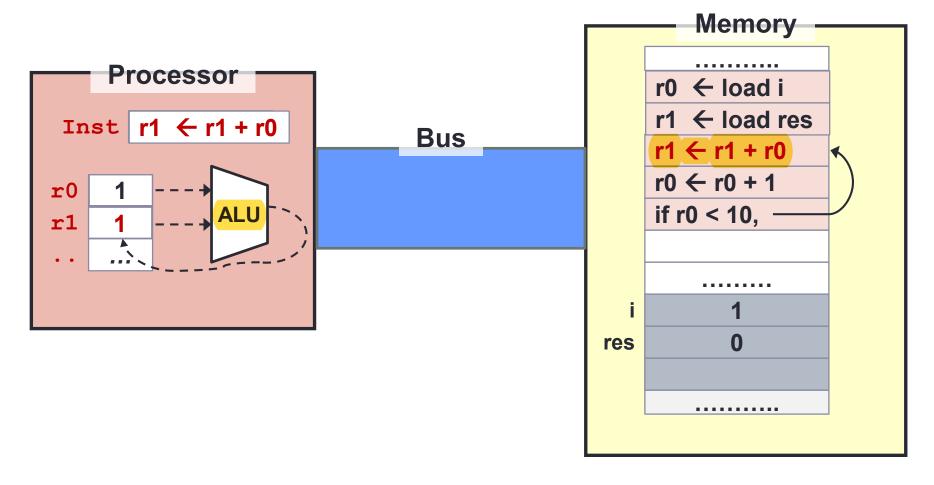
#### 3. Walkthrough: Memory Instruction (6/15)

- Need instruction to move data into registers
  - Also to move data from registers to memory later



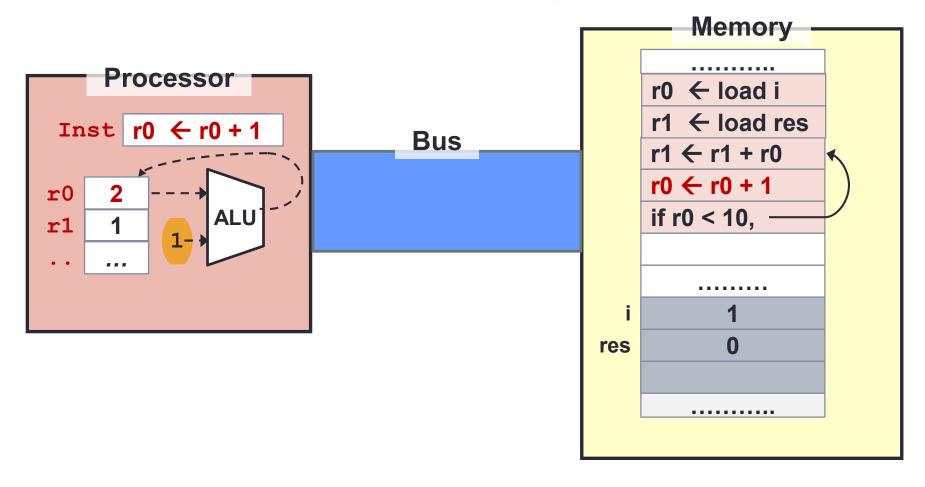
### 3. Walkthrough: Reg-to-Reg Arithmetic (7/15)

 Arithmetic operations can now work directly on registers only (much faster!)



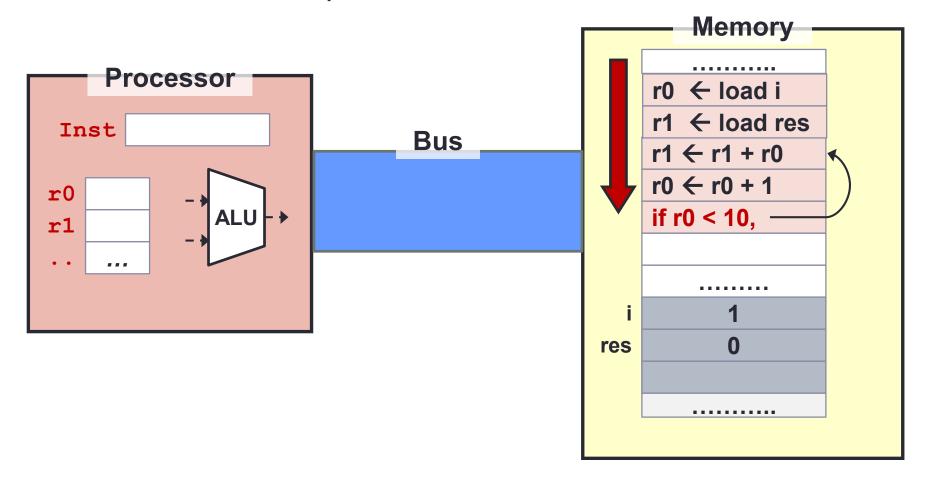
#### 3. Walkthrough: Reg-to-Reg Arithmetic (8/15)

 Sometimes, arithmetic operation uses a constant value instead of register value



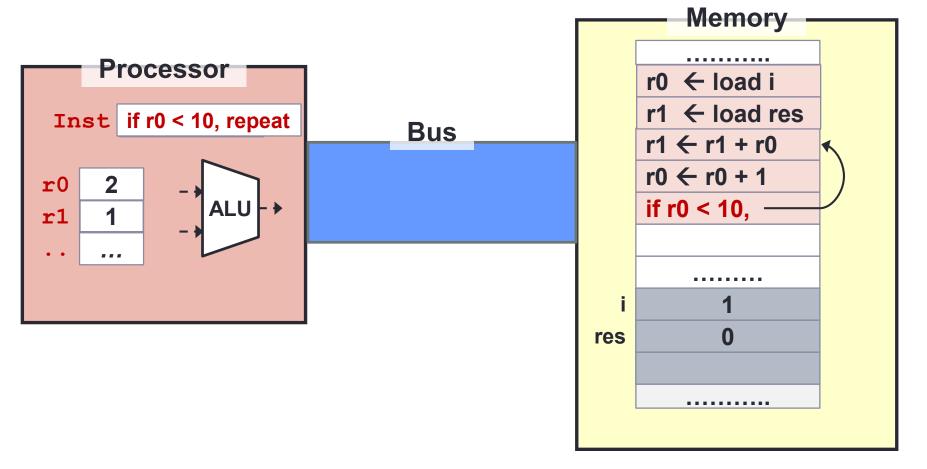
#### 3. Walkthrough: Execution Sequence (9/15)

- Instruction is executed sequentially by default
  - How do we "repeat" or "make a choice"?



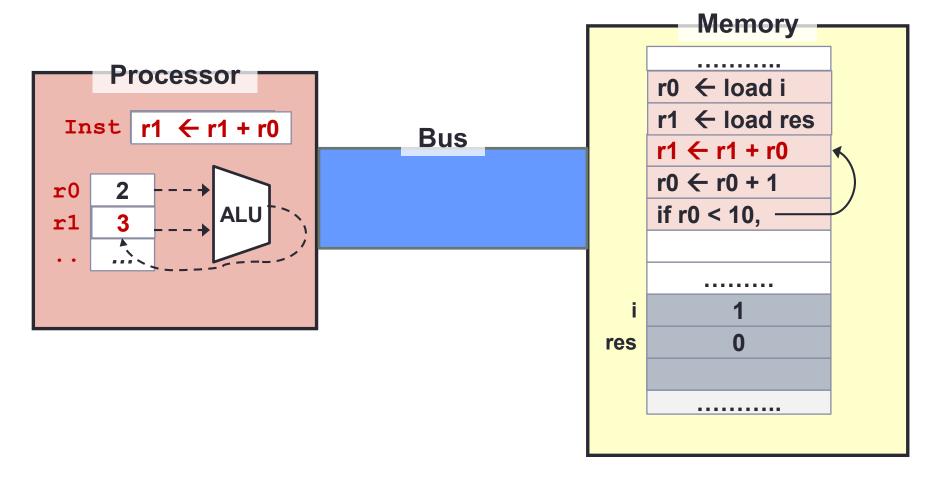
### 3. Walkthrough: Control Flow (10/15)

- We need instructions to change the control flow based on condition:
  - Repetition (loop) and Selection (if-else) can both be supported



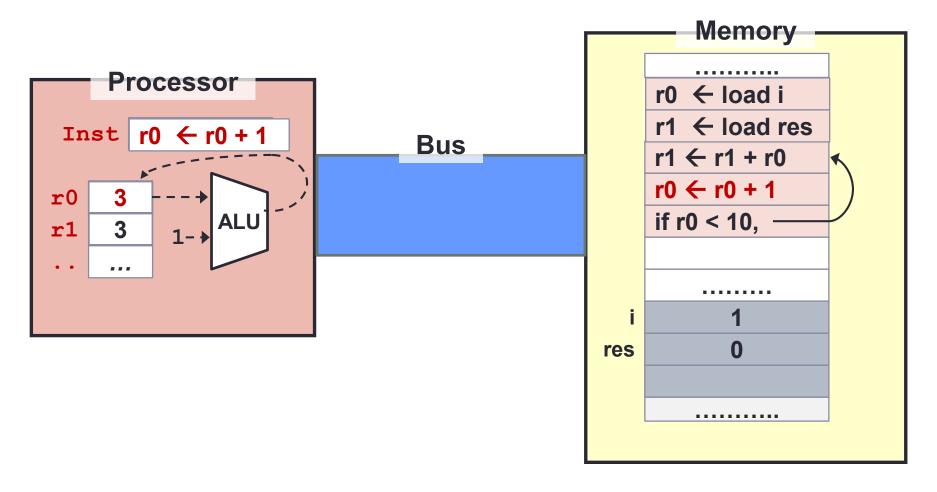
### 3. Walkthrough: Looping! (11/15)

 Since the condition succeeded, execution will repeat from the indicated position



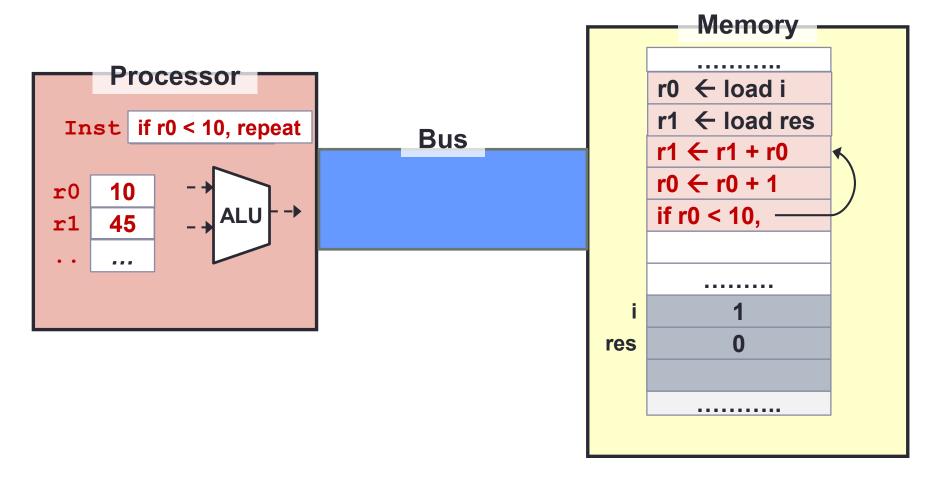
#### 3. Walkthrough: Looping! (12/15)

- Execution will continue sequentially
  - Until we see another control flow instruction



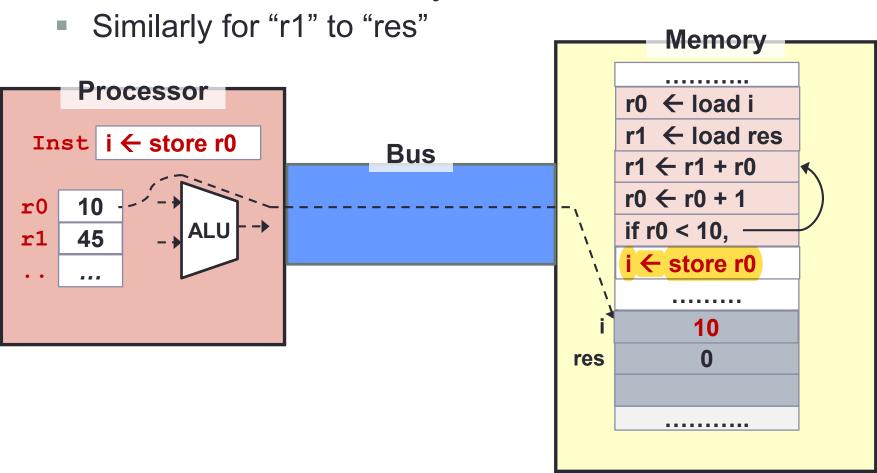
#### 3. Walkthrough: Looping! (13/15)

 The three instructions will be repeated until the condition fails



#### 3. Walkthrough: Memory Instruction (14/15)

 We can now move back the values from register to their "home" in memory



#### 3. Walkthrough: Summary (15/15)

- The stored-memory concept:
  - Both instruction and data are stored in memory
- The load-store model:
  - Limit memory operations and relies on registers for storage during execution
- The major types of assembly instruction:
  - Memory: Move values between memory and registers
  - Calculation: Arithmetic and other operations
  - Control flow: Change the sequential execution

# 4. General Purpose Registers (1/2)

- Fast memories in the processor:
  - Data are transferred from memory to registers for faster processing
- Limited in number:
  - A typical architecture has 16 to 32 registers
  - Compiler associates variables in program with registers
- Registers have no data type
  - Unlike program variables!
  - Machine/Assembly instruction assumes the data stored in the register is of the correct type

# 4. General Purpose Registers (2/2)

- There are 32 registers in MIPS assembly language:
  - Can be referred by a number (\$0, \$1, ..., \$31) OR
  - Referred by a name (eg: \$a0, \$t1)

Name	Register number	Usage	
\$zero	0	Constant value 0	
\$v0-\$v1	2-3	Values for results and expression evaluation	
\$a0-\$a3	4-7	Arguments	
\$t0-\$t7	8-15	Temporaries	
\$s0-\$s7	16-23	Program variables	

Name		Register number	Usage
\$t8-	-\$t9	24-25	More temporaries
\$gp		28	Global pointer
\$sp		29	Stack pointer
\$fp		30	Frame pointer
\$ra		31	Return address

\$at (register 1) is reserved for the assembler.

\$k0-\$k1 (registers 26-27) are reserved for the operation system.

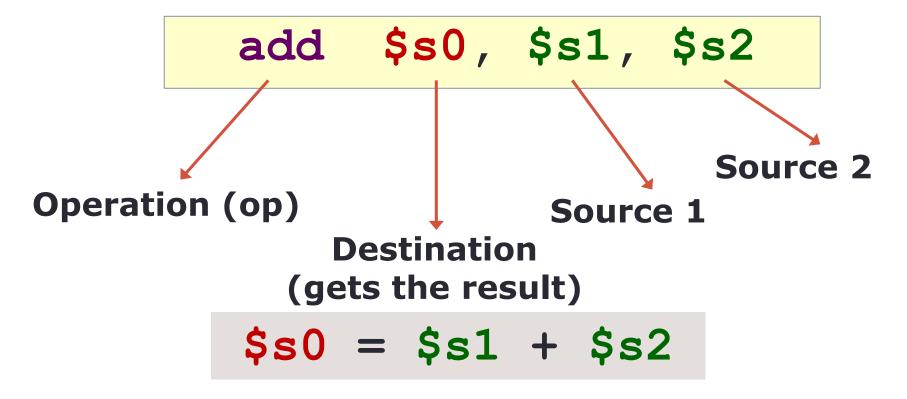
## 5. MIPS Assembly Language

- Each instruction executes a simple command
  - Usually has a counterpart in high level programming languages like C/C++, Java etc
- Each line of assembly code contains at most 1 instruction
- # (hex-sign) is used for comments
  - Anything from # to end of line is a comment and will be ignored by the assembler

```
add $t0, $s1, $s2  # $t0 ← $s1 + $s2

sub $s0, $t0, $s3  # $s0 ← $t0 - $s3
```

# 5.1 General Instruction Syntax



Naturally, most of the MIPS arithmetic/logic operations have three operands: **2 sources** and **1 destination** 

# 5.2 Arithmetic Operation: Addition

C Statement	MIPS Assembly Code	
a = b + c;	add \$s0, \$s1, \$s2	

- We assume the values of "a", "b" and "c" are loaded into registers "\$s0", "\$s1" and "\$s2"
  - Known as variable mapping
  - Actual code to perform the loading will be shown later in memory instruction
- Important concept:
  - MIPS arithmetic operations are mainly register-to-register

## 5.3 Arithmetic Operation: Subtraction

C Statement	MIPS Assembly Code		
a = b - c;	sub \$s0, \$s1, \$s2		
	\$s0 → variable a \$s1 → variable b		
	\$s2 → variable c		

Positions of \$s1 and \$s2 (i.e., source1 and source2) are important for subtraction

# 5.4 Complex Expression (1/3)

C Statement	MIPS Assembly Code	
a = b + c - d;	<b>333 333</b>	
	\$s0 → variable a	
	\$s1 → variable b	
	\$s2 → variable c	
	\$s3 → variable d	

- A single MIPS instruction can handle at most two source operands
  - → Need to break a complex statement into multiple MIPS instructions

```
MIPS Assembly Code

add $t0, $s1, $s2 # tmp = b + c

sub $s0, $t0, $s3 # a = tmp - d
```

Use temporary registers **\$t0** to **\$t7** for intermediate results

# 5.4 Complex Expression: Example (2/3)

C Statement	Variable Mappings	
f = (g + h) - (i + j);	\$s0 \rightarrow variable f \$s1 \rightarrow variable g \$s2 \rightarrow variable h \$s3 \rightarrow variable j	

- Break it up into multiple instructions
  - Use two temporary registers \$t0, \$t1

```
add $t0, $s1, $s2  # tmp0 = g + h
add $t1, $s3, $s4  # tmp1 = i + j
sub $s0, $t0, $t1  # f = tmp0 - tmp1
```

# 5.4 Complex Expression: Exercise (3/3)

C Statement	Variable Mappings	
z = a + b + c + d; add \$s4, \$s0, \$s1 add \$s4, \$s4, \$s2 add \$s4, \$s4, \$s3	\$s0 → variable a \$s1 → variable b \$s2 → variable c \$s3 → variable d \$s4 → variable z	

C Statement	Variable Mappings	
z = (a - b) + c; sub \$s3, \$s0, \$s1 add \$s3, \$s3, \$s2	\$s0 → variable a \$s1 → variable b \$s2 → variable c \$s3 → variable z	



# 5.5 Constant/Immediate Operands

C Statement	MIPS Assembly Code	
a = a + 4;	addi \$s0, \$s0, 4	

- Immediate values are numerical constants
  - Frequently used in operations
  - MIPS supplies a set of operations specially for them
- "Add immediate" (addi)
  - Syntax is similar to add instruction;
     but source2 is a constant instead of register
  - The constant ranges from [-2<sup>15</sup> to 2<sup>15</sup>-1]

Can you guess what number system is used?

There's no subi. Why?

Answer: 16-bit 2s complement number system

Answer: Use addi with negative constant

# 5.6 Register Zero (\$0 or \$zero)

- The number zero (0), appears very often in code
  - Provide register zero (\$0 or \$zero) which always have the value 0

C Statement	MIPS Assembly Code	
f = g;	add \$s0, \$s1, \$zero \$s0 → variable f \$s1 → variable g	

The above assignment is so common that MIPS has an equivalent pseudo instruction (move):

# MIPS Assembly Code move \$s0, \$s1

#### **Pseudo-Instruction**

"Fake" instruction that gets translated to corresponding MIPS instruction(s). Provided for convenience in coding only.

# 5.7 Logical Operations: Overview (1/2)

- Arithmetic instructions view the content of a register as a single quantity (signed or unsigned integer)
- New perspective:
  - View register as 32 raw bits rather than as a single 32-bit number
  - → Possible to operate on individual bits or bytes within a word

Logical operation	C operator	Java operator	MIPS instruction
Shift Left	<<	<<	sll
Shift right	>>	>>, >>>	srl
Bitwise AND	&	&	and, andi
Bitwise OR	1	1	or, ori
Bitwise NOT*	~	~	nor
Bitwise XOR	^	^	xor, xori

<sup>\*</sup>with some tricks

# 5.7 Logical Operations: Overview (2/2)

- Truth tables of logical operations
  - 0 represents false; 1 represents true

**AND** 

а	b	a AND b
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

OR

a	b	a OR b	
0	0	0	
0	1	1	
1	0	1	
1	1	1	

**NOR** 

a	b	a NOR b		
0	0	1		
0	1	0		
1	0	0		
1	1	0		

**XOR** 

a	b	a XOR b		
0	0	0		
0	1	1		
1	0	1		
1	1	0		

# 5.8 Logical Operations: Shifting (1/2)

Opcode: sll (shift left logical)

Move all the bits in a word to the left by a number of positions; fill the emptied positions with zeroes.

E.g. Shift bits in \$s0 to the left by 4 positions

```
$s0 1011 1000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 1001

$11 $t2, $s0, 4 # $t2 = $s0<<4

$t2 1000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 1001 0000
```

# 5.8 Logical Operations: Shifting (2/2)

Opcode: srl (shift right logical)

Shifts right and fills emptied positions with zeroes.

- What is the equivalent math operations for shifting left/right n bits? Answer: Multiply/divide by 2<sup>n</sup>
- Shifting is faster than multiplication/division
  - Good compiler translates such multiplication/division into shift instructions

C Statement	MIPS Assembly Code			
a = a * 8;	sll \$s0, \$s0, 3			

# 5.9 Logical Operations: Bitwise AND

#### Opcode: and (bitwise AND)

Bitwise operation that leaves a 1 only if both the bits of the operands are 1

E.g.: and \$t0, \$t1, \$t2

```
      $t1
      0110
      0011
      0010
      1111
      0000
      1101
      0101
      1001

      mask
      $t2
      0000
      0000
      0000
      0000
      0001
      1100
      0000
      0000
      0000

      $t0
      0000
      0000
      0000
      0000
      0000
      1100
      0000
      0000
      0000
```

- and can be used for masking operation:
  - Place 0s into the positions to be ignored → bits will turn into 0s
  - Place 1s for interested positions → bits will remain the same as the original.

#### 5.9 Exercise: Bitwise AND

- We are interested in the last 12 bits of the word in register \$t1. Result to be stored in \$t0.
  - Q: What's the mask to use?

#### **Notes:**

The and instruction has an immediate version, andi

# 5.10 Logical Operations: Bitwise OR

**Opcode:** or (bitwise OR)

Bitwise operation that that places a 1 in the result if either operand bit is 1

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

- The or instruction has an immediate version ori
- Can be used to force certain bits to 1s
- E.g.: ori \$t0, \$t1, 0xFFF

# 5.11 Logical Operations: Bitwise NOR

- Strange fact 1:
  - There is no **NOT** instruction in MIPS to toggle the bits  $(1 \rightarrow 0, 0 \rightarrow 1)$
  - However, a NOR instruction is provided:

```
Opcode: nor (bitwise NOR)
```

**Example:** nor \$t0, \$t1, \$t2

Question: How do we get a NOT operation?

nor \$t0, \$t0, \$zero

Question: Why do you think is the reason for not providing a NOT instruction?

One of design principles: Keep the instruction set small.

# 5.12 Logical Operations: Bitwise XOR

Opcode: xor (bitwise XOR)

**Example:** xor \$t0, \$t1, \$t2

- Question: Can we also get **NOT** operation from XOR?

  Yes, let \$t2 contain all 1s.

  xor \$t0, \$t2
- Strange Fact 2:
  - There is no NORI, but there is XORI in MIPS
  - Why?

# 6. Large Constant: Case Study

- Question: How to load a 32-bit constant into a register? e.g 10101010 10101010 11110000 11110000
- 1. Use "load upper immediate" (lui) to set the upper 16-bit:
  lui \$t0, 0xAAAA #10101010101010

2. Use "or immediate" (ori) to set the lower-order bits:

ori \$t0, \$t0, 0xF0F0 #1111000011110000

1010101	010101010	00000000000000000
ori 0000000	00000000	1111000011110000
1010101	010101010	1111000011110000
1010101		

#### 7. MIPS Basic Instructions Checklist

Operation	Opcode in MIPS			IPS	Meaning
Addition	add \$	ŝsO,	\$s1,	\$s2	\$s0 = \$s1 + \$s2
	addi \$	\$s0,	\$s1,	C16 <sub>2s</sub>	$$s0 = $s1 + C16_{2s}$
Subtraction	sub \$	\$s0,	\$s1,	\$s2	\$s0 = \$s1 - \$s2
Shift left logical	sll \$	\$s0,	\$s1,	C5	\$s0 = \$s1 << C5
Shift right logical	srl \$	\$s0,	\$s1,	C5	\$s0 = \$s1 >> C5
AND bitwise	and \$	\$s0,	\$s1,	\$s2	\$s0 = \$s1 & \$s2
	andi \$	\$s0,	\$s1,	C16	\$s0 = \$s1 & C16
OR bitwise	or \$	\$s0,	\$s1,	\$s2	\$s0 = \$s1   \$s2
	ori \$	\$s0,	\$s1,	C16	\$s0 = \$s1   C16
NOR bitwise	nor \$	\$s0,	\$s1,	\$s2	\$s0 = \$s1 ↓ \$s2
XOR bitwise	xor \$	\$s0,	\$s1,	\$s2	\$s0 = \$s1 \(\phi\) \$s2
	xori \$	\$s0,	\$s1,	C16	\$s0 = \$s1 \(\phi\) C16

**C5** is  $[0 \text{ to } 2^5-1]$ 

 $C16_{2s}$  is [-2<sup>15</sup> to 2<sup>15</sup>-1]

C16 is a 16-bit pattern

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