



COMPUTER ORGANISATION (TỔ CHỨC MÁY TÍNH)

MIPS: Introduction

Acknowledgement

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- We greatly appreciate support from Mr. Aaron Tan Tuck Choy for kindly sharing these materials.

Policies for students

- These contents are only used for students PERSONALLY.
- Students are NOT allowed to modify or deliver these contents to anywhere or anyone for any purpose.

Recording of modifications

- The list of the text books was changed (1-st book)
- Minor changes on online materials

Road Map: Part II

Performance

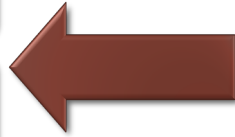
Assembly
Language

Processor:
Datapath

Processor:
Control

Pipelining

Cache

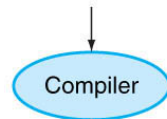


- Introduction:
 - Execution Walkthrough
 - Simple MIPS instructions
 - Arithmetic Operations
 - Immediate Operands
 - Logical Operations

Recap: Controlling the hardware?

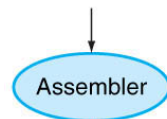
High-level
language
program
(in C)

```
swap(int v[], int k)
{int temp;
  temp = v[k];
  v[k] = v[k+1];
  v[k+1] = temp;
}
```



Assembly
language
program
(for MIPS)

```
swap:
  muli $2, $5, 4
  add $2, $4, $2
  lw $15, 0($2)
  lw $16, 4($2)
  sw $16, 0($2)
  sw $15, 4($2)
  jr $31
```



Binary machine
language
program
(for MIPS)

```
000000001010000100000000000011000
0000000000000110000001100000100001
10001100011000100000000000000000
100011001111001000000000000000100
10101100111100100000000000000000
101011000110001000000000000000100
00000011111000000000000000001000
```

- You write programs in high level programming languages, e.g., C/C++, Java:

A + B

- Compiler translates this into assembly language statement:

add A, B

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

1000 1100 1010 0000

Instruction Set Architecture (1/2)

■ Instruction Set Architecture (ISA):

- An abstraction on the interface between the hardware and the low-level software.

Software

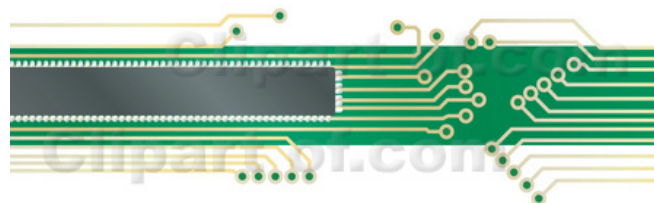
(to be translated to the instruction set)



Instruction Set Architecture

Hardware

(implementing the instruction set)



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

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.

Walkthrough: The code example

- 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;  
}
```

C-like code
fragment

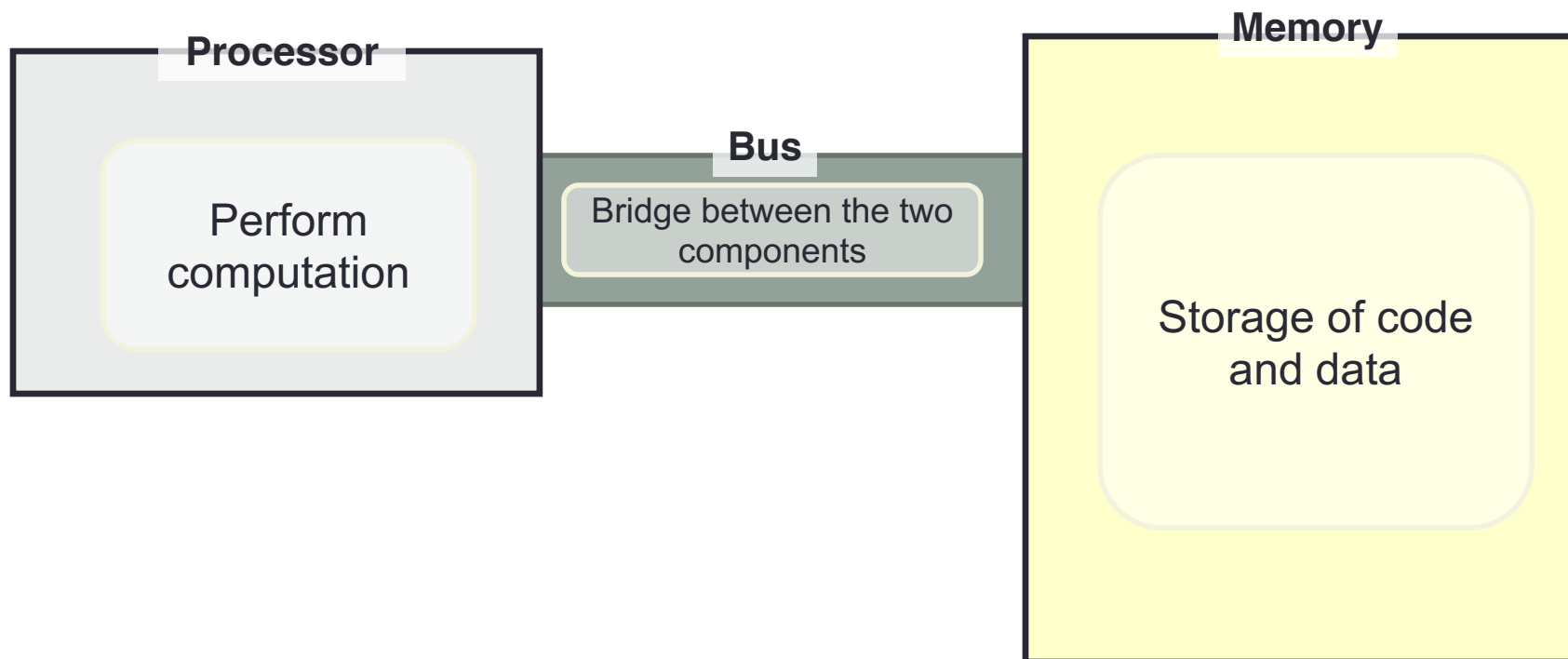


```
res ← res + i  
i ← i + 1  
If i < 10, repeat
```

"Assembly"
Code

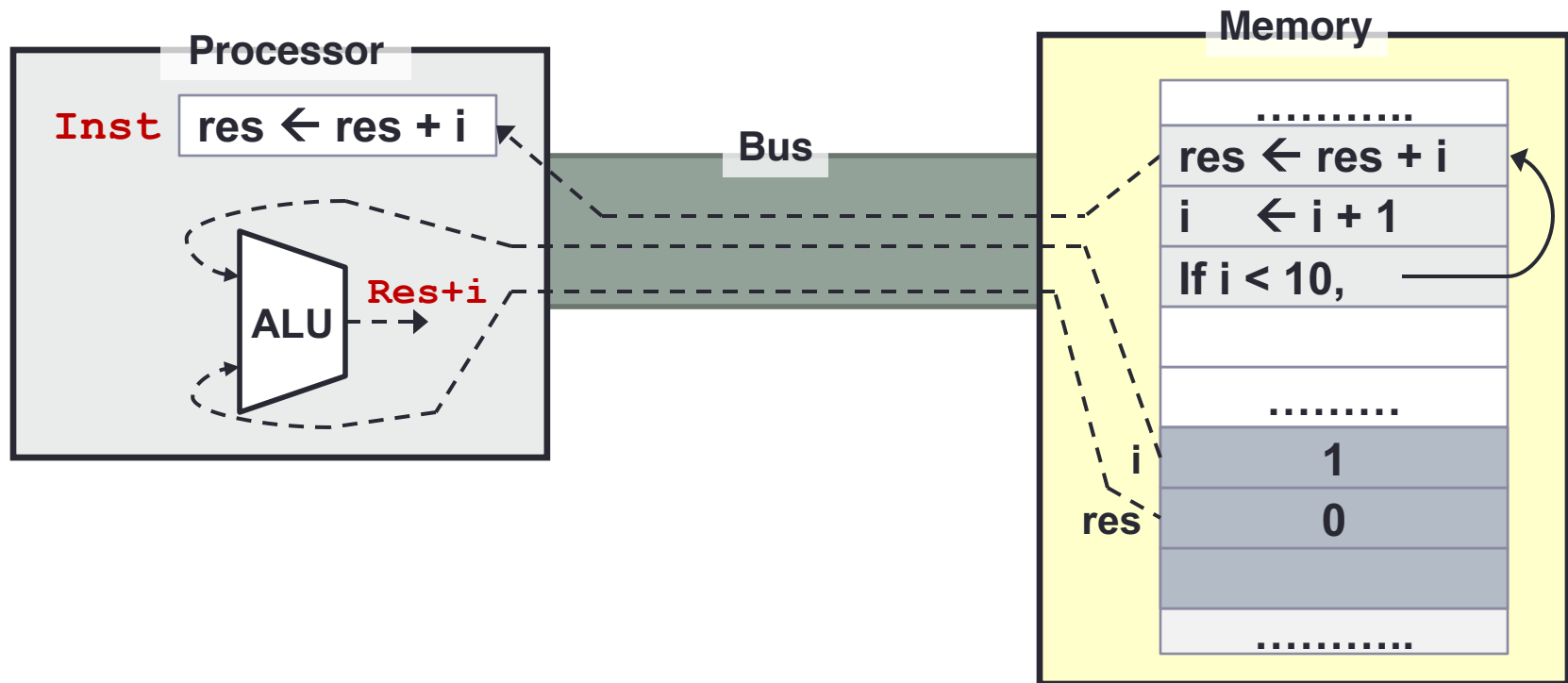
Walkthrough: The components

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



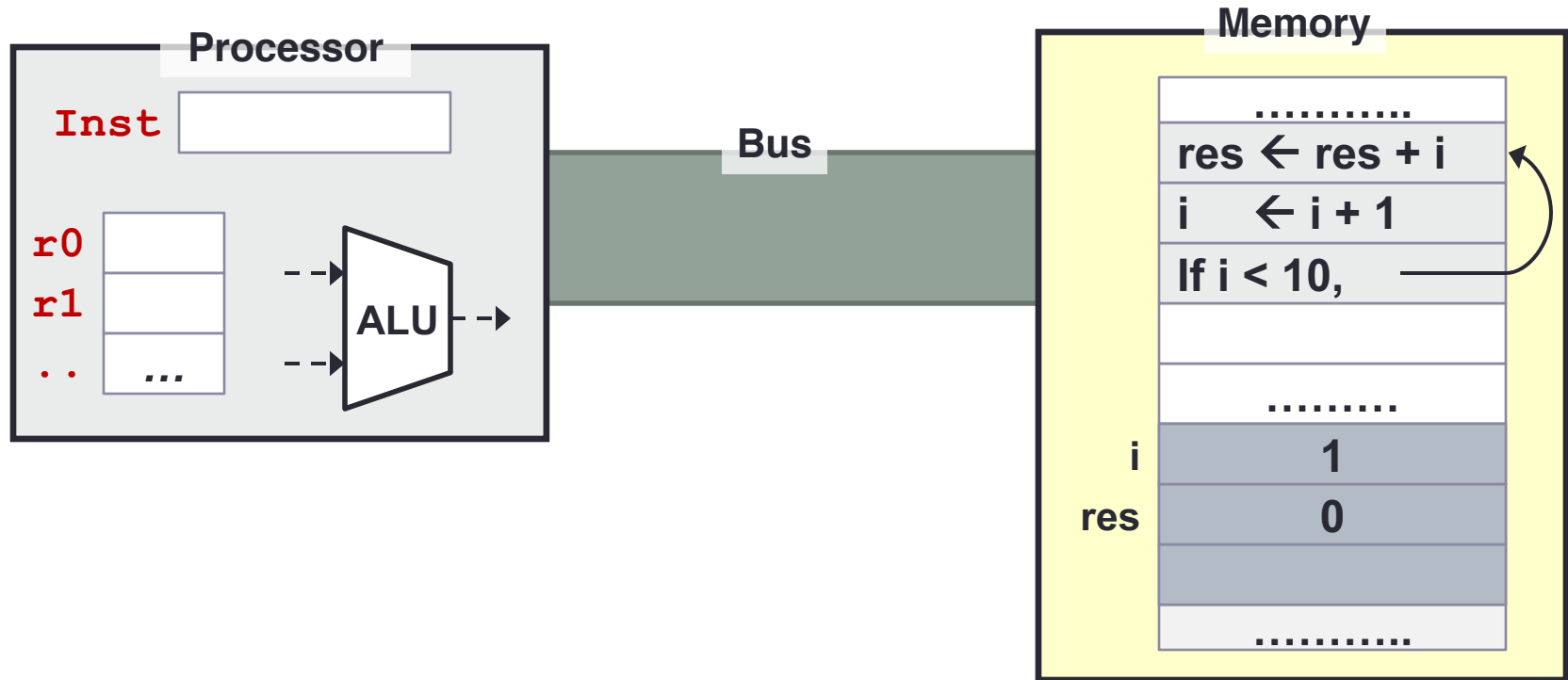
Walkthrough: The code in action

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



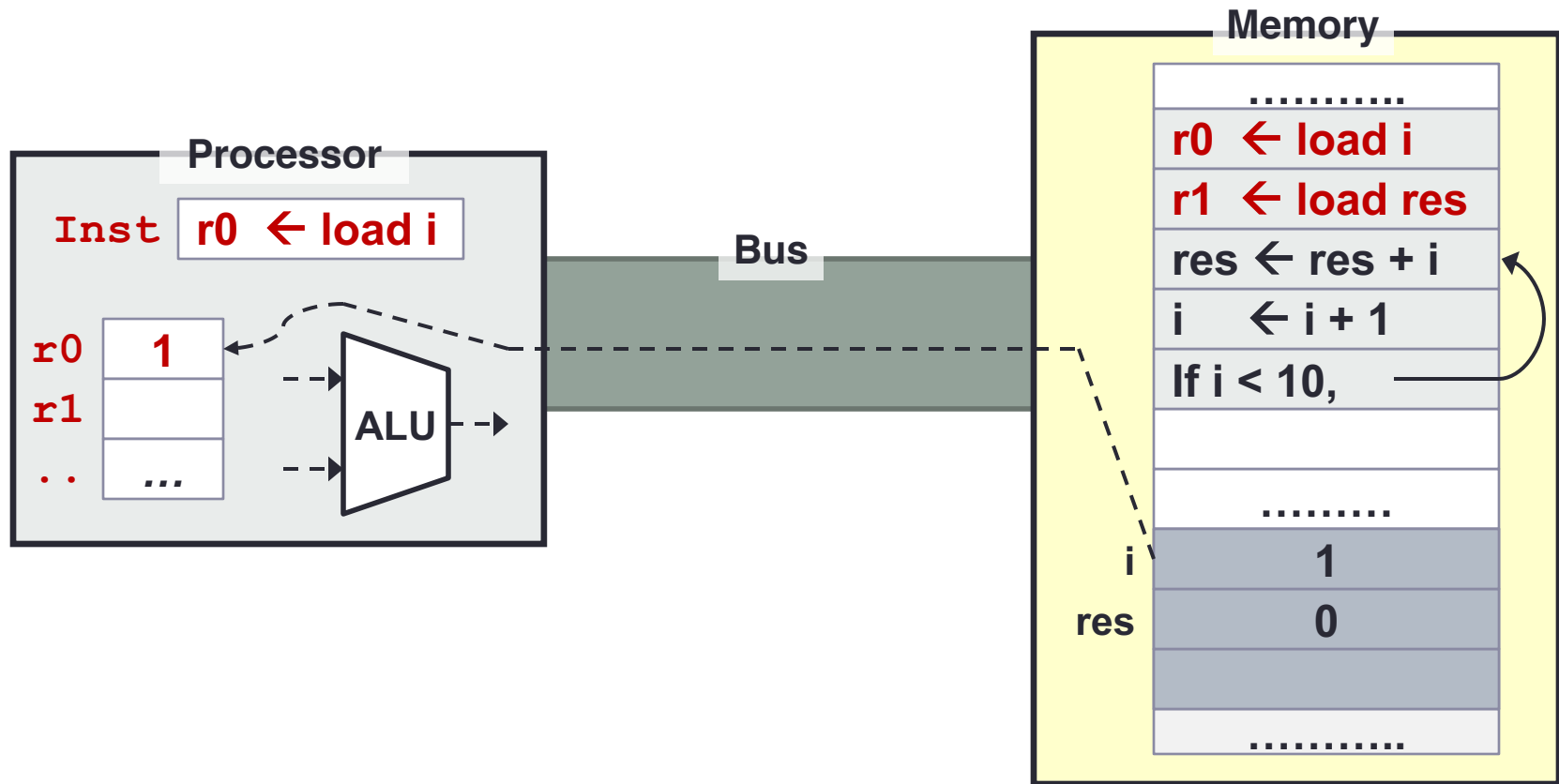
Walkthrough: Memory access is slow!

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



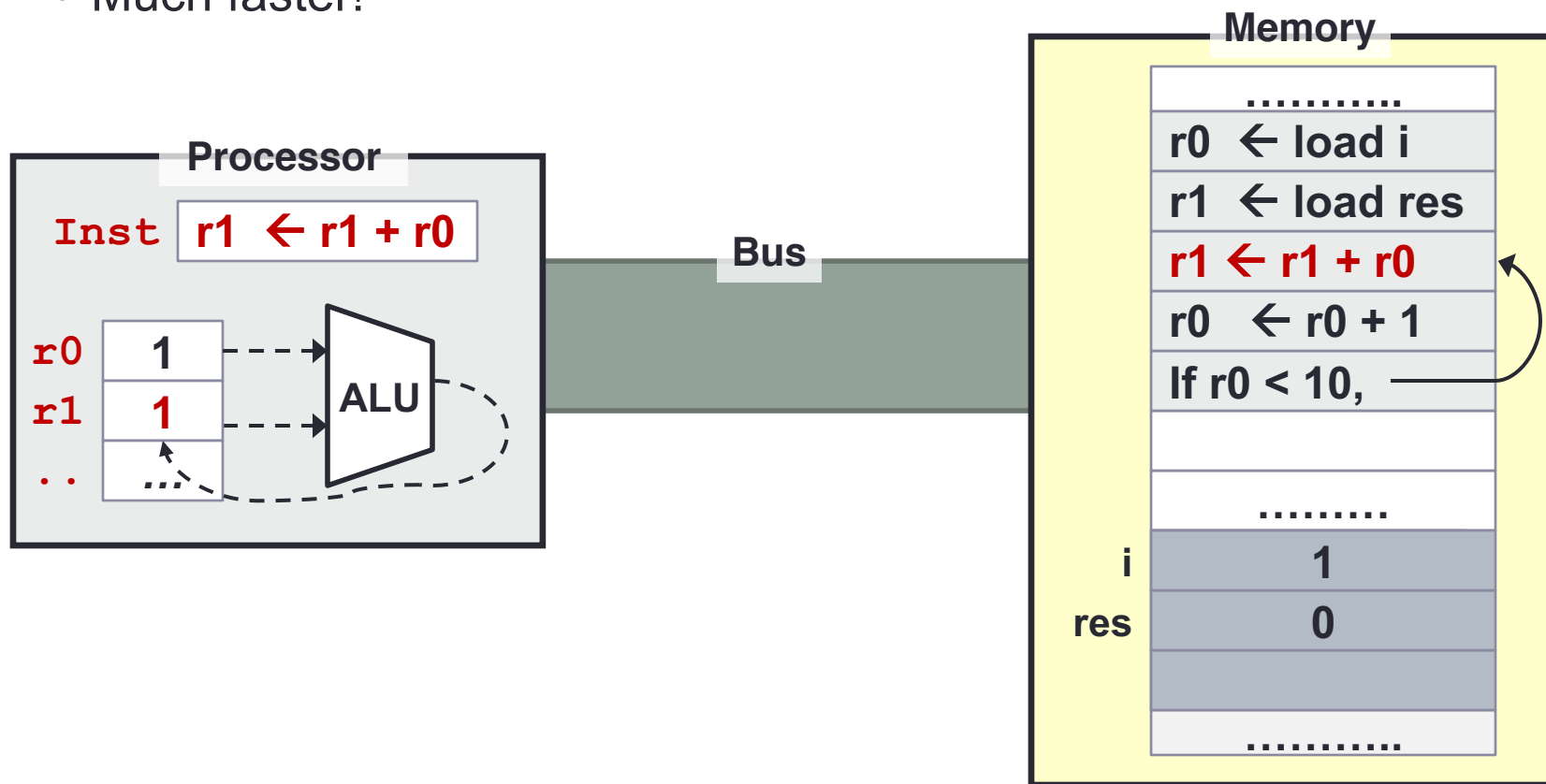
Walkthrough: Memory instruction

- Need instruction to move data into register
 - also out of register into memory later



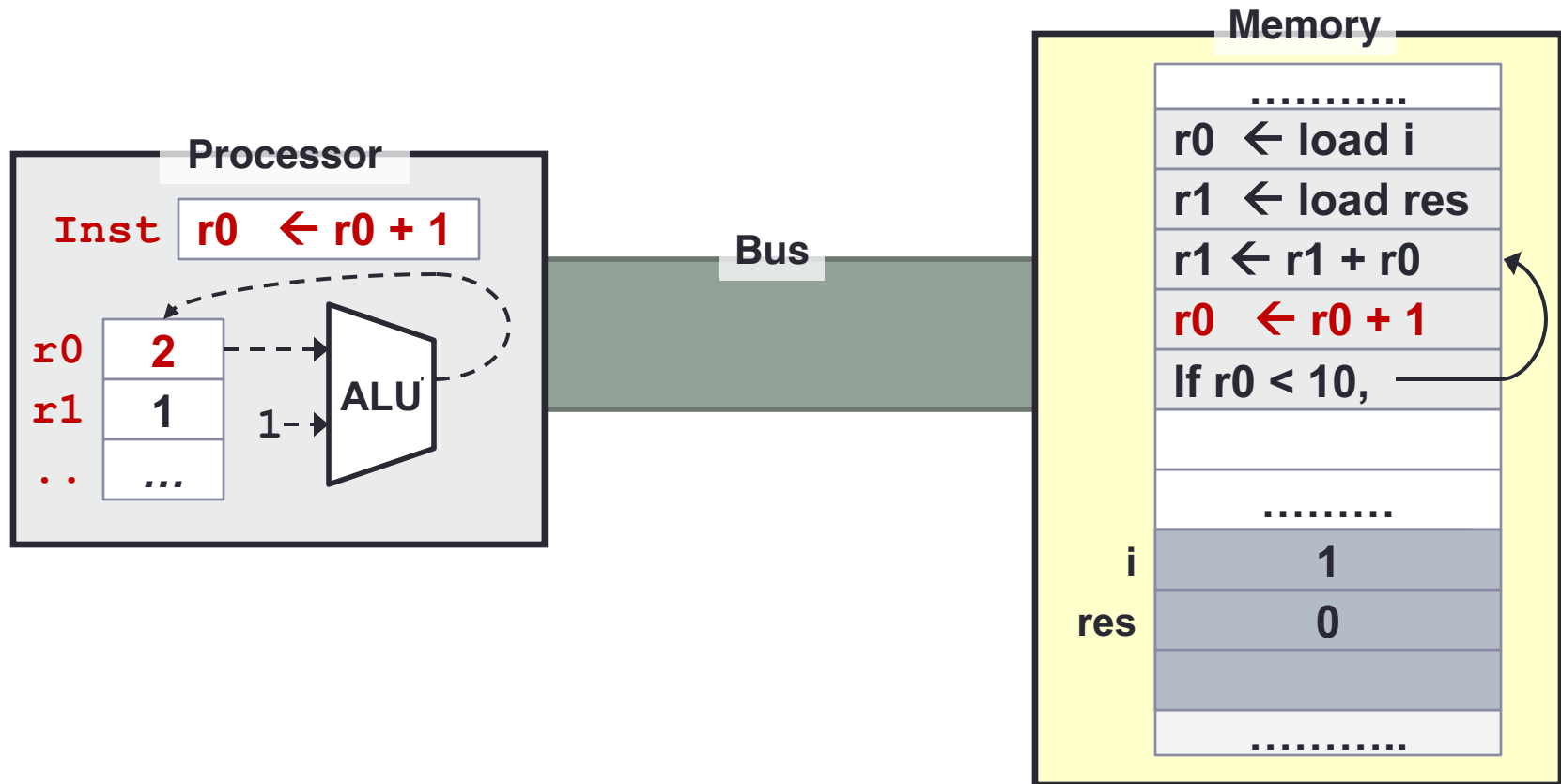
Walkthrough: Reg-to-Reg Arithmetic

- Arithmetic operation can now work directly on registers only:
 - Much faster!



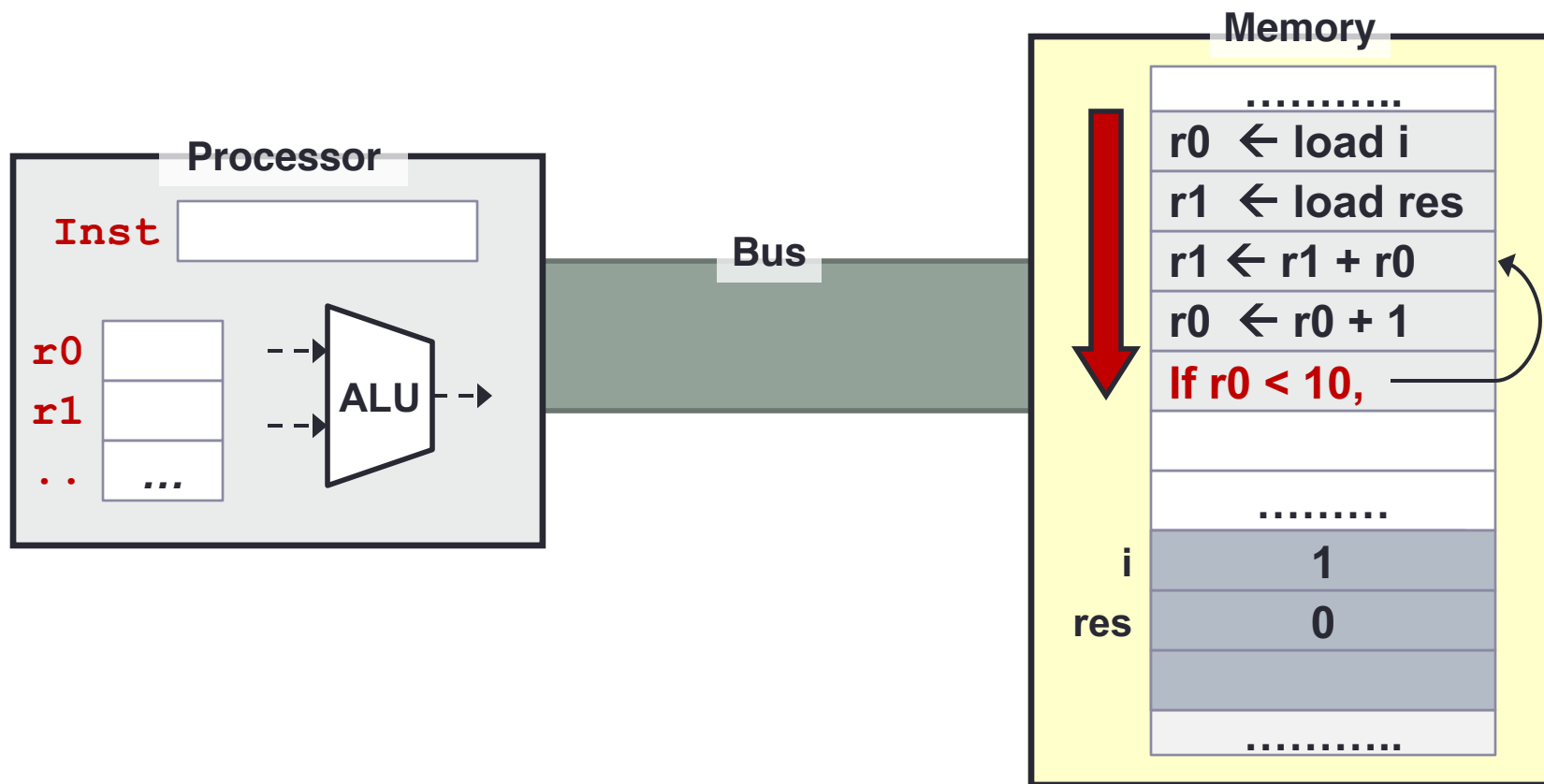
Walkthrough: Reg-to-Reg Arithmetic

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



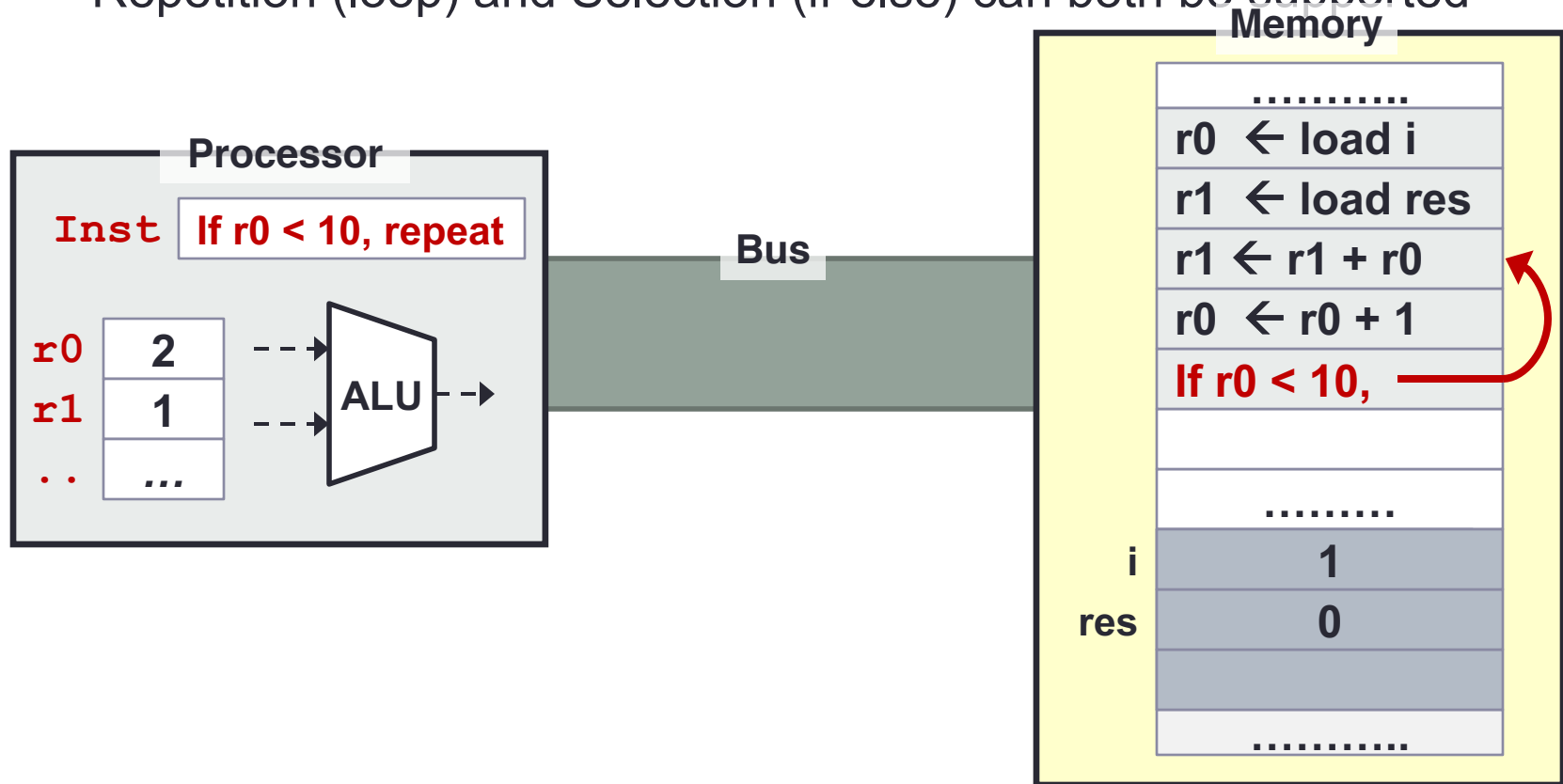
Walkthrough: Execution sequence

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



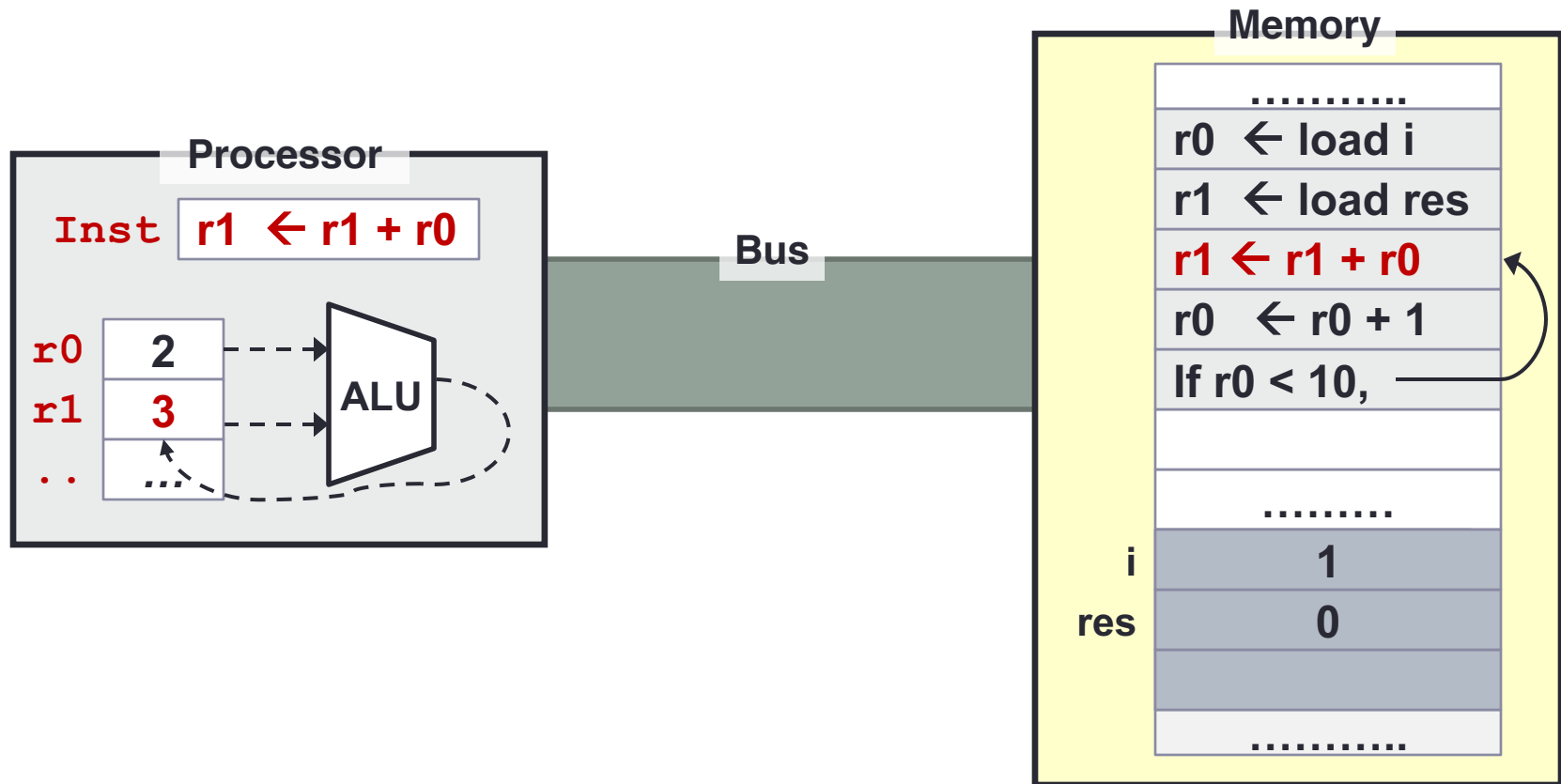
Walkthrough: Control flow instruction

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



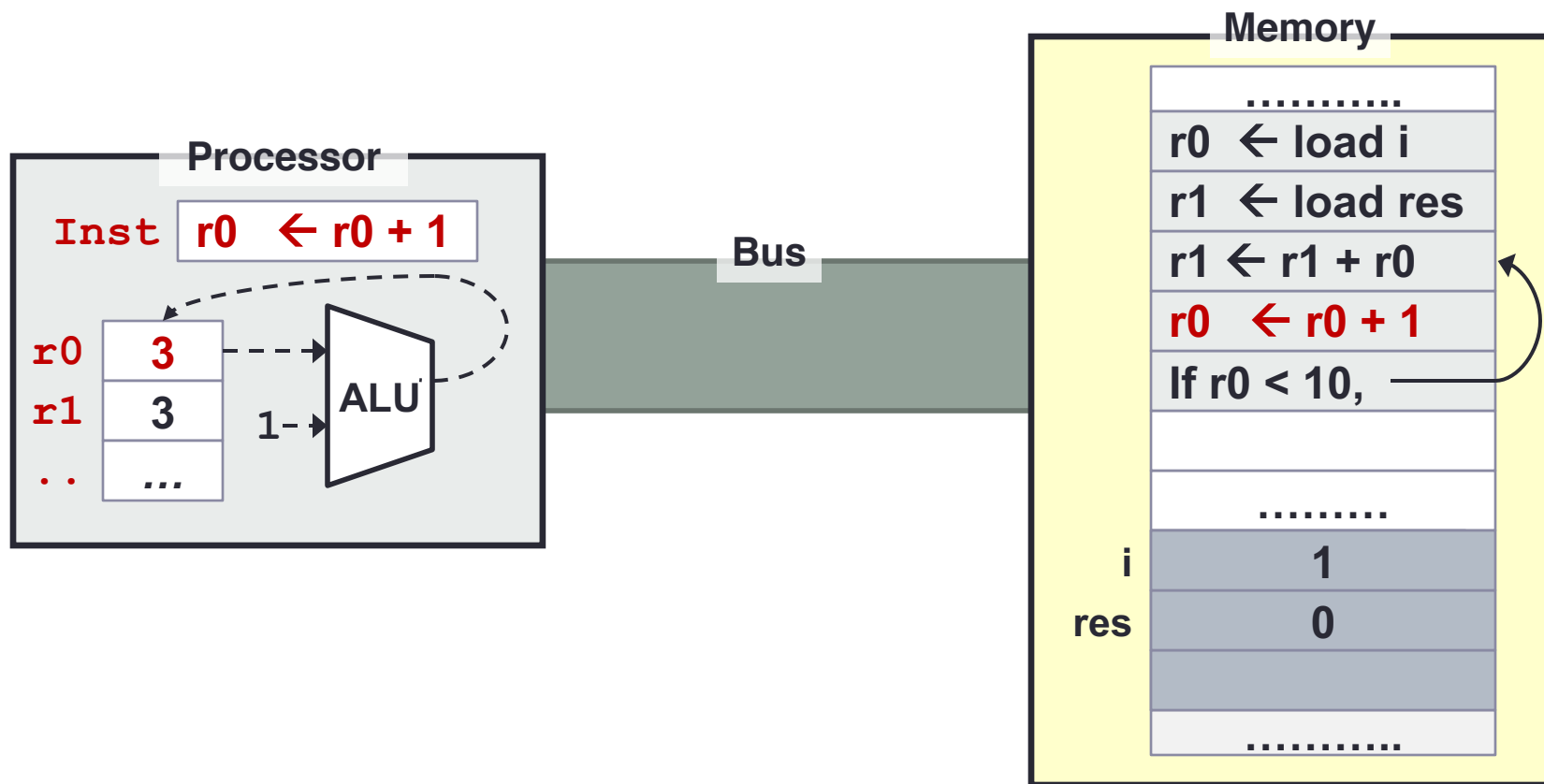
Walkthrough: Looping!

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



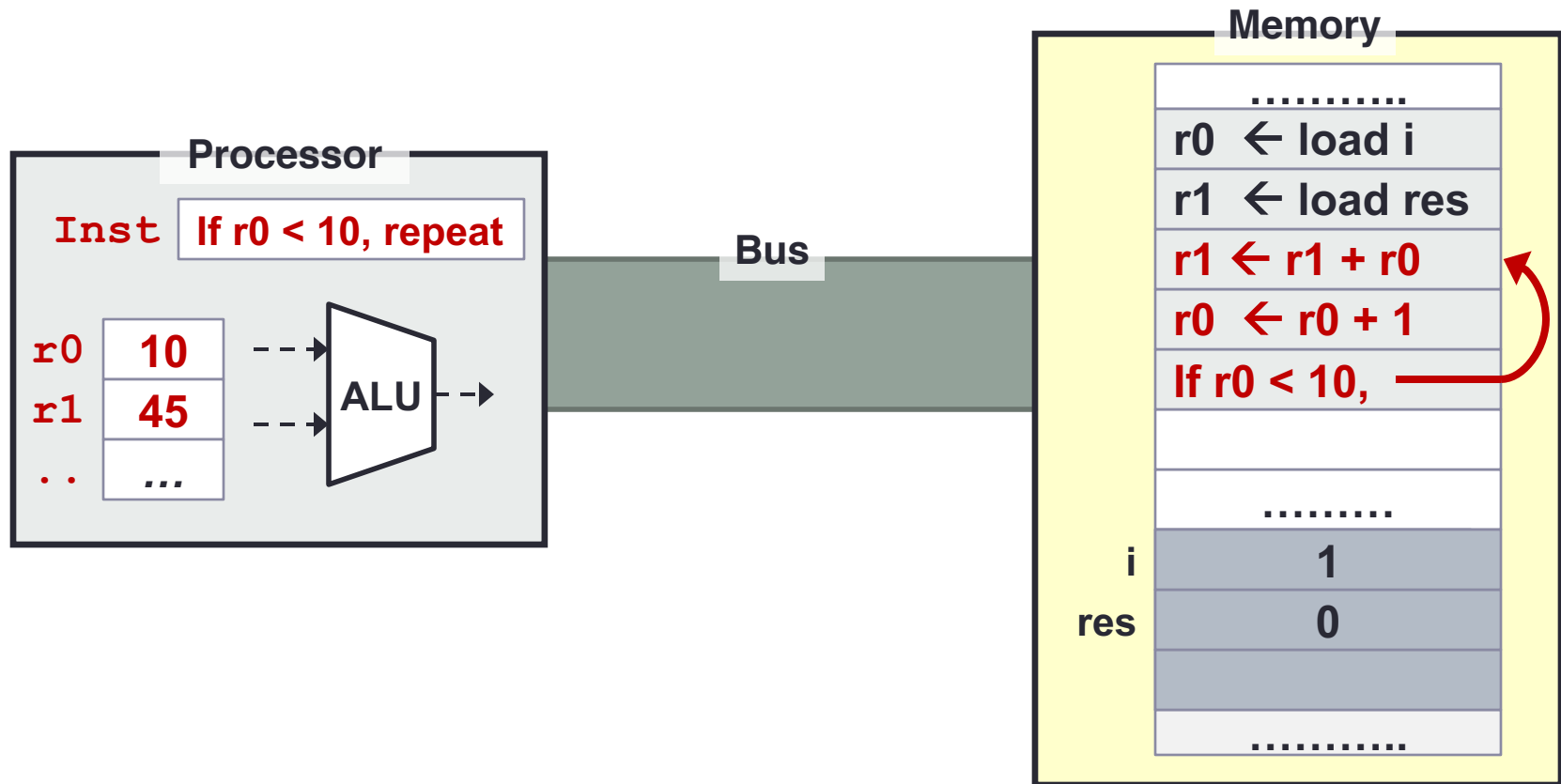
Walkthrough: Looping!

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



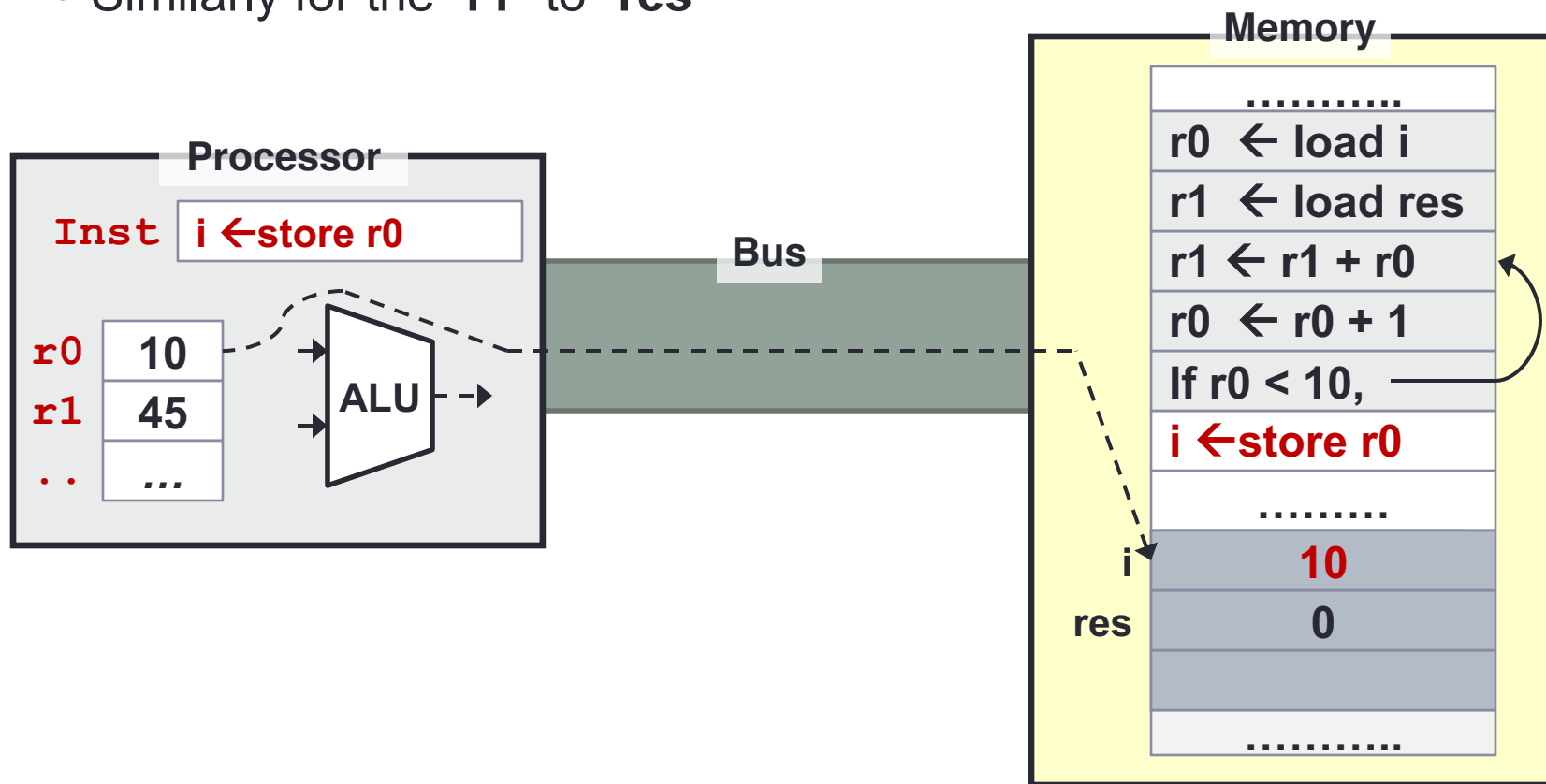
Walkthrough: Control flow instruction

- The three instructions will be repeated until the condition fails



Walkthrough: Memory instruction

- We can now move back the values from register to their "home" in memory
 - Similarly for the "r1" to "res"



Summary of observations

- 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 register
 - **Calculation:** Arithmetic and other operations
 - **Control flow:** Changes the sequential execution

MIPS ASSEMBLY LANGUAGE

PART I

Overview

- Closer look at internal storage:
 - General Purpose Registers
- MIPS assembly language:
 - Basics
 - Arithmetic and logical instructions
 - Memory instructions (in Part II)
 - Control flow instructions (in Part II)

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 the correct type

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.

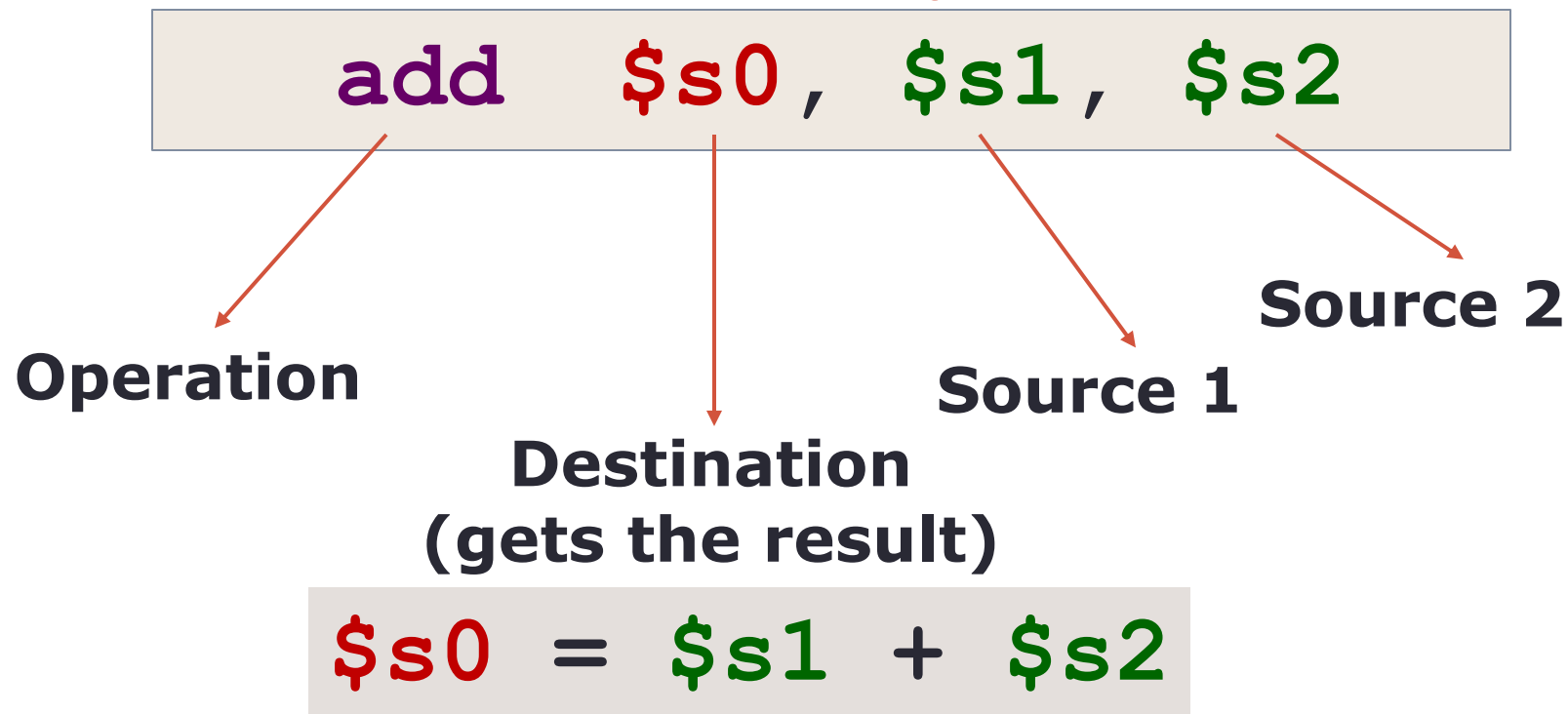
\$k0-\$k1 (registers 26-27) are reserved for the operation system.

MIPS Assembly Language

- In 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 # mark to end of line is a comment and will be ignored

```
add $t0, $s1, $s2 # $t0 ← $s1 + $s2
sub $s0, $t0, $s3 # $s0 ← $t0 - $s3
```

General Instruction Syntax



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

Arithmetic Operation: Addition

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

- 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

Arithmetic Operation: Subtraction

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

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

Complex Expression

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

- A single MIPS instruction can handle at most two source operands

➔ **Need to break 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

Complex Expression: Example

C Statement	Variable Mappings
<code>f = (g + h) - (i + j);</code>	<code>\$s0</code> → variable <code>f</code> <code>\$s1</code> → variable <code>g</code> <code>\$s2</code> → variable <code>h</code> <code>\$s3</code> → variable <code>i</code> <code>\$s4</code> → variable <code>j</code>

- 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
```

Exercise: Complex statement

C Statement	Variable Mappings
$z = a + b + c + d;$	$\$s0 \rightarrow \text{variable } a$ $\$s1 \rightarrow \text{variable } b$ $\$s2 \rightarrow \text{variable } c$ $\$s3 \rightarrow \text{variable } d$ $\$s4 \rightarrow \text{variable } z$

C Statement	Variable Mappings
$z = (a - b) + c;$	$\$s0 \rightarrow \text{variable } a$ $\$s1 \rightarrow \text{variable } b$ $\$s2 \rightarrow \text{variable } c$ $\$s3 \rightarrow \text{variable } z$

Constant / Immediate Operands

C Statement	MIPS Assembly Code
<code>a = a + 4;</code>	<code>addi \$s0, \$s0, 4</code>

- 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 **$[-2^{15}$ to $2^{15}-1$**

Register 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 get translated to corresponding MIPS instruction(s).
Provided for convenience in coding only.

Logical Operations

- 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 bytes or bits within a word

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

Logical Operation: 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`

0000	1000	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	1001
------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------

`sll $t2, $s0, 4` # `$t2 = $s0<<4`

`$t2`

Logical Operation: Shifting (2/2)

Opcode: `sr1` (shift right logical)

Shifts right and fills emptied positions with zeroes

- What is the equivalent math operations for shift left/right n bits? Answer:
- Shifting is faster than multiplication/division
 - Good compiler translates such multiplication/division into shift instructions

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

Logical Operation: 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`

<code>\$t1</code>	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	1101	0000	0000
<code>\$t2</code>	0000	0000	0000	0000	0011	1100	0000	0000
<code>\$t0</code>	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	1100	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.

Exercise: Logical Operation

- We are interested in the last 12 bits of the word in register `$t1`
 - **Q:** What's the mask to use?

<code>\$t1</code>	0000 1001 1100 0011 0101 1101 1001 1100
<code>mask</code>	
<code>\$t0</code>	

Notes:

and instruction has an immediate version, i.e. **andi**

Logical Operation: Bitwise OR

Opcode: `or` (bitwise **OR**)

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

Example: `or $t0, $t1, $t2`

- Can be used to force certain bits to 1s
- E.g.: `ori $t0, $t1, 0xFFF`

<code>\$t1</code>	0000	1001	1100	0011	0101	1101	1001	1100
<code>0xFFF</code>	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	1111	1111	1111
<code>\$t0</code>								

Logical Operation: Bitwise NOR

- **Strange fact 1:**

- There is no **NOT** operation in MIPS to toggle the bits ($1 \rightarrow 0, 0 \rightarrow 1$)
- However, **NOR** operation is provided.....

Opcode: **nor** (bitwise **NOR**)

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

- **Question:** How do we get NOT operation?
- **Question:** Why do you think is the reason for not providing NOT operation?

Logical Operation: Bitwise XOR

Opcode: `xor` (bitwise `XOR`)

Example: `xor $t0, $t1, $t2`

- **Question:** Can we also get **NOT** operation from **XOR**?
- **Strange Fact 2:**
 - There is no **NORI**, but there is **XORI** in MIPS
 - Why?

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    #1010101010101010
```

1010101010101010	0000000000000000
------------------	------------------

Lower-order bits
filled with zeros.

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

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

	1010101010101010	0000000000000000
ori	0000000000000000	1111000011110000
	1010101010101010	1111000011110000

MIPS Basic Instructions Checklist

Operation	Opcode in MIPS	Immediate Version (if applicable)
Addition	<code>add \$s0, \$s1, \$s2</code>	<code>addi \$s0, \$s1, C16_{2s}</code> C16 _{2s} is $[-2^{15} \text{ to } 2^{15}-1]$
Subtraction	<code>sub \$s0, \$s1, \$s2</code>	
Shift left logical	<code>sll \$s0, \$s1, C5</code> C5 is $[0..2^5-1]$	
Shift right logical	<code>srl \$s0, \$s1, C5</code>	
AND bitwise	<code>and \$s0, \$s1, \$s2</code>	<code>andi \$s0, \$s1, C16</code> C16 is a 16-bit pattern
OR bitwise	<code>or \$s0, \$s1, \$s2</code>	<code>ori \$s0, \$s1, C16</code>
NOR bitwise	<code>nor \$s0, \$s1, \$s2</code>	
XOR bitwise	<code>xor \$s0, \$s1, \$s2</code>	<code>xori \$s0, \$s1, C16</code>

Reading Assignment

- **Instructions: Language of the Computer**
 - COD Chapter 2, pg 46-53, 58-71, 95-96. (3rd edition)
 - COD Chapter 2, pg 74-81, 86-87, 94-104. (4th edition)



Q&A