

CS 10 Computer Architecture and Organization Introduction to MIPS Assembly Programming

Foothill College Computer Science Department

Outline

The MIPS Instruction Set Architecture

- Introduction to Assembly Language
- Defining Data
- Memory Alignment and Byte Ordering
- System Calls

Instruction Set Architecture (ISA)

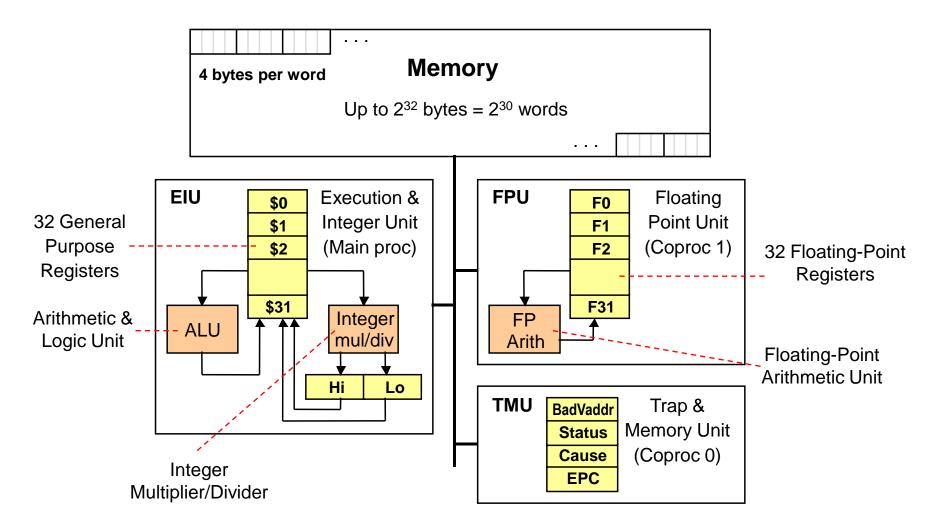
- Critical Interface between hardware and software
- An ISA includes the following ...
 - Instructions and Instruction Formats
 - Data Types, Encodings, and Representations
 - Programmable Storage: Registers and Memory
 - Addressing Modes: to address Instructions and Data
 - Handling Exceptional Conditions (like division by zero)

•	Examples	(Versions)	Intr	oduced i	n
	– Intel	(8086, 80386, Pentium, Core,)	1978	
	- MIPS	(MIPS I, II,, MIPS32, MIPS64	4)	1986	
	– ARM	(version 1. 2)		1985	

Instructions

- Instructions are the language of the machine
- We will study the MIPS (Microprocessor without Interlocked Pipeline Stages) ISA (Instruction Set Architecture)
 - Known as Reduced Instruction Set Computer (RISC)
 - Elegant and relatively simple design
 - Similar to RISC architectures developed in mid-1980's and 90's
 - Popular, used in many products
 - Silicon Graphics, ATI, Cisco, Sony, etc.
- Alternative to: Intel x86 architecture
 - Known as Complex Instruction Set Computer (CISC)

Overview of the MIPS Architecture



MIPS General-Purpose Registers

- ❖ 32 General Purpose Registers (GPRs)
 - ♦ All registers are 32-bit wide in the MIPS 32-bit architecture
 - ♦ Software defines names for registers to standardize their use
 - ♦ Assembler can refer to registers by name or by number (\$ notation)

Name	Register	Usage		
\$zero	\$0	Always 0	(forced by hardware)	
\$at	\$1	Reserved for asser	mbler use	
\$v0 - \$v1	\$2 - \$3	Result values of a	Result values of a function	
\$a0 - \$a3	\$4 - \$7	Arguments of a fur	nction	
\$t0 - \$t7	\$8 - \$15	Temporary Values		
\$s0 - \$s7	\$16 - \$23	Saved registers	(preserved across call)	
\$t8 - \$t9	\$24 - \$25	More temporaries		
\$k0 - \$k1	\$26 - \$27	Reserved for OS kernel		
\$gp	\$28	Global pointer	(points to global data)	
\$sp	\$29	Stack pointer	(points to top of stack)	
\$fp	\$30	Frame pointer	(points to stack frame)	
\$ra	\$31	Return address	(used by jal for function call)	

Instruction Formats

- All instructions are 32-bit wide, Three instruction formats:
- Register (R-Type)
 - Register-to-register instructions
 - Op: operation code specifies the format of the instruction

	Op ⁶	Rs⁵	Rt ⁵	Rd⁵	sa ⁵	funct ⁶
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- Immediate (I-Type)
 - 16-bit immediate constant is part in the instruction

Op ⁶	Rs ⁵	Rt⁵	immediate ¹⁶
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- Jump (J-Type)
 - Used by jump instructions

Op ⁶ immediate ²⁶

Next . . .

The MIPS Instruction Set Architecture

Introduction to Assembly Language

Defining Data

Memory Alignment and Byte Ordering

System Calls

What is Assembly Language?

- Low-level programming language for a computer
- One-to-one correspondence with the machine instructions
- Assembly language is specific to a given processor
- Assembler: converts assembly program into machine code
- Assembly language uses:
 - Mnemonics: to represent the names of low-level machine instructions
 - Labels: to represent the names of variables or memory addresses
 - Directives: to define data and constants
 - Macros: to facilitate the inline expansion of text into other code

Assembly Language Statements

- Three types of statements in assembly language
 - Typically, one statement should appear on a line

1. Executable Instructions

- Generate machine code for the processor to execute at runtime
- Instructions tell the processor what to do

2. Pseudo-Instructions and Macros

- Translated by the assembler into real instructions
- Simplify the programmer task

3. Assembler Directives

- Provide information to the assembler while translating a program
- Used to define segments, allocate memory variables, etc.
- Non-executable: directives are not part of the instruction set

Assembly Language Instructions

Assembly language instructions have the format:

```
[label:] mnemonic [operands] [#comment]
```

- Label: (optional)
 - Marks the address of a memory location, must have a colon
 - Typically appear in data and text segments
- Mnemonic
 - Identifies the operation (e.g. add, sub, etc.)
- Operands
 - Specify the data required by the operation
 - Operands can be registers, memory variables, or constants
 - Most instructions have three operands

```
L1: addiu $t0, $t0, 1 #increment $t0
```

Comments

- Single-line comment
 - Begins with a hash symbol # and terminates at end of line
- Comments are very important!
 - Explain the program's purpose
 - When it was written, revised, and by whom
 - Explain data used in the program, input, and output
 - Explain instruction sequences and algorithms used
 - Comments are also required at the beginning of every procedure
 - Indicate input parameters and results of a procedure
 - Describe what the procedure does

Program Template

```
# Title:
                     Filename:
# Author:
                     Date:
# Description:
# Input:
# Output:
.data
.text
.globl main
main:
                     # main program entry
li $v0, 10
                     # Exit program
syscall
```

.DATA, .TEXT, & .GLOBL Directives

.DATA directive

- Defines the data segment of a program containing data
- The program's variables should be defined under this directive
- Assembler will allocate and initialize the storage of variables

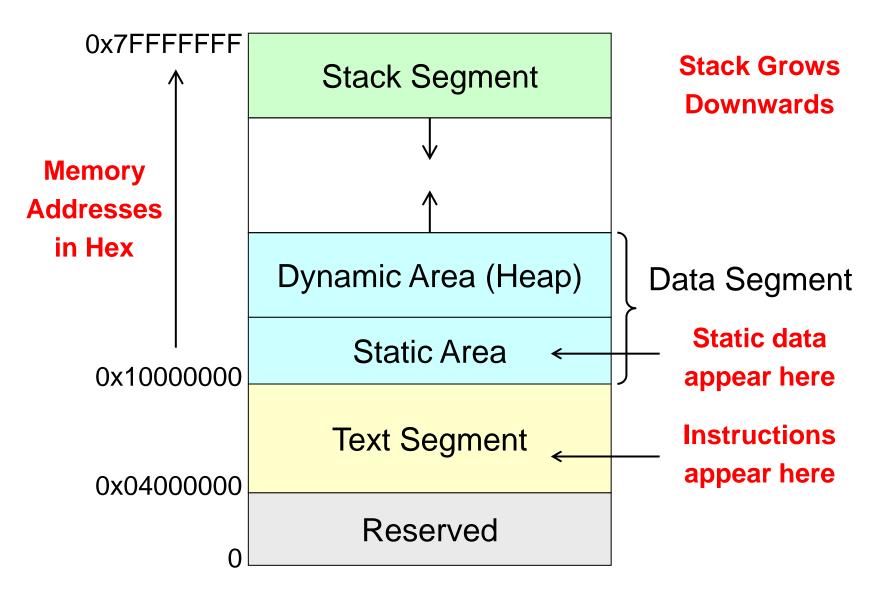
.TEXT directive

Defines the code segment of a program containing instructions

.GLOBL directive

- Declares a symbol as global
- Global symbols can be referenced from other files
- We use this directive to declare main function of a program

Layout of a Program in Memory



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Data Definition Statement

- The assembler uses directives to define data
- It allocates storage in the static data segment for a variable
- May optionally assign a name (label) to the data
- Syntax:

```
[name:] directive initializer [, initializer] ...

var1: .WORD 10
```

All initializers become binary data in memory

Data Directives

- .BYTE Directive
 - Stores the list of values as 8-bit bytes
- .HALF Directive
 - Stores the list as 16-bit values aligned on half-word boundary
- .WORD Directive
 - Stores the list as 32-bit values aligned on a word boundary
- .FLOAT Directive
 - Stores the listed values as single-precision floating point
- .DOUBLE Directive
 - Stores the listed values as double-precision floating point

String Directives

- ASCII Directive
 - Allocates a sequence of bytes for an ASCII string
- ASCIIZ Directive
 - Same as .ASCII directive, but adds a NULL char at end of string
 - Strings are null-terminated, as in the C programming language
- .SPACE Directive
 - Allocates space of n uninitialized bytes in the data segment

Examples of Data Definitions

```
.DATA
                  'A', 'E', 127, -1, '\n'
var1: .BYTE
var2: .HALF
                  -10, 0xffff
                                    Array of 100 words
                  0x12345678:100
                                      Initialized with
var3: .WORD
                                      the same value
var4: .FLOAT
                  12.3, -0.1
var5: .DOUBLE
                  1.5e-10
                  "A String\n"
str1: .ASCII
str2: .ASCIIZ
                  "NULL Terminated String"
array: .SPACE
                  100 ← 100 bytes (not initialized)
```

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The MIPS Instruction Set Architecture

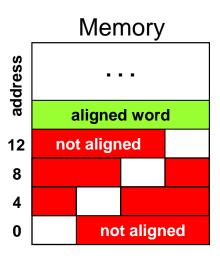
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Memory Alignment

- Memory is viewed as an addressable array of bytes
- Byte Addressing: address points to a byte in memory
- However, words occupy 4 consecutive bytes in memory
 - MIPS instructions and integers occupy 4 bytes

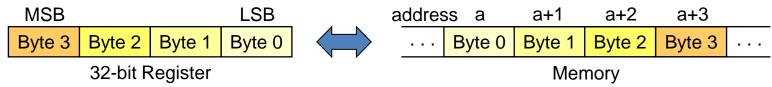
Memory Alignment:

- Address must be multiple of size
- Word address should be a multiple of 4
- Double-word address should be a multiple of 8
- .ALIGN n directive
 - Aligns the next data definition on a 2^n byte boundary
 - Forces the address of next data definition to be multiple of 2^n

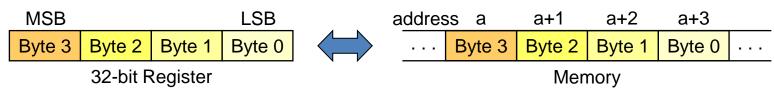


Byte Ordering (Endianness)

- Processors can order bytes within a word in two ways
- Little Endian Byte Ordering
 - Memory address = Address of least significant byte
 - Example: Intel IA-32



- Big Endian Byte Ordering
 - Memory address = Address of most significant byte
 - Example: SPARC architecture



MIPS can operate with both byte orderings

Symbol Table

- Assembler builds a symbol table for labels
 - Assembler computes the address of each label in data segment
- Example

```
.DATA
```

var1: .BYTE 1, 2,'Z'

str1: .ASCIIZ "My String\n"

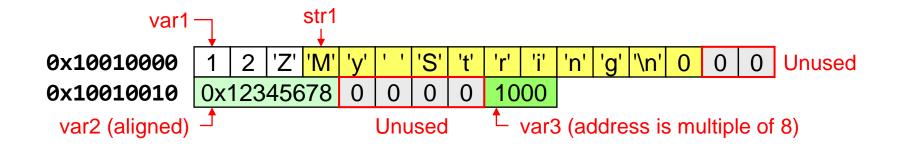
var2: .WORD 0x12345678

.ALIGN 3

var3: .HALF 1000

Symbol Table

Label	Address
var1	0x10010000
str1	0x10010003
var2	0x10010010
var3	0x10010018



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System Calls

- Programs do input/output through system calls
- The MIPS architecture provides a syscall instruction
 - To obtain services from the operating system
 - The operating system handles all system calls requested by program
- Since MARS is a simulator, it simulates the syscall services
- To use the syscall services:
 - Load the service number in register \$v0
 - Load argument values, if any, in registers \$a0, \$a1, etc.
 - Issue the syscall instruction
 - Retrieve return values, if any, from result registers

Syscall Services

Service	\$v0	Arguments / Result	
Print Integer 1		\$a0 = integer value to print	
Print Float	int Float 2 \$f12 = float value to print		
Print Double	3	\$f12 = double value to print	
Print String	4	\$a0 = address of null-terminated string	
Read Integer	5	Return integer value in \$v0	
Read Float 6 Return float value in \$f0		Return float value in \$f0	
Read Double	7	Return double value in \$f0	
Read String	8	\$a0 = address of input buffer \$a1 = maximum number of characters to read	
Allocate Heap memory	9	\$a0 = number of bytes to allocate Return address of allocated memory in \$v0	
Exit Program	10		

Syscall Services – Cont'd

Print Char	11 \$a0 = character to print		
Read Char 12		Return character read in \$v0	
Open File	13	\$a0 = address of null-terminated filename string \$a1 = flags (0 = read-only, 1 = write-only) \$a2 = mode (ignored) Return file descriptor in \$v0 (negative if error)	
Read from File	14	\$a0 = File descriptor \$a1 = address of input buffer \$a2 = maximum number of characters to read Return number of characters read in \$v0	
Write to File	15	\$a0 = File descriptor \$a1 = address of buffer \$a2 = number of characters to write Return number of characters written in \$v0	
Close File 16 \$a0 = File descriptor		\$a0 = File descriptor	

Reading and Printing an Integer

```
.text
.globl main
main:
                      # main program entry
 li $v0, 5
                      # Read integer
 syscall
                      # $v0 = value read
 move $a0, $v0
                      # $a0 = value to print
 li $v0, 1
                      # Print integer
 syscall
 li $v0, 10
                      # Exit program
 syscall
```

Reading and Printing a String

```
.data
 str: .space 10  # array of 10 bytes
.text
.globl main
main:
                  # main program entry
 la $a0, str
                  # $a0 = address of str
 li $a1, 10
                  # $a1 = max string length
 li $v0, 8
                  # read string
 syscall
 li $v0, 4
                 # Print string str
 syscall
 li $v0, 10
                 # Exit program
 syscall
```

Sum of Three Integers

```
# Sum of three integers
# Objective: Computes the sum of three integers.
# Input: Requests three numbers, Output: sum
.data
prompt: .asciiz "Please enter three numbers: \n"
sum_msg:.asciiz "The sum is: "
.text
.globl main
main:
  la $a0, prompt
                     # display prompt string
  li $v0,4
  syscall
                     # read 1st integer into $t0
  li $v0,5
  syscall
  move $t0,$v0
```

Sum of Three Integers – (cont'd)

```
li $v0,5
                        # read 2nd integer into $t1
syscall
move $t1,$v0
li $v0,5
                        # read 3rd integer into $t2
syscall
move $t2,$v0
addu $t0,$t0,$t1
                        # accumulate the sum
addu $t0,$t0,$t2
la $a0,sum_msg
                        # write sum message
li $v0,4
syscall
move $a0,$t0
                        # output sum
li $v0,1
syscall
li $v0,10
                        # exit
syscall
```

Summary

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