

COMP1521

Week 2 - MIPS

Overview

Admin

Tools (for running MIPS) (Q1)

Basic MIPS (registers, instructions, syscalls) (Q3, Q4)

Control MIPS (if conditions, loops) (Q6, Q7)

Tools (for debugging MIPS) (Q2)

More tut questions:

Admin

Remember to complete the W1 challenge exercises (free marks)

W1 Lab is not due until next week.

W2 lab is also due next week.

Can I use chatGPT?

Tools

Running MIPS: 1521 mipsy

Add MIPS code to a file ending in .s

Run the code on the terminal with:

“1521 mipsy program.s”

Replacing program.s with your file.

Running MIPS: mipsy web

Copy paste your MIPS code into mispy web editor

Press “save”

Press “run”

Go!!!

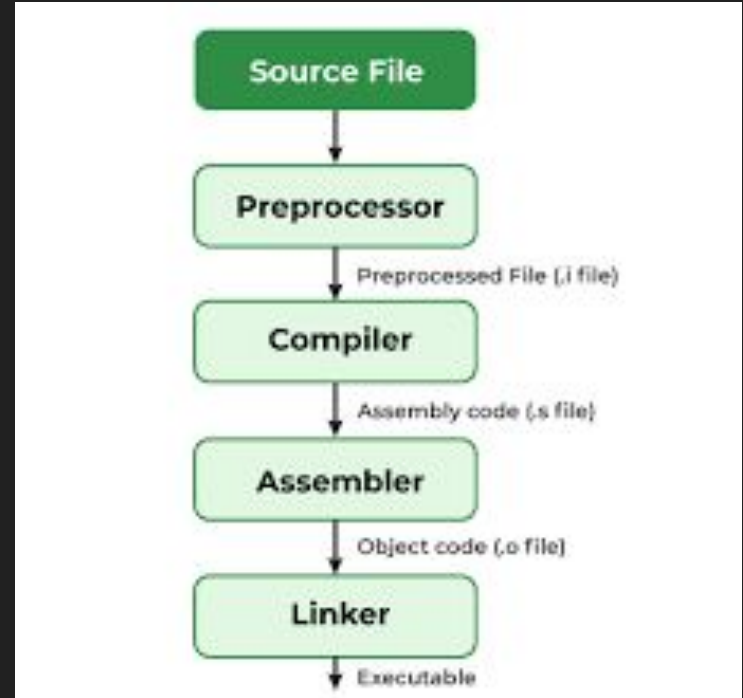
MIPS Basic

What is MIPS?

The second step of a compiler is: transform C code into assembly code for a certain processor.

MIPS is an assembly language which was used in old CPUs, and is now mostly used to teach people about assembly (and program old CPUs).

For the first half of this course we will learn to become a compiler, and convert C code into MIPS assembly code by hand.



Why MIPS, why not something that is used more?

MIPS has great educational resources

Stuff like x86 and ARM can be much more complicated

By learning MIPS first you will have a much easier time learning x86 or ARM if that's something you are interested in.



Basics of MIPS assembly

An assembly instruction looks like:

[instruction], [arg1], [arg2]

An instruction is like a function, it takes a number of arguments and does something with them

Arguments can be registers, immediate values (like 1 or '\n'), or they can be labels like "count_cond" (which represent memory addresses)

```
move    $a0, $t0
li      $v0, 1
syscall
```

```
li      $a0, '\n'
li      $v0, 11
syscall
```

```
addi    $t0, $t0, 1
b count_cond
```

Basics of MIPS assembly

MIPS programs also contain directives like “.text” and “.data”.

These directives identify where the code below the directive should be stored in the process.

Mips instructions should be written below a “.text” directive.

Global variables/arrays should be written below a “.data” directive.

.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

Basics of MIPS assembly

MIPS also contain labels, like “main:”.

Labels are used to represent the memory address of something, whether that is a particular instruction, or a global variable.

“main” refers to the memory address of the instruction immediately below the “main:” label.

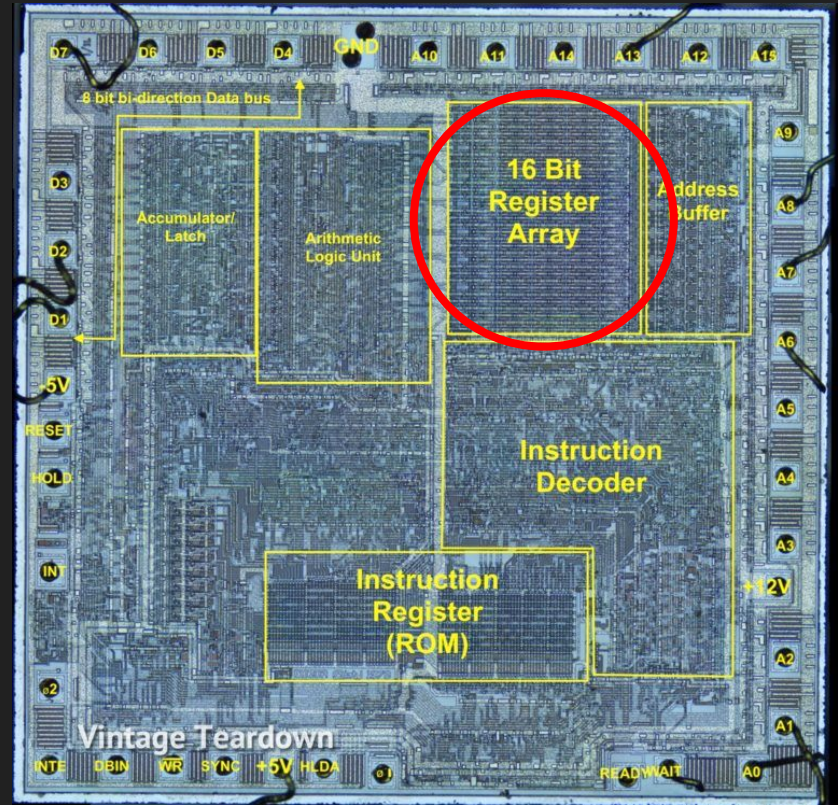
“var1” refers to the memory address of a variable immediately below the “var1:” label in the data section.

Registers

Inside a CPU there exist registers.

Registers store values (like variables)

Functionally, register = variable, except you don't need to initialise registers (they already exist in the CPU)



MIPS Registers

MIPS has 32 registers, numbered 0-31.

They can be referred to in a MIPS program using `$(number)` (for example `$2`).

They can also be referred to by their symbolic name (for example `$v0`)

Regs	Names		Description
\$0	\$zero		the value 0; writes are discarded
\$1	\$at		assembler temporary; reserved for assembler use
\$2 \$3	\$v0	\$v1	value from expression evaluation or function return
\$4 \$5	\$a0	\$a1	first four arguments to a function/subroutine
\$6 \$7	\$a2	\$a3	
\$8 \$9	\$t0	\$t1	temporary; callers relying on their values must save them before calling subroutines as they may be overwritten
\$10 \$11	\$t2	\$t3	
\$12 \$13	\$t4	\$t5	
\$14 \$15	\$t6	\$t7	
\$16 \$17	\$s0	\$s1	saved; subroutines must guarantee their values are unchanged (by, for example, restoring them)
\$18 \$19	\$s2	\$s3	
\$20 \$21	\$s4	\$s5	
\$22 \$23	\$s6	\$s7	
\$24 \$25	\$t8	\$t9	temporary; callers relying on their values must save them before calling subroutines as they may be overwritten
\$26 \$27	\$k0	\$k1	for kernel use; may change unexpectedly — avoid using in user programs
\$28	\$gp		global pointer (address of global area)
\$29	\$sp		stack pointer (top of stack)
\$30	\$fp		frame pointer (bottom of current stack frame); if not using a frame pointer, becomes a save register
\$31	\$ra		return address of most recent caller

Tutorial Q3

3. The MIPS processor has 32 general purpose 32-bit registers, referenced as `$0` .. `$31` . Some of these registers are intended to be used in particular ways by programmers and by the system. For each of the registers below, give their symbolic name and describe their intended use:

- a. `$0`
- b. `$1`
- c. `$2`
- d. `$4`
- e. `$8`
- f. `$16`
- g. `$26`
- h. `$29`
- i. `$31`

MIPS Instructions

For moving values into and between registers, use instructions:

li (load immediate): Store an immediate value (like 1 or '\n') into a register:

```
li,      $t0,      0
```

la (load address): Store an address (referred to by a label) into a register:

```
la,      $t0,      my_label
```

move: Copy a value from one register to another

```
move,    $t0,      $t1      (copy $t1 value into $t0)
```


MIPS Instructions

Common arithmetic instructions:

add: add r1, r2, r3 means $r1 = r2 + r3$

sub: sub r1, r2, r3 means $r1 = r2 - r3$

mul: mul r1, r2, r3 means $r1 = r2 * r3$

div: div r1, r2, r3 means $r1 = r2 / r3$

rem: rem r1, r2, r3 means $r1 = r2 \% r3$

MIPS Instructions

The following instructions perform the same role as “return 0” in a C main function.

We will learn how they work in a week or two. For now just include them at the end of main.

```
li    $v0,    0
```

```
jr    $ra
```

MIPS Syscalls

“syscall” is a special MIPS instruction.

Syscalls are used mainly to do things like input and output (ie, scanf and printf).

When we have a “syscall” instruction (just “syscall”, no arguments), the program hands control to the operating system.

First, the operating systems inspects the value of register \$v0, in order to decide which syscall is to be performed (for example, if \$v0 contains 4, then we will perform the “print string” syscall).

Then, the operating system will perform that syscall. This may involve inspecting the values of other registers (like print string, which will read \$a0 to find the string it should print).

MIPS syscalls

To use a syscall you should first set \$v0 and other registers appropriately, before writing “syscall” to execute it.

Then to summarise:

“syscall” -> “read \$v0” -> “read other registers” -> “perform syscall operation”

Is what the computer will do after that “syscall” instruction



MIPS Syscalls

Typical MIPS syscall code:

```
li      $v0,    4    # we are performing "print string" syscall, which is syscall 4
li      $a0,    my_string # load label/address of string into $a0 for OS to read
syscall                                # hand control to OS to perform syscall
```

The operation is not finished until after the “syscall” instruction occurs.

MIPS general style

Comment registers at top of code (what are you using them for?)

Indent instructions, do not indent labels. Never indent multiple times to indicate structure (like nesting loops).

Comment in-line with equivalent C code or description of assembly logic.

Use meaningful names for labels.

Tutorial Q4

4. Translate the following C program into MIPS assembler and run it with `1521 mipsy` .

```
// Prints the square of a number

#include <stdio.h>

int main(void) {
    int x, y;

    printf("Enter a number: ");
    scanf("%d", &x);

    y = x * x;

    printf("%d\n", y);

    return 0;
}
```

Store variable **x** in register **\$t0** and store variable **y** in register **\$t1**.

MIPS Control

Branch instructions

In order to implement logic like loops and conditionals, we need to use branch instructions.

For example:

```
b      my_label
```

Will move execution to the instruction immediately following the label “my_label”.

This can allow us to “skip” over sections of code, and to jump “backwards” to earlier lines of code.

Conditional branch instructions

There are a lot of “conditional” branch instructions.

These act the same as the unconditional branch, but they only execute the branch if the condition is true.

For example ,we can use beq (branch if equal) like so:

```
beq    $t0,    $t1,    my_label
```

Which will jump to the instruction immediately following the label “my_label”, as long as the contents of \$t0 is equal to the contents of \$t1.

These instructions are crucial for implementing if/else/while/for.

Conditional branch instructions

Other common conditional branch instructions:

bne : branch if not equal

bgt : branch if greater than

bge : branch if greater than or equal to

blt : ~~branch if less than~~ branch if less than

ble : branch if less than or equal to

beqz: branch if equal to zero

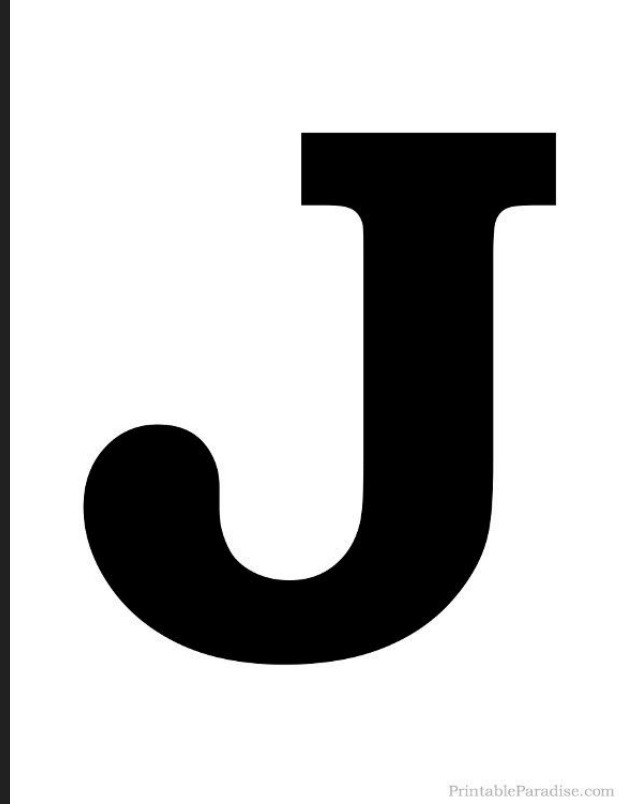
Branch instructions

There is also the “j” instruction.

It’s equivalent to the “b” instruction.

The only difference is that “j” can technically jump “further”. But in the programs we write, that difference will never matter.

Use whichever you prefer.



If statements

When writing structures like these, ALWAYS write the labels first!!!!

Recommended label structure for if, where “name” is replaced with an appropriate name for the structure:

name_cond:

name_body:

name_end:

```
name_cond:
    beq    $t0,    0,    name_body    # if $t0 == 0 execute body
    b      name_end                # otherwise skip body
name_body:
    li     $a0,    42                # print 42
    li     $v0,    1
    syscall
name_end:
```

&& conditions

With AND conditions, we can introduce an extra label for each condition.

This way, we must pass both conditions to reach the body. Failing either test will cause us to skip.

```
name_cond_1:
    beq    $t0,    0,    name_cond_2    # if $t0 == 0 try name_cond_2
    b      name_end                    # otherwise skip body
name_cond_2:
    beq    $t1,    1,    name_body      # if $t1 == 1 execute body
    b      name_end                    # otherwise skip body
name_body:
    li     $a0,    42                    # print 42
    li     $v0,    1
    syscall
name_end:
```

|| conditions

With OR conditions, we can introduce a branch statement for each condition.

If any of the conditions are met then we will branch to the body.

Only after failing all tests we will skip the body

```
name_cond:
    beq    $t0,    0,      name_body    # if $t0 == 0 execute body
    beq    $t1,    1,      name_body    # if $t1 == 1 execute body
    b      name_end                # otherwise skip body
name_body:
    li     $a0,    42              # print 42
    li     $v0,    1
    syscall
name_end:
```

Else statements

We can introduce some extra code following the body, and allow it to run only when all conditions fail.

Be careful to avoid the main body accidentally also running the else branch:

Ensure you include the branch from the body to the end of the statement.

```
name_cond:
    beq    $t0,    0,    name_body    # if $t0 == 0 execute body
    b      name_else                # otherwise execute else branch
name_body:
    li     $a0,    42                # print 42
    li     $v0,    1
    syscall
    b      name_end                # don't run the else branch
name_else:
    li     $a0,    7                  # print 7
    li     $v0,    1
    syscall
name_end:
```


Tutorial Q6

6. Translate this C program so it uses goto rather than if/else.
Then translate it to MIPS assembler.

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main(void) {
    int x;
    printf("Enter a number: ");
    scanf("%d", &x);

    if (x > 100 && x < 1000) {
        printf("medium\n");
    } else {
        printf("small/big\n");
    }
}
```

Loops

The most basic loop we could make:

```
my_label:
```

```
    b
```

```
    my_label
```

Loops

Want to exit the loop?

Conditional branch to another label

```
my_label:  
    beq    $t0,    0,    exit_loop  
    addi   $t0,    $t0,    1  
    b      my_label  
exit_loop:
```

Loops

That's all a bit messy though. Luckily, we have a more standard “structure” of labels to efficiently translate loops!

Loops

We can follow this general structure for implementing loops (with “name” appropriately replaced):

```
name_init:      name_init:
                 li      $t0,    0           # initialize $t0 to 0
name_cond:      name_cond:
                 bge     $t0,    10,    name_end   # if $t0 >= 10 exit the loop
name_body:      name_body:
                 li      $v0,    1           # print 42
                 li      $a0,    42
name_step:      name_step:
                 syscall
name_end:       name_end:
                 add     $t0,    $t0,    1       # increment $t0
                 b       name_cond             # loop back to condition
name_end:
```

Tutorial Q7

7. Translate this C program so it uses goto rather than if/else.

Then translate it to MIPS assembler.

```
// Print every third number from 24 to 42.  
#include <stdio.h>  
  
int main(void) {  
    // This 'for' loop is effectively equivalent to a while loop.  
    // i.e. it is a while loop with a counter built in.  
    for (int x = 24; x < 42; x += 3) {  
        printf("%d\n", x);  
    }  
}
```

Debugging MIPS

Mipsy web debugging

Add breakpoints

Step back/forth

Inspect data

(demo)

VScode debugging

Add breakpoints

Step back/forth

Inspect data

(demo)

General debugging strategies

Read the error message in full. It might just tell you exactly what the problem is.

If something is going wrong, try find exactly WHEN and WHERE it is going wrong (ie, when/where a value changes to the incorrect value), before you try and figure at WHY. Breakpoints and data inspection can help greatly with this.

Step through the code slowly and ensure it executes as you expect it to.

More tut questions?

Maybe?