Inf2C - Computer Systems Lectures 3-4 Assembly Language

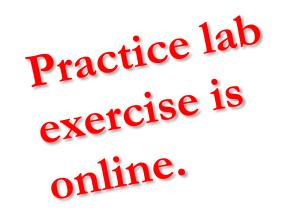
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Announcements: Labs

- Purpose:
 - prep for courseworks by getting familiar with the tools
 - reinforce class concepts
- Regular schedule (from this week):
 - Mon: 2-3pm, 5-6pm in FH 3.D02
 - Wed: 3-4pm in FH 3.D01
 - Thr: 11am-12pm in FH 1.B32
- Extras (whenever coursework is out)
 - Tue: 11am-12pm in FH 3.D01
 - Wed: 2-3pm in FH 3.D01
 - Fri: 1-2pm in FH 3.D01
- Drop-in format
 - You may attend any & all lab sessions
 - Demonstrator (Amna, Margus, Oscar) on-hand to answer questions





Announcements: Other

- Tutorial 1 running this week
 - Attempt the problems ahead of time
 - Come in with specific questions
 - You'll get out what you put in

Online discussion forum: ASK Piazza



Previous lecture

- Representing numbers
 - Binary encoding
 - Negative numbers
 - Floating point numbers
 - Characters & strings
- Other things
 - Binary addition
 - Shifting
 - Hex



Lectures 3-4: MIPS instructions

- Motivation: Learn how a processor's 'native' language looks like
- We will examine the MIPS ISA
 - Instruction Set Architecture the language of the computer
 - MIPS: a real-world ISA used by many different processors since the 80s.
 - Regular and representative → great for learning!
- ISA reference online:



- http://www.cs.wisc.edu/~larus/HP_AppA.pdf

Outline

- Instruction set
- Basic arithmetic & logic instructions
- Processor registers
- Getting data to/from the memory
- Control-flow instructions
- Method calls



Processor instructions

- Instruction set architecture (ISA): the interface between the software and the hardware
 - Collection of all machine instructions recognized by a particular processor
 - Also, privilege levels, memory management, etc.
- The ISA abstracts away the hardware details from the programmer
 - Similar to how an object hides its implementation details from its users
 - Enables multiple implementations (called microarchitectures) of the same ISA.



Assembly language

- Instructions are just strings of binary numbers
 - Example: 00000011110100100000001000001011
 - For a human, very hard to make out which instruction is which (a sequence of 32-64 bits)
- Assembly language: symbolic representation of machine instructions
 - Assembly language makes it easy for humans to read and write machine code



MIPS assembly: a simple example

High-level language (HLL): a[0]=b[0]+10

MIPS assembly language:

Things to notice:

- Separate instructions to access data (in memory) & operate on it
 - MIPS does not allow to operate on memory directly
- All instructions have similar format

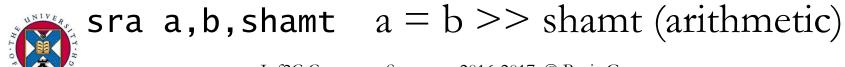


MIPS arithmetic & logical operations

- Data processing instructions look like: operation destination, 1st operand, 2nd operand add a,b,c a = b+c sub a,b,c a = b-c
- Bit-wise logical instructions: and, or, xor
- Shift instructions:

sll a,b,shamt
$$a = b << \text{shamt}$$

srl a,b,shamt $a = b >> \text{shamt (logical)}$



Registers

- ISA places restrictions on instruction operands
 - How many operands and where they come from
- MIPS processors operate on registers only
 - Registers are storage locations inside the processor that hold program variables and control state
- Registers are generally sized to contain machine's word
 - 32 or 64 bits common today
- Processors have relatively few programmer-exposed registers
 - MIPS has 32
- ON TO THE OWNER OF THE OWNER OF THE OWNER OWNER

- x86 has 8-16

MIPS instruction example

Assembly:

Binary (R-format – used for arithmetic instructions):

	6	5	5	5	5	6	number of bi	ts		
	op	rs	rt	rd	shamt	func		}	_ 32 bits	\rightarrow
İ	main opcode		2nd l operano	result	shift	sub-fun opcode	ction	ل	a w	ord
	0	18	19	17	0	32 ₁₀	add S	\$s1,	\$s2,	\$s3
	0	18	9	8	0	34 ₁₀	sub S	\$t0,	\$s2,	\$t1



Each and every assembly instructions translates to exactly 1 machine instruction (no choice or ambiguity)

More on MIPS registers

- Most registers are available for any use
 - with a few important exceptions
- Program (C/Java) variables held in regs \$s0-\$s7
- Temporary variables: \$t0-\$t9
- Registers with special roles
 - Register 0 (\$zero) is hardwired to 0
 - Program Counter (PC) holds address of next instruction to be executed (it is <u>not</u> a general purpose registers)



Other special-purpose registers exist

Immediate operands

- What if we need to operate on a constant?
 - Common in arithmetic operations, loop index updates (e.g., i++), or even character manipulations (e.g., changing the case of an ASCII character)
- MIPS has dedicated instructions with one constant (immediate) operand
 - e.g. addi \$r1, \$r1, 1 # r1=r1+1
- General form: opi \$r1, \$r2, n



Loading a constant operand

- Load a (small) constant into a register:
 - Constant is 16 bits and is signed

```
addi \$s0,\$zero,n # \$s0=n (\$s0_{31-16}=sign ext; \$s0_{15-0}=n)
```

- What if need a larger/smaller constant?
- Assembler pseudo-instruction li reg, constant
 - Translated into 1 instruction for immediates < 16bits and into more instructions for more complicated cases (e.g. 2 instructions for a 32-bit immediate)

```
lui $$1,n1  # $$1_{31-16}=n1; $$1_{15-0}=0
ori $$1,$$1,n2  # $$1_{31-16}=n1; $$1_{15-0}=n2
```



Getting at the data

Programming statement:

$$g = h + A[1]$$

where

- h is in register \$s1
- A[0] is the first element of
 array A and is pointed to by \$s2



add \$t2,\$s1, \$t1 # \$t2 = h + \$t1



32 bits **\$**s2 $2^{32} - 4$

Data-transfer instructions

Load Word:

| Toad Word:
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- Store Word:
 sw r1,n(r2) # memory[n+r2]=r1
- Load Byte: $1b r1, n(r2) # r1_{7-0} = memory[n+r2]$ $r1_{31-8} = sign extension$
- Store Byte:
 sb r1,n(r2) # memory[n+r2]=r1₇₋₀
 no sign extension



Memory addressing

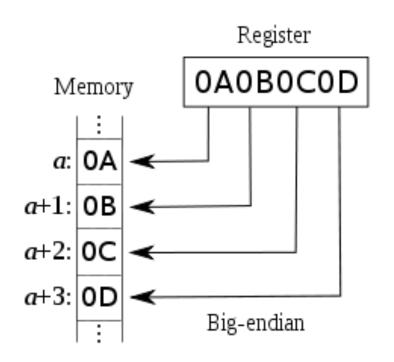
 Memory is byte addressable, but it is organised so that a whole word can be accessed directly

- Where can a word be stored?
 - Option 1: anywhere (unaligned)
 - Option 2: at an address that is a multiple of the word size (aligned)
 - Both options in use today: MIPS requires alignment, x86 doesn't
 - What are the trade-offs?



Memory addressing: Endianness

Given a memory address, Endianness tells us where to find the starting byte of a word



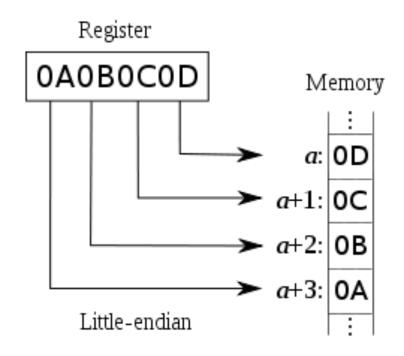


Image source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Endianness



The history of the term "Endianness"

D. Cohen introduced the terms Little- and Big-Endian for byte ordering in a 1981 IEEE Computer article. In his analysis of byte ordering issues, the "endian" names were drawn from Jonathan Swift's satire "Gulliver's Travels", in which civil war erupts over whether the big or the small end of a soft-boiled egg is the proper end to crack open. *Source: Wikipedia*

From the article:

This is an attempt to stop a war. I hope it is not too late and that somehow, magically perhaps, peace will prevail...

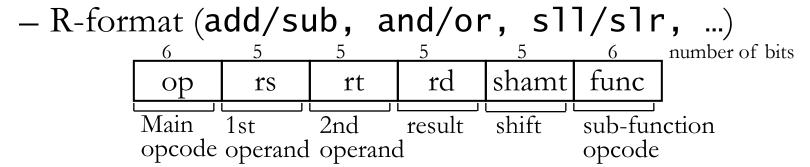
... the issue is: "What is the proper byte order in [network] messages?"

For reference, note that Lilliput and Little-Endians both start with "L", and that both Blefuscu and Big-Endians start with a "B".

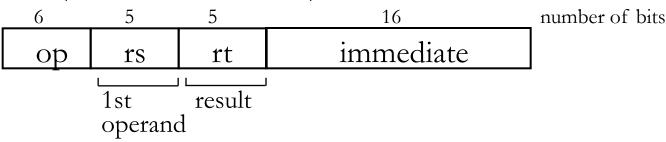


Instruction formats

- Instruction representation composed of bit-fields
- Similar instructions have the same format
- MIPS instruction formats:



– I-format (addi, lw, sw, …)





A simple program to swap array elements

```
int main(void) {
     int size = 6:
     int v[] = \{1, 10, 2, 20, 3, 30\}; // array w/ 6 elements
    for (int i=0; i < size; i+=2)
       swap (v, i); // pass array (by reference) and index i
  void swap(int v[], int idx) {
10
     int temp;
11
  temp = v[idx];
    v[idx] = v[idx+1];
12
13
    v[idx+1] = temp;
14 }
```



Swap () in MIPS

```
swap:
        # inputs: $a0 - array base, $a1 - index
        # Compute the address into the array
3
        add $t0, $a0, $t0 # reg $t1 = v + (idx*4)
5
                         # $t1 holds the addr of v[idx]
6
        # Load the two values to be swapped
8
        1w $t1, 0($t0) # reg $t0 = v[idx]
        1w $t2, 4($t0) # reg $t2 = v[idx+1]
10
11
        # Store the swapped values back to memory
12
        sw $t2, 0($t0) # v[idx] = $t2
13
        sw $t1, 4($t0) # v[idx+1] = $t0
14
```

MIPS instructions – part 2

- Last time:
 - Data processing instructions: add, sub, and, ...
 - Registers only and immediate types
 - Data transfer instructions: lw, sw, lb, sb
 - Instruction encoding
- Today:
 - Control transfer instructions



Control transfers: If structures

```
Java/C: if (i!=j) "if case"

stmnt1 "else case"

stmnt2 "follow through"

stmnt3
```

MIPS: "branch if equal" beq \$s1,\$s2,label

- compare value in \$s1 with value in \$s2
- if equal, branch to instruction marked label

```
beq $s1,$s2,label2
    stmnt1
    j label3 # skip stmnt2
label2: stmnt2
```

label2: *stmnt2* label3: *stmnt3*



Control transfer instructions

Conditional branches, I-format: beq r1,r2,label

6	5	5	16
4	r1	r2	offset

- In assembly code, label is usually a string
- In machine code, label is obtained from the immediate operand as: branch target = PC + 4 * offset
- Similarly: bne r1,r2,label # if r1!=r2 go to label
- Unconditional jump, J-format: j label

6	26
2	target



Loops in assembly language

- Java/C: while (count!=0) stmnt
- MIPS:

```
loop:

beq $s1,$zero,end # $s1 holds count

stmnt

j loop # branch back to loop

end: ...
```



Loops in assembly language



Comparisons

- "Set if less than" (R-format): slt r1,r2,r3
 set r1 to 1 if r2<r3, otherwise set r1 to 0
- E.g., Java/C: while (i > j) stmnt
- MIPS:
 - assume that \$s1 contains i and \$s2 contains j

```
loop:
```

end:

```
slt $t0,$s2,$s1  # $t0 = (j < i)
beq $t0,$zero,end # branch if i <= j
stmnt
j loop # jump back to loop</pre>
```



MIPS Instruction Format Summary

- R-type (register to register)
 - three register operands
 - most arithmetic, logical and shift instructions
- I-type (register with immediate)
 - instructions which use two registers and a constant
 - arithmetic/logical with immediate operand
 - load and store
 - branch instructions with relative branch distance
- J-type (jump)
 - jump instructions with a 26 bit address



Practice problem:

What C code does the following piece of MIPS assembly code correspond to?

```
slt $t0, $s1, $s2
    beq $t0, $zero, 11
    and $s3, $s1, $s2
    j 12
11: or $s3, $s2, $s1
12:
(a) if (s1 < s2) s3 = s2 | s1; else s3 = s1 & s2;
(b) if (s1 \le s2) s3 = s2 | s1; else s3 = s1 & s2;
(c) if (s1 < s2) s1 = s3 | s2; else s2 = s3 & s1;
(d) if (s1 \le s2) s2 = s3 & s1; else s1 = s3 | s2;
 (e) if (s1 < s2) s3 = s1 & s2; else s3 = s2 | s1;
```



Common MIPS Arithmetic & Logical Operators

Integer Arithmetic

- + add
- sub
- * multiply
- / divide
- % remainder

Bit-wise logic

or

& and

^ xor

~ not

Shifts

>> (signed)

shift-right-arithmetic

>> (unsigned)

shift-right-logical

<<

shift-left-logical

Boolean

| | (src1!= 0 or src2!= 0)

&& (src1 != 0 and src2 != 0)



Common MIPS Relational Operators

Relational

Pseudo-instructions

C operator	Comparison	Reverse	Branch
==	seq	0	bne
!=	seq	0	beq
<	slt, sltu,	0	bne
>=	slt, sltu,	0	beq
>	slt, sltu,	1	bne
<=	slt, sltu,	1	beq



Method calls

- Method calls are essential even for a small program
- Most ISAs provide support for method calls
- Java/C:

```
call to foo at line L1

foo();

call to foo at line L2

foo();
```



MIPS support for method calls

- Jumping into the method: jal label
 - "jump and link":
 - set \$ra to PC+4
 - set PC to label
 - J-format instruction
- Returning: jr ra
 - "jump register": set PC to value in register \$ra
 - Note that any register can be used as a jump target



MIPS register convention on method calls

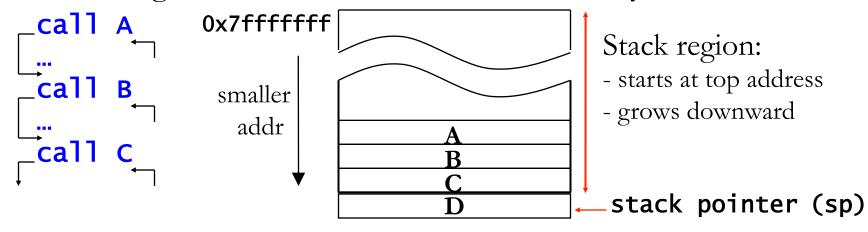
- Method parameters: \$a0 \$a4
- Return values: \$v0, \$v1
- Regs preserved across call boundaries: \$s0 \$s7
- Regs **not** preserved across call boundaries: \$t0 \$t9

What about nested method calls?



Using a stack for method calls

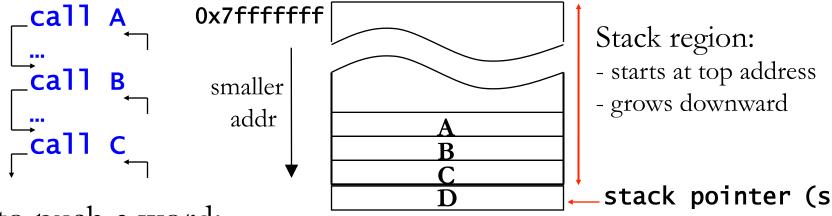
Nested calls ⇒ must save return address to prevent overwriting. Solution: use a stack in memory





Using a stack for method calls

■ Nested calls \Rightarrow must save return address to prevent overwriting. Solution: use a stack in memory



stack pointer (sp)

to push a word:

```
addi $sp,$sp,-4 # move sp down
    $ra,0($sp) # save ra on top of stack
SW
```

to pop a word:

lw \$ra,0(\$sp) # fetch value from stack addi \$sp,\$sp,4 # move sp up

In MIPS, sp always points to the last valid word on the stack 39

Other uses of the stack

- Stack used to save caller's registers, so that they can be used by the callee
 - In MIPS, these are the \$t registers
 - General issue: "caller save" vs "callee save"
- Stack can also be used to pass & return parameters
 - Gets around the limited number of parameter and return value registers
- Finally, stack is used for local variables within the function



parameters

(caller context)

return address

local vars

Stack

grows

A simple program to swap array elements

```
int main(void) {
     int size = 6:
     int v[] = \{1, 10, 2, 20, 3, 30\}; // array w/ 6 elements
     for (int i=0; i < size; i+=2)
       swap (v, i); // pass array (by reference) and index i
  void swap(int v[], int idx) {
10
     int temp;
11
  temp = v[idx];
    v[idx] = v[idx+1];
12
13
    v[idx+1] = temp;
14 }
```



Main() in MIPS

```
main:
         # Initialize variable
         la
              $s0, array \# $s0: base addr of v/l
         addi $s1, $zero, 0 # $s1: index into the array (i)
         addi $s2, $zero, 6 # $s1: array size
   loop:
         beq $s1, $s2, out
8
         move $a0, $s0  # $a0 = $s0 (array base pointer)
10
         move $a1, $s1
                            \# \$a1 = \$s1 (index)
                            # call swap
11
         jal swap
12
         addi $s1, $s1, 2 # increment the index
13
14
         j loop
```

Swap (): what's missing?

```
swap:
        # Compute the address into the array
        add $t0, $a0, $t0 # reg $t1 = v + (idx*4)
                         # $t1 holds the addr of v[idx]
5
        # Load the two values to be swapped
        lw $t1, 0($t0) # reg $t0 = v[idx]
8
        lw $t2, 4($t0) # reg $t2 = v[idx+1]
10
        # Store the swapped values back to memory
11
        sw $t2, 0($t0) # v[idx] = $t2
12
        sw $t1, 4($t0)  #v[idx+1] = $t0
13
```



Swap (): complete version

```
swap:
        # Compute the address into the array
        add $t0, $a0, $t0 # reg $t1 = v + (idx*4)
                         # $t1 holds the addr of v[idx]
5
        # Load the two values to be swapped
        lw $t1, 0($t0) # reg $t0 = v[idx]
8
        1w $t2, 4($t0) # reg $t2 = v[idx+1]
10
        # Store the swapped values back to memory
11
        sw $t2, 0($t0) # v[idx] = $t2
12
        sw $t1, 4($t0) # v[idx+1] = $t0
13
14
        jr $ra
                         # return to main
15
```

Should an ISA be simple or complex?

- ISAs range in complexity
- MIPS is a relatively simple ISA.
 - But is that the right design choice?
- Consider the earlier example:

```
High-level language (HLL): a[0]=b[0]+10
```

Assembly language:



- Complex: ADDW3 (R5),(R2),10

CISC vs RISC ISAs

- Complex Instruction Set (CISC)
 - Appeared in early computers, including x86
 - Computers programmed in assembly → high-level language features as instructions
 - Very few registers → operands can be in memory
 - Very little memory → variable length instructions to minimize code size
- Reduced Instruction Set (RISC)
 - Appeared in the 80s. Used today in ARM, MIPS, and SPARC ISAs.
 - Compilers → Simple instructions
 - More registers → load-store architecture
 - More memory & faster clock frequency → fixed length, fixed format instructions for easy, fast decoding logic

