Chapter 6 :: Architecture

Digital Design and Computer Architecture

Copyright © 2007 Elsevier

David Money Harris and Sarah L. Harris

Lectured by Jeong-Gun Lee @ Hallym



Chapter 6 :: Topics

- Introduction
- Assembly Language (어셈블리 언어)
- Machine Language (기계어)
- Programming (프로그래밍)
- MIPS Memory Map (메모리 구조)



Introduction

- Jumping up a few levels of **abstraction** (추상화).
- **Architecture**: the programmer's view of the computer (프로그래머 관점)
 - Defined by instructions (operations) and operand locations
- Microarchitecture: how to implement an architecture in hardware (covered in Chapter 7): 어떻게 하드웨어로 구현할 것인가!

Application Software	programs
Operating Systems	device drivers
Architecture	instructions registers
Micro- architecture	datapaths controllers
Logic	adders memories
Digital Circuits	AND gates NOT gates
Analog Circuits	amplifiers filters
Devices	transistors diodes
Physics	electrons

Assembly Language

- To command a computer, you must understand its language.
 - Instructions(명령어): words in a computer's language
 - Instruction set(명령어집합): the vocabulary of a computer's language

- Instructions indicate the operation to perform and the operands to use.(명령어는 수행할 명령어와 사용할 데이터를 나타낸다)
 - Assembly language: human-readable format of instructions 어셈블리 언어: 사람이 읽을 수 있는 명령어 포맷/형식
 - Machine language: computer-readable format (1's and 0's)
 기계어: 기계가 읽을 수 있는 명령어 포맷/형식



Assembly Language

- We introduce the MIPS architecture.
 - Developed by John Hennessy and his colleagues at Stanford and in the 1980's.
 - Used in many commercial systems, including Silicon Graphics,
 Nintendo, and Cisco
- Once you've learned one architecture, it's easy to learn others.



What? Assembly?

```
# a program that prints "hello world"

.text
.globl __start
__start:
la $a0, str
li $v0, 4
syscall
li $v0, 10
syscall
```



.data str: .asciiz "hello world₩n"



System Call Service

Service	Code in \$v0	Arguments	Result
print integer	1	\$a0 = integer to print	
print float	2	\$f12 = float to print	
print double	3	\$f12 = double to print	
print string	4	\$a0 = address of null- terminated string to print	
read integer	5		\$v0 contains integer read
read float	6		\$f0 contains float read
read double	7		\$f0 contains double read
read string	8	\$a0 = address of input buffer \$a1 = maximum number of characters to read	See note below table
sbrk (allocate heap memory)	9	\$a0 = number of bytes to allocate	\$v0 contains address of allocated memory
exit (terminate execution)	10		ot) a

Instructions: Addition (덧셈)

The most common operation computers perform is addition.
 (컴퓨터가 수행하는 가장 일반적인 연산! – 덧셈!)

High-level code

$$a = b + c;$$

MIPS assembly code

연산명령

- add: the **mnemonic** indicates what operation to perform
- b, c: source operands on which the operation is performed
- a: destination operand to which the result is written



Instructions: Subtraction

• Subtraction is similar to addition. Only the mnemonic changes.

High-level code

$$a = b - c;$$

MIPS assembly code

sub a, b, c

- sub: the mnemonic indicates what operation to perform
- b, c: source operands on which the operation is performed
- a: destination operand to which the result is written



Instructions: More Complex Code

More complex code is handled by multiple MIPS instructions.

High-level code

```
a = b + c - d;
// single line comment
/* multiple line
  comment */
```

MIPS assembly code

```
add t, b, c # t = b + c sub a, t, d # a = t - d
```



Operands

- A computer needs a physical location from which to retrieve binary operands.
- A computer retrieves operands from:
 - Registers
 - Memory
 - **Constants** (also called *immediates* ($\vec{\hookrightarrow} \bar{\lambda}$))

Operands: Registers

- Memory is slow.
- Most architectures have a small set of (fast) registers.
- MIPS has thirty-two 32-bit registers.
- MIPS is called a 32-bit architecture because it operates on 32-bit data.

(A 64-bit version of MIPS also exists, but we will consider only the 32-bit version.)

The MIPS Register Set

Name	Register Number	Usage
\$0	0	the constant value 0
\$at	1	assembler temporary
\$v0-\$v1	2-3	procedure return values
\$a0-\$a3	4-7	procedure arguments
\$t0-\$t7	8-15	temporaries
\$s0-\$s7	16-23	saved variables
\$t8-\$t9	24-25	more temporaries
\$k0-\$k1	26-27	OS temporaries
\$gp	28	global pointer
\$sp	29	stack pointer
\$fp	30	frame pointer
\$ra	31	procedure return address



Operands: Registers

- Registers:
 - Written with a dollar sign (\$) before their name
 - For example, register 0 is written "\$0". It can be pronounced "register zero" or "dollar zero".
- Certain registers are used for specific purposes.
 - For example,
 - \$0 always holds the constant value 0.
 - the temporary registers, \$t0 \$t9 are used to hold temporary values.
- For now, we only use the temporary registers (\$t0 \$t9) and the saved registers (\$s0 \$s7).
- We will use the other registers in later slides.



Instructions with registers

• We revisit previous code using registers to hold the variables.

High-level code

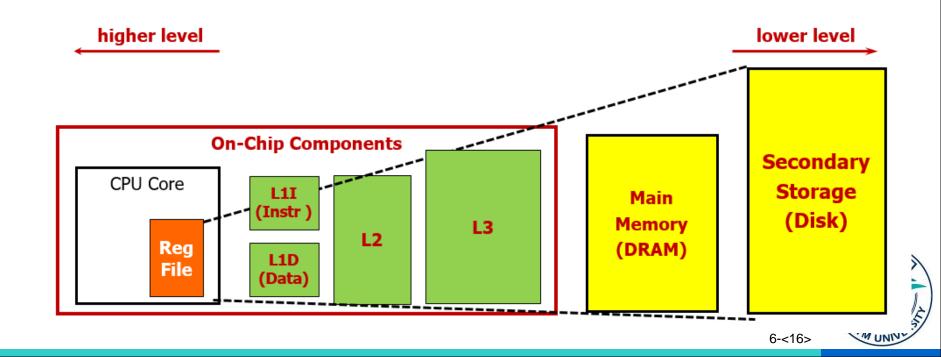
$$a = b + c$$

MIPS assembly code

$$\#$$
 \$s0 = a, \$s1 = b, \$s2 = c add \$s0, \$s1, \$s2

Operands: Memory

- All the data doesn't fit in 32 registers
- Also store operands in memory
- Memory is large, so it can hold a lot of data.
- But it's also **slow**.
- Commonly used variables are kept in registers.



Word-Addressable Memory

• For explanation purposes, we begin by describing a word-addressable memory, where each 32-bit data word has a unique address.

Word Address				Da	ta				
•				•					•
•				•					•
•				•					•
00000003	4	0	F	3	0	7	8	8	Word 3
0000002	0	1	Е	Ε	2	8	4	2	Word 2
0000001	F	2	F	1	Α	С	0	7	Word 1
00000000	Α	В	С	D	Ε	F	7	8	Word 0



Reading Word-Addressable Memory

- Memory reads are called *loads*.
- The mnemonic is *load word* (lw).
- Read a word of data at memory address 1 into \$s3.
- Memory address calculation:
 - add the *base address* (\$0) to the *offset* (1)
 - In this case, the memory address is (\$0 + 1) = 1.
- Any register may be used to store the base address.
- \$s3 holds the value 0xF2F1AC07 after the instruction completes.

Assembly code

```
lw $s3, 1($0) # read memory word 1 into $s3
```

Word Address				Da	ta				
•				•					•
•				•					•
•				•					•
0000003	4	0	F	3	0	7	8	8	Word 3
0000002	0	1	Ε	Ε	2	8	4	2	Word 2
0000001	F	2	F	1	Α	С	0	7	Word 1
0000000	Α	В	С	D	Ε	F	7	8	Word 0



Writing Word-Addressable Memory

- Memory writes are called *stores*.
- The mnemonic is *store word* (sw).
- Write (store) the value held in \$\pm4\$ into memory address 7.
- The offset can be written in decimal (default) or hexadecimal.
- Memory address calculation:
 - Add the base address (\$0) to the offset (0x7).
 - In this case, the memory address is (\$0 + 0x7) = 7.
- Any register may be used to store the base address.

Assembly code

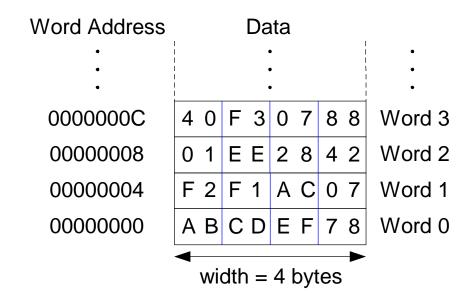
```
sw $t4, 0x7($0) # write $t4 to memory word 7
```

Word Address	Data								
•				•					•
•				•					•
•				•					•
0000003	4	0	F	3	0	7	8	8	Word 3
0000002	0	1	Е	Ε	2	8	4	2	Word 2
0000001	F	2	F	1	Α	С	0	7	Word 1
00000000	A	В	С	D	Е	F	7	8	Word 0



Byte-Addressable Memory

- Each data byte has a unique address
- Load and store single bytes: load byte (1b) and store byte (sb)
- Each 32-bit words has 4 bytes, so the word address increments by 4





Reading Byte-Addressable Memory

- The address of a memory word must now be multiplied by 4. For example,
 - the address of memory word 2 is $2 \times 4 = 8$
 - the address of memory word 10 is $10 \times 4 = 40 (0x28)$
- Load a word of data at memory address 4 into \$s3.
- \$3 holds the value 0xF2F1AC07 after the instruction completes.

MIPS assembly code

lw \$s3, 4(\$0) # read memory word 1 into \$s3

Word Address		Data							
•	 			•	•				•
•	!			•	•				•
•	 			•	•				•
000000C	4	0	F	3	0	7	8	8	Word 3
8000000	0	1	Е	Е	2	8	4	2	Word 2
0000004	F	2	F	1	Α	С	0	7	Word 1
00000000	Α	A B C D E F 7 8					8	Word 0	
	←								
width = 4 bytes									

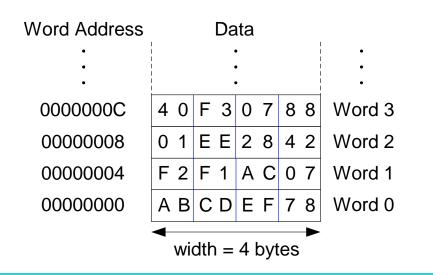


Writing Byte-Addressable Memory

• The assembly code below stores the value held in \$\pm 7 into memory address 0x2C (44).

MIPS assembly code

```
sw $t7, 44($0) # write $t7 into memory word 11
```





Big-Endian and Little-Endian Memory

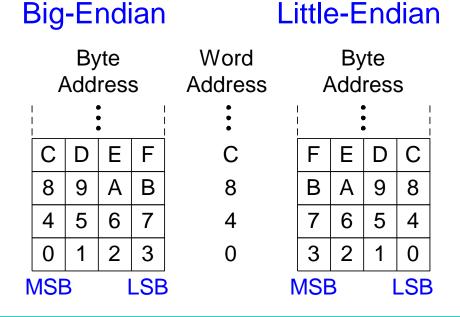
- How to number bytes within a word
- Word address is the same for big- or little-endian
- Little-endian: numbers bytes starting at the little (least significant) end
- **Big-endian**: numbers bytes starting at the big (most significant) end

Big-Endian Little-Endian Byte Word Byte Address Address Address D В 9 8 8 8 5 3 0**MSB** LSB **MSB** LSB



Big-Endian and Little-Endian Memory

- From Jonathan Swift's *Gulliver's Travels* where the Little-Endians broke their eggs on the little end of the egg and the Big-Endians broke their eggs on the big end.
- As indicated by the farcical name, it doesn't really matter which addressing type is used except when the two systems need to share data!





Big- and Little-Endian Example

• Suppose \$\pmu0\$ initially contains 0x23456789. After the following program is run on a big-endian system, what value does \$\pmu0\$ contain? In a little-endian system?

sw
$$$s0, 0($0)$$

lb $$s0, 1($0)$



Big- and Little-Endian Example

• Suppose \$\pmu0\$ initially contains 0x23456789. After the following program is run on a big-endian system, what value does \$\pmu0\$ contain? In a little-endian system?

sw
$$$s0, 0($0)$$

lb $$s0, 1($0)$

- Big-endian: 0x00000045
- Little-endian: 0x0000067

Big-Endian Word Byte Address 0 1 2 3 Address 3 2 1 0 Byte Address Data Value 23 45 67 89 0 23 45 67 89 Data Value MSB LSB MSB LSB



Operands: Constants/Immediates

- 1w and sw illustrate the use of constants or *immediates*.
- Called immediates because they are *immediately* available from the instruction.
- Immediates don't require a register or memory access.
- The add immediate (addi) instruction adds an immediate to a variable (held in a register).
- An immediate is a 16-bit two's complement number.
- Is subtract immediate (**subi**) necessary?

High-level code

$$a = a + 4;$$

 $b = a - 12;$

MIPS assembly code

$$$s0 = a$$
, $$s1 = b$ addi $$s0$, $$s0$, 4 addi $$s1$, $$s0$, -12



Machine Language

- Computers only understand 1's and 0's
- Machine language: binary representation of instructions
- 32-bit instructions
 - Again, simplicity favors regularity: 32-bit data and instructions
- Three instruction formats:
 - R-Type: register operands
 - I-Type: immediate operand
 - J-Type: for jumping (we'll discuss later)



R-Type

- Register-type
- 3 register operands:
 - rs, rt: source registers
 - rd: destination register
- Other fields:
 - op: the operation code or opcode
 - funct: the *function* together, the opcode and function tell the computer
 what operation to perform
 - shamt: the shift amount for shift instructions, otherwise it's 0

R-Type

ор	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	6 bits



R-Type Examples

Assembly Code

add \$s0, \$s1, \$s2 sub \$t0, \$t3, \$t5

Field Values

ор	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
0	17	18	16	0	32
0	11	13	8	0	34
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	6 bits

Machine Code

ор	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct	
000000	10001	10010	10000	00000	100000	(0x02328020)
000000	01011	01101	01000	00000	100010	(0x016D4022)
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	6 bits	

Note the order of registers in the assembly code:

i.e., add rd, rs, rt



I-Type

- *Immediate-type*
- 3 operands:
 - rs, rt: register operands
 - imm: 16-bit two's complement immediate
- Other fields:
 - op: the opcode
 - Simplicity favors regularity: all instructions have opcode
 - Operation is completely determined by the opcode

I-Type

ор	rs	rt	imm
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	16 bits

I-Type Examples

Assembly Code

addi	\$s0,	\$s1, 5
addi	\$t0,	\$s3, -1
lw	\$t2,	32(\$0)
SW	\$s1,	4(\$t1)

Field Values

ор	rs	rt	imm	
8	17	16	5	
8	19	8	-12	
35	0	10	32	
43	9	17	4	
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	16 bits	

Note again the differing order of registers in the assembly and machine codes:

addi rt, rs, imm
lw rt, imm(rs)
sw rt, imm(rs)

Machine Code

ор	rs	rt	imm	
001000	10001	10000	0000 0000 0000 0101	(0x22300005)
001000	10011	01000	1111 1111 1111 0100	(0x2268FFF4)
100011	00000	01010	0000 0000 0010 0000	(0x8C0A0020)
101011	01001	10001	0000 0000 0000 0100	(0xAD310004)
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	16 bits	2011日

Machine Language: J-Type

- Jump-type
- 26-bit address operand (addr)
- Used for jump instructions (j)

J-Type

op	addr
6 bits	26 bits



Review: Instruction Formats

R-Type

op	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	6 bits

I-Type

op	rs	rt	imm
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	16 bits

J-Type

op	addr
6 bits	26 bits



The Power of the Stored Program

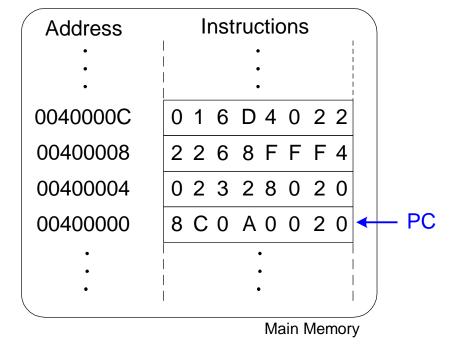
- 32-bit instructions and data stored in memory
- Sequence of instructions: only difference between two applications (for example, a text editor and a video game)
- To run a new program:
 - No tedious rewiring required
 - Simply store new program in memory
- The processor hardware executes the program:
 - fetches (reads) the instructions from memory in sequence
 - performs the specified operation
- A program counter (PC) keeps track of the current instruction.
- In MIPS, programs typically start at memory address 0x00400000.



The Stored Program

As	ssembl	Machine Code		
lw	\$t2,	32(\$0)		0x8C0A0020
add	\$s0,	\$s1,	\$s2	0x02328020
addi	\$t0,	\$s3,	-12	0x2268FFF4
sub	\$t0,	\$t3,	\$t5	0x016D4022

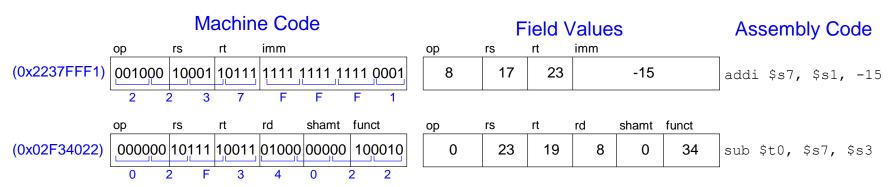
Stored Program





Interpreting Machine Language Code

- Start with opcode
- Opcode tells how to parse the remaining bits
- If opcode is all 0's
 - R-type instruction
 - Function bits tell what instruction it is
- Otherwise
 - opcode tells what instruction it is





Programming

- High-level languages:
 - e.g., C, Java
 - Written at more abstract level
- Common high-level software constructs:
 - if/else statements
 - for loops
 - while loops
 - array accesses
 - procedure calls
- Other useful instructions:
 - Arithmetic/logical instructions
 - Branching



Logical Instructions

- and, or, xor, nor
 - and: useful for *masking* bits
 - Masking all but the least significant byte of a value: 0xF234012F AND 0xFF = 0x0000002F
 - or: useful for combining bits
 - Combine 0xF2340000 with 0x000012BC: 0xF2340000 OR 0x000012BC = 0xF23412BC
 - nor: useful for inverting bits:
 - A NOR \$0 = NOT A
- andi, ori, xori
 - 16-bit immediate is zero-extended (*not* sign-extended)
 - nori not needed



Logical Instruction Examples

Source Registers

\$ s1	1111	1111	1111	1111	0000	0000	0000	0000
\$s2	0100	0110	1010	0001	1111	0000	1011	0111

Assembly Code

and	\$s3,	\$s1,	\$s2
or	\$s4,	\$s1,	\$s2
xor	\$s5,	\$s1,	\$s2
nor	\$s6,	\$s1,	\$s2

Result

\$ s3	0100	0110	1010	0001	0000	0000	0000	0000
\$ s4	1111	1111	1111	1111	1111	0000	1011	0111
\$ s5	1011	1001	0101	1110	1111	0000	1011	0111
\$ s6	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	1111	0100	1000



Logical Instruction Examples

Source Values

\$ s1	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	1111	1111
imm	0000	0000	0000	0000	1111	1010	0011	0100
	zero-extended >							

Assembly Code

andi	\$s2,	\$s1,	0xFA34	\$ s2
ori	\$s3,	\$s1,	0xFA34	\$ s3
xori	\$s4,	\$s1,	0xFA34	\$ s4

Result

2	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	0011	0100
3	0000	0000	0000	0000	1111	1010	1111	1111
1	0000	0000	0000	0000	1111	1010	1100	1011



Shift Instructions

- sll: shift left logical
 - Example: sll \$t0, \$t1, 5 # \$t0 <= \$t1 << 5</pre>
- srl: shift right logical
 - Example: srl \$t0, \$t1, 5 # \$t0 <= \$t1 >> 5
- sra: shift right arithmetic
 - Example: sra \$t0, \$t1, 5 # \$t0 <= \$t1 >>> 5

Variable shift instructions:

- sllv: shift left logical variable
 - Example: sll \$t0, \$t1, \$t2 # \$t0 <= \$t1
 << \$t2</pre>
- srlv: shift right logical variable
 - Example: srl \$t0, \$t1, \$t2 # \$t0 <= \$t1 >>
 \$t2
- srav: shift right arithmetic variable
 - Example: sra \$t0, \$t1, \$t2 # \$t0 <= \$t1 >>> \$t2



Shift Instructions

Assembly Code

Field Values

sll	\$t0,	\$s1,	2
srl	\$s2,	\$s1,	2
sra	\$s3,	\$s1,	2

ор	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
0	0	17	8	2	0
0	0	17	18	2	2
0	0	17	19	2	3
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	6 bits

Machine Code

ор	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct	
000000	00000	10001	01000	00010	000000	(0x00114080)
000000	00000	10001	10010	00010	000010	(0x00119082)
000000	00000	10001	10011	00010	000011	(0x00119883)
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	6 bits	

Generating Constants

• 16-bit constants using addi:

High-level code

```
// int is a 32-bit signed word # $s0 = a int a = 0x4f3c; addi $s0,
```

MIPS assembly code

```
# $s0 = a addi $s0, $0, 0x4f3c
```

• 32-bit constants using load upper immediate (lui) and ori:

(lui loads the 16-bit immediate into the upper half of the register and sets the lower half to 0.)

High-level code

```
int a = 0xFEDC8765;
```

MIPS assembly code



Multiplication, Subtraction

- Special registers: 10, hi
- 32 × 32 multiplication, 64 bit result
 - mult \$s0, \$s1
 - Result in hi, lo
- 32-bit division, 32-bit quotient, 32-bit remainder
 - div \$s0, \$s1
 - Quotient in 10
 - Remainder in hi



Branching

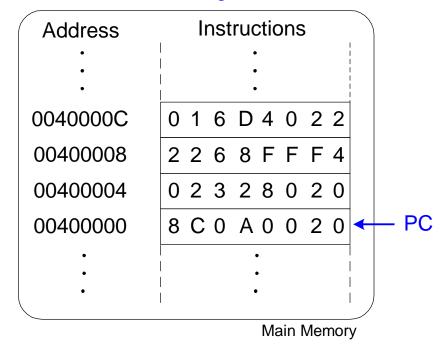
- Allows a program to execute instructions out of sequence.
- Types of branches:
 - Conditional branches:
 - branch if equal (beq)
 - branch if not equal (bne)
 - Unconditional branches:
 - jump (j)
 - jump register (jr)
 - jump and link (jal)



Review: The Stored Program

As	ssembl)	Machine Code	
lw	\$t2,	32 (\$0)	0x8C0A0020
add	\$s0,	\$s1,	\$s2	0x02328020
addi	\$t0,	\$s3,	-12	0x2268FFF4
sub	\$t0,	\$t3,	\$t5	0x016D4022

Stored Program





Conditional Branching (beq)

MIPS assembly

```
addi $s0, $0, 4  # $s0 = 0 + 4 = 4 addi $s1, $0, 1  # $s1 = 0 + 1 = 1 s11 $s1, $s1, 2  # $s1 = 1 << 2 = 4 beq $s0, $s1, target # branch is taken addi $s1, $s1, 1  # not executed sub $s1, $s1, $s0  # not executed target:

add $s1, $s1, $s0  # $s1 = 4 + 4 = 8
```

Labels indicate instruction locations in a program. They cannot use reserve words and must be followed by a colon (:).

The Branch Not Taken (bne)

MIPS assembly

```
$s0, $0, 4
addi
                             \# \$\$0 = 0 + 4 = 4
         $s1, $0, 1
                             \# \$s1 = 0 + 1 = 1
addi
                             \# $s1 = 1 << 2 = 4
sll
         $s1, $s1, 2
         $s0, $s1, target # branch not taken
bne
addi
         $s1, $s1, 1
                             # \$s1 = 4 + 1 = 5
                            # $s1 = 5 - 4 = 1
sub
         $s1, $s1, $s0
```

target:

\$s1, \$s1, \$s0 \$s1 = 1 + 4 = 5add

$$\# \$s1 = 1 + 4 = 5$$



Unconditional Branching (j)

MIPS assembly



Unconditional Branching (jr)

```
# MIPS assembly
```

0x00002000 addi \$s0, \$0, 0x2010

0x00002004 jr \$s0

0x00002008 addi \$s1, \$0, 1

0x0000200C sra \$s1, \$s1, 2

0x00002010 lw \$s3, 44(\$s1)



High-Level Code Constructs

- if statements
- if/else statements
- while loops
- for loops



If Statement

High-level code

f = f - i;

```
\# \$s0 = f, \$s1 = g, \$s2 = h
\# \$s3 = i, \$s4 = j
    bne $s3, $s4, L1
    add $s0, $s1, $s2
```

L1: sub \$s0, \$s0, \$s3

MIPS assembly code

Notice that the assembly tests for the opposite case (i != j)than the test in the high-level code (i == j).



If / Else Statement

High-level code

```
if (i == j)
  f = g + h;
else
  f = f - i;
```

MIPS assembly code

```
# $s0 = f, $s1 = g, $s2 = h
# $s3 = i, $s4 = j
bne $s3, $s4, L1
add $s0, $s1, $s2
j done
L1: sub $s0, $s0, $s3
done:
```



While Loops

High-level code

```
// determines the power \# \$s0 = pow, \$s1 = x
// of x such that 2^x = 128
int pow = 1;
int x = 0;
 pow = pow * 2;
 x = x + 1;
```

MIPS assembly code

```
addi $s0, $0, 1
                                  add $s1, $0, $0
                                  addi $t0, $0, 128
while (pow != 128) { while: beq $s0, $t0, done
                                  sll $s0, $s0, 1
                                  addi $s1, $s1, 1
                                  i while
                            done:
```

Notice that the assembly tests for the opposite case (pow == 128) than the test in the high-level code (pow != 128).



For Loops

The general form of a for loop is:

```
for (initialization; condition; loop operation) loop body
```

- initialization: executes before the loop begins
- condition: is tested at the beginning of each iteration
- loop operation: executes at the end of each iteration
- loop body: executes each time the condition is met



For Loops

High-level code

```
// add the numbers from 0 to 9
int sum = 0;
int i;

for (i=0; i!=10; i = i+1) {
   sum = sum + i;
}
```

MIPS assembly code

Notice that the assembly tests for the opposite case (i == 128) than the test in the high-level code (i != 10).



For Loops: Using slt

High-level code

```
// add the powers of 2 from 1
// to 100
int sum = 0;
int i;

for (i=1; i < 101; i = i*2) {
   sum = sum + i;
}</pre>
```

MIPS assembly code

```
# $s0 = i, $s1 = sum
    addi $s1, $0, 0
    addi $s0, $0, 1
    addi $t0, $0, 101
loop: slt $t1, $s0, $t0
    beq $t1, $0, done
    add $s1, $s1, $s0
    sll $s0, $s0, 1
    j loop
```

done:

$$t1 = 1 \text{ if } i < 101.$$



Arrays

- Useful for accessing large amounts of similar data
- Array element: accessed by *index*
- Array *size*: number of elements in the array



Arrays

- 5-element array
- Base address = 0x12348000 (address of the first array element, array [0])
- First step in accessing an array: load base address into a register

0x12340010	array[4]
0x1234800C	array[3]
0x12348008	array[2]
0x12348004	array[1]
0x12348000	array[0]



Arrays

```
// high-level code
   int array[5];
   array[0] = array[0] * 2;
   array[1] = array[1] * 2;
# MIPS assembly code
# array base address = $s0
                            # put 0x1234 in upper half of $S0
lui $s0, 0x1234
                            # put 0x8000 in lower half of $s0
ori $s0, $s0, 0x8000
lw $t1, 0($s0)
                            # $t1 = array[0]
 sll $t1, $t1, 1
                            # $t1 = $t1 * 2
     $t1, 0($s0)
                            \# array[0] = \$t1
lw $t1, 4($s0)
                            # $t1 = array[1]
 sll $t1, $t1, 1
                            # $t1 = $t1 * 2
 sw $t1, 4($s0)
                            \# array[1] = \$t1
```



Arrays Using For Loops

```
// high-level code
int array[1000];
int i;

for (i=0; i < 1000; i = i + 1)
    array[i] = array[i] * 8;</pre>
```



Arrays Using For Loops

```
# MIPS assembly code
\# $s0 = array base address, $s1 = i
# initialization code
 ori $s0, $s0, 0xF000 # $s0 = 0x23B8F000
 addi $s1, $0, 0 # i = 0
 addi $t2, $0, 1000 # $t2 = 1000
loop:
 slt $t0, $s1, $t2 # i < 1000?
 beg $t0, $0, done # if not then done
 sll $t0, $s1, 2 $\sharp $t0 = i * 4 (byte offset)
 add $t0, $t0, $s0  # address of array[i]
 lw $t1, 0($t0) # $t1 = array[i]
 $11 $1, $1, $1, 3 $$ # $1 = array[i] * 8
 sw $t1, 0($t0) # array[i] = array[i] * 8
 addi $s1, $s1, 1 # i = i + 1
                     # repeat
 i loop
done:
```

6-<63>

ASCII Codes

- American Standard Code for Information Interchange (ASCII): assigns each text character a unique byte value
- For example, S = 0x53, a = 0x61, A = 0x41
- Lower-case and upper-case letters differ by 0x20 (32).
- See Table 6.2 in *Digital Design and Computer Architecture*, Harris and Harris, for a complete list of ASCII codes



Definitions

- Caller: calling procedure (in this case, main)
- Callee: called procedure (in this case, Sum)

High-level code

```
void main()
{
   int y;
   y = sum(42, 7);
   ...
}
int sum(int a, int b)
{
   return (a + b);
}
```



Procedure calling conventions:

- Caller:
 - passes arguments to callee.
- Callee:
 - must not overwrite registers or memory needed by the caller
 - returns to the point of call
 - returns the result to caller

MIPS conventions:

- Call procedure: jump and link (jal)
- Return from procedure: jump register (jr)
- Argument values: \$a0 \$a3
- Return value: \$v0



High-level code

```
int main() {
    simple();
    a = b + c;
}

void simple() {
    return;
}
```

MIPS assembly code

```
0x00400200 main: jal simple
0x00400204 add $s0, $s1, $s2
...
```

0x00401020 simple: jr \$ra

void means that simple doesn't return a value.



High-level code

```
int main() {
    simple();
    a = b + c;
}

void simple() {
    return;
}
```

MIPS assembly code

```
0x00400200 main: jal simple
0x00400204 add $s0, $s1, $s2
...
```

0x00401020 simple: jr \$ra

jal: jumps to simple and saves PC+4 in the return address register (\$ra). In this case, \$ra = 0x00400204 after jal executes.

jr \$ra: jumps to address in \$ra, in this case 0x00400204.



MIPS conventions:

- Argument values: \$a0 \$a3
- Return value: \$v0



High-level code

```
int main()
  int y;
 y = diffofsums(2, 3, 4, 5); // 4 arguments
int diffofsums (int f, int q, int h, int i)
  int result;
  result = (f + g) - (h + i);
                             // return value
 return result;
```



MIPS assembly code

```
\# \$s0 = y
main:
  addi $a0, $0, 2 # argument 0 = 2
  addi $a1, $0, 3  # argument 1 = 3
  addi $a2, $0, 4  # argument 2 = 4
  addi $a3, $0, 5  # argument 3 = 5
  jal diffofsums # call procedure
  add $s0, $v0, $0 # y = returned value
# $s0 = result
diffofsums:
  add $t0, $a0, $a1 # $t0 = f + q
  add $t1, $a2, $a3 # $t1 = h + i
  sub $s0, $t0, $t1 # result = (f + g) - (h + i)
  add $v0, $s0, $0  # put return value in $v0
              # return to caller
  ir $ra
```



MIPS assembly code

```
# $s0 = result
diffofsums:
  add $t0, $a0, $a1  # $t0 = f + g
  add $t1, $a2, $a3  # $t1 = h + i
  sub $s0, $t0, $t1  # result = (f + g) - (h + i)
  add $v0, $s0, $0  # put return value in $v0
  jr $ra  # return to caller
```

- diffofsums overwrote 3 registers: \$t0, \$t1, and \$s0
- diffofsums can use the *stack* to temporarily store registers



The Stack

- Memory used to temporarily save variables
- Like a stack of dishes, last-in-firstout (LIFO) queue
- *Expands*: uses more memory when more space is needed
- *Contracts*: uses less memory when the space is no longer needed





The Stack

- Grows down (from higher to lower memory addresses)
- Stack pointer: \$sp, points to top of the stack

Address	Data		Address	Data	
7FFFFFC	12345678	← \$sp	7FFFFFC	12345678	_
7FFFFF8	120+0070	Ψορ	7FFFFF8	AABBCCDD	
7FFFFFF4			7FFFFF4	11223344	← \$sp
7FFFFF0			7FFFFF0		
•	•		•	•	
•	•		•	•	

How Procedures use the Stack

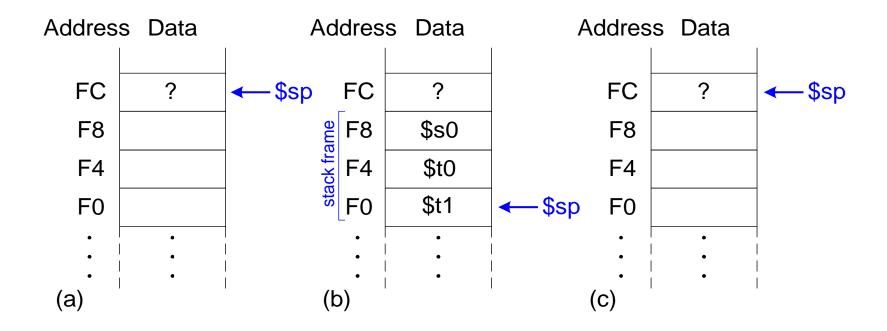
- Called procedures must have no other unintended side effects.
- But diffofsums overwrites 3 registers: \$t0, \$t1, \$s0

```
# MIPS assembly
# $s0 = result
diffofsums:
   add $t0, $a0, $a1  # $t0 = f + g
   add $t1, $a2, $a3  # $t1 = h + i
   sub $s0, $t0, $t1  # result = (f + g) - (h + i)
   add $v0, $s0, $0  # put return value in $v0
   jr $ra  # return to caller
```

Storing Register Values on the Stack

```
# $s0 = result
diffofsums:
 addi $sp, $sp, -12 # make space on stack
                    # to store 3 registers
 sw $s0, 8($sp) # save $s0 on stack
 sw $t0, 4($sp) # save $t0 on stack
 sw $t1, 0($sp) # save $t1 on stack
 add $t0, $a0, $a1 # <math>$t0 = f + g
 add $t1, $a2, $a3 # $t1 = h + i
 sub $s0, $t0, $t1 # result = (f + g) - (h + i)
 add $v0, $s0, $0 # put return value in $v0
 lw $t1, 0($sp) # restore $t1 from stack
 lw $t0, 4($sp) # restore $t0 from stack
 lw $s0, 8($sp) # restore $s0 from stack
 addi $sp, $sp, 12 # deallocate stack space
 jr $ra
                    # return to caller
```

The Stack during diffofsums Call



Multiple Procedure Calls

```
proc1:
  addi $sp, $sp, -4  # make space on stack
  sw $ra, 0($sp)  # save $ra on stack
  jal proc2
  ...
  lw $ra, 0($sp)  # restore $s0 from stack
  addi $sp, $sp, 4  # deallocate stack space
  jr $ra  # return to caller
```

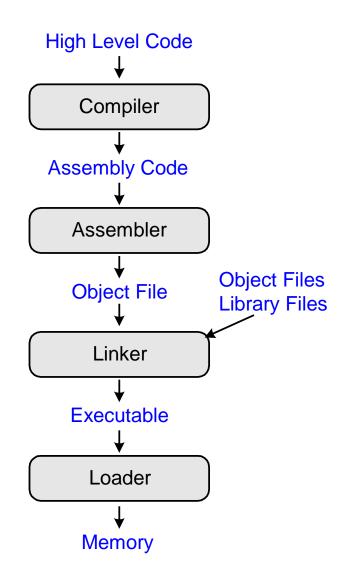


Storing Saved Registers on the Stack

```
# $s0 = result
diffofsums:
 addi $sp, $sp, -4 # make space on stack to
                     # store one register
  sw $s0, 0($sp) # save $s0 on stack
  add $t0, $a0, $a1 # <math>$t0 = f + g
  add $t1, $a2, $a3 # <math>$t1 = h + i
  sub $s0, $t0, $t1 # result = (f + g) - (h + i)
  add $v0, $s0, $0 # put return value in $v0
  lw $s0, 0($sp) # restore $s0 from stack
  addi $sp, $sp, 4 # deallocate stack space
                     # return to caller
  jr $ra
```



Running a Program





Example Program: C Code

```
int f, g, y; // global variables
int main(void)
 f = 2;
 q = 3;
  y = sum(f, g);
  return y;
int sum(int a, int b) {
 return (a + b);
```



Example Program: Assembly Code

```
.data
int f, g, y; // global
                           f:
                           q:
                           у:
int main(void)
                           .text
                           main:
                            addi $sp, $sp, -4 # stack frame
                             sw $ra, 0($sp) # store $ra
                            addi $a0, $0, 2 # $a0 = 2
 f = 2;
                            sw $a0, f # f = 2
 a = 3;
                            addi $a1, $0, 3  # $a1 = 3
                            sw $a1, q # q = 3
 y = sum(f, q);
                            jal sum # call sum
 return y;
                             sw $v0, y # y = sum()
                            lw $ra, 0($sp) # restore $ra
                            addi $sp, $sp, 4 # restore $sp
int sum(int a, int b) {
                            jr $ra
                                       # return to OS
 return (a + b);
                           sum:
                            add $v0, $a0, $a1 # $v0 = a + b
```

jr

\$ra

return

6-<82>

The MIPS Memory Map

Address	Segment	
0xFFFFFFC		
	Reserved	
0x80000000		
0x7FFFFFC	Stack ↓	
	Dynamic Data	
	↑	
0x10010000	Heap	
0x1000FFFC		
	Static Data	
0x10000000		
0x0FFFFFC		
	Text	
0x00400000		
0x003FFFFC		
	Reserved	
0x00000000		



Example Program: Symbol Table

Symbol	Address	
f	0x10000000	
g	0x10000004	
У	0x10000008	
main	0x00400000	
sum	0x0040002C	

Example Program: Executable

Executable file header	Text Size	Data Size
	0x34 (52 bytes)	0xC (12 bytes)
Text segment	Address	Instruction
	0x00400000	0x23BDFFFC
	0x00400004	0xAFBF0000
	0x00400008	0x20040002
	0x0040000C	0xAF848000
	0x00400010	0x20050003
	0x00400014	0xAF858004
	0x00400018	0x0C10000B
	0x0040001C	0xAF828008
	0x00400020	0x8FBF0000
	0x00400024	0x23BD0004
	0x00400028	0x03E00008
	0x0040002C	0x00851020
	0x00400030	0x03E0008
Data segment	Address	Data
	0x10000000	f
	0x10000004	g
	0x10000008	у

addi \$sp, \$sp, -4
sw \$ra, 0 (\$sp)
addi \$a0, \$0, 2
sw \$a0, 0x8000 (\$gp)
addi \$a1, \$0, 3
sw \$a1, 0x8004 (\$gp)
jal 0x0040002C
sw \$v0, 0x8008 (\$gp)
lw \$ra, 0 (\$sp)
addi \$sp, \$sp, -4
jr \$ra
add \$v0, \$a0, \$a1
jr \$ra

