Inf2C - Computer Systems Lectures 4-6 Assembly Language

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Lectures 4-6: 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!
- Sony PS1: MIPS R3000

- ISA reference online:
- HL.O.

- 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
- Simple vs complex instruction sets



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: 0000001111010010000001000001011
 - 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
 - There is a 1-to-1 mapping between a machine instruction and a corresponding assembly instruction



The first assembler



- Kathleen Booth
 - Born 1922
 - BSc Mathematics at University of London
 - Visited John VonNeumann 1947
 - Came back to UK and invented first assembly language.



MIPS assembly: a simple example

High-level language (e.g., C, Java): 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)
sra a,b,shamt $a = b >> \text{shamt}$ (arithmetic)



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
 - x86 has 8-16

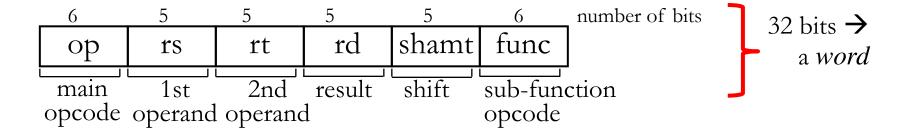


MIPS instruction example

Assembly:

```
add $s1, $s2, $s3 \# $s1 = $s2 + $s3
```

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

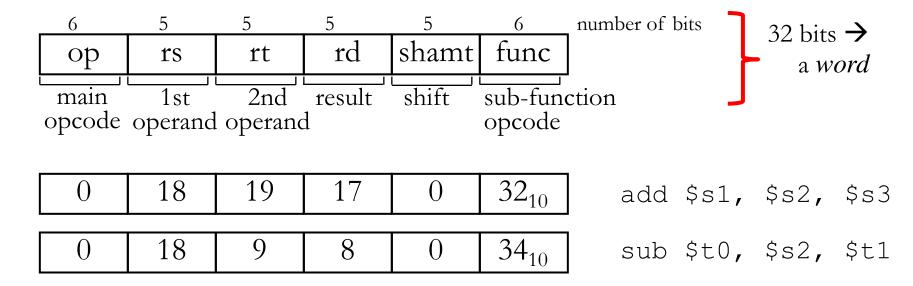




MIPS instruction example

Assembly:

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





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

More on MIPS registers

- Most registers are available for programmer use
 - with a few important exceptions
- Program (C/Java) variables held in regs \$s0-\$s7
- Temporary variables (e.g., inside a method call): \$t0-\$t9
- Registers with special roles
 - Register 0 (\$zero) is hardwired to 0
 - Program Counter (PC) holds address of next instruction to be executed
 - not a general purpose register
 - Other special-purpose registers: stack pointer, frame pointer, ...



MIPS register summary

Name	Register Number	Usage	Preserved on call
\$zero	0	the constant value 0	n.a.
\$at	1	reserved for the assembler	n.a.
v0-v1	2-3	value for results and expressions	no
\$a0-\$a3	4-7	arguments (procedures/functions)	yes
\$t0-\$t7	8-15	temporaries	no
\$s0-\$s7	16-23	saved	yes
\$t8-\$t9	24-25	more temporaries	no
\$k0-\$k1	26-27	reserved for the operating system	n.a.
\$gp	28	global pointer	yes
\$sp	29	stack pointer	yes
\$fp	30	frame pointer	yes
\$ra	31	return address	yes

 $Source: https://www.cise.ufl.edu/{\sim}mssz/CompOrg/CDA-lang.html\\$



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,sero,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

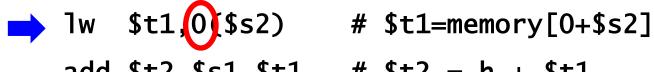
Programming statement:

$$g = h + A[0]$$

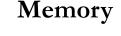
where

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

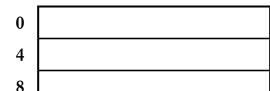
MIPS: offset



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



- 32 bits -



\$s2







Data-transfer instructions

- Load 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

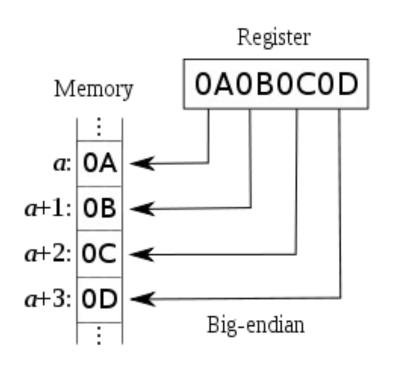
 Memory is byte addressable, but it is organised so that a whole word can be accessed directly

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



Memory addressing: Endianness

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



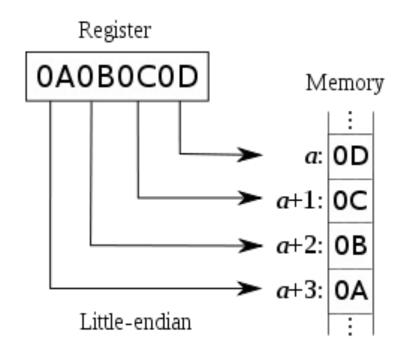


Image source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Endianness



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...

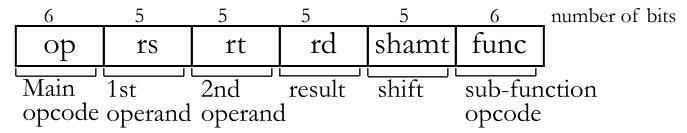
... the issue is: "What is the proper byte order in [network] messages?"

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

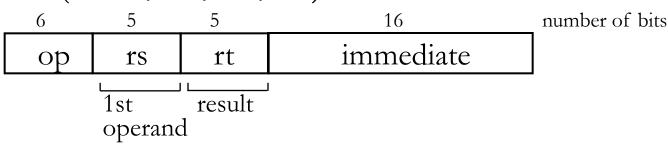


Instruction formats

- Instruction representation composed of bit-fields
- Similar instructions have the same format
- MIPS instruction formats:
 - R-format (add/sub, and/or, sll/slr, ...)



- 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) {
    int temp;
10
11
  temp = v[idx];
12
  v[idx] = v[idx+1];
   v[idx+1] = temp;
13
14 }
```



Swap () in MIPS

```
swap:
         # inputs: $a0 - array base, $a1 - index
2
         # Compute the address into the array
         1 $1 $1, $1, $2 $1 $10 = idx * 4
         add $t0, $a0, $t0 # reg $t0 = v + (idx*4)
5
                           # $t0 holds the addr of v[idx]
         # Load the two values to be swapped
8
         lw $t1, 0($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
```



Control transfers: If structures

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

stmnt1

else "else case"

stmnt2 "follow through"

stmnt3
```

MIPS: "branch if equal" beq \$\$1,\$\$2,label

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

```
beq $s1,$s2,label2

stmnt1

unconditional jump

j label3 # skip 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 a PC-relative offset
- Obtained from the immediate operand as:branch target = PC + 4 * offset

Actually, (PC+4) +

- 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: ...
```



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 $$1 contains i and $$2 contains j
loop:  $$t0 = 1 iff $$52 < $$1; else 0

$$1t $$t0,$$52,$$$1  # $$t0 = (j < i)
beq $$t0,$$zero,end # branch if i <= j
stmnt
j loop # jump back to loop
end: ...</pre>
```



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

 $| \ | \ (src1 != 0 \text{ or } src2 != 0)$

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



Common MIPS Relational Operators

Relational

< slt, sltu, slti, sltiu

$$==$$
 seq

$$!=$$
 sne

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

Pseudo-instructions



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



Method calls

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



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

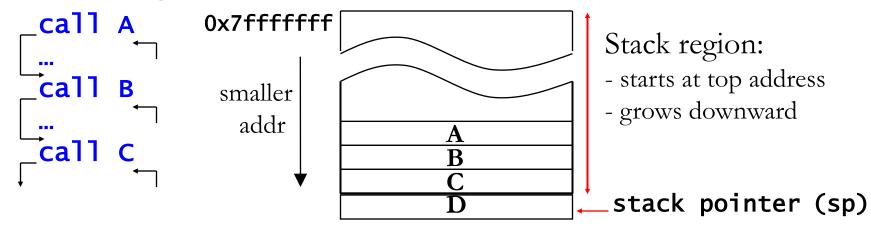
- Method parameters: \$a0 \$a3
- Return values: \$v0, \$v1
- Regs preserved across call boundaries: \$s0 \$s7
- Regs **not** preserved across call boundaries: \$t0 \$t9

What about nested method calls?



Using a stack for method calls

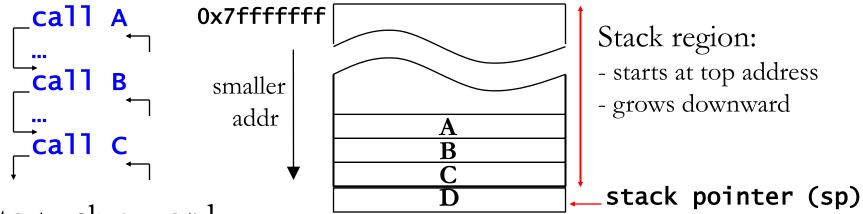
Nested calls ⇒ must save return address to prevent overwriting. Solution: use a stack in memory





Using a stack for method calls

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



to push a word:

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

to pop a word:





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

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

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) {
    int temp;
10
11
  temp = v[idx];
12 v[idx] = v[idx+1];
13 v[idx+1] = temp;
14 }
```



Main() in MIPS

DIN

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

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Swap()

```
swap:
        # Compute the address into the array
2
        3
        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
```

Anything amiss?



Swap (): complete version

```
swap:
        # Compute the address into the array
        3
        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 (e.g., x86 instructions to manipulate strings)
 - 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

