

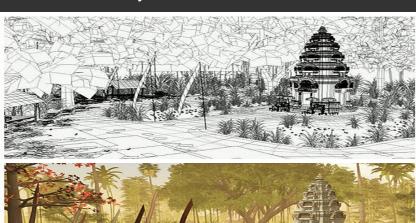
Information Technology

FIT1008/2085 MIPS – Isn't learning this a waste of time?

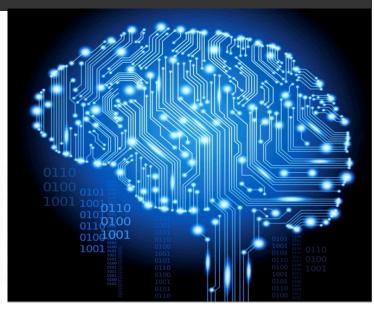
Prepared by: Maria Garcia de la Banda Revised by A. Aleti, D. Albrecht, G. Farr, J. Garcia and P. Abramson











Learning objectives for this lesson block

- To understand why we are going to learn about MIPS
- In the process, to learn about:
 - von Neuman architecture
 - Machine code and Machine language
 - The concept of "word" in computer architecture
 - RISC vs CISC

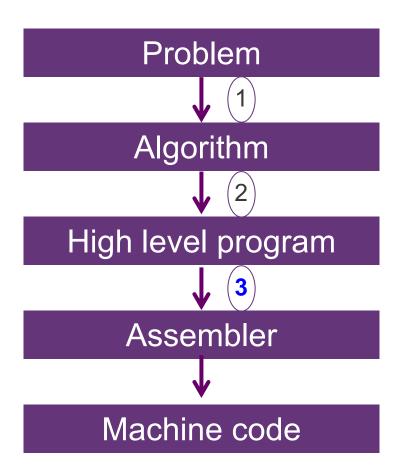
Make sure you are comfortable with integer representation. We will assume you are!



We said that FIT1008/2085 ...

- Were about the first three steps
- You have already done a bit on the first two
- But the third step might still be a mystery for you

But what is this?





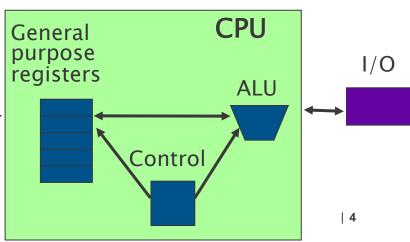
By LANL - http://www.lanl.gov/history/atomicbomb/images/NeumannL.GIF (archive copy), Attribution, https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=3429594

von Neumann architecture (1945)

- Consists of three main components:
 - Memory: stores both data and instructions
 - Control Processing Unit (CPU) divided into:
 - Arithmetic/Logic Unit (ALU): does the calculations
 - Registers: store temporary results
 - Control: decides what to do next
 - Input/Output (I/O)
- Instructions & data must be loaded into the Memory
 CPU before being processed
- If interested, look into

https://www.microcontrollertips.com/difference-between-vonneumann-and-harvard-architectures/

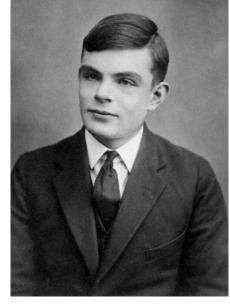




By Unknown author - http://www.turingarchive.org/viewer/?id=521&title=4, Public Domain, https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=22828488

Others who deserve credit

- Alan Turing: in 1936 published the Universal Computing Machine
 - Also has a memory containing both instructions and data
 - von Neumann interacted with Turing in 1935-1937
- Konrad Zuse who in 1936 had two patents on the same
- Presper Eckert & John Mauchly: developed ENIAC, when designing EDVAC in 1943 wrote about similar designs
 - von Neumann joined the project and wrote the first draft report
 - A colleague circulated it with only von Neumann's name



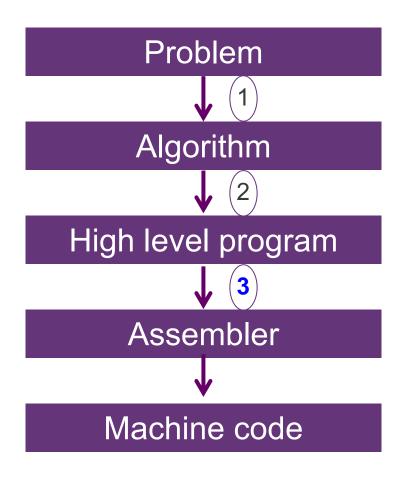




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- Were about the first three steps
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But what is this?





Machine Code and Machine Language

- The CPU runs machine code written in machine language
 - Not in Java, C, Python, JavaScript, or assembler
- Each CPU type usually requires a different machine language
- Machine code is stored in memory as bit patterns
- Example: the machine code to compute the factorial of a number for a "MIPS" R2000 CPU consists of the following bit patterns:

Each line of 32 bits is a different machine code instruction



Loading and storing... what?

- Words!
 - But not the kind of words you think...
- In computer architecture, a word is a chunk of bits (8, 16, 32 or 64) used as basic unit of data in a computer:
 - That is, the basic block the computer uses to store, operate on, move, etc.
 - Depends on the computer
 - For MIPS we will use 32 bits, that is, 4 bytes
 - That is why MIPS machine code instructions are 32 bits

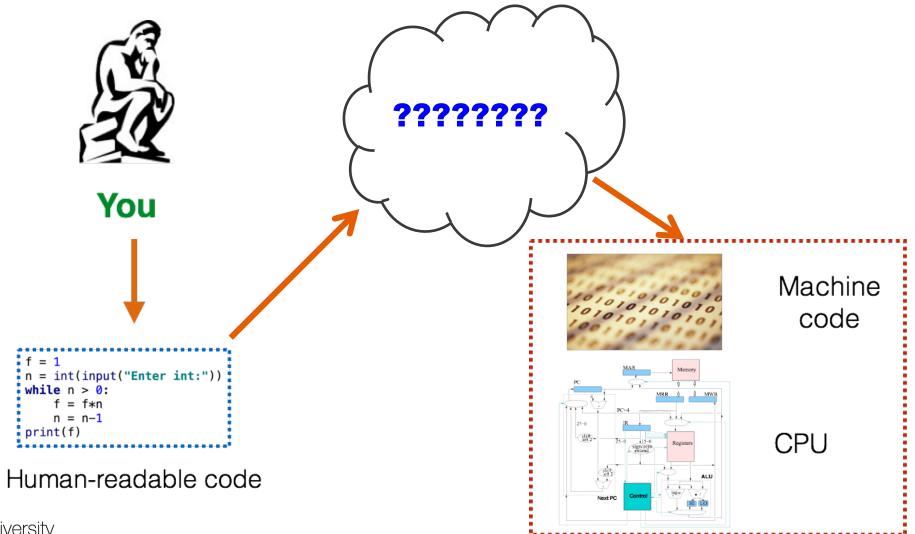


Why is Assembly Language needed?

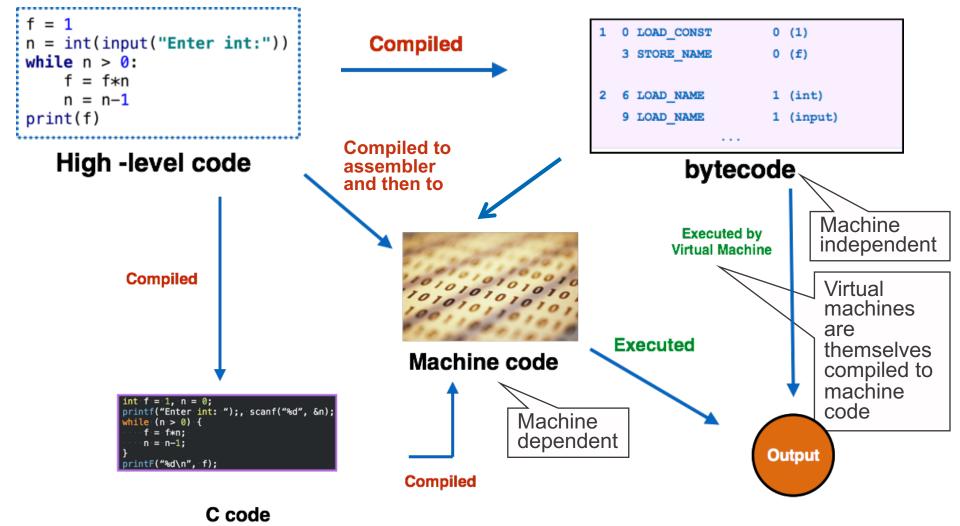
- Problem with machine language:
 - Very difficult to write and read for humans
- Need a compromise, a language that:
 - Supports comments, variable names, line labels, etc
 - Has human-readable versions of machine instructions
 - But is easily converted to machine language
 - Usually a 1-to-1 relationship between each assembler language instruction and its equivalent machine language instruction
- Languages of this kind called assembly languages



The first three weeks are all about ????????



Nowadays, there are lots of possibilities



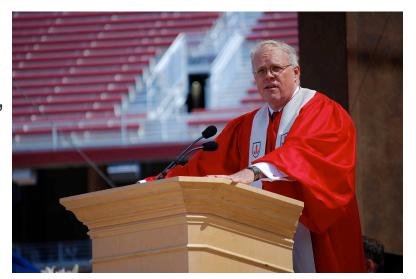
Why do you need to learn about Assembly Language?

- All high level code ends up being translated into some kind of assembler code (bytecode is a kind of assembler)
- Understanding the translation will make you really "get" how high level code works, from variables to loops, if-then-elses, and function calls
 - It will make you a MUCH valuable programmer
- You might need to write in it when timing is critical or when memory size is limited
 - E.g., device drivers or embedded computers
- You might need to read it
 - E.g., to inspect the optimisations made by the compiler
- In this unit we will study the MIPS assembly language



MIPS Architecture

- 1981: John L. Hennessy starts a research group at Stanford, focusing on RISC (reduced instruction set computer) architectures
- 1984: takes a year off to commercialize his research
 - Founds MIPS Computer Systems
 - Now MIPS Technologies (<u>www.mips.com</u>)
- MIPS name:
 - "Microcomputer without Interlocking Pipeline Stages"
 - Also a pun on "Millions of Instructions Per Second"
- R2000 model (1985)
 - First and simplest of MIPS processors
 - Later MIPS models extend basic architecture



By Eric Chan - originally posted to Flickr as Provost John Etchemendy (However this picture shows President John L. Hennessy instead of Provost John Etchemendy), CC BY 2.0, https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=6504543



Why MIPS?

- A real processor (not a toy one)
 - MIPS32 & MIPS64 still in production
- Ancestor (because of RISC) of many popular computers
 - Apple/IBM/Motorola PowerPC (Macintosh), Digital Alpha (Alpha), ARM (3Com Palm and most embedded)
- Knowledge of MIPS can be easily carried over to these other architectures
 - Again, we are learning the fundamentals (and, thus, transferrable knowledge)
- Also used in many embedded systems
 - Sony Aibo, Sony Playstation 1 & 2, Sony PSP, Nintendo 64, HP Laser Printers,
 Minolta digital camera, lots of routers and network appliances



RISC vs CISC

MIPS was first computer to use the term RISC

- Reduced Instruction Set Computer
- All instructions are
 - Same length (4 bytes, that is, 32 bits a word)
 - Of similar complexity (simple)
 - (Mostly) able to run in same time (1 clock cycle)
 - Easily decoded and executed by computer hardware
- Advantages: easier to build, cheaper, consumes less power
- RISC is again all the rage thanks to RISC-V open source instr. set

Intel x86 is considered CISC

- Complex Instruction Set Computer
- Instructions vary in length, complexity and execution time
- Decoding & running instructions requires hardware-embedded code (microcode)
- Advantage: potential for optimisation of complex instructions



Why not Intel 80x86?

- MIPS is a simple, clean architecture
 - Easier to learn
 - x86 architecture is cumbersome with many confusing addressing modes and exceptions
- MIPS is representative of modern computer architecture
 - Easier to transfer knowledge
- MIPS has readily available simulators:
 - http://courses.missouristate.edu/KenVollmar/MARS/
- RISC architectures are gaining in popularity!
 - So knowledge or RISC might be good for getting a job...



There are many RISC architectures, including

- SuperH (with open J-2 implementation).
- ARM (fully proprietary)
- MIPS (open, royalty-free)
- Power (open, royalty-free)

- AVR (proprietary)
- SPARC (open, royalty-free)
- OpenRISC (open, royalty-free)
- RISC-V (open, royalty-free)
 - This is the one that has really caused the rise in popularity!

https://hackaday.com/2019/11/12/risc-v-why-the-isa-battles-arent-over-yet/

We use MIPS mainly for simplicity, clarity, and availability of simulators



Going deeper than you have with MARIE

- Some students have already learned about MARIE
 - A simplified CPU and ISA architecture
- Everything you learned for that is useful here too
- With MIPS you will go deeper by:
 - Using more realistic instructions for if-then-else and loop conditions
 - Learning about more realistic function call/return
 - Dealing with complex memory (arrays)
 - Using system calls for input/output/memory



Summary

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FIT1008/2085 MIPS – Architecture

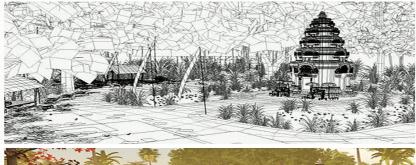
Prepared by:

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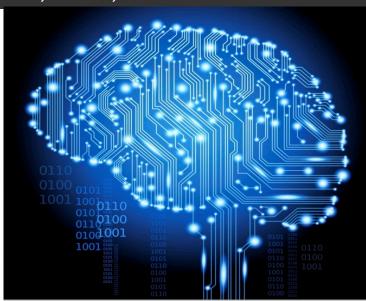
Revised by A. Aleti, D. Albrecht, G. Farr, J. Garcia and P. Abramson











Where are we at

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Learning objectives for this lesson block

- To understand the basics of MIPS R2000 architecture
- To understand the CPU's (general and special) purpose registers
 - Their aim, use and location in the CPU
- To understand how programs are executed in this architecture
 - The fetch-decode-execute cycle



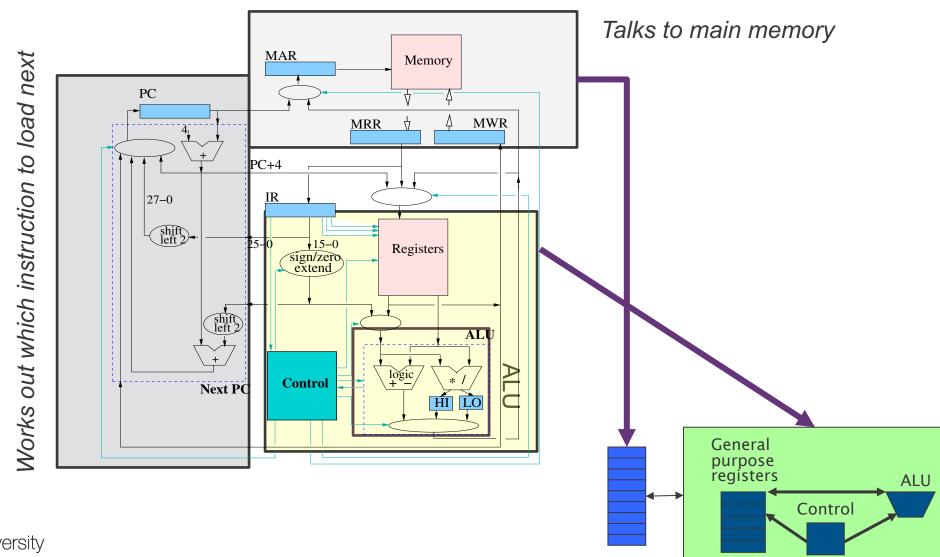
General purpose MIPS Architecture (simplified) registers: fast words of storage separate from memory Memory Microprocessor (CPU) **ALU** (Arithmetic and Logic Unit): computations mainly General purpose on register values ALU registers Control Control: tells the ALU and registers what to do Coprocessor 1 Coprocessor 0 We are not (floating point unit) (this manages studying these two cache memory, virtual memory, Registers and exceptions) MONASH University

Main components: basics

- 32 General-purpose registers
 - Fast but expensive memory
 - Physically located on the CPU chip
 - Each 32 bits in size (a word)
- Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU)
 - Performs computations on register and integer values (not main memory):
 - As it is a von Newman architecture
 - Integer and bitwise arithmetic (including comparisons)
- Several special-purpose registers
 - PC (Program Counter)
 - HI, LO (multiplication/division results)
 - IR (Instruction Register)
 - MAR/MRR/MWR (Memory Address/Read/Write Register),



Inside the MIPS microprocessor (not simplified at all!)



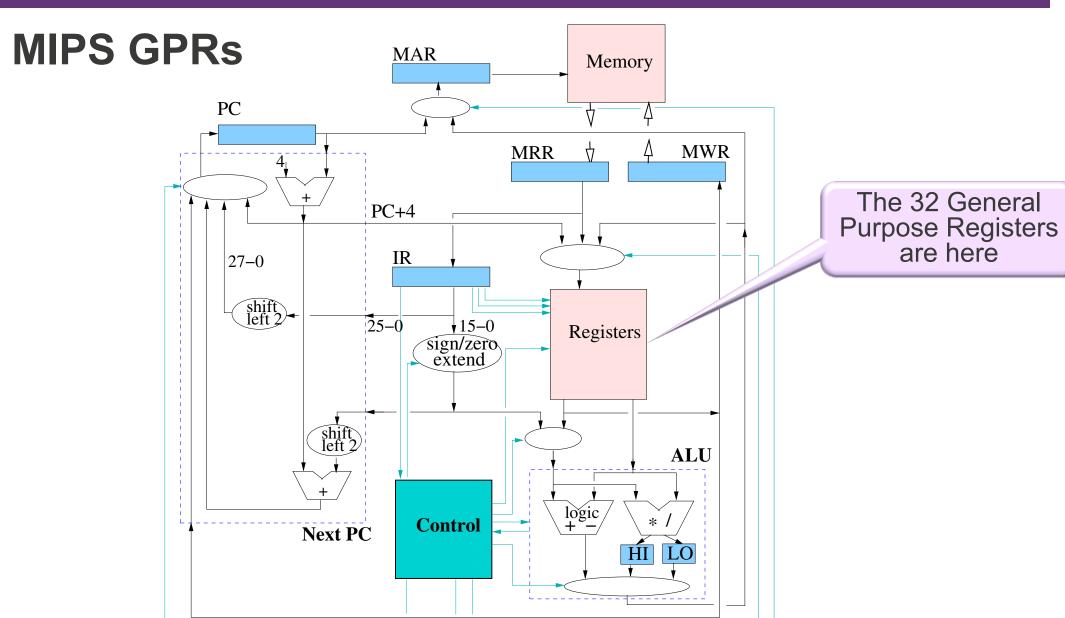
General Purpose Registers (GPRs)

- Prefixed with \$ in assembly language
 - Numbered \$0 to \$31
 - Also given names based on usage conventions, e.g.:
 - \$0 ⇔ \$zero (special case read-only register, always set to 0)
 - \$4 ⇔ \$a0
 - \$29 ⇔ \$sp
- Unlike variables, you can't name them yourself
 - They're hard-coded
- Names increase readability, so we will use them
- Can theoretically be used in any way
- Conventions assign certain uses to certain GPRs
 - Conventions help your program cooperate with others



General Purpose Registers (cont'd)

used by us	Register name	Register number	Typical use	
√	\$zero	\$0	constant zero, cannot change, read only	
×	\$at	\$1	assembler uses for pseudoinstructions	
√	\$v0, \$v1	\$2, \$3	function return values; system call number	
√	\$a0 - \$a3	\$4 - \$7	function and system call arguments	
√	\$t0 - \$t7, \$t8, \$t9	\$8 - \$15, \$24, \$25	temporary storage (caller-saved)	
×	\$s0 - \$s7	\$16 - \$23	temporary storage (callee-saved)	
×	\$k0, \$k1	\$26, \$27	reserved for kernel trap handler	
×	\$gp	\$28	pointer to global area	
√	\$sp	\$29	top-of-stack pointer	
✓	\$fp	\$30	stack frame pointer	We will use the names, notes the numbers (except for \$
✓	\$ra	\$31	function return address	the harmone (excopt for t



A quick look at arithmetic instructions

• What do arithmetic instructions look like? Here are a few examples:

```
sub $t0, $t3, $t1
addi $sp, $sp, -1
xor $a0, $zero, $t5
div $t1, $t2
```

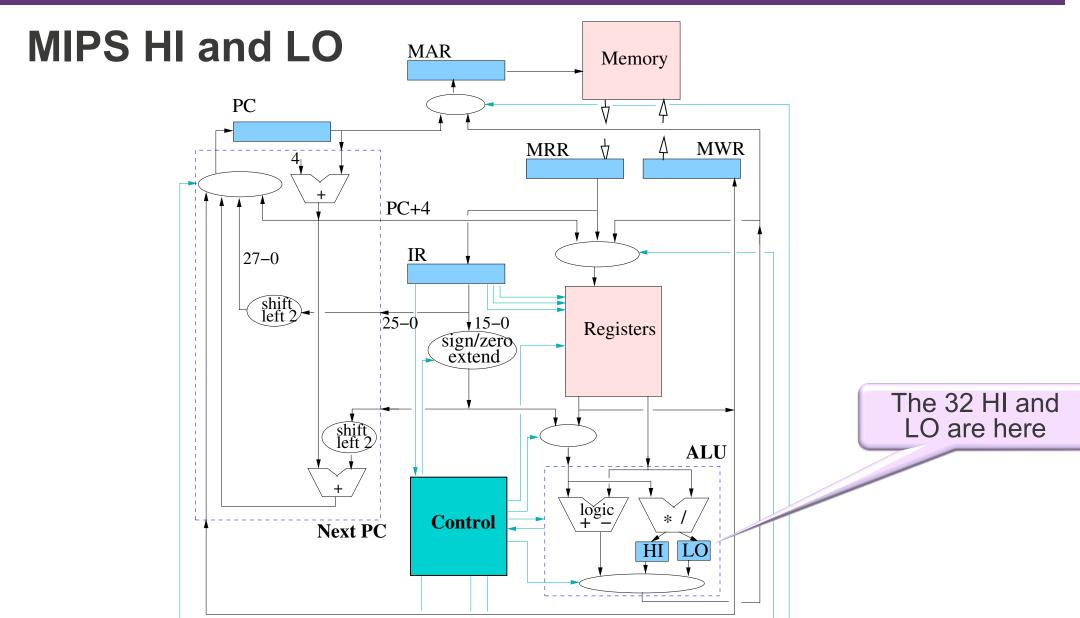
- We'll see more examples next lesson
- Floating-point operations are beyond the scope of this unit

Special Purpose Registers (HI and LO)

- Multiplying two 32bits numbers might require 64 bits to fit
- After an integer multiplication:
 - HI contains the "high" 32
 - LO contains the "low" 32
- Integer division (say 5/3) might be used to get the integer result (1) or to get the remainder (2)
- After an integer division:
 - LO contains the integer result (1 above)
 - HI contains the remainder (2 above)
- There are instructions to move the contents of LO or HI back to a GPR

Remember, only general purpose registers start with \$





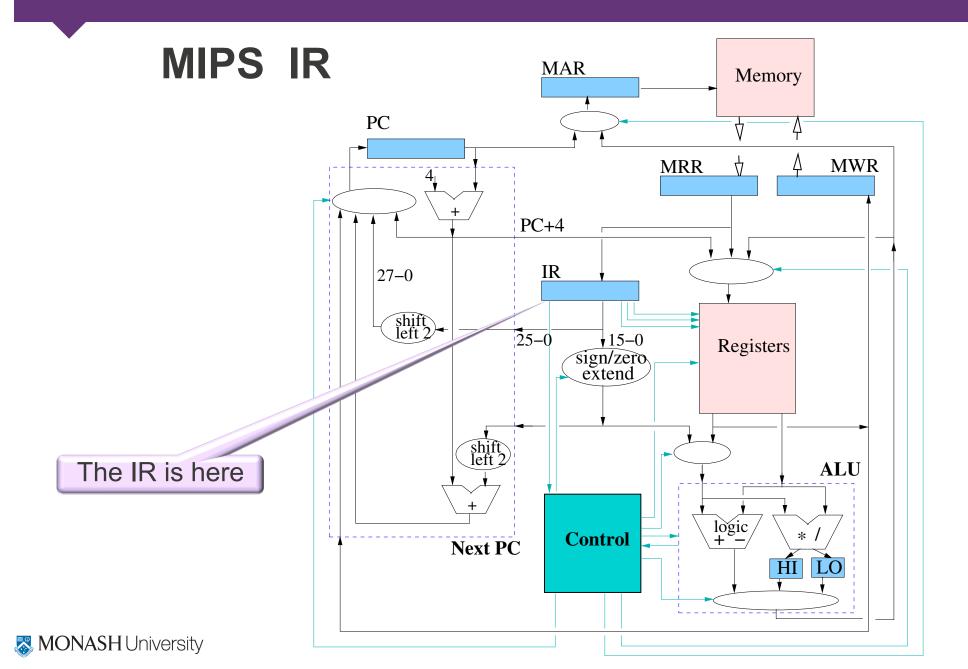
Special Purpose Registers (IR)

 The Instruction Register stores the instruction currently being executed (32 bits; 4 bytes; a word)

```
addi $9, $5, -3
001000 00101 01001 1111111111111101
```

- Bits b31 to b26 inclusive (leftmost 6 bits) are the operation code
 - opcode encodes the kind of instruction (e.g., sub, addi, xor)
 - Tells the control circuitry which set of microinstructions needs to be followed
- The rest of the info (operands) depends on the opcode's value:
 - How many bit fields the remaining IR bits split into
 - How each bit field is used when instruction is run (GPRs? immediate values?)
- The IR is not visible to the programmer

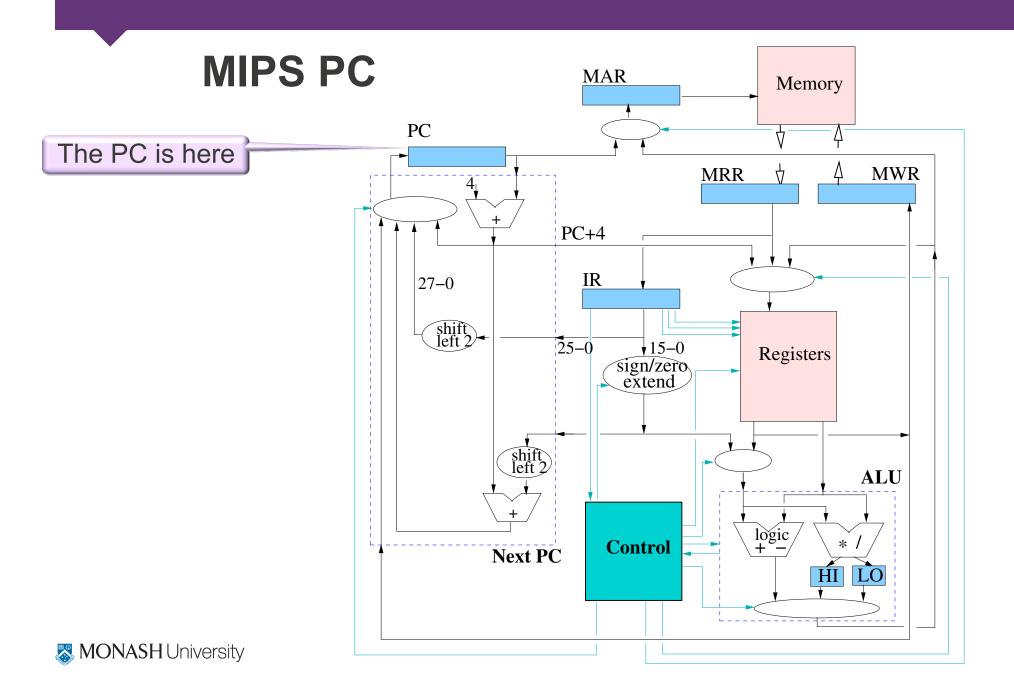




Special Purpose Registers (PC)

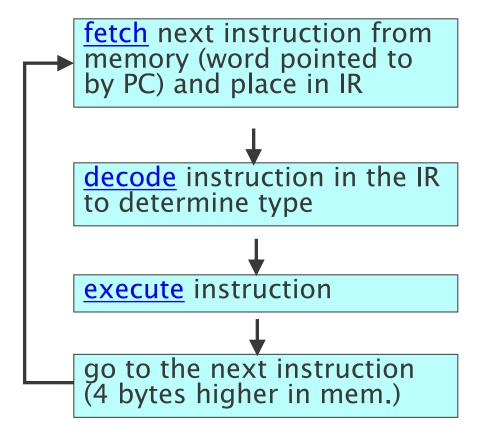
- The Program Counter acts as a bookmark:
 - Tells the computer where is it up to
- How? It holds the memory address of the machine instruction currently being executed
- Advanced by most machine instructions to point to next instruction (PC=PC+4)
 - Why +4? Because MIPS instructions are 4 bytes (32 bits; a word)
- Jump instructions write a new value to PC to move execution to a new place in program
 - Useful for encoding loops (go back to beginning), function calls, etc
- Branch instructions jump only if a given condition is met
 - Useful for if-then statements, failed while/for conditions, etc





MIPS Instruction Execution

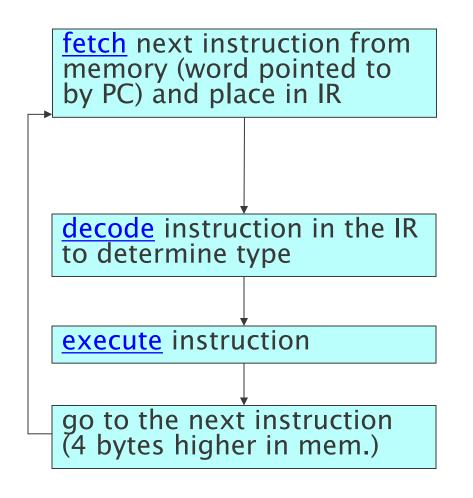
 Programs are run by the MIPS hardware performing fetch-decode-execute cycles

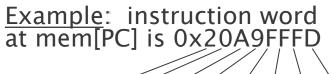




MIPS Instruction Execution: Example

I write it in hexadecimal, but it is really stored as 32 bits





0010 0000 1010 1001 1111 1111 1111 1101

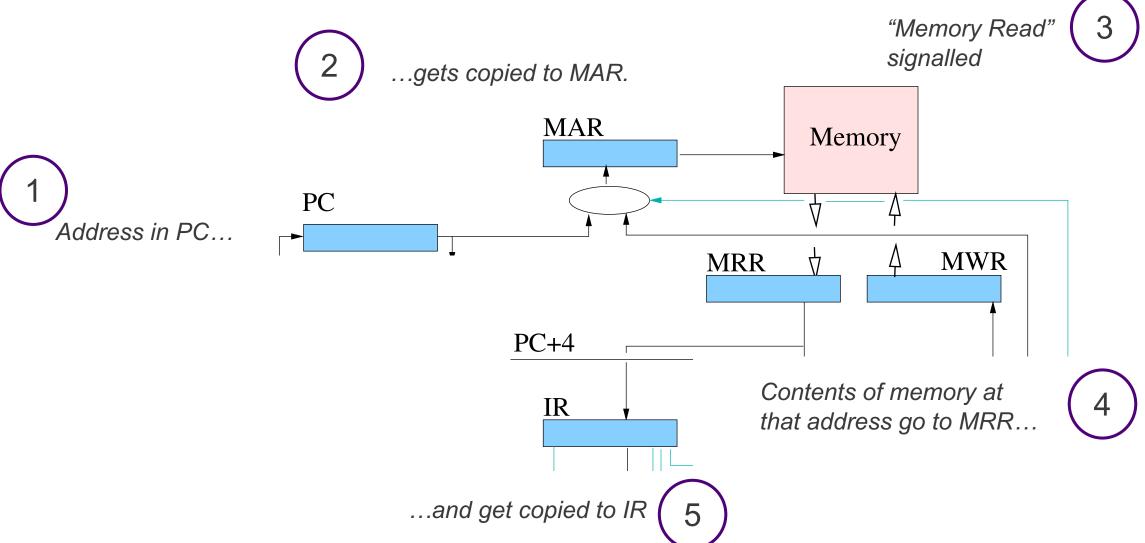
001000 00101 01001 111111111111111111

Opcode 8 is "add immediate", source reg is \$5, "target" reg is reg \$9, add amount is -3

Send reg \$5 and -3 to ALU, add them, result to reg \$9

$$PC = PC + 4$$

The fetch hardware



Decode-Execute MAR Memory PC MRR MWR PC+4 IR 27-0 shift left 2 25-0 **15-0** Registers sign/zero extend **ALU** logic + -/ **Control** Next PC HI LO

Summary

- We have learned the basics of MIPS R2000 architecture
- We now understand the CPU's (general and special) purpose registers
 - Their aim, use and location in the CPU
- We now understand how programs are executed in this architecture
 - The fetch-decode-execute cycle



Information Technology

FIT1008/2085 MIPS – Memory

Prepared by:

Maria Garcia de la Banda

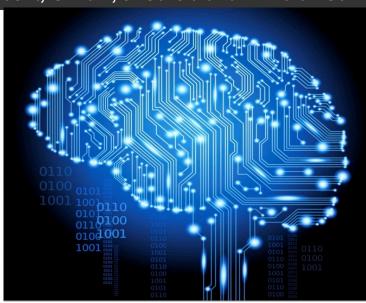
Revised by A. Aleti, D. Albrecht, G. Farr, J. Garcia and P. Abramson











Where are we at

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 - Machine code and Machine language
 - The concept of "word" in computer architecture
 - RISC vs CISC
- We have seen the basics of MIPS R2000 architecture
- We are familiar with the
 - CPU's components and
 - General and special purpose registers
- We know how programs are executed in this architecture
 - The fetch-decode-execute cycle



Learning objectives for this lesson block

To understand how MIPS memory is structured and accessed

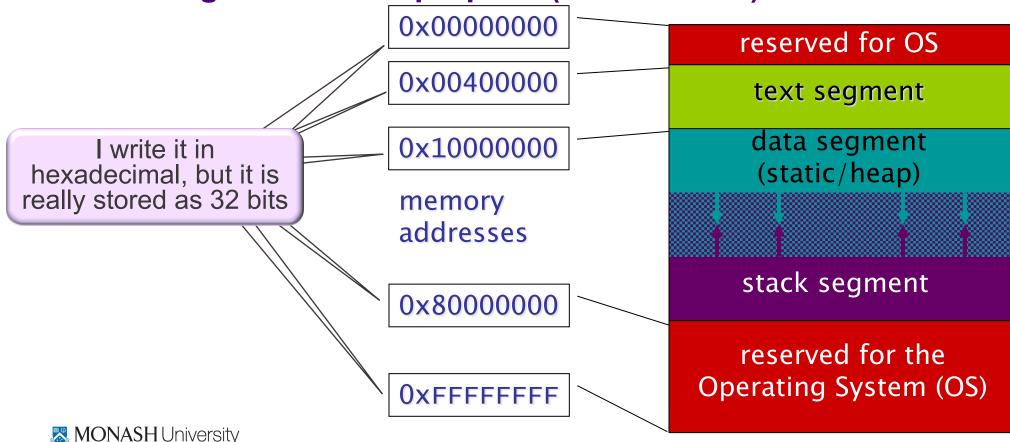


Accessing Main memory

- Recall: MIPS is a load-store architecture:
 - Computations can only consider registers (and integers) as arguments
 - Their result is stored in registers
- But programs and their data live in main memory (not on the CPU chip)
 - So we will have to load data into a register to work on it
 - And then store the result (which is in a register) back into memory when we're done
- To do this loading/storing, we need to know:
 - Which register we're loading to/storing from, and
 - Where in memory to find/put the data

MIPS memory architecture

- Memory is divided into segments (from address A to address B excluded)
- Each segment has its purpose (will see later)



Memory addresses

- Memory addresses in MIPS are 32 bits long and unsigned
- What is the range then? (i.e., smallest-largest values)
 - Smallest possible is 0x0000000
 - Largest possible is 0xFFFFFFFFF, which is $2^{32} 1$ (so the range is $2^{32} 1$)
- Each address refers to one byte of memory (so 8 bits)
 - Total potential address space: 4 Gb



BTW: Looking for meaning in memory

- What does "01011010" mean?
 - Number 90?
 - ASCII character 'Z'?
 - Instruction DECB for Motorola 6800 CPU?
 - Just garbage bits?

Depends on context

- Bits have no intrinsic meaning; their value depends on how it is being used
- If interpreting as number, has value 90
- If interpreting as character, has value 'Z'

This is why memory is divided in segments

- Each 32 bits in, for example, the text segment is known to be a MIPS instruction
- And is why program variables (or values) have types
 - So that the bits in the data segment can be understood MONASH University

Getting data out of main memory

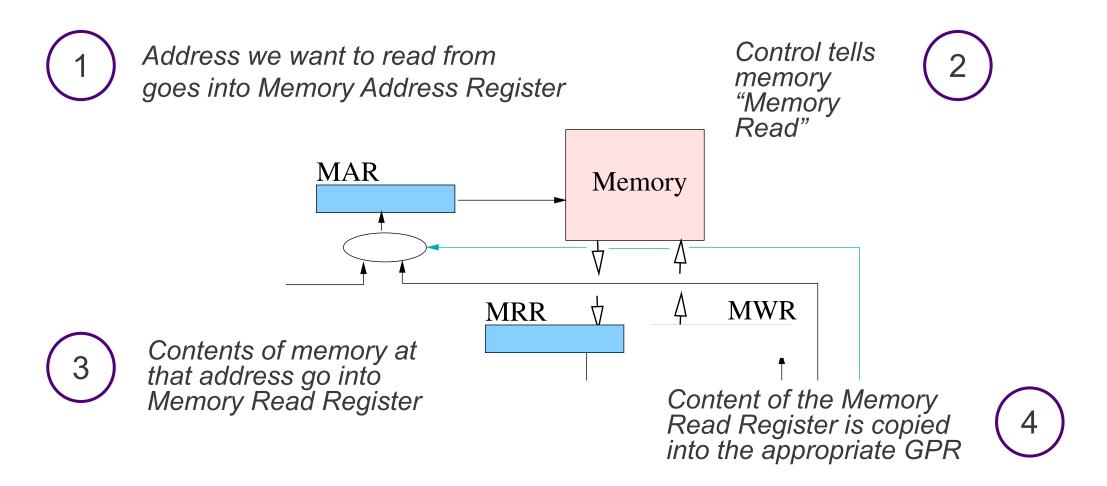
We use a load instruction for this

- We can load 1, 2, or 4 bytes at a time
- In FIT1008/FIT2085 it is usually a word (4 bytes):
 - "load word" or lw

To execute a load instruction:

- The address to be loaded from goes into the MAR
- The memory controller gets told to do a read
- The data at that address goes into the MRR
- The MRR is copied to the destination register (GPR) specified in the instruction

Getting data out of main memory (cont'd)



Putting data into main memory

We use a store instruction for this

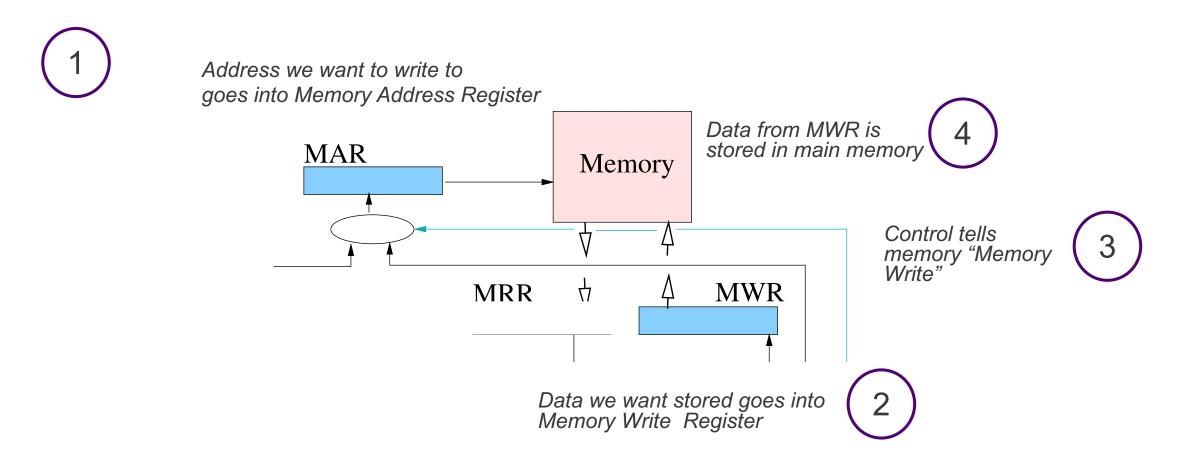
- We can store 1, 2, or 4 bytes at a time
- Again, in this unit, usually a word (4 bytes):
 - "store word" or sw

To execute a store instruction:

- The contents of the GPR specified in the instruction are copied to the MWR
- The address to be stored to goes into the MAR
- The memory controller gets told to do a write
- The data in the MWR gets written to memory



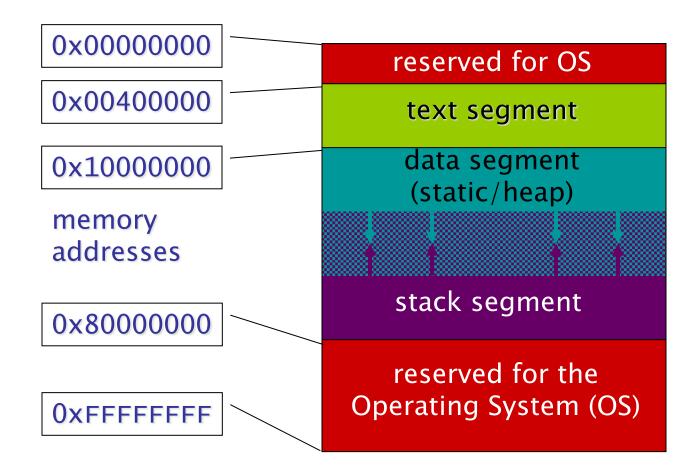
Putting data into main memory (cont'd)



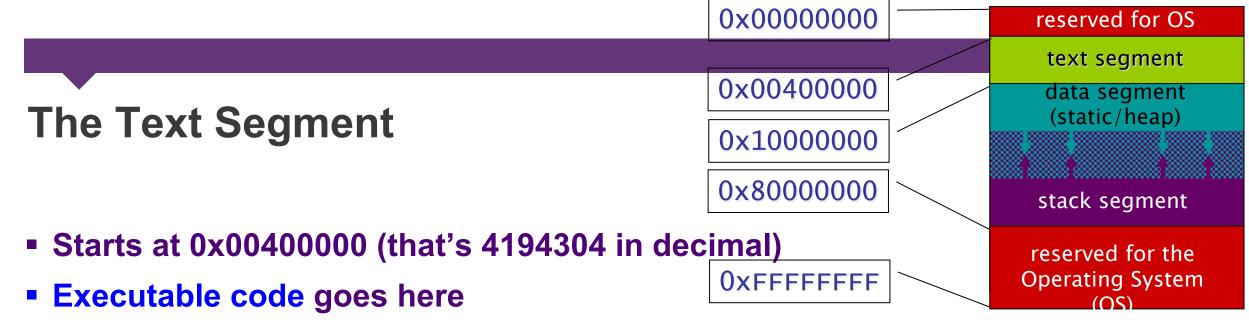


MIPS memory architecture

Lets see what each segment is reserved for

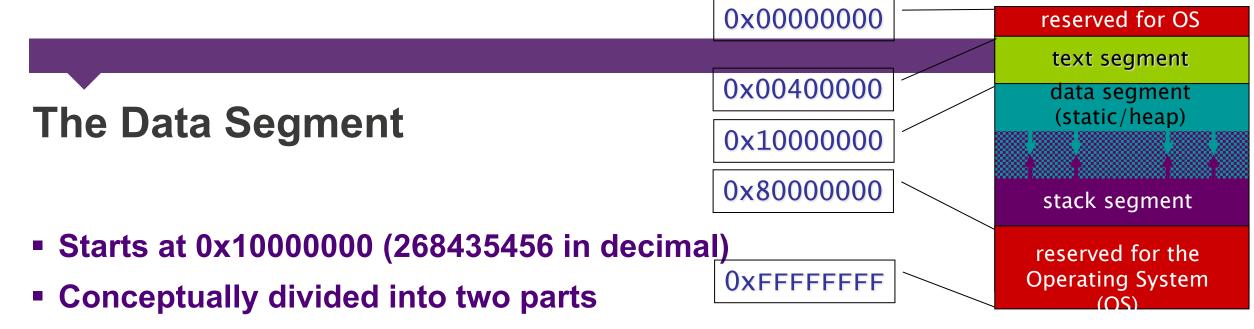






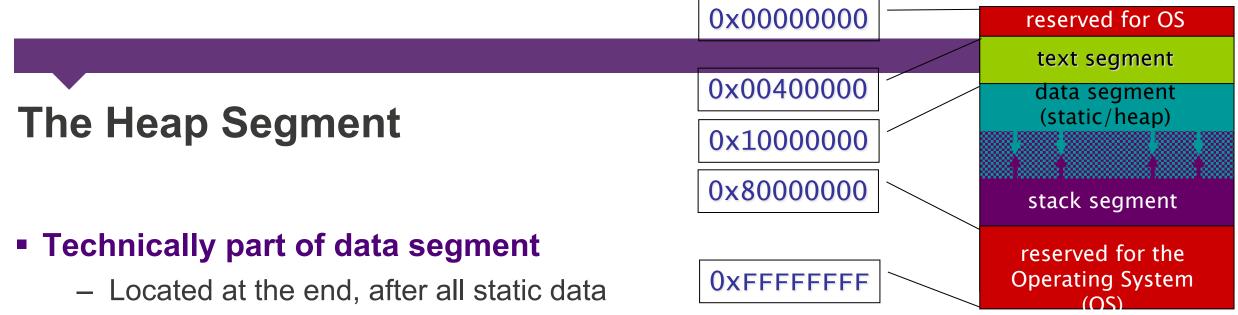
- In machine-code format (bit-patterns) remember?
- PC register value is effectively a CPU "pointer" to the text segment
- How does code get here? For compiled programs, the OS puts it there when you tell it to run a program
 - This process is called "loading"
- Memory addresses smaller than 0x00400000 are reserved for the OS





- First: for static (size known at compile-time) and globally available data:
 - Values may change but size does not, and lifetime is the entire execution
- This includes:
 - Class data and static variables in Java
 - Literal strings in the source code, such as "Hello, World"
 - Global variables in languages that have them
- Second: dynamic data (usually referred to as the Heap)
 - The Data Segment often means the static part, so be careful





- All dynamically allocated memory (i.e., allocated during execution) is here
 - All Python objects and their instance variables go here
- Grows "downwards" as more memory is allocated (from where static ends)
 - For example, after creating an object
- Shrinks when memory is deallocated
 - Either by the garbage collector or the programmer
- Empty at the start of program execution
- Note: "heap" means "pile", not as in max/min heap data type



0x00000000

0x00400000

0x10000000

0x80000000

0xfffffff

reserved for OS

text segment

data segment (static/heap)

stack segment

reserved for the Operating System

The Stack Segment

- Starts at memory address 0x7FFFFFFF
- Grows "upwards" in the direction of decreasing memory addresses
 - That is, towards the heap
- Contains the system stack
- It is used for the temporary storage of:
 - Function information:
 - Local variables
 - Value of parameter
 - Return address
 - Saved register values (not studied in this unit)
- Note: this really is a stack like the data types we will see later



Summary (of the entire lesson)

- We have seen how learning MIPS is useful and learned about:
 - von Neuman architecture
 - Machine code and Machine language
 - The concept of "word" in computer architecture
 - RISC vs CISC
- We have seen the basics of MIPS R2000 architecture
- We are familiar with the CPU's registers
 - GPRs, PC, HI, LO, IR, MAR, etc
- We know how programs are executed in this architecture
 - The fetch-decode-execute cycle
- We know how MIPS memory is structured and accessed
 - Memory segments and load/store instructions

