

Lecture 4: MIPS Instruction Set

- Today's topics:
 - MIPS instructions
 - Code examples

HW 1 due today/tomorrow!

HW 2 posted early next week

Instruction Set

- Important design principles when defining the instruction set architecture (ISA):
 - keep the hardware simple – the chip must only implement basic primitives and run fast
 - keep the instructions regular – simplifies the decoding/scheduling of instructions

We will later discuss RISC vs CISC

Reduced
Complex
x86
↳ MIPS

Example

$a \leftarrow b + c$

C code `a = b + c + d + e;`
translates into the following assembly code:

add a, b, c

add a, a, d

add a, a, e

or

add a, b, c

add f, d, e

add a, a, f

- Instructions are simple: fixed number of operands (unlike C)
- A single line of C code is converted into multiple lines of assembly code
- Some sequences are better than others... the second sequence needs one more (temporary) variable `f`

Subtract Example

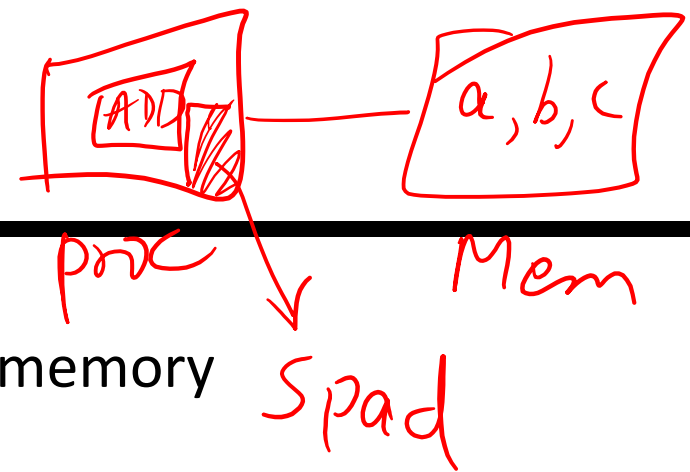
C code $f = (g + h) - (i + j);$

translates into the following assembly code:

add t0, g, h		add f, g, h
add t1, i, j	or	sub f, f, i
sub f, t0, t1		sub f, f, j

- Each version may produce a different result because floating-point operations are not necessarily associative and commutative... more on this later

Operands



- In C, each “variable” is a location in memory
- In hardware, each memory access is expensive – if variable *a* is accessed repeatedly, it helps to bring the variable into an on-chip scratchpad and operate on the scratchpad (registers)
- To simplify the instructions, we require that each instruction (add, sub) only operate on registers
- Note: the number of operands (variables) in a C program is very large; the number of operands in assembly is fixed... there can be only so many scratchpad registers

Registers

- The MIPS ISA has 32 registers (x86 has 8 registers) –
Why not more? Why not less?

- Each register is 32 bits wide (modern 64-bit architectures have 64-bit wide registers)

- A 32-bit entity (4 bytes) is referred to as a word

- To make the code more readable, registers are partitioned as \$s0-\$s7 (C/Java variables), \$t0-\$t9 (temporary variables)...

$2^{32} - 1 \sim 4 \text{ billion}$

hardwired to

\$0	\$zero
\$1	\$s0
	\$s1
\$2	
:	\$sp
:	\$t0
	\$t1
\$31	

Binary Stuff

111
 $2^3 - 1$

bits

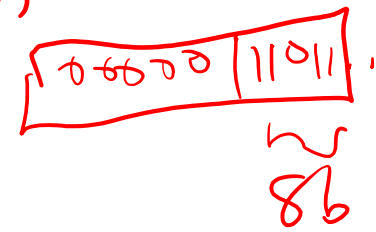
Bytes $\rightarrow 2^{32} - 1$

- 8 bits = 1 Byte, also written as 8b = 1B

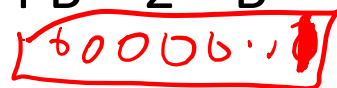


- 1 word = 32 bits = 4B

16 bits = half-word, 1 Byte



- 1KB = 1024 B = 2^{10} B



- 1MB = 1024 x 1024 B = 2^{20} B

326 ref

- 1GB = 1024 x 1024 x 1024 B = 2^{30} B

1GHz = 10⁹ Hz

- A 32-bit memory address refers to a number between 0 and $2^{32} - 1$, i.e., it identifies a byte in a 4GB memory



chars

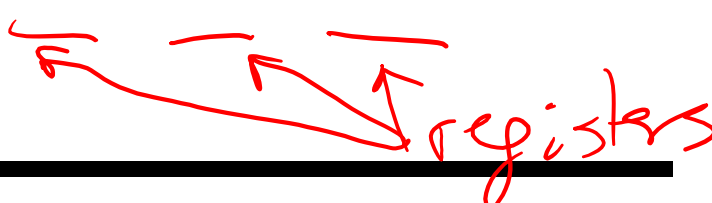
ASCII Table

A \rightarrow 1 byte code
p \rightarrow

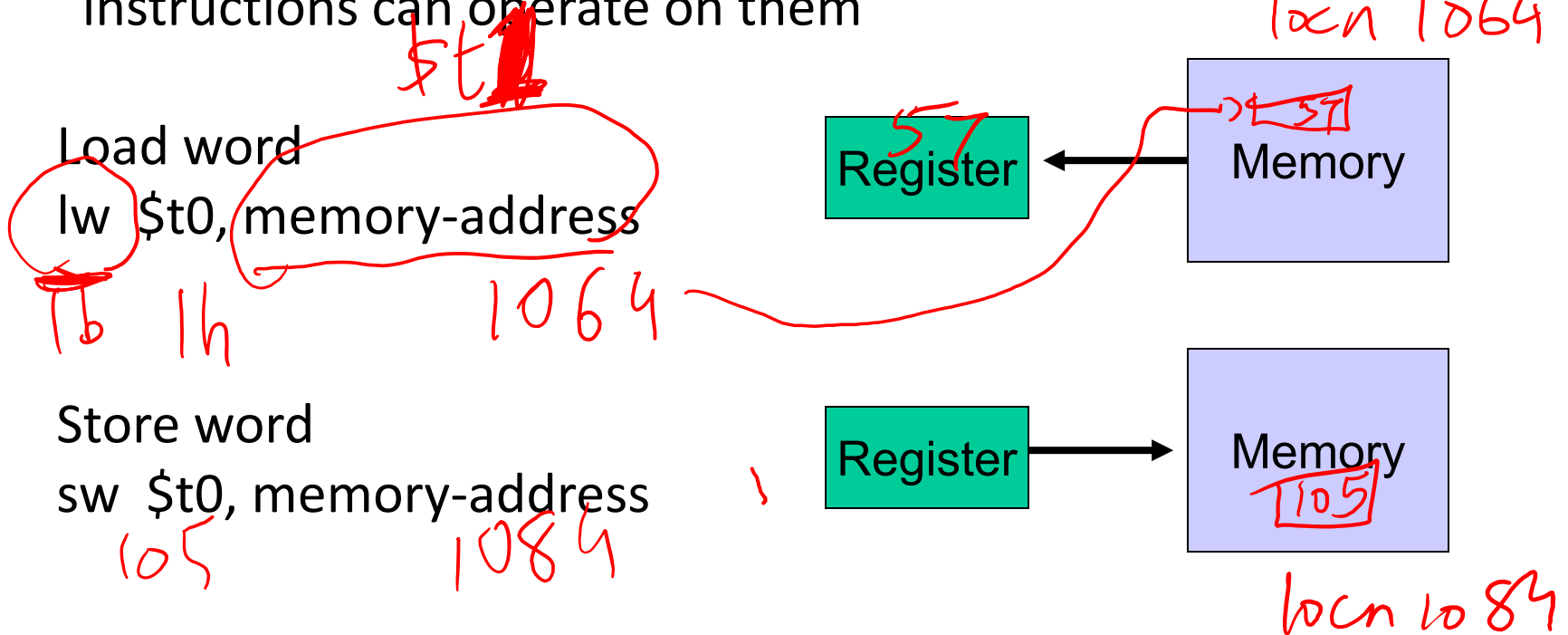
CPU Core



Memory Operands

add  registers

- Values must be fetched from memory before (add and sub) instructions can operate on them



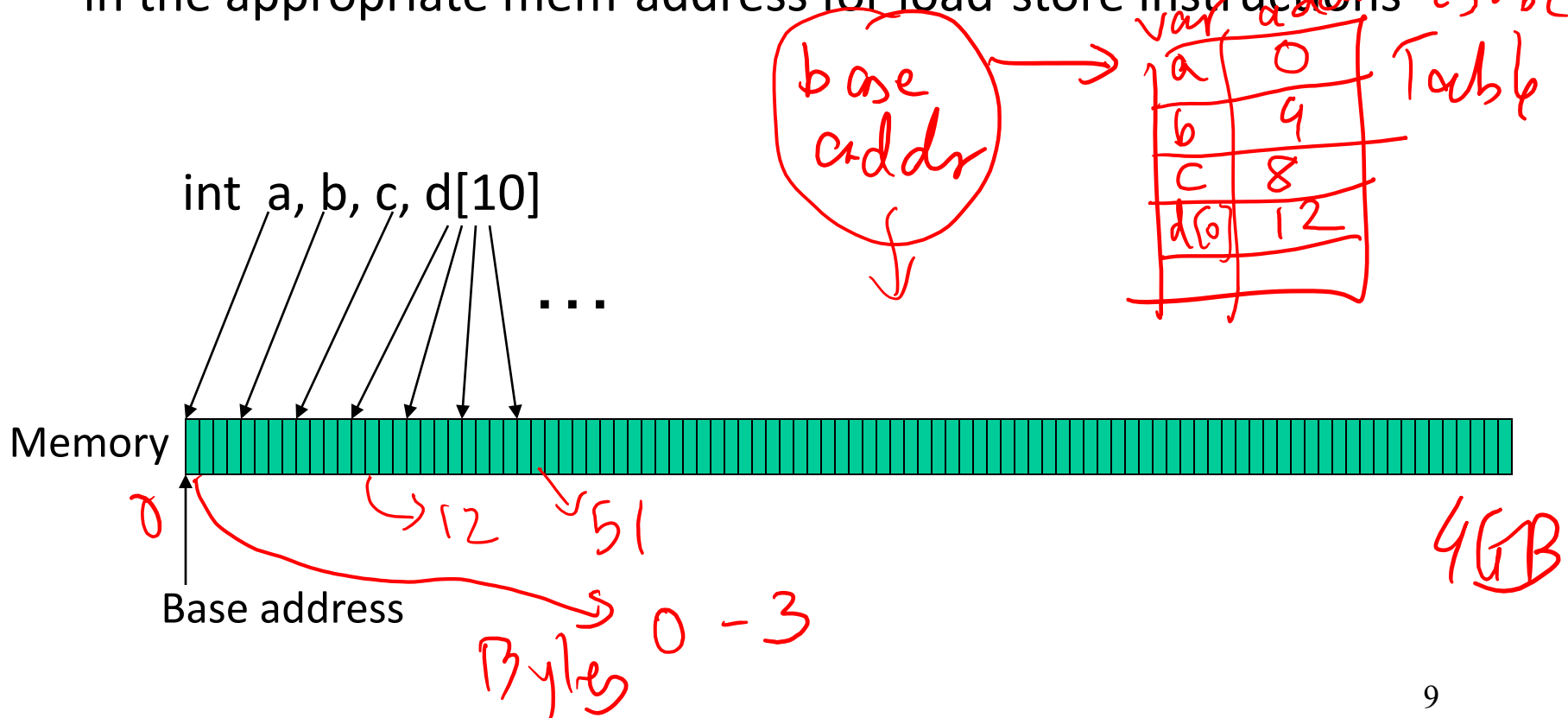
How is memory-address determined?

Memory Address

```
main() {  
    int a, b, c, d[10];  
}
```

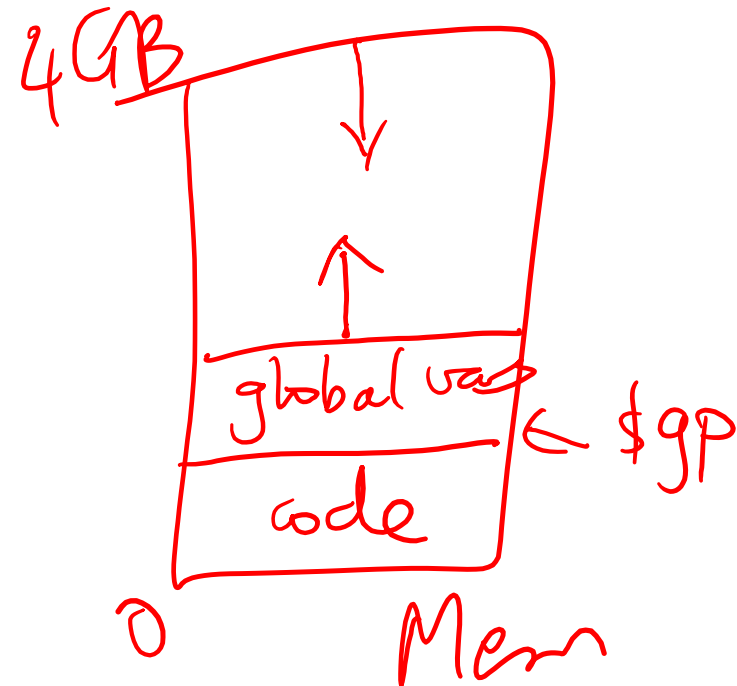
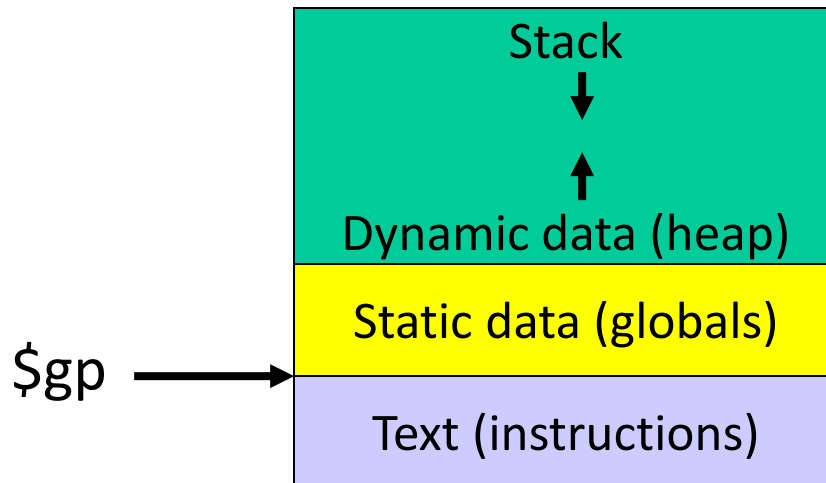
4B ← 3

- The compiler organizes data in memory... it knows the location of every variable (saved in a table)... it can fill in the appropriate mem-address for load-store instructions



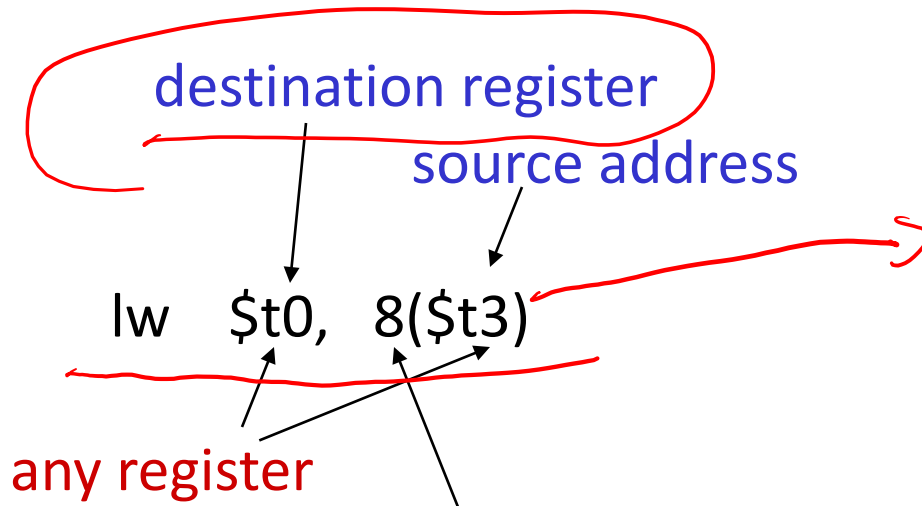
Memory Organization

\$gp points to area in memory that saves global variables



Memory Instruction Format

- The format of a load instruction:

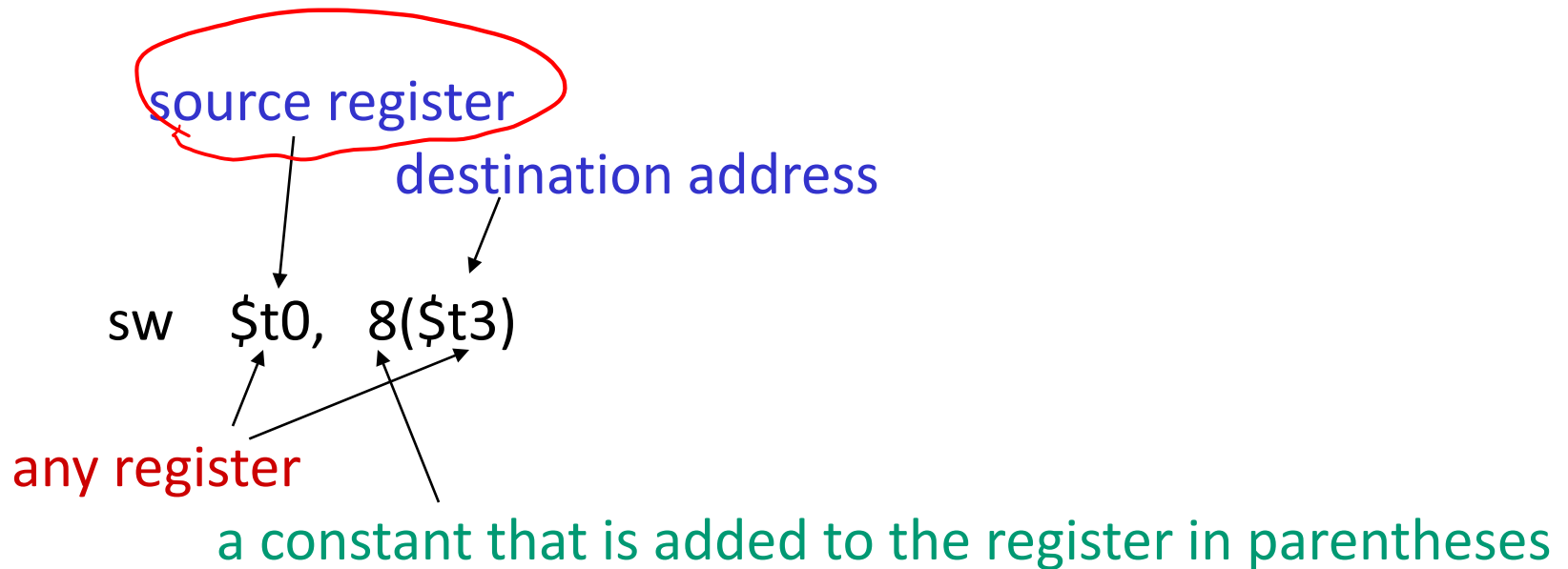


In this example
`$t3` will usually
have the base
address

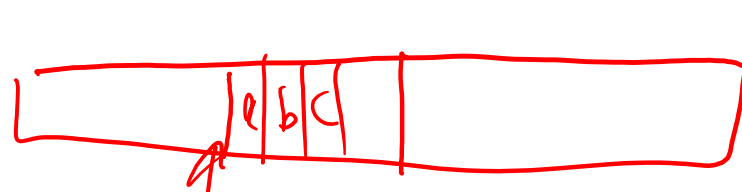
a constant that is added to the register in parentheses

Memory Instruction Format

- The format of a store instruction:



Example



add \$t0,
\$t1,\$t2

base addr = 1000
\$gp

int a, b, c, d[10];
 $a = b + c;$ $\nearrow 0$

~~addi \$gp, \$zero, 1000~~ # assume that data is stored at
li \$gp, 1000 # base address 1000; placed in \$gp;
\$zero is a register that always
equals zero

lw \$s1, 0(\$gp) # brings value of a into register \$s1
lw \$s2, 4(\$gp) # brings value of b into register \$s2
lw \$s3, 8(\$gp) # brings value of c into register \$s3
lw \$s4, 12(\$gp) # brings value of d[0] into register \$s4
lw \$s5, 16(\$gp) # brings value of d[1] into register \$s5

Example

Convert to assembly:

C code: `d[3] = d[2] + a;`

Example

Convert to assembly:

C code: `d[3] = d[2] + a;`

Assembly (same assumptions as previous example):

```
lw    $s0, 0($gp)    # a is brought into $s0
lw    $s1, 20($gp)   # d[2] is brought into $s1
add   $s2, $s0, $s1  # the sum is in $s2
sw    $s2, 24($gp)   # $s2 is stored into d[3]
```

Assembly version of the code continues to expand!

Memory Organization

- The space allocated on stack by a procedure is termed the activation record (includes saved values and data local to the procedure) – frame pointer points to the start of the record and stack pointer points to the end – variable addresses are specified relative to \$fp as \$sp may change during the execution of the procedure
- \$gp points to area in memory that saves global variables
- Dynamically allocated storage (with malloc()) is placed on the heap

