

Slide 1

Administrivia

- Homework 2 on the Web. Due in a week.
- Notes from last time revised/updated from what was shown in class. (Aside to first section in particular: Notice how for R-format instructions the destination operand goes before the source operands in the assembly language representation, but in the binary representation it's vice versa.)

Slide 2

Minute Essay From Last Lecture

- Some thought the math in the homework was interesting, others that it was repetitious.
- A couple of people liked the first problem (vocabulary).
- Surprising how fast the programs in problem 2 ran — yeah, probably not most realistic numbers.
- Several were confused about problem 3. Some found it interesting. I'm undecided about whether that formula for the parallel version really should apply to one processor. Interesting question?
- Problem 4 interesting in showing how different metrics give different results.
- No programming, in a CSCI course! (but isn't this true of some other courses?)

Slide 3

Conditional Execution — Recap/Review

- MIPS instruction set includes only two instructions to support conditional execution: `beq` and `bne`.
- There's also an unconditional "go to", `j` (for "jump").
- Together these are enough for some kinds of if/then/else and loops.
- If hand-compiling from C, useful to first translate into code with only `goto` for out-of-sequence execution, and from there to MIPS.
- Example:

```
while (A[i] == k) {
    i = i + j;
}
```

Slide 4

More Flow of Control

- With what we have now we can do if/then/else and loops, but only if condition being tested is equals / not equals.
- So, we need instructions such as `blt`, `ble`, right?
- But those are apparently difficult to implement well; instead MIPS has "set on less than":

```
slt    r1, r2, r3
```

which compares the contents of registers `r2` and `r3` and sets `r1` — 1 if `r2` is smaller, else 0.

- (Recall also that register 0 (`$zero`) always contains 0.
- Example — compile the following C:

```
if (a < b) go to Less:
```

assuming we're using `$s0`, `$s1` for `a`, `b`

More Flow of Control, Continued

Slide 5

- Do we have enough now? for all six possible C comparisons of integers?
Yes ...
- One more C flow-of-control construct we could talk about — `switch` — but defer for now.
- But we do want to talk about one more HLL feature, namely functions ...

Procedure Calls

Slide 6

- How do we call procedures (a.k.a. functions, methods)? Consider an example:

```
a = a + a;  
x = foo(a);  
b = b + b;  
y = foo(b);  
/* .... */  
int foo(int n) { return n+1; }
```

- If we've compiled this code (and function `foo`), what do we have in memory when it's running? What's supposed to happen when we get to a call to `foo`?

Procedure Calls, Continued

Slide 7

- So, what we have to do to call a procedure is:
 1. Put parameters where procedure can find them.
 2. Transfer control to procedure.
 3. Acquire storage resources for procedure (recall that every time you call a C function you get a “new copy” of all its local variables).
 4. Run procedure.
 5. Put results where caller can find them.
 6. Return control to caller.
- How to do all this?

Register Conventions

Slide 8

- From hardware point of view, all general-purpose registers are in some sense the same (except 0 and 31).
- From software point of view, it's useful to agree about how to use them — for parameters, return values, etc. Idea is that compilers automatically enforce conventions, human-written assembly code should follow them too.
- So far — $\$s0$ through $\$s7$ used for variables, $\$t0$ through $\$t9$ used as “scratch pads”. (See reference card for numeric equivalents.)
- Add two more groups — $\$a0$ through $\$a3$ for parameters (punt for now on what to do if more than four), $\$v0$ and $\$v1$ for return values. (Why two? to make it easy to return a 64-bit value such as used for floating-point.)

Jumping To/From Procedures

- When we jump to a procedure, must remember where we came from so we can return. Do this with “jump and link”

```
jal    label
```

which puts address of next instruction in register `$ra` (31) and jumps to `label`. (How do we know address of next instruction? “Program counter” (special register) has address of current instruction.)

- We can then get back with “jump to register”

```
jr    r1
```

which jumps to address in register `r1`.

Slide 9

Register Saving and Local Variables

- Actually running the called procedure is straightforward, right?
- Yes, except we need some way to save/restore registers — so we don’t mess up caller (by convention, “temporary” registers might change, but most others don’t).
- We also need a way to make space for local variables.

Slide 10

Register Saving and Local Variables, Continued

Slide 11

- Common solution — use part of memory as a stack (familiar ADT, right?), for saving registers and other local storage. Makes recursive procedures easier.
- By convention, stack starts at high address and “grows” to lower addresses, and register $\$sp$ (“stack pointer”) points to top. “Push” and “pop” are then straightforward.
- (Now everything in the starter-code program should make sense?)
- (Semi-aside: Since $\$sp$ can change during computation, can use register $\$fp$ (“frame pointer”) to point to start of area (“procedure frame”) for saved registers, local variables.)

Other Variables

Slide 12

- Last but not least, we (may?) need someplace to store variables that can be preallocated (static/global) and variables that are dynamically allocated (e.g., with `malloc` in C).
- By convention, we put them right after the program code and use register $\$gp$ (“global pointer”) to point to them. Typically call the memory used for dynamically-allocated variables “the heap”.

Procedure Calls, Revisited

Slide 13

- Calling procedure must:
 - Put parameters in \$a0 through \$a3 (if more than four, on stack).
 - Determine address of called procedure and jump there, saving address of next instruction.
 - Get return value from \$v0 (and \$v1, if used).
- Called procedure must:
 - Save registers as needed, including return address.
 - Retrieve parameters and do calculation.
 - Put results in \$v0 and \$v1.
 - Restore saved registers.
 - Return to caller.

Example

Slide 14

- How to compile the following?

```
int main(void) {
int a, b, c, x;
    a = 5; b = 6; c = 7;
    x = addproc(a, b, c);
    return 0;
}
int addproc(int a, int b, int c) {
    return a + b + c;
}
(Sample program call-addproc.s)
```

More Load/Store Instructions

- MIPS architecture defines `lw` and `sw` for loading/storing data in 32-bit chunks; also defines `lb` (“load byte”) and `sb` (“store byte”) for loading/storing data in 8-bit chunks, plus instructions to load/store data in 16-bit chunks. All must align on appropriate boundaries.

Slide 15

Working with Constants, Revisited

- Recall `addi` instruction. Exists because often we need to use a small constant in a program.
- Uses same format (“I format”) as `lw` and `sw`, which allows 16 bits for constant.
- What if we need more than 16 bits? “Load upper immediate” instruction:
`lui register, constant`
Puts (16-bit) constant in “upper” 16 bits of register. Follow with `addi` (or, better, `ori`) to load a full 32-bit constant.

Slide 16

Minute Essay

- None — quiz.

Slide 17