

Administrivia

- Reminder: Homework 2 due Monday.
- Monday we have a candidate for our open faculty job speaking at 2:30pm. I should be there, so no class. I'm planning to do a video lecture and make it available via echo360.org.

Slide 1

Minute Essay From Last Lecture

- (Review. Most people figured out that I format seemed right, but many expressed some confusion. A lot of this *is* new and strange, but I think with exposure it will start to make sense. Or ask if not!)

- Maybe this is where I can say:

I started out in FORTRAN but it wasn't until a second-semester course in IBM mainframe assembly language that I really started to understand how programming worked. "Hm!"?

Slide 2

Instruction Formats — Review/Clarification

Slide 3

- Basic problem being solved is this: How to represent different kinds of instructions in binary? We've already seen that some instructions have the same kinds of operands (`add` and `sub`, e.g.), but not all the same (`add` and `lw`, e.g.).
- MIPS solution: Make all machine-language instructions same size (32 bits), and always use the first 6 bits for "opcode" (something identifying instruction), then define different ways of splitting up the remaining bits — different "instruction formats", each with "fields".

Sidebar: Converting between Binary and Hexadecimal

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- Recall(?) simple trick for converting between binary (base 2) and hexadecimal (base 16): Based on observation that each hexadecimal digit represents four binary digits.
- (Why this works — simple algebra based on writing out numbers as a sequence of multiples of powers of the base.)

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Instructions — Recap/Clarification

- `add`, `sub` somewhat obvious.
- `and`, `or` — bitwise operations. (Examples.)
- `sll`, `srl`, `sra` — bit-shift operations. (Examples.)

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Sidebar: `goto` in C

- Textbook freely uses C's `goto`, which possibly some of you have never encountered? because it's strongly discouraged, and kind of ugly.
- What it does: Immediately transfer control to some other point in the program, identified by a label (e.g., `here:`).
- Conditional execution and loops can all be expressed using `goto` (and in some early high-level languages they were(!)).
Makes some sense, since this is pretty much all the hardware can do.
- (Sometimes written `goto`. Same thing.)

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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;
}
```

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Example Continued

- MIPS equivalent, with C-with-`goto` as comments (and assuming `$s0` has the address of `A` and registers `$s1` through `$s3` have `i`, `j`, and `k`):

```
Loop:
# if (A[i] != k) goto End:
    sll    $t0, $s1, 2    # i * 4
    add    $t0, $s0, $t1 # &A[i]
    lw     $t0, 0($t1)   # A[i]
    bne   $t0, $s3, End

#   i = i + j
    add    $s1, $s1, $s2

#   goto Loop:
    j     Loop

End:
```

More Flow of Control

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- 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.

- Example — compile the following C:

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

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

Example Continued

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- Equivalent MIPS:

```
slt    $t0, $s0, $s1
bne   $t0, $zero, Less
```

More Flow of Control, Continued

- 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 ...

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Procedure Calls

- 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`?

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Procedure Calls, Continued

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- 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?

Sidebar: Register Conventions Revisited

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- From hardware point of view, all general-purpose registers are in some sense the same, with the sort-of exception of registers 0 (always has value 0) and 31 (discussed soon).
- 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.

Register Conventions, Continued

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- So far:
 - \$s0 through \$s7 for variables.
 - \$t0 through \$t9 as “scratch pads”.
- 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

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- 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.

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.

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Register Saving and Local Variables, Continued

- Typical 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.
(Recall discussion of “buffer overflows” from CSCI 1120?)
- (Now everything in the starter-code program should make sense?)

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Procedure Calls, Revisited

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- 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

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- 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.)
```

Minute Essay

- None — quiz.

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