



Assembly Language

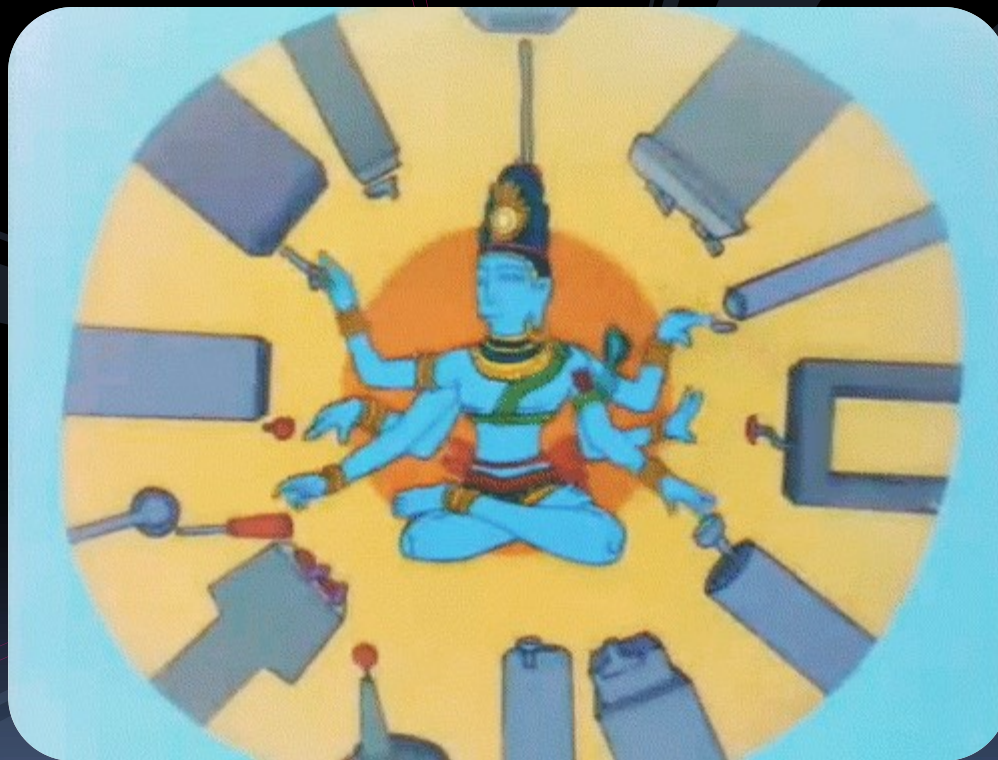
* Created with contributions by Myrto Papadopoulou and Frank Plavec.

Programming the processor

- Things you'll need to know:
 - Control unit signals to the datapath
 - Machine code instructions
 - Assembly language instructions
 - Programming in assembly language



Controlling the Datapath



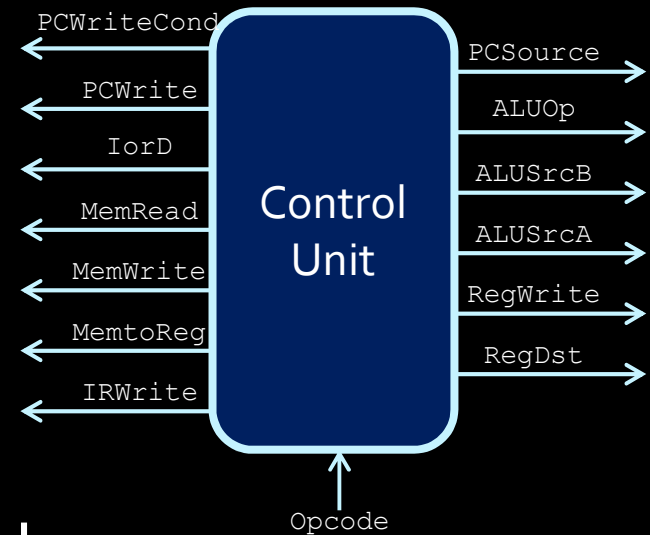
1111



- So, how do we do the following?
 - Increment the PC to the next instruction position.
 - Store `$t1 + 12` into the PC.
 - Assuming that register `$t3` is storing a valid memory address, fetch the data from that location in memory and store it in `$t5`.

Controlling the signals

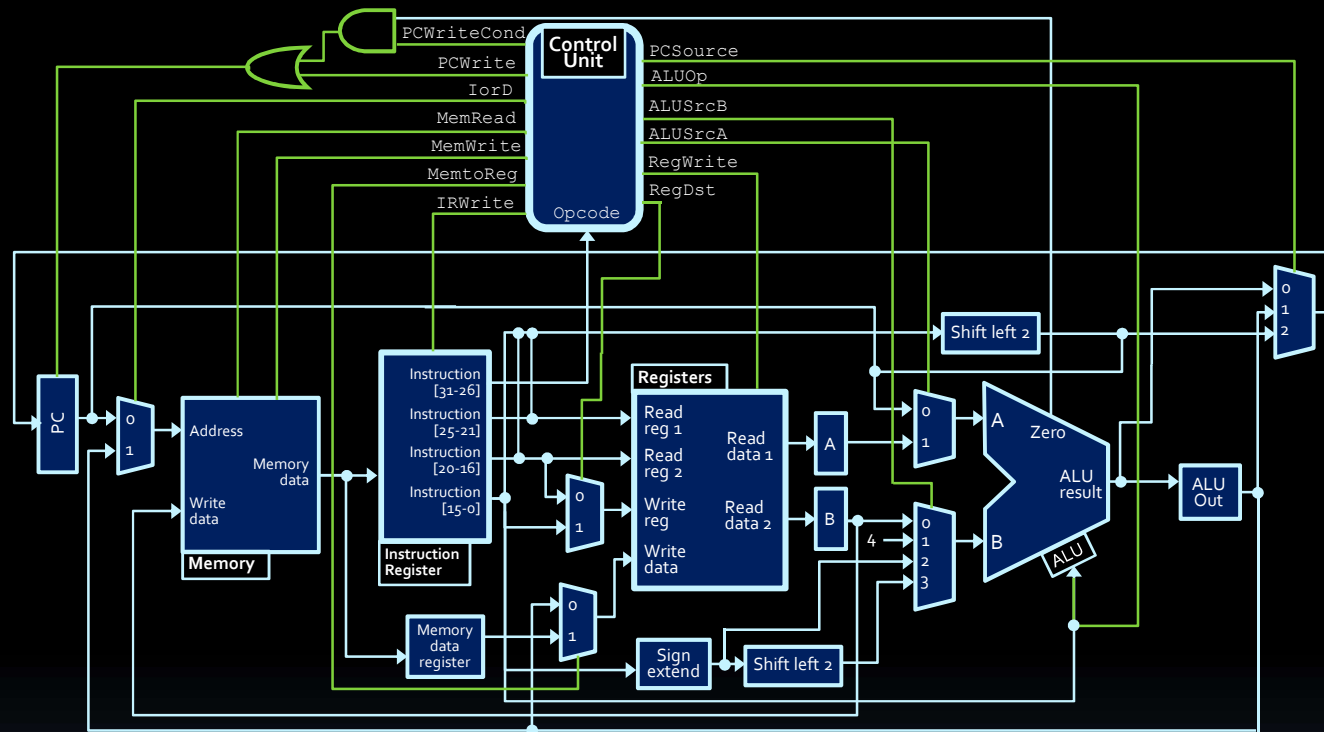
- Need to understand the role of each signal, and what value they need to have in order to perform the given operation.
- So, what's the best approach to make this happen?



Basic approach to datapath

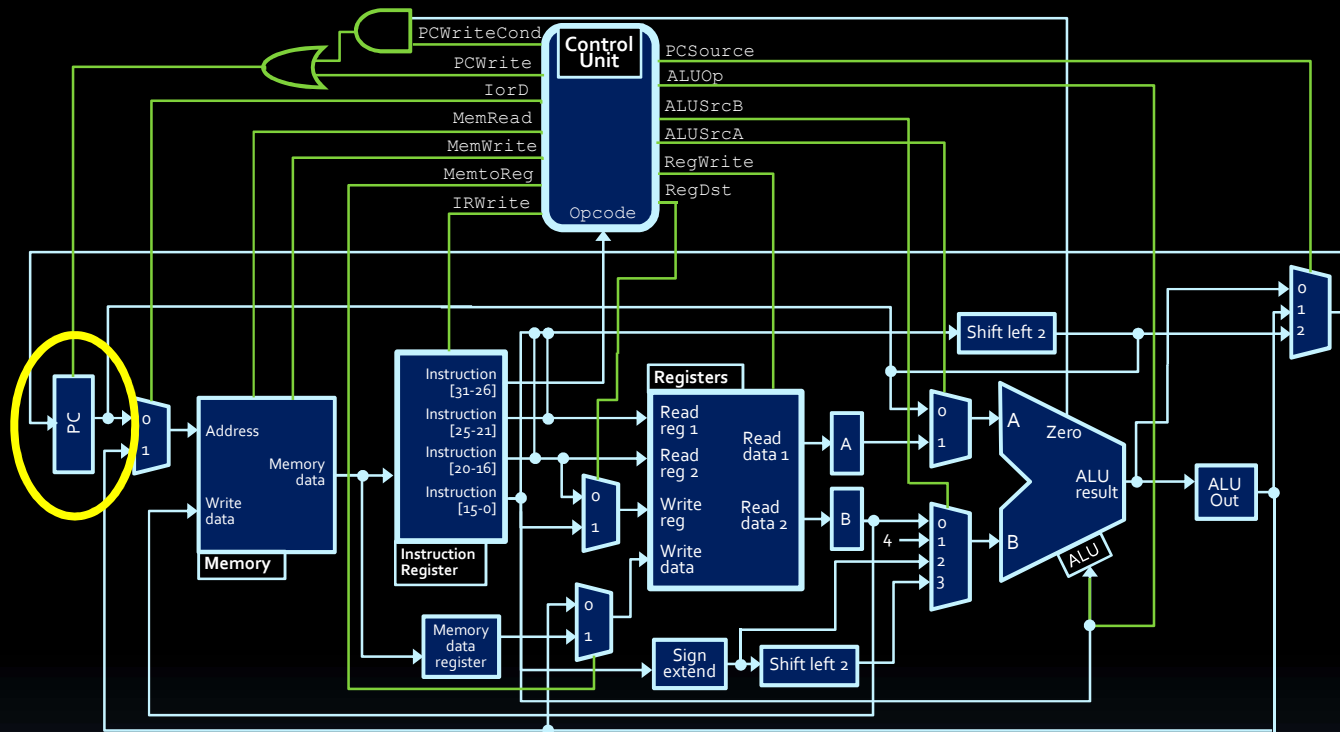
1. Figure out the data source(s) and destination.
2. Determine the path of the data.
3. Deduce the signal values that cause this path:
 - a) Start with `Read` & `Write` signals (at most one can be high at a time).
 - b) Then, mux signals along the data path.
 - c) Non-essential signals get an `X` value.

Example #1: Incrementing PC



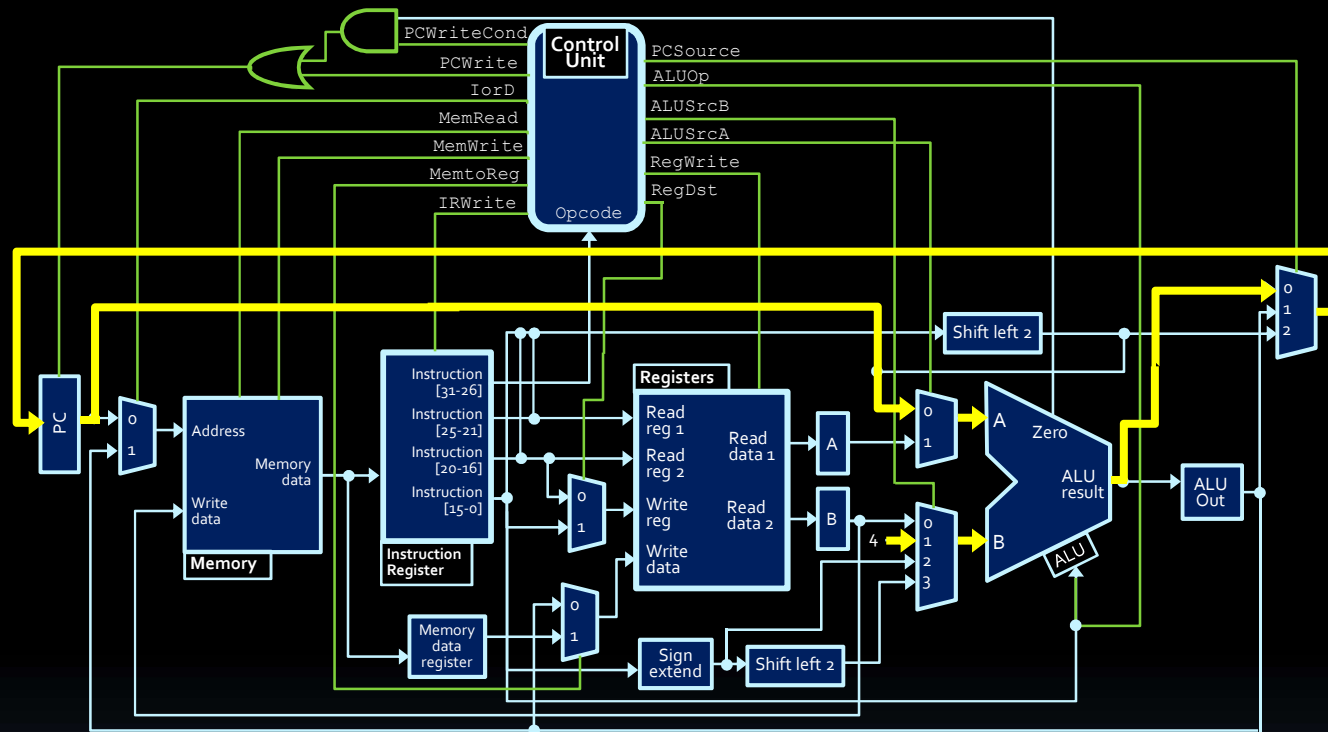
- Given the datapath above, what signals would the control unit turn on and off to increment the program counter by 4?

Example #1: Incrementing PC



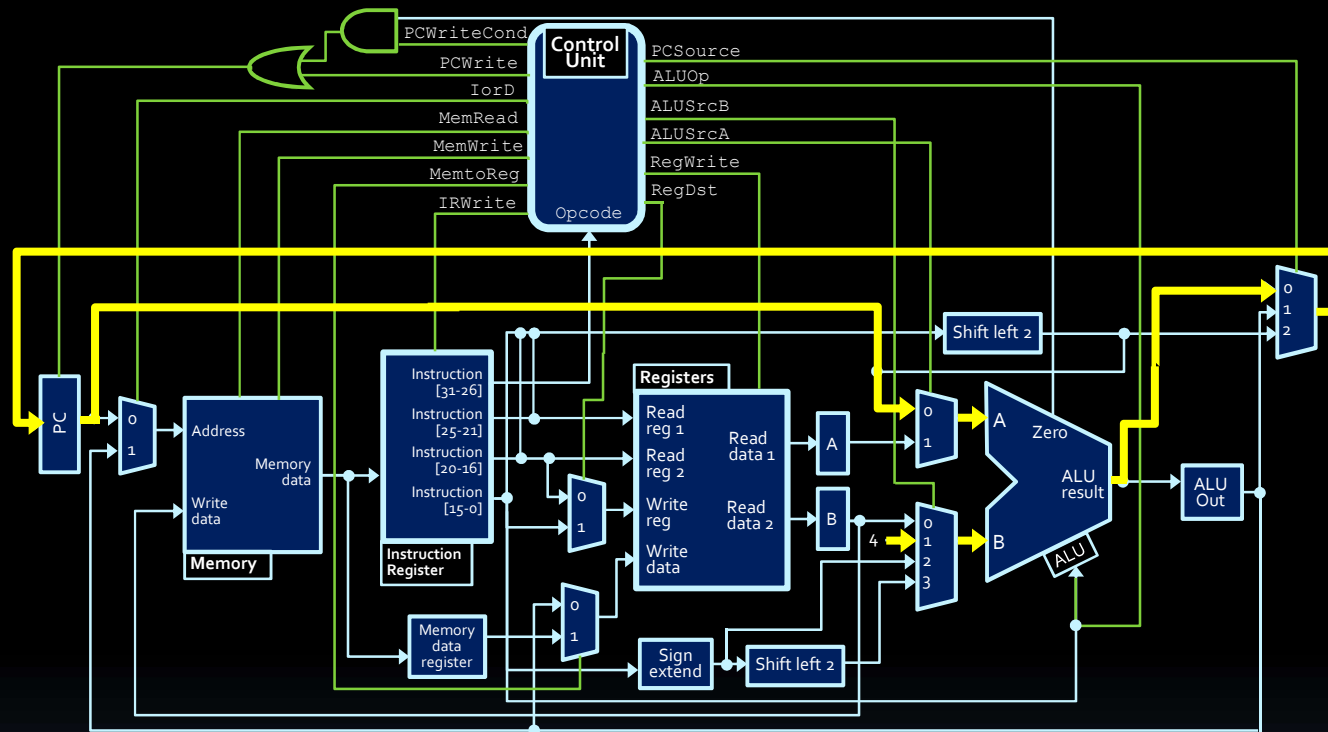
- Step #1: Determine data source and destination.
 - Program counter provides source,
 - Program counter is also destination.

Example #1: Incrementing PC



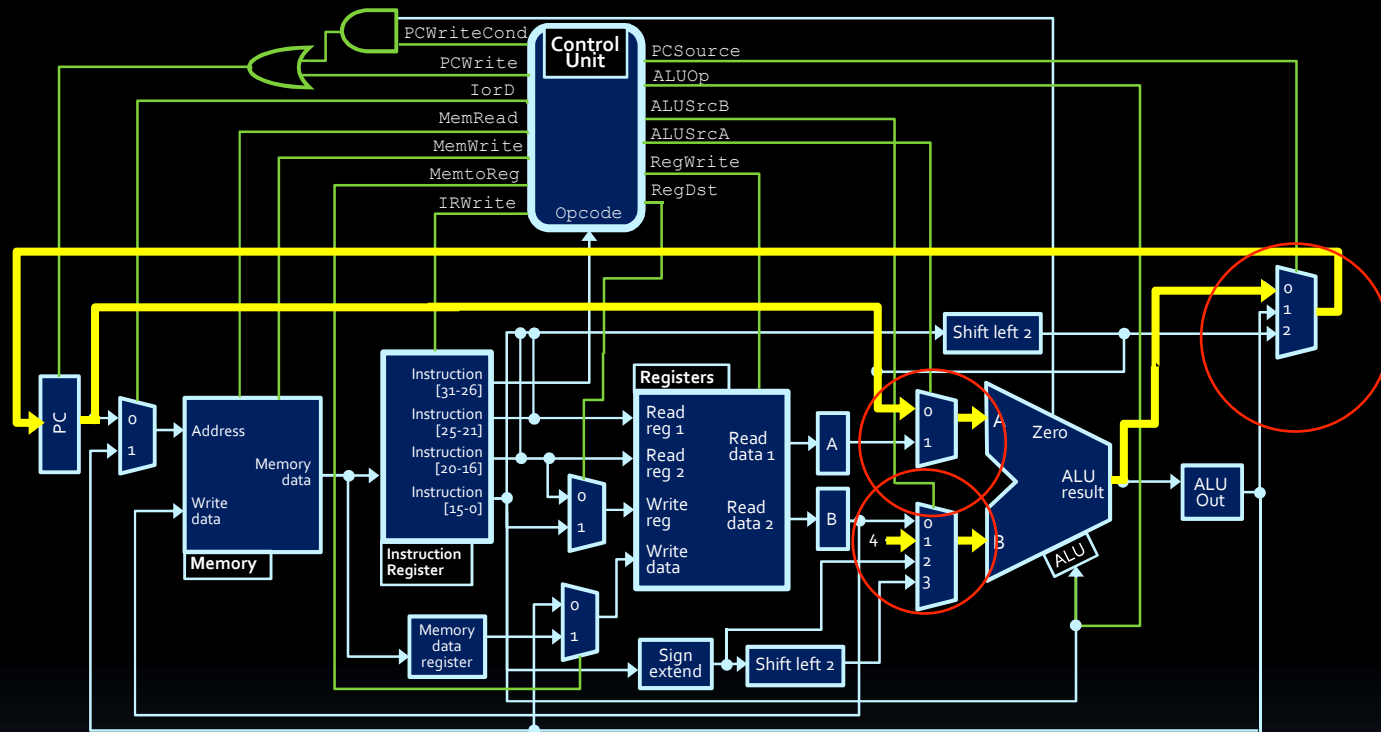
- Step #2: Determine path for data
 - Operand A for ALU: Program counter
 - Operand B for ALU: Literal value 4
 - Destination path: Through mux, back to PC

Example #1: Incrementing PC



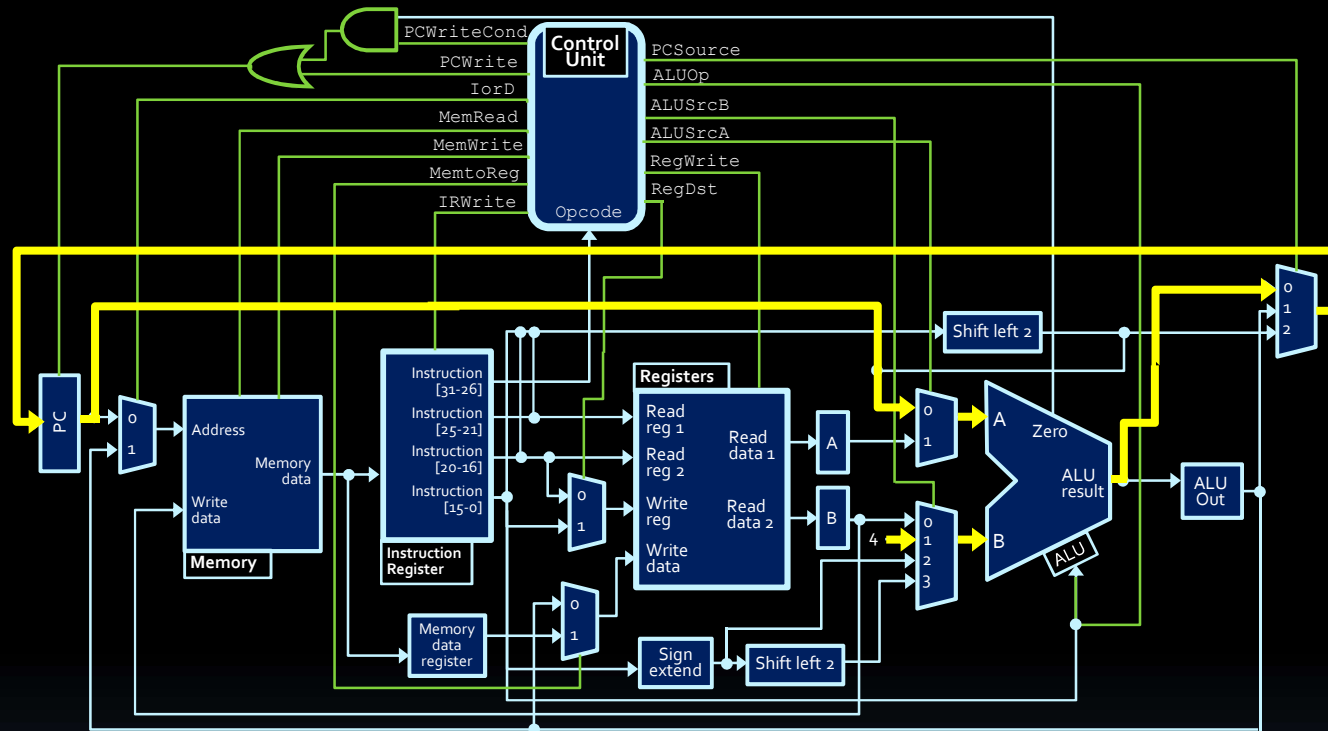
- Setting signals for this datapath:
 1. Read & Write signals:
 - PCWrite is high, all others are low.

Example #1: Incrementing PC



- Setting signals for this datapath:
 - 2. Mux signals:
 - PCSource is 0, ALUSrcA is 0, ALUSrcB is 1
 - all others are "don't cares".

Example #1: Incrementing PC



- Other signals for this datapath:
 - ALUOp is 001 (from chart on Slide 15 of Processor notes)
 - PCWriteCond is X when PCWrite is 1
 - Otherwise it is 0 except when branching.

How is this 3 bit, 2 bit instead?

Example #1 (final signals)

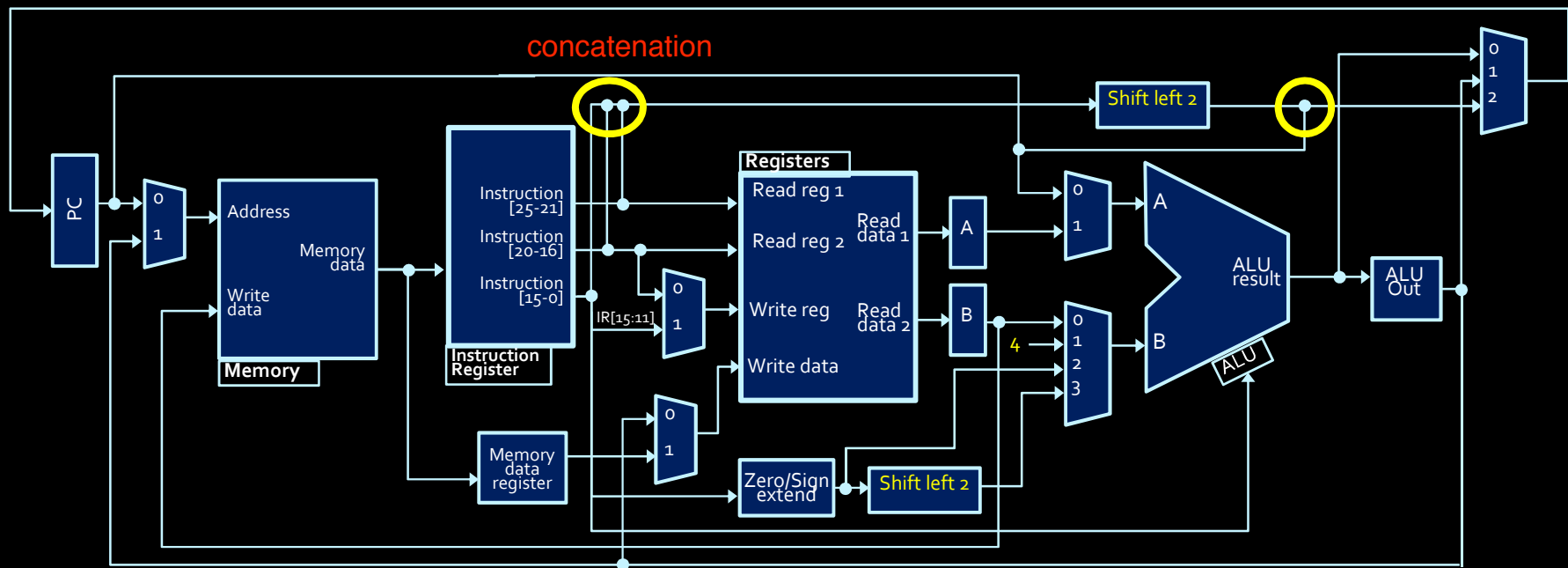
- PCWrite = 1
- PCWriteCond = X
- IorD = X
- MemRead = 0
- MemWrite = 0
- MemToReg = X
- IRWrite = 0
- PCSource = 0
- ALUOp = 001
- ALUSrcA = 0
- ALUSrcB = 01
- RegWrite = 0
- RegDst = X

When is PC incremented?

- This depends on the implementation.
 - Commonly done during decode stage, since the ALU is idle at that time.
 - Other implementations have a separate adder component just to update the PC.
- Key to remember:
 - Every instruction needs to update PC!
 - Otherwise the processor will always execute the same instruction over and over again...

MIPS datapath – Things to note

- In several spots, multiple inputs (each <32 bits) contribute to a single output. This happens when a 32-bit value is composed through concatenating the smaller components together.
 - Example: **jump instructions**.
 - 26 bits from instruction are shifted left, and filled out with the leftmost 4 bits from the program counter.



The remaining 26 bits

- The control unit sends these signals to the processor, based on the instruction's opcode.
 - So what is the rest of the instruction used for?
→ Providing values that the instruction needs.
- Examples:
 - Register operations → instruction provides addresses of source and destination registers.
 - Jump operations → instruction provides offset to be added to PC to execute jump.
- How are these are encoded in the instruction?

Machine Code Instructions

```
00000000 01 00 FF FF 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 40 00 CC 80 .....@
00000010 0C 00 00 00 00 00 26 01 8F 00 00 00 00 00 53 00 .....&.....S
00000020 65 00 6C 00 65 00 63 00 74 00 20 00 52 00 75 00 e.l.e.c.t...R.u
00000030 6C 00 65 00 00 00 08 00 00 00 00 01 4D 00 53 00 l.e.....M.S
00000040 20 00 53 00 68 00 65 00 6C 00 6C 00 20 00 44 00 .S.h.e.l.l..D
00000050 6C 00 67 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 02 00 00 l.g.....
00000060 03 01 A1 50 53 00 3A 00 C3 00 36 00 32 25 00 00 ...PS.....6.2%..
00000070 FF FF 83 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 ...P.V.A...J&..
00000080 03 00 01 50 0E 00 56 00 41 00 0A 00 4A 26 00 00 ...&A.p.p.l.y.
00000090 FF FF 80 00 26 00 41 00 70 00 70 00 6C 00 79 00 ..t.o...a.l.l..
000000a0 20 00 74 00 6F 00 20 00 61 00 6C 00 6C 00 00 00 ..P...}2.....
000000b0 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 01 00 01 50 ...O.K.....
000000c0 7E 00 7D 00 32 00 0E 00 01 00 00 00 FF FF 80 00 ...P...}2.....
000000d0 4F 00 4B 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 ...C.a.n.c.e.l
000000e0 00 00 01 50 B4 00 7D 00 32 00 0E 00 02 00 00 00 ...P...}2.....
000000f0 FF FF 80 00 43 00 61 00 6E 00 63 00 65 00 6C 00 ...C.a.n.c.e.l
00000100 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 01 50 ...P...}2.....
00000110 EA 00 7D 00 32 00 0E 00 09 00 00 00 FF FF 80 00 ...&H.e.l.p.....
00000120 26 00 48 00 65 00 6C 00 70 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 ...P.....
00000130 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 80 08 81 50 0E 00 3A 00 .../%.....P..0
00000140 3B 00 0E 00 2F 25 00 00 FF FF 81 00 00 00 00 00 ...P.....%.....F.i
00000150 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 02 50 0E 00 30 00 l.e...T.y.p.e...
00000160 1E 00 08 00 EE 25 00 00 FF FF 82 00 46 00 69 00 ...T.O.....%.....
00000170 6C 00 65 00 20 00 54 00 79 00 70 00 65 00 00 00 P.a.r.s.i.n.g...
00000180 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 02 50 R.u.l.e.s.....
00000190 54 00 30 00 2C 00 08 00 EF 25 00 00 FF FF 82 00 ...P.....
000001a0 50 00 61 00 72 00 73 00 69 00 6E 00 67 00 20 00 ..q.%.....
000001b0 52 00 75 00 6C 00 65 00 73 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 ...P.....
000001c0 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 07 00 00 50 06 00 07 00 >...%.....S.e
000001d0 1A 01 71 00 ED 25 00 00 FF FF 80 00 00 00 00 00 l.e.c.t...R.u.l
000001e0 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 02 50 0E 00 11 00 e...F.o.r...F.i
000001f0 3E 00 08 00 EC 25 00 00 FF FF 82 00 53 00 65 00 l.e.....%.....
00000200 6C 00 65 00 63 00 74 00 20 00 52 00 75 00 6C 00 ...P.....
00000210 65 00 20 00 46 00 6F 00 72 00 20 00 46 00 69 00 ...P.a.7...k&..
00000220 6C 00 65 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
00000230 80 08 81 50 0E 00 1B 00 08 01 0E 00 EB 25 00 00
00000240 FF FF 81 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
00000250 00 00 02 50 19 00 61 00 37 00 08 00 6B 26 00 00
00000260 FF FF 82 00 00 00 00 00 |
```

```
00003200 EE EE 85 00 00 00 00 00 |
00003210 00 00 05 20 1a 00 e7 00 3a 00 08 00 eb 5e 00 00
00003220 EE EE 87 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
00003230 80 08 87 20 0E 00 1B 00 08 07 0E 00 EB 52 00 00
00003240 EC 00 e2 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
00003250 e2 00 50 00 4e 00 EE 00 15 00 50 00 4e 00 e3 00
00003260 EC 00 e2 00 e3 00 14 00 50 00 25 00 32 00 EC 00
00003270 3E 00 08 00 EC 52 00 00 EE EE 85 00 e3 00 e2 00
00003280 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
```

Intro to Machine Code

- Now that we have a processor, operations are performed by:
 - The instruction register:
 - Sending instruction components to the processor.
 - The control unit:
 - Based on the **opcode** value (sent from the instruction register), sending a sequence of signals to the rest of the processor.
- Only questions remaining:
 - Where do these instructions come from?
 - How are they provided to the instruction memory?

Assembly language

- Each processor type has its own language for representing 32-bit instructions as user-level code words.

- Example: $C = A + B$

- Assume A is stored in \$t1, B in \$t2, C in \$t3.

- Assembly language** instruction:

```
add $t3, $t1, $t2
```

- Machine code** instruction:

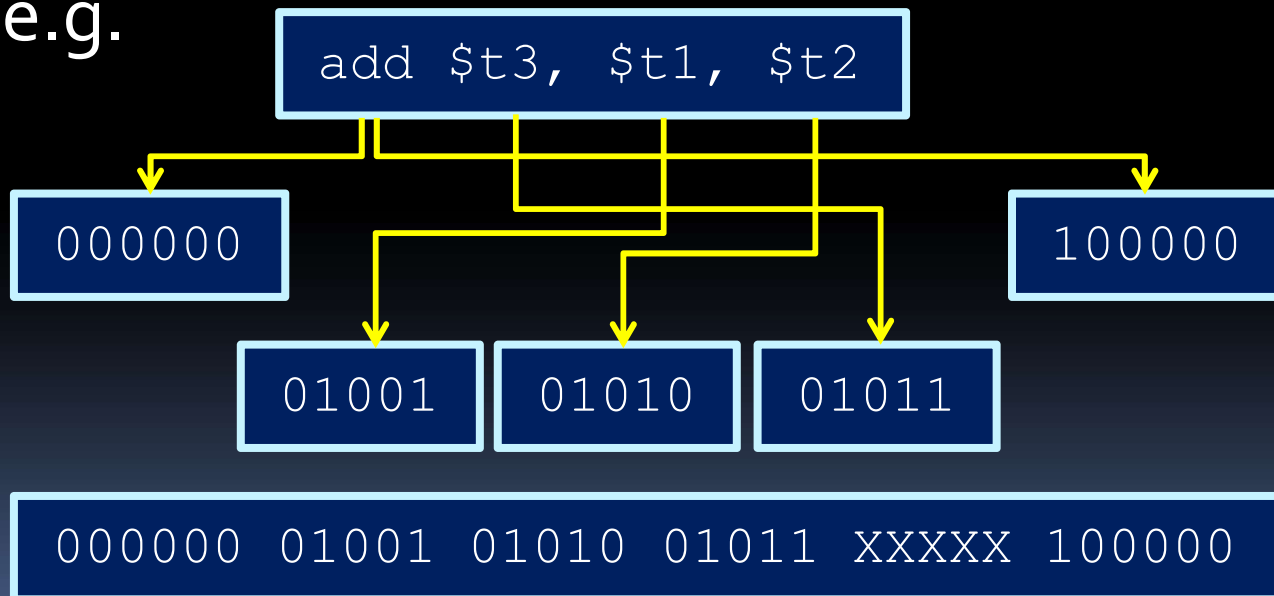
```
000000 01001 01010 01011 XXXXX 100000
```

Note: There is a 1-to-1 mapping for all assembly code and machine code instructions!

Filling in the blanks

- When writing machine code instructions (or interpreting them), we need to know which register values to encode (or decode).

■ e.g.



Machine code + registers

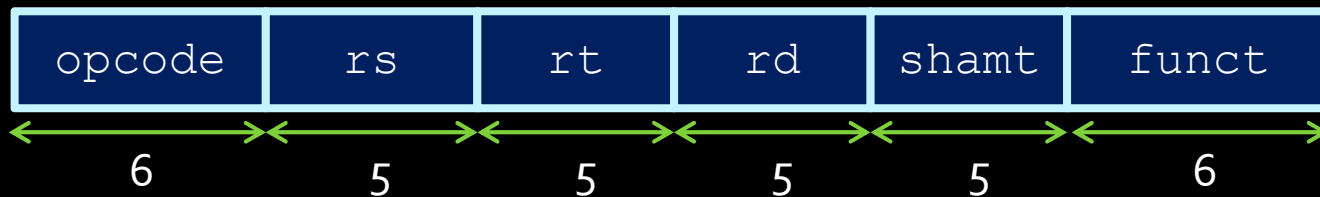
- MIPS is **register-to-register**.
 - Every operation operates on data in registers.
 - MIPS provides 32 registers.
 - Several have special values: *Convention here only.*
 - Register 0 (\$zero): value 0 -- always.
 - Register 1 (\$at): reserved for the assembler.
 - Registers 2–3 (\$v0, \$v1): return values
 - Registers 4–7 (\$a0–\$a3): function arguments
 - Registers 8–15, 24–25 (\$t0–\$t9): temporaries
 - Registers 16–23 (\$s0–\$s7): saved temporaries
 - Registers 28–31 (\$gp, \$sp, \$fp, \$ra): memory and function support
 - Registers 26–27: reserved for OS kernel
 - Also three special registers (PC, HI, LO) that are not directly accessible.
 - HI and LO are used in multiplication and division, and have special instructions for accessing them.
- have to keep track of what register is used for which purposes.*

Machine code details

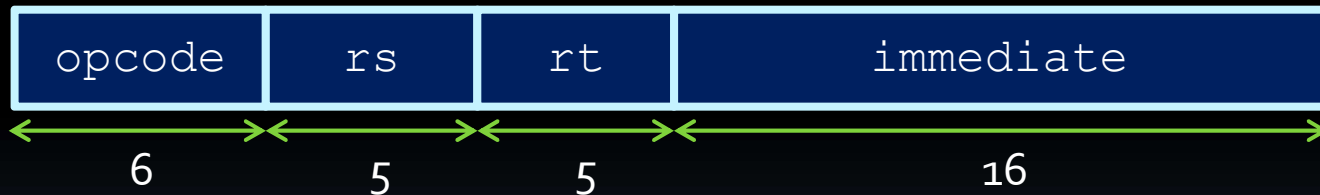
- Things to note about machine code:
 - R-type instructions have an opcode of 000000, with a 6-bit function listed at the end.
 - Although we specify “don’t care” bits as X values, the assembly language interpreter always assigns them to some value (like 0).
- It’s possible to program your processor with machine code, but makes more sense to use an equivalent language that is more natural (for humans, that is).

Reminder: MIPS instruction types

- **R-type:**



- **I-type:**



- **J-type:**



Assembly Language Instructions

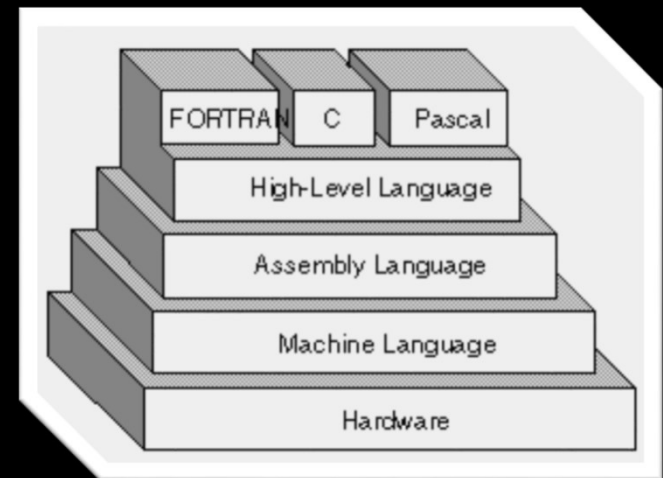
```
loop: lw    $t3, 0($t0)
      lw    $t4, 4($t0)
      add   $t2, $t3, $t4
      sw    $t2, 8($t0)
      addi  $t0, $t0, 4
      addi  $t1, $t1, -1
      bgtz  $t1, loop
```

Assembler

```
0x8d0b0000
0x8d0c0004
0x016c5020
0xad0a0008
0x21080004
0x2129ffff
0x1d20fff9
```


Assembly language

- Assembly language is the lowest-level language that you'll ever program in.
- Many compilers translate their high-level program commands into assembly commands, which are then converted into machine code and used by the processor.
- Note: There are multiple types of assembly language, especially for different architectures!



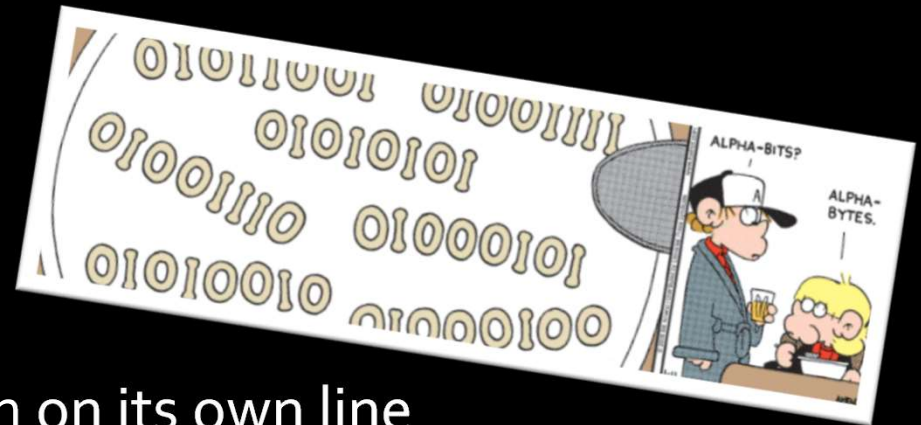
A little about MIPS

- MIPS

- Short for **M**icroprocessor without **I**nterlocked **P**ipeline **S**tages
 - A type of **RISC** (**R**educed **I**nstruction **S**et **C**omputer) architecture.
- Provides a set of simple and fast instructions
 - Compiler translates instructions into 32-bit instructions for instruction memory.
 - Complex instructions (e.g. multiplication) are built out of simple ones by the compiler and assembler.

MIPS Instructions

- Things to note about MIPS instructions:
 - Instructions are written `<instr> <parameters>`
 - Each instruction is written on its own line
 - All instructions are 32 bits (4 bytes) long
 - Instruction addresses are measured in bytes, starting from the instruction at address 0.
 - Therefore, **all instruction addresses are divisible by 4.**
- The following tables show the most common MIPS instructions, the syntax for their parameters, and what operation they perform.



u = unsigned ; i = immediate; SE: sign extend

Arithmetic instructions

Instruction	Opcode/Function	Syntax	Operation
add	100000	\$d, \$s, \$t	\$d = \$s + \$t
addu	100001	\$d, \$s, \$t	\$d = \$s + \$t
addi	001000	\$t, \$s, i	\$t = \$s + SE(i)
addiu	001001	\$t, \$s, i	\$t = \$s + SE(i)
div	011010	\$s, \$t	lo = \$s / \$t; hi = \$s % \$t
divu	011011	\$s, \$t	lo = \$s / \$t; hi = \$s % \$t
mult	011000	\$s, \$t	hi:lo = \$s * \$t
multu	011001	\$s, \$t	hi:lo = \$s * \$t
sub	100010	\$d, \$s, \$t	\$d = \$s - \$t
subu	100011	\$d, \$s, \$t	\$d = \$s - \$t

Note: "hi" and "lo" refer to the high and low bits referred to in the register slide.
"SE" = "sign extend".

note: hi stores reminder

■ R-type vs I-type arithmetic

R-Type

- `add, addu`
- `div, divu`
- `mult, multu`
- `sub, subu`

I-Type

- `addi`
- `addiu`

- In general, some instructions are R-type (meaning all operands are registers) and some are I-type (meaning they use an immediate/constant value in their operation).
- Can you recognize which of the following are R-type and I-type instructions?

Logical instructions

Instruction	Opcode/Function	Syntax	Operation
and	100100	\$d, \$s, \$t	\$d = \$s & \$t
<u>andi</u>	001100	\$t, \$s, i	\$t = \$s & ZE(i)
nor	100111	\$d, \$s, \$t	\$d = ~(\$s \$t)
or	100101	\$d, \$s, \$t	\$d = \$s \$t
<u>ori</u>	001101	\$t, \$s, i	\$t = \$s ZE(i)
xor	100110	\$d, \$s, \$t	\$d = \$s ^ \$t
<u>xori</u>	001110	\$t, \$s, i	\$t = \$s ^ ZE(i)

Note: ZE = zero extend (pad upper bits with 0 value).

Shift instructions

all R type

Instruction	Opcode/Function	Syntax	Operation
sll	000000	\$d, \$t, a	\$d = \$t << a
sllv	000100	\$d, \$t, \$s	\$d = \$t << \$s
sra	000011	\$d, \$t, a	\$d = \$t >> a
srav	000111	\$d, \$t, \$s	\$d = \$t >> \$s
srl	000010	\$d, \$t, a	\$d = \$t >>> a
srlv	000110	\$d, \$t, \$s	\$d = \$t >>> \$s

Note: srl = "shift right logical", and sra = "shift right arithmetic".
The "v" denotes a variable number of bits, specified by \$s.
a is a shift amount, and is stored in shamt when encoding
the R-type machine code instructions.

Data movement instructions

Instruction	Opcode/Function	Syntax	Operation
mfhi	010000	\$d	\$d = hi
mflo	010010	\$d	\$d = lo
mtthi	010001	\$s	hi = \$s
mtlo	010011	\$s	lo = \$s

- These are R-type instructions for operating on the HI and LO registers described earlier.

ALU instructions

- Note that for ALU instruction, most are R-type instructions.
 - The six-digit codes in the tables are therefore the function codes (opcodes are 000000).
 - Exceptions are the I-type instructions (`addi`, `andi`, `ori`, etc.)
- Not all R-type instructions have an I-type equivalent.
 - RISC architectures dictate that an operation doesn't need an instruction if it can be performed through multiple existing operations.
 - Example: `addi + div` \rightarrow `divi`

Example program

- Fibonacci sequence:
 - How would you convert this into assembly?
 - (ignoring function arguments, return call for now)

```
int fib(void) {  
    int n = 10;  
    int f1 = 1, f2 = -1;  
  
    while (n != 0) {  
        f1 = f1 + f2;  
        f2 = f1 - f2;  
        n = n - 1;  
    }  
    return f1;  
}
```

Assembly code example

- Fibonacci sequence in assembly code:

```
# fib.asm
# register usage: $t3=n, $t4=f1, $t5=f2
#
FIB:  addi $t3, $zero, 10      # initialize n=10
      addi $t4, $zero, 1      # initialize f1=1
      addi $t5, $zero, -1     # initialize f2=-1
LOOP: beq $t3, $zero, END     # done loop if n==0
      add $t4, $t4, $t5       # f1 = f1 + f2
      sub $t5, $t4, $t5       # f2 = f1 - f2
      addi $t3, $t3, -1       # n = n - 1
      j  LOOP                 # repeat until done
END:  sb $t4, 0($sp)          # store result
```

Making an assembly program

- Assembly language programs typically have structure similar to simple Python or C programs:
 - They set aside registers to store data.
 - They have sections of instructions that manipulate this data.
- It is always good to decide at the beginning which registers will be used for what purpose!
 - More on this later 😊

Simulating MIPS

aka: QtSpim

The screenshot displays the QtSpim MIPS simulator interface. The top menu bar includes File, Simulator, Registers, Text Segment, Data Segment, Window, and Help. Below the menu bar are tabs for FP Regs, Int Regs [16], Data, and Text. The main window is divided into three panes: Registers, Memory, and Assembly.

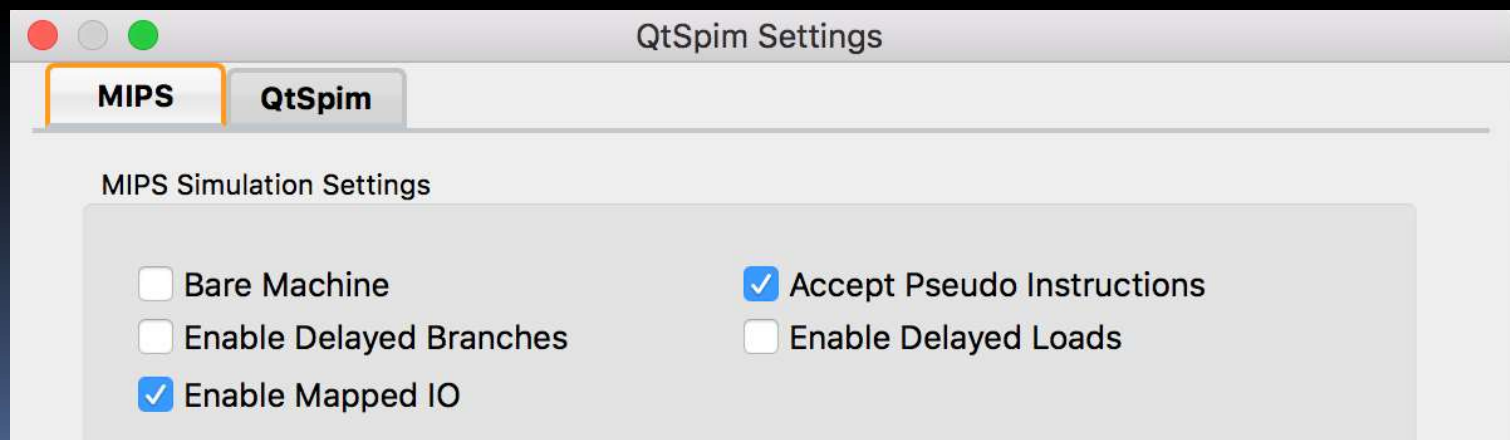
Registers Pane: Shows the current state of the MIPS registers. The PC (Program Counter) is 400048. The Cause register is 0. The BadVAddr register is 0. The Status register is 3000ff10. The HI and LO registers are 0. The R0 register is 0. The R1 register is 10010000. The R2 register is 'a'. The R3 register is 0. The R4 register is 3. The R5 register is 7ffff694. The R6 register is 7ffff6a4. The R7 register is 0. The R8 register is 2345. The R9 register is 33667. The R10 register is 2245. The R11 register is 33767. The R12 register is 0. The R13 register is 0. The R14 register is 0. The R15 register is 0. The R16 register is 0. The R17 register is 0. The R18 register is 0. The R19 register is 0. The R20 register is 0. The R21 register is 0. The R22 register is 0. The R23 register is 0. The R24 register is 0. The R25 register is 0. The R26 register is 0. The R27 register is 0.

Memory Pane: Shows the current state of the MIPS memory. The User data segment [10000000]..[10040000] is displayed. The User Stack [7ffff690]..[80000000] is also shown. The memory contains various data, including the string "E#...g6...g7...".

Assembly Pane: Shows the current state of the MIPS assembly code. The code is loaded from the file "C:/Users/John/AppData/Local/Temp/qt_temp.116072". The assembly code is displayed in a list format, showing instructions like "addi \$t0, \$zero, 0" and "addi \$t1, \$zero, 0".

QtSpim Simulator

- Link to download:
 - <http://spimsimulator.sourceforge.net>
- MIPS settings in the simulator:
 - Important to **not** have delayed branches or delayed loads selected under Settings.



QtSpim – Config. Options

- A couple of things to configure:
 - The numerical representations of registers via the
— “Registers” menu option (decimal, hex, binary).
 - Whether you view user code and/or kernel code.
Select Text Segment -> User text.

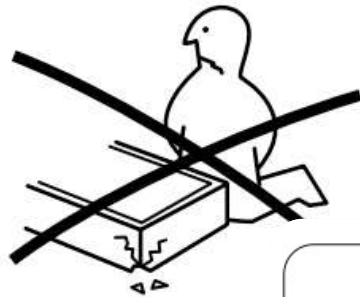
QtSpim – Quick How To

- Write a MIPS program (similar to the ones posted) in any text editor. Save it with `.asm` extension.
- In QtSpim select:
 - File -> Reinitialize and load a file
 - Single step through your program while observing (a) the Int Regs window and (b) the text window (user text).
 - As you step through, the highlighted instruction is the one about to be executed.

QtSpim Help => MIPS reference

- QtSpim help (Help -> View Help) contains
 - “Appendix A (Assemblers, Linkers, and the SPIM Simulator)” from *Patterson and Hennessey, Computer Organization and Design: The Hardware/Software Interface, Third Edition*
 - Useful reference for MIPS R2000 Assembly Language
 - Look at “Arithmetic and Logical Instructions”.
 - We will also add other links to Portal under::
 - Course Materials -> General Course Information -> Textbook Readings

More instructions!



Control flow in assembly

- Not all programs follow a linear set of instructions.
 - Some operations require the code to branch to one section of code or another (if/else).
 - Some require the code to jump back and repeat a section of code again (for/while).
- For this, we have labels on the left-hand side that indicate the points that the program flow might need to jump to.
 - References to these points in the assembly code are resolved at compile time to offset values for the program counter.

Branch instructions I type

immediate value holds # of instructions between current line and the label

Instruction	Opcode/Function	Syntax	Operation
beq	000100	\$s, \$t, label	if (\$s == \$t) pc += i << 2
bgtz	000111	\$s, label	if (\$s > 0) pc += i << 2
blez	000110	\$s, label	if (\$s <= 0) pc += i << 2
bne	000101	\$s, \$t, label	if (\$s != \$t) pc += i << 2

add # of instruction << 2
converts to # of bytes

- Branch operations are key when implementing if statements and while loops.
- The labels are memory locations, assigned to each label at compile time.

Calculating the i value

- i is an **offset** between the location (memory address) of the current instruction and the target of the branch.
 - Measured in **# of instructions** (and not # of bytes)
 - The instruction the processor should fetch next is i instructions before this current branch instruction (if i is negative) or i instructions after (if i is positive).
- Depending on the implementation (e.g., which cycle the PC+4 for each instruction takes place), i is computed as:
 - $(\text{label location} - (\text{current PC})) \gg 2$, or
 - $(\text{label location} - (\text{current PC} + 4)) \gg 2$

i in simulation

- For this course, we assume i is computed as:
 - $(\text{label} - (\text{current PC})) \gg 2$
 - Corresponds to the simulator we use for this course (QtSpim) → more on that later.
- Here's a simple program to confirm this!
 - What will i be for `beq`?
 - In QtSpim, the 16 least significant bits of the machine code instruction are 000000000000000010.

Last 16 bit of I type is immediate value,
which is determined at compile time

2 instructions / 8 bytes away.

```
.text

main:    addi $t0, $zero, 1
         beq  $t0, $zero, DST
         addi $t1, $zero, 1

DST:     addi $t3, $zero, 1
```

More on Conditional Branches

- When the branch condition is met, we say the **branch is taken**.
- When the branch condition is not met, we say the **branch is not taken**.
 - What is the next PC in this case?
 - It's the usual $PC+4$
- How far can a processor branch? Are there any constraints?

Jump instructions

Instruction	Opcode/Function	Syntax	Operation
<code>j</code> I-type	000010	label	$pc = (pc \& 0xF0000000) (i \ll 2)$
<code>jal</code>	000011	label	$\$31 = pc + 4;$ $pc = (pc \& 0xF0000000) (i \ll 2)$
<code>jalr</code> R-type	001001	$\$s$	$\$31 = pc + 4;$ $pc = \$s$
<code>jr</code>	001000	$\$s$	$pc = \$s$

- `jal` = “jump and link”.
 - Register $\$31$ (aka $\$ra$) stores the address that’s used when returning from a subroutine (i.e. the *next* instruction to run).
- Note: `jr` and `jalr` are **not** J-type instructions.

Comparison instructions

Instruction	Opcode/Function	Syntax	Operation
slt	101010	\$d, \$s, \$t	\$d = (\$s < \$t)
sltu	101001	\$d, \$s, \$t	\$d = (\$s < \$t)
slti	001010	\$t, \$s, i	\$t = (\$s < SE(i))
sltiu	001001	\$t, \$s, i	\$t = (\$s < SE(i))

Note: Comparison operation stores a one in the destination register if the less-than comparison is true, and stores a zero in that location otherwise. Useful in combination with branch instructions that only depend on one register (e.g., bgtz)

If/Else statements in MIPS

```
if ( i == j )  
    i++;  
else  
    j--;  
j += i;
```

- Strategy for if/else statements:
 - Test condition, and jump to `if` logic block whenever condition is true.
 - Otherwise, perform `else` logic block, and jump to first line after `if` logic block.

Translated if/else statements

```
# $t1 = i, $t2 = j
main:    beq  $t1, $t2, IF      # branch if ( i == j )
        addi $t2, $t2, -1     # j--
        j   END              # jump over IF
IF:      addi $t1, $t1, 1      # i++
END:     add  $t2, $t2, $t1    # j += i
```

- Alternately, you can branch on the else condition first:

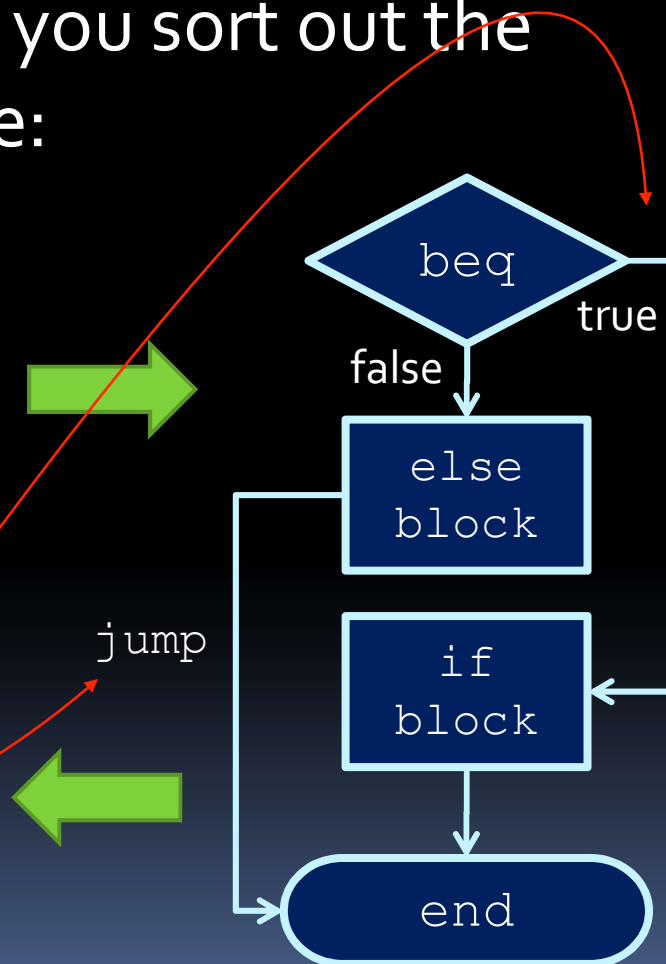
```
# $t1 = i, $t2 = j
main:    bne  $t1, $t2, ELSE    # branch if ! ( i == j )
        addi $t1, $t1, 1      # i++
        j   END              # jump over ELSE
ELSE:    addi $t2, $t2, -1     # j--
END:     add  $t2, $t2, $t1    # j += i
```

A trick with if statements

- Use flow charts to help you sort out the control flow of the code:

```
if ( i == j )  
    i++;  
else  
    j--;  
j += i;
```

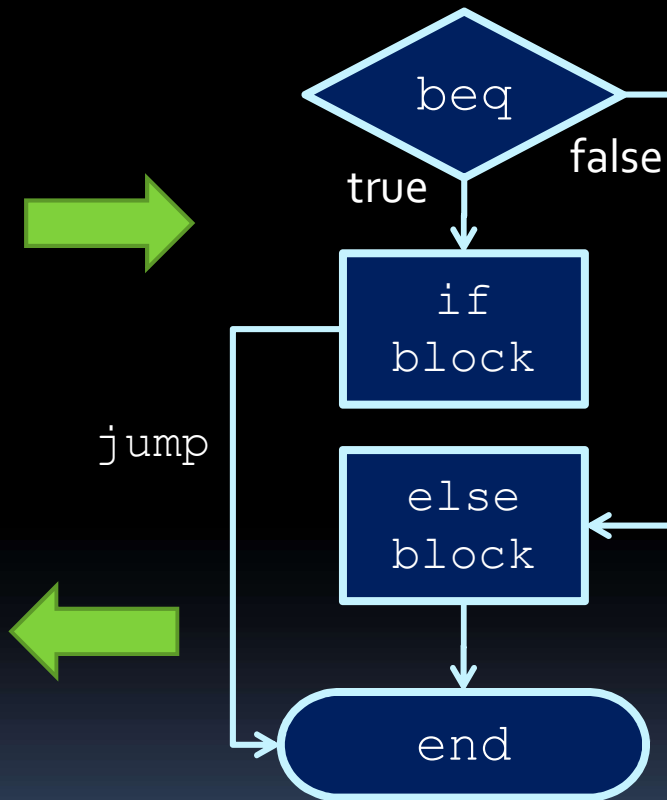
```
# $t1 = i, $t2 = j  
main:  beq  $t1, $t2, IF  
       addi $t2, $t2, -1  
       j  END  
IF:    addi $t1, $t1, 1  
END:   add  $t2, $t2, $t1
```



If statement flowcharts

```
if ( i == j )  
    i++;  
else  
    j--;  
j += i;
```

```
# $t1 = i, $t2 = j  
main:    bne $t1, $t2, ELSE  
         addi $t1, $t1, 1  
         j END  
ELSE:    addi $t2, $t2, -1  
END:     add $t2, $t2, $t1
```



Multiple if conditions

```
if ( i == j || i == k )
    i++ ; // if-body
else
    j-- ; // else-body
j = i + k ;
```

1. jump to IF is first condition is true
2. if not jump to ELSE if second condition is false

■ Branch statement for each condition:

```
# $t1 = i, $t2 = j, $t3 = k
main:  beq $t1, $t2, IF      # cond1: branch if ( i == j )
      bne $t1, $t3, ELSE   # cond2: branch if ( i != k )
IF:    addi $t1, $t1, 1     # if (i==j|i==k) → i++
      j END               # jump over else
ELSE:  addi $t2, $t2, -1   # else-body: j--
END:   add $t2, $t1, $t3   # j = i + k
```

Multiple if conditions

- How would this look if the condition changed?

```
if ( i == j && i == k )  
    i++ ;    // if-body  
else  
    j-- ;    // else-body  
j = i + k ;
```

```
# $t1 = i, $t2 = j, $t3 = k  
main: bne $t1, $t2, ELSE    # cond1: branch if ( i != j )  
      bne $t1, $t3, ELSE    # cond2: branch if ( i != k )  
IF:   addi $t1, $t1, 1      # if (i==j|i==k) → i++  
      j END                # jump over else  
ELSE: addi $t2, $t2, -1     # else-body: j--  
END:  add $t2, $t1, $t3     # j = i + k
```

Loops in MIPS

- Example of a simple loop, in assembly:

```
main:    add $t0, $zero, $zero    # set $t0 to 0
         addi $t1, $zero, 100     # set $t1 to 100
START:   beq $t0, $t1, END        # while $t0 < $t1
         addi $t0, $t0, 1         # $t0 = $t0 + 1
         j  START                # jump back
END:
```

- ...which is the same as saying (in C):

```
int i = 0;
while (i < 100) {
    i++;
}
```


Loops in MIPS

```
for ( <init> ; <cond> ; <update> ) {  
    <for body>  
}
```

- For loops (such as above) are usually implemented with the following structure:

```
main:    <init>  
START:   if (!<cond>) branch to END  
         <for-body>  
UPDATE:  <update>  
         jump to START  
END:
```

Loop example in MIPS

```
for ( i=0 ; i<100 ; i++ ) {  
    j = j + i;  
}
```

- This translates to:

Note how here when evaluating $i == 100$. We have to initialize a register beforehand to hold 100

```
# $t0 = i, $t1 = j  
main:    add $t0, $zero, $zero      # set $t0 to 0  
        add $t1, $zero, $zero      # set $t1 to 0  
        addi $t9, $zero, 100        # set $t9 to 100  
START:   beq $t0, $t9, EXIT         # branch if i==100  
        add $t1, $t1, $t0          # j = j + i  
UPDATE:  addi $t0, $t0, 1           # i++  
        j START  
EXIT:
```

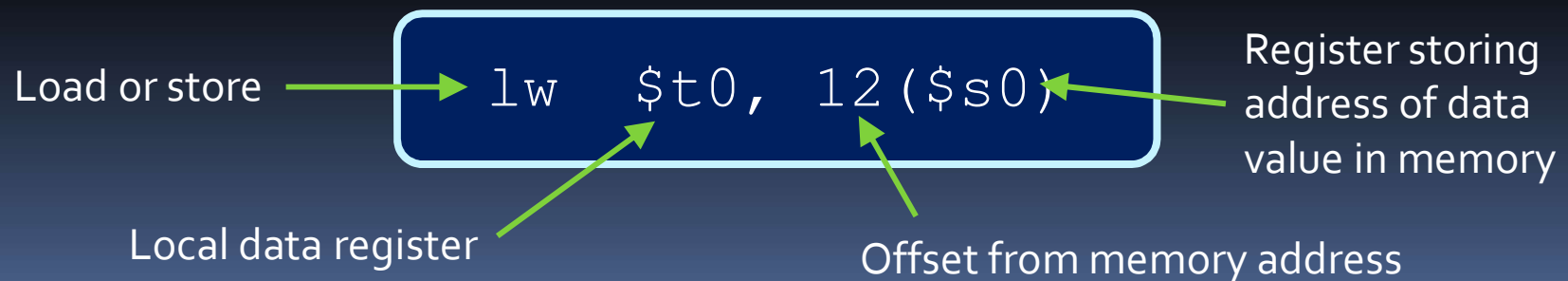
- while loops are the same, without the initialization and update sections.



Only a few more
instructions left!

Interacting with memory

- All of the previous instructions perform operations on registers and immediate values.
 - What about memory?
- All programs must fetch values from memory into registers, operate on them, and then store the values back into memory.
- Memory operations are I-type, with the form:



Loads vs. Stores

- Loads are read operations.
 - We load (i.e., read) from memory.
 - We **load** a value **from** a memory address into a **register**.
- Stores are write operations.
 - We **store** (i.e., write) a data value from a register **to** a memory address.
 - Store instructions do not have a destination register, and therefore do not write to the register file.

Load & store instructions

Instruction	Opcode/Function	Syntax	Operation
lb	100000	\$t, i (\$s)	\$t = SE (MEM [\$s + i]:1)
lbu	100100	\$t, i (\$s)	\$t = ZE (MEM [\$s + i]:1)
lh	100001	\$t, i (\$s)	\$t = SE (MEM [\$s + i]:2)
lhu	100101	\$t, i (\$s)	\$t = ZE (MEM [\$s + i]:2)
lw	100011	\$t, i (\$s)	\$t = MEM [\$s + i]:4
sb	101000	\$t, i (\$s)	MEM [\$s + i]:1 = LB (\$t)
sh	101001	\$t, i (\$s)	MEM [\$s + i]:2 = LH (\$t)
sw	101011	\$t, i (\$s)	MEM [\$s + i]:4 = \$t

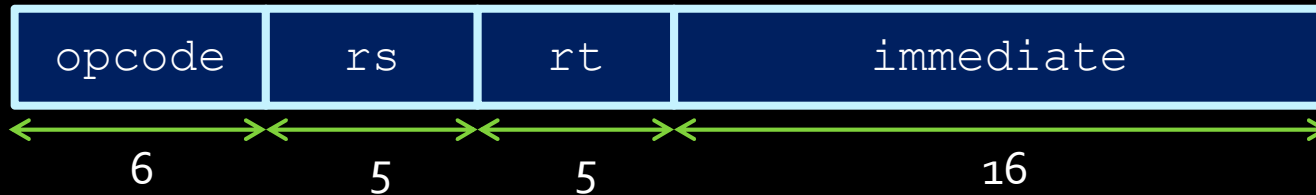
:1 load 1 byte

lower bits

- “b”, “h” and “w” correspond to “byte”, “half word” and “word”, indicating the length of the data.
- “SE” stands for “sign extend”, “ZE” stands for “zero extend”.

Memory Instructions in MIPS assembly

- Loads & store instructions are I-type instr.

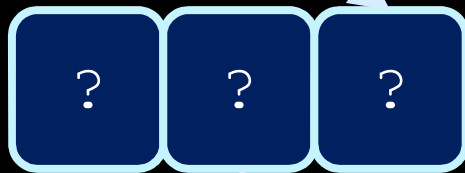


- Write them in this format:



Memory Instructions in MIPS assembly

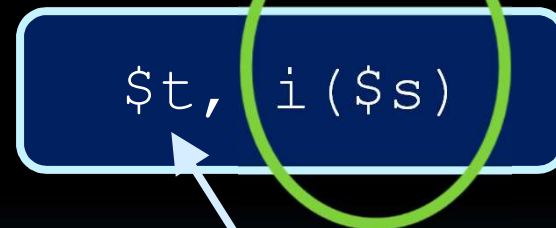
Only applicable when loading a byte or a half-word. Choose between **u** for **u**nsigned or leave it blank as for all other cases.



l for **l**oad or
s for **s**tore

b for **b**yte,
h for **h**alf-word,
w for **w**ord

Specifies we are accessing
 $\text{MEM}[\$s + \text{SE}(i)]$



Destination reg. for
loads, Source reg. for
stores.

Alignment Requirements

- Misaligned memory accesses result in errors.
 - Word accesses (i.e., addresses specified in a lw or sw instruction) should be **word-aligned** (divisible by 4).
 - **Half-word** accesses should only involve half-word aligned addresses (i.e., **even addresses**).
 - How about byte accesses?
 - No constraints there 😊

Little Endian vs. Big Endian

- Let's say we want to read a word (4 bytes) starting from address X .
- How do we assemble these multiple bytes into a larger data-type?
 - What would you do?

Address	Byte
X	Byte A
$X + 1$	Byte B
$X + 2$	Byte C
$X + 3$	Byte D

Big Endian:

Byte A	Byte B	Byte C	Byte D
--------	--------	--------	--------

Least significant byte

Little Endian:

Byte D	Byte C	Byte B	Byte A
--------	--------	--------	--------

Big Endian vs. Little Endian

- **Big Endian**

- The **most significant byte** of the word is stored first (i.e., at address X). The 2nd most significant byte at address $X+1$ and so on.

- **Little Endian**

- The **least significant byte** of the word is stored first (i.e., at address X). The 2nd least significant byte at address $X+1$ and so on.

Big Endian Example

0x00000000

0x00000001

0x00000002

0x00000003

0x00000004

0x00000005

0x00000006

0x00000007

...

0xFFFFFFFF

0x12

0x34

0xAB

0xCD

```
#assume $t0 contains  
#0x00000004  
sw $t1, 0($t0)
```

0x1234ABCD

32 bits

8 bits

Each row is one byte

Little Endian Example

0x00000000

0x00000001

0x00000002

0x00000003

0x00000004

0x00000005

0x00000006

0x00000007

...

0xFFFFFFFF

0xCD

0xAB

0x34

0x12

8 bits

```
#assume $t0 contains  
#0x00000004  
sw $t1, 0($t0)
```

0x1234ABCD

32 bits

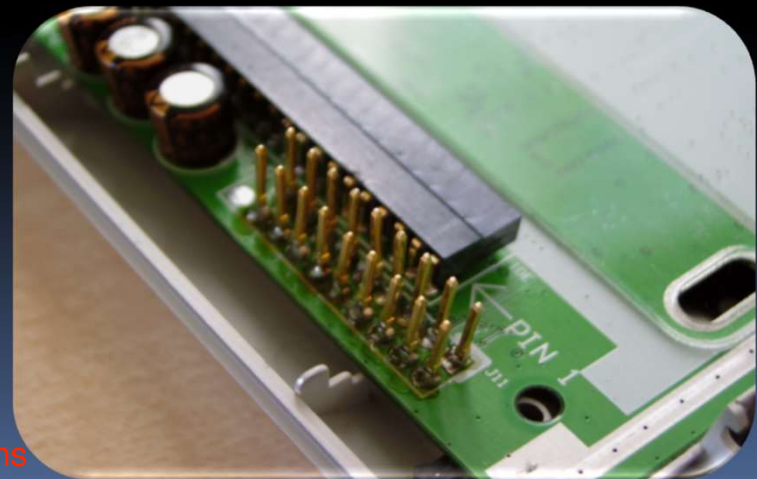
MIPS Endianness

- MIPS processors are bi-endian, i.e., they can operate with either big-endian or little-endian byte order
- QtSpim simulator uses the same endianness as the machine it is running on
 - X86 CPUs (like the one in my laptop) are little-endian

A bit more about memory

- The offset value is useful for objects or stack parameters, when multiple values are needed from a given memory location.
- Memory is also used to communicate with outside devices, such as keyboards and monitors.
 - Known as **memory-mapped IO**.
 - Invoked with a **trap** or **syscall** function.

trap: synchronous interrupt caused by exceptional conditions



It's a trap!

Instruction	Function	Syntax
trap	011010	i

- **Trap instructions** send system calls to the operating system
 - e.g. interacting with the user, and exiting the program.
- Similar but not quite the same as the **syscall** command.

Service	Trap Code	Input/Output
print_int	1	\$4 is int to print
print_float	2	\$f12 is float to print
print_double	3	\$f12 (with \$f13) is double to print
print_string	4	\$4 is address of ASCIIZ string to print
read_int	5	\$2 is int read
read_float	6	\$f12 is float read
read_double	7	\$f12 (with \$f13) is double read
read_string	8	\$4 is address of buffer, \$5 is buffer size in bytes
sbrk	9	\$4 is number of bytes required, \$2 is address of allocated memory
exit	10	
print_byte	101	\$4 contains byte to print
read_byte	102	\$2 contains byte read
set_print_inst_on	103	
set_print_inst_off	104	
get_print_inst	105	\$2 contains current status of printing instructions

Memory segment syntax

- `.data`
 - Indicates the start of the data declarations.
- `.text`
 - Indicates the start of the program instructions.
- `main:`
 - The initial line to run when executing the program.

Data segment syntax

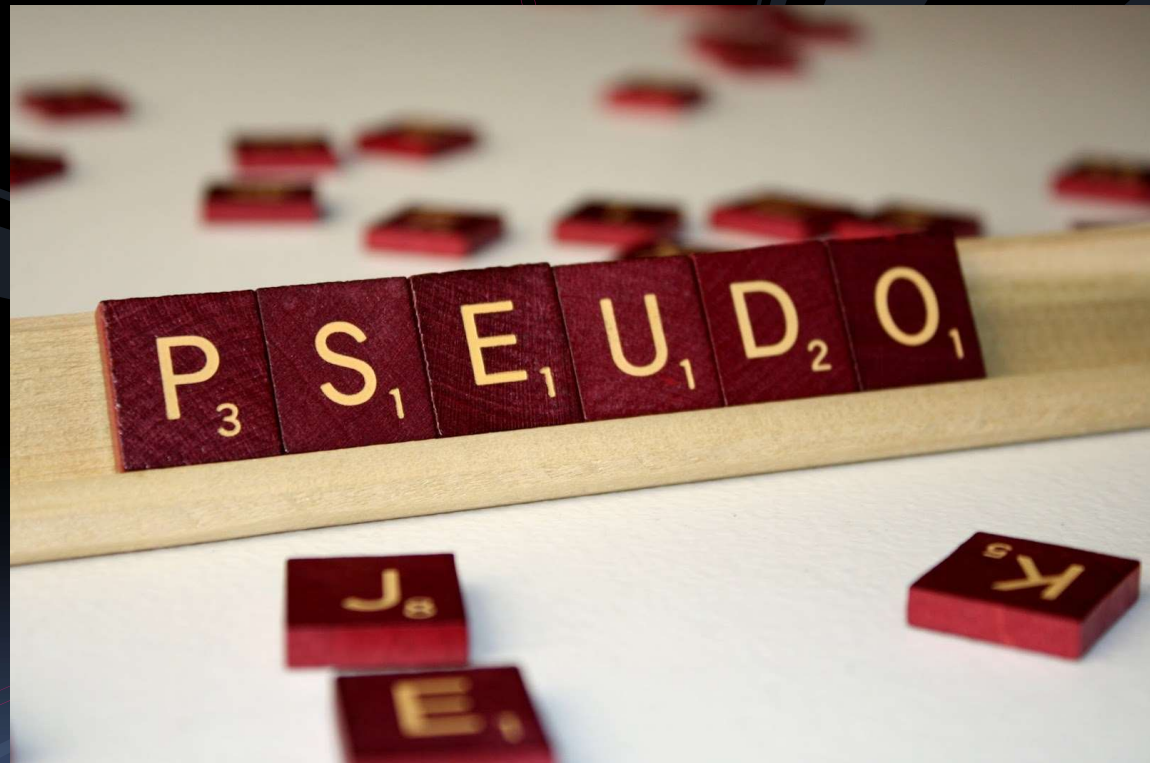
- Data storage:
 - At beginning of program, create labels for memory locations that are used to store values.
 - Always in form: label type value

```
# create a single integer variable with initial value 3
var1:            .word      3

# create a 2-element character array with elements
# initialized to a and b
array1:        .byte      'a', 'b'

# allocate 40 consecutive bytes, with uninitialized
# storage. Could be used as a 40-element character array,
# or a 10-element integer array.
array2:        .space    40
```

Pseudo-Instructions



Pseudo-Instructions

- Pseudo-instructions are there for the convenience of the programmer ☺
- The assembler translates them into 1 or more **real** MIPS assembly instructions.
 - “Real” MIPS instructions have opcodes. Pseudo-instructions do not!
 - The assembler often uses the special **\$at** register (also written as \$1) when mapping pseudo-instructions to MIPS instructions.

* When using Qtspim, use the Simple Machine under MIPS preferences (i.e., not the bare machine) and ensure Pseudo-instructions are enabled.

Example: The `la` pseudo-instruction

- `la` (load address) is a **pseudo-instruction** written in the format:
 - `la $d, label`
 - loads a register `$d` with the memory address that `label` corresponds to.
- Usually translated by the assembler into the following two MIPS instructions:
 - **`lui $at, immediate`** # load upper immediate
 - The “**immediate**” represents the **upper 16 bits** of the memory address `label` corresponds to. These bits are loaded in the upper 16 bits of the dest. register. Lowest 16 bits are set to 0.
 - Register `$at` (`$1`) is the register used by the assembler.

Instruction	Opcode/Function	Syntax	Operation
<code>lui</code>	001111	<code>\$t, i</code>	<code>\$t = i << 16</code>

- **`ori $d, $at, immediate2`**
 - “**immediate2**” represents the **lower 16 bits** of the memory address `label` corresponds to.

Another pseudo-instruction example

- Some branch instructions are pseudo-instructions.
 - `bge $s, $t, label`
 - Branch to label iff $\$s \geq \t
 - (comparing register contents).
 - Implemented by using one of comparison instructions followed by `beq` or `bne`.
 - `slt $at, $s, $t` # set `$at` to 1 if $\$s < \t
 - `beq $at, $zero, label` # branch if $\$at == 0$

Recall that the `$at` register is reserved for the assembler.

load_store_example.asm

- Practice with loads and stores!
- Note: `la` is sometimes translated into one instruction instead of two.

- `la $t1, RESULT1`

- `RESULT1` corresponds to address `0x10010000`

```
lui $9, 4097
```

- `la $t5, RESULT2`

- `RESULT2` corresponds to address `0x10010008`

```
lui $1, 4097  
ori $13, $1, 8
```

Arrays and Structs



Arrays!

```
int A[100], B[100];  
for (i=0; i<100; i++) {  
    A[i] = B[i] + 1;  
}
```

- Arrays in assembly language:
 - Arrays are stored in consecutive locations in memory.
 - The address of the array is the address of the array's first element.
 - To access element i of an array, use i to calculate an offset distance. Add that offset to the address of the first element to get the address of the i^{th} element.
 - $\text{offset} = i * \text{the size of a single element}$
 - To operate on array elements, fetch the array values and store them in registers. Operate on them, then store them back into memory.

Translating arrays

```
int A[100], B[100];
for (i=0; i<100; i++) {
    A[i] = B[i] + 1;
}
```

```
.data
A:      .space 400          # array of 100 integers
B:      .word  21:100       # array of 100 integers, all
                             # initialized to value of 21

.text
main:   la $t8, A           # $t8 holds address of A
        la $t9, B           # $t9 holds address of B
        add $t0, $zero, $zero # $t0 holds i = 0
        addi $t1, $zero, 100 # $t1 holds 100
                                # for comparing loop condition

LOOP:   bge $t0, $t1, END    # branch if !(i<100)
shift left by 2 sll $t2, $t0, 2 # $t2 = $t0 * 4 = i * 4 = offset
addr of current add $t3, $t8, $t2 # $t3 = addr(A) + i*4 = addr(A[i])
elem in array   add $t4, $t9, $t2 # $t4 = addr(B) + i*4 = addr(B[i])
load word to reg lw $t5, 0($t4)   # $t5 = B[i]
                addi $t5, $t5, 1   # $t5 = $t5 + 1 = B[i] + 1
                sw $t5, 0($t3)     # A[i] = $t5
UPDATE: addi $t0, $t0, 1         # i++
        j LOOP                  # jump to loop condition check

END:
```

Another translation

```
int A[100], B[100];
for (i=0; i<100; i++) {
    A[i] = B[i] + 1;
}
```

```
.data
A:      .space    400          # array of 100 integers
B:      .word 21:100          # array of 100 integers,
                                # all initialized to 21 decimal.

.text
main:   la $t8, A              # $t8 holds address of A
        la $t9, B              # $t9 holds address of B
        add $t0, $zero, $zero  # $t0 holds 4*i; initially 0
        addi $t1, $zero, 400   # $t1 holds 100*sizeof(int)
                                # so i += 4 during update; representing offset
LOOP:   bge $t0, $t1, END      # branch if $t0 >= 400
        add $t3, $t8, $t0      # $t3 holds addr(A[i])
        add $t4, $t9, $t0      # $t4 holds addr (B[i])
        lw $t5, 0($t4)         # $t5 = B[i]
        addi $t5, $t5, 1       # $t5 = B[i] + 1
        sw $t5, 0($t3)         # A[i] = $t5
        addi $t0, $t0, 4       # update offset in $t0
        j LOOP
END:
```

Example: A struct program

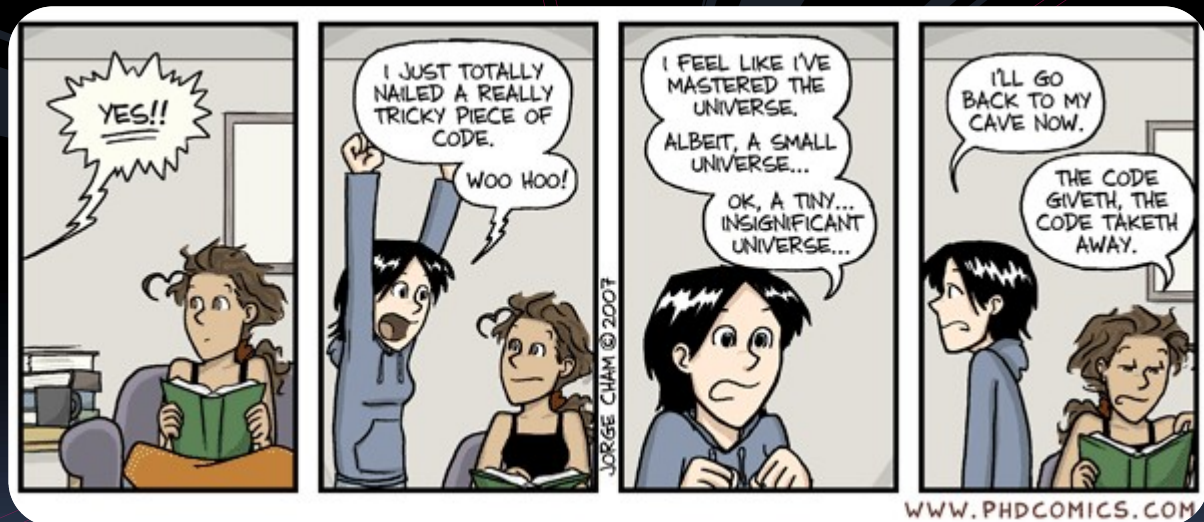
- How can we figure out the main purpose of this code?
- The `sw` lines indicate that values in `$t1` are being stored at `$t0`, `$t0+4` and `$t0+8`.
 - Each previous line sets the value of `$t1` to store.
- Therefore, this code stores the values 5, 13 and -7 into the struct at location `a1`.

```
a1:      .data
        .space 12
        integer array of size 3
        Populates with [5, 13, -7]

main:    .text
        addi    $t0, $zero, a1
        addi    $t1, $zero, 5
        sw      $t1, 0($t0)
        addi    $t1, $zero, 13
        sw      $t1, 4($t0)
        addi    $t1, $zero, -7
        sw      $t1, 8($t0)
```

1111

Designing Assembly Code



Making sense of assembly code

- Assembly language looks intimidating because the programs involve a lot of code.
 - No worse than your CSC108 assignments would look to the untrained eye!
- The key to reading and designing assembly code is recognizing portions of code that represent higher-level operations that you're familiar with.

Example: Array code

- What needs to be done here?

```
int A[100], B[100];  
for (i=0; i<100; i++) {  
    A[i] = B[i] + 1;  
}
```

- **First stage: Initialization**

- Store locations of A[0] and B[0] (in \$t8 and \$t9, for example).
- Create a value for i (\$t0), and set it to zero.
- Create a value to store the max value for i, as a stopping condition (in \$t1, in this case).
- Note: Best to initialize all the registers that you'll need at once, even ones that don't have variable names in the original code.

Example: Array code

■ Second stage: Main algorithm

- Fetch source ($B[i]$).
 - Get the address of $B[i]$ by adding i to the address of $B[0]$ (stored here in $\$t3$).
 - Load the value of $B[i]$ from that memory address (in $\$s4$).
- Ready destination ($A[i]$).
 - Same steps as for $B[i]$, but address is stored in $\$t4$.
- Add 1 to $B[i]$ (storing the result in $\$t6$).
- Store this new value into $A[i]$.
 - Same as fetching a value from memory, but in reverse.
- Increment i to the next offset value.
- Loop to the beginning if i hasn't reached its max value.

```
int A[100], B[100];  
for (i=0; i<100; i++) {  
    A[i] = B[i] + 1;  
}
```

Loop example:

```
int j=0;
for (int i=0; i<50; i++){
    j += i;
}
```



```

                .data
i:              .space      4
j:              .space      4

main:           addi    $t0, $zero, i        # get addr of i
                addi    $t1, $zero, j        # get addr of j
                sw      $zero, 0($t0)        # store 0 in i
initialize memory value
                sw      $zero, 0($t1)        # store 0 in j
                add     $t2, $zero, $zero    # set reg i=0
                add     $t3, $zero, $zero    # set reg j=0
                addi    $t9, $zero, 50       # end: i==50
loop:           beq     $t2, $t9, end        # i==50?
                add     $t3, $t3, $t2       # j = j+i
                addi    $t2, $t2, 1         # i++
                sw      $t2, 0($t0)         # store i
                sw      $t3, 0($t1)         # store j
                j       loop
end:            # do the next thing
```

String function program

```
void strcpy (char x[], char y[]) {  
    int i;  
    i=0;  
    while ((x[i] = y[i]) != '\0')  
        i += 1;  
    return i;  
}
```

- Let's convert this to assembly code!
- Note something new: parameters!
 - Parameters like `x` and `y` are passed to functions through the stack.
 - The pointer to the stack is stored in register `$29` (aka `$sp`), which is the address of *the top element of the stack*.

Converting strcpy()

- **Initialization:**

- What values do we need to store?

- The address of $x[0]$ and $y[0]$
 - The current offset value (i in this case)
 - Temporary values for the address of $x[i]$ and $y[i]$
 - The current value being copied from $y[i]$ to $x[i]$.

```
void strcpy (char x[], char y[]) {  
    int i;  
    i=0;  
    while ((x[i] = y[i]) != '\0')  
        i += 1;  
    return i;  
}
```

Converting strcpy()

- Initialization (cont'd):

- Consider that the locations of `x[0]` and `y[0]` are passed in on the stack, we need to fetch those first.
- Basic code for popping values off the stack:

```
lw      $t0, 0($sp)    # pop that word off the stack
addi    $sp, $sp, 4     # move stack pointer one word
```

- Basic code for pushing values onto the stack:

```
addi    $sp, $sp, -4    # move stack pointer one word
sw      $t0, 0($sp)     # push a word onto the stack
```

Converting strcpy()

- **Main algorithm:**

- What steps do we need to perform?

- Get the location of $x[i]$ and $y[i]$.
- Fetch a character from $y[i]$ and store it in $x[i]$.
- Jump to the end if the character is the null character.
- Otherwise, increment i and jump to the beginning.
- At the end, push i onto the stack and return to the calling program.

```
void strcpy (char x[], char y[]) {  
    int i;  
    i=0;  
    while ((x[i] = y[i]) != '\0')  
        i += 1;  
    return i;  
}
```

Translated string program

```
strcpy:      lw      $a0, 0($sp)           # pop x address
              addi    $sp, $sp, 4          # off the stack
              lw      $a1, 0($sp)         # pop y address
              addi    $sp, $sp, 4          # off the stack
              add     $s0, $zero, $zero   # $s0 = offset i
L1:          add     $t1, $s0, $a0         # $t1 = x + i
              lb      $t2, 0($t1)         # $t2 = x[i]
              add     $t3, $s0, $a1       # $t3 = y + i
main algorithm { sb      $t2, 0($t3)       # y[i] = $t2
                beq    $t2, $zero, L2      # y[i] = '\0'?
                addi   $s0, $s0, 1         # i++
                j      L1                  # loop
L2:          end { addi   $sp, $sp, -4      # push i onto
                sw     $s0, 0($sp)         # top of stack
                jr      $ra                # return
```

subroutine finished. jump to register set before by jal

Functions in Assembly

We need to calculate the total price.
The sales tax rate is 8.65 %
Your program needs to multiply the purchase price by the tax rate, and then add the results and the price and store them in the total price field.

I need to know:

- What is the op-code to load from memory?
- Where is the purchase price stored in memory?
- What is the op-code to multiply?
- What do I multiply by?
- What is the op-code to add two values?
- What is the op-code to store a value in memory?

I need to:

- Load the purchase price
- Multiply by the sales tax
- Add result and purchase price
- Store final result in total price

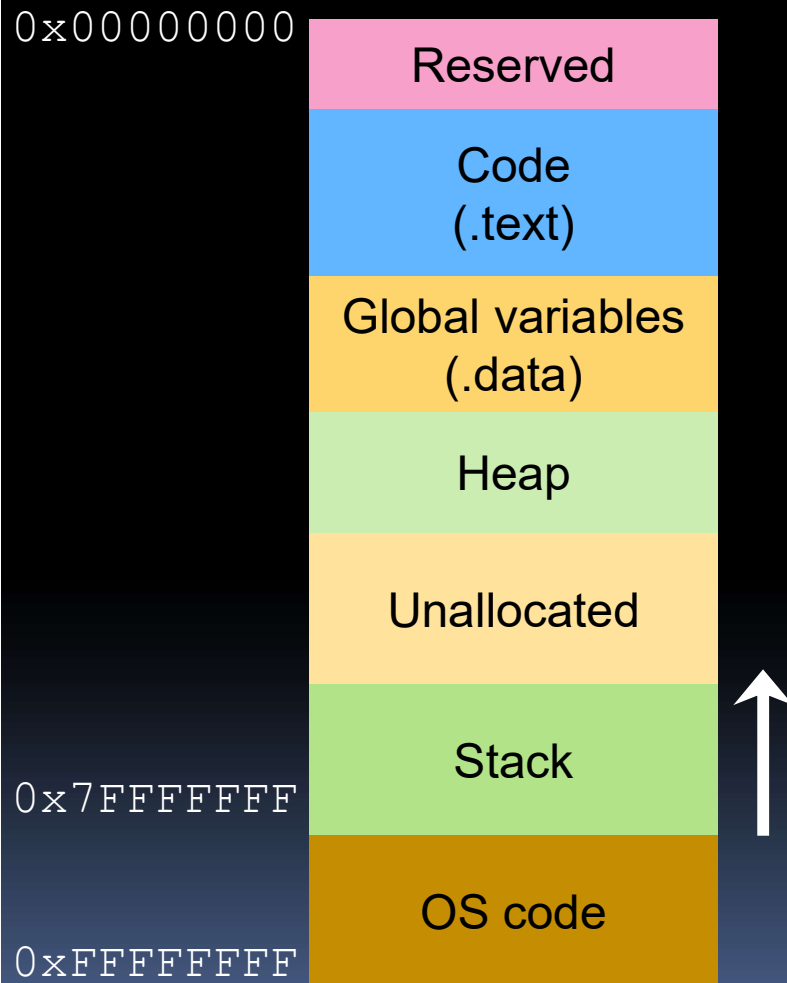
Machine Language	
0AEP:0220	00 02 8B 76 02 38 1C 74 45
0AEP:0230	83 3A 38 5C 7E 32 0B 86 1C
0AEP:0240	E8 39 EB 3B D6 F2 AC E8 B2
0AEP:0250	E1 74 09 AC 3B 3B F1 72 ED
0AEP:0260	59 5E 3A 5C FF 1C 73 95 E8
0AEP:0270	9B DA E9 C9 D7 46 01 0C B8
-d	
0AEP:0300	80 3E F0 97 01 01 AC E8 58
0AEP:0310	01 89 3E 32 99 00 89 3E 32
0AEP:0320	99 C6 06 34 99 1D E8 8F E3
0AEP:0330	75 18 50 A0 12 3A E8 29 01
0AEP:0340	58 89 3E 32 99 E0 74 06 E8
0AEP:0350	17 01 AC EB 78 E8 CE 10 3C
0AEP:0360	2E 75 09 FE 06 3C 3F 75 03
0AEP:0370	80 CF 02 3C 2A 6E 99 00 75

Program Entered
And Executed As
Machine Language

Functions!

- To support functions we need to be able to
 - **communicate function arguments and return values**
 - We'll use some registers and also the stack for this (stack is part of the memory)
 - **store variables local to that function** and also ensure functions **don't clobber useful data on registers**
 - Stack will come to our rescue once more! And calling conventions too 😊
 - **return to the calling site** (i.e., after the return statement execute the instruction after the one that did the function call)

The programmer's view of memory



- Stack is a part of memory used for function calls etc.
- The **stack grows towards smaller (lower) addresses** (see arrow).
- The stack uses **LIFO (last-in first-out) order**. Think of it as a stack of plates.

The Stack and the Stack Pointer

- A special register, the **stack pointer**, points to the *the last element pushed to the top of the stack*.
 - For MIPS the stack pointer is $\$29$ ($\$sp$). This **holds the address of the last element pushed to the top of the stack**
 - In other systems $\$sp$ could point to the **first empty location on top of the stack**.
- We can push data to the stack (which will make the stack grow) and pop data from the stack (which will make it shrink).
- As the stack grows towards smaller addresses there is the risk of going beyond its predefined size and/or overlapping with the heap.



Common Calling Conventions

- A reminder about registers:
 - Registers 2–3 (\$v0, \$v1): return values
 - Registers 4–7 (\$a0-\$a3): function arguments
- If your function has up to 4 arguments, use the \$a0 to \$a3 registers in that order. For more, push them to the stack.
 - First argument in \$a0, second in \$a1, and so on.
 - Another convention is to just **push all arguments to the stack**. On a final exam, we'll tell you what to do.

Common Calling Conventions

- **Caller vs. Callee**

- Caller is the function calling another function.
- Callee is the function being called.

A function can be both a caller and a callee.

- **Caller-Saved registers**

- Registers 8–15, 24–25 (\$t0-\$t9): temporaries
- **Registers that the caller should save** to the stack before calling a function. If they don't save them, there is no guarantee the contents of these registers will not be clobbered.

- **Callee-Saved registers**

- Registers 16-23 (\$s0-\$s7): saved temporaries
- **It is the responsibility of the callee to save these registers** if it's going to modify them.

How do we call a function?

- `jal FUNCTION_LABEL`

- This happens after we've set the appropriate values to `$a0-$a3` registers and/or pushed arguments to the stack.

```
...  
sum = 3;  
function_X(sum);  
sum = 5;
```

- `jal` is a J-Type instruction.

- It updates register `$31` (`$ra`, return address register) and also the Program Counter.
- After it's executed, `$ra` contains the address of the instruction *after* the line that called `jal`.

How do we return from a function?

- `jr $ra`
 - The PC is set to the address in `$ra`.
- But how do we know what's in `$ra`?
 - `$ra` was set by the most recent `jal instruction` (function call)!

```
...  
sum = 3;  
function_X(sum);  
sum = 5;
```

```
void function_X (int sum) {  
    //do something  
    return;  
}
```

Function Calls – Cont'd

```
...  
sum = 3;  
function_X(sum);  
sum = 5;
```

(1) jal FUNCTION_X
\$ra set to PC of the next instruction

(4) Execution
continues
here

(2) Execution continues
from here

```
void function_X (int sum) {  
  
    //do something  
  
    return;  
}
```

(3) jr \$ra

Function example! (functions_ex1.asm)

```
.data
RESULT: .word 0

.text
main:  addi $t1, $zero, 20  # Simple demo for our
      addi $t2, $zero, 40  # function call arguments
```

What should I do before calling sum_function w/ arguments 20 and 40?

set arguments

```
jal sum_function # call the function
```

How can I store the return value in the memory location indicated by the label RESULT?

la \$t3, RESULT

lw \$v0, 0(\$t3)

```
END:   j END  # Just added this here to show we're done.
```

sum_function: Simple function. Add 2 numbers (values of the parameters) and return the result. How do we make this happen?

add \$v0, \$a0, \$a1

jr \$ra

Function example! (functions_ex1.asm)

```
.data
RESULT: .word 0

.text
main:  addi $t1, $zero, 20  # Simple demo for our
      addi $t2, $zero, 40  # function call arguments
      add $a0, $t1, $zero  # Place arguments to $a0, $a1.
      add $a1, $t2, $zero  # (as per convention)
      jal sum_function # call the function

      la $t3, RESULT      # store returned value to memory.
      sw $v0, 0($t3)
END:   j END  # Just added this here to show we're done.

sum_function:  add $v0, $a0, $a1
              jr $ra
```

But what if I have nested function calls?

```
...  
sum = 3;  
function_X(sum);  
sum += 5;
```

(1) jal FUNCTION_X
\$ra set to PC of the next instruction.

(2) Execution continues
from here

```
void function_X (int sum) {
```

```
//do something  
function_Y();
```

```
return;
```

```
}
```

(3) jal FUNCTION_Y
\$ra set to PC of
next instr

(4) Execution continues
from here

```
void function_Y () {
```

```
//do something
```

```
return;
```

(5) jr \$ra

(6) Execution
jr \$ra

Which \$ra?
No way back! ☹

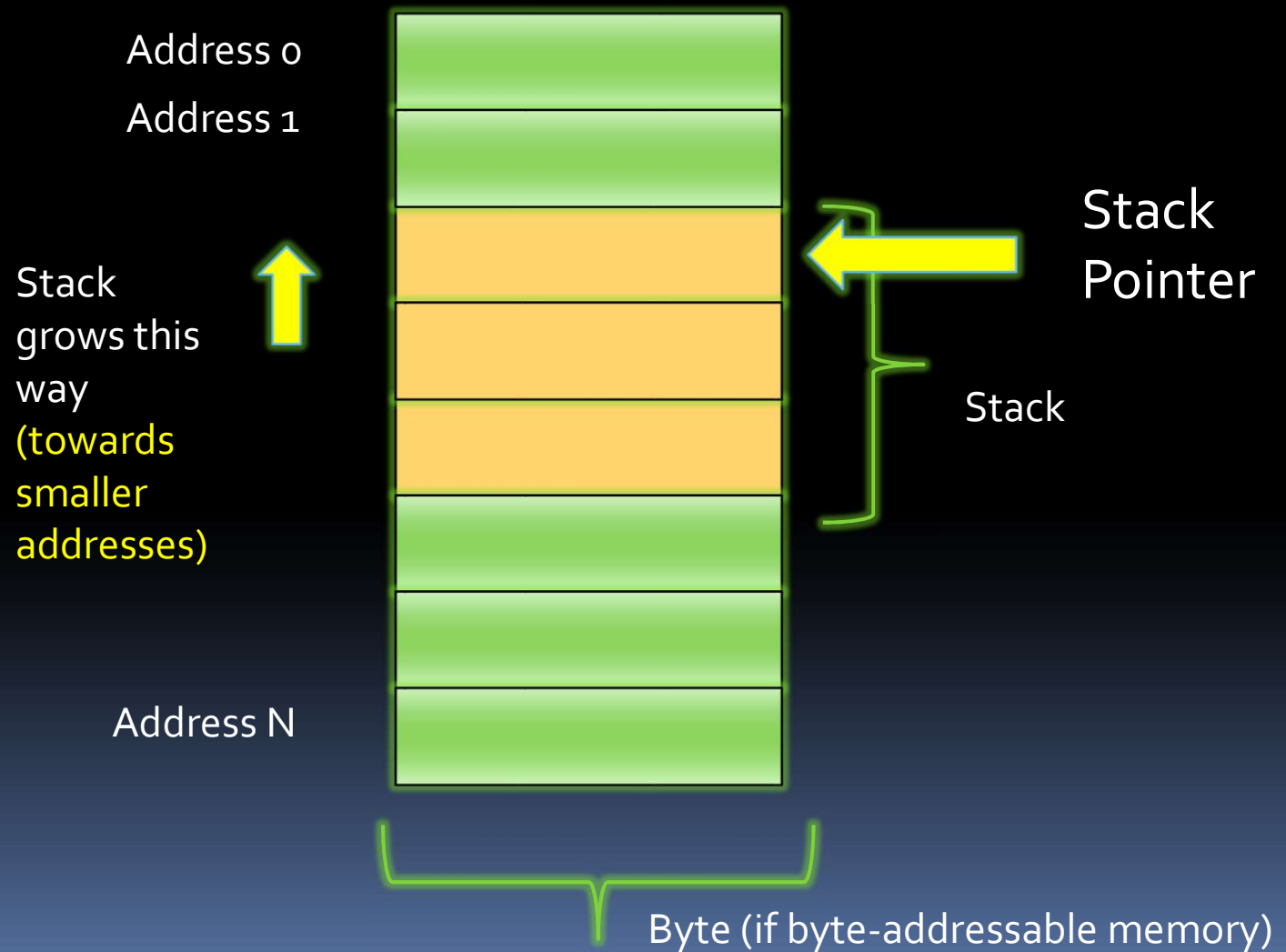
The stack to the rescue!

- Store `$ra` in the stack.
 - Different versions of `$ra` will exist in the stack
- We can also use the stack to store*:
 - Function arguments
 - Function return values
 - And also to maintain register values (more on this later).

* As mentioned before there are some predefined registers used for the function arguments and return values; the stack is used if this number is exceeded.

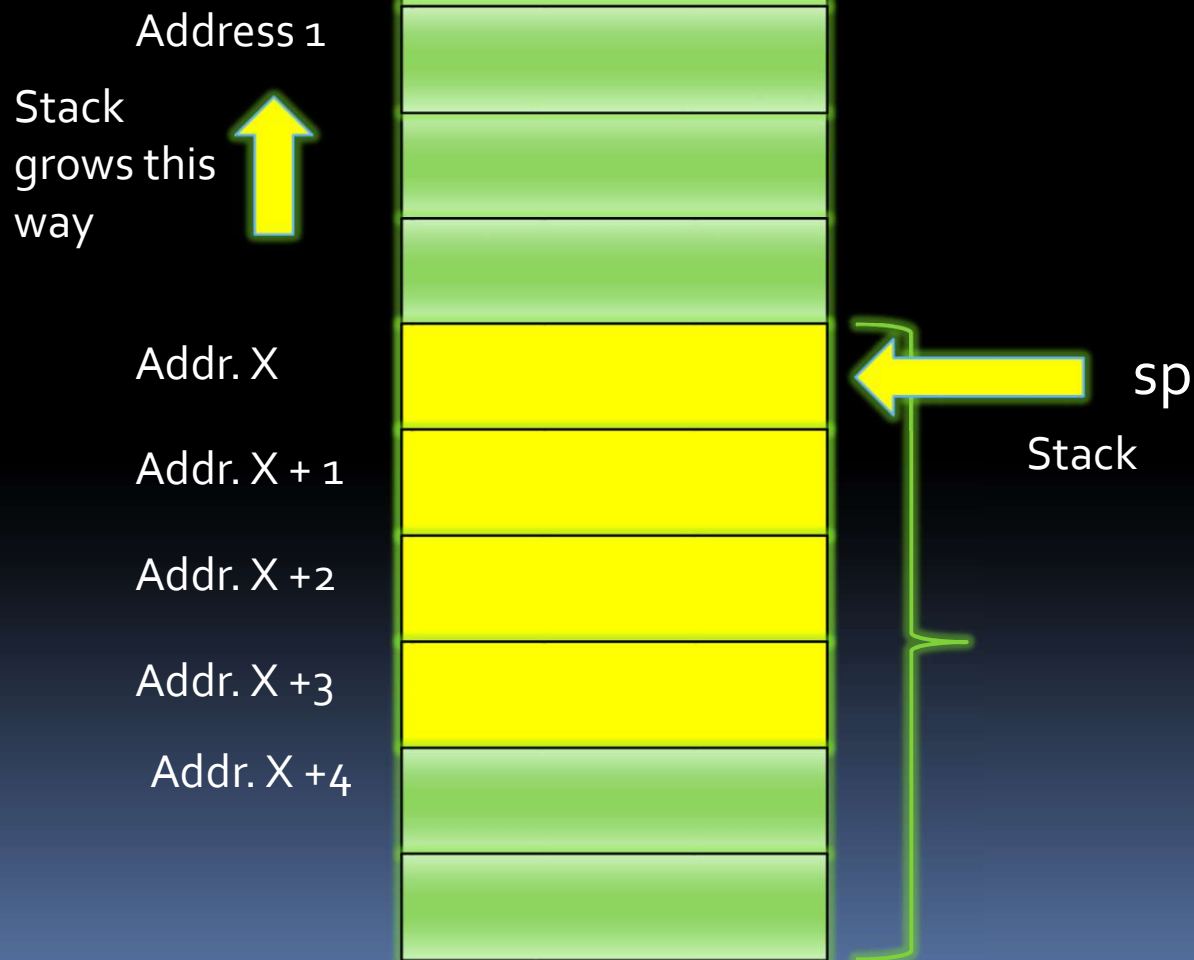
- E.g., if there are more than 4 arguments.

The Stack



Popping Values off the stack - Before

```
lw    $t0, 0($sp) # pop that word off the stack
addi  $sp, $sp, 4  # move stack pointer one word
```

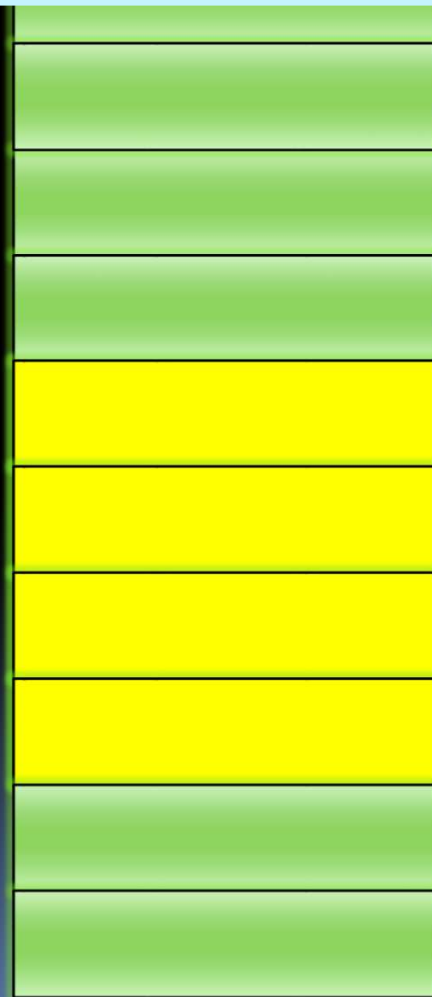


Popping Values off the stack - After

```
lw    $t0, 0($sp) # pop that word off the stack
addi  $sp, $sp, 4  # move stack pointer one word
```

Address 1
Stack
grows this
way

Addr. X
Addr. X + 1
Addr. X + 2
Addr. X + 3
Addr. X + 4

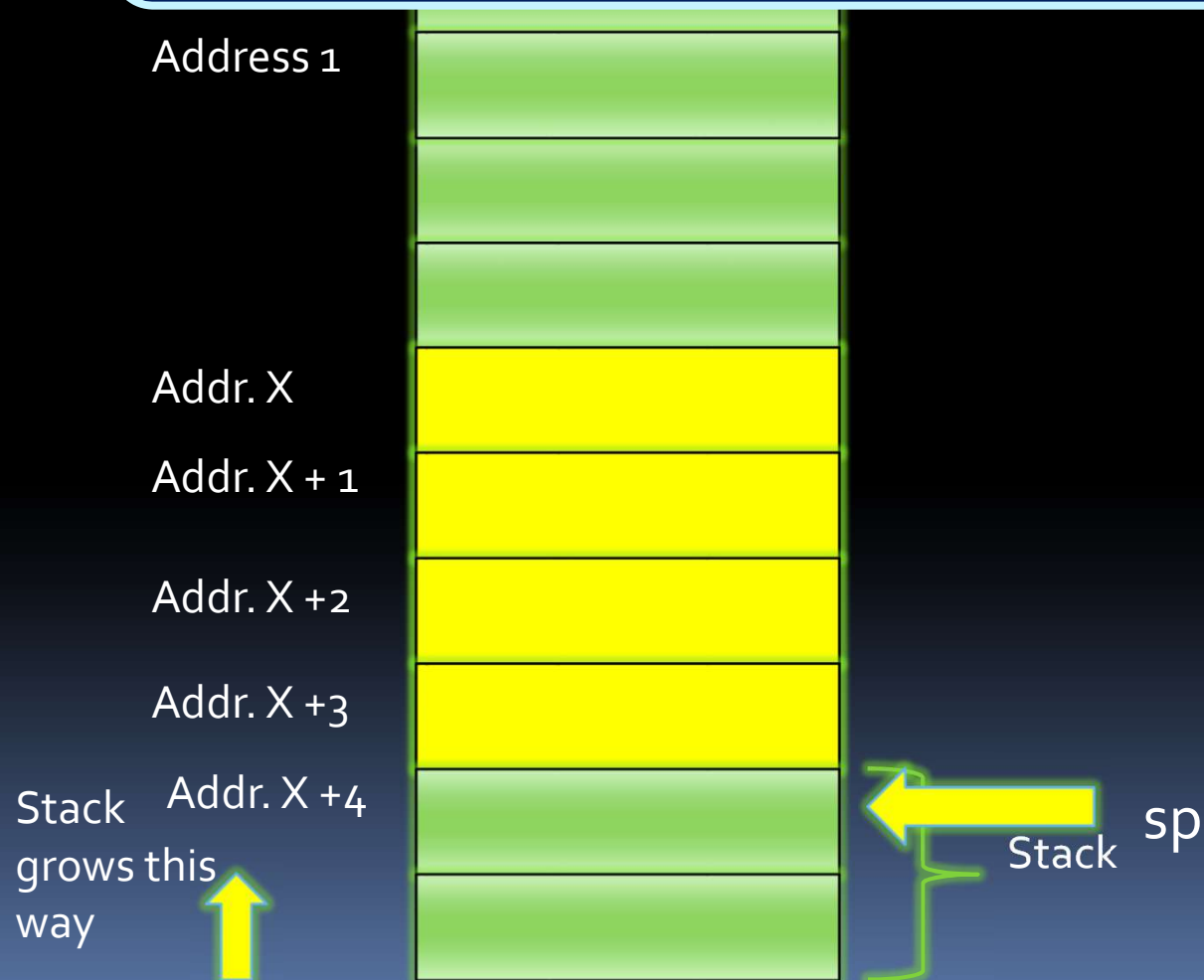


Just popped
a 32-bit value
(4 bytes)
from the stack

sp
Stack

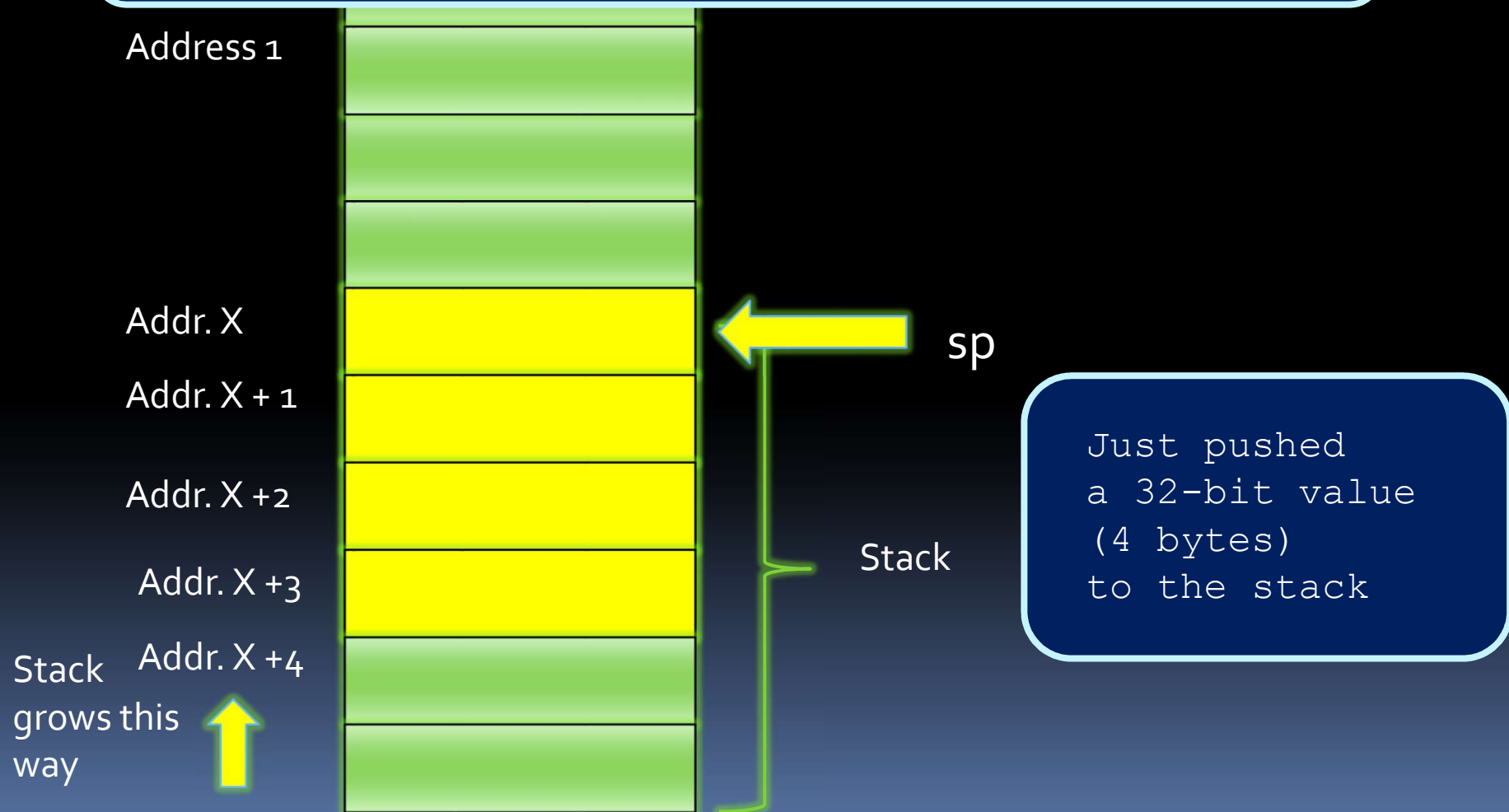
Pushing Values to the stack - Before

```
addi    $sp, $sp, -4 # move stack pointer one word  
sw      $t0, 0($sp)  # push a word onto the stack
```



Pushing Values to the stack - After

```
addi    $sp, $sp, -4 # move stack pointer one word  
sw      $t0, 0($sp)  # push a word onto the stack
```



Stack Usage

- **Pushing something onto the stack**
 - Allocate space by decrementing the stack pointer by the appropriate number of bytes.
 - Do a store (or multiple stores as needed).
- **Popping something from the stack:**
 - Do a load (or multiple loads as needed)
 - De-allocate space by incrementing the stack pointer by the appropriate number of bytes.

More advice on using the stack

- Any space you allocate on the stack, you should later de-allocate.
- You should pop the items in the same order as you push them.
 - It might help to draw out an image of how your stack will look like.
- When pushing more than one item onto the stack, you can :
 - Either allocate all the space in the beginning
 - Or allocate space as you go.
 - Same for popping.

Let's do an example.

- Push contents of registers `$t0` and `$t1` onto the stack.

```
addi $sp, $sp, -8  
sw $t0, 0($sp)  
sw $t1, 4($sp)
```

Note how first element pushed onto stack is at the top
the second element pushed onto stack is below the top element

- Restore stack values pushed to registers `$t0` and `$t1`.

```
lw $t0, 0($sp)  
lw $t1, 4($sp)  
addi $sp, $sp, 8
```

Address X

Address X+1

sp

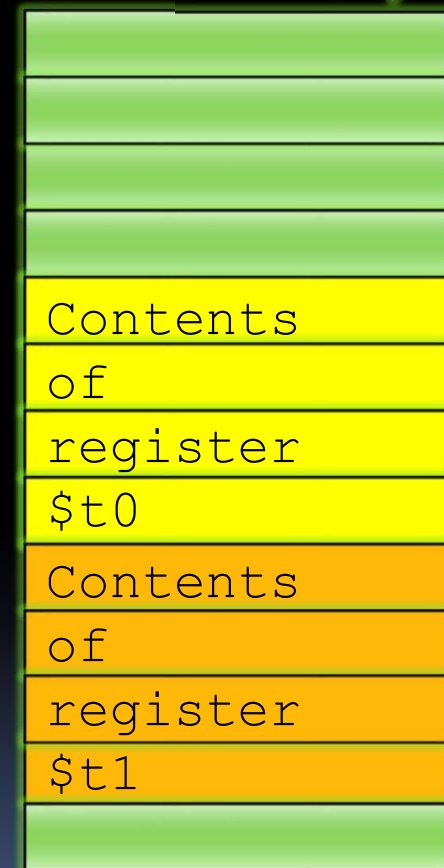


Figure shows
stack *after*
the push.

Alternative implementation

- Push contents of registers `$t0` and `$t1` onto the stack.

```
addi $sp, $sp, -8
sw $t0, 0($sp)
sw $t1, 4($sp)
```

```
# Alternative
addi $sp, $sp, -4
sw $t0, 0($sp)
addi $sp, $sp, -4
sw $t1, 0($sp)
```

- Are these two code snippets equivalent?
 - What is the element at the top of the stack (i.e., the element that `$sp` points to)?
 - `$t0` for the original code snippet
 - `$t1` for the alternative implementation
 - So the two code snippets are NOT equivalent from the perspective of what is on the stack.

The fixed alternative version

- Push contents of registers `$t0` and `$t1` onto the stack.

```
addi $sp, $sp, -8
sw $t0, 0($sp)
sw $t1, 4($sp)
```

```
# Alternative
addi $sp, $sp, -4
sw $t1, 0($sp)
addi $sp, $sp, -4
sw $t0, 0($sp)
```

- Restore values pushed to the stack to registers `$t0` and `$t1`.

```
lw $t0, 0($sp)
lw $t1, 4($sp)
addi $sp, $sp, 8
```

```
# Alternative
lw $t0, 0($sp)
addi $sp, $sp, 4
lw $t1, 0($sp)
addi $sp, $sp, 4
```

Function Calls Recap

- How do I call a function?
 - `jal FUNCTION_LABEL`
 - Which register does `jal` set? To what value?
sets `$ra` to next line of PC
- How do I return from a function?
 - `jr $ra`
 - But what if I have nested calls? Won't `$ra` get overwritten?
 - Yes. You need to push it to the stack! And then restore it.

Maintaining register values

- We've already demonstrated why we'd need to push `$ra` onto the stack when having nested function calls.
- But how about the other registers?
 - How do we know that a function we called didn't overwrite registers that we were using?
 - Remember there is only one register file!

Here's where the **caller vs. callee calling conventions** come in handy!

Caller vs. Callee Calling Conventions

A function can be both a caller and a callee.

- **Caller vs. Callee**
 - Caller is the function calling another function.
 - Callee is the function being called.
- We separate registers into:
 - **Caller-Saved registers** (\$t0–\$t9)
 - **Callee-Saved registers** (\$s0–\$s7)

Caller-Saved vs. Callee-Saved Registers

Push them to the stack just before you call another function and restore them immediately after.

- **Caller-Saved registers**
 - Registers 8–15, 24–25 (\$t0–\$t9): temporaries
 - **Registers that the caller should save** to the stack before calling a function. If they don't save them, there is no guarantee the contents of these registers will not be clobbered.
- **Callee-Saved registers**
 - Registers 16–23 (\$s0–\$s7): saved temporaries
 - **It is the responsibility of the callee to save these registers and later restore them**, if it's going to modify them.
 - Push them to the stack first thing in your function body and restore them just before you return!

Caller-Saved (\$t0-\$t9) vs. Callee-Saved (\$s0-\$s7) Registers

- A function (or code) that is a **caller**
 - **Using \$t0-\$t9 and you care for their values?**
 - Push them to the stack just before you make a function call and restore them immediately after the calling site.
 - **Using \$s0-\$s7?**
 - No action needed. It is the responsibility of the callee to ensure these registers are not modified.
- A function that is a **callee**
 - **Using \$t0-\$t9?**
 - No action needed. It is the responsibility of the caller to ensure these registers are not modified.
 - **Using \$s0-\$s7?**
 - You need to ensure these registers are not modified.
 - If you plan to modify them, push them to the stack in the beginning of your function and restore them in the very end just before the `jr $ra`.

Note: If a function is both a caller and a callee, it will fall under both categories.

register_saving.asm (a template)

- Let's go over this template first before we start talking about recursion!
- Note a recursive function (i.e., a function that calls itself) is both a caller and a callee.
 - Functions that call other functions are also both a caller and a callee.

Recursion in Assembly



Example: factorial(int n)

- Basic pseudocode for recursive factorial:

- Base Case ($n == 0$)
 - return 1
- Get factorial($n-1$)
 - Store result in "product"
- Multiply product by n
 - Store in "result"
- Return result



$n!$

Recursive programs

- How do we handle recursive programs?

- Still needs base case and recursive step, as with other languages.

```
int factorial (int x) {  
    if (x==0)  
        return 1;  
    else  
        return x*fact(x-1);  
}
```

- Main difference: Maintaining register values.
 - When a recursive function calls itself in assembly, it calls `jal` back to the beginning of the program.
 - What happens to the previous value for `$ra`?
 - What happens to the previous register values, when the program runs a second time?

Recursive programs

- Solution: the stack!

- Before recursive call, store the register values that you use onto the stack, and restore them when you come back to that point.
- Don't forget to store \$ra as one of those values, or else the program will loop forever!

```
int factorial (int x) {  
    if (x==0)  
        return 1;  
    else  
        return x*fact(x-1);  
}
```


Factorial solution

- Steps to perform:

- Pop x off the stack.

- Check if x is zero:

- If $x == 0$, push 1 onto the stack and return to the calling program.
 - If $x \neq 0$, push $x - 1$ onto the stack and call factorial again (i.e. jump to the beginning of the code).
 - After recursive call, pop result off of stack and multiply that value by x .
 - Push result onto stack, and return to calling program.

```
int factorial (int x) {  
    if (x==0)  
        return 1;  
    else  
        return x*fact(x-1);  
}
```

Pseudocode

- Pop n off the stack
 - Store in $\$to$
- If $\$to == 0$,
 - Push 1 onto stack
 - Return to calling program
- If $\$to \neq 0$,
 - Calculate $n-1$
 - Store $\$to$ and $\$ra$ onto stack
 - Push $n-1$ onto stack
 - Call factorial

 - ...time passes...
 - Pop the result of factorial ($n-1$) from stack, store in $\$t2$
 - Restore $\$ra$ and $\$to$ from stack
 - Multiply factorial ($n-1$) and n
 - Push result onto stack
 - Return to calling program

$n \rightarrow \$to$

$n-1 \rightarrow \$t1$

$\text{fact}(n-1) \rightarrow \$t2$

caller-saved register here: save to stack before
function call and restore immediately after

Translated recursive program (part 1)

$\$t0 \leftarrow n$
 $\$t1 \leftarrow n-1$
 $\$t2 \leftarrow \text{fact}(n-1)$

```
main:      addi    $t0, $zero, 10      # call fact(10)
           addi    $sp, $sp, -4        # by putting 10
           sw      $t0, 0($sp)         # onto stack
           jal     factorial           # result will be
           ...                          # on the stack
```

Note \$sp is not increment here, since always push result onto stack before function returns

```
factorial: lw      $t0, 0($sp)         # get x from stack
           bne     $t0, $zero, rec     # base case?
base:      addi    $t1, $zero, 1       # put return value
           sw      $t1, 0($sp)         # onto stack
           jr      $ra                 # return to caller
rec:       addi    $t1, $t0, -1        # x--
           addi    $sp, $sp, -4        # put $ra value
           sw      $ra, 0($sp)         # onto stack
           addi    $sp, $sp, -4        # put x-1 on stack
           sw      $t1, 0($sp)         # for rec call
           jal     factorial           # recursive call
```

Store
caller-saved register

Translated recursive program (part 2)

(continued from part 1 - returning from recursive call)

Load
caller-saved register
after function call

```
lw    $t2, 0($sp)    # get return value
addi  $sp, $sp, 4     #   from stack
lw    $ra, 0($sp)     # restore return
addi  $sp, $sp, 4     #   address value
```

after popping result,
\$ra, is the current x
on top of stack

```
lw    $t0, 0($sp)    # restore x value
addi  $sp, $sp, 4     #   for this call
mult  $t0, $t2        # x*fact(x-1)
mflo  $v0            # fetch product
addi  $sp, $sp, -4    # push n! result
sw    $v0, 0($sp)     #   onto stack
jr    $ra            # return to caller
```

- Remember: `jal` always stores the next address location into `$ra`, and `jr` returns to that address.

Factorial stack view



A note on interrupts

- **Interrupts** take place when an external event requires a change in execution.
 - Example: arithmetic overflow, system calls (`syscall`), undefined instructions.
 - Usually signaled by an external input wire, which is checked at the end of each instruction.



A note on interrupts

- Interrupts can be handled in two general ways:
 - **Polled handling**: The processor branches to the address of interrupt handling code, which begins a sequence of instructions that check the cause of the exception. This branches to handler code sections, depending on the type of exception encountered.
 - This is what MIPS uses.
 - **Vectored handling**: The processor can branch to a different address for each type of exception. Each exception address is separated by only one word. A jump instruction is placed at each of these addresses for the handler code for that exception.

Interrupt handling

- In the case of polled interrupt handling, the processor jumps to exception handler code, based on the value in the **cause register** (see table).
 - If the original program can resume afterwards, this interrupt handler returns to program by calling `rfe` instruction.
 - Otherwise, the stack contents are dumped and execution will continue elsewhere.

0 (INT)	external interrupt.
4 (ADDRL)	address error exception (load or fetch)
5 (ADDRS)	address error exception (store).
6 (IBUS)	bus error on instruction fetch.
7 (DBUS)	bus error on data fetch
8 (Syscall)	Syscall exception
9 (BKPT)	Breakpoint exception
10 (RI)	Reserved Instruction exception
12 (OVF)	Arithmetic overflow exception