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UCB CS61C : Machine Structures

**Lecture 11 – Introduction to MIPS
Procedures II & Logical Ops**

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STUDENTS SAVED BY STRESS-DETECTION APP

Students at Dartmouth allowed researchers to silently measure their stress level (via noting their irregular sleep patterns, reduced social activity (calls, and social networking). Two students who exhibited high stress levels were allowed to get incompletes, since the researchers noted their stress was too high.



Review

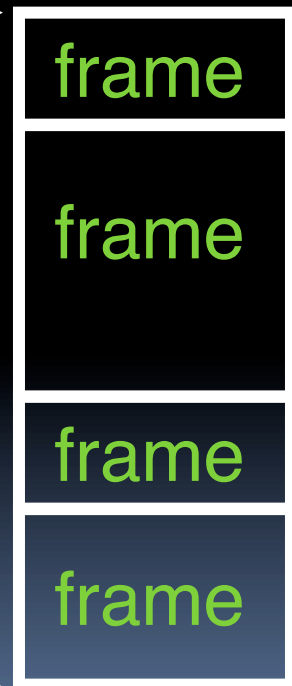
- Functions called with **jal**, return with **jr \$ra**.
- The stack is your friend: Use it to save anything you need. Just leave it the way you found it!
- Instructions we know so far...
 - Arithmetic: **add, addi, sub, addu, addiu, subu**
 - Memory: **lw, sw, lb, sb**
 - Decision: **beq, bne, slt, slti, sltu, sltiu**
 - Unconditional Branches (Jumps): **j, jal, jr**
- Registers we know so far
 - All of them!
 - There are CONVENTIONS when calling procedures!



The Stack (review)

- Stack frame includes:
 - Return “instruction” address
 - Parameters
 - Space for other local variables
- Stack frames contiguous blocks of memory; stack pointer tells where bottom of stack frame is
- When procedure ends, stack frame is tossed off the stack; frees memory for future stack frames

0xFFFFFFFF →



\$sp →



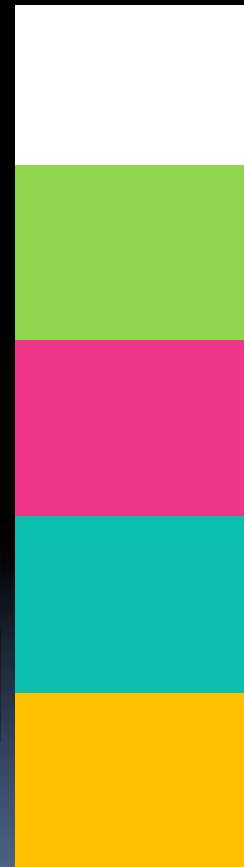
Stack

- Last In, First Out (LIFO) data structure

```
main ()
{ a(0);
}
void a (int m)
{ b(1);
}
void b (int n)
{ c(2);
}
void c (int o)
{ d(3);
}
void d (int p)
{
}
```

Stack Pointer →

stack



Stack
grows
down

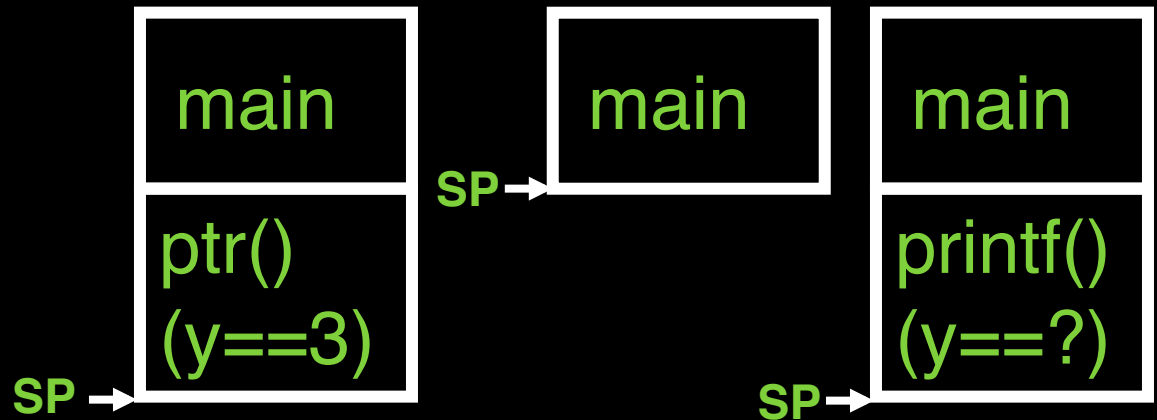


Who cares about stack management?

- Pointers in C allow access to deallocated memory, leading to hard-to-find bugs !

```
int *ptr () {  
    int y;  
    y = 3;  
    return &y; }  
main () {
```

```
    int *stackAddr, content;  
    stackAddr = ptr();  
    content = *stackAddr;  
    printf("%d", content); /* 3 */  
    content = *stackAddr;  
    printf("%d", content); } /* 13451514 */
```



Memory Management

- How do we manage memory?
- **Code, Static storage are easy:**
they never grow or shrink
- **Stack space is also easy:**
stack frames are created and destroyed in last-in, first-out (LIFO) order
- **Managing the heap is tricky:**
memory can be allocated / deallocated at any time



Heap Management Requirements

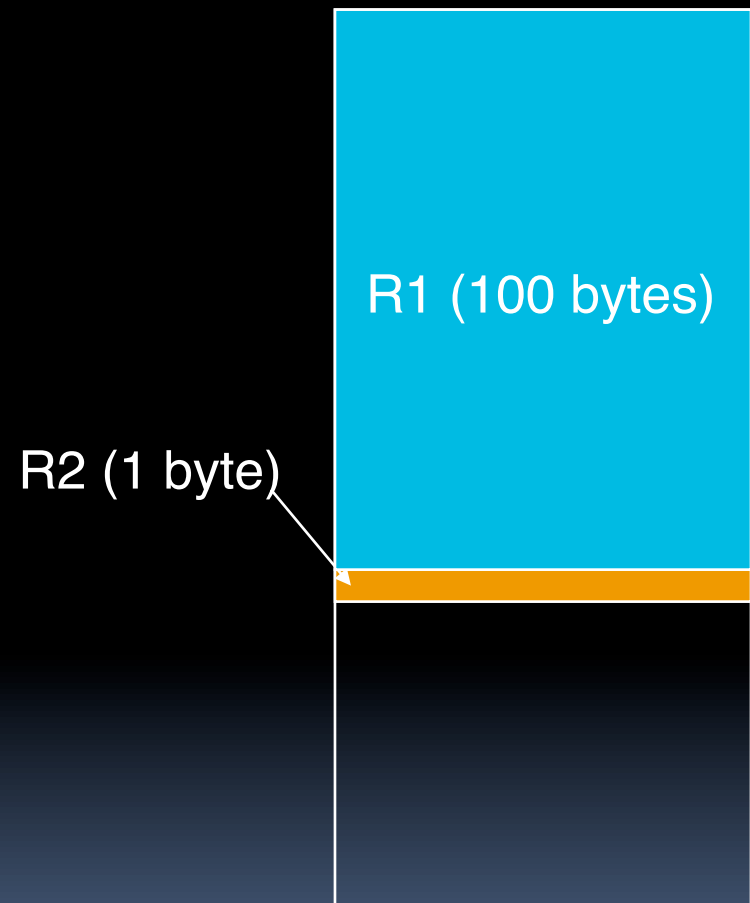
- Want `malloc()` and `free()` to run quickly.
- Want minimal memory overhead
- Want to avoid *fragmentation** –
when most of our free memory is in many small chunks
 - In this case, we might have many free bytes but not be able to satisfy a large request since the free bytes are not contiguous in memory.

* This is technically called *external fragmentation*



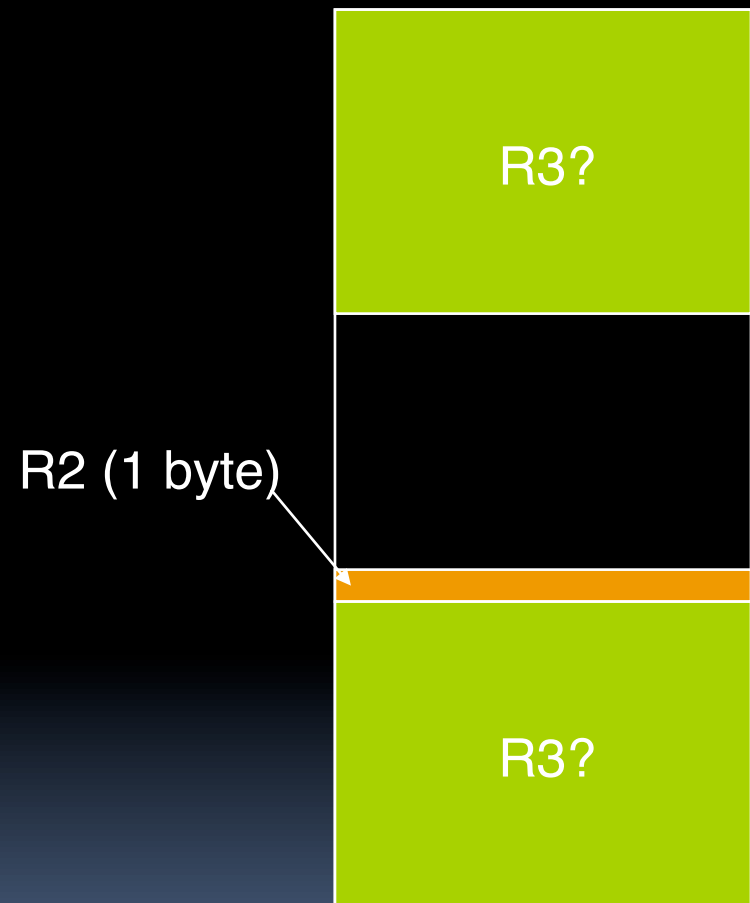
Heap Management

- An example
 - Request R1 for 100 bytes
 - Request R2 for 1 byte
 - Memory from R1 is freed
 - Request R3 for 50 bytes



Heap Management

- An example
 - Request R1 for 100 bytes
 - Request R2 for 1 byte
 - Memory from R1 is freed
 - Memory has become fragmented!
 - We have to keep track of the two *freespace* regions
 - Request R3 for 50 bytes
 - We have to search the data structures holding the freespace to find one that will fit! Choice here...



Administrivia

- Project update
 - Quick Peer Instruction question: how are you doing the project (1b)?
 - a) [0, 20%) done
 - b) [20, 40%) done
 - c) [40, 60%) done
 - d) [60, 80%) done
 - e) [80, 100%] done
- TAs, anything?



Register Conventions (1/4)

- CallerR: the calling function
- CallerE: the function being called
- When callee returns from executing, the caller needs to know which registers may have changed and which are guaranteed to be unchanged.
- **Register Conventions**: A set of generally accepted rules as to which registers will be unchanged after a procedure call (**jal**) and which may be changed.



Register Conventions (2/4) – saved

- **\$0**: No Change. Always 0.
- **\$s0-\$s7**: Restore if you change. Very important, that's why they're called saved registers. If the callee changes these in any way, it must restore the original values before returning.
- **\$sp**: Restore if you change. The stack pointer must point to the same place before and after the **jal** call, or else the caller won't be able to restore values from the stack.
- HINT -- All saved registers start with **S**!



Register Conventions (2/4) – volatile

- **\$ra**: Can Change. The `jal` call itself will change this register. Caller needs to save on stack if nested call.
- **\$v0-\$v1**: Can Change. These will contain the new returned values.
- **\$a0-\$a3**: Can change. These are volatile argument registers. Caller needs to save if they are needed after the call.
- **\$t0-\$t9**: Can change. That's why they're called temporary: any procedure may change them at any time. Caller needs to save if they'll need them afterwards.



Register Conventions (4/4)

- What do these conventions mean?
 - If function **R** calls function **E**, then function **R** must save any temporary registers that it may be using onto the stack before making a **jal** call.
 - Function **E** must save any **S** (saved) registers it intends to use before garbling up their values, and restore them after done garbling
- Remember: caller/callee need to save only temporary/saved registers **they are using**, not all registers.



Peer Instruction

```
r:  ...      # R/W $s0,$v0,$t0,$a0,$sp,$ra,mem
      ...      ### PUSH REGISTER(S) TO STACK?
      jal e    # Call e
      ...      # R/W $s0,$v0,$t0,$a0,$sp,$ra,mem
      jr $ra   # Return to caller of r

e:  ...      # R/W $s0,$v0,$t0,$a0,$sp,$ra,mem
      jr $ra   # Return to r
```

What does **r** have to push on the stack before "**jal e**"?

- a) 1 of (\$s0, \$sp, \$v0, \$t0, \$a0, \$ra)
- b) 2 of (\$s0, \$sp, \$v0, \$t0, \$a0, \$ra)
- c) 3 of (\$s0, \$sp, \$v0, \$t0, \$a0, \$ra)
- d) 4 of (\$s0, \$sp, \$v0, \$t0, \$a0, \$ra)
- e) 5 of (\$s0, \$sp, \$v0, \$t0, \$a0, \$ra)



Peer Instruction Answer

```
r:  ...      # R/W $s0,$v0,$t0,$a0,$sp,$ra,mem
      ...      ### PUSH REGISTER(S) TO STACK?
      jal e    # Call e
      ...      # R/W $s0,$v0,$t0,$a0,$sp,$ra,mem
      jr $ra   # Return to caller of r

e:  ...      # R/W $s0,$v0,$t0,$a0,$sp,$ra,mem
      jr $ra   # Return to r
```

What does **r** have to push on the stack before "jal e"?

Saved Volatile! -- need to push

- a) 1 of (\$s0, \$sp, \$v0, \$t0, \$a0, \$ra)
- b) 2 of (\$s0, \$sp, \$v0, \$t0, \$a0, \$ra)
- c) 3 of (\$s0, \$sp, \$v0, \$t0, \$a0, \$ra)
- ☺ d) 4 of (\$s0, \$sp, \$v0, \$t0, \$a0, \$ra)
- e) 5 of (\$s0, \$sp, \$v0, \$t0, \$a0, \$ra)



“And in Conclusion...”

- **Register Conventions:** Each register has a purpose and limits to its usage. Learn these and follow them, even if you're writing all the code yourself.
- Logical and Shift Instructions
 - Operate on bits individually, unlike arithmetic, which operate on entire word.
 - Use to isolate fields, either by masking or by shifting back and forth.
 - Use shift left logical, **sll**, for multiplication by powers of 2
 - Use shift right logical, **srl**, for division by powers of 2 of unsigned numbers (**unsigned int**)
 - Use shift right arithmetic, **sra**, for division by powers of 2 of signed numbers (**int**)
- New Instructions:



and, andi, or, ori, sll, srl, sra

Bonus slides

- These are extra slides that used to be included in lecture notes, but have been moved to this, the “bonus” area to serve as a supplement.
- The slides will appear in the order they would have in the normal presentation

Bonus



Bitwise Operations

- So far, we've done arithmetic (**add**, **sub**, **addi**), mem access (**lw** and **sw**), & branches and jumps.
- All of these instructions view contents of register as a single quantity (e.g., signed or unsigned int)
- **New Perspective**: View register as 32 raw bits rather than as a single 32-bit number
 - Since registers are composed of 32 bits, wish to access individual bits (or groups of bits) rather than the whole.
- Introduce two new classes of instructions
 - Logical & Shift Ops



Logical Operators (1/3)

- Two basic logical operators:
 - AND: outputs 1 only if **all** inputs are 1
 - OR: outputs 1 if **at least one** input is 1
- Truth Table: standard table listing all possible combinations of inputs and resultant output

a	b	a AND b	a OR b
0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1
1	0	0	1
1	1	1	1

=

a	a AND b	a OR b
0	0	b
1	b	1



Logical Operators (2/3)

- Logical Instruction Syntax:
 - 1 2,3,4
 - where
 - 1) operation name
 - 2) register that will receive value
 - 3) first operand (register)
 - 4) second operand (register) or immediate (numerical constant)
- In general, can define them to accept > 2 inputs, but in the case of MIPS assembly, these accept exactly 2 inputs and produce 1 output
 - Again, rigid syntax, simpler hardware



Logical Operators (3/3)

- Instruction Names:
 - **and, or**: Both of these expect the third argument to be a register
 - **andi, ori**: Both of these expect the third argument to be an immediate
- MIPS Logical Operators are all **bitwise**, meaning that bit 0 of the output is produced by the respective bit 0's of the inputs, bit 1 by the bit 1's, etc.
 - C: Bitwise AND is **&** (e.g., **z = x & y;**)
 - C: Bitwise OR is **|** (e.g., **z = x | y;**)



Uses for Logical Operators (1/3)

- Note that **anding** a bit with **0** produces a **0** at the output while **anding** a bit with **1** produces the original bit.
- This can be used to create a **mask**.

- Example:

1011	0110	1010	0100	0011	1101	1001	1010
mask:	0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	1111	1111

- The result of **anding** these:

0000	0000	0000	0000	0000	1101	1001	1010
------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------

mask last 12 bits



Uses for Logical Operators (2/3)

- The second bitstring in the example is called a **mask**. It is used to isolate the rightmost 12 bits of the first bitstring by masking out the rest of the string (e.g. setting to all 0s).
- Thus, the **and** operator can be used to set certain portions of a bitstring to 0s, while leaving the rest alone.
 - In particular, if the first bitstring in the above example were in `$t0`, then the following instruction would mask it:

```
andi    $t0,$t0,0xFFF
```



Uses for Logical Operators (3/3)

- Similarly, note that **o**ring a bit with **1** produces a **1** at the output while **o**ring a bit with **0** produces the original bit.
- Often used to force certain bits to **1s**.
 - For example, if **\$t0** contains **0x12345678**, then after this instruction:
ori \$t0, \$t0, 0xFFFF
... **\$t0** will contain **0x1234FFFF**
 - (i.e., the high-order 16 bits are untouched, while the low-order 16 bits are forced to **1s**).



Example: Fibonacci Numbers 1/8

- The **Fibonacci** numbers are defined as follows:

$$F(n) = F(n - 1) + F(n - 2),$$

$F(0)$ and $F(1)$ are defined to be 1

- In scheme, this could be written:

```
(define (Fib n)
  (cond ((= n 0) 1)
        ((= n 1) 1)
        (else (+ (Fib (- n 1))
                  (Fib (- n 2))))))
```



Example: Fibonacci Numbers 2/8

- Rewriting this in C we have:

```
int fib(int n) {  
    if(n == 0) { return 1; }  
    if(n == 1) { return 1; }  
    return (fib(n - 1) + fib(n - 2));  
}
```



Example: Fibonacci Numbers 3/8

- Now, let's translate this to MIPS!
- You will need space for three words on the stack
- The function will use one `$s` register, `$s0`
- Write the Prologue:

fib:

```
addi $sp, $sp, -12    # Space for three words
sw  $ra, 8($sp)       # Save return address
sw  $s0, 4($sp)       # Save s0
```



Example: Fibonacci Numbers 4/8

◦ Now write the Epilogue:

fin:

lw \$s0, 4(\$sp)

Restore \$s0

lw \$ra, 8(\$sp)

Restore return address

addi \$sp, \$sp, 12

Pop the stack frame

jr \$ra

Return to caller



Example: Fibonacci Numbers 5/8

- Finally, write the body. The C code is below. Start by translating the lines indicated in the comments

```
int fib(int n) {  
    if(n == 0) { return 1; } /*Translate Me!*/  
    if(n == 1) { return 1; } /*Translate Me!*/  
    return (fib(n - 1) + fib(n - 2));  
}
```

```
addi $v0, $zero, 1          # $v0 = 1
```

```
beq  $a0, $zero, fin        #
```

```
addi $t0, $zero, 1          # $t0 = 1
```

```
beq  $a0, $t0, fin          #
```

Continued on next slide. . .



Example: Fibonacci Numbers 6/8

- Almost there, but be careful, this part is tricky!

```
int fib(int n) {  
    return (fib(n - 1) + fib(n - 2));  
}
```

```
addi $a0, $a0, -1
```

\$a0 = n - 1

```
sw $a0, 0($sp)
```

Need \$a0 after jal

```
jal fib
```

fib(n - 1)

```
lw $a0, 0($sp)
```

restore \$a0

```
addi $a0, $a0, -1
```

\$a0 = n - 2



Example: Fibonacci Numbers 7/8

° Remember that \$vo is caller saved!

```
int fib(int n) {  
    return (fib(n - 1) + fib(n - 2));  
}
```

```
add $s0, $v0, $zero    # Place fib(n - 1)  
                        # somewhere it won't get  
                        # clobbered  
  
jal fib                # fib(n - 2)  
  
add $v0, $v0, $s0      # $v0 = fib(n-1) + fib(n-2)
```

To the epilogue and beyond. . .



Example: Fibonacci Numbers 8/8

◦ Here's the complete code for reference:

```
fib:  addi $sp, $sp, -12
      sw $ra, 8($sp)
      sw $s0, 4($sp)
      addi $v0, $zero, 1
      beq $a0, $zero, fin
      addi $t0, $zero, 1
      beq $a0, $t0, fin
      addi $a0, $a0, -1
      sw $a0, 0($sp)
      jal fib

      lw $a0, 0($sp)
      addi $a0, $a0, -1
      add $s0, $v0, $zero
      jal fib
      add $v0, $v0, $s0
fin:  lw $s0, 4($sp)
      lw $ra, 8($sp)
      addi $sp, $sp, 12
      jr $ra
```



Bonus Example: Compile This (1/5)

```
main() {  
    int i,j,k,m; /* i-m:$s0-$s3 */  
    ...  
    i = mult(j,k); ...  
    m = mult(i,i); ...  
}  
  
int mult (int mcand, int mlier){  
    int product;  
    product = 0;  
    while (mlier > 0) {  
        product += mcand;  
        mlier -= 1; }  
    return product;  
}
```



Bonus Example: Compile This (2/5)

`__start:`

`...`

```
add $a0,$s1,$0      # arg0 = j
    add $a1,$s2,$0      # arg1 = k
    jal mult          # call mult
    add $s0,$v0,$0      # i = mult()

addi $a0,$s0,$0      # arg0 = i
addi $a1,$s0,$0      # arg1 = i
jal mult              # call mult
add $s3,$v0,$0        # m = mult()
```

`...`

```
j __exit             main() {
                        int i,j,k,m; /* i-m:$s0-$s3 */
                        ...
                        i = mult(j,k); ...
                        m = mult(i,i); ... }
```



Bonus Example: Compile This (3/5)

- Notes:
 - **main** function ends with a jump to **__exit**, not **jr \$ra**, so there's no need to save **\$ra** onto stack
 - all variables used in **main** function are saved registers, so there's no need to save these onto stack



Bonus Example: Compile This (4/5)

mult:

```
Loop:    add    $t0,$0,$0        # prod=0
          slt    $t1,$0,$a1      # mlr > 0?
          beq    $t1,$0,Fin      # no=>Fin
          add    $t0,$t0,$a0      # prod+=mc
          addi   $a1,$a1,-1       # mlr-=1
          j      Loop           # goto Loop
```

Fin:

```
    add    $v0,$t0,$0          # $v0=prod
    jr     $ra                 # return
```

```
int mult (int mcand, int mlier){
    int product = 0;
    while (mlier > 0) {
        product += mcand;
        mlier -= 1;
    }
    return product;
}
```



Bonus Example: Compile This (5/5)

- Notes:
 - no **jal** calls are made from **mult** and we don't use any saved registers, so we don't need to save anything onto stack
 - temp registers are used for intermediate calculations (could have used s registers, but would have to save the caller's on the stack.)
 - **\$a1** is modified directly (instead of copying into a temp register) since we are free to change it
 - result is put into **\$v0** before returning (could also have modified **\$v0** directly)



Parents leaving for weekend analogy (1/5)

- Parents (**main**) leaving for weekend
- They (**caller**) give keys to the house to kid (**callee**) with the rules (**calling conventions**):
 - You can trash the temporary room(s), like the den and basement (**registers**) if you want, we don't care about it
 - BUT you'd better leave the rooms (**registers**) that we want to **save** for the guests untouched. "these rooms better look the same when we return!"
- Who hasn't heard this in their life?



Parents leaving for weekend analogy (2/5)

- Kid now “owns” rooms (**registers**)
- Kid wants to use the **saved** rooms for a wild, wild party (**computation**)
- What does kid (**callee**) do?
 - Kid takes what was in these rooms and puts them in the garage (**memory**)
 - Kid throws the party, **trashes everything** (except garage, who ever goes in there?)
 - Kid restores the rooms the parents wanted **saved** after the party by replacing the items from the garage (**memory**) back into those saved rooms



Parents leaving for weekend analogy (3/5)

- Same scenario, except before parents return and kid replaces **saved** rooms...
- Kid (**callee**) has left valuable stuff (**data**) all over.
 - Kid's friend (**another callee**) wants the house for a party when the kid is away
 - Kid knows that friend might **trash the place** destroying valuable stuff!
 - Kid remembers rule parents taught and now becomes the "heavy" (**caller**), instructing friend (**callee**) on good rules (**conventions**) of house.



Parents leaving for weekend analogy (4/5)

- If kid had data in **temporary rooms** (which were going to be trashed), there are three options:
 - Move items directly to garage (**memory**)
 - Move items to **saved rooms** whose contents have already been moved to the garage (**memory**)
 - Optimize lifestyle (**code**) so that the amount you've got to shlep stuff back and forth from garage (**memory**) is minimized.
 - Mantra: "Minimize register footprint"
- Otherwise: "Dude, where's my data?!"



Parents leaving for weekend analogy (5/5)

- Friend now “owns” rooms (**registers**)
- Friend wants to use the **saved** rooms for a wild, wild party (**computation**)
- What does friend (**callee**) do?
 - Friend takes what was in these rooms and puts them in the garage (**memory**)
 - Friend throws the party, **trashes everything** (except garage)
 - Friend restores the rooms the kid wanted **saved after the party** by replacing the items from the garage (**memory**) back into those saved rooms



Shift Instructions (review) (1/4)

- Move (shift) all the bits in a word to the left or right by a number of bits.

- Example: shift right by 8 bits

0001 0010 0011 0100 0101 0110 0111 1000

0000 0000 0001 0010 0011 0100 0101 0110

- Example: shift left by 8 bits

0001 0010 0011 0100 0101 0110 0111 1000

0011 0100 0101 0110 0111 1000 0000 0000



Shift Instructions (2/4)

- Shift Instruction Syntax:

1 2,3,4

...where

1) operation name

2) register that will receive value

3) first operand (register)

4) shift amount (constant < 32)

- MIPS shift instructions:

1. **sll** (shift left logical): shifts left and fills emptied bits with 0s

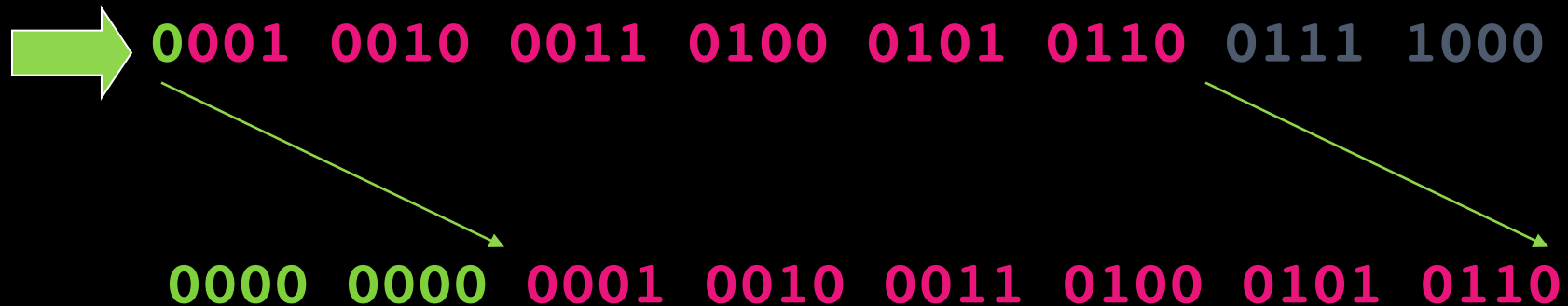
2. **sr1** (shift right logical): shifts right and fills emptied bits with 0s

3. **sra** (shift right arithmetic): shifts right and fills emptied bits by sign extending



Shift Instructions (3/4)

- Example: shift right arithmetic by 8 bits



- Example: shift right arithmetic by 8 bits



Shift Instructions (4/4)

- Since shifting may be faster than multiplication, a good compiler usually notices when C code multiplies by a power of 2 and compiles it to a shift instruction:

`a *= 8;` (in C)

would compile to:

`sll $s0, $s0, 3` (in MIPS)

- Likewise, shift right to divide by powers of 2 (rounds towards $-\infty$)
 - remember to use `sra`

