Lecture 6

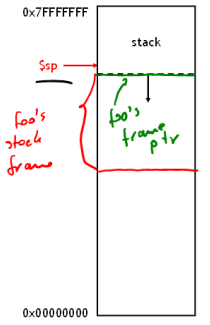
- **Happy April 9th!**
- **Finish-up functions/stack**
- **Machine language**, the binary representation for instructions.
  - We'll see how it is **designed for the common case**
    - Fixed-sized (32-bit) instructions
    - Only 3 instruction formats
    - Limited-sized immediate fields

Review

- Why is jal special?
- Why do we need to save registers?
- Why a stack?
- What is the stack used for?

The MIPS stack

- In MIPS machines, part of main memory is reserved for a stack.
  - The stack grows downward in terms of memory addresses.
  - The address of the top element of the stack is stored (by convention) in the "stack pointer" register, $sp.
- MIPS does not provide "push" and "pop" instructions. Instead, they must be done explicitly by the programmer.



Pushing elements

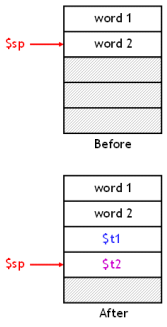
- To push elements onto the stack:
  - Move the stack pointer $sp down to make room for the new data.
  - Store the elements into the stack.
- For example, to push registers $t1 and $t2 onto the stack:

```
sub $sp, $sp, 8
sw  $t1, 4($sp)
sw  $t2, 0($sp)
```

- An equivalent sequence is:

```
sw  $t1, -4($sp)
sw  $t2, -8($sp)
sub $sp, $sp, 8
```

- Before and after diagrams of the stack are shown on the right.



Accessing and popping elements

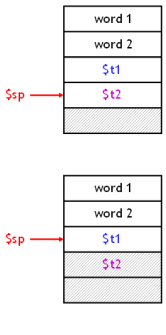
- You can access any element in the stack (not just the top one) if you know where it is relative to $sp.
- For example, to retrieve the value of $t1:

```
lw  $s0, 4($sp)
```

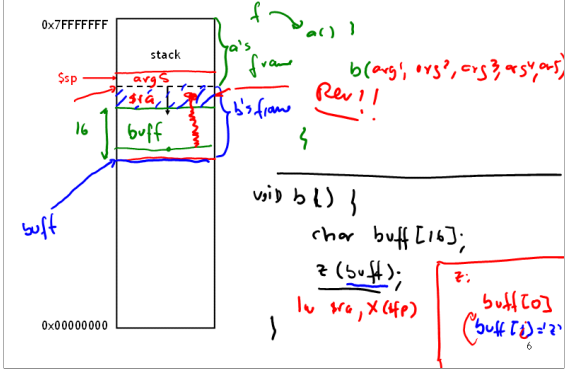
- You can pop, or "erase," elements simply by adjusting the stack pointer upwards.
- To pop the value of $t2, yielding the stack shown at the bottom:

```
addi $sp, $sp, 4
```

- Note that the popped data is still present in memory, but data past the stack pointer is considered invalid.



Example



Stack Summary

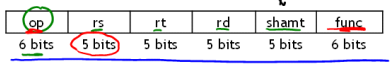
- We just focused on implementing function calls in MIPS.
  - We call functions using jal, passing arguments in registers $a0-$a3.
  - Functions place results in $v0-$v1 and return using jr $ra.
- Managing resources is an important part of function calls.
  - To keep important data from being overwritten, registers are saved according to conventions for caller-save and callee-save registers.
  - Each function call uses stack memory for saving registers, storing local variables and passing extra arguments and return values.
- Assembly programmers must follow many conventions. Nothing prevents a rogue program from overwriting registers or stack memory used by some other function.

Assembly vs. machine language

- So far we've been using assembly language.
  - We assign names to operations (e.g., add) and operands (e.g., $t0).
  - Branches and jumps use labels instead of actual addresses.
  - Assemblers support many pseudo-instructions.
- Programs must eventually be translated into machine language, a binary format that can be stored in memory and decoded by the CPU.
- MIPS machine language is designed to be easy to decode.
  - Each MIPS instruction is the same length, 32 bits.
  - There are only three different instruction formats, which are very similar to each other.
- Studying MIPS machine language will also reveal some restrictions in the instruction set architecture, and how they can be overcome.

R-type format

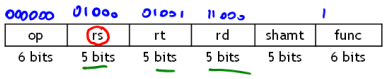
- Register-to-register arithmetic instructions use the R-type format.



- This format includes six different fields.
  - op is an operation code or opcode that selects a specific operation.
  - rs and rt are the first and second source registers.
  - rd is the destination register.
  - shamt is only used for shift instructions.
  - func is used together with op to select an arithmetic instruction.
- The green card in the textbook lists opcodes and function codes for all of the MIPS instructions.

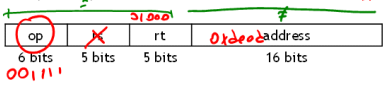
About the registers

- We have to encode register names as 5-bit numbers from 00000 to 11111.
  - For example, $t8 is register $24, which is represented as 11000.
  - The complete mapping is given on page B-24 in the book.
- The number of registers available affects the instruction length.
  - Each R-type instruction references 3 registers, which requires a total of 15 bits in the instruction word.
  - We can't add more registers without either making instructions longer than 32 bits, or shortening other fields like op and possibly reducing the number of available operations.



I-type format

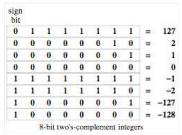
- Load, store, branch, and immediate instructions all use the I-type format.



- For uniformity, op, rs and rt are in the same positions as in the R-format.
- The meaning of the register fields depends on the exact instruction.
  - rs is a source register—an address for loads and stores, or an operand for branch and immediate arithmetic instructions.
  - rt is a source register for branches and stores, but a destination register for the other I-type instructions.
- The address is a 16-bit signed two's-complement value.
  - It can range from -32,768 to +32,767.
  - But that's not always enough!

Two's complement (reminder)

- Easy to do in HW
  - Most significant bit tells sign (sign bit)
  - Addition can be done without anything special
- How?
  - Invert all bits and add one



Larger constants

- Larger constants can be loaded into a register 16 bits at a time.
  - The load upper immediate instruction lui loads the highest 16 bits of a register with a constant, and clears the lowest 16 bits to 0s.
  - An immediate logical OR, ori, then sets the lower 16 bits.
- To load the 32-bit value 0000 0000 0011 1101 0000 1001 0000 0000:

```
lui $s0, 0x003D        # $s0 = 003D 0000 (in hex)
ori $s0, $s0, 0x0900   # $s0 = 003D 0900
```

- This illustrates the principle of making the common case fast.
  - Most of the time, 16-bit constants are enough.
  - It's still possible to load 32-bit constants, but at the cost of two instructions and one temporary register.
- Pseudo-instructions may contain large constants. Assemblers including SPIM will translate such instructions correctly.

Loads and stores

- The limited 16-bit constant can present problems for accesses to global data.
- Suppose we want to load from address 0x10010004, which won't fit in the 16-bit address field. Solution:

```
lui  $at, 0x1001          # 0x1001 0000
lw   $t1, 0x0004($at)     # Read from Mem[0x1001 0004]
```


Branches

- For branch instructions, the constant field is not an address, but an *offset* in *words* from the current program counter (PC) to the target address.

```
        beq  $at, $0, L
        add  $v1, $v0, $0
        add  $v1, $v1, $v1
        j    Somewhere
L:      add  $v1, $v0, $v0
```

- Since the branch target L is three *instructions* past the beq, the address field would contain 3. The whole beq instruction would be stored as:

000100	00001	00000	0000 0000 0000 0011
op	rs	rt	address

- For some reason SPIM is off by one, so the code it produces would contain an address of 4. (But SPIM branches still execute correctly.)

Larger branch constants

- Empirical studies of real programs show that most branches go to targets less than 32,767 instructions away—branches are mostly used in loops and conditionals, and programmers are taught to make code bodies short.
- If you do need to branch further, you can use a jump with a branch. For example, if "Far" is very far away, then the effect of:

```
        beq  $s0, $s1, Far
        ...
```

can be simulated with the following actual code.

```
        bne  $s0, $s1, Next
        j    Far
Next:   ...
```

- Again, the MIPS designers have taken care of the common case first.

J-type format

- Finally, the jump instruction uses the J-type instruction format.

op	address
6 bits	26 bits

- The jump instruction contains a *word* address, not an offset
  - Remember that each MIPS instruction is one word long, and word addresses must be divisible by four.
  - So instead of saying "jump to address 4000," it's enough to just say "jump to instruction 1000."
  - A 26-bit address field lets you jump to any address from 0 to 2^{28}.
    - your MP solutions had better be smaller than 256MB
- For even longer jumps, the jump register, or jr, instruction can be used.

```
jr  $ra      # Jump to 32-bit address in register $ra
```


Summary of Machine Language

- Machine language is the binary representation of instructions:
  - The format in which the machine actually executes them
- MIPS machine language is designed to simplify processor implementation
  - Fixed length instructions
  - 3 instruction encodings: R-type, I-type, and J-type
  - Common operations fit in 1 instruction
    - Uncommon (e.g., long immediates) require more than one

R	opcode	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
I	opcode	rs	rt	immediate		
J	opcode	target address				

Decoding Machine Language

How do we convert 1s and 0s to assembly language and to C code?

Machine language --> assembly → C?

For each 32 bits:

1. Look at opcode to distinguish between R- Format, JFormat, and I-Format
2. Use instruction format to determine which fields exist
3. Write out MIPS assembly code, converting each field to name, register number/name, or decimal/hex number
4. Logically convert this MIPS code into valid C code. Always possible? Unique?

Decoding (1/7)

- Here are six machine language instructions in hexadecimal:
  - 00001025_{hex}
  - $0005402A_{hex}$
  - 11000003_{hex}
  - 00441020_{hex}
  - $20A5FFFF_{hex}$
  - 08100001_{hex}
- Let the first instruction be at address $4,194,304_{ten}$ (0x00400000hex)
- Next step: convert hex to binary

Decoding (2/7)

- The six machine language instructions in binary:
  - 00000000000000000001000000100101
  - 00000000000001010100000000101010
  - 00010001000000000000000000000011
  - 00000000010001000001000000100000
  - 00100000101001011111111111111111
  - 00001000000100000000000000000001
- Next step: identify opcode and format

R	0	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
I	1, 4-62	rs	rt	immediate		
J	2 or 3	target address				

Decoding (3/7)

- Select the opcode (first 6 bits) to determine the format:
  - 000000 00000 00000 00010 00000 100101
  - 000000 00000 00101 01000 00000 101010
  - 000100 01000 00000 00000 00000 000011
  - 000000 00010 00100 00010 00000 100000
  - 001000 00101 00101 11111 11111 111111
  - 000010 00000 10000 00000 00000 000001
- Look at opcode: 0 means R-Format, 2 or 3 mean J-Format, otherwise I-Format
- Next step: separation of fields R R I R I J Format:

R	0	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
I	1, 4-62	rs	rt	immediate		
J	2 or 3	target address				

Decoding (4/7)

- Fields separated based on format/opcode:

Format:

R	0	0	0	2	0	37
R	0	0	5	8	0	42
I	4	8	0	+3		
R	0	2	4	2	0	32
I	8	5	5	-1		
J	2	1,048,577				

- Next step: translate ("disassemble") MIPS assembly instructions R R I R I J Format:

Decoding (5/7)

- MIPS Assembly (Part 1):
- Address: Assembly instructions:

```
0x00400000    or    $2,$0,$0
0x00400004    slt   $8,$0,$5
0x00400008    beq   $8,$0,3
0x0040000c    add   $2,$2,$4
0x00400010    addi  $5,$5,-1
0x00400014    j     0x100001
```

- Better solution: translate to more meaningful MIPS instructions (fix the branch/jump and add labels, registers)

Decoding (6/7)

- MIPS Assembly (Part 2):

```
        or    $v0,$0,$0
Loop:   slt   $t0,$0,$a1
        beq   $t0,$0,Exit
        add   $v0,$v0,$a0
        addi  $a1,$a1,-1
        j     Loop
Exit:
```

- Next step: translate to C code (must be creative!)

Decoding (7/7)

- Possible C code:

```
$v0: var1
$a0: var2
$a1: var3
var1 = 0;
while (var3 >= 0) {
  var1 += var2;
  var3 -= 1;
}
```

```
        or    $v0,$0,$0
Loop:   slt   $t0,$0,$a1
        beq   $t0,$0,Exit
        add   $v0,$v0,$a0
        addi  $a1,$a1,-1
        j     Loop
Exit:
```


strlen Example

```
void somefunc() {
  char *str;
  int a;
  …
  /*uses t0, t1 somewhere */
  …
  a = strlen(str);
  …
}
```

```
int strlen(char *str) {
  int count = 0;
  while (*s != 0) {
    count++;
    s++;
  }
  return count;
}
```

caller-saved: $t0-$t9, $a0-$a9, $v0-$v9. callee-saved: $s0-$s7, $ra

strlen Example

```
void somefunc() {
  char *str;
  int a;
  …
  /*uses t0, t1 somewhere */
  …
  a = strlen(str);
  …
}

somefunc:
  …
  addi $sp, $sp, -12
  sw   $ra, 8($sp)
  sw   $t0, 4($sp)
  sw   $t1, 0($sp)
  add $a0, $t0, $0
  jal strlen
  lw   $t1, 0($sp)
  lw   $t0, 4($sp)
  lw   $ra, 8($sp)
  addi $sp, $sp, 12
  jr $ra
```

```
int strlen(char *str) {
  int count = 0;
  while (*s != 0) {
    count++;
    s++;
  }
  return count;
}

strlen:
    addi $t0, $0, 0

loop:
    lb $t1, 0($a0)
    beq $t1, $0, end_loop
    addi $t0, $t0, 1
    addi $t1, $t1, 1
    j loop

end_loop:
    add $v0, $t0, $0
    jr $ra
```

caller-saved: $t0-$t9, $a0-$a9, $v0-$v9. callee-saved: $s0-$s7, $ra