

Computer Science 220 Assembly Language & Comp. Architecture Siena College Fall 2011

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Topic Notes: MIPS Programming

We spent some time looking at the MIPS Instruction Set Architecture. We will look at the ISA itself more carefully when we consider its implementation. But next, we will learn how to program in MIPS assembly language.

Our arsenal of MIPS assembly instructions now includes:

	● and \$a, \$b, \$c
• add \$a, \$b, \$c	• andi \$a, \$b, n
• sub \$a, \$b, \$c	
• addi \$a, \$b, n	• or \$a, \$b, \$c
● lw \$a, n(\$b)	• ori \$a, \$b, n
	• nor \$a, \$b, \$c
• sw \$a, n(\$b)	• beq \$a, \$b, L
• sll \$a, \$b, n	
• grl ća ćh n	• bne \$a, \$b, L
• srl \$a, \$b, n	• slt \$a, \$b, \$c
• lui \$a, n	
	●jL

Control Structures in MIPS Assembly

Suppose we want to implement a while loop in MIPS assembly. Consider the high-level language code:

```
while (a!=b)
a += i;
```

where a is stored in register \$\$0, b in \$\$1 and the increment i is in \$\$2.

Our MIPS assembly code might look like this:

Loop: beq \$s0, \$s1, EndLoop # if a==b goto EndLoop add \$s0, \$s0, \$s2 # a = a + i j Loop # goto Loop EndLoop: ... code after loop ... Note that we use a beq instruction here as we want to branch in the case where we no longer wish to execute the contents of the loop.

Now consider a slightly more complicated loop:

We need to deal with an array access here. Suppose we have made the following register assignments:

The start of array a is in \$\$3, i is in \$\$0, k is in \$\$1, and j is in \$\$2. All are int values.

One way to implement this code would be:

```
$t0, $s0, 2
LoopTop: sll
                               \# t0 = i * 4
                $t0, $t0, $s3 # t0 = address of a[i]
        add
                $t1, 0($t0) # t1 = contents of a[i]
        ٦w
                $t1, $s1, EndLoop
                                      # if a[i] != k, goto EndLoop
        bne
        add
                $s0, $s0, $s2 # i = i + j
                            # jump back to the top of the loop
                qoTqool
        i
EndLoop:
        ... code after loop ...
```

A few notes:

- We need to multiply i by 4 to get the correct offset, since we're assuming a is an array of word-sized values.
- We might be tempted to write

lw \$t1, \$t0(\$s3)

to access the value at an offset of t0 from our base register ss3. But that is not valid MIPS - the offset part of the lw and sw instructions needs to be a constant, not a register. The MIPS designers could have provided such an instruction (it would be R-format instead of I-format), but they chose not to.

Before we can complete our next example, we need a couple of additional instructions – reading and writing single bytes from memory.

These instructions, 1b for load byte and sb for store byte, work just like the 1w and sw instructions except that only single-byte values are processed.

lb \$a, n(\$b)

Loads the single byte at an offset of n from register \$b and stores it, *sign-extended*, into register \$a.

sb \$a, n(\$b)

Stores the byte in the bottom 8 bits of register \$a into memory at an offset of n from register \$b.

String Processing Examples

Armed with these instructions, we can write our next example: a string copy function like C's strcpy:

```
strcpy(dest, src);
```

Recall that C strings are terminated with a null (0) character.

For now, we'll just look at the main loop of this function. Assume register \$51 holds the address of the start of the dest string and that \$52 holds the address of the start of the src string.

Our task is to write a loop that copies characters (bytes) from the source string to the destination string.

LoopTop: lb \$t0, 0(\$s2) # temp reg = char at \$s2 sb \$t0, 0(\$s1) # char at \$s1 gets temp reg addi \$s2, \$s2, 1 # increment \$s2 addi \$s1, \$s1, 1 # increment \$s1 bne \$t0, \$zero, LoopTop # branch if we didn't just copy a null

For another example:

Assuming we will use \$\$0 for i and that \$\$1 contains the address of a, here's one way to write this:

add \$\$0, \$zero, \$zero # i=0 ForLoop: slti \$t1, \$\$0, 10 # i<10 ? beq \$t1, \$zero, LoopEnd # if done, branch out add \$t2, \$\$0, \$\$1 # t2 gets address of a[i]

```
lb $t3, 0($t2) # t3 gets a[i]
sb $t3, 1($t2) # a[i+1] gets t3
addi $s0, $s0, 1 # i++
j ForLoop # back to check loop condition
LoopEnd:
```

MIPS Subroutines and Programs

You are all familiar with function/method calls in high-level languages. In assembly language, we usually refer to these as *subroutines*.

The idea is the same as a function or method call – the program branches from its sequence of instructions to execute a chunk of code elsewhere, then returns to continue where it left off.

Moreover, we expect that the values (the *actual parameters*) we pass to the subroutine are properly passed to the corresponding formal parameters in the subroutine. We expect that appopriate space is allocated for the subroutine's local variables. And any return value from the subroutine is returned to the caller, with the opportunity to store or use it.

As assembly language programmers, we need to manage all of that complexity.

We'll now look at how to write and call subroutines in MIPS assembly.

Special Registers and Instructions

Recall that there are several registers reserved to help support subroutine calls:

- \$a0-\$a4: argument registers a place for the caller to place values to send to the subroutine.
- \$v0, \$v1: return value registers a place for subroutines to return values to the caller.
- \$ra: return address register where to resume executing the caller when the subroutine is finished.

We also have a couple of special jump instructions:

• *Jump and Link*:

```
jal address
```

This instruction puts the address of the next instruction (PC+4) into register ra, then jumps to the address.

This is a J-format instruction, just like the standard jump instruction (j).

• Jump to Register:

jr \$a

Jumps to the address specified in the given register.

This is an R-format instruction.

Assuming the subroutine hasn't changed the ra register, this can be used to return from the subroutine.

Registers and the Stack

We said previously that the "s" registers \$\$0-\$\$7 are the ones assigned to variables and the "t" registers \$t0-\$t9 are temporary values.

This becomes important when we start looking at subroutines. The accepted convention for register use by subroutines:

- \$t0-\$t9 are always available for use by a subroutine
 - if a subroutine calls another subroutine, it must assume that the called subroutine will modify \$t0-\$t9.
 - if this is a problem for the calling subroutine, it should save any values it has in \$t0-\$t9 to memory and restore them after the subroutine call.
- \$\$0-\$\$7 should be unchanged by a subroutine call
 - if a subroutine calls another subroutine, it can expect its values in \$\$0-\$\$7 to remain upon return.
 - if the called subroutine wishes to make use of \$\$0-\$\$7, it should save the caller's values in any of these registers it will use in memory, then restore them before return.

Since subroutines can be called by anyone, we don't know which "s" registers, if any, are important to the caller. So we have to save these if we use them.

So where do we save values in memory when we need to save them? On the *stack*.

The stack is a section of memory dedicated to saving registers to manage subroutine calls.

We have a special register \$sp called the *stack pointer* that indicates the *top* of the stack.

The stack grows and shrinks as registers are saved and restored during a program's execution.

If we have a subroutine that will need to make use of \$\$0, \$\$1 and \$\$2, we need to do the following at the start of the subroutine's code:

addi	\$sp,	\$sp, -12	#	make	room	for	3	4-byte	values
SW	\$s0,	0(\$sp)	#	push	s0				
SW	\$s1,	4(\$sp)	#	push	s1				
SW	\$s2,	8(\$sp)	#	push	s2				

Then before returning:

lw	\$s2,	8(\$sp)	# pop s2
lw	\$s1,	4(\$sp)	# pop sl
lw	\$s0,	0(\$sp)	# pop s0
addi	\$sp,	\$sp, 12	# restore the stack pointer

Note that we "pop" in the opposite order as we "push".

A First Complete Subroutine

Let's return to our string copy code:

```
LoopTop: lb $t0, 0($s2) # temp reg = char at $s2
sb $t0, 0($s1) # char at $s1 gets temp reg
addi $s2, $s2, 1 # increment $s2
addi $s1, $s1, 1 # increment $s1
bne $t0, $zero, LoopTop # branch if we didn't just copy a null
```

In order to make this a subroutine, we need to get values from the subroutine argument registers and save and restore values of any "s" registers we decide to use. Our code becomes:

strcpy:	addi sw sw add add	\$s2, \$s1, \$s1,	4(\$sp) 0(\$sp) \$a0, \$zero	
LoopTop:	lb sb addi addi bne	\$t0, \$s2, \$s1,	0(\$s1) \$s2, 1 \$s1, 1	<pre># temp reg = char at \$s2 # char at \$s1 gets temp reg # increment \$s2 # increment \$s1 pTop # branch if we didn't just copy a null</pre>
	lw lw addi jr	\$s2,	4(\$sp)	<pre># restore s1 # restore s2 # restore sp # return from subroutine</pre>

Note that we could so something simpler here: save and restore \$a0 and \$a1 and use those in place of \$s1 and \$s2 throughout.

A Recursive Example

We will develop a MIPS assembly subroutine to implement the following C function:

```
int factorial (int x) {
    if (x<1) return 1;
    return x * factorial(x-1);</pre>
```

Since this subroutine calls another subroutine (itself) we need to save \$ra and any temp registers we care about before making the recursive call.

We will assume a subroutine multiply exists and we will use that to do our multiplication to get extra practice with subroutines.

Here is some code for this:

```
factorial:
        # make space for 2 words on the stack
        addi
                $sp, $sp, -8
        # save $ra and $a0 on the stack
               $a0, 4($sp)
        SW
               $ra, 0($sp)
        SW
               $t0, $a0, 1
                           \# is x < 1?
        slti
               $t0, $zero, L1 # if no, skip over if part
        beq
        \# x >= 1, just return 1
        addi
               $v0, $zero, 1 # return value is 1
        # we could restore $a0 and $ra but we know they haven't
        # changed when we take this quick exit, so let's not
        # but we still need to put $sp back the way we found it
        addi
               $sp, $sp, 8
        jr
               $ra
                              # return to caller
        # here, x>=1 so we need to make a recursive call
               $a0, $a0, -1
                            # get x-1 for the parameter
L1:
        addi
                              # recursive call, will put answer in $v0
        ial
               factorial
        # We now want to set up for the multiply, but we destroyed $a0
        # above, but have it on the stack, so let's load it
        lw
               $a0, 4($sp)
               $a1, $v0, $zero # put factorial(x-1) result into $a1
        add
                              # multiply $a0*$a1, put result in $v0
        jal
               multiply
        # $v0 is where we want our answer, so no work there
        # but multiply could have changed $a0 and did change $ra
               $ra, 0($sp)
                              # restore $ra
        lw
```

lw \$a0, 4(\$sp) # restore \$a0
addi \$sp, \$sp, 8 # restore \$sp
jr \$ra # return to caller

Trace through this with the call factorial(3).

Another example: arraycmp

Advanced Stack Management

MIPS makes life easy for many subroutines: if the parameters can be passed in the a registers, the return value provided in the v registers, and all local variables can be stored in s and t registers, little management of the call stack is needed.

Yes, we need to save registers when we need to use some s registers or make a subroutine call. But with other ISAs and with more complex subroutines even in MIPS, there is more to it.

For more than 4 parameters, or for parameters that do not fit in a 32-bit register:

- the caller is responsible for pushing those parameters onto the stack before calling the subroutine,
- the subroutine (the "callee") will find those parameters in the proper location on the stack, and
- the caller will pop the parameters from the stack upon return.

If we have more local variables than fit in registers, or if some of our local variables are structures or arrays, space may also be allocated on the stack to hold these values. The subroutine is responsible for management of the stack to make space for these local variables and to restore the stack to its original state when finished.

The section of the stack used for a procedures parameters, local variables, and saved registers is called the *procedure frame*, or *call frame* or *activation record* of the procedure.