

## Functions in MIPS

*f* Function calls are relatively simple in a high-level language, but actually involve multiple steps and instructions at the assembly level.

- The program's flow of control must be changed.
- Arguments and returning values are passed back and forth.
- Local variables can be allocated and destroyed.
  
- There are new instructions for calling functions.
- Conventions are used for sharing registers between functions.
- Functions can make good use of a stack in memory.

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## Control flow in C

*f* Invoking a function changes the control flow of a program twice.

1. **Calling** the function
2. **Returning** from the function

*f* In this example the `main` function calls `fact` twice, and `fact` returns twice—but to *different* locations in `main`.

*f* Each time `fact` is called, the CPU has to remember the appropriate **return address**.

*f* Notice that `main` itself is also a function! It is called by the operating system when you run the program.

```
int main()
{
    ...
    t1 = fact(8);
    t2 = fact(3);
    t3 = t1 + t2;
    ...
}

int fact(int n)
{
    int i, f = 1;
    for (i = n; i > 1; i--)
        f = f * i;
    return f;
}
```

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## Control flow in MIPS

*f* MIPS uses the jump-and-link instruction `jal` to call functions.

- The `jal` saves the return address (the address of the *next* instruction) in the dedicated register `$ra`, before jumping to the function.
- `jal` is the only MIPS instruction that can access the value of the program counter, so it can store the return address `PC+4` in `$ra`.

```
jal Fact
```

*f* To transfer control back to the caller, the function just has to jump to the address that was stored in `$ra`.

```
jr $ra
```

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## Control flow in the example

```
int main()
{
  ...
  t1 = fact(8);
  t2 = fact(3);
  t3 = t1 + t2;
  ...
}

int fact(int n)
{
  int i, f = 1;
  for (i = n; i > 1; i--)
    f = f * i;
  return f;
}
```



```
main:
  ...
  jal fact
L1:  ...
  jal fact
L2:  ...
  ...
  jr $ra

fact:
  ...
  ...
  ...
  ...
  jr $ra
```

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## Data flow in C

*f* Functions accept **arguments** and produce **return values**.

*f* The **blue** parts of the program show the actual and formal arguments of the fact function.

*f* The **purple** parts of the code deal with returning and using a result.

```
int main()
{
  ...
  t = fact(8);
  t = fact(3);
  t = t1 + t2;
  ...
}

int fact(int n)
{
  int i, f = 1;
  for (i = n; i > 1; i--)
    f = f * i;
  return f;
}
```

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## Data flow in MIPS

*f* MIPS uses the following conventions for function arguments and results.

– Up to four function arguments can be “passed” by placing them in registers **\$a0-\$a3** before calling the function with jal.

– A function can “return” up to two values by placing them in registers **\$v0-\$v1**, before returning via jr.

*f* These conventions are not enforced by the hardware or assembler, but programmers agree to them so functions written by different people can interface with each other.

*f* Later we’ll talk about handling additional arguments or return values.

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### Data flow in the example: fact

- f* The fact function has only one argument and returns just one value.
- f* The blue assembly code shows the function using its argument, which should have been placed in \$a0 by the caller.
- f* The purple instructions show fact putting a return value in \$v0 before giving control back to the caller.
- f* Register \$t0 represents local variable f, and register \$t1 represents local variable i.

```
int fact(int n)
{
    int i, f = 1;
    for (i = n; i > 1; i--)
        f = f * i;
    return f;
}
```

```
fact:
li    $t0, 1          # f = 1
move  $t1, $a0       # i = n
loop:
ble   $t1, 1, ret    # i > 1
mul   $t0, $t0, $t1  # f = f * i
sub   $t1, $t1, 1    # i--
j     loop
ret:
move  $v0, $t0       # return f
jr    $ra
```

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### Data flow in the example: main

- f* The blue MIPS code shows main passing the actual parameters 8 and 3, by placing them in register \$a0 before the jal instructions.
- f* The purple lines show how the function result in register \$v0 can then be accessed by the caller—here for storage into \$t1 and \$t2.

```
int main()
{
    ...
    t1 = fact(8);

    t2 = fact(3);

    t3 = t1 + t2;
    ...
}
```

```
main:
...
li    $a0, 8
jal   fact
move  $t1, $v0

li    $a0, 3
jal   fact
move  $t2, $v0

add   $t3, $t1, $t2
...
jr    $ra
```

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## A note about optimization

*f* We could actually save a couple of instructions in this code.

– Instead of moving the result `$t0` into `$v0` at the end of the function, we could just use `$v0` throughout the function.

– Similarly, we could use register `$a0` without first copying it into `$t1`.

*f* We'll use the unoptimized version to illustrate other points.  
some

```
fact:
li $t0, 1
move $t1, $a0
loop:
ble $t1, 1, ret
mul $t0, $t0, $t1
sub $t1, $t1, 1
j loop
ret:
move $v0, $t0
jr $ra
```



```
fact:
li $v0, 1
loop:
ble $a0, 1, ret
mul $v0, $v0, $a0
sub $a0, $a0, 1
j loop
ret:
jr $ra
```

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## The big problem so far

*f* There is a big problem here!

– The main code uses `$t1` to store the result of `fact(8)`.

– But `$t1` is also used within the `fact` function!

*f* The subsequent call to `fact(3)` will overwrite the value of `fact(8)` that was stored in `$t1`.

```
main: li $a0, 8
ja fact
move $t1, $v0
li $a0, 3
jal fact
move $t2, $v0
add $t3, $t1, $t2
jr $ra
```

```
fact: li $t0, 1
mov $t1, $a0
loop ble $t1, 1, ret
mu $t0, $t0, $t1
su $t1, $t1, 1
j loop
ret move $v0, $t0
j $ra
```

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## Spilling registers

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*f* The CPU has a limited number of registers for use by all functions, and it's possible that several functions will need the same registers.

*f* We can keep important registers from being overwritten by a function call, by saving them before the function executes, and restoring them after the function completes.

*f* But there are two important questions.

- Who is responsible for saving registers—the caller or the callee?
- Where exactly are the register contents saved?

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## Who saves the registers?

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*f* Who is responsible for saving important registers across function calls?

- The caller knows which registers are important to it and should be saved.
- The callee knows exactly which registers it will use and potentially overwrite.

*f* However, in the typical “black box” programming approach, the caller and callee do not know anything about each other's implementation.

- Different functions may be written by different people or companies.
- A function should be able to interface with any client, and different implementations of the same function should be substitutable.

*f* So how can two functions cooperate and share registers when they don't know anything about each other?

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- f* MIPS uses conventions again to split the register spilling chores.
  - f* The *caller* is responsible for saving and restoring any of the following **caller-saved registers** that it cares about.

\$t0-\$t9                  \$a0-\$a3                  \$v0-\$v1

In other words, the callee may freely modify these registers, under the assumption that the caller already saved them if necessary.

- f* The *callee* is responsible for saving and restoring any of the following **callee-saved registers** that it uses. (Remember that \$ra is “used” by jal.)

\$s0-\$s7                  \$ra

Thus the caller may assume these registers are not changed by the callee.

- f* Be especially careful when writing nested functions, which act as both a caller and a callee!

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## How to fix factorial

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- f* In the factorial example, main (the caller) should save two registers.
  - \$t1 must be saved before the second call to fact.
  - \$ra will be implicitly overwritten by the jal instructions.
- f* But fact (the callee) does not need to save anything. It only writes to registers \$t0, \$t1 and \$v0, which should have been saved by the caller.

```

main:                                fact:
  |--Save $ra--                       li   $t0, 1
li   $a0, 8                           move $t1, $a0
  jal fact                               loop:
move $t1, $v0                           ble  $t1, 1, ret
  |--Save $t1--                          mul  $t0, $t0, $t1
li   $a0, 3                              sub  $t1, $t1, 1
jal  fact                                j    loop
move $t2, $v0                            ret:
  |--Restore $t1--                       move $v0, $t0
add  $t3, $t1, $t2                       jr   $ra
  |--Restore $ra--
jr   $ra

```

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## Where are the registers saved?

*f* Now we know who is responsible for saving which registers, but we still need to discuss where those registers are saved.

*f* It would be nice if each function call had its own private memory area.

- This would prevent other function calls from overwriting our saved registers—otherwise using memory is no better than using registers.
- We could use this private memory for other purposes too, like storing local variables.

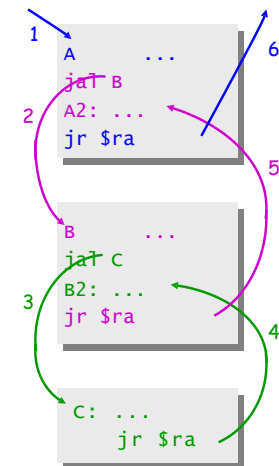
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## Function calls and stacks

*f* Notice function calls and returns occur in a stack-like order: the most recently called function is the first one to return.

1. Someone calls A
2. A calls B
3. B calls C
4. returns to B
5. B returns to A
6. A returns

*f* Here, for example, C must return to B before B can return to A.

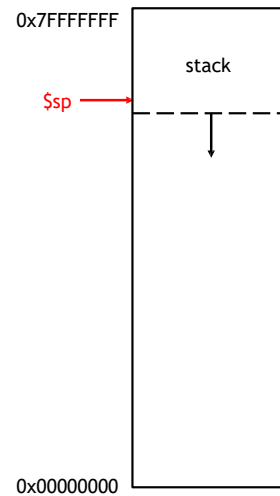


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## The MIPS stack

- f* 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 in yet another dedicated register, `$sp` (stack pointer).
- f* MIPS does not provide “push” and “pop” instructions. Instead, they must be done explicitly by the programmer.



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## Pushing elements

- f* 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.

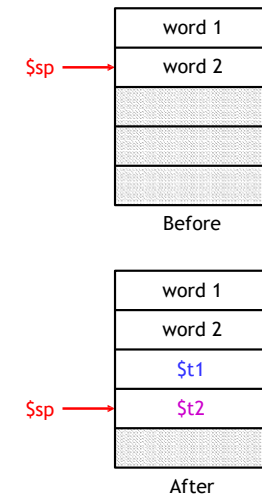
*f* For example, to push registers `$t1` and `$t2` and onto the stack:

```
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
```

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



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## Accessing and popping elements

*f* You can access any element in the stack (not just the top one) if you know where it is relative to `$sp`.

*f* For example, to retrieve the value of `$t1`:

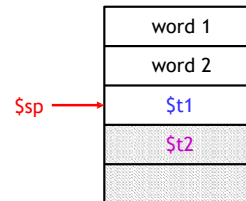
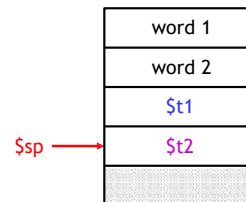
```
lw $s0, 4($sp)
```

*f* You can **pop**, or “erase,” elements simply by adjusting the stack pointer upwards.

*f* To pop the value of `$t2`, yielding the stack shown at the bottom:

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

*f* Note that the popped data is still present in memory, but data past the stack pointer is not valid.



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## The example one last time

*f* The main code needs two words of stack space—`$t1` is stored at `0($sp)`, and `$ra` is stored at `4($sp)`.

*f* It's easiest to adjust `$sp` once at the beginning and once at the end.

```
main:
sub   $sp, $sp, 8 # Allocate two words on stack
sw   $ra, 4($sp) # Save $ra because of jal
li   $a0, 8
jal  fact
move $t1, $v0
sw   $t1, 0($sp) # Save $t1 for later use
li   $a0, 3
jal  fact
move $t2, $v0
lw   $t1, 0($sp) # Restore $t1
add  $t3, $t1, $t2
lw   $ra, 4($sp) # Restore $ra
addi $sp, $sp, 8 # Deallocate stack frame
jr   $ra
```

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