Branching (flow control)

Branching

Conditional instruction: Compare values then

no

Jump to the offset or continue to the next instruction



Unconditional instruction **Execute the** instruction at provided address

- GOTO

(Label)

- Function calls



Sections 2.7

Branch instructions

Branch to a labelled instruction: conditional &

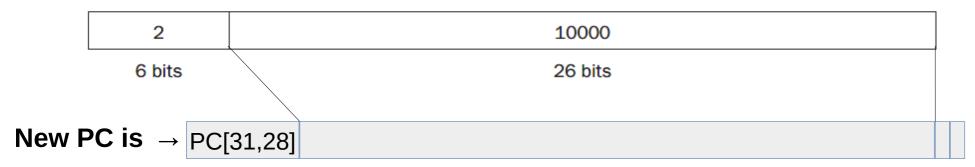
unconditional

Unconditional branch instruction

• *j* Label # jump to instruction at Label:

j instruction enables
performing FAR jumps in
the instruction sequence.
26 bits → ±32M instructions
→ ± 128 Mbytes

J-format Instruction



Do NOT use jump for function calls, which have a different instruction

Conditional Branch

- **beq** rs, rt, L1 # if (rs == rt) branch to instruction labeled L1;
- **bne** rs, rt, L1 # if (rs != rt) branch to instruction labeled L1;

	Some code		
Beq rs,rt, L1			
	Code executed if not branching		
	J common		
	L1: code executed when branching		

Common: Rest of code

op	rs	rt	Instruction offset	Ta
6 bit	s 5 bits	5 bits	16 bits	

Target address = PC + offset × 4 [Relative address]

Other Instructions: bgtz, bltz, bgez, blez Why not to use BLT?

too complicated to implement → would stretch the clock cycle time or would take extra clock cycles per instruction

Solution: use two basic instructions to execute its logic:)



More Conditional Operations

- Set result to 1 if a condition is true
 - Otherwise, set to 0

```
slt rd, rs, rt # if (rs < rt) rd = 1; else rd = 0;

slti rt, rs, const #if (rs < constant) rt = 1; else rt = 0;
```

Use in combination with beq, bne

```
slt $t0, $s1, $s2 # if ($s1 < $s2) → t0 = 1
bne $t0, $zero, L # branch to L if $S1 < $$S2
```

When you write blt in the editor, it will be translated to these two instructions

Signed vs. Unsigned

- Signed comparison: *slt*, *slti*
- Unsigned comparison: *sltu*, *sltui*
- Example

```
slt $t0, $s0, $s1 # signed
```

•
$$-1 < +1 \rightarrow \$t0 = 1$$

sltu \$t0, \$s0, \$s1 # unsigned

•
$$+4,294,967,295 > +1 \rightarrow $t0 = 0$$

MIPS <u>Conditional</u> Branching Instructions

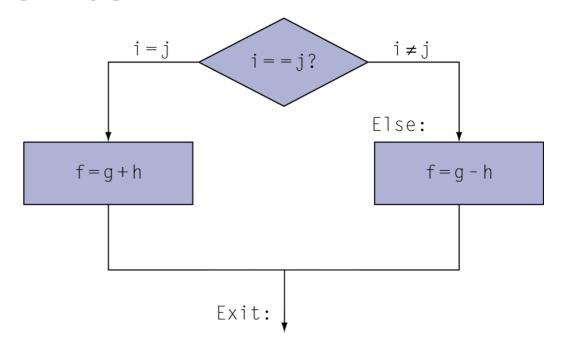
Instruction	RTL	Notes
beq \$rs, \$rt, imm	$if(R[\$rs] = R[\$rt]) \ PC \leftarrow PC + 4 + SignExt_{18b}(\{imm, 00\})$	(I-format)
bne \$rs, \$rt, imm	$if(R[\$rs] != R[\$rt]) PC \leftarrow PC + 4 + SignExt_{18b}(\{imm, 00\})$	(I-format)
blez \$rs, imm	$if(R[\$rs] <= 0) \ PC \leftarrow PC + 4 + SignExt_{18b}(\{imm, 00\})$	Signed comparison (I-format)
bgtz \$rs, imm	$if(R[\$rs] > 0) \ PC \leftarrow PC + 4 + SignExt_{18b}(\{imm, 00\})$	Signed comparison (I-format)
slt \$rd, \$rs, \$rt	$R[\$rd] \leftarrow R[\$rs] < R[\$rt]$	Signed comparison (R-format)
sltu \$rd, \$rs, \$rt	$R[\$rd] \leftarrow R[\$rs] < R[\$rt]$	Unsigned comparison (R-format)

If Statements

High-level code:

- f, g, ... in \$s0, \$s1, ...
- Compiled MIPS code:

```
bne $s3, $s4, Else
    add $s0, $s1, $s2
    j Exit
Else: sub $s0, $s1, $s2
Exit:
```



Assembler calculates *relative* addresses of these labels

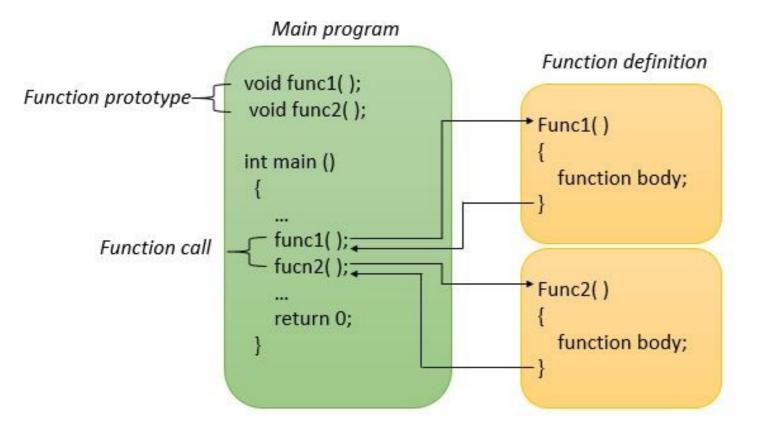
Adding array elements using a loop

```
1 .data
          .word 5, 10, 15 # Integer array with three elements
   array:
   . text
    .globl main
   main: la $t4, array # Load the base address of the array into $t4
         li $t5, 0  # Initialize Loop counter
6
                                                                       Initialize
         li $t3, 0 # Initialize Sum of array elements
8
         li $t6, 3  # Load the number of elements (3) into $t6
   loop: Iw $t0, 0($t4) # Load the element at offset 0
                                                                     Process and
         add $t3, $t3, $t0 # Add the current element to the sum
10
         addi $t4, $t4, 4 # Increment by 4 bytes to move to the next element
11
         addi $t5, $t5, 1 # Increment the loop counter
12
   Loop? bne $t5, $t6, loop # Branch to loop if counter is not equal to 3
13
         move $a0, $t3 # Move the sum to $a0 for printing
14
15
         li $v0, 1
                           # Load the print integer syscall code
         syscall
16
         # Exit the program
17
                   # Load the exit syscall code
18
         li $v0, 10
19
         syscall
```

Procedures

Writing clean modular reusable code!!

Procedure (functions) (aka def)



Procedure allows programmers to concentrate on a portion of a task at a time

Takes: argument(s)

Returns: result(s)

```
#Main code here
def sum_list(list1):
 sum = 0
                                 myList = [5, 10, 15]
 for i in list1:
                                 # function call
  sum += i
                                 Sum = sum_list(myList)
 return sum
                 int sum list(int *list1, int size) {
                   int sum = 0;
                   for (int i = 0; i < size; i++) {
                    sum += list1[i];
                   return sum;
```

MIPS Procedure Instructions

Procedure call: jump and link (jal)
jal sum_list (J-Format)

- Instructs the processor to execute the code at sum_list label
- **\$PC** ← address of he first instruction in the procedure
- \$ra ← address of the instruction after *jal*
- Procedure return: jump register (jr)
 jr \$ra #R-Format
- \$PC ← \$ra
 - Unconditional jump returns to the calling code

Procedure Dynamics

```
main: ......
jal sum List (A2)
AND
exit: syscall
sum_List: .....
  B1
           B2
```

How to call?

A1 Calling code puts Arguments in \$a0-\$a3 registers

How to get the results?

- B1 Procedure puts return value(s) in \$v0-\$v1
- B2 jr \$ra → moves \$pc ← \$ra
- B3 after return, calling code reads the result form \$v0-\$v1

```
main: ......

jal sum_List
Back: AND ......

exit: syscall
```

```
sum_List: .....
.....
jr $ra
```



Why can't we just use

J sum_List

J back ← at the end of the procedure

```
main: .......

jal sum_List
AND ......

exit: syscall
```

```
Procedure Design
```

Pass array address to the procedure **\$a0**Pass the array size to the procedure **\$a1**Returns the sum in **\$v0**

```
sum_List: .....
.....
jr $ra
```

MIPS Register Rules for Procedures



\$a0 – \$a3: *arguments registers* for passing parameters (reg's 4 – 7)

\$v0, \$v1: registers for **result values** (reg's 2 and 3)

Registers Rules

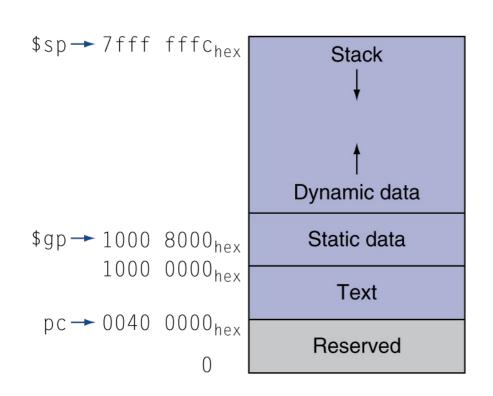
- \$t0 \$t9: temporaries
 - Can be overwritten by callee,
 - must be saved by caller if needed!
- \$s0 \$s7: saved registers
 - Can **NOT** be overwritten by callee,
 - Must be saved/restored by callee

How to save and restore data?

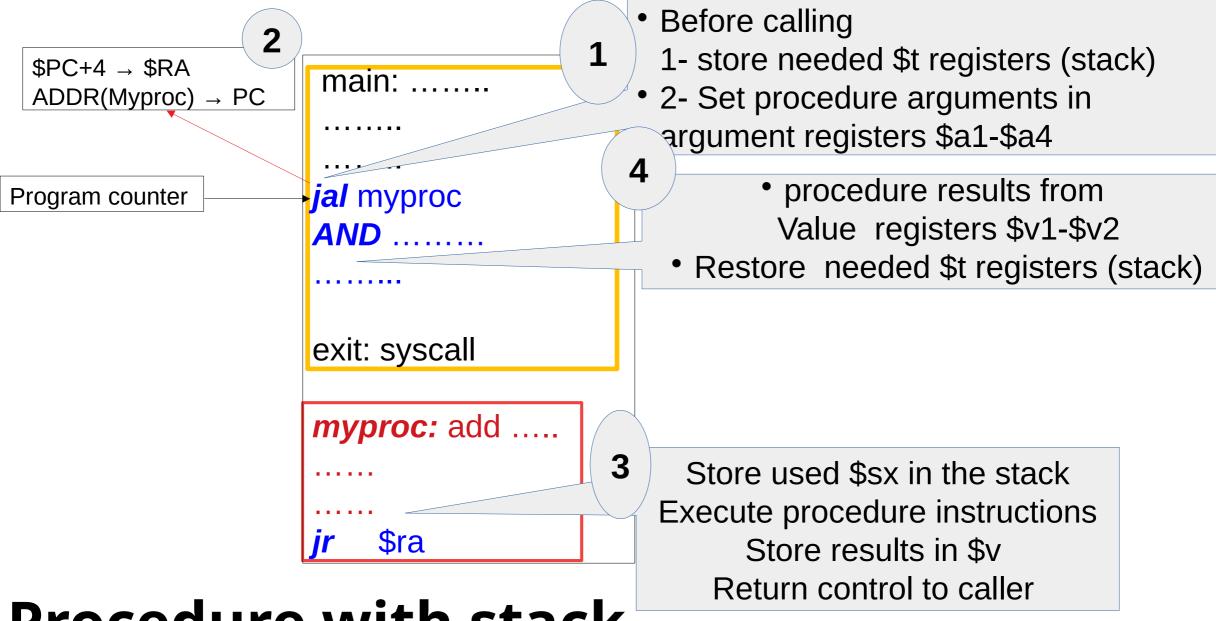
Use the Stack



Memory Layout



- Text: program code
- Static data: global variables
 - e.g., static variables in C, constant arrays and strings
 - \$gp (global pointer register)
- Dynamic data: heap
 - E.g., malloc in C, new in Java



Procedure with stack



Stack

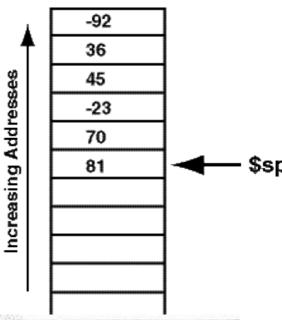
- A last-in-first-out (LIFO) queue for storing register content
 - Stack pointer (\$SP) points to the most recent allocated address in stack
 - MIPS stack is managed <u>manually</u>

addi \$sp, \$sp, -4sw \$s0, 0(\$sp)

Save s0 on stack before using it in the procedure

lw \$s0, 0(\$sp)addi \$sp, \$sp, 4

Restore s0 before exiting the procedure





Leaf Procedure and Stack Example

Leaf procedure: A procedure that does not call another procedure (i.e., do the job and return to caller)

C code:

```
int leaf_example (int g, h, i, j)
{ int f;
    f = (g + h) - (i + j);
    return f;
}
```

- Arguments g, ..., j in \$a0, ..., \$a3
- Assume the procedure needs to use \$s0
- Result in \$v0

• MIPS code:

leaf_example:		
addi \$sp, \$sp, -4		
sw \$s0, 0(\$sp)		
add \$t0, \$a0, \$a1		
add \$t1, \$a2, \$a3		
sub \$s0, \$t0, \$t1		
add \$v0, \$s0, \$zero		
lw \$s0, 0(\$sp)		
addi \$sp, \$sp, 4		
jr \$ra		

Save \$s0 on stack

Procedure body

store Result in v0

Restore s0 from stack

Return to caller

Leaf Procedure and Stack Example

 Leaf procedure: A procedure that does not call another procedure

```
C code:
  int leaf_example (int g, h, i, j)
  { int f;
    f = (g + h) - (i + j);
    return f;
}
    Arguments g, ..., j in $a0, ..., $a3
```

• Result in \$v0

leaf example:

• MIPS code:

```
leaf_example:

add $t0, $a0, $a1

add $t1, $a2, $a3

sub $v0, $t0, $t1

jr $ra
```

```
leaf_example:
 addi $sp, $sp, -4
 sw $s0, 0($sp)
 add $t0, $a0, $a1
 add $t1, $a2, $a3
 sub $s0, $t0, $t1
 add $v0, $s0,
$zero
 lw $s0, 0($sp)
 addi $sp, $sp, 4
    $ra
```

String Copy Example (Leaf Procedure)

- C code:
 - Null-terminated string
 void strcpy (char x[], char y[])
 { int i; i = 0; while ((x[i]=y[i])!='\0') i += 1;
 - Addresses of x, y in \$a0,
 \$a1
 - i in \$s0

• MIPS code:

```
strcpy:
  addi $sp, $sp, -4
                       # adjust stack for 1 item
  sw $s0, 0($sp) # save $s0
  add $s0, $zero, $zero # i = 0
NEXT: add $t1, $s0, $a1
                      # addr of y[i] in $t1
  lbu $t2, 0($t1)
                       # $t2 = y[i]
  add $t3, $s0, $a0
                      # addr of x[i] in $t3
  sb $t2, 0($t3)
                \# x[i] = y[i]
  beq $t2, $zero, ExitLoop_# exit loop if y[i] == 0
  addi $s0, $s0, 1
                 #i = i + 1
                   # next iteration of loop
     NEXT
                             # restore saved $s0
ExitLoop: lw $s0, 0($sp)
  addi $sp, $sp, 4 # pop 1 item from stack
     $ra
          # and return
```

Non-Leaf Procedures

- Procedures that call other procedures (including recursive calls)
- For nested call, caller needs to save on the stack:
 - Its return address
 - Any arguments and temporaries needed after the call
- Restore from the stack after the call

		1.
Og.	76)
\ \hat{h}		
(10)	:	
1	,"	

Preserved	Not preserved
Saved registers: \$s0-\$s7	Temporary registers: \$t0-\$t9
Stack pointer register: \$sp	Argument registers: \$a0-\$a3
Return address register: \$ra	Return value registers: \$ v 0-\$ v 1
Stack above the stack pointer	Stack below the stack pointer

Non-Leaf Procedure Example

• MIPS code:

```
• C code:
 int fact (int n)
   if (n < 1)
return 1;
   else return
n * fact(n - 1);

    Argument n in $a0

    Result in $v0
```

```
fact:
  addi $sp, $sp, -8
                            # adjust stack for 2 items
  sw $ra, 4($sp) # save return address
  sw $a0, 0($sp) # save argument
  slti $t0, $a0, 1
                           # test for n < 1
  beq $t0, $zero, L1
  addi $v0, $zero, 1
                            # if so, result is 1
  addi $sp, $sp, 8 # pop 2 items from stack
  ir $ra
                        # and return
L1: addi $a0, $a0, -1
                           # else decrement n
  jal fact
                            # recursive call
  lw $a0, 0($sp)
                   # restore original n
  lw $ra, 4($sp) # and return address
  addi $sp, $sp, 8
                   # pop 2 items from stack
  mul $v0, $a0, $v0
                            # multiply to get result
                            # and return
  ir $ra
```

What if I need to

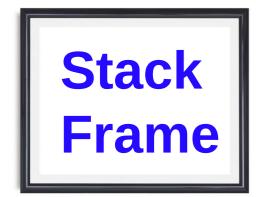
- pass more than four arguments (\$a0 \$a3) to the procedure?
- receive more values from the procedure?

Read ME



What if I need to

pass more than four arguments to the procedure? receive more values from the procedure?



Int main(int x){

double dd;

int ii;

update(a,b,....z);

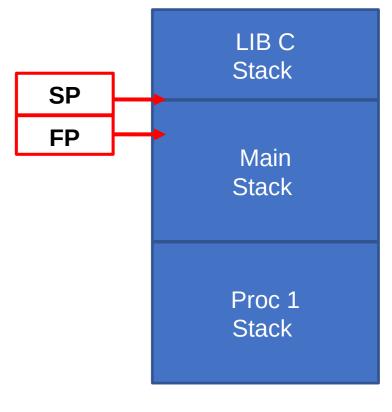
double update(a,...z){

return a*dd* ...*z }

```
    A stack frame is created to support procedure calls
```

```
Libc \rightarrow main(...) \rightarrow proc1(...) \rightarrow proc2(...)
```

- Before the execution of every procedure, part of the stack is populated by procedure-specific information
- The exact contents and layout of the stack vary by processor architecture and function call convention
- Stack frames are manged using stack pointer (SP) and frame pointer (FP) registers

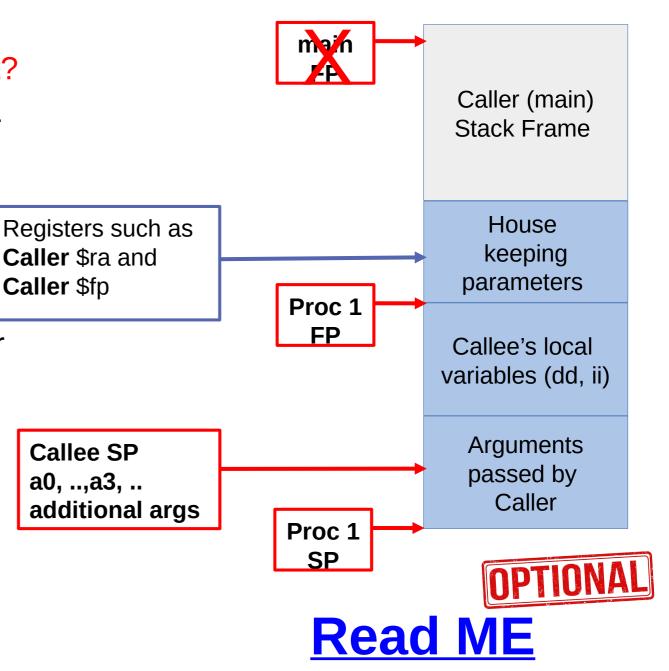


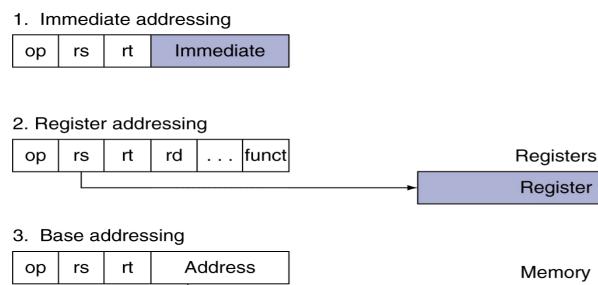


Procedure 1 Stack frame

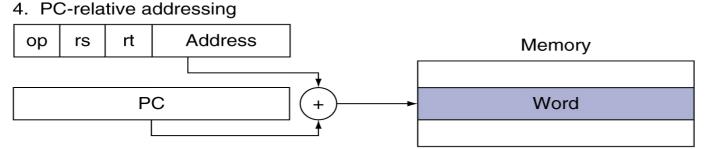
- Who creates the stack frame and fill it?
 - Compiler or assembly programmer
- How is the stack frame populated?
 - Using assembly instructions
 - sw, sh, sb for storing data
 - add, sub for adjusting stack pointer

Remember: Each call comes with some overhead for creating a stack frame. That is the cost we have to pay for modularity!

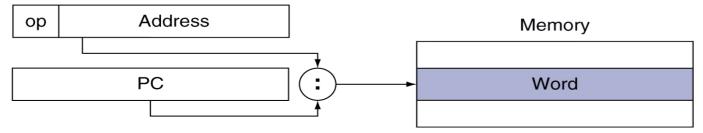




op rs rt Address Memory Register + Byte Halfword Word



5. Pseudodirect addressing



MIPS Addressing Mode Summary

Addressing modes refers to the way in which the operand of an instruction is specified.



Give me an example instruction for every address mode

Remarks on MIPS ISA Design

- BIG PICTURE
- The design of instruction set requires a delicate balance among
 - the number of instructions needed to execute a program,
 - the number of clock cycles needed by an instruction, and
 - the speed of the clock
- MIPS achieves this balance by following some design principals
- 1)Make the common case fast
- 2) Simplicity favours regularity
- 3)Smaller is faster

Tell me examples for these principals in MIPS design

MIPS ISA Design Principals

• Design Principle 1: Smaller is faster

- Desire to maintain fast execution time
- Number of registers. More registers mandates longer identifier
- **Instruction size.** one word instructions enables fetching the instruction in one step

Design Principle 2: Simplicity favors regularity

- Regularity makes implementation simpler → higher performance at lower cost
- Instruction format layout is similar → simplifies the HW implementation

• Design Principle 3: Make the common case fast

- Small constants are common (small immediate values)
- Small loops are more common (small immediate values)
- Immediate operand avoids a load instruction (addi, ...)



Other processors



ARMv7 and MIPS Similarities **22**



Sections 2.16-2.19 **Optional**

- ARMv7: the most popular embedded core
- Similar basic set of instructions to MIPS

	ARMv7	MIPS
Date announced	1985	1985
Instruction size	32 bits	32 bits
Address space	32-bit flat	32-bit flat
Data alignment	Aligned	Aligned
Data addressing modes	9	3
Registers	15 × 32-bit	31 × 32-bit
Input/output	Memory mapped	Memory mapped



Compare and Branch in ARMv7

- MIPS uses content of registers to evaluate conditional branches
- ARMv7 uses condition codes for result of an arithmetic/logical instruction
 - Negative, zero, carry, overflow
 - Compare instructions to set condition codes without keeping the result
- Each instruction can be conditional
 - Top 4 bits of instruction word: condition value
 - Can avoid branches over single instructions



ARMv8 Instructions

- In moving to 64-bit, ARM did a complete overhaul
- ARM v8 resembles MIPS
 - Changes from v7:
 - No conditional execution field
 - Immediate field is 12-bit constant
 - PC is no longer a GPR
 - GPR set expanded to 32
 - Addressing modes work for all word sizes
 - Divide instruction
 - Branch if equal/branch if not equal instructions



The Intel x86 ISA Evolution

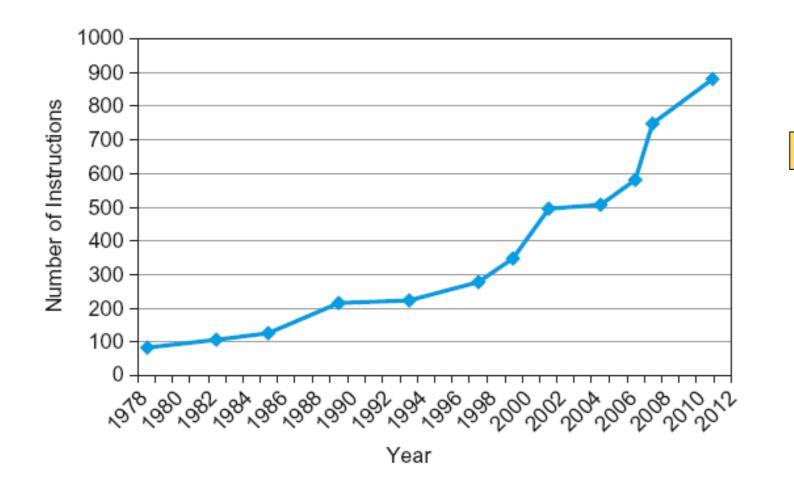
- Evolution with backward compatibility
 - 8080 (1974): 8-bit microprocessor
 - Accumulator, plus 3 index-register pairs
 - 8086 (1978): 16-bit extension to 8080
 - Complex instruction set (CISC)
 - 8087 (1980): floating-point coprocessor
 - Adds FP instructions and register stack
 - 80286 (1982): 24-bit addresses
 - Segmented memory mapping and protection
 - 80386 (1985): 32-bit extension (now IA-32)
 - Additional addressing modes and operations
 - Paged memory mapping as well as segments



Further Evolution

- Backward compatibility

 instruction set doesn't change
 - But they do have more instructions



x86 instruction set



Basic x86 Addressing Modes

• Two operands per instruction (destination register implied!)

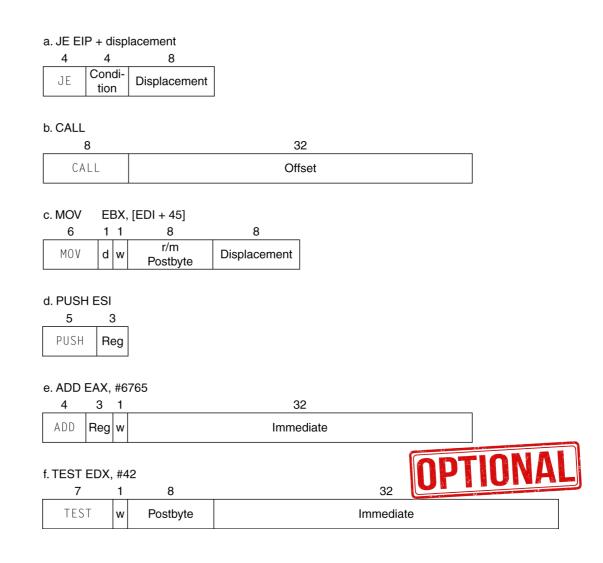
Source/dest operand	Second source operand
Register	Register
Register	Immediate
Register	Memory
Memory	Register
Memory	Immediate

- Memory addressing modes
 - Address in register
 - Address = R_{base} + displacement
 - Two further addressing modes
 - Register restriction



X86 Instruction Encoding

- Variable length encoding
 - Postfix bytes specify addressing mode
 - Prefix bytes modify operation
 - Operand length, repetition, locking, ...



Comparison to MIPS and ARMv7

- X86 is more difficult to build than computers using MIPS and ARMv7
 - Complex instructions
- Market size advantage over MIPS and ARMv7
 - Frequently used component of x86 are not too difficult to implement
 - Intel and AMD have expertise in this area
- In PostPCEra
 - X86 has not been competitive in personal mobile device regardless of implementation expertise

Fallacies

- Powerful instruction
 higher performance
 - Fewer instructions required
 - But complex instructions are hard to implement
 - May slow down all instructions, including simple ones
 - Compilers are good at making fast code from simple instructions
- Use assembly code for high performance
 - But modern compilers are better at dealing with modern processors
 - More lines of code
 — more errors and less productivity



Pitfalls

- Sequential words are not at sequential addresses
 - Increment by 4, not by 1!
 - MIPS uses 32-bit word that is equivalent to 4 bytes

