Chapter 2

Instructions: Language of the Computer

Instruction Set

- The repertoire of instructions of a computer
- Different computers have different instruction sets
 - But with many aspects in common
- Early computers had very simple instruction sets
 - Simplified implementation
- Many modern computers also have simple instruction sets

The MIPS Instruction Set

- Used as the example throughout the book
- Stanford MIPS commercialized by MIPS Technologies (<u>www.mips.com</u>)
- Large share of embedded core market
 - Applications in consumer electronics, network/storage equipment, cameras, printers, ...
- Typical of many modern ISAs
 - See MIPS Reference Data tear-out card, and Appendixes B and E

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Arithmetic Operations

- Add and subtract, three operands
 - Two sources and one destination add a, b, c # a gets b + c
- All arithmetic operations have this form
- Design Principle 1: Simplicity favours regularity
 - Regularity makes implementation simpler
 - Simplicity enables higher performance at lower cost

Arithmetic Example

C code:

$$f = (g + h) - (i + j);$$

Compiled MIPS code:

```
add t0, g, h # temp t0 = g + h add t1, i, j # temp t1 = i + j sub f, t0, t1 # f = t0 - t1
```

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Register Operands

- Arithmetic instructions use register operands
- \blacksquare MIPS has a 32 imes 32-bit register file
 - Use for frequently accessed data
 - Numbered 0 to 31
 - 32-bit data called a "word"
- Assembler names
 - \$t0, \$t1, ..., \$t9 for temporary values
 - \$s0, \$s1, ..., \$s7 for saved variables
- Design Principle 2: Smaller is faster
 - c.f. main memory: millions of locations

Register Operand Example

C code:

```
f = (g + h) - (i + j);

• f, ..., j in $s0, ..., $s4
```

Compiled MIPS code:

```
add $t0, $s1, $s2
add $t1, $s3, $s4
sub $s0, $t0, $t1
```

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Memory Operands

- Main memory used for composite data
 - Arrays, structures, dynamic data
- To apply arithmetic operations
 - Load values from memory into registers
 - Store result from register to memory
- Memory is byte addressed
 - Each address identifies an 8-bit byte
- Words are aligned in memory
 - Address must be a multiple of 4
- MIPS is Big Endian
 - Most-significant byte at least address of a word
 - c.f. Little Endian: least-significant byte at least address

Memory Operand Example 1

C code:

$$g = h + A[8];$$

- g in \$s1, h in \$s2, base address of A in \$s3
- Compiled MIPS code:
 - Index 8 requires offset of 32
 - 4 bytes per word

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Memory Operand Example 2

C code:

$$A[12] = h + A[8];$$

- h in \$s2, base address of A in \$s3
- Compiled MIPS code:
 - Index 8 requires offset of 32

```
lw $t0, 32($s3)  # load word
add $t0, $s2, $t0
sw $t0, 48($s3)  # store word
```

Registers vs. Memory

- Registers are faster to access than memory
- Operating on memory data requires loads and stores
 - More instructions to be executed
- Compiler must use registers for variables as much as possible
 - Only spill to memory for less frequently used variables
 - Register optimization is important!

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Immediate Operands

- Constant data specified in an instruction addi \$s3, \$s3, 4
- No subtract immediate instruction
 - Just use a negative constant addi \$s2, \$s1, -1
- Design Principle 3: Make the common case fast
 - Small constants are common
 - Immediate operand avoids a load instruction

The Constant Zero

- MIPS register 0 (\$zero) is the constant 0
 - Cannot be overwritten
- Useful for common operations
 - E.g., move between registers add \$t2, \$s1, \$zero

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Unsigned Binary Integers

Given an n-bit number

$$x = x_{n-1}2^{n-1} + x_{n-2}2^{n-2} + \dots + x_12^1 + x_02^0$$

- Range: 0 to +2ⁿ 1
- Example
 - 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 1011₂ = 0 + ... + $1 \times 2^3 + 0 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0$ = 0 + ... + 8 + 0 + 2 + 1 = 11_{10}
- Using 32 bits
 - 0 to +4,294,967,295

2s-Complement Signed Integers

Given an n-bit number

$$x = -x_{n-1}2^{n-1} + x_{n-2}2^{n-2} + \dots + x_12^1 + x_02^0$$

- Range: -2^{n-1} to $+2^{n-1} 1$
- Example
- Using 32 bits
 - -2,147,483,648 to +2,147,483,647

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2s-Complement Signed Integers

- Bit 31 is sign bit
 - 1 for negative numbers
 - 0 for non-negative numbers
- $-(-2^{n-1})$ can't be represented
- Non-negative numbers have the same unsigned and 2s-complement representation
- Some specific numbers
 - **0**: 0000 0000 ... 0000
 - **-**1: 1111 1111 ... 1111
 - Most-negative: 1000 0000 ... 0000
 - Most-positive: 0111 1111 ... 1111

Signed Negation

- Complement and add 1
 - Complement means 1 → 0, 0 → 1

$$x + x = 1111...111_2 = -1$$

 $x + 1 = -x$

- Example: negate +2
 - +2 = 0000 0000 ... 0010₂
 - $-2 = 1111 \ 1111 \dots \ 1101_2 + 1$ = 1111 \ 1111 \ \dots \ \ 1110_2

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Sign Extension

- Representing a number using more bits
 - Preserve the numeric value
- In MIPS instruction set
 - addi: extend immediate value
 - 1b, 1h: extend loaded byte/halfword
 - beq, bne: extend the displacement
- Replicate the sign bit to the left
 - c.f. unsigned values: extend with 0s
- Examples: 8-bit to 16-bit
 - +2: 0000 0010 => 0000 0000 0000 0010
 - -2: 1111 1110 => 1111 1111 1111 1110

Representing Instructions

- Instructions are encoded in binary
 - Called machine code
- MIPS instructions
 - Encoded as 32-bit instruction words
 - Small number of formats encoding operation code (opcode), register numbers, ...
 - Regularity!
- Register numbers
 - \$t0 \$t7 are reg's 8 15
 - \$t8 \$t9 are reg's 24 25
 - \$s0 \$s7 are reg's 16 23

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MIPS R-format Instructions



- Instruction fields
 - op: operation code (opcode)
 - rs: first source register number
 - rt: second source register number
 - rd: destination register number
 - shamt: shift amount (00000 for now)
 - funct: function code (extends opcode)

R-format Example

| ор | rs | rt | rd | shamt | funct |
|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| 6 bits | 5 bits | 5 bits | 5 bits | 5 bits | 6 bits |

add \$t0, \$s1, \$s2

| special | \$s1 | \$s2 | \$t0 | 0 | add |
|---------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------|
| 0 | 17 | 18 | 8 | 0 | 32 |
| 000000 | 10001 | 10010 | 01000 | 00000 | 100000 |

 $0000001000110010010000000100000_2 = 02324020_{16}$

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Hexadecimal

- Base 16
 - Compact representation of bit strings
 - 4 bits per hex digit

| 0 | 0000 | 4 | 0100 | 8 | 1000 | С | 1100 |
|---|------|---|------|---|------|---|------|
| 1 | 0001 | 5 | 0101 | 9 | 1001 | d | 1101 |
| 2 | 0010 | 6 | 0110 | а | 1010 | е | 1110 |
| 3 | 0011 | 7 | 0111 | b | 1011 | f | 1111 |

- Example: eca8 6420
 - 1110 1100 1010 1000 0110 0100 0010 0000

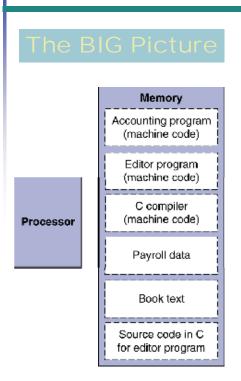
MIPS I-format Instructions

| ор | rs | rt | constant or address |
|--------|--------|--------|---------------------|
| 6 bits | 5 bits | 5 bits | 16 bits |

- Immediate arithmetic and load/store instructions
 - rt: destination or source register number
 - Constant: -2¹⁵ to +2¹⁵ 1
 - Address: offset added to base address in rs
- Design Principle 4: Good design demands good compromises
 - Different formats complicate decoding, but allow 32-bit instructions uniformly
 - Keep formats as similar as possible

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Stored Program Computers



- Instructions represented in binary, just like data
- Instructions and data stored in memory
- Programs can operate on programs
 - e.g., compilers, linkers, ...
- Binary compatibility allows compiled programs to work on different computers
 - Standardized ISAs

Logical Operations

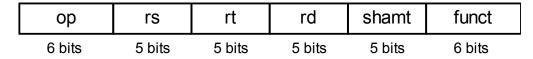
Instructions for bitwise manipulation

| Operation | С | Java | MIPS |
|-------------|-----|------|-----------|
| Shift left | << | << | s11 |
| Shift right | >> | >>> | srl |
| Bitwise AND | & | & | and, andi |
| Bitwise OR | - 1 | | or, ori |
| Bitwise NOT | ~ | ~ | nor |

 Useful for extracting and inserting groups of bits in a word

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Shift Operations



- shamt: how many positions to shift
- Shift left logical
 - Shift left and fill with 0 bits
 - s11 by i bits multiplies by 2i
- Shift right logical
 - Shift right and fill with 0 bits
 - srl by i bits divides by 2i (unsigned only)

AND Operations

- Useful to mask bits in a word
 - Select some bits, clear others to 0

```
and $t0, $t1, $t2
```

```
$t2 | 0000 0000 0000 0000 00<mark>00 11</mark>01 1100 0000
```

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OR Operations

- Useful to include bits in a word
 - Set some bits to 1, leave others unchanged

```
$t2 0000 0000 0000 0000 1101 1100 0000
```

\$t1 | 0000 0000 0000 0000 0011 1100 0000 0000

\$t0 0000 0000 0000 00011 1101 1100 0000

NOT Operations

- Useful to invert bits in a word
 - Change 0 to 1, and 1 to 0
- MIPS has NOR 3-operand instruction
 - a NOR b == NOT (a OR b)

nor \$t0, \$t1, \$zero ← —

Register 0: always read as zero

```
$t1 | 0000 0000 0000 0001 1100 0000 0000
```

\$t0 | 1111 1111 1111 1111 1100 0011 1111 1111

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Conditional Operations

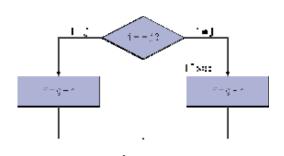
- Branch to a labeled instruction if a condition is true
 - Otherwise, continue sequentially
- beq rs, rt, L1
 - if (rs == rt) branch to instruction labeled L1;
- bne rs, rt, L1
 - if (rs != rt) branch to instruction labeled L1;
- j L1
 - unconditional jump to instruction labeled L1

Compiling If Statements

C code:

```
if (i==j) f = g+h;
else f = g-h;
```

- 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 addresses

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Compiling Loop Statements

C code:

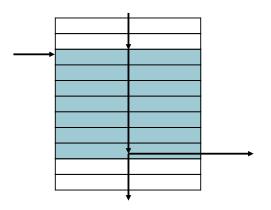
```
while (save[i] == k) i += 1;
```

- i in \$s3, k in \$s5, address of save in \$s6
- Compiled MIPS code:

```
Loop: sll $t1, $s3, 2
add $t1, $t1, $s6
lw $t0, 0($t1)
bne $t0, $s5, Exit
addi $s3, $s3, 1
j Loop
```

Basic Blocks

- A basic block is a sequence of instructions with
 - No embedded branches (except at end)
 - No branch targets (except at beginning)



- A compiler identifies basic blocks for optimization
- An advanced processor can accelerate execution of basic blocks

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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, constant
 - if (rs < constant) rt = 1; else rt = 0;</p>
- Use in combination with beq, bne

```
slt $t0, $s1, $s2 # if ($s1 < $s2)
bne $t0, $zero, L # branch to L
```

Branch Instruction Design

- Why not blt, bge, etc?
- Hardware for <, ≥, ... slower than =, ≠</p>
 - Combining with branch involves more work per instruction, requiring a slower clock
 - All instructions penalized!
- beq and bne are the common case
- This is a good design compromise

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Signed vs. Unsigned

- Signed comparison: slt, slti
- Unsigned comparison: sltu, sltui
- Example
 - \$s0 = 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111
 - \$s1 = 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0001
 - slt \$t0, \$s0, \$s1 # signed
 -1 < +1 ⇒ \$t0 = 1</pre>
 - sltu \$t0, \$s0, \$s1 # unsigned +4.294.967.295 > +1 ⇒ \$t0 = 0

- 1. Place parameters in registers
- 2. Transfer control to procedure
- 3. Acquire storage for procedure
- 4. Perform procedure's operations
- Place result in register for caller
- 6. Return to place of call

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Register Usage

- \$a0 \$a3: arguments (reg's 4 7)
- \$v0, \$v1: result values (reg's 2 and 3)
- \$t0 \$t9: temporaries
 - Can be overwritten by callee
- \$s0 \$s7: saved
 - Must be saved/restored by callee
- \$gp: global pointer for static data (reg 28)
- \$sp: stack pointer (reg 29)
- \$fp: frame pointer (reg 30)
- \$ra: return address (reg 31)

Procedure Call Instructions

- Procedure call: jump and link jal ProcedureLabel
 - Address of following instruction put in \$ra
 - Jumps to target address
- Procedure return: jump register ir \$ra
 - Copies \$ra to program counter
 - Can also be used for computed jumps
 - e.g., for case/switch statements

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Leaf Procedure Example

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
- f in \$s0 (hence, need to save \$s0 on stack)
- Result in \$v0

Leaf Procedure Example

MIPS code:

| leaf_ex | xamp1 | e: | |
|---------|-------|-------|--------|
| | \$sp, | | -4 |
| SW | \$s0, | | o) |
| add | \$t0, | \$a0, | \$a1 |
| add | \$t1, | \$a2, | \$a3 |
| sub | \$s0, | \$t0, | \$t1 |
| add | \$v0, | \$s0, | \$zero |
| ٦w | \$s0, | 0(\$s | ງ) |
| addi | \$sp, | \$sp, | 4 |
| jr | \$ra | | |

Save \$s0 on stack

Procedure body

Result

Restore \$s0

Return

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Non-Leaf Procedures

- Procedures that call other procedures
- 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

Non-Leaf Procedure Example

C code:

```
int fact (int n)
{
  if (n < 1) return f;
  else return n * fact(n - 1);
}</pre>
```

- Argument n in \$a0
- Result in \$v0

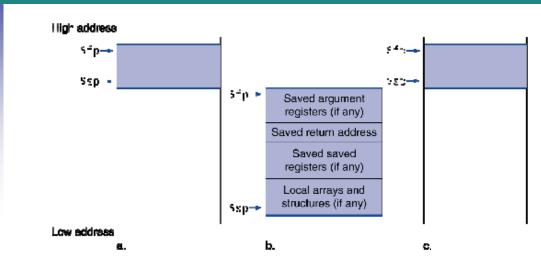
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Non-Leaf Procedure Example

MIPS code:

```
fact:
    addi $sp, $sp, -8
                          # adjust stack for 2 items
         $ra, 4($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
                              pop 2 items from stack
    addi $sp, $sp, 8
                          #
    jr
         $ra
                              and return
L1: addi $a0, $a0, -1
                          # else decrement n
         fact
                          # recursive call
    jal
         $a0, 0($sp)
    1w
                          # restore original n
         $ra, 4($sp)
                          # and return address
                          # pop 2 items from stack
    addi $sp, $sp, 8
    mul
         $v0, $a0, $v0
                          # multiply to get result
    jr
         $ra
                          # and return
```

Local Data on the Stack

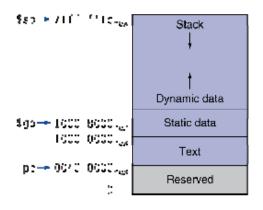


- Local data allocated by callee
 - e.g., C automatic variables
- Procedure frame (activation record)
 - Used by some compilers to manage stack storage

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Memory Layout

- Text: program code
- Static data: global variables
 - e.g., static variables in C, constant arrays and strings
 - \$gp initialized to address allowing ±offsets into this segment
- Dynamic data: heap
 - E.g., malloc in C, new in Java
- Stack: automatic storage



Character Data

- Byte-encoded character sets
 - ASCII: 128 characters
 - 95 graphic, 33 control
 - Latin-1: 256 characters
 - ASCII, +96 more graphic characters
- Unicode: 32-bit character set
 - Used in Java, C++ wide characters, ...
 - Most of the world's alphabets, plus symbols
 - UTF-8, UTF-16: variable-length encodings

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Byte/Halfword Operations

- Could use bitwise operations
- MIPS byte/halfword load/store
 - String processing is a common case

lb rt, offset(rs) lh rt, offset(rs)

Sign extend to 32 bits in rt

lbu rt, offset(rs) lhu rt, offset(rs)

Zero extend to 32 bits in rt

sb rt, offset(rs) sh rt, offset(rs)

Store just rightmost byte/halfword

String Copy Example

- C code (naïve):
 - 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

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String Copy Example

MIPS code:

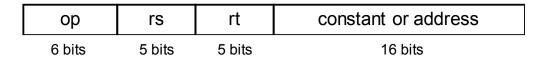
```
strcpy:
    addi $sp, $sp, -4
                           # adjust stack for 1 item
         $s0, 0($sp)
                          # save $s0
    add $s0, $zero, $zero # i = 0
         $t1, $s0, $a1  # addr of y[i] in $t1
L1: add
         $t2, 0($t1)
                          # $t2 = y[i]
    1bu
    add $t3, $s0, $a0  # addr of x[i] in $t3
         $t2, 0($t3)
                         \# x[i] = y[i]
    sb
        $t2, $zero, L2
    beq
                           # exit loop if y[i] == 0
    addi $s0, $s0, 1
                           \# i = i + 1
                           # next iteration of loop
         L1
L2: 1w
         $s0, 0($sp)
                           # restore saved $s0
    addi $sp, $sp, 4
                           # pop 1 item from stack
                           # and return
    jr
         $ra
```

- Most constants are small
 - 16-bit immediate is sufficient
- For the occasional 32-bit constantlui rt, constant
 - Copies 16-bit constant to left 16 bits of rt
 - Clears right 16 bits of rt to 0

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Branch Addressing

- Branch instructions specify
 - Opcode, two registers, target address
- Most branch targets are near branch
 - Forward or backward



- PC-relative addressing
 - Target address = PC + offset × 4
 - PC already incremented by 4 by this time

Jump Addressing

- Jump (j and jal) targets could be anywhere in text segment
 - Encode full address in instruction

| ор | address |
|--------|---------|
| 6 bits | 26 bits |

- (Pseudo)Direct jump addressing
 - Target address = PC_{31...28}: (address × 4)

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Target Addressing Example

- Loop code from earlier example
 - Assume Loop at location 80000

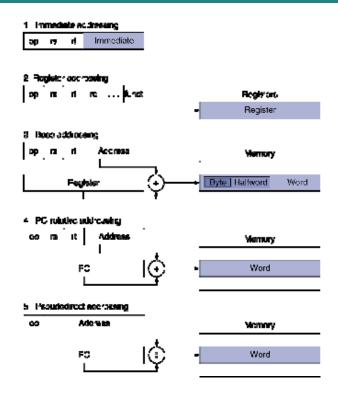
```
Loop: sll $t1, $s3, 2
                           80000
                                   0
                                       0
                                            19
                                                 9
      add $t1, $t1, $s6
                           80004
                                  . 0
                                       9
                                            22
                                                 9
                                                     0
                                                          32
      lw $t0, 0($t1)
                           80008
                                  35
                                       9
                                            8
                                                     0
      bne $t0, $s5, Exit 80012
                                   5
                                       8
                                            21
                                                     2
      addi $s3, $s3, 1
                           80016
                                   8
                                       19
                                            19
      i
           Loop
                           80020
                                   2...
                                              20000
Exit: ...
                           80024
```

Branching Far Away

- If branch target is too far to encode with 16-bit offset, assembler rewrites the code
- Example

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Addressing Mode Summary



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Synchronization

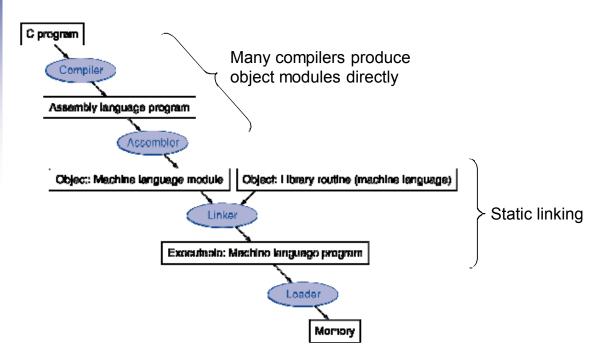
- Two processors sharing an area of memory
 - P1 writes, then P2 reads
 - Data race if P1 and P2 don't synchronize
 - Result depends of order of accesses
- Hardware support required
 - Atomic read/write memory operation
 - No other access to the location allowed between the read and write
- Could be a single instruction
 - E.g., atomic swap of register

 memory
 - Or an atomic pair of instructions

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Synchronization in MIPS

- Load linked: 11 rt, offset(rs)
- Store conditional: sc rt, offset(rs)
 - Succeeds if location not changed since the 11
 - Returns 1 in rt
 - Fails if location is changed
 - Returns 0 in rt
- Example: atomic swap (to test/set lock variable)



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Assembler Pseudoinstructions

- Most assembler instructions represent machine instructions one-to-one
- Pseudoinstructions: figments of the assembler's imagination

```
move $t0, $t1 \rightarrow add $t0, $zero, $t1 blt $t0, $t1, L \rightarrow slt $at, $t0, $t1 bne $at, $zero, L
```

\$at (register 1): assembler temporary

Producing an Object Module

- Assembler (or compiler) translates program into machine instructions
- Provides information for building a complete program from the pieces
 - Header: described contents of object module
 - Text segment: translated instructions
 - Static data segment: data allocated for the life of the program
 - Relocation info: for contents that depend on absolute location of loaded program
 - Symbol table: global definitions and external refs
 - Debug info: for associating with source code

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Linking Object Modules

- Produces an executable image
 - 1. Merges segments
 - 2. Resolve labels (determine their addresses)
 - 3. Patch location-dependent and external refs
- Could leave location dependencies for fixing by a relocating loader
 - But with virtual memory, no need to do this
 - Program can be loaded into absolute location in virtual memory space

Loading a Program

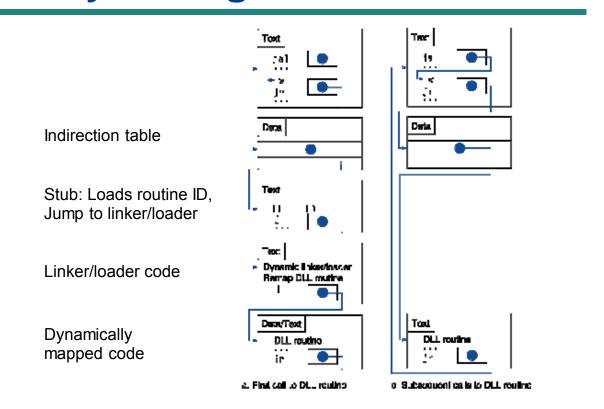
- Load from image file on disk into memory
 - 1. Read header to determine segment sizes
 - 2. Create virtual address space
 - 3. Copy text and initialized data into memory
 - Or set page table entries so they can be faulted in
 - 4. Set up arguments on stack
 - 5. Initialize registers (including \$sp, \$fp, \$gp)
 - 6. Jump to startup routine
 - Copies arguments to \$a0, ... and calls main
 - When main returns, do exit syscall

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Dynamic Linking

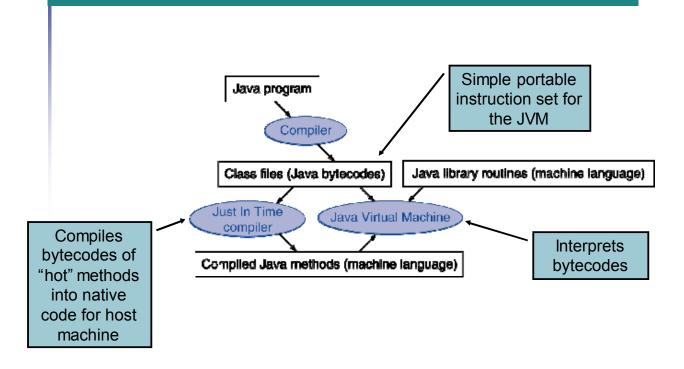
- Only link/load library procedure when it is called
 - Requires procedure code to be relocatable
 - Avoids image bloat caused by static linking of all (transitively) referenced libraries
 - Automatically picks up new library versions

Lazy Linkage



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Starting Java Applications



C Sort Example

- Illustrates use of assembly instructions for a C bubble sort function
- Swap procedure (leaf)
 void swap(int v[], int k)
 {
 int temp;
 temp = v[k];
 v[k] = v[k+1];
 v[k+1] = temp;
 }
 vin \$a0, k in \$a1, temp in \$t0

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The Procedure Swap

The Sort Procedure in C

```
Non-leaf (calls swap)
  void sort (int v[], int n)
{
   int i, j;
  for (i = 0; i < n; i += 1) {
    for (j = i - 1;
        j >= 0 && v[j] > v[j + 1];
        j -= 1) {
        swap(v,j);
        }
    }
   v in $a0, k in $a1, i in $s0, j in $s1
```

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The Procedure Body

```
move $s2, $a0
                               # save $a0 into $s2
                                                                  Move
        move $s3, $a1
                               # save $a1 into $s3
                                                                  params
        move $s0, $zero
                               \# i = 0
                                                                  Outer loop
for1tst: slt t0, s0, s3 # t0 = 0 if s0 \ge s3 (i \ge n)
        beq t0, zero, exit1 # go to exit1 if s0 \ge s3 (i \ge n)
        for2tst: slti $t0, $s1, 0
        bne t0, zero, exit2 # go to exit2 if s1 < 0 (j < 0)
        \$11\$t1, \$s1, 2\# \$t1 = j * 4add\$t2, \$s2, \$t1\# \$t2 = v + (j * 4)1w\$t3, 0(\$t2)\# \$t3 = v[j]1w\$t4, 4(\$t2)\# \$t4 = v[j + 1]
                                                                  Inner loop
        beq t0, zero, exit2 # go to exit2 if t4 \ge t3
        move $a0, $s2  # 1st param of swap is v (old $a0)
                                                                  Pass
        move $a1, $s1
                        # 2nd param of swap is j
                                                                  params
                                                                  & call
                              # call swap procedure
        jal swap
        addi $s1, $s1, -1
                             # j -= 1
                                                                  Inner loop
             for2tst
                               # jump to test of inner loop
exit2:
        addi $s0, $s0, 1
                               \# i += 1
                                                                  Outer loop
                               # jump to test of outer loop
             for1tst
```

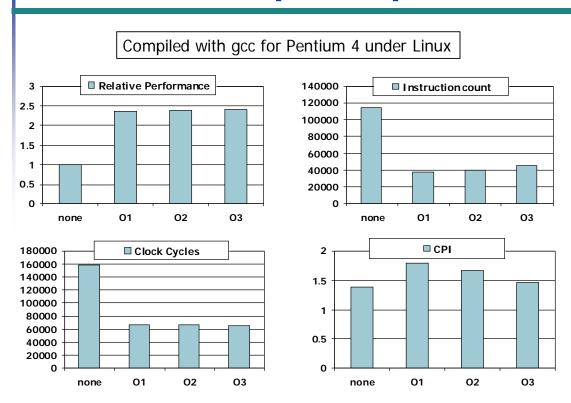
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The Full Procedure

```
sort:
        addi $sp,$sp, -20
                                # make room on stack for 5 registers
        sw $ra, 16($sp)
                                # save $ra on stack
         sw $s3,12($sp)
                                # save $s3 on stack
        sw $s2, 8($sp)
                                # save $s2 on stack
         sw $s1, 4($sp)
                                # save $s1 on stack
         sw $s0, 0($sp)
                                # save $s0 on stack
                                # procedure body
        exit1: lw $s0, 0($sp) # restore $s0 from stack
         lw $s1, 4($sp)
                                # restore $s1 from stack
         lw $s2, 8($sp)
                               # restore $s2 from stack
        lw $s3,12($sp)
                               # restore $s3 from stack
        lw $ra,16($sp)
                                # restore $ra from stack
        addi $sp,$sp, 20
                                # restore stack pointer
                                # return to calling routine
         jr $ra
```

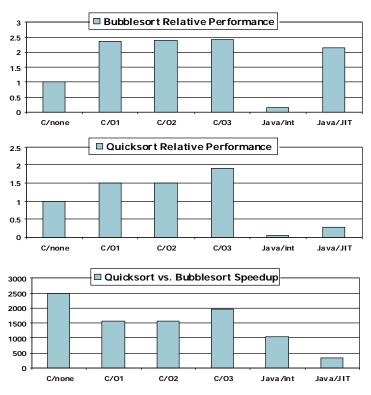
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Effect of Compiler Optimization



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Effect of Language and Algorithm



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Lessons Learnt

- Instruction count and CPI are not good performance indicators in isolation
- Compiler optimizations are sensitive to the algorithm
- Java/JIT compiled code is significantly faster than JVM interpreted
 - Comparable to optimized C in some cases
- Nothing can fix a dumb algorithm!

Arrays vs. Pointers

- Array indexing involves
 - Multiplying index by element size
 - Adding to array base address
- Pointers correspond directly to memory addresses
 - Can avoid indexing complexity

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Example: Clearing and Array

```
clear1(int array[], int size) {
                                          clear2(int *array, int size) {
 int i;
                                            int *p;
 for (i = 0; i < size; i += 1)
                                            for (p = \&array[0]; p < \&array[size];
   array[i] = 0;
                                                 p = p + 1
                                              p = 0;
                                          }
      move $t0,$zero
                        \# i = 0
                                                 move $t0,$a0
                                                                 # p = \& array[0]
loop1: sll $t1,$t0,2
                        # $t1 = i * 4
                                                 sll $t1,$a1,2
                                                                 # $t1 = size * 4
                                                 add $t2,$a0,$t1 # $t2 =
      add $t2,$a0,$t1 # $t2 =
                            &array[i]
                                                                     &array[size]
      sw $zero, 0($t2) # array[i] = 0
                                          loop2: sw zero,0(t0) # Memory[p] = 0
      addi t0,t0,1 # i = i + 1
                                                addi t0,t0,4 \# p = p + 4
      slt $t3,$t0,$a1 # $t3 =
                                                 s1t $t3,$t0,$t2 # $t3 =
                            (i < size)
                                                                 #(p<&array[size])</pre>
      bne $t3,$zero,loop1 # if (...)
                                                 bne $t3,$zero,loop2 # if (...)
                           # goto loop1
                                                                     # goto loop2
```

Comparison of Array vs. Ptr

- Multiply "strength reduced" to shift
- Array version requires shift to be inside loop
 - Part of index calculation for incremented i
 - c.f. incrementing pointer
- Compiler can achieve same effect as manual use of pointers
 - Induction variable elimination
 - Better to make program clearer and safer

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ARM & MIPS Similarities

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

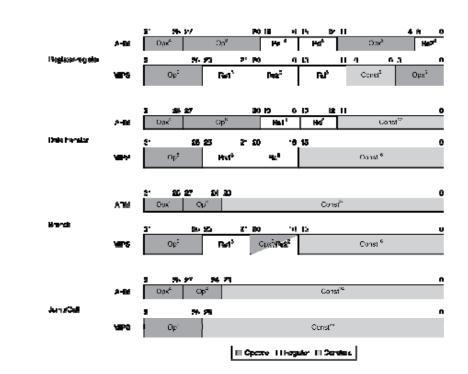
| | ARM | MIPS |
|-----------------------|------------------|------------------|
| Date announced | 1985 | 1985 |
| Instruction size | 32 bits | 32 bits |
| Address space | 32-bit flat | 32-bit flat |
| Data alignment | Aligned | Aligned |
| Data addressing modes | 9 | 3 |
| Registers | 15 × 32-bit |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

Compare and Branch in ARM

- 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

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Instruction Encoding



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- 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, MMU
 - 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

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The Intel x86 ISA

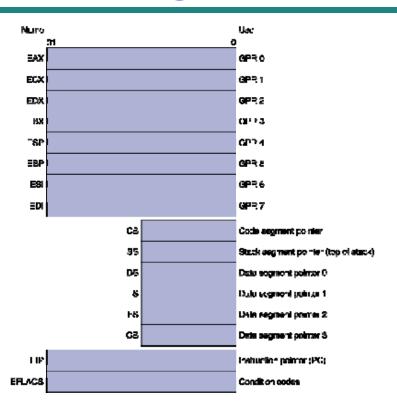
- Further evolution...
 - i486 (1989): pipelined, on-chip caches and FPU
 - Compatible competitors: AMD, Cyrix, ...
 - Pentium (1993): superscalar, 64-bit datapath
 - Later versions added MMX (Multi-Media eXtension) instructions
 - The infamous FDIV bug
 - Pentium Pro (1995), Pentium II (1997)
 - New microarchitecture (see Colwell, The Pentium Chronicles)
 - Pentium III (1999)
 - Added SSE (Streaming SIMD Extensions) and associated registers
 - Pentium 4 (2001)
 - New microarchitecture
 - Added SSE2 instructions

The Intel x86 ISA

- And further...
 - AMD64 (2003): extended architecture to 64 bits
 - EM64T Extended Memory 64 Technology (2004)
 - AMD64 adopted by Intel (with refinements)
 - Added SSE3 instructions
 - Intel Core (2006)
 - Added SSE4 instructions, virtual machine support
 - AMD64 (announced 2007): SSE5 instructions
 - Intel declined to follow, instead...
 - Advanced Vector Extension (announced 2008)
 - Longer SSE registers, more instructions
- If Intel didn't extend with compatibility, its competitors would!
 - Technical elegance ≠ market success

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Basic x86 Registers



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Basic x86 Addressing Modes

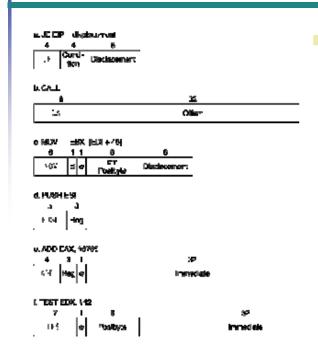
Two operands per instruction

| 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
 - Address = R_{base} + $2^{scale} \times R_{index}$ (scale = 0, 1, 2, or 3)
 - Address = R_{base} + 2^{scale} \times R_{index} + displacement

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x86 Instruction Encoding



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

Implementing IA-32

- Complex instruction set makes implementation difficult
 - Hardware translates instructions to simpler microoperations
 - Simple instructions: 1–1
 - Complex instructions: 1-many
 - Microengine similar to RISC
 - Market share makes this economically viable
- Comparable performance to RISC
 - Compilers avoid complex instructions

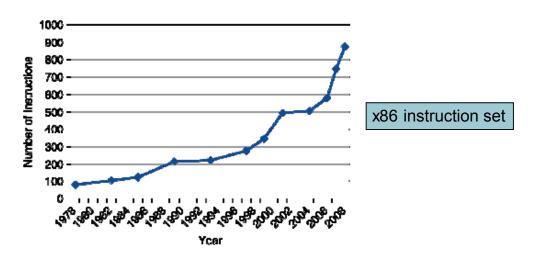
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Fallacies

- 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

Fallacies

- Backward compatibility ⇒ instruction set doesn't change
 - But they do accrete more instructions



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Pitfalls

- Sequential words are not at sequential addresses
 - Increment by 4, not by 1!
- Keeping a pointer to an automatic variable after procedure returns
 - e.g., passing pointer back via an argument
 - Pointer becomes invalid when stack popped

Concluding Remarks

- Design principles
 - 1. Simplicity favors regularity
 - 2. Smaller is faster
 - 3. Make the common case fast
 - 4. Good design demands good compromises
- Layers of software/hardware
 - Compiler, assembler, hardware
- MIPS: typical of RISC ISAs
 - c.f. x86

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Concluding Remarks

- Measure MIPS instruction executions in benchmark programs
 - Consider making the common case fast
 - Consider compromises

| Instruction class | MIPS examples | SPEC2006 Int | SPEC2006 FP |
|-------------------|-----------------------------------|--------------|-------------|
| Arithmetic | add, sub, addi | 16% | 48% |
| Data transfer | lw, sw, lb, lbu, lh, lhu, sb, lui | 35% | 36% |
| Logical | and, or, nor, andi, ori, sll, srl | 12% | 4% |
| Cond. Branch | beq, bne, slt, slti, sltiu | 34% | 8% |
| Jump | j, jr, jal | 2% | 0% |