# The 80x87 Family

### Contents

\$1 Internal 80x87 stack manipulation	67
§§1 The FORTH assembler	67
§§2 Using MS-DOS DEBUG	68
§2 Memory usage (storage and retrieval)	70
§3 Arithmetic words	72
§4 Special constants	73
§5 Test words	74
§6 Mathematical functions	76
§7 Extending the intrinsic 80x87 stack	80
§8 Clone wars	84

When we speak of the 80x87 mathematical co-processor family, we include the original Intel chips, the Cyrix D387 and IIT C287 and C387 chips, and the AMD 80287 and 80387 clones, as well as the on-chip floating point unit found on the Intel 80486 chips.

We now describe some features of the 80x87 floating point coprocessors (FPUs) that affect scientific programming on IBM-PC compatible machines<sup>1</sup>. The 8087 chip complements the Intel 8088/8086 CPU family, the 80287 works with the 80286 series, the 80387 with the 80386, and the 80486 includes an on-chip FPU. The 8087 chip is connected pin-for-pin to the 8088/8086. (The details are given in *The 8087 Primer*<sup>2</sup>.) The interface and instruc-

Although we confine ourselves to the 80x87 chip, the Motorola 68881/2 coprocessors can be programmed in the same general manner to achieve floating point capabilities rivalling VAX<sup>®</sup> minicomputers.

<sup>2.</sup> J. Palmer and S. Morse, The 8087 Primer (John Wiley & Sons, NY (1984), hereafter referred to as 8087P).

tion set automatically take care of bus arbitration (that is, which chip has access to the memory) and interrupts, in order to be sure that the CPU and 80x87 do not perform conflicting operations.

Instructions for the 80x87 are always appended to a code called "escape" (ESC, D8h) that alerts the coprocessor and diverts control to it. The MS-DOS assembler MASM and debugger DEBUG will automatically assemble this code with 80x87 instructions, so the user does not need to worry about including ESC except to be aware that it is happening. (Of course, a FORTH system that lacks 80x87 assembler extensions will need to include ESC explicitly to generate 80x87 codes.)

We shall see in Ch. 4 §1.1 how to use the FORTH assembler, and in Ch. 4 §1.2 how to use DEBUG<sup>3</sup>, to extend a FORTH system for 80x87 operations if they are not already included as a floating point lexicon.

The 80x87 machine code instruction set includes instructions for moving numbers to the registers from memory and *vice-versa*, as well as from one 80x87 register to another. The internal moves are of course much faster than those to or from external memory.

Advanced programming methods—such as recursive algorithms—require an fstack of unlimited depth. The designers of the 8087 anticipated the need for fstack extension and included instructions for this purpose. Unfortunately, the instructions were not well thought out so a moderately complex software fstack extension manager is needed to augment them. We design such a manager in Ch. 4 §7.

<sup>3.</sup> A treasure included with MS-DOS

<sup>4.</sup> sec 8087P, p. 93ff.

# §1 Internal 80x87 stack manipulation

The 80x87 is organized around a stack of 8 80-bit registers (the 87stack). The 8-deep stack can be subdivided into smaller stacks for special purposes, but this is only useful when coding in assembler for speed<sup>5</sup>.

We begin with words for performing 80x87 stack manipulation analogous to those defined for parameter stack. These are FDUP FSWAP FDROP FROT FOVER.

How are we to define them in terms of machine code primitives?

### §§1 The FORTH assembler

Every FORTH worthy of the name includes an assembler, usually set up as an alternate vocabulary called ASSEMBLER. The assembler allows direct definition of a new word in terms of machine codes, which are referred to using standard mnemonics. A typical FORTH assembly language definition (we now specialize to HS/FORTH) for @ would have the form

CODE @ BX [BX] MOV. END-CODE

A CODE definition is a machine-coded subroutine somewhere in memory. To use it, the compiler has to know where it is and insert appropriate unconditional JUMP (JMP) and RETURN (RET) instructions in the machine code representation of the calling program.

Here is what happened in the CODE version of @ above:

• The defining word **CODE** set up a dictionary entry with the name @, with an appropriate pointer and JUMP instructions to make the newly defined word run the code sequence comprising the definition.

<sup>5.</sup> see 8087P, p. 87ff.

<sup>6.</sup> Vocabularies are a method for subdividing the dictionary.

<sup>7.</sup> BX is a CPU register, and [BX] means "the memory location whose address is in BX". HS/PORTH uses a naming convention in which assembler mnemonics end with a period, e.g. MOV. Also, HS/PORTH makes the TOS the BX register, to reduce the number of pushes and pops needed to execute simple words.

- The word END-CODE cleans up the loose ends by adding the obligatory RET instruction sequence and turning off the compiler. (That is, END-CODE installs "NEXT".)
- END-CODE is thus the analog of; as CODE is of:.

Consider now the word FROT whose Intel assembly language definition would be

FROT: ; entry point

FWAIT ; hold 8086 operations FXCH ST(1) ; swap TOS and NOS FWAIT ; hold 8086 operations FXCH ST(2) ; swap TOS and ST(2)

RET ; return

In HS/FORTH assembler, the definition becomes

CODE FROT FWAIT. 1 FXCH. FWAIT. 2 FXCH. END-CODE

Note: the definition includes FWAIT (the same as WAIT), an instruction that makes the 8086 CPU wait for the FPU to complete its work before attempting to access the memory. If WAIT were omitted and the CPU accessed the memory, it could store incomplete results<sup>8</sup>.

# §§2 Using MS-DOS DEBUG

The FORTH assembler, with its 80x87 extension, lets us develop machine-coded words while retaining Intel mnemonics for documentation, at the price of loading and compiling the entire ASSEMBLER lexicon. But if we know the actual machine code bytes we can bypass the assembler by entering the (hexadecimal) codes directly into a CODE definition. Most FORTH

<sup>8.</sup> The design of the 80286, 80386 and 80486 eliminates this problem, consequently FWAIT is not required when assembling 80287/80387/80487 machine code. See, e.g., John H. Crawford and Patrick P. Gelsinger, *Programming the 80386* (Sybex, San Francisco, 1987). HS/FORTH allows the user to choose which class of machine to assemble for, when loading the 80x87 assembler extension. The 80287 + option simply defines FWAIT. as a null word.

systems, in addition to an assembler, provide a way to insert machine codes — hex numbers — directly into the code field of a word. HS/FORTH, e.g., uses the words < % and % > to enclose the hex codes being inserted.

The problem is, how do we find out what these hex codes are?

The simplest way is to use DEBUG<sup>9</sup> to generate (HEX) code sequences. Rather than try to explain, we shall illustrate by recording and annotating the DEBUG session for the word FROT:

```
C > DEBUG
                          starts DEBUG
-A100
                          Assemble from 100h
3B01:0100 FWAIT
                          enter asembler
3B01:0101 FXCH ST(1)
                          mnemonics
3B01:0103 FWAIT
3B01:0104 FEXCH ST(2)
         ^ Error
                          DEBUG notes a typo
3B01:0104 FXCH ST(2)
3B01:0106
                    no more, < cr > stops assembly
-U 100 105
                           Unassemble to check
                   WAIT
                          Hold CPU
3B01:0100 9B
3B01:0101 D9C9
                  FXCH
                          ST(1)
                           (87: abc -- acb)
3B01:0103 9B
                   WAIT
                          Hold up CPU
3B01:0104 D9CA
                  FXCH
                          ST(2)
                           (87: acb - - bca)
-D 100 105
                           Dump to get hex codes
3B01:0100 9B D9 C9 9B D9 CA
                          Quit session
-Q
```

From the Dump (or Unsassembly) we find code bytes 9B D9 F7 D9 C9 F6 D9 C9 which can be inserted directly into the definition of FROT:

<sup>9.</sup> sec, e.g., R. Lafore, Assembly Language Primer for the IBM PC & XT (Plume/Waite - New American Library, New York, 1984). Complete operating systems often include a code debugger that permits assembly; disassembly; modifying the contents of selected memory locations; setting breakpoints; and running programs under debugger control.

```
CODE FROT <% 9B D9 F7 D9 C9 F6 D9 C9 %> END-CODE (::abc--bca)
```

The rest of the 80x87 stack words,

FDUP FSWAP FDROP FOVER F-ROT

whose assembler definitions are:

```
CODE FDUP FWAIT. 0 FLD. END-CODE CODE FSWAP FWAIT. 1 FXCH. END-CODE CODE FDROP FWAIT. 0 FSTP. END-CODE CODE F-ROT FWAIT. 2 FXCH. FWAIT. 1 FXCH. END-CODE
```

can be defined similarly in 8086/8087 machine code using the DEBUG program or a reference manual for the chip (e.g. 8087P) to determine the hex codes.

# §2 Memory usage (storage and retrieval)

The 80x87 instruction set includes codes for loading ST(0) from memory and storing ST(0) to memory. The former involves a "push" and the latter may or may not involve a "pop", from the 87stack.

For the moment we need words to retrieve and store 16-bit integers, short reals (32 bit) and temporary reals (80 bit). These have mnemonics FILD ("load integer to ST(0)"), FISTP ("store integer and pop ST(1) into ST(0)"); FLD, FSTP respectively. Typical (HS/)FORTH assembler definitions are

```
CODE I16@
FWAIT. [BX] WORD-PTR FILD.
[BX] POP.
FWAIT.
END-CODE
CODE I16!
FWAIT. [BX] WORD-PTR FISTP.
[BX] POP.
FWAIT.
END-CODE
```

Similarly, 132@ and 132! can be defined by replacing WORD-PTR with DWORD-PTR. To define 164@ and 164! -assuming these are needed—replace DWORD-PTR with QWORD-PTR. The 32-, 64- and 80-bit floating point analogues R32@, R32!, R64@, R64!, R80@ and R80! are defined by replacing FILD by FLD and FISTP by FSTP, and using DWORD-PTR, QWORD-PTR or TBYTE-PTR<sup>10</sup> as appropriate.

We also need words to load the 87stack from the stack and vice versa. In HS/FORTH, the top of the parameter stack is actually the BX register on the CPU. There is no machine instruction for loading the 87stack directly from a CPU register. Thus, we must first transfer the contents of BX to memory and thence to the 87stack. The inverse operation also must proceed through a memory location. The data-transfer words are named in an obvious way S->F and F->S. HS/FORTH defines them directly in machine code, manipulating the CPU register BP that points to the top of the CPU stack. That is, HS/FORTH uses two bytes immediately below NOS as the intermediate memory cell.

Here we define S->F and F->S directly in high-level FORTH by wasting a little memory for a (hidden) temporary variable:

```
VARIABLE TEMP
: S->F (n-- ::--float[n])
    TEMP ! \ TOS-> TEMP
    TEMP | 116@ ; \ TEMP-> ST(0)
: F->S (::x---int[x])
    TEMP | 116! \ ST(0)-> TEMP
    TEMP @ ; \ TEMP-> TOS

BEHEAD' TEMP \ hide address of TEMP
```

Faster machine code versions of S->F and F->S are 11

```
CODE S->F TEMP +[] BX MOV. BX POP. FWAIT. TEMP +[] I16 FILD. END-CODE
```

CODE F->S BX PUSH. TEMP +[] FISTP. BX TEMP +[] MOV. END-CODE

 <sup>&</sup>quot;Ten-byte pointer". Note HS/FORTH appends a period "." to most Intel mnemonics.

<sup>11.</sup> TEMP + [] is HS/FORTH's phrase to assemble a named memory address.

These definitions will satisfy our present needs for storing and retrieving from the 87stack.

Note: a substantial gain in speed can be achieved with the 80386/80387 and 80486 families, by using instructions that effect 32-bit wide transfers 12.

### §3 Arithmetic words

FPU (80x87) arithmetic is generally performed with the maximum precision allowed by the (80-bit) size of the registers 13.

As noted in §4.2, the 80x87 allows 3 floating point representations for storage and retrieval in external memory: 32 bit (single precision), 64 bit (double precision) and 80 bit ("temporary real").

To conserve memory we generally use 32 bit floating point numbers (REAL\*4 in the old FORTRAN parlance)unless the nature of the calculation demands retention of more significant figures to prevent roundoff errors.

The FORTH arithmetic words we shall need are

F+ F- FR- F\* F/ FR/ FNEGATE FABS FSGN

whose definitions are (CODE and END-CODE are assumed)

F+	FWAIT.	FADDP.	(87: a b a+b)
F-	FWAIT.	FSUBP.	(87: a b a-b)
FR-	FWAIT.	FSUBRP.	(87: a b b-a)
F*	FWAIT.	FMULP.	(87: a b a*b)
F/	FWAIT.	FDIVP.	(87: a b a/b)
FR/	FWAIT.	FDIVRP.	(87: a b b/a)

See, e.g., John H. Crawford and Patrick P. Gelsinger, Programming the 80386 (Sybex, San Francisco, 1987).

<sup>13.</sup> Although it is possible to force artificially 80x87 precision to 24 mantissa bits to simulate arithmetic performed on other machines (that is, to compare results while debugging), I see no virtue in a mode that slows up calculations while diminishing precision and refer the reader to refs. 2 or 8.

# §4 Special constants

For convenience the designers of the 8087 chip have arranged fast loading of certain constants into ST(0) of the fstack (TOS). The words that place these constants on the fstack, and the corresponding assembler mnemonics and (hex) codes are shown in Table 4-1 below.

Table 4-1 Special Constants

word	const.	mnemonic	codes
F=0	0	FLDZ	9B D9 E5
F=1	1	FLD1	9B D9 E8
F=PI	pi = 3.14	FLDPI	9B D9 E5
F=L2(10)	log <sub>2</sub> 10	FLDL2T	9B D9 E9
F=L2(E)	log <sub>2</sub> e	FLDL2E	9B D9 EA
F=L10(2)	log <sub>10</sub> 2	FLDLG2	9B D9 EC
F=LN(2)	log <sub>e</sub> 2	FLDLN2	9B D9 ED

#### §5 Test words

We need to be able to determine the algebraic sign of a floating point number, as well as whether one is larger than another. The 80x87 chip has 4 instructions for this purpose, whose mnemonics are FTST, FCOM, FCOMP and FCOMPP; they are shown below in Table 4-2.

mnemonic	comparison	рор?
FTST	ST(0) to 0	no
FCOM	ST(1) to ST(0)	no
FCOMP	ST(1) to ST(0)	pop once
FCOMPP	ST(1) to ST(0)	pop twice

The results of these comparisons are encoded as bits C3 (14) and C0 (8) of the 16-bit 80x87 STATUS register. In order to get these bits by bit-masking techniques, the STATUS register must be moved to the parameter stack 14. This is done with the the 80x87 instruction FSTSW via the assembler sequence

VARIABLE F.STATUS
CODE FSTSW BX PUSH.
F.STATUS +[] FSTSW.
BX F.STATUS +[] MOV.
END-CODE
BEHEAD' F.STATUS

<sup>14.</sup> Note: the 80387 includes a new instruction whereby the status control word can be moved directly into the AX register of the 80386 CPU. The hex codes for FSTSW AX are DF E0.

Now we have to consider how to bit-mask the status integer left on the stack by FSTSW. We use the logical AND with 4000h or 0100h (Exercise: Why?) to pick out C3 and C0. Now from 8067P<sup>15</sup> we have the truth table 4-3 below:

Table 4-3 Truth table of test status bits (x is the operand -0 or ST(1))

Condition	C3	CO
ST(0) > x	0	0
ST(0) = x	1	0
ST(0) < x	0	1

Now we are in a position to define the test words F0>, F0=, F0<, as well as F>, F=, F<. We have

```
FTST FWAIT. FTST. 0 FSTP. END-CODE
CODE
      FCOMPP FWAIT. FCOMPP. END-CODE
CODE
HEX
: FTSTP FTST FSTSW
: F0>
       FTSTP 4100 AND NOT 0>:
: F0 =
              4000 AND 0 > ;
       FTSTP
: F0<
      FTSTP 0100 AND 0>;
: F<
      FCOMPP FSTSW
                     4100 AND NOT 0>:
: F=
      FCOMPP FSTSW 4000 AND 0>;
: F>
      FCOMPP FSTSW 0100 AND 0>:
DECIMAL
```

<sup>15.</sup> sec, e.g., Table 4.1

<sup>16.</sup> Note: the test words F< and F> are defined opposite to F0> and F0<. This reversal of directions is not a typographical error: it is demanded by the operation of FCOMPP - see 8087P.

### §6 Mathematical functions

We now proceed to develop a suite of special functions for the 80x87 FPU. These will include the usual trigonometric functions, logarithms, and exponentials. We retain initial Fs in the names to remind us the FPU is being used. The functions are given in Table 4-4 below:

Table 4-4 Mathematical function primitives

name	action	code(s)	mnemonic
FSQRT	$(87: x \sqrt{x})$	9B D9 FA	FWAIT FSQRT
FY*LG2X	( 87: y x y*log <sub>2</sub> [x] )	9B D9 F1	FWAIT FYL2X
FY*LG2XP1	(87: y x y*log <sub>2</sub> [x+1])	9B D9 F9	FWAIT FYL2XP1
F2XM1	(87: x 2 <sup>x</sup> - 1)	9B D9 F0	FWAIT F2XM1

These primitive functions allow us to define the logarithms and exponentials. To get  $\log_2(x)$ , for example, we need to decide whether x lies between 0 and 2: this can best be accomplished with the sequence (we assume x is already on the 87stack)

```
: FLN F=LN(2) FSWAP FLG;
: FLOG F=L10(2) FSWAP FLG;
```

Now we can use the fundamental definition of exponentiation to define both the operation of raising an arbitrary positive number to a real power, as well as the standard mathematical function  $e^x$ :

```
: F2** (87: x -- 2**x) F2XM1 F=1 F+;
: F** (87: x y -- y**x) FLG F2**;
: FEXP (87: x -- exp[x]) F=L2(E) F* F2**;
```

We now have only to implement the trigonometric and inversetrigonometric functions. We need (TREAL) 10-byte constants:

```
: F, HERE 10 ALLOT R801 ;
: FCONSTANT CREATE F, DOES > R80@ ;
```

Also, for simplicity, we define FORTH functions for degree/radian conversions and conversely:

```
FINIT F=PI 180 S->F F/ (87: -- p/180)
FCONSTANT PI/180 \ make constant
: DEG->RAD PI/180 F*;
: RAD->DEG PI/180 F/;
```

The 80x87 chip has a fast way to multiply or divide by powers of 2, called FSCALE. The CODE definition is

```
CODE FSCALE <% 9B D9 FC % > END-CODE
```

**FSCALE** adds ST(1) to the (powers-of-2) exponent of ST(0). Thus, e.g., we can write fast divide- and multiply-by-2 instructions:

```
: F2* F=1 FSWAP FSCALE FPLUCK;
: F2/ F=1 FNEGATE FSWAP FSCALE FPLUCK;
```

Now, according to **8087P**, we may evaluate trigonometric and inverse-trigonometric functions using the instructions

```
CODE FPTAN FWAIT. <% D9 F2 %> END-CODE CODE FPATAN FWAIT. <% D9 F3 %> END-CODE
```

The 8087 and 80287 implement an unnormalized tangent function, whose effect is (87: z - yx), with tan(z) = y/x. Let us define

$$\frac{y}{r} = \tan(z/2) \tag{1}$$

That is, we obtain the tangent of half the angle. The other trigonometric functions can be computed in software using the identities

$$\sin(z) = \frac{2(y/x)}{1 + (y/x)^2} \tag{2}$$

$$\cos(z) = \frac{1 - (y/x)^2}{1 + (y/x)^2} \tag{3}$$

$$\tan(z) = \frac{\sin(z)}{\cos(z)} \tag{4}$$

A further problem created by the 8087/80287 instruction set is that the argument z must lie in the range  $0 < z < \pi/4$ . Thus we must shift the argument to this range, using a special instruction **FPREM** ("exact" partial remainder<sup>18</sup>) that can be used to extract multiples of  $\pi$ :

```
CODE FPREM FWAIT. <% D9 F8 %> END-CODE: XDUP FOVER FOVER;
ENUF? FSTSW 1024 AND 0=; bit C2 =0?
FNORM (87: x k - - x mod k) FSWAP
BEGIN FPREM ENUF? UNTIL FPLUCK;
extract multiples of k
```

Here is how we code the tangent in high-level FORTH:

### Pseudocode version:

```
x=0 is an exception — set tan = 0 and exit. x < 0 ? Save sign as a flag on stack. reduce by multiples of \pi . \ cont'd ...
```

```
x in 1st quadrant (\pi/2 < x < \pi)? Flag, reduce by \pi/2 x in 1st octant (\pi/4 < x < \pi/2)? Flag, reduce by \pi/4
```

```
\ HIGH LEVEL FORTH VERSION
REDUCE (:87: x k -- x mod k -- f)
  XDUP F > DUP IF F- ELSE FDROP THEN :
: FTAN (87: x - - tan[x])
                             FDUP FO=
  IF EXIT THEN
                             \ \ \tan = 0
  FDUP FO < FABS
                             (--fsgn 87:--|x|)
  F = PI FNORM
                             \0 < x < π
  F=PI F2/ REDUCE
                             ( - - fsgn f1q )
  F=PI F2/ F2/ REDUCE
                             ( - - fsgn f1q f1o)
  FPTAN F/
                             (87: |x|--tan[x])
  IF F=1 XDUP F+ F-ROT F- F/ THEN
                       \ adjust for octant
  IF 1/F FNEGATE THEN
                             \ adjust for quadrant
  IF FNEGATE THEN ;
                             \ adjust sign
```

The remaining trigonometric functions (sine, cosine, secant, cosecant) can easily be defined in terms of  $\tan(z/2)$ . For example, here are **FSIN** and **FCOS**:

```
: FSIN F2/ FTAN FDUP FDUP F* F=1 F+
FR/ F2*;
: FCOS F2/ FTAN FDUP F* F=1 FOVER F-
FSWAP F=1 F+ F/;
```

Note: The 80387 improves on the 8087/80287 by eliminating the need to adjust the argument in software. Further, the tangent produced by the 80387 is normalized (that is, x = 1.0 in Eq. 4.1 above). Finally, the 80387 has instructions FSIN, FCOS and FSINCOS built in, so all the software emulation is unnecessary.

We define inverse-trigonometric functions using **FPATAN** defined previously, whose action is (87: y x - - arctan[y/x]). The 80387 has no additional instructions for inverse trig functions, relative to the 8087/80287, so the same code fits all.

To calculate the inverse functions, we make use of standard identities (the forms chosen minimize roundoff error). Thus,

$$Arcsin(z) = Arctan\left(\frac{z}{\sqrt{(1-z)(1+z)}}\right)$$
 (5)

$$\operatorname{Arccos}(z) = 2 \operatorname{Arctan} \left\{ \left( \frac{1-z}{1+z} \right)^{1/2} \right\}$$
 (6)

: FATAN F=1 FPATAN ; : FASIN FDUP FABS F=1 F> ABORT" argument of arcsin > 1" F=1 FOVER FDUP F\* F- FSQRT F/ FPATAN ;

: FACOS FDUP FABS F=1 F>
ABORT argument of arccos > 1"
FDUP F=1 FR- FSWAP F=1 F+ F/
FSQRT FPATAN :

Note: the argument of arcsin(x) or arccos(x) must be smaller than 1 in absolute value — hence we include a bounds check to avoid taking the square root of a negative number.

# §7 Extending the intrinsic 80x87 stack

As promised in the beginning of the chapter, we now design a fstack manager in software that allows more than 8 cells. First we examine the structure of the 80x87 stack (87stack).

From 8667P we see that the 8 registers in the 87stack are organized as a circular stack. A 3-bit pointer, ST, records which physical register is actually TOS. The instruction set allows ST to be incremented (FINCSTP) or decremented (FDECSTP) modulo 8. The 87stack is shown below in Fig. 4-1 on page 81.

A FLD instruction decrements ST (mod 8) before storing whereas a FSTP instruction increments ST. To build our softwart fstack we need to do the following things:

- When the 87stack gets full, put ST(7) on the memory extension, and vice-versa.
- Keep track of how many numbers are on the 87stack.
- Keep track of where we have stored the last number removed from the 87stack.

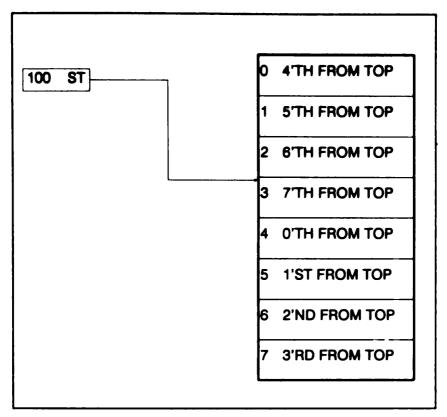


Fig. 4-1 The 80x87 stack, from 8087P

The algorithm has the following expression in pseudo-FORTH

```
Redefine operations that put #s on 87stack:
increment stack_pointer
if 87stack full put st(7) on fstack
push onto st(0)
```

Redefine operations that take #s off 87stack: pop st(0) decrement stack\_pointer if fstack not empty, put tofs onto st(7)

We begin by defining the data structure (the fstack proper) where we will stash and retrieve the numbers coming off the 87stack.

- We need to decide how deep the fstack will be, in 80-bit (TREAL) wide cells, and then ALLOT 10° that number of bytes of storage.
- We need a word that will initialize the 80x87 and fstack.
- We need a fast way to increment (or decrement) the address of the next available space in the fstack by 10.
- We need to test whether the 87stack is full (or empty).
- Finally, what do we do if the memory we set aside gets full? The solution chosen below makes the extension circular using modulo arithmetic to compute the addresses within it.

We now exhibit the fstack manager program in Fig. 4-2 on page 83 below. By now the reader should be familiar enough with FORTH style to understand the program logic with only moderate commenting and explanation. Remember — the program reads from the bottom up!

The key words are **FPUSH** and **FPOP**— they do the work. Every word that changes the 87stack has to be redefined to include either **FPUSH** or **FPOP** as appropriate.

As the test results in Table 4-5 below make clear, the high-level stack extension is too slow. Some optimization is necessary.

Table 4-5 fstack manager timings<sup>†,‡</sup>

<sup>†</sup>8086 machine @ 4.77 MHz

<sup>‡</sup>40,000 FPUSH's and FPOP's

High-level	Optimized	Hand-coded
29 sec	6 sec	4 sec

HS/FORTH comes with a very helpful utility: a recursive-descent optimizer. The optimizer replaces the subroutine calls of ordinary high-level threaded FORTH code by in-line machine code.

```
\ FLOATING POINT STACK MANAGER
DECIMAL
VARIABLE FS-SIZE (elze of fstack in TREAL's)
40 FS-SIZE I (the fstack is 40 deep)
VARIABLE FLGTH (length of fstack in bytes)
VARIABLE FOR THE VARIABLE FLIGHTH
VARIABLE FSP
                           ( current offset into fstack)
VARIABLE FDEPTH (current size of stack)
                            (-8 fdepth fs-length)
CREATE FSTACK FS-SIZE @ 10 * ALLOT OKLW
: FSINIT FSP 0! -8 FDEPTH ! FS-SIZE @ 10 *
     FLGTH! FINIT; (Initialize 8087 and stacks)
CODE 10+ <% 83 C3 0A %> END-CODE
CODE 10- <% 83 EB 0A % > END-CODE
      (fast way to add or subtract 10)
FSINIT
: WRAP(fsp - - fsp mod flgth) \make fstack circular
      [FLGTH@] LITERAL UNDER + SWAP MOD;
: AWAY! DUP ROT !; (adr n -- n) \ useful factored word
:INC-FSP (--fsp') FSP DUP@ 10+ WRAP AWAY!;
: DEC-FSP (--fsp') FSP DUP@ 10- WRAP SWAP !;
: INC-FDEPTH (--fdepth')
     FDEPTH DUP@ 1+ FS-LENGTH @ MIN
      AWAY!:
: DEC-FDEPTH
                            ( - - fdepth')
     FDEPTH DUP@ 1- DUP -8 <
      ABORT" FSTACK UNDERFLOW" AWAY! :
: FPUSH INC-FDEPTH 0 < NOT
      IF INC-FSP FSTACK +
          FDECSTP R80! (st[7] -- fsp)
      THEN:
:FPOP DEC-FDEPTH -1 < NOT
        IF FSP @ FSTACK +
            R80@ FINCSTP (fsp -- st[7])
             DEC-FSP THEN:
```

Fig. 4-2 Hi-level fstack manager for 80x87

stripping out redundant pushes and pops of the parameter stack. It is fairly straightforward to construct a similar optimizer for any FORTH dialect. Alternatively, one can machine code the time-critical words.

The results of the tests, presented in Table 4-5 on page 82 above, are interesting:

- the optimizer does nearly as well as hand-tuned machine code.
- An FPUSH or an FPOP takes about 50 μsec on the average, when coded by hand, @ 4.77 MHz, or about 240 clock cycles.
- The irreducible minimum on an 8086/80286 since TREAL storage from, or retrieval to the 87stack is demanded cannot possibly be less than 170 clock cycles: 1 fetch and 1 store<sup>19</sup>. (The main place to save some time would be in moves to or from memory; the depth of the fstack and the pointer must be kept as variables, but FS-SIZE and FLGTH do not change and could be compiled as literals, thereby saving 30 cycles in FPUSH and 10 in FPOP.)
- Substantially greater efficiency (at best another 1.5x improvement over the code version discussed above) would require a different algorithm based, perhaps, on the 87stack overflow or underflow interrupt. But because other error conditions can initiate this interrupt, the testing and decision-making needed to use this method seemed to me likely to produce equivalent overhead to the method employed here.

# §8 Clone wars

Several companies have produced non-infringing clones of the Intel 80x87 family of chips. American Micro Devices is a second source for 80287 and 80387 chips. Cyrix Corporation has produced 80287 and 80387 equivalents with significantly faster transcendental functions and moderately faster arithmetic than the Intel originals.

And finally, Integrated Information Technology, Inc. (founded by the designers of the Weitek chips) has produced the most inter-

Somewhat less, ≈100 clocks, if a 32-bit bus is utilized with the '386/'387 pair. See, e.g., John H. Crawford and Patrick P. Gelsinger, Programming the 80386 (Sybex, San Francisco, 1987).

esting of the clones: the 80c287/80c387 not only perform arithmetic significantly faster than the Intel originals, they possess 24 additional 80-bit on-chip registers. Unfortunately these cannot be combined directly with the eight original registers to make a 32-deep stack, since this would have required increasing the 80x87 stack-pointer (see §7 above) from 3 bits to 5. Since there was no place to find the 2 extra bits, one cannot really fault IIT's designers.

But if they cannot be used to extend the 87stack, what are the 24 extra registers good for? Eight (bank 3) are not even accessible, being used to speed up on-chip arithmetic. However, banks 0-2 -24 registers - can be accessed (e.g. for on-chip cache memory). Moreover, IIT has provided an on-chip linear transformation: a 4×4 matrix multiplies a 4-dimensional column vector in place. (The original vector is overwritten, but the matrix is unchanged.) It works like this 20:

First we define the instructions

```
CODE FSBP0 <% DB E8 %> END-CODE CODE FSBP1 <% DB EB %> END-CODE CODE FSBP2 <% DB EA %> END-CODE CODE F4x4 <% DB F1 %> END-CODE
```

Then we load the  $4\times4$  matrix into banks 1 and 2, the vector into bank 0, and multiply:

```
0 VAR a{{
             0 VAR v{
                           \ load vector into 80c387
: VEC->c87 (adr--)
                           \ ! vector address to v{
   IS v{
          FSBP0
                           \ reset ST, select bank 0
   FINIT
   3 0 DO v{ I } G@
                          LOOP
: MAT->c87 (adr--)
                           \ load matrix into 80c387
                           \ ! matrix address to a{{
   IS a{{
          FSBP2
                           \ reset ST, select bank 2
   FINIT
   1 0 DO
      3 0 DO a{{ | J }}
                           G@ LOOP
                           \ cont'd ...
   LOOP
```

Note: FINIT operates differently on IIT's coprocessors than on Intel's. It does not place NAN's
in all 8 87stack cells.

The on-chip  $4\times4$  matrix multiply was intended to accelerate 3-dimensional graphics (rotation and translation can be expressed as a single 4-dimensional transformation). However, most scientific programmers spend little time on 3-D graphics. The matrix instructions are more interesting for their potential to accelerate general matrix operations<sup>21</sup>. For example, suppose we need to transform a vector by multiplying with an arbitrary matrix. Normally we would write

$$y_{i} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{ij} x_{j}$$
 (7)

But consider, e.g., an  $8\times8$  matrix operating on an 8-dimensional column vector: we **partition** the matrix and vector into 4-dimensional sub-matrices  $a_{11}$ , etc. and sub-vectors  $x_1$ , etc.:

$$\begin{bmatrix} A \end{bmatrix} [x] \equiv \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$
(8)

From timings on assembly-coded demonstration programs that multiply vectors by constant 4×4 matrices, we estimate an overall speedup of 6–7 -fold on an 80c387 system. The timings for this process are as shown in Table 4-6 below (assume 32-bit REAL\*4 matrices). The execution time for a 4-dimensional linear transformation using conventional operations is approximately 1744 clock cycles. The time using the vector operation is some 250-300 clocks, based on measured performance. Since 256 clocks are

needed to load and store a 4-dimensional vector, we therefore estimate the vector operation F4x4 takes only about 50 clocks, i.e. about 1 floating point multiplication time. We can now estimate the time to multiply two 4×4 matrices as about 1200 clocks vs. about 7000 for the scalar process, i.e. the same speedup factor

Table 4-6 Timings for 4×4 matrix · vector

Operation:	×	+	@	1
No.× Clocks:	16*52	12*28	20*20	4*44
Total clocks:	832	336	400	176

as for *matrix vector*. If one must load the 4×4 matrix each time, the speedup factor is less: about 3.5-fold because of the 16 additional fetches.

The conventionally programmed 8×8 matrix-vector multiply should also be some 3-5 times faster than the scalar operations, i.e. there is no obvious speed gain — except being able to employ the built-in vector instruction F4x4 — from partitioning the 8×8 system into 4×4 sub-units. However, Strassen<sup>22</sup> has pointed out that if one can evaluate matrix products recursively, partitioning can substantially speed the most time-consuming matrix operations, multiplication and inversion. For example, it appears as though the product of two partitioned matrices,

$$\begin{bmatrix} A \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} B \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{bmatrix} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} C \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} C \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}b_{11} + a_{12}b_{21} & a_{11}b_{12} + a_{12}b_{22} \\ a_{21}b_{11} + a_{22}b_{21} & a_{21}b_{12} + a_{22}b_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$
(9)

<sup>22.</sup> V. Strassen, Numer. Math. 13 (1969) 184. See also V. Pan, SIAM Review 26 (1984) 393.

requires 8 matrix multiplications and 4 matrix additions to evaluate. Strassen has shown that in fact the evaluation can be performed with 7 matrix multiplications:

$$p_{1} = (a_{11} + a_{22}) (b_{11} + b_{22})$$

$$p_{2} = (a_{21} + a_{22}) b_{11}$$

$$p_{3} = a_{11} (b_{12} - b_{22})$$

$$p_{4} = (-a_{11} + a_{21}) (b_{11} + b_{12})$$

$$p_{5} = (a_{11} + a_{12}) b_{22}$$

$$p_{6} = a_{22} (-b_{11} + b_{21})$$

$$p_{7} = (a_{12} - a_{22}) (b_{21} + b_{22})$$
(10)

and 18 matrix additions:

$$c_{11} = p_1 - p_5 + p_6 + p_7$$

$$c_{12} = p_3 + p_5$$

$$c_{21} = p_2 + p_6$$

$$c_{22} = p_1 - p_2 + p_3 + p_4$$
(11)

Equations 10 and 11 look at first blush half as efficient as 8 multiplications and 4 additions. But let us examine the time to multiply two partitioned matrices, first by the straightforward method and then by Strassen's: clearly,

$$M_{2n} = 8M_n + 4A_n$$
 (12)

where  $M_n$  is the multiplication time and  $A_n$  the addition time, for square matrices of order n.

Setting  $n = 2^k$  that (note  $A_n \cong O(n^2)$ ) we see the recursion, Eq. 12, is satisfied by an expression of form

$$M_0 = m \lambda^k + ca 4^k \tag{13}$$

where m and  $\alpha$  are the elementary multiplication and addition times. Substituting 13 in 12 we find  $\lambda = 8$  and c = -1, i.e.,

$$M_n = mn^3 - an^2 \tag{14}$$

Applying the same idea to Strassen's method we obtain

$$\widehat{M}_{2n} = 7\widehat{M}_n + 18an^2 \tag{15}$$

OF

$$\widehat{M}_{n} \approx mn^{\log 7} - 6an^{2}, \tag{16}$$

where

$$lg 7 \equiv \log_2 7 = 2.807...$$

That is, partitioning allows a potentially large reduction in the time to multiply dense matrices.

Ry writing a partitioned matrix in the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} A \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ a_{21}a_{11}^{-1} & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ 0 & z \end{bmatrix}$$
(17)

where

$$z = a_{22} - a_{21}a_{11}^{-1}a_{12} \tag{18}$$

we may express the inverse of A as

$$\begin{bmatrix} A \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}^{-1} & a_{11}^{-1} a_{12} z^{-1} \\ 0 & z^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ -a_{21} a_{11}^{-1} & I \end{bmatrix}$$
(19)

which leads to the recursion for  $I_n$ , the time to invert an  $n \times n$  matrix:

$$I_{2n} = 2I_n + 5M_n$$
 (20) whose solution is

$$I_0 = mn^{lg 7} + O(n) (21)$$

i.e., the time needed to invert is comparable with that needed to multiply.

Suppose we merely wish to solve a linear system without inverting the matrix: can we gain some speed that way? From 17 we see that the problem

$$Ax = y$$

reduces to three sub-problems:

$$a_{11}u_1 = y_1 (22a)$$

$$zx_2 = y_2 - a_{21}u_1 \tag{22b}$$

$$a_{11}x_1 = y_1 - a_{12}x_2 ; (22c)$$

that is, we have the recursion

$$S_{2n} = 3S_n + mn^{lg 7} + 2mn^2$$
whose solution is dominated by

$$S_{n} = m \left( \frac{1}{4} n^{lg 7} + 2n^{2} \right) + O(n^{lg 3})$$
 (24)

Linear equation solution via recursion thus has the same asymptotic running time as matrix multiplication, except that 4× fewer operations are required than for inversion. That is, it should be about 5× faster to solve a dense system of 1000 linear equations by recursive partitioning than by ordinary Gaussian elimination even on a scalar processor. The vector instruction on the III 80c387 chip, together with Strassen's algorithm, offers the possibility of solving very large systems in practical times, on desktop computers.