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 (www.mips.com)
- 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



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
```



Register Operands

- Arithmetic instructions use register operands
- MIPS has a 32 x 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

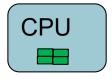
C code:

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

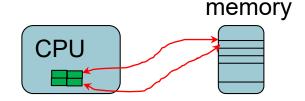
• f, ..., j in \$s0, ..., \$s4

Compiled MIPS code:

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



add t0, g, h





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
 - Access 0x2a4d77fe, what's difference between them?





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



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!



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



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 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



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 $1 \rightarrow 0$, $0 \rightarrow 1$

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

 $x + 1 = -x$

- Example: negate +2
 - $+2 = 0000 0000 \dots 0010_2$
 - $-2 = 1111 \ 1111 \dots \ 1101_2 + 1$ = 1111 \ 1111 \ \dots \ \ 1110_2



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



MIPS R-format Instructions

op	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
 6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	6 bits

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

 $00000010001100100100000000100000_2 = 02324020_{16}$



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

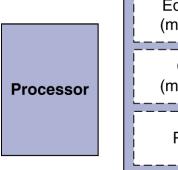
ор	rs	rs rt constant or a	
6 bits	5 bits	its 5 bits 16 bits	

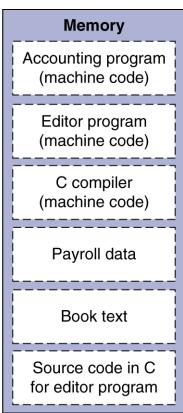
- Immediate arithmetic and load/store instructions
 - rt: destination (e.g., lw) or source (e.g. sw) register number
 - Constant: -2¹⁵ to +2¹⁵ 1
 - Address: offset added to base address in rs
- Design Principle 4: Good design demands good compromises
 - Different formats complicate decoding, but allow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



Stored Program Computers

The BIG Picture





- 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	<<	<<	s]]	
Shift right	>>	>>>	srl	
Bitwise AND	&	&	and, andi	
Bitwise OR			or, ori	
Bitwise NOT	~	~	nor	

 Useful for extracting and inserting groups of bits in a word



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
```

\$t0 | 0000 0000 0000 00<mark>00 11</mark>00 0000 0000



OR Operations

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

```
or $t0, $t1, $t2
```

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

\$t0 | 0000 0000 0000 0000 00<mark>11 11</mark>01 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 1100 0011 1111 1111



Conditional Operations

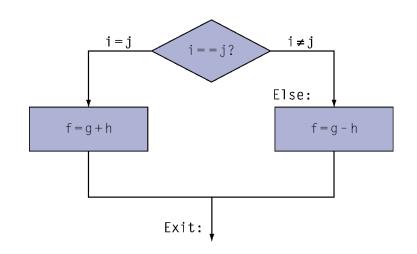
- Branch to a labeled instruction if a condition is true
 - Otherwise, continue sequentially
- beq rs, rt, L1
 - if (rs == rt) branch to instruction labeled L1;
- bne rs, rt, L1
 - if (rs != rt) branch to instruction labeled L1;
- j L1
 - unconditional jump to instruction labeled L1



Compiling If Statements

C code:

- f, g, h in \$s0, \$s1, \$s2
- Compiled MIPS code:



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

Else: sub \$s0, \$s1, \$s2

Exit: *...

Assembler calculates addresses



Compiling Loop Statements

C code:

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

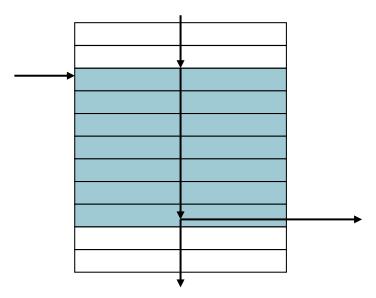
- i in \$s3, k in \$s5, address of save in \$s6
- Compiled MIPS code:

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



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



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</pre>
```



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



Signed vs. Unsigned

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

 - slt \$t0, \$s0, \$s1 # signed
 -1 < +1 ⇒ \$t0 = 1</pre>
 - sltu \$t0, \$s0, \$s1 # unsigned
 - $+4,294,967,295 > +1 \Rightarrow $t0 = 0$



Procedure Calling

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



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 without saving
- \$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 jr \$ra
 - Copies \$ra to program counter
 - Can also be used for computed jumps
 - e.g., for case/switch statements



Leaf Procedure Example

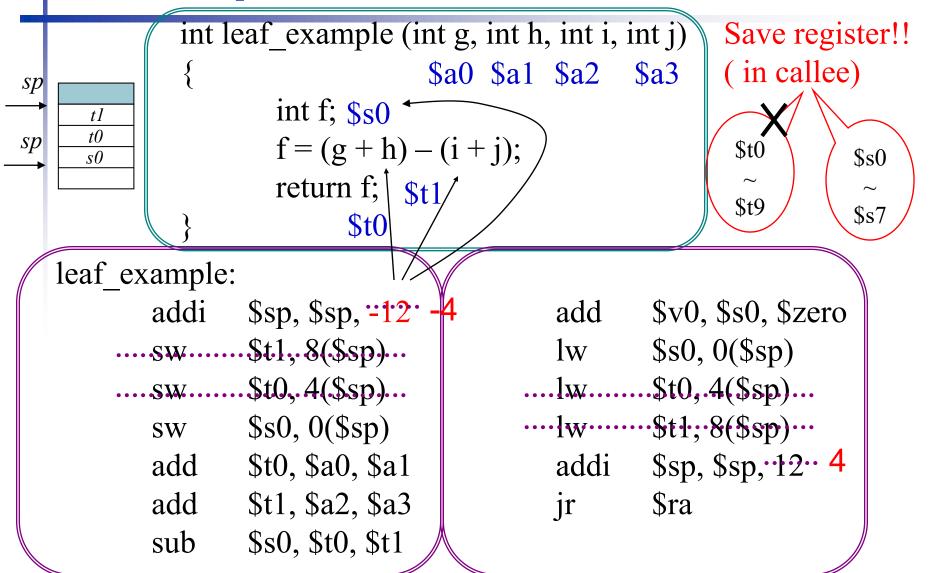
C code:

```
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



Example for Procedure Call



Leaf Procedure Example

MIPS code:

<pre>leaf_example:</pre>							
addi	\$sp,	\$sp,	-4				
SW	\$s0,	0(\$sp	o)				
add	\$t0,	\$a0,	\$a1				
add	\$t1,	\$a2,	\$a3				
sub	\$s0,	\$t0,	\$t1				
add	\$v0,	\$s0,	\$zero				
٦w	\$s0,	0(\$sp)				
addi	\$sp,	\$sp,	4				
jr	\$ra						

Save \$s0 on stack

Procedure body

Result

Restore \$s0

Return



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

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



Non-Leaf Procedure Example

MIPS code:

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

```
fact:
   addi $sp, $sp, -8
                        # adjust stack for 2 items
                        # save return address
   sw $ra, 4($sp)
   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
   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
   jr
        $ra
                        # and return
```





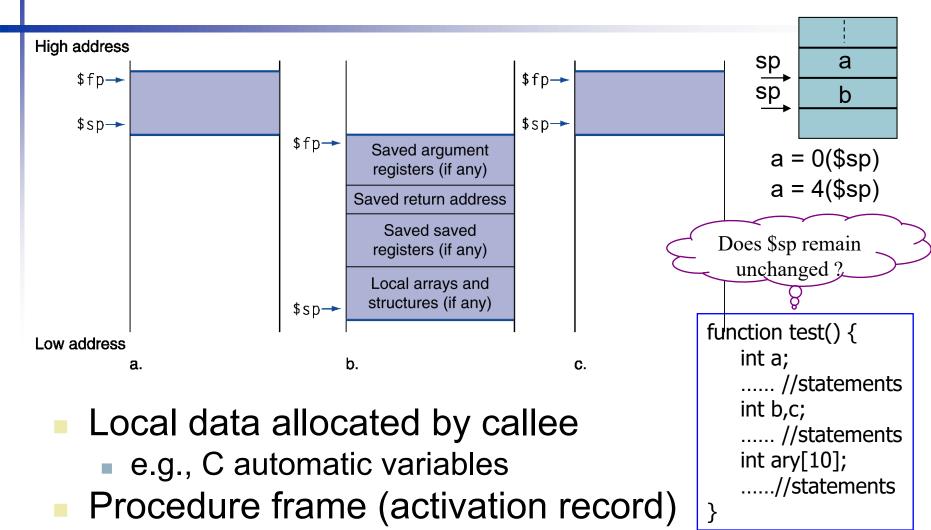
Nested Procedure: How to Keep Register Integrity

```
Spilling register
                    Int fact (int n)
♦ Problem: registers
                                                                 Caller
                              $a0
are sequentially
                                                                     •$a0~$a3
used by nested
                            if (n < 1) return (1);
                                                                     •$t0~$t9
procedures.
                                                                 •Callee
                            else return (n * fact (n-1));
                                                                     •$ra
                                                                     •$s0~$s7
                                                           $a0, $a0, -1
                                                  addi
    fact:
            addi
                    $sp, $sp, -8
                                                  jal
                                                           fact
                    $ra, 4($sp)
                                                           $a0, 0($sp)
                                                  lw
            SW
                    $a0, 0($sp)
                                                           $ra, 4($sp)
                                                   lw
            SW
                                                           $sp, $sp, 8
            slti
                    $t0, $a0, 1
                                                  addi
                    $t0, $zero, L1
                                                           $v0, $a0, $v0
            beq
                                                  mul
            addi
                                                  jr
                    $v0, $zero, 1
                                                           $ra
                                                  subsequent
            addi
                    $sp, $sp, 8
                                                  return
                     $ra
```

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return

Local Data on the Stack

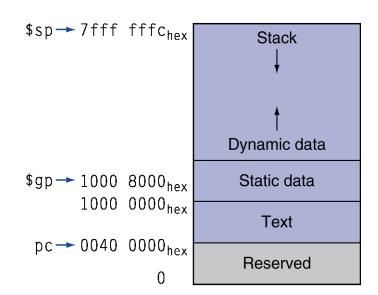


Used by some compilers to manage stack storage



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 (<u>U</u>nicode <u>T</u>ransformation <u>F</u>ormat),
 UTF-16: variable-length encodings



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



String Copy Example

MIPS code:

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



32-bit Constants

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

```
    Tui $s0, 61

    0000 0000 0011 1101

    0000 0000 0000 0000 0000
```

ori \$s0, \$s0, 2304 | 0000 0000 0111 1101 <mark>0000 1001 0000 0000</mark>



Branch Addressing

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

op rs		rt	constant or address				
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	16 bits				

PC-relative addressing

- Adr. Inst.
 0(0000) beq \$t0 \$t1 L1
 4(0100) lw ...
 8(1000) add ...
 12(1100) L1: ...
- Target address = PC + offset × 4
- PC already incremented by 4 by this time

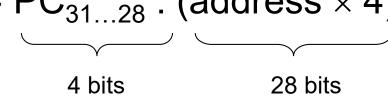


Jump Addressing

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

op	address
6 bits	26 bits

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





Target Addressing Example

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

Loop:	s11	\$t1,	\$s3,	2	80000	0	0	19	0	2	0
	add	\$t1,	\$t1,	\$ s6	80004	0	9	22	9	0	32
	٦w	\$t0,	0(\$t	1)	80008	35	9	8		0	
	bne	\$t0,	\$s5,	Exit	80012	5	8	21	****	2	
	addi	\$s3,	\$s3,	1	80016	8	19	19	A R R R	1	
	j	Loop			80020	2	NEW RESERVE	***	20000		
Exit:					80024						



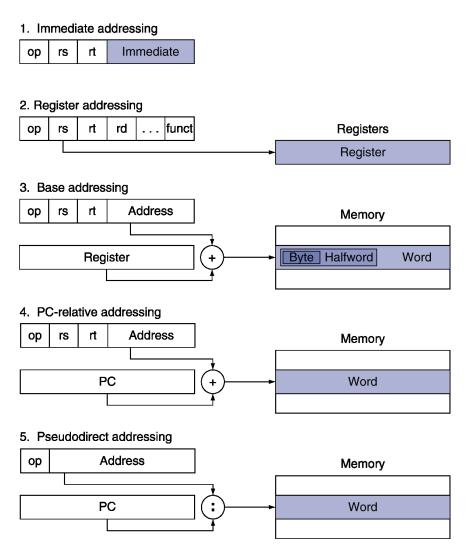
Branching Far Away

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

```
beq $s0,$s1, L1
↓
bne $s0,$s1, L2
j L1
L2: ...
```



Addressing Mode Summary



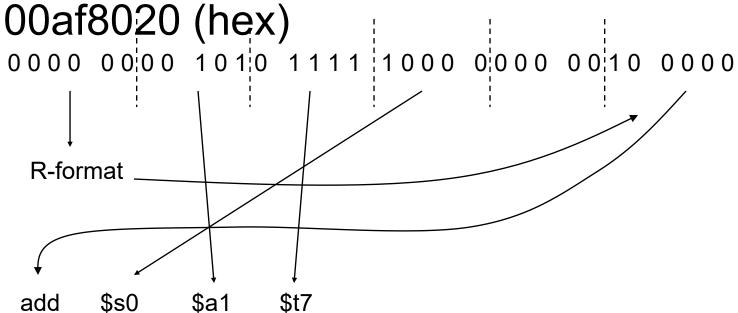


MIPS Instruction Encoding

				Op (31:26)				
28-26	0(000)	1(001)	2(010)	3(011)	4(100)	5(101)	6(110)	7(111)
31-29								
0(000)	R-format	Bltz/gez	Jump	Jal	Beq	Bne	Blez	Bgtz
1(001)	Addi	Addiu	SIti	SItiu	Andi	Ori	Xori	Lui
2(010)	TLB	FIPt						
3(011)								
4(100)	Lb	Lh	Lwl	Lw	Lbu	Lhu	lwr	
5(101)	Sb	Sh	Swl	Sw			Swr	
6(110)	Lwc0	Lwc1						
7(111)	Swc0	swc1						
-			Op (31:	26)=010000 (TLB), r	s(25:21)			_
23-21 25-24	0(000)	1(001)	2(010)	3(011)	4(100)	5(101)	6(110)	7(111)
0(00)	mfc0		cfc0		mtc0		ctc0	
1(01)								
2(10)								
3(11)								
			Op(31:26):	=000000 (R-format),	funct(5:0)			
2-0 5-3	0(000)	1(001)	2(010)	3(011)	4(100)	5(101)	6(110)	7(111)
0(000)	SII		Srl	Sra	SIIv		Srlv	Srav
1(001)	Jump reg.	Jalr			Syscall	Break		
2(010)	Mfhi	Mthi	Mflo	Mtlo				
3(011)	Mult	Multu	Div	Divu				
4(100)	Add	Addu	Subtract	Aubu	And	Or	Xor	Nor
5(101)			Set I.t.					
6(110)	®							
7(111)			Cha	pter 2 — In	structions	Language	of the Com	puter — 5

Decoding Machine Code

What's the assembly language statement :





Synchronization

- Two processors sharing an area of memory
 - P1 writes, then P2 reads
 - Data race if P1 and P2 don't synchronize
 - Result depends on 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

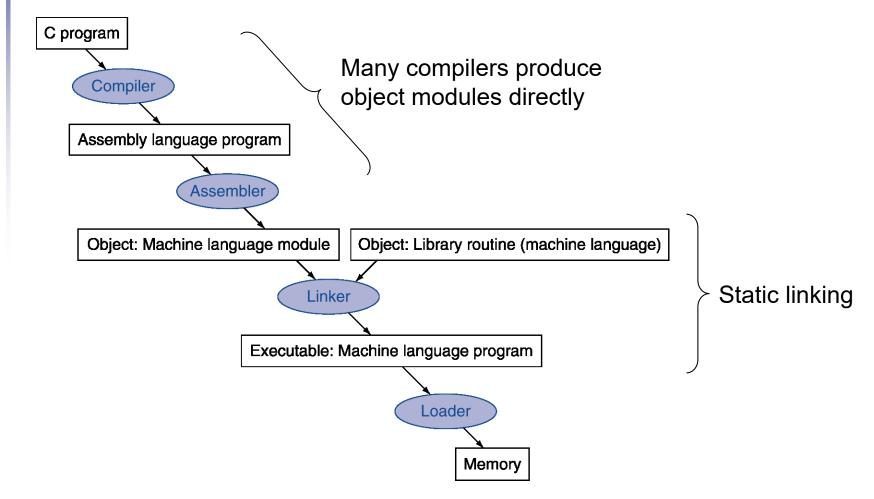


Synchronization in MIPS

- 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)



Translation and Startup





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



Linking Object Modules

- Why needs linker?
- 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



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



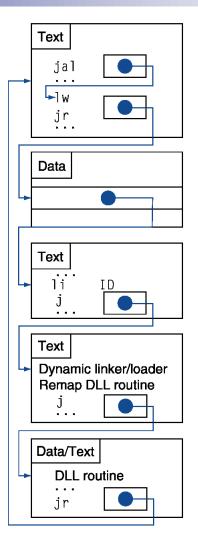
Lazy Linkage

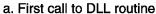
Indirection table

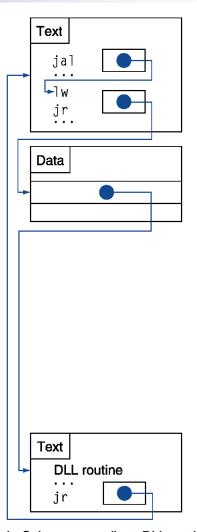
Stub: Loads routine ID, Jump to linker/loader

Linker/loader code

Dynamically mapped code



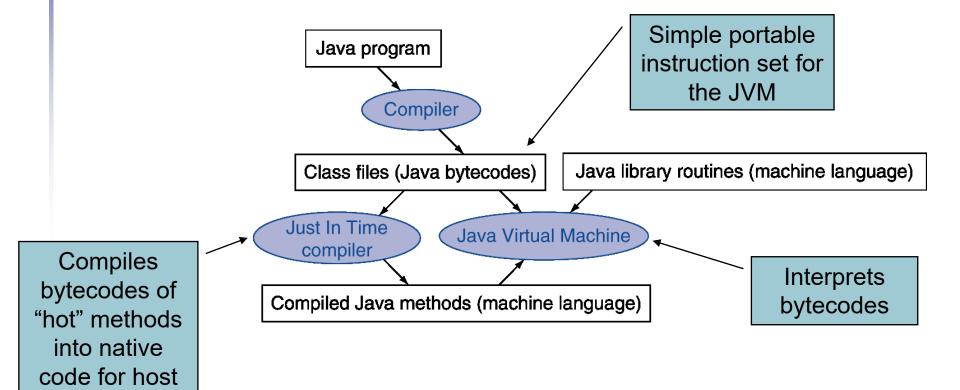




b. Subsequent calls to DLL routine



Starting Java Applications





machine

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;
 }
 - v in \$a0, k in \$a1, temp in \$t0



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];i -= 1) { swap(v,j);v in \$a0, k in \$a1, i in \$s0, j in \$s1



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 \geq n)
        beq t0, zero, exit1 # go to exit1 if s0 \ge s3 (i \ge n)
        addi $$1, $$0, -1  # j = i - 1
for2tst: slti t0, s1, 0 # t0 = 1 if s1 < 0 (j < 0)
        bne t0, zero, exit2 # go to exit2 if s1 < 0 (j < 0)
        sll $t1, $s1, 2 # $t1 = j * 4
                                                             Inner loop
        add t2, s2, t1 # t2 = v + (j * 4)
       1w $t3, 0($t2) # $t3 = v[j]
       1w $t4, 4($t2) # $t4 = v[j + 1]
        \$1t \$t0, \$t4, \$t3  # \$t0 = 0 if \$t4 \ge \$t3
        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
        jal swap # call swap procedure
        addi $s1, $s1, -1 # j -= 1
                                                            Inner loop
        i for2tst
                     # jump to test of inner loop
exit2:
       addi $s0, $s0, 1 # i += 1
                                                            Outer loop
        j for1tst
                             # jump to test of outer loop
```



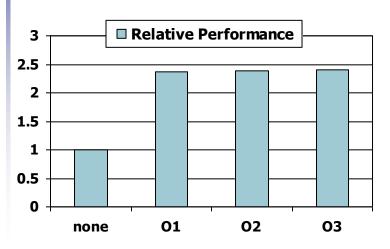
The Full Procedure

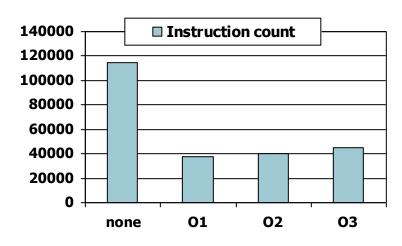
```
addi $sp,$sp, -20
                            # make room on stack for 5 registers
sort:
       sw $ra, 16($sp)
                           # save $ra on stack
       sw $s3,12($sp) # save $s3 on stack
       sw $s2, 8($sp) # save $s2 on stack
       sw $s1, 4($sp) # save $s1 on stack
       sw $s0, 0($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
       ir $ra
                            # return to calling routine
```

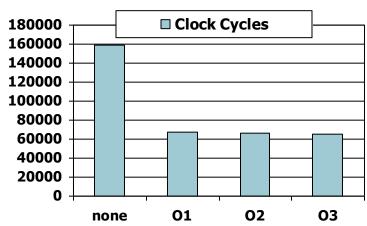


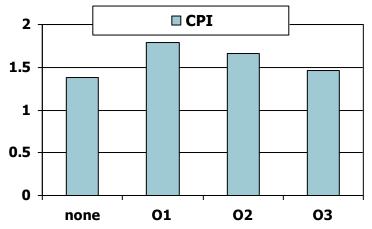
Effect of Compiler Optimization

Compiled with gcc for Pentium 4 under Linux



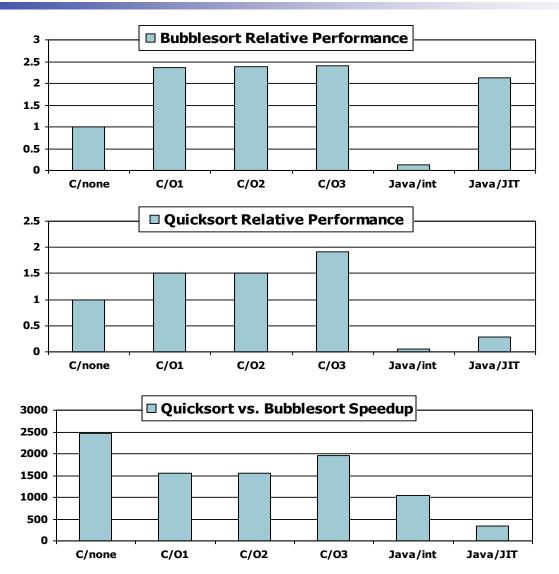








Effect of Language and Algorithm





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



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
                                                 s11 $t1,$a1,2 # $t1 = size * 4
                                                 add t2,a0,t1 # t2 =
       add $t2,$a0,$t1 # $t2 =
                        # &array[i]
                                                                     &array[size]
                                          loop2: sw zero,0(t0) # Memory[p] = 0
       sw \frac{1}{2} = 0 \frac{1}{2} sw \frac{1}{2} = 0
       addi $t0,$t0,1 # i = i + 1
                                                 addi t0,t0,4 # p = p + 4
       s1t $t3.$t0.$a1 # $t3 =
                                                 s1t $t3.$t0.$t2 # $t3 =
                                                                 #(p<&array[size])</pre>
                        # (i < size)
       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



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

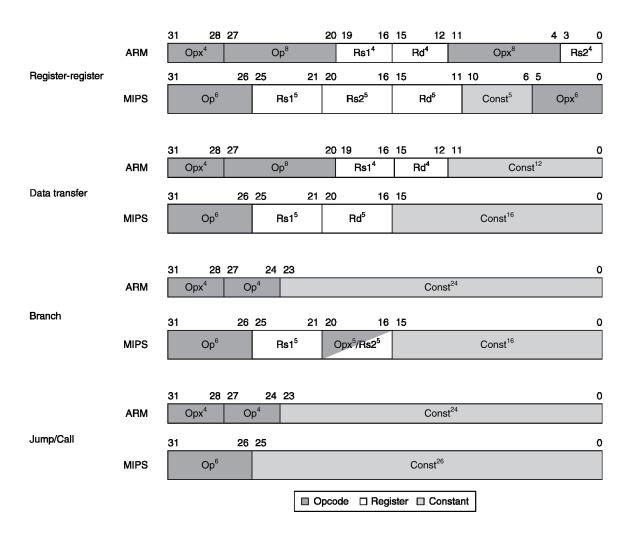


Compare and Branch in ARM

- 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



Instruction Encoding





The Intel x86 ISA

- 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



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

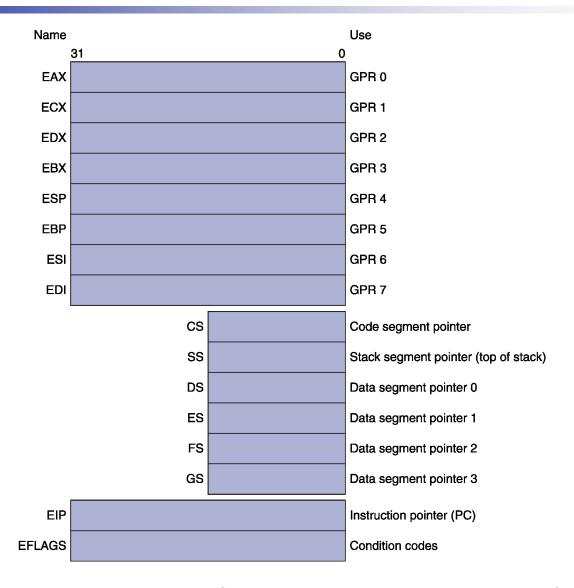


The Intel x86 ISA

- 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



Basic x86 Registers





Basic x86 Addressing Modes

Two operands per instruction

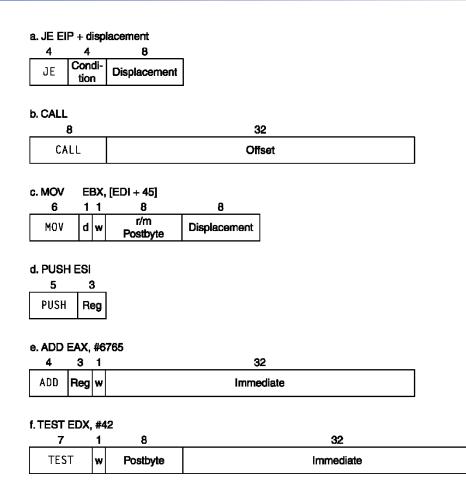
Source/dest operand	Second source operand	
Register	Register	
Register	Immediate	
Register	Memory	
Memory	Register	
Memory	Immediate	

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} × R_{index} + displacement



x86 Instruction Encoding



- 'ariable length ncoding
 - 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



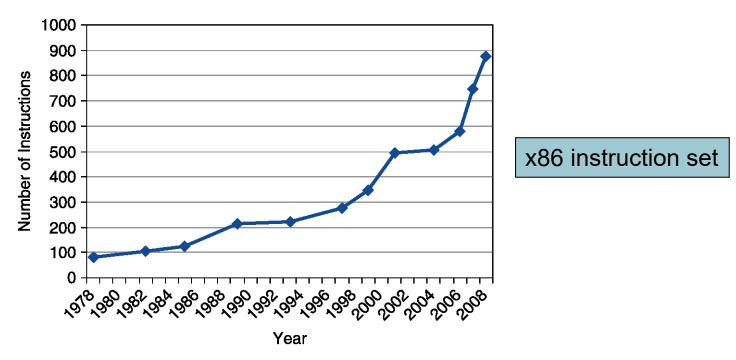
Fallacies

- 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





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



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%

