Lecture 4

• Instruction Set Architecture (II)

Procedures

```
int f1 (int i, int j, int k, int g)
                                   callee
add $3, $4, 1;
return 1;
int f2 (int s1, int s2)
                                    caller
add $3, $4, $3
 i = f1 (3,4,5,6);
 add $2, $3, $3
```

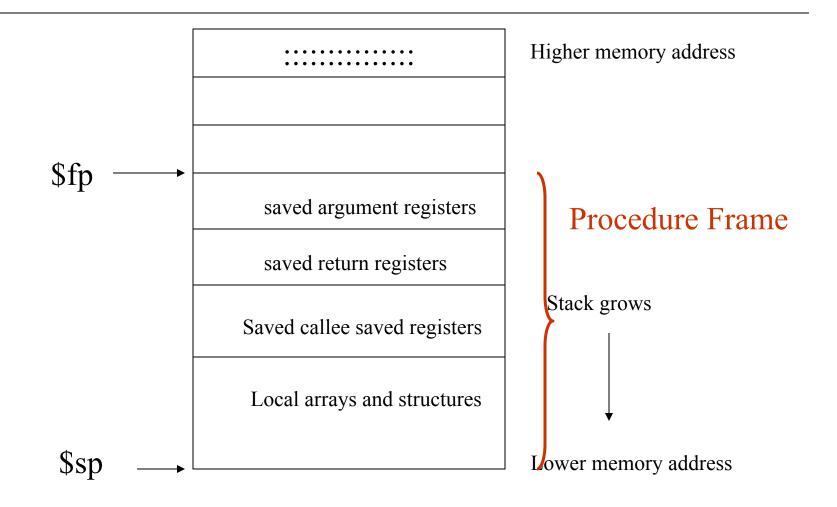
- How to pass parameters & results?
- How to preserve caller register values?
- How to alter control? (I.e. go to callee, return from callee)

Procedures

- How to pass parameters & results
 - \$a0-\$a3: four argument registers. What if # of parameters is larger than 4? – push to the stack
 - □ \$v0-\$v1: two value registers in which to return values
- How to preserve caller register values?
 - Use stack
 - Caller saved register
 - Callee saved register
- How to switch control?
 - How to go to the callee
 - Jal procedure_address (jump and link)
 - □ Store the the return address (PC +4) at \$ra_
 - □ set PC = procedure_addres
 - How to return from the callee
 - □ Callee exectues jr \$ra

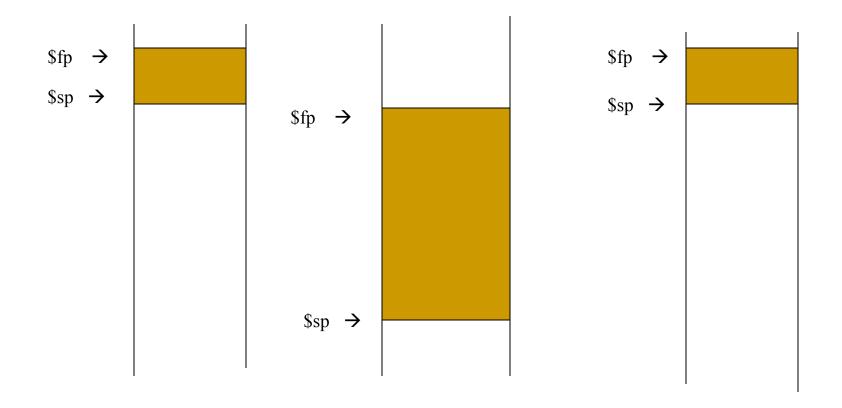
```
int f1 (int i, int j, int k, int g)
  add $3, $4, 1;
   return 1;
  int f2 (int s1, int s2)
    add $3, $4, $3
     i = f1 (3,4,5,6);
     add $2, $3, $3
```

Procedure Call Stack (Frame)



• Frame pointer points to the first word of the procedure frame

Procedure Call Stack (Frame)



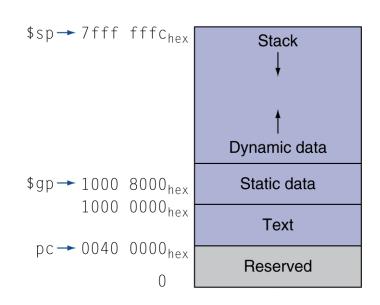
Before the procedure call

during the procedure call

after the procedure call

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



Procedure Calling Convention

Calling Procedure

- Step-1: pass the argument
- Step-2: save caller-saved registers
- Step-3: Execute a jal instruction

```
foo1 () { ::::::: \underline{i=i+1;} t3 x=foo(4); i=x+i }
```

```
li $a0, 4  # passing argument

sw $t3, 4($sp) # save $t3

jal foo

lw $t3, 4($sp) # restore $t3

add $t3, $v0, $t3
```

Procedure Calling Convention

Called Procedure

- Step-1: establish stack frame
 - subi \$sp, \$sp <frame-size>
- Step-2: saved callee saved registers
 - \$ra, \$fp,\$s0-\$s7
- Step-3: establish frame pointer
 - Add \$fp, \$sp, <frame-size>-4
- On return from a call
 - Step-1: put returned values in
 - register \$v0, \$v1.
 - Step-2: restore callee-saved registers
 - Step-3: pop the stack
 - Step-4: return: jr \$ra

```
subi $sp, $sp, 32
     $ra, 20($sp)
SW
     $fp, 16($sp)
SW
addi $fp, $sp, 28
addi $v0, $zero, 1
     $fp, 16($sp)
lw
     $ra, 20($sp)
addi $sp, $sp,32
    $ra
11
```

Preserved Registers

zero constant 0 0 reserved for assembler at expression evaluation & 2 v0 function results 3 **a0** arguments **a1** 6 **a2 a**3 8 **t0** temporary: caller saves

```
16 s0 callee saves
23
   s7
24
   t8
        temporary (cont'd)
25
    t9
    k0 reserved for OS kernel
26
27
    k1
28
        Pointer to global area
29
    sp Stack pointer
        frame pointer
30
31
       Return Address (HW)
```

Nested Procedures

```
fact:
                                       int fact (int n)
         $sp, $sp, -8
   addi
          $ra, 4($sp) # save $ra
   SW
                                          if (n <1) return 1;
          $t0, $a0, 1 # n< 1?
   slti
                                           else return (n x fact(n-1));
          $t0, $zero, L1
   beg
   addi
          $v0,$zero,1 # return 1
   addi
          $sp, $sp, 8 # fix up the stack pointer & return
          $ra
   ir
L1: sw $a0, 0($sp) # save argument $a0
   addi a0,a0,-1 # n = n-1
                   # jal(n-1)
   ial
         fact
   lw
          $a0, 0($sp) # restore argument $a0
          $v0, $a0, $v0 # return n x fact(n-1)
   mul
          $ra, 4($sp) # restore $ra
   lw
          $sp, $sp, 8 # restore stack pointer
   addi
          $ra
                        # return to the caller
   jr
                                                                    10
```

Representation of Characters

- ASCII (American Standard Code for Information Interchange)
 - Uses 8 bits to represent a character
 - MIPS provides instructions to move bytes:

```
Ib $t0, 0($sp) #Read byte from source
sb $t0, 0($gp) #Write byte to destination
```

- Unicode (Universal Encoding)
 - Uses 16 bits to represent a character
 - Used in Java
 - MIPS provides instructions to move 16 bits:

```
Ih $t0, 0($sp) #Read halfword from source
sh $t0, 0($gp) #Write halfword to destination
```

Array vs. Pointer

```
Clear1(int array[], int size)
{
    int i;
    for (i=0, i< size; i+= 1)
        array[i] = 0;
}
```

```
move $t0, $zero # i =0
Loop1 : sll $t1, $t0, 2 # I * 4
add $t2, $a0, $t1 # t2 = address of array[i]
sw $zero, 0($t2) # array [i] = 0
addi $t0, $t0, 1 # i = i +1
slt $t3, $t0, $a1 # compare i and size
bne $t3, $zero, loop1
```

Array vs. Pointer (cont.)

```
Clear 2(int *array, int size)
{
    int *p,
    for (p = &array[0]; p < &array[size]; p = p+1)
        *p = 0;
}
```

```
$t0, $a0
                             \# p = \&array[0]
      move
             t1, a1, 2 # t1 = size x 4
      sll
             $t2, $a0, $t1 # t2 = &array[size]
      add
              zero, 0(t0) # memory[p] = 0
Loop2: sw
             $t0, $t0, 4
      addi
                       # p= p+4
             $t3, $t0, $t2
      slt
                             # compare p, & array[size]
             $t3, $zero, Loop2
      bne
```

Array vs. Pointer (cont.)

Array

```
move $t0, $zero # i =0
Loop1 : sll $t1, $t0, 2 # I * 4
add $t2, $a0, $t1 # t2 = address of array[i]
sw $zero, 0($t2) # array [i] = 0
addi $t0, $t0, 1 # i = i +1
slt $t3, $t0, $a1 # compare i and size
bne $t3, $zero, loop1
```

of Instruction per iteration = 6

Pointer

```
$t0, $a0
                               \# p = \&array[0]
      move
                         # t1 = size x 4
              $t1, $a1, 2
      sll
                                                       # of Instruction per iteration
              $t2, $a0, $t1
                               # t2 = &array[size]
      add
Loop2: sw
              zero, 0(t0) # memory[p] = 0
              $t0, $t0, 4
                               \# p = p + 4
      addi
      slt
              $t3, $t0, $t2
                               # compare p, & array[size]
              $t3, $zero, Loop2
      bne
```

Parallelism and Instructions: Synchronization

- Parallel tasks must synchronize to avoid data race, where the results
 of the program can change depending on how events happen to occur.
- Lock/unlock: ensure only one task entering the critical section

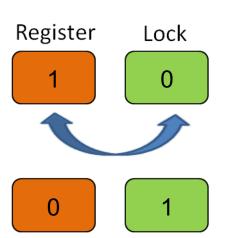
```
P(1)
Acquire Lock;
If Lock = 0
enter critical section;
Release Lock;
```

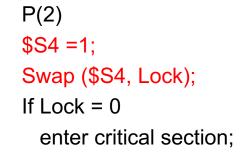
P(2)
Acquire Lock;
If Lock = 0
enter critical section;
Release Lock;

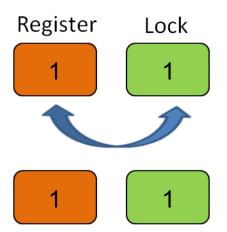
Parallelism and Instructions: Synchronization

■Atomic SWAP: atomically interchange a value in a register for a value in memory; nothing else can interpose itself between the read and the write to the memory location

```
P(1)
$S4 =1;
Swap ($S4, Lock);
If Lock = 0
enter critical section;
```





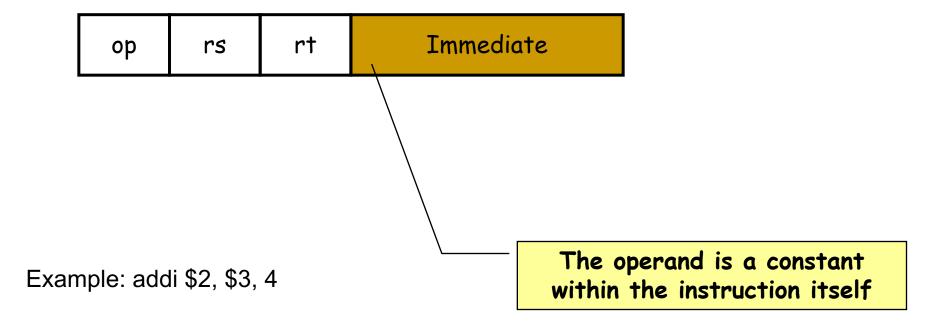


Synchronization in MIPS

- 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)

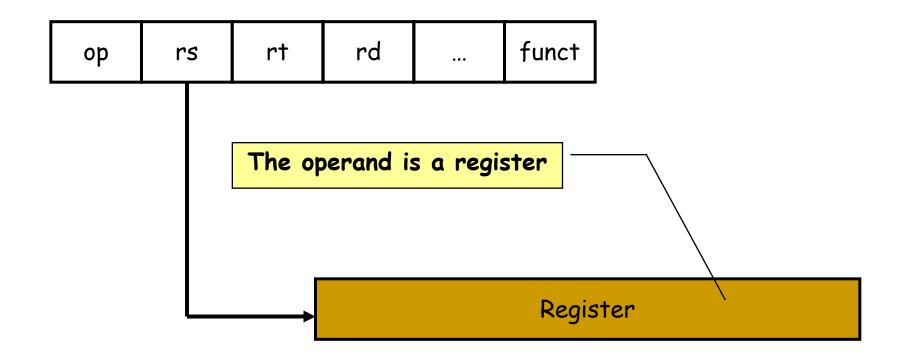
MIPS Addressing Mode (1)

Immediate addressing



MIPS Addressing Mode (2)

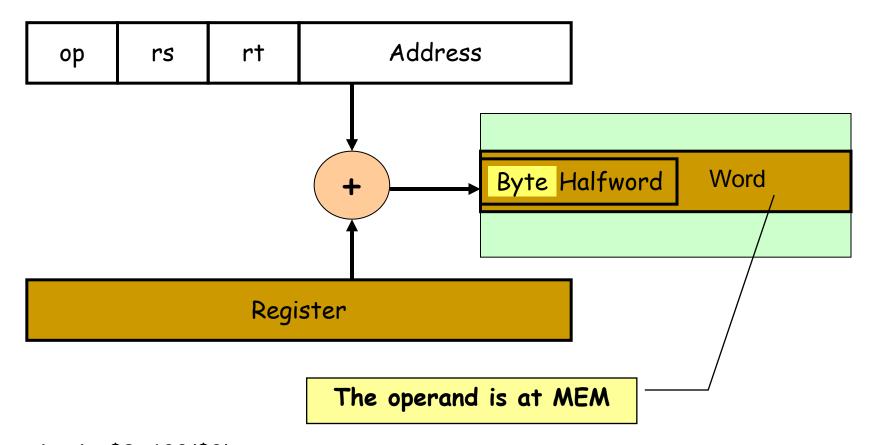
Register addressing



Example : add \$r1, \$r2, \$r3

MIPS Addressing Mode (3)

Base addressing



Example: lw \$2, 100(\$3)

How to Get the Base Address in the Base Register

Method 1.

```
.data # define prog. data section

xyz: .word 1 # some data here

... # possibly some other data

.text # define the program code

... # lines of code

lw $5,xyz # loads contents of xyz in r5
```

the assembler generates an instruction of the form:
 lw \$5, offset(\$gp) # gp is register 28, the global pointer

Note: .data, .word, .text are assembler directives

How to Get the Base Address in the Base Register (cont.)

Method 2.

```
la $6,xyz #r6 contains the address of xyz
```

lw \$5,0(\$6) #r5 contains the contents of xyz

Method 3. If the address is a constant

li, if less than ±32K

lui and ori, otherwise.

How about larger constants

- We'd like to be able to load a 32 bit constant into a register
- Must use two instructions, new "load upper immediate" instruction
- Example: load 10101010101010101010101010101010 into register \$t0
- Then must get the lower order bits right, i.e.,

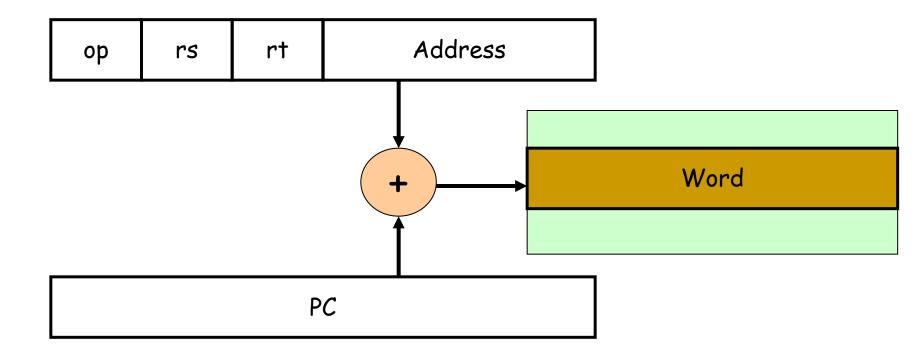
ori \$t0, \$t0, 10101010101010

	1010101010101010	000000000000000
ori	000000000000000	10101010101010

1010101010101010	1010101010101010		

MIPS Addressing Mode (4)

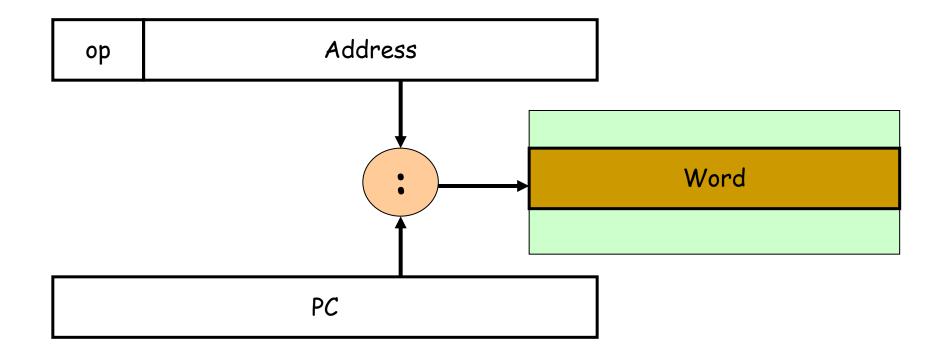
PC-relative addressing



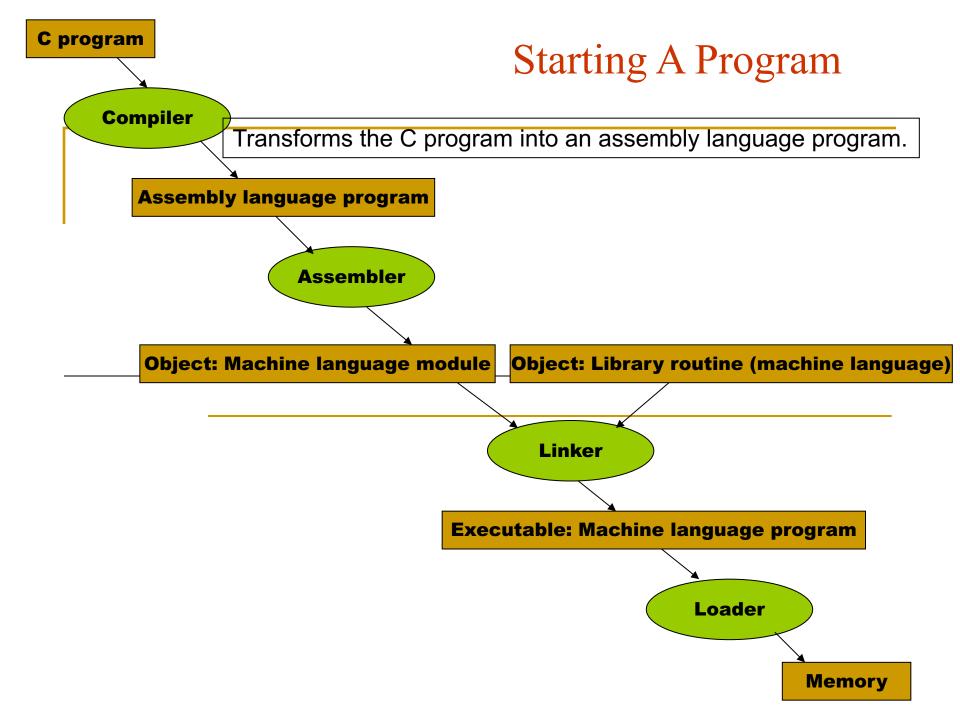
Example: beq \$2, \$3, 100

MIPS Addressing Mode (5)

Pseudodirect addressing



Example: j 100



Assembler

Assembler

- The assembler turns the assembly language program into an object file.
- Symbol table: A table that matches names of labels to the addresses of the memory words that instruction occupy.

Object file header			
	Name	Procedure A	
	Text size	100hex	
	Data size	20hex	
Text segment	Address	Instruction	
	0	lw \$a0, 0(\$gp)	
	4	jal 0	
Data segment	0	(X)	
Relocation information	Address	Instruction Type	Dependency
	0	lw	X
	4	jal	В
Symbol table	Label	Address	
	X	_	
	В	_	

lw \$a0, x jal B

Assembler (cont.)

- Psudoinstruction: a common variation of assembly language instructions often treated as if it were an instruction in its own right.
 - move \$t0, \$t1 -> add \$t0, \$zero, \$t1
 - □ blt -> slt & bne

Linker (Link editor)

- Linker takes all the independently assembled machine language programs and "stitches" them together to produce an executable file that can be run on a computer.
- There are three steps for the linker:
 - Place code and data modules symbolically in memory.
 - Determine the addresses of data and instruction labels.
 - 3. Patch both the internal and external references.

Object file header			
	Name	Procedure A	
	Text size	100hex	
	Data size	20hex	
Text segment	Address	Instruction	
	0	lw \$a0, 0(\$gp)	
	4	jal 0	
Data segment	0	(X)	
Relocation information	Address	Instruction Type	Dependency
	0	lw	х
	4	jal	В
Symbol table	Label	Address	
	х	_	
	В	_	
	1	1	1

Object file header			
	Name	Procedure B	
	Text size	200hex	
	Data size	30hex	
Text segment	Address	Instruction	
	0	sw \$a1, 0(\$gp)	
	4	jal 0	
Data segment	О	(Y)	
Relocation information	Address	Instruction Type	Dependency
	0	sw	Υ
	4	jal	Α
Symbol table	Label	Address	
	Y	_	
	Α	_	

\$31) + /†††	†††C _{hex}	Stack ↓	
			∳ Dynamic data	
\$gp	→ 1000			
		0000 _{hex}	Text	
po	0040	0000 _{hex}	Reserved	

Text size	300hex
Data size	50hex
Address	Instruction
0040 0000hex	lw \$a0, 8000hex (\$gp)
0040 0004hex	jal 40 0100hex
0040 0100hex	sw \$a1, 8020hex (\$gp)
0040 0104hex	jal 40 0000hex
Address	
1000 0000hex	(X)
1000 0020hex	(Y)
	Data size Address 0040 0000hex 0040 0004hex 0040 0100hex 0040 0104hex Address 1000 0000hex 1000 0020hex

sw \$a0, y jal A

Loader

- Read the executables file header to determine the size of the text and data segments
- Creates an address space large enough for the text and data
- Copies the instructions and data from the executable file into memory
- Copies the parameters (if any) to the main program onto the stack
- Initializes the machine registers and sets the stack pointer the first free location
- Jump to a start-up routine

```
main();

_start_up:
lw a0, offset($sp) ## load arguments
jal main;
exit

32
```

Dynamically Linked Libraries (DLL)

- Disadvantages with traditional statically linked library
 - Library updates
 - Loading the whole library even if all of the library is not used
- Dynamically linked library
 - The libraries are not linked and loaded until the program is run.
 - Lazy procedure linkage
 - Each routine is linked only after it is called.

Lazy Linkage

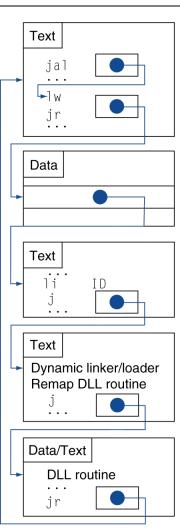
Indirection table

Stub: Loads routine ID, Jump to linker/loader

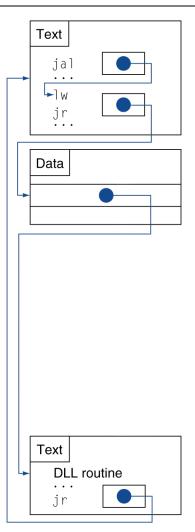
Linker/loader code

Dynamically mapped code

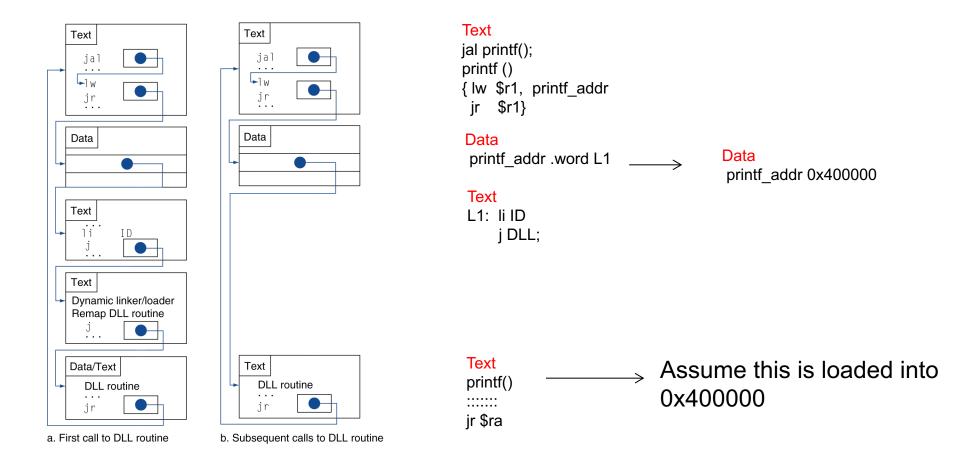
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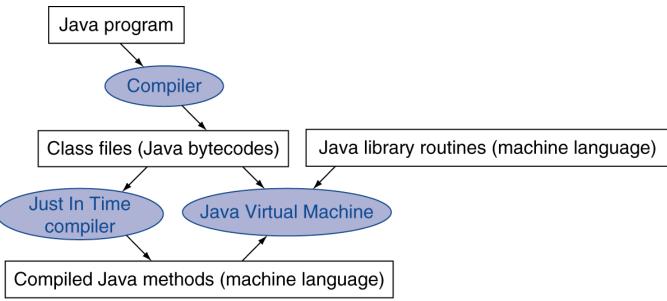
a. First call to DLL routine



b. Subsequent calls to DLL routine



Starting a Java Program



Java bytecode:

Instruction from an instruction set designed to interpret Java programs.

Java Virtual Machine (JVM): The program that interprets Java bytecodes

Just In Time Compiler

(JIT): A compiler that operates at runtime, translating the interpreted code segments into the native code of the compiler.

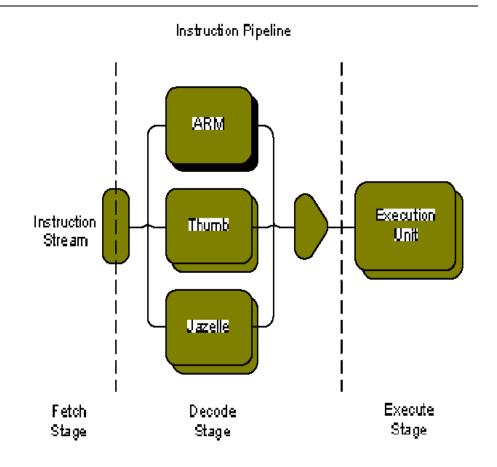
ARM & MIPS Similarities

- 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

Instruction Set

- 32-bit ARM instruction
- 16-bit Thumb instruction
- 8-bit Java Instruction Set



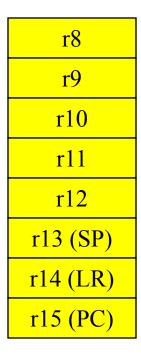
Sources: white paper on Jazelle Technology

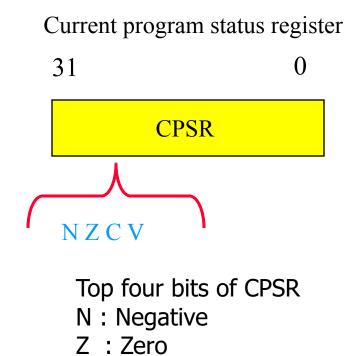
Main features of 32-bit Arm instruction

- Load-store architecture
- Fixed-length = 32 bits
- 3-address instruction format (2 sources, 1 result operands)
- DSP instruction
 - Support MAC & SIMD operations
- Conditional execution of ALL instructions

Registers

r0
r1
r2
r3
r4
r5
r6
r7





C: Carry

V: Overflow

Conditional Execution

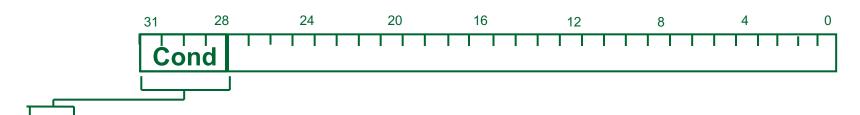
- All instructions contain a condition field which determines whether the CPU will execute them.
 - Allows very dense in-line code, without branches.
 - The time penalty of not executing several conditional instructions is frequently less than overhead of the branch or subroutine call that would otherwise be needed.
 - □ For example an add instruction takes the form:

```
\blacksquare ADD r0,r1,r2 ; r0 = r1 + r2
```

To execute this only if the zero flag is set:

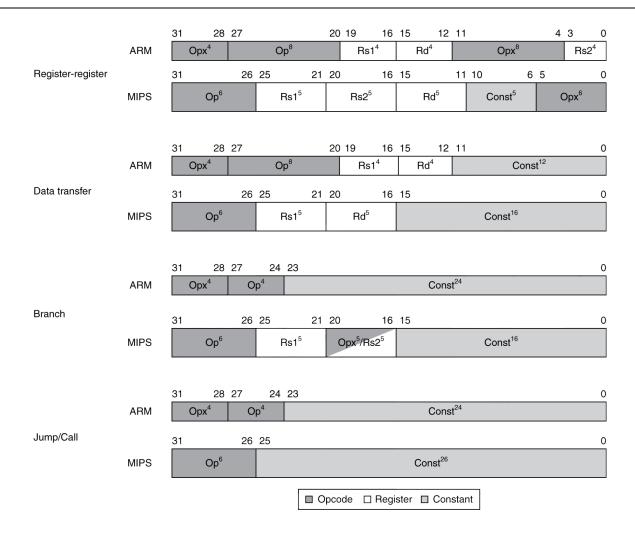
```
ADDEQ r0, r1, r2 ; If zero flag set then... r0 = r1 + r2
```

The Condition Field



Code	Suffix	Description	Flags
0000	EQ	Equal	Z=1
0001	NE	Not equal	Z=0
0010	CS/HS	Unsigned higher or same	C=1
0011	CC/LO	Unsigned lower	C=0
0100	MI	Minus	N=1
0101	PL	Positive or Zero	N=0
0110	VS	Overflow	V=1
0111	VC	No overflow	V=0
1000	HI	Unsigned higher	C=1 & Z=0
1001	LS	Unsigned lower or same	C=0 or Z=1
1010	GE	Greater or equal	N=V
1011	LT	Less than	N!=V
1100	GT	Greater than	Z=0 & N=V
1101	LE	Less than or equal	Z=1 or N=!V
1110	AL	Always	none

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

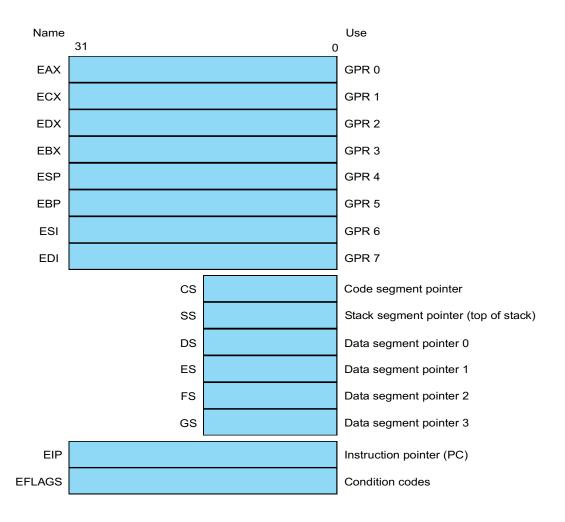
The Intel x86 ISA

- 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 (128 bits)
 - 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 (128bit->256 bits), more instructions
- If Intel didn't extend with compatibility, its competitors would!
 - □ Technical elegance ≠ market success

IA-32 Registers



IA-32 has only 8 general purpose register vs. 32 in MIPS

IA-32 Typical Instructions

- Four major types of integer instructions:
 - Data movement including move, push, pop
 - Arithmetic and logical (destination register or memory)
 - Control flow (use of condition codes / flags)
 - String instructions, including string move and string compare

Instruction	Function
JE name	if equal(condition code) {EIP=name}; EIP-128≤name <eip+128< td=""></eip+128<>
JMP name	EIP=name
CALL name	SP=SP-4; M[SP]=EIP+5; EIP=name;
MOVW EBX,[EDI+45]	EBX=M[EDI+45]
PUSH ESI	SP=SP-4; M[SP]=ESI
POP EDI	EDI=M[SP]; SP=SP+4
ADD EAX,#6765	EAX= EAX+6765
TEST EDX,#42	Set condition code (flags) with EDX and 42
MOVSL	M[EDI]=M[ESI]; EDI=EDI+4; ESI=ESI+4

FIGURE 2.43 Some typical IA-32 instructions and their functions. A list of frequent operations appears in Figure 2.44. The CALL saves the EIP of the next instruction on the stack. (EIP is the Intel PC.)

- 1. IA-32: Two or three-operand operation vs. MIPS: three-operand operation
- 2. IA-32: Register-memory vs. MIPS: register-register

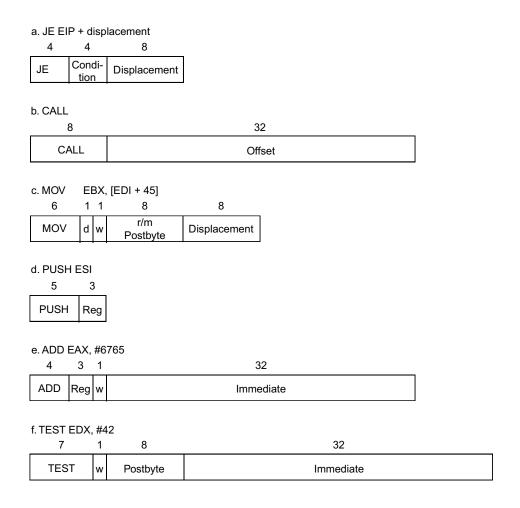
IA-32 Addressing Mode

Mode	Description	Register restrictions	MIPS equivalent
Register Indirect	Address is in a register.	not ESP or EBP	1w \$s0,0(\$s1)
Based mode with 8- or 32-bit displacement	Address is contents of base register plus displacement.	not ESP or EBP	lw \$s0,100(\$s1)#≤16-bit #displacement
Base plus scaled Index	The address is Base + (2 ^{Scale} x Index) where Scale has the value 0, 1, 2, or 3.	Base: any GPR Index: not ESP	mul \$t0,\$s2,4 add \$t0,\$t0,\$s1 lw \$s0,0(\$t0)
Base plus scaled Index with 8- or 32-bit displacement	The address is Base + (2 ^{Scale} x Index) + displacement where Scale has the value 0, 1, 2, or 3.	Base: any GPR Index: not ESP	mul \$t0,\$s2,4 add \$t0,\$t0,\$s1 lw \$s0,100(\$t0)#≤16-bit #displacement

Move EAX, [EBX+ EPI*4 + 100]

IA-32 has more addressing modes than MIPS

IA-32 instruction Formats



Implementing IA-32

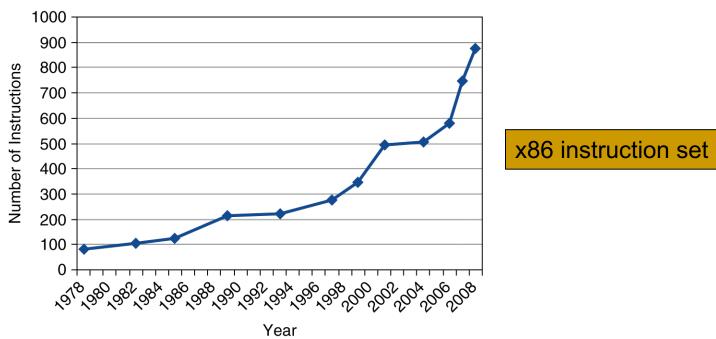
- Complex instruction set makes implementation difficult
 - Hardware translates instructions to simpler microoperations
 - Simple instructions: 1–1
 - Complex instructions: 1—many
 - Microengine similar to RISC
 - Market share makes this economically viable
- Comparable performance to RISC
 - Compilers 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 a local variable after procedure returns
 - 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

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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%