

COMPUTER ORGANIZATION AND DESIGN

The Hardware/Software Interface



Chapter 2

Instructions: Language of the Computer

Instruction Set

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



The MIPS Instruction Set

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

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
```

Memory Operands

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



Memory Operand Example 1

C code:

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

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

```
lw $t0, 32(\$s3) # load word add $s1, \$s2, \$t0
```

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: −2ⁿ⁻¹ to +2ⁿ⁻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 → 0, 0 → 1

$$x + \overline{x} = 1111...111_2 = -1$$

 $\overline{x} + 1 = -x$

- 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
 - lb, lh: 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

ор	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	\$tO	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



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



Stored Program Computers

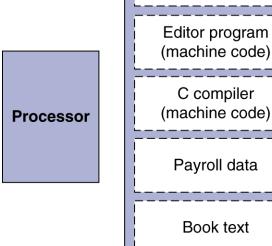
The BIG Picture

Memory

Accounting program

(machine code)

Source code in C for editor program



- 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

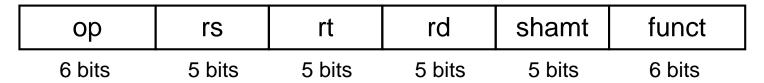
Instructions for bitwise manipulation

Operation	С	Java	MIPS
Shift left	<<	<<	sll
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
 - sl l 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
```

OR Operations

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

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

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

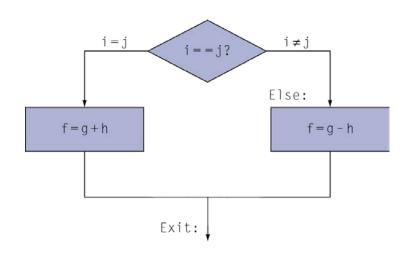
Compiling If Statements

C code:

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

else $f = g-h;$

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



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

Exit: 🐀

Assembler calculates addresses

Compiling Loop Statements

C code:

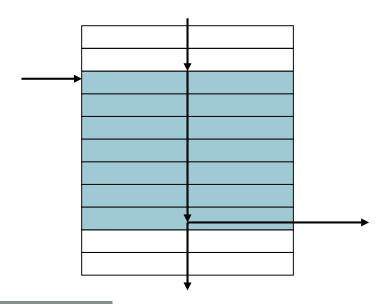
```
while (save[i] == k) i += 1;
```

- 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
```



Branch Instruction Design

- Why not bl t, 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 \Rightarrow $t0 = 1$
 - sltu \$t0, \$s0, \$s1 # unsigned
 - $+4,294,967,295 > +1 \Rightarrow $t0 = 0$

Procedure Calling

- Steps required
 - 1. 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
- \$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 j al ProcedureLabel
 - Address of following instruction put in \$ra
 - Jumps to target address
- Procedure return: jump registerjr \$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

Leaf Procedure Example

MIPS code:

leaf_example:							
addi	\$sp,	\$sp,	- 4				
SW	\$s0,	0(\$s)	p)				
add	\$t0,	\$a0,	\$a1				
add	\$t1,	\$a2,	\$a3				
sub	\$s0,	\$t0,	\$t1				
add	\$v0,	\$s0,	\$zero				
l w	\$s0,	0(\$s)	p)				
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 f;
  else return n * fact(n - 1);
}</pre>
```

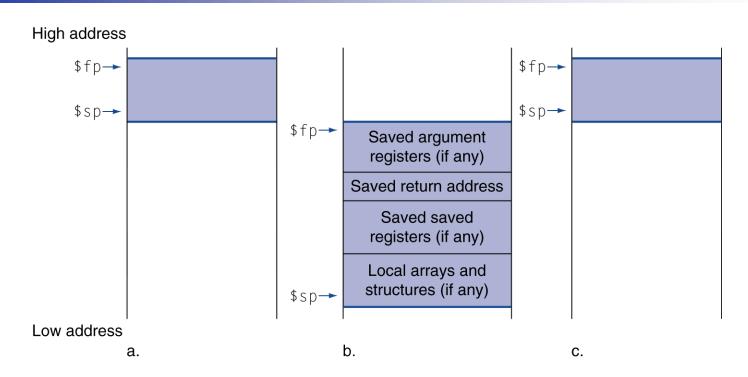
- Argument n in \$a0
- Result in \$v0

Non-Leaf Procedure Example

MIPS code:

fact	t:			
	addi	\$sp,	\$sp, -8	# adjust stack for 2 items
	SW	\$ra,	4(\$sp)	# save return address
	SW	\$a0,	0(\$sp)	# save argument
	slti	\$t0,	\$a0, 1	# test for n < 1
	beq	\$t0,	\$zero, L1	
	addi	\$v0,	\$zero, 1	# if so, result is 1
	addi	\$sp,	\$sp, 8	<pre># pop 2 items from stack</pre>
	jr	\$ra		# and return
L1:	addi	\$a0,	\$a0, -1	# else decrement n
	j al	fact		# recursive call
	l w	\$a0,	0(\$sp)	# restore original n
	l w	\$ra,	4(\$sp)	<pre># and return address</pre>
	addi	\$sp,	\$sp, 8	<pre># pop 2 items from stack</pre>
	mul	\$v0,	\$a0, \$v0	<pre># multiply to get result</pre>
	jr	\$ra		# and return

Local Data on the Stack

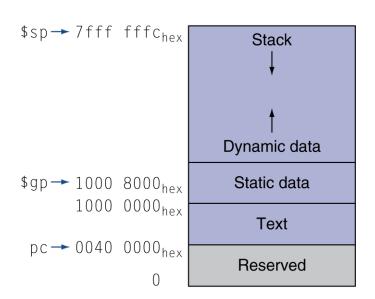


- Local data allocated by callee
 - e.g., C automatic variables
- Procedure frame (activation record)
 - Used by some compilers to manage stack storage



Memory Layout

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



Character Data

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



Byte/Halfword Operations

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

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:

str	cpy:			
	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
	l bu	\$t2,	0(\$t1)	# \$t2 = y[i]
	add	\$t3,	\$s0, \$a0	# addr of x[i] in \$t3
	\mathbf{sb}	\$t2,	0(\$t3)	# x[i] = y[i]
	beq	\$t2,	\$zero, L2	# exit loop if $y[i] == 0$
	addi	\$s0,	\$s0, 1	# i = i + 1
	j	L1		<pre># next iteration of loop</pre>
L2:	l w	\$s0,	0(\$sp)	# restore saved \$s0
	addi	\$sp,	\$sp, 4	<pre># pop 1 item from stack</pre>
	jr	\$ra		# and return

32-bit Constants

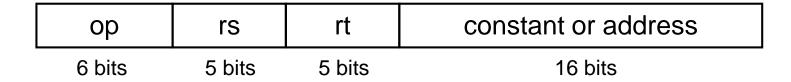
- Most constants are small
 - 16-bit immediate is sufficient
- For the occasional 32-bit constant lui rt, constant
 - Copies 16-bit constant to left 16 bits of rt
 - Clears right 16 bits of rt to 0

```
lhi $s0, 61
ori $s0, $s0, 2304 | 0000 0000 0111 1101 0000 1001 0000 0000
```



Branch Addressing

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



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

Jump Addressing

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

ор	address
6 bits	26 bits

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

Target Addressing Example

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

Loop:	sll	\$t1,	\$s3,	2	80000	0	0	19	9	4	0	
	add	\$t1,	\$t1,	\$ s 6	80004	0	9	22	9	0	32	
	l w	\$t0,	0(\$t	1)	80008	35	9	8		0		
	bne	\$t0,	\$s5,	Exi t	80012	5	8.	21	2			
	addi	\$s3,	\$s3,	1	80016	8	19	19	A M M M	1		
	j	Loop			80020	2	NEED SERVICE	20000				
Exi t:	•••				80024	-						

Branching Far Away

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

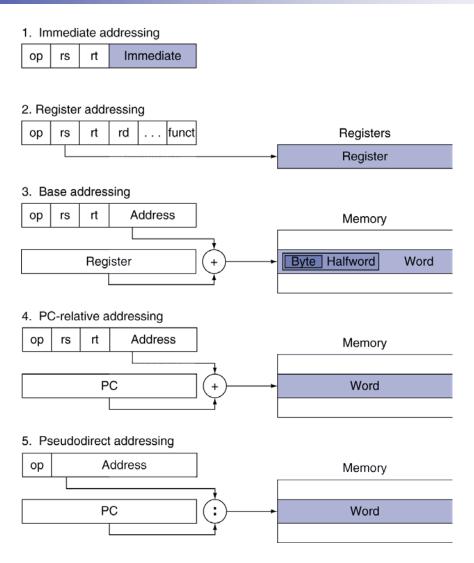
```
beq $s0, $s1, L1

↓
bne $s0, $s1, L2

j L1

L2: ...
```

Addressing Mode Summary



Synchronization

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

 memory
 - Or an atomic pair of instructions

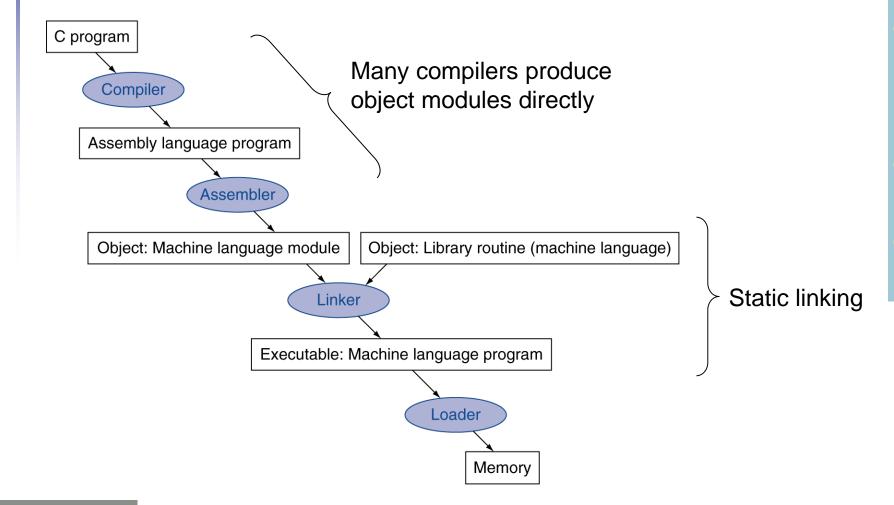


Synchronization in MIPS

- Load linked: ll 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)

```
try: add $t0, $zero, $s4 ; copy exchange value 11 $t1,0($s1) ; load linked sc $t0,0($s1) ; store conditional beq $t0, $zero, try ; branch store fails add $s4, $zero, $t1 ; put load value in $s4
```

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

- 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

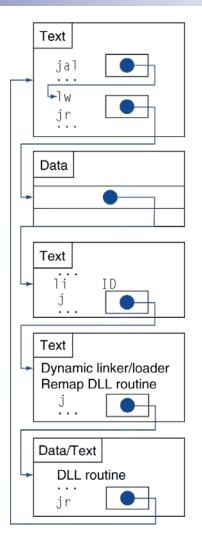
Lazy Linkage

Indirection table

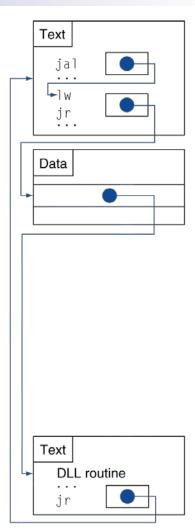
Stub: Loads routine ID, Jump to linker/loader

Linker/loader code

Dynamically mapped code



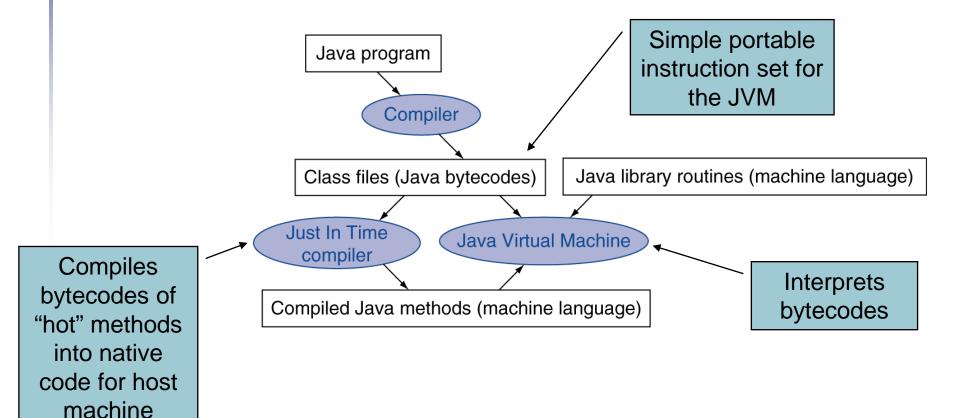
a. First call to DLL routine



b. Subsequent calls to DLL routine



Starting Java Applications



C Sort Example

- Illustrates use of assembly instructions for a C bubble sort function
- Swap procedure (leaf)
 void swap(int v[], int k)
 {
 int temp;
 temp = v[k];
 v[k] = v[k+1];
 v[k+1] = temp;
 }
 - 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];j -= 1) { swap(v, j); v in \$a0, k in \$a1, i in \$s0, j in \$s1

The Procedure Body

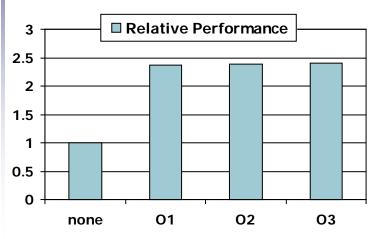
```
move $s2, $a0
                             # save $a0 into $s2
                                                              Move
        move $s3, $a1 # save $a1 into $s3
                                                              params
        move $s0, $zero # i = 0
                                                              Outer loop
for1tst: s1t $t0, $s0, $s3 # <math>$t0 = 0 if $s0 \ge $s3 (i \ge n)
        beq t0, zero, exit1 # go to exit1 if s0 \ge s3 (i \ge n)
        addi \$s1, \$s0, -1 # j = i - 1
for 2 tst: slti $t0, $s1, 0 # t0 = 1 if $s1 < 0 (j < 0)
        bne t0, zero, exit2 # go to exit2 if t = 0 (j < 0)
        Inner loop
        add $t2, $s2, $t1 # $t2 = v + (j * 4)
        1 \text{w} \quad \$t3, \quad 0(\$t2) \quad \# \ \$t3 = v[j]
        lw $t4, 4($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
            for1tst
                             # jump to test of outer loop
```

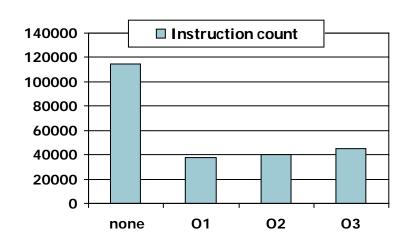
The Full Procedure

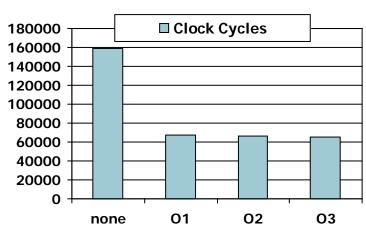
```
addi $sp, $sp, −20
                             # make room on stack for 5 registers
sort:
        sw $ra, 16($sp)
                             # save $ra on stack
        sw $s3, 12($sp)
                             # save $s3 on stack
        sw $s2, 8($sp)
                             # save $s2 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
        jr $ra
                             # return to calling routine
```

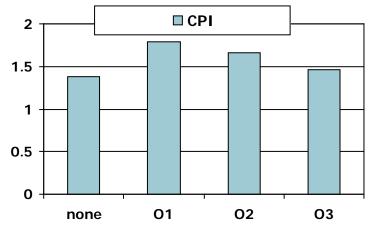
Effect of Compiler Optimization

Compiled with gcc for Pentium 4 under Linux



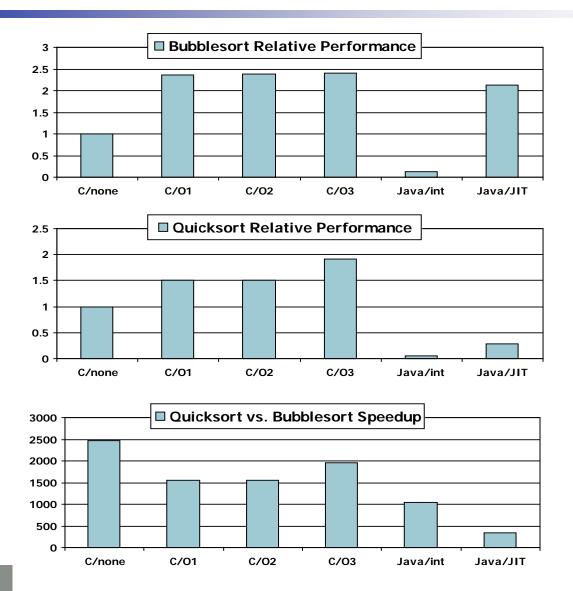








Effect of Language and Algorithm





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:
                          \# i = 0
                                                      move $t0,$a0 # p = & array[0]
        move $t0, $zero
loop1: sll $t1, $t0, 2 # $t1 = i * 4
                                                      sll $t1, $a1, 2 # $t1 = size * 4
        add $t2, $a0, $t1 # $t2 =
                                                      add $t2, $a0, $t1 # $t2 =
                           # &array[i]
                                                                             &array[size]
        sw \ensuremath{\$}zero, \ensuremath{0}(\ensuremath{\$} t2) # array\ensuremath{[i]} = 0
                                              loop2: sw zero, 0(t0) # Memory[p] = 0
        addi $t0, $t0, 1
                           \# i = i + 1
                                                      addi $t0, $t0, 4 \# p = p + 4
        slt $t3, $t0, $a1 # $t3 =
                                                      slt $t3, $t0, $t2 # $t3 =
                           \# (i < size)
                                                                        #(p<&array[size])
                                                      bne $t3, $zero, loop2 # if (...)
        bne $t3, $zero, loop1 # 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

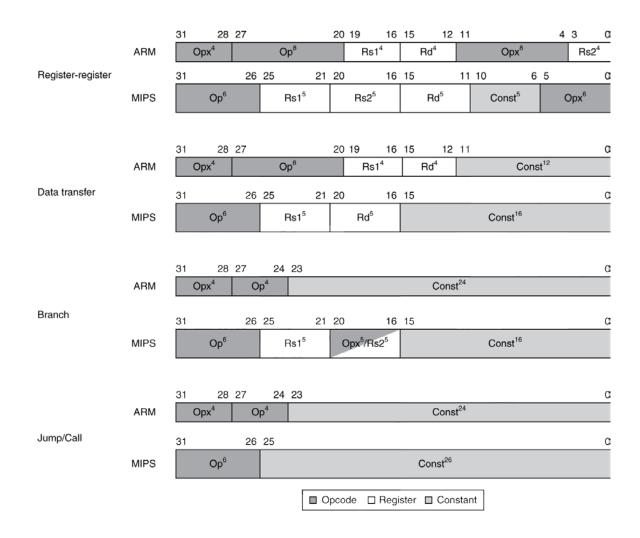
	ARM	MIPS
Date announced	1985	1985
Instruction size	32 bits	32 bits
Address space	32-bit flat	32-bit flat
Data alignment	Aligned	Aligned
Data addressing modes	9	3
Registers	15 × 32-bit	31 × 32-bit
Input/output	Memory mapped	Memory mapped



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

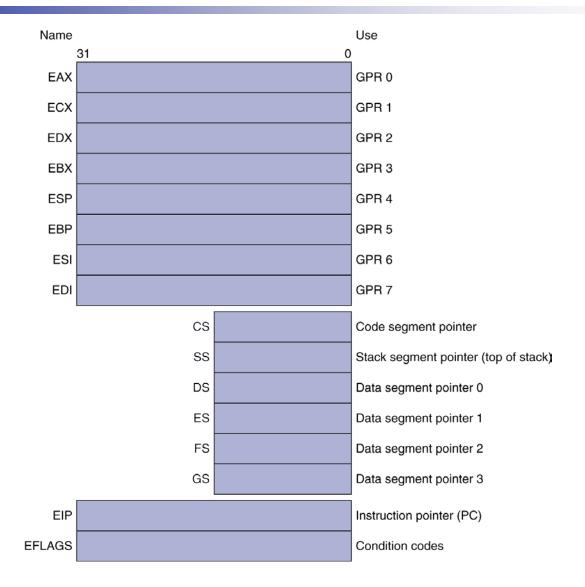


The Intel x86 ISA

- 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

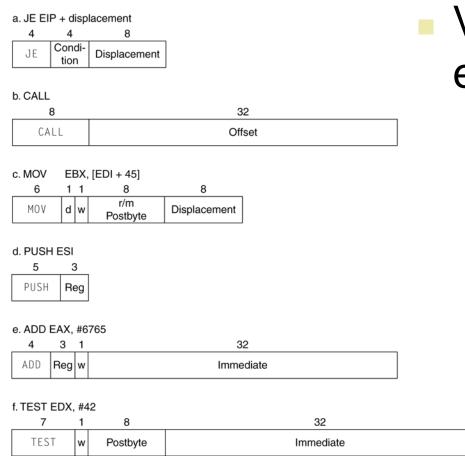
Two operands per instruction

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

x86 Instruction Encoding



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

Implementing IA-32

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



ARM v8 Instructions

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



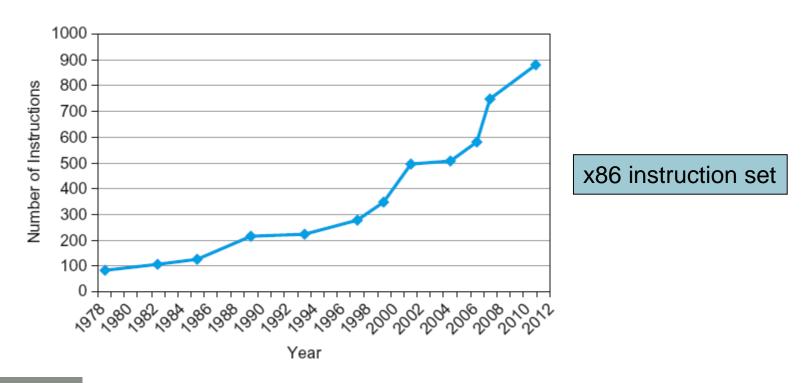
Fallacies

- 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%