CCSYA

Instructions: Language of the Computer

Part II

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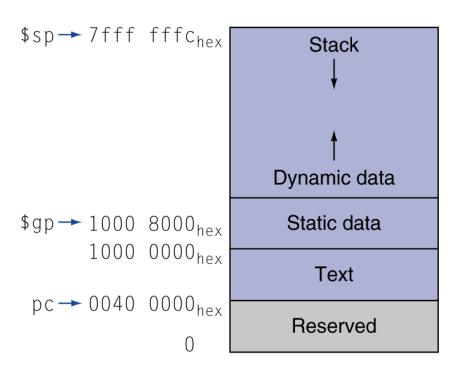
Address Space

Text

Program code

Static data

- Global variables
- Static variables in C, constant arrays and strings
- \$gp initialized to address allowing ± offsets into this segment



Address Space

Heap

Memory dynamically allocated during runtime

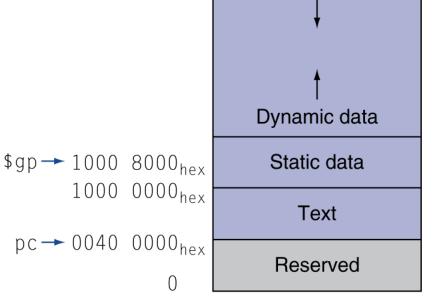
\$sp→7fff fffc_{hex}

Stack

 Temporary data for handling procedure calls

The heap and stack segments grow toward each other

 Allowing the efficient use of memory as the two segments expand and shrink



Stack

Procedure Calling

 The execution of a procedure call happens when one procedure (the caller) invokes another procedure (the callee)

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

Procedure Calling

- How to ensure that a procedure call does not change data that is outside its scope?
- Programmers who write code in a HLL never see the details of how one procedure calls another
 - The compiler takes care of the low-level details
- Programmers who write code in assembly must explicitly implement every procedure call and return
 - The caller may have to save data before calling the callee
 - The callee may have to save data before running its operations

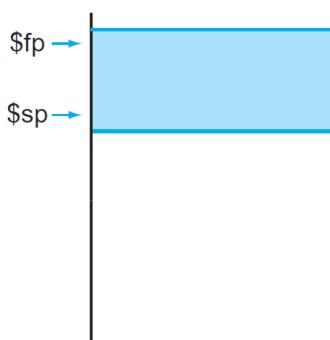
The Stack

- The bookkeeping associated with procedure calls is done in the stack segment around blocks of memory called procedure frames
- Register \$fp (frame pointer) points to the base of the current procedure frame
 - Offers a stable base register as it does not change in a procedure
- Register \$sp (stack pointer) points to the top of the stack (the top of the current procedure frame)
 - Since it can change within a procedure, different references to the same (local) variable might have different offsets in the procedure

The Stack

- The stack grows from higher to lower addresses
- This convention means that you push values onto the stack by subtracting from the stack pointer
- Adding to the stack pointer shrinks the stack, thereby popping values off the stack

High address



Low address

Procedure Call Instructions

Procedure call: jump and link

jal ProcedureLabel

- Address of following instruction (PC+4) put in \$ra
- Jumps to target address
- Procedure return: jump register

jr \$ra

- Copies \$ra to program counter (PC = \$ra)
- Can also be used for computed jumps
 - e.g., for case/switch statements

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

Register Usage

- \$gp
 - Global pointer for static data (reg 28)
- \$sp
 - Stack pointer (reg 29)
- \$fp
 - Frame pointer (reg 30)
- \$ra
 - Return address (reg 31)

Caller side

- If is uses registers \$t0-\$t9, \$a0-\$a3 and \$v0-\$v1 after the call
 - Save its values before the call in the current procedure frame
- The first 4 arguments are put in registers \$a0-\$a3
 - Additional arguments are pushed on the stack and appear at the beginning of the procedure frame (\$fp points to the base of the procedure frame)
- Execute a jal instruction to jump to the callee's first instruction
 - Saves the return address in \$ra
- Restores saved registers and handles return values

Callee Side

Allocates memory to local data

Subtracting the required size from \$sp

Saves preserved registers

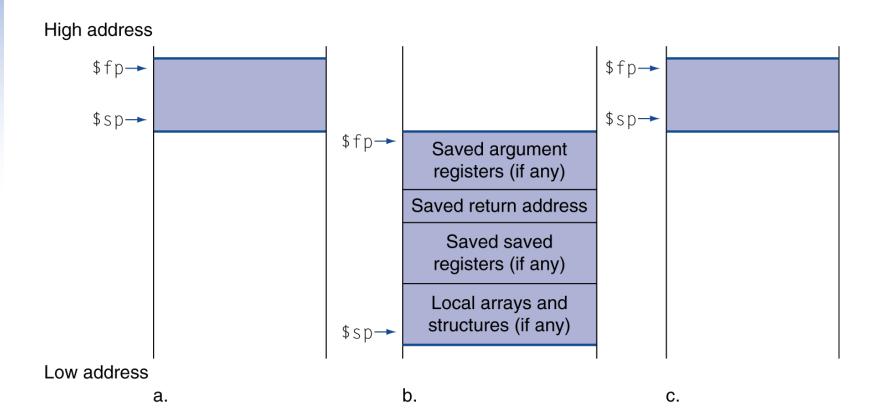
- If it uses registers \$s0-\$s7, saves its values in the new procedure frame before altering them
- \$fp only needs to be saved if the frame's size is not zero
- \$ra only needs to be saved if the callee itself makes a call

Returns control to the caller

- If the callee returns something, put the result(s) in \$v0−\$v1
- Restore all callee-saved registers (\$fp, \$ra and \$s0-\$s7)
- Pop the procedure frame by adding its size to \$sp
- Execute a jr instruction, jumping to the address in \$ra

The Stack and Procedure Call

The stack allocation (a) before, (b) during, and (c) after the procedure call



Leaf Procedure Example

C code:

```
int leaf_example (int g, int h, int i, int j) {
   int f;
   f = (g + h) - (i + j);
   return f;
}
```

Leaf Procedure Example

MIPS code:

- Arguments g, ..., j in \$a0, ..., \$a3
- f in \$s0 (hence, need to save \$s0 on stack)
- Result in \$v0

```
leaf_example:
    addi $sp, $sp, -4  # adjust stack for 1 item
    sw $s0, 0($sp)  # Save $s0 on stack
    add $t0, $a0, $a1  # Procedure body
    add $t1, $a2, $a3
    sub $s0, $t0, $t1
    add $v0, $s0, $zero  # Result
    lw $s0, 0($sp)  # Restore $s0
    addi $sp, $sp, 4  # pop 1 item from stack
    jr $ra  # Return
```

String Copy Example

- C code (naive):
 - Null-terminated string

```
void strcpy (char x[], char y[]) {
  int i = 0;
  while ((x[i]=y[i])!='\0')
  i += 1;
}
```

String Copy Example

MIPS code:

- Addresses of x, y in \$a0, \$a1
- iin \$s0

```
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
   add $t3, $s0, $a0 # addr of x[i] in $t3
   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
                   # next iteration of loop
L2: lw $s0, 0($sp) # restore saved $s0
   addi $sp, $sp, 4  # pop 1 item from stack
   jr $ra
                      # and 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>
```

Non-Leaf Procedure Example

MIPS code:

Argument n in \$a0, result in \$v0

```
fact:
   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
   beg $t0, $zero, L1
   addi $v0, $zero, 1  # if so, result is 1
   addi $sp, $sp, 8  # pop 2 items from stack
                       # and return
   jr $ra
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
```

C Sort Example

- In the next slides, we derive the MIPS code from two procedures written in C:
 - one to swap array elements...
 - ...and one to sort them
- Swap procedure (leaf)

```
void swap(int v[], int k) {
  int temp;
  temp = v[k];
  v[k] = v[k+1];
  v[k+1] = temp;
}
```

The Swap Procedure

MIPS code:

v in \$a0, k in \$a1, temp in \$t0

The Sort Procedure in C

Non-leaf (calls swap)

v in \$a0, k in \$a1, i in \$s0, j in \$s1

```
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);
    }
  }
}
```

The Procedure Body

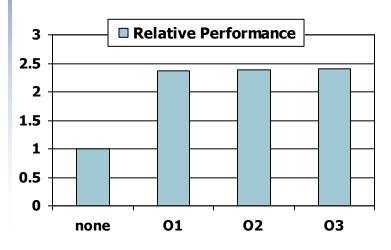
```
move $s2, $a0
                               # save $a0 into $s2
 Move
        move $s3, $a1
                               # save $a1 into $s3
 params
        move $s0, $zero
                               # i = 0
for 1 tst: slt $t0, $s0, $s3 # $t0 = 0 if $s0 \geq $s3 (i \geq n)
        beg $t0, $zero, exit1 # go to exit1 if $s0 \geq $s3 (i \geq n)
Outer loop 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 $s1 < 0 (j < 0)
        sll $t1, $s1, 2
                               # $t1 = j * 4
        add $t2, $s2, $t1
                              # $t2 = v + (j * 4)
        lw $t3, 0($t2) # $t3 = v[j]
Inner loop
        1w $t4, 4($t2) # $t4 = v[j + 1]
        slt $t0, $t4, $t3 \# $t0 = 0 if $t4 \ge $t3
        beg $t0, $zero, exit2 # go to exit2 if $t4 \geq $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
                               # i -= 1
        addi $s1, $s1, -1
        j for2tst
                               # jump to test of inner loop
                               # i += 1
exit2:
      addi $s0, $s0, 1
        j for1tst
                               # jump to test of outer loop
```

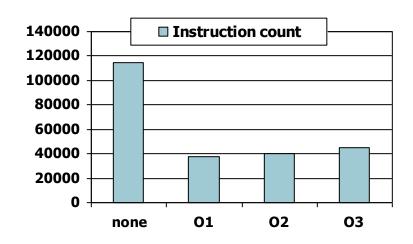
The Full Procedure

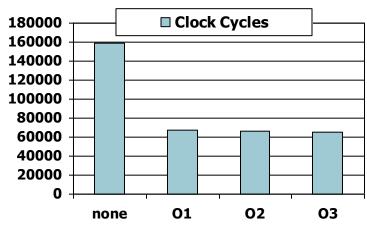
```
sort: addi $sp,$sp, -20 # make room on stack for 5 registers
      sw ra, 16(sp) # save ra on stack
      sw $s3,12($sp) # save $s3 on stack
      sw $s2, 8($sp) # save $s2 on stack
      sw $s1, 4($sp) # save $s1 on stack
      sw $s0, 0($sp) # save $s0 on stack
                        # procedure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

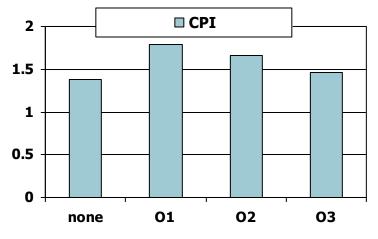
Effect of Compiler Optimization

Compiled with gcc for Intel i5 under Linux

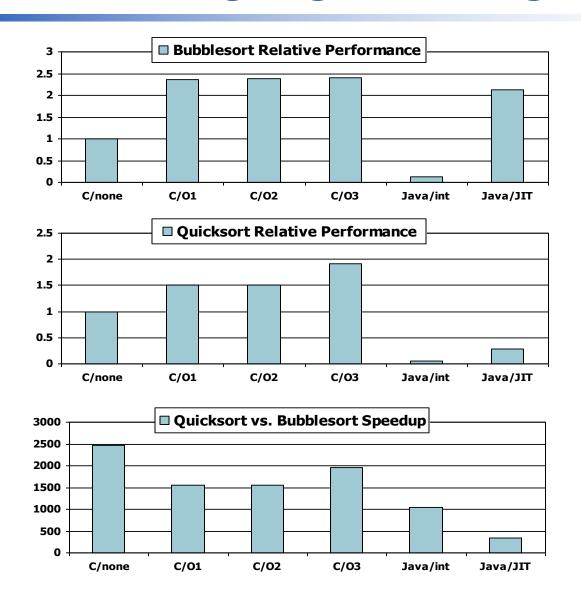








Effect of Language and Algorithm



Lessons Learnt

- Instruction count and CPI are not good performance indicators in isolation
 - Reminding us that time is the only accurate measure of program performance
- 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!

Representing Instructions

We are now ready to see the difference between:

- the way humans instruct computers and...
- ...the way computers see instructions

Instructions are encoded in binary

Called machine code

Each segment of an instruction is called a field

 Each piece of an instruction can be considered as an individual number, and placing these numbers side by side forms the instruction

Representing Instructions

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
- \$s0 \$s7 are reg's 16 23
- \$t8 \$t9 are reg's 24 25

Representing Instructions

Instruction fields

op: operation code (opcode)

rs: first source register number

rt: second source register number

rd: destination register number

shamt: shift amount (how many positions to shift)

funct: function variant (extends opcode)

Name	Fields					Comments		
Field size	6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	6 bits	All MIPS instructions are 32 bits long	
R-format	ор	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct	Arithmetic instruction format	
I-format	ор	rs	rt	address/immediate		diate	Transfer, branch, imm. format	
J-format	ор	target address				Jump instruction format		

MIPS R-format Instructions

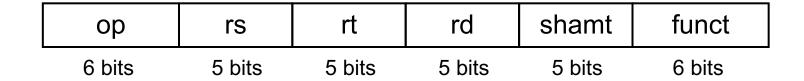
	ор	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
6	bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	6 bits

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

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

 $00000010001100100100000000100000_2 = 02324020_{16}$

MIPS R-format Instructions



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

- The op and funct fields in combination (0 and 32 in this case) tell that this instruction performs addition (add)
- The rs and rt fields, registers \$s1 (17) and \$s2 (18), are the source operands, and the rd field, register \$t0 (8), is the destination operand
- The shamt field is unused in this instruction, so it is set to 0

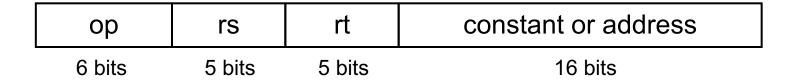
Register Addressing

Register addressing is a form of direct addressing

- The value in the register is an operand instead of being a memory address to an operand
- Instructions using registers execute fast because they do not have the delay associated with memory access



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

From Assembly to Machine Code

```
lw $t0, 1200($t1) # $t0 = a[300]
add $t0, $s2, $t0 # $t0 = h + a[300]
sw $t0, 1200($t1) # a[300] = $t0
```

35	9	8	1200				
0	18	8	8	0	32		
43	9	8	1200				

The similarity between instructions facilitates the design of the CPU

Immediate addressing

- Immediate addressing means that one operand is a constant within the instruction itself
 - The advantage of using it is that there is no need to have extra memory access to fetch the operand
 - But keep in mind that the operand is limited to 16 bits in size

ор	rs	rt	Immediate
		l	

32-Bit Immediate Operands

- Although constants are frequently short and fit into the 16-bit field, sometimes they are bigger
- load upper immediate (lui) specifically to set the upper 16 bits of a constant in a register
 - Allowing a subsequent instruction to specify the lower 16 bits of the constant

lui rt, constant

- Copies 16-bit constant to left 16 bits of rt
- Clears right 16 bits of rt to 0

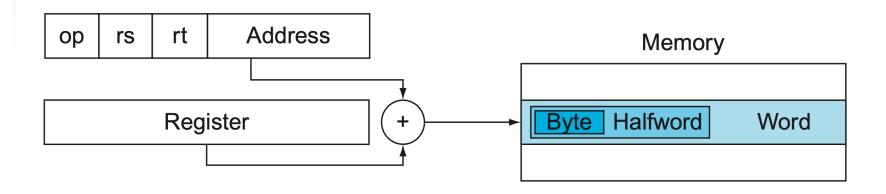
32-Bit Immediate Operands

- What is the MIPS assembly code to load the value 4000000 into register \$s0?
 - $\bullet 40000_{(10)} = 0000\ 0000\ 0011\ 1101\ 0000\ 1001\ 0000\ 0000_{(2)}$
 - $= 61_{(10)} = 0000\ 0000\ 0011\ 1101_{(2)}$
 - $= 2304_{(10)} = 0000 \ 1001 \ 0000 \ 0000_{(2)}$

 The compiler or the assembler must break large constants into pieces and then reassemble them into a register

Base Register Addressing

- In base register addressing we add a small constant to a pointer held in a register
 - The register may point to a structure or some other collection of data, and we need to load a value at a constant offset from the beginning of the structure



Branch Addressing

Branch instructions specify

Opcode, two registers, target address

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

Most branch targets are a nearby instruction

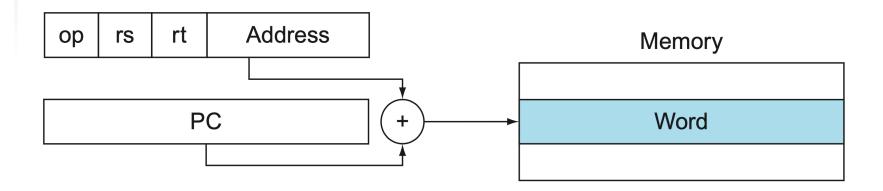
Forward or backward

PC-relative addressing

- Target address = PC + offset × 4
- PC already incremented by 4 by this time
- Otherwise, it would mean that no program could be bigger than 2¹⁶, which is far too small to be a realistic option today

PC-relative Addressing

- PC-relative addressing is used for conditional branches
 - The address is the sum of the program counter and a constant in the instruction



MIPS J-Format Instructions

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

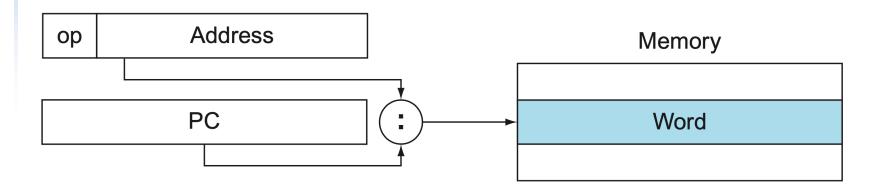
ор	address
6 bits	26 bits

- Pseudo-direct jump addressing
 - Target address = PC_{31...28}: (address × 4)
 - The jump address is the 26 bits of the instruction concatenated with the upper bits of the PC

Pseudo-direct Addressing

Pseudo-direct addressing is used in jumps

 The jump address is a constant in the instruction concatenated with the upper bits of the PC



Target Addressing Example

The bne instruction on the fourth line

 Adds 2 words (8 bytes) to the address of the following instruction (80016) instead of using the full destination address (80024)

The j instruction on the last line

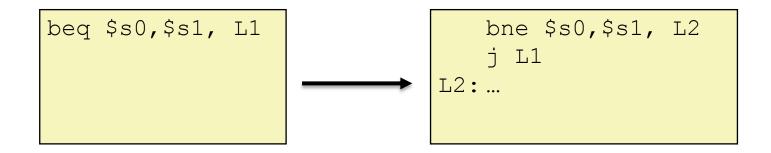
 Uses the full address (20000 x 4 = 80000), corresponding to the label Loop

Loop:	sll	\$t1,	\$s3,	2	80000	0	0	19	9	4	0
	add	\$t1,	\$t1,	\$s6	80004	0	9	22	9	0	32
	lw	\$t0,	0(\$t1)		80008	35	9	8	0		
	bne	\$t0,	\$s5,	Exit	80012	5	8	21	2		
	addi	\$s3,	\$s3,	1	80016	8	19	19	***************************************		
	j	Loop			80020	2	20000				
Exit:					80024	THE REAL PROPERTY OF THE PROPE					

Branching Far Away

- If branch target is too far to encode with a 16-bit offset, the assembler rewrites the code
 - Inserts an unconditional jump to the branch target, and inverts the condition so that the branch decides whether to skip the jump

Example



RISC Design Principles in MIPS

1. Simplicity favours regularity

- All instructions have a single size
- Three register operands in all arithmetic instructions
- Keeping the register fields in the same place in each instruction format

2. Smaller is faster

Use just 32 registers

3. Good design demands good compromises

 Providing for larger addresses and constants in instructions VS keeping all instructions the same length

RISC Design Principles in MIPS

4. Make the common case faster

- PC-relative addressing for conditional branches and immediate addressing for larger constant operands
- Most procedures are satisfied with 4 arguments, 2 registers for a return value, 8 saved registers, and 10 temporary registers without ever going to memory