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 (Microprocessor without Interlocked Piped Stages) 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
- \blacksquare MIPS has a 32 imes 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
 - Word 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

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 → 0, 0 → 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



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

| op | 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 |

 $00000010001100100100000000100000_2 = 02324020_{16}$

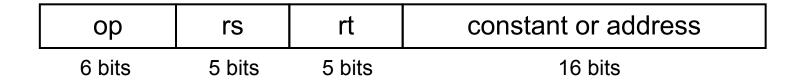
Hexadecimal

- 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

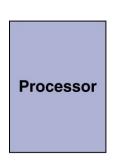
MIPS I-format Instructions

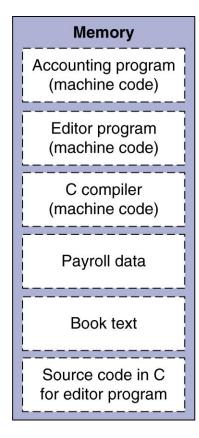


- Immediate arithmetic and load/store instructions
 - rt: destination or source register number
 - Constant: -2¹⁵ to +2¹⁵ 1
 - Address: offset added to base address in rs
- Design Principle 4: Good design demands good compromises
 - Different formats complicate decoding, but allow 32-bit instructions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

Stored Program Computers

The BIG Picture





- 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

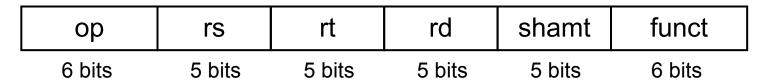
Logical Operations

Instructions for bitwise manipulation

| Operation | С | Java | MIPS |
|-------------|----|------|-----------|
| Shift left | << | << | s11 |
| Shift right | >> | >>> | srl |
| Bitwise AND | & | & | and, andi |
| Bitwise OR | | | or, ori |
| Bitwise NOR | | | nor |

Useful for extracting and inserting groups of bits in a word

Shift Operations



- shamt: how many positions to shift
- Shift left logical
 - Shift to left and fill with 0 bits
 - s11 by i bits multiplies by 2i
- Shift right logical
 - Shift to 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
```

\$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

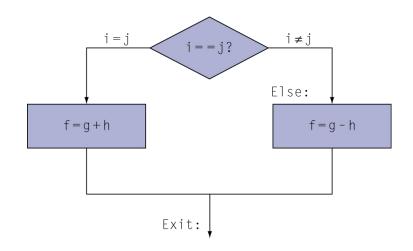
Conditional Operations

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



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

Exit: *...

Assembler calculates addresses

Compiling Loop Statements

C code:

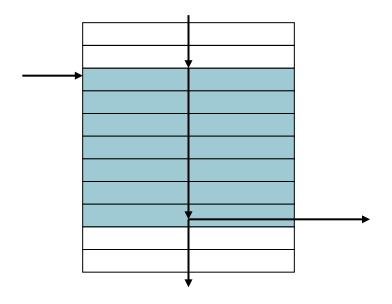
```
while (save[i] == k) i+= 1;
```

- 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 \Rightarrow $t0 = 1$
 - 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(8-15,24-25)
 - Can be overwritten by callee in procedure
- \$s0 \$s7: saved(16-23)
 - Must be saved/restored by callee before calling
- \$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

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 | | | | | |
| 1w | \$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 before calling:
 - 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>
```

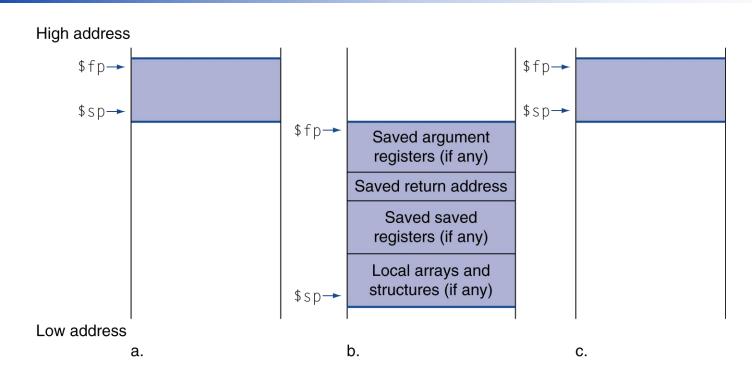
- Argument n in \$a0
- Result in \$v0

Non-Leaf Procedure Example

MIPS code:

```
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
   beq $t0, $zero, L1
                        # if so, result is 1
   addi $v0, $zero, 1
                         # pop 2 items from stack
   addi $sp, $sp, 8
   jr $ra
                         # return to the higher caller
L1: addi $a0, $a0, -1
                         # else decrement n
       fact
                         # recursive call
   jal
                         # restore original n
    lw $a0, 0($sp)
                        # and return address
   lw $ra, 4($sp)
   addi $sp, $sp, 8
                         # pop 2 items from stack
   mul $v0, $a0, $v0
                         # multiply to get result
        $ra
                         # and return
   jr
```

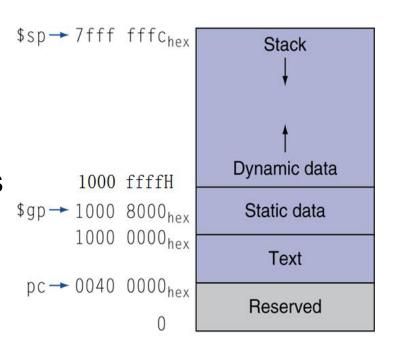
Local Data on the Stack



- 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: 16-bit character set(UTF-16)
 - 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
 1b rt, offset(rs)
 1h rt, offset(rs)
- Sign extend to 32 bits in rt
 1bu rt, offset(rs)
 1hu 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 :
 - 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:

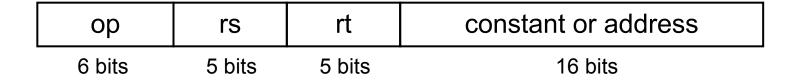
```
strcpy:
   addi $sp, $sp, -4
                         # adjust stack for 1 item
   sw $s0, 0($sp)
                         # save $s0
   add $s0, $zero, $zero # i = 0
L1: add $t1, $s0, $a1
                         # addr of y[i] in $t1
   lbu $t2, 0($t1)
                         # $t2 = y[i]
                         # 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
                         \# i = i + 1
   addi $s0, $s0, 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
 - P75 example

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 × 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

| ор | address |
|--------|---------|
| 6 bits | 26 bits |

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

Target Addressing Example

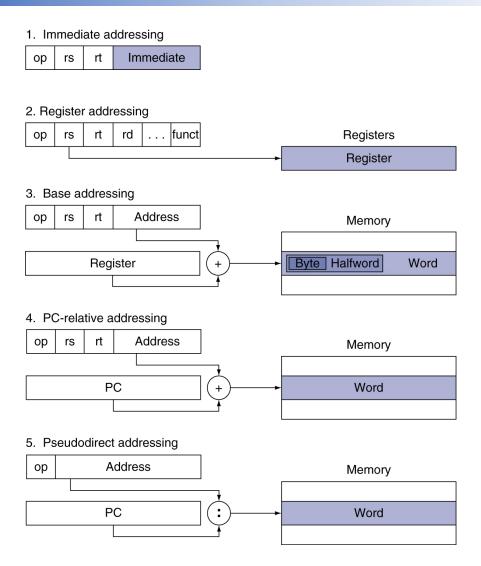
- Loop code from earlier example
 - Assume Loop at location 80000

| Loop: | s11 | \$t1, | \$s3, | 2 | 80000 | 0 | 0 | 19 | 9 | 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,,,,,, | 20000 | | | | |
| Exit: | | | | | 80024 | | | | | | |

Branching Far Away

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

Addressing Mode Summary



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Synchronization

- Two processors /threads/parallel procedures 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

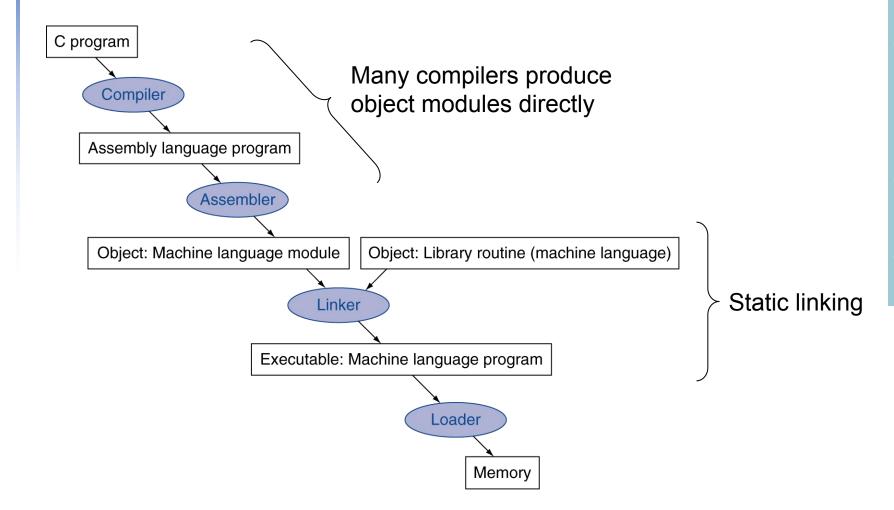
 memory
 - Or an atomic pair of instructions

Synchronization in MIPS

- Load linked: 11 rti, offset(rs)
- Store conditional: sc rtj, offset(rs)
 - Succeeds if location not changed since the 11
 - Returns 1 in rtj
 - Fails if location is changed
 - Returns 0 in rtj
- Example: atomic swap (to test/set lock variable)

```
try: addi $t0,$zero,1 ;copy locked value
ll $t1,0($s1) ;load linked
sc $t0,0($s1) ;store conditional
beq $t0,$zero,try ;branch if 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
 - 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

Loading a Program

- Load from image file on disk into memory
 - 1. Read header to determine segment sizes
 - 2. Create 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

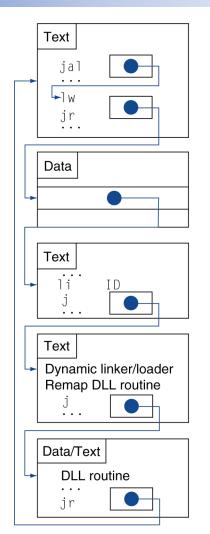
Lazy Linkage

Indirection table

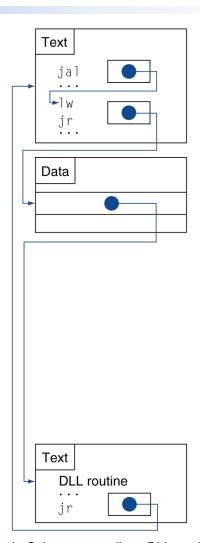
Stub: Loads routine ID, Jump to linker/loader

Linker/loader code

Dynamically mapped code



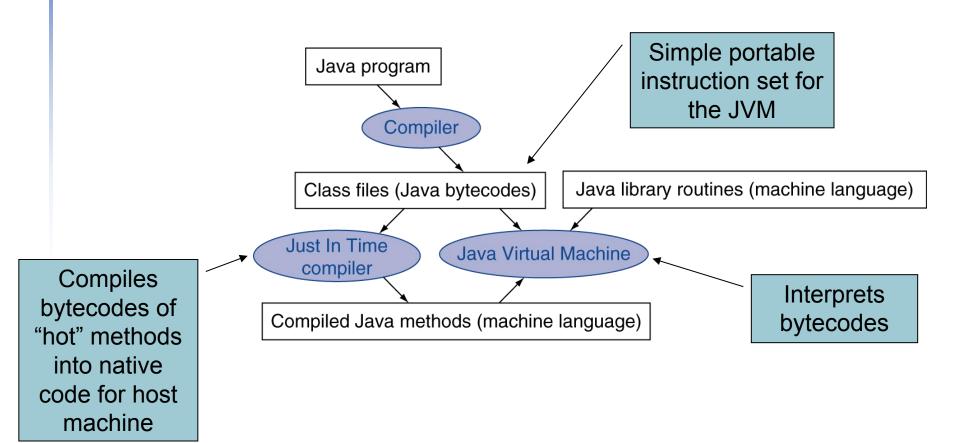
a. First call to DLL routine



b. Subsequent calls to DLL routine

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

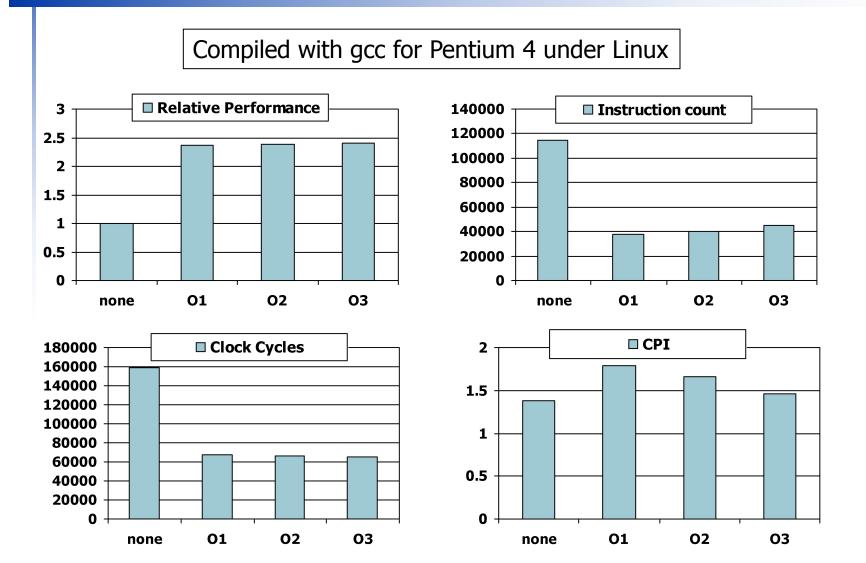
The Procedure Body

```
# save $a0 into $s2
       move $s2, $a0
                                                           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 \ge 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]
       w $t4, 4($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
       i for1tst
                            # jump to test of outer loop
```

The Full Procedure

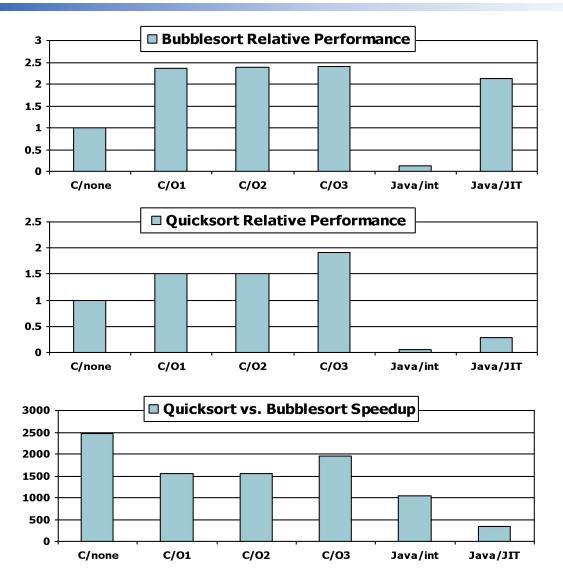
```
# make room on stack for 5 registers
sort:
       addi $sp,$sp, -20
       sw $ra, 16($sp) # save $ra on stack
       sw $s3,12($sp) # save $s3 on stack
       sw $s2, 8($sp) # save $s2 on stack
       sw $s1, 4($sp) # save $s1 on stack
       sw $s0, 0($sp)
                           # save $s0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

Effect of Compiler Optimization



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Effect of Language and Algorithm



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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 (p = &array[0]; p < &array[size];</pre>
 for (i = 0; i < size; i += 1)
   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 $zero, 0($t2) # array[i] = 0
                                        loop2: sw zero_0(t0) \# Memory[p] = 0
      addi t0,t0,1 # i = i + 1
                                               addi t0,t0,4 \# p = p + 4
      s1t $t3,$t0,$a1 # $t3 =
                                                slt $t3,$t0,$t2 # $t3 =
                       # (i < size)
                                                               #(p<&array[size])</pre>
      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

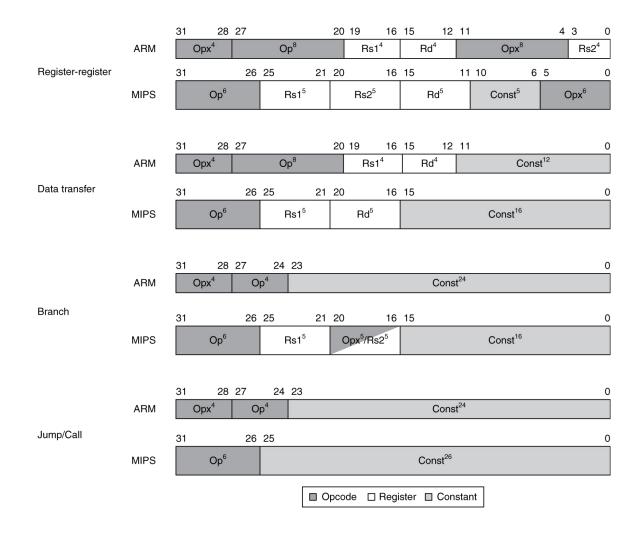
- ARM: the most popular embedded core
- Similar basic set of instructions to MIPS

| | 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 	imes 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



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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

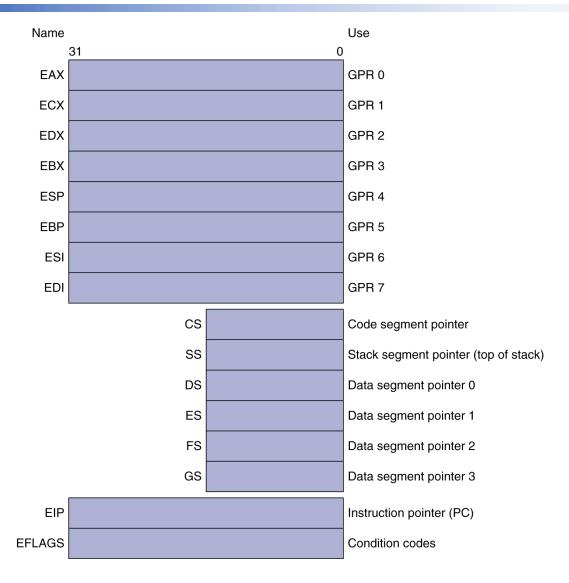
The Intel x86 ISA

- 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



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Basic x86 Addressing Modes

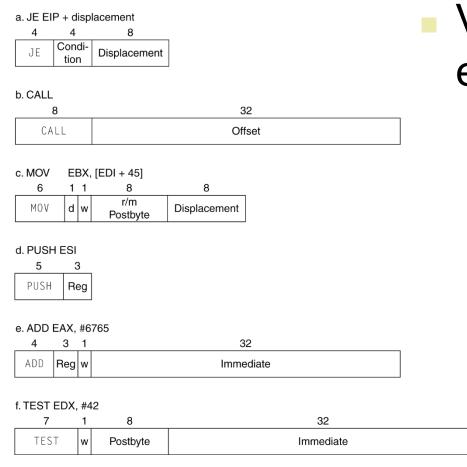
Two operands per instruction

| 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



- 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

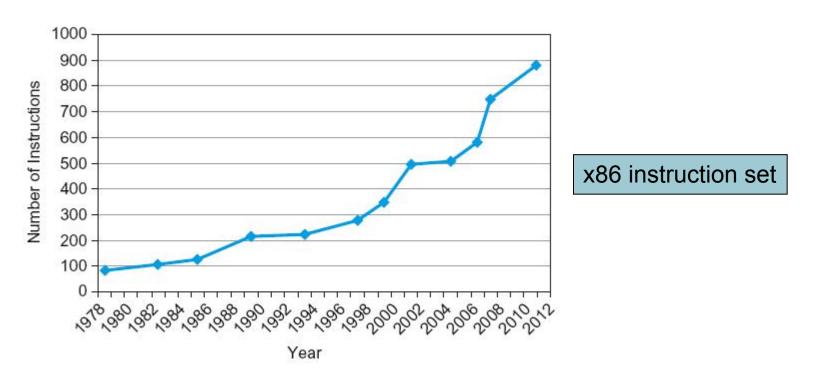
- In moving to 64-bit, ARM did a complete overhaul
- ARM v8 resembles MIPS
 - Changes from v7:
 - No conditional execution field
 - Immediate field is 12-bit constant
 - Dropped load/store multiple
 - PC is no longer a GPR
 - GPR set expanded to 32
 - Addressing modes work for all word sizes
 - Divide 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% |

Exercises

P112:

2.7, 2.9, 2.14, 2.15, 2.24, 2.38, 2.39, 2.40, 2.41