Ch2: Instructions: Language of the Computer

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Instruction Set

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



The MIPS Instruction Set

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

Arithmetic Operations

- Add and subtract, three operands
 - Two sources and one destination

add a, b, c # a gets b + c

- All arithmetic operations have this form
- Design Principle 1: Simplicity favours regularity
 - Regularity makes implementation simpler
 - Simplicity enables higher performance at lower cost

Arithmetic Example

• C code:

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

• Compiled MIPS code:

```
add t0, g, h # temp t0 = g + h
add t1, i, j # temp t1 = i + j
sub f, t0, t1 # f = t0 - t1
```



Register Operands

- Arithmetic instructions use register operands
- MIPS has a 32 × 32-bit register file
- ARM has a 16 X 32-bit register file
 - Use for frequently accessed data
 - Numbered 0 to 31 ($0^{\sim}15$ on the ARM)
 - 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:

• Compiled MIPS code:

• Compiled ARM code: (r5, r6 instead of \$t0, \$t1) add r5, r0, r1 ; register r5 contains g + h add r6, r2, r3 ; register r6 contains i + j sub r4, r5, r6 ; r4 get r5 - r6

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
- ARM is Big Endian, but recent ARM can run in either little or big endian mode
 - 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



•

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!

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



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 overwritted
- 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 1011₂ = 0 + ... + 1×2^3 + 0×2^2 + 1×2^1 + 1×2^0 = 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
 - 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1100_2 = $-1 \times 2^{31} + 1 \times 2^{30} + ... + 1 \times 2^2 + 0 \times 2^1 + 0 \times 2^0$ = $-2,147,483,648 + 2,147,483,644 = -4_{10}$
- Using 32 bits
 - -2,147,483,648 to +2,147,483,647

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2s-Complement Signed Integers

- Bit 31 is sign bit
 - 1 for negative numbers
 - 0 for non-negative numbers
- -(-2ⁿ⁻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 ... 0000Most-positive: 0111 1111 ... 1111

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

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

Example: negate +2

+2 = 0000 0000 ... 0010₂

■ -2 = 1111 1111 ... 1101₂ + 1 = 1111 1111 ... 1110₂



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

- beg, 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	\$t0	0	add
0	17	18	8	0	32
000000	10001	10010	01000	00000	100000

 $0000001000110010010000000100000_2 = 02324020_{16}$



Hexadecimal

- Base 16
 - Compact representation of bit strings
 - 4 bits per hex digit

0	0000	4	0100	8	1000	С	1100
1	0001	5	0101	9	1001	d	1101
2	0010	6	0110	а	1010	е	1110
3	0011	7	0111	b	1011	f	1111

- Example: eca8 6420
 - **1110 1100 1010 1000 0110 0100 0010 0000**



MIPS I-format Instructions

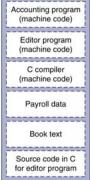
ор	rs	rt	constant or address
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	16 bits

- Immediate arithmetic and load/store instructions
 - rt: destination or source register number
 - Constant: -2^{15} to $+2^{15}$ 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 NOT	~	~	nor

 Useful for extracting and inserting groups of bits in a word



Shift Operations

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

- shamt: how many positions to shift
- Shift left logical
 - Shift left and fill with 0 bits
 - s11 by *i* bits multiplies by 2^{i}
- Shift right logical
 - Shift right and fill with 0 bits
 - srl by i bits divides by 2' (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	00 11	01 1100 0000
\$t1	0000 0000 0000 0000 00	11 11	00 0000 0000
\$t0	0000 0000 0000 0000 00	00 11	00 0000 0000

OR Operations

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

or \$t0, \$t1, \$t2

\$t2	0000 0000 0000 0000 00	00 11	01 1100 0000
\$t1	0000 0000 0000 0000 00	11 11	00 0000 0000
\$t0	0000 0000 0000 0000 00	11 11	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

f-g-h

0000 0000 0000 0000 0011 1100 0000 0000

1111 1111 1111 1111 1100 0011 1111 1111

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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

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Compiling If Statements

• C code:

- f, g, ... in \$s0, \$s1, ...



bne \$s3, \$s4, Else add \$s0, \$s1, \$s2 Exit Else: sub \$s0, \$s1, \$s2 Exit: *...

Assembler calculates addresses



Exit:

Compiling Loop Statements

• C code:

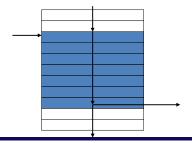
while (save[i]
$$==$$
 k) i $+=$ 1;

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

```
Loop: sll
           $t1, $s3, 2
      add
      addi $s3. $s3. 1
           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;
- Use in combination with beg, bne

```
slt $t0, $s1, $s2 # if ($s1 < $s2)
bne $t0, $zero, L # branch to L
```



Branch Instruction Design

- Why not blt, bge, etc?
- Hardware for <, ≥, ... slower than =, ≠
 - Combining with branch involves more work per instruction, requiring a slower clock
 - All instructions penalized!
- beg and bne are the common case
- This is a good design compromise

Signed vs. Unsigned

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

 - -slt \$t0, \$s0, \$s1 # signed
 - −1 < +1 ⇒ \$t0 = 1
 - 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 ial 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)
```

Leaf Procedure Example

• MIPS code:

```
leaf_example:
  addi $sp, $sp, -4
                             Save $s0 on stack
        $s0, 0($sp)
  SW
  add
        $t0, $a0, $a1
                             Procedure body
  add
        $t1, $a2, $a3
  sub
        $s0, $t0, $t1
                             Result
        $v0, $s0, $zero
  add
        $s0, 0($sp)
                             Restore $s0
  addi $sp, $sp, 4
                             Return
        $ra
```

```
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```

Non-Leaf Procedure Example

```
• C code:
```

- Result in \$v0

```
int fact (int n)
{
   if (n < 1) return f;
   else return n * fact(n - 1);
}
- Argument n in $a0</pre>
```

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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



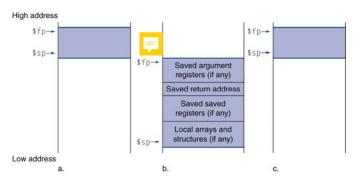


Non-Leaf Procedure Example

• MIPS code:

```
fact:
    addi $sp, $sp, -8
                          # adjust stack for 2 items
         $ra, 4($sp)
                          # save return address
         $a0, 0($sp)
                          # save argument
                          # test for n < 1
    slti $t0, $a0, 1
        $t0, $zero, L1
    addi $v0, $zero, 1
                          # if so, result is 1
    addi $sp, $sp, 8
                              pop 2 items from stack
                              and return
         $ra
L1: addi $a0, $a0, -1
                          # else decrement n
    ial
        fact
                          # recursive call
         $a0. 0($sp)
                          # restore original n
        $ra. 4($sp)
                              and return address
    addi $sp. $sp. 8
                          # pop 2 items from stack
        $v0, $a0, $v0
                          # multiply to get result
         $ra
                          # and return
```

Local Data on the Stack

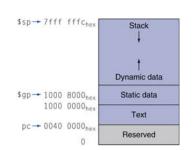


- Local data allocated by callee
 - e.g., C automatic variables
- Procedure frame (activation record)
 - Used by some compilers to manage stack storage



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



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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

lb rt, offset(rs) lh rt, offset(rs)

- Sign extend to 32 bits in rt

lbu rt, offset(rs) lhu rt,
 offset(rs)

Zero extend to 32 bits in rt

sb rt, offset(rs) sh rt, offset(rs)

Store just rightmost byte/halfword

String Copy Example

```
• C code (naïve):
    - Null-terminated string
void strcpy (char x[], char y[])
{ int i;
    i = 0;
    while ((x[i]=y[i])!='\0')
    i += 1;
}
- Addresses of x, y in $a0, $a1
- i in $s0
```



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



String Copy Example

MIPS code:

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





Branch Addressing

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

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

- 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)



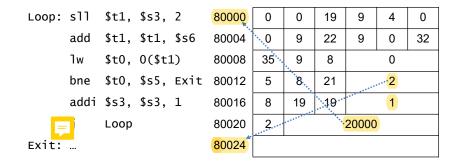
Branching Far Away

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

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Target Addressing Example

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

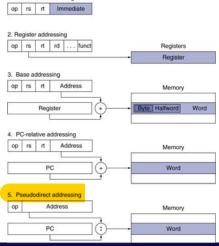






Addressing Mode Summary

Immediate addressing



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

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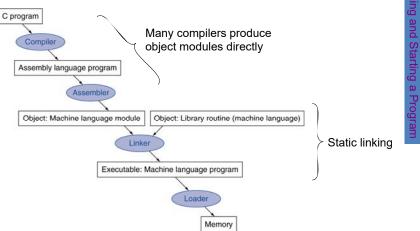
Synchronization in MIPS

- 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)

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



Translation and Startup



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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 → 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

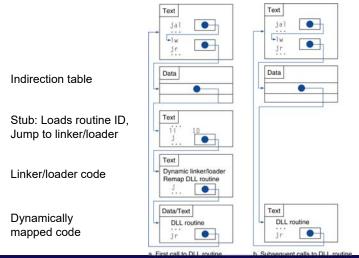
Dynamic Linking

- 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



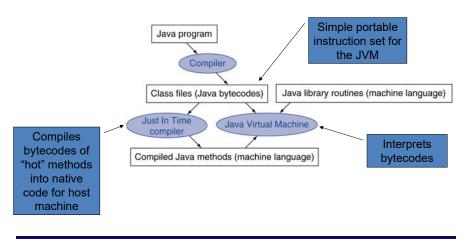


Lazy Linkage



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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

Sort Example to Put It All Together

The Procedure Swap

The Sort Procedure in C

```
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```

The Procedure Body

```
move $s2, $a0
                                 # save $a0 into $s2
        move $s3, $a1
                                 # save $a1 into $s3
                                 # i = 0
        move $s0, $zero
                                                                    Outer loop
for1tst: slt $t0, $s0, $s3
                                 # t0 = 0 if s0 \ge s3 (i \ge n)
         beg $t0, $zero, exit1 # go to exit1 if s0 \ge s3 (i \ge n)
        addi $s1, $s0, -1
                                 #i = i - 1
for2tst: slti $t0, $s1, 0
                                 # $t0 = 1 if $s1 < 0 (i < 0)
        bne t0, zero, exit2 # go to exit2 if s1 < 0 (i < 0)
             $t1, $s1, 2
                                 # $t1 = j * 4
                                                                    Inner loop
             $t2, $s2, $t1
                                 # $t2 = v + (i * 4)
             $t3, 0($t2)
                                # $t3 = v[j]
              $t4, 4($t2)
                                 # $t4 = v[i + 1]
                                 # $t0 = 0 \text{ if } $t4 \ge $t3
             $t0. $t4. $t3
        beg $t0, $zero, exit2 # go to exit2 if $t4 ≥ $t3
                                 # 1st param of swap is v (old $a0)
        move $a0. $s2
        move $a1, $s1
                                 # 2nd param of swap is j
         ial swap
                                 # call swap procedure
                                                                    & call
        addi $s1, $s1, -1
                                 # j -= 1
                                                                    Inner loop
              for2tst
                                 # jump to test of inner loop
        addi $s0, $s0, 1
                                 # i += 1
exit2:
                                                                    Outer loop
             for1tst
                                 # jump to test of outer loop
```

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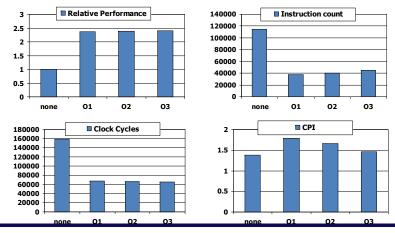
The Full Procedure

sort:	addi \$sp,\$sp, -20	# make room on stack for 5 register
	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)	<pre># restore \$s0 from stack</pre>
	lw \$s1, 4(\$sp)	<pre># restore \$s1 from stack</pre>
	lw \$s2, 8(\$sp)	<pre># restore \$s2 from stack</pre>
	lw \$s3,12(\$sp)	<pre># restore \$s3 from stack</pre>
	lw \$ra,16(\$sp)	<pre># restore \$ra from stack</pre>
	addi \$sp,\$sp, 20	# restore stack pointer
	ir \$ra	# return to calling routine

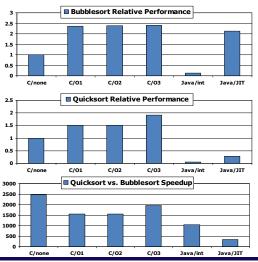
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Effect of Compiler Optimization

Compiled with gcc for Pentium 4 under Linux



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) {
  for (i = 0; i < size; i += 1)
                                            for (p = &array[0]; p < &array[size];</pre>
    array[i] = 0;
                                                 p = p + 1
       move $t0.$zero
                        # i = 0
                                                 move $t0.$a0
                                                                 \# p = \& arrav[0]
loop1: sll $t1,$t0,2
                                                 sll $t1,$a1,2
       add $t2.$a0.$t1
                                                 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
       slt $t3,$t0,$a1 # $t3 =
                                                 s1t $t3,$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 × 32-bit	31 × 32-bit
Input/output	Memory mapped	Memory mapped

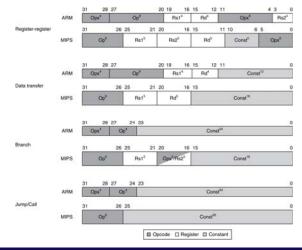




Compare and Branch in ARM

- 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

- 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



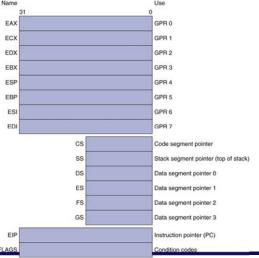
The Intel x86 ISA

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

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Basic x86 Registers



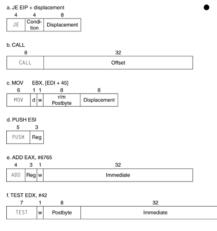
Source/dest operand	Second source operand	
Register	Register	
Register	Immediate	
Register	Memory	
Memory	Register	
Memory	Immediate	

- 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} + $2^{scale} \times R_{index}$ + displacement



x86 Instruction Encoding





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

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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

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

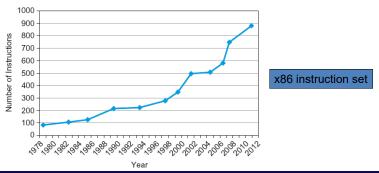
 But modern compilers are better at dealing with modern processors

 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%



