


# 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

§2.1 Introduction

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## The MIPS Instruction Set

- Used as the example throughout the book
- Stanford MIPS commercialized by MIPS Technologies ([www.mips.com](http://www.mips.com))
- Some 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

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## The ARM Instruction Set

- Most **popular** 32-bit instruction set in the world ([www.arm.com](http://www.arm.com))
- 45 Billion shipped up to 2013
- Large share of embedded core market
  - Applications include mobile phones, consumer electronics, network/storage equipment, cameras, printers, ...
- Typical of many modern RISC ISAs
  - See ARM Assembler instructions, their encoding and instruction cycle timings in appendixes B1, B2 and B3 (CD-ROM)

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§2.2 Operations of the Computer Hardware

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 (three operands)
- *Design Principle 1: Simplicity favors regularity*
  - Regularity makes implementation simpler
  - Simplicity enables higher performance at lower cost

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Arithmetic Example

- C code:

Polish notation: -+gh+ij

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

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§2.3 Operands of the Computer Hardware

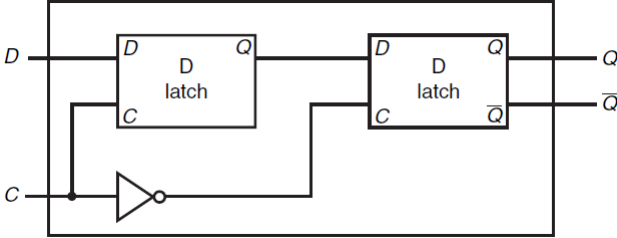
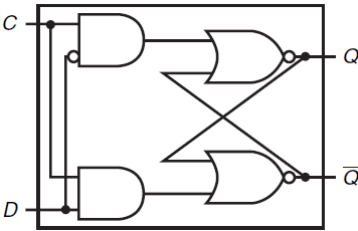
## Register Operands

- Arithmetic instructions use register operands
- MIPS has a  $32 \times 32$ -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: billions of locations

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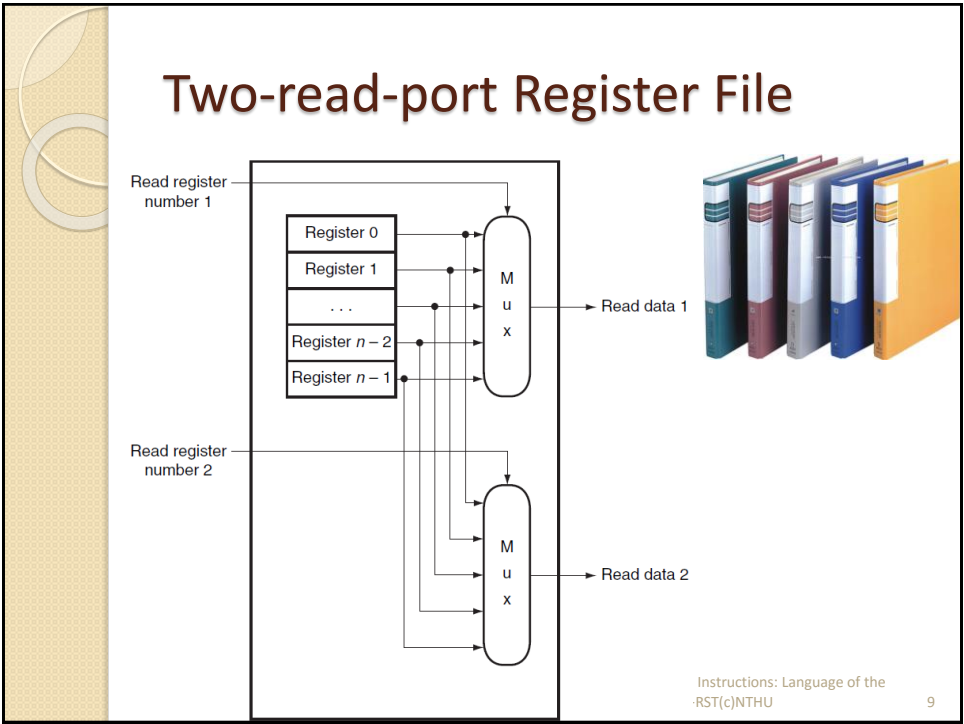
## D-Latch



Falling-edge trigger

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## 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`

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# Memory Operands

CPU

+  
-  
\*  
/

Register


Memory

- 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

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# Endianess

Big end



Little end

Gulliver's Travels

Register

0A0B0C0D

Memory

a: 0D

a+1: 0C

a+2: 0B

a+3: 0A

Little-endian

Memory

Register

0A0B0C0D

a: 0A

a+1: 0B

a+2: 0C

a+3: 0D

Big-endian

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## 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!

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## 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

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## 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

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## Unsigned Binary Integers

- Given an n-bit number


$$x = x_{n-1}2^{n-1} + x_{n-2}2^{n-2} + \cdots + x_12^1 + x_02^0$$

- Range: 0 to  $+2^n - 1$
- Example
  - 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 1011<sub>2</sub>  
= 0 + ... + 1×2<sup>3</sup> + 0×2<sup>2</sup> + 1×2<sup>1</sup> + 1×2<sup>0</sup>  
= 0 + ... + 8 + 0 + 2 + 1 = 11<sub>10</sub>
- Using 32 bits
  - 0 to +4,294,967,295

§2.4 Signed and Unsigned Numbers

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## 2's-Complement Signed Integers

- Given an n-bit number
$$x = -x_{n-1}2^{n-1} + x_{n-2}2^{n-2} + \cdots + x_12^1 + x_02^0$$
- Range:  $-2^{n-1}$  to  $+2^{n-1} - 1$
- Example
  - $1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1100_2$   
 $= -1 \times 2^{31} + 1 \times 2^{30} + \dots + 1 \times 2^2 + 0 \times 2^1 + 0 \times 2^0$   
 $= -2,147,483,648 + 2,147,483,644 = -4_{10}$
- Using 32 bits
  - $-2,147,483,648$  to  $+2,147,483,647$

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## 2's-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 2's-complement representation
- Some specific numbers
  - 0: 0000 0000 ... 0000
  - 1: 1111 1111 ... 1111
  - Most-negative: 1000 0000 ... 0000
  - Most-positive: 0111 1111 ... 1111

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## Signed Negation

- Complement and add 1
  - Complement means  $1 \rightarrow 0, 0 \rightarrow 1$

$$x + \bar{x} = 1111 \dots 111_2 = -1$$
$$x = -(\bar{x} + 1)$$

- Example: negate +2
  - $+2 = 0000\ 0000 \dots 0010_2$
  - $-2 = 1111\ 1111 \dots 1101_2 + 1$   
 $= 1111\ 1111 \dots 1110_2$

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## 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
  - $+2: 0000\ 0010 \Rightarrow 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0010$
  - $-2: 1111\ 1110 \Rightarrow 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1110$

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§2.5 Representing Instructions in the Computer

## 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

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Registers Conventions for MIPS

0	zero	constant 0	16	s0	callee saves
1	at	for assembler	17	s1	
2	v0	expression	18	s2	
3	v1	evaluation & function results	19	s3	
4	a0	arguments	20	s4	
5	a1		21	s5	
6	a2		22	s6	
7	a3		23	s7	
8	t0	temporary: caller saves	24	t8	temporary
9	t1		25	t9	
10	t2		26	k0	for OS kernel
11	t3		27	k1	
12	t4		28	gp	global pointer
13	t5		29	sp	stack pointer
14	t6		30	fp	frame pointer
15	t7		31	ra	return address

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## MIPS R-format Instructions

op	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)

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## R-format Example

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

add rd, rs, rt;  $R[rd]=R[rs]+R[rt]$


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

special	\$s1	\$s2	\$t0		add
0	17	18	8	0	32
000000	10001	10010	01000	00000	100000

$000000100011001001000000100000_2 = 02324020_{16}$

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## Hexadecimal to Binary

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


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

- Example: eca8 6420

E	C	A	8	6	4	2	0
1110	1100	1010	1000	0110	0100	0010	0000

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## Binary to Hexadecimal

0001	0011	0101	0111	1001	1011	1101	1111
1	3	5	7	9	B	D	F

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## MIPS I-format Instructions

op	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

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## Example

$A[300] = h + A[300]$   
(A: \$t1, h:\$s2)

		Op	Rs	Rt	Rd	Ad/s	funct
lw	\$t0, 1200(\$t1)	35	9	8		1200	
add	\$t0, \$s2, \$t0	0	18	8	8	0	32
sw	\$t0, 1200(\$t1)	43	9	8		1200	

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# Translate into MIPS instruction

op	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
0	16	17	18	0	34

sub \$s2, \$s0, \$s1

sub rd, rs, rt; R[rd]=R[rs]-R[rt]

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# Stored Program Computers

## The BIG Picture

The diagram illustrates the Stored Program Computer architecture. On the left, a box labeled 'Processor' is connected to a vertical stack of boxes labeled 'Memory'. The memory stack contains the following items from top to bottom: 'Accounting program (machine code)', 'Editor program (machine code)', 'C compiler (machine code)', 'Payroll data', 'Book text', and '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

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§2.6 Logical Operations

## Logical Operations

- Instructions for bitwise manipulation

Operation	C	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

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Shift Operations

op	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 (sll),  $R[rd] = R[rt] \ll \text{shamt}$ 
  - Shift left and fill with 0 bits
  - sll by  $i$  bits = multiplies by  $2^i$
- Shift right logical (srl)  $R[rd] = R[rt] \gg \text{shamt}$ 
  - Shift right and fill left with 0 bits
  - srl by  $i$  bits = divides by  $2^i$  (unsigned only)

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## Shift Instructions (1/3)

- Shift Instruction Syntax: `sll rd rt shamt`

sll

1

\$t2,

2

\$s0,

3

4

1) operation name

2) register that will receive value

3) first operand (register)

4) shift amount (constant)
- MIPS has three shift instructions:
  - `sll` (shift left logical): shifts left, fills empties with 0s
  - `srl` (shift right logical): shifts right, fills empties with 0s
  - `sra` (shift right arithmetic): shifts right, fills empties by sign extending

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## Shift Instructions (2/3)

- Move (shift) all the bits in a word to the left or right by a number of bits, filling the emptied bits with 0s.
- Example: shift **right** by 8 bits

0001 0010 0011 0100 0101 0110

0111 1000

0000 0000 0001 0010 0011 0100 0101 0110
- Example: shift **left** by 8 bits

0001 0010

0011 0100 0101 0110 0111 1000

0011 0100 0101 0110 0111 1000

0000 0000

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Shift Instructions (3/3)

- Example: shift right arithmetic by 8 bits

0001 0010 0011 0100 0101 0110 0111 1000

0000 0000

0001 0010 0011 0100 0101 0110

- Example: shift right arithmetic by 8 bits

1001 0010 0011 0100 0101 0110 0111 1000

1111 1111

1001 0010 0011 0100 0101 0110

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Uses for Shift Instructions (1/2)

- Suppose we want to get byte 1 (bit 15 to bit 8) of a word in \$t0. We can use:

sll \$t0, \$t0, 16

srl \$t0, \$t0, 24

3

2

1

0

0001 0010 0011 0100 0101 0110 0111 1000

0101 0110 0111 1000

0000 0000 0000 0000

0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000

0101 0110

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Uses for Shift Instructions (2/2)

- Shift for multiplication: in binary
  - Multiplying by 4 ( $100_2$ ) is same as shifting left by 2:
    - $11_2 \times 100_2 = 1100_2$
    - $1010_2 \times 100_2 = 101000_2$
  - Multiplying by  $2^n$  is same as shifting left by n
- Since shifting is so much faster than multiplication (you can imagine how complicated multiplication is), a good compiler usually notices when C code multiplies by a power of 2 and compiles it to a shift instruction:

`a *= 8;`

(in C)

would compile to:

`sll $s0, $s0, 3`

(in MIPS)

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Translate into Binary Code

`sll $t2, $s0, 4`

op	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
0	0	16	10	4	0

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## Exercise

- $f = g - A[B[4]];$
- $f:\$s0, g:\$s1, A:\$s2, B:\$s3$

```
lw  $s0, 16($s3)    # $s0 = B[4]
sll $s0, $s0, 2      # $s0 = B[4] * 4
add $s0, $s0, $s2    # $s0 = address of A[B[4]]
lw  $s0, 0($s0)      # $s0 = A[B[4]]
sub $s0, $s1, $s0    # $s0 = g - A[B[4]]
```

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## AND Operations

- Useful to mask bits in a word
  - Select some bits, clear others to 0

and \$t0, \$t1, \$t2

\$t2

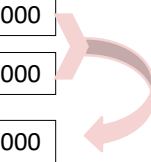
0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 1101 1100 0000

\$t1

0000 0000 0000 0000 0011 1100 0000 0000

\$t0

0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 1100 0000 0000



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## OR Operations

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

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

\$t2

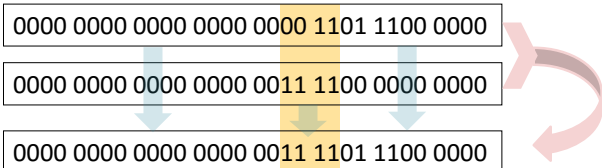
0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 1101 1100 0000

\$t1

0000 0000 0000 0000 0011 1100 0000 0000

\$t0

0000 0000 0000 0000 0011 1101 1100 0000



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## NOT Operations

- Useful to invert bits in a word
  - Change 0 to 1, and 1 to 0
- MIPS has NOR 3-operand instruction
  - $a \text{ NOR } b == \text{NOT} (a \text{ OR } b)$

nor \$t0, \$t1, \$zero

\$t1

0000 0000 0000 0000 0011 1100 0000 0000

\$t0

1111 1111 1111 1111 1100 0011 1111 1111

Register 0: always read as zero

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§2.7 Instructions for Making Decisions

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:  
if (i==j) f = g+h;  
else f = g-h;
  - f, g, h in \$s0, \$s1, \$s2
- Compiled MIPS code:  

Assembler calculates addresses

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

```
graph TD
    Cond{i == j?} -- "i = j" --> Then[f = g + h]
    Cond -- "i != j" --> Else[f = g - h]
    Then --> Exit[Exit:]
    Else --> Exit
```

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## 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      //*4  
      add $t1, $t1, $s6    //&save[i]  
      lw  $t0, 0($t1)     //save[i]  
      bne $t0, $s5, Exit  
      addi $s3, $s3, 1  
      j   Loop  
Exit: ...
```

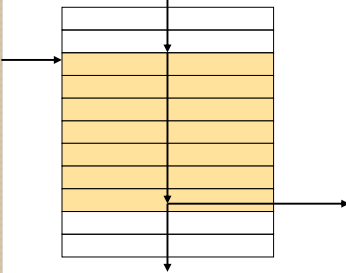
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## Basic Blocks

- A basic block is a sequence of instructions with
  - No embedded branches (except at end)
  - No branch targets (except at beginning)




The diagram shows a vertical stack of 10 instruction slots. The middle 6 slots are highlighted in yellow, representing a basic block. A vertical arrow on the left points downwards through all slots, indicating sequential execution. A horizontal arrow on the left points to the start of the yellow block, indicating a branch target. A horizontal arrow on the right points from the end of the yellow block, indicating a branch point.

- A compiler identifies basic blocks for optimization
- An advanced processor can accelerate execution of basic blocks

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## 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 `beq`, `bne`

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

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## 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!
- `beq` and `bne` are the common case
- This is a good design compromise

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## Branches: Instruction Format


- Use I-format:

op	rs	rt	immediate
----	----	----	-----------

  - opcode specifies beq or bne
  - rs and rt specify registers to compare
- What can *immediate* specify? **PC-relative addressing**
  - *Immediate* is only 16 bits, but PC is 32-bit  
=> *immediate* cannot specify entire address
  - Loops are generally small: < 50 instructions
    - Though we want to branch to anywhere in memory, a single branch only need to change PC by a small amount
  - How to use PC-relative addressing
    - 16-bit *immediate* as a signed two's complement integer to be *added* to the PC if branch taken
    - Now we can branch +/- 2<sup>15</sup> bytes from the PC ?

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## Signed vs. Unsigned

- Signed comparison: `slt, slti`
- Unsigned comparison: `sltu, sltui`
- Example
  - `$s0 = 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111`
  - `$s1 = 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0001`
  - `slt $t0, $s0, $s1 # signed`
    - $-1 < +1 \Rightarrow \$t0 = 1$
  - `sltu $t0, $s0, $s1 # unsigned`
    - $+4,294,967,295 > +1 \Rightarrow \$t0 = 0$

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§2.8 Supporting Procedures in Computer Hardware

## Procedure Calling

```
... sum(a,b);... /* a:$s0; b:$s1 */
}

int sum(int x, int y) {
    return x+y;
}
```

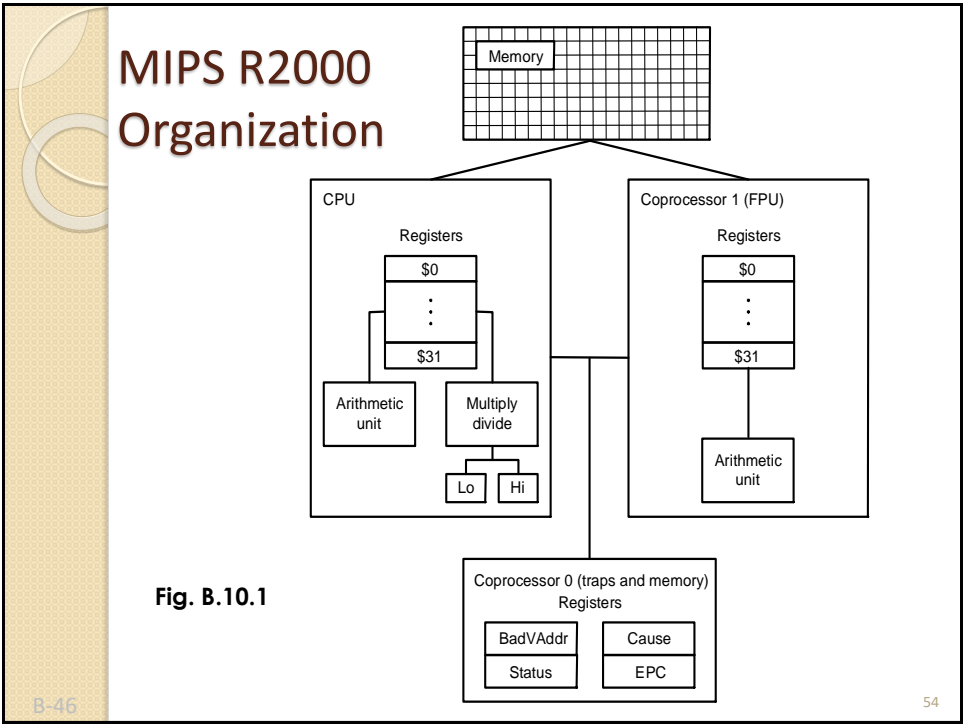
**Steps required**

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

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# 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

\$sp → 7fff ffff<sub>hex</sub>

\$gp → 1000 8000<sub>hex</sub>  
1000 0000<sub>hex</sub>

pc → 0040 0000<sub>hex</sub>  
0

Stack

↓

↑

Dynamic data

Static data

Text

Reserved

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# Register Usage

0	zero	constant 0	16	s0	Caller uses saved/ restored by callee
1	at	for assembler	17	s1	
2	v0	expression evaluation & function results	18	s2	
3	v1		19	s3	
4	a0	arguments	20	s4	
5	a1		21	s5	
6	a2		22	s6	
7	a3		23	s7	
8	t0	Callee uses saved/ restored by caller	24	t8	temporary
9	t1		25	t9	
10	t2		26	k0	for OS kernel
11	t3		27	k1	
12	t4		28	gp	global pointer
13	t5		29	sp	stack pointer
14	t6		30	fp	frame pointer
15	t7		31	ra	return address

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## Caller's Rights, Callee's Rights

- Calleees' rights:
  - Right to use temp registers freely
  - Right to assume arguments are passed correctly
- To ensure calleees's right, caller saves registers:

Return address	\$ra
Arguments	\$a0, \$a1, \$a2, \$a3
Return value	\$v0, \$v1
\$t Registers	\$t0 - \$t9
- Callers' rights:
  - Right to use S registers without fear of being overwritten by callee
  - Right to assume return value will be returned correctly
- To ensure caller's right, callee saves registers:

\$s Registers	\$s0 - \$s7
---------------	-------------

Rv	\$v
Arg	\$a
Temp	\$t
Save	\$s
Ra	\$ra
Stack	\$sp

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## Local Data on the Stack

The diagram illustrates the stack layout for three frames (a, b, and c) in memory, with High address at the top and Low address at the bottom. Frame a shows the frame pointer (\$fp) and stack pointer (\$sp). Frame b shows the saved registers (argument, return, saved) and local data. Frame c shows the frame pointer (\$fp) and stack pointer (\$sp).

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

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## 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

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## 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

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## Leaf Procedure Example

MIPS code:

leaf_example:	
addi \$sp, \$sp, -4	Save \$s0 on stack
sw \$s0, 0(\$sp)	
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	
jr \$ra	Return

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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

Rv	\$v
Arg	\$a
Temp	\$t
Save	\$s
Ra	\$ra
Stack	\$sp

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## Nested Procedure Example

- C code:


```
int fact (int n)
{
    if (n < 1) return 1;
    else return n * fact(n - 1);
}
```

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

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## Nested 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		
addi \$v0, \$zero, 1	# if so, result is 1	
addi \$sp, \$sp, 8	# pop 2 items from stack	
jr \$ra	# and return	
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	

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§2.9 Communicating with People

Character Data

- Byte-encoded character sets
  - ASCII: 128 characters ( $2^7$ )
    - 95 graphic, 33 control
  - Latin-1: 256 characters ( $2^8$ )
    - 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

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ASCII Table

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0	NUL	DLE	space	0	@	P	`	p
1	SOH	DC1 XON	!	1	A	Q	a	q
2	STX	DC2	"	2	B	R	b	r
3	ETX	DC3 XOFF	#	3	C	S	c	s
4	EOT	DC4	\$	4	D	T	d	t
5	ENQ	NAK	%	5	E	U	e	u
6	ACK	SYN	&	6	F	V	f	v
7	BEL	ETB	'	7	G	W	g	w
8	BS	CAN	(	8	H	X	h	x
9	HT	EM	)	9	I	Y	i	y
A	LF	SUB	*	:	J	Z	j	z
B	VT	ESC	+	;	K	[	k	{
C	FF	FS	,	<	L	\	l	
D	CR	GS	-	=	M	]	m	}
E	SO	RS	.	>	N	^	n	~
F	SI	US	/	?	O	_	o	del

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# Latin-2 Table

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	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	A0	B0	C0	D0	E0	F0
0	0	@	P		p	Ç	É	á		Ł	đ	Ó		Š
1	!	1	A	Q	a	q	ü	Ł	ı		Ł	Đ	ß	
2	"	2	B	R	b	r	é	ı	ó		Ł	Đ	Ō	
3	#	3	C	S	c	s	â	ô	ú		ı	È	Ń	
4	\$	4	D	T	d	t	ä	ö	À	ı	-	đ	ń	
5	%	5	E	U	e	u	û	Ł	ą	Á	ı	Ń	ň	Š
6	&	6	F	V	f	v	č	ř	Ž	Ā	Ā	İ	Š	ı
7	'	7	G	W	g	w	ç	š	ž	Ě	ā	İ	š	
8	(	8	H	X	h	x	ł	ś	Ę	Ś	Ł	Ě	Ř	ı
9	)	9	I	Y	i	y	ë	Ö	e	ł	ř	ı	Ů	
A	*	:	J	Z	j	z	Ō	Ů	-	ı	ı	ı	ı	
B	+	:	K	[	k	{	ő	ť	ž	ł	ř	ı	Ů	ı
C	,	<	L	\	l	ı	ı	ř	Č	ı	ı	ı	ı	ı
D	-	=	M	]	m	}	Ž	Ł	š	Ž	-	ı	ı	ı
E	.	>	N	^	n	~	Ā	×	«	ž	ı	ı	ı	ı
F	/	?	O	_	o	Ĉ	č	»	ı	ı	ı	ı	ı	ı

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# 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

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String Copy Example

- C code (naive):
  - 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

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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]
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
	jr \$ra	# and return

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§2.10 MIPS Addressing for 32-Bit immediates and Addresses

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

lui \$s0, 007C<sub>hex</sub>

0000 0000 0111 11010000 0000 0000 0000

ori \$s0, \$s0, 0900<sub>hex</sub>

0000 0000 0111 11010000 1001 0000 0000

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Branch Addressing

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

op	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

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## Branching Far Away

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

```
beq $s0, $s1, L1
```

↓

```
beq $s0, $s1, L2
...
L2:  j L1
...
```

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## Addressing Mode Summary

1. Immediate addressing

op	rs	rt	Immediate
----	----	----	-----------

addi \$s0,\$s1, 100

2. Register addressing

op	rs	rt	rd	...	funct
----	----	----	----	-----	-------

Registers

Register

add \$s0,\$s1, \$s3

3. Base addressing

op	rs	rt	Address
----	----	----	---------

Register

+

Memory

Byte | Halfword | Word

lw \$s0,4(\$s1)

4. PC-relative addressing

op	rs	rt	Address
----	----	----	---------

PC

+

Memory

Word

beq \$s0,\$s1, L1

5. Pseudodirect addressing

op	Address
----	---------

PC

:

Memory

Word

J L2

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§2.11 Parallelism and Instructions: Synchronization

# Synchronization

p1	p2
	X=0
X=1	
	Y=X

- 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

op	rs	rt	offset
----	----	----	--------

- Load linked: `ll rt, offset(rs)`
- Store conditional: `sc rt, offset(rs)`
  - Succeeds if location not changed since the `ll`
    - Returns 1 in `rt`
  - Fails if location is changed
    - Returns 0 in `rt`
- Example: atomic swap (to test/set lock variable)
  - swap `$s4` with `($s1)`

```
try: add $t0,$zero,$s4 ;copy exchange value
      ll $t1,0($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
```

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§2.12 Translating and Starting a Program

# Translation and Startup

```
graph TD; C[C program] --> C1((Compiler)); C1 --> A[Assembly language program]; A --> AS((Assembler)]; AS --> OM[Object: Machine language module]; L[Object: Library routine (machine language)] --> L1((Linker)]; OM --> L1; L1 --> EP[Executable: Machine language program]; EP --> LO((Loader)]; LO --> M[Memory];
```

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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

→ add \$t0, \$zero, \$t1

b<lt \$t0, \$t1, L

→ s<lt \$at, \$t0, \$t1

bne \$at, \$zero, L

- \$at (register 1): assembler temporary

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## 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

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## 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

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## 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

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## 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

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# Lazy Linkage

Indirection table

Stub: Loads routine ID, Jump to linker/loader

Linker/loader code

Dynamically mapped code

The diagram illustrates the lazy linkage process in memory. It shows sections for Text (code), Data, and dynamically mapped code (DLL routine). In scenario (a), the first call to a DLL routine involves loading a routine ID from a stub and jumping to linker/loader code, which then remaps the DLL routine. In scenario (b), subsequent calls jump directly to the already mapped DLL routine.

a. First call to DLL routine      b. Subsequent calls to DLL routine

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# Starting Java Applications

The flowchart shows the process of starting a Java application. A Java program is compiled by a Compiler into Class files (Java bytecodes). These bytecodes are then processed by either a Just In Time compiler or the Java Virtual Machine. The Just In Time compiler compiles 'hot' methods into native code for the host machine. The Java Virtual Machine interprets the bytecodes and also produces Compiled Java methods (machine language). A separate box indicates that Java library routines (machine language) are also used by the JVM. A note at the bottom refers to Section 2.15 on the CD for more details.

Java program

Compiler

Class files (Java bytecodes)

Java library routines (machine language)

Just In Time compiler

Java Virtual Machine

Compiled Java methods (machine language)

Compiles bytecodes of "hot" methods into native code for host machine

Interprets bytecodes

Simple portable instruction set for the JVM

Note: For more details, please refer to Sec. 2.15 on the CD

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§2.13 A C Sort Example to Put It All Together

### 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

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### The Procedure Swap

swap: sll \$t1, \$a1, 2	# \$t1 = k * 4
add \$t1, \$a0, \$t1	# \$t1 = v+(k*4)
	# (address of v[k])
lw \$t0, 0(\$t1)	# \$t0 (temp) = v[k]
lw \$t2, 4(\$t1)	# \$t2 = v[k+1]
sw \$t2, 0(\$t1)	# v[k] = \$t2 (v[k+1])
sw \$t0, 4(\$t1)	# v[k+1] = \$t0 (temp)
jr \$ra	# return to calling routine

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## 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, n in \$a1, i in \$s0, j in \$s1

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## The Procedure Body

move \$s2, \$a0	# save \$a0 into \$s2	Move
move \$s3, \$a1	# save \$a1 into \$s3	params
move \$s0, \$zero	# i = 0	
for1tst: slt \$t0, \$s0, \$s3	# \$t0 = 0 if \$s0 ≥ \$s3 (i ≥ n)	Outer loop
beq \$t0, \$zero, exit1	# go to exit1 if \$s0 ≥ \$s3 (i ≥ n)	
addi \$s1, \$s0, -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	
add \$t2, \$s2, \$t1	# \$t2 = v + (j * 4)	Inner loop
lw \$t3, 0(\$t2)	# \$t3 = v[j]	
lw \$t4, 4(\$t2)	# \$t4 = v[j + 1]	
slt \$t0, \$t4, \$t3	# \$t0 = 0 if \$t4 ≥ \$t3	
beq \$t0, \$zero, exit2	# go to exit2 if \$t4 ≥ \$t3	
move \$a0, \$s2	# 1st param of swap is v (old \$a0)	Pass
move \$a1, \$s1	# 2nd param of swap is j	params
jal swap	# call swap procedure	& call
addi \$s1, \$s1, -1	# j -= 1	
j for2tst	# jump to test of inner loop	Inner loop
exit2: addi \$s0, \$s0, 1	# i += 1	
j for1tst	# jump to test of outer loop	Outer loop
...		
exit1: ...		

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## 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
	jr \$ra	# return to calling routine

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## Effect of Compiler Optimization

Compiled with gcc for Pentium 4 under Linux

■ none ■ O1 ■ O2 ■ O3

Optimization	Performance
none	Low
O1	High
O2	High
O3	High

■ none ■ O1 ■ O2 ■ O3

Optimization	Clock cycles
none	High
O1	Low
O2	Low
O3	Low

■ none ■ O1 ■ O2 ■ O3

Optimization	Instruction count
none	High
O1	Low
O2	Low
O3	Low

■ none ■ O1 ■ O2 ■ O3

Optimization	CPI
none	High
O1	Low
O2	Low
O3	Low

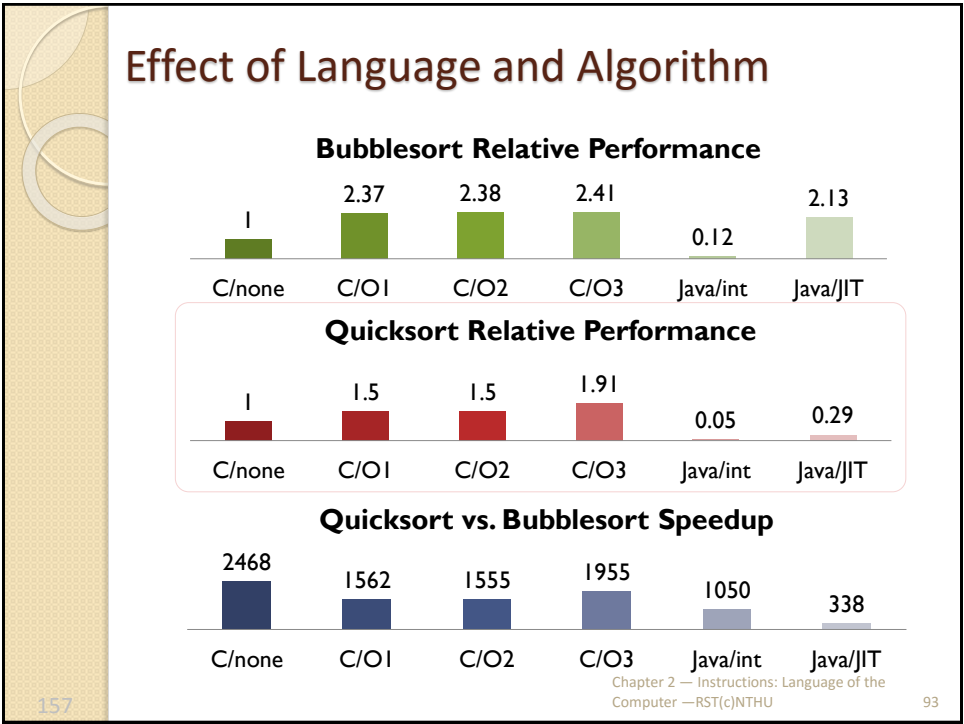
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### Lessons Learned

- 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**!

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§2.14 Arrays versus Pointers

Arrays vs. Pointers

- Array indexing involves
  - Multiplying index by element size
  - Adding to array base address

```
sll $t1, $a1, 2    # $t1 = k * 4
add $t1, $a0, $t1  # (address of v[k])
lw  $t0, 0($t1)    # $t0 (temp) = v[k]
```
- **Pointers** correspond directly to memory addresses
  - Can avoid indexing complexity

```
lw  $t0, 0($t1)
```

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Example: Clearing an Array

```
clear1(int array[], int size) {
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < size; i += 1)
        array[i] = 0;
}
```

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

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Example: Clearing an Array

<pre>clear1(int array[], int size) {     int i;     for (i = 0; i &lt; size; i += 1)         array[i] = 0; }</pre>	<pre>clear2(int *array, int size) {     int *p;     for (p = &amp;array[0]; p &lt; &amp;array[size];         p = p + 1)         *p = 0; }</pre>
<pre>        move \$t0,\$zero    # i = 0 loop1: sll \$t1,\$t0,2      # \$t1 = i * 4         add \$t2,\$a0,\$t1   # \$t2 =                         # &amp;array[i]         sw \$zero, 0(\$t2)  # array[i] = 0         addi \$t0,\$t0,1    # i = i + 1         slt \$t3,\$t0,\$a1   # \$t3 =                         # (i &lt; size)         bne \$t3,\$zero,loop1 # if (...)                         # goto loop1</pre>	<pre>        move \$t0,\$a0      # p = &amp; array[0]         sll \$t1,\$a1,2      # \$t1 = size * 4         add \$t2,\$a0,\$t1   # \$t2 =                         # &amp;array[size] loop2:  sw \$zero,0(\$t0)    # Memory[p] = 0         addi \$t0,\$t0,4     # p = p + 4         slt \$t3,\$t0,\$t2   # \$t3 =                         # (p&lt;&amp;array[size])         bne \$t3,\$zero,loop2 # if (...)                         # goto loop2</pre>

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Comparison of Array vs. Ptr

- Multiply “strength reduced” to shift
- Array version requires shift to be inside the 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

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§2.16 Real Stuff: ARM Instructions

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

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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 (not in registers)
- Each instruction can be conditional
  - Top 4 bits of instruction word: condition value
  - Can avoid branches over single instructions

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# Instruction Encoding

Register-register	ARM	31 28 27 20 19 16 15 12 11 4 3 0	Op <sup>4</sup> Op <sup>8</sup> Rs1 <sup>4</sup> Rd <sup>4</sup> Op <sup>8</sup> Rs2 <sup>4</sup>
	MIPS	31 26 25 21 20 16 15 11 10 6 5 0	Op <sup>6</sup> Rs1 <sup>5</sup> Rs2 <sup>5</sup> Rd <sup>5</sup> Const <sup>5</sup> Op <sup>6</sup>
Data transfer	ARM	31 28 27 20 19 16 15 12 11 0	Op <sup>4</sup> Op <sup>8</sup> Rs1 <sup>4</sup> Rd <sup>4</sup> Const <sup>12</sup>
	MIPS	31 26 25 21 20 16 15 0	Op <sup>6</sup> Rs1 <sup>5</sup> Rd <sup>5</sup> Const <sup>16</sup>
Branch	ARM	31 28 27 24 23 0	Op <sup>4</sup> Op <sup>4</sup> Const <sup>24</sup>
	MIPS	31 26 25 21 20 16 15 0	Op <sup>6</sup> Rs1 <sup>5</sup> Op <sup>5</sup> /Rs2 <sup>5</sup> Const <sup>16</sup>
Jump/Call	ARM	31 28 27 24 23 0	Op <sup>4</sup> Op <sup>4</sup> Const <sup>24</sup>
	MIPS	31 26 25 0	Op <sup>6</sup> Const <sup>26</sup>

Opcode


Register

Constant

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# Intel 4004 4-bit CPU



- 1971~1981
- the first complete CPU on one chip
- 46K~92K instructions per second
- Maximum clock speed was 740 kHz
- A single multiplexed 4-bit bus for transferring:
  - 12-bit addresses
  - 8-bit instructions
  - 4-bit data words
- 46 instructions (of which 41 were 8 bits wide and 5 were 16 bits wide)
- The register set has 16 registers of 4 bits each

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§2.17 Real Stuff: x86 Instructions

## 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

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## 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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## 1994 The infamous FDIV bug

- The correct value is
$$\frac{4195835}{3145727} = 1.333820449136241002$$
- However, the value returned by the flawed Pentium is incorrect at or beyond four digits:
$$\frac{4195835}{3145727} = 1.333739068902037589$$

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## 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 (Streaming SIMD Extensions)
  - 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

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## Basic x86 Registers

Name	31	0	Use
EAX			GPR 0
ECX			GPR 1
EDX			GPR 2
EBX			GPR 3
ESP			GPR 4
EBP			GPR 5
ESI			GPR 6
EDI			GPR 7
	CS		Code segment pointer
	SS		Stack segment pointer (top of stack)
	DS		Data segment pointer 0
	ES		Data segment pointer 1
	FS		Data segment pointer 2
	GS		Data segment pointer 3
EIP			Instruction pointer (PC)
EFLAGS			Condition codes

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## Basic x86 Addressing Modes

- Two operands per instruction

$x \ += \ y$

Source/dest operand	Second source operand
Register	Register
Register	Immediate
Register	Memory
Memory	Register
Memory	Immediate
- Memory addressing modes
  - Address in register
  - Address =  $R_{base} + \text{displacement}$
  - Address =  $R_{base} + 2^{\text{scale}} \times R_{index}$  (scale = 0, 1, 2, or 3)
  - Address =  $R_{base} + 2^{\text{scale}} \times R_{index} + \text{displacement}$

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## x86 Instruction Encoding

a. JE EIP + displacement 16 b

4	4	8
JE	Condi- tion	Displacement

b. CALL 40 b

8	32
CALL	Offset

c. MOV EBX, [EDI + 45] 24 b

6	1	1	8	8
MOV	d	w	r/m Postbyte	Displacement

d. PUSH ESI 8 b

5	3
PUSH	Reg

e. ADD EAX, #6765 40 b

4	3	1	32
ADD	Reg	w	Immediate

f. TEST EDX, #42 48 b

7	1	8	32
TEST	w	Postbyte	Immediate

- 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

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§2.18 Real Stuff: ARM v8 (64-bit) 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

§2.19 Fallacies and Pitfalls

## Fallacies

- ✖ Powerful instruction  $\Rightarrow$  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  $\Rightarrow$  more errors and less productivity

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## Fallacies

- ❖ Backward compatibility  $\Rightarrow$  instruction set doesn't change
  - But they do accrete more instructions

Year	Number of Instructions
1978	100
1980	110
1982	120
1984	130
1986	150
1988	200
1990	220
1992	230
1994	240
1996	260
1998	280
2000	350
2002	500
2004	510
2006	580
2008	880

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## 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

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§2.19 Concluding Remarks

Concluding Remarks 1/2

- 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

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Concluding Remarks 2/2

- 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%

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