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Charudatta Korde

x86 CPU Architecture Overview

The x86 CPU architecture is a widely used instruction set architecture (ISA) for computer processors. It was initially developed by Intel and has evolved over time to include advanced features and capabilities. Here's a breakdown of the key components:

Registers

Registers are small, fast storage locations within the CPU that hold data and addresses temporarily. In the x86 architecture, there are several types of registers:

• General Purpose Registers (GPRs):

- EAX, EBX, ECX, EDX (used for arithmetic, logic, and data movement)
- ESP (Stack Pointer, points to the top of the stack)
- EBP (Base Pointer, used for stack frame referencing)
- ESI (Source Index for string operations)
- EDI (Destination Index for string operations)

• Segment Registers:

- CS (Code Segment, points to the segment containing the current program)
- DS (Data Segment, points to the segment containing data)
- ES, FS, GS (Additional segments for various purposes)
- SS (Stack Segment, points to the segment containing the stack)

• Instruction Pointer:

 EIP (Extended Instruction Pointer, points to the next instruction to be executed)

• Flags Register:

- EFLAGS (Contains status flags like Zero Flag (ZF), Carry Flag (CF), Sign Flag (SF), etc.)

Memory

Memory in the x86 architecture is organized into segments and pages to manage and access data efficiently:

• Segmentation:

- Memory is divided into segments (code, data, stack, etc.)
- Each segment is addressed by a segment register and an offset

• Paging:

- Memory is divided into pages, typically 4KB in size
- Used to implement virtual memory
- Managed by the Memory Management Unit (MMU)

Instruction Set

The x86 instruction set includes a variety of instructions for arithmetic, data movement, control flow, and more. Some common instructions are:

- MOV (Move data)
- ADD, SUB (Arithmetic operations)
- CMP (Compare)
- JMP (Jump to another instruction)
- CALL, RET (Function call and return)
- PUSH, POP (Stack operations)

Summary

The x86 CPU architecture is a complex and versatile design that has been the foundation of many computer systems. Its registers and memory organization play a crucial role in its performance and capabilities, making it a powerful tool for both general computing and specialized applications.

RISC vs. CISC

Feature	RISC (Reduced Instruction Set Computing) CISC (Complex Instruction Computing)		
Instruction Set	Small and simple	Large and complex	
Instruction	Fixed	Variable	
Length Execution	Single-cycle execution	Multi-cycle execution	
Time Pipelining	Highly pipelined	Less pipelined	
Memory	Load/store architecture	Memory-to-memory	
Access Design Philosophy	Simplify instructions to increase performance	instructions Combine multiple operations in a single instruction	
Examples	ARM, MIPS	x86, VAX	

SIMD vs. Other Architectures

Feature	SIMD (Single Instruction, Multiple Data)	Other Architectures	
Data	High	Varies (generally lower)	
Parallelism			
Instruction	Limited	Varies (depends on the	
Parallelism		architecture)	
Usage	Multimedia, scientific computing	General-purpose computing	
Performance	High for specific tasks	Varies	
Examples	Intel AVX, ARM NEON	General CPU architectures	

Processor Types Comparison

Feature	Superscalar Processors	Vector Processors	Scalar Processors
Parallelism	Multiple instructions per cycle	Multiple data elements per instruction	Single instruction per cycle
Pipelining	Deeply pipelined	Specialized pipelines for vector operations	Simple or moderately pipelined
Usage	General-purpose high- performance CPUs	Scientific and engineering computations	General-purpose low to moderate performance
Instruction Execution	Out-of-order execution	SIMD execution	In-order execution
Examples	Intel Core i9, AMD Ryzen	Cray-1, NEC SX-ACE	Early Intel and AMD CPUs, ARM Cortex-A series

General Terms in x86 Architecture

- 1. **ISA** (Instruction Set Architecture): Defines the set of instructions that the CPU can execute. x86 is a type of ISA.
- 2. **Opcode**: The portion of a machine language instruction that specifies the operation to be performed.
- 3. **Microarchitecture**: The implementation of the ISA within a processor, including the design of its control and data paths, register set, and memory architecture.
- 4. Clock Cycle: The period of a CPU's clock signal. Instructions are executed in sync with these cycles.
- 5. **Pipeline**: A technique used to overlap the execution of multiple instructions by dividing them into several stages.

- 6. Cache: A small, fast memory located close to the CPU core that stores frequently accessed data to speed up processing.
- 7. MMU (Memory Management Unit): Hardware responsible for handling virtual memory and memory protection.
- 8. **Bus**: A communication system that transfers data between different components of the computer, such as the CPU, memory, and I/O devices.

Fetch-Decode-Execute Cycle

The Fetch-Decode-Execute cycle, also known as the instruction cycle, is the basic operational process of a computer's CPU. Here's how it works in the context of the x86 architecture:

- 1. **Fetch**: The CPU fetches the instruction from memory. The address of the next instruction is held in the Instruction Pointer (IP) register. The fetched instruction is then placed into the Instruction Register (IR).
- 2. **Decode**: The CPU decodes the fetched instruction to determine what operation needs to be performed. The decoding process interprets the opcode and any operands that are part of the instruction.
- 3. **Execute:** The CPU executes the decoded instruction. This may involve performing an arithmetic or logic operation, accessing memory, or updating the registers. The result of the execution is then stored back in a register or memory.

Example Breakdown

To illustrate, let's consider a simple x86 instruction: ADD EAX, EBX

- 1. **Fetch**: The ADD instruction is fetched from memory and placed in the Instruction Register.
- 2. **Decode**: The CPU decodes the instruction and identifies that it needs to add the contents of register EBX to register EAX.
- 3. Execute: The CPU performs the addition and stores the result in EAX.

This cycle repeats continuously while the computer is running, allowing the CPU to process instructions efficiently.

Sure thing! Let's dive deep into opcodes, addressing modes, and different types of instructions in the x86 architecture.

Opcodes

An **opcode** (operation code) is a portion of a machine language instruction that specifies the operation to be performed. Opcodes are a crucial part of the instruction set and determine what action the CPU should take. Here are some examples of common x86 opcodes:

• ADD: Adds two values.

- MOV: Moves data from one location to another.
- CMP: Compares two values.
- JMP: Jumps to a specified address.
- CALL: Calls a procedure.
- RET: Returns from a procedure.

Addressing Modes

Addressing modes define how the operand of an instruction is chosen. The x86 architecture supports several addressing modes, each allowing flexible and efficient ways to access data. Here are the main addressing modes:

1. Immediate Addressing Mode:

- The operand is a constant value.
- Example: MOV EAX, 10 (Moves the constant value 10 into the EAX register)

2. Register Addressing Mode:

- The operand is a register.
- Example: MOV EAX, EBX (Moves the value in the EBX register into the EAX register)

3. Direct Addressing Mode:

- The operand is a memory address.
- Example: MOV EAX, [1234H] (Moves the value at memory address 1234H into the EAX register)

4. Indirect Addressing Mode:

- The operand is located in memory, and the address of the operand is held in a register.
- Example: MOV EAX, [EBX] (Moves the value at the memory address pointed to by EBX into the EAX register)

5. Base-plus-Index Addressing Mode:

- Combines a base register and an index register to calculate the memory address.
- Example: MOV EAX, [EBX + ECX] (Moves the value at the address calculated by adding EBX and ECX into the EAX register)

6. Scaled Index with Displacement:

- Uses an index register multiplied by a scaling factor, plus a displacement.
- Example: MOV EAX, [EBX + ECX * 4 + 8] (Moves the value at the address calculated by adding EBX, ECX multiplied by 4, and 8 into the EAX register)

Types of Instructions

The x86 instruction set can be categorized into various types based on their functions. Here are some key categories:

1. Data Transfer Instructions:

- Used to move data between registers, memory, and I/O ports.
- Examples: MOV, PUSH, POP

2. Arithmetic Instructions:

- Perform arithmetic operations like addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division.
- Examples: ADD, SUB, MUL, DIV

3. Logic Instructions:

- Perform logical operations like AND, OR, XOR, and NOT.
- Examples: AND, OR, XOR, NOT

4. Control Transfer Instructions:

- Change the flow of execution in a program.
- Examples: JMP, CALL, RET, JZ (Jump if Zero), JNZ (Jump if Not Zero)

5. String Instructions:

- Perform operations on strings of data.
- Examples: MOVS (Move String), LODS (Load String), STOS (Store String)

6. Bit Manipulation Instructions:

- Perform operations on individual bits.
- Examples: SHL (Shift Left), SHR (Shift Right), ROL (Rotate Left), ROR (Rotate Right)

7. System Instructions:

- Used for system-level operations and control.
- Examples: HLT (Halt), NOP (No Operation), CLI (Clear Interrupt Flag), STI (Set Interrupt Flag)

Instruction Format

The format of an x86 instruction typically includes several components, each of which serves a specific purpose. Here are the main components of an x86 instruction:

- 1. **Opcode**: Specifies the operation to be performed (e.g., ADD, MOV).
- 2. **Operands**: Specifies the data to be operated on. Operands can be registers, immediate values, or memory addresses.
- 3. Addressing Mode: Determines how the operand is accessed (e.g., immediate, register, direct, indirect).
- 4. **Displacement**: An optional component used in some addressing modes to calculate the effective address.
- 5. **Prefix**: Optional bytes that modify the behavior of the instruction (e.g., segment override, repeat, and lock prefixes).

Here's an example of an x86 instruction with its components:

MOV EAX, [EBX+ECX*4]

- Opcode: MOV
- Operands: EAX, [EBX+ECX*4]
- Addressing Mode: Base-plus-index with scaling

• Displacement: None in this case

Detailed Explanation of Instructions

Let's delve into some of the key types of instructions in the x86 architecture:

Data Transfer Instructions

- MOV: Moves data from one location to another.
 - Example: MOV EAX, EBX (Moves the value in EBX to EAX)
- **PUSH**: Pushes data onto the stack.
 - Example: PUSH EAX (Pushes the value in EAX onto the stack)
- **POP**: Pops data from the stack.
 - Example: POP EAX (Pops the top value from the stack into EAX)

Arithmetic Instructions

- ADD: Adds two values.
 - Example: ADD EAX, 5 (Adds 5 to the value in EAX)
- SUB: Subtracts one value from another.
 - Example: SUB EAX, EBX (Subtracts the value in EBX from EAX)
- MUL: Multiplies two values.
 - Example: MUL EBX (Multiplies the value in EBX with EAX)
- **DIV**: Divides one value by another.
 - Example: DIV EBX (Divides the value in EAX by the value in EBX)

Logic Instructions

- AND: Performs a bitwise AND operation.
 - Example: AND EAX, EBX (Performs a bitwise AND between EAX and EBX)
- **OR**: Performs a bitwise OR operation.
 - Example: OR EAX, EBX (Performs a bitwise OR between EAX and EBX)
- **XOR**: Performs a bitwise XOR operation.
 - Example: XOR EAX, EBX (Performs a bitwise XOR between EAX and EBX)
- **NOT**: Performs a bitwise NOT operation.
 - Example: NOT EAX (Inverts all bits in EAX)

Control Transfer Instructions

- **JMP**: Jumps to a specified address.
 - Example: ${\tt JMP}$ ${\tt 0x1234}$ (Jumps to memory address ${\tt 0x1234})$
- CALL: Calls a procedure.
 - Example: CALL 0x1234 (Calls the procedure at memory address 0x1234)

- **RET**: Returns from a procedure.
 - Example: RET (Returns from the current procedure)
- **JZ**: Jumps if zero flag is set.
 - Example: JZ 0x1234 (Jumps to memory address 0x1234 if the zero flag is set)
- JNZ: Jumps if zero flag is not set.
 - Example: JNZ 0x1234 (Jumps to memory address 0x1234 if the zero flag is not set)

String Instructions

- MOVS: Moves string data from source to destination.
 - Example: MOVS (Moves data from the source string to the destination string)
- LODS: Loads string data into the accumulator.
 - Example: LODS (Loads data from the source string into the accumulator)
- STOS: Stores string data from the accumulator.
 - Example: STOS (Stores data from the accumulator into the destination string)

Bit Manipulation Instructions

- SHL: Shifts bits to the left.
 - Example: SHL EAX, 1 (Shifts the bits in EAX one position to the left)
- SHR: Shifts bits to the right.
 - Example: SHR EAX, 1 (Shifts the bits in EAX one position to the right)
- ROL: Rotates bits to the left.
 - Example: ROL EAX, 1 (Rotates the bits in EAX one position to the left)
- ROR: Rotates bits to the right.
 - Example: ROR EAX, 1 (Rotates the bits in EAX one position to the right)

Let's dive into the world of assemblers and assembly language!

Assembly Language

Assembly language is a low-level programming language that is closely related to machine code instructions for a specific CPU architecture. It uses mnemonic codes and labels to represent machine-level instructions, making it easier for humans to read and write.

Assembly language provides direct control over the hardware, allowing programmers to write highly optimized code. However, it's more complex and less portable than high-level programming languages.

Assembler

An assembler is a program that translates assembly language code into machine code (binary) that the CPU can execute. The assembler reads the assembly language instructions and converts them into the corresponding machine language instructions.

Example of Assembly Language Code

Here's a simple example of an assembly language program for the x86 architecture. This program adds two numbers and stores the result in a register:

```
section .data
   num1 db 10
                   ; Declare a byte variable num1 with value 10
   num2 db 20
                   ; Declare a byte variable num2 with value 20
section .text
   global _start
_start:
   mov al, [num1]; Move the value of num1 into register AL
    add al, [num2]; Add the value of num2 to the value in AL
   mov [result], al; Move the result into the memory location result
    ; Exit the program
   mov eax, 1
                  ; System call number (sys_exit)
   xor ebx, ebx
                   ; Exit code 0
    int 0x80
                   ; Call kernel
```

Explanation of the Code

- 1. Data Section (section .data): This section defines and initializes data variables.
 - num1 db 10: Declares a byte variable named num1 with a value of 10.
 - num2 db 20: Declares a byte variable named num2 with a value of 20.
- 2. **Text Section (section .text)**: This section contains the code (instructions) to be executed.
 - global _start: Defines the entry point of the program.
 - _start: Label indicating the start of the program.
- 3. Instructions:
 - mov al, [num1]: Moves the value of num1 into the AL register.
 - add al, [num2]: Adds the value of num2 to the value in AL.
 - mov [result], al: Moves the result (sum) into the memory location result.
- 4. Exit the Program:
 - mov eax, 1: Sets up the system call number for sys_exit.
 - xor ebx, ebx: Sets the exit code to 0.

• int 0x80: Calls the kernel to exit the program.

Using an Assembler

To convert the above assembly code into machine code, you can use an assembler like NASM (Netwide Assembler). The following command assembles the code and generates an executable binary:

```
nasm -f elf32 program.asm -o program.o
ld -m elf_i386 program.o -o program
./program
```

This process translates the human-readable assembly language code into the binary code that the CPU can execute.

- Assembly Language: A low-level programming language with mnemonic codes representing machine-level instructions.
- Assembler: A program that translates assembly language code into machine code.
- Example Code: Demonstrates adding two numbers and storing the result using x86 assembly language.