#### **Chapter 2**

#### **Instructions: Language of the Computer**

# **Instruction Set**

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

# The MIPS Instruction Set

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

# **Arithmetic Operations**

- Add and subtract, three operands
  - Two sources and one destination
  - add a, b, c # a gets b + c
- All arithmetic operations have this form
- Design Principle 1: Simplicity favours regularity
  - Regularity makes implementation simpler
  - Simplicity enables higher performance at lower cost

#### **Arithmetic Example**

C code:

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

Compiled MIPS code:

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

## **Register Operands**

- Arithmetic instructions use register operands
- MIPS has a 32 × 32-bit register file
  - Use for frequently accessed data
  - Numbered 0 to 31
  - 32-bit data called a "word"
- Assembler names
  - \$t0, \$t1, ..., \$t9 for temporary values
  - \$s0, \$s1, ..., \$s7 for saved variables
- Design Principle 2: Smaller is faster
  - c.f. main memory: millions of locations

# **Register Operand Example**

C code:

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

■ f, ..., j in \$s0, ..., \$s4

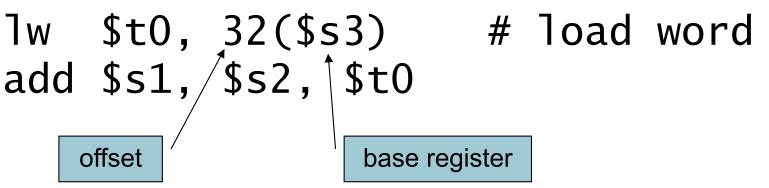
Compiled MIPS code:

# **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
  - Most-significant byte at least address of a word
  - *c.f.* Little Endian: least-significant byte at least address

# **Memory Operand Example 1**

- C code:
  - g = h + A[8];
    - g in \$s1, h in \$s2, base address of A in \$s3
- Compiled MIPS code:
  - Index 8 requires offset of 32
    - 4 bytes per word



# **Memory Operand Example 2**

C code:

A[12] = h + A[8];

- h in \$s2, base address of A in \$s3
- Compiled MIPS code:
  - Index 8 requires offset of 32
  - lw \$t0, 32(\$s3) # load word
  - add \$t0, \$s2, \$t0 sw \$t0, 48(\$s3) # store word

# **Registers vs. Memory**

- Registers are faster to access than memory
- Operating on memory data requires loads and stores
  - More instructions to be executed
- Compiler must use registers for variables as much as possible
  - Only spill to memory for less frequently used variables
  - Register optimization is important!

## **Immediate Operands**

- Constant data specified in an instruction addi \$s3, \$s3, 4
- No subtract immediate instruction
  - Just use a negative constant addi \$s2, \$s1, -1
- Design Principle 3: Make the common case fast
  - Small constants are common
  - Immediate operand avoids a load instruction

## The Constant Zero

- MIPS register 0 (\$zero) is the constant 0
  - Cannot be overwritten
- Useful for common operations
  - E.g., move between registers add \$t2, \$s1, \$zero

# **Unsigned Binary Integers**

Given an n-bit number

$$x = x_{n-1}^{} 2^{n-1} + x_{n-2}^{} 2^{n-2} + \dots + x_1^{} 2^1 + x_0^{} 2^0$$

- Range: 0 to +2<sup>n</sup> 1
- Example
  - 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 1011<sub>2</sub> =  $0 + ... + 1 \times 2^3 + 0 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0$ 
    - $= 0 + ... + 8 + 0 + 2 + 1 = 11_{10}$

#### Using 32 bits

• 0 to +4,294,967,295

#### **2s-Complement Signed Integers**

Given an n-bit number

$$x = -x_{n-1}^{-1}2^{n-1} + x_{n-2}^{-2}2^{n-2} + \dots + x_1^{-2}2^{1} + x_0^{-2}2^{0}$$

Range:  $-2^{n-1}$  to  $+2^{n-1} - 1$ 

#### Example

#### Using 32 bits

■ -2,147,483,648 to +2,147,483,647

#### **2s-Complement Signed Integers**

- Bit 31 is sign bit
  - 1 for negative numbers
  - 0 for non-negative numbers
- –(–2<sup>n 1</sup>) can't be represented
- Non-negative numbers have the same unsigned and 2s-complement representation
- Some specific numbers
  - 0: 0000 0000 ... 0000
  - −1: 1111 1111 ... 1111
  - Most-negative: 1000 0000 ... 0000
  - Most-positive: 0111 1111 ... 1111

# **Signed Negation**

Complement and add 1

• Complement means  $1 \rightarrow 0, 0 \rightarrow 1$ 

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

Example: negate +2
 +2 = 0000 0000 ... 0010<sub>2</sub>
 -2 = 1111 1111 ... 1101<sub>2</sub> + 1
 = 1111 1111 ... 1110<sub>2</sub>

# Sign Extension

- Representing a number using more bits
  - Preserve the numeric value
- In MIPS instruction set
  - addi: extend immediate value
  - Ib, Ih: extend loaded byte/halfword
  - beq, bne: extend the displacement
- Replicate the sign bit to the left
  - c.f. unsigned values: extend with 0s
- Examples: 8-bit to 16-bit
  - +2: 0000 0010 => 0000 0000 0000 0010
  - -2: 1111 1110 => 1111 1111 1111 1110

# **Representing Instructions**

- Instructions are encoded in binary
  - Called machine code
- MIPS instructions
  - Encoded as 32-bit instruction words
  - Small number of formats encoding operation code (opcode), register numbers, ...
  - Regularity!
- Register numbers
  - \$t0 \$t7 are reg's 8 15
  - \$t8 \$t9 are reg's 24 25
  - \$s0 \$s7 are reg's 16 23

# **MIPS R-format Instructions**

	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	\$tO	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

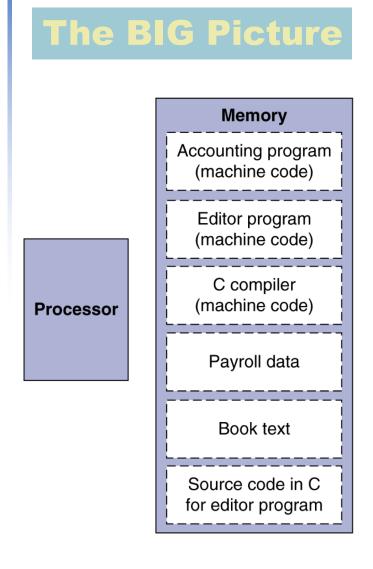
Example: eca8 6420
1110 1100 1010 1000 0110 0100 0010 0000

# **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<sup>15</sup> to +2<sup>15</sup> 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**



- 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	<<	<<	s]]
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

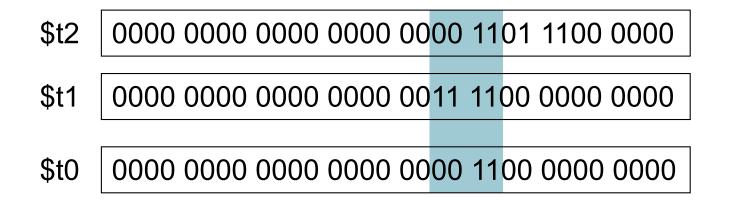
- shamt: how many positions to shift
- Shift left logical
  - Shift left and fill with 0 bits
  - s11 by *i* bits multiplies by 2<sup>i</sup>
- Shift right logical
  - Shift right and fill with 0 bits
  - srl by *i* bits divides by 2<sup>*i*</sup> (unsigned only)

## **AND Operations**

Useful to mask bits in a word

Select some bits, clear others to 0

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

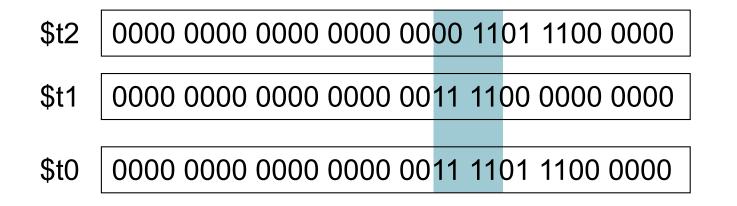


# **OR Operations**

Useful to include bits in a word

Set some bits to 1, leave others unchanged

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



# **NOT Operations**

Useful to invert bits in a word

- Change 0 to 1, and 1 to 0
- MIPS has NOR 3-operand instruction
  - a NOR b == NOT ( a OR b )
  - nor \$t0, \$t1, \$zero ←

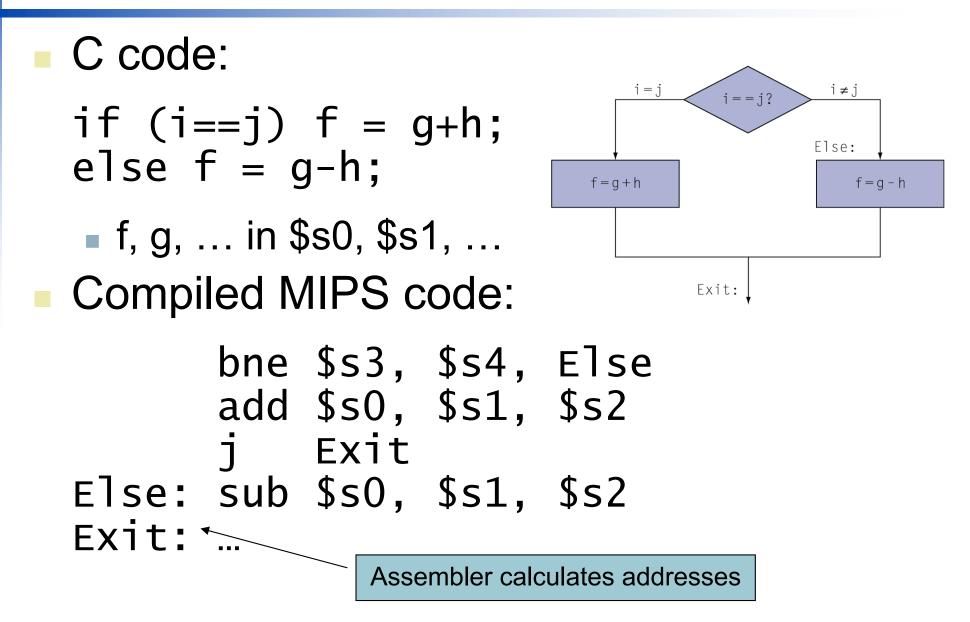
Register 0: always read as zero

- \$t1 0000 0000 0000 0011 1100 0000 0000
- \$t0 | 1111 1111 1111 1100 0011 1111 1111

# **Conditional Operations**

- Branch to a labeled instruction if a condition is true
  - Otherwise, continue sequentially
- beq rs, rt, L1
  - if (rs == rt) branch to instruction labeled L1;
- bne rs, rt, L1
  - if (rs != rt) branch to instruction labeled L1;
- ∎j L1
  - unconditional jump to instruction labeled L1

# **Compiling If Statements**



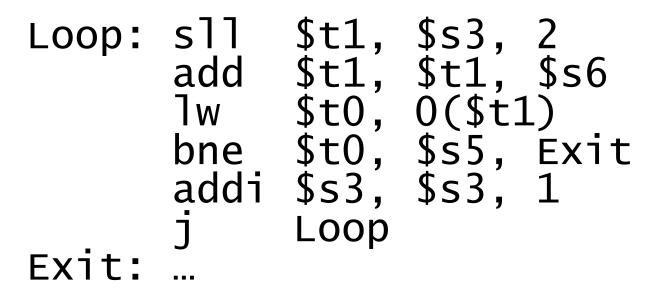
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# **Compiling Loop Statements**

C code:

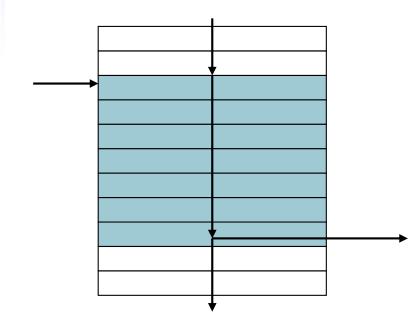
while (save[i] == k) i += 1;

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



## **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;</pre>
- slti rt, rs, constant
  - if (rs < constant) rt = 1; else rt = 0;</p>
- Use in combination with beq, bne
  - slt \$t0, \$s1, \$s2 # if (\$s1 < \$s2) bne \$t0, \$zero, L # branch to L

# **Branch Instruction Design**

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

# Signed vs. Unsigned

- Signed comparison: slt, slti
- Unsigned comparison: sltu, sltui
- Example
  - \$s0 = 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111

  - slt \$t0, \$s0, \$s1 # signed
    \_\_1 < +1 → \$t0 = 1</pre>
  - sltu \$t0, \$s0, \$s1 # unsigned

- +4,294,967,295 > +1 → \$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 jal ProcedureLabel
  - Address of following instruction put in \$ra
  - Jumps to target address
- Procedure return: jump register
  - jr \$ra
    - Copies \$ra to program counter
    - Can also be used for computed jumps
      - e.g., for case/switch statements

#### Leaf Procedure Example

#### C code:

int leaf\_example (int g, h, i, j)
{ int f;
 f = (g + h) - (i + j);
 return f;
}

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

#### Leaf Procedure Example

#### MIPS code:

<pre>leaf_example:</pre>					
addi	\$sp,	\$sp,	-4		
SW	\$s0,	0(\$sj	o)		
add	\$t0,	· · · · ·	\$a1		
add	\$t1,	\$a2,			
sub	\$s0,	\$t0,			
add	\$v0,	\$s0,			
l lw	\$s0,	0(\$s	o)		
addi	\$sp,	\$sp,	4		
jr	\$ra				

Save \$s0 on stack

Procedure body

Result

Restore \$s0

Return

### **Non-Leaf Procedures**

- Procedures that call other procedures
- For nested call, caller needs to save on the stack:
  - Its return address
  - Any arguments and temporaries needed after the call
- Restore from the stack after the call

#### **Non-Leaf Procedure Example**

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

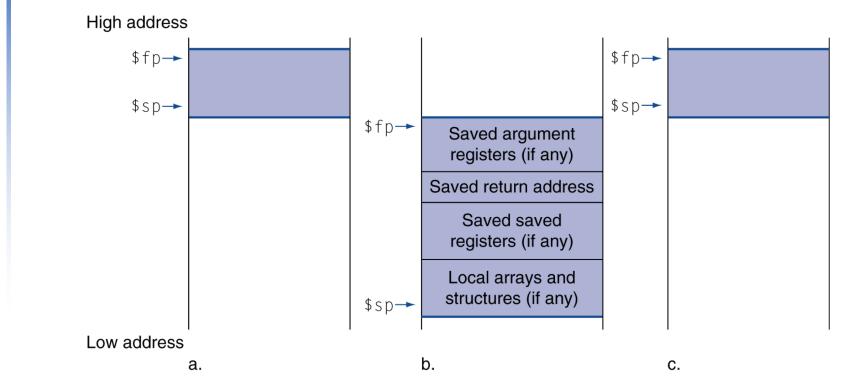
- Argument n in \$a0
- Result in \$v0

### **Non-Leaf Procedure Example**

#### MIPS code:

fact	t:			
	addi	\$sp,	\$sp, -8	<pre># adjust stack for 2 items</pre>
	SW	\$ra,	4(\$sp)	<pre># save return address</pre>
	SW	\$a0,	0(\$sp)	# save argument
	slti	\$t0,	\$a0, 1	# test for n < 1
	beq	\$t0,	\$zero, L1	
	addi	\$v0,	\$zero, 1	<pre># if so, result is 1</pre>
	addi	\$sp,	\$sp, 8	<pre># pop 2 items from stack</pre>
	jr	\$ra		<pre># and return</pre>
L1:	addi	\$a0,	\$a0, -1	<pre># else decrement n</pre>
	jal	fact		<pre># recursive call</pre>
	٦w	\$a0,	0(\$sp)	<pre># restore original n</pre>
	٦w	\$ra,	4(\$sp)	<pre># and return address</pre>
	addi	\$sp,	\$sp, 8	<pre># pop 2 items from stack</pre>
	mul	\$v0,	\$a0, \$v0	<pre># multiply to get result</pre>
	jr	\$ra		# and return

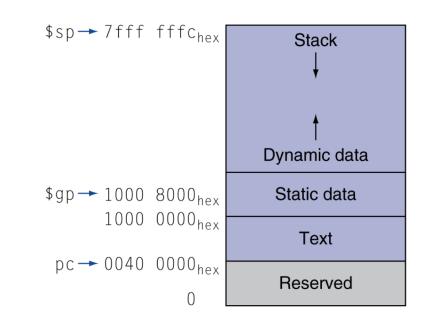
### Local Data on the Stack



- 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



#### **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

# String Copy Example

#### MIPS code:

stro	cpy:				
	addi	-	\$sp, −4	#	adjust stack for 1 item
	SW		0(\$sp)		save \$s0
	add	\$s0,	\$zero, \$zero	#	i = 0
L1:	add	\$t1,	\$sO, \$a1	#	addr of y[i] in \$t1
	lbu	\$t2,	0(\$t1)	#	$t_{2} = y[i]$
	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:	٦w	\$s0,	0(\$sp)	#	restore saved \$s0
	addi	\$sp,	\$sp, 4	#	pop 1 item from stack
	jr	\$ra		#	and return

#### **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, 61

0000 0000 0111 1101 0000 0000 0000 0000

ori \$s0, \$s0, 2304 0000 0000 0111 1101 0000 1001 0000 0000

# **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

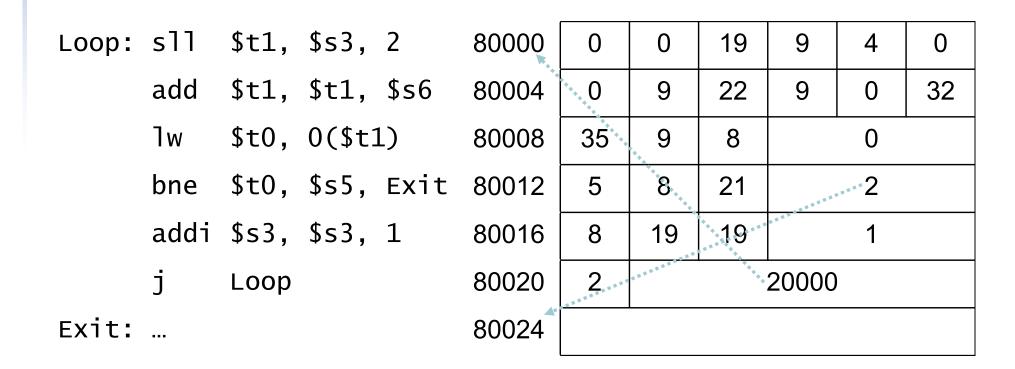
Encode full address in instruction

ор	address
6 bits	26 bits

- (Pseudo)Direct jump addressing
  - Target address = PC<sub>31...28</sub> : (address × 4)

# **Target Addressing Example**

Loop code from earlier example
 Assume Loop at location 80000



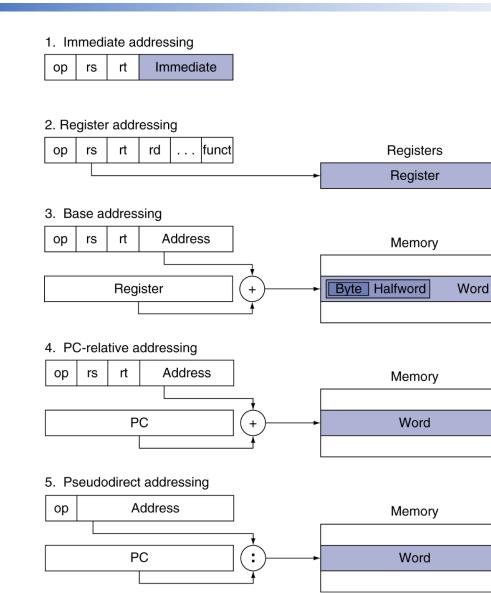
### **Branching Far Away**

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

```
beq $s0,$s1, L1

↓
bne $s0,$s1, L2
j L1
L2: ...
```

### **Addressing Mode Summary**



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# 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

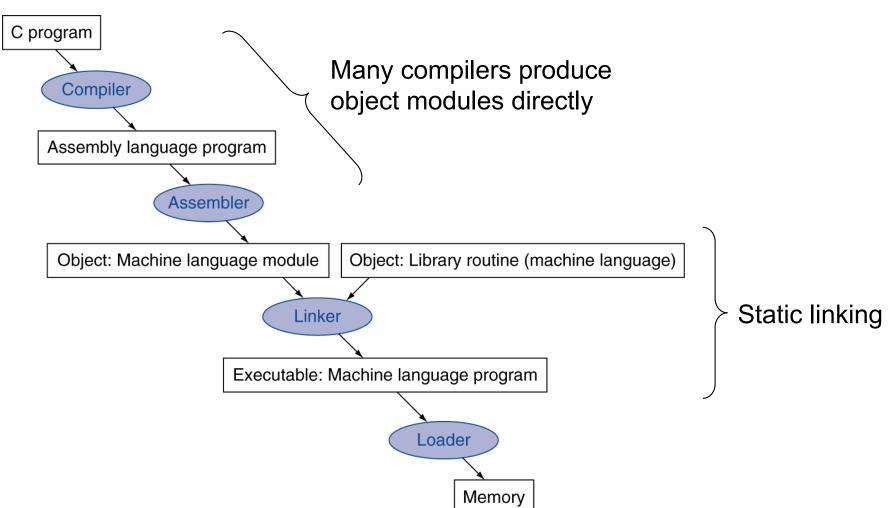
# Synchronization in MIPS

- 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
  - beq \$t0,\$zero,try ;branch store fails
  - add \$s4,\$zero,\$t1 ;put load value in \$s4

#### **Translation and Startup**



#### **Assembler Pseudoinstructions**

- Most assembler instructions represent machine instructions one-to-one
- Pseudoinstructions: figments of the assembler's imagination

move \$t0, \$t1  $\rightarrow$  add \$t0, \$zero, \$t1 blt \$t0, \$t1, L  $\rightarrow$  slt \$at, \$t0, \$t1 bne \$at, \$zero, L

\$at (register 1): assembler temporary

# **Producing an Object Module**

- Assembler (or compiler) translates program into machine instructions
- Provides information for building a complete program from the pieces
  - Header: described contents of object module
  - Text segment: translated instructions
  - Static data segment: data allocated for the life of the program
  - Relocation info: for contents that depend on absolute location of loaded program
  - Symbol table: global definitions and external refs
  - Debug info: for associating with source code

# **Linking Object Modules**

Produces an executable image

- 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
  - Copy text and initialized data into memory
    Or set page table entries so they can be faulted in
  - 4. Set up arguments on stack
  - 5. Initialize registers (including \$sp, \$fp, \$gp)
  - 6. Jump to startup routine
    - Copies arguments to \$a0, ... and calls main
    - When main returns, do exit syscall

# **Dynamic Linking**

- Only link/load library procedure when it is called
  - Requires procedure code to be relocatable
  - Avoids image bloat caused by static linking of all (transitively) referenced libraries
  - Automatically picks up new library versions

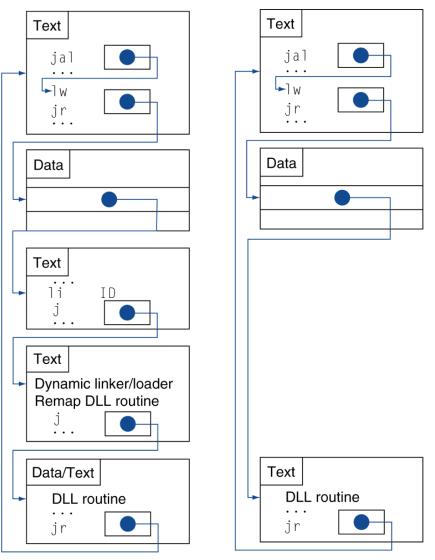
# Lazy Linkage

Indirection table

Stub: Loads routine ID, Jump to linker/loader

Linker/loader code

Dynamically mapped code

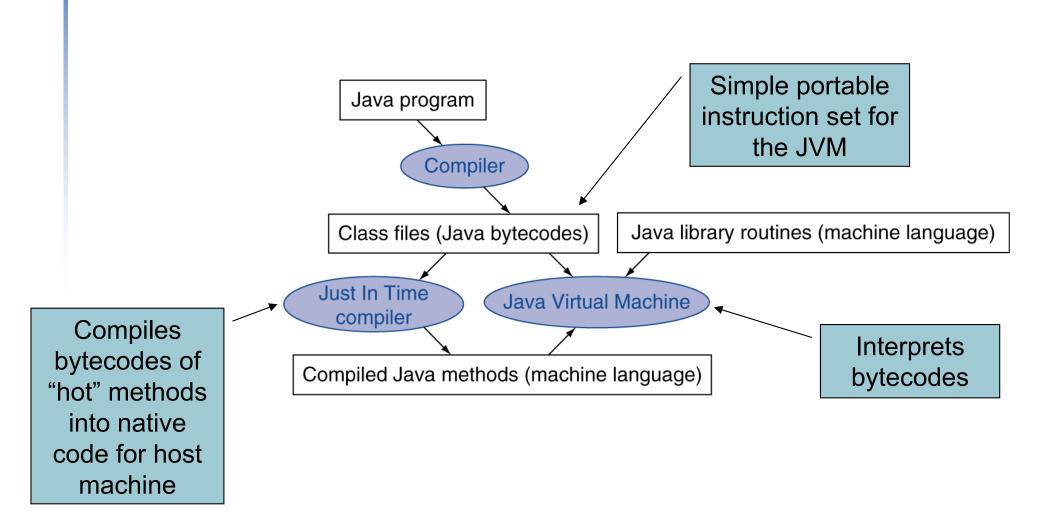


a. First call to DLL routine

b. Subsequent calls to DLL routine

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### **Starting Java Applications**



#### **C Sort Example**

- Illustrates use of assembly instructions for a C bubble sort function
- Swap procedure (leaf) void swap(int v[], int k) int temp; temp = v[k]; v[k] = v[k+1];v[k+1] = temp;v in \$a0, k in \$a1, temp in \$t0

#### The Procedure Swap

swap:	sll \$t1, \$a1, 2	# :	t1 = k * 4
	add \$t1, \$a0, \$t1	# 3	t1 = v+(k*4)
		#	(address of v[k])
	lw \$t0, 0(\$t1)	# 3	t0 (temp) = v[k]
	lw \$t2, 4(\$t1)	# 3	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

#### The Sort Procedure in C

```
Non-leaf (calls swap)
  void sort (int v[], int n)
  {
    int i, j;
    for (i = 0; i < n; i += 1) {
       for (j = i - 1;
            j >= 0 \& v[j] > v[j + 1];
            i -= 1) {
         swap(v,j);
       }
    }
  }
v in $a0, k in $a1, i in $s0, j in $s1
```

#### **The Procedure Body**

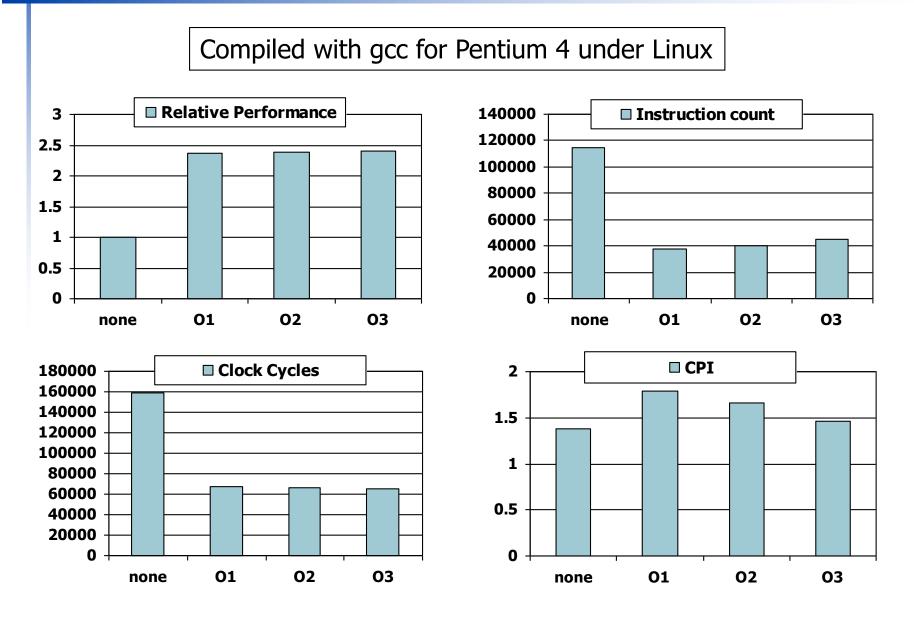
	move	\$s2,	\$a0	#	save \$a0 into \$s2	Move
	move	\$s3,	\$a1	#	save \$a1 into \$s3	params
	move	\$s0,	\$zero	#	i = 0	
for1tst:	slt	\$t0,	\$s0, \$s3	#	$t0 = 0 \text{ if } s0 \ge s3 (i \ge n)$	Outer loop
	beq	\$t0,	\$zero, exit1	#	go to exit1 if $s0 \ge s3$ (i $\ge$ n)	
	addi	\$s1,	\$s0, −1	#	j = i - 1	
for2tst:	slti	\$t0,	\$s1, 0	#	t0 = 1  if  s1 < 0 (j < 0)	
	bne	\$t0,	\$zero, exit2	#	go to exit2 if \$s1 < 0 (j < 0)	
	s11	\$t1,	\$s1, 2	#	\$t1 = j * 4	Inner loop
	add	\$t2,	\$s2, \$t1	#	$t^2 = v + (j * 4)$	
	٦w	\$t3,	0(\$t2)	#	t3 = v[j]	
	٦w	\$t4,	4(\$t2)	#	t4 = v[j + 1]	
	slt	\$t0,	\$t4, \$t3	#	$t0 = 0 \text{ if } t4 \ge t3$	
	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	for21	st	#	jump to test of inner loop	Inner loop
exit2:	addi	\$s0,	\$s0, 1	#	i += 1	Outorloor
	j	for1	st	#	jump to test of outer loop	Outer loop

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#### **The Full Procedure**

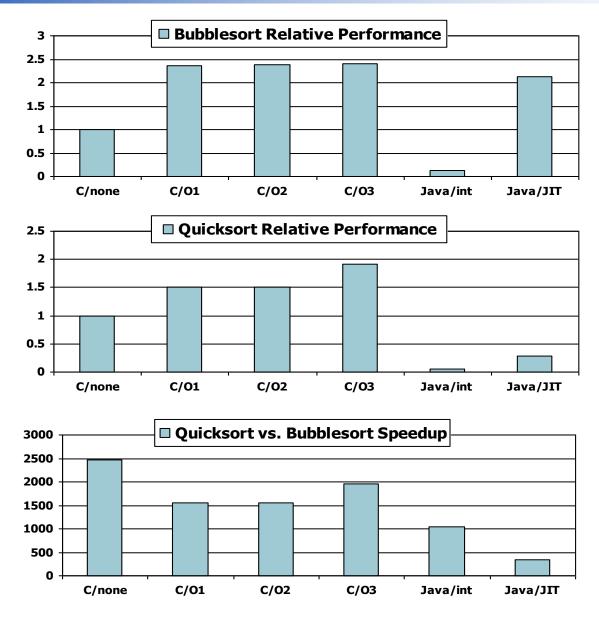
I			
	sort:	addi \$sp,\$sp, -20	<pre># make room on stack for 5 registers</pre>
		sw \$ra, 16(\$sp)	# save \$ra on stack
		sw \$s3,12(\$sp)	# save \$s3 on stack
		sw \$s2, 8(\$sp)	# save \$s2 on stack
		sw \$s1, 4(\$sp)	# save \$s1 on stack
		sw \$s0, 0(\$sp)	# save \$s0 on stack
			# procedure body
		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)	# restore \$ra from stack
		addi \$sp,\$sp, 20	<pre># restore stack pointer</pre>
		jr \$ra	<pre># return to calling routine</pre>

#### **Effect of Compiler Optimization**



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#### **Effect of Language and Algorithm**



#### 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**

<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 =</pre>	<pre>move \$t0,\$a0  # p = &amp; array[0] sll \$t1,\$a1,2  # \$t1 = size * 4 add \$t2,\$a0,\$t1 # \$t2 =</pre>			

# **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**

	ARM	31 28 Opx <sup>4</sup>	27 Op <sup>8</sup>	8	20 19 Re	16 s1 <sup>4</sup>	15 12 Rd <sup>4</sup>	11 Oț	ox <sup>8</sup>	4 3 0 Rs2 <sup>4</sup>
Register-register	MIPS	31 Op <sup>6</sup>	26 25 Rs	21 1 <sup>5</sup>	20 Rs2		15 Rd <sup>5</sup>	11 10 Cons	65	0 Opx <sup>6</sup>
	ARM	31 28 Opx <sup>4</sup>	27 Op <sup>®</sup>	8	20 19 R:	16 s1 <sup>4</sup>	15 12 Rd <sup>4</sup>	11	Const <sup>12</sup>	0
Data transfer	MIPS	31 Op <sup>6</sup>	26 25 Rs	21 51 <sup>5</sup>	20 Rd		15	Cons	t <sup>16</sup>	0
	ARM	31 28 Opx <sup>4</sup>	27 24 2 Op <sup>4</sup>	23			Cons	st <sup>24</sup>		0
Branch	MIPS	31 Op <sup>6</sup>	26 25 Rs	21 51 <sup>5</sup>	20 Opx <sup>5</sup> /F		15	Cons	t <sup>16</sup>	0
	ARM	31 28 Opx <sup>4</sup>	27 24 2 Op <sup>4</sup>	23			Cons	t <sup>24</sup>		0
Jump/Call	MIPS	31 Op <sup>6</sup>	26 25				Const <sup>26</sup>			0
					pcode [	] Regi	ster 🛛 Con	istant		

#### The Intel x86 ISA

- Evolution with backward compatibility
  - 8080 (1974): 8-bit microprocessor
    - Accumulator, plus 3 index-register pairs
  - 8086 (1978): 16-bit extension to 8080
    - Complex instruction set (CISC)
  - 8087 (1980): floating-point coprocessor
    - Adds FP instructions and register stack
  - 80286 (1982): 24-bit addresses, MMU
    - Segmented memory mapping and protection
  - 80386 (1985): 32-bit extension (now IA-32)
    - Additional addressing modes and operations
    - Paged memory mapping as well as segments

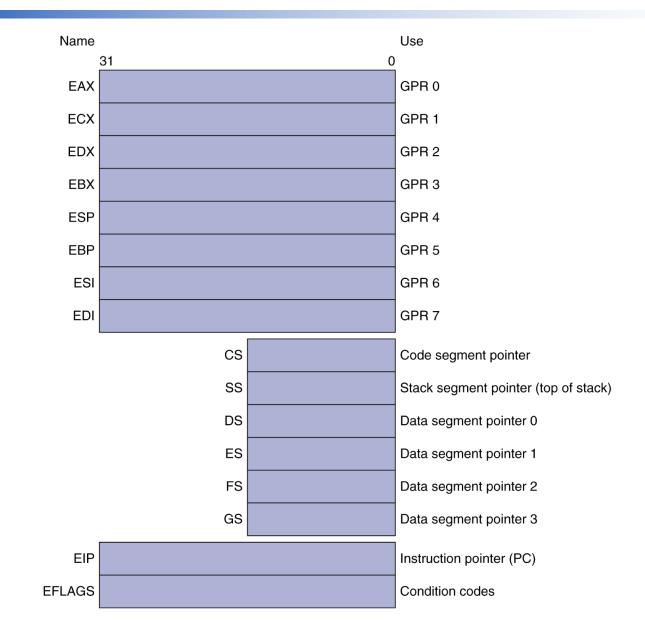
## The Intel x86 ISA

- Further evolution...
  - i486 (1989): pipelined, on-chip caches and FPU
    - Compatible competitors: AMD, Cyrix, ...
  - Pentium (1993): superscalar, 64-bit datapath
    - Later versions added MMX (Multi-Media eXtension) instructions
    - The infamous FDIV bug
  - Pentium Pro (1995), Pentium II (1997)
    - New microarchitecture (see Colwell, The Pentium Chronicles)
  - Pentium III (1999)
    - Added SSE (Streaming SIMD Extensions) and associated registers
  - Pentium 4 (2001)
    - New microarchitecture
    - Added SSE2 instructions

## The Intel x86 ISA

- And further...
  - AMD64 (2003): extended architecture to 64 bits
  - EM64T Extended Memory 64 Technology (2004)
    - AMD64 adopted by Intel (with refinements)
    - Added SSE3 instructions
  - Intel Core (2006)
    - Added SSE4 instructions, virtual machine support
  - AMD64 (announced 2007): SSE5 instructions
     Intel declined to follow, instead...
  - Advanced Vector Extension (announced 2008)
    - Longer SSE registers, more instructions
- If Intel didn't extend with compatibility, its competitors would!
  - Technical elegance ≠ market success

#### **Basic x86 Registers**



# **Basic x86 Addressing Modes**

#### Two operands per instruction

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

Memory addressing modes

- Address in register
- Address = R<sub>base</sub> + displacement
- Address =  $R_{base}$  + 2<sup>scale</sup> ×  $R_{index}$  (scale = 0, 1, 2, or 3)
- Address =  $R_{base} + 2^{scale} \times R_{index} + displacement$

# x86 Instruction Encoding

a. JE EIP + disp					
4 4	8	1			
JE tion	Displacement				
b. CALL					
8		32			
CALL		Offset			
c. MOV EBX,	[EDI + 45]				
6 1 1	8	8			
MOV dw	r/m Postbyte	Displacement			
d. PUSH ESI					
5 3					
PUSH Reg					
	705				
e. ADD EAX, #6 4 3 1	/65	32			
ADD Reg w		Immediate			
f. TEST EDX, #4	2				
7 1	8	32			
test w	Postbyte	Immediate			

#### Variable length encoding

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

# **Implementing IA-32**

- Complex instruction set makes implementation difficult
  - Hardware translates instructions to simpler microoperations
    - Simple instructions: 1–1
    - Complex instructions: 1—many
  - Microengine similar to RISC
  - Market share makes this economically viable
- Comparable performance to RISC
  - Compilers avoid complex instructions

## **ARM v8 Instructions**

- In moving to 64-bit, ARM did a complete overhaul
- ARM v8 resembles MIPS
  - Changes from v7:
    - No conditional execution field
    - Immediate field is 12-bit constant
    - Dropped load/store multiple
    - PC is no longer a GPR
    - GPR set expanded to 32
    - Addressing modes work for all word sizes
    - Divide instruction
    - Branch if equal/branch if not equal instructions

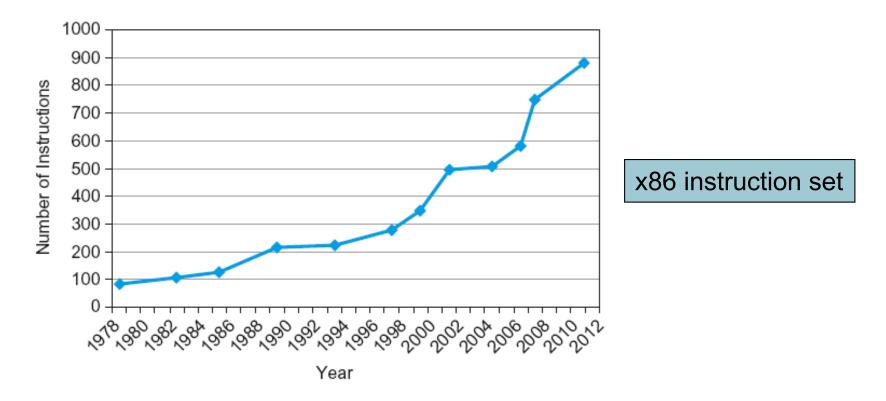
#### Fallacies

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

#### Fallacies

Backward compatibility ⇒ instruction set doesn't change

But they do accrete more instructions



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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

# **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%	