CSE P 501 – Compilers

x86 Lite for Compiler Writers
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Agenda

- Learn/review x86 architecture
  - Core 32-bit part only
    - Ignore crufty, backward-compatible things
  - Suggested target language for MiniJava
    - (But if you want to do something different – x86-64, MIPS, PPC, MMIX? ... – that should be fine – talk to us)

- After we’ve reviewed the x86 we’ll look at how to map language constructs to code
x86 Selected History

- 30 Years of x86
  - 1978: 8086 – 16-bit processor, segmentation
  - 1982: 80286 – protected mode, floating point
  - 1985: 80386 – 32-bit architecture, "general-purpose" register set, VM
  - 1993: Pentium – mmx
  - 1999: Pentium III – SSE
  - 2000: Pentium IV – SSE2, SSE3, HT, virtualization
  - 2006: Core Duo, Core 2 – Multicore, SSE4+, x86-64
  - 2008: Atom, i7, ...

- Many internal implementation changes, pipelining, concurrency, &c
And It’s Backward-Compatible!

- Current processors will run code written for the 8086(!)
  - (You can get VisiCalc 1.0 on the web!)
- Much of the Intel descriptions of the architecture are loaded down with modes and flags that obscure the modern, fairly simple 32-bit (and later 64-bit) processor model
- Modern processors have a RISC-like core
  - Simple, register-register & load/store architecture
  - Simple x86 instructions preferred; complex CICS instructions supported
    - We’ll focus on the basic 32-bit core instructions
x86 Assembler

- MiniJava compiler project output will be an assembler source program
  - Let the assembler handle the translation to binary encodings, address resolutions, etc.
- Examples here use Intel/Microsoft syntax
  - Used by masm (included in Visual Studio)
- Other popular choice: GNU Assembler (in gcc)
  - Major differences: dst, src reversed; different instruction opcodes for different data formats (implied in Intel syntax)
  - A few others
- You are free to use either
Intel ASM Statements

- Format is
  
  \texttt{optLabel: \ \texttt{opcode} \ \texttt{operands} \ ; \ \texttt{comment}}

  - optLabel is an optional label
  - opcode and operands make up the assembly language instruction
  - Anything following a `;` is a comment

- Language is very free-form

  - Comments and labels may appear on separate lines by themselves (we’ll take advantage of this)
x86 Memory Model

- 8-bit bytes, byte addressable
- 16-, 32-, 64-bit words, doublewords, and quadwords
- Data should almost always be aligned on "natural" boundaries; huge performance penalty on modern processors if it isn’t
- Little-endian – address of a 4-byte integer is address of low-order byte
Processor Registers

- 8 32-bit, mostly general purpose registers
  - eax, ebx, ecx, edx, esi, edi, ebp (base pointer), esp (stack pointer)
- Other registers, not directly addressable
  - 32-bit eflags register
    - Holds condition codes, processor state, etc.
  - 32-bit “instruction pointer” eip
    - Holds address of first byte of next instruction to execute
Processor Fetch-Execute Cycle

- Basic cycle (same as every processor you've ever seen)
  
  ```java
  while (running) {
    fetch instruction beginning at eip address
    eip <- eip + instruction length
    execute instruction
  }
  ```

- Sequential execution unless a jump stores a new "next instruction" address in eip
Instruction Format

- Typical data manipulation instruction
  - opcode dst,src
- Meaning is
  - dst <- dst op src
- Normally, one operand is a register, the other is a register, memory location, or integer constant
  - In particular, can’t have both operands in memory – not enough bits to encode this
x86 Memory Stack

- Register esp points to the "top" of stack
  - Dedicated for this use; don’t use otherwise
  - Points to the last 32-bit doubleword pushed onto the stack (not next "free" dblword)
  - Should always be doubleword aligned
    - It will start out this way, and will stay aligned unless your code does something bad
- Stack grows down
Stack Instructions

push src

- esp <- esp - 4; memory[esp] <- src
  (e.g., push src onto the stack)

pop dst

- dst <- memory[esp]; esp <- esp + 4
  (e.g., pop top of stack into dst and logically remove it from the stack)

- These are highly optimized and heavily used
  - Function call protocol is stack-based
  - The x86 doesn’t have enough registers, so the stack is frequently used for temporary space
Stack Frames

- When a method is called, a **stack frame** is traditionally allocated on the top of the stack to hold its local variables.
- Frame is popped on method return.
- By convention, ebp (base pointer) points to a known offset into the stack frame:
  - Local variables referenced relative to ebp.
  - (This is often optimized to use esp-relative addresses instead. Frees up ebp, needs additional bookkeeping at compile time.)
Operand Address Modes (1)

- These should cover most of what we'll need
  
  ```
  mov eax, 17 ; store 17 in eax
  mov eax, ecx ; copy ecx to eax
  mov eax, [ebp-12] ; copy memory to eax
  mov [ebp+8], eax ; copy eax to memory
  ```

- References to object fields work similarly – put the object’s memory address in a register and use that address plus field offset
Operand Address Modes (2)

- In full generality, a memory address can combine the contents of two registers (with one being scaled) plus a constant displacement:
  \[ \text{basereg + index*scale + constant} \]
  - Scale can be 2, 4, 8
- Main use is for array subscripting
- Example: suppose
  - Array of 4-byte ints
  - Address of the array A is in ecx
  - Subscript i is in eax
  - Code to store edx in A[i]
    \[ \text{mov [ecx+eax*4],edx} \]
dword ptr – Intel assembler

- Obscure, but sometimes necessary...
- If the assembler can’t figure out the size of the operands to move, you can explicitly tell it to move 32 bits with the qualifier “dword ptr”
  \[
  \text{mov } \text{dword ptr [eax+16],[ebp-8]}
  \]
- Use this if the assembler complains; otherwise ignore
- Not an issue in GNU as – different opcode mnemonics for different operand sizes
Basic Data Movement and Arithmetic Instructions

- **mov** dst,src
  - dst <- src

- **add** dst,src
  - dst <- dst + src

- **sub** dst,src
  - dst <- dst - src

- **inc** dst
  - dst <- dst + 1

- **dec** dst
  - dst <- dst - 1

- **neg** dst
  - dst <- - dst
  (2’s complement arithmetic negation)
Integer Multiply and Divide

- **imul** dst,src
  - dst <- dst * src
  - 32-bit product
  - dst *must* be a register

- **imul** dst,src,imm8
  - dst <- dst*src*imm8
  - imm8 - 8 bit constant
  - Obscure, but useful for optimizing array subscripts (but address modes can do simple scaling)

- **idiv** src
  - Divide edx:eax by src
    (edx:eax holds sign-extended 64-bit value; cannot use other registers for division)
  - eax <- quotient
  - edx <- remainder

**cdq**
  - edx:eax <- 64-bit sign extended copy of eax
Bitwise Operations

- `and dst, src`
  - `dst <- dst & src`
- `or dst, src`
  - `dst <- dst | src`
- `xor dst, src`
  - `dst <- dst ^ src`

- `not dst`
  - `dst <- ~ dst`
  (logical or 1’s complement)
Shits and Rotates

**shl** dst,count
- dst shifted left count bits

**shr** dst,count
- dst <- dst shifted right count bits (0 fill)

**sar** dst,count
- dst <- dst shifted right count bits (sign bit fill)

**rol** dst,count
- dst <- dst rotated left count bits

**ror** dst,count
- dst <- dst rotated right count bits
Uses for Shifts and Rotates

- Can often be used to optimize multiplication and division by small constants
    - Lots of very cool bit fiddling and other algorithms
  - But be careful – be sure semantics are OK
- There are additional instructions that shift and rotate double words, use a calculated shift amount instead of a constant, etc.
Load Effective Address

- The unary & operator in C
  
  `lea dst, src ; dst <- address of src`

- `dst` must be a register

- Address of `src` includes any address arithmetic or indexing

- Useful to capture addresses for pointers, reference parameters, etc.

- Also useful for computing arithmetic expressions that match address arithmetic
Control Flow - GOTO

- At this level, all we have is goto and conditional goto
- Loops and conditional statements are synthesized from these
- Optimization note: random jumps play havoc with pipeline efficiency; much work is done in modern compilers and processors to minimize this impact
Unconditional Jumps

jmp dst

- eip <- address of dst
- Assembly language notes:
  - dst will be a label
  - Can have multiple labels on separate lines preceding an instruction
    - Convenient in compiler-generated asm lang.
Conditional Jumps

- Most arithmetic instructions set bits in eflags to record information about the result (zero, non-zero, positive, etc.)
  - True of add, sub, and, or; but not imul or idiv
- Other instructions that set eflags
  - `cmp dst,src` ; compare dst to src
  - `test dst,src` ; calculate dst & src (logical ; and); doesn’t change either
Conditional Jumps Following Arithmetic Operations

- `jz` label; jump if result == 0
- `jnz` label; jump if result != 0
- `jg` label; jump if result > 0
- `jng` label; jump if result <= 0
- `jge` label; jump if result >= 0
- `jnge` label; jump if result < 0
- `jl` label; jump if result < 0
- `jnl` label; jump if result >= 0
- `jle` label; jump if result <= 0
- `jnle` label; jump if result > 0

  Obviously, the assembler is providing multiple opcode mnemonics for individual instructions
Compare and Jump Conditionally

- Want: compare two operands and jump if a relationship holds between them
- Would like to do this

\[
\text{jmp}_{\text{cond}} \quad \text{op1,op2,label}
\]

but can’t, because 3-address instructions can’t be encoded in x86
cmp and jcc

- Instead, use a 2-instruction sequence
  
  ```
  cmp op1,op2
  jcc label
  ```

  where jcc is a conditional jump that is taken if the result of the comparison matches the condition cc
Conditional Jumps Following Arithmetic Operations

je label ; jump if op1 == op2
jne label ; jump if op1 != op2
jg label ; jump if op1 > op2
jng label ; jump if op1 <= op2
jge label ; jump if op1 >= op2
jnge label ; jump if op1 < op2
jl label ; jump if op1 < op2
jnl label ; jump if op1 >= op2
jle label ; jump if op1 <= op2
jnle label ; jump if op1 > op2

- Again, the assembler is mapping more than one mnemonic to some machine instructions
Function Call and Return

- The x86 instruction set itself only provides for transfer of control (jump) and return
- Stack is used to capture return address and recover it
- Everything else – parameter passing, stack frame organization, register usage – is a matter of convention and not defined by the hardware
call and ret Instructions

**call** label

- Push address of next instruction and jump
  
  esp <- esp - 4; memory[esp] <- eip
  
eip <- address of label

**ret**

- Pop address from top of stack and jump
  
  eip <- memory[esp]; esp <- esp + 4

**WARNING!** The word on the top of the stack had better be an address, not some leftover data
Win 32 C Function Call Conventions

- Wintel code obeys the following conventions for C programs
  - Note: calling conventions normally designed very early in the instruction set/basic software design. Hard (e.g., basically impossible) to change later.

- C++ augments these conventions to include the "this" pointer
- We'll use these conventions in our code
Win32 C Register Conventions

- These registers must be restored to their original values before a function returns, if they are altered during execution (esp, ebp, ebx, esi, edi)
  - Traditional: push/pop from stack to save/restore
- A function may use the other registers (eax, ecx, edx) however it wants, without having to save/restore them
- A 32-bit function result is expected to be in eax when the function returns
Call Site

- Caller is responsible for
  - Pushing arguments on the stack from right to left (allows implementation of varargs)
  - Execute call instruction
  - Pop arguments from stack after return
    - For us, this means add 4*(# arguments) to esp after the return, since everything is either a 32-bit variable (int, bool), or a reference (pointer)
Call Example

\[ n = \text{sumOf}(17, 42) \]

- push 42
- push 17
- call sumOf
- add esp, 8
- mov [ebp + offset], eax

; push args
; jump &
; push addr
; pop args
; store result
Callee

- Called function must do the following
  - Save registers if necessary
  - Allocate stack frame for local variables
  - Execute function body
  - Ensure result of non-void function is in eax
  - Restore any required registers if necessary
  - Pop the stack frame
  - Return to caller
Win32 Function Prologue

- The code that needs to be executed before the statements in the body of the function are executed is referred to as the **prologue**.
- For a Win32 function $f$, it looks like this:
  ```
  f:  push  ebp  ; save old frame pointer
      mov  ebp,esp  ; new frame ptr is top of
                    ; stack after arguments and
                    ; return address are pushed
      sub  esp,"# bytes needed"  ; allocate stack frame
  ```
Win32 Function Epilogue

- The *epilogue* is the code that is executed to obey a return statement (or if execution “falls off” the bottom of a void function)

- For a Win32 function, it looks like this:

  ```
  mov    eax, "function result"
  ; put result in eax if not already
  mov    esp, ebp
  ; there (if non-void function)
  mov    esp, ebp
  ; restore esp to old value
  pop    ebp
  ; before stack frame allocated
  ret    ebp
  ; restore ebp to caller’s value
  ret    ; return to caller
  ```
Example Function

- Source code

```c
int sumOf(int x, int y) {
    int a, int b;
    a = x;
    b = a + y;
    return b;
}
```
Stack Frame for sumOf

```c
int sumOf(int x, int y) {
    int a, int b;
    a = x;
    b = a + y;
    return b;
}
```
n = sum of (17, 42)

Assembly Language Version

```assembly
;; int sumOf(int x, int y) {
;; int a, int b;
  sumOf:
    push ebp ; prologue
    mov ebp,esp
    sub esp, 8

;; a = x;
  mov eax,[ebp+8]
  mov [ebp-4],eax

;; b = a + y;
  mov eax,[ebp-4]
  add eax,[ebp+12]
  mov [ebp-8],eax

;; return b;
  mov eax,[ebp-8]
  mov esp,ebp
  pop ebp
  ret
;; }
```

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Coming Attractions

- Now that we’ve got a basic idea of the x86 instruction set, we need to map language constructs to x86
  - Code Shape
- Then on to basic code generation and execution
  - And later, optimizations