CSE 401 – Compilers

x86 Lite for Compiler Writers Hal Perkins Winter 2010



- Overview of x86 architecture
 - Core 32-bit part only, not old compatibility cruft, not newer X86-64 stuff either
- Later
 - Mapping source language constructs to x86
 - Code generation for MiniJava
- Much later...
 - More sophisticated back-end algorithms
 - Survey of compiler optimizations



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, virtual memory
 - 1993: Pentium mmx
 - 1999: Pentium III SSE
 - 2000-06: Pentium IV SSE2, SSE3, HT, virtualization
 - 2006: Core & Core 2 Multicore, SSE4+, virtualization
 - **2007**: 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!)
- The Intel descriptions are loaded down with modes and flags that obscure the modern, fairly simple 32-bit processor model
- Modern x86 processors have a RISC-like core
 - Simple, register-register & load/store architecture
 - Simple x86 instructions preferred; complex CISC instructions supported for compatibility
 - We'll focus on the basic 32-bit core instructions



x86 Assembler

- Nice thing about standards...
- Two main assembler languages for x86
 - Intel/Microsoft version what's in the documentation
 - GNU assembler what we're generating
 - Use gcc –S to generate examples from C/C++ code
- Slides use Intel descriptions
- Brief information later on differences
 - Main changes: dst,src reversed, data types in gnu opcodes, various syntax annoyances



Intel ASM Statements

Format is

optLabel: opcode operands ; 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)

```
while (running) {
  fetch instruction beginning at eip address
  eip <- eip + instruction length
   execute instruction
}</pre>
```

 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
 - 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, not too hard)



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 an offset
- Remember: can't have two offsets/constants in single instruction



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:

[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 ecx in A[i] mov [ecx+eax*4],ecx



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"

mov dword ptr [eax],[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</p>

add dst,src

dst <- dst + src</p>

sub dst,src

dst <- dst - src

inc dst

dst <- dst + 1</p>

dec dst

dst <- dst - 1</p>

neg dst

 dst <- - dst
 (2's complement arithmetic negation)



Integer Multiply and Divide

imul dst,src

- dst <- dst * src</p>
- 32-bit product
- dst *must* be a register

imul dst,src,imm8

- dst <- dst*src*imm8</p>
- 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 signextended 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</p>

or dst,src

dst <- dst | src</p>

xor dst,src

dst <- dst ^ src</p>

not dst

 dst <- ~ dst (logical or 1's complement)



Shifts 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
 - If you're interested, look at "Hacker's Delight" by Henry Warren, A-W, 2003
 - 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</p>
 - 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



Unconditional Jumps

jmp dst

eip <- address of dst</p>



Conditional Jumps

- Most arithmetic instructions set "condition code" bits in eflags to record information about the result (zero, non-zero, >0, 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



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

 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
 jmp_{cond} op1,op2,label
 but can't, because 3-address
 instructions can't be encoded in x86

(also true of most other machines for that matter)



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



```
je
        label
                         ; jump if op1 == op2
        label
                         ; jump if op1 != op2
jne
        label
                         ; jump if op1 > op2
jg
                         ; jump if op1 \leq op2
        label
jng
                         ; jump if op1 >= op2
jge
        label
                         ; jump if op 1 < op 2
        label
jnge
                         ; jump if op1 < op2
        label
jnl
                         ; jump if op1 >= op2
        label
jle
                         ; jump if op1 \leq op2
        label
                         ; jump if op1 > op2
jnle
        label
```

 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] <- eipeip <- address of label

ret

- Pop address from top of stack and jump
- eip <- memory[esp]; esp <- esp + 4</p>
- WARNING! The word on the top of the stack had better be an address, not some leftover data



enter and leave

- Complex instructions for languages with nested procedures
 - Slow implementation on modern x86
 - Best avoided
 - i.e., don't use in your project call/ret do what we need



- 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.
 - Note: Mac x86 has more restrictive stack frame alignment requirements – more later
- C++ augments these conventions to handle the "this" pointer



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
- Generated code can get away with bending the rules, but watch it when you call external C code



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 32bit variable (int, bool), or a reference (pointer)

Call Example

```
n = sumOf(17,42)
push 42 ; push args
push 17
call sumOf ; jump &
; push addr
add esp,8 ; pop args
mov [ebp+offset_n],eax ; store result
```



- 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
; there (if non-void function)
mov esp,ebp ; restore esp to old value
; before stack frame allocated
pop ebp ; restore ebp to caller's value
ret ; return to caller
```

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Example Function

Source code
int sumOf(int x, int y) {
 int a, int b;
 a = x;
 b = a + y;
 return b;
}

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

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Stack Frame for sumOf ,

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Assembly Language Version

```
;; 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
```



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 MiniJava code generation and execution