## CSE P 501 – Compilers

x86-64 Lite for Compiler Writers
A quick (a) introduction (b) review

[pick one]

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## Agenda

- Overview of x86-64 architecture
  - Core part only, a little beyond what we need for the project, but not much
- Upcoming lectures...
  - Mapping source language constructs to x86
  - Code generation for MiniJava project (later)
- Rest of the quarter...
  - More sophisticated back-end algorithms
  - Compiler optimizations, analysis, and more

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#### Some x86-64 References

(Links on course web - \* = most useful)

- \*\*x86-64 Instructions and ABI
  - Handout for University of Chicago CMSC 22620,
     Spring 2009, by John Reppy
- \*x86-64 Machine-Level Programming
  - Earlier version of sec. 3.13 of Computer Systems:
     A Programmer's Perspective, 2nd ed. by Bryant & O'Hallaron (CSE 351 textbook)
  - Intel architecture processor manuals

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## x86 Selected History

Almost 40 Years of x86

```
    1978: 8086
    16-bit, 5 MHz, 3μ, segmented
    1982: 80286
    1985: 80386
    32-bit, VM, 8 "general" registers
```

- 1993: Pentium MMX

1999: Pentium III SSE

- 2000: Pentium IV SSE2, SSE3, HyperThreading

- 2006: Core Duo, Core2 Multicore, SSE4, x86-64

2013: Haswell 64-bit, 4-8 core, ~3 GHz, 22 nm, AVX2

etc. etc.

- Many micro-architecture changes over the years:
  - pipelining, super-scalar, out-of-order, caching, multicore, ...

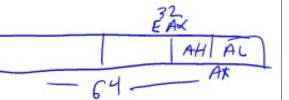
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## And It's Backward-Compatible!!

- Current processors can run 8086 code
  - You can get VisiCalc 1.0 on the web & run it!!!
- Intel descriptions of the architecture are engulfed with modes and flags; the modern processor is fairly straightforward
- Modern processors have a RISC-like core
  - Load/Store from memory
  - Register-register operations
- We will focus on basic 64-bit instructions
  - Simple instructions preferred; complex ones exist for backward-compatibility but can be slow

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## x86-64 Main features



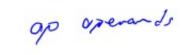
- 16 64-bit general registers; 64-bit integers (but int is 32 bits usually; long is 64 bits)
- 64-bit address space; pointers are 8 bytes
- 16 SSE registers for floating point, SIMD
- Register-based function call conventions
- Additional addressing modes (pc relative)
- 32-bit legacy mode
- Some pruning of old features

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## x86-64 Assembler Language

- Target for our compiler project
   But, the nice thing about standards...
- Two main assembler languages for x86-64
  - Intel/Microsoft version what's in the Intel docs
  - AT&T/GNU assembler what we're generating and what's in the linked handouts
    - Use gcc –S to generate asm code from C/C++ code
- Slides use gcc/AT&T/GNU syntax

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#### Intel vs. GNU Assembler

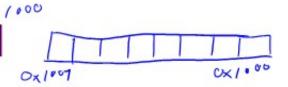
Main differences between Intel docs and gcc assembler

	Intel/Microsoft	AT&T/GNU as
Operand order: <u>op a,b</u>	a = a op b (dst first)	b = b op a (dst last)
Memory address	[baseregister+offset]	offset(baseregister)
Instruction mnemonics	mov, add, push,	movq, addq, pushq [operand size is added to end]
Register names	rax, rbx, rbp, rsp,	%rax, %rbx, %rbp, %rsp,
Constants	17,42	\$17, \$42
Comments	; to end of line	# to end of line or /* */

 Intel docs also include many complex, historical instructions and artifacts not commonly used by modern compilers – we won't use them either.

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## x86-64 Memory Model



- 8-bit bytes, byte addressable
- 16-, 32-, 64-bit words, double words and quad words (Intel terminology)
  - That's why the 'q' in 64-bit instructions like movq, addq, etc.
- Data should normally be aligned on "natural" boundaries for performance, although unaligned accesses are generally supported – but with a big performance penalty on many machines
- Little-endian address of a multi-byte integer is address of low-order byte

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1-9

## x86-64 registers

- 16 64-bit general registers
  - %rax, %rbx, %rcx, %rdx, %rsi, %rdi, %rbp, %rsp, %r8-%r15
- Registers can be used as 64-bit integers or pointers, or 32-bit ints
  - Also possible to reference low-order 16- and 8-bit chunks – we won't for most part
- To simplify our project we'll use only 64-bit data (ints, pointers, even booleans!)

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## Processor Fetch-Execute Cycle

 Basic cycle (same as every processor you've ever seen)

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

 Sequential execution unless a jump stores a new "next instruction" address in rip

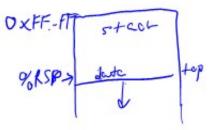
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#### Instruction Format

- Typical data manipulation instruction label: opcode src,dst # comment
- Meaning is
   dst ← dst op src
- Normally, one operand is a register, the other is a register, memory location, or integer constant
- Can't have both operands in memory can't encode two memory addresses in a single instruction (e.g., cmp, mov)
- Language is free-form, comments and labels may appear on lines by themselves (and can have multiple labels per line of code)

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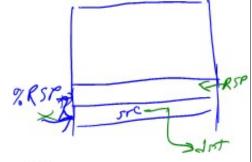
## x86-64 Memory Stack



- Register %rsp points to the "top" of stack
  - Dedicated for this use; don't use otherwise
  - Points to the last 64-bit quadword pushed onto the stack (not next "free" quadword)
  - Should always be quadword (8-byte) aligned
    - It will start out this way, and will stay aligned unless your code does something bad
    - Software generally requires 16-byte alignment when function is called
  - Stack grows down

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#### Stack Instructions



✓pushq src

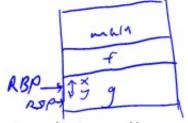
%rsp ← %rsp – 8; memory[%rsp] ← src (e.g., push src onto the stack)

√popq dst

dst ← memory[%rsp]; %rsp ← %rsp + 8
(e.g., pop top of stack into dst and logically remove
it from the stack)

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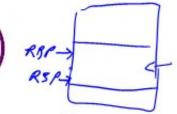
#### Stack Frames



- When a method is called, a stack frame is traditionally allocated on logical "top" of the stack to hold its local variables
- Frame is popped on method return
- By convention, %rbp (base pointer) points to a known offset into the stack frame
  - Local variables referenced relative to %rbp
  - Base pointer common in 32-bit x86 code; less so in x86-64 code where push/pop used less & stack frame normally has fixed size so locals can be referenced from %rsp easily
  - We will use %rbp in our project simplifies addressing of local variables and compiler bookkeeping

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## Operand Address Modes (1)



These should cover most of what we'll need

```
movq $17,%rax # store 17 in %rax
movq %rcx,%rax # copy %rcx to %rax
movq 16(%rbp),%rax # copy memory to %rax
movq %rax,-24(%rbp) # copy %rax 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 memory addresses in
   a single instruction

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## Operand Address Modes (2)

 A memory address can combine the contents of two registers (with one optionally multiplied by 2, 4, or 8) plus a constant:

basereg + indexreg\*scale + constant

- Main use of general form is for array subscripting or small computations - if the compiler is clever
- Example: suppose we have an array of 8-byte ints with address of the array A in %rcx and subscript i in %rax. Code to store %rbx in A[i]

movq %rbx,(%rcx,%rax,8)

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## Basic Data Movement and Arithmetic Instructions

```
movq src,dst

dst ← src

addq src,dst

dst ← dst + src

subq src,dst

dst ← dst - src
```

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## Integer Multiply and Divide

imulq src,dst

dst ← dst \* src

dst must be a register

#### cqto

%rdx:%rax ← 128-bit sign extended copy of %rax (why??? To prep numerator for idivq!)

#### idivq src

Divide %rdx:%rax by src (%rdx:%rax holds signextended 128-bit value; cannot use other registers for division)

√%rax ← quotient

✓%rdx ← remainder

(no division in MiniJava!)

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## Bitwise Operations

```
andq src,dst

dst ← dst & src

orq src,dst

dst ← dst | src

xorq src,dst

dst ← dst ^ src
```

```
notq dst

dst ← ~ dst

(logical or 1's complement)
```

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#### **Shifts and Rotates**

```
shlq count,dst

dst ← dst shifted left
count bits

shrq count,dst

dst ← dst shifted right
count bits (0 fill)

sarq count,dst

dst ← dst shifted right
count bits (sign bit fill)
```

```
rolq count,dst

dst ← dst rotated left
count bits

rorq count,dst

dst ← dst rotated right
count bits
```

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#### Uses for Shifts and Rotates

- Can often be used to optimize multiplication and division by small constants (mul/div by powers of 2)
  - If you're interested, look at "Hacker's Delight" by Henry Warren, A-W, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed, 2012
    - · Lots of very cool bit fiddling and other algorithms
    - But be careful be sure semantics are OK
      - Example: right shift is not the same as integer divide for negative numbers – shift truncates towards -∞
- There are additional instructions that shift and rotate double words, use a calculated shift amount instead of a constant, etc.

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int \*p= # a[u]

### **Load Effective Address**

The unary & operator in C/C++

leaq src,dst # 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 r1 + scale\*r2 + const

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#### Control Flow - GOTO

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

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## **Unconditional Jumps**

```
jmp dst
%rip ← address of dst
```

- dst is usually a label in the code (which can be on a line by itself)
- dst address can also be indirect using the address in a register or memory location (\*reg or \*(reg)) – use for method calls, switch

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## Conditional Jumps

- Most arithmetic instructions set "condition code" bits to record information about the result (zero, non-zero, >0, etc.)
  - True of addq, subq, andq, orq; but not imulq, idivq, leaq
- Other instructions that set condition codes

```
cmpq src,dst # compare dst to src (e.g., dst-src)
testq src,dst # calculate dst & src (logical and)
```

- These do not alter src or dst

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# Conditional Jumps Following Arithmetic Operations

```
label
                  # jump if result == 0
jΖ
                  # jump if result != 0
       label
inz
                  # jump if result > 0
       label
jg
                  # jump if result <= 0
       label
ing
                  # jump if result >= 0
       label
ige
                  # jump if result < 0
       label
jnge
                  # jump if result < 0
       label
                  # jump if result >= 0
       label
inl
       label
                  # jump if result <= 0
ile
       label
                  # jump if result > 0
jnle
```

 Obviously, the assembler is providing multiple opcode mnemonics for several actual instructions

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## Compare and Jump Conditionally

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

jmp<sub>cond</sub> op1,op2,label

but can't, because 3-operand instructions can't be encoded in x86-64

(also true of most other machines)

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## cmp and jcc

 Instead, we use a 2-instruction sequence cmpq op1,op2
 iss label

where  $j_{cc}$  is a conditional jump that is taken if the result of the comparison matches the condition cc

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# Conditional Jumps Following Arithmetic Operations

```
label
                    # jump if op1 == op2
je
        label
                    # jump if op1 != op2
ine
        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
inl
                    # jump if op1 <= op2
ile
        label
        label
                    # jump if op1 > op2
inle
```

 Again, the assembler is mapping more than one mnemonic to some machine instructions

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#### Function Call and Return

- The x86-64 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

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#### call and ret Instructions

#### det

#### call label

- Push address of next instruction and jump
- %rsp ← %rsp 8; memory[%rsp] ← %rip %rip ← address of label
- Call address can be in a register or memory as with jumps

#### ret

- Pop address from top of stack and jump
- %rip ← memory[%rsp]; %rsp ← %rsp + 8
- WARNING! The word on the top of the stack had better be an address and not some leftover data

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#### enter and leave

- Complex instructions for languages with nested procedures
  - enter can be slow on current processors best avoided – i.e., don't use it in your project
    - leave is equivalent to

```
mov %rsp,%rbp
pop %rbp
```

and is generated by many compilers. Fits in 1 byte, saves space. Not clear if it's any faster.

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## X86-64-Register Usage

- %rax function result
- Arguments 1-6 passed in these registers in order
  - %rdi, %rsi, %rdx, %rcx, %r8, %r9
  - For Java/C++ "this" pointer is first argument, in %rdi
    - · More about "this" later
- %rsp stack pointer; value must be 8-byte aligned always and 16-byte aligned when calling a function
- %rbp frame pointer (optional use)
  - We'll use it

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## x86-64 Register Save Conventions

 A called function must preserve these registers (or save/restore them if it wants to use them)

```
✓ – %rbx, %rbp, %r12-%r15
```

- %rsp isn't on the "callee save list", but needs to be properly restored for return
- All other registers can change across a function call
  - Debugging/correctness note: always assume every called function will change all registers it is allowed to

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## x86-64 Function Call



- Caller places up to 6 arguments in registers, rest on stack, then executes call instruction (which pushes 8-byte return address)
- On entry, called function prologue sets up the stack frame:

```
pushq %rbp # save old frame ptr
```

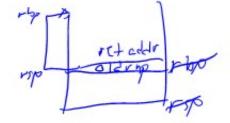
# stack after ret addr and old

# rbp pushed

✓ subq \$framesize,%rsp # allocate stack frame

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## x86-64 Function Return



- Called function puts result (if any) in %rax and restores any callee-save registers if needed
- Called function returns with:

```
✓ movq %rbp,%rsp # or use leave instead
✓ popq %rbp # of movq/popq
✓ ret
```

 If caller allocated space for arguments it deallocates as needed

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## Caller Example

```
    n = sumOf(17,42)
    movq $42,%rsi # load arguments
    movq $17,%rdi
    call sumOf # jump & push ret addr
    movq %rax,offset<sub>n</sub>(%rbp) # store result
```

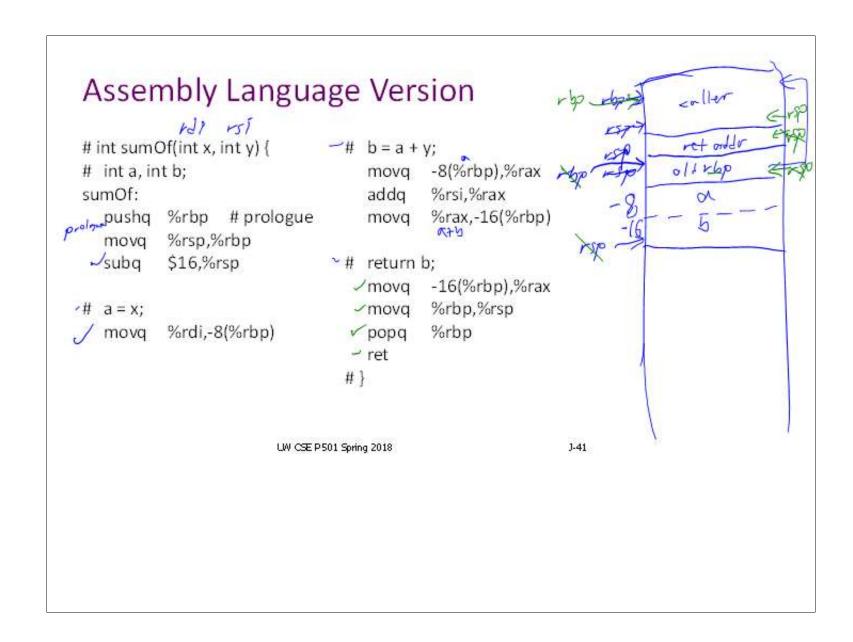
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## **Example Function**

Source code

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

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### Stack for sumOf

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

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## The Nice Thing About Standards...

- The above is the System V/AMD64 ABI convention (used by Linux, OS X)
- Microsoft's x64 calling conventions are slightly different (sigh...)
  - First four parameters in registers %rcx, %rdx, %r8, %r9; rest on the stack
  - Stack frame must include empty space for called function to use to store values passed in parameter registers if desired
- Not relevant for us, but worth being aware of it

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## **Coming Attractions**

- Now that we've got a basic idea of the x86-64 instruction set, we need to map language constructs to x86-64
  - Code Shape
- Then need to figure out how to get compiler to generate this and how to bootstrap things to run the compiled programs (later)

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