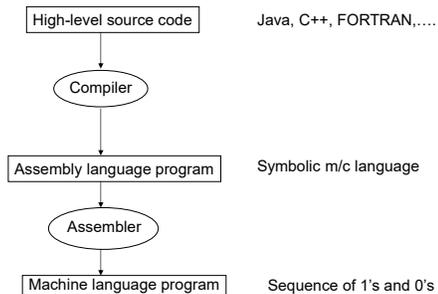


## Introduction to x86 ISA and Compilers

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## High-level Structure of Compiler



There may be different assembly languages for the same ISA.  
Example: AT&T (used by gcc) and Intel (used by icc) formats for x86 ISA.

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## x-86 instruction set

- x-86 ISA is very complex
  - CISC instruction set
  - Evolved over time:
    - 16 bit → 32 bit → 64 bit
    - MMX vector instructions
  - Assembly format: AT&T format and Intel format
- We will focus on x86-32 bit ISA since it is easier to understand
- Once you figure this out, x86-64 bit ISA is not hard

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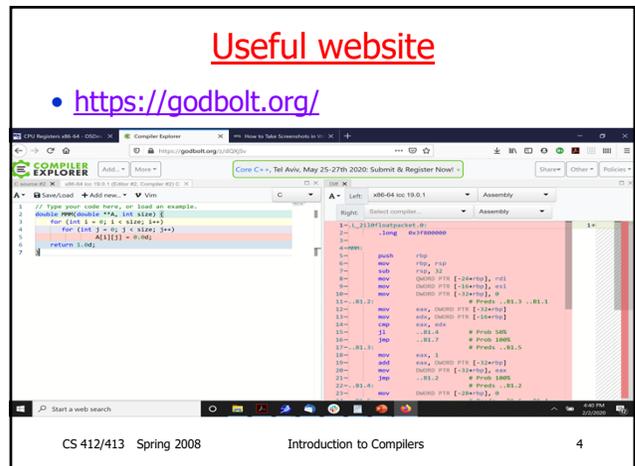
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## Useful website

- <https://godbolt.org/>



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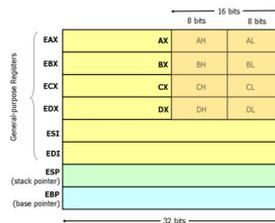
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## X86-32 Quick Overview

- **Registers:**
  - General purpose 32bit: eax, ebx, ecx, edx, esi, edi
    - Also 16-bit: ax, bx, etc., and 8-bit: al, ah, bl, bh, etc.
  - Special registers:
    - esp: stack pointer
    - ebp: frame base pointer



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## Note on register names

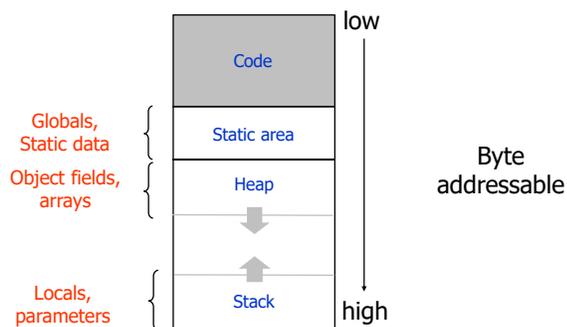
Registers are general-purpose: can be used for anything programmer wants

Historically, the registers were intended to be used as shown below, hence their odd names:

- AX/EAX/RAX: accumulator
- BX/EBX/RBX: base
- CX/ECX/RCX: counter
- DX/EDX/RDX: data/general
- SI/ESI/RSI: "source index" for [string](#) operations.
- DI/EDI/RDI: "destination index" for string operations.
- SP/ESP/RSP: stack pointer for top address of the stack.
- BP/EBP/RBP: stack base pointer for holding the address of the current [stack frame](#).
- IP/EIP/RIP: instruction pointer. Holds the current instruction address.

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## Memory Layout



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## x86 Quick Overview

- **Instructions:**
  - Arithmetic: add, sub, inc, mod, idiv, imul, etc.
  - Logic: and, or, not, xor
  - Comparison: cmp, test
  - Control flow: jmp, jcc, jecz
  - Function calls: call, ret
  - Data movement: mov (many variants)
  - Stack manipulations: push, pop
  - Other: lea

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## Instruction set

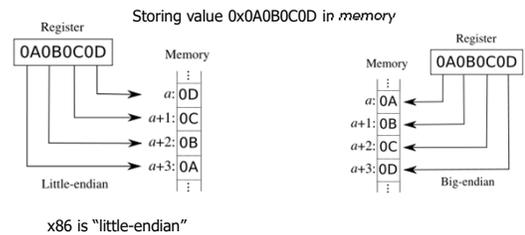
- **x86 instruction set: two-address instruction set**
  - Op a, b
    - a,b specify the two operands
    - result of operation is stored in b
      - warning: AT&T and Intel formats are different: see last slide
      - we will assume AT&T format in slides
    - a,b: registers or memory address
    - at most one operand can be in memory
    - memory addresses can be specified as offset from ebp (or other registers)
      - pushl 8(%ebp)
      - more generally, address can be specified as `disp(base,offset,scale)`
  - Examples:
    - `addl $3, %eax //add constant 3 to register eax`
    - `movl %eax, %ebx //move contents of register eax to register ebx`
    - `movl 8(%ebp), %eax //move contents at memory address (8 + contents(ebp)) //to register eax`
    - `movl %eax, 8(%ebx,%ecx,4) //effective address is 8 + contents(%ebx) + 4*contents(%ecx)`

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## Little-endian

x86 instruction set can address bytes and supports data of different sizes, so you have to be aware of the representation of data.

How are 32-bit quantities stored in memory?



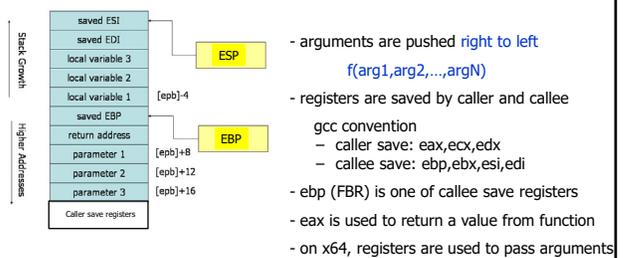
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## Condition code register

- **Condition code register**
  - Bits in this register are set implicitly when instructions are executed
  - (eg) ZF bit is the zero flag and is set if the result of the operation is zero
  - (eg) SF bit is the sign flag and is set if the result of the operation is negative
  - ....
- **Branch instructions can test one or more flags and branch conditionally on the outcome**
  - (eg) `je/jz` is "jump if equal": jumps if ZF is set
  - (eg) `jne/jnz` is "jump if not equal"
  - Many other conditional branch operations

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## gcc/icc stack frame

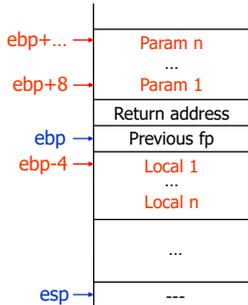


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## Accessing Stack Variables

- To access stack variables: use offsets from `ebp`

- Example:
  - $8(\%ebp)$  = parameter 1
  - $12(\%ebp)$  = parameter 2
  - $-4(\%ebp)$  = local 1



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## Accessing Stack Variables

- Translate accesses to variables:
  - For parameters, compute offset from `%ebp` using:
    - Parameter number
    - Sizes of other parameters
  - For local variables, decide on data layout and assign offsets from frame pointer to each local
  - Store offsets in the symbol table
- Example:
  - `a`: local, offset-4
  - `p`: parameter, offset+16, `q`: parameter, offset+8
  - Assignment  $a = p + q$  becomes equivalent to:
    - $-4(\%ebp) = 16(\%ebp) + 8(\%ebp)$
  - How to write this in assembly?

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## Arithmetic

- How to translate:  $p+q$  ?
  - Assume `p` and `q` are locals or parameters
  - Determine offsets for `p` and `q`
  - Perform the arithmetic operation
- Problem: the ADD instruction in x86 cannot take both operands from memory; notation for possible operands:
  - `mem32`: register or memory 32 bit (similar for `r/m8`, `r/m16`)
  - `reg32`: register 32 bit (similar for `reg8`, `reg16`)
  - `imm32`: immediate 32 bit (similar for `imm8`, `imm16`)
  - At most one operand can be mem !
- Translation requires using an extra register
  - Place `p` into a register (e.g. `%ecx`): `mov 16(%ebp), %ecx`
  - Perform addition of `q` and `%ecx`: `add 8(%ebp), %ecx`

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## Data Movement

- Translate  $a = p+q$ :
  - Load memory location (`p`) into register (`%ecx`) using a move instr.
  - Perform the addition
  - Store result from register into memory location (`a`):
 

```
mov 16(%ebp), %ecx    (load)
add 8(%ebp), %ecx     (arithmetic)
mov %ecx, -8(%ebp)    (store)
```
- Move instructions cannot have two memory operands
 

Therefore, copy instructions must be translated using an extra register:

```
a = p => mov 16(%ebp), %ecx
         mov %ecx, -8(%ebp)
```
- However, loading constants doesn't require extra registers:
 

```
a = 12 => mov $12, -8(%ebp)
```

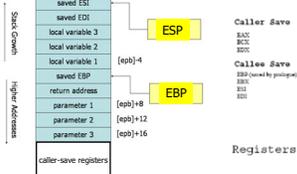
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## Exercise: write assembly for example

```

int plus3 (int x) { int res = x + 3; return res; }
int doit (int x) { return plus3 (x); }
int main (void) { return doit (8); }
1 _plus3:
2   pushl   %ebp           // save ebp
3   movl   %esp, %ebp     // ebp points to current frame
4   pushl   %eax           // save register eax
5   movl   8(%ebp), %eax   // x → eax
6   addl   $3, %eax       // eax + 3 → esi
7   movl   %eax, %eax     // (eax now has return value)
8   popl   %eax           // restore esi
9   movl   %ebp, %esp     // pop local variables
10  popl   %ebp           // restore ebp
11  ret
12 _doit:
13  pushl   %ebp
14  movl   %esp, %ebp
15  pushl   8(%ebp)
16  call   _plus3
17  movl   %ebp, %esp
18  popl   %ebp
19  ret
20 _main:
21  pushl   %ebp
22  movl   %esp, %ebp
23  pushl   $8
24  call   _doit
25  movl   %ebp, %esp
26  popl   %ebp
27  ret

```



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## Accessing Global Variables

- Global (static) variables and constants not stack allocated
- Have fixed addresses throughout the execution of the program
  - Compile-time known addresses (relative to the base address where program is loaded)
  - Hence, can directly refer to these addresses using symbolic names in the generated assembly code
- Example: string constants
  - The string will be allocated in the static area of the program
  - Here, "str" is a label representing the address of the string
  - Can use `$str` as a constant in other instructions:
 

```
push $str
```

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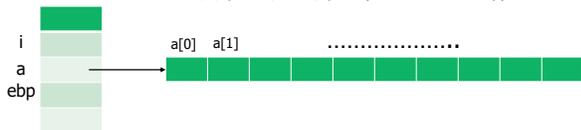
## Accessing Array Data

- Array accesses in language with dynamic array size
  - access `a[i]` requires:
    - Compute address of element: `a + i * size`
    - Access memory at that address
  - Can use indexed memory accesses to compute addresses
  - Example: assume size of array elements is 4 bytes, and local variables `a`, `i` (offsets `-4`, `-8`)

```

a[i] = 1   movl -4(%ebp), %ebx   (load a)
          movl -8(%ebp), %ecx  (load i)
          movl $1, (%ebx,%ecx,4) (store into the heap)

```



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## Control-Flow

- Label instructions
  - Simply translated as labels in the assembly code
  - E.g., `label2: movl $2, %ebx`
- Unconditional jumps:
  - Use jump instruction, with a label argument
  - E.g., `jmp label2`
- Conditional jumps:
  - Translate conditional jumps using `test/cmp` instructions:
    - E.g., `tjmpl b L → cmpl %ecx, $0`  
`jnz L`
  - where `%ecx` hold the value of `b`, and we assume booleans are represented as 0=false, 1=true

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## Run-time Checks

- Run-time checks:
  - Check if array/object references are non-null
  - Check if array index is within bounds
- Example: array bounds checks:
  - if `v` holds the address of an array, insert array bounds checking code for `v` before each load (`...=v[i]`) or store (`v[i] = ...`)
  - Assume array length is stored just before array elements:

```
cmp $0, -12(%ebp)      (compare i to 0)
jl ArrayBoundsError   (test lower bound)
mov -8(%ebp), %ecx     (load v into %ecx)
mov -4(%ecx), %ecx     (load array length into %ecx)
cmp -12(%ebp), %ecx   (compare i to array length)
jle ArrayBoundsError  (test upper bound)
...

```

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## X86 Assembly Syntax

- Two different notations for assembly syntax:
  - AT&T syntax and Intel syntax
  - In the examples: AT&T (gcc) syntax
- Summary of differences:

Order of operands	op a, b : b is destination	op a, b : a is destination
Memory addressing	disp(base,offset,scale)	[base + offset*scale + disp]
Size of memory operands	instruction suffixes (b,w,l) (e.g., movb, movw, movl)	operand prefixes (byte ptr, word ptr, dword ptr)
Registers	%eax, %ebx, etc.	eax, ebx, etc.
Constants	\$4, \$foo, etc	4, foo, etc

AT&T

Intel

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## Tutorial

- This website has a simple example with comments

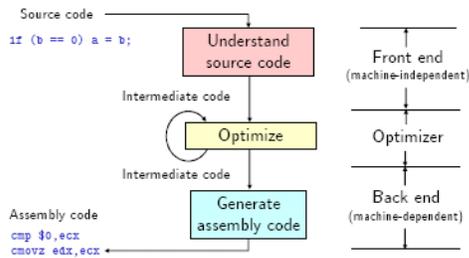
<https://eli.thegreenplace.net/2011/02/04/where-the-top-of-the-stack-is-on-x86/>

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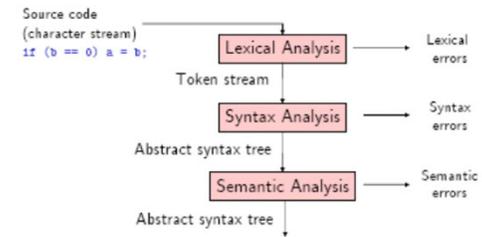
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## Optimizing compiler structure



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## Front-end structure



Syntax analysis is also known as parsing.

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## What Next?

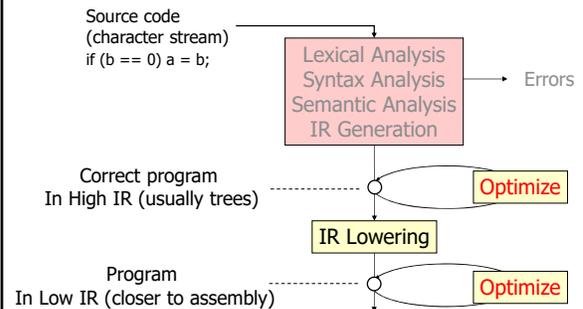
- At this point we could generate assembly code
- Better:
  - Optimize the program first
  - Then generate code
- If optimization performed at the IR level, then they apply to all target machines

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## Optimizations



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## When to Apply Optimizations

High IR

Function inlining  
Function cloning  
Constant folding  
Constant propagation  
Value numbering  
Dead code elimination  
Loop-invariant code motion  
Common sub-expression elimination  
Strength reduction  
Constant folding & propagation  
Branch prediction/optimization  
Loop unrolling  
Register allocation  
Cache optimization

Low IR

Assembly

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## What are Optimizations?

- **Optimizations** = code transformations that *improve* the program
- **Different kinds**
  - space optimizations: improve (reduce) memory use
  - time optimizations: improve (reduce) execution time
- Code transformations must be **safe!**
  - They must preserve the meaning of the program

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## Why Optimize?

- Programmers don't always write optimal code – can recognize ways to improve code (e.g., avoid recomputing same expression)
- High-level language may make some optimizations inconvenient or impossible to express

```
a[ i ][ j ] = a[ i ][ j ] + 1;
```

- High-level unoptimized code may be more readable: cleaner, modular

```
int square(x) { return x*x; }
```

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## Where to Optimize?

- Usual goal: improve time performance
- Problem: many optimizations trade off space versus time
- Example: loop unrolling
  - Increases code space, speeds up one loop
  - Frequently executed code with long loops: space/time tradeoff is generally a win
  - Infrequently executed code: may want to optimize code space at expense of time
- Want to optimize program hot spots

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## Many Possible Optimizations

- Many ways to optimize a program
- Some of the most common optimizations:
  - Function Inlining
  - Function Cloning
  - Constant folding
  - Constant propagation
  - Dead code elimination
  - Loop-invariant code motion
  - Common sub-expression elimination
  - Strength reduction
  - Branch prediction/optimization
  - Loop unrolling

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## Constant Propagation

- If value of variable is known to be a constant, replace use of variable with constant
- Example:

```
n = 10
c = 2
for (i=0; i<n; i++) { s = s + i*c; }
```
- Replace n, c:

```
for (i=0; i<10; i++) { s = s + i*2; }
```
- Each variable must be replaced only when it has known constant value:
  - Forward from a constant assignment
  - Until next assignment of the variable

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## Constant Folding

- Evaluate an expression if operands are known at compile time (i.e., they are constants)
- Example:

```
x = 1.1 * 2;  ⇒  x = 2.2;
```
- Performed at every stage of compilation
  - Constants created by translations or optimizations

```
int x = a[2] ⇒ t1 = 2*4
              t2 = a + t1
              x = *t2
```

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## Algebraic Simplification

- More general form of constant folding: take advantage of usual simplification rules

```
a * 1 ⇒ a      a * 0 ⇒ 0
a / 1 ⇒ a      a + 0 ⇒ a
b || false ⇒ b  b && true ⇒ b
```
- Repeatedly apply the above rules

```
(y*1+0)/1 ⇒ y*1+0 ⇒ y*1 ⇒ y
```
- Must be careful with floating point!

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## Copy Propagation

- After assignment  $x = y$ , replace uses of  $x$  with  $y$
- Replace until  $x$  is assigned again

```
x = y;           x = y;
if (x > 1)      => if (y > 1)
  s = x * f(x - 1);  s = y * f(y - 1);
```

- What if there was an assignment  $y = z$  before?
  - Transitively apply replacements

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## Common Subexpression Elimination

- If program computes same expression multiple time, can reuse the computed value

- Example:

```
a = b+c;         a = b+c;
c = b+c;         => c = a;
d = b+c;         d = b+c;
```

- Common subexpressions also occur in low-level code in address calculations for array accesses:

```
a[i] = b[i] + 1;
```

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## Unreachable Code Elimination

- Eliminate code that is never executed
- Example:

```
#define debug false
s = 1;           => s = 1;
if (debug)
  print("state = ", s);
```

- Unreachable code may not be obvious in low IR (or in high-level languages with unstructured "goto" statements)

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## Unreachable Code Elimination

- Unreachable code in while/if statements when:
  - Loop condition is always false (loop never executed)
  - Condition of an if statement is always true or always false (only one branch executed)

```
if (false) S           => ;
if (true) S else S'    => S
if (false) S else S'   => S'
while (false) S        => ;
while (2>3) S          => ;
```

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## Dead Code Elimination

- If effect of a statement is never observed, eliminate the statement

```
x = y+1;  
y = 1;           ⇒   y = 1;  
x = 2*z;         x = 2*z;
```

- Variable is *dead* if value is never used after definition
- Eliminate assignments to dead variables
- Other optimizations may create dead code

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## Loop Optimizations

- Program hot spots are usually loops (exceptions: OS kernels, compilers)
- Most execution time in most programs is spent in loops: 90/10 is typical
- Loop optimizations are important, effective, and numerous

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## Loop-Invariant Code Motion

- If result of a statement or expression does not change during loop, and it has no externally-visible side-effect (!), can **hoist** its computation out of the loop
- Often useful for array element addressing computations – invariant code not visible at source level
- Requires analysis to identify loop-invariant expressions

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## Code Motion Example

- Identify invariant expression:

```
for(i=0; i<n; i++)  
  a[i] = a[i] + (x*x)/(y*y);
```

- Hoist the expression out of the loop:

```
c = (x*x)/(y*y);  
for(i=0; i<n; i++)  
  a[i] = a[i] + c;
```

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## Another Example

- Can also hoist statements out of loops
- Assume x not updated in the loop body:

```
...  
while (...) {  
    y = x*x;  
    ...  
}  
...  
⇒  
y = x*x;  
while (...) {  
    ...  
}  
...
```

- ... Is it safe?

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## Strength Reduction

- Replaces expensive operations (multiplies, divides) by cheap ones (adds, subtracts)
- Strength reduction more effective in loops and useful for address arithmetic
- **Induction variable** = loop variable whose value is depends linearly on the iteration number
- Apply strength reduction to induction variables

```
s = 0;  
for (i = 0; i < n; i++) {  
    v = 4*i;  
    s = s + v;  
}  
⇒  
s = 0; v = -4;  
for (i = 0; i < n; i++) {  
    v = v+4;  
    s = s + v;  
}
```

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## Strength Reduction

- Can apply strength reduction to computation other than induction variables:

```
x * 2    ⇒ x + x  
i * 2c ⇒ i << c  
i / 2c ⇒ i >> c
```

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## Induction Variable Elimination

- If there are multiple induction variables in a loop, can eliminate the ones that are used only in the test condition
- Need to rewrite test using the other induction variables
- Usually applied after strength reduction

```
s = 0; v = -4;  
for (i = 0; i < n; i++) {  
    v = v+4;  
    s = s + v;  
}  
⇒  
s = 0; v = -4;  
for (; v < (4*n-4);) {  
    v = v+4;  
    s = s + v;  
}
```

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## Loop Unrolling

- Execute loop body multiple times at each iteration
- Example:  

```
for (i = 0; i < n; i++) { S }
```
- Unroll loop four times:  

```
for (i = 0; i < n-3; i+=4) { S; S; S; S; }  
for (      ; i < n; i++) S;
```
- Gets rid of  $\frac{3}{4}$  of conditional branches!
- Space-time tradeoff: program size increases

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## Function Inlining

- Replace a function call with the body of the function:

```
int g(int x) { return f(x)-1; }  
int f(int n) { int b=1; while (n--) { b = 2*b }; return b; }
```

```
int g(int x) { int r;  
              int n = x;  
              { int b = 1; while (n--) { b = 2*b }; r = b }  
              return r - 1; }
```

- Can inline methods, but more difficult
- ... how about recursive procedures?

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## Function Cloning

- Create specialized versions of functions that are called from different call sites with different arguments

```
void f(int x[], int n, int m) {  
    for(int i=0; i<n; i++) { x[i] = x[i] + i*m; }  
}
```

- For a call `f(a, 10, 1)`, create a specialized version of f:

```
void f1(int x[]) {  
    for(int i=0; i<10; i++) { x[i] = x[i] + i; }  
}
```

- For another call `f(b, p, 0)`, create another version f2(...)

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## When to Apply Optimizations

High IR

Low IR

Assembly

Function inlining  
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Strength reduction  
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Register allocation  
Cache optimization

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## Summary

- Many useful optimizations that can transform code to make it faster
- Whole is greater than sum of parts: optimizations should be applied together, sometimes more than once, at different levels