Overview

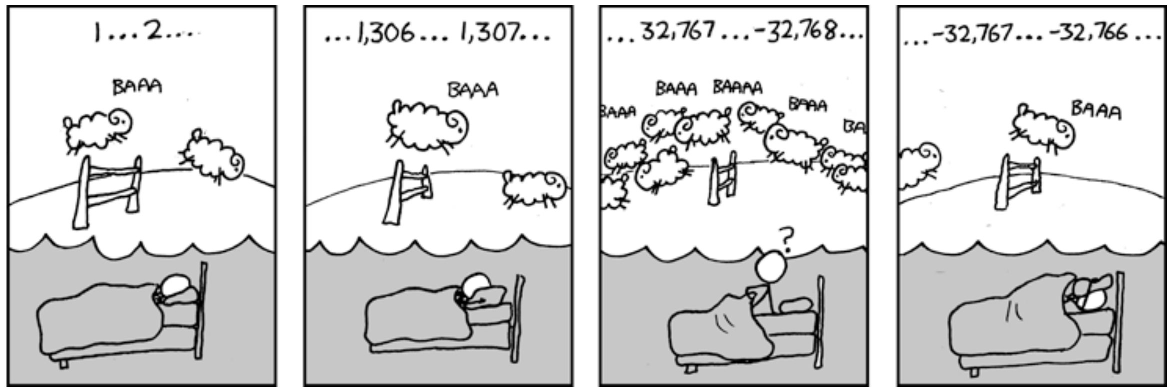
- Course theme
- Five realities
- How the course fits into the CS/ECE curriculum
- Academic integrity

Course Theme: Abstraction Is Good But Don't Forget Reality

- **Most CS and CE courses emphasize abstraction**
  - Abstract data types
  - Asymptotic analysis
- **These abstractions have limits**
  - Especially in the presence of bugs
  - Need to understand details of underlying implementations
- **Useful outcomes from taking 213**
  - Become more effective programmers
    - Able to find and eliminate bugs efficiently
    - Able to understand and tune for program performance
  - Prepare for later "systems" classes in CS & ECE
    - Compilers, Operating Systems, Networks, Computer Architecture, Embedded Systems, Storage Systems, etc.

Great Reality #1:
Ints are not Integers, Floats are not Reals

- **Example 1: Is $x^2 \geq 0$?**
  - Float's: Yes!



  - Int's:
    - 40000 * 40000 ➙ 1600000000
    - 50000 * 50000 ➙ ??
- **Example 2: Is (x + y) + z = x + (y + z)?**
  - Unsigned & Signed Int's: Yes!
  - Float's:
    - (1e20 + -1e20) + 3.14 --> 3.14
    - 1e20 + (-1e20 + 3.14) --> ??

Source: xkcd.com/571

Computer Arithmetic

- **Does not generate random values**
  - Arithmetic operations have important mathematical properties
- **Cannot assume all "usual" mathematical properties**
  - Due to finiteness of representations
  - Integer operations satisfy "ring" properties
    - Commutativity, associativity, distributivity
  - Floating point operations satisfy "ordering" properties
    - Monotonicity, values of signs
- **Observation**
  - Need to understand which abstractions apply in which contexts
  - Important issues for compiler writers and serious application programmers

Great Reality #2: You've Got to Know Assembly

- **Chances are, you'll never write programs in assembly**
  - Compilers are much better & more patient than you are
- **But: Understanding assembly is key to machine-level execution model**
  - Behavior of programs in presence of bugs
    - High-level language models break down
  - Tuning program performance
    - Understand optimizations done / not done by the compiler
    - Understanding sources of program inefficiency
  - Implementing system software
    - Compiler has machine code as target
    - Operating systems must manage process state
  - Creating / fighting malware
    - x86 assembly is the language of choice!

Great Reality #3: Memory Matters

Random Access Memory Is an Unphysical Abstraction

- **Memory is not unbounded**
  - It must be allocated and managed
  - Many applications are memory dominated
- **Memory referencing bugs especially pernicious**
  - Effects are distant in both time and space
- **Memory performance is not uniform**
  - Cache and virtual memory effects can greatly affect program performance
  - Adapting program to characteristics of memory system can lead to major speed improvements

Memory Referencing Bug Example

```
typedef struct {
  int a[2];
  double d;
} struct_t;

double fun(int i) {
  volatile struct_t s;
  s.d = 3.14;
  s.a[i] = 1073741824; /* Possibly out of bounds */
  return s.d;
}
```

```
fun(0)  →  3.14
fun(1)  →  3.14
fun(2)  →  3.1399998664856
fun(3)  →  2.00000061035156
fun(4)  →  3.14
fun(6)  →  Segmentation fault
```

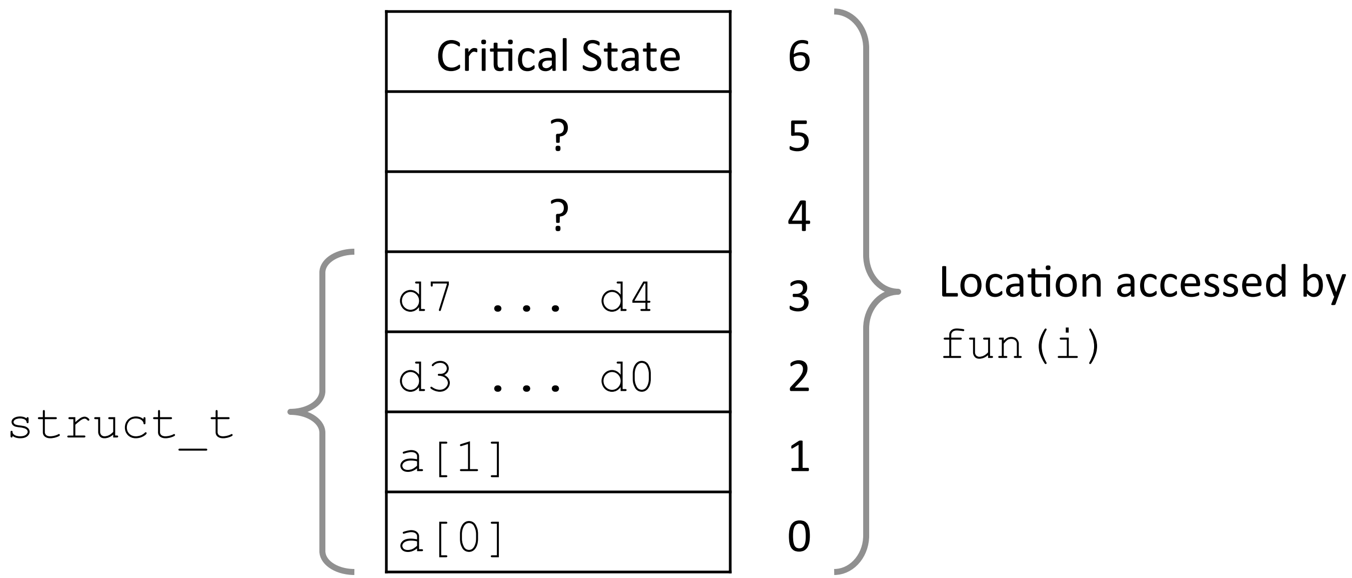
- Result is system specific

Memory Referencing Bug Example

```
typedef struct {
  int a[2];
  double d;
} struct_t;
```

```
fun(0)  ➙   3.14
fun(1)  ➙   3.14
fun(2)  ➙   3.1399998664856
fun(3)  ➙   2.00000061035156
fun(4)  ➙   3.14
fun(6)  ➙   Segmentation fault
```

Explanation:



Memory Referencing Errors

- **C and C++ do not provide any memory protection**
  - Out of bounds array references
  - Invalid pointer values
  - Abuses of malloc/free
- **Can lead to nasty bugs**
  - Whether or not bug has any effect depends on system and compiler
  - Action at a distance
    - Corrupted object logically unrelated to one being accessed
    - Effect of bug may be first observed long after it is generated
- **How can I deal with this?**
  - Program in Java, Ruby, Python, ML, …
  - Understand what possible interactions may occur
  - Use or develop tools to detect referencing errors (e.g. Valgrind)

Great Reality #4: There's more to performance than asymptotic complexity

- **Constant factors matter too!**
- **And even exact op count does not predict performance**
  - Easily see 10:1 performance range depending on how code written
  - Must optimize at multiple levels: algorithm, data representations, procedures, and loops
- **Must understand system to optimize performance**
  - How programs compiled and executed
  - How to measure program performance and identify bottlenecks
  - How to improve performance without destroying code modularity and generality

Memory System Performance Example

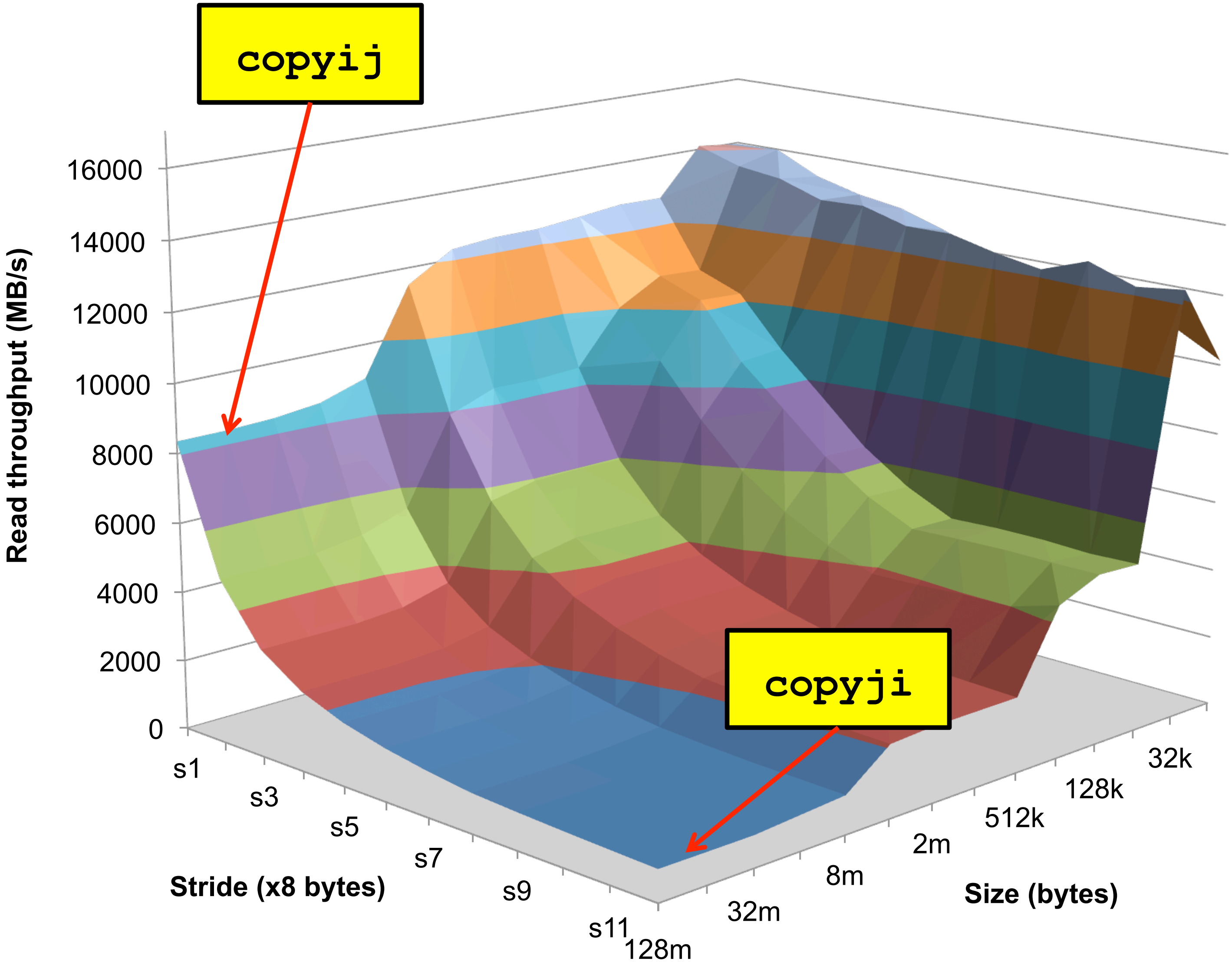
```
void copyij(int src[2048][2048],
            int dst[2048][2048])
{
  int i,j;
  for (i = 0; i < 2048; i++)
    for (j = 0; j < 2048; j++)
      dst[i][j] = src[i][j];
}
```

```
void copyji(int src[2048][2048],
            int dst[2048][2048])
{
  int i,j;
  for (j = 0; j < 2048; j++)
    for (i = 0; i < 2048; i++)
      dst[i][j] = src[i][j];
}
```

4.3ms 2.0 GHz Intel Core i7 Haswell 81.8ms

- Hierarchical memory organization
- Performance depends on access patterns
  - Including how step through multi-dimensional array

Why The Performance Differs

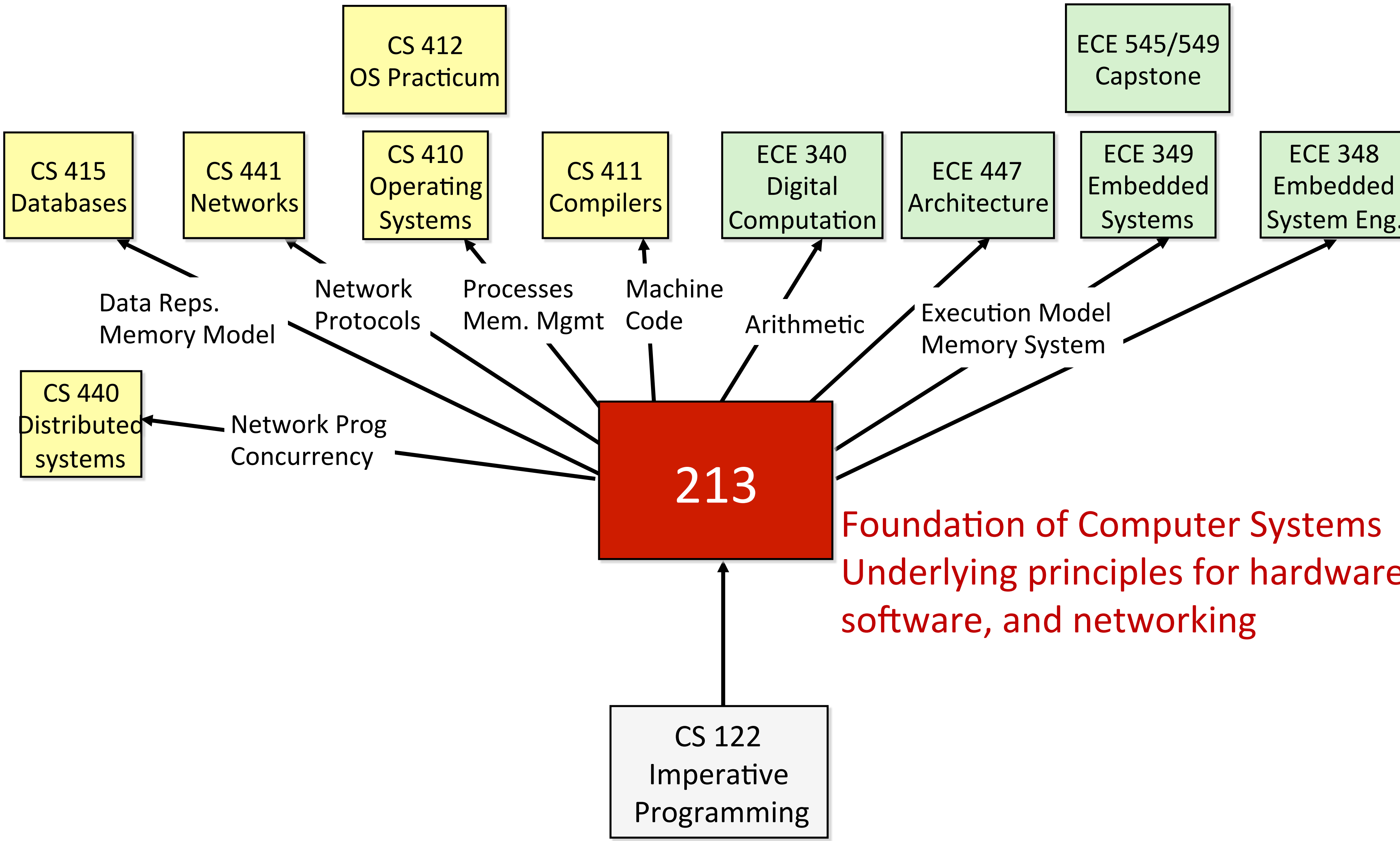


Great Reality #5: Computers do more than execute programs

- **They need to get data in and out**
  - I/O system critical to program reliability and performance

- **They communicate with each other over networks**
  - Many system-level issues arise in presence of network
    - Concurrent operations by autonomous processes
    - Coping with unreliable media
    - Cross platform compatibility
    - Complex performance issues

Role within CS/ECE Curriculum



Foundation of Computer Systems
Underlying principles for hardware, software, and networking

Architektury systemów komputerowych

Wykład 1: Struktura programu

Krystian Bacławski

Instytut Informatyki
Uniwersytet Wrocławski

27 lutego 2020

Kod trójkowy

Zastosowanie

Kod trójkowy (ang. *three-address code*) to postać pośrednia stosowana przez kompilatory przy translacji z języka wysokiego poziomu do asemblera. W większości przypadków można ją bezpośrednio przetłumaczyć na kod maszynowy procesora.

Kod wyrażony w kodzie trójkowym składa się z **adresów** i **instrukcji**.

Czego nie ma w TAC?

- wysokopoziomowych instrukcji sterujących (`for`, `while`, `switch`, ...)
- typów złożonych (`struct`, `union`, `enum`, ...)
- procedur
- zasięgów leksykalnych

Adresy

- stała,
- nazwa – zmiennej, funkcji, etykiety,
- zmienna tymczasowa.

Instrukcje

- `x := y` *binop* `z` – gdzie *binop* jest operatorem binarnym
- `x :=` *unop* `z` – gdzie *unop* jest operatorem unarnym
- `x := y` – kopiowanie danej
- `goto L` – skok bezwarunkowy do etykiety `L`
- `if b goto L` – skok do etykiety `L`, jeśli `b` jest prawdą
- `if x` *relop* `y goto L` – skok do `L`, jeśli `x` jest w relacji *relop* do `y`
- `x := &y` – wyznaczenie wkaźnika do zmiennej (referencja)
- `x := *y, *x := y` – dereferencja wskaźnika
- `param x` – użyj `x` jako parametru procedury
- `call p, n` – wołanie procedury `p` z `n` argumentami
- `return n` – zwróć `n` z procedury

binop	∈ { +, -, *, /, ..., &&, ||, ..., &, |, ^, ... }
unop	∈ { -, !, ~ ...}
relop	∈ { ==, !=, <=, <, ...}

Więcej na ten temat w §6.2 Compilers: Principles, Techniques & Tools; Aho, Lam, Sethi, Ullman.

Przykład 1

Oblicz jedno rozwiązanie równania kwadratowego

```
x = (-b + sqrt(b*b - 4*a*c)) / (2*a)
```

```
t1 := b * b
t2 := 4 * a
t3 := t2 * c
t4 := t1 - t3
param t4
t5 := call sqrt,1
t6 := - b
t7 := t5 + t6
t8 := 2 * a
x  := t7 / t8
```

Przykład 2

Wskaźniki w TAC

Aby uprościć zapis możemy wprowadzić następujące dwie instrukcje:

- `x := a[i]` jest tym samym co `t := a + i; x := *t`
- `a[i] := x` jest tym samym co `t := a + i; *t := x`

Arytmetyka na wskaźnikach w TAC jest beztypowa!

`a[i]` nie oznacza dostępu do `i`-tego elementu tablicy `a`, tylko do adresu `a + i`

Zachowujemy typ wskaźnika, by odwołać się do słowa określonego rozmiaru!

Znajdź element niemniejszy niż `v`

```
uint32_t *a;
...
int i = 0;
while (a[i] < v) {
  i++;
}
```

```
   i  := 0
L: t1 := i * 4
   t2 := a[t1]
   if t2 >= v goto E
   i  := i + 1
   goto L
E:
```

Jak kompilator języka C reprezentuje program w pamięci?

Graf przepływu sterowania

Graf skierowany reprezentujący wszystkie ścieżki programu, które można przejść w trakcie jego wykonania. Wierzchołkami są **bloki podstawowe**.

Blok podstawowy

Sekwencja instrukcji za wyjątkiem skoków, kończąca się instrukcją skoku. Instrukcje w bloku podstawowym zawsze zaczynamy wykonywać od pierwszej.

Graf przepływu sterowania

```
FOR I := 1 TO n - 1 DO
  FOR J := 1 TO I DO
    IF A[J] > A[J+1] THEN
    BEGIN
      Temp := A[J]
      A[J] := A[J + 1]
      A[J + 1] := Temp
    END
  DONE
DONE
```

```
        I := 1                     ; <<B1>>
        goto ITest
ILoop:  J := 1                     ; <<B2>>
        goto JTest
JLoop:  t1 := 4 * J                ; <<B3>>
        t2 := A[t1]                ; A[J]
        t3 := J + 1
        t4 := 4 * t3
        t5 := A[t4]                ; A[J + 1]
        if t2 <= t5 goto JPlus
        t6 := 4 * J                ; <<B4>>
        Temp := A[t6]              ; Temp := A[J]
        t7 := J + 1
        t8 := 4 * t7
        t9 := A[t8]                ; A[J + 1]
        t10 := 4 * J
        A[t10] := t9               ; A[J] := A[J + 1]
        t11 := J + 1
        t12 := 4 * t11
        A[t12] := Temp             ; A [J + 1] := Temp
JPlus:  J := J + 1                 ; <<B5>>
JTest:  if J <= I goto JLoop       ; <<B6>>
IPlus:  I := I + 1                 ; <<B7>>
ITest:  t13 := n - 1
        if I <= t13 goto ILoop     ; <<B8>>
```

Źródło: Optimization: Introduction and Control Flow Analysis

Bits, Bytes and Integers – Part 1

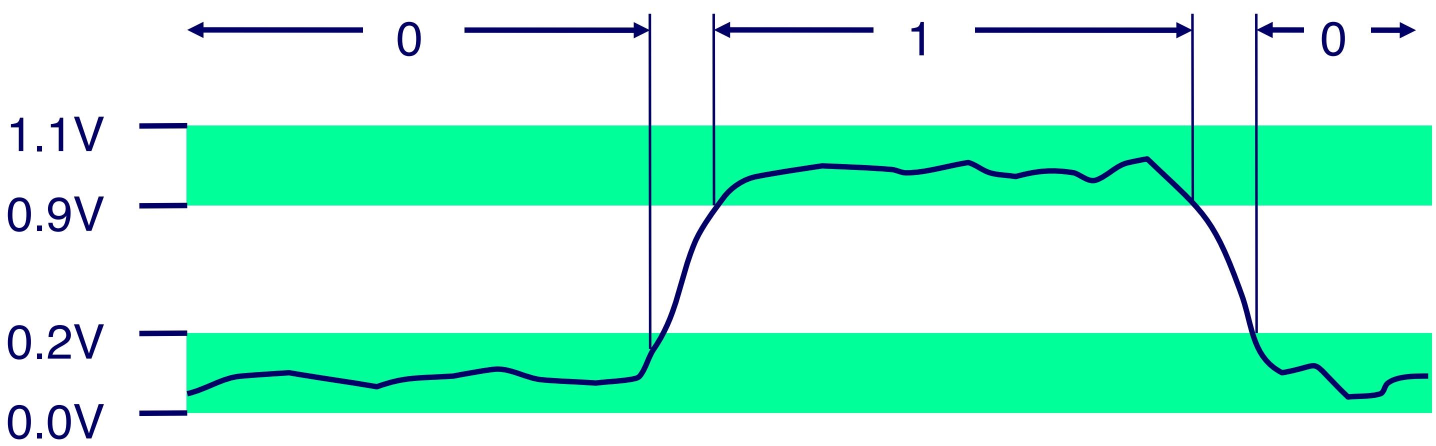
15-213/18-213/14-513/15-513: Introduction to Computer Systems
2nd Lecture, Jan. 17, 2019

Today: Bits, Bytes, and Integers

- **Representing information as bits**
- Bit-level manipulations
- Integers
  - Representation: unsigned and signed
  - Conversion, casting
  - Expanding, truncating
  - Addition, negation, multiplication, shifting
  - Summary
- Representations in memory, pointers, strings

Everything is bits

- **Each bit is 0 or 1**
- **By encoding/interpreting sets of bits in various ways**
  - Computers determine what to do (instructions)
  - … and represent and manipulate numbers, sets, strings, etc…
- **Why bits? Electronic Implementation**
  - Easy to store with bistable elements
  - Reliably transmitted on noisy and inaccurate wires



For example, can count in binary

- **Base 2 Number Representation**
  - Represent 15213_{10} as 11101101101101_2
  - Represent 1.20_{10} as $1.0011001100110011[0011]..._2$
  - Represent 1.5213×10^4 as $1.1101101101101_2 \times 2^{13}$

Encoding Byte Values

- **Byte = 8 bits**
  - Binary 00000000_2 to 11111111_2
  - Decimal: 0_{10} to 255_{10}
  - Hexadecimal 00_{16} to FF_{16}
    - Base 16 number representation
    - Use characters '0' to '9' and 'A' to 'F'
    - Write $FA1D37B_{16}$ in C as
      - 0xFA1D37B
      - 0xfa1d37b

Hex	Decimal	Binary
0	0	0000
1	1	0001
2	2	0010
3	3	0011
4	4	0100
5	5	0101
6	6	0110
7	7	0111
8	8	1000
9	9	1001
A	10	1010
B	11	1011
C	12	1100
D	13	1101
E	14	1110
F	15	1111

$$15213: \underbrace{0011}_{3}\ \underbrace{1011}_{B}\ \underbrace{0110}_{6}\ \underbrace{1101}_{D}$$

Example Data Representations

C Data Type	Typical 32-bit	Typical 64-bit	x86-64
`char`	1	1	1
`short`	2	2	2
`int`	4	4	4
`long`	4	8	8
`float`	4	4	4
`double`	8	8	8
pointer	4	8	8

Today: Bits, Bytes, and Integers

- Representing information as bits
- **Bit-level manipulations**
- Integers
  - Representation: unsigned and signed
  - Conversion, casting
  - Expanding, truncating
  - Addition, negation, multiplication, shifting
  - Summary
- Representations in memory, pointers, strings

Boolean Algebra

- **Developed by George Boole in 19th Century**
  - Algebraic representation of logic
    - Encode "True" as 1 and "False" as 0

And

- **A&B = 1 when both A=1 and B=1**

&	0	1
0	0	0
1	0	1

Or

- **A|B = 1 when either A=1 or B=1**

|	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	1

Not

- **~A = 1 when A=0**

~	
0	1
1	0

Exclusive-Or (Xor)

- **A^B = 1 when either A=1 or B=1, but not both**

^	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	0

General Boolean Algebras

- **Operate on Bit Vectors**
  - Operations applied bitwise

```
   01101001     01101001     01101001
 & 01010101   | 01010101   ^ 01010101   ~ 01010101
   01000001     01111101     00111100     10101010
```

- **All of the Properties of Boolean Algebra Apply**

Example: Representing & Manipulating Sets

- **Representation**
  - Width w bit vector represents subsets of {0, …, w–1}
  - $a_j = 1$ if $j \in A$
    - 01101001 { 0, 3, 5, 6 }
    - *76543210*
    - 01010101 { 0, 2, 4, 6 }
    - *76543210*
- **Operations**
  - & Intersection 01000001 { 0, 6 }
  - | Union 01111101 { 0, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 }
  - ^ Symmetric difference 00111100 { 2, 3, 4, 5 }
  - ~ Complement 10101010 { 1, 3, 5, 7 }

Bit-Level Operations in C

- **Operations &, |, ~, ^ Available in C**
  - Apply to any “integral” data type
    - long, int, short, char, unsigned
  - View arguments as bit vectors
  - Arguments applied bit-wise
- **Examples (Char data type)**
  - ~0x41 →
  - ~0x00 →
  - 0x69 & 0x55 →
  - 0x69 | 0x55 →

Hex	Decimal	Binary
0	0	0000
1	1	0001
2	2	0010
3	3	0011
4	4	0100
5	5	0101
6	6	0110
7	7	0111
8	8	1000
9	9	1001
A	10	1010
B	11	1011
C	12	1100
D	13	1101
E	14	1110
F	15	1111

Bit-Level Operations in C

- **Operations &, |, ~, ^ Available in C**
  - Apply to any "integral" data type
    - long, int, short, char, unsigned
  - View arguments as bit vectors
  - Arguments applied bit-wise
- **Examples (Char data type)**
  - ~0x41 → 0xBE
    - $\sim 0100\ 0001_2 \rightarrow 1011\ 1110_2$
  - ~0x00 → 0xFF
    - $\sim 0000\ 0000_2 \rightarrow 1111\ 1111_2$
  - 0x69 & 0x55 → 0x41
    - $0110\ 1001_2\ \&\ 0101\ 0101_2 \rightarrow 0100\ 0001_2$
  - 0x69 | 0x55 → 0x7D
    - $0110\ 1001_2 \mid 0101\ 0101_2 \rightarrow 0111\ 1101_2$

Hex	Decimal	Binary
0	0	0000
1	1	0001
2	2	0010
3	3	0011
4	4	0100
5	5	0101
6	6	0110
7	7	0111
8	8	1000
9	9	1001
A	10	1010
B	11	1011
C	12	1100
D	13	1101
E	14	1110
F	15	1111

Contrast: Logic Operations in C

- **Contrast to Bit-Level Operators**
  - **Logic Operations: &&, ||, !**
    - View 0 as "False"
    - Anything nonzero as "True"
    - Always return 0 or 1
    - Early termination

- **Examples (char data type)**
  - !0x41 → 0x00
  - !0x00 → 0x01
  - !!0x41→ 0x01
  - 0x69 && 0x55 → 0x01
  - 0x69 || 0x55 → 0x01
  - p && *p (avoids null pointer access)

Watch out for && vs. & (and || vs. |)… one of the more common oopsies in C programming

Shift Operations

- **Left Shift: `x << y`**
  - Shift bit-vector **x** left **y** positions
    - Throw away extra bits on left
    - Fill with 0's on right
- **Right Shift: `x >> y`**
  - Shift bit-vector **x** right **y** positions
    - Throw away extra bits on right
  - Logical shift
    - Fill with 0's on left
  - Arithmetic shift
    - Replicate most significant bit on left
- **Undefined Behavior**
  - Shift amount < 0 or ≥ word size

Argument x	01100010
<< 3	00010000
Log. >> 2	00011000
Arith. >> 2	00011000

Argument x	10100010
<< 3	00010000
Log. >> 2	00101000
Arith. >> 2	11101000

Today: Bits, Bytes, and Integers

- Representing information as bits
- Bit-level manipulations
- Integers
  - **Representation: unsigned and signed**
  - Conversion, casting
  - Expanding, truncating
  - Addition, negation, multiplication, shifting
  - Summary
- Representations in memory, pointers, strings
- Summary

Encoding Integers

Unsigned

$$B2U(X) = \sum_{i=0}^{w-1} x_i \cdot 2^i$$

Two's Complement

$$B2T(X) = -x_{w-1} \cdot 2^{w-1} + \sum_{i=0}^{w-2} x_i \cdot 2^i$$

Sign Bit

```
short int x =  15213;
short int y = -15213;
```

- **C does not mandate using two's complement**
  - But, most machines do, and we will assume so
- **C `short` 2 bytes long**

	Decimal	Hex	Binary
`x`	15213	`3B 6D`	`00111011 01101101`
`y`	-15213	`C4 93`	`11000100 10010011`

- **Sign Bit**
  - For 2's complement, most significant bit indicates sign
    - 0 for nonnegative
    - 1 for negative

Two-complement: Simple Example

	-16	8	4	2	1	
10 =	0	1	0	1	0	8+2 = 10

	-16	8	4	2	1	
-10 =	1	0	1	1	0	-16+4+2 = -10

Two-complement Encoding Example (Cont.)

```
x =      15213: 00111011 01101101
y =     -15213: 11000100 10010011
```

Weight	15213		-15213	
1	1	1	1	1
2	0	0	1	2
4	1	4	0	0
8	1	8	0	0
16	0	0	1	16
32	1	32	0	0
64	1	64	0	0
128	0	0	1	128
256	1	256	0	0
512	1	512	0	0
1024	0	0	1	1024
2048	1	2048	0	0
4096	1	4096	0	0
8192	1	8192	0	0
16384	0	0	1	16384
-32768	0	0	1	-32768
Sum		**15213**		**-15213**

Numeric Ranges

- **Unsigned Values**
  - *UMin* = 0
    000…0
  - *UMax* = $2^w - 1$
    111…1

- **Two's Complement Values**
  - *TMin* = -2^{w-1}
    100…0
  - *TMax* = $2^{w-1} - 1$
    011…1
  - Minus 1
    111…1

Values for $W = 16$

	Decimal	Hex	Binary
UMax	65535	FF FF	11111111 11111111
TMax	32767	7F FF	01111111 11111111
TMin	-32768	80 00	10000000 00000000
-1	-1	FF FF	11111111 11111111
0	0	00 00	00000000 00000000

Values for Different Word Sizes

	W			
	8	**16**	**32**	**64**
UMax	255	65,535	4,294,967,295	18,446,744,073,709,551,615
TMax	127	32,767	2,147,483,647	9,223,372,036,854,775,807
TMin	-128	-32,768	-2,147,483,648	-9,223,372,036,854,775,808

- **Observations**
  - $|TMin| = TMax + 1$
    - Asymmetric range
  - $UMax = 2 * TMax + 1$

- **C Programming**
  - #include <limits.h>
  - Declares constants, e.g.,
    - ULONG_MAX
    - LONG_MAX
    - LONG_MIN
  - Values platform specific

Unsigned & Signed Numeric Values

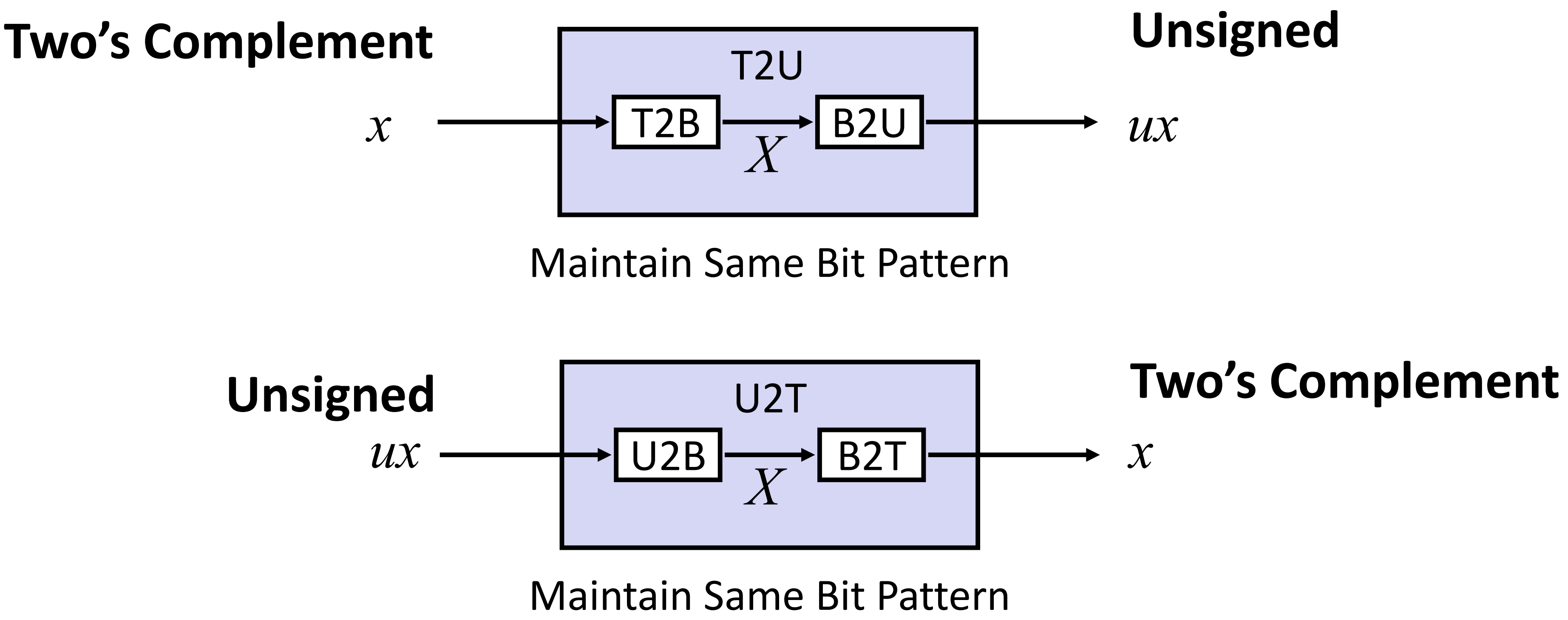
X	B2U(X)	B2T(X)
0000	0	0
0001	1	1
0010	2	2
0011	3	3
0100	4	4
0101	5	5
0110	6	6
0111	7	7
1000	8	–8
1001	9	–7
1010	10	–6
1011	11	–5
1100	12	–4
1101	13	–3
1110	14	–2
1111	15	–1

- **Equivalence**
  - Same encodings for nonnegative values
- **Uniqueness**
  - Every bit pattern represents unique integer value
  - Each representable integer has unique bit encoding
- **$\Rightarrow$ Can Invert Mappings**
  - U2B(x) = B2U^{-1}(x)
    - Bit pattern for unsigned integer
  - T2B(x) = B2T^{-1}(x)
    - Bit pattern for two's comp integer

Today: Bits, Bytes, and Integers

- Representing information as bits
- Bit-level manipulations
- Integers
  - Representation: unsigned and signed
  - **Conversion, casting**
  - Expanding, truncating
  - Addition, negation, multiplication, shifting
  - Summary
- Representations in memory, pointers, strings

Mapping Between Signed & Unsigned



- **Mappings between unsigned and two's complement numbers:**
  Keep bit representations and reinterpret

Mapping Signed ↔ Unsigned

Bits	Signed	Unsigned
0000	0	0
0001	1	1
0010	2	2
0011	3	3
0100	4	4
0101	5	5
0110	6	6
0111	7	7
1000	-8	8
1001	-7	9
1010	-6	10
1011	-5	11
1100	-4	12
1101	-3	13
1110	-2	14
1111	-1	15

→ T2U →

← U2T ←

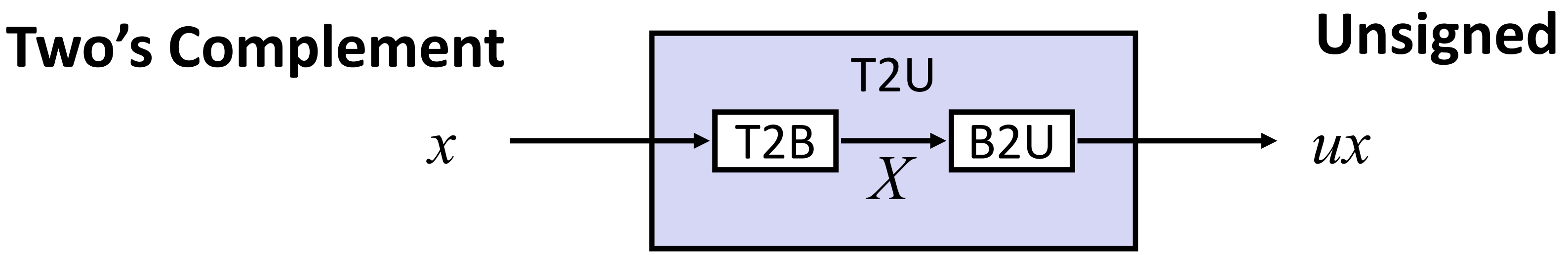
Mapping Signed ↔ Unsigned

Bits	Signed	Unsigned
0000	0	0
0001	1	1
0010	2	2
0011	3	3
0100	4	4
0101	5	5
0110	6	6
0111	7	7
1000	-8	8
1001	-7	9
1010	-6	10
1011	-5	11
1100	-4	12
1101	-3	13
1110	-2	14
1111	-1	15

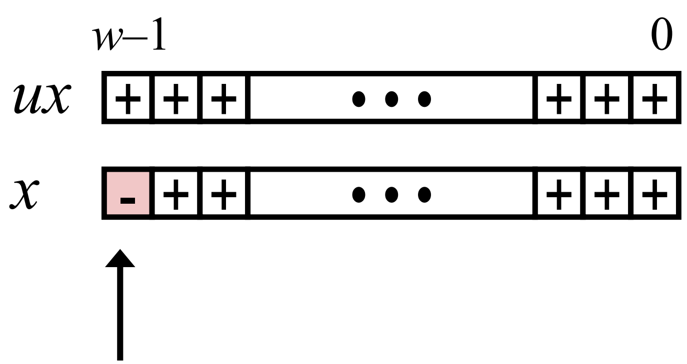
=

+/- 16

Relation between Signed & Unsigned



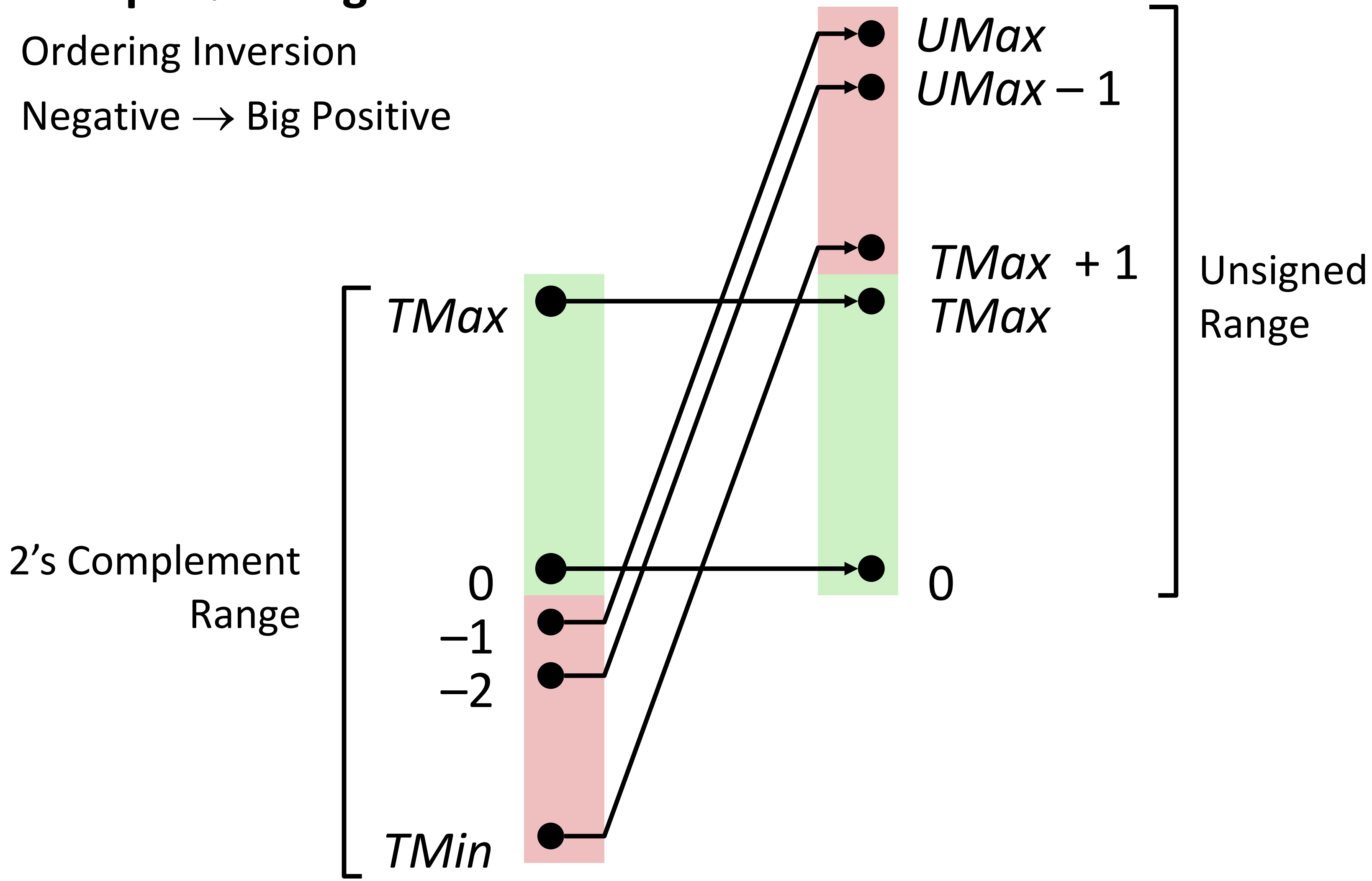
Maintain Same Bit Pattern



Large negative weight
becomes
Large positive weight

Conversion Visualized

- **2's Comp. → Unsigned**
  - Ordering Inversion
  - Negative → Big Positive



Signed vs. Unsigned in C

- **Constants**
  - By default are considered to be signed integers
  - Unsigned if have "U" as suffix

```
0U, 4294967259U
```

- **Casting**
  - Explicit casting between signed & unsigned same as U2T and T2U

```
int tx, ty;
unsigned ux, uy;
tx = (int) ux;
uy = (unsigned) ty;
```

  - Implicit casting also occurs via assignments and procedure calls

```
tx = ux;                    int fun(unsigned u);
uy = ty;                    uy = fun(tx);
```

Casting Surprises

- **Expression Evaluation**
  - If there is a mix of unsigned and signed in single expression, ***signed values implicitly cast to unsigned***
  - Including comparison operations **<, >, ==, <=, >=**
  - Examples for *W* = 32: **TMIN = -2,147,483,648 , TMAX = 2,147,483,647**

Constant$_1$	Constant$_2$	Relation	Evaluation
0	0U	==	unsigned
-1	0	<	signed
-1	0U	>	unsigned
2147483647	-2147483647-1	>	signed
2147483647U	-2147483647-1	<	unsigned
-1	-2	>	signed
(unsigned)-1	-2	>	unsigned
2147483647	2147483648U	<	unsigned
2147483647	(int) 2147483648U	>	signed

Summary
Casting Signed ↔ Unsigned: Basic Rules

- Bit pattern is maintained
- But reinterpreted
- Can have unexpected effects: adding or subtracting 2^w

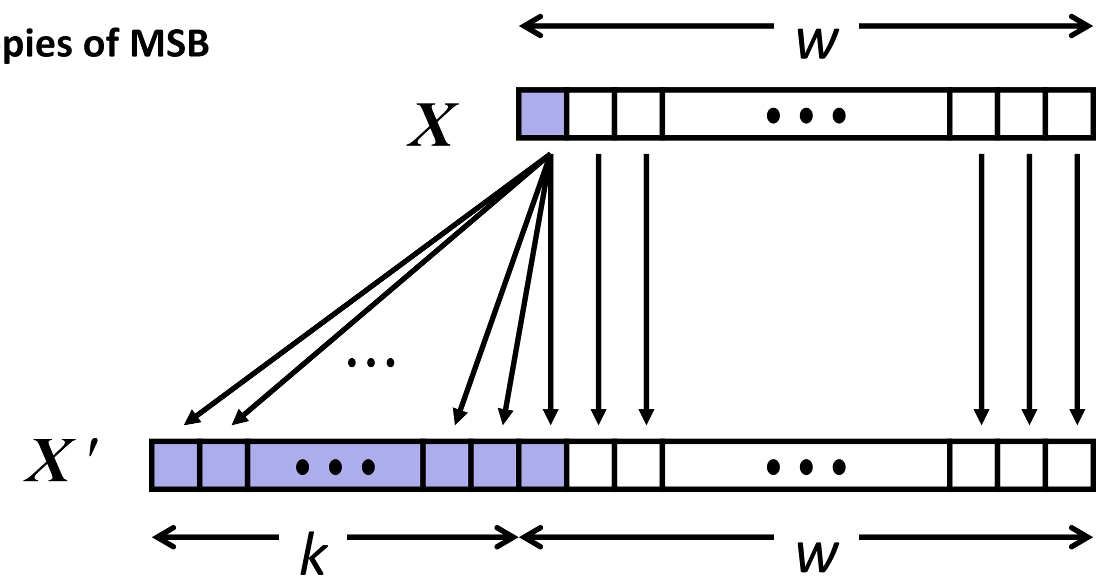
- **Expression containing signed and unsigned int**
  - `int` is cast to `unsigned`!!

Today: Bits, Bytes, and Integers

- Representing information as bits
- Bit-level manipulations
- **Integers**
  - Representation: unsigned and signed
  - Conversion, casting
  - **Expanding, truncating**
  - Addition, negation, multiplication, shifting
  - Summary
- Representations in memory, pointers, strings

Sign Extension

- **Task:**
  - Given w-bit signed integer x
  - Convert it to w+k-bit integer with same value
- **Rule:**
  - Make k copies of sign bit:
  - $X' = \underbrace{x_{w-1}, \ldots, x_{w-1}}_{k \text{ copies of MSB}}, x_{w-1}, x_{w-2}, \ldots, x_0$



Sign Extension: Simple Example

Positive number

	-16	8	4	2	1
10 =	0	1	0	1	0

	-32	16	8	4	2	1
10 =	0	0	1	0	1	0

Negative number

	-16	8	4	2	1
-10 =	1	0	1	1	0

	-32	16	8	4	2	1
-10 =	1	1	0	1	1	0

Larger Sign Extension Example

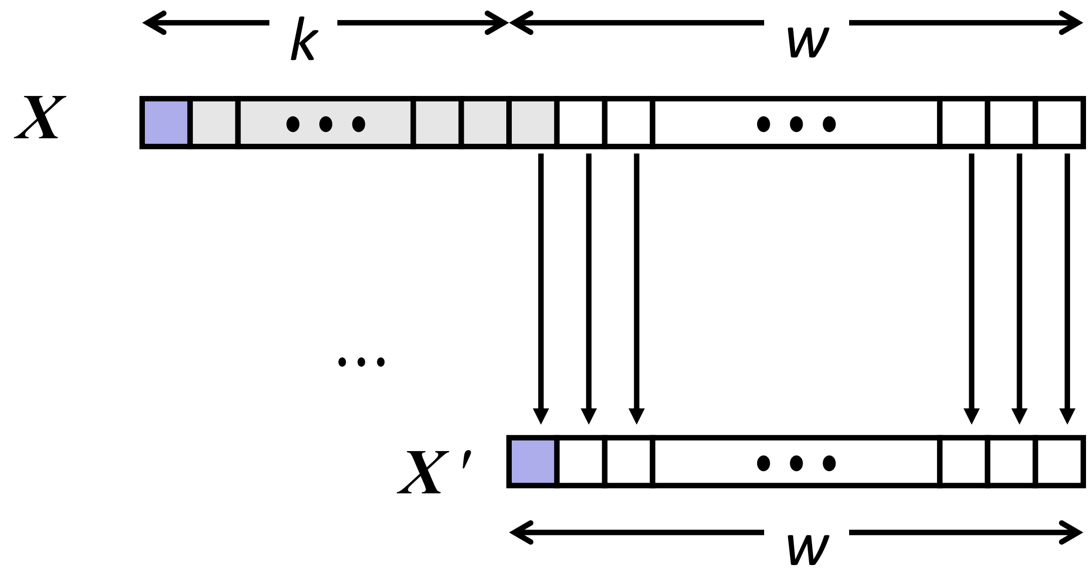
```
short int x =  15213;
int       ix = (int) x;
short int y = -15213;
int       iy = (int) y;
```

	Decimal	Hex	Binary
x	15213	3B 6D	00111011 01101101
ix	15213	00 00 3B 6D	00000000 00000000 00111011 01101101
y	-15213	C4 93	11000100 10010011
iy	-15213	FF FF C4 93	11111111 11111111 11000100 10010011

- Converting from smaller to larger integer data type
- C automatically performs sign extension

Truncation

- **Task:**
  - Given k+*w*-bit signed or unsigned integer *X*
  - Convert it to *w*-bit integer X'
    - (with same value for "small enough" X)
- **Rule:**
  - Drop top *k* bits:
  - $X' = x_{w-1}, x_{w-2}, \ldots, x_0$



Truncation: Simple Example

No sign change

2 =

-16	8	4	2	1
0	0	0	1	0

2 =

-8	4	2	1
0	0	1	0

`2 mod 16 = 2`

-6 =

-16	8	4	2	1
1	1	0	1	0

-6 =

-8	4	2	1
1	0	1	0

`-6 mod 16 = 26U mod 16 = 10U = -6`

Sign change

10 =

-16	8	4	2	1
0	1	0	1	0

-6 =

-8	4	2	1
1	0	1	0

`10 mod 16 = 10U mod 16 = 10U = -6`

-10 =

-16	8	4	2	1
1	0	1	1	0

6 =

-8	4	2	1
0	1	1	0

`-10 mod 16 = 22U mod 16 = 6U = 6`

Summary: Expanding, Truncating: Basic Rules

- **Expanding (e.g., short int to int)**
  - Unsigned: zeros added
  - Signed: sign extension
  - Both yield expected result

- **Truncating (e.g., unsigned to unsigned short)**
  - Unsigned/signed: bits are truncated
  - Result reinterpreted
  - Unsigned: mod operation
  - Signed: similar to mod
  - For small (in magnitude) numbers yields expected behavior

Summary of Today: Bits, Bytes, and Integers

- Representing information as bits
- Bit-level manipulations
- Integers
  - Representation: unsigned and signed
  - Conversion, casting
  - Expanding, truncating
  - Addition, negation, multiplication, shifting
- Representations in memory, pointers, strings
- Summary

Bits, Bytes, and Integers – Part 2

15-213: Introduction to Computer Systems
3rd Lecture, Jan. 22, 2019

Summary From Last Lecture

- Representing information as bits
- Bit-level manipulations
- Integers
  - Representation: unsigned and signed
  - Conversion, casting
  - Expanding, truncating
  - Addition, negation, multiplication, shifting
- Representations in memory, pointers, strings
- Summary

Encoding Integers

Unsigned

$$B2U(X) = \sum_{i=0}^{w-1} x_i \cdot 2^i$$

Two's Complement

$$B2T(X) = -x_{w-1} \cdot 2^{w-1} + \sum_{i=0}^{w-2} x_i \cdot 2^i$$

Sign Bit

Two's Complement Examples (w = 5)

	-16	8	4	2	1	
10 =	0	1	0	1	0	8+2 = 10

	-16	8	4	2	1	
-10 =	1	0	1	1	0	-16+4+2 = -10

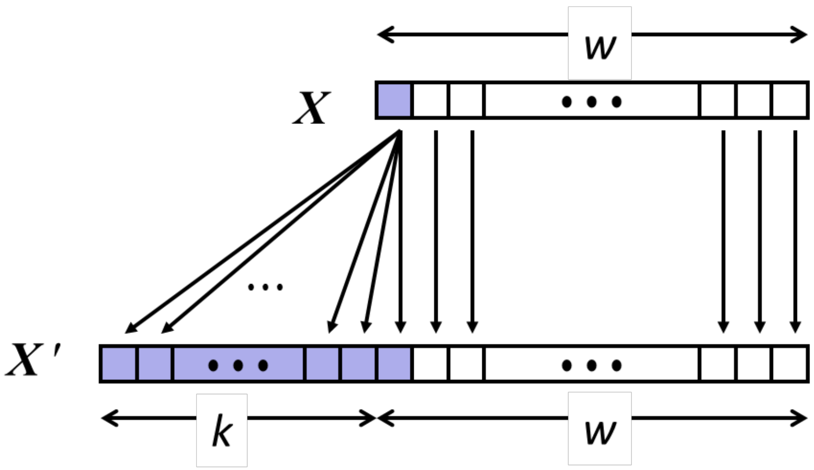
Unsigned & Signed Numeric Values

X	B2U(*X*)	B2T(*X*)
0000	0	0
0001	1	1
0010	2	2
0011	3	3
0100	4	4
0101	5	5
0110	6	6
0111	7	7
1000	8	–8
1001	9	–7
1010	10	–6
1011	11	–5
1100	12	–4
1101	13	–3
1110	14	–2
1111	15	–1

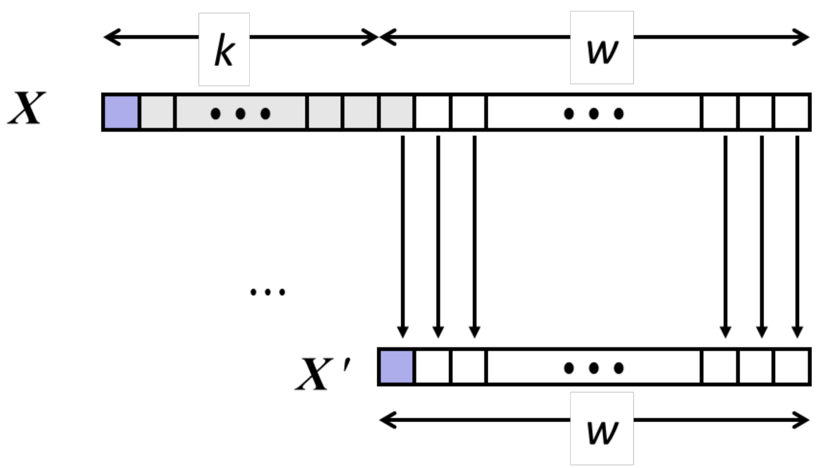
- **Equivalence**
  - Same encodings for nonnegative values
- **Uniqueness**
  - Every bit pattern represents unique integer value
  - Each representable integer has unique bit encoding
- **Expression containing signed and unsigned int:**
  `int` is cast to `unsigned`

Sign Extension and Truncation

- **Sign Extension**



- **Truncation**



Today: Bits, Bytes, and Integers

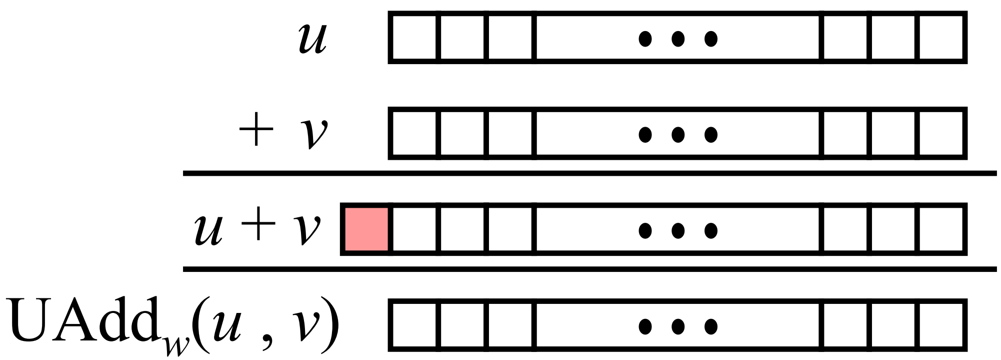
- Representing information as bits
- Bit-level manipulations
- **Integers**
  - Representation: unsigned and signed
  - Conversion, casting
  - Expanding, truncating
  - **Addition, negation, multiplication, shifting**
- Representations in memory, pointers, strings
- Summary

Unsigned Addition

Operands: *w* bits

True Sum: *w*+1 bits

Discard Carry: *w* bits



- **Standard Addition Function**
  - Ignores carry output
- **Implements Modular Arithmetic**

$$s \quad = \quad \mathrm{UAdd}_w(u\,,\,v) \quad = \quad u + v \mod 2^w$$

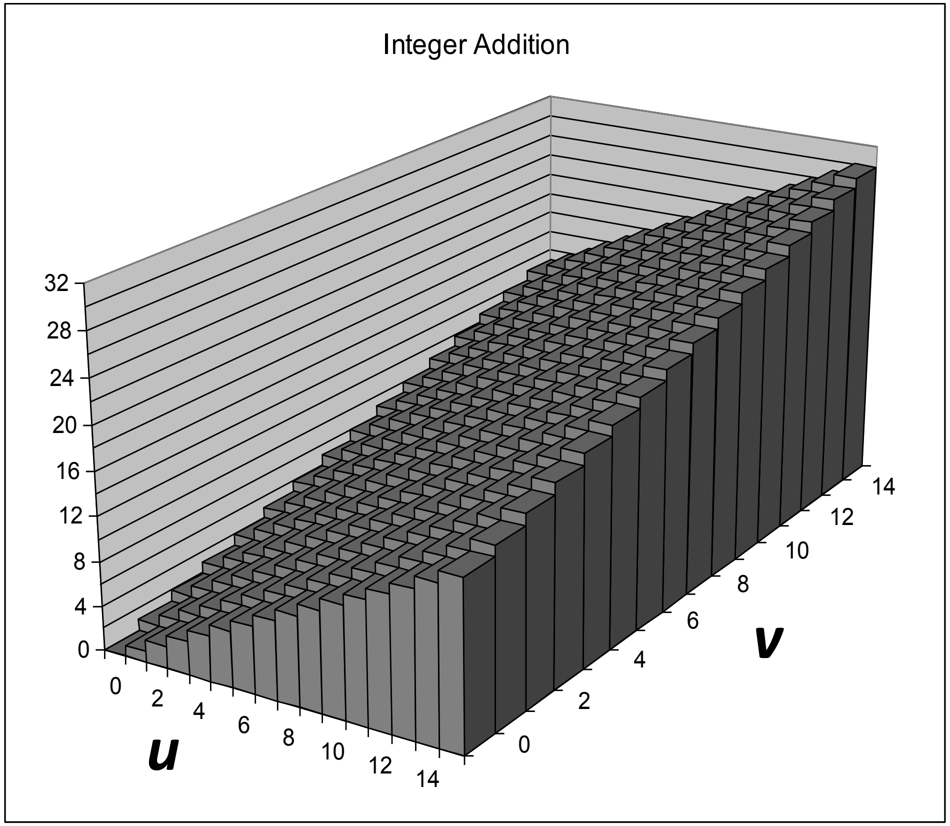
```
unsigned char     1110 1001      E9      223
                + 1101 0101    + D5    + 213
                1 1011 1110     1BE      446
                  1011 1110      BE      190
```

Hex	Decimal	Binary
0	0	0000
1	1	0001
2	2	0010
3	3	0011
4	4	0100
5	5	0101
6	6	0110
7	7	0111
8	8	1000
9	9	1001
A	10	1010
B	11	1011
C	12	1100
D	13	1101
E	14	1110
F	15	1111

Visualizing (Mathematical) Integer Addition

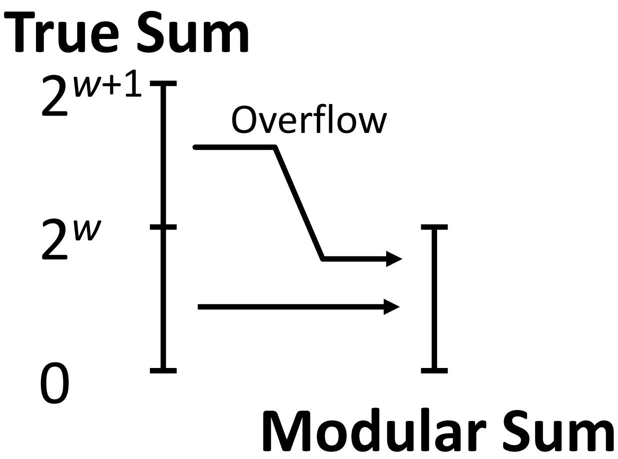
- **Integer Addition**
  - 4-bit integers *u*, *v*
  - Compute true sum $\text{Add}_4(u\ ,\ v)$
  - Values increase linearly with *u* and *v*
  - Forms planar surface

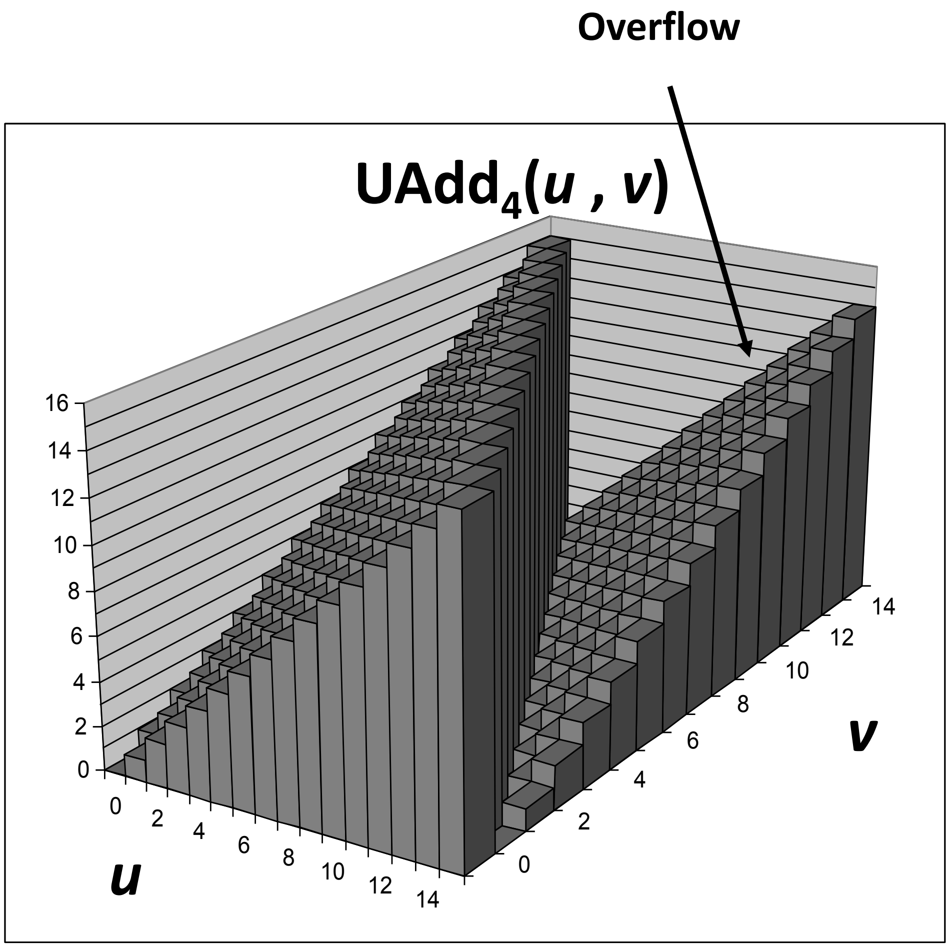
$\text{Add}_4(u\ ,\ v)$



Visualizing Unsigned Addition

- **Wraps Around**
  - If true sum ≥ 2^w
  - At most once



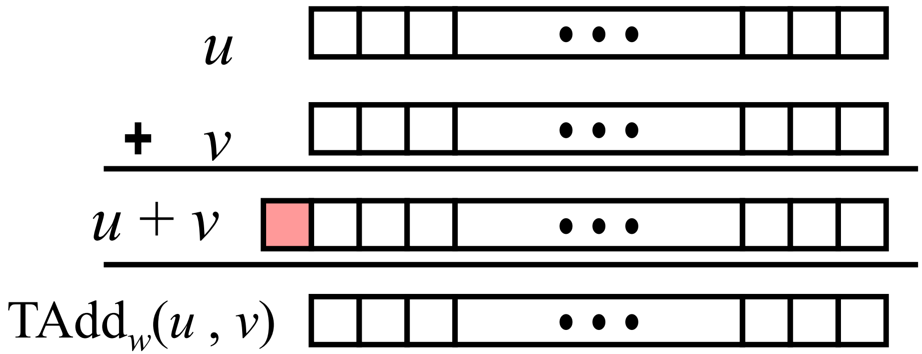


Two's Complement Addition

Operands: *w* bits

True Sum: *w*+1 bits

Discard Carry: *w* bits



- **TAdd and UAdd have Identical Bit-Level Behavior**
  - Signed vs. unsigned addition in C:

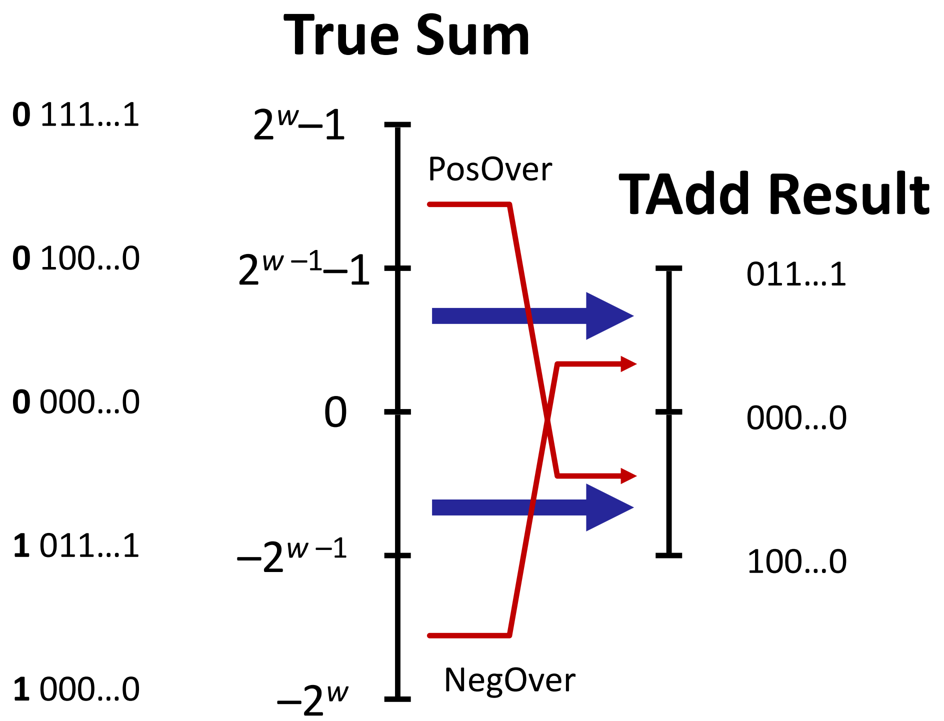
```
int s, t, u, v;
s = (int) ((unsigned) u + (unsigned) v);
t = u + v
```

  - Will give `s == t`

1110 1001	E9	-23
+ 1101 0101	+ D5	+ -43
1 1011 1110	1BE	-66
1011 1110	BE	-66

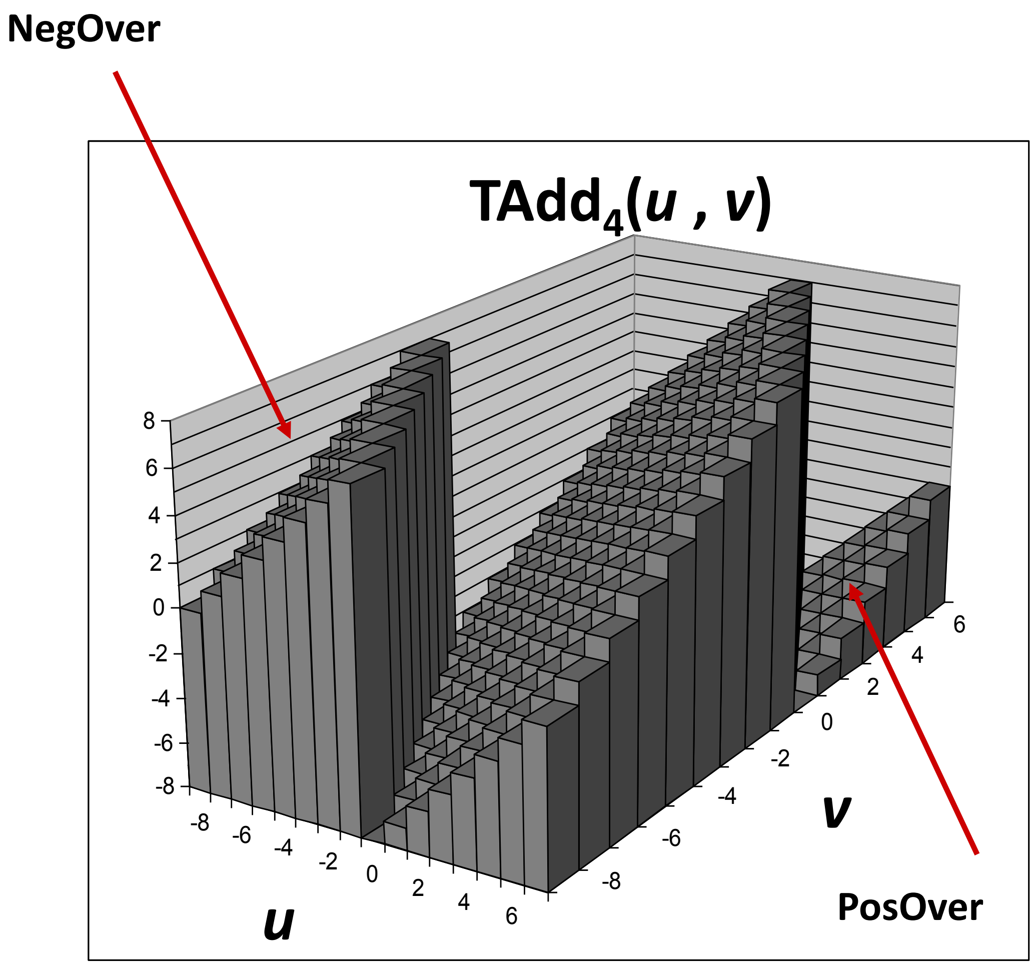
TAdd Overflow

- **Functionality**
  - True sum requires w+1 bits
  - Drop off MSB
  - Treat remaining bits as 2's comp. integer



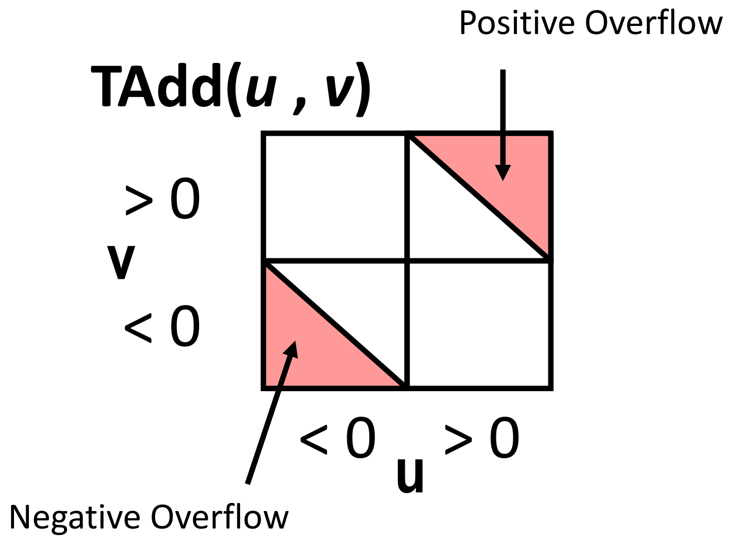
Visualizing 2's Complement Addition

- **Values**
  - 4-bit two's comp.
  - Range from -8 to +7
- **Wraps Around**
  - If sum $\geq 2^{w-1}$
    - Becomes negative
    - At most once
  - If sum $< -2^{w-1}$
    - Becomes positive
    - At most once



Characterizing TAdd

- **Functionality**
  - True sum requires *w*+1 bits
  - Drop off MSB
  - Treat remaining bits as 2's comp. integer



$$TAdd_w(u,v) = \begin{cases} u+v+2^w & u+v < TMin_w \quad \textbf{(NegOver)} \\ u+v & TMin_w \le u+v \le TMax_w \\ u+v-2^w & TMax_w < u+v \quad \textbf{(PosOver)} \end{cases}$$

Multiplication

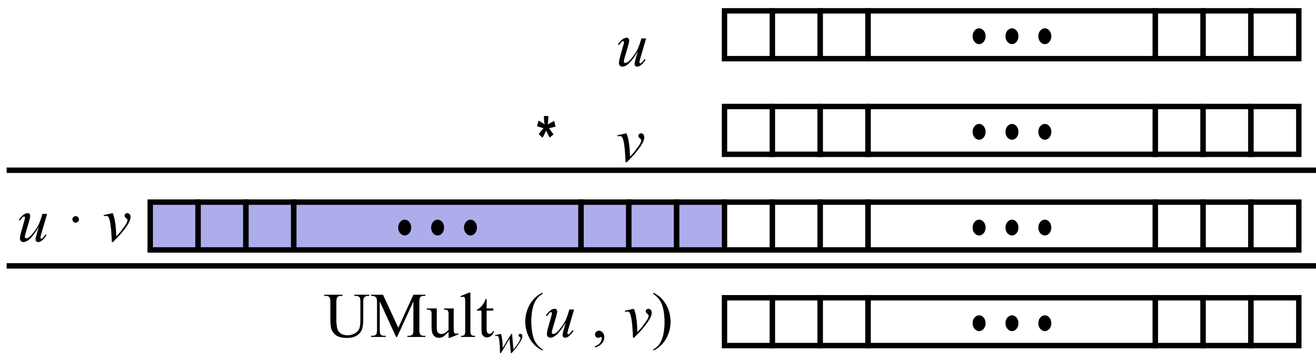
- **Goal: Computing Product of *w*-bit numbers *x*, *y***
  - Either signed or unsigned
- **But, exact results can be bigger than *w* bits**
  - Unsigned: up to 2*w* bits
    - Result range: $0 \le x * y \le (2^w - 1)^2 = 2^{2w} - 2^{w+1} + 1$
  - Two's complement min (negative): Up to 2*w*-1 bits
    - Result range: $x * y \ge (-2^{w-1})*(2^{w-1}-1) = -2^{2w-2} + 2^{w-1}$
  - Two's complement max (positive): Up to 2*w* bits, but only for $(TMin_w)^2$
    - Result range: $x * y \le (-2^{w-1})^2 = 2^{2w-2}$
- **So, maintaining exact results…**
  - would need to keep expanding word size with each product computed
  - is done in software, if needed
    - e.g., by "arbitrary precision" arithmetic packages

Unsigned Multiplication in C

Operands: *w* bits

True Product: 2**w* bits

Discard *w* bits: *w* bits



- **Standard Multiplication Function**
  - Ignores high order *w* bits
- **Implements Modular Arithmetic**

  $\mathrm{UMult}_w(u, v) = u \cdot v \bmod 2^w$

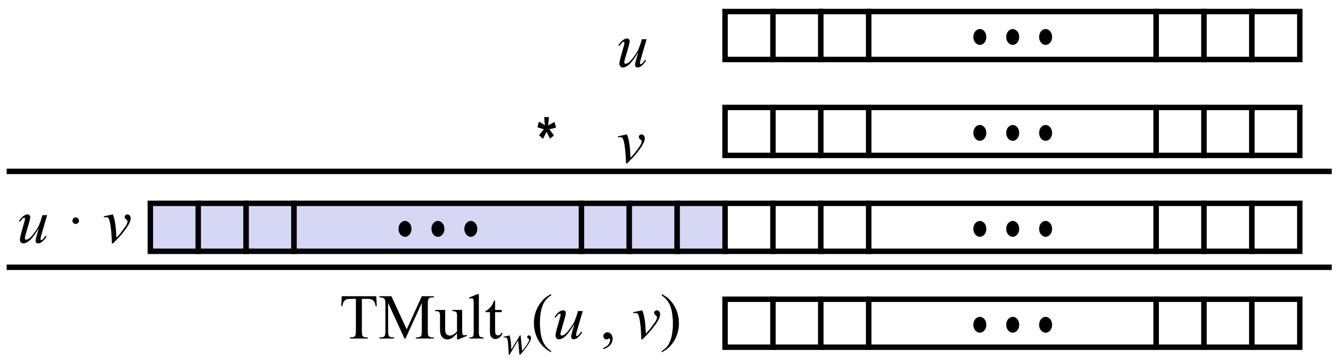
```
            1110 1001       E9       223
*           1101 0101    *  D5    *  213
1100 0001 1101 1101       C1DD     47499
            1101 1101       DD       221
```

Signed Multiplication in C

Operands: *w* bits

True Product: 2**w* bits

Discard *w* bits: *w* bits



- **Standard Multiplication Function**
  - Ignores high order *w* bits
  - Some of which are different for signed vs. unsigned multiplication
  - Lower bits are the same

```
            1110 1001      E9        -23
*           1101 0101   *  D5   *    -43
 0000 0011 1101 1101     03DD        989
            1101 1101      DD        -35
```

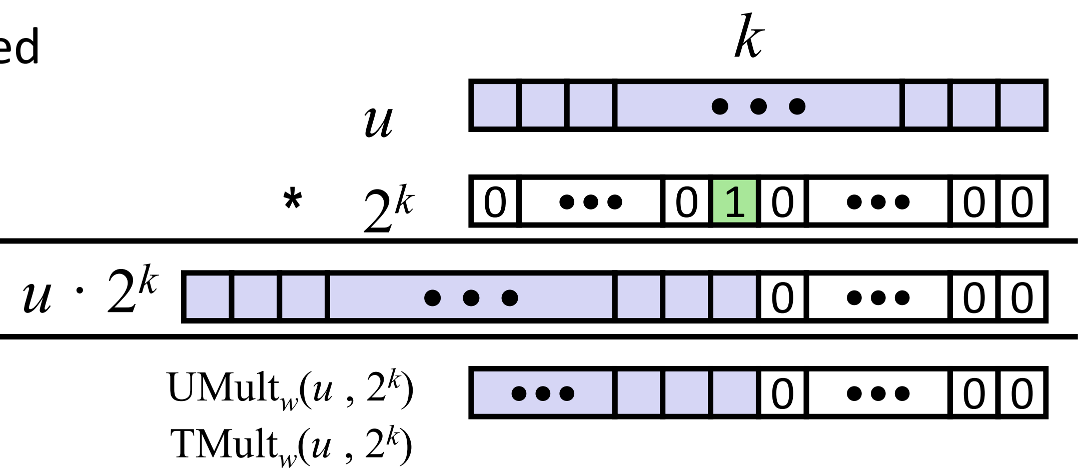
Power-of-2 Multiply with Shift

- **Operation**
  - `u << k` gives `u * 2`^{k}
  - Both signed and unsigned

Operands: w bits

True Product: $w+k$ bits

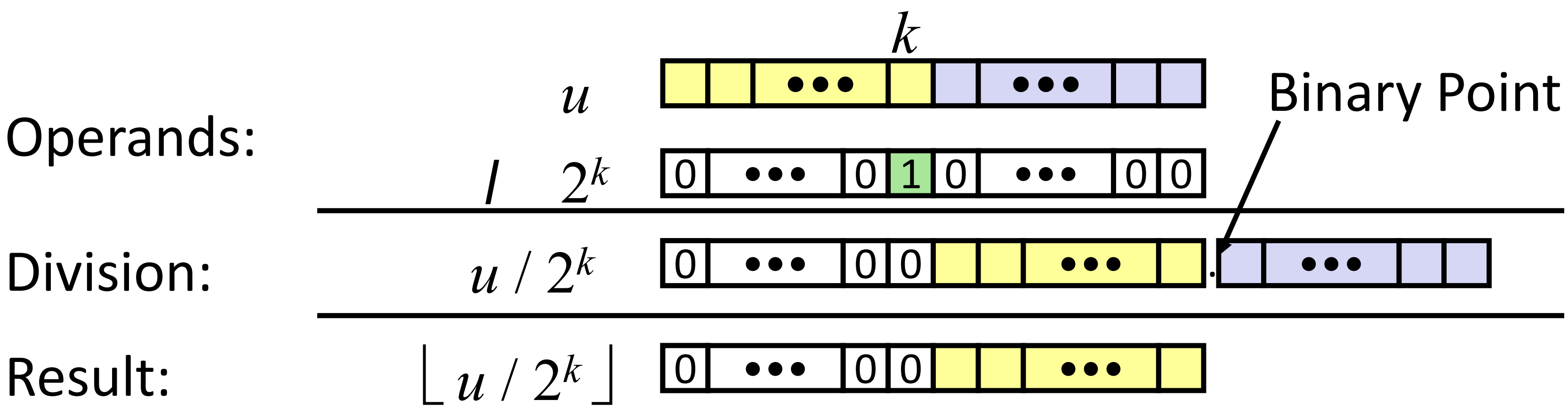
Discard k bits: w bits



- **Examples**
  - `u << 3 == u * 8`
  - `(u << 5) – (u << 3)== u * 24`
  - Most machines shift and add faster than multiply
    - Compiler generates this code automatically

Unsigned Power-of-2 Divide with Shift

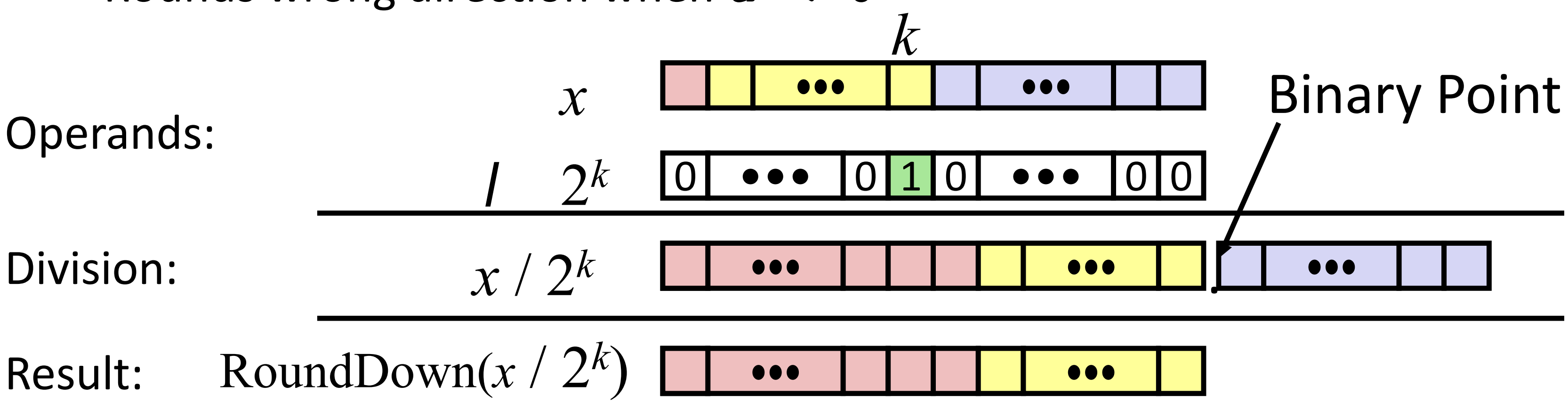
- **Quotient of Unsigned by Power of 2**
  - `u >> k` gives $\lfloor \mathbf{u} \;/\; \mathbf{2^k} \rfloor$
  - Uses logical shift



	Division	Computed	Hex	Binary
`x`	15213	15213	`3B 6D`	`00111011 01101101`
`x >> 1`	7606.5	7606	`1D B6`	`00011101 10110110`
`x >> 4`	950.8125	950	`03 B6`	`00000011 10110110`
`x >> 8`	59.4257813	59	`00 3B`	`00000000 00111011`

Signed Power-of-2 Divide with Shift

- **Quotient of Signed by Power of 2**
  - `x >> k` gives $\lfloor$ `x / 2`^{k} $\rfloor$
  - Uses arithmetic shift
  - Rounds wrong direction when `u < 0`



	Division	Computed	Hex	Binary
`y`	-15213	-15213	`C4 93`	`11000100 10010011`
`y >> 1`	-7606.5	-7607	`E2 49`	`11100010 01001001`
`y >> 4`	-950.8125	-951	`FC 49`	`11111100 01001001`
`y >> 8`	-59.4257813	-60	`FF C4`	`11111111 11000100`

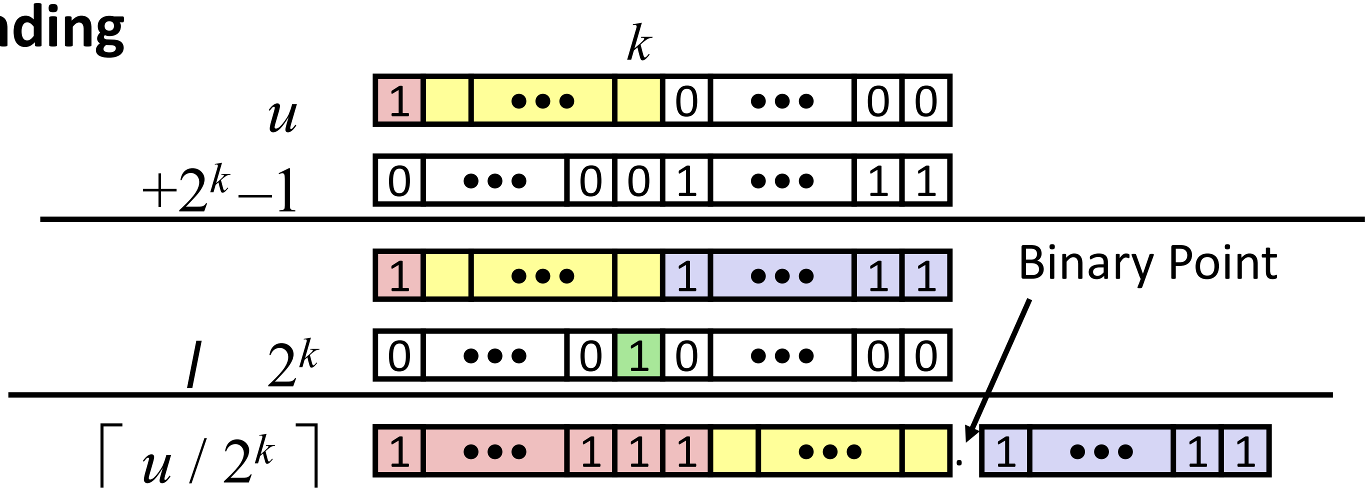
Correct Power-of-2 Divide

- **Quotient of Negative Number by Power of 2**
  - Want $\lceil$ **`x / 2`**^{k} $\rceil$ (Round Toward 0)
  - Compute as $\lfloor$ **`(x+2`**^{k}**`-1) / 2`**^{k} $\rfloor$
    - In C: **`(x + (1<<k)-1) >> k`**
    - Biases dividend toward 0

Case 1: No rounding

Dividend:

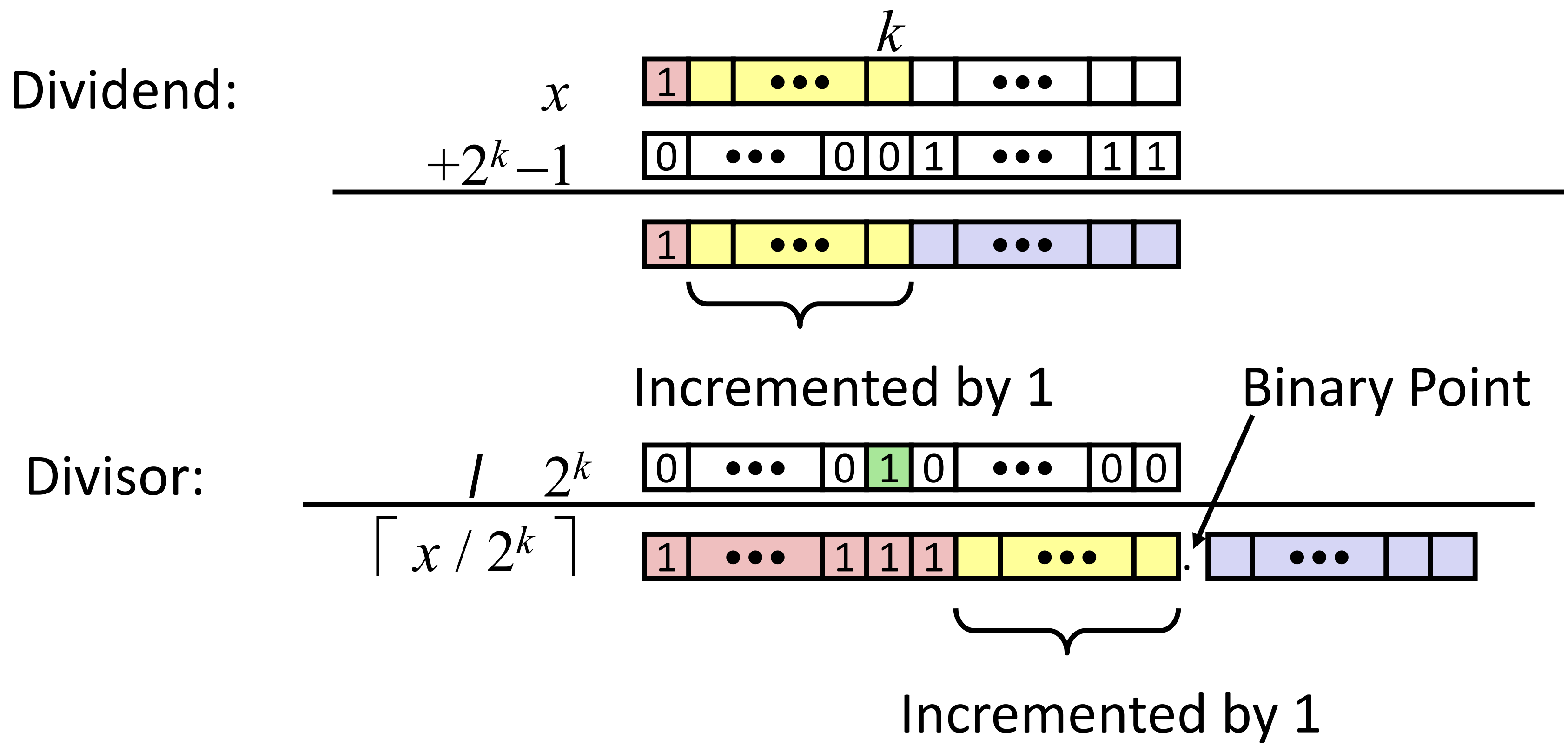
Divisor:



Biasing has no effect

Correct Power-of-2 Divide (Cont.)

Case 2: Rounding



Biasing adds 1 to final result

Negation: Complement & Increment

- **Negate through complement and increase**

  `~x + 1 == -x`

- **Example**
  - Observation: `~x + x == 1111…111 == -1`

	x	1 0 0 1 1 1 0 1
+	~x	0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0
	-1	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1

x = 15213

	Decimal	Hex	Binary
x	15213	3B 6D	00111011 01101101
~x	-15214	C4 92	11000100 10010010
~x+1	-15213	C4 93	11000100 10010011
y	-15213	C4 93	11000100 10010011

Complement & Increment Examples

x = 0

	Decimal	Hex	Binary
0	0	00 00	00000000 00000000
~0	-1	FF FF	11111111 11111111
~0+1	0	00 00	00000000 00000000

x = TMin

	Decimal	Hex	Binary
x	-32768	80 00	10000000 00000000
~x	32767	7F FF	01111111 11111111
~x+1	-32768	80 00	10000000 00000000

Canonical counter example

Today: Bits, Bytes, and Integers

- Representing information as bits
- Bit-level manipulations
- **Integers**
  - Representation: unsigned and signed
  - Conversion, casting
  - Expanding, truncating
  - Addition, negation, multiplication, shifting
  - **Summary**
- Representations in memory, pointers, strings

Arithmetic: Basic Rules

- **Addition:**
  - Unsigned/signed: Normal addition followed by truncate, same operation on bit level
  - Unsigned: addition mod 2^w
    - Mathematical addition + possible subtraction of 2^w
  - Signed: modified addition mod 2^w (result in proper range)
    - Mathematical addition + possible addition or subtraction of 2^w

- **Multiplication:**
  - Unsigned/signed: Normal multiplication followed by truncate, same operation on bit level
  - Unsigned: multiplication mod 2^w
  - Signed: modified multiplication mod 2^w (result in proper range)

Why Should I Use Unsigned?

- ***Don't*** **use without understanding implications**
  - Easy to make mistakes

```
unsigned i;
for (i = cnt-2; i >= 0; i--)
  a[i] += a[i+1];
```

  - Can be very subtle

```
#define DELTA sizeof(int)
int i;
for (i = CNT; i-DELTA >= 0; i-= DELTA)
  . . .
```

Counting Down with Unsigned

- **Proper way to use unsigned as loop index**

```
unsigned i;
for (i = cnt-2; i < cnt; i--)
  a[i] += a[i+1];
```

- **See Robert Seacord, *Secure Coding in C and C++***
  - C Standard guarantees that unsigned addition will behave like modular arithmetic
    - 0 – 1 → *UMax*
- **Even better**

```
size_t i;
for (i = cnt-2; i < cnt; i--)
  a[i] += a[i+1];
```

  - Data type **`size_t`** defined as unsigned value with length = word size

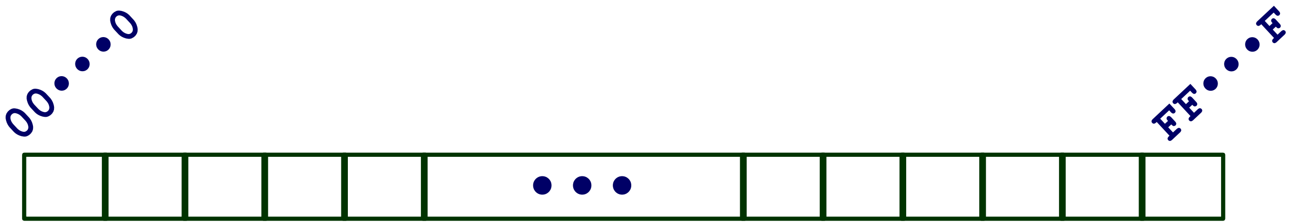
Why Should I Use Unsigned? (cont.)

- ***Do*** **Use When Performing Modular Arithmetic**
  - Multiprecision arithmetic
- ***Do*** **Use When Using Bits to Represent Sets**
  - Logical right shift, no sign extension
- ***Do*** **Use In System Programming**
  - Bit masks, device commands,…

Today: Bits, Bytes, and Integers

- Representing information as bits
- Bit-level manipulations
- Integers
  - Representation: unsigned and signed
  - Conversion, casting
  - Expanding, truncating
  - Addition, negation, multiplication, shifting
  - Summary
- **Representations in memory, pointers, strings**

Byte-Oriented Memory Organization



- **Programs refer to data by address**
  - Conceptually, envision it as a very large array of bytes
    - In reality, it's not, but can think of it that way
  - An address is like an index into that array
    - and, a pointer variable stores an address

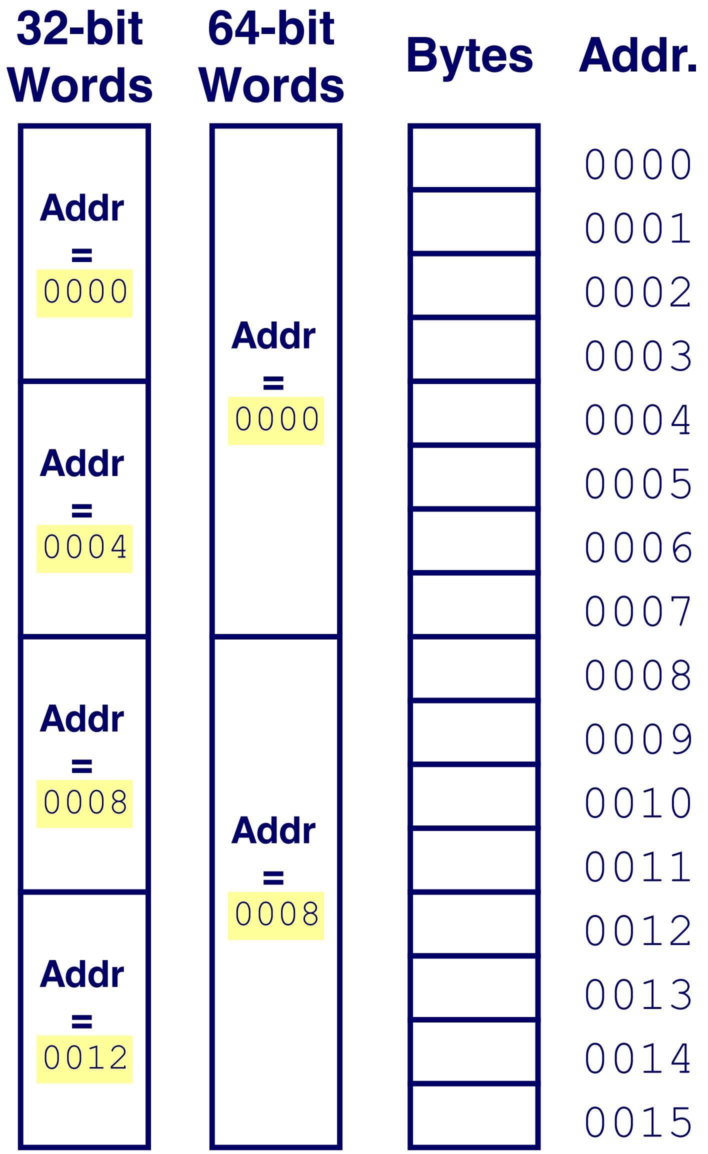
- **Note: system provides private address spaces to each "process"**
  - Think of a process as a program being executed
  - So, a program can clobber its own data, but not that of others

Machine Words

- **Any given computer has a "Word Size"**
  - Nominal size of integer-valued data
    - and of addresses
  - Until recently, most machines used 32 bits (4 bytes) as word size
    - Limits addresses to 4GB (2^{32} bytes)
  - Increasingly, machines have 64-bit word size
    - Potentially, could have 18 EB (exabytes) of addressable memory
    - That's 18.4 X 10^{18}
  - Machines still support multiple data formats
    - Fractions or multiples of word size
    - Always integral number of bytes

Word-Oriented Memory Organization

- **Addresses Specify Byte Locations**
  - Address of first byte in word
  - Addresses of successive words differ by 4 (32-bit) or 8 (64-bit)



Example Data Representations

C Data Type	Typical 32-bit	Typical 64-bit	x86-64
`char`	1	1	1
`short`	2	2	2
`int`	4	4	4
`long`	4	8	8
`float`	4	4	4
`double`	8	8	8
pointer	4	8	8

Byte Ordering

- **So, how are the bytes within a multi-byte word ordered in memory?**
- **Conventions**
  - Big Endian: Sun (Oracle SPARC), PPC Mac, *Internet*
    - Least significant byte has highest address
  - Little Endian: *x86*, ARM processors running Android, iOS, and Linux
    - Least significant byte has lowest address

Byte Ordering Example

- **Example**
  - Variable x has 4-byte value of 0x01234567
  - Address given by &x is 0x100

Big Endian

		0x100	0x101	0x102	0x103		
		01	23	45	67		

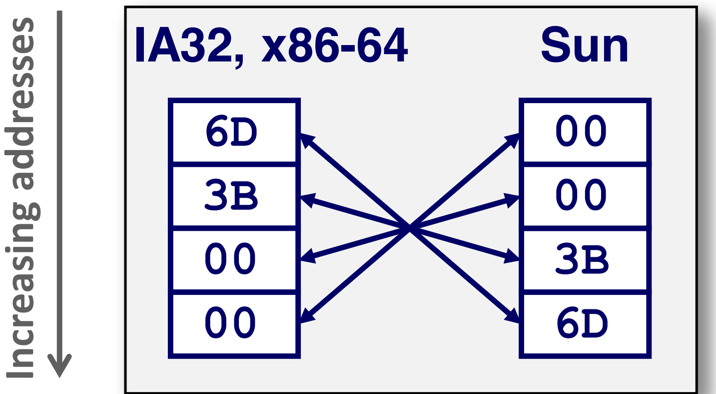
Little Endian

		0x100	0x101	0x102	0x103		
		67	45	23	01		

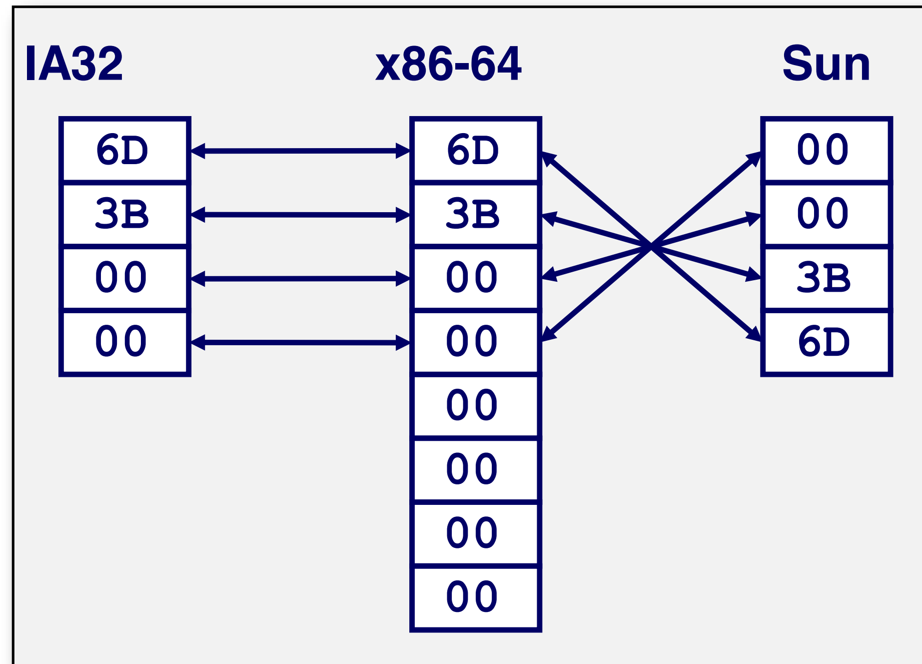
Representing Integers

Decimal:	15213			
Binary:	0011	1011	0110	1101
Hex:	3	B	6	D

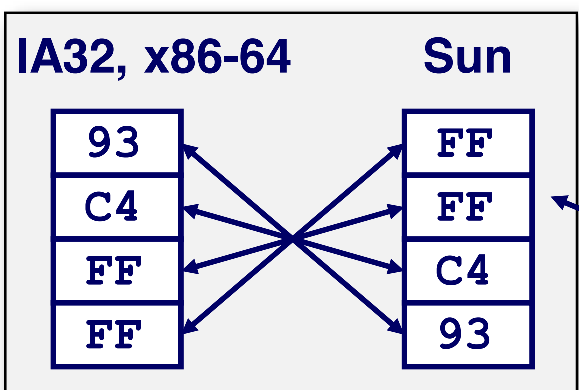
`int A = 15213;`



`long int C = 15213;`



`int B = -15213;`



Two's complement representation

Examining Data Representations

- **Code to Print Byte Representation of Data**
  - Casting pointer to unsigned char * allows treatment as a byte array

```
typedef unsigned char *pointer;

void show_bytes(pointer start, size_t len){
  size_t i;
  for (i = 0; i < len; i++)
    printf(”%p\t0x%.2x\n",start+i, start[i]);
  printf("\n");
}
```

Printf directives:

%p: Print pointer

%x: Print Hexadecimal

`show_bytes` Execution Example

```
int a = 15213;
printf("int a = 15213;\n");
show_bytes((pointer) &a, sizeof(int));
```

Result (Linux x86-64):

```
int a = 15213;
0x7fffb7f71dbc    6d
0x7fffb7f71dbd    3b
0x7fffb7f71dbe    00
0x7fffb7f71dbf    00
```

Representing Pointers

```
int B = -15213;
int *P = &B;
```

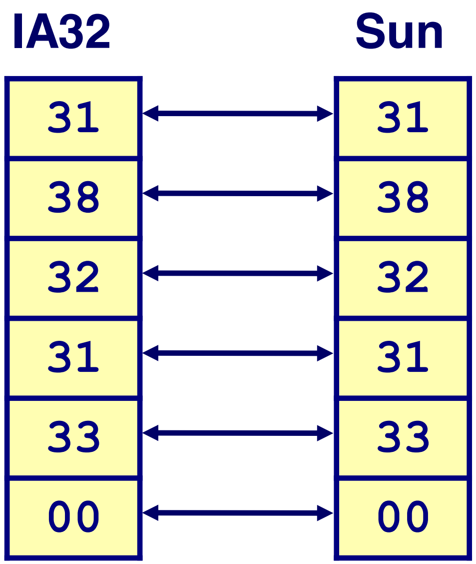
Sun	IA32	x86-64
EF	AC	3C
FF	28	1B
FB	F5	FE
2C	FF	82
		FD
		7F
		00
		00

- **Different compilers & machines assign different locations to objects**
- **Even get different results each time run program**

Representing Strings

```
char S[6] = "18213";
```

- **Strings in C**
  - Represented by array of characters
  - Each character encoded in ASCII format
    - Standard 7-bit encoding of character set
    - Character "0" has code 0x30
      - Digit *i* has code 0x30+*I*
    - ***man ascii** for code table*
  - String should be null-terminated
    - Final character = 0
- **Compatibility**
  - Byte ordering not an issue



Reading Byte-Reversed Listings

- **Disassembly**
  - Text representation of binary machine code
  - Generated by program that reads the machine code
- **Example Fragment**

Address	Instruction Code	Assembly Rendition	
`8048365:`	`5b`	`pop`	`%ebx`
`8048366:`	`81 c3 ab 12 00 00`	`add`	`$0x12ab,%ebx`
`804836c:`	`83 bb 28 00 00 00 00`	`cmpl`	`$0x0,0x28(%ebx)`

- **Deciphering Numbers**
  - Value: `0x12ab`
  - Pad to 32 bits: `0x000012ab`
  - Split into bytes: `00 00 12 ab`
  - Reverse: `ab 12 00 00`

Integer C Puzzles

Initialization

```
int x = foo();
int y = bar();
unsigned ux = x;
unsigned uy = y;
```

`x < 0`	⇒	`((x*2) < 0)`	✗
`ux >= 0`			✓
`x & 7 == 7`	⇒	`(x<<30) < 0`	✓
`ux > -1`			✗
`x > y`	⇒	`-x < -y`	✗
`x * x >= 0`			✗
`x > 0 && y > 0`	⇒	`x + y > 0`	✗
`x >= 0`	⇒	`-x <= 0`	✓
`x <= 0`	⇒	`-x >= 0`	✗
`(x|-x)>>31 == -1`			✗
`ux >> 3 == ux/8`			✓
`x >> 3 == x/8`			✗
`x & (x-1) != 0`			✗

Summary

- Representing information as bits
- Bit-level manipulations
- Integers
  - Representation: unsigned and signed
  - Conversion, casting
  - Expanding, truncating
  - Addition, negation, multiplication, shifting
- Representations in memory, pointers, strings
- Summary

Floating Point

15-213/18-213/15-513: Introduction to Computer Systems
18-613: Foundations of Computer Systems

4th Lecture, Jan. 24, 2019

Instructors:

Franz Franchetti, Seth Copen Goldstein, Brandon Lucia, and Brian Railing

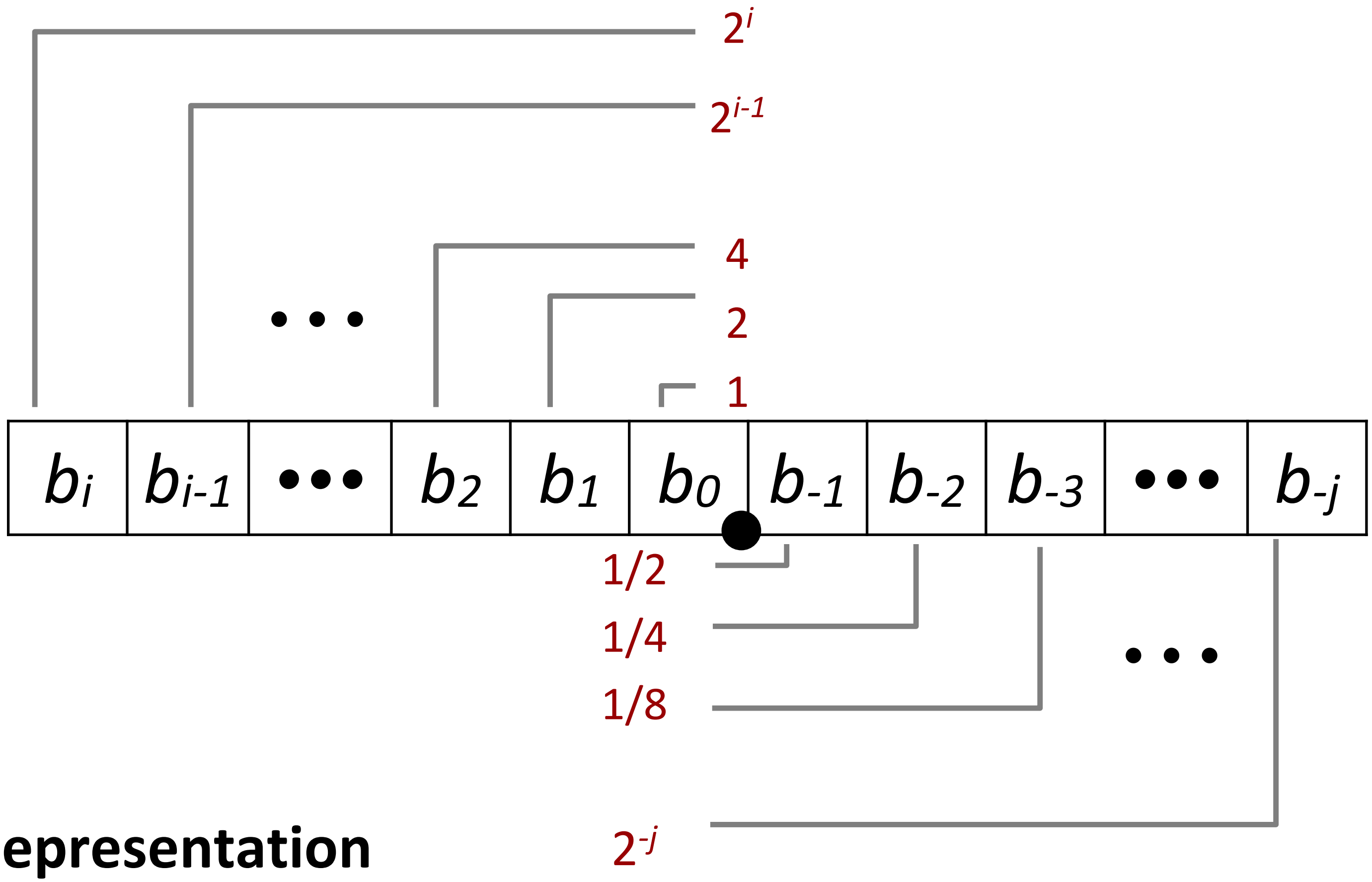
Today: Floating Point

- Background: Fractional binary numbers
- IEEE floating point standard: Definition
- Example and properties
- Rounding, addition, multiplication
- Floating point in C
- Summary

Fractional binary numbers

- **What is 1011.101_2?**

Fractional Binary Numbers



Representation

- Bits to right of "binary point" represent fractional powers of 2
- Represents rational number:

$$\sum_{k=-j}^{i} b_k \times 2^k$$

Fractional Binary Numbers: Examples

- **Value** **Representation**

5 3/4	= 23/4	`101.11`$_2$	= 4 + 1 + 1/2 + 1/4
2 7/8	= 23/8	`10.111`$_2$	= 2 + 1/2 + 1/4 + 1/8
1 7/16	= 23/16	`1.0111`$_2$	= 1 + 1/4 + 1/8 + 1/16

23 = 16 + 4 + 2 + 1 = 10111_2

- **Observations**
  - Divide by 2 by shifting right (unsigned)
  - Multiply by 2 by shifting left
  - Numbers of form $0.111111\ldots_2$ are just below 1.0
    - $1/2 + 1/4 + 1/8 + \ldots + 1/2^i + \ldots \rightarrow 1.0$
    - Use notation $1.0 - \varepsilon$

Representable Numbers

- **Limitation #1**
  - Can only exactly represent numbers of the form $x/2^k$
    - Other rational numbers have repeating bit representations
  - Value Representation
    - 1/3 `0.0101010101[01]`$\ldots_2$
    - 1/5 `0.001100110011[0011]`$\ldots_2$
    - 1/10 `0.0001100110011[0011]`$\ldots_2$
- **Limitation #2**
  - Just one setting of binary point within the *w* bits
    - Limited range of numbers (very small values? very large?)

Today: Floating Point

- Background: Fractional binary numbers
- **IEEE floating point standard: Definition**
- Example and properties
- Rounding, addition, multiplication
- Floating point in C
- Summary

IEEE Floating Point

- **IEEE Standard 754**
  - Established in 1985 as uniform standard for floating point arithmetic
    - Before that, many idiosyncratic formats
  - Supported by all major CPUs
  - Some CPUs don't implement IEEE 754 in full
    e.g., early GPUs, Cell BE processor

- **Driven by numerical concerns**
  - Nice standards for rounding, overflow, underflow
  - Hard to make fast in hardware
    - Numerical analysts predominated over hardware designers in defining standard

Floating Point Representation

Example:
$15213_{10} = (-1)^0 \times 1.1101101101101_2 \times 2^{13}$

- **Numerical Form:**

  $$(-1)^s\, M\; 2^E$$

  - **Sign bit *s*** determines whether number is negative or positive
  - **Significand *M*** normally a fractional value in range [1.0,2.0).
  - **Exponent *E*** weights value by power of two

- **Encoding**
  - MSB s is sign bit ***s***
  - **exp** field encodes ***E*** (but is not equal to E)
  - **frac** field encodes ***M*** (but is not equal to M)

s	exp	frac

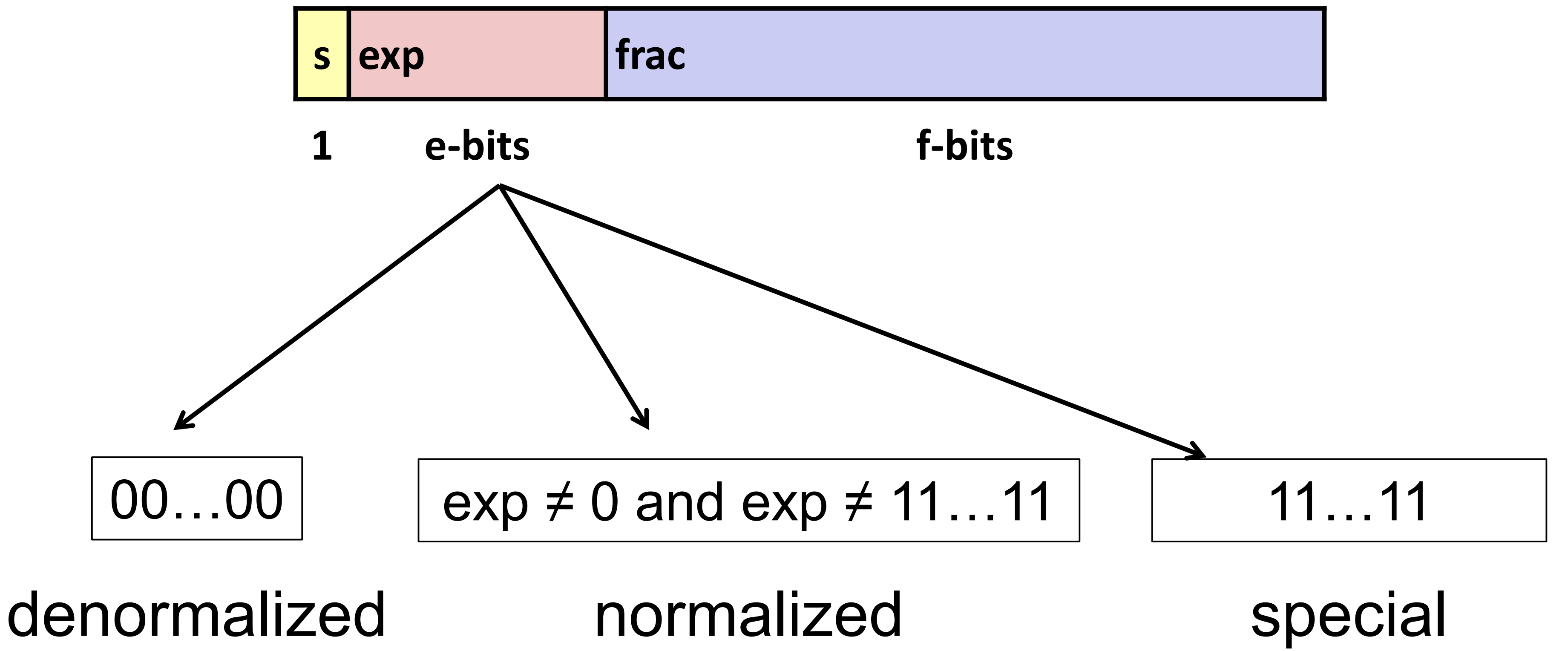
Precision options

- **Single precision: 32 bits**
  ≈ 7 decimal digits, $10^{\pm 38}$

- **Double precision: 64 bits**
  ≈ 16 decimal digits, $10^{\pm 308}$

- **Other formats: half precision, quad precision**

Three “kinds” of floating point numbers



"Normalized" Values

$v = (-1)^s M\, 2^E$

- **When: exp ≠ 000…0 and exp ≠ 111…1**

- **Exponent coded as a *biased* value: *E* = *Exp* – *Bias***
  - *Exp*: unsigned value of exp field
  - ***Bias*** **=** **2^{k-1} - 1**, where *k* is number of exponent bits
    - **Single precision: 127** (Exp: 1…254, E: -126…127)
    - **Double precision: 1023** (Exp: 1…2046, E: -1022…1023)

- **Significand coded with implied leading 1: *M* = 1.**$xxx\ldots x_2$
  - xxx…x: bits of frac field
  - Minimum when frac=000…0 (M = 1.0)
  - Maximum when frac=111…1 (M = 2.0 – ε)
  - Get extra leading bit for "free"

Normalized Encoding Example

$v = (-1)^s M\, 2^E$
$E = Exp - Bias$

- **Value:** `float F = 15213.0;`
  - $15213_{10} = 11101101101101_2$
    $= 1.1101101101101_2 \times 2^{13}$

- **Significand**

  M = `1.1101101101101`$_2$

  `frac` = `11011011011010000000000`$_2$

- **Exponent**

  E = 13

  $Bias$ = 127

  Exp = 140 = `10001100`$_2$

- **Result:**

s	exp	frac
0	10001100	11011011011010000000000

Denormalized Values

$v = (-1)^s M\, 2^E$
$E = 1 - Bias$

- **Condition:** exp = 000…0
- **Exponent value:** $E = 1 - \text{Bias}$ **(instead of** $E = 0 - Bias$**)**
  - Same exponent as smallest normalized numbers, but leading 0: consistent
- **Significand coded with implied leading 0:** $M = 0.\text{xxx...x}_2$
  - `xxx…x`: bits of `frac`
- **Cases**
  - `exp` = 000…0, `frac` = 000…0
    - Represents zero value
    - Note distinct values: +0 and –0 (why?)
  - `exp` = 000…0, `frac` ≠ 000…0
    - Numbers closest to 0.0
    - Equispaced

Special Values

- **Condition: `exp` = `111…1`**

- **Case: `exp` = `111…1`, `frac` = `000…0`**
  - **Represents value ∞ (infinity)**
  - Operation that overflows
  - Both positive and negative
  - E.g., 1.0/0.0 = −1.0/−0.0 = +∞, 1.0/−0.0 = −∞

- **Case: `exp` = `111…1`, `frac` ≠ `000…0`**
  - **Not-a-Number (NaN)**
  - Represents case when no numeric value can be determined
  - E.g., sqrt(–1), ∞ − ∞, ∞ × 0

C float Decoding Example

$$v = (-1)^s\, M\, 2^E$$
$$E = \texttt{exp} - Bias$$

$Bias = 2^{k-1} - 1 = 127$

float: `0xC0A00000`

binary: ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____

E =

S =

M =

$v = (-1)^s\, M\, 2^E =$

Hex	Decimal	Binary
0	0	0000
1	1	0001
2	2	0010
3	3	0011
4	4	0100
5	5	0101
6	6	0110
7	7	0111
8	8	1000
9	9	1001
A	10	1010
B	11	1011
C	12	1100
D	13	1101
E	14	1110
F	15	1111

C float Decoding Example

$v = (-1)^s M\, 2^E$
$E = \texttt{exp} - Bias$

float: `0xC0A00000`

binary: `1100 0000 1010 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000`

1	1000 0001	010 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000
1	8-bits	23-bits

Hex	Decimal	Binary
0	0	0000
1	1	0001
2	2	0010
3	3	0011
4	4	0100
5	5	0101
6	6	0110
7	7	0111
8	8	1000
9	9	1001
A	10	1010
B	11	1011
C	12	1100
D	13	1101
E	14	1110
F	15	1111

E =

S =

M = 1 .

$v = (-1)^s M\, 2^E =$

C float Decoding Example

$v = (-1)^s M\, 2^E$
$E = \texttt{exp} - Bias$

$Bias = 2^{k-1} - 1 = 127$

float: `0xC0A00000`

binary: 1100 0000 1010 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000

1	1000 0001	010 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000
1	8-bits	23-bits

E = `exp` – Bias = 129 – 127 = 2 (decimal)

S = 1 -> negative number

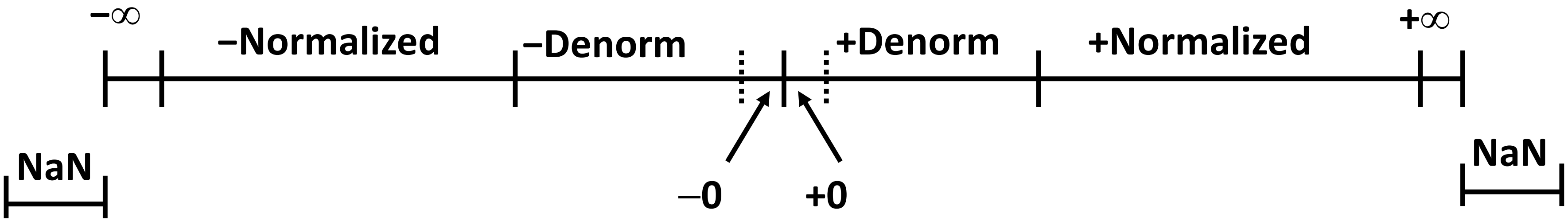
M = 1.010 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000

= 1 + 1/4 = 1.25

$v = (-1)^s M\, 2^E = (-1)^1 * 1.25 * 2^2 = -5$

Hex	Decimal	Binary
0	0	0000
1	1	0001
2	2	0010
3	3	0011
4	4	0100
5	5	0101
6	6	0110
7	7	0111
8	8	1000
9	9	1001
A	10	1010
B	11	1011
C	12	1100
D	13	1101
E	14	1110
F	15	1111

Visualization: Floating Point Encodings



Today: Floating Point

- Background: Fractional binary numbers
- IEEE floating point standard: Definition
- **Example and properties**
- Rounding, addition, multiplication
- Floating point in C
- Summary

Tiny Floating Point Example

s	exp	frac
1	4-bits	3-bits

- **8-bit Floating Point Representation**
  - the sign bit is in the most significant bit
  - the next four bits are the exponent, with a bias of 7
  - the last three bits are the `frac`
- **Same general form as IEEE Format**
  - normalized, denormalized
  - representation of 0, NaN, infinity

Dynamic Range (Positive Only)

$v = (-1)^s M\, 2^E$

n: E = Exp – Bias

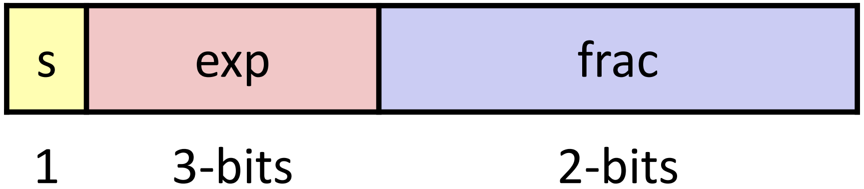
d: E = 1 – Bias

Bias = 7

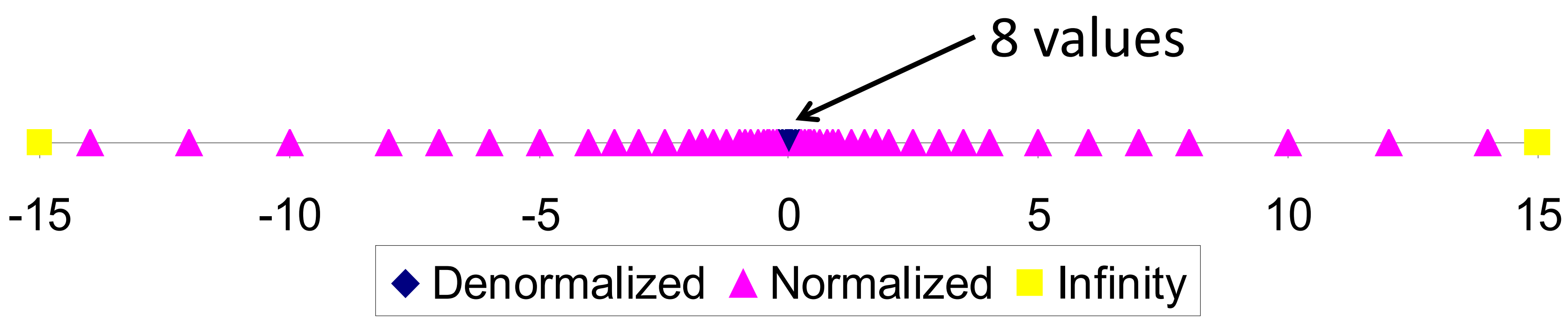
	s	exp	frac	E	Value	
Denormalized numbers	0	0000	000	-6	0	
	0	0000	001	-6	1/8*1/64 = 1/512	closest to zero
	0	0000	010	-6	2/8*1/64 = 2/512	$(-1)^0(0+1/4)*2^{-6}$
	…					
	0	0000	110	-6	6/8*1/64 = 6/512	
	0	0000	111	-6	7/8*1/64 = 7/512	largest denorm
Normalized numbers	0	0001	000	-6	8/8*1/64 = 8/512	smallest norm
	0	0001	001	-6	9/8*1/64 = 9/512	$(-1)^0(1+1/8)*2^{-6}$
	…					
	0	0110	110	-1	14/8*1/2 = 14/16	
	0	0110	111	-1	15/8*1/2 = 15/16	closest to 1 below
	0	0111	000	0	8/8*1 = 1	
	0	0111	001	0	9/8*1 = 9/8	closest to 1 above
	0	0111	010	0	10/8*1 = 10/8	
	…					
	0	1110	110	7	14/8*128 = 224	
	0	1110	111	7	15/8*128 = 240	largest norm
	0	1111	000	n/a	inf	

Distribution of Values

- **6-bit IEEE-like format**
  - e = 3 exponent bits
  - f = 2 fraction bits
  - Bias is $2^{3-1}-1 = 3$

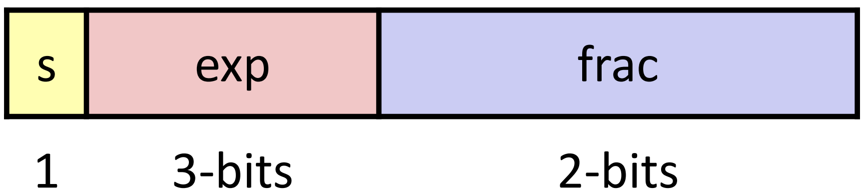


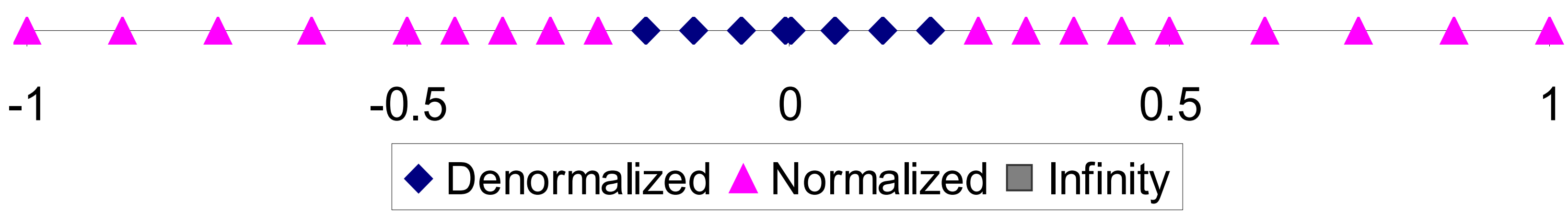
- **Notice how the distribution gets denser toward zero.**



Distribution of Values (close-up view)

- **6-bit IEEE-like format**
  - e = 3 exponent bits
  - f = 2 fraction bits
  - Bias is 3





Special Properties of the IEEE Encoding

- **FP Zero Same as Integer Zero**
  - All bits = 0
- **Can (Almost) Use Unsigned Integer Comparison**
  - Must first compare sign bits
  - Must consider −0 = 0
  - NaNs problematic
    - Will be greater than any other values
    - What should comparison yield? The answer is complicated.
  - Otherwise OK
    - Denorm vs. normalized
    - Normalized vs. infinity

Today: Floating Point

- Background: Fractional binary numbers
- IEEE floating point standard: Definition
- Example and properties
- **Rounding, addition, multiplication**
- Floating point in C
- Summary

Floating Point Operations: Basic Idea

- $x +_f y = \text{Round}(x + y)$

- $x \times_f y = \text{Round}(x \times y)$

- **Basic idea**
  - First compute exact result
  - Make it fit into desired precision
    - Possibly overflow if exponent too large
    - Possibly round to fit into **`frac`**

Rounding

- **Rounding Modes (illustrate with $ rounding)**

	$1.40	**$1.60**	**$1.50**	**$2.50**	**–$1.50**
Towards zero	$1 ↓	$1 ↓	$1 ↓	$2 ↓	–$1 ↑
Round down (−∞)	$1 ↓	$1 ↓	$1 ↓	$2 ↓	–$2 ↓
Round up (+∞)	$2 ↑	$2 ↑	$2 ↑	$3 ↑	–$1 ↑
Nearest Even (default)	$1 ↓	$2 ↑	$2 ↑	$2 ↓	–$2 ↓

Closer Look at Round-To-Even

Default Rounding Mode

- Hard to get any other kind without dropping into assembly
- C99 has support for rounding mode management
- All others are statistically biased
  - Sum of set of positive numbers will consistently be over- or under-estimated

Applying to Other Decimal Places / Bit Positions

- When exactly halfway between two possible values
  - Round so that least significant digit is even
- E.g., round to nearest hundredth

7.8949999	7.89	(Less than half way)
7.8950001	7.90	(Greater than half way)
7.8950000	7.90	(Half way—round up)
7.8850000	7.88	(Half way—round down)

Rounding Binary Numbers

- **Binary Fractional Numbers**
  - "Even" when least significant bit is `0`
  - "Half way" when bits to right of rounding position = `100`…$_2$

- **Examples**
  - Round to nearest 1/4 (2 bits right of binary point)

Value	Binary	Rounded	Action	Rounded Value
2 3/32	10.00011_2	10.00_2	(<1/2—down)	2
2 3/16	10.00110_2	10.01_2	(>1/2—up)	2 1/4
2 7/8	10.11100_2	11.00_2	(1/2—up)	3
2 5/8	10.10100_2	10.10_2	(1/2—down)	2 1/2

Rounding

1.BBGRXXX

Guard bit: LSB of result

Sticky bit: OR of remaining bits

Round bit: 1st bit removed

- **Round up conditions**
  - Round = 1, Sticky = 1 → > 0.5
  - Guard = 1, Round = 1, Sticky = 0 → Round to even

Fraction	*GRS*	*Incr?*	*Rounded*
1.0000000	000	N	1.000
1.1010000	100	N	1.101
1.0001000	010	N	1.000
1.0011000	110	Y	1.010
1.0001010	011	Y	1.001
1.1111100	111	Y	10.000

Sticky = 1 does not change it

FP Multiplication

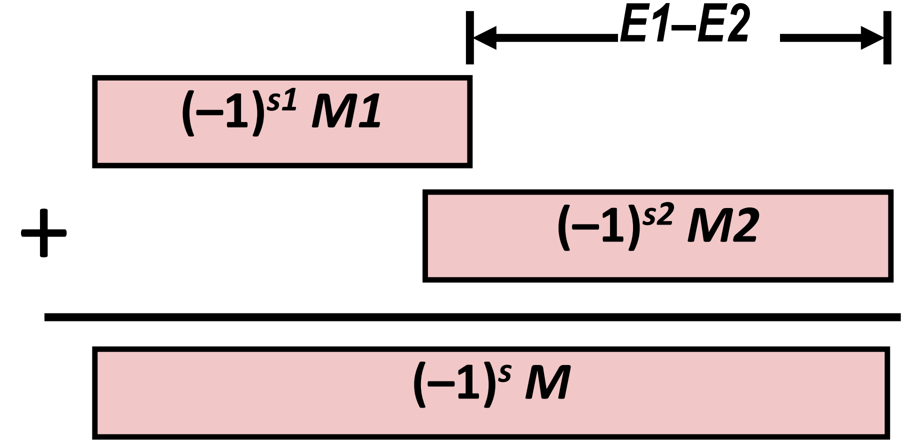
- $(-1)^{s1}\ M1\ \ 2^{E1}\ \ \times\ \ (-1)^{s2}\ M2\ \ 2^{E2}$
- **Exact Result:** $(-1)^{s}\ M\ \ 2^{E}$
  - Sign *s*: $s1 \wedge s2$
  - Significand *M*: $M1 \times M2$
  - Exponent *E*: $E1 + E2$
- **Fixing**
  - If *M* ≥ 2, shift *M* right, increment *E*
  - If *E* out of range, overflow
  - Round *M* to fit **`frac`** precision
- **Implementation**
  - Biggest chore is multiplying significands

4 bit mantissa: $1.010*2^2 \times 1.110*2^3 = 10.0011*2^5$
$= 1.00011*2^6 = 1.001*2^6$

Floating Point Addition

- $(-1)^{s1}\ M1\ \ 2^{E1}\ \ +\ \ (-1)^{s2}\ M2\ \ 2^{E2}$
  - Assume $E1 > E2$
- **Exact Result:** $(-1)^{s}\ M\ \ 2^{E}$
  - Sign s, significand M:
    - Result of signed align & add
  - Exponent E: $E1$
- **Fixing**
  - If $M \geq 2$, shift M right, increment E
  - if $M < 1$, shift M left k positions, decrement E by k
  - Overflow if E out of range
  - Round M to fit `frac` precision

Get binary points lined up



$$1.010*2^2 + 1.110*2^3 = (0.1010 + 1.1100)*2^3$$
$$= 10.0110 * 2^3 = 1.00110 * 2^4 = 1.010 * 2^4$$

Mathematical Properties of FP Add

- **Compare to those of Abelian Group**
  - Closed under addition? ***Yes***
    - But may generate infinity or NaN
  - Commutative? ***Yes***
  - Associative? ***No***
    - Overflow and inexactness of rounding
    - `(3.14+1e10)-1e10 = 0, 3.14+(1e10-1e10) = 3.14`
  - 0 is additive identity? ***Yes***
  - Every element has additive inverse? ***Almost***
    - Yes, except for infinities & NaNs
- **Monotonicity**
  - $a \geq b \Rightarrow a+c \geq b+c$? ***Almost***
    - Except for infinities & NaNs

Mathematical Properties of FP Mult

- **Compare to Commutative Ring**
  - Closed under multiplication? ***Yes***
    - But may generate infinity or NaN
  - Multiplication Commutative? ***Yes***
  - Multiplication is Associative? ***No***
    - Possibility of overflow, inexactness of rounding
    - Ex: `(1e20*1e20)*1e-20= inf, 1e20*(1e20*1e-20)= 1e20`
  - 1 is multiplicative identity? ***Yes***
  - Multiplication distributes over addition? ***No***
    - Possibility of overflow, inexactness of rounding
    - `1e20*(1e20-1e20)= 0.0, 1e20*1e20 – 1e20*1e20 = NaN`
- **Monotonicity**
  - $a \geq b$ & $c \geq 0 \Rightarrow a * c \geq b * c$? ***Almost***
    - Except for infinities & NaNs

Today: Floating Point

- Background: Fractional binary numbers
- IEEE floating point standard: Definition
- Example and properties
- Rounding, addition, multiplication
- **Floating point in C**
- Summary

Floating Point in C

- **C Guarantees Two Levels**
  - `float` single precision
  - `double` double precision

- **Conversions/Casting**
  - Casting between `int`, `float`, and `double` changes bit representation
  - `double`/`float` → `int`
    - Truncates fractional part
    - Like rounding toward zero
    - Not defined when out of range or NaN: Generally sets to TMin
  - `int` → `double`
    - Exact conversion, as long as `int` has ≤ 53 bit word size
  - `int` → `float`
    - Will round according to rounding mode

Floating Point Puzzles

- **For each of the following C expressions, either:**
  - Argue that it is true for all argument values
  - Explain why not true

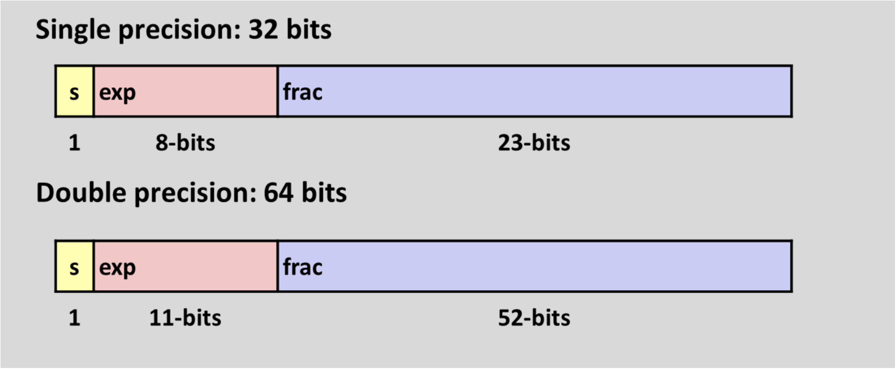
```
int x = …;
float f = …;
double d = …;
```

Assume neither
d nor **f** is NaN
Gcc/x86-64 on shark

- `x == (int)(float) x` ✗
- `x == (int)(double) x` ✓
- `f == (float)(double) f` ✓
- `d == (double)(float) d` ✗
- `f == -(-f);` ✓
- `2/3 == 2/3.0` ✗
- `d < 0.0   ⇒   ((d*2) < 0.0)` ✓
- `d > f   ⇒   -f > -d` ✓
- `d * d >= 0.0` ✓
- `(d+f)-d == f` ✗

Summary

- IEEE Floating Point has clear mathematical properties
- Represents numbers of form M x 2^E
- One can reason about operations independent of implementation
  - As if computed with perfect precision and then rounded
- Not the same as real arithmetic
  - Violates associativity/distributivity
  - Makes life difficult for compilers & serious numerical applications programmers



Additional Slides

Creating Floating Point Number

s	exp	frac
1	4-bits	3-bits

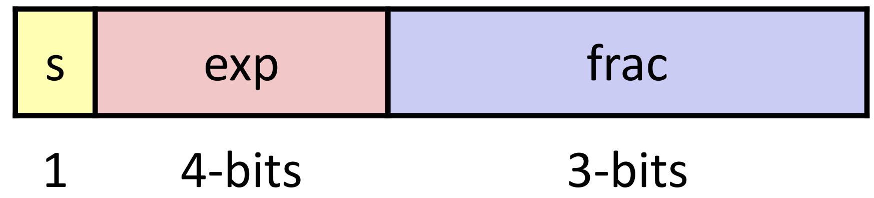
- **Steps**
  - Normalize to have leading 1
  - Round to fit within fraction
  - Postnormalize to deal with effects of rounding

- **Case Study**
  - Convert 8-bit unsigned numbers to tiny floating point format

Example Numbers

```
128         10000000
 15         00001101
 33         00010001
 35         00010011
138         10001010
 63         00111111
```

Normalize



- **Requirement**
  - Set binary point so that numbers of form 1.xxxxx
  - Adjust all to have leading one
    - Decrement exponent as shift left

Value	*Binary*	*Fraction*	*Exponent*
`128`	`10000000`	`1.0000000`	`7`
`15`	`00001101`	`1.1010000`	`3`
`17`	`00010001`	`1.0001000`	`4`
`19`	`00010011`	`1.0011000`	`4`
`138`	`10001010`	`1.0001010`	`7`
`63`	`00111111`	`1.1111100`	`5`

Postnormalize

- **Issue**
  - Rounding may have caused overflow
  - Handle by shifting right once & incrementing exponent

Value	*Rounded*	*Exp*	*Adjusted*	*Result*
`128`	`1.000`	`7`		`128`
`15`	`1.101`	`3`		`15`
`17`	`1.000`	`4`		`16`
`19`	`1.010`	`4`		`20`
`138`	`1.001`	`7`		`134`
`63`	`10.000`	`5`	`1.000/6`	`64`

Interesting Numbers

`{single,double}`

Description	*exp*	*frac*	*Numeric Value*
■ **Zero**	**00…00**	**00…00**	**0.0**
■ **Smallest Pos. Denorm.**	**00…00**	**00…01**	$2^{-\{23,52\}} \times 2^{-\{126,1022\}}$
▪ Single ≈ 1.4×10^{-45}			
▪ Double ≈ 4.9×10^{-324}			
■ **Largest Denormalized**	**00…00**	**11…11**	$(1.0 - \varepsilon) \times 2^{-\{126,1022\}}$
▪ Single ≈ 1.18×10^{-38}			
▪ Double ≈ 2.2×10^{-308}			
■ **Smallest Pos. Normalized**	**00…01**	**00…00**	$1.0 \times 2^{-\{126,1022\}}$
▪ Just larger than largest denormalized			
■ **One**	**01…11**	**00…00**	**1.0**
■ **Largest Normalized**	**11…10**	**11…11**	$(2.0 - \varepsilon) \times 2^{\{127,1023\}}$
▪ Single ≈ 3.4×10^{38}			
▪ Double ≈ 1.8×10^{308}			

Architektury systemów komputerowych

Wykład 3: Bity, bajty i liczby całkowite

Krystian Bacławski

Instytut Informatyki
Uniwersytet Wrocławski

11 marca 2021

Konwersja do postaci binarnej

Niech w to szerokość słowa w bitach, a x_i oznacza i-ty bit liczby x.

$$B2U_w(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{w-1} x_i \cdot 2^i$$

$$B2T_w(x) = -x_{w-1} \cdot 2^{w-1} + \sum_{i=0}^{w-2} x_i \cdot 2^i$$

Mnożenie na liczbach ze znakiem

Konwersja między liczbami ze znakiem i bez znaku

$$T2U_w(x) = x_{w-1} \cdot 2^w + x = \begin{cases} x + 2^w & \text{dla } x < 0 \\ x & \text{dla } x \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$U2T_w(u) = -u_{w-1} \cdot 2^w + u = \begin{cases} u & \text{dla } u < 2^{w-1} \\ u - 2^w & \text{dla } x \geq 2^w \end{cases}$$

$$T2U_{16}(-1) = 2^{16} - 1 = 65535$$
$$U2T_{16}(65535) = -1 \cdot 2^{16} + 65535 = -1$$

Co się dzieje z mnożeniem ze znakiem?

$$\begin{aligned} x *_w^t y &= U2T_w(T2U_w(x) \cdot T2U_w(y) \bmod 2^w) \\ &= U2T_w([(x + x_{w-1} \cdot 2^w) \cdot (y + y_{w-1} \cdot 2^w)] \bmod 2^w) \\ &= U2T_w([x \cdot y + (x_{w-1} \cdot y + y_{w-1} \cdot x) \cdot 2^w + x_{w-1} \cdot y_{w-1} \cdot 2^{2w}] \bmod 2^w) \\ &= U2T_w((x \cdot y) \bmod 2^w) \end{aligned}$$

Dzielenie całkowitoliczbowe

Oczekujemy, że dzielenie całkowitoliczbowe w języku `C` działa zgodnie z definicją:

$$
\begin{aligned}
x \div y &= \lfloor x/y \rfloor \\
x \,\%\, y &= x - \lfloor x/y \rfloor \cdot y
\end{aligned}
$$

Prosty program w języku `C` jest w stanie pokazać, że jest inaczej:

```
$ quorem 120 17
120 / 17 = 7        # ok
120 % 17 = 1
$ quorem 120 -17
120 / -17 = -7      # floor(-7.05...) = -8
120 % -17 = 1       # 120 - (-8 * -17) = -16
$ quorem -120 17
-120 / 17 = -7      # floor(-7.05...) = -8
-120 % 17 = -1      # -120 - (-8 * 17) = 16
$ quorem -120 -17
-120 / -17 = 7      # ok
-120 % -17 = -1     # -120 - (7 * -17) = -1
```

Dzielenie całkowitoliczbe realizowane przez procesor:

$$x \div y = \begin{cases} \lfloor x/y \rfloor & \text{dla } x \cdot y \geq 0 \wedge y \neq 0 \\ \lceil x/y \rceil & \text{dla } x \cdot y < 0 \wedge y \neq 0 \\ \perp & \text{dla } y = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$x \,\%\, y = \begin{cases} x - \lfloor x/y \rfloor \cdot y & \text{dla } y > 0 \\ x - \lceil x/y \rceil \cdot y & \text{dla } y < 0 \\ \perp & \text{dla } y = 0 \end{cases}$$

Zachowania

Lista zachowań

1. implementation-defined behaviour: np. rozmiar `long`
2. unspecified behaviour: np. kolejność wyliczania argumentów
3. undefined behaviour: niezdefiniowany przez specyfikację języka rezultat wykonania programu

Inne niezdefiniowane zachowania

1. Signed integer overflow
2. Reading an uninitialized local variable
3. Dereferencing a null pointer
4. Reading/writing an index past the end of an array
5. Computing an out-of-bounds pointer
6. Comparing pointers from unrelated objects
7. Oversized shift amounts

Więcej na ten temat w C++ Reference – Undefined behavior i innych licznych opracowaniach.

Machine-Level Programming I: Basics

15-213/18-213/15-513: Introduction to Computer Systems 18-613: Foundations of Computer Systems

5th Lecture, January 29, 2018

Instructors:

Seth C. Goldstein, Brandon Lucia, Franz Franchetti, and Brian Railing

Today: Machine Programming I: Basics

- **History of Intel processors and architectures**
- Assembly Basics: Registers, operands, move
- Arithmetic & logical operations
- C, assembly, machine code

Intel x86 Processors

- **Dominate laptop/desktop/server market**

- **Evolutionary design**
  - Backwards compatible up until 8086, introduced in 1978
  - Added more features as time goes on
    - Now 3 volumes, about 5,000 pages of documentation
- **Complex instruction set computer (CISC)**
  - Many different instructions with many different formats
    - But, only small subset encountered with Linux programs
  - Hard to match performance of Reduced Instruction Set Computers (RISC)
  - But, Intel has done just that!
    - In terms of speed. Less so for low power.

Intel x86 Evolution: Milestones

Name	*Date*	*Transistors*	*MHz*
8086	**1978**	**29K**	**5-10**

- First 16-bit Intel processor. Basis for IBM PC & DOS
- 1MB address space

386	**1985**	**275K**	**16-33**

- First 32 bit Intel processor , referred to as IA32
- Added “flat addressing”, capable of running Unix

Pentium 4E	**2004**	**125M**	**2800-3800**

- First 64-bit Intel x86 processor, referred to as x86-64

Core 2	**2006**	**291M**	**1060-3333**

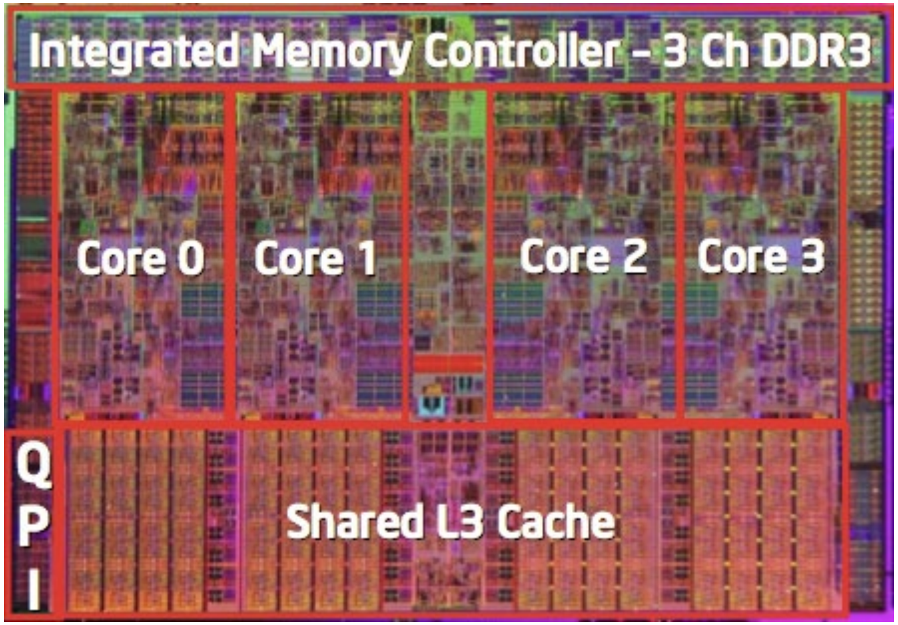
- First multi-core Intel processor

Core i7	**2008**	**731M**	**1600-4400**

- Four cores (our shark machines)

Intel x86 Processors, cont.

- **Machine Evolution**
  - 386 1985 0.3M
  - Pentium 1993 3.1M
  - Pentium/MMX 1997 4.5M
  - PentiumPro 1995 6.5M
  - Pentium III 1999 8.2M
  - Pentium 4 2000 42M
  - Core 2 Duo 2006 291M
  - Core i7 2008 731M
  - Core i7 Skylake 2015 1.9B



- **Added Features**
  - Instructions to support multimedia operations
  - Instructions to enable more efficient conditional operations
  - Transition from 32 bits to 64 bits
  - More cores

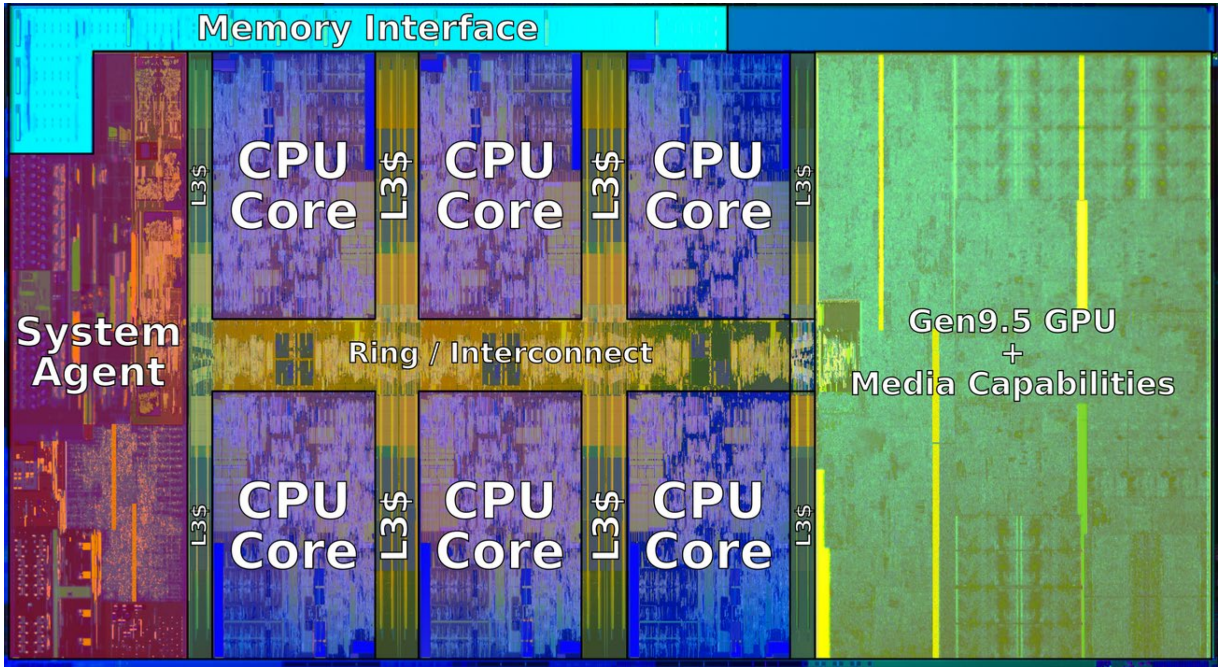
Intel x86 Processors, cont.

- **Past Generations** — **Process technology**
  - 1st Pentium Pro 1995 600 nm
  - 1st Pentium III 1999 250 nm
  - 1st Pentium 4 2000 180 nm
  - 1st Core 2 Duo 2006 65 nm

- **Recent & Upcoming Generations**
  1. Nehalem 2008 45 nm
  2. Sandy Bridge 2011 32 nm
  3. Ivy Bridge 2012 22 nm
  4. Haswell 2013 22 nm
  5. Broadwell 2014 14 nm
  6. Skylake 2015 14 nm
  7. Kaby Lake 2016 14 nm
  8. Coffee Lake 2017 14 nm
  - Cannon Lake 2019? 10 nm

Process technology dimension = width of narrowest wires (10 nm ≈ 100 atoms wide)

2018 State of the Art: Coffee Lake



- **Mobile Model: Core i7**
  - 2.2-3.2 GHz
  - 45 W
- **Desktop Model: Core i7**
  - Integrated graphics
  - 2.4-4.0 GHz
  - 35-95 W
- **Server Model: Xeon E**
  - Integrated graphics
  - Multi-socket enabled
  - 3.3-3.8 GHz
  - 80-95 W

x86 Clones: Advanced Micro Devices (AMD)

- **Historically**
  - AMD has followed just behind Intel
  - A little bit slower, a lot cheaper
- **Then**
  - Recruited top circuit designers from Digital Equipment Corp. and other downward trending companies
  - Built Opteron: tough competitor to Pentium 4
  - Developed x86-64, their own extension to 64 bits
- **Recent Years**
  - Intel got its act together
    - Leads the world in semiconductor technology
  - AMD has fallen behind
    - Relies on external semiconductor manufacturer

Intel's 64-Bit History

- **2001: Intel Attempts Radical Shift from IA32 to IA64**
  - Totally different architecture (Itanium)
  - Executes IA32 code only as legacy
  - Performance disappointing
- **2003: AMD Steps in with Evolutionary Solution**
  - x86-64 (now called "AMD64")
- **Intel Felt Obligated to Focus on IA64**
  - Hard to admit mistake or that AMD is better
- **2004: Intel Announces EM64T extension to IA32**
  - Extended Memory 64-bit Technology
  - Almost identical to x86-64!
- **All but low-end x86 processors support x86-64**
  - But, lots of code still runs in 32-bit mode

Today: Machine Programming I: Basics

- History of Intel processors and architectures
- **Assembly Basics: Registers, operands, move**
- Arithmetic & logical operations
- C, assembly, machine code

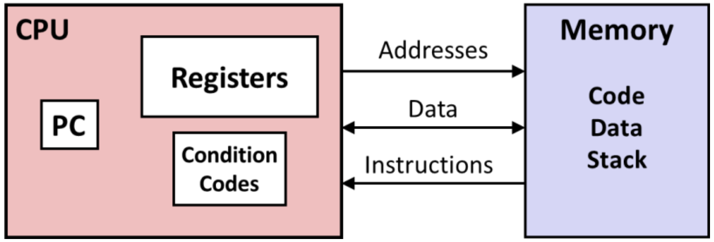
Levels of Abstraction

C programmer

C code

Nice clean layers, but beware…

Assembly programmer



Computer Designer

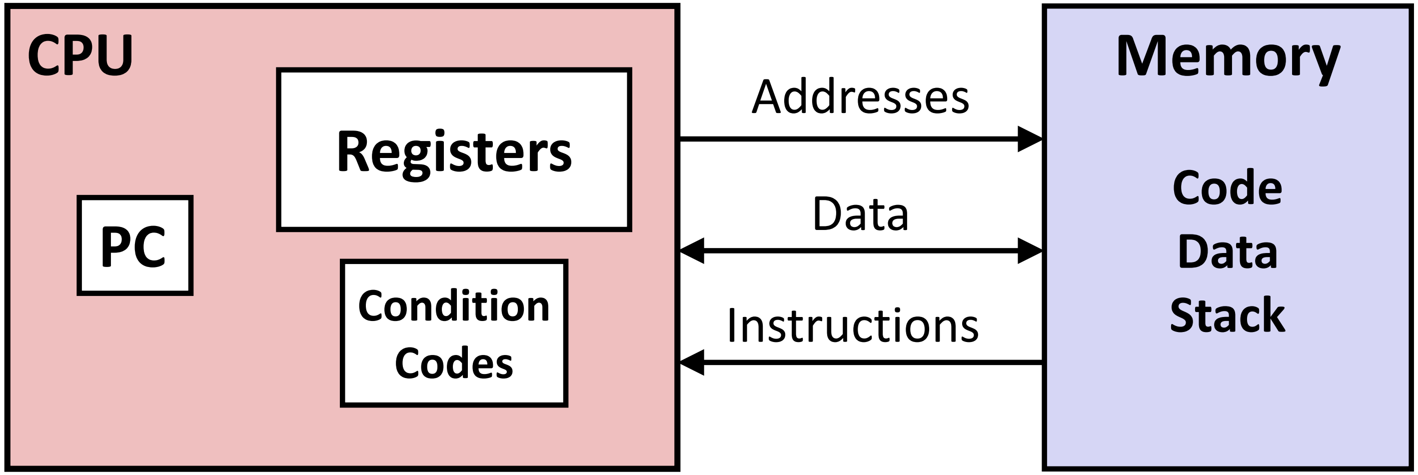
Caches, clock freq, layout, …

Of course, you know that: It's why you are taking this course.

Definitions

- **Architecture: (also ISA: instruction set architecture) The parts of a processor design that one needs to understand for writing assembly/machine code.**
  - Examples: instruction set specification, registers
- **Microarchitecture: Implementation of the architecture**
  - Examples: cache sizes and core frequency
- **Code Forms:**
  - Machine Code: The byte-level programs that a processor executes
  - Assembly Code: A text representation of machine code
- **Example ISAs:**
  - Intel: x86, IA32, Itanium, x86-64
  - ARM: Used in almost all mobile phones
  - RISC V: New open-source ISA

Assembly/Machine Code View



Programmer-Visible State

- **PC: Program counter**
  - Address of next instruction
  - Called "RIP" (x86-64)
- **Register file**
  - Heavily used program data
- **Condition codes**
  - Store status information about most recent arithmetic or logical operation
  - Used for conditional branching

- **Memory**
  - Byte addressable array
  - Code and user data
  - Stack to support procedures

Assembly Characteristics: Data Types

- **"Integer" data of 1, 2, 4, or 8 bytes**
  - Data values
  - Addresses (untyped pointers)
- **Floating point data of 4, 8, or 10 bytes**
- **(SIMD vector data types of 8, 16, 32 or 64 bytes)**
- **Code: Byte sequences encoding series of instructions**
- **No aggregate types such as arrays or structures**
  - Just contiguously allocated bytes in memory

x86-64 Integer Registers

`%rax`	`%eax`	`%r8`	`%r8d`
`%rbx`	`%ebx`	`%r9`	`%r9d`
`%rcx`	`%ecx`	`%r10`	`%r10d`
`%rdx`	`%edx`	`%r11`	`%r11d`
`%rsi`	`%esi`	`%r12`	`%r12d`
`%rdi`	`%edi`	`%r13`	`%r13d`
`%rsp`	`%esp`	`%r14`	`%r14d`
`%rbp`	`%ebp`	`%r15`	`%r15d`

- Can reference low-order 4 bytes (also low-order 1 & 2 bytes)
- Not part of memory (or cache)

Some History: IA32 Registers

general purpose

32-bit	16-bit	High byte	Low byte	Origin (mostly obsolete)
`%eax`	`%ax`	`%ah`	`%al`	*accumulate*
`%ecx`	`%cx`	`%ch`	`%cl`	*counter*
`%edx`	`%dx`	`%dh`	`%dl`	*data*
`%ebx`	`%bx`	`%bh`	`%bl`	*base*
`%esi`	`%si`			*source index*
`%edi`	`%di`			*destination index*
`%esp`	`%sp`			***stack pointer***
`%ebp`	`%bp`			***base pointer***

16-bit virtual registers (backwards compatibility)

Assembly Characteristics: Operations

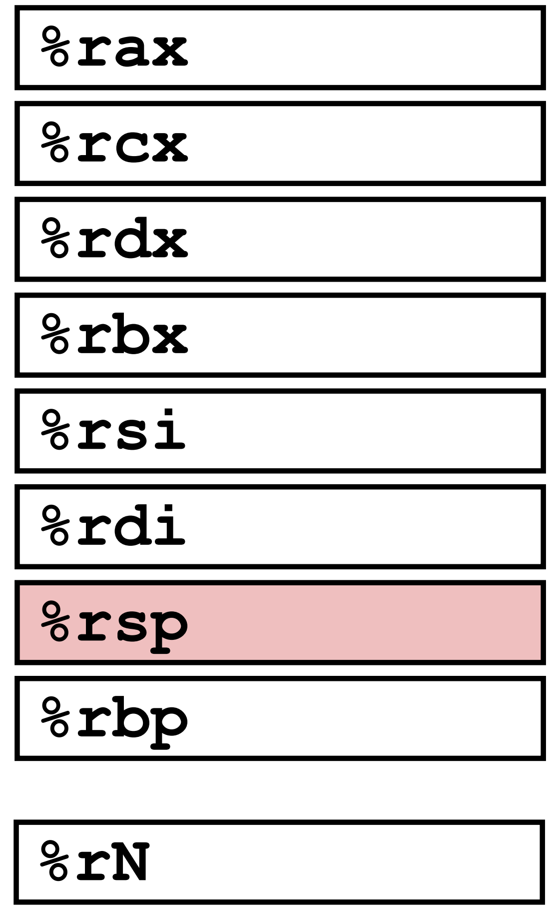
- **Transfer data between memory and register**
  - Load data from memory into register
  - Store register data into memory
- **Perform arithmetic function on register or memory data**
- **Transfer control**
  - Unconditional jumps to/from procedures
  - Conditional branches
  - Indirect branches

Moving Data

- **Moving Data**

  movq *Source, Dest*

- **Operand Types**
  - ***Immediate:*** Constant integer data
    - Example: **`$0x400, $-533`**
    - Like C constant, but prefixed with **`'$'`**
    - Encoded with 1, 2, or 4 bytes
  - ***Register:*** One of 16 integer registers
    - Example: **`%rax, %r13`**
    - But **`%rsp`** reserved for special use
    - Others have special uses for particular instructions
  - ***Memory:*** 8 consecutive bytes of memory at address given by register
    - Simplest example: **`(%rax)`**
    - Various other "addressing modes"



Warning: Intel docs use
mov *Dest, Source*

`movq` Operand Combinations

	Source	Dest	Src,Dest	C Analog
`movq`	*Imm*	*Reg*	`movq $0x4,%rax`	`temp = 0x4;`
		Mem	`movq $-147,(%rax)`	`*p = -147;`
	Reg	*Reg*	`movq %rax,%rdx`	`temp2 = temp1;`
		Mem	`movq %rax,(%rdx)`	`*p = temp;`
	Mem	*Reg*	`movq (%rax),%rdx`	`temp = *p;`

Cannot do memory-memory transfer with a single instruction

Simple Memory Addressing Modes

- **Normal** **(R)** **Mem[Reg[R]]**
  - Register R specifies memory address
  - Aha! Pointer dereferencing in C

```
movq (%rcx),%rax
```

- **Displacement** **D(R)** **Mem[Reg[R]+D]**
  - Register R specifies start of memory region
  - Constant displacement D specifies offset

```
movq 8(%rbp),%rdx
```

Example of Simple Addressing Modes

```
void
whatAmI(<type> a, <type> b)
{
      ????
}
```

%rdi

%rsi

```
whatAmI:
   movq    (%rdi), %rax
   movq    (%rsi), %rdx
   movq    %rdx, (%rdi)
   movq    %rax, (%rsi)
   ret
```

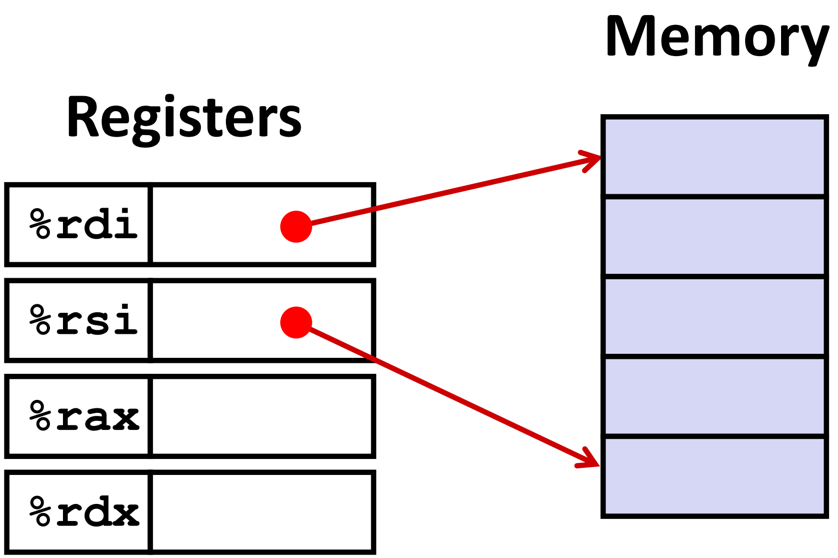
Example of Simple Addressing Modes

```
void swap
   (long *xp, long *yp)
{
  long t0 = *xp;
  long t1 = *yp;
  *xp = t1;
  *yp = t0;
}
```

```
swap:
   movq    (%rdi), %rax
   movq    (%rsi), %rdx
   movq    %rdx, (%rdi)
   movq    %rax, (%rsi)
   ret
```

Understanding Swap()

```
void swap
   (long *xp, long *yp)
{
  long t0 = *xp;
  long t1 = *yp;
  *xp = t1;
  *yp = t0;
}
```



Register	Value
%rdi	xp
%rsi	yp
%rax	t0
%rdx	t1

```
swap:
   movq    (%rdi), %rax   # t0 = *xp
   movq    (%rsi), %rdx   # t1 = *yp
   movq    %rdx, (%rdi)   # *xp = t1
   movq    %rax, (%rsi)   # *yp = t0
   ret
```

Understanding Swap()

Registers

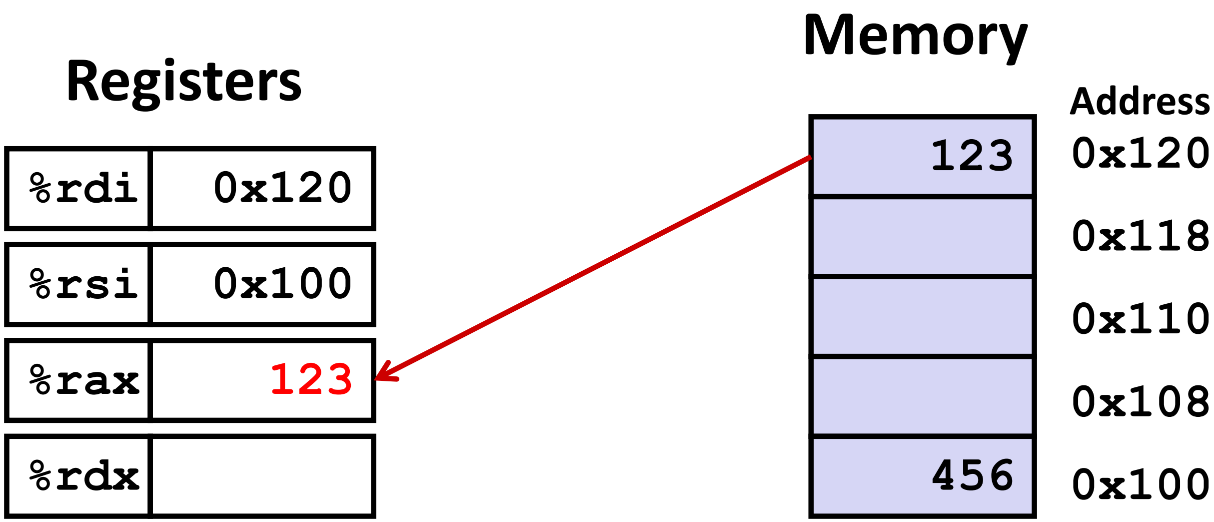
%rdi	0x120
%rsi	0x100
%rax	
%rdx	

Memory

	Address
123	0x120
	0x118
	0x110
	0x108
456	0x100

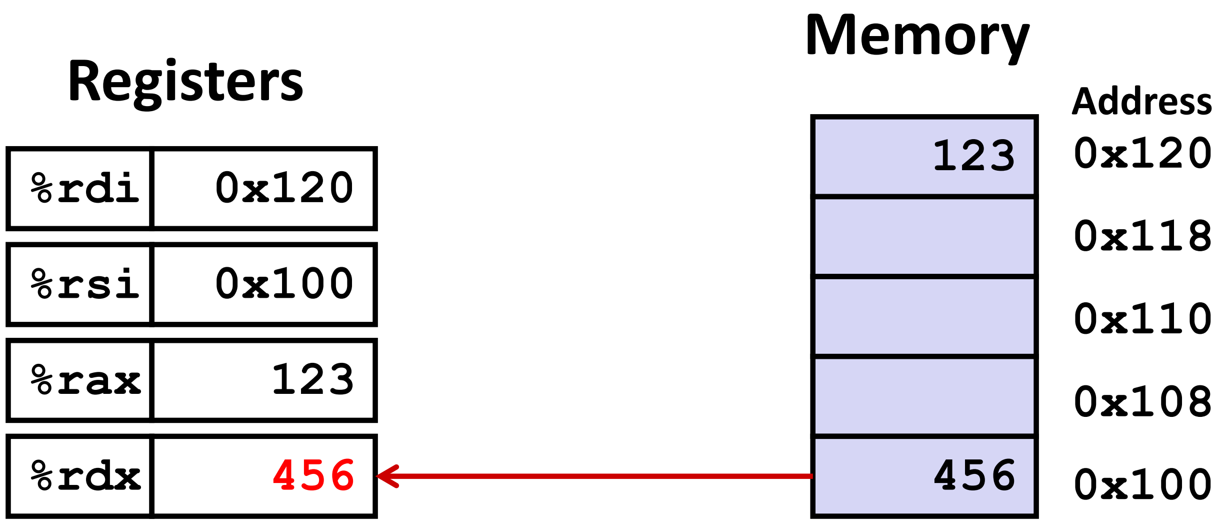
```
swap:
   movq    (%rdi), %rax   # t0 = *xp
   movq    (%rsi), %rdx   # t1 = *yp
   movq    %rdx, (%rdi)   # *xp = t1
   movq    %rax, (%rsi)   # *yp = t0
   ret
```

Understanding Swap()



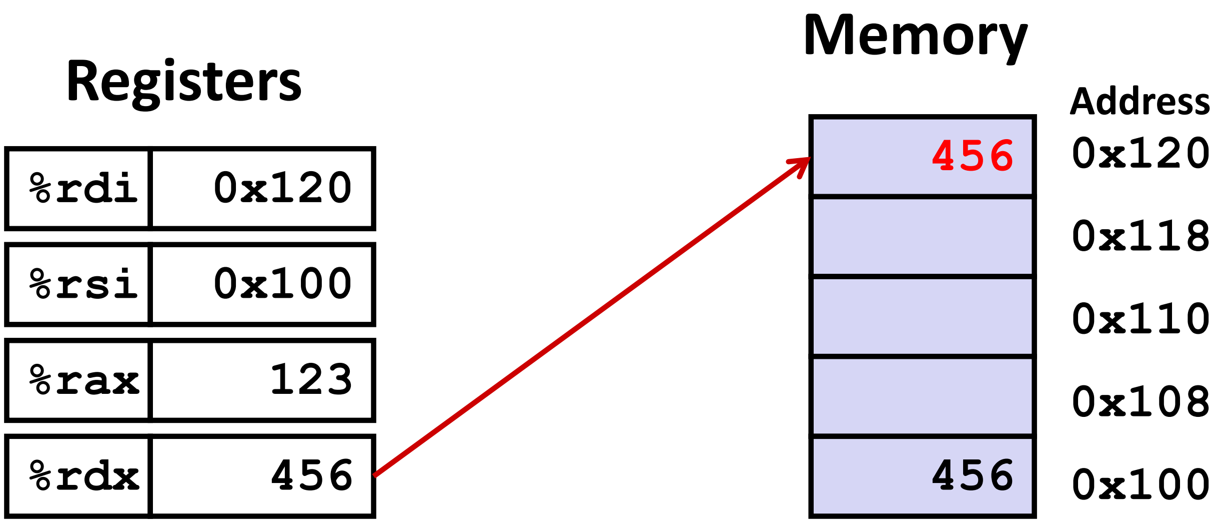

```
swap:
   movq     (%rdi), %rax   # t0 = *xp
   movq     (%rsi), %rdx   # t1 = *yp
   movq     %rdx, (%rdi)   # *xp = t1
   movq     %rax, (%rsi)   # *yp = t0
   ret
```

Understanding Swap()



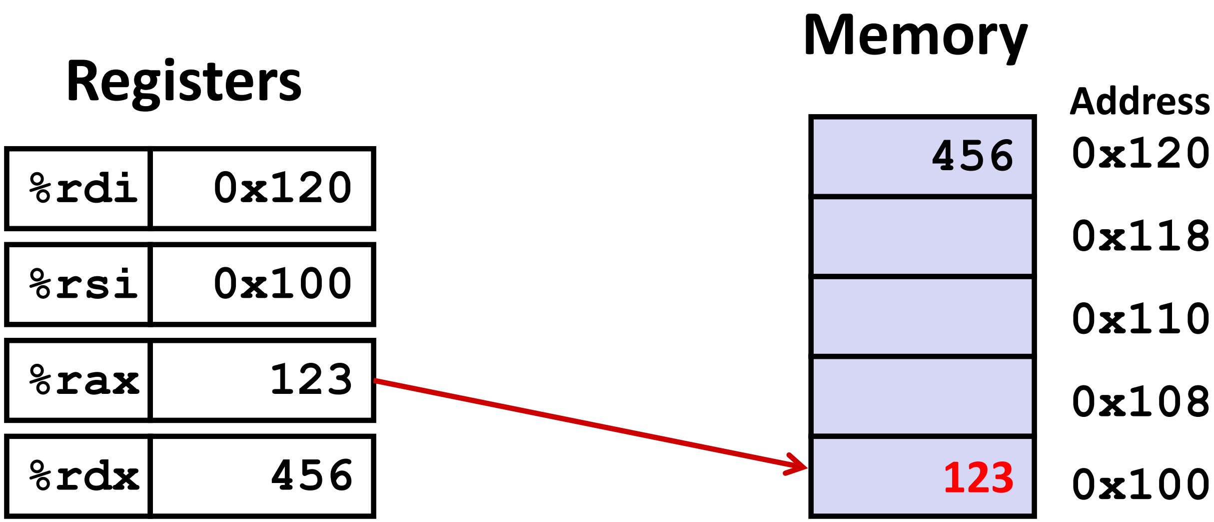

```
swap:
   movq    (%rdi), %rax   # t0 = *xp
   movq    (%rsi), %rdx   # t1 = *yp
   movq    %rdx, (%rdi)   # *xp = t1
   movq    %rax, (%rsi)   # *yp = t0
   ret
```

Understanding Swap()




```
swap:
    movq     (%rdi), %rax   # t0 = *xp
    movq     (%rsi), %rdx   # t1 = *yp
    movq     %rdx, (%rdi)   # *xp = t1
    movq     %rax, (%rsi)   # *yp = t0
    ret
```

Understanding Swap()




```
swap:
    movq    (%rdi), %rax   # t0 = *xp
    movq    (%rsi), %rdx   # t1 = *yp
    movq    %rdx, (%rdi)   # *xp = t1
    movq    %rax, (%rsi)   # *yp = t0
    ret
```

Complete Memory Addressing Modes

- **Most General Form**

  D(Rb,Ri,S) **Mem[Reg[Rb]+S*Reg[Ri]+ D]**

  - D: Constant "displacement" 1, 2, or 4 bytes
  - Rb: Base register: Any of 16 integer registers
  - Ri: Index register: Any, except for `%rsp`
  - S: Scale: 1, 2, 4, or 8 (*why these numbers?*)

- **Special Cases**

  (Rb,Ri) **Mem[Reg[Rb]+Reg[Ri]]**

  D(Rb,Ri) **Mem[Reg[Rb]+Reg[Ri]+D]**

  (Rb,Ri,S) **Mem[Reg[Rb]+S*Reg[Ri]]**

Address Computation Examples

`%rdx`	`0xf000`
`%rcx`	`0x0100`

D(Rb,Ri,S) **Mem[Reg[Rb]+S*Reg[Ri]+ D]**

- D: Constant "displacement" 1, 2, or 4 bytes
- Rb: Base register: Any of 16 integer registers
- Ri: Index register: Any, except for **`%rsp`**
- S: Scale: 1, 2, 4, or 8 (*why these numbers?*)

Expression	Address Computation	Address
`0x8(%rdx)`		
`(%rdx,%rcx)`		
`(%rdx,%rcx,4)`		
`0x80(,%rdx,2)`		

Address Computation Examples

`%rdx`	`0xf000`
`%rcx`	`0x0100`

Expression	Address Computation	Address
`0x8(%rdx)`	`0xf000 + 0x8`	`0xf008`
`(%rdx,%rcx)`	`0xf000 + 0x100`	`0xf100`
`(%rdx,%rcx,4)`	`0xf000 + 4*0x100`	`0xf400`
`0x80(,%rdx,2)`	`2*0xf000 + 0x80`	`0x1e080`

Today: Machine Programming I: Basics

- History of Intel processors and architectures
- Assembly Basics: Registers, operands, move
- **Arithmetic & logical operations**
- C, assembly, machine code

Address Computation Instruction

- **`leaq` *Src*, *Dst***
  - *Src* is address mode expression
  - Set *Dst* to address denoted by expression
- **Uses**
  - Computing addresses without a memory reference
    - E.g., translation of `p = &x[i];`
  - Computing arithmetic expressions of the form x + k*y
    - k = 1, 2, 4, or 8
- **Example**

```
long m12(long x)
{
  return x*12;
}
```

Converted to ASM by compiler:

```
leaq (%rdi,%rdi,2), %rax   # t = x+2*x
salq $2, %rax              # return t<<2
```

Some Arithmetic Operations

- **Two Operand Instructions:**

Format		*Computation*	
`addq`	*Src,Dest*	Dest = Dest + Src	
`subq`	*Src,Dest*	Dest = Dest – Src	
`imulq`	*Src,Dest*	Dest = Dest * Src	
`salq`	*Src,Dest*	Dest = Dest << Src	*Also called shlq*
`sarq`	*Src,Dest*	Dest = Dest >> Src	*Arithmetic*
`shrq`	*Src,Dest*	Dest = Dest >> Src	*Logical*
`xorq`	*Src,Dest*	Dest = Dest ^ Src	
`andq`	*Src,Dest*	Dest = Dest & Src	
`orq`	*Src,Dest*	Dest = Dest | Src	

- **Watch out for argument order! *Src,Dest***
  (Warning: Intel docs use "op *Dest,Src*")
- **No distinction between signed and unsigned int (why?)**

Some Arithmetic Operations

- **One Operand Instructions**

`incq`	*Dest*	*Dest = Dest + 1*
`decq`	*Dest*	*Dest = Dest – 1*
`negq`	*Dest*	*Dest = – Dest*
`notq`	*Dest*	*Dest = ~Dest*

- **See book for more instructions**

Arithmetic Expression Example

```
long arith
(long x, long y, long z)
{
  long t1 = x+y;
  long t2 = z+t1;
  long t3 = x+4;
  long t4 = y * 48;
  long t5 = t3 + t4;
  long rval = t2 * t5;
  return rval;
}
```

```
arith:
  leaq    (%rdi,%rsi), %rax
  addq    %rdx, %rax
  leaq    (%rsi,%rsi,2), %rdx
  salq    $4, %rdx
  leaq    4(%rdi,%rdx), %rcx
  imulq   %rcx, %rax
  ret
```

Interesting Instructions

- `leaq`: address computation
- `salq`: shift
- `imulq`: multiplication
  - But, only used once

Understanding Arithmetic Expression Example

```
long arith
(long x, long y, long z)
{
  long t1 = x+y;
  long t2 = z+t1;
  long t3 = x+4;
  long t4 = y * 48;
  long t5 = t3 + t4;
  long rval = t2 * t5;
  return rval;
}
```

```
arith:
  leaq    (%rdi,%rsi), %rax    # t1
  addq    %rdx, %rax           # t2
  leaq    (%rsi,%rsi,2), %rdx
  salq    $4, %rdx             # t4
  leaq    4(%rdi,%rdx), %rcx   # t5
  imulq   %rcx, %rax           # rval
  ret
```

Register	Use(s)
`%rdi`	Argument `x`
`%rsi`	Argument `y`
`%rdx`	Argument `z`, `t4`
`%rax`	`t1`, `t2`, `rval`
`%rcx`	`t5`

Compiler optimization:

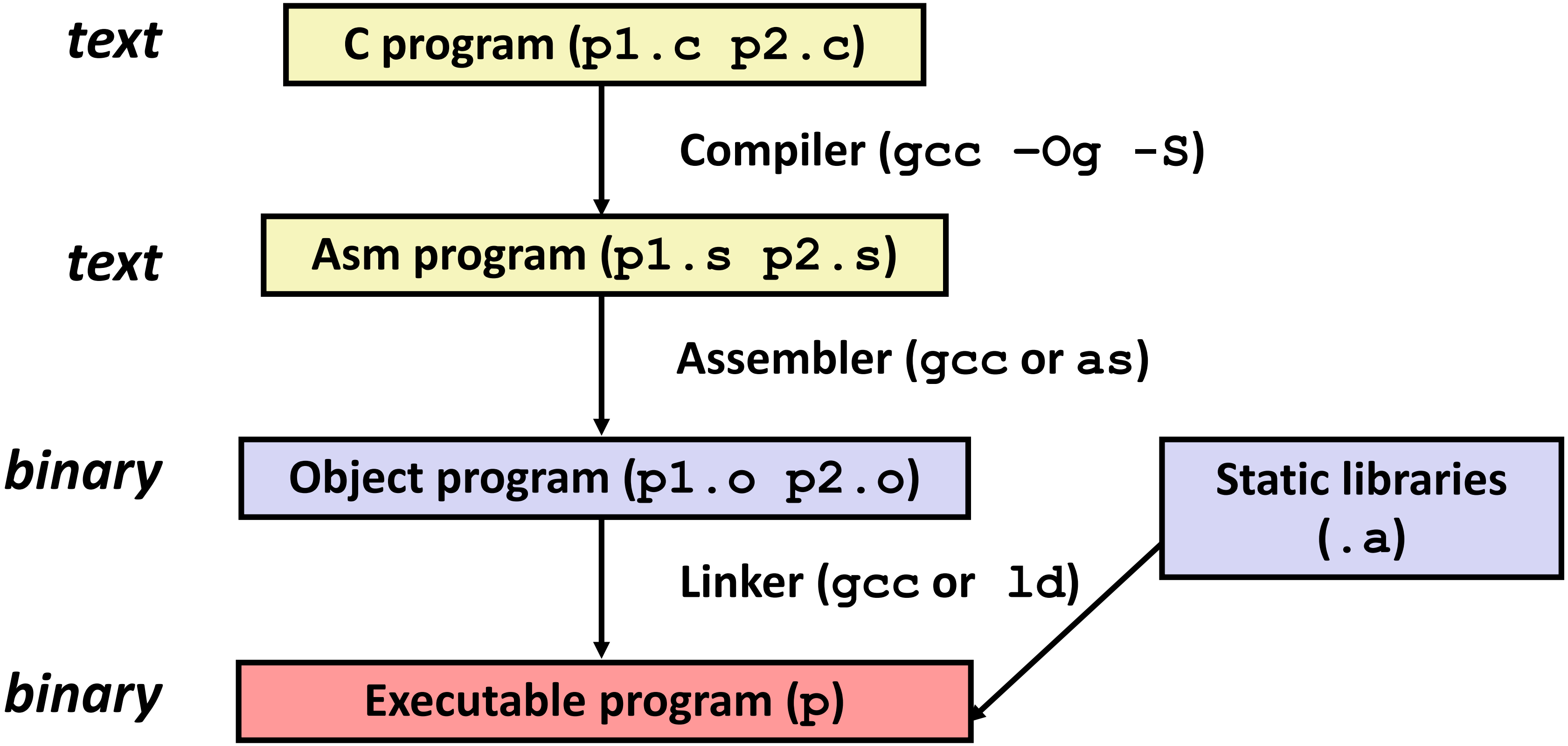
- **Reuse of registers**
- **Substitution (copy propagation)**
- **Strength reduction**

Today: Machine Programming I: Basics

- History of Intel processors and architectures
- Assembly Basics: Registers, operands, move
- Arithmetic & logical operations
- C, assembly, machine code

Turning C into Object Code

- Code in files `p1.c p2.c`
- Compile with command: `gcc -Og p1.c p2.c -o p`
  - Use basic optimizations (`-Og`) [New to recent versions of GCC]
  - Put resulting binary in file `p`



Compiling Into Assembly

C Code (sum.c)

```
long plus(long x, long y);

void sumstore(long x, long y,
              long *dest)
{
    long t = plus(x, y);
    *dest = t;
}
```

Generated x86-64 Assembly

```
sumstore:
   pushq   %rbx
   movq    %rdx, %rbx
   call    plus
   movq    %rax, (%rbx)
   popq    %rbx
   ret
```

Obtain (on shark machine) with command

```
gcc –Og –S sum.c
```

Produces file `sum.s`

***Warning*: Will get very different results on non-Shark machines (Andrew Linux, Mac OS-X, …) due to different versions of gcc and different compiler settings.**

What it really looks like

```
        .globl  sumstore
        .type   sumstore, @function
sumstore:
.LFB35:
        .cfi_startproc
        pushq   %rbx
        .cfi_def_cfa_offset 16
        .cfi_offset 3, -16
        movq    %rdx, %rbx
        call    plus
        movq    %rax, (%rbx)
        popq    %rbx
        .cfi_def_cfa_offset 8
        ret
        .cfi_endproc
.LFE35:
        .size   sumstore, .-sumstore
```

What it really looks like

```
        .globl  sumstore
        .type   sumstore, @function
sumstore:
.LFB35:
        .cfi_startproc
        pushq   %rbx
        .cfi_def_cfa_offset 16
        .cfi_offset 3, -16
        movq    %rdx, %rbx
        call    plus
        movq    %rax, (%rbx)
        popq    %rbx
        .cfi_def_cfa_offset 8
        ret
        .cfi_endproc
.LFE35:
        .size   sumstore, .-sumstore
```

Things that look weird and are preceded by a '.' are generally directives.
CFI = call frame information

```
sumstore:
    pushq   %rbx
    movq    %rdx, %rbx
    call    plus
    movq    %rax, (%rbx)
    popq    %rbx
    ret
```

Object Code

Code for `sumstore`

```
0x0400595:
    0x53
    0x48
    0x89
    0xd3
    0xe8
    0xf2
    0xff
    0xff
    0xff
    0x48
    0x89
    0x03
    0x5b
    0xc3
```

- **Total of 14 bytes**
- **Each instruction 1, 3, or 5 bytes**
- **Starts at address `0x0400595`**

- **Assembler**
  - Translates `.s` into `.o`
  - Binary encoding of each instruction
  - Nearly-complete image of executable code
  - Missing linkages between code in different files
- **Linker**
  - Resolves references between files
  - Combines with static run-time libraries
    - E.g., code for **`malloc`**, **`printf`**
  - Some libraries are *dynamically linked*
    - Linking occurs when program begins execution

Machine Instruction Example

```
*dest = t;
```

```
movq %rax, (%rbx)
```

```
0x40059e:   48 89 03
```

C Code

- Store value **`t`** where designated by **`dest`**

Assembly

- Move 8-byte value to memory
  - Quad words in x86-64 parlance
- Operands:

  `t:` Register **`%rax`**

  `dest:` Register **`%rbx`**

  `*dest:` Memory **`M[%rbx]`**

Object Code

- 3-byte instruction
- Stored at address **`0x40059e`**

Disassembling Object Code

Disassembled

```
0000000000400595 <sumstore>:
  400595:  53              push   %rbx
  400596:  48 89 d3        mov    %rdx,%rbx
  400599:  e8 f2 ff ff ff  callq  400590 <plus>
  40059e:  48 89 03        mov    %rax,(%rbx)
  4005a1:  5b              pop    %rbx
  4005a2:  c3              retq
```

- **Disassembler**

  `objdump -d sum`

  - Useful tool for examining object code
  - Analyzes bit pattern of series of instructions
  - Produces approximate rendition of assembly code
  - Can be run on either `a.out` (complete executable) or `.o` file

Alternate Disassembly

Disassembled

```
Dump of assembler code for function sumstore:
 0x0000000000400595 <+0>: push   %rbx
 0x0000000000400596 <+1>: mov    %rdx,%rbx
 0x0000000000400599 <+4>: callq  0x400590 <plus>
 0x000000000040059e <+9>: mov    %rax,(%rbx)
 0x00000000004005a1 <+12>:pop    %rbx
 0x00000000004005a2 <+13>:retq
```

- **Within gdb Debugger**
  - Disassemble procedure

```
gdb sum
disassemble sumstore
```

Alternate Disassembly

Object Code

```
0x0400595:
    0x53
    0x48
    0x89
    0xd3
    0xe8
    0xf2
    0xff
    0xff
    0xff
    0x48
    0x89
    0x03
    0x5b
    0xc3
```

Disassembled

```
Dump of assembler code for function sumstore:
 0x0000000000400595 <+0>: push   %rbx
 0x0000000000400596 <+1>: mov    %rdx,%rbx
 0x0000000000400599 <+4>: callq  0x400590 <plus>
 0x000000000040059e <+9>: mov    %rax,(%rbx)
 0x00000000004005a1 <+12>:pop    %rbx
 0x00000000004005a2 <+13>:retq
```

- **Within gdb Debugger**
  - Disassemble procedure

```
gdb sum
disassemble sumstore
```

  - Examine the 14 bytes starting at `sumstore`

```
x/14xb sumstore
```

What Can be Disassembled?

```
% objdump -d WINWORD.EXE

WINWORD.EXE:   file format pei-i386

No symbols in "WINWORD.EXE".
Disassembly of section .text:

30001000 <.text>:
30001000:
30001001:
30001003:
30001005:
3000100a:
```

Reverse engineering forbidden by
Microsoft End User License Agreement

- Anything that can be interpreted as executable code
- Disassembler examines bytes and reconstructs assembly source

Machine Programming I: Summary

- **History of Intel processors and architectures**
  - Evolutionary design leads to many quirks and artifacts
- **C, assembly, machine code**
  - New forms of visible state: program counter, registers, ...
  - Compiler must transform statements, expressions, procedures into low-level instruction sequences
- **Assembly Basics: Registers, operands, move**
  - The x86-64 move instructions cover wide range of data movement forms
- **Arithmetic**
  - C compiler will figure out different instruction combinations to carry out computation

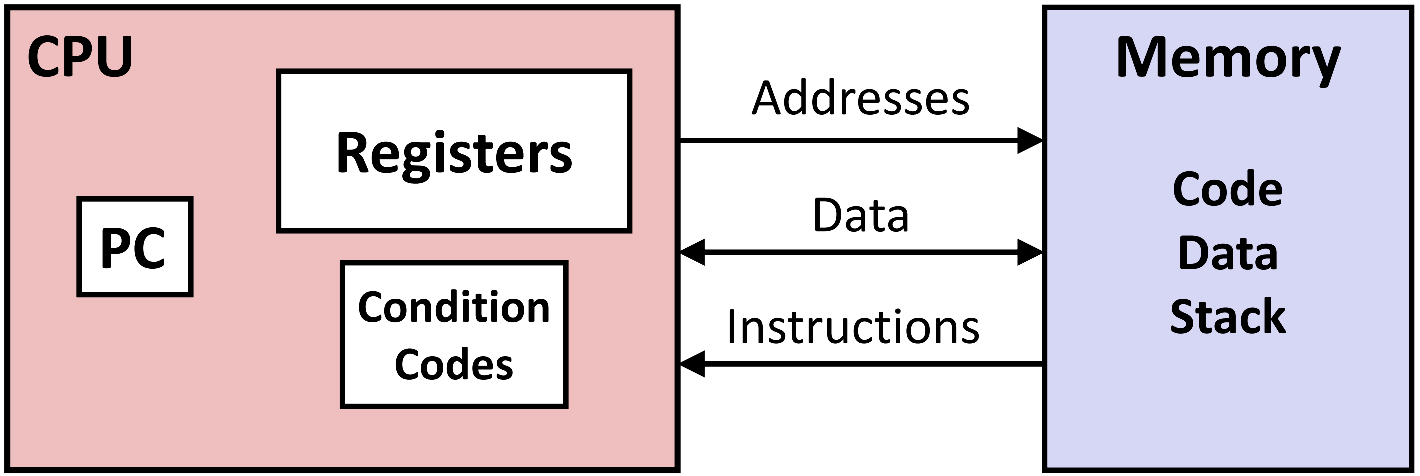
Machine-Level Programming II: Control

15-213: Introduction to Computer Systems
6th Lecture, Sept. 13, 2018

Today

- Control: Condition codes
- Conditional branches
- Loops
- Switch Statements

Recall: ISA = Assembly/Machine Code View



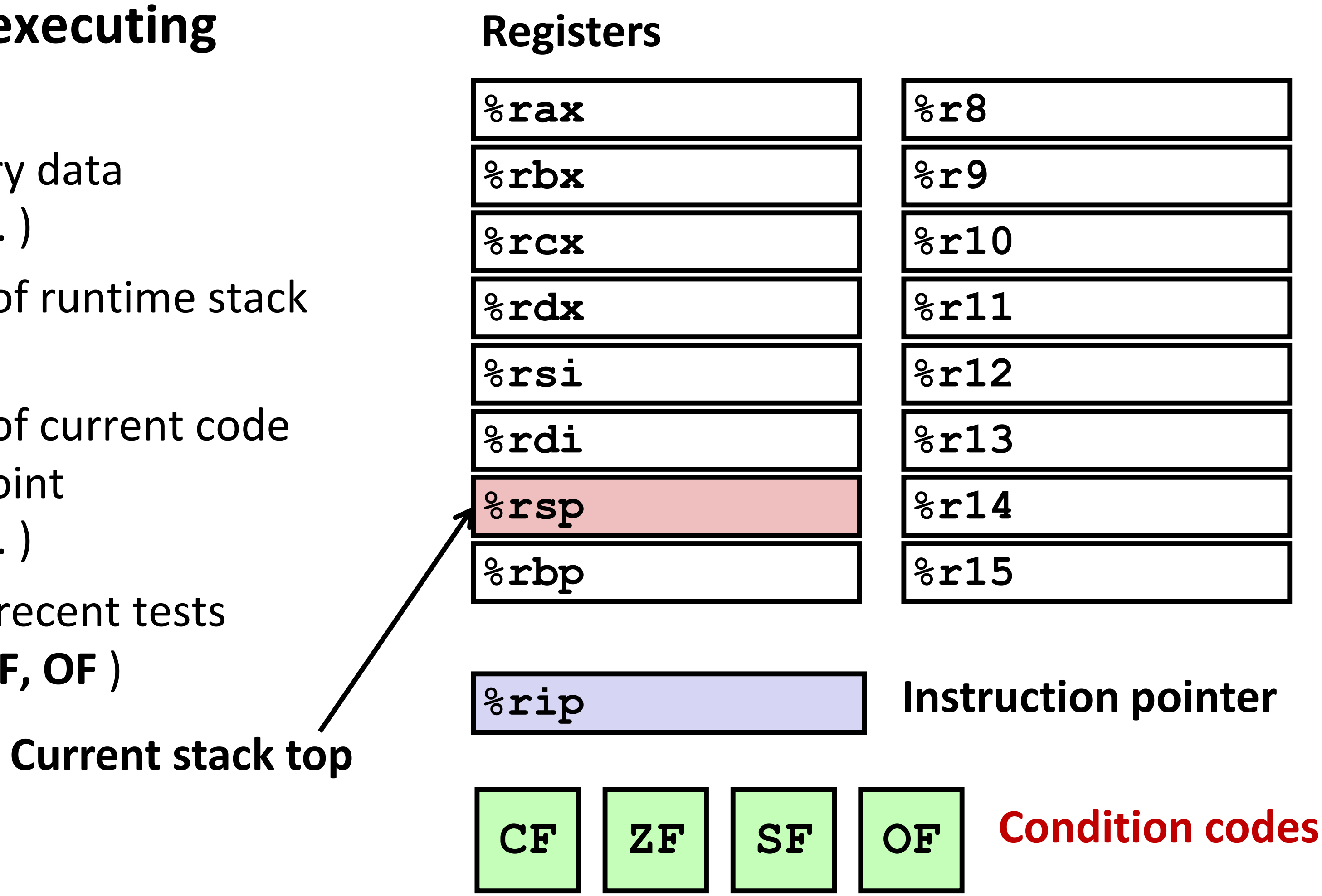
Programmer-Visible State

- **PC: Program counter**
  - Address of next instruction
- **Register file**
  - Heavily used program data
- **Condition codes**
  - Store status information about most recent arithmetic or logical operation
  - Used for conditional branching

- **Memory**
  - Byte addressable array
  - Code and user data
  - Stack to support procedures

Processor State (x86-64, Partial)

- **Information about currently executing program**
  - Temporary data (**`%rax`**, …)
  - Location of runtime stack (**`%rsp`**)
  - Location of current code control point (**`%rip`**, …)
  - Status of recent tests (**CF, ZF, SF, OF**)



Condition Codes (Implicit Setting)

- **Single bit registers**
  - **CF** Carry Flag (for unsigned) **SF** Sign Flag (for signed)
  - **ZF** Zero Flag **OF** Overflow Flag (for signed)

- **Implicitly set (as side effect) of arithmetic operations**

  Example: `addq` *Src,Dest* ↔ `t = a+b`

  CF set if carry/borrow out from most significant bit (unsigned overflow)

  ZF set if `t == 0`

  SF set if `t < 0` (as signed)

  OF set if two's-complement (signed) overflow

  `(a>0 && b>0 && t<0) || (a<0 && b<0 && t>=0)`

- **Not set by `leaq` instruction**

ZF set when

000000000000…00000000000

SF set when

```
   yxxxxxxxxxxxx...
+  yxxxxxxxxxxxx...
-------------------
   1xxxxxxxxxxxx...
```

For signed arithmetic, this reports when result is a negative number

CF set when

```
   1xxxxxxxxxxxxx...
+  1xxxxxxxxxxxxx...
--------------------
1  xxxxxxxxxxxxxx...
```

Carry

```
1  0xxxxxxxxxxxxx...
-  1xxxxxxxxxxxxx...
--------------------
   1xxxxxxxxxxxxx...
```

Borrow

For unsigned arithmetic, this reports overflow

OF set when

```
     yxxxxxxxxxxxxx...     a
+    yxxxxxxxxxxxxx...     b
--------------------------
     zxxxxxxxxxxxxx...     t
```

z = ~y

```
(a>0 && b>0 && t<0) || (a<0 && b<0 && t>=0)
```

For signed arithmetic, this reports overflow

Condition Codes (Explicit Setting: Compare)

- **Explicit Setting by Compare Instruction**
  - **`cmpq`** *Src2*, *Src1*
  - **`cmpq b,a`** like computing **`a-b`** without setting destination

  - **CF set** if carry/borrow out from most significant bit (used for unsigned comparisons)
  - **ZF set** if **`a == b`**
  - **SF set** if **`(a-b) < 0`** (as signed)
  - **OF set** if two's-complement (signed) overflow
    `(a>0 && b<0 && (a-b)<0) || (a<0 && b>0 && (a-b)>0)`

Condition Codes (Explicit Setting: Test)

- **Explicit Setting by Test instruction**
  - **`testq`** *Src2*, *Src1*
    - **`testq b,a`** like computing **`a&b`** without setting destination
  - Sets condition codes based on value of *Src1* & *Src2*
  - Useful to have one of the operands be a mask
  - **ZF set** when **`a&b == 0`**
  - **SF set** when **`a&b < 0`**

Very often:

```
testq   %rax,%rax
```

Condition Codes (Explicit Reading: Set)

- **Explicit Reading by Set Instructions**
  - `setX` *Dest*: Set low-order byte of destination *Dest* to 0 or 1 based on combinations of condition codes
  - Does not alter remaining 7 bytes of *Dest*

SetX	Condition	Description
`sete`	`ZF`	Equal / Zero
`setne`	`~ZF`	Not Equal / Not Zero
`sets`	`SF`	Negative
`setns`	`~SF`	Nonnegative
`setg`	`~(SF^OF)&~ZF`	Greater (signed)
`setge`	`~(SF^OF)`	Greater or Equal (signed)
`setl`	`SF^OF`	Less (signed)
`setle`	`(SF^OF)|ZF`	Less or Equal (signed)
`seta`	`~CF&~ZF`	Above (unsigned)
`setb`	`CF`	Below (unsigned)

x86-64 Integer Registers

%rax	%al	%r8	%r8b
%rbx	%bl	%r9	%r9b
%rcx	%cl	%r10	%r10b
%rdx	%dl	%r11	%r11b
%rsi	%sil	%r12	%r12b
%rdi	%dil	%r13	%r13b
%rsp	%spl	%r14	%r14b
%rbp	%bpl	%r15	%r15b

- Can reference low-order byte

Explicit Reading Condition Codes (Cont.)

- **SetX Instructions:**
  - Set single byte based on combination of condition codes
- **One of addressable byte registers**
  - Does not alter remaining bytes
  - Typically use **`movzbl`** to finish job
    - 32-bit instructions also set upper 32 bits to 0

```
int gt (long x, long y)
{
  return x > y;
}
```

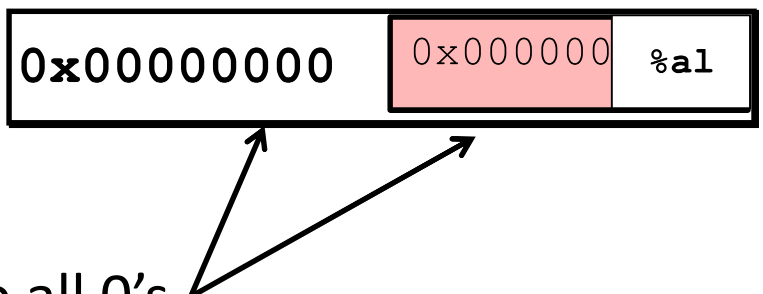
Register	Use(s)
`%rdi`	Argument **`x`**
`%rsi`	Argument **`y`**
`%rax`	Return value

```
    cmpq   %rsi, %rdi   # Compare x:y
    setg   %al          # Set when >
    movzbl %al, %eax    # Zero rest of %rax
    ret
```

Explicit Reading Condition Codes (Cont.)

Beware weirdness **movzbl** (and others)

movzbl %al, %eax



Zapped to all 0's

Use(s)
Argument **x**
Argument **y**
Return value

```
cmpq   %rsi, %rdi    # Compare x:y
setg   %al           # Set when >
movzbl %al, %eax     # Zero rest of %rax
ret
```

Today

- Control: Condition codes
- **Conditional branches**
- Loops
- Switch Statements

Jumping

- **jX Instructions**
  - Jump to different part of code depending on condition codes
  - Implicit reading of condition codes

jX	Condition	Description
`jmp`	`1`	Unconditional
`je`	`ZF`	Equal / Zero
`jne`	`~ZF`	Not Equal / Not Zero
`js`	`SF`	Negative
`jns`	`~SF`	Nonnegative
`jg`	`~(SF^OF)&~ZF`	Greater (signed)
`jge`	`~(SF^OF)`	Greater or Equal (signed)
`jl`	`SF^OF`	Less (signed)
`jle`	`(SF^OF)|ZF`	Less or Equal (signed)
`ja`	`~CF&~ZF`	Above (unsigned)
`jb`	`CF`	Below (unsigned)

Conditional Branch Example (Old Style)

- **Generation**

Get to this shortly

```
shark> gcc –Og -S –fno-if-conversion control.c
```

```
long absdiff
   (long x, long y)
{
   long result;
   if (x > y)
      result = x-y;
   else
      result = y-x;
   return result;
}
```

```
absdiff:
   cmpq    %rsi, %rdi   # x:y
   jle     .L4
   movq    %rdi, %rax
   subq    %rsi, %rax
   ret
.L4:               # x <= y
   movq    %rsi, %rax
   subq    %rdi, %rax
   ret
```

Register	Use(s)
`%rdi`	Argument **x**
`%rsi`	Argument **y**
`%rax`	Return value

Expressing with Goto Code

- C allows `goto` statement
- Jump to position designated by label

```
long absdiff
  (long x, long y)
{
    long result;
    if (x > y)
        result = x-y;
    else
        result = y-x;
    return result;
}
```

```
long absdiff_j
  (long x, long y)
{
    long result;
    int ntest = x <= y;
    if (ntest) goto Else;
    result = x-y;
    goto Done;
 Else:
    result = y-x;
 Done:
    return result;
}
```

General Conditional Expression Translation (Using Branches)

C Code

```
val = Test ? Then_Expr : Else_Expr;
```

```
val = x>y ? x-y : y-x;
```

Goto Version

```
  ntest = !Test;
  if (ntest) goto Else;
  val = Then_Expr;
  goto Done;
Else:
  val = Else_Expr;
Done:
  . . .
```

- Create separate code regions for then & else expressions
- Execute appropriate one

Using Conditional Moves

- **Conditional Move Instructions**
  - Instruction supports:

    if (Test) Dest ← Src
  - Supported in post-1995 x86 processors
  - GCC tries to use them
    - But, only when known to be safe
- **Why?**
  - Branches are very disruptive to instruction flow through pipelines
  - Conditional moves do not require control transfer

C Code

```
val = Test
    ? Then_Expr
    : Else_Expr;
```

Goto Version

```
  result = Then_Expr;
  eval = Else_Expr;
  nt = !Test;
  if (nt) result = eval;
  return result;
```

Conditional Move Example

```
long absdiff
   (long x, long y)
{
    long result;
    if (x > y)
        result = x-y;
    else
        result = y-x;
    return result;
}
```

Register	Use(s)
`%rdi`	Argument `x`
`%rsi`	Argument `y`
`%rax`	Return value

```
absdiff:
   movq    %rdi, %rax   # x
   subq    %rsi, %rax   # result = x-y
   movq    %rsi, %rdx
   subq    %rdi, %rdx   # eval = y-x
   cmpq    %rsi, %rdi   # x:y
   cmovle  %rdx, %rax   # if <=, result = eval
   ret
```

When is this bad?

Bad Cases for Conditional Move

Expensive Computations

```
val = Test(x) ? Hard1(x) : Hard2(x);
```

Bad Performance

- Both values get computed
- Only makes sense when computations are very simple

Risky Computations

```
val = p ? *p : 0;
```

- Both values get computed
- May have undesirable effects

Unsafe

Computations with side effects

```
val = x > 0 ? x*=7 : x+=3;
```

- Both values get computed
- Must be side-effect free

Illegal

Today

- Control: Condition codes
- Conditional branches
- **Loops**
- Switch Statements

"Do-While" Loop Example

C Code

```
long pcount_do
  (unsigned long x) {
  long result = 0;
  do {
    result += x & 0x1;
    x >>= 1;
  } while (x);
  return result;
}
```

Goto Version

```
long pcount_goto
  (unsigned long x) {
  long result = 0;
 loop:
  result += x & 0x1;
  x >>= 1;
  if(x) goto loop;
  return result;
}
```

- Count number of 1's in argument **x** ("popcount")
- Use conditional branch to either continue looping or to exit loop

"Do-While" Loop Compilation

```
long pcount_goto
  (unsigned long x) {
  long result = 0;
 loop:
  result += x & 0x1;
  x >>= 1;
  if(x) goto loop;
  return result;
}
```

Register	Use(s)
`%rdi`	Argument `x`
`%rax`	`result`

```
    movl    $0, %eax      #   result = 0
.L2:                      # loop:
    movq    %rdi, %rdx
    andl    $1, %edx      #   t = x & 0x1
    addq    %rdx, %rax    #   result += t
    shrq    %rdi          #   x >>= 1
    jne     .L2           #   if(x) goto loop
    rep; ret
```

General "Do-While" Translation

C Code

```
do
   Body
   while (Test);
```

Goto Version

```
loop:
   Body
   if (Test)
      goto loop
```

- **Body:**
```
{
   Statement1;
   Statement2;
     …
   Statementn;
}
```

General "While" Translation #1

- "Jump-to-middle" translation
- Used with –Og

While version

```
while (Test)
  Body
```

Goto Version

```
  goto test;
loop:
  Body
test:
  if (Test)
    goto loop;
done:
```

While Loop Example #1

C Code

```
long pcount_while
  (unsigned long x) {
  long result = 0;
  while (x) {
    result += x & 0x1;
    x >>= 1;
  }
  return result;
}
```

Jump to Middle

```
long pcount_goto_jtm
  (unsigned long x) {
  long result = 0;
  goto test;
 loop:
  result += x & 0x1;
  x >>= 1;
 test:
  if(x) goto loop;
  return result;
}
```

- Compare to do-while version of function
- Initial goto starts loop at test

General "While" Translation #2

While version

```
while (Test)
    Body
```

- "Do-while" conversion
- Used with `–O1`

Do-While Version

```
  if (!Test)
    goto done;
  do
    Body
    while(Test);
done:
```

Goto Version

```
  if (!Test)
    goto done;
loop:
  Body
  if (Test)
    goto loop;
done:
```

While Loop Example #2

C Code

```
long pcount_while
  (unsigned long x) {
  long result = 0;
  while (x) {
    result += x & 0x1;
    x >>= 1;
  }
  return result;
}
```

Do-While Version

```
long pcount_goto_dw
  (unsigned long x) {
  long result = 0;
  if (!x) goto done;
 loop:
  result += x & 0x1;
  x >>= 1;
  if(x) goto loop;
 done:
  return result;
}
```

- **Initial conditional guards entrance to loop**
- **Compare to do-while version of function**
  - Removes jump to middle. When is this good or bad?

"For" Loop Form

General Form

```
for (Init; Test; Update )

    Body
```

```
#define WSIZE 8*sizeof(int)
long pcount_for
  (unsigned long x)
{
  size_t i;
  long result = 0;
  for (i = 0; i < WSIZE; i++)
  {
    unsigned bit =
      (x >> i) & 0x1;
    result += bit;
  }
  return result;
}
```

Init

```
i = 0
```

Test

```
i < WSIZE
```

Update

```
i++
```

Body

```
{
  unsigned bit =
     (x >> i) & 0x1;
  result += bit;
}
```

"For" Loop → While Loop

For Version

```
for (Init; Test; Update )
    Body
```

While Version

```
Init;
while (Test ) {
    Body
    Update;
}
```

For-While Conversion

Init

```
i = 0
```

Test

```
i < WSIZE
```

Update

```
i++
```

Body

```
{
  unsigned bit =
      (x >> i) & 0x1;
  result += bit;
}
```

```
long pcount_for_while
   (unsigned long x)
{
  size_t i;
  long result = 0;
  i = 0;
  while (i < WSIZE)
  {
    unsigned bit =
       (x >> i) & 0x1;
    result += bit;
    i++;
  }
  return result;
}
```

"For" Loop Do-While Conversion

C Code

```
long pcount_for
  (unsigned long x)
{
  size_t i;
  long result = 0;
  for (i = 0; i < WSIZE; i++)
  {
    unsigned bit =
      (x >> i) & 0x1;
    result += bit;
  }
  return result;
}
```

- Initial test can be optimized away

Goto Version

```
long pcount_for_goto_dw
  (unsigned long x) {
  size_t i;
  long result = 0;
  i = 0;                          Init
  if (!(i < WSIZE))               ! Test
    goto done;
 loop:
  {
    unsigned bit =
      (x >> i) & 0x1;             Body
    result += bit;
  }
  i++;                            Update
  if (i < WSIZE)                  Test
    goto loop;
 done:
  return result;
}
```

Today

- Control: Condition codes
- Conditional branches
- Loops
- **Switch Statements**

Switch Statement Example

```
long my_switch
   (long x, long y, long z)
{
    long w = 1;
    switch(x) {
    case 1:
        w = y*z;
        break;
    case 2:
        w = y/z;
        /* Fall Through */
    case 3:
        w += z;
        break;
    case 5:
    case 6:
        w -= z;
        break;
    default:
        w = 2;
    }
    return w;
}
```

- **Multiple case labels**
  - Here: 5 & 6
- **Fall through cases**
  - Here: 2
- **Missing cases**
  - Here: 4

Jump Table Structure

Switch Form

```
switch(x) {
  case val_0:
    Block 0
  case val_1:
    Block 1
    • • •
  case val_n-1:
    Block n–1
}
```

Translation (Extended C)

```
goto *JTab[x];
```

Jump Table

```
jtab: Targ0
      Targ1
      Targ2
        •
        •
        •
      Targn-1
```

Jump Targets

Targ0: Code Block 0

Targ1: Code Block 1

Targ2: Code Block 2

•
•
•

Targn-1: Code Block *n*–1

Switch Statement Example

```
long my_switch(long x, long y, long z)
{
    long w = 1;
    switch(x) {
      . . .
    }
    return w;
}
```

Setup

```
my_switch:
    movq    %rdx, %rcx
    cmpq    $6, %rdi    # x:6
    ja      .L8
    jmp     *.L4(,%rdi,8)
```

What range of values takes default?

Register	Use(s)
`%rdi`	Argument **`x`**
`%rsi`	Argument **`y`**
`%rdx`	Argument **`z`**
`%rax`	Return value

Note that **`w`** not initialized here

Switch Statement Example

```
long my_switch(long x, long y, long z)
{
    long w = 1;
    switch(x) {
      . . .
    }
    return w;
}
```

Setup

```
my_switch:
    movq    %rdx, %rcx
    cmpq    $6, %rdi     # x:6
    ja      .L8          # use default
    jmp     *.L4(,%rdi,8)  # goto *Jtab[x]
```

Indirect jump

Jump table

```
.section    .rodata
  .align 8
.L4:
  .quad     .L8   # x = 0
  .quad     .L3   # x = 1
  .quad     .L5   # x = 2
  .quad     .L9   # x = 3
  .quad     .L8   # x = 4
  .quad     .L7   # x = 5
  .quad     .L7   # x = 6
```

Assembly Setup Explanation

- **Table Structure**
  - Each target requires 8 bytes
  - Base address at **`.L4`**

- **Jumping**
  - Direct: **`jmp .L8`**
  - Jump target is denoted by label **`.L8`**

  - Indirect: **`jmp *.L4(,%rdi,8)`**
  - Start of jump table: **`.L4`**
  - Must scale by factor of 8 (addresses are 8 bytes)
  - Fetch target from effective Address **`.L4 + x*8`**
    - Only for $0 \leq$ **x** ≤ 6

Jump table

```
.section    .rodata
  .align 8
.L4:
  .quad     .L8   # x = 0
  .quad     .L3   # x = 1
  .quad     .L5   # x = 2
  .quad     .L9   # x = 3
  .quad     .L8   # x = 4
  .quad     .L7   # x = 5
  .quad     .L7   # x = 6
```

Jump Table

Jump table

```
.section   .rodata
  .align 8
.L4:
  .quad    .L8   # x = 0
  .quad    .L3   # x = 1
  .quad    .L5   # x = 2
  .quad    .L9   # x = 3
  .quad    .L8   # x = 4
  .quad    .L7   # x = 5
  .quad    .L7   # x = 6
```

```
switch(x) {
case 1:       // .L3
    w = y*z;
    break;
case 2:       // .L5
    w = y/z;
    /* Fall Through */
case 3:       // .L9
    w += z;
    break;
case 5:
case 6:       // .L7
    w -= z;
    break;
default:      // .L8
    w = 2;
}
```

Code Blocks (x == 1)

```
switch(x) {
case 1:       // .L3
      w = y*z;
      break;
  . . .
}
```

```
.L3:
   movq    %rsi, %rax  # y
   imulq   %rdx, %rax  # y*z
   ret
```

Register	Use(s)
`%rdi`	Argument **x**
`%rsi`	Argument **y**
`%rdx`	Argument **z**
`%rax`	Return value

Handling Fall-Through

```
long w = 1;
   . . .
switch(x) {
   . . .
case 2:
    w = y/z;
    /* Fall Through */
case 3:
    w += z;
    break;
   . . .
}
```

```
case 2:
    w = y/z;
    goto merge;
```

```
case 3:
        w = 1;
```

```
merge:
        w += z;
```

Code Blocks (x == 2, x == 3)

```
long w = 1;
   . . .
switch(x) {
   . . .
case 2:
    w = y/z;
    /* Fall Through */
case 3:
    w += z;
    break;
   . . .
}
```

```
.L5:                        # Case 2
   movq    %rsi, %rax
   cqto                    # sign extend
                           # rax to rdx:rax
   idivq   %rcx             #  y/z
   jmp     .L6              #  goto merge
.L9:                        # Case 3
   movl    $1, %eax         #  w = 1
.L6:                        # merge:
   addq    %rcx, %rax #  w += z
   ret
```

Register	Use(s)
%rdi	Argument x
%rsi	Argument y
%rcx	z
%rax	Return value

Code Blocks (x == 5, x == 6, default)

```
switch(x) {
   . . .
   case 5:  // .L7
   case 6:  // .L7
       w -= z;
       break;
   default: // .L8
       w = 2;
}
```

```
.L7:                     # Case 5,6
  movl  $1, %eax         #  w = 1
  subq  %rdx, %rax       #  w -= z
  ret
.L8:                     # Default:
  movl  $2, %eax         #  2
  ret
```

Register	Use(s)
`%rdi`	Argument `x`
`%rsi`	Argument `y`
`%rdx`	Argument `z`
`%rax`	Return value

Summarizing

- **C Control**
  - if-then-else
  - do-while
  - while, for
  - switch
- **Assembler Control**
  - Conditional jump
  - Conditional move
  - Indirect jump (via jump tables)
  - Compiler generates code sequence to implement more complex control
- **Standard Techniques**
  - Loops converted to do-while or jump-to-middle form
  - Large switch statements use jump tables
  - Sparse switch statements may use decision trees (if-elseif-elseif-else)

Summary

- **Today**
  - Control: Condition codes
  - Conditional branches & conditional moves
  - Loops
  - Switch statements
- **Next Time**
  - Stack
  - Call / return
  - Procedure call discipline

Finding Jump Table in Binary

```
00000000004005e0 <switch_eg>:
4005e0:       48 89 d1                mov    %rdx,%rcx
4005e3:       48 83 ff 06             cmp    $0x6,%rdi
4005e7:       77 2b                   ja     400614 <switch_eg+0x34>
4005e9:       ff 24 fd f0 07 40 00    jmpq   *0x4007f0(,%rdi,8)
4005f0:       48 89 f0                mov    %rsi,%rax
4005f3:       48 0f af c2             imul   %rdx,%rax
4005f7:       c3                      retq
4005f8:       48 89 f0                mov    %rsi,%rax
4005fb:       48 99                   cqto
4005fd:       48 f7 f9                idiv   %rcx
400600:       eb 05                   jmp    400607 <switch_eg+0x27>
400602:       b8 01 00 00 00          mov    $0x1,%eax
400607:       48 01 c8                add    %rcx,%rax
40060a:       c3                      retq
40060b:       b8 01 00 00 00          mov    $0x1,%eax
400610:       48 29 d0                sub    %rdx,%rax
400613:       c3                      retq
400614:       b8 02 00 00 00          mov    $0x2,%eax
400619:       c3                      retq
```

Finding Jump Table in Binary (cont.)

```
 00000000004005e0 <switch_eg>:
. . .
4005e9:       ff 24 fd f0 07 40 00    jmpq   *0x4007f0(,%rdi,8)
. . .
```

```
 % gdb switch
(gdb) x /8xg 0x4007f0
0x4007f0:       0x0000000000400614      0x00000000004005f0
0x400800:       0x00000000004005f8      0x0000000000400602
0x400810:       0x0000000000400614      0x000000000040060b
0x400820:       0x000000000040060b      0x2c646c25203d2078
(gdb)
```

Finding Jump Table in Binary (cont.)

```
 % gdb switch
(gdb) x /8xg 0x4007f0
0x4007f0:       0x0000000000400614      0x00000000004005f0
0x400800:       0x00000000004005f8      0x0000000000400602
0x400810:       0x0000000000400614      0x000000000040060b
0x400820:       0x000000000040060b      0x2c646c25203d2078
```

```
  . . .
  4005f0:       48 89 f0                mov    %rsi,%rax
  4005f3:       48 0f af c2             imul   %rdx,%rax
  4005f7:       c3                      retq
  4005f8:       48 89 f0                mov    %rsi,%rax
  4005fb:       48 99                   cqto
  4005fd:       48 f7 f9                idiv   %rcx
  400600:       eb 05                   jmp    400607 <switch_eg+0x27>
  400602:       b8 01 00 00 00          mov    $0x1,%eax
  400607:       48 01 c8                add    %rcx,%rax
  40060a:       c3                      retq
  40060b:       b8 01 00 00 00          mov    $0x1,%eax
  400610:       48 29 d0                sub    %rdx,%rax
  400613:       c3                      retq
  400614:       b8 02 00 00 00          mov    $0x2,%eax
  400619:       c3                      retq
```

Machine-Level Programming III: Procedures

15-213/18-213/14-513/15-513: Introduction to Computer Systems
7th Lecture, February 7th 2019

Today

- **Procedures**
  - **Mechanisms**
  - **Stack Structure**
  - **Calling Conventions**
    - **Passing control**
    - **Passing data**
    - **Managing local data**
  - **Illustration of Recursion**

Mechanisms in Procedures

- **Passing control**
  - To beginning of procedure code
  - Back to return point
- **Passing data**
  - Procedure arguments
  - Return value
- **Memory management**
  - Allocate during procedure execution
  - Deallocate upon return
- **Mechanisms all implemented with machine instructions**
- **x86-64 implementation of a procedure uses only those mechanisms required**

```
P(…) {
   •
   •
   y = Q(x);
   print(y)
   •
}
```

```
int Q(int i)
{
   int t = 3*i;
   int v[10];
   •
   •
   return v[t];
}
```

Mechanisms in Procedures

- **Passing control**
  - To beginning of procedure code
  - Back to return point
- **Passing data**
  - Procedure arguments
  - Return value
- **Memory management**
  - Allocate during procedure execution
  - Deallocate upon return
- **Mechanisms all implemented with machine instructions**
- **x86-64 implementation of a procedure uses only those mechanisms required**

```
P(…) {
   •
   •
   y = Q(x);
   print(y)
   •
}
```

```
int Q(int i)
{
   int t = 3*i;
   int v[10];
   •
   •
   return v[t];
}
```

Mechanisms in Procedures

- **Passing control**
  - To beginning of procedure code
  - Back to return point
- **Passing data**
  - Procedure arguments
  - Return value
- **Memory management**
  - Allocate during procedure execution
  - Deallocate upon return
- **Mechanisms all implemented with machine instructions**
- **x86-64 implementation of a procedure uses only those mechanisms required**

```
P(…) {
  •
  •
  y = Q(x);
  print(y)
  •
}
```

```
int Q(int i)
{
  int t = 3*i;
  int v[10];
  •
  •
  return v[t];
}
```

Mechanisms in Procedures

- **Passing control**
  - To beginning of procedure code
  - Back to return point
- **Passing data**
  - Procedure arguments
  - Return value
- **Memory management**
  - Allocate during procedure execution
  - Deallocate upon return
- **Mechanisms all implemented with machine instructions**
- **x86-64 implementation of a procedure uses only those mechanisms required**

```
P(…) {
  •
  •
  y = Q(x);
  print(y)
  •
}
```

```
int Q(int i)
{
  int t = 3*i;
  int v[10];
  •
  •
  return v[t];
}
```

Mechanisms in Procedures

```
P(…) {
```

Machine instructions implement the mechanisms, but the choices are determined by designers. These choices make up the **Application Binary Interface (ABI)**.

- Deallocate upon return

```
  int v[10];
  •
  •
  return v[t];
}
```

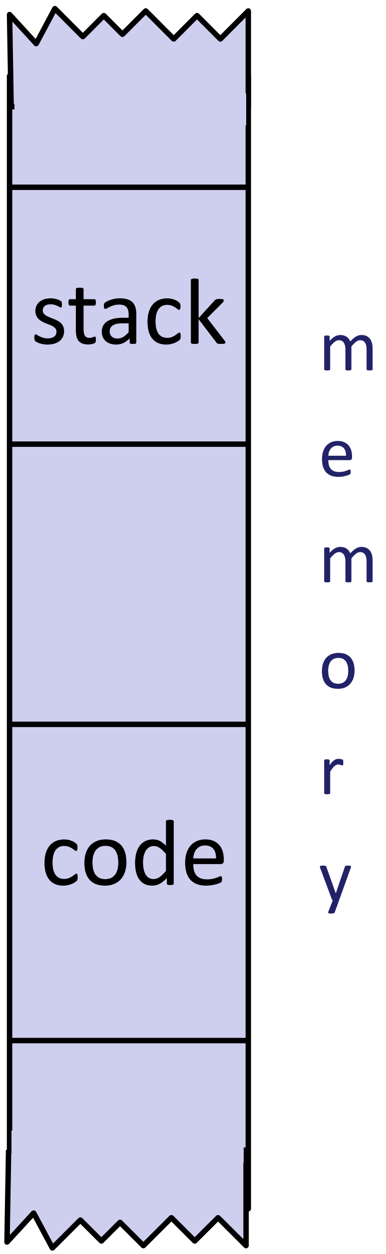
- **Mechanisms all implemented with machine instructions**
- **x86-64 implementation of a procedure uses only those mechanisms required**

Today

- **Procedures**
  - Mechanisms
  - **Stack Structure**
  - Calling Conventions
    - Passing control
    - Passing data
    - Managing local data
  - Illustration of Recursion

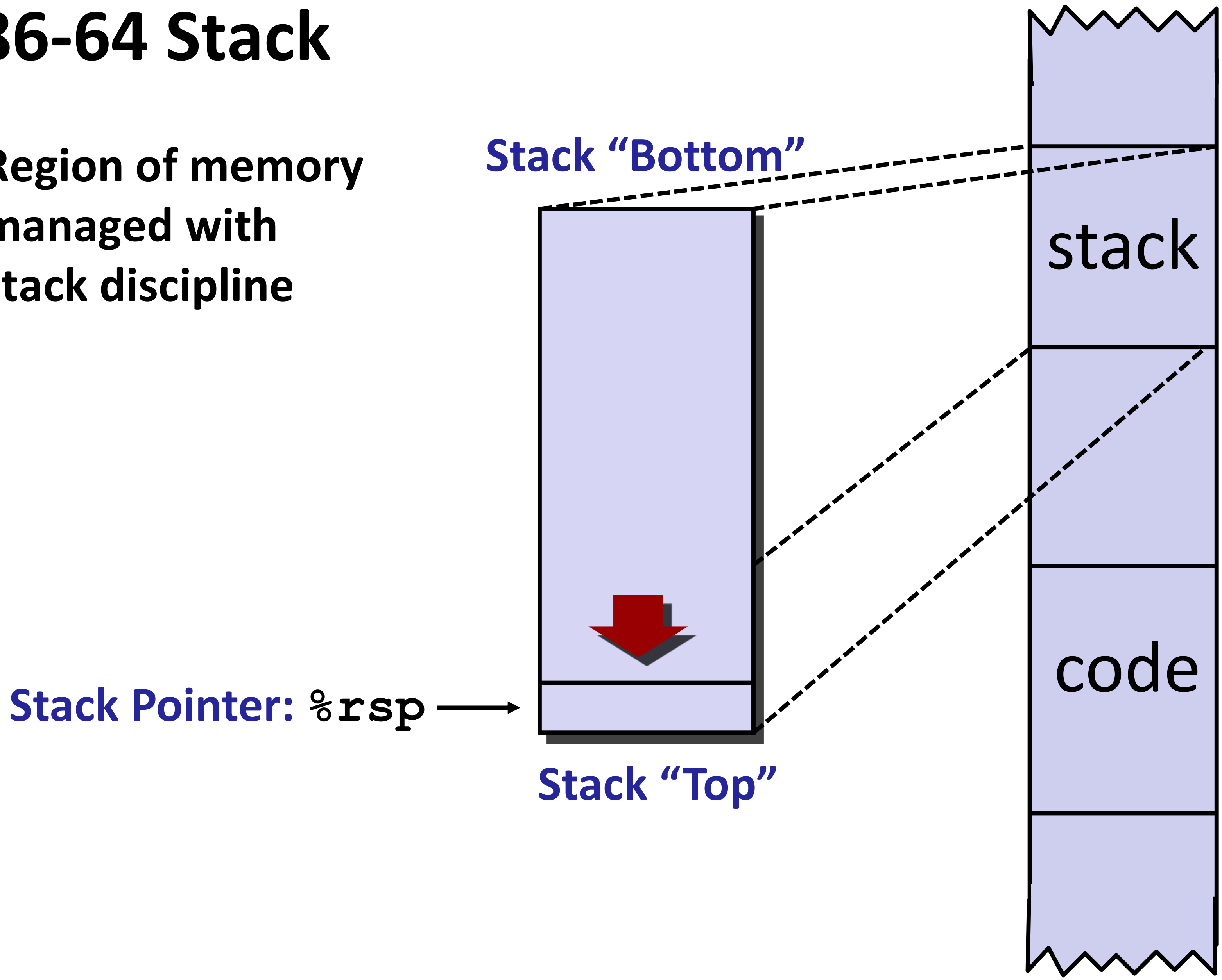
x86-64 Stack

- **Region of memory managed with stack discipline**
  - Memory viewed as array of bytes.
  - Different regions have different purposes.
  - (Like ABI, a policy decision)



x86-64 Stack

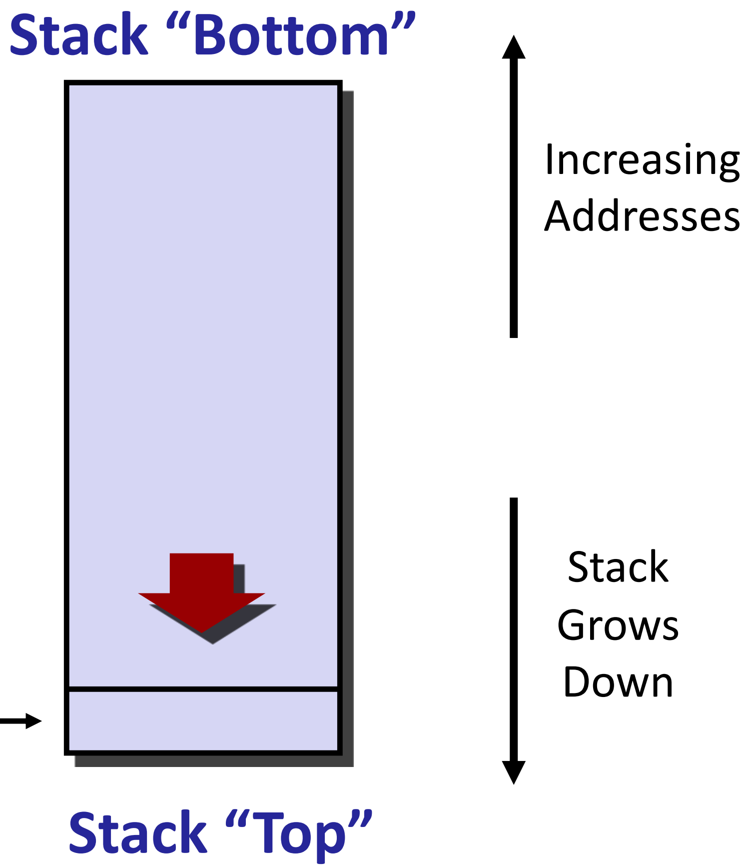
- Region of memory managed with stack discipline



x86-64 Stack

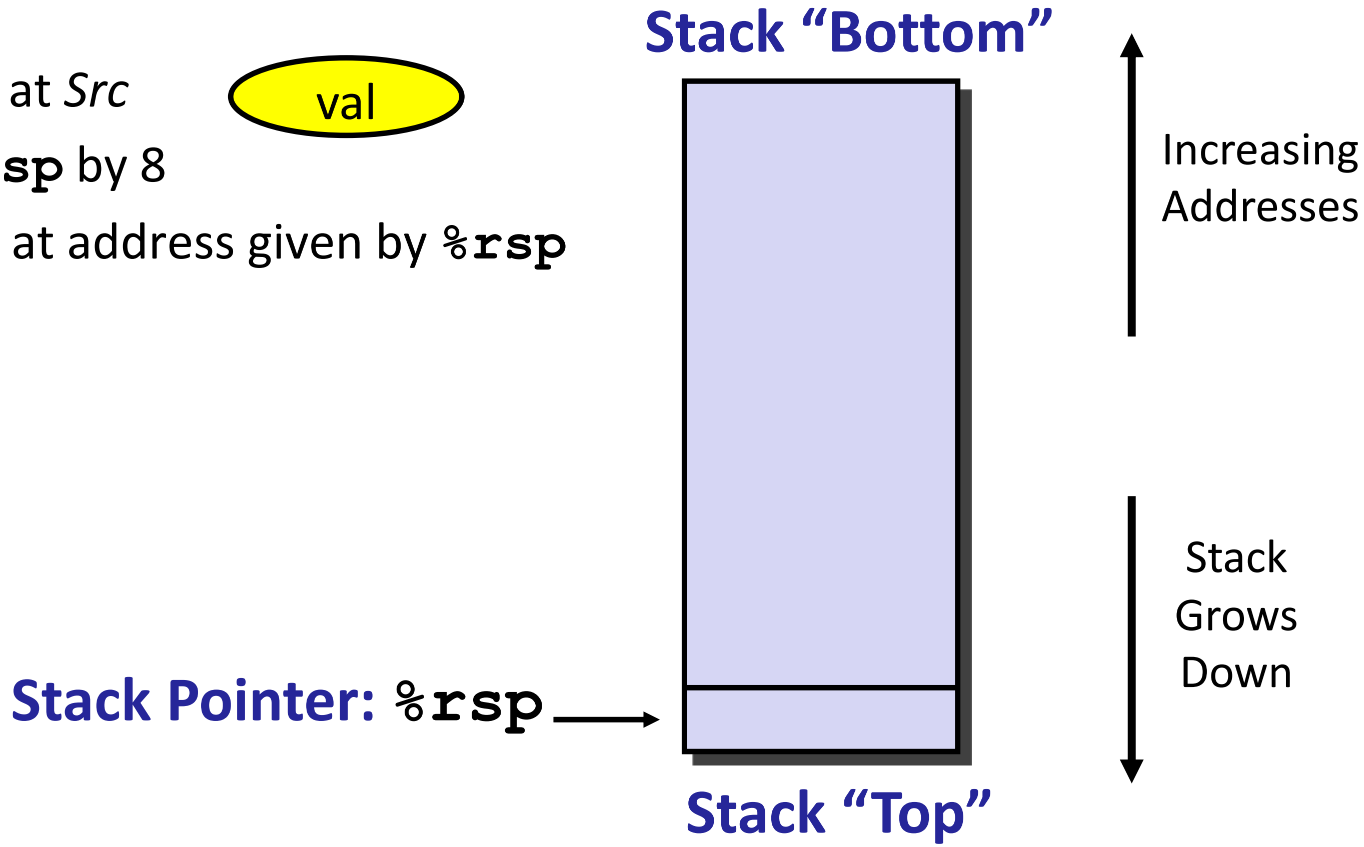
- Region of memory managed with stack discipline
- Grows toward lower addresses
- Register `%rsp` contains lowest stack address
  - address of "top" element

Stack Pointer: `%rsp`



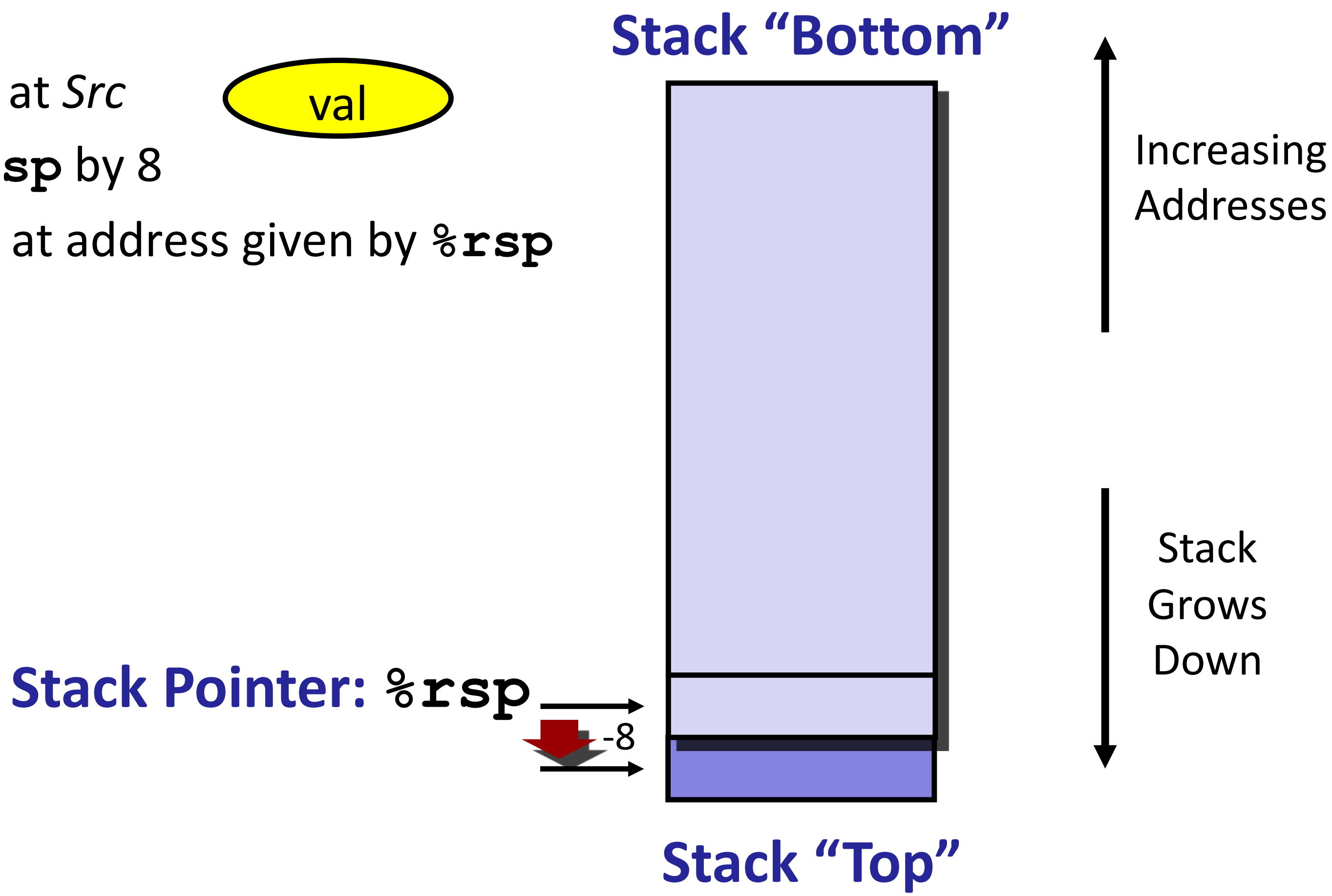
x86-64 Stack: Push

- **`pushq`** ***Src***
  - Fetch operand at *Src*
  - Decrement **`%rsp`** by 8
  - Write operand at address given by **`%rsp`**



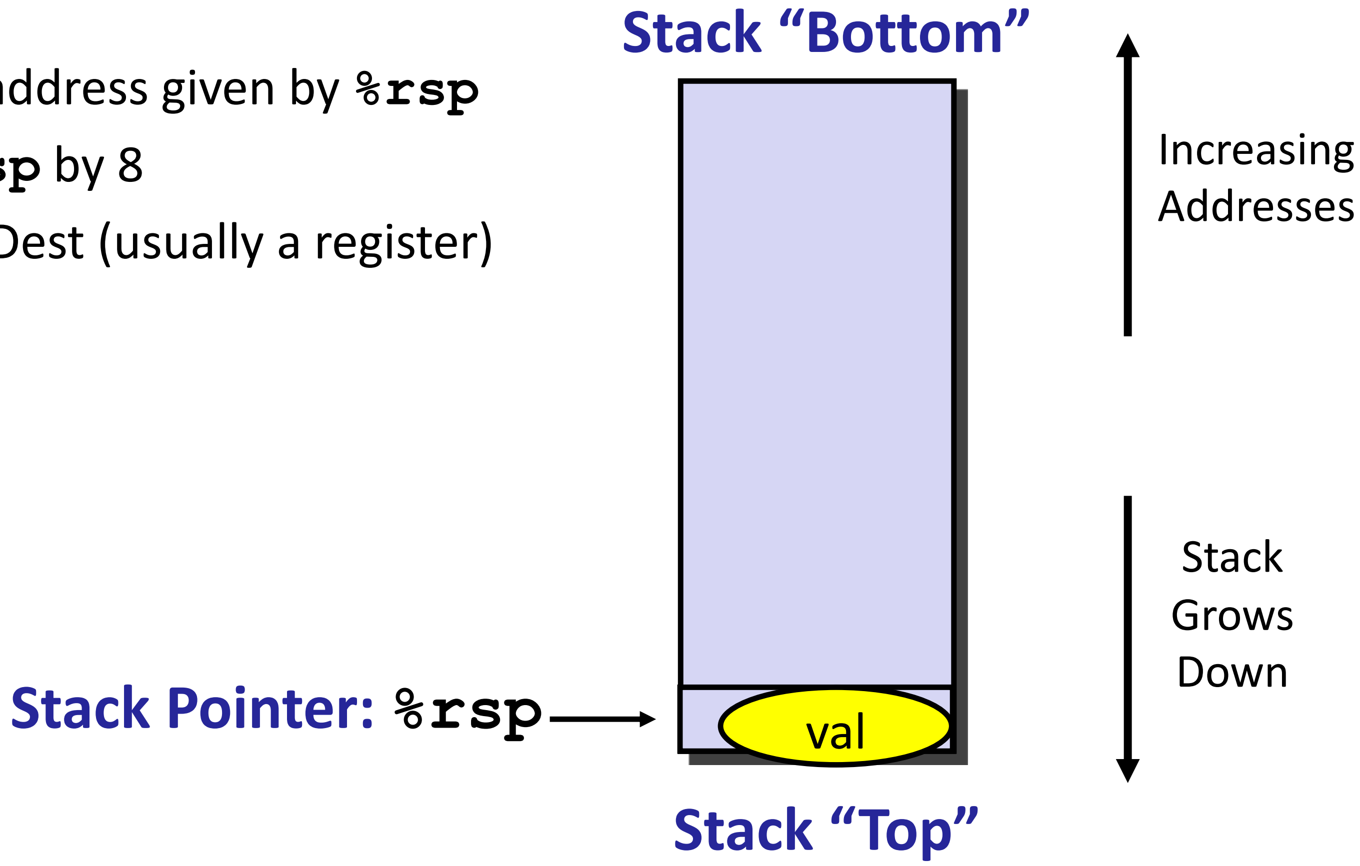
x86-64 Stack: Push

- **`pushq`** ***Src***
  - Fetch operand at *Src*
  - Decrement **`%rsp`** by 8
  - Write operand at address given by **`%rsp`**



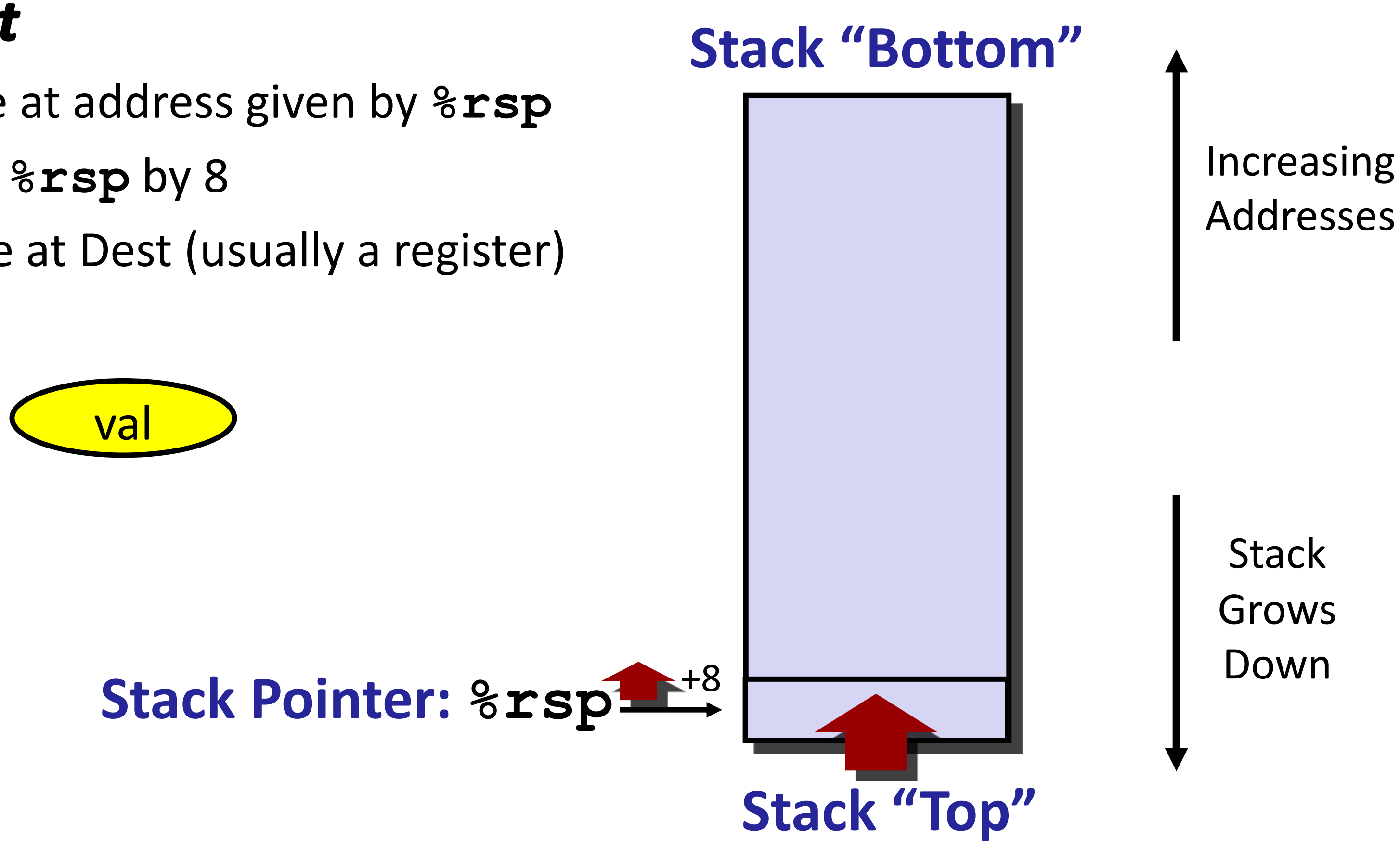
x86-64 Stack: Pop

- `popq` ***Dest***
  - Read value at address given by `%rsp`
  - Increment `%rsp` by 8
  - Store value at Dest (usually a register)



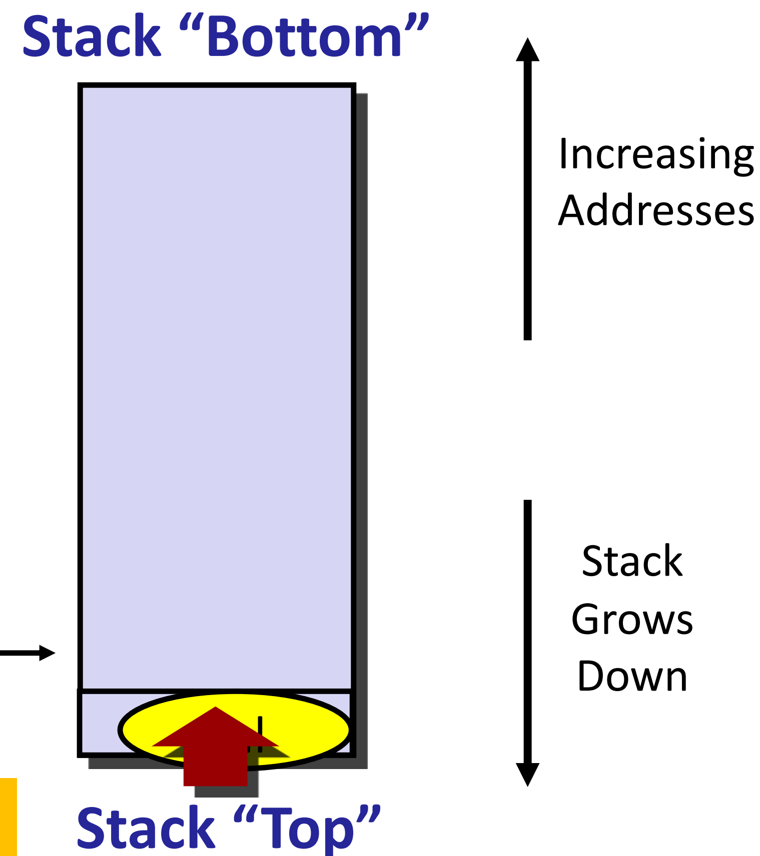
x86-64 Stack: Pop

- `popq` ***Dest***
  - Read value at address given by `%rsp`
  - Increment `%rsp` by 8
  - Store value at Dest (usually a register)



x86-64 Stack: Pop

- `popq` ***Dest***
  - Read value at address given by `%rsp`
  - Increment `%rsp` by 8
  - Store value at Dest (usually a register)



(The memory doesn't change, only the value of `%rsp`)

Today

- **Procedures**
  - Mechanisms
  - Stack Structure
  - Calling Conventions
    - **Passing control**
    - Passing data
    - Managing local data
  - Illustration of Recursion

Code Examples

```
void multstore(long x, long y, long *dest)
{
    long t = mult2(x, y);
    *dest = t;
}
```

```
0000000000400540 <multstore>:
  400540: push   %rbx              # Save %rbx
  400541: mov    %rdx,%rbx         # Save dest
  400544: callq  400550 <mult2>    # mult2(x,y)
  400549: mov    %rax,(%rbx)       # Save at dest
  40054c: pop    %rbx              # Restore %rbx
  40054d: retq                     # Return
```

```
long mult2(long a, long b)
{
  long s = a * b;
  return s;
}
```

```
0000000000400550 <mult2>:
  400550:  mov    %rdi,%rax      # a
  400553:  imul   %rsi,%rax      # a * b
  400557:  retq                  # Return
```

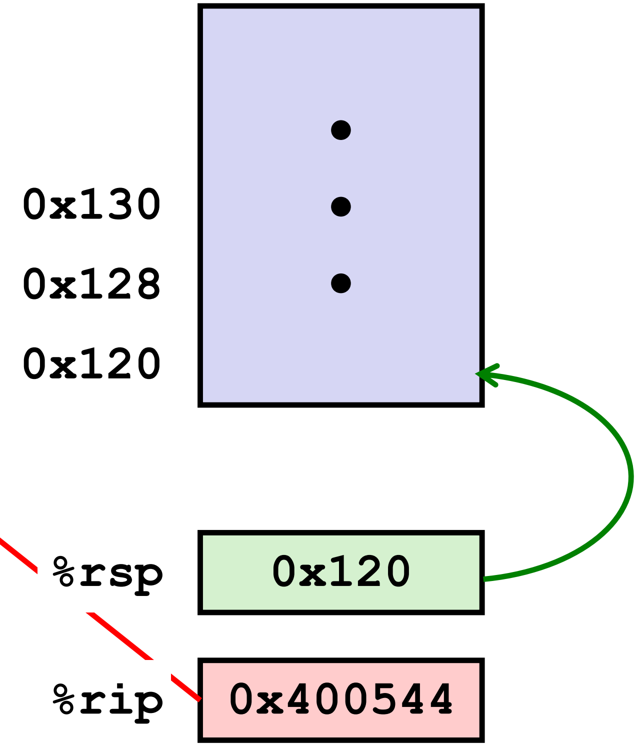
Procedure Control Flow

- **Use stack to support procedure call and return**
- **Procedure call: `call label`**
  - Push return address on stack
  - Jump to ***label***
- **Return address:**
  - Address of the next instruction right after call
  - Example from disassembly
- **Procedure return: `ret`**
  - Pop address from stack
  - Jump to address

Control Flow Example #1

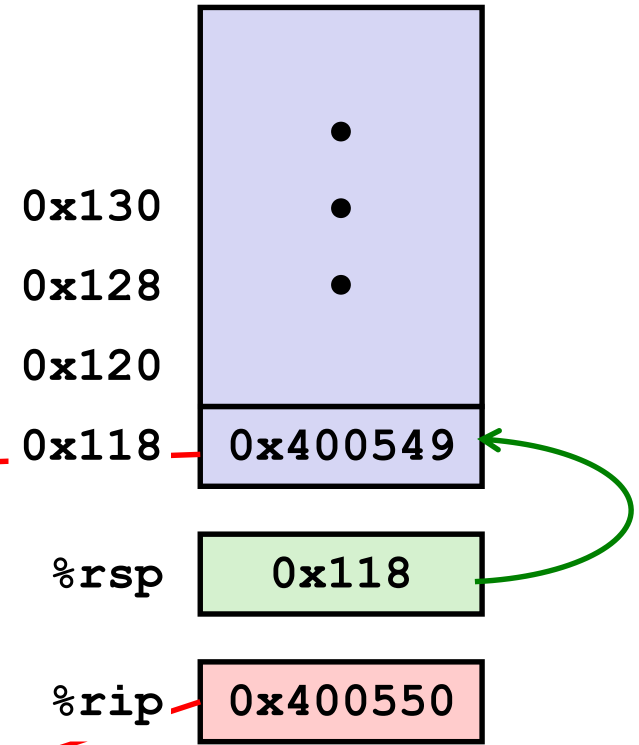
```
0000000000400540 <multstore>:
  •
  •
  400544: callq  400550 <mult2>
  400549: mov    %rax,(%rbx)
  •
  •
```

```
0000000000400550 <mult2>:
  400550:  mov    %rdi,%rax
  •
  •
  400557:  retq
```



Control Flow Example #2

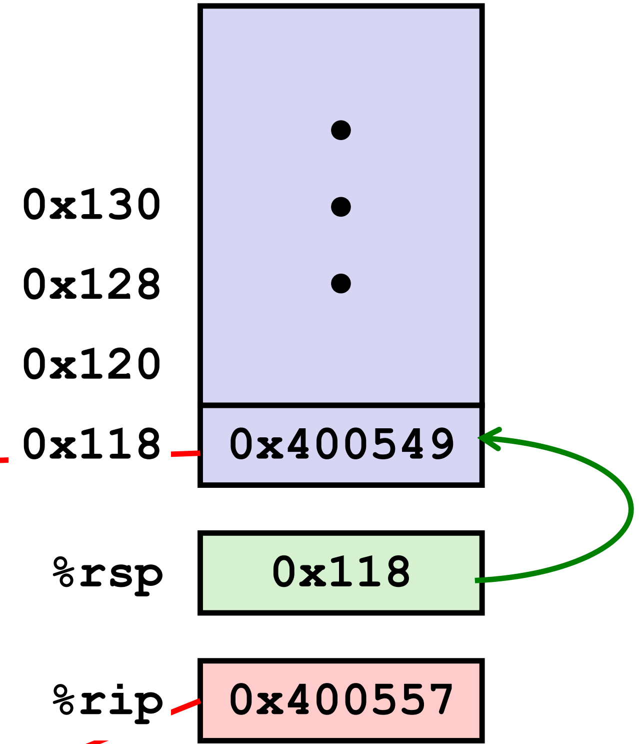
```
0000000000400540 <multstore>:
  •
  •
  400544: callq  400550 <mult2>
  400549: mov    %rax,(%rbx)
  •
  •
```




```
0000000000400550 <mult2>:
  400550:  mov    %rdi,%rax
  •
  •
  400557:  retq
```

Control Flow Example #3

```
0000000000400540 <multstore>:
  •
  •
  400544: callq  400550 <mult2>
  400549: mov    %rax,(%rbx)
  •
  •
```

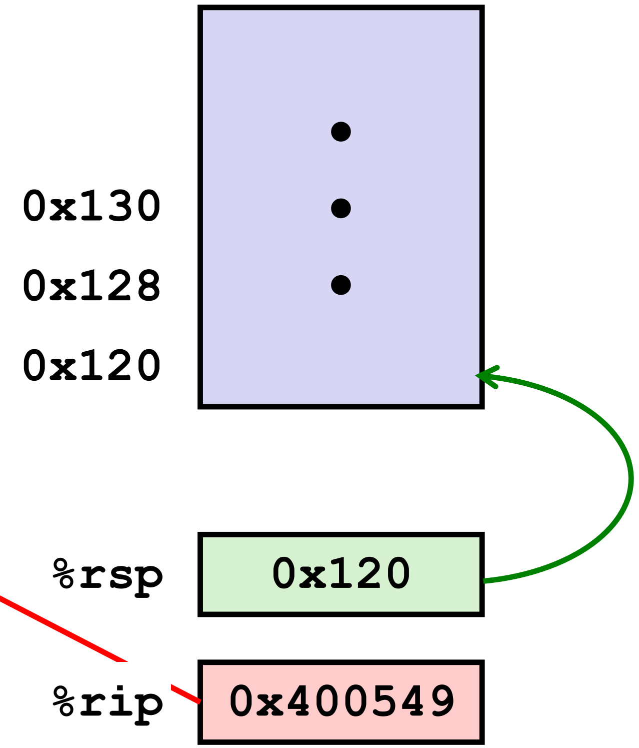



```
0000000000400550 <mult2>:
  400550:  mov    %rdi,%rax
  •
  •
  400557:  retq
```

Control Flow Example #4

```
0000000000400540 <multstore>:
  •
  •
  400544: callq  400550 <mult2>
  400549: mov    %rax,(%rbx)
  •
  •
```

```
0000000000400550 <mult2>:
  400550:  mov    %rdi,%rax
  •
  •
  400557:  retq
```



Today

- **Procedures**
  - Mechanisms
  - tack Structure
  - Calling Conventions
    - Passing control
    - **Passing data**
    - Managing local data
  - Illustrations of Recursion & Pointers

Procedure Data Flow

Registers

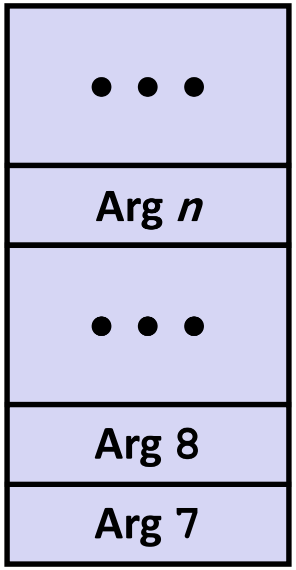
- First 6 arguments

`%rdi`
`%rsi`
`%rdx`
`%rcx`
`%r8`
`%r9`

- Return value

`%rax`

Stack



- Only allocate stack space when needed

Data Flow Examples

```
void multstore
 (long x, long y, long *dest)
{
    long t = mult2(x, y);
    *dest = t;
}
```

```
0000000000400540 <multstore>:
  # x in %rdi, y in %rsi, dest in %rdx
  • • •
  400541: mov    %rdx,%rbx        # Save dest
  400544: callq  400550 <mult2>   # mult2(x,y)
  # t in %rax
  400549: mov    %rax,(%rbx)      # Save at dest
  • • •
```

```
long mult2
  (long a, long b)
{
  long s = a * b;
  return s;
}
```

```
0000000000400550 <mult2>:
  # a in %rdi, b in %rsi
  400550:  mov    %rdi,%rax     # a
  400553:  imul   %rsi,%rax     # a * b
  # s in %rax
  400557:  retq                 # Return
```

Today

- **Procedures**
  - Mechanisms
  - Stack Structure
  - Calling Conventions
    - Passing control
    - Passing data
    - **Managing local data**
  - Illustration of Recursion

Stack-Based Languages

- **Languages that support recursion**
  - e.g., C, Pascal, Java
  - Code must be "*Reentrant*"
    - Multiple simultaneous instantiations of single procedure
  - Need some place to store state of each instantiation
    - Arguments
    - Local variables
    - Return pointer
- **Stack discipline**
  - State for given procedure needed for limited time
    - From when called to when return
  - Callee returns before caller does
- **Stack allocated in *Frames***
  - state for single procedure instantiation

Call Chain Example

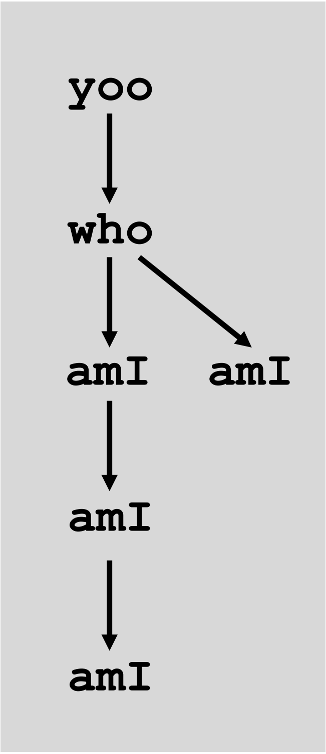
```
yoo(…)
{
   •
   •
   who();
   •
   •
}
```

```
who(…)
{
   • • •
   amI();
   • • •
   amI();
   • • •
}
```

```
amI(…)
{
   •
   •
   amI();
   •
   •
}
```

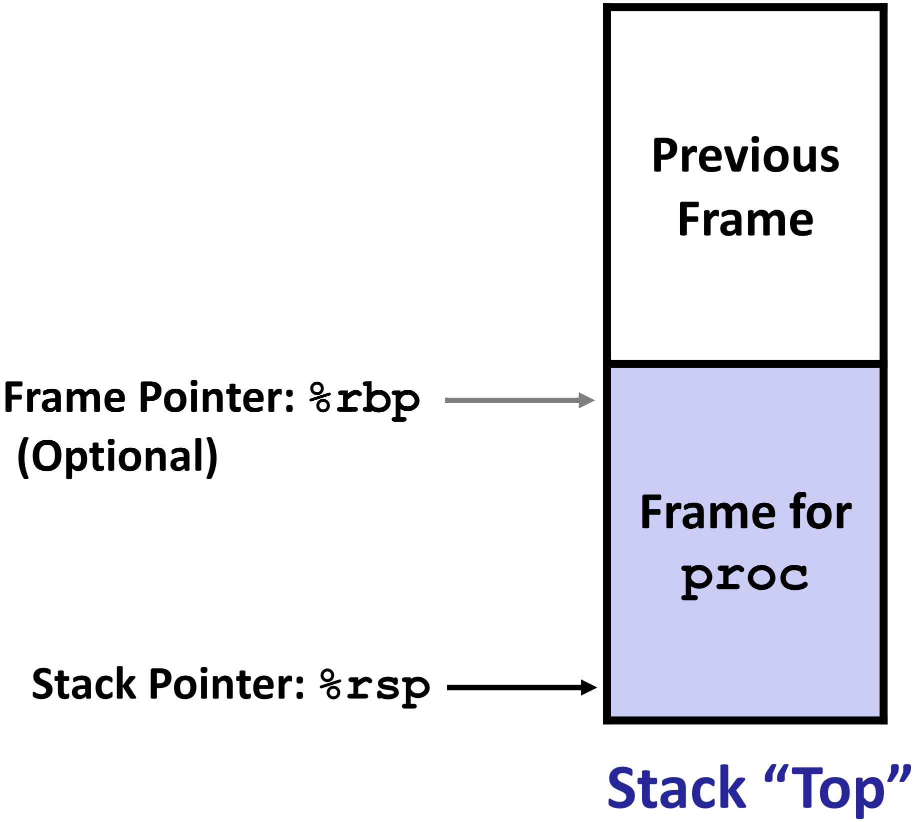
Procedure `amI()` is recursive

Example Call Chain



Stack Frames

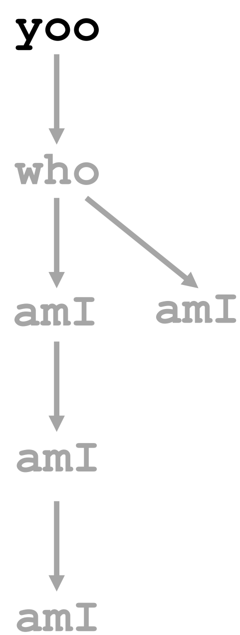
- **Contents**
  - Return information
  - Local storage (if needed)
  - Temporary space (if needed)

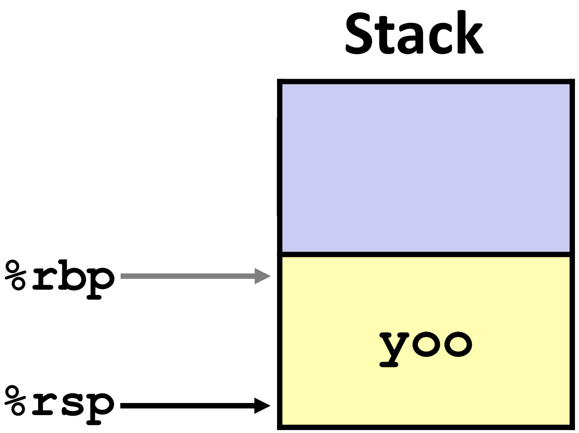


- **Management**
  - Space allocated when enter procedure
    - "Set-up" code
    - Includes push by **`call`** instruction
  - Deallocated when return
    - "Finish" code
    - Includes pop by **`ret`** instruction

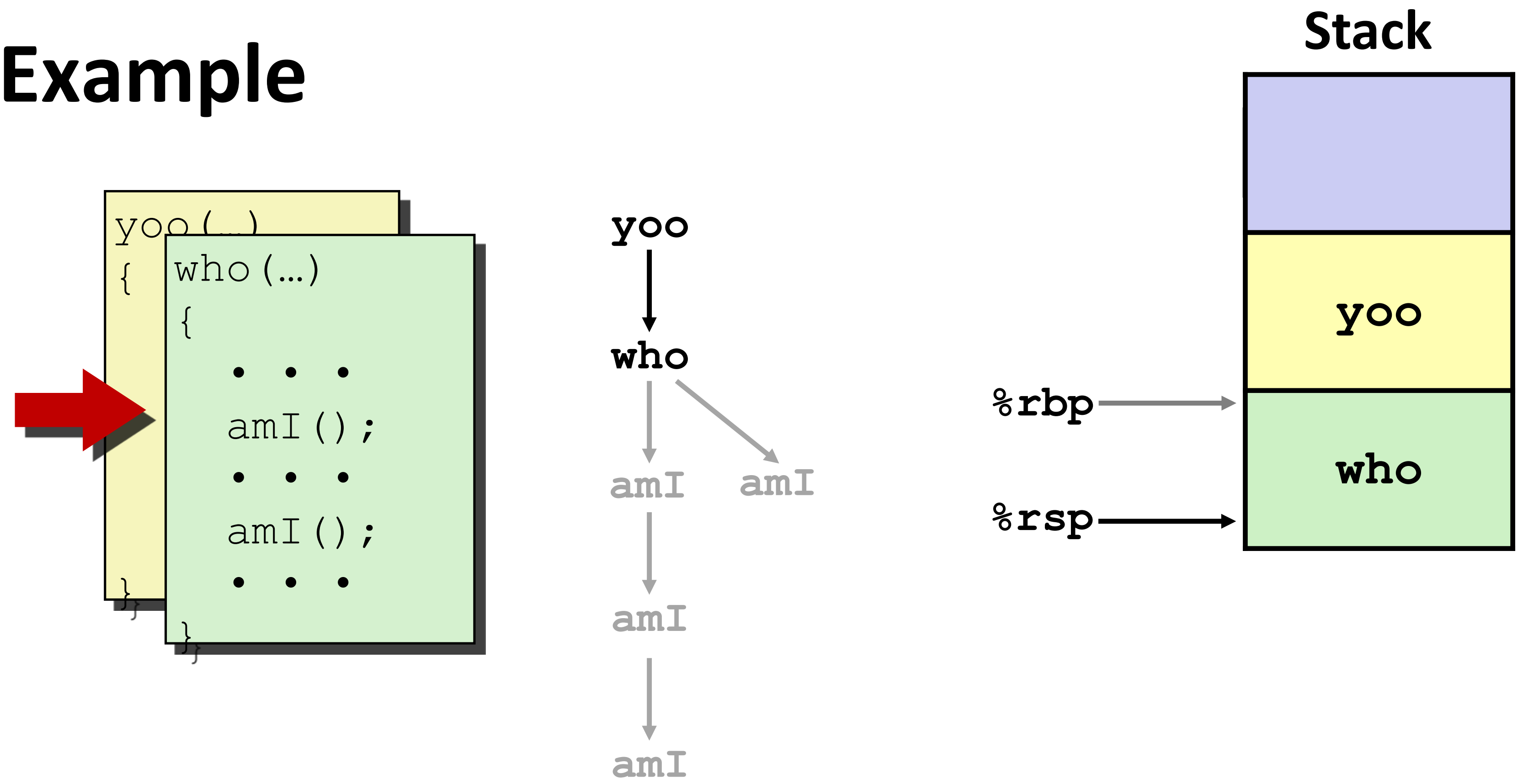
Example

```
yoo(…)
{
  •
  •
  who();
  •
  •
}
```

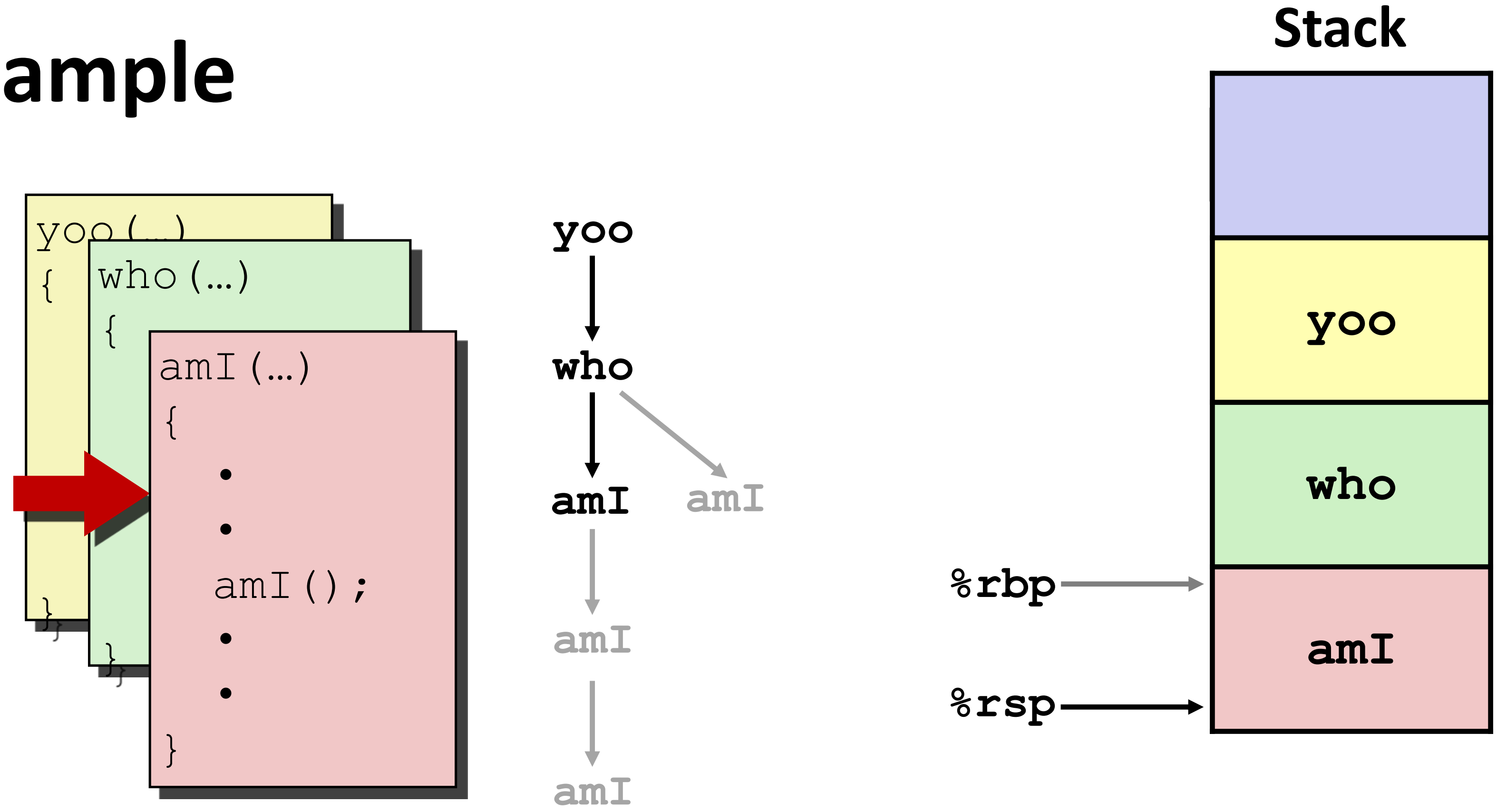




Example

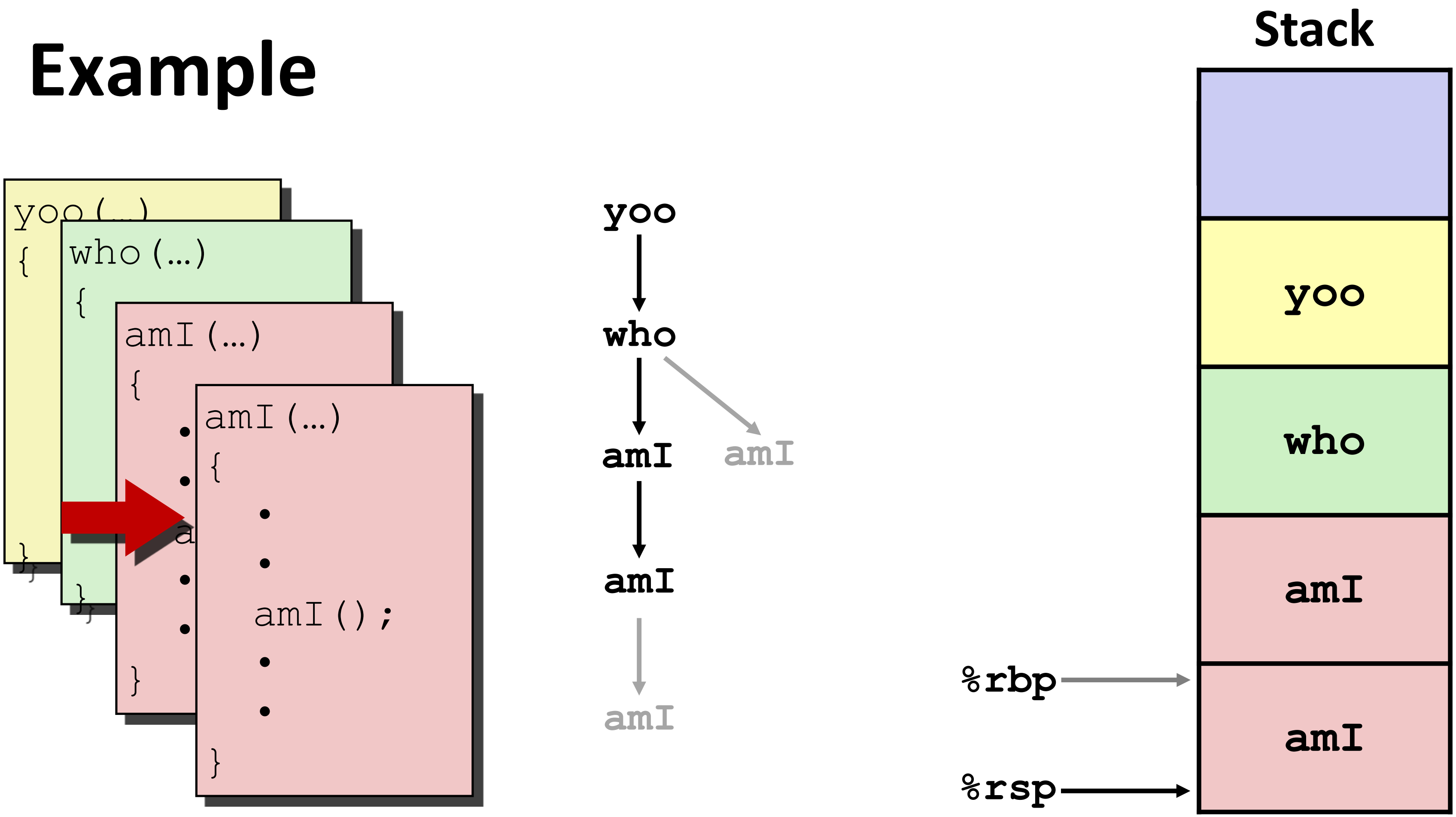


Example

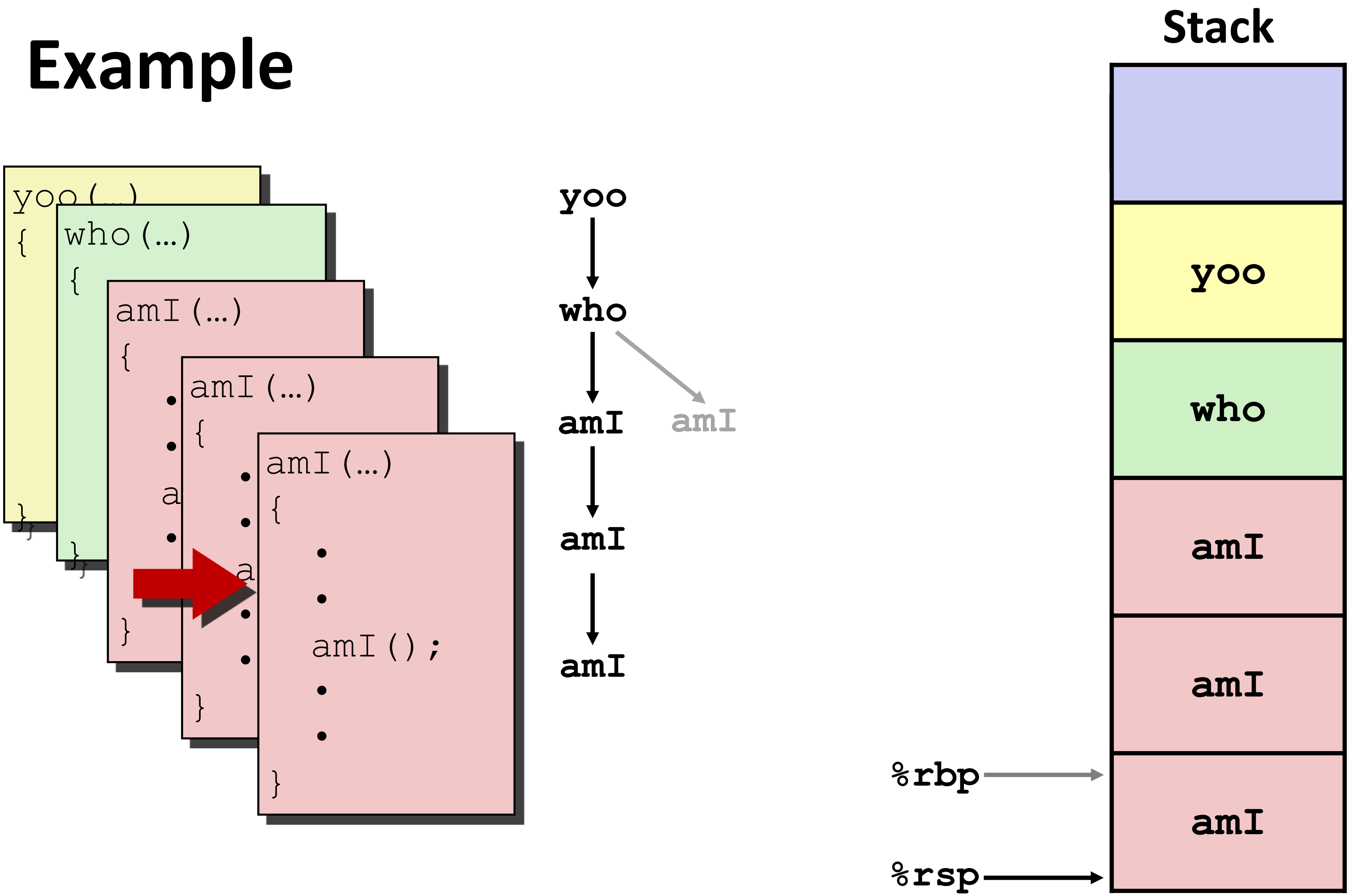


yoo (…)
{
}
who (…)
{
}
amI (…)
{
•
•
amI ();
•
•
}
yoo
who
amI
amI
amI
amI
Stack
yoo
who
amI
%rbp
%rsp

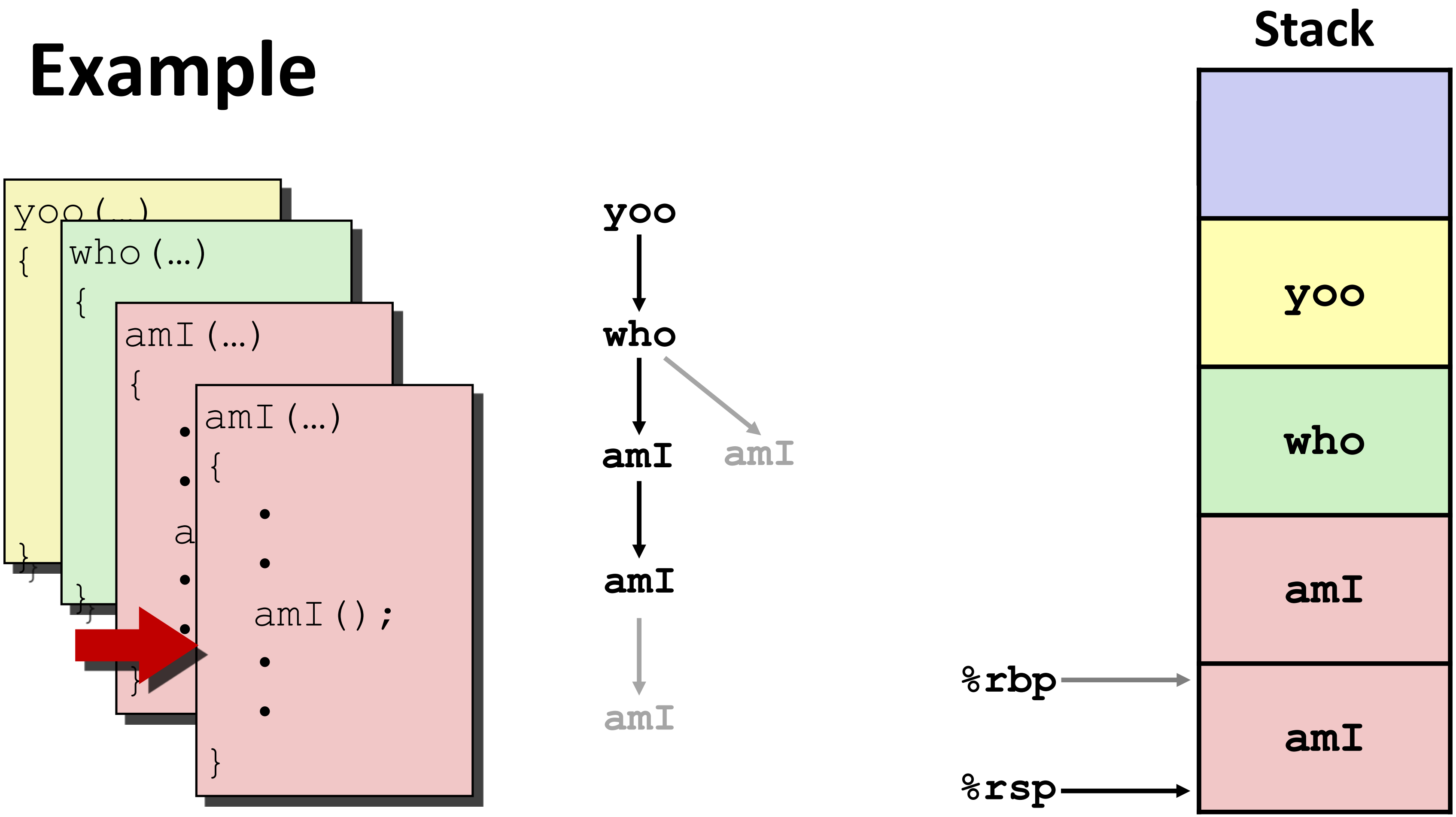
Example


yoo(…)
{
}
who(…)
{
}
amI(…)
{
}
amI(…)
{
amI();
}
yoo
who
amI
amI
amI
amI
Stack
yoo
who
amI
amI
%rbp
%rsp

Example

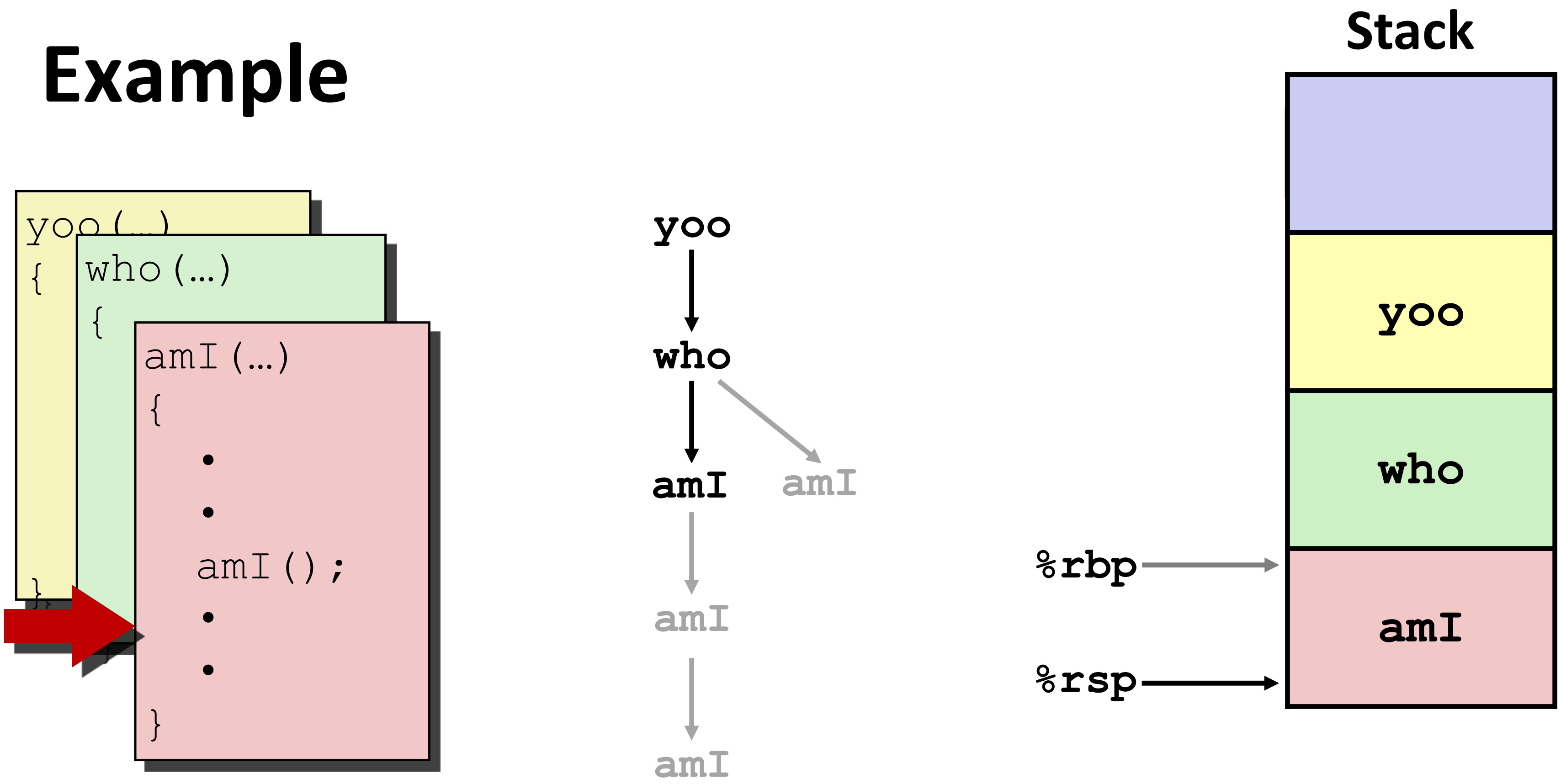

yoo(…)
{
who(…)
{
amI(…)
{
amI(…)
{
amI(…)
{
amI();
}
yoo
who
amI
amI
amI
amI
Stack
yoo
who
amI
amI
amI
%rbp
%rsp

Example



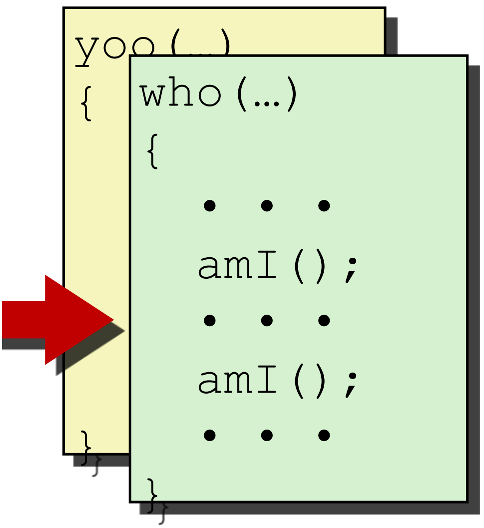
yoo(…)
{
}
who(…)
{
}
amI(…)
{
•
•
a
•
•
}
amI(…)
{
•
•
amI();
•
•
}
yoo
who
amI
amI
amI
amI
Stack
yoo
who
amI
amI
%rbp
%rsp

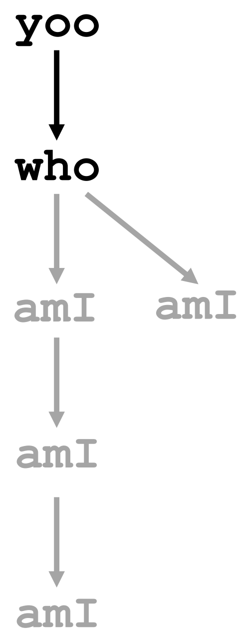
Example

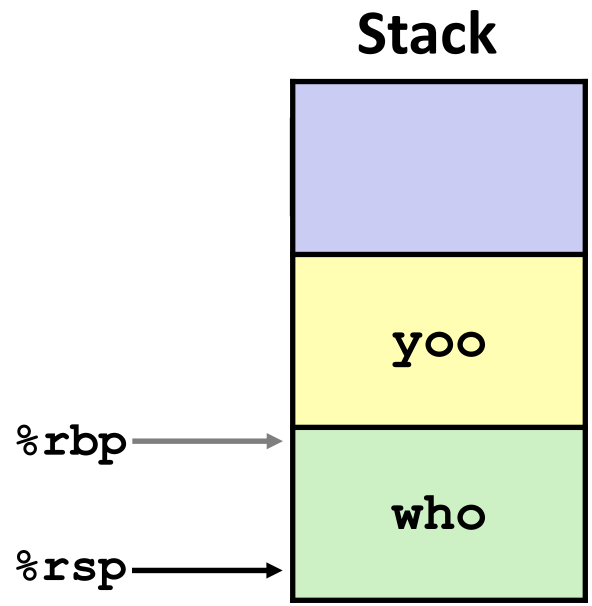


yoo(…)
{
}
who(…)
{
}
amI(…)
{
•
•
amI();
•
•
}
yoo
who
amI
amI
amI
amI
Stack
yoo
who
amI
%rbp
%rsp

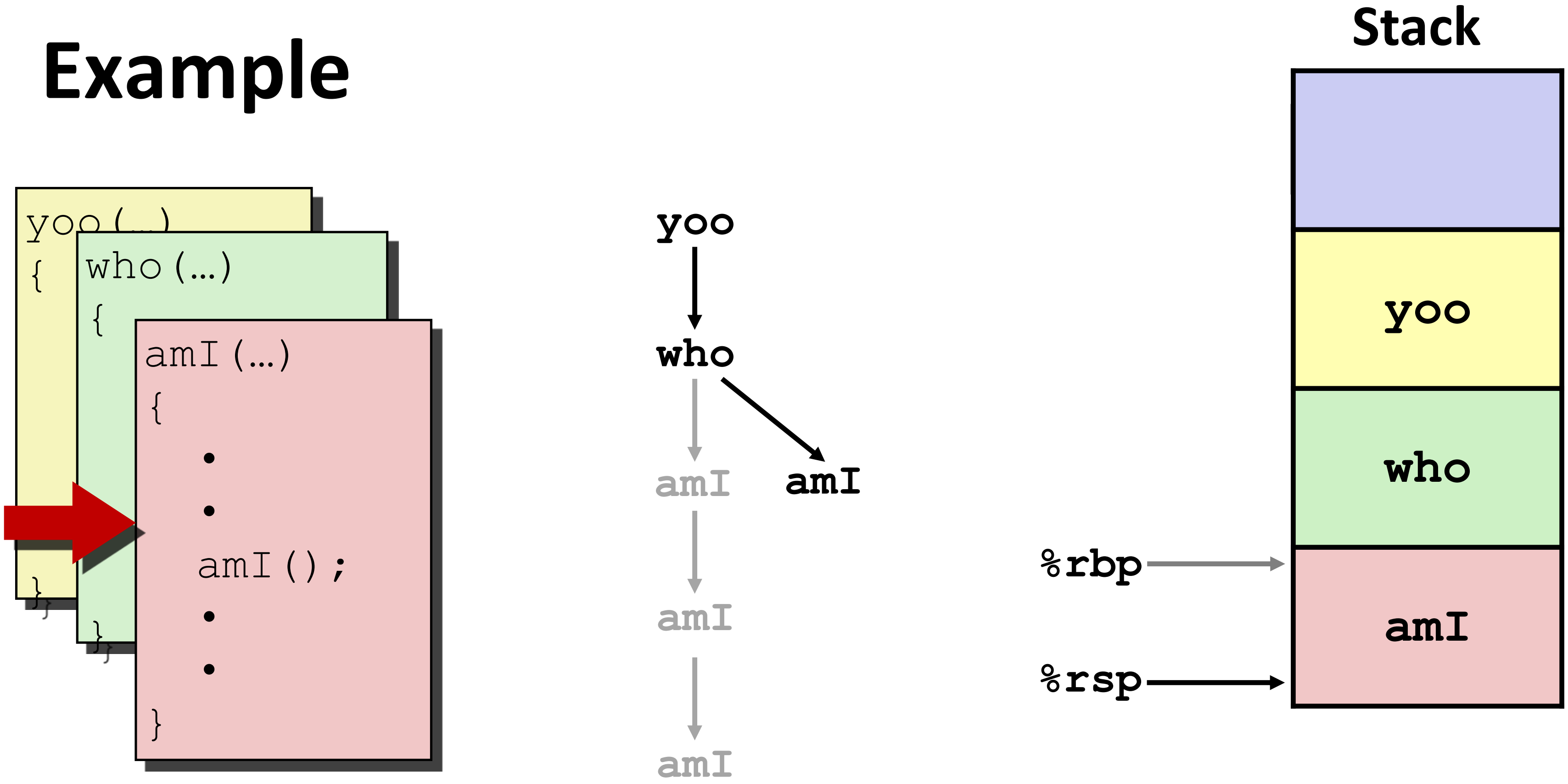
Example



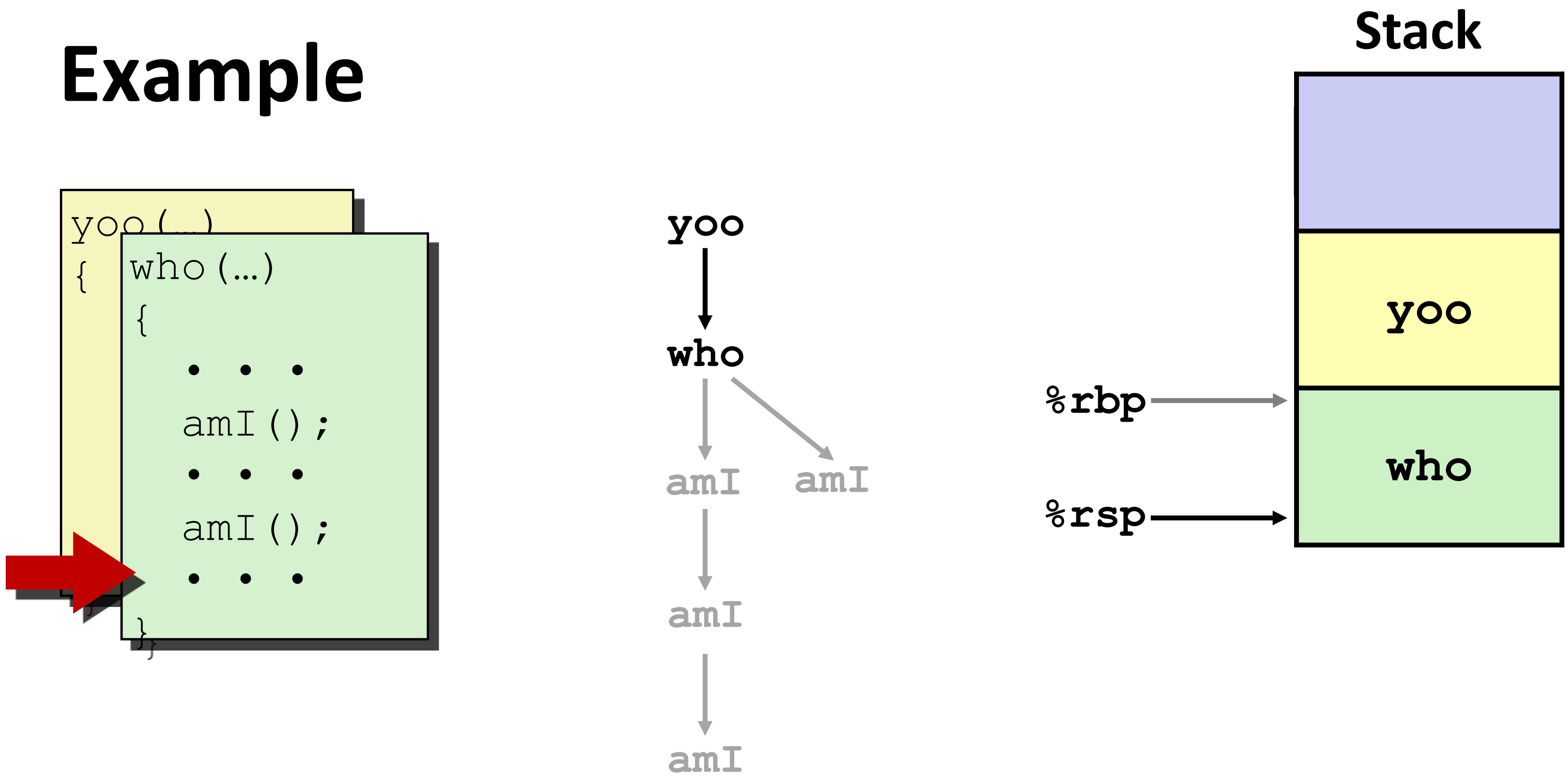




Example

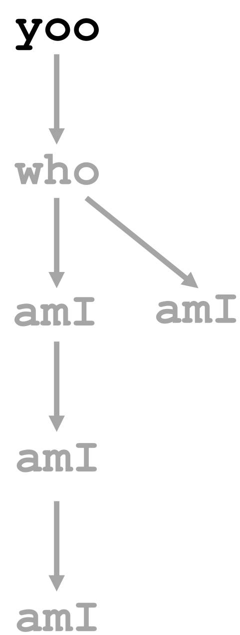

yoo(…)
{
}
who(…)
{
}
amI(…)
{
•
•
amI();
•
•
}
yoo
who
amI
amI
amI
amI
Stack
yoo
who
amI
%rbp
%rsp

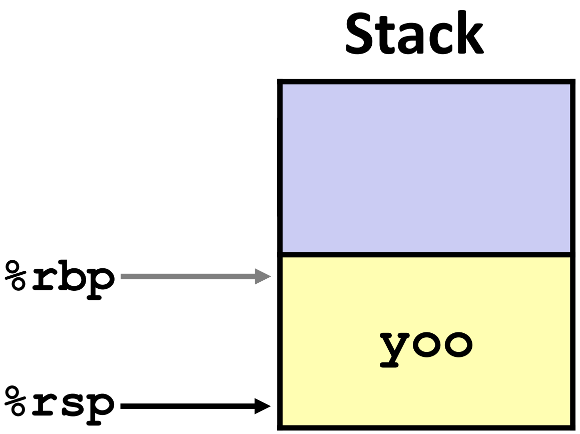
Example



Example

```
yoo(…)
{
   •
   •
   who();
   •
   •
}
```

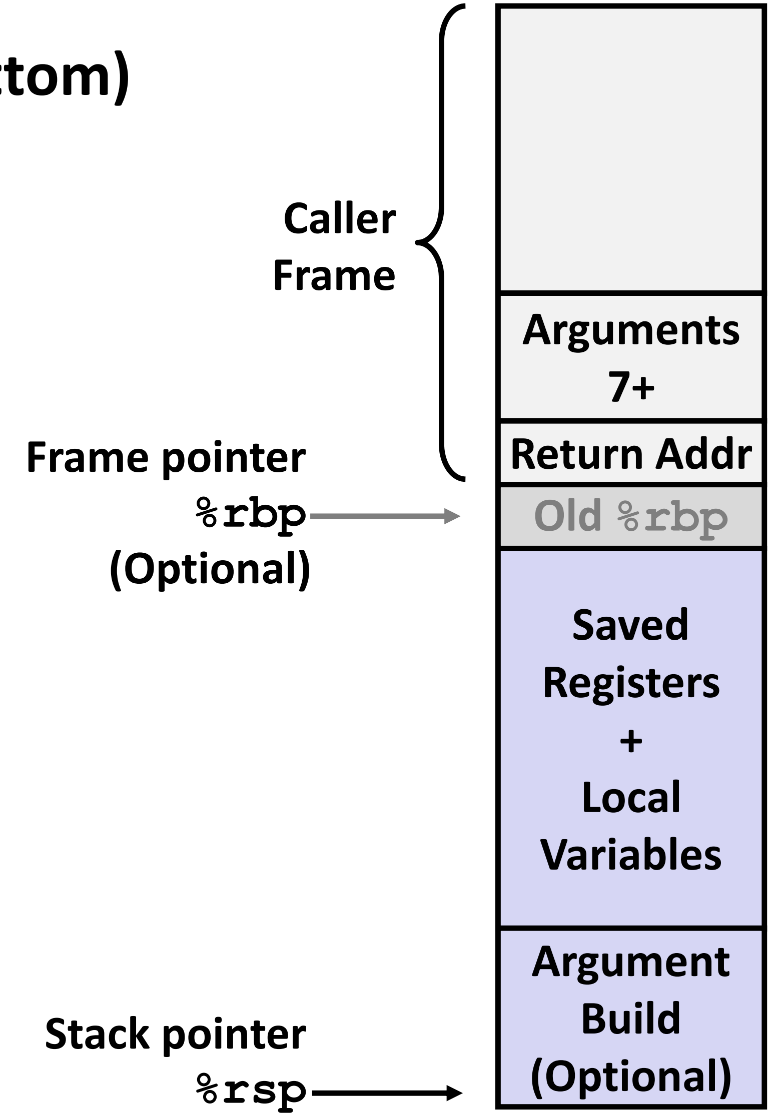




x86-64/Linux Stack Frame

- **Current Stack Frame ("Top" to Bottom)**
  - "Argument build:"
    Parameters for function about to call
  - Local variables
    If can't keep in registers
  - Saved register context
  - Old frame pointer (optional)

- **Caller Stack Frame**
  - Return address
    - Pushed by `call` instruction
  - Arguments for this call



Example: incr

```
long incr(long *p, long val) {
    long x = *p;
    long y = x + val;
    *p = y;
    return x;
}
```

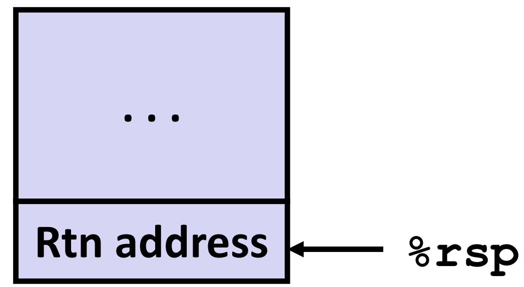
```
incr:
  movq    (%rdi), %rax
  addq    %rax, %rsi
  movq    %rsi, (%rdi)
  ret
```

Register	Use(s)
`%rdi`	Argument **p**
`%rsi`	Argument **val**, **y**
`%rax`	**x**, Return value

Example: Calling `incr` #1

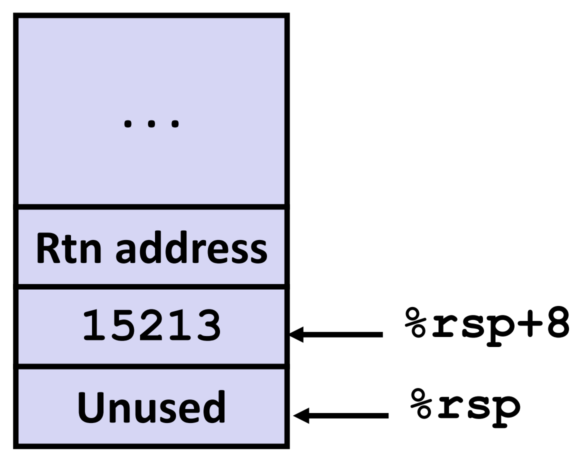
```
long call_incr() {
    long v1 = 15213;
    long v2 = incr(&v1, 3000);
    return v1+v2;
}
```

Initial Stack Structure




```
call_incr:
  subq    $16, %rsp
  movq    $15213, 8(%rsp)
  movl    $3000, %esi
  leaq    8(%rsp), %rdi
  call    incr
  addq    8(%rsp), %rax
  addq    $16, %rsp
  ret
```

Resulting Stack Structure

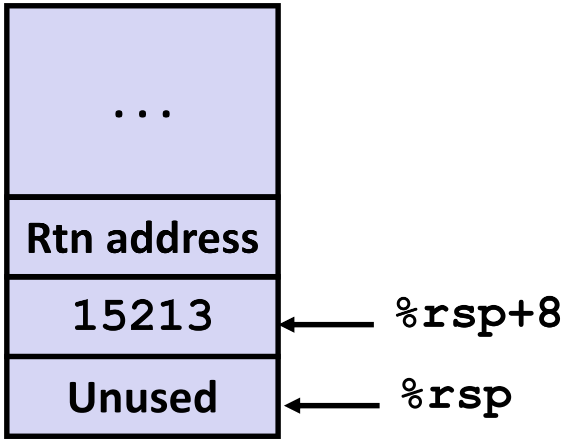


Example: Calling `incr` #2

```
long call_incr() {
    long v1 = 15213;
    long v2 = incr(&v1, 3000);
    return v1+v2;
}
```

```
call_incr:
  subq    $16, %rsp
  movq    $15213, 8(%rsp)
  movl    $3000, %esi
  leaq    8(%rsp), %rdi
  call    incr
  addq    8(%rsp), %rax
  addq    $16, %rsp
  ret
```

Stack Structure

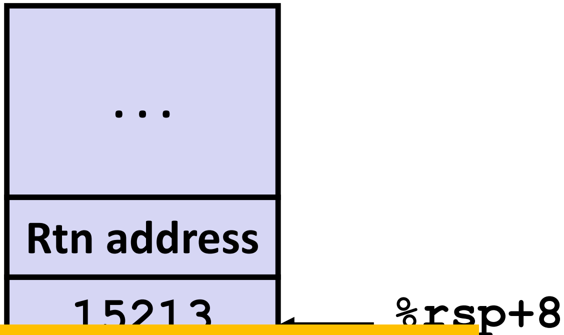


Register	Use(s)
%rdi	&v1
%rsi	3000

Example: Calling `incr` #2

```
long call_incr() {
    long v1 = 15213;
    long v2 = incr(&v1, 3000);
    return v1+v2;
}
```

Stack Structure



Aside 1: `movl $3000, %esi`

- Note: movl -> %exx zeros out high order 32 bits.
- Why use movl instead of movq? 1 byte shorter.

```
call_
  sub
  mov
  movl    $3000, %esi
  leaq    8(%rsp), %rdi
  call    incr
  addq    8(%rsp), %rax
  addq    $16, %rsp
  ret
```

%rdi	&v1
%rsi	3000

Example: Calling `incr` #2

```
long call_incr() {
    long v1 = 15213;
    long v2 = incr(&v1, 3000);
    return v1+v2;
}
```

Stack Structure

. . .
Rtn address
15213 ← %rsp+8
← %rsp

Aside 2: `leaq 8(%rsp), %rdi`

- Computes %rsp+8
- Actually, used for what it is meant!

```
ca
    leaq    8(%rsp), %rdi
    call    incr
    addq    8(%rsp), %rax
    addq    $16, %rsp
    ret
```

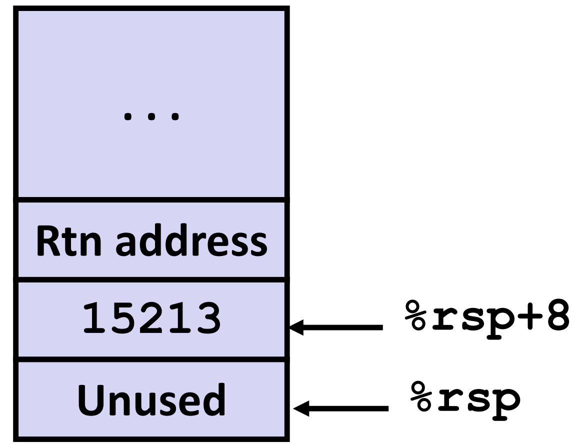
	se(s)
	v1
%rsi	3000

Example: Calling `incr` #2

```
long call_incr() {
    long v1 = 15213;
    long v2 = incr(&v1, 3000);
    return v1+v2;
}
```

```
call_incr:
  subq    $16, %rsp
  movq    $15213, 8(%rsp)
  movl    $3000, %esi
  leaq    8(%rsp), %rdi
  call    incr
  addq    8(%rsp), %rax
  addq    $16, %rsp
  ret
```

Stack Structure



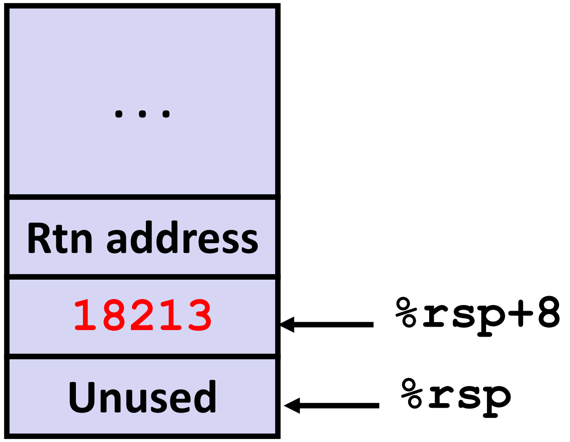
Register	Use(s)
%rdi	&v1
%rsi	3000

Example: Calling `incr` #3

```
long call_incr() {
    long v1 = 15213;
    long v2 = incr(&v1, 3000);
    return v1+v2;
}
```

```
call_incr:
  subq    $16, %rsp
  movq    $15213, 8(%rsp)
  movl    $3000, %esi
  leaq    8(%rsp), %rdi
  call    incr
  addq    8(%rsp), %rax
  addq    $16, %rsp
  ret
```

Stack Structure

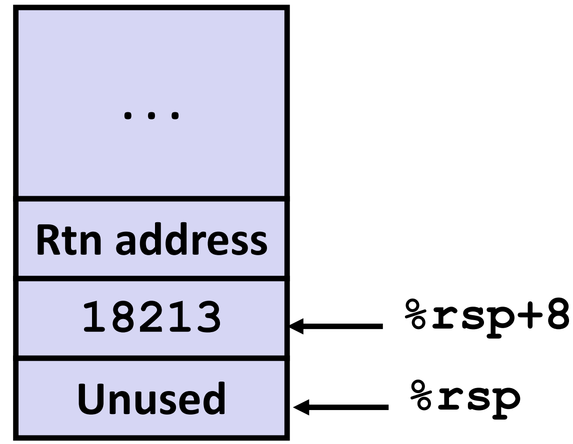


Register	Use(s)
%rdi	&v1
%rsi	3000

Example: Calling `incr` #4

```
long call_incr() {
    long v1 = 15213;
    long v2 = incr(&v1, 3000);
    return v1+v2;
}
```

Stack Structure




```
call_incr:
  subq    $16, %rsp
  movq    $15213, 8(%rsp)
  movl    $3000, %esi
  leaq    8(%rsp), %rdi
  call    incr
  addq    8(%rsp), %rax
  addq    $16, %rsp
  ret
```

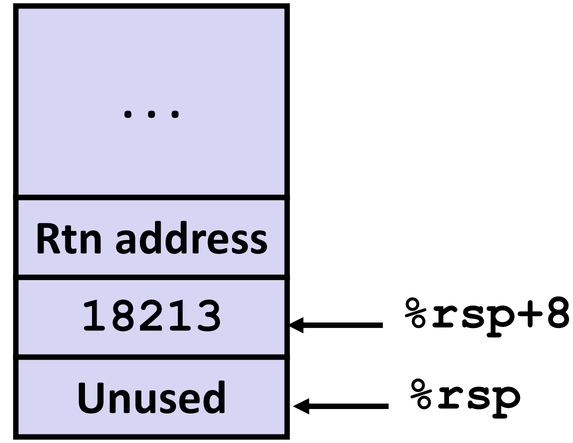
Register	Use(s)
`%rax`	Return value

Example: Calling `incr` #5a

```
long call_incr() {
    long v1 = 15213;
    long v2 = incr(&v1, 3000);
    return v1+v2;
}
```

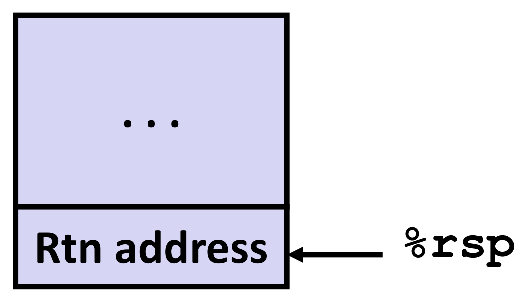
```
call_incr:
  subq     $16, %rsp
  movq     $15213, 8(%rsp)
  movl     $3000, %esi
  leaq     8(%rsp), %rdi
  call     incr
  addq     8(%rsp), %rax
  addq     $16, %rsp
  ret
```

Stack Structure



Register	Use(s)
`%rax`	Return value

Updated Stack Structure

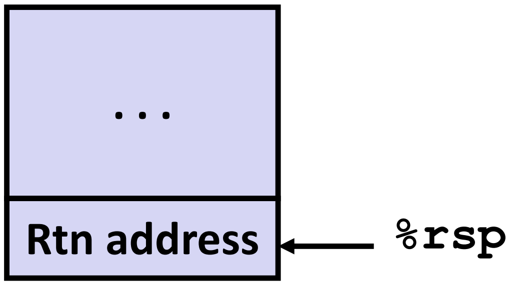


Example: Calling `incr` #5b

```
long call_incr() {
    long v1 = 15213;
    long v2 = incr(&v1, 3000);
    return v1+v2;
}
```

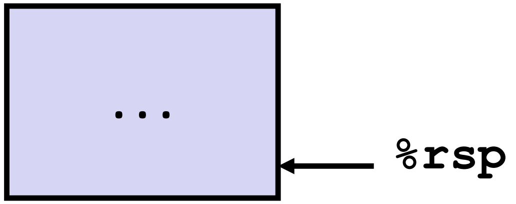
```
call_incr:
  subq    $16, %rsp
  movq    $15213, 8(%rsp)
  movl    $3000, %esi
  leaq    8(%rsp), %rdi
  call    incr
  addq    8(%rsp), %rax
  addq    $16, %rsp
  ret
```

Updated Stack Structure



Register	Use(s)
`%rax`	Return value

Final Stack Structure



Register Saving Conventions

- **When procedure `yoo` calls `who`:**
  - `yoo` is the ***caller***
  - `who` is the ***callee***
- **Can register be used for temporary storage?**

```
yoo:
    • • •
    movq $15213, %rdx
    call who
    addq %rdx, %rax
    • • •
    ret
```

```
who:
    • • •
    subq $18213, %rdx
    • • •
    ret
```

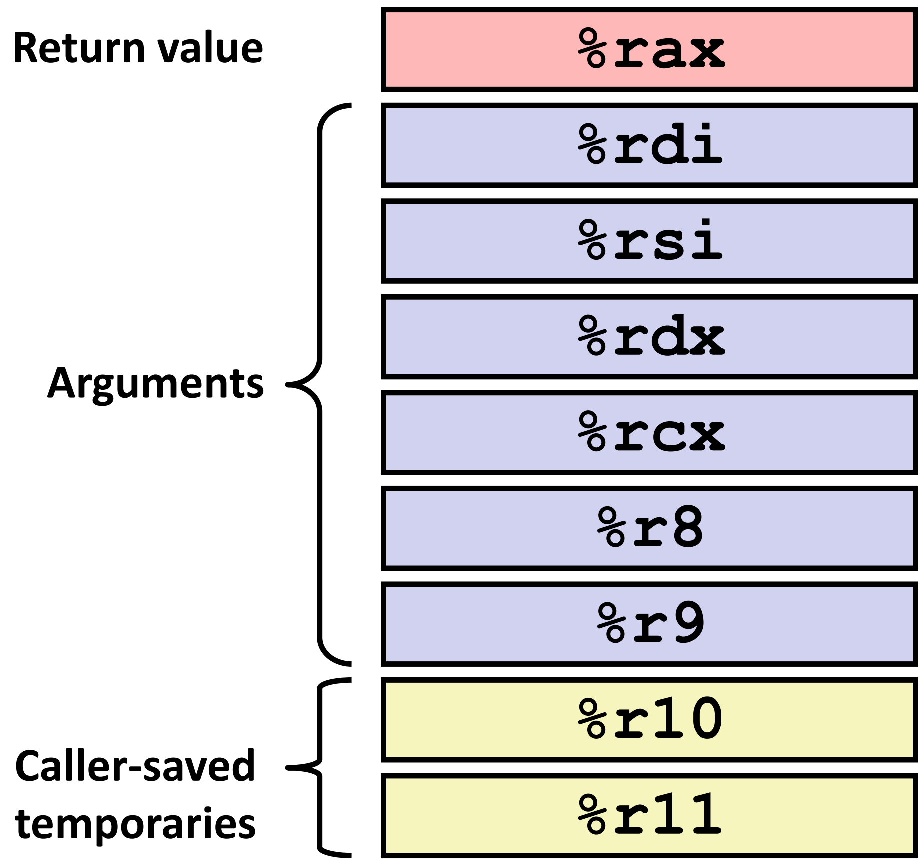
  - Contents of register `%rdx` overwritten by `who`
  - This could be trouble → something should be done!
    - Need some coordination

Register Saving Conventions

- **When procedure `yoo` calls `who`:**
  - `yoo` is the ***caller***
  - `who` is the ***callee***
- **Can register be used for temporary storage?**
- **Conventions**
  - ***"Caller Saved"***
    - Caller saves temporary values in its frame before the call
  - ***"Callee Saved"***
    - Callee saves temporary values in its frame before using
    - Callee restores them before returning to caller

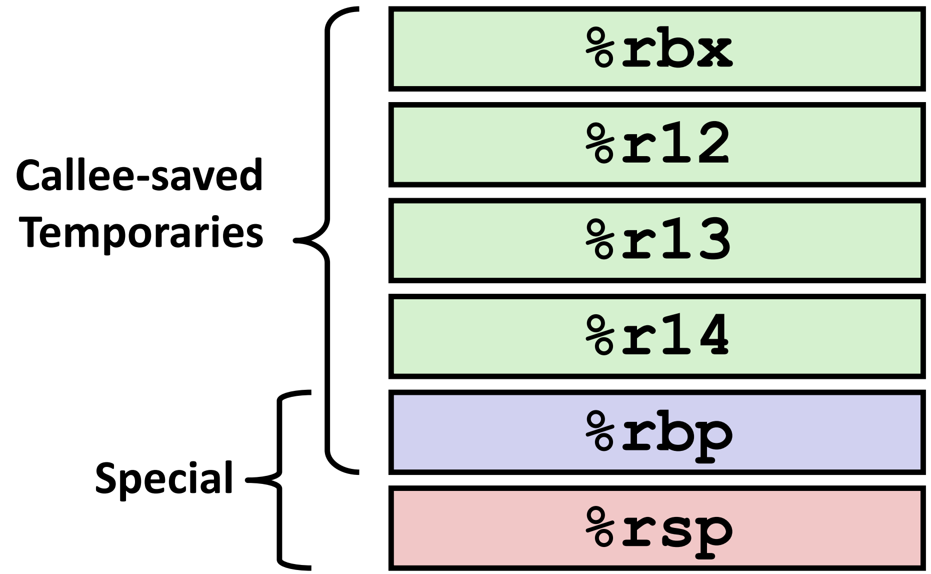
x86-64 Linux Register Usage #1

- `%rax`
  - Return value
  - Also caller-saved
  - Can be modified by procedure
- `%rdi`, …, `%r9`
  - Arguments
  - Also caller-saved
  - Can be modified by procedure
- `%r10`, `%r11`
  - Caller-saved
  - Can be modified by procedure



x86-64 Linux Register Usage #2

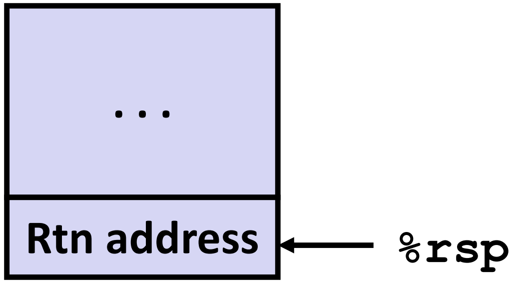
- `%rbx`, `%r12`, `%r13`, `%r14`
  - Callee-saved
  - Callee must save & restore
- `%rbp`
  - Callee-saved
  - Callee must save & restore
  - May be used as frame pointer
  - Can mix & match
- `%rsp`
  - Special form of callee save
  - Restored to original value upon exit from procedure



Callee-Saved Example #1

```
long call_incr2(long x) {
    long v1 = 15213;
    long v2 = incr(&v1, 3000);
    return x+v2;
}
```

Initial Stack Structure



- X comes in register **`%rdi`**.
- We need **`%rdi`** for the call to incr.
- Where should be put x, so we can use it after the call to incr?

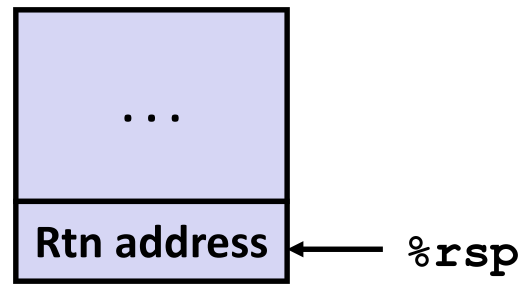
Callee-Saved Example #2

```
long call_incr2(long x) {
    long v1 = 15213;
    long v2 = incr(&v1, 3000);
    return x+v2;
}
```

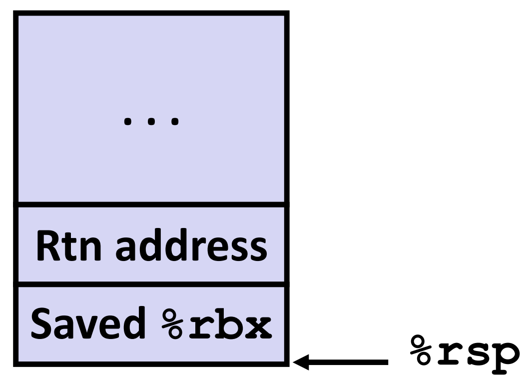
```
call_incr2:
  pushq   %rbx
  subq    $16, %rsp
  movq    %rdi, %rbx
  movq    $15213, 8(%rsp)
  movl    $3000, %esi
  leaq    8(%rsp), %rdi
  call    incr
  addq    %rbx, %rax
  addq    $16, %rsp
  popq    %rbx
  ret
```

Overwritten:
Need to save

Initial Stack Structure



Resulting Stack Structure

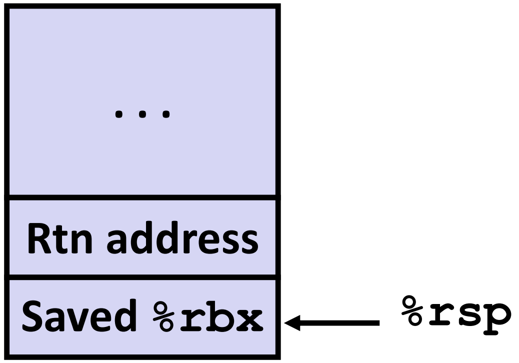


Callee-Saved Example #3

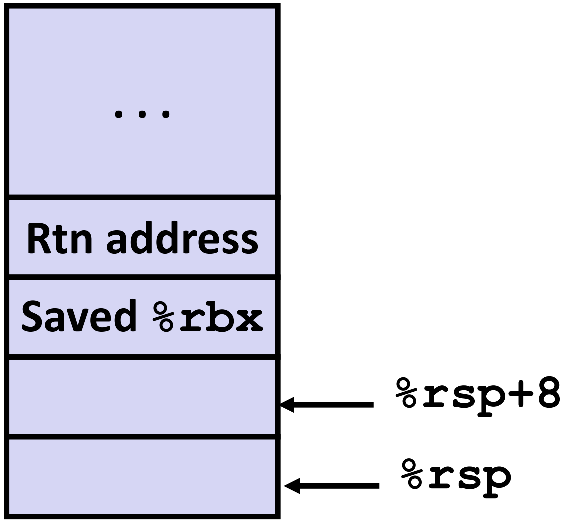
```
long call_incr2(long x) {
    long v1 = 15213;
    long v2 = incr(&v1, 3000);
    return x+v2;
}
```

```
call_incr2:
  pushq   %rbx
  subq    $16, %rsp
  movq    %rdi, %rbx
  movq    $15213, 8(%rsp)
  movl    $3000, %esi
  leaq    8(%rsp), %rdi
  call    incr
  addq    %rbx, %rax
  addq    $16, %rsp
  popq    %rbx
  ret
```

Initial Stack Structure



Resulting Stack Structure

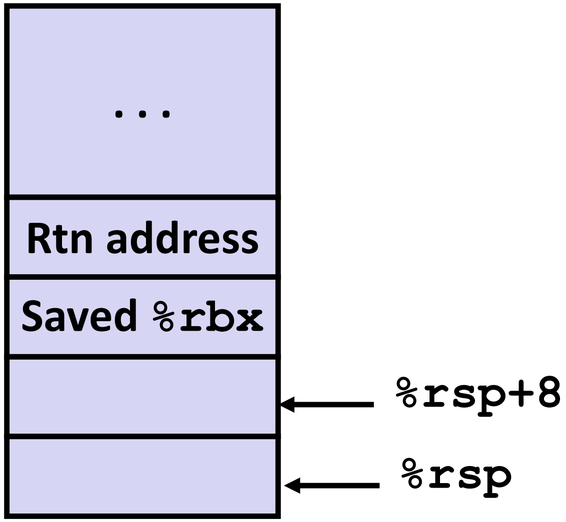


Callee-Saved Example #4

```
long call_incr2(long x) {
    long v1 = 15213;
    long v2 = incr(&v1, 3000);
    return x+v2;
}
```

```
call_incr2:
  pushq   %rbx
  subq    $16, %rsp
  movq    %rdi, %rbx
  movq    $15213, 8(%rsp)
  movl    $3000, %esi
  leaq    8(%rsp), %rdi
  call    incr
  addq    %rbx, %rax
  addq    $16, %rsp
  popq    %rbx
  ret
```

Stack Structure



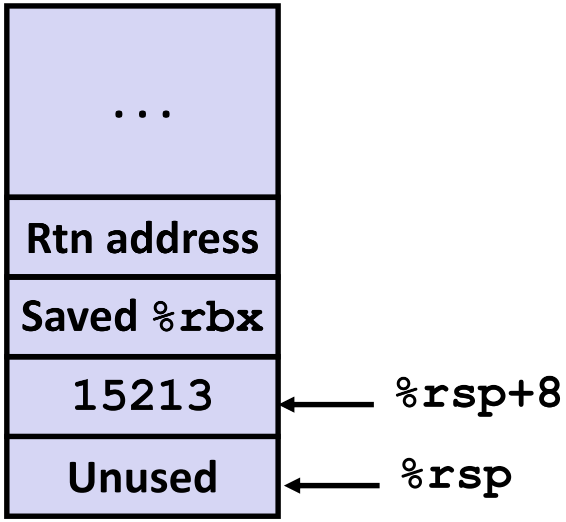
- **x** is saved in **%rbx**, a callee saved register

Callee-Saved Example #5

```
long call_incr2(long x) {
    long v1 = 15213;
    long v2 = incr(&v1, 3000);
    return x+v2;
}
```

```
call_incr2:
  pushq   %rbx
  subq    $16, %rsp
  movq    %rdi, %rbx
  movq    $15213, 8(%rsp)
  movl    $3000, %esi
  leaq    8(%rsp), %rdi
  call    incr
  addq    %rbx, %rax
  addq    $16, %rsp
  popq    %rbx
  ret
```

Stack Structure



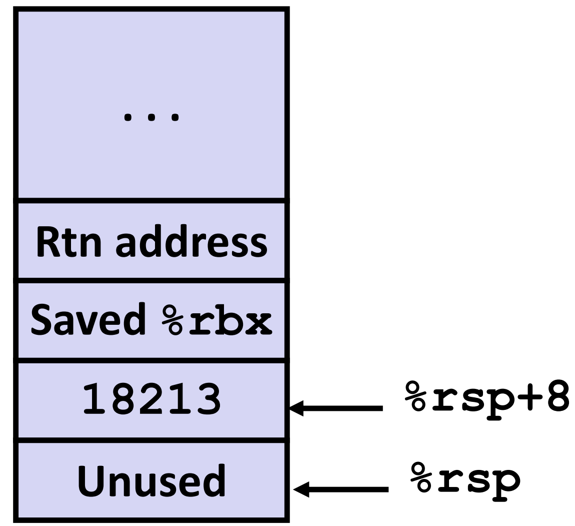
- **x** is saved in **%rbx**, a callee saved register

Callee-Saved Example #6

```
long call_incr2(long x) {
    long v1 = 15213;
    long v2 = incr(&v1, 3000);
    return x+v2;
}
```

```
call_incr2:
  pushq   %rbx
  subq    $16, %rsp
  movq    %rdi, %rbx
  movq    $15213, 8(%rsp)
  movl    $3000, %esi
  leaq    8(%rsp), %rdi
  call    incr
  addq    %rbx, %rax
  addq    $16, %rsp
  popq    %rbx
  ret
```

Stack Structure



Upon return from incr:

- **x** is safe in **%rbx**
- Return result **v2** is in **%rax**
- Compute **x+v2**

Callee-Saved Example #7

```
long call_incr2(long x) {
    long v1 = 15213;
    long v2 = incr(&v1, 3000);
    return x+v2;
}
```

```
call_incr2:
  pushq   %rbx
  subq    $16, %rsp
  movq    %rdi, %rbx
  movq    $15213, 8(%rsp)
  movl    $3000, %esi
  leaq    8(%rsp), %rdi
  call    incr
  addq    %rbx, %rax
  addq    $16, %rsp
  popq    %rbx
  ret
```

Stack Structure

. . .
Rtn address
Saved %rbx ← %rsp
18213
Unused

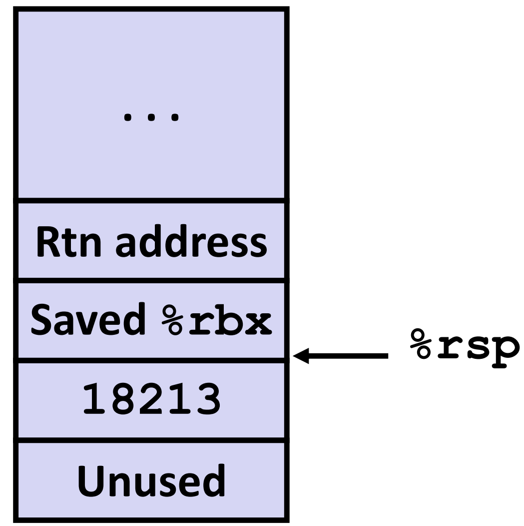
- Return result in **%rax**

Callee-Saved Example #8

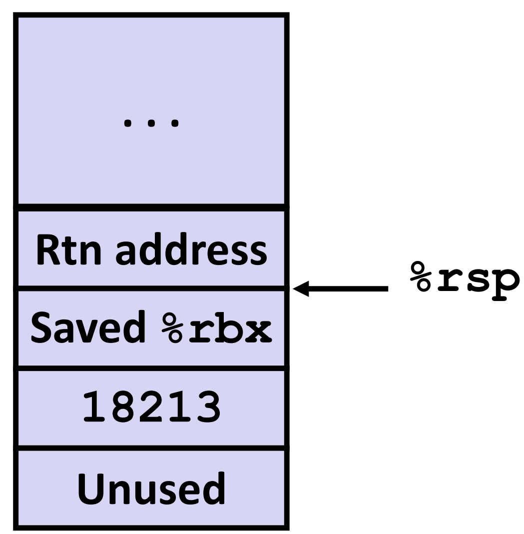
```
long call_incr2(long x) {
    long v1 = 15213;
    long v2 = incr(&v1, 3000);
    return x+v2;
}
```

```
call_incr2:
  pushq   %rbx
  subq    $16, %rsp
  movq    %rdi, %rbx
  movq    $15213, 8(%rsp)
  movl    $3000, %esi
  leaq    8(%rsp), %rdi
  call    incr
  addq    %rbx, %rax
  addq    $16, %rsp
  popq    %rbx
  ret
```

Initial Stack Structure



final Stack Structure



Today

- **Procedures**
  - Mechanisms
  - Stack Structure
  - Calling Conventions
    - Passing control
    - Passing data
    - Managing local data
  - **Illustration of Recursion**

Recursive Function

```
/* Recursive popcount */
long pcount_r(unsigned long x) {
  if (x == 0)
    return 0;
  else
    return (x & 1)
           + pcount_r(x >> 1);
}
```

```
pcount_r:
  movl    $0, %eax
  testq   %rdi, %rdi
  je      .L6
  pushq   %rbx
  movq    %rdi, %rbx
  andl    $1, %ebx
  shrq    %rdi
  call    pcount_r
  addq    %rbx, %rax
  popq    %rbx
.L6:
  rep; ret
```

Recursive Function Terminal Case

```
/* Recursive popcount */
long pcount_r(unsigned long x) {
  if (x == 0)
    return 0;
  else
    return (x & 1)
           + pcount_r(x >> 1);
}
```

```
pcount_r:
  movl    $0, %eax
  testq   %rdi, %rdi
  je      .L6
  pushq   %rbx
  movq    %rdi, %rbx
  andl    $1, %ebx
  shrq    %rdi
  call    pcount_r
  addq    %rbx, %rax
  popq    %rbx
.L6:
  rep; ret
```

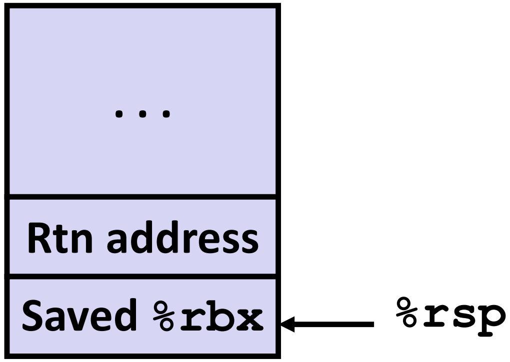
Register	Use(s)	Type
%rdi	x	Argument
%rax	Return value	Return value

Recursive Function Register Save

```
/* Recursive popcount */
long pcount_r(unsigned long x) {
  if (x == 0)
    return 0;
  else
    return (x & 1)
           + pcount_r(x >> 1);
}
```

```
pcount_r:
  movl    $0, %eax
  testq   %rdi, %rdi
  je      .L6
  pushq   %rbx
  movq    %rdi, %rbx
  andl    $1, %ebx
  shrq    %rdi
  call    pcount_r
  addq    %rbx, %rax
  popq    %rbx
.L6:
  rep; ret
```

Register	Use(s)	Type
%rdi	x	Argument



Recursive Function Call Setup

```
/* Recursive popcount */
long pcount_r(unsigned long x) {
  if (x == 0)
    return 0;
  else
    return (x & 1)
           + pcount_r(x >> 1);
}
```

```
pcount_r:
  movl    $0, %eax
  testq   %rdi, %rdi
  je      .L6
  pushq   %rbx
  movq    %rdi, %rbx
  andl    $1, %ebx
  shrq    %rdi
  call    pcount_r
  addq    %rbx, %rax
  popq    %rbx
.L6:
  rep; ret
```

Register	Use(s)	Type
%rdi	x >> 1	Recursive argument
%rbx	x & 1	Callee-saved

Recursive Function Call

```
/* Recursive popcount */
long pcount_r(unsigned long x) {
  if (x == 0)
    return 0;
  else
    return (x & 1)
           + pcount_r(x >> 1);
}
```

```
pcount_r:
  movl    $0, %eax
  testq   %rdi, %rdi
  je      .L6
  pushq   %rbx
  movq    %rdi, %rbx
  andl    $1, %ebx
  shrq    %rdi
  call    pcount_r
  addq    %rbx, %rax
  popq    %rbx
.L6:
  rep; ret
```

Register	Use(s)	Type
`%rbx`	`x & 1`	Callee-saved
`%rax`	Recursive call return value	

Recursive Function Result

```
/* Recursive popcount */
long pcount_r(unsigned long x) {
  if (x == 0)
    return 0;
  else
    return (x & 1)
           + pcount_r(x >> 1);
}
```

```
pcount_r:
  movl    $0, %eax
  testq   %rdi, %rdi
  je      .L6
  pushq   %rbx
  movq    %rdi, %rbx
  andl    $1, %ebx
  shrq    %rdi
  call    pcount_r
  addq    %rbx, %rax
  popq    %rbx
.L6:
  rep; ret
```

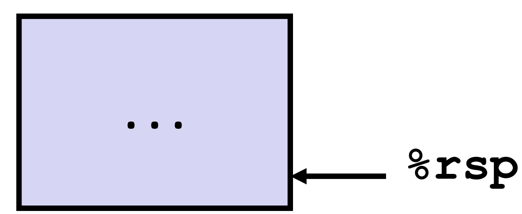
Register	Use(s)	Type
%rbx	x & 1	Callee-saved
%rax	Return value	

Recursive Function Completion

```
/* Recursive popcount */
long pcount_r(unsigned long x) {
  if (x == 0)
    return 0;
  else
    return (x & 1)
           + pcount_r(x >> 1);
}
```

```
pcount_r:
  movl    $0, %eax
  testq   %rdi, %rdi
  je      .L6
  pushq   %rbx
  movq    %rdi, %rbx
  andl    $1, %ebx
  shrq    %rdi
  call    pcount_r
  addq    %rbx, %rax
  popq    %rbx
.L6:
  rep; ret
```

Register	Use(s)	Type
%rax	Return value	Return value

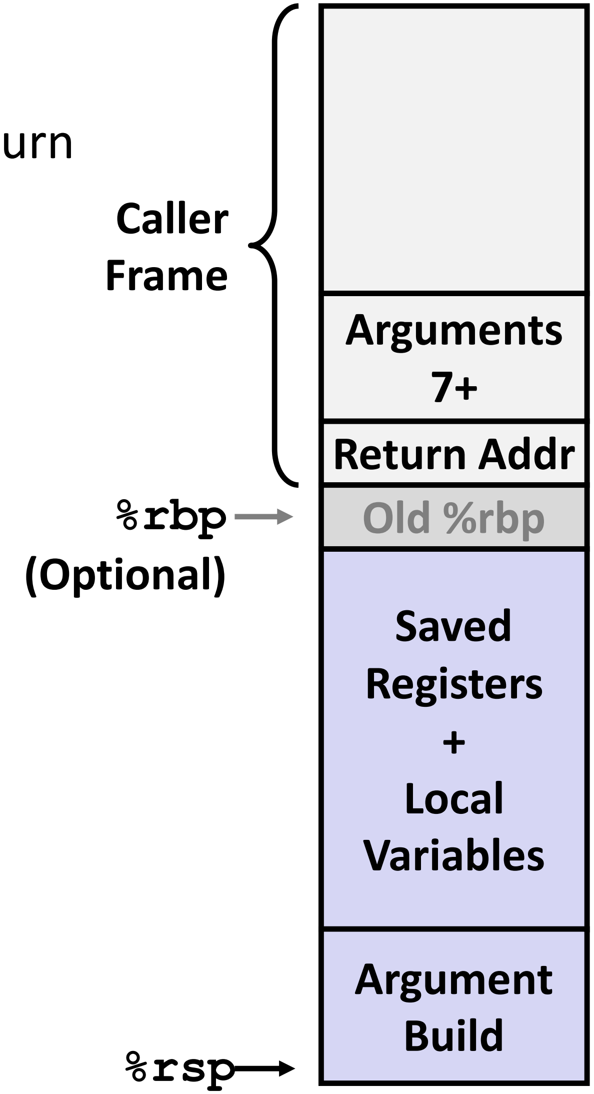


Observations About Recursion

- **Handled Without Special Consideration**
  - Stack frames mean that each function call has private storage
    - Saved registers & local variables
    - Saved return pointer
  - Register saving conventions prevent one function call from corrupting another's data
    - Unless the C code explicitly does so (e.g., buffer overflow in Lecture 9)
  - Stack discipline follows call / return pattern
    - If P calls Q, then Q returns before P
    - Last-In, First-Out
- **Also works for mutual recursion**
  - P calls Q; Q calls P

x86-64 Procedure Summary

- **Important Points**
  - Stack is the right data structure for procedure call/return
    - If P calls Q, then Q returns before P
- **Recursion (& mutual recursion) handled by normal calling conventions**
  - Can safely store values in local stack frame and in callee-saved registers
  - Put function arguments at top of stack
  - Result return in `%rax`
- **Pointers are addresses of values**
  - **On stack or global**



Machine-Level Programming IV: Data

15-213/18-213/15-513: Introduction to Computer Systems
8th Lecture, February 12, 2019

Instructors:

Seth C. Goldstein, Brandon Lucia, Franz Franchetti, and Brian Railing

Today

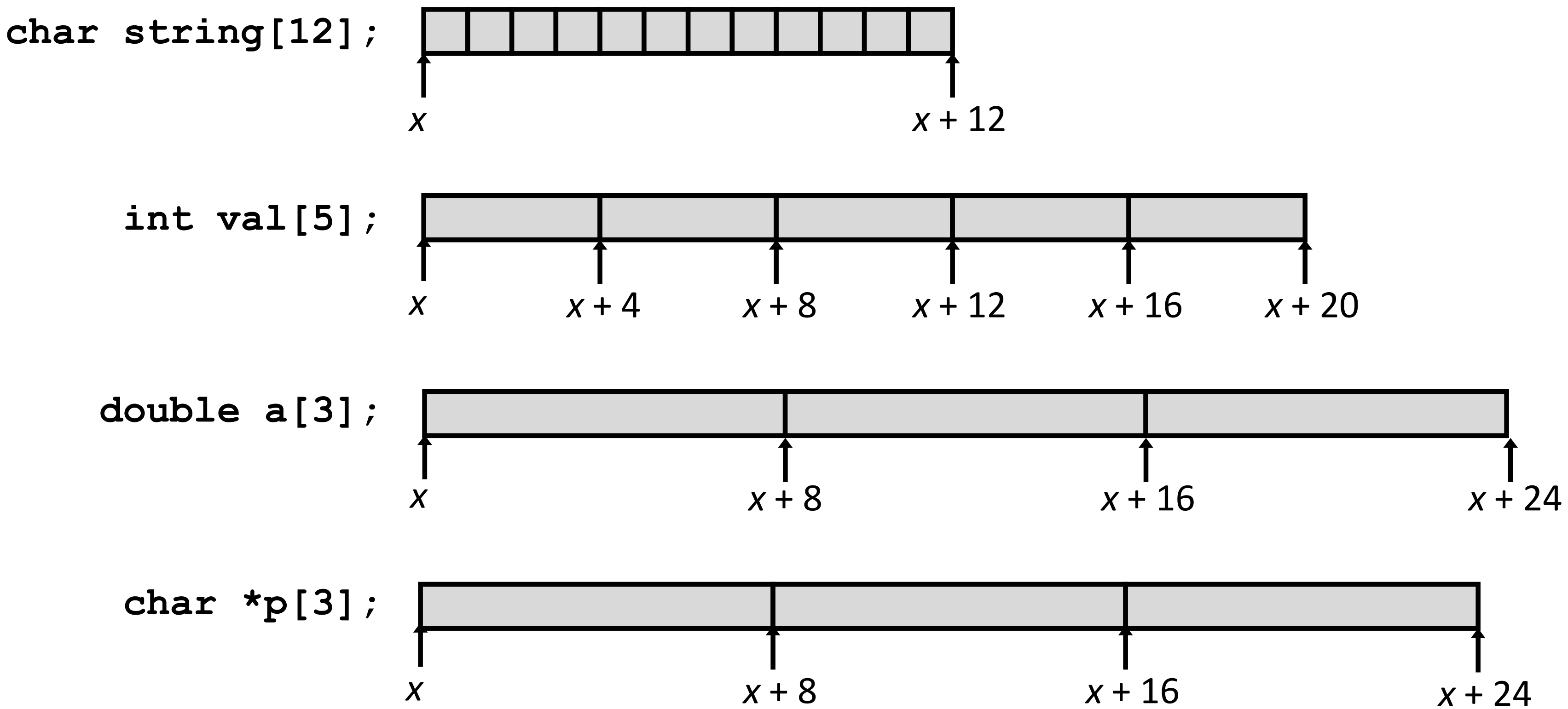
- **Arrays**
  - One-dimensional
  - Multi-dimensional (nested)
  - Multi-level
- **Structures**
  - Allocation
  - Access
  - Alignment
- **Floating Point**

Array Allocation

- **Basic Principle**

  T **A**[*L*];

  - Array of data type *T* and length *L*
  - Contiguously allocated region of *L* * **sizeof**(*T*) bytes in memory



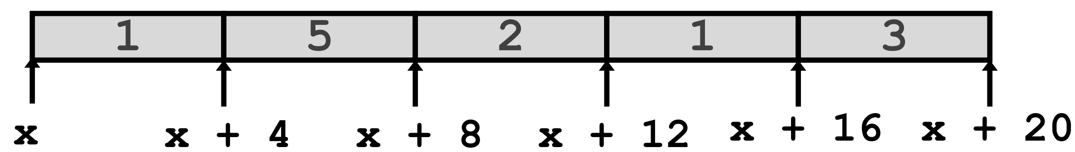
Array Access

- **Basic Principle**

  `T A[L];`

  - Array of data type *T* and length *L*
  - Identifier **`A`** can be used as a pointer to array element 0: Type *T**

```
int val[5];
```



Reference	Type	Value
`val[4]`		
`val`		
`val+1`		
`&val[2]`		
`val[5]`		
`*(val+1)`		
`val + i`		

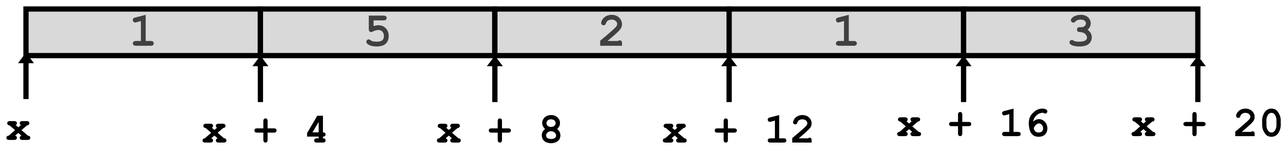
Array Access

- **Basic Principle**

  T **A**[*L*];

  - Array of data type *T* and length *L*
  - Identifier **A** can be used as a pointer to array element 0: Type *T**

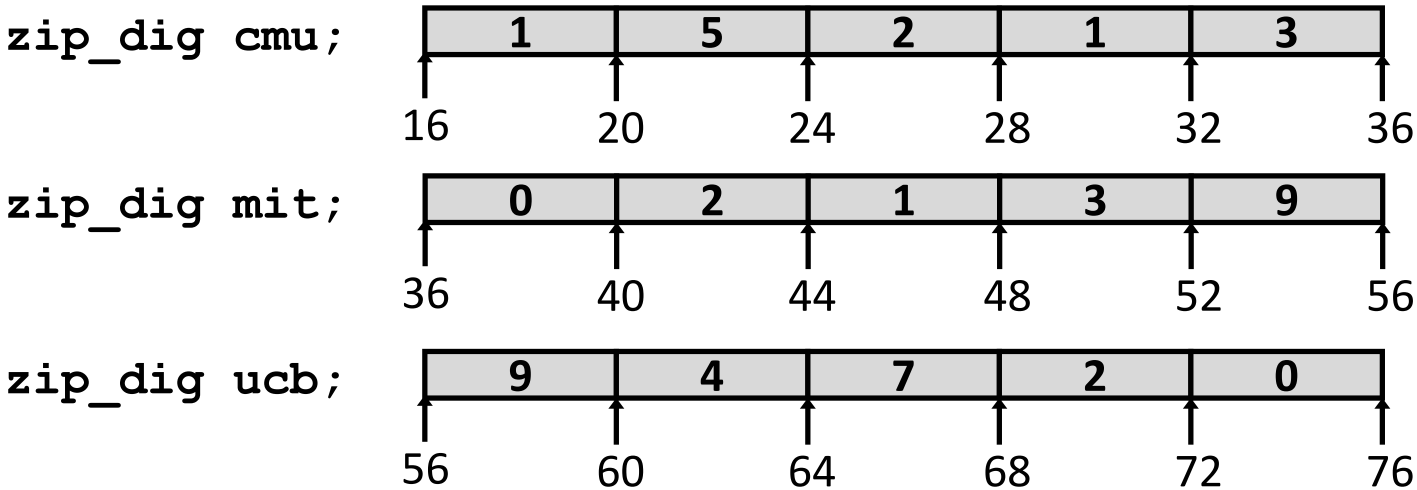
```
int val[5];
```



Reference	Type	Value	
`val[4]`	`int`	`3`	
`val`	`int *`	`x`	
`val+1`	`int *`	`x + 4`	
`&val[2]`	`int *`	`x + 8`	
`val[5]`	`int`	`??`	
`*(val+1)`	`int`	`5`	`//val[1]`
`val + i`	`int *`	`x + 4 * i`	`//&val[i]`

Array Example

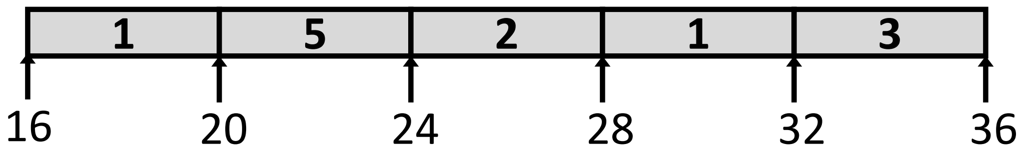
```
#define ZLEN 5
typedef int zip_dig[ZLEN];

zip_dig cmu = { 1, 5, 2, 1, 3 };
zip_dig mit = { 0, 2, 1, 3, 9 };
zip_dig ucb = { 9, 4, 7, 2, 0 };
```



- **Declaration "`zip_dig cmu`" equivalent to "`int cmu[5]`"**
- **Example arrays were allocated in successive 20 byte blocks**
  - Not guaranteed to happen in general

Array Accessing Example

```
zip_dig cmu;
```




```
int get_digit
   (zip_dig z, int digit)
{
  return z[digit];
}
```

x86-64

```
  # %rdi = z
  # %rsi = digit
  movl (%rdi,%rsi,4), %eax  # z[digit]
```

- Register `%rdi` contains starting address of array
- Register `%rsi` contains array index
- Desired digit at `%rdi + 4*%rsi`
- Use memory reference `(%rdi,%rsi,4)`

Array Loop Example

```
void zincr(zip_dig z) {
  size_t i;
  for (i = 0; i < ZLEN; i++)
    z[i]++;
}
```

```
  # %rdi = z
  movl    $0, %eax
  jmp     .L3
.L4:
  addl    $1, (%rdi,%rax,4)
  addq    $1, %rax
.L3:
  cmpq    $4, %rax
  jbe     .L4
  rep; ret
```

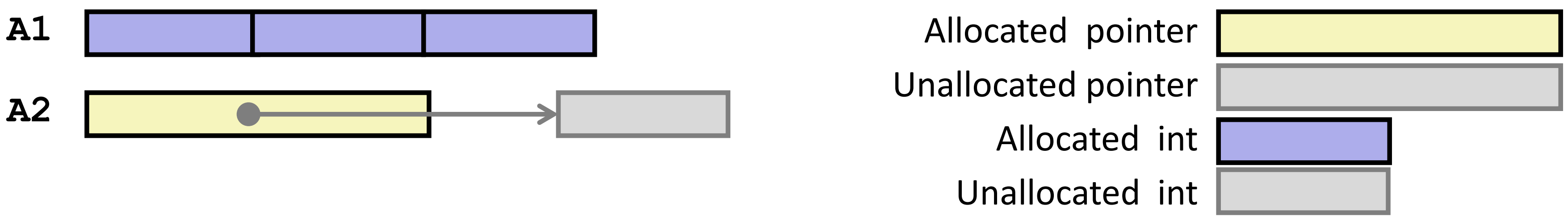
Understanding Pointers & Arrays #1

Decl	`A1 , A2`			`*A1 , *A2`		
	Comp	Bad	Size	Comp	Bad	Size
`int A1[3]`						
`int *A2`						

- **Comp: Compiles (Y/N)**
- **Bad: Possible bad pointer reference (Y/N)**
- **Size: Value returned by `sizeof`**

Understanding Pointers & Arrays #1

Decl	`A1` , `A2`			`*A1` , `*A2`		
	Comp	Bad	Size	Comp	Bad	Size
`int A1[3]`	Y	N	12	Y	N	4
`int *A2`	Y	N	8	Y	Y	4



- **Comp: Compiles (Y/N)**
- **Bad: Possible bad pointer reference (Y/N)**
- **Size: Value returned by `sizeof`**

Understanding Pointers & Arrays #2

Decl	`An`			`*An`			`**An`		
	Cmp	Bad	Size	Cmp	Bad	Size	Cmp	Bad	Size
`int A1[3]`									
`int *A2[3]`									
`int (*A3)[3]`									

Allocated pointer

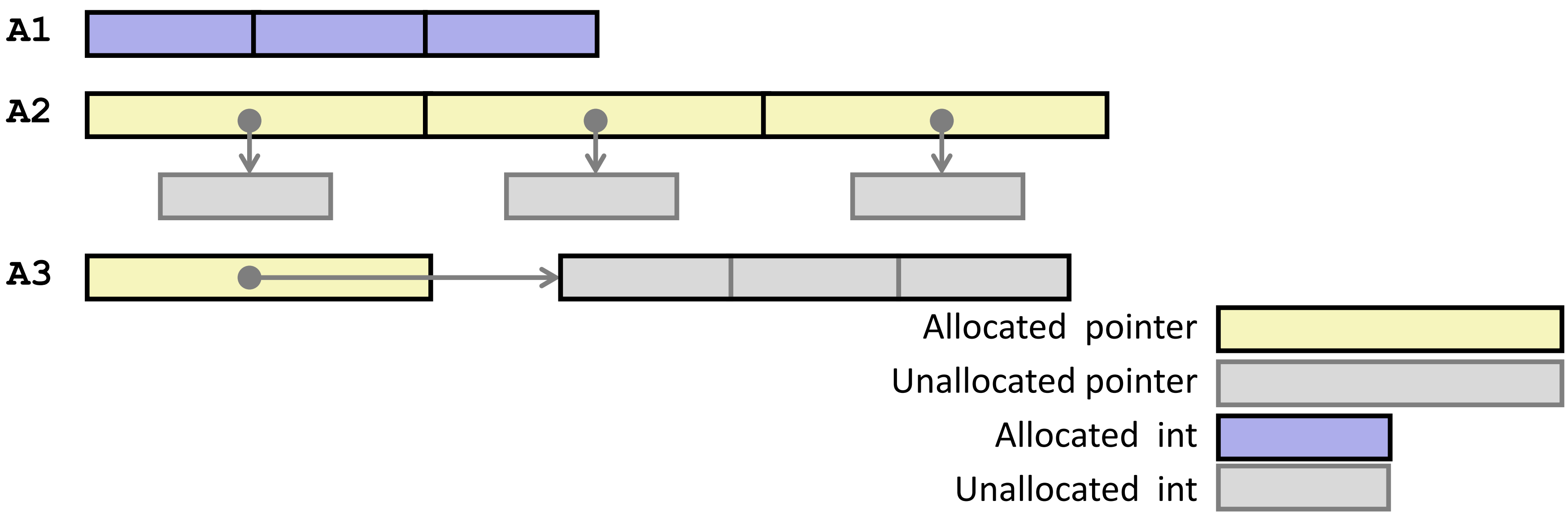
Unallocated pointer

Allocated int

Unallocated int

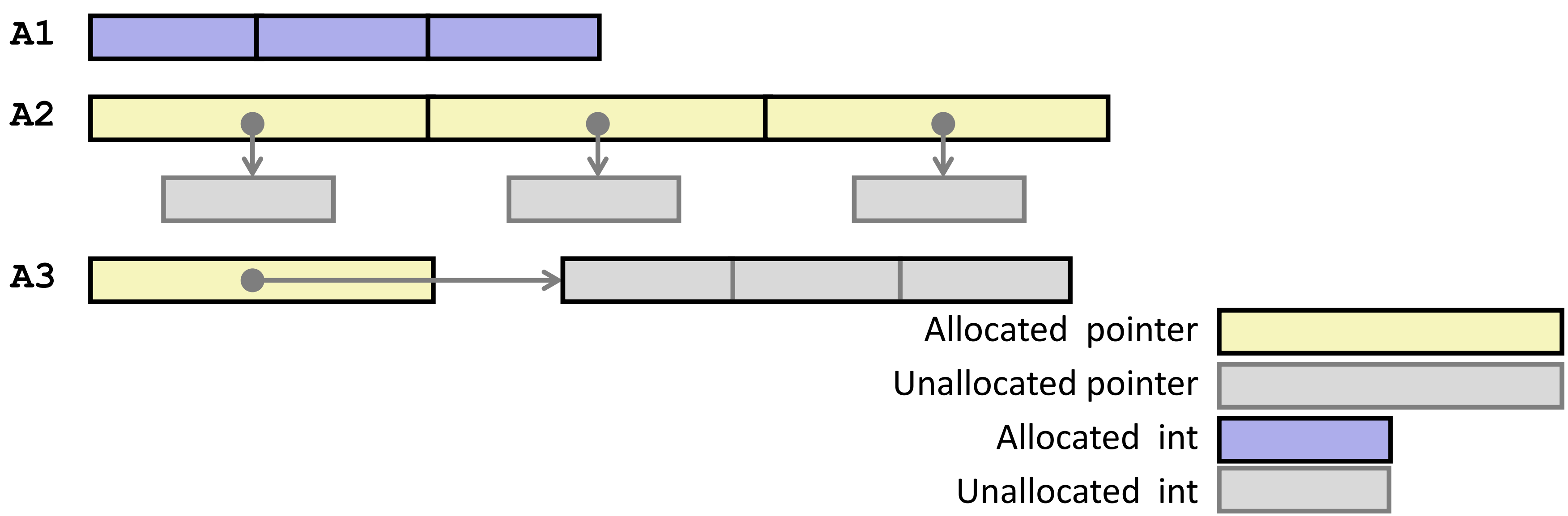
Understanding Pointers & Arrays #2

Decl	An			*An			**An		
	Cmp	Bad	Size	Cmp	Bad	Size	Cmp	Bad	Size
`int A1[3]`									
`int *A2[3]`									
`int (*A3)[3]`									



Understanding Pointers & Arrays #2

Decl	An			*An			**An		
	Cmp	Bad	Size	Cmp	Bad	Size	Cmp	Bad	Size
`int A1[3]`	Y	N	12	Y	N	4	N	-	-
`int *A2[3]`	Y	N	24	Y	N	8	Y	Y	4
`int (*A3)[3]`	Y	N	8	Y	Y	12	Y	Y	4

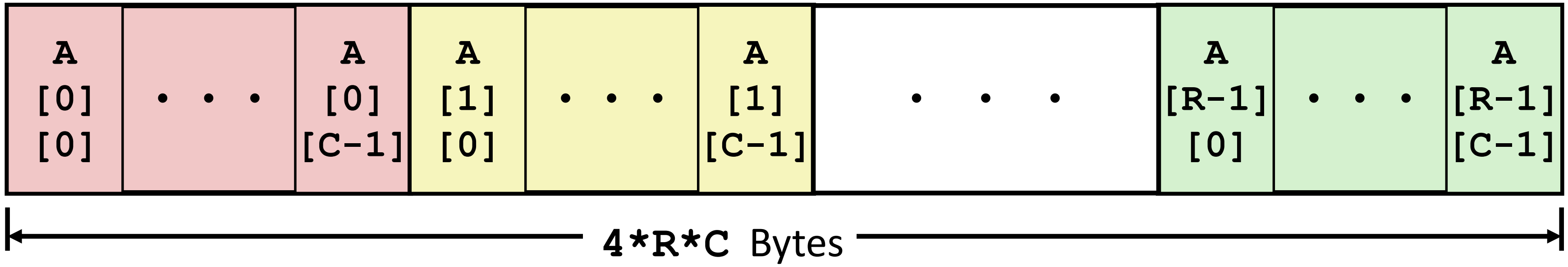


Multidimensional (Nested) Arrays

- **Declaration**
  - *T* `A[`*R*`][`*C*`];`
    - 2D array of data type *T*
    - *R* rows, *C* columns
- **Array Size**
  - *R* * *C* * `sizeof(`*T*`)` bytes
- **Arrangement**
  - Row-Major Ordering

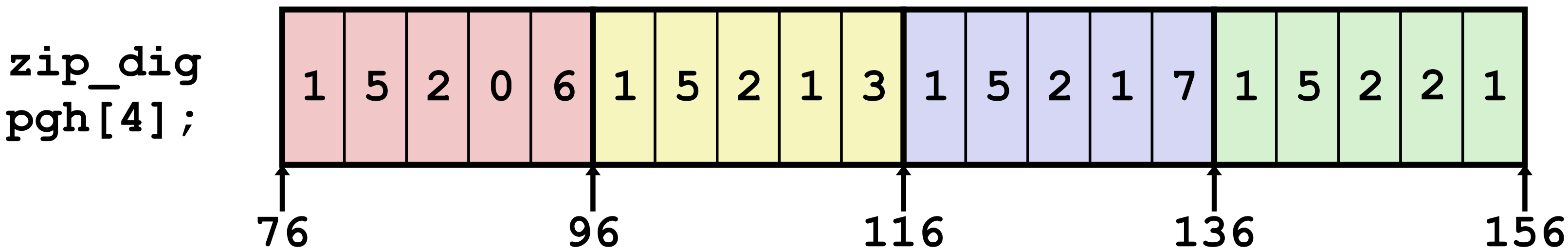
$$\begin{bmatrix} \texttt{A[0][0]} & \cdots & \texttt{A[0][C-1]} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \texttt{A[R-1][0]} & \cdots & \texttt{A[R-1][C-1]} \end{bmatrix}$$

`int A[R][C];`



Nested Array Example

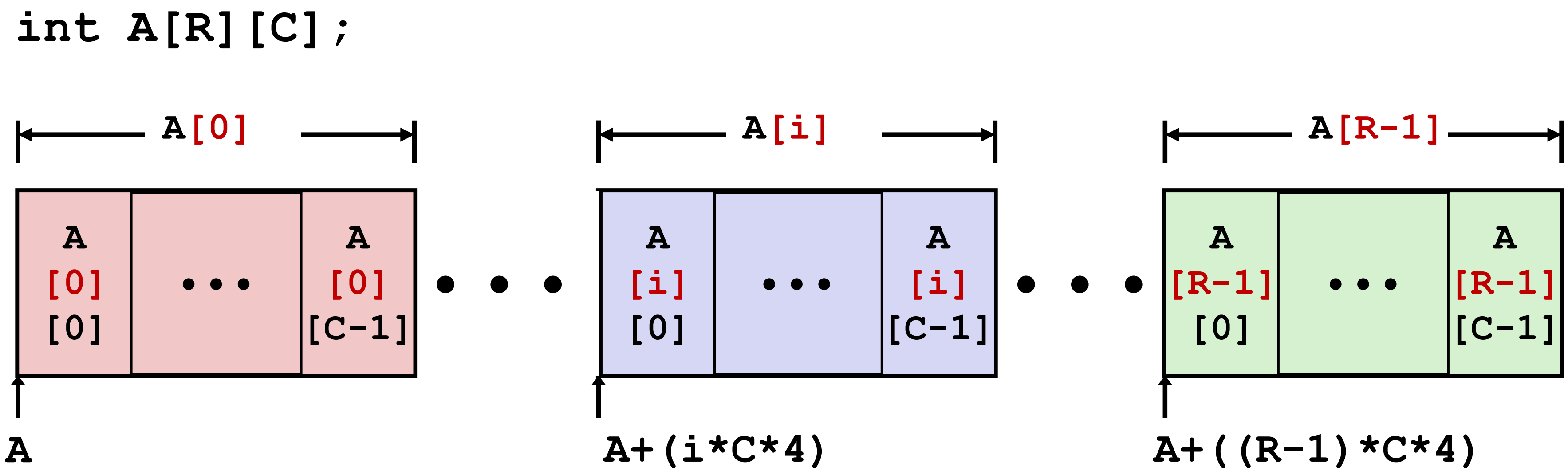
```
#define PCOUNT 4
typedef int zip_dig[5];

zip_dig pgh[PCOUNT] =
  {{1, 5, 2, 0, 6},
   {1, 5, 2, 1, 3 },
   {1, 5, 2, 1, 7 },
   {1, 5, 2, 2, 1 }};
```



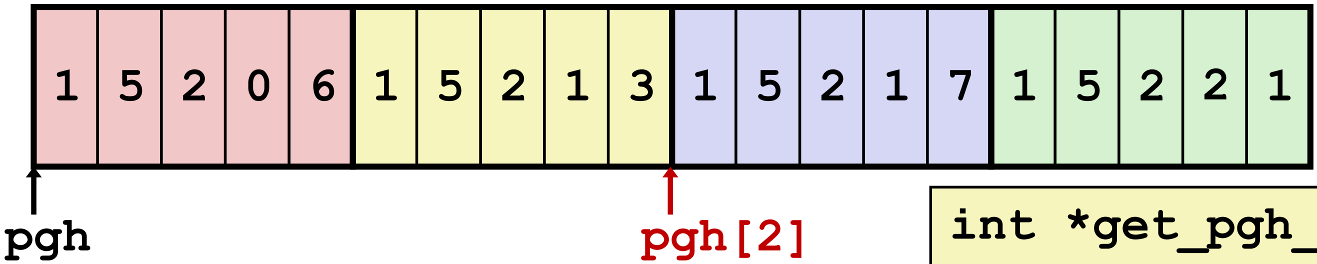
- "`zip_dig pgh[4]`" equivalent to "`int pgh[4][5]`"
  - Variable **`pgh`**: array of 4 elements, allocated contiguously
  - Each element is an array of 5 **`int`**'s, allocated contiguously
- "Row-Major" ordering of all elements in memory

Nested Array Row Access

- **Row Vectors**
  - `A[i]` is array of *C* elements of type *T*
  - Starting address `A + i * (C * sizeof(`*T*`))`



Nested Array Row Access Code




```
int *get_pgh_zip(int index)
{
  return pgh[index];
}
```

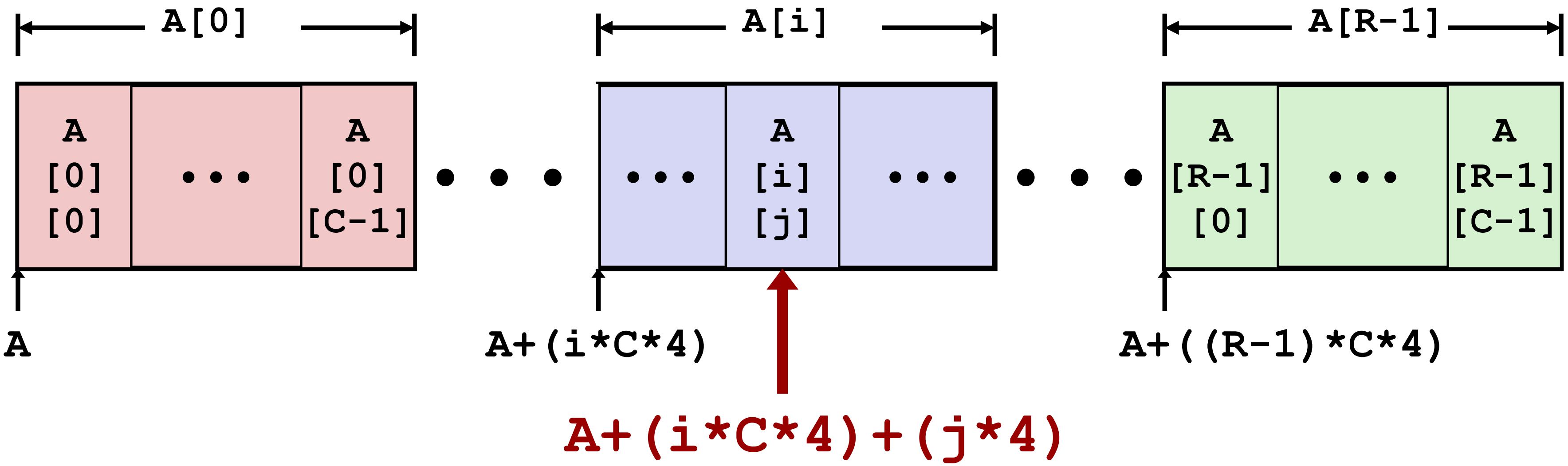
```
  # %rdi = index
  leaq (%rdi,%rdi,4),%rax # 5 * index
  leaq pgh(,%rax,4),%rax  # pgh + (20 * index)
```

- **Row Vector**
  - `pgh[index]` is array of 5 `int`'s
  - Starting address `pgh+20*index`
- **Machine Code**
  - Computes and returns address
  - Compute as `pgh + 4*(index+4*index)`

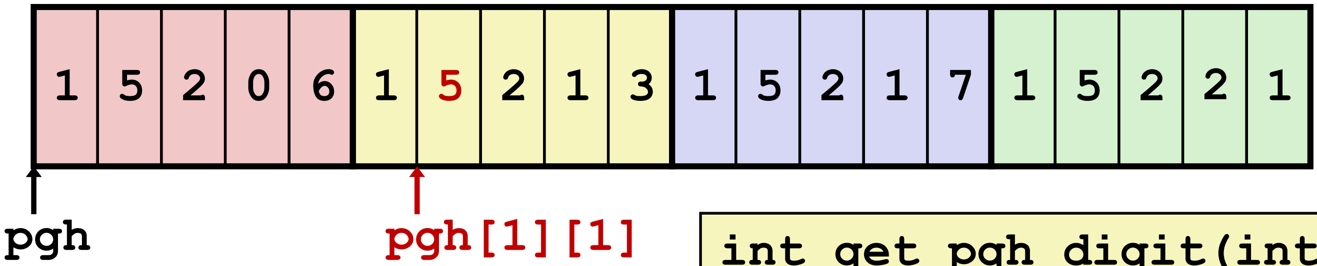
Nested Array Element Access

- **Array Elements**
  - `A[i][j]` is element of type *T*, which requires *K* bytes
  - Address `A + i * (C * K) + j * K`
    `= A + (i * C + j) * K`

```
int A[R][C];
```



Nested Array Element Access Code




```
int get_pgh_digit(int index, int dig)
{
  return pgh[index][dig];
}
```

```
leaq   (%rdi,%rdi,4), %rax    # 5*index
addl   %rax, %rsi             # 5*index+dig
movl   pgh(,%rsi,4), %eax     # M[pgh + 4*(5*index+dig)]
```

- **Array Elements**
  - `pgh[index][dig]` is `int`
  - Address: `pgh + 20*index + 4*dig`

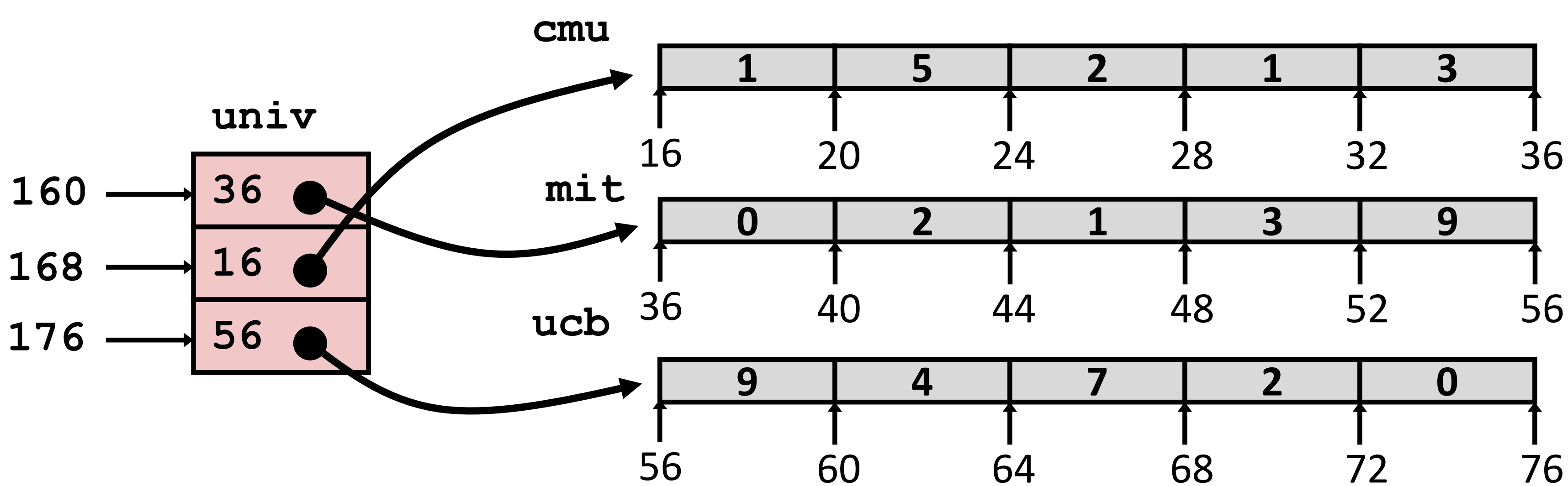
    = `pgh + 4*(5*index + dig)`

Multi-Level Array Example

```
zip_dig cmu = { 1, 5, 2, 1, 3 };
zip_dig mit = { 0, 2, 1, 3, 9 };
zip_dig ucb = { 9, 4, 7, 2, 0 };
```

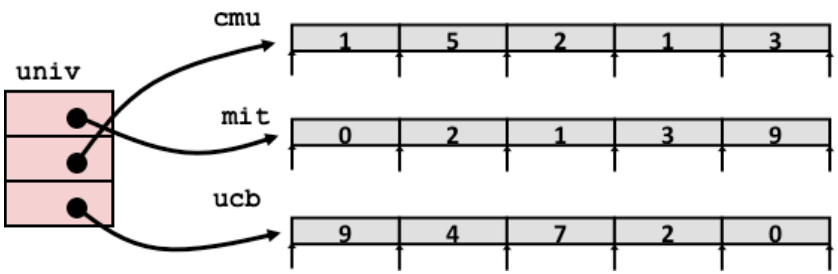
```
#define UCOUNT 3
int *univ[UCOUNT] = {mit, cmu, ucb};
```

- Variable `univ` denotes array of 3 elements
- Each element is a pointer
  - 8 bytes
- Each pointer points to array of `int`'s



Element Access in Multi-Level Array

```
int get_univ_digit
  (size_t index, size_t digit)
{
  return univ[index][digit];
}
```




```
salq    $2, %rsi             # 4*digit
addq    univ(,%rdi,8), %rsi  # p = univ[index] + 4*digit
movl    (%rsi), %eax         # return *p
ret
```

- **Computation**
  - Element access **`Mem[Mem[univ+8*index]+4*digit]`**
  - Must do two memory reads
    - First get pointer to row array
    - Then access element within array

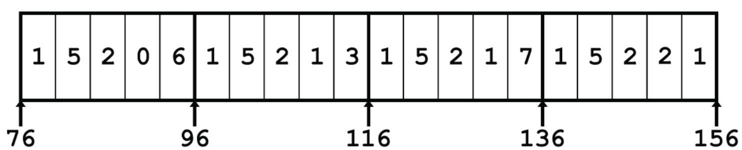
Array Element Accesses

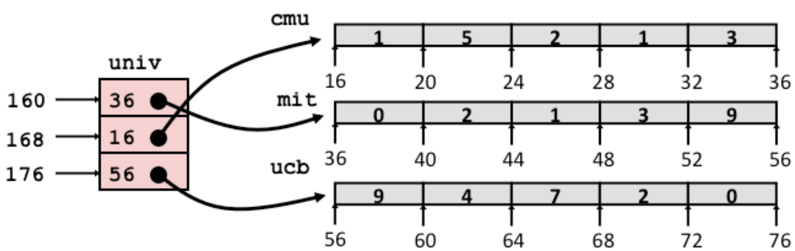
Nested array

```
int get_pgh_digit
  (size_t index, size_t digit)
{
  return pgh[index][digit];
}
```

Multi-level array

```
int get_univ_digit
  (size_t index, size_t digit)
{
  return univ[index][digit];
}
```





Accesses looks similar in C, but address computations very different:

`Mem[pgh+20*index+4*digit]` `Mem[Mem[univ+8*index]+4*digit]`

N X *N* Matrix Code

- **Fixed dimensions**
  - Know value of *N* at compile time

```
#define N 16
typedef int fix_matrix[N][N];
/* Get element A[i][j] */
int fix_ele(fix_matrix A,
            size_t i, size_t j)
{
  return A[i][j];
}
```

- **Variable dimensions, explicit indexing**
  - Traditional way to implement dynamic arrays

```
#define IDX(n, i, j) ((i)*(n)+(j))
/* Get element A[i][j] */
int vec_ele(size_t n, int *A,
            size_t i, size_t j)
{
  return A[IDX(n,i,j)];
}
```

- **Variable dimensions, implicit indexing**
  - Now supported by gcc

```
/* Get element a[i][j] */
int var_ele(size_t n, int A[n][n],
            size_t i, size_t j) {
  return A[i][j];
}
```

16 X 16 Matrix Access

- Array Elements
  - `int A[16][16];`
  - Address `A + i * (C * K) + j * K`
  - C = 16, K = 4

```
/* Get element A[i][j] */
int fix_ele(fix_matrix A, size_t i, size_t j) {
  return A[i][j];
}
```

```
  # A in %rdi, i in %rsi, j in %rdx
  salq    $6, %rsi               # 64*i
  addq    %rsi, %rdi             # A + 64*i
  movl    (%rdi,%rdx,4), %eax    # M[A + 64*i + 4*j]
  ret
```

n X *n* Matrix Access

- **Array Elements**
  - `size_t n;`
  - `int A[n][n];`
  - Address `A + i * (C * K) + j * K`
  - C = n, K = 4
  - Must perform integer multiplication

```
/* Get element A[i][j] */
int var_ele(size_t n, int A[n][n], size_t i, size_t j)
{
  return A[i][j];
}
```

```
# n in %rdi, A in %rsi, i in %rdx, j in %rcx
imulq   %rdx, %rdi              # n*i
leaq    (%rsi,%rdi,4), %rax     # A + 4*n*i
movl    (%rax,%rcx,4), %eax     # A + 4*n*i + 4*j
ret
```

Example: Array Access

```
#include <stdio.h>
#define ZLEN 5
#define PCOUNT 4
typedef int zip_dig[ZLEN];

int main(int argc, char** argv) {
zip_dig pgh[PCOUNT] =
    {{1, 5, 2, 0, 6},
     {1, 5, 2, 1, 3 },
     {1, 5, 2, 1, 7 },
     {1, 5, 2, 2, 1 }};
    int *linear_zip = (int *) pgh;
    int *zip2 = (int *) pgh[2];
    int result =
        pgh[0][0] +
        linear_zip[7] +
        *(linear_zip + 8) +
        zip2[1];
    printf("result: %d\n", result);
    return 0;
}
```

Example: Array Access

```
#include <stdio.h>
#define ZLEN 5
#define PCOUNT 4
typedef int zip_dig[ZLEN];

int main(int argc, char** argv) {
zip_dig pgh[PCOUNT] =
    {{1, 5, 2, 0, 6},
     {1, 5, 2, 1, 3 },
     {1, 5, 2, 1, 7 },
     {1, 5, 2, 2, 1 }};
    int *linear_zip = (int *) pgh;
    int *zip2 = (int *) pgh[2];
    int result =
        pgh[0][0] +
        linear_zip[7] +
        *(linear_zip + 8) +
        zip2[1];
    printf("result: %d\n", result);
    return 0;
}
```

```
linux> ./array
result: 9
```

Example: Array Access

```
#include <stdio.h>
#define ZLEN 5
#define PCOUNT 4
typedef int zip_dig[ZLEN];

int main(int argc, char** argv) {
zip_dig pgh[PCOUNT] =
    {{1, 5, 2, 0, 6},
     {1, 5, 2, 1, 3 },
     {1, 5, 2, 1, 7 },
     {1, 5, 2, 2, 1 }};
    int *linear_zip = (int *) pgh;
    int *zip2 = (int *) pgh[2];
    int result =
        pgh[0][0] +
        linear_zip[7] +
        *(linear_zip + 8) +
        zip2[1];
    printf("result: %d\n", result);
    return 0;
}
```

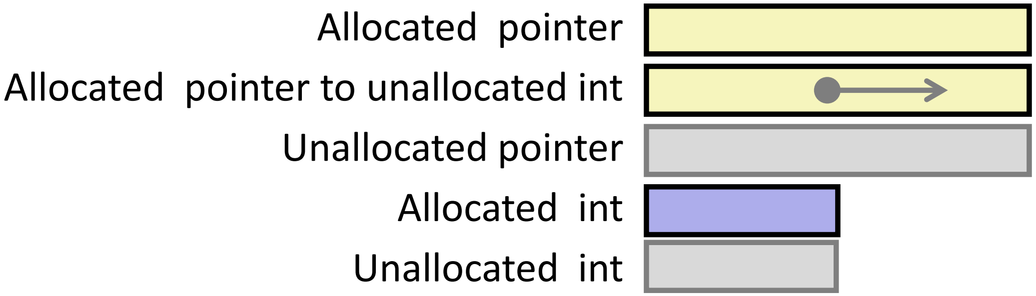
```
linux> ./array
result: 9
```

Understanding Pointers & Arrays #3

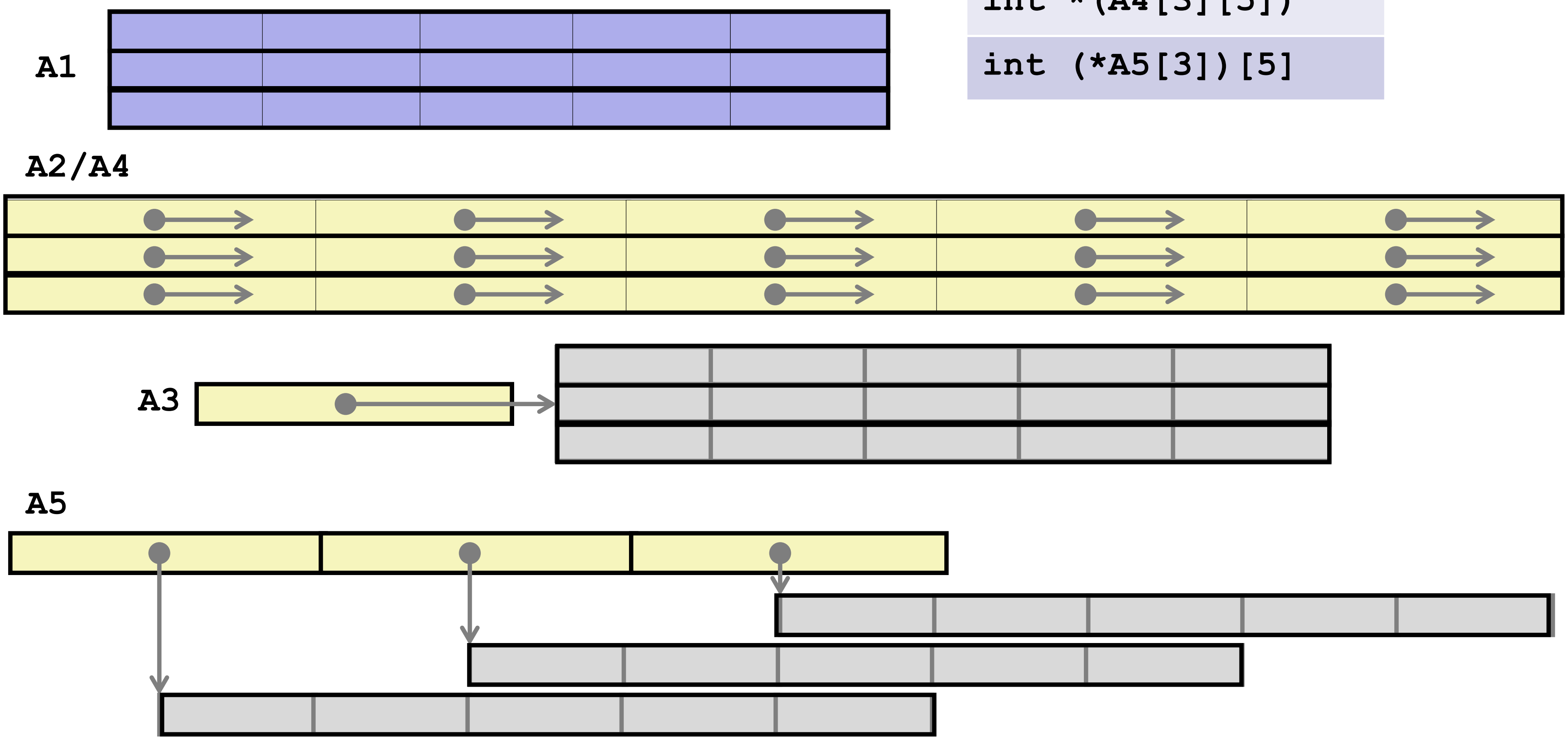
Decl	An			*An			**An		
	Cmp	Bad	Size	Cmp	Bad	Size	Cmp	Bad	Size
`int A1[3][5]`									
`int *A2[3][5]`									
`int (*A3)[3][5]`									
`int *(A4[3][5])`									
`int (*A5[3])[5]`									

- **Cmp: Compiles (Y/N)**
- **Bad: Possible bad pointer reference (Y/N)**
- **Size: Value returned by `sizeof`**

Decl	***An		
	Cmp	Bad	Size
`int A1[3][5]`			
`int *A2[3][5]`			
`int (*A3)[3][5]`			
`int *(A4[3][5])`			
`int (*A5[3])[5]`			



Declaration
`int A1[3][5]`
`int *A2[3][5]`
`int (*A3)[3][5]`
`int *(A4[3][5])`
`int (*A5[3])[5]`



Understanding Pointers & Arrays #3

Decl	An			*An			**An		
	Cmp	Bad	Size	Cmp	Bad	Size	Cmp	Bad	Size
`int A1[3][5]`	Y	N	60	Y	N	20	Y	N	4
`int *A2[3][5]`	Y	N	120	Y	N	40	Y	N	8
`int (*A3)[3][5]`	Y	N	8	Y	Y	60	Y	Y	20
`int *(A4[3][5])`	Y	N	120	Y	N	40	Y	N	8
`int (*A5[3])[5]`	Y	N	24	Y	N	8	Y	Y	20

Decl	***An		
	Cmp	Bad	Size
`int A1[3][5]`	N	-	-
`int *A2[3][5]`	Y	Y	4
`int (*A3)[3][5]`	Y	Y	4
`int *(A4[3][5])`	Y	Y	4
`int (*A5[3])[5]`	Y	Y	4

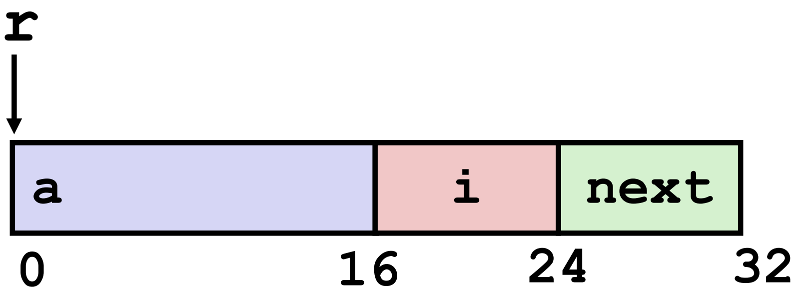
- **Cmp: Compiles (Y/N)**
- **Bad: Possible bad pointer reference (Y/N)**
- **Size: Value returned by `sizeof`**

Today

- **Arrays**
  - One-dimensional
  - Multi-dimensional (nested)
  - Multi-level
- **Structures**
  - Allocation
  - Access
  - Alignment
- **Floating Point**

Structure Representation

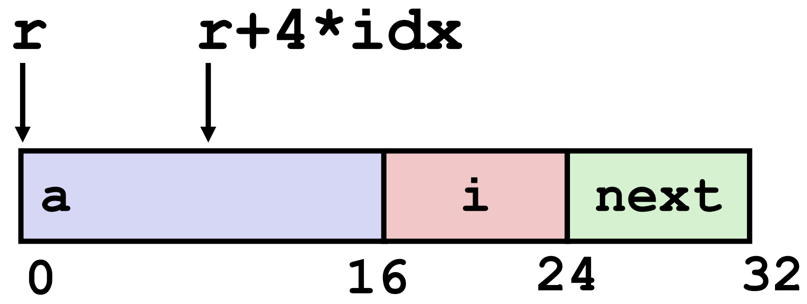
```
struct rec {
    int a[4];
    size_t i;
    struct rec *next;
};
```



- Structure represented as block of memory
  - Big enough to hold all of the fields
- Fields ordered according to declaration
  - Even if another ordering could yield a more compact representation
- Compiler determines overall size + positions of fields
  - Machine-level program has no understanding of the structures in the source code

Generating Pointer to Structure Member

```
struct rec {
    int a[4];
    size_t i;
    struct rec *next;
};
```



- **Generating Pointer to Array Element**
  - Offset of each structure member determined at compile time
  - Compute as `r + 4*idx`

```
int *get_ap
 (struct rec *r, size_t idx)
{
  return &r->a[idx];
}
```

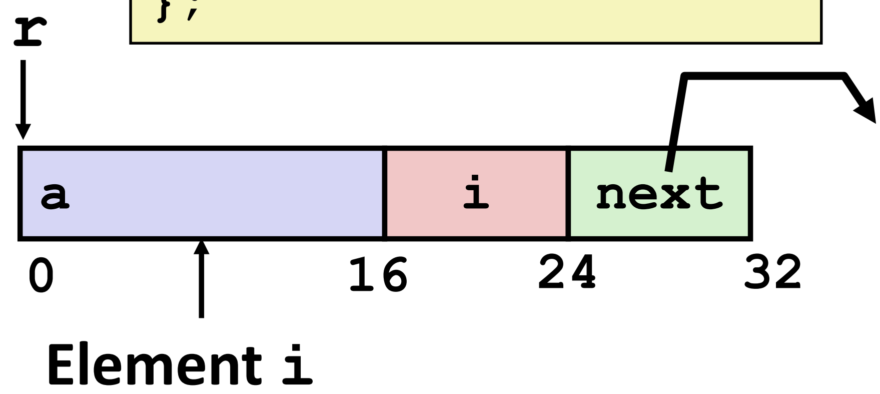
```
  # r in %rdi, idx in %rsi
  leaq  (%rdi,%rsi,4), %rax
  ret
```

Following Linked List

- **C Code**

```
struct rec {
    int a[4];
    int i;
    struct rec *next;
};
```

```
void set_val
  (struct rec *r, int val)
{
  while (r) {
    int i = r->i;
    r->a[i] = val;
    r = r->next;
  }
}
```

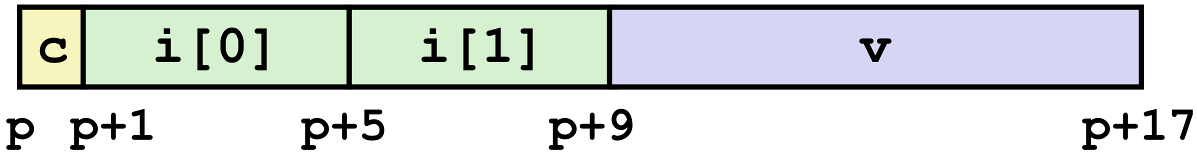


Register	Value
%rdi	r
%rsi	val

```
.L11:                              # loop:
  movslq  16(%rdi), %rax           #   i = M[r+16]
  movl    %esi, (%rdi,%rax,4)      #   M[r+4*i] = val
  movq    24(%rdi), %rdi           #   r = M[r+24]
  testq   %rdi, %rdi               #   Test r
  jne     .L11                     #   if !=0 goto loop
```

Structures & Alignment

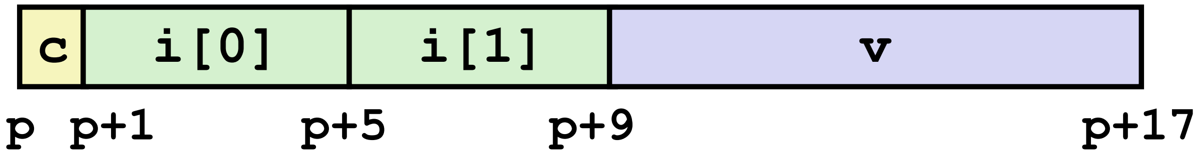
- **Unaligned Data**




```
struct S1 {
  char c;
  int i[2];
  double v;
} *p;
```

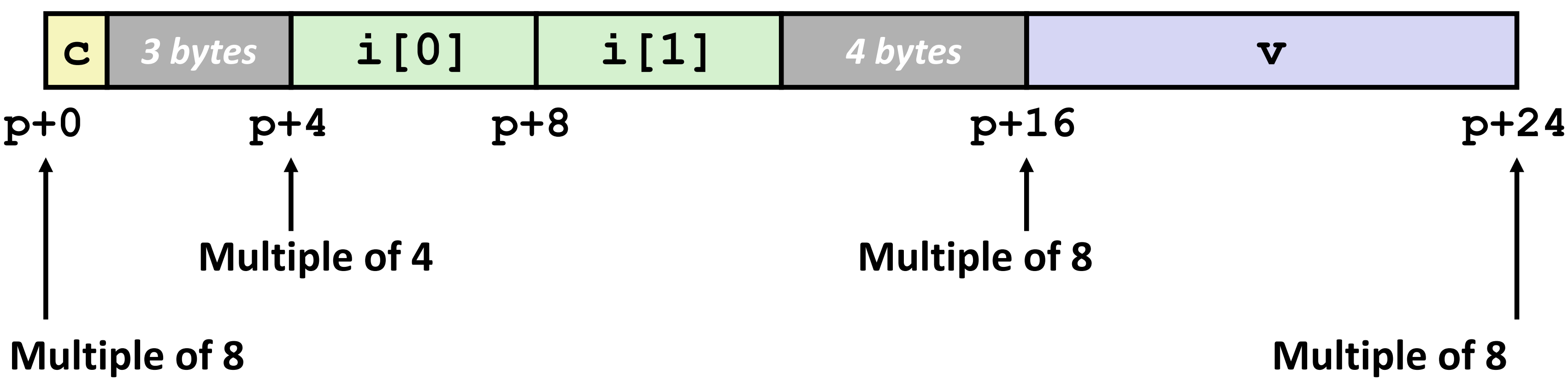
Structures & Alignment

- **Unaligned Data**




```
struct S1 {
  char c;
  int i[2];
  double v;
} *p;
```

- **Aligned Data**
  - Primitive data type requires ***K*** bytes
  - Address must be multiple of ***K***



Alignment Principles

- **Aligned Data**
  - Primitive data type requires ***K*** bytes
  - Address must be multiple of ***K***
  - Required on some machines; advised on x86-64
- **Motivation for Aligning Data**
  - Memory accessed by (aligned) chunks of 4 or 8 bytes (system dependent)
    - Inefficient to load or store datum that spans cache lines (64 bytes). Intel states should avoid crossing 16 byte boundaries.

      [Cache lines will be discussed in Lecture 11.]
    - Virtual memory trickier when datum spans 2 pages (4 KB pages)

      [Virtual memory pages will be discussed in Lecture 17.]
- **Compiler**
  - Inserts gaps in structure to ensure correct alignment of fields

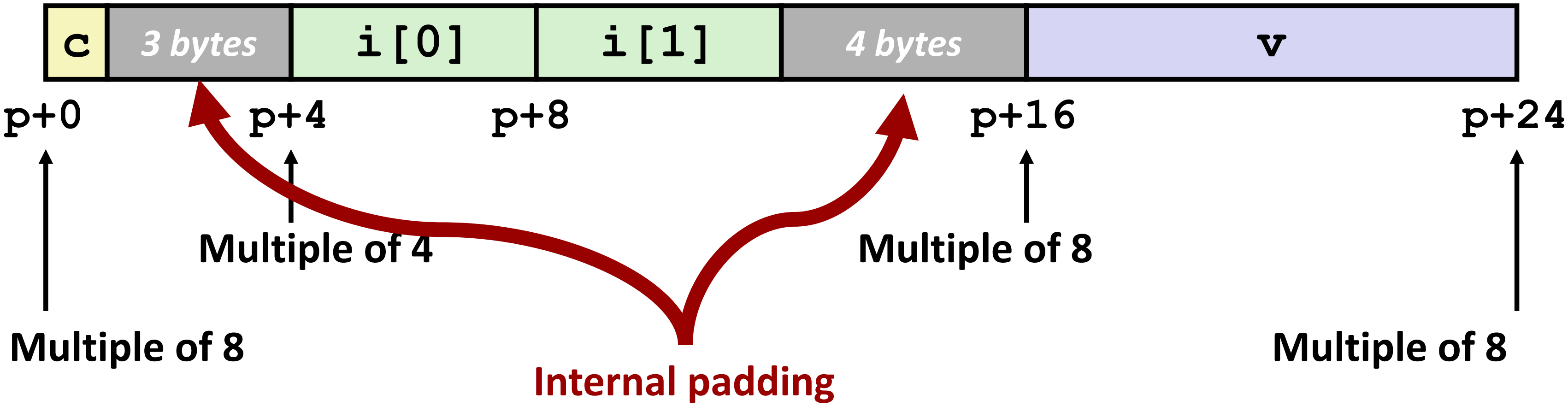
Specific Cases of Alignment (x86-64)

- **1 byte: `char`, …**
  - no restrictions on address
- **2 bytes: `short`, …**
  - lowest 1 bit of address must be 0_2
- **4 bytes: `int`, `float`, …**
  - lowest 2 bits of address must be 00_2
- **8 bytes: `double`, `long`, `char *`, …**
  - lowest 3 bits of address must be 000_2

Satisfying Alignment with Structures

- **Within structure:**
  - Must satisfy each element's alignment requirement
- **Overall structure placement**
  - Each structure has alignment requirement **K**
    - **K** = Largest alignment of any element
  - Initial address & structure length must be multiples of **K**
- **Example:**
  - K = 8, due to **`double`** element

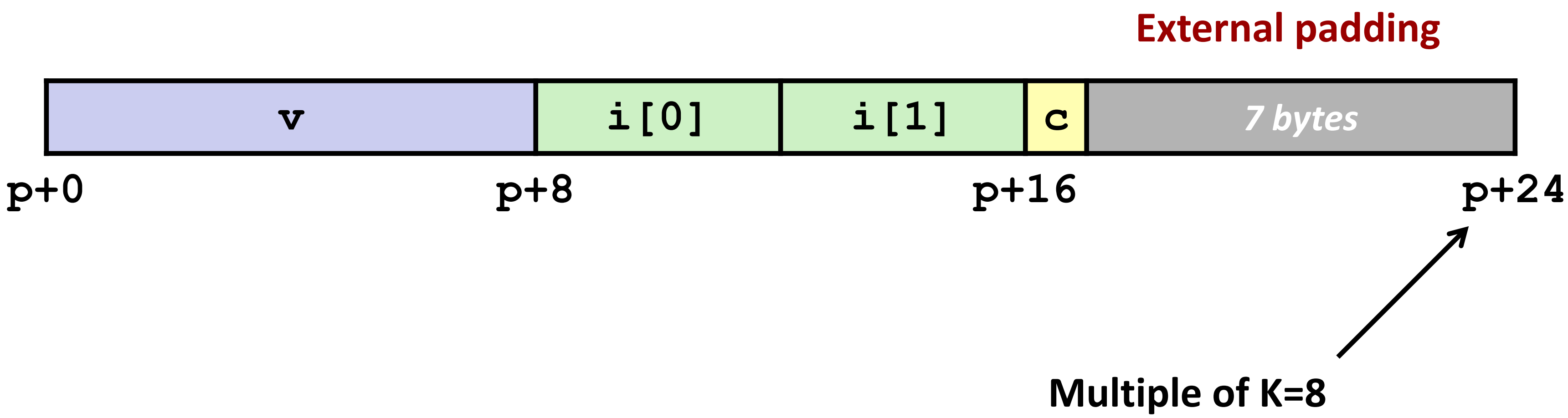
```
struct S1 {
  char c;
  int i[2];
  double v;
} *p;
```



Meeting Overall Alignment Requirement

- For largest alignment requirement K
- Overall structure must be multiple of K

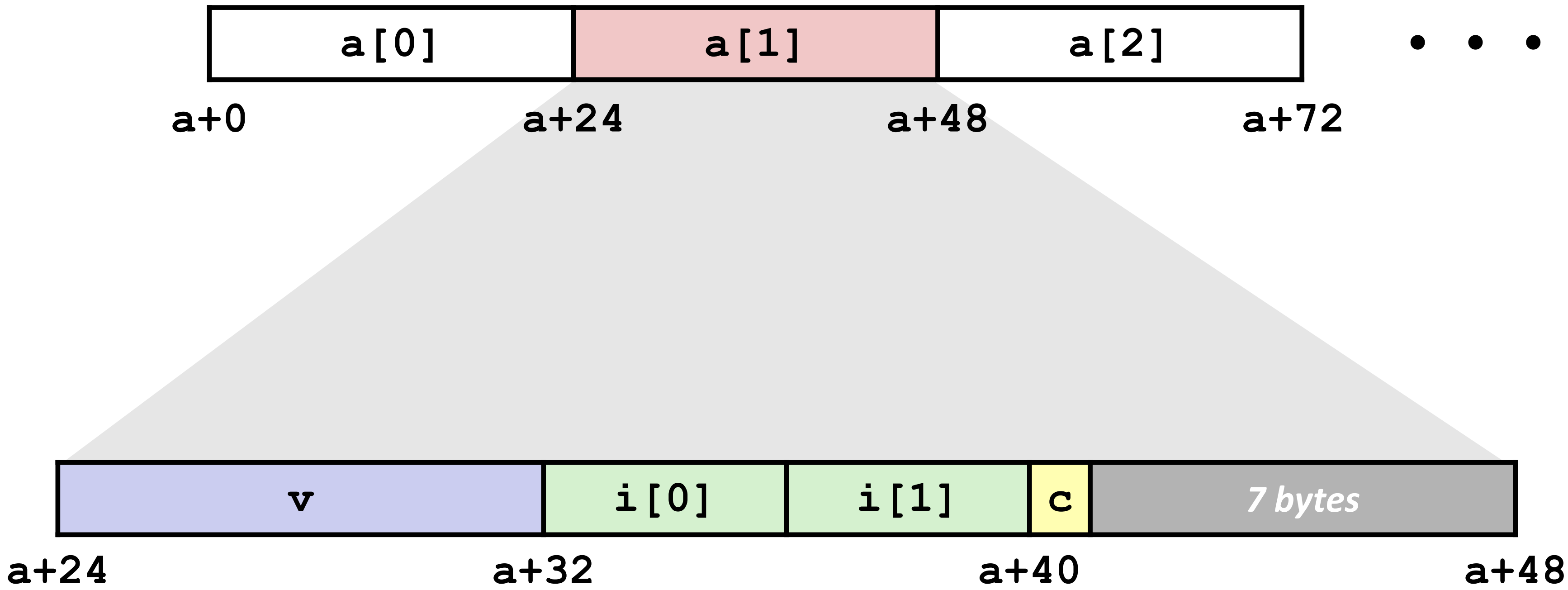
```
struct S2 {
  double v;
  int i[2];
  char c;
} *p;
```



Arrays of Structures

- Overall structure length multiple of K
- Satisfy alignment requirement for every element

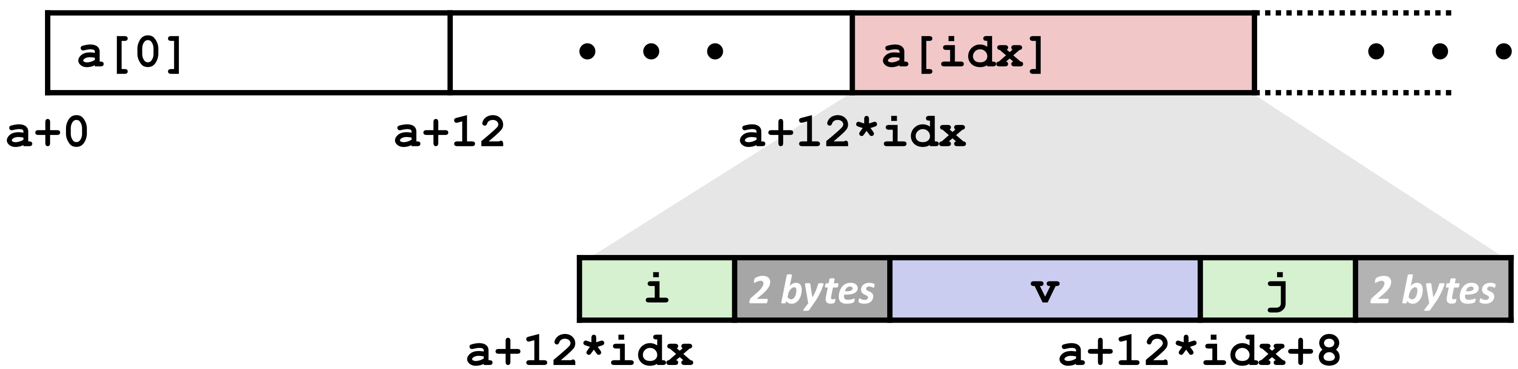
```
struct S2 {
  double v;
  int i[2];
  char c;
} a[10];
```



Accessing Array Elements

```
struct S3 {
  short i;
  float v;
  short j;
} a[10];
```

- **Compute array offset 12*idx**
  - `sizeof(S3)`, including alignment spacers
- **Element `j` is at offset 8 within structure**
- **Assembler gives offset `a+8`**
  - Resolved during linking




```
short get_j(int idx)
{
  return a[idx].j;
}
```

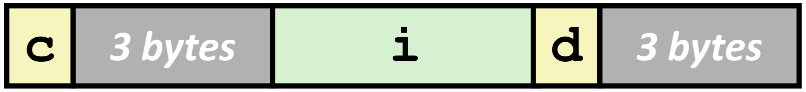
```
# %rdi = idx
leaq (%rdi,%rdi,2),%rax # 3*idx
movzwl a+8(,%rax,4),%eax
```

Saving Space

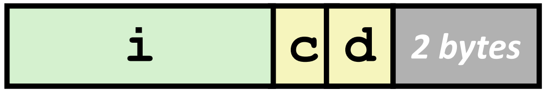
- Put large data types first

```
struct S4 {
  char c;
  int i;
  char d;
} *p;
```

```
struct S5 {
  int i;
  char c;
  char d;
} *p;
```



- Effect (largest alignment requirement K=4)



Today

- **Arrays**
  - One-dimensional
  - Multi-dimensional (nested)
  - Multi-level
- **Structures**
  - Allocation
  - Access
  - Alignment
- **Floating Point**

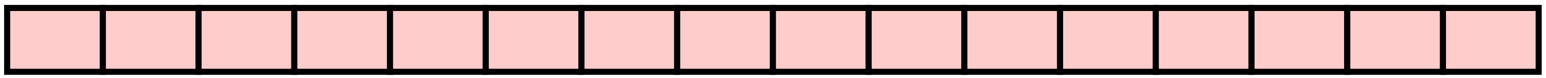
Background

- **History**
  - x87 FP
    - Legacy, very ugly
  - SSE FP
    - Supported by Shark machines
    - Special case use of vector instructions
  - AVX FP
    - Newest version
    - Similar to SSE (but registers are 32 bytes instead of 16)
    - Documented in book

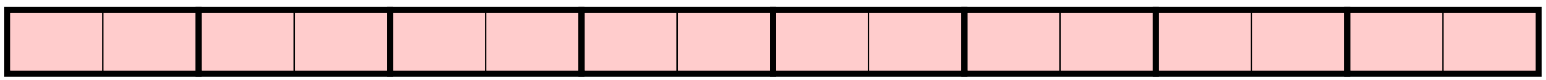
Programming with SSE3

XMM Registers

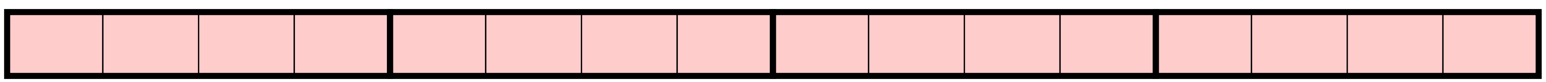
- 16 total, each 16 bytes
- 16 single-byte integers



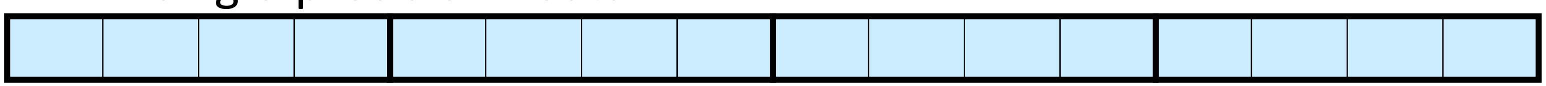
- 8 16-bit integers



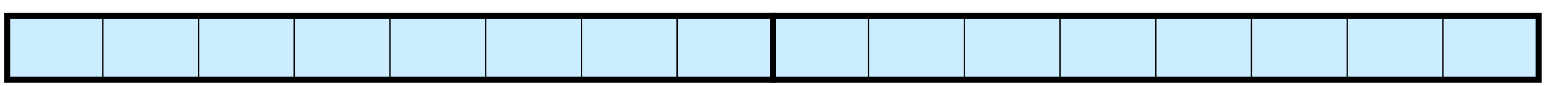
- 4 32-bit integers



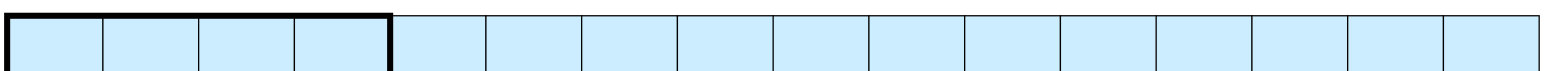
- 4 single-precision floats



- 2 double-precision floats



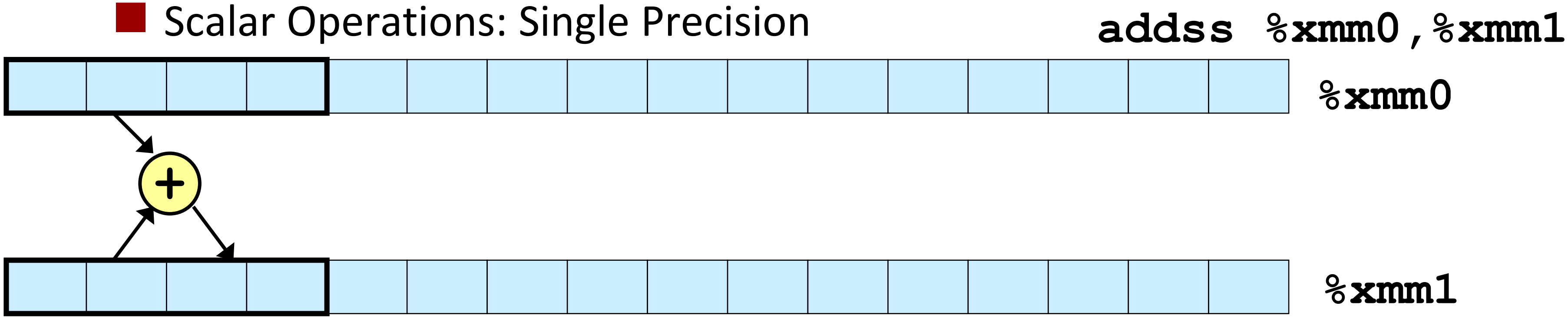
- 1 single-precision float



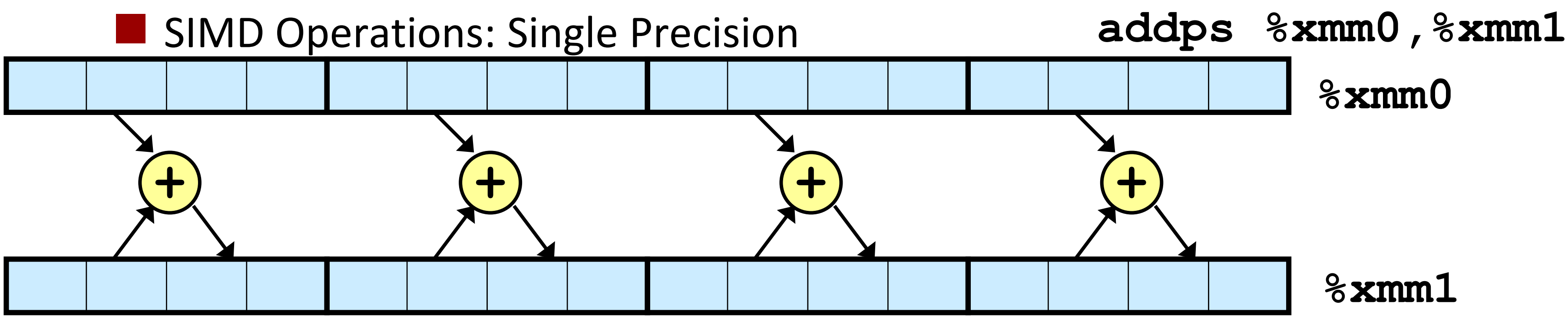
- 1 double-precision float

Scalar & SIMD Operations

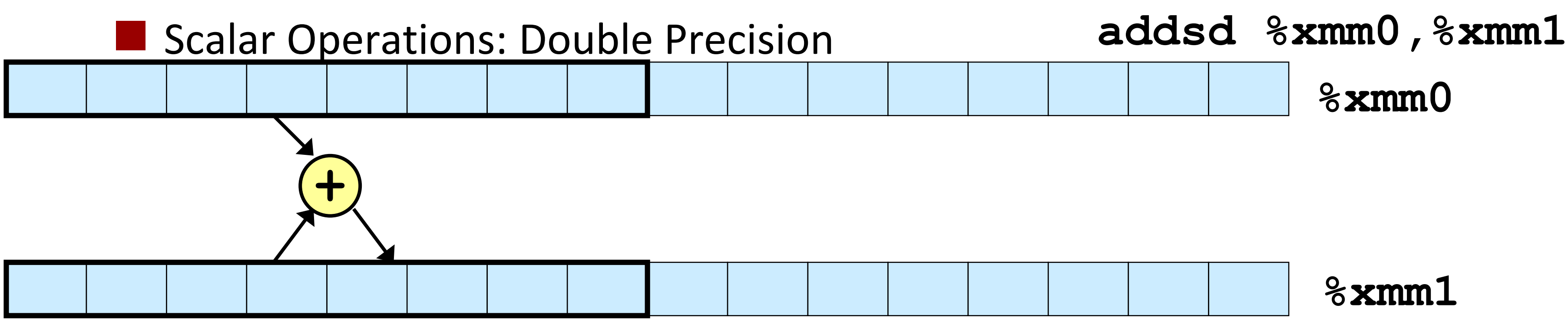
- Scalar Operations: Single Precision



- SIMD Operations: Single Precision



- Scalar Operations: Double Precision



FP Basics

- Arguments passed in `%xmm0`, `%xmm1`, ...
- Result returned in `%xmm0`
- All XMM registers caller-saved

```
float fadd(float x, float y)
{
    return x + y;
}
```

```
double dadd(double x, double y)
{
    return x + y;
}
```

```
  # x in %xmm0, y in %xmm1
  addss    %xmm1, %xmm0
  ret
```

```
  # x in %xmm0, y in %xmm1
  addsd    %xmm1, %xmm0
  ret
```

FP Memory Referencing

- Integer (and pointer) arguments passed in regular registers
- FP values passed in XMM registers
- Different mov instructions to move between XMM registers, and between memory and XMM registers

```
double dincr(double *p, double v)
{
    double x = *p;
    *p = x + v;
    return x;
}
```

```
  # p in %rdi, v in %xmm0
  movapd  %xmm0, %xmm1   # Copy v
  movsd   (%rdi), %xmm0  # x = *p
  addsd   %xmm0, %xmm1   # t = x + v
  movsd   %xmm1, (%rdi)  # *p = t
  ret
```

Other Aspects of FP Code

- *Lots* of instructions
  - Different operations, different formats, ...
- **Floating-point comparisons**
  - Instructions **`ucomiss`** and **`ucomisd`**
  - Set condition codes CF, ZF, and PF

Parity Flag

UNORDERED: ZF,PF,CF←111
GREATER_THAN: ZF,PF,CF←000
LESS_THAN: ZF,PF,CF←001
EQUAL: ZF,PF,CF←100

- **Using constant values**
  - Set XMM0 register to 0 with instruction **`xorpd %xmm0, %xmm0`**
  - Others loaded from memory

Summary

- **Arrays**
  - Elements packed into contiguous region of memory
  - Use index arithmetic to locate individual elements
- **Structures**
  - Elements packed into single region of memory
  - Access using offsets determined by compiler
  - Possible require internal and external padding to ensure alignment
- **Combinations**
  - Can nest structure and array code arbitrarily
- **Floating Point**
  - Data held and operated on in XMM registers

Linking

15-213/15-513/18-213/18-613: Introduction to Computer Systems
13th Lecture, February 28th, 2018

Instructor:

Franz Franchetti, Brandon Lucia, Seth Copen Goldstein, Brian Railing

Example C Program

```
int sum(int *a, int n);

int array[2] = {1, 2};

int main(int argc, char** argv)
{
     int val = sum(array, 2);
     return val;
}
                        main.c
```

This program compiles.

How is `sum` found?

Example C Program

```c
int sum(int *a, int n);

int array[2] = {1, 2};

int main(int argc, char** argv)
{
     int val = sum(array, 2);
     return val;
}
```

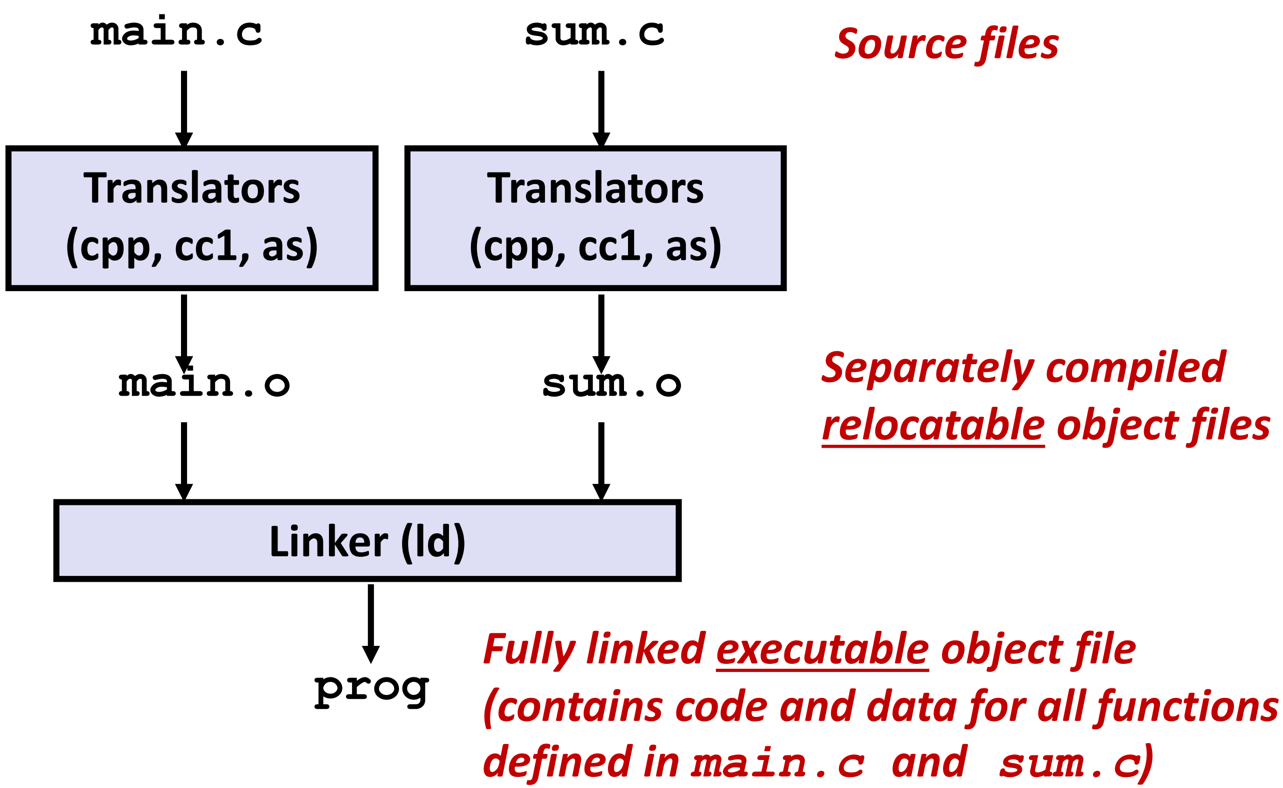
main.c

```c
int sum(int *a, int n)
{
     int i, s = 0;

     for (i = 0; i < n; i++) {
          s += a[i];
     }
     return s;
}
```

sum.c

Linking

- Programs are translated and linked using a *compiler driver*:
  - `linux> gcc -Og -o prog main.c sum.c`
  - `linux> ./prog`



Why Linkers?

- **Reason 1: Modularity**

  - Program can be written as a collection of smaller source files, rather than one monolithic mass.

  - Can build libraries of common functions (more on this later)
    - e.g., Math library, standard C library

Why Linkers? (cont)

- **Reason 2: Efficiency**
  - Time: Separate compilation
    - Change one source file, compile, and then relink.
    - No need to recompile other source files.
    - Can compile multiple files concurrently.
  - Space: Libraries
    - Common functions can be aggregated into a single file...
    - **Option 1: *Static Linking***
      - Executable files and running memory images contain only the library code they actually use
    - **Option 2: *Dynamic linking***
      - Executable files contain no library code
      - During execution, single copy of library code can be shared across all executing processes

What Do Linkers Do?

- **Step 1: Symbol resolution**

  - Programs define and reference *symbols* (global variables and functions):
    - `void swap() {…}    /* define symbol swap */`
    - `swap();            /* reference symbol swap */`
    - `int *xp = &x;      /* define symbol xp, reference x */`

  - Symbol definitions are stored in object file (by assembler) in *symbol table*.
    - Symbol table is an array of entries
    - Each entry includes name, size, and location of symbol.

  - **During symbol resolution step, the linker associates each symbol reference with exactly one symbol definition.**

Symbols in Example C Program

Definitions

```c
int sum(int *a, int n);

int array[2] = {1, 2};

int main(int argc, char** argv)
{
    int val = sum(array, 2);
    return val;
}
```

main.c

```c
int sum(int *a, int n)
{
    int i, s = 0;

    for (i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        s += a[i];
    }
    return s;
}
```

sum.c

Reference

What Do Linkers Do? (cont)

- **Step 2: Relocation**
  - Merges separate code and data sections into single sections
  - Relocates symbols from their relative locations in the `.o` files to their final absolute memory locations in the executable.
  - Updates all references to these symbols to reflect their new positions.

Let's look at these two steps in more detail....

Three Kinds of Object Files (Modules)

- **Relocatable object file (`.o` file)**
  - Contains code and data in a form that can be combined with other relocatable object files to form executable object file.
    - Each `.o` file is produced from exactly one source (`.c`) file

- **Executable object file (`a.out` file)**
  - Contains code and data in a form that can be copied directly into memory and then executed.

- **Shared object file (`.so` file)**
  - Special type of relocatable object file that can be loaded into memory and linked dynamically, at either load time or run-time.
  - Called *Dynamic Link Libraries* (DLLs) by Windows

Executable and Linkable Format (ELF)

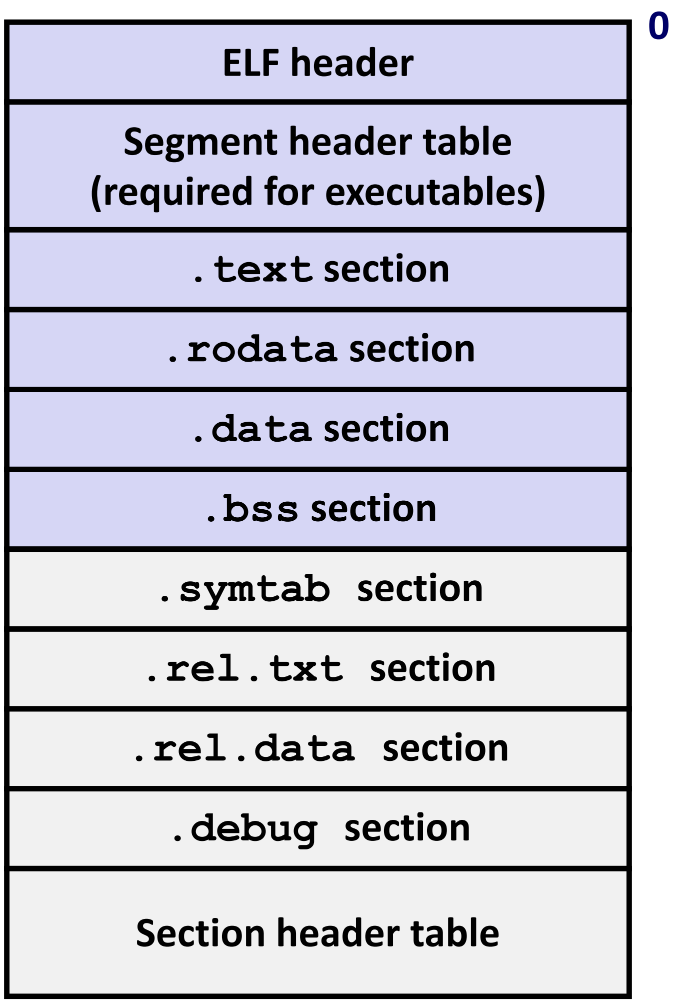
- **Standard binary format for object files**

- **One unified format for**
  - Relocatable object files (`.o`),
  - Executable object files `(a.out)`
  - Shared object files (`.so`)

- **Generic name: ELF binaries**

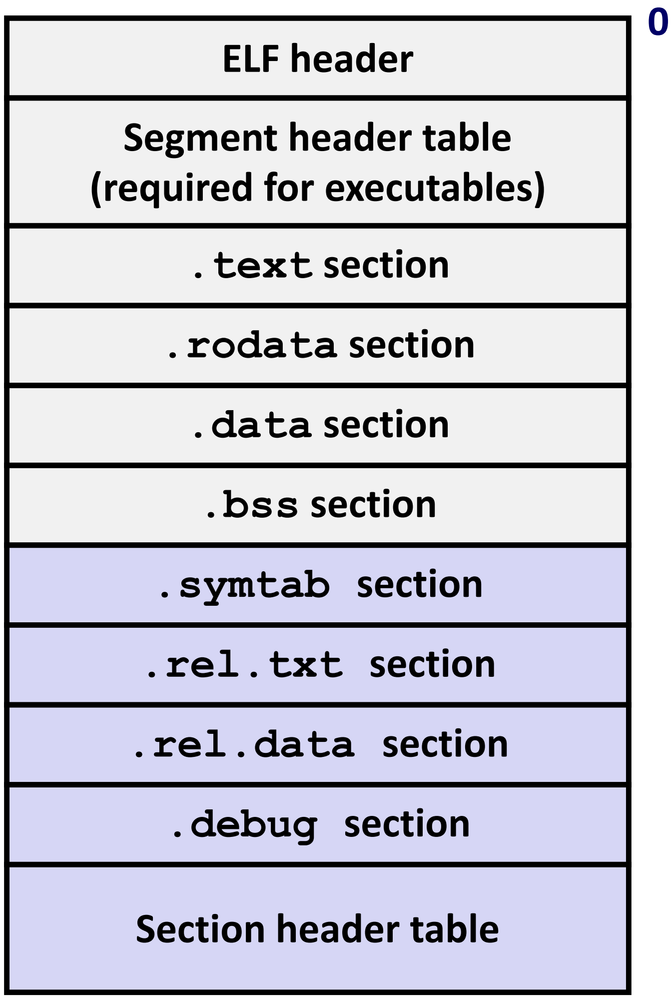
ELF Object File Format

- **Elf header**
  - Word size, byte ordering, file type (.o, exec, .so), machine type, etc.
- **Segment header table**
  - Page size, virtual addresses memory segments (sections), segment sizes.
- **`.text` section**
  - Code
- **`.rodata` section**
  - Read only data: jump tables, string constants, ...
- **`.data` section**
  - Initialized global variables
- **`.bss` section**
  - Uninitialized global variables
  - "Block Started by Symbol"
  - "Better Save Space"
  - Has section header but occupies no space



ELF Object File Format (cont.)

- **`.symtab` section**
  - Symbol table
  - Procedure and static variable names
  - Section names and locations
- **`.rel.text` section**
  - Relocation info for **`.text`** section
  - Addresses of instructions that will need to be modified in the executable
  - Instructions for modifying.
- **`.rel.data` section**
  - Relocation info for **`.data`** section
  - Addresses of pointer data that will need to be modified in the merged executable
- **`.debug` section**
  - Info for symbolic debugging (**`gcc -g`**)
- **Section header table**
  - Offsets and sizes of each section



Linker Symbols

- **Global symbols**
  - Symbols defined by module *m* that can be referenced by other modules.
  - E.g.: non-`static` C functions and non-`static` global variables.

- **External symbols**
  - Global symbols that are referenced by module *m* but defined by some other module.

- **Local symbols**
  - Symbols that are defined and referenced exclusively by module *m*.
  - E.g.: C functions and global variables defined with the `static` attribute.
  - **Local linker symbols are *not* local program variables**

Step 1: Symbol Resolution

Referencing a global…

…that's defined here

```c
int sum(int *a, int n);

int array[2] = {1, 2};

int main(int argc,char **argv)
{
    int val = sum(array, 2);
    return val;
}
```

main.c

```c
int sum(int *a, int n)
{
    int i, s = 0;

    for (i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        s += a[i];
    }
    return s;
}
```

sum.c

Defining a global

Linker knows nothing of `val`

Referencing a global…

…that's defined here

Linker knows nothing of `i` or `s`

Symbol Identification

Which of the following names will be in the symbol table of `symbols.o`?

symbols.c:

```
int time;

int foo(int a) {
  int b = a + 1;
  return b;
}

int main(int argc,
         char* argv[]) {
  printf("%d\n", foo(5));
  return 0;
}
```

Names:

- `time`
- `foo`
- `a`
- `argc`
- `argv`
- `b`
- `main`
- `printf`
- `"%d\n"`

Can find this with readelf:

```
linux> readelf -s symbols.o
```

The meaning of `static`

- **static**
  - Symbol only visible in enclosing scope
  - Stored in either `.bss`, or `.data` (**NOT** on stack)

```
static int x = 15;

int f() {
    static int x = 17;
    return x++;
}

int g() {
    static int x = 19;
    return x += 14;
}

int h() {
    return x += 27;
}
```

static-local.c

Compiler allocates space in `.data` for each definition of `x`

Creates local symbols in the symbol table with unique names, e.g., `x`, `x.1721` and `x.1724`.

Local Symbols

- **Local non-static C variables vs. local static C variables**
  - local non-static C variables: stored on the stack
  - local static C variables: stored in either `.bss,` or `.data`

```
int f() {
    static int x = 17;
    int y=0;

    x++;
    y++;
    printf("%d %d\n", x, y);
}

Void
main() {
    for (int i=0; i<10; i++) {
        f();
    }
}
```

- **Where is x stored?**
- **Where is y stored?**
- **What gets printed?**

How Linker Resolves Duplicate Symbol Definitions

- **Program symbols are either *strong* or *weak***
  - ***Strong***: procedures and initialized globals
  - ***Weak***: uninitialized globals
  - ***Very Weak***: uninitialized globals declared with **`extern`**

`p1.c`

```
int foo=5;      <- strong

p1() {          <- strong
}
```

`p2.c`

```
int foo;        <- weak

p2() {          <- strong
}
```

Linker's Symbol Rules

- **Rule 1: Multiple strong symbols are not allowed**
  - Each item can be defined only once
  - Otherwise: Linker error
- **Rule 2: Given a strong symbol and multiple weak symbols, choose the strong symbol**
  - References to the weak symbol resolve to the strong symbol
- **Rule 3: If there are multiple weak symbols, pick an arbitrary one**
  - Can override this with `gcc -fno-common`
- **Rule 4: Never pick a "very weak" symbol**

Linker Puzzles

`int x;` `p1() {}`	`p1() {}`	Link time error: two strong symbols (**`p1`**)
`int x;` `p1() {}`	`int x;` `p2() {}`	References to **`x`** will refer to the same uninitialized int. Is this what you really want?

`int x;`
`int y;`
`p1() {}`
	`double x;`
	`p2() {}`
		Writes to **`x`** in **`p2`** might overwrite **`y`**!
		Evil!

`int x=7;`
`int y=5;`
`p1() {}`
	`double x;`
	`p2() {}`
		Writes to **`x`** in **`p2`** might overwrite **`y`**!
		Nasty!

`int x=7;` `p1() {}`	`int x;` `p2() {}`	References to **`x`** will refer to the same initialized variable.

Important: Linker does NOT do type checking.

Type Mismatch Example

```
long int x;  /* Weak symbol */

int main(int argc,
         char *argv[]) {
    printf("%ld\n", x);
    return 0;
}
```

mismatch-main.c

```
/* Global strong symbol */
double x = 3.14;
```

mismatch-variable.c

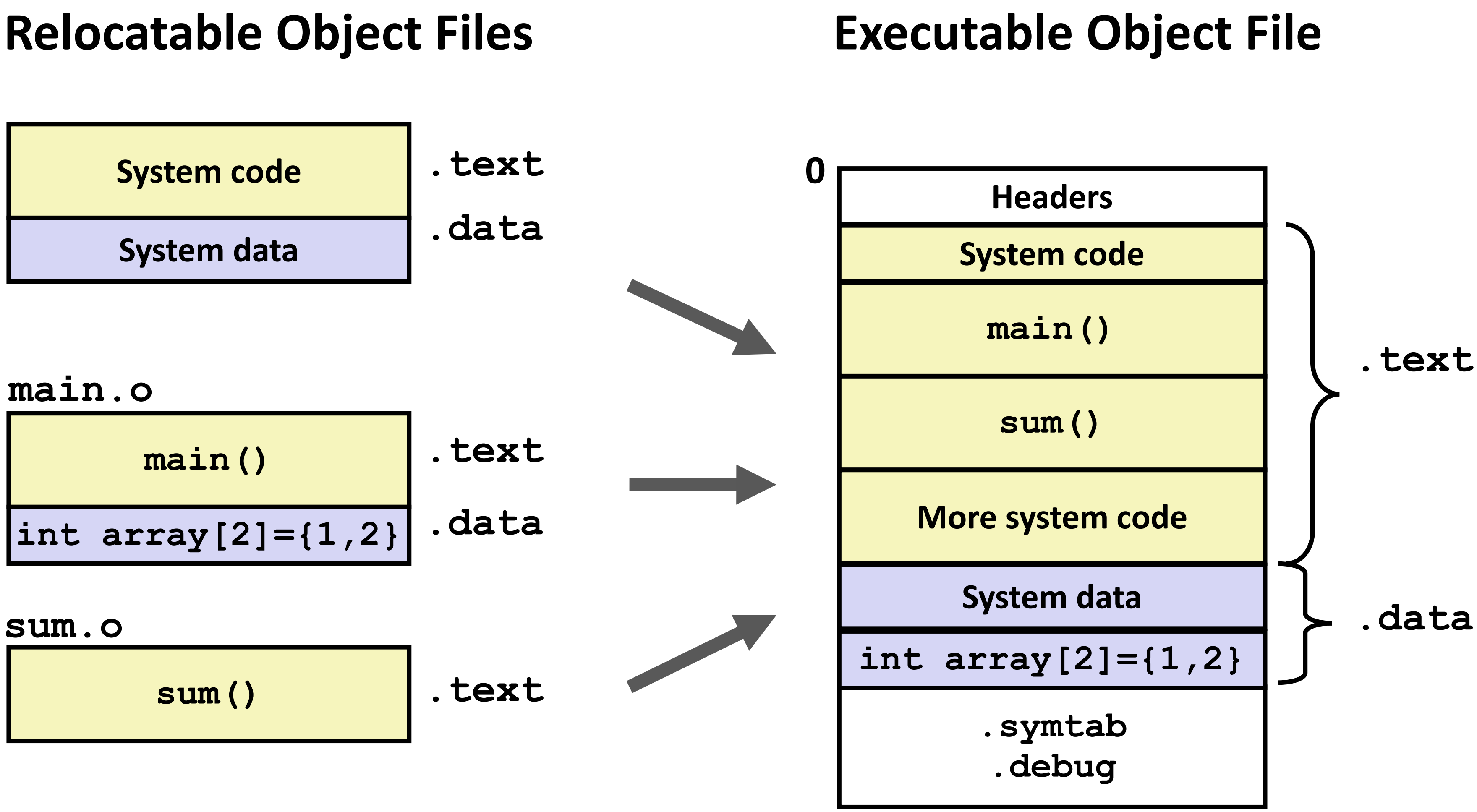
- Compiles without any errors or warnings
- What gets printed?

Global Variables

- **Avoid if you can**

- **Otherwise**
  - Use `static` if you can
  - Initialize if you define a global variable
  - Use `extern` if you reference an external global variable
    - Treated as weak symbol
    - But also causes linker error if not defined in some file

Step 2: Relocation



Relocation Entries

```
int array[2] = {1, 2};

int main(int argc, char**
argv)
{
    int val = sum(array, 2);
    return val;
}                                   main.c
```

```
0000000000000000 <main>:
   0:   48 83 ec 08             sub    $0x8,%rsp
   4:   be 02 00 00 00          mov    $0x2,%esi
   9:   bf 00 00 00 00          mov    $0x0,%edi      # %edi = &array
                        a: R_X86_64_32 array          # Relocation entry

   e:   e8 00 00 00 00          callq  13 <main+0x13> # sum()
                        f: R_X86_64_PC32 sum-0x4      # Relocation entry
  13:   48 83 c4 08             add    $0x8,%rsp
  17:   c3                      retq
                                                              main.o
```

Source: `objdump -r -d main.o`

Relocated .text section

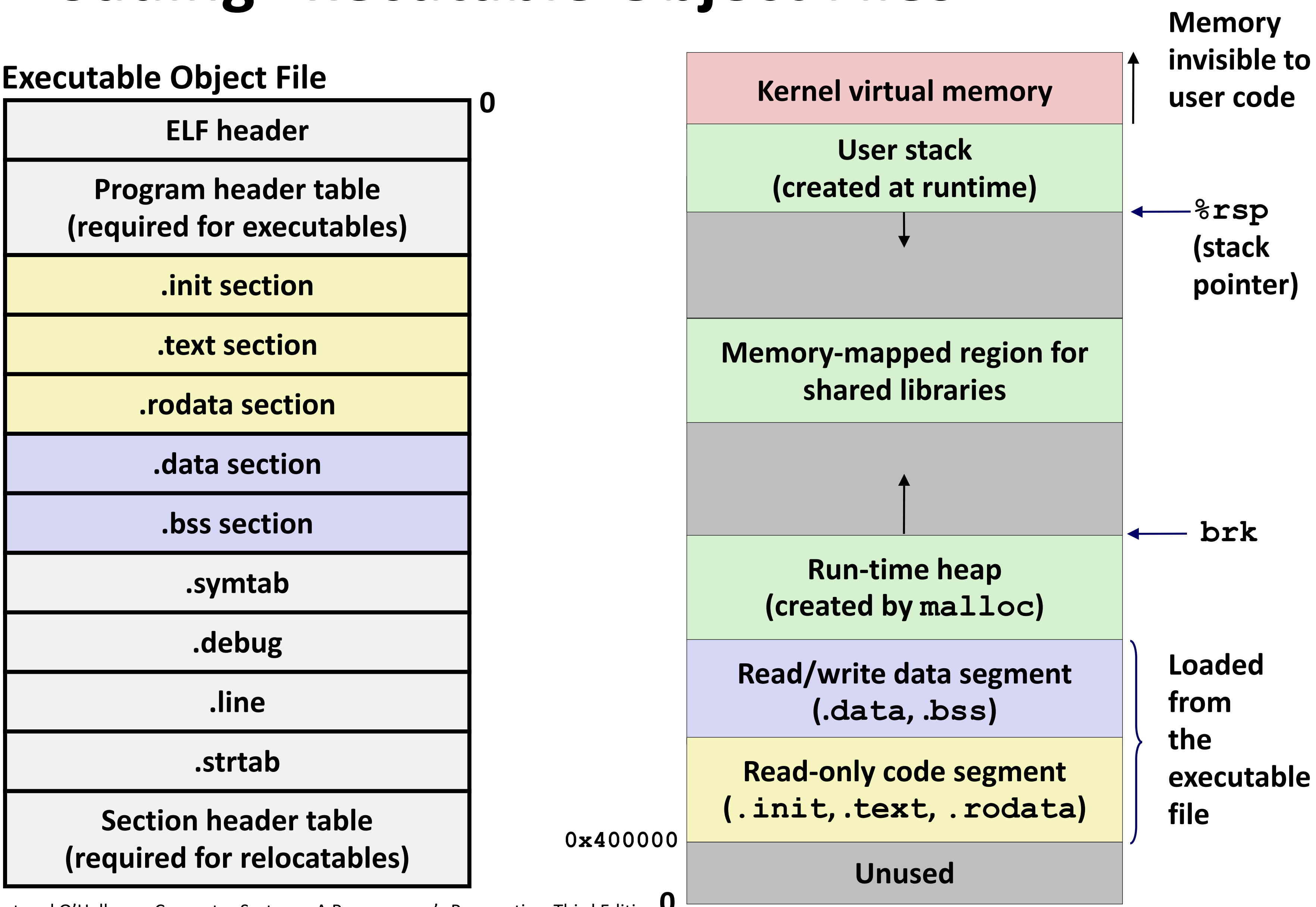
```
00000000004004d0 <main>:
  4004d0:       48 83 ec 08          sub    $0x8,%rsp
  4004d4:       be 02 00 00 00       mov    $0x2,%esi
  4004d9:       bf 18 10 60 00       mov    $0x601018,%edi   # %edi = &array
  4004de:       e8 05 00 00 00       callq  4004e8 <sum>     # sum()
  4004e3:       48 83 c4 08          add    $0x8,%rsp
  4004e7:       c3                   retq

00000000004004e8 <sum>:
  4004e8:       b8 00 00 00 00           mov    $0x0,%eax
  4004ed:       ba 00 00 00 00           mov    $0x0,%edx
  4004f2:       eb 09                    jmp    4004fd <sum+0x15>
  4004f4:       48 63 ca                 movslq %edx,%rcx
  4004f7:       03 04 8f                 add    (%rdi,%rcx,4),%eax
  4004fa:       83 c2 01                 add    $0x1,%edx
  4004fd:       39 f2                    cmp    %esi,%edx
  4004ff:       7c f3                    jl     4004f4 <sum+0xc>
  400501:       f3 c3                    repz retq
```

`callq` instruction uses PC-relative addressing for sum():

`0x4004e8` = `0x4004e3` + `0x5`

Source: `objdump -d prog`

Loading Executable Object Files



Packaging Commonly Used Functions

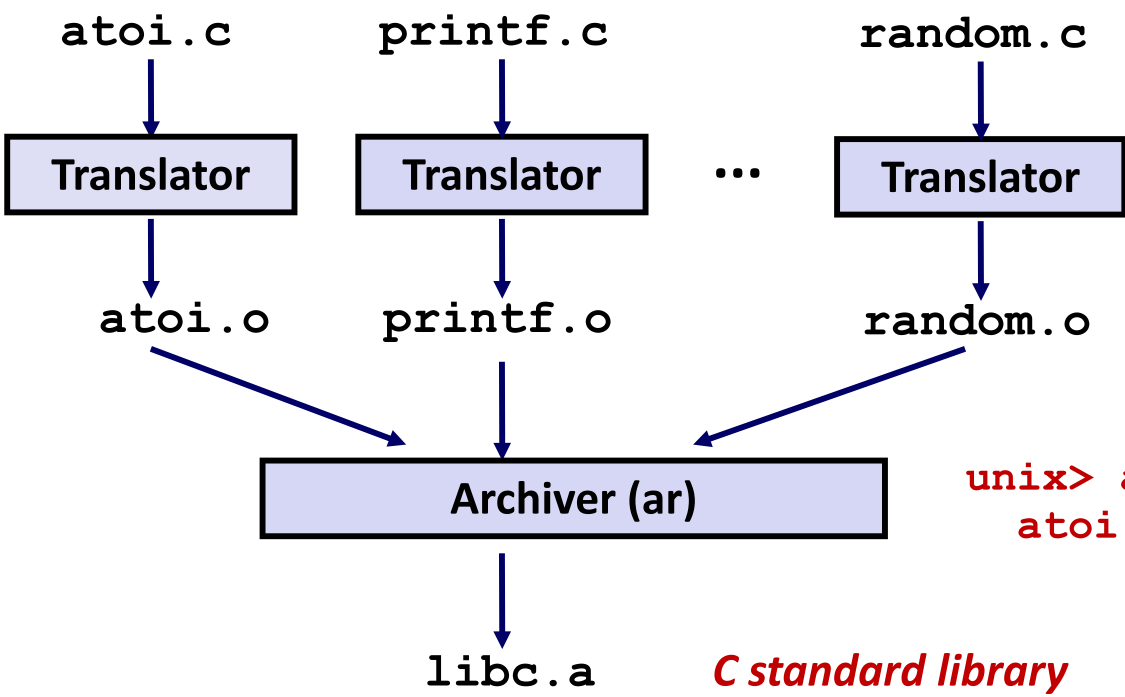
- **How to package functions commonly used by programmers?**
  - Math, I/O, memory management, string manipulation, etc.

- **Awkward, given the linker framework so far:**
  - **Option 1:** Put all functions into a single source file
    - Programmers link big object file into their programs
    - Space and time inefficient
  - **Option 2:** Put each function in a separate source file
    - Programmers explicitly link appropriate binaries into their programs
    - More efficient, but burdensome on the programmer

Old-fashioned Solution: Static Libraries

- **Static libraries (`.a` archive files)**
  - Concatenate related relocatable object files into a single file with an index (called an *archive*).
  - Enhance linker so that it tries to resolve unresolved external references by looking for the symbols in one or more archives.
  - If an archive member file resolves reference, link it into the executable.

Creating Static Libraries




```
unix> ar rs libc.a \
  atoi.o printf.o … random.o
```

C standard library

- **Archiver allows incremental updates**
- **Recompile function that changes and replace .o file in archive.**

Commonly Used Libraries

`libc.a` (the C standard library)

- 4.6 MB archive of 1496 object files.
- I/O, memory allocation, signal handling, string handling, data and time, random numbers, integer math

`libm.a` (the C math library)

- 2 MB archive of 444 object files.
- floating point math (sin, cos, tan, log, exp, sqrt, …)

```
% ar -t /usr/lib/libc.a | sort
…
fork.o
…
fprintf.o
fpu_control.o
fputc.o
freopen.o
fscanf.o
fseek.o
fstab.o
…
```

```
% ar -t /usr/lib/libm.a | sort
…
e_acos.o
e_acosf.o
e_acosh.o
e_acoshf.o
e_acoshl.o
e_acosl.o
e_asin.o
e_asinf.o
e_asinl.o
…
```

Linking with Static Libraries

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include "vector.h"

int x[2] = {1, 2};
int y[2] = {3, 4};
int z[2];

int main(int argc, char**
argv)
{
    addvec(x, y, z, 2);
    printf("z = [%d %d]\n",
           z[0], z[1]);
    return 0;
}
```

main2.c

libvector.a

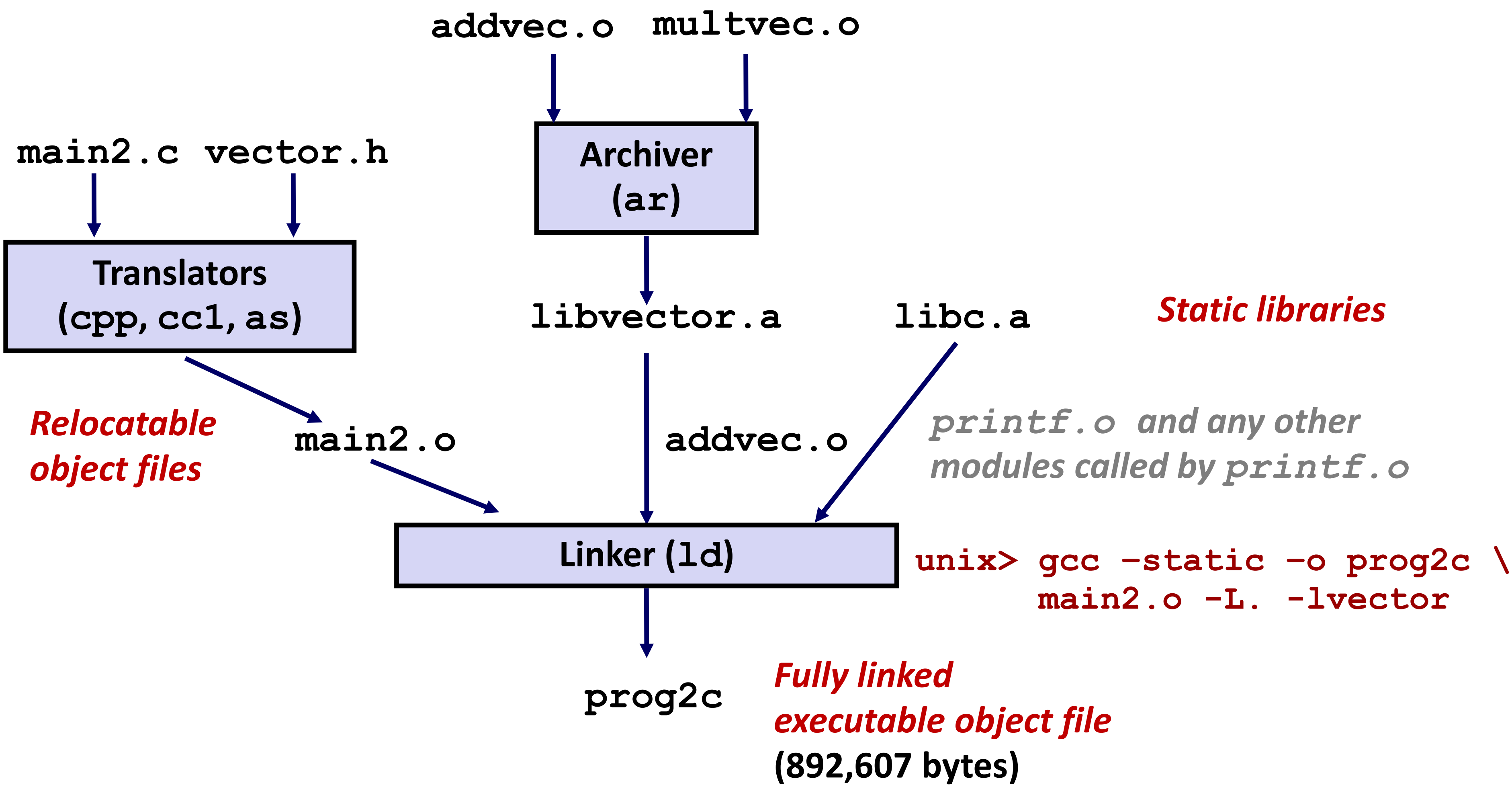
```
void addvec(int *x, int *y,
            int *z, int n) {
    int i;

    for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
        z[i] = x[i] + y[i];
}
```

addvec.c

```
void multvec(int *x, int *y,
             int *z, int n)
{
    int i;

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

multvec.c

Linking with Static Libraries



“c” for “compile-time”

Using Static Libraries

- **Linker's algorithm for resolving external references:**
  - Scan `.o` files and `.a` files in the command line order.
  - During the scan, keep a list of the current unresolved references.
  - As each new `.o` or `.a` file, *obj*, is encountered, try to resolve each unresolved reference in the list against the symbols defined in *obj*.
  - If any entries in the unresolved list at end of scan, then error.

- **Problem:**
  - Command line order matters!
  - Moral: put libraries at the end of the command line.

```
unix> gcc -static -o prog2c -L. -lvector main2.o
main2.o: In function `main':
main2.c:(.text+0x19): undefined reference to `addvec'
collect2: error: ld returned 1 exit status
```

Modern Solution: Shared Libraries

- **Static libraries have the following disadvantages:**
  - Duplication in the stored executables (every function needs libc)
  - Duplication in the running executables
  - Minor bug fixes of system libraries require each application to explicitly relink
    - Rebuild everything with glibc?
    - https://security.googleblog.com/2016/02/cve-2015-7547-glibc-getaddrinfo-stack.html

- **Modern solution: Shared Libraries**
  - Object files that contain code and data that are loaded and linked into an application *dynamically,* at either *load-time* or *run-time*
  - Also called: dynamic link libraries, DLLs, `.so` files

Shared Libraries (cont.)

- **Dynamic linking can occur when executable is first loaded and run (load-time linking).**
  - Common case for Linux, handled automatically by the dynamic linker (`ld-linux.so`).
  - Standard C library (`libc.so`) usually dynamically linked.

- **Dynamic linking can also occur after program has begun (run-time linking).**
  - In Linux, this is done by calls to the `dlopen()` interface.
    - Distributing software.
    - High-performance web servers.
    - Runtime library interpositioning.

- **Shared library routines can be shared by multiple processes.**
  - More on this when we learn about virtual memory

What dynamic libraries are required?

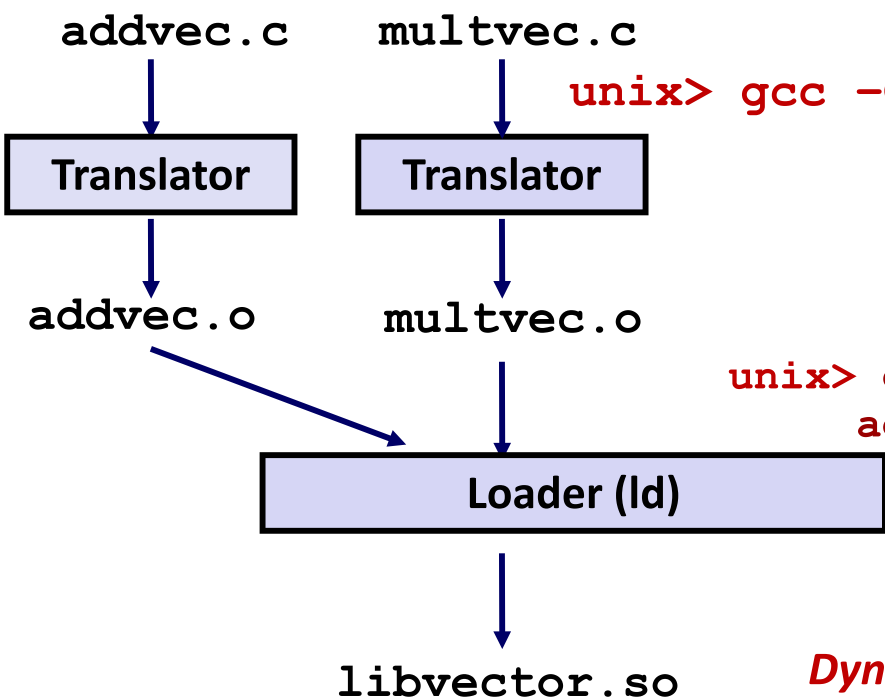
- .interp section
  - Specifies the dynamic linker to use (i.e., **`ld-linux.so`**)
- .dynamic section
  - Specifies the names, etc of the dynamic libraries to use
  - Follow an example of **`prog`**

```
(NEEDED)                Shared library: [libm.so.6]
```

- Where are the libraries found?
  - Use "**`ldd`**" to find out:

```
unix> ldd prog
  linux-vdso.so.1 =>  (0x00007ffcf2998000)
  libc.so.6 => /lib/x86_64-linux-gnu/libc.so.6 (0x00007f99ad927000)
  /lib64/ld-linux-x86-64.so.2 (0x00007f99adcef000)
```

Dynamic Library Example

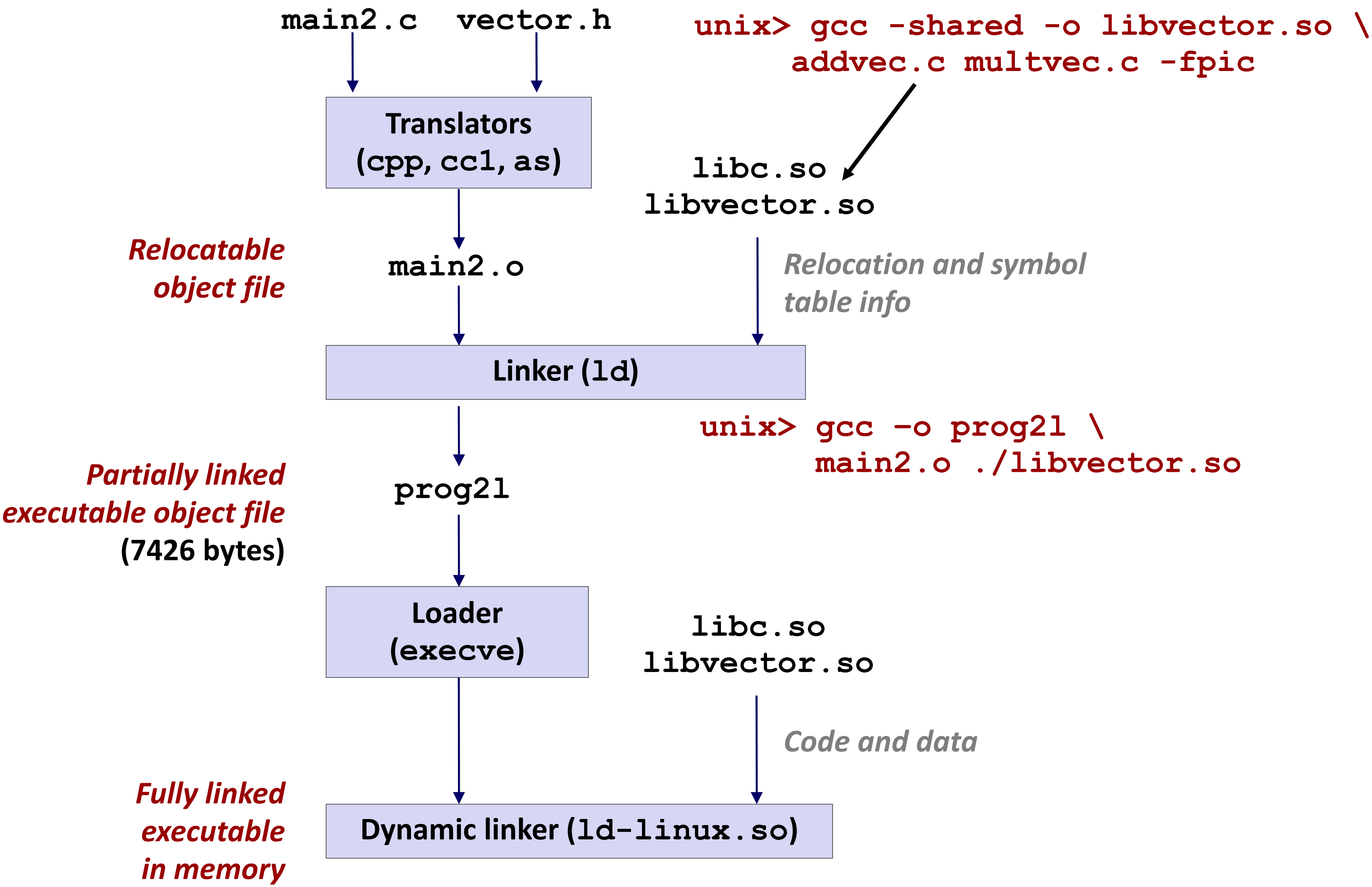



```
unix> gcc -Og -c addvec.c multvec.c -fpic
```

```
unix> gcc -shared -o libvector.so \
    addvec.o multvec.o
```

Dynamic vector library

Dynamic Linking at Load-time



Dynamic Linking at Run-time

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <dlfcn.h>

int x[2] = {1, 2};
int y[2] = {3, 4};
int z[2];

int main(int argc, char** argv)
{
    void *handle;
    void (*addvec)(int *, int *, int *, int);
    char *error;

    /* Dynamically load the shared library that contains addvec() */
    handle = dlopen("./libvector.so", RTLD_LAZY);
    if (!handle) {
        fprintf(stderr, "%s\n", dlerror());
        exit(1);
    }
  . . .
```

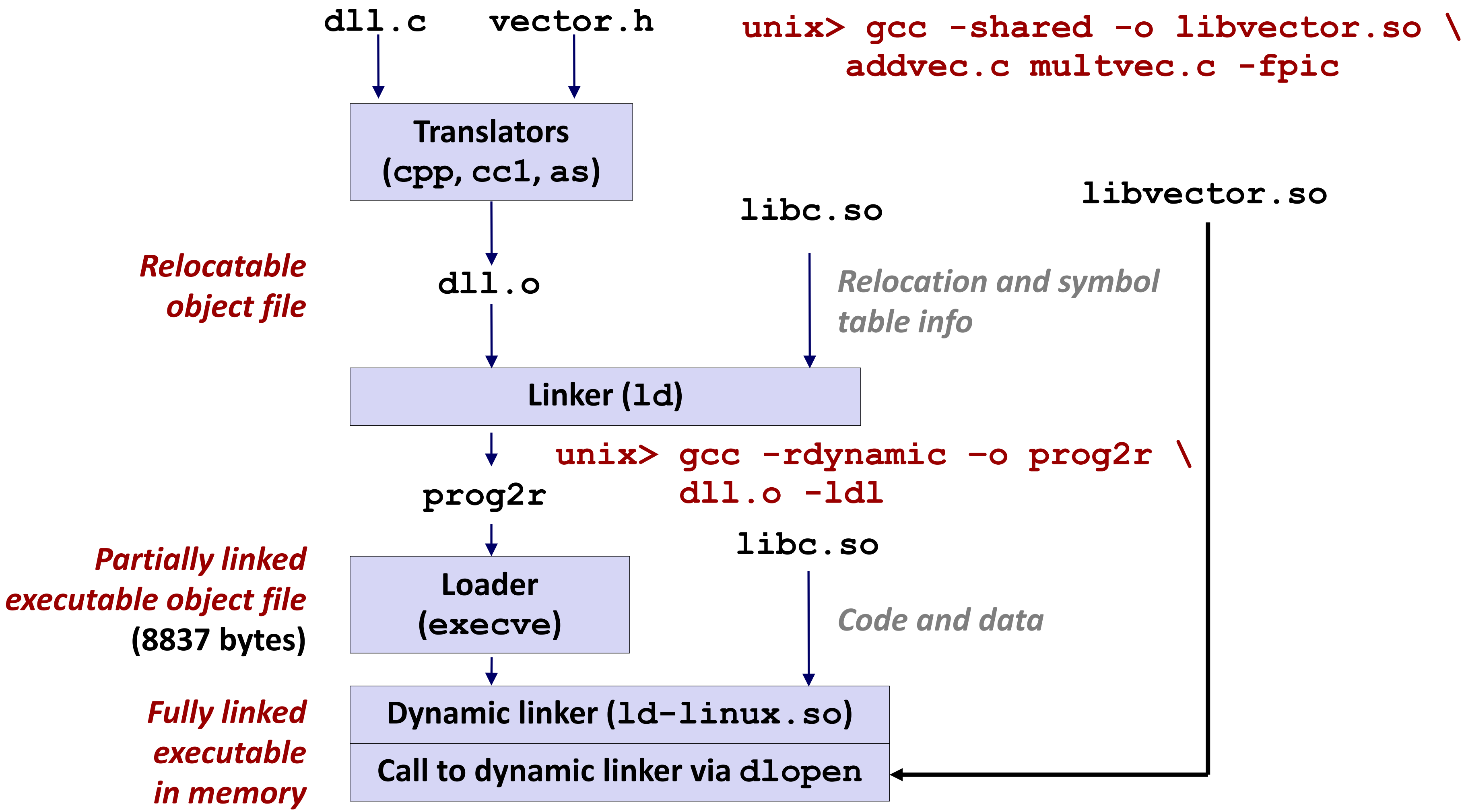
dll.c

Dynamic Linking at Run-time (cont)

```
    ...

    /* Get a pointer to the addvec() function we just loaded */
    addvec = dlsym(handle, "addvec");
    if ((error = dlerror()) != NULL) {
        fprintf(stderr, "%s\n", error);
        exit(1);
    }

    /* Now we can call addvec() just like any other function */
    addvec(x, y, z, 2);
    printf("z = [%d %d]\n", z[0], z[1]);

    /* Unload the shared library */
    if (dlclose(handle) < 0) {
        fprintf(stderr, "%s\n", dlerror());
        exit(1);
    }
    return 0;
}
```

dll.c

Dynamic Linking at Run-time



Linking Summary

- **Linking is a technique that allows programs to be constructed from multiple object files.**

- **Linking can happen at different times in a program's lifetime:**
  - Compile time (when a program is compiled)
  - Load time (when a program is loaded into memory)
  - Run time (while a program is executing)

- **Understanding linking can help you avoid nasty errors and make you a better programmer.**

Machine-Level Programming V: Advanced Topics

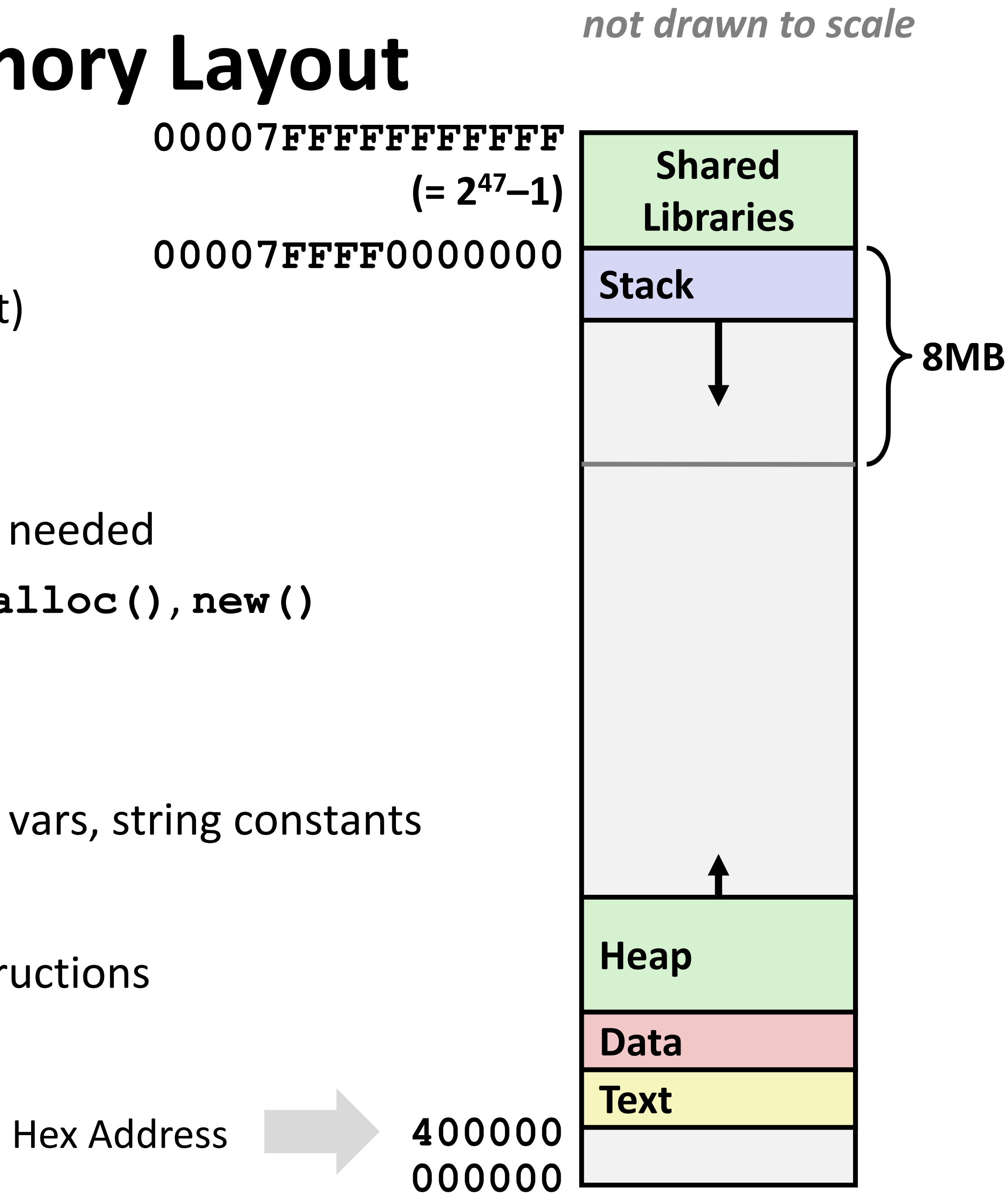
15-213/18-213/14-513/15-513/18-613: Introduction to Computer Systems
9th Lecture, March 4, 2021

Today

- **Memory Layout**
- Buffer Overflow
  - Vulnerability
  - Protection
- Unions

x86-64 Linux Memory Layout

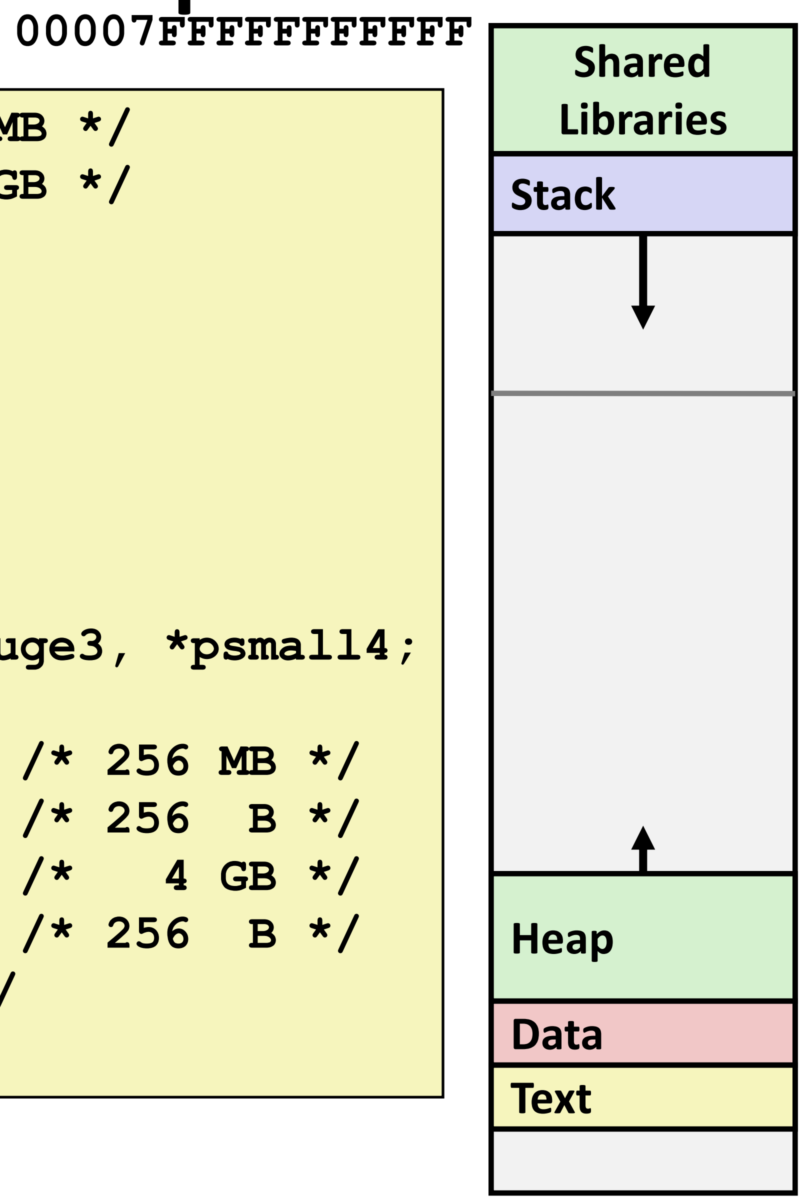
- **Stack**
  - Runtime stack (8MB limit)
  - E. g., local variables
- **Heap**
  - Dynamically allocated as needed
  - When call **`malloc()`**, **`calloc()`**, **`new()`**
- **Data**
  - Statically allocated data
  - E.g., global vars, **`static`** vars, string constants
- **Text / Shared Libraries**
  - Executable machine instructions
  - Read-only



not drawn to scale

Memory Allocation Example

```
char big_array[1L<<24];  /* 16 MB */
char huge_array[1L<<31]; /*  2 GB */

int global = 0;

int useless() { return 0; }

int main ()
{
    void *phuge1, *psmall2, *phuge3, *psmall4;
    int local = 0;
    phuge1 = malloc(1L << 28);  /* 256 MB */
    psmall2 = malloc(1L << 8);  /* 256  B */
    phuge3 = malloc(1L << 32);  /*   4 GB */
    psmall4 = malloc(1L << 8);  /* 256  B */
 /* Some print statements ... */
}
```



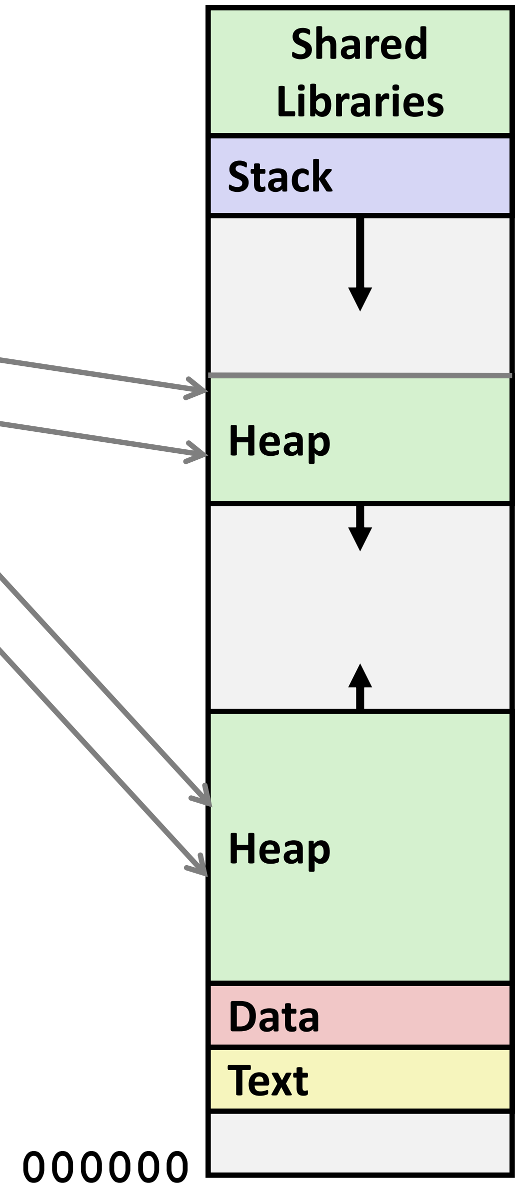
Where does everything go?

not drawn to scale

x86-64 Example Addresses

address range ~2^{47}

`local`	`0x00007ffe4d3be87c`
`phuge1`	`0x00007f7262a1e010`
`phuge3`	`0x00007f7162a1d010`
`psmall4`	`0x000000008359d120`
`psmall2`	`0x000000008359d010`
`big_array`	`0x0000000080601060`
`huge_array`	`0x0000000000601060`
`main()`	`0x000000000040060c`
`useless()`	`0x0000000000400590`



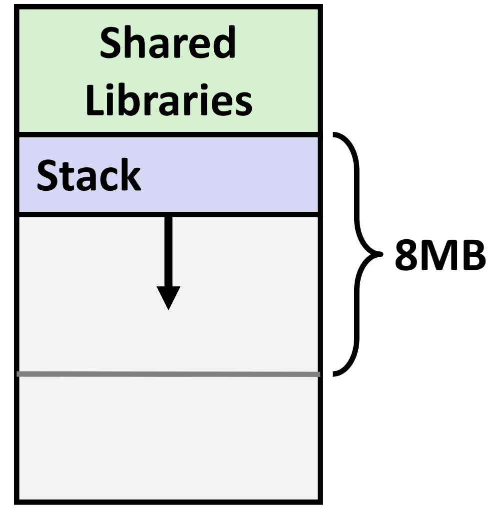
(Exact values can vary)

not drawn to scale

Runaway Stack Example

```
int recurse(int x) {
    int a[1<<15];  // 4*2^15 =  128 KiB
    printf("x = %d.  a at %p\n", x, a);
    a[0] = (1<<14)-1;
    a[a[0]] = x-1;
    if (a[a[0]] == 0)
        return -1;
    return recurse(a[a[0]]) - 1;
}
```

00007FFFFFFFFFFF



- Functions store local data on stack in stack frame
- Recursive functions cause deep nesting of frames

```
./runaway 67
x = 67.  a at 0x7ffd18aba930
x = 66.  a at 0x7ffd18a9a920
x = 65.  a at 0x7ffd18a7a910
x = 64.  a at 0x7ffd18a5a900
. . .
x = 4.  a at 0x7ffd182da540
x = 3.  a at 0x7ffd182ba530
x = 2.  a at 0x7ffd1829a520
Segmentation fault (core dumped)
```

Today

- Memory Layout
- **Buffer Overflow**
  - Vulnerability
  - Protection
- Unions

Recall: Memory Referencing Bug Example

```
typedef struct {
  int a[2];
  double d;
} struct_t;

double fun(int i) {
  volatile struct_t s;
  s.d = 3.14;
  s.a[i] = 1073741824; /* Possibly out of bounds */
  return s.d;
}
```

```
fun(0)  ->   3.1400000000
fun(1)  ->   3.1400000000
fun(2)  ->   3.1399998665
fun(3)  ->   2.0000006104
```

`fun(6)  ->` **Stack smashing detected**

`fun(8)  ->` **Segmentation fault**

- Result is system specific

Memory Referencing Bug Example

```
typedef struct {
  int a[2];
  double d;
} struct_t;
```

```
fun(0)   ->    3.1400000000
fun(1)   ->    3.1400000000
fun(2)   ->    3.1399998665
fun(3)   ->    2.0000006104
fun(4)   ->    Segmentation fault
fun(8)   ->    3.1400000000
```

Explanation:

???	8
Critical State	7
Critical State	6
Critical State	5
Critical State	4
`d7 ... d4`	3
`d3 ... d0`	2
`a[1]`	1
`a[0]`	0

`struct_t`

Location accessed by `fun(i)`

Such problems are a BIG deal

- **Generally called a "buffer overflow"**
  - when exceeding the memory size allocated for an array
- **Why a big deal?**
  - It's the #1 technical cause of security vulnerabilities
  - What is #1 overall cause?
    - social engineering / user ignorance
- **Most common form**
  - Unchecked lengths on string inputs
  - Particularly for bounded character arrays on the stack
    - sometimes referred to as stack smashing

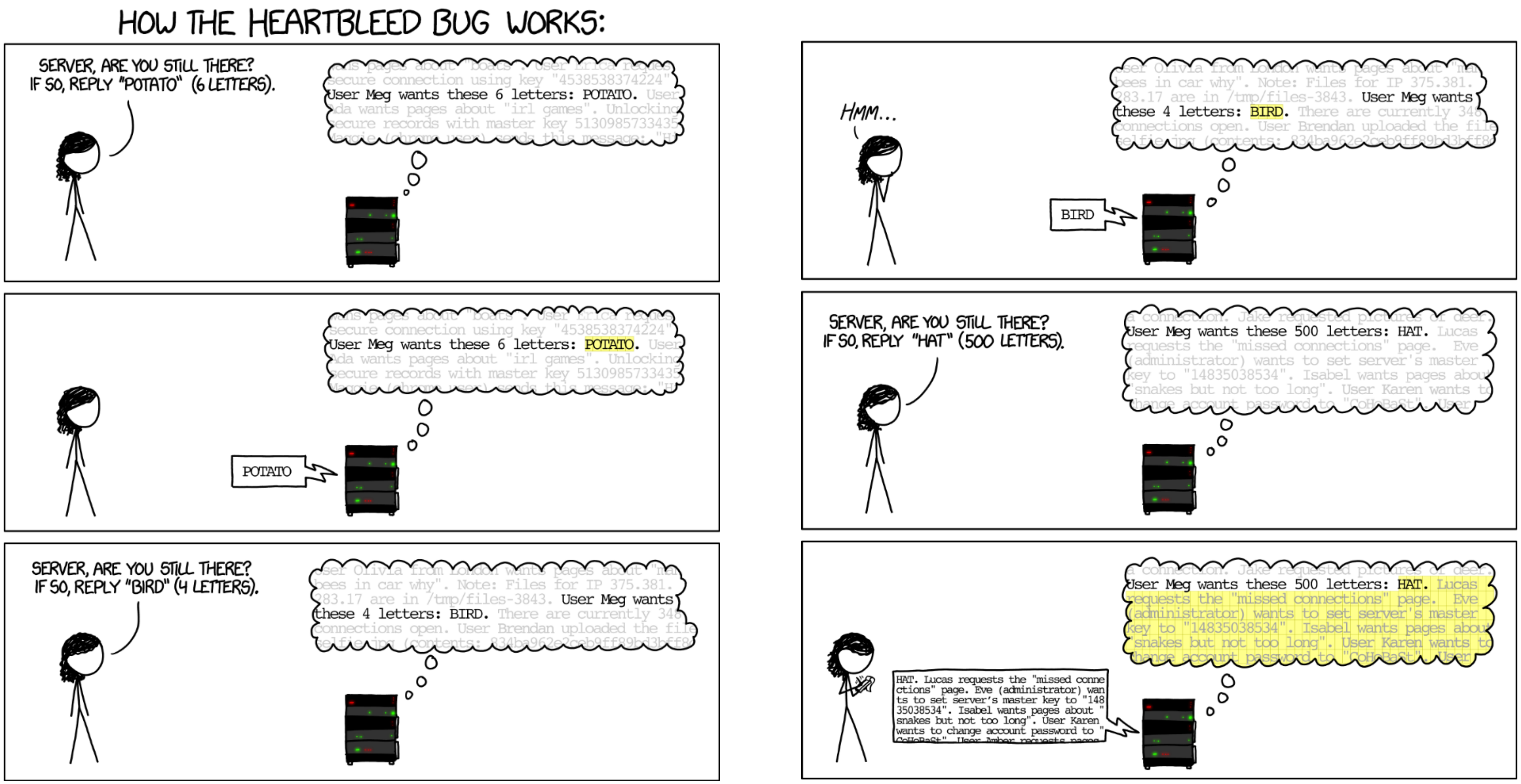
Exploits Based on Buffer Overflows

- *Buffer overflow bugs can allow remote machines to execute arbitrary code on victim machines*
- **Distressingly common in real programs**
  - Programmers keep making the same mistakes ☹
  - Recent measures make these attacks much more difficult
- **Examples across the decades**
  - Original “Internet worm” (1988)
  - “IM wars” (1999)
  - Twilight hack on Wii (2000s)
  - … and many, many more
- **You will learn some of the tricks in attacklab**
  - Hopefully to convince you to never leave such holes in your programs!!

Example: the original Internet worm (1988)

- **Exploited a few vulnerabilities to spread**
  - Early versions of the finger server (fingerd) used **`gets()`** to read the argument sent by the client:
    - **`finger droh@cs.cmu.edu`**
  - Worm attacked fingerd server by sending phony argument:
    - ***`finger "exploit-code padding new-return-address"`***
    - exploit code: executed a root shell on the victim machine with a direct TCP connection to the attacker.
- **Once on a machine, scanned for other machines to attack**
  - invaded ~6000 computers in hours (10% of the Internet ☺)
    - see June 1989 article in *Comm. of the ACM*
  - the young author of the worm was prosecuted…
  - and CERT was formed… still homed at CMU

Programmers keep making these mistakes…



https://xkcd.com/1354/

Aside: Worms and Viruses

- **Worm: A program that**
  - Can run by itself
  - Can propagate a fully working version of itself to other computers
- **Virus: Code that**
  - Adds itself to other programs
  - Does not run independently
- **Both are (usually) designed to spread among computers and to wreak havoc**

String Library Code

- **Implementation of Unix function `gets()`**

```
/* Get string from stdin */
char *gets(char *dest)
{
    int c = getchar();
    char *p = dest;
    while (c != EOF && c != '\n') {
        *p++ = c;
        c = getchar();
    }
    *p = '\0';
    return dest;
}
```

  - No way to specify limit on number of characters to read

- **Similar problems with other library functions**
  - **`strcpy`, `strcat`**: Copy strings of arbitrary length
  - **`scanf`, `fscanf`, `sscanf`,** when given **`%s`** conversion specification

Vulnerable Buffer Code

```
/* Echo Line */
void echo()
{
    char buf[4];  /* Way too small! */
    gets(buf);
    puts(buf);
}
```

```
void call_echo() {
    echo();
}
```

←btw, how big
is big enough?

```
unix>./bufdemo-nsp
Type a string:01234567890123456789012
01234567890123456789012
```

```
unix>./bufdemo-nsp
Type a string:012345678901234567890123
012345678901234567890123
Segmentation Fault
```

Buffer Overflow Disassembly

echo:

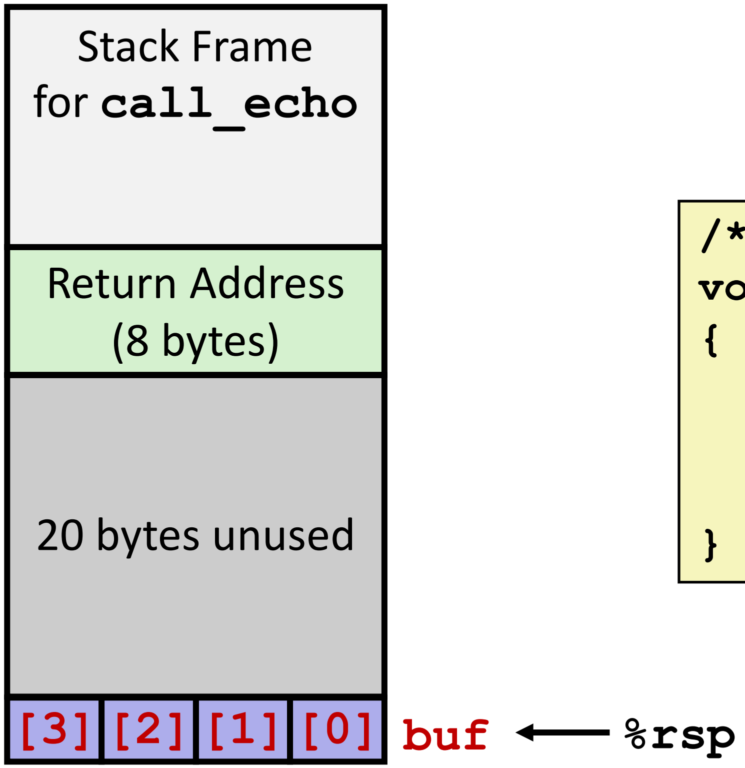
```
0000000000040069c <echo>:
 40069c:  48 83 ec 18             sub    $0x18,%rsp
 4006a0:  48 89 e7                mov    %rsp,%rdi
 4006a3:  e8 a5 ff ff ff          callq  40064d <gets>
 4006a8:  48 89 e7                mov    %rsp,%rdi
 4006ab:  e8 50 fe ff ff          callq  400500 <puts@plt>
 4006b0:  48 83 c4 18             add    $0x18,%rsp
 4006b4:  c3                      retq
```

call_echo:

```
 4006b5:  48 83 ec 08             sub    $0x8,%rsp
 4006b9:  b8 00 00 00 00          mov    $0x0,%eax
 4006be:  e8 d9 ff ff ff          callq  40069c <echo>
 4006c3:  48 83 c4 08             add    $0x8,%rsp
 4006c7:  c3                      retq
```

Buffer Overflow Stack Example

Before call to gets

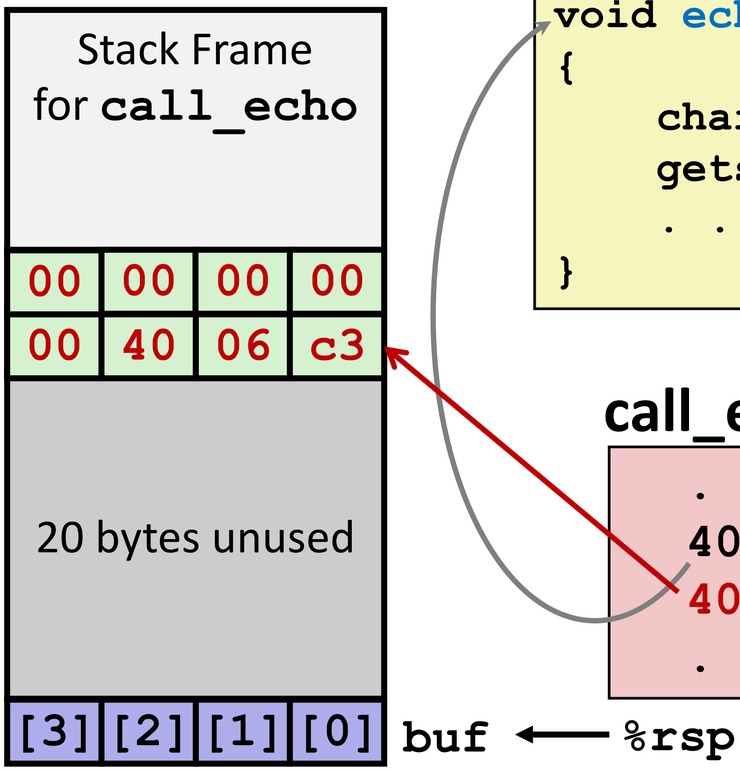



```
/* Echo Line */
void echo()
{
    char buf[4];  /* Way too small! */
    gets(buf);
    puts(buf);
}
```

```
echo:
  subq $0x18, %rsp
  movq  %rsp, %rdi
  call  gets
  . . .
```

Buffer Overflow Stack Example

Before call to gets




```
void echo()
{
    char buf[4];
    gets(buf);
    . . .
}
```

```
echo:
  subq   $0x18, %rsp
  movq   %rsp, %rdi
  call   gets
  . . .
```

call_echo:

```
  . . .
  4006be:  callq  4006cf <echo>
  4006c3:  add    $0x8,%rsp
  . . .
```

Buffer Overflow Stack Example #1

After call to gets

Stack Frame for `call_echo`			
00	00	00	00
00	40	06	c3
00	32	31	30
39	38	37	36
35	34	33	32
31	30	39	38
37	36	35	34
33	32	31	30

buf ⟵ %rsp

```
void echo()
{
    char buf[4];
    gets(buf);
    . . .
}
```

```
echo:
  subq   $0x18, %rsp
  movq   %rsp, %rdi
  call   gets
  . . .
```

call_echo:

```
  . . .
  4006be:   callq   4006cf <echo>
  4006c3:   add     $0x8,%rsp
  . . .
```

```
unix>./bufdemo-nsp
Type a string:01234567890123456789012
01234567890123456789012
```

"01234567890123456789012\0"

Overflowed buffer, but did not corrupt state

Buffer Overflow Stack Example #2

After call to gets

Stack Frame for call_echo			
00	00	00	00
00	40	06	00
33	32	31	30
39	38	37	36
35	34	33	32
31	30	39	38
37	36	35	34
33	32	31	30

buf ⟵ %rsp

```
void echo()
{
    char buf[4];
    gets(buf);
    . . .
}
```

```
echo:
  subq   $0x18, %rsp
  movq   %rsp, %rdi
  call   gets
  . . .
```

call_echo:

```
. . .
4006be:  callq  4006cf <echo>
4006c3:  add    $0x8,%rsp
. . .
```

```
unix>./bufdemo-nsp
Type a string:01234567890123456789012
01234567890123456789012
Segmentation fault
```

Program "returned" to 0x0400600, and then crashed.

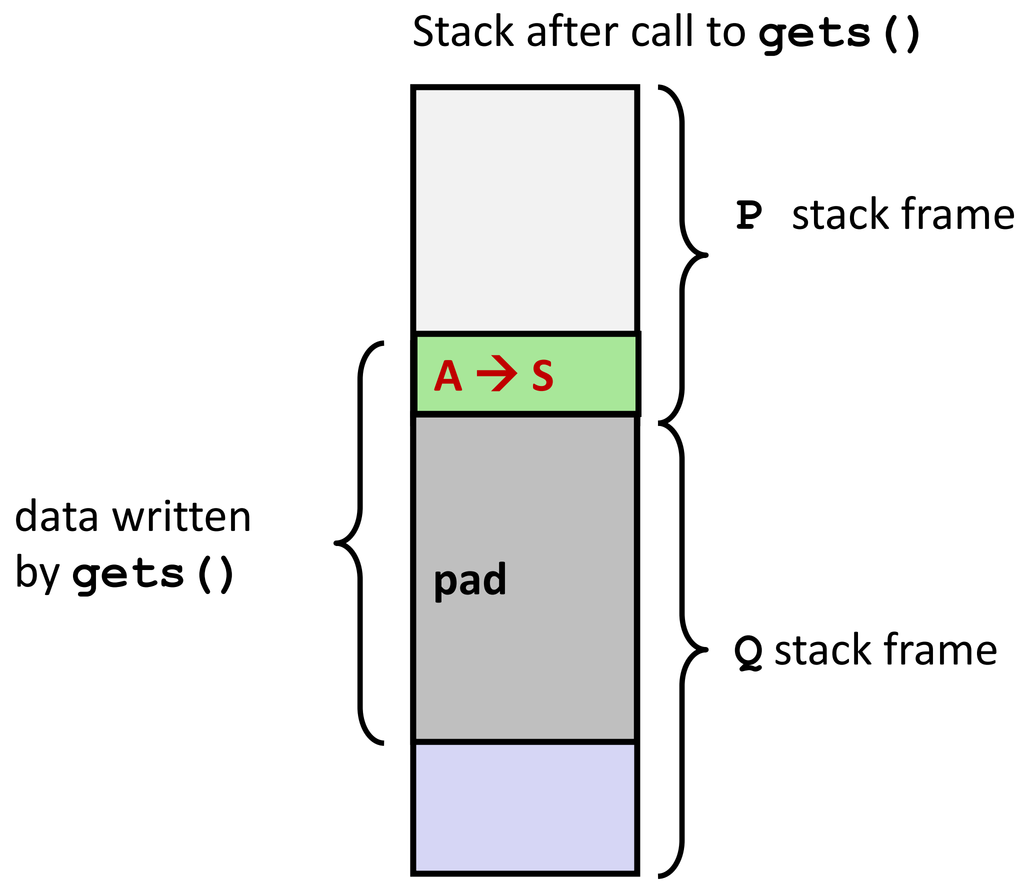
Stack Smashing Attacks

```
void P(){
  Q();
  ...
}
```

return address A

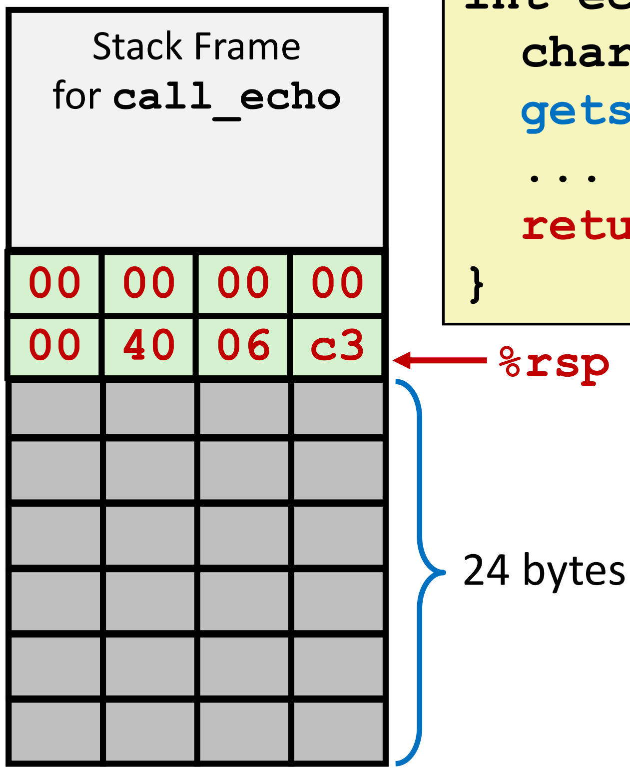
```
int Q() {
  char buf[64];
  gets(buf);
  ...
  return ...;
}
```

```
void S(){
/* Something
   unexpected */
  ...
}
```



- Overwrite normal return address A with address of some other code S
- When Q executes `ret`, will jump to other code

Crafting Smashing String




```
int echo() {
  char buf[4];
  gets(buf);
  ...
  return ...;
}
```

Target Code

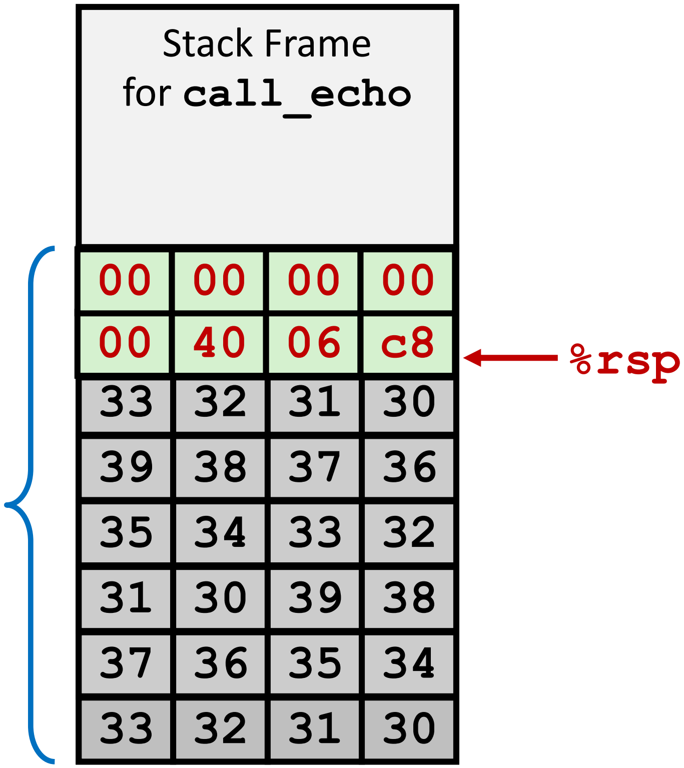
```
void smash() {
  printf("I've been smashed!\n");
  exit(0);
}
```

```
00000000004006c8 <smash>:
  4006c8:       48 83 ec 08
```

Attack String (Hex)

```
30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 30 31 32 33
c8 06 40 00 00 00 00 00
```

Smashing String Effect



Target Code

```
void smash() {
  printf("I've been smashed!\n");
  exit(0);
}
```

```
00000000004006c8 <smash>:
  4006c8:        48 83 ec 08
```

Attack String (Hex)

```
30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 30 31 32 33
c8 06 40 00 00 00 00 00
```

Performing Stack Smash

```
linux> cat smash-hex.txt
30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 30 31 32 33 c8 06 40 00 00 00 00 00
linux> cat smash-hex.txt | ./hexify | ./bufdemo-nsp
Type a string:012345678901234567890123?@
I've been smashed!
```

- **Put hex sequence in file smash-hex.txt**
- **Use hexify program to convert hex digits to characters**
  - Some of them are non-printing
- **Provide as input to vulnerable program**

```
void smash() {
  printf("I've been smashed!\n");
  exit(0);
}
```

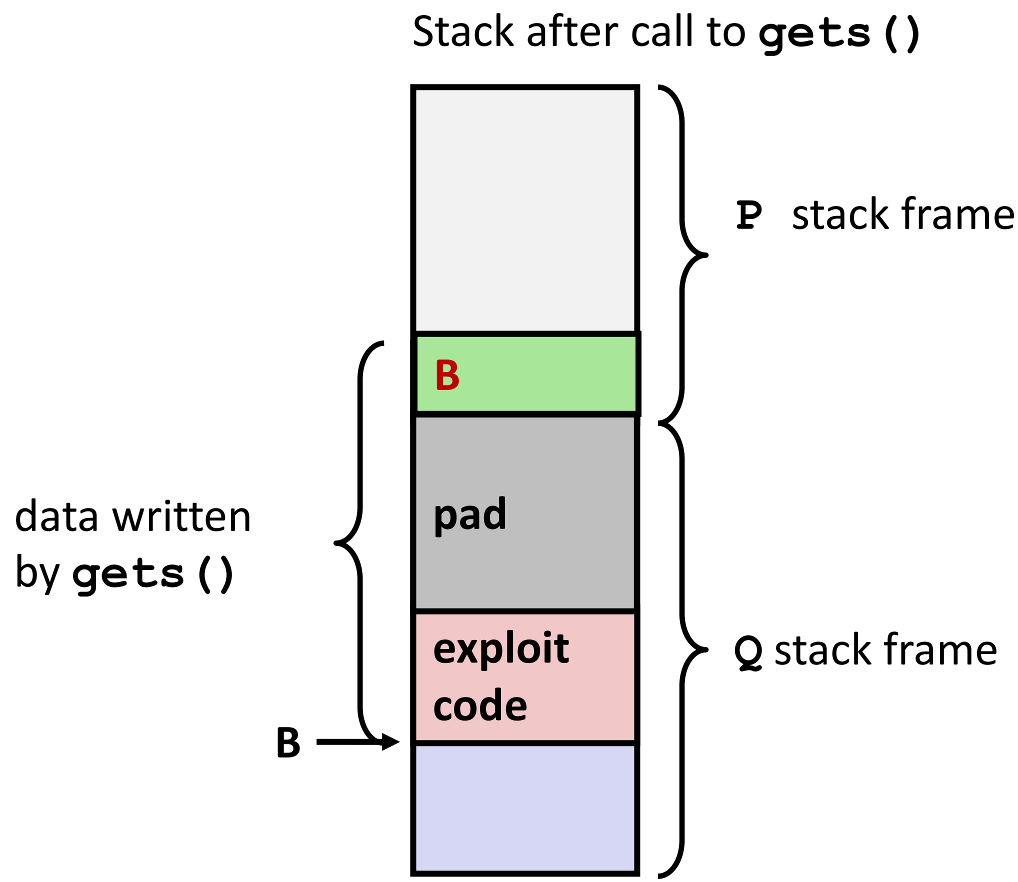
```
30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 30 31 32 33
c8 06 40 00 00 00 00 00
```

Code Injection Attacks

```
void P(){
  Q();
  ...
}
```

return address A

```
int Q() {
  char buf[64];
  gets(buf);
  ...
  return ...;
}
```

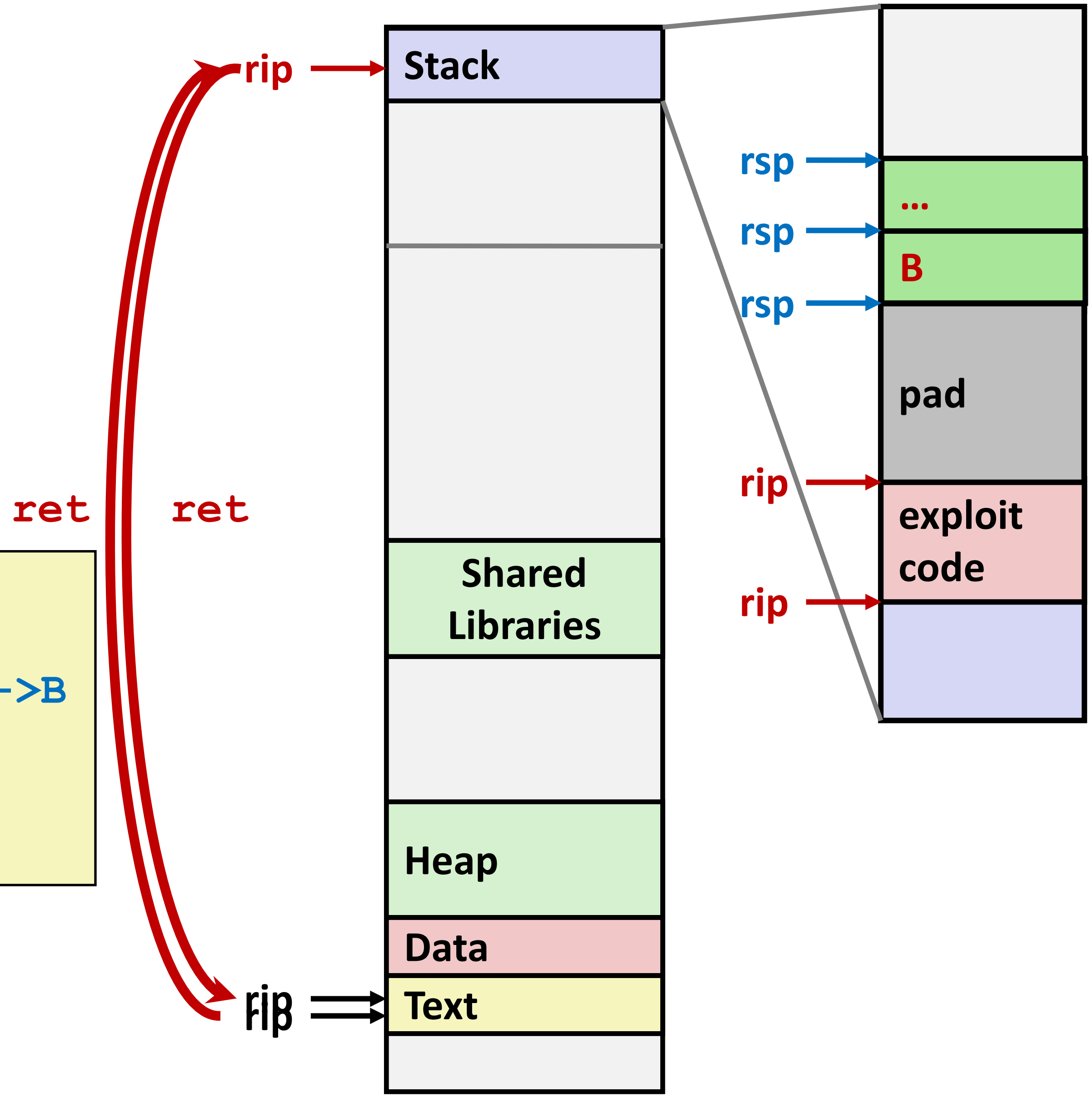


- **Input string contains byte representation of executable code**
- **Overwrite return address A with address of buffer B**
- **When Q executes `ret`, will jump to exploit code**

How Does The Attack Code Execute?

```
void P(){
  Q();
  ...
}
```

```
int Q() {
  char buf[64];
  gets(buf); // A->B
  ...
  return ...;
}
```



What To Do About Buffer Overflow Attacks

- **Avoid overflow vulnerabilities**
- **Employ system-level protections**
- **Have compiler use "stack canaries"**
- **Lets talk about each…**

1. Avoid Overflow Vulnerabilities in Code (!)

```
/* Echo Line */
void echo()
{
    char buf[4];
    fgets(buf, 4, stdin);
    puts(buf);
}
```

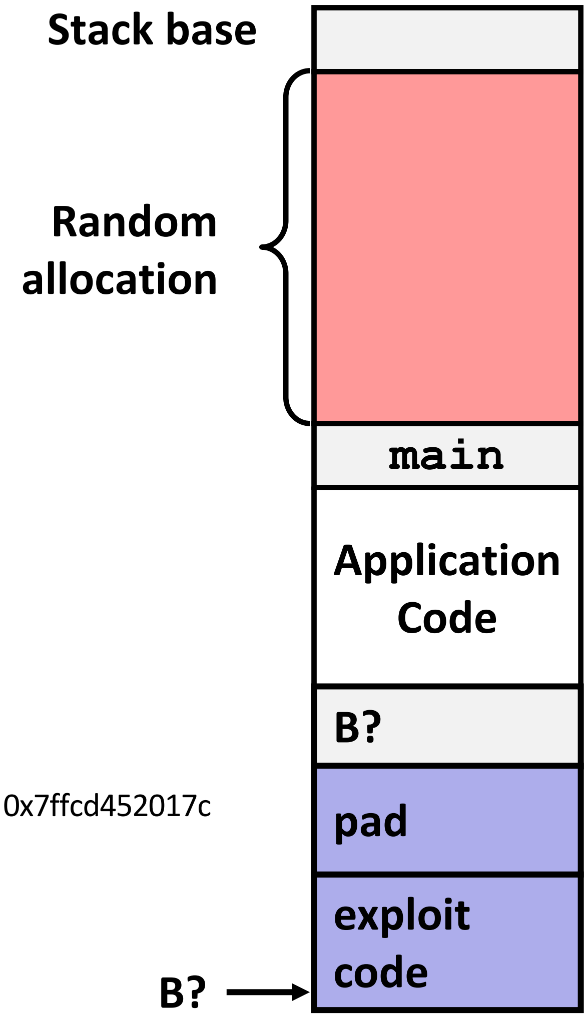
- **For example, use library routines that limit string lengths**
  - **fgets** instead of **gets**
  - **strncpy** instead of **strcpy**
  - Don't use **scanf** with **%s** conversion specification
    - Use **fgets** to read the string
    - Or use **%ns** where **n** is a suitable integer

2. System-Level Protections can help

- **Randomized stack offsets**
  - At start of program, allocate random amount of space on stack
  - Shifts stack addresses for entire program
  - Makes it difficult for hacker to predict beginning of inserted code
  - E.g.: 5 executions of memory allocation code

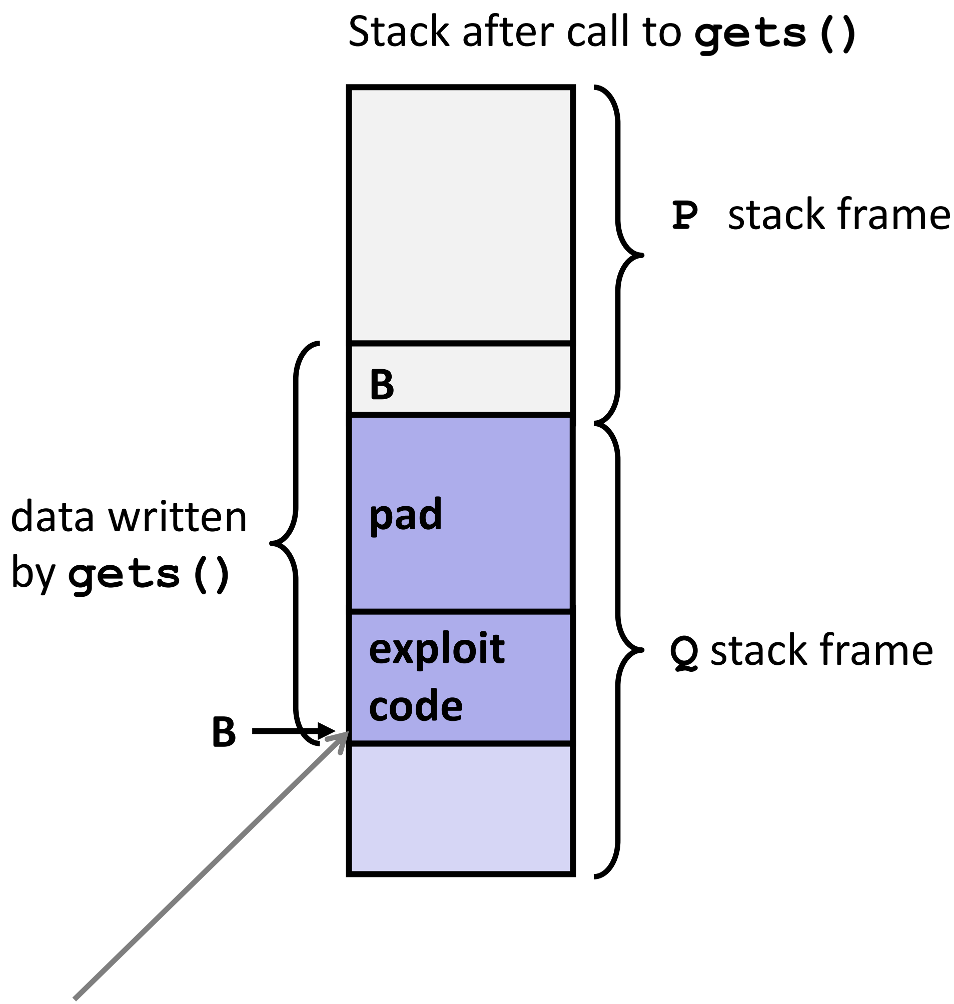
local	0x7ffe4d3be87c	0x7fff75a4f9fc	0x7ffeadb7c80c	0x7ffeaea2fdac	0x7ffcd452017c

  - Stack repositioned each time program executes



2. System-Level Protections can help

- **Nonexecutable code segments**
  - In traditional x86, can mark region of memory as either “read-only” or “writeable”
    - Can execute anything readable
  - x86-64 added explicit “execute” permission
  - Stack marked as non-executable



Any attempt to execute this code will fail

3. Stack Canaries can help

- **Idea**
  - Place special value ("canary") on stack just beyond buffer
  - Check for corruption before exiting function
- **GCC Implementation**
  - `-fstack-protector`
  - Now the default (disabled earlier)

```
unix>./bufdemo-sp
Type a string:0123456
0123456
```

```
unix>./bufdemo-sp
Type a string:012345678
*** stack smashing detected ***
```

Protected Buffer Disassembly

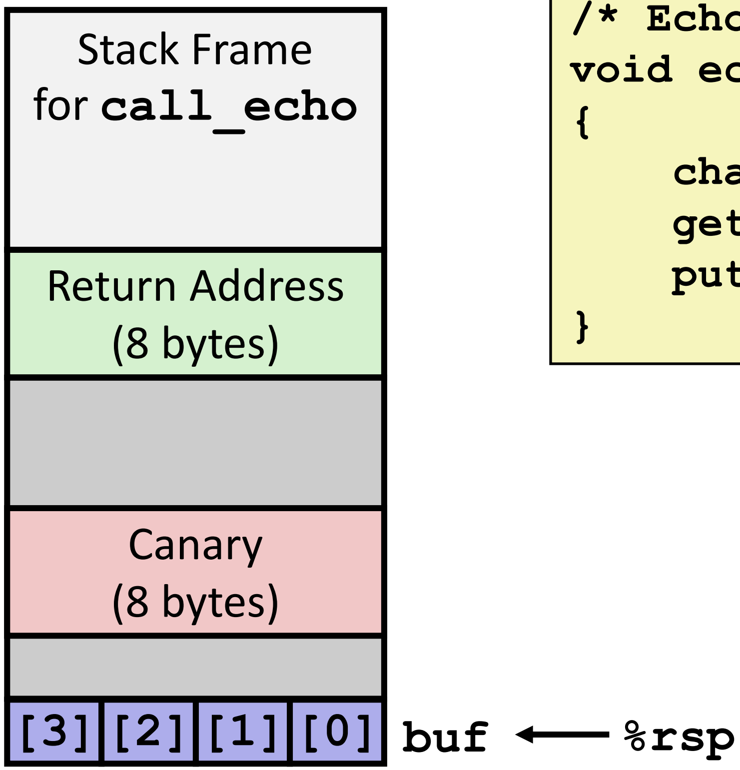
echo:

```
40072f:  sub    $0x18,%rsp
400733:  mov    %fs:0x28,%rax
40073c:  mov    %rax,0x8(%rsp)
400741:  xor    %eax,%eax
400743:  mov    %rsp,%rdi
400746:  callq  4006e0 <gets>
40074b:  mov    %rsp,%rdi
40074e:  callq  400570 <puts@plt>
400753:  mov    0x8(%rsp),%rax
400758:  xor    %fs:0x28,%rax
400761:  je     400768 <echo+0x39>
400763:  callq  400580 <__stack_chk_fail@plt>
400768:  add    $0x18,%rsp
40076c:  retq
```

Aside: `%fs:0x28`
- Read from memory using segmented addressing
- Segment is read-only
- Value generated randomly every time program runs

Setting Up Canary

Before call to gets



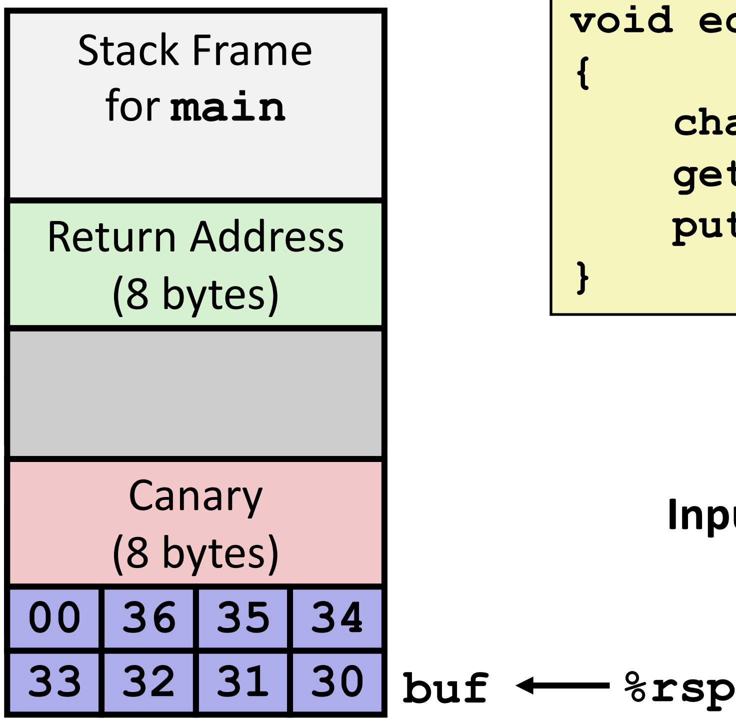

```
/* Echo Line */
void echo()
{
    char buf[4];  /* Way too small! */
    gets(buf);
    puts(buf);
}
```

```
echo:
    . . .
    mov     %fs:0x28, %rax   # Get canary
    mov     %rax, 0x8(%rsp)  # Place on stack
    xor     %eax, %eax       # Erase register
    . . .
```

Checking Canary

After call to ***gets***

```
/* Echo Line */
void echo()
{
    char buf[4];  /* Way too small! */
    gets(buf);
    puts(buf);
}
```



Input: ***0123456***

Some systems:
LSB of canary is 0x00
Allows input 01234567

```
echo:
    . . .
    mov     0x8(%rsp),%rax     # Retrieve from stack
    xor     %fs:0x28,%rax      # Compare to canary
    je      .L6                # If same, OK
    call    __stack_chk_fail   # FAIL
```

Return-Oriented Programming Attacks

- **Challenge (for hackers)**
  - Stack randomization makes it hard to predict buffer location
  - Marking stack nonexecutable makes it hard to insert binary code
- **Alternative Strategy**
  - Use existing code
    - E.g., library code from stdlib
  - String together fragments to achieve overall desired outcome
  - *Does not overcome stack canaries*
- **Construct program from *gadgets***
  - Sequence of instructions ending in **`ret`**
    - Encoded by single byte **`0xc3`**
  - Code positions fixed from run to run
  - Code is executable

Gadget Example #1

```
long ab_plus_c
  (long a, long b, long c)
{
   return a*b + c;
}
```

```
00000000004004d0 <ab_plus_c>:
  4004d0:  48 0f af fe  imul %rsi,%rdi
  4004d4:  48 8d 04 17  lea (%rdi,%rdx,1),%rax
  4004d8:  c3           retq
```

rax ← rdi + rdx

Gadget address = `0x4004d4`

- **Use tail end of existing functions**

Gadget Example #2

```
void setval(unsigned *p) {
    *p = 3347663060u;
}
```

Encodes `movq %rax, %rdi`

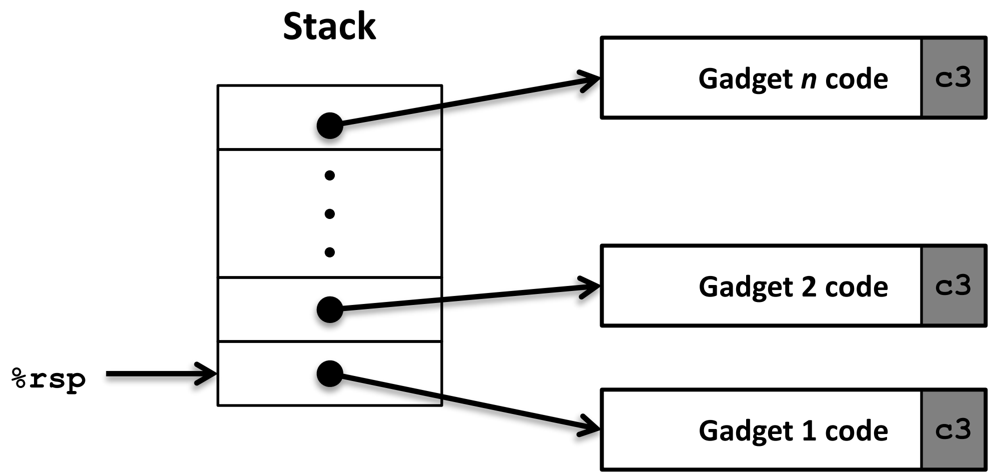
```
<setval>:
  4004d9:  c7 07 d4 48 89 c7  movl  $0xc78948d4,(%rdi)
  4004df:  c3                 retq
```

rdi ← rax

Gadget address = `0x4004dc`

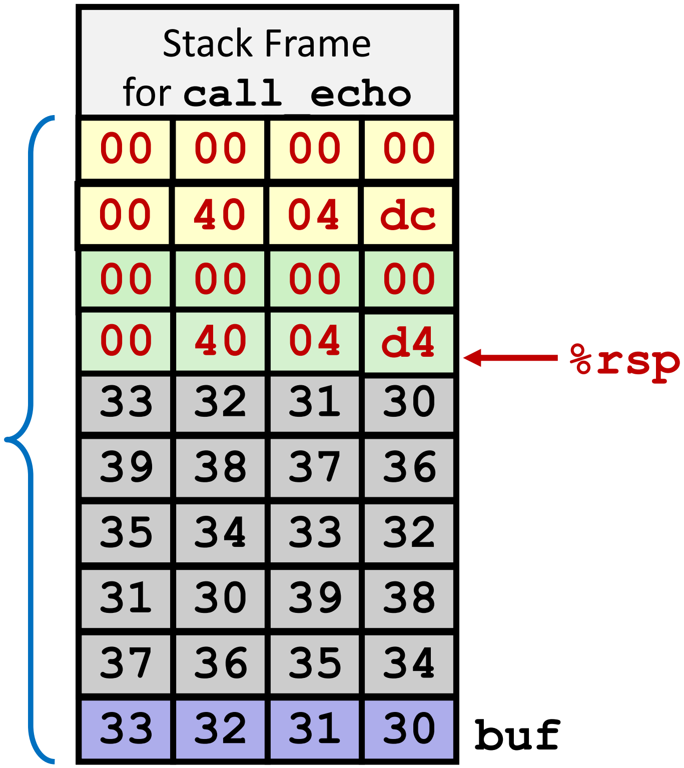
- Repurpose byte codes

ROP Execution



- **Trigger with `ret` instruction**
  - Will start executing Gadget 1
- **Final `ret` in each gadget will start next one**
  - `ret`: pop address from stack and jump to that address

Crafting an ROP Attack String



- **Gadget #1**
  - `0x4004d4` rax ← rdi + rdx
- **Gadget #2**
  - `0x4004dc` rdi ← rax
- **Combination**

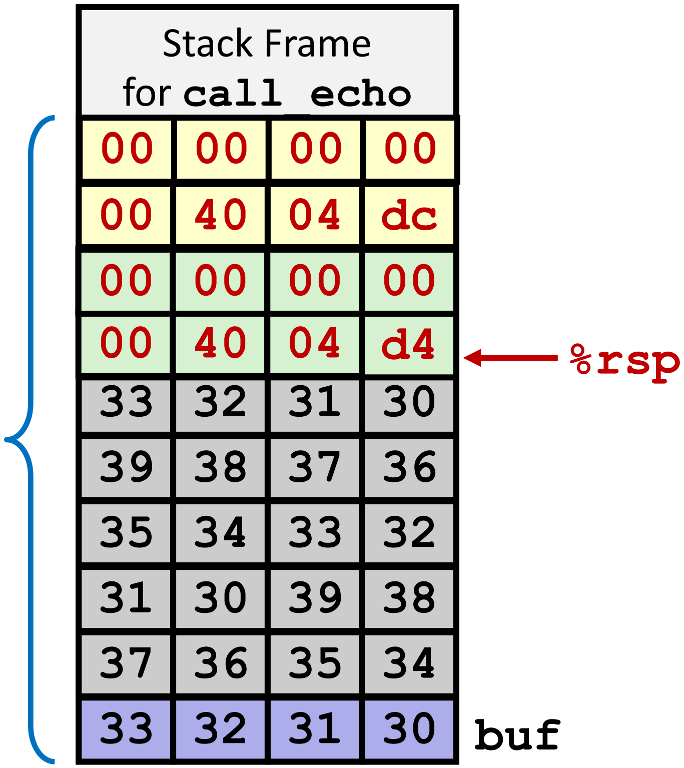
  rdi ← rdi + rdx

Attack String (Hex)

```
30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 30 31 32 33
d4 04 40 00 00 00 00 00 dc 04 40 00 00 00 00 00
```

Multiple gadgets will corrupt stack upwards

What Happens when `echo` returns?



1. Echo executes `ret`
   - Starts Gadget #1
2. Gadget #1 executes `ret`
   - Starts Gadget #2
3. Gadget #2 executes `ret`
   - Goes off somewhere ...

Multiple gadgets will corrupt stack upwards

Summary

- **Memory Layout**
- **Buffer Overflow**
  - Vulnerability
  - Protection
  - Code Injection Attack
  - Return Oriented Programming
- **Unions**

Today

- The memory abstraction
- RAM : main memory building block
- Locality of reference
- The memory hierarchy
- Storage technologies and trends

Writing & Reading Memory

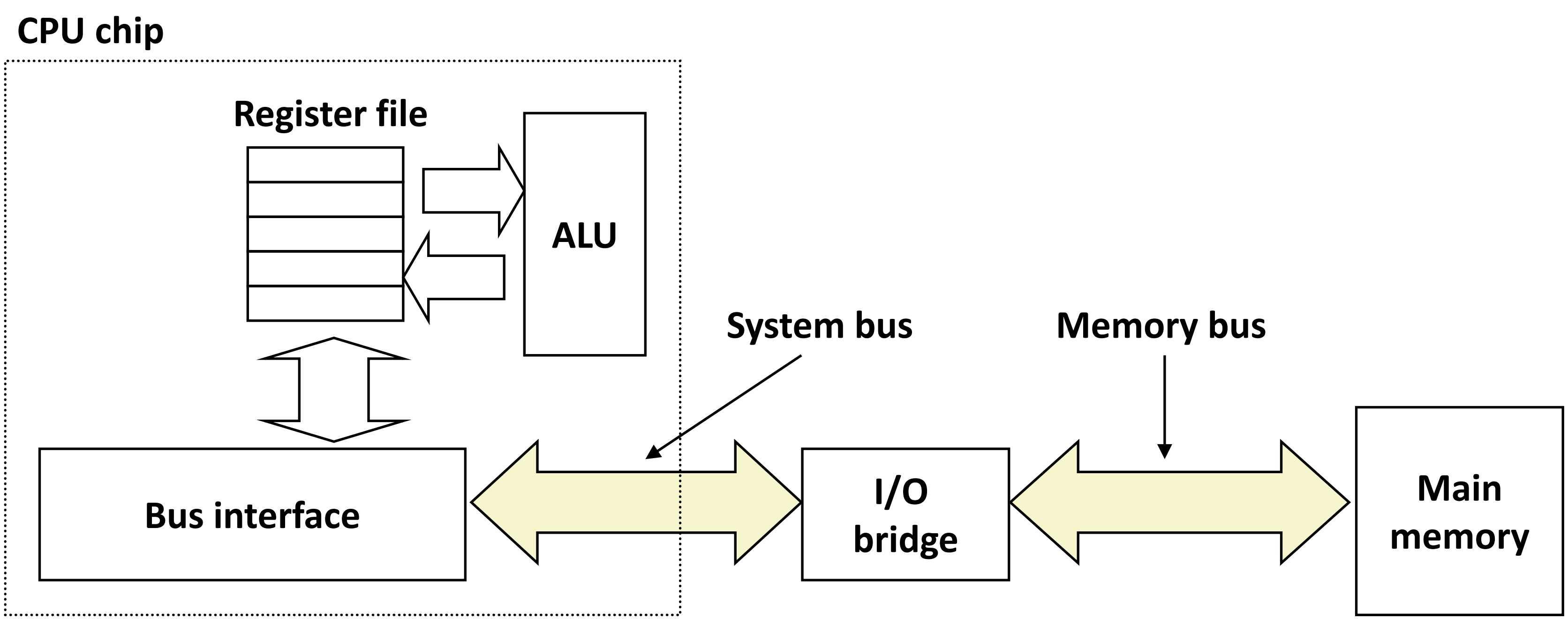
- **Write**
  - Transfer data from CPU to memory
    `movq %rax, 8(%rsp)`
  - “Store” operation

- **Read**
  - Transfer data from memory to CPU
    `movq 8(%rsp), %rax`
  - “Load” operation

From 5th lecture

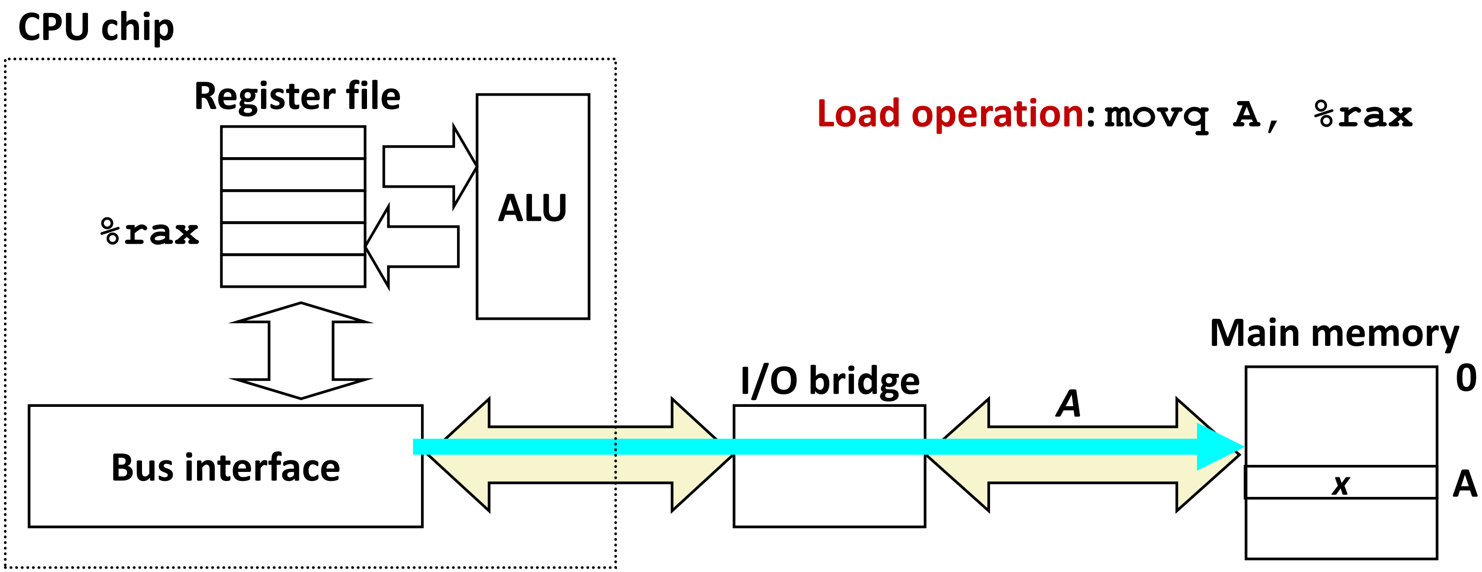
Traditional Bus Structure Connecting CPU and Memory

- A **bus** is a collection of parallel wires that carry address, data, and control signals.
- Buses are typically shared by multiple devices.



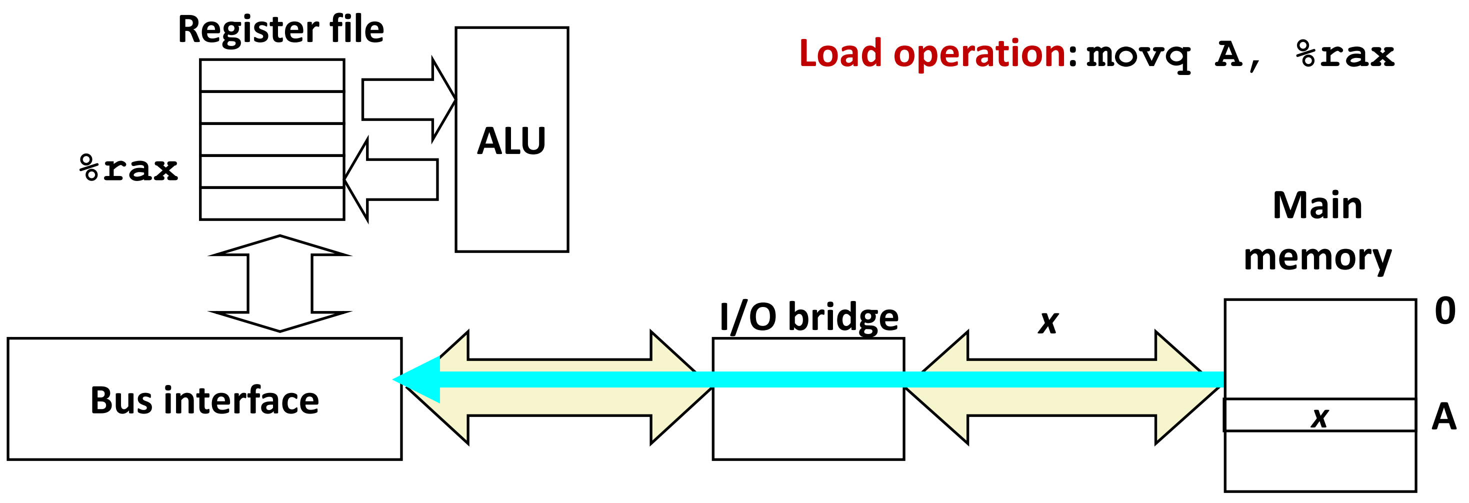
Memory Read Transaction (1)

- CPU places address A on the memory bus.



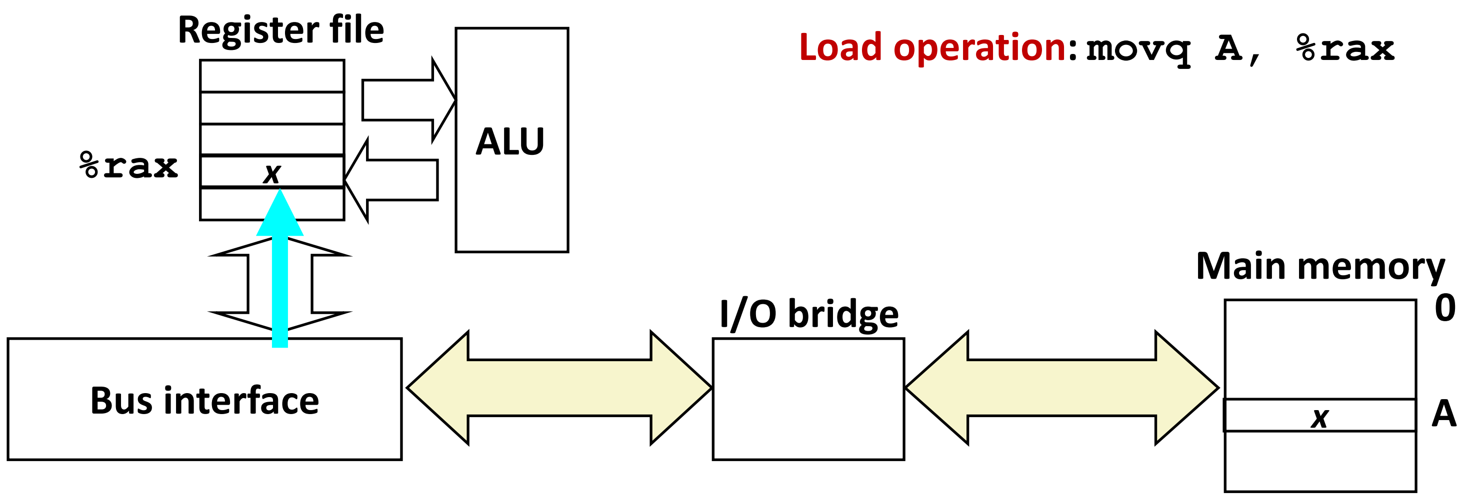
Memory Read Transaction (2)

- Main memory reads A from the memory bus, retrieves word x, and places it on the bus.



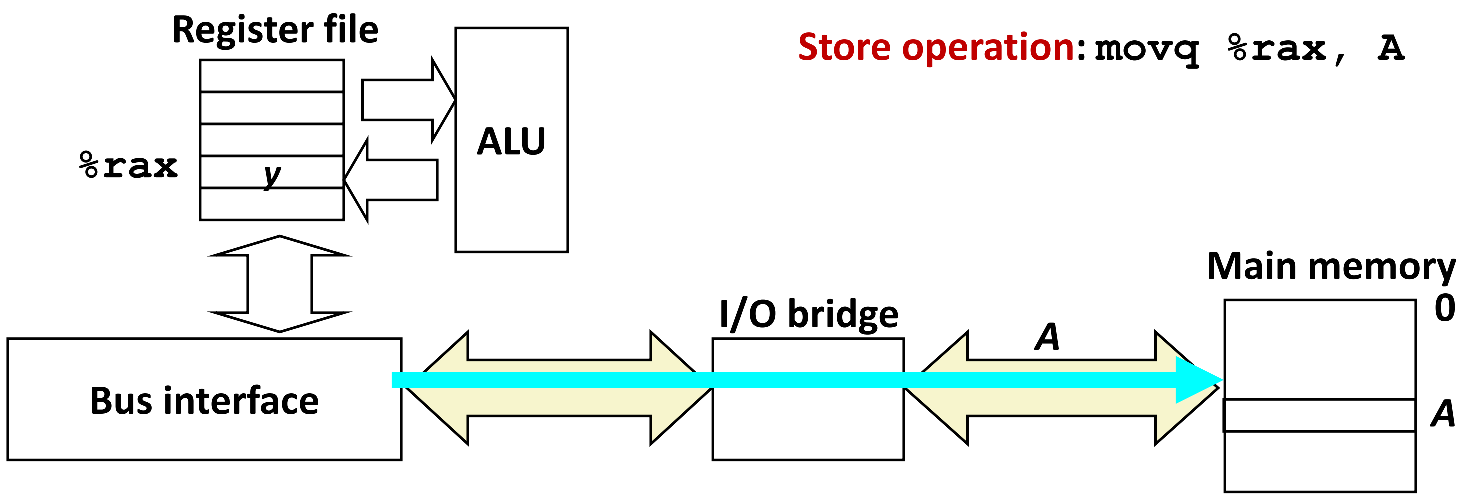
Memory Read Transaction (3)

- CPU read word x from the bus and copies it into register **`%rax`**.



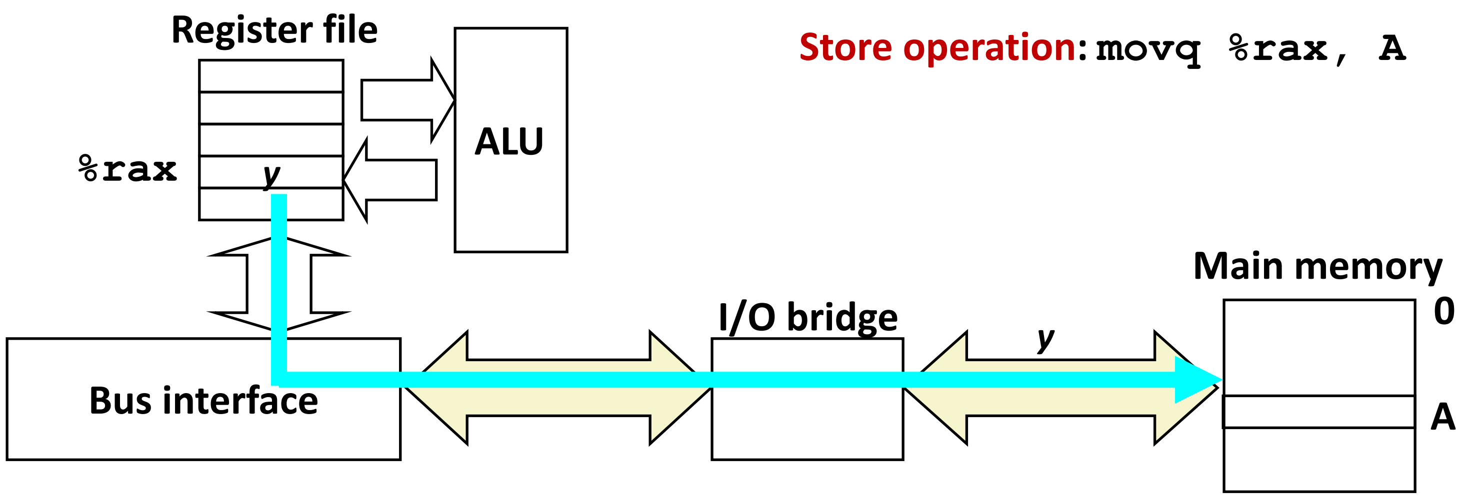
Memory Write Transaction (1)

- CPU places address A on bus. Main memory reads it and waits for the corresponding data word to arrive.



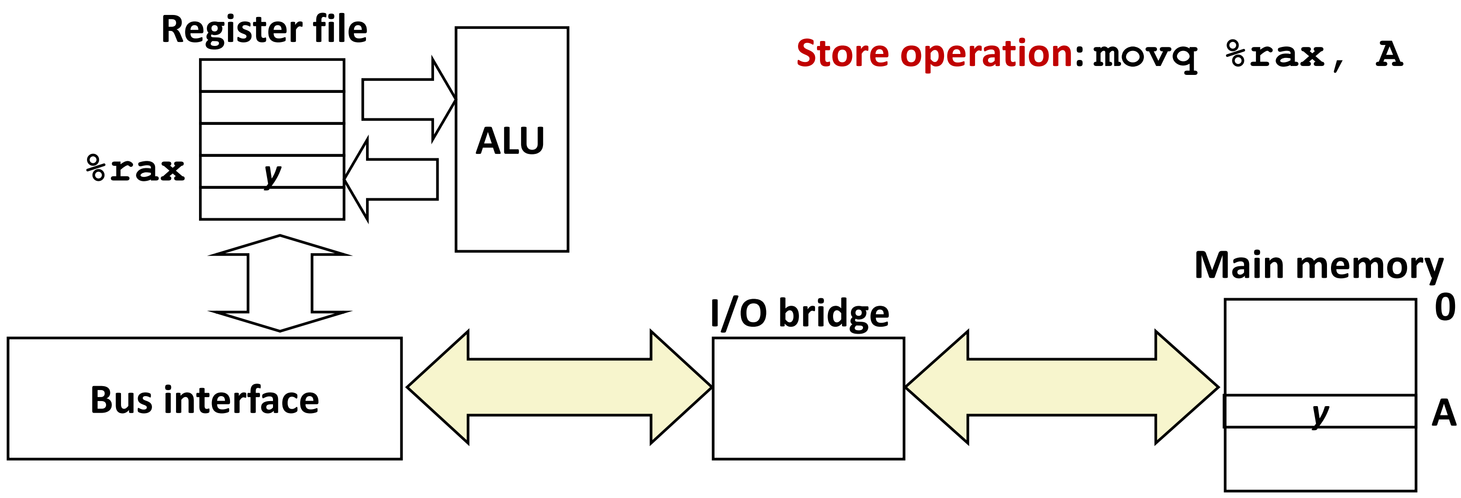
Memory Write Transaction (2)

- CPU places data word y on the bus.



Memory Write Transaction (3)

- Main memory reads data word y from the bus and stores it at address A.



Today

- The memory abstraction
- **RAM : main memory building block**
- Locality of reference
- The memory hierarchy
- Storage technologies and trends

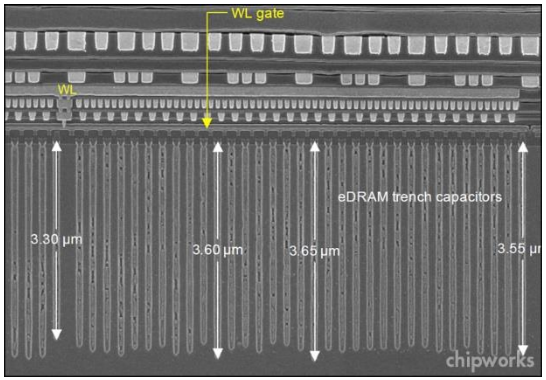
Random-Access Memory (RAM)

- **Key features**
  - RAM is traditionally packaged as a chip.
    - or embedded as part of processor chip
  - Basic storage unit is normally a cell (one bit per cell).
  - Multiple RAM chips form a memory.

- **RAM comes in two varieties:**
  - SRAM (Static RAM)
  - DRAM (Dynamic RAM)

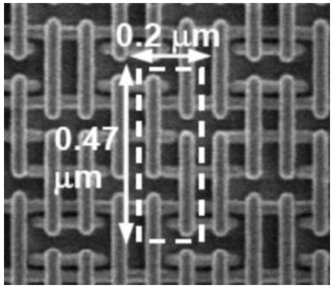
RAM Technologies

- **DRAM**



- **1 Transistor + 1 capacitor / bit**
  - Capacitor oriented vertically
- **Must refresh state periodically**

- **SRAM**



- **6 transistors / bit**
- **Holds state indefinitely (but will still lose data on power loss)**

SRAM vs DRAM Summary

	Trans. per bit	Access time	Needs refresh?	Needs EDC?	Cost	Applications
SRAM	6 or 8	1x	No	Maybe	100x	Cache memories
DRAM	1	10x	Yes	Yes	1x	Main memories, frame buffers

EDC: Error detection and correction

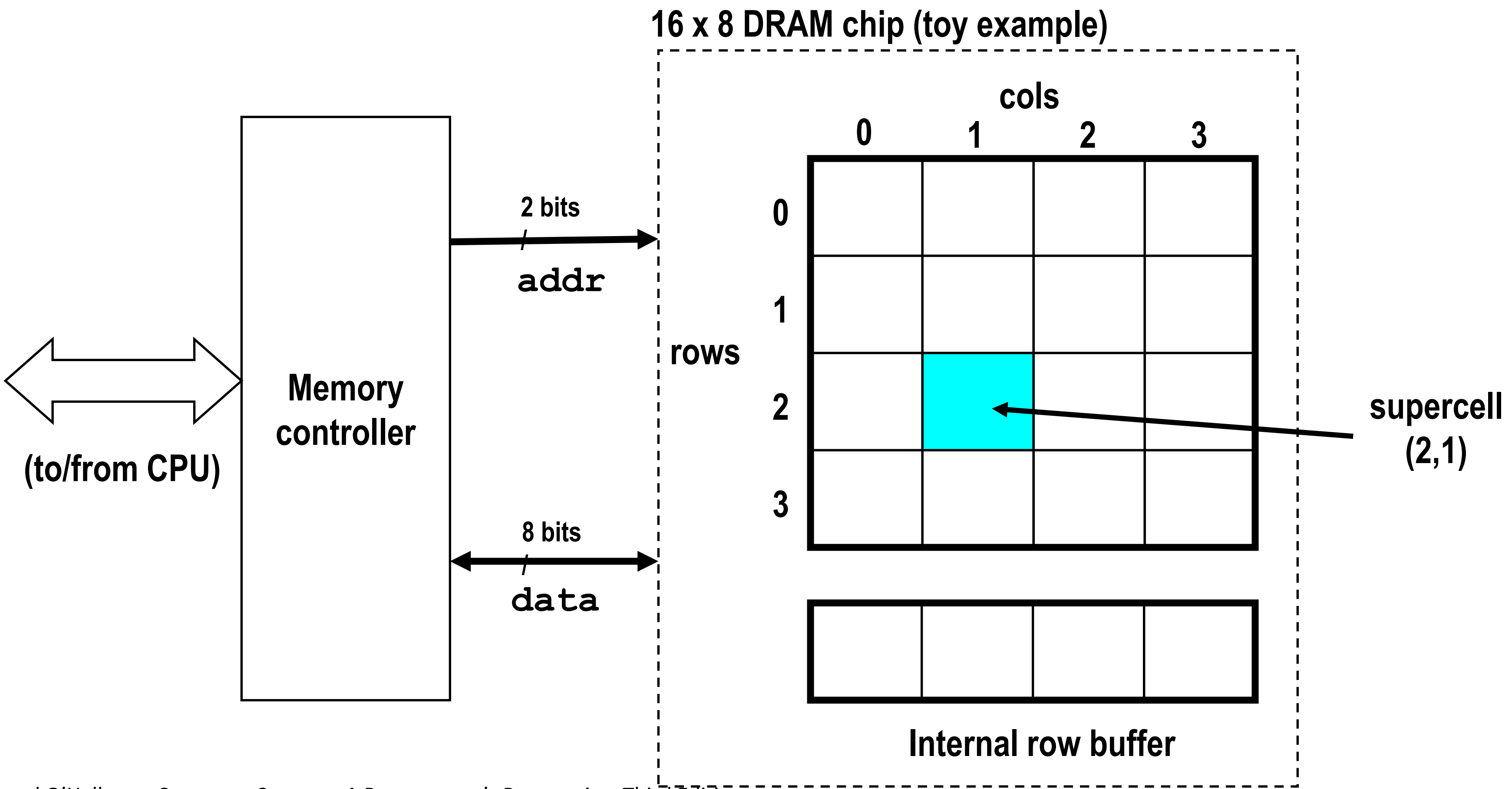
- **Trends**
  - SRAM scales with semiconductor technology
    - Reaching its limits
  - DRAM scaling limited by need for minimum capacitance
    - Aspect ratio limits how deep can make capacitor
    - Also reaching its limits

Enhanced DRAMs

- **Operation of DRAM cell has not changed since its invention**
  - Commercialized by Intel in 1970.
- **DRAM cores with better interface logic and faster I/O :**
  - Synchronous DRAM (SDRAM)
    - Uses a conventional clock signal instead of asynchronous control
  - Double data-rate synchronous DRAM (DDR SDRAM)
    - Double edge clocking sends two bits per cycle per pin
    - Different types distinguished by size of small prefetch buffer:
      - DDR (2 bits), DDR2 (4 bits), DDR3 (8 bits), DDR4 (16 bits)
    - By 2010, standard for most server and desktop systems
    - Intel Core i7 supports DDR3 and DDR4 SDRAM

Conventional DRAM Organization

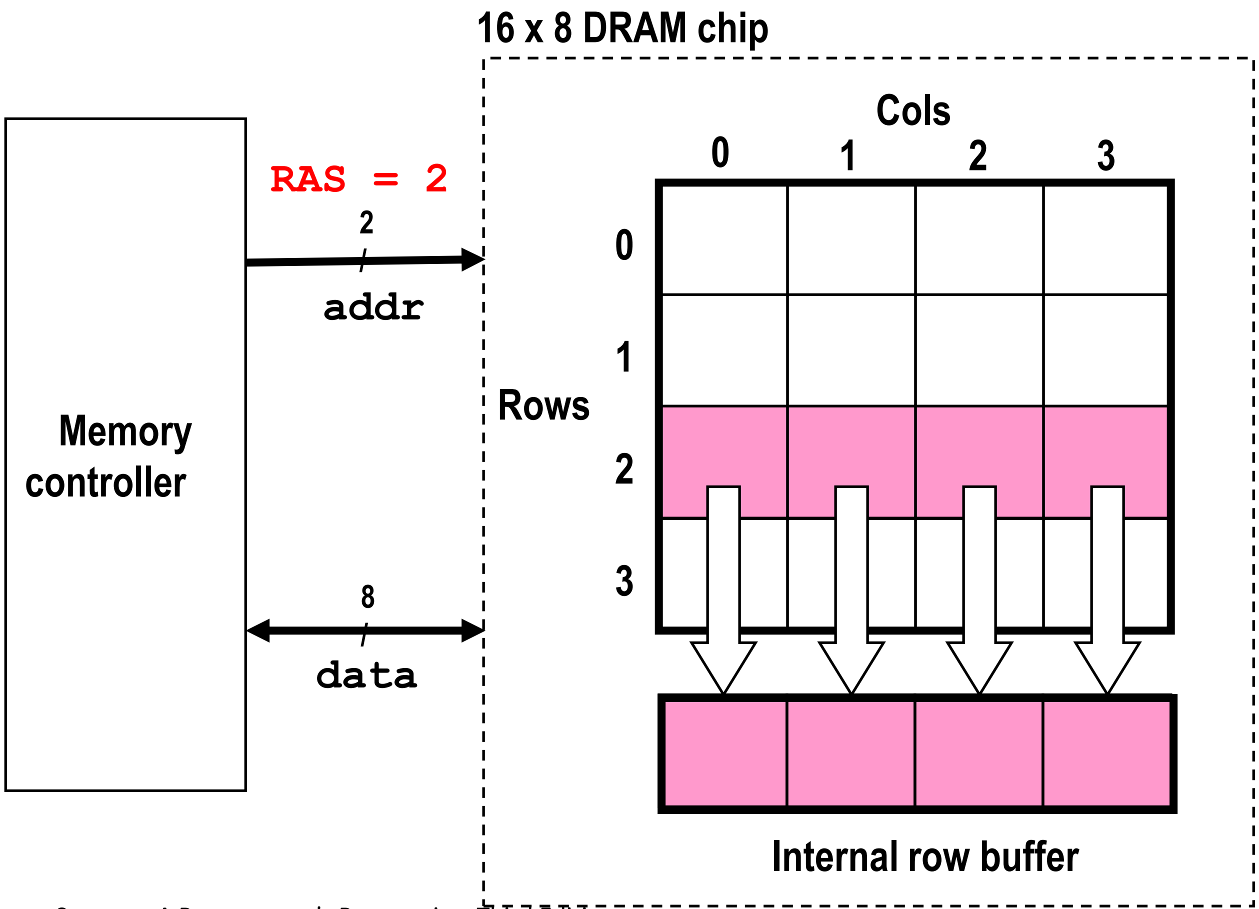
- ***d*** **x *w* DRAM:**
  - $d \cdot w$ total bits organized as d supercells of size w bits



Reading DRAM Supercell (2,1)

Step 1(a): Row access strobe (RAS) selects row 2.

Step 1(b): Row 2 copied from DRAM array to row buffer.

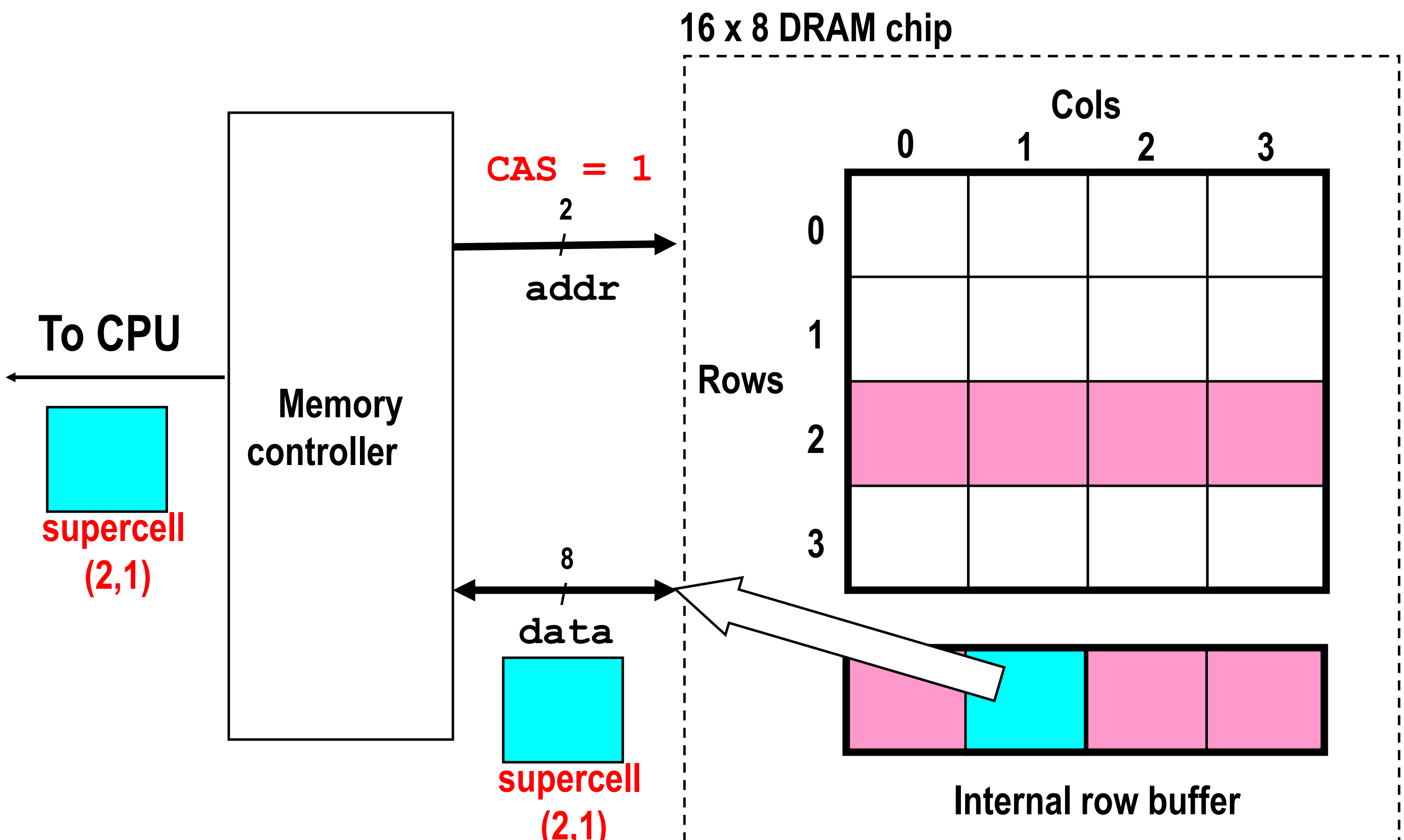


Reading DRAM Supercell (2,1)

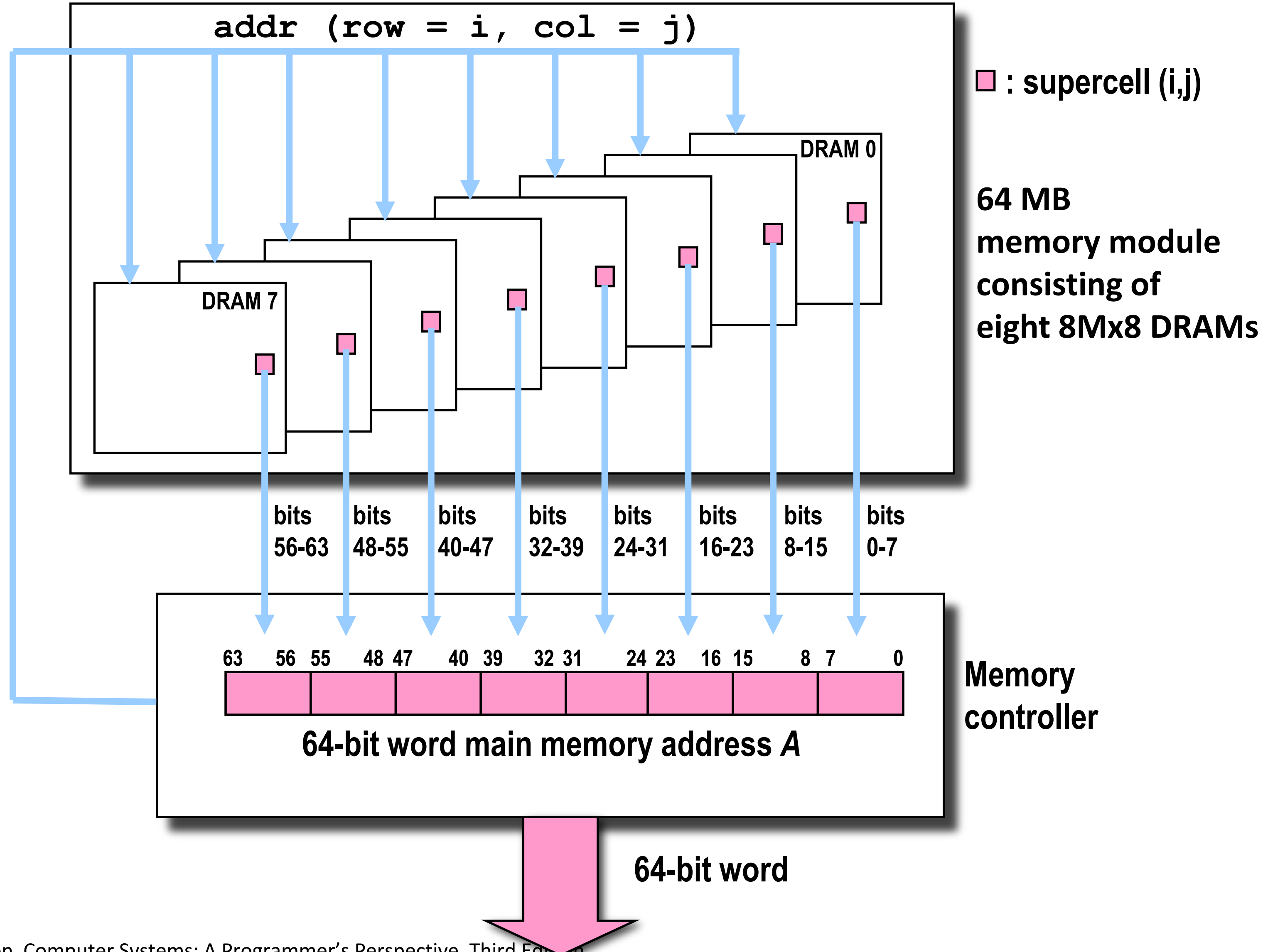
Step 2(a): Column access strobe (CAS) selects column 1.

Step 2(b): Supercell (2,1) copied from buffer to data lines, and eventually back to the CPU.

Step 3: All data written back to row to provide refresh



Memory Modules

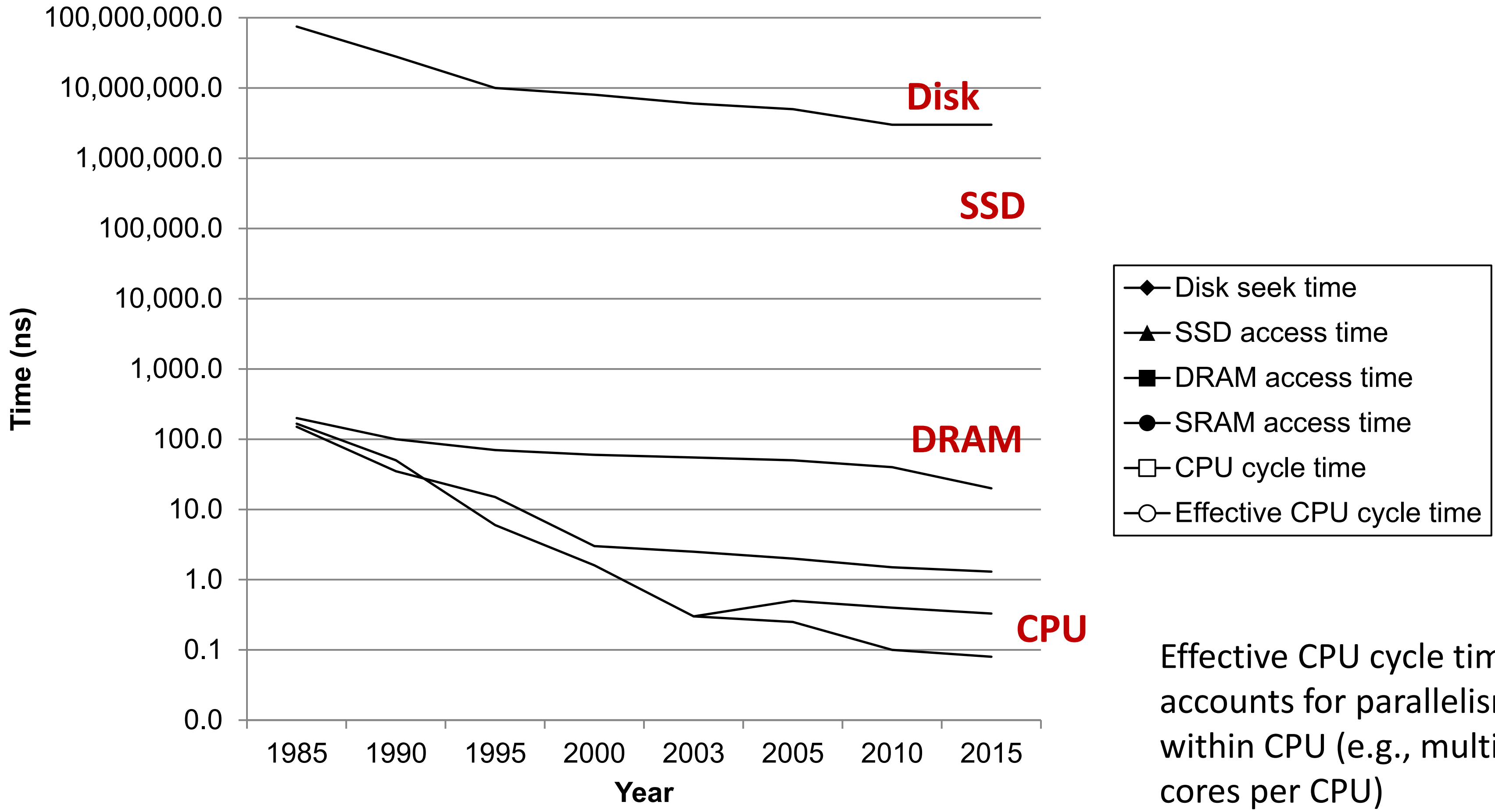


Today

- The memory Abstraction
- DRAM : main memory building block
- **Locality of reference**
- The memory hierarchy
- Storage technologies and trends

The CPU-Memory Gap

The gap *widens* between DRAM, disk, and CPU speeds.



Effective CPU cycle time: accounts for parallelism within CPU (e.g., multiple cores per CPU)

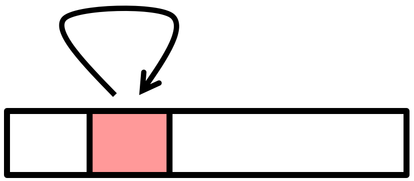
Locality to the Rescue!

The key to bridging this CPU-Memory gap is a fundamental property of computer programs known as **locality.**

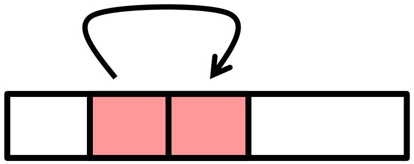
Locality

- **Principle of Locality: Programs tend to use data and instructions with addresses near or equal to those they have used recently**

- **Temporal locality:**
  - Recently referenced items are likely to be referenced again in the near future



- **Spatial locality:**
  - Items with nearby addresses tend to be referenced close together in time



Locality Example

```
sum = 0;
for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
    sum += a[i];
return sum;
```

Spatial or Temporal Locality?

- **Data references**
  - Reference array elements in succession (**stride-1 reference pattern**). — spatial
  - Reference variable **`sum`** each iteration. — temporal
- **Instruction references**
  - Reference instructions in sequence. — spatial
  - Cycle through loop repeatedly. — temporal

Qualitative Estimates of Locality

- **Claim:** Being able to look at code and get a qualitative sense of its locality is a key skill for a professional programmer.
- **Question:** Does this function have good locality with respect to array a?

```
int sum_array_rows(int a[M][N])
{
    int i, j, sum = 0;

    for (i = 0; i < M; i++)
        for (j = 0; j < N; j++)
            sum += a[i][j];
    return sum;
}
```

Hint: array layout is row-major order

Answer: yes
Stride-1 reference pattern

a [0] [0]	• • •	a [0] [N-1]	a [1] [0]	• • •	a [1] [N-1]	• • •	a [M-1] [0]	• • •	a [M-1] [N-1]

Locality Example

- **Question:** Does this function have good locality with respect to array a?

```
int sum_array_cols(int a[M][N])
{
    int i, j, sum = 0;

    for (j = 0; j < N; j++)
        for (i = 0; i < M; i++)
            sum += a[i][j];
    return sum;
}
```

Answer: no

Stride N reference pattern

Note: If M is very small then good locality. Why?

a [0] [0]	• • •	a [0] [N-1]	a [1] [0]	• • •	a [1] [N-1]	• • •	a [M-1] [0]	• • •	a [M-1] [N-1]

Locality Example

- **Question: Can you permute the loops so that the function scans the 3-d array a with a stride-1 reference pattern (and thus has good spatial locality)?**

```
int sum_array_3d(int a[M][N][N])
{
    int i, j, k, sum = 0;

    for (i = 0; i < N; i++)
        for (j = 0; j < N; j++)
            for (k = 0; k < M; k++)
                sum += a[k][i][j];
    return sum;
}
```

```
$ time ./loopijk

real    0m2.765s
user    0m2.328s
sys     0m0.422s


$ time ./loopkij

real    0m1.651s
user    0m1.234s
sys     0m0.422s
```

Answer: make j the inner loop

Today

- The memory abstraction
- DRAM : main memory building block
- Locality of reference
- **The memory hierarchy**
- Storage technologies and trends

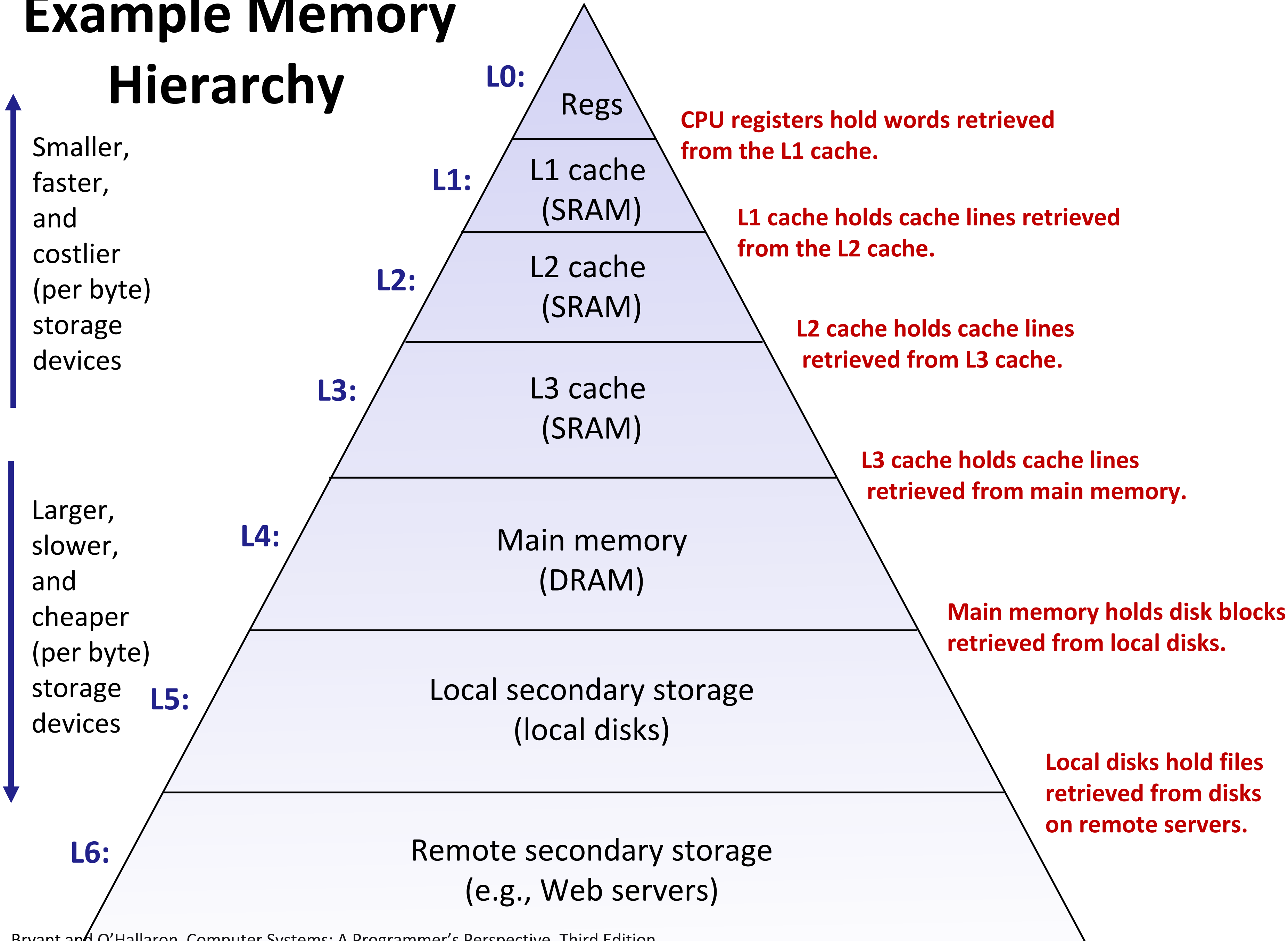
Memory Hierarchies

- **Some fundamental and enduring properties of hardware and software:**
  - Fast storage technologies cost more per byte, have less capacity, and require more power (heat!).
  - The gap between CPU and main memory speed is widening.
  - Well-written programs tend to exhibit good locality.

- **These fundamental properties complement each other beautifully.**

- **They suggest an approach for organizing memory and storage systems known as a memory hierarchy.**

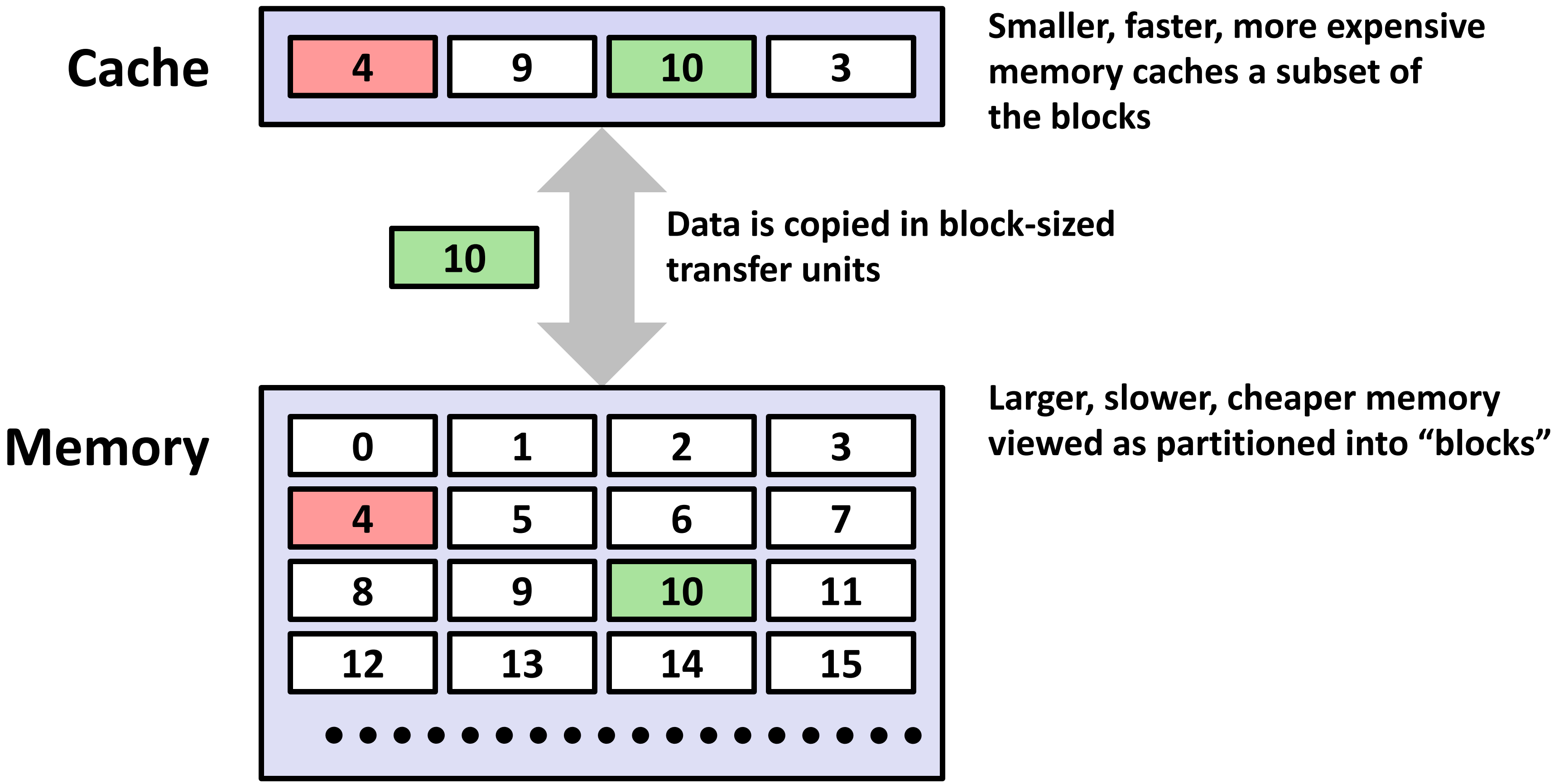
Example Memory Hierarchy



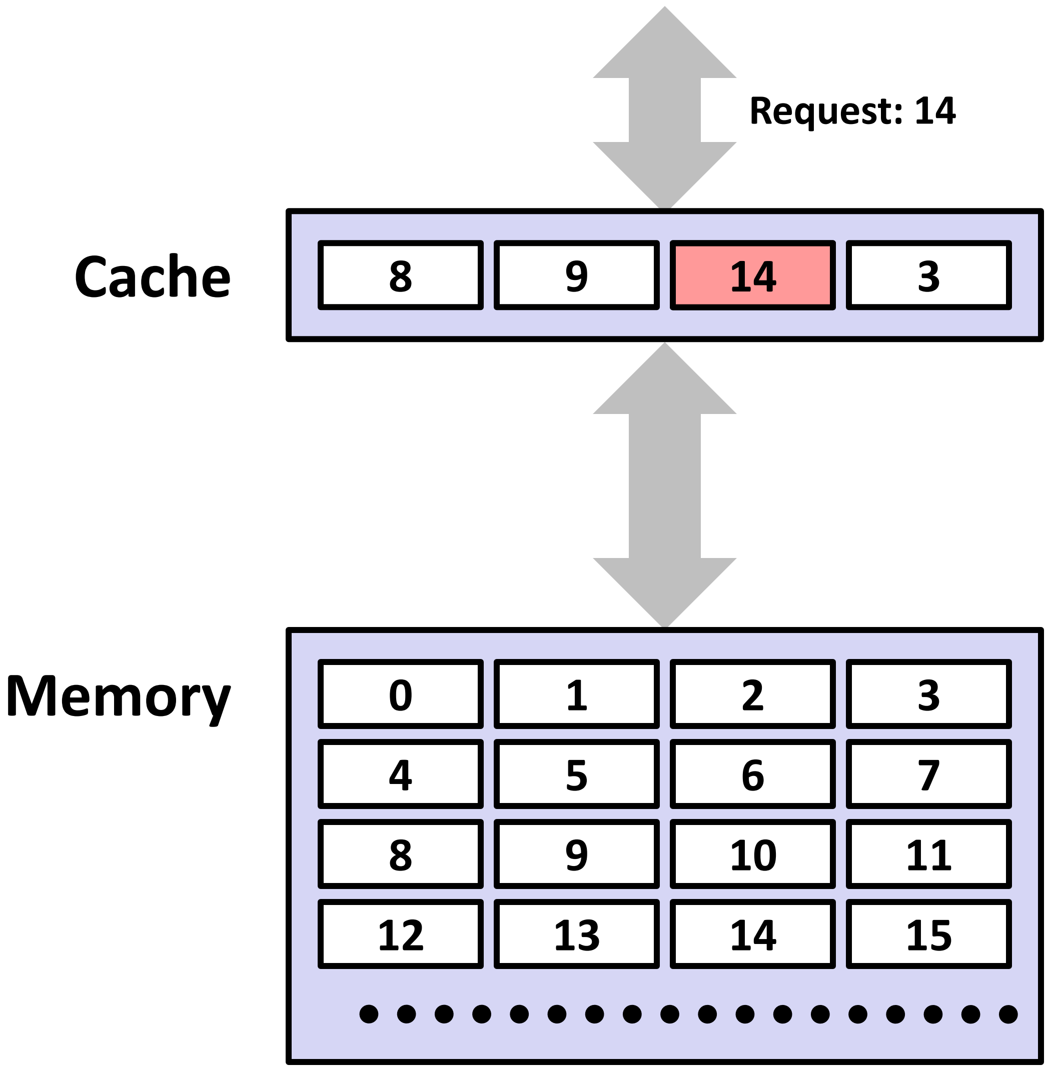
Caches

- *Cache:* **A smaller, faster storage device that acts as a staging area for a subset of the data in a larger, slower device.**
- **Fundamental idea of a memory hierarchy:**
  - For each k, the faster, smaller device at level k serves as a cache for the larger, slower device at level k+1.
- **Why do memory hierarchies work?**
  - Because of locality, programs tend to access the data at level k more often than they access the data at level k+1.
  - Thus, the storage at level k+1 can be slower, and thus larger and cheaper per bit.
- *Big Idea (Ideal):* **The memory hierarchy creates a large pool of storage that costs as much as the cheap storage near the bottom, but that serves data to programs at the rate of the fast storage near the top.**

General Cache Concepts



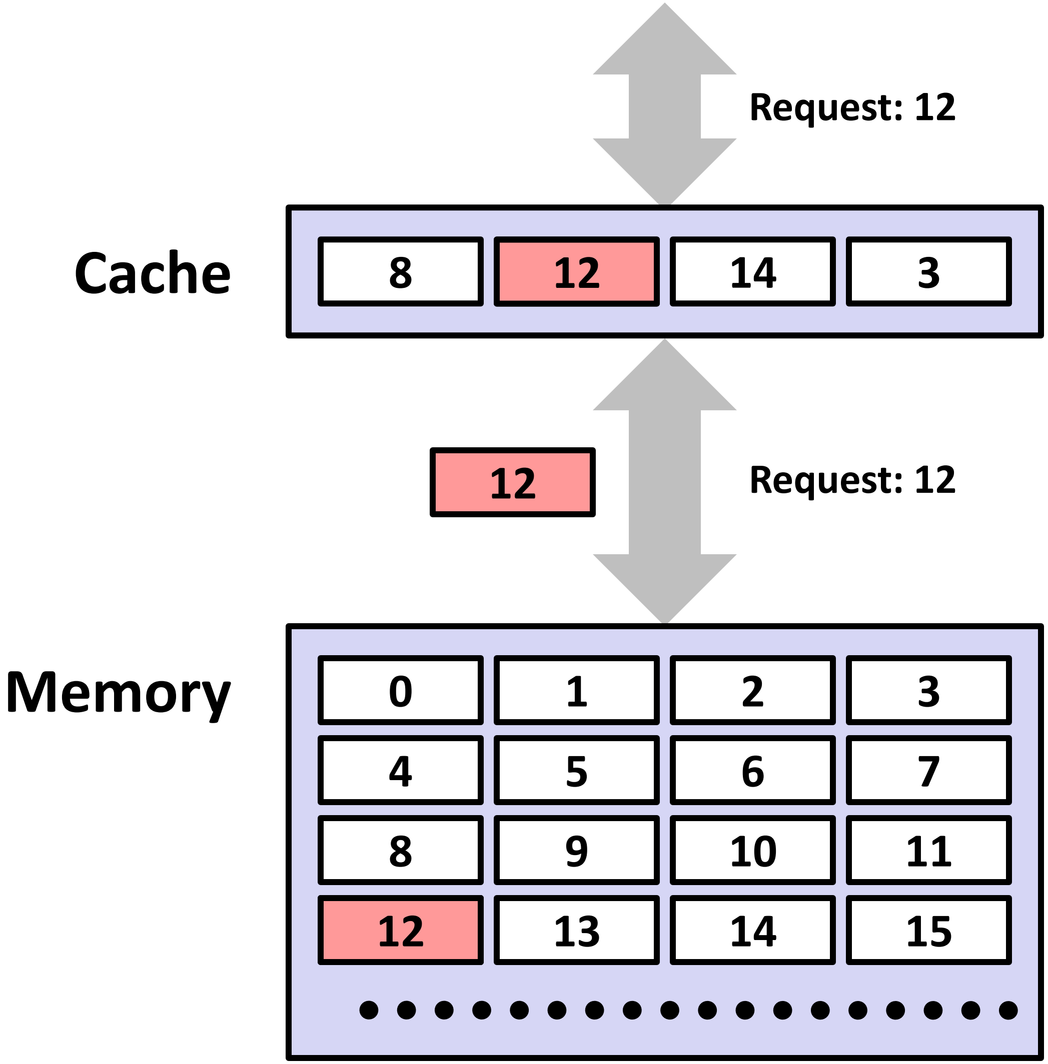
General Cache Concepts: Hit



Data in block b is needed

Block b is in cache:
Hit!

General Cache Concepts: Miss



Data in block b is needed

Block b is not in cache:
Miss!

Block b is fetched from memory

Block b is stored in cache

- Placement policy: determines where b goes
- Replacement policy: determines which block gets evicted (victim)

Impact of spatial locality on number of misses?

General Caching Concepts: 3 Types of Cache Misses

- **Cold (compulsory) miss**
  - Cold misses occur because the cache starts empty and this is the first reference to the block.
- **Capacity miss**
  - Occurs when the set of active cache blocks (working set) is larger than the cache.
- **Conflict miss**
  - Most caches limit blocks at level k+1 to a small subset (sometimes a singleton) of the block positions at level k.
    - E.g. Block i at level k+1 must be placed in block (i mod 4) at level k.
  - Conflict misses occur when the level k cache is large enough, but multiple data objects all map to the same level k block.
    - E.g. Referencing blocks 0, 8, 0, 8, 0, 8, ... would miss every time.

Examples of Caching in the Mem. Hierarchy

Cache Type	What is Cached?	Where is it Cached?	Latency (cycles)	Managed By
Registers	4-8 byte words	CPU core	0	Compiler
TLB	Address translations	On-Chip TLB	0	Hardware MMU
L1 cache	64-byte blocks	On-Chip L1	4	Hardware
L2 cache	64-byte blocks	On-Chip L2	10	Hardware
Virtual Memory	4-KB pages	Main memory	100	Hardware + OS
Buffer cache	Parts of files	Main memory	100	OS
Disk cache	Disk sectors	Disk controller	100,000	Disk firmware
Network buffer cache	Parts of files	Local disk	10,000,000	NFS client
Browser cache	Web pages	Local disk	10,000,000	Web browser
Web cache	Web pages	Remote server disks	1,000,000,000	Web proxy server

Today

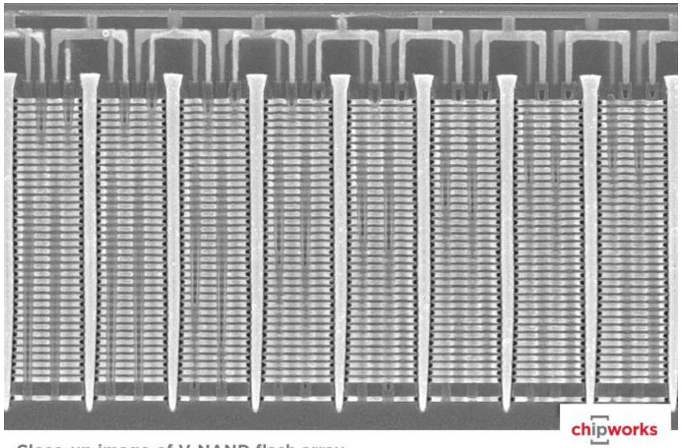
- The memory abstraction
- RAM : main memory building block
- Locality of reference
- The memory hierarchy
- **Storage technologies and trends**

Storage Technologies

- Magnetic Disks

- Store on magnetic medium
- Electromechanical access

- Nonvolatile (Flash) Memory



Close-up image of V-NAND flash array

- Store as persistent charge
- Implemented with 3-D structure
  - 100+ levels of cells
  - 3 bits data per cell

What's Inside A Disk Drive?

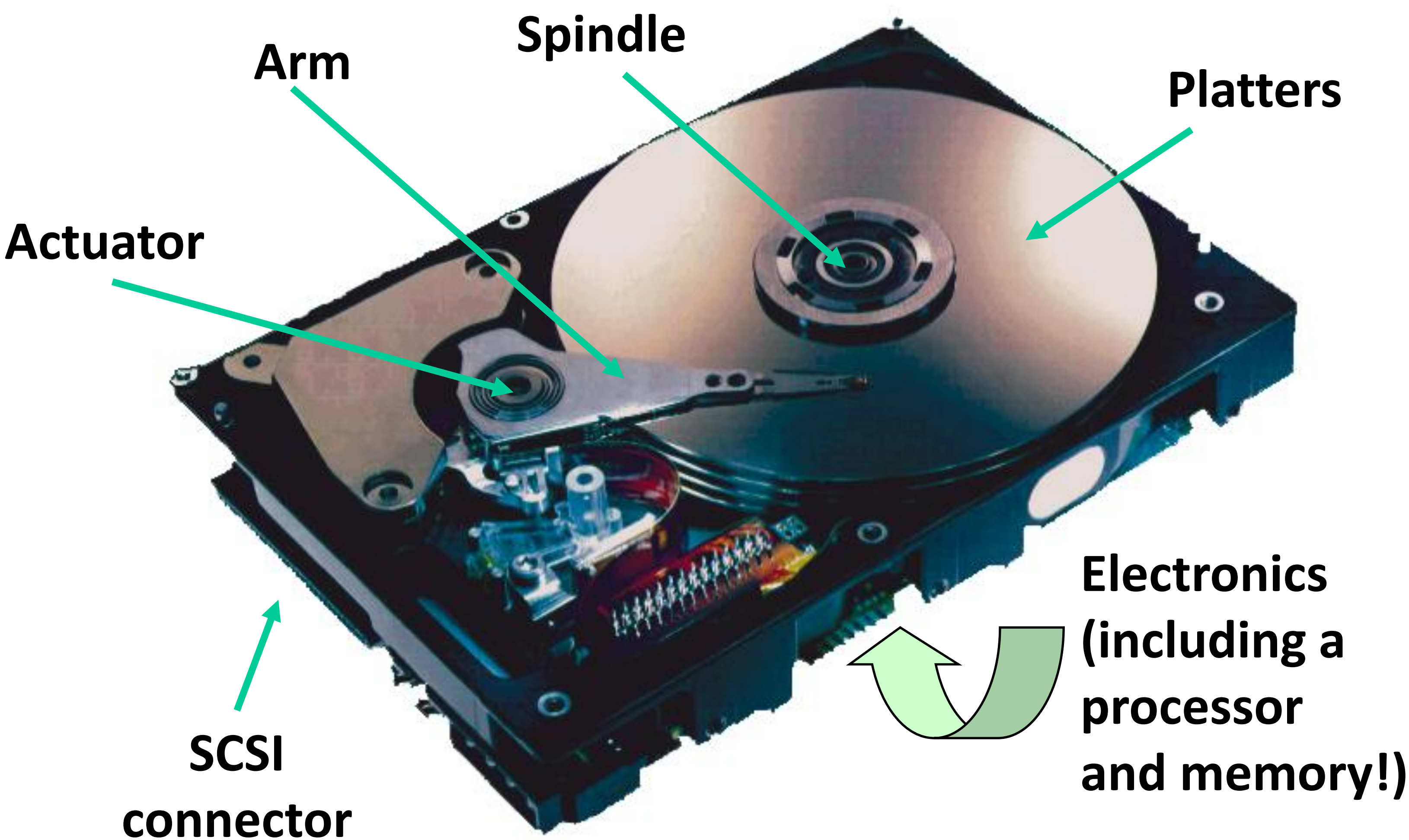
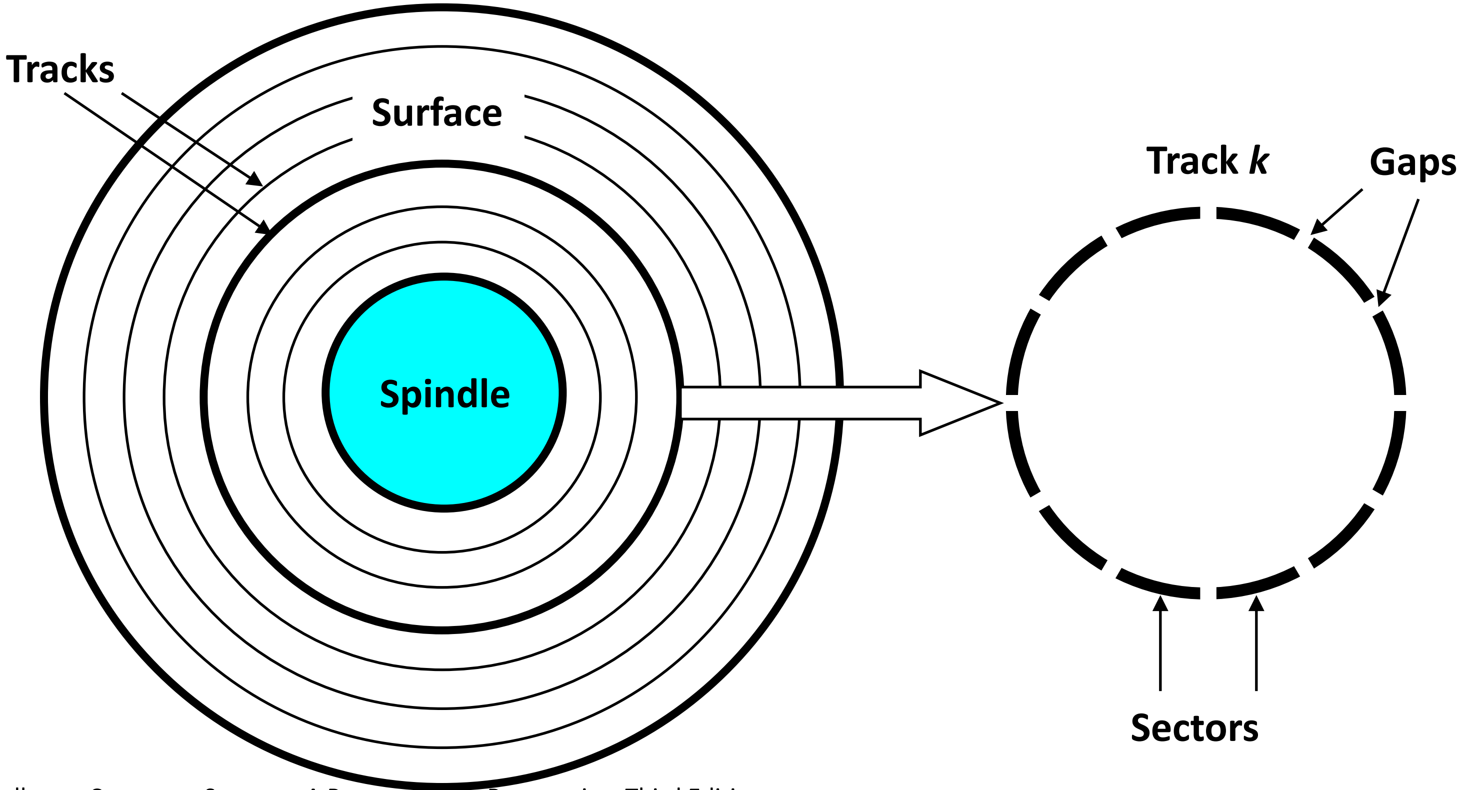


Image courtesy of Seagate Technology

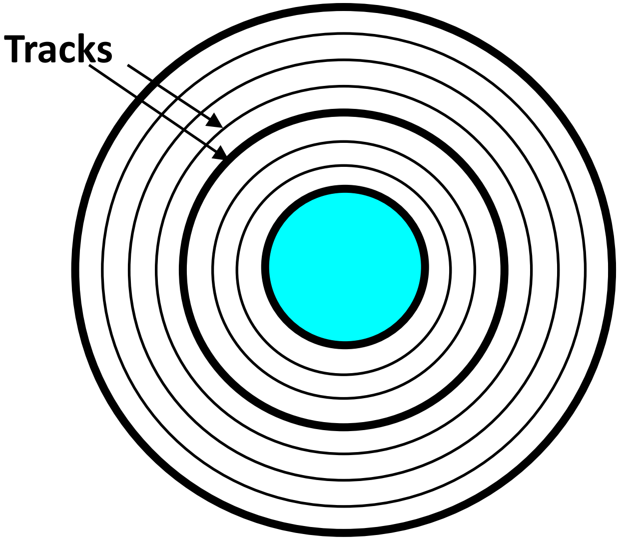
Disk Geometry

- Disks consist of **platters**, each with two **surfaces**.
- Each surface consists of concentric rings called **tracks**.
- Each track consists of **sectors** separated by **gaps**.



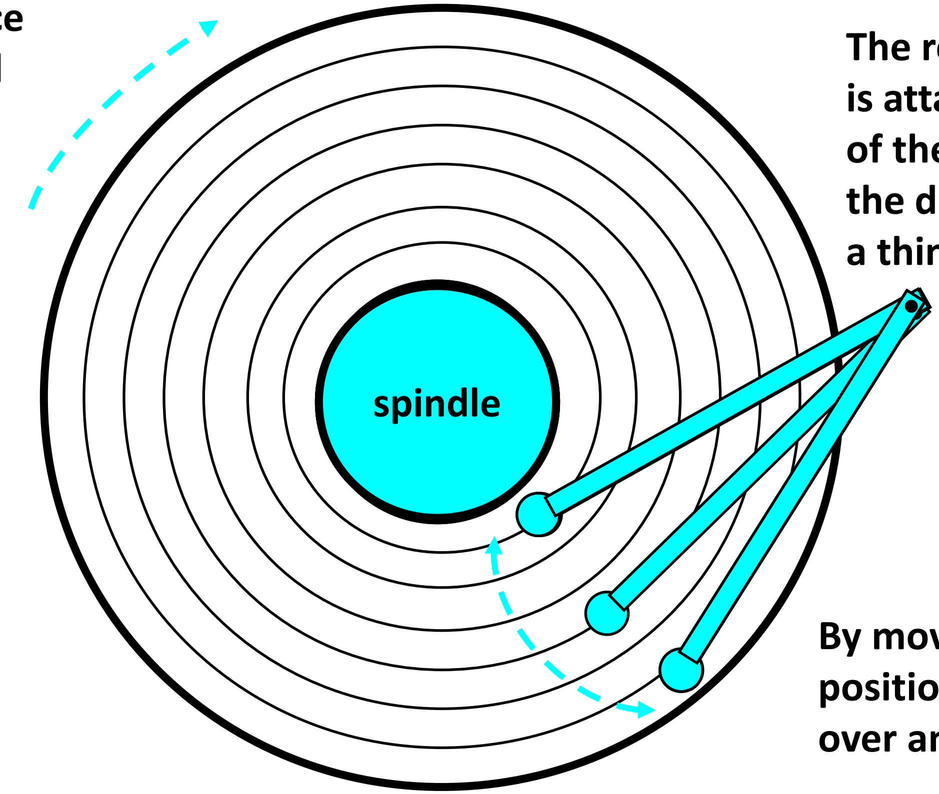
Disk Capacity

- **Capacity: maximum number of bits that can be stored.**
  - Vendors express capacity in units of gigabytes (GB) or terabytes (TB), where 1 GB = 10^9 Bytes and 1 TB = 10^{12} Bytes
- **Capacity is determined by these technology factors:**
  - Recording density (bits/in): number of bits that can be squeezed into a 1 inch segment of a track.
  - Track density (tracks/in): number of tracks that can be squeezed into a 1 inch radial segment.
  - Areal density (bits/in^2): product of recording and track density.



Disk Operation (Single-Platter View)

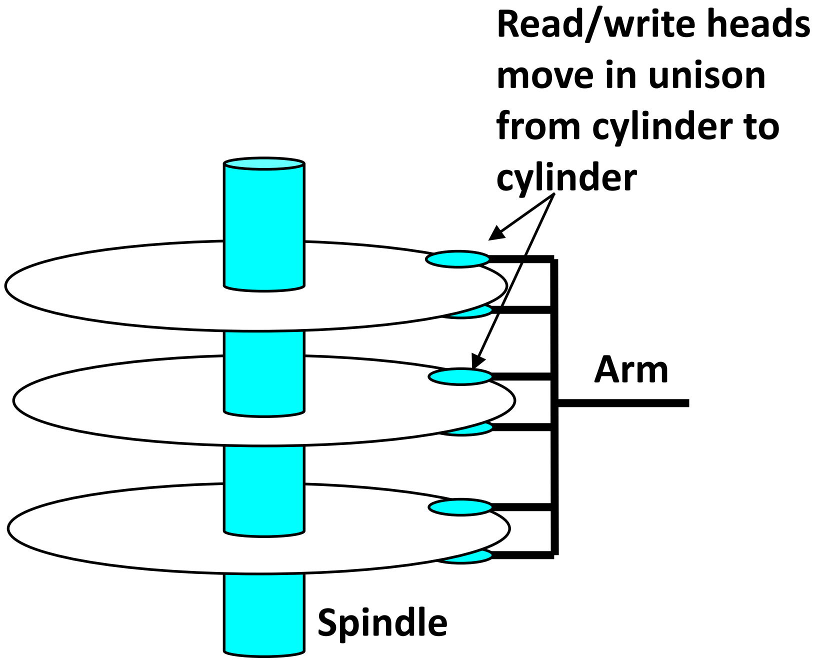
The disk surface spins at a fixed rotational rate



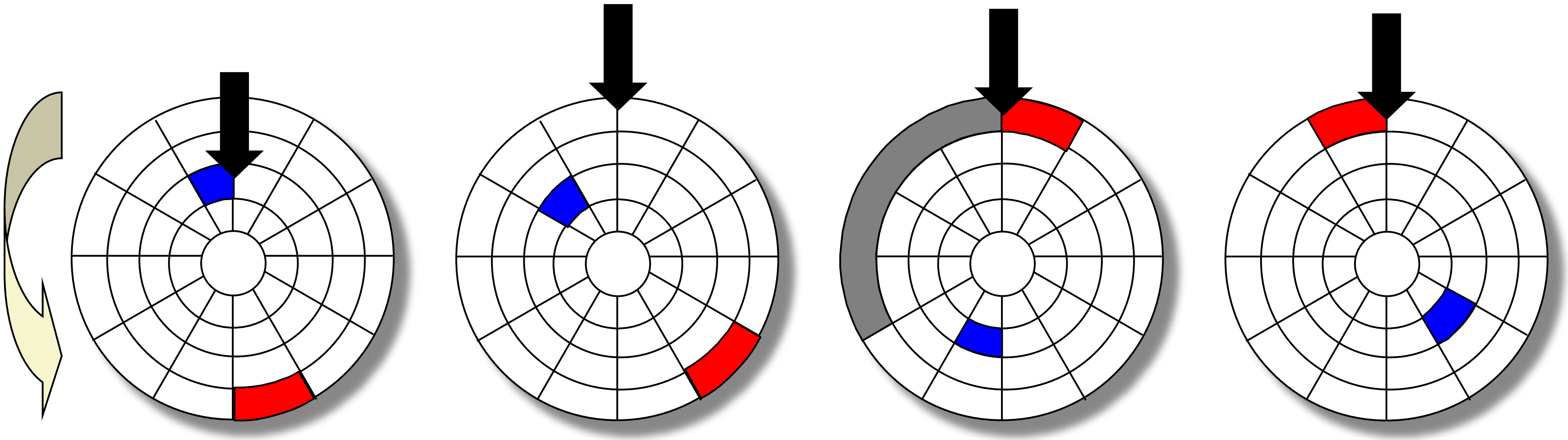
The read/write *head* is attached to the end of the *arm* and flies over the disk surface on a thin cushion of air.

By moving radially, the arm can position the read/write head over any track.

Disk Operation (Multi-Platter View)



Disk Access – Service Time Components



After BLUE read	Seek for RED	Rotational latency	After RED read
↑	↑	↑	↑
Data transfer	**Seek**	**Rotational latency**	**Data transfer**

Disk Access Time

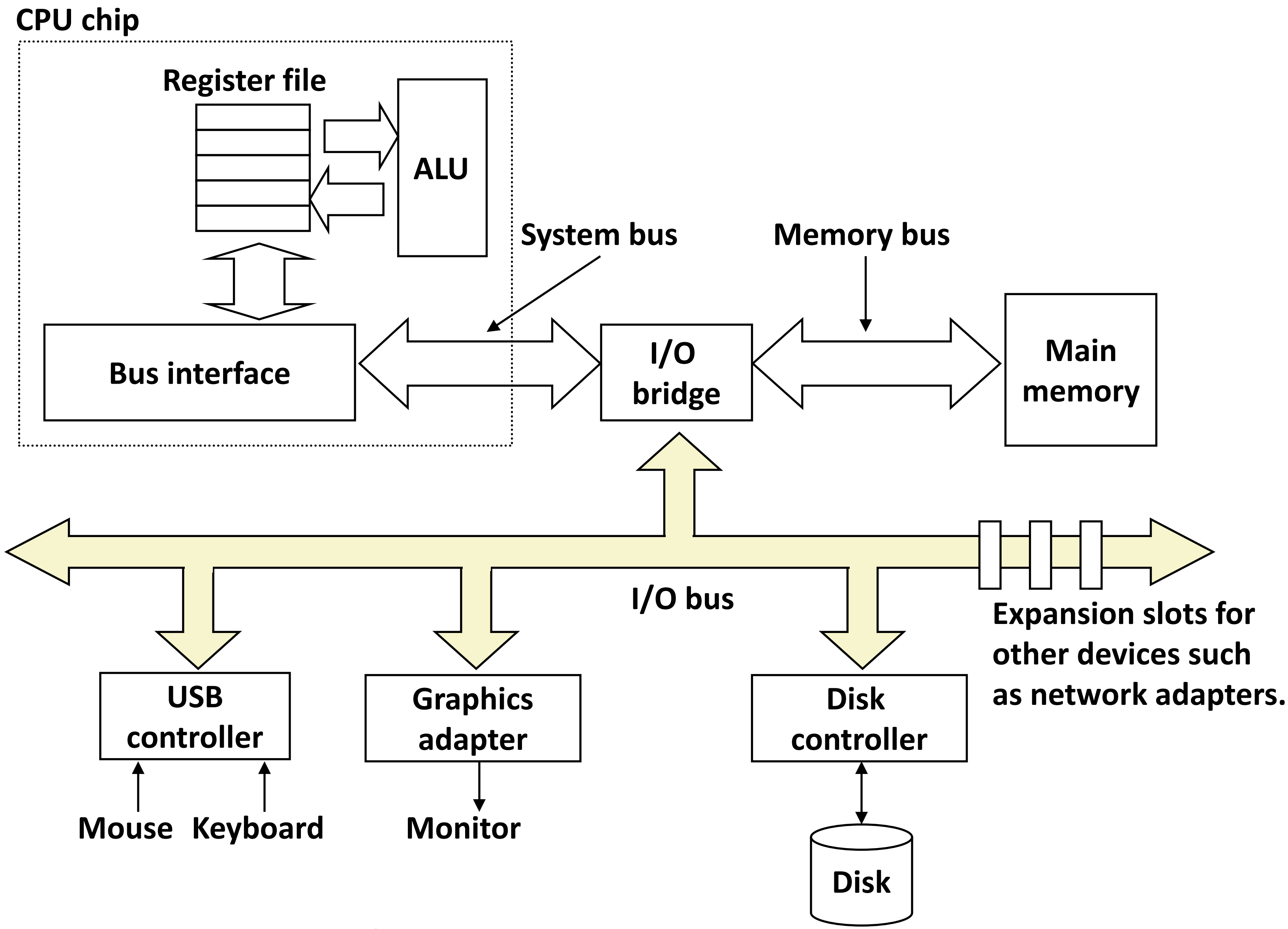
- **Average time to access some target sector approximated by:**
  - $T_{access} = T_{avg\ seek} + T_{avg\ rotation} + T_{avg\ transfer}$
- **Seek time ($T_{avg\ seek}$)**
  - Time to position heads over cylinder containing target sector.
  - Typical $T_{avg\ seek}$ is 3—9 ms
- **Rotational latency ($T_{avg\ rotation}$)**
  - Time waiting for first bit of target sector to pass under r/w head.
  - $T_{avg\ rotation}$ = 1/2 x 1/RPMs x 60 sec/1 min
  - Typical rotational rate = 7,200 RPMs
- **Transfer time ($T_{avg\ transfer}$)**
  - Time to read the bits in the target sector.
  - $T_{avg\ transfer}$ = 1/RPM x 1/(avg # sectors/track) x 60 secs/1 min

time for one rotation (in minutes)   fraction of a rotation to be read

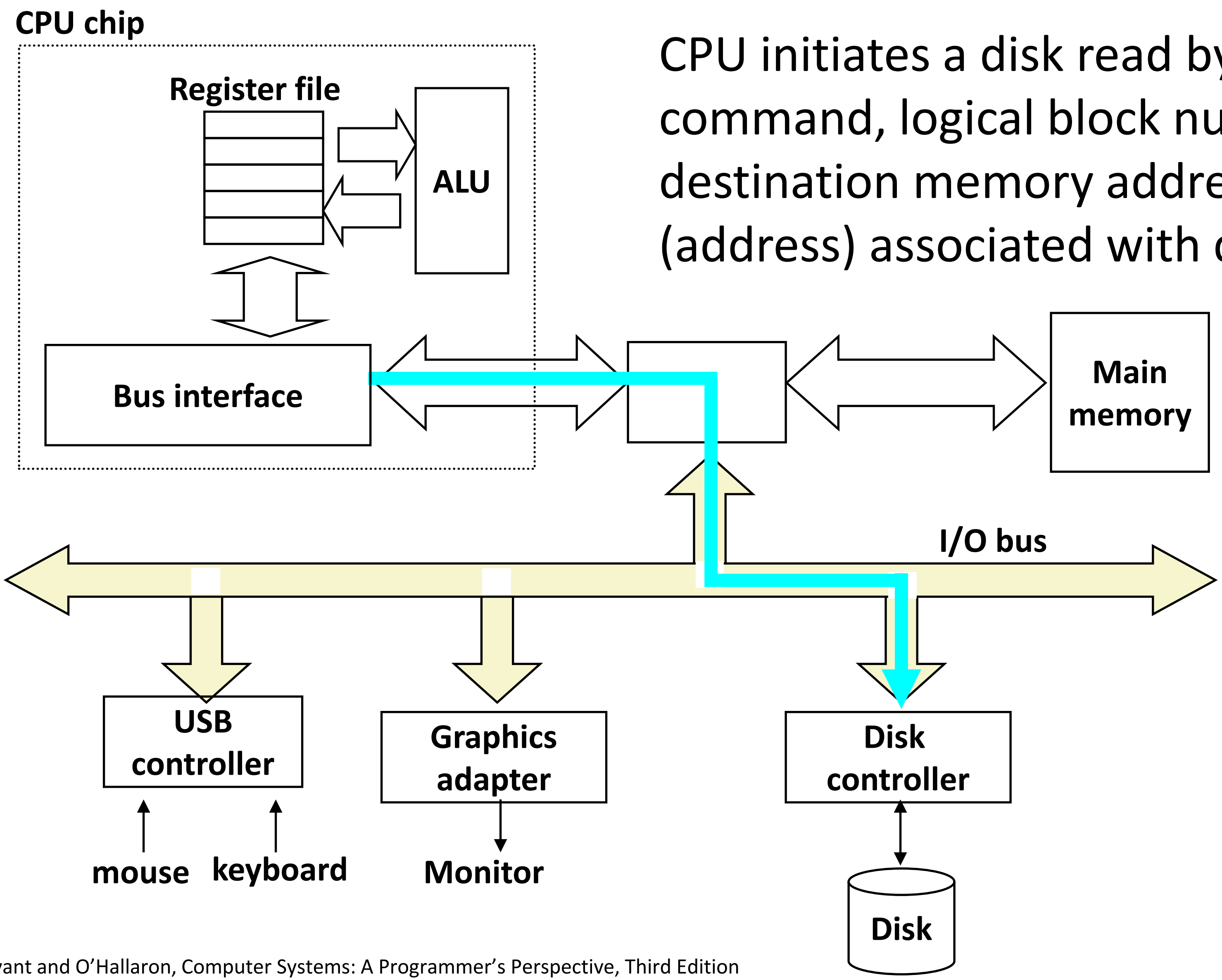
Disk Access Time Example

- **Given:**
  - Rotational rate = 7,200 RPM
  - Average seek time = 9 ms
  - Avg # sectors/track = 400
- **Derived:**
  - $T_{avg\ rotation}$ = 1/2 x (60 secs/7200 RPM) x 1000 ms/sec = 4 ms
  - $T_{avg\ transfer}$ = 60/7200 x 1/400 x 1000 ms/sec = 0.02 ms
  - T_{access} = 9 ms + 4 ms + 0.02 ms
- **Important points:**
  - Access time dominated by seek time and rotational latency.
  - First bit in a sector is the most expensive, the rest are free.
  - ***SRAM access time is about 4 ns/doubleword, DRAM about 60 ns***
    - ***Disk is about 40,000 times slower than SRAM,***
    - ***2,500 times slower than DRAM.***

I/O Bus


CPU chip
Register file
ALU
System bus
Memory bus
Bus interface
I/O
bridge
Main
memory
I/O bus
Expansion slots for
other devices such
as network adapters.
USB
controller
Graphics
adapter
Disk
controller
Mouse
Keyboard
Monitor
Disk

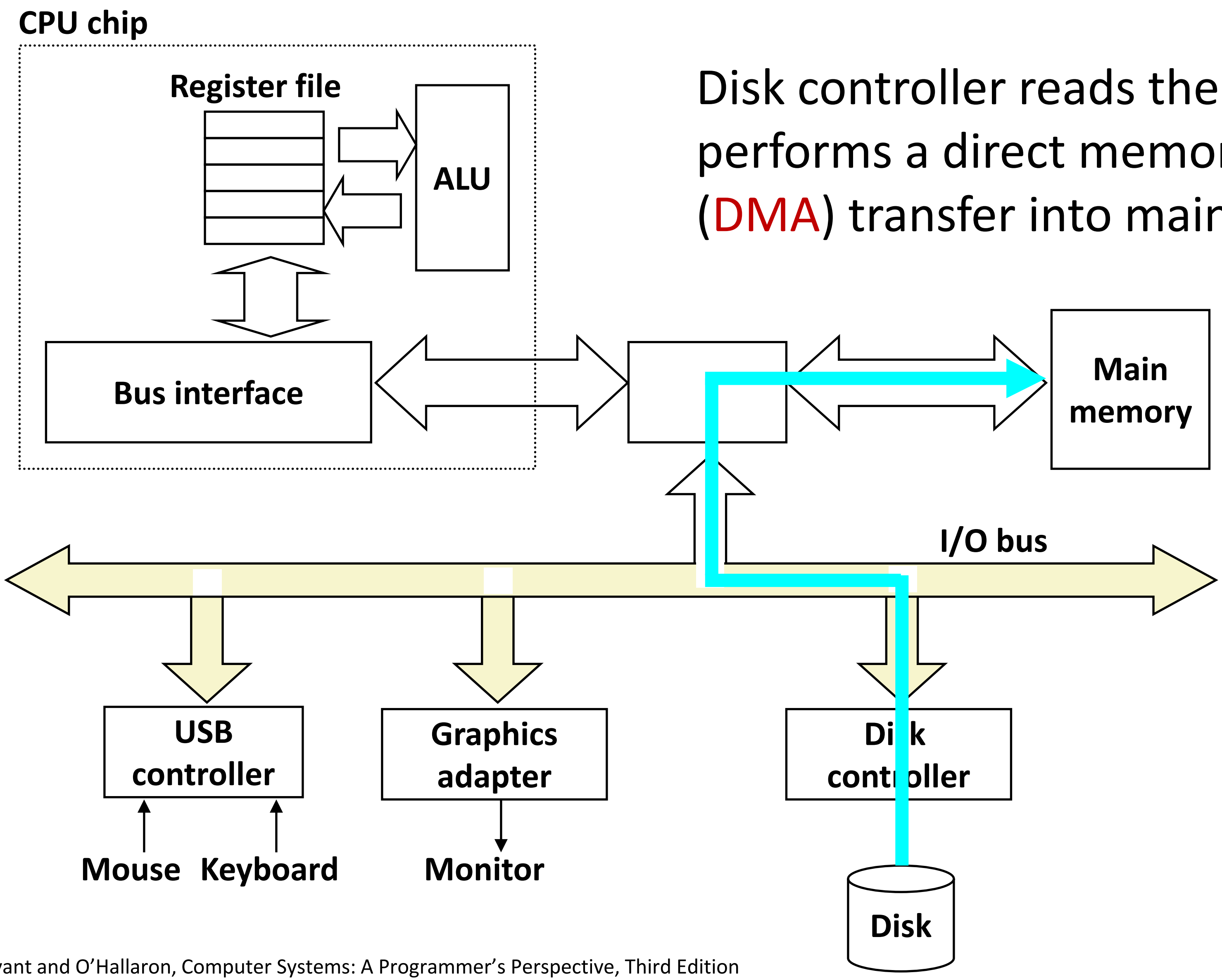
Reading a Disk Sector (1)



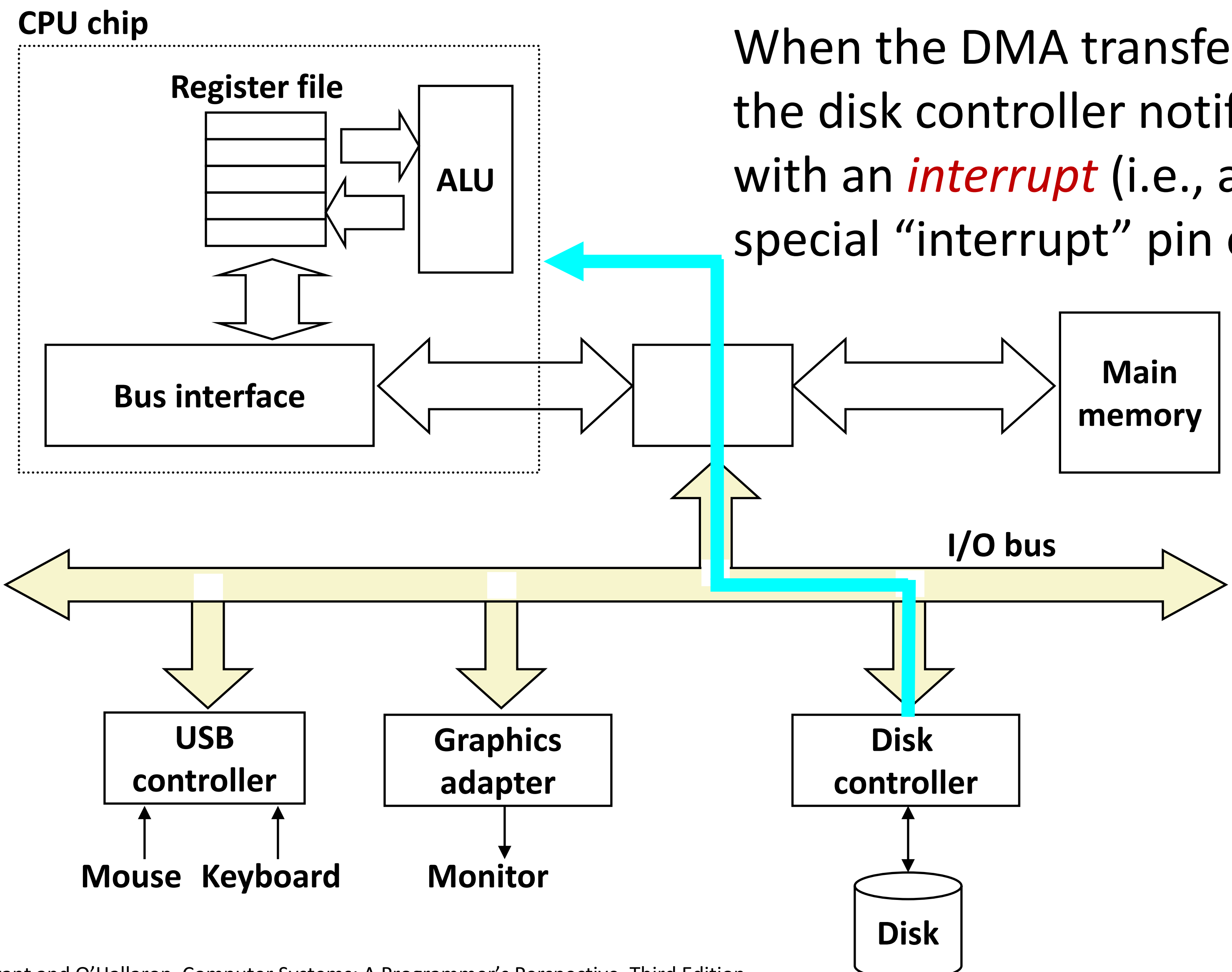
CPU initiates a disk read by writing a command, logical block number, and destination memory address to a port (address) associated with disk controller.

Reading a Disk Sector (2)

Disk controller reads the sector and performs a direct memory access (DMA) transfer into main memory.



Reading a Disk Sector (3)



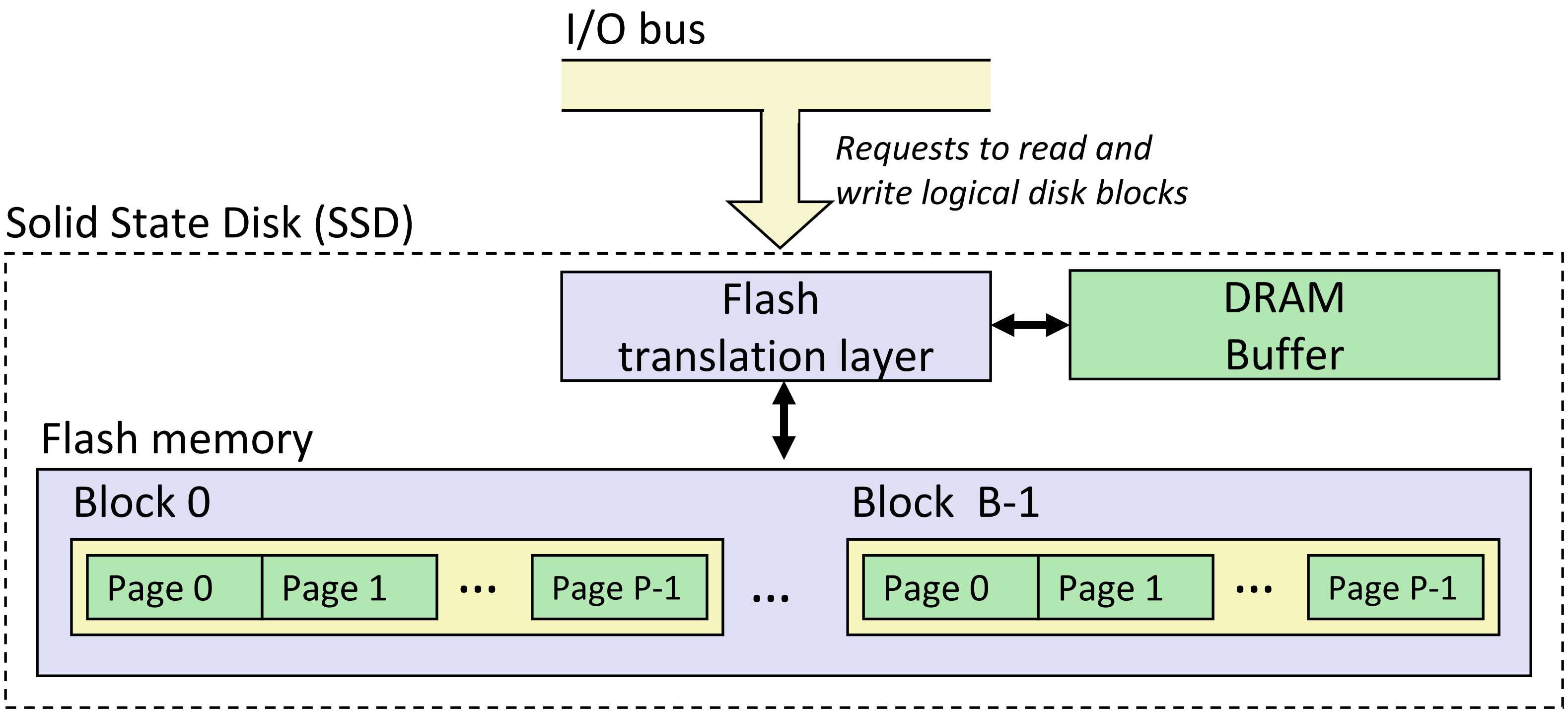
When the DMA transfer completes, the disk controller notifies the CPU with an *interrupt* (i.e., asserts a special "interrupt" pin on the CPU).

Nonvolatile Memories

- **DRAM and SRAM are volatile memories**
  - Lose information if powered off.
- **Nonvolatile memories retain value even if powered off**
  - Read-only memory (ROM): programmed during production
  - Electrically eraseable PROM (EEPROM): electronic erase capability
  - Flash memory: EEPROMs, with partial (block-level) erase capability
    - Wears out after about 100,000 erasings
  - 3D XPoint (Intel Optane) & emerging NVMs
    - New materials

- **Uses for Nonvolatile Memories**
  - Firmware programs stored in a ROM (BIOS, controllers for disks, network cards, graphics accelerators, security subsystems,…)
  - Solid state disks (replacing rotating disks)
  - Disk caches

Solid State Disks (SSDs)



- **Pages: 512KB to 4KB, Blocks: 32 to 128 pages**
- **Data read/written in units of pages.**
- **Page can be written only after its block has been erased.**
- **A block wears out after about 100,000 repeated writes.**

SSD Performance Characteristics

- **Benchmark of Samsung 940 EVO Plus**

  https://ssd.userbenchmark.com/SpeedTest/711305/Samsung-SSD-970-EVO-Plus-250GB

Sequential read throughput	2,126 MB/s	Sequential write tput	1,880 MB/s
Random read throughput	140 MB/s	Random write tput	59 MB/s

- **Sequential access faster than random access**
  - Common theme in the memory hierarchy
- **Random writes are somewhat slower**
  - Erasing a block takes a long time (~1 ms).
  - Modifying a block page requires all other pages to be copied to new block.
  - Flash translation layer allows accumulating series of small writes before doing block write.

SSD Tradeoffs vs Rotating Disks

- **Advantages**
  - No moving parts → faster, less power, more rugged

- **Disadvantages**
  - Have the potential to wear out
    - Mitigated by "wear leveling logic" in flash translation layer
    - E.g. Samsung 940 EVO Plus guarantees 600 writes/byte of writes before they wear out
    - Controller migrates data to minimize wear level
  - In 2019, about 4 times more expensive per byte
    - And, relative cost will keep dropping
- **Applications**
  - Smartphones, laptops
  - Increasingly common in desktops and servers

Summary

- **The speed gap between CPU, memory and mass storage continues to widen.**
- **Well-written programs exhibit a property called *locality*.**
- **Memory hierarchies based on *caching* close the gap by exploiting locality.**
- **Flash memory progress outpacing all other memory and storage technologies (DRAM, SRAM, magnetic disk)**
  - Able to stack cells in three dimensions

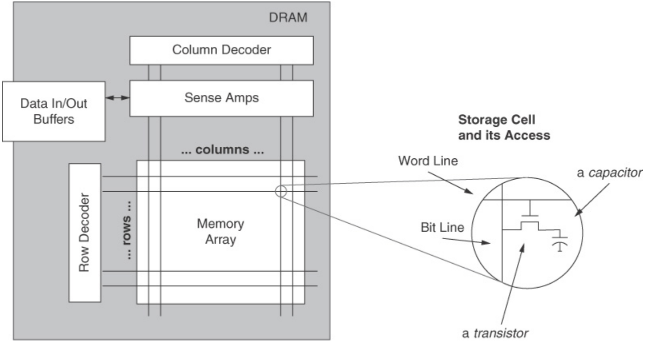
Architektury systemów komputerowych

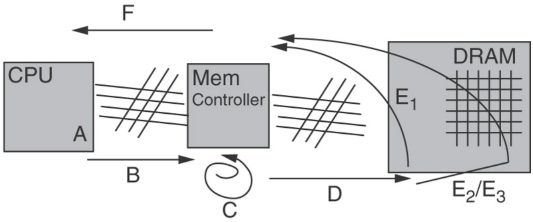
Wykład 10: Pamieć DRAM

Krystian Bacławski

Instytut Informatyki
Uniwersytet Wrocławski

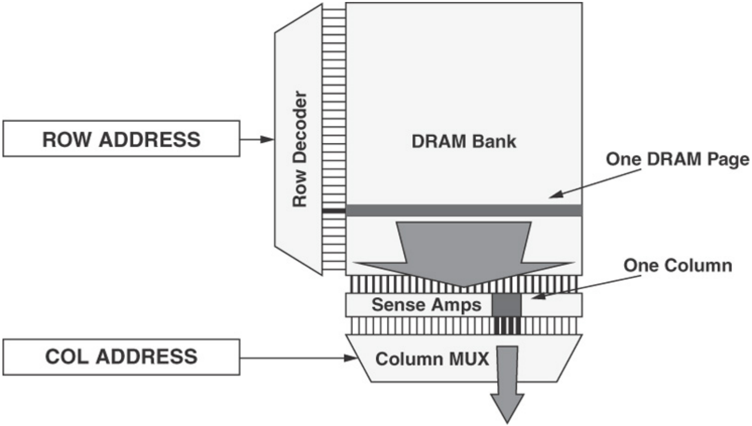
7 maja 2021


DRAM
Column Decoder
Sense Amps
Data In/Out Buffers
... columns ...
Row Decoder
... rows ...
Memory Array
Storage Cell and its Access
Word Line
a capacitor
Bit Line
a transistor

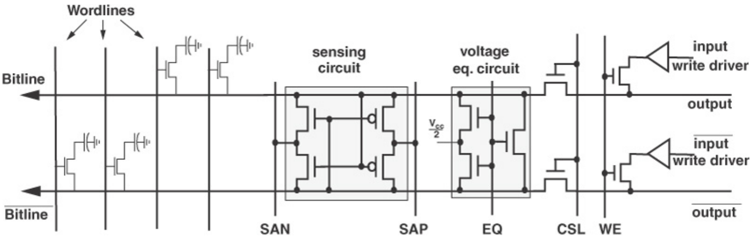


A: Transaction request may be delayed in Queue
B: Transaction request sent to Memory Controller
C: Transaction converted to Command Sequences (may be queued)
D: Command/s Sent to DRAM
E_1: Requires only a **CAS** or
E_2: Requires **RAS + CAS** or
E_3: Requires **PRE + RAS + CAS**
F: Transaction sent back to CPU

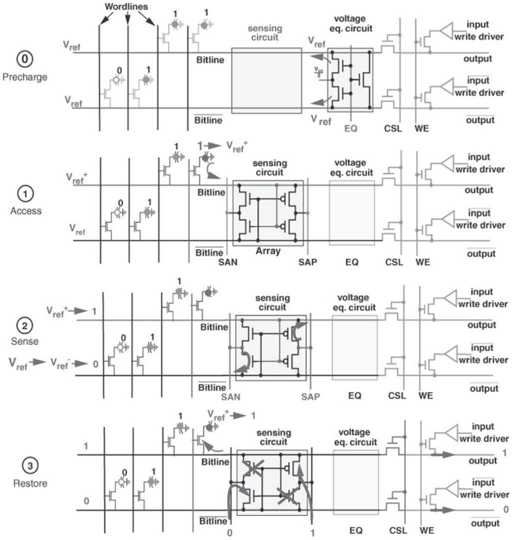
DRAM Latency = A + B + C + D + E + F



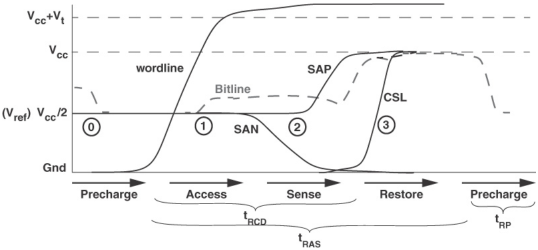
Rysunek: Strony pamięci DRAM



Rysunek: Kolumna macierzy DRAM



Rysunek: Proces czytania bitów



Rysunek: Kolejność podawania sygnałów

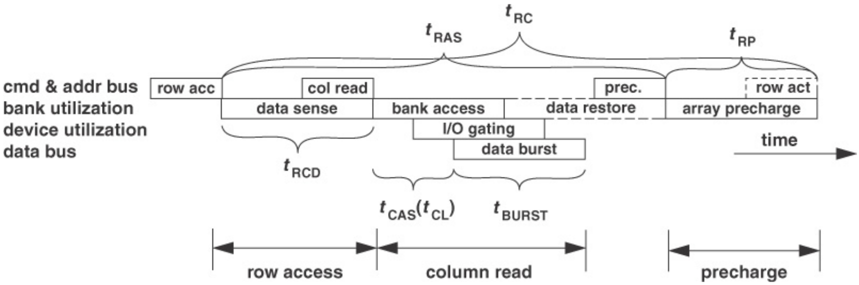
t_{RAS} Row Access Strobe. Minimalny czas między poleceniem wyboru wiersza, a przywróceniem danych w wierszu po wykonaniu operacji.

t_{RP} Row Precharge. Czas na przygotowanie innego wiersza na dostęp.

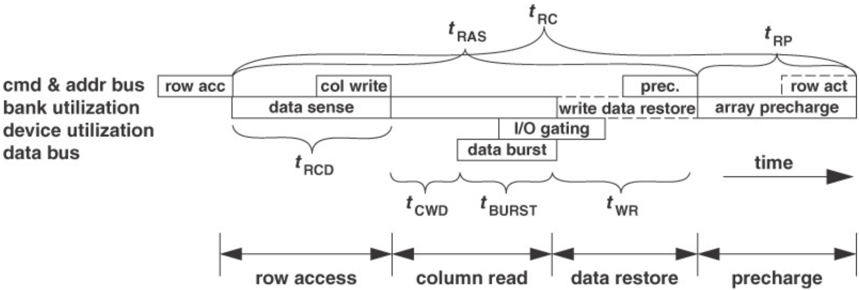
t_{RCD} Row-to-Column command Delay. Czas między wydaniem polecenia wyboru wiersza, a dostępnością danych na wyjściu z układu wzmacniającego.

t_{CAS} Column Access Strobe latency. Minimalny czas między wydaniem polecenia odczytu kolumny, sa początkiem transferu danych.

t_{RC} Row Cycle. Czas między dostępami do różnych wierszy w banku. $t_{RC} = t_{RAS} + t_{RP}$



Rysunek: Odczyt z pamięci DRAM



Rysunek: Zapis do pamięci DRAM

Cache Memories

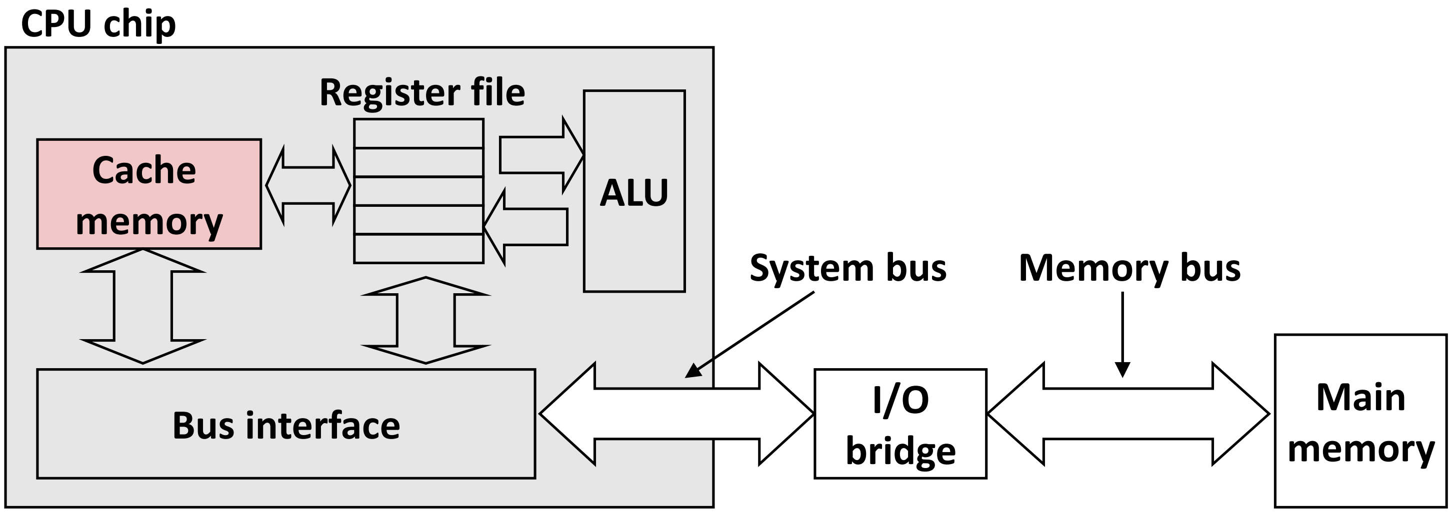
15-213/18-213/15-513: Introduction to Computer Systems
12th Lecture, February 26, 2019

Today

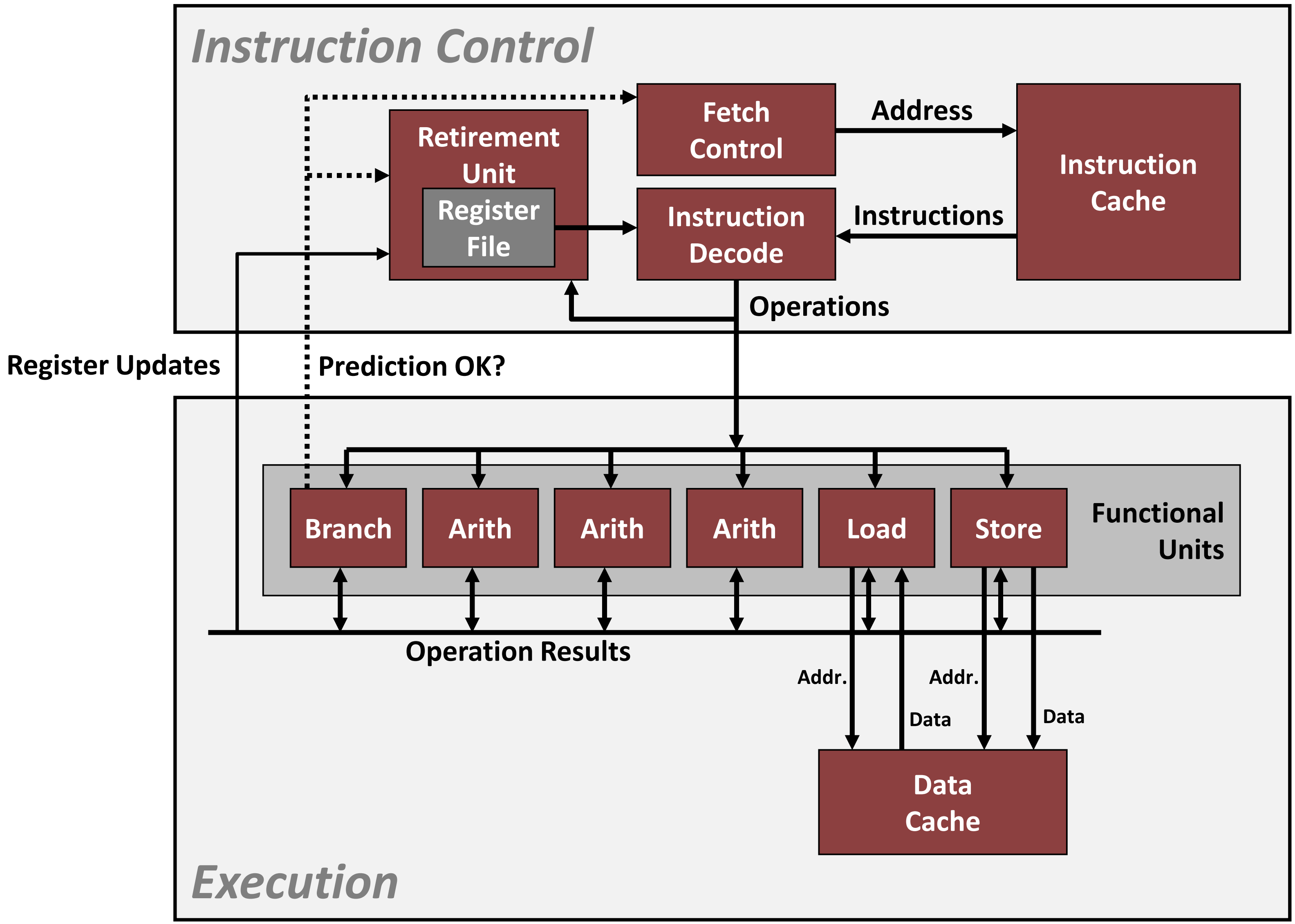
- **Cache memory organization and operation**
- **Performance impact of caches**
  - The memory mountain
  - Rearranging loops to improve spatial locality
  - Using blocking to improve temporal locality

Cache Memories

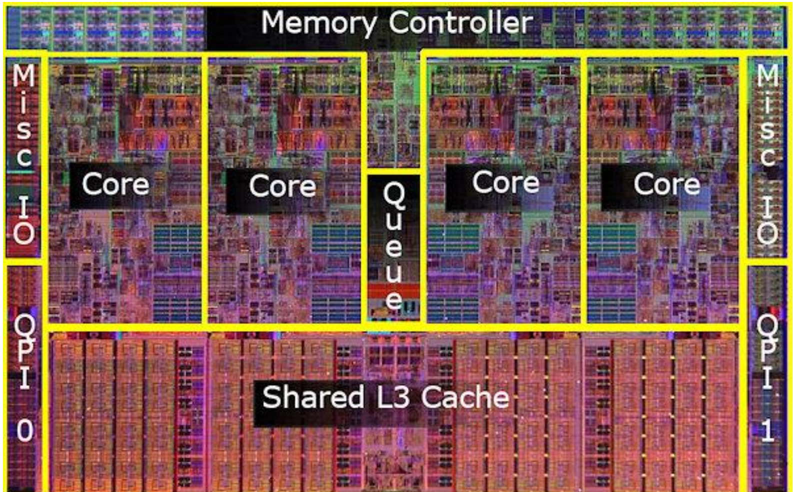
- **Cache memories are small, fast SRAM-based memories managed automatically in hardware**
  - Hold frequently accessed blocks of main memory
- **CPU looks first for data in cache**
- **Typical system structure:**



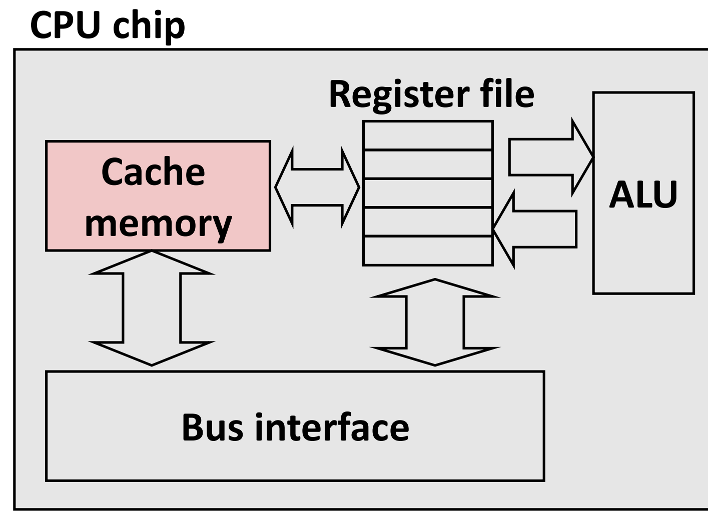
Recall: Modern CPU Design



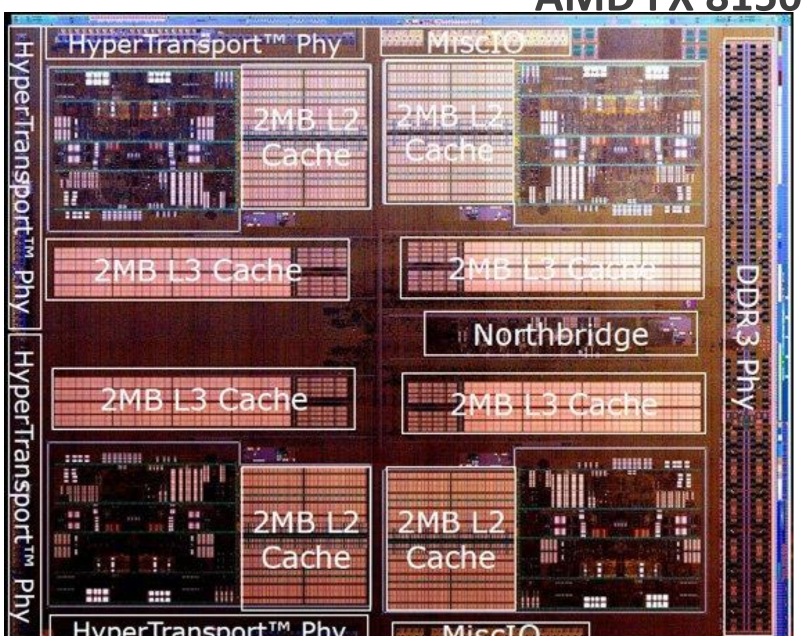
What it Really Looks Like



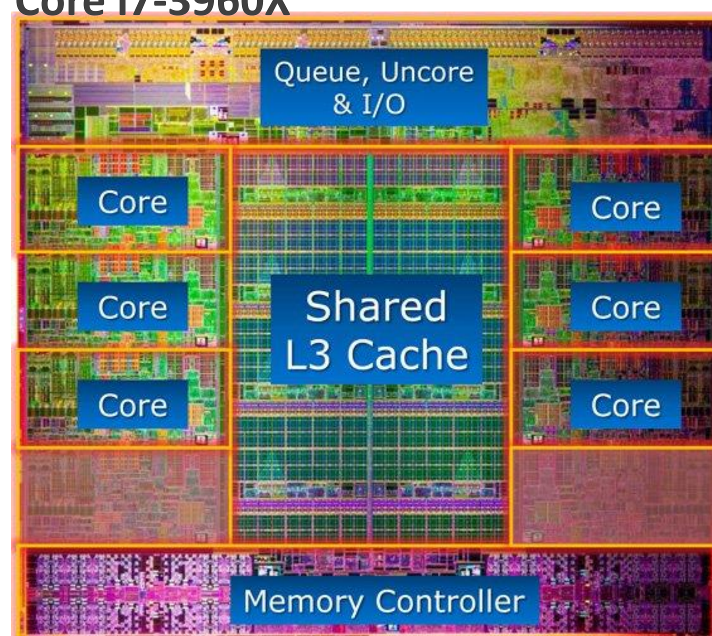
Nehalem



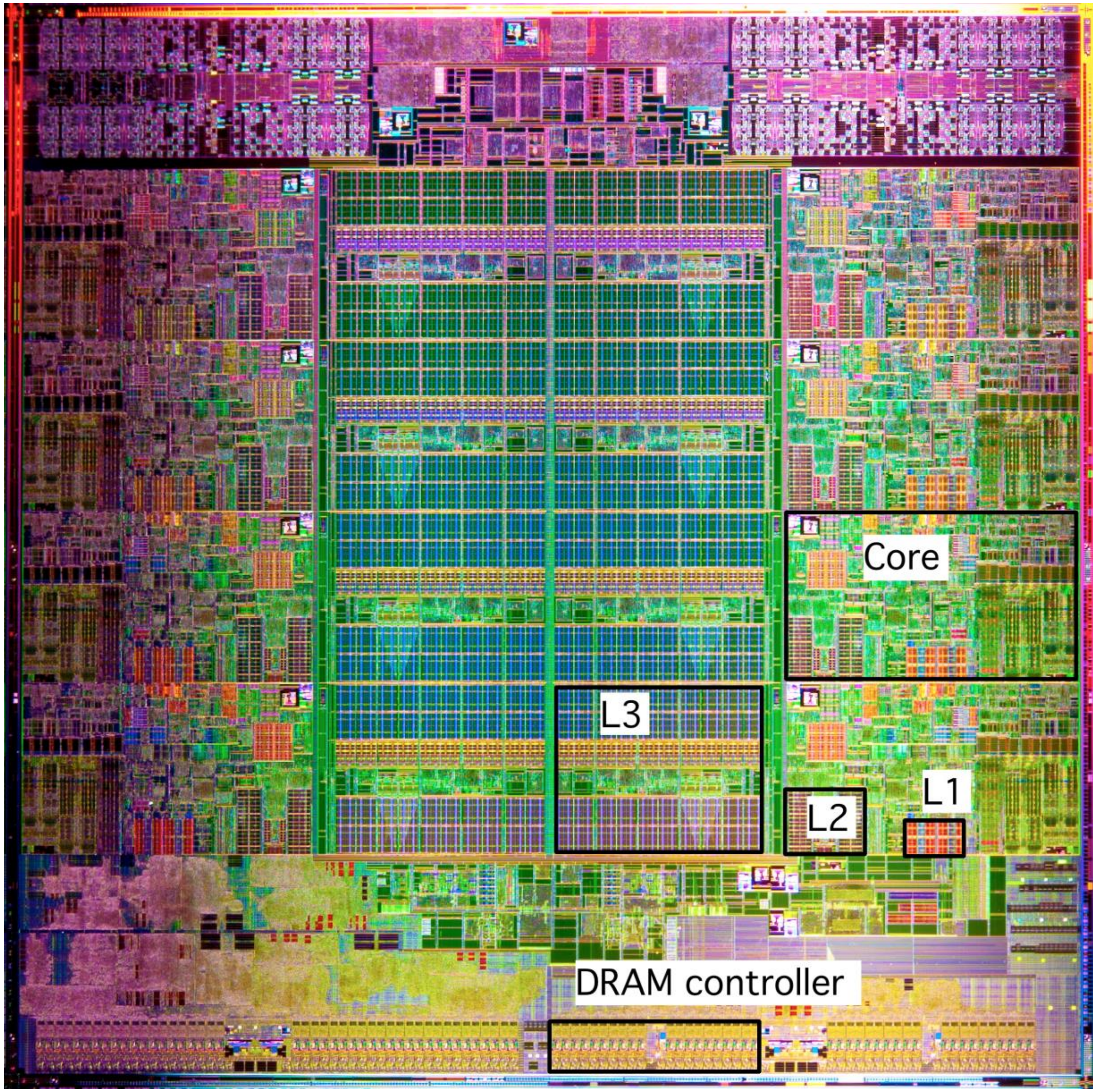
AMD FX 8150



Core i7-3960X



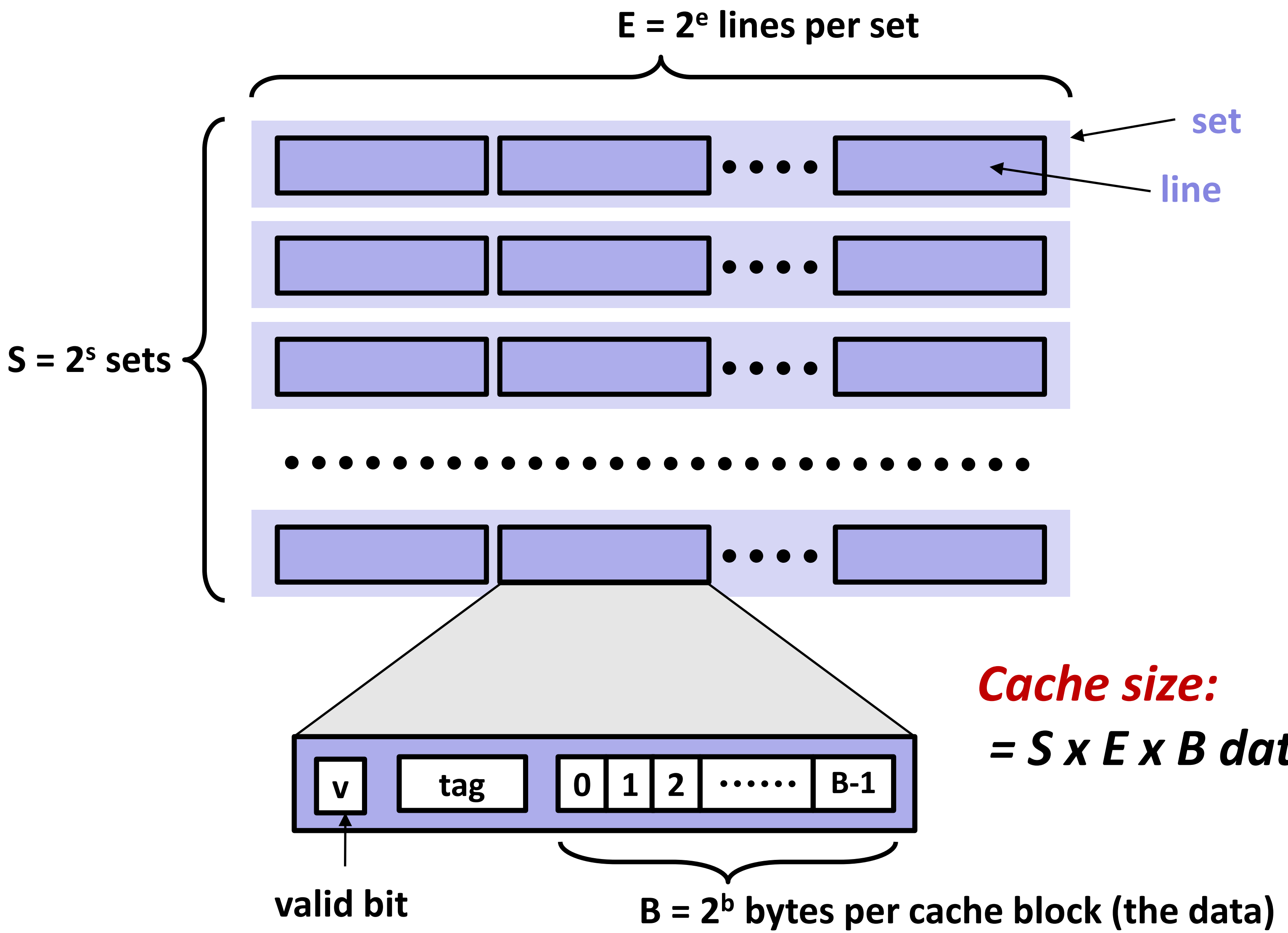
What it Really Looks Like (Cont.)



Intel Sandy Bridge
Processor Die

L1: 32KB Instruction + 32KB Data
L2: 256KB
L3: 3–20MB

General Cache Organization (S, E, B)

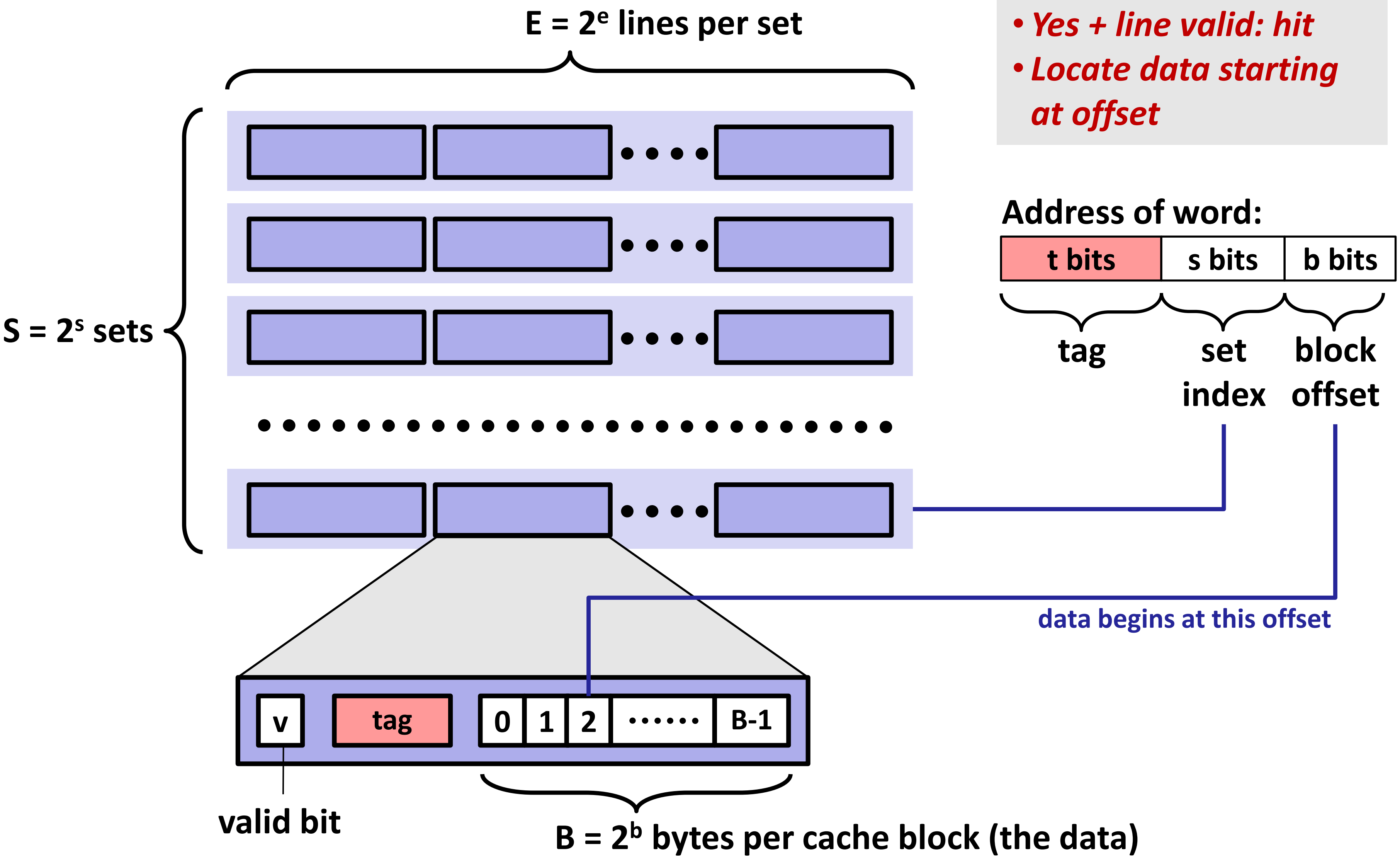


Cache size:

= S x E x B data bytes

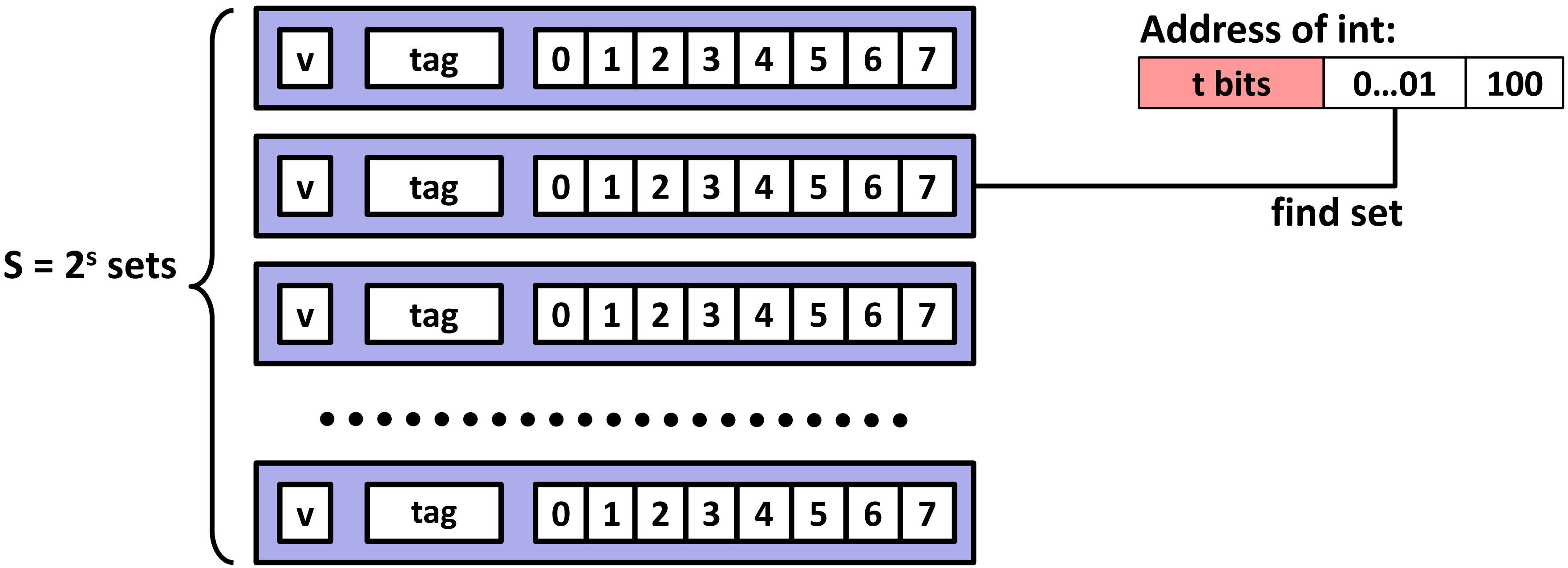
Cache Read

- *Locate set*
- *Check if any line in set has matching tag*
- *Yes + line valid: hit*
- *Locate data starting at offset*



Example: Direct Mapped Cache (E = 1)

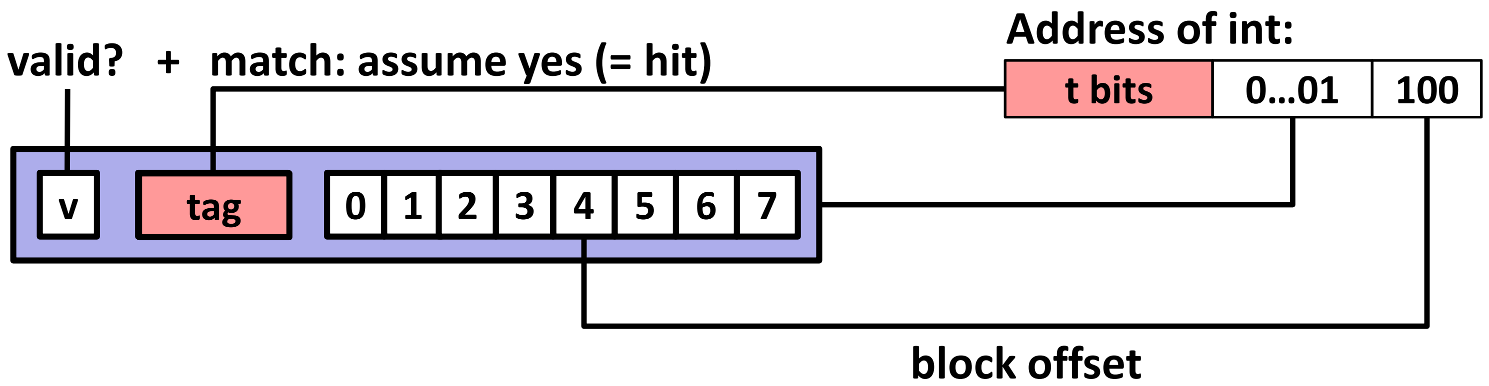
Direct mapped: One line per set
Assume: cache block size B=8 bytes



Example: Direct Mapped Cache (E = 1)

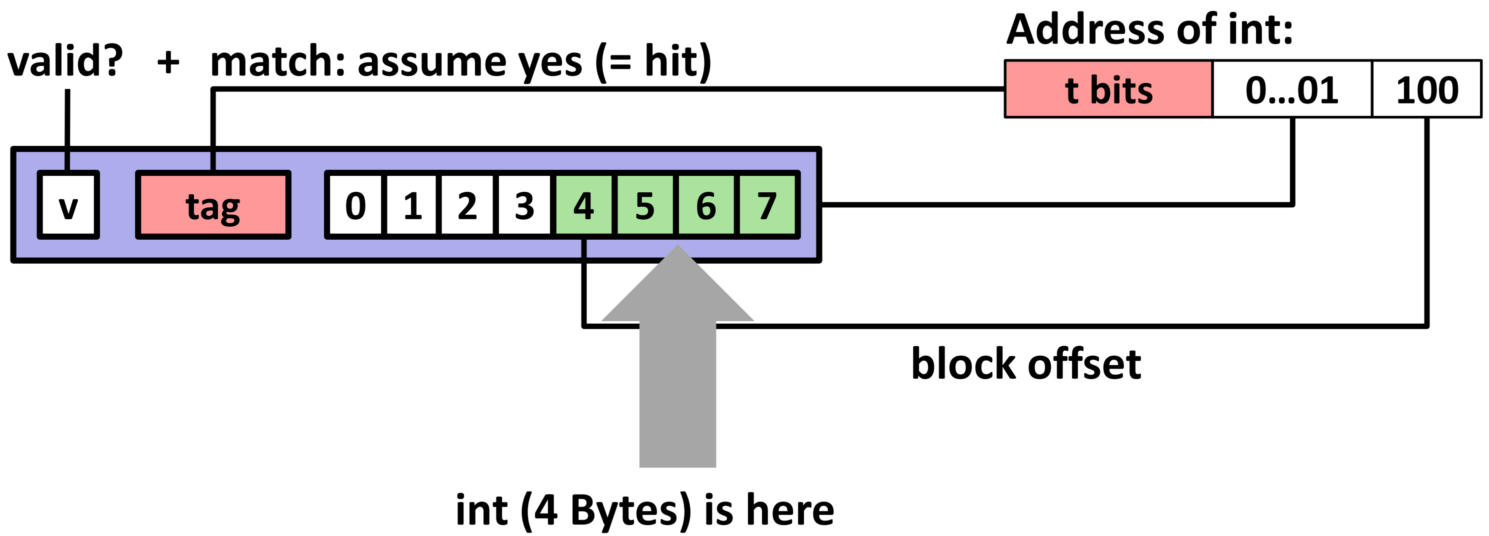
Direct mapped: One line per set

Assume: cache block size B=8 bytes



Example: Direct Mapped Cache (E = 1)

Direct mapped: One line per set
Assume: cache block size B=8 bytes



If tag doesn't match (= miss): old line is evicted and replaced

Direct-Mapped Cache Simulation

t=1	s=2	b=1
x	xx	x

4-bit addresses (address space size M=16 bytes)
S=4 sets, E=1 Blocks/set, B=2 bytes/block

Address trace (reads, one byte per read):

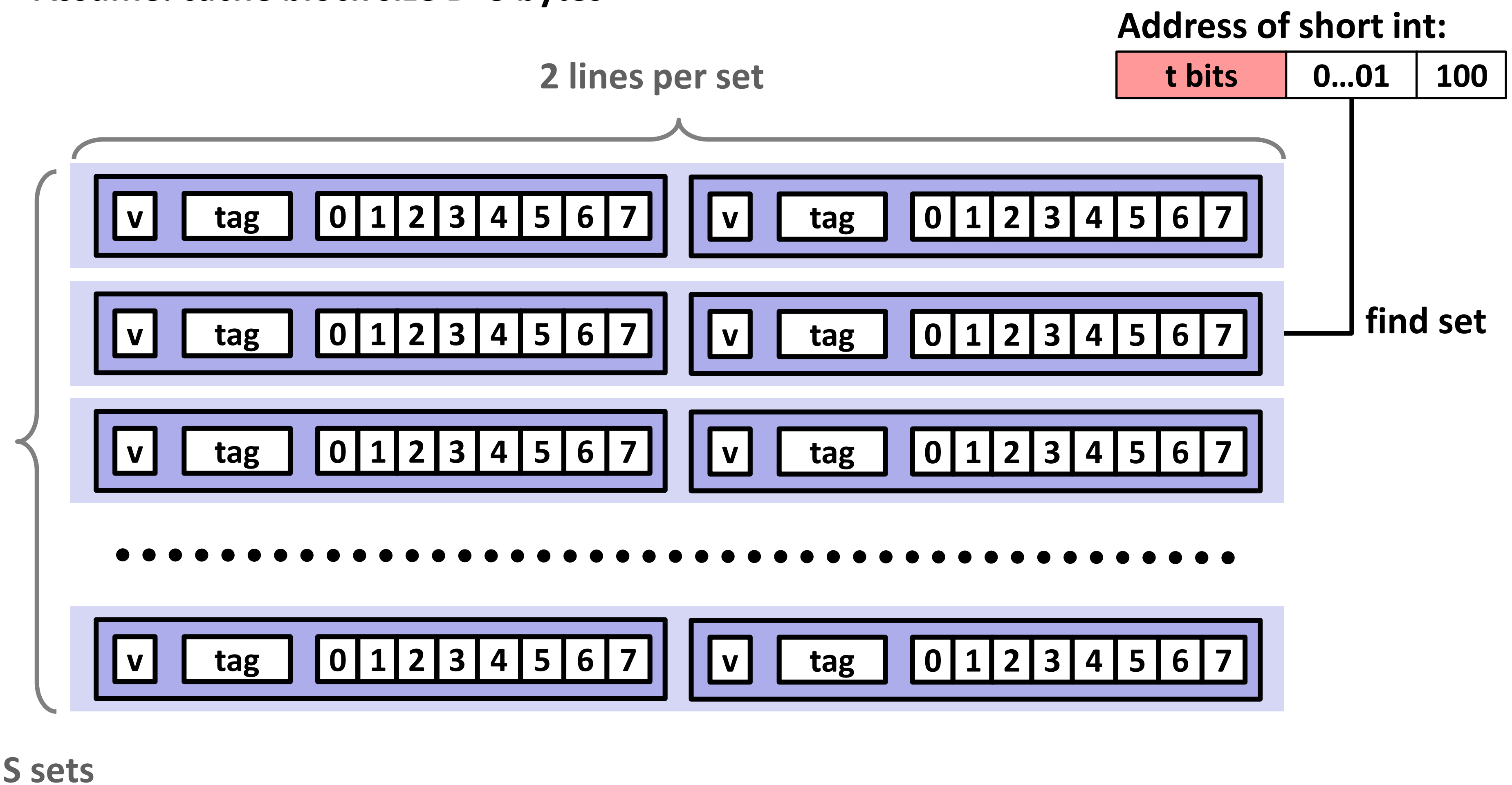
0	**[0000_2],**	miss
1	**[0001_2],**	hit
7	**[0111_2],**	miss
8	**[1000_2],**	miss
0	**[0000_2]**	miss

	v	Tag	Block
Set 0	1	0	M[0-1]
Set 1	0		
Set 2	0		
Set 3	1	0	M[6-7]

E-way Set Associative Cache (Here: E = 2)

E = 2: Two lines per set

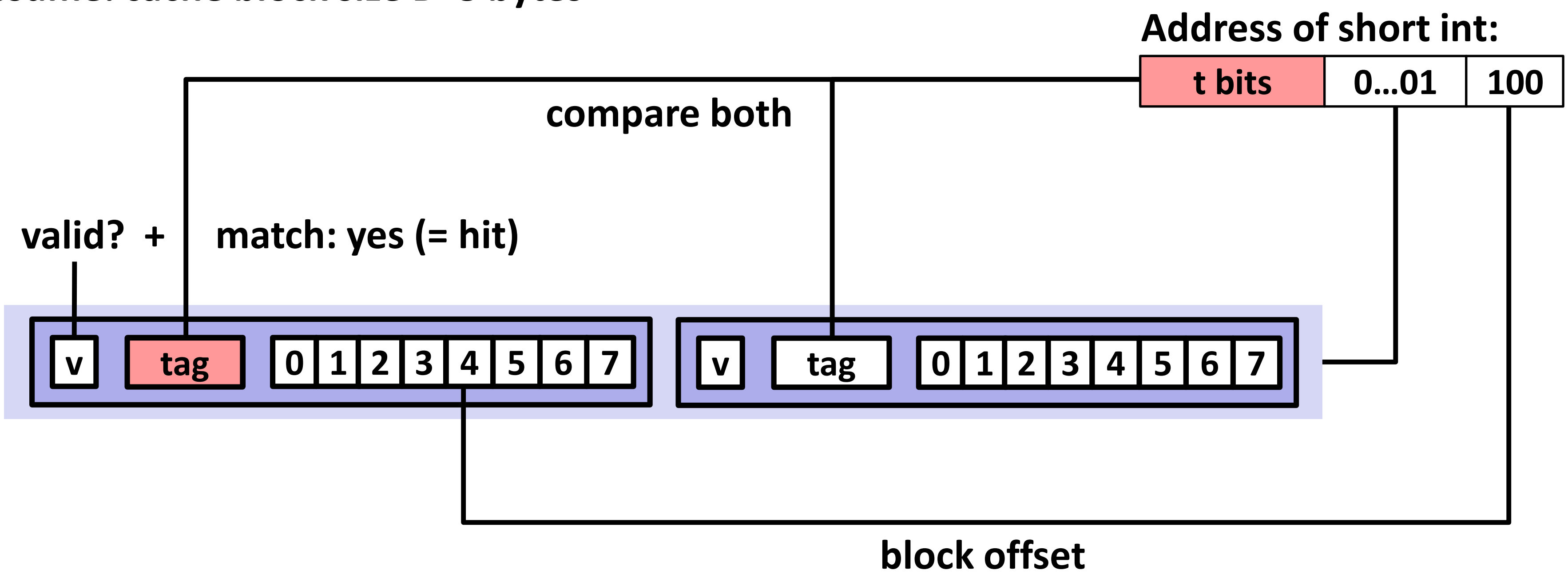
Assume: cache block size B=8 bytes



E-way Set Associative Cache (Here: E = 2)

E = 2: Two lines per set

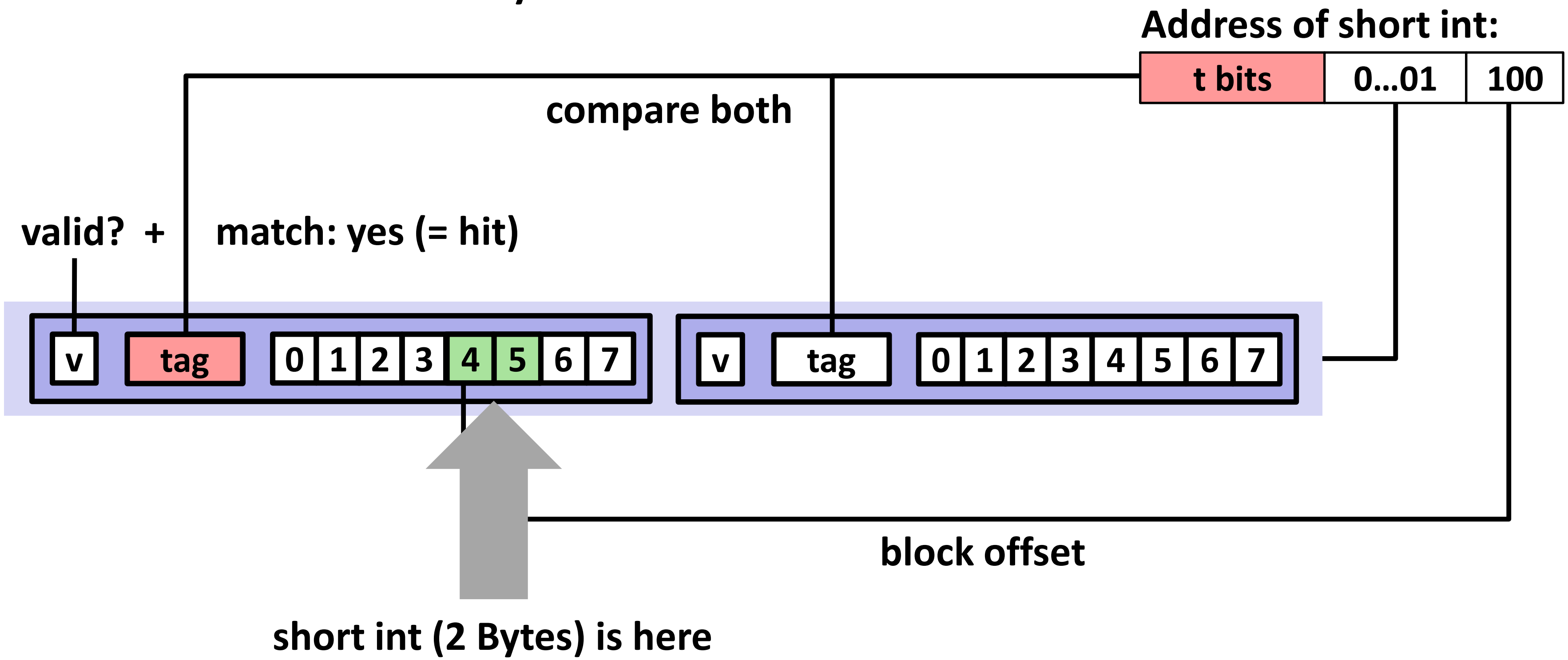
Assume: cache block size B=8 bytes



E-way Set Associative Cache (Here: E = 2)

E = 2: Two lines per set

Assume: cache block size B=8 bytes



No match or not valid (= miss):

- One line in set is selected for eviction and replacement
- Replacement policies: random, least recently used (LRU), …

2-Way Set Associative Cache Simulation

t=2	s=1	b=1
xx	x	x

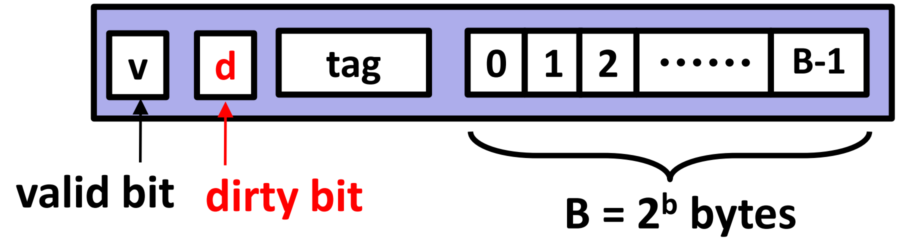
4-bit addresses (M=16 bytes)
S=2 sets, E=2 blocks/set, B=2 bytes/block

Address trace (reads, one byte per read):

0	**[0000_2],**	miss
1	**[0001_2],**	hit
7	**[0111_2],**	miss
8	**[1000_2],**	miss
0	**[0000_2]**	hit

	v	Tag	Block
Set 0	1	00	M[0-1]
	1	10	M[8-9]
Set 1	1	01	M[6-7]
	0		

What about writes?



- **Multiple copies of data exist:**
  - L1, L2, L3, Main Memory, Disk
- **What to do on a write-hit?**
  - Write-through (write immediately to memory)
  - Write-back (defer write to memory until replacement of line)
    - Each cache line needs a dirty bit (set if data differs from memory)
- **What to do on a write-miss?**
  - Write-allocate (load into cache, update line in cache)
    - Good if more writes to the location will follow
  - No-write-allocate (writes straight to memory, does not load into cache)
- **Typical**
  - Write-through + No-write-allocate
  - **Write-back + Write-allocate**

Why Index Using Middle Bits?

Direct mapped: One line per set
Assume: cache block size 8 bytes

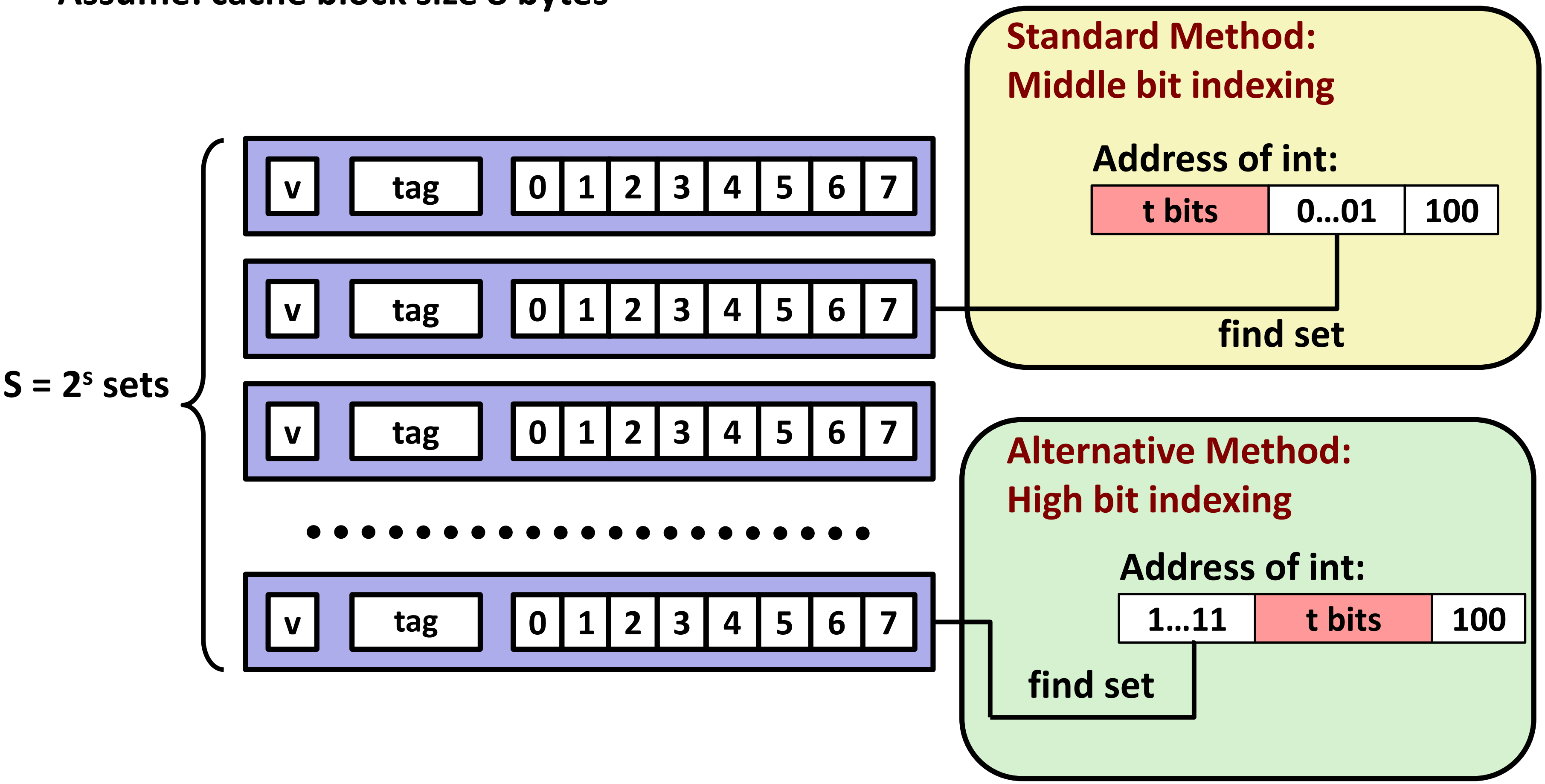
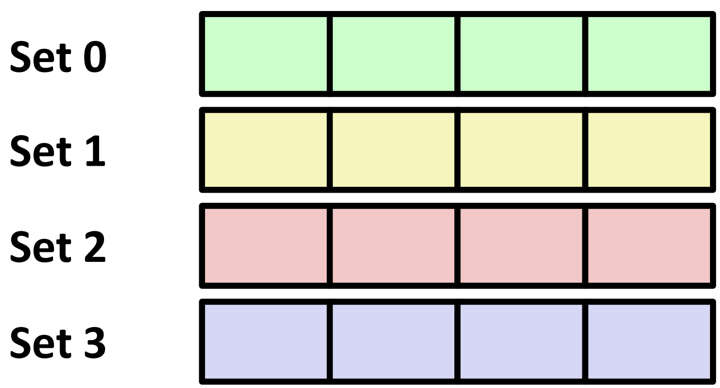
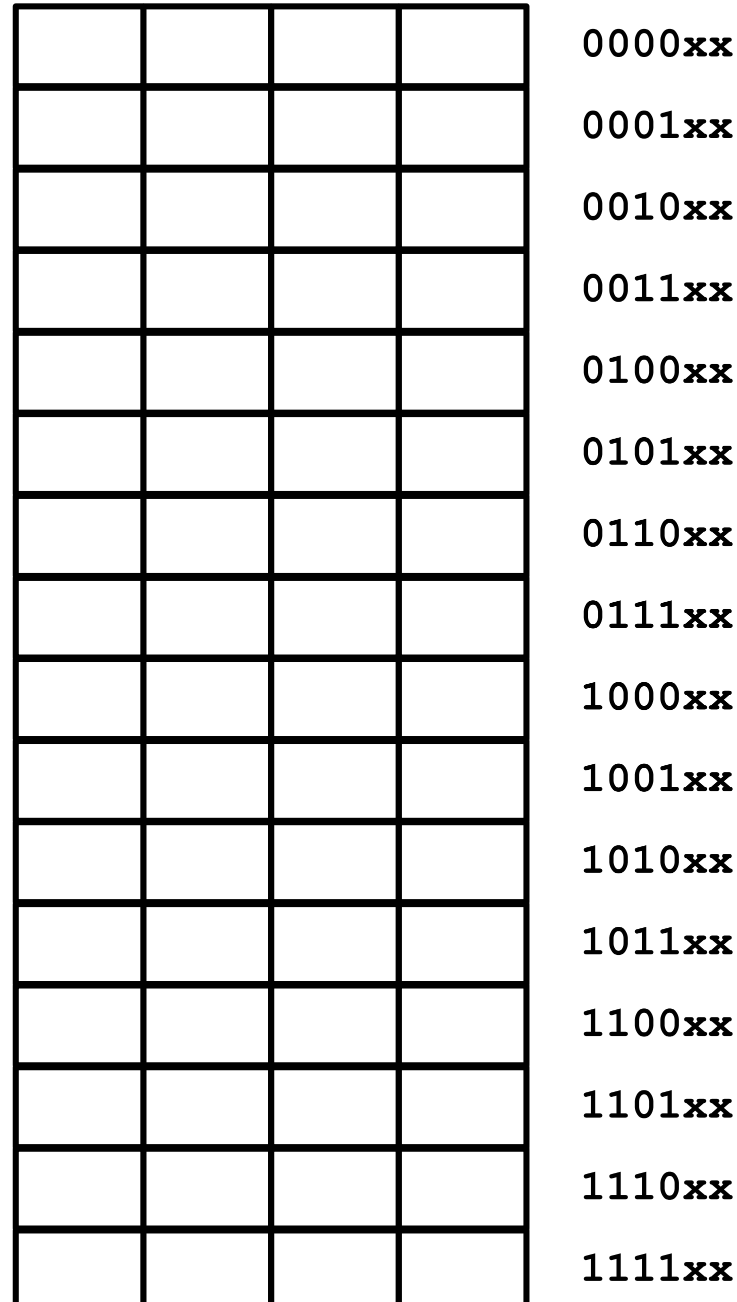


Illustration of Indexing Approaches

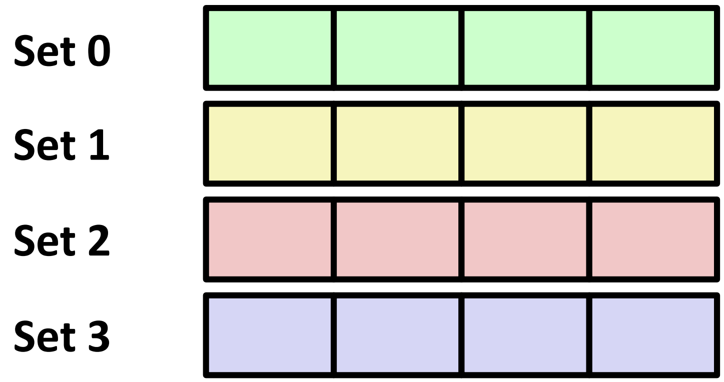
- **64-byte memory**
  - 6-bit addresses
- **16 byte, direct-mapped cache**
- **Block size = 4. Thus 4 sets.**
- **2 bits tag, 2 bits index, 2 bits offset**

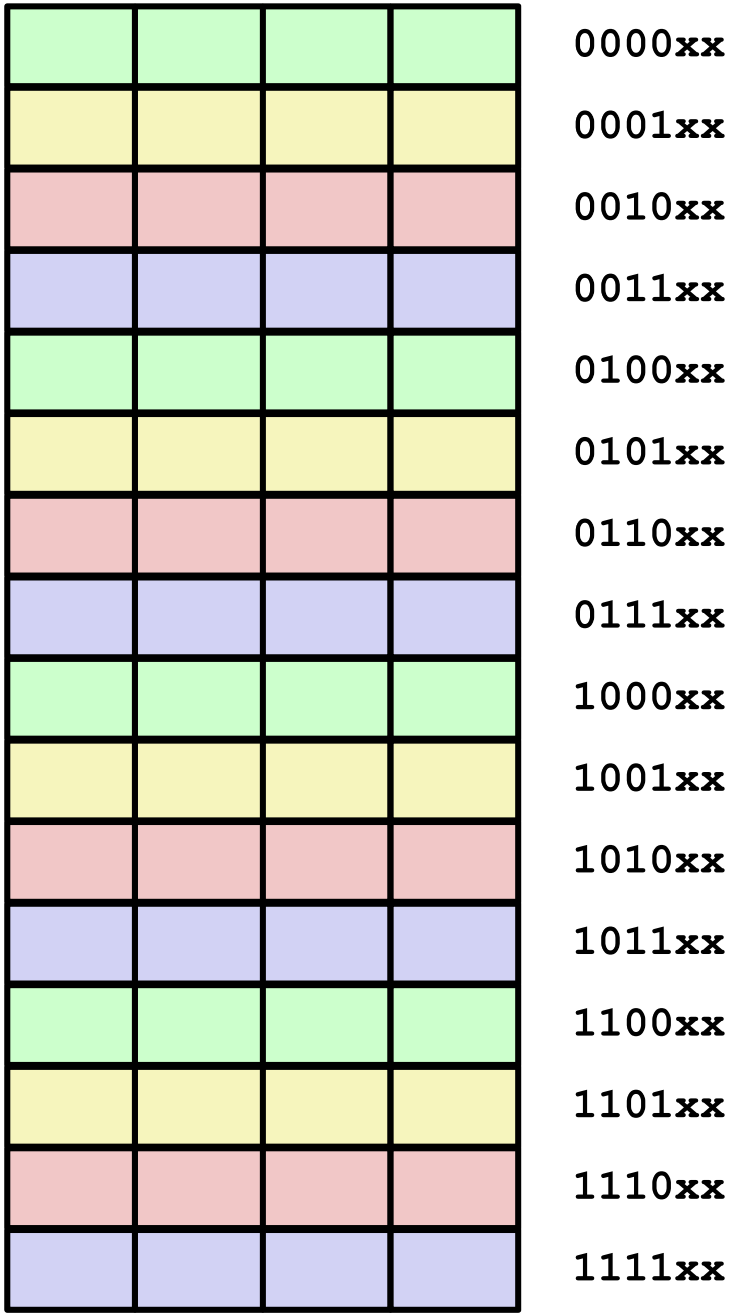




Middle Bit Indexing

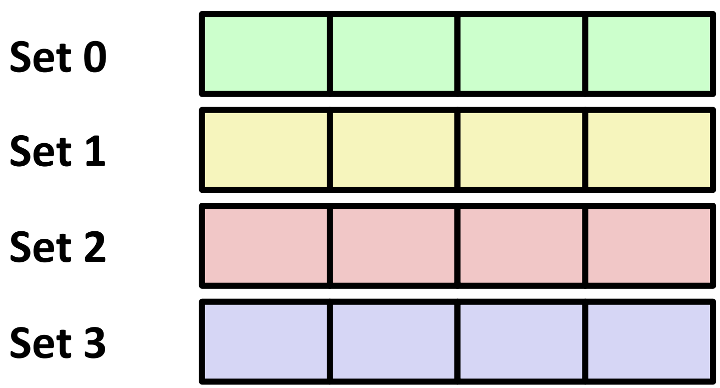
- **Addresses of form TTSSBB**
  - **TT** Tag bits
  - **SS** Set index bits
  - **BB** Offset bits
- **Makes good use of spatial locality**
  - Adjacent memory blocks map to **different** sets

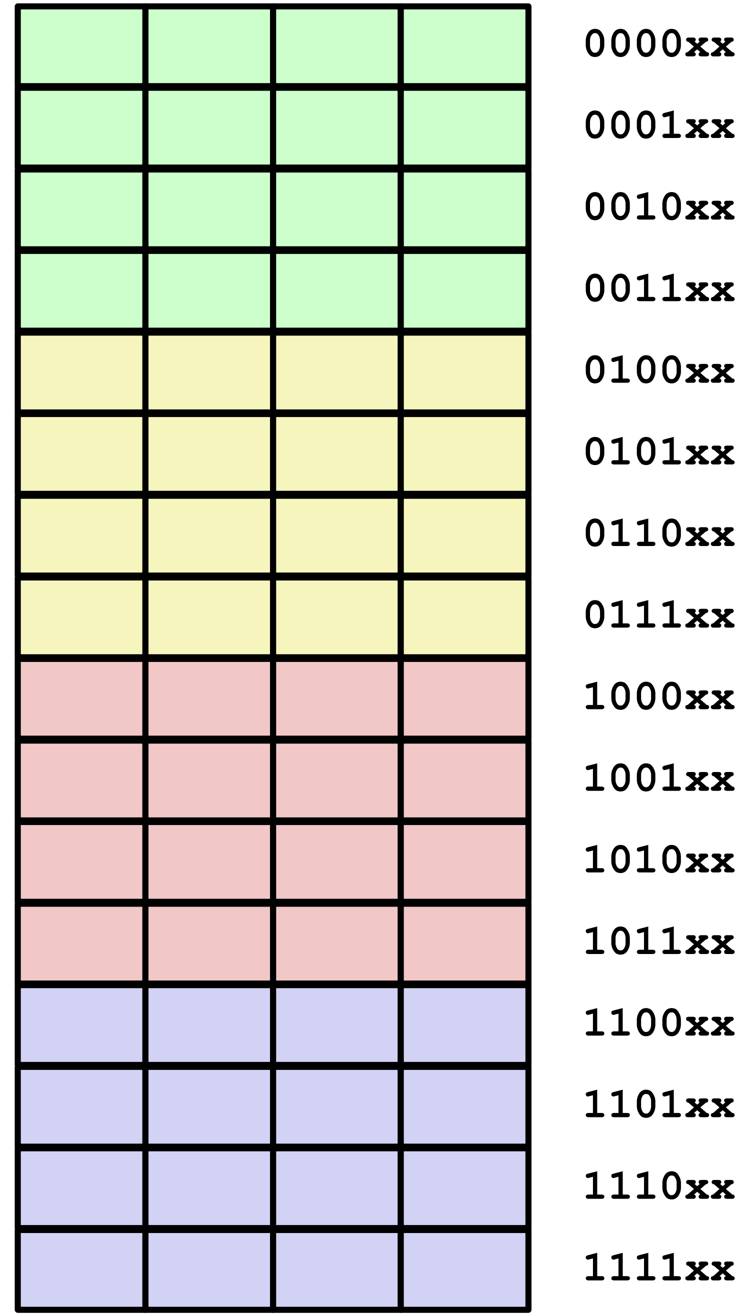




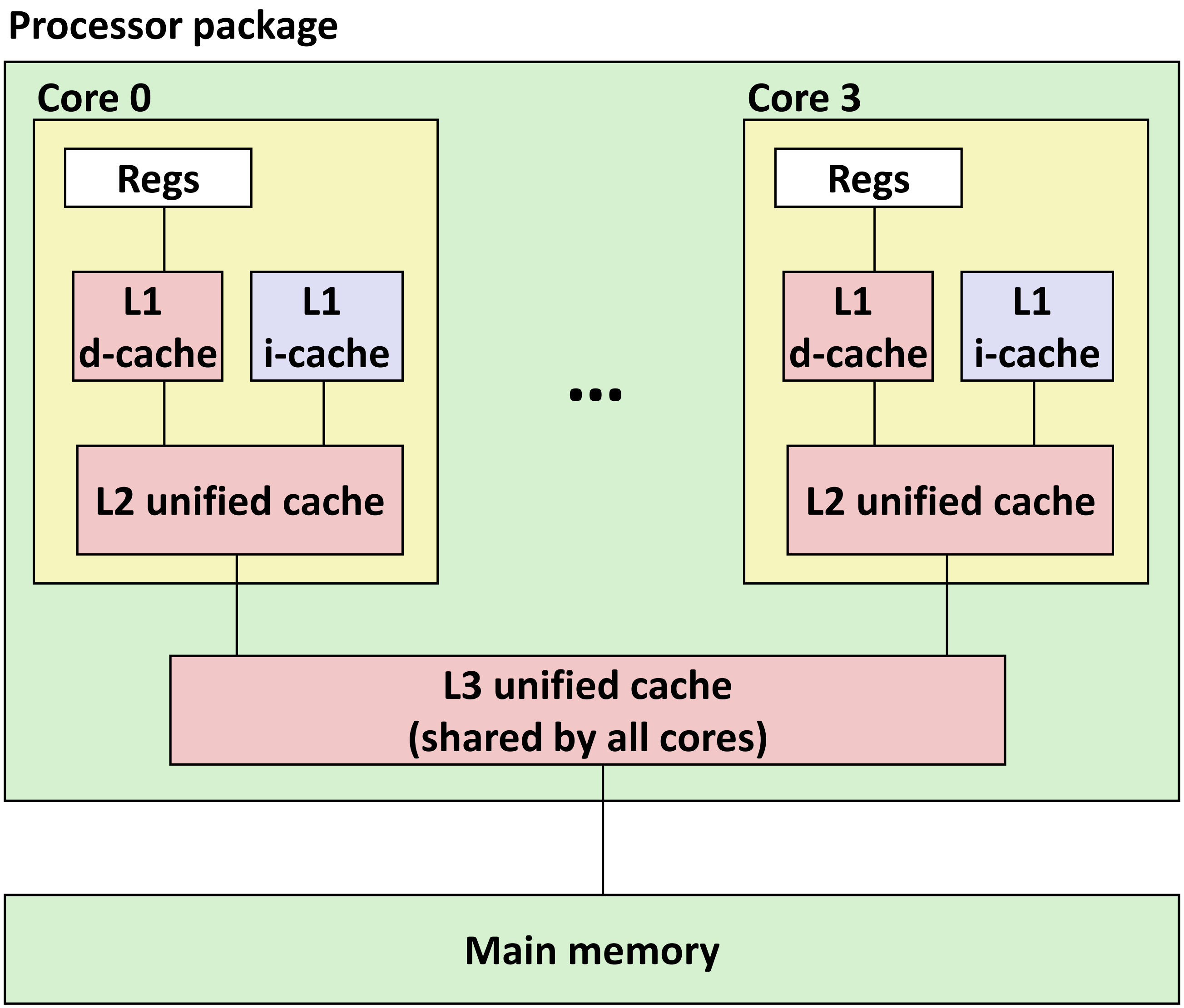
High Bit Indexing

- Addresses of form `SSTTBB`
  - `SS` Set index bits
  - `TT` Tag bits
  - `BB` Offset bits
- **Program with high spatial locality would generate lots of conflicts**
  - Adjacent blocks map to **same** set





Intel Core i7 Cache Hierarchy



L1 i-cache and d-cache:
32 KB, 8-way,
Access: 4 cycles

L2 unified cache:
256 KB, 8-way,
Access: 10 cycles

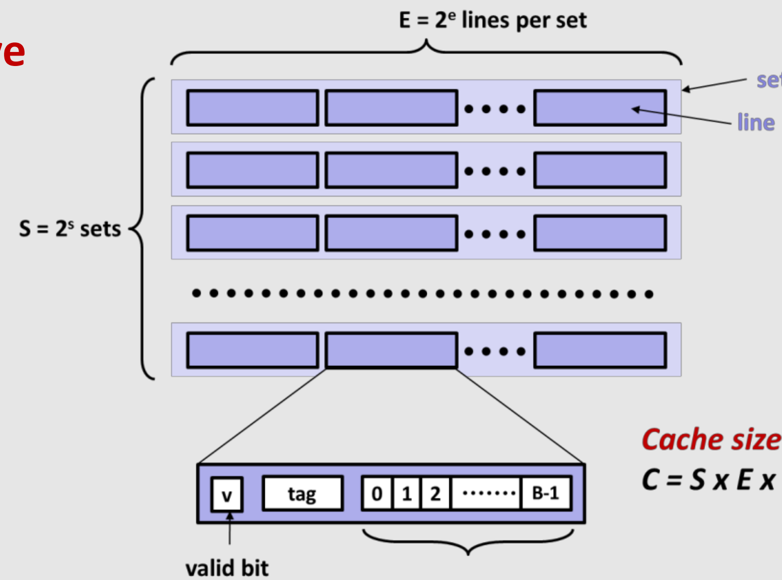
L3 unified cache:
8 MB, 16-way,
Access: 40-75 cycles

Block size: 64 bytes for all caches.

Example: Core i7 L1 Data Cache

32 kB 8-way set associative
64 bytes/block
47 bit address range

B =
S = , s =
E = , e =
C =



Cache size:
C = S x E x B data bytes

Hex	Decimal	Binary
0	0	0000
1	1	0001
2	2	0010
3	3	0011
4	4	0100
5	5	0101
6	6	0110
7	7	0111
8	8	1000
9	9	1001
A	10	1010
B	11	1011
C	12	1100
D	13	1101
E	14	1110
F	15	1111

Address of word:

t bits	s bits	b bits
tag	set index	block offset

Block offset: . bits
Set index: . bits
Tag: . bits

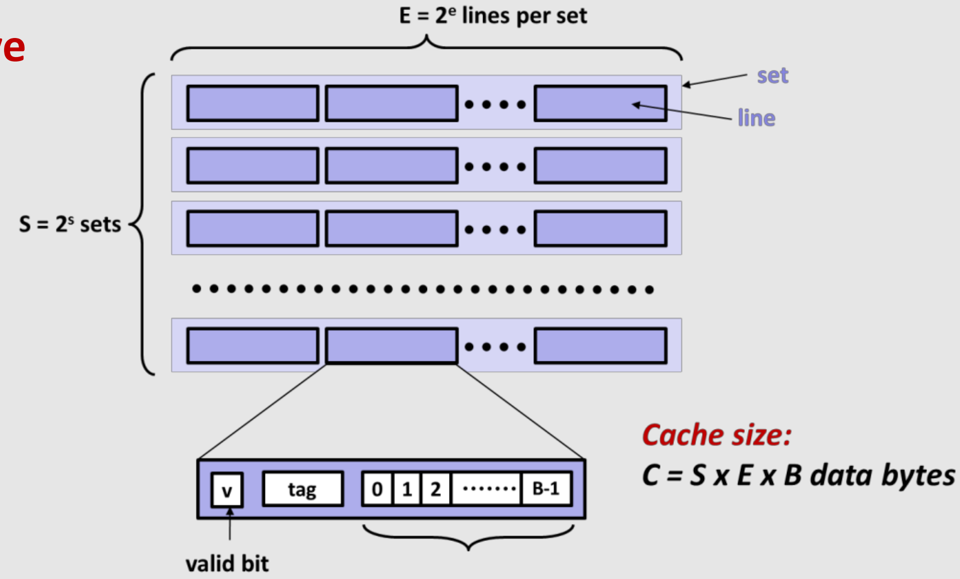
Stack Address:
`0x00007f7262a1e010`

Block offset:	0x??
Set index:	0x??
Tag:	0x??

Example: Core i7 L1 Data Cache

32 kB 8-way set associative
64 bytes/block
47 bit address range

B = 64
S = 64, s = 6
E = 8, e = 3
C = 64 x 64 x 8 = 32,768



Cache size:
C = S x E x B data bytes

Hex	Decimal	Binary
0	0	0000
1	1	0001
2	2	0010
3	3	0011
4	4	0100
5	5	0101
6	6	0110
7	7	0111
8	8	1000
9	9	1001
A	10	1010
B	11	1011
C	12	1100
D	13	1101
E	14	1110
F	15	1111

Address of word:

t bits	s bits	b bits
tag	set index	block offset

Block offset: 6 bits
Set index: 6 bits
Tag: 35 bits

Stack Address:
`0x00007f7262a1e010`

`0000 0001 0000`

Block offset: `0x10`
Set index: `0x0`
Tag: `0x7f7262a1e`

Cache Performance Metrics

- **Miss Rate**
  - Fraction of memory references not found in cache (misses / accesses) = 1 – hit rate
  - Typical numbers (in percentages):
    - 3-10% for L1
    - can be quite small (e.g., < 1%) for L2, depending on size, etc.
- **Hit Time**
  - Time to deliver a line in the cache to the processor
    - includes time to determine whether the line is in the cache
  - Typical numbers:
    - 4 clock cycle for L1
    - 10 clock cycles for L2
- **Miss Penalty**
  - Additional time required because of a miss
    - typically 50-200 cycles for main memory (Trend: increasing!)

Let's think about those numbers

- **Huge difference between a hit and a miss**
  - Could be 100x, if just L1 and main memory

- **Would you believe 99% hits is twice as good as 97%?**
  - Consider this simplified example:
    cache hit time of 1 cycle
    miss penalty of 100 cycles
  - Average access time:
    97% hits: 1 cycle + 0.03 x 100 cycles = **4 cycles**
    99% hits: 1 cycle + 0.01 x 100 cycles = **2 cycles**

- **This is why "miss rate" is used instead of "hit rate"**

Writing Cache Friendly Code

- **Make the common case go fast**
  - Focus on the inner loops of the core functions

- **Minimize the misses in the inner loops**
  - Repeated references to variables are good (temporal locality)
  - Stride-1 reference patterns are good (spatial locality)

Key idea: Our qualitative notion of locality is quantified through our understanding of cache memories

Today

- Cache organization and operation
- **Performance impact of caches**
  - The memory mountain
  - Rearranging loops to improve spatial locality
  - Using blocking to improve temporal locality

The Memory Mountain

- **Read throughput (read bandwidth)**
  - Number of bytes read from memory per second (MB/s)

- **Memory mountain: Measured read throughput as a function of spatial and temporal locality.**
  - Compact way to characterize memory system performance.

Memory Mountain Test Function

```
long data[MAXELEMS];  /* Global array to traverse */

/* test - Iterate over first "elems" elements of
 *        array "data" with stride of "stride",
 *        using 4x4 loop unrolling.
 */
int test(int elems, int stride) {
    long i, sx2=stride*2, sx3=stride*3, sx4=stride*4;
    long acc0 = 0, acc1 = 0, acc2 = 0, acc3 = 0;
    long length = elems, limit = length - sx4;

    /* Combine 4 elements at a time */
    for (i = 0; i < limit; i += sx4) {
        acc0 = acc0 + data[i];
        acc1 = acc1 + data[i+stride];
        acc2 = acc2 + data[i+sx2];
        acc3 = acc3 + data[i+sx3];
    }

    /* Finish any remaining elements */
    for (; i < length; i++) {
        acc0 = acc0 + data[i];
    }
    return ((acc0 + acc1) + (acc2 + acc3));
}
```

mountain/mountain.c

Call `test()` with many combinations of `elems` and `stride`.

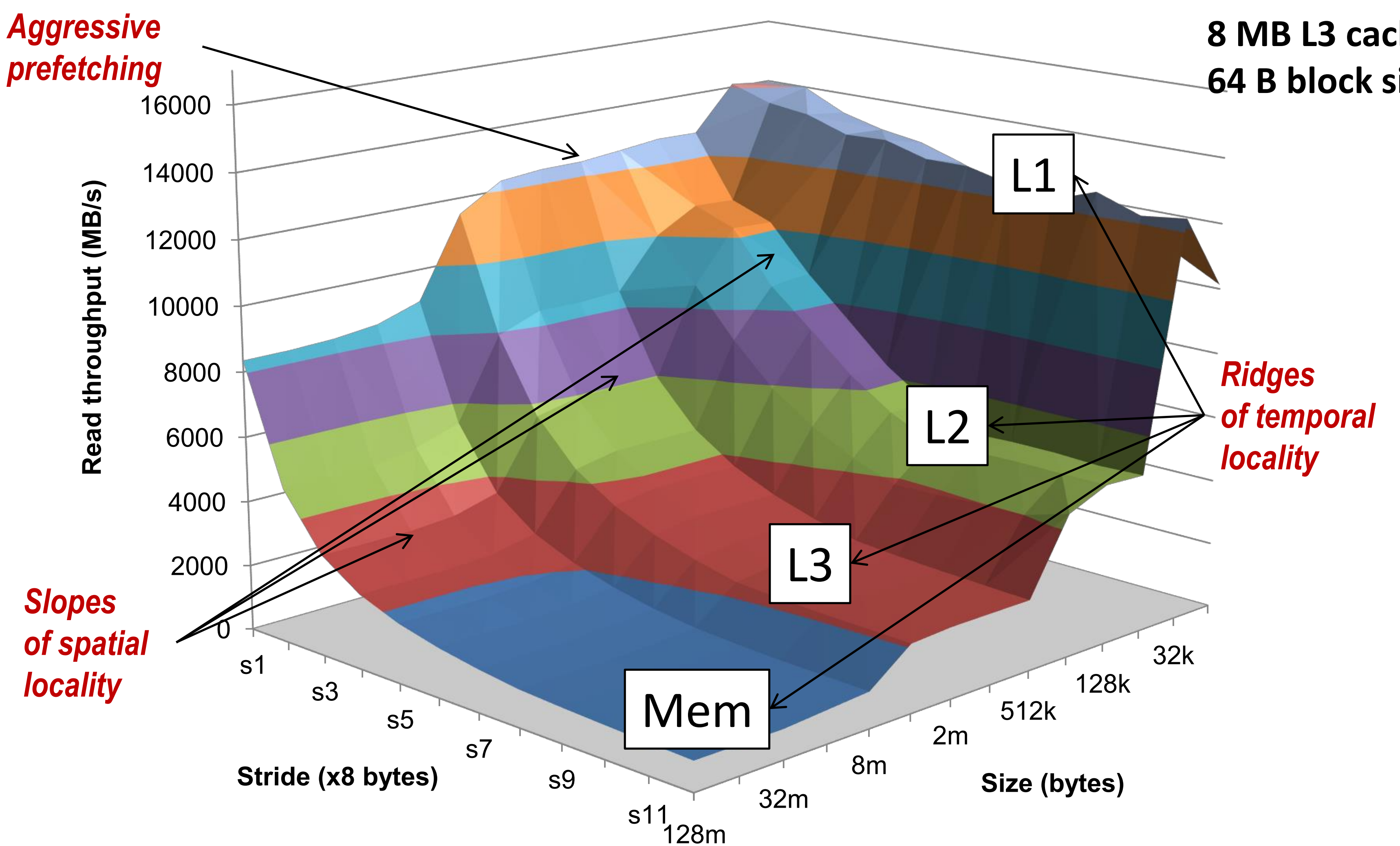
For each `elems` and `stride`:

1. Call `test()` once to warm up the caches.

2. Call `test()` again and measure the read throughput(MB/s)

The Memory Mountain

Core i7 Haswell
2.1 GHz
32 KB L1 d-cache
256 KB L2 cache
8 MB L3 cache
64 B block size



Today

- **Cache organization and operation**
- **Performance impact of caches**
  - The memory mountain
  - Rearranging loops to improve spatial locality
  - Using blocking to improve temporal locality

Matrix Multiplication Example

- **Description:**
  - Multiply *N* x *N* matrices
  - Matrix elements are doubles (8 bytes)
  - O(N^3) total operations
  - *N* reads per source element
  - *N* values summed per destination
    - but may be able to hold in register

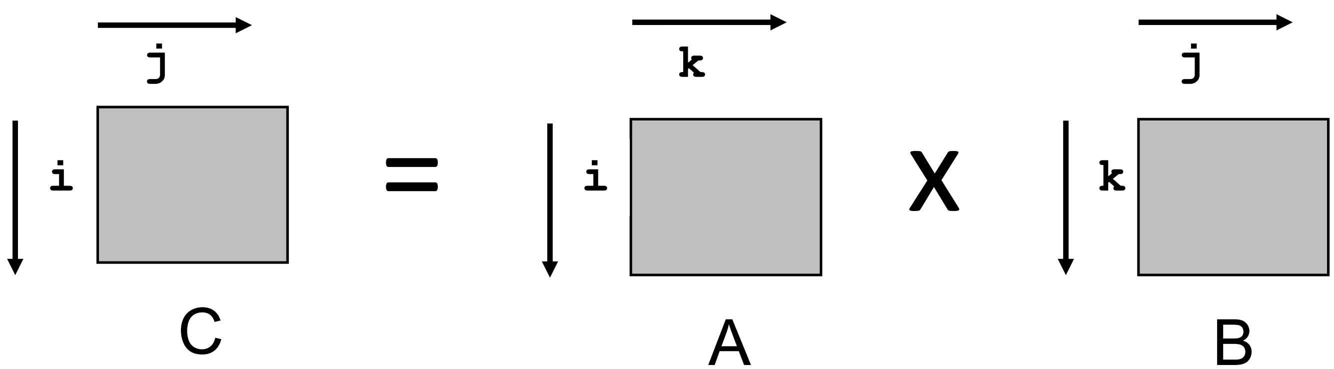
Variable ***sum*** *held in register*

```
/* ijk */
for (i=0; i<n; i++)  {
  for (j=0; j<n; j++) {
    sum = 0.0;
    for (k=0; k<n; k++)
      sum += a[i][k] * b[k][j];
    c[i][j] = sum;
  }
}
```

matmult/mm.c

Miss Rate Analysis for Matrix Multiply

- **Assume:**
  - Block size = 32B (big enough for four doubles)
  - Matrix dimension (N) is very large
    - Approximate 1/N as 0.0
  - Cache is not even big enough to hold multiple rows
- **Analysis Method:**
  - Look at access pattern of inner loop



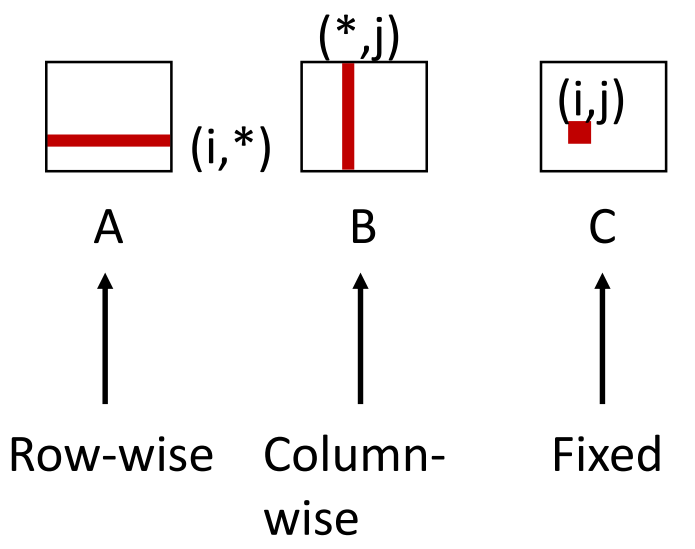
Layout of C Arrays in Memory (review)

- **C arrays allocated in row-major order**
  - each row in contiguous memory locations
- **Stepping through columns in one row:**
  - ```
    for (i = 0; i < N; i++)
      sum += a[0][i];
    ```
  - accesses successive elements
  - if block size (B) > sizeof(a_{ij}) bytes, exploit spatial locality
    - miss rate = sizeof(a_{ij}) / B
- **Stepping through rows in one column:**
  - ```
    for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
      sum += a[i][0];
    ```
  - accesses distant elements
  - no spatial locality!
    - miss rate = 1 (i.e. 100%)

Matrix Multiplication (`ijk`)

```
/* ijk */
for (i=0; i<n; i++)  {
  for (j=0; j<n; j++) {
    sum = 0.0;
    for (k=0; k<n; k++)
      sum += a[i][k] * b[k][j];
    c[i][j] = sum;
  }
}                          matmult/mm.c
```

Inner loop:



<u>Miss rate for inner loop iterations:</u>

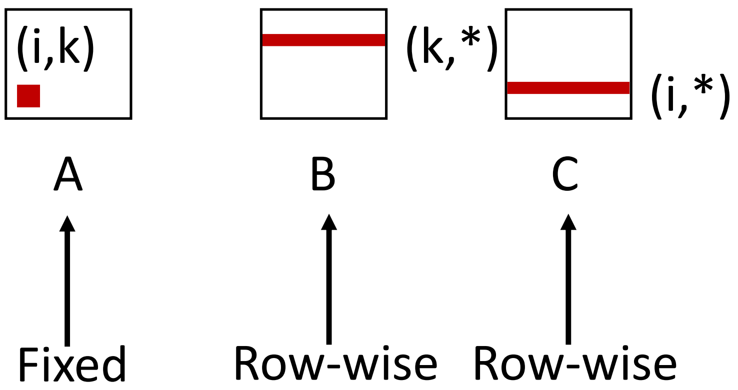
<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>
0.25	1.0	0.0

Block size = 32B (four doubles)

Matrix Multiplication (`kij`)

```
/* kij */
for (k=0; k<n; k++) {
  for (i=0; i<n; i++) {
    r = a[i][k];
    for (j=0; j<n; j++)
      c[i][j] += r * b[k][j];
  }
}                    matmult/mm.c
```

Inner loop:



Miss rate for inner loop iterations:

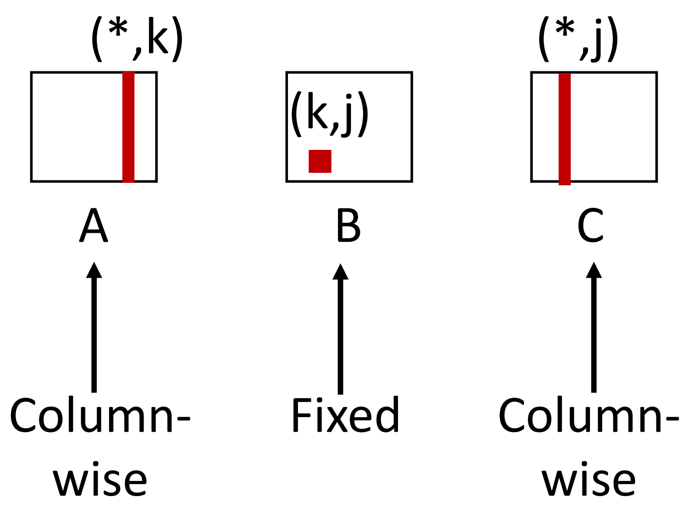
A	B	C
0.0	0.25	0.25

Block size = 32B (four doubles)

Matrix Multiplication (`jki`)

```
/* jki */
for (j=0; j<n; j++) {
  for (k=0; k<n; k++) {
    r = b[k][j];
    for (i=0; i<n; i++)
      c[i][j] += a[i][k] * r;
  }
}
```
matmult/mm.c

Inner loop:



Miss rate for inner loop iterations:

A	B	C
1.0	0.0	1.0

Block size = 32B (four doubles)

Summary of Matrix Multiplication

```
for (i=0; i<n; i++) {
  for (j=0; j<n; j++) {
   sum = 0.0;
   for (k=0; k<n; k++)
     sum += a[i][k] * b[k][j];
   c[i][j] = sum;
  }
}
```

ijk (& jik):
- 2 loads, 0 stores
- avg misses/iter = **1.25**

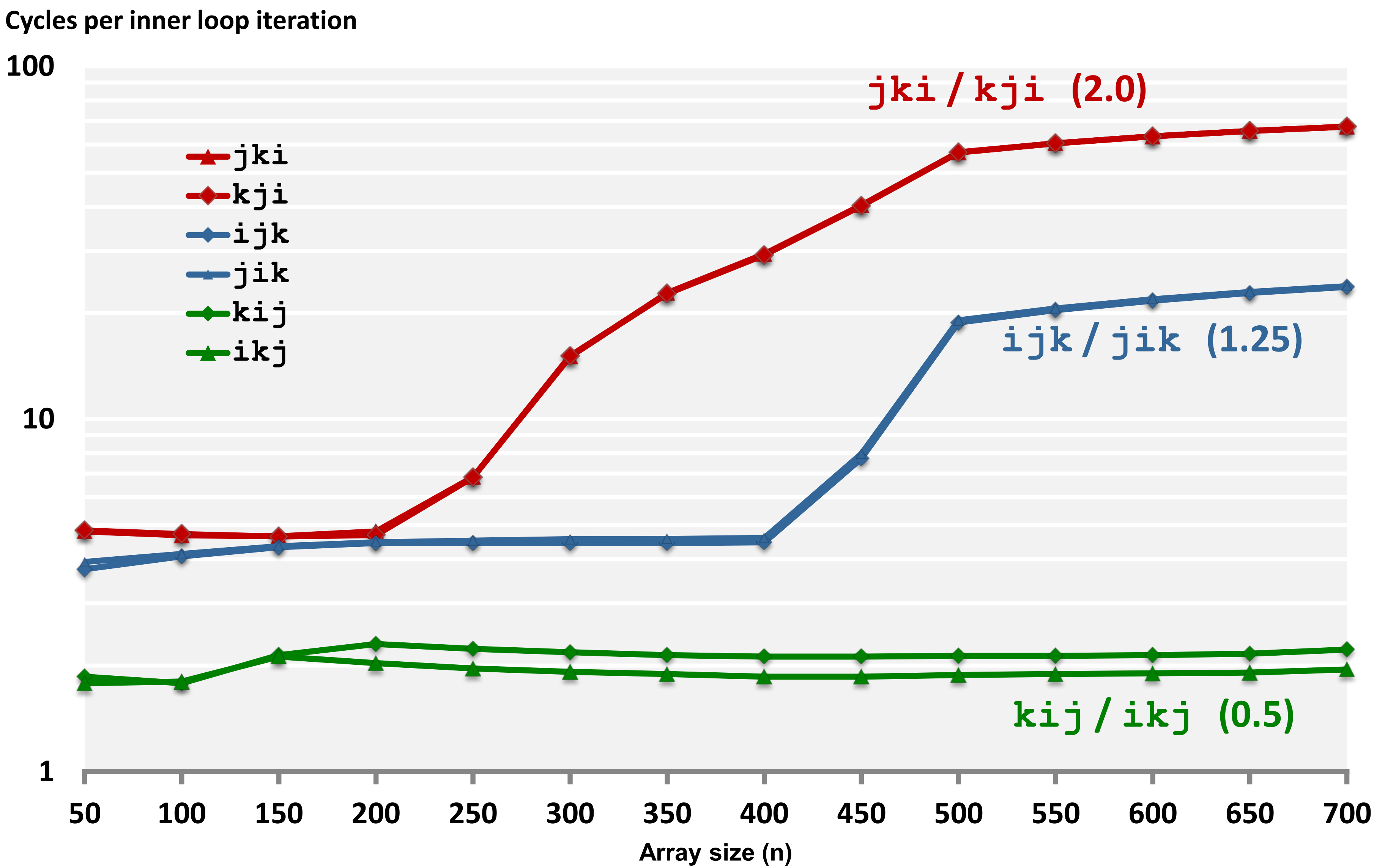
```
for (k=0; k<n; k++) {
 for (i=0; i<n; i++) {
  r = a[i][k];
  for (j=0; j<n; j++)
   c[i][j] += r * b[k][j];
 }
}
```

kij (& ikj):
- 2 loads, 1 store
- avg misses/iter = **0.5**

```
for (j=0; j<n; j++) {
 for (k=0; k<n; k++) {
   r = b[k][j];
   for (i=0; i<n; i++)
    c[i][j] += a[i][k] * r;
 }
}
```

jki (& kji):
- 2 loads, 1 store
- avg misses/iter = **2.0**

Core i7 Matrix Multiply Performance

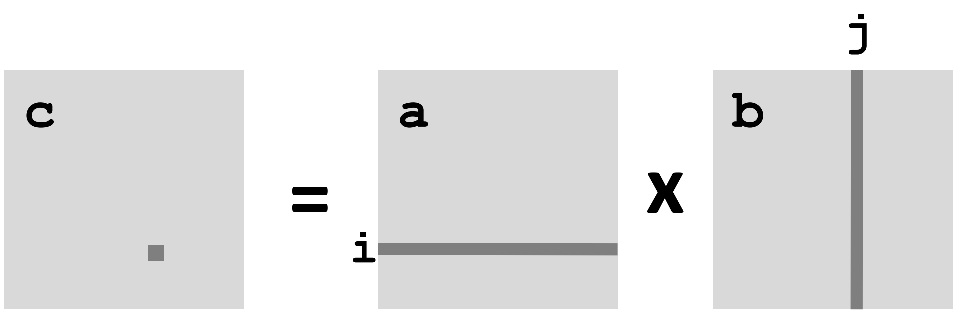


Today

- Cache organization and operation
- Performance impact of caches
  - The memory mountain
  - Rearranging loops to improve spatial locality
  - Using blocking to improve temporal locality

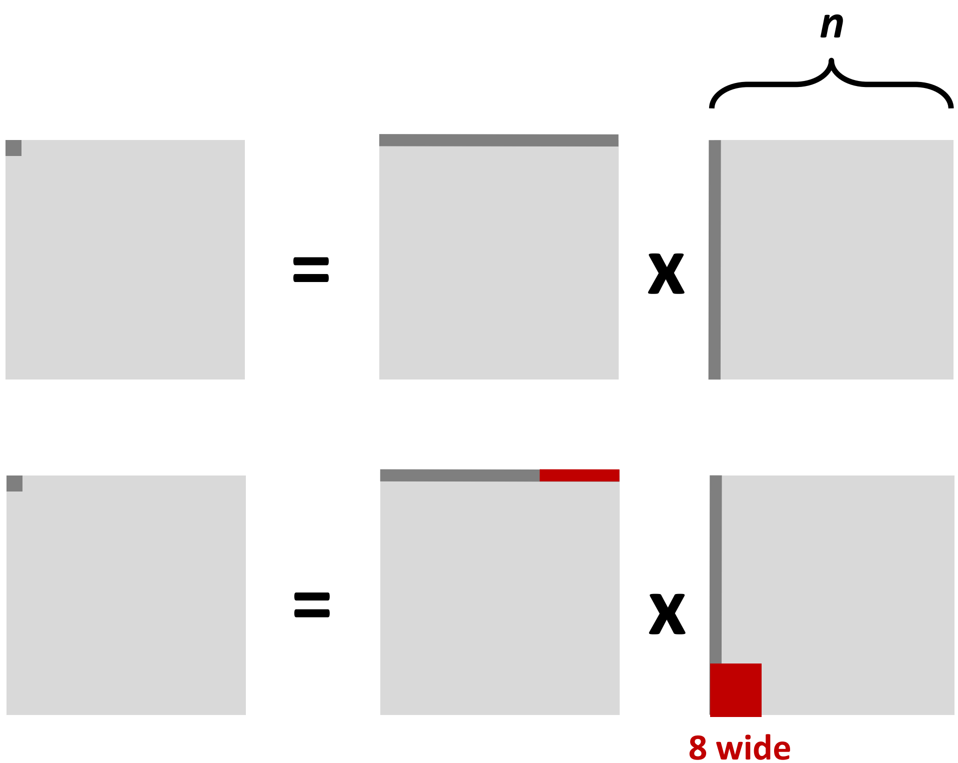
Example: Matrix Multiplication

```
c = (double *) calloc(sizeof(double), n*n);

/* Multiply n x n matrices a and b  */
void mmm(double *a, double *b, double *c, int n) {
    int i, j, k;
    for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
        for (j = 0; j < n; j++)
            for (k = 0; k < n; k++)
                c[i*n + j] += a[i*n + k] * b[k*n + j];
}
```



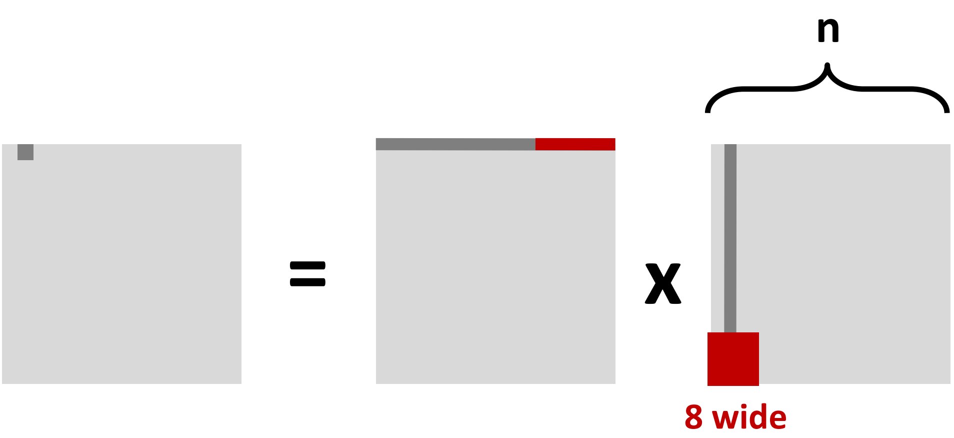
Cache Miss Analysis

- **Assume:**
  - Matrix elements are doubles
  - Cache block = 8 doubles
  - Cache size C << *n* (much smaller than *n*)
- **First iteration:**
  - $n/8 + n = 9n/8$ misses
  - Afterwards in cache: (schematic)



Cache Miss Analysis

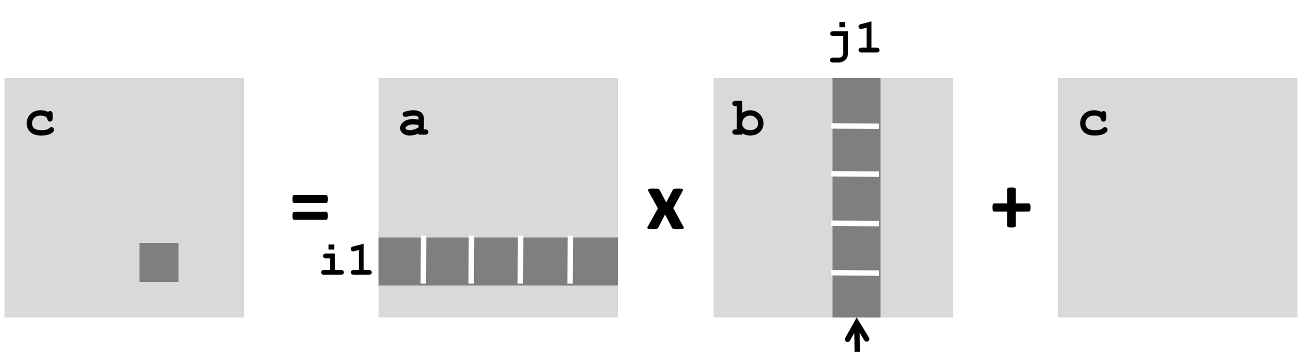
- **Assume:**
  - Matrix elements are doubles
  - Cache block = 8 doubles
  - Cache size C << *n* (much smaller than *n*)
- **Second iteration:**
  - Again:
    $n/8 + n = 9n/8$ misses



- **Total misses:**
  - $9n/8\ n^2 = (9/8)\ n^3$

Blocked Matrix Multiplication

```
c = (double *) calloc(sizeof(double), n*n);

/* Multiply n x n matrices a and b  */
void mmm(double *a, double *b, double *c, int n) {
    int i, j, k;
    for (i = 0; i < n; i+=B)
        for (j = 0; j < n; j+=B)
             for (k = 0; k < n; k+=B)
                 /* B x B mini matrix multiplications */
                  for (i1 = i; i1 < i+B; i++)
                      for (j1 = j; j1 < j+B; j++)
                          for (k1 = k; k1 < k+B; k++)
                              c[i1*n+j1] += a[i1*n + k1]*b[k1*n + j1];
}
                                                        matmult/bmm.c
```

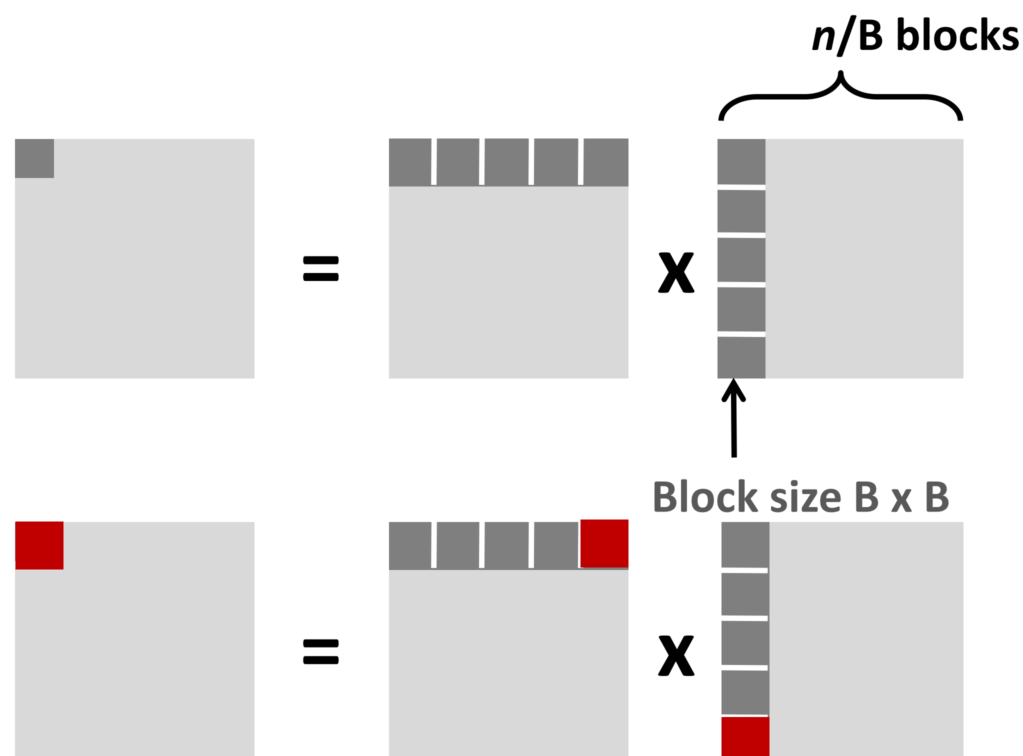


Block size B x B

Cache Miss Analysis

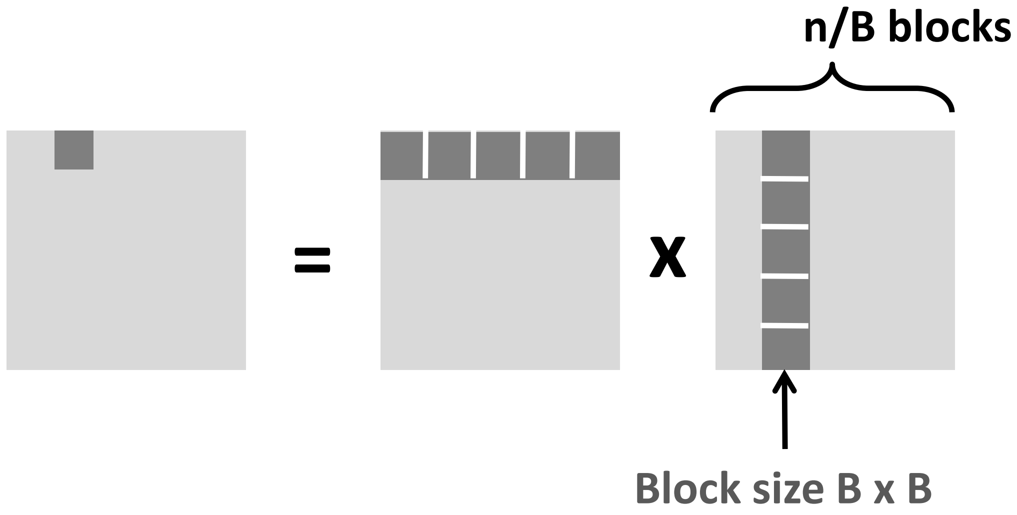
- **Assume:**
  - Cache block = 8 doubles
  - Cache size C << *n* (much smaller than n)
  - Three blocks fit into cache: $3B^2 < C$

- **First (block) iteration:**
  - $B^2/8$ misses for each block
  - $2n/B \times B^2/8 = nB/4$ (omitting matrix c)
  - Afterwards in cache (schematic)



Cache Miss Analysis

- **Assume:**
  - Cache block = 8 doubles
  - Cache size C << *n* (much smaller than n)
  - Three blocks fit into cache: $3B^2 < C$
- **Second (block) iteration:**
  - Same as first iteration
  - $2n/B \times B^2/8 = nB/4$
- **Total misses:**
  - $nB/4 * (n/B)^2 = n^3/(4B)$



Blocking Summary

- **No blocking: (9/8) n^3 misses**
- **Blocking: (1/(4B)) n^3 misses**

- **Use largest block size B, such that B satisfies $3B^2 < C$**

- **Reason for dramatic difference:**
  - Matrix multiplication has inherent temporal locality:
    - Input data: $3n^2$, computation $2n^3$
    - Every array elements used O(n) times!
  - But program has to be written properly

Cache Summary

- **Cache memories can have significant performance impact**

- **You can write your programs to exploit this!**
  - Focus on the inner loops, where bulk of computations and memory accesses occur.
  - Try to maximize spatial locality by reading data objects sequentially with stride 1.
  - Try to maximize temporal locality by using a data object as often as possible once it's read from memory.

Today

- **Overview**
- **Generally Useful Optimizations**
  - Code motion/precomputation
  - Strength reduction
  - Sharing of common subexpressions
  - Example: Bubblesort
- **Optimization Blockers**
  - Procedure calls
  - Memory aliasing
- **Exploiting Instruction-Level Parallelism**
- **Dealing with Conditionals**

Performance Realities

- ***There's more to performance than asymptotic complexity***
- **Constant factors matter too!**
  - Easily see 10:1 performance range depending on how code is written
  - Must optimize at multiple levels:
    - algorithm, data representations, procedures, and loops
- **Must understand system to optimize performance**
  - How programs are compiled and executed
  - How modern processors + memory systems operate
  - How to measure program performance and identify bottlenecks
  - How to improve performance without destroying code modularity and generality

Optimizing Compilers

- **Provide efficient mapping of program to machine**
  - register allocation
  - code selection and ordering (scheduling)
  - dead code elimination
  - eliminating minor inefficiencies
- **Don’t (usually) improve asymptotic efficiency**
  - up to programmer to select best overall algorithm
  - big-O savings are (often) more important than constant factors
    - but constant factors also matter
- **Have difficulty overcoming “optimization blockers”**
  - potential memory aliasing
  - potential procedure side-effects

Generally Useful Optimizations

- **Optimizations that you or the compiler should do regardless of processor / compiler**
- **Code Motion**
  - Reduce frequency with which computation performed
    - If it will always produce same result
    - Especially moving code out of loop

```
void set_row(double *a, double *b,
   long i, long n)
{
    long j;
    for (j = 0; j < n; j++)
         a[n*i+j] = b[j];
}
```

→

```
    long j;
    int ni = n*i;
    for (j = 0; j < n; j++)
         a[ni+j] = b[j];
```

Compiler-Generated Code Motion (-O1)

```
void set_row(double *a, double *b,
   long i, long n)
{
    long j;
    for (j = 0; j < n; j++)
        a[n*i+j] = b[j];
}
```

```
    long j;
    long ni = n*i;
    double *rowp = a+ni;
    for (j = 0; j < n; j++)
        *rowp++ = b[j];
```

```
set_row:
        testq    %rcx, %rcx              # Test n
        jle      .L1                     # If <= 0, goto done
        imulq    %rcx, %rdx              # ni = n*i
        leaq     (%rdi,%rdx,8), %rdx     # rowp = A + ni*8
        movl     $0, %eax                # j = 0
.L3:                                     # loop:
        movsd    (%rsi,%rax,8), %xmm0    # t = b[j]
        movsd    %xmm0, (%rdx,%rax,8)    # M[A+ni*8 + j*8] = t
        addq     $1, %rax                # j++
        cmpq     %rcx, %rax              # j:n
        jne      .L3                     # if !=, goto loop
.L1:                                     # done:
        rep ; ret
```

Reduction in Strength

- Replace costly operation with simpler one
- Shift, add instead of multiply or divide

  ```
  16*x   -->    x << 4
  ```

  - Utility is machine dependent
  - Depends on cost of multiply or divide instruction
    - Intel Nehalem: integer multiply takes 3 CPU cycles, add is 1 cycle[1]
- Recognize sequence of products

```
for (i = 0; i < n; i++) {
  int ni = n*i;
  for (j = 0; j < n; j++)
    a[ni + j] = b[j];
}
```

```
int ni = 0;
for (i = 0; i < n; i++) {
  for (j = 0; j < n; j++)
    a[ni + j] = b[j];
  ni += n;
}
```

[1]https://www.agner.org/optimize/instruction_tables.pdf

Share Common Subexpressions

- Reuse portions of expressions
- GCC will do this with –O1

```
/* Sum neighbors of i,j */
up =    val[(i-1)*n + j  ];
down =  val[(i+1)*n + j  ];
left =  val[i*n     + j-1];
right = val[i*n     + j+1];
sum = up + down + left + right;
```

```
long inj = i*n + j;
up =    val[inj - n];
down =  val[inj + n];
left =  val[inj - 1];
right = val[inj + 1];
sum = up + down + left + right;
```

3 multiplications: `i*n, (i–1)*n, (i+1)*n`

1 multiplication: `i*n`

```
leaq   1(%rsi), %rax  # i+1
leaq   -1(%rsi), %r8  # i-1
imulq  %rcx, %rsi     # i*n
imulq  %rcx, %rax     # (i+1)*n
imulq  %rcx, %r8      # (i-1)*n
addq   %rdx, %rsi     # i*n+j
addq   %rdx, %rax     # (i+1)*n+j
addq   %rdx, %r8      # (i-1)*n+j
...
```

```
imulq    %rcx, %rsi   # i*n
addq     %rdx, %rsi   # i*n+j
movq     %rsi, %rax   # i*n+j
subq     %rcx, %rax   # i*n+j-n
leaq     (%rsi,%rcx), %rcx # i*n+j+n
...
```

Optimization Example: Bubblesort

- **Bubblesort program that sorts an array `A` that is allocated in static storage:**
  - an element of `A` requires four bytes of a byte-addressed machine
  - elements of `A` are numbered 1 through `n` (`n` is a variable)
  - `A[j]` is in location `&A+4*(j-1)`

```
for (i = n-1; i >= 1; i--) {
   for (j = 1; j <= i; j++)
      if (A[j] > A[j+1]) {
         temp = A[j];
         A[j] = A[j+1];
         A[j+1] = temp;
      }
}
```

Translated (Pseudo) Code

```
     i  := n-1
L5:  if i<1 goto L1
     j  := 1
L4:  if j>i goto L2
     t1  := j-1
     t2  := 4*t1
     t3  := A[t2]     // A[j]
     t4  := j+1
     t5  := t4-1
     t6  := 4*t5
     t7  := A[t6]     // A[j+1]
     if t3<=t7 goto L3
```

```
for (i = n-1; i >= 1; i--) {
  for (j = 1; j <= i; j++)
    if (A[j] > A[j+1]) {
      temp = A[j];
      A[j] = A[j+1];
      A[j+1] = temp;
    }
}
```

```
     t8  := j-1
     t9  := 4*t8
     temp  := A[t9]   // temp:=A[j]
     t10  := j+1
     t11:= t10-1
     t12 := 4*t11
     t13  := A[t12]   // A[j+1]
     t14  := j-1
     t15  := 4*t14
     A[t15]  := t13   // A[j]:=A[j+1]
     t16  := j+1
     t17  := t16-1
     t18  := 4*t17
     A[t18]:=temp     // A[j+1]:=temp
L3:  j  := j+1
     goto L4
L2:  i  := i-1
     goto L5
L1:
```

Instructions

29 in outer loop

25 in inner loop

Redundancy in Address Calculation

```
     i  := n-1
L5:  if i<1 goto L1
     j  := 1
L4:  if j>i goto L2
     t1  := j-1
     t2  := 4*t1
     t3  := A[t2]    // A[j]
     t4  := j+1
     t5  := t4-1
     t6  := 4*t5
     t7  := A[t6]    // A[j+1]
     if t3<=t7 goto L3
```

```
     t8  :=j-1
     t9  := 4*t8
     temp  := A[t9]    // temp:=A[j]
     t10  := j+1
     t11:= t10-1
     t12 := 4*t11
     t13  := A[t12]    // A[j+1]
     t14  := j-1
     t15  := 4*t14
     A[t15]  := t13    // A[j]:=A[j+1]
     t16  := j+1
     t17  := t16-1
     t18  := 4*t17
     A[t18]:=temp      // A[j+1]:=temp
L3:  j  := j+1
     goto L4
L2:  i  := i-1
     goto L5
L1:
```

Redundancy Removed

```
     i  := n-1
L5:  if i<1 goto L1
     j  := 1
L4:  if j>i goto L2
     t1  := j-1
     t2  := 4*t1
     t3  := A[t2]     // A[j]
     t6  := 4*j
     t7  := A[t6]     // A[j+1]
     if t3<=t7 goto L3
```

```
     t8  :=j-1
     t9  := 4*t8
     temp  := A[t9]   // temp:=A[j]
     t12  := 4*j
     t13  := A[t12]   // A[j+1]
     A[t9]:= t13      // A[j]:=A[j+1]
     A[t12]:=temp     // A[j+1]:=temp
L3:  j  := j+1
     goto L4
L2:  i  := i-1
     goto L5
L1:
```

<u>Instructions</u>
20 in outer loop
16 in inner loop

More Redundancy

```
     i := n-1
L5:  if i<1 goto L1
     j := 1
L4:  if j>i goto L2
     t1 := j-1
     t2 := 4*t1
     t3 := A[t2]     // A[j]
     t6 := 4*j
     t7 := A[t6]     // A[j+1]
     if t3<=t7 goto L3
```

```
     t8 :=j-1
     t9 := 4*t8
     temp := A[t9]  // temp:=A[j]
     t12 := 4*j
     t13 := A[t12]  // A[j+1]
     A[t9]:= t13    // A[j]:=A[j+1]
     A[t12]:=temp   // A[j+1]:=temp
L3:  j := j+1
     goto L4
L2:  i := i-1
     goto L5
L1:
```

Redundancy Removed

```
     i  := n-1
L5:  if i<1 goto L1
     j  := 1
L4:  if j>i goto L2
     t1  := j-1
     t2  := 4*t1
     t3  := A[t2]     // old_A[j]
     t6  := 4*j
     t7  := A[t6]     // A[j+1]
     if t3<=t7 goto L3
```

```
     A[t2]  := t7   // A[j]:=A[j+1]
     A[t6]  := t3   // A[j+1]:=old_A[j]
L3:  j  := j+1
     goto L4
L2:  i  := i-1
     goto L5
L1:
```

Instructions

15 in outer loop

11 in inner loop

Redundancy in Loops

```
     i  := n-1
L5:  if i<1 goto L1
     j  := 1
L4:  if j>i goto L2
     t1  := j-1
     t2  := 4*t1
     t3  := A[t2]     // A[j]
     t6  := 4*j
     t7  := A[t6]     // A[j+1]
     if t3<=t7 goto L3
     A[t2] := t7
     A[t6] := t3
L3:  j  := j+1
     goto L4
L2:  i  := i-1
     goto L5
L1:
```

Redundancy Eliminated

```
    i  := n-1
L5: if i<1 goto L1
    j  := 1
L4: if j>i goto L2
    t1  := j-1
    t2  := 4*t1
    t3  := A[t2]     // A[j]
    t6  := 4*j
    t7  := A[t6]     // A[j+1]
    if t3<=t7 goto L3
    A[t2] := t7
    A[t6] := t3
L3: j  := j+1
    goto L4
L2: i  := i-1
    goto L5
L1:
```

```
    i  := n-1
L5: if i<1 goto L1
    t2  := 0
    t6  := 4
    t19  := 4*i
L4: if t6>t19 goto L2
    t3  := A[t2]
    t7  := A[t6]
    if t3<=t7 goto L3
    A[t2]  := t7
    A[t6]  := t3
L3: t2  := t2+4
    t6  := t6+4
    goto L4
L2: i  := i-1
    goto L5
L1:
```

Final Pseudo Code

```
     i := n-1
L5:  if i<1 goto L1
     t2 := 0
     t6 := 4
     t19 := i << 2
L4:  if t6>t19 goto L2
     t3 := A[t2]
     t7 := A[t6]
     if t3<=t7 goto L3
     A[t2] := t7
     A[t6] := t3
L3:  t2 := t2+4
     t6 := t6+4
     goto L4
L2:  i := i-1
     goto L5
L1:
```

Instruction Count
Before Optimizations
29 in outer loop
25 in inner loop

Instruction Count
After Optimizations
15 in outer loop
9 in inner loop

- These were **Machine-Independent Optimizations.**
- Will be followed by **Machine-Dependent Optimizations**, including allocating temporaries to registers, converting to assembly code

Today

- Overview
- Generally Useful Optimizations
  - Code motion/precomputation
  - Strength reduction
  - Sharing of common subexpressions
  - Example: Bubblesort
- **Optimization Blockers**
  - Procedure calls
  - Memory aliasing
- Exploiting Instruction-Level Parallelism
- Dealing with Conditionals

Limitations of Optimizing Compilers

- **Operate under fundamental constraint**
  - Must not cause any change in program behavior
  - Often prevents optimizations that affect only "edge case" behavior
- **Behavior obvious to the programmer is not obvious to compiler**
  - e.g., Data range may be more limited than types suggest (short vs. int)
- **Most analysis is only within a procedure**
  - Whole-program analysis is usually too expensive
  - Sometimes compiler does interprocedural analysis **within** a file (new GCC)
- **Most analysis is based only on *static* information**
  - Compiler has difficulty anticipating run-time inputs
- **When in doubt, the compiler must be conservative**

Optimization Blocker #1: Procedure Calls

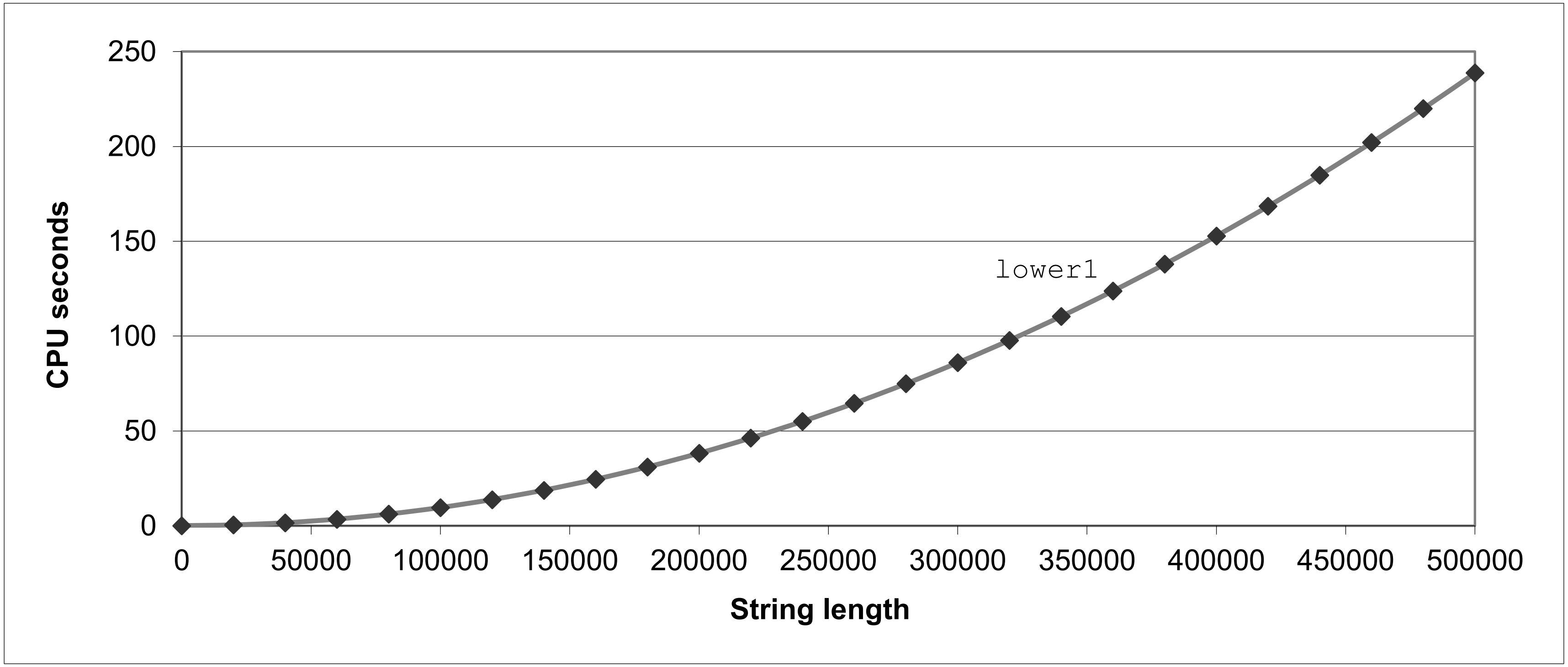
- **Procedure to Convert String to Lower Case**

```
void lower(char *s)
{
  size_t i;
  for (i = 0; i < strlen(s); i++)
    if (s[i] >= 'A' && s[i] <= 'Z')
      s[i] -= ('A' - 'a');
}
```

  - Extracted from 213 lab submissions, Fall, 1998

Lower Case Conversion Performance

- Time quadruples when double string length
- Quadratic performance



Convert Loop To Goto Form

```
void lower(char *s)
{
   size_t i = 0;
   if (i >= strlen(s))
     goto done;
 loop:
   if (s[i] >= 'A' && s[i] <= 'Z')
       s[i] -= ('A' - 'a');
   i++;
   if (i < strlen(s))
     goto loop;
 done:
}
```

- `strlen` executed every iteration

Calling Strlen

```
/* My version of strlen */
size_t strlen(const char *s)
{
    size_t length = 0;
    while (*s != '\0') {
        s++;
        length++;
    }
    return length;
}
```

- **Strlen performance**
  - Only way to determine length of string is to scan its entire length, looking for null character.
- **Overall performance, string of length N**
  - N calls to strlen
  - Require times N, N-1, N-2, …, 1
  - Overall $O(N^2)$ performance

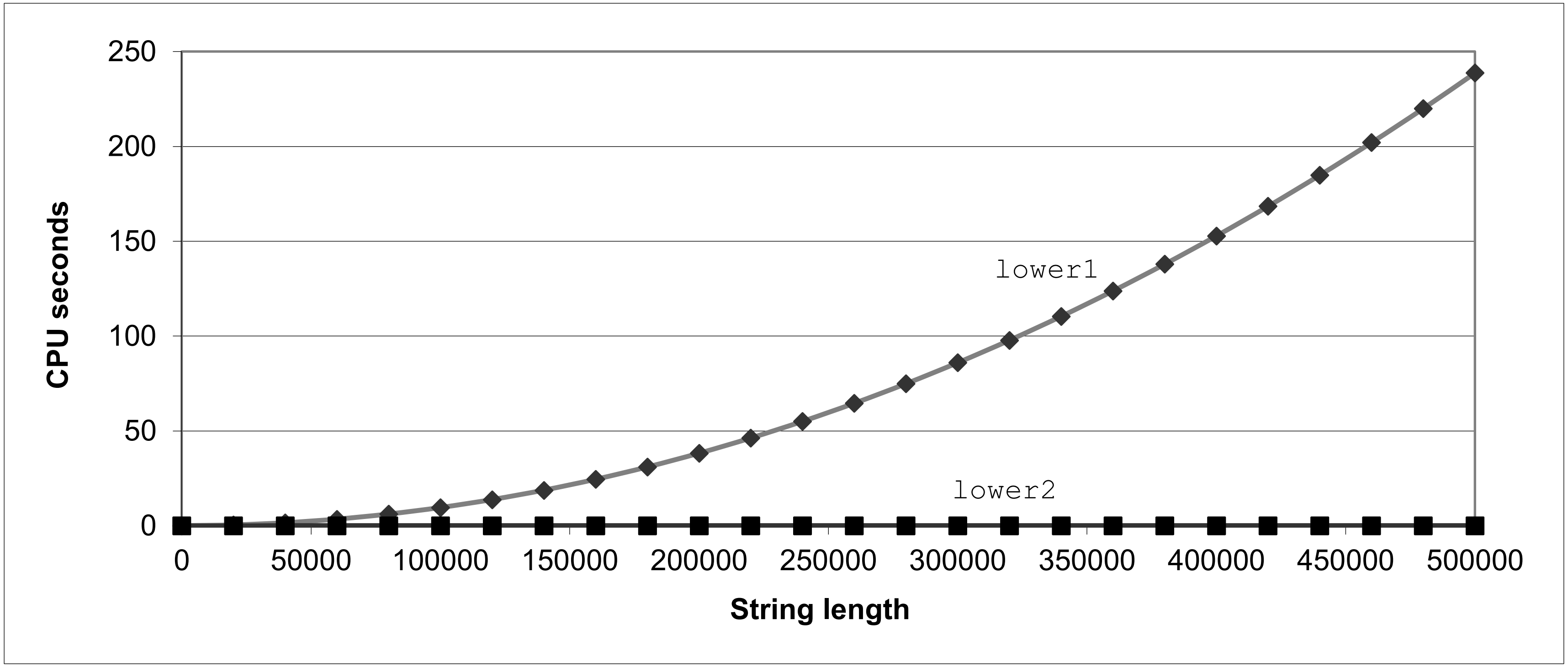
Improving Performance

```
void lower(char *s)
{
  size_t i;
  size_t len = strlen(s);
  for (i = 0; i < len; i++)
    if (s[i] >= 'A' && s[i] <= 'Z')
      s[i] -= ('A' - 'a');
}
```

- Move call to **`strlen`** outside of loop
- Legal since result does not change from one iteration to another
- Form of code motion

Lower Case Conversion Performance

- Time doubles when double string length
- Linear performance of lower2



Optimization Blocker: Procedure Calls

- ***Why couldn't compiler move `strlen` out of inner loop?***
  - Procedure may have side effects
    - Alters global state each time called
  - Function may not return same value for given arguments
    - Depends on other parts of global state
    - Procedure **`lower`** could interact with **`strlen`**
- **Warning:**
  - Compiler may treat procedure call as a black box
  - Weak optimizations near them
- **Remedies:**
  - Use of inline functions
    - GCC does this with –O1
      - Within single file
  - Do your own code motion

```
size_t lencnt = 0;
size_t strlen(const char *s)
{
    size_t length = 0;
    while (*s != '\0') {
       s++; length++;
    }
    lencnt += length;
    return length;
}
```

Memory Matters

```
/* Sum rows of n X n matrix a
   and store in vector b  */
void sum_rows1(double *a, double *b, long n) {
    long i, j;
    for (i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        b[i] = 0;
        for (j = 0; j < n; j++)
            b[i] += a[i*n + j];
    }
}
```

```
# sum_rows1 inner loop
.L4:
        movsd   (%rsi,%rax,8), %xmm0      # FP load
        addsd   (%rdi), %xmm0             # FP add
        movsd   %xmm0, (%rsi,%rax,8)      # FP store
        addq    $8, %rdi
        cmpq    %rcx, %rdi
        jne     .L4
```

- Code updates `b[i]` on every iteration
- Why couldn't compiler optimize this away?

Memory Aliasing

```
/* Sum rows is of n X n matrix a
   and store in vector b  */
void sum_rows1(double *a, double *b, long n) {
    long i, j;
    for (i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        b[i] = 0;
        for (j = 0; j < n; j++)
            b[i] += a[i*n + j];
    }
}
```

```
double A[9] =
  { 0,   1,   2,
    4,   8,   16},
   32,  64, 128};

double B[3] = A+3;

sum_rows1(A, B, 3);
```

```
double A[9] =
  { 0,   1,   2,
    3,  22, 224},
   32,  64, 128};
```

Value of B:

```
init:   [4, 8, 16]
```

```
i = 0: [3, 8, 16]
```

```
i = 1: [3, 22, 16]
```

```
i = 2: [3, 22, 224]
```

- Code updates **`b[i]`** on every iteration
- Must consider possibility that these updates will affect program behavior

Removing Aliasing

```
/* Sum rows is of n X n matrix a
   and store in vector b  */
void sum_rows2(double *a, double *b, long n) {
    long i, j;
    for (i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        double val = 0;
        for (j = 0; j < n; j++)
            val += a[i*n + j];
        b[i] = val;
    }
}
```

```
# sum_rows2 inner loop
.L10:
        addsd   (%rdi), %xmm0      # FP load + add
        addq    $8, %rdi
        cmpq    %rax, %rdi
        jne     .L10
```

- No need to store intermediate results

Removing Aliasing

```
/* Sum rows is of n X n matrix a
   and store in vector b  */
void sum_rows3(double *restrict a, double *restrict b, long n) {
    long i, j;
    for (i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        b[i] = 0;
        for (j = 0; j < n; j++)
            b[i] += a[i*n + j];
    }
}
```

```
# sum_rows3 inner loop
.L12:
        addsd   (%rdi), %xmm0       # FP load + add
        addq    $8, %rdi
        cmpq    %rax, %rdi
        jne     .L12
```

Optimization Blocker: Memory Aliasing

- **Aliasing**
  - Two different memory references specify single location
  - Easy to have happen in C
    - Since allowed to do address arithmetic
    - Direct access to storage structures
  - Get in habit of introducing local variables
    - Accumulating within loops
    - Your way of telling compiler not to check for aliasing

Today

- **Overview**
- **Generally Useful Optimizations**
  - Code motion/precomputation
  - Strength reduction
  - Sharing of common subexpressions
  - Example: Bubblesort
- **Optimization Blockers**
  - Procedure calls
  - Memory aliasing
- **Exploiting Instruction-Level Parallelism**
- **Dealing with Conditionals**

Exploiting Instruction-Level Parallelism

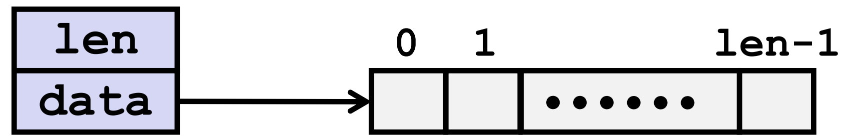
- **Need general understanding of modern processor design**
  - Hardware can execute multiple instructions in parallel

- **Performance limited by data dependencies**

- **Simple transformations can cause big speedups**
  - Compilers often cannot make these transformations
  - Lack of associativity and distributivity in floating-point arithmetic

Benchmark Example: Data Type for Vectors

```
/* data structure for vectors */
typedef struct{
    size_t len;
    data_t *data;
} vec;
```



- **Data Types**
  - Use different declarations for **`data_t`**
  - `int`
  - `long`
  - `float`
  - `double`

```
/* retrieve vector element
   and store at val */
int get_vec_element
  (*vec v, size_t idx, data_t *val)
{
    if (idx >= v->len)
        return 0;
    *val = v->data[idx];
    return 1;
}
```

Benchmark Computation

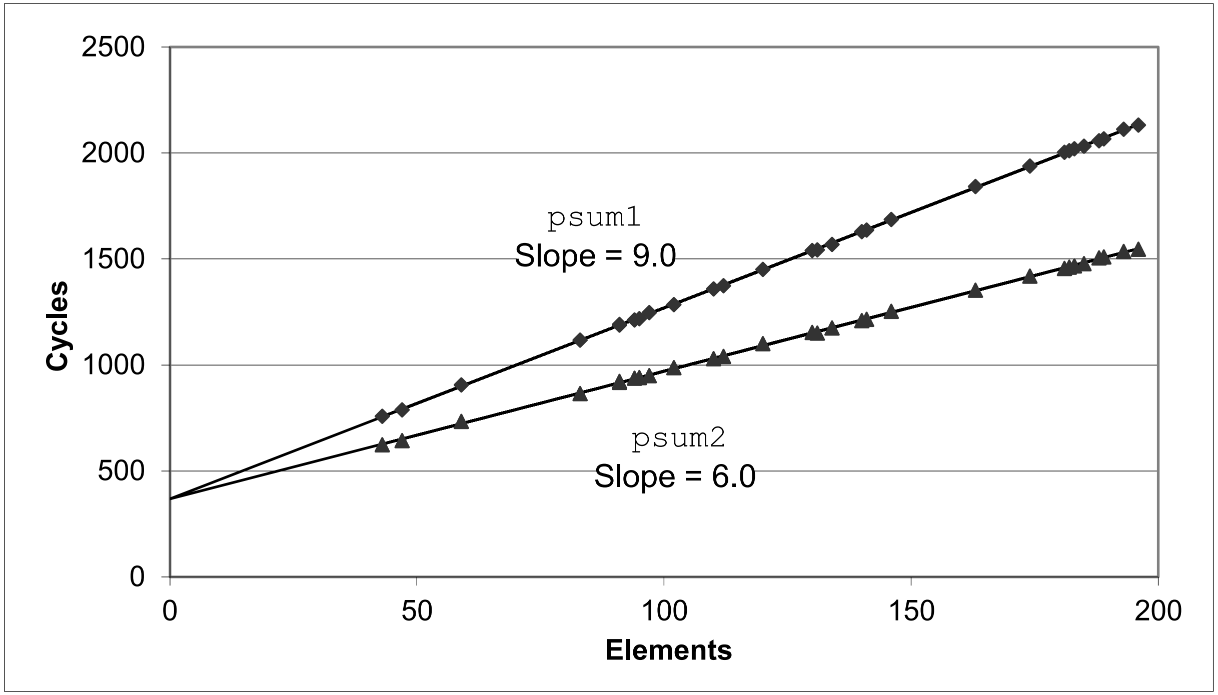
```
void combine1(vec_ptr v, data_t *dest)
{
    long int i;
    *dest = IDENT;
    for (i = 0; i < vec_length(v); i++) {
       data_t val;
       get_vec_element(v, i, &val);
       *dest = *dest OP val;
    }
}
```

Compute sum or product of vector elements

- **Data Types**
  - Use different declarations for `data_t`
  - `int`
  - `long`
  - `float`
  - `double`
- **Operations**
  - Use different definitions of `OP` and `IDENT`
  - `+ / 0`
  - `* / 1`

Cycles Per Element (CPE)

- Convenient way to express performance of program that operates on vectors or lists
- Length = n
- In our case: CPE = cycles per OP
- T = CPE*n + Overhead
  - CPE is slope of line



Benchmark Performance

```
void combine1(vec_ptr v, data_t *dest)
{
    long int i;
    *dest = IDENT;
    for (i = 0; i < vec_length(v); i++) {
       data_t val;
       get_vec_element(v, i, &val);
       *dest = *dest OP val;
    }
}
```

Compute sum or product of vector elements

Method	Integer		Double FP	
Operation	Add	Mult	Add	Mult
Combine1 unoptimized	22.68	20.02	19.98	20.18
Combine1 –O1	10.12	10.12	10.17	11.14
Combine1 –O3	4.5	4.5	6	7.8

Results in CPE (cycles per element)

Basic Optimizations

```
void combine4(vec_ptr v, data_t *dest)
{
  long i;
  long length = vec_length(v);
  data_t *d = get_vec_start(v);
  data_t t = IDENT;
  for (i = 0; i < length; i++)
    t = t OP d[i];
  *dest = t;
}
```

- Move vec_length out of loop
- Avoid bounds check on each cycle
- Accumulate in temporary

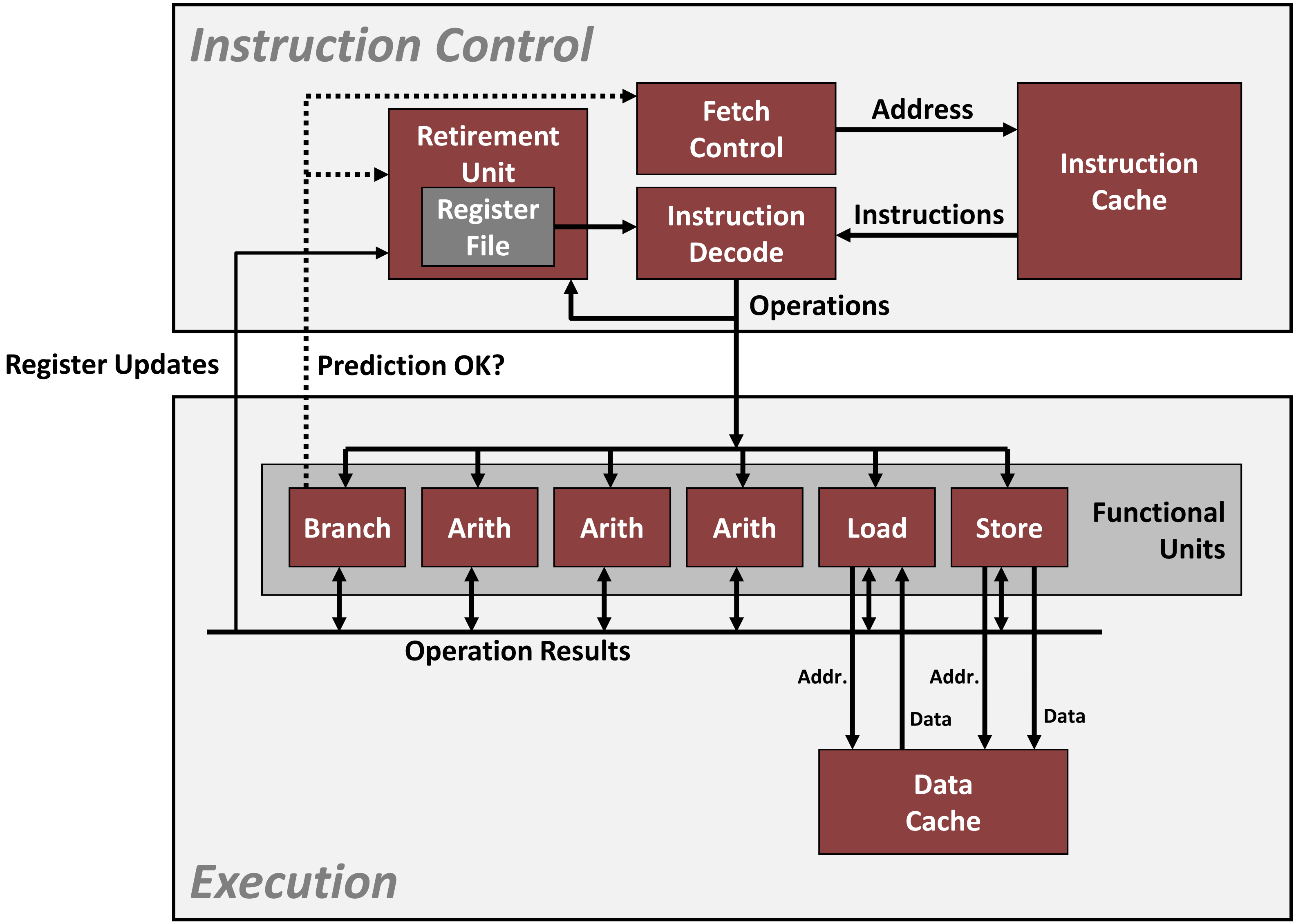
Effect of Basic Optimizations

```
void combine4(vec_ptr v, data_t *dest)
{
  long i;
  long length = vec_length(v);
  data_t *d = get_vec_start(v);
  data_t t = IDENT;
  for (i = 0; i < length; i++)
    t = t OP d[i];
  *dest = t;
}
```

Method	Integer		Double FP	
Operation	Add	Mult	Add	Mult
Combine1 –O1	10.12	10.12	10.17	11.14
Combine4	1.27	3.01	3.01	5.01

- Eliminates sources of overhead in loop

Modern CPU Design



Superscalar Processor

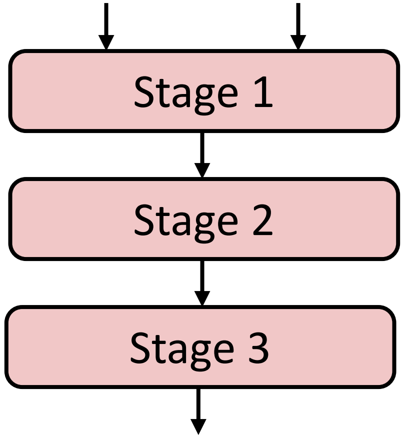
- **Definition:** A superscalar processor can issue and execute ***multiple instructions in one cycle***. The instructions are retrieved from a sequential instruction stream and are usually scheduled dynamically.

- Benefit: without programming effort, superscalar processor can take advantage of the ***instruction level parallelism*** that most programs have

- Most modern CPUs are superscalar.
- Intel: since Pentium (1993)

Pipelined Functional Units

```
long mult_eg(long a, long b, long c) {
    long p1 = a*b;
    long p2 = a*c;
    long p3 = p1 * p2;
    return p3;
}
```



Time							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stage 1	a*b	a*c			p1*p2		
Stage 2		a*b	a*c			p1*p2	
Stage 3			a*b	a*c			p1*p2

- Divide computation into stages
- Pass partial computations from stage to stage
- Stage i can start on new computation once values passed to i+1
- E.g., complete 3 multiplications in 7 cycles, even though each requires 3 cycles

Haswell CPU

- 8 Total Functional Units

- **Multiple instructions can execute in parallel**

  2 load, with address computation

  1 store, with address computation

  4 integer

  2 FP multiply

  1 FP add

  1 FP divide

- **Some instructions take > 1 cycle, but can be pipelined**

Instruction	*Latency*	*Cycles/Issue*
Load / Store	4	1
Integer Multiply	3	1
Integer/Long Divide	**3-30**	**3-30**
Single/Double FP Multiply	5	1
Single/Double FP Add	3	1
Single/Double FP Divide	**3-15**	**3-15**

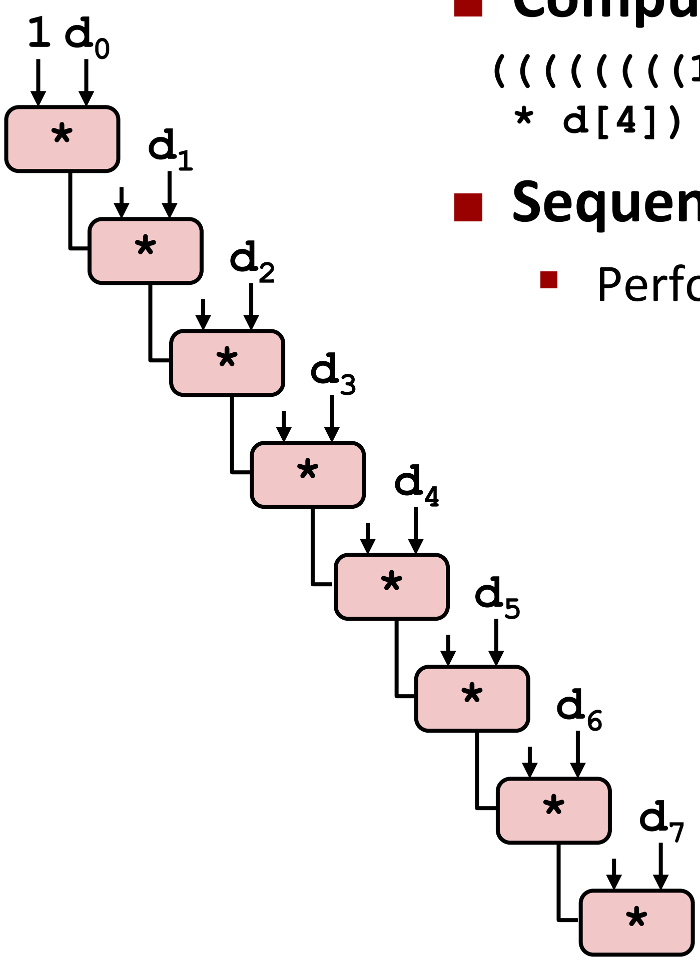
x86-64 Compilation of Combine4

- Inner Loop (Case: Integer Multiply)

```
.L519:                              # Loop:
  imull  (%rax,%rdx,4), %ecx        # t = t * d[i]
  addq   $1, %rdx                   # i++
  cmpq   %rdx, %rbp                 # Compare length:i
  jg     .L519                      # If >, goto Loop
```

Method	Integer		Double FP	
Operation	Add	Mult	Add	Mult
Combine4	1.27	3.01	3.01	5.01
Latency Bound	*1.00*	*3.00*	*3.00*	*5.00*

Combine4 = Serial Computation (OP = *)



- **Computation (length=8)**

```
((((((((1 * d[0]) * d[1]) * d[2]) * d[3])
 * d[4]) * d[5]) * d[6]) * d[7])
```

- **Sequential dependence**
  - Performance: determined by latency of OP

Loop Unrolling (2x1)

```
void unroll2a_combine(vec_ptr v, data_t *dest)
{
    long length = vec_length(v);
    long limit = length-1;
    data_t *d = get_vec_start(v);
    data_t x = IDENT;
    long i;
    /* Combine 2 elements at a time */
    for (i = 0; i < limit; i+=2) {
        x = (x OP d[i]) OP d[i+1];
    }
    /* Finish any remaining elements */
    for (; i < length; i++) {
        x = x OP d[i];
    }
    *dest = x;
}
```

- Perform 2x more useful work per iteration

Effect of Loop Unrolling

Method	Integer		Double FP	
Operation	Add	Mult	Add	Mult
Combine4	1.27	3.01	3.01	5.01
Unroll 2x1	1.01	3.01	3.01	5.01
Latency Bound	*1.00*	*3.00*	*3.00*	*5.00*

- **Helps integer add**
  - Achieves latency bound
- **Others don't improve. *Why?***
  - Still sequential dependency

```
x = (x OP d[i]) OP d[i+1];
```

Loop Unrolling with Reassociation (2x1a)

```
void unroll2aa_combine(vec_ptr v, data_t *dest)
{
    long length = vec_length(v);
    long limit = length-1;
    data_t *d = get_vec_start(v);
    data_t x = IDENT;
    long i;
    /* Combine 2 elements at a time */
    for (i = 0; i < limit; i+=2) {
        x = x OP (d[i] OP d[i+1]);
    }
    /* Finish any remaining elements */
    for (; i < length; i++) {
        x = x OP d[i];
    }
    *dest = x;
}
```

Compare to before

```
x = (x OP d[i]) OP d[i+1];
```

- **Can this change the result of the computation?**
- **Yes, for FP. *Why?***

Effect of Reassociation

Method	Integer		Double FP	
Operation	Add	Mult	Add	Mult
Combine4	1.27	3.01	3.01	5.01
Unroll 2x1	1.01	3.01	3.01	5.01
Unroll 2x1a	1.01	1.51	1.51	2.51
Latency Bound	*1.00*	*3.00*	*3.00*	*5.00*
Throughput Bound	*0.50*	*1.00*	*1.00*	*0.50*

4 func. units for int +,
2 func. units for load
Why Not .25?

1 func. unit for FP +
3-stage pipelined FP +

2 func. units for FP *,
2 func. units for load
5-stage pipelined FP *

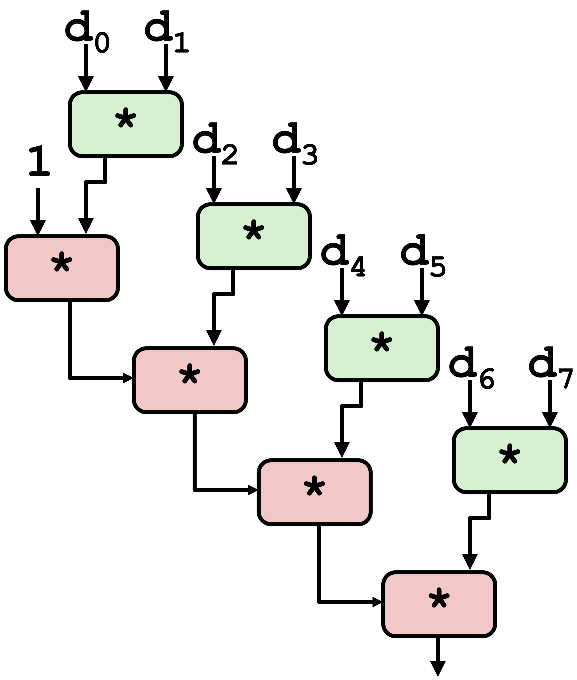
- **Nearly 2x speedup for Int *, FP +, FP ***
  - Reason: Breaks sequential dependency

```
x = x OP (d[i] OP d[i+1]);
```

  - Why is that? (next slide)

Reassociated Computation

```
x = x OP (d[i] OP d[i+1]);
```



- **What changed:**
  - Ops in the next iteration can be started early (no dependency)
- **Overall Performance**
  - N elements, D cycles latency/op
  - (N/2+1)*D cycles:
    CPE = D/2

Loop Unrolling with Separate Accumulators (2x2)

```
void unroll2a_combine(vec_ptr v, data_t *dest)
{
    long length = vec_length(v);
    long limit = length-1;
    data_t *d = get_vec_start(v);
    data_t x0 = IDENT;
    data_t x1 = IDENT;
    long i;
    /* Combine 2 elements at a time */
    for (i = 0; i < limit; i+=2) {
        x0 = x0 OP d[i];
        x1 = x1 OP d[i+1];
    }
    /* Finish any remaining elements */
    for (; i < length; i++) {
        x0 = x0 OP d[i];
    }
    *dest = x0 OP x1;
}
```

- **Different form of reassociation**

Effect of Separate Accumulators

Method	Integer		Double FP	
Operation	Add	Mult	Add	Mult
Combine4	1.27	3.01	3.01	5.01
Unroll 2x1	1.01	3.01	3.01	5.01
Unroll 2x1a	1.01	1.51	1.51	2.51
Unroll 2x2	0.81	1.51	1.51	2.51
Latency Bound	*1.00*	*3.00*	*3.00*	*5.00*
Throughput Bound	*0.50*	*1.00*	*1.00*	*0.50*

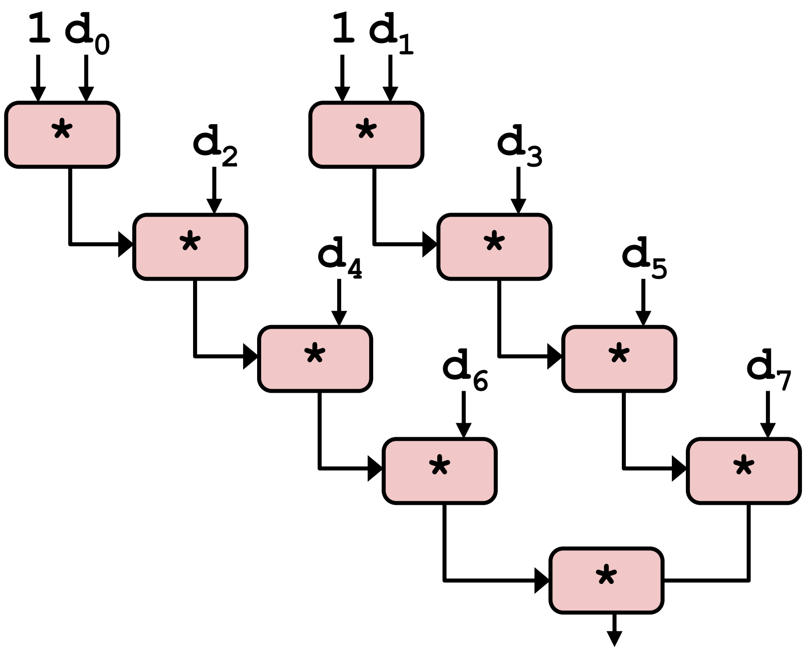
- Int + makes use of two load units

```
x0 = x0 OP d[i];
x1 = x1 OP d[i+1];
```

- 2x speedup (over unroll2) for Int *, FP +, FP *

Separate Accumulators

```
x0 = x0 OP d[i];
x1 = x1 OP d[i+1];
```



- **What changed:**
  - Two independent “streams” of operations
- **Overall Performance**
  - N elements, D cycles latency/op
  - Should be (N/2+1)*D cycles:
    CPE = D/2
  - CPE matches prediction!

What Now?

Unrolling & Accumulating

- **Idea**
  - Can unroll to any degree L
  - Can accumulate K results in parallel
  - L must be multiple of K

- **Limitations**
  - Diminishing returns
    - Cannot go beyond throughput limitations of execution units
  - Large overhead for short lengths
    - Finish off iterations sequentially

Unrolling & Accumulating: Double *

- **Case**
  - Intel Haswell
  - Double FP Multiplication
  - Latency bound: 5.00. Throughput bound: 0.50

FP *	Unrolling Factor L							
K	1	2	3	4	6	8	10	12
1	5.01	5.01	5.01	5.01	5.01	5.01	5.01	
2		2.51		2.51		2.51		
3			1.67					
4				1.25		1.26		
6					0.84			0.88
8						0.63		
10							0.51	
12								0.52

Accumulators

Achievable Performance

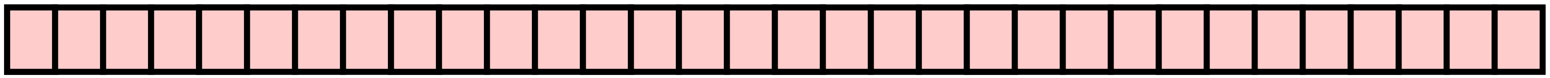
Method	Integer		Double FP	
Operation	Add	Mult	Add	Mult
Best	0.54	1.01	1.01	0.52
Latency Bound	*1.00*	*3.00*	*3.00*	*5.00*
Throughput Bound	*0.50*	*1.00*	*1.00*	*0.50*

- **Limited only by throughput of functional units**
- **Up to 42X improvement over original, unoptimized code**

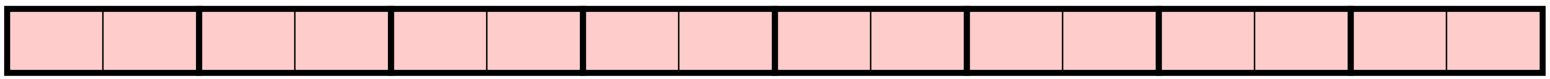
Programming with AVX2

YMM Registers

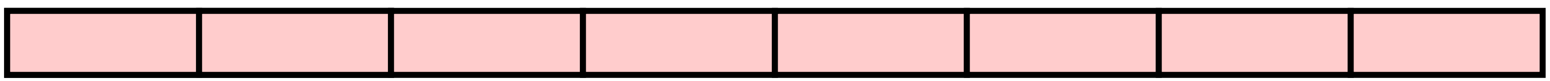
- 16 total, each 32 bytes
- 32 single-byte integers



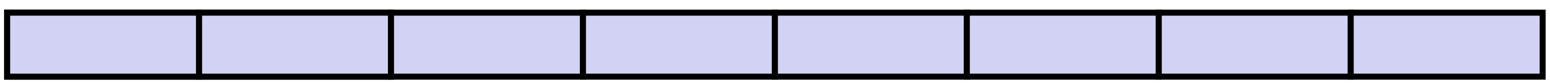
- 16 16-bit integers



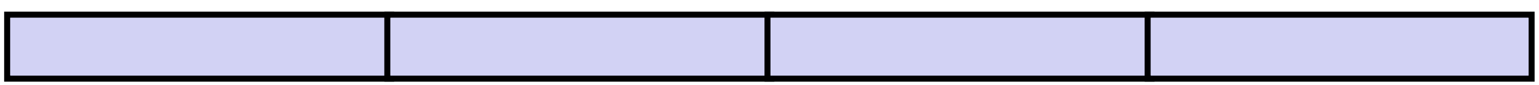
- 8 32-bit integers



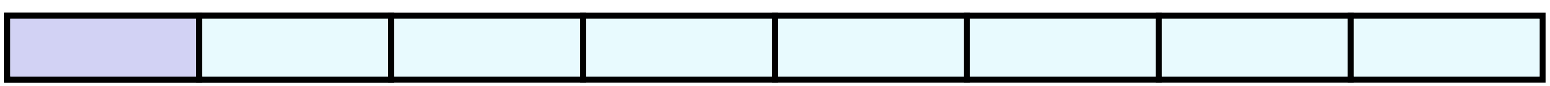
- 8 single-precision floats



- 4 double-precision floats



- 1 single-precision float

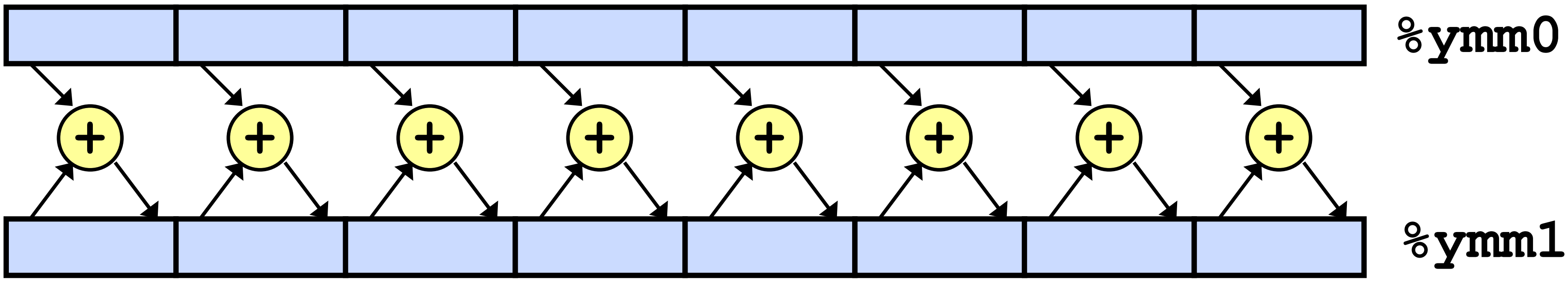


- 1 double-precision float

SIMD Operations

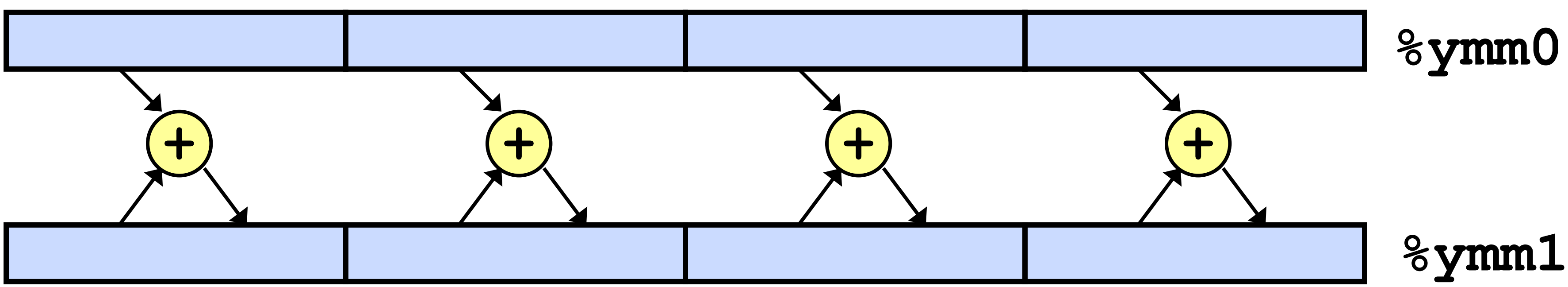
- SIMD Operations: Single Precision

`vaddps %ymm0, %ymm1, %ymm1`



- SIMD Operations: Double Precision

`vaddpd %ymm0, %ymm1, %ymm1`



Using Vector Instructions

Method	Integer		Double FP	
Operation	Add	Mult	Add	Mult
Scalar Best	0.54	1.01	1.01	0.52
Vector Best	0.06	0.24	0.25	0.16
Latency Bound	*0.50*	*3.00*	*3.00*	*5.00*
Throughput Bound	*0.50*	*1.00*	*1.00*	*0.50*
Vec Throughput Bound	*0.06*	*0.12*	*0.25*	*0.12*

- **Make use of AVX Instructions**
  - Parallel operations on multiple data elements
  - See Web Aside OPT:SIMD on CS:APP web page

What About Branches?

- **Challenge**
  - Instruction Control Unit must work well ahead of Execution Unit to generate enough operations to keep EU busy

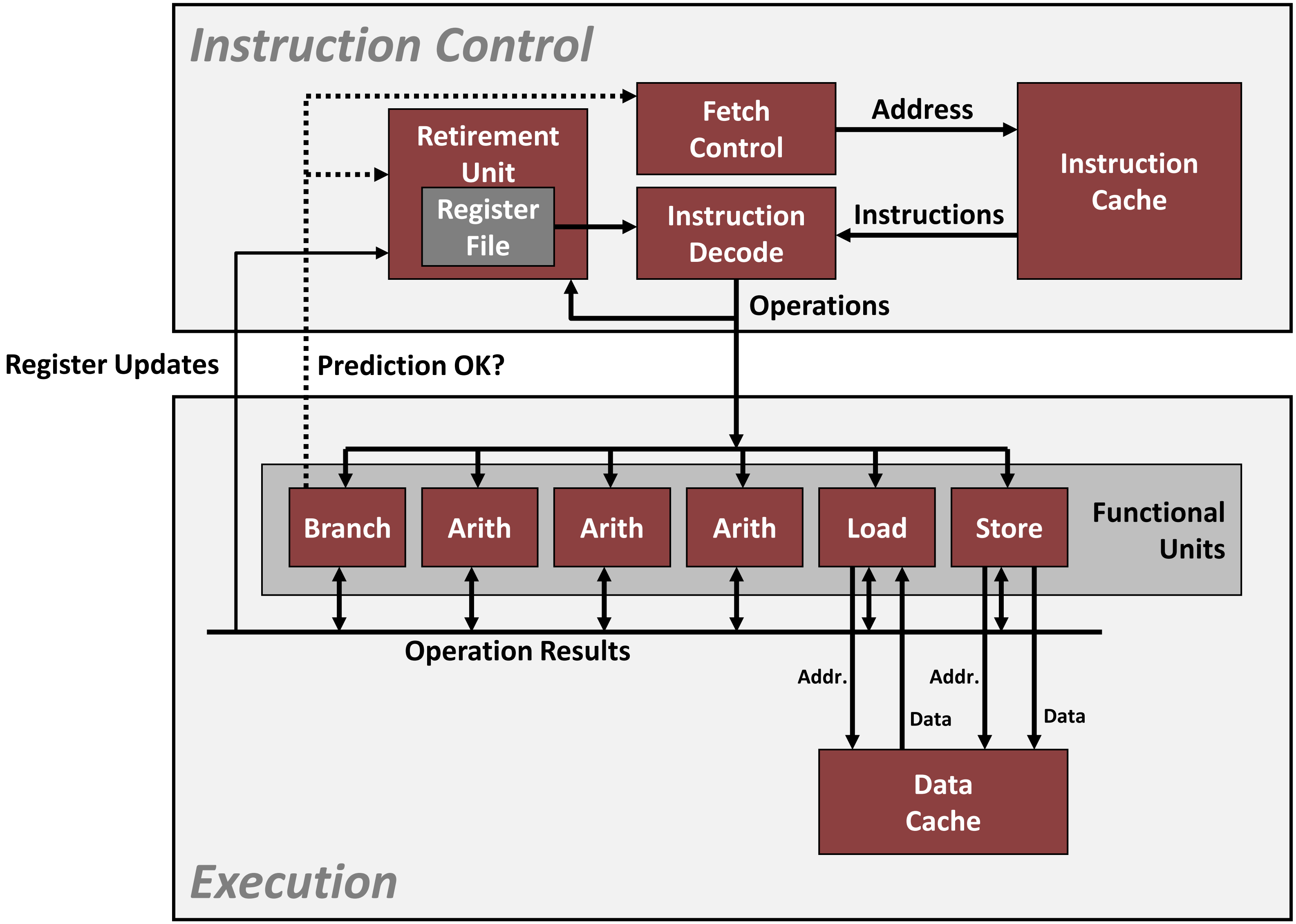
```
404663:   mov     $0x0,%eax
404668:   cmp     (%rdi),%rsi
40466b:   jge     404685
40466d:   mov     0x8(%rdi),%rax

  . . .

404685:   repz retq
```

Executing

How to continue?

  - When encounters conditional branch, cannot reliably determine where to continue fetching

Modern CPU Design



Branch Outcomes

- **When encounter conditional branch, cannot determine where to continue fetching**
  - Branch Taken: Transfer control to branch target
  - Branch Not-Taken: Continue with next instruction in sequence
- **Cannot resolve until outcome determined by branch/integer unit**

```
404663:  mov    $0x0,%eax
404668:  cmp    (%rdi),%rsi
40466b:  jge    404685
40466d:  mov    0x8(%rdi),%rax

 . . .

404685:  repz retq
```

Branch Not-Taken

Branch Taken

Branch Prediction

- **Idea**
  - Guess which way branch will go
  - Begin executing instructions at predicted position
    - But don't actually modify register or memory data

```
404663:   mov     $0x0,%eax
404668:   cmp     (%rdi),%rsi
40466b:   jge     404685
40466d:   mov     0x8(%rdi),%rax

 . . .

404685:   repz retq
```

Predict Taken

Begin Execution

Branch Prediction Through Loop

Assume
vector length = 100

```
401029:   vmulsd  (%rdx),%xmm0,%xmm0
40102d:   add     $0x8,%rdx
401031:   cmp     %rax,%rdx
401034:   jne     401029
```

i = 98

Predict Taken (OK)

```
401029:   vmulsd  (%rdx),%xmm0,%xmm0
40102d:   add     $0x8,%rdx
401031:   cmp     %rax,%rdx
401034:   jne     401029
```

i = 99

Predict Taken (Oops)

```
401029:   vmulsd  (%rdx),%xmm0,%xmm0
40102d:   add     $0x8,%rdx
401031:   cmp     %rax,%rdx
401034:   jne     401029
```

i = 100

Read invalid location

Executed

```
401029:   vmulsd  (%rdx),%xmm0,%xmm0
40102d:   add     $0x8,%rdx
401031:   cmp     %rax,%rdx
401034:   jne     401029
```

i = 101

Fetched

Branch Misprediction Invalidation

```
401029:   vmulsd  (%rdx),%xmm0,%xmm0
40102d:   add     $0x8,%rdx
401031:   cmp     %rax,%rdx
401034:   jne     401029
```

i = 98

Assume
vector length = 100

Predict Taken (OK)

```
401029:   vmulsd  (%rdx),%xmm0,%xmm0
40102d:   add     $0x8,%rdx
401031:   cmp     %rax,%rdx
401034:   jne     401029
```

i = 99

Predict Taken (Oops)

```
401029:   vmulsd  (%rdx),%xmm0,%xmm0
40102d:   add     $0x8,%rdx
401031:   cmp     %rax,%rdx
401034:   jne     401029
```

i = 100

```
401029:   vmulsd  (%rdx),%xmm0,%xmm0
40102d:   add     $0x8,%rdx
401031:   cmp     %rax,%rdx
401034:   jne     401029
```

i = 101

Invalidate

Branch Misprediction Recovery

```
401029:   vmulsd  (%rdx),%xmm0,%xmm0
40102d:   add     $0x8,%rdx
401031:   cmp     %rax,%rdx
401034:   jne     401029
401036:   jmp     401040
  . . .
401040:   vmovsd  %xmm0,(%r12)
```

i = 99

Definitely not taken

Reload Pipeline

- **Performance Cost**
  - Multiple clock cycles on modern processor
  - Can be a major performance limiter

Branch Prediction Numbers

- **Default behavior:**
  - Backwards branches are often loops so predict taken
  - Forwards branches are often if so predict not taken

- **Predictors average better than 95% accuracy**
  - Most branches are already predictable.
- **Annual branch predictor contests at top Computer Architecture conferences**
  - https://www.jilp.org/jwac-2/program/JWAC-2-program.htm
  - Winner: 34.1 mispredictions per kilo-instruction (!)

Getting High Performance

- **Good compiler and flags**
- **Don't do anything sub-optimal**
  - Watch out for hidden algorithmic inefficiencies
  - Write compiler-friendly code
    - Watch out for optimization blockers: procedure calls & memory references
  - Look carefully at innermost loops (where most work is done)

- **Tune code for machine**
  - Exploit instruction-level parallelism
  - Avoid unpredictable branches
  - Make code cache friendly (Covered later in course)

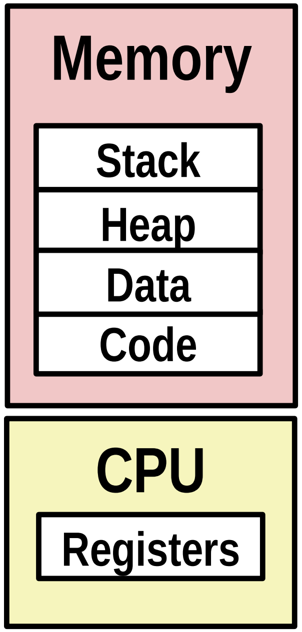
Today

- **Processes: Concepts**
- Address spaces
- VM as a tool for memory management
- VM as a tool for memory protection
- VM as a tool for caching

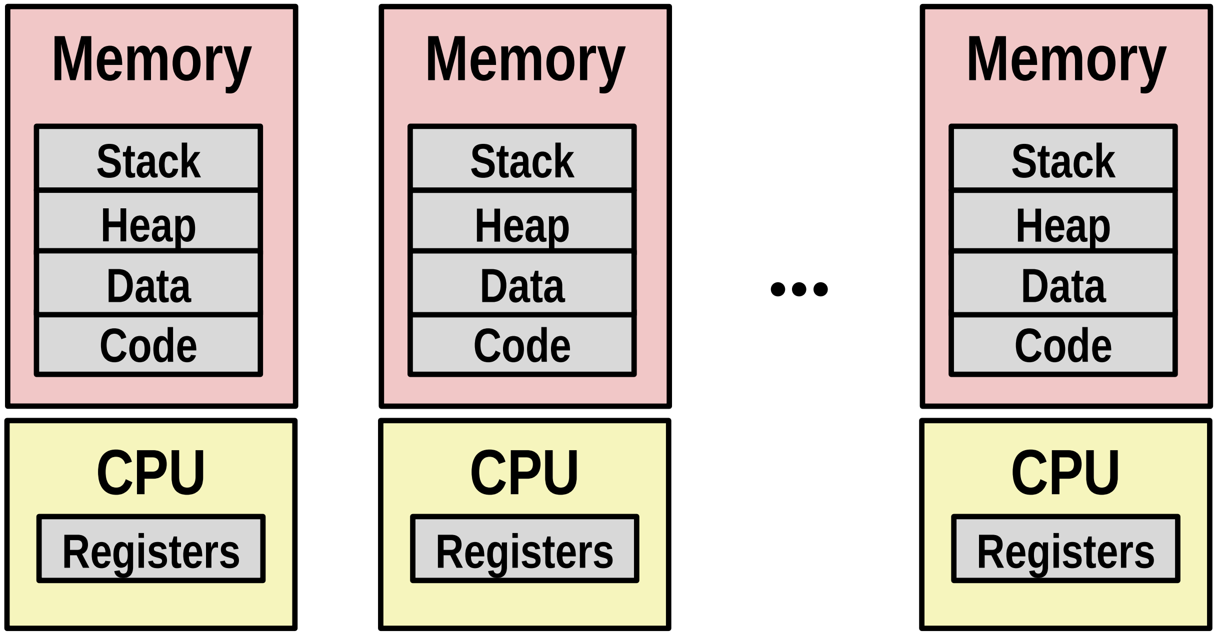
Processes

- **Definition: A *process* is an instance of a running program.**
  - One of the most profound ideas in computer science
  - Not the same as “program” or “processor”

- **Process provides each program with two key abstractions:**
  - *Logical control flow*
    - Each program seems to have exclusive use of the CPU
    - Provided by kernel feature called *context switching*
  - *Private address space*
    - Each program seems to have exclusive use of main memory.
    - Provided by CPU feature called *virtual memory*



Multiprocessing: The Illusion



- **Computer runs many processes simultaneously**
  - Applications for one or more users
    - Web browsers, email clients, editors, …
  - Background tasks
    - Monitoring network & I/O devices

Multiprocessing Example

```
xterm
Processes: 123 total, 5 running, 9 stuck, 109 sleeping, 611 threads          11:47:07
Load Avg: 1.03, 1.13, 1.14  CPU usage: 3.27% user, 5.15% sys, 91.56% idle
SharedLibs: 576K resident, 0B data, 0B linkedit.
MemRegions: 27958 total, 1127M resident, 35M private, 494M shared.
PhysMem: 1039M wired, 1974M active, 1062M inactive, 4076M used, 18M free.
VM: 280G vsize, 1091M framework vsize, 23075213(1) pageins, 5843367(0) pageouts.
Networks: packets: 41046228/11G in, 66083096/77G out.
Disks: 17874391/349G read, 12847373/594G written.

PID    COMMAND      %CPU TIME     #TH  #WQ  #PORT #MREG RPRVT  RSHRD  RSIZE  VPRVT  VSIZE
99217- Microsoft Of 0.0  02:28.34 4    1    202   418   21M    24M    21M    66M    763M
99051  usbmuxd      0.0  00:04.10 3    1    47    66    436K   216K   480K   60M    2422M
99006  iTunesHelper 0.0  00:01.23 2    1    55    78    728K   3124K  1124K  43M    2429M
84286  bash         0.0  00:00.11 1    0    20    24    224K   732K   484K   17M    2378M
84285  xterm        0.0  00:00.83 1    0    32    73    656K   872K   692K   9728K  2382M
55939- Microsoft Ex 0.3  21:58.97 10   3    360   954   16M    65M    46M    114M   1057M
54751  sleep        0.0  00:00.00 1    0    17    20    92K    212K   360K   9632K  2370M
54739  launchdadd   0.0  00:00.00 2    1    33    50    488K   220K   1736K  48M    2409M
54737  top          6.5  00:02.53 1/1  0    30    29    1416K  216K   2124K  17M    2378M
54719  automountd   0.0  00:00.02 7    1    53    64    860K   216K   2184K  53M    2413M
54701  ocspd        0.0  00:00.05 4    1    61    54    1268K  2644K  3132K  50M    2426M
54661  Grab         0.6  00:02.75 6    3    222+  389+  15M+   26M+   40M+   75M+   2556M+
54659  cookied      0.0  00:00.15 2    1    40    61    3316K  224K   4088K  42M    2411M
53818  mdworker     0.0  00:01.67 4    1    52    91    7628K  7412K  16M    48M    2438M
50878  mdworker     0.0  00:[illegible].17 3 1  5[illegible] 91  2464K  6148K  9976K  44M    2434M
[illegible]                                             73    280K   872K   532K   9700K  2382M
50078  emacs        0.0  00:06.70 1    0    20    35    52K    216K   88K    18M    2392M
```

- **Running program “top” on Mac**
  - System has 123 processes, 5 of which are active
  - Identified by Process ID (PID)

Preview: Creating and Terminating Processes

From a programmer's perspective, we can think of a process as being in one of three states

- **Running**
  - Process is executing (or waiting to, as we'll see next week)
- **Stopped**
  - Process execution is *suspended* until further notice (covered later)
- **Terminated**
  - Process is stopped permanently

Terminating Processes

- **Programmer can explicitly terminate process by:**
  - Returning from the **`main`** routine
  - Calling the **`exit`** function
- **`void exit(int status)`**
  - Terminates with an *exit status* of **`status`**
  - Convention: normal return status is 0, nonzero on error
  - Another way to explicitly set the exit status is to return an integer value from the main routine
- **`exit` is called once but never returns.**

Creating Processes

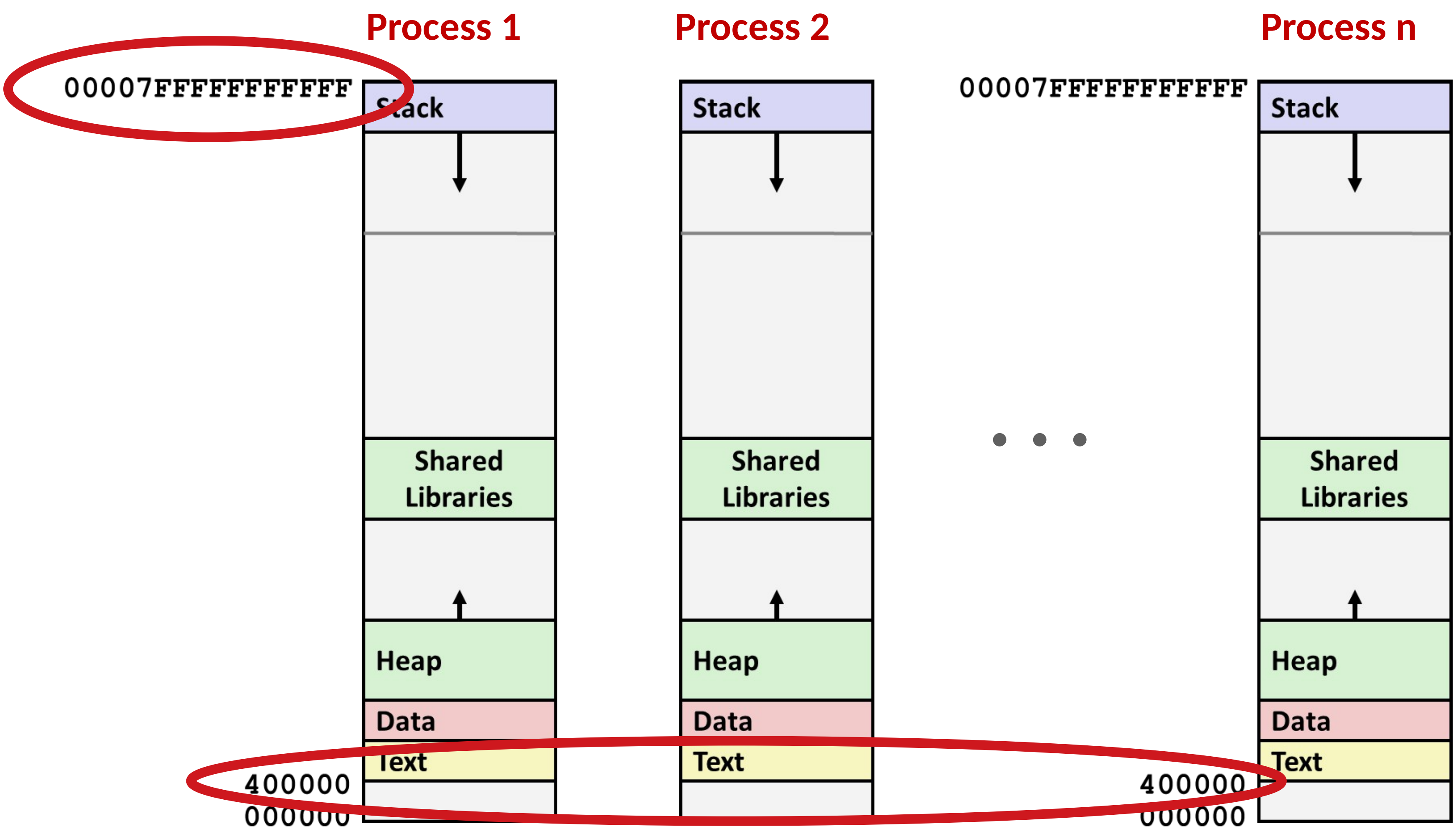
- ***Parent process*** **creates a new running** ***child process*** **by calling `fork`**

- **`int fork(void)`**
  - Returns 0 to the child process, child's PID to parent process
  - Child is *almost* identical to parent…

Different how?

- **`fork` is interesting (and often confusing) because it is called *once* but returns *twice***

Hmmm, How Does This Work?!



Solution: Virtual Memory (today and next lecture)

Creating Processes

- *Parent process* creates a new running *child process* by calling `fork`

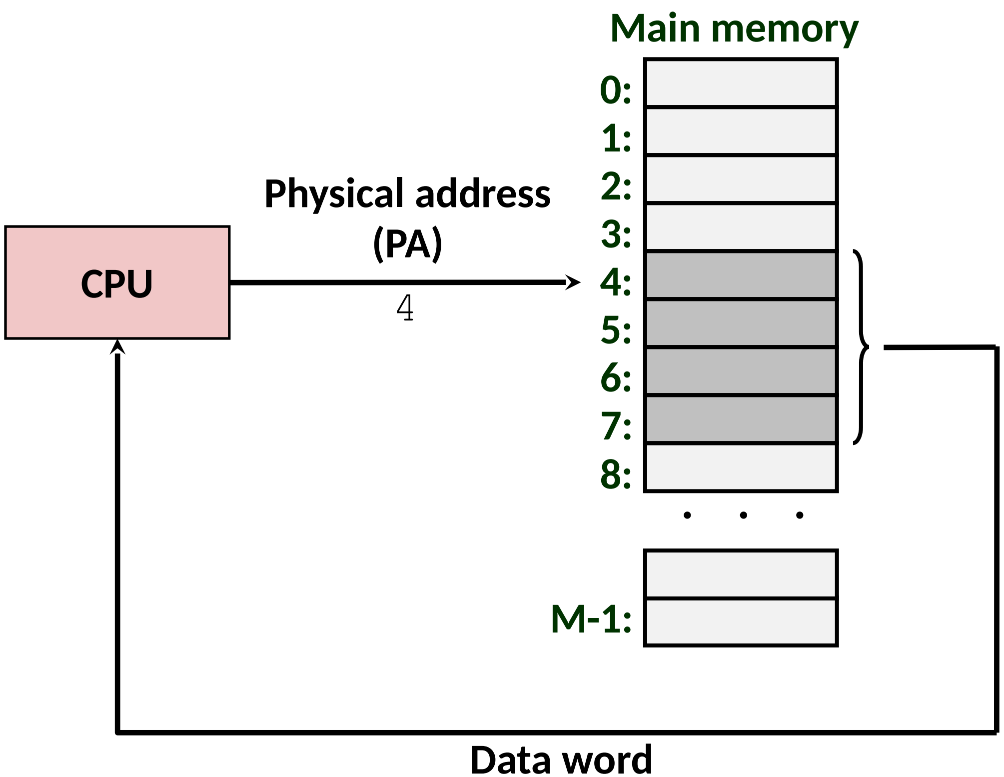
- `int fork(void)`
  - Returns 0 to the child process, child's PID to parent process
  - Child is *almost* identical to parent:
    - Child get an identical (but separate) copy of the parent's virtual address space.
    - Child gets identical copies of the parent's open file descriptors
    - Child has a different PID than the parent

- `fork` is interesting (and often confusing) because it is called *once* but returns *twice*

Today

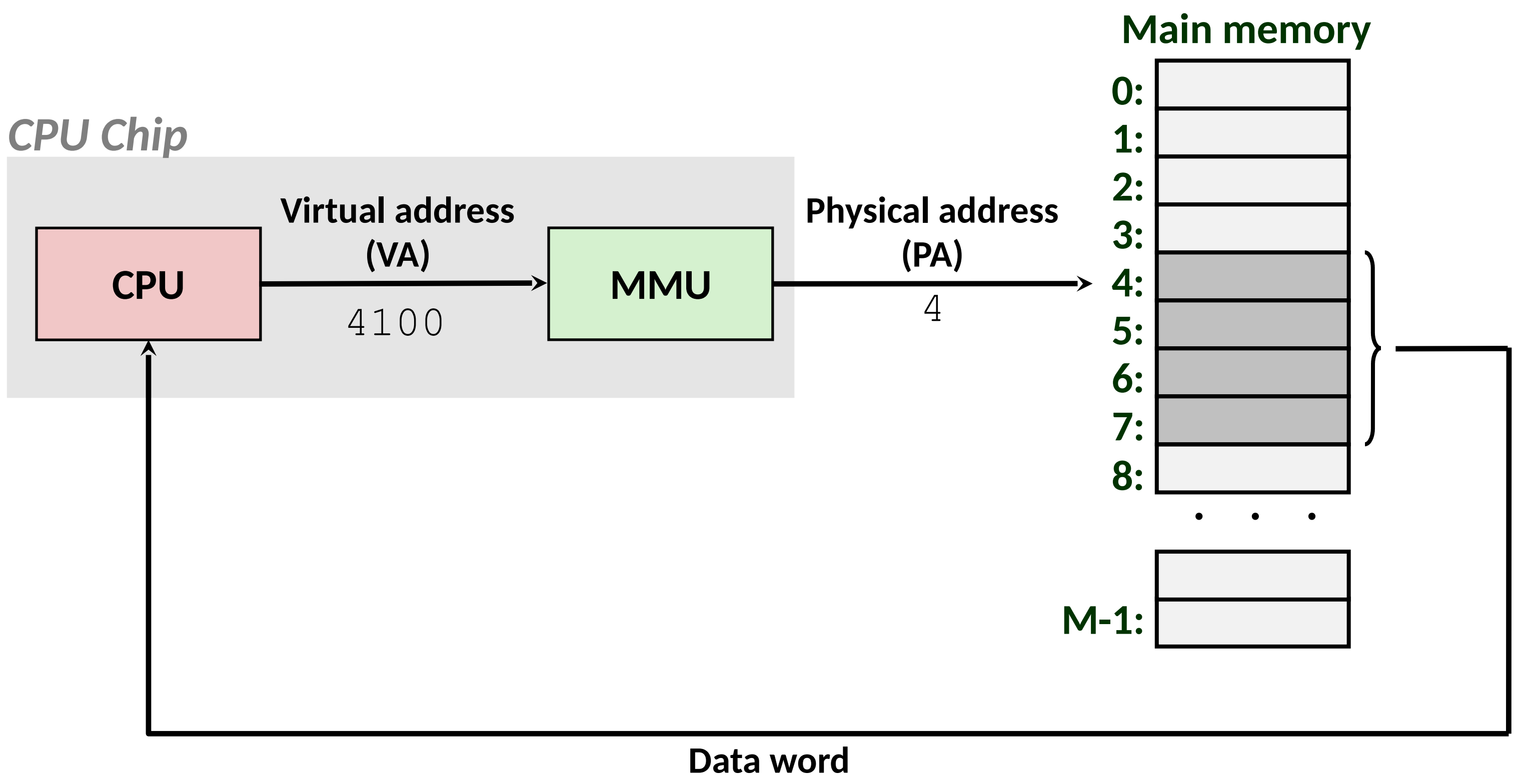
- Processes: Concepts
- **Address spaces**
- VM as a tool for memory management
- VM as a tool for memory protection
- VM as a tool for caching

A System Using Physical Addressing



- Used in "simple" systems like embedded microcontrollers in devices like cars, elevators, and digital picture frames

A System Using Virtual Addressing



- Used in all modern servers, laptops, and smart phones
- One of the great ideas in computer science

Address Spaces

- **Linear address space:** Ordered set of contiguous non-negative integer addresses:

  {0, 1, 2, 3 … }

- **Virtual address space:** Set of $N = 2^n$ virtual addresses

  {0, 1, 2, 3, …, N-1}

- **Physical address space:** Set of $M = 2^m$ physical addresses

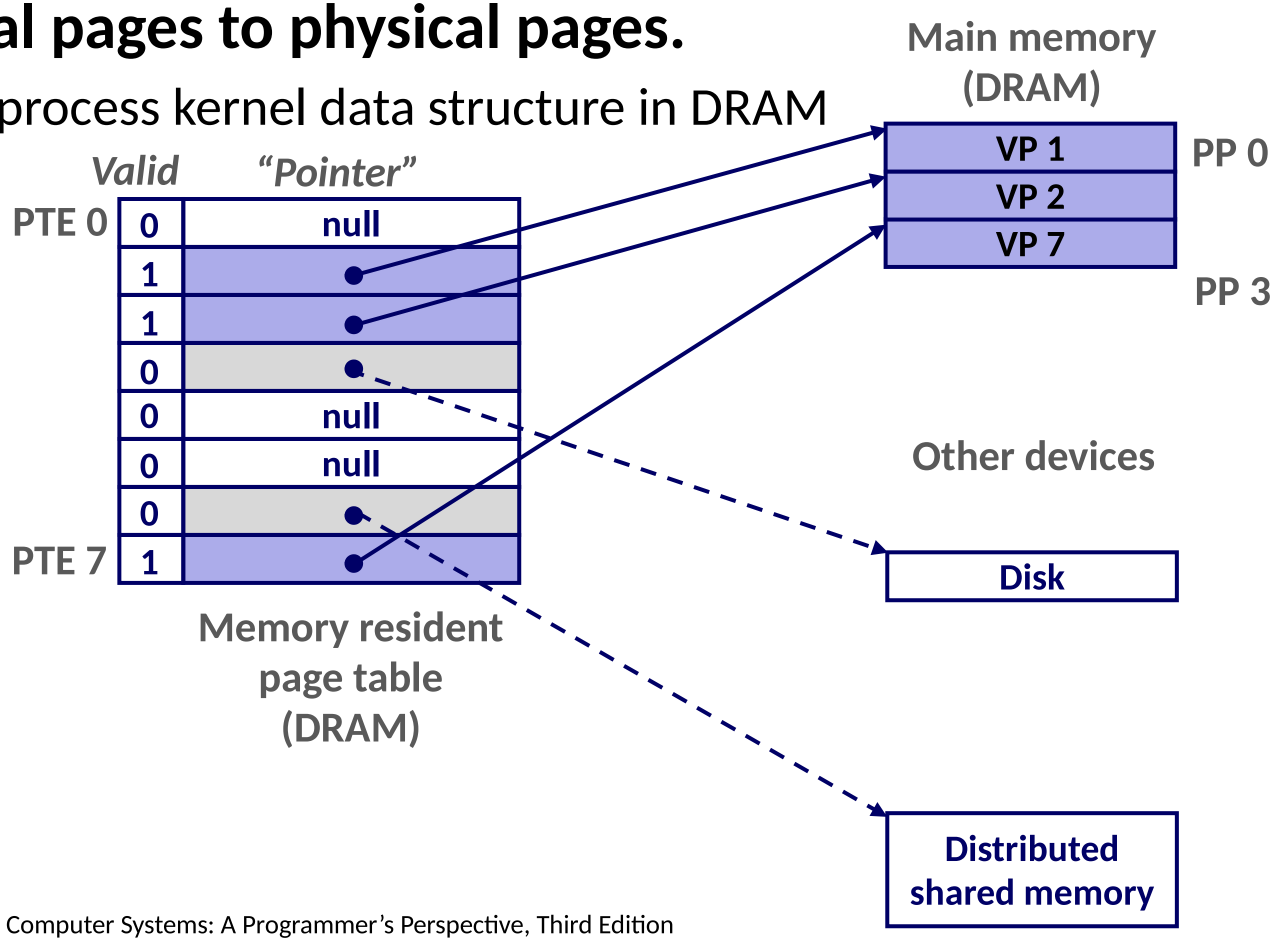
  {0, 1, 2, 3, …, M-1}

Why Virtual Memory (VM)?

- **Simplifies memory management**
  - Each process gets its own private address space
- **Isolates address spaces**
  - One process can't interfere with another's memory
  - User program cannot access privileged kernel information and code
- **Allows addressing locations outside DRAM**
  - Programs can access "memory" to communicate with other devices
  - The kernel can handle such accesses in software

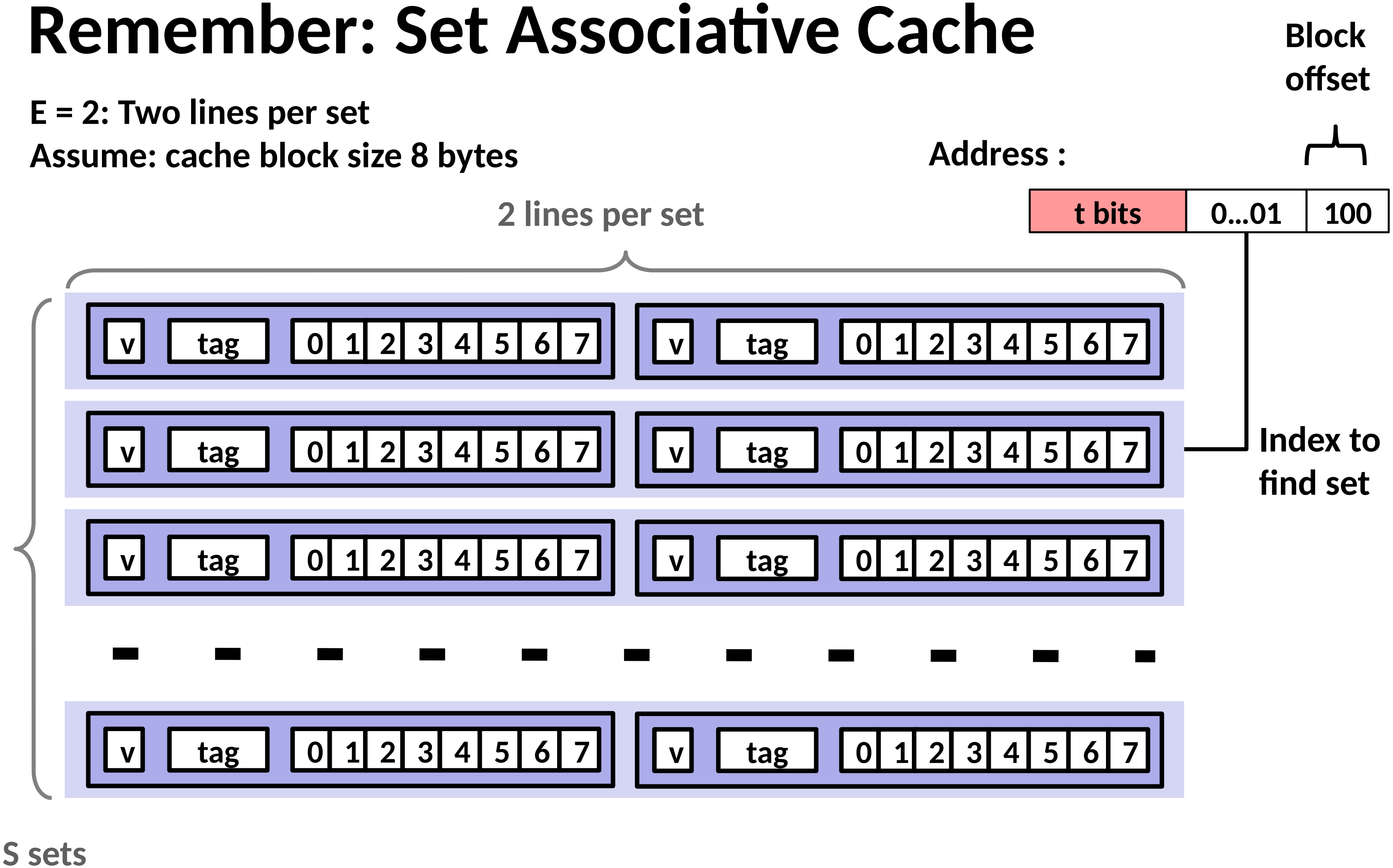
Paging: Pages and Page Tables

- A ***page*** is the *aligned* unit at which mapping is customized
  - Typically 4 KB on modern systems
- A ***page table*** is an array of page table entries (PTEs) that maps virtual pages to physical pages.
  - Per-process kernel data structure in DRAM

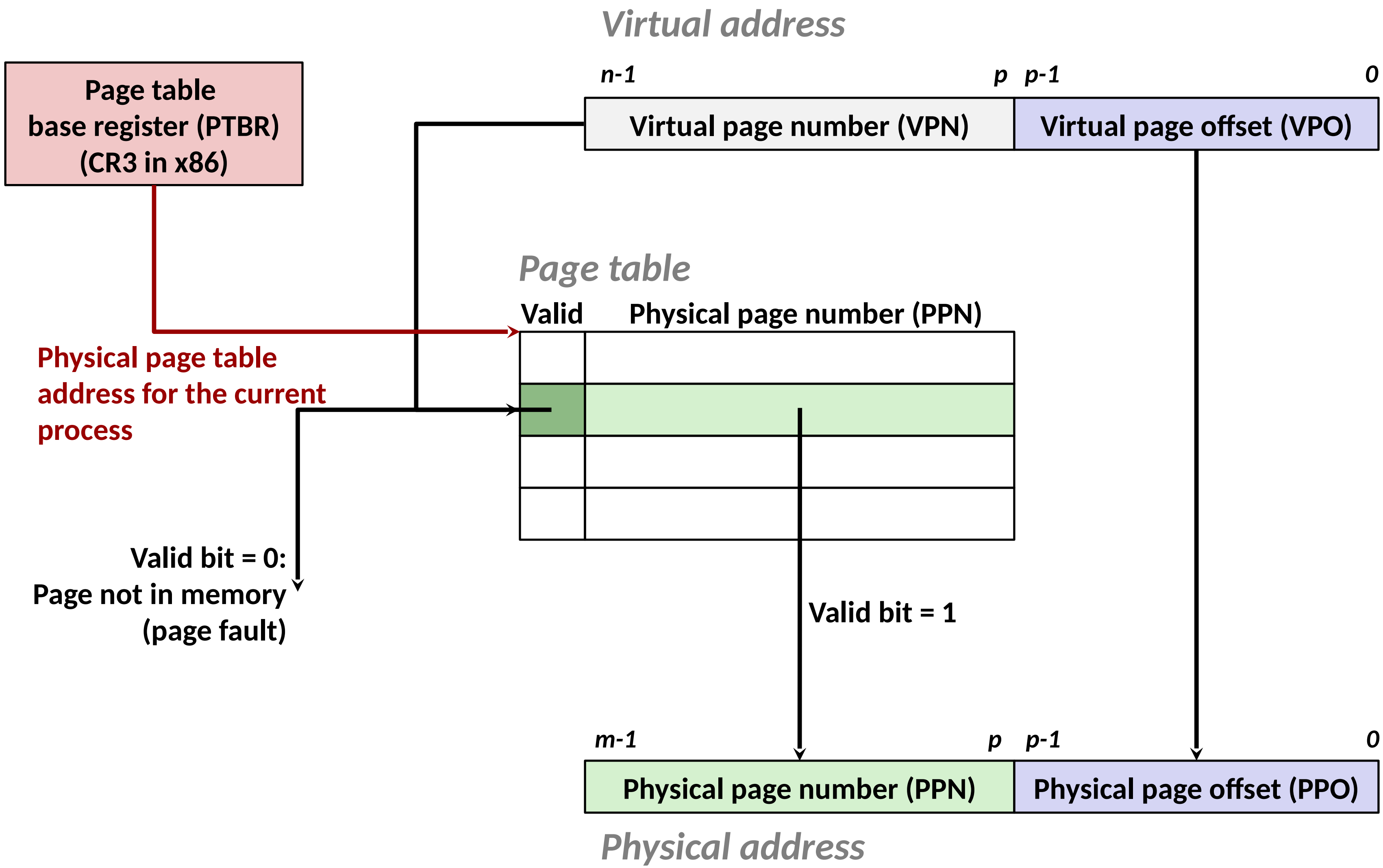


Remember: Set Associative Cache

E = 2: Two lines per set
Assume: cache block size 8 bytes



Preview: Address Translation



Admission of Guilt

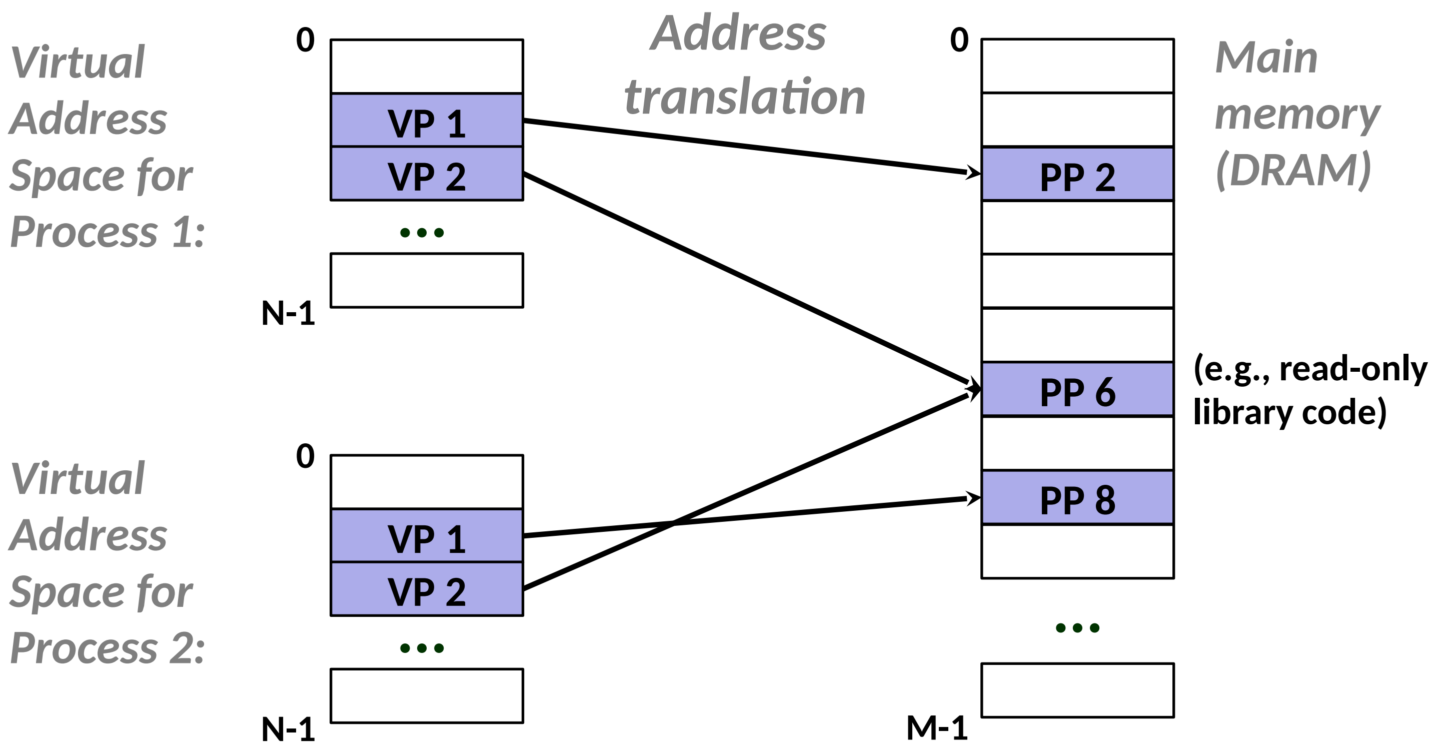
- **Lie: "Memory can be viewed as an array of bytes"…**
  - Actually discontinuous, with unmapped regions
- **Lie: "Memory addresses refer to locations in RAM"…**
  - Programmer sees only *virtual* addresses, which CPU's MMU translates to *physical* addresses before sending them to the memory controller
- **Lie: "Memory addresses are 64 bits"…**
  - Current x86-64 CPU MMUs only support 48-bit virtual addresses, which is enough to address 256 TB of RAM
  - Future CPUs may widen this without a change to the ISA

Today

- Processes: Concepts
- Address spaces
- **VM as a tool for memory management**
- VM as a tool for memory protection
- VM as a tool for caching

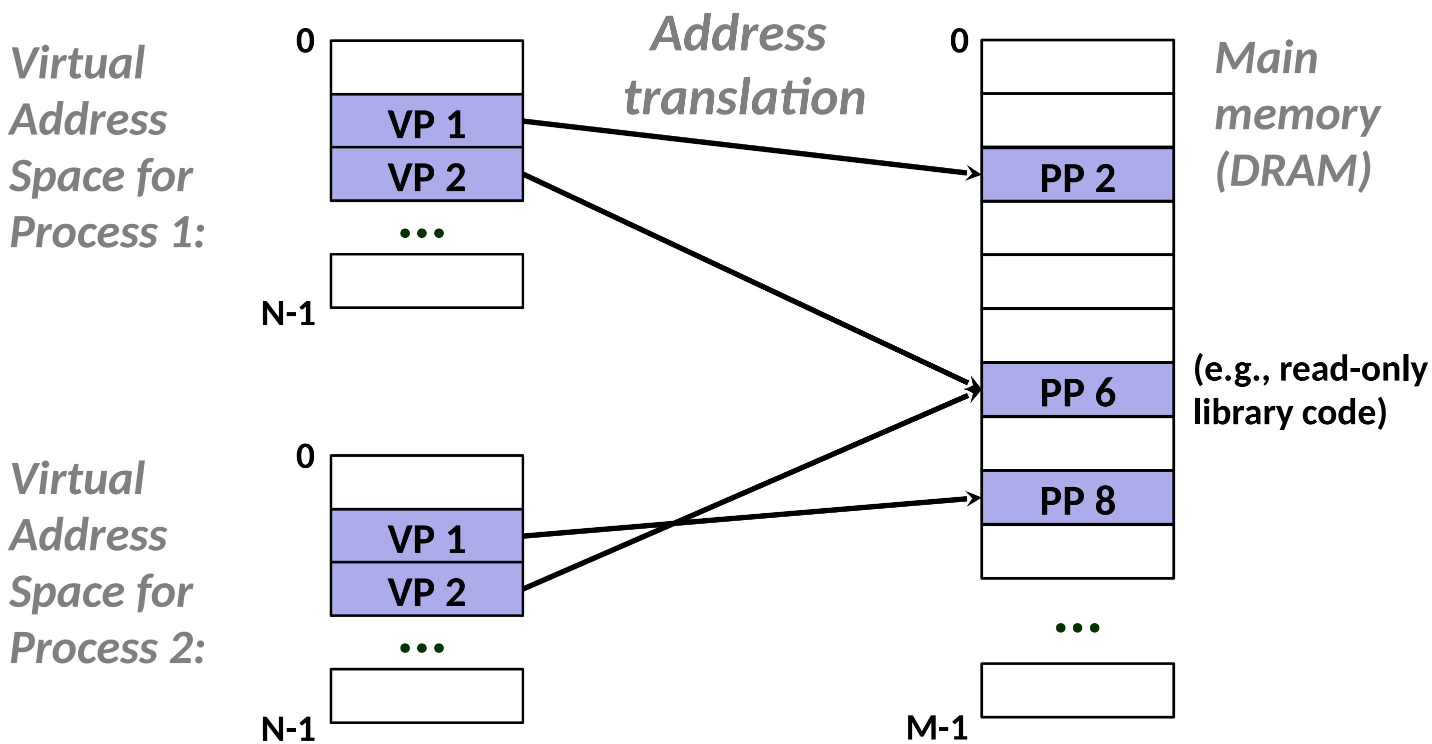
VM as a Tool for Memory Management

- **Key idea: each process has its own virtual address space**
  - Mapping function scatters addresses through physical memory
  - Process only knows about virtual addresses, so mappings can change

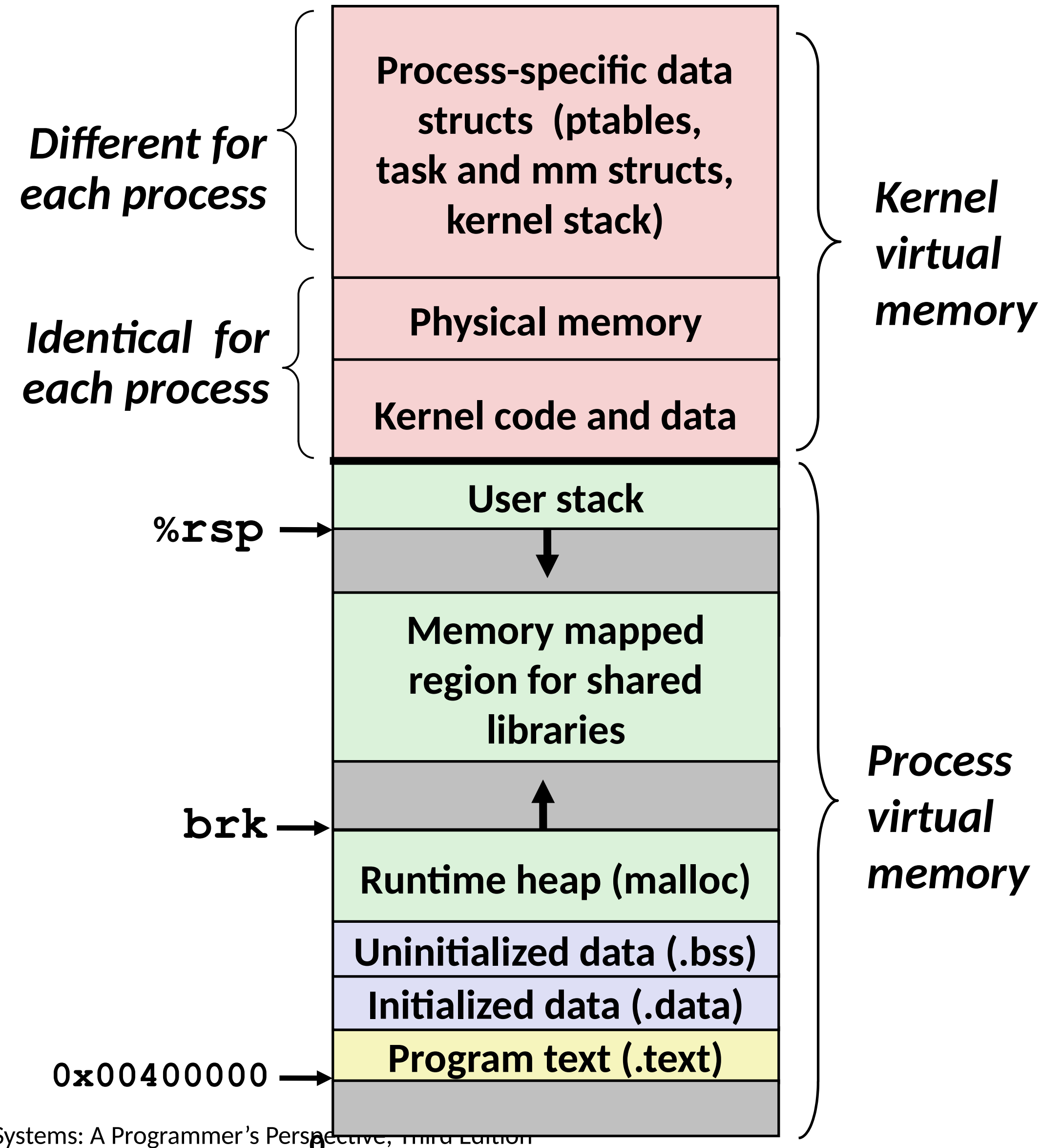


VM as a Tool for Memory Management

- **Simplifying memory allocation**
  - Each virtual page can be mapped to any physical page
  - A virtual page can be stored in different physical pages at different times
- **Sharing code and data among processes**
  - Map virtual pages to the same physical page (here: PP 6)

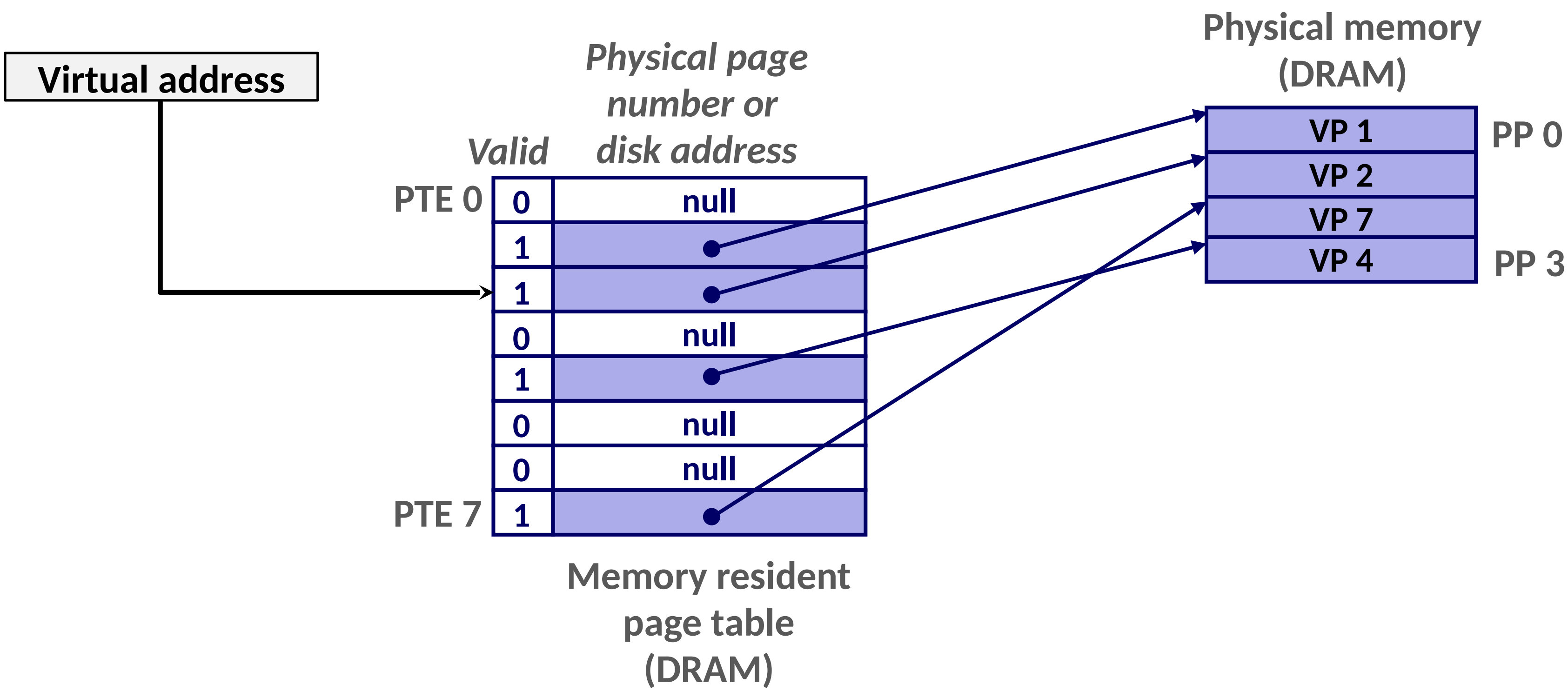


Virtual Address Space of a Linux Process



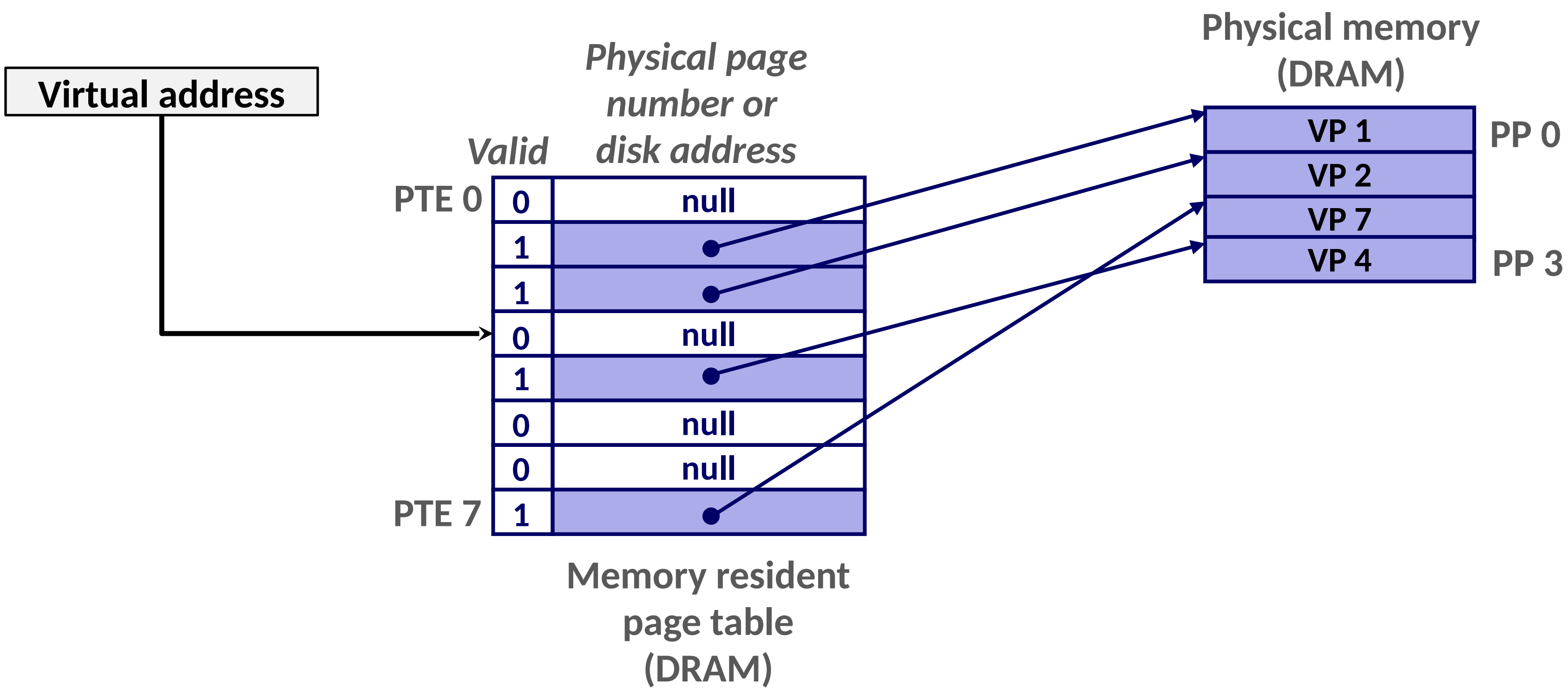
Page Hit

- ***Page hit:*** **reference to page that is in physical memory**



Page Fault

- *Page fault:* **reference to page that is not in physical memory**



Today

- Processes: Concepts
- Address spaces
- VM as a tool for memory management
- **VM as a tool for memory protection**
- VM as a tool for caching

VM as a Tool for Memory Protection

- Extend PTEs with permission bits
- MMU checks these bits on each access

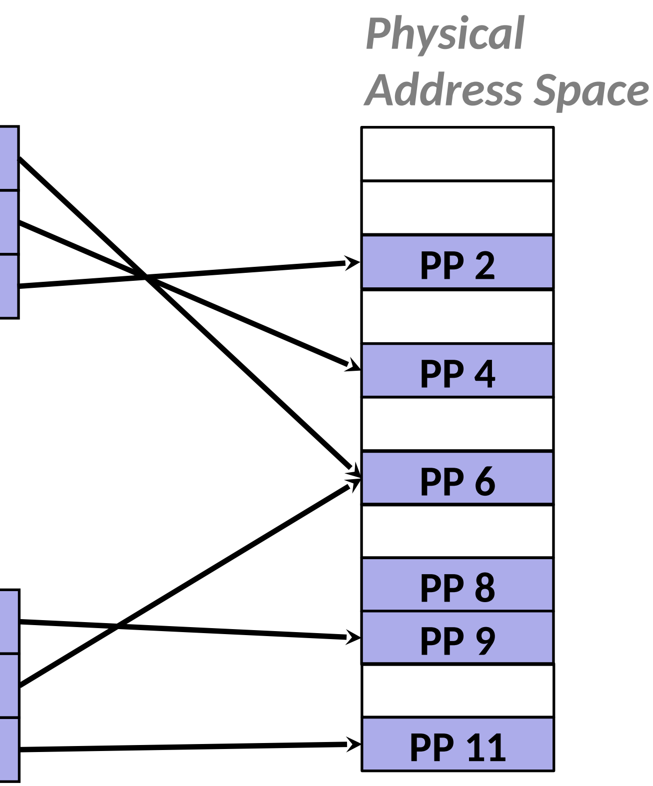
Process i:

	SUP	READ	WRITE	EXEC	Address
VP 0:	No	Yes	No	Yes	PP 6
VP 1:	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	PP 4
VP 2:	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	PP 2

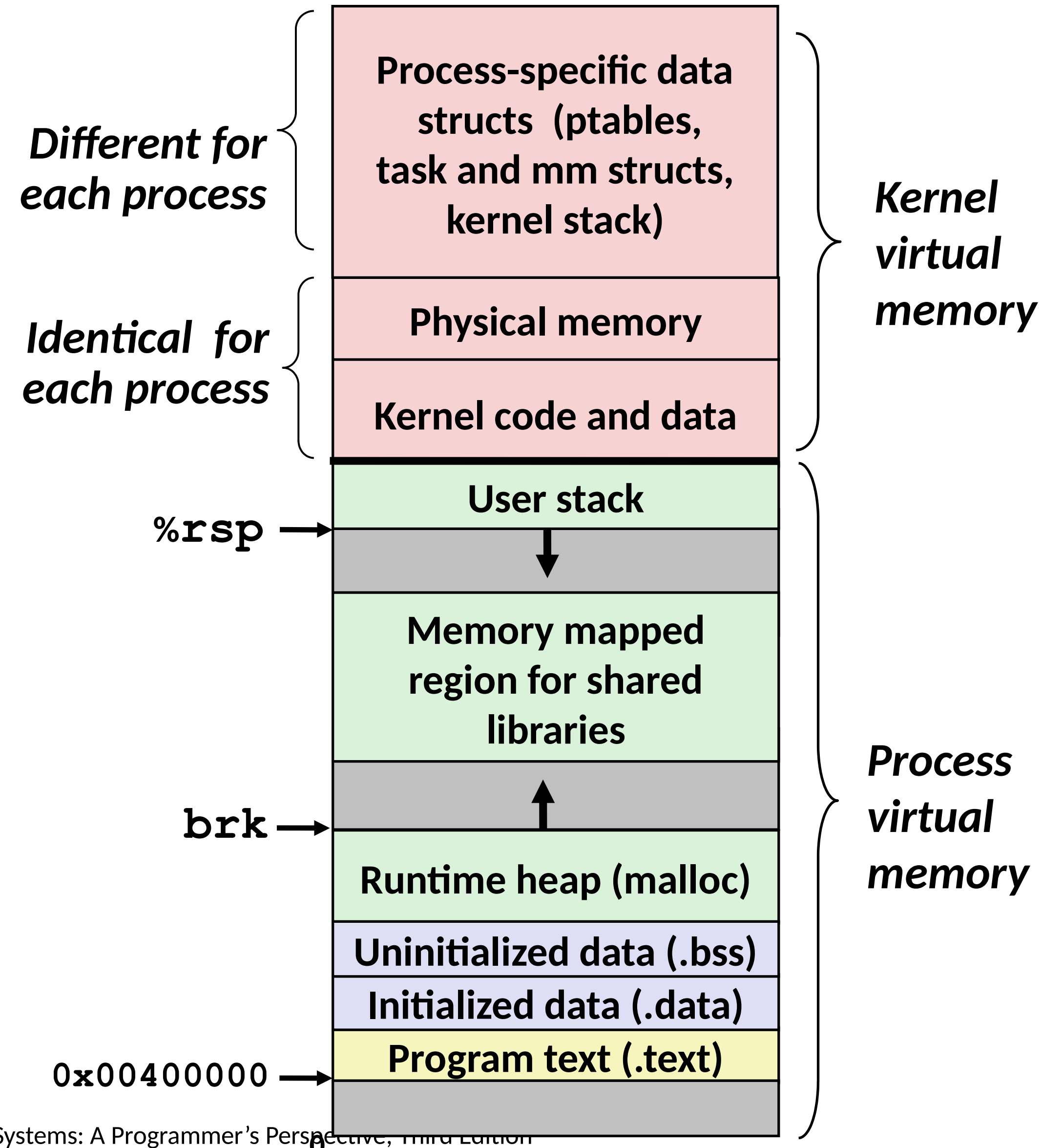
•
•
•

Process j:

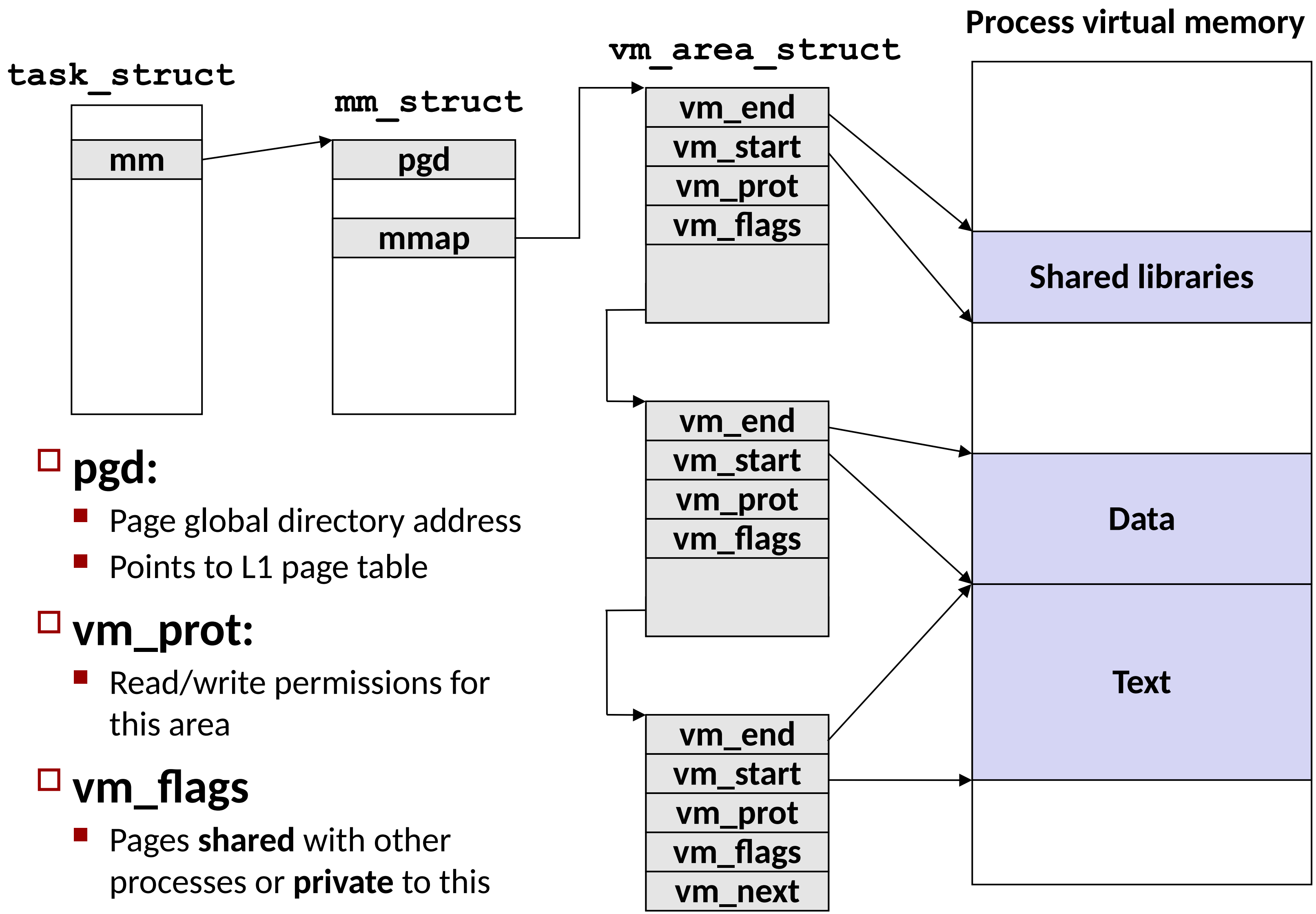
	SUP	READ	WRITE	EXEC	Address
VP 0:	No	Yes	No	Yes	PP 9
VP 1:	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	PP 6
VP 2:	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	PP 11



Virtual Address Space of a Linux Process



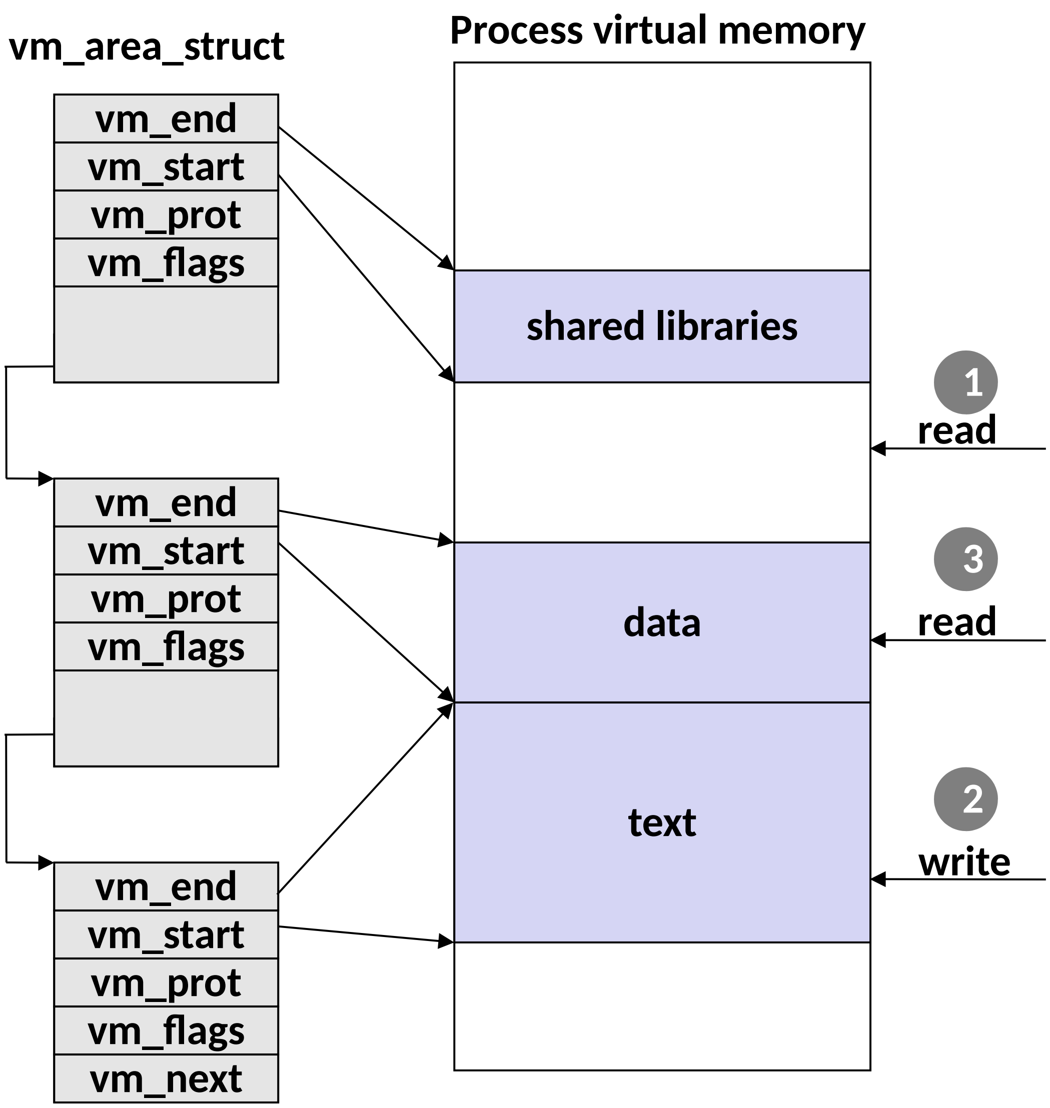
Linux Organizes VM as Collection of "Areas"



- **pgd:**
  - Page global directory address
  - Points to L1 page table
- **vm_prot:**
  - Read/write permissions for this area
- **vm_flags**
  - Pages **shared** with other processes or **private** to this process

Each process has own `task_struct`, etc

Linux Page Fault Handling



Segmentation fault:
accessing a non-existing page

***Normal* page fault …?!**

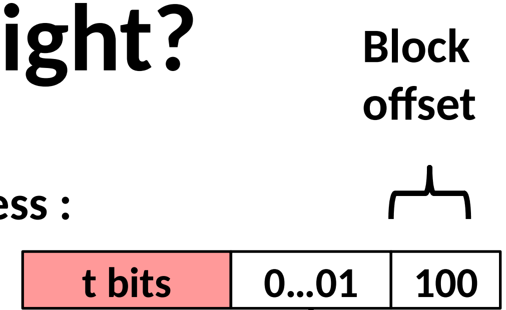
Protection exception:
e.g., violating permission by writing to a read-only page (Linux reports as Segmentation fault)

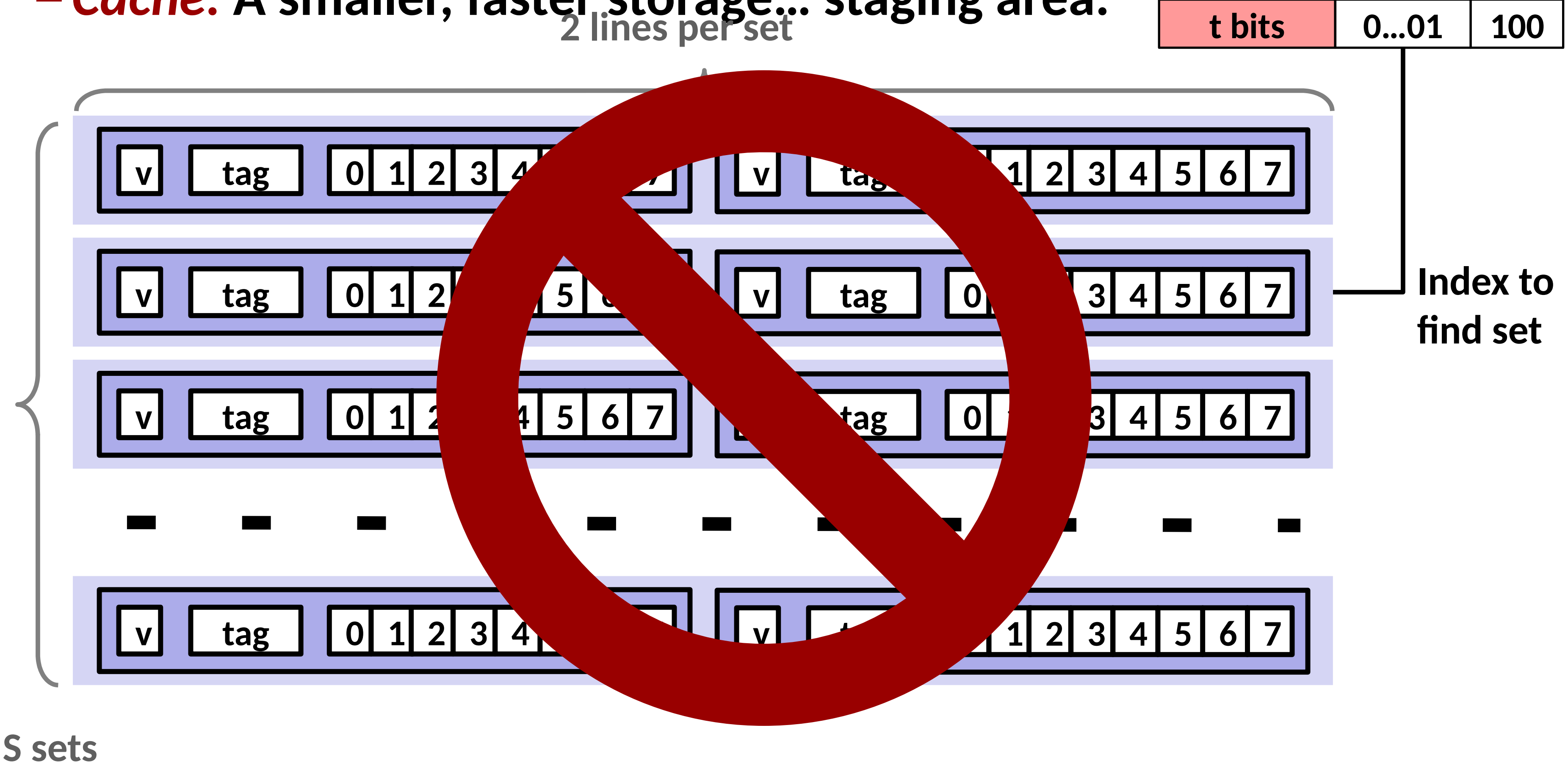
Today

- Processes: Concepts
- Address spaces
- VM as a tool for memory management
- VM as a tool for memory protection
- **VM as a tool for caching**

Caching... as in a cache like this, right?

- No! Doesn't work like a CPU cache.
- ***Cache:*** A smaller, faster storage... staging area.

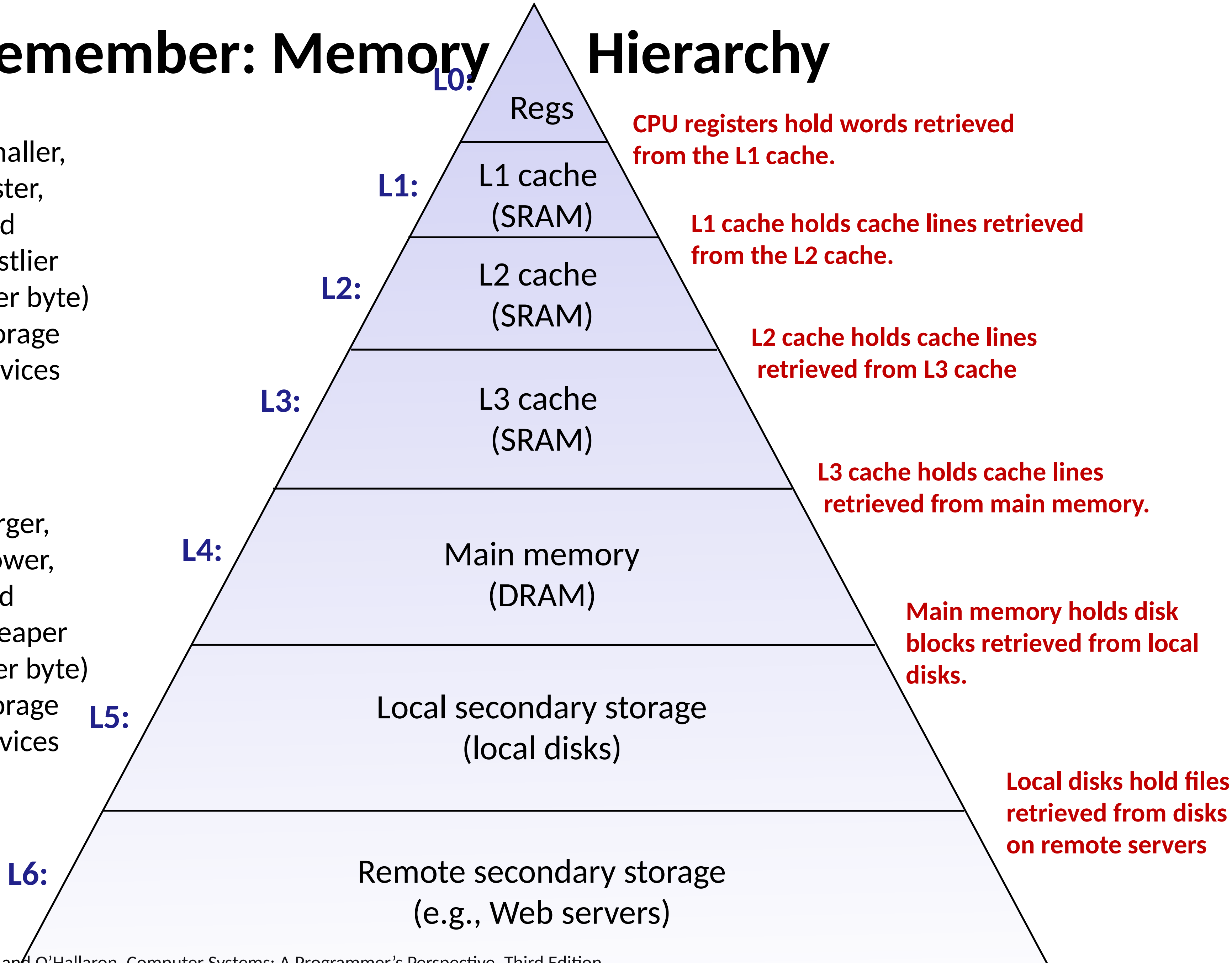




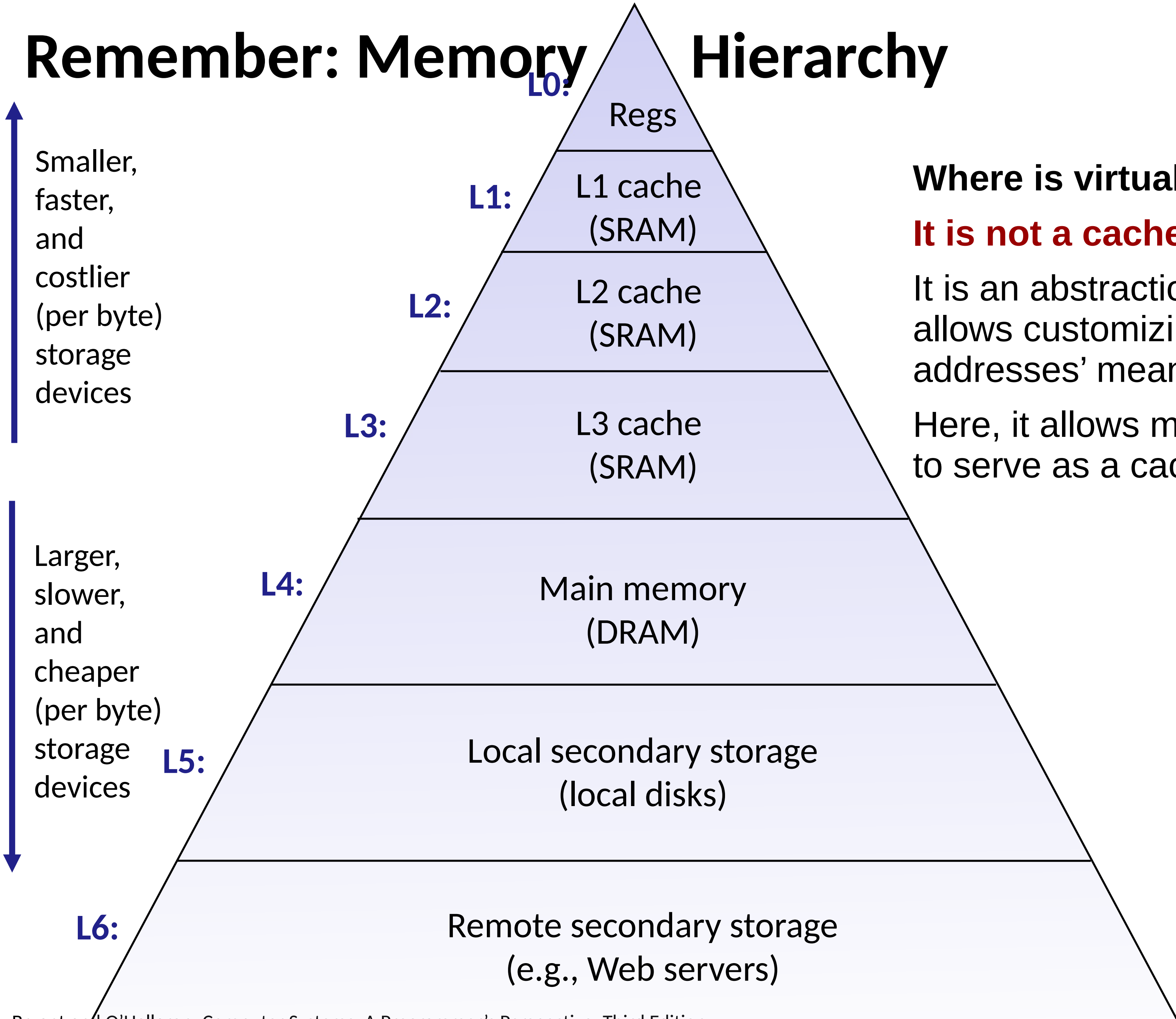
Remember: Memory Hierarchy

Smaller, faster, and costlier (per byte) storage devices

Larger, slower, and cheaper (per byte) storage devices



Remember: Memory Hierarchy



Where is virtual memory?!

It is not a cache!

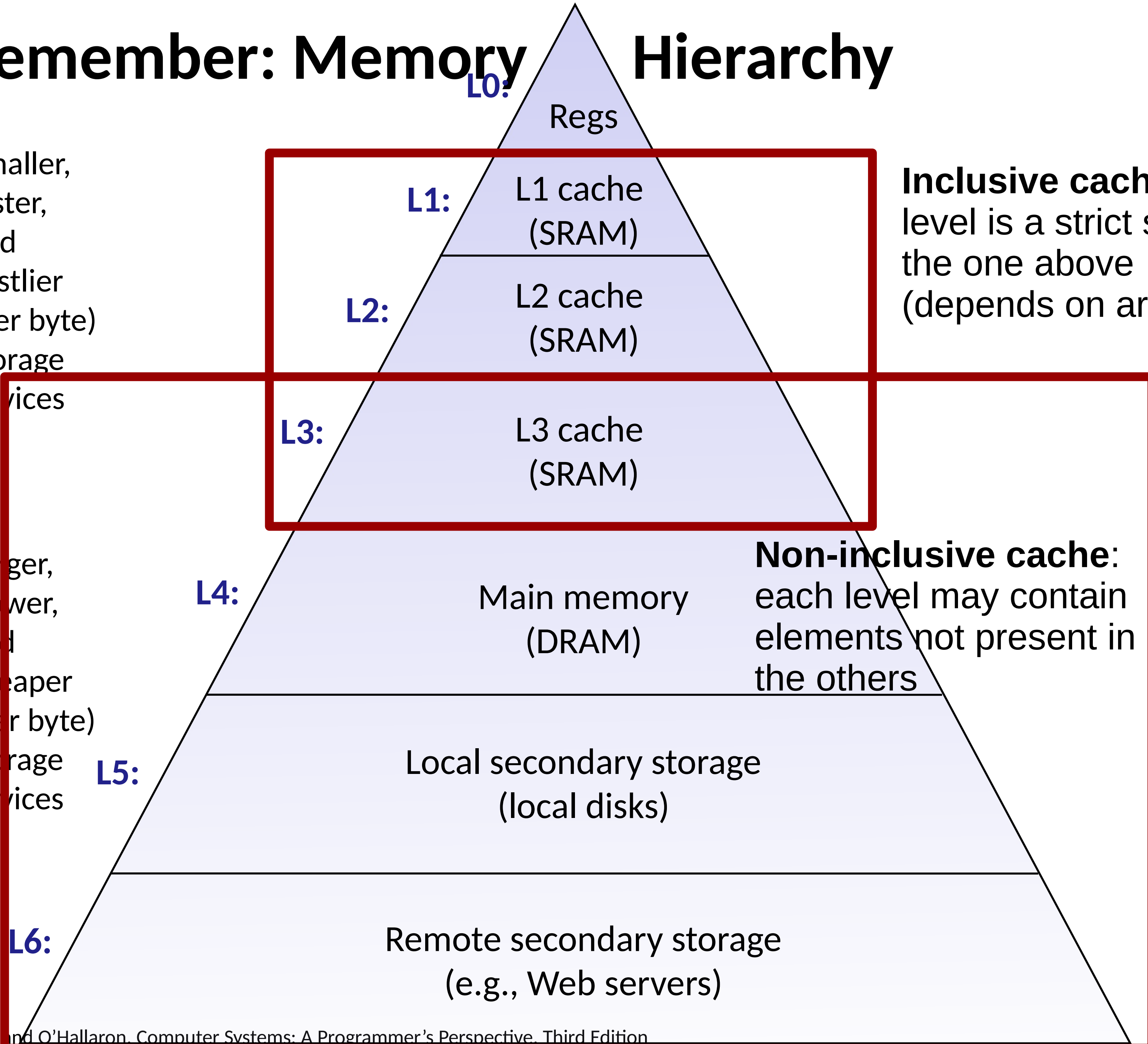
It is an abstraction that allows customizing memory addresses' meanings.

Here, it allows main memory to serve as a cache for disk.

Remember: Memory Hierarchy

Smaller, faster, and costlier (per byte) storage devices

Larger, slower, and cheaper (per byte) storage devices



Inclusive cache: each level is a strict superset of the one above (depends on architecture)

Non-inclusive cache: each level may contain elements not present in the others

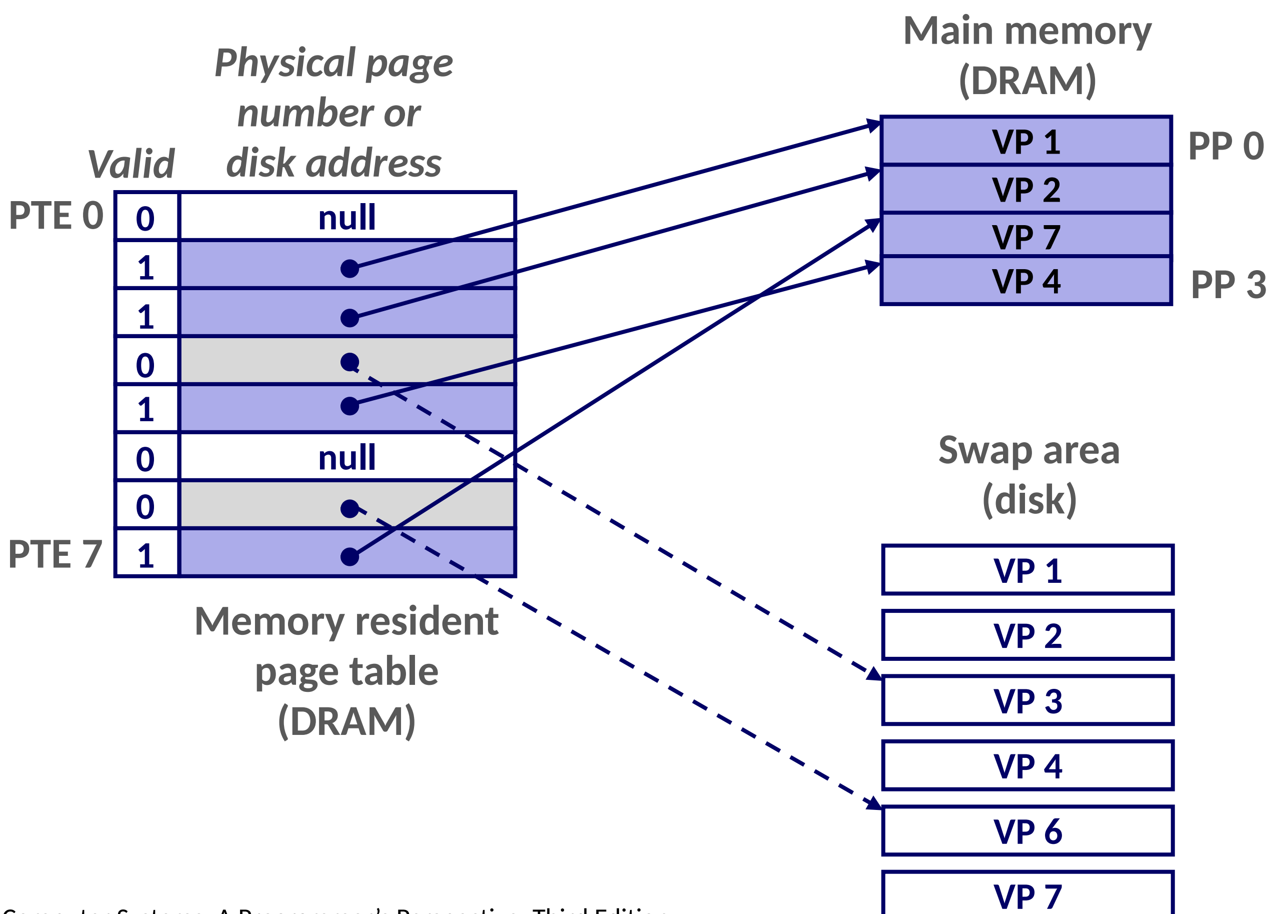
DRAM Cache Organization

- **DRAM cache organization driven by the enormous miss penalty**
  - DRAM is about ***10x*** slower than SRAM
  - Disk is about ***10,000x*** slower than DRAM

- **Consequences**
  - Large page (block) size: typically 4 KB, sometimes 4 MB
  - Fully associative
    - Any VP can be placed in any PP
    - Requires a "large" mapping function – different from cache memories
  - Highly sophisticated, expensive replacement algorithms
    - Too complicated and open-ended to be implemented in hardware
  - Write-back rather than write-through

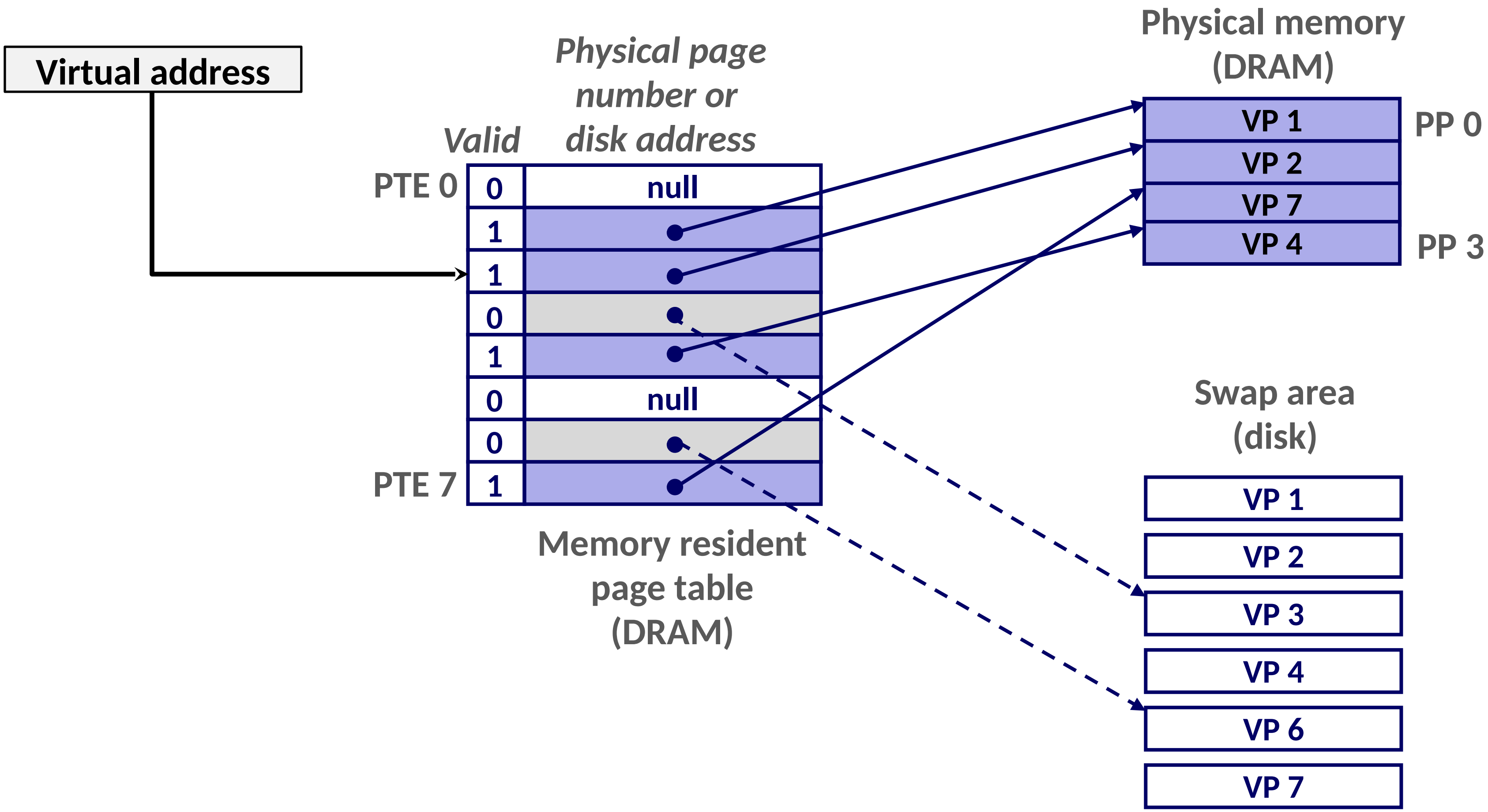
Paging: Once More w/ Feeling—err, swap

- A ***swap area*** **is an on-disk "overflow scratch space"**
  - When running out of DRAM, the operating system can move pages here instead of crashing.



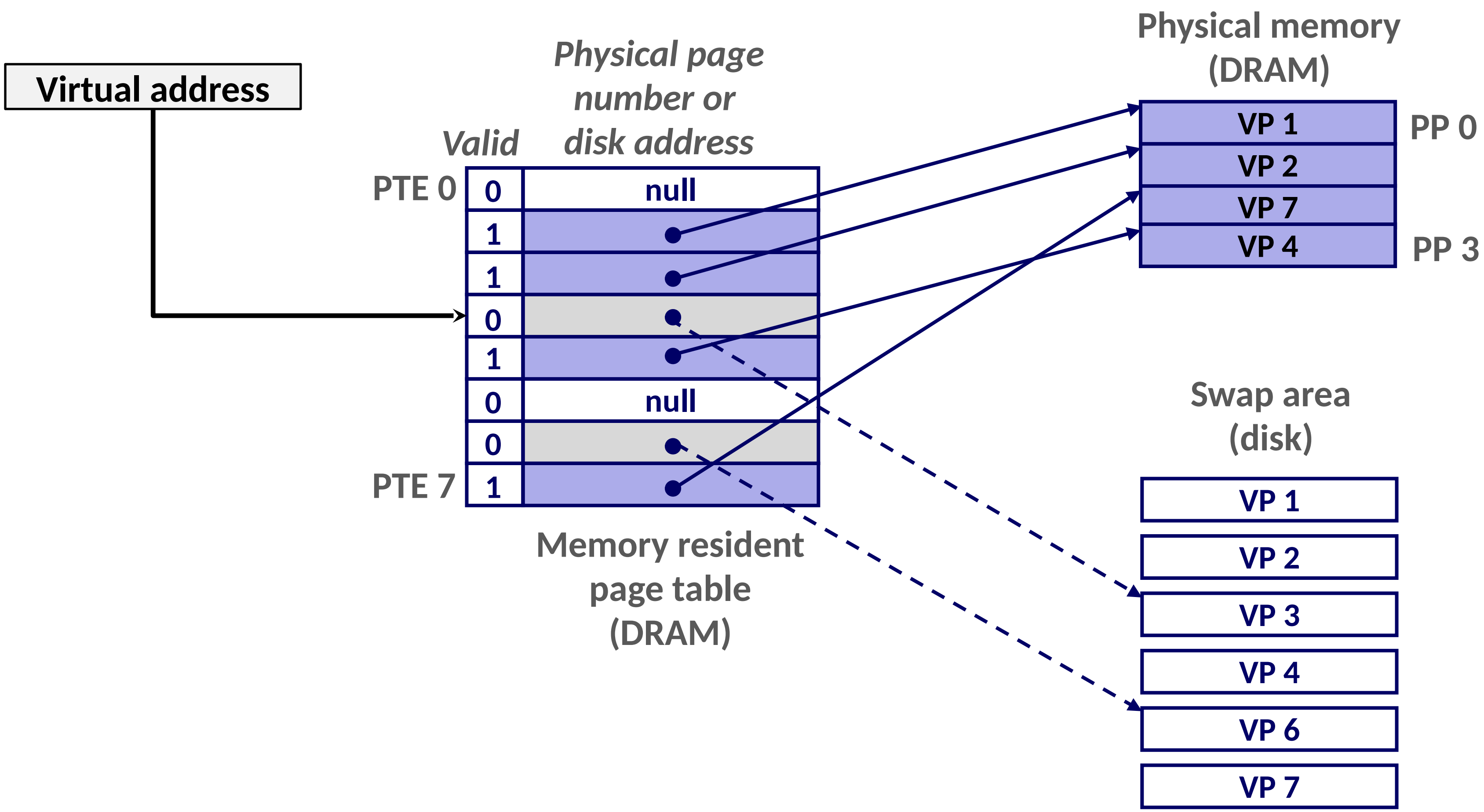
Page Hit

- ***Page hit:*** **in some ways like a DRAM "cache hit"**



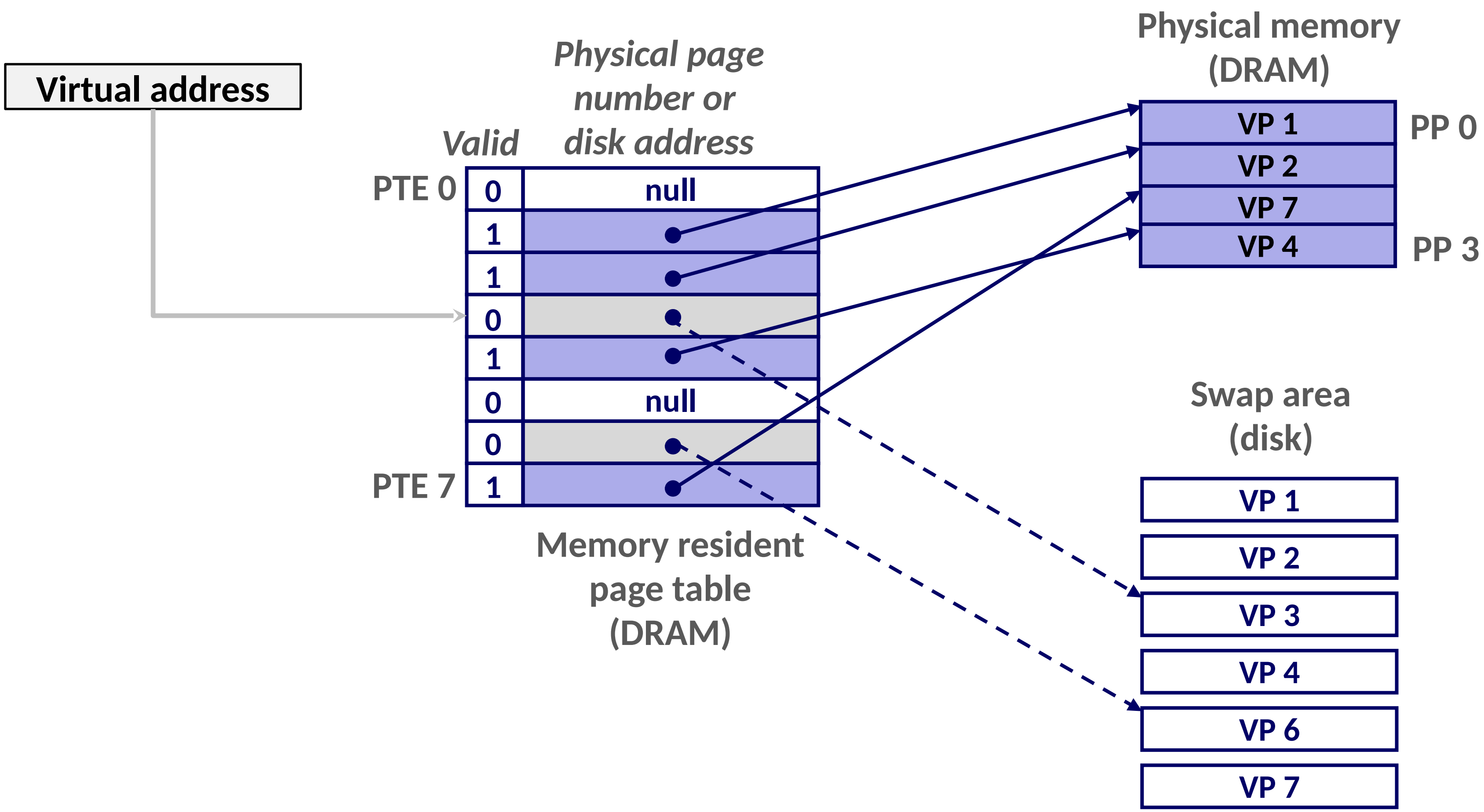
Page Fault

- ***Page fault:*** **in some ways like a DRAM "cache miss"**



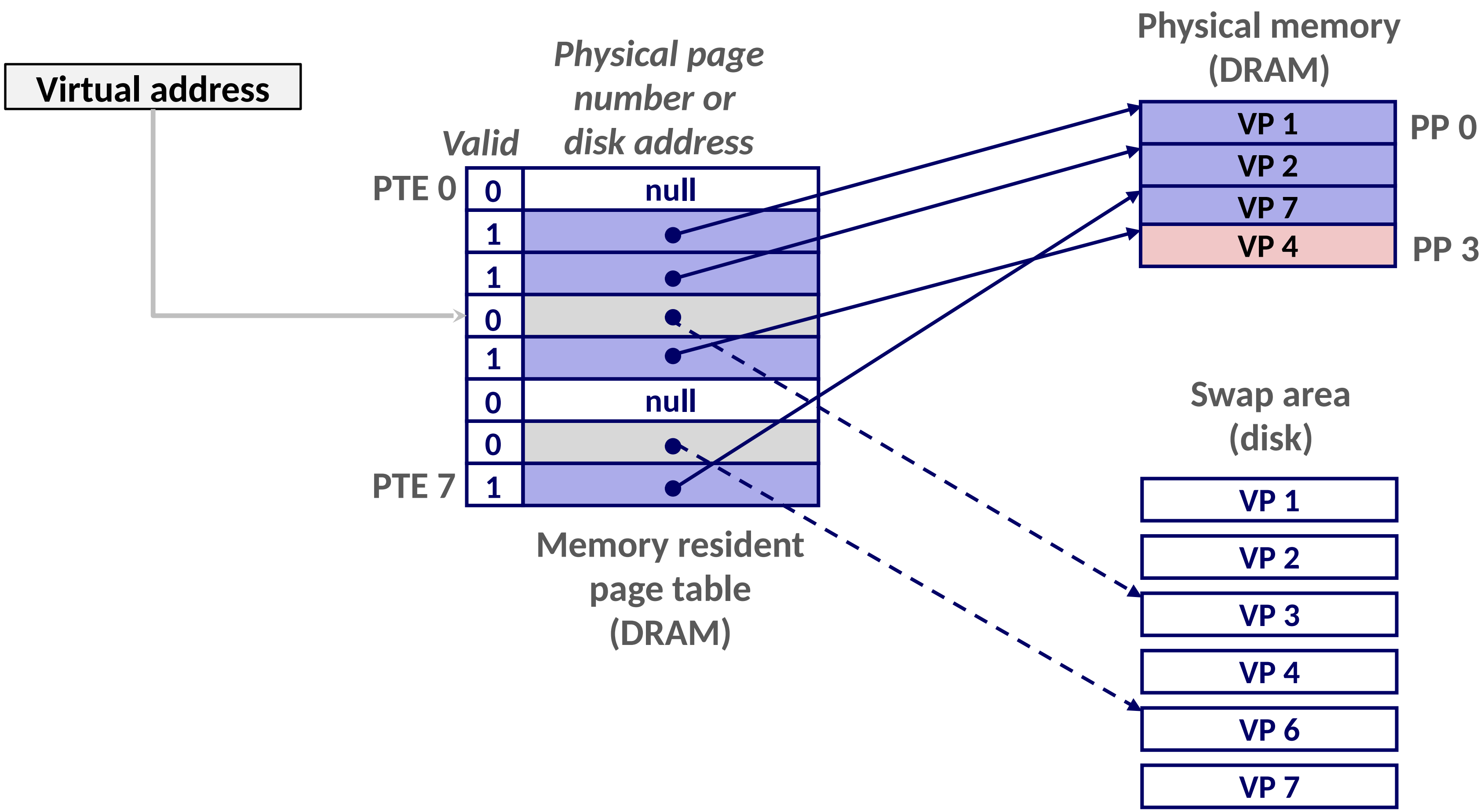
Handling Page Fault

- Page miss causes page fault (an exception)



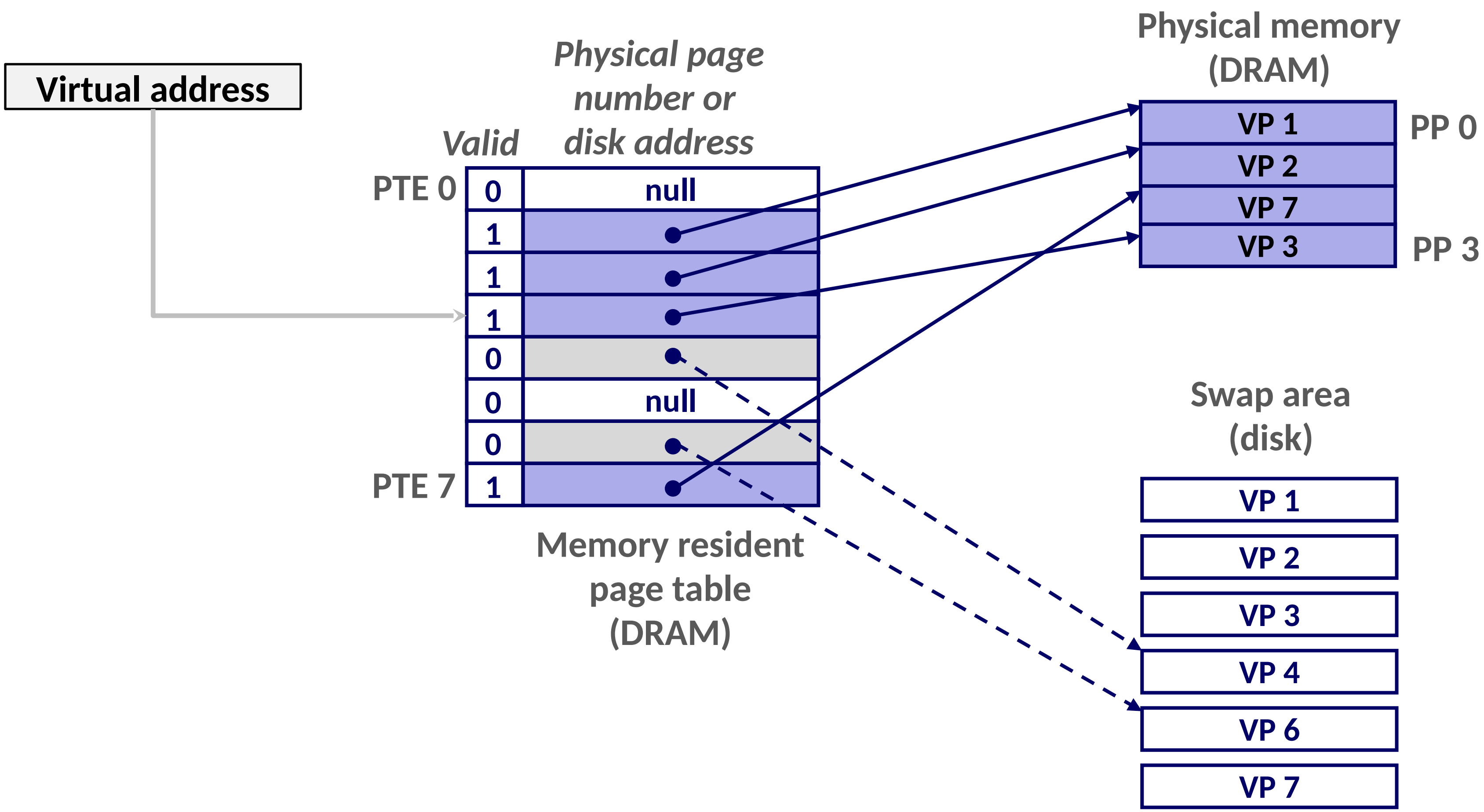
Handling Page Fault

- Page miss causes page fault (an exception)
- Operating system selects a victim to be evicted (here VP 4)



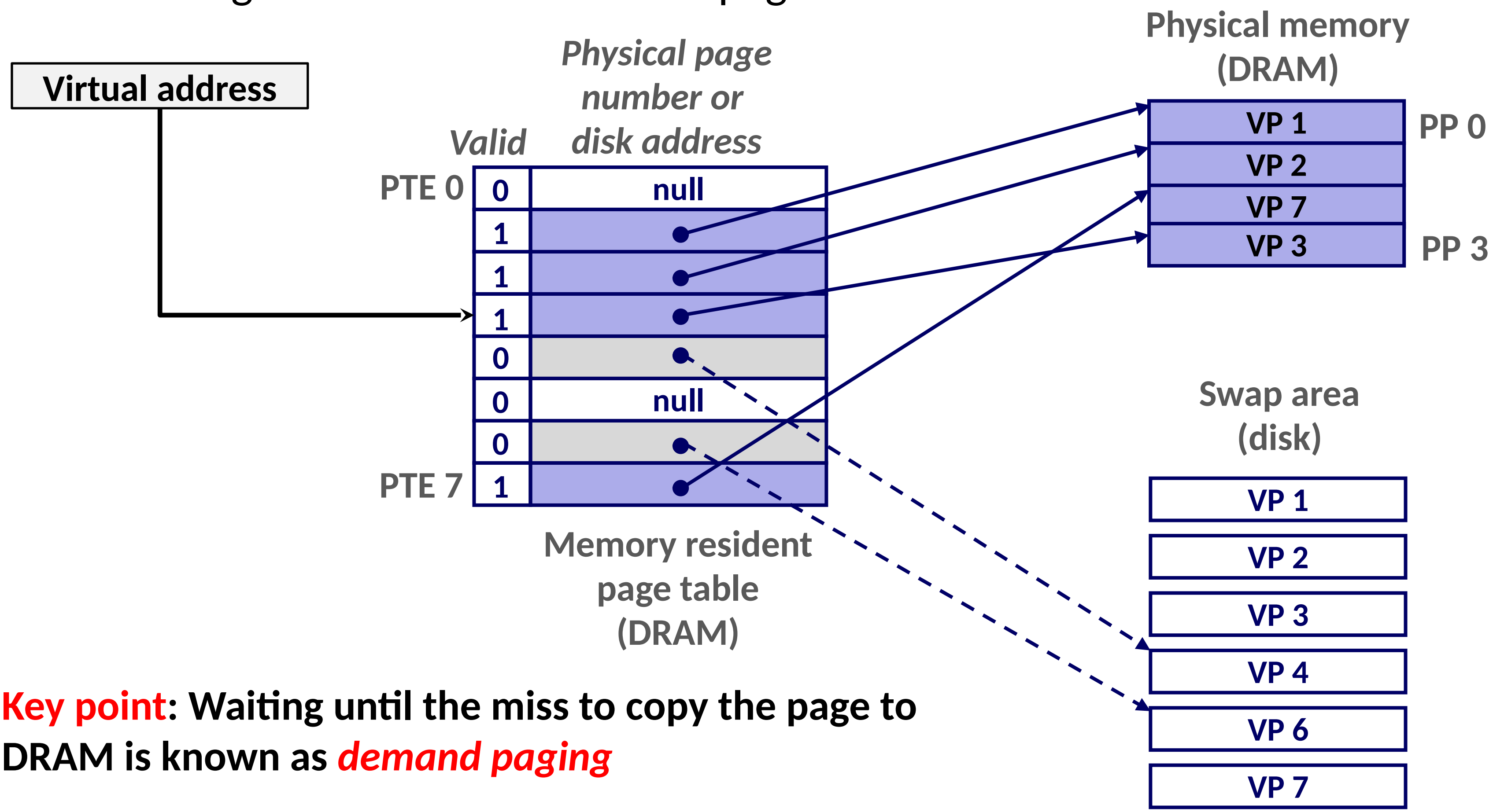
Handling Page Fault

- Page miss causes page fault (an exception)
- Operating system selects a victim to be evicted (here VP 4)



Handling Page Fault

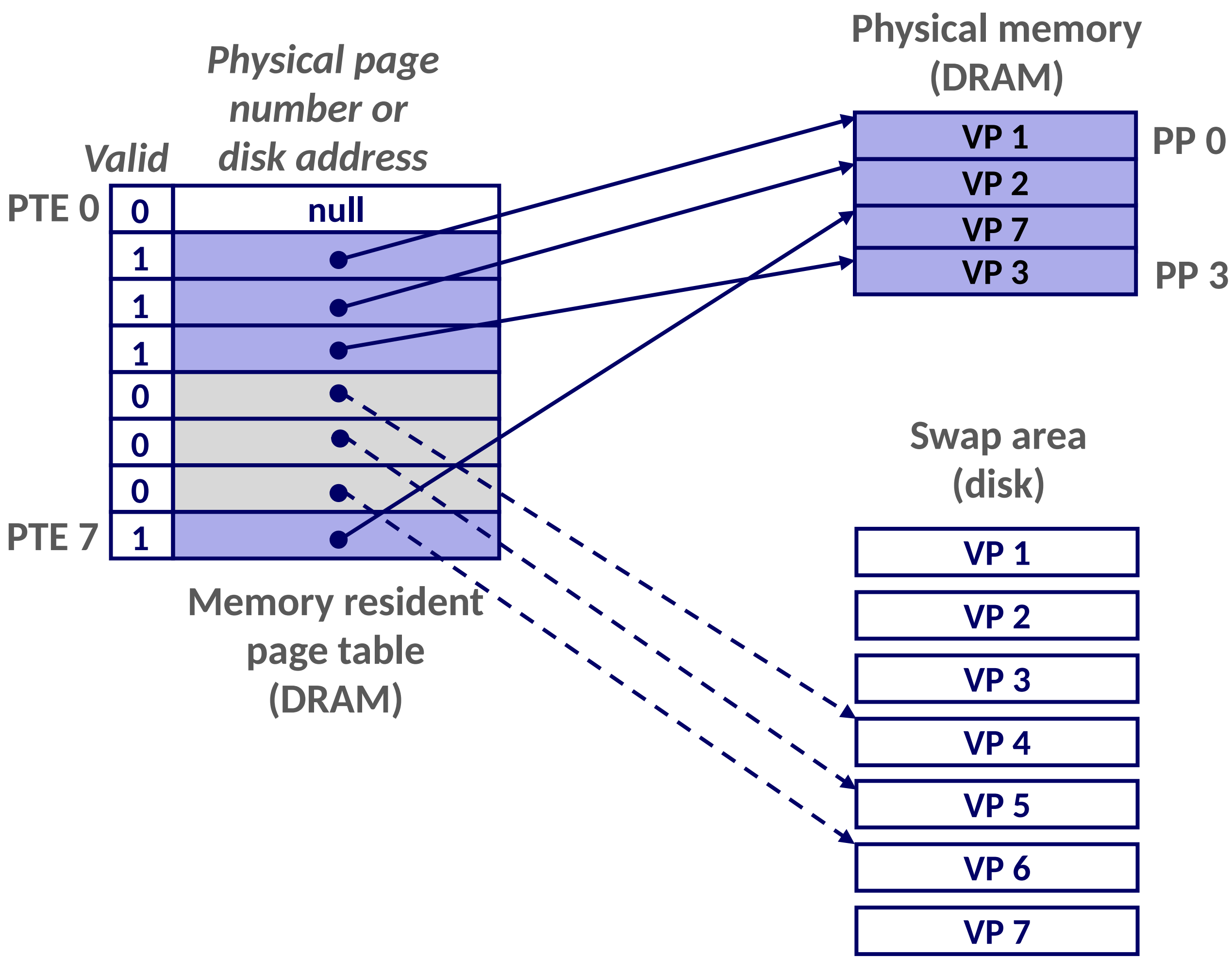
- Page miss causes page fault (an exception)
- Operating system selects a victim to be evicted (here VP 4)
- Offending instruction is restarted: page hit!



Key point: Waiting until the miss to copy the page to DRAM is known as *demand paging*

Allocating Pages

- Allocating a new page (VP 5) of virtual memory.



Locality to the Rescue Again!

- **Virtual memory seems terribly inefficient, but it works because of locality.**

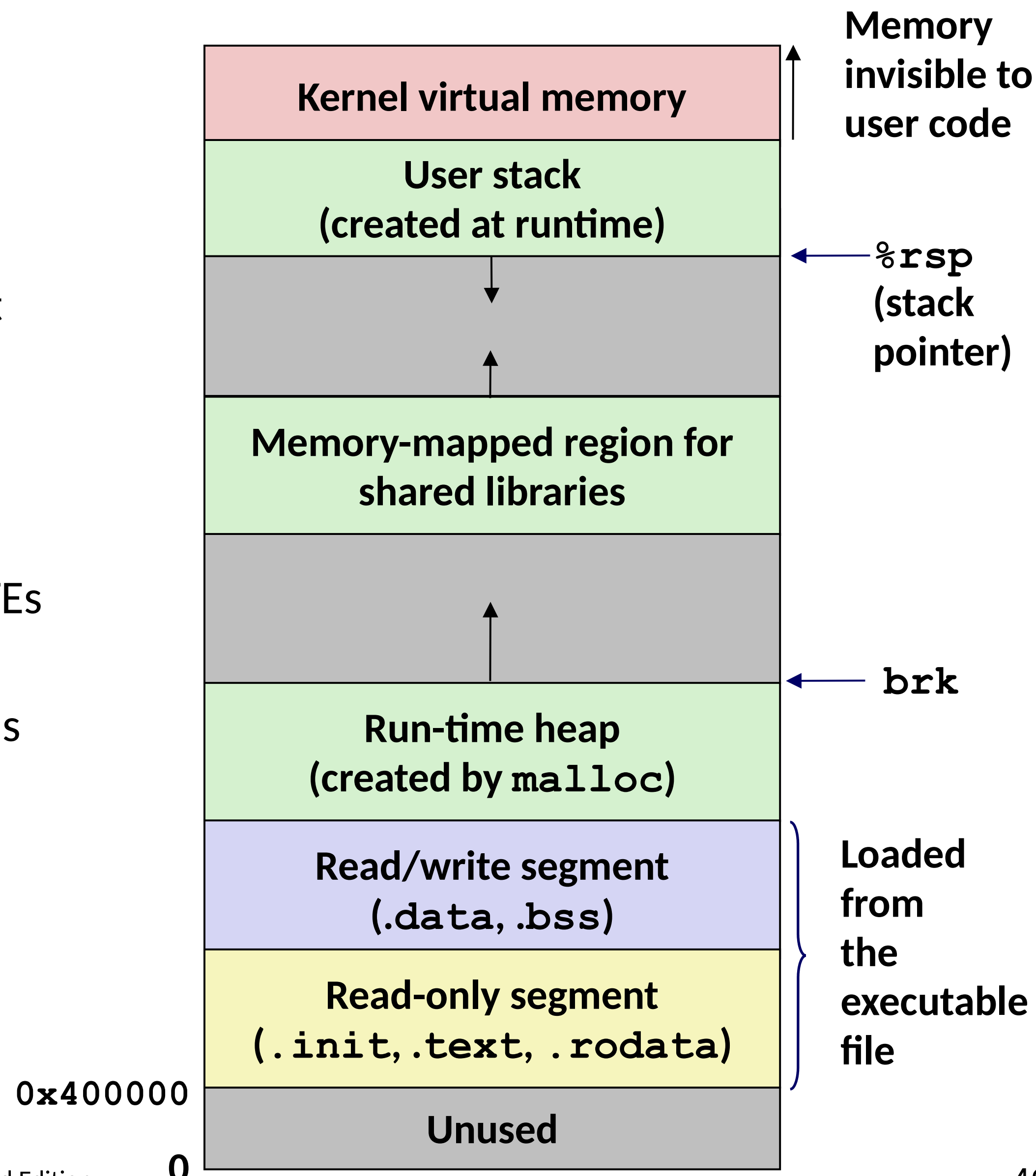
- **At any point in time, programs tend to access a set of active virtual pages called the *working set***
  - Programs with better temporal locality will have smaller working sets

- **If (working set size < main memory size)**
  - Good performance for one process after compulsory misses

- **If (SUM(working set sizes) > main memory size)**
  - *Thrashing:* Performance meltdown where pages are swapped (copied) in and out continuously

Linking and Loading Revisited

- **Linking**
  - Each program has similar virtual address space
  - Code, data, and heap always start at the same addresses.
- **Loading**
  - Allocate virtual pages for `.text` and `.data` sections & creates PTEs marked as invalid
  - The `.text` and `.data` sections are copied, page by page, on demand by the virtual memory system

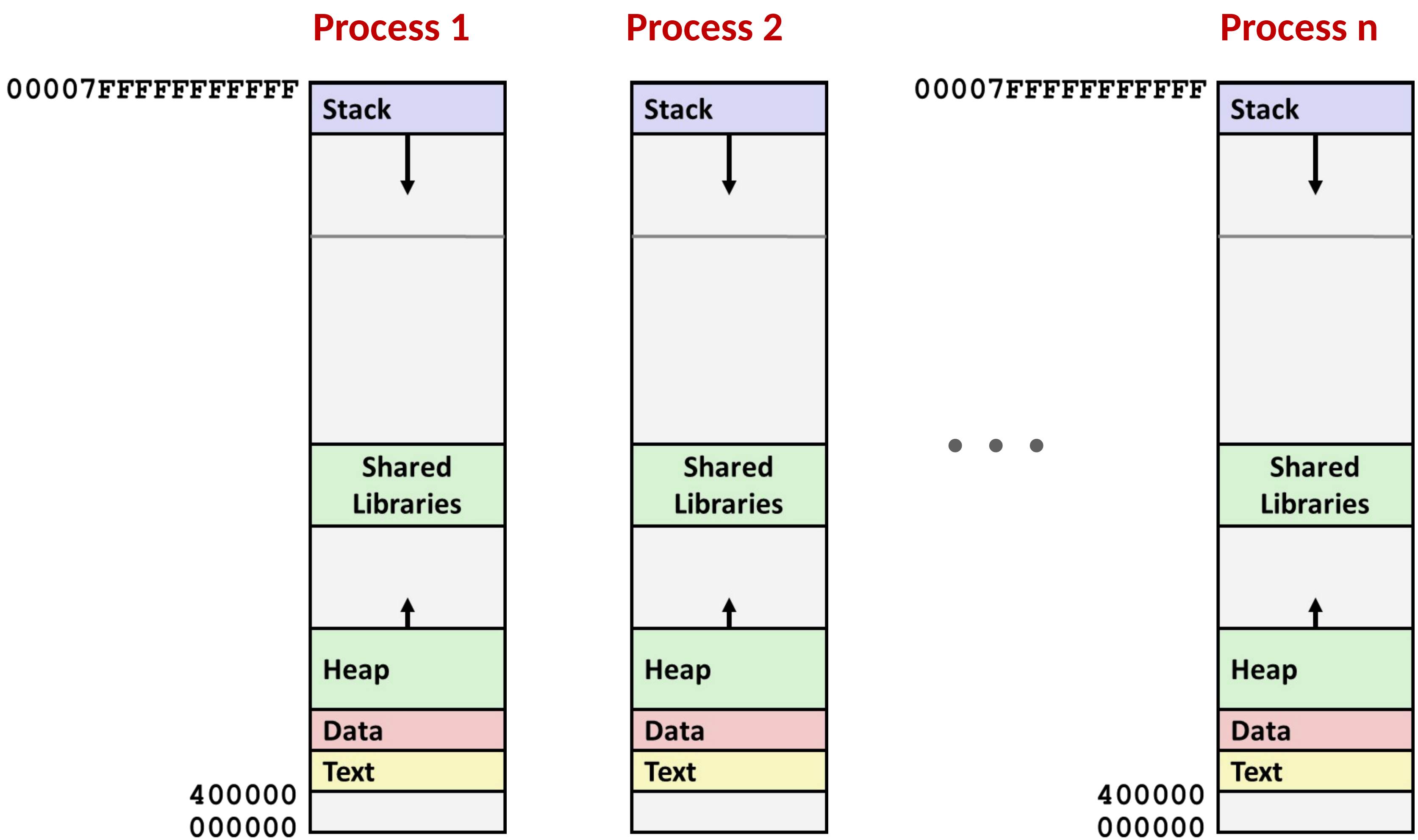


Summary

- **Programmer's view of virtual memory**
  - Each process has its own private address space
  - Cannot be corrupted by other processes

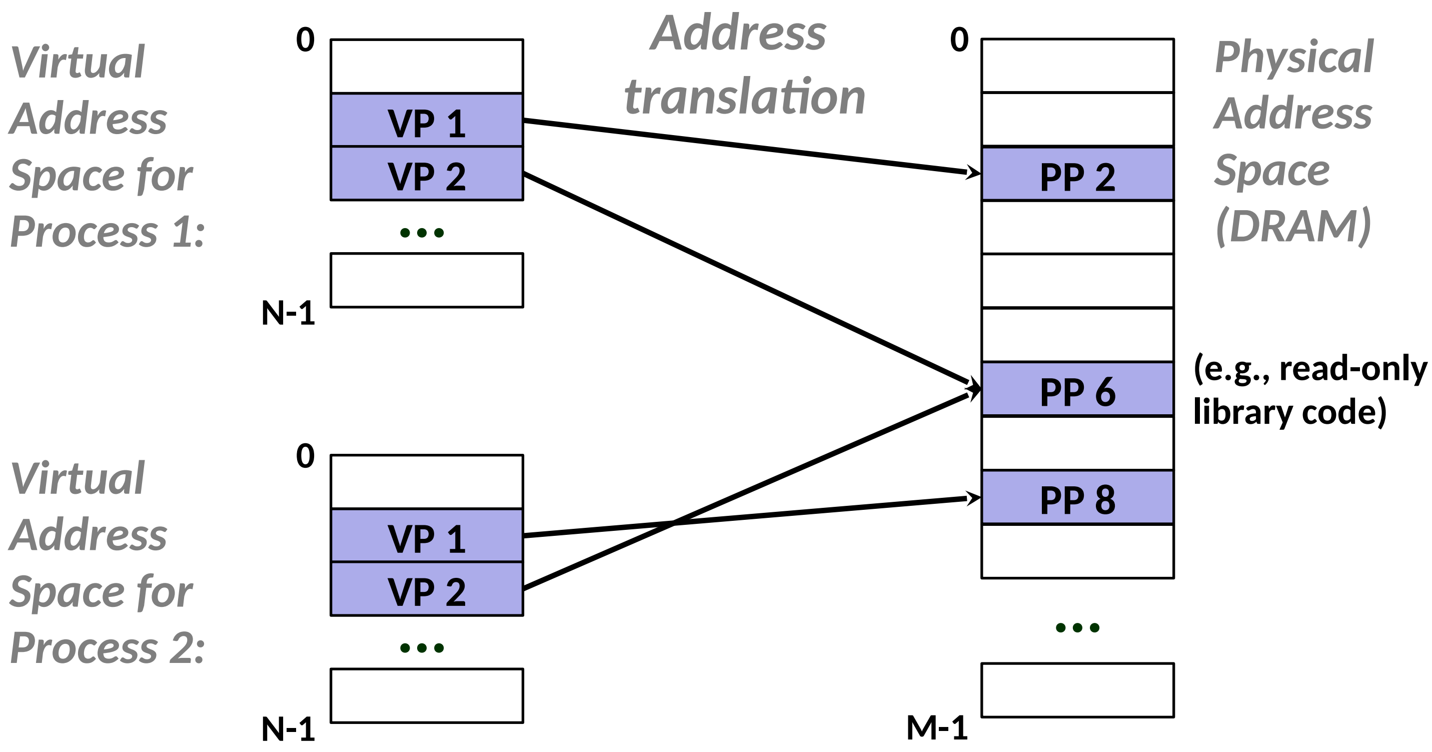
- **System view of virtual memory**
  - Simplifies memory management and programming
  - Simplifies protection by providing a convenient interpositioning point to check permissions
  - Allows using DRAM as a cache of disk when low on memory
    - Efficient only because of locality

Recap: Hmmm, How Does This Work?!

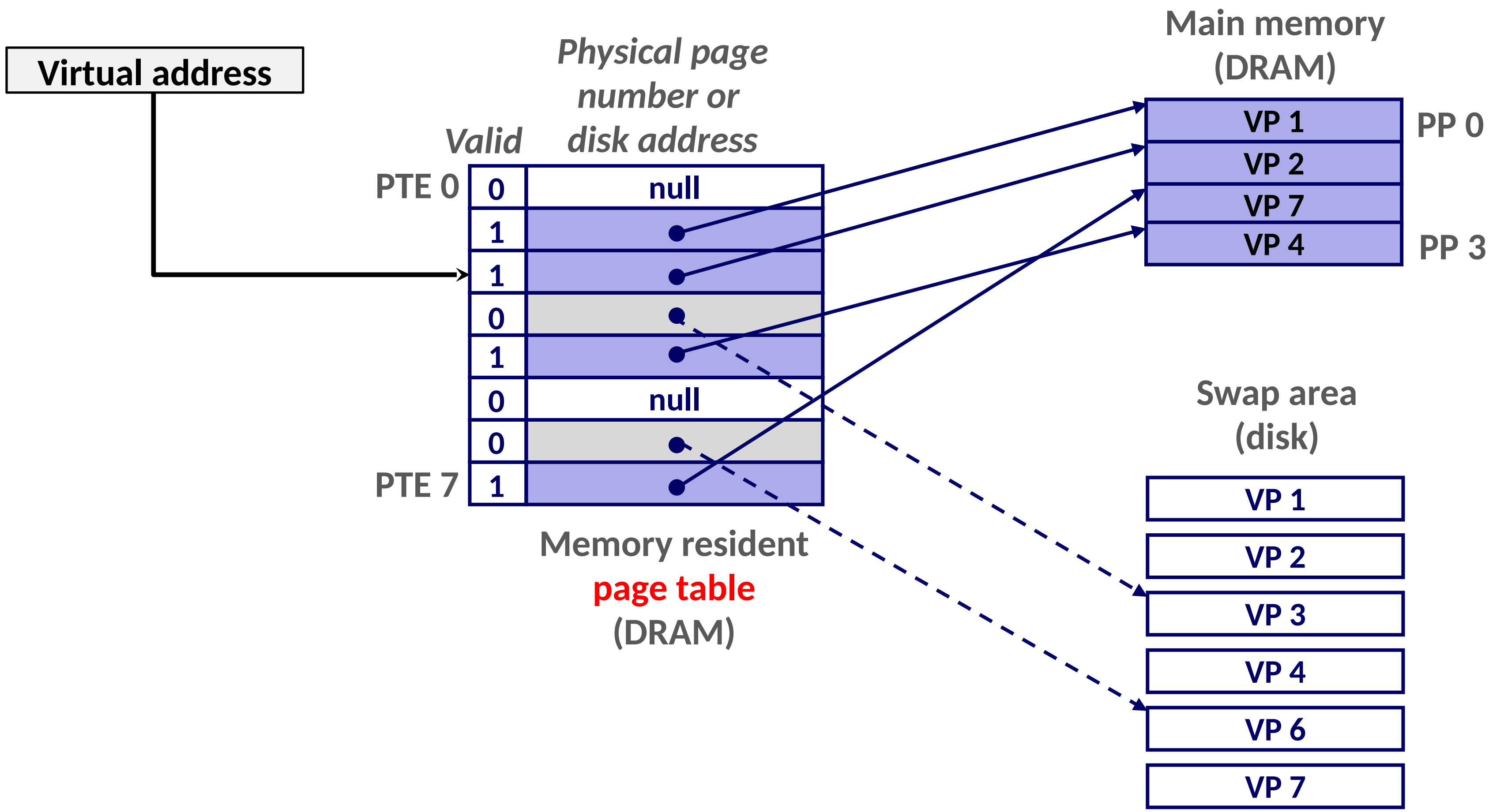


VM as a Tool for Memory Management

- Simplifying memory allocation
- Sharing code and data among processes



Review: Virtual Memory & Physical Memory



- A ***page table*** **contains page table entries (PTEs) that map virtual pages to physical pages.**

Extension: VM as a Tool for Memory Protection

- Extend PTEs with permission bits
- MMU checks these bits on each access

Process i:

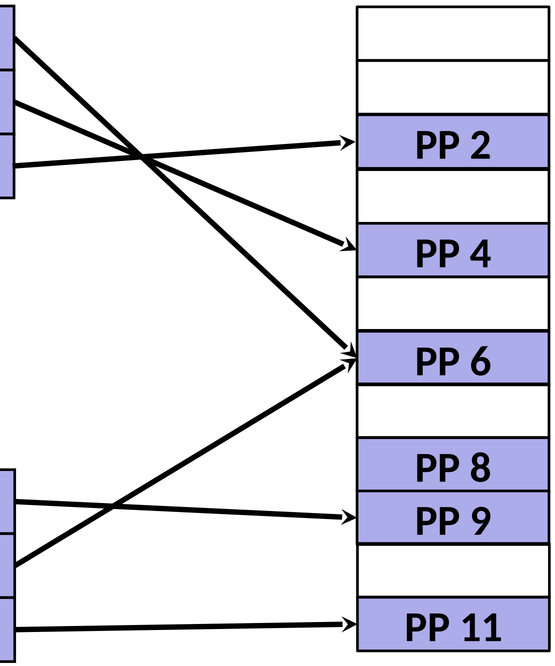
	SUP	READ	WRITE	EXEC	Address
VP 0:	No	Yes	No	Yes	PP 6
VP 1:	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	PP 4
VP 2:	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	PP 2

⋮

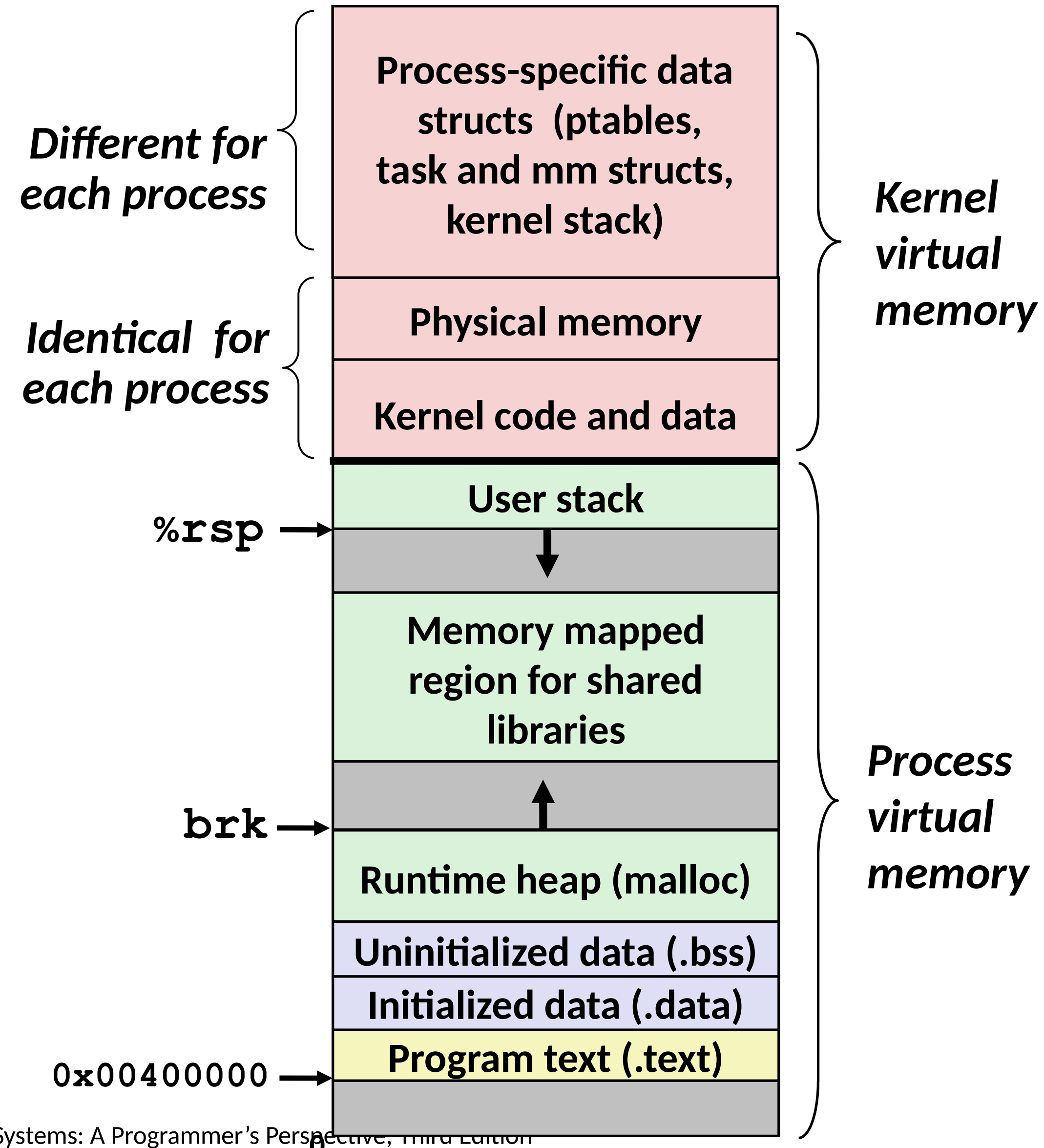
Process j:

	SUP	READ	WRITE	EXEC	Address
VP 0:	No	Yes	No	Yes	PP 9
VP 1:	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	PP 6
VP 2:	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	PP 11

Physical Address Space



Virtual Address Space of a Linux Process



Today

- **Address translation**
- Simple memory system example
- Case study: Core i7/Linux memory system
- Memory mapping

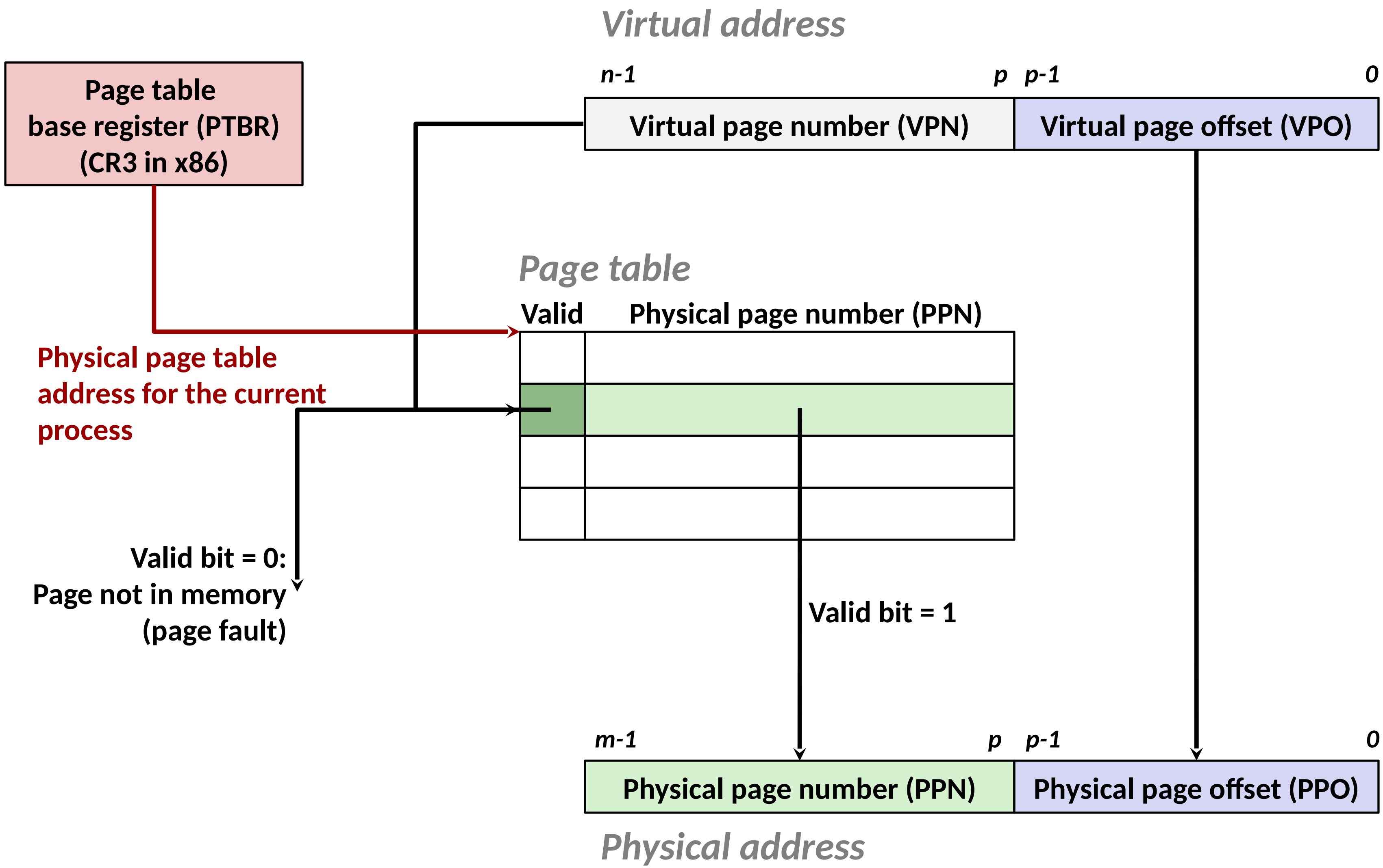
VM Address Translation

- **Virtual Address Space**
  - $V = \{0, 1, \ldots, N-1\}$
- **Physical Address Space**
  - $P = \{0, 1, \ldots, M-1\}$
- **Address Translation**
  - $\boldsymbol{MAP: V \rightarrow P \cup \{\varnothing\}}$
  - For virtual address ***a***:
    - ***MAP(a) = a'*** if data at virtual address ***a*** is at physical address ***a'*** in ***P***
    - ***MAP(a) = ∅*** if data at virtual address ***a*** is not in physical memory
      - Either invalid or stored on disk

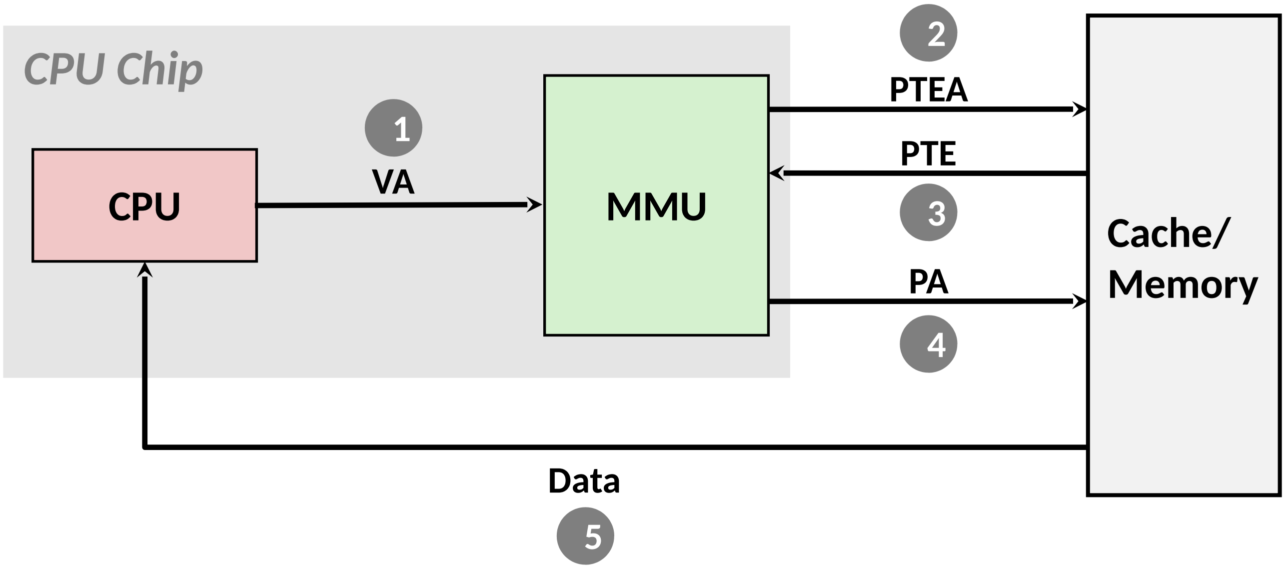
Summary of Address Translation Symbols

- **Basic Parameters**
  - **$N = 2^n$** : Number of addresses in virtual address space
  - **$M = 2^m$** : Number of addresses in physical address space
  - **$P = 2^p$** : Page size (bytes)
- **Components of the virtual address (VA)**
  - **VPO**: Virtual page offset
  - **VPN**: Virtual page number
  - **TLBI**: TLB index
  - **TLBT**: TLB tag
- **Components of the physical address (PA)**
  - **PPO**: Physical page offset (same as VPO)
  - **PPN:** Physical page number

Address Translation With a Page Table



Address Translation: Page Hit



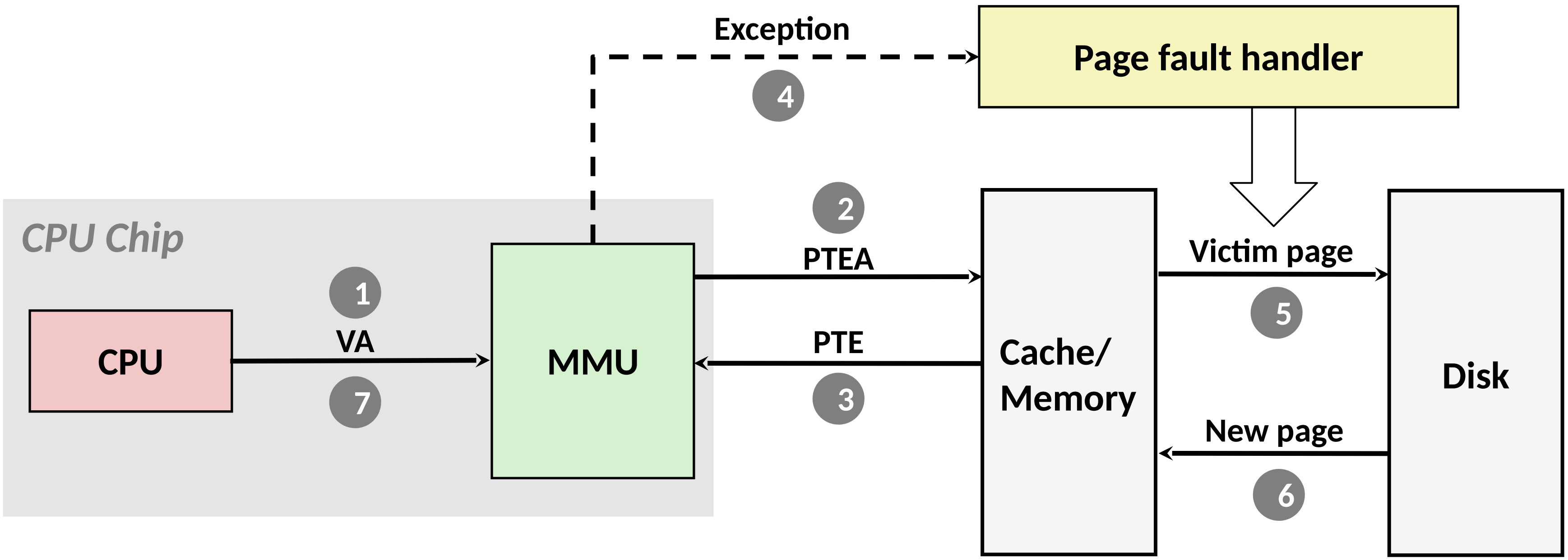
1) Processor sends virtual address to MMU

2-3) MMU fetches PTE from page table in memory

4) MMU sends physical address to cache/memory

5) Cache/memory sends data word to processor

Address Translation: Page Fault



1) Processor sends virtual address to MMU

2-3) MMU fetches PTE from page table in memory

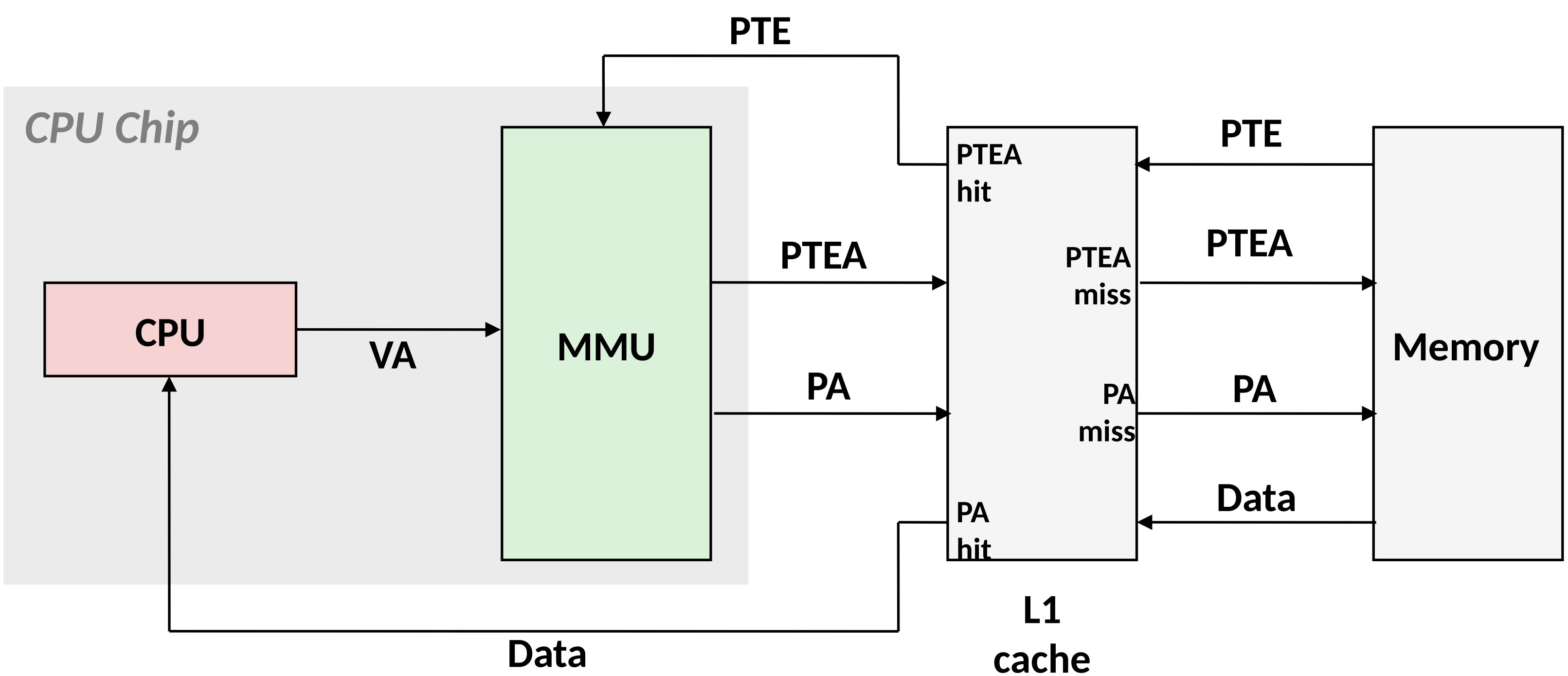
4) Valid bit is zero, so MMU triggers page fault exception

5) Handler identifies victim (and, if dirty, pages it out to disk)

6) Handler pages in new page and updates PTE in memory

7) Handler returns to original process, restarting faulting instruction

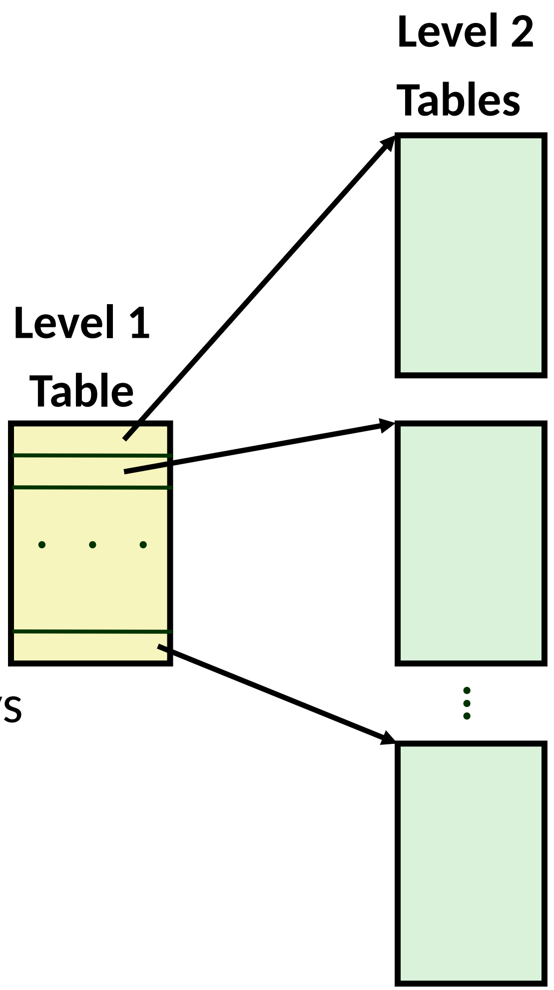
Integrating VM and Cache



VA: virtual address, PA: physical address, PTE: page table entry, PTEA = PTE address

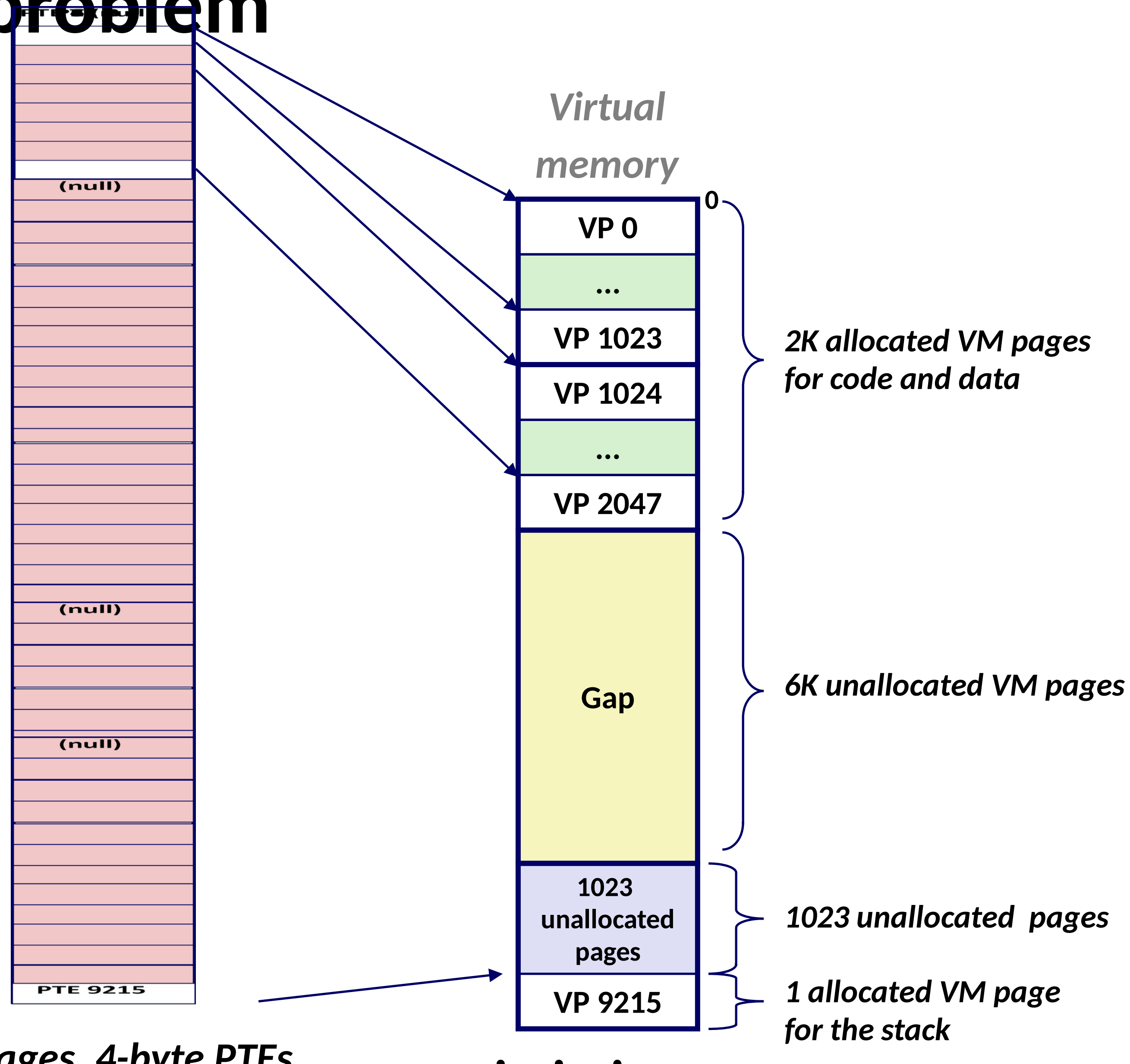
Multi-Level Page Tables

- **Suppose:**
  - 4KB (2^{12}) page size, 48-bit address space, 8-byte PTE
- **Problem:**
  - Would need a 512 GB page table!
    - $2^{48} * 2^{-12} * 2^{3} = 2^{39}$ bytes
- **Common solution: Multi-level page table**
- **Example: 2-level page table**
  - Level 1 table: each PTE points to a page table (always memory resident)
  - Level 2 table: each PTE points to a page (paged in and out like any other data)



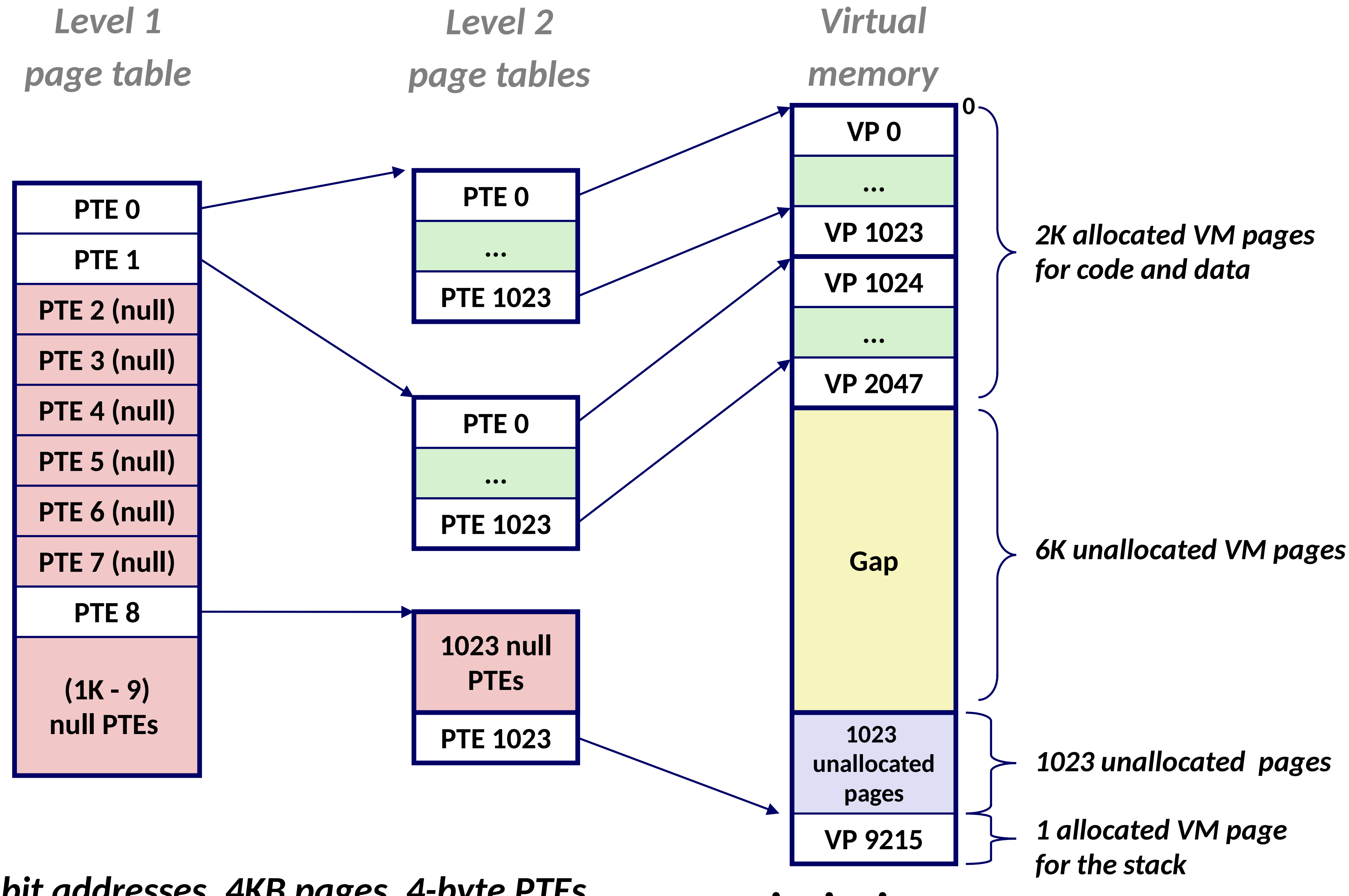
We have a problem

2^{20} Entries of 4 bytes each



32 bit addresses, 4KB pages, 4-byte PTEs

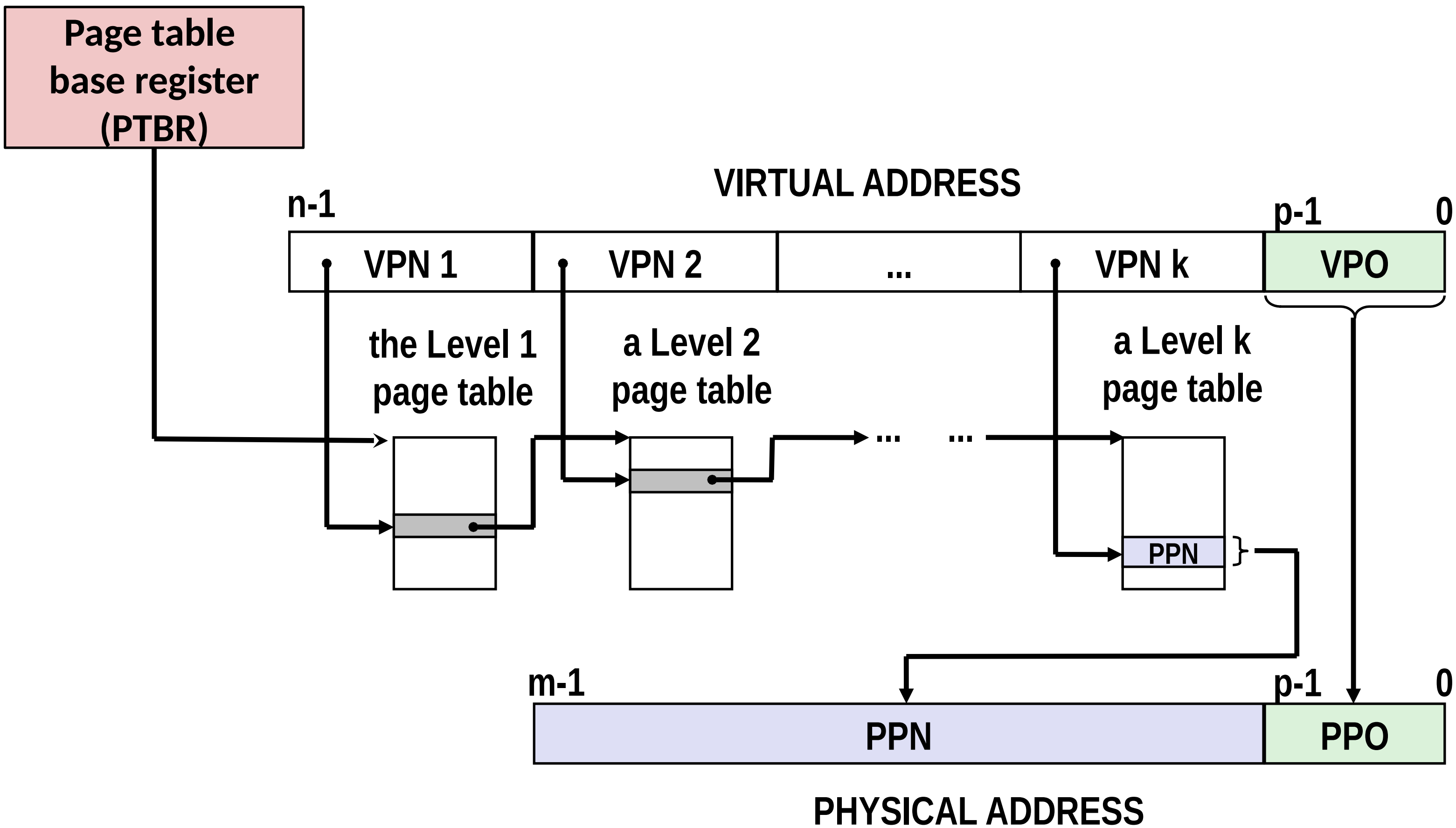
A Two-Level Page Table Hierarchy



32 bit addresses, 4KB pages, 4-byte PTEs

Translating with a k-level Page Table

- Because the mapping is sparse, having multiple levels reduces the table size.

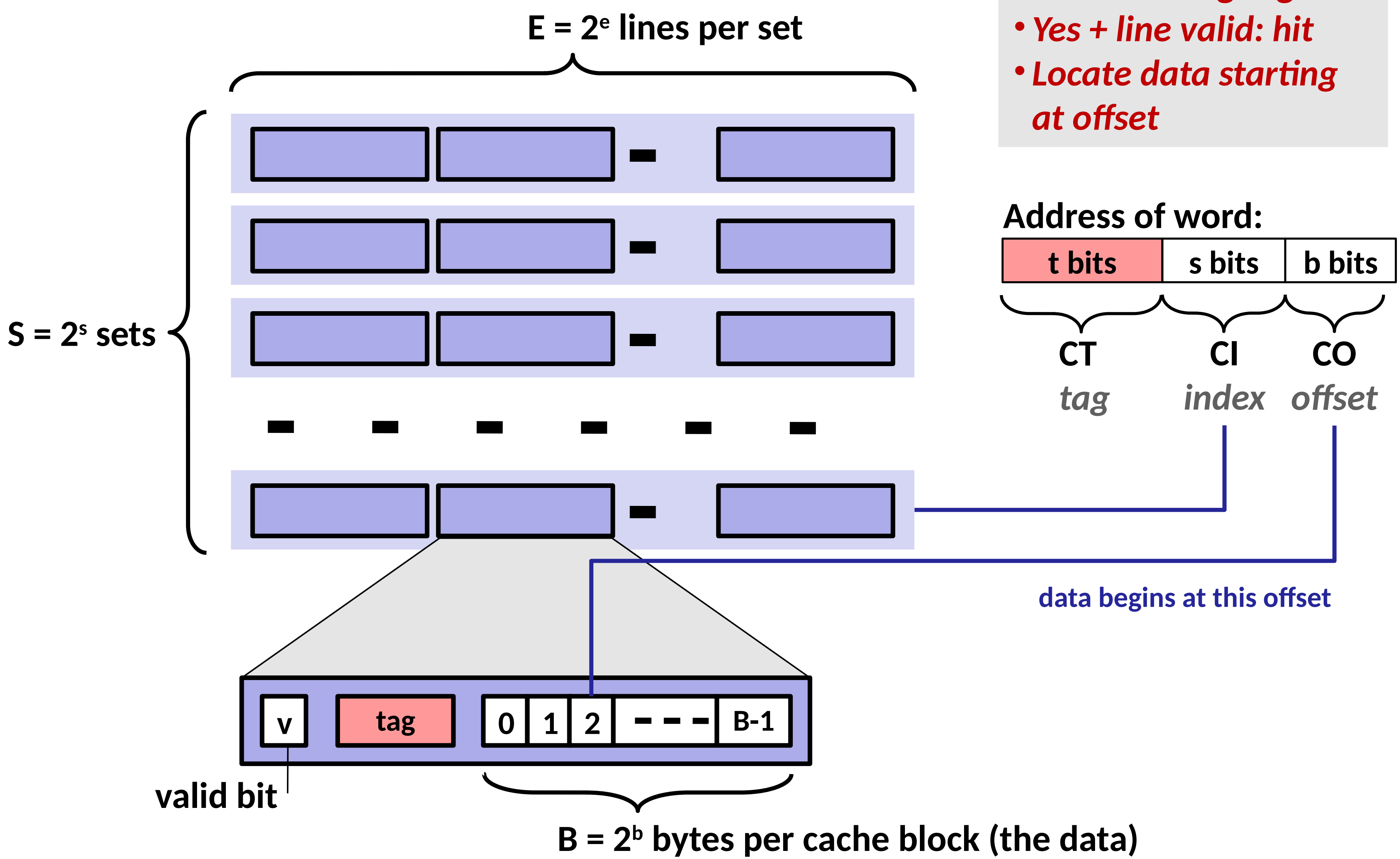


Speeding up Translation with a TLB

- **Problem: Now every memory access requires *k* additional ones just to find its page table entry (PTE)!**
- **Observation: PTEs are cached in L1 like any other memory**
  - PTEs may be evicted by other data references
  - PTE hit still requires a small L1 delay
- **Solution: *Translation Lookaside Buffer* (TLB)**
  - Small set-associative hardware cache in MMU
  - Maps virtual page numbers to physical page numbers
  - Contains complete page table entries for small number of pages

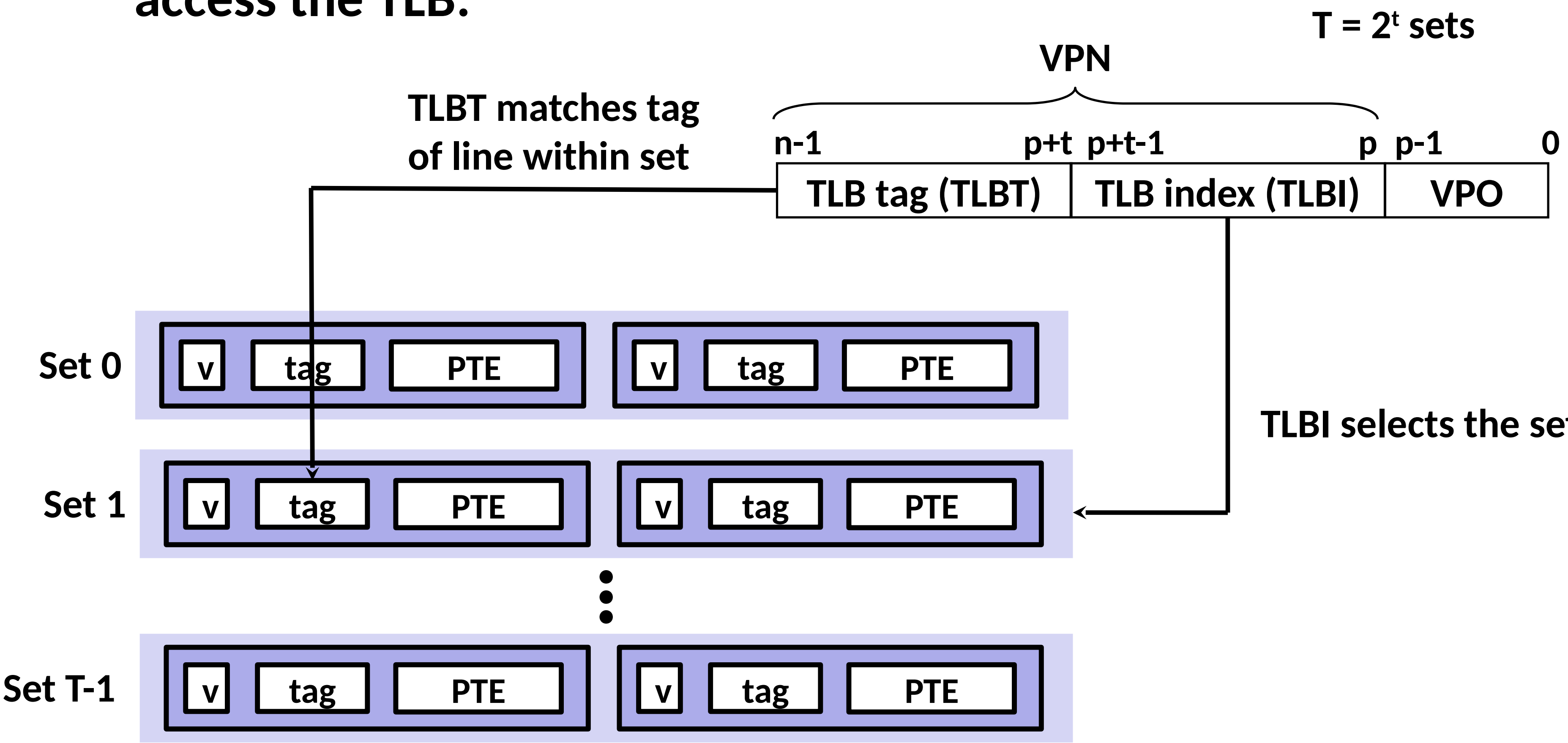
Set-Associative Cache Read

- *Locate set*
- *Check if any line in set has matching tag*
- *Yes + line valid: hit*
- *Locate data starting at offset*

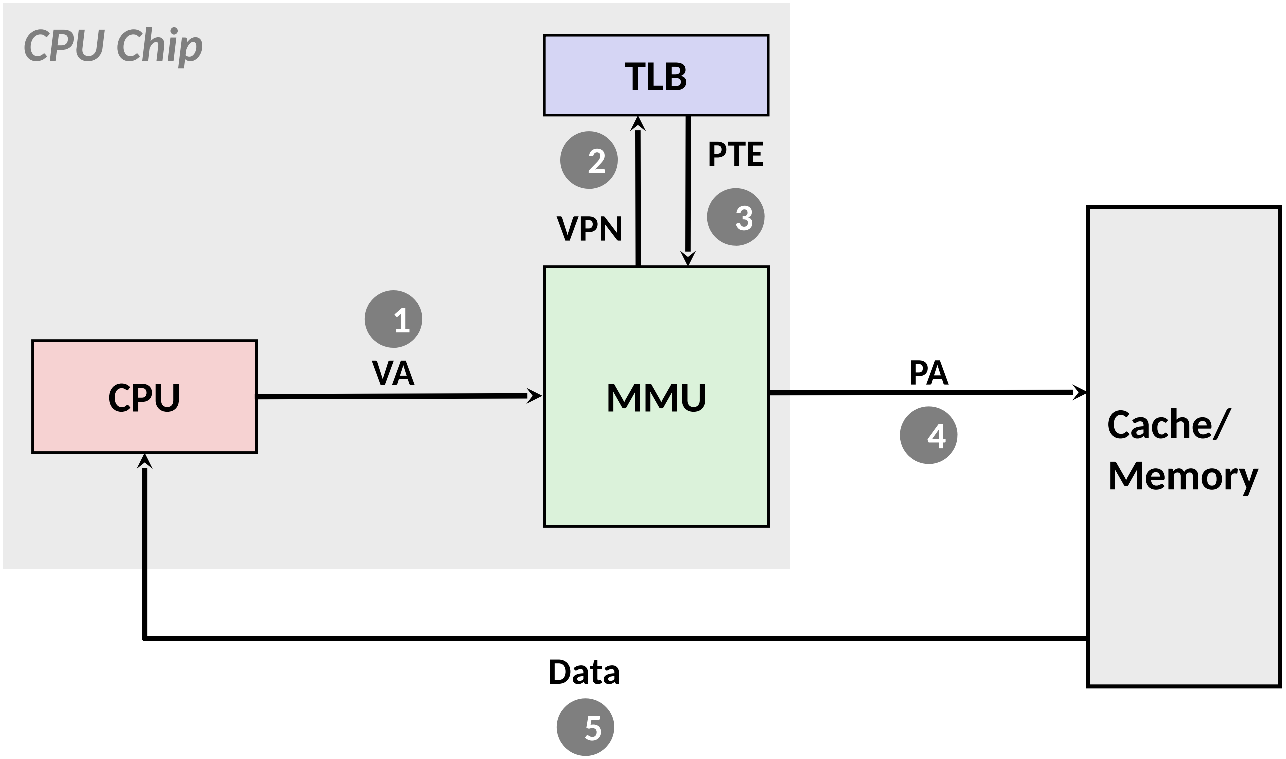


TLB Read

- MMU uses the VPN portion of the virtual address to access the TLB:

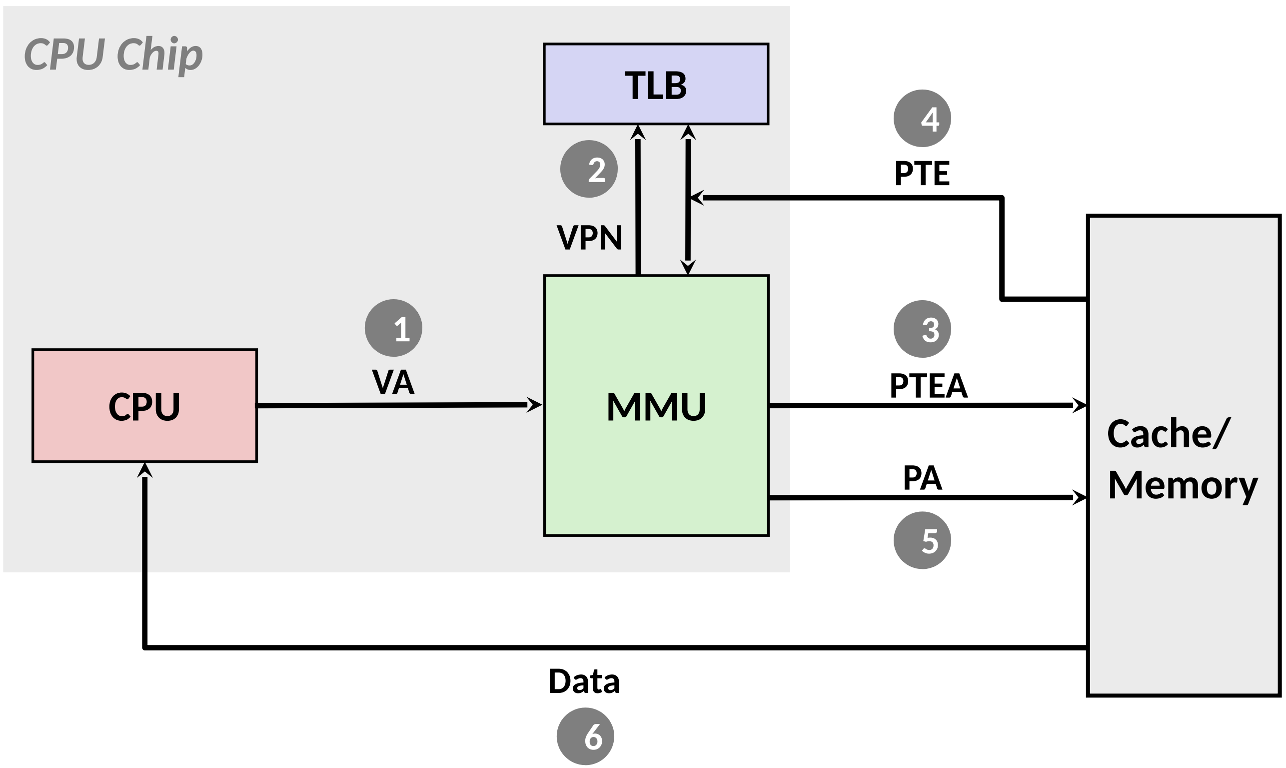


TLB Hit



Typically, a TLB hit eliminates the k memory accesses required to do a page table lookup.

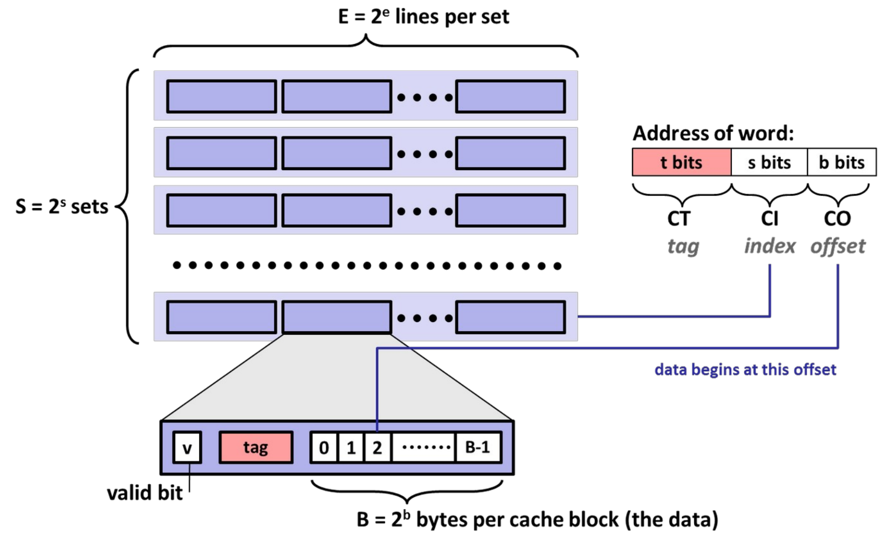
TLB Miss



A TLB miss incurs an additional memory access (the PTE)

Fortunately, TLB misses are rare. Why?

Review of Symbols

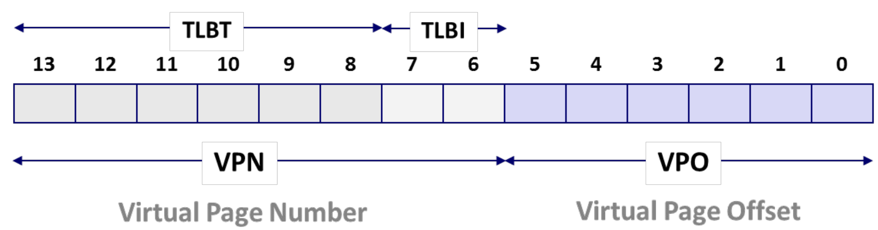


Basic Parameters

- **N = 2^n**: Number of addresses in virtual address space
- **M = 2^m**: Number of addresses in physical address space
- **P = 2^p** : Page size (bytes)

Components of the *virtual address* (VA)

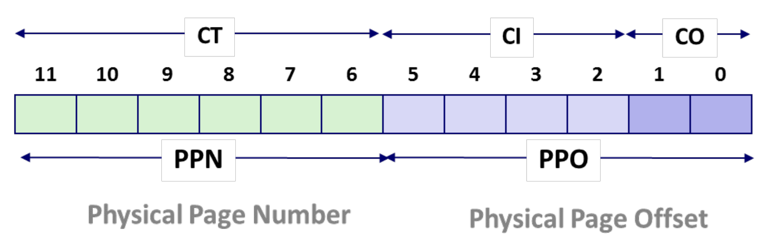
- **TLBI**: TLB index
- **TLBT**: TLB tag
- **VPO**: Virtual page offset
- **VPN**: Virtual page number



Components of the *physical address* (PA)

- **PPO**: Physical page offset (same as VPO)
- **PPN:** Physical page number
- **CO**: Byte offset within cache line
- **CI:** Cache index
- **CT**: Cache tag

(bits per field for our simple example)

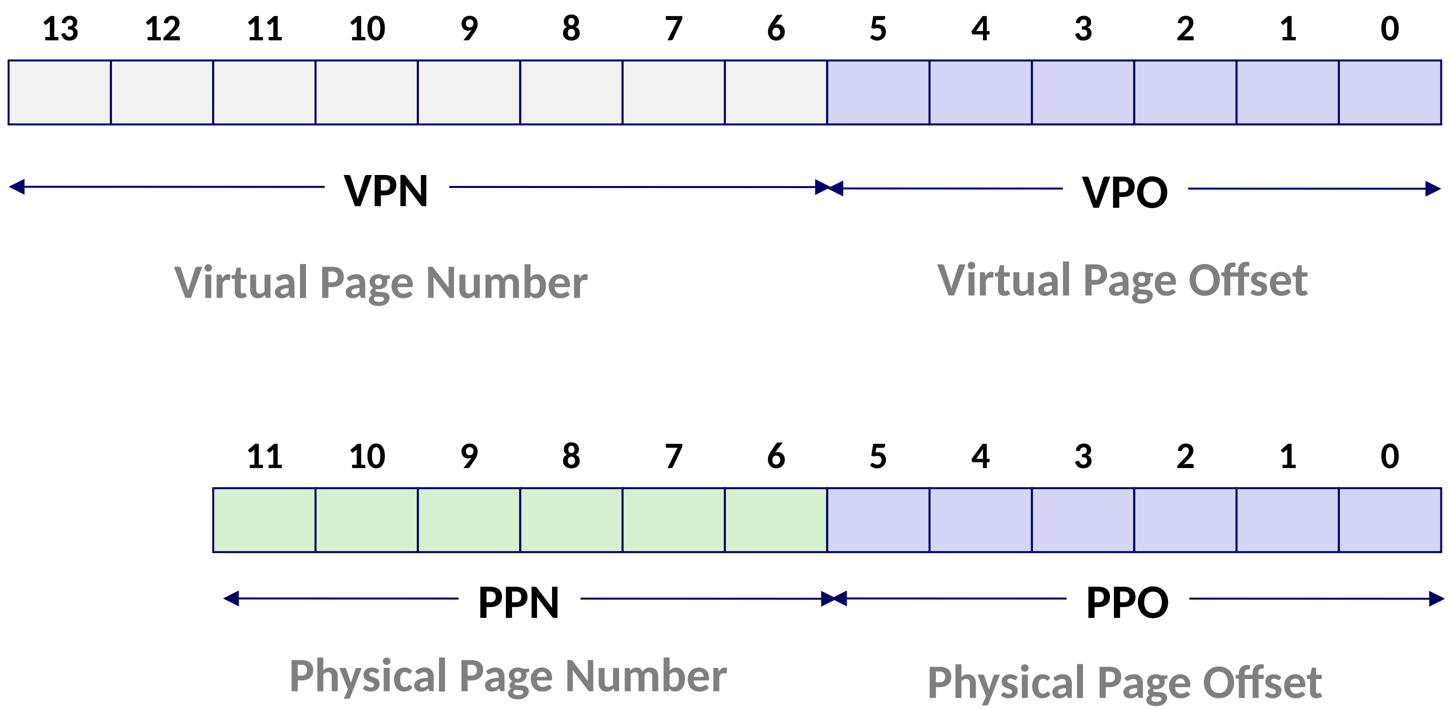


Today

- Address translation
- **Simple memory system example**
- Case study: Core i7/Linux memory system
- Memory mapping

Simple Memory System Example

- **Addressing**
  - 14-bit virtual addresses
  - 12-bit physical address
  - Page size = 64 bytes



Simple Memory System TLB

- 16 entries
- 4-way associative

TLBT						TLBI							
13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1						
VPN								VPO					

VPN = 0b1101 = 0x0D

Translation Lookaside Buffer (TLB)

Set	Tag	PPN	Valid	Tag	PPN	Valid	Tag	PPN	Valid	Tag	PPN	Valid
0	03	–	0	09	0D	1	00	–	0	07	02	1
1	03	2D	1	02	–	0	04	–	0	0A	–	0
2	02	–	0	08	–	0	06	–	0	03	–	0
3	07	–	0	03	0D	1	0A	34	1	02	–	0

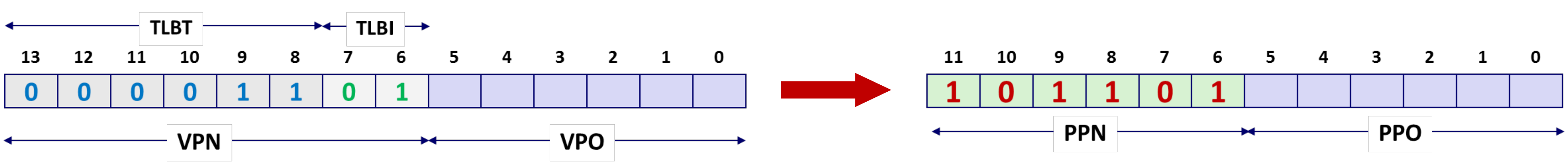
Simple Memory System Page Table

Only showing the first 16 entries (out of 256)

VPN	PPN	Valid
00	28	1
01	–	0
02	33	1
03	02	1
04	–	0
05	16	1
06	–	0
07	–	0

VPN	PPN	Valid
08	13	1
09	17	1
0A	09	1
0B	–	0
0C	–	0
0D	2D	1
0E	11	1
0F	0D	1

0x0D → 0x2D



Simple Memory System Cache

- 16 lines, 4-byte block size
- Physically addressed
- Direct mapped

V[0b00001101101001] = V[0x369]

P[0b101101101001] = P[0xB69] = 0x15

	CT						CI				CO	
Bit	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Value	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1
	PPN						PPO					

Idx	*Tag*	*Valid*	*B0*	*B1*	*B2*	*B3*
0	19	1	99	11	23	11
1	15	0	–	–	–	–
2	1B	1	00	02	04	08
3	36	0	–	–	–	–
4	32	1	43	6D	8F	09
5	0D	1	36	72	F0	1D
6	31	0	–	–	–	–
7	16	1	11	C2	DF	03

Idx	*Tag*	*Valid*	*B0*	*B1*	*B2*	*B3*
8	24	1	3A	00	51	89
9	2D	0	–	–	–	–
A	2D	1	93	15	DA	3B
B	0B	0	–	–	–	–
C	12	0	–	–	–	–
D	16	1	04	96	34	15
E	13	1	83	77	1B	D3
F	14	0	–	–	–	–

Address Translation Example

Virtual Address: `0x03D4`

TLBT (bits 13–8) | TLBI (bits 7–6)

13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0

VPN (bits 13–6) | VPO (bits 5–0)

VPN 0x0F TLBI 0x3 TLBT 0x03 TLB Hit? Y Page Fault? N PPN: 0x0D

Translation Lookaside Buffer (TLB)

Set	*Tag*	*PPN*	*Valid*	*Tag*	*PPN*	*Valid*	*Tag*	*PPN*	*Valid*	*Tag*	*PPN*	*Valid*
0	03	–	0	09	0D	1	00	–	0	07	02	1
1	03	2D	1	02	–	0	04	–	0	0A	–	0
2	02	–	0	08	–	0	06	–	0	03	–	0
3	07	–	0	03	0D	1	0A	34	1	02	–	0

Address Translation Example

Idx	Tag	Valid	B0	B1	B2	B3
0	19	1	99	11	23	11
1	15	0	–	–	–	–
2	1B	1	00	02	04	08
3	36	0	–	–	–	–
4	32	1	43	6D	8F	09
5	0D	1	36	72	F0	1D
6	31	0	–	–	–	–
7	16	1	11	C2	DF	03

Idx	Tag	Valid	B0	B1	B2	B3
8	24	1	3A	00	51	89
9	2D	0	–	–	–	–
A	2D	1	93	15	DA	3B
B	0B	0	–	–	–	–
C	12	0	–	–	–	–
D	16	1	04	96	34	15
E	13	1	83	77	1B	D3
F	14	0	–	–	–	–

Physical Address

CT						CI				CO	
11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0
PPN						PPO					

CO _0_ CI 0x5 CT 0x0D Hit? _Y_ Byte: 0x36

Address Translation Example: TLB/Cache Miss

Virtual Address: 0x0020

TLBT (bits 13–8) | TLBI (bits 7–6)

13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0

VPN (bits 13–6) | VPO (bits 5–0)

VPN 0x00 TLBI 0 TLBT 0x00 TLB Hit? N Page Fault? N PPN: 0x28

Physical Address

CT (bits 11–6) | CI (bits 5–2) | CO (bits 1–0)

11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0

PPN (bits 11–6) | PPO (bits 5–0)

CO 0 CI 0x8 CT 0x28 Hit? N Byte: Mem

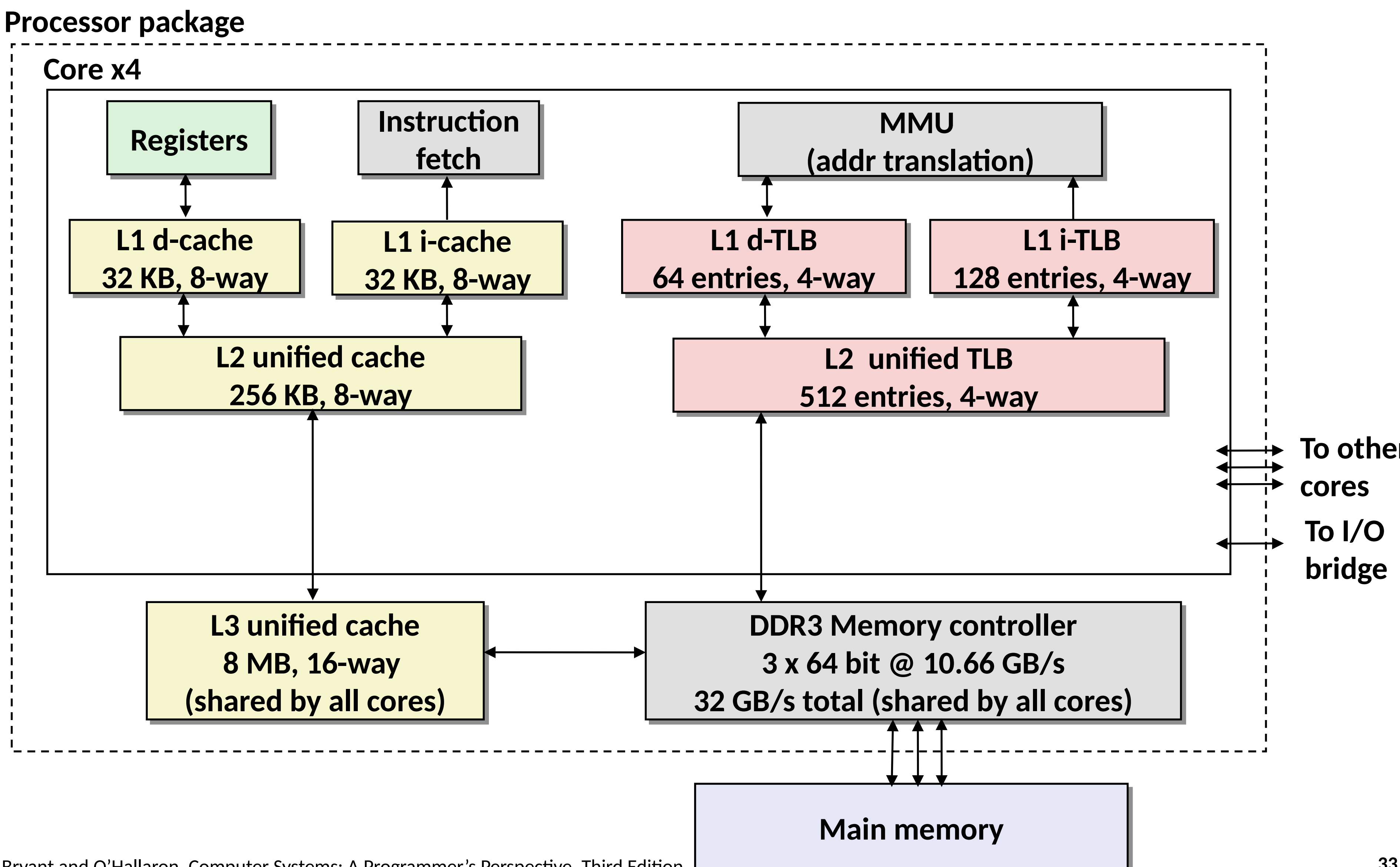
Page table

VPN	PPN	Valid
00	28	1
01	–	0
02	33	1
03	02	1
04	–	0
05	16	1
06	–	0
07	–	0

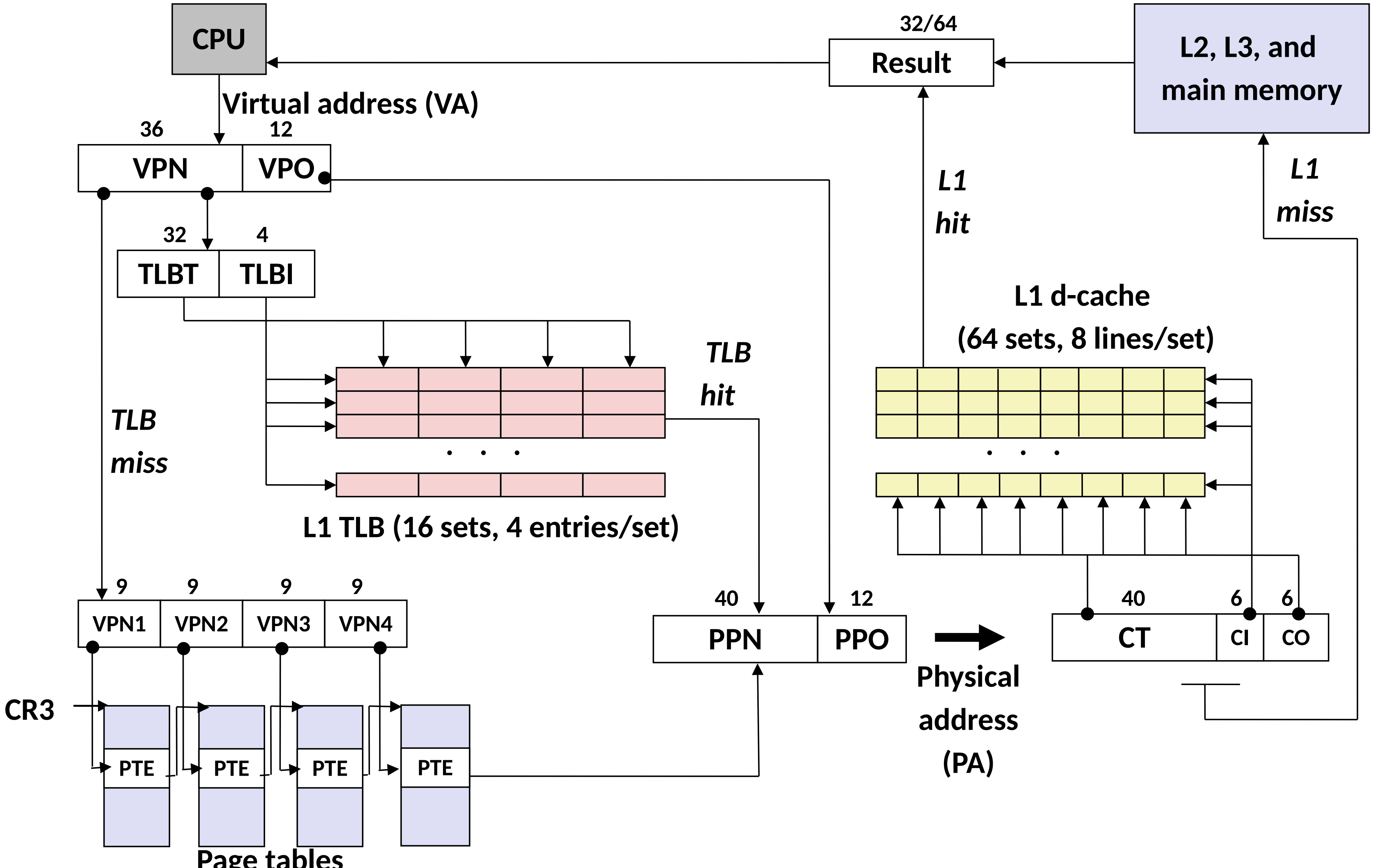
Today

- Address translation
- Simple memory system example
- **Case study: Core i7/Linux memory system**
- Memory mapping

Intel Core i7 Memory System



End-to-end Core i7 Address Translation



Core i7 Level 1-3 Page Table Entries

63	62 52	51 12	11 9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
XD	Unused	Page table physical base address	Unused	G	PS		A	CD	WT	U/S	R/W	P=1

Available for OS (page table location on disk)	P=0

Each entry references a 4K child page table. Significant fields:

P: Child page table present in physical memory (1) or not (0).

R/W: Read-only or read-write access access permission for all reachable pages.

U/S: User or supervisor (kernel) mode access permission for all reachable pages.

WT: Write-through or write-back cache policy for the child page table.

A: Reference bit (set by MMU on reads and writes, cleared by software).

PS: Page size either 4 KB or 4 MB (defined for Level 1 PTEs only).

Page table physical base address: 40 most significant bits of physical page table address (forces page tables to be 4KB aligned)

XD: Disable or enable instruction fetches from all pages reachable from this PTE.

Core i7 Level 4 Page Table Entries

63	62 – 52	51 – 12	11 – 9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
XD	Unused	Page physical base address	Unused	G		D	A	CD	WT	U/S	R/W	P=1

Available for OS (page location on disk)	P=0

Each entry references a 4K child page. Significant fields:

P: Child page is present in memory (1) or not (0)

R/W: Read-only or read-write access permission for child page

U/S: User or supervisor mode access

WT: Write-through or write-back cache policy for this page

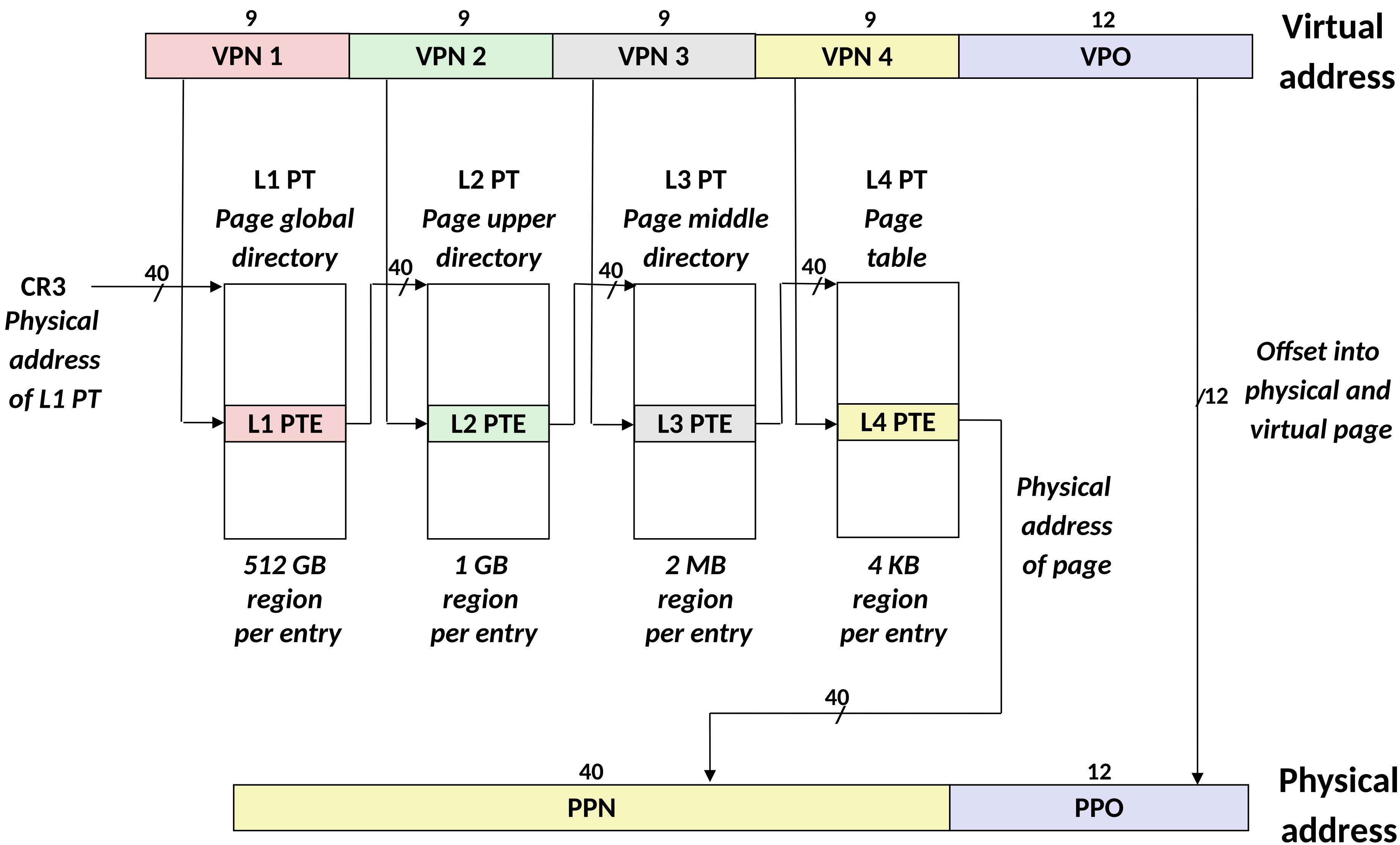
A: Reference bit (set by MMU on reads and writes, cleared by software)

D: Dirty bit (set by MMU on writes, cleared by software)

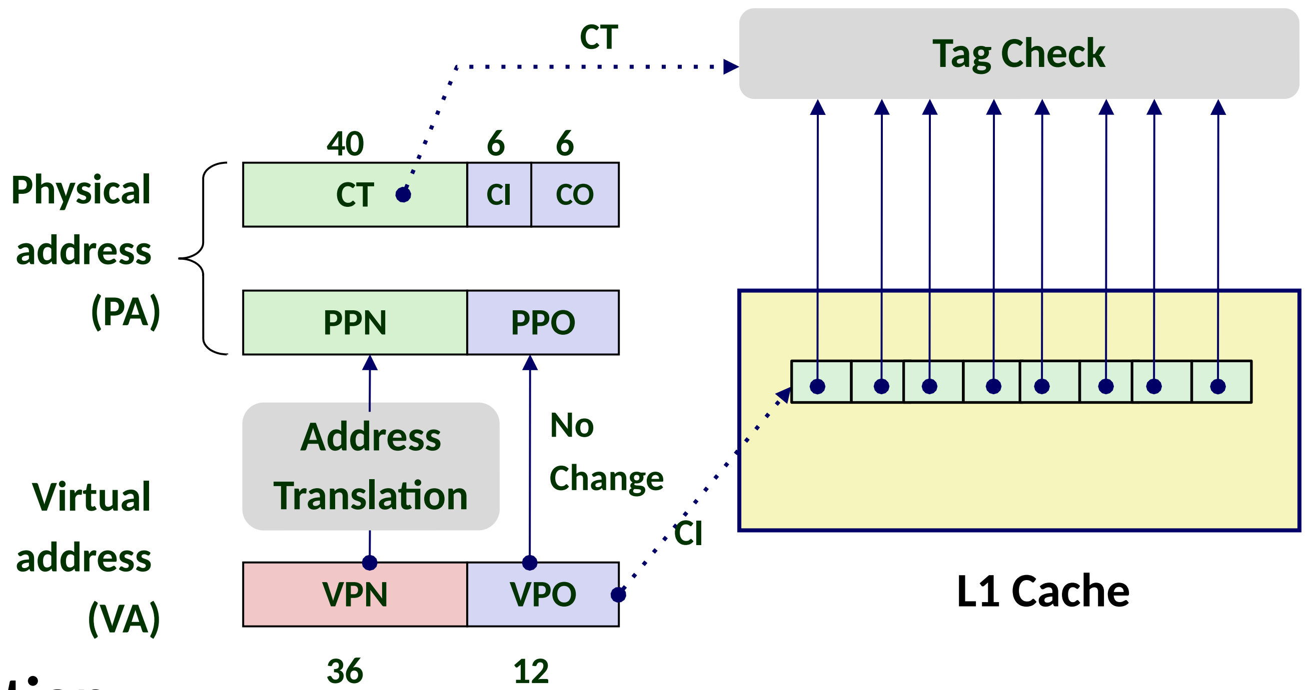
Page physical base address: 40 most significant bits of physical page address (forces pages to be 4KB aligned)

XD: Disable or enable instruction fetches from this page.

Core i7 Page Table Translation



Cute Trick for Speeding Up L1 Access



- **Observation**
  - Bits that determine CI identical in virtual and physical address
  - Can index into cache while address translation taking place
  - Generally we hit in TLB, so PPN bits (CT bits) available next
  - ***"Virtually indexed, physically tagged"***
  - Cache carefully sized to make this possible

Today

- **Exceptional Control Flow**
- Exceptions
- Processes
- Process Control

Control Flow

- **Processors do only one thing:**
  - From startup to shutdown, a CPU simply reads and executes (interprets) a sequence of instructions, one at a time
  - This sequence is the CPU's *control flow* (or *flow of control*)

Physical control flow

Time

<startup>
inst_1
inst_2
inst_3
…
inst_n
<shutdown>

Altering the Control Flow

- **Up to now: two mechanisms for changing control flow:**
  - Jumps and branches
  - Call and return

  React to changes in ***program state***

- **Insufficient for a useful system:**
  Difficult to react to changes in *system state*
  - Data arrives from a disk or a network adapter
  - Instruction divides by zero
  - User hits Ctrl-C at the keyboard
  - System timer expires

- **System needs mechanisms for "exceptional control flow"**

Exceptional Control Flow

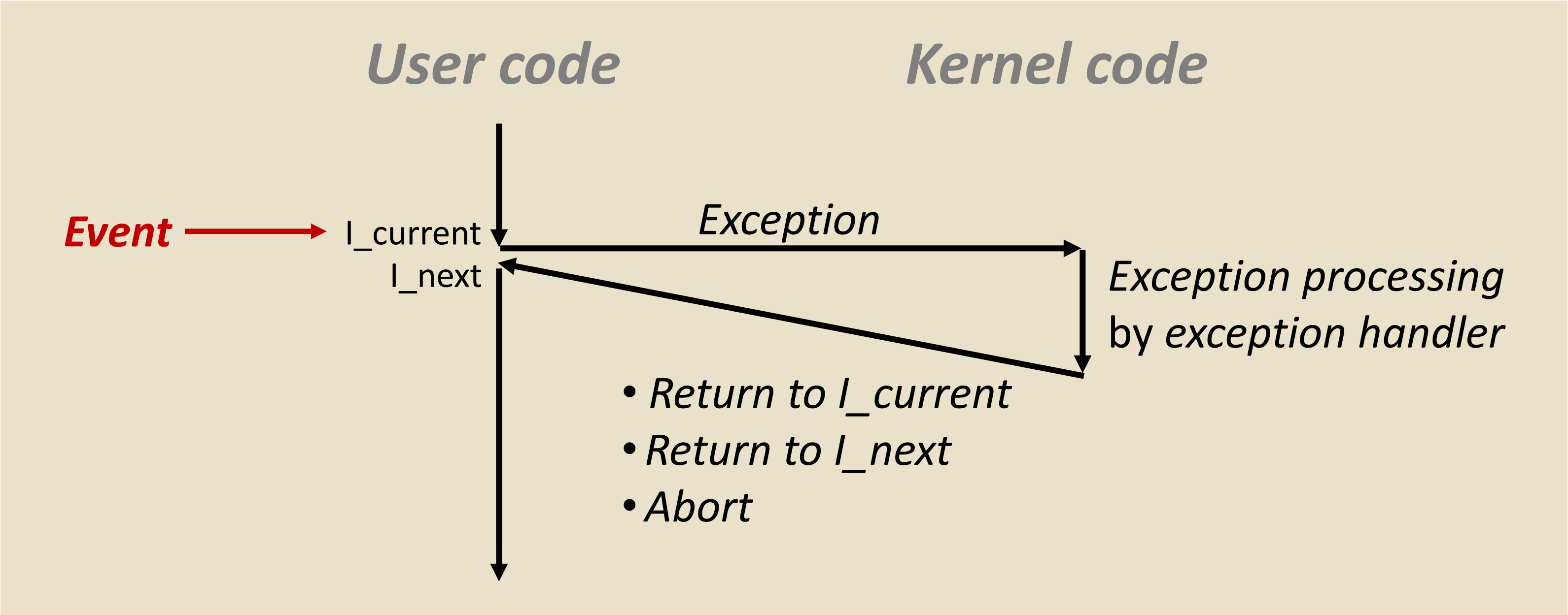
- **Exists at all levels of a computer system**
- **Low level mechanisms**
  - 1. **Exceptions**
    - Change in control flow in response to a system event (i.e., change in system state)
    - Implemented using combination of hardware and OS software
- **Higher level mechanisms**
  - 2. **Process context switch**
    - Implemented by OS software and hardware timer
  - 3. **Signals**
    - Implemented by OS software
  - 4. **Nonlocal jumps**: `setjmp()` and `longjmp()`
    - Implemented by C runtime library

Today

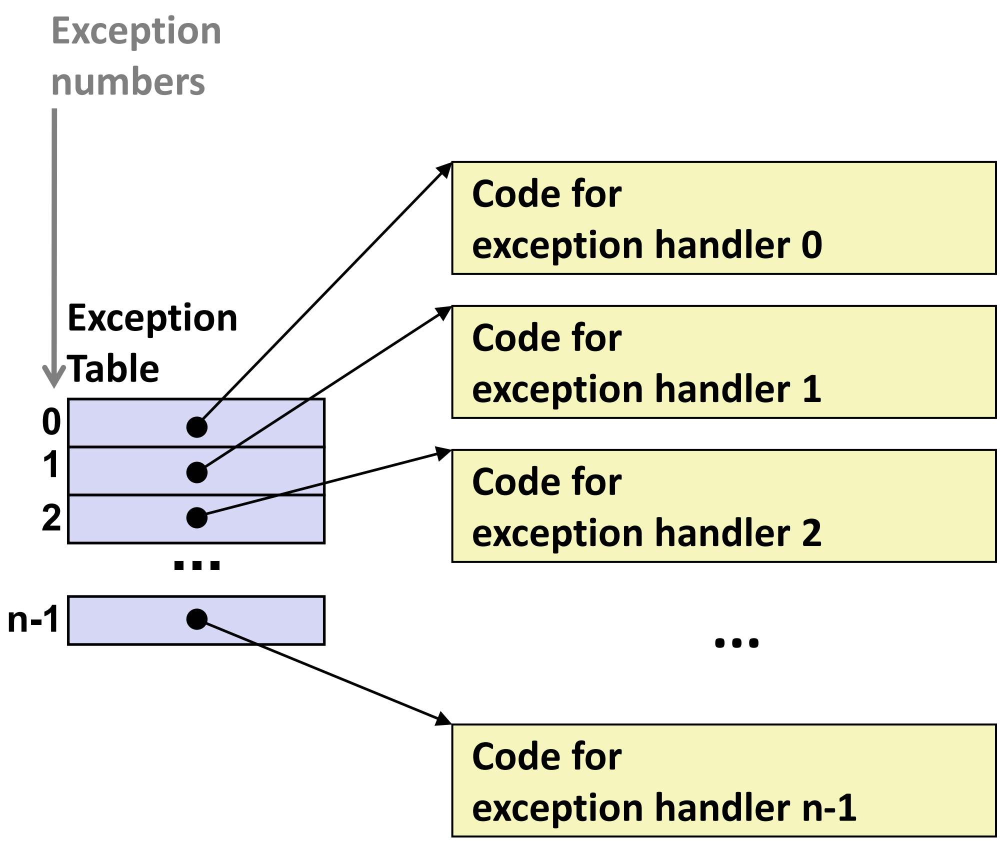
- Exceptional Control Flow
- **Exceptions**
- Processes
- Process Control

Exceptions

- **An *exception* is a transfer of control to the OS *kernel* in response to some *event* (i.e., change in processor state)**
  - Kernel is the memory-resident part of the OS
  - Examples of events: Divide by 0, arithmetic overflow, page fault, I/O request completes, typing Ctrl-C

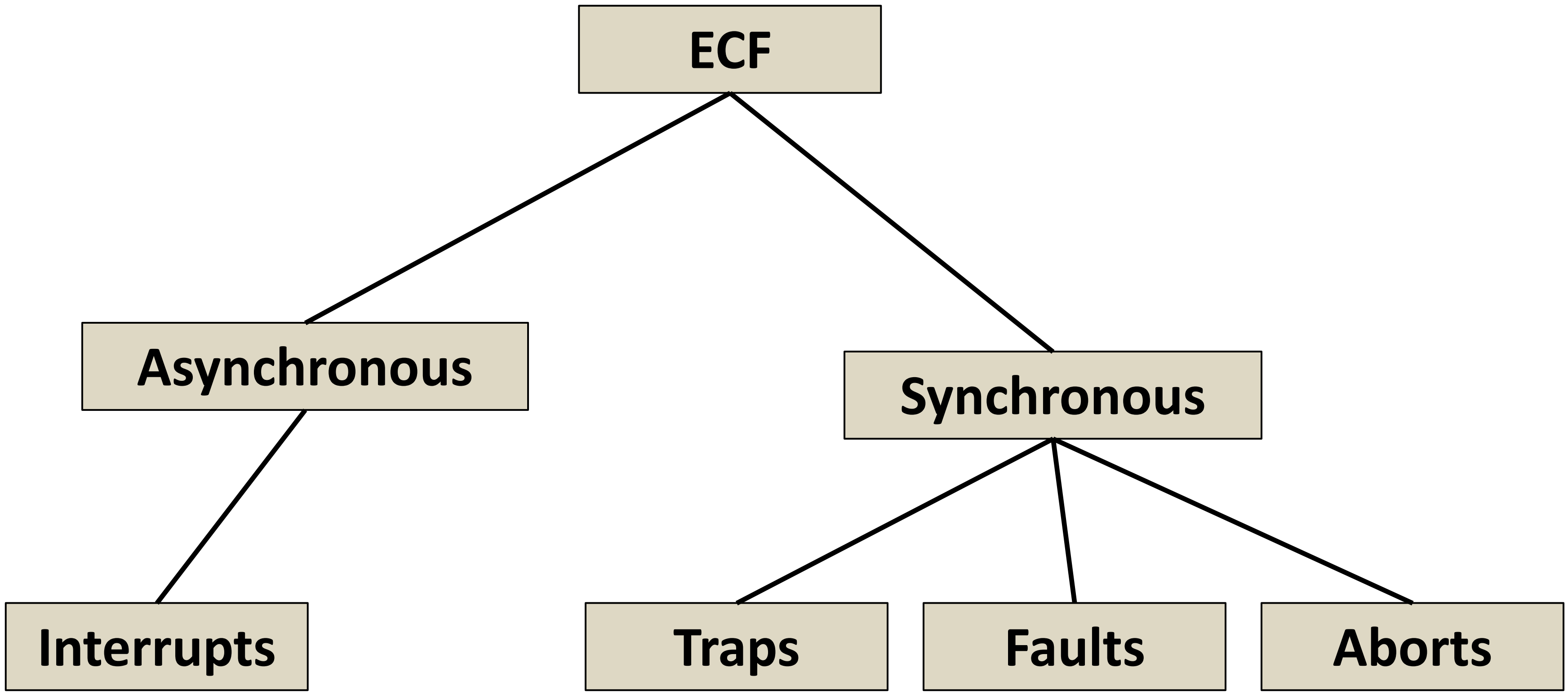


Exception Tables



- Each type of event has a unique exception number k
- k = index into exception table (a.k.a. interrupt vector)
- Handler k is called each time exception k occurs

(Partial) Taxonomy



Asynchronous Exceptions (Interrupts)

- **Caused by events external to the processor**
  - Indicated by setting the processor's *interrupt pin*
  - Handler returns to "next" instruction

- **Examples:**
  - Timer interrupt
    - Every few ms, an external timer chip triggers an interrupt
    - Used by the kernel to take back control from user programs
  - I/O interrupt from external device
    - Hitting Ctrl-C at the keyboard
    - Arrival of a packet from a network
    - Arrival of data from a disk

Synchronous Exceptions

- **Caused by events that occur as a result of executing an instruction:**
  - ***Traps***
    - Intentional, set program up to “trip the trap” and do something
    - Examples: ***system calls***, gdb breakpoints
    - Returns control to “next” instruction
  - ***Faults***
    - Unintentional but possibly recoverable
    - Examples: page faults (recoverable), protection faults (unrecoverable), floating point exceptions
    - Either re-executes faulting (“current”) instruction or aborts
  - ***Aborts***
    - Unintentional and unrecoverable
    - Examples: illegal instruction, parity error, machine check
    - Aborts current program

System Calls

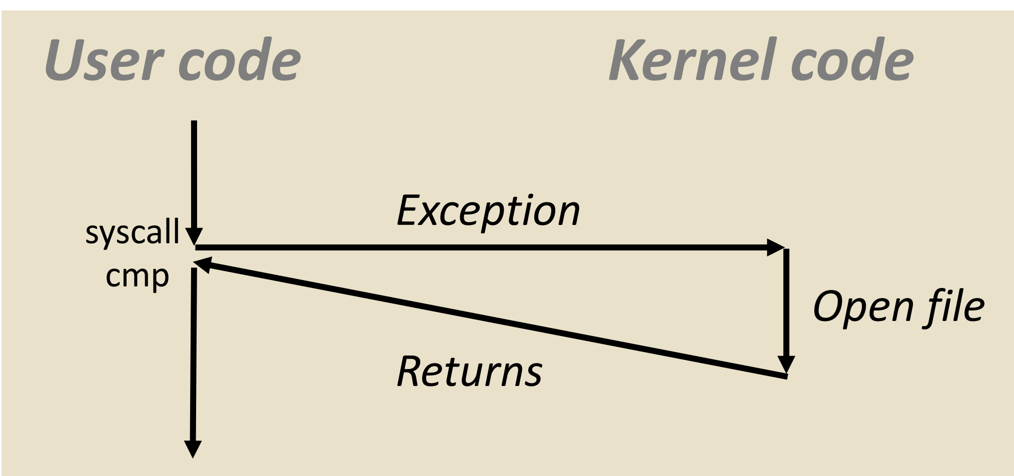
- Each x86-64 system call has a unique ID number
- Examples:

Number	*Name*	*Description*
0	`read`	Read file
1	`write`	Write file
2	`open`	Open file
3	`close`	Close file
4	`stat`	Get info about file
57	`fork`	Create process
59	`execve`	Execute a program
60	`_exit`	Terminate process
62	`kill`	Send signal to process

System Call Example: Opening File

- User calls: **`open(filename, options)`**
- Calls **`__open`** function, which invokes system call instruction **`syscall`**

```
00000000000e5d70 <__open>:
...
e5d79:   b8 02 00 00 00      mov  $0x2,%eax  # open is syscall #2
e5d7e:   0f 05               syscall         # Return value in %rax
e5d80:   48 3d 01 f0 ff ff   cmp  $0xfffffffffffff001,%rax
...
e5dfa:   c3                  retq
```



- `%rax` contains syscall number
- Other arguments in `%rdi`, `%rsi`, `%rdx`, `%r10`, `%r8`, `%r9`
- Return value in `%rax`
- Negative value is an error corresponding to negative `errno`

System Call I

- User calls: **`open(f`**
- Calls **`__open`** functi

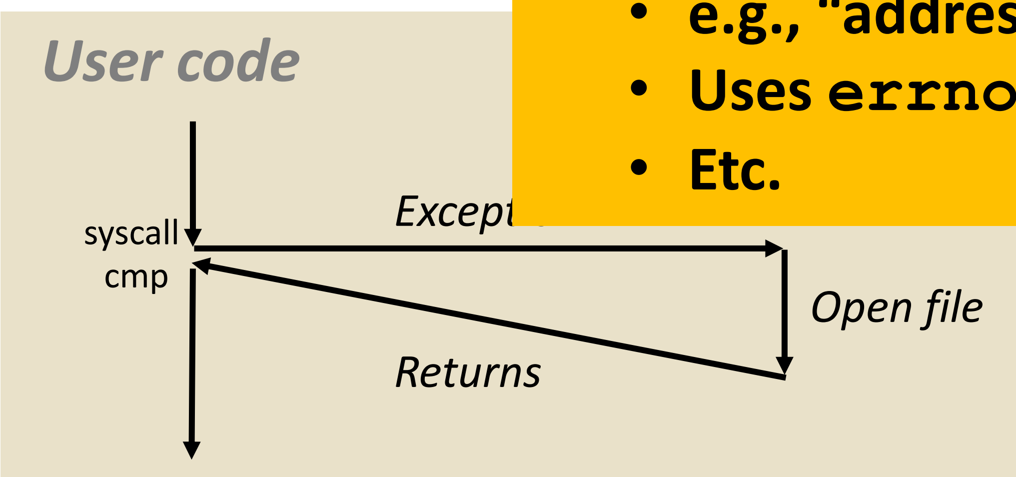
```
00000000000e5d70 <__op
...
e5d79:   b8 02 00 00 00
e5d7e:   0f 05             sysca
e5d80:   48 3d 01 f0 ff ff   c
...
e5dfa:   c3                retq
```

Almost like a function call

- **Transfer of control**
- **On return, executes next instruction**
- **Passes arguments using calling convention**
- **Gets result in `%rax`**

One Important exception!

- **Executed by Kernel**
- **Different set of privileges**
- **And other differences:**
  - **e.g., "address" of "function" is in `%rax`**
  - **Uses `errno`**
  - **Etc.**



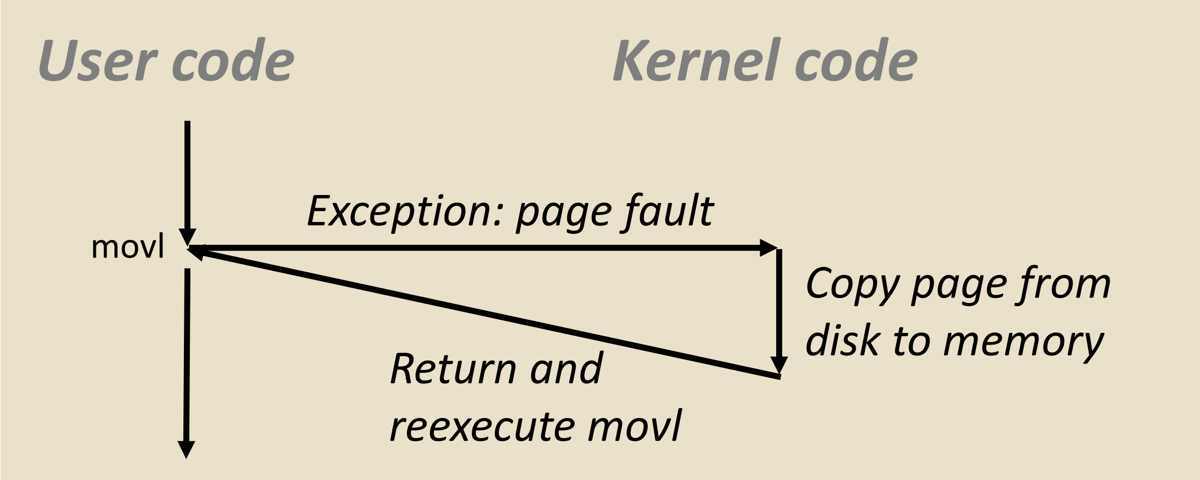
- Return value in `%rax`
- Negative value is an error corresponding to negative `errno`

Fault Example: Page Fault

- User writes to memory location
- That portion (page) of user's memory is currently on disk

```
int a[1000];
main ()
{
    a[500] = 13;
}
```

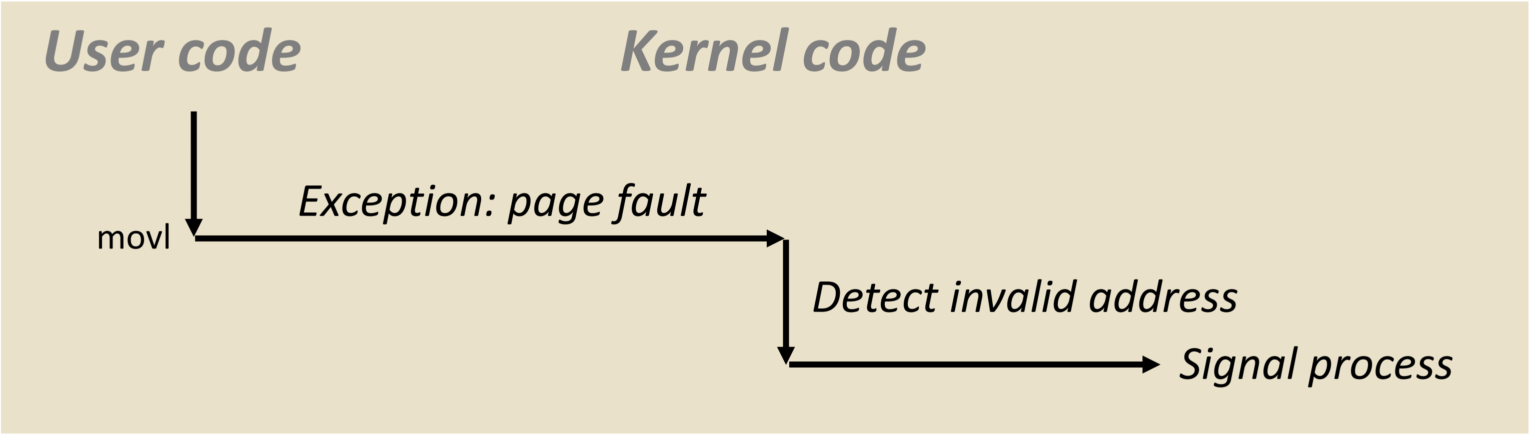
```
80483b7:      c7 05 10 9d 04 08 0d    movl    $0xd,0x8049d10
```



Fault Example: Invalid Memory Reference

```
int a[1000];
main ()
{
    a[5000] = 13;
}
```

```
80483b7:       c7 05 60 e3 04 08 0d   movl   $0xd,0x804e360
```



- Sends **SIGSEGV** signal to user process
- User process exits with "segmentation fault"

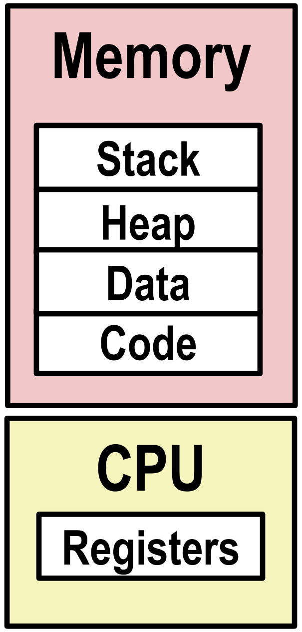
Today

- Exceptional Control Flow
- Exceptions
- **Processes**
- Process Control

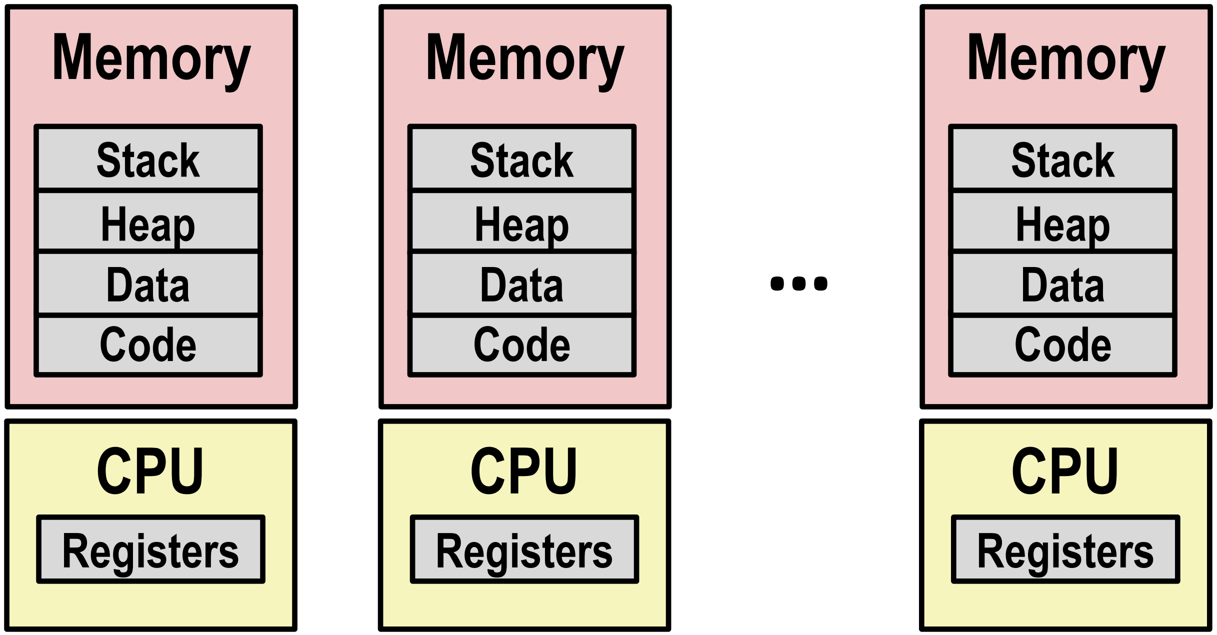
Processes

- **Definition: A *process* is an instance of a running program.**
  - One of the most profound ideas in computer science
  - Not the same as "program" or "processor"

- **Process provides each program with two key abstractions:**
  - ***Logical control flow***
    - Each program seems to have exclusive use of the CPU
    - Provided by kernel mechanism called *context switching*
  - ***Private address space***
    - Each program seems to have exclusive use of main memory.
    - Provided by kernel mechanism called *virtual memory*



Multiprocessing: The Illusion



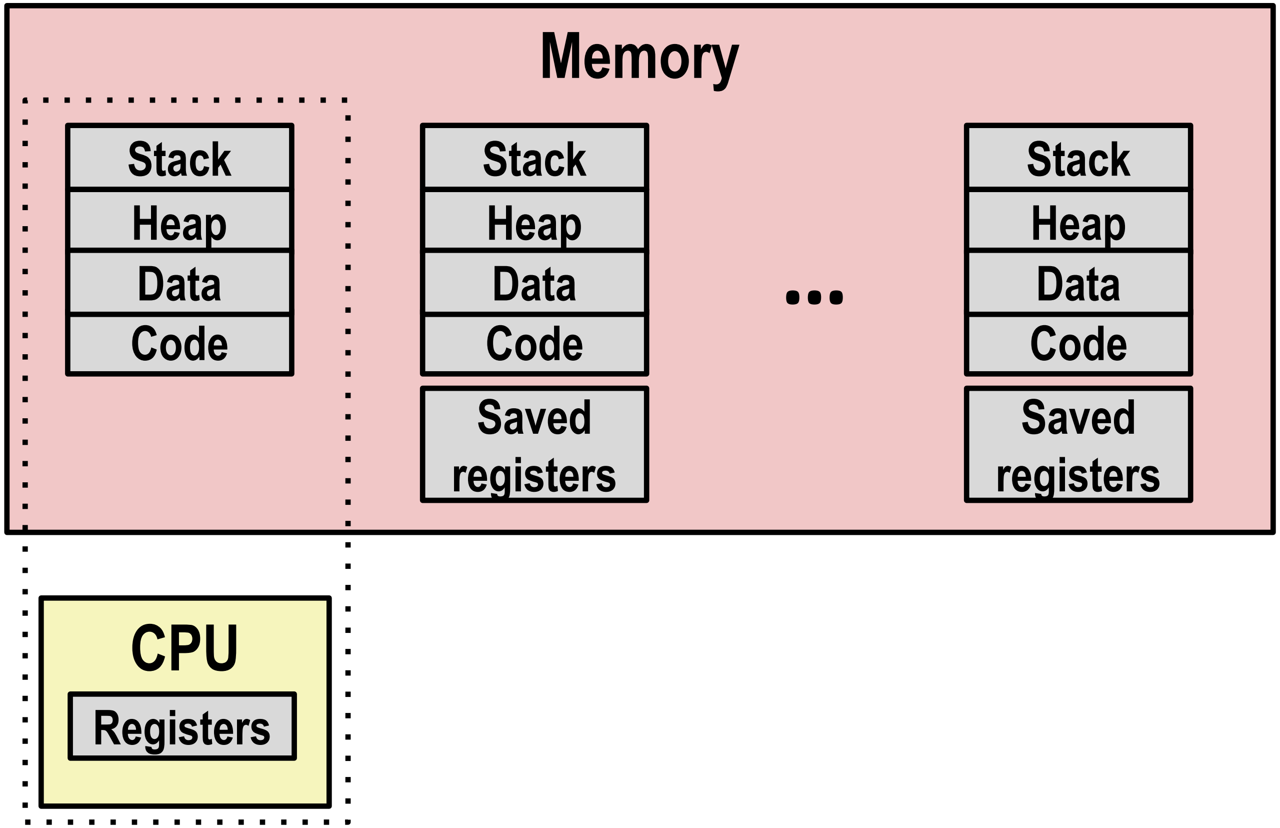
- **Computer runs many processes simultaneously**
  - Applications for one or more users
    - Web browsers, email clients, editors, …
  - Background tasks
    - Monitoring network & I/O devices

Multiprocessing Example

```
xterm
Processes: 123 total, 5 running, 9 stuck, 109 sleeping, 611 threads          11:47:07
Load Avg: 1.03, 1.13, 1.14  CPU usage: 3.27% user, 5.15% sys, 91.56% idle
SharedLibs: 576K resident, 0B data, 0B linkedit.
MemRegions: 27958 total, 1127M resident, 35M private, 494M shared.
PhysMem: 1039M wired, 1974M active, 1062M inactive, 4076M used, 18M free.
VM: 280G vsize, 1091M framework vsize, 23075213(1) pageins, 5843367(0) pageouts.
Networks: packets: 41046228/11G in, 66083096/77G out.
Disks: 17874391/349G read, 12847373/594G written.

PID    COMMAND      %CPU TIME     #TH  #WQ  #PORT #MREG RPRVT  RSHRD  RSIZE  VPRVT  VSIZE
99217- Microsoft Of 0.0  02:28.34 4    1    202   418   21M    24M    21M    66M    763M
99051  usbmuxd      0.0  00:04.10 3    1    47    66    436K   216K   480K   60M    2422M
99006  iTunesHelper 0.0  00:01.23 2    1    55    78    728K   3124K  1124K  43M    2429M
84286  bash         0.0  00:00.11 1    0    20    24    224K   732K   484K   17M    2378M
84285  xterm        0.0  00:00.83 1    0    32    73    656K   872K   692K   9728K  2382M
55939- Microsoft Ex 0.3  21:58.97 10   3    360   954   16M    65M    46M    114M   1057M
54751  sleep        0.0  00:00.00 1    0    17    20    92K    212K   360K   9632K  2370M
54739  launchdadd   0.0  00:00.00 2    1    33    50    488K   220K   1736K  48M    2409M
54737  top          6.5  00:02.53 1/1  0    30    29    1416K  216K   2124K  17M    2378M
54719  automountd   0.0  00:00.02 7    1    53    64    860K   216K   2184K  53M    2413M
54701  ocspd        0.0  00:00.05 4    1    61    54    1268K  2644K  3132K  50M    2426M
54661  Grab         0.6  00:02.75 6    3    222+  389+  15M+   26M+   40M+   75M+   2556M+
54659  cookied      0.0  00:00.15 2    1    40    61    3316K  224K   4088K  42M    2411M
53818  mdworker     0.0  00:01.67 4    1    52    91    7628K  7412K  16M    48M    2438M
```

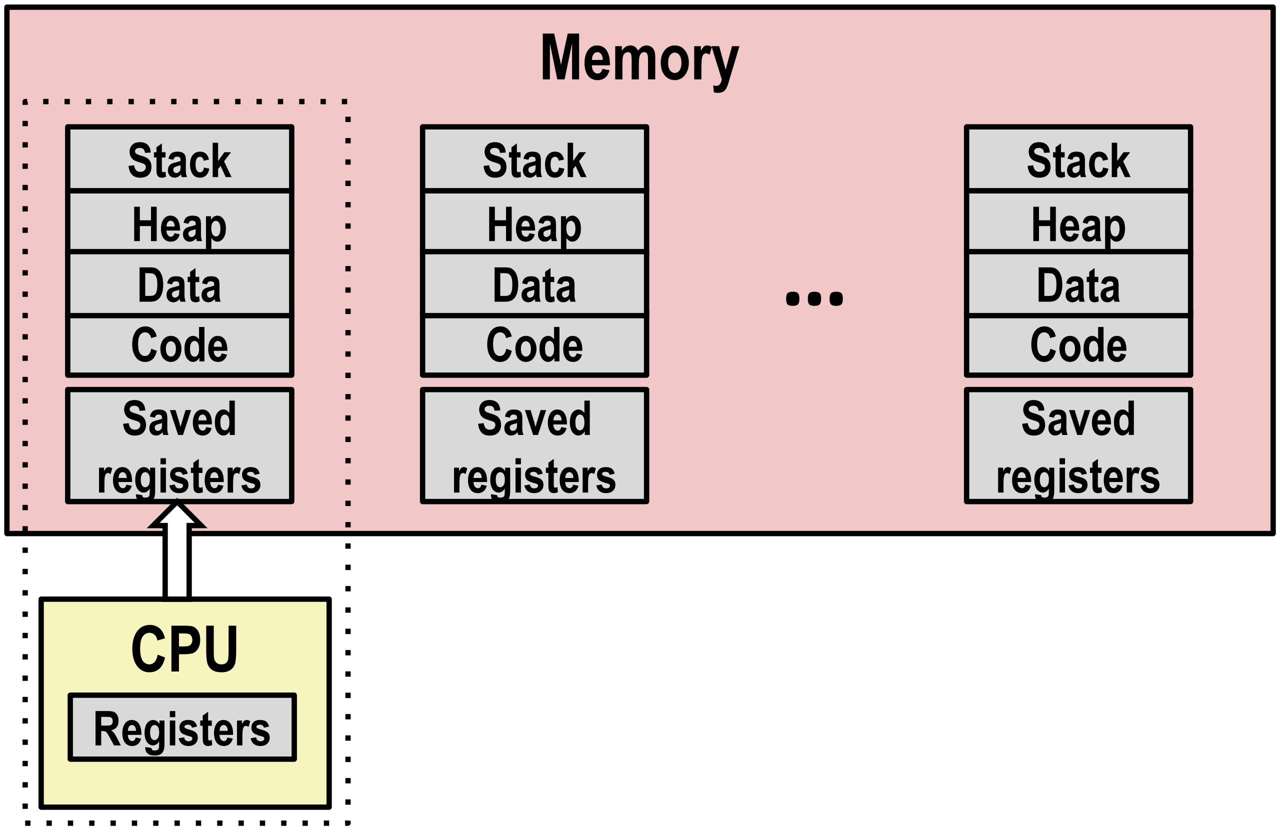
- **Running program "top" on Mac**
  - System has 123 processes, 5 of which are active
  - Identified by Process ID (PID)

Multiprocessing: The (Traditional) Reality



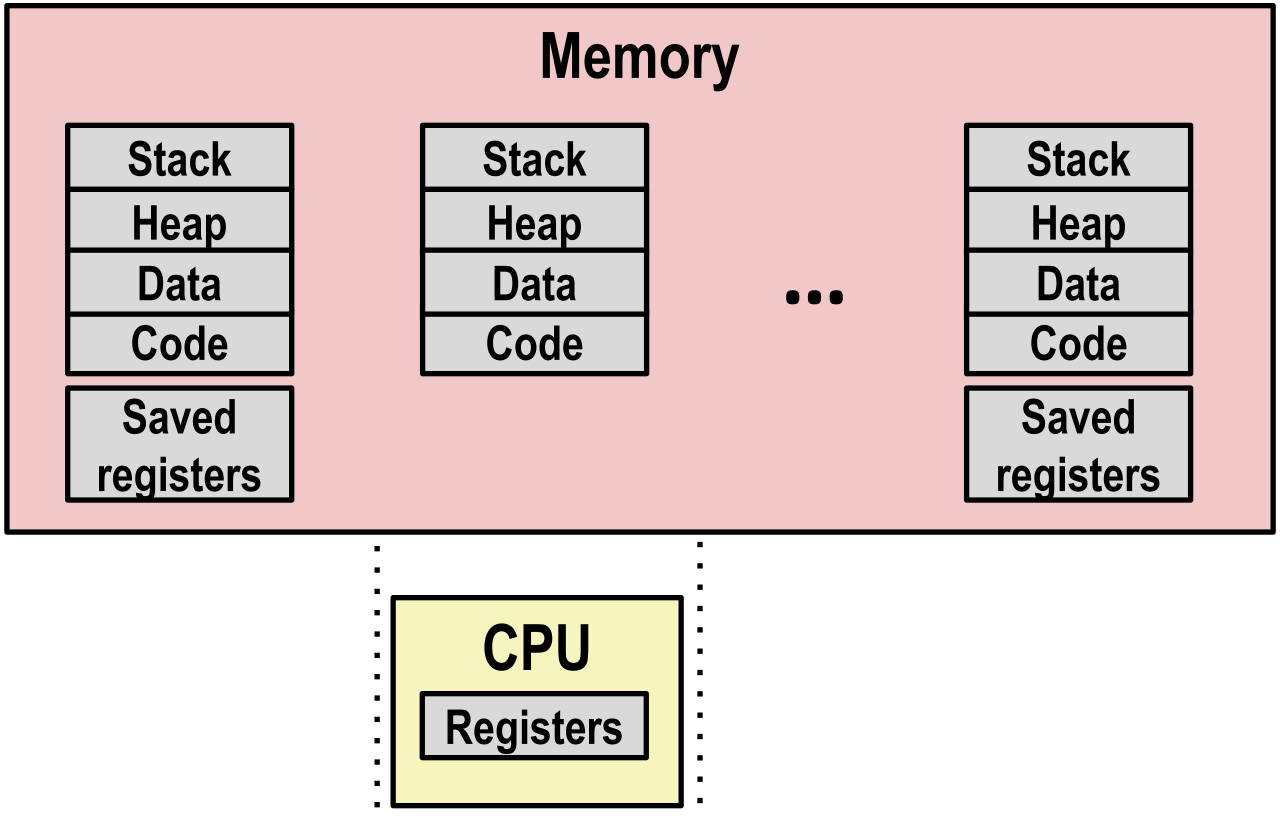
- **Single processor executes multiple processes concurrently**
  - Process executions interleaved (multitasking)
  - Address spaces managed by virtual memory system (like last week)
  - Register values for nonexecuting processes saved in memory

Multiprocessing: The (Traditional) Reality



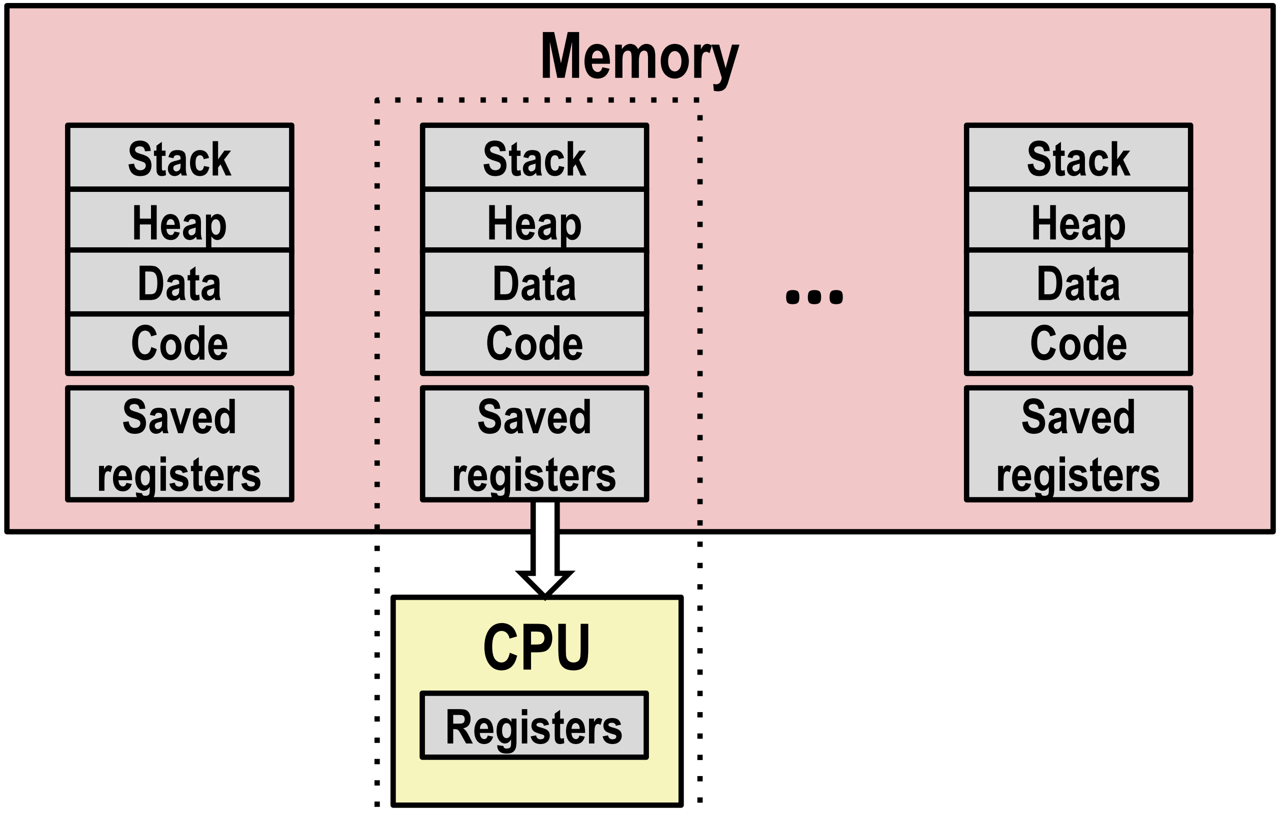
- Save current registers in memory

Multiprocessing: The (Traditional) Reality



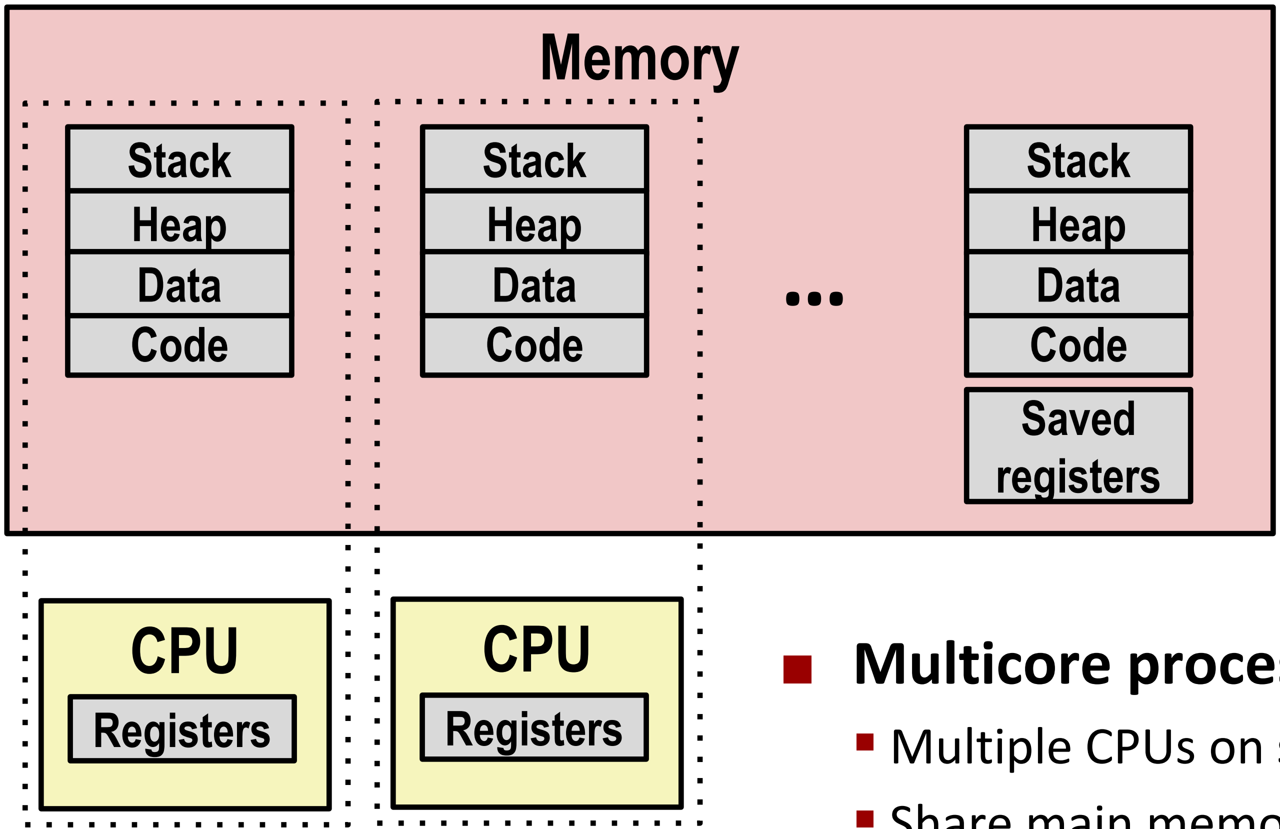
- Schedule next process for execution

Multiprocessing: The (Traditional) Reality



- Load saved registers and switch address space (context switch)

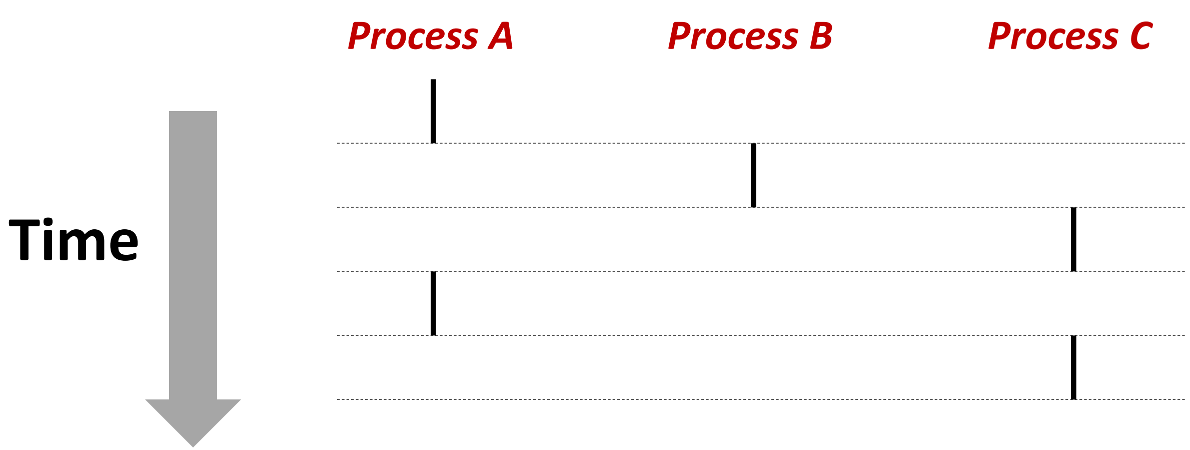
Multiprocessing: The (Modern) Reality



- **Multicore processors**
  - Multiple CPUs on single chip
  - Share main memory (and some caches)
  - Each can execute a separate process
    - Scheduling of processors onto cores done by kernel

Concurrent Processes

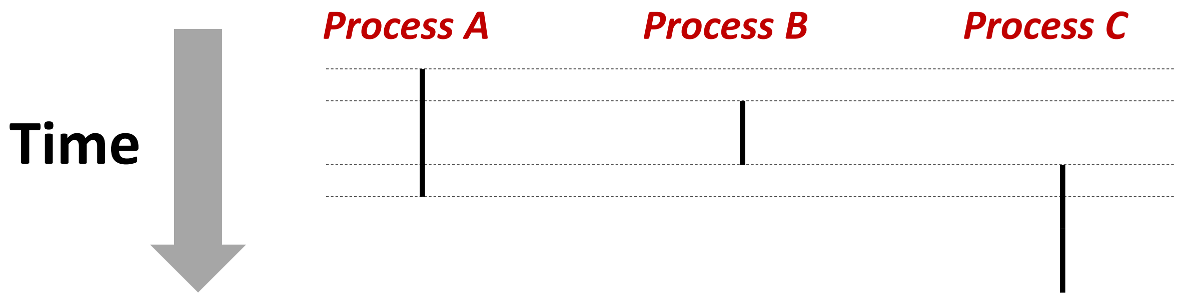
- **Each process is a logical control flow.**
- **Two processes *run concurrently* (*are concurrent)* if their flows overlap in time**
- **Otherwise, they are *sequential***
- **Examples (running on single core):**
  - Concurrent: A & B, A & C
  - Sequential: B & C



User View of Concurrent Processes

- Control flows for concurrent processes are physically disjoint in time

- However, we can think of concurrent processes as running in parallel with each other



Context Switching

- **Processes are managed by a shared chunk of memory-resident OS code called the *kernel***
  - Important: the kernel is not a separate process, but rather runs as part of some existing process.
- **Control flow passes from one process to another via a *context switch***