

Chapter 3 Machine-Level Programming II (Sections 3.4 – 3.9)

with material from Dr. Bin Ren, College of William & Mary

Bryant and O'Hallaron, Computer Systems: A Programmer's Perspective, Third Edition

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Outline

- **Introduction of IA32**
- **IA32 operations**
 - Data movement operations
 - Stack operations and function calls
 - Arithmetic and logic operations
 - Compare and jump operations
- **Instruction encoding format**
- **Array and structures allocation and access**

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RISC instruction sets

- **Reduced Instruction Set Computer**
- Internal project at IBM, later popularized by Hennessy (Stanford) and Patterson (Berkeley)

Fewer, simpler instructions

- Might take more to get given task done
- Can execute them with small and fast hardware

Register-oriented instruction set

- Many more (typically 32) registers
- Use for arguments, return pointer, temporaries

Only load and store instructions can access memory

- Similar to Y86 `mrmovl` and `rmmovl`

No Condition codes

- Test instructions return 0/1 in register

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CISC instruction sets

- **Complex Instruction Set Computer**
- Dominant style through mid-80's

Stack-oriented instruction set

- Use stack to pass arguments, save program counter
- Explicit push and pop instructions

Arithmetic instructions can access memory

- `addl %eax, 12(%ebx, %ecx, 4)`
 - requires memory read and write
 - Complex address calculation

Condition codes

- Set as side effect of arithmetic and logical instructions

Philosophy

- Add instructions to perform "typical" programming tasks

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RISC and CISC

- **Which is IA32?**
 - CISC
- **Which is Y86?**
 - Includes attributes of both.
 - CISC
 - Condition codes
 - Variable length instructions
 - Stack intensive procedure linkages
 - RISC
 - Load-store architecture
 - Regular encoding
- **Which is better: RISC or CISC?**

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Compare Y86 and IA32

- **Y86 is:**
 - Little endian
 - Load/store
 - Can only access memory on read/write
 - On move statements in Y86 (`mrmovl/rmmovl`)
 - Combination of CISC and RISC
 - Word = 4 bytes
- **IA32 is:**
 - Little endian
 - NOT load/store
 - CISC
 - Byte (1 byte), word (2 bytes), long (4 bytes)

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C program to IA32 and Y86

Computes the sum of an integer array

```
int Sum (int *Start, int Count)
{
    int sum = 0;
    while (Count)
    {
        sum += *Start;
        Start++;
        Count--;
    }
}
```

ASSEMBLY COMPARISON ON NEXT SLIDE

Why not using array indexing (i.e. subscripting)?
No scaled addressing modes in Y86

Uses stack and frame pointers

For simplicity, does not follow IA32 convention of having some registers designated as callee-save registers (convention so adopt or ignore as we please)

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IA32/Y86 comparison

IA32 code	Y86 code
1 Sum: int sum(int *start, int count)	1 Sum: int sum(int *start, int count)
2 pushl %ebp	2 pushl %ebp
3 movl %esp, %ebp	3 rrmovl %esp, %ebp
4 movl 8(%ebp), %ecx	4 rrmovl 8(%ebp), %ecx
5 movl 12(%ebp), %edx	5 rrmovl 12(%ebp), %edx
6 xorl %eax, %eax	6 xorl %eax, %eax
7 testl %edx, %edx	7 andl %edx, %edx
8 jle .L14	8 jle End
9 .L15: addl (%ecx), %eax	9 Loop: rrmovl (%ecx), %esi
10 addl 4, %ecx	10 addl %esi, %eax
11 decl %ecx	11 rrmovl 4, %ecx
12 decl %ecx	12 addl %ecx, %ecx
13 jnz .L15	13 addl %ecx, %ecx
14 .L14: ret	14 jne Loop
15 movl %ebp, %esp	15 rrmovl %ebp, %esp
16 popl %ebp	16 popl %ebp
17 ret	17 ret

Figure 4.6. Comparison of Y86 and IA32 assembly programs. The Sum function computes the sum of an integer array. The Y86 code differs from the IA32 mainly in that it may require multiple instructions to perform what can be done with a single IA32 instruction.

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CHAPTER 3.2 Program Encodings

- GOAL → examine assembly code and map it back to the constructs found in high-level programming languages
- %gcc -O1 -m32 -S code.c → code.s
- %more code.s
 - Runs the compiler only
 - S options = generates an assembly (.s) file
 - O1 is an optimization level
 - All information about local variables names or data types have been stripped away
 - Still see global variable "accum"
 - Compiler has not yet determined where in memory this variable will be stored
- %gcc -O1 -c -m32 code.c → code.o
- %objdump -d code.o
 - c compiles and assembles the code
 - Generates an object-code file (.o) = binary format
 - DISASSEMBLER – re-engineers the object code back into assembly language
 - %uname -p
 - m32 is a gcc option to run/build 32-bit applications on a 64-bit machine

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Machine code vs C code

- Program Counter (PC)
 - Register %eip (X86-64)
 - Address in memory of the next instruction to be executed
- Integer Register File
 - Contains eight named locations for storing 32-bit values
 - Can hold addresses (C pointers) or integer data
 - Have other special duties
- Condition Code registers
 - Hold status information
 - About arithmetic or logical instruction executed
 - CF (carry flag)
 - OF (overflow flag)
 - SF (sign flag)
 - ZF (zero flag)
- Floating point registers

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Machine Instruction Example

- C code
 - Add two signed integers

```
int t = x + y;
```
- Assembly
 - Add 2 4-byte integers

```
addl 8(%ebp), %eax
```
- Operands
 - X: register %eax
 - Y: memory M[%ebp+8]
 - T: register %eax
 - Return function value in %eax
- Object code
 - 3 byte instruction
 - Stored at address: 0x????????

```
03 45 08
```

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IA32 – Intel Architecture

- 32-bit address bus
 - normal physical address space of 4 GBytes (2^{32} bytes)
 - addresses ranging continuously from 0 to 0xFFFFFFFF
- Complex instruction set (CISC) machine
- Data formats →
 - Primitive data types of C
 - Single byte suffix
 - denotes size of operand
 - No aggregate types
 - Arrays, structures
- Registers
 - six (almost) general purpose 32-bit registers:
 - %eax, %ecx, %edx, %esi, %edi
 - two specialty → stack pointer and base/frame pointer:
 - %esp, %ebp
 - Float values are in different registers (later)
 - a floating-point processing unit (FPU) with eight 80-bit wide registers: st(0) to st(7)

C Declaration	Suffix	Name	Size
char	B	BYTE	8 bits
short	W	WORD	16 bits
int	L	LONG	32 bits
char * (pointer)	L	LONG	32 bits
float	S	SINGLE	32 bits

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Operand Specifiers

- Source operand
 - Constants, registers, or memory
- Destination operand
 - Registers or memory
- CANNOT DO MEMORY-MEMORY TRANSFER WITH A SINGLE INSTRUCTION
- 3 types of operands
 - Immediate – for constant values
 - Register
 - Memory

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Operand Combinations example

Source	Dest	Src, Dest*	C analog
Immediate	Register	movl \$0x4, %eax	temp = 0x4;
Immediate	Memory	movl \$-147, (%eax)	*p = -147;
Register	Register	movl %eax, %edx	temp2 = temp1;
Register	Memory	movl %eax, (%edx)	*p = temp;
Memory	Register	movl (%eax), %edx	temp = *p;

- Each statement should be viewed separately.
- REMINDER: cannot do memory-memory transfer with a single instruction.
- The parentheses around the register tell the assembler to use the register as a pointer.

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Addressing Modes

Examples on next slide

- An *addressing mode* is a mechanism for specifying an address.
 - Immediate
 - Register
 - Memory
 - Absolute
 - specify the address of the data
 - Indirect
 - use register to calculate address
 - Base + displacement
 - use register plus absolute address to calculate address
 - Indexed
 - Indexed
 - Add contents of an index register
 - Scaled index
 - Add contents of an index register scaled by a constant

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Operand addressing example

Address	Value	Operand	Value	Comment
0x100	0xFF	%eax	0x100	Register
0x104	0xAB	0x104	0xAB	Absolute Address - memory
0x108	0x13	\$0x108	0x108	Immediate
0x10C	0x11	(%eax)	0xFF	Address 0x104 - indirect
		4(%eax)	0xAB	Address 0x104 - base+displacement
		9(%eax,%edx)	0x11	Address 0x10C - indexed
		260(%ecx,%edx)	0x13	Address 0x108 - indexed
		0xFC(,%ecx,4)	0xFF	Address 0x100 - scaled index*
		(%eax,%edx,4)	0x11	Address 0x10C - scaled index*

First two columns on left are given as is the Operand

FYI: 260 decimal = 0x104

*scaled index multiplies the 2nd argument by the scaled value (the 3rd argument) which must be a value of 1, 2, 4 or 8 (sizes of the primitive data types)

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Operand addressing example EXPLAINED

Address	Value	Operand	Value	Comment
0x100	0xFF	%eax	0x100	Value is in the register
0x104	0xAB	0x104	0xAB	Value is at the address
0x108	0x13	\$0x108	0x108	Value is the value (\$ says "I'm an immediate, i.e. constant, value")
0x10C	0x11	(%eax)	0xFF	Value is at the address stored in the register → GTV@(reg)
		4(%eax)	0xAB	GTV@(4+ reg)
		9(%eax,%edx)	0x11	GTV@(9 + reg + reg)
		260(%ecx,%edx)	0x13	Same as above; be careful, in decimal
		0xFC(,%ecx,4)	0xFF	GTV@(0xFC + 0 + reg*4)
		(%eax,%edx,4)	0x11	GTV@(reg + reg*4)

In red are memory types of operands which is why you get the value at the address, because you are accessing memory

FYI: last two, the 3rd value in () is the scaling factor which must be 1, 2, 4 or 8

NOTE: Do not put '\$' in front of constants when they are addressing indexes, only when they are literals.

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Data movement instructions

Move, push and pop

MOVE example

Operands

- source, dest

Fill-in

- S = sign extend
- Z = zero extend

b,w,l = byte, word, long

- 8, 16, 32 bits respectively

Instructions (a sample set)

- movb, movw, movl = S → D
- movsbw, movsbl, movswl = SignExtend(S) → D
- movzbw, movzbl, movzwl = ZeroExtend(S) → D

Given %dh = 0xCD and %eax = 0x98765432

What is in %eax after each instruction?

1. movb %dh, %al 987654CD
2. movsbl %dh, %eax FFFFFFFCD
3. movzbl %dh, %eax 000000CD

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Stack operations

Data movement instructions (cont)

Push and Pop

Stack = LIFO

pushl S

- R[%esp] - 4 → R[%esp]... decrement stack ptr
- S → M[R[%esp]]... store to memory
- Order matters!

popl D

- M[R[%esp]] → D... reading from memory
- R[%esp] + 4 → R[%esp]... increment stack ptr
- Order matters!

By convention, we draw stacks upside down

- "top" of the stack is shown at the bottom

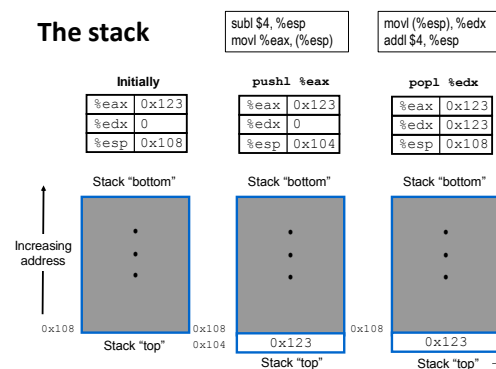
Stack "grows" toward lower addresses (push)

- Top element of the stack has the lowest address of all stack elements

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The stack



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Procedure calls

The machine uses the stack to

- Pass procedure arguments
- Store return information
- Save registers for later restoration
- Local storage

Stack frame

- Portion of the stack allocated for a single procedure call
- The topmost stack frame is delimited by two pointers
 - Register %ebp - the frame/base pointer
 - Register %esp - the stack pointer
 - Can move while the procedure is executing HENCE
 - MOST INFORMATION IS ACCESSED RELATIVE TO THE FRAME/BASE POINTER
 - Indicates lowest stack address i.e. address of top element

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Procedure calls (cont)

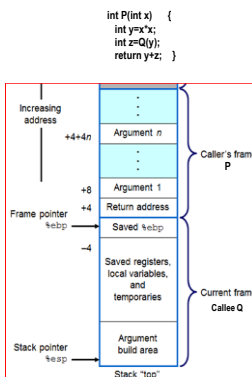
Procedure P (the "caller") calls procedure Q (the "callee")

Caller stack frame (P)

- The arguments to Q are contained within the stack frame for P
- The first argument is always positioned at offset 8 relative to %ebp
- Remaining arguments stored in successive bytes (typically 4 bytes each but not always)... +4+n is return address plus 4 bytes for each argument.
- When P calls Q, the return address within P where the program should resume execution when it returns from Q is pushed on to the stack

Callee stack frame (Q)

- Saved value of the frame pointer
- Copies of other saved registers
- Local variables that cannot all be stored in registers (see next slide)
- Stores arguments to any procedures it calls.



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Procedure call and return

Call instruction

- Has a label which is a target indicating the address of the instruction where the called procedure (the callee) starts
- Direct or indirect label
- Push a return address on the stack
 - the address of the instruction immediately *following the call* in the (assembly) program
- Jump to the start of the called procedure

Return instruction

- Pops an address off the stack
- Jumps to this location
- FYI: proper use is to have prepared the stack so that the stack pointer points to the place where the preceding call instruction stored its return address

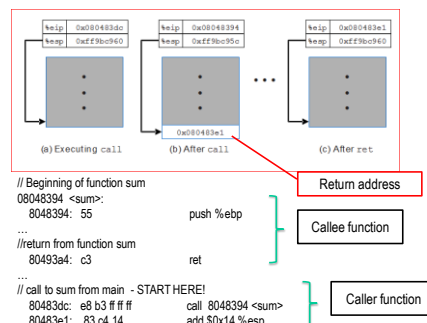
Leave instruction is equivalent to:

- `movl %ebp, %esp`
- `popl %ebp`

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Procedure call and return



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Register usage conventions

- Program registers are a shared resource
- One procedure is active at a given time
- Don't want the callee to overwrite a value the caller planned to use later
- BY CONVENTION/PROTOCOL

- "Caller-save" registers: %eax, %edx and %ecx
 - When Q is called by P, it can overwrite these registers without destroying any data required by P
- "Callee-save" registers: %ebx, %esi and %edi
 - Q must save these values on the stack before overwriting them, and restore them before returning
- %ebp and %esp must be maintained
- Register %eax is used for returning the value from any function that returns an integer or pointer.

```
int P(int x)
{
    int y=x*x;
    int z=Q(y);
    return y+z;
}
```

- The caller, P, can save the value y.
- P can store the value in a callee-save register (saved and restored).

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Swap example

REMINDER: we use pointers so can pass address since can't pass values back outside of the function

```
void swap(int *xp, int *yp)
{
    int t0 = *xp;
    int t1 = *yp;
    *xp = t1;
    *yp = t0;
} //codeswap.c
```

```
swap:                                Setup/prologue
    pushl %ebp
    movl  %esp, %ebp
    pushl %ebx

    movl  8(%ebp), %edx               edx=xp
    movl  12(%ebp), %ecx             ecx=yp
    movl  (%edx), %ebx               ebx=*xp (t0)
    movl  (%ecx), %eax               eax=*yp (t1)
    movl  %eax, (%edx)               *xp = t1
    movl  %ebx, (%ecx)               *yp = t0

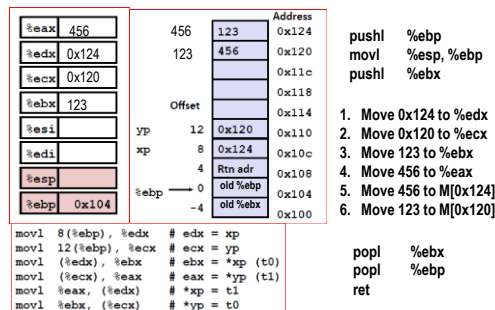
    popl  %ebx                       Finish/epilogue
    popl  %ebp
    ret
```

Register	Value
%edx	xp
%ecx	yp
%ebx	t0
%eax	t1

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Understanding Swap



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Example procedure call

```
caller:
    pushl %ebp
    movl  %esp, %ebp
    subl  $24, %esp
    movl  $534, -4(%ebp)
    movl  $1057, -8(%ebp)
    leal  -8(%ebp), %eax
    movl  %eax, 4(%esp)
    leal  -4(%ebp), %eax
    movl  %eax, (%esp)
    call  swap_add
    movl  -4(%ebp), %edx
    subl  -8(%ebp), %edx
    imull %edx, %eax
    leave
    ret

swap_add:
    pushl %ebp
    movl  %esp, %ebp
    pushl %ebx
    movl  8(%ebp), %ebx
    movl  12(%ebp), %ecx
    movl  (%ebx), %eax
    movl  (%ecx), %edx
    movl  %edx, (%ebx)
    movl  %eax, (%ecx)
    leal  (%edx, %eax), %eax
    popl  %ebx
    popl  %ebp
    ret
```

```
int swap_add(int *xp, int *yp)
{
    int x = *xp;
    int y = *yp;
    *xp = y;
    *yp = x;
    return x+y;
}

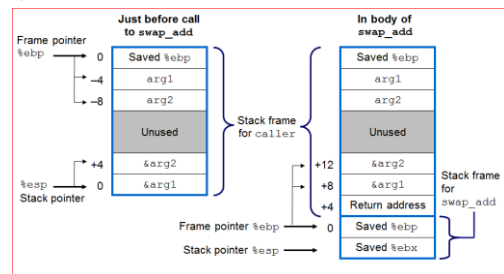
int caller()
{
    int arg1 = 534;
    int arg2 = 1057;
    int sum = swap_add(&arg1, &arg2);
    int diff = arg1 - arg2;
    return sum * diff;
} // callswap.c and figure 3.23
```

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Stack frames for caller and swap_add

Fig 3.24



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Recursion

Definition:

- In order to understand recursion, you must understand recursion

PAGE 3

DEPARTMENT	COURSE	DESCRIPTION	PREREQS
COMPUTER SCIENCE	CPSC 432	INTERMEDIATE COMPILER DESIGN, WITH A FOCUS ON DEPENDENCY RESOLUTION.	CPSC 432

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addr	Stack	comment
%esp	n = 3	
%esp	return addr	caller
%esp	%ebp	
%ebp	%ebx	Caller value
	-4 to -16	unused
%esp	-20: 2	%eax=3
%esp	return address	rfact
%esp	%ebp	
%esp	%ebx = 3	rfact value
	-4 to -16	unused
%esp	-20: 1	%eax=1
%esp	return address	rfact
%esp	%ebp	
%esp	%ebx = 2	rfact value
	-4 to -16	unused
%esp	-20:	%eax=1
		jle .L3

POPPING:
`%ebx = 2, 3`
`%eax = 1, 2, 6`

Recursive procedure

```
int rfact(int n) {
    int result;
    if (n <= 1)
        result = 1;
    else
        result = n * rfact(n-1);
    return result;
}
```

"multiple of 16 bytes" x86 programming guideline; including 4 bytes for the old `%ebp` and 4 bytes for the return address, caller uses 32 bytes; alignment issues (3.9.3)

CALL → Pushes the return address onto the stack (`%esp-4` and `mov`);
 RETURN → pops it

```
rfact:
    pushl %ebp
    movl %esp, %ebp
    pushl %ebx
    subl $20, %esp
    movl 8(%ebp), %ebx
    movl $1, %eax
    cmpl $1, %ebx
    jle .L3
    leal -1(%ebx), %eax
    movl %eax, (%esp)
    call rfact
    imull %ebx, %eax
.L3:
    addl $20, %esp
    popl %ebx
    popl %ebp
    ret
```

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Arithmetic and Logical Operations

Instruction	Effect	Description
<code>leal S, D</code>	<code>&S → D</code>	load effective address
<code>INC D</code>	<code>D+1 → D</code>	increment
<code>DEC D</code>	<code>D-1 → D</code>	decrement
<code>NEG D</code>	<code>~D → D</code>	negate
<code>NOT D</code>	<code>~D → D</code>	complement
<code>ADD S, D</code>	<code>D + S → D</code>	add
<code>SUB S, D</code>	<code>D - S → D</code>	subtract
<code>IMUL S, D</code>	<code>D * S → D</code>	multiply
<code>XOR S, D</code>	<code>D ^ S → D</code>	exclusive-or
<code>OR S, D</code>	<code>D S → D</code>	or
<code>AND S, D</code>	<code>D & S → D</code>	and
<code>SAL k, D</code>	<code>D << k → D</code>	left shift
<code>SHL k, D</code>	<code>D << k → D</code>	left shift (same as SAL)
<code>SAR k, D</code>	<code>D >> k → D</code>	arithmetic right shift
<code>SHR k, D</code>	<code>D >> k → D</code>	logical right shift

- Watch out for argument order! see SUB
- No distinction between signed and unsigned int
- Notice A/L for arithmetic and logical right shifts
- Operation Groups
 - Variant of the move
 - Unary
 - Binary
 - Shifts
- Reminder: Note the difference in instruction between `asemble` and `disassemble` – just like the `movl` vs `mov`

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LEA – load effective address

- Does not reference memory at all
 - You don't get the value at the address... just the address (`&x`)
- Copies the effective address to the destination
- Used to generate pointers for later memory references
- Can also be used to compactly describe common arithmetic operations
- The destination operand must be a register

Example: `leal 7(%edx, %edx, 4), %eax`
 Sets register `%eax` to `5x+7`
`%edx + %edx*4 + 7`

Assume: `%eax = x` and `%ecx = y`

INSTRUCTION	RESULT
<code>leal 6(%eax), %edx</code>	<code>6 + x</code>
<code>leal (%eax, %ecx), %edx</code>	<code>x + y</code>
<code>leal (%eax, %ecx, 4), %edx</code>	<code>x + 4y</code>
<code>leal 7(%eax, %eax, 8), %edx</code>	<code>7 + 9x</code>
<code>leal 0xA(%ecx, 4), %edx</code>	<code>10 + 4y</code>
<code>leal 9(%eax, %ecx, 2), %edx</code>	<code>9 + x + 2y</code>

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Unary and Binary operations

Unary

- Single operand serves as both source and destination
- Register or memory location
- Similar to C ++ and -- operators

ADDRESS	VALUE	REGISTER	VALUE
0x100	0xFF	%eax	0x100
0x104	0xAB	%ecx	0x1
0x108	0x13	%edx	0x3
0x10C	0x11		

Binary

- Second operand is both source and destination
 - Thus cannot be an immediate value
 - Can be memory or register
- First operand can be immediate, memory, or register
- Reminder: both cannot be memory
- Similar to C Operations such as $x += y$

INSTRUCTION	DESTINATION	VALUE
addl %ecx, (%eax)	0x100	0x100
subl %edx, 4(%eax)	0x104	0xAB
imul \$16, (%eax, %edx, 4)	0x10C	0x110
incl 8(%eax)	0x108	0x14
decl %ecx	%ecx	0x0
subl %edx, %eax	%eax	0xFD

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Shift operations

Shift amount given in first operand

- Coded as a single byte
- Only shift amounts between 0 and 31 possible
 - Only low order 5 bits are considered
- Immediate value or in the single byte register element %cl (unusual!)

Value to shift in second operand

Arithmetic and logical

- Left shifts behave the same, though
 - Zero fill
- Right shifts
 - sign extend (arithmetic)
 - zero fill (logical)

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Discussion

- Instructions work for unsigned or two's complement arithmetic
 - Except right shift
- Makes 2's comp arithmetic the preferred way to implement signed integer arithmetic

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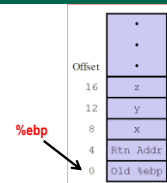
39

Arithmetic example

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

```
movl 8(%ebp), %ecx
movl 12(%ebp), %edx
leal (%edx,%edx,2), %eax
sall $4, %eax
leal 4(%ecx,%eax), %eax
addl %ecx, %edx
addl 16(%ebp), %edx
imull %edx, %eax
```

```
00000000 <arith>:
0: 55          push    %ebp
1: 89 e5       mov     %esp, %ebp
3: 8b 4d 08    mov     0x8(%ebp), %ecx
6: 8b 55 0c    mov     0xc(%ebp), %edx
9: 8d 04 52    lea     (%edx,%edx,2), %eax
c: c1 e0 04    shl     $0x4, %eax
f: 8d 44 01 04 lea     0x4(%ecx,%eax,1), %eax
13: 01 ca      add     %ecx, %edx
15: 03 55 10   add     0x10(%ebp), %edx
18: 0f af c2   imul    %edx, %eax
1b: 5d        pop     %ebp
1c: c3        ret
```



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Outline

- Introduction of IA32
- IA32 operations
 - Data movement operations
 - Stack operations and function calls
 - Arithmetic and logic operations
 - Compare and jump operations
- Instruction encoding format
- Array and structures allocation and access

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Overview of Compare and Jump

- Introduction with some examples
- Conditional codes & how to set CC
- How to use CC
- Control structures in assembly code

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Control structures (in C)

- Machine code provides two basic low-level mechanisms for implementing conditional behavior, tests data values then either
 - Alters the control flow (conditional statement)
 - Alters the data flow (conditional expression)

```
int absdiff(int x, int y) {
    if (x < y) return y - x;
    else return x - y; }
```

VS

```
int absdiff(int x, int y) {
    return x < y ? y - x : x - y; }
```

```
int gotodiff(int x, int y) {
    int result;
    if (x >= y) goto x_ge_y;
    result = y - x;
    goto done;
x_ge_y: result = x - y;
done: return result; }
```

```
int cmovdiff(int x, int y) {
    int tval = y - x;
    int rval = x - y;
    if (test) rval = tval;
    return rval; }
```

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Compares and Jumps Example

Using the JMP instruction, we may create a simple infinite loop that counts up from zero using the %eax register:

```
MOVl $0, %eax
loop: INCL %eax
      JMP loop
// unconditional jump
```

Loop to count %eax from 0 to 5:

```
MOVl $0, %eax
loop: INCL %eax
      CMPL $5, %eax
      JLE loop
// conditional jump
// if %eax <= 5 then go to loop
```

- The `jmp label` instruction causes the processor to execute the next instruction at the location given by the label (i.e., the %eip is set to *label*).
- Conditional jump instructions will only transfer control if to the target of the appropriate flags are set.

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Condition Code Flags

- EXAMPLE: `t = a + b`**
 - `a (= 1011) + b (= 1000) = 1 0011`
- CF set when:** // unsigned overflow
 - unsigned `t < unsigned a`
 - remainder: only positive values
 - carry-out == 1
 - How about unsigned sub: `t = a - b`, `a < b`, borrow == 1
- ZF set when: `t == 0`** // zero
- SF set when: `t < 0`** // negative
- OF set when:** // signed overflow
 - `(a < 0 == b < 0) && (t < 0 != a < 0)`
 - `(a < 0 && b < 0 && t >= 0) || (a > 0 && b > 0 && t < 0)`

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Technically...

- Arithmetic and logical operators set the EFLAGS

Instruction	Effect	Description
leal	<code>S, D</code>	<code>&S --> D</code> load effective address
INC	<code>D</code>	<code>D + 1 --> D</code> increment
DEC	<code>D</code>	<code>D - 1 --> D</code> decrement
NEG	<code>D</code>	<code>D --> D</code> negate
NOT	<code>D</code>	<code>~D --> D</code> complement
ADD	<code>S, D</code>	<code>D + S --> D</code> add
SUB	<code>S, D</code>	<code>D - S --> D</code> subtract
IMUL	<code>S, D</code>	<code>D * S --> D</code> multiply
XOR	<code>S, D</code>	<code>D ^ S --> D</code> exclusive-or
OR	<code>S, D</code>	<code>D S --> D</code> or
AND	<code>S, D</code>	<code>D & S --> D</code> and
SAL	<code>k, D</code>	<code>D << k --> D</code> left shift
SHL	<code>k, D</code>	<code>D << k --> D</code> left shift (same as SAL)
SAR	<code>k, D</code>	<code>D >> k --> D</code> arithmetic right shift
SHR	<code>k, D</code>	<code>D >> k --> D</code> logical right shift

leal does not alter any condition codes (since intended use is address computations – pg. 420)

Logical operations carry and overflow flags are set to 0 (ex. XOR pg. 845)

Shift operations, the carry flag is set to the last bit shifted out; the overflow flag is set to 0 (pg. 741)

INC/DEC set overflow and zero flags; and leave carry flag unchanged.

* Check ISA manual

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Compare instruction

- These instructions set the condition codes without updating any other registers
- CMPx S1, S2 → S2-S1**
 - The x can be a, b, w or l for byte, word or long
- CMP acts like the SUB without updating the destination**
 - ZF set if `a == b`
 - SF set if `(a - b) < 0`
 - CF set if carry out from MSB = 1
 - OF set if 2's comp overflow
 - `(a > 0 && b < 0 && (a - b) < 0) || (a < 0 && b > 0 && (a - b) > 0)`

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Test instruction

- The TEST operation sets the flags CF and OF to zero. The SF is set to the MSB of the result of the AND. If the result of the AND is 0, the ZF is set to 1, otherwise set to 0.
- TEST acts like the AND without updating the destination... testx s1, s2 → s1 & s2
 - ZF set when `a & b == 0`
 - SF set when `a & b < 0`
 - OF/CF are set to 0 (not used)
 - Example: same operand repeated to see whether the operand is negative, zero or positive
 - `testl %eax, %eax`
 - sets ZF to 1 if `%eax == 0`
 - sets SF to 1 if `%eax < 0` (i.e. negative) and 0 if `%eax > 0` (i.e. positive)
 - One of the operands is a mask indicating which bits should be tested
 - `testl 0xFF, %eax`

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Accessing the Condition Codes

3 common ways to use condition codes:

- SET
 - Set a single byte to 0 or 1 depending on some combination of the condition codes
- JMP
 - Conditionally jump to some other part of the program
- CMOV
 - Conditionally transfer data

Set instructions

Sets a single byte to 0 or 1 based on combinations of condition codes

Each set instruction has a designated destination:

- Byte register
 - One of 8 addressable byte registers embedded within first 4 integer registers
 - Does not alter remaining 3 bytes
 - Typically use movzbl to finish the job
- Single-byte memory location

SET instruction options

Instruction	Condition	Synonym	Description
sete	$D \leftarrow ZF$	setz	equal / zero
setne	$D \leftarrow \neg ZF$	setnz	not equal / not zero
sets	$D \leftarrow SF$		negative
setns	$D \leftarrow \neg SF$		nonnegative
setg	$D \leftarrow \neg(SF \wedge OF) \wedge \neg ZF$	setnle	greater (signed >)
setge	$D \leftarrow \neg(SF \wedge OF)$	setnl	greater or equal (signed >=)
setl	$D \leftarrow SF \wedge OF$	setnge	less (signed <)
setle	$D \leftarrow (SF \wedge OF) \vee ZF$	setng	less or equal (signed <=)
seta	$D \leftarrow \neg CF \wedge \neg ZF$	setnbe	above (unsigned >)
setb	$D \leftarrow CF$	setnae	below (unsigned <)

Multiple possible names for the instructions called synonyms.
Compilers and disassemblers make arbitrary choices of which names to use.
Note CF only on unsigned options

Set instruction examples

```
// is a < b?
// a = %edx, b = %eax
cmpl %eax, %edx // a-b i.e. %edx - %eax
// flags set by cmpl
setl %al // D ← SF ^ OF
movzbl %al, %eax // clear high order 3 bytes
// if %al has a 1 in it, then the answer is yes
// if %al has a 0 in it, then the answer is no
notice cmpl and setl are NOT the same thing
```

```
// another example
movl 12(%ebp), %eax // eax = y
cmpl %eax, 8(%ebp) // compare xy (x-y)
setg %al // al = x > y
movzbl %al, %eax // zero rest of eax
```

FLAGS:
If a = b then ZF = 1 → a=b=0
If a < b then SF = 1 → a-b<0 (#2)
If a > b then SF = 0 → a-b>0
If a<0, b>0, t>0 then OF=1 (#1)
If a>0, b<0, t<0 then OF=1
If unsigned... CF (not interested)

SF ^ OF → D
0 0 = 0
0 1 = 1 (see #1 below)
1 0 = 1 (see #2 below)
1 1 = 0

So, a < b when D = 1
#1 a is neg, b is pos, t is pos
#2 a-b<0 means a<b

Jump instructions

Instruction	Condition	Description
jmp	1	unconditional
je label	ZF	equal
jne label	$\neg ZF$	not equal
js label	SF	negative
jns label	$\neg SF$	nonnegative
jg label	$\neg(SF \wedge OF) \wedge \neg ZF$	greater (signed)
jge label	$\neg(SF \wedge OF)$	greater or equal (signed)
jl label	$SF \wedge OF$	less (signed)
jle label	$(SF \wedge OF) \vee ZF$	less or equal (signed)
ja label	$\neg CF \wedge \neg ZF$	above (unsigned)
jb label	CF	below (unsigned)

There are synonyms for jump instructions as well

The test and cmp instructions are combined with the *conditional and unconditional jmp instructions* to implement most relational and logical expressions and all control structures.

Set allows us to know what the condition evaluates to if something other than jmp to be done.

Conditional moves

```
#define OP _____
int arith(int x) { return x OP 4; }
```

```
// What operation is OP? Fill in the comments to explain how the code works.
// x is in %edx... for example, what if x = 16? What if x = -8?
leal 3(%edx), %eax // temp = x+3
testl %edx, %edx // test x - sets ZF and SF
cmovns %edx, %eax // if x >= 0, temp = x
sarl $2, %eax // return temp >> 2 = x/4 return value in %eax
```

Instruction	Synonym	Move condition	Description
cmovle S, D	cmovz	ZF	Equal / zero
cmovne S, D	cmovnz	$\neg ZF$	Not equal / not zero
cmovls S, D		SF	Negative
cmovlsl S, D		$\neg SF$	Nonnegative
cmovg S, D	cmovnl	$\neg(SF \wedge OF) \wedge \neg ZF$	Greater (signed >)
cmovge S, D	cmovnl	$\neg(SF \wedge OF)$	Greater or equal (signed >=)
cmovl S, D	cmovnge	SF ^ OF	Less (signed <)
cmovle S, D	cmovng	$(SF \wedge OF) \vee ZF$	Less or equal (signed <=)
cmova S, D	cmovnbe	$\neg CF \wedge \neg ZF$	Above (unsigned >)
cmovae S, D	cmovnb	$\neg CF$	Above or equal (Unsigned >=)
cmovb S, D	cmovnae	CF	Below (unsigned <)
cmovbe S, D	cmovna	CF ^ ZF	Below or equal (unsigned <=)

ANSWER:
Divide is the OP
Add 3 because:
If x is negative, it
requires biasing
in order to divide
by 4 i.e.
 $2^2 - 1 = 3$
Since and k = 2

Example overview

```
if (a == b) x = 1;
```

```
cmpl a, b    // (b-a) == 0
jne skip    // not equal, so skip
movl $1, x   // since a == b, x = 1
skip:       nop    // no operation....???
```

```
if (a > b) x = 1;
```

```
cmpl b, a    // (a-b) > 0
jle skip    // skip if a <= b
movl $1, x
skip:
```

```
cmpl a, b
jge skip
```

```
// Counts the number of bits set to 1
int count = 0;
int loop = 32;
do {
    if (x & 1) count++;
    x >>= 1;
    loop--;
} while (loop != 0)

movl $0, count
movl $32, loop
.L2:
movl x, %eax
andl $1, %eax
testl %eax, %eax
je .L5
incl count
.L5:
sarl x
decl loop
cmpl $0, loop
jne .L2
```

Conditional branch example

```
int max(int x, int y)
{
    if (x > y)
        return x;
    else
        return y;
}
```

```
int goto_max(int x, int y)
{
    int rval = y;
    int ok = (x <= y);
    if (ok)
        goto done;
    rval = x;
done:
    return rval;
}
```

C calls "goto" as means of transferring control
Closer to machine-level programming style
Generally considered bad coding style

```
movl 8(%ebp), %edx    # edx = x
movl 12(%ebp), %eax   # eax = y
cmpl %eax, %edx       # x : y
jle .L9              # if <= goto L9
movl %edx, %eax       # eax = x
.L9:                  # Done:
    Skipped when x > y
```

General "do while" translation

C Code

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

Goto Version

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

Use backward branch to continue looping

Only take branch when 'while' condition holds

Body can be any C statement
Typically compound statement:

```
{
    Statement;
    Statement;
    ...
    Statement;
}
```

Reminder: "Test" is expression
return an integer of 1 when true
and 0 when false

C Code

```
int fact_do
(int x)
{
    int result = 1;
    do {
        result *= x;
        x = x-1;
    } while (x > 1);
    return result;
}
```

Goto Version

```
int fact_goto(int x)
{
    int result = 1;
loop:
    result *= x;
    x = x-1;
    if (x > 1)
        goto loop;
    return result;
}
```

"Do While" loop compilation

Goto Version

```
int fact_goto
(int x)
{
    int result = 1;
loop:
    result *= x;
    x = x-1;
    goto loop;
    return result;
}
```

Assembly

```
fact_goto:
    pushl %ebp          # Setup
    movl %esp, %ebp     # Setup
    movl $1, %eax       # eax = 1
    movl 8(%ebp), %edx   # edx = x

.L1:
    imull %edx, %eax     # result *= x
    decl %edx           # x--
    cmpl $1, %edx       # Compare x : 1
    jg .L1              # if > goto loop

    movl %ebp, %esp     # Finish
    popl %ebp           # Finish
    ret
```

Registers

```
%edx x
%eax result
```

"While" loop translation

Is this code equivalent to the do-while version? Must jump out of loop if test fails

Uses same inner loop as do-while version; guards loop entry with extra test

C Code

```
int fact_while
(int x)
{
    int result = 1;
    while (x > 1) {
        result *= x;
        x = x-1;
    }
    return result;
}
```

First Goto Version

```
int fact_while_goto
(int x)
{
    int result = 1;
loop:
    if (!(x > 1))
        goto done;
    result *= x;
    x = x-1;
    goto loop;
done:
    return result;
}
```

Second Goto Version

```
int fact_while_goto2
(int x)
{
    int result = 1;
    if (!(x > 1))
        goto done;
loop:
    result *= x;
    x = x-1;
    if (x > 1)
        goto loop;
done:
    return result;
}
```

While vs DoWhile

fact_while:

```
pushl %ebp
movl %esp, %ebp
movl 8(%ebp), %edx
movl $1, %eax
cmpl $1, %edx
jle .L3

.L6:
    imull %edx, %eax
    subl $1, %edx
    cmpl $1, %edx
    jne .L6

.L3:
    popl %ebp
    ret
```

fact_dowhile:

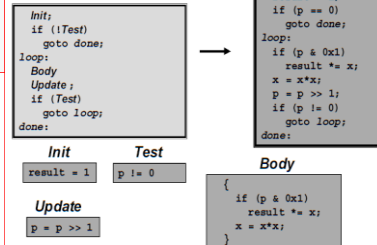
```
pushl %ebp
movl %esp, %ebp
movl 8(%ebp), %edx
movl $1, %eax

.L2:
    imull %edx, %eax
    subl $1, %edx
    cmpl $1, %edx
    jg .L2
    popl %ebp
    ret
```

"For" loop translation

```
int result;
for (result = 1;
    p != 0;
    p = p >> 1) {
    if (p & 0x1) {
        result *= x;
    }
    x = x * x;
}
```

Goto Version



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"For" loop example

cmov (conditional move) only transfers the data if the condition is true

```
// compute x raised to the
// nonnegative power p
int ipwr_for(int x, unsigned p)
{
    int result;
    for (result = 1; p != 0; p = p >> 1)
    {
        if (p & 0x1)
            result *= x;
        x = x * x;
    }
    return result;
}
```

Example walkthrough
x=2, p=4

```
ipwr_for:
    pushl   %ebp
    movl   %esp, %ebp
    pushl   %ebx
    movl   8(%ebp), %ecx // x
    movl   12(%ebp), %edx // p
    movl   $1, %eax // result
    movl   %edx, %ecx // set cc
    je     .L4 // ZF=1 iff %edx==0

.L5:
    movl   %eax, %ebx // temp result in ebx
    imull  %ecx, %ebx // new result (*x)
    testb  $1, %edi // if cond
    cmovne %ebx, %eax // ~ZF update result
    shr    %edx
    je     .L4
    imull  %ecx, %ecx // x*x
    jmp    .L5

.L4:
    popl    %ebx
    popl    %ebp
    ret
```

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Disassembly of ipwr_for

```

0: 55      push    %ebp
1: 89 e5   mov     %esp, %ebp
3: 53      push    %ebx
4: 8b 4d 08 mov     0x8(%ebp), %ecx
7: 8b 50 0c mov     0xc(%ebp), %edx
a: b8 01 00 00 00 mov     $0x1, %eax
f: 85 d2   test    %edx, %edx
11: je      27 <ipwr_for+0x27>
13: 89 c3   mov     %eax, %ebx
15: 0f af d9 imul    %ecx, %ebx
18: f6 c2 01 test    $0x1, %edi
1b: 0f 45 c3 shr     %edx, %eax
1e: d1 ea   shr     %eax, %eax
20: je      27 <ipwr_for+0x27>
22: 0f af c9 imul    %ecx, %ecx
25: eb ec   jmp     13 <ipwr_for+0x13>
27: 5b      pop     %ebx
28: 5d      pop     %ebp
29: c3      ret
```

- **cmov (conditional move)** only transfers the data if the condition is true

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Switch Statements

Implementation options

- Series of conditionals
 - Good in few cases
 - Slow if many
- Jump table
 - Lookup branch target
 - Avoids conditionals
 - Possible when cases are small integer constants
- GCC
 - Picks one based on case structure
- Usually should also specify "default:" case

```
typedef enum
{ADD, MULT, MINUS, DIV, MOD, BAD}
op_type;

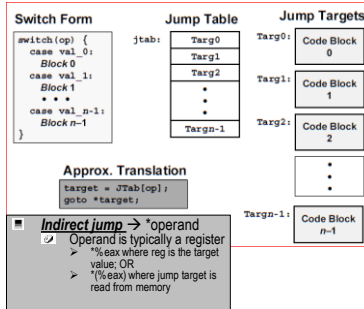
char unparsesymbol(op_type op)
{
    switch (op) {
        case ADD:
            return '+';
        case MULT:
            return '*';
        case MINUS:
            return '-';
        case DIV:
            return '/';
        case MOD:
            return '%';
        case BAD:
            return '?';
    }
} // switchasm.c
```

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Jump table structure

FYI: Direct jump is an encoded target as part of the instruction



JUMP TABLE:
An array where entry i is the address of a code segment implementing the action the program should take when the switch index equals i.

Lookup branch target

Avoids conditionals

Possible when cases are small integer constants

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Switch statement example

Symbolic Labels

- Labels of form `.LXX` translated into addresses by assembler

Table Structure

- Each target requires 4 bytes
- Base address at `.L57`

Jumping

- Jump target is denoted by label `.L49`
- Jump target is denoted by label `.L57`
- Register `%eax` holds `op`
- Must scale by factor of 4 to get offset into table
- Fetch target from effective Address `.L57 + op*4`

Branching Possibilities

```
typedef enum
{ADD, MULT, MINUS, DIV, MOD, BAD}
op_type;

char unparsesymbol(op_type op)
{
    switch (op) {
        ...
    }
}
```

unparsesymbol:

```

    pushl   %ebp
    movl    %esp, %ebp
    movl    8(%ebp), %eax // # Setup
    movl    %eax, %eax // # Setup
    cmpl    $5, %eax // # Compare op : 5
    ja      .L49 // # If > goto done
    jmp     *.L57(, %eax, 4) // # goto Table[op]
```

Enumerated Values

```

ADD 0
MULT 1
MINUS 2
DIV 3
MOD 4
BAD 5
```

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Sparse “switch” example

```

/* Return x/111 if x is multiple
   && <= 999. -1 otherwise */
int div111(int x)
{
    switch(x) {
        case 0: return 0;
        case 111: return 1;
        case 222: return 2;
        case 333: return 3;
        case 444: return 4;
        case 555: return 5;
        case 666: return 6;
        case 777: return 7;
        case 888: return 8;
        case 999: return 9;
        default: return -1;
    }
}

```

Not practical to use
jump table
Would require 1000
entries
Obvious translation into
if-then-else would have
max. of 9 tests

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Outline

- Introduction of IA32
- IA32 operations
 - Data movement operations
 - Stack operations and function calls
 - Arithmetic and logic operations
 - Compare and jump operations
- Instruction encoding format
- Array and structures allocation and access

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Instruction formats for swap

00000000 <swap>	opcode	ModR/M	SIB	Displacement	Immediate
0: 55 push %ebp	55				
1: 89 e5 mov %esp,%ebp	89	11 100 101			
3: 53 push %ebx	53				
4: 8b 55 08 mov 0x8(%ebp),%edx	8b	01 010 101		0000 1000	
7: 8b 45 0c mov 0xc(%ebp),%eax	8b	01 000 101		0000 1100	
a: 8b 0a mov (%edx),%ecx	8b	00 001 010			
c: 8b 18 mov (%eax),%ebx	8b	00 011 000			
e: 89 1a mov %ebx,%edx	89	00 011 010			
10: 89 08 mov %ecx,%eax	89	00 001 000			
12: 5b pop %ebx	5b				
13: 5d pop %ebp	5d				
14: c3 ret	c3				

<http://www.cs.princeton.edu/courses/archive/spr11/cos217/reading/ia32vol2.pdf>

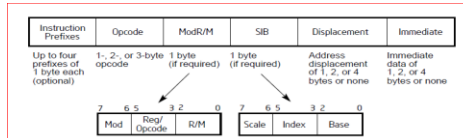
PUSH pg 701; MOV pg 479; POP pg 637; RET pg 28

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Instruction Format

- All IA-32 instruction encodings are subsets of the general instruction format shown below, in the given order
- Instructions consist of:
 - optional instruction prefixes (in any order)
 - 1-3 opcode bytes – determines the action of the statement
 - an addressing-form specifier (if required) consisting of:
 - the ModR/M byte – addressing modes register/memory
 - sometimes the SIB (Scale-Index-Base) byte
 - a displacement (if required)
 - an immediate data field (if required).



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ModR/M

ModR/M		
Mod	Reg #	R/M
2 bits	3 bits	3 bits

- **Mod=00**,
 - First operand a register, specified by Reg #
 - Second operand in memory; address stored in a register numbered by R/M.
 - That is, Memory[Reg[R/M]]
 - Exceptions:
 - R/M=100 (SP): SIB needed
 - R/M=101 (BP): disp32 needed
- **Mod=01, same as Mod 00 with 8-bit displacement.**
 - Second operand: Memory[disp8+Reg[R/M]].
 - Exception: SIB needed when R/M=100
- **Mod=10, same as Mod 01 with 32-bit displacement**
- **Mod=11**
 - Second operand is also a register, numbered by R/M.
- **Do not confuse displacement width with data width.**
 - Data width is specified by the opcode.
 - For example, the use of disp8 does not imply 8-bit data.

For some opcodes, the reg# is used as an extension of the opcode.

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SIB displacement and immediate

- **SIB**
 - Specify how a memory address is calculated
 - Address = Reg[base] + Reg[Index] * 2^{scale}
 - Exceptions:
 - SP cannot be an index, and
 - BP cannot be a base

Scale	Index	Base
2 bits	3 bits	3 bits

- **Displacement**
 - Can immediately follow ModR/M byte
 - 1, 2, or 4 bytes
- **Immediate**
 - Immediate operand value always follows any displacement bytes
 - 1, 2 or 4 bytes

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Outline

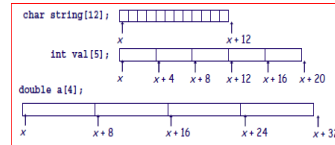
- Introduction of IA32
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Array allocation and access

- `type array[length]`
 - Contiguously *allocated* region of length $\text{sizeof}(T)$ bytes
 - Starting location of array is a pointer (x)
 - *Access* array elements using integer index i ranging between 0 and length-1 (i.e. the subscript)
 - Array element i will be stored at address $x + \text{sizeof}(T) * i$



Total size: 12, 20, & 32
Element i :

$x + 1i$
 $x + 4i$
 $x + 8i$

Address of array in $\%edx$ and i stored in $\%ecx$

→ `movl (%edx,%ecx,4)`

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Array allocation and access (cont)

- Explains why scaled factors are 1, 2, 4, and 8
 - The primitive data types
- Problem 3.35 (pg 233)
- IA32
 - A pointer of any kind is 4 bytes long
 - GCC allocates 12 bytes for the data type long double
 - 4 bytes for float and pointers, 8 bytes for double, 12 bytes for long double

Given	Array	Element size	Total Size	Start address	Element i
short S[7]	S	2	14	x_s	$x_s + 2i$
short *T[3]	T	4	12	x_t	$x_t + 4i$
long double V[8]	V	12	96	x_v	$x_v + 12i$
long double *W[4]	W	4	16	x_w	$x_w + 4i$

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Pointer arithmetic

- Reminders...
 - C allows arithmetic on pointers, where the computed value is scaled according to the size of the data type referenced by the pointer
 - So, if p is a pointer to data type T
 - And, the value of p is x_p
 - Then, then $p+i$ has value $x_p + L*i$
 - Where, L is the size of data type T
 - Thus $A[i] == *(A+i)$
- Example
 - $\%edx \rightarrow$ starting address of array E
 - $\%ecx \rightarrow$ integer index i

Expression	Type	Value	Assembly code... result in $\%eax$	Comment
E	int^*	x_e	<code>movl %edx, %eax</code>	
$E[0]$	int	$M[x_e]$	<code>movl (%edx, %ecx, 4), %eax</code>	Reference memory
$E[i]$	int	$M[x_e + 4i]$	<code>movl (%edx, %ecx, 4), %eax</code>	Reference memory
$\&E[2]$	int^*	$x_e + 8$	<code>leal 8(%edx), %eax</code>	Generate address
$E+i-1$	int^*	$x_e + 4i - 4$	<code>leal -4(%edx, %ecx, 4), %eax</code>	Generate address
$*(E+3)$	int^*	$M[x_e + 4i - 12]$	<code>movl -12(%edx, %ecx, 4), %eax</code>	Reference memory
$\&E[i]-E$	int	i	<code>movl %ecx, %eax</code>	

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Structures

- Reminder... the C struct declaration creates a data type that groups objects of possibly different types into a single object
- Implementation similar to arrays
 - All components are stored in a contiguous region of memory
 - A pointer to a structure is the address of its first byte
- The compiler maintains information about each structure type indicating the byte offset of each field
 - Generates references to structure elements using these offsets as displacements in memory referencing instructions

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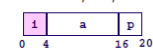
Structure allocation

Concept

- Contiguously-allocated region of memory
- Refer to members within structure by names
- Members may be of different types

```
struct rec {
    int i;
    int a[3];
    int *p;
};
```

Memory Layout



Accessing Structure Member

```
void
set_i(struct rec *r,
      int val)
{
    r->i = val;
}
```

Assembly

```
# %eax = val
# %edx = r
movl %eax, (%edx) # Mem[r] = val
```

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Structure Access

Generating Ptr to Structure Member

```
struct rec {
    int i;
    int a[3];
    int *p;
};
```



Generating Pointer to Array Element

- Offset of each structure member determined at compile time

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

```
# %edx = idx
# %ecx = r
leal 0(,%ecx,4),%eax # 4*idx
leal 4(%eax,%edx),%eax # r+4*idx+4
```

```
leal 4(%edx,%ecx,4)
```

```
find_a:
pushl %ebp
movl %esp,%ebp
movl 12(%ebp),%eax // idx (2nd arg)
sall $2,%eax // mult by 4
addl 8(%ebp),%eax // ptr to struct (1st arg)
addl $4,%eax
popl %ebp
ret
```

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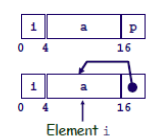
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Structure referencing (cont)

C Code

```
struct rec {
    int i;
    int a[3];
    int *p;
};
```

```
void
set_p(struct rec *r)
{
    r->p =
    &r->a[r->i];
}
```



"i" represents the element of "a" that I want "p" to point to

```
# %edx = r
movl (%edx),%ecx # r->i
leal 0(,%ecx,4),%eax # 4*(r->i)
leal 4(%edx,%eax),%eax # r+4*(r->i)
movl %eax,16(%edx) # Update r->p
```

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Data Alignment

Aligned Data

- Primitive data type requires K bytes
- Address must be multiple of K
- Required on some machines; advised on IA32
 - treated differently by Linux and Windows!

Motivation for Aligning Data

- Memory accessed by (aligned) double or quad-words
 - Inefficient to load or store datum that spans quad word boundaries
 - Virtual memory very tricky when datum spans 2 pages

Compiler

- Inserts gaps in structure to ensure correct alignment of fields

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Specific cases of alignment

Size of Primitive Data Type:

- 1 byte** (e.g., char)
 - no restrictions on address
- 2 bytes** (e.g., short)
 - lowest 1 bit of address must be 0₂
- 4 bytes** (e.g., int, float, char *, etc.)
 - lowest 2 bits of address must be 00₂
- 8 bytes** (e.g., double)
 - Windows (and most other OS's & instruction sets):
 - lowest 3 bits of address must be 000₂
 - Linux:
 - lowest 2 bits of address must be 00₂
 - i.e., treated the same as a 4-byte primitive data type
- 12 bytes** (long double)
 - Linux:
 - lowest 2 bits of address must be 00₂
 - i.e., treated the same as a 4-byte primitive data type

IA32/LINUX address

2 bytes hex: ends in even hex digit (0, 2, 4, 6, 8, A, C, E)

4 bytes hex: ends in divisible by 4 hex digit (0, 4, 8, C)

8 bytes hex: ends in divisible by 8 hex digit (0, 8)

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Satisfying alignment in structures

Offsets Within Structure

- Must satisfy element's alignment requirement

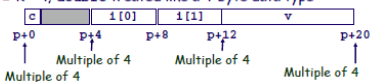
Overall Structure Placement

- Each structure has alignment requirement K
 - Largest alignment of any element
- Initial address & structure length must be multiples of K

```
struct s1 {
    char c;
    int i[2];
    double v;
} *p;
```

Linux:

- K = 4; double treated like a 4-byte data type



Long long treated like 8-byte data type

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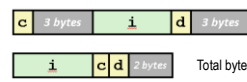
Saving space

- Put large data types first

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

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

- Effect (K=4)



Total bytes = 12

Total bytes = 8

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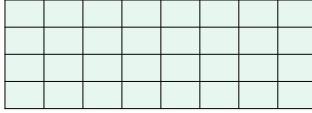
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Another Example

```
struct a_struct {
    char      a;
    struct a_struct *b;
};

struct b_struct {
    char      c;
    int       i;
    double *  d;
    short     e[3];
    struct a_struct m;
};
```

Each block is a byte



```

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15
+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+
| c X X X | i i i i | d d d d | e e e e |
+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+
| e e X X | a X X X | b b b b |          |
+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+---+
```

End IA32