# **Machine Level Representation IV**

x86-64 Assembly Data Structures

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## **Reading Track**

This Lecture covers Chapters 3.8-3.9 (Assembly Expressions)

We'll spend several classes on each of the Assembly Lectures.

Reading Homework:

- 1. Read through Chapter 3.10-3.11 (Stack and Buffer Overflows)
- 2. Continue to Review Chapters 3.1-3.9 This semester we'll be working with all of these topics in Assembly
  - Data Types and Sizes in x86-64 Assembly (Arrays of different types!)
  - Moving Data and Arithmetic
  - Control Flow (If/Else, Loops, and Switches)
  - Procedures (Callee-Save/Stack Save) with and without Recursion
  - One and Two dimensional Arrays, Structs, and Linked Lists

#### **Lecture Overview**

ASM Structures	Implement Data Structures in x86-64 Assembly	Describe Arrays in Memory	3.8
		Access an Element from a Single-Dimensional Array in Assembly	
		Access an Element from a Multi-Dimensional Array in Assembly	
		Describe Structs in Memory	3.9
		Describe Unions in Memory	
		Describe Alignment of Data Structures in Memory	

Figure 1: Lecture overview.

#### **Array Allocation**

The basic principle:  $\top$  A[N] declares an array of data type  $\top$  for integer constant N elements. The size of the array is N \* sizeof( $\top$ ) bytes.

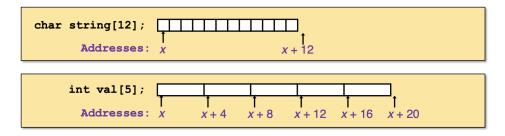


Figure 2: Sample array allocations.

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#### **Question 1**

The identifier A is the address of the first element of the array. This address can also be used as a pointer to the array element 0.

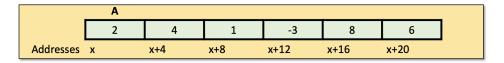


Figure 3: An example array.

C Code	Туре	Value
A[4]	int	8
Α	<pre>int *</pre>	X
A+1	int *	x+4
&A[3]	<pre>int *</pre>	x+12
*(A+3) <b>int</b>		-3

# **Array Allocation Example**

Assume that we have the following arrays initialized:

```
int gmu[5] = {1, 3, 5, 7, 9};
int mit[5] = {0, 1, 2, 1, 4};
int cmu[5] = {1, 2, 4, 1, 2};
```

Each array's elements are contiguous in Memory. Each of the arrays may not be in successive 20-byte blocks!

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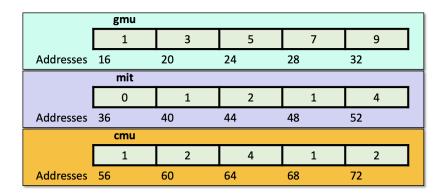


Figure 4: Array contents in memory.

## **Accessing an Array Element**

```
File: array_access.s
```

The starting address for an element in a array is A + i \* K where A is the base address of the array, i is the index, and K is the data type size.

In Assembly, we need to use one of the forms ot access this element.

```
# %rdi = gmu
# %rsi = i
# Put the result in eax
movl (%rdi,%rsi,4), %eax # gmu[i]
```

File: array\_loop\_longs.c

Let's write some assembly to sum up all the values of the array.

```
long sum(int *ary, long len) {
  long ans = 0;
  for(long i = 0; i < len; i++) {
    ans += ary[i];
  }
  return ans;
}
int main() {
  int gmu[5] = {1,3,5,7,9};
  return sum(gmu, 5);
}</pre>
```

The corresponding assembly might look like

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```
jmp test  # Jump to Middle style For loop
top:
  addl (%rdi, %rcx, 4), %eax  # addl because ary is an int array
  incq %rcx  # ++i;
test:
  cmpq %rsi, %rcx  # compare i against len
  jl top
  ret  # returns 64-bit ans in %rax
```

But what if we changed the return type of sum to int?

```
long sum(int *ary, int len) {
  int ans = 0;
  for(int i = 0; i < len; i++) {
    ans += ary[i];
  }
  return ans;
}
int main() {
  int gmu[5] = {1,3,5,7,9};
  return sum(gmu, 5);
}</pre>
```

We would need to modify our assembly:

```
#rdi has ary and esi has number of elements in ary
sum:
 movl $0, %ecx
                             # int i = 0
                             # int ans = 0
 movl $0, %eax
 jmp test
                            # Jump to Middle style For loop
top:
 movslq %ecx, %rcx
                           # Sign extend i to 64-bits for pointer math
 addl (%rdi, %rcx, 4), %eax # addl because ary is an int array
 incl %ecx
                             # ++i;
test:
 cmpl %esi,%ecx
                             #compare i against len
 jl top
                             # returns 32-bit ans in %eax
 ret
```

## **Digression - Data Type Errors in Assembly**

Consider

```
addl (%rdi, %ecx, 4), %eax # Bad Code
```

That would yield the following error message:

```
array_loop_ints.s:23: Error: '(%rdi,%ecx,4)' is not a valid base/index expression
```

For dereferencing forms, this is address arithmetic, so it should be 64-bit register, like as follows:

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```
addl (%rdi, %rcx, 4), %eax # Good Code
```

Again, if we used an incorrect suffix

```
incq %ecx # Bad Code
```

we would get the error message

```
array_loop_ints.s:24: Error: incorrect register '%ecx' used with 'q' suffix
```

This is a 64-bit operation (incq) on a 32-bit register name (ecx). Types have to match!

```
incl %ecx # Good Code
```

#### **Nested Arrays**

Nested arrays take the form of  $\top$  D[R][C]. This form of a nested array has an array of R elements (rows), each of which has an entry of C elements (columns). In memory, the size of this array is R \* C \* K bytes, where K is the size of data type  $\top$ .

As an example, int A[10][5] would take  $10 \times 5 \times 4 = 200$  bytes.

## **Nested Array Example**

The array ary is an array of four elements, allocated contiguously. Each element of ary is an array of 5 **int**s, allocated contiguously.

Nested arrays are ordered in memory in Row-Major ordering. This is analogous to all elements of the zeroth row being followed by the elements of the first row, and so on.

#### **Row Vectors and Accessing Elements**

Consider the following array:

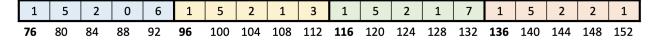


Figure 5: The array int ary [4] [5].

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To access the element ary [i][j], we use the formula A + (i \* C \* K)+ (j \* K) where A is the base address, i is the *i*th row vector, C is the number of columns, j is the *j*th column vector, and K is the size of the data type.

We can use the simplified mathematical version

$$A + (i \times C \times K) + (j \times K) \equiv A + (i \times C + j) \times K.$$

To access some arbitrary element of the array ary where %rdi holds i and %rsi holds j, we would use the following assembly (remember that ary is a static defined region, so you can use it like an immediate address)

(The second instruction sets %rdi to five times the previous value since ary is a  $4 \times 5$  array.)

#### **Array Practice**

#### **Question 3**

Suppose we have the following arrays that we will store sequentially starting at memory address 0×100.

```
int A[20];
char B[40];
int C[200];
```

For your convenience, the following conversions are provided.

**Math Hints** 

- $40 = 0 \times 28$
- $\bullet 80 = 0 \times 50$
- $800 = 0 \times 320$

Array	Bytes Needed	Base Address	Equation for arr[i]
A[]	$20 * 4 = 80 (0 \times 50)$	0×100	0×100 + i * 4
B[]	$40 * 1 = 40 (0 \times 28)$	0×150	0×150 + i * 1
C[]	$200 * 4 = 800 (0 \times 320)$	0x178	0×178 + i * 4

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## **Nested Array Practice**

#### **Question 4**

Suppose we have the following arrays that we will store sequentially starting at memory address 0x1000.

```
int A[10][10];
char B[40][5];
int C[20][10];
```

For your convenience, the following conversions are provided.

**Math Hints** 

```
• 200 = 0xC8
• 400 = 0x190
• 800 = 0x320
• 1600 = 0x640
```

Array	Bytes Needed	Base Address	Equation for arr[i][j]
A[][]	10 * 10 * 4 = 400 (0x190)	0×1000	0x1000 + (i *10*4)+ (j*4)
B[][]	40 * 5 * 1 = 200 (0xC8)	0×1190	0x1190 + (i * 5 * 1)+ (j * 1)
C[][]	20 * 10 * 4 = 800 (0x320)	0x1258	0x1258 + (i * 10 * 4)+ (j * 4)

## **Multi-Level Arrays**

A multi-level array is an array of pointers to other arrays.

For example, if we had the following arrays defined

```
int gmu[5] = {9, 4, 7, 2, 0};
int mit[5] = {0, 2, 1, 3, 9};
int cmu[5] = {1, 5, 2, 1, 3};
int *univ[3] = {mit, cmu, gmu};
```

then in memory they might look like

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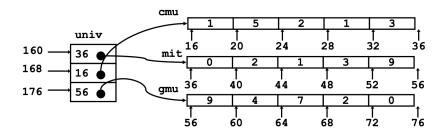


Figure 6: An example of a multi-level array.

## **Accessing a Multi-Dimensional Array Element**

Our goal is to retrieve univ[i][j] (as defined previously).

We start by acquiring the address of the array that univ is referencing. The address is retrieved by dereferencing univ + 8 \* i.

Then, we must index into that retrieved array: (univ + 8 \* i) + 4 \* j.

With assembly (assuming %rdi holds i and %rsi holds j)

```
leaq (, %rsi, 4), %rsi  # 4*j
addq univ(, %rdi, 8), %rsi  # M[univ+8*i]+4*j
movl (%rsi), %eax  # M[M[univ+8*i]+4*j]
```

### **Fixed-Size Arrays**

If the dimensions of the arrays are constant, you can optimize the code further by pre-computing the offsets.

As an example, suppose that we have a two-dimensional,  $16 \times 16$  array, int A[16][16]. Then

```
\begin{aligned} &\text{int } x = A[i][j] \\ &= M[A + (i \times C \times K) + (j \times K)] \\ &= M[A + 64i + 4j] \end{aligned}
```

Our assembly would change thusly:

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

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#### **Structs**

C structs are product types which allow for a heterogenous collection of types. They are represented by a block of memory in which all fields appear in order of declaration. The compiler determines the over size.

For example, suppose that we have the following struct:

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

With C, our in memory representation of the struct might look like

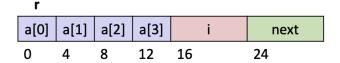


Figure 7: An example of the rec struct in memory as viewed by C.

With assembly, given that %rdi contains the address of an instance of the struct, our memory would look like

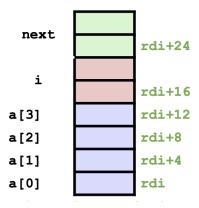


Figure 8: An example of the rec struct in memory, where %rdi is the base of the struct.

The offset of each structure member must be determined at compile time.

Assume that we want to get the address of  $r\rightarrow a[idx]$  using assembly.

```
# r in %rdi, idx in %rsi
leal (%rdi,%rsi,4), %eax
ret
```

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#### **Linked Lists**

Assuming the same struct rec, how would we get r->next->next->i?

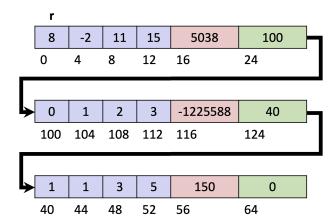


Figure 9: A linked list.

```
# r starts out with the value 0
# Hint: Start with r = r->next;
movq 24(%rdi), %rdi # r = r->next = 100
movq 24(%rdi), %rdi # r = r->next = 40
movq 16(%rdi), %rax # x = r->i = 150
```

#### **Struct Alignment**

Systems may use alignment restrictions for efficiency. Alignment is making sure each data type is organized such that its address starts on a multiple of its own size.

For Example: an int is 4 bytes, so it starts on an address that is a multiple of 4 bytes, like 0×600400 or 0×0400698.

For alignment, an Array should be aligned to the data type inside.

For alignment, a struct should be aligned to the biggest data type inside. On this system, we will only be looking at alignment for structs.

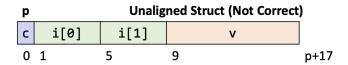
For the following two rules assume the following struct:

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

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#### **Rule One**

All data types in a struct must start on a multiple of that type size.



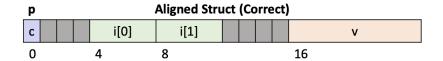


Figure 10: The first rule of struct alignment.

#### **Rule Two**

The struct size must be a multiple of the largest type inside of it.



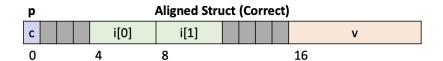


Figure 11: The second rule of struct alignment.

# **Struct Optimal Ordering**

To reduce wasted space, reorder the structs to put the largest types first.

Compare the result of the first struct

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```
struct S1 {
   char c;
   double v;
   char x;
} *p;
```

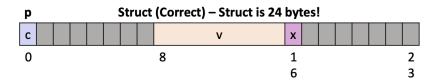


Figure 12: A mal-ordered struct.

with that of the organized struct

```
struct S1 {
  double v;
  char c;
  char x;
} *p;
```

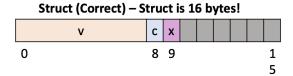


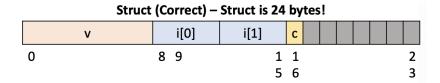
Figure 13: A well-ordered struct.

## **Array of Structs**

Since each struct is aligned to some multiple of the largest data type arrays of structs are easy to handle.

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

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**Figure 14:** The layout of the above struct in memory.

An array of such struct might look like

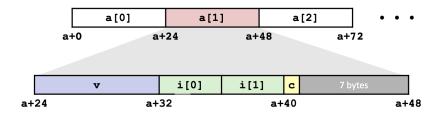


Figure 15: An array of struct in memory..

#### **Unions**

C unions are data types to allocate memory for the largest defined element.

They essentially allow for reinterpretation of data.

A struct like

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

looks like

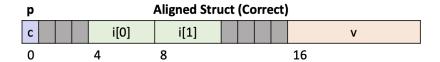


Figure 16: The struct S1 in memory.

The union

```
union U1 {
```

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

looks like

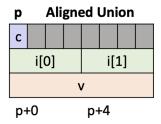


Figure 17: The union U1 in memory.

Note that the union only allocates memory equivalent to the size of the largest member.

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