

CS 33

Machine Programming (3)

Most of the slides in this lecture are either from or adapted from slides provided by the authors of the textbook “Computer Systems: A Programmer’s Perspective,” 2nd Edition and are provided from the website of Carnegie-Mellon University, course 15-213, taught by Randy Bryant and David O’Hallaron in Fall 2010. These slides are indicated “Supplied by CMU” in the notes section of the slides.

Complete Memory-Addressing Modes

- Most general form

$$D(Rb, Ri, S) \quad \text{Mem}[Reg[Rb]+S*Reg[Ri]+D]$$

- D: constant “displacement”
- Rb: base register: any of 16[†] registers
- Ri: index register: any, except for %rsp
- S: scale: 1, 2, 4, or 8

- Special cases

$$(Rb, Ri) \quad \text{Mem}[Reg[Rb]+Reg[Ri]]$$

$$D(Rb, Ri) \quad \text{Mem}[Reg[Rb]+Reg[Ri]+D]$$

$$(Rb, Ri, S) \quad \text{Mem}[Reg[Rb]+S*Reg[Ri]]$$

$$D \quad \text{Mem}[D]$$

[†]The instruction pointer may also be used (for a total of 17 registers)

Adapted from a slide supplied by CMU.

The instruction pointer is referred to as %rip. We'll see its use (in addressing) a bit later in the course.

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*0x0100	0xf400
0x80(%rdx, 2)	2*0xf000 + 0x80	0x1e080

Adapted from a slide from CMU

Address-Computation Instruction

- **leaq src, dest**
 - src is address mode expression
 - set dest 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 $x + k^y$
 - » $k = 1, 2, 4, \text{ or } 8$
- **Example**

```
long mul12(long x)
{
    return x*12;
}
```

Converted to ASM by compiler:

```
        # x is in %rdi
leaq (%rdi,%rdi,2), %rax  # t <- x+x*2
shlq $2, %rax              # return t<<2
```

Adapted from a slide supplied by CMU.

Note that a function returns a value by putting it in %rax.

32-bit Operands on x86-64

- **addl 4(%rdx), %eax**
 - memory address must be 64 bits
 - operands (in this case) are 32-bit
 - » result goes into %eax
 - lower half of %rax
 - upper half is filled with zeroes

On x86-64, for instructions with 32-bit (long) operands that produce 32-bit results going into a register, the register must be a 32-bit register; the higher-order 32 bits are filled with zeroes.

Quiz 1

What value ends up in %ecx?

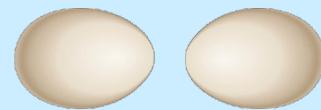
```
movq $1000,%rax  
movq $1,%rbx  
movl 2(%rax,%rbx,2),%ecx
```

- a) 0x04050607
- b) 0x07060504
- c) 0x06070809
- d) 0x09080706

1009:	0x09
1008:	0x08
1007:	0x07
1006:	0x06
1005:	0x05
1004:	0x04
1003:	0x03
1002:	0x02
1001:	0x01
1000:	0x00

%rax → 1000:

Hint:



Swapxy for Ints

```
struct xy {  
    int x;  
    int y;  
}  
void swapxy(struct xy *p){  
    int temp = p->x;  
    p->x = p->y;  
    p->y = temp;  
}
```

```
swap:  
    movl (%rdi), %eax  
    movl 4(%rdi), %edx  
    movl %edx, (%rdi)  
    movl %eax, 4(%rdi)  
    ret
```

- Pointers are 64 bits
- What they point to are 32 bits

Here we have a simple function that swaps the two components of a structure that's passed to it. (Assume that %rdi contains the argument.) Note that even though we use the "e" form of the registers to hold the (32-bit) data, we need the "r" form to hold the 64-bit addresses.

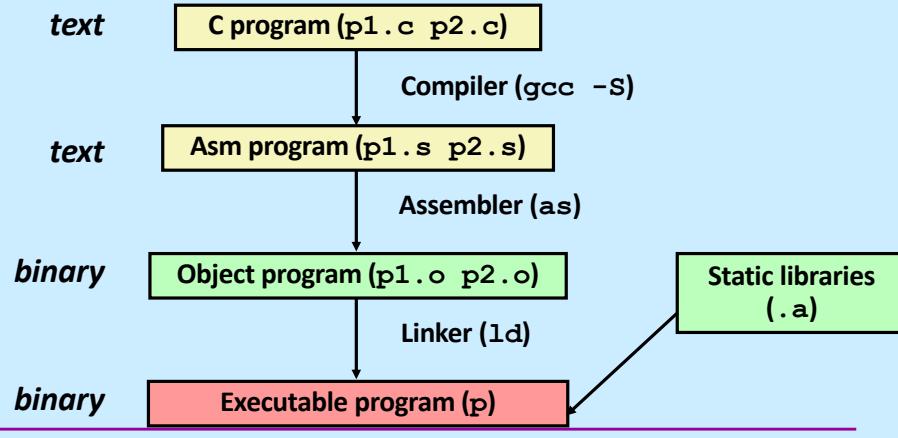
Bytes

- **Each register has a byte version**
 - e.g., %r10: %r10b; see earlier slide for x86 registers
- **Needed for byte instructions**
 - `movb (%rax, %rsi), %r10b`
 - sets **only** the low byte in %r10
 - » other seven bytes are unchanged
- **Alternatives**
 - `movzbq (%rax, %rsi), %r10`
 - » copies byte to low byte of %r10
 - » zeroes go to higher bytes
 - `movsbq (%rax, %rsi), %r10`
 - » copies byte to low byte of %r10
 - » sign is extended to all higher bits

Note that using single-byte versions of registers has a different behavior from using 4-byte versions of registers. Putting data into the latter using **mov** causes the upper bytes to be zeroed. But with the byte versions, putting data into them does not affect the upper bytes.

Turning C into Object Code

- Code in files `p1.c p2.c`
- Compile with command: `gcc -O1 p1.c p2.c -o p`
 - » use basic optimizations (`-O1`)
 - » put resulting binary in file `p`



Supplied by CMU.

Note that normally one does not ask gcc to produce assembler code, but instead it compiles C code directly into machine code (producing an object file). Note also that the gcc command actually invokes a script; the compiler (also known as gcc) compiles code into either assembler code or machine code; if necessary, the assembler (as) assembles assembler code into object code. The linker (ld) links together multiple object files (containing object code) into an executable program.

Example

```
long ASum(long *a, unsigned long size) {
    long i, sum = 0;
    for (i=0; i<size; i++)
        sum += a[i];
    return sum;
}

int main() {
    long array[3] = {2,117,-6};
    long sum = ASum(array, 3);
    return sum;
}
```

Assembler Code

```
ASum:  
    testq    %rsi, %rsi  
    je       .L4  
    movq    %rdi, %rax  
    leaq    (%rdi,%rsi,8), %rcx  
    movl    $0, %edx  
.L3:  
    addq    (%rax), %rdx  
    addq    $8, %rax  
    cmpq    %rcx, %rax  
    jne     .L3  
.L1:  
    movq    %rdx, %rax  
    ret  
.L4:  
    movl    $0, %edx  
    jmp     .L1
```

```
main:  
    subq    $32, %rsp  
    movq    $2, (%rsp)  
    movq    $117, 8(%rsp)  
    movq    $-6, 16(%rsp)  
    movq    %rsp, %rdi  
    movl    $3, %esi  
    call    ASum  
    addq    $32, %rsp  
    ret
```

Here is the assembler code produced by gcc from the C code of the previous slide. Note that the two `movl` instructions are ostensibly just copying a zero into `%edx` (a 32-bit register). However, what it's really doing is copying a zero in the 64-bit register `%rdx` (the 64-bit extension of `%edx`). This happens because, as we discussed earlier, when one copies something into a 32-bit register, the high-order 32 bits of its extension is filled with 0s.

Object Code

Code for ASum

```
0x1125 <ASum>:  
 0x48  
 0x85  
 0xf6  
 0x74  
 0x1c  
 0x48  
 0x89  
 0xf8  
 0x48  
 0x8d  
 0x0c  
 0xf7  
 .  
 .  
 .  
 • Total of 39 bytes  
 • Each instruction:  
   1, 2, or 3 bytes  
 • Starts at address  
   0x1125
```

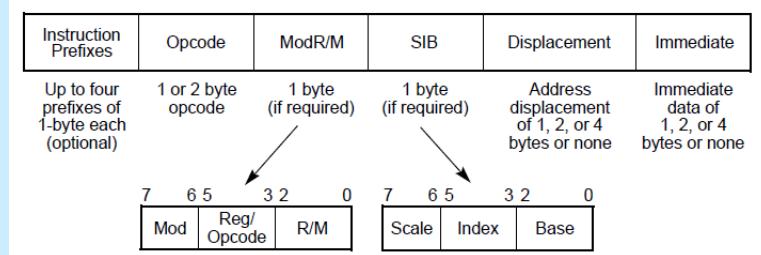
- **Assembler**
 - translates .s into .o
 - binary encoding of each instruction
 - nearly complete image of executable code
 - missing linkages between code in different files
- **Linker**
 - resolves references between files
 - combines with static run-time libraries
 - » e.g., code for printf
 - some libraries are *dynamically linked*
 - » linking occurs when program begins execution

Adapted from a slide supplied by CMU.

The lefthand column shows the object code produced by gcc. This was produced either by assembling the code of the previous slide, or by compiling the C code of the slide before that.

Suppose that all we have is the object code – we don't have the assembler code and the C code. Can we translate for object code to assembler code? (This is known as disassembling.)

Instruction Format



This is taken from Intel 64 and IA-32 Architecture Software Developer's Manual, Volume 2: Instruction Set Reference; Order Number 325462-043US, Intel Corporation, May 2012 (<https://software.intel.com/en-us/download/intel-64-and-ia-32-architectures-sdm-combined-volumes-1-2a-2b-2c-2d-3a-3b-3c-3d-and-4>)

The point of the slide is that the instruction format is complicated, too much so for a human to deal with. Which is why we talk about **disassemblers** in the next slides.

Disassembling Object Code

Disassembled

```
0000000000001125 <ASum>:  
1125: 48 85 f6          test    %rsi,%rsi  
1128: 74 1c             je     1146 <ASum+0x21>  
112a: 48 89 f8          mov     %rdi,%rax  
112d: 48 8d 0c f7          lea     (%rdi,%rsi,8),%rcx  
1131: ba 00 00 00 00          mov     $0x0,%edx  
1136: 48 03 10          add    (%rax),%rdx  
1139: 48 83 c0 08          add    $0x8,%rax  
113d: 48 39 c8          cmp    %rcx,%rax  
1140: 75 f4             jne    1136 <ASum+0x11>  
1142: 48 89 d0          mov    %rdx,%rax  
1145: c3                 retq     
1146: ba 00 00 00 00          mov    $0x0,%edx  
114b: eb f5             jmp    1142 <ASum+0x1d>
```

- **Disassembler**

`objdump -d <file>`

– useful tool for examining object code

– produces approximate rendition of assembly code

Adapted from a slide supplied by CMU.

objdump's rendition is approximate because it assumes everything in the file is assembly code, and thus translates data into (often really weird) assembly code. Also, it leaves off the suffix at the end of each instruction, assuming it can be determined from context.

Alternate Disassembly

Object

```
0x1125:  
0x48  
0x85  
0xf6  
0x74  
0x1c  
0x48  
0x89  
0xf8  
0x48  
0x8d  
0x0c  
0xf7  
. . .
```

Disassembled

```
Dump of assembler code for function ASum:  
0x1125 <+0>: test    %rsi,%rsi  
0x1128 <+3>: je     0x1146 <ASum+33>  
0x112a <+5>: mov    %rdi,%rax  
0x112d <+8>: lea     (%rdi,%rsi,8),%rcx  
0x1131 <+12>: mov    $0x0,%edx  
...
```

- Within gdb debugger

```
gdb <file>  
disassemble ASum  
– disassemble the ASum object code  
x/39xb ASum  
– examine the 39 bytes starting at ASum
```

Adapted from a slide supplied by CMU.

The "x/35xb" directive to gdb says to examine (first x, meaning print) 35 bytes (b) viewed as hexadecimal (second x) starting at ASum.

The format of the output has been modified a bit from what gdb actually produces, so that it will fit on the slide. In the dump of the assembler code, the addresses are actually 64-bit values (in hex) – we have removed the leading 0s. The output of the x command is actually displayed in multiple columns. We have reorganized it into one column.

How Many Instructions are There?

- We cover ~30
- Implemented by Intel:
 - 80 in original 8086 architecture
 - 7 added with 80186
 - 17 added with 80286
 - 33 added with 386
 - 6 added with 486
 - 6 added with Pentium
 - 1 added with Pentium MMX
 - 4 added with Pentium Pro
 - 8 added with SSE
 - 8 added with SSE2
 - 2 added with SSE3
 - 14 added with x86-64
 - 10 added with VT-x
 - 2 added with SSE4a
- Total: 198
- Doesn't count:
 - floating-point instructions
 - » ~100
 - SIMD instructions
 - » lots
 - AMD-added instructions
 - undocumented instructions

The source for this is http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/X86_instruction_listings, viewed on 6/20/2017, which came with the caveat that it may be out of date. While it's likely that more instructions have been added since then, we won't be covering them in 33!

Some Arithmetic Operations

- Two-operand instructions:

Format	Computation	
addl	Src,Dest	Dest = Dest + Src
subl	Src,Dest	Dest = Dest - Src
imull	Src,Dest	Dest = Dest * Src
shll	Src,Dest	Dest = Dest << Src
sar1	Src,Dest	Dest = Dest >> Src
shrl	Src,Dest	Dest = Dest >> Src
xorl	Src,Dest	Dest = Dest ^ Src
andl	Src,Dest	Dest = Dest & Src
orl	Src,Dest	Dest = Dest Src

– watch out for argument order!

Supplied by CMU.

Note that for shift instructions, the Src operand (which is the size of the shift) must either be an immediate operand or be a designator for a one-byte register (e.g., %cl – see the slide on general-purpose registers for IA32).

Also note that what's given in the slide are the versions for 32-bit operands. There are also versions for 8-, 16-, and 64-bit operands, with the "l" replaced with the appropriate letter ("b", "s", or "q").

The imul instruction performs a signed multiply; the mul instruction performs an unsigned multiply. This is one of the few instances in which different instructions are required for signed and unsigned integers. The reason for this is to make certain, for the signed case, that the sign of the result is correct (see slides VIII-18 and VIII-19).

Some Arithmetic Operations

- **One-operand Instructions**

incl	Dest	= Dest + 1
decl	Dest	= Dest – 1
negl	Dest	= – Dest
notl	Dest	= ~Dest

- **See textbook for more instructions**

- **See Intel documentation for even more**

Arithmetic Expression 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;
}
```

```
arith:
    leal  (%rdi,%rsi), %eax
    addl  %edx, %eax
    leal  (%rsi,%rsi,2), %edx
    shll  $4, %edx
    leal  4(%rdi,%rdx), %ecx
    imull %ecx, %eax
    ret
```

Supplied by CMU, but converted to x86-64.

Understanding arith

```
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;
}
```

%rdx	z
%rsi	y
%rdi	x

```
leal (%rdi,%rsi), %eax
addl %edx, %eax
leal (%rsi,%rsi,2), %edx
shll $4, %edx
leal 4(%rdi,%rdx), %ecx
imull %ecx, %eax
ret
```

Supplied by CMU, but converted to x86-64.

Understanding arith

```
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;
}
```

%rdx		z
%rsi		y
%rdi		x

```
leal (%rdi,%rsi), %eax    # eax = x+y      (t1)
addl %edx, %eax            # eax = t1+z      (t2)
leal (%rsi,%rsi,2), %edx  # edx = 3*y       (t4)
shll $4, %edx              # edx = t4*16     (t4)
leal 4(%rdi,%rdx), %ecx   # ecx = x+4+t4   (t5)
imull %ecx, %eax          # eax *= t5      (rval)
ret
```

Supplied by CMU, but converted to x86-64.

By convention, the first three arguments to a function are placed in registers **rdi**, **rsi**, and **rdx**, respectively. Note that, also by convention, functions put their return values in register **eax/rax**.

Observations about arith

```
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;
}
```

- Instructions in different order from C code
- Some expressions might require multiple instructions
- Some instructions might cover multiple expressions

```
leal (%rdi,%rsi), %eax    # eax = x+y      (t1)
addl %edx, %eax            # eax = t1+z      (t2)
leal (%rsi,%rsi,2), %edx  # edx = 3*y       (t4)
shll $4, %edx              # edx = t4*16     (t4)
leal 4(%rdi,%rdx), %ecx   # ecx = x+4+t4   (t5)
imull %ecx, %eax          # eax *= t5      (rval)
ret
```

Supplied by CMU, but converted to x86-64.

Another Example

```
int logical(int x, int y)
{
    int t1 = x^y;
    int t2 = t1 >> 17;
    int mask = (1<<13) - 7;
    int rval = t2 & mask;
    return rval;
}
```

$$2^{13} = 8192, 2^{13} - 7 = 8185$$

```
xorl %esi, %edi      # edi = x^y          (t1)
sarl $17, %edi        # edi = t1>>17      (t2)
movl %edi, %eax       # eax = edi
andl $8185, %eax      # eax = t2 & mask (rval)
```

Supplied by CMU, but converted to x86-64.

Processor State (x86-64, Partial)

	%rax	%eax		
	%rbx	%ebx		
a4	%rcx	%ecx		
a3	%rdx	%edx		
a2	%rsi	%esi		
a1	%rdi	%edi		
	%rsp	%esp		
	%rbp	%ebp		
	%rip		CF	ZF
			SF	OF
	condition codes			

Supplied by CMU, but converted to x86-64.

%rip is the instruction-pointer register. It contains the address of the next instruction to be executed. CF, ZF, SF, and OF are the condition codes, referring to carry flag, zero flag, sign flag, and overflow flag.

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 (think of it as side effect) by arithmetic operations**

example: *addl/addq Src,Dest* $\leftrightarrow t = a+b$

CF set if carry out from most significant bit or borrow (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 lea instruction**

Condition Codes (Explicit Setting: Compare)

- **Explicit setting by compare instruction**

`cmpl/cmpq src2, src1`

compares `src1:src2`

`cmpl b,a` like computing $a-b$ without setting destination

CF set if carry out from most significant bit or borrow (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**

`testl/testq src2, src1`
`testl 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

Supplied by CMU.

Note that if $a \& b < 0$, what is meant is that the most-significant bit is 1.

Reading Condition Codes

- **SetX instructions**

- set single byte based on combinations of condition codes

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)

Supplied by CMU.

These operations allow one to set a byte depending on the values of the condition codes.

Some of these conditions aren't all that obvious. Suppose we are comparing A with B ($\text{cmpl } B, A$). Thus the condition codes would be set as if we computed $A - B$. For signed arithmetic, If $A \geq B$, then the true result is non-negative. But some issues come up because of two's complement arithmetic with a finite word size. If overflow does not occur, then the sign flag should not be set. If overflow does occur (because A is positive, B is negative, and $A - B$ is a large positive number that does not fit in an int), then even though the true result should have been positive, the actual result is negative. So, if both the sign flag and the overflow flag are not set, we know that $A \geq B$. If both flags are set, we know the true result of the subtraction is positive and thus $A \geq B$. But if one of the two flags is set and the other isn't, then A must be less than B. Thus if $\sim(SF^OF)$ is 1, we know that $A \geq B$. If ZF (zero flag) is set, we know that $A == B$. Thus for $A > B$, ZF is not set.

For unsigned arithmetic, if $A > B$, then subtracting B from A doesn't require a borrow and thus CF is not set; and since A is not equal to B, ZF is not set. If $A < B$, then subtracting B from A requires a borrow and thus CF is set.

The other cases can be worked out similarly.

Reading Condition Codes (Cont.)

- **SetX instructions:**
 - set single byte based on combination of condition codes
- **Uses byte registers**
 - does not alter remaining 7 bytes
 - typically use `movzbl` to finish job

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

%rax	%eax	%ah	%al
------	------	-----	-----

Body

```
cmpl %esi, %edi      # compare x : y
setg %al              # %al = x > y
movzbl %al, %eax     # zero rest of %eax/%rax
```

Supplied by CMU, but converted to x86-64.

Recall that the first argument to a function is passed in `%rdi` (`%edi`) and the second in `%rsi` (`%esi`).

Jumping

- **jX instructions**
 - Jump to different part of program depending on 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)

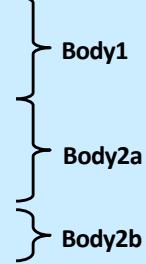
Supplied by CMU.

See the notes for slide 28.

Conditional-Branch Example

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

```
absdiff:
    movl %esi, %eax
    cmpl %esi, %edi
    jle .L6
    subl %eax, %edi
    movl %edi, %eax
    jmp .L7
.L6:
    subl %edi, %eax
.L7:
    ret
```



x in %edi

y in %esi

Supplied by CMU, but converted to x86-64.

The function computes the absolute value of the difference between its two arguments.

Conditional-Branch Example (Cont.)

```
int goto_ad(int x, int y)
{
    int result;
    if (x <= y) goto Else;
    result = x-y;
    goto Exit;
Else:
    result = y-x;
Exit:
    return result;
}
```

```
absdiff:
    movl %esi, %eax
    cmpl %esi, %edi
    jle .L6
    subl %eax, %edi
    movl %edi, %eax
    jmp .L7
.L6:
    subl %edi, %eax
.L7:
    ret
```

The assembly code is annotated with curly braces on the right side, grouping the instructions into three distinct regions:

- Body1**: Contains the first five lines of assembly code.
- Body2a**: Contains the next two lines of assembly code.
- Body2b**: Contains the final line of assembly code.

- C allows “goto” as means of transferring control
 - closer to machine-level programming style
- Generally considered bad coding style

Supplied by CMU, but converted to x86-64.

General Conditional-Expression Translation

C Code

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

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

Goto Version

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

- **Test** is expression returning integer
 - == 0 interpreted as false
 - ≠ 0 interpreted as true
- Create separate code regions for **then** and **else** expressions
- Execute appropriate one

Supplied by CMU.

C's conditional expression, as shown in the slide, is sometimes useful, but often results in really difficult-to-read code.

(There's an "International Obfuscated C Code Contest" (IOCCC) that awards prizes to those who use valid syntax to write the most difficult-to-understand implementations of simple functions. The conditional expression features prominently in winners' code. See <https://www.ioccc.org/.>)

“Do-While” Loop Example

C Code

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

Goto Version

```
int pcount_do(unsigned x)
{
    int 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 either to continue looping or to exit loop

Supplied by CMU.

“Do-While” Loop Compilation

Goto Version

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

Registers: %edi x %eax result	movl \$0, %eax # result = 0 .L2: # loop: movl %edi, %ecx andl \$1, %ecx # t = x & 1 addl %ecx, %eax # result += t shr1 %edi # x >= 1 jne .L2 # if !0, goto loop
--	---

Supplied by CMU.

Note that the condition codes are set as part of the execution of the **shr1** instruction.

General “Do-While” Translation

C Code

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

- **Body:** {

```
    Statement1;  
    Statement2;  
    ...  
    Statementn;  
}
```

- **Test returns integer**

= 0 interpreted as false
≠ 0 interpreted as true

Goto Version

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

Supplied by CMU.

“While” Loop Example

C Code

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

Goto Version

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

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

Supplied by CMU.

General “While” Translation

While version

```
while (Test)
  Body
```



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:
```

Supplied by CMU.

“For” Loop Example

C Code

```
#define WSIZE 8*sizeof(int)
int pcount_for(unsigned x) {
    int i;
    int result = 0;
    for (i = 0; i < WSIZE; i++) {
        unsigned mask = 1 << i;
        result += (x & mask) != 0;
    }
    return result;
}
```

- Is this code equivalent to other versions?

“For” Loop Form

General Form

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

Body

```
for (i = 0; i < WSIZE; i++) {  
    unsigned mask = 1 << i;  
    result += (x & mask) != 0;  
}
```

Init

```
i = 0
```

Test

```
i < WSIZE
```

Update

```
i++
```

Body

```
{  
    unsigned mask = 1 << i;  
    result += (x & mask) != 0;  
}
```

Supplied by CMU.

“For” Loop → While Loop

For Version

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

While Version

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

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Supplied by CMU.

“For” Loop → ... → Goto

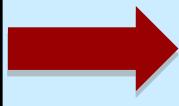
For Version

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

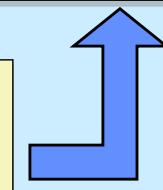


While Version

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



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



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

“For” Loop Conversion Example

C Code

```
#define WSIZE 8*sizeof(int)
int pcount_for(unsigned x) {
    int i;
    int result = 0;
    for (i = 0; i < WSIZE; i++) {
        unsigned mask = 1 << i;
        result += (x & mask) != 0;
    }
    return result;
}
```

Initial test can be optimized away

Goto Version

```
int pcount_for_gt(unsigned x) {
    int i;
    int result = 0;           Init
    i = 0;                   !Test
    if (!(i < WSIZE))
        goto done;
loop:                      Body
{
    unsigned mask = 1 << i;
    result += (x & mask) != 0;
}
i++;                      Update
if (i < WSIZE)            Test
    goto loop;
done:
    return result;
}
```

Supplied by CMU.