

System Programming

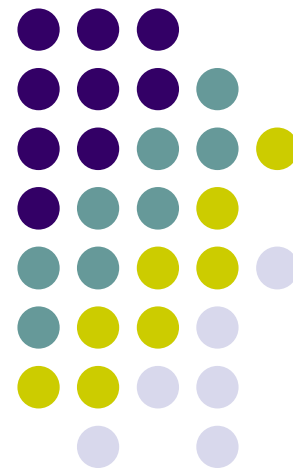
06. Machine-Level Programming I: Basics (ch 3.1-3.5)- part1

2019. Fall

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Data Science Lab @ PNU



Roadmap



C:

```
car *c = malloc(sizeof(car));  
c->miles = 100;  
c->gals = 17;  
float mpg = get_mpg(c);  
free(c);
```

Java:

```
Car c = new Car();  
c.setMiles(100);  
c.setGals(17);  
float mpg =  
    c.getMPG();
```

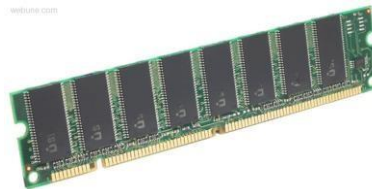
Assembly
language:

```
get_mpg:  
    pushq    %rbp  
    movq     %rsp, %rbp  
    ...  
    popq     %rbp  
    ret
```

Machine
code:

```
0111010000011000  
100011010000010000000010  
10001001111000010  
110000011111101000011111
```

Computer
system:



Memory & data
Integers & floats
Machine code & C
x86 assembly
Procedures & stacks
Arrays & structs
Memory & caches
Processes
Virtual memory
Memory allocation
Java vs. C

OS:



Machine Programming I: Basics



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

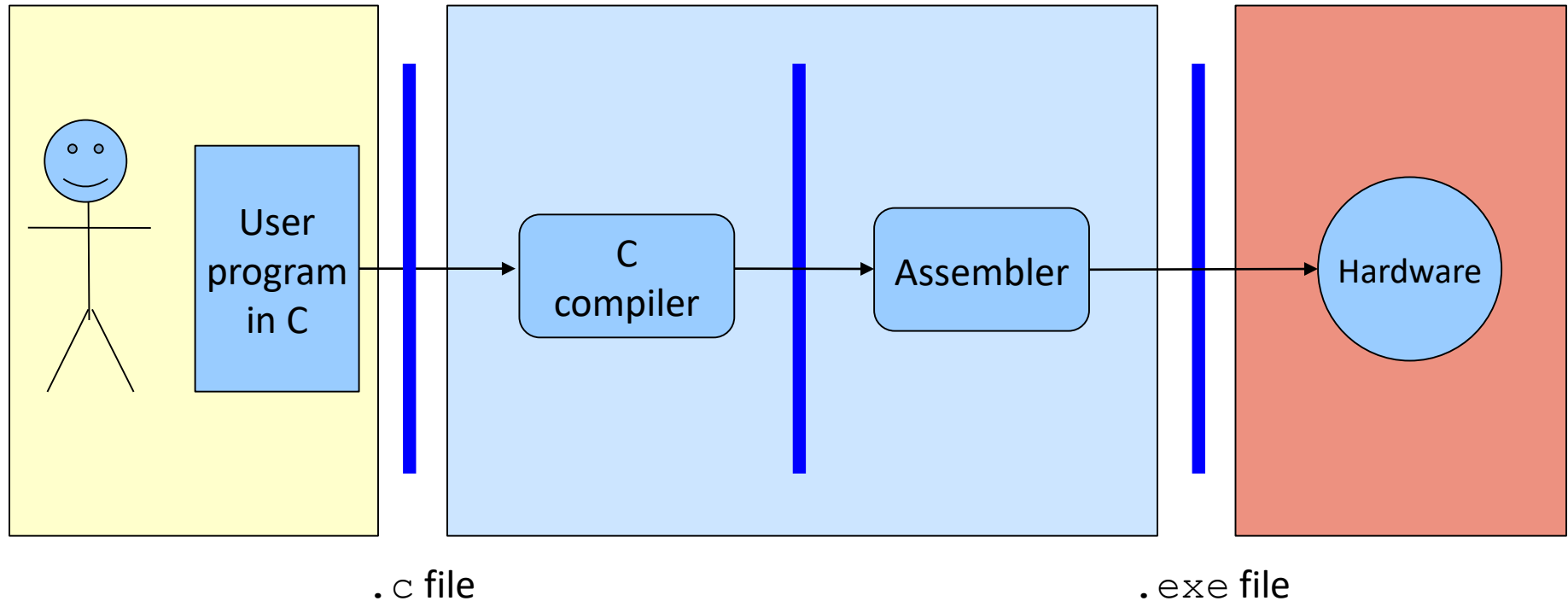
Translation



Code Time

Compile Time

Run Time



What makes programs run fast(er)?

Translation Impacts Performance



- The time required to execute a program depends on:
 - **The program** (as written in C, for instance)
 - **The compiler**: what set of assembler instructions it translates the C program into
 - **The instruction set architecture** (ISA): what set of instructions it makes available to the compiler
 - **The hardware implementation**: how much time it takes to execute an instruction

What should the HW/SW interface contain?

HW Interface Affects Performance



Source code

Different applications or algorithms

Compiler

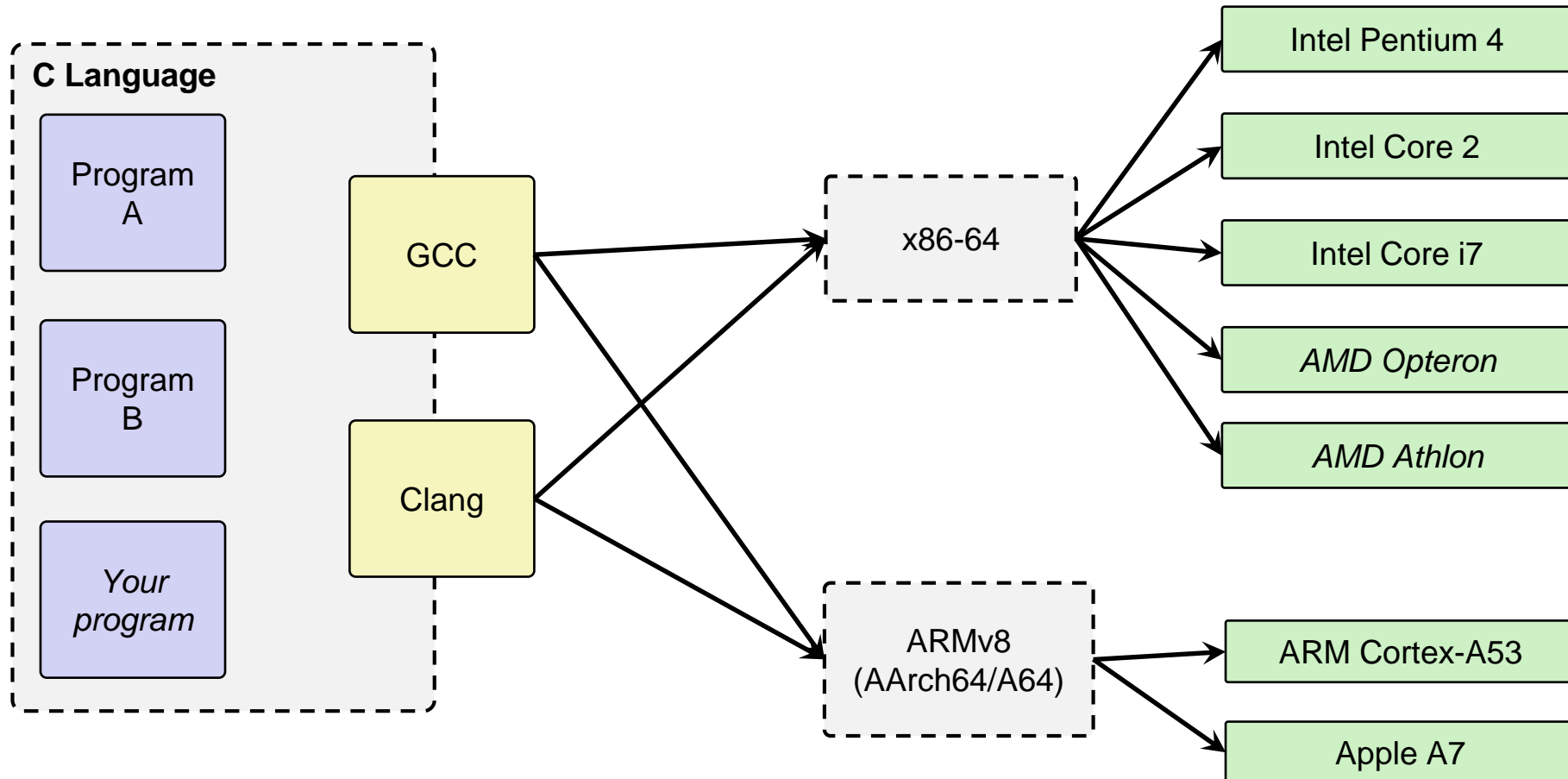
Perform optimizations, generate instructions

Architecture

Instruction set

Hardware

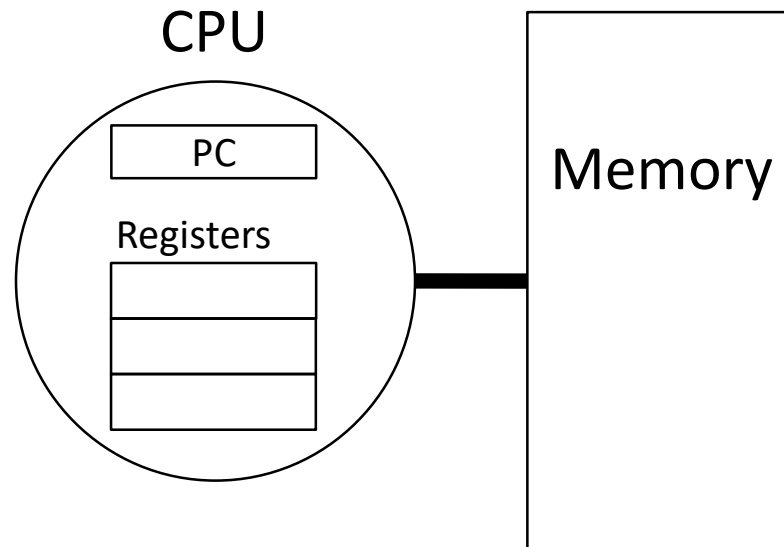
Different implementations



Instruction Set Architectures



- The ISA defines:
 - The system's state (e.g. registers, memory, program counter)
 - The instructions the CPU can execute
 - The effect that each of these instructions will have on the system state



Instruction Set Philosophies



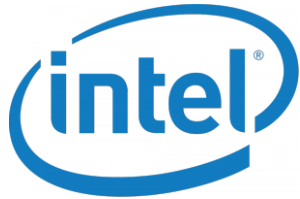
- *Complex Instruction Set Computing (CISC):*
 - Add more and more elaborate and specialized instructions as needed
 - Lots of tools for programmers to use, but hardware must be able to handle all instructions
 - x86-64 is CISC, but only a small subset of instructions encountered with Linux programs
- *Reduced Instruction Set Computing (RISC):*
 - Keep instruction set small and regular
 - Easier to build fast hardware
 - Let software do the complicated operations by composing simpler ones

General ISA Design Decisions



- Instructions
 - What instructions are available? What do they do?
 - How are they encoded? **Instructions are data!**
- Registers
 - How many registers are there?
 - How wide are they? **Size of a word**
- Memory
 - How do you specify a memory location? **Different ways to build up an address**

Mainstream ISAs



x86

| | |
|-------------------|---|
| Designer | Intel, AMD |
| Bits | 16-bit, 32-bit and 64-bit |
| Introduced | 1978 (16-bit), 1985 (32-bit), 2003 (64-bit) |
| Design | CISC |
| Type | Register-memory |
| Encoding | Variable (1 to 15 bytes) |
| Endianness | Little |

Macbooks & PCs
(Core i3, i5, i7, M)

[x86-64 Instruction Set](#)



ARM architectures

| | |
|-------------------|--|
| Designer | ARM Holdings |
| Bits | 32-bit, 64-bit |
| Introduced | 1985; 31 years ago |
| Design | RISC |
| Type | Register-Register |
| Encoding | AArch64/A64 and AArch32/A32 use 32-bit instructions, T32 (Thumb-2) uses mixed 16- and 32-bit instructions. ARMv7 user-space compatibility ^[1] |
| Endianness | Bi (little as default) |

Smartphone-like devices
(iPhone, iPad, Raspberry Pi)

[ARM Instruction Set](#)



MIPS

| | |
|-------------------|-------------------------|
| Designer | MIPS Technologies, Inc. |
| Bits | 64-bit (32→64) |
| Introduced | 1981; 35 years ago |
| Design | RISC |
| Type | Register-Register |
| Encoding | Fixed |
| Endianness | Bi |

Digital home & networking
equipment
(Blu-ray, PlayStation 2)

[MIPS Instruction Set](#)

X86 ISA



- Processors that implement the x86 ISA completely dominate the server, desktop and laptop markets
- **Evolutionary design**
 - Backwards compatible up until 8086, introduced in 1978
 - Added more features as time goes on
- **Complex instruction set computer (CISC)**
 - Many different instructions with many different formats
 - But, only small subset encountered with Linux programs
 - (as opposed to Reduced Instruction Set Computers (RISC), which use simpler instructions)

Intel x86 Evolution: Milestones



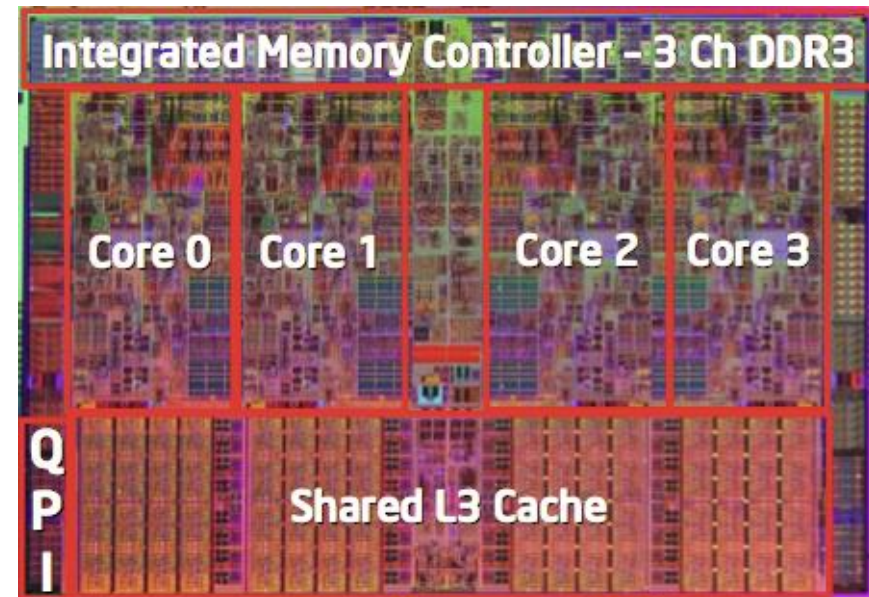
| <i>Name</i> | <i>Date</i> | <i>Transistors</i> | <i>MHz</i> |
|---|-------------|--------------------|------------|
| ● 8086 | 1978 | 29K | 5-10 |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">● First 16-bit Intel processor. Basis for IBM PC & DOS● 1MB address space | | | |
| ● 386 | 1985 | 275K | 16-33 |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">● First 32 bit Intel processor , referred to as IA32● Added “flat addressing”, capable of running Unix | | | |
| ● Pentium 4E | 2004 | 125M | 2800-3800 |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">● First 64-bit Intel x86 processor, referred to as x86-64 | | | |
| ● Core 2 | 2006 | 291M | 1060-3500 |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">● First multi-core Intel processor | | | |
| ● Core i7 | 2008 | 731M | 1700-3900 |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">● Four cores (our shark machines) | | | |

Intel x86 Processors, cont.



● Machine Evolution

| | | |
|---------------|------|------|
| ● 386 | 1985 | 0.3M |
| ● Pentium | 1993 | 3.1M |
| ● Pentium/MMX | 1997 | 4.5M |
| ● PentiumPro | 1995 | 6.5M |
| ● Pentium III | 1999 | 8.2M |
| ● Pentium 4 | 2001 | 42M |
| ● Core 2 Duo | 2006 | 291M |
| ● Core i7 | 2008 | 731M |



● Added Features

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

2015 State of the Art



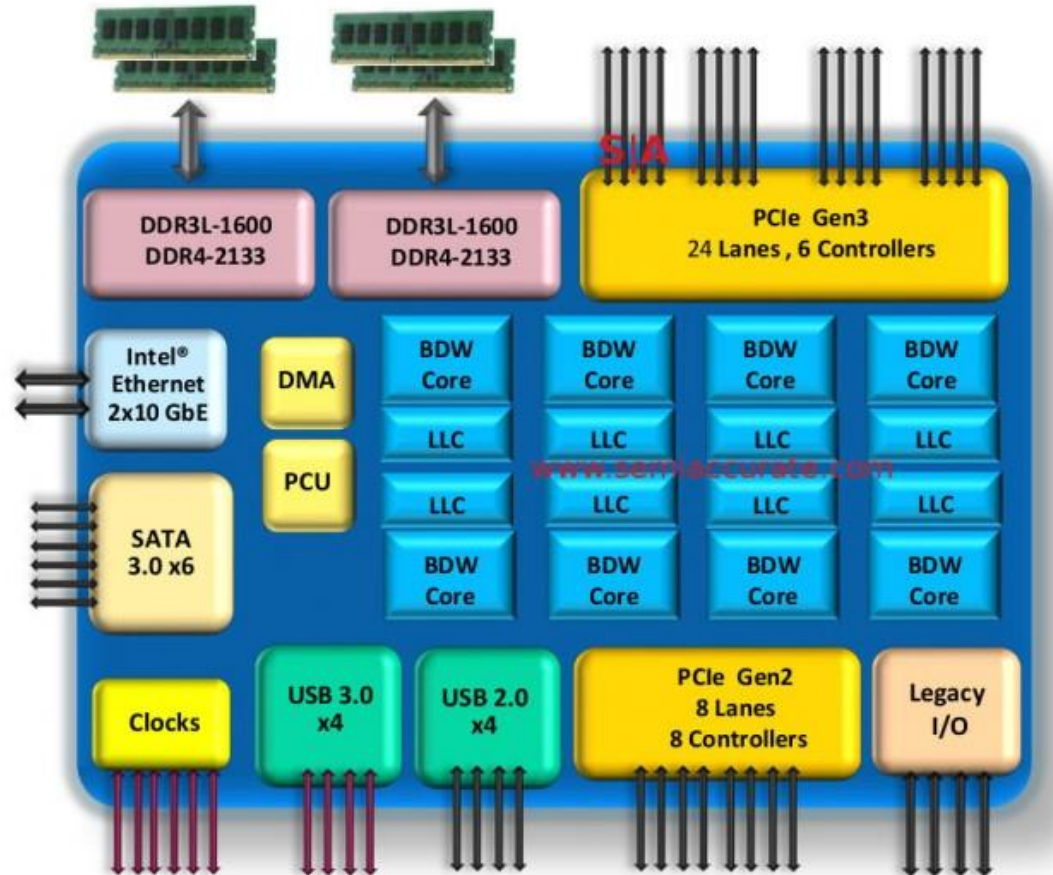
- Core i7 Broadwell 2015

- Desktop Model

- 4 cores
- Integrated graphics
- 3.3-3.8 GHz
- 65W

- Server Model

- 8 cores
- Integrated I/O
- 2-2.6 GHz
- 45W



x86 Clones: Advanced Micro Devices (AMD)



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

Intel's Transition to 64-Bit



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

Our Coverage



- IA32
 - The traditional x86
- x86-64
 - The standard
 - `$ gcc hello.c`
 - `$ gcc -m64 hello.c`
- Presentation
 - Book covers x86-64
 - Web aside on IA32
 - We will only cover x86-64

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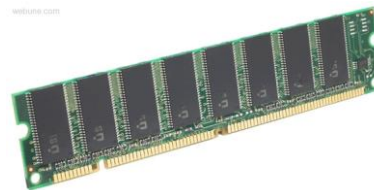
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Definitions



- **Architecture:** (also ISA: instruction set architecture) The parts of a processor design that one needs to understand or write assembly/machine code.
 - Examples: instruction set specification, registers.
- **Microarchitecture:** Implementation of the architecture.
 - Examples: cache sizes and core frequency.
- **Code Forms:**
 - **Machine Code:** The byte-level programs that a processor executes
 - **Assembly Code:** A text representation of machine code
- Is cache size “architecture”?
- How about CPU frequency?
- And number of registers?

Detour: Instruction Set Design Issues



- Where are operands stored?
 - registers, memory, stack, accumulator
- How many explicit operands are there?
 - 0, 1, 2, or 3
- How is the operand location specified?
 - register, immediate, indirect, . . .
- What type & size of operands are supported?
 - byte, int, float, double, string, vector. . .
- What operations are supported?
 - add, sub, mul, move, compare . . .

Detour: Evolution of Instruction Sets



Single Accumulator (EDSAC 1950, Maurice Wilkes)

Accumulator + Index Registers
(Manchester Mark I, IBM 700 series 1953)

**Separation of Programming Model
from Implementation**

High-level Language Based
(B5000 1963)

Concept of a Family
(IBM 360 1964)

General Purpose Register Machines

Complex Instruction Sets
(Vax, Intel 432 1977-80)

CISC
Intel x86, Pentium

Load/Store Architecture
(CDC 6600, Cray 1 1963-76)

RISC
(MIPS, Sparc, HP-PA, IBM RS6000, PowerPC . . . 1987)

Detour: Classifying ISAs



Accumulator (before 1960, e.g. 68HC11):

| | | |
|-----------|-------|--|
| 1-address | add A | $\text{acc} \leftarrow \text{acc} + \text{mem}[A]$ |
|-----------|-------|--|

Stack (1960s to 1970s):

| | | |
|-----------|-----|--|
| 0-address | add | $\text{tos} \leftarrow \text{tos} + \text{next}$ |
|-----------|-----|--|

Memory-Memory (1970s to 1980s):

| | | |
|-----------|-------------|--|
| 2-address | add A, B | $\text{mem}[A] \leftarrow \text{mem}[A] + \text{mem}[B]$ |
| 3-address | add A, B, C | $\text{mem}[A] \leftarrow \text{mem}[B] + \text{mem}[C]$ |

Register-Memory (1970s to present, e.g. 80x86):

| | | |
|-----------|------------|------------------------------------|
| 2-address | add R1, A | $R1 \leftarrow R1 + \text{mem}[A]$ |
| | load R1, A | $R1 \leftarrow \text{mem}[A]$ |

Register-Register (Load/Store) (1960s to present, e.g. MIPS):

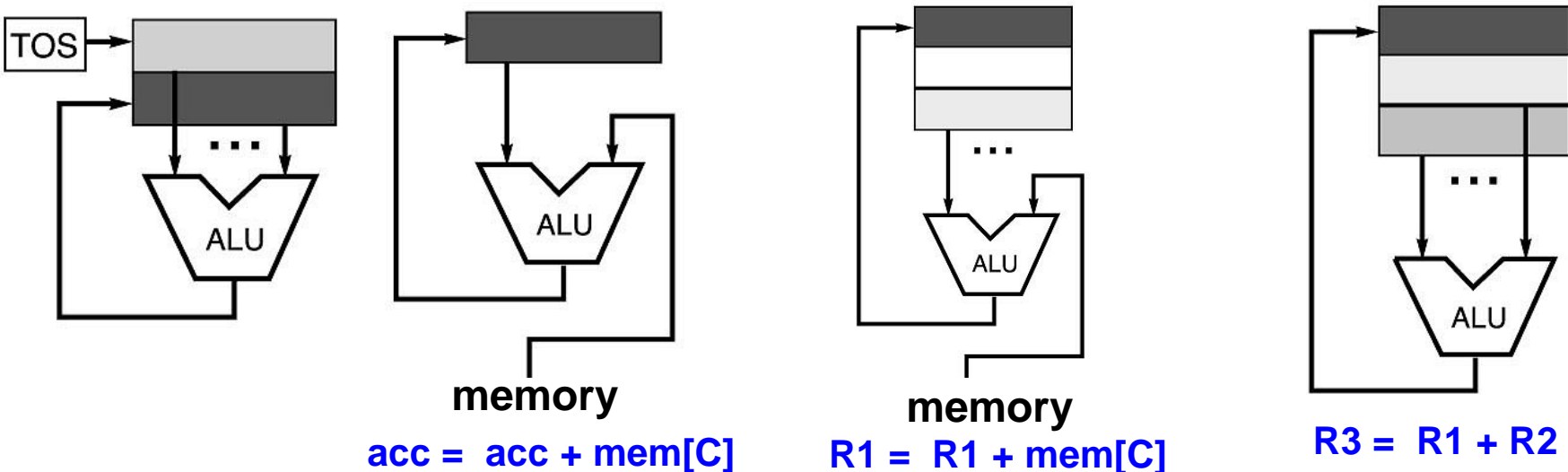
| | | |
|-----------|----------------|--------------------------------|
| 3-address | add R1, R2, R3 | $R1 \leftarrow R2 + R3$ |
| | load R1, R2 | $R1 \leftarrow \text{mem}[R2]$ |
| | store R1, R2 | $\text{mem}[R1] \leftarrow R2$ |



Detour: Code Sequence $C = A + B$ for Four Instruction Sets



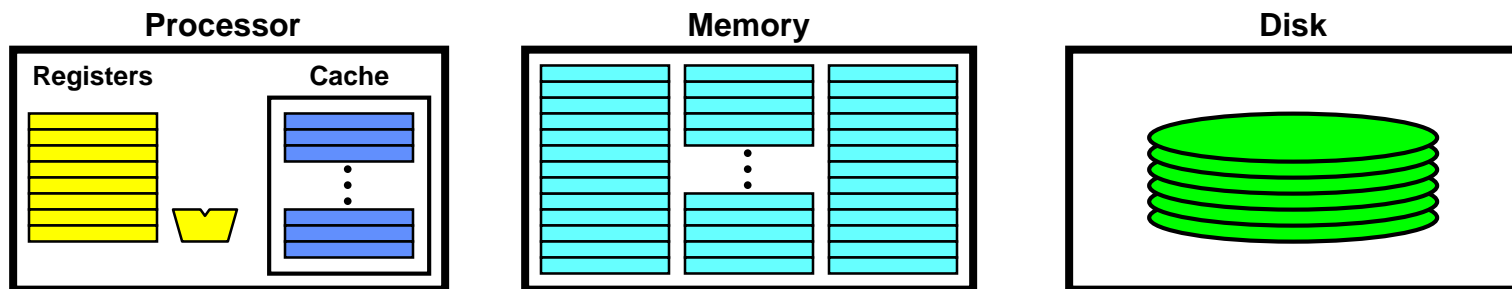
| Stack | Accumulator | Register (register-memory) | Register (load-store) |
|--|---|---|---|
| Push A Push B Add Pop C | Load A Add B Store C | Load R1, A Add R1, B Store C, R1 | Load R1, A Load R2, B Add R3, R1, R2 Store C, R3 |



Detour: More About General Purpose Registers

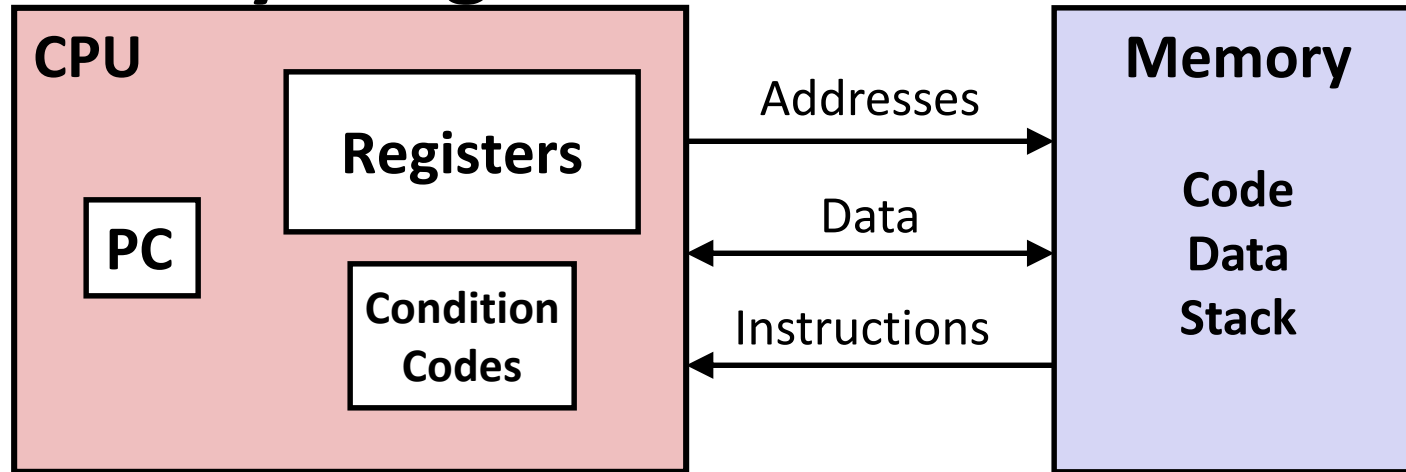


- Why do almost all new architectures use GPRs?
 - Registers are much faster than memory (even cache)
 - Register values are available immediately
 - When memory isn't ready, processor must wait ("stall")
 - Registers are convenient for variable storage
 - Compiler assigns some variables just to registers
 - More compact code since small fields specify registers (compared to memory addresses)





Assembly Programmer's View



- **Programmer-Visible State**

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

- **Memory**

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

Assembly Characteristics: Data Types



- Integral data of 1, 2, 4, or 8 bytes
 - Data values
 - Addresses (untyped pointers)
- Floating point data of 4, 8, 10 or 2x8 or 4x4 or 8x2
 - Different registers for those (*e.g.* `%xmm1`, `%ymm2`)
 - Come from *extensions to x86* (SSE, AVX, ...)
- No aggregate types such as arrays or structures
 - Just contiguously allocated bytes in memory
- Two common syntaxes
 - “AT&T”: used by our course, slides, textbook, gnu tools, ...
 - “Intel”: used by Intel documentation, Intel tools, ...
 - Must know which you’re reading

Roadmap



C:

```
car *c = malloc(sizeof(car));  
c->miles = 100;  
c->gals = 17;  
float mpg = get_mpg(c);  
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Java:

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Car c = new Car();  
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```

Memory & data
Integers & floats
x86 assembly
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language:

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get_mpg:  
    pushq    %rbp  
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    ...  
    popq     %rbp  
    ret
```

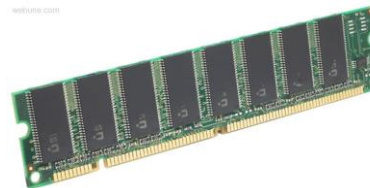
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```

OS:



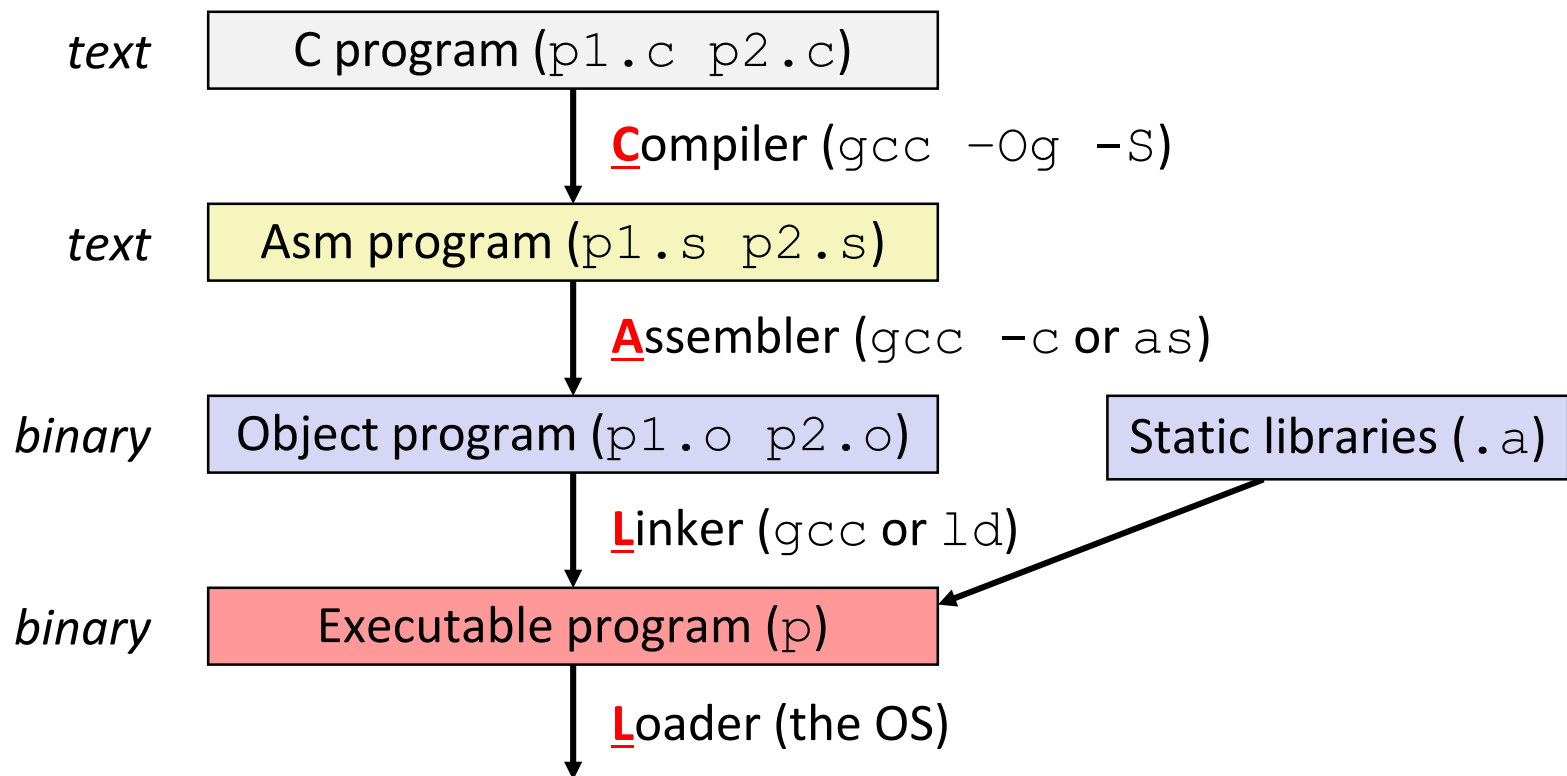
Computer
system:



Building an Executable from a C File



- Code in files `p1.c` `p2.c`
- Compile with command: `gcc -Og p1.c p2.c -o p`
 - Put resulting machine code in file `p`
- Run with command: `./p`



Compiler



- **Input:** Higher-level language code (*e.g.* C, Java)
 - `foo.c`
- **Output:** Assembly language code (*e.g.* x86, ARM, MIPS)
 - `foo.s`
- First there's a preprocessor step to handle `#directives`
 - Macro substitution, plus other specialty directives
 - If curious/interested: <http://tiggcc.ticalc.org/doc/cpp.html>
- Compiler is super complex, whole courses devoted to these!
- Compiler optimizations
 - “Level” of optimization specified by capital ‘O’ flag (*e.g.* `-Og`, `-O3`)
 - Options: <https://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs/gcc/Optimize-Options.html>

Compiling Into Assembly



- C Code (sum.c)

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

- x86-64 assembly (gcc -Og -S sum.c)

- Generates file sum.s (see <https://godbolt.org/g/pQUhIZ>)

```
sumstore(long, long, long*):  
    addq    %rdi, %rsi  
    movq    %rsi, (%rdx)  
    ret
```

Warning: You may get different results with other versions of gcc and different compiler settings

Assembler



- **Input:** Assembly language code (*e.g.* x86, ARM, MIPS)
 - `foo.s`
- **Output:** Object files (*e.g.* ELF, COFF)
 - `foo.o`
 - Contains *object code* and *information tables*
- Reads and uses *assembly directives*
 - *e.g.* `.text`, `.data`, `.quad`
 - x86: https://docs.oracle.com/cd/E26502_01/html/E28388/eoiyg.html
- Produces “machine language”
 - Does its best, but object file is *not* a completed binary
- Example: `gcc -c foo.s`

Producing Machine Language



- **Simple cases:** arithmetic and logical operations, shifts, etc.
 - All necessary information is contained in the instruction itself
- What about the following?
 - Conditional jump
 - Accessing static data (*e.g.* global var or jump table)
 - `call`
- **Addresses and labels are problematic because final executable hasn't been constructed yet!**
 - So how do we deal with these in the meantime?

Object File Information Tables



- **Symbol Table** holds list of “items” that may be used by other files
 - *Non-local labels* – function names for `call`
 - *Static Data* – variables & literals that might be accessed across files
- **Relocation Table** holds list of “items” that this file needs the address of later (currently undetermined)
 - Any *label* or piece of *static data* referenced in an instruction in this file
 - Both internal and external
- Each file has its own symbol and relocation tables

Object File Format



- 1) object file header: size and position of the other pieces of the object file
 - 2) text segment: the machine code
 - 3) data segment: data in the source file (binary)
 - 4) relocation table: identifies lines of code that need to be “handled”
 - 5) symbol table: list of this file’s labels and data that can be referenced
 - 6) debugging information
- More info: ELF format
 - http://www.skyfree.org/linux/references/ELF_Format.pdf

Linker

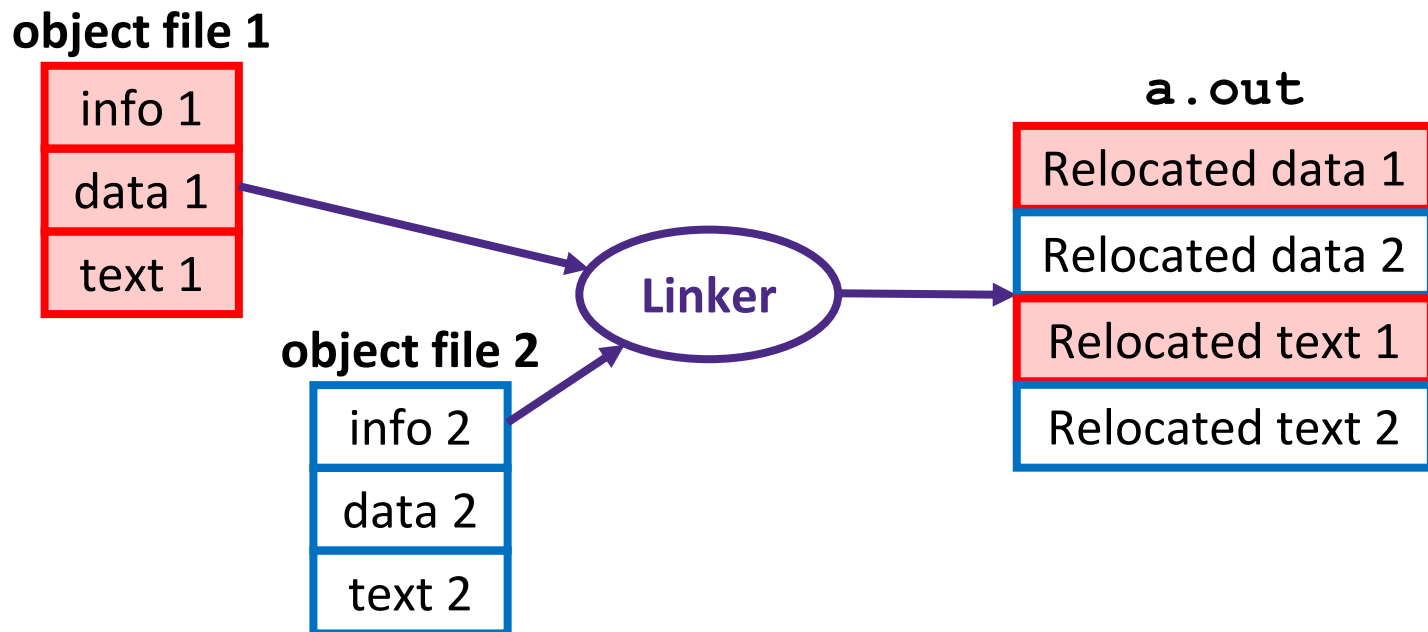


- **Input:** Object files (e.g. ELF, COFF)
 - `foo.o`
- **Output:** executable binary program
 - `a.out`
- Combines several object files into a single executable (*linking*)
- Enables separate compilation/assembling of files
 - Changes to one file do not require recompiling of whole program

Linking



- 1) Take text segment from each `.o` file and put them together
- 2) Take data segment from each `.o` file, put them together, and concatenate this onto end of text segments
- 3) Resolve References
 - Go through Relocation Table; handle each entry



Machine Instruction Example



```
*dest = t;
```

● C Code

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

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

● Assembly

- Move 8-byte value to memory
 - Quad words in x86-64 parlance
- Operands:
 - `t:` Register `%rax`
 - `dest:` Register `%rbx`
 - `*dest:` Memory `M[%rbx]`

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

● Object Code

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

Object Code



Code for sumstore

0x0400536:

0x48

0x01

0xfe

0x48

0x89

0x32

0xc3

- Total of 7 bytes
- Each instruction
1, 3, or 5 bytes
(not shown)
- Starts at address
0x0400536

Disassembling Object Code



- Disassembled:

| | | | | |
|-------------------|-------------|------|--------------|--|
| 00000000000400536 | <sumstore>: | | | |
| 400536: | 48 01 fe | add | %rdi,%rsi | |
| 400539: | 48 89 32 | mov | %rsi, (%rdx) | |
| 40053c: | c3 | retq | | |

address of instruction object code bytes (hex) interpreted assembly instructions

- Disassembler** (`objdump -d sum`)

- Useful tool for examining object code (`man 1 objdump`)
- Analyzes bit pattern of series of instructions
- Produces approximate rendition of assembly code
- Can run on either a `.out` (complete executable) or `.o` file

Alternate Disassembly in GDB



```
$ gdb sum
(gdb) disassemble sumstore
Dump of assembler code for function sumstore:
    0x0000000000400536 <+0>:      add    %rdi,%rsi
    0x0000000000400539 <+3>:      mov    %rsi, (%rdx)
    0x000000000040053c <+6>:      retq
End of assembler dump.

(gdb) x/7bx sumstore
0x400536 <sumstore>: 0x48    0x01    0xfe    0x48    0x89    0x32    0xc3
```

- Within gdb debugger (gdb sum):
 - disassemble sumstore: disassemble procedure
 - x/7bx sumstore: show 7 bytes starting at sumstore⁴²

What Can be Disassembled?



```
% objdump -d WINWORD.EXE
```

```
WINWORD.EXE:      file format pei-i386
```

```
No symbols in "WINWORD.EXE".
```

```
Disassembly of section .text:
```

```
30001000 <.text>:
```

```
30001000:
```

```
30001001:
```

```
30001003:
```

```
30001005:
```

```
3000100a:
```

**Reverse engineering forbidden by
Microsoft End User License Agreement**

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

Loader



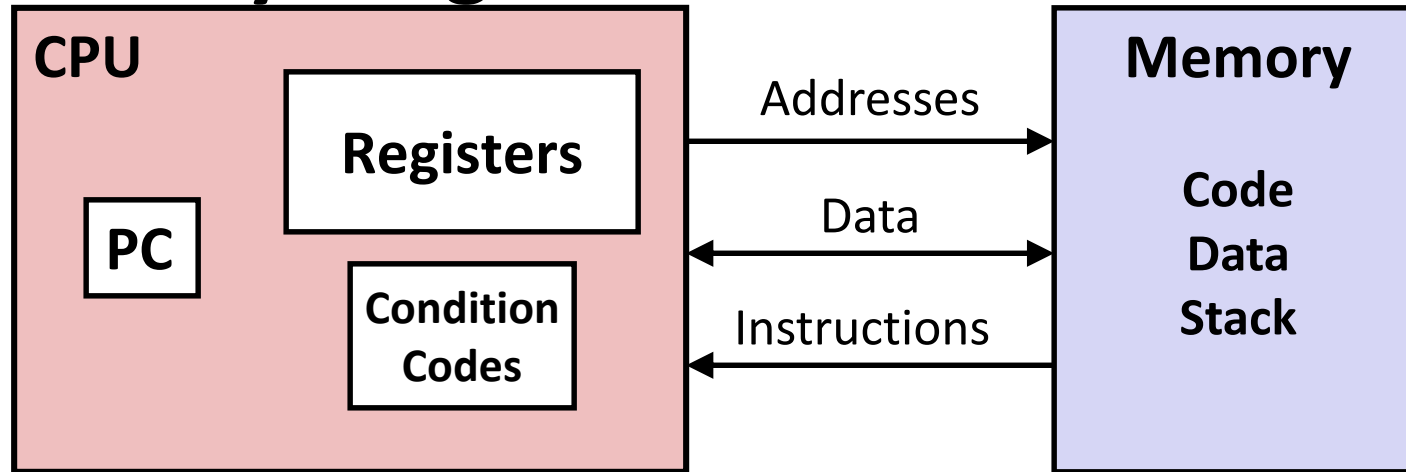
- **Input:** executable binary program, command-line arguments
 - `./a.out arg1 arg2`
- **Output:** <program is run>
- Loader duties primarily handled by OS/kernel
 - More about this when we learn about processes
- Memory sections (Instructions, Static Data, Stack) are set up
- Registers are initialized

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 - Just contiguously allocated bytes in memory
- Two common syntaxes
 - “AT&T”: used by our course, slides, textbook, gnu tools, ...
 - “Intel”: used by Intel documentation, Intel tools, ...
 - Must know which you’re reading

Assembly Characteristics: Operations



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

What is a Register?



- A location in the CPU that stores a small amount of data, which can be accessed very quickly (once every clock cycle)
- Registers have *names*, not *addresses*
 - In assembly, they start with `%` (e.g. `%rsi`)
- Registers are at the heart of assembly programming
 - They are a precious commodity in all architectures, but *especially* x86

x86-64 Integer Registers – 64 bits wide



| | |
|-------------------|-------------------|
| <code>%rax</code> | <code>%eax</code> |
| <code>%rbx</code> | <code>%ebx</code> |
| <code>%rcx</code> | <code>%ecx</code> |
| <code>%rdx</code> | <code>%edx</code> |
| <code>%rsi</code> | <code>%esi</code> |
| <code>%rdi</code> | <code>%edi</code> |
| <code>%rsp</code> | <code>%esp</code> |
| <code>%rbp</code> | <code>%ebp</code> |

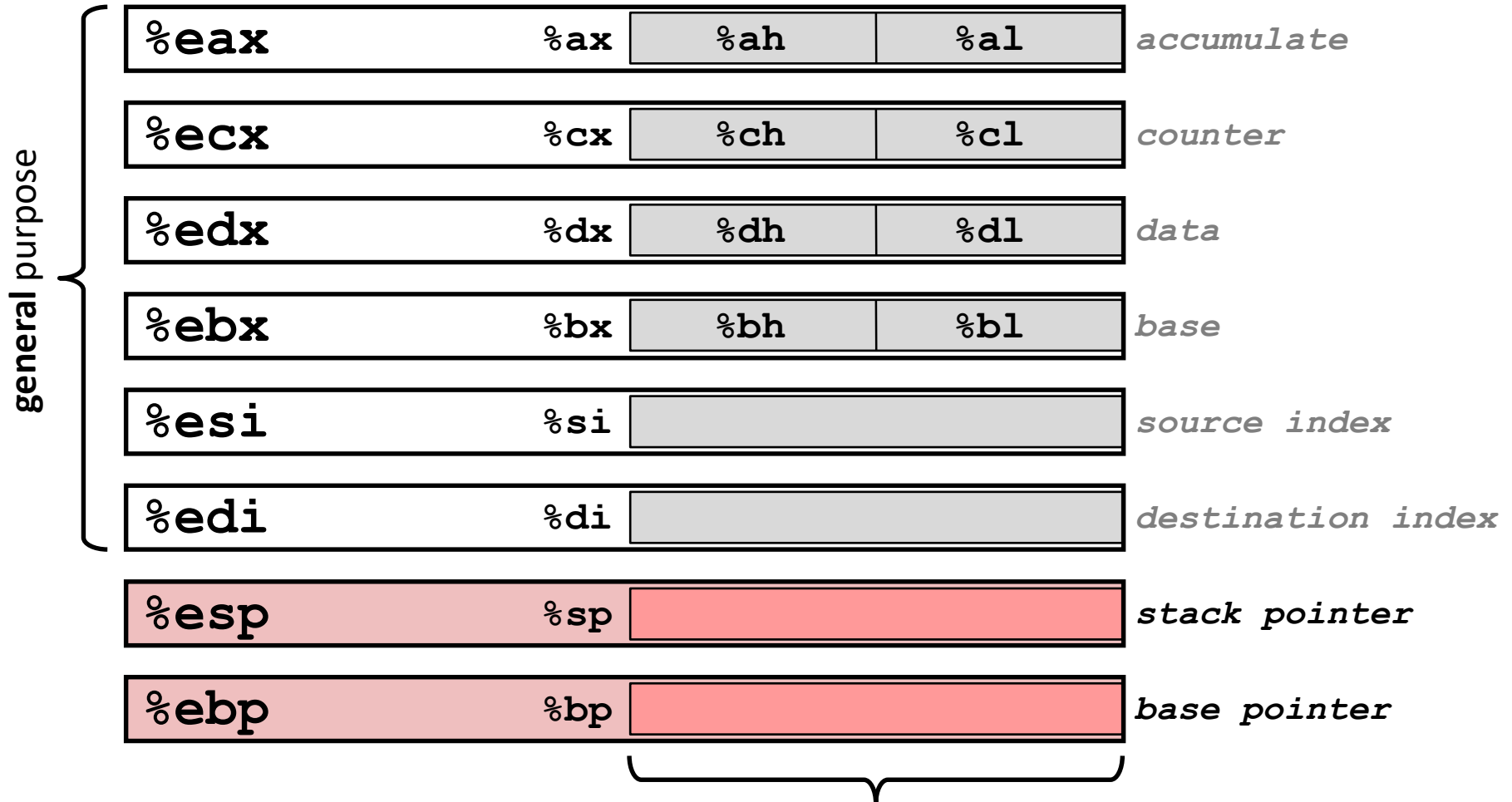
| | |
|-------------------|--------------------|
| <code>%r8</code> | <code>%r8d</code> |
| <code>%r9</code> | <code>%r9d</code> |
| <code>%r10</code> | <code>%r10d</code> |
| <code>%r11</code> | <code>%r11d</code> |
| <code>%r12</code> | <code>%r12d</code> |
| <code>%r13</code> | <code>%r13d</code> |
| <code>%r14</code> | <code>%r14d</code> |
| <code>%r15</code> | <code>%r15d</code> |

- Can reference low-order 4 bytes (also low-order 1 & 2 bytes)⁵⁰

Some History: IA32 Registers – 32 bits wide



(mostly obsolete)



16-bit virtual registers
(backwards compatibility)

Name Origin
(mostly obsolete) 51

Memory vs. Registers



| | | |
|---|-----|--------------------------|
| ● Addresses | vs. | Names |
| ● 0x7FFFD024C3DC | | %rdi |
| ● Big | vs. | Small |
| ● ~ 8 GiB | | (16 x 8 B) = 128 B |
| ● Slow | vs. | Fast |
| ● ~50-100 ns | | sub-nanosecond timescale |
| ● Dynamic | vs. | Static |
| ● Can “grow” as needed while program runs | | fixed number in hardware |

Three Basic Kinds of Instructions



- **Transfer data between memory and register**

- **Load** data from memory into register

- $\%reg = Mem[address]$

- **Store** register data into memory

- $Mem[address] = \%reg$

Remember: memory
is indexed just like
an array[] of bytes!

- **Perform arithmetic function on register or memory data**

- $c = a + b;$ $z = x \ll y;$ $i = h \& g;$

- **Control flow: what instruction to execute next**

- Unconditional jumps to/from procedures
- Conditional branches

Operand types



- **Immediate:** Constant integer data
 - Examples: `$0x400`, `$-533`
 - Like C literal, but prefixed with ``$'`
 - Encoded with 1, 2, 4, or 8 bytes *depending on the instruction*
- **Register:** 1 of 16 integer registers
 - Examples: `%rax`, `%r13`
 - But `%rsp` reserved for special use
 - Others have special uses for particular instructions
- **Memory:** Consecutive bytes of memory at a computed address
 - Simplest example: `(%rax)`
 - Various other “address modes”

`%rax`

`%rcx`

`%rdx`

`%rbx`

`%rsi`

`%rdi`

`%rsp`

`%rbp`

`%rN`

Moving Data



- General form: `mov_ source, destination`
 - Missing letter (`_`) specifies size of operands
 - Note that due to backwards-compatible support for 8086 programs (16-bit machines!), “word” means 16 bits = 2 bytes in x86 instruction names
 - Lots of these in typical code
- ❖ `movb src, dst`
 - Move 1-byte “**byte**”
- ❖ `movw src, dst`
 - Move 2-byte “**word**”
- ❖ `movl src, dst`
 - Move 4-byte “**long word**”
- ❖ `movq src, dst`
 - Move 8-byte “**quad word**”

movq Operand Combinations



| | Source | Dest | Src, Dest | C Analog |
|------|--------|------|---------------------|----------------|
| movq | Imm | Reg | movq \$0x4, %rax | var_a = 0x4; |
| | | Mem | movq \$-147, (%rax) | *p_a = -147; |
| | Reg | Reg | movq %rax, %rdx | var_d = var_a; |
| | | Mem | movq %rax, (%rdx) | *p_d = var_a; |
| | Mem | Reg | movq (%rax), %rdx | var_d = *p_a; |

Cannot do memory-memory transfer with a single instruction

How would you do it?

Question



- Which of the following statements is TRUE?
 - A. For `float f`, `(f+2 == f+1+1)` always returns TRUE
 - B. The width of a “word” is part of a system’s *architecture* (as opposed to *microarchitecture*)
 - C. Having more registers increases the performance of the hardware, but decreases the performance of the software
 - D. Mem to Mem (src to dst) is the only disallowed operand combination in x86-64

Summary



- x86-64 is a complex instruction set computing (CISC) architecture
- **Registers** are named locations in the CPU for holding and manipulating data
 - x86-64 uses 16 64-bit wide registers
- Assembly operands include immediates, registers, and data at specified memory locations
- History of Intel processors and architectures
 - Evolutionary design leads to many quirks and artifacts
- Assembly Basics: Registers, operands, move
 - The x86-64 move instructions cover wide range of data movement forms

Q&A

