IA32 Instruction Set

- General Purpose Register instruction set architecture
 - many general registers
 - there are also some registers with specific uses
- Basic Instruction types:
 - arithmetic/logical
 - add, subtract, and, or, etc.
 - control
 - changing which instruction executes next
 - data movement
 - copying values from one location to another.

Operands

- There are three ways of specifying operands:
 - register: operand value is contained in a register
 - immediate: operand value is a constant that is encoded as part of the instruction
 - memory: operand value is in memory
- Integer operands can be 8, 16 or 32 bits.
- Floating point operands can be 32, 64 or 80 bits.

Integer Registers

Goofy names:

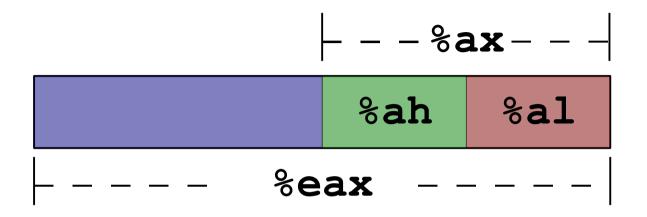
```
%eax %ebx %ecx %edx %esi %edi %ebp %esp
```

- These are all 32 bit registers.
- %ebp and %esp are special
 - there are special uses for these, they are typically not used as general purpose registers.

8, 16 and 32 bit registers

- Instead of providing different registers for different operand sizes, there are names for smaller parts of some of the 32 bit registers.
 - this provides compatibility with x86 (16 bit) instruction set.
 - Keep in mind that whenever you change an 8 bit register you are also changing the corresponding 32 bit register!

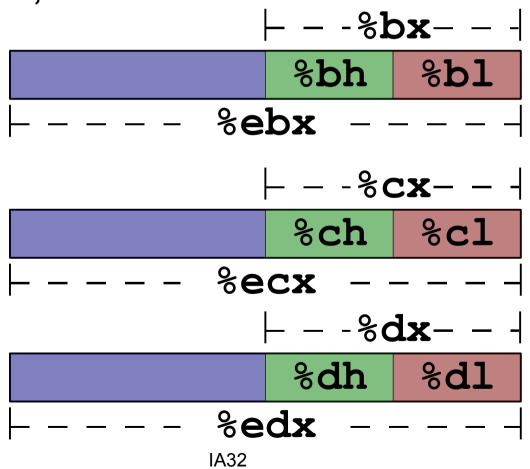
Registers %eax, %ax, %ah, %al



- %eax: 32 bit register
- %ax: 16 bit register, Is 16 bits of %eax
- %al: 8 bit register, Is byte of %eax, %ax
- %ah: 8 bit register, ms byte of %ax also second ls byte of %eax

%ebx, %ecx, %edx

 We also have names for parts of registers %ebx, %ecx, %edx:



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First Instruction: add1

addl srcreg, dstreg

- treats the contents of both registers as 32 bit integers.
- adds the contents of the two registers and stores the result in dstreg.
- the original value in dstreg is overwritten!
- examples:

```
add %ebx, %eax add %edx, %esi
```

add machine code

- There are 8 different possible registers
 - it takes 3 bits to encode a choice from 8 different things
- add uses two registers
 - need at least 6 bits to specify the operands
- There must also be some bits to distinguish and add instruction from other instructions...

We are not that concerned with machine code, but it's good to keep track of what needs to be encoded in an instruction.

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Adding bytes (8 bit registers)

addb srcreg, dstreg

- treats the contents of both registers as 8 bit integers.
- adds the contents of the two registers and stores the result in dstreg.
- the original value in **dstreg** is overwritten!
- example:

add %bh, %al

this changes the Is byte of register %eax!

Assemblers

- An assembler is a program that converts from assembly language to machine code.
- Some IA32 assemblers allow you to do this:

```
add %eax, %ebx Same as addl %eax, %ebx
```

```
add %al, %al — Same as addb %al, %al
```

 The assembler figures out the operand size from the register names used.

Another Instruction: and

and srcreg, dstreg

- bitwise logical and of the contents of the two registers and stores the result in *dstreg*.
- the original value in dstreg is overwritten!
- examples:

```
and %ebx, %eax
and %edx, %esi
```

corresponds to the C & operator.

Subtraction

sub srcreg, dstreg

- treats the registers as 32 bit integers, and subtracts srcreg from dstreg, stores the result in dstreg.

```
dstreg = dstreg - srcreg
```

- the original value in dstreg is overwritten!
- examples:

```
sub %ebx, %eax
```

sub %edx, %esi

Other arithmetic/logic instructions

Same format as add, sub:

op srcreg, dstreg

imul1: integer multiplication

or: bitwise logical or

xor: bitwise logical exclusive or

Shift Instructions

```
sal srcreq, dstreq
  shift arithmetic left
  dstreg = dstreg << srcreg</pre>
sar srcreg, dstreq
  shift arithmetic right: sign bit extended
  dstreg = dstreg >> srcreg
shr srcreg, dstreg
  shift logical right: shift in 0's
  dstreg = dstreg >> srcreg
```

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Exercise: IA32 Assembly program

- We can build a sequence of assembly instructions to perform some computation.
- We have not yet established how registers initially get a value, for now we assume that they have some value.
- Compute

$$y = 2y - x + z$$

Assume:

%eax holds y, %ebx holds x, %ecx holds z

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One Solution

y = 2y - x + z

y: %eax

x: %ebx

Z: %ecx

add %eax, %eax sub %ebx, %eax add %ecx, %eax

eax =
$$2y$$

eax = $2y - x$
eax = $2y - x + z$



Possibly Wrong Solution

$$y = 2y - x + z$$

y: %eax

X: %ebx

Z: %ecx

add %eax, %ecx
$$\#$$
 ecx = y + z \longrightarrow add %ecx, %eax $\#$ eax = 2y + z

sub %ebx, %eax
$$\#$$
 eax = 2y + z - x

The problem is that %ecx no longer holds the value of z!

Quiz: What does this do?

xor %eax, %eax

IA32 integer Arithmetic

Do add and sub instructions deal with signed or unsigned integers?

YES!

Recall that the actual bit manipulations necessary for signed/unsigned addition are identical!

Subtraction is really just addition:

$$x - y = x + (-y)$$

Immediate Operands

- An *immediate* operand is a constant (a number)
 - the actual bit representation is part of the machine code for the instruction.
- In IA32 assembly language, immediate operands are prefixed with '\$'
- Default is decimal, you can also use hex using the same syntax as with C.

\$100

\$0x80

\$-35

Immediate operand usage

op srcreg, dstreg

- You can use an immediate operand in the place of srcreg, but not dstreg
 - it doesn't make sense to say something like:
 add %eax, \$24 since this is saying: 24 = 24 + eax
- Some examples:

```
add $1, %eax # %eax = %eax + 1
sub $5, %bh # %bh = %bh - 5
```

Another quiz: what does this do?

Machine code issues

- For instructions that include an immediate operand, the machine code must include the immediate value.
 - depending on the value, it may require 8, 16 or 32
 bits in the actual machine code for the instruction.
 - just saying...

Another quiz? Already?

```
xor %ebx, %ebx
or %eax, %ebx
and $0x80, %ebx
```

Moving data: mov instruction

mov src, dstreg

- moves data specified by src to the destination register dstreg.
 - really copies the data.
 - If src is a register it is not modified or emptied
 - there is no such thing as emptied, every register always has some value!

mov examples

%al won't hold a 16 bit value

Quiz-mania

$$y = y - (x^2 + 3)$$

Solution-mania

 $y = y - (x^2 + 3)$ X: %ebx

mov %ebx, %ecx	# %ecx = x (a copy)
imull %ecx,%ecx	$\# %ecx = x^2$
add \$3, %ecx	$\#$ %ecx = x^2+3
sub %ecx, %eax	# $%eax = y - (x^2 + 3)$

Note that using %ecx to hold the intermediate value means that %ebx is still x. Sometimes this is important (sometimes it isn't – perhaps we don't need x for anything else). **IA32**

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Memory Operands

- Many instructions support using operands that are located in memory.
 - we always need to specify the address of the operand.
- There are a number of ways to specify addresses:
 - as an absolute address (a number, like 204)
 - using a register as a pointer the register holds the address.
 - using some simple arithmetic to compute the address (add two registers, add a number to a register, etc.)

Addressing modes

- An addressing mode is a mechanism for specifying an address.
 - absolute: the address is provided directly
 - register: the address is provided indirectly, but specifying where (what register) the address can be found.
 - displacement: the address is computed by adding a displacement to the contents of a register
 - indexed: the address is computed by adding a displacement to the contents of a register, and then adding in the contents of another register times some constant.

Absolute addressing mode

Actual address is a constant embedded in the program:

 adds the contents of memory location 824 to register %ebx and stores the result in %ebx

```
%ebx = %ebx + Mem[824] ← This is not assembly, just a way of describing what is happening
```

Recall that if we want to add 824 to %ebx, we have to say: add \$824, %ebx

Register Addressing Mode

Address is found in a register:

```
add (%eax), %ebx
```

 adds the contents of memory location whose address is in register %eax to register %ebx and stores the result in %ebx

```
%ebx = %ebx + Mem[%eax]
```

 The parens around the register tell the assembler to use the register as a pointer.

Displacement Addressing Mode

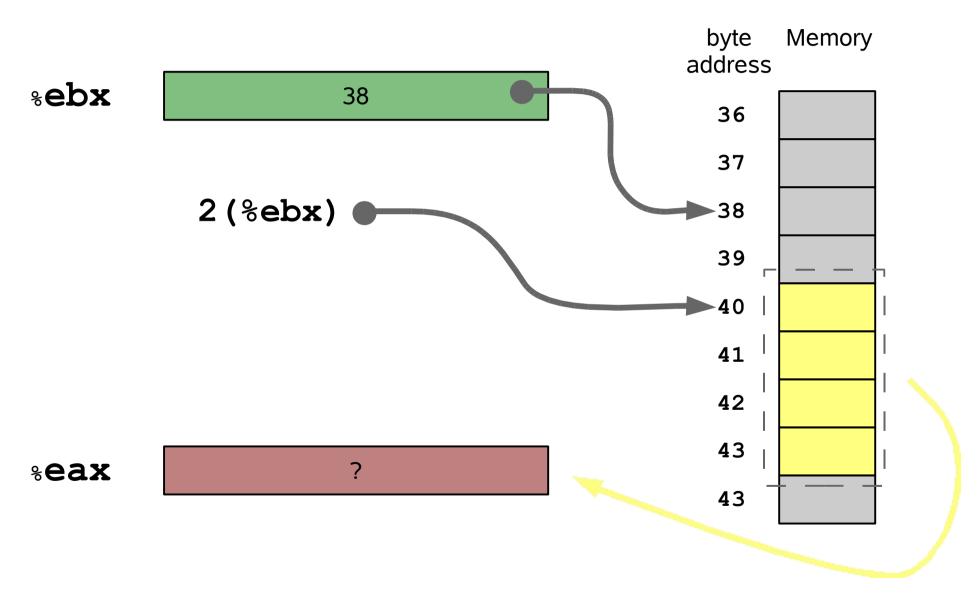
 Address is computed as sum of the contents of a register and some constant displacement:

 adds the contents of memory location whose address is computed as %eax+45 to register %ebx and stores the result in %ebx

```
%ebx = %ebx + Mem[%eax+45]
```

 The register is a pointer, the displacement specified how far from the pointer.

mov 2(%ebx),%eax



Displacement in action

```
int i=3;
int x[4];
x[0]=i;
x[1]=i+3;
```

Notes:

\$x is the address of the array (the name of an array is it's address)

displacement is 4 since each array element is 4 bytes (each is an int)

Not a quiz, an exercise

```
int a[3];
a[0]=0;
a[1]=1;
a[2]=2;
```

Start with this (puts the address of a in register %eax):

Exercise Solution

```
int a[3];
a[0]=0;
a[1]=1;
a[2]=2;
```

```
mov $a, %eax
mov $0,(%eax)
mov $1, 4(%eax)
mov $2, 8(%eax)
```

mov \$a, %eax

mov \$0, (%eax)

add \$4,%eax

mov \$1, (%eax)

add \$4, %eax

mov \$2, (%eax)





Dealing with bytes

- All addresses are byte addresses (each byte in memory has a unique address).
- There is nothing different about addressing a byte operand – same syntax.

```
mov 122(%ebx), %al
mov %al, 85(%esi)
add %bh, 5(%edx)
```

```
You may need to be explicit: movb $32, 85(%esi) addb $1, 5(%edx)
```

Some Rules

 mov and arithmetic/logical instructions cannot have two memory operands (at most one).

You can't do this:

```
- mov (%eax), 14(%eax)
```

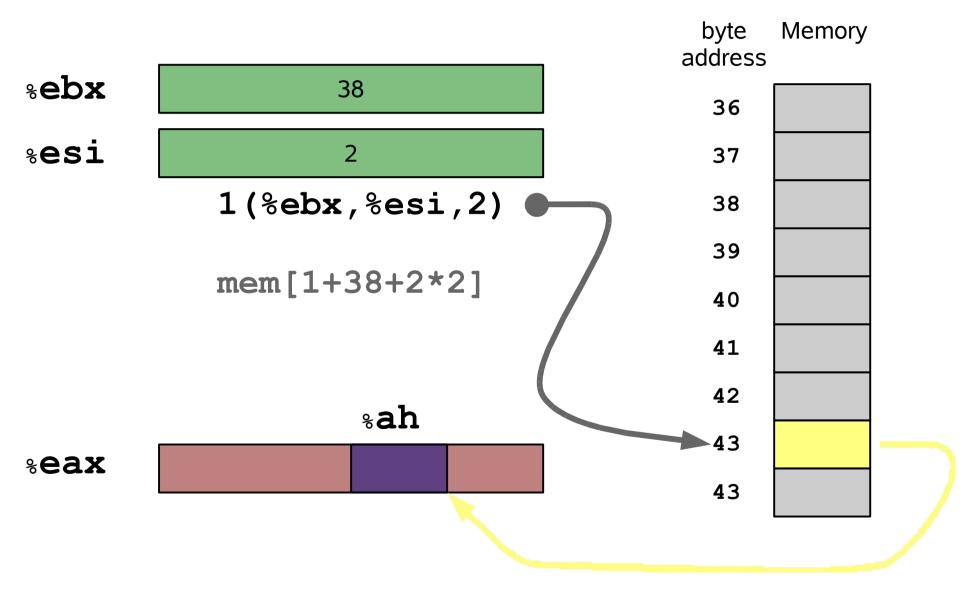
- add 100, (%esi)

Indexed Addressing Mode

disp(reg1, reg2, scale)

- Address is computed as sum of:
 - constant displacement disp
 - contents of register reg1
 - contents of register reg2 times the scale factor
- scale can be 1,2,4 or 8 only.
 - size of data types.

movb 1(%ebx,%esi,2),%ah



Why Indexed?

- Indexed addressing mode seems overly complex
 - very CISCish
- There are actually times when it makes sense to use it:
 - structure field is an array.
- The real reason for it is:
 - it is really the only addressing mode, the others are all special cases!

Exercisemania

```
int a[10];
int i;
/* i gets some value */
a[i]=12;
a[i+2]=a[i+1];
```

Solution

```
a[i]=12;
a[i+2]=a[i+1];
```

assume \$a is in %edi and i is in %esi

```
movl $12,(%edi,%esi,4)  # Mem[%edi+%esi*4]=12
movl 4(%edi,%esi,4),%eax  # %eax= Mem[4+%edi+%esi*4]
movl %eax,8(%edi,%esi,4)  # Mem[8+%edi+%esi*4]=%eax
```

Addressing Modes

- Indexed: dist(reg1, reg2, scale)
- Absolute: dist
- Register: (reg1)
- Displacement: dist(reg1)
- You can also do this:

```
movl (,%eax,2),%ebx # %ebx = Mem[%eax*2]
movl (%ebx,%eax),%esi # %esi=Mem[%ebx+%eax]
```

What does this do?

```
      mov
      $1, %eax

      add
      $3, %eax

      add
      $5, %eax

      add
      $7, %eax
```

How about this?

```
mov %edx, %eax
add %ecx, %edx
add %eax, %ecx
```

OK Smartypants – try this

```
subb 'a',%al
addb 'A',%al
```

No way you figure this one out.

```
xor %ebx, %eax
```

xor %eax, %ebx

xor %ebx,%eax

Fun with addressing modes: What is each address?

```
xor %eax,%eax
add $0x22,%eax
movl %esi,(%eax)
addl 22,%edi
movl 0xffffffff(%eax,%eax,2),%ebx
```

Subroutines

- In C, all code is in a function.
- In Assembly, all code is in a subroutine.
- In general, the compiler will generate on subroutine per C function
 - exceptions: inline functions, some optimizations
- We will study the details of subroutines a little later, for now we just need to recognize a few things.

Example Subroutine

```
increment:
     pushl
              %ebp
              %esp, %ebp
     movl
              8 (%ebp)
     incl
              8(%ebp), %eax
     movl
     popl
              %ebp
     ret
```

```
int increment(int x) {
    x = x + 1;
    return(x);
}
```

subroutine setup

body

return value

Subroutine Parameters

- Parameters are passed on the stack
 - we have not yet discussed the stack
- For now, just remember:
 - first parameter is located in memory at 8 (%ebp)
 - second parameter value is at 12 (%ebp)
 - third parameter value is at 16 (%ebp)
 - and so on...

Example Subroutine

```
int add(int x, int y) {
   return(x+y);
}
```

```
add:
     pushl
               %ebp
               %esp, %ebp
     movl
               12 (%ebp), %eax
     movl
     addl
              8 (%ebp), %eax
              %ebp
     popl
     ret
```

subroutine setup

body

return value

Another Subroutine

```
void incr(int *x) {
    *x++;
}
```

```
incr:
     pushl
              %ebp
              %esp, %ebp
     movl
              8 (%ebp), %eax
     movl
              (%eax)
     incr
              %ebp
     popl
     ret
```

subroutine setup

body

SubQuiz – what does this do?

```
foo:
     pushl
               %ebp
               %esp, %ebp
     movl
               8 (%ebp), %eax
     mov
               12 (%ebp), %edx
     mov
               %edx, (%eax)
     add
     popl
               %ebp
     ret
```

subroutine setup

body

Two possible functions

```
foo:
                             /* could be either of these */
            %ebp
   pushl
                             void foo(int *x, int i) {
   movl %esp, %ebp
                                *x = *x + i;
            8 (%ebp), %eax
   mov
            12 (%ebp), %edx
   mov
            %edx, (%eax)
   add
                             void foo(int x[], int i) {
                               x[0]+=i;
           %ebp
   popl
   ret
```

Calling a subroutine

- Parameters go on the stack
- Use push to put each on the stack
 - push in reverse order: last param pushed first.
- Everything is passed by value!
 - you put a value on the stack
 - an address is a value!

calling int add(int x, int y)

Assume x is in %ecx, y is in %edx

```
push %edx  # put y on stack
push %ecx  # put x on stack
call add  # call add()
# return value is always in %eax
```

printf("num is %d\n",x);

• Assume x is in %eax

```
st1:
```

.string "num is %d\n"

push %eax
push \$st1
call printf

All together now...

```
st1: .string "%d + %d ="
st2: .string "%d\n"
   push %edx # put y on stack
   push %ecx # put x on stack
   push $st1  # put "%d + %d =" on stack
   call printf
   call add # call add()
   push %eax # put add(x,y) on stack
   push $st2  # put "%d\n" on stack
   call printf
```

C to Assembly

gcc can generate assembly for you:

gcc -S foo.c

produces the file foo.s

You can assemble foo.s:

gcc -o foo foo.s

Compiler generated assembly code

- There are no comments!
- Lots of other things besides code:
 - directives lines that look like this:
 - .qlobl foo foo is a global symbol
 - .section .rodata define some read-only data
 - . text define some code
 - .type foo, @function foo came from a C function
 - .size foo, .-foo establishes the size of foo