



Assembler - Basics

This presentation introduces and shows basics of assembler



1 Intro

- Most programming nowadays is done using so-called "high-level" languages (such as C/C++ or JavaScript)
- These languages deliberately "hide" from a programmer many details concerning HOW his problem actually will be solved by the underlying computing machinery
- Key point: high-level languages let programmers focus attention on the problem to be solved, and not spend effort thinking about details of "how" a particular piece of electrical machinery is going to carry out the pieces of a desired computation
- Programmers don't have to know very much about how a digital computer actually works



2 Intro

- For understanding how computers work, we need familiarity with the computer's own language (called "machine language")
- It's "low-level" language (very detailed)
- It is specific to a machine's "architecture"
- Here's what a program-fragment looks like:
`A1BC9304 080305C0 930408A3 C0940408`
- It means: $z = x + y$;



3 Intro

- It is extremely difficult, tedious (and error-prone) for humans to read and write "raw" machine language
- So, human readable machine language, called assembly language or assembler, is invented
- There are two key ideas behind assembler:
 - mnemonic opcodes: we employ abbreviations of English language words to denote operations
 - symbolic addresses: we invent "meaningful" names for memory storage locations we need
- These make machine-language understandable to humans – if they know their machine's design



4 Intro

- Advantages using assembler:
 - Greater control. It gives you greater control over how certain functions are implemented at the assembly language level of the final program.
 - Optimization. Programmers can use assembly language code to implement the most performance-sensitive parts of their program's algorithms, code that is apt to be more efficient than what might otherwise be generated by the compiler.
 - Access to processor specific instructions.



5 Tools

- as, the GNU Assembler
 - It's a family of assemblers.
 - If you use the GNU assembler on one architecture, you should find a fairly similar environment when you use it on another architecture.
 - Each version has much in common with the others, including object file formats, most assembler directives and assembler syntax.



6 Tools

- MyTA uses online GNU assembler GCC 9.1.0 which is the 64-bit version of the x86 instruction set (x86-64):

Run

```
.data
str: .ascii "Hello World!"
.text
.global main
main:
    push    %rbx #For alignment

    mov     $str, %rdi
    call    puts

    mov     $0, %eax #return 0;
    pop     %rbx
    ret
```

Hello World!

- Press Run button to see the output



7 Tools

- Now output using printf

Run

```
.data
format: .ascii "%d\n"
.text
.global main
main:
    push    %rbx #For alignment

    mov     $format, %rdi
    mov     $2, %rsi
    xor     %eax, %eax #Clear AL
    call    printf

    xor     %eax, %eax #return 0;
    pop     %rbx
    ret
```

2



8 Tools

- Try the following code using online compiler <http://jdoodle.com>. Select "Assembler (GCC)" compiler.

```
.data
format: .ascii "%d\n"
.text
.global main
main:
    push    %rbx # For alignment

    mov     $0, %eax # The starting point
    mov     $100, %ebx # The ending point

_loop:
    push    %rax # Saving
    push    %rbx

    # Output
    mov     $format, %rdi
    mov     %rax, %rsi
    xor     %eax, %eax # Clear AL
    call    printf

    pop     %rbx # Restoring
    pop     %rax

    # Check against the ending value
    cmpl    %eax, %ebx
    je      _end

    # Increment the current value
    inc     %eax
    jmp     _loop
_end:

    xor     %eax, %eax #return 0;
    pop     %rbx
    ret
```

- What is the output?



9 Program structure

- ASCII-character text
- 2 segments: .data and .text
- Program consists of series of 'statements'
- Each program-statement fits on one line
- Program-statements all have same layout
- Design in 1950s was for IBM punch-cards



10 Program structure

- Each 'statement' was comprised of four 'fields'
- Fields appear in a prescribed left-to-right order
- These four fields were named (in order):
 - the 'label' field
 - the 'opcode' field
 - the 'operand' field
 - the 'comment' field
- In many cases some fields could be left blank
 - Extreme case (very useful): whole line is blank!



11 Segments

- The .data segment
 - contains any global or static variables which have a pre-defined value and can be modified
- The .text segment
 - contains executable instructions



12 Label

- A label is a 'symbol' followed by a colon (':')
- The programmer invents his own 'symbols'
- Symbols can use letters and digits, plus a very small number of 'special' characters ('.', '_', '\$')
 - A 'symbol' is allowed to be of arbitrarily length
- Ex: _end:



13 Opcode

- Opcodes are predefined symbols that are recognized by the GNU assembler
- There are two categories of 'opcodes' (called 'instructions' and 'directives')
- 'Instructions' represent operations that the CPU is able to perform (e.g., 'add', 'inc')
 - Each 'instruction' gets translated by compiler into a machine-language statement that will be fetched and executed by the CPU when the program runs (i.e., at 'runtime')
- 'Directives' are commands that guide the work of the assembler (e.g., '.global', '.int')
 - With GNU assembly language, they are easy to distinguish: directives begin with '.'



14 Opcode

- An 'official' list of the instruction codes can be found in Intel's programmer manuals:
 - <http://developer.intel.com>
- But it's three volumes, nearly 1000 pages (it describes 'everything' about Intel Pentiums)
- An 'unofficial' list of (most) Intel instruction codes can fit on one sheet:
 - <https://drive.google.com/open?id=15Cx2W2Ecbrty44kRpCGS7lhXljdrouNH>
- Compare it with 32-bit version:
 - <https://drive.google.com/open?id=1CaS0CbVHZZ4i-KBbF4QW45eGxQuYpEeb>



15 Opcode

- CPU Instructions usually operate on data-items
- Only certain sizes of data are supported:
 - byte: one byte consists of 8 bits
 - word: consists of two bytes (16 bits)
 - long: uses four bytes (32 bits)
 - quadword: uses eight bytes (64 bits)
- With AT&T's syntax, an instruction's name also incorporates its effective data-size (as a suffix b/w/l/q)
- With Intel syntax, data-size usually isn't explicit, but is inferred by context (i.e., from operands)



16 Operand

- Operands can be of several types:
 - a CPU register may hold the datum
 - a memory location may hold the datum
- An instruction can have 'built-in' data
- Frequently there are multiple data-items
- Sometimes there are no data-items
- An instruction's operands usually are 'explicit', but in a few cases they also could be 'implicit'



17 Operand

- Some instructions that have two operands:
 - `mov %rbx, %rcx`
 - `add $4, %rsp`
- Some instructions that have one operand:
 - `incl %eax`
 - `push $fmt`
- An instruction that lacks explicit operands:
 - `ret`



18 Registers

- The table below lists the commonly used registers (sixteen general-purpose plus two special)

Register	Conventional use	Low 32-bits	Low 16-bits	Low 8-bits
<code>%rax</code>	Return value, callee-owned	<code>%eax</code>	<code>%ax</code>	<code>%al</code>
<code>%rdi</code>	1st argument, callee-owned	<code>%edi</code>	<code>%di</code>	<code>%dil</code>
<code>%rsi</code>	2nd argument, callee-owned	<code>%esi</code>	<code>%si</code>	<code>%sil</code>
<code>%rdx</code>	3rd argument, callee-owned	<code>%edx</code>	<code>%dx</code>	<code>%dl</code>
<code>%rcx</code>	4th argument, callee-owned	<code>%ecx</code>	<code>%cx</code>	<code>%cl</code>
<code>%r8</code>	5th argument, callee-owned	<code>%r8d</code>	<code>%r8w</code>	<code>%r8b</code>
<code>%r9</code>	6th argument, callee-owned	<code>%r9d</code>	<code>%r9w</code>	<code>%r9b</code>
<code>%r10</code>	Scratch/temporary, callee-owned	<code>%r10d</code>	<code>%r10w</code>	<code>%r10b</code>
<code>%r11</code>	Scratch/temporary, callee-owned	<code>%r11d</code>	<code>%r11w</code>	<code>%r11b</code>
<code>%rsp</code>	Stack pointer, caller-owned	<code>%esp</code>	<code>%sp</code>	<code>%spl</code>
<code>%rbx</code>	Local variable, caller-owned	<code>%ebx</code>	<code>%bx</code>	<code>%bl</code>
<code>%rbp</code>	Local variable, caller-owned	<code>%ebp</code>	<code>%bp</code>	<code>%bpl</code>
<code>%r12</code>	Local variable, caller-owned	<code>%r12d</code>	<code>%r12w</code>	<code>%r12b</code>
<code>%r13</code>	Local variable, caller-owned	<code>%r13d</code>	<code>%r13w</code>	<code>%r13b</code>
<code>%r14</code>	Local variable, caller-owned	<code>%r14d</code>	<code>%r14w</code>	<code>%r14b</code>
<code>%r15</code>	Local variable, caller-owned	<code>%r15d</code>	<code>%r15w</code>	<code>%r15b</code>
<code>%rip</code>	Instruction pointer			
<code>%eflags</code>	Status/condition code bits			



19 Comments

- An assembly language program often can be hard for a human being to understand
- Even a program's author may not be able to recall his programming idea after awhile
- So programmer 'comments' can be vital
- A comments begin with the '#' character
 - Also can use c-style block comment /* */
- The assembler disregards all comments (but they will appear in program listings)



20 Constants

- A binary integer is '0b' or '0B' followed by zero or more of the binary digits: 0b11111111.
- An octal integer is '0' followed by zero or more of the octal digits: 01234567
- A decimal integer starts with a non-zero digit followed by zero or more digits: 123456789, -10
 - A hexadecimal integer is '0x' or '0X' followed by one or more hexadecimal digits: 0xFF
- A string is written between double-quotes: "Hello world!\n" (\n is escape character for new line, like in c)



21 Output

- Following code is equivalent to
`printf("x is %d\n", 42);`

Run

```
.data
x:    .long 42
str:  .asciz "x is %d\n"
.text
.global main
main:
    push    %rbx /* For alignment */

    # Output
    mov     $str, %rdi
    mov     x, %rsi
    call    printf

    xor     %eax, %eax #return 0;
    pop     %rbx
    ret
```

x is 42

- Use this example to output result of calculations in assignments and for output temp values during debugging.



22 Move

- Following code is equivalent to
`x=24;`

Run

```
.data
x:    .long 0
str:  .asciz "x is %d\n"
.text
.global main
main:
    push    %rbx /* For alignment */

    movl    $24, x

    # Output
    mov     $str, %rdi
    mov     x, %rsi
    call    printf

    xor     %eax, %eax #return 0;
    pop     %rbx
    ret
```

x is 24

- The mov instruction copies the data item referred to by its first operand (i.e. register contents, memory contents, or a constant value) into the location referred to by its second operand (i.e. a register or memory).
- While register-to-register moves are possible, direct memory-to-memory moves are not. In cases where memory transfers are desired, the source memory contents must first be loaded into a register, then can be stored to the destination memory address.



23 Add

- Following code is equivalent to
`printf("x+y=%d\n", x+y);`

Run

```
.data
x:    .long 42
y:    .long 10
str:  .asciz "x+y=%d\n"
.text
.global main
main:
    push    %rbx /* For alignment */

    movq    x, %rax
    addq    y, %rax

    # Output
    mov     $str, %rdi
    movq    %rax, %rsi
    call    printf

    xor     %eax, %eax #return 0;
    pop     %rbx
    ret
```

x+y=52

- The **add** a b instruction adds together its two operands a and b, storing the result in its second operand b. a can be register, memory or constant, b is a register or memory.



24 Sub

- Following code is equivalent to
`printf("x-y=%d\n", x-y);`
when x and y one byte long.

Run

```
.data
x:    .long 42
y:    .long 10
str:  .asciz "x-y=%d\n"
.text
.global main
main:
    push    %rbx /* For alignment */

    xorq    %rax, %rax
    movb    x, %al
    movb    y, %ah
    subb    %ah, %al
    xor     %ah, %ah

    # Output
    mov     $str, %rdi
    movq    %rax, %rsi
    call    printf

    xor     %eax, %eax #return 0;
    pop     %rbx
    ret
```

x-y=32



25 Mul

- Following code is equivalent to
`printf("x*y=%hu\n", x*y);`
when x and y two byte long.

Run

```
.data
x:  .long  42
y:  .long  10
str: .asciz "x-y=%d\n"
.text
.global main
main:
    push    %rbx /* For alignment */

    xor     %eax, %eax
    movw    x, %ax
    movw    y, %bx
    imulw   %bx, %ax

    # Output
    mov     $str, %rdi
    movq    %rax, %rsi
    call    printf

    xor     %eax, %eax #return 0;
    pop     %rbx
    ret
```

x-y=420



26 Address

- Following code is equivalent to
`printf("%d\n", &x);`

Run

```
.data
x:  .long  42
str: .asciz "Address of x is %d\n"
.text
.global main
main:
    push    %rbx /* For alignment */

    # Output
    mov     $str, %rdi
    mov     $x, %rsi
    call    printf

    xor     %eax, %eax #return 0;
    pop     %rbx
    ret
```

Address of x is 6295600



27 Array

- Following code is equivalent to
`printf("%d\n", a[1]);`

Run

```
.data
a:  .long  1, 2, 3, 4
str: .asciz "%d\n"
.text
.global main
main:
    push  %rbx /* For alignment */

    movq  a+4, %rax

    # Output
    mov  $str, %rdi
    movq %rax, %rsi
    call printf

    xor   %eax, %eax #return 0;
    pop  %rbx
    ret
```

2

- Try to output second character in str



100 References

- [Manual](#) – The GNU Assembler manual
- [x86-64](#) – Quick reference



28 Endianness

- Modify the following code to identify the endianness of the processor.

Run

```
.data
long:  .byte  1, 2, 3, 4
str: .asciz "%d\n"
.text
.global main
main:
    push  %rbx /* For alignment */

    # Output
    mov  $str, %rdi
    movq long, %rsi
    call printf

    xor   %eax, %eax #return 0;
    pop  %rbx
    ret
```

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