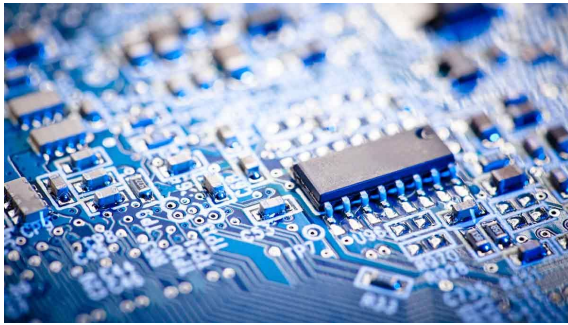
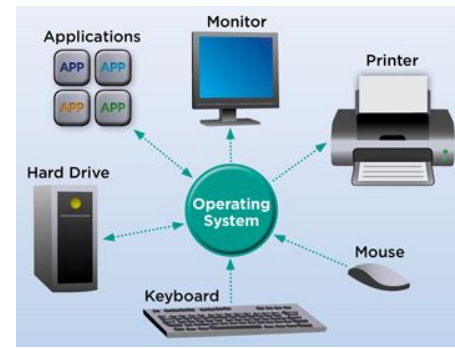


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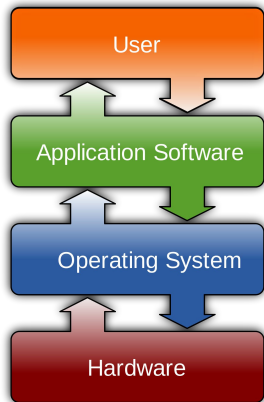


CS 3650



Computer Systems

Alden Jackson / Ferdinand Vesley

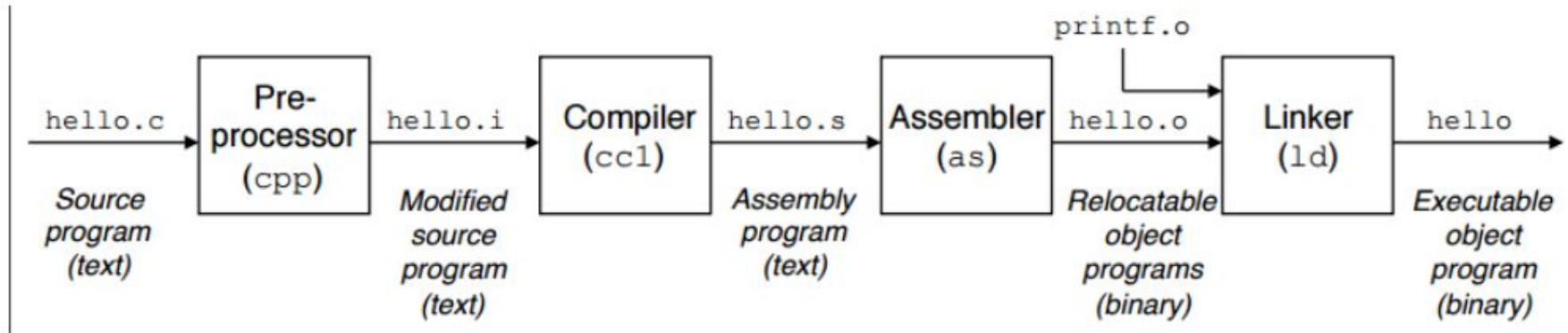


| | | | | |
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| Intro | Virtualization | Concurrency | Persistence | Appendices |
| Preface | 3 <i>Dialogue</i> | 25 <i>Dialogue</i> | 35 <i>Dialogue</i> | <i>Dialogue</i> |
| TOC | 4 Processes | 26 <i>Concurrency and Threads</i> ^{code} | 36 IO Devices | <i>Virtual Machines</i> |
| 1 <i>Dialogue</i> | 5 Process API ^{code} | 27 Thread API | 37 Hard Disk Drives | <i>Dialogue</i> |
| 2 Introduction ^{code} | 6 Direct Execution | 28 Locks | 38 Redundant Disk Arrays (RAID) | Monitors |
| | 7 CPU Scheduling | 29 Locked Data Structures | 39 Files and Directories | <i>Dialogue</i> |
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| | | | 50 Andrew File System (AFS) | |
| | | | 51 <i>Summary</i> | |

Lecture 2 - Assembly in a Day

Recall the C toolchain pipeline

- All C programs go through this transformation of C --> Assembly --> Machine Code



So we have gone back in time in a way!

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Timeline_of_programming_languages

| 1946 | Curry notation system | Haskell Curry |
|------|--|---|
| 1948 | Plankalkül (concept published) | Konrad Zuse |
| 1949 | Short Code | John Mauchly and William F. Schmitt |
| Year | Name | Chief developer, company |

1950s [\[edit \]](#)

| Year | Name | Chief developer, company | Predecessor(s) |
|------|---|--|-----------------------------------|
| 1950 | Short Code | William F. Schmidt , Albert B. Tonik , ^[3] J.R. Logan | Brief Code |
| 1950 | Birkbeck Assembler | Kathleen Booth | ARC |
| 1951 | Superplan | Heinz Rutishauser | Plankalkül |
| 1951 | ALGAE | Edward A. Voorhees and Karl Balke | none (unique language) |
| 1951 | Intermediate Programming Language | Arthur Burks | Short Code |
| 1951 | Regional Assembly Language | Maurice Wilkes | EDSAC |
| 1951 | Boehm unnamed coding system | Corrado Böhm | CPC Coding scheme |
| 1951 | Klammerausdrücke | Konrad Zuse | Plankalkül |
| 1951 | OMNIBAC Symbolic Assembler | Charles Katz | Short Code |
| 1951 | Stanislaus (Notation) | Fritz Bauer | none (unique language) |
| 1951 | Whirlwind assembler | Charles Adams and Jack Gilmore at MIT Project Whirlwind | EDSAC |
| 1951 | Rochester assembler | Nat Rochester | EDSAC |

So we have gone back in time!

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Timeline_of_programming_languages

| 1946 | Corry notation system |
|------|--|
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| Year | Name |

1950s [\[edit \]](#)

| Year | Name |
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| 1950 | Short Code |
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| 1951 | OMNIBAC Symbolic Assembler |
| 1951 | Stanislaus (Notation) |
| 1951 | Whirlwind assembler |
| 1951 | Rochester assembler |

Look at all of these assembly languages over 60 years old!

This was the family of languages folks programmed in.

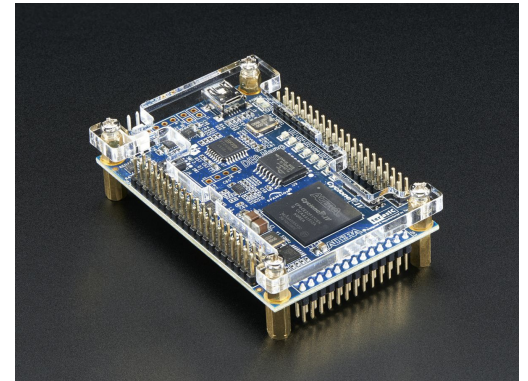
| | |
|---|-----------------------------------|
| Arthur Burks | Short Code |
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| Charles Katz | Short Code |
| Fritz Bauer | none (unique language) |
| Charles Adams and Jack Gilmore at MIT Project Whirlwind | EDSAC |
| Nat Rochester | EDSAC |

Modern Day Assembly is of course still in use

- Still used in games (console games specifically)
 - In hot loops where code must run fast
- Still used on embedded systems
- Useful for debugging any compiled language
- Useful for even non-compiled or Just-In-Time

Compiled languages

- Python has its own bytecode
- Java's bytecode (which is eventually compiled) is assembly-like
- Being used on the web
 - [webassembly](#)
- Still relevant after 60+ years!



Aside: Java(left) and Python(right) bytecode examples

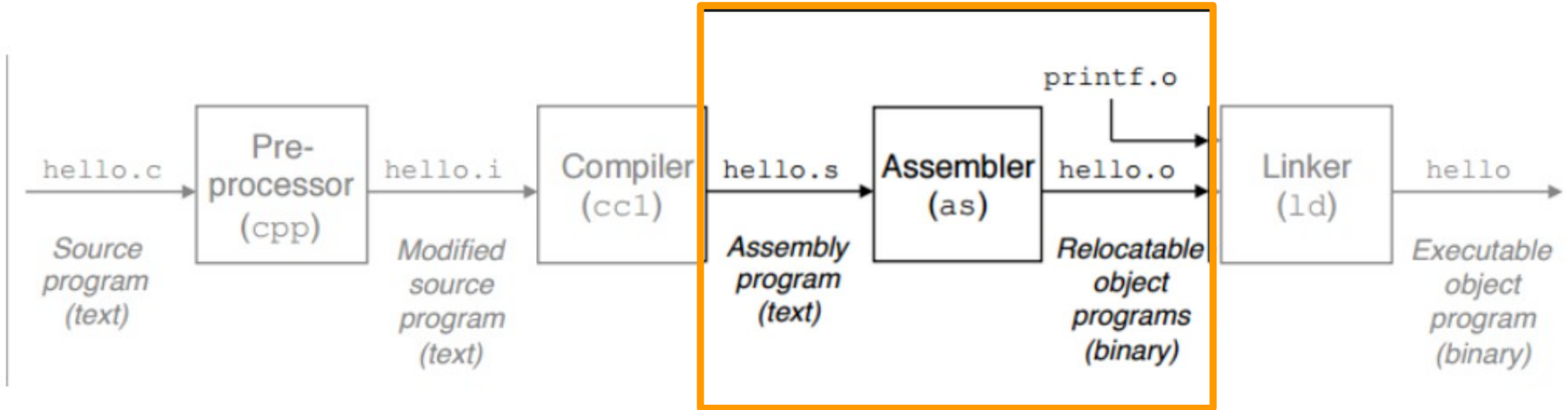
```
0 aload_0
1 new #3 <acceptanceTests/treeset_personOK/Main$A>
4 dup
5 new #8 <java/lang/Object>
8 dup
9 invokespecial #10 <java/lang/Object.<init>>
12 new #12 <java/lang/Integer>
15 dup
16 iconst_2
17 invokespecial #14 <java/lang/Integer.<init>>
20 invokespecial #17 <acceptanceTests/treeset_personOK/Main$A.<init>>
23 new #12 <java/lang/Integer>
26 dup
27 iconst_1
28 invokespecial #14 <java/lang/Integer.<init>>
31 invokespecial #17 <acceptanceTests/treeset_personOK/Main$A.<init>>
34 getstatic #20 <java/lang/System.out>
37 new #3 <acceptanceTests/treeset_personOK/Main$A>
40 dup
41 new #8 <java/lang/Object>
44 dup
45 invokespecial #10 <java/lang/Object.<init>>
48 new #12 <java/lang/Integer>
51 dup
52 iconst_2
53 invokespecial #14 <java/lang/Integer.<init>>
56 invokespecial #17 <acceptanceTests/treeset_personOK/Main$A.<init>>
59 invokevirtual #26 <java/io/PrintStream.println>
62 return
```

```
>>> import dis
>>> dis.dis(f)
2          0 LOAD_FAST          0 (n)
          3 LOAD_CONST          1 (1)
          6 COMPARE_OP         1 (<=)
          9 POP_JUMP_IF_FALSE   16
3          12 LOAD_FAST          1 (accum)
          15 RETURN_VALUE
5          16 LOAD_GLOBAL         0 (f)
          19 LOAD_FAST          0 (n)
          22 LOAD_CONST          1 (1)
          25 BINARY_SUBTRACT
          26 LOAD_FAST          1 (accum)
          29 LOAD_FAST          0 (n)
          32 BINARY_MULTIPLY
          33 CALL_FUNCTION        2
          36 RETURN_VALUE
          37 LOAD_CONST          0 (None)
          40 RETURN_VALUE

def f(n, accum):
    if n <= 1:
        return accum
    else:
        return f(n-1, accum*n)
```


Assembly is important in our toolchain

- Even if the step is often hidden from us!



Intel and x86 Instruction set

- In order to program these chips, there is a specific instruction set we will use
- Popularized by Intel
- Other companies have contributed.
 - AMD has been the main competitor
- (AMD was first to really nail 64 bit architecture around 2001)
- Intel followed up a few years later (2004)
- Intel remains the dominant architecture
- x86 is a CISC architecture
 - (CISC pronounced /'sɪsk/)



Introduction to Assembly

How are programs created?

- Compile a program to an executable
 - `gcc main.c -o program`
- Compile a program to assembly
 - `gcc main.c -S -o main.s`
- Compile a program to an object file (.o file)
 - `gcc -c main.c`
- Linker (A program called `ld`) then takes all of your object files and makes a binary executable.

Focus on this step today -- pretend C does not exist

- ~~● Compile a program to an executable~~

- ~~○ gcc main.c -o program~~

- **Compile a program to assembly**

- gcc main.c -S -o main.s

- ~~● Compile a program to an object file (.o file)~~

- ~~○ gcc -c main.c~~

- Linker (A program called ld) then takes all of your object files and makes a binary executable.

Layers of Abstraction

1. As a C programmer you worry about C code
 - a. You work with variables, do some memory management using malloc and free, etc.
2. As an assembly programmer, you worry about assembly
 - a. You also maintain the registers, condition codes, and memory
3. As a hardware engineer (programmer)
 - a. You worry about cache levels, layout, clocks, etc.

Assembly Abstraction layer

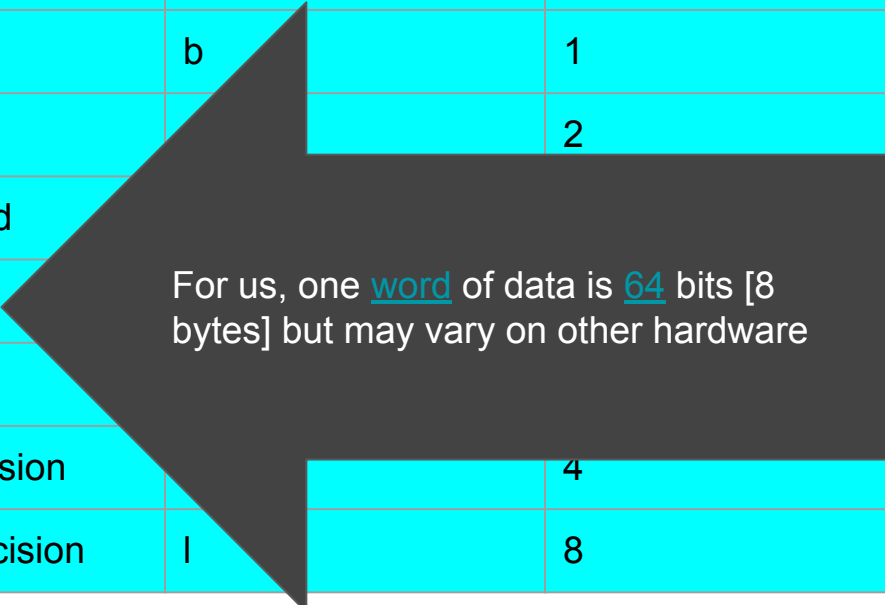
- With Assembly, we lose some of the information we have in C
- In higher-order languages we have many different data types which help protect us from errors.
 - For example: int, long, boolean, char, string, float, double, complex, ...
 - In C there are custom data types (structs for example)
 - Type systems help us avoid inconsistencies in how we pass data around.
- In Assembly we lose unsigned/signed information as well!
 - However, we do have two data types
 - Types for integers (1,2,4,8 bytes) and floats (4,8, or 10 bytes) [byte = 8 bits]

Sizes of data types (C to assembly)

| C Declaration | Intel Data Type | Assembly-code suffix | Size (bytes) |
|----------------------|------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------|
| char | Byte | b | 1 |
| short | Word | w | 2 |
| int | Double word | l | 4 |
| long | Quad word | q | 8 |
| char * | Quad word | q | 8 |
| float | Single precision | s | 4 |
| double | Double Precision | l | 8 |

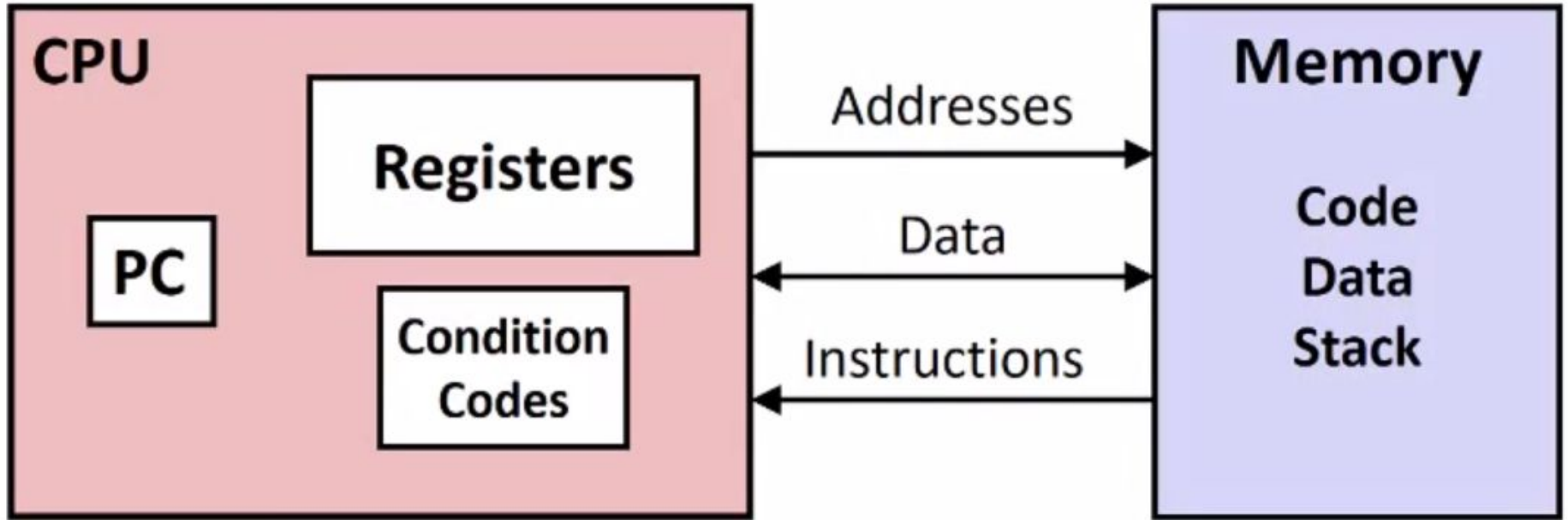
Sizes of data types (C to assembly)

| C Declaration | Intel Data Type | Assembly-code suffix | Size (bytes) |
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| char | Byte | b | 1 |
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| char * | Quad word | | |
| float | Single precision | | 4 |
| double | Double Precision | l | 8 |



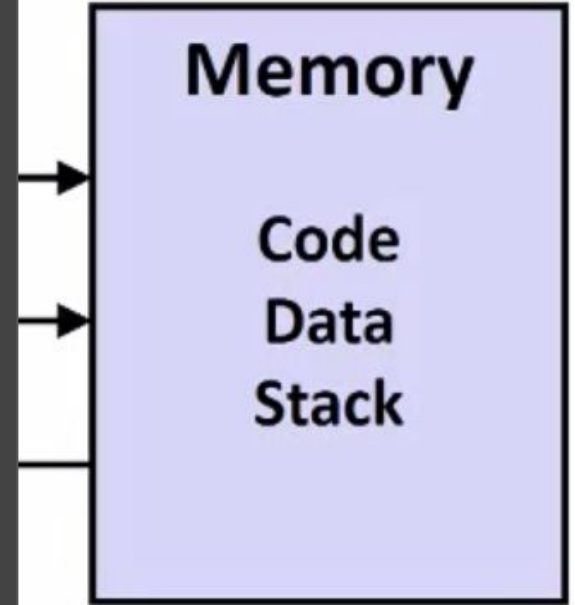
For us, one word of data is 64 bits [8 bytes] but may vary on other hardware

View as an assembly programmer



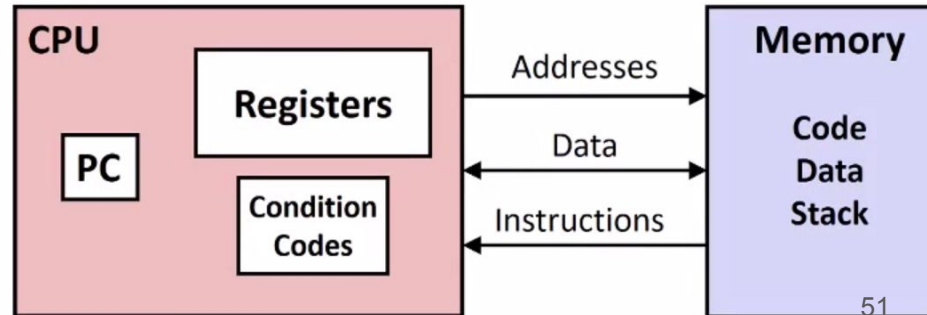
Memory Addresses

- Note that we are looking at virtual addresses in our assembly when we see addresses.
- This makes us think of the program as a large byte array.
 - The operating system takes care of managing this for us with virtual memory.
 - This is one of the key jobs of the operating system



Assembly Operations (i.e. Our instruction set)

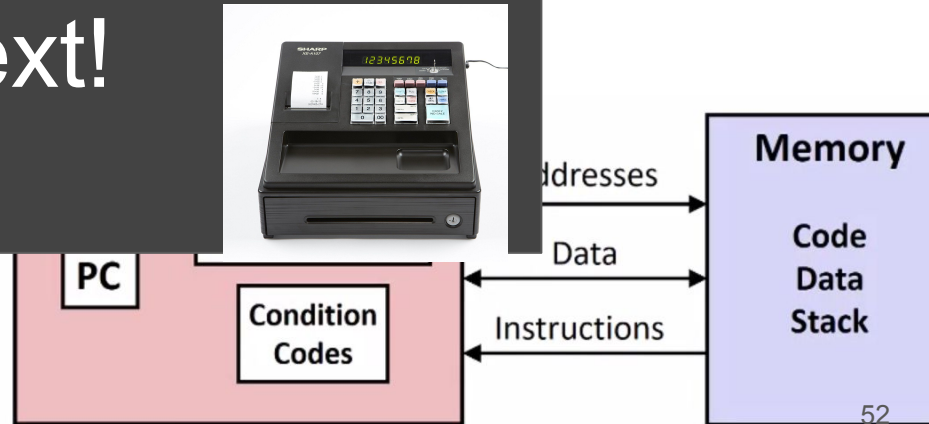
- Things we can do with assembly (and that's about it!)
 - Transfer data between memory and register
 - Load data from memory to register
 - Store register data back into memory
 - Perform arithmetic/logical operations on registers and memory
 - Transfer Control
 - Jumps
 - Branches (conditional statements)



Assembly Operations (i.e. Our instruction set)

- Things we can do with assembly (and that's about it!)
 - Transfer data between registers
 - Load
 - Store
 - Perform arithmetic
 - Transfer Control
 - Jump
 - Branch

Let's look at registers
next!



x86-64 Registers

- Focus on the 64-bit column.
- These are 16 general purpose registers for storing bytes
 - (Note sometimes we do not always have access to all 16 registers)
- Registers are *similar* to variables where we store values

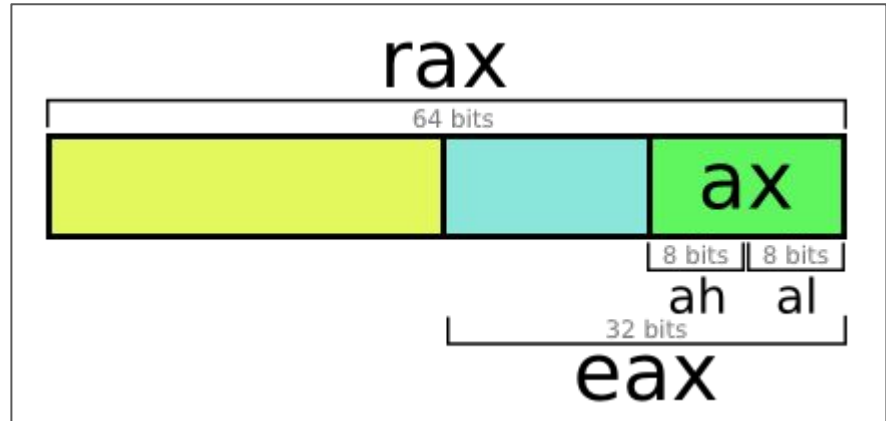
| Register encoding | Not modified for 8-bit operands | | | | 16-bit | 32-bit | 64-bit |
|-------------------|-----------------------------------|--|----------------------------------|------|--------|--------|--------|
| | Zero-extended for 32-bit operands | | Not modified for 16-bit operands | | | | |
| | | | Low 8-bit | | | | |
| 0 | | | AH† | AL | AX | EAX | RAX |
| 3 | | | BH† | BL | BX | EBX | RBX |
| 1 | | | CH† | CL | CX | ECX | RCX |
| 2 | | | DH† | DL | DX | EDX | RDY |
| 6 | | | | SIL‡ | SI | ESI | RSI |
| 7 | | | | DIL‡ | DI | EDI | RDI |
| 5 | | | | BPL‡ | BP | EBP | RBP |
| 4 | | | | SPL‡ | SP | ESP | RSP |
| 8 | | | | R8B | R8W | R8D | R8 |
| 9 | | | | R9B | R9W | R9D | R9 |
| 10 | | | | R10B | R10W | R10D | R10 |
| 11 | | | | R11B | R11W | R11D | R11 |
| 12 | | | | R12B | R12W | R12D | R12 |
| 13 | | | | R13B | R13W | R13D | R13 |
| 14 | | | | R14B | R14W | R14D | R14 |
| 15 | | | | R15B | R15W | R15D | R15 |

63 32 31 16 15 8 7 0

† Not legal with REX prefix ‡ Requires REX prefix

x86-64 Register (zooming in)

- Note register **eax** addresses the lower 32 bits of **rax**
- Note register **ax** addresses the lower 16 bits of **eax**
- Note register **ah** addresses the high 8 bits of **ax**
- Note register **al** (lowercase L) addresses the low 8 bits of **ax**



Some registers are reserved for special use (More to come)

- This can be dependent on the instruction being used
 - %rsp - keeps track of where the stack pointer is
 - (We will do an example with the stack and what this means soon)

A First Assembly Instruction

Moving data around | mov instruction


- (Remember moving data is all machines do!)
- **movq** - moves a quad word of data
- **movd** - move a double word (dword) of data

`movq Source, Dest`

Moving data around | mov instruction

- (Remember moving data is all machines do!)
- `movq` - moves a quad word of data
- `movd` - move a double word (dword) of data

`movq Source, Dest`



Order matters
“source to
destination”
“left to right”

Moving data around | mov instruction

- (Remember moving data is all machines do!)
- **movq** - moves a quad word of data
- **movd** - move a double word (dword) of data

`movq Source, Dest` (Keep in mind the order here)

- Source or Dest Operands can have different addressing modes
 - Immediate - some address \$0x333 or \$-900
 - Memory - (%rax) dereferences what is in the register and gets the value
 - Register - Just %rax

Full List of Memory Addressing Modes

| Mode | Example |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Global Symbol | MOVQ x, %rax |
| Immediate | MOVQ \$56, %rax |
| Register | MOVQ %rbx, %rax |
| Indirect | MOVQ (%rsp), %rax |
| Base-Relative | MOVQ -8(%rbp), %rax |
| Offset-Scaled-Base-Relative | MOVQ -16(%rbx, %rcx, 8), %rax |

C equivalent of movq instructions | movq src, dest

| | |
|----------------------------------|---|
| <code>movq \$0x4, %rax</code> | <code>%rax = 0x4</code> ; (Moving in literal value into register) |
| <code>movq \$-150, (%rax)</code> | use value of rax as memory location and set that location to -150 (<code>*p = -150</code>) |
| <code>movq %rax, %rdx</code> | <code>%rdx = %rax</code> (copy src into dest) |
| <code>movq %rax, (%rdx)</code> | use value of rdx as memory location and set that location to value stored in rax (<code>*p = %rax</code>) |
| <code>movq (%rax), %rdx</code> | Set value of rdx to value of rax as memory location (<code>%rdx = *p</code>) |

Some registers are reserved for special use (More to come)

- This can be dependent on the instruction being used
- `%rsp` - keeps track of where the stack is for example
- **`%rdi` - the first program argument in a function**
- **`%rsi` - The second argument in a function**
- **`%rdx` - the third argument of a function**

These conventions are especially useful for functions known as system calls.

| | | | |
|-------------------|------------------------------|-------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1 | write | sys_write | fs/read_write.c |
| <code>%rdi</code> | <code>unsigned int fd</code> | <code>%rsi</code> | <code>const char __user * buf</code> |
| | | <code>%rdx</code> | <code>size_t count</code> |

Some registers are reserved for special use (More to come)

- This can be dependent on the instruction being used
- `%rsp` - keeps track of where the stack is for example
- `%rdi` - the first program argument in a function
- `%rsi` - The second argument in a function
- `%rdx` - the third argument of a function
- **`%rip` - the Program Counter**

Some registers are reserved for special use

- This can be dependent on the instruction being used
- `%rsp` - keeps track of where the stack is for example
- `%rdi` - the first program argument in a function
- `%rsi` - The second argument in a function
- `%rdx` - the third argument of a function
- `%rip` - the Program Counter
- **`%r8-%r15`** - These eight registers are general purpose registers

A little example

What does this function do? (take a few moments to think)

```
void mystery(<type> a, <type> b){  
}
```

mystery:

```
movq (%rdi), %rax  
movq (%rsi), %rdx  
movq %rdx, (%rdi)  
movq %rax, (%rsi)  
ret
```

Cheat Sheet

(Note: This can be dependent on the instruction being used)

%rsp - keeps track of where the stack is for example

%rdi - the first program argument in a function

%rsi - The second argument in a function

%rdx - the third argument of a function

%rip - the Program Counter

%r8-%r15 - These ones are actually the general purpose registers

swap of long

```
void mystery(long *a, long *b){  
    long t0 = *a;  
    long t1 = *b;  
    *a = t1;  
    *b = t0;  
  
}
```

```
mystery:  
    movq (%rdi), %rax  
    movq (%rsi), %rdx  
    movq %rdx, (%rdi)  
    movq %rax, (%rsi)  
    ret
```

Cheat Sheet

(Note: This can be dependent on the instruction being used)

%rsp - keeps track of where the stack is for example

%rdi - the first program argument in a function

%rsi - The second argument in a function

%rdx - the third argument of a function

%rip - the Program Counter

%r8-%r15 - These ones are actually the general purpose registers

More assembly instructions

addq Src, Dest Dest=Dest+Src
subq Src, Dest Dest=Dest-Src
imulq Src, Dest Dest=Dest*Src
salq Src, Dest Dest=Dest << Src
sarq Src, Dest Dest=Dest >> Src
shrq Src, Dest Dest=Dest >> Src
xorq Src, Dest Dest=Dest ^ Src
andq Src, Dest Dest=Dest & Src
orq Src, Dest Dest=Dest | Src

Note on order (Intel documentation uses op Dest, Src)

More assembly instructions

```
addq Src, Dest  Dest=Dest+Src
subq Src, Dest  Dest=Dest-Src
imulq Src, Dest Dest=Dest*Src
salq Src, Dest  Dest=Dest << Src
sarq Src, Dest  Dest=Dest >> Src
shrq Src, Dest  Dest=Dest >> Src
xorq Src, Dest  Dest=Dest ^ Src
andq Src, Dest  Dest=Dest & Src
orq  Src, Dest  Dest=Dest | Src
```

Note on order (Intel documentation uses op Dest, Src)

Note there is a difference with these two [shift and rotate instructions](#) shrq and sarq!

sarq is an arithmetic shift, that will carry the signed bit.

E.g. of sarq below

| | Value 1 | Value 2 |
|----------------|------------------|------------------|
| x | 0110 0011 | 1001 0101 |
| x>>4 (logical) | 0000 0110 | 1111 1001 |

Exercise

If I have the expression

$$c = b*(b+a)$$

How might I store this computation into c?

```
addq Src, Dest  Dest=Dest+Src
subq Src, Dest  Dest=Dest-Src
imulq Src, Dest Dest=Dest*Src
salq Src, Dest  Dest=Dest << Src
sarq Src, Dest  Dest=Dest >> Src
shrq Src, Dest  Dest=Dest >> Src
xorq Src, Dest  Dest=Dest ^ Src
andq Src, Dest  Dest=Dest & Src
orq  Src, Dest  Dest=Dest | Src
```

One Possible Solution

If I have the expression

$$c = b*(b+a)$$

How might I store this computation into c?

```
MOVQ a, %rax
MOVQ b, %rbx
ADDQ %rbx, %rax
IMULQ %rbx
MOVQ %rax, c
```

```
addq Src, Dest  Dest=Dest+Src
subq Src, Dest  Dest=Dest-Src
imulq Src, Dest Dest=Dest*Src
salq Src, Dest  Dest=Dest << Src
sarq Src, Dest  Dest=Dest >> Src
shrq Src, Dest  Dest=Dest >> Src
xorq Src, Dest  Dest=Dest ^ Src
andq Src, Dest  Dest=Dest & Src
orq Src, Dest   Dest=Dest | Src
```

Description

Performs a signed multiplication of two operands. This instruction has three forms, depending on the number of operands.

- **One-operand form** — This form is identical to that used by the MUL instruction. Here, the source operand (in a general-purpose register or memory location) is multiplied by the value in the AL, AX, EAX, or RAX register (depending on the operand size) and the product (twice the size of the input operand) is stored in the AX, DX:AX, EDX:EAX, or RDX:RAX registers, respectively.
- **Two-operand form** — With this form the destination operand (the first operand) is multiplied by the source operand (second operand). The destination operand is a general-purpose register and the source operand is an immediate value, a general-purpose register, or a memory location. The intermediate product (twice the size of the input operand) is truncated and stored in the destination operand location.
- **Three-operand form** — This form requires a destination operand (the first operand) and two source operands (the second and the third operands). Here, the first source operand (which can be a general-purpose register or a memory location) is multiplied by the second source operand (an immediate value). The intermediate product (twice the size of the first source operand) is truncated and stored in the destination operand (a general-purpose register).

One Possible Solution

If I have the expression

$$c = b*(b+a)$$

How might I store this computation into c?

```
MOVQ a, %rax
MOVQ b, %rbx
ADDQ %rbx, %rax
IMULQ %rbx
MOVQ %rax, c
```

Description

Performs a signed multiplication of two operands.

- **One-operand form** — Multiplies the source operand (a general-purpose register or memory location) by an immediate value (depending on the operand size: AL:AX, EAX:EDX, or RAX:RDX).
- **Two-operand form** — With one operand (second operand) being an immediate value, a general-purpose register, or memory location, the input operand is truncated to the size of the immediate value.
- **Three-operand form** — The destination operand (the second and the third operands) is multiplied by the source operand (the first operand). The intermediate product (twice the size of the source operand) is truncated to the size of the destination operand (a general-purpose register).

IMULQ has a variant with one operand which multiplies by whatever is in %rax and stores result in %rax

IMULQ has three forms, depending on the number of operands. The one-operand form has three forms, depending on the number of operands. Here, the source operand (in the AL, AX, EAX, or RAX register) is multiplied by the input operand) is stored in the AX, EAX, EDX, or RDX register. The two-operand form (the first operand) is multiplied by the source operand (the second operand). The intermediate product (twice the size of the source operand) is truncated to the size of the destination operand location. The three-operand form (the first operand) and two source operands are multiplied. The intermediate product (twice the size of the source operand (which can be a general-purpose register or memory location) is multiplied by the source operand (an immediate value). The intermediate product (twice the size of the source operand) is truncated and stored in the destination operand (a

Some common operations with one-operand

- `incq Dest` $\text{Dest} = \text{Dest} + 1$
- `decq Dest` $\text{Dest} = \text{Dest} - 1$
- `negq Dest` $\text{Dest} = -\text{Dest}$
- `notq Dest` $\text{Dest} = \sim\text{Dest}$

More Anatomy of Assembly Programs

Assembly output of hello

- Lines that start with “.” are compiler directives.
 - This tells the assembler something about the program
 - .text is where the actual code starts.
- Lines that end with “:” are labels
 - Useful for control flow
 - Lines that start with . and end with : are usually temporary locals generated by the compiler.
- Reminder that lines that start with % are registers
- (.cfi stands for [call frame information](#))

```
.file "hello.c"
.text
.globl main
.align 16, 0x90
.type main,@function

main:                                     # @main
.cfi_startproc
# BB#0:
pushq %rbp
.Ltmp2:
.cfi_def_cfa_offset 16
.Ltmp3:
.cfi_offset %rbp, -16
movq %rsp, %rbp
.Ltmp4:
.cfi_def_cfa_register %rbp
subq $16, %rsp
leaq .L.str, %rdi
movl $0, -4(%rbp)
movb $0, %al
callq printf
movl $0, %ecx
movl %eax, -8(%rbp)      # 4-byte Spill
movl %ecx, %eax
addq $16, %rsp
popq %rbp
ret
.Ltmp5:
.size main, .Ltmp5-main
.cfi_endproc

.type .L.str,@object      # @.str
.section .rodata.str1.1,"aMS",@progbits,1
.L.str:
.asciz "Hello\n"
.size .L.str, 7

.ident "clang version 3.4.2 (tags/RELEASE_34/dot2-final)"
.section ".note.GNU-stack","",@progbits
```

Where to Learn more?

[Intel® 64 and IA-32 Architectures Software Developer Manuals](#)

| Document | Description |
|---|--|
| <p>Intel® 64 and IA-32 architectures software developer's manual combined volumes: 1, 2A, 2B, 2C, 2D, 3A, 3B, 3C, 3D, and 4</p> | <p>This document contains the following:</p> <p>Volume 1: Describes the architecture and programming environment of processors supporting IA-32 and Intel® 64 architectures.</p> <p>Volume 2: Includes the full instruction set reference, A-Z. Describes the format of the instruction and provides reference pages for instructions.</p> <p>Volume 3: Includes the full system programming guide, parts 1, 2, 3, and 4. Describes the operating-system support environment of Intel® 64 and IA-32 architectures, including: memory management, protection, task management, interrupt and exception handling, multi-processor support, thermal and power management features, debugging, performance monitoring, system management mode, virtual machine extensions (VMX) instructions, Intel® Virtualization Technology (Intel® VT), and Intel® Software Guard Extensions (Intel® SGX).</p> <p>Volume 4: Describes the model-specific registers of processors supporting IA-32 and Intel® 64 architectures.</p> |

(Volume 2 Instruction set reference)

Bookmarks

Volume 1: Basic Architecture

Volume 2 (2A, 2B, 2C & 2D): Instruction Set Reference, A-Z

Chapter 1 About This Manual

Chapter 2 Instruction Format

Chapter 3 Instruction Set Reference, A-L

3.1 Interpreting the Instruction Reference Pages

3.2 Instructions (A-L)

Chapter 4 Instruction

INC—Increment by 1

| Opcode | Instruction | Op/En | 64-Bit Mode | Compat/Leg Mode | Description |
|------------------|-------------------|-------|-------------|-----------------|---------------------------------------|
| FE /0 | INC <i>r/mB</i> | M | Valid | Valid | Increment <i>r/m</i> byte by 1. |
| REX + FE /0 | INC <i>r/mB</i> * | M | Valid | N.E. | Increment <i>r/m</i> byte by 1. |
| FF /0 | INC <i>r/m16</i> | M | Valid | Valid | Increment <i>r/m</i> word by 1. |
| FF /0 | INC <i>r/m32</i> | M | Valid | Valid | Increment <i>r/m</i> doubleword by 1. |
| REX.W + FF /0 | INC <i>r/m64</i> | M | Valid | N.E. | Increment <i>r/m</i> quadword by 1. |
| 40+ <i>rw</i> ** | INC <i>r16</i> | 0 | N.E. | Valid | Increment word register by 1. |
| 40+ <i>rd</i> | INC <i>r32</i> | 0 | N.E. | Valid | Increment doubleword register by 1. |

NOTES:

* In 64-bit mode, *r/mB* can not be encoded to access the following byte registers if a REX prefix is used: AH, BH, CH, DH.

** 40H through 47H are REX prefixes in 64-bit mode.

Instruction Operand Encoding

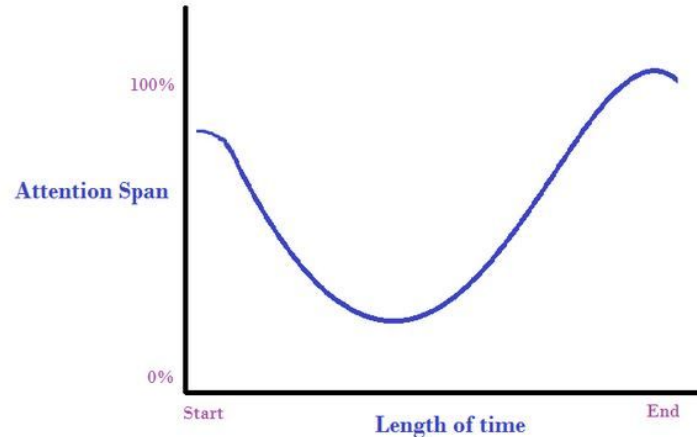
| Op/En | Operand 1 | Operand 2 | Operand 3 | Operand 4 |
|-------|--|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| M | ModRM: <i>r/m</i> (<i>r</i> , <i>w</i>) | NA | NA | NA |
| 0 | opcode + <i>rd</i> (<i>r</i> , <i>w</i>) | NA | NA | NA |

Description

Adds 1 to the destination operand, while preserving the state of the CF flag. The destination operand can be a

Short 5 minute break

- 1 hour 40 minutes is a long time.
- I will try to never lecture for more than half of that time without some sort of 'break' or transition to an in-class activity/lab.
- Use this time to stretch, check your phones, eat/drink something, etc.



Comparisons

Compare operands: **cmp_**, **set_**

- Often we want to compare the values of two registers
 - Think if, then, else constructs or loop exit or switch conditions
- `cmpq Src2, Src1`
 - `cmpq Src2, Src1` is equivalent to computing `Src1-Src2` (but there is no destination register)
- Now we need a method to use the result of compare, but there is not destination to find the result...what do we do?

Using the result from `cmp` => SET instructions

- In order to read result from `cmp`, we use SET
 - SET makes the low-order byte of a destination 0 or 1 depending on the condition codes
 - Does not alter remaining 7 bytes
 - Remember (64 bits = 8 bytes)

00000000 00000000 00000000 00000000 00000000 00000000 00000000
00000000

| | Condition | Description |
|-------|----------------|-----------------------------|
| SETE | ZF | Equal to zero |
| SETNE | ~ZF | Not equal to zero |
| SETS | SF | Negative |
| SETNS | ~SF | Nonnegative |
| SETG | ~(SF^OF) & ~SF | Greater (signed) |
| SETGE | ~(SF^OF) | Greater or equal (signed) |
| SETL | (SF^OF) | Less (Signed) |
| SETLE | (SF^OF) ZF | Less than or equal (Signed) |

Code Example 1

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

```
cmpq %rsi, %rdi      # compare x and y  
setg %al             # Set condition  
code when >  
movzbl %al, %eax    #zero rest of %rax  
ret
```

Some reminders:

%rdi = argument x (first argument)

%rsi = argument y (second argument)

%rax = return value

| SETG | $\sim(SF^{\wedge}OF) \ \& \ \sim SF$ | Greater (signed) |
|------|--------------------------------------|------------------|
|------|--------------------------------------|------------------|

1. CF - (Carry Flag for unsigned)
2. SF - (Carry Flag for signed)
3. OF - Overflow Flag (For signed)
4. ZF - Zero Flag

Code Example 1

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

```
cmpq %rsi, %rdi    # compare x and y  
setg %al           # Set condition  
code when >  
movzbl %al, %eax   #zero rest of %rax
```

What is movzbl?

movzbl %al, %eax # 'AL' is an 8-bit register

Zeroes out first 32 bits of register automatically
Command zeroes out all but the last bit.

Why then not movzbq

3. OF - Overflow Flag (For signed)
4. ZF - Zero Flag

Conditional Branches (jumps)

Jump instructions | Typically used after a compare

| | Condition | Description |
|-----|-------------------------------------|------------------------|
| jmp | 1 | unconditional |
| je | ZF | jump if equal to 0 |
| jne | \sim ZF | jump if not equal to 0 |
| js | SF | Negative |
| jns | \sim SF | non-negative |
| jg | \sim (SF \wedge OF) & \sim ZF | Greater (Signed) |
| jge | \sim (SF \wedge OF) | Greater or Equal |
| jl | (SF \wedge OF) | Less (Signed) |
| jle | (SF \wedge OF) ZF | Less or Equal |
| ja | \sim CF & \sim ZF | Above (unsigned) |
| jb | CF | Below (unsigned) |

Conditional Branch | if-else

```
long absoluteDifference (long x, long y){  
    long result;  
    if (x > y)  
        result = x-y;  
    else  
        result = y-x;  
}
```

Some reminders:

%rdi = argument x (first argument)

%rsi = argument y (second argument)

%rax = return value

```
absoluteDifference:  
    cmpq    %rsi, %rdi  
    jle    .else  
    movq    %rdi, %rax  
    subq    %rsi, %rax  
    ret  
.else  
    movq    %rsi, %rax  
    subq    %rdi, %rax  
    ret
```

Code Exercise (Take a moment to think what this assembly does)

```
MOVQ $0, %rax
```

mystery:

```
INCQ %rax
```

```
CMPQ $5, %rax
```

```
JL mystery
```


Code Exercise | Annotated (while loop example)

```
MOVQ $0, %rax
```

mystery:

```
INCQ %rax
```

```
CMPQ $5, %rax
```

```
JL mystery
```

Move the value 0 into %rax (temp = 0)

Increment %rax (temp = temp + 1;)

Is %rax equal to 5?

Jump to 'mystery' if it is not

Equivalent C Code

```
long temp = 0;
```

```
do{
```

```
    temp = temp + 1;
```

```
}while(temp < 5);
```

Vocabulary

- **Machine Code**
 - 1's and 0's represented as bytes that the machine understands
- **Object File**
 - Machine code with some symbols in it. This allows a 'linker' to put machine code from different parts of system together
- **Assembly**
 - The text representation of machine code that is human readable
- **Instruction Set Architecture (ISA)**
 - The architecture being built on, what the hardware understands as a language (x86 for example).
 - There exist other ISA's like RISC-V which is an open source ISA gaining popularity!

Vocabulary

- **Program Counter (PC)**
 - Holds the address in memory of the next instruction that will be executed
- **Registers**
 - 16 named locations that store (64-bit values in our case, x86-64) values
 - Some hold important values regarding the program state (like the PC)
- **Condition codes**
 - Holds information about the most recent executed arithmetic or logic instruction
 - Useful for if/while statements
- **Vector Registers**
 - Can hold more than one value (execute multiple items at once)
 - (We will talk about these registers later in reference to SIMD)