x86-64 Programming I

CSE 351 Summer 2020

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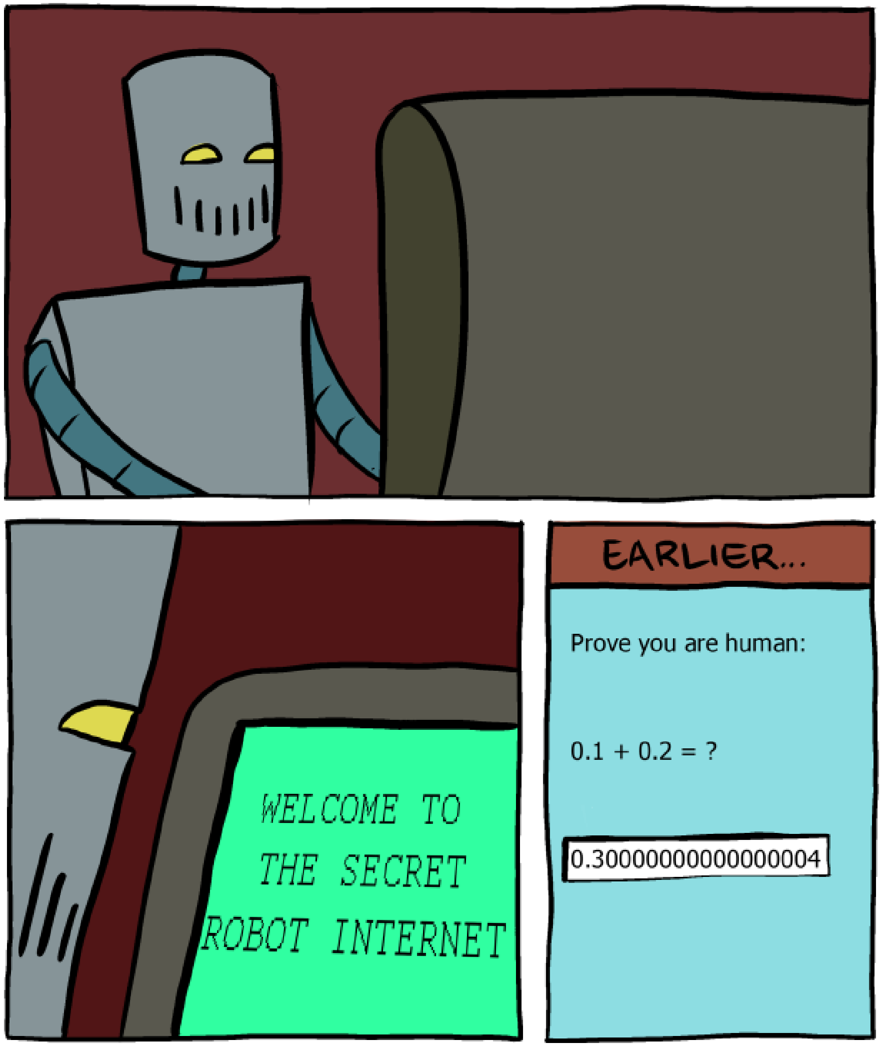

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Administrivia

- Questions doc: https://tinyurl.com/CSE351-7-8

- hw6 & hw7 due Friday (7/10) – 10:30am
- hw8 due Monday (7/13) – 10:30am

- Lab 1b due Friday at 11:59pm (7/10)
  - Submit `aisle_manager.c`, `store_client.c`, and `lab1Breflect.txt`

Administrivia

- Unit Summary 1 Due Wednesday 7/15
  - Submitted via Gradescope
- Unit Summaries are meant to encourage review/reflection of material in place of exams
  - See course website for specification and instructions, including small examples
- Grading very lenient and forgiving, mostly based on effort! If you put in a solid effort you will likely get full credit

Floating point topics

- Fractional binary numbers
- IEEE floating-point standard
- Floating-point operations and rounding
- **Floating-point in C**

- There are many more details that we won't cover
  - It's a 58-page standard…

Floating Point in C

!!!

- Two common levels of precision:

`float`	`1.0f`	single precision (32-bit)
`double`	`1.0`	double precision (64-bit)

- `#include <math.h>` to get `INFINITY` and `NAN` constants

  <float.h> for additional constants

- Equality (==) comparisons between floating point numbers are tricky, and often return unexpected results, so just avoid them!

  instead use $abs(f1 - f2) < 2^{-20}$

  ↑ some arbitrary threshold

Floating Point Conversions in C

!!!

- **Casting between `int`, `float`, and `double` changes the bit representation**
  - `int` → `float`
    - May be rounded (not enough bits in mantissa: 23)
    - Overflow impossible
  - `int` or `float` → `double`
    - Exact conversion (all 32-bit `int`s representable)
  - `long` → `double`
    - Depends on word size (32-bit is exact, 64-bit may be rounded)
  - `double` or `float` → `int`
    - Truncates fractional part (rounded toward zero)
    - "Not defined" when out of range or NaN: generally sets to `Tmin` (even if the value is a very big positive)

Floating Point and the Programmer

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
  float f1 = 1.0;
  float f2 = 0.0;
  int i;
  for (i = 0; i < 10; i++)
    f2 += 1.0/10.0;

  printf("0x%08x  0x%08x\n", *(int*)&f1, *(int*)&f2);
  printf("f1 = %10.9f\n", f1);
  printf("f2 = %10.9f\n\n", f2);

  f1 = 1E30;
  f2 = 1E-30;
  float f3 = f1 + f2;
  printf("f1 == f3? %s\n", f1 == f3 ? "yes" : "no" );

  return 0;
}
```

```
$ ./a.out
0x3f800000  0x3f800001
f1 = 1.000000000
f2 = 1.000000119

f1 == f3? yes
```

Floating Point Summary

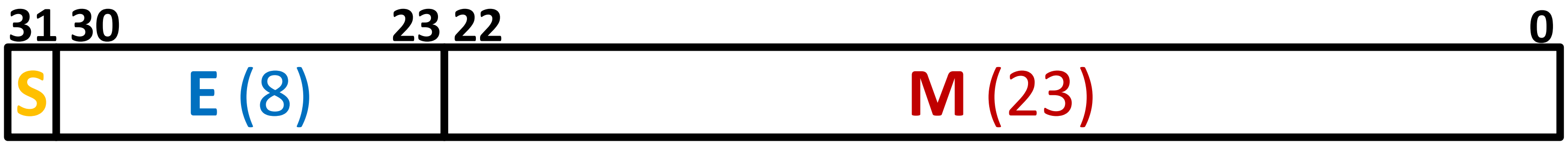
- Floats also suffer from the fixed number of bits available to represent them
  - Can get overflow/underflow
  - "Gaps" produced in representable numbers means we can lose precision, unlike `int`s
    - Some "simple fractions" have no exact representation (*e.g.* 0.2)
    - "Every operation gets a slightly wrong result"
- Floating point arithmetic not associative or distributive
  - Mathematically equivalent ways of writing an expression may compute different results
- Never test floating point values for equality!
- Careful when converting between `int`s and `float`s!

Number Representation Really Matters

- **1991:** Patriot missile targeting error
  - clock skew due to conversion from integer to floating point
- **1996:** Ariane 5 rocket exploded ($1 billion)
  - overflow converting 64-bit floating point to 16-bit integer
- **2000:** Y2K problem
  - limited (decimal) representation: overflow, wrap-around
- **2038:** Unix epoch rollover
  - Unix epoch = seconds since 12am, January 1, 1970
  - signed 32-bit integer representation rolls over to TMin in 2038
- **Other related bugs:**
  - 1982: Vancouver Stock Exchange 10% error in less than 2 years
  - 1994: Intel Pentium FDIV (floating point division) HW bug ($475 million)
  - 1997: USS Yorktown “smart” warship stranded: divide by zero
  - 1998: Mars Climate Orbiter crashed: unit mismatch ($193 million)

Summary

- Floating point approximates real numbers:



  - Handles large numbers, small numbers, special numbers
  - Exponent in biased notation (bias = $2^{w-1}–1$)
    - Size of exponent field determines our representable *range*
    - Outside of representable exponents is *overflow* and *underflow*
  - Mantissa approximates fractional portion of binary point
    - Size of mantissa field determines our representable *precision*
    - Implicit leading 1 (normalized) except in special cases
    - Exceeding length causes *rounding*

Summary

E	M	Meaning
0x00	0	± 0
0x00	non-zero	± denorm num
0x01 – 0xFE	anything	± norm num
0xFF	0	± ∞
0xFF	non-zero	NaN

- Floating point encoding has many limitations
  - Overflow, underflow, rounding
  - Rounding is a HUGE issue due to limited mantissa bits and gaps that are scaled by the value of the exponent
  - Floating point arithmetic is NOT associative or distributive
- Converting between integral and floating point data types *does* change the bits

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:

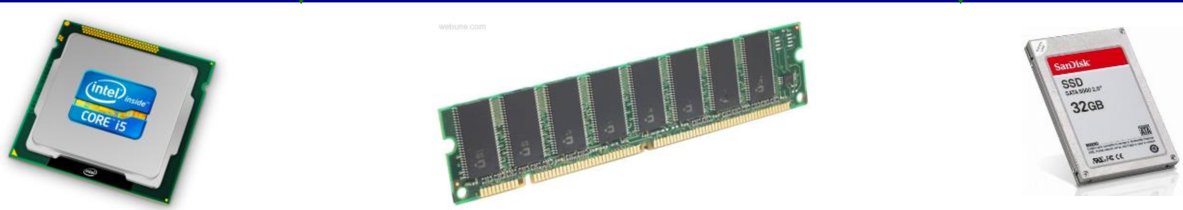
```
0111010000011000
100011010000010000000010
1000100111000010
110000011111101000011111
```

OS:

Windows 10

OS X Yosemite

Computer system:



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

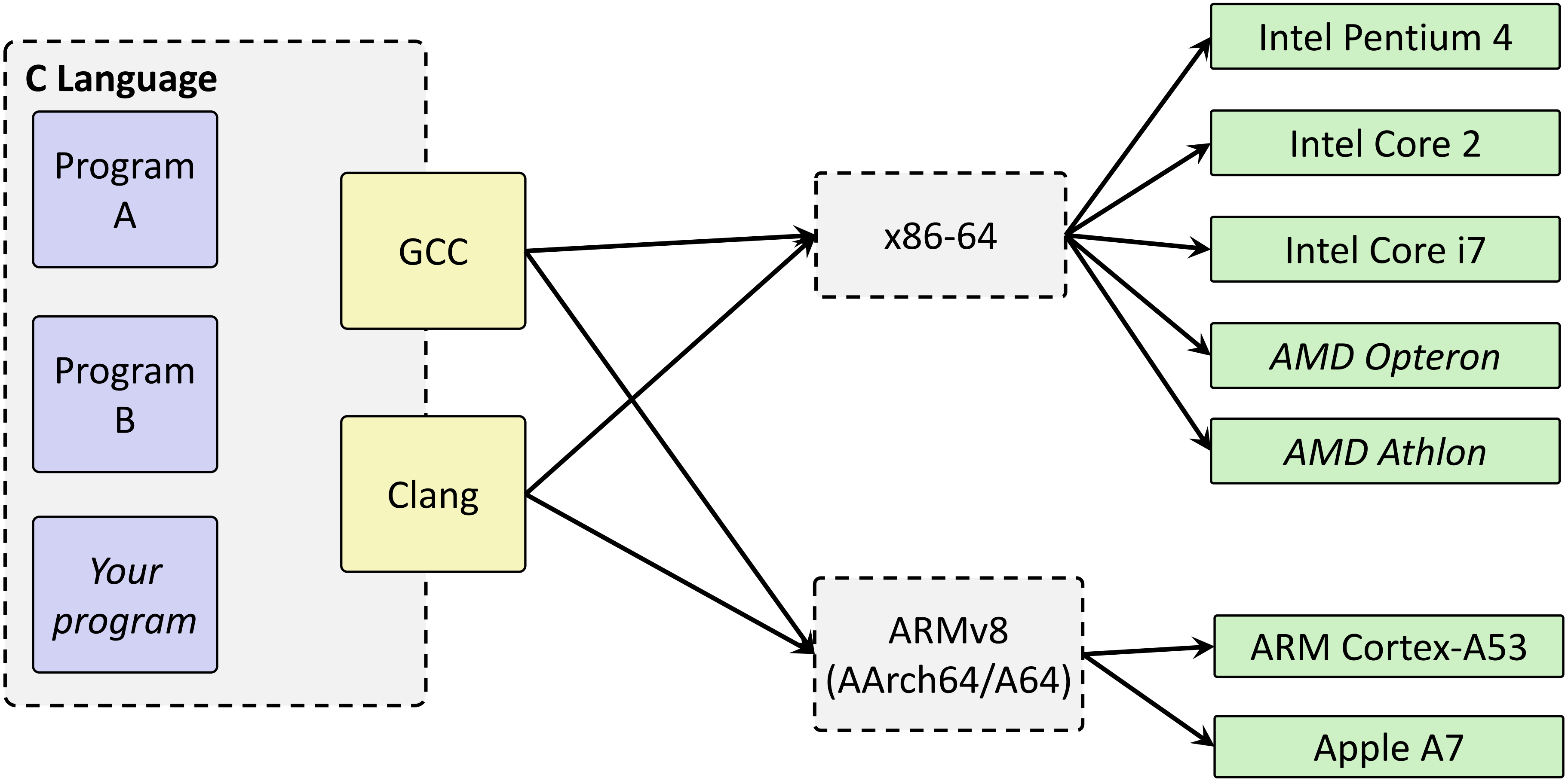
Architecture Sits at the Hardware Interface

Source code
Different applications or algorithms

Compiler
Perform optimizations, generate instructions

Architecture
Instruction set

Hardware
Different implementations

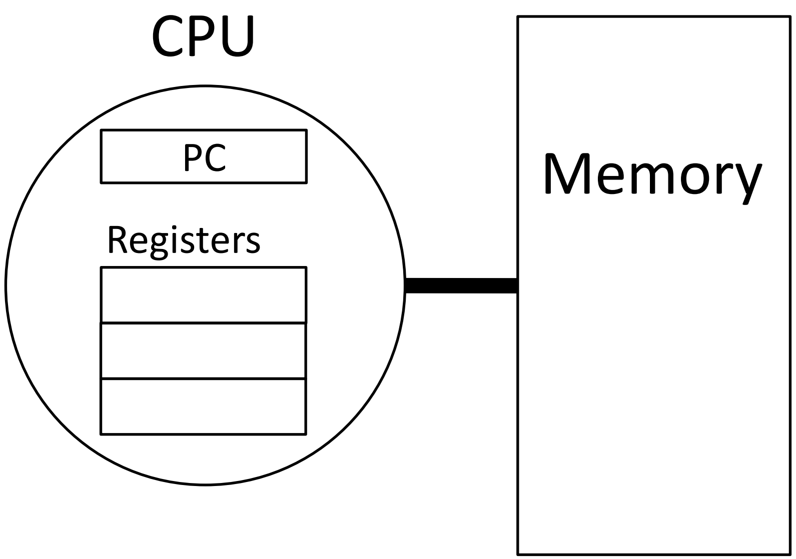


Definitions

- **Architecture (ISA):** The parts of a processor design that one needs to understand to write assembly code
  - "What is directly visible to software"
- **Microarchitecture:** Implementation of the architecture
  - CSE/EE 469

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?
- Registers
  - How many registers are there?
  - How wide are they?
- Memory
  - How do you specify a memory location?

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

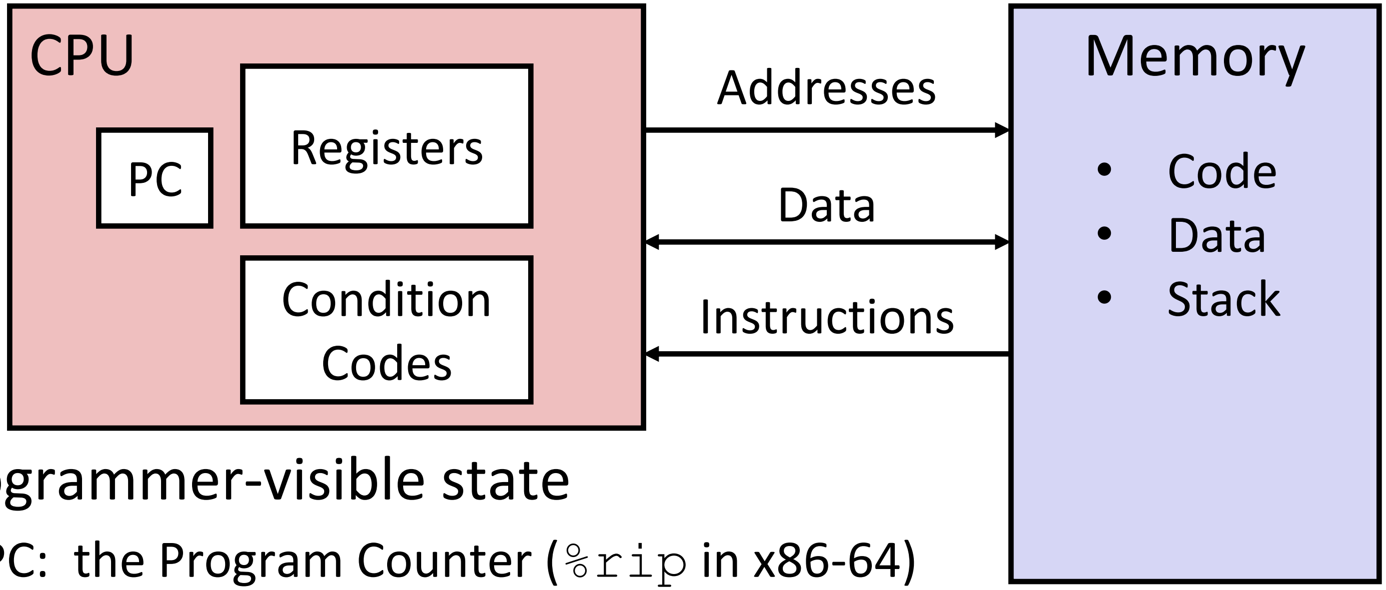
Designer	MIPS Technologies, Inc.
Bits	64-bit (32→64)
Introduced	1981; 35 years ago
Design	RISC
Type	Register-Register
Encoding	Fixed
Endianness	Bi

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

Writing Assembly Code? In 2020???

- Chances are, you'll never write a program in assembly, but understanding assembly is the key to the machine-level execution model:
  - Behavior of programs in the presence of bugs
    - When high-level language model breaks down
  - Tuning program performance
    - Understand optimizations done/not done by the compiler
    - Understanding sources of program inefficiency
  - Implementing systems software
    - What are the "states" of processes that the OS must manage
    - Using special units (timers, I/O co-processors, etc.) inside processor!
  - Fighting malicious software
    - Distributed software is in binary form

Assembly Programmer's View



- Programmer-visible state
  - PC: the Program Counter (`%rip` in x86-64)
    - Address of next instruction
  - Named registers
    - Together in "register file"
    - Heavily used program data
  - Condition codes
    - Store status information about most recent arithmetic operation
    - Used for conditional branching
- Memory
  - Byte-addressable array
  - Code and user data
  - Includes *the Stack* (for supporting procedures)

x86-64 Assembly "Data Types"

- Integral data of 1, 2, 4, or 8 bytes
  - Data values
  - Addresses
- 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, …)

  Not covered In 351
- 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

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

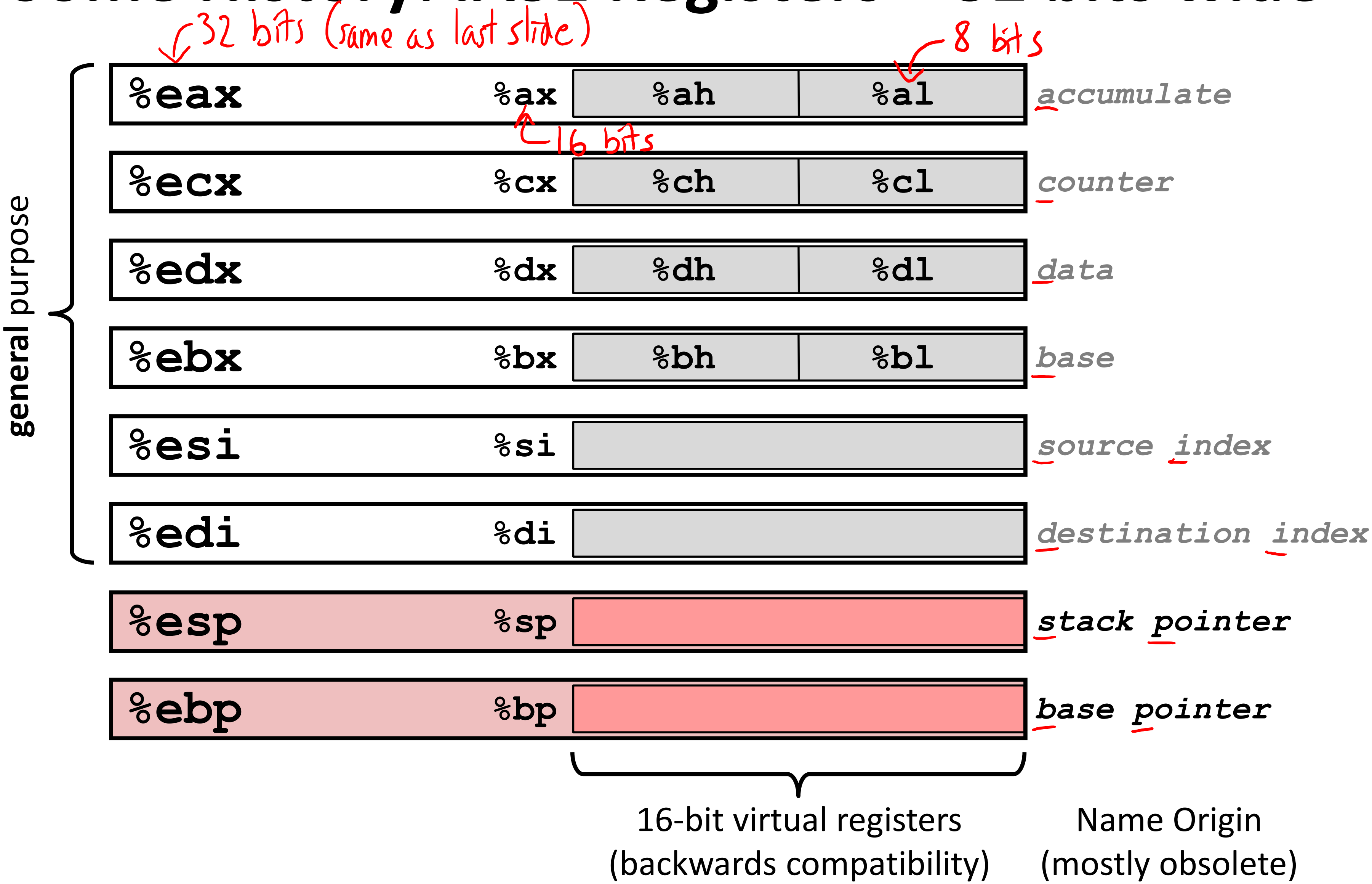
"64-bit names"

%rax	%eax	%r8	%r8d
%rbx	%ebx	%r9	%r9d
%rcx	%ecx	%r10	%r10d
%rdx	%edx	%r11	%r11d
%rsi	%esi	%r12	%r12d
%rdi	%edi	%r13	%r13d
%rsp	%esp	%r14	%r14d
%rbp	%ebp	%r15	%r15d

"32-bit names"

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

Some History: IA32 Registers – 32 bits wide



Memory vs. Registers

Memory		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

1) 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!

2) Perform arithmetic operation on register or memory data
   - `c = a + b;` `z = x << y;` `i = h & g;`

3) 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`

x86-64 Introduction

- Data transfer instruction (`mov`)
- Arithmetic operations
- Memory addressing modes
  - `swap` example
- Address computation instruction (`lea`)

Moving Data

width specifier
instruction name
copies 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 "**b**yte"
- `movw src, dst`
  - Move 2-byte "**w**ord"
- `movl src, dst`
  - Move 4-byte "**l**ong word"
- `movq src, dst`
  - Move 8-byte "**q**uad word"

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?

Some Arithmetic Operations

- Binary (two-operand) Instructions:
  - **Maximum of one memory operand**
  - Beware argument order!
  - No distinction between signed and unsigned
    - Only arithmetic vs. logical shifts
  - How do you implement "`r3 = r1 + r2`"?

Imm, Reg, or Mem

Format	Computation	
`addq src, dst`	*dst = dst + src*	(*dst* += *src*)
`subq src, dst`	*dst = dst – src*	
`imulq src, dst`	*dst = dst * src*	signed mult
`sarq src, dst`	*dst = dst >> src*	**A**rithmetic
`shrq src, dst`	*dst = dst >> src*	**L**ogical
`shlq src, dst`	*dst = dst << src*	(same as `salq`)
`xorq src, dst`	*dst = dst ^ src*	
`andq src, dst`	*dst = dst & src*	
`orq src, dst`	*dst = dst | src*	

operation ↗ ↑ operand size specifier (b, w, l, q)

Polling Question [Asm I – a]

- Assume: r3 is in `%rcx`, r1 is in `%rax`, and r2 is in `%rbx` which of the following would implement:

  r3 = r1 + r2

  - Vote at http://pollev.com/pbjones

A. `addq %rax, %rbx, %rcx`

B. `addq %rcx, %rax, %rbx`

C.
```
movq %rax, %rcx
addq %rbx, %rcx
```

D.
```
movq (%rbx), %rcx
addq (%rax), %rcx
```

E. We're lost…

Some Arithmetic Operations

- Unary (one-operand) Instructions:

Format	Computation	
`incq` *dst*	*dst = dst + 1*	increment
`decq` *dst*	*dst = dst – 1*	decrement
`negq` *dst*	*dst = –dst*	negate
`notq` *dst*	*dst = ~dst*	bitwise complement

- See CSPP Section 3.5.5 for more instructions: `mulq`, `cqto`, `idivq`, `divq`

Arithmetic Example

Register	Use(s)
%rdi	1st argument (x)
%rsi	2nd argument (y)
%rax	return value

```
long simple_arith(long x, long y)
{
  long t1 = x + y;
  long t2 = t1 * 3;
  return t2;
}
```

```
y += x;
y *= 3;
long r = y;
return r;
```

```
simple_arith:
  addq    %rdi, %rsi
  imulq     $3, %rsi
  movq    %rsi, %rax
  ret
```

Example of Basic Addressing Modes

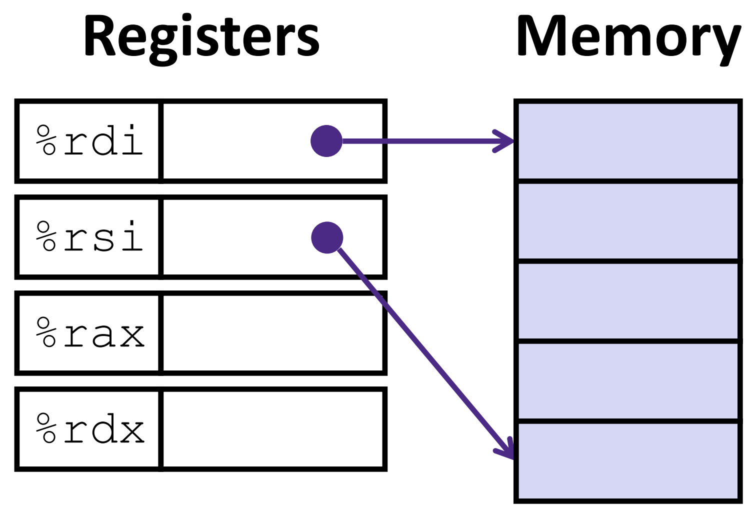
```
void swap(long *xp, long *yp)
{
  long t0 = *xp;
  long t1 = *yp;
  *xp = t1;
  *yp = t0;
}
```

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

Mem operands

Understanding `swap()`

```
void swap(long *xp, long *yp)
{
   long t0 = *xp;
   long t1 = *yp;
   *xp = t1;
   *yp = t0;
}
```




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

Register		Variable
%rdi	⇔	xp
%rsi	⇔	yp
%rax	⇔	t0
%rdx	⇔	t1

Understanding `swap()`

Registers

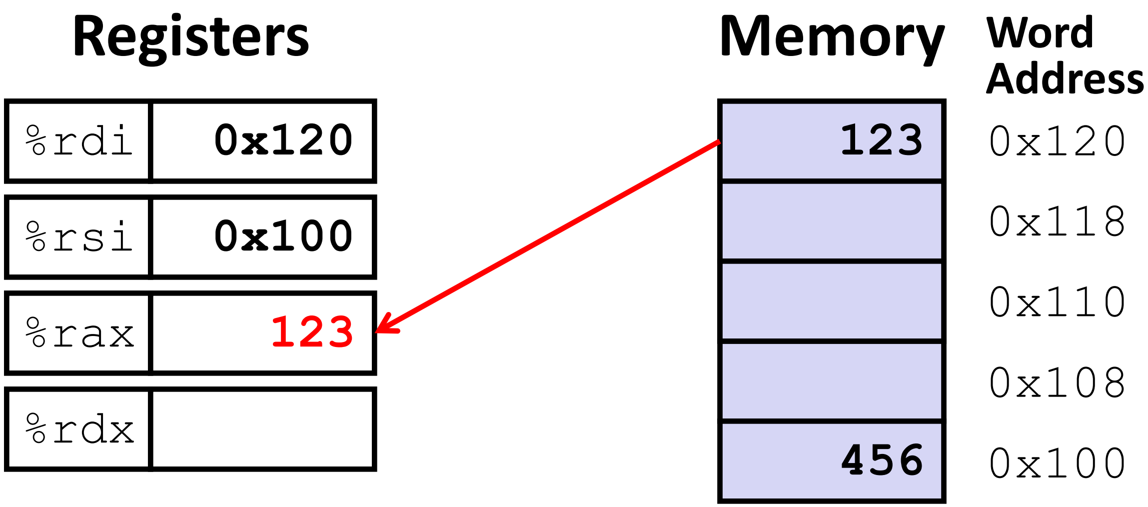
%rdi	**0x120**
%rsi	**0x100**
%rax	
%rdx	

Memory

Memory	Word Address
123	0x120
	0x118
	0x110
	0x108
456	0x100

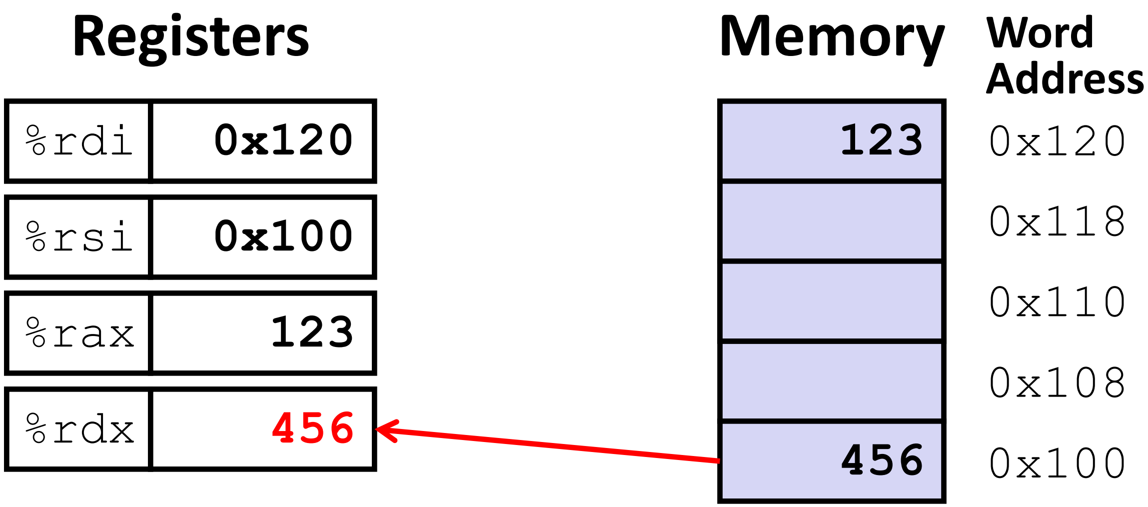
```
swap:
    movq   (%rdi), %rax   #  t0 = *xp
    movq   (%rsi), %rdx   #  t1 = *yp
    movq   %rdx, (%rdi)   # *xp =  t1
    movq   %rax, (%rsi)   # *yp =  t0
    ret
```

Understanding `swap()`




```
swap:
   movq   (%rdi), %rax   #  t0 = *xp
   movq   (%rsi), %rdx   #  t1 = *yp
   movq   %rdx, (%rdi)   # *xp =  t1
   movq   %rax, (%rsi)   # *yp =  t0
   ret
```

Understanding swap()

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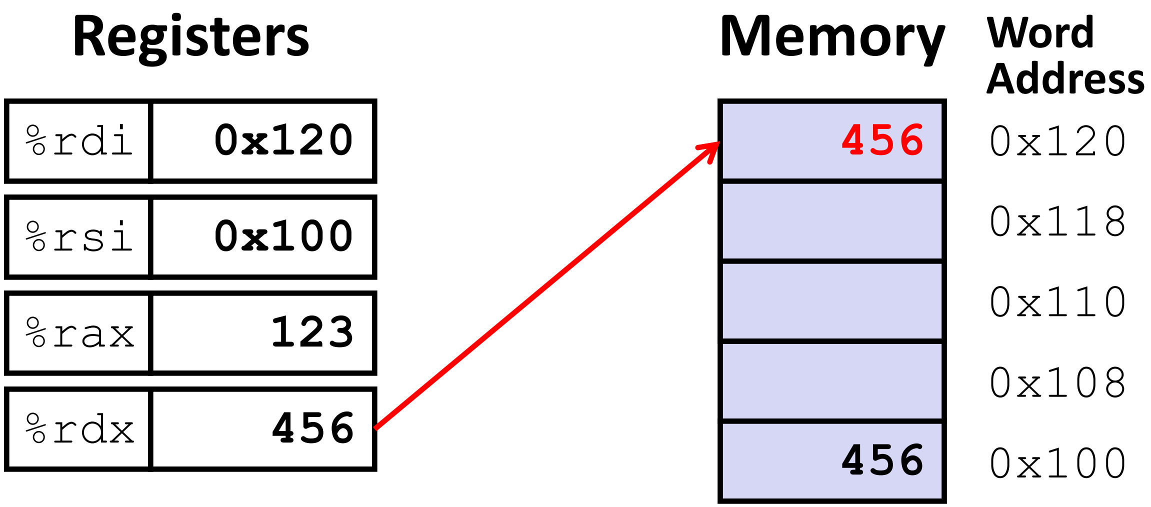
    movq    (%rdi), %rax    #  t0 = *xp
    movq    (%rsi), %rdx    #  t1 = *yp
    movq    %rdx, (%rdi)    # *xp =  t1
    movq    %rax, (%rsi)    # *yp =  t0
    ret
```

Understanding swap()

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    ret
```
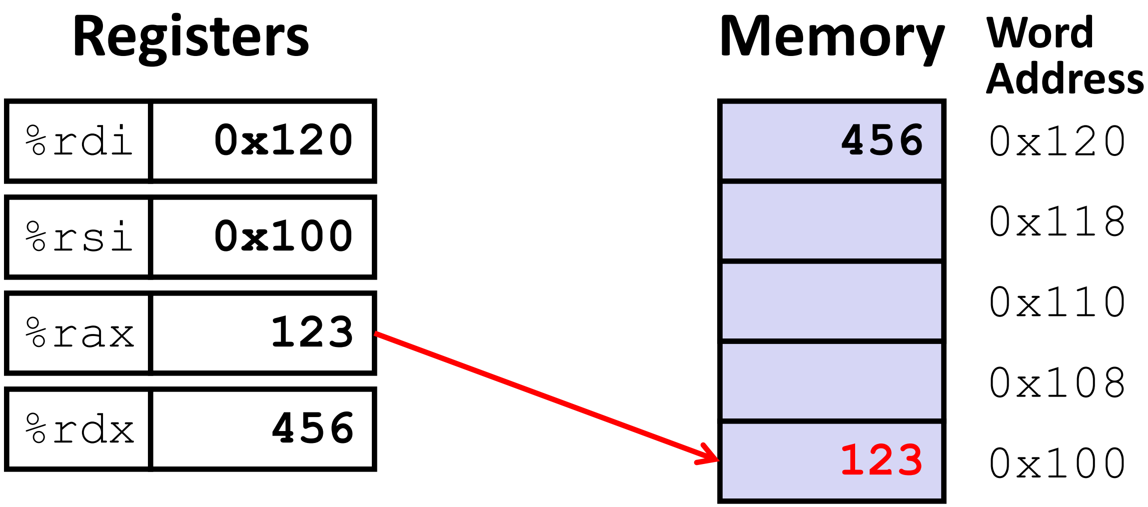

Understanding `swap()`




```
swap:
    movq   (%rdi), %rax   #  t0 = *xp
    movq   (%rsi), %rdx   #  t1 = *yp
    movq   %rdx, (%rdi)   # *xp =  t1
    movq   %rax, (%rsi)   # *yp =  t0
    ret
```

Memory Addressing Modes: Basic

- **Indirect:** `(R)` Mem[Reg[R]]
  - Data in register `R` specifies the memory address
  - Like pointer dereference in C
  - Example: `movq (%rcx), %rax`
- **Displacement:** `D(R)` Mem[Reg[R]+D]
  - Data in register `R` specifies the *start* of some memory region
  - Constant displacement `D` specifies the offset from that address
  - Example: `movq 8(%rbp), %rdx`

Complete Memory Addressing Modes

- **General:**
  - `D(Rb,Ri,S)` Mem[Reg[`Rb`]+Reg[`Ri`]*`S`+`D`]
    - `Rb`: Base register (any register)
    - `Ri`: Index register (any register except `%rsp`)
    - `S`: Scale factor (1, 2, 4, 8) *– why these numbers?*
    - `D`: Constant displacement value (a.k.a. immediate)

- **Special cases** (see CSPP Figure 3.3 on p.181)
  - `D(Rb,Ri)` Mem[Reg[`Rb`]+Reg[`Ri`]+`D`] `(S=1)`
  - `(Rb,Ri,S)` Mem[Reg[`Rb`]+Reg[`Ri`]*`S`] `(D=0)`
  - `(Rb,Ri)` Mem[Reg[`Rb`]+Reg[`Ri`]] `(S=1,D=0)`
  - `(,Ri,S)` Mem[Reg[`Ri`]*`S`] `(Rb=0,D=0)`

Address Computation Examples

%rdx	**0xf000**
%rcx	**0x0100**

D(Rb,Ri,S) →
Mem[Reg[Rb]+Reg[Ri]*S+D]

Expression	Address Computation	Address
0x8(%rdx)		
(%rdx,%rcx)		
(%rdx,%rcx,4)		
0x80(,%rdx,2)		

Summary

- x86-64 is a complex instruction set computing (CISC) architecture
  - There are 3 types of operands in x86-64
    - Immediate, Register, Memory
  - There are 3 types of instructions in x86-64
    - Data transfer, Arithmetic, Control Flow

- **Memory Addressing Modes:** The addresses used for accessing memory in `mov` (and other) instructions can be computed in several different ways
  - *Base register*, *index register*, *scale factor*, and *displacement* map well to pointer arithmetic operations