CS107, Lecture 13

Control Flow: When in doubt just JMP!

Reading: B&O 3.1-3.4

Learning Goals

- Learn about how assembly stores comparison and operation results in condition codes
- Understand how assembly implements loops and control flow

`cmov`: Conditional move

`cmovx src,dst` conditionally moves data in `src` to data in `dst`.

- Mov `src` to `dst` if condition x holds; no change otherwise
- `src` is memory address/register, `dst` is register
- May be more efficient than branch (i.e., jump)
- Often seen with C ternary operator: `result = test ? then: else;`

```
int max(int x, int y) {
    return x > y ? x : y;
}
```

```
cmp    %edi,%esi
mov    %edi, %eax
cmovge %esi, %eax
retq
```

`cmov`: Conditional move

Instruction	Synonym	Move Condition
`cmove S,R`	`cmovz`	Equal / zero (ZF = 1)
`cmovne S,R`	`cmovnz`	Not equal / not zero (ZF = 0)
`cmovs S,R`		Negative (SF = 1)
`cmovns S,R`		NonnegaOve (SF = 0)
`cmovg S,R`	`cmovnle`	Greater (signed >) (SF = 0 and SF = OF)
`cmovge S,R`	`cmovnl`	Greater or equal (signed >=) (SF = OF)
`cmovl S,R`	`cmovnge`	Less (signed <) (SF != OF)
`cmovle S,R`	`cmovng`	Less or equal (signed <=) (ZF = 1 or SF! = OF)
`cmova S,R`	`cmovnbe`	Above (unsigned >) (CF = 0 and ZF = 0)
`cmovae S,R`	`cmovnb`	Above or equal (unsigned >=) (CF = 0)
`cmovb S,R`	`cmovnae`	Below (unsigned <) (CF = 1)
`cmovbe S,R`	`cmovna`	Below or equal (unsigned <=) (CF = 1 or ZF = 1)

Practice: Fill in the blanks

```
long loop(long a, long b) {
    long result = ___(1)___;
    while (___(2)___) {
      result = ____(3)_____;
      a = ___(4)___;
    }
    return result;
}
```

```
<+0>:   mov    $0x1,%eax
<+5>:   cmp    %rsi,%rdi
<+8>:   jge    0x1151 <loop+24>
<+10>:  lea    (%rdi,%rsi,1),%rdx
<+14>:  imul   %rdx,%rax
<+18>:  add    $0x1,%rdi
<+22>:  jmp    0x113e <loop+5>
<+24>:  retq
```

GCC common while loop construction:

Test
Jump past loop if fails
Body
Jump to test

https://godbolt.org/z/zrW6c5MGa

Practice: Fill in the blanks

```c
long loop(long a, long b) {
    long result = ___(1)___;
    while (___(2)___) {
      result = ____(3)_____;
      a = ___(4)___;
    }
    return result;
}
```

```
<+0>:    mov     $0x1,%eax
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<+24>:   retq
```

GCC common while loop construction:

Test
Jump past loop if fails
Body
Jump to test

Practice: Fill in the blanks

```
long loop(long a, long b) {
    long result = ____1____;
    while (_a < b___) {
      result = result*(a+b);
      a = _a + 1___;
    }
    return result;
}
```

```
<+0>:   mov    $0x1,%eax

<+5>:   cmp    %rsi,%rdi
<+8>:   jge    0x1151 <loop+24>

<+10>:  lea    (%rdi,%rsi,1),%rdx
<+14>:  imul   %rdx,%rax
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<+22>:  jmp    0x113e <loop+5>

<+24>:  retq
```

Warm-up: Reverse Engineering

```
int elem_arithmetic(int nums[], int y) {
    int z = nums[________] * ________;

    z -= ________;

    return ________;
}
----------
// nums in %rdi, y in %esi
elem_arithmetic:
  movl %esi, %eax
  imull 4(%rdi), %eax
  movslq %esi, %rsi
  subl (%rdi,%rsi,4), %eax
  lea 2(%rax, %rax), %eax
  ret
```

Warm-up: Reverse Engineering

```
int elem_arithmetic(int nums[], int y) {
    int z = nums[1] * y;

    z -= ________;

    return ________;
}
----------
// nums in %rdi, y in %esi
elem_arithmetic:
  movl %esi, %eax          // copy y into %eax
  imull 4(%rdi), %eax      // multiply %eax by nums[1]
  movslq %esi, %rsi        // sign-extend %esi to %rsi
  subl (%rdi,%rsi,4), %eax
  lea 2(%rax, %rax), %eax
  ret
```

Warm-up: Reverse Engineering

```
int elem_arithmetic(int nums[], int y) {
    int z = nums[1] * y;

    z -= nums[y];

    return 2 * z + 2;
}
----------
// nums in %rdi, y in %esi
elem_arithmetic:
  movl %esi, %eax              // copy y into %eax
  imull 4(%rdi), %eax          // multiply %eax by nums[1]
  movslq %esi, %rsi            // sign-extend %esi to %rsi
  subl (%rdi,%rsi,4), %eax     // subtract nums[y] from %eax
  lea 2(%rax, %rax), %eax      // multiply %rax by 2, and add 2
  ret
```

test practice: What's the C code?

```
0x400546 <test_func>     test   %edi,%edi
0x400548 <test_func+2>   jns    0x400550 <test_func+10>
0x40054a <test_func+4>   mov    $0xfeed,%eax
0x40054f <test_func+9>   retq
0x400550 <test_func+10>  mov    $0xaabbccdd,%eax
0x400555 <test_func+15>  retq
```

test practice: What's the C code?

```
0x400546 <test_func>     test   %edi,%edi
0x400548 <test_func+2>   jns    0x400550 <test_func+10>
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0x40054f <test_func+9>   retq
0x400550 <test_func+10>  mov    $0xaabbccdd,%eax
0x400555 <test_func+15>  retq
```

```
int test_func(int x) {
    if (x < 0) {
        return 0xfeed;
    }
    return 0xaabbccdd;
}
```

(or anything like this)

Practice: “Escape Room”

```
<escape_room+0>        lea    (%rdi,%rdi,1),%eax
<escape_room+3>        cmp    $0x5,%eax
<escape_room+6>        jg     0x114c <escape_room+19>
<escape_room+8>        cmp    $0x1,%edi
<escape_room+11>       je     0x1152 <escape_room+25>
<escape_room+13>       mov    $0x0,%eax
<escape_room+18>       retq
<escape_room+19>       mov    $0x1,%eax
<escape_room+24>       retq
<escape_room+25>       mov    $0x1,%eax
<escape_room+30>       retq
```

What must be passed to the escapeRoom function such that it returns true (1) and not false (0)?

You don’t have to reverse-engineer C code exactly!

Practice: "Escape Room"

```
<escape_room+0>       lea    (%rdi,%rdi,1),%eax
<escape_room+3>       cmp    $0x5,%eax
<escape_room+6>       jg     0x114c <escape_room+19>
<escape_room+8>       cmp    $0x1,%edi
<escape_room+11>      je     0x1152 <escape_room+25>
<escape_room+13>      mov    $0x0,%eax
<escape_room+18>      retq
<escape_room+19>      mov    $0x1,%eax
<escape_room+24>      retq
<escape_room+25>      mov    $0x1,%eax
<escape_room+30>      retq
```

What must be passed to the escapeRoom function such that it returns true (1) and not false (0)?

First param > 2 or == 1.

%rip

- **%rip** is a special register that points to the next instruction to execute.
- **Let's dive deeper into how %rip works, and how jumps modify it**.

%rip

```c
void loop() {
    int i = 0;
    while (i < 100) {
        i++;
    }
}
```

```
0x40113f <+0>:   b8 00 00 00 00   mov   $0x0,%eax
0x401144 <+5>:   83 f8 63         cmp   $0x63,%eax
0x401147 <+8>:   7f 05            jg    40114e <loop2+15>
0x401149 <+10>:  83 c0 01         add   $0x1,%eax
0x40114c <+13>:  eb f6            jmp   401144 <loop2+5>
0x40114e <+15>:  c3               retq
```

%rip

```
void loop() {
    int i = 0;
    while (i < 100) {
        i++;
    }
}
```

```
0x40113f <+0>:  b8 00 00 00 00   mov   $0x0,%eax
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0x401149 <+10>: 83 c0 01         add   $0x1,%eax
0x40114c <+13>: eb f6            jmp   401144 <loop2+5>
0x40114e <+15>: c3               retq
```

These are 0-based offsets in bytes (hex) for each instruction relative to the start of this function.

%rip

```
void loop() {
    int i = 0;
    while (i < 100) {
        i++;
    }
}
```

```
0x40113f <+0>:  b8 00 00 00 00   mov   $0x0,%eax
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0x40114e <+15>: c3               retq
```

These are bytes for the machine code instructions. Instructions are variable length.

%rip

```
void loop() {
    int i = 0;
    while (i < 100) {
        i++;
    }
}
```

```
0x40113f <+0>:   b8 00 00 00 00   mov  $0x0,%eax
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0x40114e <+15>:  c3               retq
```

0x7f means **jg**.

%rip

```
0x40113f <+0>:   b8 00 00 00 00   mov   $0x0,%eax
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0x40114e <+15>:  c3               retq
```

0x05 is the number of instruction bytes to jump relative to %rip.

With no jump, %rip would advance to the next line. This **jg** says to <u>then</u> go **5** bytes further!

%rip

```
0x40113f <+0>:   b8 00 00 00 00   mov   $0x0,%eax
0x401144 <+5>:   83 f8 63         cmp   $0x63,%eax
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0x40114c <+13>:  eb f6            jmp   401144 <loop2+5>
0x40114e <+15>:  c3               retq
```

0xeb means **jmp**.

%rip

```
0x40113f <+0>:   b8 00 00 00 00   mov   $0x0,%eax
0x401144 <+5>:   83 f8 63         cmp   $0x63,%eax
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```

0xf6 is the number of instruction bytes to jump relative to %rip. This is -10 (in two's complement!).

With no jump, %rip would advance to the next line. This **jmp** says to <u>then</u> go **10** bytes back!

%rip

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Summary: Instruction Pointer

- Machine code instructions live in main memory, just like stack and heap data.
- %rip is a register that stores a number (an address) of the next instruction to execute. It marks our place in the program's instructions.
- To advance to the next instruction, special hardware adds the size of the current instruction in bytes.
- **jmp** instructions work by adjusting %rip by a specified amount.

How do we call functions in assembly?

Calling Functions In Assembly

To call a function in assembly, we must do a few things:

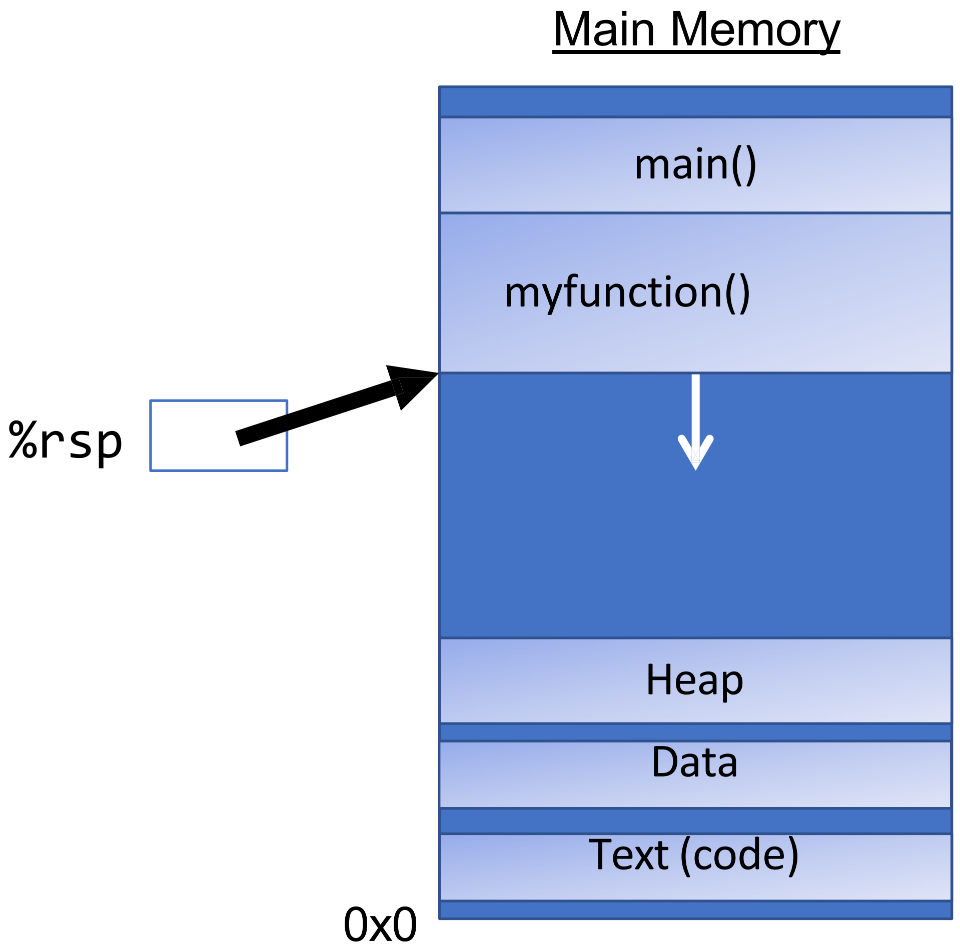
- **Pass Control** – %rip must be adjusted to execute the callee's instructions, and then resume the caller's instructions afterwards.
- **Pass Data** – we must pass any parameters and receive any return value.
- **Manage Memory** – we must handle any space needs of the callee on the stack.

How does assembly interact with the stack?

Terminology: **caller** function calls the **callee** function.

%rsp

- **%rsp** is a special register that stores the address of the current “top” of the stack (the bottom in our diagrams, since the stack grows downwards).



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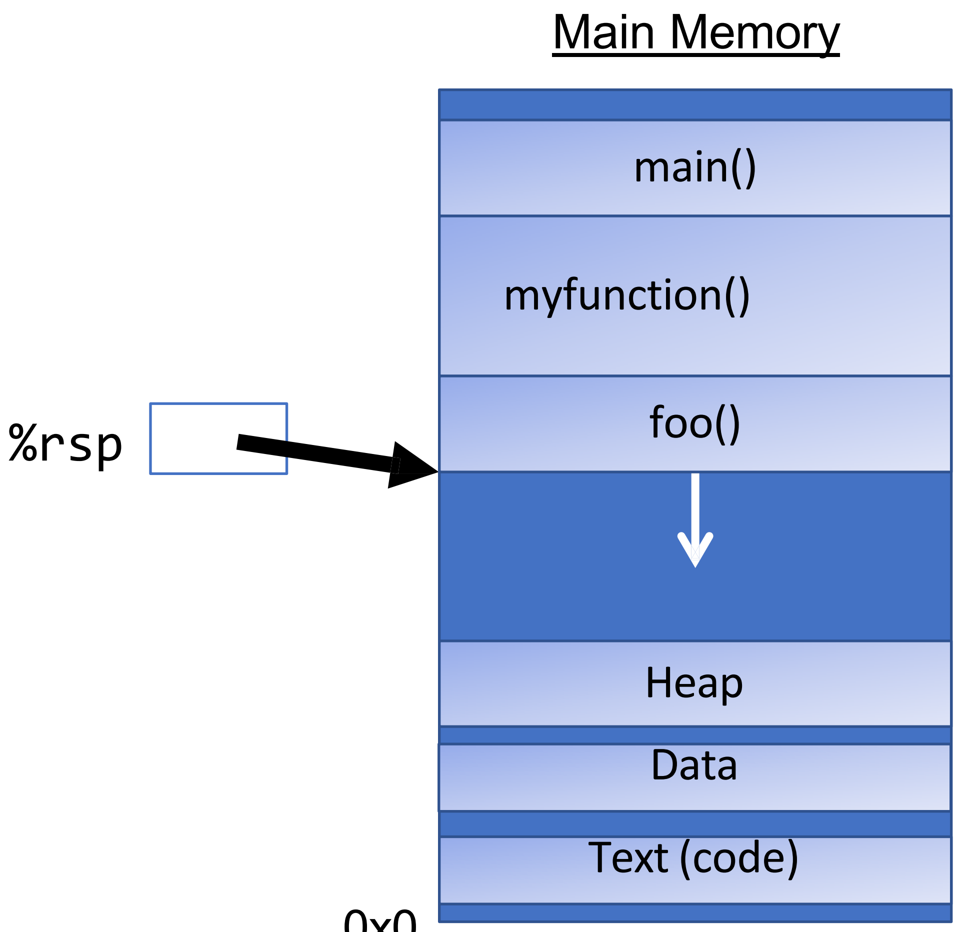

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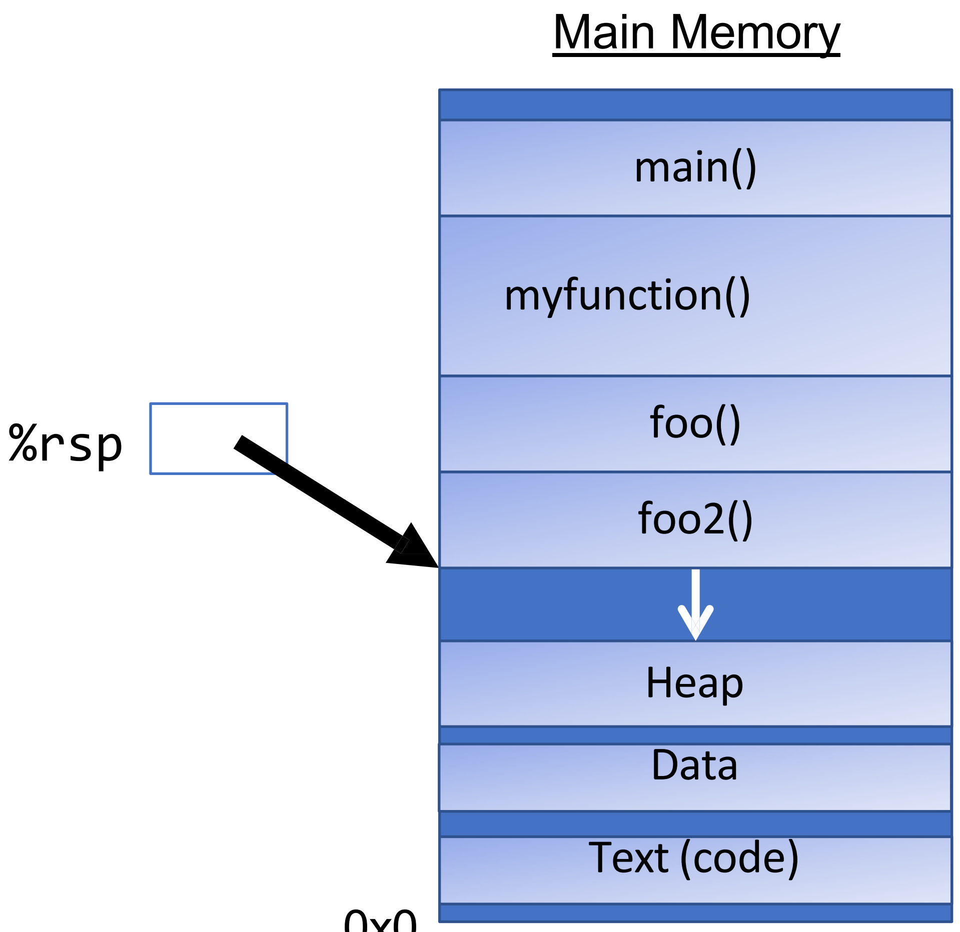

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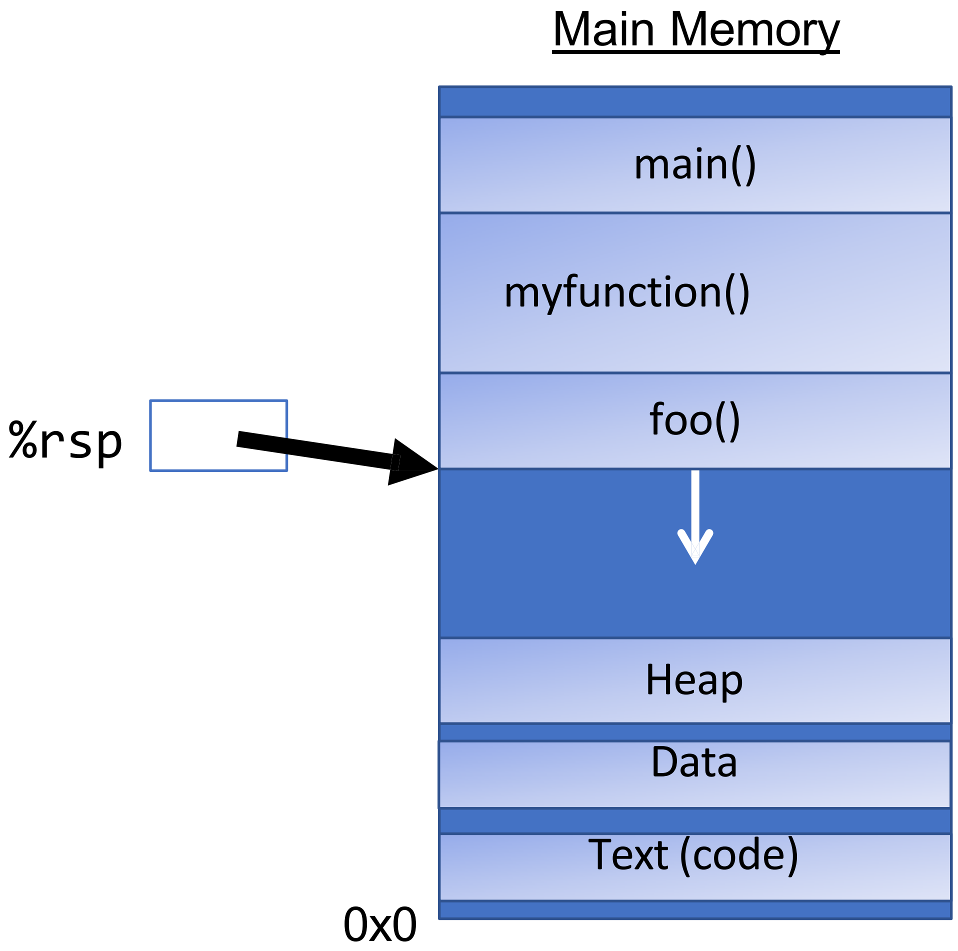

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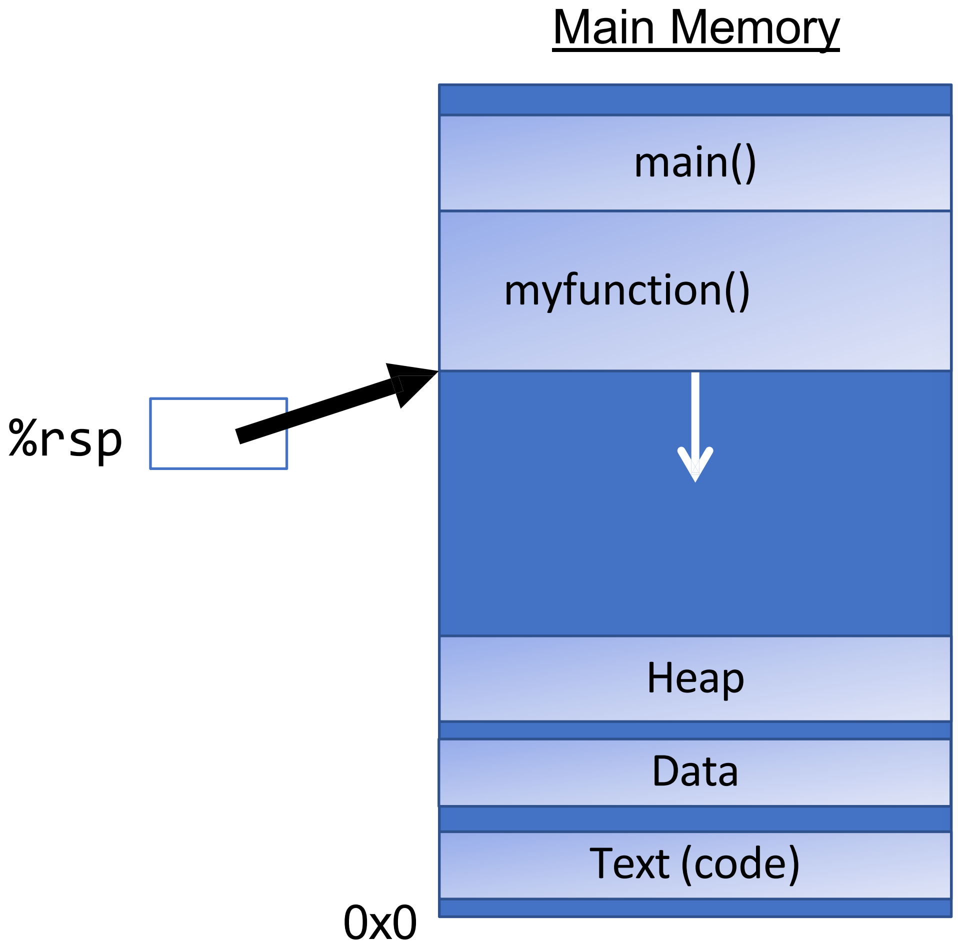

Key idea: %rsp must point to the same place before a function is called and after that function returns, since stack frames go away when a function finishes.

push

- The **push** instruction pushes the data at the specified source onto the top of the stack, adjusting **%rsp** accordingly.

Instruction	**Effect**
`pushq S`	`R[%rsp] ⟵ R[%rsp] – 8;` `M[R[%rsp]] ⟵ S`

push

- The **push** instruction pushes the data at the specified source onto the top of the stack, adjusting **%rsp** accordingly.

Instruction	Effect
`pushq S`	`R[%rsp] ← R[%rsp] - 8;` `M[R[%rsp]] ← S`

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Instruction	Effect
`pushq S`	`R[%rsp] ← R[%rsp] - 8;` `M[R[%rsp]] ← S`

- This behavior is equivalent to the following, but pushq is a shorter instruction:

```
subq $8, %rsp
movq  S, (%rsp)
```

- Sometimes, you'll see instructions just explicitly decrement the stack pointer to make room for future data.

pop

- The **pop** instruction pops the topmost data from the stack and stores it in the specified destination, adjusting **%rsp** accordingly.

Instruction	Effect
`popq D`	`D ← M[R[%rsp]]` `R[%rsp] ← R[%rsp] + 8;`

- **Note**: this *does not* remove/clear out the data! It just increments %rsp to indicate the next push can overwrite that location.

pop

- The **pop** instruction pops the topmost data from the stack and stores it in the specified destination, adjusting **%rsp** accordingly.

Instruction	**Effect**
`popq D`	`D ⟵ M[R[%rsp]]` `R[%rsp] ⟵ R[%rsp] + 8;`

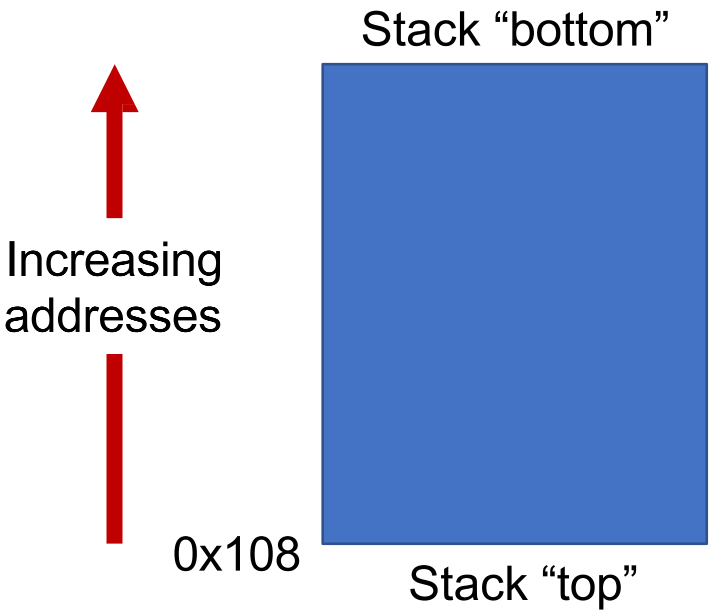
- This behavior is equivalent to the following, but popq is a shorter instruction:

```
movq (%rsp), D
addq $8, %rsp
```

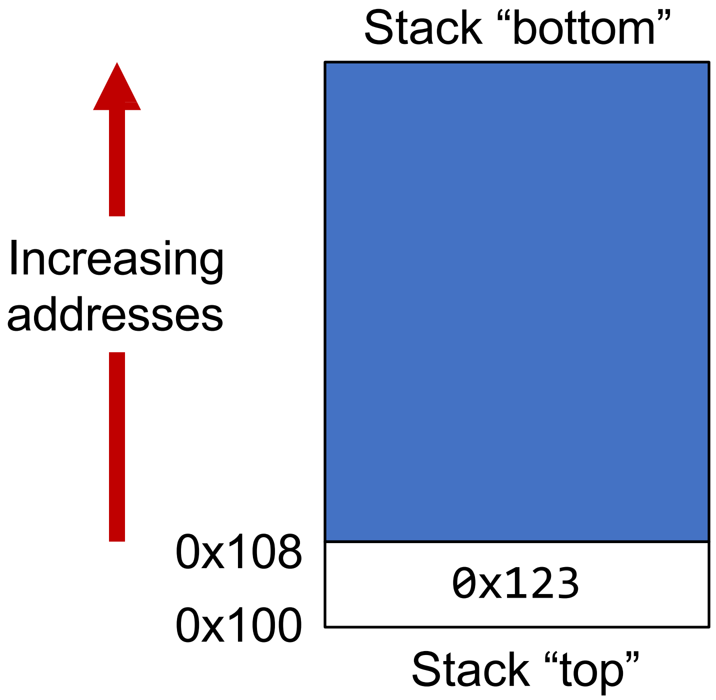
- Sometimes, you'll see instructions just explicitly increment the stack pointer to pop data.

Stack Example

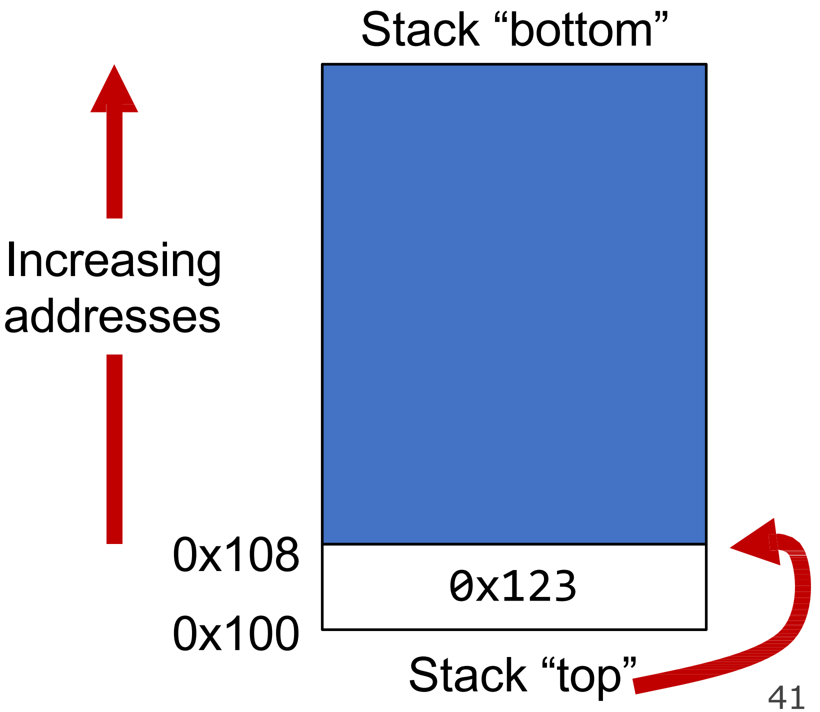
Initially	
%rax	0x123
%rdx	0
%rsp	0x108



pushq %rax	
%rax	0x123
%rdx	0
%rsp	0x100



popq %rdx	
%rax	0x123
%rdx	0x123
%rsp	0x108



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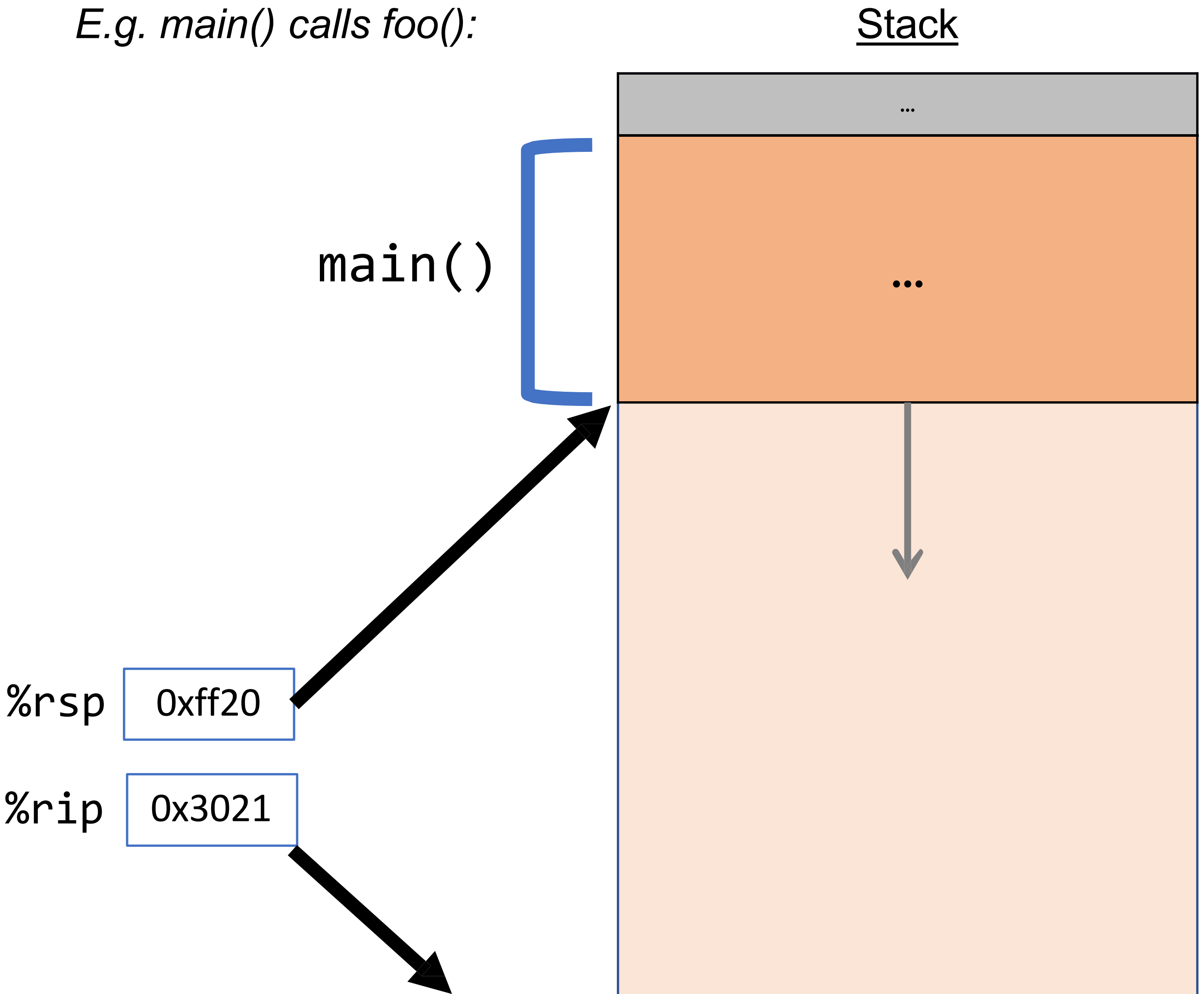
Terminology: **caller** function calls the **callee** function.

Remembering Where We Left Off

Problem: %rip points to the next instruction to execute. To call a function, we must remember the *next* caller instruction to resume at after.

Solution: push the next value of %rip onto the stack. Then call the function. When it is finished, put this value back into %rip and continue executing.

E.g. main() calls foo():



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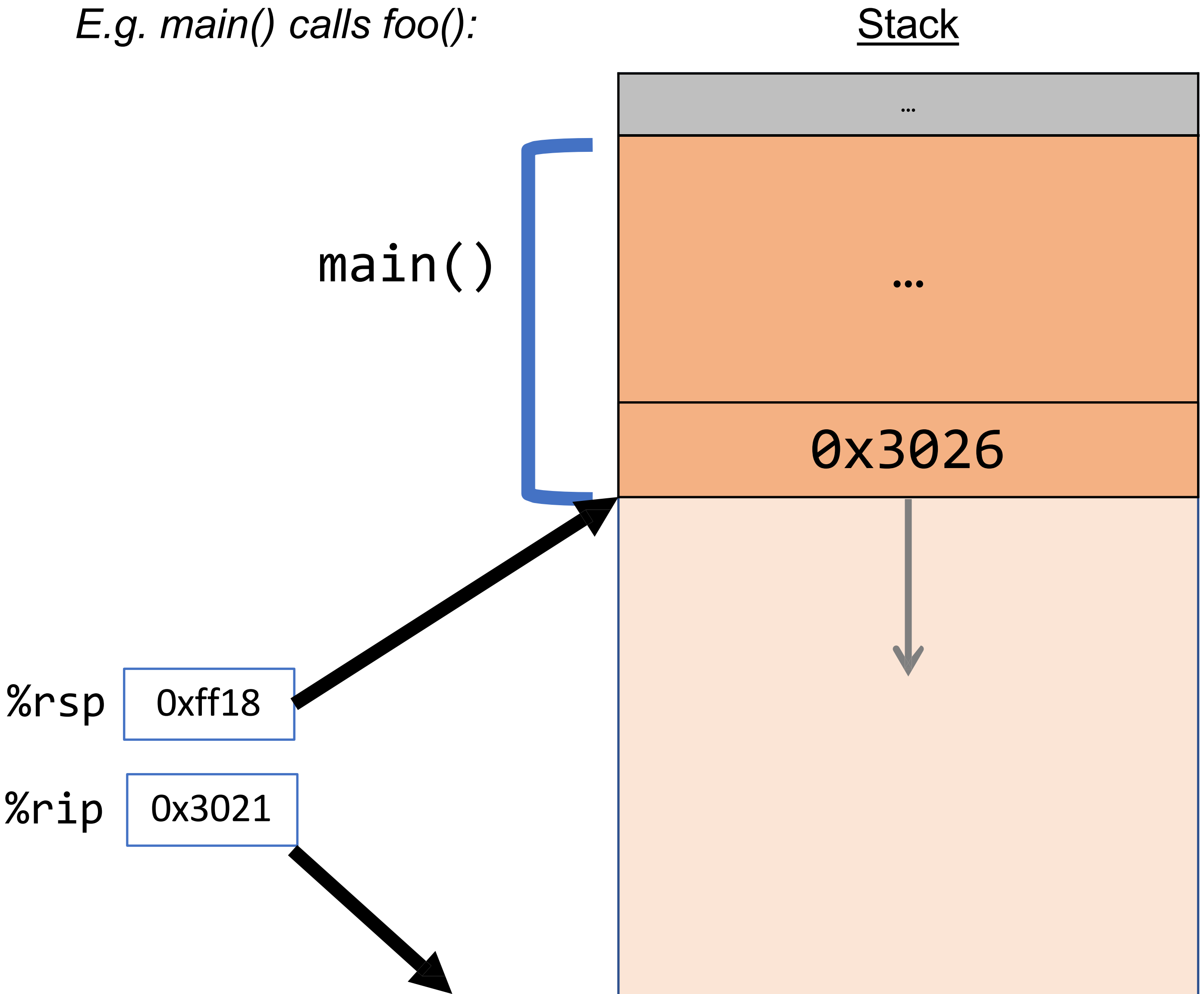

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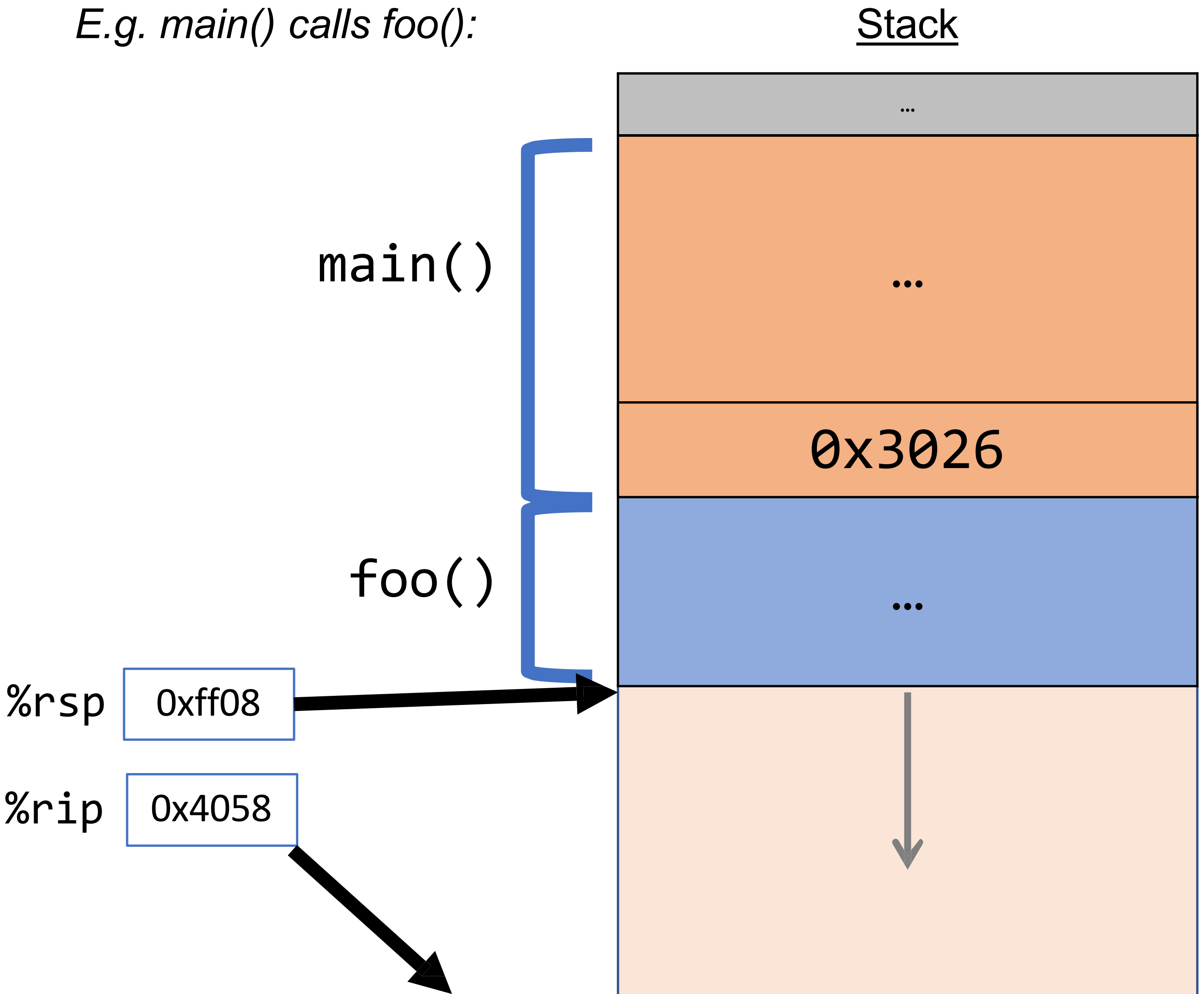

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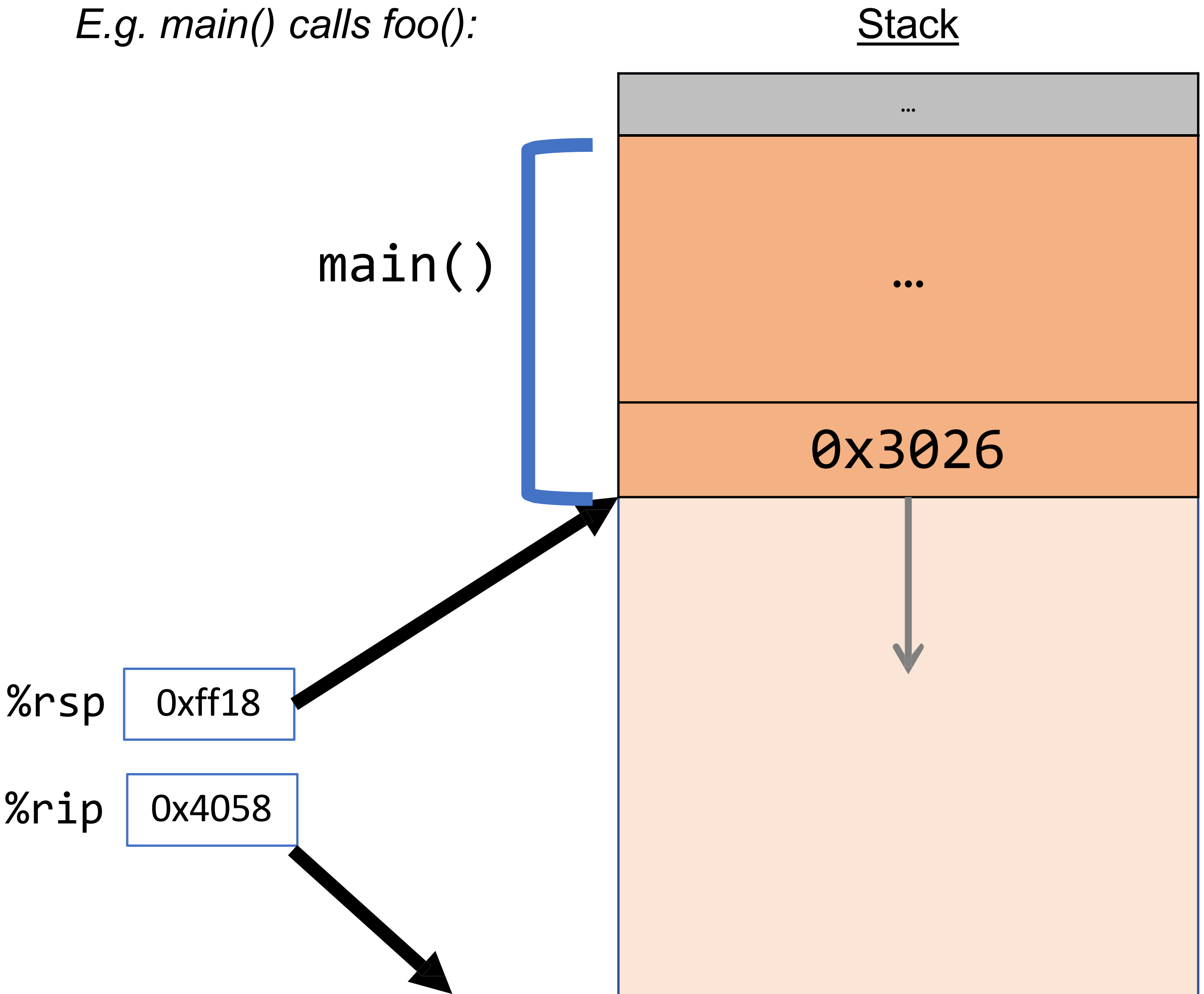

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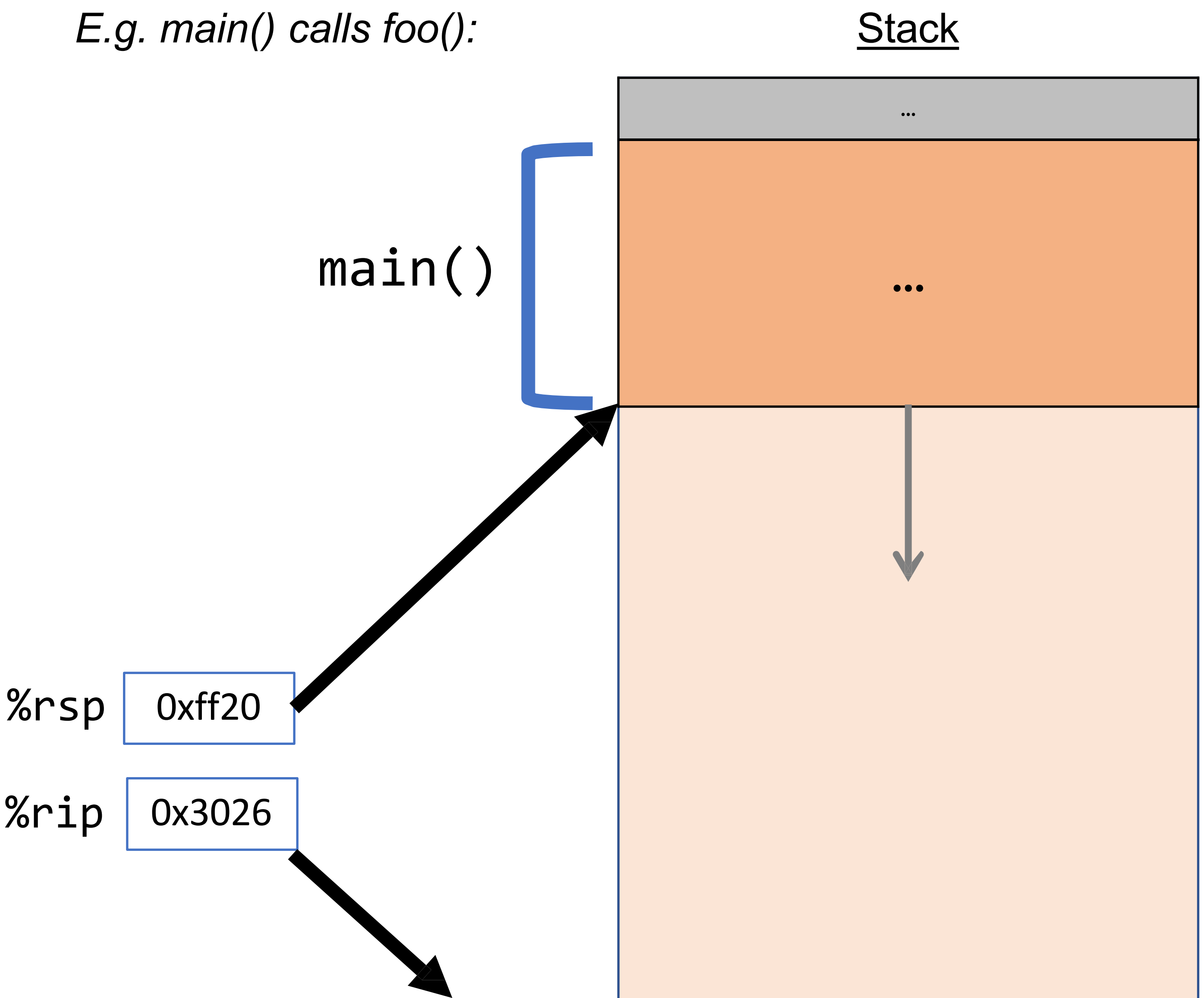


Call And Return

The **call** instruction pushes the address of the instruction immediately following the **call** instruction onto the stack and sets %rip to point to the beginning of the specified function's instructions.

```
call Label
call *Operand
```

The **ret** instruction pops this instruction address from the stack and stores it in %rip.

```
ret
```

The stored %rip value for a function is called its **return address.** It is the address of the instruction at which to resume the function's execution. (not to be confused with **return value**, which is the value returned from a function).

Calling Functions In Assembly

To call a function in assembly, we must do a few things:

- **Pass Control** – %rip must be adjusted to execute the function being called and then resume the caller function afterwards.
- **Pass Data** – we must pass any parameters and receive any return value.
- **Manage Memory** – we must handle any space needs of the callee on the stack.

Terminology: **caller** function calls the **callee** function.

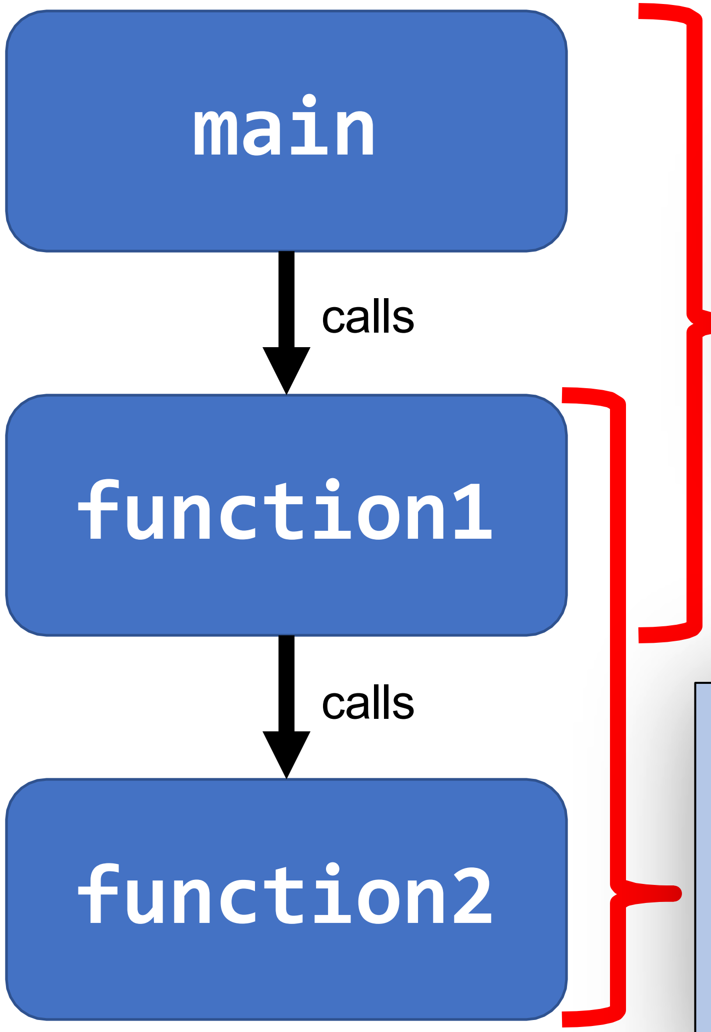
Register Restrictions

There is only one copy of registers for all programs and functions.

- **Problem:** what if ***funcA*** is building up a value in register %r10, and calls ***funcB*** in the middle, which also has instructions that modify %r10? ***funcA***'s value will be overwritten!
- **Solution:** make some "rules of the road" that callers and callees must follow when using registers so they do not interfere with one another.
- These rules define two types of registers: **caller-owned** and **callee-owned**

Caller/Callee

Caller/callee is terminology that refers to a pair of functions. A single function may be both a caller and callee simultaneously (e.g. `function1` at right).



`main` is the caller, and `function1` is the callee.

`function1` is the caller, and `function2` is the callee.

Register Restrictions

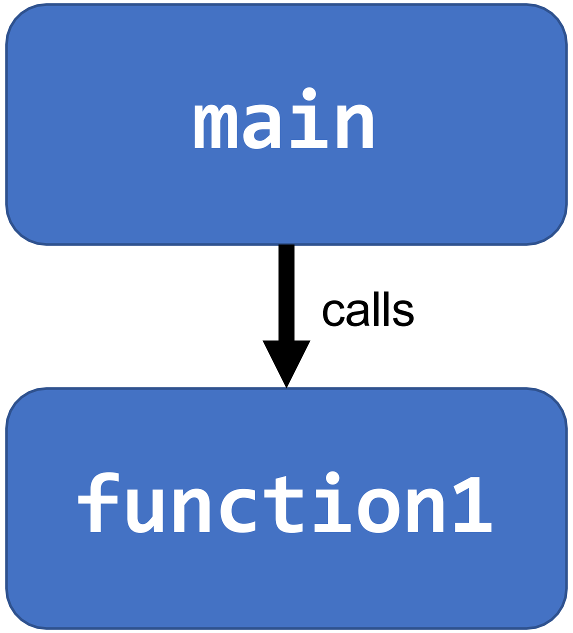
Caller-Owned

- Callee must *save* the existing value and *restore* it when done.
- Caller can store values and assume they will be preserved across function calls.

Callee-Owned

- Callee does not need to save the existing value.
- Caller's values could be overwritten by a callee! The caller may consider saving values elsewhere before calling functions.

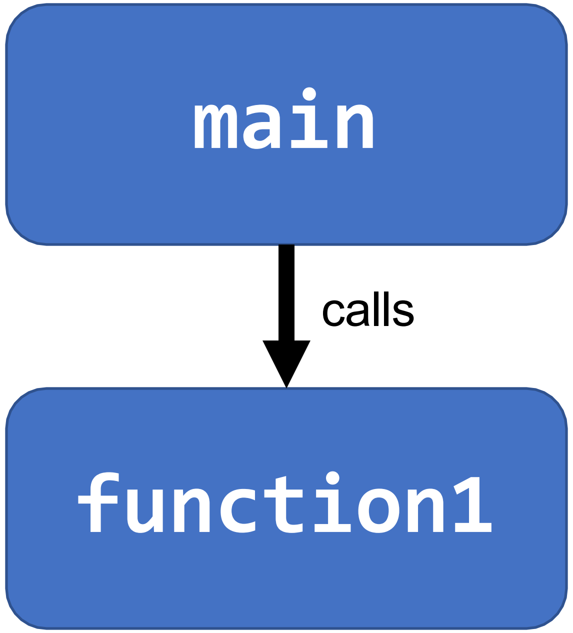
Caller-Owned Registers



`main` can use caller-owned registers and know that `function1` will not permanently modify their values.

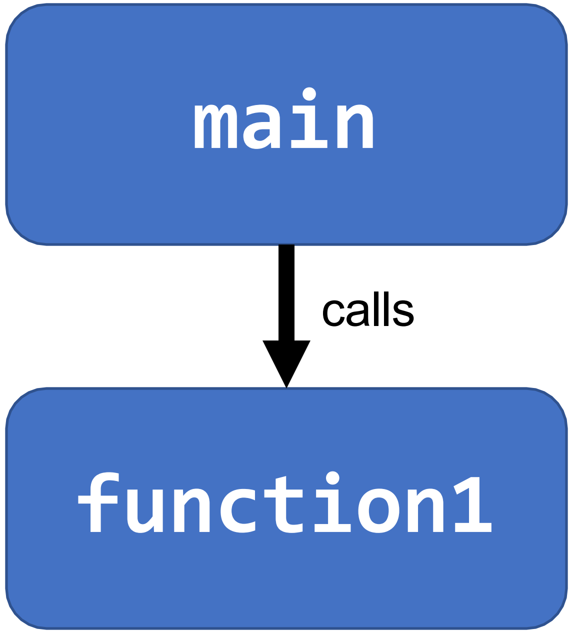
If function1 wants to use any caller-owned registers, it must save the existing values and restore them before returning.

Caller-Owned Registers




```
function1:
   push %rbp
   push %rbx
   ...
   pop %rbx
   pop %rbp
   retq
```

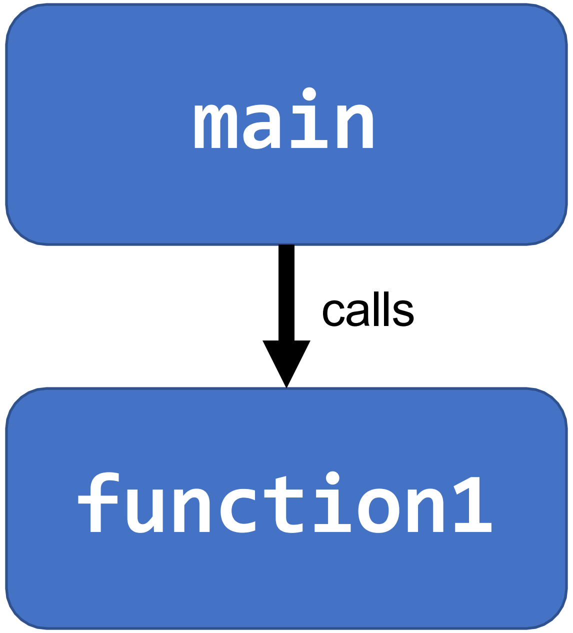
Callee-Owned Registers



`main` can use callee-owned registers but calling `function1` may permanently modify their values.

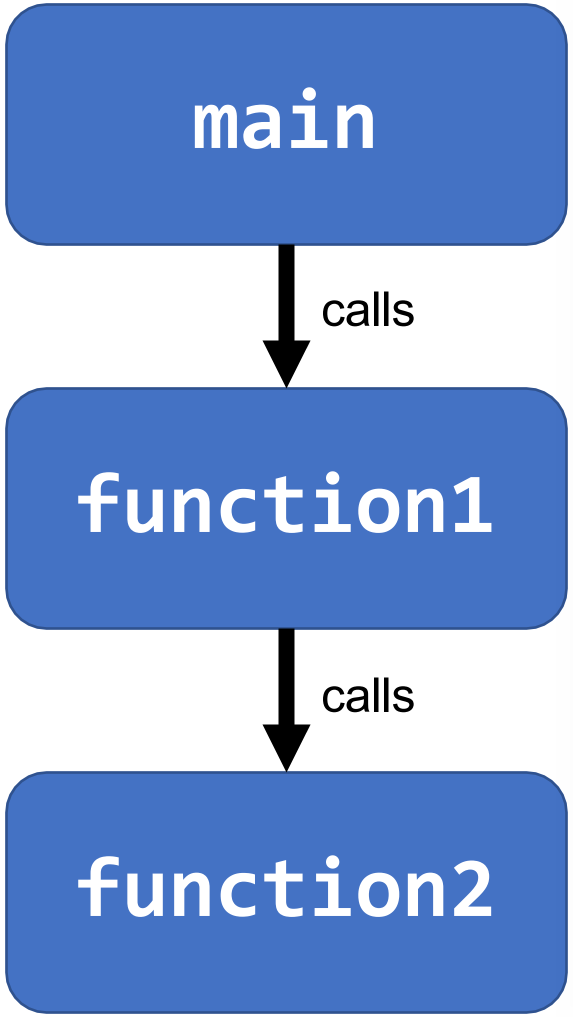
If function1 wants to use any callee-owned registers, it can do so without saving the existing values.

Callee-Owned Registers




```
main:
  ...
  push %r10
  push %r11
  callq function1
  pop %r11
  pop %r10
  ...
```

A Day In the Life of `function1`



Caller-owned registers:

- **`function1`** must save/restore existing values of any it wants to use.
- **`function1`** can assume that calling **`function2`** will not permanently change their values.

Callee-owned registers:

- **`function1`** does not need to save/restore existing values of any it wants to use.
- calling **`function2`** may permanently change their values.

Parameters and Return

- There are special registers that store parameters and the return value.
- To call a function, we must put any parameters we are passing into the correct registers. (%rdi, %rsi, %rdx, %rcx, %r8, %r9, in that order)
- Parameters beyond the first 6 are put on the stack.
- If the caller expects a return value, it looks in %rax after the callee completes.

Calling Functions In Assembly

To call a function in assembly, we must do a few things:

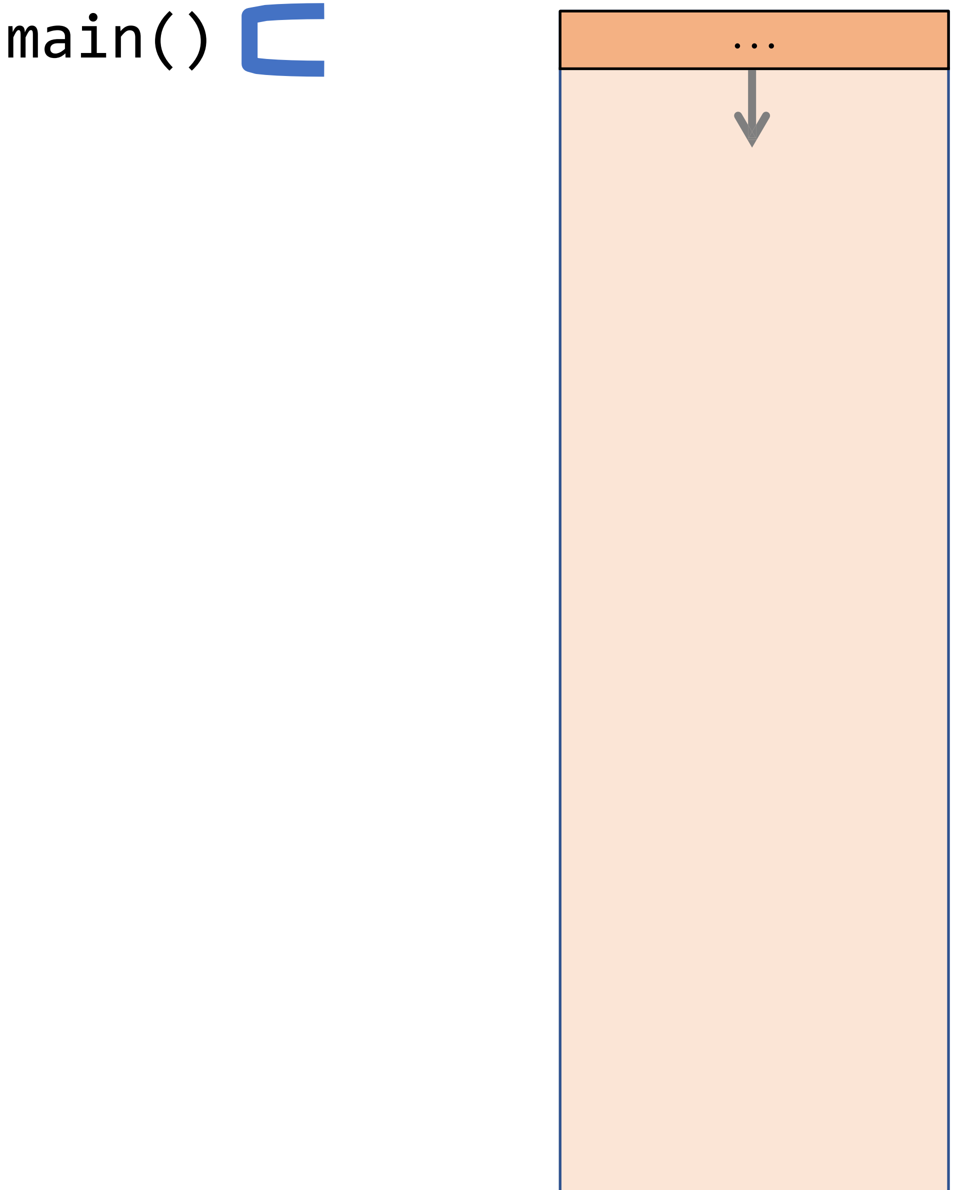
- **Pass Control** – %rip must be adjusted to execute the function being called and then resume the caller function afterwards.
- **Pass Data** – we must pass any parameters and receive any return value.
- **Manage Memory** – we must handle any space needs of the callee on the stack.

Terminology: **caller** function calls the **callee** function.

Parameters and Return

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    int i1 = 1;
    int i2 = 2;
    int i3 = 3;
    int i4 = 4;
    int result = func(&i1, &i2, &i3, &i4,
                      i1, i2, i3, i4);
    …
}

int func(int *p1, int *p2, int *p3, int *p4,
         int v1, int v2, int v3, int v4) {
    …
}
```

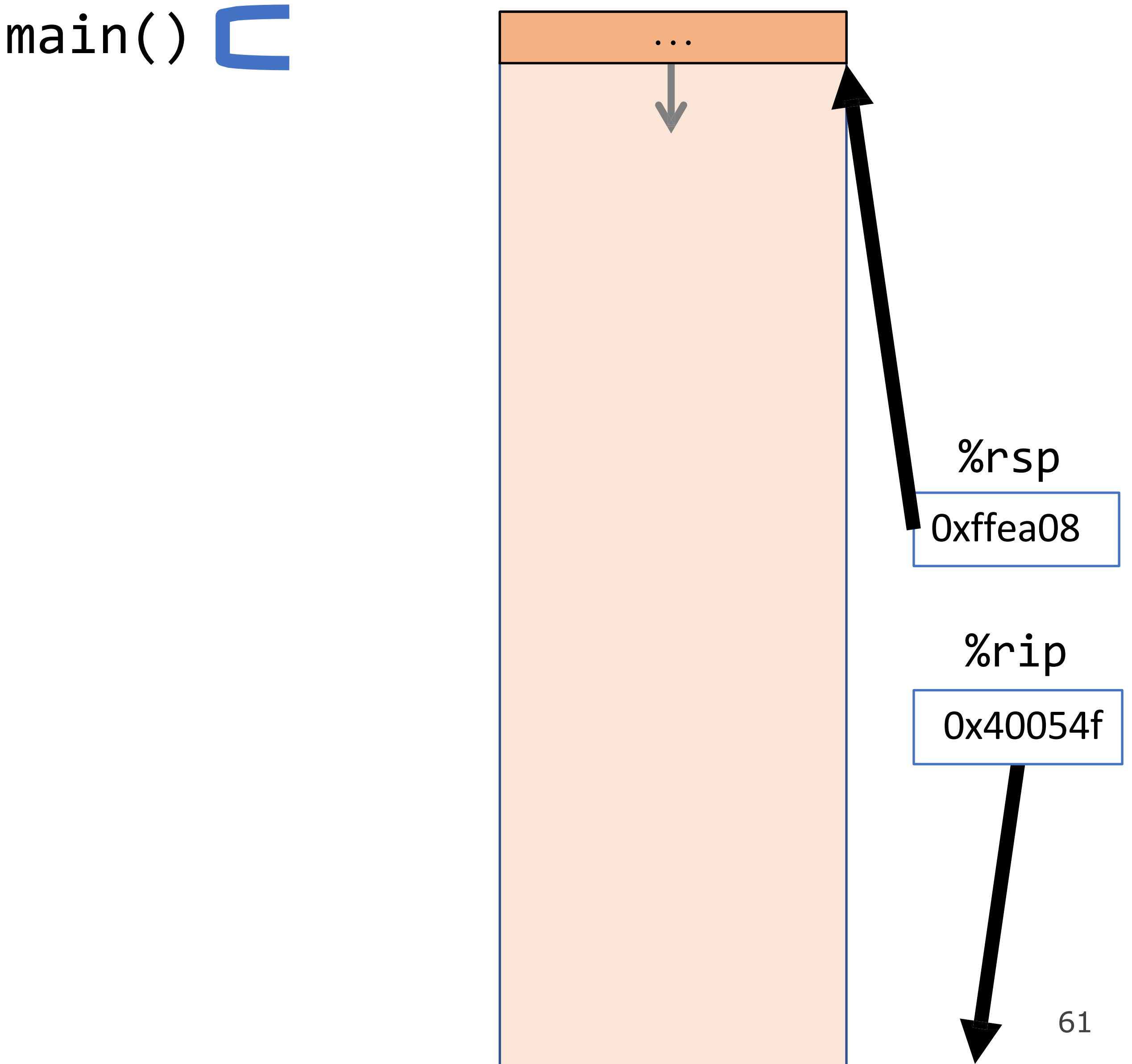


Parameters and Return

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    int i1 = 1;
    int i2 = 2;
    int i3 = 3;
    int i4 = 4;
    int result = func(&i1, &i2, &i3, &i4,
                      i1, i2, i3, i4);
    …
}

int func(int *p1, int *p2, int *p3, int *p4,
         int v1, int v2, int v3, int v4) {
    …
}
```

```
0x40054f <+0>:     sub    $0x18,%rsp
0x400553 <+4>:     movl   $0x1,0xc(%rsp)
0x40055b <+12>:    movl   $0x2,0x8(%rsp)
0x400563 <+20>:    movl   $0x3,0x4(%rsp)
0x40056b <+28>:    movl   $0x4,(%rsp)
```



Parameters and Return

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    int i1 = 1;
    int i2 = 2;
    int i3 = 3;
    int i4 = 4;
    int result = func(&i1, &i2, &i3, &i4,
                      i1, i2, i3, i4);
    …
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}
```

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0x40054f <+0>:     sub     $0x18,%rsp
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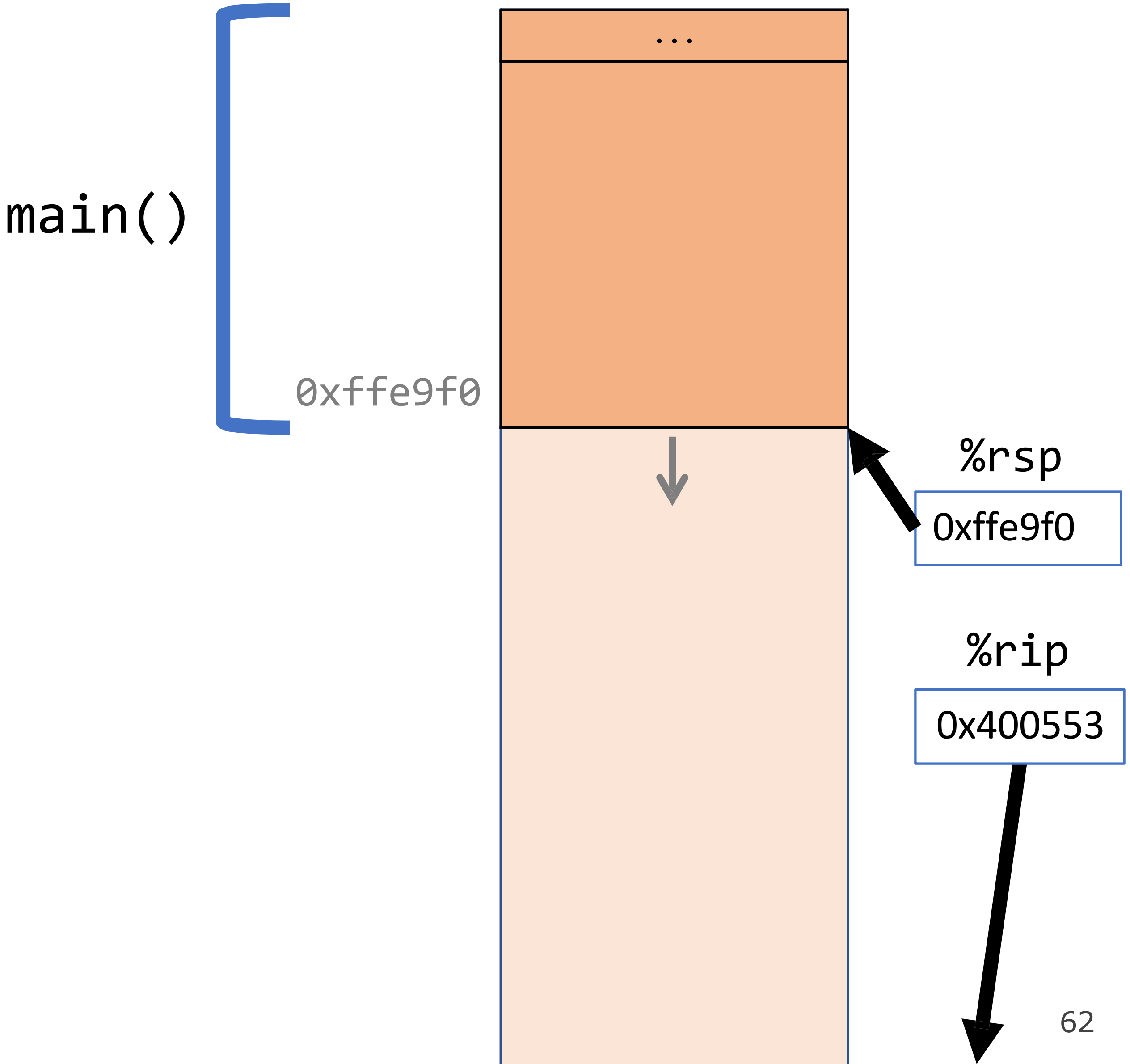

Parameters and Return

```c
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    int i1 = 1;
    int i2 = 2;
    int i3 = 3;
    int i4 = 4;
    int result = func(&i1, &i2, &i3, &i4,
                      i1, i2, i3, i4);
    …
}

int func(int *p1, int *p2, int *p3, int *p4,
         int v1, int v2, int v3, int v4) {
    …
}
```

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0x40056b <+28>:   movl   $0x4,(%rsp)
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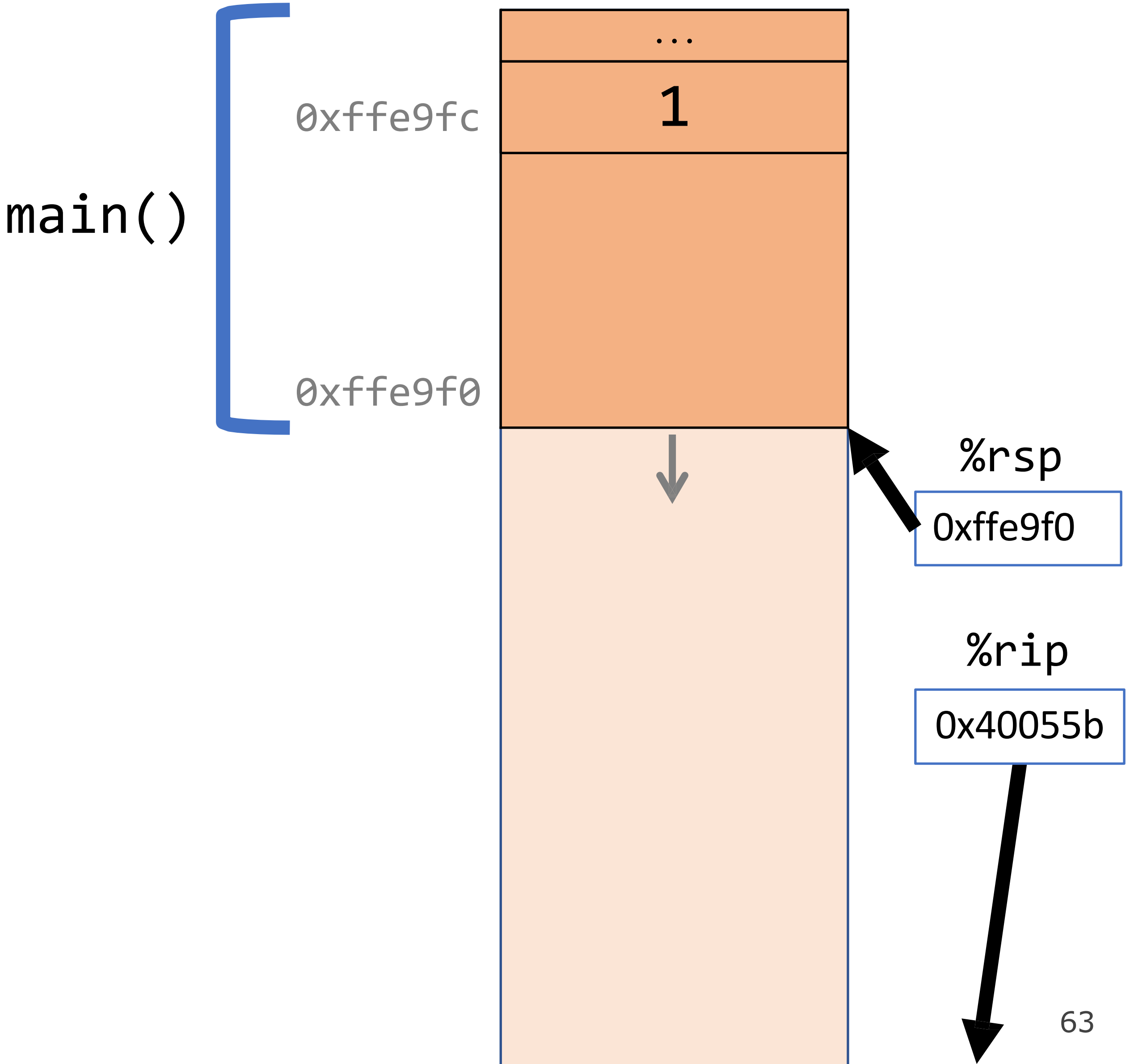

Parameters and Return

```
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    int i2 = 2;
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0x40054f <+0>:     sub    $0x18,%rsp
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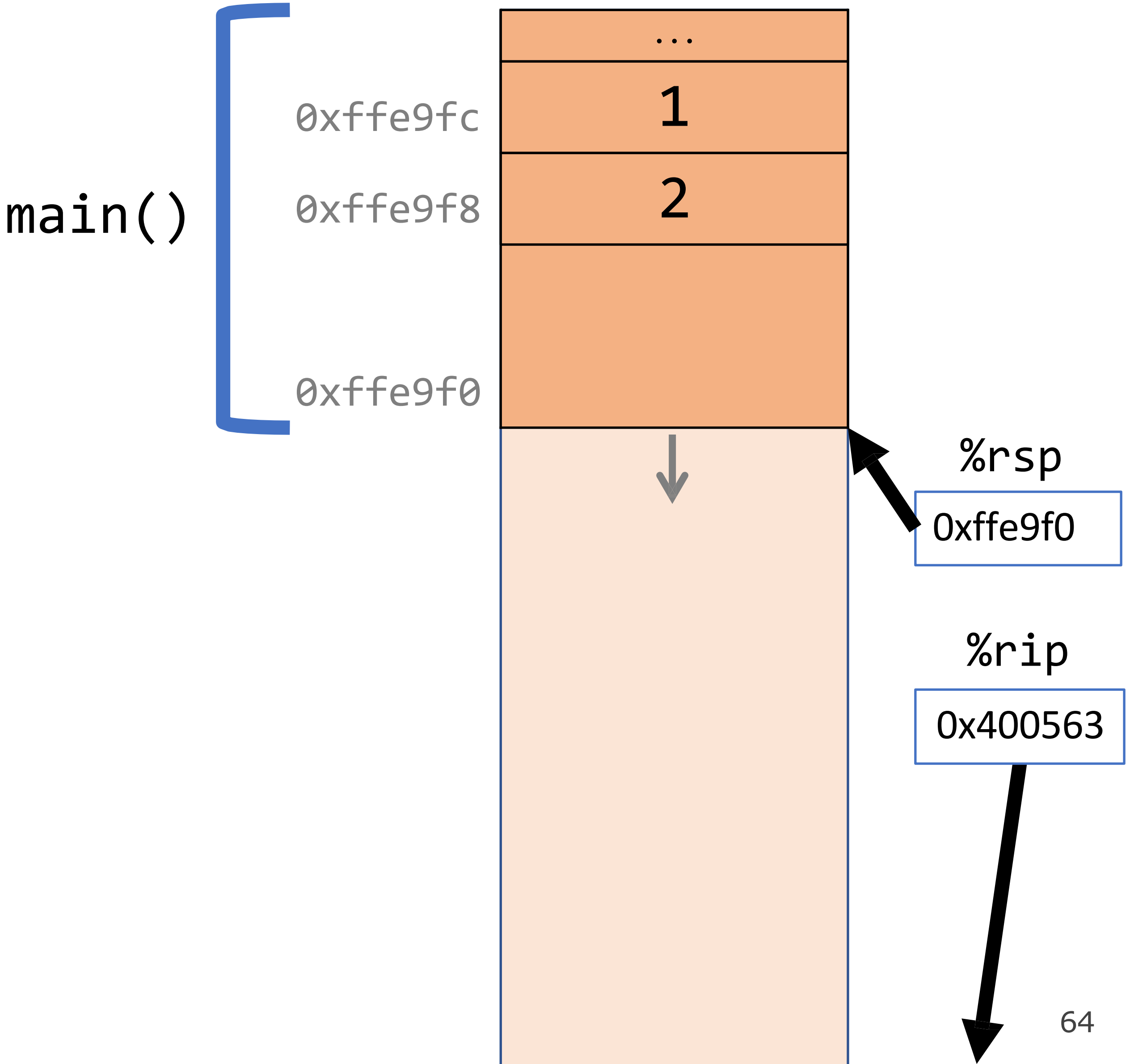

Parameters and Return

```c
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    int i1 = 1;
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    int i4 = 4;
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    …
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int func(int *p1, int *p2, int *p3, int *p4,
         int v1, int v2, int v3, int v4) {
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}
```

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0x400553 <+4>:    movl    $0x1,0xc(%rsp)
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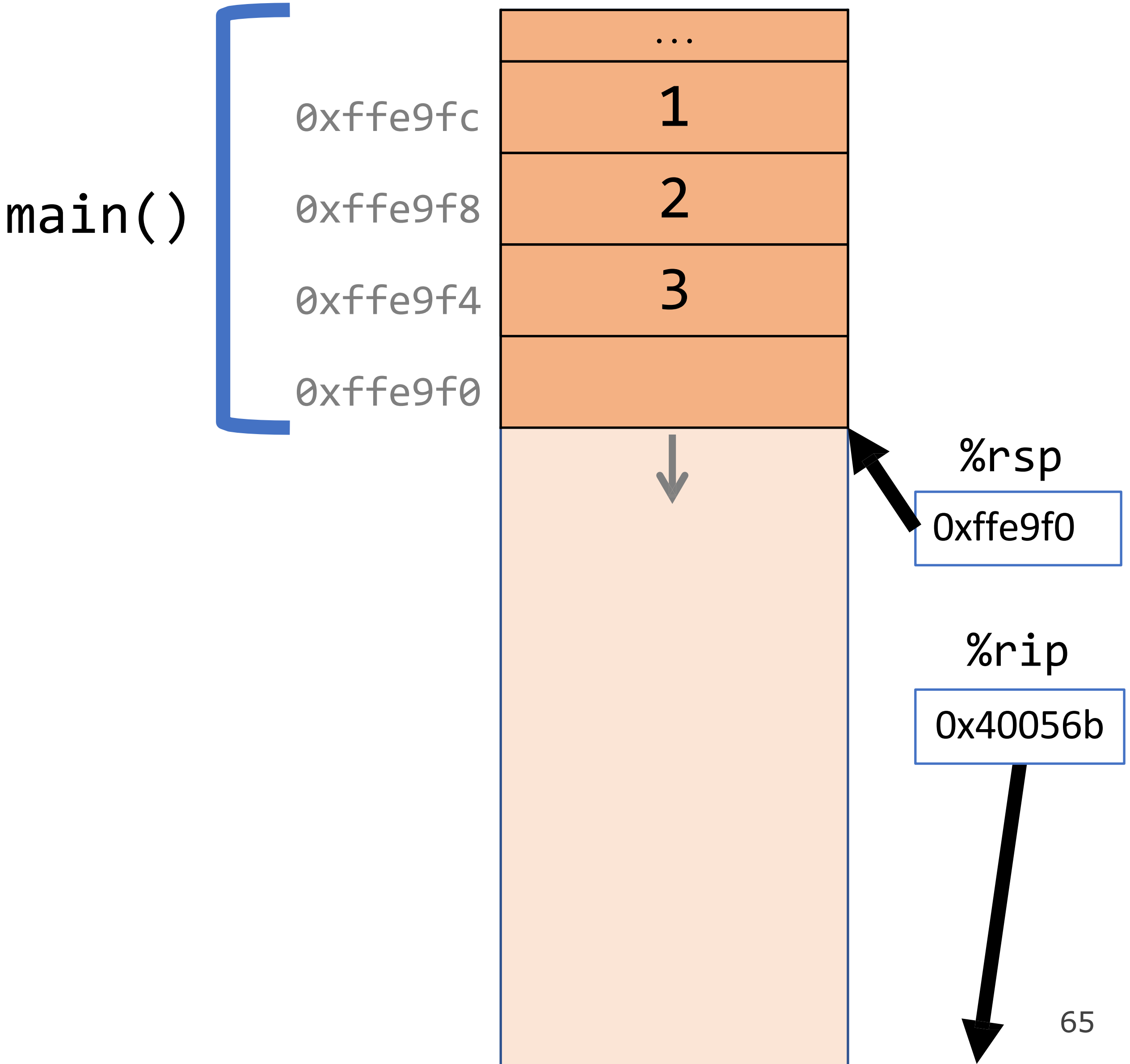
0x40056b <+28>:   movl    $0x4,(%rsp)
0x400572 <+35>:   pushq   $0x4
```



Parameters and Return

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    int i1 = 1;
    int i2 = 2;
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    int i4 = 4;
    int result = func(&i1, &i2, &i3, &i4,
                      i1, i2, i3, i4);
    …
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         int v1, int v2, int v3, int v4) {
    …
}
```

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0x400572 <+35>:    pushq   $0x4
0x400574 <+37>:    pushq   $0x3
```

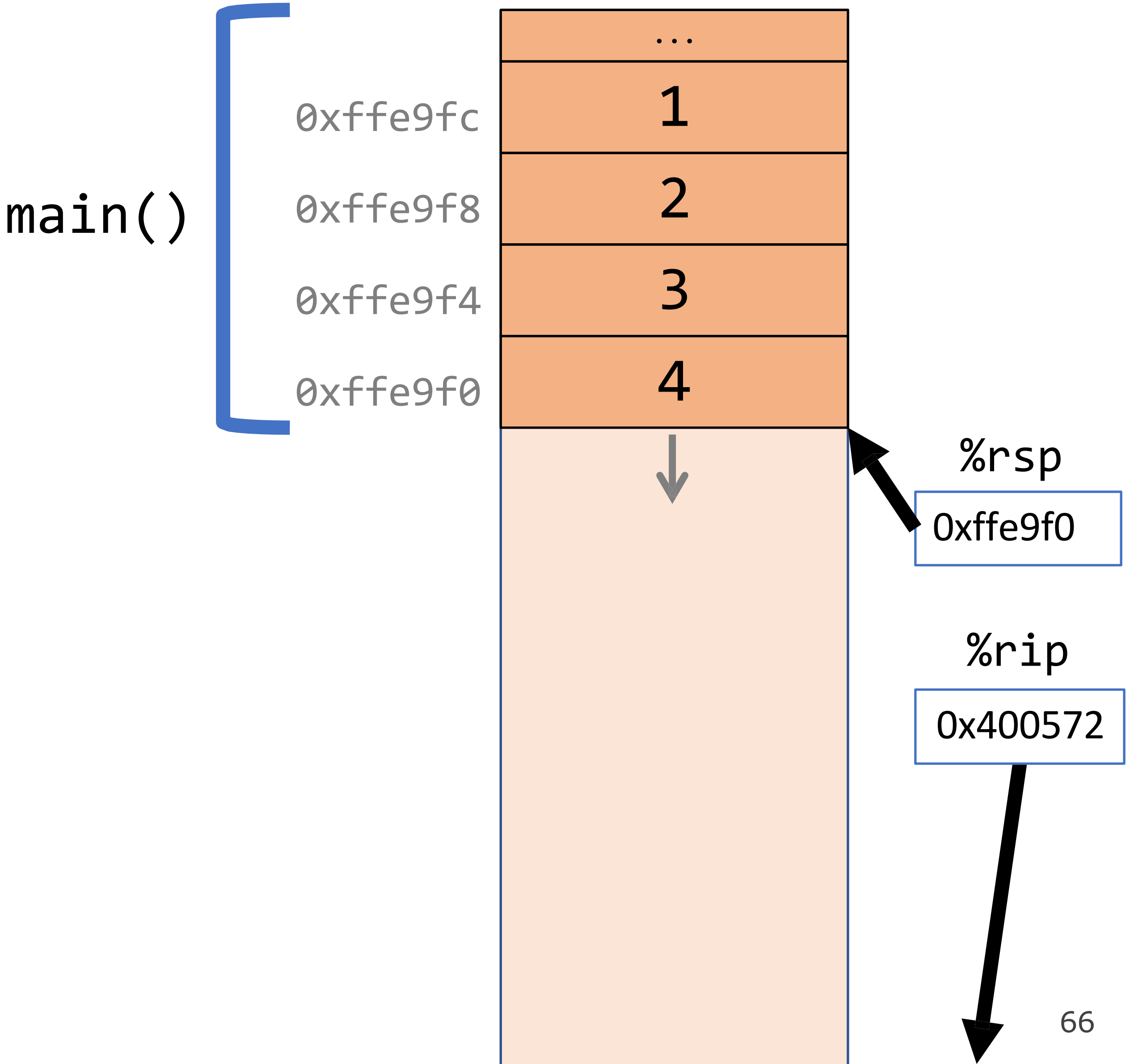

Parameters and Return

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    int i1 = 1;
    int i2 = 2;
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    int i4 = 4;
    int result = func(&i1, &i2, &i3, &i4,
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0x400572 <+35>:   pushq   $0x4
0x400574 <+37>:   pushq   $0x3
0x400576 <+39>:   mov     $0x2,%r9d
```

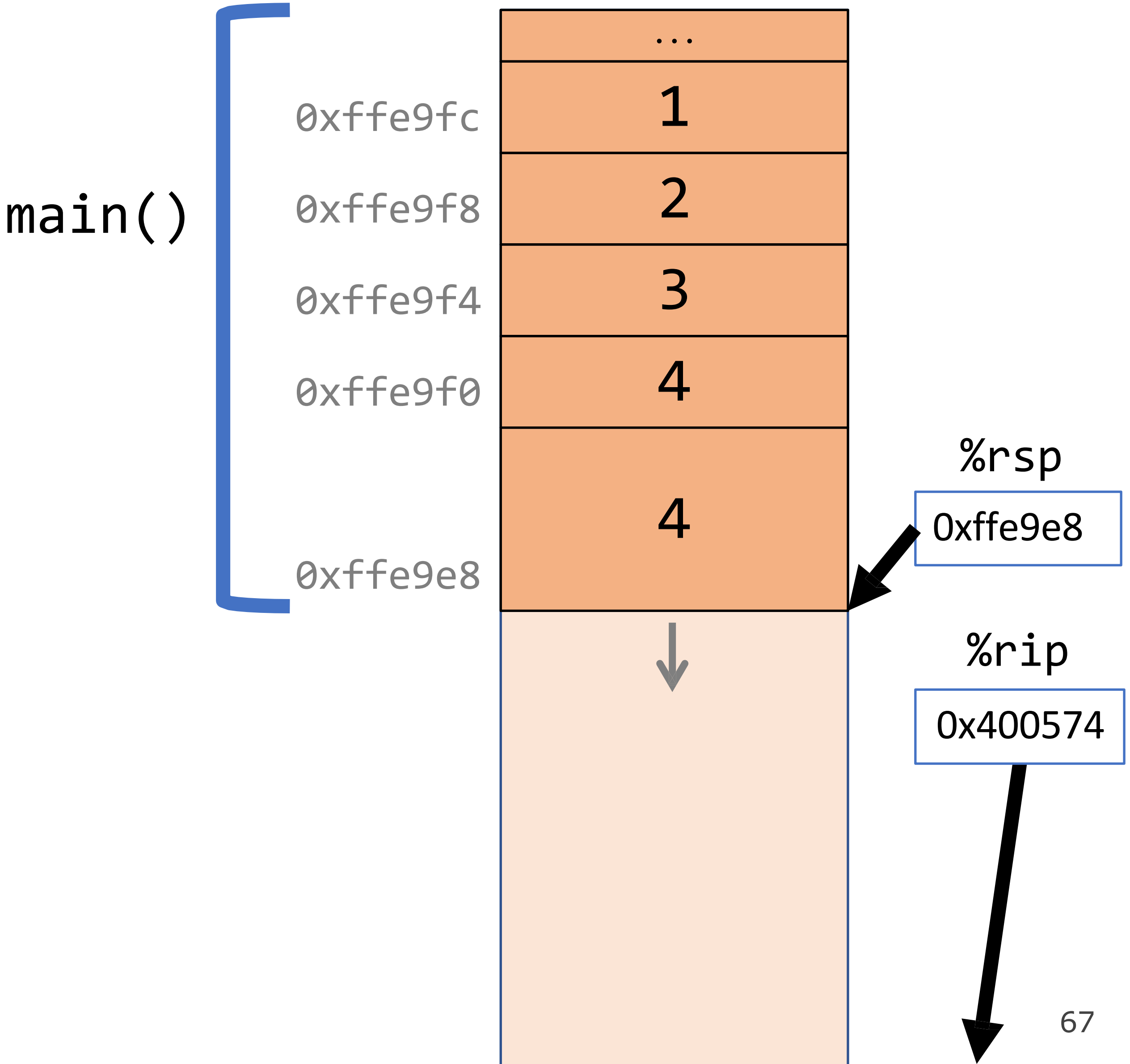

Parameters and Return

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    int i2 = 2;
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    int i4 = 4;
    int result = func(&i1, &i2, &i3, &i4,
                      i1, i2, i3, i4);
    …
}

int func(int *p1, int *p2, int *p3, int *p4,
         int v1, int v2, int v3, int v4) {
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0x40056b <+28>:    movl    $0x4,(%rsp)
0x400572 <+35>:    pushq   $0x4
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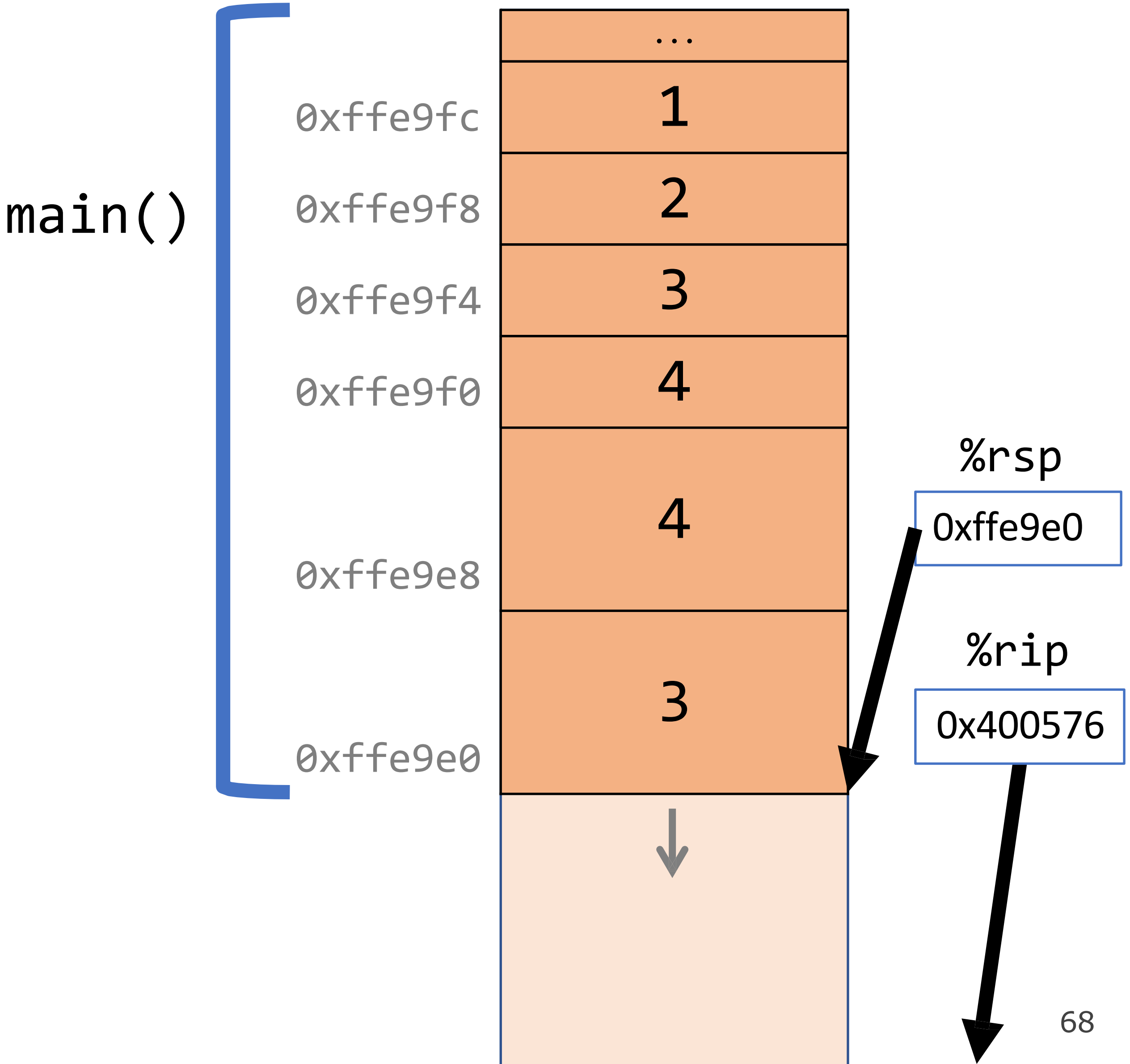
0x400576 <+39>:    mov     $0x2,%r9d
0x40057c <+45>:    mov     $0x1,%r8d
```



Parameters and Return

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    int result = func(&i1, &i2, &i3, &i4,
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```
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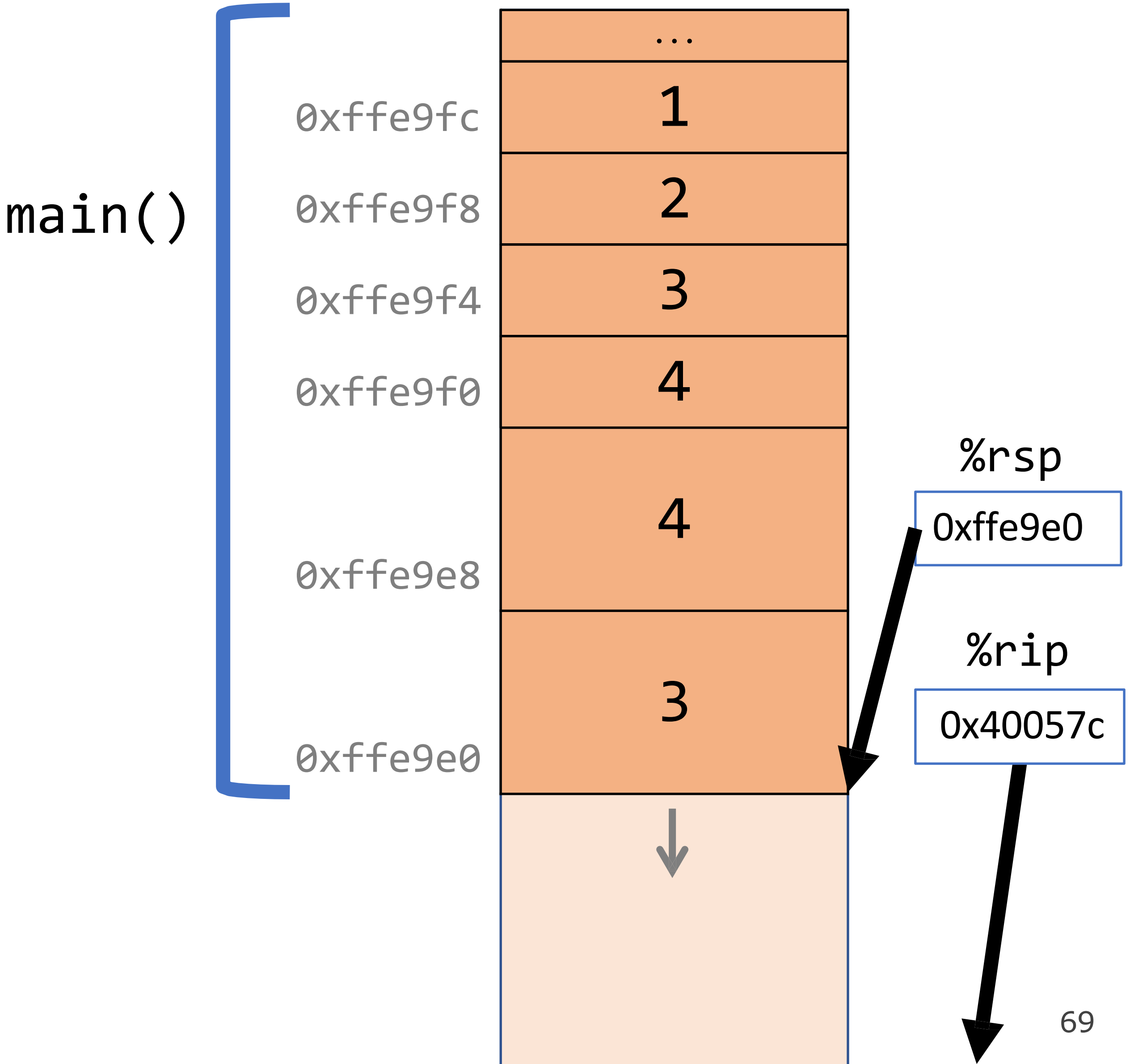
0x400574 <+37>:    pushq   $0x3
0x400576 <+39>:    mov     $0x2,%r9d
0x40057c <+45>:    mov     $0x1,%r8d
0x400582 <+51>:    lea     0x10(%rsp),%rcx
```



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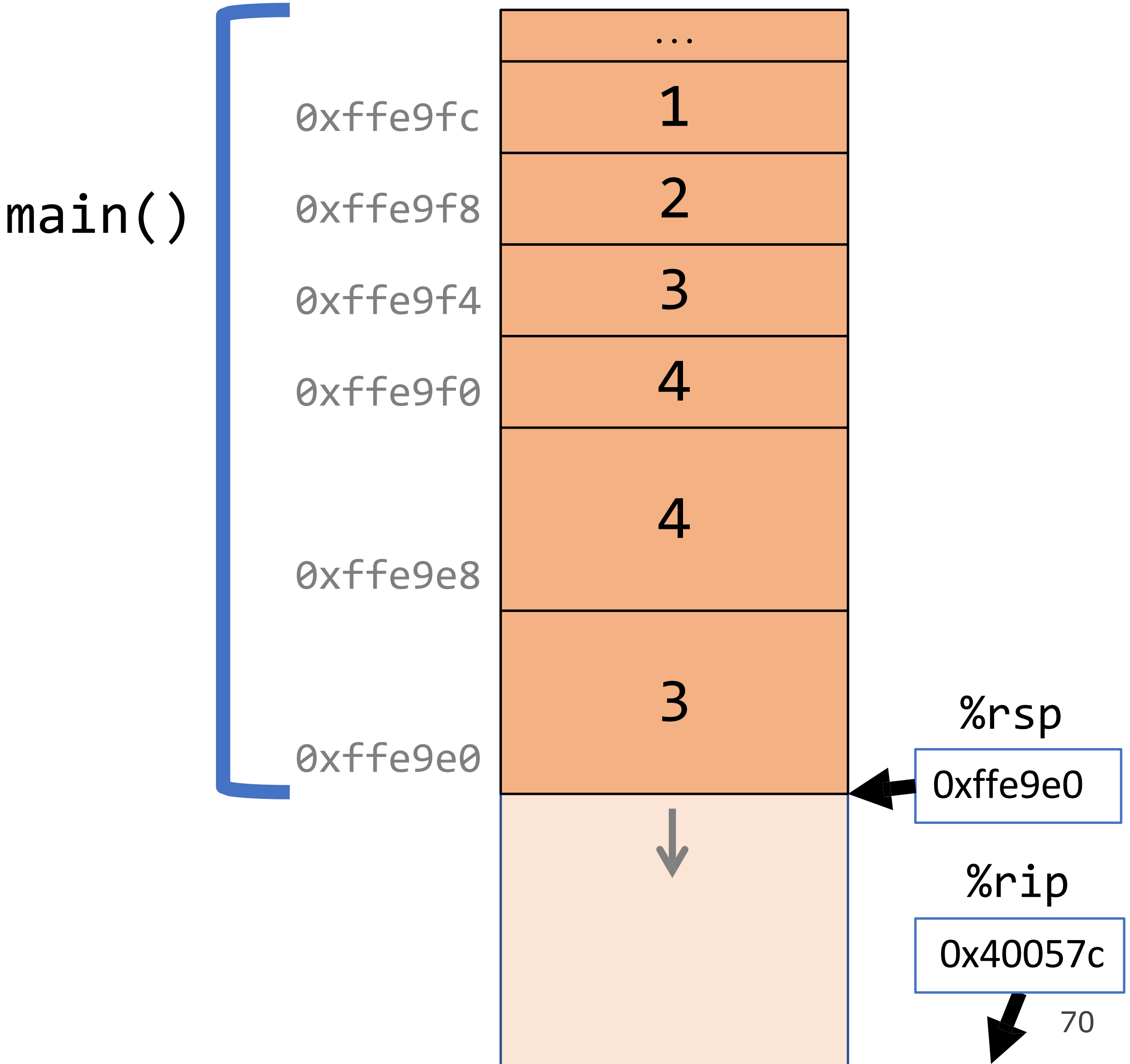

Parameters and Return

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    int i4 = 4;
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0x400582 <+51>:   lea    0x10(%rsp),%rcx
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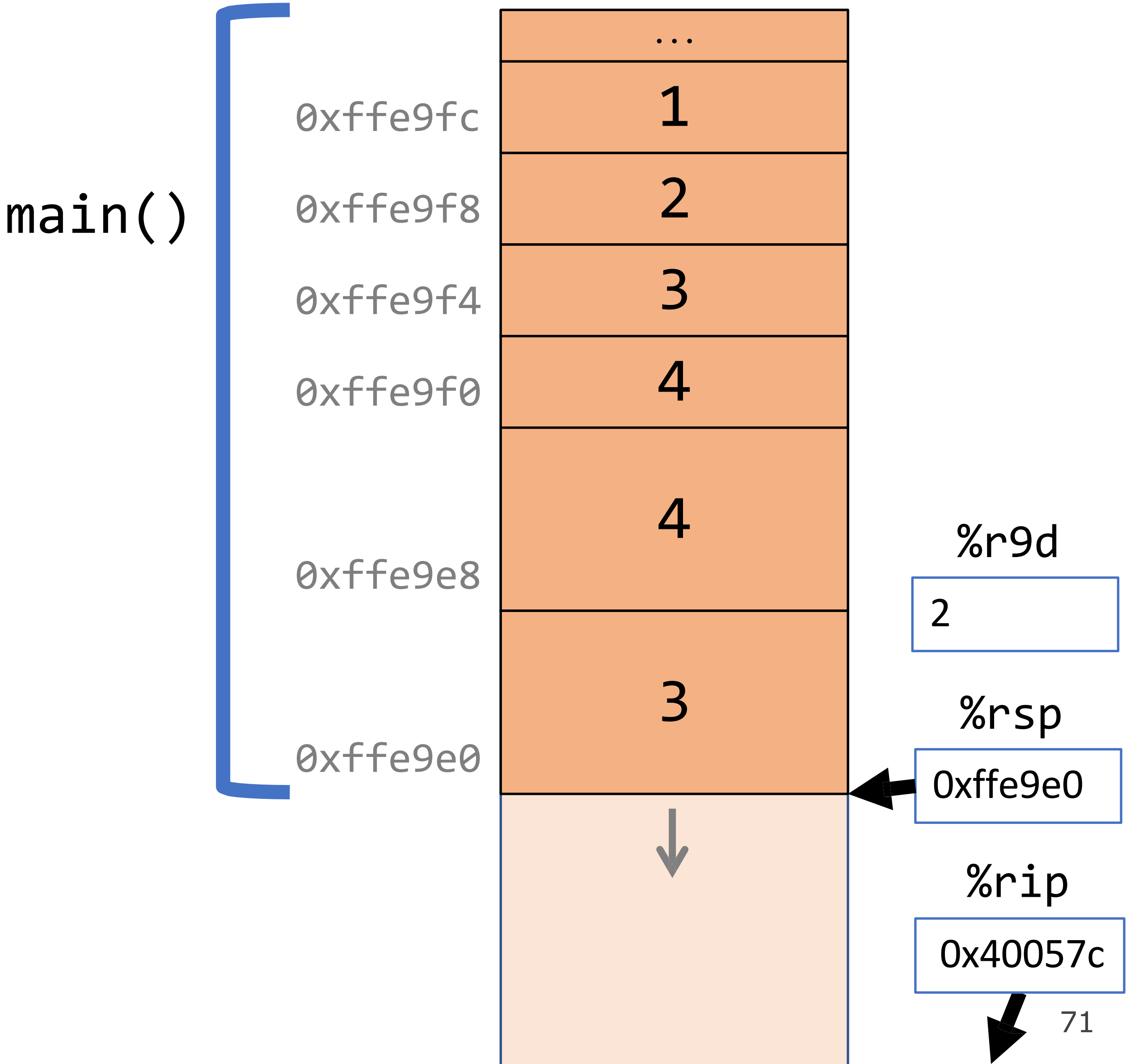

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                      i1, i2, i3, i4);
    …
}

int func(int *p1, int *p2, int *p3, int *p4,
         int v1, int v2, int v3, int v4) {
    …
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0x400574 <+37>:    pushq   $0x3
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0x400582 <+51>:    lea     0x10(%rsp),%rcx
0x400587 <+56>:    lea     0x14(%rsp),%rdx
```

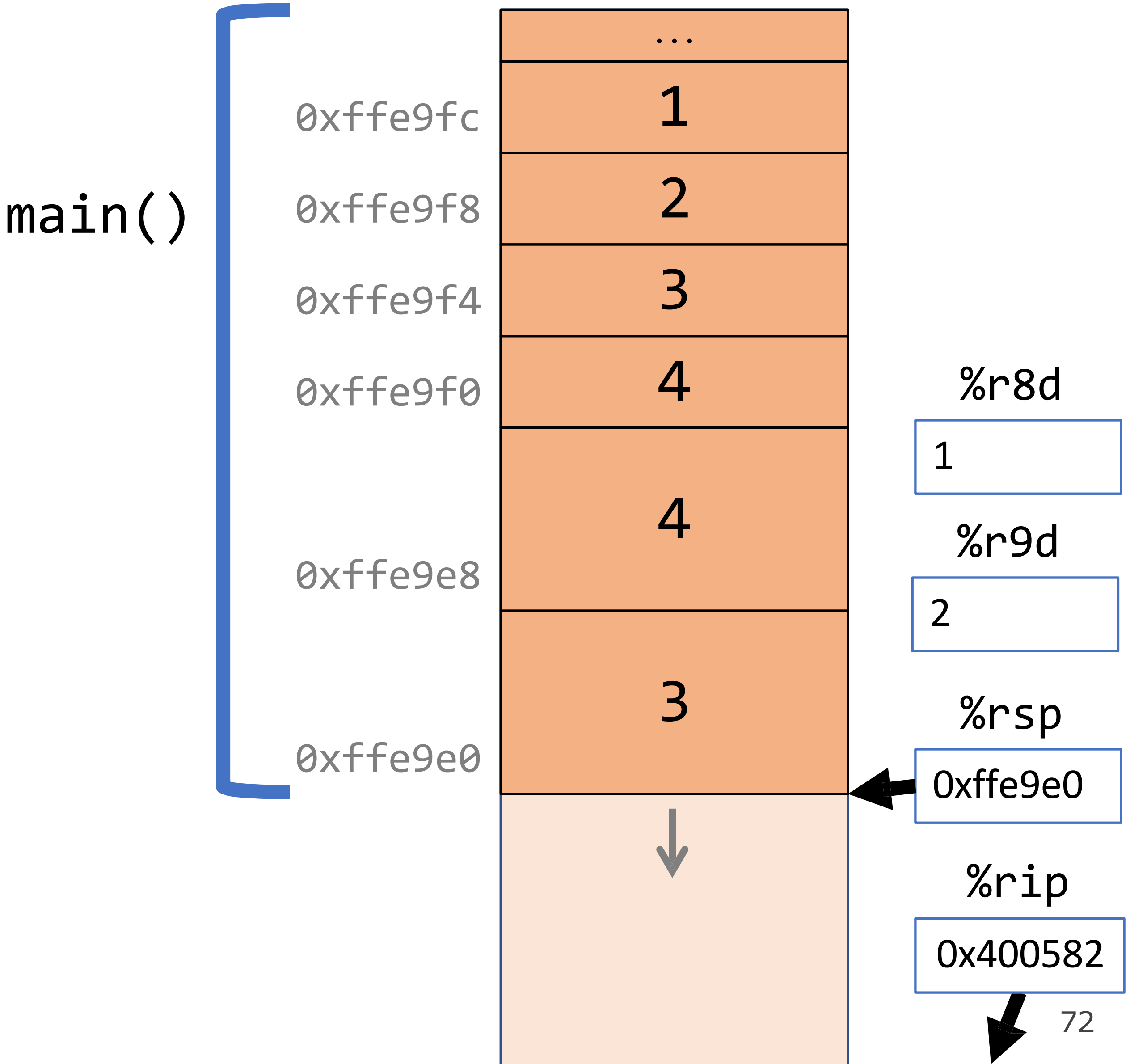

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         int v1, int v2, int v3, int v4) {
    …
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0x400576 <+39>:   mov    $0x2,%r9d
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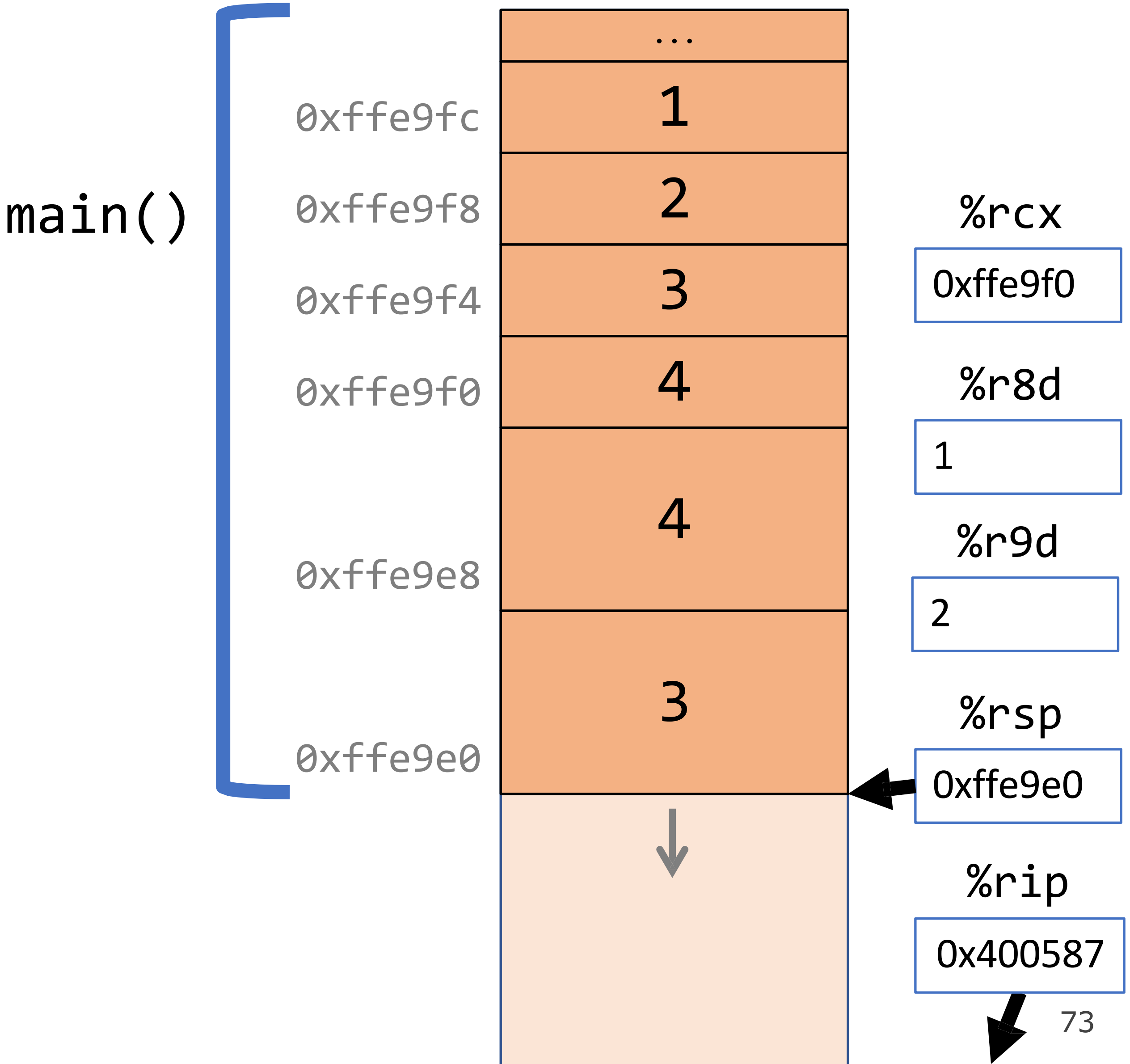
0x400582 <+51>:   lea    0x10(%rsp),%rcx
0x400587 <+56>:   lea    0x14(%rsp),%rdx
0x40058c <+61>:   lea    0x18(%rsp),%rsi
```



Parameters and Return

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
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    int i2 = 2;
    int i3 = 3;
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    int result = func(&i1, &i2, &i3, &i4,
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}

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         int v1, int v2, int v3, int v4) {
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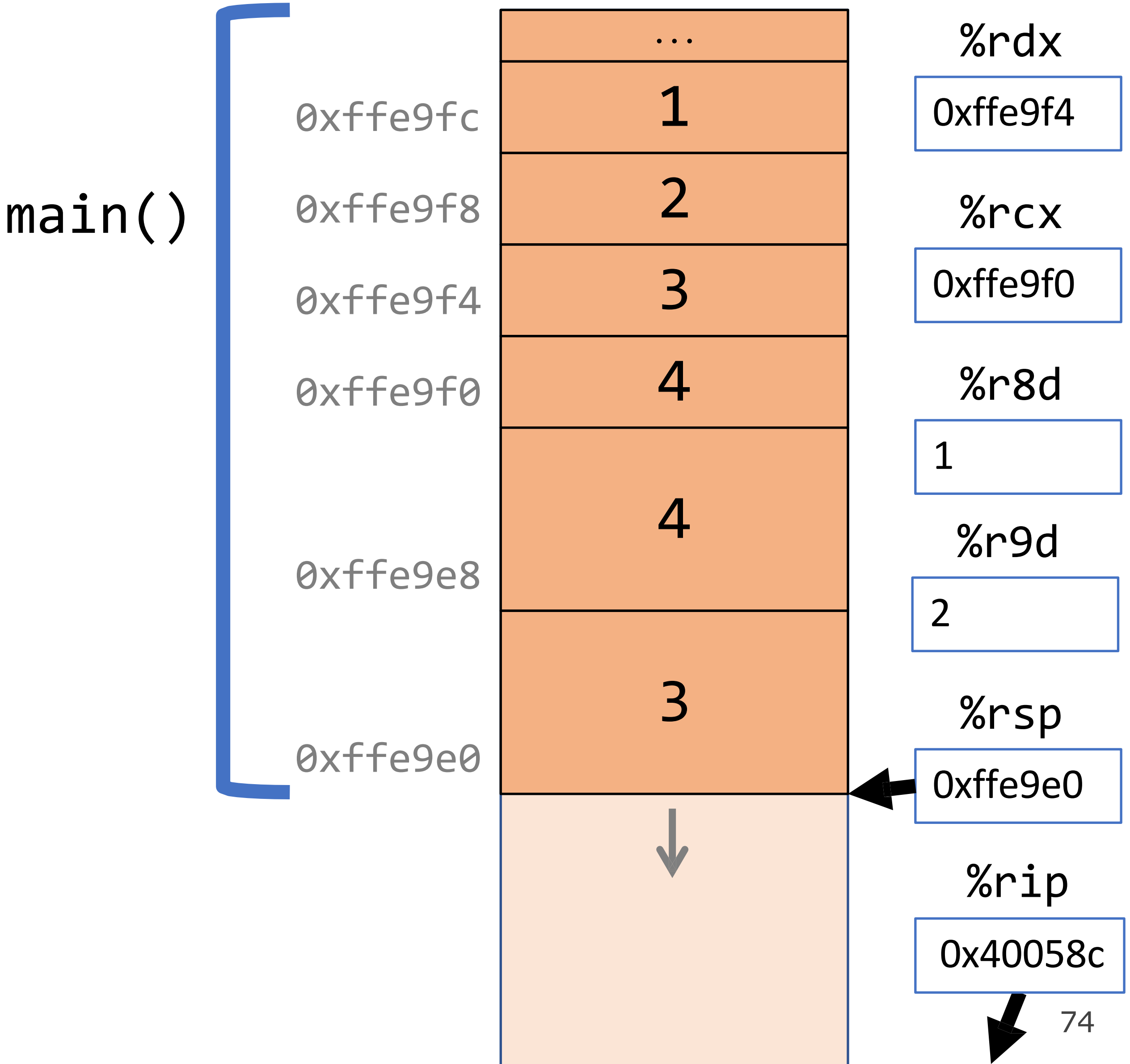
```
0x40057c <+45>:    mov    $0x1,%r8d
0x400582 <+51>:    lea    0x10(%rsp),%rcx
0x400587 <+56>:    lea    0x14(%rsp),%rdx
0x40058c <+61>:    lea    0x18(%rsp),%rsi
0x400591 <+66>:    lea    0x1c(%rsp),%rdi
```



Parameters and Return

```
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    int i2 = 2;
    int i3 = 3;
    int i4 = 4;
    int result = func(&i1, &i2, &i3, &i4,
                      i1, i2, i3, i4);
    …
}

int func(int *p1, int *p2, int *p3, int *p4,
             int v1, int v2, int v3, int v4) {
    …
}
```
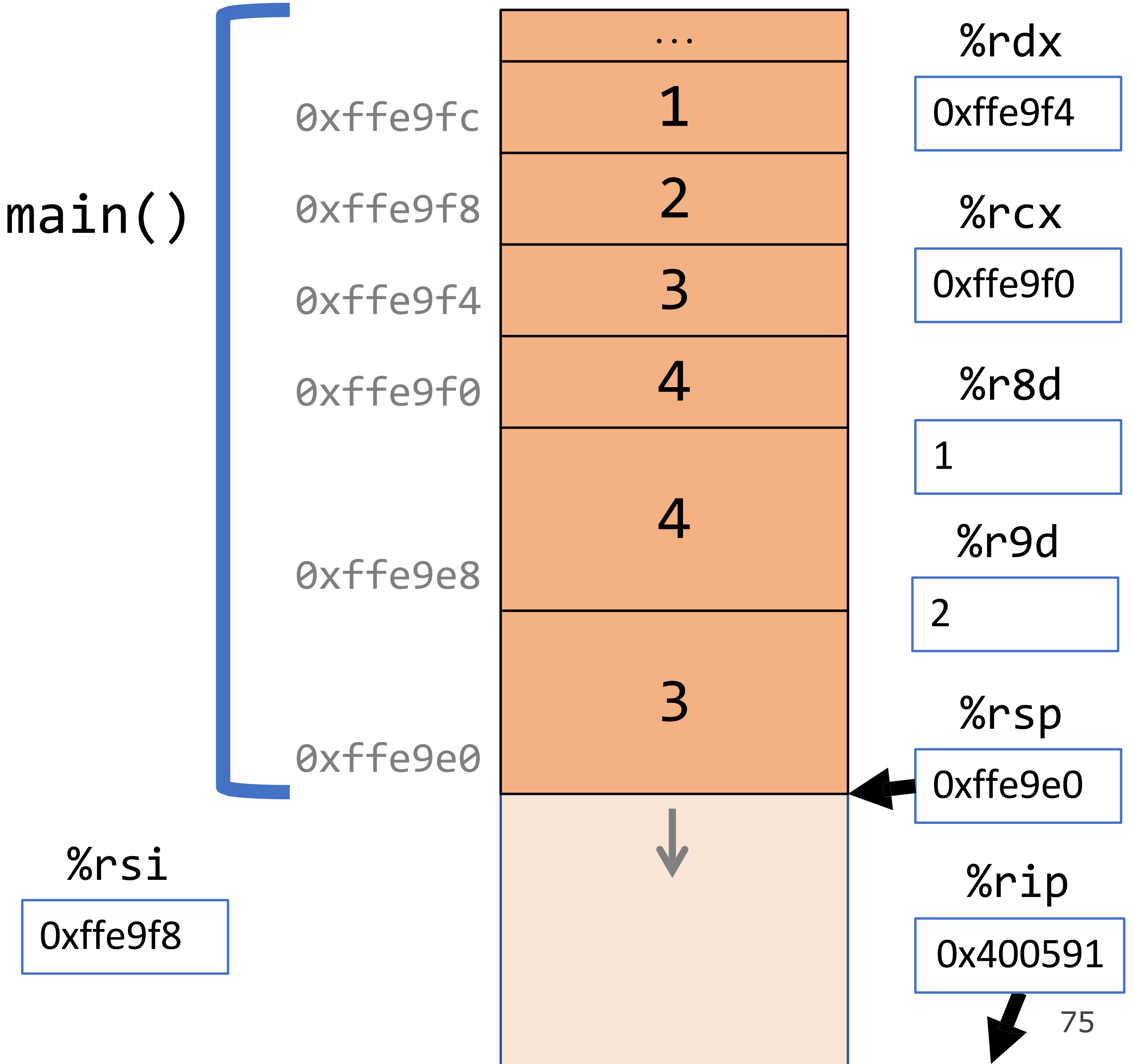
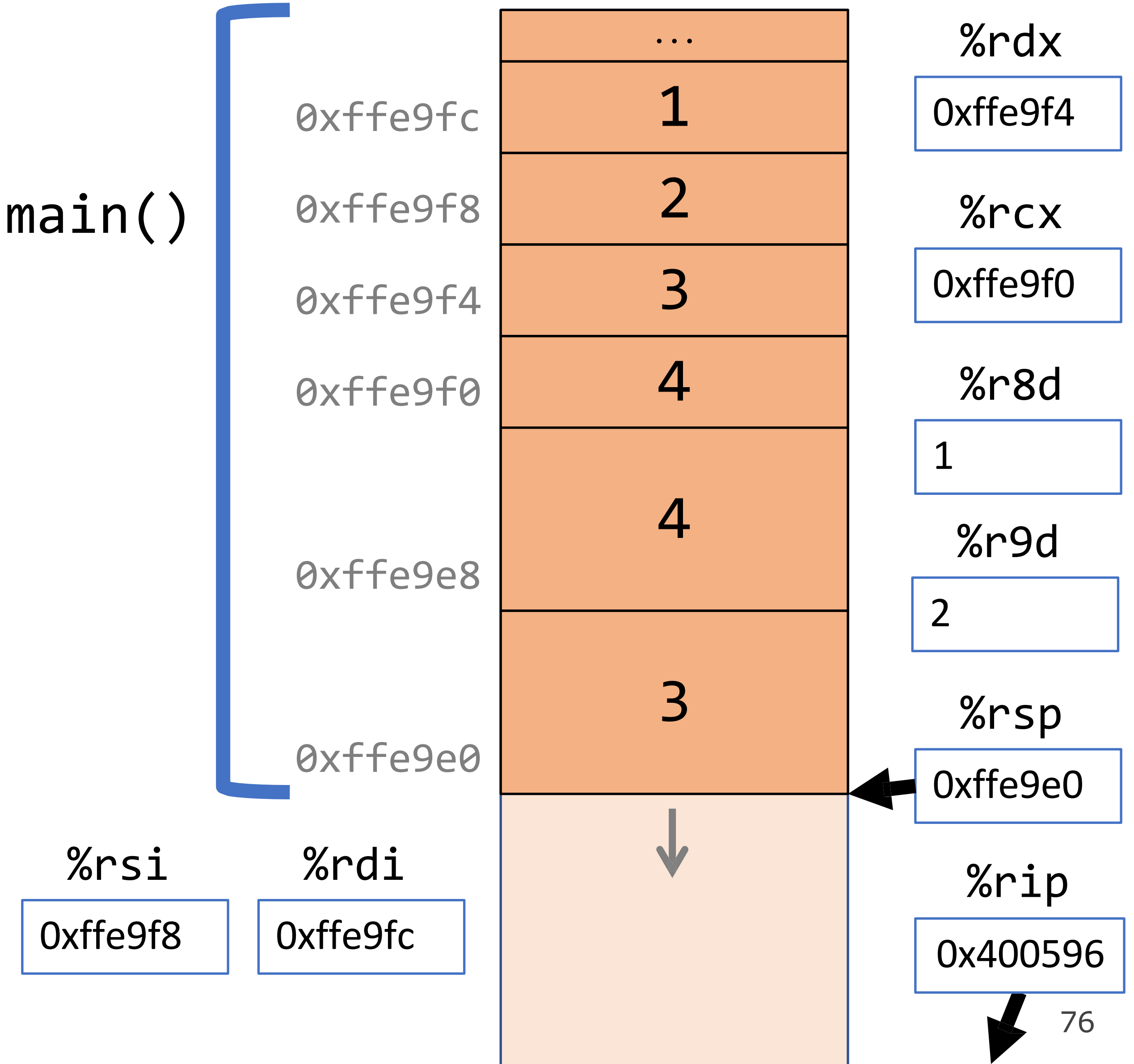

```
0x400582 <+51>:   lea    0x10(%rsp),%rcx
0x400587 <+56>:   lea    0x14(%rsp),%rdx
0x40058c <+61>:   lea    0x18(%rsp),%rsi
0x400591 <+66>:   lea    0x1c(%rsp),%rdi
0x400596 <+71>:   callq  0x400546 <func>
```



Parameters and Return

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    int i1 = 1;
    int i2 = 2;
    int i3 = 3;
    int i4 = 4;
    int result = func(&i1, &i2, &i3, &i4,
                      i1, i2, i3, i4);
    …
}

int func(int *p1, int *p2, int *p3, int *p4,
         int v1, int v2, int v3, int v4) {
    …
}
```

```
0x400587 <+56>:    lea     0x14(%rsp),%rdx
0x40058c <+61>:    lea     0x18(%rsp),%rsi
0x400591 <+66>:    lea     0x1c(%rsp),%rdi
0x400596 <+71>:    callq   0x400546 <func>
0x40059b <+76>:    add     $0x10,%rsp
```



Parameters and Return

```
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    int result = func(&i1, &i2, &i3, &i4,
                      i1, i2, i3, i4);
    …
}

int func(int *p1, int *p2, int *p3, int *p4,
         int v1, int v2, int v3, int v4) {
    …
}
```
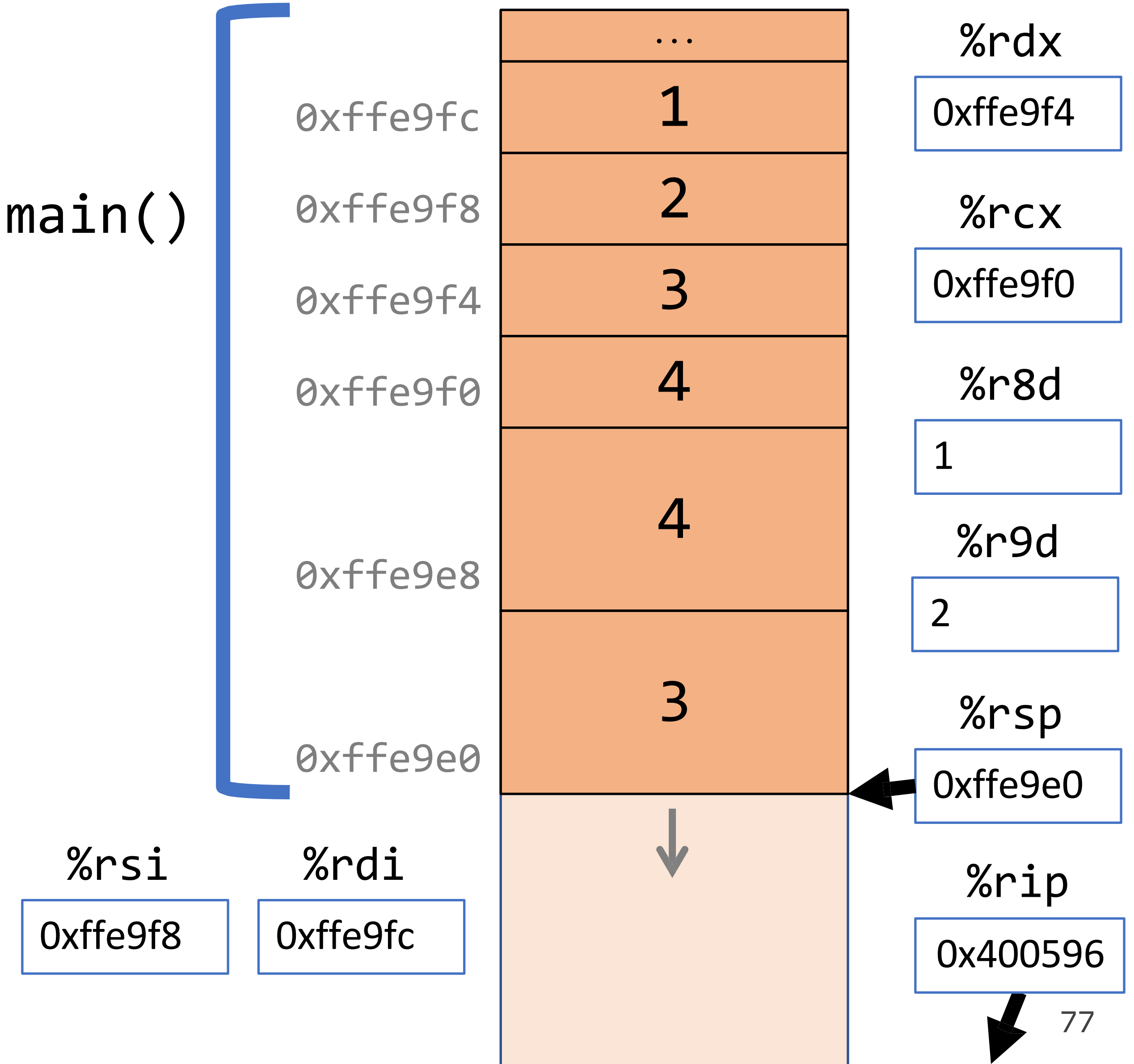

```
0x40058c <+61>:    lea    0x18(%rsp),%rsi
0x400591 <+66>:    lea    0x1c(%rsp),%rdi
0x400596 <+71>:    callq  0x400546 <func>
0x40059b <+76>:    add    $0x10,%rsp
…
```



Parameters and Return

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    int i1 = 1;
    int i2 = 2;
    int i3 = 3;
    int i4 = 4;
    int result = func(&i1, &i2, &i3, &i4,
                      i1, i2, i3, i4);
    …
}

int func(int *p1, int *p2, int *p3, int *p4,
         int v1, int v2, int v3, int v4) {
    …
}
```

```
0x40058c <+61>:    lea    0x18(%rsp),%rsi
0x400591 <+66>:    lea    0x1c(%rsp),%rdi
0x400596 <+71>:    callq  0x400546 <func>
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…
```
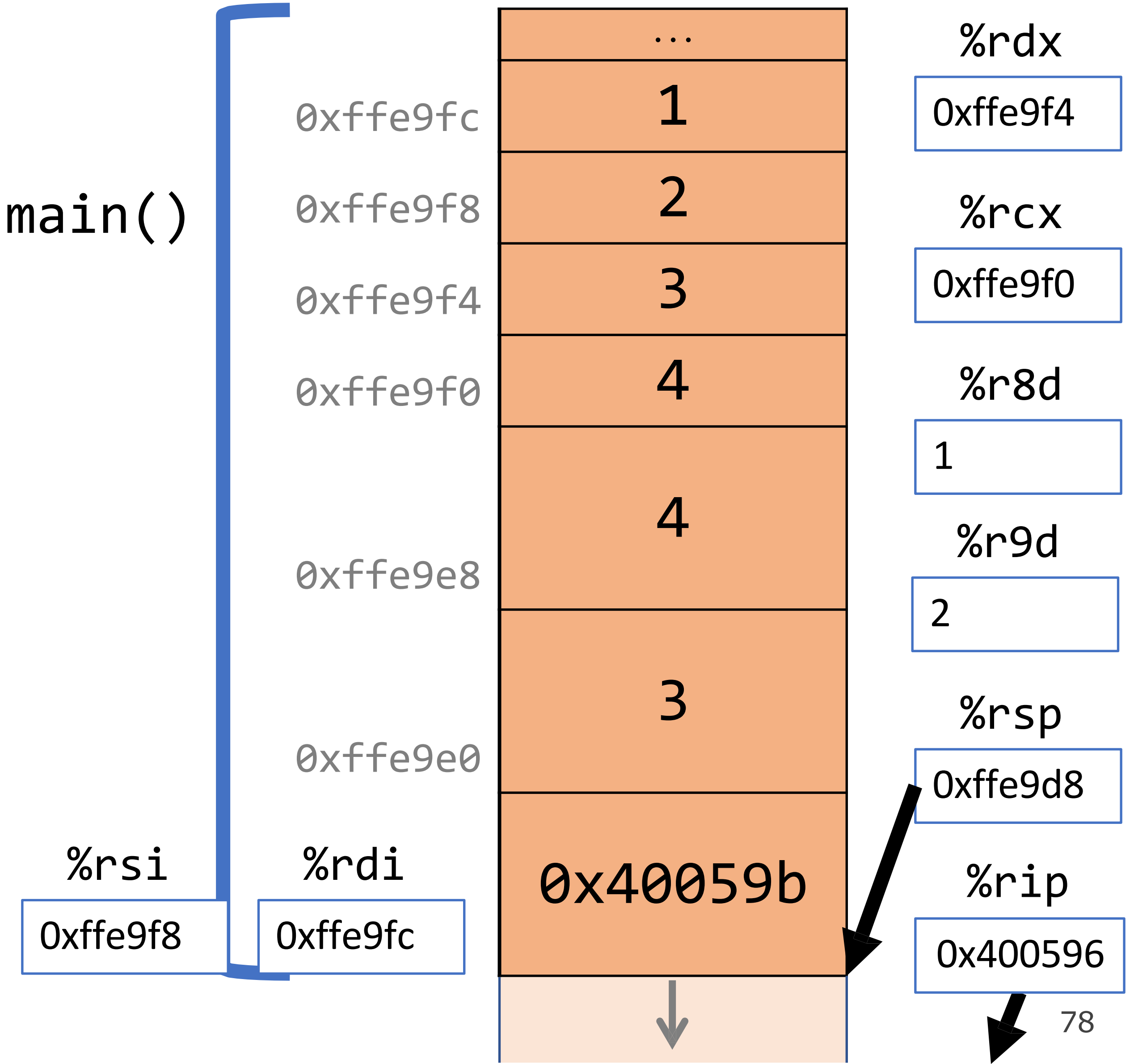



Local Storage

- So far, we've often seen local variables stored directly in registers, rather than on the stack as we'd expect. This is for optimization reasons.

- There are **three** common reasons that local data must be in memory:
  - We've run out of registers
  - The '&' operator is used on it, so we must generate an address for it
  - They are arrays or structs (need to use address arithmetic)

Our First Assembly

```c
int sum_array(int arr[], int nelems) {
    int sum = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < nelems; i++) {
        sum += arr[i];
    }
    return sum;
}
```

We're done with all our assembly lectures! Now we can fully understand what's going on in the assembly below, including how someone would call sum_array in assembly and what the **ret** instruction does.

```
0000000000401136 <sum_array>:
  401136 <+0>:  mov    $0x0,%eax
  40113b <+5>:  mov    $0x0,%edx
  401140 <+10>: cmp    %esi,%eax
  401142 <+12>: jge    0x40114f <sum_array+25>
  401144 <+14>: movslq %eax,%rcx
  401147 <+17>: add    (%rdi,%rcx,4),%edx
  40114a <+20>: add    $0x1,%eax
  40114d <+23>: jmp    0x401140 <sum_array+10>
  40114f <+25>: mov    %edx,%eax
  401151 <+27>: retq
```

Optimizations you'll see

`nop`

- **`nop/nopl`** are "no-op" instructions – they do nothing!
- Intent: Make functions align on address boundaries that are nice multiples of 8.
- "Sometimes, doing nothing is how to be most productive" – Philosopher Nick

`mov %ebx,%ebx`

- Zeros out the top 32 register bits (because a `mov` on an e-register zeros out rest of 64 bits).

`xor %ebx,%ebx`

- Optimizes for performance as well as code size (read more here):

```
b8 00 00 00 00        mov $0x0,%eax
31 c0                 xor %eax,%eax
```

GCC For Loop Output

GCC Common For Loop Output

```
Initialization
Test
Jump past loop if success
Body
Update
Jump to test
```

Possible Alternative

```
Initialization
Jump to test
Body
Update
Test
Jump to body if success
```

GCC For Loop Output

GCC Common For Loop Output

```
Initialization
Test
Jump past loop if success
Body
Update
Jump to test
```

for (int i = 0; i < n; i++)   // n = 100

GCC For Loop Output

GCC Common For Loop Output

```
Initialization
Test
Jump past loop if success
Body
Update
Jump to test
```

for (int i = 0; i < n; i++)   // n = 100

```
Initialization
Test
No jump
Body
Update
Jump to test
Test
No jump
Body
Update
Jump to test
...
```

GCC For Loop Output

GCC Common For Loop Output

```
Initialization
Test
Jump past loop if success
Body
Update
Jump to test
```

```
for (int i = 0; i < n; i++)          // n = 100

Initialization
Test
No jump
Body
Update
Jump to test
Test
No jump
Body
Update
Jump to test
...
```

GCC For Loop Output

```
for (int i = 0; i < n; i++)                // n = 100

Initialization
Jump to test
Test
Jump to body
Body
Update
Test
Jump to body
Body
Update
Test
Jump to body
...
```

Possible Alternative

```
Initialization
Jump to test
Body
Update
Test
Jump to body if success
```

GCC For Loop Output

```
for (int i = 0; i < n; i++)          // n = 100

Initialization
Jump to test
Test
Jump to body
Body
Update
Test
Jump to body
Body
Update
Test
Jump to body
...
```

Possible Alternative

```
Initialization
Jump to test
Body
Update
Test
Jump to body if success
```

GCC For Loop Output

GCC Common For Loop Output

```
Initialization
Test
Jump past loop if passes
Body
Update
Jump to test
```

Possible Alternative

```
Initialization
Jump to test
Body
Update
Test
Jump to body if success
```

Which instructions are better when n = 0? n = 1000?

for (int i = 0; i < n; i++)

Optimizing Instruction Counts

- Both versions have the same **static instruction count** (# of written instructions).
- But they have different **dynamic instruction counts** (# of executed instructions when program is run).
  - If n = 0, left (GCC common output) is best b/c fewer instructions
  - If n is large, right (alternative) is best b/c fewer instructions
- The compiler may emit a static instruction count that is several times longer than an alternative, but it may be more efficient if loop executes many times.
- Does the compiler *know* that a loop will execute many times? (in general, no)
- So what if our code had loops that always execute a small number of times? How do we know when gcc makes a bad decision?
- (take EE108, EE180, CS316 for more!)

Optimizations

- **Conditional Moves** can sometimes eliminate "branches" (jumps), which are particularly inefficient on modern computer hardware.

- Processors try to *predict* the future execution of instructions for maximum performance. This is difficult to do with jumps.

Data Alignment

- Computer systems often put restrictions on the allowable addresses for primitive data types, requiring that the address for some objects must be a multiple of some value *K* (normally 2, 4, or 8).
- These ***alignment restrictions*** simplify the design of the hardware.
- For example, suppose that a processor always fetches 8 bytes from the memory system, and an address must be a multiple of 8. If we can guarantee that any `double` will be aligned to have its address as a multiple of 8, then we can read or write the values with a single memory access.
- For x86-64, Intel recommends the following alignments for best performance:

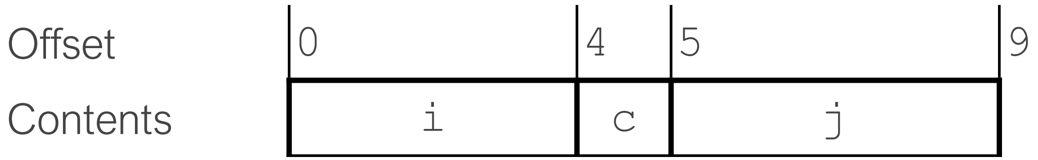
K	Types
1	`char`
2	`short`
4	`int, float`
8	`long, double, char *`

Data Alignment

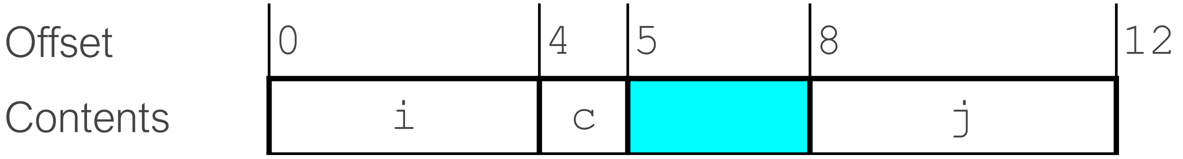
- The compiler enforces alignment by making sure that every data type is organized in such a way that every field within the struct satisfies the alignment restrictions.
- For example, let's look at the following struct:

```
struct S1 {
    int i;
    char c;
    int j;
};
```

- If the compiler used a minimal allocation:



- This would make it impossible to align fields `i` (offset 0) and `j` (offset 5). Instead, the compiler inserts a 3-byte gap between fields `c` and `j`:



- So, don't be surprised if your structs have a `sizeof()` that is larger than you expect!

Some Extra Reading

Key GDB Tips For Assembly

- Examine 4 giant words (8 bytes) on the stack:

```
(gdb) x/4g $rsp
0x7fffffffe870: 0x0000000000000005      0x0000000000400559
0x7fffffffe880: 0x0000000000000000      0x0000000000400575
```

- display/undisplay (prints out things every time you step/next)

```
(gdb) display/4w $rsp
1: x/4xw $rsp
0x7fffffffe8a8:
0xf7a2d830      0x00007fff      0x00000000      0x00000000
```

Key GDB Tips For Assembly

- `stepi`/`finish`: step into current function call/return to caller:

  `(gdb) finish`

- Set register values during the run

  `(gdb) p $rdi = $rdi + 1`

(Might be useful to write down the original value of $rdi somewhere)

- Tui things
  - `refresh`
  - `focus cmd` – use up/down arrows on gdb command line (vs `focus asm`, `focus regs`)
  - `layout regs`, `layout asm`

gdb tips

`layout split` (`ctrl-x a`: exit, `ctrl-l`: resize)	View C, assembly, and gdb (lab5)
`info reg`	Print all registers
`p $eax`	Print register value
`p $eflags`	Print all condition codes currently set
`b *0x400546`	Set breakpoint at assembly instruction
`b *0x400550 if $eax > 98`	Set **conditional breakpoint**
`ni`	Next assembly instruction
`si`	Step into assembly instruction (will step into function calls)

gdb tips

`p/x $rdi`	Print register value in hex
`p/t $rsi`	Print register value in binary
`x $rdi`	Examine the byte stored at this address
`x/4bx $rdi`	Examine 4 bytes starting at this address
`x/4wx $rdi`	Examine 4 ints starting at this address

Array Allocation and Access

- Arrays in C map in a fairly straightforward way to X86 assembly code, thanks to the addressing modes available in instructions.
- When we perform pointer arithmetic, the assembly code that is produced will have address computations built into them.
- Optimizing compilers are ***very*** good at simplifying the address computations (in lab you will see another optimizing compiler benefit in the form of division — if the compiler can avoid dividing, it will!). Because of the transformations, compiler-generated assembly for arrays often doesn't look like what you are expecting.
- Consider the following form of a data type *T* and integer constant *N:*

T `A[`*N*`]`

- The starting location is designated as x_A
- The declaration allocates *N* `* sizeof(`*T*`)` bytes, and gives us an identifier that we can use as a pointer (but it isn't a pointer!), with a value of x_A.

Array Allocation and Access

- Example:

```
char     A[12];
char    *B[8];
int      C[6];
double  *D[5]
```

Array	Element Size	Total Size	Start address	Element i
A	1	12	x_A	$x_A + i$
B	8	64	x_B	$x_B + 8i$
C	4	24	x_C	$x_C + 4i$
D	8	40	x_D	$x_D + 8i$

- The memory referencing operations in x86-64 are designed to simplify array access. Suppose we wanted to access `C[3]` above. If the address of C is in register `%rdx`, and `3` is in register `%rcx`
- The following copies `C[3]` into `%eax`,

```
movl (%rdx,%rcx,4), %eax
```

Pointer Arithmetic

- C allows arithmetic on pointers, where the computed value is calculated according to the size of the data type referenced by the pointer.
- The array reference `A[i]` is identical to `*(A+i)`
- Example: if the address of array E is in `%rdx`, and the integer index, `i`, is in `%rcx`, the following are some expressions involving E:

Expression	Type	Value	Assembly Code
`E`	int *	x_E	`movq %rdx, %rax`
	int		
`E[0]`	int	$M[x_E]$	`movl (%rdx), %eax`
`E[i]`	int	$M[x_E+4i]$	`movl (%rdx,%rcx,4) %eax`
`&E[2]`	int *	x_E+8	`leaq 8(%rdx), %rax`
`E+i-1`	int *	x_E+4i-4	`leaq -4(%rdx,%rcx,4), %rax`
`*(E+i-3)`	int	$M[x_E+4i-12]$	`movl -12(%rdx,%rcx,4) %eax`
`&E[i]-E`	long	i	`movq %rcx,%rax`

Pointer Arithmetic

- Practice: x_S is the address of a `short` integer array, S, stored in `%rdx`, and a long integer index, `i`, is stored in register `%rcx`.
- For each of the following expressions, give its type, a formula for its value, and an assembly-code implementation. The result should be stored in `%rax` if it is a pointer, and the result should be in register `%ax` if it has a data type `short`.

Expression	Type	Value	Assembly Code
`S+1`	`short *`	$x_S + 2$	`leaq 2(%rdx),%rax`
`S[3]`	`short`	$M[x_S + 6]$	`movw 6(%rdx),%ax`
`&S[i]`	`short *`	$x_S + 2i$	`leaq (%rdx,%rcx,2),%rax`
`S[4*i+1]`	`short`	$M[x_S + 8i + 2]$	`movw 2(%rdx,%rcx,8),%ax`
`S+i-5`	`short *`	$x_S + 2i - 10$	`leaq -10(%rdx,%rcx,2),%rax`

References and Advanced

- References:
  - Stanford guide to x86-64: https://web.stanford.edu/class/cs107/guide/x86-64.html
  - CS107 one-page of x86-64: https://web.stanford.edu/class/cs107/resources/onepage_x86-64.pdf
  - gdbtui: https://beej.us/guide/bggdb/
  - More gdbtui: https://sourceware.org/gdb/onlinedocs/gdb/TUI.html
  - Compiler explorer: https://gcc.godbolt.org
- Advanced Reading:
  - Stack frame layout on x86-64: https://eli.thegreenplace.net/2011/09/06/stack-frame-layout-on-x86-64
  - x86-64 Intel Software Developer manual: https://software.intel.com/sites/default/files/managed/39/c5/325462-sdm-vol-1-2abcd-3abcd.pdf
  - history of x86 instructions: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/X86_instruction_listings
  - x86-64 Wikipedia: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/X86-64