Endianness, Assembly

CS 2130: Computer Systems and Organization 1 March 3, 2023

- Homework 4 due tonight at 11pm on Gradescope
- No Quiz this weekend have a great spring break!
- Homework 5 available Monday after break

Powers of Two							
Value	base-10	Short form	Pronounced				
2 ¹⁰	1024	Ki	Kilo				
2 ²⁰	1,048,576	Mi	Mega				
2 ³⁰	1,073,741,824	Gi	Giga				
2 ⁴⁰	1,099,511,627,776	Ti	Tera				
2 ⁵⁰	1,125,899,906,842,624	Pi	Peta				
2 ⁶⁰	1,152,921,504,606,846,976	Ei	Exa				

Example: 2²⁷ bytes

Dowors of Two

FUN				
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FUWEIS UI			
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Example: 2^{27} bytes = $2^7 \times 2^{20}$ bytes = 2^7 MiB = 128 MiB

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• 16 EiB (2^{64} addresses = $2^4 \times 2^{60}$)

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- 16 EiB (2^{64} addresses = $2^4 \times 2^{60}$)
- But I only have 8 GiB of RAM

There is a disconnect:

- Registers: 64-bits values
- Memory: 8-bit values (i.e., 1 byte values)
 - Each address addresses an 8-bit value in memory
 - Each address points to a 1-byte slot in memory

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- Registers: 64-bits values
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- How do we store a 64-bit value in an 8-bit spot?

Rules to break "big values" into bytes (memory)

- 1. Break it into bytes
- 2. Store them adjacently
- 3. Address of the overall value = smallest address of its bytes
- 4. Order the bytes
 - If parts are ordered (i.e., array), first goes in smallest address
 - Else, hardware implementation gets to pick (!!)
 - Little-endian
 - Big-endian

Little-endian

- \cdot Store the low order part/byte first
- Most hardware today is little-endian

Big-endian

• Store the high order part/byte first



Store [0x1234, 0x5678] at address 0xF00

Why do we study endianness?

- $\boldsymbol{\cdot}$ It is everywhere
- It is a source of weird bugs
- Ex: It's likely your computer uses:
 - Little-endian from CPU to memory
 - Big-endian from CPU to network
 - File formats are roughly half and half

Moving up!

General principle of all assembly languages

- Code (text, not binary!)
- 1 line of code = 1 machine instruction
- One-to-one reversible mapping between binary and assembly
 - We do not need to remember binary encodings!
 - A program will turn text to binary for us!

Features of assembly

- Automatic addresses use **labels** to keep track of addresses
 - Assembler will remember location of labels and use where appropriate
 - Labels will not exist in machine code
- Metadata data about data
 - \cdot Data that helps turn assembly into code the machine can use
- As complicated as machine instructions (like we have been writing)
 - There are a lot of instructions, and it is one-to-one!

There are relatively few assembly languages

- But, they're backed by hardware!
- Two big ones these days: x86-64 and ARM
 - You likely have machines that use one of these
- Others: RISC-V, MIPS, ...

We will focus on **x86-64**

x86-64 has a weird and long history

- Expansion of the 8086 series (Intel)
 - 8086, 8286, 8386, 8486, x86
- AMD expanded it with AMD64
- Intel decide to use same build, but called it x86-64
- Backwards compatible with the 8086 series

Two dialects - two ways to write the same thing

- Intel likely using with Windows
 mov QWORD PTR [rdx+0x227],rax
- AT&T likely using with anything else
 movq %rax,0x227(%rdx)

We will use AT&T dialect

instruction source, destination

- Instruction followed by 0 or more operands (arguments)
- 4 types of operands:
 - Number (immediate value): **\$0x123**
 - Register: **%rax**
 - Address of memory: (%rax) or 0x24 or labelname
 - Value at an address in memory: (%rax) or 0x24 or labelname

mylabelname:

• Label - remember the address of next thing to use later

.something something

- \cdot Metadirective extra information that is not code
- \cdot How the code works with other things (i.e., talk to OS)
- Ex: .globl main

// we can have comments!

Addressing Memory

2130(%rax, %rsp, 8)

- Address can have up to 4 parts: 2 numbers, 2 registers
- Combines as: 2130 + %rax + (%rsp * 8)
- Common usage from this example:
 - rax address of an object in memory
 - 2130 offset of an array into the object
 - $\cdot \ rsp$ index into the array
 - \cdot 8 size of the values in the array
- Don't need all parts: (%rax) or (%rax, 4) or 4(%rax)
- This is all one operand (one memory address)



rax is a 64-bit register

hello.s example

Instructions have different versions depending on number of bits to use

- movq 64-bit move
 - q = quad word
- movl 32-bit move
 - \cdot l = long
- There are encodings for shorter things, but we will mostly see 32and 64-bit

Instructions can move/operate between memory and register

- movq %rax, %rcx register to register
 - Remember our icode 0
- movq (%rax), %rcx memory to register
 - Remember our icode 3
- movq %rax, (%rcx) register to memory
 - Remember our icode 4
- movq \$21, %rax Immediate to register
 - Remember our icode 6 (b=0)

Note: at most one memory address per instruction

Other instructions work the same way

- addq %rax, %rcx rcx += rax
- subq (%rbx), %rax rax -= M[rbx]
- xor, and, and others work the same way!
- Assembly has virtually no 3-argument instructions
 - All will be modifying something (i.e., +=, δ=, ...)



jmp foo

- Unconditional jump to foo
- foo is a label or memory address
- Need jmp* to use register value

Conditional jumps

 \cdot jl, jle, je, jne, jg, jge, ja, jb, js, jo

Unlike our Toy ISA, these do not compare given register to 0

Condition codes - 4 1-bit registers set by every math operation, **cmp**, and **test**

- Result for the operation compared to 0 (if no overflow)
- Example: addq \$-5, %rax // ...code that doesn't set condition codes... je foo
 - Sets condition codes from doing math (subtract 5 from rax)
 - Tells whether result was positive, negative, 0, if there was overflow, ...
 - Then jump if the result of that operation should have been = 0

Jumps: compare and test

cmpq %rax, %rdx

- Compare checks result of -= and sets condition codes
- How rdx rax compares with 0
- Be aware of ordering!
 - if **rax** is bigger, sets < flag
 - if **rdx** is bigger, sets > flag

testq %rax, %rdx

- \cdot Sets the condition codes based on $rdx~\delta~rax$
- Less common

Neither save their result, just set condition codes!

Function Calls: Calling Conventions

callq myfun

- \cdot Push return address, then jump to myfun
- Convention: Store arguments in registers and stack before call
 - First 6 arguments (in order): rdi, rsi, rdx, rcx, r8, r9
 - \cdot If more arguments, pushed onto stack (last to first)

retq

- Pop return address from stack and jump back
- Convention: store return value in rax before calling retq

This is similar to our Toy ISA's function calls in homework 4

Debugger - step through code!

- \cdot You will be using this for lab tomorrow
- Experience seeing results of these instructions step-by-step
- Please read the x86-64 summary reading before lab!