

# CS429: Computer Organization and Architecture

## Instruction Set Architecture II

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Last updated: February 26, 2020 at 14:01

# Topics of this Slideset

- Assembly Programmer's Execution Model
- Accessing Information
- Registers
- Memory
- Arithmetic operations

*BTW: We're through with Y86 for a while, and starting the x86. We'll come back to the Y86 later for pipelining.*

x86 processors totally dominate the laptop/desktop/server market.

## **Evolutionary Design**

- Starting in 1978 with 8086
- Added more features over time.

## **Complex Instruction Set Computer (CISC)**

- Still support many old, now obsolete, features.
- There are many different instructions with many different formats, but only a small subset are encountered with Linux programs.
- Hard to match performance of Reduced Instruction Set Computers (RISC), though Intel has done just that!

## Machine Evolution

Model	Date	Trans.
386	1985	0.3M
Pentium	1993	3.1M
Pentium/MMX	1997	4.5M
Pentium Pro	1995	6.5M
Pentium III	1999	8.2M
Pentium 4	2001	42M
Core 2 Duo	2006	291M
Core i7	2008	731M
Core i7-8086K	2018	3B

## Added Features

- Instructions to support multimedia operations
- Instructions to enable more efficient conditional operations
- Transition from 32 to 64 bits
- More cores

## Historically

- AMD has followed behind Intel
- A little bit slower, a lot cheaper

## Then

- Recruited top circuit designers from Digital Equipment Corp. (DEC) and other downward trending companies
- Built Opteron: tough competitor to Pentium 4
- Developed x86-64, their own extension to 64 bits

## Recent Years

- Intel got its act together; leads the world in semiconductor technology
- AMD has fallen behind; relies on external semiconductor manufacturers

## Transmeta

Radically different approach to implementation.

- Translate x86 code into “very long instruction word” (VLIW) code.
- Very high degree of parallelism.

## Centaur / Via

- Continued evolution from Cyrix, the 3rd x86 vendor. Low power, design team in Austin.
- 32-bit processor family.
  - At 2 GHz, around 2 watts; at 600 MHz around 0.5 watt.
- 64-bit processor family, used by HP, Lenovo, OLPC, IBM.
  - Very low power, only a few watts at 1.2 GHz.
  - Full virtualization and SSE support.

# Definitions:

**Architecture:** (also ISA or instruction set architecture). The parts of a processor design one needs in order to understand or write assembly/machine code.

- Examples: instruction set specification, registers

**Microarchitecture:** implementation of the architecture.

- Examples: cache sizes and core frequency

## Code Forms:

- Machine code: the byte-level programs that a processor executes
- Assembly code: a human-readable textual representation of machine code

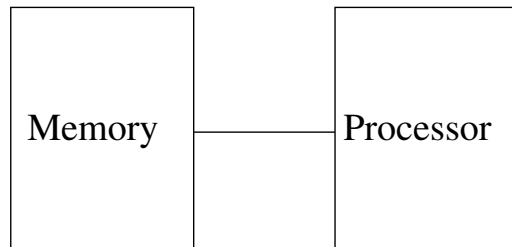
## Example ISAs:

- Intel: x86, IA32, Itanium, x86-64
- ARM: used in almost all mobile phones

# Abstract vs. Concrete Machine Models

## Machine Models

C



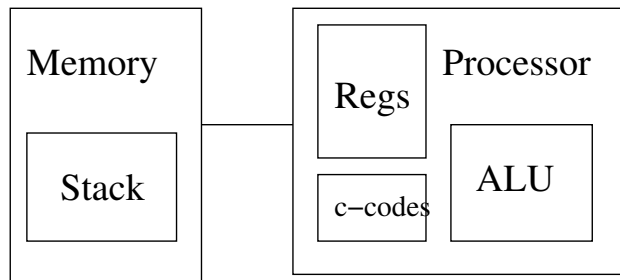
### Data

- 1) char
- 2) int, float
- 3) double
- 4) struct, array
- 5) pointer

### Control

- 1) loops
- 2) conditionals
- 3) switch
- 4) proc. call
- 5) proc. return

Assembly

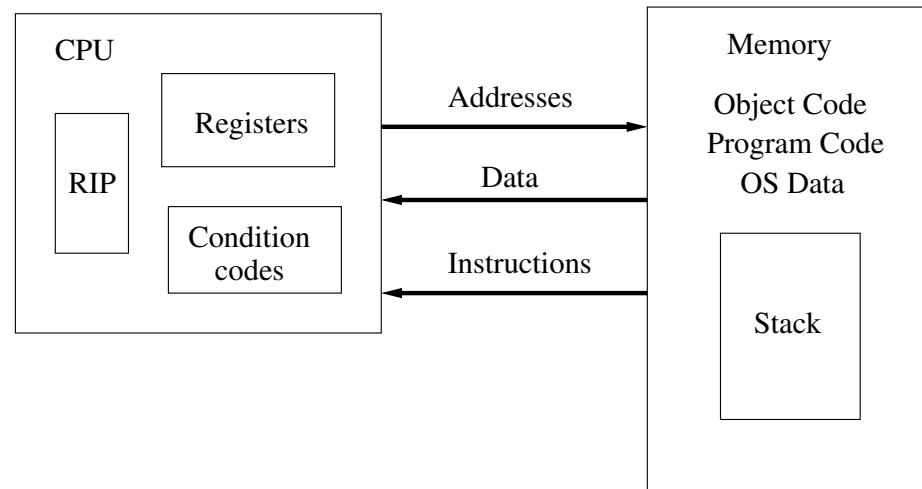


- 1) byte
- 2) 2-byte word
- 3) 4-byte long word
- 4) 8-byte quad word
- 5) contiguous byte allocation
- 6) address of initial byte

- 1) branch/jump
- 2) call
- 3) ret



# Assembly Programmer's View



## Programmer Visible State

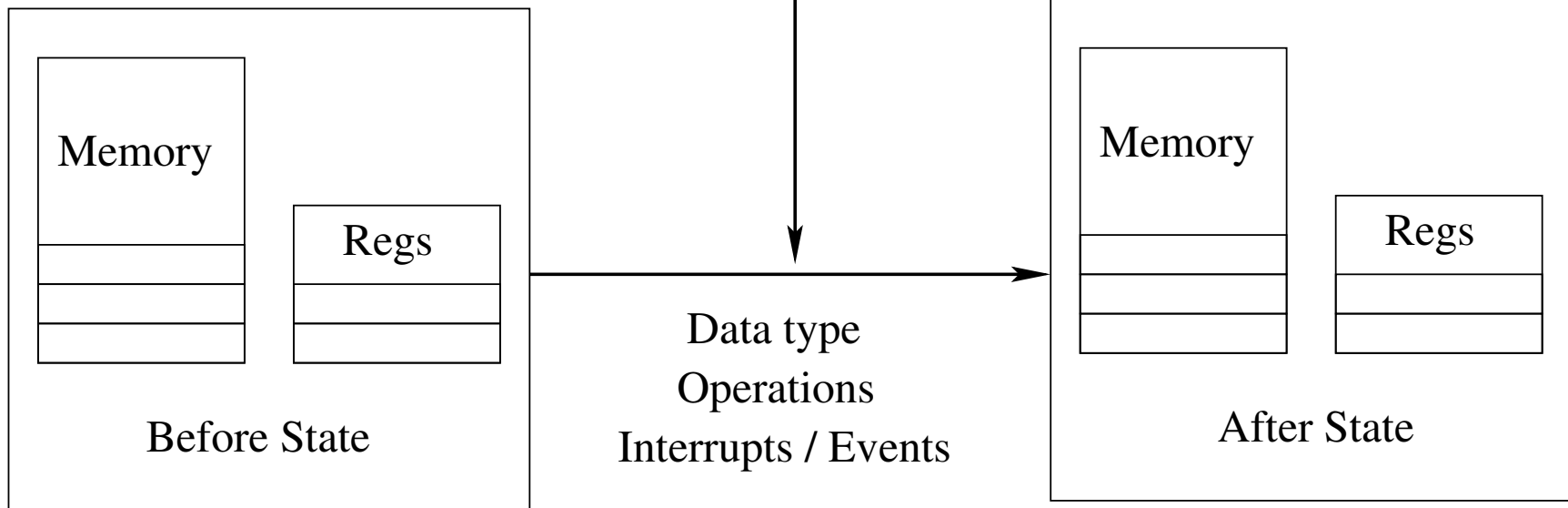
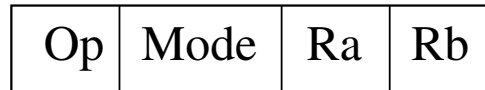
- PC (Program Counter): address of next instruction. Called `%rip` in x86-64.
- Condition codes:
  - Store status info about most recent arithmetic operation.
  - Used for conditional branching.
- Register file: heavily used program data.
- Memory
  - Byte addressable array.
  - Code, user data, (some) OS data.
  - Includes stack.

- Contract between programmer and the hardware.
  - Defines visible state of the system.
  - Defines how state changes in response to instructions.
- For Programmer: ISA is model of how a program will execute.
- For Hardware Designer: ISA is formal definition of the correct way to execute a program.
  - With a stable ISA, SW doesn't care what the HW looks like under the hood.
  - Hardware implementations can change drastically.
  - As long as the HW implements the same ISA, all prior SW should still run.
  - Example: x86 ISA has spanned many chips; instructions have been added but the SW for prior chips still runs.
- ISA specification: the binary encoding of the instruction set.

# ISA Basics

Instruction formats  
Instruction types  
Addressing modes

Instruction



Machine State

Memory organization

Register organization

# Architecture vs. Implementation

**Architecture:** defines *what* a computer system does in response to a program and set of data.

- *Programmer visible* elements of computer system.

**Implementation (microarchitecture):** defines *how* a computer does it.

- Sequence of steps to complete operations.
- Time to execute each operation.
- Hidden “bookkeeping” function.

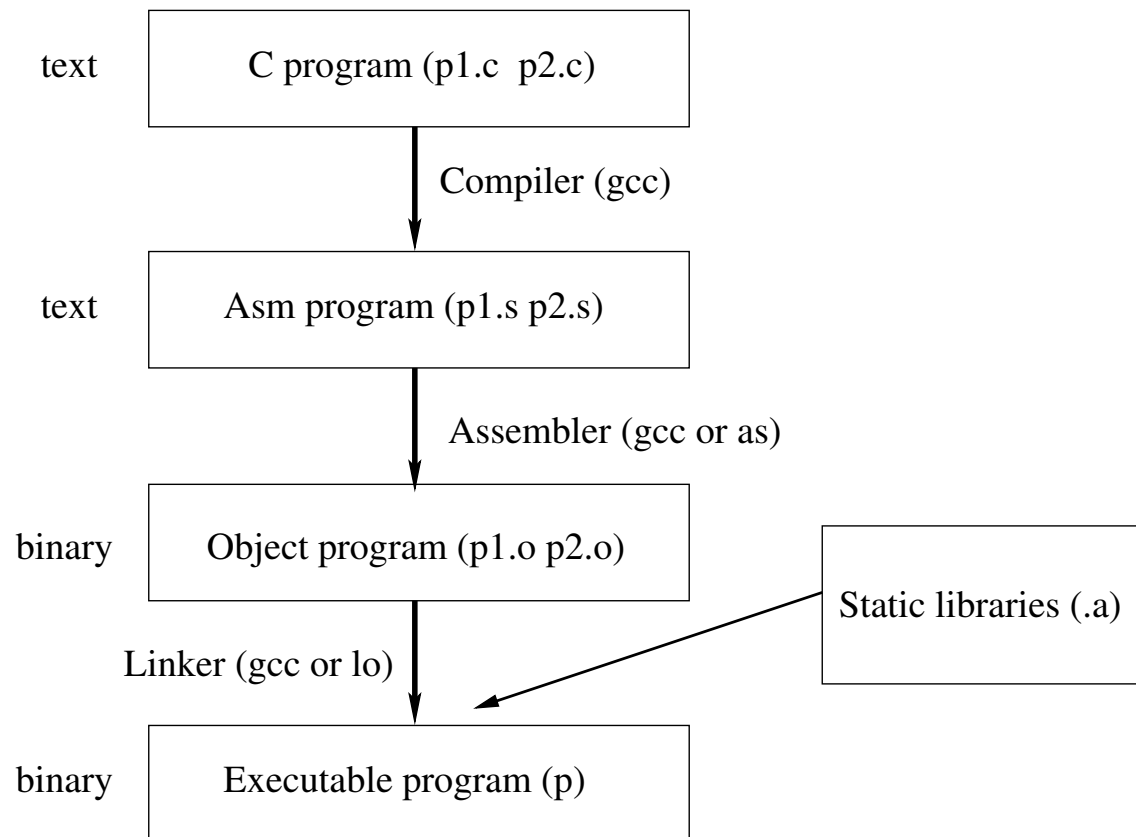
*If the architecture changes, some programs may no longer run or return the same answer. If the implementation changes, some programs may run faster/slower/better, but the answers won't change.*

Which of the following are part of the architecture and which are part of the implementation? Hint: if the programmer can see/use it (directly) in a program, it's part of the architecture.

- Number/names of general purpose registers
- Width of memory bus
- Binary representation of each instruction
- Number of cycles to execute a FP instruction
- Condition code bits set by a move instruction
- Size of the instruction cache
- Type of FP format

# Turning C into Object Code

- Code in files: `p1.c`, `p2.c`
- For minimal optimization, compile with command:  
`gcc -Og p1.c p2.c -o p`
- Use optimization (`-Og`); new to recent versions of `gcc`
- Put resulting binary in file `p`



# Compiling into Assembly

C Code (sum.c):

```
long plus(long x, long y);

void sumstore(long x, long y, long *dest) {
    long t = plus(x, y);
    *dest = t;
}
```

Run command: `gcc -Og -S sum.c`  
produces file `sum.s`.

```
sumstore:
    pushq %rbx                # save %rbx
    movq  %rdx, %rbx          # temp <-- dest
    call plus
    movq  %rax, (%rbx)        # *dest <-- t
    popq  %rbx                # restore %rbx
    ret
```

**Warning:** you may get different results due to variations in gcc and compiler settings.

## Minimal Data Types

- “Integer” data of 1, 2, 4 or 8 bytes
- Addresses (untyped pointers)
- Floating point data of 4, 8 or 10 bytes
- No aggregate types such as arrays or structures
- Just contiguously allocated bytes in memory

## Primitive Operations

- Perform arithmetic functions on register or memory data
- Transfer data between memory and register
  - Load data from memory into register
  - Store register data into memory
- Transfer control
  - Unconditional jumps to/from procedures
  - Conditional branches



```
0x0400595 :
  0x53
  0x48      # total of
  0x89      # 14 bytes
  0xd3
  0xe8      # each
           inst
  0xf2      # 1, 3, or
  0xff      # 5 bytes
  0xff
  0xff      # starts
           at
  0x48      # addr
  0x89      # 0
           x0x00595
  0x03
  0x5b
  0xc3
```

## Assembler

- Translates .s into .o
- Binary encoding of each inst.
- Nearly complete image of executable code
- Missing linkages between code in different files

## Linker

- Resolves references between files
- Combines with static run-time libraries; e.g., code for malloc, printf
- Some libraries are dynamically linked (just before execution)

# Machine Instruction Example

```
*dest = t;
```

```
movq %rax, (%rbx)
```

```
0x040059e: 48 89 03
```

## C Code

- Store value `t` where designated by `dest`

## Assembly

- Move 8-byte value to memory (quad word in x86 parlance).
- Operands:
  - `t`: Register `%rax`
  - `dest`: Register `%rbx`
  - `*dest`: Memory `M[%rbx]`

## Object Code

- 3-byte instruction
- Stored at address `0x40059e`

# Disassembling Object Code

Disassembly using objdump. Offsets are relative.

```
> objdump -d sumstore.o

sumstore.o:          file format elf64-x86-64
Disassembly of section .text:
0000000000000000 <sumstore>:
   0:   53                push   %rbx
   1:   48 89 d3         mov    %rdx,%rbx
   4:   e8 00 00 00 00  callq  9 <sumstore+0x9>
   9:   48 89 03         mov    %rax,(%rbx)
  c:   5b                pop    %rbx
  d:   c3                retq
```

- `objdump -d sum`
- Useful tool for examining object code
- Analyzes bit pattern of series of instructions
- Produces approximate rendition of assembly code
- Can be run on either `a.out` (complete executable) or `.o` file

# Alternate Disassembly

Disassembly using gdb. Offsets are relative.

```
Dump of assembler code for function sumstore:
0x0000000000000000 <+0>:  push   %rbx
0x0000000000000001 <+1>:  mov    %rdx,%rbx
0x0000000000000004 <+4>:  callq 0x9 <sumstore+9>
0x0000000000000009 <+9>:  mov    %rax, (%rbx)
0x000000000000000c <+12>: pop    %rbx
0x000000000000000d <+13>:  retq

End of assembler dump.
```

Within gdb debugger:

```
gdb sum
disassemble sumstore
x/14xb sumstore
```

Examine the 14 bytes starting at sumstore.

# What Can be Disassembled?

- Anything that can be interpreted as executable code.
- Disassembler examines bytes and reconstructs assembly source.

```
% objdump -d WINWORD.EXE

WINWORD.EXE:          file format pei-i386

No symbols in "WINWORD.EXE".
Disassembly of section .text:

30001000 <.text>:
30001000:   55                push  %ebp
30001001:   8b ec            mov   %esp, %ebp
30001003:   6a ff            push $0xffffffff
30001005:   68 90 10 00 30   push $0x30001090
3000100a:   68 91 dc 4c 30   push $0x304cdc91
```

# Which Assembler?

## Intel/Microsoft Format

```
lea rax, [rcx+rcx*4]
sub rsp, 8
cmp quad ptr [ebp-8], 0
mov rax, quad ptr [rax*4+10h]
```

## GAS/Gnu Format

```
leaq (%rcx,%rcx,4), %rax
subq $8,%rsp
cmpq $0,-8(%rbp)
movq $0x10(,%rax,4),%rax
```

## Intel/Microsoft Differs from GAS

- Operands are listed in opposite order:

mov Dest, Src                      movq Src, Dest

- Constants not preceded by '\$'; denote hex with 'h' at end.

10h                                  \$0x10

- Operand size indicated by operands rather than operator suffix.

sub                                  subq

- Addressing format shows effective address computation.

[rax\*4+10h]                      \$0x10(,%rax,4)

*From now on we'll always use GAS assembler format.*

# x86-64 Integer Registers

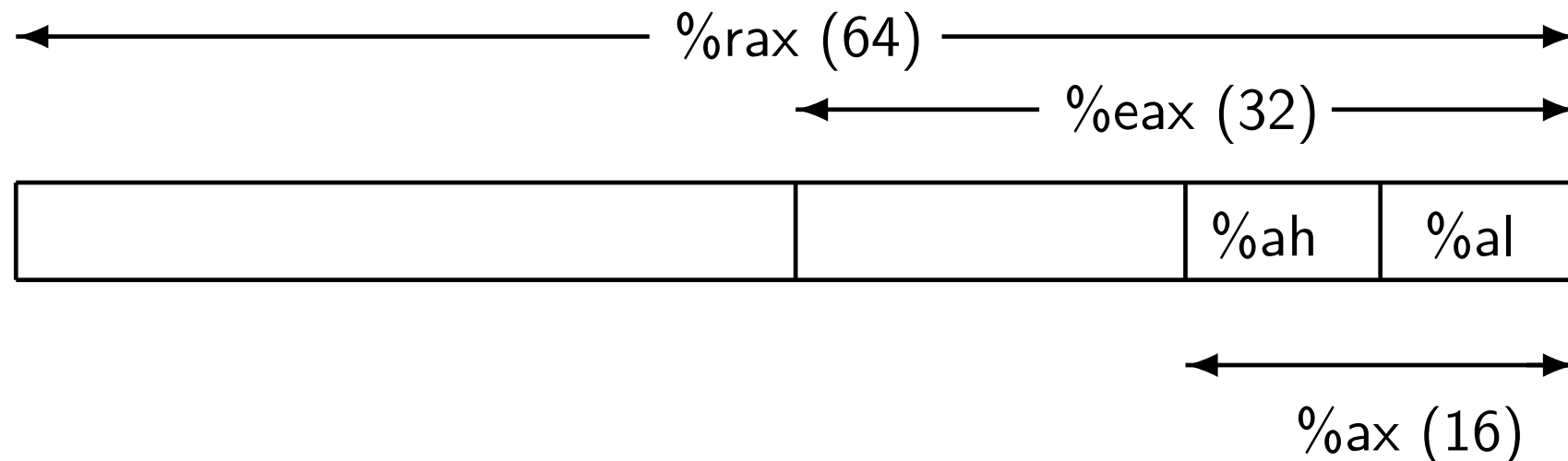
For each of the 64-bit registers, the LS 4 bytes are named 32-bit registers.

<b>Reg.</b>	<b>LS 4 bytes</b>	<b>Reg.</b>	<b>LS 4 bytes</b>
<code>%rax</code>	<code>%eax</code>	<code>%r8</code>	<code>%r8d</code>
<code>%rbx</code>	<code>%ebx</code>	<code>%r9</code>	<code>%r9d</code>
<code>%rcx</code>	<code>%ecx</code>	<code>%r10</code>	<code>%r10d</code>
<code>%rdx</code>	<code>%edx</code>	<code>%r11</code>	<code>%r11d</code>
<code>%rsi</code>	<code>%esi</code>	<code>%r12</code>	<code>%r12d</code>
<code>%rdi</code>	<code>%edi</code>	<code>%r13</code>	<code>%r13d</code>
<code>%rsp</code>	<code>%esp</code>	<code>%r14</code>	<code>%r14d</code>
<code>%rbp</code>	<code>%ebp</code>	<code>%r15</code>	<code>%r15d</code>

You can also reference the LS 16-bits (2 bytes) and LS 8-bits (1 byte). For the numbered registers (`%r8–%r15`) the components are named e.g., `%r8d` (32-bits), `%r8w` (16-bits), `%r8b` (8-bits).

# Decomposing the %rax Register

All of the x86's 64-bit registers have 32-bit, 16-bit and 8-bit accessible internal structure. It varies slightly among the different registers. Example, only %rax, %rbx, %rcx, %rdx allow direct access to byte 1 (%ah).





# Some History: IA32 Registers

32-bit reg	16-bit reg	8-bit reg	8-bit Reg	Use
%eax	%ax	%ah	%al	accumulator
%ecx	%cx	%ch	%cl	counter
%edx	%dx	%dh	%dl	data
%ebx	%bx	%bh	%bl	base
%esi	%si		%sil*	source index
%edi	%di		%dil*	dest. index
%esp	%sp		%spl*	stack pointer
%ebp	%bp		%bpl*	base pointer

\*These are only available in 64-bit mode.

# Simple Addressing Modes (Same as Y86)

- **Immediate:** value

```
movq $0xab, %rbx
```

- **Register:** Reg[R]

```
movq %rcx, %rbx
```

- **Normal (R):** Mem[Reg[R]]

- Register R specifies memory address.
- This is often called *indirect* addressing.
- Aha! Pointer dereferencing in C

```
movq (%rcx), %rax
```

- **Displacement D(R):** Mem[Reg[R]+D]

- Register R specifies start of memory region.
- Constant displacement D specifies offset

```
movq 8(%rcb), %rdx
```

## Moving Data:

- Form: `movq Source, Dest`
- Move 8-byte “long” word
- Lots of these in typical code

## Operand Types

- **Immediate:** Constant integer data
  - Like C constant, but prefixed with '\$'
  - E.g., `$0x400`, `$-533`
  - Encoded with 1, 2, or 4 bytes
- **Register:** One of 16 integer registers
  - Example: `%rax`, `%r13`
  - But `%rsp` is reserved for special use
  - Others have special uses for particular instructions
- **Memory:** source/dest is first address of block
  - Example: `(%rax), 0x20(%rbx)`
  - Various “addressing modes”

# movq Operand Combinations

Unlike the Y86, we don't distinguish the operator depending on the operand addressing modes.

Source	Dest.	Assembler	C Analog
Immediate	Register	<code>movq \$0x4,%rax</code>	<code>temp = 0x4;</code>
Immediate	Memory	<code>movq \$-147, (%rax)</code>	<code>*p = -147;</code>
Register	Register	<code>movq %rax,%rdx</code>	<code>temp2 = temp1;</code>
Register	Memory	<code>movq %rax, (%rdx)</code>	<code>*p = temp;</code>
Memory	Register	<code>movq (%rax),%rdx</code>	<code>temp = *p</code>

Direct memory-memory transfers are not supported.

## **C programming model is close to machine language.**

- Machine language manipulates memory addresses.
  - For address computation;
  - To store addresses in registers or memory.
- C employs pointers, which are just addresses of primitive data elements or data structures.

## **Examples of operators \* and &:**

- `int a, b; /* declare integers a and b */`
- `int *a_ptr; /* a is a pointer to an integer */`
- `a_ptr = a; /* illegal, types don't match*/`
- `a_ptr = &a; /* a_ptr holds address of a */`
- `b = *a_ptr; /* dereference a_ptr and assign value to b */`

# Using Simple 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
```

# Understanding Swap (1)

```
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	Value	comment
%rdi	xp	points into memory
%rsi	yp	points into memory
%rax	t0	temporary storage
%rdx	t1	temporary storage

# Understanding Swap (2)

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

## Initial State:

### Registers

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

### Memory

123	0x120
	0x118
	0x110
	0x108
456	0x100



# Understanding Swap (3)

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

## Registers

%rdi	0x120
%rsi	0x100
%rax	123
%rdx	

## Memory

123	0x120
	0x118
	0x110
	0x108
456	0x100

# Understanding Swap (4)

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

## Registers

%rdi	0x120
%rsi	0x100
%rax	123
%rdx	456

## Memory

123	0x120
	0x118
	0x110
	0x108
456	0x100

# Understanding Swap (5)

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

## Registers

%rdi	0x120
%rsi	0x100
%rax	123
%rdx	456

## Memory

	456	0x120
		0x118
		0x110
		0x108
	456	0x100

# Understanding Swap (6)

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

## Registers

%rdi	0x120
%rsi	0x100
%rax	123
%rdx	456

## Memory

456	0x120
	0x118
	0x110
	0x108
123	0x100

# Simple Addressing Modes

- **Immediate:** value

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```
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```

- **Displacement D(R):** Mem[Reg[R]+D]

- Register R specifies start of memory region.
- Constant displacement D specifies offset

```
movq 8(%rcb), %rdx
```

# Indexed Addressing Modes

## Most General Form:

$$D(Rb, Ri, S) \quad \text{Mem}[\text{Reg}[Rb] + S * \text{Reg}[Ri] + D]$$

- D: Constant “displacement” of 1, 2, 4 or 8 bytes
- Rb: Base register, any of the 16 integer registers
- Ri: Index register, any except %rsp (and probably not %rbp)
- S: Scale, must be 1, 2, 4 or 8.

## Special Cases:

$(Rb, Ri)$	$\text{Mem}[\text{Reg}[Rb] + \text{Reg}[Ri]]$
$D(Rb, Ri)$	$\text{Mem}[\text{Reg}[Rb] + \text{Reg}[Ri] + D]$
$(Rb, Ri, S)$	$\text{Mem}[\text{Reg}[Rb] + S * \text{Reg}[Ri]]$

# Addressing Modes

Type	Form	Operand value	Name
Immediate	$\$D$	$D$	Immediate
Register	$E_a$	$R[E_a]$	Register
Memory	$D$	$M[D]$	Absolute
Memory	$(E_a)$	$M[R[E_a]]$	Indirect
Memory	$D(E_b)$	$M[D + R[E_b]]$	Base + displacement
Memory	$(E_b, E_i),$	$M[R[E_b] + R[E_i]]$	Indexed
Memory	$D(E_b, E_i),$	$M[D + R[E_b] + R[E_i]]$	Indexed
Memory	$(, E_i, s)$	$M[R[E_i] \cdot s]$	Scaled indexed
Memory	$D(, E_i, s)$	$M[D + R[E_i] \cdot s]$	Scaled indexed
Memory	$(E_b, E_i, s),$	$M[R[E_b] + R[E_i] \cdot s]$	Scaled indexed
Memory	$D(E_b, E_i, s)$	$M[D + R[E_b] + R[E_i] \cdot s]$	Scaled indexed

The scaling factor  $s$  can only be 1, 2, 4, or 8.

# Address Computation Example

<code>%rdx</code>	<code>0xf000</code>
<code>%rcx</code>	<code>0x100</code>

Expression	Computation	Address
<code>0x8(%rdx)</code>	<code>0xf000 + 0x8</code>	<code>0xf008</code>
<code>(%rdx, %rcx)</code>	<code>0xf000 + 0x100</code>	<code>0xf100</code>
<code>(%rdx, %rcx, 4)</code>	<code>0xf000 + 4*0x100</code>	<code>0xf400</code>
<code>0x80(,%rdx, 2)</code>	<code>2*0xf000 + 0x80</code>	<code>0x1e080</code>
<code>0x80(%rdx, 2)</code>	Illegal. Why?	
<code>0x80(,%rdx, 3)</code>	Illegal. Why?	



# Addressing Mode Example

Indexed addressing modes are extremely useful when iterating over an array.

```
long sumArray ( long A[], int len) {  
    long i;  
    long sum = 0;  
  
    for (i = 0; i < len; i++)  
        sum += A[i];  
    return sum;  
}
```

- What is the type of A?
- Why do we need len? Could we just call len(A)?

# Addressing Mode Example

```
> gcc -S -Og test.c
```

causes sumArray on the previous slide to compile to:

```
sumArray:
    movl    $0, %eax
    movl    $0, %edx
    jmp     .L2

.L3:
    addq   (%rdi,%rdx,8), %rax
    addq   $1, %rdx

.L2:
    movslq %esi, %rcx
    cmpq   %rcx, %rdx
    jl     .L3
    rep   ret
```

# Another Example

Suppose we want to add `val` to each of the elements of array.

```
# include <stdio.h>

void addnum ( int array[], int val, int len ) {
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < len; i++)
        array[i] += val;
}
```

```
addnum:
    movl    $0, %eax
    jmp     .L2

.L3:
    movslq  %eax, %rcx
    addl    %esi, (%rdi,%rcx,4)
    addl    $1, %eax

.L2:
    cmpl    %edx, %eax
    jl     .L3
    rep ret
```

# Some Arithmetic Operations

## Two operand instructions:

### Format

### Computation

addq Src, Dest

Dest = Dest + Src

subq Src, Dest

Dest = Dest - Src

imulq Src, Dest

Dest = Dest \* Src

salq Src, Dest

Dest = Dest << Src

same as shlq

sarq Src, Dest

Dest = Dest >> Src

arithmetic

shrq Src, Dest

Dest = Dest >> Src

logical

xorq Src, Dest

Dest = Dest ^ Src

andq Src, Dest

Dest = Dest & Src

orq Src, Dest

Dest = Dest | Src

- Watch out for argument order!
- There's no distinction between signed and unsigned. Why?
- For shift operations Src must be a constant or %c1.

# Some Arithmetic Operations

## One operand instructions:

### Format

incq Dest

decq Dest

negq Dest

notq Dest

### Computation

$\text{Dest} = \text{Dest} + 1$

$\text{Dest} = \text{Dest} - 1$

$\text{Dest} = -\text{Dest}$

$\text{Dest} = \sim\text{Dest}$

More instructions in the book.

# Address Computation Instruction

**Form:** `leaq Src, Dest`

- Src is address mode expression.
- Sets Dest to *address* denoted by the expression

LEA stands for “load effective address.”

After the effective address computation, place the *address*, not the contents of the address, into the destination.

# Address Computation Instruction: movq vs. leaq

Consider the following computation:

Reg.	Value
%rax	0x100
%rbx	0x200

```
movq 0x10(%rbx, %rax, 4), %rcx
leaq 0x10(%rbx, %rax, 4), %rdx
```

After this sequence,

- %rcx will contain the *contents* of location 0x610;
- %rdx will contain the number (address) 0x610.

Neither LEA nor MOV set condition codes.

What should the following do?

```
leaq %rbx, %rdx
```



# Address Computation Instruction: movq vs. leaq

Consider the following computation:

Reg.	Value
%rax	0x100
%rbx	0x200

```
movq 0x10(%rbx, %rax, 4), %rcx
leaq 0x10(%rbx, %rax, 4), %rdx
```

After this sequence,

- %rcx will contain the *contents* of location 0x610;
- %rdx will contain the number (address) 0x610.

Neither LEA nor MOV set condition codes.

What should the following do?

```
leaq %rbx, %rdx
```

It really shouldn't be legal since %rbx doesn't have an address. However, the semantics makes it equal to `movq %rbx, %rdx`.

# Address Computation Instruction

The `leaq` instruction is widely used for address computations *and* for some general arithmetic computations.

## Uses:

- Computing address without doing a memory reference:
  - E.g., translation of `p = &x[i];`
- Computing arithmetic expressions of the form  $x + k \times y$ , where  $k \in \{1, 2, 4, 8\}$

## Example:

```
long m12(long x)
{
    return x*12;
}
```

## Converted to ASM by compiler:

```
leaq (%rdi,%rdi,2),%rax # t <- x+x*2
salq $2,%rax           # ret. t<<2
```

# Arithmetic Expression Example

```
long arith
(long x, long y,
 long z)
{
    long t1 = x+y;
    long t2 = z+t1;
    long t3 = x+4;
    long t4 = y * 48;
    long t5 = t3 + t4;
    long rval = t2 * t5;
    return rval;
}
```

```
arith:
    leaq    (%rdi,%rsi), %rax
    addq    %rdx, %rax
    leaq    (%rsi,%rsi,2), %rdx
    salq    $4, %rdx
    leaq    4(%rdi,%rdx), %rcx
    imulq   %rcx, %rax
    ret
```

## Interesting instructions:

- leaq: address computation
- salq: shift
- imulq: multiplication, but only used once

# Understanding our Arithmetic Expression Example

```
long arith
(long x, long y,
 long z)
{
    long t1 = x+y;
    long t2 = z+t1;
    long t3 = x+4;
    long t4 = y*48;
    long t5 = t3+t4;
    long rval = t2*t5;
    return rval;
}
```

```
arith:
    leaq    (%rdi,%rsi),%rax    # t1
    addq    %rdx,%rax          # t2
    leaq    (%rsi,%rsi,2),%rdx
    salq    $4,%rdx            # t4
    leaq    4(%rdi,%rdx),%rcx   # t5
    imulq   %rcx,%rax          # rval
    ret
```

Register	Use(s)
%rdi	Argument x
%rsi	Argument y
%rdx	Argument z
%rax	t1, t2, rval
%rdx	t4
%rcx	t5

## History of Intel processors and architectures

- Evolutionary design leads to many quirks and artifacts

## C, assembly, machine code

- New forms of visible state: program counter, registers, etc.
- Compiler must transform statements, expressions, procedures into low-level instruction sequences

## Assembly Basics: Registers, operands, move

- The x86-64 move instructions cover a wide range of data movement forms

## Arithmetic

- C compiler will figure out different instruction combinations to carry out computation