Assembly Language

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Assembly Language?

- Compiling a HLL (e.g., C) program:
 - 1. Compiler generates assembly code
 - 2. Assembler creates binary modules
 - Machine code, data, & symbolic info
 - Libraries are modules too
 - 3. Linker combines needed modules into one
 - 4. Loader is the part of the OS that loads a module into memory for execution
- Usually, HLL programmer's don't see this;
 - 1-3 invoked by cc, 4 when you run the program



Assembly Language(s)?

- Not one language, but one per ISA
- "Human readable" textual representation
 - Typically, one line becomes one instruction
 - May also have macros
 - Directives control assembly, specify data
- Used to be used for programming... now:
 - Used mostly as compiler target
 - People use it for debugging, performance tweaking, or when no other option exists



Which Assembly Language?

- Which assembly language will we use?
 - MIPS?
 - IA32 or AMD64/Intel64/X86-64?
 - ARM?
- We'll start with a simple stack instruction set:
 - Close to what most compilers do internally
 - Can transform to whichever
- No, the stack instruction set isn't in the text...



Worlds Inside Programs

- Most programming languages are very similar, procedural (as opposed to descriptive, etc.)
- Code:
 - Assignments & expressions
 - Control flow
 - Functions & subroutines
- Data
- Comments which we'll ignore :-(



Worlds Inside Programs

- Most programming languages are very similar, procedural (as opposed to descriptive, etc.)
- Code:
 - Assignments & expressions varies widely
 - Control flow easy, similar in most ISAs
 - Functions & subroutines complex!
- Data
- Comments which we'll ignore :-(



Control Flow

- Determines sequence/order of operations (orders can be parallel)
- HLLs have many constructs:
 - if-then-else, switch-case, etc.
 - while-do, repeat-until, for, etc.
 - goto, break, continue
- Most assembly languages just have goto and conditional goto... so that's what we must use to implement everything



Compilation / Translation

- Compiler "understands" program and translates it into a language the machine can execute...?
- Compilation is really based on "compiling" a bunch of code chunks that represent each part of your program into the translated constructs
- Compiler optimization isn't really "optimal" apply correctness-preserving transformations
- Parallelizing is reordering operations; optimizing by making various things happen in parallel



Translation Templates

- It's about pattern matching & substitution
 - Patterns contain terminals
 - Also contain nested patterns (nonterminals)
- General form:

```
nonterminal: {list of terminals & nonterminals} ------{output pattern}
```



if (expr) stat;

- expr and stat are names of other patterns
- Jump over stat if expr is false, create label

```
{code for expr}
Test
JumpF L
{code for stat}
```

L:



if (expr) stat1 else stat2;

- stat1 and stat2 are just stat
- Jump over stat2 if stat1was executed

```
{code for expr}
Test
JumpF L
{code for stat1}
Jump M
L: {code for stat2}
M:
```



if (expr) stat1 else stat2

There are two jumps for the then clause...
 why not reorder to make that the fast case?

```
{code for expr}
Test
JumpT L
{code for stat2}
Jump M
L: {code for stat1}
M:
```



while (expr) stat

Loop body executes 0 or more times

```
L: {code for expr}

Test

JumpF M

{code for stat}

Jump L

M:
```



do stat while (expr);

- Loop body executes 1 or more times
- Code is more efficient than for while loop

```
L: {code for stat}
{code for expr}
Test
JumpT L
```



while (expr) stat

Improve while by using do-like sequence enclosed in an if

```
{code for expr}
Test
JumpF M
L: {code for stat}
{code for expr}
Test
JumpT L
```

M:



while (expr) stat

Improve while by jumping into loop...
 nothing wrong with unstructured code here

```
Jump M
L: {code for stat}
M: {code for expr}
Test
JumpT L
```



for (expr1;expr2;expr3) stat

Really "syntactic sugar" for:

```
expr1; while (expr2) {stat; L:expr3;}
```

Only difference is continue goes to L



DO label var=expr1, expr2, expr3

- Fortran DO loops imply lots of stuff, e.g.:
 - Is loop counting up or down?
 - If var is a real, Fortran requires converting the index into an integer to avoid roundoff
- Implying more information is just more syntactic sugar – use a simpler source language pattern to encode a more complex, but common, target code sequence



switch (expr) stat

- Not equivalent to a sequence of if statements; this is C's version of a "computed goto"
- The case labels inside stat are merely labels, and so is default, which is why there's break
- Depending on case values, compilers code as:
 - Linear sequence of if-gotos
 - Binary search of if-gotos
 - Index a table of goto targets
 - Combinations of the above...



Assignments & Expressions

- This is where the computation happens
- Assignment notation was a major advance;
 Cobol's add c to b giving a is a=b+c
- Expressions (expr) compute a value
- Assignments associate a value with a name:

```
name=expr
```



name=expr?

- Not really math; it binds a value to a name
- Names (Ival) are places that can hold values; registers or main memory addresses
- Expressions (rval, value) are computed results
- Consider some examples:
 - **a=5** associates value 5 with name a
 - 5=a 5 is not a name
 - **a=b** associates a copy of b's value with a



a=5

Let's generate simple stack code for this...

```
Push a push &a on stack
Push 5 push the value 5
Store *(&a)=5, remove &a from stack
```

- but where's the ; at the end?
 - C has an assignment operator
 - simply means discard the value produced



Push a push &a on stack
Push 5 push the value 5
Store *(&a)=5, remove &a from stack
Pop discard remaining copy of 5

$$b=(a=5);$$

b gets a copy of a's value

```
Push b push &b on stack
Push a push &a on stack
Push 5 push the value 5
Store *(&a)=5, remove &a from stack
Store *(&b)=5, remove &b from stack
discard remaining copy of 5
```



b+c

- What does b+c mean what's added?
 It adds rvals to produce an rval result.
- What does b.c mean?
 It adds lvals to produce an lval result:
 &b + offset_of_field_c
- What does b[c] mean?
 It adds lval+rval to produce an lval result: &(b[0]) + (c * sizeof(b[c]))
- If you know which are Ivals and rvals, it's easy...



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

Push a push &a on stack

Push b push &b on stack

Ind replace &b with *(&b)

Push c push &c on stack

Ind replace &c with *(&c)

replace b, c with b+c

Store a=b+c, remove &a from stack

Pop discard remaining copy of b+c

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

Push a push &a on stack

Push b push &b on stack

Ind replace &b with *(&b)

Push c push &c on stack

replace &c with *(&c)

replace b, c with b+c

Store a=b+c, remove &a from stack

Pop discard remaining copy of b+c

if (b+c) stat;

```
push &b on stack
Push
           replace &b with *(&b)
Ind
           push &c on stack
Push
           replace &c with *(&c)
Ind
           replace b, c with b+c
Add
           tests and pops
Test
JumpF L
{code for stat}
```

L:



if (b<c) stat;

```
push &b on stack
Push
           replace &b with *(&b)
Ind
           push &c on stack
Push c
           replace &c with *(&c)
Ind
           replace b, c with b<c
Lt
           tests and pops
Test
JumpF L
{code for stat}
```

L:



```
a = (b + (5*c));
```

Push a push &a on stack

Push b push &b on stack

replace &b with *(&b)

Push 5 push 5 on stack

Push c push &c on stack

Ind replace &c with *(&c)

Mul replace 5, c with 5*c

replace b, 5*c with b+5*c

Store a=b+5*c, remove &a from stack

Pop discard copy of b+5*c

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Push a push &a on stack

Push b push &b on stack

Push c push &c on stack

replace &c with *(&c)

Push 4 push sizeof(b[c]) on stack

Mul replace c, 4 with c*4

replace &b, c*4 with &b+c*4

replace &(b[c]) with b[c]

Store a=b[c], remove &a from stack

Pop discard copy of b[c]

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Different Models

- Stack code easy to generate, as you saw…
- General Register code
 - three operand (MIPS): reg1 = reg2 op reg3
 - two operand (IA32): reg1 = reg1 op reg3
 - single accumulator: acc = acc op mem
- Load/Store vs. memory operands; can you do things like: reg1 = reg1 op mem
- HLL-oriented Memory-to-Memory (IAPX432): E.g., a[i] = b[j] * c[k] in one instruction



Push a stack: &a

Push b stack: &a, &b

Push c stack: &a, &b, &c

Ind stack: &a, &b, c

Push 4 stack: &a, &b, c, 4

Mul stack: &a, &b, c*4

Add stack: &a, &(b[c])

Ind stack: &a, b[c]

Store stack: b[c]

Pop stack:

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```
Push a r0=&a
```

Push c
$$r0=&a, r1=&b, r2=&c$$

Mul
$$r0=&a, r1=&b, r2=c*4$$

Add
$$r0=&a, r1=&(b[c])$$

Ind
$$r0=&a, r1=b[c]$$

Store
$$r0=b[c]$$

Pop



r0=&a Li r0,a Push a **Push b** r1=&b Li r1,b Push c r2=&cLi r2,c r2=c Lw r2,0r2Ind r3=4 Li r3,4 Push 4 r2=c*4 Mul Mul r2, r2, r3 r1=&(b[c]) Add r1,r1,r2Add r1=b[c] Lw r1,0r1Ind r0=b[c] Sw r1,@r0Store

Pop



Two Vs. Three Operands

- Uses fewer instruction bits...
 MIPS three of 32 registers takes 3*5=15 bits;
 IA32 two of 8 registers takes 2*3=6 bits
- From stack code, it doesn't cost anything
- With a smart compiler avoiding recomputation (e.g., via common subexpression elimination), might need to fake three operands:

```
Op r1,r2,r3 becomes Mov r1,r2
Op r1,r3
```



Two Vs. Three Operands

```
Li r0,a
                   Li r0,a
Li r1,b
                   Li r1,b
Li r2,c
                   Li r2,c
                   Lw r2,@r2
Lw r2,@r2
Li r3,4
                   Li r3,4
Mul r2, r2, r3
                   Mul r2, r3
Add r1, r1, r2
               Add r1,r2
Lw r1,@r1
               Lw r1,@r1
Sw r1,@r0
                   Sw r1,@r0
```



Load/Store Vs. Mem Operands

- Easier to build pipelined implementation if load/store are the only memory accesses (as in RISC architectures like MIPS)
- Memory used to be faster and processor couldn't fit lots of registers...
 - Memory operands mean fewer instructions
 - Pairs well with two operand forms (IA32)
 - Single acc must allow memory operands (where else to get second operand?)



Load/Store Vs. Mem Operands

Load/Store

2 Operand

Single Acc

Li r0,a

Li r1,b

Lw ro, @b

Lw @b

Lw r1,@r1

Li r2,c

Lw r2, @r2

Add r1, r1, r2

Sw r1,@r0

Add ro, @c

Sw r0, @a

Add @c

Sw @a



How Many Registers Needed?

```
1 register
Li r0,a
                  2 registers
Li r1,b
                  3 registers
Li r2,c
                 3 registers
Lw r2, @r2
                  4 registers
Li r3,4
                  4 registers
Mul r2, r2, r3
Add r1,r1,r2 3 registers
                  2 registers
Lw r1,@r1
Sw r1,@r0
                  2 registers
```



Spill/Reload Fakes More

```
Li r0,a
                Li r0,a
Li r1,b
                Li r1,b
                Li r2,c
Li r2,c
Lw r2,@r2
          Lw r2,@r2
               {Spill to=ro }
Li r3,4
                Li r0,4
Mul r2, r2, r3
                Mul r2, r2, r0
Add r1, r1, r2 Add r1, r1, r2
Lw r1,@r1
          Lw r1,@r1
              { Reload ro=to }
Sw r1,@r0
                Sw r1,@r0
```



HLL Memory-to-Memory

- Advantages:
 - Easier to write complex assembly code (but we use compilers for that now and this actually makes the compiler harder to write)
 - Can enforce strict typing, software reliability (but complicates hardware a lot)
 - Allows glueless parallel processing by keeping all program state in memory (but memory access is s-l-o-w)
- IAPX432 did this... nothing since then



Parallel Machines

- There are two flavors of large-scale parallelism:
 - MIMD: different program on each PE (multi-core processors, clusters, etc.)
 - SIMD: same instruction on PE's local data
 (GPUs graphics processing units)
- Each MIMD PE runs a sequential program...
 nothing special in code generation
- SIMD machines are different:
 - If one PE executes some code, all must
 - Can disable a PE that doesn't want to do it



SIMD Code

- There are two flavors of data
 - Singular, Scalar: one value all PEs agree on
 - Plural, Parallel: local to each PE
- Assignments and expressions work normally, except when mixing singular and plural:
 - Singular values can be copied to plurals
 - Plural values have to be "reduced" to a single value to treat as singular; for example, using operators like any or all
- Control flow is complicated by enable masking...



if (expr) stat;

• Jump over **stat** if **expr** is false for all PEs; otherwise, do for all the PEs where it's true

```
PushEn
{code for expr}
Test
DisableF
Any
JumpF L
{code for stat}
PopEn
```

save PE enable state

test on each PE...
turn myself off if false
any PE still enabled?
stat if any PE wants it

restore enable state



$$if (c < 5) a = b;$$

- Masking idea can be used in sequential code to avoid using control flow: if conversion
- The above can be rewritten as:

```
a = ((c < 5) ? b : a);
```

• Bitwise AND with -1 can be used to enable, while AND with 0 disables, thus simply OR:

```
t = -(c < 5);
a = ((t & b) | ((~t) & a));
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```

while (expr) stat;

 Keep doing stat while expr is true for any PE; once off, PE stays off until while ends

```
save PE enable state
      PushEn
      {code for expr}
M:
                                  test on each PE...
      Test
                                  turn myself off if false
      DisableF
                                  any PE still enabled?
      Any
                                  exit loop if no PE enabled
      JumpF L
      {code for stat}
      Jump M
                                  restore enable state
      PopEn
```



Functions & Subroutines

- Mixes expressions and control flow...
- Complex!
 - Support of recursion
 - Lots of stuff that has to happen
 - Each ISA does it a little differently... but specifies it (e.g., as part of the ABI)
- We'll focus on generically what must happen



Simple Subroutine Call/Return

Jump, but first save return address on stack

```
Push L
sub();
                         Jump sub
                   L:
                   sub:
sub() {
                         Ret ;PC=pop
  return;
```

Simple Subroutine Call/Return

- Jump, but first save return address on stack
- Very common, and L is actually PC value when executing, so often a special instruction:

Push L
Jump sub

Call sub

L: ...



Stack Frame

- The return address isn't all we must pass...
- Everything for a particular call is a stack frame:
 - Return address
 - Return value (for a function)
 - Argument values
 - Local variables
 - Temporaries
 - Optionally, a frame pointer (FP)
- Call/return and stack use is specified in ABI



Function Call

- Reserve space for return value first...
- Then push args & remove them on return

```
a = f(5);
Push a
Push 0 ;ret value
Push 5 ;push arg
Call f
Pop ;pop arg
Store
Pop
```



Function Call

```
f(int b) {
                    f: Push 16
  return(b+1);
                        ASP
                        Push 16
                        ASP
                        Ind
                        Push 1
                        Add
                        Store
                        Pop
                        Ret
```

Function Call

```
f: Push 16; stack offset of ret value, Push 0
              ;add stack pointer
    ASP
    Push 16; stack offset of b
    ASP
              ;get rval of b
    Ind
    Push 1; add 1
    Add
              ;store into ret value
    Store
              remove extra copy
    Pop
    Ret
```

Frame Pointer

- Where did the stack offsets come from?
- Subsequent pushing onto stack changes offset!

```
f: Push 16; stack offset of ret value, Push 0
...
Push 16; stack offset of b
```

• Frame pointer (FP) points at a fixed point in the stack (saved FP), forming a linked list of frames



Function Call Using FP

- Mark pushes old FP, makes new FP point at it
- Release restores old FP, removes frame

```
a = f(5);
                         Push a
                         Push 0 ; ret value
                         Push 5 ; push arg
                         Mark
                         Call f
                         Release
                         Pop ;pop arg
                         Store
```



Function Call Using FP

```
f: Push 4 ; always f
f(int b) {
  return(b+1);
                         AFP
                         Push -4; always b
                         AFP
                         Ind
                         Push 1
                         Add
                         Store
                         Pop
                          Ret
```

What Is Passed For Args?

- Call by value: copy of rval
 - used by most languages (C, Java, etc.)
 - considered safest way to pass values
- Call by address or reference: copy of Ival
 - used by: ForTran, C* reference, Pascal var
 - efficiently avoids copying big data structures
- Call by name or thunk: pointer to function to compute Ival as it would have thunk to earlier
 - used by: Algol, some Lisp variants
 - interesting, but strange and dangerous



Enough Generalization: MIPS!

- We'll be using MIPS throughout this course
- A simple, 32-bit, RISC architecture:
 - 32 general registers, 3-register operands
 - Strict load/store for memory access
 - Every instruction is one 32-bit word
 - Memory is byte addressed (4 bytes/word)
 - Closely matched to the C langauge
- Reference materials:
 - Online at aggregate.org/EE380
 - The textbook, MIPS cc -s, etc.



MIPS Registers (\$ names)

\$zero	0	constant 0
\$at	1	reserved for assembler
\$v0-\$v1	2-3	value results
\$a0-\$a3	4-7	arguments (not on stack)
\$t0-\$t9	8-15,24-25	temporaries
\$s0-\$s7	16-23	save before use
\$k0-\$k1	26-27	reserved for OS kernel
\$gp	28	global (constant pool) pointer
\$sp	29	stack pointer
\$fp	30	frame pointer
\$ra	31	return address (not on stack)



MIPS ALU Instructions

• Either 3 reg operands or 2 regs and immediate 16-bit value (sign extended to 32 bits):

```
add $rd,$rs,$rt ;rd=rs+rt
addi $rt,$rs,immed ;rt=rs+immed
```

- Suffix of i means immediate (u for unsigned)
- The usual operations: add, sub, and, or, xor
- Also has set-less-than, slt: rd=(rs<rt)



MIPS Load Immediate

Can directly load a 16-bit immediate:

```
addi $rt,$0,immed ;rt=0+immed
```

 For 32-bit, generally use 2 instructions to load upper 16 bits then OR-in lower 16 bits:

MIPS assembler macro does it as li or la:



MIPS Load & Store

 Can access a memory location given by a register plus a 16-bit Immediate offset:

```
lw $rt,off($rs) ;rt=memory[rs+off]
sw $rt,off($rs) ;memory[rs+off]=rt
```

Byte and halfword using b and h instead of w



MIPS Jumps

MIPS has a jump instruction, j:

```
j address ;PC=address
```

- Call uses jump-and-link to copy \$ra=PC as jal address
- Return is jump register using jr \$ra
- BUT address for jumps has limited range (26 bits);
 can do full 32-bit target using jump register:

```
la $t0,address
jr $t0
; PC=t0
```



MIPS Branches

MIPS has only conditional branches:

```
beq $rs,$rt,place ;if rs==rt, PC=place bne $rs,$rt,place ;if rs!=rt, PC=place
```

- The target is encoded as a $\overline{16}$ -bit "immediate" field value: immediate = (place-(PC+4))>>2
- Can branch over a jump to target distant addresses
- Truth in C is "non-0," so compare to \$0 to check if false
- Comparisons for <, >, <=, >= all use slt:
 a>b is b<a, a<=b is (b<a)==0, and a>=b is (a<b)==0



MIPS Assembler Notation

- One assembly directive or instruction per line
- # means to end of line is a comment
- Labels look like they do in C, followed by a :
- Directives generally start with a .

```
.data  #the following is static data
.text  #the following is code
.globl name  #name is what C calls extern
.word value  #initialize a word to value
.ascii "abc"  #initialize bytes to 97,98,99
.asciiz "abc"  #initialize bytes to 97,98,99,0
```



Summary

- There are many different assembly languages, but there are many similarities
- ISA specifies instructions (ABI for conventions)
- MIPS is a very straightforward RISC made for C
- You don't need to write lots of assembly code
 - tweak code output by a compiler
 - write little wrappers for what compiler can't do

