

Version 1.02

# UCSD CSE 30

## Computer Organization and Systems Programming

### Review Session

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## Five Step Workflow in the Linux Environment, Single Source File

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>

/* A simple C Program */
int
main(void)
{
    printf("Hello World\n");
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

<stdio.h>  
<stdlib.h>

% gcc -Wall -Wextra -Werror prog.c

include files have function prototype and other declaration (later slides)  
contents of included .h files are **inserted/expanded** by cpp (c pre-processor phase of gcc) into files prior to compilation start at their position in the file

cpp

prog.c

gcc compile

prog.s

arm32 Assembly (.s)

gcc (gas) Assembler

prog.o

Object file (.o)  
arm32 machine code  
partial missing  
libraries

ld Linkage Editor

a.out

Links in already compiled standard c library  
Executable in machine code file

1. Create a linux process
2. Load into memory & Execute a.out

Linux Loader

libc

### Source to Execution Five Step Process

1. Compile
2. Assemble
3. Link
4. Load
5. Execute

# Background: What is a Definition in a program language?

- **Definition:** creates an instance of a *thing*
- There **must be exactly one** definition of each *function or variable* (no duplicates)
- In C you must **define** a *variable* or a *function* **before first use** in your code
- **Function definition (compiler actions)**
  1. **creates code** you wrote in the functions body
  2. **allocates** memory to store the code
  3. **binds** the function name to the allocated memory
- **Variable definitions (compiler actions)**
  1. **allocates memory:** generate code to **allocate space** for local variables
  2. **initialize memory:** generate code to **initialize the memory** for local variables
  3. **binds (or associates)** the variable name to the allocated memory

## Background What is a Declaration in programming language?

- **Declaration**: describes a *thing* – specifies types, does not create an instance
- **Function prototype** describes (more in a few slides ...)
  - The type of the function return value
  - The types of each of the parameters
- **Variable declaration** describes
  - The type of a variable that is defined elsewhere
- **Derived and defined type description**
  - Later slides:(enums, struct, arrays, unions)
- In C, you must **declare a function or variable before you use it**
  - Use before declaration will implicitly default to int (and a compiler warning/error – not good)
- An **identifier** can be **declared multiple times**, but **only defined once**
- **A definition is also a declaration in C**

## C Library Function API : Simple Character I/O – Used in PA3

Operation	Usage Examples
Write a char	<pre>int status; int c; status = putchar(c);</pre> <i>/* Writes to screen stdout */</i>
Read a char	<pre>int c; c = getchar();</pre> <i>/* Reads from keyboard stdin */</i>

```
#include <stdio.h> // import the API declarations
```

```
int putchar(int c);
```

- writes c (demoted to a char) to **stdout**
- **returns** either: **c** on success **OR EOF** (a macro often defined as -1) on failure
- see % man 3 putchar

```
int getchar(void);
```

- **returns** the next input character (if present) **promoted to an int** read from **stdin**
- see % man 3 getchar
- Make sure you use **int variables** with **putchar()** and **getchar()**
- Both functions **return an int** because they must be able to **return both valid chars and** indicate the **EOF condition (-1)** is outside the range of valid characters

Why is character I/O using an int?

Answer: Needs to indicate an EOF (-1) condition that is not a valid char

## Hex to Binary (group 4 bits per digit from the right)

- Each Hex digit is 4 bits in base 2  $16^1 = 2^4$

0x f                      a                      5                      3

1111    1010    0101    0011

0b1111101001010011

binary start with a 0b in C

# Unsigned Decimal to Unsigned Binary Conversion

	dividend 249	Quotient	Remainder	Bit Position
➡	249/2	124	➡ 1	b0
➡	124/2	62	➡ 0	b1
➡	62/2	31	➡ 0	b2
➡	31/2	15	➡ 1	b3
➡	15/2	7	➡ 1	b4
➡	7/2	3	➡ 1	b5
➡	3/2	1	➡ 1	b6
➡	1/2	0	➡ 1	b7

$$249(\text{base } 10) = b_7 b_6 b_5 b_4 b_3 b_2 b_1 b_0 = 0b1111001$$

$$11111001 = (1 \times 128) + (1 \times 64) + (1 \times 32) + (1 \times 16) + (1 \times 8) + 1 = 249$$

# Unsigned Binary to Unsigned Decimal Conversion

What is  $0 \overset{b_7}{1} \overset{b_6}{1} \overset{b_5}{0} \overset{b_4}{0} \overset{b_3}{1} \overset{b_2}{0} \overset{b_1}{1} \overset{b_0}{1}_{(\text{base } 2)}$  in decimal (N)?

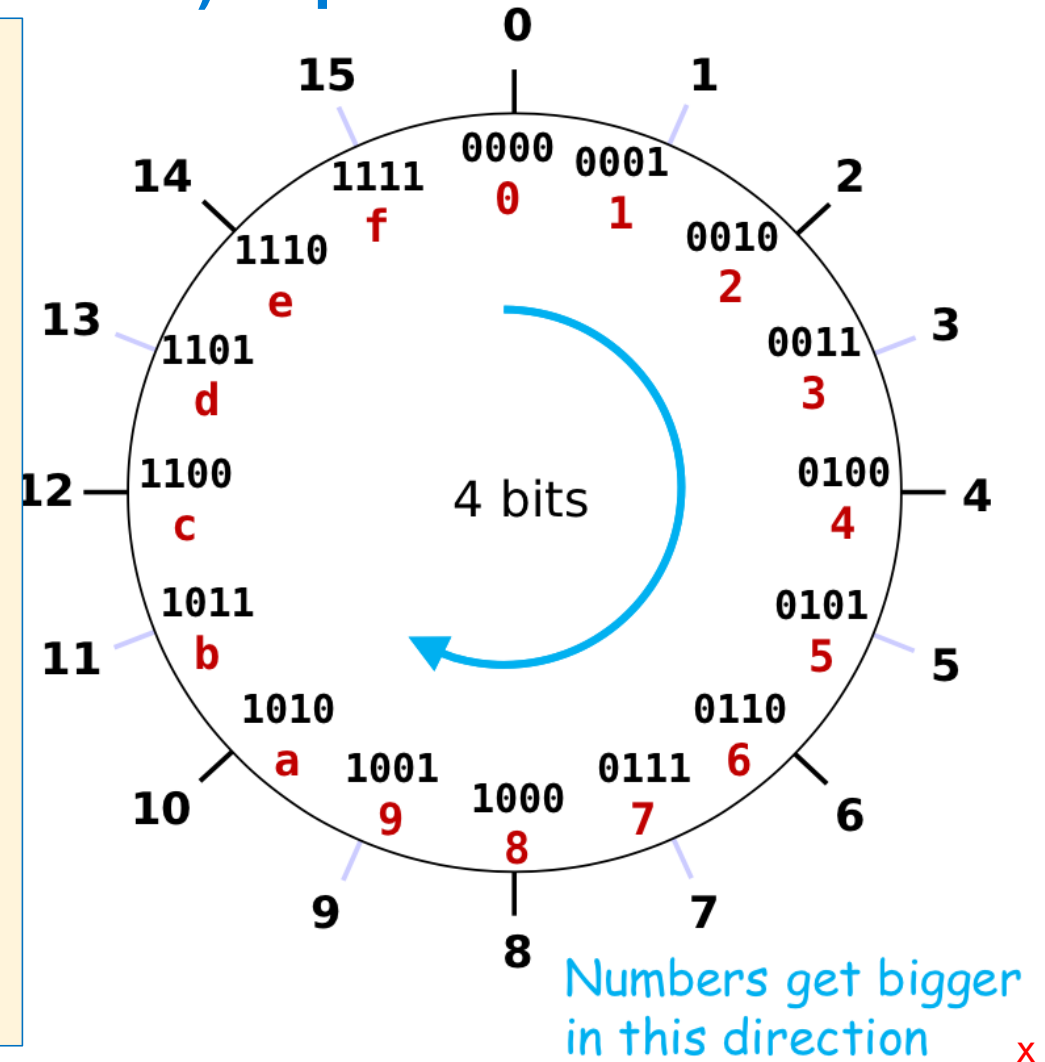
	Product Shift Left	Addend	Bit Position	Product
→	0	+ 0	b7	0
→	0	+ 1	b6	1
→	2 x 1 = 2	+ 1	b5	3
→	2 x 3 = 6	+ 0	b4	6
→	2 x 6 = 12	+ 0	b3	12
→	2 x 12 = 24	+ 1	b2	25
→	2 x 25 = 50	+ 0	b1	50
→	2 x 50 = 100	+ 1	b0	101

$101_{(\text{base } 10)} = (1 \times 64) + (1 \times 32) + (1 \times 4) + 1$  (checking the conversion)

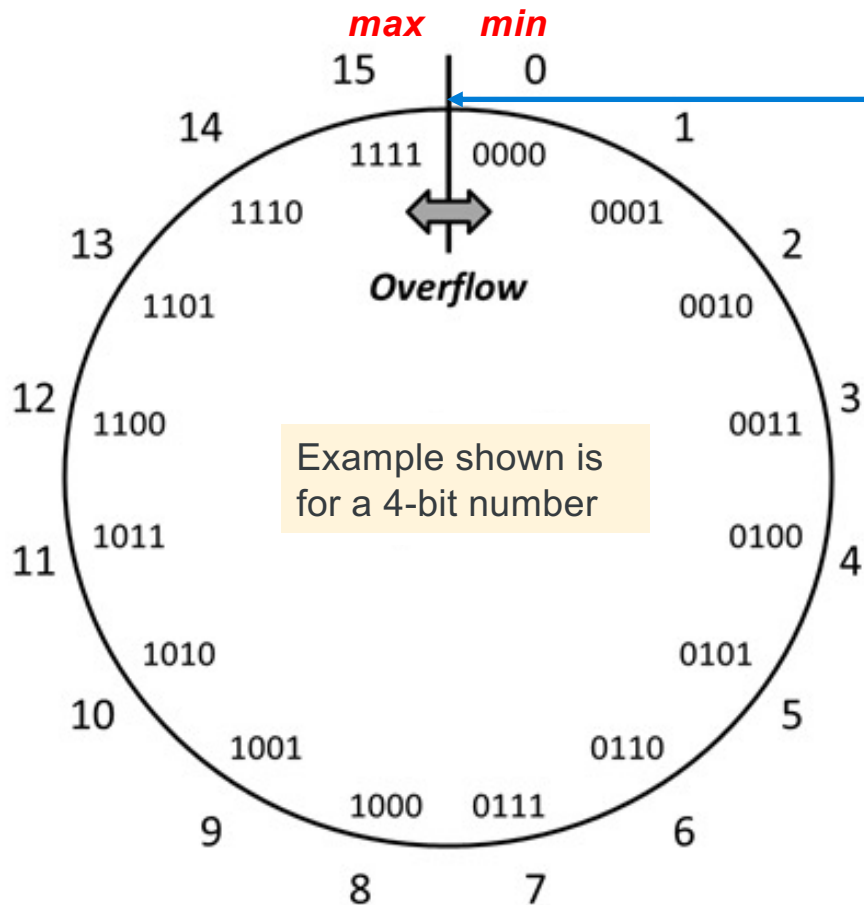


# Unsigned Integers (positive numbers) Impact of Fixed # of Bits

- 4 bits is  $2^4 = \text{ONLY } 16$  distinct values
- **Modular** (C operator: `%`) or **clock math**
  - Numbers start at 0 and “wrap around” after 15 and go back to 0
- Keep **adding** 1
  - wraps (**clockwise**)
  - 0000  $\rightarrow$  0001 ...  $\rightarrow$  1111  $\rightarrow$  0000
- Keep **subtracting** 1
  - wraps (**counter-clockwise**)
  - 1111  $\rightarrow$  1110 ...  $\rightarrow$  0000  $\rightarrow$  1111
- Addition and subtraction use **normal** “**carry**” and “**borrow**” rules, just operate in binary



# Overflow: Going Past the Boundary Between max and min



**Overflow:** Occurs when an arithmetic result (from addition or subtraction for example) is **is more than min** or **max** limits

## C (and Java) ignore overflow exceptions

- You end up with a bad value in your program and absolutely no warning or indication... **happy debugging!....**

## Unsigned Integer Number Overflow: Addition in 8 bits

Carry Bit

carries

only 8 bits for numbers in this example carry bit is always dropped from result

+

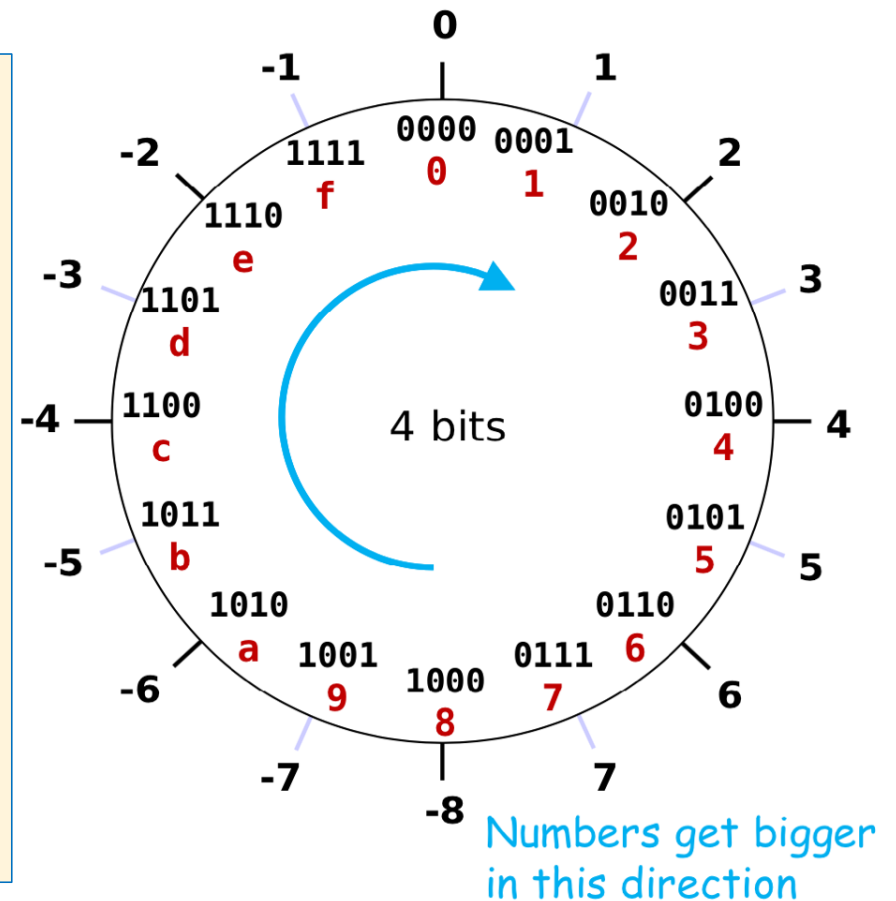
sum

1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	
<hr/>								
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
								161
								95
								<hr/>
								256

Rule: When Carry Bit  $\neq 0$ , overflow has occurred for unsigned integers!

## 2's Complement Signed Integer Method

- Positive numbers encoded same as unsigned numbers
- All **negative values** have a **one in the leftmost bit**
- All **positive values** have a **zero in the leftmost bit**
  - This implies that 0 is a positive value
- **Only one zero**
- **For n bits, Number range is  $-(2^{n-1})$  to  $+(2^{n-1} - 1)$** 
  - Negative values “go 1 further” than the positive values
- Example: the range for 8 bits:  
**-128, -127, .. 0, .. 126, +127**
- Example the range for 32 bits:  
**-2147483648 .. 0, .. +2147483647**
- *Arithmetic is the same as with unsigned binary!*



## Two's Complement: The MSB Has a *Negative Weight*

$$2's\ Comp = -b_{n-1}2^{n-1} + b_{n-2}2^{n-2} + \dots + b_12^1 + b_02^0$$

$b_{n-1}$  weight is  $(-2^{n-1})$ , all other bits: have positive weights  $(+2^i)$



- 4-bit ( $w = 4$ ) weight =  $-2^{4-1} = -2^3 = -8$ 
  - $1010_2$  **unsigned**:  
 $1 \times 2^3 + 0 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 0 \times 2^0 = 10$
  - $1010_2$  **two's complement**:  
 $-1 \times 2^3 + 0 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 0 \times 2^0 = -8 + 2 = -6$
  - -8 in **two's complement**:  
 $1000_2 = -2^3 + 0 = -8$
  - -1 in **two's complement**:  
 $1111_2 = -2^3 + (2^3 - 1) = -8 + 7 = -1$



# Summary: Min, Max Values: Unsigned and Two's Complement

Two's Complement → Unsigned for  $n$  bits

- **Unsigned Value Range**

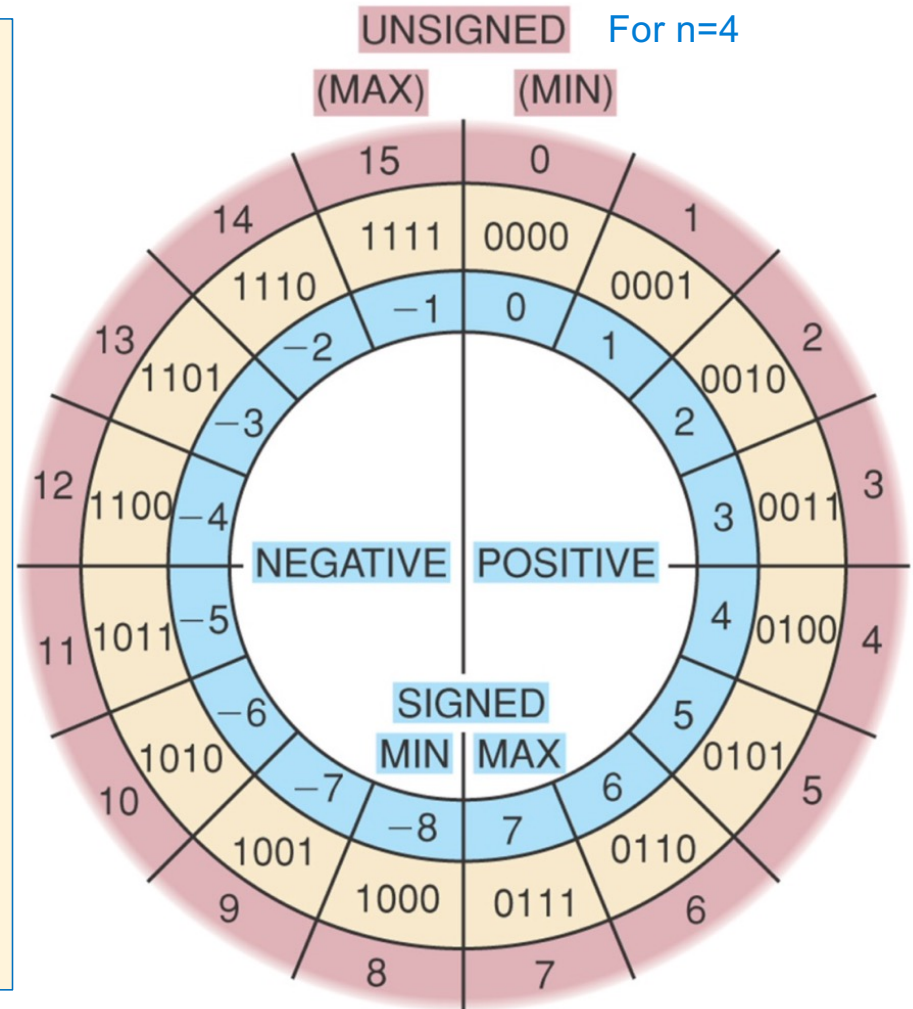
$$\begin{aligned} \text{UMin} &= 0b00\dots00 \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{UMax} &= 0b11\dots11 \\ &= 2^n - 1 \end{aligned}$$

- **Two's Complement Range**

$$\begin{aligned} \text{SMin} &= 0b10\dots00 \\ &= -2^{n-1} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{SMax} &= 0b01\dots11 \\ &= 2^{n-1} - 1 \end{aligned}$$



## Signed Decimal to Two's Complement Conversion

	dividend <b>-102</b>	Quotient	Remainder	Bit Position
➡	102/2	51	➡ 0	b0
➡	51/2	25	➡ 1	b1
➡	25/2	12	➡ 1	b2
➡	12/2	6	➡ 0	b3
➡	6/2	3	➡ 0	b4
➡	3/2	1	➡ 1	b5
➡	1/2	0	➡ 1	b6
➡	0/2	0	➡ 0	b7

102(base 10) =  $b_7 b_6 b_5 b_4 b_3 b_2 b_1 b_0$  = 0b0110 0110

Get the two complement of 01100110 is 10011010



# Two's Complement to Signed Decimal Conversion - Positive

What is  $b_7 \ b_6 \ b_5 \ b_4 \ b_3 \ b_2 \ b_1 \ b_0$   
 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 1<sub>(base 2)</sub> in decimal (N)?

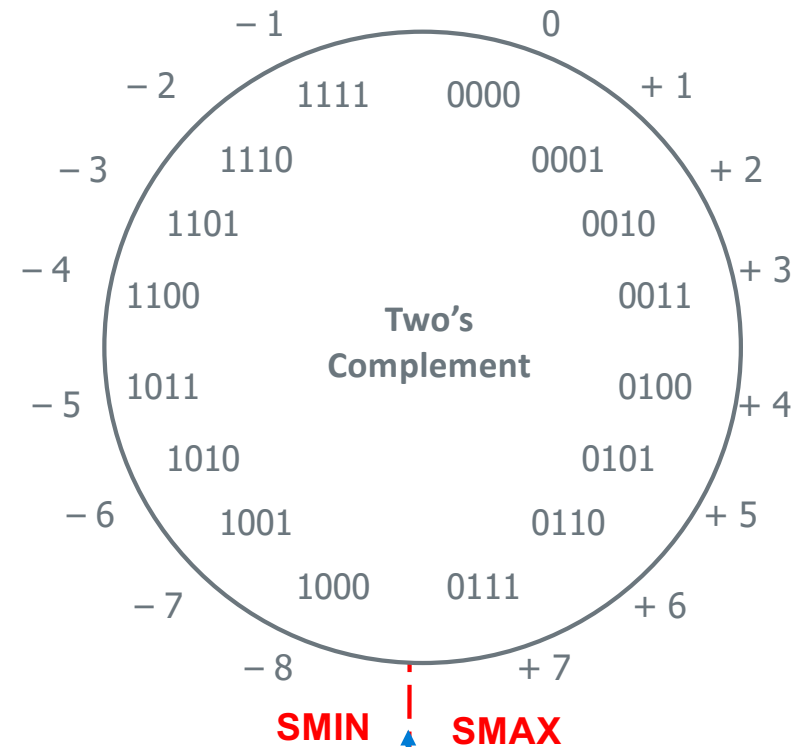
Signed Bit Bias	Bit	Bit Position	Bias
$-2^{W-1} = -2^{8-1} = -128$	x 0	b7	0 ←
Product Shift Left	Addend	Bit Position	Product
0	+ 1	b6	1
2 x 1 = 2	+ 1	b5	3
2 x 3 = 6	+ 0	b4	6
2 x 6 = 12	+ 0	b3	12
2 x 12 = 24	+ 1	b2	25
2 x 25 = 50	+ 0	b1	50
2 x 50 = 100	+ 1	b0	SUM = 101
		Bias + SUM:	0 + 101 = 101

# Two's Complement Positive Overflow

- **4-bit** Two's complement numbers (positive overflow)

Cout	0	1	0	0	
	0	1	0	1	5
+	0	1	1	0	6
<hr/>					
	1	0	1	1	-5
					!= 11

**signed numbers: overflow occurs if**  
**operands have same sign and result's sign is different**



**Overflow:** Occurs when an arithmetic result is beyond the min or max limits

# Sign Extension (how type promotion works)

- Sometimes you need to work with integers encoded with different number of bits

8 bits (char) → (16 bits) short → (32 bits) int

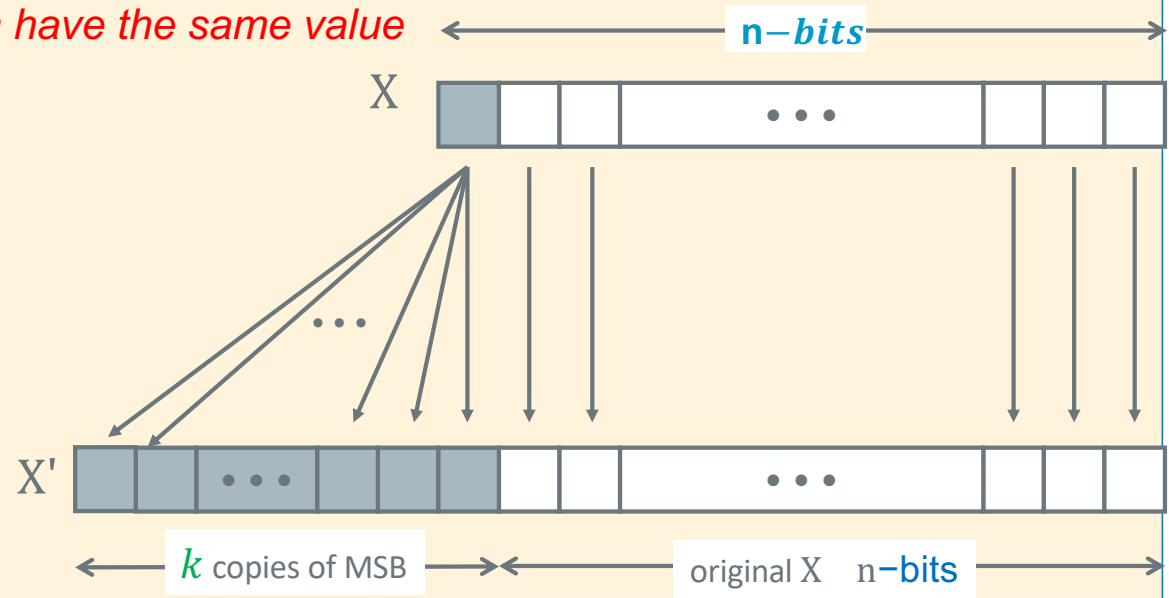
- Sign extension increases the number of bits:**  $n$ -bit wide signed integer  $X$ , **EXPANDS** to a **wider**  $n$ -bit +  $k$ -bit signed integer  $X'$  where **both have the same value**

## Unsigned

- Just add leading zeroes to the left side

## Two's Complement Signed:

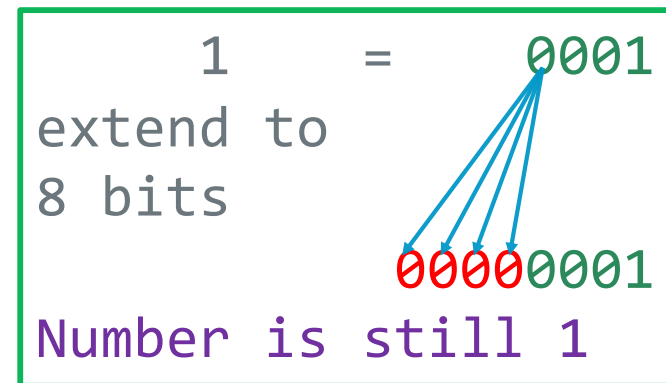
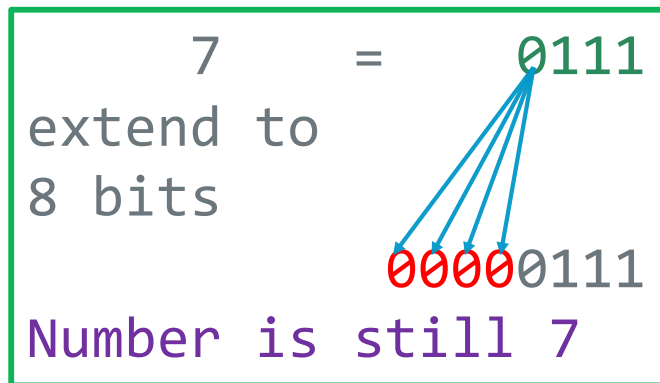
- If **positive**, add leading **zeroes on the left**
  - Observe: Positive stay positive
- If **negative**, add **leading ones on the left**
  - Observe: Negative stays negative





## Example: Two's Complement Sign or bit Extension - 1

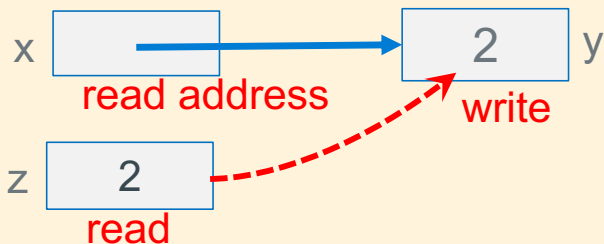
- Adding 0's in front of a positive numbers does not change its value



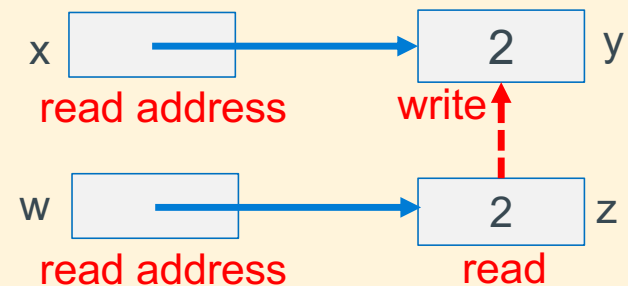
## Each use of a \* operator results in one additional read -2

- Each \* when used as a dereference operator in a **statement** (Lside and Rside) generates an additional read

```
int z = 2, y = 1;  
int *x;  
x = &y;  
*x = z;
```



```
int z = 2, y = 1;  
int *x;  
int *w;  
x = &y;  
w = &z;  
*x = *w;
```



## Recap: Lside, Rside, Lvalue, Rvalue

```
int x = 2, y = 1;
x = y;
```

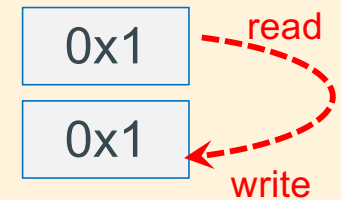
```
int z = 2, y = 1;
int *x;
int *w;
x = &y;
w = &z;
*x = *w;
```

```
*x on Lside is 0x108
w on Rside is 0x100
*w on Rside is 2
```

Constant  
Var Name  
y  
x

Lvalue  
address  
0x108  
0x104

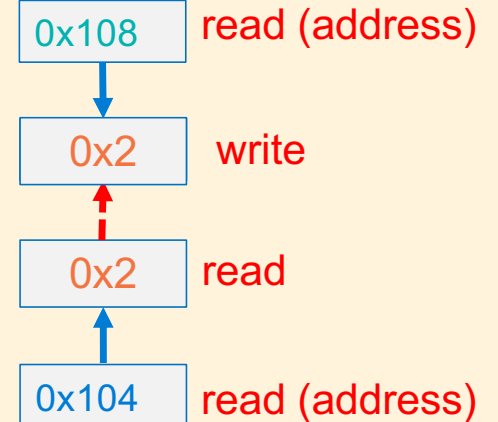
Rvalue  
Contents



Constant  
Var Name  
x  
y  
z  
w

Lvalue  
address  
0x10c  
0x108  
0x104  
0x100

Rvalue  
Contents



## Background: Different Ways to Pass Parameters

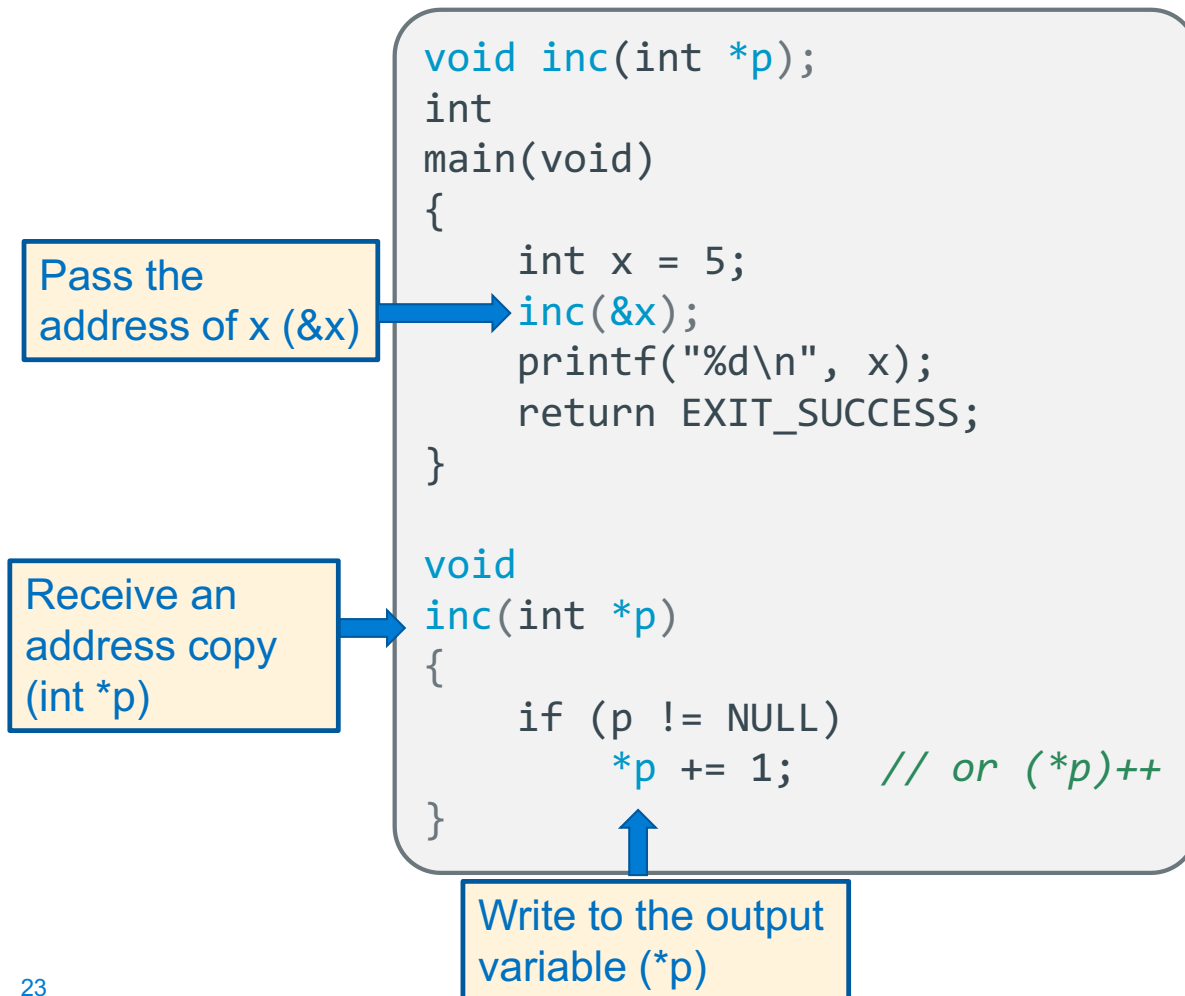
- **Call-by-reference (or pass by reference)**

- Parameter in the called function is an **alias** (references the same memory location) for the supplied argument
- Modifying the parameter modifies the calling argument

### Call-by-value (or pass by value) (C)

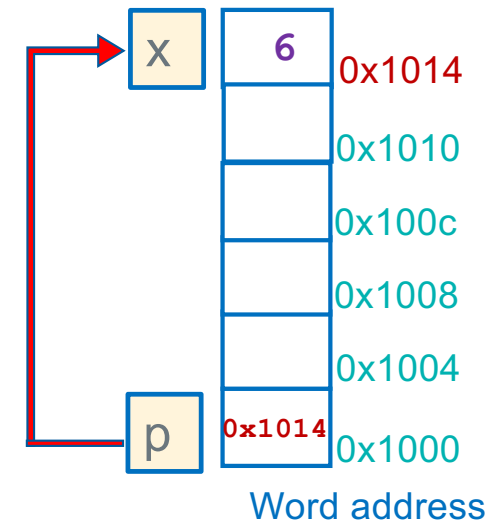
- What **Called** Function Does
  - Passed Parameters are used like local variables
  - Modifying the passed parameter in the function is allowed just like a local variable
  - So, writing to the parameter, **only** changes the **copy**
- The return value from a function in C is **by value**

# Example Using Output Parameters



## At the Call to inc() in main()

1. Allocate space for p
2. Copy x's address into p



## With a pointer to X,

inc() can change x in main()

this is called a side effect

p just like any other local variable



# Arrays As Parameters: What is the size of the array?

- It's tricky to use arrays as parameters, as they are passed as pointers to the start of the array
  - In C, Arrays do not know their own size and at runtime there is no “bounds” checking on indexes

```
int sumAll(int a[]);  
  
int main(void)  
{  
    int numb[] = {9, 8, 1, 9, 5};  
    int sum = sumAll(numb);  
  
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;  
}  
  
int sumAll(int a[])  
{  
    int i, sum = 0;  
    int sz = (int) (sizeof(a)/sizeof(*a));  
    for (i = 0; i < sz; i++) // this does not work  
        sum += a[i];  
}
```

the name is the address, so this is passing a pointer to the start of the array

“inside” the body of sumAll(), the question is: how big is that array? all I have is a POINTER to the first element.....  
sz is a 1 on 32 bit arm

## Arrays As Parameters, Approach 2: Use a sentinel element

- A **sentinel** is an element that contains a value that is not part of the normal data range
  - Forms of 0 are often used (like with strings). Examples: '\0', NULL

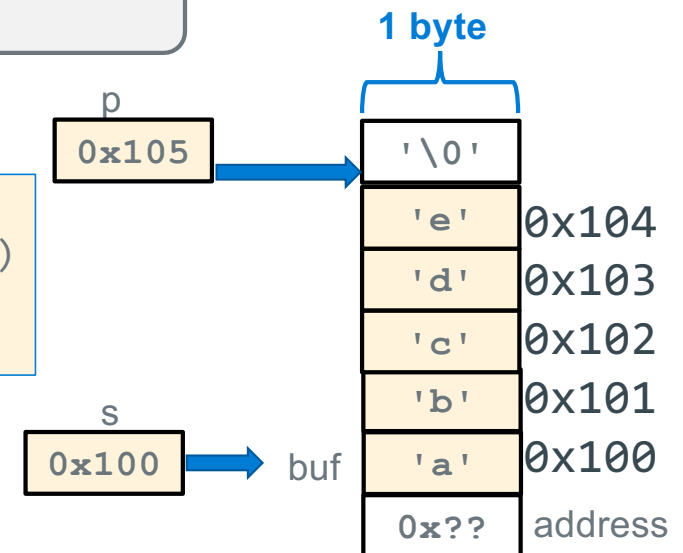
```
int strlen(char *a);
int main(void)
{
    char buf[] = {'a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e', '\0'}; // string

    printf("Number of chars is: %d\n", strlen(buf));
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

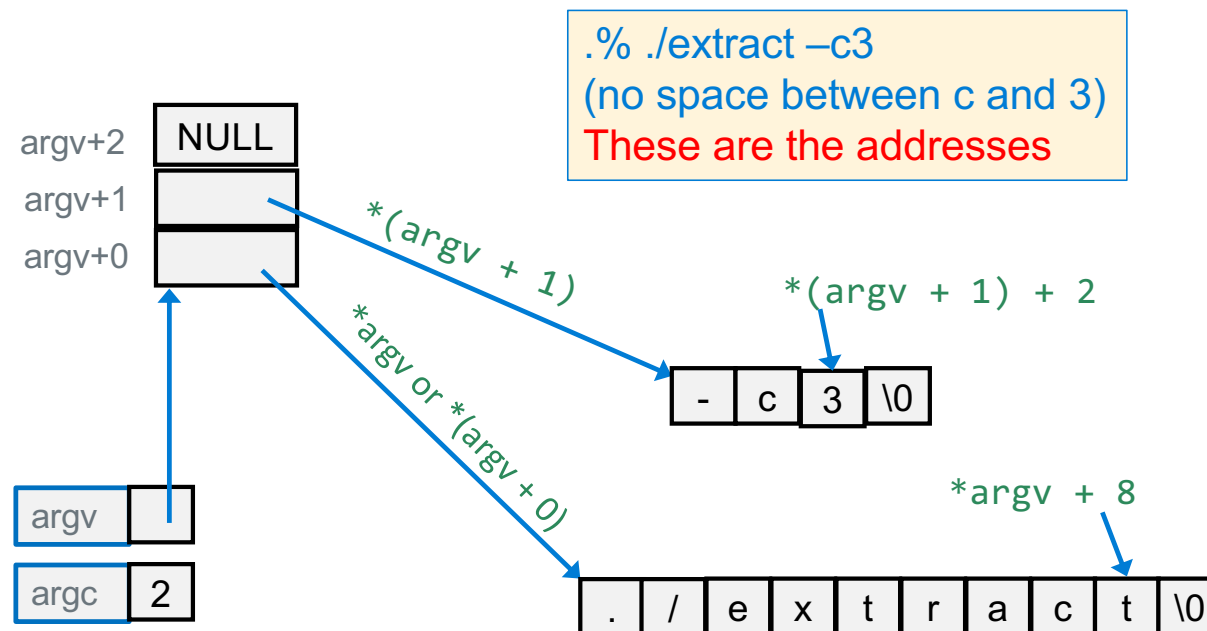
*/\* Assumes parameter is a terminated string \*/*

```
int strlen(char *s)
{
    char *p = s;
    if (p == NULL)
        return 0;
    while (*p++)
        ;
    return (p - s - 1);
}
```

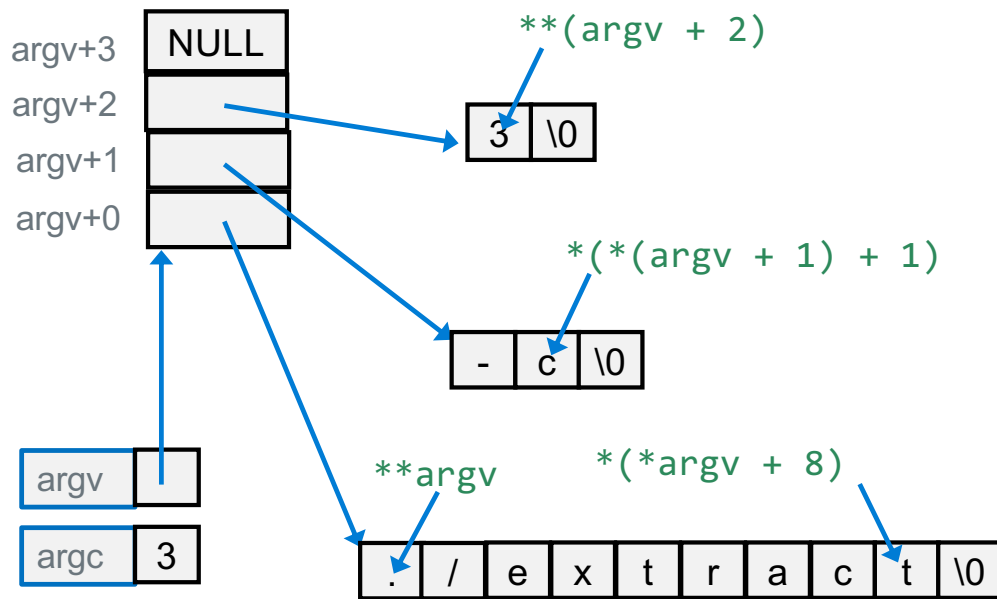
same as:  
while (\*p != '\0')  
 p = p + 1;  
return (p - s);



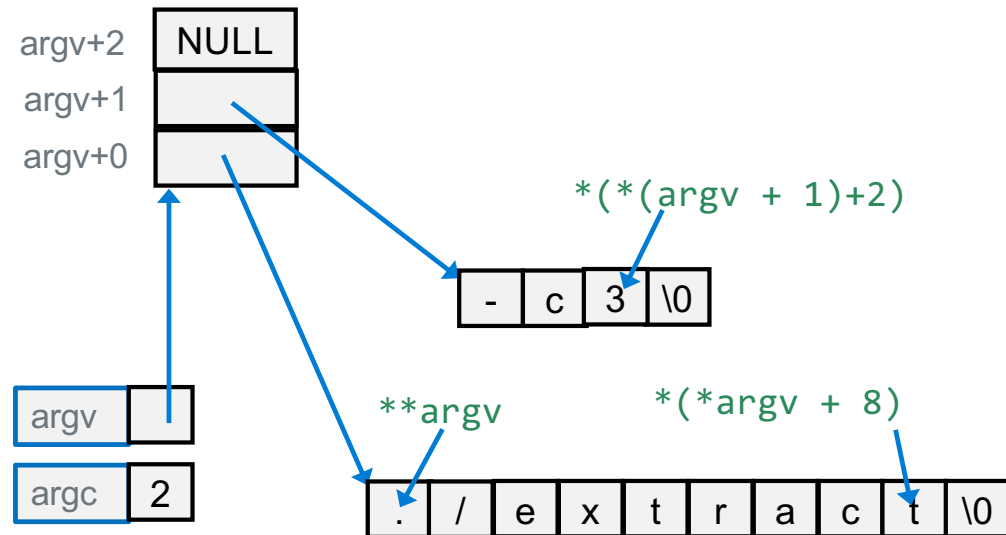
## Array of Pointers: main() : argc, argv Character Address



## main() Command line arguments: argc, argv



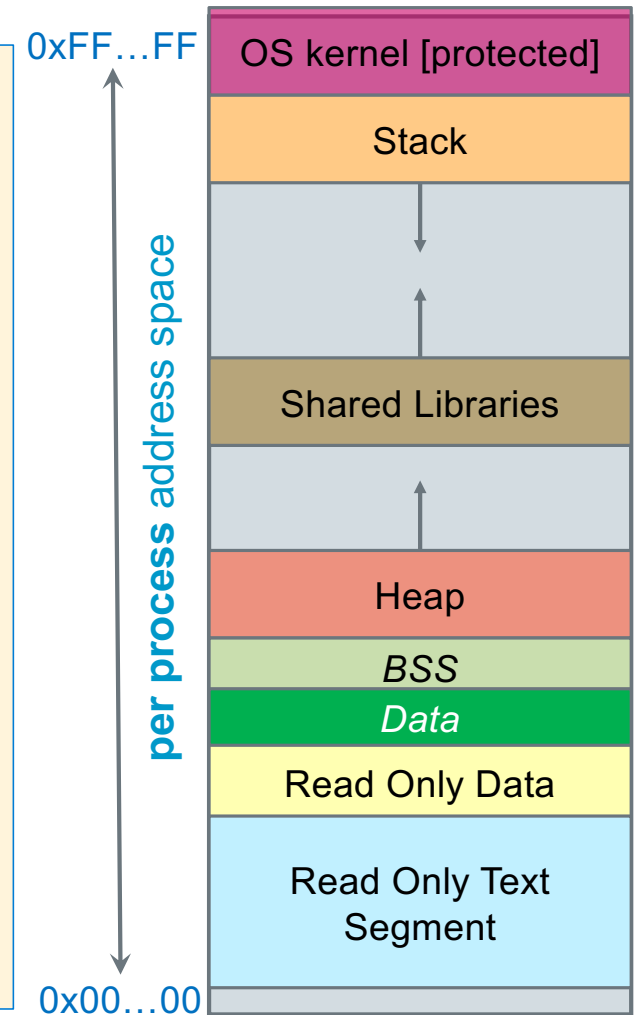
./% ./extract -c 3  
(space between c and 3)



./% ./extract -c3  
(No space between c and 3)

# Process Memory Under Linux

- When your **program is running** it has been **loaded into memory** and is **called a process**
- **Stack segment:** Stores **Local** variables
  - Allocated and freed at function call entry & exit
- **Data segment + BSS:** Stores **Global** and **static** variables
  - **Allocated/freed** when the process **starts/exits**
  - **BSS** - Static variables with an implicit initial value
  - **Static Data** - Initialized with an explicit initial value
- **Heap segment:** Stores **dynamically-allocated** variables
  - Allocated with a function call
  - Managed by the stdio library malloc() routines
- **Read Only Data:** Stores **immutable** Literals
- **Text:** Stores your code in machine language + libraries





# Returning a Pointer To a Local Variable (Dangling Pointer)

- There are many situations where a function will return a pointer, but a function must never return a pointer to a memory location that is **no longer valid** such as:
  - Address of a **passed parameter copy** as the caller may or will deallocate it after the call
  - Address of a **local variable (automatic)** that is invalid on function return
- These errors are called a **dangling pointer**

n is a parameter with the scope of bad\_idea it is no longer valid after the function returns

```
int *bad_idea(int n)
{
    return &n; // NEVER do this
}
```

a is an automatic (local) with a scope and **lifetime** within bad\_idea2 a is no longer a valid location after the function returns

```
int *bad_idea2(int n)
{
    int a = n * n;
    return &a; // NEVER do this
}
```

```
/*
 * this is ok to do
 * it is NOT a dangling
 * pointer
 */

int *ok(int n)
{
    static int a = n * n;
    return &a; // ok
}
```

# Heap Memory "Leaks"

- A **memory leak** is when you **allocate memory** on the heap, **but never free it**

```
void  
leaky_memory (void)  
{  
    char *bytes = malloc(BLKSZ * sizeof(*bytes));  
    ...  
    /* code that never passes the pointer in bytes to anything */  
    return;  
}
```

- Your **program is responsible for cleaning up any memory it allocates** but no longer needs
  - If you keep allocating memory, you may run out of memory in the heap!
- **Memory leaks** may cause **long running programs to fault** when they **exhaust OS memory limits**
  - Make sure you **free memory when you no longer need it**
- **Valgrind** is a tool for finding memory leaks (not pre-installed in all linux distributions though!)

## More Dangling Pointers: Reusing "freed" memory

- When a pointer points to a memory location that is no longer “valid”
- Really hard to debug as the use of the return pointers may not generate a seg fault

```
char *dangling_freed_heap(void)
{
    char *buff = malloc(BLKSZ * sizeof(*buff));
    ...
    free(buff);
    return buff;
}
```

- `dangling_freed_heap()` type code often causes the allocators (`malloc()` and friends) to **seg fault**
  - Because it corrupts data structures the heap code uses to manage the memory pool

# Copying Structs

- You can assign the member value(s) of the whole struct from a struct of the same type  
– *this copies the entire contents!*

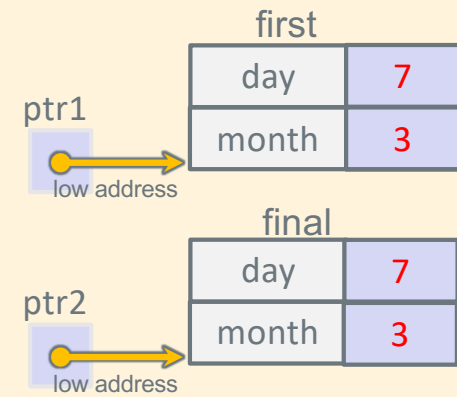
- Individual fields can also be copied

```
struct date first = {1, 1};  
struct date final = {.day= 31, .month= 12};
```

```
struct date *pt1 = &first;  
struct date *pt2 = &final;
```

```
final.day = first.day; // both day are 1  
final = first;         // copies whole struct
```

```
pt2->month = 3;  
*pt1 = *pt2;           // copies whole struct  
pt2->day = 7;  
pt1->day = pt2->day;    // both days are now 7
```



# Struct: Copy and Member Pointers

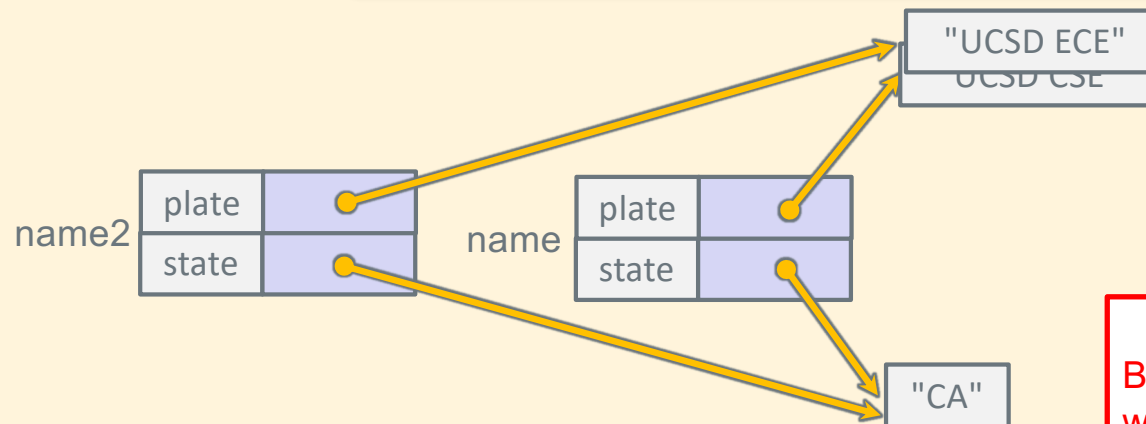
```
struct vehicle {  
    char *state;  
    char *plate;  
};
```

```
struct vehicle name = {"CA", "UCSD CSE"};  
struct vehicle name2;
```



- When you assign one struct to another it just copies the member fields!

```
name2 = name; // copies members Only
```



```
name2.plate = "UCSD ECE";
```

**Warning**  
Be **very careful** with "shallow copies" in C  
when pointers are involved

# Struct: Copy and Member Pointers --- "Deep Copy"

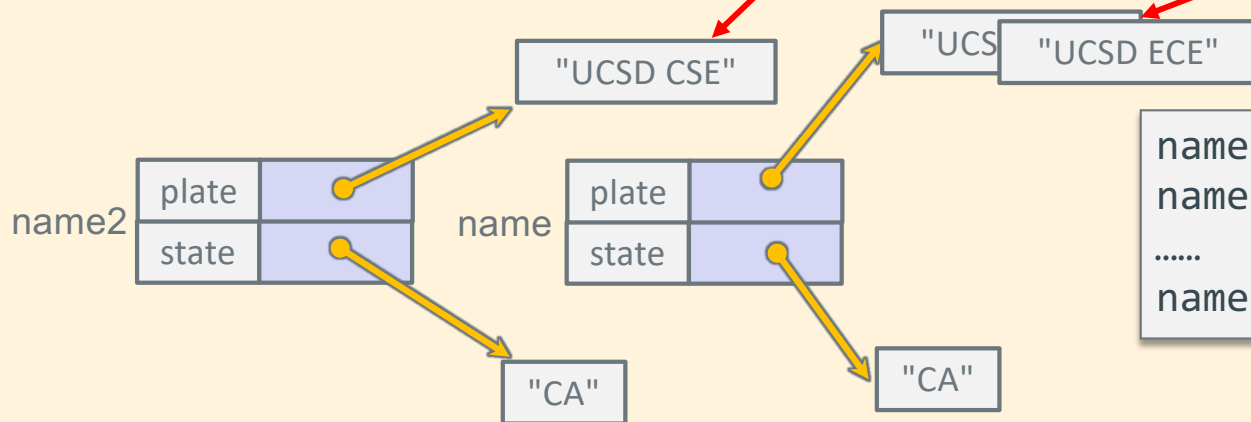
```
struct vehicle {  
    char *state;  
    char *plate;  
};
```

```
struct vehicle name = {"CA", "UCSD CSE"};  
struct vehicle name2;
```

mutable strings (heap memory)

immutable strings (read-only data)

- Use `strdup()` to copy the strings



```
name2.plate = strdup(name.plate);  
name2.state = strdup(name.state);  
.....  
name.plate = "UCSD ECE";
```

# Creating a Node & Inserting it at the Front of the List

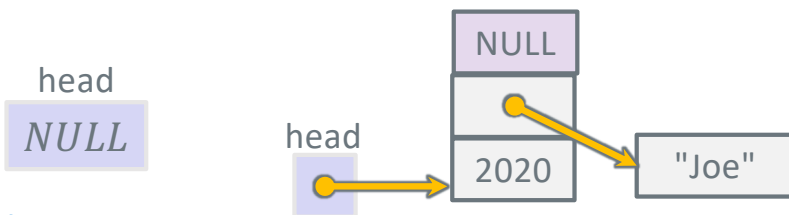
```
// create node; insert at front when passed head
struct node *
creatNode(int year, char *name, struct node *link)
{
    struct node *ptr = malloc(sizeof(*ptr));
    if (ptr != NULL) {
        if ((ptr->name = strdup(name)) == NULL) {
            free(ptr);
            return NULL;
        }
        ptr->year = year;
        ptr->next = link;
    }
    return ptr;
}
```

Must duplicate  
the string  
because of  
buffer reuse

```
struct node {
    int year;
    char *name;
    struct node *next;
};
```

```
// calling function body
struct node *head = NULL; // insert at front
struct node *ptr;
char buf[BUFSZ];

if (fgets(buf, BUFSZ, stdin) != NULL) { // reads joe
    if ((ptr = creatNode(2020, buf, head)) != NULL) {
        head = ptr; // error handling not shown
    }
}
if (fgets(buf, BUFSZ, stdin) != NULL) { // reads sam
    if ((ptr = creatNode(1955, buf, head)) != NULL) {
        head = ptr; // error handling not shown
    }
}
```

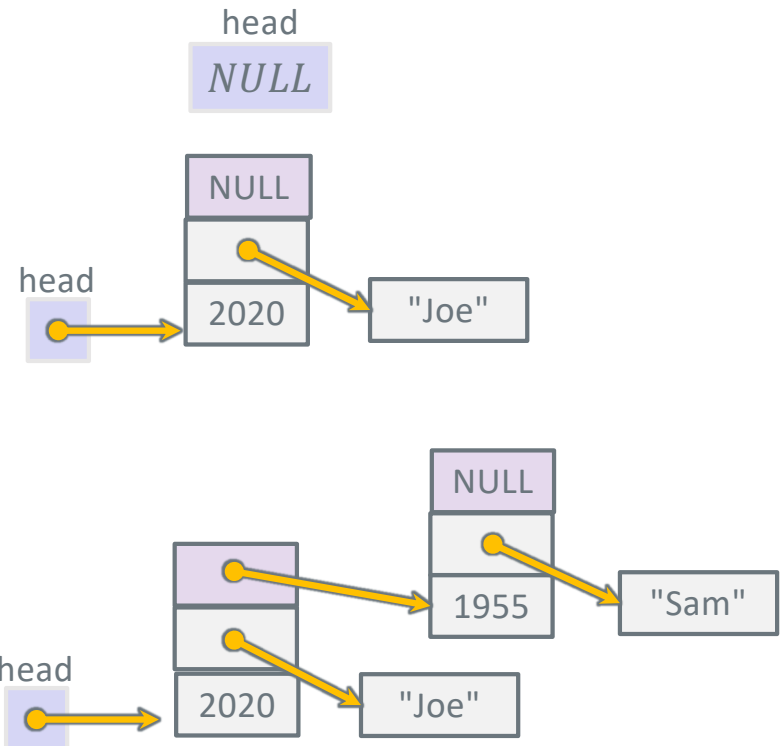


## Creating a Node & Inserting it at the **End** of the List

```
// create a node and insert at the end of the list
struct node *
insertEnd(int year, char *name, struct node *head)
{
    struct node *ptr = head;
    struct node *prev = NULL; // base case
    struct node *new;

    if ((new = creatNode(year, name, NULL)) == NULL)
        return NULL;

    while (ptr != NULL) {
        prev = ptr;
        ptr = ptr->next;
    }
    if (prev == NULL)
        return new;
    prev->next = new;
    return head;
}
```

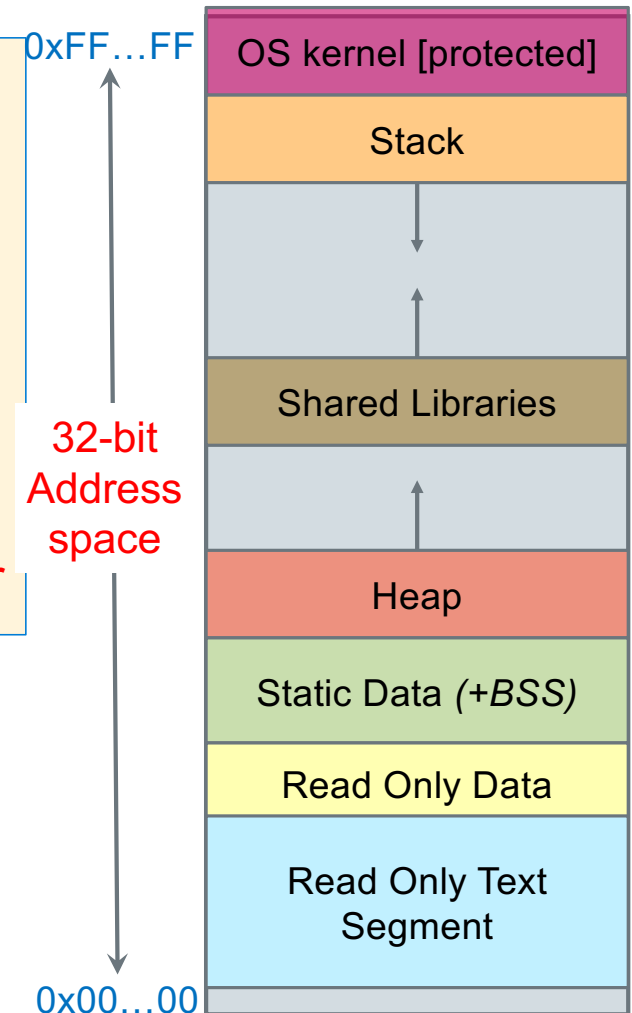
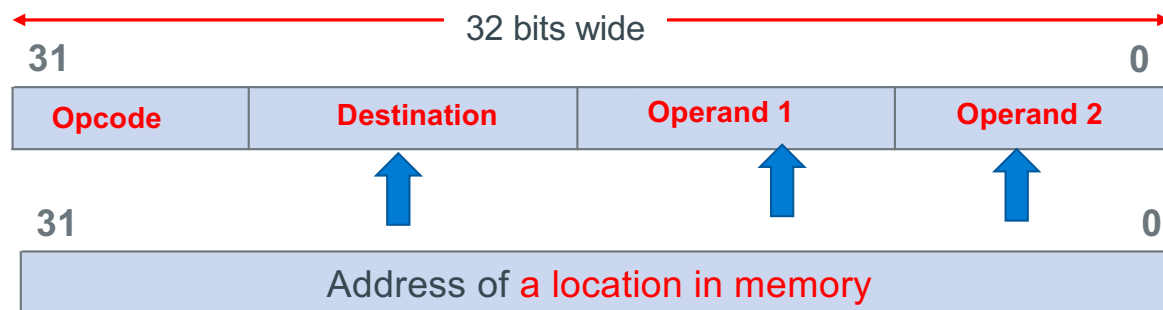


```
struct node *head = NULL; // insert at end
struct node *ptr;
if ((ptr = insertEnd(2020, "Joe", head)) != NULL)
    head = ptr;
if ((ptr = insertEnd(1955, "Sam", head)) != NULL)
    head = ptr;
```



## How to Access Memory?

- Consider  $a = b + c$  are operands are in memory
  - Operation code: add                      Destination: a
  - Operand 1: b                                  Operand 2: c
- Aarch32 Instructions are always word size: 32 bits wide
  - Some bits must be used to specify the operation code
  - Some bits must be used to specify the destination
  - Some bits must be used to specify the operands
- Address space is 32 bits wide so put a **POINTER** in a register

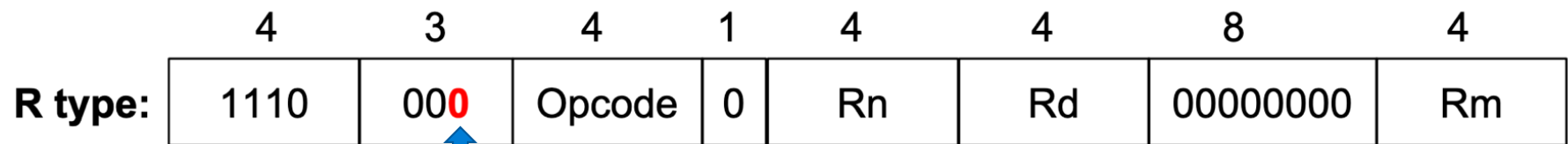


**NOT ENOUGH BITS for FULL Addresses to be stored in the instruction**

## R (register) Type Data Processing: Machine Code

- Instructions that process data using three-register arguments
- The general instruction format is (not all fields will be in every instruction)

opcode Rd (destination), Rn (operand 1), Rm (operand 2)



add r0, r1, r3

is encoded as

1110 0000 1000 0001 0000 0000 0000 0011

in hex is

0xe0810003

0000 = AND - Rd:= Op1 AND Op2  
 0001 = EOR - Rd:= Op1 EOR Op2  
 0010 = SUB - Rd:= Op1 - Op2  
 0011 = RSB - Rd:= Op2 - Op1  
 0100 = ADD - Rd:= Op1 + Op2  
 0101 = ADC - Rd:= Op1 + Op2 + C  
 0110 = SBC - Rd:= Op1 - Op2 + C - 1  
 0111 = RSC - Rd:= Op2 - Op1 + C - 1  
 1000 = TST - set condition codes on Op1 AND Op2  
 1001 = TEQ - set condition codes on Op1 EOR Op2  
 1010 = CMP - set condition codes on Op1 - Op2  
 1011 = CMN - set condition codes on Op1 + Op2  
 1100 = ORR - Rd:= Op1 OR Op2  
 1101 = MOV - Rd:= Op2  
 1110 = BIC - Rd:= Op1 AND NOT Op2  
 1111 = MVN - Rd:= NOT Op2

## Arm Register Summary

- 16 Named registers r0 – r15
- The operands of almost all instructions are registers
- To **operate on a variable in memory** do the following:
  1. Load the value(s) from memory into a register
  2. Execute the instruction
  3. Store the result back into memory (**only if needed!**)
- Going to/from memory is expensive
  - 4X to 20X+ **slower** than accessing a register
- **Strategy:** Keep variables in registers as much as possible

## Assembler Directives: .equ and .equiv

```
.equ    BLKSZ, 10240    // buffer size in bytes
.equ    BUFCNT, 100*4   // buffer for 100 ints
.equiv   STRSZ, 128     // buffer for 128 bytes
.equiv   STRSZ, 1280    // ERROR! already defined!
.equ     BLKSZ, STRSZ * 4 // redefine BLKSZ from here
```

**.equ** <symbol>, <expression>

- Defines and sets the value of a **symbol** to the **evaluation** of the **expression**
- Used for specifying constants, like a **#define** in C
- You can **(re)set** a symbol many times in the file, **last one seen applies**

```
.equ    BLKSZ, 10240    // buffer size in bytes
// other lines
.equ     BLKSZ, 1024     // buffer size in bytes
```

**.equiv** <symbol>, <expression>

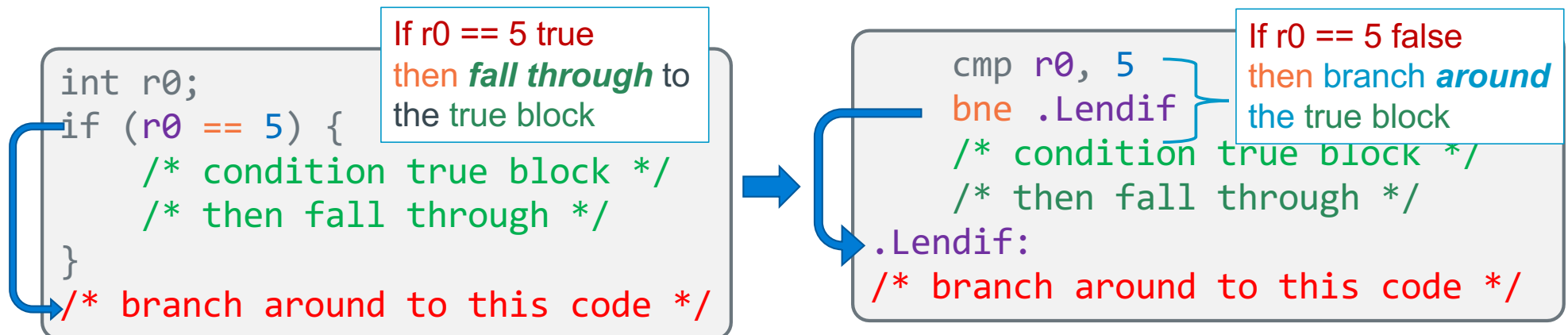
**.equiv** directive is like **.equ** except that the **assembler will signal an error** if symbol is already defined

## Program Flow: Simple If statement, No Else

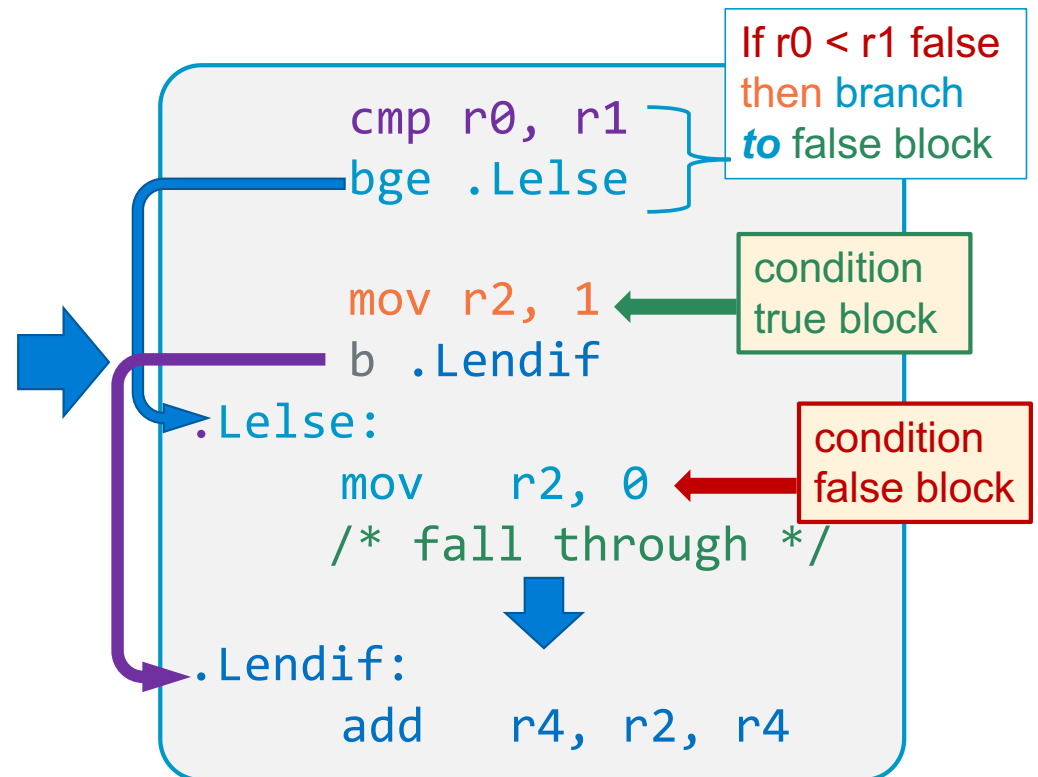
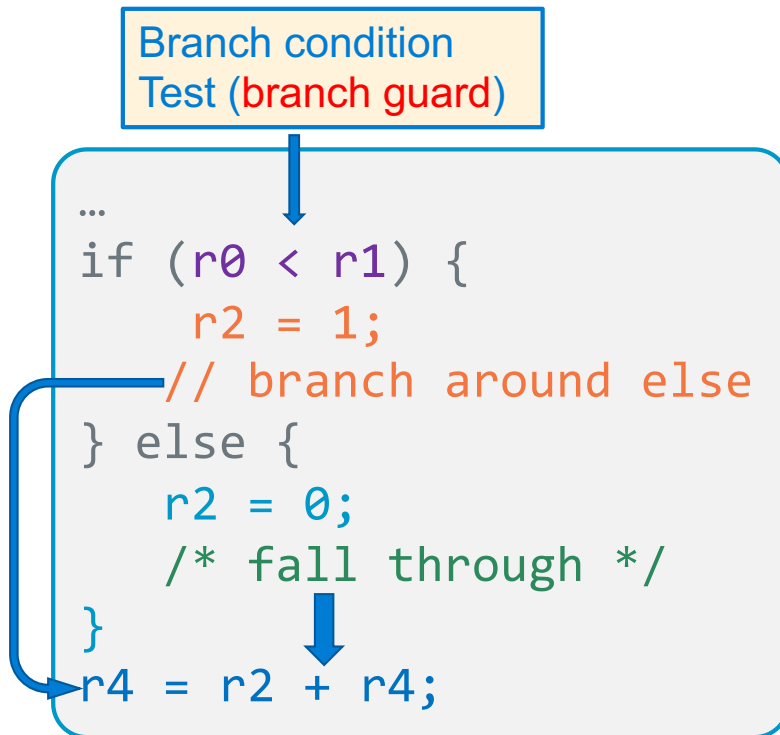
Approach: **adjust** the conditional test then **branch around** the **true block**

Use a **conditional test** that specifies the **inverse** of the condition used in C

<i>C source Code</i>	<i>Incorrect Assembly</i>	<i>Correct Assembly</i>
<pre>int r0; if (r0 &gt; 10)</pre>	<pre>cmp r0, 10 <b>bgt</b> .Lendif  .Lendif:</pre>	<pre>cmp r0, 10 <b>ble</b> .Lendif  .Lendif:</pre>



## If with an Else Examples



## Program Flow – Short Circuit or Minimal Evaluation

- In evaluation of conditional guard expressions, C uses what is called **short circuit** or **minimal evaluation**

```
if ((x == 5) || (y > 3)) // if x == 5 then y > 3 is not evaluated
```

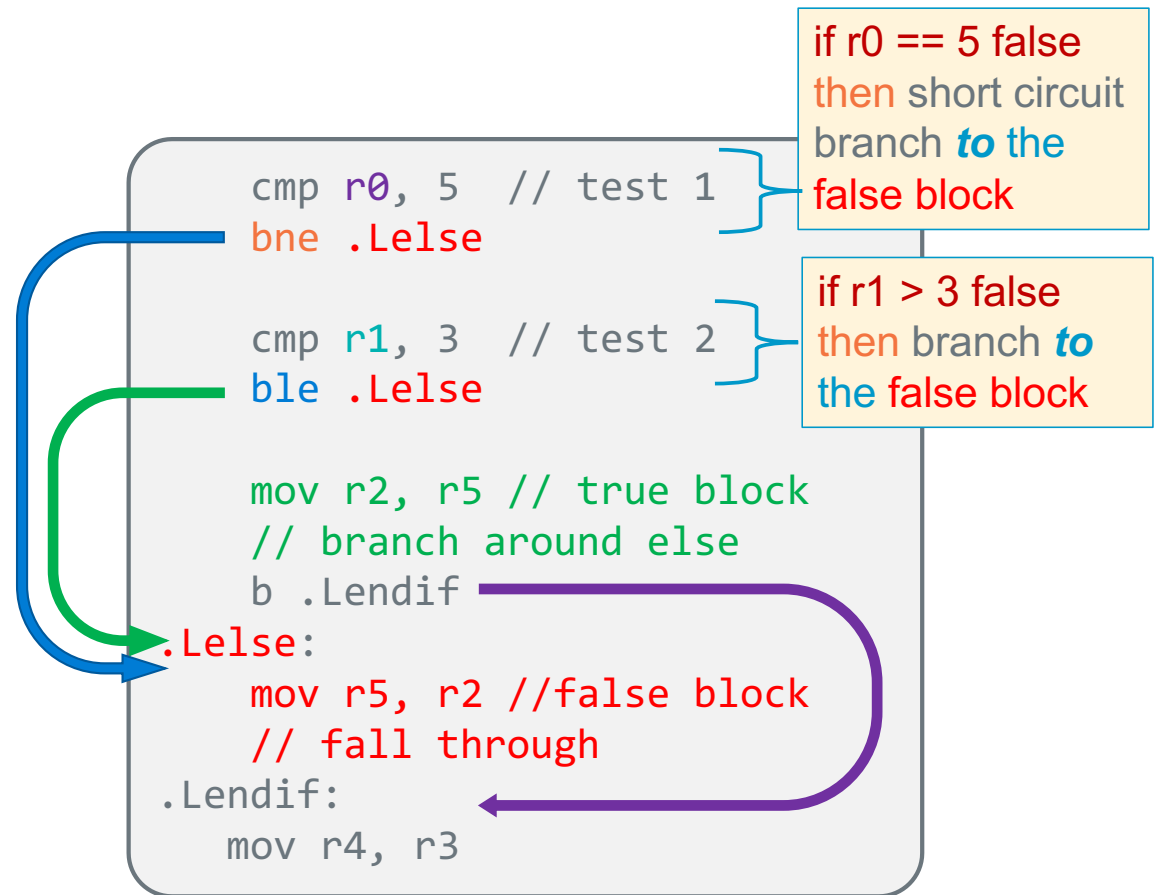


- Each expression argument is evaluated in sequence from left to right including any side effects (modified using parenthesis), before (optionally) evaluating the next expression argument
- If after evaluating an argument, the value of the entire expression can be determined, then the remaining arguments are NOT evaluated (for performance)

```
if ((a != 0) && func(b)) // if a is 0, func(b) is not called
    // do_something();
```

## Program Flow – If statements && compound tests - 2

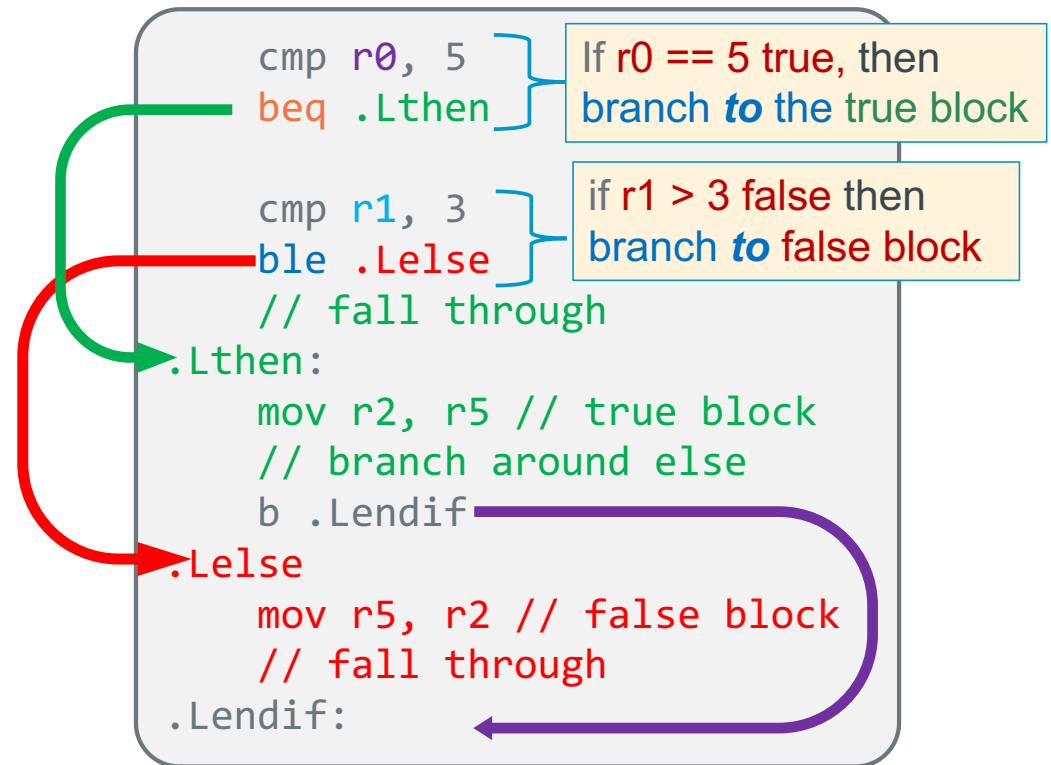
```
if ((r0 == 5) && (r1 > 3))
{
    r2 = r5; // true block
    // branch around else
} else {
    r5 = r2; False block */
    /* fall through */
}
r4 = r3;
```





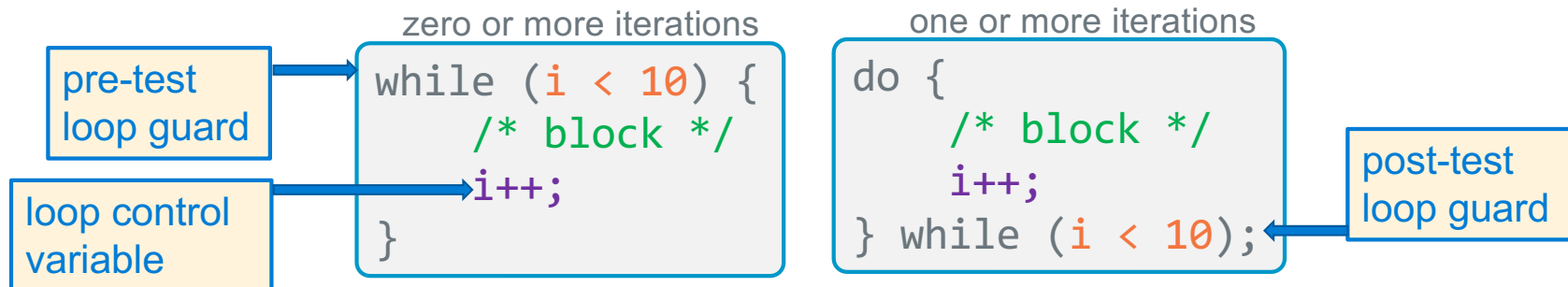
## Program Flow – If statements || compound tests - 2

```
if ((r0 == 5) || (r1 > 3)) {  
    r2 = r5; // true block  
    /* branch around else */  
} else {  
    r5 = r2; // false block  
    /* fall through */  
}
```

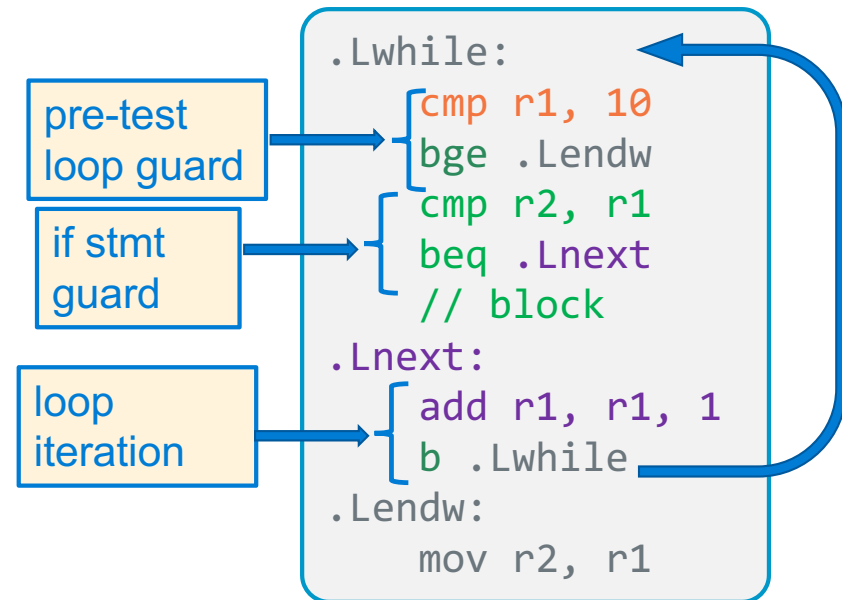
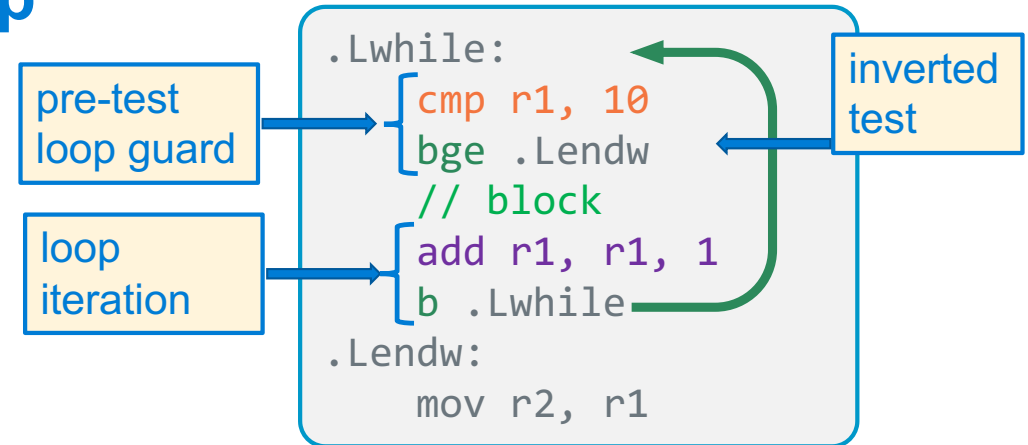
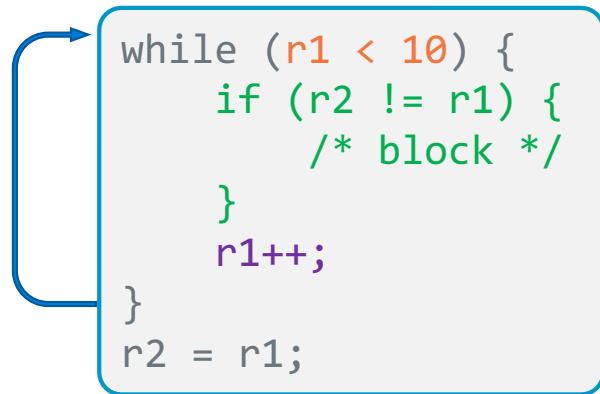
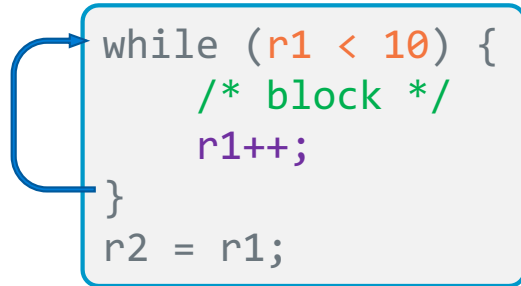


## Program Flow – Pre-test and Post-test Loop Guards

- loop guard: code that must evaluate to true before the next iteration of the loop
- If the loop guard test(s) evaluate to true, the *body of the loop* is executed again
- pre-test loop guard is at the top of the loop
  - If the test evaluates to true, execution falls through to the loop body
  - if the test evaluates to false, execution branches around the loop body
- post-test loop guard is at the bottom of the loop
  - If the test evaluates to true, execution branches to the top of the loop
  - If the test evaluates to false, execution falls through the instruction following the loop



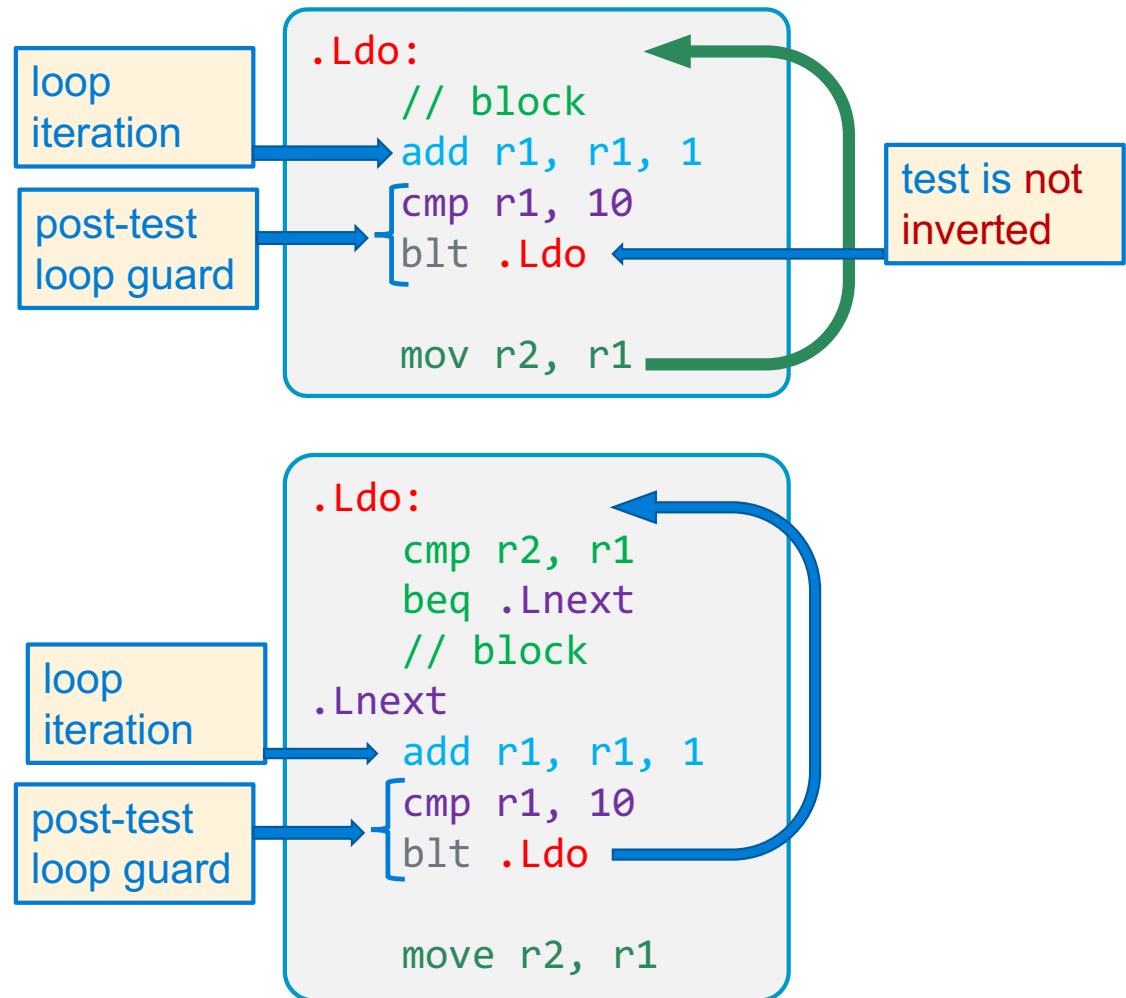
## Pre-Test Guards - While Loop



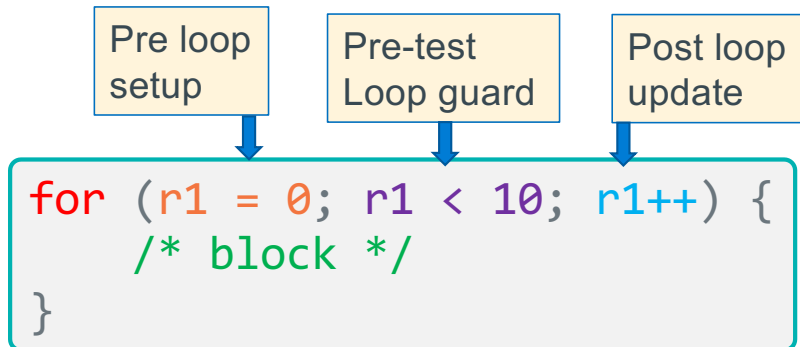
## Post-Test Guards – Do While Loop

```
do {  
    /* block */  
    r1++;  
} while (r1 < 10);  
  
r2 = r1;
```

```
do {  
    if (r2 != r1) {  
        /* block */  
    }  
    r1++;  
} while (r1 < 10);  
  
r2 = r1;
```

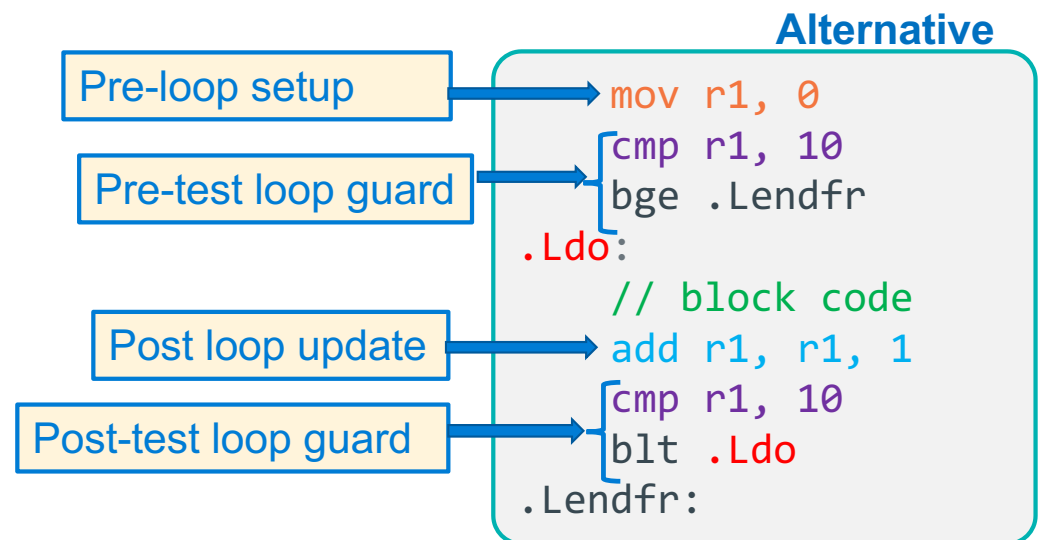
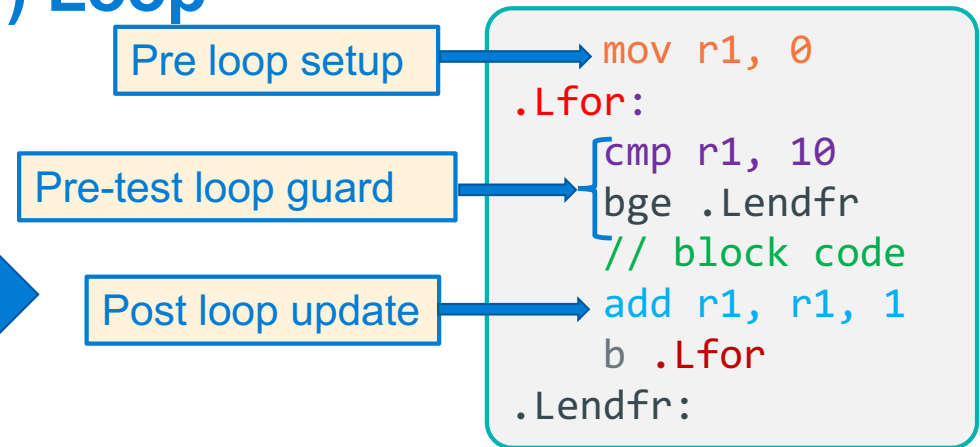


# Program Flow – Counting (For) Loop




A **counting loop** has three parts:

1. Pre-loop setup
  2. Pre-test loop guard conditions
  3. Post-loop update
- Alternative:
  - move Pre-test loop guard before the loop
  - Add post-test loop guard
    - *converts* to *do while*
    - **removes** an **unconditional branch**



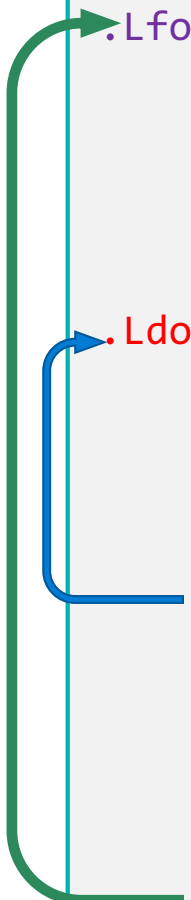
## Nested loops

```
for (r3 = 0; r3 < 10; r3++) {  
    r0 = 0;  
  
    do {  
        r0 = r0 + r1++;  
    } while (r1 < 10);  
  
    // fall through  
    r2 = r2 + r1;  
}
```



- Nest loop blocks as you would in C or Java
- **Do not branch into the middle of a loop,** this is hard to read and is prone to errors

```
mov r3, 0  
.Lfor:  
    cmp r3, 10      // loop guard  
    bge .Lendfor  
  
    mov r0, 0  
  
    .Ldo:  
        add r0, r0, r1  
        add r1, r1, 1  
  
        cmp r1, 10  // loop guard  
        blt .Ldo  
  
        // fall through  
        add r2, r2, r1  
  
        add r3, r3, 1 // loop iteration  
        b .Lfor  
    .Lendfor:  
        mov r5, r0
```



# Bitwise Not (vs Boolean Not)

in C  
int output = ~a;

a	~a
0	1
1	0

Bitwise NOT

~ 1100  
-- --  
0011

	Bitwise Not
number	0101 1010 0101 1010 1111 0000 1001 0110
~number	1010 0101 1010 0101 0000 1111 0110 1001

Meaning	Operator	Operator	Meaning
Boolean NOT	!b	~b	Bitwise NOT

Boolean operators act on the entire value not the individual bits

Type	Operation	result
bitwise	~0x01	1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1110
Boolean	!0x01	0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000

## Bitwise versus C Boolean Operators

Meaning	Operator	Operator	Meaning
Boolean AND	<code>a &amp;&amp; b</code>	<code>a &amp; b</code>	Bitwise AND
Boolean OR	<code>a    b</code>	<code>a   b</code>	Bitwise OR
Boolean NOT	<code>!b</code>	<code>~b</code>	Bitwise NOT

Boolean operators **act on the entire value not the individual bits**

**& versus &&**

`0x10 & 0x01 = 0x00 (bitwise)`

`0x10 && 0x01 = 0x01 (Boolean)`

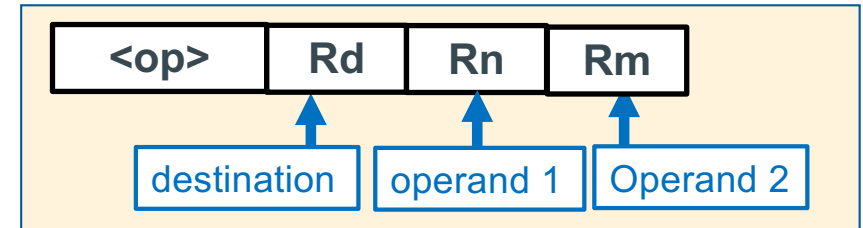
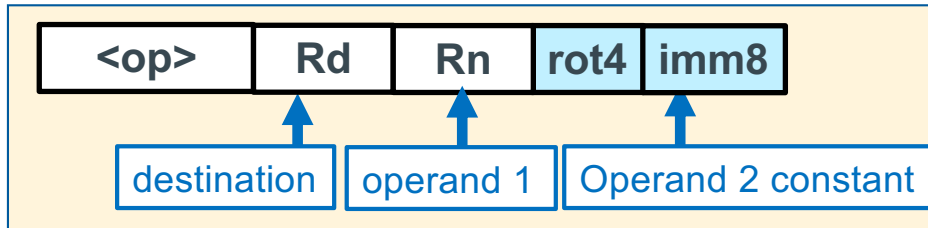
**! versus ~**

`~0x01 = 0xfffffffffe (bitwise)`

`!0x01 = 0x0 (Boolean)`



## Bitwise Instructions

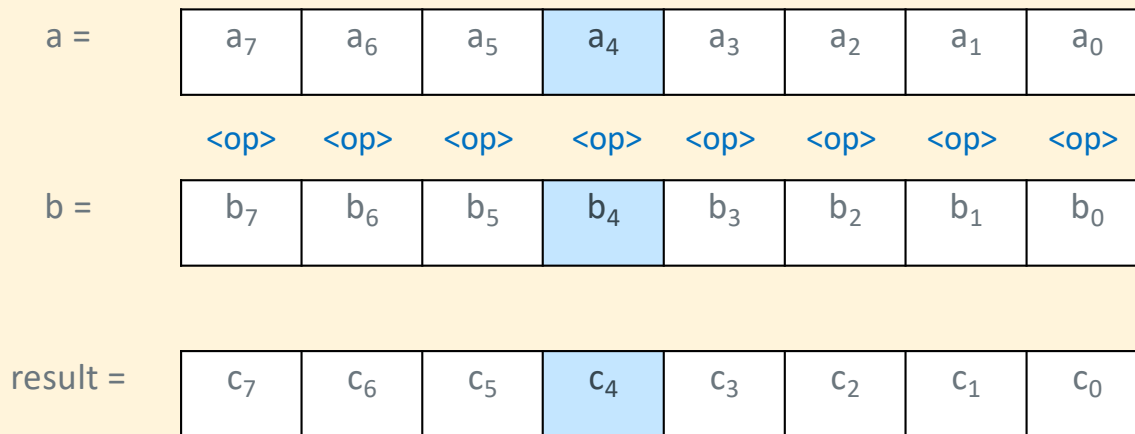


`<op> Rd, Rn, constant // Rd = Rn <op> constant`  
`<op> Rd, constant // Rd = Rd <op> constant`  
`<op> Rd, Rn, Rm // Rd = Rn <op> Rm`

**Bytes:**  $0 \leq \text{imm8} \leq 255$  + values from "rotating" rot 4 bits

Bitwise <code>&lt;op&gt;</code> description	C Syntax	Arm <code>&lt;op&gt;</code> Syntax <i>Op2: either register or constant value</i>	Operation
Bitwise <b>AND</b>	<code>a &amp; b</code>	<code>and Rd, Rn, Op2</code>	$R_d = R_n \& Op2$
<b>Bit Clear</b> each bit in Op2 that is a 1, the same bit in $R_d$ , is cleared	<code>a &amp; ~b</code>	<code>bic Rd, Rn, Op2</code>	$R_d = R_n \& \sim Op2$
Bitwise <b>OR</b>	<code>a   b</code>	<code>orr Rd, Rn, Op2</code>	$R_d = R_n   Op2$
Exclusive <b>OR</b>	<code>a ^ b</code>	<code>eor Rd, Rn, Op2</code>	$R_d = R_n ^ Op2$

## The act (operation) of *Masking*



- Bit masks access/modify specific bits in memory
- Masking act of applying a mask to a value with a specific op:
  - **orr**: 0 passes bit unchanged, 1 sets bit to 1    `(a = b | c; // in C)`
  - **eor**: 0 passes bit unchanged, 1 inverts the bit    `(a = b ^ c; // in C)`
  - **bic**: 0 passes bit unchanged, 1 clears it    `(a = b & ~c; // in C)`
  - **and**: 0 clears the bit, 1 passes bit unchanged    `(a = b & c; // in C)`

## Extracting (Isolate) a Field of Bits with a mask

**extract top 8 bits** of r2 into r1

- 0 to **set a bit to 0** ("clears the bit")
- 1 to let a **bit through unchanged**

**and** r1, r2, r3

DATA: r2 0xab ab ab 77

**and**

MASK: r3 0xff 00 00 00

unchanged

RSLT: r1 0xab 00 00 00

**extract top 8 bits** of r2 into r1

DATA: r2 0xab ab ab 77

**and** r1, r2, 0xff000000

RSLT: r1 0xab 00 00 00

**r1 = r2 & 0xff000000; // in C**

## MOD %<power of 2>

**remainder (mod):**  $\text{num \% d}$  where  $\text{num} \geq 0$  and  $d = 2^k$   
mask =  $2^k - 1$  so for mod 16, mask =  $16 - 1 = 15$   
and r1, r2, r3

Example: %2

DATA: r2 0xab ab ab 77

and

MASK: r3 0x00 00 00 01 (mod 2 even or odd)

forces to a 0 unchanged

RSLT: r1 0x00 00 00 01 (odd)

Example: Mod 16

DATA: r2 0xab ab ab 77

and

MASK: r3 0x00 00 00 0f (mod 16)

forces to a 0 unchanged

RSLT: r1 0x00 00 00 07

## Flipping bits: bit toggle Used in PA8

invert (*flip*) bits "bit toggle" operation

- 1 **will flip the bit**
- 0 to **let a bit through**

**eor** r1, r2, r3

- Observation: When applied twice, it returns the original value (symmetric encoding)
- With a mask of all 1's is a 1's compliment

Example: *flip* the lower 8-bits

**eor** r1, r2, 0xff

```
unsigned int r1, r2;
r1 = r2 ^ 0xff;
```

Example: invert (*flip*) the lower 8-bits

DATA: r2 0xab ab ab **77** **77: 0111 0111**

**eor**

MASK: r3 0x00 00 00 **ff**

unchanged

inverts (flips)

RSLT: r1 0xab ab ab **88** **88: 1000 1000**

DATA: r1 0xab ab ab **88**

**eor**

MASK: r3 0x00 00 00 **ff** **apply a 2<sup>nd</sup> time**

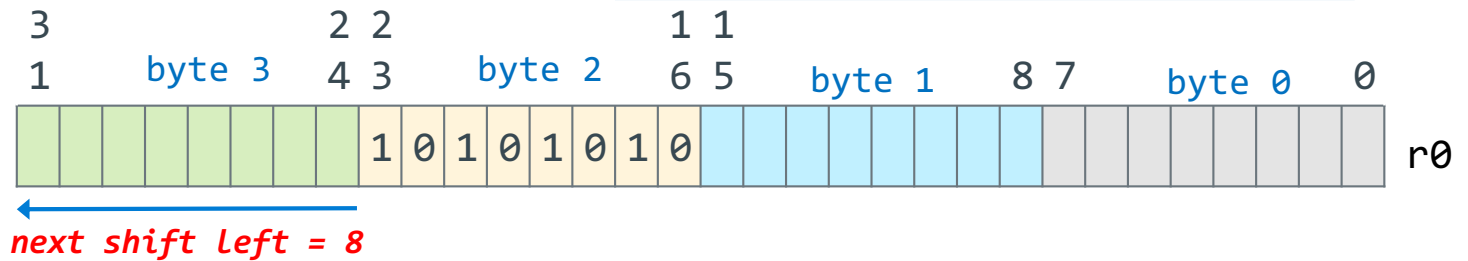
inverts (flips)

RSLT: r1 0xab ab ab **77** **original value!**

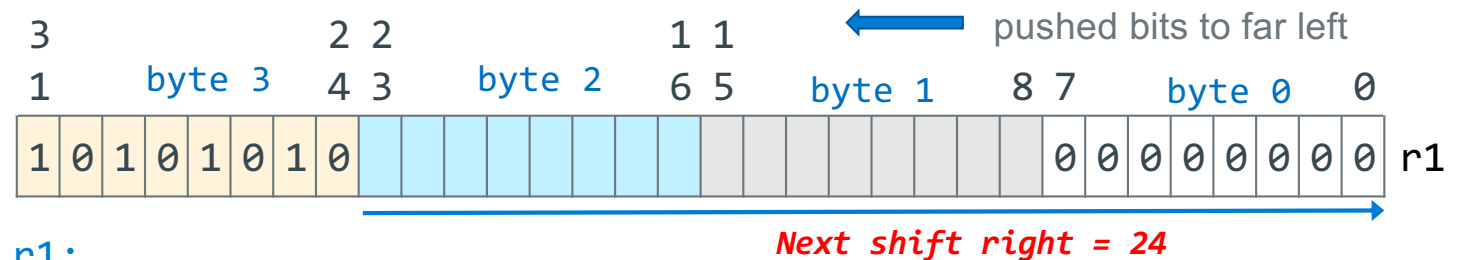
# Extracting/Isolating Unsigned Bitfields

Hint: Useful for PA8

- Move byte 2 in r0 to byte 0 in r1



```
lsl r1, r0, 8
```

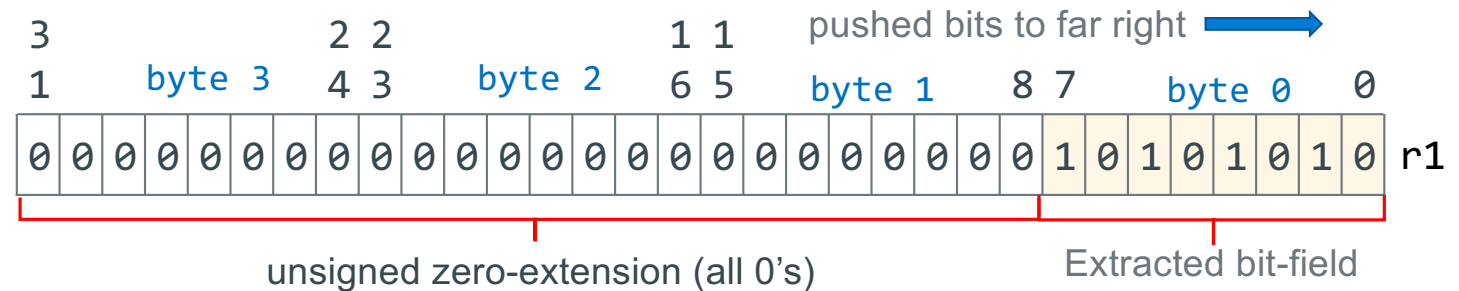


```
unsigned int r0,r1;
```

```
r1 = r0 << 8;
```

```
lsl r1, r1, 24
```

```
r1 = r1 >> 24;
```



# Inserting Bitfields – Inserting Source Field into Destination Field

Task: Insert source into destination

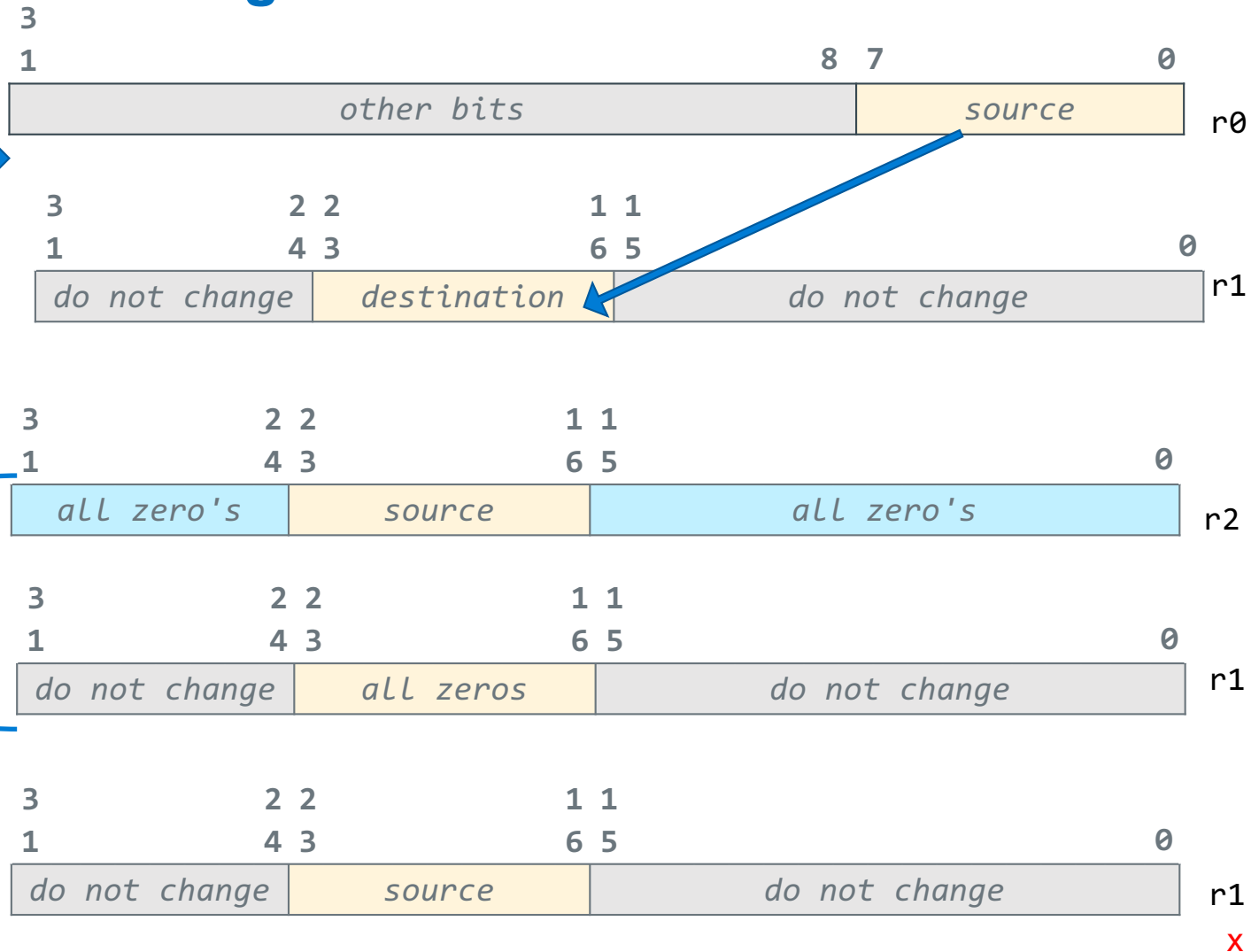
a	b	a   b
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

## Approach

- (1) isolate source field
- (2) clear destination field
- (3) Bitwise **or** together

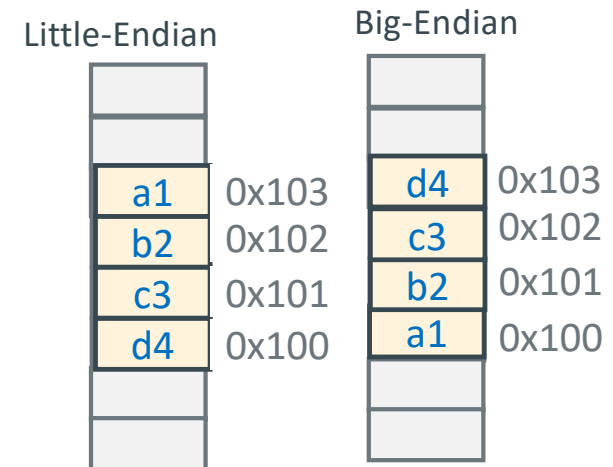
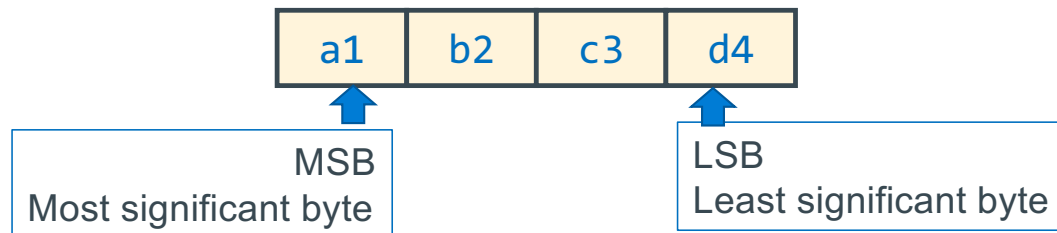
```
orr    r1, r1, r2
r1 =   r1 | r2;
```

results in



# Byte Ordering of Numbers In Memory: Endianness

- Two different ways to place multi-byte integers in a **byte addressable** memory
- **Big-endian**: **Most** Significant Byte (“**big end**”) starts at the **lowest (starting)** address
- **Little-endian**: **Least** Significant Byte (“**little end**”) starts at the **lowest (starting)** address
- Example: 32-bit integer with 4-byte data

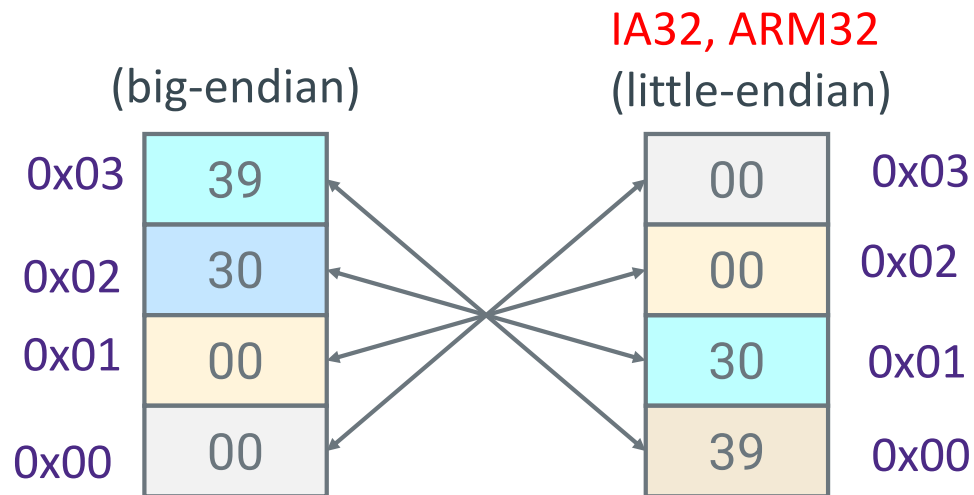




## Byte Ordering Example

Decimal:	12345
Binary:	0011 0000 0011 1001
Hex:	3 0 3 9

```
int x = 12345;  
// or x = 0x00003039; // show all 32 bits
```

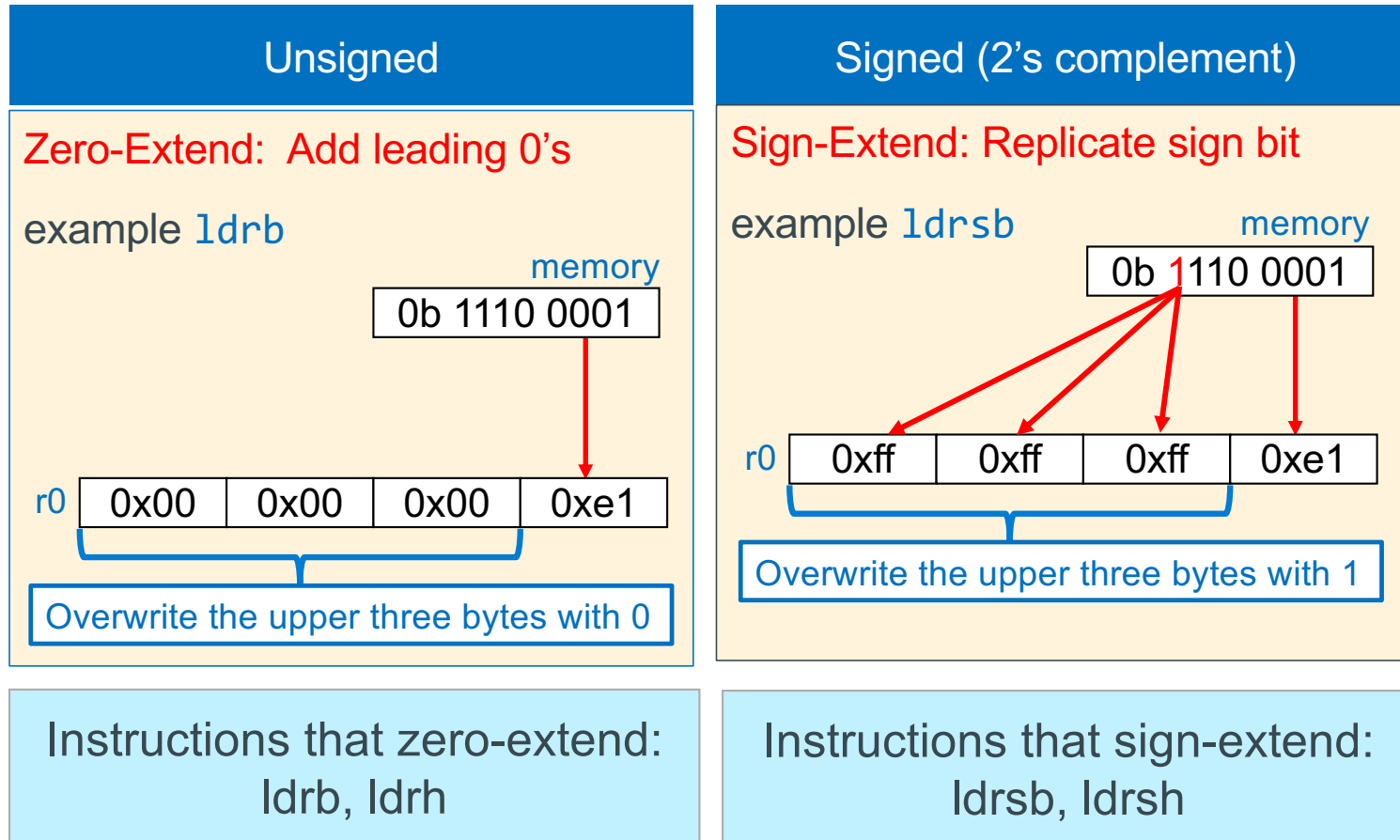


## Loading and Storing: Variations List

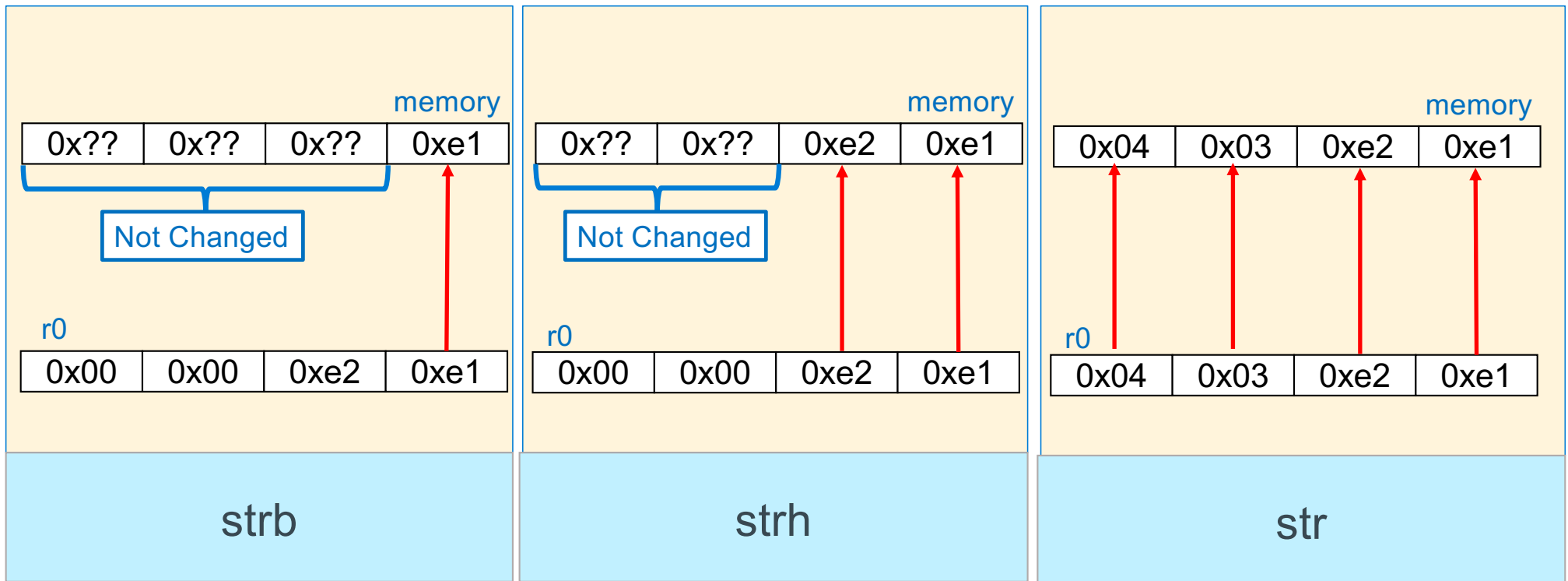
- Load and store have **variations** that move 8-bits, 16-bits and 32-bits
- Load into a register with less than 32-bits will **set the upper bits not filled from memory differently** depending on which **variation of the load instruction** is used
- Store will only select the lower 8-bit, lower 16-bits or all 32-bits of the register to copy to memory, **register contents are not altered**

Instruction	Meaning	Sign Extension	Memory Address Requirement
<b>ldr<b>sb</b></b>	load signed byte	sign extension	none (any byte)
<b>ldrb</b>	load unsigned byte	zero fill (extension)	none (any byte)
<b>ldrsh</b>	load signed halfword	sign extension	halfword (2-byte aligned)
<b>ldrh</b>	load unsigned halfword	zero fill (extension)	halfword (2-byte aligned)
<b>ldr</b>	load word	---	word (4-byte aligned)
<b>strb</b>	store low byte (bits 0-7)	---	none (any byte)
<b>strh</b>	store halfword (bits 0-15)	---	halfword (2-byte aligned)
<b>str</b>	store word (bits 0-31)	---	word (4-byte aligned)

## Loading 32-bit Registers From Memory Variables < 32-Bits Wide



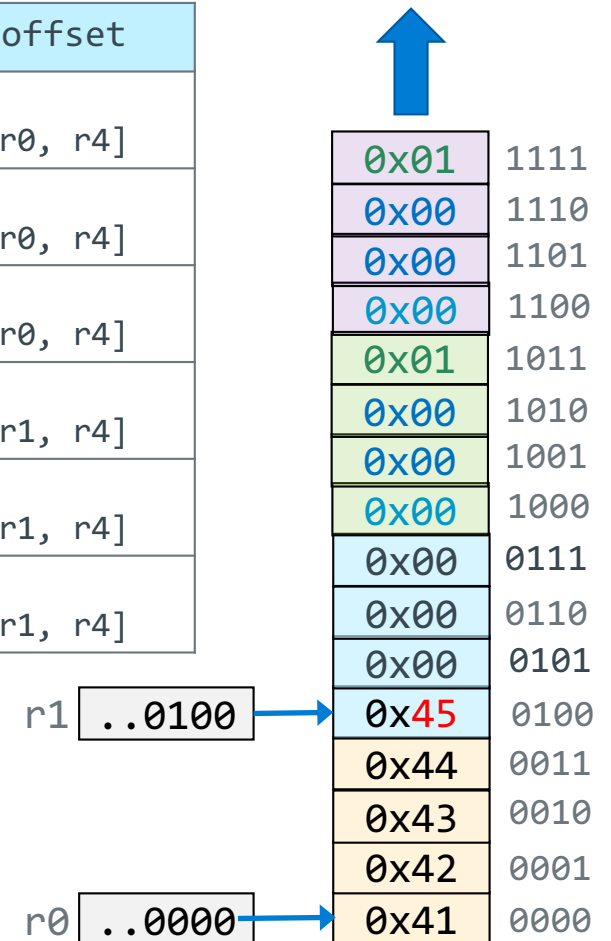
## Storing 32-bit Registers To Memory 8-bit, 16-bit, 32-bit



## Array addressing with ldr/str

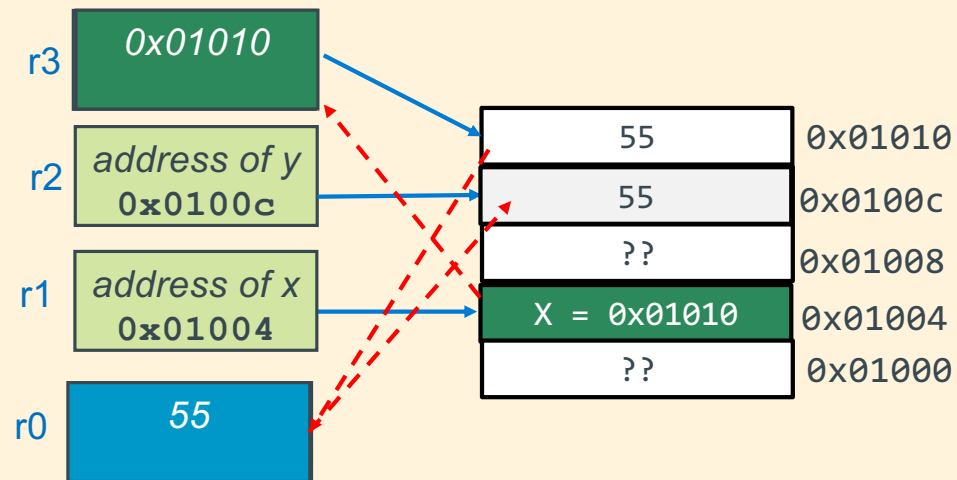
Array element	Base addressing	Immediate offset	register offset
char ch[0]	ldrb r2, [r0]	ldrb r2, [r0, 0]	mov r4, 0 ldrb r2, [r0, r4]
char ch[1]	add r0, r0, 1 ldrb r2, [r0]	ldrb r2, [r0, 1]	mov r4, 1 ldrb r2, [r0, r4]
char ch[2]	add r0, r0, 2 ldrb r2, [r0]	ldrb r2, [r0, 2]	mov r4, 2 ldrb r2, [r0, r4]
int x[0]	ldr r2, [r1]	ldr r2, [r1, 0]	mov r4, 0 ldr r2, [r1, r4]
int x[1]	add r1, r1, 4 ldr r2, [r1]	ldr r2, [r1, 4]	mov r4, 4 ldr r2, [r1, r4]
int x[2]	add r1, r1, 8 ldr r2, [r1]	ldr r2, [r1, 8]	mov r4, 8 ldr r2, [r1, r4]

table rows are  
independent instructions not a sequence



## ldr/str practice - 2

r1 contains the Address of X (defined as `int *X`) in memory r1 points at X  
r2 contains the Address of Y (defined as `int Y`) in memory; r2 points at Y  
write `Y = *X;`



```
ldr    r3, [r1]    // r3 ← x (read 1)
ldr    r0, [r3]    // r0 ← *x (read 2)
str    r0, [r2]    // y ← *x
```

# Preview: Return Value and Passing Parameters to Functions

(Four parameters or less)

Register	Function Call Use
r0	1 <sup>st</sup> parameter
r1	2 <sup>nd</sup> parameter
r2	3 <sup>rd</sup> parameter
r3	4 <sup>th</sup> parameter

Register	Function Return Value Use
r0	8, 16 or 32-bit result, 32-bit address or least-significant half of a 64-bit result
r1	most-significant half of a 64-bit result

- Where **r0**, **r1**, **r2**, **r3** are arm registers, the function declaration is (first four arguments):  

```
r0 = function(r0, r1, r2, r3)           // 32-bit return
```

```
r0, r1 = function(r0, r1, r2, r3)      // 64-bit return - long long
```
- Each **parameter** and **return value** is limited to data that **can fit in 4 bytes or less**
- You receive **up to the first four parameters** in these four registers
- You copy up to the first four parameters into these four registers before calling a function
- For parameter values using more than 4 bytes, a pointer to the parameter is passed (we will cover this later)
- You MUST ALWAYS assume** that the called function will **alter the contents of all four registers: r0-r3**
  - In terms of C runtime support, these registers contain the copies given to the called function
  - C allows the copies to be changed in any way by the called function

## Using the literal table to fix:

Error: invalid constant (3ff) after fixup

- In data processing instructions, the field **imm8 + rotate 4 bits** is too small to store the immediate value, how do you get larger immediate values into a register?



fails



```
mov    r0, 1023
```

xxx.s:24: Error: invalid constant (3ff) after fixup

replacement



```
ldr    r0, =1023
```

- Answer: use **ldr** instruction with the constant as an operand: **=constant**
- Assembler creates a **literal table entry** with the **constant**

```
ldr  Rd, =constant    // =constant
ldr  r1, =0x2468abcd   // loads the constant 0x246abcd into r1
```

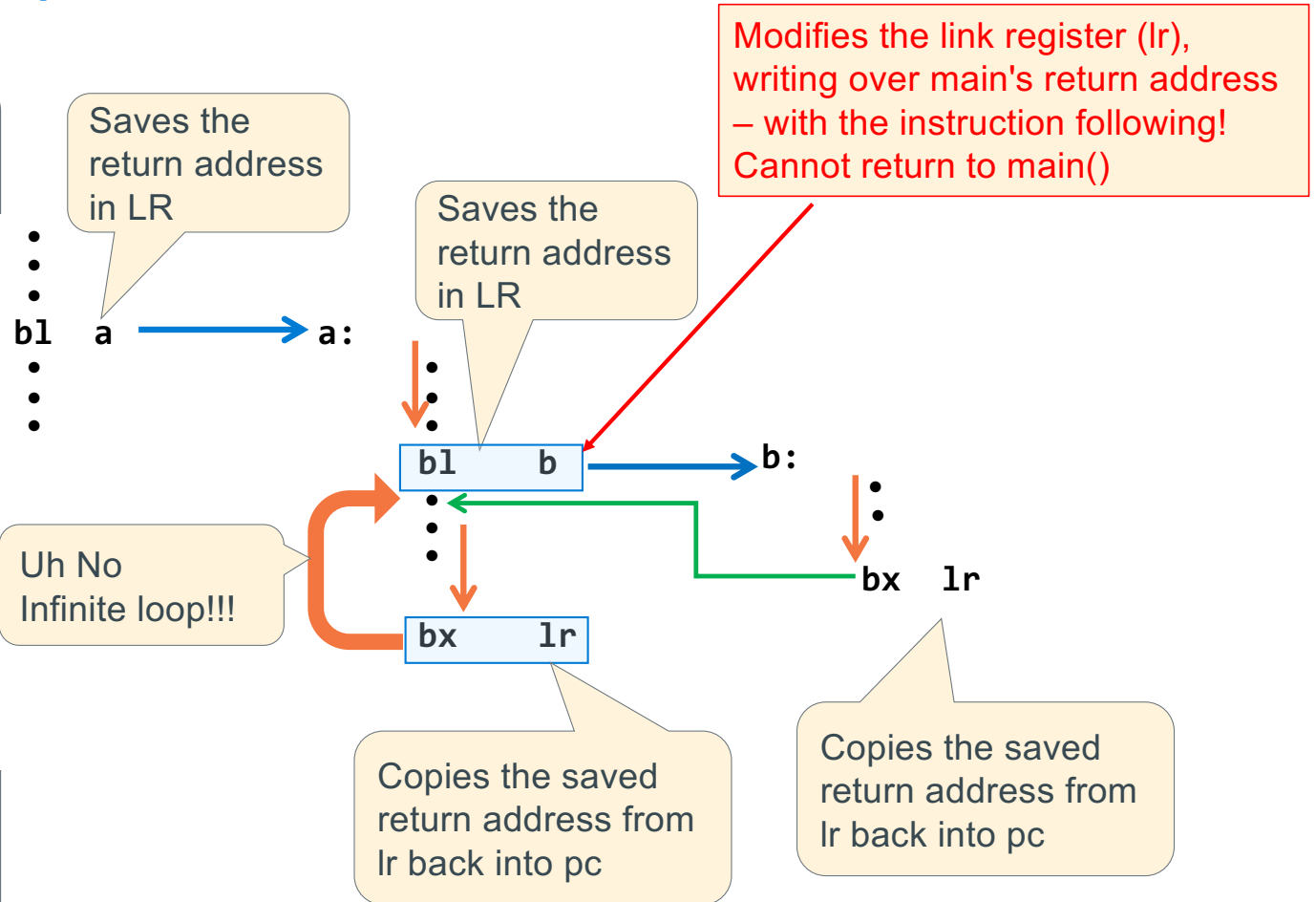


# Preserving lr (and fp): The Foundation of a stack frame

```
int main(void)
{
    a();
    /* other code */
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}

int a(void)
{
    b();
    /* other code */
    return 0;
}

int b(void)
{
    /* other code */
    return 0;
}
```

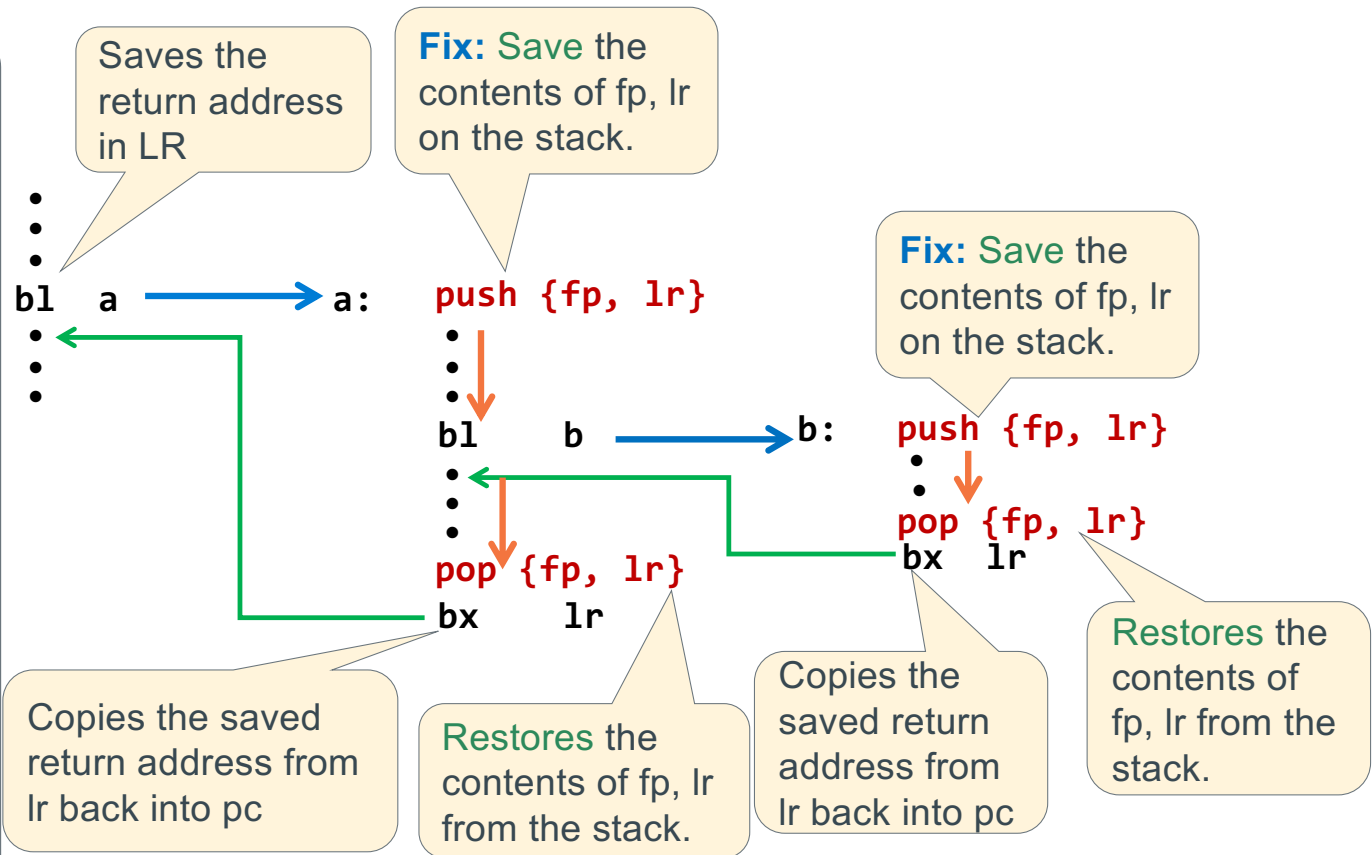


# Preserving lr (and fp): The Foundation of a stack frame

```
int main(void)
{
    a();
    /* other code */
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}

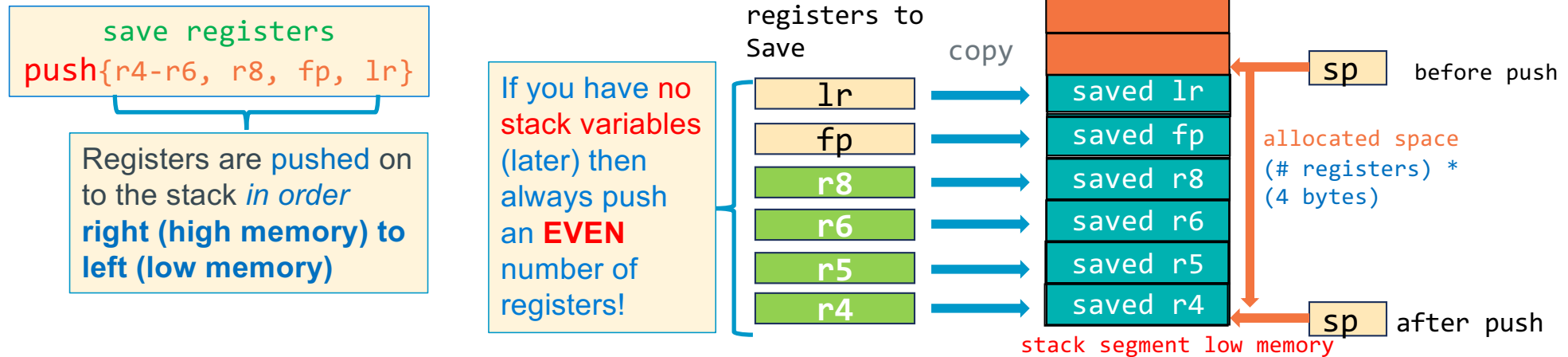
int a(void)
{
    b();
    /* other code */
    return 0;
}

int b(void)
{
    /* other code */
    return 0;
}
```



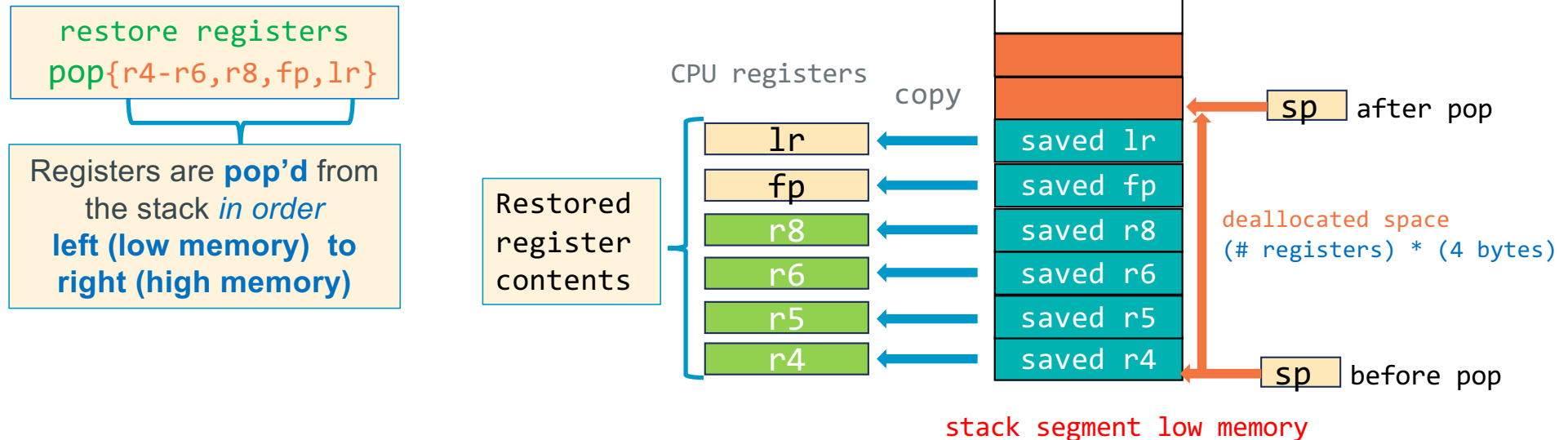
The frame pointer is used to find variables on the stack – later

## push: Multiple Register Save (str to stack)



- **push** copies the contents of the `{reg list}` to stack segment memory
- **push** **Also** subtracts  $(\# \text{ of registers saved}) * (4 \text{ bytes})$  from the `sp` to **allocate** space on the stack
  - $sp = sp - (\# \text{ registers\_saved} * 4)$
- **this must always be true:  $sp \% 8 == 0$**

## pop: Multiple Register Restore (ldr from stack)

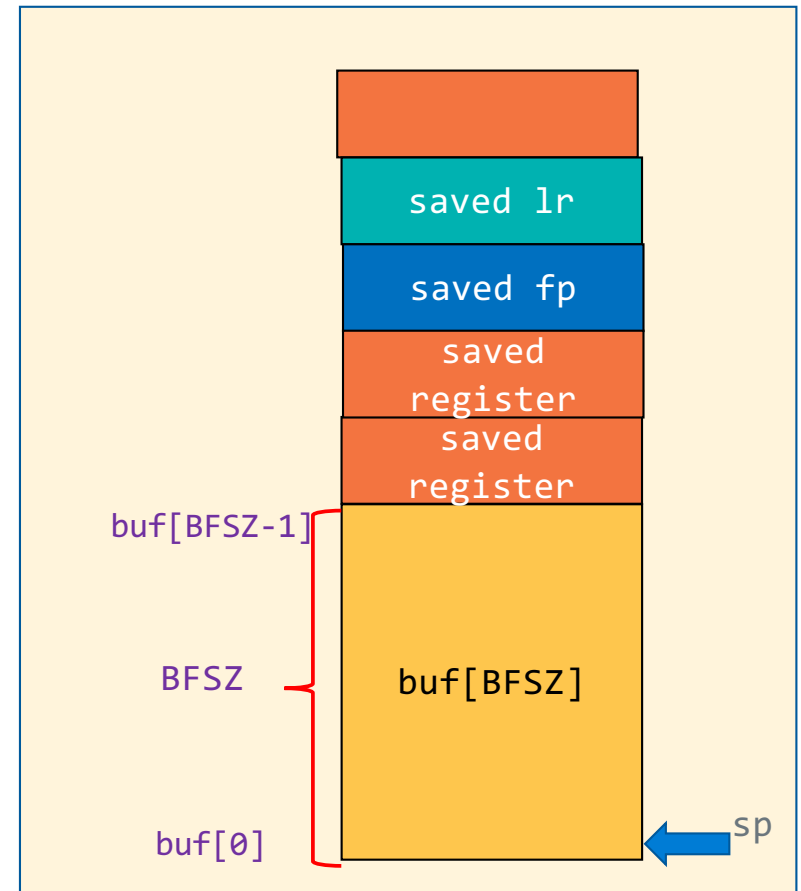
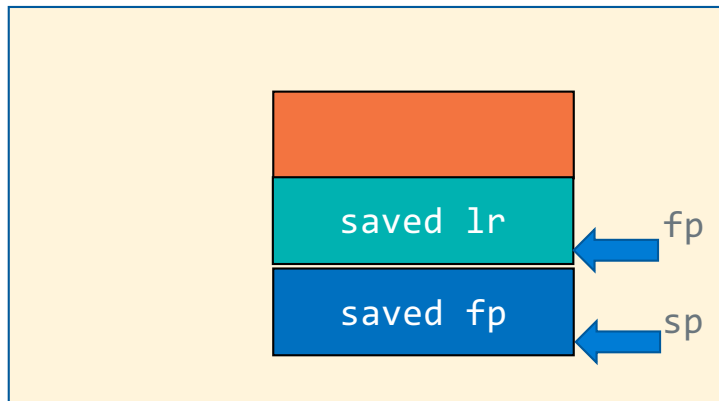


- **pop** copies the contents of stack segment memory to the **{reg list}**
- **pop adds:**  $(\# \text{ of registers restored}) * (4 \text{ bytes})$  to **sp** to **deallocate** space on the stack
  - $sp = sp + (\# \text{ registers restored} * 4)$
- **Remember:** **{reg list}** must be the same in both the **push** and the corresponding **pop**

## Local Variables are Part of Each Stack Frame

- Local variables are on the stack below the lowest numbered saved (pushed) register

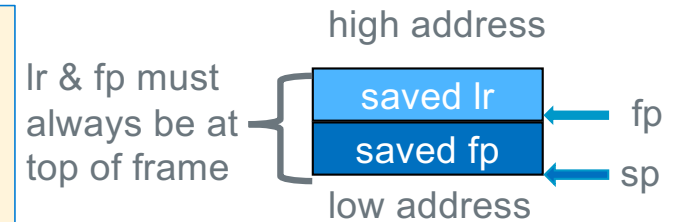
```
#define BFSZ 4
int main(void)
{
    char buf[BFSZ]; // BFSZ bytes
    ...
}
```



# Stack Frame (Arm Arch32 Procedure Call Standards)

## Stack Frame Requirements

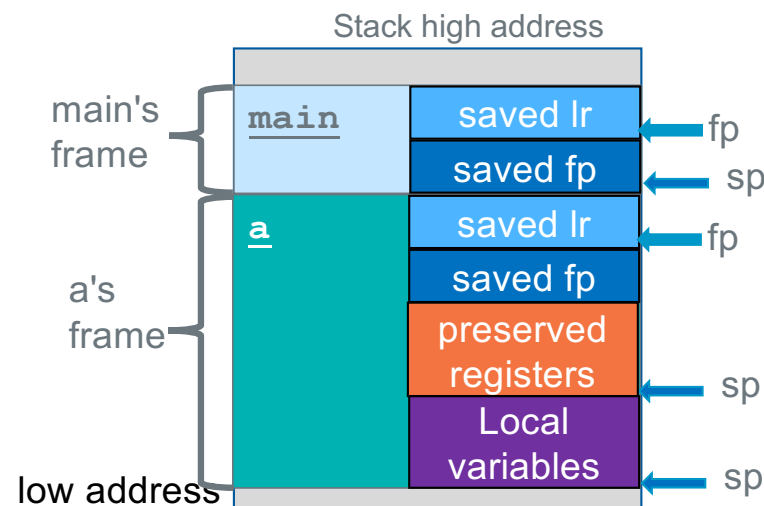
- **Minimal frame: at function entry** `push {fp, lr}`
- The top two entries in a stack frame are always (1) saved lr, (2) saved fp
- `sp` points at top element in the stack (lowest byte address)
- `fp` points at the `lr` copy stored in the current stack frame
- **Stack frames MUST ALWAYS BE aligned to 8-byte addresses**
  - So, this must always be true: `sp % 8 == 0`



minimal frame above  
Always save at least fp and lr  
and set fp at saved lr

```
int main(void)
{
    a();
    /* other code */
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}

int a(void)
{
    int x;
    int y;
    /* other code */
    return 0;
}
```



allocate stack space  
 $SP = SP - \text{"space"}$   
grows "down"

deallocate stack space  
 $SP = SP + \text{"space"}$   
shrinks "up"

Note slide has builds

## FP\_OFF: Distance from FP to SP Used to set FP at push and SP before pop

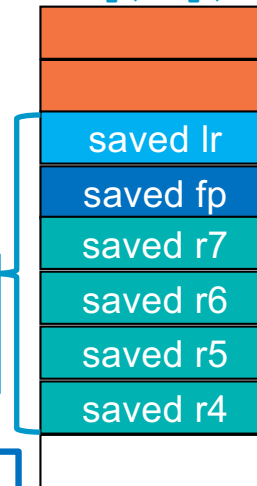
```
// other code etc
.equ    FP_OFF, 20

main:
    push    {r4-r7, fp, lr}
    add     fp, sp, FP_OFF
    .....
    sub     sp, fp, FP_OFF
    pop     {r4-r7, fp, lr}
    bx     lr
```

Function Prologue  
always at top of function  
saves regs and **sets fp**

Function Epilogue  
always at bottom of function  
**restores**  
regs including the sp

after push {r4-r7, fp, lr}  
add fp, sp, FP\_OFF



fp = sp + 20  
bytes

FP\_OFF:  
Where to set  
FP after push

sp  
low memory  
4-byte words

Function  
Stack  
Frame

# regs saved	FP_OFF in Bytes
2	4
3	8
4	12
5	16
6	20
7	24
8	28
9	32



Means Caution, odd number of regs!  
If odd number pushed, make sure frame  
is 8-byte aligned (later)  
this must always be true:  $sp \% 8 == 0$

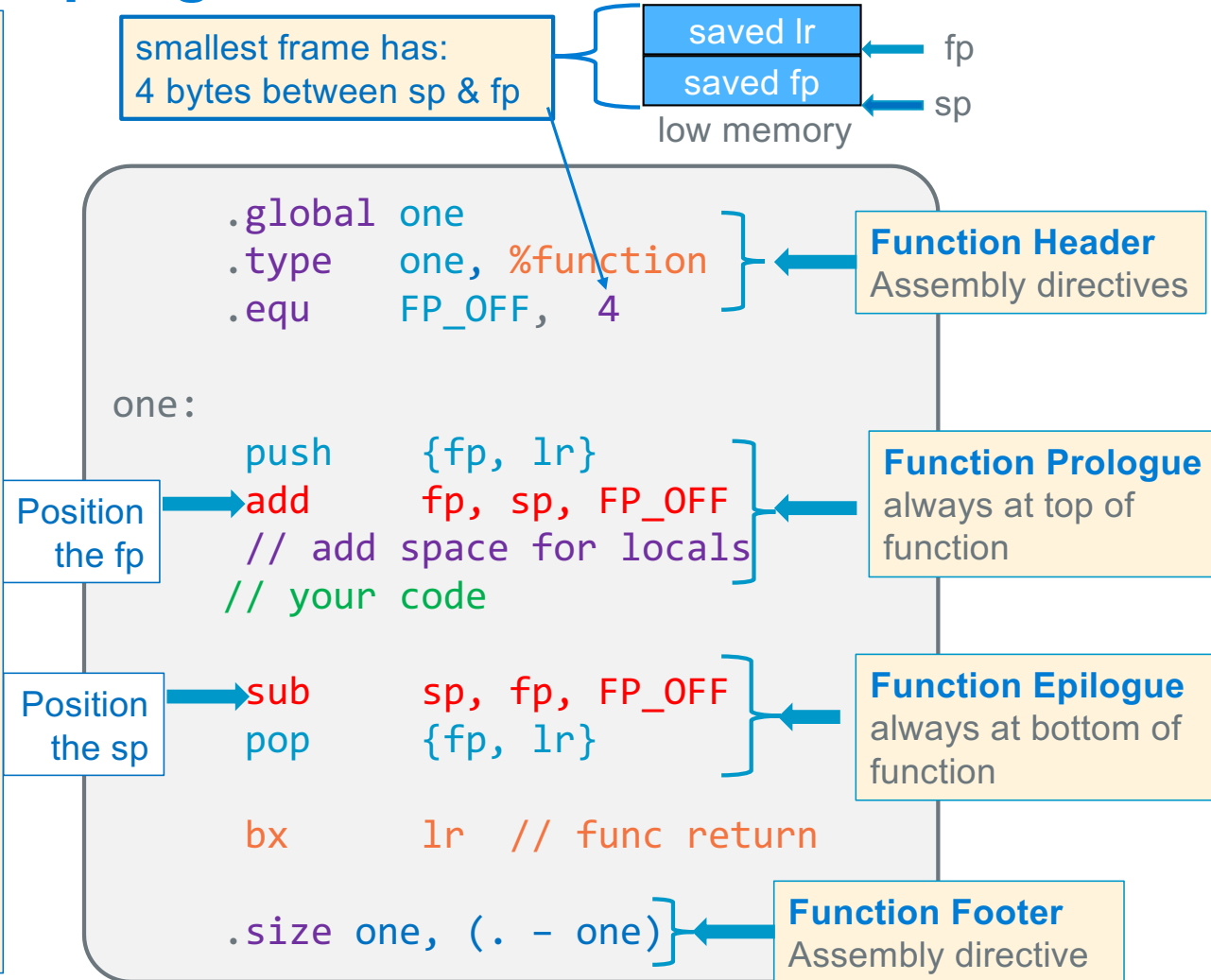
$FP\_OFF = (\#regs - 1) * 4$  // -1 is lr offset from sp  
Where # regs = #preserved + lr + fp

**IMPORTANT:** FP\_OFF has **two** uses:

1. Where to set fp after prologue push (remember sp position)
2. Restore sp (deallocate locals) right before epilogue pop

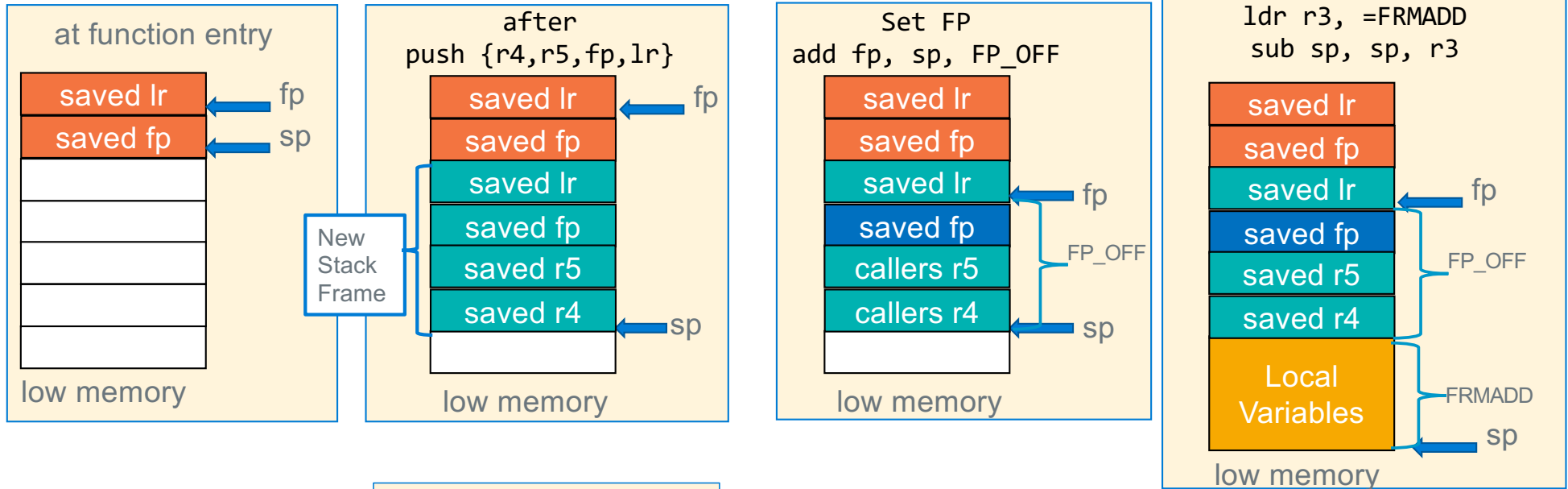
# Function Prologue and Epilogue: Minimum Stack Frame

- Each function has only one Prologue at the top of the function body and only one Epilogue at the bottom of the function body
- When you want to exit the function, set the return value in r0, and then branch (or fall through) to the epilogue
- Function entry (Function Prologue):**
  - save preserved registers
  - set the fp to point at saved lr
  - allocate space for locals (subtracts from sp)
- Function return (Function Epilogue):**
  - deallocate space for locals (adds to sp)
  - restores preserved registers
  - return to caller





# Function Prologue: Allocating the Stack Frame



Function was just called this how the stack looks  
The orange blocks are part of the caller's stack frame

Function saves lr, fp using a push and only those preserved registers it wants to use on the stack  
Do not push r12 or r13

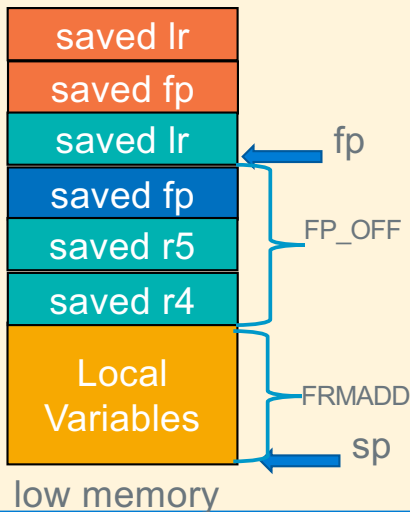
Function moves the fp to point at the saved lr as required by the Aarch32 spec

Allocate Space for Local Variables

Part of function prologue

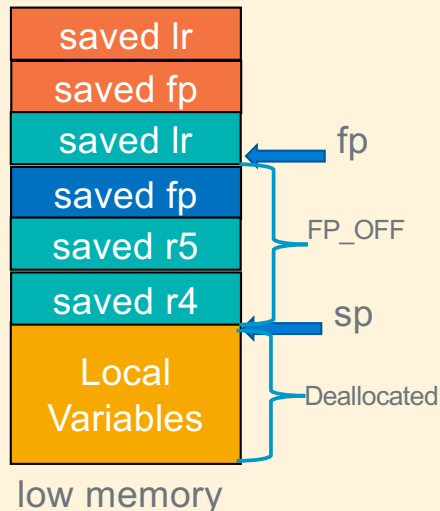
# Function Epilogue: Deallocating the Stack Frame

Stack frame while during function body execution



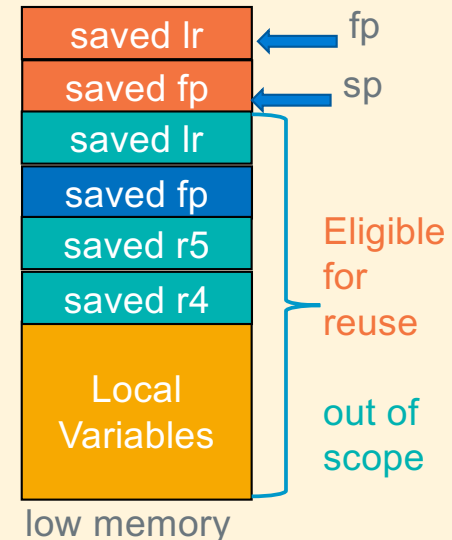
Use fp as a pointer to find local variables on the stack

Deallocate Space for locals  
Put SP back so pop works  
`sub sp, fp, FP_OFF`



Move SP back to where it was after the push in the prologue. So, the pop works properly (this also deallocates the local variables)

At function exit after  
`pop {r4,r5,fp,lr}`



At function exit (in the function epilogue) the function uses **pop** to restore the registers to the values they had at function entry

Part of function epilogue

# Review Return Value and Passing Parameters to Functions

(Four parameters or less)

Register	Function Call Use
r0	1 <sup>st</sup> parameter
r1	2 <sup>nd</sup> parameter
r2	3 <sup>rd</sup> parameter
r3	4 <sup>th</sup> parameter

Register	Function Return Value Use
r0	8, 16 or 32-bit result, 32-bit address or least-significant half of a 64-bit result
r1	most-significant half of a 64-bit result

- Where **r0**, **r1**, **r2**, **r3** are arm registers, the function declaration is (first four arguments):  

```
r0 = function(r0, r1, r2, r3)           // 32-bit return
```

```
r0, r1 = function(r0, r1, r2, r3)      // 64-bit return - long long
```
- Each **parameter** and **return value** is limited to data that **can fit in 4 bytes or less**
- You receive **up to the first four parameters** in these four registers
- You copy up to the first four parameters into these four registers before calling a function
- For parameter values using more than 4 bytes, a pointer to the parameter is passed (we will cover this later)
- You MUST ALWAYS assume** that the called function will **alter the contents of all four registers: r0-r3**
- Observation:** When a function calls another function, **the called function has the right to overwrite the first 4 parameters that were passed to it by the calling function**

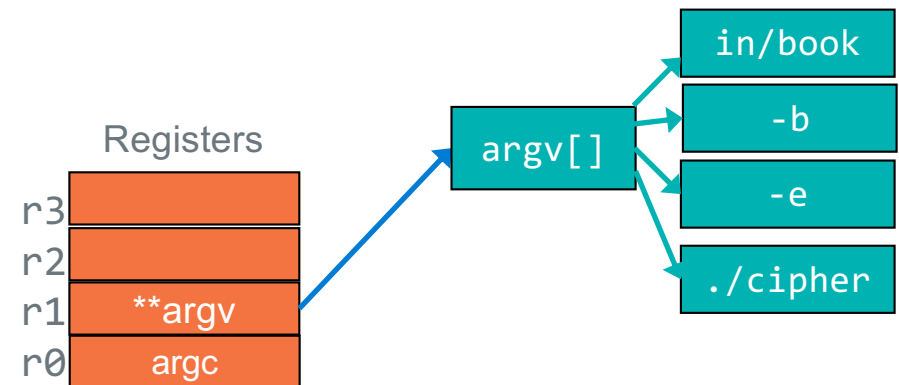
# Accessing argv from Assembly (stderr version)

```
.extern printf
.extern stderr
.section .rodata
.Lstr: .string "argv[%d] = %s\n"
.text
.global main // main(r0=argc, r1=argv)
.type main, %function
.equ FP_OFF, 20

main:
    push    {r4-r7, fp, lr}
    add     fp, sp, FP_OFF
    ldr     r4, =stderr // get the address of stderr
    ldr     r4, [r4]     // get the contents of stderr
    ldr     r5, =.Lstr   // get the address of .Lstr
    mov     r6, 0        // set indx = 0;
    mov     r7, r1       // save argv
.Lloop:
    // fprintf(stderr, "argv[%d] = %s\n", indx, argv[indx])
    ldr     r3, [r7]     // argv[indx]
    cmp     r3, 0        // check argv[indx]==NULL
    beq     .Ldone       // if so done
    mov     r2, r6        // indx
    mov     r1, r5        // "argv[%d] = %s\n"
    mov     r0, r4        // stderr
    bl      fprintf
    add     r6, r6, 1     // indx++
    add     r7, r7, 4     // argv++
    b       .Lloop
.Ldone:
    mov     r0, 0
    sub     sp, fp, FP_OFF
    pop     {r4-r7, fp, lr}
    bx      lr
```

**Function Prologue**  
always at top of function  
saves regs and **sets fp**

```
% ./cipher -e -b in/BOOK
argv[0] = ./cipher
argv[1] = -e
argv[2] = -b
argv[3] = in/BOOK
```



**Function Epilogue**  
always at bottom of function **Branch to this to exit the function**  
**restores regs including the sp**

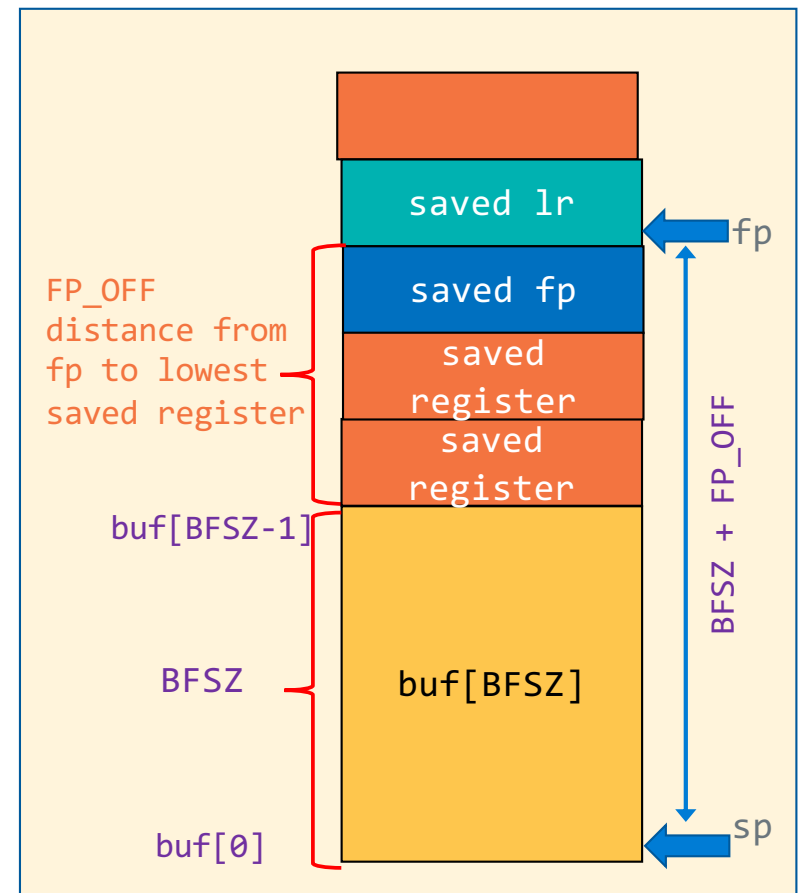
## Local Variables on the Stack

- Local variables are on the stack below the lowest numbered saved register
- frame pointer is used as a pointer to stack variables
- fp is the base register in ldr and str instructions
- Example load buf[0] into r4

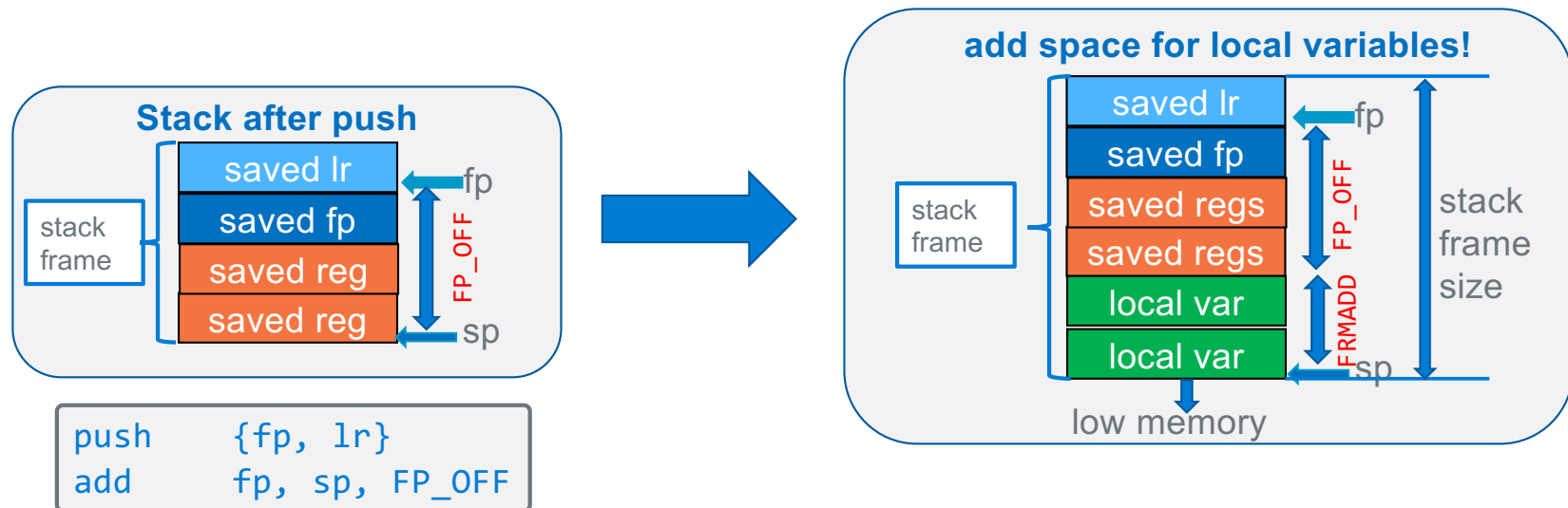
```
#define BFSZ 4
int main(void)
{
    char buf[BFSZ]; // BFSZ bytes
    ...
}
```

- FP\_OFF = 12, BFSZ = 4
  - Distance from FP is buf[0] is  $12 + 4 = 16$
- ```
ldrb r4, [fp, -16]
```

- Calculate how much additional space is needed by all the local variables
- After the register save push, Subtract from the sp the size of the variable in bytes (+ padding - later slides)



## Function prologue with local variables



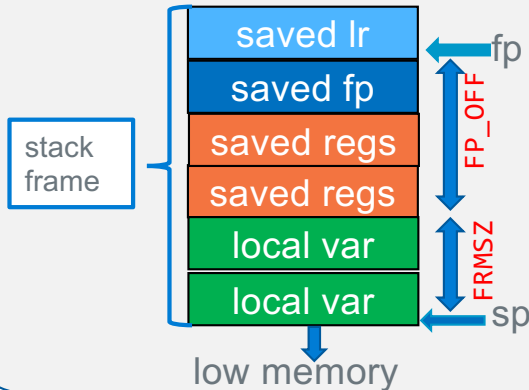
- move the sp to allocate space on the stack for local variables and outgoing parameters (later)

```

.equ    FRMADD, 8
push    {fp, lr}
add     fp, sp, FP_OFF
ldr     r3, =FRMADD // frames may be large
sub     sp, sp, r3
// your code
    
```

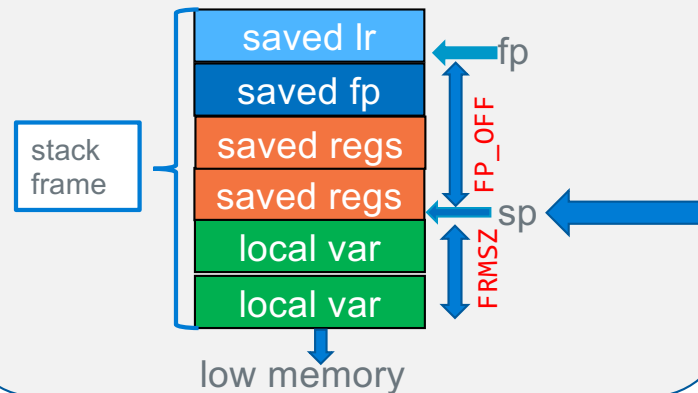
## Function epilogue with local variables

add space for local variables!



- For **pop** to restore the registers correctly:
  - sp** must point at the last saved preserved register put on the stack by the save register operation: the **push**

add space for local variables!



```
.equ    FRMADD, 8
push    {fp, lr}
add     fp, sp, FP_OFF
ldr     r3, =FRMADD
sub     sp, sp, r3
    // your code

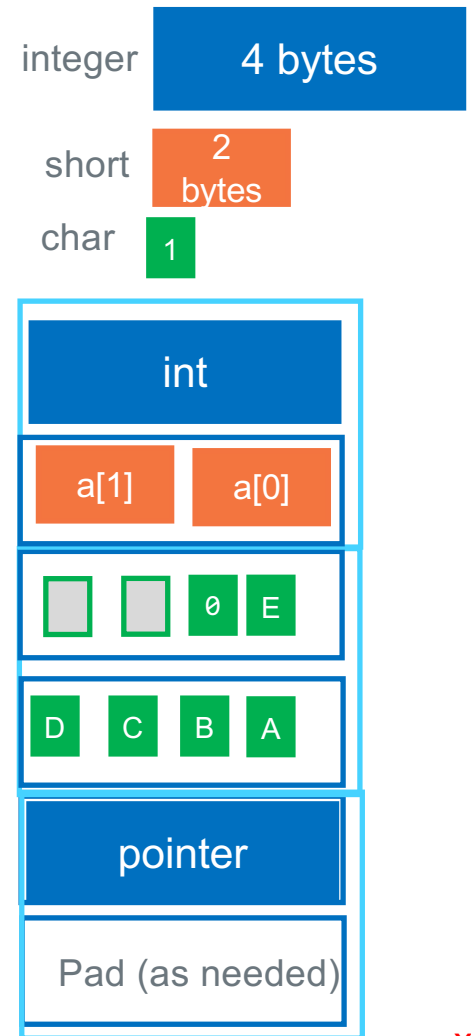
sub     sp, fp, FP_OFF
pop     {fp, lr}

bx      lr // func return
```

- Return the **sp** (using the **fp**) to the same address it had after the push operation  
**sub sp, fp, FP\_OFF**
- this works no matter how much space was allocated in the prologue

# Stack Frame Design – Local Variables

- **Arrays** start at a 4-byte boundary (even arrays with only 1 element)
  - Exception: double arrays [ ] start at an 8-byte boundary
  - struct arrays are aligned to the requirements of largest member
- Space **padding** (0 or 4 bytes) **when necessary** is added at the **high address end** of a variables allocated space, based on the variable's alignment and the requirements of **variable below it on the stack**
- Single chars (and shorts) can be grouped together in same 4-byte word (following the alignment for the short)
- **After all the variables have been allocated**, add padding at stack **frame bottom** (low memory) so the **total stack frame size** (including all saved registers) is a **multiple of 8** when the prologue is finished





## Step 2 Generate Distance offsets from [fp]

- Use the assembler to calculate the **distance** from the address contained in fp [fp, -offset]

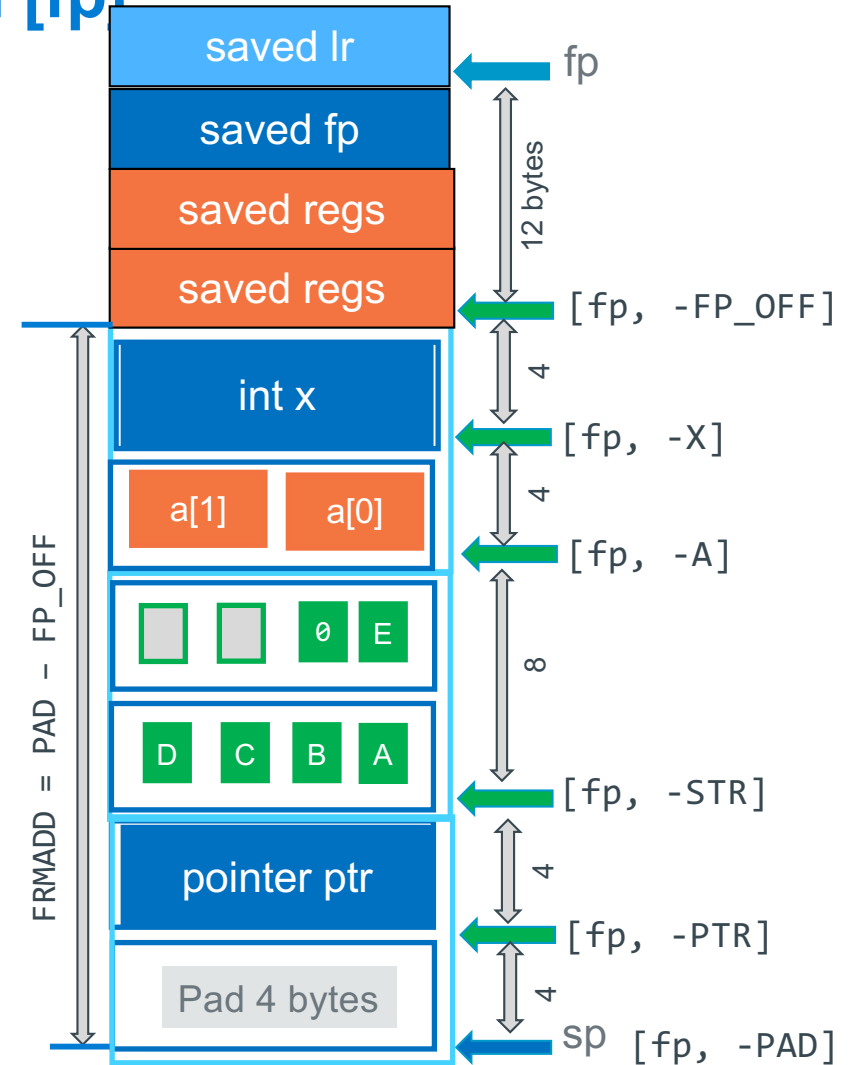
```
.equ FP_OFF, 12
```

```
.equ X, 4+FP_OFF // X = 16
```

```
.equ A, 4+X      // A = 20
```

- Assign label names for each local variable
  - Each name is .equ to be the offset from fp

| Variable name | Size | Name   | expression<br>size + prev | Distance<br>from fp |
|---------------|------|--------|---------------------------|---------------------|
| Pushed regs-1 | 12   | FP_OFF |                           | 12                  |
| int x         | 4    | X      | 4 + FP_OFF                | 16                  |
| short a[]     | 4    | A      | 4 + X                     | 20                  |
| char str[]    | 8    | STR    | 8 + A                     | 28                  |
| char *ptr     | 4    | PTR    | 4 + STR                   | 32                  |
| PAD Added     | 4    | PAD    | 4 + PTR                   | 36                  |
| FRMADD        |      | FRMADD | PAD-FP_OFF                | 24                  |

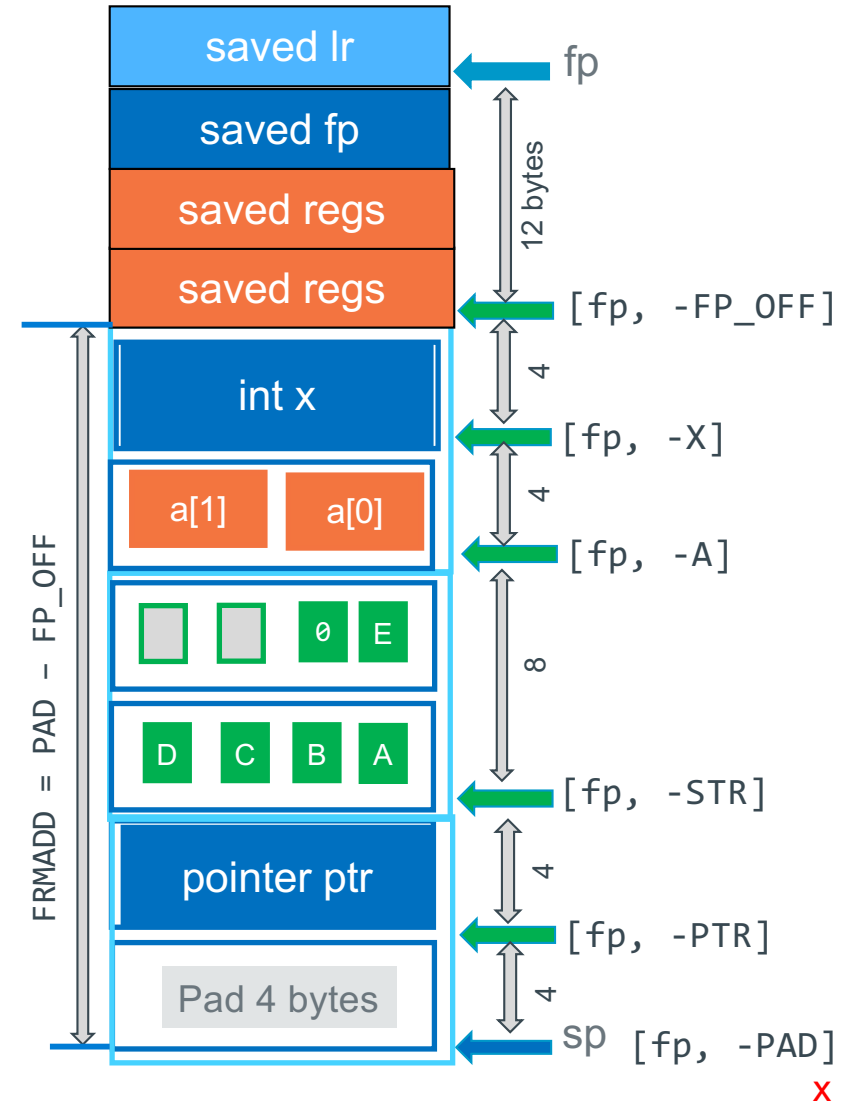


## Step 3 Allocate Space in the Prologue

```

.global func
.type func, %function
.equ FP_OFF, 12
.equ X, 4 + FP_OFF
.equ A, 4 + X
.equ STR, 8 + A
.equ PTR, 4 + STR
.equ PAD, 4 + PTR
.equ FRMADD, PAD - FP_OFF

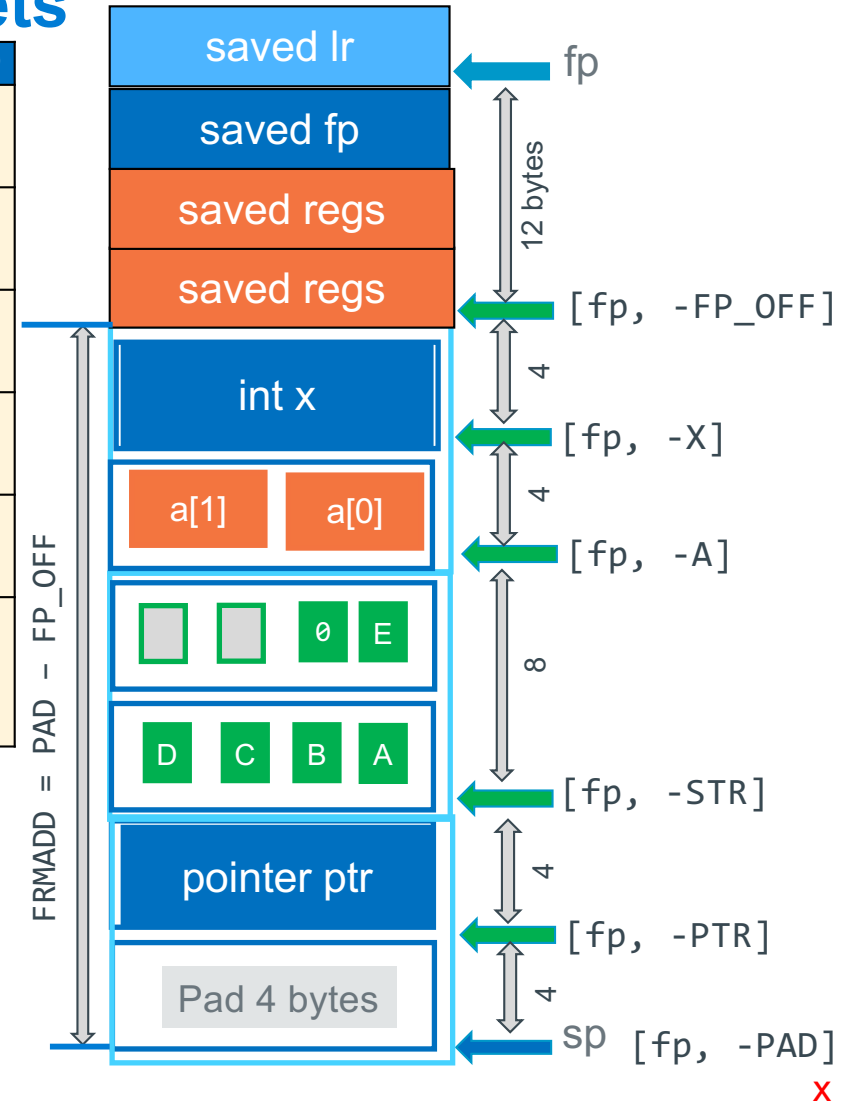
func:
    push    {r4, r5, fp, lr}
    add     fp, sp, FP_OFF
    ldr     r3, =FRMADD //frames can be large
    sub     sp, sp, r3 // add space for locals
    // rest of function code
    // no change to epilogue
    sub     sp, fp, FP_OFF // deallocate locals
    pop     {r4, r5, fp, lr}
    bx     lr
    .size   func, (. - func)
    
```



# Accessing Stack using distance offsets

| var    | stack variable address into r0                 | stack variable contents into r0                   |
|--------|------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------|
| x      | ldr r0, =X<br>sub r0, fp, r0                   | ldr r0, =X<br>ldr r0, [fp, -r0]                   |
| a[0]   | ldr r0, =A<br>sub r0, fp, r0                   | ldr r0, =A<br>ldrsh r0, [fp, -r0]                 |
| a[1]   | ldr r0, =A - 2<br>sub r0, fp, r0               | ldr r0, =A - 2<br>ldrsh r0, [fp, -r0]             |
| str[1] | ldr r0, =STR - 1<br>sub r0, fp, r0             | ldr r0, =STR - 1<br>ldrb r0, [fp, -r0]            |
| ptr    | ldr r0, =PTR<br>sub r0, fp, r0                 | ldr r0, =PTR<br>ldr r0, [fp, -r0]                 |
| *ptr   | ldr r0, =PTR<br>sub r0, fp, r0<br>ldr r0, [r0] | ldr r0, =PTR<br>ldr r0, [fp, -r0]<br>ldr r0, [r0] |

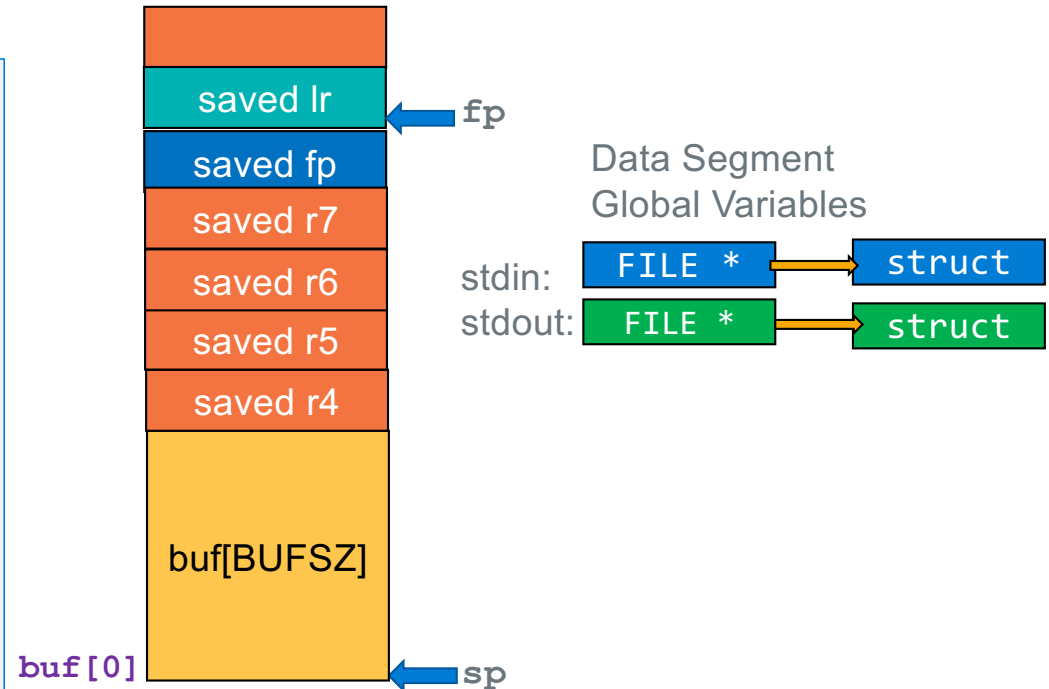
| var  | write contents of r0 to stack variable            |
|------|---------------------------------------------------|
| ptr  | ldr r1, =PTR<br>str r0, [fp, -r1]                 |
| *ptr | ldr r1, =PTR<br>ldr r1, [fp, -r1]<br>str r0, [r1] |



# Passing Pointers to Stack Variables

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <errno.h>
#define BUFSZ 4096
// copies input to output
int
main(void) {
    char buf[BUFSZ];
    size_t cnt;    // assign to a register only

    // read from stdin, up to BUFSZ bytes
    // and store them in buf
    // Number of bytes read is in cnt
    while ((cnt = fread(buf, 1, BUFSZ, stdin)) > 0) {
        // write cnt bytes from buf to stdout
        if (fwrite(buf, 1, cnt, stdout) != cnt) {
            return EXIT_FAILURE;
        }
    }
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

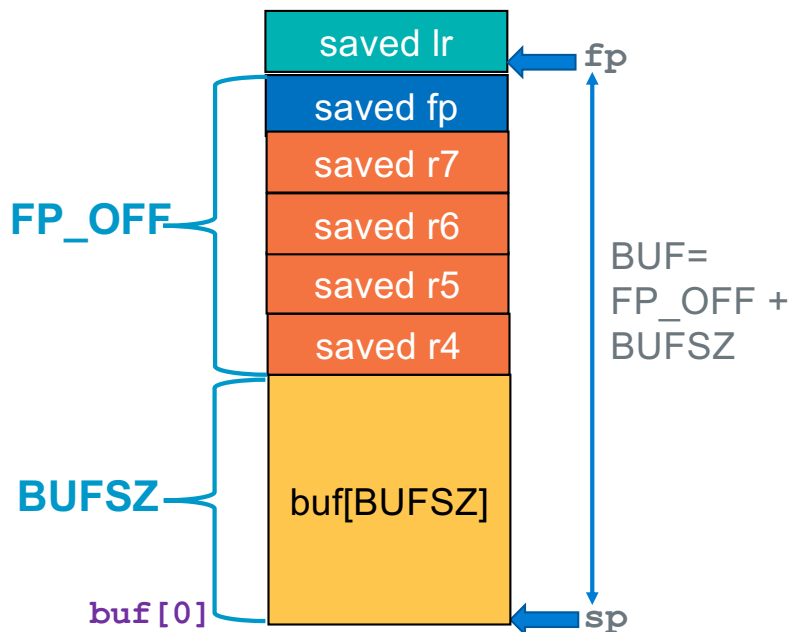


```
.text
.global main
.type    main, %function    // stack frame below
.equ     BUFSZ,             4096
.equ     FP_OFF,            20    // fp offset in main stack frame
.equ     BUF,               BUFSZ+FP_OFF // buffer
.equ     PAD,               0+BUF    // Stack frame PAD
.equ     FRMADD,            PAD-FP_OFF // space for locals+passed args
```

# Reading and Writing bytes using C library routines fread() and fwrite()

```
.text
.global main
.type main, %function // stack frame below, distances from fp
.equ BUFSZ, 4096
.equ FP_OFF, 20 // fp offset in main stack frame
.equ BUF, BUFSZ+FP_OFF // buffer
.equ PAD, 0+BUF // Stack frame PAD
.equ FRMADD, PAD-FP_OFF // space for locals+passed args
```

```
// save values in preserved registers
ldr r4, =BUF // distance from fp
sub r4, fp, r4 // pointer to buffer
ldr r5, =stdin // standard input global
ldr r5, [r5]
ldr r6, =stdout // standard output global
ldr r6, [r6]
```



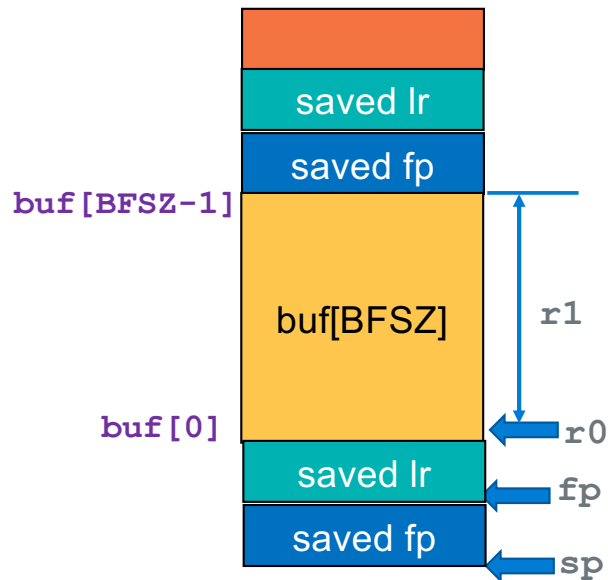
```
// fread(buffer, element_size, number of elements, FILE *)
// fread(r0=buf, r1=1, r2=BUFSZ, r3=stdin)
mov r0, r4 // buf
mov r1, 1 // bytes
mov r2, BUFSZ // cnt (or ldr r2, =BUFSZ)
mov r3, r5 // stdin
bl fread
cmp r0, 0 // check return value from fread
```

```
// fwrite(buffer, element_size, number of elements, FILE *)
// fwrite(r0=buf, r1=1, r2=cnt, r3=stdout)
mov r0, r4 // buf
mov r1, 1 // bytes
mov r2, r7 // cnt
mov r3, r6 // stdout
bl fwrite
cmp r0, r7 // check return value from fwrite
```

## Writing Function: Receiving a Pointer Parameter - 2

```
void fillbuf(char *s, int len, char fill)
{
    char *enptr = s + len;
    while (s < enptr)
        *(s++) = fill;
}
```

Using r1 for endptr



```
fillbuf:
    push    {fp, lr}           // stack frame
    add     fp, sp, FP_OFF     // set fp to base

    add     r1, r1, r0         // copy up to r1 = bufpt + cnt
    cmp     r0, r1             // are there any chars to fill?
    bge     .Ldone             // nope we are done

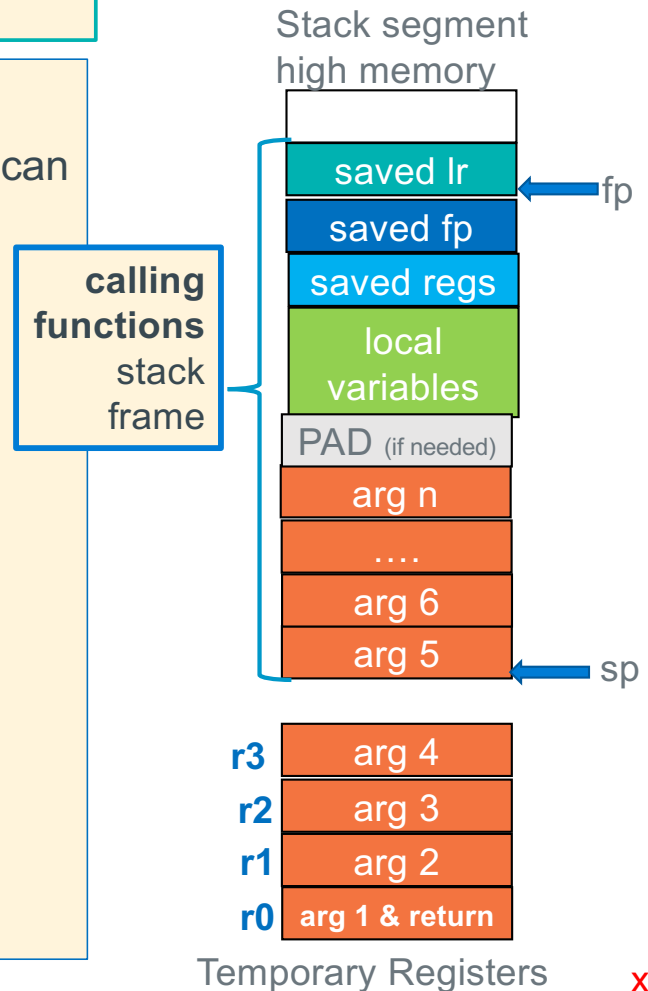
.Ldowhile:
    strb    r2, [r0]           // store the char in the buffer
    add     r0, 1              // point to next char
    cmp     r0, r1             // have we reached the end?
    blt     .Ldowhile          // if not continue to fill

.Ldone:
    sub     sp, fp, FP_OFF     // restore stack frame top
    pop     {fp, lr}           // restore registers
    bx      lr                 // return to caller
```

## Passing More Than Four Arguments – At the point of Call

```
r0 = function(r0, r1, r2, r3, arg5, arg6, ... argn)
      arg1, arg2, arg3, arg4, ...
```

- **Args > 4 are in the caller's stack frame at SP (argv5), an up**
- Called functions have the right to change stack args just like they can change the register args!
  - Caller must assume **all args including ones on the stack** are changed by the caller
- Calling function prior to making the call
  1. Evaluate **first four args**: place resulting **values in r0-r3**
  2. Store Arg 5 and greater parameter values on the stack
- **One arg value per slot!** – NO arrays across multiple slots
  - chars, shorts and ints are directly stored
  - Structs (not always), and arrays are passed via a pointer
  - **Pointers** passed as **output parameters** usually contain an **address that points at** the **stack, BSS, data, or heap**



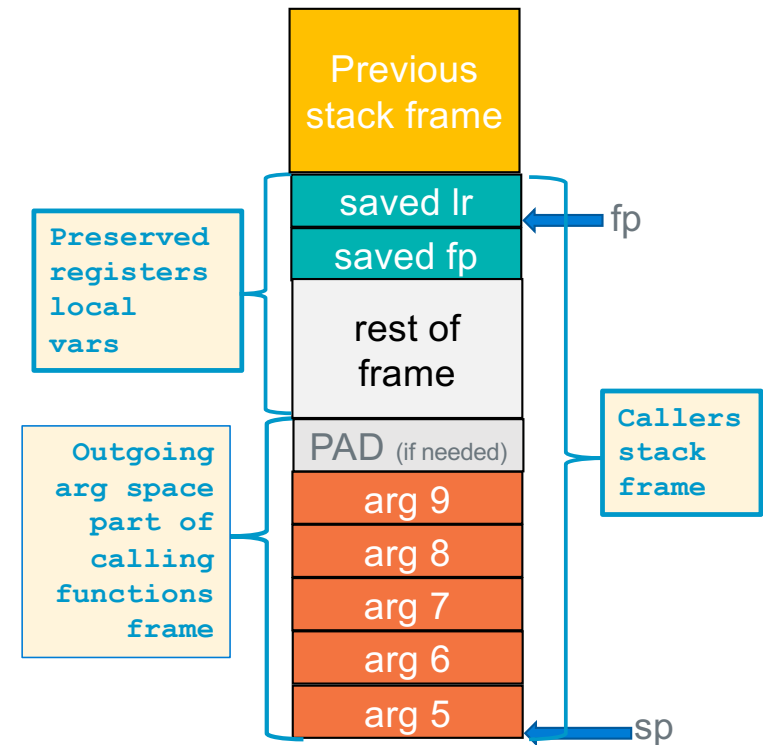
## Calling Function: Allocating Stack Parameter Space

At the point of a function call (and obviously at the start of the called function):

1. sp must point at arg5
2. arg5 must be at an 8-byte boundary,
  - a) padding to force arg5 alignment is placed above the last argument the called function is expecting

**Approach:** Extend the stack frame to include enough space for stack arguments function with the greatest arg count

1. Examine every function call in the body of a function
2. Find the function call with greatest arg count, Determines space needed for outgoing args
3. Add the space needed to the frame layout



### Rules: At point of call

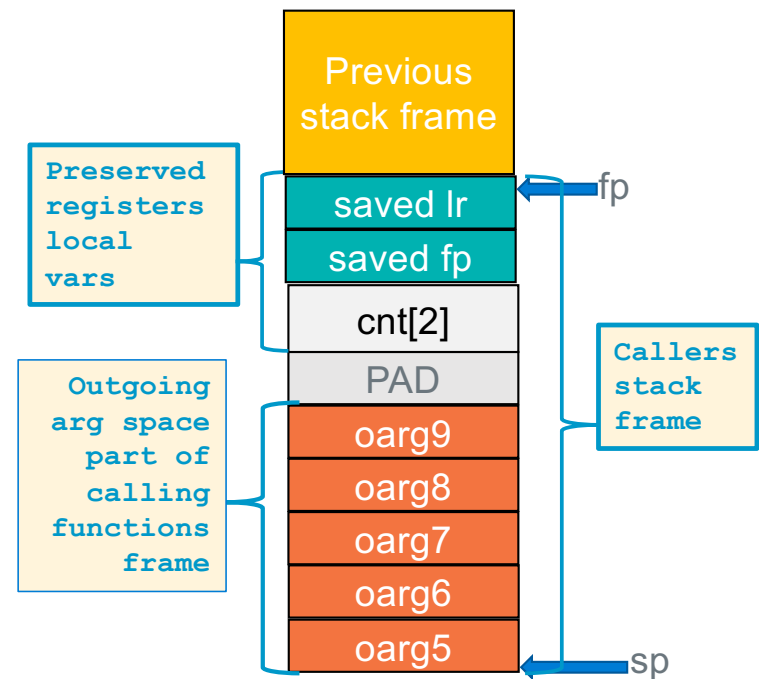
1. arg5 must be pointed at by sp
2. SP must be 8-byte aligned



## Calling Function: Pass ARGS 5 and higher

```
.equ    FP_OFF, 4
.equ    CNT,      8 + FP_OFF      // int cnt[2];
.equ    PAD,      4 + CNT        // added as needed
.equ    OARG9,    4 + PAD
.equ    OARG8,    4 + OARG9
.equ    OARG7,    4 + OARG8
.equ    OARG6,    4 + OARG7
.equ    OARG5,    4 + OARG6
.equ    FRMADD    OARG5 - FP_OFF
```

| var          | write contents                                                                                                                       |
|--------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| OARG5 = r1   | ldr    r0, =OARG5      //distance<br>str    r1, [fp, -r0]                                                                            |
| OARG6 = &cnt | ldr    r2, =CNT        //distance<br>sub    r2, fp, r2      // &cnt<br><br>ldr    r0, =OARG6      //distance<br>str    r2, [fp, -r0] |



### Rules: At point of call

1. arg5 must be pointed at by sp
2. SP must be 8-byte aligned

## Called Function: Retrieving Args From the Stack

- At function start and before the push{} the sp is at an 8-byte boundary
- Args are in the caller's stack frame and arg 5 always starts at fp+4
  - Additional args are higher up the stack, with one "slot" every 4-bytes
- This "algorithm" for finding args was designed to enable variable arg count functions like printf("conversion list", arg0, ... argn);

```
int func(int a1, int a2, int a3, int a4,
        short a5, int a6, char a7, int a8, int a9)
```

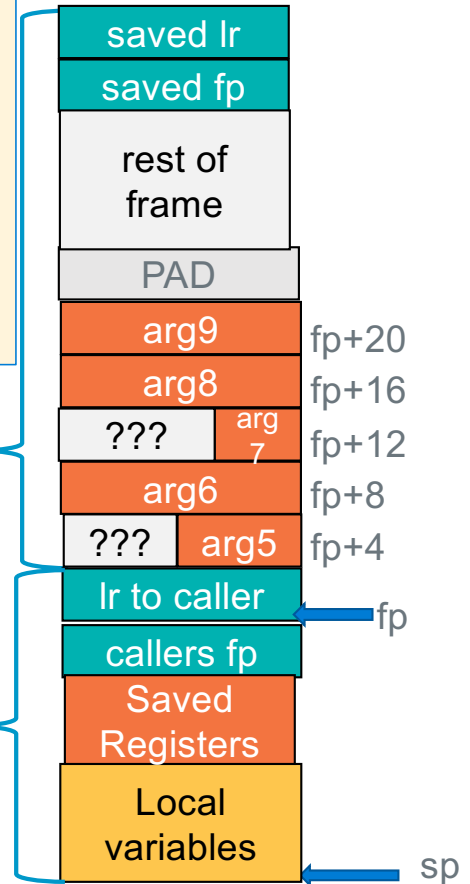
| Constant | Offset  | arm ldr /str statement |
|----------|---------|------------------------|
| ARGN     | (N-4)*4 | ldr r4, [fp, ARGN]     |
| ARG9     | 20      | ldr r4, [fp, ARG9]     |
| ARG8     | 16      | ldr r4, [fp, ARG8]     |
| ARG7     | 12      | ldrb r4, [fp, ARG7]    |
| ARG6     | 8       | ldr r4, [fp, ARG6]     |
| ARG5     | 4       | ldrh r4, [fp, ARG5]    |

### Callers Stack frame

no defined limit to number of args, keep going up stack 4 bytes at a time

```
.equ ARG9, 20
.equ ARG8, 16
.equ ARG7, 12
.equ ARG6, 8
.equ ARG5, 4
```

### Current Stack Frame



**Rule: Called functions always access stack parameters using a positive offset to the fp**