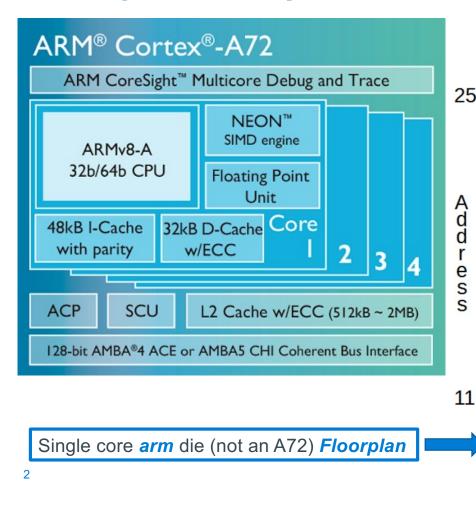
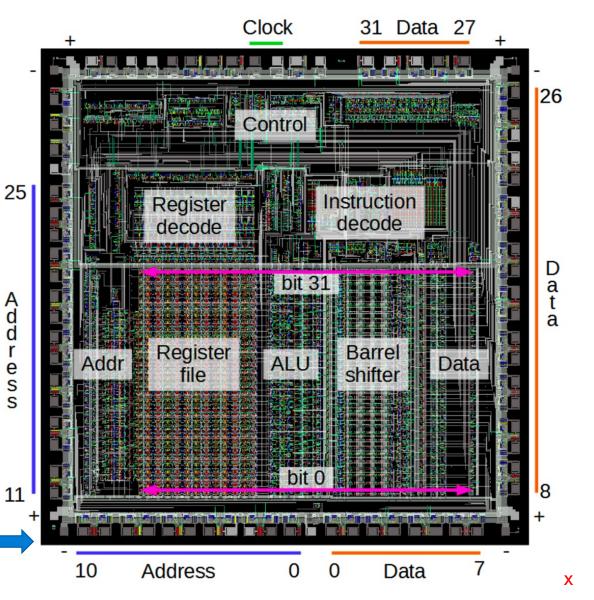


Arm Core Organization & Floorplan Examples





Memory Triangle: Hardware Cost/Performance/Capacity Tiers

Goal: keep most Data Accesses high in the Triangle

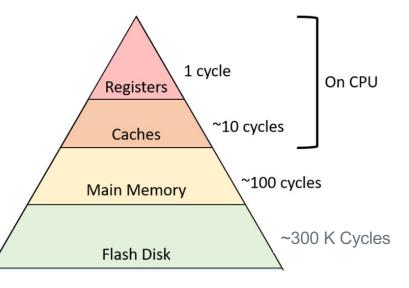
- Smallest Capacity
- 2. Highest Performance

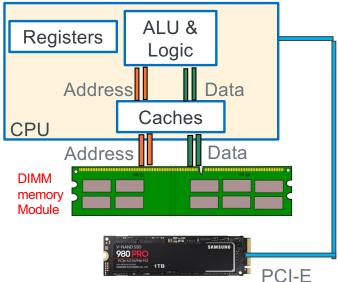
3. Highest cost/capacity



- 1. Largest Capacity
- 2. Slowest performance
- Lowest Cost \$/capacity/

Assume 1 clock cycle per machine instruction





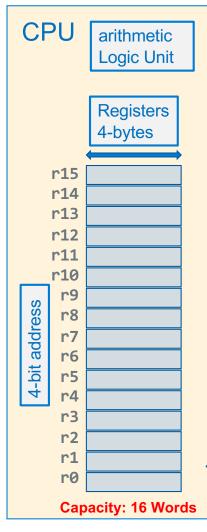
X

Clock cycle =~ time to access; larger is slower

Design Tradeoff: Based on workload considering cost and performance targets

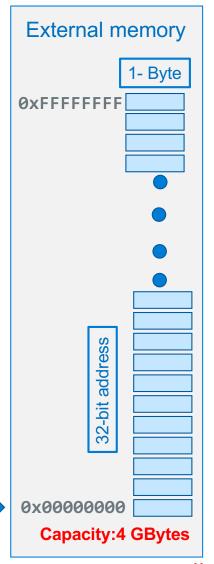
3 Source: Dive Into Systems Text

32-Bit Arm - Registers

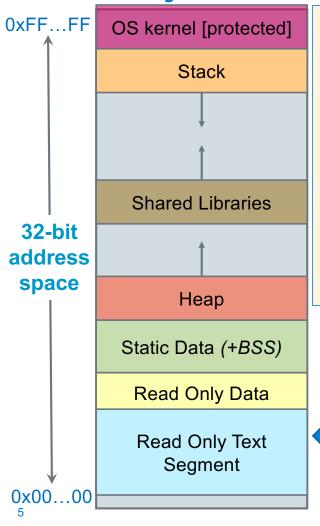


- Registers are memory located within the CPU
- Registers are the <u>fastest</u> read and write storage
- Register is word size in length stores 32-bit values
 - Memory is accessed using pointers in registers
- In assembly language the registers have predefined names starting with an r to differentiate them from memory addresses which are labels (address)
- 16 registers: from r0 to r15 (encoded: 0x0 0xf)

CPU Memory Bus = Address + Data



Assembly and Machine Code



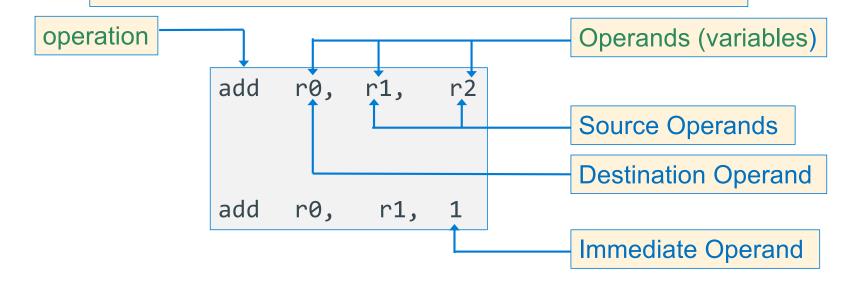
- Machine Language (or code): Set of instructions the CPU executes are encoded in memory using patterns of ones and zeros (like binary numbers)
- Assembly language is a symbolic version of the machine language
- Each assembly statement (called an Instruction)
 - Executes exactly one from a list of simple commands
 - Instructions describe operations (e.g., =, +, -, *)
 - Execution goes low to high memory one instruction at a time unless there is a branch
- One line of arm32 machine code contains one instruction in one word (32 bits)
- Assembler (gnu as)
 - (1) translates assembly to machine code
 - (2) Generates the contents of: text, read only data, and static data memory sections

Memory Address	word (4-bytes) contents	Assembly Language
1040c:	e28db004	add fp, sp, 4
10410:	e59f0010	lachine ldr r0, [pc, 16]
10414:		bl 102e8 <printf></printf>
10418:	e3a00000	mov r0, 0
1041c:	e24bd004	sub sp, fp, 4

high <- low bytes

Anatomy of an Assembly instruction

- Assembly language instructions specify an operation and the operands to the instruction (arguments of the operation)
- Three basic types of operands
 - Destination: where the result will be stored
 - Source: where data is read from
 - Immediate: an actual value like the 1 in y = x + 1



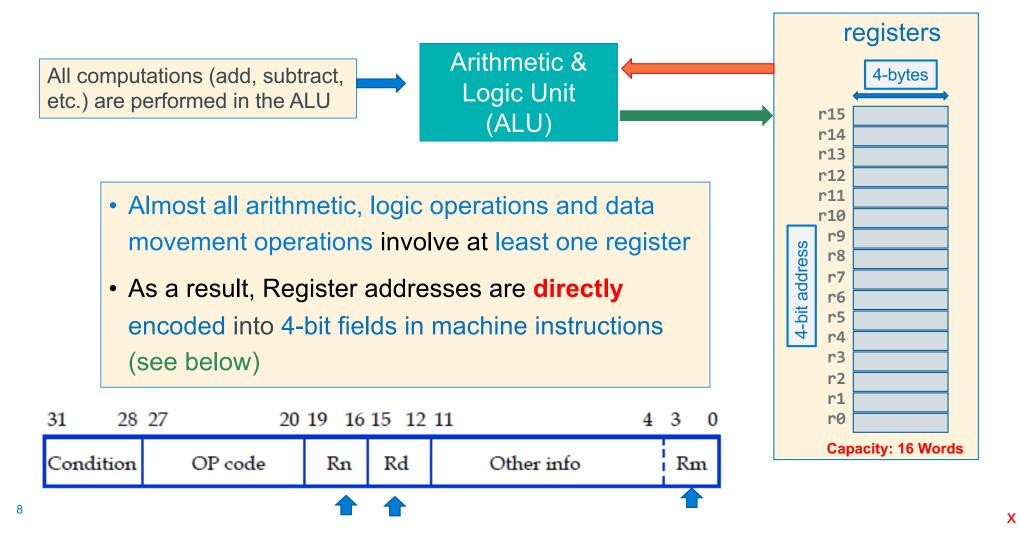
Meaning of an Instruction

- Operations are abbreviated int opcodes (1– 5 letters)
- Assembly Instructions are specified with a very regular syntax
 - Opcodes are followed by arguments
 - Usually the destination argument is next, then one or more source arguments (this is not strictly the case, but it is generally true)
- Why this order?
- Analogy to C or Java

```
int r0, r1, r2;
r0 = r1 + r2; // c
```

```
r0 = r1 + r2
add r0, r1, r2 // assembly
```

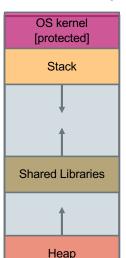
32-Bit Arm - Registers



Program Execution: A Series of Instructions

• Instructions are **retrieved sequentially** from memory

Main Memory



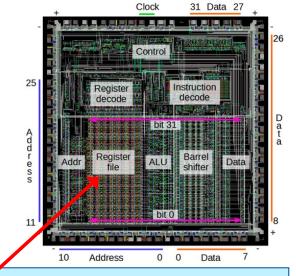
Static Data (+BSS)

Read Only Data

Read Only Text

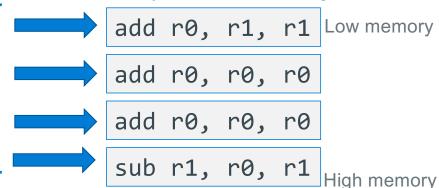
Segment

- Each instruction executes to completion before the next instruction is completed
- Conceptually the pc (program counter) points at executing instruction
- exceptions: loops, function calls, traps,...



initial values

Memory Content in Text segment



Register contents inside the CPU

$$r0 = 1 r1 = 2$$

$$r0 = 4 r1 = 2$$

$$r0 = 8 r1 = 2$$

$$r0 = 16 r1 = 2$$

$$r0 = 16 \ r1 = 14$$

Program Execution: Looping in the Execution Flow

- Repeat the series of instructions in a loop means altering the flow of execution
- This is used with if statements and loops
- Below is an infinite loop (br instruction: unconditional branch: "goto"

the address of this instruction has the name .Lloop

Infinite loop C
do {
 r0 = r1 + r1;
 r0 = r0 + r0;
 r0 = r0 + r0;
 r1 = r0 - r1;
} while(1);

7	.Lloop:	add	r0,	r1,	r1
,		add	r0,	r0,	r0
		add	r0,	r0,	r0
		sub	r1,	r0,	r1
		br	.Llo	ор	

$$r0 = 1 r1 = 2$$

$$r0 = 4 r1 = 2$$

$$r0 = 8 r1 = 2$$

$$r0 = 16 \ r1 = 2$$

$$r0 = 16 \ r1 = 14$$

branch to the instruction at memory location with the label: .Lloop

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

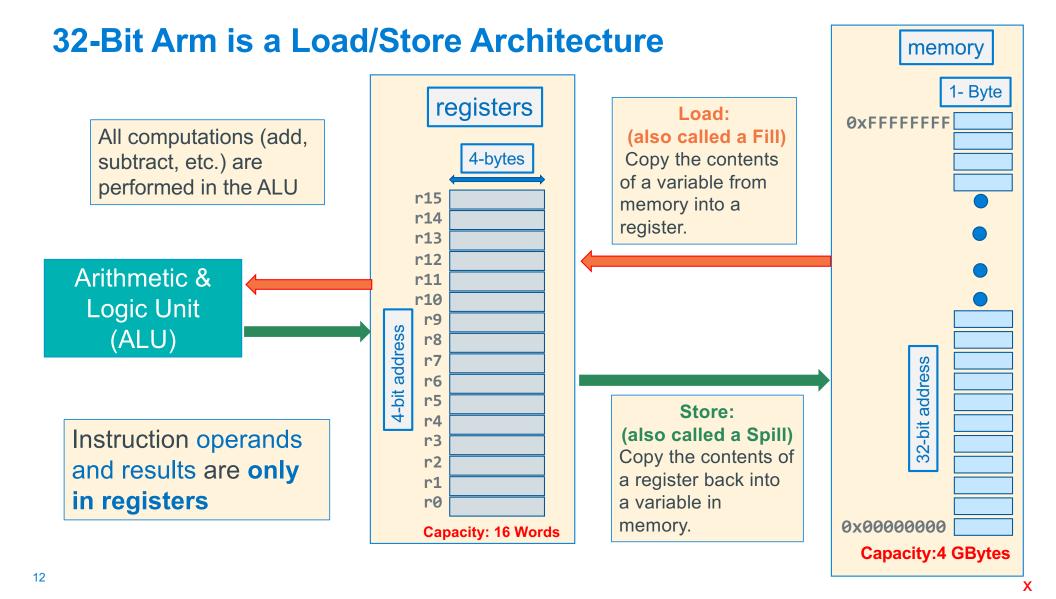


0xFF...FF OS kernel [protected] Stack **Shared Libraries Address** Heap Static Data (+BSS) Read Only Data Read Only Text Segment 0x00...00

32-bit

space

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



Using Registers as Pointers to Memory - Load

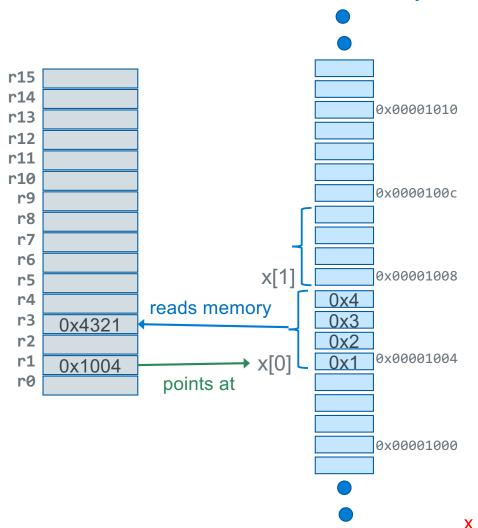
External memory

```
We want to do a x[1] = x[0]
We have to do this in two steps
int r3;
int x[2];
int *r1 = &x; // r1 contains address
r3 = *(r1); // memory to register
*(r1 + 1) = r3; // register to memory
```

```
Load register from memory (read)
ldr r3, [r1, 0]
address = r1 + 0 = 0x1004
```

The [] around the operands is like the * dereference op

we will cover this instruction in more detail later



Using Registers as Pointers to Memory - Store

External memory

```
We want to do a x[1] = x[0]
We have to do this in two steps

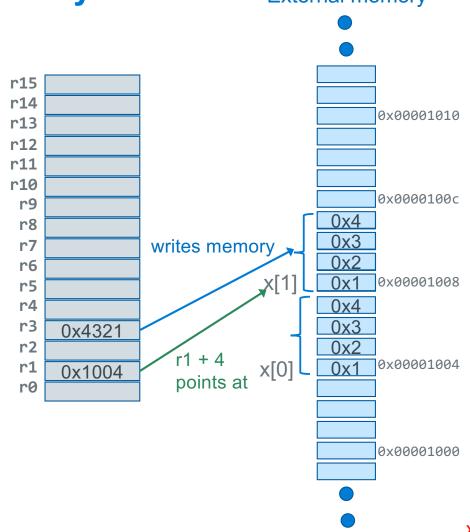
int r3;
int x[2];
int *r1 = &x;  // r1 contains address
...
r3 = *(r1);  // memory to register
*(r1 + 1) = r3;  // register to memory
```

```
Store register to memory (write) str r3, [r1, 4]

address = r1 + 4 = 0x1008
```

The [] around the operands is like the * dereference op

We will cover this instruction in more detail later



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

Using Aarch32 Registers

- There are two basic groups of registers, general purpose and special use
- General purpose registers can be used to contain up to 32-bits of data, but you must follow the rules for their use
 - Rules specify how registers are to be used so software can communicate and share the use of registers (later slides)
- Special purpose registers: dedicated hardware use (like r15 the pc) or special use when used with certain instructions (like r13 & r14)
- r15/pc is the program counter that contains the address of an instruction being executed (not exactly ... later)

Special Use Registers program counter

r15/pc

Special Use Registers function call implementation & long branching

r14/lr r13/sp r12/ip

r11/fp

r10

Preserved registers
Called functions can't change

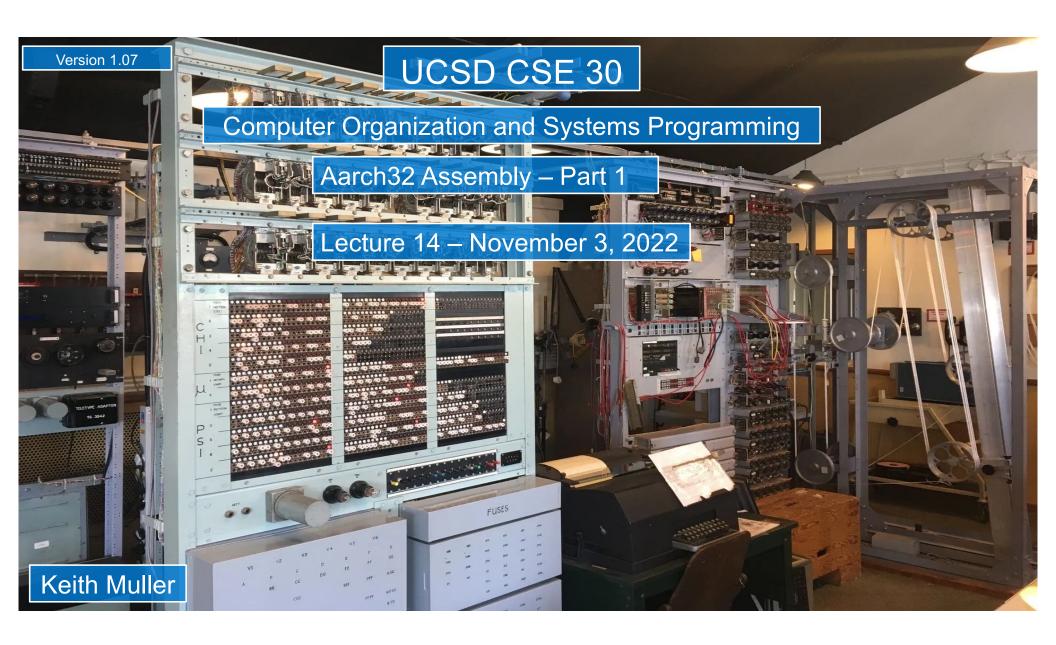
r8 r7 r6

r5

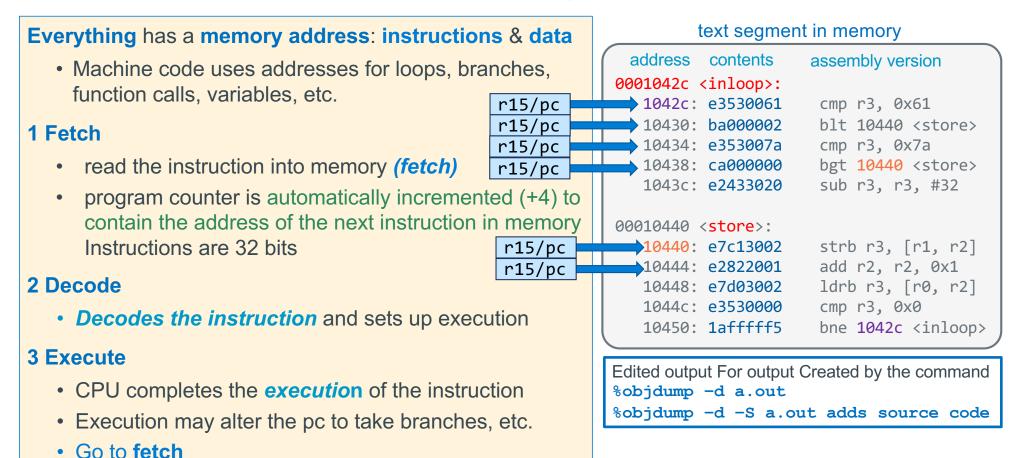
r4

Scratch Registers
First 4 Function Parameters
Function return value
Called functions can change

r3 r2 r1 r0



CPU Operational Overview: Executing Machine Code

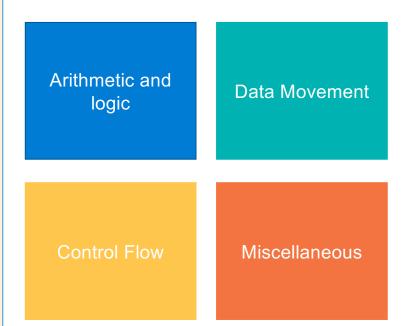


18

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AArch32 Instruction Categories

- Data movement to/from memory
 - Data Transfer Instructions between memory and registers
 - Load, Store
- Arithmetic and logic
 - Data processing Instructions (registers only)
 - Add, Subtract, Multiply, Shift, Rotate, ...
- Control Flow
 - · Compare, Test, If-then, Branch, function calls
- Miscellaneous
 - Traps (OS system calls), Breakpoints, wait for events, interrupt enable/disable, data memory barrier, data synchronization barrier
 - Many others that we will not cover in the class



X

19

First Look: Copying Values To Registers - MOV

```
mov r0, r1

// Copies all 32 bits
// of the value held
// in register r1 into
// the register r0
register direct "addressing"

register r1

register r1

register r1

register r1

register r1

register r1

register r1
```

```
mov r0, 100

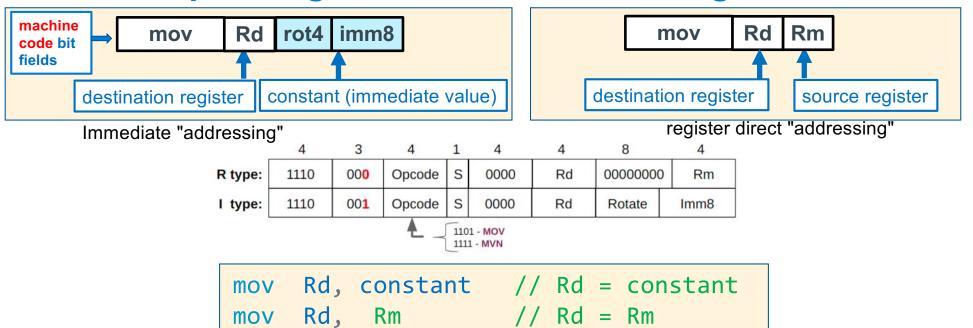
// Expands an imm8 value 100
// stored in the instruction
// into the register r0

Immediate "addressing"

100

register r0
```

mov – Copies Register Content between registers



First Look: Add/Sub Registers

```
add r0, r1, r2 register r1 + register r2

// Adds r1 to r2 and
// stores the result
// in r0

register r1

register r1

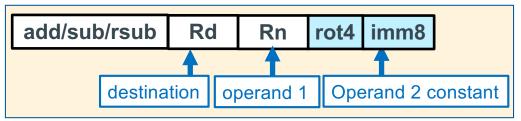
register r2
```

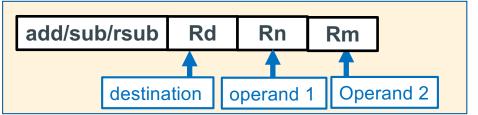
```
sub r0, r1, 100 register r1 - 100

// Perform r1 - 100 and
// stores the result in
// r0

register r0
```

add/sub/rsub – Add or Subtract two integers





```
add Rd, Rn, constant // Rd = Rn + constant

sub Rd, Rn, constant // Rd = Rn - constant

rsub Rd, Rn, constant // Rd = constant - Rn

add Rd, Rn, Rm // Rd = Rn + Rm

sub Rd, Rn, Rm // Rd = Rn - Rm

rsub Rd, Rn, Rm // Rd = Rm - Rn
```

```
mov r5, 5 // r5 = 5
mov r7, 7 // r7 = 7
add r7, r7, r5 // r7 = 12 r5 = 5
```

```
add r1, r2, r3 // r1 = r2 + r3

sub r1, r1, 1 // r1 = r1 - 1; or r1--

add r1, r2, 234 // r1 = r2 + 234
```

Writing a Sequence of Add & Subtract Instructions

 You need to perform the following sequence of integer adds/subtracts

$$a = b + c + d - e;$$

- Since ARM uses a three-operand instruction set, you can only operate on two operands at a time
- So, you need to use one register as an accumulator and create a sequence of add instructions to build up the solution

```
  \begin{array}{cccc}
    r0 & \leftarrow & a \\
    r1 & \leftarrow & b \\
    r2 & \leftarrow & c \\
    r3 & \leftarrow & d \\
    r4 & \leftarrow & e
  \end{array}
```

```
a = b + c + d - e;
r0 = r1 + r2 + r3 - r4;
r0 = ((r1 + r2) + r3) - r4;
r0 = r1 + r2;
r0 = r0 + r3
r0 = r0 - r4
```

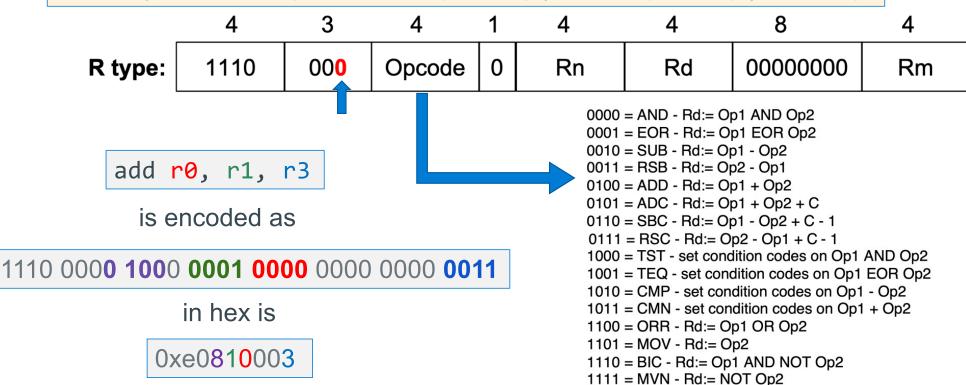
$$a = (b + c) - 5;$$

 $r0 = (r1 + r2) - 5;$

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)

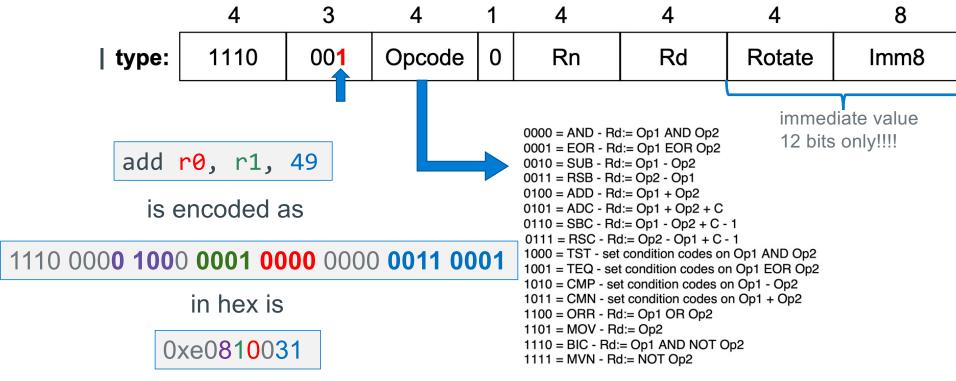
opcode Rd (destination), Rn (operand 1), Rm (operand 2)



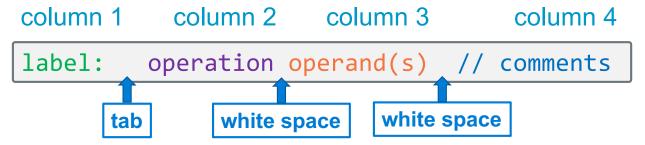
I (immediate) Type Data Processing: Machine Code

- Instructions that process data using two registers and a constant (in the instruction)
- The general instruction format is (not all fields will be in every instruction)

opcode Rd (destination), Rn (operand 1), constant



Overview: Line Layout in an Arm Assembly Source File - 1



- Assembly language source text files are line oriented (each ending in a '\n')
- Each line represents a starting address in memory and does one of:
 - 1. Specifies the contents of memory for a variable (segments containing data)
 - 2. Specifies the contents of memory for an instruction (text segment)
 - 3. Assembler directives tell the assembler to do something (for example, change label scope, define a macro, etc.) that does not allocate memory
- Each line is organized into up to four columns
 - Not every column is used on each line
 - Not every line will result in memory being allocated

Overview: Line Layout in an Arm Assembly Source File - 2

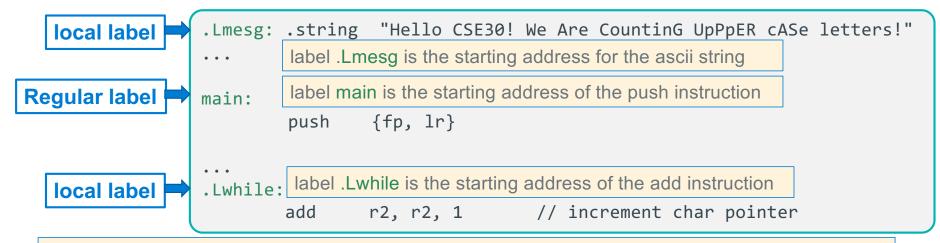
```
label: operation operand(s) // comment

// assembler directive below
cnt: .word 5 /* define a global int cnt = 5; */

/* instruction example below */
add r1 r2, r3 // add the values
```

- 1. Labels (optional); starts in column 1
 - Only put a label on a line when you need to associate a name (a global variable, a function name, a loop/ branch target, etc.) to that lines location in memory
 - You then refer to the address by name in an instruction
- 2. Operation type 1: assembler directives (all start with a period e.g. .word)
- 3. Operation Type 2: assembly language instructions
- 4. Zero or more operands as required by the instruction or assembler directive
- 5. Comments: C and C++ style; also @ in the place of a C++ comment //

Labels in Arm Assembly



- Remember, a Label associates a name with memory location
- Regular Label:
 - Used with a Function name (label) or all static variables in any of the data segments
- Local Label: Name starts with .L (local label prefix) only usable in the same file
 - 1. Targets for
 - a) branches: if switch, goto, break, continue,
 - b) loops: for, while, do-while
 - 2. Anonymous variables (the address of string not the address of foo in the following) char *foo = "anonymous variable"

Assembler Directives: Label Scope Control (Normal Labels only)

```
.extern printf
.extern fgets
.extern strcpy
.global fbuf
```

.extern <label>

- Imports label (function name, symbol or a static variable name);
- An address associated with the label from another file can be used by code in this file

.global <label>

- Exports label (or symbol) to be visible outside the source file boundary (other assembly or c source)
- label is either a function name or a global variable name
- Without .global, by default labels are local to the file from the point where they are defined

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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>
```

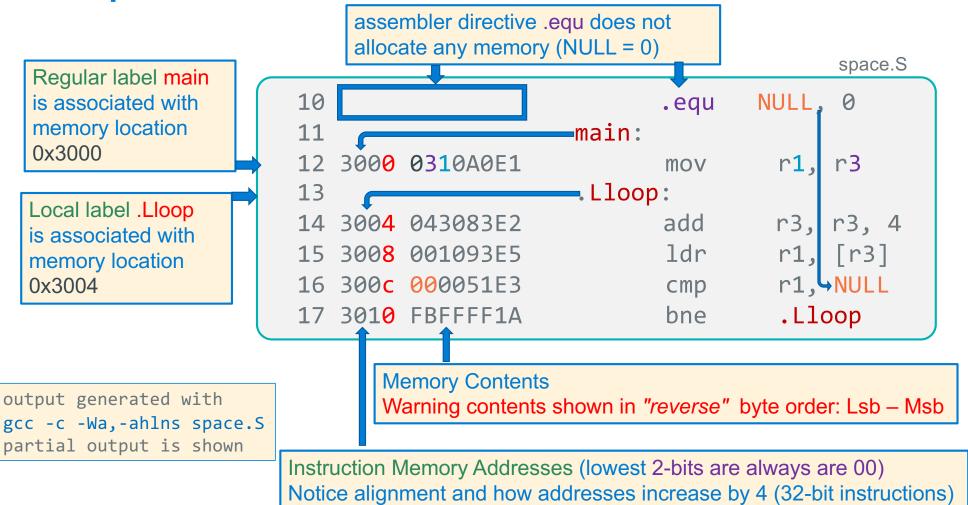
- Defines and sets the value of a symbol to the evaluation of the expression
- Used for specifying constants, like a #define in C
- You can (re)set a symbol many times in the file, last one seen applies

```
.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

Example: Assembler Directive and Instructions



32

Unconditional Branching – Forces Execution to Continue at a Specified Label (goto)

b imm24

Unconditional Branch instruction (branch to only local labels in CSE30)

b .Llabel

- Causes an unconditional branch (aka goto) to the instruction with the address .Llabel
- .Llabel is called a branch target label (the "target" of a branch instruction)
- Be careful! do not to branch to a function label!
- .Llabel: pc is the base register with the offset being imm24 shifted left two bits (+/- 32 MB)
 - imm24 is the number of instructions from pc+8

```
b .Ldone
    :
.Ldone: add r0, EXIT_SUCCESS // set return value
```

Examples of of Unconditional Branching

Unconditional Branch Forward

```
b .Lforward
    add r1, r2, 4
    add r0, r6, 2
    add r3, r7, 4
.Lforward:
    sub r1, r2, 4
```

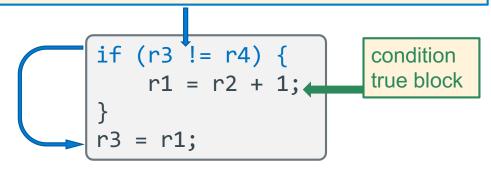
Backward Branch (Infinite loop)

```
.Lbackward:
    add r1, r2, 4
    sub r1, r2, 4
    add r4, r6, r7
    b .Lbackward
    // not reachable unless there is a label
after the .b above
```

- Branches are used to change execution flow using labels as the branch target
- In these example, .Lforward and .Lbackward are the branch target labels
- Branch target labels are placed at the beginning of the line (or above it)
- Caution: Backward branches should only used with loops!

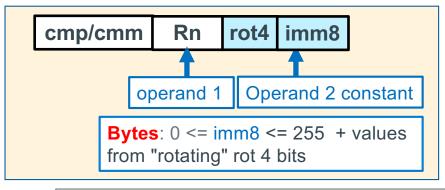
Anatomy of a Sample Branch: Changing the Next Instruction to Execute

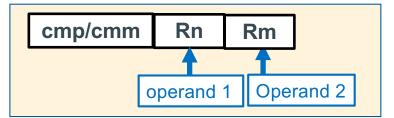
Branch condition depend on the result of a Test (comparison) (This test is called a branch guard)



- Branch guard: determines whether to execute the "true" block
- Step 1: evaluate the branch guard(s) (involves one or more compares/tests)
- Step 2: If branch guard evaluates to false
 - then branch around the true block
 - else execute the true block

cmp/cmm - Making Conditional Tests





The values stored in the registers Rn and Rm are not changed

The assembler will automatically substitute cmn for negative immediate values

```
cmp r1, 0  // r1 - 0 and sets flags on the result
cmp r1, r2  // r1 - r2 and sets flags on the result
```

Quick Overview of the Condition Bits/Flags



- The CSPR is a special register (like the other registers) in the CPU
- The four bits at the left are called the Condition Code flags
 - Summarize the result of a previous instruction
 - Not all instruction will change the CC bits
- Specifically, Condition Code flags are set by cmm/cmp (and others)

Example:

cmp

r4, r3

- N (Negative) flag: Set to 1 when the result of r4 r3 is negative, set to 0 otherwise
- **Z** (**Zero**) flag: Set to 1 when the results of r4 r3 is 0, set to 0 otherwise
- C (Carry bit) flag: Set to 1 when r4 r3 does not have a borrow, set to 0 otherwise
- V flag (oVerflow): Set to 1 when r4 r3 causes an overflow, set to 0 otherwise

Program Flow: Keeping the same "Block Order" as C

```
int r0;
if (r0 == 5) {
    /* when true "fall through" to here */
    /* condition true block */
    /* fall through */
}
/* in assembly branch to here if not true */
```

- In ARM32, you either fall through (execute the *next instruction in sequence*) or branch around to a specific instruction and then *resume* sequential instruction execution
- In order to keep the same block order as the C version that says: fall through to the condition true block when the branch guard evaluates to be true
 - Assembly: invert the condition test to branch around the condition true block
- Summary: In ARM32 use a condition test that specifies the <u>opposite</u> of the condition used in C, then branch around the condition true block

Conditional Branch: Changing the Next Instruction to Execute

```
cmp r3, r4
beq .Ldone
// otherwise fall through do the add
add r1, r2, 1
// now fall through to mov
.Ldone:
mov r3, r1
```

Condition	Meaning	Flag Checked
BEQ	Equal	Z = 1
В	Always (unconditional)	

- 1. Use a **cmp/cmm** instruction to set the condition bits
- 2. Follow the cmp/cmm with one or more variants of the conditional branch instruction Conditional branch instructions if evaluate to true (bases on the CC bits set) will go to the instruction with the branch label. Otherwise, it executes the instruction that follows
- You can have one or more conditional branches after a single cmp/cmm

Examples: Guards (Conditional Tests) and their Inverse

Compare in C	<i>"Inverse"</i> Compare in C
==	! =
!=	==
>	<=
>=	<
<	>=
<=	>

• Changing the conditional test (guard) to its inverse, allows you to swap the order of the blocks in an if else statement

Conditional Branch: Changing the Next Instruction to Execute

cond b imm24

Branch instruction

bsuffix .Llabel

- Bits in the condition field specify the conditions when the branch happens
- If the condition evaluates to be true, the next instruction executed is located at .Llabel:
- If the condition evaluates to be false, the next instruction executed is located immediately after the branch
- Unconditional branch is when the condition is "always"

Condition	Meaning	Flag Checked
BEQ	Equal	Z = 1
BNE	Not equal	Z = 0
BGE	Signed ≥ ("Greater than or Equal")	N = V
BLT	Signed < ("Less Than")	N≠V
BGT	Signed > ("Greater Than")	Z = 0 && N = V
BLE	Signed ≤ ("Less than or Equal")	Z = 1 N ≠ V
BHS	Unsigned ≥ ("Higher or Same") or Carry Set	C = 1
BLO	Unsigned < ("Lower") or Carry Clear	C = 0
ВНІ	Unsigned > ("Higher")	C = 1 && Z = 0
BLS	Unsigned ≤ ("Lower or Same")	C = 0 Z = 1
ВМІ	Minus/negative	N = 1
BPL	Plus - positive or zero (non-negative)	N = 0
BVS	Overflow	V = 1
BVC	No overflow	V = 0
B (BAL)	Always (unconditional)	

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

C source Code	Incorrect Assembly	Correct Assembly
int r0; if (r0 > 10)		cmp r0, 10 ble .Lendif
	.Lendif:	.Lendif:

```
If r0 == 5 true
                                                                 If r0 == 5 false
                                                 cmp r0, 5
                  then fall through to
                                                                 then branch around
int r0;
                                                 bne .Lendif
                  the true block
                                                                 the true block
 f (r0 == 5) {
                                                 /* condition true block */
    /* condition true block */
                                                 /* then fall through */
    /* then fall through */
                                             .Lendif:
                                             /* branch around to this code */
   branch around to this code */
```

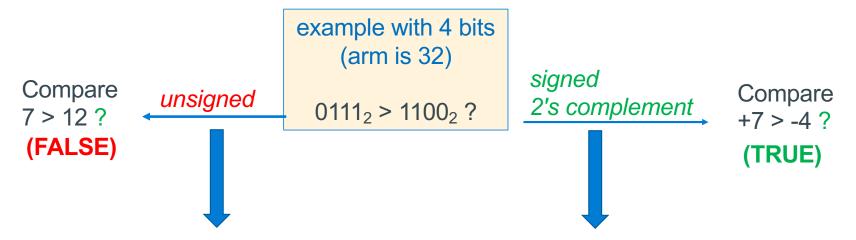
Branch Guard "Adjustment" Table Preserving Block Order In Code

Compare in C	<i>"Inverse"</i> Compare in C	<i>"Inver</i> se" Signed Assembly	<i>"Inverse"</i> Unsigned Assembly
==	!=	bne	bne
!=	==	beq	beq
>	<=	ble	bls
>=	<	blt	blo
<	>=	bge	bhs
<=	>	bgt	bhi
		\	

```
if (r0 compare 5)
   /* condition true block */
   /* then fall through */
}
```

```
cmp r0, 5
inverse .Lelse
// condition true block
// then fall through
.Lendif:
```

When do you use a Signed or Unsigned Conditional Branch?



Condition	Suffix For Unsigned Operands:	Suffix For Signed Operands:	
>	BHI (Higher Than)	BGT (Greater Than)	
>=	BHS (Higher Than or Same) (BCS)	BGE (Greater Than or Equal)	
<	BLO (Lower Than) (BCC)	BLT (Less Than)	
<=	BLS (Lower Than or Same)	BLE (Less Than or Equal)	
==	BEQ (Equal)		
!=	BNE (Not Equal)		

Anatomy of a Conditional Branch: If statement

```
Branch condition
Test (branch guard)

if (r0 == 5) {
    /* condition block #1 */
} else {
    /* condition block #2 */
    / * fall through */
}

condition true block
```

- In C, when the branch guard (condition test) evaluates <u>non-zero</u> you *fall through* to the *condition true* block, otherwise you branch to the *condition false* block
- Block order: (the order the blocks appear in C code) can be changed by inverting the conditional test, swapping the order of the true and false blocks

```
Branch condition
Test (branch guard)

if (r0 != 5) {
    /* condition block #2 */
} else {
    /* condition block #1 */
    /* fall through */
}

condition true block
```