

CSE 331: Microprocessor Interfacing and Embedded Systems

Lecture 3: ARM ISA (Assembly Language)

CISC – Design Architecture

- **CISC – Complex Instruction Set Computer**
- History:
- Prior to 1970 – RAM's were slow and expensive
- Programs used to be written in High Level Languages (HLL) – user friendly
- Compiler converts these HLLs to low level language for hardware.
- As the HLLs were getting more complex, designing compiler was also becoming difficult for complex instructions

CISC – Design Architecture

- There was a need to bridge the gap between HLLs and computer architecture
- Compact and simple low level instructions
- These instructions takes less space in memory also compiler design became simpler
- Example compact instruction (CISC computation):
 - Multiply $5*8$
 - Done with single command
 - First numbers from the mem loc are fetched and loaded to 2 separate registers
 - ALU performs the multiplication
 - Then the result is stored in the memory

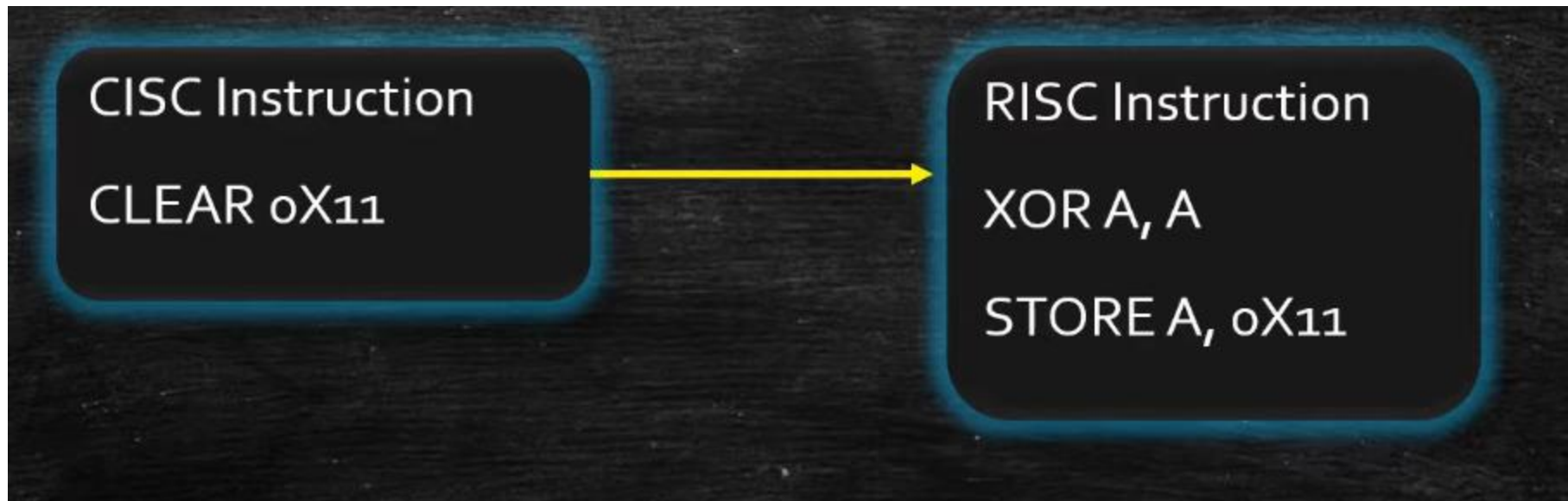
CISC – Design Architecture

- Now the hardware underneath the program had to do take the burden of execution
- This made the hardware more complex
- As time went on, processors started supporting more diverse instructions
 - Multiply
 - Clear
 - Load
 - Add
 - Subtract
 - Branch
 - Move
 - ...
- So the processor design started getting more complicated
- More silicon/transistors were needed for supporting this increased number of instructions
- Large and expensive processor
- Increased Power consumption

CISC – Design Architecture

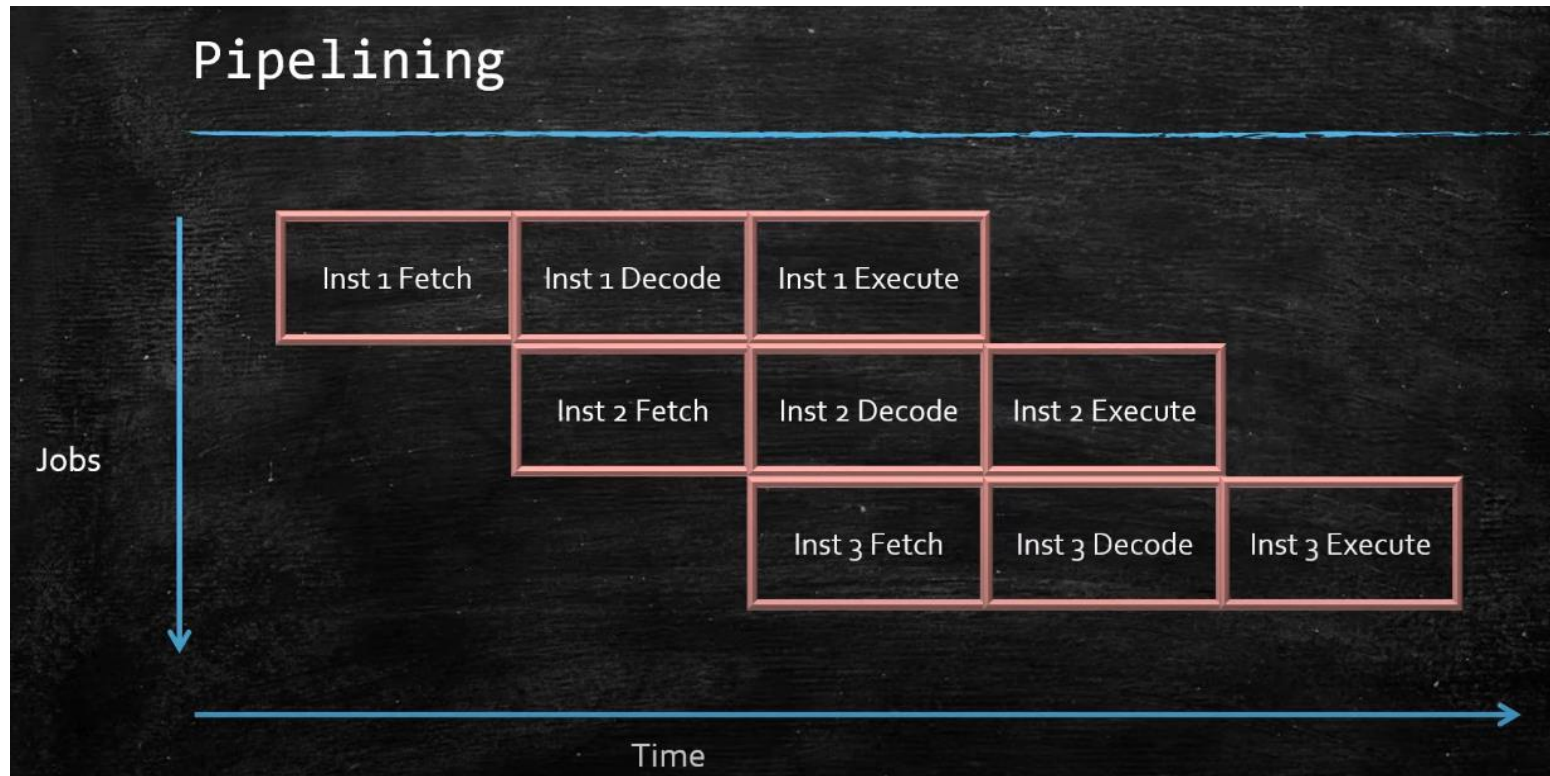
- It was noticed that only 20% of the instructions were being used 80% of the time
 - Many complex instructions were not being used
-
- It made more sense to only have only simple and most commonly used instructions
 - That is how RISC – Reduced Instruction Set Computer was conceptualized
 - Low number of instructions – Less complex hardware
 - However this doesnot mean RISC has less capability.
 - RISC used these reduced simpler set of instructions to perform all the complex tasks

RISC vs CISC instruction comparison



- CISC needed only 1 Instruction where RISC needs more than 1 instructions
- However, RISC instructions are simpler and of same length
- Typically 1 instruction = 1 clock cycle
- Faster execution speed

RISC vs CISC instruction comparisom



- Pipelining allows to execute multiple instruction at the same time in parallel.
- Thus making things faster.

RISC vs CISC instruction comparison

Memory Utilization

MULT 1:2, 2:1

Load A, 1:2

Load B, 2:1

Prod A, B

Store 1:2, A

Needs More Memory

- Memory – Capacity ↑, Cost ↓
- Optimizing Compiler - Smaller Memory footprint - Better Performance

RISC vs CISC instruction comparisom

- CISC Needed more number of transistors to support complex instructions
- In RISC it needs less transistors due to simplicity of instructions
- A lot of the transistors were saved
- These were used to increase number of
 - Registers
 - Cache
 - Other units
- More registers mean, processor doesnot need to access the main memory frequently (contrary to CISC)

RISC vs CISC

- **Full forms:** Reduced/Complex Instruction Set Computers
- **Instruction size:** Fixed vs Variable
- **Instruction Fetch time:** same for all instruction vs Vary with instructions
- **Instruction Set:** Small and Simple vs Large and Complex
- **Addressing Mode:** Less modes as instructions are on Registers. Vs More modes of complex instructions as they can be on both reg and memory as well.
- **Number of Reg:** Many vs Few
- **Compiler Design:** Simple vs Complex
- **Program size:** long vs small
- **Number of Operands:** Fixed(mainly in reg) vs Variable(mem and reg)
- **Control Unit:** Hardware control vs Micro Program Control(as hw control will become complex for more instructions)
- **Execution Speed:** Fast vs Slower
- **Pipelining:** More effective vs Less Effective

CISC & RISC

- CISC: complex instruction set computer
- original CPUs very simple
- poorly suited to evolving high level languages
- extended with new instructions
 - e.g. function calls, non-linear data structures, array bound checking, string manipulation
- implemented in *microcode*
 - sub-machine code for configuring CPU sub-components
 - 1 machine code == > 1 microcode
- e.g. Intel X86 architecture

CISC & RISC

- CISC introduced integrated combinations of features
 - e.g. multiple address modes, conditional execution
 - required additional circuitry/power
 - multiple memory cycles per instruction
 - over elaborate/engineered
 - many feature combinations not often used in practise
- could lead to loss of performance
- better to use combinations of simple instructions

CISC & RISC

- RISC: reduced instruction set computer
- return to simpler design
- general purpose instructions with small number of common features
 - less circuitry/power
 - execute in single cycle
- code size grew
- performance improved
- e.g. ARM, MIPS

ARM

- Advanced RISC Machines
- UK company
 - originally Acorn
 - made best selling BBC Microcomputer in 1980s
- world leading niche processors
- 2015 market share:
 - 85% of apps processors
 - 65% of computer peripherals,
 - 90% of hard-disk and SSD
 - 95% of automotive apps processors

ARM

- 32 bit RISC processor architecture family
- many variants:
 - A (Application), M (Microcontroller), R (Real Time), X (High Performance)
- ARM does not make chips
- licences the *IP core* (intellectual property) logic design to chip manufacturers

Books

- general reference :
 - W. Hohl, *ARM Assembly Language*, CRC Press, 2009
 - ARM7TDMI
 - NB not Linux format
- for Raspberry Pi:
 - B. Smith, *Raspberry Pi Assembly Language Raspbian Hands On Guide (2nd Ed)*, 2014

Reference

S

ARM Cortex A processor:

https://silver.arm.com/download/Software/BX100-DA-98001-r0p0-01rel3/DEN0013D_cortex_a_series_PG.pdf General

Purpose IO:

<https://www.raspberrypi.org/documentation/hardware/raspberrypi/bcm2835/BCM2835-ARM-Peripherals.pdf>

Memory

Memory is arranged as a series of “locations”

Each location has a unique “address”

Each location holds a byte (*byte-addressable*)

e.g. the memory location at address

0x080001B0 contains the byte value 0x70,
i.e., 112

The number of locations in memory is limited

e.g. 4 GB of RAM

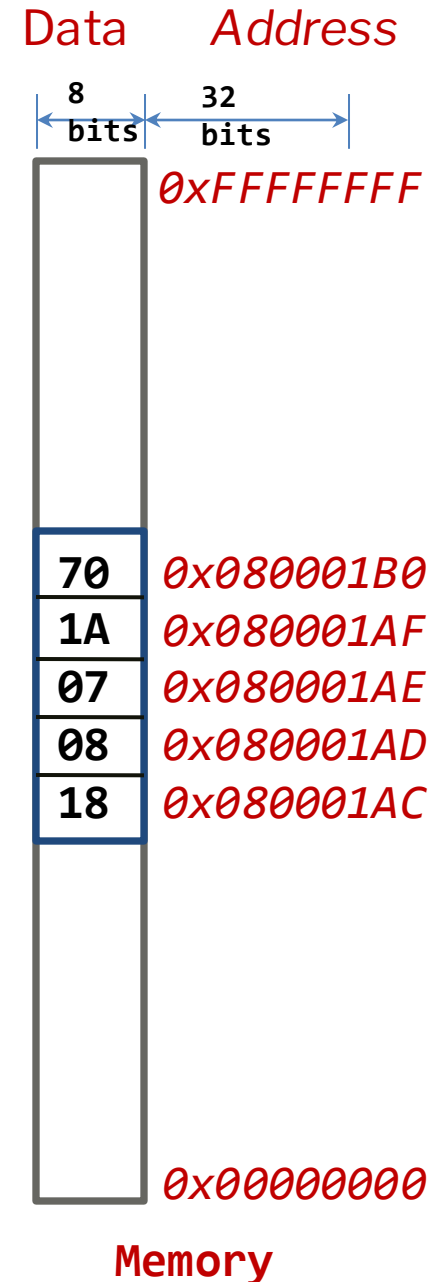
1 Gigabyte (GB) = 2^{30} bytes

2^{32} locations = 4,294,967,296 locations!

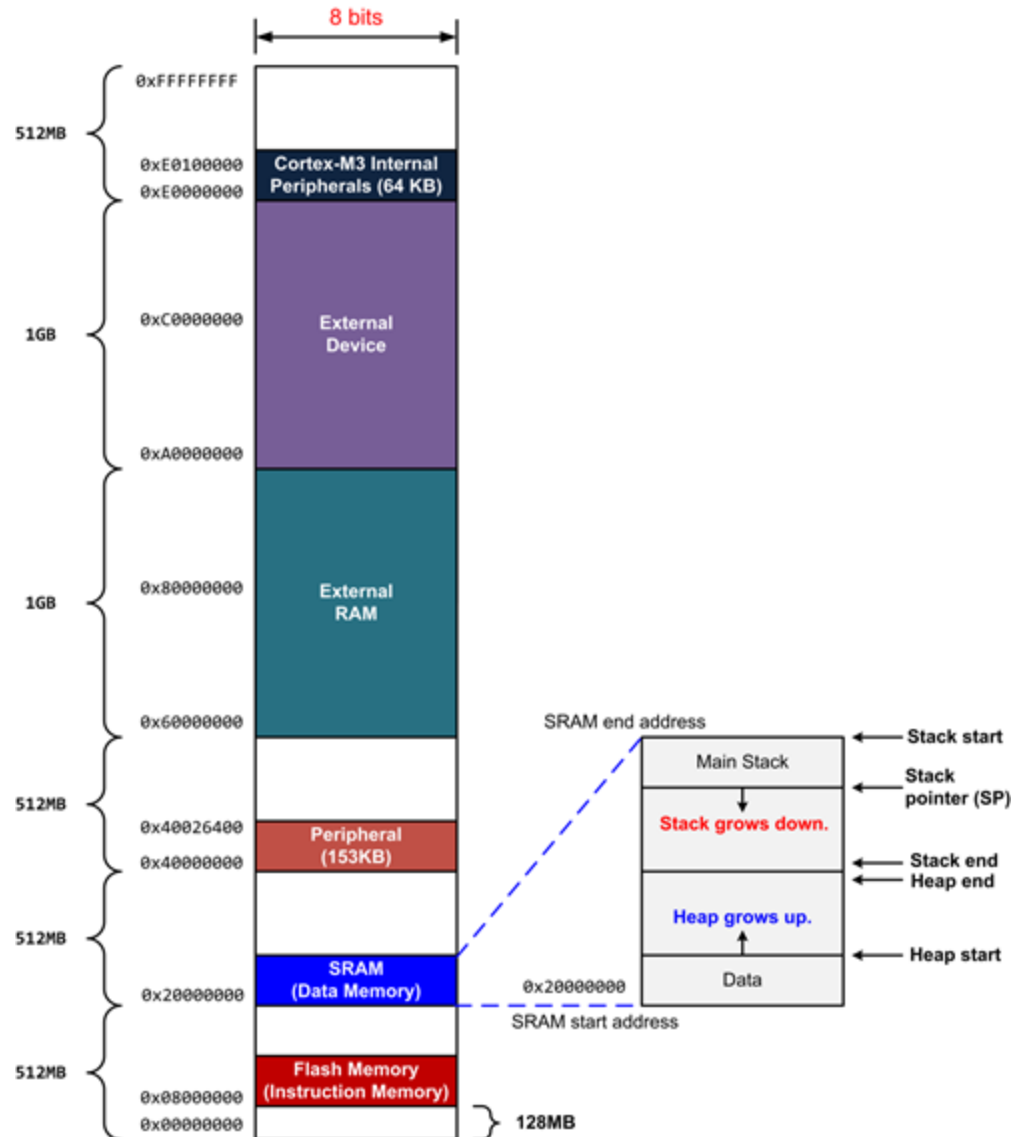
Values stored at each location can represent either

program data or *program instructions*

e.g. the value 0x70 might be the code used to
tell the processor to add two values together



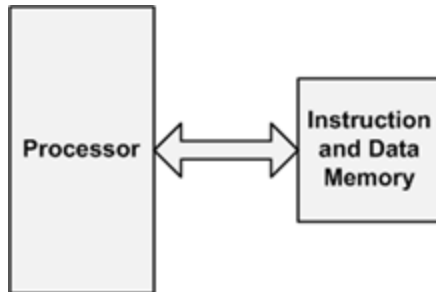
ARM M4 Memory Map



Computer Architecture

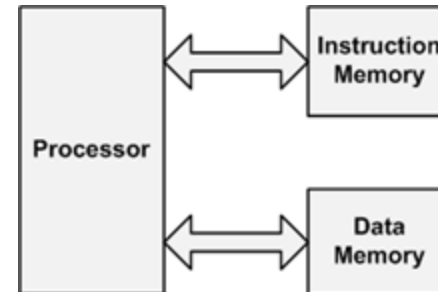
Von-Neumann

Instructions and data are stored in the same memory.



Harvard

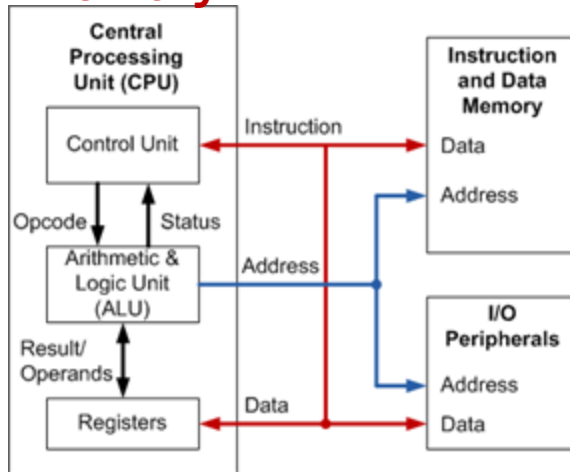
Data and instructions are stored into separate memories.



Computer Architecture

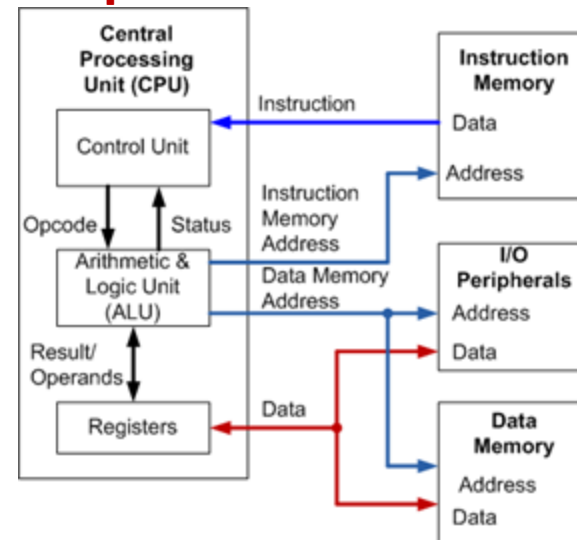
Von-Neumann

Instructions and data are stored in the same memory.

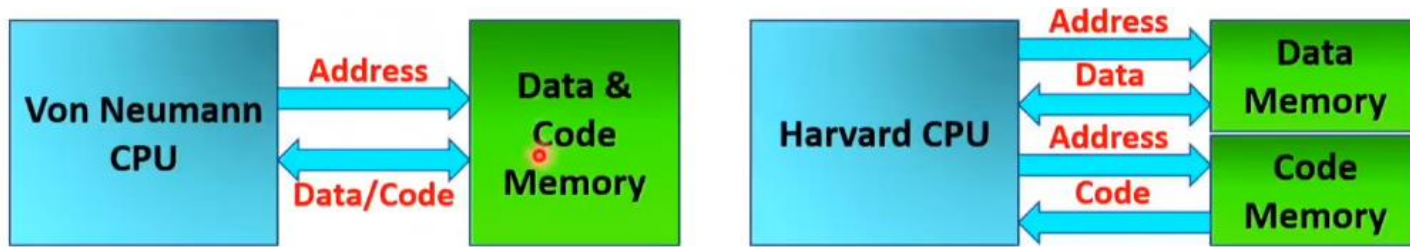


Harvard

Data and instructions are stored into separate memories.



Computer Architecture

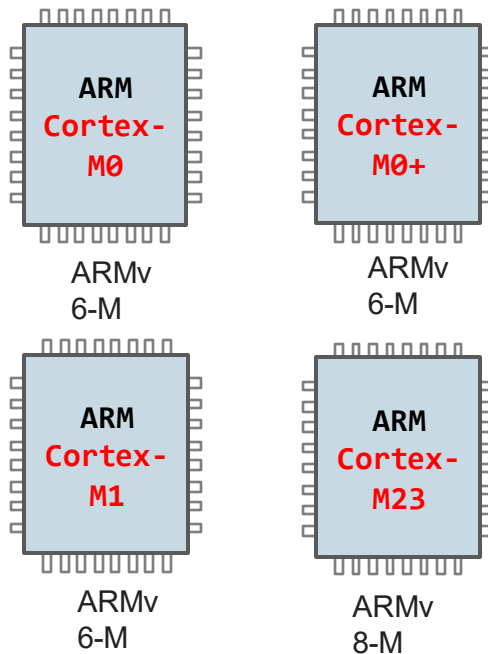


Parameters	Von Neumann	Harvard
Memory	❖ Data and Program {Code} are stored in same memory	❖ Data and Program {Code} are stored in different memory
Memory Type	❖ It has only RAM for Data & Code	❖ It has RAM for Data and ROM for Code
Buses	❖ Common bus for Address & Data/Code	❖ Separate Bus Address & Data/Code
Program Execution	❖ Code is executed serially and takes more cycles	❖ Code is executed in parallel with data so it takes less cycles.
Data/Code Transfer	❖ Data or Code in one cycle	❖ Data and Code in One cycle
Control Signals	❖ Less	❖ More
Space	❖ It needs less Space	❖ It needs more space

ARM Cortex-M Series Family

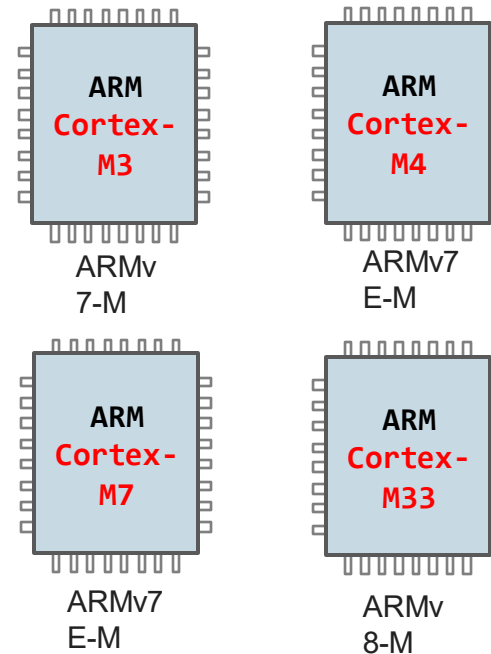
Von-Neumann

Instructions and data are stored in the same memory.



Harvard

Data and instructions are stored into separate memories.



Levels of Program Code

C Program

```
int main(void){  
    int i;  
    int total = 0;  
    for (i = 0; i < 10;  
    i++) {  
        total += i;  
    }  
    while(1); // Dead loop  
}
```



High-level language

- Level of abstraction closer to problem domain
- Provides for productivity and portability

Assembly Program

Compile

```
MOVVS r1, #0  
MOVVS r0, #0  
B    check  
loop ADD  r1, r1, r0  
    ADDS r0, r0, #1  
check CMP  r0, #10  
    BLT  loop  
self  B    self
```



Assembly language

- Textual representation of instructions

Assemble

Machine Program

```
0010000100000000  
0010000000000000  
1110000000000001  
0100010000000001  
0001110001000000  
0010100000001010  
1101110011111011  
1011111100000000  
1110011111111110
```



Hardware representation

- Binary digits (bits)
- Encoded instructions and data

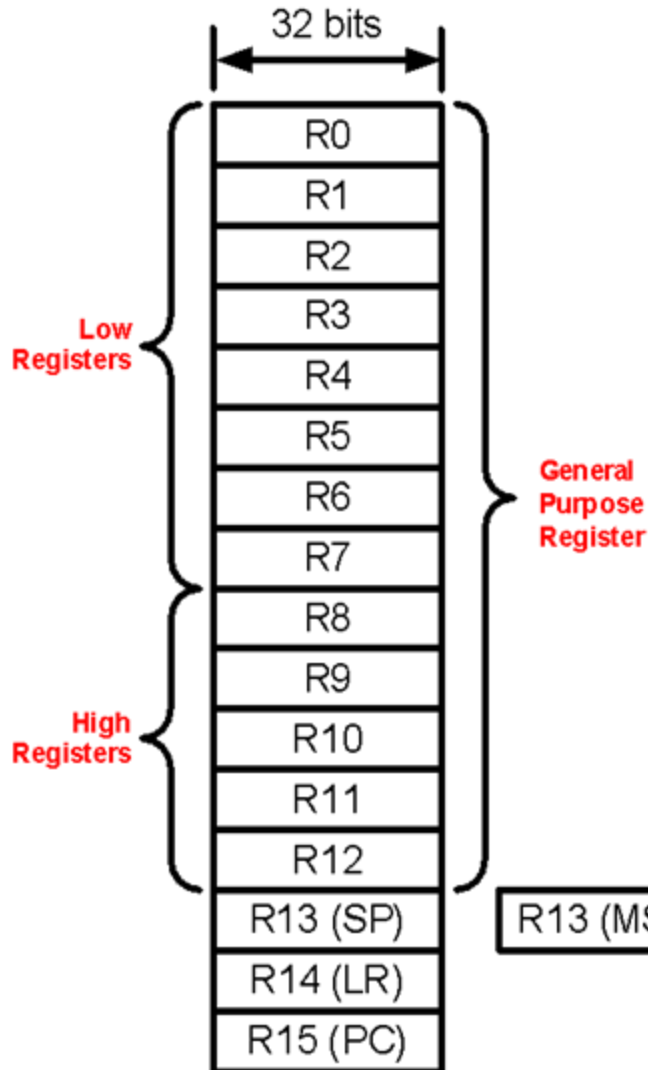
Memory

- linear addressing
- 2 descending stacks
 - main stack
 - process stack – used by OS
- all operations based on registers
- must move data between registers & memory

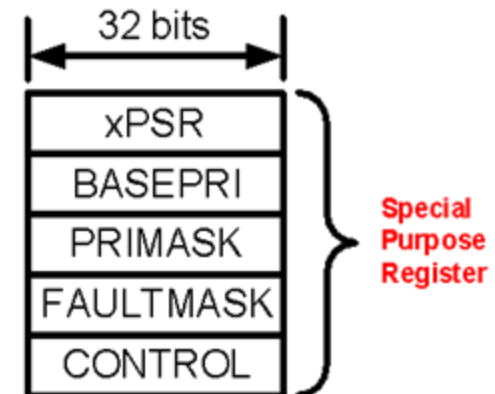
Registers

- 16 * 32 bit registers
- *working* registers
 - R0-R7 – *low* registers
 - R8-R12 – *high* registers
- R13 – stack pointer (SP)
- R14 – link register (LR)
- R15 – program counter (PC)
- PSR – program status register
 - bits for negative (N), zero (Z), carry (C), overflow (V)

Registers-continued



- Fastest way to read and write
- Registers are within the processor chip
- A register stores 32-bit value
- STM32L has
 - R0-R12**: 13 general-purpose registers
 - R13**: Stack pointer (Shadow of MSP or PSP)
 - R14**: Link register (LR)
 - R15**: Program counter (PC)
 - Special registers (xPSR, BASEPRI, PRIMASK, etc)



Registers–continued

Stack pointer (SP) r13:

- Holds the memory address of the top of the stack.
- Cortex-M processors provide two different stacks: the main stack and the process stack.
- There are two stack pointers: the main stack pointer (MSP) and the process stack pointer (PSP) .
- The processor uses PSP when executing regular user programs and uses MSP when serving interrupts or privileged accesses.
- The stack pointer (SP) is a shadow register of either MSP or PSP, depending on the processor' s mode setting. When a processor starts, it assigns MSP to SP initially.

Link register (LR) r14:

- Holds the memory address of the instruction that needs to run immediately after a subroutine completes. It is the next instruction after the instruction that calls a subroutine.
- During the execution of an interrupt service routine, LR holds a special value to indicate whether MSP or PSP is used.

Registers–continued

Program counter (PC) r15:

Holds the memory address (location in memory) of the next instruction(s) that the processor fetches from the instruction memory .

Program status register (xPSR):

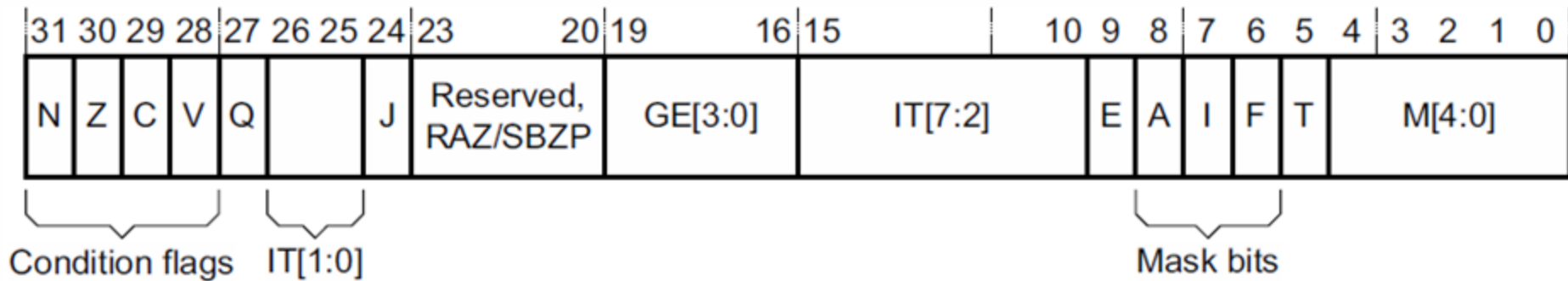
- Records status bit flags of the application program, interrupt, and processor execution. Example flags include negative, zero, carry, and overflow.

Base priority mask register (BASEPRI)

Priority mask register (PRIMASK)

Fault mask register (FAUL TMASK)

Program Status Registers



❖ Condition code flags

- ❖ N = Negative result from ALU
- ❖ Z = Zero result from ALU
- ❖ C = ALU operation Carried out
- ❖ V = ALU operation oVerflowed

❖ Sticky Overflow flag - Q flag

- ❖ Architecture 5TE/J only
- ❖ Indicates if saturation has occurred

❖ J bit

- ❖ Architecture 5TEJ only
- ❖ J = 1: Processor in Jazelle state

❖ Interrupt Disable bits.

- ❖ I = 1: Disables the IRQ.
- ❖ F = 1: Disables the FIQ.

❖ T Bit

- ❖ Architecture xT only
- ❖ T = 0: Processor in ARM state
- ❖ T = 1: Processor in Thumb state

❖ Mode bits

- ❖ Specify the processor mode

ARM Documentations

ARM versions:

<https://developer.arm.com/documentation/dui0472/m/Compiler-Command-line-Options/--cpu-name>

ARM Jazelle State:

<https://developer.arm.com/documentation/ddi0406/c/System-Level-Architecture/The-System-Level-Programmers--Model/Jazelle-direct-bytecode-execution/Jazelle-state?lang=en>

Data formats

- *word*
 - 32 bits
 - long
- *half word*
 - 16 bits
 - int
- byte
 - 8 bits
 - char

Programming approach

- in high level programming:
 - identify variables & types
 - compiler maps these to memory & data representation
 - use of memory v registers invisible
- in low level programming
 - must make explicit use of memory & registers
 - must choose data representation
- registers much faster than memory
- try to map variables to registers
- what if more variables than registers...?

Instruction format

A machine instruction consists of:

- a binary operation code (opcode) denoting a specific operation to be carried out
- zero or more operands specifying the inputs of the operation

In an assembly program, each binary opcode is replaced by its symbolic abbreviation, called instruction *mnemonic*. Using human-readable mnemonics instead of binary opcode makes developing an assembly program simpler and more convenient.

label	mnemonic operand1, operand2, operand3	; comments
--------------	--	-------------------

Instruction format

instruction Rd, Rn, operand₂

== Rd = Rn operation operand₂

- *instruction* is a mnemonic
 - meaningful short form
 - reminds us what instruction does
- *Rd* == destination register - R0..R15
- *Rn* == operand register - may be optional
- *operand₂* == *register* or *constant*
- *constant* == *#number*

MOV: move

MOV *Rd*, *operand2* ?

Rd = *operand2*

- don't update condition code flags

MOVS *Rd*, *operand2*

- as MOV but update condition code flags

MOV *Rd*, #*number* ?

Rd = *number*

NB *number* <= 255 - more later

MVN: move with logical NOT

MVN *Rd, operand2* ?

Rd = *operand2*

- don't update condition code flags
- performs a bitwise logical NOT operation on the operand2, and places the result into Rd.

MVN *Rd, #number* ?

Rd = *!number*

Label

- Any instruction can be associated with a label
- Example:
 - `start: ADD r0, r1, r2 ; a = b+c`
`next: SUB r1, r1, #1 ; b--`
- In fact, every instruction has a label regardless if the programmer explicitly names it
 - The label is the address of the instruction
 - A label is a pointer to the instruction in memory

Label

- Therefore, the text label doesn't exist in binary code
- relative to program counter (PC)
- turned into PC + offset in machine code
- may start with _ such as _global

System calls

- `SWI 0` == software interrupt to call function
- parameters in R0-R2
- system function number in R7
- e.g. `exit` is 1
- NB shell variable `$?` is R0 so:
`echo $?` == display R0

Layout

- usual to precede instruction with a *tab*
- comment is: *@ text // text*
- large comment: */*.....*/*

Program skeleton

```
.global _start
_start:
@ program code here

—
    MOV R0, #65 @ arbitrary value
    MOV R7, #1
    SWI 0
```

- `.global _start`
 - assembler directive
 - entry point is visible externally
- `_start`

Running assembler

programs

- *file.s* == assembly language source

```
$ as -o file.o file.s
```

- assemble *file.s* to *file.o*

```
$ ld -o file file.o
```

- create executable *file* from *file.o*

```
$ ./file
```

- run executable in *file* from `_start`

```
$ echo $?
```

- display R0

Example:

exit

- suppose `exit.s` is basic start

```
$ program
```


```
$ as -o exit.o exit.s
```

```
ld -o exit exit.o
```

```
$ ./exit
```

```
65  
$ echo $?
```

ADD: addition

ADD *Rd, Rn, operand₂* 

$Rd = Rn + operand_2$

ADD *Rd, operand₂* 

$Rd = Rd + operand_2$

ADDC


- add with carry
- like ADD + carry flag

ADDS/ADDCS


- like ADD/ADDC but set condition code flags

SUB:

subtraction

SUB *Rd, Rn, operand₂* 

$Rd = Rn - operand_2$

SUB *Rd, operand₂* 

$Rd = Rd - operand_2$

SBC

- subtract with carry
- like SUB -1 if carry flag not set

SUBS/SBCS

- like SUB/SUBC but set condition code flags

RSB: reverse subtraction

RSB *Rd, Rn, operand₂* \square

Rd = *operand₂* - ***Rn***

RSB *Rd, operand₂* \square

Rd = *operand₂* - *Rd*

Multiplication

- In ARM, we multiply registers, so:
 - 32-bit value x 32-bit value = 64-bit value
- Syntax of Multiplication (signed):
 - MUL register1, register2, register3
- Built in multiplication MUL
 - $\{Rd, \} Rn, operand_2 \Rightarrow Rd = Rn * operand_2$
 - NB Rd cannot be an *operand*

Multiplication

❖ Example:

❖ in C: `a = b * c;`

❖ in MIPS:

❖ let b be r2; let c be r3; and let a be r0 and r1 (since it may be up to 64 bits)

`MUL r0, r2, r3` ; b*c only 32 bits
stored

Note: Often, we only care about the lower half of the product.

`SMULL r0, r1, r2, r3` ; 64 bits in r0:r1

Multiply and Divide

- ❖ There are 2 classes of multiply - producing 32-bit and 64-bit results
- ❖ 32-bit versions on an ARM7TDMI will execute in 2 - 5 cycles

- ❖ `MUL r0, r1, r2` ; `r0 = r1 * r2`

- ❖ `MLA r0, r1, r2, r3` ; `r0 = (r1 * r2) + r3`

- ❖ 64-bit multiply instructions offer both signed and unsigned versions
 - ❖ For these instruction there are 2 destination registers

- ❖ `[U|S]MULL r4, r5, r2, r3` ; `r5:r4 = r2 * r3`

- ❖ `[U|S]MLAL r4, r5, r2, r3` ; `r5:r4 = (r2 * r3) + r5:r4`

- ❖ Most ARM cores do not offer integer divide instructions
 - ❖ Division operations will be performed by C library routines or inline shifts

Instruction Summary So far

❖ In ARM Assembly Language:

- ❖ Registers replace C variables
- ❖ One Instruction (simple operation) per line
- ❖ Simpler is Better
- ❖ Smaller is Faster

❖ Instructions so far:

ADD, SUB, RSB, MUL, MULA, [U|S]MULL,
[U|S]MLAL

❖ Registers:

Places for general variables: r0-r12

Expressions

- for:

$var_1 = var_2 \text{ op } var_3$

- with:

$var_1 \text{ in } R_1$

$var_2 \text{ in } R_2$

$var_3 \text{ in } R_3$

$\boxed{?} \text{ op } R_1, R_2, R_3$

- e.g.

$x = y * z; \boxed{?}$

@ $x == R1$

@ $y == R2$

@ $z == R3$

MUL $R1, R2, R3$

Expressions

- for:

$var_1 = var_2 op_1 var_3 op_2 var_4$

- if op_1 and op_2 have same precedence
- or op_1 has higher precedence than op_2 $\boxed{?}$

$op_1 R_1, R_2, R_3$

$op_2 R_1, R_4$

e.g.

$x = y * z - a; \quad \boxed{?}$

...

@ a == R4

MUL R1, R2, R3

SUB R1, R4

Expressions

- for:

$var_1 = var_2 op_1 var_3 op_2 var_4$

- if op_2 has higher precedence than op_1

- must evaluate op_2 expression in new register \square

$op_2 R_i, R_3, R_4$

$op_1 R_1, R_2, R_i$

e.g.

$x = y + z * a; \square$

MUL R5, R3, R4

ADD R1, R2, R5

e.g.

$x = y * (z + a) \square$

ADD R5, R3, R4

MUL R1, R2, R5

CMP:

compare

CMP *Rd*, *operand*₂

- subtract *operand*₂ from *Rd* BUT ...
- ... do not modify *Rd*
 - otherwise same as SUBS
- update Z, N, C, V flags

CMN *Rd*, *operand*₂

- add *operand*₂ to *Rd* BUT ...
- ... do not modify *Rd*
 - otherwise same as ADDS
- update Z, N, C, V flags

Flags

- N – 1 if result <0; 0 otherwise
- Z – 1 if result =0; 0 otherwise
- C – 1 if result led to carry; 0 otherwise
 - i.e. $X+Y > 2^{32}$
 - i.e. $X-Y \geq 0$

Flags

- V – 1 if result led to overflow; 0 otherwise
 - (-) == negative
 - (+) == positive
 - i.e. $(-)X + (-)Y > 0$
 - i.e. $(+)X + (+)Y < 0$
 - i.e. $(-)X - (+)Y > 0$
 - i.e. $(+X) - (-Y) < 0$

B: branch

B *label*

- branch to *label*
- i.e. reset PC to address for *label*

Bcond *label*

- branch on *condition* to *label*

C Decisions: `if` Statements

- ❖ `if` statements in C

- ❖ `if (condition) clause`

- ❖ `if (condition) clause1 else clause2`

- ❖ Rearrange 2nd `if` into following:

- `if (condition) goto L1;`

- `clause2;`

- `goto L2;`

- `L1: clause1;`

- `L2:`

- ❖ Not as elegant as `if-else`, but same meaning

ARM goto Instruction Conversion

- ❖ The simplest control instruction is equivalent to a C `goto` statement
- ❖ `goto label` (in C) is the same as:
- ❖ `B label` (in ARM)
- ❖ `B` is shorthand for “branch”. This is called an unconditional branch meaning that the branch is done regardless of any conditions.
- ❖ There are also conditional branches

Condition

suffix	flags
EQ == equal	Z=1
NE == not equal	Z=0
CS/HS == carry set/ higher or same - unsigned	C=1
CC/LO == carry clear/lower - unsigned	C=0
MI == negative	N=1
PL == positive or 0	N=0
VS == overflow	V=1
VC == no overflow	V=0

Condition

suffix	flags
HI == higher - unsigned	C=1 & Z=0
LS == lower or same - unsigned	C=0 or Z=1
GE == greater than or equal - signed	N=V
LT == less than - signed	N!=V
GT == greater than - signed	Z=0 & N=V
LE == less than or equal, signed	Z=1 or N!=V
AL == any value	default if not <i>cond</i>

Overflow Detection

One way to detect overflow is to check whether the sign bit is consistent with the sign of the inputs when the two inputs are of the same sign – if you added two positive numbers and got a negative number, something is wrong, and vice versa.

A+B			
Sign of A	Sign of B	Sign of Result	Overflow?
+	+	-	Yes
-	-	+	
+	+	+	No
-	-	-	
+	-	-	No
+	-	+	No
-	+	-	No
-	+	+	No

ARM BRANCH Instructions

- ❖ ARM also has variants of the branch instruction that only goto the label if a certain condition is TRUE
- ❖ Examples:
 - ❖ `BEQ label ; BRANCH EQUAL`
 - ❖ `BNE label ; BRANCH NOT EQUAL`
 - ❖ `BLE label ; BRANCH LESS THAN EQUAL`
 - ❖ `BLT label ; BRANCH LESS THAN`
 - ❖ `BGE label ; BRANCH GREATER THAN EQUAL`
 - ❖ `BGT label ; BRANCH GREATER THAN`
 - ❖ Plus more ...
- ❖ The condition is T/F based upon the fields in the Program Status Register

Example: multiply by adding

```
int x;  
int y;  
int m;  
x = 3;  
y = 10;  
m = 0;  
while(y!=0)  
{  
    m = m+x;  
y = y-1;  
}
```

```
.global _start  
_start:  
    MOV R1, #0x03  
    MOV R2, #0x0a  
    MOV R3, #0x00  
_loop:  
    CMP R2, #0x00  
    BEQ _exit  
    ADD R3, R1  
    SUB R2, #0x01  
    B _loop
```

Example: multiply by adding

```
#m=x*y
int x;
int y;
int m;

x = 8;
y = 10;
m = 0;
while(y!=0)
{
    m = m+x;
    y = y-1;
}
```

```
_exit:
    MOV R0, R3
    MOV R7, #1
    SWI 0

...
$ echo $?
12
```

Data directives & constants

`.data`

- start of sequence of data directives
- usually after instructions program

`.equ label, value`

- define constant
- associate *label* with *value*
- use `#label` as *operand*₂ to get *value*

Example: multiply by adding

```
•m == x*y    int
x;    int y;
int m;
x = 8;
y = 10;
m = 0;
while(y!=0)
{
    m = m+x;
    y = y-1;
}
```

```
.global _start
_start:
    MOV R1, #X
    MOV R2, #Y
    MOV R3, #0x00
_loop:
    CMP R2, #0x00
    BEQ _exit
    ADD R3, R1
    SUB R2, #0x01
    B _loop
```

Example: multiply by adding

m=x*y

```
int x;
int y;
int m;
x = 8;
y = 10;
m = 0;
while(y!=0)
{
    m = m+x;
    y = y-1;
}
```

```
_exit:
    MOV R0, R3
    MOV R7, #1
    SWI 0

.data
.equ X, 3
.equ Y, 4
...
$ echo $?
12
```

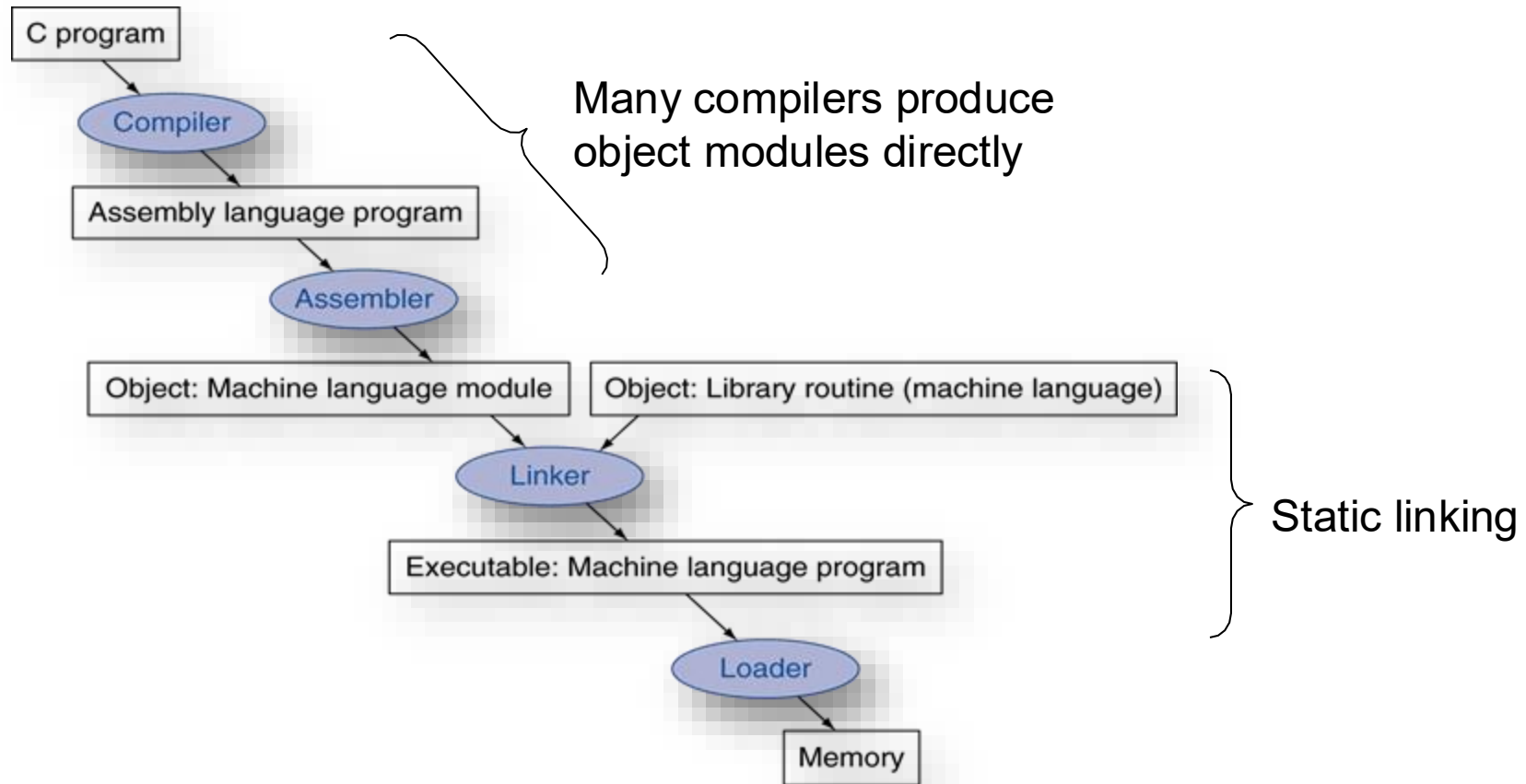
Tracing and debugging

- `gdb` - GNU debugger
 - assemble with `-g` flag
 - run program from `file.o`
- ```
$ as -g -o file.o file.s
$ gdb -o file file.o
```

```
$./file
gdb file
```

```
...
```

# Translation and Startup



**UNIX:** C source files are named x.c, assembly files are x.s, object files are named x.o, statically linked library routines are x.a, dynamically linked library routes are x.so, and executable files by default are called a.out.

**MS-DOS** uses the .C, .ASM, .OBJ, .LIB, .DLL, and .EXE to the same effect.

# Tracing and debugging

- `q(uit)` - return to shell
- `l(ist)` - show program - may need to press return
- `r(un)` - run program
- `b(reak) number` - set breakpoint at line *number*
  - program pauses at breakpoint
  - can set multiple breakpoints
  - can also set break points at labels & addresses



# Tracing and debugging

- `i(nfo) r` - show registers
- `c(continue)` - continue execution  
after breakpoint
- `s(step)` - execute next instruction
- `i(info) b` - show breakpoints
- `d(delete) number` - remove breakpoint  
*number*

# Tracing and debugging

- to trace
  - set breakpoint at start of program
  - step & show registers
- to debug
  - set breakpoints at salient points in program
  - e.g. at start or ends of loops
  - continue/step & show registers

# Tracing and debugging

- e.g. suppose mult program is in

mult.s

```
$ as -g -o mult.o mult.s
```

```
$.ld -o mult mult.s
```

```
$ gdb mult
```

```
1 .global _start
```

```
2
```

```
3 _start:
```

```
4 MOV R1, #X
```

```
5 MOV R2, #Y
```

```
6 MOV R3, #0x00
```

```
7 _loop:
```

```
8 CMP R2, #0x00
```

```
9 BEQ _exit
```

```
10 ADD R3, R1
```

```
(gdb)
```

```
11 SUB R2, #0x01
```

```
12 B _loop
```

```
13 _exit:
```

```
14 MOV R0, R3
```

```
15 MOV R7, #1
```

```
16 SWI 0
```

```
17
```

```
18 .data
```

```
19 .equ X, 3
```

```
20 .equ Y, 4
```

```
(gdb)
```

# Tracing & debugging

```
(gdb) b _start
```

```
Breakpoint 1 at 0x805b:
```

```
file mult.s, line 5
```

```
(gdb) r
```

```
...
```

```
5 MOV R2, #Y
```

```
(gdb) i r
```

```
r0 0x0 0
```

```
r1 0x3 3
```

```
r2 0x0 0
```

```
r3 0x0 0
```

```
(gdb) s
```

```
6 MOV R, #0
```

```
(gdb) i r
```

```
r0 0x0 0
```

```
r1 0x3 3
```

```
r2 0x0 4
```

```
r3 0x0 0
```

```
...
```

```
(gdb) b 12
```

```
Breakpoint 2 at 0x8070:
```

```
file mult.s, line 12
```

```
(gdb) c
```

```
...
```

```
12 B _loop
```

# Tracing & debugging

```
(gdb) i r
r0 0x0 0
r1 0x3 3
r2 0x0 3
r3 0x0 3
...
(gdb) c
...
12 B _loop
(gdb) i r
r0 0x0 0
r1 0x3 3
r2 0x0 2
r3 0x0 6
...
```

```
(gdb) c
...
12 B _loop
(gdb) i r
r0 0x0 0
r1 0x3 3
r2 0x0 1
r3 0x0 9
...
(gdb) c
...
12 B _loop
```

# Tracing & debugging

```
(gdb) i r
r0 0x0 0
r1 0x3 3
r2 0x0 0
r3 0x0 12
...
(gdb) c
...
[Inferior 1 (process 2614)
exited with code 014]
(gdb) q
$
```

# NOP: no operation

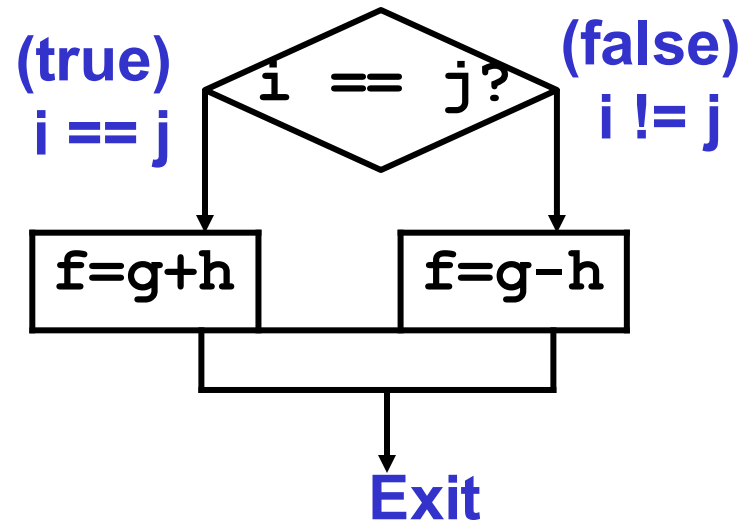
NOP

- do nothing
- use for padding/layout
- no cost

# Compiling C `if` into ARM

## ❖ Compile by hand

```
if (i == j) f=g+h;
else
f=g-h;
```



## ❖ Use this mapping:

`f`: r0, `g`: r1, `h`: r2, `i`: r3, `j`: r4



# Comparison Instructions

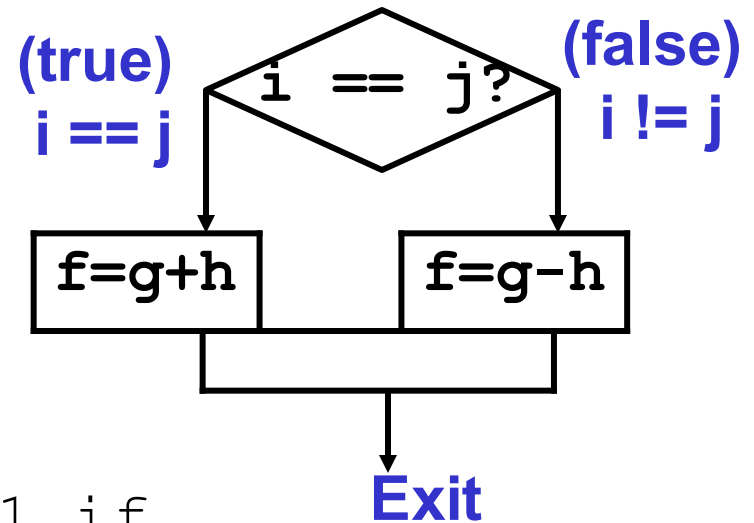
- ❖ In order to perform branch on the “==” operation we need a new instruction
- ❖ CMP – Compare: subtracts a register or an immediate value from a register value and updates condition codes
- ❖ Examples:
  - ❖ `CMP r3, #0 ; set Z flag if r3 == 0`
  - ❖ `CMP r3, r4 ; set Z flag if r3 == r4`

**All flags are set as result of this operation, not just Z.**

# Compiling C if into ARM

## Compile by hand

```
if (i == j) f=g+h;
else f=g-h;
```



### ❖ Final compiled ARM code:

```
CMP r3, r4 ; Z = 1 if
i==j BEQ True ; goto True when i==j
SUB r0, r1, r2 ; f=g-h (false)
B Fin ; goto Fin
True: ADD r0, r1, r2 ; f=g+h (true)
```

**Note:** Compiler automatically creates labels to handle decisions (branches) appropriately. Generally not found in C code.

# Loops in C/Assembly

- ❖ Simple loop in C;

```
do{
 g--;
 i = i + j;}
while (i != h);
```

- ❖ Rewrite this as:

```
Loop: g--;
i = i + j;
if (i != h) goto Loop;
```

- ❖ Use this mapping:

```
g: r1, h: r2, i: r3, j:r4
```

# Loops in C/Assembly

❖ Final compiled ARM code:

```
Loop SUB r1, r1, #1 ; g--
 ADD r3, r3, r4 ; i=i+j
 CMP r3, r2 ; cmp i, h
 BNE Loop ; goto Loop
 ; if i!=h
```

# Inequalities in ARM

- ❖ Until now, we've only tested equalities (`==` and `!=` in C). General programs need to test `<` and `>` as well.
- ❖ Use `CMP` and `BLE`, `BLT`, `BGE`, `BGT`
- ❖ Examples:

```
if (f < 10) goto Loop; => CMP r0, #10
 BLT Loop
if (f >= i) goto Loop; => CMP r0, r3
 BGE Loop
```

# Loops in C/Assembly

- ❖ There are three types of loops in C:
  - ❖ `while`
  - ❖ `do... while`
  - ❖ `for`
- ❖ Each can be rewritten as either of the other two, so the method used in the previous example can be applied to `while` and `for` loops as well.
- ❖ **Key Concept:** Though there are multiple ways of writing a loop in ARM, conditional branch is \_\_\_\_\_key to decision making

# Example: The C Switch Statement

- ❖ Choose among four alternatives depending on whether `k` has the value 0, 1, 2 or 3.

Compile this C code:

```
switch (k) {
 case 0: f=i+j; break; /* k=0 */
 case 1: f=g+h; break; /* k=1 */
 case 2: f=g-h; break; /* k=2 */
 case 3: f=i-j; break; /* k=3 */
}
```

# Example: The C Switch Statement

- ❖ This is complicated, so **simplify**.
- ❖ Rewrite it as a chain of if-else statements, which we already know how to compile:

```
if (k==0) f=i+j;
 else if (k==1) f=g+h;
 else if (k==2) f=g-h;
 else if (k==3) f=i-j;
```

- ❖ Use this mapping:

```
f: $r0, g: $r1, h: $r2, i: $r3,
j: r4, k: $r5
```



# Example: The C Switch Statement

```
CMP r5, #0 ; compare k, 0
BNE L1 ; branch k!=0
ADD r0, r3, r4 ; k==0 so f=i+j
B Exit ; end of case so Exit
L1 CMP r5, #1 ; compare k, -1
BNE L2
ADD r0, r1, r2 ; k==1 so f=g+h
B Exit ; end of case so Exit
L2 CMP r5, #2 ; compare k, 2
BNE L3 ; branch k!=2
SUB r0, r1, r2 ; k==2 so f=g-h
B Exit ; end of case so Exit
L3 CMP r5, #3 ; compare k, 3
BNE Exit ; branch k!=3
SUB r0, r3, r4 ; k==3 so f=i-j
Exit:
```

---

# Predicated Instructions

- ❖ All instructions can be executed conditionally.  
Simply add {EQ,NE,LT,LE,GT,GE, etc.} to end

C source code

ARM  
instructions

```
if (r0 == 0)
{
 r1 = r1 + 1;
}
else
{
 r2 = r2 + 1;
}
```

unconditional

```
CMP r0, #0
BNE else
ADD r1, r1, #1
B end
else:
 ADD r2, r2, #1
end
...
```

conditional

```
CMP r0, #0
ADDEQ r1, r1, #1
ADDNE r2, r2, #1
...
```

- 5 instructions

- 3 instructions

- 5 words

- 3 words

- 5 or 6 cycles

- 3 cycles

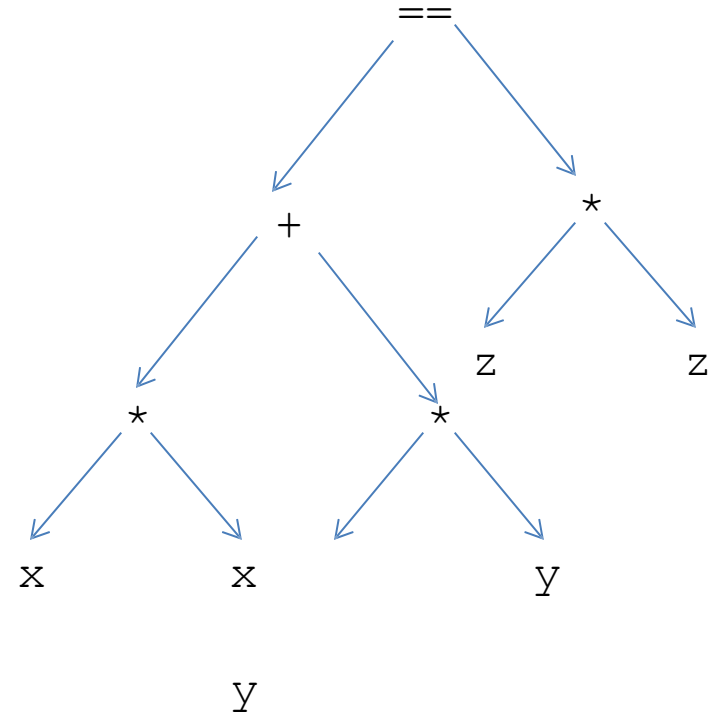
# Expressions

- draw expression tree
- allocate registers to nodes
  - from bottom left
  - if expression in assignment then start with register for destination variable
- accumulate into register for left operand
- can re-use any register whose value is no longer required

# Example:

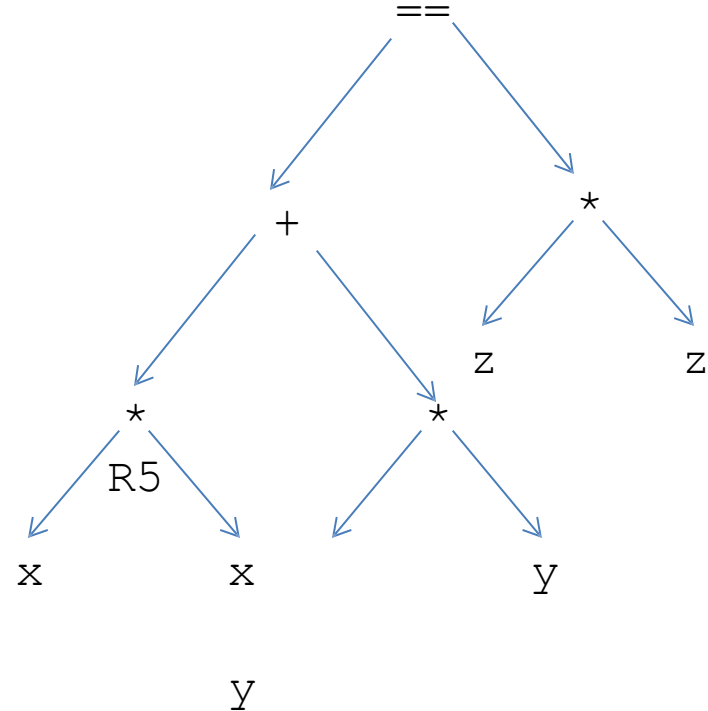
## Pythagoras

```
int x; /* R1 */
int y; /* R2 */
int z; /* R3 */
int p; /* R4 */
x = 3;
y = 4;
z = 5;
if (x*x+y*y==z*z)
 p=1;
else
 p=0;
```



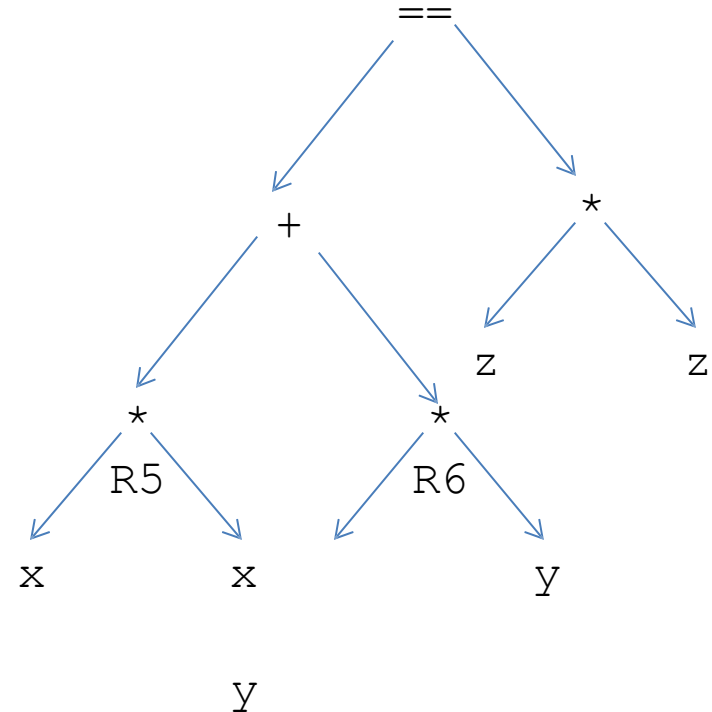
# Example: Pythagoras

```
int x; /* R1 */
int y; /* R2 */
int z; /* R3 */
int p; /* R4 */
x = 3;
y = 4;
z = 5;
if (x*x+y*y==z*z)
 p=1;
else
 p=0;
```



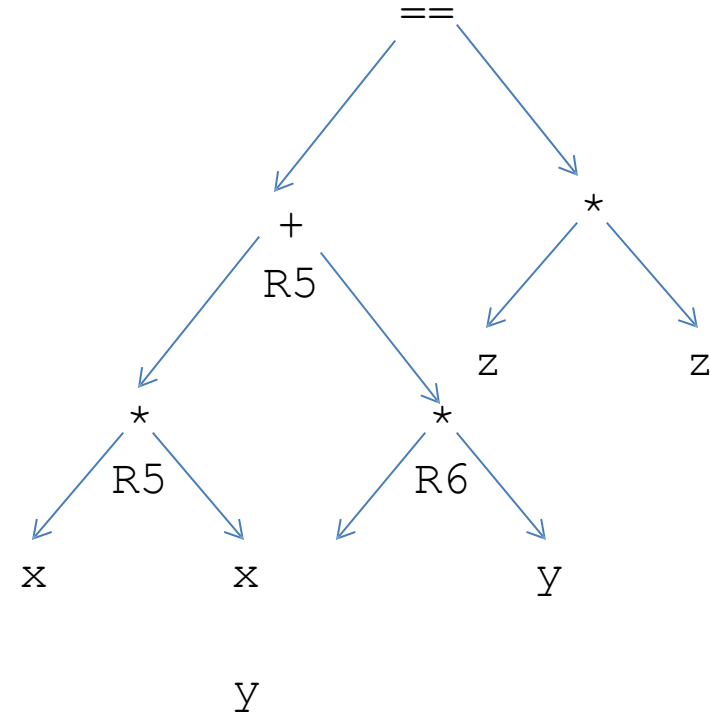
# Example: Pythagoras

```
int x; /* R1 */
int y; /* R2 */
int z; /* R3 */
int p; /* R4 */
x = 3;
y = 4;
z = 5;
if (x*x+y*y==z*z)
 p=1;
else
 p=0;
```



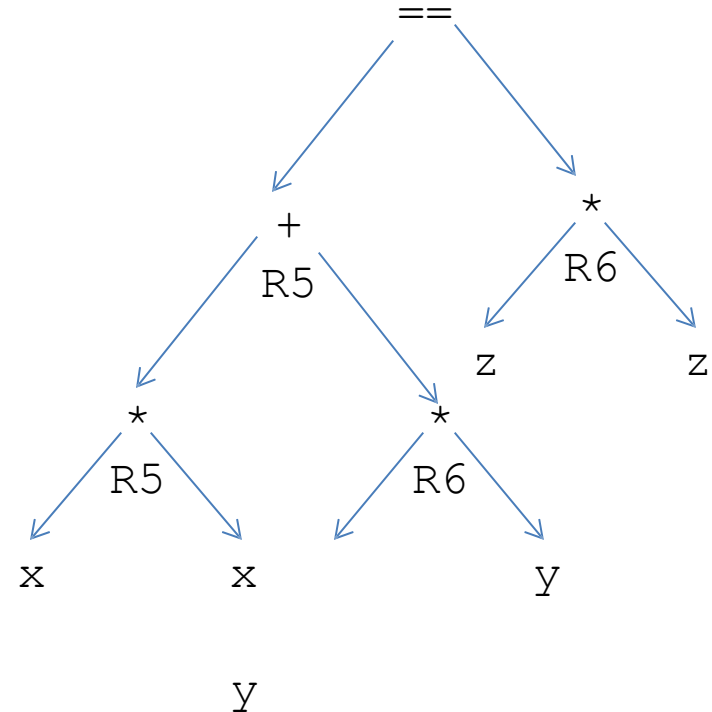
# Example: Pythagoras

```
int x; /* R1 */
int y; /* R2 */
int z; /* R3 */
int p; /* R4 */
x = 3;
y = 4;
z = 5;
if (x*x+y*y==z*z)
 p=1;
else
 p=0;
```



# Example: Pythagoras

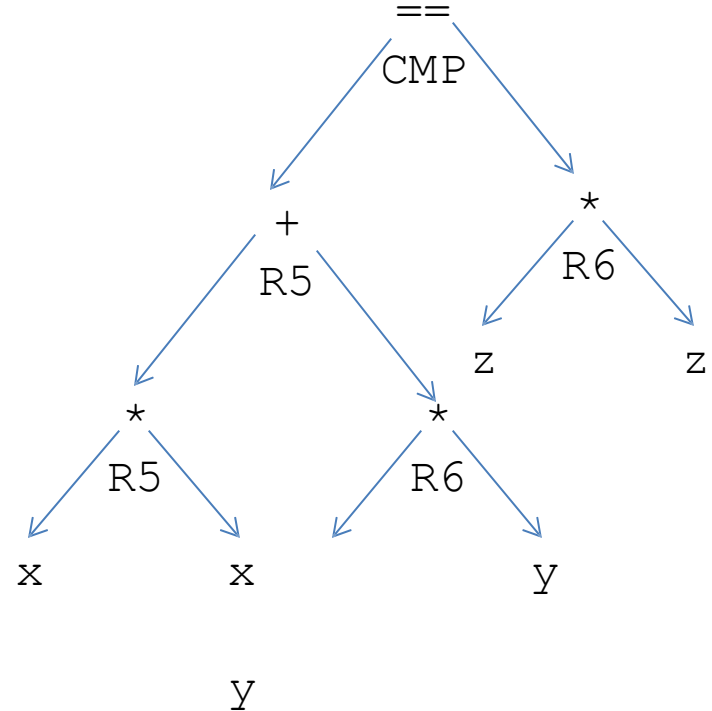
```
int x; /* R1 */
int y; /* R2 */
int z; /* R3 */
int p; /* R4 */
x = 3;
y = 4;
z = 5;
if (x*x+y*y==z*z)
 p=1;
else
 p=0;
```





# Example: Pythagoras

```
int x; /* R1 */
int y; /* R2 */
int z; /* R3 */
int p; /* R4 */
x = 3;
y = 4;
z = 5;
if (x*x+y*y==z*z)
 p=1;
else
 p=0;
```



# Example:

## Pythagoras

```
int x;
int y;
int z;
int p;
x = 3;
y = 4;
z = 5;
if (x*x+y*y==z*z)
 p=1;
else
 p=0;

.global _start
_start:
 MOV R1, #X
 MOV R2, #Y
 MOV R3, #Z
 MUL R5, R1, R1
 MUL R6, R2, R2
 ADD R5, R6
 MUL R6, R3, R3
 CMP R5, R6
 BEQ _same
 MOV R4, #0
 B _exit

_same:
 MOV R4, #1
```

# Example:

## Pythagoras

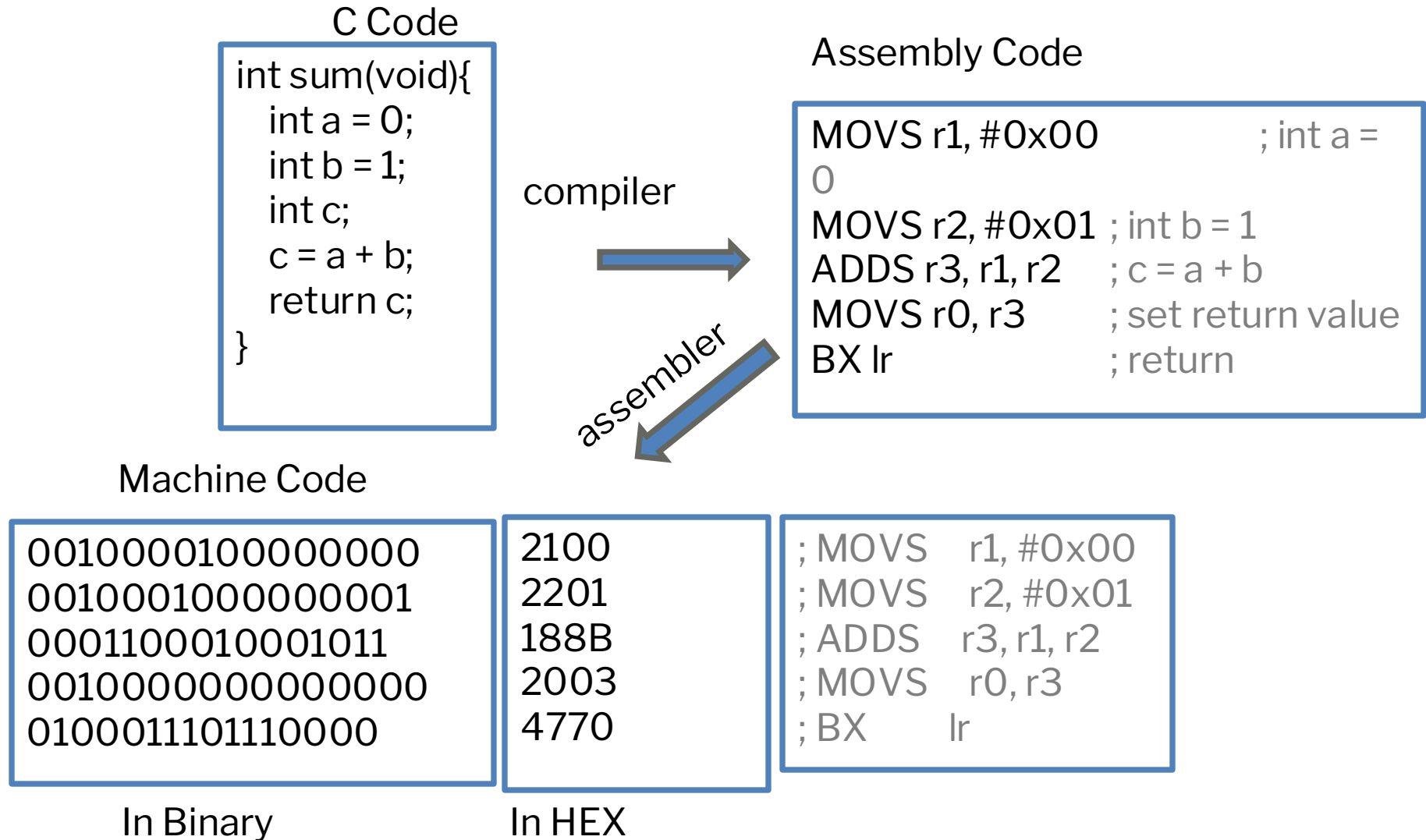
```
int x;
int y;
int z;
int p;
x = 3;
y = 4;
z = 5;
if (x*x+y*y==z*z)
 p=1;
else
 p=0;
```

```

_exit:
MOV R0, R4
MOV R7, #1
SWI 0

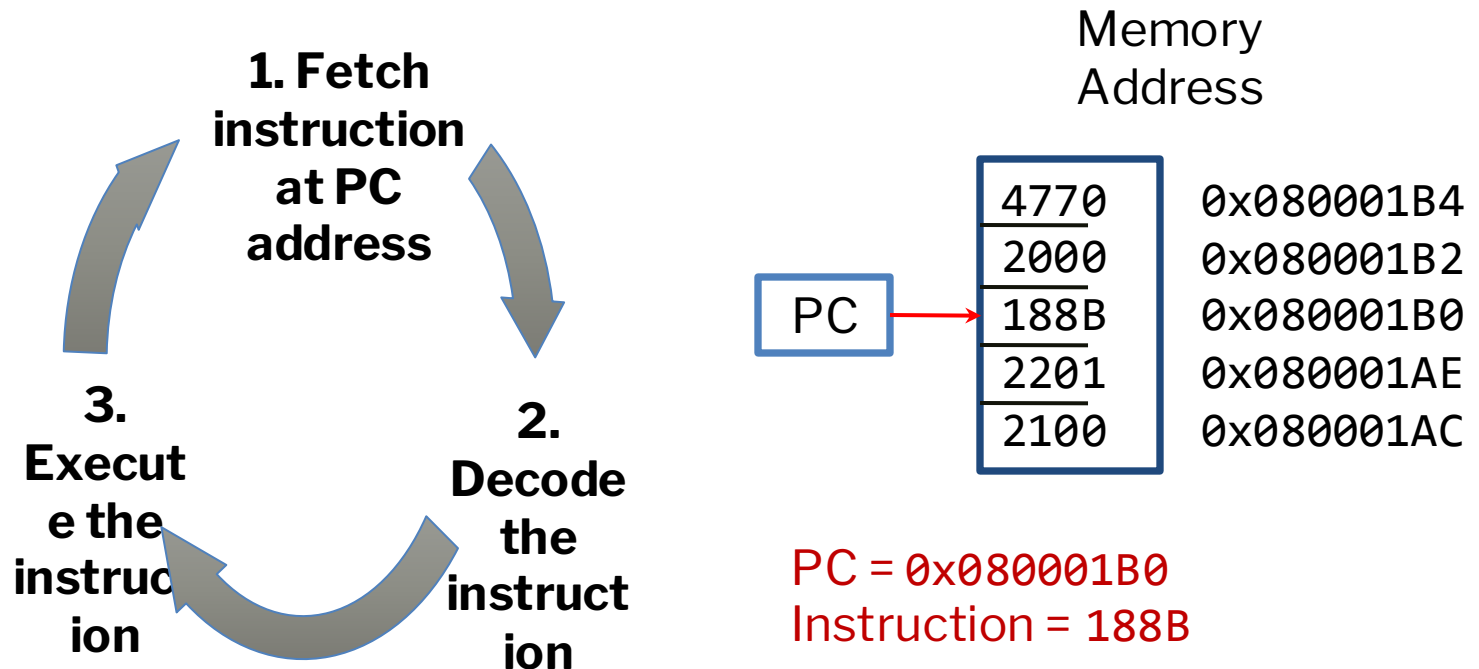
.data
.equ X, 3
.equ Y, 4
.equ Z, 5
```

# See a Program Runs



# Program Execution

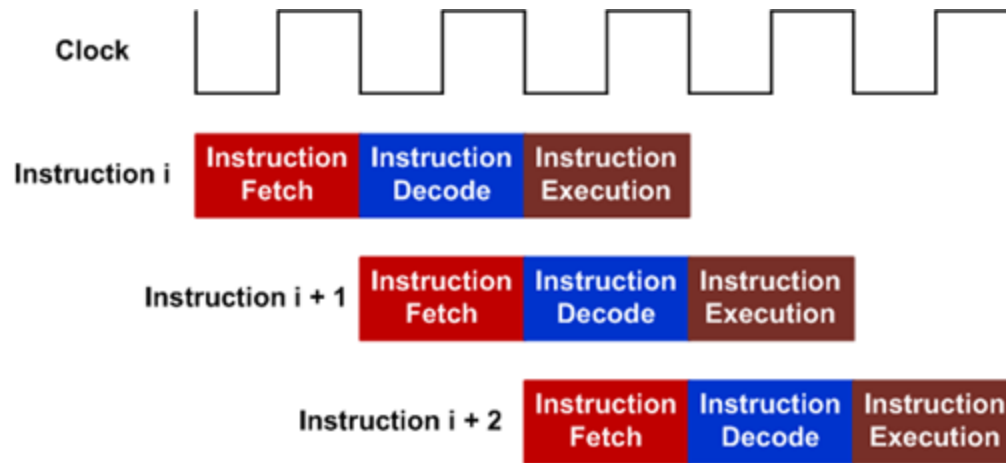
**Program Counter (PC)** is a register that holds the memory address of the next instruction to be fetched from the memory.



# Three-state pipeline: Fetch, Decode, Execution

**Pipelining** allows hardware resources to be fully utilized

One 32-bit instruction or two 16-bit instructions can be fetched.

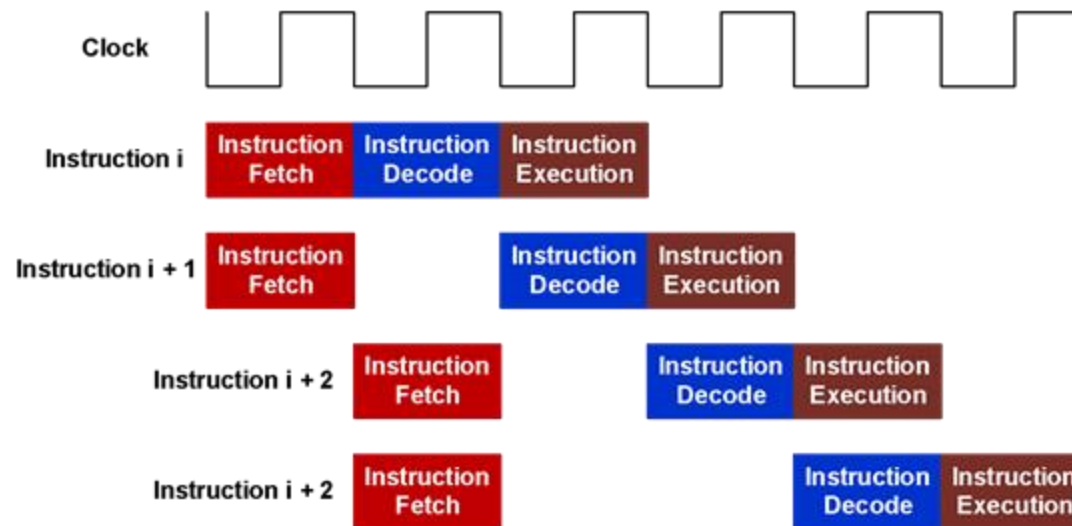


**Pipeline of 32-bit instructions**

# Three-state pipeline: Fetch, Decode, Execution

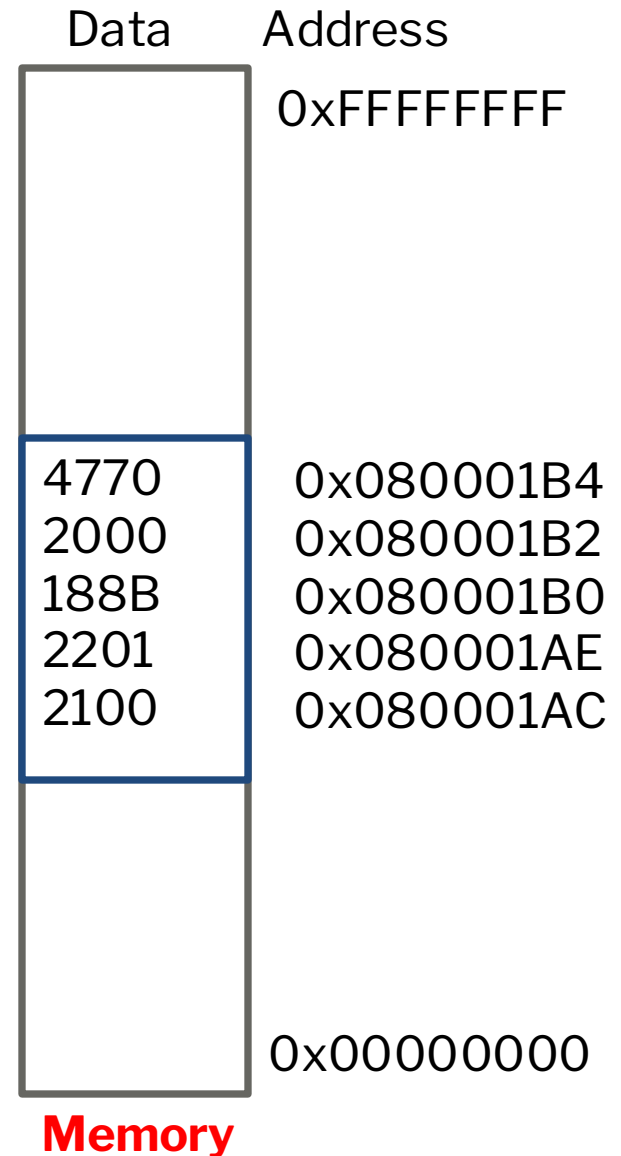
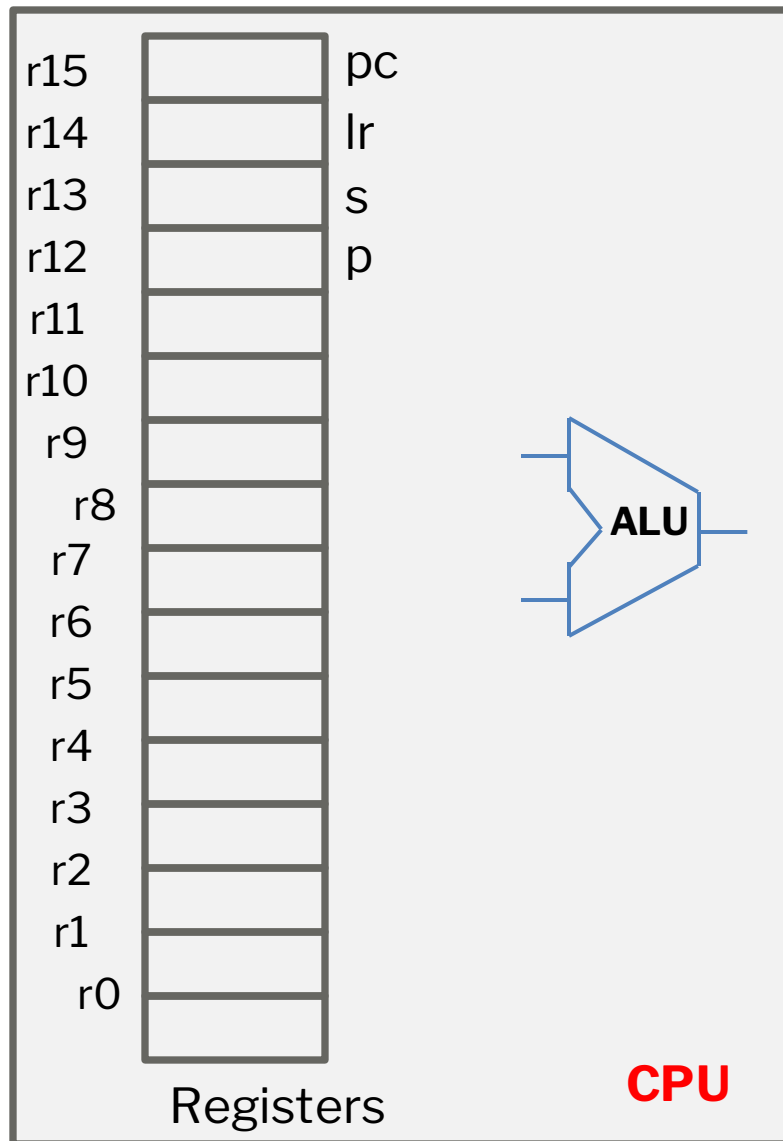
**Pipelining** allows hardware resources to be fully utilized

One 32-bit instruction or two 16-bit instructions can be fetched.



**Pipeline of 16-bit instructions**

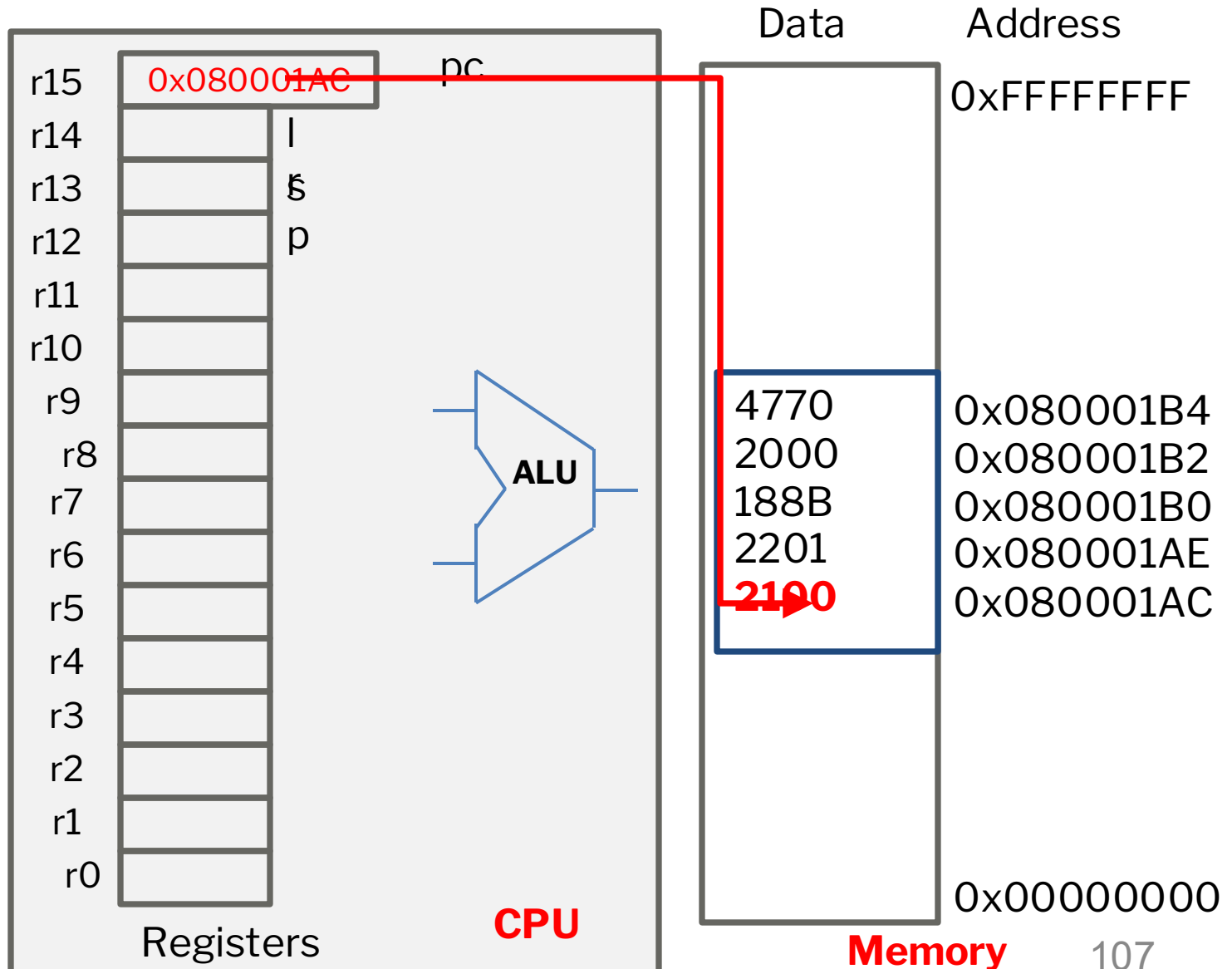
# Machine codes are stored in memory



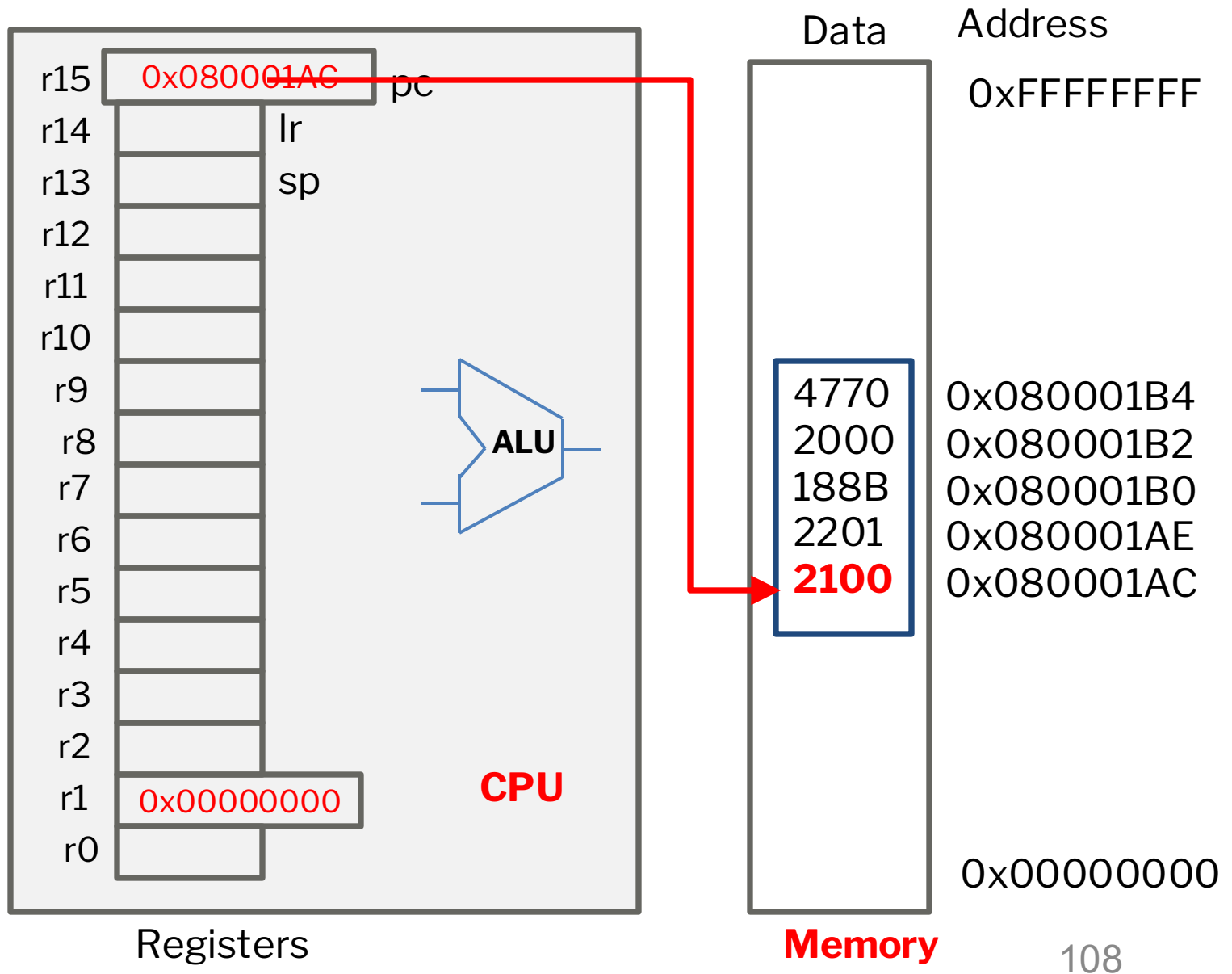


Fetch Instruction: pc = 0x08001AC

Decode Instruction: 2100 = **MOVS r1, #0x00**

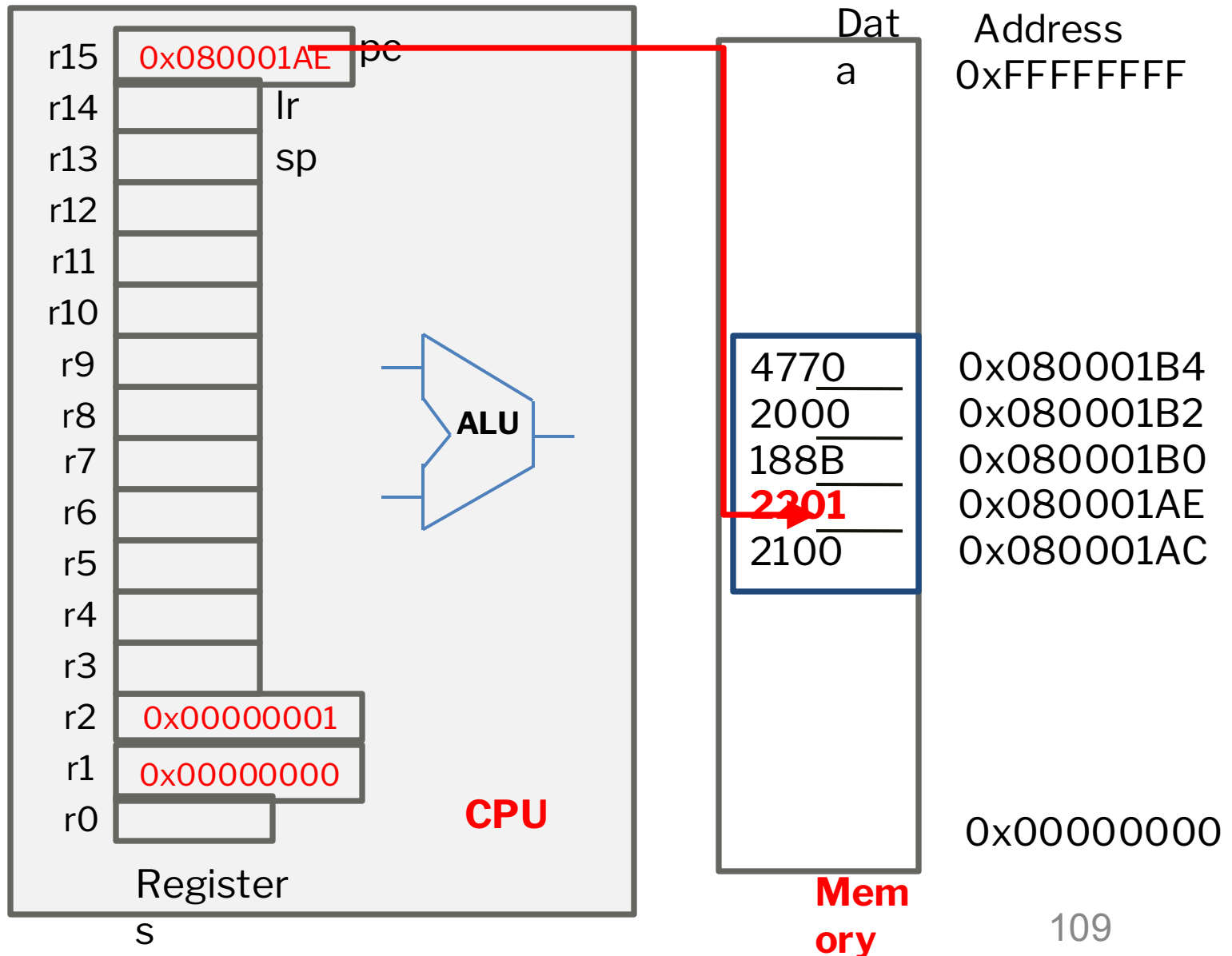


Execute Instruction: **MOVS r1, #0x00**



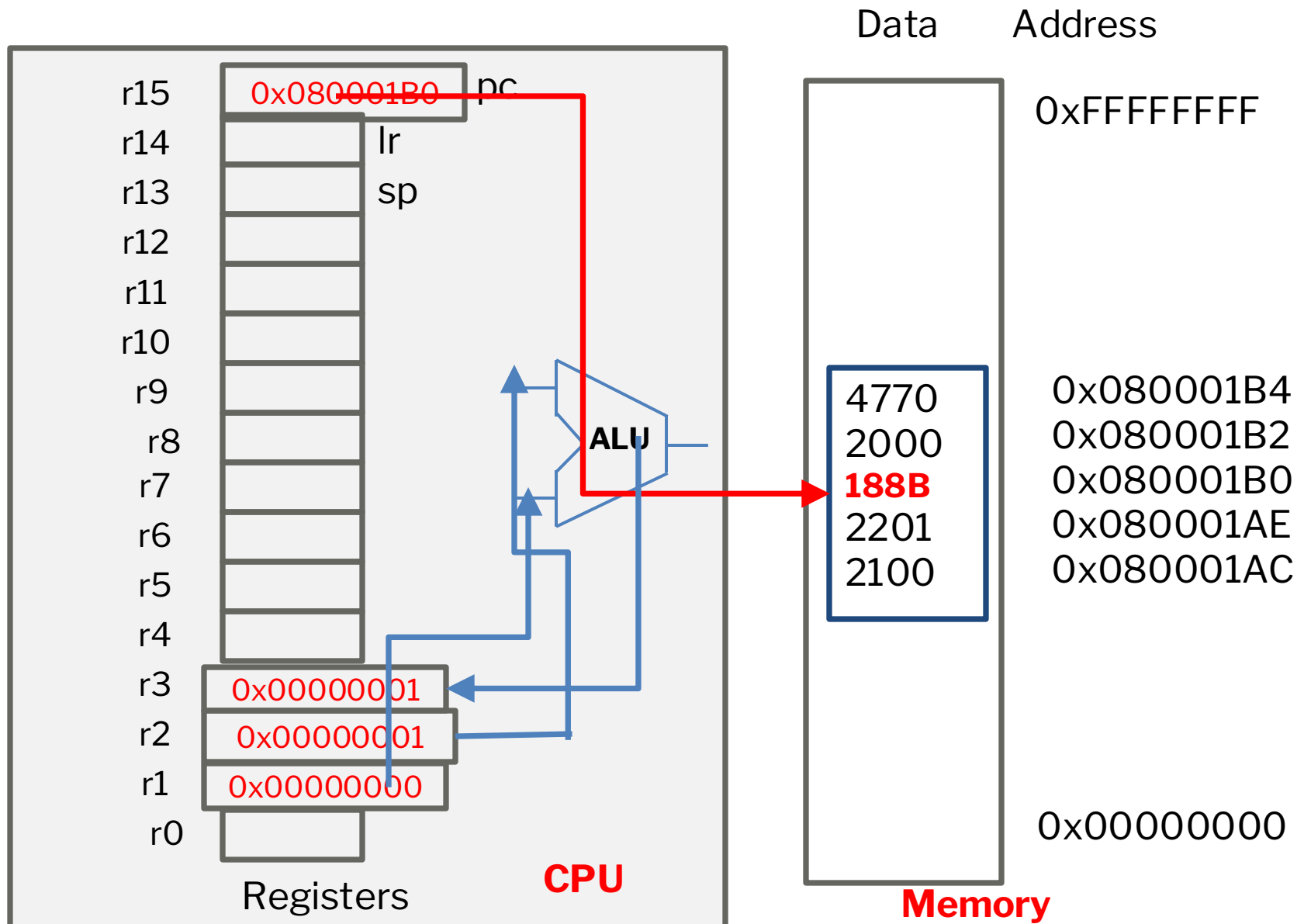
Fetch Next Instruction:  $pc = pc + 2$

Decode & Execute: 2201 = **MOVS r2, #0x01**



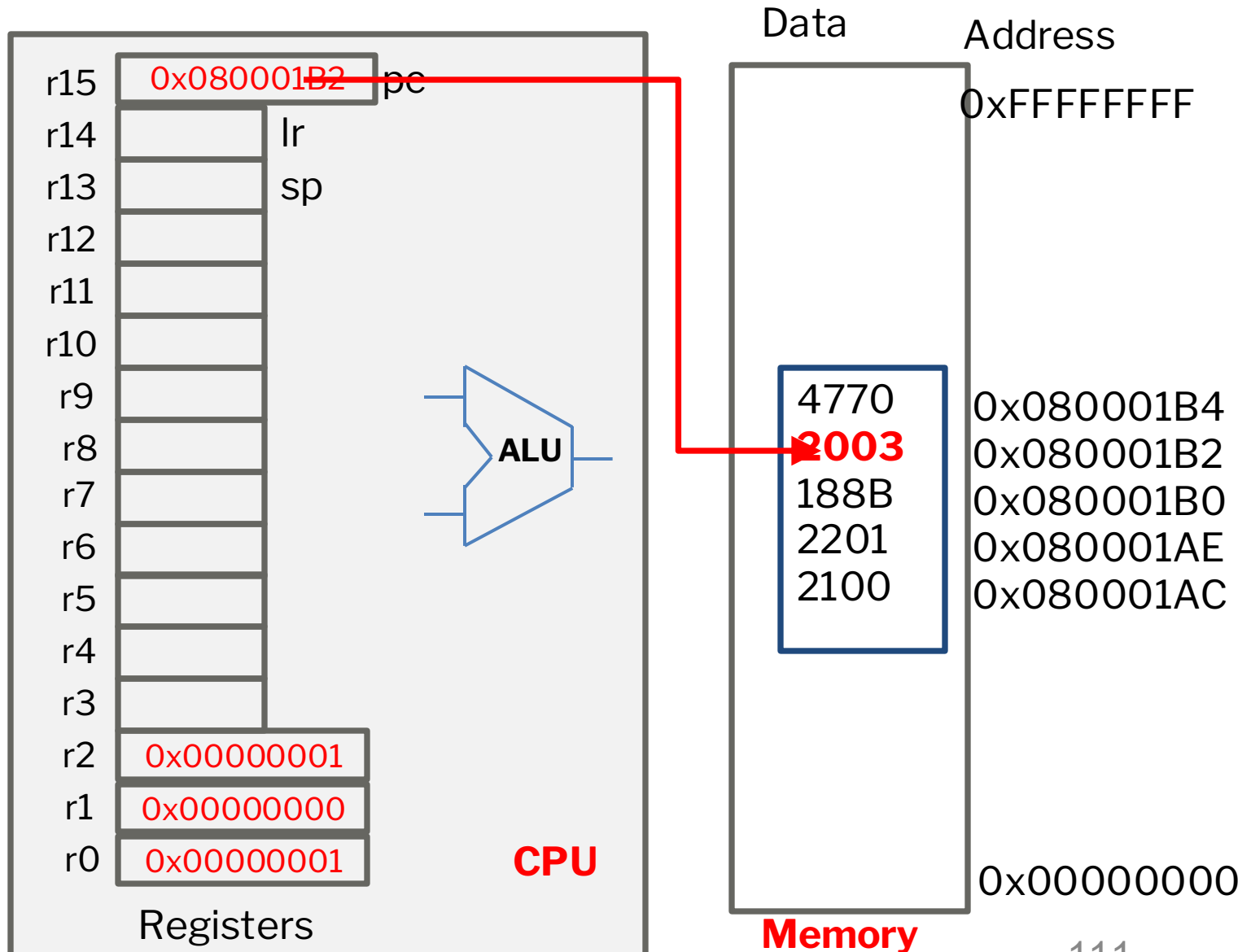
Fetch Next Instruction:  $pc = pc + 2$

Decode & Execute:  $188B = \text{ADDS } r3, r1, r2$



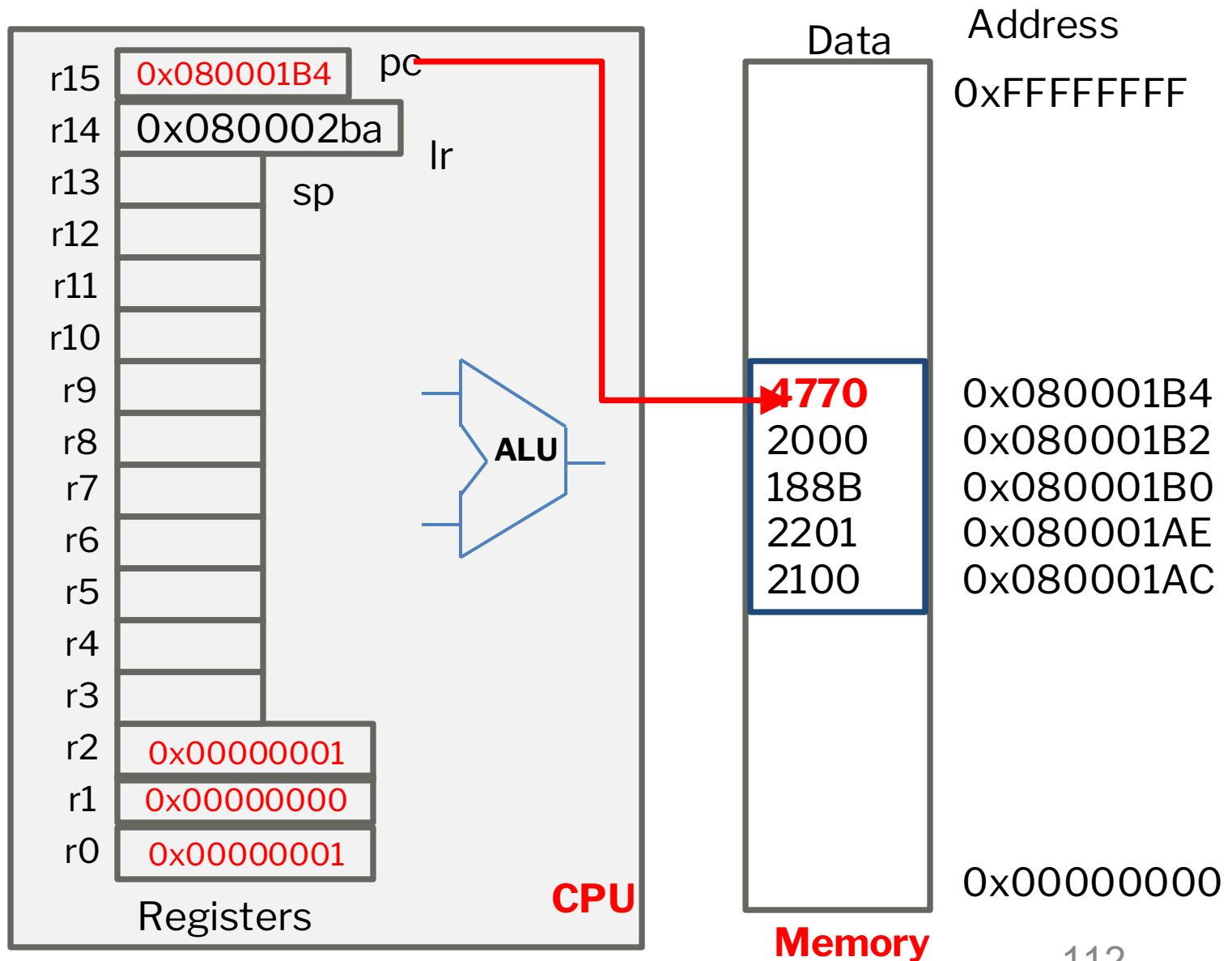
Fetch Next Instruction:  $pc = pc + 2$

Decode & Execute: 2000 = **MOVS r0, r3**



Fetch Next Instruction:  $pc = pc + 2$

Decode & Decode: 4770 = **BX Ir**

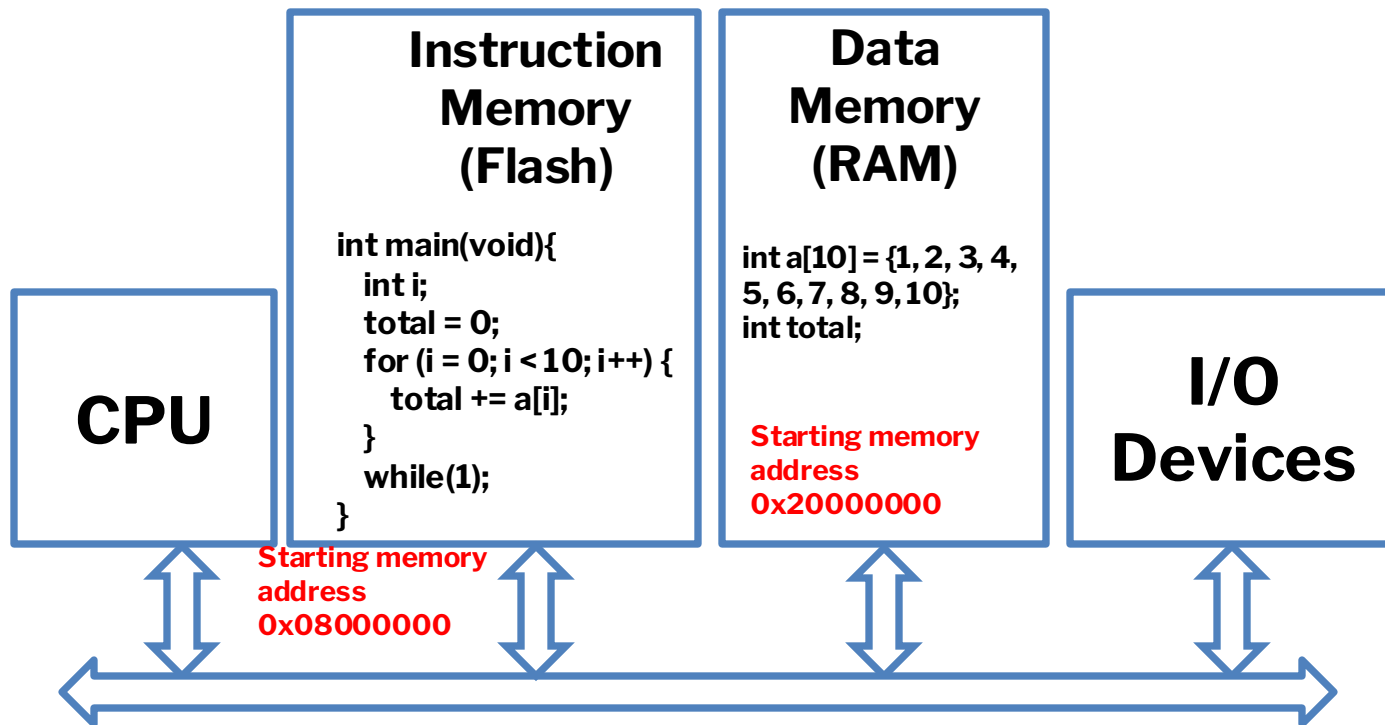


# Example: Calculate the Sum of an Array

```
int a[10] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10};
int total;

int main(void){
 int i;
 total = 0;
 for (i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
 total += a[i];
 }
 while(1);
}
```

# Example: Calculate the Sum of an Array





# Example: Calculate the Sum of an Array

## Instruction Memory (Flash)

```
int main(void){
 int i;
 total = 0;
 for (i = 0; i < 10;
 i++){
 total += a[i];
 }
 while(1);
}
```

Starting memory  
address  
**0x08000000**

```
0010 0001 0000
0000
0100 1010 0000
1000
0110 0000 0001
0001
0010 0000 0000
0000
1110 0000 0000
1000
0100 1001 0000
0111
1111 1000 0101
0001
0001 0000 0010
0000
0100 1010 0000
0100
0110 1000 0001
0010
0100 0100 0001
0001
0100 1010 0000
0011
0110 0000 0001
0001
```

```
MOVS r1, #0x00
LDR r2, = total_addr
STR r1, [r2, #0x00]
MOVS r0, #0x00
B Check
Loop: LDR r1, = a_addr
LDR r1, [r1, r0, LSL #2]
LDR r2, = total_addr
LDR r2, [r2, #0x00]
ADD r1, r1, r2
LDR r2, = total_addr
STR r1, [r2, #0x00]
ADDS r0, r0, #1
Check: CMP r0, #0x0A
BLT Loop
NOP
Self: B Self
```

# Example: Calculate the Sum of an Array

## Data Memory (RAM)

```
int a[10] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10};
int total;
```

Assume the starting memory address of  
the data memory is 0x20000000

|            |            |
|------------|------------|
| 0x20000000 | 0x00000001 |
| 0x20000004 | 0x00000002 |
| 0x20000008 | 0x00000003 |
| 0x2000000C | 0x00000004 |
| 0x20000010 | 0x00000005 |
| 0x20000018 | 0x00000006 |
| 0x2000001C | 0x00000007 |
| 0x20000020 | 0x00000008 |
| 0x20000024 | 0x00000009 |
| 0x20000028 | 0x0000000A |
| 0x2000002C | 0x00000000 |
| 0x20000030 | 0x00000000 |

Memory  
address  
in words

Memory  
content

a[0] = 0x00000001

a[1] = 0x00000002

a[2] = 0x00000003

a[3] = 0x00000004

a[4] = 0x00000005

a[5] = 0x00000006

a[6] = 0x00000007

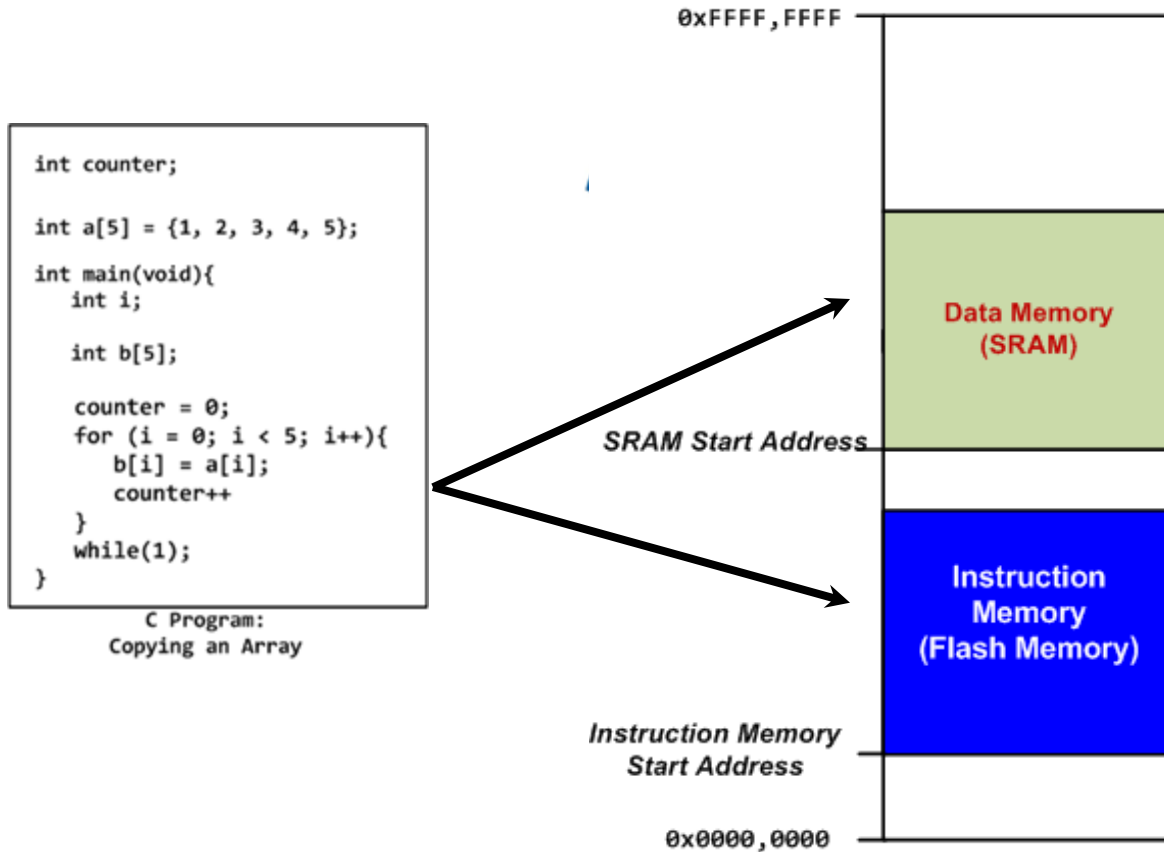
a[7] = 0x00000008

a[8] = 0x00000009

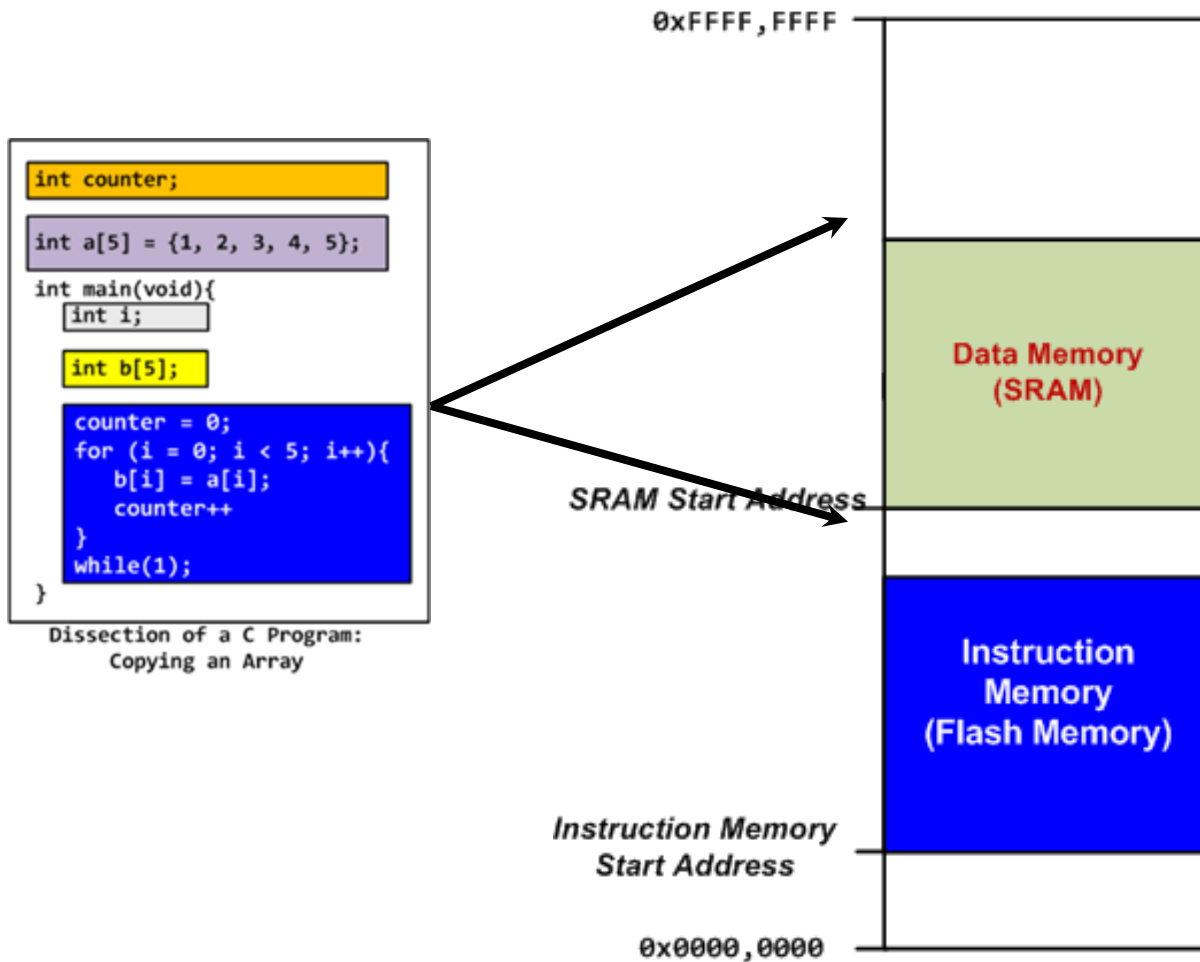
a[9] = 0x0000000A

total = 0x00000000

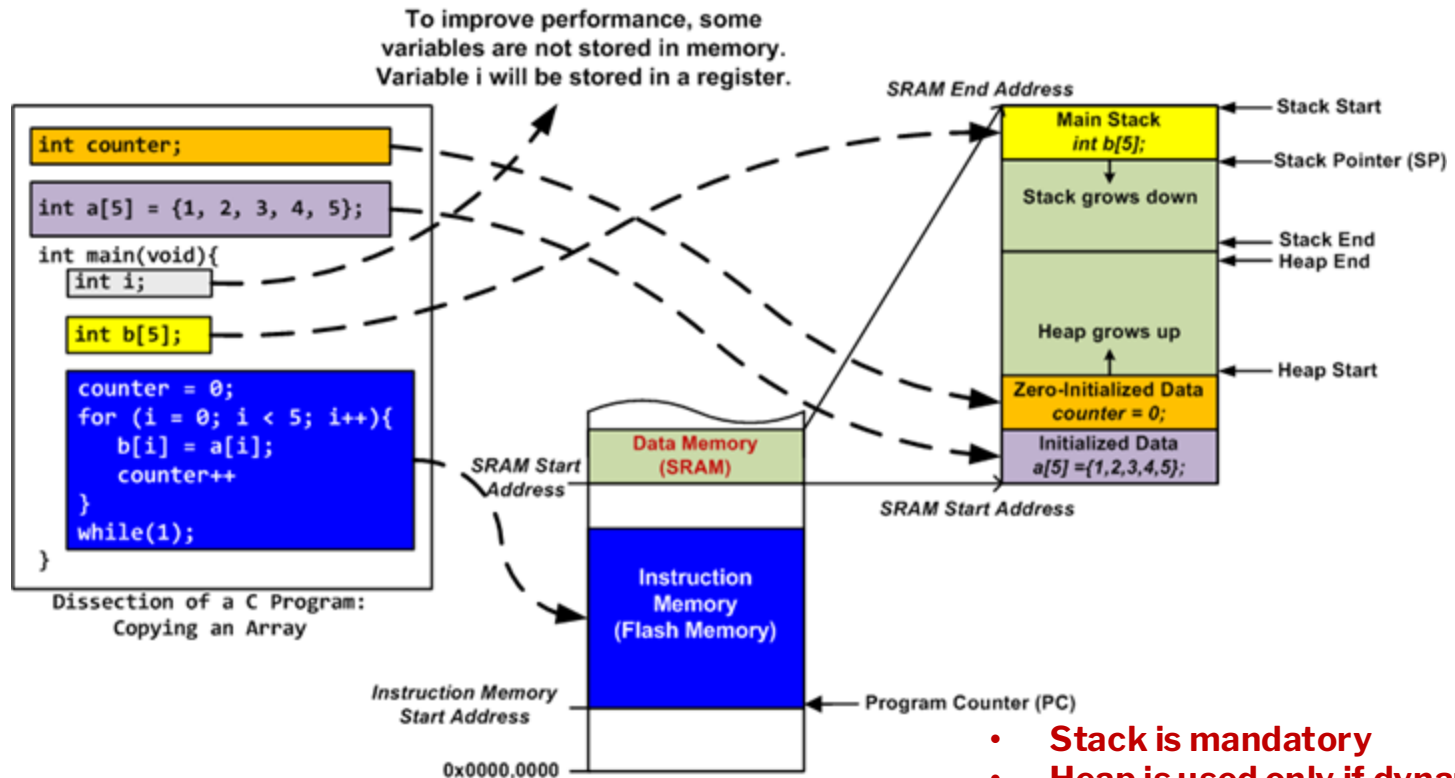
# Loading Code and Data into Memory



# Loading Code and Data into Memory



# Loading Code and Data into Memory



- **Stack is mandatory**
- **Heap is used only if dynamic allocation (e.g. *malloc*, *calloc*) is used.**