Computertechnik

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Computer Engineering

Computer Engineering is where microelectronics and software meet:

- Architecture and organization of computer systems
- Combines hardware and software to implement a computer
- Applications in embedded systems, information technology, and technical/scientific tools
- Historical development spanning over 70 years:
 - 1940s: Relay/vacuum tubes
 - 1950s: Transistors
 - 1970s: Integrated circuits (CMOS)
 - Present: Complex microprocessors with billions of transistors

von Neumann Architecture

The fundamental architecture used in most computers:

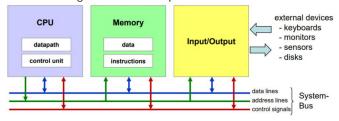
- Single memory for both data and instructions
- Sequential instruction execution
- Components: Control unit, ALU, memory, Input/Output
- Key limitation: Memory bottleneck ("von Neumann bottleneck")

Hardware ---

Basic Hardware Components

A computer system consists of four fundamental components:

- CPU (Central Processing Unit): Processes instructions and data
- Memory: Stores instructions and data
- Input/Output: Interface to external devices
- System Bus: Electrical connection between components
 - Address lines: Select memory location
 - Data lines: Transfer data (8/16/32/64 bits)
 - Control signals: Coordinate operations



CPU Components The CPU contains several key components: Datapath:

- Core Registers: Fast but limited storage inside CPU
- ALU (Arithmetic Logic Unit): Performs arithmetic and logic operations

Control Unit:

- Finite State Machine: Reads and executes instructions
- Controls program flow and manages instruction pipeline

Bus Interface: Connects CPU to system bus

Memory

A set of storage cells and the smallest addressable unit is a byte. $2^{\cal N}$ addresses:

- RAM (Random Access Memory): read/write
- ROM (Read-Only Memory): read-only

Memory Types

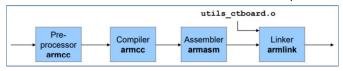
- Main Memory (Arbeitsspeicher):
 - Connected through System-Bus
 - Access to individual bytes
 - Volatile:
 - * SRAM (Static RAM) faster, more expensive
 - * DRAM (Dynamic RAM) needs refresh, cheaper
 - Non-volatile:
 - * ROM factory programmed
 - * Flash in-system programmable
- Secondary Storage:
 - Connected through I/O
 - Access to blocks of data
 - Non-volatile
 - $-\,$ Examples: HDD, SSD, CD, DVD
 - Slower but cheaper than main memory

Memory Addressing

- Each byte in memory has a unique address
- Address space depends on address bus width:
 - 8-bit address bus: 256 bytes (2^8)
 - 16-bit address bus: 64 KB (2^{16})
 - 32-bit address bus: 4 GB (2^{32})
- Memory map shows allocation of address ranges

Program Translation Process from C to executable

Translation from source code to executable involves four steps:



1. Preprocessor:

- Text processing
- Includes header files (#include)
- Expands macros (#define)
- Output: Modified source program (.i)

2. Compiler:

- Translates C to assembly
- CPU-specific code generation
- Optimization (if enabled)
- Output: Assembly program (.s)

Assembler:

- Converts assembly to machine code
- Creates relocatable object file
- Generates symbol table
- Output: Binary object file (.o)

4. Linker:

- Merges object files
- Resolves dependencies
- Relocates addressesLinks with libraries
- Output: Executable file (.axf)

Program Compilation Process

To compile and link a program:

- 1. Create source files (.c) and header files (.h)
- 2. Run preprocessor to expand includes and macros
- 3. Compile source files to object files
- 4. Link object files and libraries
- 5. Test executable

Common compiler flags:

- -c: Compile only, don't link
- -o: Specify output file name
- -O[0-3]: Optimization level
- -g: Include debug information

Simple Program Translation - From Source to Executable

```
// source.c

#include <stdio.h>
#define MAX 100

int main(void) {
    printf("Max is %d\n", MAX);
    return 0;
}
```

After preprocessing (.i):

```
// Contents of stdio.h included here
int main(void) {
    printf("Max is %d\n", 100);
    return 0;
}
```

Assembly output (.s):

```
AREA | .text|, CODE, READONLY
EXPORT main

main

PUSH {LR}
LDR R0, = string1
LDR R1, = 100

BL printf

MOVS R0, #0
POP {PC}
ALIGN

string1 DCB "Max is %d\n",0
END
```

Host vs Target Development

When developing for embedded systems:

- Host: Development computer where code is written and compiled
- Target: Embedded system where code will run
- Cross-compilation: Compiling on host for different target architecture
- Tool chain: Complete set of development tools (compiler, linker, debugger)

Understanding assembly language is important because it:

- · Helps understand machine-level operation
- Aids in debugging and optimization
- Required for system programming
- · Essential for security analysis

Cortex-M Architecture

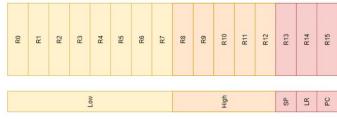
Core Architecture Overview

The ARM Cortex-M is a 32-bit processor architecture designed for embedded systems:

- Load/store architecture
- 32-bit data path
- Thumb instruction set
- · Hardware multiply and optional divide
- Harvard architecture variant (separate instruction and data buses)
- Designed for embedded applications:
 - Low cost and power consumption
 - Real-time capabilities
 - Interrupt handling
 - Debug support

Registers

The Cortex-M has 16 core registers, each 32-bit wide:



- R0-R7: Lower registers general purpose
 - Used by most instructions
 - Parameter passing in functions (R0-R3)
 - Results returned in R0
- R8-R12: Higher registers general purpose
 - Limited instruction support
 - Often used for temporary storage
- R13 (SP): Stack Pointer temporary storage
 - Points to current stack position
 - Must be word-aligned (multiple of 4)
- R14 (LR): Link Register return address from procedures
 - Stores return address for function calls
 - Can be saved to stack for nested calls
- R15 (PC): Program Counter address of next instruction
 - Points to next instruction
 - Auto-incremented during execution

Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU)

32-bit wide processing Unit and supports:

- Arithmetic operations:
 - Addition (ADD, ADC)
 - Subtraction (SUB, SBC)
 - Multiplication (MUL)
 - Division (Optional)
- Logic operations:
 - AND, ORR, EOR (XOR)
 - BIC (Bit Clear)
 - MVN (NOT)
- Shift and rotate operations
- Compare operations

APSR (Flag Register)

The Application Program Status Register (APSR) contains flags:

- N: Set when result is negative (bit 31 = 1)
- Z: Set when result is zero
- C: Set on carry or borrow
- V: Set on signed overflow

Instruction suffix 'S' (e.g., ADDS) updates these flags.

Flag Usage Examples

After arithmetic operations with 'S' suffix:

```
MOVS RO, #0xFF; RO = 255 (max unsigned 8-bit)
2 ADDS RO, #1; RO = 0, Z=1, C=1 (overflow)

4 MOVS RO, #0x7F; RO = 127 (max signed 8-bit)
5 ADDS RO, #1; RO = 128, N=1, V=1 (signed overflow)

6 MOVS RO, #5
8 SUBS RO, #10; RO = -5, N=1, C=0 (borrow)
```

Instruction Set

The Cortex-M uses 16-bit Thumb instructions:

Label	Instr.	Operands	Comments
demoprg		R0,#0xA5 R1,#0x11 R0,R0,R1	; copy 0xA5 into register R0; copy 0x11 into register R1; add contents of R0 and R1

Main instruction types:

- Data Transfer: Move, Load, Store operations
 - MOV/MOVS Register to register
 - LDR/STR Memory access
 - PUSH/POP Stack operations
 - LDM/STM Multiple register transfer
- Data Processing: Arithmetic, logical, shift operations
 - ADD/SUB Arithmetic
 - AND/ORR/EOR Logical
 - LSL/LSR/ASR Shifts
 - CMP/CMN Compare
- Control Flow: Branch and function calls
 - B Branch
 - BL Branch with Link
 - BX Branch and Exchange
 - Conditional variants (BEQ. BNE. etc.)

Common Instruction Formats

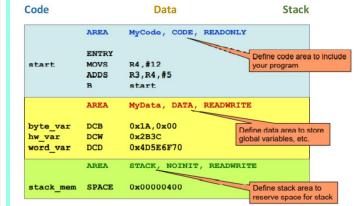
Register operations:

```
: Register operations
          R0 \cdot R1 \cdot R2 : R0 = R1 + R2
   ADDS
                       ; RO = R1
  MOVS
          RO , R1
  ANDS
                        : RO = RO \& R1
          RO. R1
  : Immediate values
                        ; Load immediate value
  MOVS
          RO, #100
  ADDS
          RO . RO . #1
                       ; Add immediate
  CMP
           RO, #10
                        ; Compare with immediate
9 ; Memory access
                        ; Load from memory
  LDR
           RO. [R1]
  STR
           RO, [R1, #4]; Store with offset
12 LDRB
          RO, [R1]
                        ; Load byte
```

Basic Assembly Program Structure Example of a simple assembly program:

```
Label Instr. Operands Comments
demoprg MOVS R0,#0xA5 ;copy 0xA5 into R0
MOVS R1,#0x11 ;copy 0x11 into R1
ADDS R0,R0,R1 ;add R0 and R1, store in R0
```

Assembly Program Sections Program memory organized in sections:



Code Section (CODE):

- Contains program instructions
- Usually read-only
- Placed in Flash memory
- Can contain constants (literal pool)

Data Section (DATA):

- Contains global/static variables
- Read-write access
- Placed in RAM
- Initialized at startup

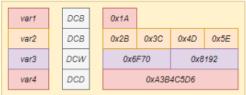
Stack Section: (STACK)

- Dynamic memory allocation
- Used for local variables
- Function call management
- Grows downward in memory

Initialized vs uninitialized Data

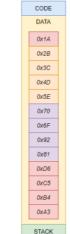
Directives for initialized data:

- DCB: Define Constant Byte (8-bit)
- DCW: Define Constant Half-Word (16-bit)
- DCD: Define Constant Word (32-bit)



Directive for uninitialized data:

• SPACE: Reserve specified number of bytes



Data Definition Memory layout for different data types:

```
DCB
                0 x 1 A
var1
                                     ; single byte
var2
        DCB
                0x2B,0x3C,0x4D,0x5E ; byte array
       DCW
                0x6F70,0x8192
                                     ;half-words
var3
       DCD
var4
                0xA3B4C5D6
                                     ;word
       SPACE
               100
                                     ;reserve 100 bytes
data
```

Creating Assembly Programs Steps for creating an assembly program:

1. Define program sections: (CODE, DATA)

```
AREA |.text|, CODE, READONLY
AREA |.data|, DATA, READWRITE
```

2. Declare external symbols: (IMPORT/EXPORT)

```
IMPORT external_func ; External function EXPORT my_function ; Public function
```

- 3. Define data:
- Define initialized data using DCx directives
- Reserve uninitialized data using SPACE

```
AREA |.data|, DATA, READWRITE
vari DCD 0x1234 ; Word
array SPACE 100 ; Reserve space
```

4. Write program code using proper instruction syntax:

```
AREA |.text|, CODE, READONLY
ENTRY; Program entry
main
; Your code here
END
```

5. End program with END directive!

Common Assembly Patterns

1. Loop with counter:

```
MOVS RO, #0 ; Initialize counter
loop; Loop body
ADDS RO, #1 ; Increment
CMP RO, #10 ; Check condition
BLT loop ; Branch if less than
```

2. Memory copy:

```
; R0 = source, R1 = destination, R2 = count

copy_loop

LDR R3, [R0], #4 ; Load and increment

STR R3, [R1], #4 ; Store and increment

SUBS R2, #1 ; Decrement counter

BNE copy_loop ; Continue if not done
```

3. Function call with parameters:

```
MOVS RO, #1 ; First parameter
MOVS R1, #2 ; Second parameter
BL function ; Call function
; Result in RO
```

Complete Program Example

Program to sum array elements:

```
AREA |.text|, CODE, READONLY
   EXPORT array_sum
array_sum
   MOVS
          R2, #0
                         ; Initialize sum
   MOVS
          R3, #0
                         ; Initialize index
loop
   LDR
          R1, [R0, R3]; Load array element
          R2, R2, R1
                         ; Add to sum
   ADDS
          R3, R3, #4
                         ; Next element
   ADDS
   CMP
          R3, #16
                         ; Check if done
   BLT
          loop
                        ; Continue if not
   MOVS
          RO , R2
                         ; Return sum
   BX
          LR
                        ; Return
   END
```

ADD COMPLETE EXAMPLES HERE!

Data Transfer

Data Transfer Overview ARM Cortex-M uses a load/store architecture:

- Memory can only be accessed through load and store instructions
- All other operations work on registers
- Data processing only between registers
- Various addressing modes for flexible memory access:
 - Immediate offset: Fixed displacement from base
 - Register offset: Variable displacement using register
 - Pre-indexed: Address calculated before access
 - Post-indexed: Address calculated after access
- Steps: Load operands \rightarrow Execute \rightarrow Store result

Two main approaches to memory access, the other one: Register Memory Architecture (e.g., Intel x86):

- Operations can use memory operands directly
- Results can be written directly to memory
- More flexible but more complex instructions

Load Instructions

Main load instructions for moving data into registers:

- MOVS (Move and Set flags):
 - Register to Register: MOVS R1, R2
 - 8-bit immediate: MOVS R1, #0x1C
 - Constant: MOVS R1, #MyConst
 - Limitations: Only 8-bit immediates, only low registers
- LDR (Load Register):
 - 32-bit literal: LDR R1, #0xA1B2C3D4
 - PC-relative: LDR R1, [PC, #12]
 - Pseudo instruction: LDR R1, =MyConst
 - Register indirect: LDR R1, [R2]
 - Immediate offset: LDR R1, [R2, #4]
 - Register offset: LDR R1, [R2, R3]
- LDRB (Load Register Byte):
 - Loads 8-bit value
 - Bits 31 to 8 are set to zero (Zero extension to 32 bits)
 - Common for arrays of bytes
- LDRH (Load Register Half-word):
- Loads 16-bit value
- Bits 31 to 16 are set to zero (Zero extension to 32 bits)
- Common for arrays of half-words
- LDRSB/LDRSH (Load Signed Register Byte/Half-word):
 - Sign extension to 32 bits
 - Used for signed small integers

Load Instruction Examples

```
: MOV examples
MOVS
       R1, #0xFF
                        ; Load immediate 255
MOVS
       R2, R1
                        ; Copy R1 to R2
: LDR examples
       R1, =0x12345678; Load 32-bit constant
LDR
LDR
       R2. [R1]
                        : Load from address in R1
LDR
       R3, [R1, #4]
                        ; Load with offset
LDR
       R4, [R1, R2]
                        ; Load with register offset
: Bvte/Half-word loads
LDRB
       R1, [R2]
                        ; Load unsigned byte
LDRSB
       R1. [R2]
                        : Load signed byte
                        ; Load unsigned half-word
LDRH
       R1. [R2]
LDRSH
       R1, [R2]
                        ; Load signed half-word
```

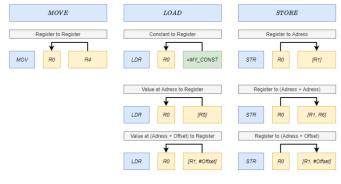
Store Instructions

Instructions for storing data from registers to memory:

- STR (Store Register):
 - Basic store: STR R1, [R2]
 - With immediate offset: STR R1, [R2, #0x04]
 - With register offset: STR R1, [R2, R3]
 - Word-aligned addresses only
- STRB (Store Register Byte):
 - Stores lowest 8 bits of register
 - No alignment requirements
- STRH (Store Register Half-word):
 - Stores lowest 16 bits of register
 - Must be half-word aligned

Memory Access -

Memory Layout for array elements and instructions:



Size considerations:

- Array elements: 3 * 4 Bytes
 Instructions: 5 * 2 Bytes
 Literals (0x08): 1 * 4 Bytes
- Memory Access Patterns in Load/Store Architecture (ARM Coretx-M)

Steps for accessing memory:

- 1. Determine required data size (byte, half-word, word)
- 2. Choose appropriate load/store instruction
- 3. Calculate correct memory address
- 4. Consider alignment requirements
- 5. Load/store data using proper addressing mode

Memory Alignment Important alignment rules:

- Word access (LDR/STR):
 - Address must be multiple of 4
 - Misaligned access causes fault
- Half-word access (LDRH/STRH):
- Address must be multiple of 2
- Byte access (LDRB/STRB):
 - No alignment requirements
- Stack operations:
 - SP must be word-aligned
 - PUSH/POP automatically maintain alignment

Basic Data Transfer Operations Common data transfer operations:

```
; Load operations
2 MOVS R1, #42 ; Load immediate value
3 MOVS R2, R1 ; Copy register
4 LDR R3, = 0x1234 ; Load 32-bit constant
5 LDR R4, [R3] ; Load from memory
6 LDRB R5, [R3, #1] ; Load byte with offset
7
8 ; Store operations
9 STR R1, [R2] ; Store word
10 STRB R1, [R2, #4] ; Store byte with offset
11 STRH R1, [R2, R3] ; Store half-word with register offset
```

Common Data Transfer Patterns

1. Copy memory block:

```
; R0 = source, R1 = dest, R2 = count

loop

LDR R3, [R0], #4 ; Load and increment

STR R3, [R1], #4 ; Store and increment

SUBS R2, #1 ; Decrement counter

BNE loop ; Continue if not zero
```

2. Initialize memory block:

```
; R0 = start, R1 = value, R2 = count
loop

STR R1, [R0], #4 ; Store and increment
SUBS R2, #1 ; Decrement counter
BNE loop ; Continue if not zero
```

3. Search memory:

```
; RO = start, R1 = value to find, R2 = count
loop
    LDR
                            : Load and increment
            R3. [R0], #4
    CMP
            R3, R1
                            ; Compare with value
    BEO
            found
                            : Branch if found
    SUBS
            R2, #1
                            ; Decrement counter
    BNE
            loop
                           ; Continue if not zero
not found
    ; Handle not found case
found
    : Handle found case
```

Arrays -

Memory Access Loading and storing array elements:

```
AREA my_data, DATA, READWRITE

00000000 11223344 my_array DCD 0x11223344

00000004 55667788 DCD 0x55667788

00000008 99AABBCC DCD 0x99AABBCC

AREA myCode, CODE, READONLY
```

```
Not content of my_array,
                                                    but address of my_array
                  ; load base and offset registers
0000007C 4906
                        R1,=my array ; load address of array
                  LDR
0000007E 4B07
                 LDR
                        R3,=0x08
                  ; indirect addressing
00000080 680C
                        R4, [R1]
                                       ; base R1
00000082 6840
                 T.DR
                        R5, [R1, #0x04] ; base R1, immediate offset
00000084 58CE
                 LDR
                        R6, [R1, R3]
                                      ; base R1, offset R3
```

Accessing Array Elements

Steps for array access:

- 1. Calculate element offset:
- Byte array: offset = index
- Half-word array: offset = index * 2
- Word array: offset = index * 4
- 2. Choose appropriate instruction:
- LDRB/STRB for byte arrays
- LDRH/STRH for half-word arrays
- LDR/STR for word arrays

Example implementation:

```
; Access array[i] where i is in R1
2 ; Array base address in RO
4 ; For byte array
LDRB R2, [R0, R1] ; R2 = array[i]
 ; For half-word array
                        ; R2 = i * 2
 LSLS
        R2, R1, #1
 LDRH
         R3, [R0, R2]
                        ; R3 = array[i]
 ; For word array
         R2, R1, #2
                        ; R2 = i * 4
 LSLS
LDR
         R3, [R0, R2]
                        ; R3 = array[i]
```

Multiple Register Transfer -

Multiple Register Transfer

LDM (Load Multiple) and STM (Store Multiple):

- Load/store multiple registers in one instruction
- More efficient than individual loads/stores
- Used for stack operations (PUSH/POP)
- Register list specified in curly braces

Example:

```
LDM RO!, {R1-R4} ; Load 4 consecutive words STM RO!, {R1-R4} ; Store 4 consecutive words
```

Multiple Data Transfer Loading/Storing multiple registers:

```
; Store multiple registers

PUSH {RO-R3, LR} ; Push registers to stack

; Load multiple registers

POP {RO-R3, PC} ; Pop and return

; Load multiple memory locations

LDM RO!, {R1-R4} ; Load 4 words, update RO

; Store multiple memory locations

RO!, {R1-R4} ; Store 4 words, update RO
```

Multi-Word Data Transfer

For transferring data larger than 32 bits:

1. Loading 96-bit value:

```
; Load 96-bit value from memory
; R3(MSW), R2, R1(LSW) contain result
; Memory address in R6
LDM R6, {R1-R3} ; Load all words at once

; Alternative using individual loads:
LDR R1, [R6] ; Load LSW
LDR R2, [R6, #4] ; Load middle word
LDR R3, [R6, #8] ; Load MSW
```

2. Storing 96-bit value:

```
; Store 96-bit value to memory
; R3(MSW), R2, R1(LSW) contain data
; Memory address in R6

STM R6, {R1-R3} ; Store all words at once
; Alternative using individual stores:

STR R1, [R6] ; Store LSW

STR R2, [R6, #4] ; Store middle word
STR R3, [R6, #8] ; Store MSW
```

Stack Operations -

Stack Access Instructions

Special variants of LDM/STM for stack operations:

- PUSH {register list}:
 - Decrements SP
 - Stores registers
 - Example: PUSH {RO-R3, LR}
- POP {register list}:
 - Loads registers
 - Increments SP
 - Example: POP {RO-R3, PC}

Important considerations:

- Always check alignment requirements
- Be aware of endianness (STM32 is little-endian)
- Consider using multiple register transfer for efficiency
- Manage literal pool placement in code
- Stack operations must maintain SP word alignment

Pseudo Instructions ---

LDR Pseudo Instructions

The LDR pseudo instruction LDR Rx, =value is expanded by the assembler:

- 1. For literal values:
- Assembler creates 'literal pool' at convenient location
- Allocates and initializes memory with DCD directive
- Uses PC-relative addressing to access value
- 2. For addresses:
- Places address in literal pool
- Generates PC-relative load instruction

Example:

```
LDR R1, =0xFF55AABO ; Pseudo instruction
; Assembler converts to:
LDR R1, [PC, #offset]
...
DCD 0xFF55AABO ; In literal pool
```

Pseudo Instruction vs Direct Load The difference between LDR forms:

```
LDR R5, mylita ; Loads value at mylita 2 LDR R5, =mylita ; Loads address of mylita 3 mylita DCD 0xFF001122 ; Data definition
```

First instruction loads 0xFF001122, second loads address of mylita.

Arithmetic Operations

Basic Arithmetic Instructions

Core arithmetic operations:

- ADD/ADDS: Addition (A + B)
- **ADCS**: Addition with Carry (A + B + c)
- ADR: Address to Register (PC + A)
- **SUB/SUBS**: Subtraction (A B)
- **SBCS**: Subtraction with carry/borrow (A B !c)
- **RSBS**: Reverse Subtract $(-1 \cdot A)$
- **MULS**: Multiplication $(A \cdot B)$

Addition Operations Addition instructions and their uses:

```
    ADDS Rd. Rn. Rm
```

- Rd = Rn + Rm
- Updates flags
- Only low registers

No flag updates Can use high registers

· ADD Rd. Rm

- Rd = Rd + Rm

• RSBS Rd, Rn, #0

- Rd = -Rn (2's complement)

Special case for negation

- · ADDS Rd, #imm
 - Rd = Rd + immediate
 - 8-bit immediate value only

Example encodings:

```
: Different ADD variants
       R1, R2, R3
                       ; R1 = R2 + R3, update flags
ADD
        R8, R9
                        ; R8 = R8 + R9, no flags
ADDS
       R1, #255
                        ; R1 = R1 + 255, update flags
```

Subtraction Operations Subtraction instructions and their uses:

· SUBS Rd. Rn. Rm

- Rd = Rn Rm
- Updates flags
- Only low registers
- SUBS Rd, #imm
- -Rd = Rd immediate
- 8-bit immediate value

Example encodings:

```
; Different SUB variants
SUBS
       R1, R2, R3
                       ; R1 = R2 - R3
SUBS
       R1, #100
                       ; R1 = R1 - 100
RSBS
       R1, R2, #0
                       ; R1 = -R2
```

Multiplication Simple multiplication examples:

```
; Basic multiplication
        RO, R1, RO
                        ; RO = R1 * RO
; Multiply by constant using shifts
                        ; R0 = R0 * 4
        RO, RO, #2
; Multiply by 10 (8 + 2)
        R1, R0, #3
                        ; R1 = R0 * 8
LSLS
LSLS
        R2, R0, #1
                        ; R2 = R0 * 2
ADDS
        RO . R1 . R2
                        ; R0 = R0 * 10
```

Signed vs. Unsigned Arithmetic -

Arithmetic Operations Steps for arithmetic operations:

- 1. Determine if operation is signed or unsigned
- 2. Choose appropriate instruction (with or without 'S')
- 3. Consider potential carry/overflow conditions
- 4. For multi-word operations:
 - Start with least significant words
 - Use carry-aware instructions for higher words
 - Track flags through operation
- 5. Check relevant flags after operation FLAGS ON NEXT PAGE

Two's Complement For negative numbers:

- Two's complement: A = !A + 1 (Invert all bits and add 1 to result)
- Used for representing signed numbers
- Enables using same hardware for addition and subtraction

Carry and Overflow

Unsigned Operations:

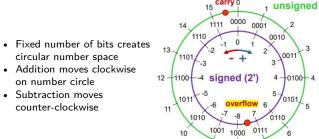
- Addition: C = 1 indicates carry (result too large for available bits)
- Subtraction: C = 0 indicates borrow (result negative)

Signed Operations:

- Addition: V = 1 if overflow with operands of same sign
- Subtraction: V = 1 if overflow with operands of opposite signs

Number Circles and Two's Complement

Understanding arithmetic wrap-around:



Addition: $C = 1 \rightarrow Carrv$

```
1 1 0 1 13d
  0 1 1 1 7d
1 0 1 0 0 20d → 16d + 4d
```

Subtraction: $C = 0 \rightarrow Borrow$ 6d - 14d = 0110b - 1110b = 0110b + 0010b 0 1 1 0 6d

 $0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 2d = TC(14d)$ 0 1 0 0 0 8d -> - 16d + 8d

Integer Ranges by Word Size

8-bit integers:

- Unsigned: 0 to 255 (0x00 to 0xFF)
- Signed: -128 to 127 (0x80 to 0x7F)

16-bit integers:

- Unsigned: 0 to 65,535 (0x0000 to 0xFFFF)
- Signed: -32,768 to 32,767 (0x8000 to 0x7FFF)

32-bit integers:

- Unsigned: 0 to 4,294,967,295 (0x00000000 to 0xFFFFFFFF)
- Signed: -2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647 (0x80000000 to 0×7FFFFFF)

Multi-Word Arithmetic

Guidelines for operations on large numbers:

1. Addition sequence:

```
; 64-bit addition (R1:R0 + R3:R2)
ADDS
       RO. R2
                        ; Add low words
ADCS
       R1, R3
                        ; Add high words with carry
```

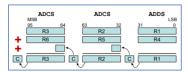
2. Subtraction sequence:

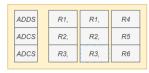
```
; 64-bit subtraction (R1:R0 - R3:R2)
                       ; Subtract low words
SUBS
      RO. R2
SBCS
      R1 . R3
                       : Subtract high words with
    borrow
```

3. Important considerations:

- Start with least significant words
- Use carry-aware instructions for higher words
- Ensure proper register allocation
- Track flags through entire operation

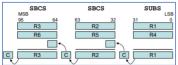
Multi-Word Addition Adding 96-bit values using ADCS:

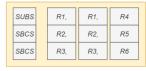




```
ADDS R1, R1, R4
                  ; Add least significant words
ADCS R2, R2, R5
                  ; Add middle words with carry
                  ; Add most significant words with
ADCS R3, R3, R6
    carry
```

Multi-Word Subtraction Subtracting 96-bit values using SBCS:





```
SUBS R1, R1, R4
                 ; Subtract least significant words
SBCS R2, R2, R5
                  ; Subtract middle words with borrow
SBCS R3, R3, R6
                  ; Subtract most significant words
    with borrow
```

Flag Usage and Overflow Detection -

Processor Status Flags

APSR (Application Program Status Register) contains important flags affected by arithmetic operations:

- **N** (Negative): Set when result's MSB = 1, used for signed operations
- **Z** (Zero): Set when result = 0, used for both signed/unsigned
- C (Carry): Set when unsigned overflow occurs
- V (Overflow): Set when signed overflow occurs

Instructions ending with 'S' modify these flags:

• ADDS, SUBS, MOVS, LSLS

Overflow Detection

Steps to detect overflow in arithmetic operations:

- 1. For unsigned arithmetic (using C flag):
- Addition: Check C flag (C=1 means overflow)
- Subtraction: Check C flag (C=0 means underflow)
- 2. For signed arithmetic (using V flag):
- Addition: Check V flag for same-sign operands
- Subtraction: Check V flag for opposite-sign operands

Example:

```
; Unsigned overflow detection
ADDS RO, R1 ; Perform addition
BCS overflow ; Branch if carry set

; Signed overflow detection
ADDS RO, R1 ; Perform addition
BVS overflow ; Branch if overflow set
```

Flag Usage Examples of flag behavior:

```
; Zero flag example
  MOVS RO, #5
  SUBS
         RO, #5
                         ; Z=1 (result is zero)
  ; Negative flag example
  MOVS
         RO, #1
  SUBS
        RO, #2
                         ; N=1 (result is negative)
9 ; Carry flag example
10 MOVS
          RO, #0xFF
  ADDS
         RO, #1
                         ; C=1 (unsigned overflow)
13 ; Overflow flag example
14 MOVS
         RO, #0x7F
                         ; Max positive 8-bit
15 ADDS
          RO, #1
                         ; V=1 (signed overflow)
```

Logic. Shift and Rotate Instructions

Logic Instructions

Base logic operations (affect only N and Z flags):

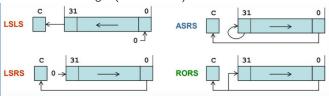
- ANDS: Bitwise AND (Rdn & Rm, a & b)
- BICS: Bit Clear (Rdn & !Rm. a & b)
- EORS: Exclusive OR (Rdn \$Rm, a ∧ b)
- MVNS: Bitwise NOT (!Rm, a)
- ORRS: Bitwise OR (Rdn # Rm, a | b)
- Logical Operations Common logic operations:

```
; Logic operations
ANDS RO, R1
                    ; RO = RO AND R1
BICS RO, R1
                    ; RO = RO AND NOT R1
EORS RO, R1
                    ; RO = RO XOR R1
MVNS RO, R1
                    ; RO = NOT R1
ORRS RO. R1
                    : RO = RO OR R1
; Shift operations
LSLS RO, R1, #2
                    ; RO = R1 \ll 2 (multiply by 4)
LSRS RO, R1, #1
                    ; R0 = R1 >> 1 (divide by 2)
                   ; R0 = R1 >> 2 (signed divide by 4)
ASRS RO, R1, #2
RORS RO, R1, #1
                    ; Rotate R1 right by 1 bit
```

Shift and Rotate Instructions

Shift operations for binary manipulation:

- **LSLS**: Logical Shift Left $(2^n \cdot Rn, 0 \to LSB)$
- LSRS: Logical Shift Right $(2^{-n} \cdot Rn, 0 \rightarrow MSB)$
- **ASRS**: Arithmetic Shift Right $(R^{-n}, \pm MSB \rightarrow MSB)$
- RORS: Rotate Right (LSB → MSB)



Shift Operations for Arithmetic Using shifts for multiplication and division:

```
; Multiplication by powers of 2
LSLS
        RO. RO. #1
                        ; R0 = R0 * 2
        RO, RO, #2
                        ; R0 = R0 * 4
LSLS
LSLS
        RO, RO, #3
                        ; R0 = R0 * 8
; Division by powers of 2
LSRS
        RO, RO, #1
                        ; R0 = R0 / 2 (unsigned)
ASRS
        RO, RO, #1
                        ; R0 = R0 / 2 (signed)
; Multiply by 10 (8 + 2)
        R1, R0, #3
LSLS
                        ; R1 = R0 * 8
                        ; R0 = R0 + (R0 * 8) = R0 * 9
ADDS
        RO, RO, R1
                        ; R0 = R0 * 2 = R0 * 10
ADDS
        RO, RO, RO
```

Using Logic and Shift Instructions

Steps for bit manipulation:

- 1. Identify required operation (AND, OR, XOR, NOT, shift)
- 2. Choose appropriate instruction
- 3. Consider effect on flags if relevant
- 4. For shifts:
 - LSLS for multiplication by 2^n
 - LSRS for unsigned division by 2^n
 - ASRS for signed division by 2^n
- 5. For logic:
 - ANDS for bit masking
 - ORRS for bit setting
 - BICS for bit clearing
 - EORS for bit toggling

Flag Behavior with Logic Instructions

Logic instructions only affect N and Z flags:

- N flag: Set to bit 31 of result (MSB)
- **Z** flag: Set if result is zero
- C flag: Unchanged
- V flag: Unchanged

Special case for shift/rotate:

- C flag: Set to last bit shifted out
- N,Z flags: Set based on result
- V flag: Unchanged

Bit Manipulation Techniques

Common operations on individual bits:

1. Set specific bits:

```
: Set bits 0 and 4
MOVS
       R1, #0x11
                        ; Mask: 0001 0001
       RO . R1
                         ; Set bits in RO
```

2. Clear specific bits:

```
: Clear bits 1 and 5
MOVS
        R1, #0x22
                         ; Mask: 0010 0010
BICS
        RO, R1
                         ; Clear bits in RO
```

3. Toggle specific bits:

```
; Toggle bits 2,3,4
MOVS
       R1. #0x1C
                        ; Mask: 0001 1100
EORS
       RO, R1
                        ; Toggle bits in RO
```

4. Test specific bits:

```
; Test bit 3
MOVS
        R1, #0x08
                        ; Mask: 0000 1000
ANDS
        R2, R0, R1
                         ; Test bit
BEQ
                        ; Branch if bit was 0
        bit_is_clear
```

Casting, Sign Extension and Type Conversion

Integer Casting

Extension (adding bits):

- Zero Extension (unsigned):
 - Fill left bits with zero
 - Example: 1011 → 00001011
- Sign Extension (signed):
 - Copy sign bit to the left - Example: $1011 \rightarrow 11111011$

Truncation (removing bits):

- Signed: May change sign
- Unsigned: Results in modulo operation

Sign Extension Instructions

Instructions for extending smaller values:

SXTB: Sign extend byte to word

Takes lowest byte

• Copies bit 7 to bits 31-8 SXTH:

Sign extend half-word to word

- Takes lowest half-word
- Copies bit 15 to bits 31-16
- UXTB: Zero extend byte to word • Takes lowest byte
- Sets bits 31-8 to zero

UXTH:

Zero extend half-word to word

- Takes lowest half-word
- Sets bits 31-16 to zero

Type Conversion Examples Examples of common type conversions:

```
; Sign extension examples
        RO , R1
                         ; Sign extend byte
SXTH
        RO . R1
                         ; Sign extend half-word
; Zero extension examples
        RO, R1
                         ; Zero extend byte
UXTH
        RO . R1
                         ; Zero extend half-word
; Manual sign extension
        RO, RO, #24
                         ; Shift left 24 bits
ASRS
         RO, RO, #24
                         ; Arithmetic shift right 24
```

Type Conversion Guidelines

Steps for safe type conversion:

- 1. For unsigned to larger unsigned:
- Use zero extension (UXTB, UXTH)
- · Or use LSLS followed by LSRS
- 2. For signed to larger signed:
- Use sign extension (SXTB, SXTH)
- · Or use LSLS followed by ASRS
- 3. Reducing size (truncation):
- Use AND with appropriate mask
- Or store using STRB/STRH
- Check for potential data loss

Example:

```
: Convert 8-bit to 32-bit
MOVS
        RO, #0xFF
                        ; Load 8-bit value
SXTB
        R1, R0
                        ; Signed extension
UXTB
       R2, R0
                        ; Unsigned extension
; Truncate 32-bit to 8-bit
MOVS
        R1, #0xFF
                        ; Create mask
ANDS
        RO, R1
                        ; Truncate to 8 bits
```

Important considerations:

- · Always consider signedness of values
- Check for potential overflow in arithmetic shifts
- Remember carry flag behavior in shifts
- Use appropriate extension for data type
- · Consider performance impact of shifts vs multiply

Branches and Control Structures

Branch Instructions -

Overview Branch Instructions

Branch instructions control program flow:

Type:

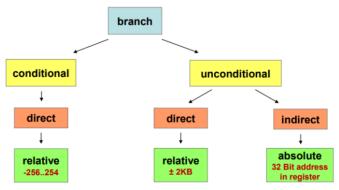
- Unconditional: Always taken
- Conditional: Branch if condition met

Address hand-over:

- Direct: Target addresses part of instruction
- Indirect: Target address in register

Address of Target:

- Relative: Target address relative to PC
- Absolute: Complete (absolute) target address



Unconditional Branches:

- B (immediate) \rightarrow B label
 - Direct
- Relative
- BX (Branch and Exchange) → BX R0
 - Indirect
 - Absolute
- BL (Branch with Link) \rightarrow BL label
 - Indirect
 - Absolute

Conditional Branches:

Flag-dependent: BEQ, BNE, BCS, BCC, etc.

Arithmetic: BHI, BLS, BGE, BLT, etc.

- Indirect
- Absolute

Branch Instructions

Flag dependant instructions

Unsigned: Higher and Lower

Symbol	Condition	Flag
EQ	Equal	Z == 1
NE	Not equal	Z == 0
MI	Minus/negative	N == 1
PL	Plus/positive or zero	N == 0
VS	Overflow	V == 1
VC	No overflow	V == 0
GE	Signed greater than or equal	N == V
LT	Signed less than	N != V
GT	Signed greater than	Z == 0 and N == V
LE	Signed less than or equal	Z == 1 or N != V

Signed: Greater and Less

Symbol	Condition	Flag
EQ	Equal	Z == 1
NE	Not equal	Z == 0
HS (=CS)	Unsigned higher or same	C == 1
LO (=CC)	Unsigned lower	C == 0
HI	Unsigned higher	C == 1 and Z == 0
LS	Unsigned lower or same	C == 0 or Z == 1

Compare and Test

- TST: AND without changing the value
- $\bullet\,$ CMP: SUB without changing the value

Control Structures -

Implementing Control Structures

Steps for implementing control structures:

- 1. Choose appropriate control structure:
 - If-then-else for simple decisions
 - Switch for multiple cases with same variable
 - Loops for repeated operations
- 2. For switches:
 - Create jump table
 - Calculate offset based on case value
 - Handle default case
- 3. For loops:
 - Initialize counter/condition
 - Place condition check appropriately
 - Ensure proper exit condition
 - Update variables correctly

Selection Structures -



```
Assume: nr in R1
int32 t nr;
                                    isPositive in R2
int32 t isPositive;
                                  CMP
                                         R1,#0x00
if (nr >= 0) {
                                  BLT
                                         else
    isPositive = 1;
                                 MOVS
                                         R2,#1
                                  B -
                                         end if
else {
                          else
    isPositive = 0;
                                  MOVS
                                          R2,#0
                           end if
```

Selection Implementation

Guidelines for implementing if-then-else structures:

1. Simple if-then:

```
; if (x > 0) { x++; }

CMP RO, #0 ; Compare x with 0

BLE endif ; Skip if x <= 0

ADDS RO, #1 ; x++
```

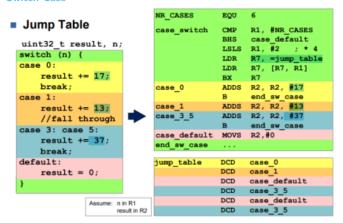
2. if-then-else:

```
; if (x > y) \{ x = y; \} else \{ y = x; \}
   CMP
           RO . R1
                          ; Compare x and y
   BLE
            else_part
                           ; Branch if x <= y
   MOVS
           RO , R1
                           ; Then part: x = y
   В
            endif
                           ; Skip else part
else_part
           R1, R0
                            ; Else part: y = x
   MOVS
endif
```

3 Nested if

```
; if (x > 0) {
         if (y > 0) {
             x = y;
   CMP
           RO, #0
                            ; Check x > 0
   BLE
           endif outer
   CMP
           R1, #0
                            ; Check y > 0
   BLE
            endif inner
   MOVS
           RO, R1
                            ; x = y
endif inner
endif_outer
```

Switch-Case



Switch Implementation

Steps for implementing switch statements:

1. Range check and table access:

```
RO, #MAX_CASES ; Check range
BHS
       default case
                     : If too high, default
                       ; Multiply by 4
LSLS
       RO, #2
LDR
       R1, =jump_table ; Load table address
ADD
       R1 . R0
                       ; Add offset
       R1, [R1]
                       ; Load target address
вх
                       : Branch to case
```

2. Jump table structure:

```
jump_table
DCD case_0 ; Case 0 handler
DCD case_1 ; Case 1 handler
DCD default_case ; Default handler
; ... more cases
```

3. Case handlers:

```
case_0
; Handle case 0
B switch_end
case_1
; Handle case 1
B switch_end
default_case
; Handle default case
switch_end
```

Switch Statement Implementation C code example:

```
uint32_t result, n;
switch (n) {
    case 0:
        result += 17;
        break;
    case 1:
        result += 13;
        //fall through
    case 3:
    case 5:
        result += 37;
        break;
    default:
        result = 0;
}
```

Assembly implementation with jump table:

```
NR_CASES
               EQU
  case switch CMP
                       R1, #NR CASES
                       case_default
               BHS
               LSLS
                       R1, #2
               LDR
                       R7, =jump_table
               LDR
                       R7, [R7, R1]
               BX
                       R7
  case 0
               ADDS
                       R2, R2, #17
               В
                       end sw case
  case 1
               ADDS
                       R2, R2, #13
  case_3_5
               ADDS
                       R2, R2, #37
               В
                       end sw case
  case_default MOVS
                       R2, #0
  end sw case ...
  jump_table DCD
                       case 0
               DCD
                       case 1
               DCD
                       case default
               DCD
                       case 3 5
               DCD
                       case default
21
22
               DCD
                       case_3_5
```

Loop Types Three main types of loops:

Do-While (Post-Test Loop):

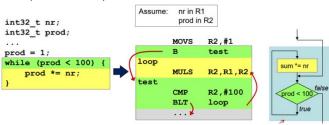
```
int32_t nr;
int32_t sum;
...
sum = 0;
do {
    sum += nr;
} while (sum < 100);

Assume: nr in R1
    sum in R2

MOVS R2,#0

loop ADDS R2,R2,R1
    CMP R2,#100
BLT loop
....
```

While (Pre-Test Loop):



For Loop (Pre-Test Loop):

С	Assembly							
<pre>#include <utils_ctboard.h> #include <stdint.h> int32_t = 0; int32_t count = 0;</stdint.h></utils_ctboard.h></pre>	main	AREA progCode, CODE, READONLY THUMB PROC EXPORT main						
for(i = 0; i < 10; i++) { count++; }		LDR R6.=i ; R6-address of i LDR R0.[R6] ; R0-walue at i LDR R7count ; R7-address of count LDR R1.[R7] ; R1-value at count						
	loop	B cond ADDS R0,R0,#1 ADDS R1,R1,#1 CMP R0, #10						
	Cond	STR R0,[R6] ; *signed* comparison STR R1,[R7] ; store final i STR R1,[R7] ; store final count						
	endless	B endless ENDP						
	i count	AREA progData, DATA, READWRITE DCD 0 DCD 0 END						

Loop Implementation

Templates for different loop types:

1. While loop:

2. Do-while loop:

```
; do { x++; } while (x < 10);
do_loop
ADDS RO, #1 ; x++
CMP RO, #10 ; Check x < 10
BLT do_loop ; Continue if true
```

3. For loop:

```
; for (i = 0; i < 10; i++)
   MOVS RO, #0
                         ; i = 0
   В
          for_cond
for_loop
   ; Loop body
   ADDS
          RO, #1
                          ; i++
for_cond
   CMP
          RO, #10
                         ; Check i < 10
   BLT
          for_loop
                          ; Continue if true
```

Complex Control Structure Implementing nested loops with conditions:

```
; for (i = 0; i < 5; i++) {
      ; if (i == 2) continue;
           for (j = 0; j < 3; j++) {
             if (j == 1) break;
               sum += i + j;
      ; }
      MOVS
             RO, #0
                        ; i = 0
10 outer_loop
              RO, #2
                            ; Check i == 2
      CMP
      BEQ
              outer_continue ; Skip if i == 2
      MOVS
              R1, #0
                             ; j = 0
15 inner_loop
                             ; Check j == 1
      CMP
              R1, #1
      BEQ
              outer_continue ; Break to outer loop
              R2, R0, R1
                             ; Calculate i + j
              R4, R4, R2
                             ; Add to sum
              R1, #1
                             ; j++
                             ; Check j < 3
      CMP
              R1, #3
      BLT
              inner_loop
                             ; Continue inner loop
26 outer_continue
      ADDS
              RO, #1
                             ; i++
      CMP
              RO, #5
                             ; Check i < 5
              outer_loop
                             ; Continue outer loop
```

Subroutines and Stack

Subroutine

Subroutine Basics

Key elements of subroutines:

- Label to identify subroutine entry point
- Return instruction (BX LR) to exit
- Proper register management

Simple Subroutine Multiply by 3 implementation:

```
MulBy3 MOV R4, R0 ; Save input value LSLS R0, #1 ; Multiply by 2 ADD R0, R4 ; Add original value BX LR ; Return
```

Call and Return Mechanism

Basic subroutine mechanics:

- BL (Branch with Link):
 - Stores current PC in LR (R14)
 - Branches to subroutine address
 - Direct and relative addressing
- BLX (Branch with Link and Exchange):
 - Similar to BL but with register-specified target
 - Indirect and absolute addressing
- Return:
 - Using BX LR
 - Or POP ..., PC if LR was saved

Nested Subroutine Calls Example of nested calls:

```
main
    BL
            proc_a
                             ; Call proc_a
    ; continue main
proc a
            {LR}
                             ; Save return address
    PUSH
    BL
            proc_b
                             ; Call proc_b
            {PC}
                             ; Return to main
    POP
proc_b
                             ; Save return address
    PUSH
            {LR}
                             ; Call proc_c
    BL
            proc c
    POP
            {PC}
                             ; Return to proc_a
proc_c
    ; Do something
    BX
                             ; Return to proc_b
```

Stack -

Stack Operations

Stack characteristics:

- Stack Area: Continuous RAM section
- Stack Pointer (SP): R13, points to last written value
- Direction: Full-descending (grows toward lower addresses)
- Alignment: Word-aligned (4 bytes)
- Data Size: 32-bit words only

Main operations:

- PUSH: Decrements SP, then stores words
- POP: Loads words, then increments SP

Stack constraints:

- Number of PUSH and POP operations must match
- SP must stay between stack-limit and stack-base

```
0x60000100
ADDR LED 31 0
                                         Save LR and registers used
LED PATTERN
                 EQU
                         0xA55A5AA5
                                         by subroutine
subrExample
                 PUSH
                          {R4,R5,LR}
                 ; write pattern to LEDs
                         R4,=ADDR LED 31 0
                 T.DR
                 T.DR
                         R5,=LED PATTERN
                         R5, [R4]
                                               Call another subroutine
                 STR
                 BL
                          write7seg
                          {R4,R5,PC} Restore registers and PC
```

Stack Instructions

Special stack manipulation instructions:

- ADD/SUB SP:
 - Immediate offset 0-508
 - Must be multiple of 4
- SP-relative LDR/STR:
 - Immediate offset 0-1020
 - Used for frame access
- PUSH/POP:
 - Multiple register transfer
 - Maintains alignment
 - Can include PC/LR

Stack Operations Implementation

PUSH implementation:

```
; PUSH {R2,R3,R6}

SUB SP, SP, #12 ; Reserve stack space

STR R2, [SP] ; Store R2

STR R3, [SP, #4] ; Store R3

STR R6, [SP, #8] ; Store R6
```

POP implementation:

```
1 ; POP {R2,R3,R6}

2 LDR R2, [SP] ; Restore R2

3 LDR R3, [SP, #4] ; Restore R3

4 LDR R6, [SP, #8] ; Restore R6

5 ADD SP, SP, #12 ; Free stack space
```

Stack Frame Structure

Components of a stack frame:

- Saved Registers:
 - Caller-saved (R0-R3, R12)
- Callee-saved (R4-R11)
- Link register (LR)
- Local Variables:
 - Allocated on stack if needed
 - Word-aligned access
- Parameters:
 - Beyond R0-R3 if needed
 - Pushed by caller

Stack Frame Management

Steps for function prologue and epilogue:

1. Function Prologue:

```
PUSH {R4-R7, LR}; Save registers
SUB SP, SP, #locals; Allocate local vars
```

2. Function Epilogue:

```
ADD SP, SP, #locals; Deallocate locals
POP {R4-R7, PC}; Restore and return
```

3. Stack frame access:

```
; Access local variables

STR RO, [SP, #0] ; First local

STR R1, [SP, #4] ; Second local

; Access parameters

LDR RO, [SP, #20] ; First stack parameter
```

Stack Frame Layout Example of complete function:

```
; int calc(int a, int b, int c)
2 : a in RO, b in R1, c in R2
         PUSH {R4-R6, LR}; Save registers
 calc
         : Save parameters
                 R4. R0
                             ; Save a
                             : Save b
                 R5. R1
                 R6. R2
                             : Save c
         ; Call helper function
                 RO, R4
                             ; First param
                 helper
                             ; Call helper
         ; Continue calculation
                 RO. R5
                             ; Add b
         ADDS
                 RO. R6
                             : Add c
                 {R4-R6, PC}; Return
```

Stack usage considerations:

- Monitor stack depth in nested calls
- Always maintain 8-byte alignment for SP
- Consider register usage to minimize stack operations
- Be aware of stack space in interrupt handlers
 Document stack requirements for functions

Using Subroutines and Stack

Steps for implementing subroutines:

- 1. Define subroutine entry point with label
- 2. Save registers that will be modified
 - Use PUSH at start
 - Include LR if calling other subroutines
- 3. Implement subroutine logic
- 4. Restore registers in reverse order
 - Use POP before return
 - Can return using POP ..., PC if LR was saved
- 5. Return using BX LR if LR wasn't saved

Important considerations:

- Always maintain stack alignment
- Match PUSH/POP pairs exactly
- Be careful with SP manipulation
- Consider nesting depth for stack space

Function Implementation Patterns

Common implementation patterns:

1. Simple function:

```
func PUSH {LR} ; Save return address; Function body POP {PC} ; Return
```

2. Function with locals:

```
func PUSH {R4, LR} ; Save registers

SUB SP, #8 ; Space for locals

; Function body

ADD SP, #8 ; Remove locals

POP {R4, PC} ; Return
```

3. Function with parameters:

```
; RO-R3 = first 4 parameters
; [SP] = fifth parameter

func PUSH {R4-R6, LR}; Save registers
LDR R4, [SP, #16]; Load 5th param
; Function body
POP {R4-R6, PC}; Return
```

Parameter Passing

Parameter Passing Methods

Data can be passed between functions through:

- Registers: Fast, limited number available
- Global Variables: Shared memory space
- Stack:
 - Caller: PUSH parameters onto stack
 - Callee: Access via LDR from stack

Parameter Passing Methods

Global variable approach (not recommended):

```
.data
       DCD
                             ; Global variable
value
    .text
                RO, =value ; Load address
func
        LDR.
        LDR
                R1. [R0]
                            : Get value
        ; Process value
        STR
                R1, [R0]
                             : Store result
```

Register-based approach (preferred):

```
func
        PUSH
                {R4, LR}
                            ; Save registers
        ; RO contains input parameter
                R4. R0
                              Save parameter
        ; Process value in R4
                RO, R4
                            ; Set return value
        POP
                {R4, PC}
                            ; Restore and return
```

ARM Procedure Call Standard

Parameter Passing:

- First four arguments use R0-R3
- · Additional parameters go on stack

Return Values:

- Small Values (≤ 32 bits):
 - Return in R0
 - Zero/sign extend if needed
- Double Word (64 bits): R0/R1
- 128-bit Values: R0-R3
- Larger Values:
 - Store in memory
 - Return pointer in R0

Register Usage:

- **R0-R3**: Arguments/results (caller-saved)
- R4-R11: Local variables (callee-saved)
- R12: IP scratch register
- R13: SP stack pointer
- R14: LR link register
- R15: PC program counter

Subroutine Call - Caller Side written assembly code may be slightly different Subroutine call Save Copy parameters Copy parameters

exceeding R0 - R3 'caller saved' Call Callee to R0 - R3 registers on stack PUSH (RO-R3) MOV RO RE SUB SP, SP, # (4*args) BL callee Protect content such that registers can be used STR Ry, [SP, # ..] to pass parameters

Parameter Passing by Value vs. Reference

Two main approaches:

- · Pass by Value:
 - Copies value to function
 - Changes don't affect original
 - Default in C
 - Example: Simple types, integers
- Pass by Reference:
 - Passes memory address
 - Changes affect original value
 - In C: Using pointers
 - Example: Arrays, large structures

Example implementation:

```
; Pass by value
                {LR}
func1 PUSH
        ADDS
                RO, #1
                             : Modify parameter
        POP
                {PC}
                             ; Original unchanged
; Pass by reference
func2
       PUSH
        LDR
                R1. [R0]
                             : Load from address
                R1, #1
                            ; Modify value
        ADDS
        STR
                R1, [R0]
                            ; Store back to address
        PNP
                {PC}
                             ; Original changed
```

Reentrancy Handling recursive function calls:

- Each call needs its own data set
- Registers/globals get overwritten
- Solution: Use stack for local storage

Recursive Function Implementation Factorial calculation:

```
; uint32 t factorial(uint32 t n)
2 ; Input in RO, result in RO
3 factorial
      PUSH
              {R4, LR}
                               ; Save registers
      MOVS
              R4, R0
                               ; Save n
      CMP
              R4, #1
                               ; Check base case
      BLE
              fact_end
                               : Return 1 if n <= 1
              RO, R4, #1
      SUBS
                               ; n-1
      BL
               factorial
                               : Recursive call
      MULS
              RO, R4, RO
                               ; n * factorial(n-1)
13 fact end
      POP
               {R4, PC}
                               ; Restore and return
```

Implementing Function Calls Steps for calling functions:

Caller's responsibilities:

- Place parameters in R0-R3
- Push additional parameters
- Save caller-saved registers if needed

Callee's responsibilities:

- · Save callee-saved registers used
- Save LR if making other calls
- Process parameters
- Place return value in R0
- Restore saved registers

Important considerations:

- Avoid global variables for parameter passing
- Use registers for efficiency
- Follow ARM calling convention strictly
- Consider stack usage in recursive functions

Function Parameter Guidelines

Best practices for parameter passing:

- 1. Register Usage:
- R0-R3: First four parameters
- R0: Return value
- R4-R11: Preserve if used
- 2. Stack Usage:
- · Additional parameters pushed right to left
- Maintain 8-byte alignment
- Caller responsible for cleaning up stack
- 3. Memory Structures:
- Pass pointers for large structures
- Use registers for small values
- Consider alignment requirements

Example implementation:

```
; void func(int a, int b, int c, int d, int e)
; First four params in RO-R3, fifth on stack
        PUSH
                {R4-R6, LR} ; Save registers
         ; Save parameters
                 R4. R0
                             ; Save a
                 R5, R1
         MOV
                            ; Save b
         MOV
                R6, R2
                            ; Save c
         ; R3 contains d
                 RO, [SP, #16]; Load e from stack
         ; Function body
         PNP
                 {R4-R6, PC}; Return
```

Complex Parameter Example Function with mixed parameter types:

```
typedef struct {
    int32 t x;
    int32_t y;
} point t;
int32_t calculate(point_t* p, int32_t scale,
                  int32 t* result);
```

Assembly implementation:

```
; R0 = point t* p
 ; R1 = scale
3 : R2 = result pointer
 calculate
              {R4-R5, LR}
                              : Save registers
      ; Load structure members
              R4. [R0. #0]
                              ; Load p->x
              R5, [R0, #4]
                              ; Load p->y
      : Perform calculation
              R4 . R1 . R4
                              ; x * scale
              R5 . R1 . R5
                              ; y * scale
      ; Store result
                              ; *result = x
              R4. [R2. #0]
              RO, R4, R5
                              ; Return sum
     POP
              {R4-R5, PC}
                              : Return
```

Stack Frame Organization

Complete stack frame layout:

- Previous Stack Frame:
 - Local variables
- Saved registers
- Current Frame:
 - Arguments 5+
 - Return address (LR)
 - Saved registers (R4-R11)
 - Local variables
 - Temporary storage
- Next Frame:
 - Space for called functions

Data Structure Access Working with structures and arrays:

```
typedef struct {
    uint32_t minutes;
    uint32_t seconds;
} time_t;

time_t time;
```

Assembly implementation:

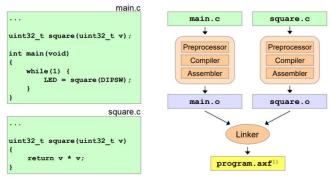
```
; Access structure members
           RO, =time
                          ; Get structure address
           R1, [R0, #0]
   LDR
                         ; Load minutes
           R2, [R0, #4]
                        ; Load seconds
   ; Modify structure
                           ; Increment seconds
          R2, #1
           R2, #60
                           ; Check for overflow
   BLT
           store_back
   MOVS
           R2, #0
                           ; Reset seconds
   ADDS
           R1, #1
                           ; Increment minutes
store_back
           R1, [R0, #0]
   STR
                          ; Store minutes
   STR
           R2, [R0, #4]
                           ; Store seconds
```

Modular Coding and Linking

Modular Programming Overview

Program code is divided into modules with:

- Each source file compiled into separate object file
- All object files linked into single executable
- · Clear interfaces between modules



Benefits of Modular Programming

Key advantages:

- Team Development:
 - Multiple developers working on same codebase
 - Clear ownership of modules
- Code Organization:
 - Logical partitioning of functionality
 - Easier code reuse
- Development Efficiency:
 - Individual module testing
 - Faster compilation (only changed modules)
 - Reusable library creation
- Language Integration:
 - Mix C and assembly modules
 - Language-specific optimizations

Module Linkage

Keywords for controlling module interfaces:

- EXPORT: Make symbol available to other modules
- IMPORT: Use symbol from another module
- Internal symbols: Neither IMPORT nor EXPORT

```
usable outside of module main
   main.s
        AREA myCode, CODE, READONLY
        EXPORT main
        IMPORT square <
                           from module square
        PROC
 main
        LDR
                  r0,a adr
                  r0,[r0,#0]; a
        LDR
        BL
                  square
        ENDP
 a adr DCD
                  a
 b adr DCD
                  b
        AREA myData, DATA
                  0x00000005
        DCD
7b
        DCD
                  0x00000007
```

Object Files

ELF format contains:

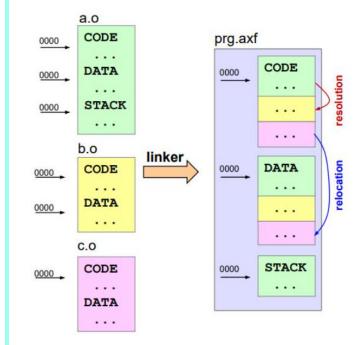
- Code Section:
 - Program code and constants
 - Based at address 0x0
- Data Section:
 - Global variables
 - Based at address 0x0
- Symbol Table:
 - All symbols and their attributes
 - Global/local status
 - References to external symbols
- Relocation Table:
 - Instructions for adjusting addresses
 - Applied during linking process

Linker Operation

Main tasks:

- Merge code sections from all objects
- Merge data sections from all objects
- Resolve symbol references between modules
- Relocate addresses to final positions

Output is ARM Executable File (AXF):



Module Interface Example

```
; Module A - Defining function
    AREA myCode, CODE, READONLY
    EXPORT myFunction
                        ; Make available externally
myFunction
    PUSH
           {LR}
    ; function code here
           {PC}
    ; Module B - Using function
    AREA myCode, CODE, READONLY
                        ; Use external function
    IMPORT myFunction
    BL
            myFunction
                       ; Call the function
```

Creating Modular Programs

Steps for modular development:

- 1. Design module structure:
 - Identify clear boundaries
 - Define interfaces
- 2 Create individual modules:
 - Declare IMPORT/EXPORT
 - Implement functionality
- 3. Compile modules separately
- 4. Link modules:
 - Resolve references
 - Create executable
- 5. Test integrated system

Guidelines for Modular Programming

Key design principles:

- High Cohesion:
 - $\ \, {\sf Group} \,\, {\sf related} \,\, {\sf functionality} \,\, {\sf together}$
 - Each module fulfills a single defined task
 - Lean external interface
- Low Coupling:
 - Minimize dependencies between modules
 - Clear and minimal interfaces
 - Easy to modify individual modules
- Information Hiding:
 - Split interface from implementation
 - Don't expose unnecessary details
 - Maintain freedom to change internals

Symbol Resolution and Relocation

Steps in linking process:

1. Symbol Resolution:

```
; In module1.s

AREA | .text|, CODE, READONLY

EXPORT func1

func1

; function code

7; In module2.s

AREA | .text|, CODE, READONLY

IMPORT func1

BL func1; Reference to resolve
```

2. Relocation:

```
; Before relocation
BL func1; Relative offset
; After relocation
BL 0x08000234; Absolute address
```

Linkage Types in C

Three types of linkage:

- External Linkage:
 - Global names available to all modules
 - Default for functions and global variables
 - Example:

```
int global_var;  // External linkage
void global_func(void);  // External linkage
```

- Internal Linkage:
 - Names only available within module
 - Created using 'static' keyword
 - Example:

```
static int module_var; // Internal linkage static void local_func(void); // Internal linkage
```

- No Linkage:
 - Local variables and function parameters
- Scope limited to block
- Example:

Object File Structure Example of complete object file:

```
File sections:
  1. '.text' section (Code):
  0x00000000: 4604 MOV
  0x00000002: 0040 LSLS
                            r0.r0.#1
  0x00000004: 4420 ADD
                            r0,r4
  2. '.data' section:
  0x00000000: Initial values for global data
  3. Symbol table:
  # Name
               Value
                              Binding
                        Type
               0x0000 CODE
12 6 myFunc
                              Global
     extVar
               Ox0000 DATA
                              Reference
  4. Relocation entries:
  Offset Type
                        Symbol
  0x0006
          R_ARM_REL32 extVar
```

Library Creation and Use

Steps for creating and using libraries:

1. Create library source files:

```
1
// lib.h
void lib_func(int x);
3
4 // lib.c
void lib_func(int x) {
6     // Implementation
7 }
```

2. Compile to object files:

```
1 armcc -c lib.c -o lib.o
```

3. Create static library:

```
armar --create libmy.a lib.o
```

4. Link with library:

```
armlink main.o libmy.a -o program.axf
```

Tool Chain Components

Essential tools for development:

- Compiler (armcc):
 - Translates C to assembly
 - Performs optimizations
 - Generates object files
- Assembler (armasm):
 - Processes assembly code
 - Creates object files
 - Handles directives
- Linker (armlink):
 - Combines object filesResolves references
 - Creates executable
- Library Manager (armar):
- Creates/maintains libraries
- Adds/removes object files
- Archives multiple objects

Important considerations:

- Use consistent naming conventions
- Document module interfaces clearly
- Consider initialization dependencies
- · Test modules independently
- Maintain version control
- Document build requirements

Exceptional Control Flow

Exception Types

Two main categories of exceptions:

Interrupt Sources:

- Peripherals requesting immediate CPU attention
- Software-generated interrupts
- Asynchronous to instruction execution

System Exceptions:

- Reset: Processor restart
- NMI: Non-maskable Interrupt (cannot be ignored)
- Faults: Undefined instructions, errors
- System Calls: OS services (SVC and PendSV)

Interrupt Control

PRIMASK register controls interrupt handling:

- Single bit controls all maskable interrupts
- Reset state: PRIMASK = 0 (interrupts enabled)
- · Control methods:
 - Assembly: CPSID i (disable), CPSIE i (enable)
 - C: __disable_irq(), __enable_irq()

Context Storage

Interrupt handling requires automatic context saving:

ISR Entry:

- · Stores on stack:
- xPSR, PC, LR, R12
- R0-R3 (caller-saved registers)
- Stores EXC_RETURN in LR

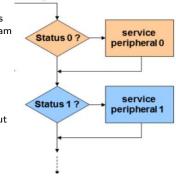
ISR Exit:

- Via BX LR or POP PC
- Restores from stack:
 - R0-R3, R12, LR, PC
 - xPSR

Interrupt Handling

Polling Approach

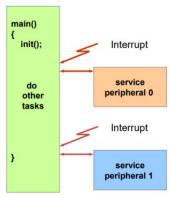
- Periodic status register checks
- Synchronous with main program
- Advantages:
 - Simple implementation
 - Predictable timing
 - No extra hardware needed
- Disadvantages:
 - CPU wastes time waiting
 - Reduced system throughput
 - Longer response times



main()

Interrupt Approach

- Hardware-triggered event handling
- Asynchronous to main program
- · Advantages:
 - Efficient CPU usage
 - Quick response times
 - Better system throughput
- Disadvantages:
 - More complex implementation
 - Harder to debug
 - Timing less predictable



Basic ISR Implementation

```
; Interrupt Service Routine
EXPORT MyISR

MyISR

PUSH {R4-R7, LR} ; Save registers

; Handle interrupt here
; R0-R3 already saved automatically

POP {R4-R7, PC} ; Restore and return
```

Implementing Interrupt Handlers

Steps for implementing interrupt handlers:

- 1. Define interrupt vector
- 2. Save necessary context
- 3. Handle the interrupt
- 4. Clear interrupt flag
- 5. Restore context
- $6. \ \, \mathsf{Return} \,\, \mathsf{from} \,\, \mathsf{interrupt} \,\,$

Important considerations:

- Keep ISRs short
- Handle critical tasks only
- Be aware of nested interrupts
- · Protect shared resources

NVIC (Nested Vectored Interrupt Controller)

Key components and functionality:

- Interrupt States:
 - Inactive: Not active and not pending
 - Pending: Waiting to be serviced
 - Active: Currently being serviced
 - Active and Pending: Being serviced with new request
- Control Registers:
 - Interrupt Enable (IE)
 - Interrupt Pending (IP)
- Interrupt Active (IA)
- Priority Level (PL)

Interrupt Control Registers

Important NVIC registers:

1. Enable/Disable Registers:

```
SETENAO EQU OxEO00E100
                           ; Enable interrupts
CLRENAO EQU OxEOOOE180
                           : Disable interrupts
: Enable IRQ3
LDR
        RO. = SETENAO
        R1, #(1<<3)
MOVS
        R1. [R0]
; Disable IRQ3
LDR
        RO. = CLRENAO
MOVS
        R1, #(1<<3)
STR
        R1. [R0]
```

2. Pending Registers:

```
SETPENDO EQU 0xE000E200
                             ; Set pending
  CLRPENDO EQU 0xE000E280
                             ; Clear pending
  ; Set IRQ3 pending
           RO, =SETPENDO
  MOVS
           R1, #(1<<3)
           R1, [R0]
9; Clear IRQ3 pending
           RO, =CLRPENDO
10 LDR
           R1, #(1<<3)
11 MOVS
12 STR
           R1. [R0]
```

Priority System

Interrupt priority handling:

- Priority Levels:
 - 0-255 (lower number = higher priority)
 - Fixed priorities for system exceptions
 - Programmable priorities for IRQs
- Preemption:
 - Higher priority interrupts can preempt lower
 - Same priority follows FIFO

Example priority setting:

```
// Set priority for IRQ3
NVIC_SetPriority(IRQ3_IRQn, 2);
// Get priority
uint32_t prio = NVIC_GetPriority(IRQ3_IRQn);
```

Exception Vector Table

Setup and usage:

1. Vector table structure:

```
AREA RESET, DATA, READONLY
Vectors
   DCD
           __initial_sp
                               ; Top of Stack
   DCD
           Reset Handler
                               : Reset
   DCD
           NMI Handler
                              ; NMI
   DCD
           HardFault Handler ; Hard Fault
   DCD
                              : Reserved
   DCD
           0
                              ; Reserved
   DCD
           0
                              ; Reserved
   ; ... more vectors
           IRQO Handler
                              ; IRQO
   DCD
           IRQ1 Handler
                              : IRQ1
```

2. Handler implementation:

```
AREA | .text|, CODE, READONLY

IRQO_Handler PROC
EXPORT IRQO_Handler

PUSH {R4-R7,LR}
; Handle interrupt
POP {R4-R7,PC}
ENDP
```

Nested Interrupts Example Implementation with different priorities:

```
// Initialize interrupts
void init_interrupts(void) {
    // Enable interrupts
    NVIC EnableIRQ(IRQO IRQn);
    NVIC_EnableIRQ(IRQ1_IRQn);
    // Set priorities
    NVIC_SetPriority(IRQO_IRQn, 1); // Higher
    NVIC SetPriority(IRQ1 IRQn, 2); // Lower
    // Enable global interrupts
    __enable_irq();
// Higher priority ISR
void IRQO Handler(void) {
    // Handle high priority interrupt
    // Can't be interrupted by IRQ1
// Lower priority ISR
void IRQ1_Handler(void) {
    // Handle low priority interrupt
    // Can be interrupted by IRQO
```

Data Consistency

Handling shared data access:

- Race Conditions:
 - $-% \left(-\right) =\left(-\right) \left(-\right) =\left(-\right) \left(-\right) \left($
 - Interrupts during multi-step operations
- Solutions:
 - Disable interrupts during critical sections
 - Use atomic operations
 - Implement proper synchronization

Example protection:

CMSIS Functions for Interrupt Control

Standard CMSIS functions for interrupt handling:

- NVIC_EnableIRQ(IRQn): Enable specific interrupt
- NVIC DisableIRQ(IRQn): Disable specific interrupt
- NVIC_DISABLEING(INGII). Disable specific interrupt
- $\bullet \ \, {\tt NVIC_SetPendingIRQ(IRQn): Set \ interrupt \ pending} \\$
- $\bullet \ \, {\tt NVIC_ClearPendingIRQ(IRQn): Clear pending status} \\$
- NVIC_SetPriority(IRQn, priority): Set priority
- NVIC_GetPriority(IRQn): Read priority

Example usage:

```
void init_timer_interrupt(void) {
    // Enable timer interrupt
    NVIC_EnableIRQ(TIM2_IRQn);

    // Set priority
    NVIC_SetPriority(TIM2_IRQn, 2);

    // Configure timer
    // ...

// Enable global interrupts
    __enable_irq();
}
```

Increasing System Performance

Performance Optimization Trade-offs

Optimizing for	Drawbacks on					
Higher speed	Power, cost, chip area					
Lower cost	Speed, reliability					
Zero power consumption	Speed, cost					
Super reliable	Chip area, cost, speed					
Temperature range	Power, cost, lifetime					

Instruction Set Architectures

RISC (Reduced Instruction Set Computer):

- Few instructions with uniform format
- Fast decoding, simple addressing
- Less hardware \rightarrow higher clock rates
- More chip space for registers (up to 256)
- Load-store architecture reduces memory access
- · CPU works at full speed on registers
- Enables shorter, efficient pipelines

RISC

- Load / Store Architecture
- Data processing instructions only available on registers

Example: Balance = Balance + Credit LDR R0,=Credit LDR R1,[R0] LDR R0,=Balance LDR R3,[R0] ADDS R2,R1,R3 STR R2,[R0]

CISC

 One of the operands of an instruction may directly be a memory location

MOV	AX,	[Credit]
ADD	[Ba]	lance], AX

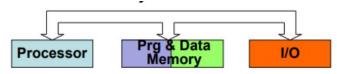
CISC (Complex Instruction Set Computer):

- More complex instruction set
- Lower memory usage for programs
- Potential performance gain for short programs
- · More complex hardware required

Computer Architectures

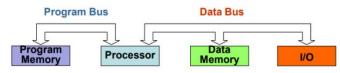
Von Neumann Architecture:

- Single memory for program and data
- Single bus system between CPU and memory



Harvard Architecture:

- · Separate program and data memories
- Two sets of address/data buses
- · Originally from Harvard Mark I



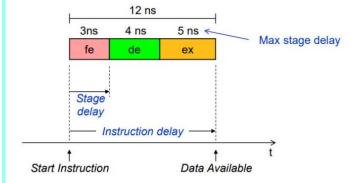
Pipelining

Process of fetching next instruction while current one decodes:



Pipeline Stages (Example):

- Fetch (Fe): Read instruction 3ns
- Decode (De): Process instruction 4ns
- Execute (Ex): Execute and writeback 5ns



Advantages:

- · Uniform execution time per stage
- Significant performance improvement
- Simpler hardware per stage

Disadvantages:

- · Blocking stages affect whole pipeline
- Memory access conflicts between stages

Pipeline Performance

Without pipelining:

$$\frac{\mathsf{Instructions}}{\mathsf{second}} = \frac{1}{\mathsf{Instruction}\ \mathsf{delay}}$$

With pipelining:

$$\frac{\mathsf{Instructions}}{\mathsf{second}} = \frac{1}{\mathsf{Max} \; \mathsf{stage} \; \mathsf{delay}}$$

Note: Pipeline must be filled first

Pipeline Execution

Optimal Case:

- Register-only operations
- 6 instructions in 6 cycles
- CPI = 1 (Cycles Per Instruction)

Cycle			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Operation											
ADD	fe	de	ex								
SUB		fe	de	ex							
ORR	_		fe	de	ex						
AND				fe	de	ex					
ORR					fe	de	ex				
EOR						fe	de	ex			

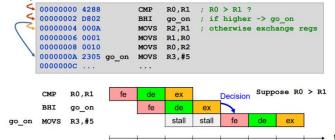
LDR Special Case:

- 6 instructions in 7 cycles due to memory access
- Pipeline stalls for memory read
- CPI = 1.2

Pipeline Hazards and Optimization

Control Hazards:

- · Branch decisions in execute stage
- · Pipeline stalls for taken branches



Optimization Techniques:

- Branch prediction based on history
- Instruction prefetch
- Out-of-order execution

Optimization Limits:

- Security vulnerabilities (Meltdown, Spectre)
- Complex optimizations increase risk

Parallel Computing

Different approaches to parallelism:

- Vector Processing: Single instruction processes multiple data
- Multithreading: Multiple threads share CPU
- Multicore: Multiple CPU cores on one chip
- Multiprocessor: Multiple CPUs in system

Optimizing System Performance

Steps for performance optimization:

- 1. Analyze performance bottlenecks
- 2. Choose appropriate architecture:
 - RISC vs CISC based on application
 - Consider memory architecture
- 3. Implement pipelining:
 - Balance stage delays
 - Handle hazards appropriately
- 4. Consider parallelization options
- 5. Evaluate security implications

Performance Growth Overview

Historical development:

- Early improvements:
 - Increasing clock frequencies
 - Better manufacturing processes
 - Smaller transistor sizes
- Modern improvements:
 - Advanced architectural concepts (RISC, Pipelining)
 - Multiple cores
- Specialized hardware units
- Current limitations:
- Power density
- Heat dissipation
- Memory wall
- Parallelization overhead

System Level Optimization

Different approaches to improve performance:

- External Factors:
 - Better compiler optimization
 - Improved algorithms
 - Efficient software design
- System Level Factors:
 - Special Purpose Units (e.g., Crypto, Video)
 - Multiple Processors
 - Bus Architecture optimization
 - Faster peripheral components
- CPU Improvements:
 - Increased Clock Speed
 - Cache Memory
 - Multiple Cores
 - Pipeline Optimization
 - Branch Prediction
 - Out-of-Order Execution

Pipeline Performance Calculation

For a processor with n pipeline stages:

Without pipelining:

- Time per instruction = Sum of all stage delays
- Performance = $\frac{1}{\text{Total delay}}$

With pipelining:

- Time per instruction = Longest stage delay
- Initial latency = n cycles
- Throughput = $\frac{1}{\text{Max stage delay}}$

Example calculation:

- Stage delays: Fe=3ns, De=4ns, Ex=5ns
- Without pipeline: 12ns per instruction
- With pipeline: 5ns per instruction after filling
- Performance improvement: 2.4×

Pipeline Hazards Three types of pipeline hazards:

1. Structural Hazards:

```
LDR RO, [R1]; Needs memory access
LDR R2, [R3]; Also needs memory access
; Memory system can't handle both at once
```

2. Data Hazards:

```
ADDS RO, R1, R2 ; RO gets new value
ADDS R3, R0, R4 ; Uses R0 before ready
; Second instruction must wait
```

3. Control Hazards:

```
CMP RO, #0 ; Compare
BEQ target ; Branch if equal
ADD R1, R2, R3 ; May be unnecessary
SUB R4, R5, R6 ; May be unnecessary
target
; Pipeline must flush if branch taken
```

Parallel Processing Models

SISD (Single Instruction Single Data):

- Traditional sequential processing
- One instruction processes one data item
- One instruction processes one data iter
- Example: Basic scalar processor

SIMD (Single Instruction Multiple Data):

- Vector processing
- One instruction processes multiple data items
- Examples: MMX, SSE, AVX instructions

MIMD (Multiple Instruction Multiple Data):

- True parallel processing
- Multiple processors execute different instructions
- Example: Multicore systems

Performance Optimization Guidelines

Steps for system optimization:

1. Analyze Requirements:

- Performance targets
- Performance targe
 Power constraints
- rower constrain
- Cost limitations
- Reliability needs

2. Choose Architecture:

- RISC vs CISC
- Memory architecture
- · Pipeline depth
- Parallelization approach

3. Optimize Implementation:

- Balance pipeline stages
- Implement hazard handling
- Consider branch prediction
- Optimize memory access

4. Security Considerations:

- Evaluate optimization risks
- Consider side-channel attacks
- Balance performance and security

Multicore vs Multiprocessor Key differences:

- Multicore:
 - Multiple CPU cores on single chip
 - Shared cache and memory interface
 - Lower communication overhead
 - More power efficient

Multiprocessor:

- Multiple separate CPU chips
- Independent caches
- Higher communication overhead
- More scalable for large systems

