



Chapter 2

Instructions: Language of the Computer

Instruction Set

- The collection of instructions of a computer
- Different computers have different instruction sets
 - But with many aspects in common
- Early computers had very simple instruction sets
 - Simplified implementation
- Many modern computers also have simple instruction sets

The ARM Instruction Set

- Used as the example in chapters 2 and 3
- Most popular 32-bit instruction set in the world (www.arm.com)
- 4 Billion shipped in 2008
- Large share of embedded core market
 - Applications include mobile phones, consumer electronics, network/storage equipment, cameras, printers, ...
- Typical of many modern RISC ISAs
 - See ARM Assembler instructions, their encoding and instruction cycle timings in appendixes B1,B2 and B3

Arithmetic Operations

- Add and subtract, three operands
 - Two sources and one destination

ADD a, b, c ; a gets b + c
- All arithmetic operations have this form

Simplicity Favours Regularity

- Hardware for a variable number of operands is more complicated than for a fixed number
- *Design Principle 1: Simplicity favours regularity*
 - Regularity makes implementation simpler
 - Simplicity enables higher performance at lower cost

Arithmetic Example

- C code:

$f = (g + h) - (i + j);$

- Compiled ARM code:

```
ADD t0, g, h    ; temp t0 = g + h
ADD t1, i, j    ; temp t1 = i + j
SUB f, t0, t1   ; f = t0 - t1
```

Operands in Real Hardware

- Operands in instructions are **registers** in hardware. i.e. Register operands
- Unlike in an high level languages (variables) the number of operands in instructions (registers) are limited

Register Operands

- ARM has a 16×32 -bit register file
 - Use for frequently accessed data
 - Registers numbered 0 to 15 (r0 to r15)
 - 32-bit data called a “word”

Smaller is Faster

- Very large number of registers increase the clock cycle time
 - Because electronic signals has to travel farther
- *Design Principle 2: Smaller is faster*
 - Designer should balance the craving of programs for more registers with the desire for fast clock cycle

Register Operand Example

- C code:

$f = (g + h) - (i + j);$

- *f, g, h, i, j in registers r0, r1, r2, r3, r4*
- *r5 and r6 are temporary registers*

- Compiled ARM code:

ADD r5,r1,r2 ;register r5 contains g + h

ADD r6,r3,r4 ;register r6 contains i + j

SUB r0,r5,r6 ;r0 (f in register r0) gets r5-r6



Lets go to practical assembly programming

Cross Compiler

- **gcc** you used so far targeted Intel x86_64 architecture :
can't compile ARM assembly
- Use a **cross compiler**
 - Compiler runs on your Intel machine. But compiles for ARM.
 - On Linux *sudo apt-get install gcc-arm-linux-gnueabi*

Emulator

- At the moment we do not have a computer with an ARM processor.
- We use a emulator called **qemu** that runs on your Intel machine
 - On Linux *sudo apt-get install qemu-user*

Assembly Program

- Save with .s extension
- Comments starts with @ (even // would do)
- Things starting with '.' are called assembler directives (eg : .text , .global)
 - Assembler directives directs the assembler
 - Assembler : program that converts instructions to machine code
- One instruction per one line

Assembling and Running

- Assemble

- `arm-linux-gnueabi-gcc -Wall example.s -o example`

- Run

- `qemu-arm -L /usr/arm-linux-gnueabi example`

Exercise

- Assemble and run the given hello world example
- Complete ex1.s to do the calculation
 - $f = a + b - c - d + e$
 - a,b,c,d,e in r0,r1,r2,r3,r4 respectively
 - Put f to r5

Back to Theory ...

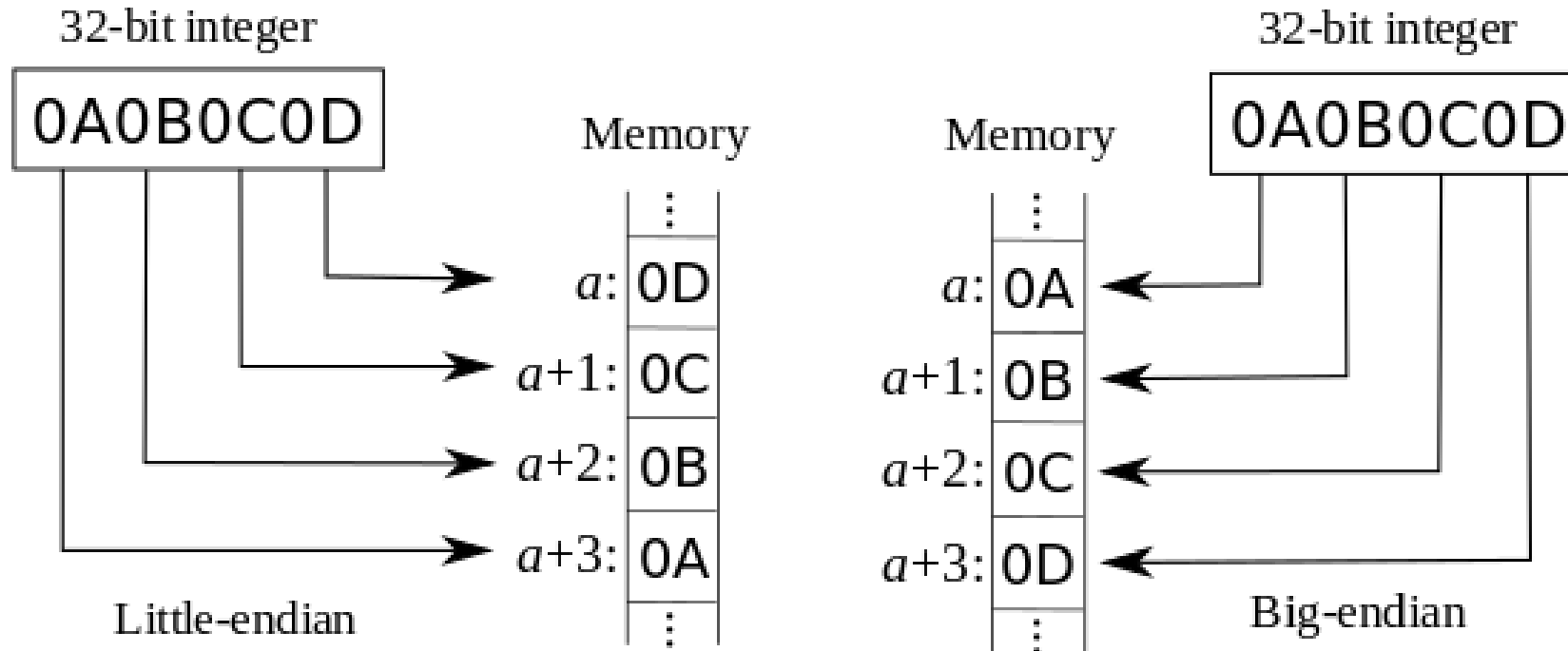
Memory Operands

- Main memory used for composite data
 - Arrays, structures, dynamic data
 - Registers not adequate
 - Hence stored in memory
- To apply arithmetic operations
 - Load values from memory into registers
 - Store result from register to memory

Memory Operands

- Memory is byte addressed
 - Each address identifies an 8-bit byte
- Words are aligned in memory (called **alignment restriction**)
 - Address must be a multiple of 4
- ARM is Little Endian
 - Least-significant byte at least address
 - *c.f.* Big Endian: Most-significant byte at least address of a word

Little Endian vs Big Endian



LDR and STR Instructions

- LDR : Load word into register
- STR : Store word from register

Memory Operand Example 1

- C code:
 $g = h + A[8];$
 - *g in r1, h in r2, base address of A in r3*
 - *r5 is temporary register*
- Compiled ARM code:
 - Index 8 requires offset of 32 (4 bytes per word)

```
LDR    r5, [r3, #32] ; reg r5 gets A[8]  
ADD    r1, r2, r5 ; g = h + A[8]
```

base register

offset

Memory Operand Example 2

- C code:

`A[12] = h + A[8];`

- *h in r2, base address of A in r3*
- *r5 is temporary register*

- Compiled ARM code:

- Index 8 requires offset of 32

`LDR r5,[r3,#32] ; reg r5 gets A[8]`

`ADD r5, r2, r5 ; reg r5 gets h+A[8]`

`STR r5,[r3,#48] ; Stores h+A[8] into A[12]`

Registers vs. Memory

- Registers are faster to access than memory
- Operating on memory data requires loads and stores
 - More instructions to be executed
- Compiler must use registers for variables as much as possible
 - Only **spill** to memory for less frequently used variables
 - Register optimization is important!

Exercise

- Complete ex2.s to do the following
 - $a[2] = a[0] + a[1] - b$
 - base address of a in r0
 - b in r1

Immediate Operands

- Constant data specified in an instruction

ADD r3, r3, #4 ; $r3 = r3 + 4$

- *Design Principle 3: Make the common case fast*
 - Small constants are common
 - Immediate operand avoids a load instruction

Exercise

- Change your solution in ex2 to do the following computation
- $a[2] = 2 + a[0] + a[1] - 7$

Exercise

- Complete the code in `ex3.s` to do the following computation
 - $b[4] = 6 + a[9] - a[3] + b[1] - (c + d - e)$
 - base address of `a` in `r0`
 - base address of `b` in `r1`
 - `c,d,e` in `r2,r3,r4` respectively