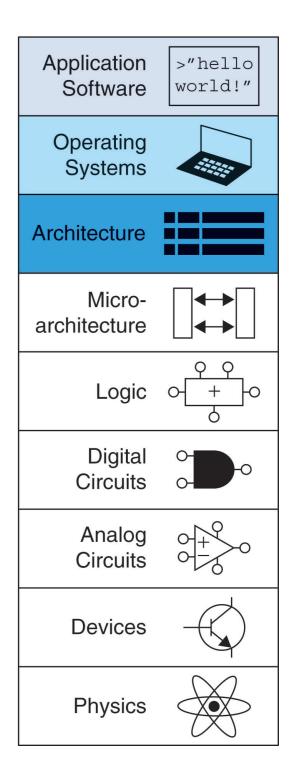
Architecture

Digital Computer Design

Architecture

- The architecture is the programmer's view of a computer.
 - It is defined by the
 - instruction set (language) and
 - operand locations (registers and memory).
- Many different architectures exist, such as
 - -ARM, x86, MIPS, SPARC, and PowerPC.

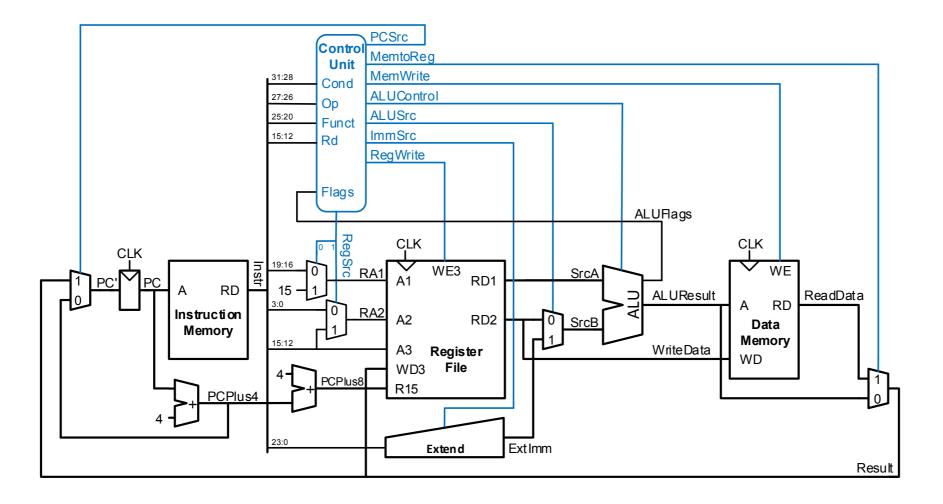


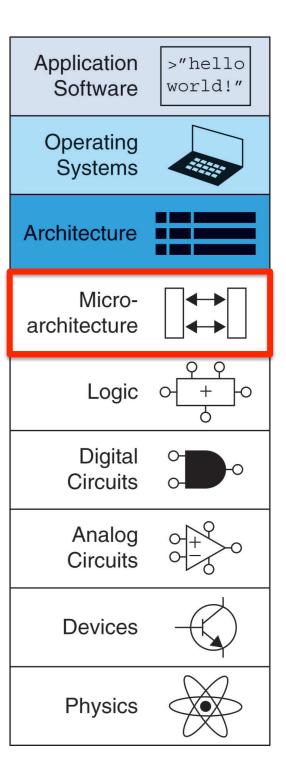
Understanding Computer Architecture

- The first step in understanding any computer architecture is to learn its language:
 - —The words in a computer's language are called instructions.
 - —The computer's vocabulary is called the instruction set.
- All programs running on a computer use the same instruction set.
 - All applications are eventually compiled into a series of simple instructions:
 - such as add, subtract, and branch.

Microarchitecture

- A computer architecture does not define the underlying <u>hardware implementation</u>.
 - Registers, memories, ALUs, and other building blocks to form a microprocessor is called the microarchitecture.





Microarchitecture

- Different microarchitectures may exist for a single architecture.
 - Intel and Advanced Micro Devices (AMD) both sell various microprocessors belonging to the same x86 architecture.
 - They all can run the same programs,
 - But they use different underlying hardware
 - Offer different trade-offs in performance, price, and power.
- We will explore microarchitecture in the following weeks!

ARM Architecture

- Developed in the 1980's by Advanced RISC Machines
 now called ARM Holdings
- Almost all cell phones and tablets have multiple ARM processors
 - –Over 75% of humans use products with an ARM processor
 - Used in servers, cameras, robots, cars, pinball machines, etc.

Machine Language

- Computer hardware understands only 1's and 0's
 - Instructions are encoded as binary numbers in a format called machine language.
 - —The ARM architecture represents each instruction as a 32-bit word.

Assembly Language

- However, humans consider reading machine language to be tedious
 - We prefer to represent the instructions in a symbolic format called assembly language.
 - Each assembly language instruction specifies the operation to perform and the operands on which to operate

Instruction: Addition

C Code

$$a = b + c;$$

ARM Assembly Code

ADD a, b, c

- ADD: mnemonic indicates operation to perform
- b, c: source operands
- a: destination operand

Instruction: Subtraction

Similar to addition - only mnemonic changes

C Code

$$a = b - c;$$

ARM assembly code

SUB a, b, c

- SUB: mnemonic
- b, c: source operands
- a: destination operand

Multiple Instructions

More complex code handled by multiple ARM instructions

C Code

ARM assembly code

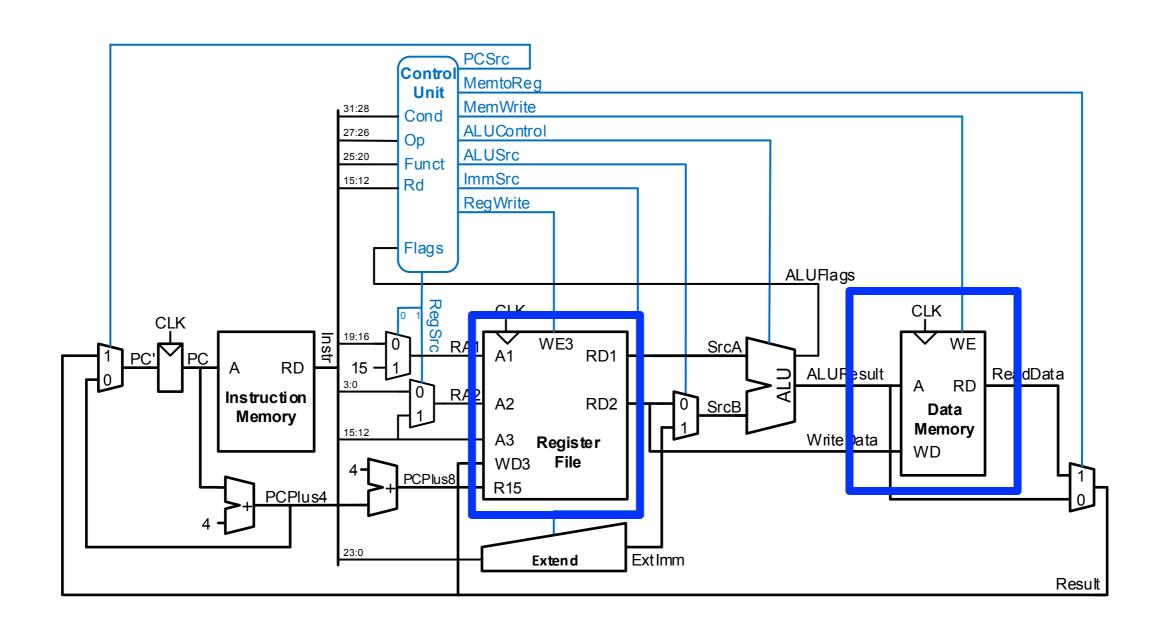
```
a = b + c - d; ADD t, b, c ; t = b + c
                SUB a, t, d ; a = t - d
```

Operands

An instruction operates on operands.

- -The variables a, b, and c are all operands.
- -But computers operate on 1's and 0's, not variable names.
- The instructions need a physical location from which to retrieve the binary data.
- Operands can be stored in
 - –Registers
 - –Memory
 - —Constants stored in the instruction itself (immediates).

Registers and Memory



Operands: Registers

- Instructions need to access operands quickly so that they can run fast.
 - But operands stored in memory take a long time to retrieve.
- Therefore, most architectures specify a small number of registers that hold commonly used operands.
- ARM has 16 registers
 - Registers are faster than memory
 - Each register is 32 bits
 - ARM is called a "32-bit architecture" because it operates on 32bit data

ARM Register Set

Registers:

- R before number, all capitals
- Example: "R0" or "register zero" or "register R0"

Name	Use					
RO	Argument / return value / temporary variable					
R1-R3	argument / temporary variables					
R4-R11	Saved variables					
R12	Temporary variable					
R13 (SP)	Stack Pointer					
R14 (LR)	(LR) Link Register					
R15 (PC)	Program Counter 15					

Instructions with Registers

Revisit ADD instruction

C Code

$$a = b + c$$

ARM Assembly Code

```
; R0 = a, R1 = b, R2 = c
ADD R0, R1, R2
```

Operands: Constants\Immediates

- Many instructions can use constants or *immediate* operands
- For example: ADD and SUB
- Value is immediately available from instruction

C Code

$$a = a + 4;$$

 $b = a - 12;$

ARM Assembly Code

```
; R0 = a, R1 = b
              ADD RO, RO, #4
b = a - 12; SUB R1, R0, #12
```

Generating Constants

Generating small constants using move (MOV):

C Code

```
//int: 32-bit signed word ; R0 = a, R1 = b
int a = 23;
int b = 0x45;
```

ARM Assembly Code

```
MOV RO, #23
MOV R1, \#0x45
```

Note: MOV can also use 2 registers: MOV R7, R9

Operands: Memory

- If registers were the only storage space for operands
 - -Simple programs with no more than 15 variables.
- However, data can also be stored in memory.
 - Whereas the register file is small and fast, memory is larger and slower.
 - For this reason, **frequently used variables** are kept in registers.
- In the ARM architecture, instructions operate <u>exclusively</u> on registers
 - so data stored in memory must be moved to a register before it can be processed.

Byte-Addressable Memory

- ARM uses a byte-addressable memory.
- Each data byte has unique address
 - -32-bit word = 4 bytes, so word address increments by 4

	В	yte a	ddres	Word address	
	13	12	11	10	00000010
	F E		D	С	0000000C
	В	A	9	8	0000008
	7	6	5	4	00000004
	3	2	1	0	00000000
,	MSB	3		LSB	-

Reading Memory

- Memory read called load
 - Mnemonic: load register (LDR)
 - -Format:

- Address calculation:
 - add base address (R1) to the offset (12)
 - address = (R1 + 12)
- -Result:
 - R0 holds the data at memory address (R1 + 12)

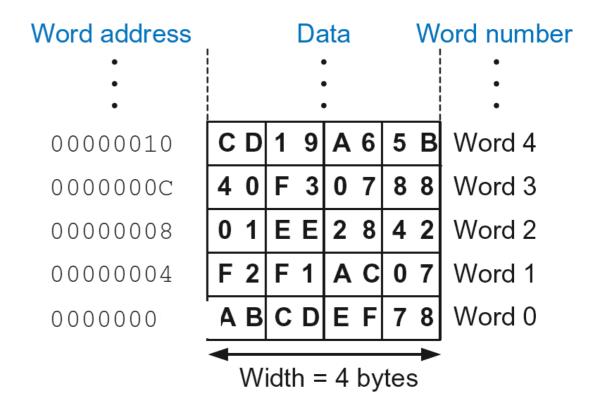
Any register may be used as base address.

Reading Memory

- Example: Read a word of data at memory address 8 into R3
 - Address = (R2 + 8) = 8
 - -R3 = 0x01EE2842 after load

ARM Assembly Code

MOV R2, #0 LDR R3, [R2, #8]

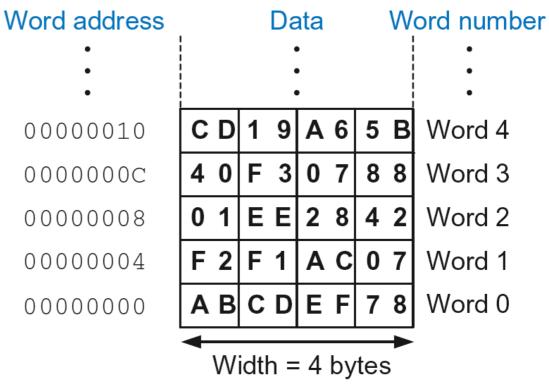


Writing Memory

- Memory write are called stores
 - -Mnemonic: store register (STR)
- Example: Store the value held in R7 into memory word 21.
 - -Memory address = $4 \times 21 = 84 = 0 \times 54$

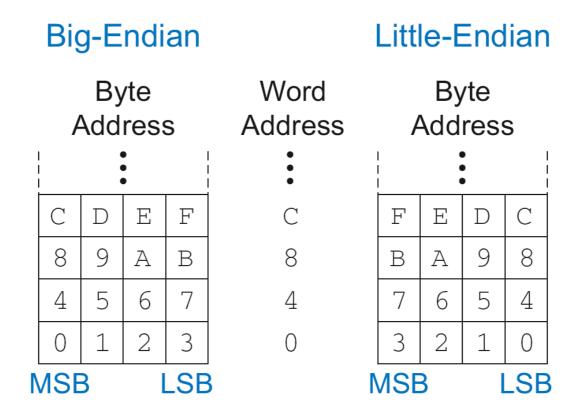
ARM assembly code

MOV R5, #0 STR R7, [R5, #0x54]



Recap: Accessing Memory

- How to number bytes within a word?
 - -Little-endian: byte numbers start at the little (least significant) end
 - —Big-endian: byte numbers start at the big (most significant) end



Big-Endian & Little-Endian Example

Suppose R2 and R5 hold the values 8 and 0x23456789

- After following code runs on big-endian system, what value is in R7?
- In a little-endian system?

Big-Endian

Byte Address 8 9 A B Data Value 23 45 67 89 MSB LSB

Little-Endian

Big-endian: 0x00000045

Little-endian: 0x00000067

Programming

- High-level languages
 - -e.g., C, Java, Python:
 - Written at a more abstract level than assembly
- Many high-level languages use common software constructs
 - such as arithmetic and logical operations
 - conditional execution, if/else statements
 - -for and while loops
 - array indexing
 - -function calls.

Data-processing Instructions

- Logical operations
- Shifts / rotate
- Multiplication

Logical Instructions

- These each operate bitwise on two sources and write the result to a destination register.
 - The first source is always a register and the second source is either an immediate or another register.
- AND
- ORR
- EOR (XOR)
- BIC (Bit Clear)
- MVN (MoVe and NOT)

Logical Instructions: Examples

Source registers

R1	0100 0110	1010 0001	1111 0001	1011 0111
R2	1111 1111	1111 1111	0000 0000	0000 0000

Assembly code

Result

AND	R3,	R1,	R2	R3	0100 0110	1010 0001	0000 0000	0000 0000
ORR	R4,	R1,	R2	R4	1111 1111	1111 1111	1111 0001	1011 0111
EOR	R5,	R1,	R2	R5	1011 1001	0101 1110	1111 0001	1011 0111
BIC	R6,	R1,	R2	R6	0000 0000	0000 0000	1111 0001	1011 0111
MVN	R7,	R2		R7	0000 0000	0000 0000	1111 1111	1111 1111

Logical Instructions: Uses

AND or BIC: useful for masking bits

Example: Masking all but the least significant byte of a value

0xF234012F AND 0x000000FF = 0x00000002F 0xF234012F BIC 0xFFFFFF00 = 0x0000002F

ORR: useful for combining bit fields
 Example: Combine 0xF2340000 with 0x000012BC:
 0xF2340000 ORR 0x000012BC = 0xF23412BC

Shift Instructions

- LSL: logical shift left
 - **Example:** LSL R0, R7, #5; R0=R7 << 5
- LSR: logical shift right
 - **Example:** LSR R3, R2, #31; R3=R2 >> 31
- ASR: arithmetic shift right
 - **Example:** ASR R9, R11, R4 ; R9=R11 >>> R4 $_{7:0}$
- ROR: rotate right
 - **Example:** ROR R8, R1, #3 ; R8 = R1 ROR 3

Shift Instructions: Example 1

- Immediate shift amount (5-bit immediate)
- Shift amount: 0-31

Source register

Assembly Code

Result

LSL R0,	R5,	#7 R0	1000 1110	0000 1000	0111 0011	1000 0000
LSR R1,	R5,	#17 R1	0000 0000	0000 0000	0111 1111	1000 1110
ASR R2,	R5,	#3 R2	1111 1111	1110 0011	1000 0010	0001 1100
ROR R3,	R5,	#21 R3	1110 0000	1000 0111	0011 1111	1111 1000

Shift Instructions: Example 2

- Register shift amount (uses low 8 bits of register)
- Shift amount: 0-255

Source registers

R8	0000 1000	0001 1100	0001 0110	1110 0111
R6	0000 0000	0000 0000	0000 0000	0001 0100

Assembly code

Result

LSL R4,	R8,	R6	R4	0110 1110	0111 0000	0000 0000	0000 0000
ROR R5,	R8,	R6	R5	1100 0001	0110 1110	0111 0000	1000 0001

Multiplication

• MUL: 32 × 32 multiplication, 32-bit result

```
MUL R1, R2, R3

Result: R1 = (R2 \times R3)_{31:0}
```

• UMULL: Unsigned multiply long: 32 × 32 multiplication, 64-bit result

```
UMULL R1, R2, R3, R4

Result: \{R1, R4\} = R2 \times R3 \ (R2, R3 \ unsigned)
```

 SMULL: Signed multiply long: 32 × 32 multiplication, 64-bit result

```
SMULL R1, R2, R3, R4

Result: \{R1, R4\} = R2 \times R3 \text{ (R2, R3 signed)}
```

Conditional Execution

Don't always want to execute code sequentially

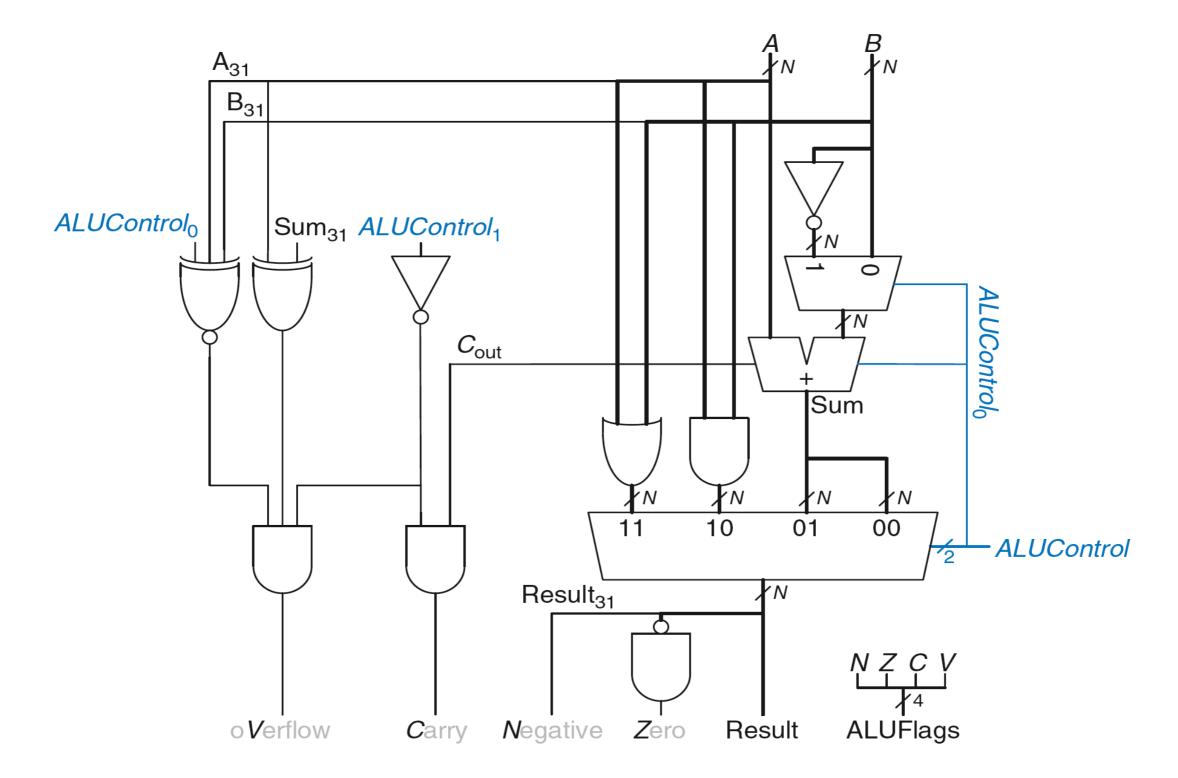
- For example:
 - if/else statements, while loops, etc.: only want to execute code if a condition is true
 - branching: jump to another portion of code if a condition is true
- ARM includes condition flags that can be:
 - set by an instruction
 - used to conditionally execute an instruction

ARM Condition Flags

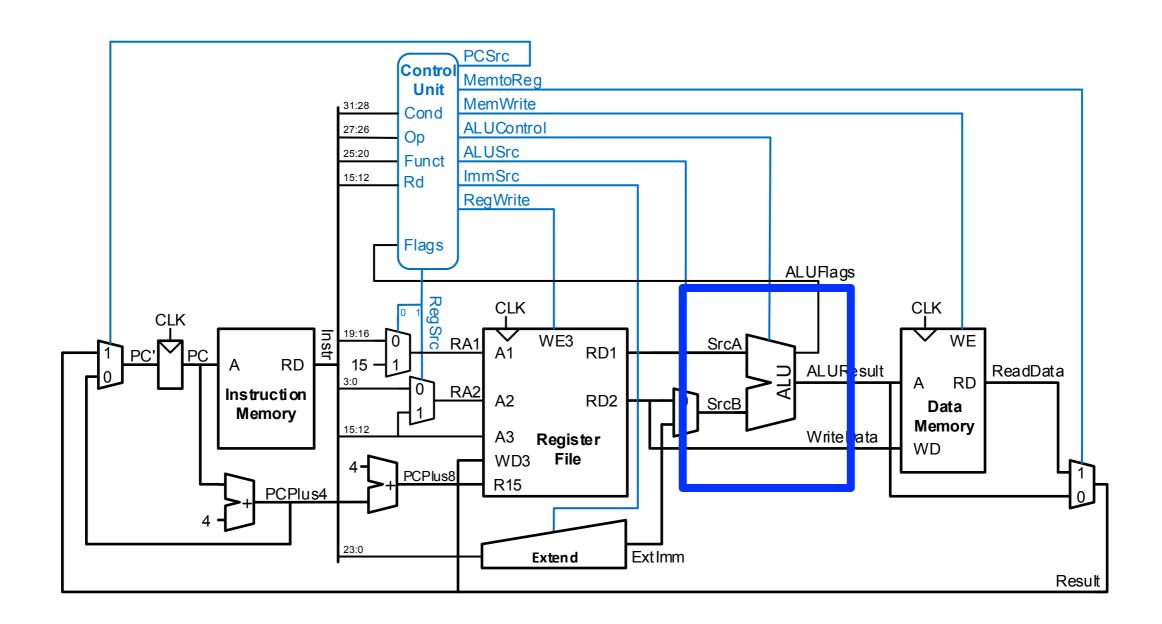
Flag	Name	Description
N	N egative	Instruction result is negative
Z	Z ero	Instruction results in zero
C	Carry	Instruction causes an unsigned carry out
V	o V erflow	Instruction causes an overflow

- Set by ALU
- Held in Current Program Status Register (CPSR)

Review: ARM ALU



Review: ALU



Setting the Condition Flags: NZCV

Compare instruction: CMP

Example: CMP R5, R6

- Performs: R5 R6
- Does not save result
- Sets flags. If result:
 - Is 0, Z=1
 - Is negative, N=1
 - Causes a carry out, C=I
 - Causes a signed overflow, V=I

Condition Mnemonics

- Instruction may be conditionally executed based on the condition flags
- Condition of execution is encoded as a condition mnemonic appended to the instruction mnemonic

```
Example: CMP R1, R2
SUBNE R3, R5, R8
```

- NE: condition mnemonic
- SUB will only execute if R1 ≠ R2 (i.e., Z = 0)

Condition Mnemonics

cond	Mnemonic	Name	CondEx
0000	EQ	Equal	Z
0001	NE	Not equal	\overline{Z}
0010	CS/HS	Carry set / unsigned higher or same	С
0011	CC/LO	Carry clear / unsigned lower	\overline{C}
0100	MI	Minus / negative	N
0101	PL	Plus / positive or zero	\overline{N}
0110	VS	Overflow / overflow set	V
0111	VC	No overflow / overflow clear	\overline{V}
1000	НІ	Unsigned higher	₹C
1001	LS	Unsigned lower or same	Z OR \overline{C}
1010	GE	Signed greater than or equal	$\overline{N \oplus V}$
1011	LT	Signed less than	$N \oplus V$
1100	GT	Signed greater than	$\overline{Z}(\overline{N \oplus V})$
1101	LE	Signed less than or equal	$Z \text{ OR } (N \oplus V)$
1110	AL (or none)	Always / unconditional	Ignored

Conditional Execution

Example:

```
R5, R9 ; performs R5-R9
CMP
                ; sets condition flags
SUBEQ R1, R2, R3; executes if R5==R9 (Z=1)
ORRMI R4, R0, R9 ; executes if R5-R9 is
                     ; negative (N=1)
Suppose R5 = 17, R9 = 23:
  CMP performs: 17 - 23 = -6 (Sets flags: N=1, Z=0, C=0, V=0)
  SUBEQ doesn't execute (they aren't equal: Z=0)
  ORRMI executes because the result was negative (N=1)
```

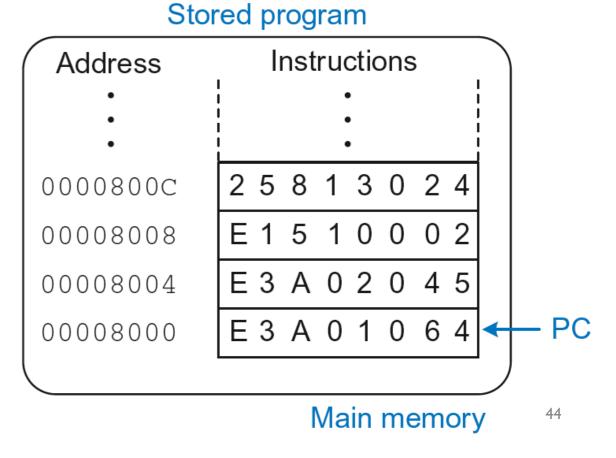
Branching

- Branches enable out of sequence instruction execution
 - ARM use branch instructions to skip over sections of code or repeat code.
- Types of branches:
 - -Branch (B)
 - branches to another instruction
 - -Branch and link (BL)
- Both can be conditional or unconditional

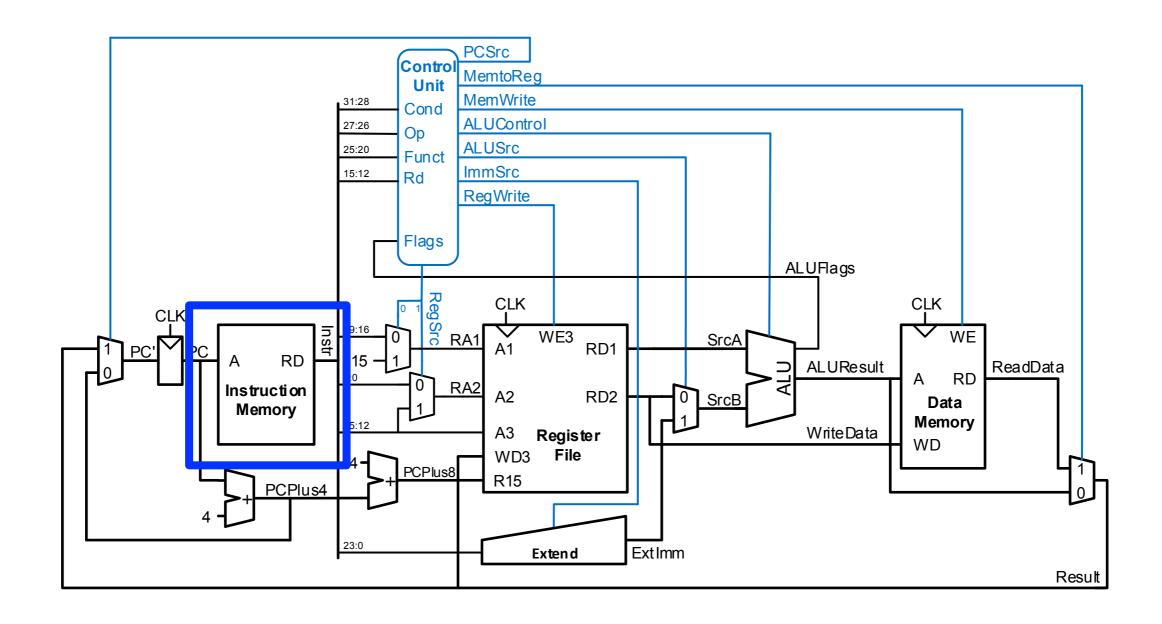
The Stored Program

- A program usually executes in sequence, with the program counter (PC) incrementing by 4 after each instruction to point to the next instruction.
 - Recall that instructions are 4 bytes long and ARM is a byteaddressed architecture.
- Branch instructions change the program counter.

Ass	embly	Machine code		
MOV	R1,	#100		0xE3A01064
MOV	R2,	#69		0xE3A02045
CMP	R1,	R2		0xE1510002
STRHS	R3,	[R1,	#0x24]	0x25813024



Review: Stored Program



Unconditional Branching (B)

ARM assembly

Labels (like TARGET) indicate instruction location. Labels can't be reserved words (like ADD, ORR, etc.)

Conditional Branching

ARM Assembly

```
MOV R0, #4 ; R0 = 4

ADD R1, R0, R0 ; R1 = R0+R0 = 8

CMP R0, R1 ; sets flags with R0-R1

BEQ THERE ; branch not taken (Z=0)

ORR R1, R1, #1 ; R1 = R1 OR R1 = 9

THERE

ADD R1, R1, 78 ; R1 = R1 + 78 = 87
```

if Statement

C Code

ARM Assembly Code

Assembly tests opposite case (i = j) of high-level code (i == j)

if/else Statement

C Code

while Loops

High-Level Code

```
int pow = 1;
int x = 0;

while (pow != 128) {
   pow = pow * 2;
   x = x + 1;
}
```

For Loops

High-Level Code

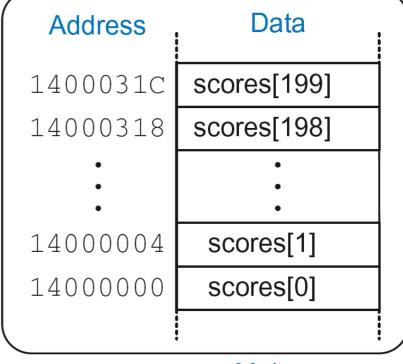
```
int i;
int sum = 0;

for (i = 0; i < 10; i = i + 1) {
   sum = sum + i;
}</pre>
```

```
; R0 = i, R1 = sum MOV R1, \#0 ; sum = 0 MOV R0, \#0 ; i = 0 loop initialization FOR CMP R0, \#10 ; i < 10 ? check condition BGE DONE ; if (i >= 10) exit loop ADD R1, R1, R0 ; sum = sum + i loop body ADD R0, R0, \#1 ; i = i + 1 loop operation B FOR ; repeat loop DONE
```

Arrays

- Access large amounts of similar data
 - Index: access to each element
 - Size: number of elements
- 5-element array
 - Base address = 0x14000000 (address of first element, scores[0])
 - Array elements accessed relative
 to base address



Main memory

Accessing Arrays

C Code

```
int array[5];
array[0] = array[0] * 8;
array[1] = array[1] * 8;
```

```
; R0 = array base address
MOV R0, #0x60000000 ; R0 = 0x60000000

LDR R1, [R0] ; R1 = array[0]
LSL R1, R1, 3 ; R1 = R1 << 3 = R1*8
STR R1, [R0] ; array[0] = R1

LDR R1, [R0, #4] ; R1 = array[1]
LSL R1, R1, 3 ; R1 = R1 << 3 = R1*8
STR R1, [R0, #4] ; array[1] = R1</pre>
```

ACCESSING ARRAYS USING A FOR LOOP

High-Level Code

```
int i;
int scores[200];
...

for (i = 0; i < 200; i = i + 1)

    scores[i] = scores[i] + 10;</pre>
```

```
; R0 = array base address, R1 = i
: initialization code
 MOV RO, \#0x14000000 ; RO = base address
 MOV R1, #0
                         : i = 0
LOOP
 CMP R1, #200
                          ; i < 200?
 BGE L3
                          ; if i \ge 200, exit loop
 LSL R2, R1, #2
                          ; R2 = i * 4
 LDR R3, [R0, R2]
                          ; R3 = scores[i]
 ADD R3, R3, #10
                          ; R3 = scores[i] + 10
 STR R3, [R0, R2]
                       ; scores[i] = scores[i] + 10
 ADD R1, R1, #1
                          ; i = i + 1
                          ; repeat loop
   I 00P
L3
```

ACCESSING ARRAYS USING A FOR LOOP

High-Level Code

```
; R0 = array base address
: initialization code
  MOV RO, #0×1400000
                        : R0 = base address
  ADD R1, R0, #800
                        R1 = base address + (200*4)
100P
 CMP RO, R1
                         ; reached end of array?
 BGE L3
                         ; if yes, exit loop
 LDR R2, [R0]
                         ; R2 = scores[i]
 ADD R2, R2, #10
                         ; R2 = scores[i] + 10
 STR R2, [R0], #4
                         ; scores[i] = scores[i] + 10
                         : then R0 = R0 + 4
     LOOP
                         ; repeat loop
 L3
```

Function Calls

Caller:

- passes arguments to callee
- -jumps to callee

Callee:

- -performs the function
- -returns result to caller
- -returns to point of call
- must not overwrite registers or memory needed by caller

C Code

```
void main()
  int y;
  y = sum(42, 7);
int sum(int a, int b)
  return (a + b);
```

ARM Function Conventions

Call Function: branch and link

BL

- it stores the return address of the next instruction in the link register (LR), and it branches to the target instruction.
- Return from function: move the link register to PC:

MOV PC, LR

- Arguments: R0-R3
- Return value: R0

Function Calls

C Code

```
int main() {
    simple();
    a = b + c;
}

void simple() {
    return;
}
```

ARM Assembly Code

```
0x00000200 MAIN BL SIMPLE
0x00000204 ADD R4, R5, R6
...

0x00401020 SIMPLE MOV PC, LR
```

BL

(branch and link) branches to SIMPLE LR = PC + 4 = 0x00000204

MOV PC, LR makes PC = LR (the next instruction executed is at 0x00000200)

Input Arguments and Return Value

ARM conventions:

• Argument values: R0 - R3

• Return value: R0

Input Arguments and Return Value

C Code

```
int main()
 int y;
 y = diffofsums(2, 3, 4, 5); // 4 arguments
int diffofsums(int f, int g, int h, int i)
 int result;
 result = (f + g) - (h + i);
                       // return value
 return result;
```

Input Arguments and Return Value

```
R4 = y
MATN
 MOV R0, \#2 ; argument 0 = 2
 MOV R1, \#3 ; argument 1 = 3
 MOV R2, \#4 ; argument 2 = 4
 MOV R3, \#5 ; argument 3 = 5
 BL DIFFOFSUMS ; call function
 MOV R4, R0 ; y = returned value
R4 = result
DIFFOFSUMS
 ADD R8, R0, R1 ; R8 = f + g
 ADD R9, R2, R3 ; R9 = h + i
 SUB R4, R8, R9 ; result = (f + g) - (h + i)
 MOV RO, R4 ; put return value in RO
 MOV PC, LR ; return to caller
```

Further Reading

- You can read Chapter 6 of your book
 - -Till Section 6.4

