

COMP2300-COMP6300-ENGN2219

Computer Organization & Program Execution

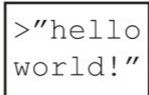



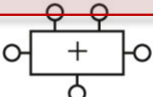
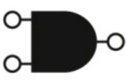
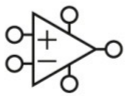


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Australian
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University

Our Status

- We are done with digital logic fundamentals that we need to understand and build a CPU
- We are now (+ next week) at
 - Architecture layer
- Then
 - Microarchitecture layer

Application Software		Programs
Operating Systems		Device Drivers
Architecture		Instructions Registers
Micro-architecture		Datapaths Controllers
Logic		Adders Memories
Digital Circuits		AND Gates NOT Gates
Analog Circuits		Amplifiers Filters
Devices		Transistors Diodes
Physics		Electrons

ISA then microarchitecture

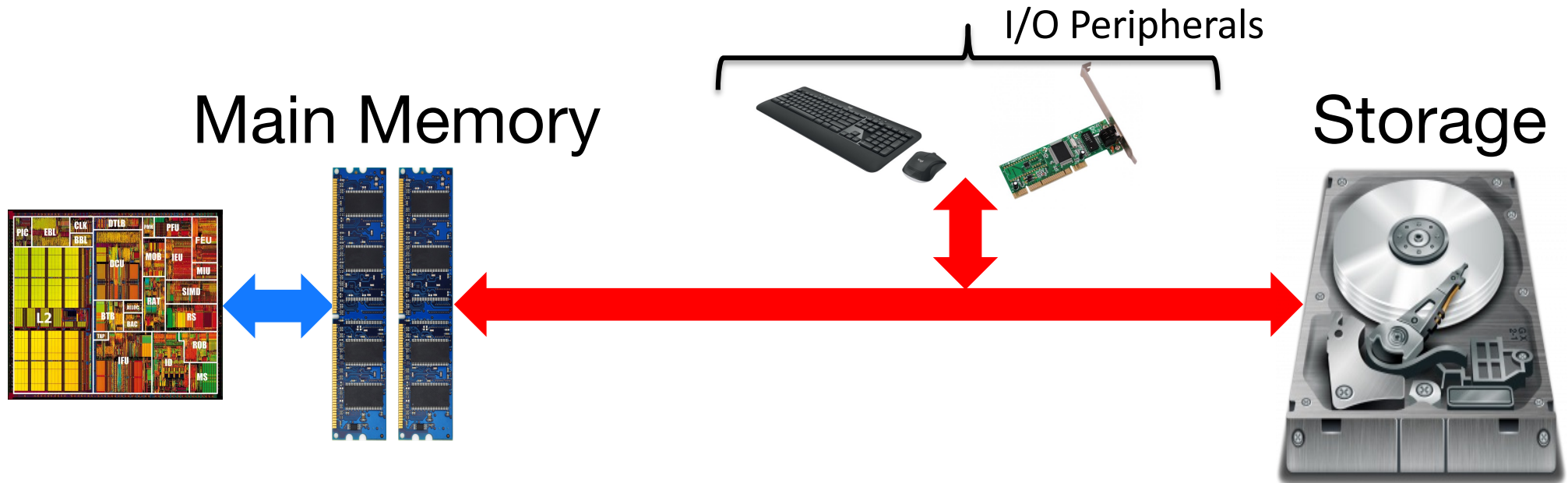
Admin

- Quiz #1 has been marked
 - We will take the best two of four quizzes
- Marking of the checkpoint is underway
- Assignment 1 will be released this week
- Some % of assignment 1 grade comes from work you are doing in Labs 4 – 6

Von Neumann Model

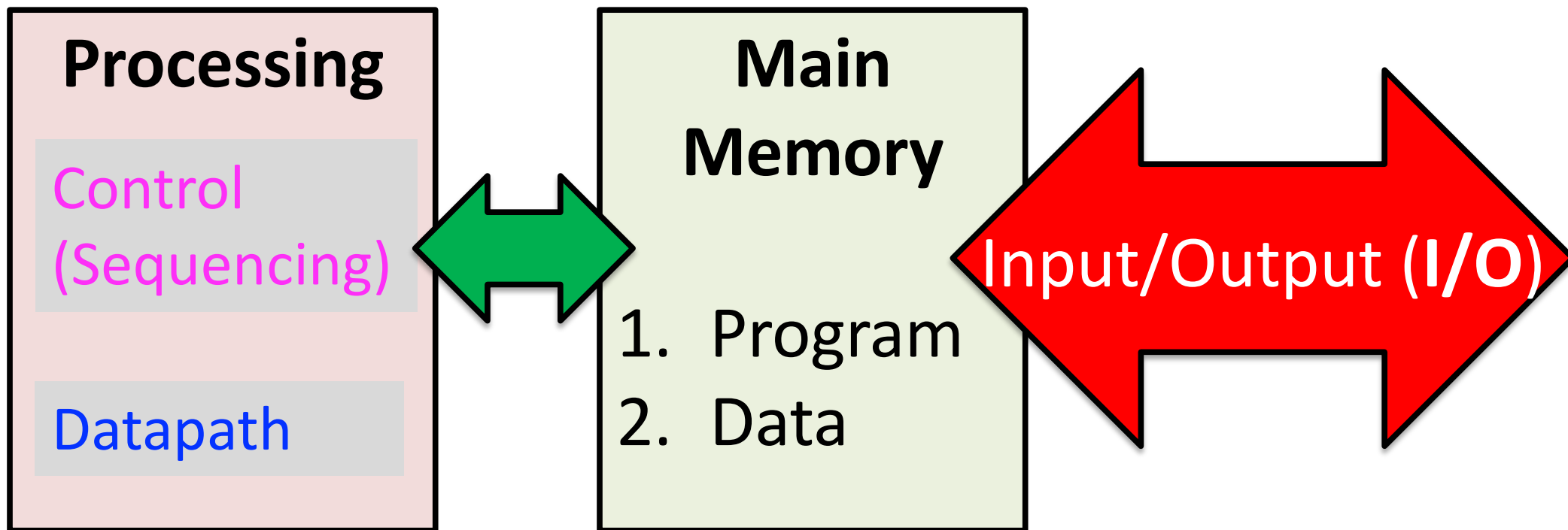
Recall: A Computer System

- Key resources: **CPU**, **memory**, and Input/Output (I/O) devices
 - CPU (microprocessor) does the actual processing (**computation**)
 - Memory stores **temporary** data and forms a hierarchy (registers, SRAM, DRAM, ...)
 - Some fast (**small capacity**) memory called **register file** is close to the CPU and **rest is far**
 - Storage disk is an I/O device (much **slower** than memory, stores **persistent** data)
 - Memory is **volatile**, while disk is **non-volatile** (data is retained after a **shutdown**)
 - Other peripherals such as keyboard and network card are **accessories to processing**



Another View: What is a Computer?

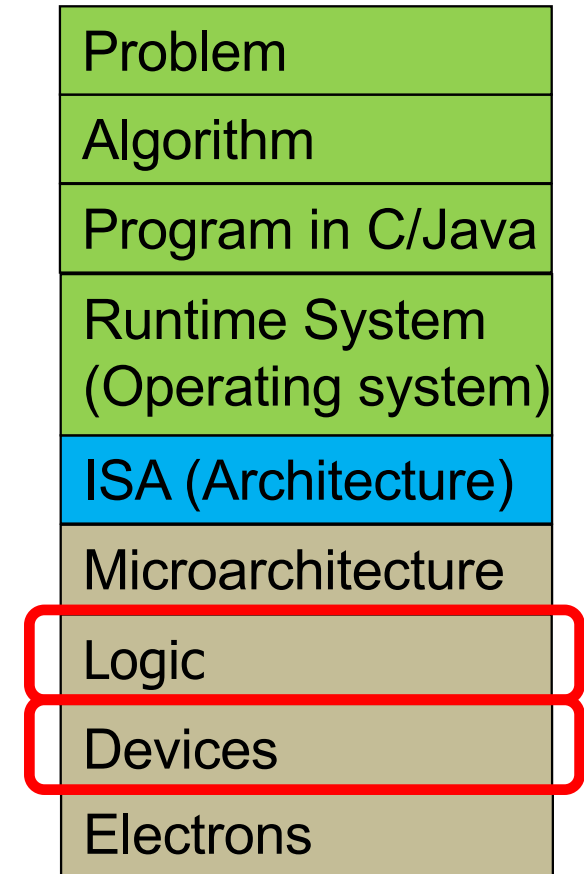
- Basic computer model proposed in the 1940s



- We will cover all three components

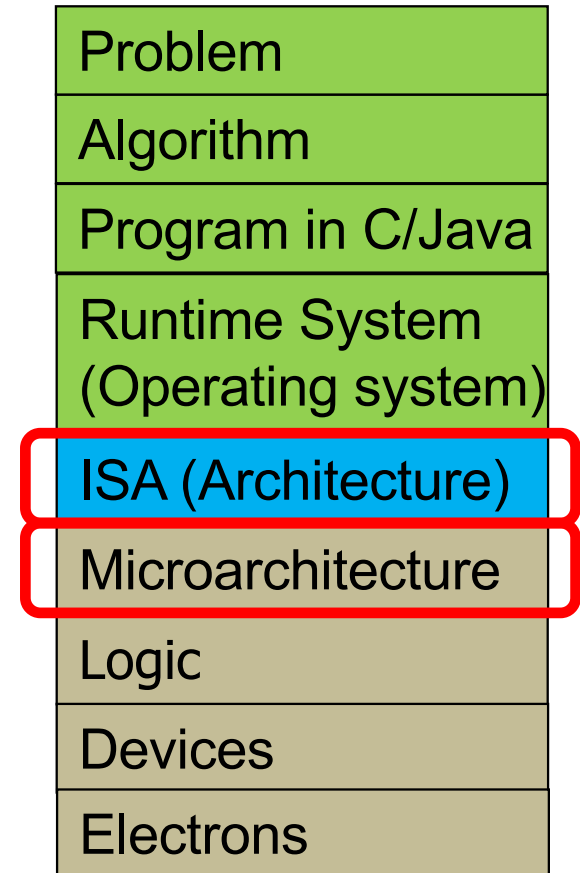
Building up a Basic Computer Model

- In past lectures, we learned how to design
 - Combinational logic structures
 - Sequential logic structures
- With logic structures, we can build
 - Execution units
 - Decision units
 - Memory/storage units
 - Communication units
- All are basic elements of a computer
 - We will raise our abstraction level today
 - Use logic structures to construct a basic computer model



Building up a Basic Computer Model

- **ISA:** Specification of the instructions computer can perform
 - An interface between the programs and hardware
 - **Programmer** needs to know ISA to be able to convey his wishes (**instructions**) to the hardware
 - Hardware builder (**computer architect**) needs to know the ISA to be able to **build and organize circuits** to carry out the instructions
- **Microarchitecture:** Circuit implementation of the specification
- **An important aspect to ponder:** Not every implementation detail is relevant to the programmer!
 - Just enough to be able to program the computer (as we will see)



ISA vs. Microarchitecture

- What is part of ISA vs. Uarch?
 - Gas pedal: interface for “**acceleration**”
 - Internals of the engine: implement “**acceleration**”
- **Aspects of ISA**
 - The different instructions and their binary codes
 - Semantics (meaning) of each instruction
 - Word size, number of registers, memory addressability
- **Aspects of implementation**
 - Ripple-carry vs. carry-lookahead adder
 - Mux or tristate buffers
 - Canonical SOP or minimal Boolean expression for implementation
 - NAND gates only vs. AND/OR/NOT combination



ISA vs. Microarchitecture

- **One ISA can have many microarchitectures**
 - One microarchitecture per student, but the QuAC ISA is the same on the course webpage
- **ISA is usually a one-time effort with incremental changes to enable new applications**
 - Only a few ISAs in the world but many microarchitectures
 - Microarchitecture changes faster than ISA
 - **Key insight:** ISA can enable simple vs. complex logic gate circuitry at the microarchitecture level (more in coming weeks)

ISA: Another View

- Most people don't write programs in the computer's own machine language (lowest level)
- They prefer **high-level languages** such as C++, Java, or Python
- A **compiler translates** C++ or Java code into the computer's machine language
- ISA specifies everything in the computer that a **compiler writer** who wishes to translate programs from C++/Java to machine language need to know

ISAs are a Good Bedtime Reading!



Combined Volume Set of Intel® 64 and IA-32 Architectures Software Developer's Manuals

Document	Description
Intel® 64 and IA-32 Architectures Software Developer's Manual Combined Volumes: 1, 2A, 2B, 2C, 2D, 3A, 3B, 3C, 3D, and 4	<p>This document contains the following:</p> <p>Volume 1: Describes the architecture and programming environment of processors supporting IA-32 and Intel® 64 architectures.</p> <p>Volume 2: Includes the full instruction set reference, A-Z. Describes the format of the instruction and provides reference pages for instructions.</p> <p>Volume 3: Includes the full system programming guide, parts 1, 2, 3, and 4. Describes the operating-system support environment of Intel® 64 and IA-32 architectures, including memory management, protection, task management, interrupt and exception handling, multi-processor support, thermal and power management features, debugging, performance monitoring, system management mode, virtual machine extensions (VMX) instructions, Intel® Virtualization Technology (Intel® VT), and Intel® Software Guard Extensions (Intel® SGX). NOTE: Performance monitoring events can be found here: https://perfmon-events.intel.com/</p> <p>Volume 4: Describes the model-specific registers of processors supporting IA-32 and Intel® 64 architectures.</p>
Intel® 64 and IA-32 Architectures Software Developer's Manual Documentation Changes	<p>Describes bug fixes made to the Intel® 64 and IA-32 architectures software developer's manual between versions.</p> <p>NOTE: This change document applies to all Intel® 64 and IA-32 architectures software developer's manual sets (combined volume set, 4 volume set, and 10 volume set).</p>

RESOURCES

Assembler Guide
Software setup
Writing a design document
QuAC ISA
QuAC Extensions
QuAC Instruction Description

RELATED SITES

Piazza
Streams
Wattle
SoCo Homepage

QuAC ISA V0.2

This document is the definitive source of the QuAC¹ instruction set that we will be implementing in this course. If another source contradicts this document, this takes precedence.

Memory

- Minimum addressable unit is 16-bit words
- 16-bit addressed
- Total addressable memory is 128 kb (64k words)

Registers

All registers start initialised to `0x0000`, and are 16-bits wide.

Code	Mnemonic	Meaning	Behaviour
000	<code>rz</code>	Zero Register	Always read zero, writes have no effect.
001	<code>r1</code>	Register 1	General purpose register.
010	<code>r2</code>	Register 2	General purpose register.
011	<code>r3</code>	Register 3	General purpose register.
100	<code>r4</code>	Register 4	General purpose register.
101	<code>f1</code>	Flag register	Stores the flags from ALU whenever an ALU instruction is executed. Any operation can read this register. Write is undefined.

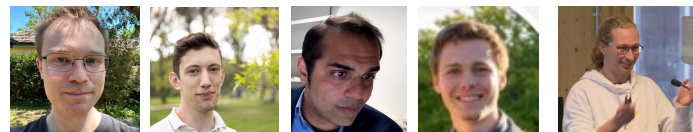
TABLE OF CONTENTS

QuAC ISA V0.2

- Memory
- Registers
- Instruction Encoding
 - Register Operands Format (R-Mode)
 - Immediate Format (I-Mode)
- Definitions
 - All Modes
 - R-Mode only
 - I-Mode Only
- Hardware Instructions
- Pseudo-Instructions
- Flag Register
- Condition Codes

ISAs You Will Encounter @ ANU

- **QuAC**
 - An ISA for educational purposes developed at ANU
 - **Mainly covered in tutorials and required for assignment 1**
- **MIPS**
 - Pioneering **RISC** ISA developed by **John Hennessy** at **MIPS computer systems**
 - **Microprocessors without Interlocked Pipelined Stages**
 - Briefly covered in today's lecture for breadth
- **ARM**
 - A popular **RISC** ISA developed by Arm Ltd.
 - **Advanced RISC Machines**
 - De facto choice for portable hand-held devices
 - **Covered extensively in lectures and required for assignment 2**
- **LC-3**
 - Little Computer 3 is an educational ISA developed by **Yale N. Patt** at UT-Austin
 - Briefly covered in today's lecture for breadth
- **x86-64**
 - A **CISC** ISA developed by Intel Corporation
 - **Most influential ISA** in the world and de facto choice for high-performance computing
 - **Covered extensively in COMP2310**



Ex-President of Stanford University
Chairman of Alphabet
Founder of MIPS Technologies
Turing Award Winner



What is a Computer?

- To get a task done by a (general-purpose) computer, we need
 - **A computer program**
 - That specifies what the computer must do
 - **The computer itself**
 - To carry out the specified task
- **Program**: A set of instructions
 - Each instruction specifies a well-defined piece of work for the computer to carry out
 - **Instruction**: the smallest piece of specified work in a program
- **Instruction set**: All possible instructions that a computer is designed to be able to carry out

The Von Neumann Model

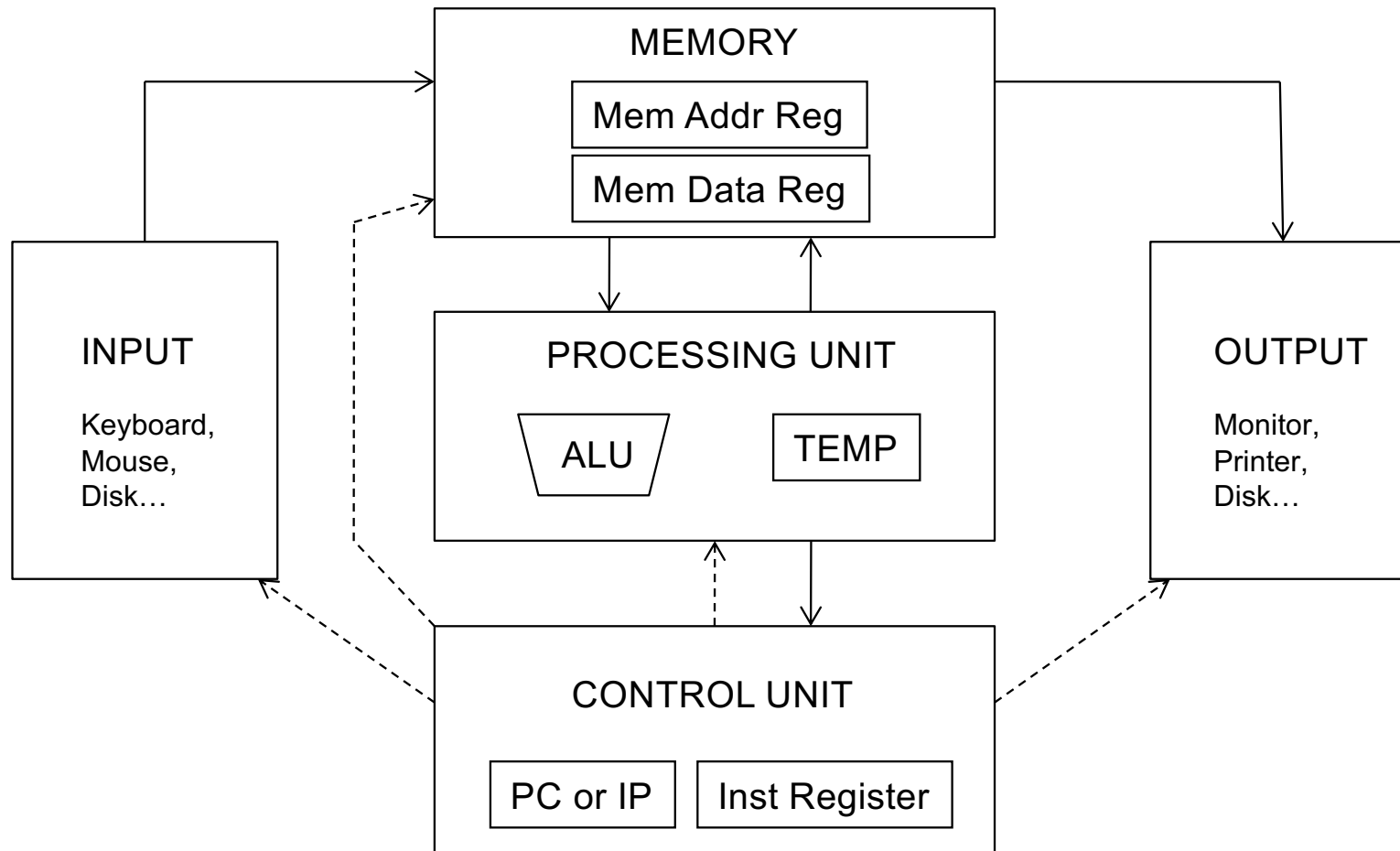
- In order to build a computer, we need an execution model for processing computer programs
- John von Neumann proposed a fundamental model in 1946
- The von Neumann Model consists of 5 components
 - Memory (stores the program and data)
 - Processing unit
 - Input
 - Output
 - Control unit (controls the order in which instructions are carried out)



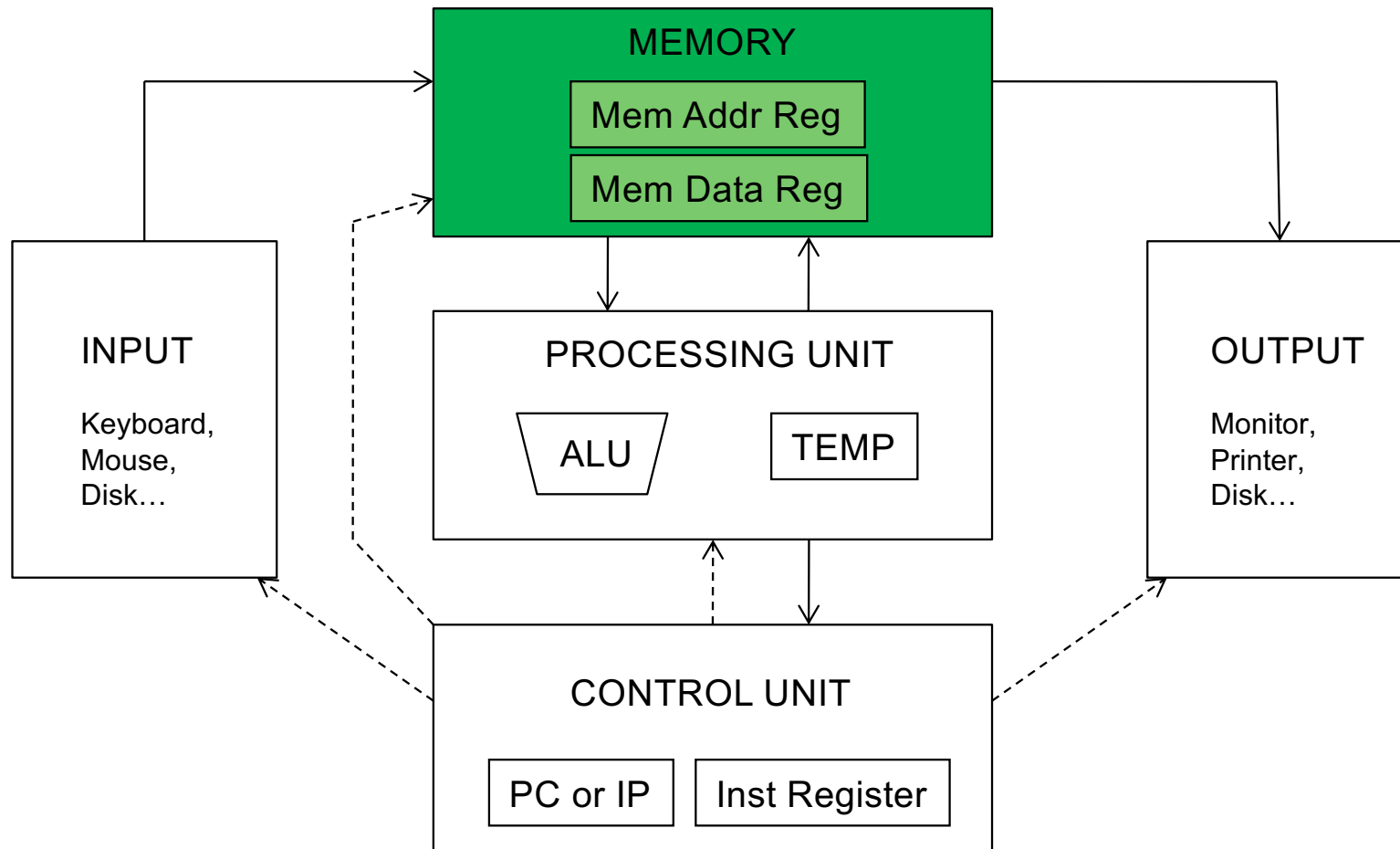
Burks, Goldstein, von Neumann,
“Preliminary discussion of the logical design
of an electronic computing instrument,” 1946.

All general-purpose computers today use the von Neumann model

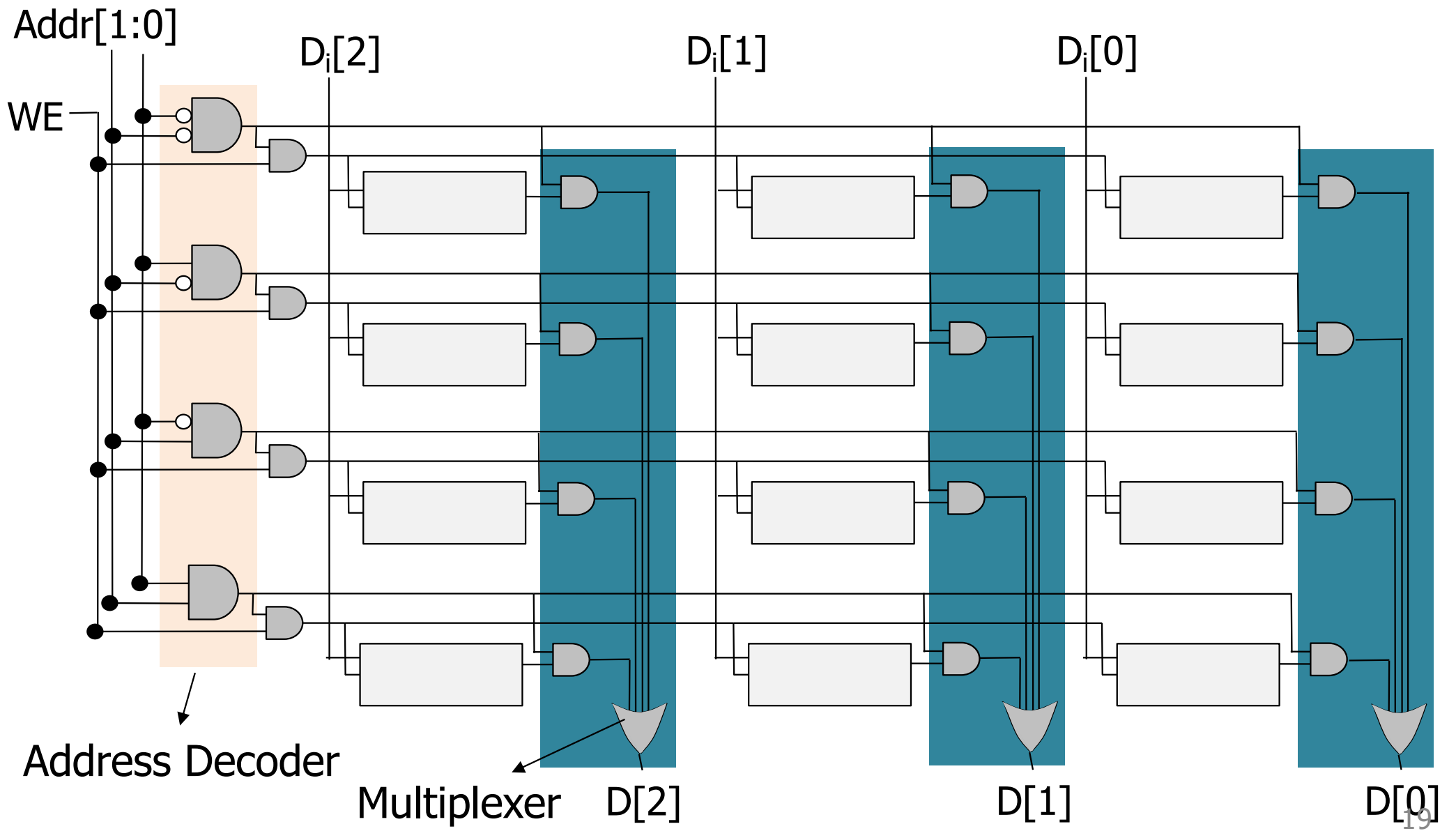
The Von Neumann Model



The Von Neumann Model

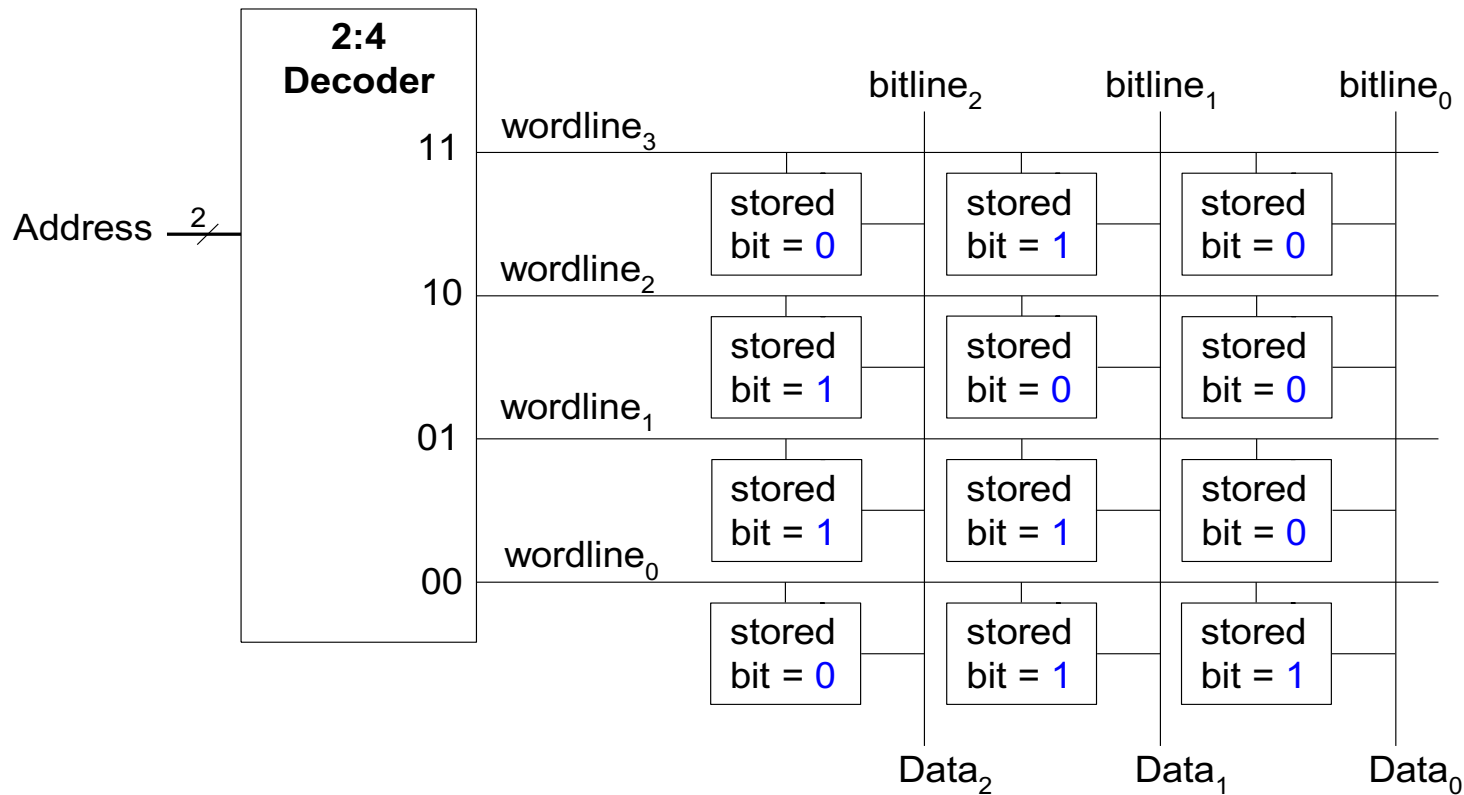


**Recall: A Memory Array (4 locations X
3 bits)**



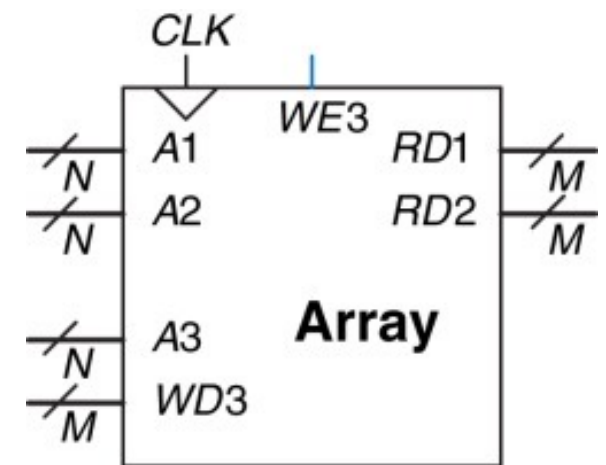
Recall: Memory Array Organization

- Decoder drives the wordline **HIGH** based on the address
- Data on the selected row appears on the bitlines



Recall: Memory Ports

- Each memory port gives **read** or **write** access to one memory address
- **Multiported memories** can access **multiple** addresses **simultaneously**
- Example of three-ported memory
 - **Port 1** reads the data from address **A1** onto the read data output **RD1**
 - **Port 2** reads the data from address **A2** onto the read data output **RD2**
 - **Port 3** writes the data from the write data input **WD3** into address **A3** on the rising clock edge if **WE3** is **TRUE**



Memory

- Memory stores
 - Programs
 - Data
- Memory contains bits
 - Bits are logically grouped into bytes (8 bits) and words (e.g., 8, 16, 32 bits)
- **Address space:** Total number of uniquely identifiable locations
 - In MIPS, the address space is 2^{32}
 - 32-bit addresses
 - In ARM, the address space is 2^{32}
 - 32-bit addresses
 - In x86-64, the address space is (up to) 2^{48}
 - 48-bit addresses
- **Addressability:** How many bits are stored in each location (address)
 - E.g., 8-bit addressable (or byte-addressable)
 - E.g., word-addressable
 - A given instruction can operate on a byte or a word

A Simple Example

- A representation of memory with 8 locations
- Each location contains 8 bits (one byte)
 - Byte addressable memory with an address space of 8
 - Value 6 is stored in address 4 & value 4 is stored in address 6

Address	Data Value
000	
001	
010	
011	
100	00000110
101	
110	00000100
111	

Question:
**How can we make
same-size memory
bit addressable?**

Answer:
64 locations
Each location stores 1 bit

Word-Addressable Memory

- Each **data word** has a **unique address**
 - In MIPS, a unique address for each **32-bit data word** (not word-addressable)
 - In **QuAC**, a unique address for each **16-bit data word** (word addressable)

Word Address	Data	Word Number
·	·	·
·	·	·
·	·	·
00000003	D 1 6 1 7 A 1 C	Word 3
00000002	1 3 C 8 1 7 5 5	Word 2
00000001	F 2 F 1 F 0 F 7	Word 1
00000000	8 9 A B C D E F	Word 0

Byte-Addressable Memory

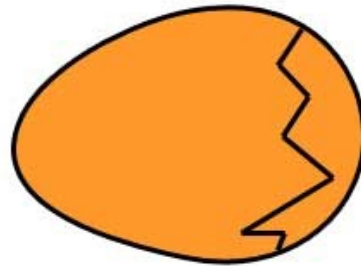
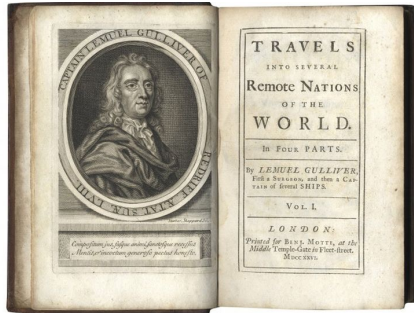
- Each **byte** has a **unique address**
 - MIPS is actually **byte-addressable**
 - ARM is also **byte-addressable**

Byte Address of the Word	Data				Word Number
.
0000000C	D 1	6 1	7 A	1 C	Word 3
00000008	1 3	C 8	1 7	5 5	Word 2
00000004	F 2	F 1	F 0	F 7	Word 1
00000000	How are these four bytes ordered?				Word 0

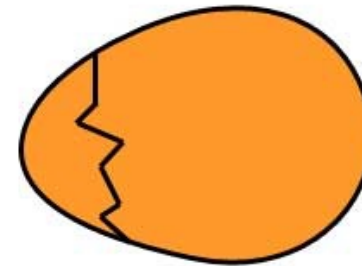
Which of the four bytes is most vs. least significant?

Big Endian vs. Little Endian

- Jonathan Swift's **Gulliver's Travels**
 - **Big Endians** broke their eggs on the big end of the egg
 - **Little Endians** broke their eggs on the little end of the egg

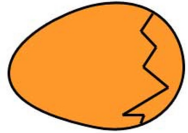


BIG ENDIAN - The way people always broke their eggs in the Lilliput land



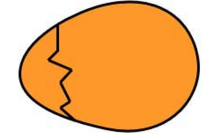
LITTLE ENDIAN - The way the king then ordered the people to break their eggs

Big Endian vs. Little Endian



Big Endian

Little Endian



Byte Address			
⋮			
⋮			
⋮			
C	D	E	F
8	9	A	B
4	5	6	7
0	1	2	3

MSB

LSB

(Most Significant Byte)

(Least Significant Byte)

LSB in higher byte address

Word Address				
⋮				
⋮				
⋮				
C	F	E	D	C
8	B	A	9	8
4	7	6	5	4
0	3	2	1	0

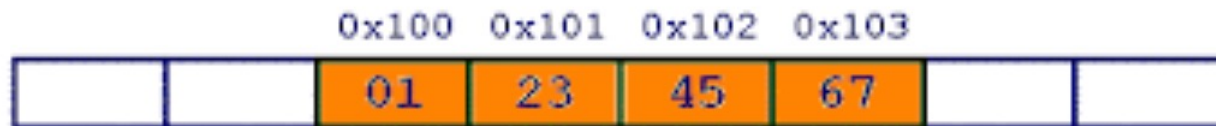
MSB

LSB

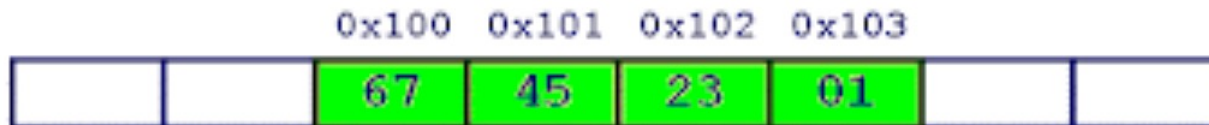
LSB in lower byte address

Big Endian vs. Little Endian

- `0x01234567`
- Memory addresses start at `0x100`



Big Endian



Little Endian

Big Endian vs. Little Endian

Big Endian

Little Endian

Does this really matter?

Answer: **No**, it is a convention

Qualified answer: **No**, except when one **big-endian system** and **one little-endian system** have to **share or exchange data**

MSB

LSB

MSB

LSB

(Most Significant Byte)

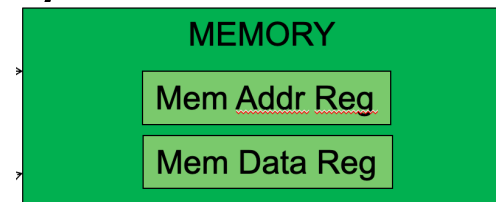
(Least Significant Byte)

LSB in higher byte address

LSB in lower byte address

Accessing Memory: MAR and MDR

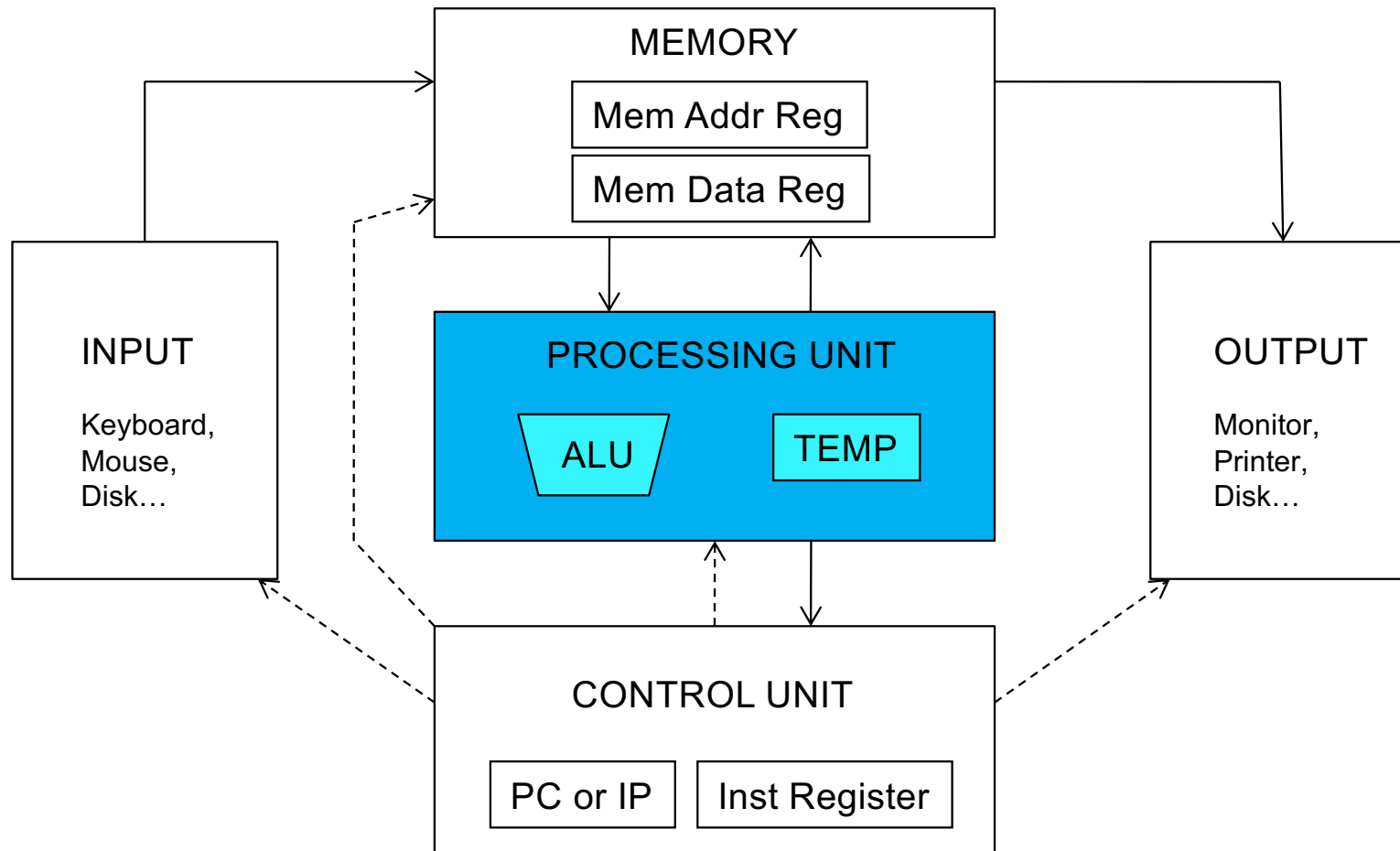
- There are two ways of **accessing memory**
 - **Reading** or **loading** data **from** a memory location
 - **Writing** or **storing** data **to** a memory location
- **Two registers** are usually used to access memory
 - Memory Address Register (**MAR**)
 - Memory Data Register (**MDR**)
- **To read**
 - Step 1: Load the **MAR with the address** we wish to read from
 - Step 2: **Data in the corresponding location** gets placed **in MDR**
- **To write**
 - Step 1: Load the **MAR with the address** and the **MDR with the data** we wish to write
 - Step 2: Activate **Write Enable** signal → value in MDR is written to address specified by MAR



Learn to Distinguish Address from Data



The Von Neumann Model



Processing Unit

- Performs the actual computation(s)
- The processing unit can consist of many **functional units**
- We start with a simple **Arithmetic and Logic Unit (ALU)**, which executes computation and logic operations
 - **ARM**: ADD, AND, NOT, SUB
 - **MIPS**: add, sub, mult, and, nor, sll, slr, slt...
- The ALU processes quantities that are referred to as **words**
 - **Word length** in ARM**v4** is 32 bits (**v8** is 64 bits)
 - Word length in MIPS is 32 bits
 - Word length in QuAC is 16 bits

Recall: Arithmetic & Logic Unit (ALU)

- Combines a variety of arithmetic and logical operations into a single unit (that performs only one function at a time)
- Usually denoted with this symbol:

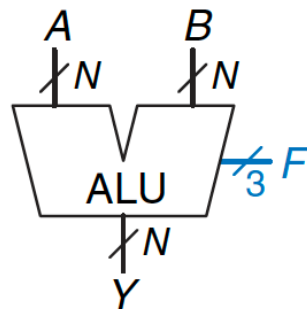


Figure 5.14 ALU symbol

Table 5.1 ALU operations

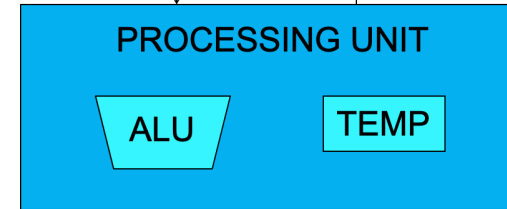
$F_{2:0}$	Function
000	A AND B
001	A OR B
010	A + B
011	not used
100	A AND \bar{B}
101	A OR \bar{B}
110	A - B
111	SLT

Processing Unit: Fast Temporary Storage

- It is almost always the case that a computer provides a small amount of storage very close to ALU
 - Purpose: to store temporary values and quickly access them later
- E.g., to calculate $((A+B)*C)/D$, the intermediate result of $A+B$ can be stored in temporary storage
 - Why? It is too slow to store each ALU result in memory & then retrieve it again for future use
 - A memory access is much slower than an addition, multiplication or division
 - Ditto for the intermediate result of $((A+B)*C)$
- This temporary storage is usually a set of registers
 - Called Register File

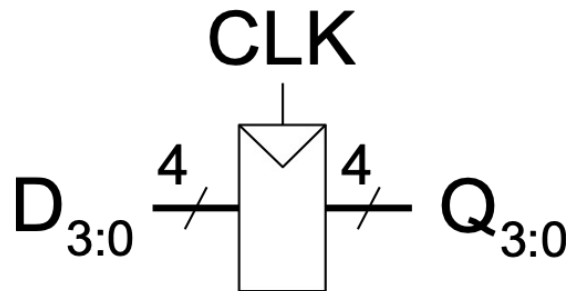
Registers: Fast Temporary Storage

- **Memory** is large but slow
- **Registers** in the Processing Unit
 - Ensure fast access to values to be processed in the ALU
 - Typically one register contains **one word (same as word length)**
- **Register Set or Register File**
 - **Set of registers that can be manipulated by instructions**
 - ARM has **16 general purpose registers (GPRs)**
 - **R0 to R15**: 4-bit register number
 - Register size = Word length = 32 bits
 - MIPS has **32 general purpose registers**
 - **More elaborate naming scheme**: 5-bit register number (or Register ID)
 - Register size = Word length = 32 bits
 - QuAC has **8 general purpose registers (one undefined)**



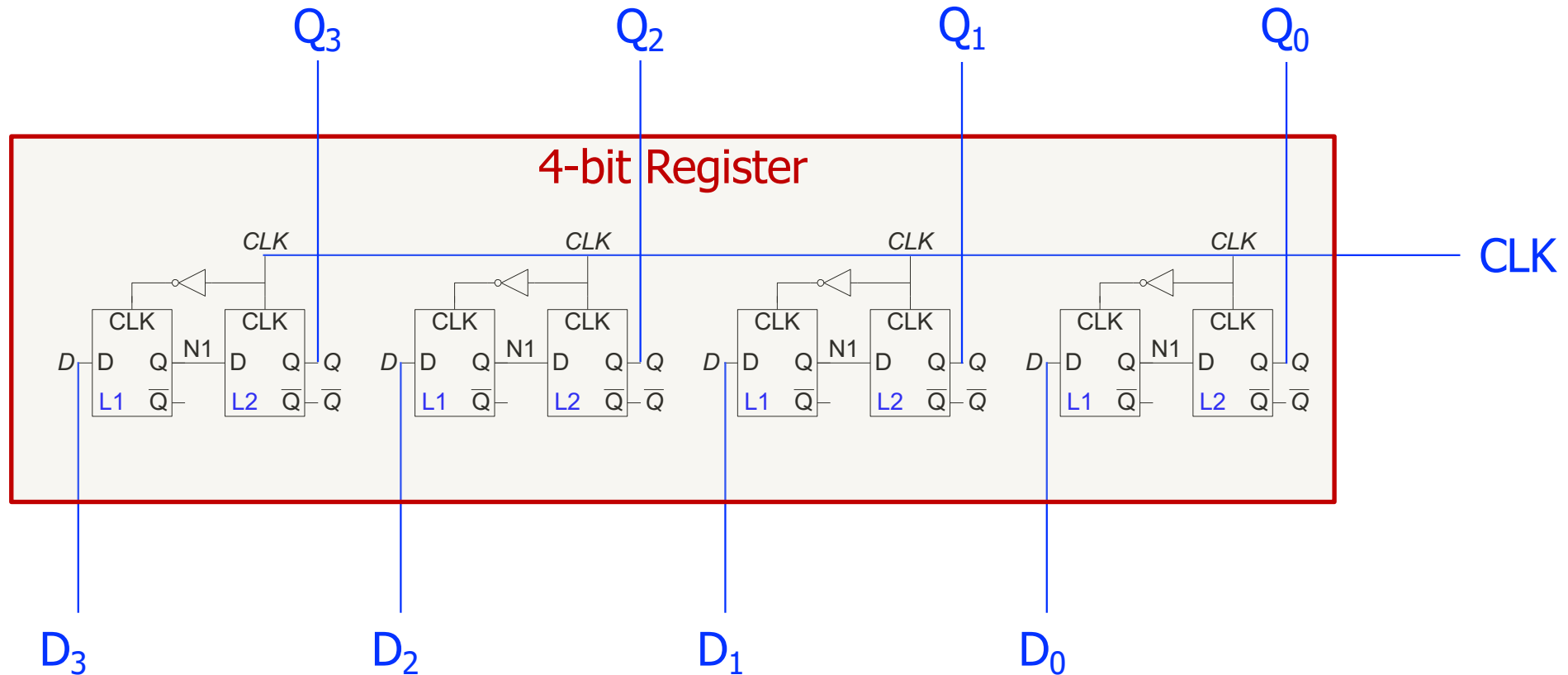
Recall: Register

- How can we use flipflops to store more than one bit?
 - Principle of **modularity**: Use more flipflops!
 - A single **CLK** to simultaneously write to all flipflops



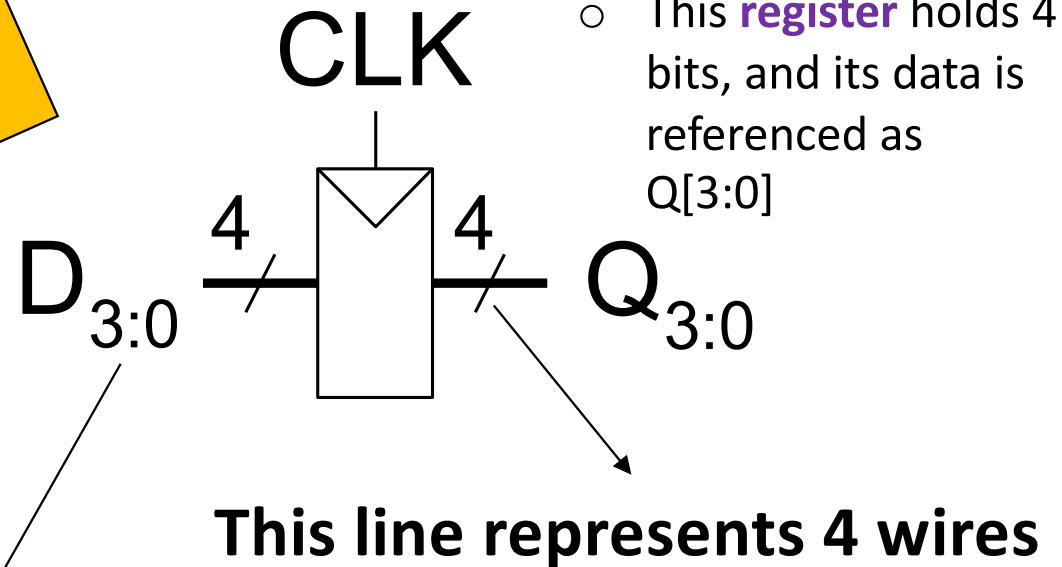
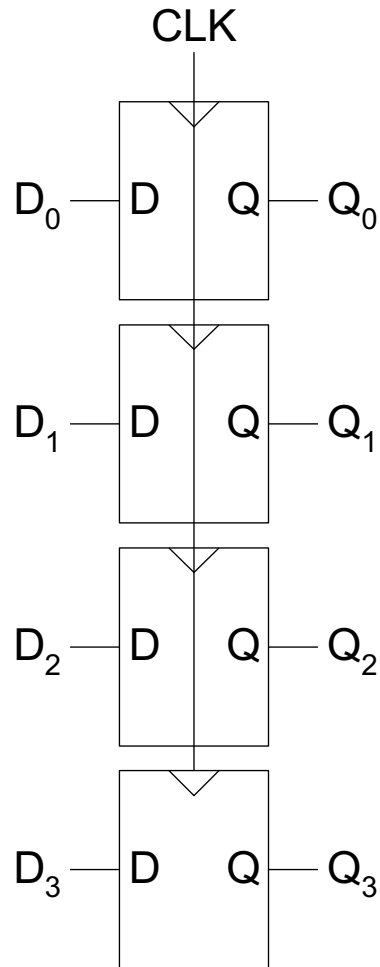
- **Register**: A structure that stores more than **one bit** of information and can be **read from** and **written to**
- This **register** holds **4 bits**, and its data is referenced as **Q[3:0]**

Recall: 4-bit Register



To build an **N-bit** register, use a bank of **N** flipflops with a shared **CLK**

Recall: 4-bit Register

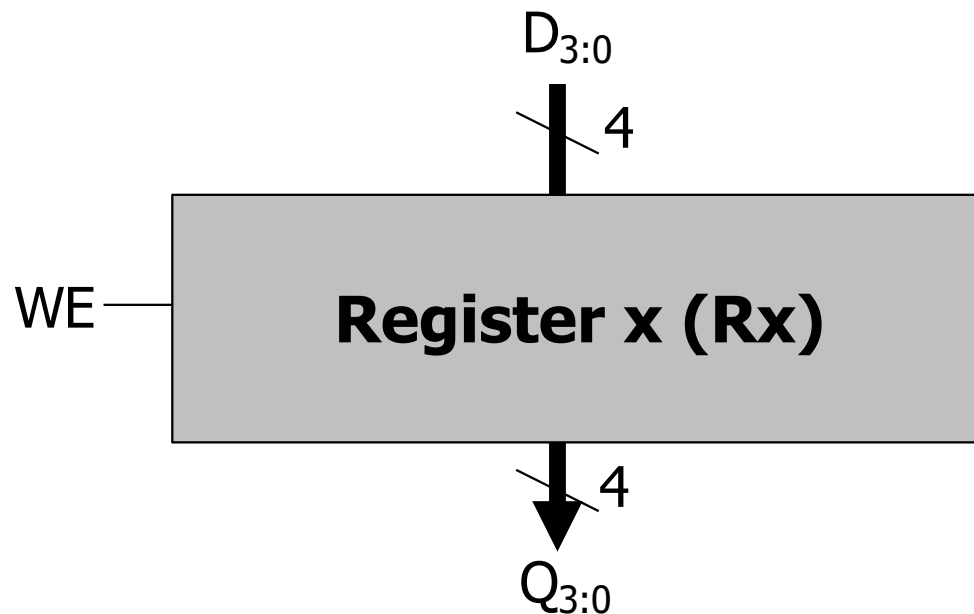


This register stores 4 bits

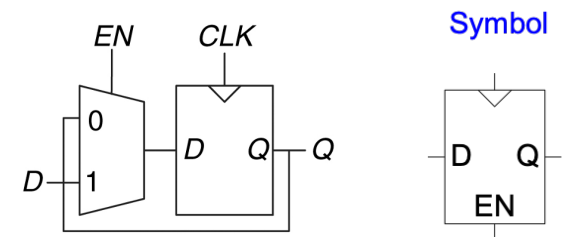
- Here we have a **register**, or a structure that stores more than one bit and can be read from and written to
- This **register** holds 4 bits, and its data is referenced as $Q[3:0]$

More Realistic Register

- A single WE signal for all flip-flops for simultaneous writes



Enabled Flip-Flop



How Registers are Addressed?

- Each ISA gives a set of general-purpose registers with special names
- So, an assembly programmer can use convenient names
- How they are translated into binary addresses is up to the implementation
- Let's see

MIPS Register File

Name	Register Number	Usage
\$0	0	the constant value 0
\$at	1	assembler temporary
\$v0-\$v1	2-3	function return value
\$a0-\$a3	4-7	function arguments
\$t0-\$t7	8-15	temporary variables
\$s0-\$s7	16-23	saved variables
\$t8-\$t9	24-25	temporary variables
\$k0-\$k1	26-27	OS temporaries
\$gp	28	global pointer
\$sp	29	stack pointer
\$fp	30	frame pointer
\$ra	31	function return address

ARM Register File

Table 6.1 ARM register set

Name	Use
R0	Argument / return value / temporary variable
R1–R3	Argument / temporary variables
R4–R11	Saved variables
R12	Temporary variable
R13 (SP)	Stack Pointer
R14 (LR)	Link Register
R15 (PC)	Program Counter

LC-3 Register File (with Contents)

Register 0	(R0)	0000000000000001
Register 1	(R1)	0000000000000011
Register 2	(R2)	0000000000000101
Register 3	(R3)	0000000000000111
Register 4	(R4)	1111111111111110
Register 5	(R5)	1111111111111100
Register 6	(R6)	1111111111111010
Register 7	(R7)	1111111111111000

QuAC Register File

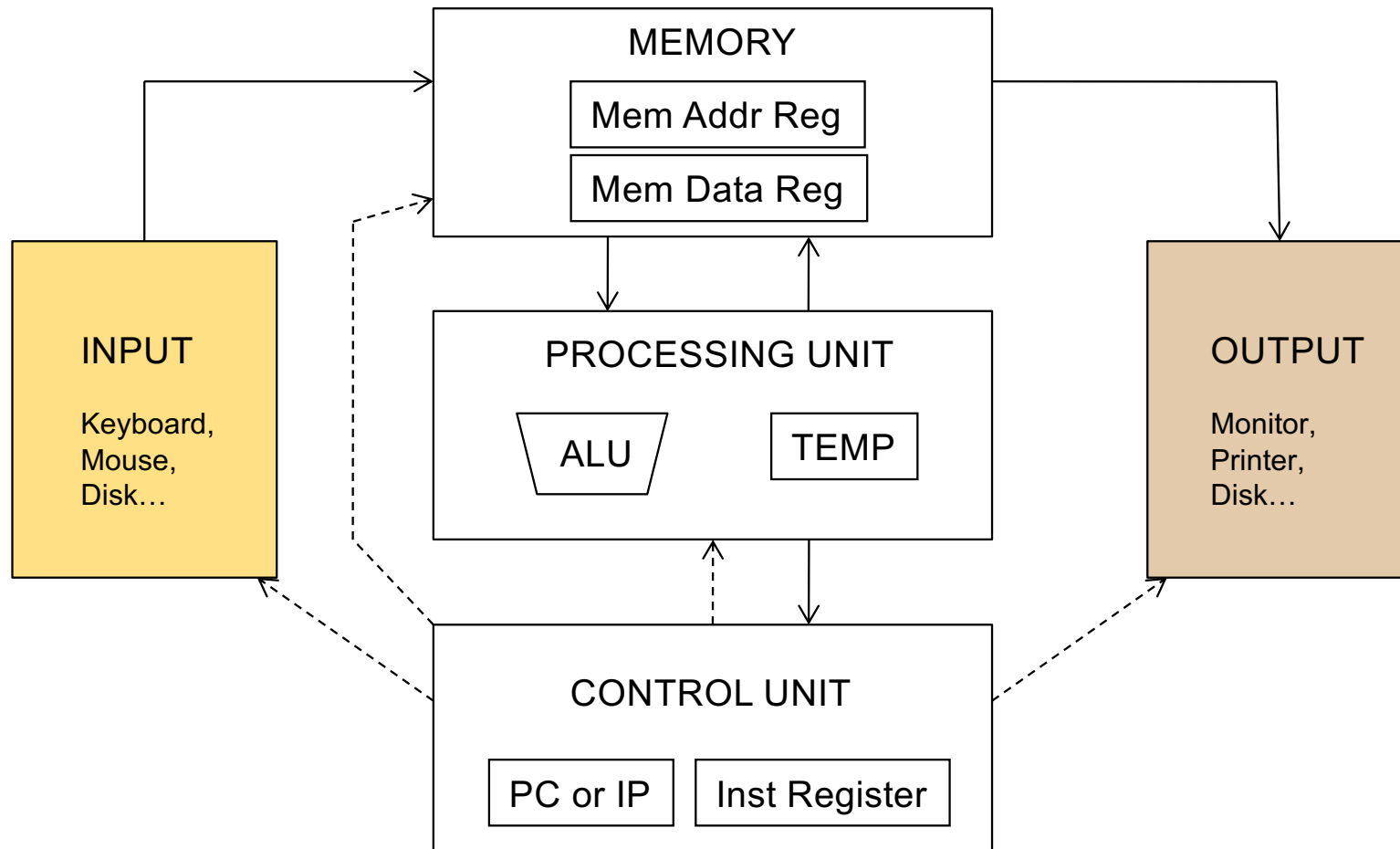
Registers

All registers start initialised to `0x0000`, and are 16-bits wide.

Code	Mnemonic	Meaning	Behaviour
000	<code>rz</code>	Zero Register	Always reads as zero, even after being written to.
001	<code>r1</code>	Register 1	General purpose register.
010	<code>r2</code>	Register 2	General purpose register.
011	<code>r3</code>	Register 3	General purpose register.
100	<code>r4</code>	Register 4	General purpose register.
101	<code>f1</code>	Flag register	See Flags .
110	-	Undefined	Any operation with this register is undefined.
111	<code>pc</code>	Program Counter	See Program Counter .

- `rz`, `f1`, and `pc` may also be described as `r0`, `r5`, and `r7` respectively.
- An instruction is allowed to write to `rz`, however the next time an instruction reads `rz` it will still read as `0`.
- `r1`, `r2`, `r3`, and `r4` are the general purpose registers. You may write to them, and they will store that value. Reading from a general purpose register returns the last value written to them.

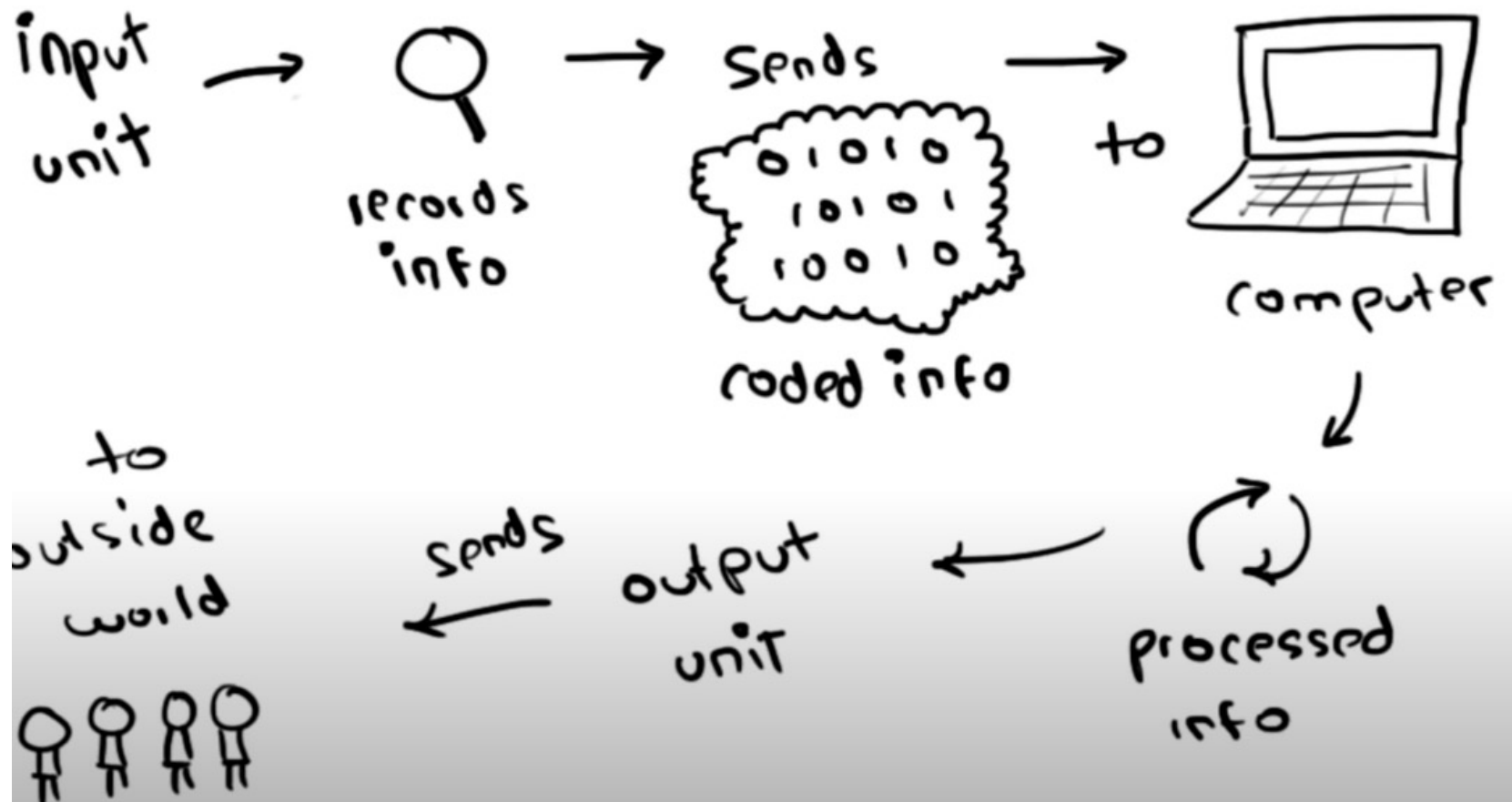
The Von Neumann Model



Input and Output

- Enable information to get into and out of a computer
- Many devices can be used for input and output
- They are called **peripherals**
 - **Input**
 - **Keyboard**
 - Mouse
 - Scanner
 - Disks
 - Etc.
 - **Output**
 - **Monitor**
 - Printer
 - Disks
 - Etc.

Input and Output



Keyboard and Monitor

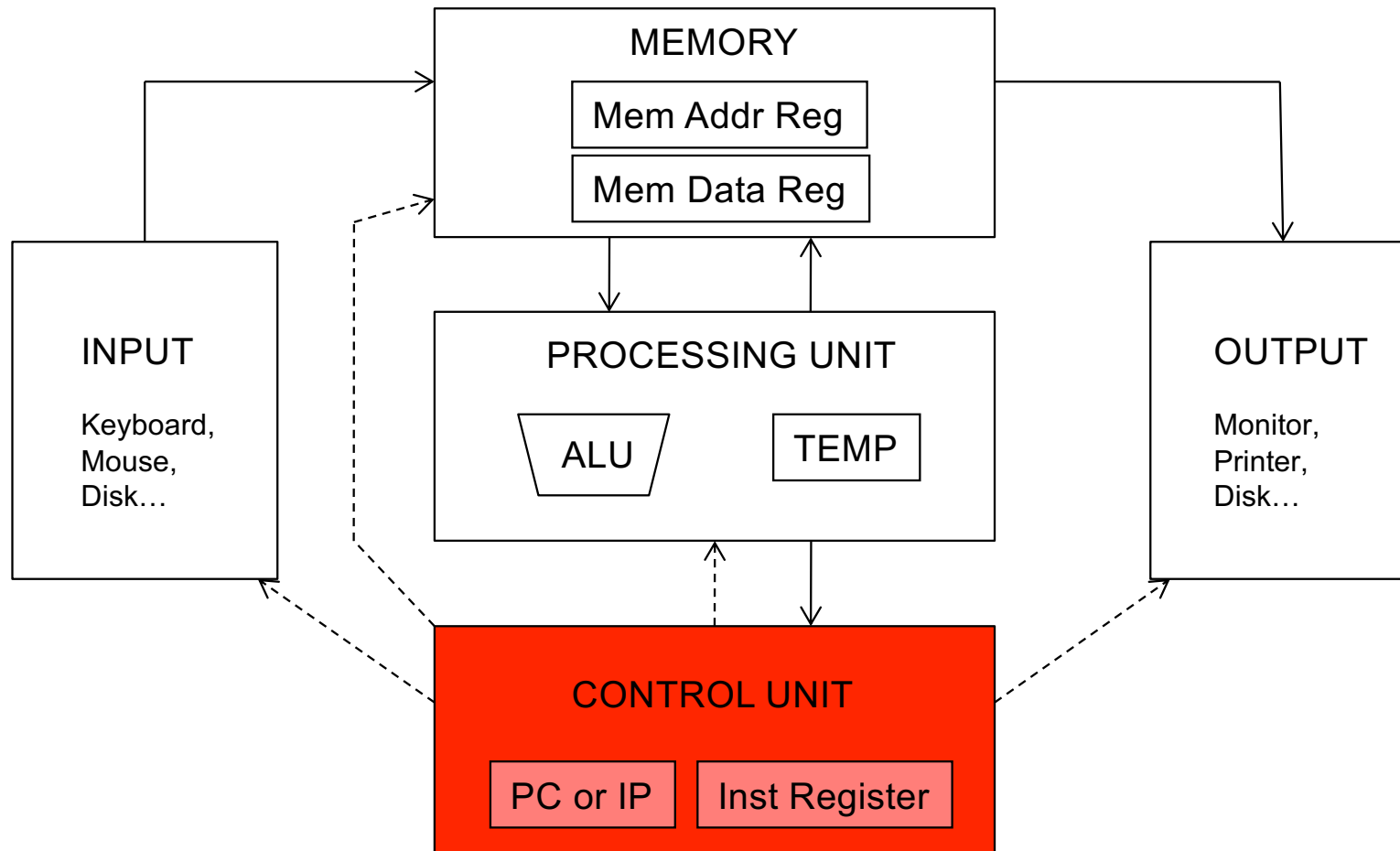
- The simplest **keyboard** has two registers
 - Keyboard data register (**KBDR**) for holding the ASCII code of keys struck
 - Keyboard status register (**KBSR**) for maintaining status information about the keys struck
- The simplest **monitor** has two registers
 - Display data register (**DDR**) for holding the ASCII code of something to be displayed on the screen
 - Display status register (**DSR**) for maintaining associated status information

ASCII Encoding

- ASCII stands for **American Standard Code for Information Interchange**
- It ranges from **0 to 255** in **Decimal** or **00 to FF** in **Hexadecimal**
- All characters on an English keyboard can be represented using 8-bit codes

Dec	Hex	Name	Char	Ctrl-char	Dec	Hex	Char	Dec	Hex	Char	Dec	Hex	Char
0	0	Null	NUL	CTRL-@	32	20	Space	64	40	@	96	60	`
1	1	Start of heading	SOH	CTRL-A	33	21	!	65	41	A	97	61	a
2	2	Start of text	STX	CTRL-B	34	22	"	66	42	B	98	62	b
3	3	End of text	ETX	CTRL-C	35	23	#	67	43	C	99	63	c
4	4	End of xmit	EOT	CTRL-D	36	24	\$	68	44	D	100	64	d
5	5	Enquiry	ENQ	CTRL-E	37	25	%	69	45	E	101	65	e
6	6	Acknowledge	ACK	CTRL-F	38	26	&	70	46	F	102	66	f
7	7	Bell	BEL	CTRL-G	39	27	'	71	47	G	103	67	g
8	8	Backspace	BS	CTRL-H	40	28	(72	48	H	104	68	h
9	9	Horizontal tab	HT	CTRL-I	41	29)	73	49	I	105	69	i
10	0A	Line feed	LF	CTRL-J	42	2A	*	74	4A	J	106	6A	j
11	0B	Vertical tab	VT	CTRL-K	43	2B	+	75	4B	K	107	6B	k
12	0C	Form feed	FF	CTRL-L	44	2C	,	76	4C	L	108	6C	l
13	0D	Carriage feed	CR	CTRL-M	45	2D	-	77	4D	M	109	6D	m
14	0E	Shift out	SO	CTRL-N	46	2E	.	78	4E	N	110	6E	n
15	0F	Shift in	SI	CTRL-O	47	2F	/	79	4F	O	111	6F	o
16	10	Data line escape	DLE	CTRL-P	48	30	0	80	50	P	112	70	p
17	11	Device control 1	DC1	CTRL-Q	49	31	1	81	51	Q	113	71	q
18	12	Device control 2	DC2	CTRL-R	50	32	2	82	52	R	114	72	r
19	13	Device control 3	DC3	CTRL-S	51	33	3	83	53	S	115	73	s
20	14	Device control 4	DC4	CTRL-T	52	34	4	84	54	T	116	74	t
21	15	Neg acknowledge	NAK	CTRL-U	53	35	5	85	55	U	117	75	u
22	16	Synchronous idle	SYN	CTRL-V	54	36	6	86	56	V	118	76	v
23	17	End of xmit block	ETB	CTRL-W	55	37	7	87	57	W	119	77	w
24	18	Cancel	CAN	CTRL-X	56	38	8	88	58	X	120	78	x
25	19	End of medium	EM	CTRL-Y	57	39	9	89	59	Y	121	79	y
26	1A	Substitute	SUB	CTRL-Z	58	3A	:	90	5A	Z	122	7A	z
27	1B	Escape	ESC	CTRL-[59	3B	;	91	5B	[123	7B	{
28	1C	File separator	FS	CTRL-\	60	3C	<	92	5C	\	124	7C	
29	1D	Group separator	GS	CTRL-]	61	3D	=	93	5D]	125	7D	}
30	1E	Record separator	RS	CTRL-^	62	3E	>	94	5E	^	126	7E	~
31	1F	Unit separator	US	CTRL-`	63	3F	?	95	5F	`	127	7F	DEL

The Von Neumann Model

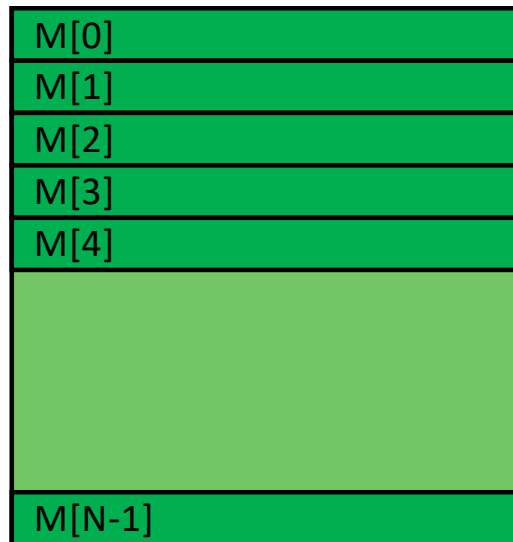


Control Unit

- The control unit is like the conductor of an orchestra
- It conducts the **step-by-step process of executing (every instruction in) a program**
- It keeps track of which instruction being processed, via
 - **Instruction Register** (IR), which contains the instruction
- It also keeps track of which instruction to process next, via
 - **Program Counter** (PC) or **Instruction Pointer** (IP), another register that contains the address of the (next) instruction to process



Programmer Visible (**Architectural**) State



Memory

array of storage locations
indexed by an address



Registers

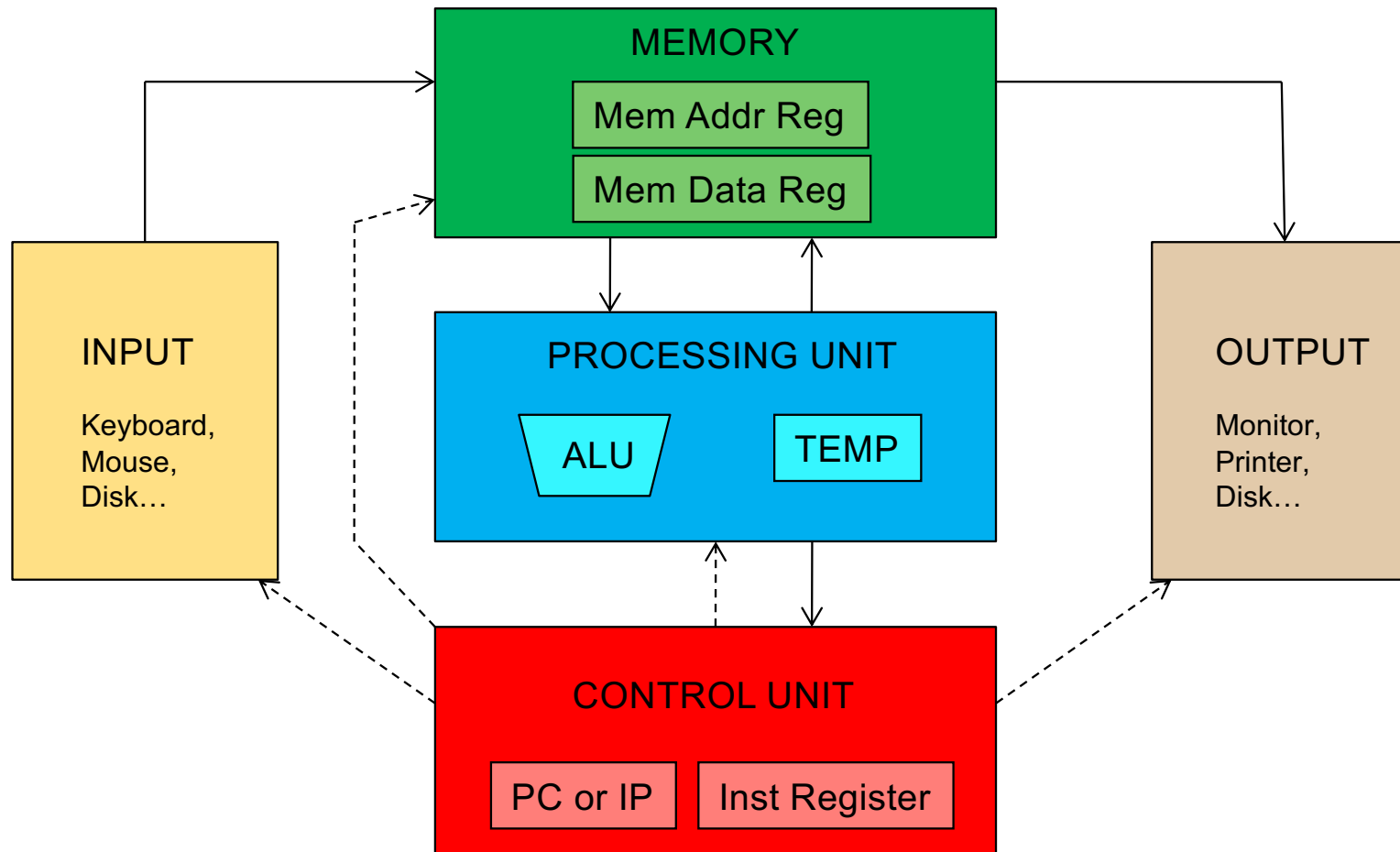
- given special names in the ISA
(as opposed to addresses)
- general vs. special purpose

Program Counter

memory address
of the current (or next) instruction

Instructions (and programs) specify how to transform
the values of programmer visible state

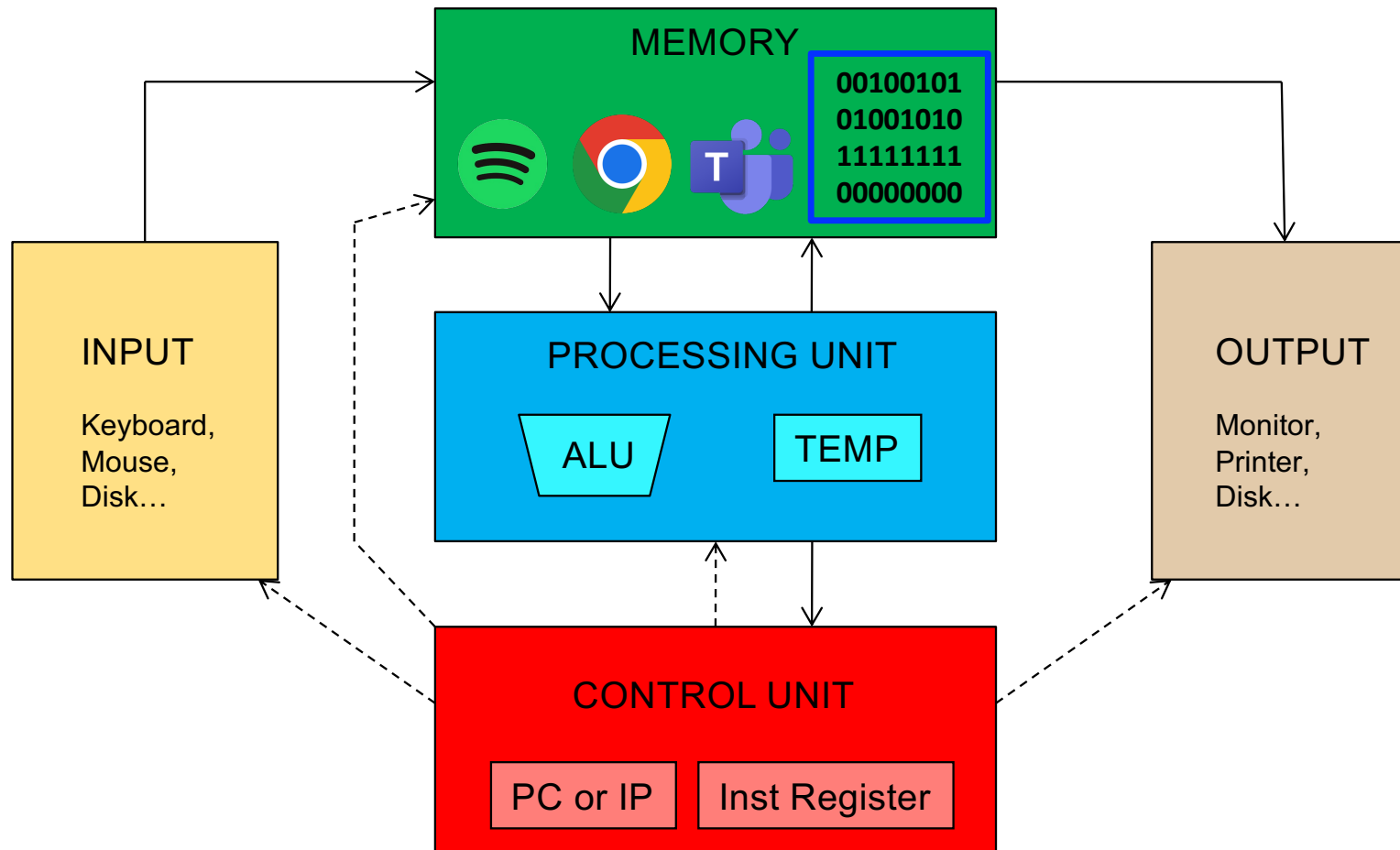
The Von Neumann Model



Von Neumann Model: Two Key Properties

- Von Neumann model is also called *stored program computer* (*instructions in memory*). It has two key properties:
- **Stored program**
 - Instructions stored in a linear memory array
 - **Memory is unified** between instructions and data
 - **The interpretation of a stored value depends on the control signals**
- **Sequential instruction processing**
 - One instruction processed (fetched, executed, completed) at a time
 - **Program counter (instruction pointer)** identifies the current instruction
 - **Program counter is advanced sequentially** except for control transfer instructions

The Von Neumann Model



Examples of

von Neumann Machines

LC-3: A von Neumann Machine

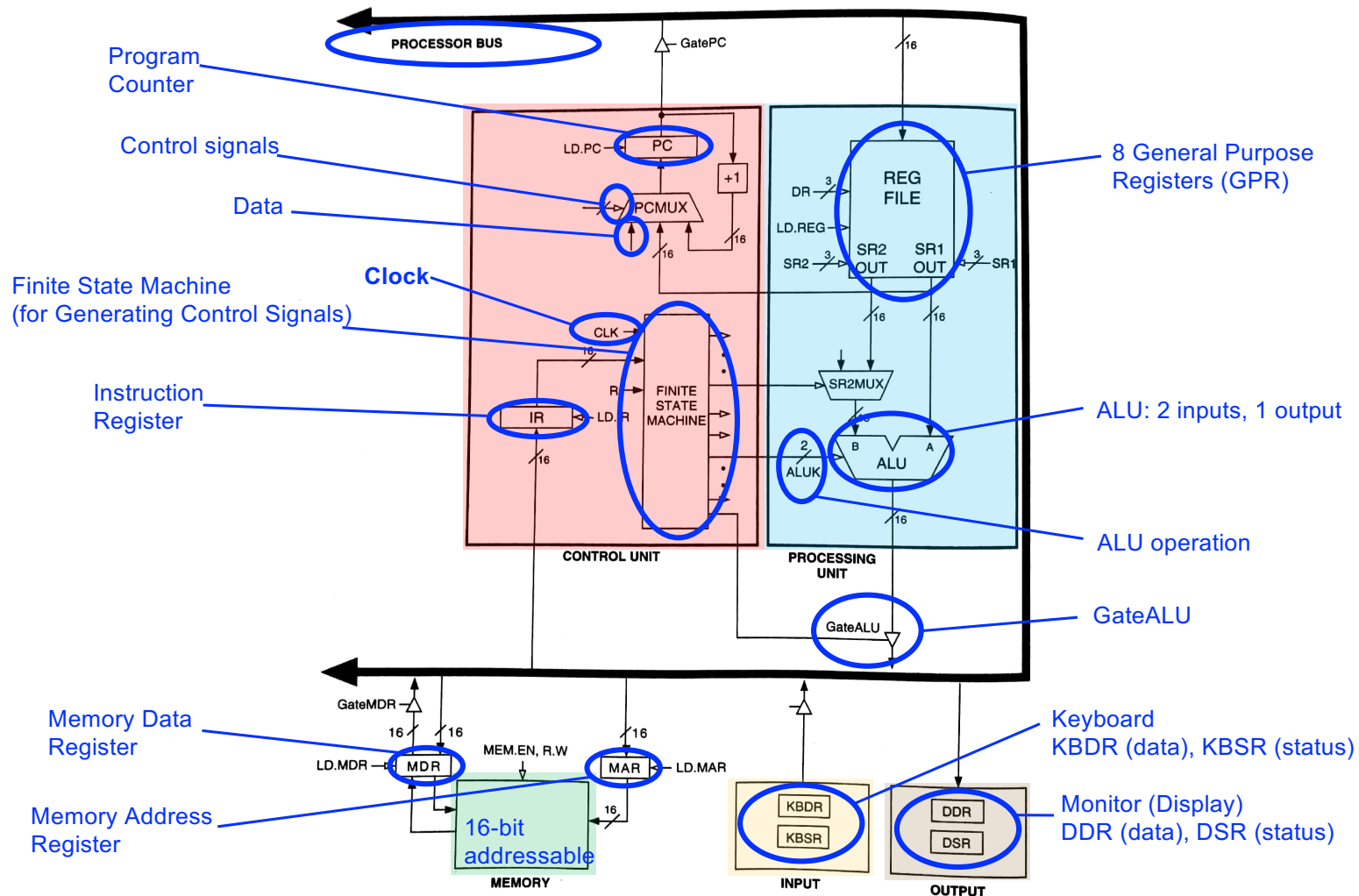
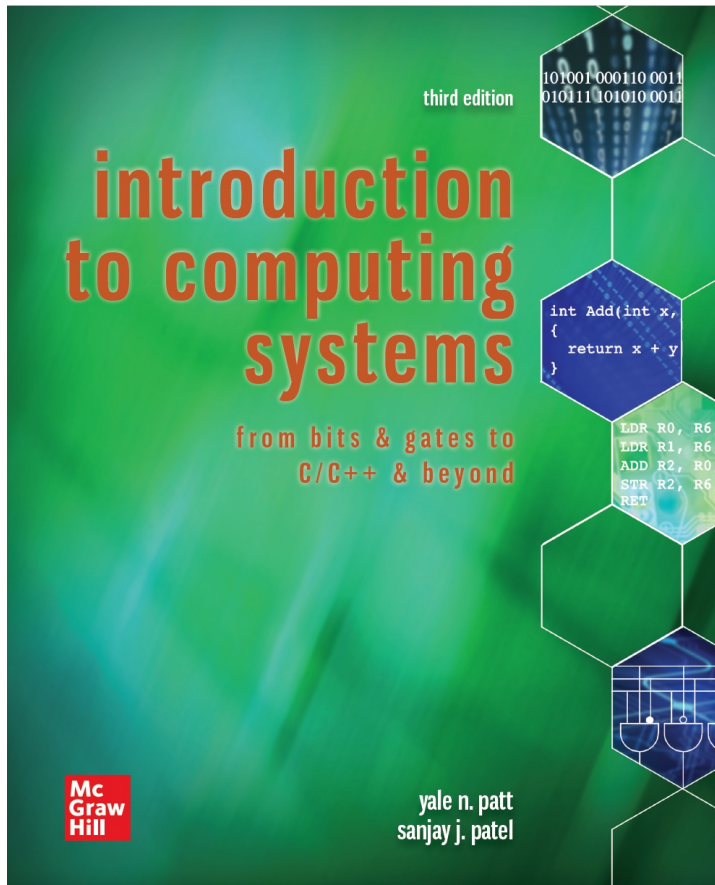
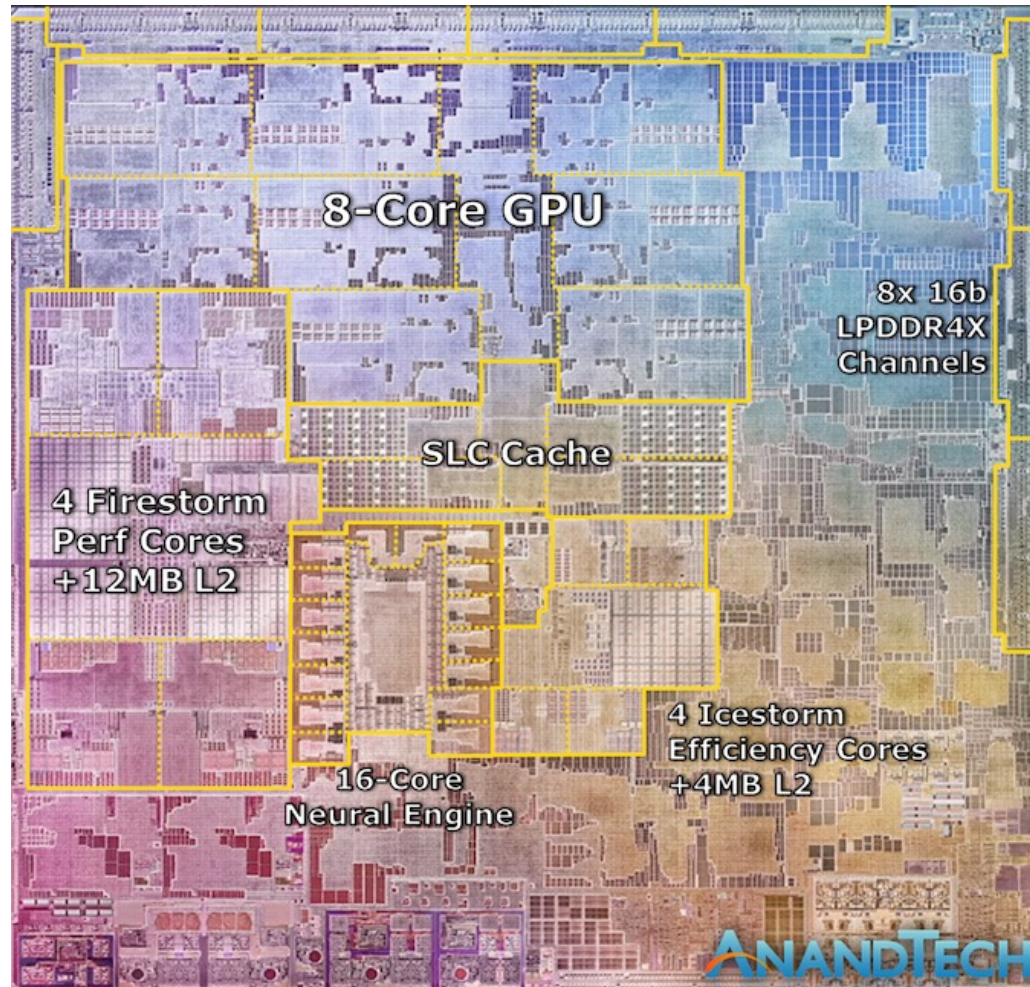


Figure 4.3 The LC-3 as an example of the von Neumann model

LC-3: A von Neumann Machine



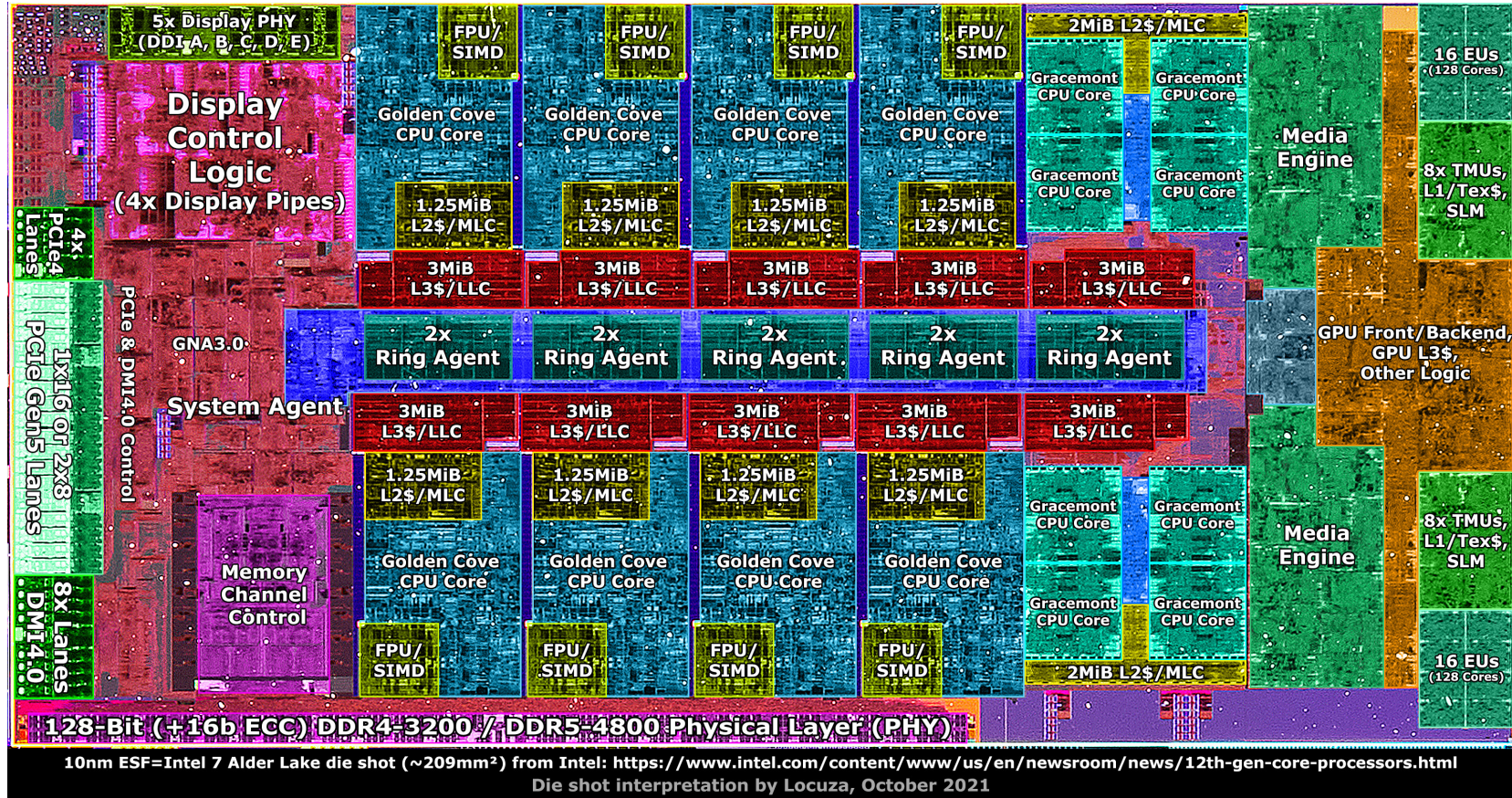
Another Von Neumann Machine



Apple M1,
2021

Source: <https://www.anandtech.com/show/16252/mac-mini-apple-m1-tested>

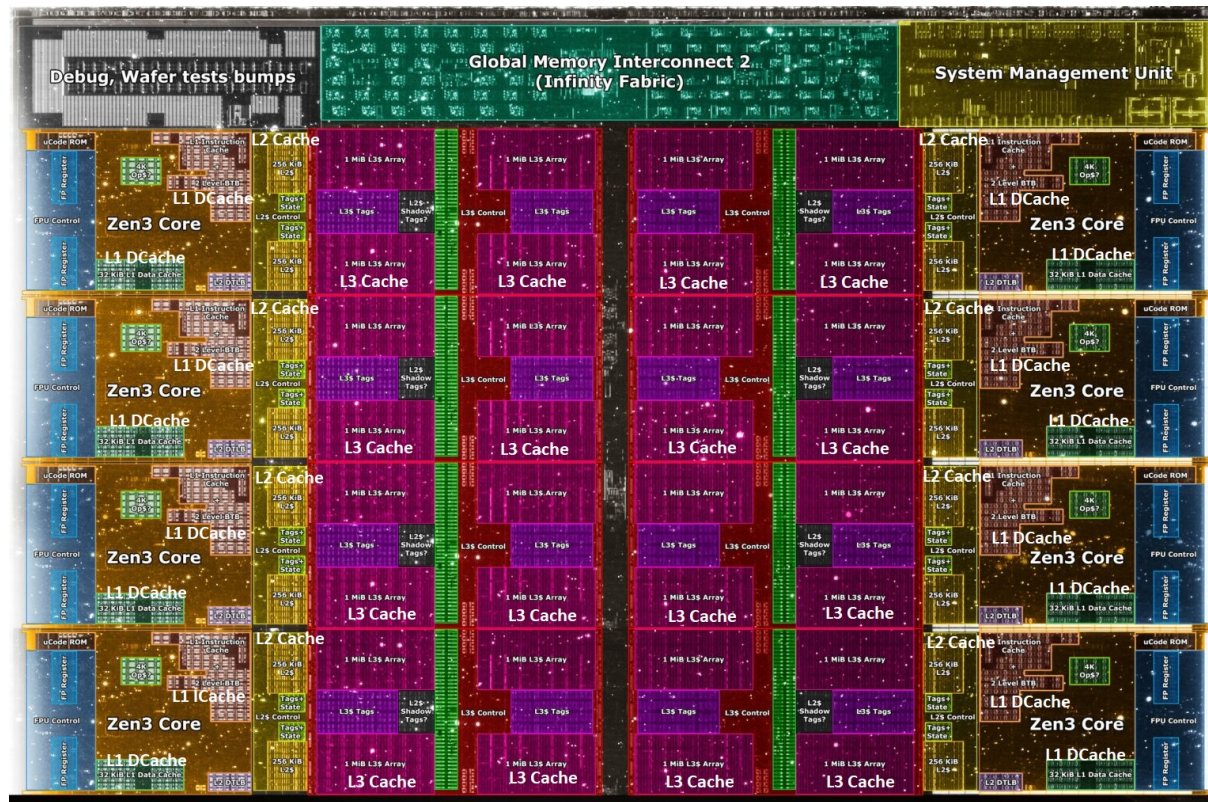
Another Von Neumann Machine



Intel Alder Lake,
2021

Source: https://twitter.com/Locuza_/status/1454152714930331652

Another Von Neumann Machine



Core Count:
8 cores/16 threads

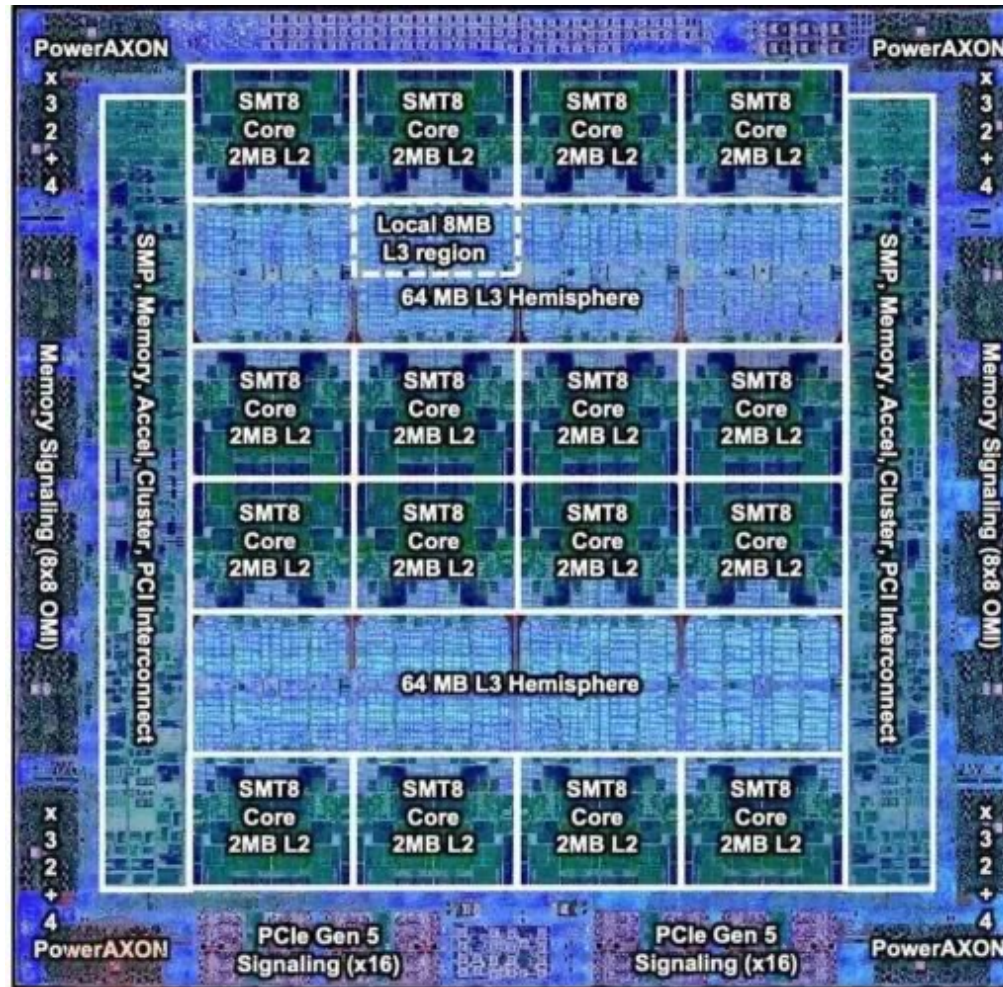
L1 Caches:
32 KB per core

L2 Caches:
512 KB per core

L3 Cache:
32 MB shared

AMD Ryzen 5000, 2020

Another Von Neumann Machine



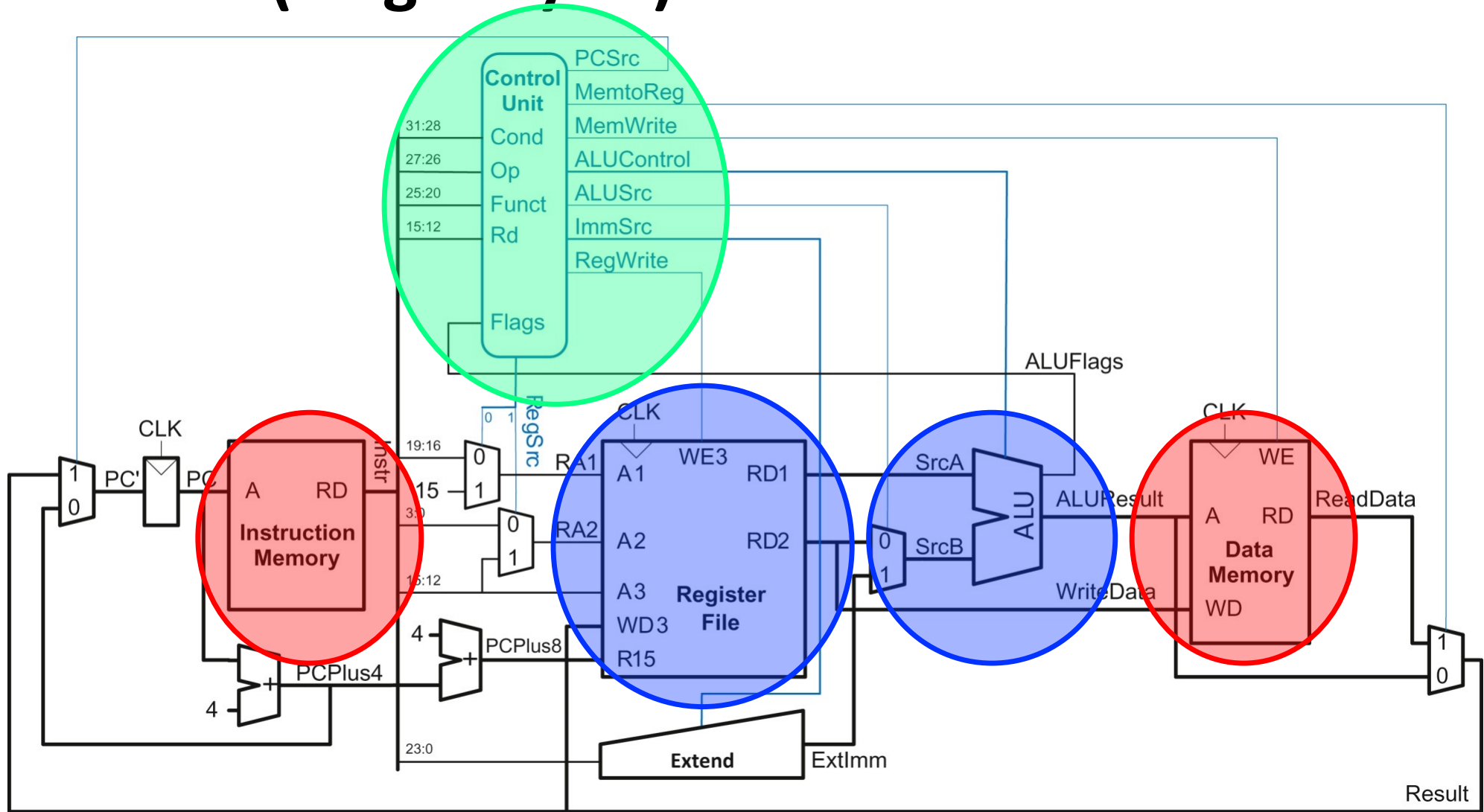
IBM POWER10,
2020

Cores:
15-16 cores,
8 threads/core

L2 Caches:
2 MB per core

L3 Cache:
120 MB shared

ARMv4 (Single-Cycle) 32-bit



ARMv4 (Multi-Cycle) 32-bit

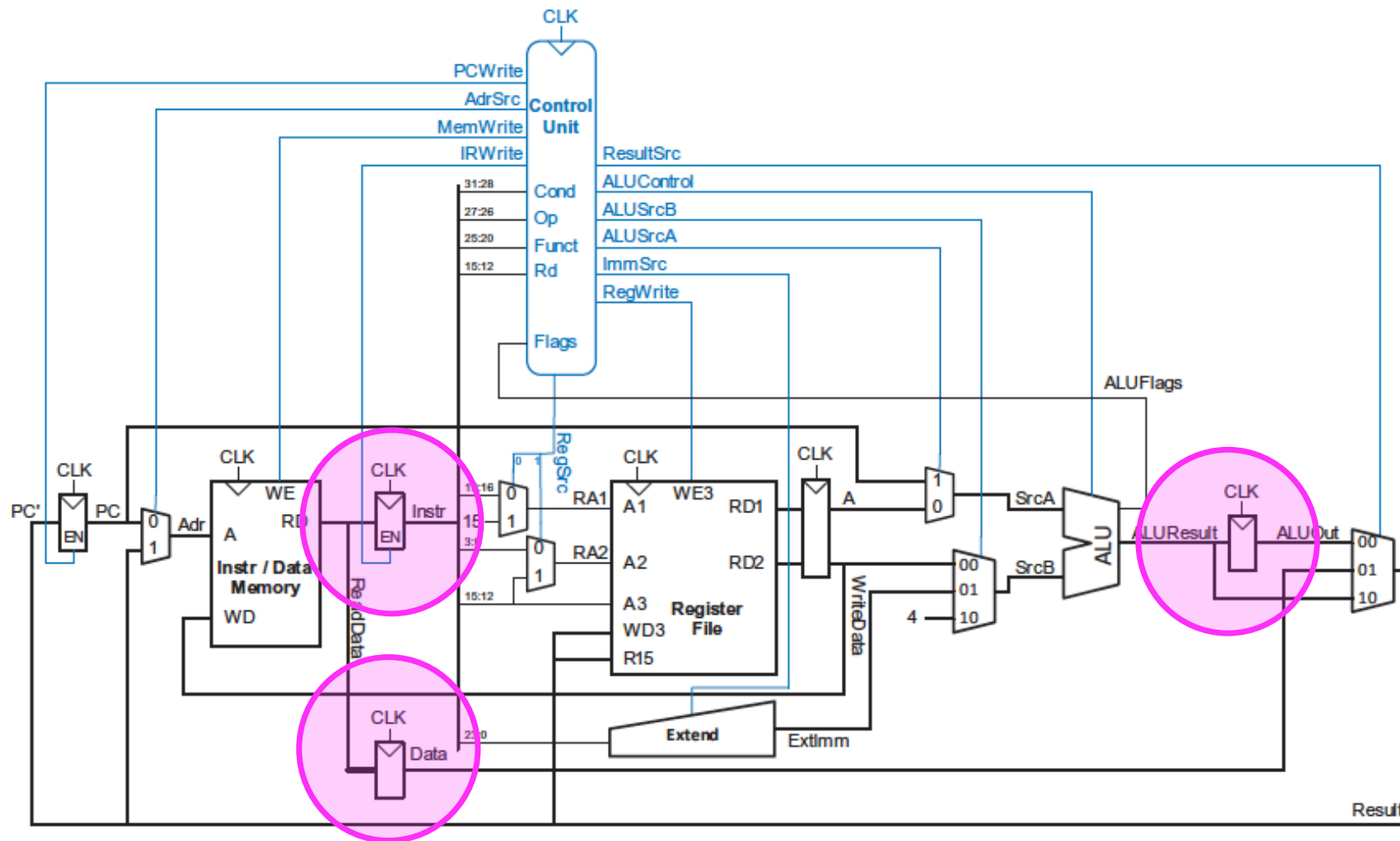
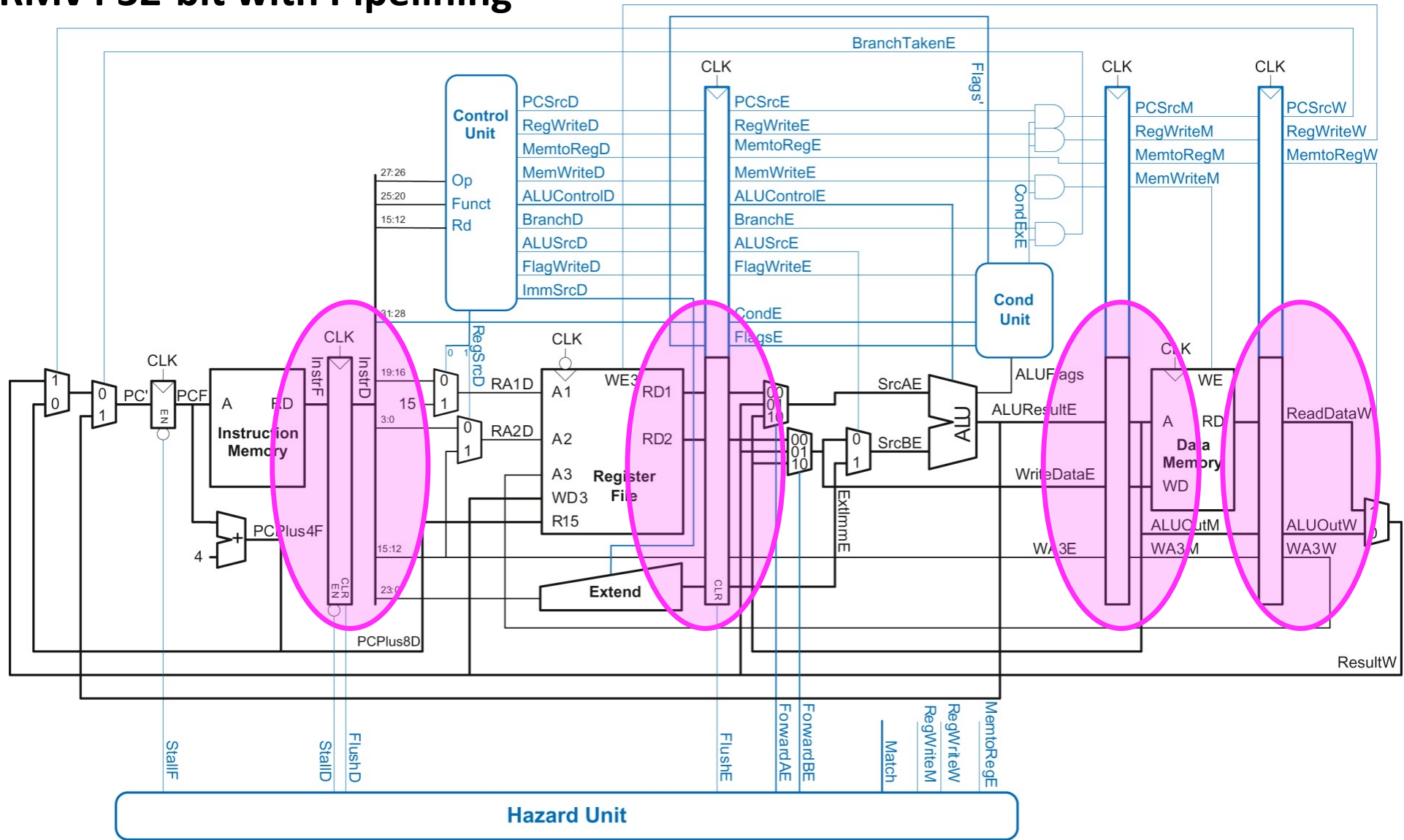
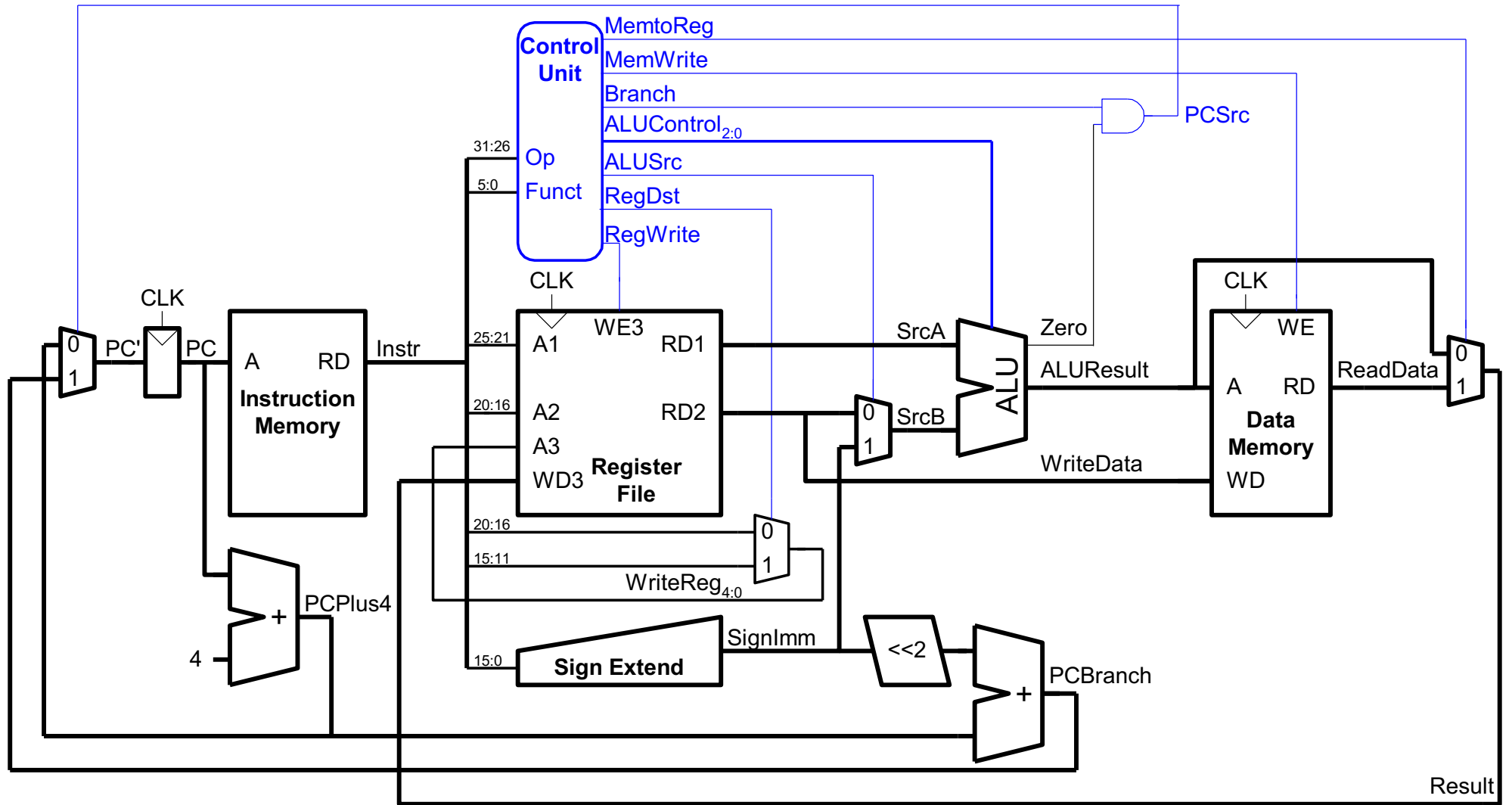


Figure 7.30 Complete multicycle processor

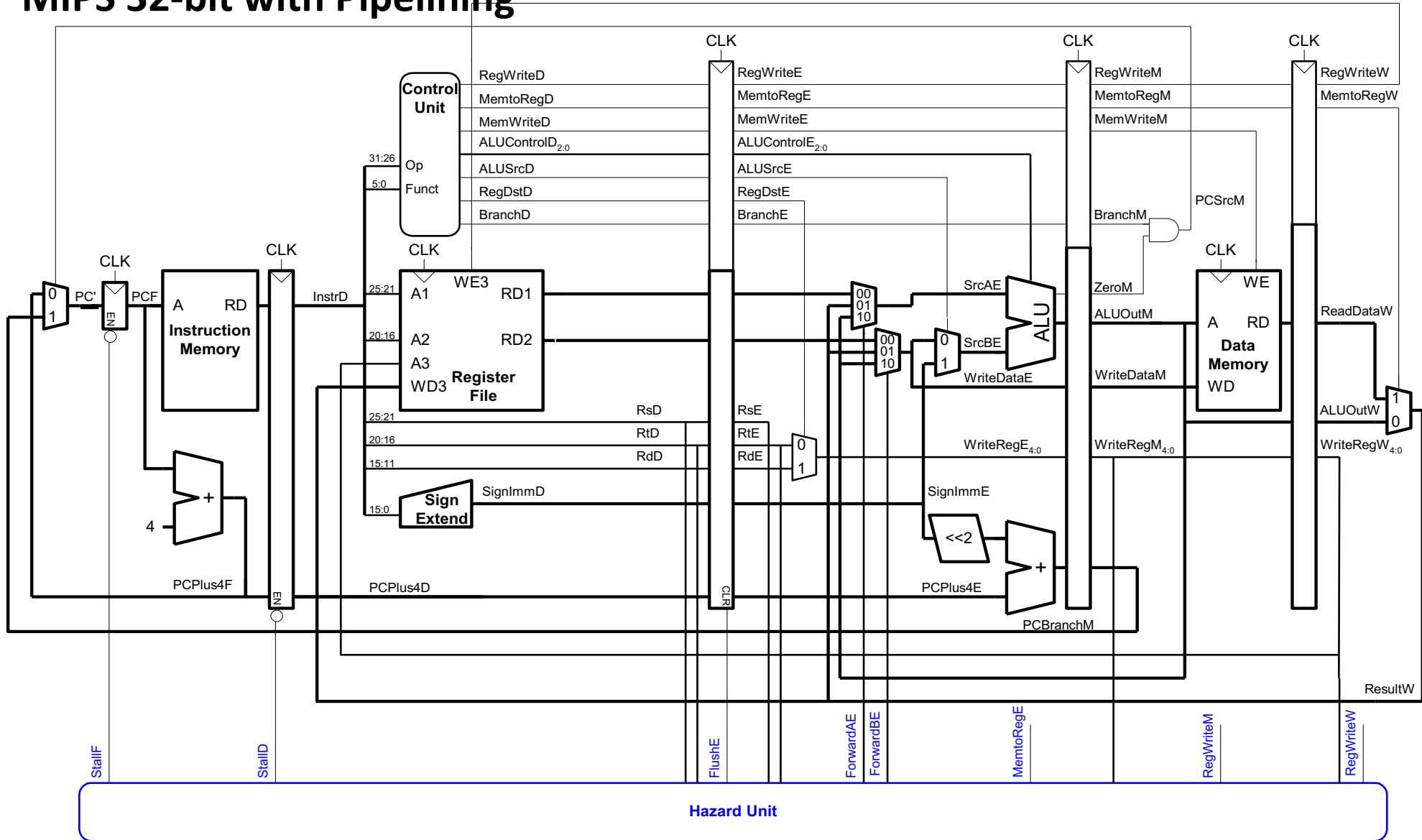
ARMv4 32-bit with Pipelining



MIPS (Single-Cycle) 32-bit



MIPS 32-bit with Pipelining



Key to Understanding Computers

- The key principles and fundamentals are the same
- Put your understanding of key principles to practice in labs
- **The exam/quiz is not structured to test your skills in memorizing slides!**

The Concept of Sequential Execution

Stored Program and Sequential Execution

- Instructions and data are **stored in memory**
 - Typically **the instruction length is the word length**
- The processor fetches instructions from memory **sequentially**
 - Fetches one instruction
 - Decodes and executes the instruction
 - Continues with the next instruction
- The address of the current instruction is stored in the **program counter (PC)**
 - If **word-addressable** memory, the processor **increments the PC by 1** (in QuAC)
 - If **byte-addressable** memory, the processor **increments the PC by the instruction length in bytes** (4 in MIPS and ARM)
 - **Assume the OS sets the PC to 0x00400000 (start of a program)**

A sample ARM program stored in memory

- A sample **ARM** program
 - 4 instructions stored in consecutive words in memory
 - No need to understand the program now. We will get back to it

ARM assembly code

```
MOV    R1,  #100
MOV    R2,  #69
CMP    R1,   R2
STRHS  R3,  [R1, #0x24]
```

Machine code (encoded instructions)

```
0xE3A01064
0xE3A02045
0xE1510002
0x25813024
```

Word Address	Instructions
⋮	⋮
0040000C	E 3 A 0 1 0 6 4
00400008	E 3 A 0 2 0 4 5
00400004	E 1 5 1 0 0 0 2
00400000	2 5 8 1 3 0 2 4 ← PC
⋮	⋮

A sample program: MIPS Example

- A sample MIPS program
 - 4 instructions stored in consecutive words in memory
 - No need to understand the program now. We will get back to it

MIPS assembly

```
lw    $t2, 32($0)
add   $s0, $s1, $s2
addi  $t0, $s3, -12
sub   $t0, $t3, $t5
```

Machine code (encoded instructions)

```
0x8C0A0020
0x02328020
0x2268FFF4
0x016D4022
```

Word Address	Instructions
⋮	⋮
0040000C	0 1 6 D 4 0 2 2
00400008	2 2 6 8 F F F 4
00400004	0 2 3 2 8 0 2 0
00400000	8 C 0 A 0 0 2 0 ← PC
⋮	⋮

The Instruction

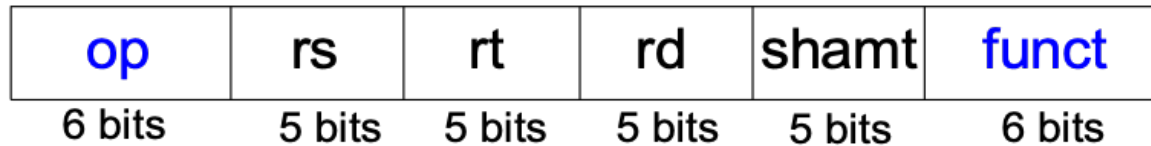
- An instruction is the **most basic unit of computer processing**
 - **Instructions** are words in the language of a computer
 - **Instruction Set Architecture** (ISA) is the vocabulary
- The language of the computer can be written as
 - **Machine language**: Computer-readable representation (that is, 0s and 1s)
 - **Assembly language**: Human-readable representation
- We will study **ARM (in detail in lectures)** and **QuAC (in tutorials and assignment 1)** and other ISAs for broader understanding
 - **Principles are similar** in all ISAs (x86, SPARC, RISC-V, ...)

The Instruction: Opcode & Operands

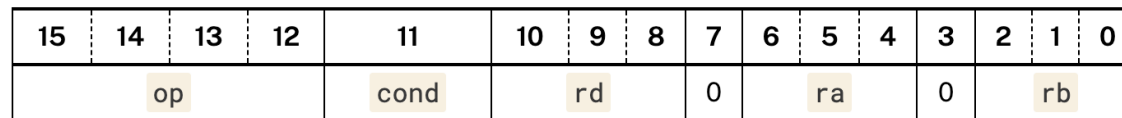
- An instruction is made up of two parts
 - **Opcode** and **Operands**
- **Opcode** specifies **what** the instruction does
- **Operands** specify **who** the instruction is to do it to
- Both are specified in **instruction format** (or **instruction encoding**)
 - A MIPS and ARM instructions consists of 32 bits (bits [31:0])
 - QuAC instructions consist of 16 bits (bits [15:0])

The Instruction: Examples

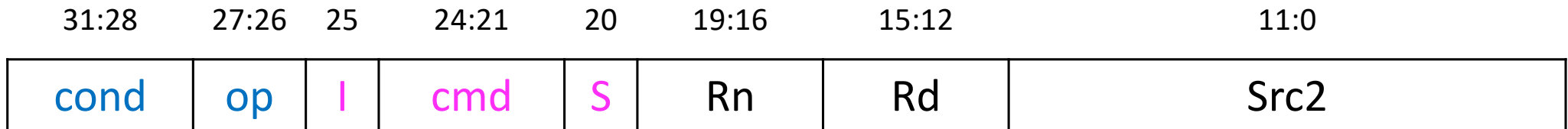
- **MIPS** example: Bits [31:26] specify the opcode → up to 64 distinct opcodes
 - Bits [25:11] are used to figure out where the **operands** are



- **QuAC** example: Bits [15:12] specify the opcode → up to 16 distinct opcodes
 - Bits [10:0] are used to figure out where the **operands** are



- **ARM** example: Bits [27:26] specify the opcode → up to 4 distinct opcodes
 - Bits [19:0] are used to figure out where the **operands** are



Instruction Types

- There are **three main types of instructions**
- **Operate (data processing) instructions**
 - Execute operations in the ALU
- **Data movement (memory) instructions**
 - Read from or write to memory
- **Control flow (branch/jump) instructions**
 - Change the sequence of execution (decision making)
- Let us start with some example instructions

An Example Operate Instruction

- Addition

High-level code

```
a = b + c;
```

QuAC Assembly

```
add a, b, c
```

- **add**: mnemonic to indicate the operation to perform
- **b, c**: source operands
- **a**: destination operand
- $a \leftarrow b + c$

Registers

- We map variables to registers

Assembly

```
add a, b, c
```

ARM registers

```
b = R1  
c = R2  
a = R0
```

Registers

All registers start initialised to `0x0000`, and are 16-bits wide.

Code	Mnemonic	Meaning	Behaviour
000	<code>rz</code>	Zero Register	Always reads as zero, even after being written to.
001	<code>r1</code>	Register 1	General purpose register.
010	<code>r2</code>	Register 2	General purpose register.
011	<code>r3</code>	Register 3	General purpose register.
100	<code>r4</code>	Register 4	General purpose register.
101	<code>f1</code>	Flag register	See Flags .
110	-	Undefined	Any operation with this register is undefined.
111	<code>pc</code>	Program Counter	See Program Counter .

- `rz`, `f1`, and `pc` may also be described as `r0`, `r5`, and `r7` respectively.
- An instruction is allowed to write to `rz`, however the next time an instruction reads `rz` it will still read as `0`.
- `r1`, `r2`, `r3`, and `r4` are the general purpose registers. You may write to them, and they will store that value. Reading from a general purpose register returns the last value written to them.

QuAC registers

```
b = r1  
c = r2  
a = r0
```

MIPS registers

```
b = $s1  
c = $s2  
a = $s0
```

From Assembly to QuAC Machine Code

- Addition

QuAC assembly

```
add r0, r1, r2
```

- Instruction Fields

15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
op 8			cond 0		rd 0		0	ra 1		0	rb 2				

- Machine code (Instruction Encoding)

15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0			
1	0	op	0	0	cond	0	rd	0	0	0	ra	0	1	0	rb	0	1	0

- Machine code in short (hexadecimal)

- 0x8012

QuAC Opcodes

QuAC ISA v1.0 | Computer Org | common/ds.h - master - Shoail |

comp.anu.edu.au/courses/comp2300/resources/08-QuAC-ISA/

On this page

- Memory
- Arithmetic
- Registers
- Instruction Encoding
 - Register Operands
 - Format (R-Format)
 - Immediate Format (I-Format)
- Definitions
 - All Formats
 - R-Format only
 - I-Format Only
- Hardware Instructions
- Program counter
- Flags
- Conditions
- Pseudo-Instructions

Hardware Instructions

The following table lists all instructions a hardware implementor of QuAC must handle. The section [Pseudo-Instructions](#) lists several more instructions, but the machine code of each additional instruction matches one of the (possibly more general) instructions here. By implementing these, you gain the full pseudo-instruction support 'for free'.

Every instruction in QuAC can have a condition suffix appended to it. See [Conditions](#) for details. The suffix is used to determine the `cond` bit used in the machine code column.

Syntax	Semantic	Machine Code
I-Format Instructions		
<code>movl rd, imm8</code>	<code>rd = #imm8</code>	<code>0000 <cond> <rd> <imm8></code>
<code>seth rd, imm8</code>	See below	<code>0001 <cond> <rd> <imm8></code>
R-Format Memory Instructions		
<code>str rd, [ra]</code>	<code>[ra] = rd</code>	<code>0100 <cond> <rd> 0 <ra> 0000</code>
<code>ldr rd, [ra]</code>	<code>rd = [ra]</code>	<code>0101 <cond> <rd> 0 <ra> 0000</code>
R-Format ALU Instructions		
<code>add rd, ra, rb</code>	<code>rd = ra + rb</code>	<code>1000 <cond> <rd> 0 <ra> 0 <rb></code>
<code>sub rd, ra, rb</code>	<code>rd = ra - rb</code>	<code>1001 <cond> <rd> 0 <ra> 0 <rb></code>
<code>and rd, ra, rb</code>	<code>rd = ra & rb</code>	<code>1010 <cond> <rd> 0 <ra> 0 <rb></code>
<code>orr rd, ra, rb</code>	<code>rd = ra rb</code>	<code>1011 <cond> <rd> 0 <ra> 0 <rb></code>

`seth` moves an 8-bit constant (`imm8`) into the high byte of the destination register `rd`, leaving the low byte of `rd` unchanged. Formally,

```
rd = (#imm8 << 8) | (rd & 0xff)
```

16-bit values that do not correspond to a machine code pattern in this table are *undefined instructions*. A correct QuAC program will never attempt to execute an undefined instruction. Hardware may act in any way it chooses if a program does.

More details on what each instruction does, and how they affect the flags, can be found [here](#).

From Assembly to ARM Machine Code

- Addition

ARM assembly

```
ADD R0, R1, R2
```

- Instruction Fields

31:28	27:26	25	24:21	20	19:16	15:12	11:0
cond	op	I	cmd	S	Rn	Rd	Src2

- Machine Code (Instruction Encoding)

31:28	27:26	25	24:21	20	19:16	15:12	11:0
1110	00	0	0100	1	0001	0000	000000000010

- Machine Code in short (hexadecimal)

- 0xE0910001

Instruction Format

- A form of representation of an instruction composed of **fields** of binary numbers (we have seen already)
- **It is the layout of the instruction**
- The instruction is divided into segments, and each segment is called a **field**
- An ISA defines a few **classes** or **types** of formats, and each class or type has many different instructions for that type

QuAC Instruction Formats

info

There's nothing enforcing future instructions fall into these two formats: R-Format and I-Format only *describe* the general pattern existing instructions follow. New instructions could follow an entirely different encoding format.

Register Operands Format (R-Format)

15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
op				cond	rd	0	ra	0	rb						

Immediate Format (I-Format)

15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
op				cond	rd	imm8									

Syntax	Semantic	Machine Code
I-Format Instructions		
movl rd, imm8	rd = #imm8	0000 <cond> <rd> <imm8>
seth rd, imm8	See below	0001 <cond> <rd> <imm8>
R-Format Memory Instructions		
str rd, [ra]	[ra] = rd	0100 <cond> <rd> 0 <ra> 0000
ldr rd, [ra]	rd = [ra]	0101 <cond> <rd> 0 <ra> 0000
R-Format ALU Instructions		
add rd, ra, rb	rd = ra + rb	1000 <cond> <rd> 0 <ra> 0 <rb>
sub rd, ra, rb	rd = ra - rb	1001 <cond> <rd> 0 <ra> 0 <rb>
and rd, ra, rb	rd = ra & rb	1010 <cond> <rd> 0 <ra> 0 <rb>
orr rd, ra, rb	rd = ra rb	1011 <cond> <rd> 0 <ra> 0 <rb>

MIPS Instruction Formats

- Only three formats for simplicity of implementation
- One can see the **consistency** across formats

R (Register) Format:

Opcode (6)	Rs (5)	Rt (5)	Rd (5)	Shamt (5)	Funct (6)
---------------	-----------	-----------	-----------	--------------	--------------

Most arithmetic and logic instructions (except 'immediate')

I (Immediate) Format:

Opcode (6)	Rs (5)	Rt (5)	16-bit Immediate value (16)
---------------	-----------	-----------	---------------------------------------

Data Transfer, Immediate, and Cond. Branch instructions

J (Jump) Format:

Opcode (6)	26-bit word address (26)
---------------	------------------------------------

Unconditional Jump instructions

- MIPS ISA is outside of scope and only shown for breadth

Instruction Format: R Type in MIPS

- MIPS R-type Instruction Format (R = Register)
 - 3 register operands (register-based ALU operations)

0	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	6 bits

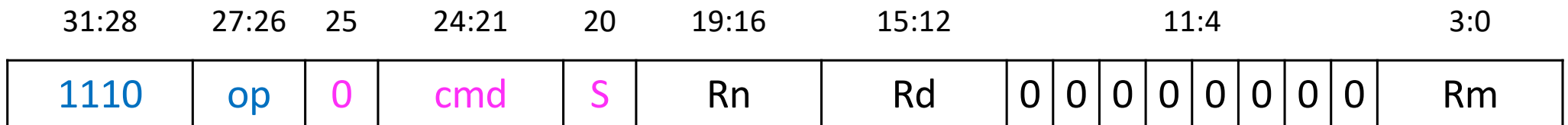
- op = opcode = 0
- rs, rt = source registers
- rd = destination register
- shamt = shift amount (only shift operations)
- funct = operation in R-type instructions

Name	Register Number	Usage
\$0	0	the constant value 0
\$at	1	assembler temporary
\$v0-\$v1	2-3	function return value
\$a0-\$a3	4-7	function arguments
\$t0-\$t7	8-15	temporary variables
\$s0-\$s7	16-23	saved variables
\$t8-\$t9	24-25	temporary variables
\$k0-\$k1	26-27	OS temporaries
\$gp	28	global pointer
\$sp	29	stack pointer
\$fp	30	frame pointer
\$ra	31	function return address

Instruction Format: Data Processing (DP) in ARM

ADD Rd, Rn Rm
↓ ↓ ↓
ADD R0, R1, R3

- **Rn** and **Rm** are source registers and **Rd** is the destination register
- **Below is the instruction format (encoding)**
- **op = opcode** (what does the instruction do?)
 - **00** means operate instruction and **cmd = 0100** means **ADD**
 - Some bits are pre-set (**details later**)



LC-3 Instruction Formats

	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
ADD ⁺	0001			DR	SR1	0	00		SR2							
ADD ⁺	0001			DR	SR1	1	imm5									
AND ⁺	0101			DR	SR1	0	00		SR2							
AND ⁺	0101			DR	SR1	1	imm5									
BR	0000			n	z	p	PCoffset9									
JMP	1100			000		BaseR			000000							
JSR	0100			1	PCoffset11											
JSRR	0100			0	00		BaseR			000000						
LD ⁺	0010			DR	PCoffset9											
LDI ⁺	1010			DR	PCoffset9											
LDR ⁺	0110			DR	BaseR			offset6								
LEA	1110			DR	PCoffset9											
NOT ⁺	1001			DR	SR	111111										
RET	1100			000		111			000000							
RTI	1000			000000000000												
ST	0011			SR	PCoffset9											
STI	1011			SR	PCoffset9											
STR	0111			SR	BaseR			offset6								
TRAP	1111			0000			trapvect8									
reserved	1101															

Instructions are 16-bit words

opcode is in the same place for each instruction

Such “weird” instructions will make more sense in COMP2310 as they provide support for I/O and networking

Reserved for future use

Read Operands from Memory

- With **operate instructions**, such as addition, we tell the computer to **execute arithmetic (or logic) computations** in the ALU
- We also need instructions to **access the operands from memory**
 - **Load them from memory to registers**
 - **Store them from registers to memory**
- Next, we see how to **read (or load) from memory**
- **Writing (or storing)** is performed in a similar way, but we will talk about that later

Reading Byte-Addressable Memory

- ARM assembly (Load Register or LDR)

High-level code

```
a = A[2];
```

ARM assembly

```
LDR R3, [R0, #8]
```

$R3 \leftarrow \text{Memory}[R0 + 8]$

- MIPS assembly (load word or lw)

High-level code

```
a = A[2];
```

MIPS assembly

```
lw $s3, 8($s0)
```

$\$s3 \leftarrow \text{Memory}[\$s0 + 8]$

These instructions use a particular **addressing mode** (i.e., the way the address is calculated), called **base+offset**

Load Word in MIPS and ARM

- ARM assembly

```
LDR R3, [R0, #8]
```

$R3 \leftarrow \text{Memory}[R0 + 8]$

- MIPS assembly

```
lw $s3, 8($s0)
```

$\$s3 \leftarrow \text{Memory}[\$s0 + 8]$

- Byte address is calculated as: $\text{word_address} * \text{bytes/word}$
 - 4 bytes/word in MIPS and ARM
 - If QuAC were byte-addressable (i.e., QuAC v3), 2 bytes/word

Load Word in Word-Addressable LC-3

- LC-3 assembly (Load Register or LDR)

High-level code

```
a = A[2];
```

LC-3 assembly

```
LDR R3, [R0, #2]
```

$R3 \leftarrow \text{Memory}[R0 + 2]$

- Each word in LC-3 is 16 bits
- Therefore, We interrogate memory with word addresses (not byte addresses)
- If LC-3 were byte-addressable, the offset would be 4

Hypothetical 32-bit QuAC Memory

- If QuAC were 32-bit architecture, let's look at its memory view
 - **Word-addressable QuAC**
 - **We use word numbers to address memory**

Word Address	Data	Word Number
·	·	·
·	·	·
·	·	·
00000003	D 1 6 1 7 A 1 C	Word 3
00000002	1 3 C 8 1 7 5 5	Word 2
00000001	F 2 F 1 F 0 F 7	Word 1
00000000	8 9 A B C D E F	Word 0

Hypothetical 32-bit QuAC Memory

- If QuAC were 32-bit architecture, let's look at its memory view
 - **Byte-addressable QuAC**
 - **We use word numbers translated to byte addresses to read memory**

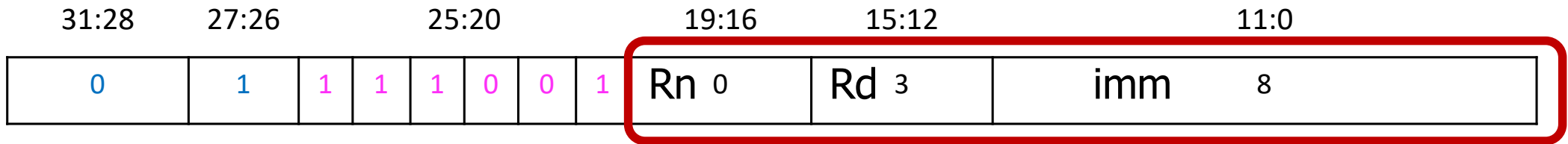
Word Address	Data	Word Number
·	·	·
·	·	·
·	·	·
0000000C	D 1 6 1 7 A 1 C	Word 3
00000008	1 3 C 8 1 7 5 5	Word 2
00000004	F 2 F 1 F 0 F 7	Word 1
00000000	8 9 A B C D E F	Word 0

Another Instruction Encoding

- ARM

ARM assembly

```
LDR R3, [R0, #8]
```



- MIPS

MIPS assembly

```
lw $s3, 8($s0)
```

Field Values

op	rs	rt	imm
35	16	19	8

This encoding has space for immediate values such as offsets.

The Instruction Set

- It defines **opcodes**, **operands**, **data types**, and **addressing modes**
- **Addressing mode = Formulas for figuring out operands**
 - **Register, Immediate, Base + Offset**
- The **datatype** is the representation of the operands in 0s and 1s
- **ADD** and **LDR** in ARM assembly have been our first examples

ADD R0, R1, R2

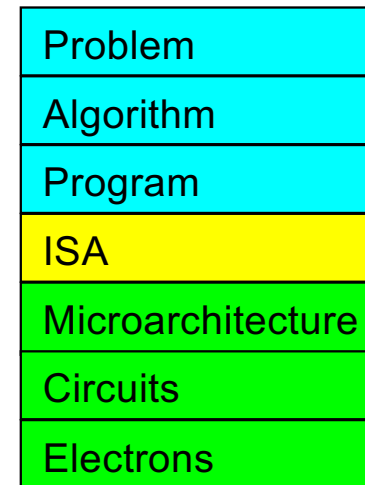
- What is the instruction mnemonic and opcode?
 - ADD (opcode = 0001 for LC-3)
- What is the addressing mode?
 - register mode
- What is the data type?
 - 2's complement integer
- What does the instruction do?
 - The instruction **directs** the computer to perform a 2's complement integer addition and specifies the locations (GPRs) where the computer can find **source operands** and the location of a GPR where the computer is to write the **result**

LDR R3, [R0, #8]

- What is the opcode?
 - LDR (0110 for LC-3)
- What is the addressing mode?
 - base + offset (we will study in detail later)
- What is the data type?
 - bit vector
- What does the instruction do?
 - The instruction directs the computer to load a destination register with the contents of a memory location, where the location can be calculated using a formula: add the contents of a GPR (R8) to a constant number (#8)

The Instruction Set Architecture

- The ISA is the **interface between** what the **software** commands and what the **hardware** carries out
- The ISA specifies
 - The **memory organization**
 - Address space (ARM: 2^{32} , MIPS: 2^{32})
 - Addressability (ARM: 8 bits, MIPS: 8 bits, QuAC: 16 bits)
 - Word- or Byte-addressable
 - The **register set**
 - R0 to R15 in ARM
 - 32 registers in MIPS
 - The **instruction set**
 - Opcodes
 - Operands
 - Addressing modes
 - Length and format of instructions



Two Questions

- **What state of the computer is visible (or exposed to) the programmer?**
 - What state can they manipulate by writing machine code?
 - **Answer:** The **Architectural** State
 - General-purpose registers, memory, program counter
- **What does the ISA specify?**
 - The **memory organization**
 - The **register set**
 - The **instruction set**
- **Meta-point:** Architectural state is part of the ISA specification

Instruction (Processing) Cycle

How are these instructions executed?

- By using instructions, **we can speak the language of the computer**
- Thus, we now know how to tell the computer to
 - **Execute computations in the ALU** by using, for instance, an addition
 - **Access operands from memory** by using the load word instruction
- But, **how are these instructions executed on the computer?**
 - The process of executing an instruction is called **the instruction cycle (or, instruction processing cycle)**

The Instruction Cycle

- The instruction cycle is a sequence of steps or **phases**, that an instruction goes through to be executed
 - **FETCH**
 - **DECODE**
 - **EVALUATE ADDRESS**
 - **FETCH OPERANDS**
 - **EXECUTE**
 - **STORE RESULT**
- **Not all instructions require the six phases**
 - LDR does **not** require EXECUTE
 - ADD does **not** require EVALUATE ADDRESS
 - Intel x86 instruction **ADD [eax], edx** is an example of instruction with six phases

LC-3 Assembly

- We will use **LC-3** (Little Computer v.3) architecture as example
- ADD Operate instruction

```
ADD R0, R1, R2
```

- Instruction for accessing memory

High-level code

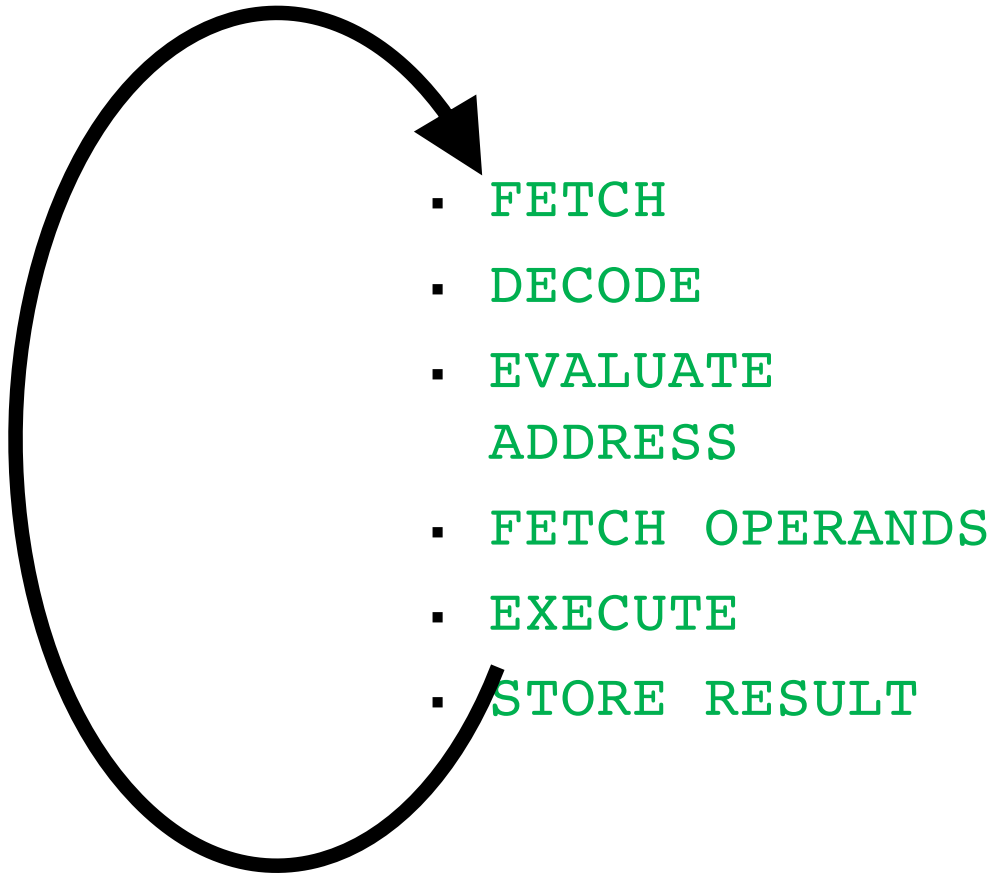
```
a = A[2];
```

LC-3 assembly

```
LDR R3, R0, #4
```

$R3 \leftarrow \text{Memory}[R0 + 4]$

After STORE RESULT, a NEW FETCH



Instruction (Processing) Cycle

FETCH

- The FETCH phase obtains the instruction from memory and loads it into the **Instruction Register (IR)**
- This phase is **common to every instruction type**
- **Complete description**
 - Step 1: **Load the MAR with** the contents of the **PC**, and simultaneously **increment the PC**
 - Step 2: Interrogate memory. This results in the **instruction being placed in the MDR** by memory
 - Step 3: **Load the IR** with the contents of the **MDR**

Machine Cycle

- Each of these steps is under the direction of the **control unit**
- Each step takes **one machine cycle**
 - **Each machine cycle takes one clock cycle (the two are the same)**
- Each instruction cycle consists of many machine cycles
 - If each instruction cycle takes one machine cycle, such a simple machine is called a **single-cycle** computer or microarchitecture
 - Single-cycle machines are much simpler to build than what we are discussing here (e.g., **the control unit is not an FSM**)

Machine Cycle

- A clock cycle is a small fraction of a second
- 1 GHz Intel CPU completes 1 billion clock cycles in one second
 - One clock cycle takes one billionths of a second
 - Or **1 nanoseconds (ns)**
- In **one second, the computer can perform 1 billion machine cycles** where each machine cycle executes an instruction (or part of an instruction)

FETCH in LC-3

- Step 1: Load MAR and increment PC
- Step 2: Access memory
- Step 3: Load IR with the content of MDR

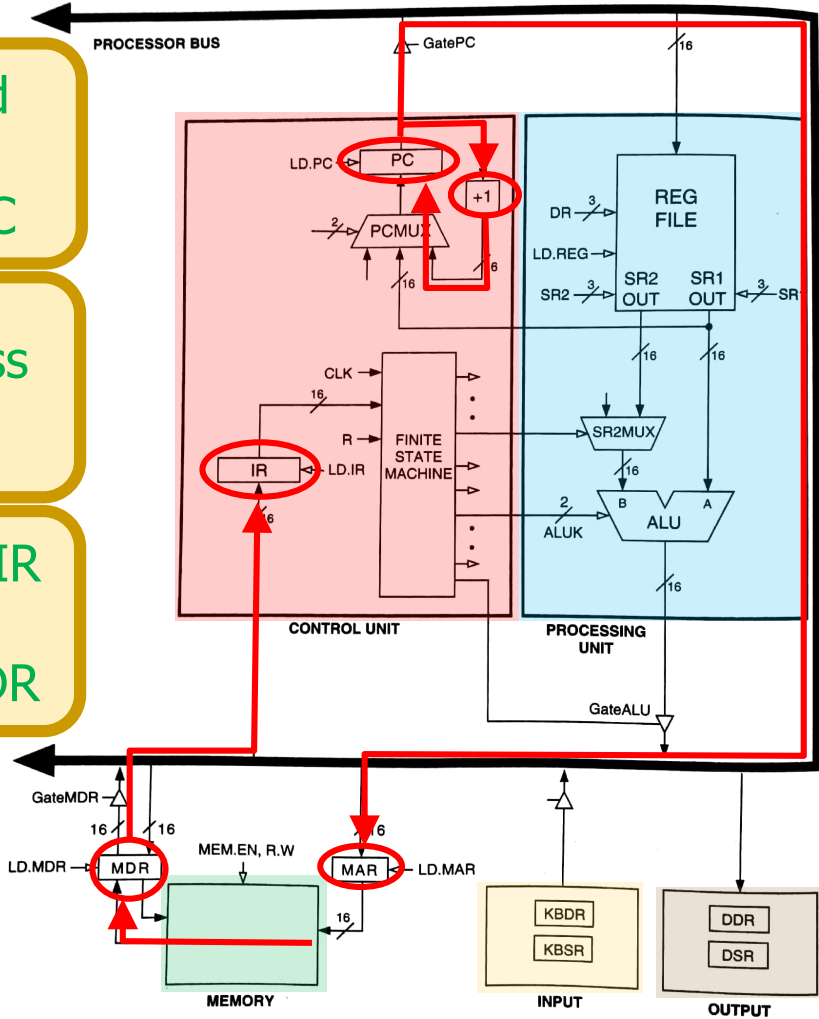


Figure 4.3 The LC-3 as an example of the von Neumann model

DECODE

- The DECODE phase **identifies the instruction**
 - Also generates the set of control signals to process the identified instruction in later phases of the instruction cycle
- Recall the **decoder**
 - A **4-to-16 decoder** identifies which of the 16 opcodes is going to be processed
- The input is the four bits **IR[15:12]**
- The remaining 12 bits identify what else is needed to process the instruction

DECODE in LC-3

DECODE identifies the instruction to be processed

Also generates the set of control signals to process the instruction

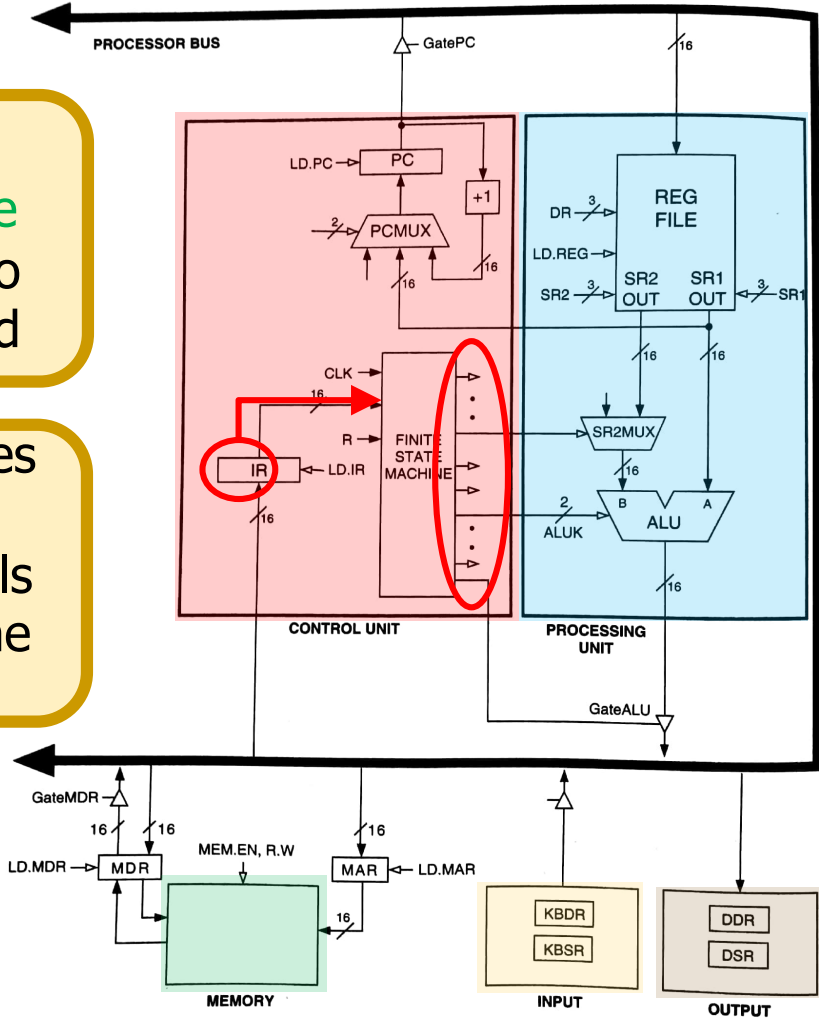


Figure 4.3 The LC-3 as an example of the von Neumann model

EVALUATE ADDRESS

- The EVALUATE ADDRESS phase **computes the address of the memory location that is needed to process the instruction**
- This phase is necessary in LDR
 - It computes the **address of the data word** that is to be read from memory
 - By adding an offset to the content of a register
- But not necessary in ADD

EVALUATE ADDRESS in LC-3

LDR calculates the address by adding a register and an immediate

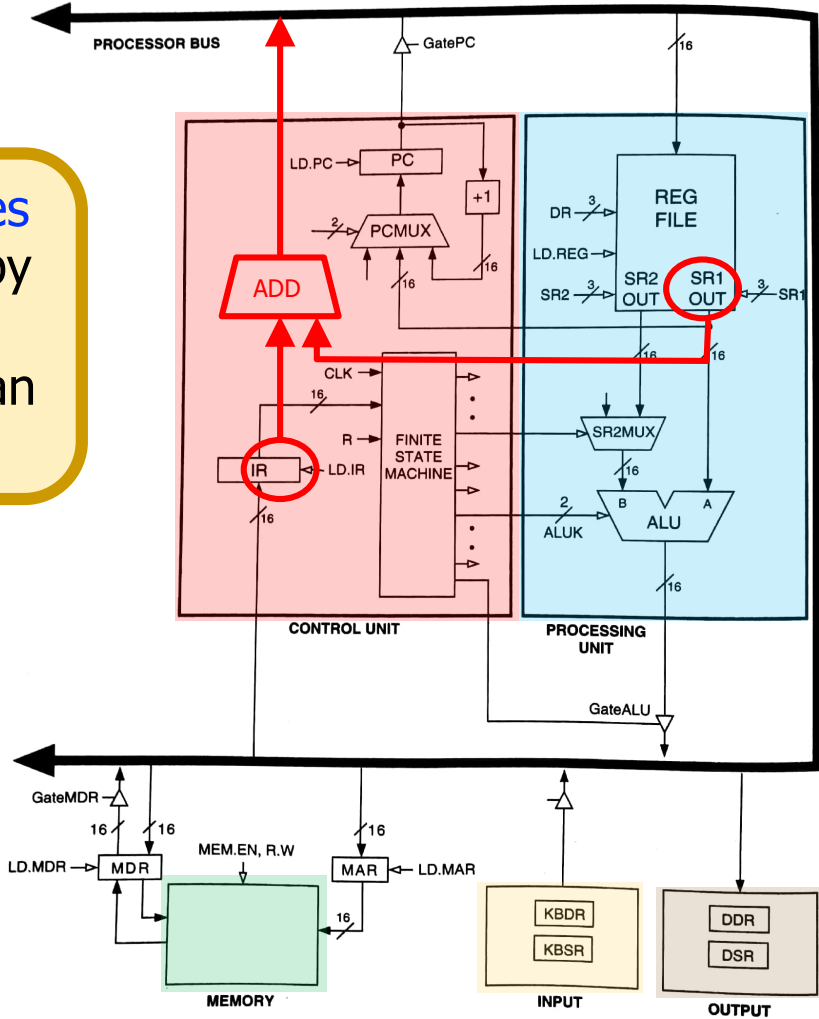


Figure 4.3 The LC-3 as an example of the von Neumann model

FETCH OPERANDS

- The FETCH OPERANDS phase obtains the source operands needed to process the instruction
- In LDR
 - Step 1: Load MAR with the address calculated in EVALUATE ADDRESS
 - Step 2: Read memory, placing source operand in MDR
- In ADD
 - Obtain the source operands from the register file
 - In some microprocessors, operand fetch from register file can be done at the same time the instruction is being decoded

FETCH OPERANDS in LC-3

LDR loads MAR (step 1), and places the results in MDR (step 2)

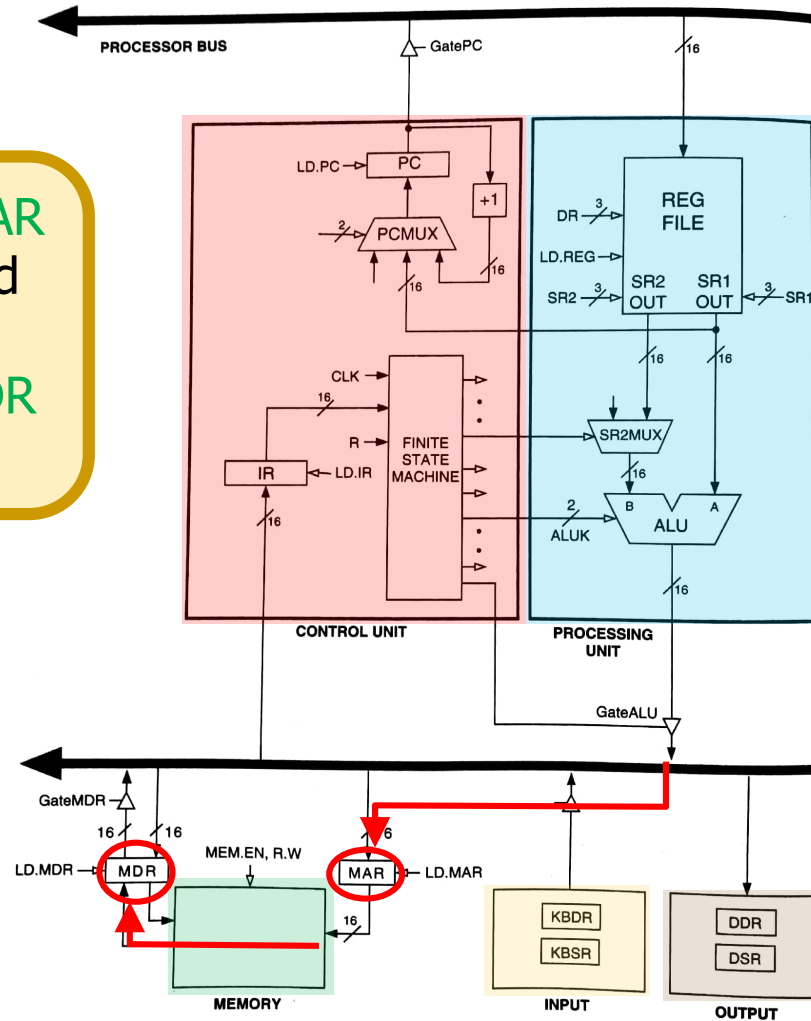


Figure 4.3 The LC-3 as an example of the von Neumann model

EXECUTE

- The EXECUTE phase **executes the instruction**
 - In ADD, it performs addition in the ALU
 - In XOR, it performs bitwise XOR in the ALU
 - ...

EXECUTE in LC-3

ADD adds SR1 and SR2

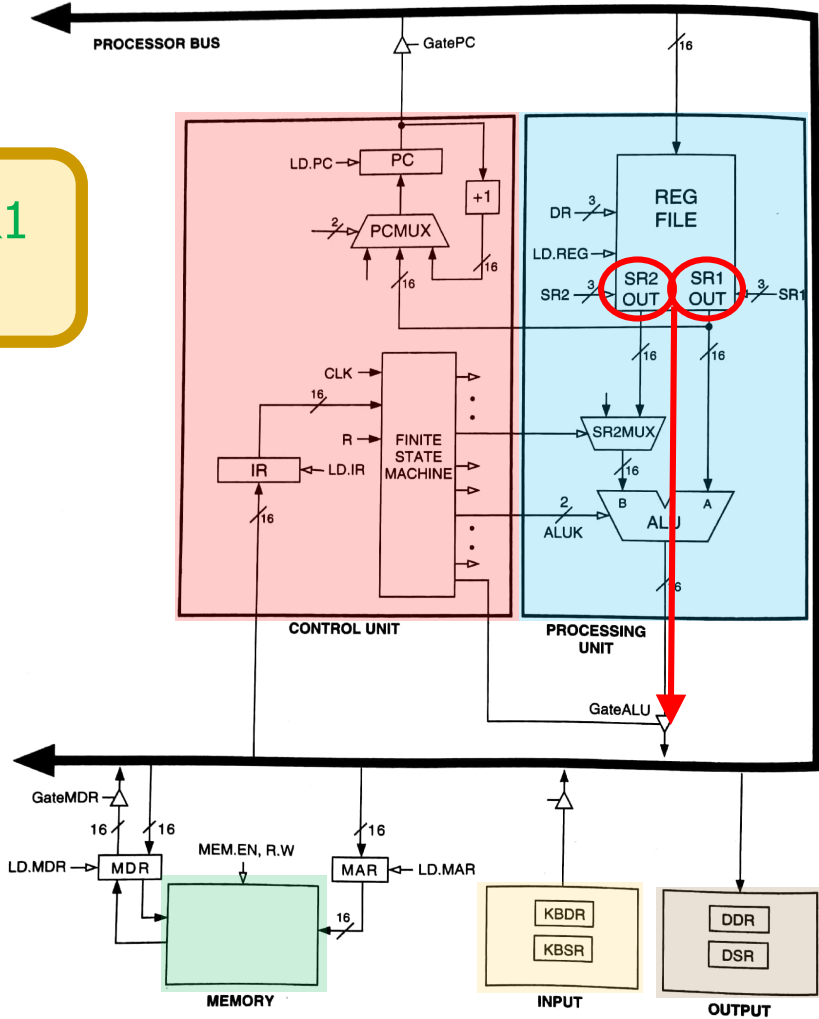


Figure 4.3 The LC-3 as an example of the von Neumann model

STORE RESULT

- The STORE RESULT phase **writes the result to the designated destination**
- Once STORE RESULT is completed, **a new instruction cycle** starts (with the FETCH phase)

STORE RESULTS in LC-3

ADD loads ALU Result into DR

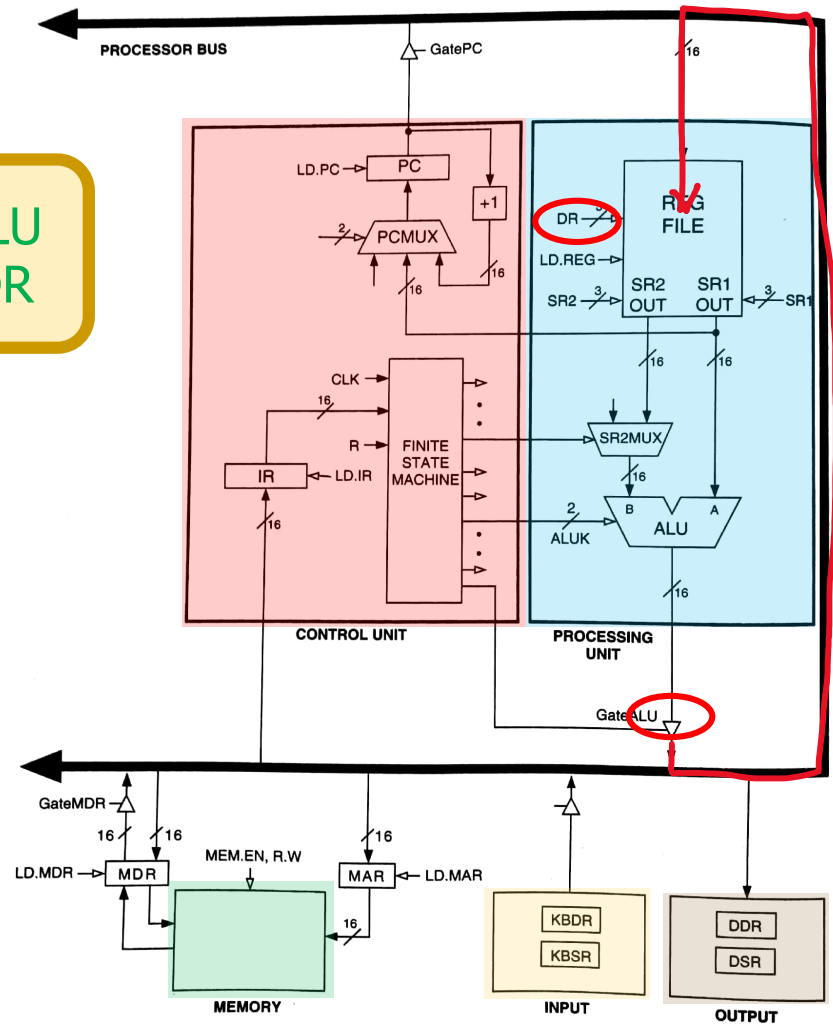


Figure 4.3 The LC-3 as an example of the von Neumann model

STORE RESULTS in LC-3

LDR loads
MDR into DR

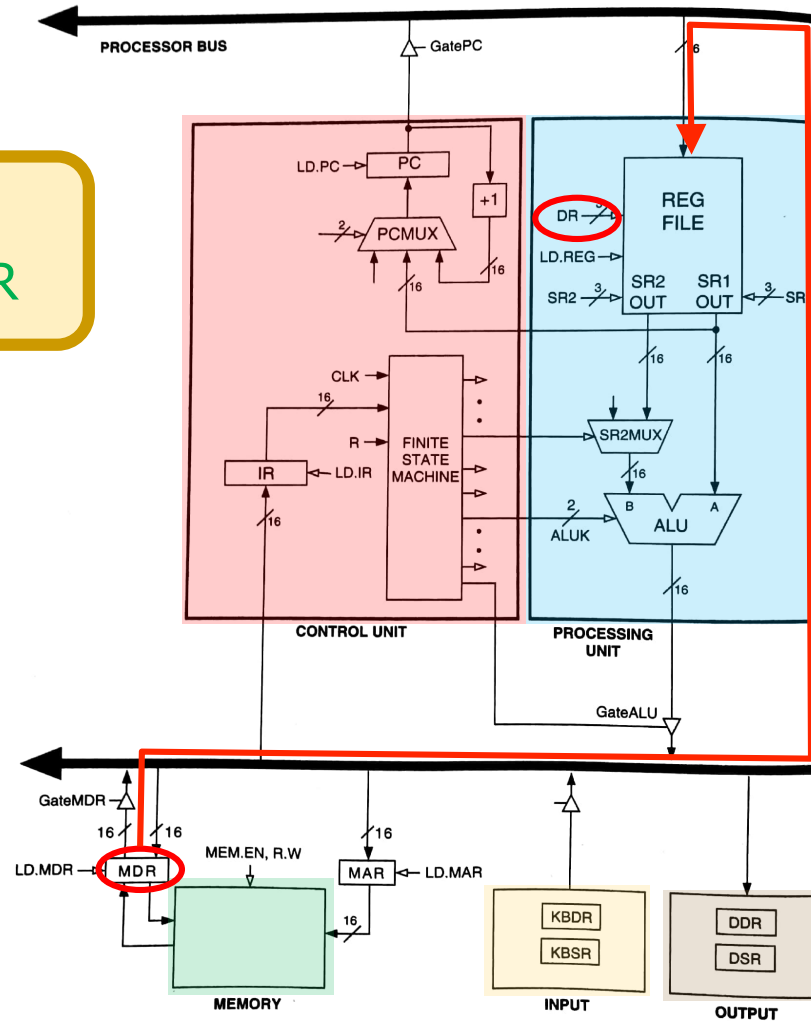
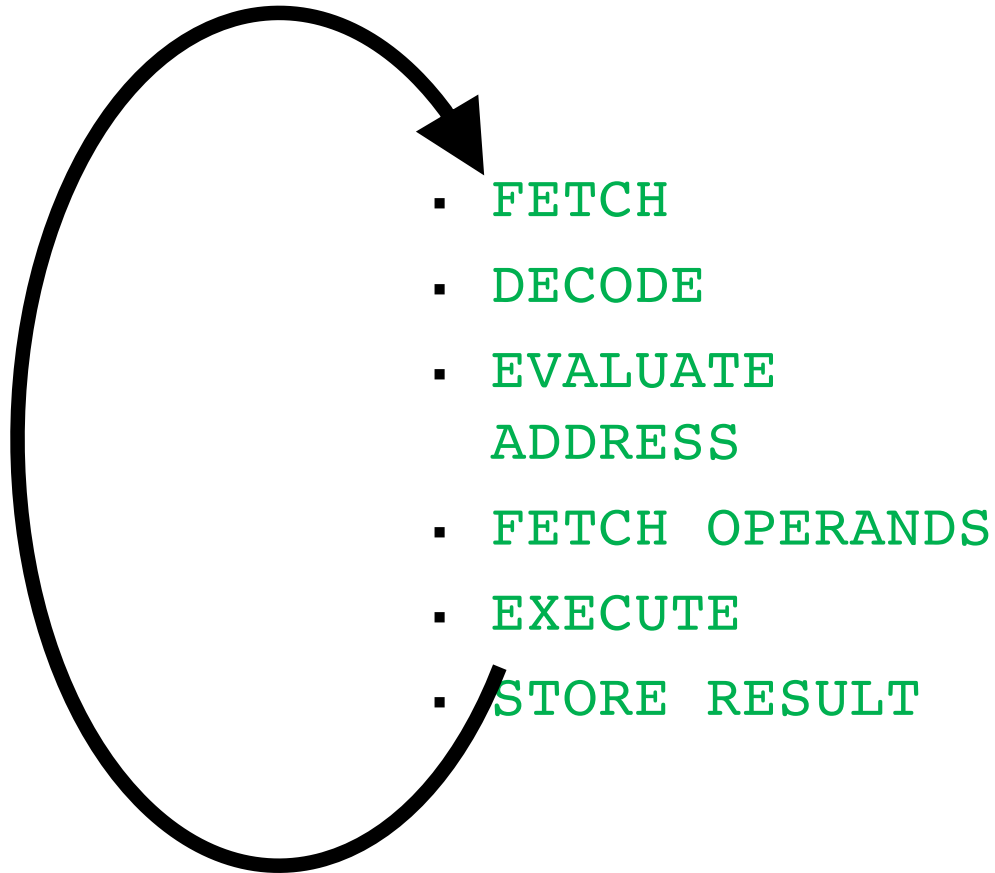


Figure 4.3 The LC-3 as an example of the von Neumann model

The Instruction Cycle



Changing the Sequence of Execution

- A computer program **executes in sequence** (i.e., in program order)
 - First instruction, second instruction, third instruction and so on
- Unless we **change the sequence of execution**
- **Control instructions** allow a program to execute **out of sequence**
 - They can change the PC by loading it during the EXECUTE phase
 - That wipes out the incremented PC (loaded during the FETCH phase)

Jump (Branch)

- **Unconditional** branch or jump (ARM)

B TARGET

- **Conditional** branch or jump (ARM)

BEQ TARGET

BNE TARGET

- These instructions are encoded using a special branch format in ARM ISA
- **LC-3 has a jump instruction that can load a register into PC**
- Let's see

PC UPDATE in LC-3

JMP loads SR1 into PC

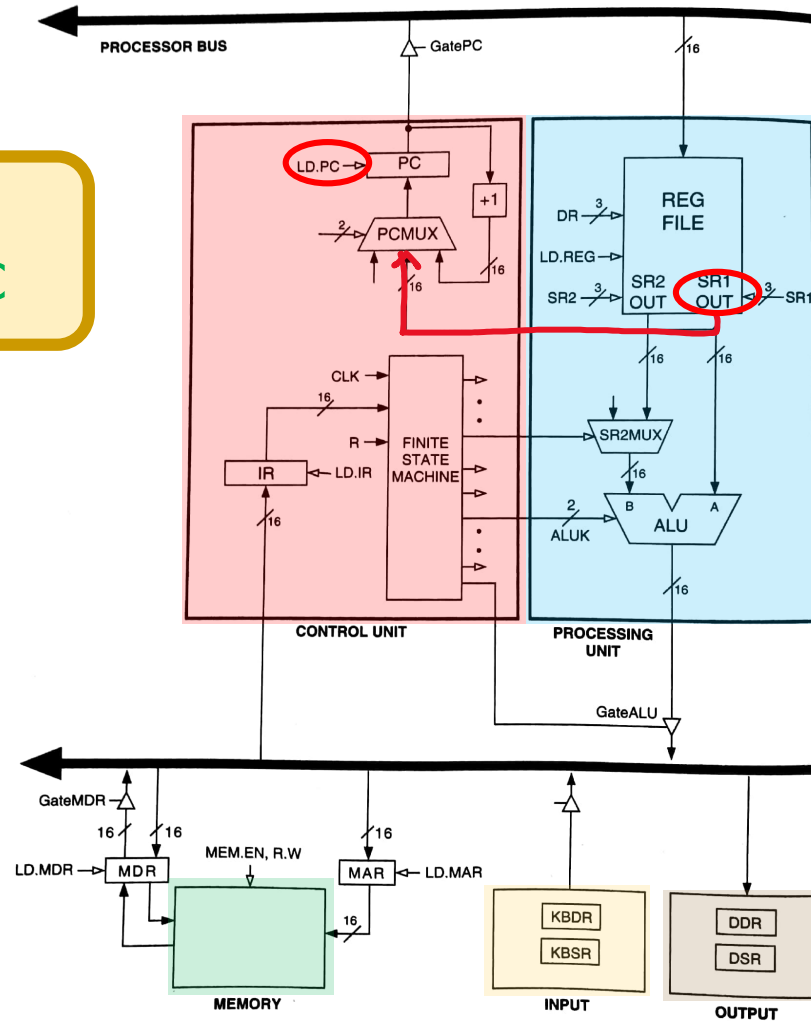


Figure 4.3 The LC-3 as an example of the von Neumann model

Control (FSM) of the Instruction Cycle

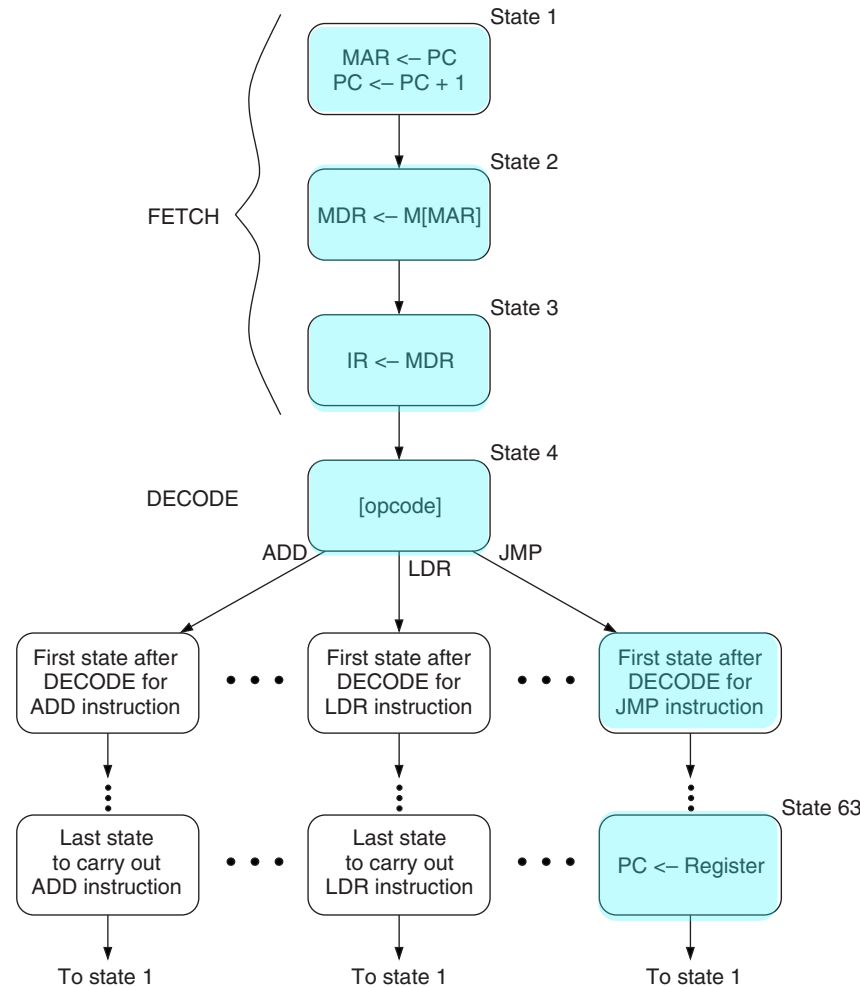
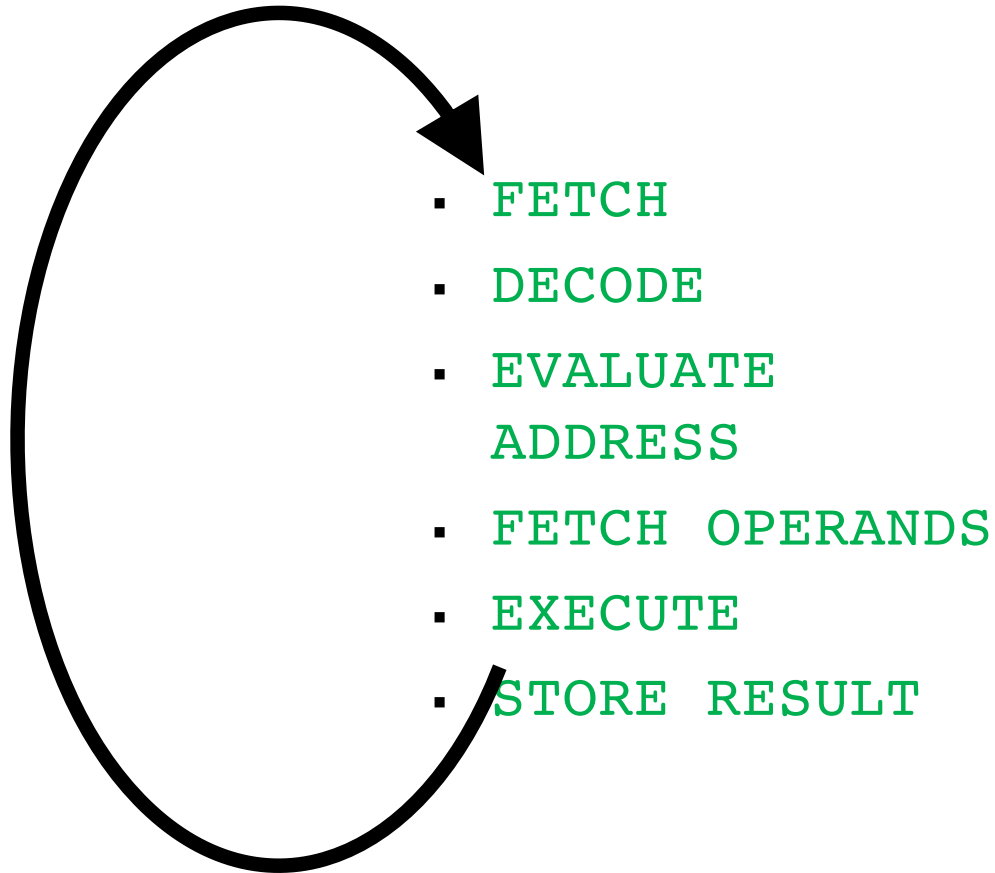


Figure 4.4 An abbreviated state diagram of the LC-3

- State 1
 - The FSM asserts GatePC and LD.MAR
 - It selects input (+1) in PCMUX and asserts LD.PC
- State 2
 - MDR is loaded with the instruction
- State 3
 - The FSM asserts GateMDR and LD.IR
- State 4
 - The FSM goes to next state depending on opcode
- State 63
 - JMP loads register into PC
- Full state diagram in Patt&Pattel, Appendix C

This is an FSM Controlling the LC-3 Processor

The Instruction Cycle



The Instruction Cycle: Things to Note

- Not all instructions need all phases
- The ordering of phases is not set in stone
- Some phases can be grouped as one
- Some structures may not be needed in a different microarchitecture
- Microarchitecture “style” dictates many details (week 6)

The Instruction Cycle: Things to Note

- What we have seen is a very general **multi-cycle** CPU
 - Each instruction takes multiple “machine cycles” to complete
- In Labs 4 – 6 + first assignment you build a **single-cycle** CPU
 - The entire instruction (all phases) must finish in one cycle
 - Contrast with multi-cycle CPU as you build
 - One clock cycle = One machine cycle = One instruction cycle
- We Will cover both **single-cycle** and **multi-cycle** ARM CPUs

ARM and QuAC

Instruction Set Architectures (ISAs)

ARM (**Chapter 6** of H&H + Assignment 2) and QuAC (Assignment 1)

Von Neumann Model: Two Key Properties

- Von Neumann model is also called *stored program computer* (instructions in memory). It has two key properties:
- **Stored program**
 - Instructions stored in a linear memory array
 - **Memory is unified** between instructions and data
 - **The interpretation of a stored value depends on the control signals**
- **Sequential instruction processing**
 - One instruction processed (fetched, executed, completed) at a time
 - **Program counter (instruction pointer)** identifies the current instruction
 - **Program counter is advanced sequentially** except for control transfer instructions

Recall: Instruction Types

- There are **three main types of instructions**
- **Operate (data processing) instructions**
 - Execute operations in the ALU
- **Data movement (memory) instructions**
 - Read from or write to memory
- **Control flow (branch/jump) instructions**
 - Change the sequence of execution (decision making)

Data Processing Instructions

ARM Data Processing (DP) Instructions

- $a = b + c - d$
 - We can use two ARM instructions to do the computation

```
ADD  t,  b,  c
SUB  a,  t,  d
```

- **ADD** and **SUB** are instruction **mnemonics**
- Instructions **operate** on **operands** (a, b, c)
- **Computers operate on binary data not variable names**
 - We need to specify the **physical location** of operands
 - We have **registers, memory, constants** in instructions

Registers as Operands

- Instructions need **fast access** to **operands**, but **memory** is **slow**
 - Keep a small set of registers close to the CPU in a **register** file
 - ARM architecture uses **16 registers**
 - 32-bit** architecture means **32-bit** registers
- a = b + c - d**
 - R0 = a, R1 = b, R2 = c, R3 = d, R4 = t**

Mapping is chosen by human, or a tool called **compiler** that translates high-level code to assembly

```
ADD  t,  b,  c
SUB  a,  t,  d
```



```
ADD  R4,  R1,  R2
SUB  R0,  R4,  R3
```

Aside: Compiler vs. Assembler

- **Compiler translates**
 - **high-level language** code into
 - **assembly code (human readable)**

- **Assembler translates**
 - **assembly code** into
 - **machine code (1s and 0s)**

Source/Destination Operand

- Instructions operate on one or more **source** operands and store the result after execution in a **destination** operand

ADD	R4	,	R1	,	R2
SUB	R0	,	R4	,	R3

- R1 and R2 are the **source operands** for the ADD instruction
- R4 is the **destination operand** for the ADD instruction

Another Example

- $a = b - c$
- $f = (g + h) - (i + j)$
 - Variables $a - c$ are held in registers $R0 - R2$ and $f - j$ are held in registers $R3 - R7$

```
SUB  R0, R1, R2
```

```
ADD  R8, R4, R5
```

```
ADD  R9, R6, R7
```

```
SUB  R3, R8, R9
```


Design Principle # 1

- Regularity leads to simpler hardware
 - Instructions with a consistent number of operands (2 sources, 1 destination) are easier to encode and handle in hardware

Design Principle # 1

- Regularity leads to simpler hardware

info

There's nothing enforcing future instructions fall into these two formats: R-Format and I-Format only *describe* the general pattern existing instructions follow. New instructions could follow an entirely different encoding format.

5 (2)

- Instru
SOURCE
handl

Register Operands Format (R-Format)

15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
op				cond		rd		0	ra		0	rb			

- QuAC also follows the same principle!

The Register Set (File)

- ARM defines 16 *architectural* registers
 - The register set is part of the **ISA** specification
- R0 – R12 are used for storing variables
- R13 – R15 have **special** uses

Design Principle # 2

- **Smaller is Faster**

- Reading data from a **small** register file is **faster** than reading from a large file

Constant & Immediate in Instruction

- ARM instructions can use **constant** or **immediate** operands

Fact: 98% of all the constants in a program would fit in 13 bits

- The value is available immediately from the instruction
 - Advantage:** No register or memory access
 - Disadvantage:** Immediate can be 8 – 12 bits because **limited bits in the encoding (instruction format)**
- In the following example, assume R7 = **a**, R8 = **b**

High-Level code

```
a = a + 4  
b = a - 12
```

ARM Assembly Code

```
ADD    R7,    R7,    #4  
SUB    R8,    R7,    #0xC
```

Design Principle # 3

- Good design demands good compromises
 - To encode **immediate** instructions in **QuAC**, we need a new format
 - Same with ARM although encoding is more complex

Design Principle # 3

- Good design demands good compression

- To encourage more instructions to fit in a cache line

info

There's nothing enforcing future instructions fall into these two formats: R-Format and I-Format only *describe* the general pattern existing instructions follow. New instructions could follow an entirely different encoding format.

Register Operands Format (R-Format)

15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
op				cond	rd			0	ra			0	rb		

Immediate Format (I-Format)

15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
op				cond	rd			imm8							

we need to allow new instructions to follow a different format.

- We follow the same principle in QuAC

MOV Instruction

- **MOV** is a useful instruction for **initializing** register values
- **MOV** can also take a register source operand
 - MOV R1, R7 **copies** the contents of register **R7** into **R1**
 - In the following example, assume R4 = **i**, R5 = **x**

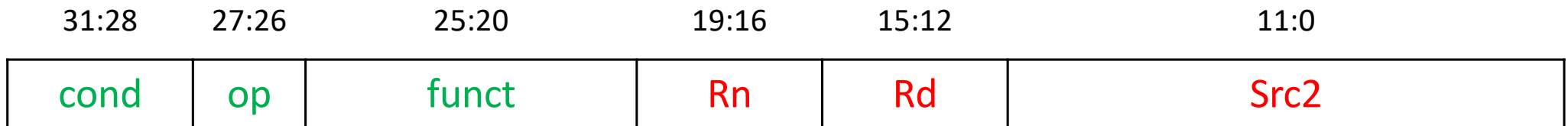
High-Level code

```
i = 0;  
x = 4080;
```

ARM Assembly Code

```
MOV R4, #0  
MOV R5, #0xFF0
```


Instruction Format – 1: Data Processing



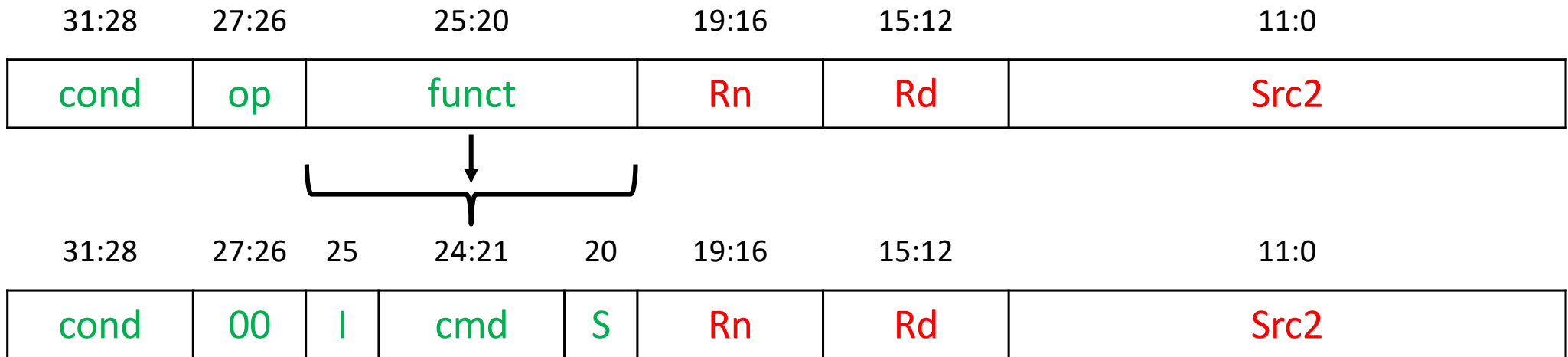
Operands

- **Rn [19:16]:** first source operand register (0000, 0001, ..., 1111)
- **Src2 [11:0]:** second source register or **unsigned** immediate
- **Rd [15:12]:** destination register

Control fields

- **cond [31:28]:** specifies conditional execution (1110 for unconditional)
- **op [27:26]:** the operation code or opcode (00 for data processing)
- **funct [25:20]:** the specific function/operation to perform

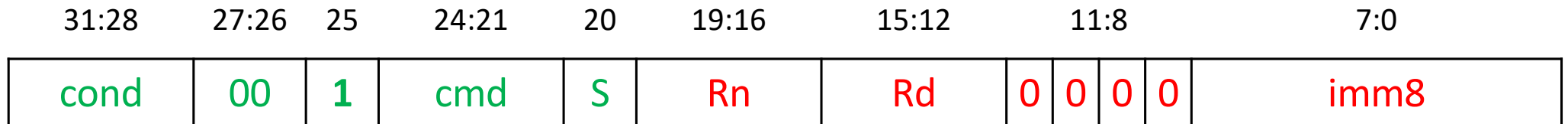
Breaking down **funct** Field



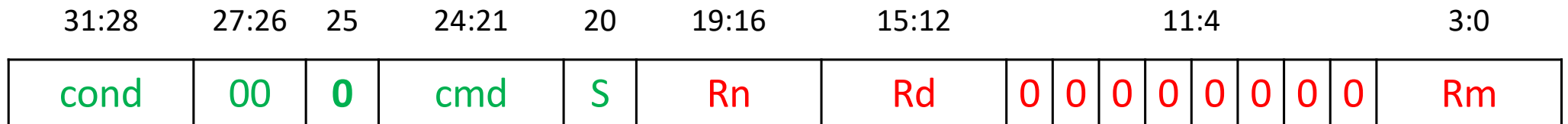
- **cmd [24:21]:** specifies the specific DP instruction (0100 for ADD; 0010 for SUB)
- **I-bit [25]:** informs the control unit about Src2
 - I = 0: Src2 is a register
 - I = 1: Src2 is an immediate
- **S-bit [20]:** 1 if the instruction sets the condition flags

Two DP Formats (**Src2** Variations)

Immediate (assume 11:8 are 0 for now)



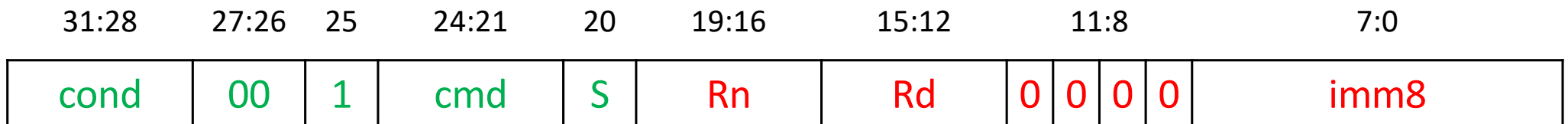
Register (assume 11:4 are 0 for now)



DP with Src2 as Immediate

- Bit 25 (I) informs the CPU how to interpret Src2
 - I = 1, CPU interprets Src2[7:0] as an **unsigned** 8-bit constant
- Format (Src2 = immediate)

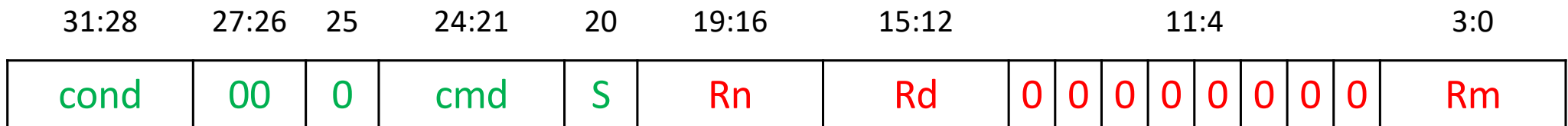
ADD R0, R1, #16
↓ ↓ ↓
ADD Rd, Rn, #imm8



DP with Src2 as Register

- Bit 25 (I) informs the CPU how to interpret Src2
 - I = 0, CPU interprets Src2[3:0] as a register
- Format (Src2 = Register)

ADD R0, R1, R3
↓ ↓ ↓
ADD Rd, Rn, Rm



More Data Processing Insts.

- AND
- ORR (OR)
- EOR (XOR)

- BIC (Bit Clear)

- MVN (MoVe and Not)

The Bit Clear Instruction

- **Bit Clear (BIC)**
 - Used for bit masking bits and forcing **unwanted** bits to 0
- **BIC R6, R1, R2**
 - R2 is the mask
 - The bits we want to **CLEAR** or **ZERO** in **R1** are set to **TRUE** in **R2**
 - The instruction stores the result of **R1 AND (NOT R2)** in **R6**

Example of Data Processing

Source registers

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

Assembly code

```
AND  R3, R1, R2
ORR  R4, R1, R2
EOR  R5, R1, R2
BIC  R6, R1, R2
MVN  R7, R2
```

Result

R3	0100 0110	1010 0001	0000 0000	0000 0000
R4	1111 1111	1111 1111	1111 0001	1011 0111
R5	1011 1001	0101 1110	1111 0001	1011 0111
R6	0000 0000	0000 0000	1111 0001	1011 0111
R7	0000 0000	0000 0000	1111 1111	1111 1111

Design Principle # 4

- **Make the common case fast**
 - ARM architecture includes only **simple, commonly used** instructions
 - The number of instructions is kept small, so the hardware required for decoding is **simple, small, and fast**
 - More elaborate operations are performed using **sequences of multiple simple instructions**

RISC vs. CISC Architectures

- **Reduced Instruction Set Computer (RISC)**
 - Provide a **small set** of simple instructions
 - Minimizes **hardware complexity** (high clock rate, power-efficient)
 - Requires **many instructions** to solve a complex problem
 - **Examples:** ARM, MIPS, QuAC, RISC-V
- **Complex Instruction Set Computer (CISC)**
 - Provides **many complex** instructions
 - Complex hardware (**longer critical paths**, lower clock frequency)
 - Each instruction is more complex so **fewer instructions** to solve a problem
 - **Example:** Intel x86

Another RISC ISA: QuAC

- **Fixed width** instructions make decoding easy and simple
- A small number of **crucial** instructions (**fewer opcodes save instruction real-estate**)

Register Operands Format (R-Format)

15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
op				cond		rd		0	ra		0	rb			

Immediate Format (I-Format)

15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
op				cond		rd		imm8							

- Two formats and **regularity** in the ISA (across formats)
 - **rd** in same place ($Instr_{10:8}$)
 - **opcode** in the same place
 - **seth**: somewhat complex

seth moves an 8-bit constant (**imm8**) into the high byte of the destination register **rd**, leaving the low byte of **rd** unchanged. Formally,

$$rd = (\#imm8 \ll 8) | (rd \& 0xff)$$

- **Few general-purpose registers**
- **Space for constants in the ISA**
- **Easy to convert to hexadecimal**
- **The only way to access memory is via a dedicated set of instructions**
- **Conditional execution + general-purpose PC = Conditional branch instructions**

Data Movement Instructions

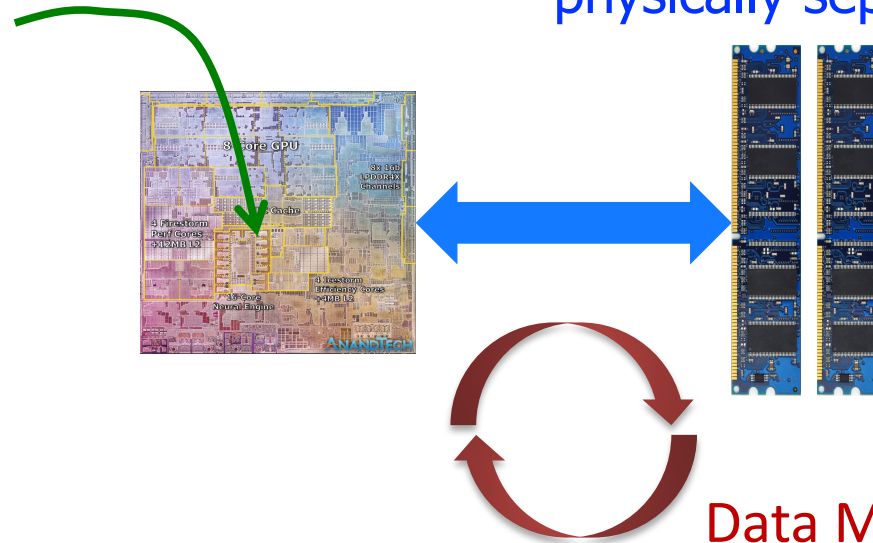
Data Movement Instructions

- Real programs **need to operate on more data than can fit in the register file**
 - Most data resides in (**slow**) memory
 - Fetched from memory into the register file when needed
 - Moved to memory from the register file to free up a register

Motivation

Small and Fast Registers are inside the CPU close to the ALU

Large and Slow External Main Memory is outside the CPU, and physically separated from the CPU



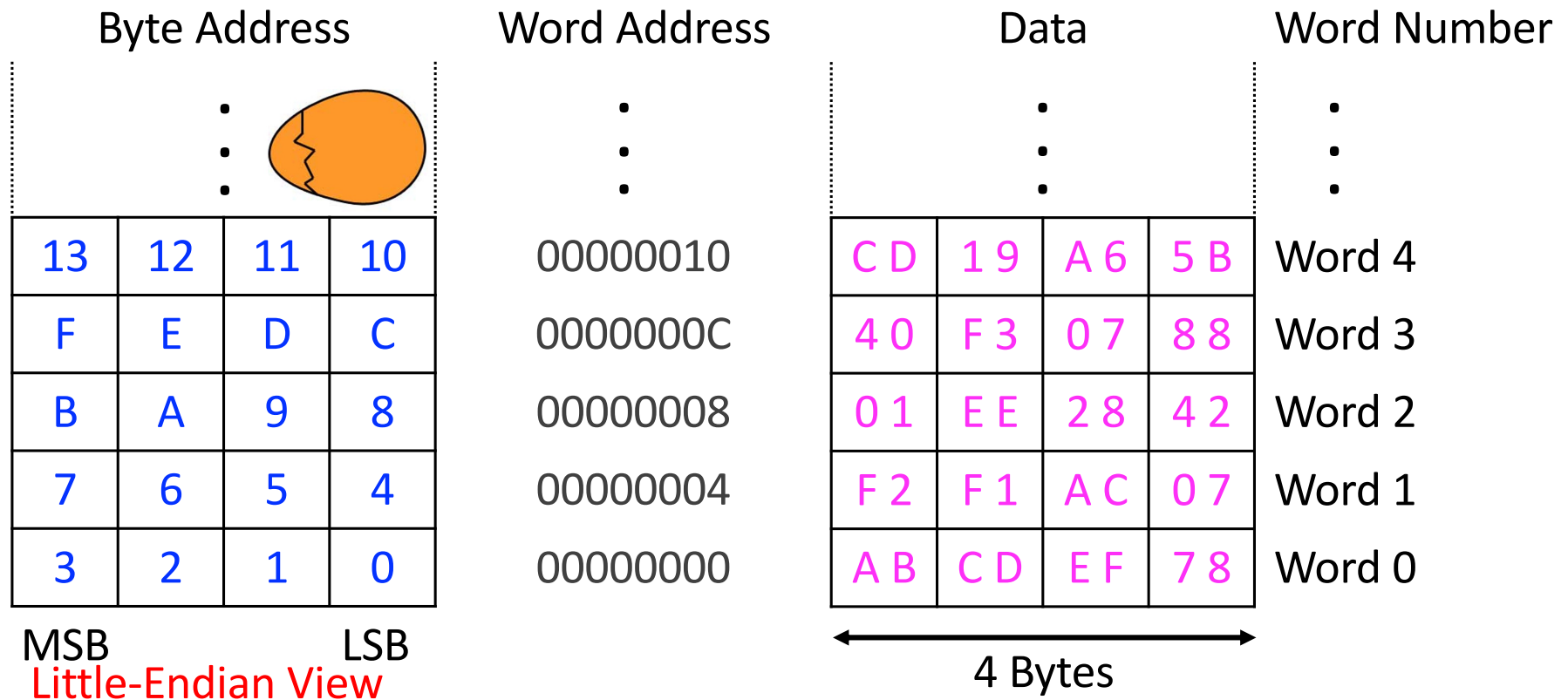
Data Movement Instructions move data to and from registers and memory

Data Movement Instructions

- Two **instructions** to facilitate **data movement**
 - The **LDR** instruction: Bring data word from memory into the register file
 - **LoaD R**egister
 - The **STR** instruction: Store data word from the register file into memory
 - **ST**ore **R**egister

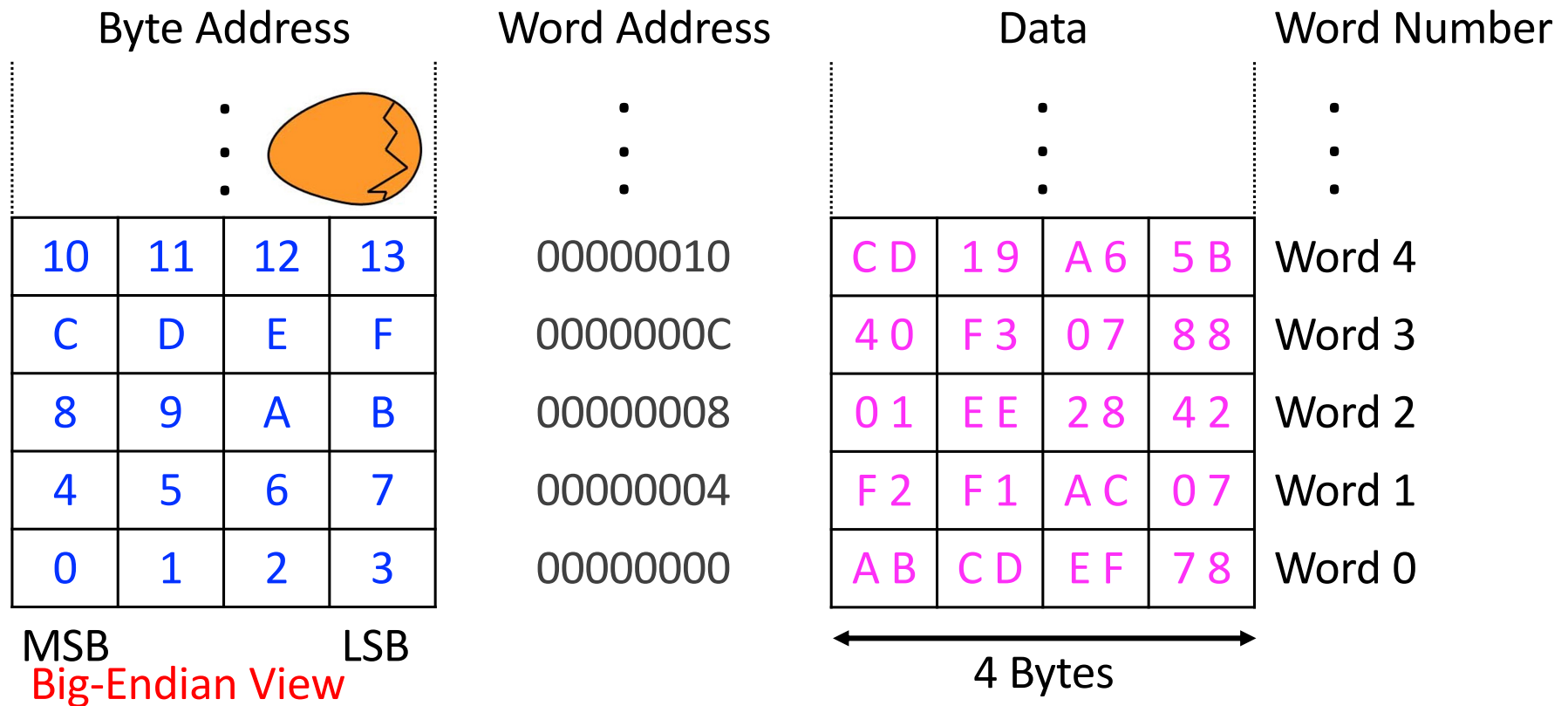
Memory View (32 bits = 4 bytes)

- Byte-addressable memory (each box is a byte & each row is a word)
- Byte addresses (**left**) and 8-bit byte data (**right, 1 byte = 2 Hex digits**)



Memory View (32 bits = 4 bytes)

- Byte-addressable memory (each box is a byte & each row is a word)
- Byte addresses (**left**) and 8-bit byte data (**right, 1 byte = 2 Hex digits**)



Revision (Start of Week 6/1)

- **Steps of Transformation**
 - From high-level language code to assembly code (compiler or human)
 - From assembly code to machine code (assembler or human)
- **Instruction set architecture**
 - **Instruction set**
 - Opcodes and operands
 - Data types
 - Addressing modes
 - Instruction formats
 - **Architectural state**
 - Memory
 - Register set
 - Program counter

Reading from Memory

- Format of **LoaD R**egister instruction

LDR R0, [R1, #12]

- **Address calculation (base + offset addressing)**

- Add **base** address (contents of R1) to the **offset** (#12)
- Address = (R1 + 12)
- Use any register for base address
- R1 is a source (register) operand

- **Result**

- R0 holds the data at memory address [R1 + 12] after the instruction is executed
- R0 is a destination (register) operand

LDR Example

- Read a 32-bit word of data at memory (byte) address 8 into R3. Use R2 as the base register. Show the contents of R3.
 - Let's initialize R2 to 0, and add 8 as the offset

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

R3	0x 01 EE 28 42
----	----------------

Word Address	Data	Word Number
⋮	⋮	⋮
00000010	CD 19 A6 5B	Word 4
0000000C	40 F3 07 88	Word 3
00000008	01 EE 28 42	Word 2
00000004	F2 F1 AC 07	Word 1
00000000	AB CD EF 78	Word 0

Address vs. Value



- Square brackets signify **address** (also called **pointer** in C)

```
LDR    R3, [R2, #8]
```

- If you [add the contents of register **R2** to constant **#8**, you will get the **address** with which to **access** memory]

^ **Base + Offset Addressing Mode**

- When presented with an address, memory obliges by returning the value stored at address given (**8** in this example)
- In a 32-bit computer
 - **Width of address bus = 32 bits (address space = 2^{32} locations)**
 - **Although memory is byte-addressable, it returns a 32-bit word to fill the entire register**

Writing to Memory

- Format of **ST**ore **R**egister instruction
STR R0, [R1, #12]
- **Address calculation**
 - Add base address (R1) to the offset (12)
 - Address = (R1 + 12)
 - R0 and R1 are both source (register) operands
- **Result**
 - Memory address (R1 + 12) will now have the value in R0 after the instruction is executed
 - Destination operand is memory address computed from source operands

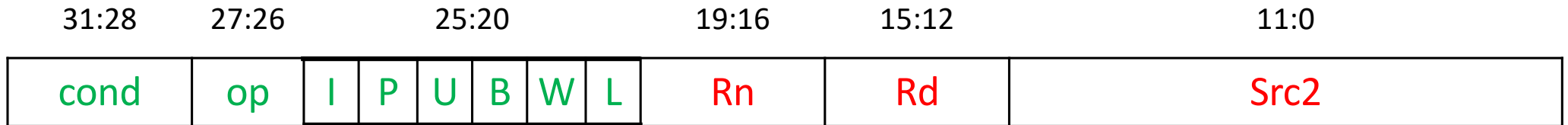
STR Example

- Store the value held in R7 into memory word 21
 - Let's initialize R5 to 0, and add 84 (21 x 4) as the offset

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

- The offset can be written in decimal or hexadecimal: 84 (decimal) is 0x54 (Hex)

Instruction Format – 2: Memory



- op = 01
- Rn = base register (base address)
- Rd = destination (load), source (store)
- Src2 = offset (register, shifted register, immediate)
- funct [25:20] = 6 control bits
 - I (Bit 25): Encoding of Src2
 - L (Bit 20): Load or Store

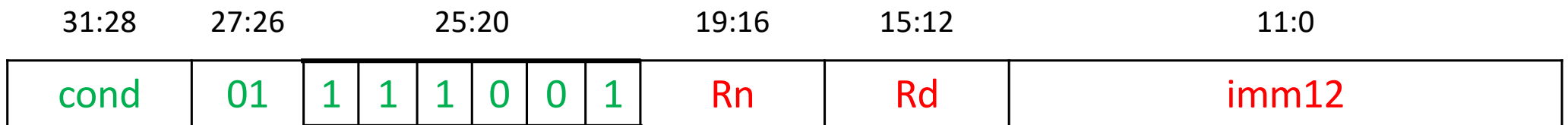
LDR with Src2 as Immediate

- I (Bit 25) = 1: Src2 = imm12 where imm2 is a 12-bit unsigned offset added to the value in the base register (Rn)

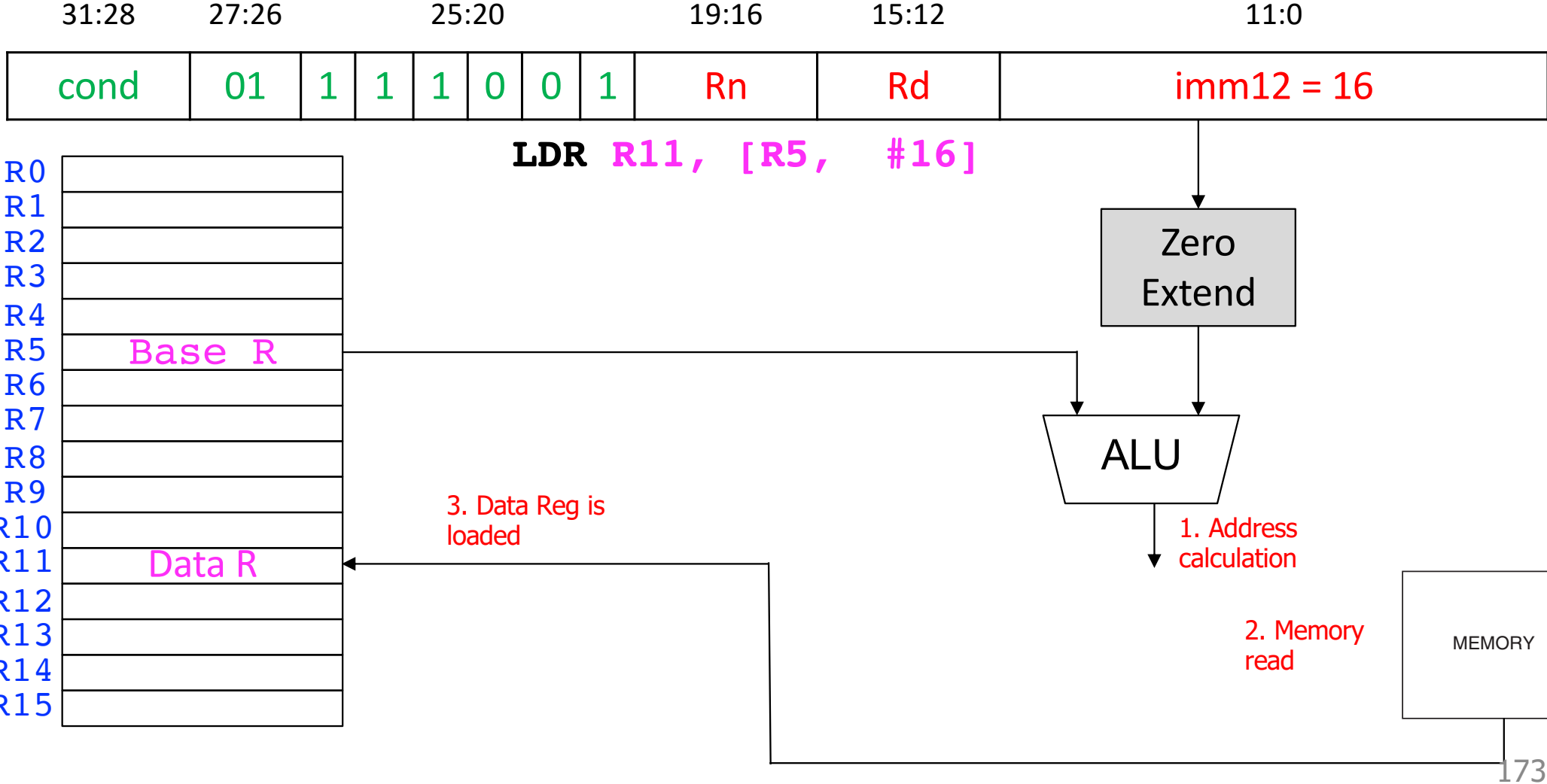
- Format of **LoaD Register** instruction

LDR R0, [R1, #12]
↓ ↓ ↓
LDR Rd, [Rn, #imm12]

- L (Bit 20) = 1: CPU performs an LDR



LDR Datapath



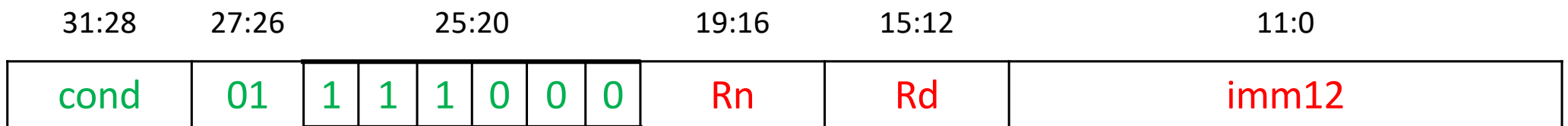
STR with Src2 as Immediate

- I (Bit 25) = 1: Src2 = imm12 where imm2 is a 12-bit unsigned offset added to the value in the base register (Rn)

- Format of **ST**ore **R**egister instruction

STR R0, [R1, #12]
↓ ↓ ↓
STR Rd, [Rn, #imm12]

- L (Bit 20) = 0: CPU performs an STR



REGISTER can hold memory **address**

[R1] : R1 is a **pointer** (\rightarrow) to Data

Memory **Load** returns Data or Value

Data is Stored in memory. Address is **INPUT**

Same Memory Stores Instructions and Data

[PC] \rightarrow Instruction

Conditional Execution

Conditional Execution

- ALU operations set the condition (**status**) flags
 - They are contained in a register called the **C**urrent **P**rogram **S**tatus **R**egister (**CPSR**)

- We can **execute** instructions **conditionally** based on a specific **condition** flag being **TRUE** or **FALSE**

Conditional Execution

- ARM allows conditional execution in two steps
 - **Step 1:** Instruction sets the condition flags (**Negative**, **Zero**, **Carry**, **Overflow**)
 - **Step 2:** Subsequent instructions execute based on the state of the condition flags

Setting the Condition Flags

- **Method 1:** Use the **COMPARE** instruction

```
CMP R5, R6
```

- The instruction **subtracts** the second source operand from the first operand (**R5 – R6**)
- The instruction does not save any result
- **Flags** are set as follows
 - Is 0, **Z = 1**
 - Is negative, **N = 1**
 - Causes a carry out, **C = 1**
 - Causes a signed overflow, **V = 1**

Setting the Condition Flags

- **Method 2:** Append the instruction mnemonic with **S**

```
ADDS R1, R2, R3
```

- The instruction adds source operands **R2** and **R3**
- It sets the flags (**S**)
- It saves the result in **R1**

Condition Mnemonics

- We can **execute** instructions **conditionally** based on the status of the flags register
- Condition for execution is encoded as a *condition mnemonic* appended to the *instruction mnemonic*

CMP	R1,	R2
SUB NE	R3,	R5, R8
ADDE EQ	R1,	R2, R3

- **NE** and **EQ** are *condition mnemonics*
- SUB executes only if **R1** is not equal to **R2** (meaning $Z = 0$)

Condition Mnemonics

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

Instructions that affect condition flags

Type	Instructions	Condition Flags
Add	ADDS, ADCS	N, Z, C, V
Subtract	SUBS, SBCS, RSBS, RSCS	N, Z, C, V
Compare	CMP, CMN	N, Z, C, V
Shifts	ASRS, LSLS, LSRS, RORS, RRXS	N, Z, C
Logical	ANDS, ORRS, EORS, BICS	N, Z, C
Test	TEQ, TST	N, Z, C
Move	MOVS, MVNS	N, Z, C
Multiply	MULS, MLAS, SMLALS, SMULLS, UMLALS, UMULLS	N, Z

Example

- R5 = 17 and R9 = 23
- Will the **SUBEQ** and **ORRMI** instructions execute?

- **N Z C V** = ?

CMP	R5,	R9	
SUBEQ	R1,	R2,	R3
ORRMI	R4,	R0,	R9

Another Example (page 307-308 of book)

- $R2 = 0x80000000$ and $R3 = 0x00000001$
- Which instructions will execute?
 - **N Z C V** = ?

CMP	$R2,$	$R3$	
ADDEQ	$R4,$	$R5,$	$\#78$
ANDHS	$R7,$	$R8,$	$R9$
ORRMI	$R10,$	$R11,$	$R12$
EORLT	$R12,$	$R7,$	$R10$

Conditional Execution in QuAC

- Bit 11 is associated with a **condition code**

Register Operands Format (R-Format)

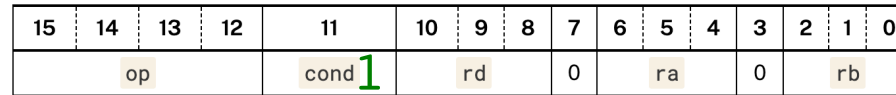
15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
op				cond	rd			0	ra			0	rb		

- ALU instructions set the **flags (a.k.a. condition codes)**. See Flags in QuAC ISA
 - The CPU uses that information to determine whether to execute the current instruction or not (e.g., store result into register file or memory)

Name	Suffix	Encoding	Condition	Meaning
Always	-	0	-	Always executes
Equals	eq	1	Z == 1	Execute if latest ALU result was zero

- If **cond field** (Instr_{11}) is **TRUE**, then
 - Execute the instruction only if the last ALU instruction set the **Z** flag to TRUE
 - Otherwise, do not execute the instruction (**depart from the usual control flow**)
- The default encoding of the **cond** field is 0 (**execute the instruction**)
 - add **r1, r2, r3** (**cond = FALSE**)
 - addeq **r1, r2, r3** (**cond = TRUE**)

Recall: Conditional Execution in QuAC



- `addeq r1, r2, r3` (cond = TRUE)
- What is the relationship between `eq` and `Z` flag?
 - A comparison of two registers shows they are equal (i.e., their difference is 0)

Name	Suffix	Encoding	Condition	Meaning
Always	-	0	-	Always executes
Equals	eq	1	Z == 1	Execute if latest ALU result was zero

Branch Instructions

Program Counter (PC) points to
(contains the **address of**) **next**
instruction to execute

Byte Address	Instructions
⋮	⋮
0040000C	E 3 A 0 1 0 6 4
00400008	E 3 A 0 2 0 4 5
00400004	E 1 5 1 0 0 0 2
00400000	2 5 8 1 3 0 2 4
⋮	⋮

← PC

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Normal (Sequential) Execution

- 32-Bit ISA with Byte-Addressable Memory
 - $PC = PC + 4$
- 64-Bit ISA with Byte-Addressable Memory
 - $PC = PC + 8$
- 32-Bit ISA with Word-Addressable Memory
 - $PC = PC + 1$

Normal (Sequential) Execution

Increment **PC** during instruction
FETCH to prepare to execute the
NEXT Instruction

However: It is often useful to break
this sequence

(1) Altering the **PC differently** can break the sequential flow of program execution

(2) Branch instructions alter the program counter to break the sequential flow of execution

Program Counter (PC)

- **Program Counter (PC)**: Contains the **address of** (or **points to**) the next instruction to be executed
- **Incremented by 4** (= 4 bytes or 32 bits) in the **FETCH** phase

- $PC = PC + 4$ to execute the next **sequential instruction** in memory

Byte Address	Instructions
⋮	⋮
0040000C	E 3 A 0 1 0 6 4
00400008	E 3 A 0 2 0 4 5
00400004	E 1 5 1 0 0 0 2
00400000	2 5 8 1 3 0 2 4 ← PC
⋮	⋮

Program Counter (PC)

- $PC = PC + 4$ to execute the next sequential instruction in memory

Byte Address	Instructions
⋮	⋮
0040000C	E 3 A 0 1 0 6 4
00400008	E 3 A 0 2 0 4 5
00400004	E 1 5 1 0 0 0 2
00400000	2 5 8 1 3 0 2 4 ← PC
⋮	⋮

Program Counter (PC)

- $PC = PC + 4$ to execute the next sequential instruction in memory

Byte Address	Instructions
⋮	⋮
0040000C	E 3 A 0 1 0 6 4
00400008	E 3 A 0 2 0 4 5
00400004	E 1 5 1 0 0 0 2
00400000	2 5 8 1 3 0 2 4
⋮	⋮

← PC

Program Counter (PC)

- $PC = PC + 4$ to execute the next sequential instruction in memory

Byte Address	Instructions
⋮	⋮
0040000C	E 3 A 0 1 0 6 4
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00400000	2 5 8 1 3 0 2 4
⋮	⋮

← PC

Program Counter (PC)

- $PC = PC + 4$ to execute the next sequential instruction in memory

Byte Address	Instructions
⋮	⋮
0040000C	E 3 A 0 1 0 6 4 ← PC
00400008	E 3 A 0 2 0 4 5
00400004	E 1 5 1 0 0 0 2
00400000	2 5 8 1 3 0 2 4
⋮	⋮

Program Counter (PC)

- $PC = PC + 4$ to execute the next sequential instruction in memory

Byte Address	Instructions	
⋮	⋮	← PC
0040000C	E 3 A 0 1 0 6 4	
00400008	E 3 A 0 2 0 4 5	
00400004	E 1 5 1 0 0 0 2	
00400000	2 5 8 1 3 0 2 4	
⋮	⋮	

Branch Instructions and PC

- Branch instructions change the **PC to point to** a different instruction than the next **sequential instruction** in memory
- Updated by a different address in the **EXECUTE phase**
 - New address **PC points to** is determined by formula (addressing mode)

Byte Address	Instructions	
⋮	⋮	← PC
0040000C	E 3 A 0 1 0 6 4	
00400008	E 3 A 0 2 0 4 5	
00400004	E 1 5 1 0 0 0 2	
00400000	2 5 8 1 3 0 2 4	
⋮	⋮	

Branch Instructions and PC

- **Update PC** to **re-execute** the four instruction sequence again (**for loop**)

Byte Address	Instructions	
⋮	⋮	← PC
0040000C	E 3 A 0 1 0 6 4	
00400008	E 3 A 0 2 0 4 5	
00400004	E 1 5 1 0 0 0 2	
00400000	2 5 8 1 3 0 2 4	
⋮	⋮	

Branch Instructions and PC

- **Update PC** to **re-execute** the four instruction sequence again (**for loop**)

Byte Address	Instructions
⋮	⋮
0040000C	E 3 A 0 1 0 6 4
00400008	E 3 A 0 2 0 4 5
00400004	E 1 5 1 0 0 0 2
00400000	2 5 8 1 3 0 2 4 ← PC
⋮	⋮

Branch Instructions

- Typically, a computer program is executed in sequence
 - First instruction is executed, then the second, then the third, and so on
- **Decision making** is an important **advantage** of computers
 - `if` and `if-else` statements
 - `for` and `while` loops
 - `switch-case` statements
- ARM provides **branch** instructions to **skip** and **repeat** code

Type of Branches

- Branch (**B**)
 - Branches to another **TARGET** instruction
 - **Unconditional branch**: always executes the target instruction
 - **Conditional branch**: either executes the **TARGET** instruction or the next sequential instruction in memory based on a condition
 - **BEQ** (Branch if the **Zero** flag is set)
 - **BNE** (Branch if the **Zero** flag is not set)
- Branch and Link (**BL**)
 - A special branch to provide support for **functions** in C++ or Java
 - **Architectural support for high-level language needs**

Unconditional Branch

- The **Branch** in this example is **unconditional** and **always TAKEN (T)**

```
Assembly code:
ADD  R1, R2, #17
B   TARGET
ORR  R1, R1, R3
AND  R3, R1, #0xFF
TARGET
SUB  R1, R1, #78
```

- After encountering **B**, the CPU executes **SUB** instead of **ORR**
- The **label TARGET** is a **memory address** in human readable form
 - **TARGET** is transformed into a **memory address** by a tool called **assembler**
 - Assemblers transform assembly code into machine code (**0s and 1s**)

Assembly language let us give meaningful
(human-readable and easy to differentiate)
symbolic names (labels) to memory locations,
such as TARGET, rather than use binary addresses

We call these names **Symbolic Addresses**

Conditional Branch

- **Conditional** branch uses **condition mnemonics**

- Recall **conditional** execution and **condition mnemonics**

Recall: ARM Condition Mnemonics

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

Conditional Branch

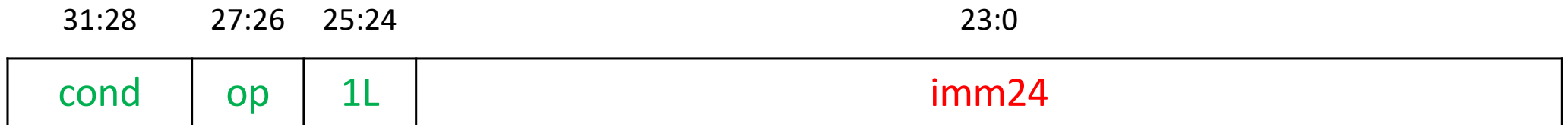
- Conditional branch uses **condition mnemonics**

Assembly code:

```
MOV  R0,  #4
ADD  R1,  R0,  R0
CMP  R0,  R1
BEQ  THERE
ORR  R1,  R1,  R1
THERE
ADD  R1,  R1,  #78
```

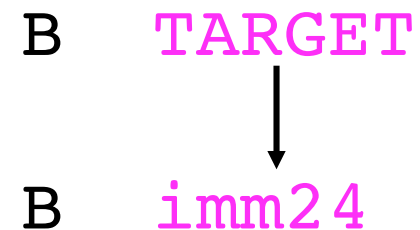
- CMP subtracts **R1** from **R0** and **sets** all **flags**
 - **Z** flag is **FALSE** because **R0 – R1** is not **0**
- The branch **BEQ** **evaluates** to **FALSE**
 - Branch is **NOT TAKEN (NT)**
 - The next instruction executed is the ORR instruction

Instruction Format – 3: Branch



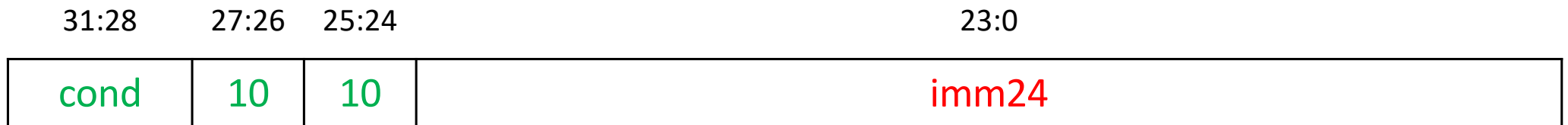
- $op = 10$
- $imm24 = 24\text{-bit signed immediate}$
- The two bits [25:24] form the funct field
 - Bit 25 is always 1
 - L bit: L = 0 for B (Branch)
 - L bit: L = 1 for BL (Branch and Link)

- Format



Branch with L = 0

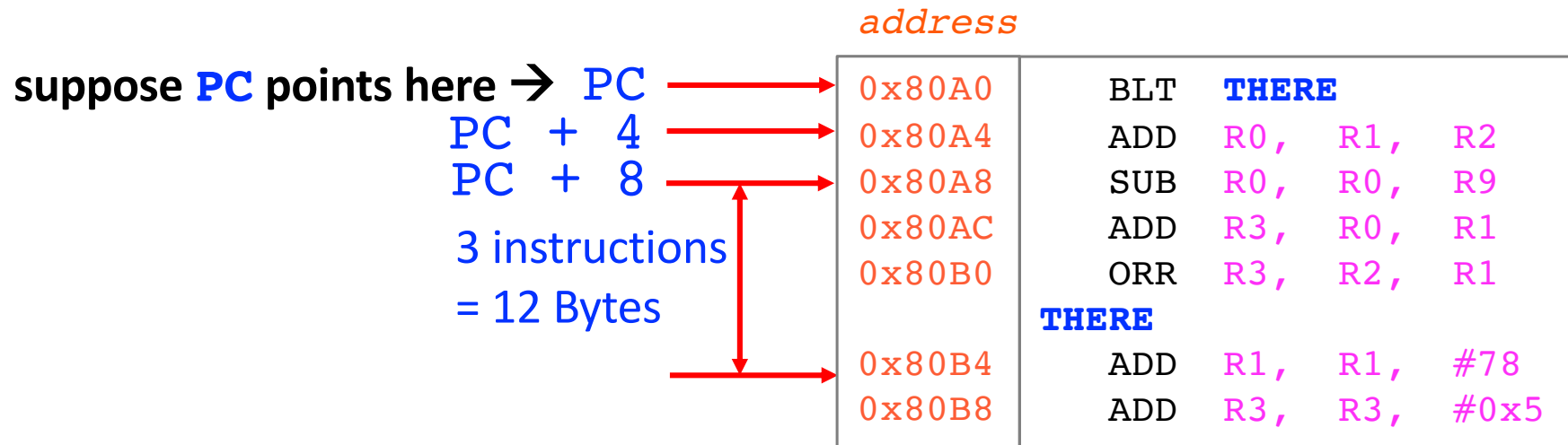
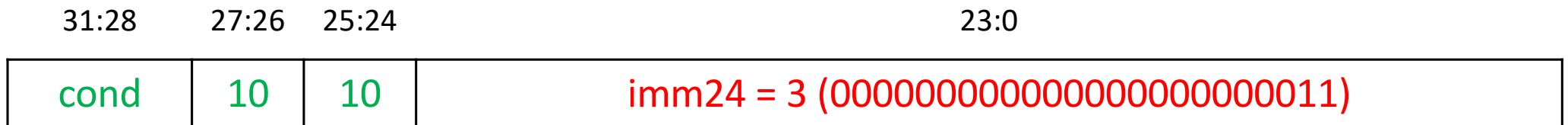
- Branch with L bit (Bit 24) as 0 is a regular branch



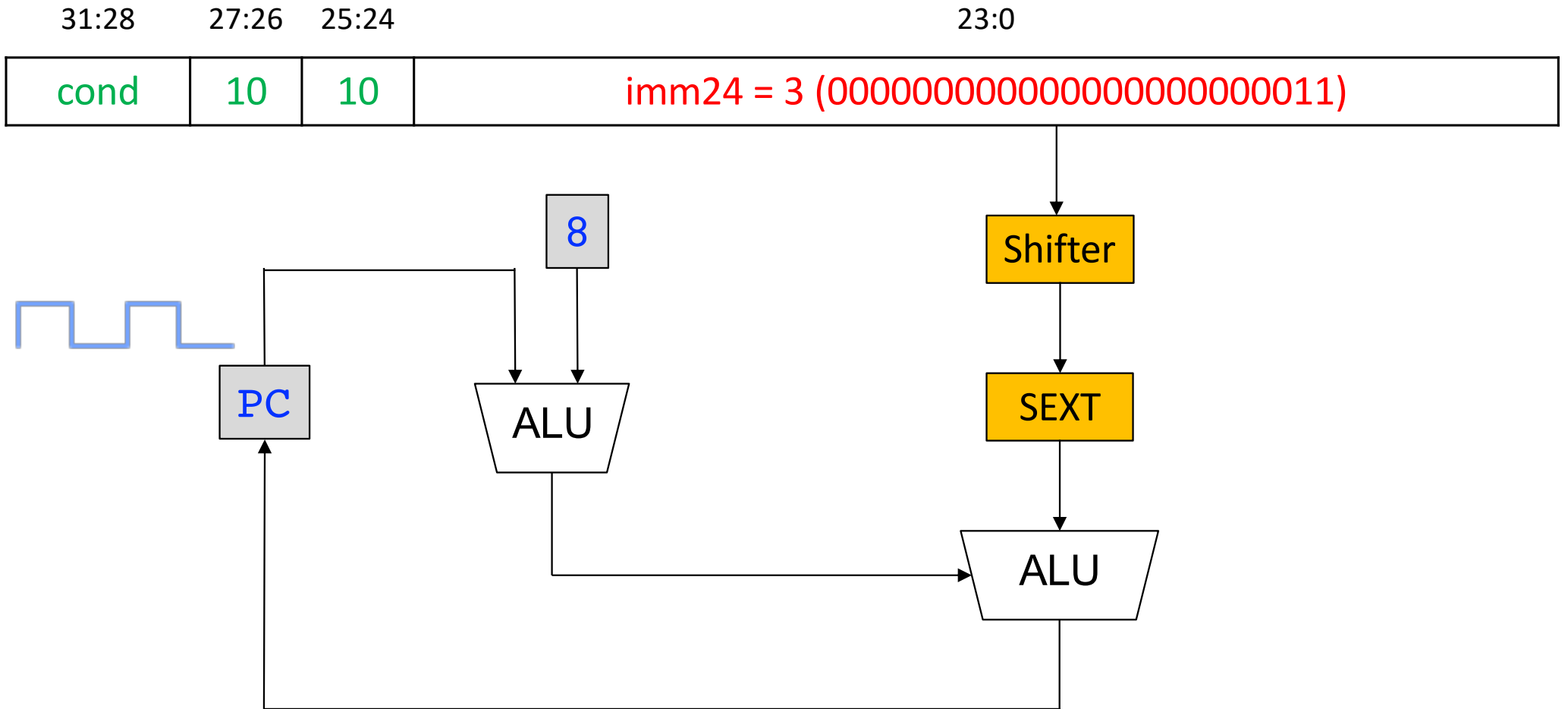
- **Branch Target Address (BTA):** The address of the next instruction to execute if the branch is taken
- How is **BTA** calculated?
 1. Shift left `imm24` by 2 (to convert **words** to **bytes**)
 2. Sign-extend (copy `Instruction[23]` into `Instruction[24:31]`)
 3. Add `PC + 8`

BTA Calculation Example

- Instruction encodes the distance from PC + 8 as 3 32-bit words



BTA Calculation DataPath



BTA Calculation Summary

The processor calculates the **BTA** in three steps

1. Shift left imm24 by 2 (to convert words to bytes)
2. Sign-extend (copy Instr₂₃ into Instr_{31:24})
3. Add PC + 8

0 1 1 = 3

0 1 1 0 0 = 12

Branch-Related Terminology

- **Two main types of branches**
 - **Conditional branch:** Executes the next sequential instruction or **TARGET** instruction based on a condition
 - **Unconditional branch:** Always (unconditionally) executes the **TARGET** instruction
- **Branch Target**
 - Memory **address** of the **TARGET** instruction
- **Branch Condition**
 - Condition which if **TRUE** branch jumps to the **TARGET** instruction
- **Branch Resolution/Evaluation**
 - The act of evaluating the branch condition
 - Two outcomes of branch resolution are:
 - **Taken Branch (T):** branch condition **evaluates** to **TRUE**
 - **Untaken (Not Taken or NT) Branch:** branch **evaluates** to **FALSE**
- **Branch behavior**
 - **Strongly** (most of times) **Taken/Untaken** **OR** **Weakly** (some of the times) **Taken/Untaken**
 - **Always Taken** **OR** **Always Untaken**
- **Branch Prediction**
 - In high-performance CPUs, branches prevent the CPU from doing useful work
 - Modern CPUs use a branch predictor to **predict** the branch **direction** (**T/NT**) and branch **TARGET**

if and if-else

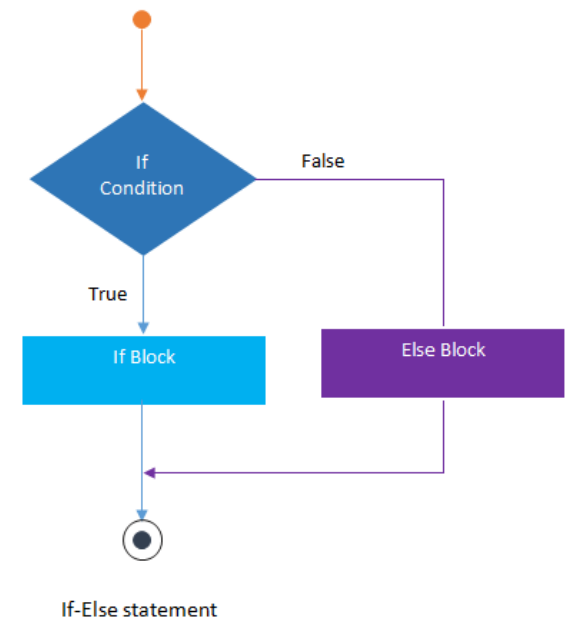
- We will study high-level language (C) to assembly transformation in this course

The Three Program Constructs

- We will see three basic constructs used in **structured programs** (**construct** comes from **constructing** a program)
- **Sequential** ✓
 - One subtask, followed by other, never going back to first
- **Conditional**
 - One of the two subtasks but not both, depending on some condition
- **Iterative**
 - Doing a subtask a number of times

Conditional Statements

- If the condition is **TRUE**, do one subtask. Otherwise, do a different subtask
- A subtask or block of code may do nothing
- We call it a **conditional** construct
- All languages provide conditional constructs



if Statement

C code:

```
if (apples == oranges)
    f = i + 1;
f = f - i;
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = apples
; R1 = oranges
; R2 = f
; R3 = i
    CMP    R0,    R1
    BNE    L1
    ADD    R2,    R3,    #1
L1
    SUB    R2,    R2,    R3
```

- apples == oranges?
- if yes, branch to L1
- if no, add 1 to i

- Subtract i from f

- The assembly code checks for the **opposite condition** in C code
- Skips the **if** block when the **condition** is not satisfied
- If the branch is **NOT TAKEN**, the **if** block is executed

if Statement

- It is very rarely the case that computer programs can be written only one way
 - Use the **BEQ** instruction instead of **BNE**
 - Using conditional execution (**next**)

if Statement

C code:

```
if (apples == oranges)
    f = i + 1;
f = f - i;
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = apples
; R1 = oranges
; R2 = f
; R3 = i
    CMP    R0,    R1
    BEQ    L1
    B      L2
L1
    ADD    R2,    R3,    #1
L2
    SUB    R2,    R2,    R3
```

- apples == oranges?
- if yes, branch to L1
- if no, add 1 to i
- Subtract i from f

- More faithfully translates the high-level code
- If the branch is **TAKEN**, the **if** block is executed
- There is an extra branch instruction hence worst performance

if with Conditional Execution

C code:

```
if (apples == oranges)
    f = i + 1;
f = f - i;
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = apples
; R1 = oranges
; R2 = f
; R3 = i
    CMP     R0, R1
    ADDEQ  R2, R3, #1
    SUB   R2, R2, R3
```

- apples == oranges?
- if yes, add 1 to i
- Subtract i from f



- This solution is **shorter** and **faster** (one fewer instruction)
- If the **if** block is long, **it is tedious to write** conditional mnemonics
- Conditional execution requires **NEEDLESS fetching of instructions** from memory
- In **high-performance** CPUs, **branch instructions introduce extra delay** if the branch predictor **makes a mistake** (branch misprediction)

if-else

if-else Statement

C code:

```
if (apples == oranges)
    f = i + 1;
else
    f = f - i;
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = apples
; R1 = oranges
; R2 = f
; R3 = i
    CMP    R0,    R1
    BNE    L1
    ADD    R2,    R3,    #1
    B     L2
L1
    SUB    R2,    R2,    R3
L2
```

- apples == oranges?
- if yes, branch to L1
- if no, add 1 to i
- Branch to L2
- Subtract i from f

if-else Statement

C code:

```
if (apples == oranges)
    f = i + 1;
else
    f = f - i;
...
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = apples
; R1 = oranges
; R2 = f
; R3 = i
CMP    R0, R1
BNE    L1
ADD    R2, R3, #1
B      L2
L1
SUB    R2, R2, R3
L2
```

- apples == oranges?
- if yes, branch to L1
- if no, add 1 to i
- Branch to L2
- Subtract i from f

if-else Statement

C code:

```
if (apples == oranges)
    f = i + 1;
else
    f = f - i;
...
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = apples
; R1 = oranges
; R2 = f
; R3 = i
    CMP    R0, R1
    BNE    L1
    ADD    R2, R3, #1
    B     L2
L1
    SUB    R2, R2, R3
L2
```

- apples == oranges?
- if yes, branch to L1
- if no, add 1 to i
- Branch to L2
- Subtract i from f

if-else Statement

C code:

```
if (apples == oranges)
    f = i + 1;
else
    f = f - i;
...
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = apples
; R1 = oranges
; R2 = f
; R3 = i
    CMP    R0, R1
    BNE    L1
    ADD    R2, R3, #1
    B      L2
L1
    SUB    R2, R2, R3
L2
```

- apples == oranges?
- if yes, branch to L1
- if no, add 1 to i
- Branch to L2
- Subtract i from f

if-else Statement

C code:

```
if (apples == oranges)
    f = i + 1;
else
    f = f - i;
```

...

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = apples
; R1 = oranges
; R2 = f
; R3 = i
    CMP    R0, R1
    BNE    L1
    ADD    R2, R3, #1
    B      L2
L1
    SUB    R2, R2, R3
```

L2

- apples == oranges?
- if yes, branch to L1
- if no, add 1 to i
- Branch to L2
- Subtract i from f

if-else Statement

C code:

```
if (apples == oranges)
    f = i + 1;
else
    f = f - i;
...
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = apples
; R1 = oranges
; R2 = f
; R3 = i
    CMP    R0, R1
    BNE    L1
    ADD    R2, R3, #1
    B      L2
L1
    SUB    R2, R2, R3
L2
```

- apples == oranges?
- if yes, branch to L1
- if no, add 1 to i
- Branch to L2
- Subtract i from f

if-else Statement

C code:

```
if (apples == oranges)
    f = i + 1;
else
    f = f - i;
```

...

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = apples
; R1 = oranges
; R2 = f
; R3 = i
```

```
CMP    R0, R1
```

```
BNE    L1
```

```
ADD    R2, R3, #1
```

```
B      L2
```

L1

```
SUB    R2, R2, R3
```

L2

- apples == oranges?
- if yes, branch to L1
- if no, add 1 to i
- Branch to L2
- Subtract i from f

`if-else` Statement

- It is very rarely the case that computer programs can be written only one way
- **Do it yourself:** Find an alternative way to write the `if-else` statement

if-else with Conditional Execution

C code:

```
if (apples == oranges)
    f = i + 1;
else
    f = f - i;
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = apples
; R1 = oranges
; R2 = f
; R3 = i
    CMP     R0, R1
    ADDEQ  R2, R3, #1
    SUBNE  R2, R2, R3
```

- This solution is **shorter** and **faster** (one fewer instruction)
- Suppose the **if** block is long, it is then **tedious to write** conditional mnemonics
- Conditional execution requires **NEEDLESS** fetching of instructions from memory
- On the other hand, in **high-performance** CPUs, **branch instructions introduce extra delay** if the branch predictor **makes a mistake** (branch misprediction)

Switch Statement

switch-case Statement

C code:

```
switch (button) {  
    case 1: atm = 20; break;  
    case 2: atm = 50; break;  
    case 3: atm = 100; break;  
    default: atm = 0; break;  
}
```

- Execute one of several blocks of code (**cases**) depending on the condition
- **Break** out of the entire **switch** block {...} after executing a specific block
- In the above example **condition** is the state of variable **button**
- If no conditions are met, the **default** block is executed

switch-case Statement

C code:

```
switch (button) {  
    case 1: atm = 20; break;  
    case 2: atm = 50; break;  
    case 3: atm = 100; break;  
    default: atm = 0; break;  
}
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = button  
; R1 = atm  
CMP    R0, #1  
MOVEQ  R1, #20  
BEQ    DONE  
-----  
CMP    R0, #2  
MOVEQ  R1, #50  
BEQ    DONE  
-----  
CMP    R0, #3  
MOVEQ  R1, #100  
BEQ    DONE  
-----  
MOV    R1, #0  
DONE
```

- Comment begins with ;
- Another comment
- is button == 1?
- atm = 20
- break out
- is button == 2?
- atm = 50
- break out
- is button == 3?
- atm = 100
- break out
- Execute default case

switch-case Statement

C code:

```
switch (button) {  
    case 1: atm = 20; break;  
    case 2: atm = 50; break;  
    case 3: atm = 100; break;  
    default: atm = 0; break;  
}
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = button  
; R1 = atm  
CMP    R0, #1  
MOVEQ  R1, #20  
BEQ    DONE  
CMP    R0, #2  
MOVEQ  R1, #50  
BEQ    DONE  
CMP    R0, #3  
MOVEQ  R1, #100  
BEQ    DONE  
MOV    R1, #0  
DONE
```

- Comment begins with ;
- Another comment
- is button == 1?
- atm = 20
- break out
- is button == 2?
- atm = 50
- break out
- is button == 3?
- atm = 100
- break out
- Execute default case

switch-case Statement

C code:

```
switch (button) {  
    case 1: atm = 20; break;  
    case 2: atm = 50; break;  
    case 3: atm = 100; break;  
    default: atm = 0; break;  
}
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = button  
; R1 = atm  
CMP    R0, #1  
MOVEQ  R1, #20  
BEQ    DONE  
CMP    R0, #2  
MOVEQ  R1, #50  
BEQ    DONE  
CMP    R0, #3  
MOVEQ  R1, #100  
BEQ    DONE  
MOV    R1, #0  
DONE
```

- Comment begins with ;
- Another comment
- is button == 1?
- atm = 20
- break out
- is button == 2?
- atm = 50
- break out
- is button == 3?
- atm = 100
- break out
- Execute default case

switch-case Statement

C code:

```
switch (button) {  
    case 1: atm = 20; break;  
    case 2: atm = 50; break;  
    case 3: atm = 100; break;  
    default: atm = 0; break;  
}
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = button  
; R1 = atm  
CMP    R0, #1  
MOVEQ  R1, #20  
BEQ    DONE  
CMP    R0, #2  
MOVEQ  R1, #50  
BEQ    DONE  
CMP    R0, #3  
MOVEQ  R1, #100  
BEQ    DONE  
MOV    R1, #0  
DONE
```

- Comment begins with ;
- Another comment
- is button == 1?
- atm = 20
- break out
- is button == 2?
- atm = 50
- break out
- is button == 3?
- atm = 100
- break out
- Execute default case

switch-case Statement

C code:

```
switch (button) {  
    case 1: atm = 20; break;  
    case 2: atm = 50; break;  
    case 3: atm = 100; break;  
    default: atm = 0; break;  
}
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = button  
; R1 = atm  
CMP    R0, #1  
MOVEQ  R1, #20  
BEQ    DONE  
CMP    R0, #2  
MOVEQ  R1, #50  
BEQ    DONE  
CMP    R0, #3  
MOVEQ  R1, #100  
BEQ    DONE  
MOV    R1, #0  
DONE
```

- Comment begins with ;
- Another comment
- is button == 1?
- atm = 20
- break out
- is button == 2?
- atm = 50
- break out
- is button == 3?
- atm = 100
- break out
- Execute default case

We will cover loops and arrays
after the teaching break

Next: Microarchitecture

For Loop

Loops

- Life is full of **repetition!**
 - Standard routines **repeat** each day, week, month, ...
 - **Terminating** at some point
- **Repetition (iteration) is also the essence of computing!**
 - Compute the sum of first one billion numbers
 - Go over each student record and change numerical grade to letter
 - Terminate if no more records are found
- CPUs are very good at looping sometimes but not always depending on a condition!

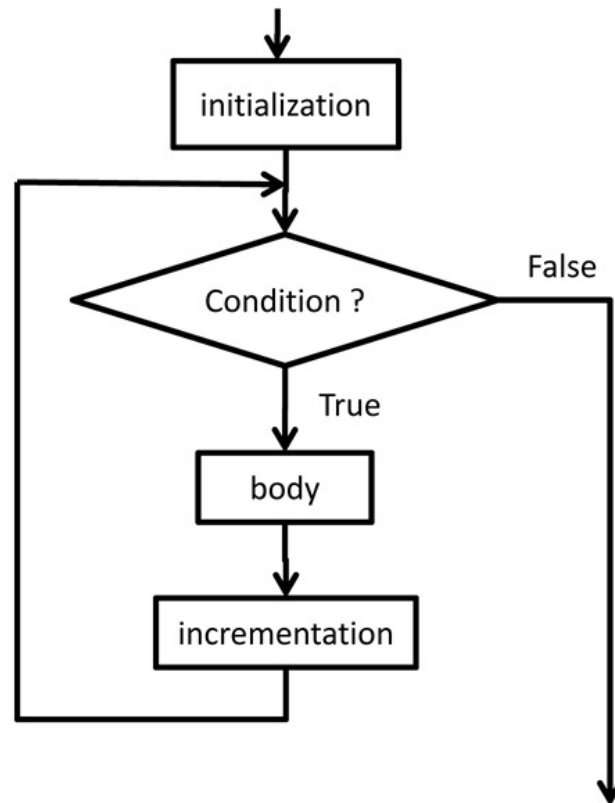
Loops

- Loops are **iterative** constructs that repeat a subtask several times, but only as long as some **condition** is **TRUE** (**subtask = sequence of instructions**)
- If the condition is **TRUE**, do the **subtask** (also called **loop body**)
- After the subtask is finished, go back and check the **condition** again
- As long as the result of the condition is **TRUE**, the program continues to carry out the same subtask again and again
- The first time the test is **NOT TRUE**, the program proceeds onward

Loops

- Loops are **iterative** only as long as some condition is true
- If the condition is false, the loop terminates
- After the subtask is completed, the loop starts over
- As long as the condition is true, the loop will continue to carry out the same subtask
- The first time the condition is true, the loop starts

```
for( initialization; condition; incrementation )  
    body;
```



...al times, but

...ody)

...:ion again

... continues to

... onward

Loops

- We will look at
 - For Loop
 - While Loop
- **Our focus**
 - How are loops in high-level languages transformed (translated) into assembly by human or compiler?

For Loop in C

C code:

```
int i;  
int sum = 0;  
  
for (i = 0; i < 10; i = i + 1)  
    sum = sum + i;  
...  
...
```

- The variable “**i**” is called the loop **index** or **counter**
- The **For statement** has three components
 - **i = 0** : index initialization
 - **i < 10** : loop termination condition
 - **i = i + 1** : loop advancement
- The **body** of the loop can have one or more statements

For Loop in ARM Assembly

C code:

```
int i;
int sum = 0;

for (i = 0; i < 10; i = i + 1)
    sum = sum + i;
...
...
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = i
; R1 = sum
MOV R0, #0
MOV R1, #0
FOR
CMP R0, #10
BGE DONE
ADD R1, R1, R0
ADD R0, R0, #1
B FOR
DONE
```

- Comment begins with ;
- Another comment
- Initialize i
- Initialize sum
- Label/Address of CMP
- check **condition**: $i < 10$?
- if ($i \geq 10$) exit loop
- $sum = sum + i$
- Increment i
- repeat loop

- **High-level code:** Few lines (statements); **Assembly code:** Many lines (instructions)
- **High-level code:** Variable names; **Assembly code:** Registers & memory addresses
- **High-level code:** Hides machine details (e.g., MOVement); **ASM:** Expose details
- In both C and assembly, the **control flow** (sequential and iterative constructs) are visible
 - Easier to identify in C, more difficult in assembly
- **Let's do a line-by-line comparison of the above code ...**

For Loop in ARM Assembly

C code:

```
int i;
int sum = 0;

for (i = 0; i < 10; i = i + 1)
    sum = sum + i;
...
...
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = i
; R1 = sum
MOV R0, #0
MOV R1, #0
FOR
CMP R0, #10
BGE DONE
ADD R1, R1, R0
ADD R0, R0, #1
B FOR
DONE
```

- Comment begins with ;
- Another comment
- Initialize i
- Initialize sum
- Label/Address of CMP
- check **condition**: $i < 10$?
- if $(i \geq 10)$ exit loop
- $sum = sum + i$
- Increment i
- repeat loop

- In high-level language programs, we **initialize variables**
 - In assembly **initializing variables** translates to **initializing registers**

For Loop in ARM Assembly

C code:

```
int i;  
int sum = 0;  
  
for (i = 0; i < 10; i = i + 1)  
    sum = sum + i;  
...  
...
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = i  
; R1 = sum  
MOV R0, #0  
MOV R1, #0  
FOR  
CMP R0, #10  
BGE DONE  
ADD R1, R1, R0  
ADD R0, R0, #1  
B FOR  
DONE
```

- Comment begins with ;
- Another comment
- Initialize i
- Initialize sum
- Label/Address of CMP
- check **condition**: $i < 10$?
- if $(i \geq 10)$ exit loop
- $sum = sum + i$
- Increment i
- repeat loop

For Loop in ARM Assembly

C code:

```
int i;  
int sum = 0;  
  
for (i = 0; i < 10; i = i + 1)  
    sum = sum + i;  
...  
...
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = i  
; R1 = sum  
MOV R0, #0  
MOV R1, #0  
FOR  
CMP R0, #10  
BGE DONE  
ADD R1, R1, R0  
ADD R0, R0, #1  
B FOR  
DONE
```

- Comment begins with ;
- Another comment
- Initialize i
- Initialize sum
- Label/Address of CMP
- check **condition**: i < 10 ?
- if (i >= 10) exit loop
- sum = sum + i
- Increment i
- repeat loop

- Check **termination** condition to **break out of the loop** if condition is met

For Loop in ARM Assembly

C code:

```
int i;  
int sum = 0;  
  
for (i = 0; i < 10; i = i + 1)  
    sum = sum + i;  
...  
...
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = i  
; R1 = sum  
MOV R0, #0  
MOV R1, #0  
FOR  
CMP R0, #10  
BGE DONE  
ADD R1, R1, R0  
ADD R0, R0, #1  
B FOR  
DONE
```

- Comment begins with ;
- Another comment
- Initialize i
- Initialize sum
- Label/Address of CMP
- check **condition**: $i < 10$?
- if $(i \geq 10)$ exit loop
- $sum = sum + i$
- Increment i
- repeat loop

- Add the loop counter i to the variable sum

For Loop in ARM Assembly

C code:

```
int i;  
int sum = 0;  
  
for (i = 0; i < 10; i = i + 1)  
    sum = sum + i;  
...  
...
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = i  
; R1 = sum  
MOV R0, #0  
MOV R1, #0  
FOR  
CMP R0, #10  
BGE DONE  
ADD R1, R1, R0  
ADD R0, R0, #1  
B FOR  
DONE
```

- Comment begins with ;
- Another comment
- Initialize i
- Initialize sum
- Label/Address of CMP
- check **condition**: $i < 10$?
- if $(i \geq 10)$ exit loop
- $sum = sum + i$
- Increment i
- repeat loop

- Increment the loop counter

For Loop in ARM Assembly

C code:

```
int i;  
int sum = 0;  
for (i = 0; i < 10; i = i + 1)  
    sum = sum + i;  
...  
...
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = i  
; R1 = sum  
MOV R0, #0  
MOV R1, #0  
FOR  
CMP R0, #10  
BGE DONE  
ADD R1, R1, R0  
ADD R0, R0, #1  
B FOR  
DONE
```

- Comment begins with ;
- Another comment
- Initialize i
- Initialize sum
- Label/Address of CMP
- check **condition**: $i < 10$?
- if $(i \geq 10)$ exit loop
- $sum = sum + i$
- Increment i
- repeat loop

- Keep iterating by branching back to the **CMP** instruction

For Loop in ARM Assembly

C code:

```
int i;  
int sum = 0;  
  
for (i = 0; i < 10; i = i + 1)  
    sum = sum + i;  
...  
...
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = i  
; R1 = sum  
MOV R0, #0  
MOV R1, #0  
FOR  
CMP R0, #10  
BGE DONE  
ADD R1, R1, R0  
ADD R0, R0, #1  
B FOR  
DONE
```

- Comment begins with ;
- Another comment
- Initialize i
- Initialize sum
- Label/Address of CMP
- check **condition**: $i < 10$?
- if $(i \geq 10)$ exit loop
- $sum = sum + i$
- Increment i
- repeat loop

- Keep iterating by branching back to the **CMP** instruction

Same **For** Loop in a Different Style

- Let's see the same for loop translated using a **different style**

Same **For** Loop in a Different Style

C code:

```
int i;
int sum = 0;

for (i = 0; i < 10; i = i + 1)
    sum = sum + i;
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = i
; R1 = sum
MOV    R0,    #0
MOV    R1,    #0
COND
CMP    R0,    #10
BLT    FOR
B      DONE
FOR
ADD    R1,    R1,    R0
ADD    R0,    R0,    #1
B      COND
DONE
```

- check condition
- if $i < 10$ repeat
- if $i \geq 10$, leave for
- add sum to i
- Increment i
- Iterate again

- More faithfully follows the for loop semantics in C
- Use **BLT** instead of **BGE**
- Different ways to translate a high-level statement into ASM

Aside: Syntax versus Semantics

- **Syntax: Arrangement** of keywords in a statement

- There is a ; after a statement
- The loop statement uses parentheses

C code:

```
int i;  
int sum = 0;  
  
for (i = 0; i < 10; i = i + 1)  
    sum = sum + i;
```

- **Semantics: Meaning** of keywords and their arrangement

- Repeat the instructions in the loop body **until condition is not met**
- Add **sum** to **i**
- What the CPU does depends on statement and instruction semantics

- Without **rules of syntax**, it would be **tedious** to **understand programmer's intention**
- Without **clearly defined instruction semantics**: **difficult to write programs to solve specific problems & to build CPUs that do "right" thing**

Different way to solve the same problem, more efficient translation

- Let's sum numbers from 0 – 9 in a different way
- And see if it helps **reducing the number of instructions** required for translation

Decremental Loop

C code:

```
int i;  
int sum = 0;  
  
for (i = 9; i >= 0; i = i - 1)  
    sum = sum + i;
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = i  
; R1 = sum  
MOV    R0,    #9  
MOV    R1,    #0  
FOR  
ADD    R1,    R1,    R0  
SUBS   R0,    R0,    #1  
BNE    FOR  
DONE
```

- add sum to i
- i-- and set flags
- if i!=0 keep looping

- **Saves 2 instructions per iteration compared to optimized (increment) version**
 - Decrement loop variable & compare: **SUBS R0, R0, #1**
 - Only 1 branch instead of 2
- **MANY** ways to **solve (transform)** a **high-level problem** into **assembly**
 - **Code Optimization:** A sub-field of **Compilers**
 - Aims to **minimize total instruction count**, **branch instruction count**, and **maximize register utilization** (to avoid frequent trips to memory)

For Loop

- Repeat **TEN** times: **add 10** to **R1**
 - What is wrong with the code below (one way to think of a FOR loop)?

```
ADD R1, R1, #10
ADD R1, R1, #10
ADD R1, R1, #10
ADD R1, R1, #10
ADD R1, R1, #10
ADD R1, R1, #10
ADD R1, R1, #10
ADD R1, R1, #10
ADD R1, R1, #10
ADD R1, R1, #10
```

- Poor practice**
- Code is not reusable**
 - Next time it may be 20 not 10
- Instructions cost Memory!!**
 - Each instruction is stored in memory and has an address
 - Memory is expensive!
 - Fast Instruction Cache built out of SRAM inside CPU is very premium
- How many instructions for above with a For loop using branch instruction?

While Loop

While Loop in C

- While loops **iterate** a number of times until the “controlling condition” or sentinel is **NOT** met (**FALSE**)

```
C code:  
while (CONDITION) {  
    ...  
    ...  
}
```

- Special cases of while loops: execute forever (**left**) and never (**right**)

```
C code:  
while (TRUE) {  
    ...  
    ...  
}
```

```
C code:  
while (FALSE) {  
    ...  
    ...  
}
```

Example While Loop

- Determine X such that $2^X = 128$

C code:

```
int POW = 1;
int X = 0;

while (POW != 128) {
    POW = POW * 2;
    X = X + 1;
}
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = POW
; R1 = X
MOV R0, #1
MOV R1, #0
WHILE
CMP R0, #128
BEQ DONE
LSL R0, R0, #1
ADD R1, R1, #1
B WHILE
DONE
```

- loop initialization
- POW = 1
- X = 0
- POW != 128?
- if POW == 128, exit loop
- POW = POW * 2
- X = X + 1
- repeat loop

Arrays



Data Structure: Collection of data values organized in a particular way in memory for ease of storage and access. Two aspects: organization and functions to read and update values

Examples: Array, Linked List, Stack, Queue

What is an Array?

- **Array:** A list of **data objects** of the same **type** arranged **sequentially in memory**
Array of 1-Byte Objects



- Array of 4-Byte Objects

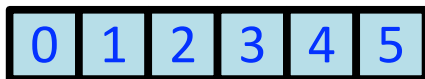


- A **data object** is a memory location whose content represent “some” value
 - Post office box can store letters, Amazon gifts, pamphlets (all these are pkgs. **types**)
 - How do we know ***interpret*** the **type** of what is stored in the box?
 - Either we know **what we placed there**, or we know **how to look up** the **type**
- The **interpretation** of the value in memory depends on its **type**
 - 8-Byte Unsigned Integers (**unsigned int**)
 - 4-Byte 2’s Complement Integers (**int**)
 - A 12-Byte student record with **{uint student_Id, int grade}**



Array in Memory

- The array below has six **elements** and each **element** in a single **byte**
 - The **index** of the first **element** (**byte**) is 0, then 1, then 2,
- It's **base** (starting) address in memory is 0
 - The address of the first element is 0, second element is 1, last element is 5



↑ Base Address = Address of the first element

- Another array with six elements



↑ Base Address = Address of the first element

- Same starting address as the first array and same indexing scheme (0, 1, 2, ...)
- **Addresses of array elements in memory are different**
 - Second element is at an offset 4, last one at 20. Offsets are in bytes

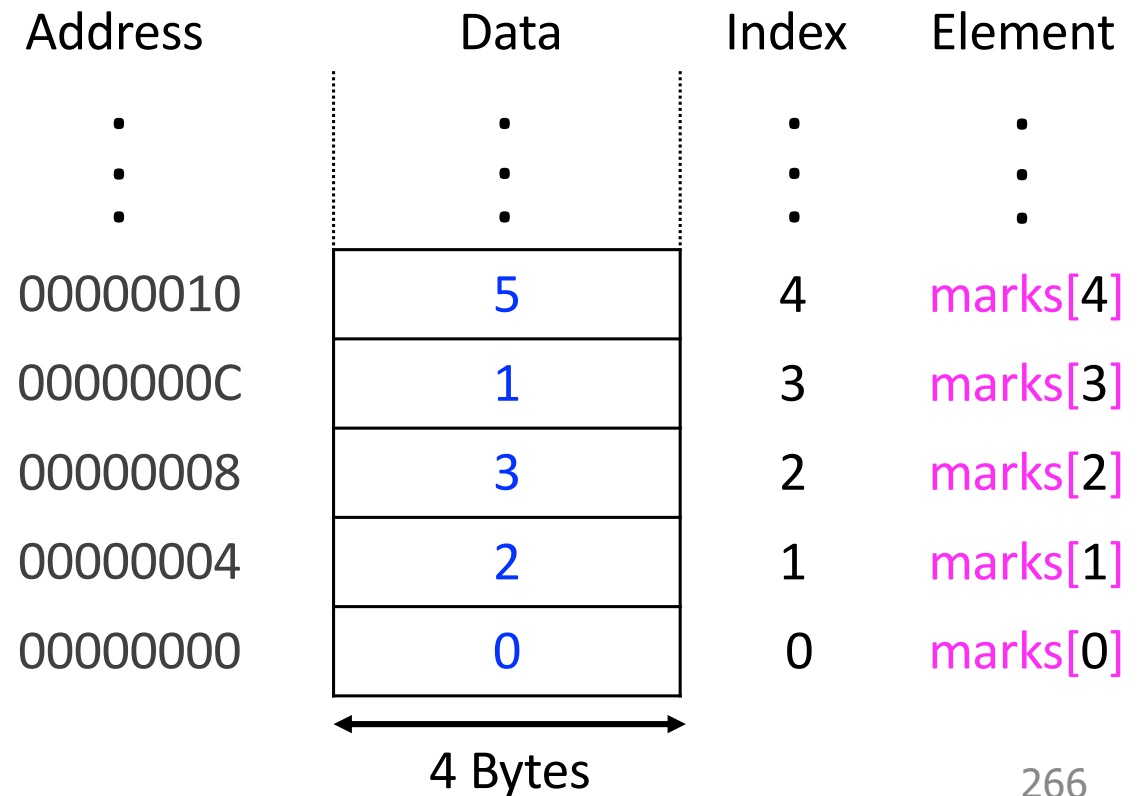
Array Syntax in C

- Arrays contain a collection of similarly typed elements
- Elements are stored contiguously in memory

int is 4 bytes on most architectures

C code:

```
int marks[5] = {0, 2, 3, 1, 5};  
int a = marks[0];  
marks[3] = 10;
```



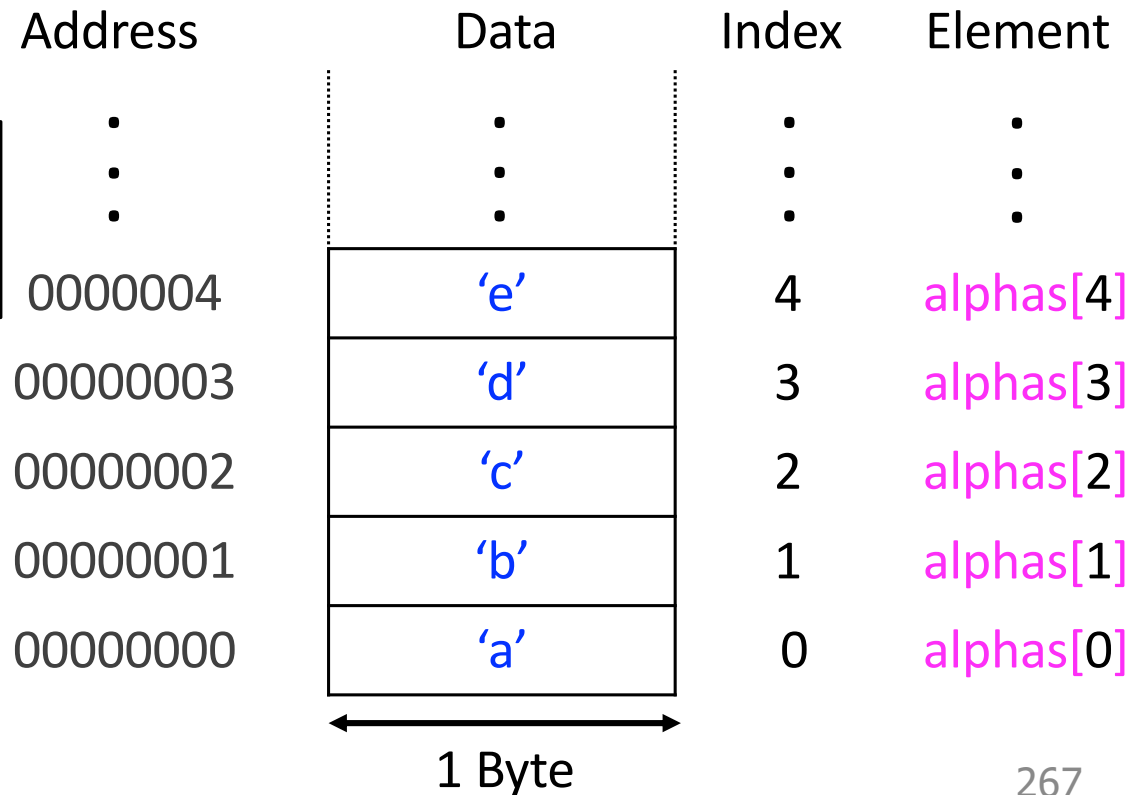
Array of Characters

- Array of **characters** (**char** is a data type in C)
- **char** is used for representing characters

char is always 1 byte

C code:

```
char alphas[5] = {'a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e'};
```



Example Array in C

Add 10 to each element of the 200-element scores array

C code:

```
int i;
int scores[200];
// initialization code not
//shown
...
for (i = 0; i<200; i++)
    scores[i] = scores[i] + 10;
```

Array Sum

Add 10 to each element of the 200-element scores array

C code:

```
int i;  
int scores[200];  
// initialization code not  
//shown  
...  
for (i = 0; i<200; i++)  
    scores[i] = scores[i] + 10;
```

	<i>address</i>	<i>data</i>	
	0x14000010	90	scores[4]
	0x1400000C	76	...
	0x14000008	80	scores[2]
	0x14000004	40	scores[1]
base →	0x14000000	100	scores[0]

← 4 bytes →

Showing the scores array in memory

Array Sum

Add 10 to each element of the 200-element scores array

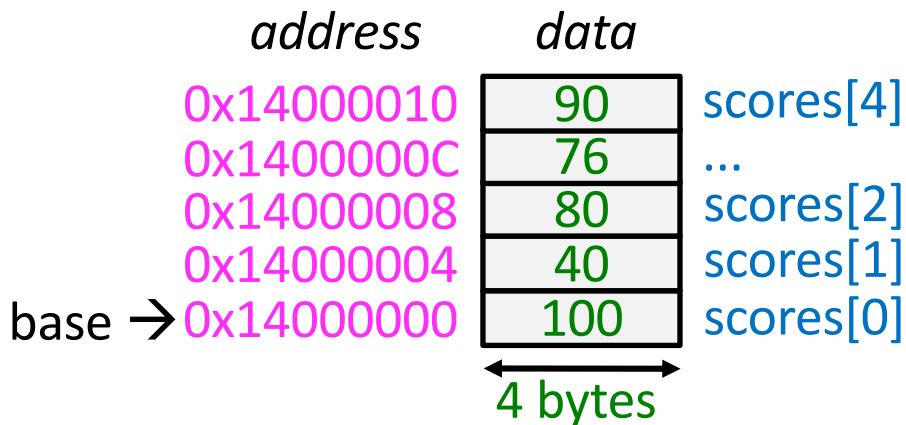
C code:

```
int i;
int scores[200];
// initialization code not
//shown
...
for (i = 0; i<200; i++)
    scores[i] = scores[i] + 10;
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = array base address
; R1 = i
MOV R0, #0x14000000
MOV R1, 0
LOOP
CMP R1, #200
BGE L3
LSL R2, R1, #2
LDR R3, [R0, R2]
ADD R3, R3, #10
STR R3, [R0, R2]
ADD R1, R1, #1
B LOOP
```

- R0 = base addr
- i = 0
- i < 200?
- no? exit loop
- word to byte
- R3 = scores[i]
- R3 = R3 + 10
- scores[i] += 10
- i = i + 1
- repeat



Showing the scores array in memory

LDR with Offset in Register

- New LDR variant

LDR R3, [R0, R2]
 ↓dest ↓base ↓offset
LDR Rd, [Rn, Rm]

- It is common to load from memory with **[base + offset] addressing mode**, where **offset** increments by “some” value **during each loop iteration**
- ISA provides **support** for such scenarios **to bridge the semantic gap b/w high-level code and assembly code**
 - ISA **evolution** eases the **software “burden”**
 - On the other hand, ISA implementation (i.e., microarchitecture) **becomes more involved** (recall the **RISC vs. CISC** debate)

Array Sum

Add 10 to each element of the 200-element scores array

C code:

```
int i;
int scores[200];
// initialization code not
//shown
...
for (i = 0; i<200; i++)
    scores[i] = scores[i] + 10;
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = array base address
; R1 = i
```

```
MOV R0, #0x14000000
```

```
MOV R1, #0
```

LOOP

```
CMP R1, #200
```

```
BGE L3
```

```
LSL R2, R1, #2
```

```
LDR R3, [R0, R2]
```

```
ADD R3, R3, #10
```

```
STR R3, [R0, R2]
```

```
ADD R1, R1, #1
```

```
B LOOP
```

L3

▪ R0 = base addr

▪ i = 0

▪ i < 200?

▪ no? exit loop

▪ word to byte

▪ R3 = scores[i]

▪ R3 = R3 + 10

▪ scores[i] += 10

▪ i = i + 1

▪ repeat

address

data

0x14000010	90	scores[4]
0x1400000C	76	...
0x14000008	80	scores[2]
0x14000004	40	scores[1]
base → 0x14000000	100	scores[0]

4 bytes

Showing the scores array in memory

Another LDR Variant

- We have seen two LDR variants
 - LDR $Rd, [Rn, \#imm]$
 - LDR $Rd, [Rn, Rm]$
- LSL and LDR are often used together in array-related code (array traversals)
- ISA provides support for eliminating the extra LSL instruction

LDR $R3, [R0, R1, \underbrace{LSL \#2}]$

Left shift is the same
as multiplying by 2

- **Memory address**
 - Left shift $R1$ by 2 (scaling $R1$)
 - Add $R1$ to $R0$
 - Address = $R0 + (R1 * 4)$

Condensing Array Sum – 1

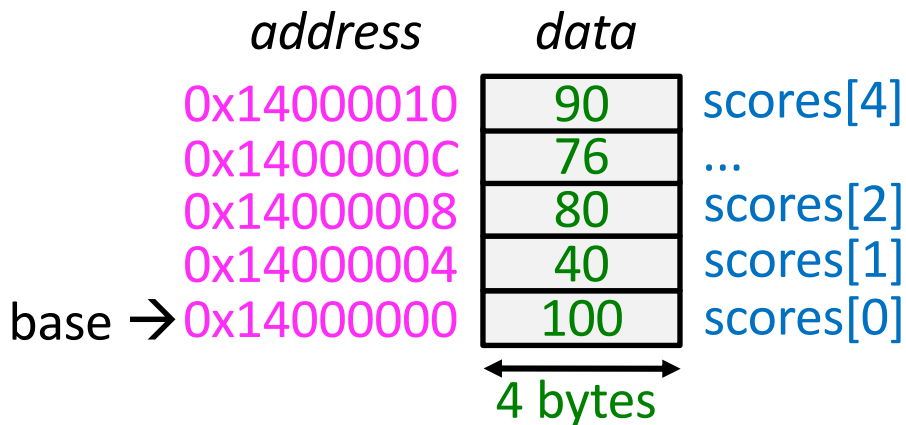
Add 10 to each element of the 200-element scores array

C code:

```
int i;
int scores[200];
// initialization code not
//shown
...
for (i = 0; i<200; i++)
    scores[i] = scores[i] + 10;
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = array base address
; R1 = i
MOV    R0,    #0x14000000
MOV    R1,    #0
LOOP
CMP    R1,    #200
BGE    L3
LDR    R3,    [R0, R1, LSL, #2]
ADD    R3,    R3,    #10
STR    R3,    [R0, R2]
ADD    R1,    R1,    #1
B      LOOP
L3
```



Showing the scores array in memory

ARM Indexing Modes

- **Offset Addressing**

- Address is the sum of base register and offset (`#20`, `#-20`, `-R2`)
- Base register is unchanged
- `LDR R0, [R1, R2]`

- **Pre-indexed Addressing**

- Address is the sum of base register and offset
- Base register is **updated** with the new address **before** the memory access
- `LDR R0, [R1, R2]!`

- **Post-index Addressing**

- Address is the base register
- Base register is updated with the new address **after** the memory access
- `LDR R0, [R1], R2`

Examples: ARM Indexing Modes

- **Offset Addressing**
 - `LDR R0, [R1, R2]`
 - Address: $R1 + R2$ and $R1$ does not change
- **Pre-indexed Addressing**
 - `LDR R0, [R1, R2]!`
 - Address: $R1 + R2$ and $R1 = R1 + R2$
- **Post-index Addressing**
 - `LDR R0, [R1], R2`
 - Address: $R1$ and $R1 = R1 + R2$
- **Note:** In all cases, offset can be an immediate

Condensing Array Sum – 2

Add 10 to each element of the 200-element scores array

C code:

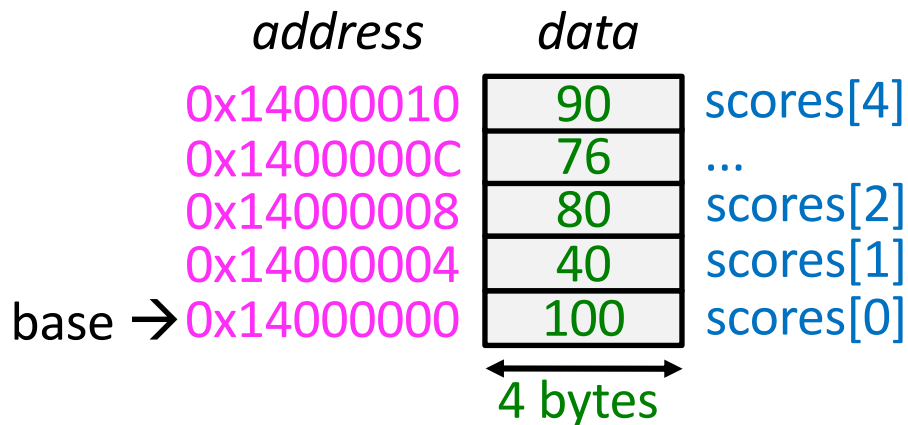
```
int i;
int scores[200];
// initialization code not
//shown
...
for (i = 0; i<200; i++)
    scores[i] = scores[i] + 10;
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = array base address
; R1 = i
    MOV    R0,    #0x14000000
    ADD    R1,    R0,    #800
LOOP
    CMP    R0,    R1
    BGE    L3
    LDR    R2,    [R0]
    ADD    R2,    R2,    #10
    STR    R2,    [R0], #4

    B     LOOP
L3
```

- R0 = base addr
- R1 = base + 800
- end of array?
- yes? exit loop
- R2 = scores[i]
- scores[i] + 10
- store scores[i]
- and R0 = R0 + 4
- repeat loop



Showing the scores array in memory

Condensing Array Sum – 2

Add 10 to each element of the 200-element scores array

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = array base address
; R1 = i
MOV R0, #0x14000000
MOV R1, R0, #800
LOOP
CMP R0, R1
BGE L3
LDR R2, [R0]
ADD R2, R2, #10
STR R2, [R0], #4
B LOOP
L3
```

- This version of Array Sum first computes the address of the last byte of the array (**#0x14000800**)
- Each iteration of **LOOP** checks if **R0** is greater than or equal to **#0x14000800**
- If so, we are done, so step out of **LOOP**
- **STR R2, [R0], #4**
 - Stores **R2** at **[R0]**, and after that, adds 4 to **R0**

Microarchitecture

Suggested Reading: Requirements, Bottlenecks, and Good Fortune: Agents for Microprocessor Evolution

Link: https://course.ece.cmu.edu/~ece740/f13/lib/exe/fetch.php?media=r0_patt.pdf

Requirements, Bottlenecks, and Good Fortune: Agents for Microprocessor Evolution

YALE PATT, FELLOW, IEEE

Invited Paper

The first microprocessor, the Intel 4004, showed up in 1971. It contained 2,300 transistors and operated at a clock frequency of 100 kHz. Today, 30 years later, the microprocessor contains almost 200 million transistors, operating at a frequency of more than 1 GHz. In five years, these numbers are expected to grow to more than a billion transistors on a single chip, operating at a clock frequency of from 6 to 10 GHz.

The evolution of the microprocessor from where it started in 1971 to where it is today and where it is likely to be in five years, has come about because of several contributing forces. Our position is that this evolution did not just happen, that each step forward came as a result of one of three things, and always within the context of a computer architect making a design. The three things are: 1) new requirements; 2) bottlenecks; and 3) good fortune. I call them collectively agents for evolution.

This article attempts to do three things: describe a basic framework for the field of microprocessors, show some of the important developments that have come along in the 30 years since the arrival of the first microprocessor, and finally, suggest some of the new things you can expect to see in a high-performance microprocessor in the next five years.

Keywords—Computer architecture, microarchitecture, microprocessor, microprocessor design, microprocessor evolution.

I. BASIC FRAMEWORK

A. Computer Architecture: A Science of Tradeoffs

Computer architecture is far more "art" than "science." Our capabilities and insights improve as we experience more cases. Computer architects draw on their experience with previous designs in making decisions on current projects. If computer architecture is a science at all, it is a science of tradeoffs. Computer architects over the past half century have continued to develop a foundation of knowledge to help them practice their craft. Almost always the job of the computer architect requires using that foundation to help the computer architect

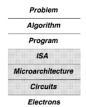


Fig. 1. The microprocessor today.

tradeoffs. This has been especially true throughout the evolution of the microprocessor.

B. Levels of Transformation

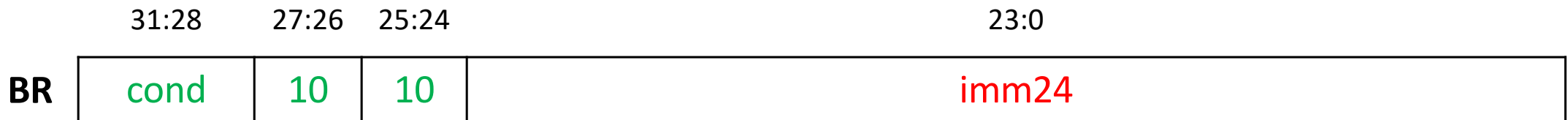
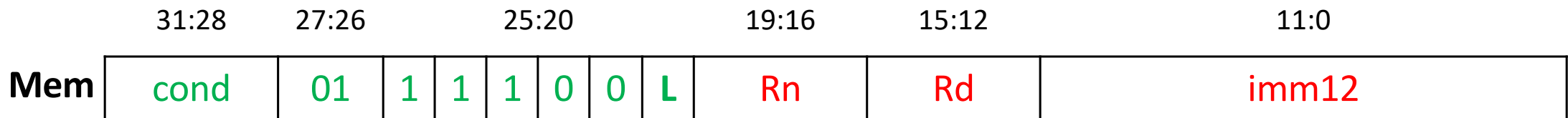
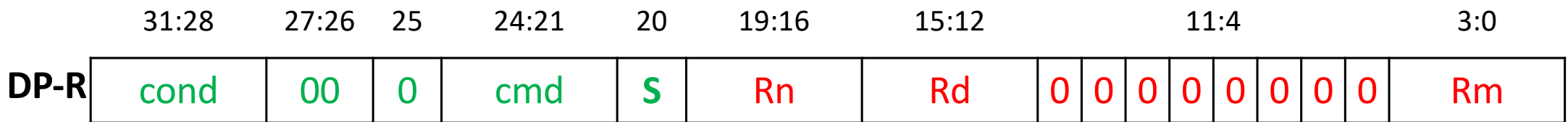
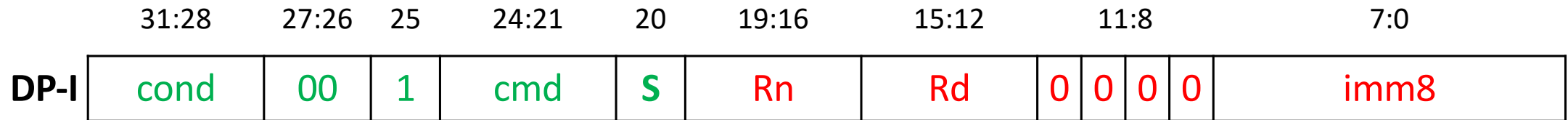
Numbers of transistors and their switching times are resources provided by process technology. What we use those resources for depends on the demands of the marketplace. How we use those resources is what the microprocessor is all about. Fig. 1 shows the levels of transformation that a problem, stated in some natural language like English, must go through to be solved. In a real sense, it is the electrons that actually do the work and solve the problem. However, since we do not speak "electrons" and electrons do not speak any natural language, the best we can do is systematically transform the problem through the levels shown on Fig. 1 until we reach the electron (or device) level, that is, the 200 million transistor, 1-GHz chip.

Along the way, the problem solution is first formulated as a set of requirements, then as a set of algorithms, then as a set of programs, then as a set of microarchitectures, then as a set of circuits, and finally, it is encoded in a mechanical language and compiled by the instruction set architecture (ISA) of the microprocessor. This ISA is

Recall: Instruction Types

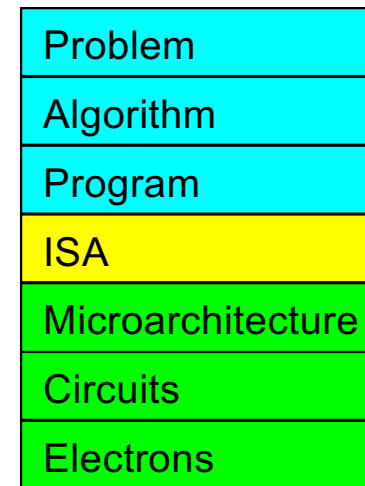
- There are **three main types of instructions**
- **Operate (data processing) instructions**
 - Execute operations in the ALU
- **Data movement (memory) instructions**
 - Read from or write to memory
- **Control flow (branch/jump) instructions**
 - Change the sequence of execution (decision making)

ARM Instruction Formats



Today's Lecture

- Last few lectures
 - Instruction Set Architectures (**ISAs**): ARM and QuAC
 - Assembly programming: ARM
- **Today: Microarchitecture**
 - **Implementation** of the **ISA** (arrangement of registers, memories, ALU, other blocks)
 - Many different microarchitectures for one ISA are possible
 - **Design Point:** Set of considerations for a given problem space (ML, automotive)
 - **Requires making tradeoffs:** Performance, power, reliability, cost, complexity
- **Today:** Design process and principles, single-cycle microarchitecture, and performance analysis
- Other **microarchitectures** we will cover
 - Multi-cycle, pipelined, and out-of-order



Many ISAs, Many Microarchitectures

- There can be many implementations of the same ISA
 - **MIPS** R2000, R3000, R4000, R6000, R8000, R10000, ...
 - **x86**: Intel 80486, Pentium, Pentium Pro, Pentium 4, Kaby Lake, Coffee Lake, Comet Lake, Ice Lake, Golden Cove, Sapphire Rapids, ..., AMD K5, K7, K9, Bulldozer, BobCat, Ryzen X, ...
 - **POWER** 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 (IBM), ..., **PowerPC** 604, 605, 620, ...
 - **ARM** Cortex-M*, ARM Cortex-A*, NVIDIA Denver, Apple A*, M1, ...
 - **Alpha** 21064, 21164, 21264, 21364, ...
 - **RISC-V** ...

How do we implement an ISA?

In other words, how do we design a system that **obeys** the hardware/software interface?

“Form follows function.”

Louis Sullivan

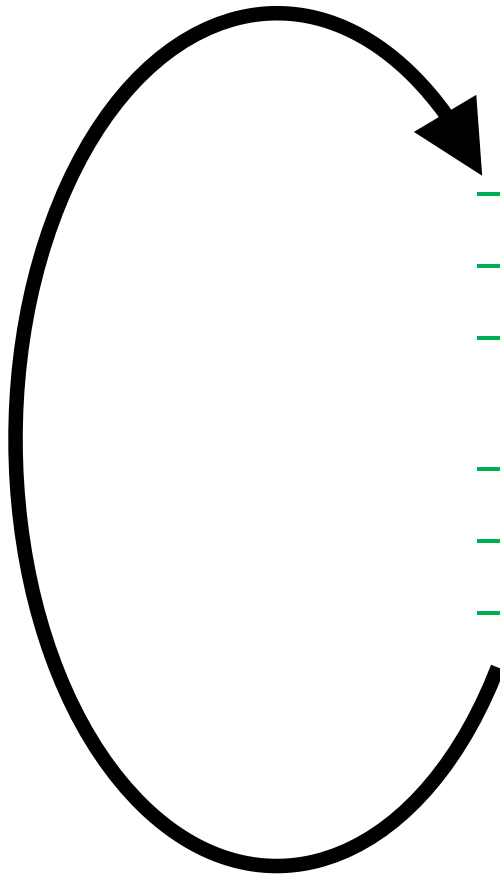


Before we begin construction, let's pause and ask: **what is the purpose of this computer?**

Purpose: To Process Instructions

One way to process an instruction

Six phases

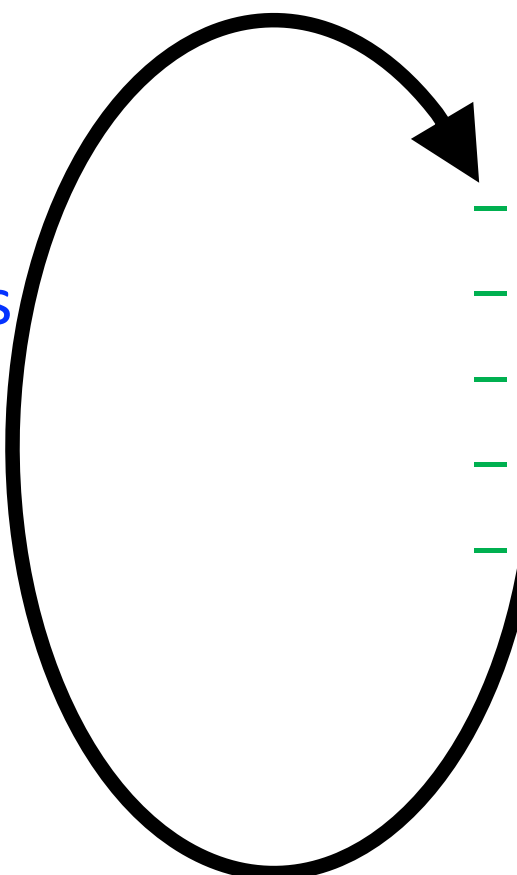


- FETCH
- DECODE
- EVALUATE
ADDRESS
- FETCH OPERANDS
- EXECUTE
- STORE RESULT

Purpose: To Process Instructions

Another way to process an instructions

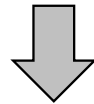
Five phases

- 
- FETCH
 - DECODE/RF READ
 - EXECUTE
 - MEMORY ACCESS
 - WRITEBACK

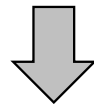
How does a machine process insts?

- What does processing an instruction mean in von Neumann model?

AS = Architectural (programmer visible) state before an instruction is processed



Process Instruction



AS' = Architectural (programmer visible) state after an instruction is processed

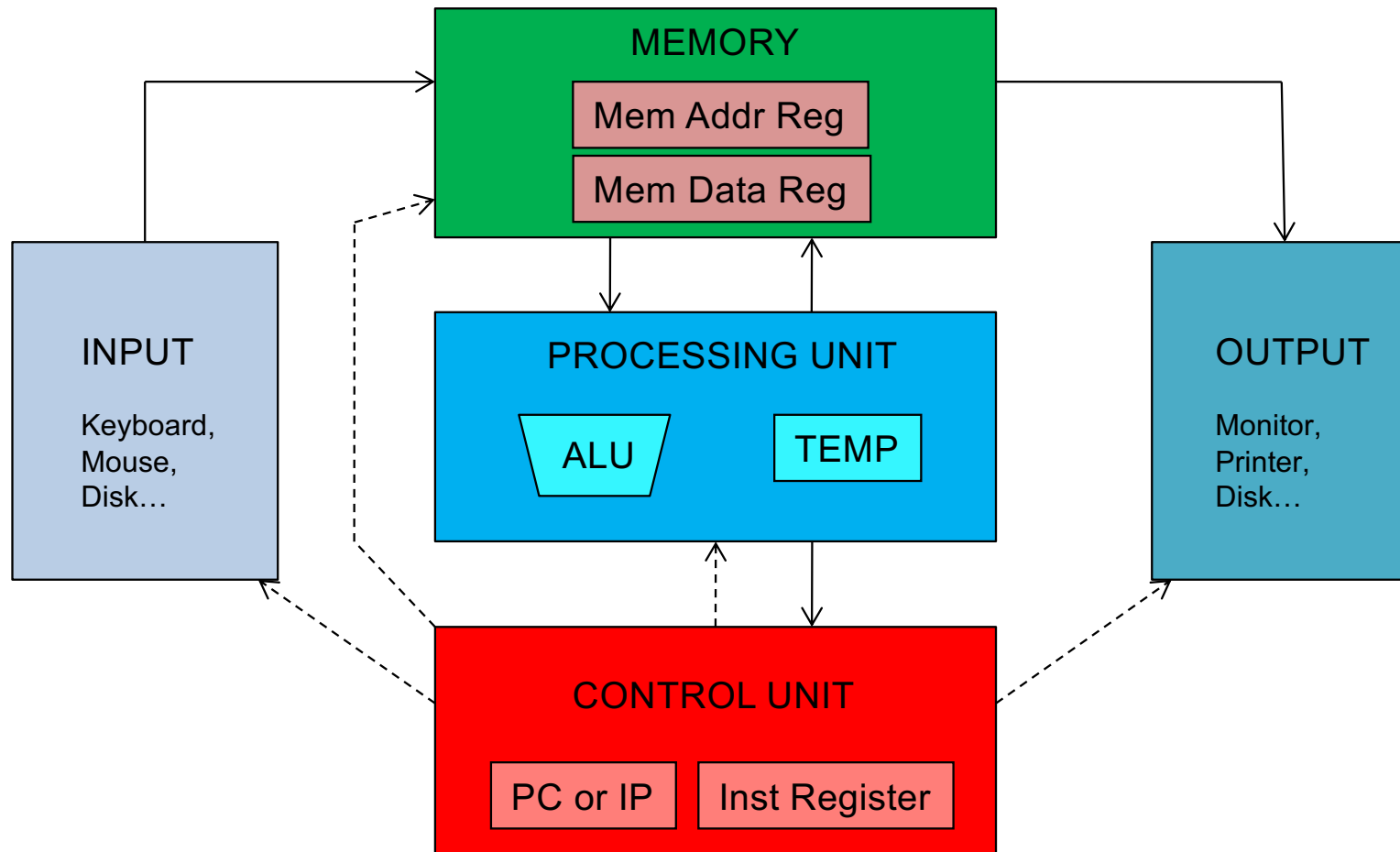
- **Processing an instruction:** Transforming AS to AS' according to the ISA specification of the instruction

The Von Neumann Model/Architecture

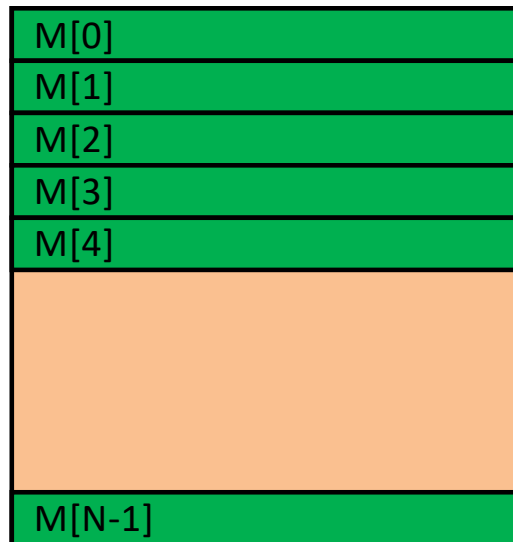
Stored program

Sequential instruction processing

The Von Neumann Model/Architecture



Recall: Programmer Visible (Architectural) State



Memory

array of storage locations
indexed by an address



Registers

- given special names in the ISA
(as opposed to addresses)
- general vs. special purpose

Program Counter

memory address
of the current (or next) instruction

Instructions (and programs) specify how to transform
the values of programmer visible state

ISA = Instruction Set Architecture

- **Instruction Set Architecture = Instruction Set + Architectural State**
 - **Instruction Set**
 - Opcodes
 - Operands
 - Data types (e.g., 2's complement)
 - Addressing modes (e.g., base + offset)
 - Instruction formats (Data processing, Immediate, Memory)
 - **Architectural state**
 - Memory
 - Register set
 - Program counter

The “Process Instruction” Step

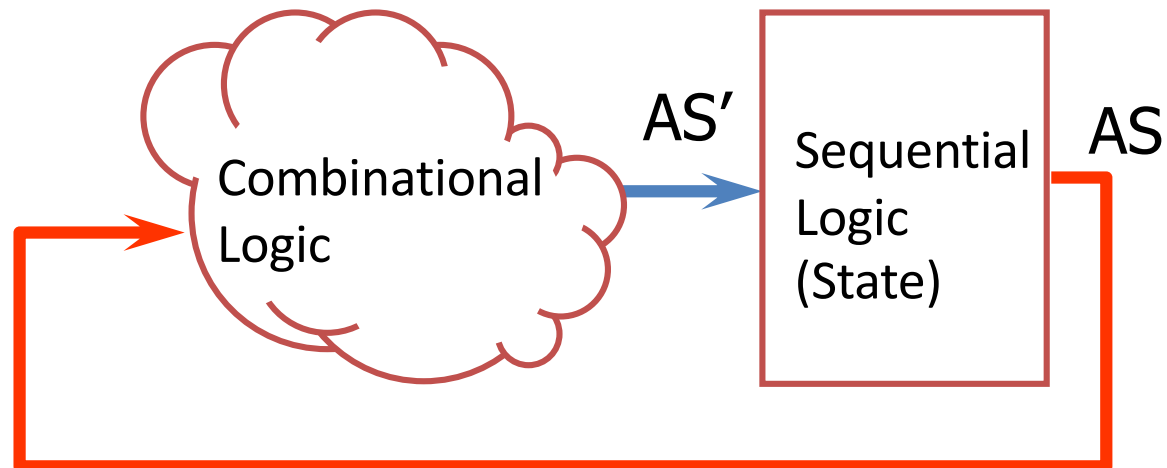
- ISA specifies abstractly what AS' should be, given an instruction and AS
 - It defines an **abstract finite state machine** where
 - State = programmer-visible state
 - Next-state logic = instruction execution specification
 - From ISA point of view, there are no “intermediate states” between AS and AS' during instruction execution
 - One state transition per instruction
- Microarchitecture implements how AS is transformed to AS'
 - There are many choices in implementation
 - We can have programmer-invisible state to optimize the speed of instruction execution: **multiple** state transitions per instruction
 - Choice 1: $AS \rightarrow AS'$ (transform AS to AS' in a single clock cycle)
 - Choice 2: $AS \rightarrow AS+MS1 \rightarrow AS+MS2 \rightarrow AS+MS3 \rightarrow AS'$ (take multiple clock cycles to transform AS to AS')

Very Basic Instruction Processing Engine

- Each instruction takes a single clock cycle to execute
- Only combinational logic is used to implement instruction execution
 - *No intermediate, programmer-invisible state updates*
- *Easy to explain and a simple control unit!*

Basic Instruction Processing Engine

- Single-cycle machine



- What is the *clock cycle time* determined by?
- What is the *critical path* (i.e., longest delay path) of the combinational logic determined by?

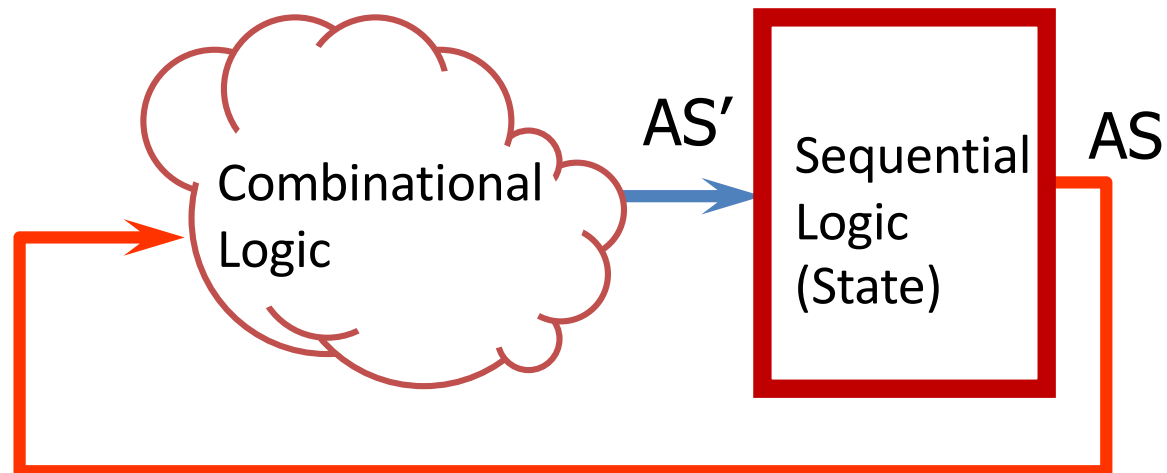
AS: Architectural State

Single-Cycle vs. Multi-Cycle Machines

- **Single-cycle machines**
 - Each instruction takes a single clock cycle
 - All state updates made at the end of an instruction's execution
 - **Big disadvantage: The slowest instruction determines cycle time → long clock cycle time**
- **Multi-cycle machines**
 - Instruction processing broken into multiple cycles/stages
 - State updates can be made during an instruction's execution
 - Architectural state updates made at the end of an instruction's execution
 - **Advantage over single-cycle: The slowest "stage" determines cycle time**
- Both single-cycle and multi-cycle machines literally follow the von Neumann model at the microarchitecture level

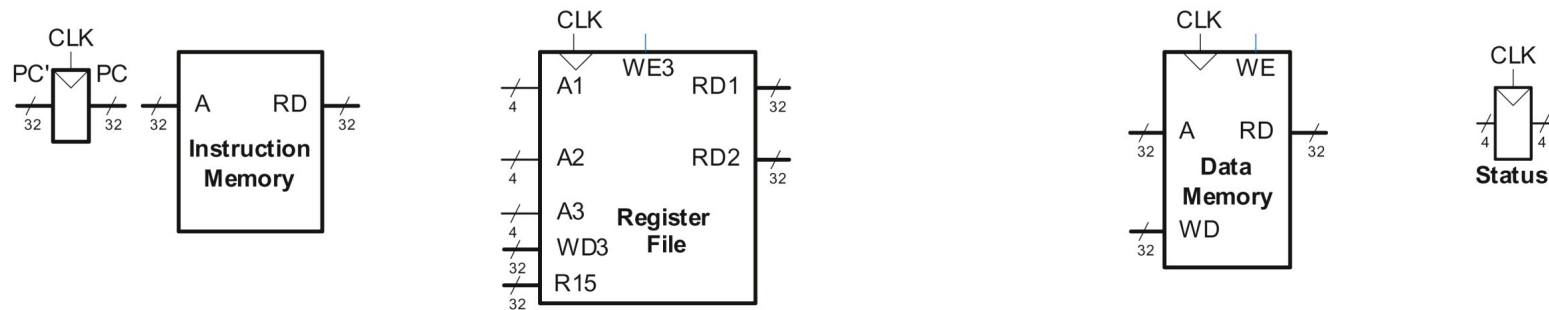
Basic Instruction Processing Engine

- Single-cycle machine



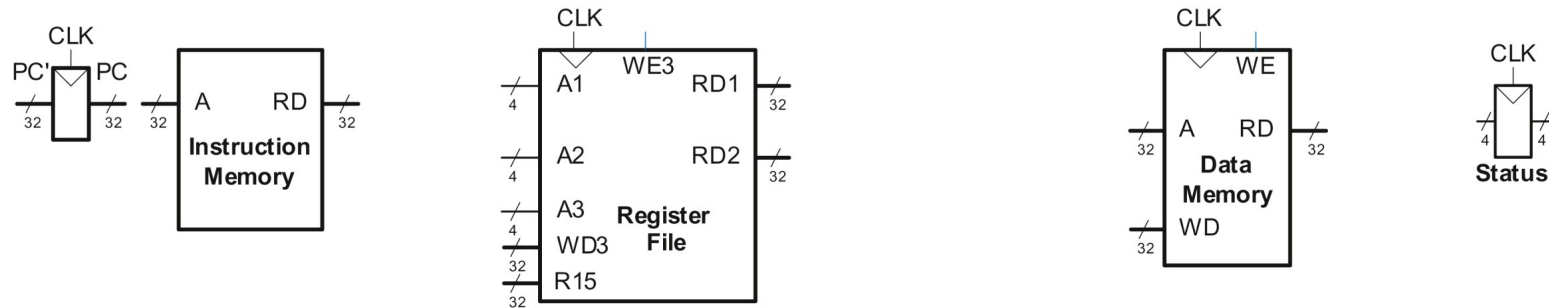
AS: Architectural State

ARM State (AS) Elements



- **PC: Logically part of the register file**
 - Read and written every cycle, independently of the normal register file operation. **Should it be “physically” part of the register file?**
- **Instruction memory** has a single read port. One 32-bit address input. One 32-bit instruction (RD) output.
- **Register file:** 15 registers (**R0** to **R14**) + additional input to receive **R15** from PC
 - Two read ports 4-bit A1 and A2 and 32-bit RD1 and RD2
 - One write port A3 (and WD3) and a **write enable** input
 - **Read of R15 returns PC + 8**
 - **Write of R15 must be handled properly if PC is outside the register file**
 - Reads are combinational and writes happen on the rising edge of the clock

ARM State (AS) Elements



- **Data Memory:** Single read/write port
 - If write enable (WE) is **TRUE** then it writes data WD into address A on the rising edge of the clock
 - If the write enable is **FALSE**, then it reads value at address A onto RD
- All reads are combinational and constant time (not realistic but Ok for now)
- **All writes and state updates happen on the rising edge of the clock**
 - **Synchronous sequential circuit**

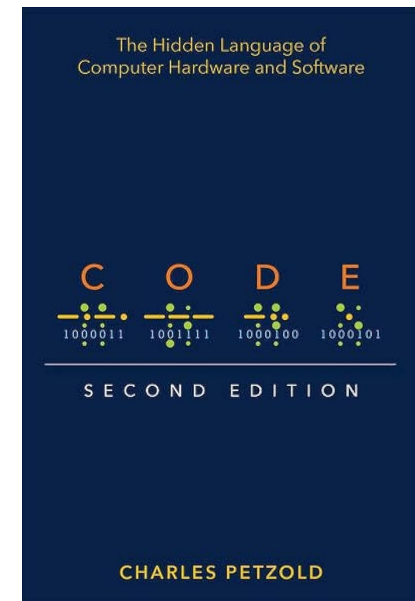
Microarchitecture Division

- **Two interacting parts**
 - Datapath (32-bit in our case)
 - Control unit
- Datapath **operates** on words of data
 - Memories, registers, ALUs, and multiplexers
- **Control** unit **informs** the datapath how to execute an instruction
 - Receives the current instruction from the datapath
 - Produces **multiplexer selects**, **ALU control**, **register enable**, and **memory write signals** to **control** the operation of the datapath

Role of Control Unit

Codes stored in memory control the hardware of the computer ... **As a puppeteer controlling a troupe of marionettes in an exquisitely choreographed dance of arithmetic and logic.** The CPU control signals are the strings.

CODE, Charles Petzold



Design Process/1

- We will add the logic for one instruction at a time
 - LDR (**LoaD Register**)
 - STR (**STore Register**)
 - **Data Processing (DP)** instructions with 2nd source operand as an immediate
 - DP with 2nd source operand as a register
 - Branch instruction
- Then build the “Control Unit”

Design Process/2

- We limit ourselves to a subset of instructions
 - Data-processing instructions: ADD, SUB, AND, ORR (with register and immediate offsets)
 - Memory instructions: LDR, STR (with positive immediate offset)
 - Branches: B
- Once you understand these you can expand the hardware to handle others

Design Process/3

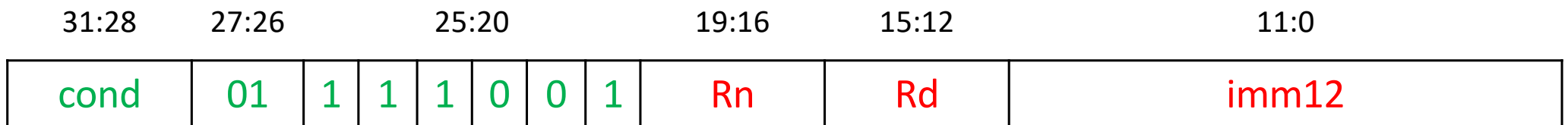
- New connections are emphasized in black
- Hardware already studied in gray
- Control signals in blue

LDR with Src2 as Immediate

- I (Bit 25) = 1: Src2 = imm12 where imm12 is a 12-bit unsigned offset added to the value in the base register (Rn)
- Format of Load Register instruction

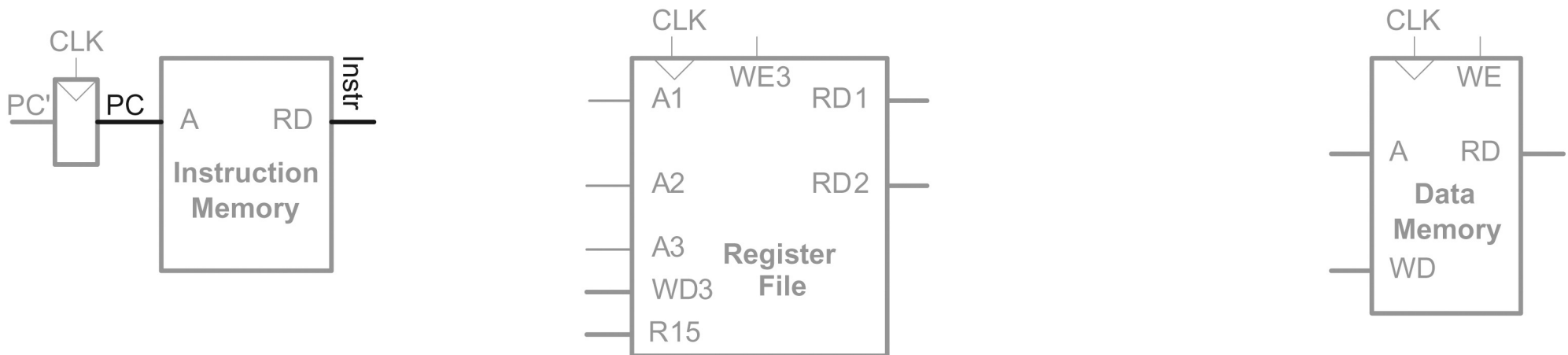
LDR R0, [R1, #12]
↓ ↓ ↓
LDR Rd, [Rn, #imm12]

- L (Bit 20) = 1: CPU performs an LDR



The LDR Datapath

Step 1: Read (Fetch) instruction from memory

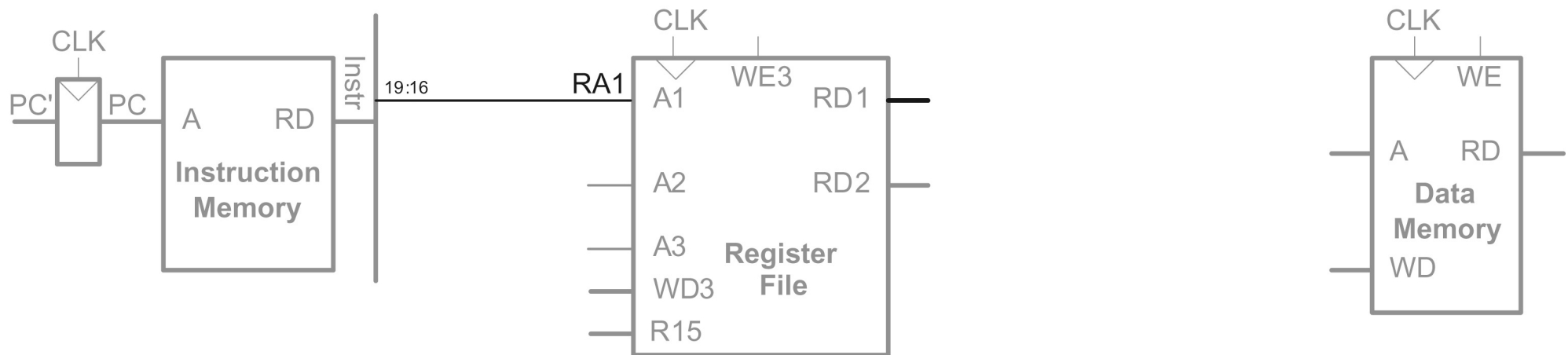


- Remember the distinction between PC (current state) and PC' (next state)
- From this point on, CPU actions depend on the instruction fetched

31:28	27:26	25:20				19:16	15:12	11:0					
cond	01	1	1	1	0	0	L	Rn	Rd	imm12			

The LDR Datapath

Step 2: Read source operand (**base register, Rn**) from register file

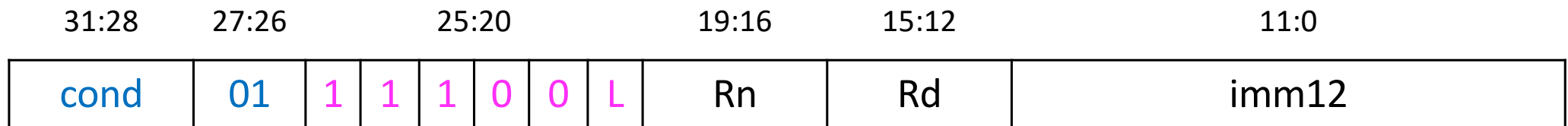
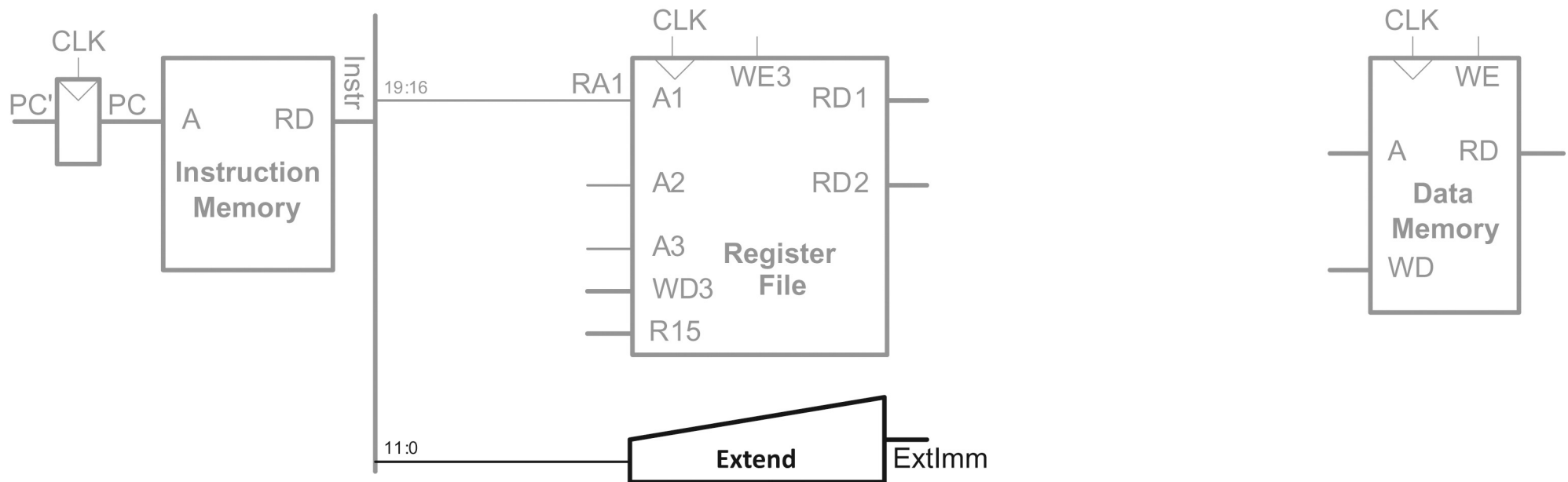


- Data is read onto RD1

31:28	27:26	25:20	19:16	15:12	11:0
cond	01	1 1 1 0 0 L	Rn	Rd	imm12

The LDR Datapath

Step 3: Zero-extend the immediate field stored in Instr_{11:0}



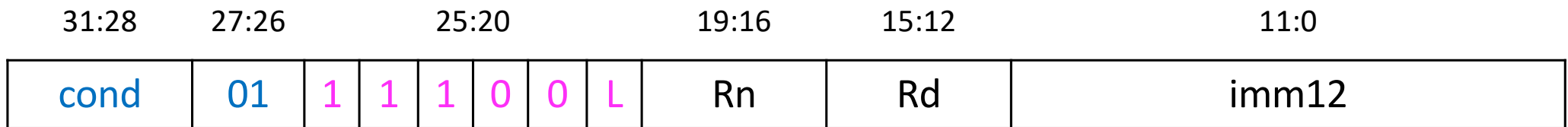
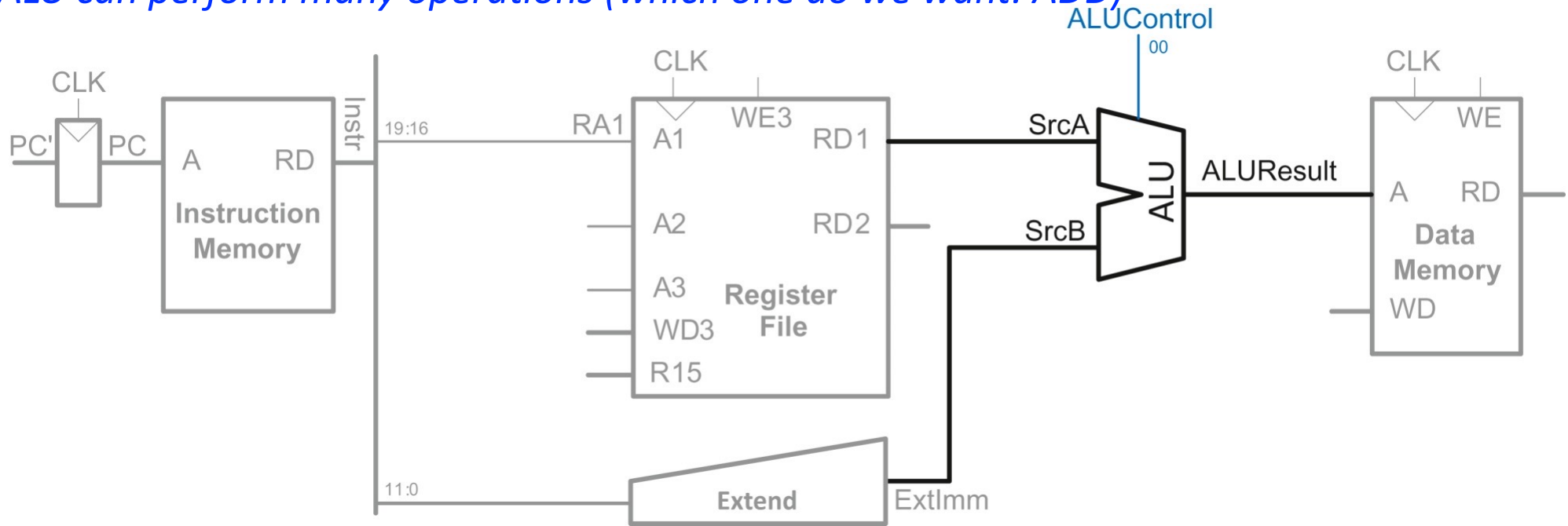
Zero Extension

- Appending leading zeros to make a smaller quantity equal to a bigger quantity
- $\text{ImmExt}_{31:12} = 0$ and $\text{ImmExt}_{11:0} = \text{Instr}_{11:0}$

The LDR Datapath

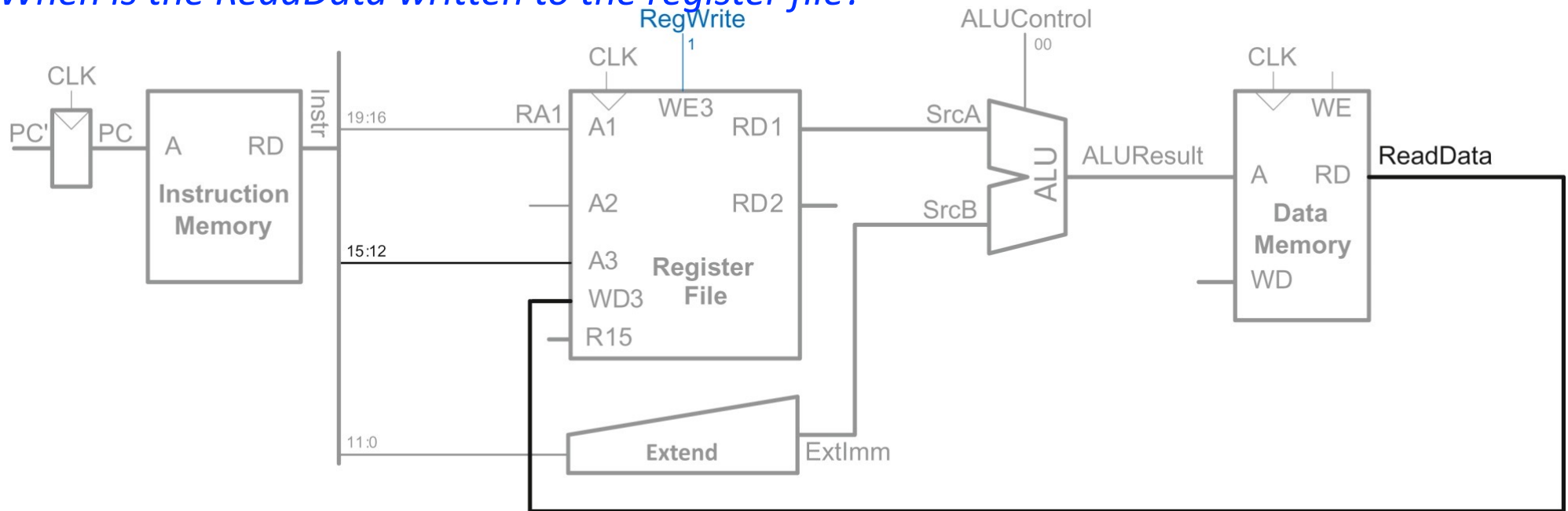
Step 4: Compute memory address ($ALUControl = 00$)

ALU can perform many operations (which one do we want: ADD)



The LDR Datapath

Step 5: Write back data from read by data memory to Rd in Reg File
When is the ReadData written to the register file?

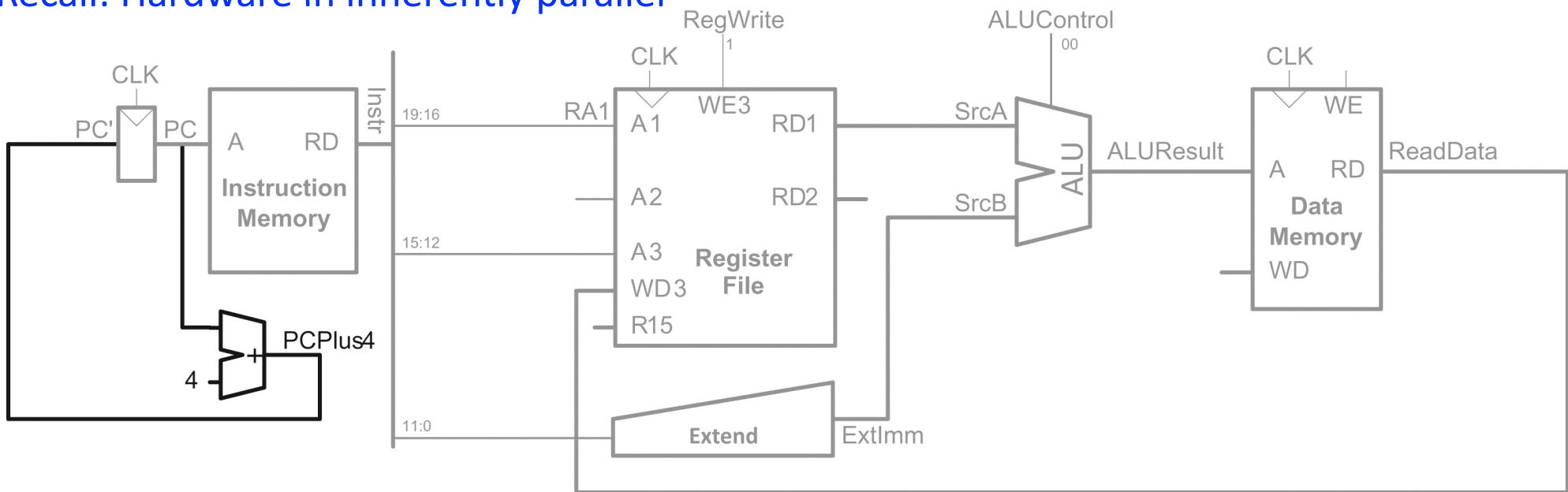


31:28	27:26	25:20	19:16	15:12	11:0
cond	01	1 1 1 0 0 L	Rn	Rd	imm12

The LDR Datapath

Step 6: Compute address of next instruction ($PC' = PC + 4$)

Recall: Hardware in inherently parallel

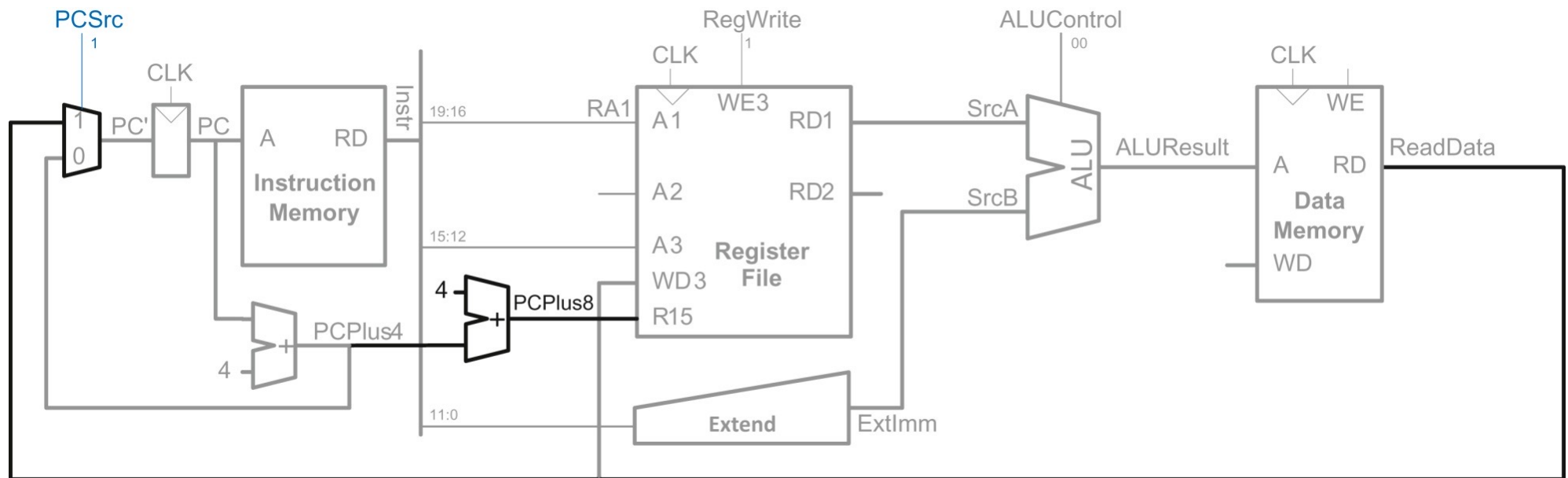


PC will become PC' the following cycle (recall photography example)

31:28	27:26	25:20	19:16	15:12	11:0
cond	01	1 1 1 0 0 L	Rn	Rd	imm12

The LDR Datapath

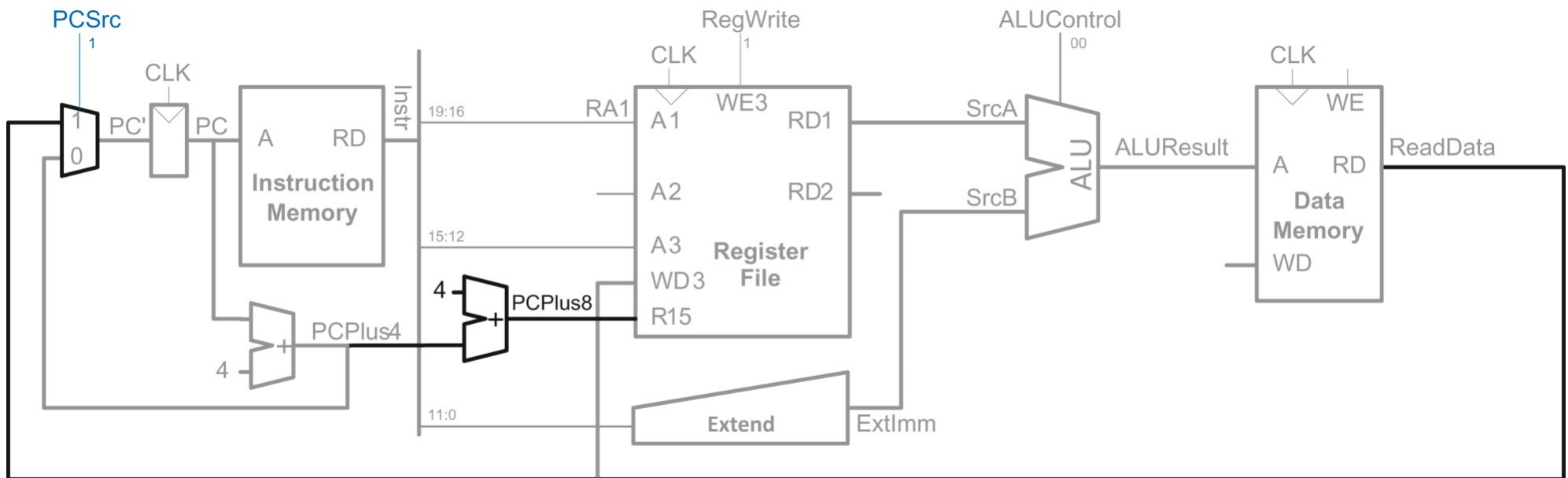
Step 7/a: Reading register R15 returns PC + 8



31:28	27:26	25:20	19:16	15:12	11:0
cond	01	1 1 1 0 0 L	Rn	Rd	imm12

The LDR Datapath

Step 7/b: Writing register R15 (PC may be an instruction's result)

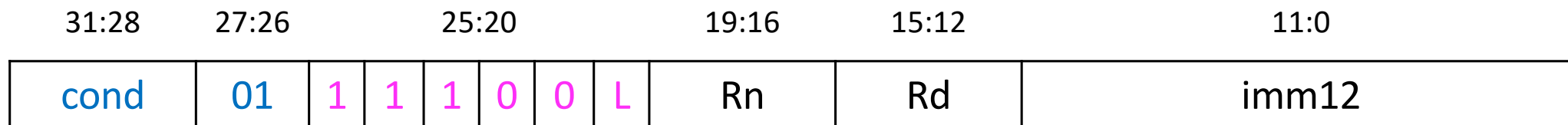


31:28	27:26	25:20	19:16	15:12	11:0
cond	01	1 1 1 0 0 L	Rn	Rd	imm12

STR Instruction

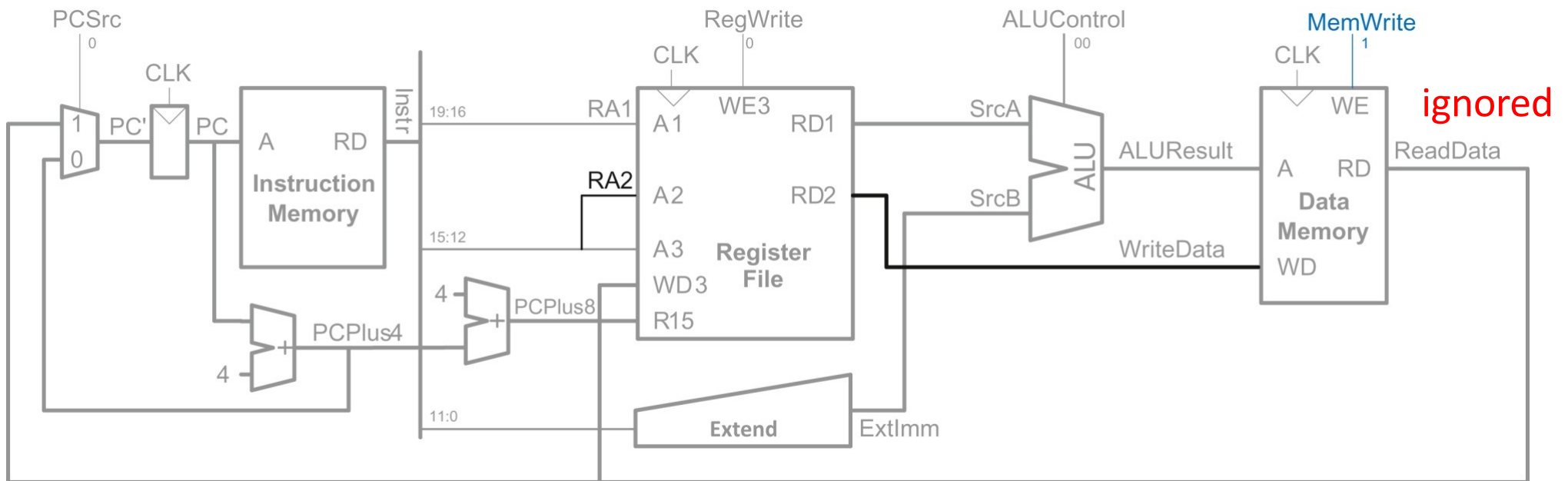
- STR instruction uses the same instruction format
 - LDR and STR behave differently at the machine level
- **Rd is a source operand (specifies the register to store to mem)**
- Format of **STore Register** instruction

STR R0, [R1, #12]
↓ ↓ ↓
STR Rd, [Rn, #imm12]



The STR Datapath

Step 8: Read a second register (Rd) and write its value to memory



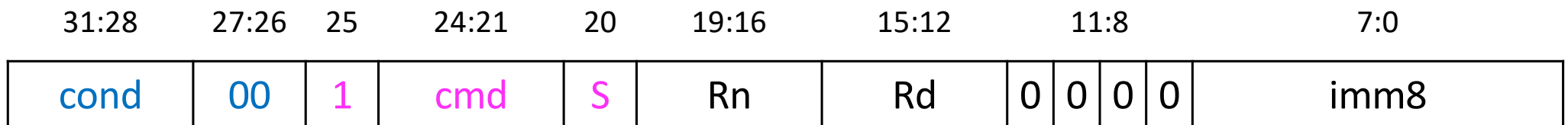
- ReadData is ignored because RegWrite is FALSE

31:28	27:26	25:20	19:16	15:12	11:0
cond	01	1 1 1 0 0 L	Rn	Rd	imm12

DP Instructions: Immediate

- Like the LDR instruction, but two important differences
 - imm8 instead of imm12
 - The destination register stores the result of the ALU operation instead of memory access
- Format

ADD R0, R1, #16
↓ ↓ ↓
ADD Rd, Rn, #imm8



Adding Support for DP Instructions

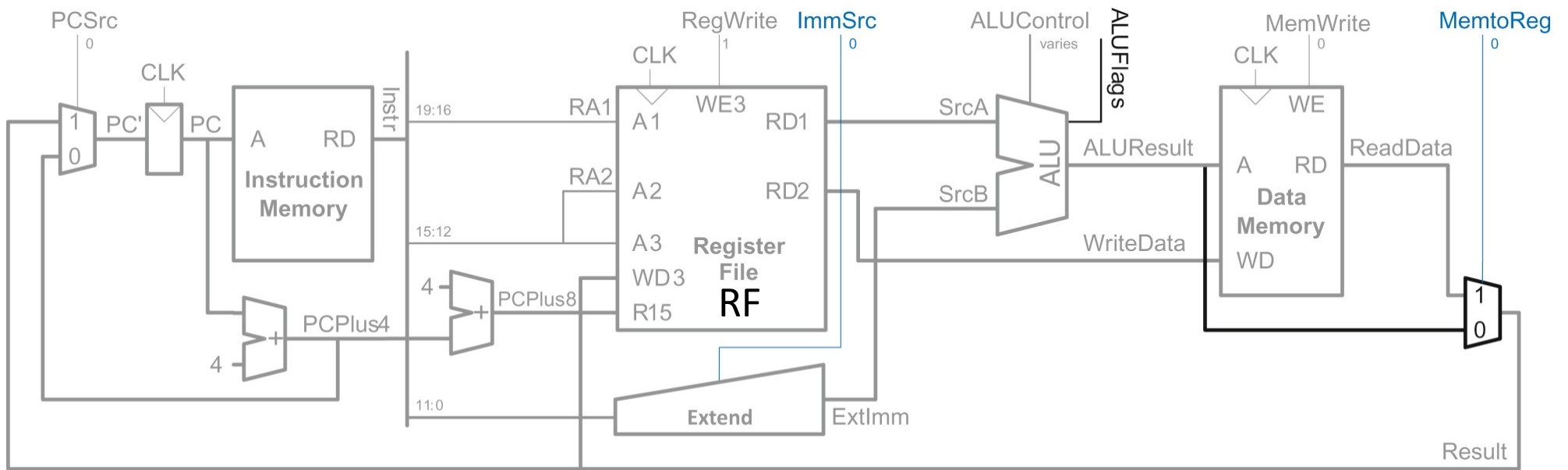
- The ALU functions and encoding

ALUControl	Function
00	ADD
01	SUB
10	AND
11	ORR

- The ALU also produces four **flags** that are sent to the control unit
- *Register file either receives data from the data memory or the ALU*
 - *Add a multiplexer to choose between **ReadData** and **ALUResult***
 - *This multiplexer is controlled by **MemtoReg***
 - ***MemtoReg** = 1 for LDR and 0 for data processing instructions*

DP-Immediate Datapath

Step 9: Change extend block, and add signal to write ALU result to RF

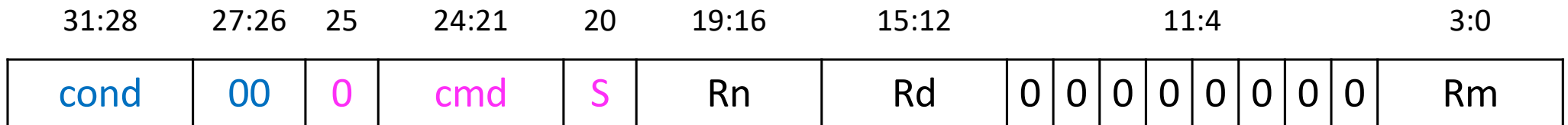


31:28	27:26	25	24:21	20	19:16	15:12	11:8	7:0
cond	00	1	cmd	S	Rn	Rd	0 0 0 0	imm8

DP Instructions: Register

- The second source operand is Rm instead of an immediate
- Place **Rm** on the **A2** port of the register file for DP instructions with register as the second operand
- Format

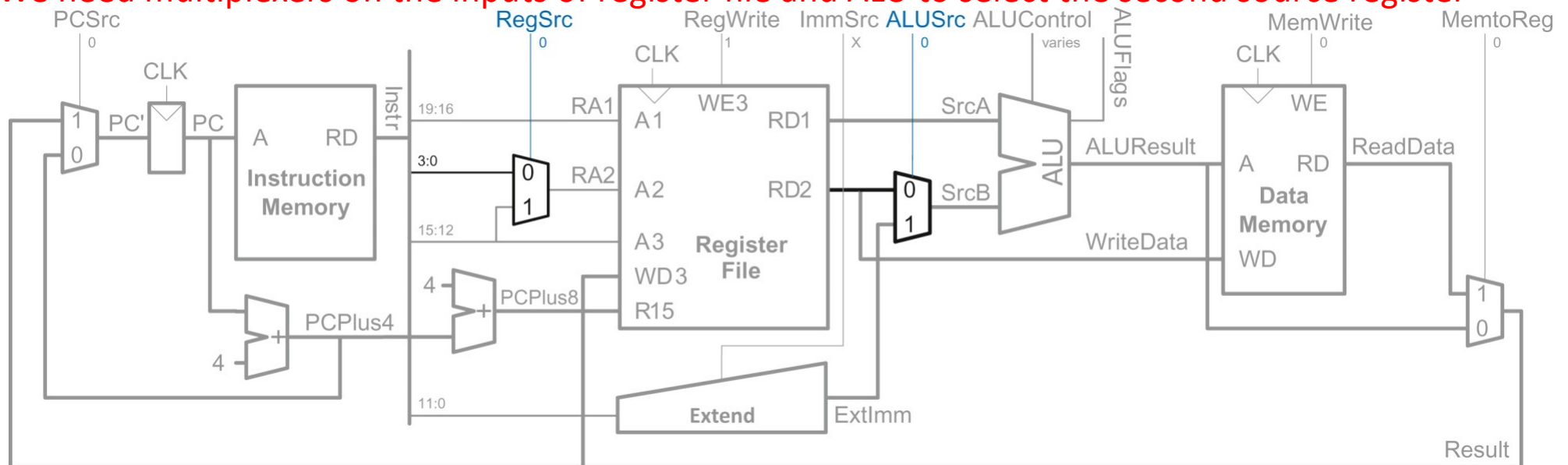
ADD R0, R1, R3
↓ ↓ ↓
ADD Rd, Rn, Rm



DP-Register Datapath

Step 10: Read 2nd register (Rm) from Reg File and send RD2 to ALU

We need multiplexers on the inputs of register file and ALU to select the second source register



31:28	27:26	25	24:21	20	19:16	15:12	11:4	3:0
cond	00	0	cmd	S	Rn	Rd	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	Rm

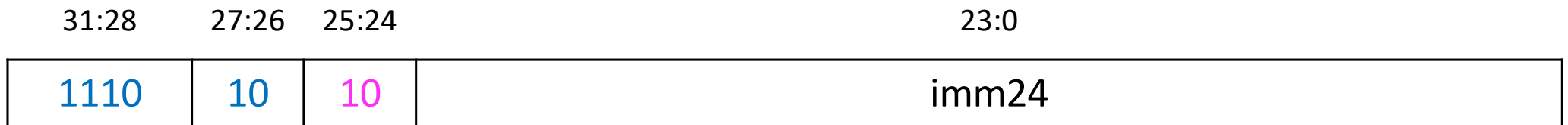
Branch Instruction: Unconditional

- The second source operand is Rm instead of an immediate
- Place Rm on the A2 port of the register file for DP instructions with register as the second operand
- Format

B TARGET

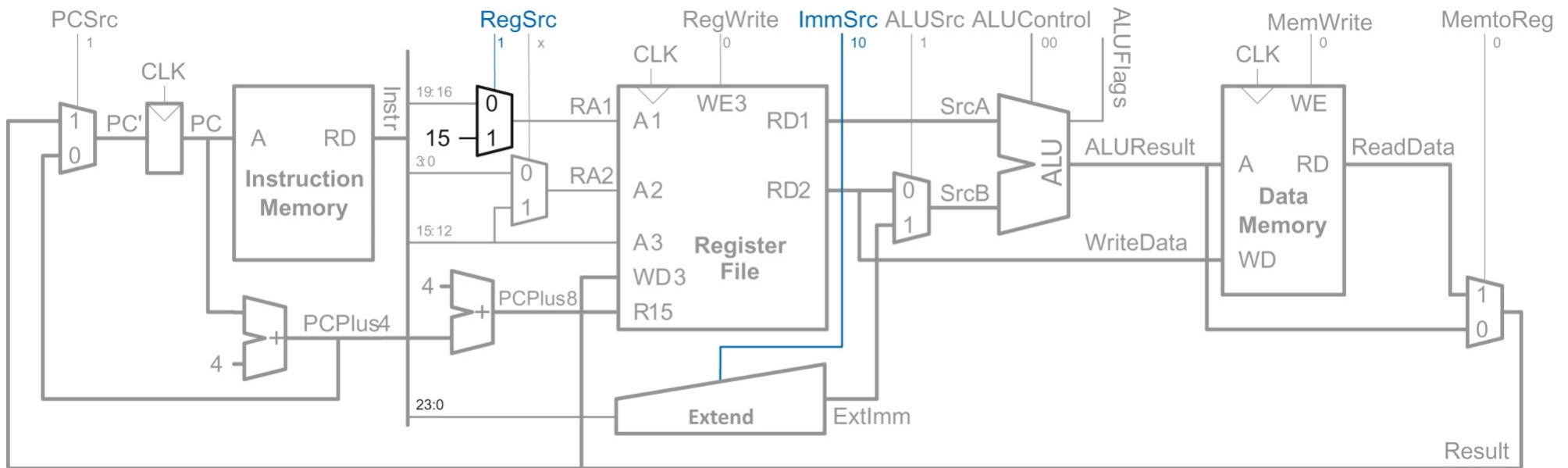


B imm24



Branch Datapath

Step 11: Change extend block, and add a bit to **RegSrc** for branch

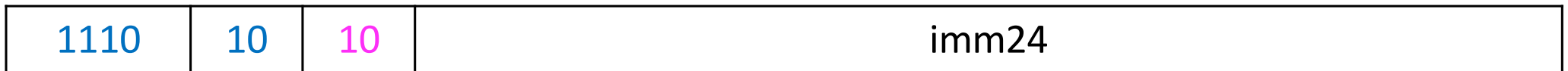


31:28

27:26

25:24

23:0

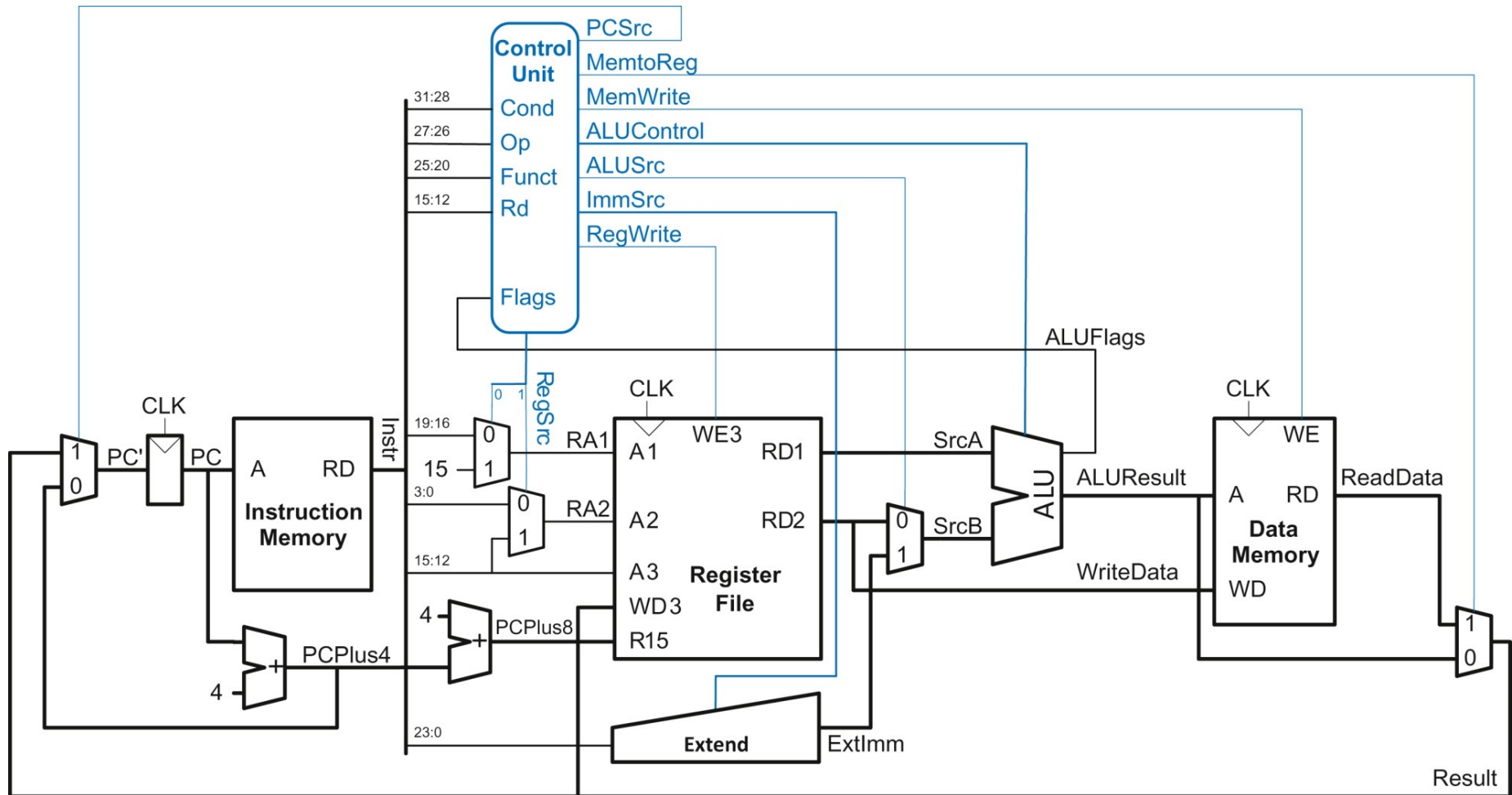


Operation of the Extend Block

- Each of the three instruction formats interpret the immediate field differently
 - $\text{ImmSrc}_{1:0}$ is the 2-bit control signal input to the extend block

$\text{ImmSrc}_{1:0}$	ExtImm	Description
00	{24'b0, Instr _{7:0} }	Zero-extended <i>imm8</i>
01	{20'b0, Instr _{11:0} }	Zero-extended <i>imm12</i>
10	{6{Instr ₂₃ }, Instr _{23:0} }00	Sign-extended <i>imm24</i>

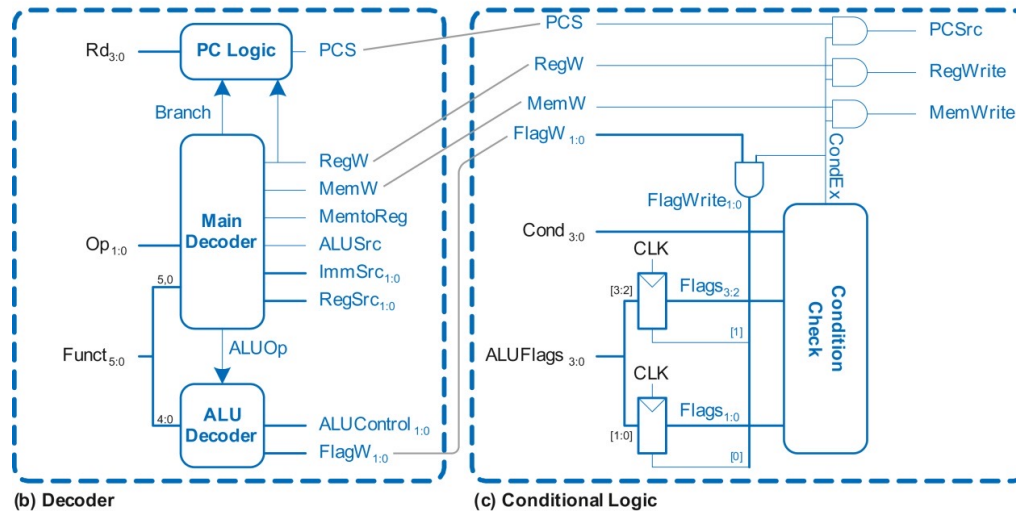
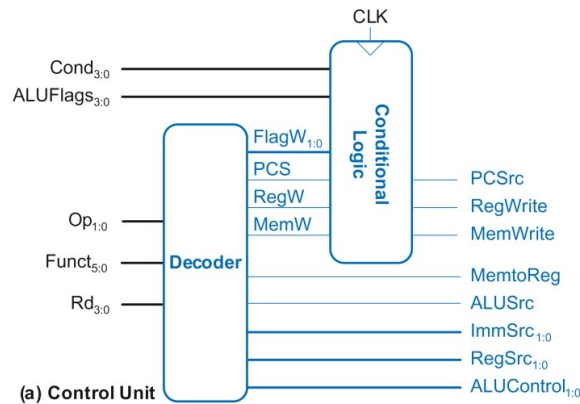
Datapath with Control



Control Unit

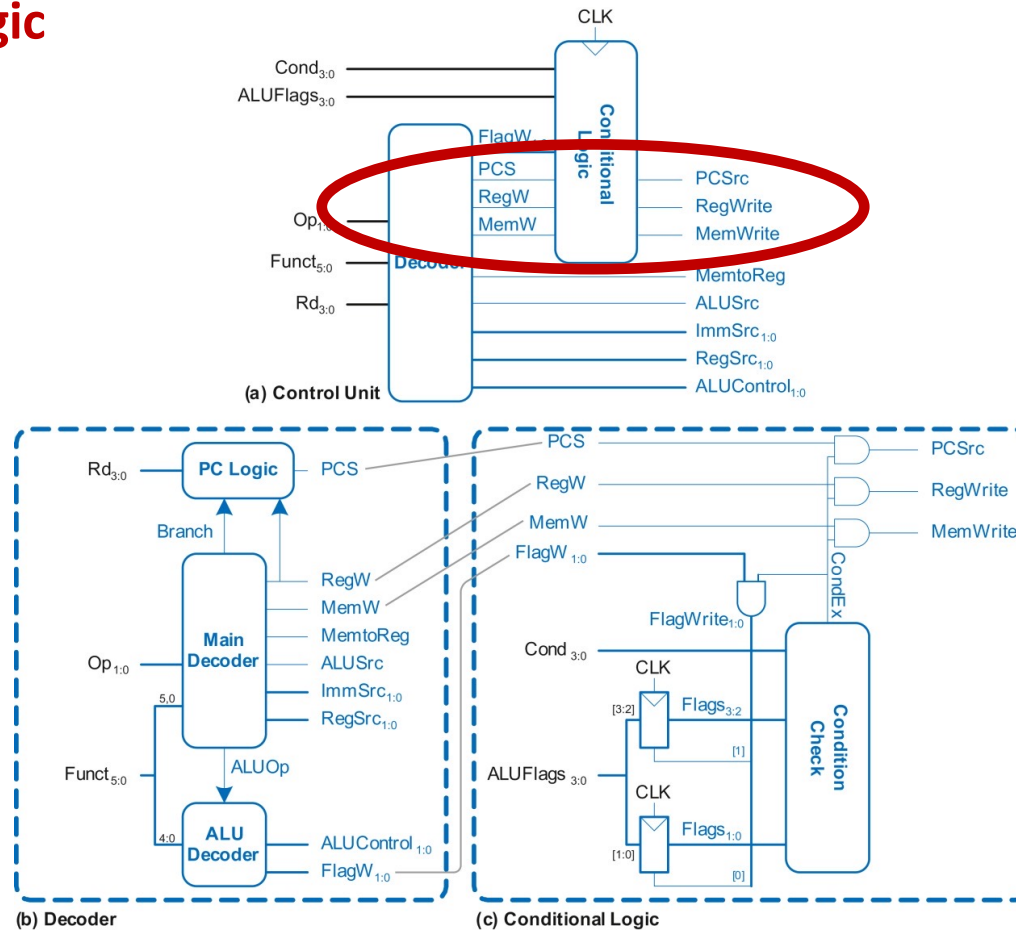
- Generate control signals based on instruction fields
 - $\text{Instr}_{31:20}$ (**cond**)
 - $\text{Instr}_{27:26}$ (**opcode**)
 - $\text{Instr}_{25:20}$ (**funct**)
 - **Flags** (needed for conditional execution)
 - **Destination register** (to update PC properly)
- **Controller for single-cycle microarchitecture is purely combinational**
- Conditional logic must enable updates to the **architectural state** when the instruction should be conditionally executed
 - **Write enables must be TRUE only if conditional instruction is in fact executed**

One way to build the control unit



One way to build the control unit

The write enable lines that update the architectural state could be “killed” by the conditional logic



Decoder Truth Table

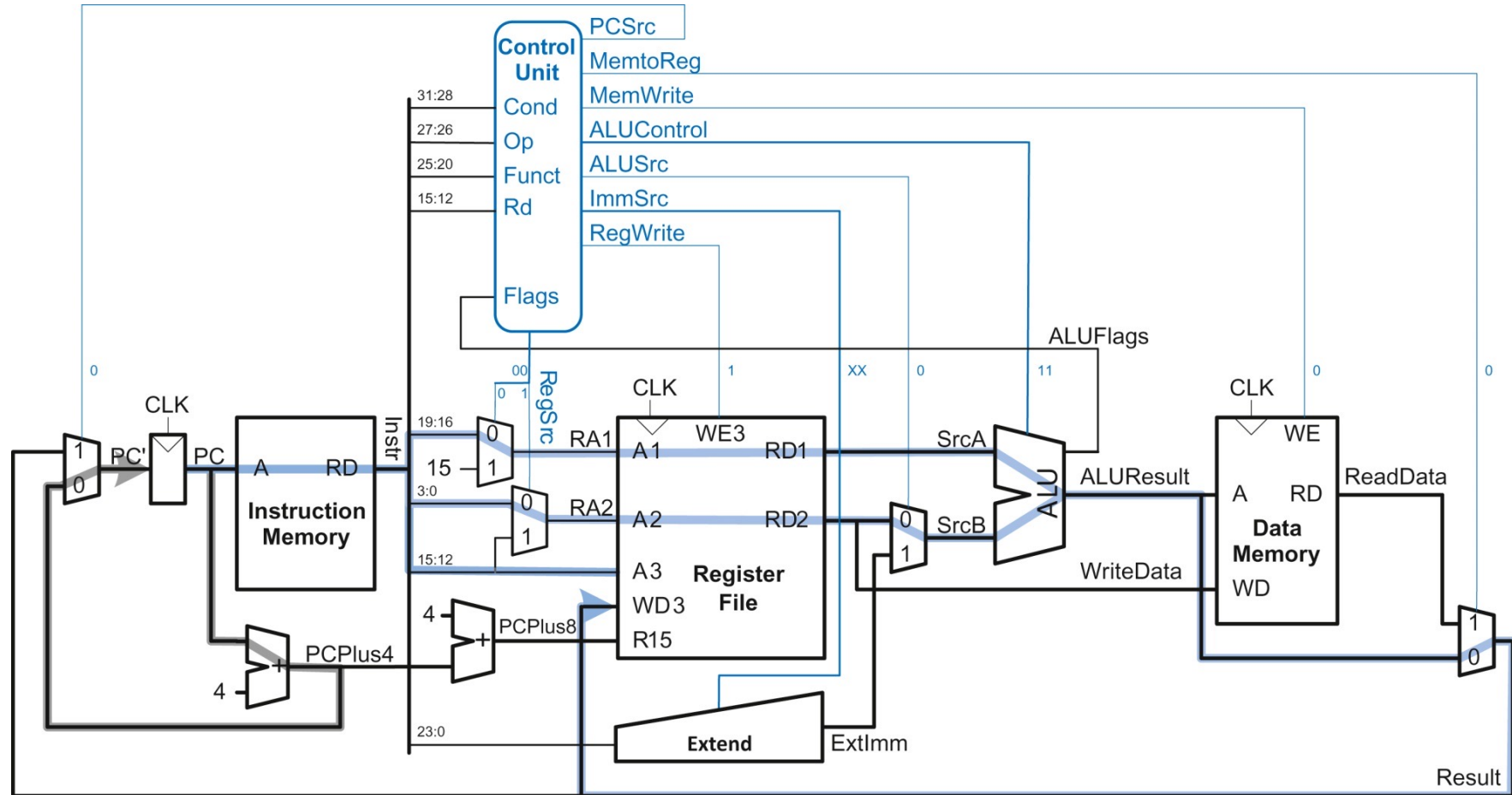
- Only selected signals are shown in the truth table

Op	Funct ₅	Funct ₀	Type	Branch	MemtoReg	MemW	ALUSrc	ImmSrc	RegW	RegSrc	ALUOp
00	0	X	DP Reg	0	0	0	0	XX	1	00	1
00	1	X	DP Imm	0	0	0	1	00	1	X0	1
01	X	0	STR	0	X	1	1	01	0	10	0
01	X	1	LDR	0	1	0	1	01	1	X0	0
11	X	X	B	1	0	0	1	10	0	X1	0

Example: Generating PCSrc Signal

- PCSrc is **1** when
 - Destination register (Rd) is R15
 - RegW is **1** (ADD/SUB or LDR)
 - Instruction is a branch
- $\text{PCSrc} = ((\text{Rd} == 15) \& \text{RegW}) \mid \text{Branch}$
 - Assuming the control unit generates a signal called **Branch** when opcode is **10** (B or BL)
- **Important:** Be careful to take conditional execution into account for the assignment!

Processor Operation: ORR

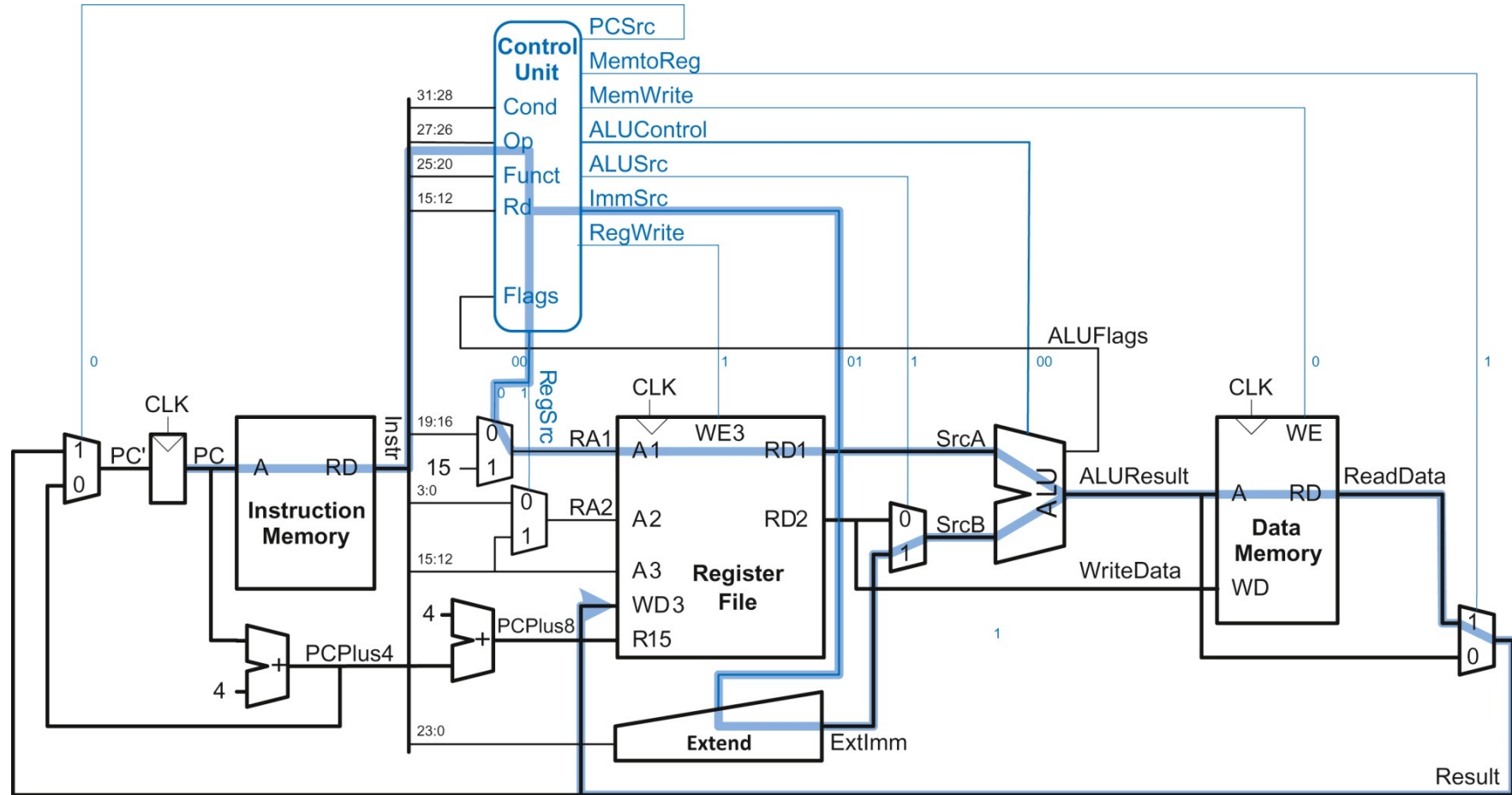


Processor Operation: ORR

PCSrc 0
MemtoReg 0
MemWrite 0
ALUControl **11**
ALUSrc 0
ImmSrc_{0:1} XX
RegWrite 1
RegSrc_{0:1} 00

ALUControl	Function
00	ADD
01	SUB
10	AND
11	ORR

Processor Operation: LDR



Processor Operation: LDR

PCSrc	0
MemtoReg	1
MemWrite	0
ALUControl	00
ALUSrc	1
ImmSrc _{0:1}	01
RegWrite	1
RegSrc _{0:1}	00

ALUControl	Function
00	ADD
01	SUB
10	AND
11	ORR

ImmSrc _{1:0}	ExtImm	Description
00	{24'b0, Instr _{7:0} }	Zero-extended <i>imm8</i>
01	{20'b0, Instr _{11:0} }	Zero-extended <i>imm12</i>
10	{6{Instr ₂₃ }, Instr _{23:0} }00	Sign-extended <i>imm24</i>

Drawback of Single-Cycle CPU

- Is this the best way to build a CPU?
- What are the critical issues?
 - Next: performance analysis basics

Performance Analysis

Processor Performance

- Performance is **quantified** by the **execution time**
- The time it takes for a program to execute from start to finish
- For example, for a given **ISA** and technology, how long does it take to run a program on the single-cycle CPU?

Processor Performance

- **How fast is my program?**
 - Every program consists of a series of instructions
 - Each instruction needs to be executed

- **So how fast are my instructions?**
 - Instructions are realized on the hardware
 - They can take one or more clock cycles to complete
 - *Cycles per Instruction = CPI*

- **How much time is one clock cycle?**
 - The critical path determines how much time one cycle requires = *clock period*
 - $1/\text{clock period} = \text{clock frequency}$ = how many cycles can be done each second

Execution Time

$$\text{Execution time} = (\text{\#instructions}) \left(\frac{\text{cycles}}{\text{instruction}} \right) \left(\frac{\text{seconds}}{\text{cycle}} \right)$$

- # instructions (**N**)
 - Depends on the ISA, skill of programmer, compiler, algorithm
- cycles per instruction (**CPI**)
 - Depends on the microarchitecture
- seconds per cycle (clock period, inverse is clock frequency, **f**)
 - critical path, circuit technology, type of adders, gate-level details

How Can I Make the Program Run Faster?

- $N \times \text{CPI} \times (1/f)$

- **Reduce the number of instructions (N)**
 - Make instructions that 'do' more (CISC)
 - Use better compilers
- **Use fewer cycles to perform the instruction (CPI)**
 - Simpler instructions (RISC)
 - Use multiple units/ALUs/cores in parallel
- **Increase the clock frequency (f)**
 - Find a 'newer' technology to manufacture
 - Redesign time-critical components
 - Adopt pipelining

Execution Time (Single-Cycle CPU)

$$\text{Execution time} = (\# \text{instructions}) \left(\frac{\text{cycles}}{\text{instruction}} \right) \left(\frac{\text{seconds}}{\text{cycle}} \right)$$

- # instructions (**ARM is a RISC ISA**)
- cycles per instruction (= **One, fixed, bad idea!**)
- seconds per cycle (**critical path of the CPU circuit**)

Critical Path Analysis

- Each instruction in single-cycle CPU takes one clock cycle
- Determining the cycle time requires finding the critical path
- **Different instructions use different resources**
 - LDR uses instruction and data memory
 - ADD does not use data memory
 - STR does not write anything back to the register file
- **Which instruction is the **slowest**?**
 - Let us revisit the schematics and find out

Elements of Critical Path

Parameter	Description
t_{pcq_PC}	PC clock-to-Q delay
t_{mem}	Memory read
t_{dec}	Decoder propagation delay
t_{mux}	Multiplexer delay
t_{RFread}	Register file read
t_{ext}	Extension block delay
t_{ALU}	ALU delay
$t_{RFsetup}$	Set up RF for write (next cycle)

Critical Path: LDR

$$T_c = t_{pcq_PC} + t_{mem} + t_{dec} + \max[t_{mux} + t_{RFread}, t_{ext} + t_{mux}] + t_{ALU} + t_{mem} + t_{mux} + t_{RFsetup}$$

- Memories & register files slower than combinational logic
 - Therefore, $t_{mux} + t_{RFread} \gg t_{ext} + t_{mux}$

Final Equation

$$T_c = t_{pcq_PC} + 2t_{mem} + t_{dec} + t_{RFread} + t_{ALU} + 2t_{mux} + t_{RFsetup}$$

Critical Path: DP-R

$$T_c = t_{pcq_PC} + t_{mem} + t_{dec} + t_{mux} + t_{RFread} + t_{ALU} + t_{mux} + t_{RFsetup}$$

Final Equation

$$T_c = t_{pcq_PC} + t_{mem} + t_{dec} + t_{RFread} + t_{ALU} + 2t_{mux} + t_{RFsetup}$$

Critical Path Analysis

- Different instructions have different critical paths
 - **LDR** is the **slowest** instruction
 - **DP-R** and **B** have **shorter critical paths** because they do not need to access data memory (**Memory is slow!**)
- Single-cycle processor is a **synchronous sequential circuit**
 - Clock period must be **constant** and **long enough** to accommodate the slowest instruction
- The numerical values of different variables in the critical path equation depend on the specific manufacturing technology

Exercise 1: Performance Analysis

- Find the time it takes to execute a program with 100 billion instructions on a single-cycle CPU in 16 nm CMOS manufacturing process. See the table for delays of logic elements.

Parameter	Delay (ps)
t_{pcq_PC}	40
t_{mem}	200
t_{dec}	70
t_{mux}	25
t_{RFread}	100
t_{ALU}	120
$t_{RFsetup}$	60

$$T_c = t_{pcq_PC} + 2*t_{mem} + t_{dec} + t_{RFread} + t_{ALU} + 2*t_{mux} + t_{RFsetup}$$

Exercise 2: Performance Analysis

C code:

```
int i;  
int sum = 0;  
  
for (i = 0; i < 10; i = i + 1)  
    sum = sum + i;
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = i  
; R1 = sum  
    MOV    R0,    #0  
    MOV    R1,    #0  
COND  
    CMP    R0,    #10  
    BLT   FOR  
    B     DONE  
FOR  
    ADD    R1,    R1,    R0  
    ADD    R0,    R0,    #1  
    B     COND  
DONE
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = i  
; R1 = sum  
    MOV    R0,    #0  
    MOV    R1,    #0  
FOR  
    CMP    R0,    #10  
    BGE   DONE  
    ADD    R1,    R1,    R0  
    ADD    R0,    R0,    #1  
    B     FOR  
DONE
```

- Find the execution time for each of the two implementations of the **for** loop. Use CPU parameters from next slide.

Drawbacks of Single-Cycle CPU

- Requires two memories (no reuse)
- Requires three adders (no reuse)
- Clock period is dictated by the slowest instruction
 - No way to make the *common case fast* (e.g., DP instructions)

Coming Attractions

Multi-Cycle CPU

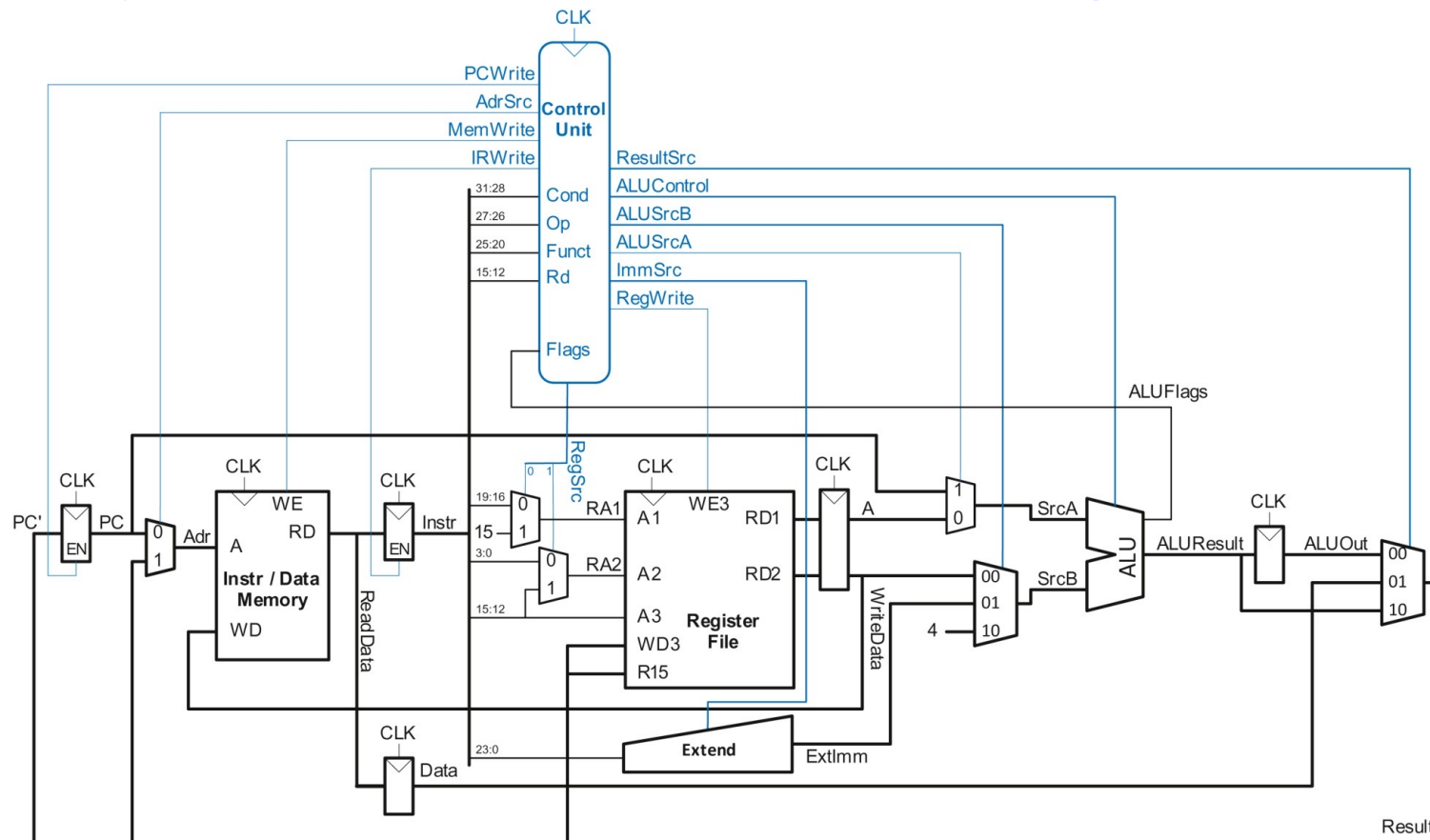
- Divide each instruction into a number of steps
- Perform one step in one clock cycle (instead of an entire instruction)
- Need **non-architectural** (**microarchitectural**) registers to store **intermediate** state
- Need an **FSM-based controller** to transition between steps
 - Different control signals on different steps

Section 7.4 of H&H

- **After the teaching break: Possible ext. for assignment 1**

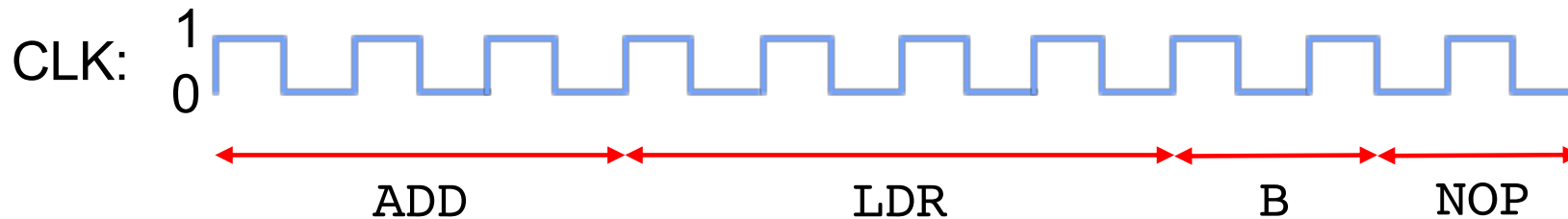
Multi-Cycle CPU Sneak Peek (Week 7)

- Can you spot the non-architectural state (registers)?



Section 7.4 of H&H

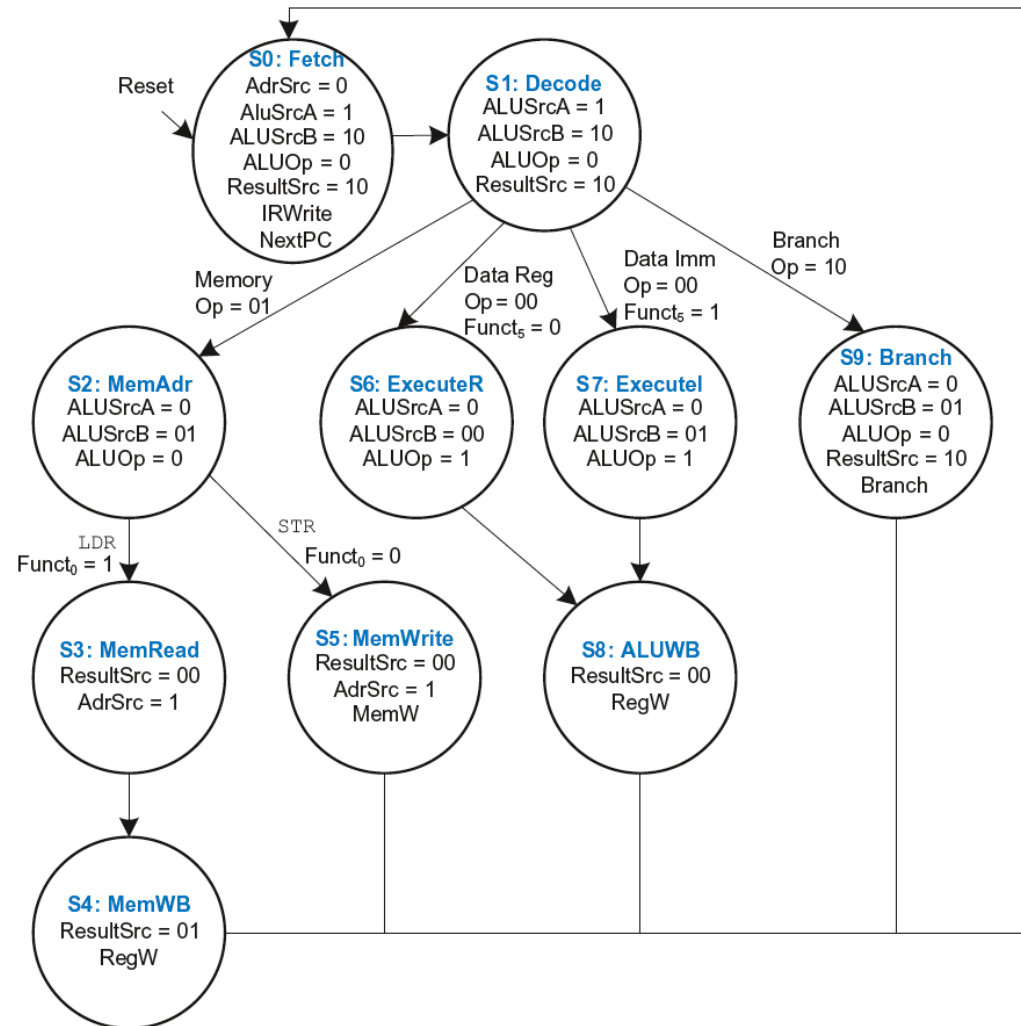
Multi-Cycle CPU Cycle by Cycle (Week 7)



- Hypothetical multi-cycle CPU
 - ADD and SUB takes 3 cycles
 - LDR and STR take 4 cycles
 - Unconditional branch takes 1 cycle

Multi-Cycle Control Unit FSM (Week 7)

State	Datapath μ Op
Fetch	$\text{Instr} \leftarrow \text{Mem}[\text{PC}]; \text{PC} \leftarrow \text{PC}+4$
Decode	$\text{ALUOut} \leftarrow \text{PC}+4$
MemAdr	$\text{ALUOut} \leftarrow \text{Rn} + \text{Imm}$
MemRead	$\text{Data} \leftarrow \text{Mem}[\text{ALUOut}]$
MemWB	$\text{Rd} \leftarrow \text{Data}$
MemWrite	$\text{Mem}[\text{ALUOut}] \leftarrow \text{Rd}$
ExecuteR	$\text{ALUOut} \leftarrow \text{Rn op Rm}$
Executel	$\text{ALUOut} \leftarrow \text{Rn op Imm}$
ALUWB	$\text{Rd} \leftarrow \text{ALUOut}$
Branch	$\text{PC} \leftarrow \text{R15} + \text{offset}$



ISA Tradeoffs



ISA Impacts Software and Hardware

- **Complex instructions**
 - (Upside) Dense and efficient code
 - (Downside) Complex circuits with longer critical paths
 - Example: x86 operate instructions can have both register and memory operands
 - Register-Memory architecture
- **Simple instructions**
 - (Upside) Simple circuits (microarchitecture)
 - (Downside) Large instruction footprint (many instruction to solve the same problem)
 - (Downside) Big semantic gap between high-level code and assembly code
 - Example: ARM allows accessing memory only via LDR/STR
 - Load-Store architecture
- **Number of Registers (tradeoff)**
 - Large register file demands more space in the ISA for encoding
 - But, more registers reduce trips to memory (memory references)

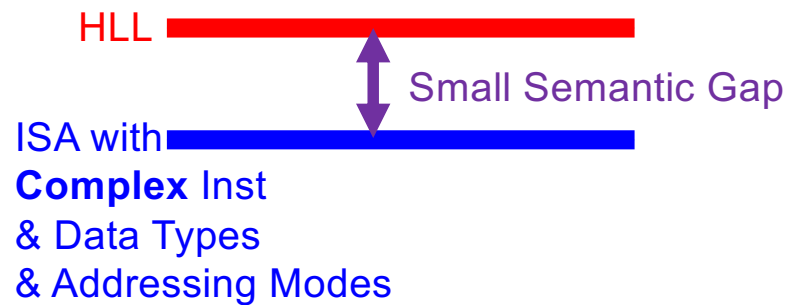
ISA Impacts Software and Hardware

- ISA impacts
 - Performance
 - Power and energy
 - Code size and instruction footprint
 - Circuit cost and complexity (chip area)
 - Future growth (ISA evolution)

Semantic Gap

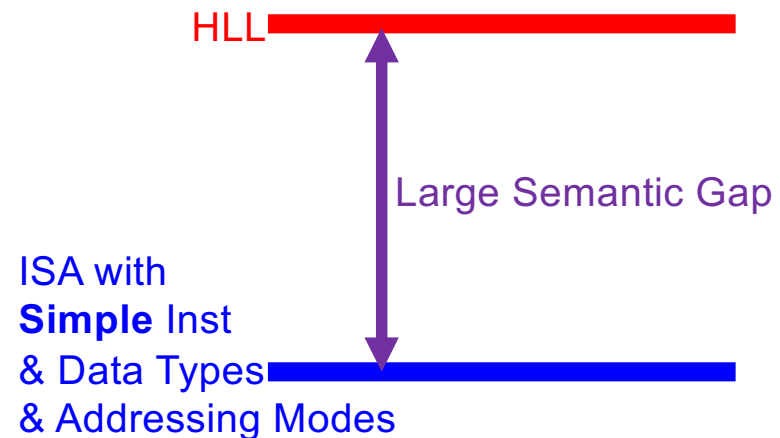
- How close instructions & data types & addressing modes are to high-level language (HLL)

Semantic Gap



HW 
Control
Signals

Easier mapping of HLL to ISA
Less work for software designer
More work for hardware designer
Optimization burden on HW



HW 
Control
Signals

Harder mapping of HLL to ISA
More work for software designer
Less work for hardware designer
Optimization burden on SW

Addressing Mode Tradeoffs

Addressing Modes

- Addressing mode **specifies** how instruction operands are **addressed**
 - Source and destination registers
 - Target address of a memory reference
 - Target address that a branch will jump to
- ARM uses four **main modes**
 - Register
 - Immediate
 - Base
 - PC-relative
- First three modes for reading/writing operands
- Last mode is for writing the program counter

ARM Addressing Modes

- Some of the addressing modes allow the second source operand to be shifted
 - Check your references for details

Table 6.12 ARM operand addressing modes

Operand Addressing Mode	Example	Description
Register		
Register-only	ADD R3, R2, R1	$R3 \leftarrow R2 + R1$
Immediate-shifted register	SUB R4, R5, R9, LSR #2	$R4 \leftarrow R5 - (R9 \gg 2)$
Register-shifted register	ORR R0, R10, R2, ROR R7	$R0 \leftarrow R10 (R2 \text{ ROR } R7)$
Immediate	SUB R3, R2, #25	$R3 \leftarrow R2 - 25$
Base		
Immediate offset	STR R6, [R11, #77]	$\text{mem}[R11+77] \leftarrow R6$
Register offset	LDR R12, [R1, -R5]	$R12 \leftarrow \text{mem}[R1 - R5]$
Immediate-shifted register offset	LDR R8, [R9, R2, LSL #2]	$R8 \leftarrow \text{mem}[R9 + (R2 \ll 2)]$
PC-Relative	B LABEL1	Branch to LABEL1

Section 6.4.4 of H&H

Addressing Mode Tradeoffs



- Complex addressing modes simplify high-level code to assembly translation
- But they result in more complex circuits (microarchitecture)
 - ALU to add base and offset
 - Shifter in front of ALU
- Where to place the burden of optimization? Software or Hardware
 - Many simple instructions + Simple microarchitecture
 - Few complex instructions + Complex microarchitecture

Aside: Data Dependences

- In Von Neumann model, instructions depend on each other for data
- **Data (True) Dependence:** One instruction **produces** a result that the subsequent instruction **consumes**

Aside: Data Dependences

- One can visualize a **sequential program** as an instruction flow or **data flow**

Aside: Data Dependences

- Data dependence implies the two instructions must execute in program order
 - They cannot be executed simultaneously (**in parallel at the same time**)
- There are also **control dependences** due to branches as instruction can only execute if a branch evaluates to TRUE
- **And false dependences** (we will see the details later)

Implication for microarchitecture

- In the end we care about the **correctness of the program**
 - From the **initial** architectural state to the **final** architectural state
- Preserving data flow (not instruction flow) is critical for program correctness
- Single-cycle CPU is one way to satisfy the program correctness criteria
 - Very strict and highly constrained. And hence, poor performance
- High performance requires out of the box thinking
 - **Key technique is parallelism:** we must execute several **(independent)** instructions at the same time
- Understanding dependences is the key to unlocking parallelism

Aside: What if a machine processes instructions out of program order?

- What does the programmer care about?
- Does the programmer care if `i3` executed before `i4`?
 - No: Programmer only cares `R1` was updated before `R0`
 - Can update `AS` in program order and process instructions out of order (OOO)
- Why would a machine ever do that?
 - Fact: Almost EVERY high-performance computer does that!
 - In-program-order instruction processing (execution) is an illusion in high-end computers

```
i1: CMP  R0,  #10
i2: BGE  DONE
i3: ADD  R1,  R1,  R0
i4: ADD  R0,  R0,  #1
```

We will meet after two weeks

Revise the lecture content and do the quiz

Finish assignment 1

Shift Instructions

Category: Data Processing

Shift Instructions

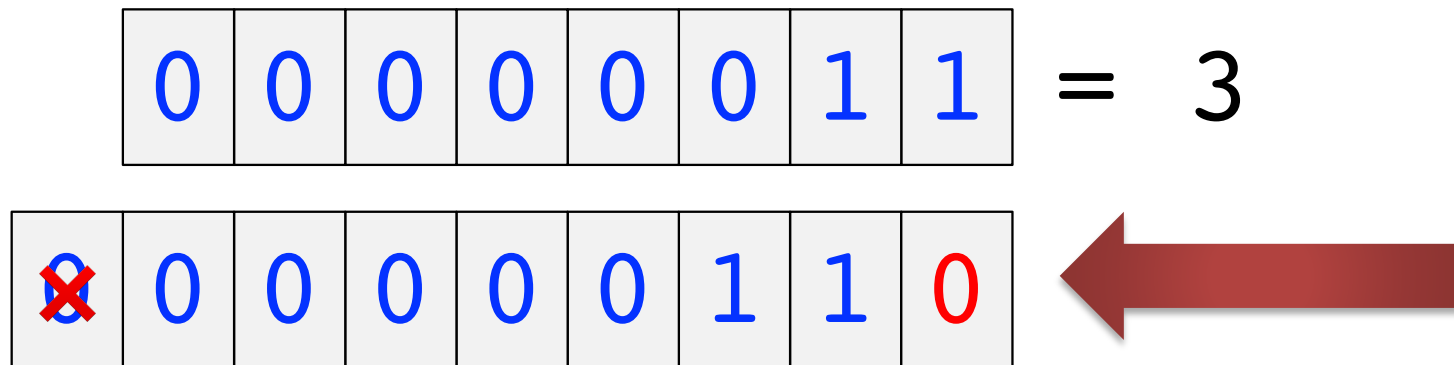
- **Shift the value in a register left or right, drop bits off the end**
 - Logical Shift Left (LSL)
 - Logical Shift Right (LSR)
 - Arithmetic Shift Right (ASR)
 - Rotate Right (ROR)
- **Logical Shift:** shifts the number to the left/right and fills empty slots with zero
- **Arithmetic Shift:** On right shifts fill the most significant bits with the sign bit
- **Rotate:** rotates number in a circle such that empty spots are filled with bits shifted off the other end

Logical Shift Left (LSL)

0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

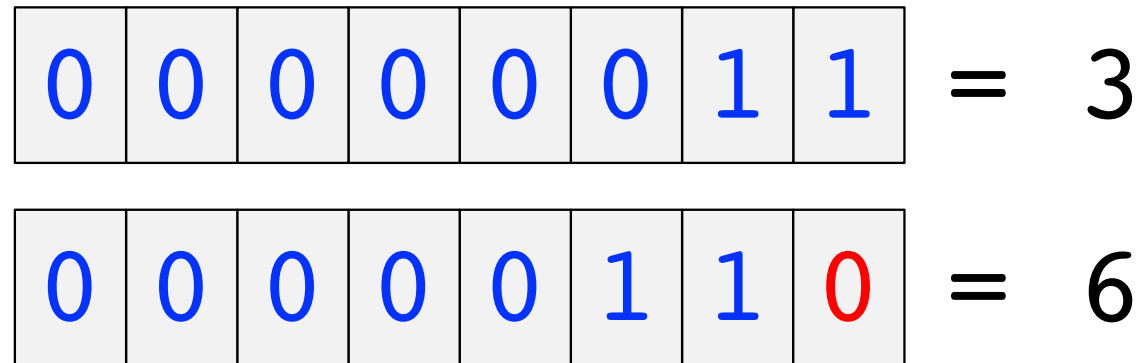
- Binary Number in Decimal = 3

Logical Shift Left (LSL)



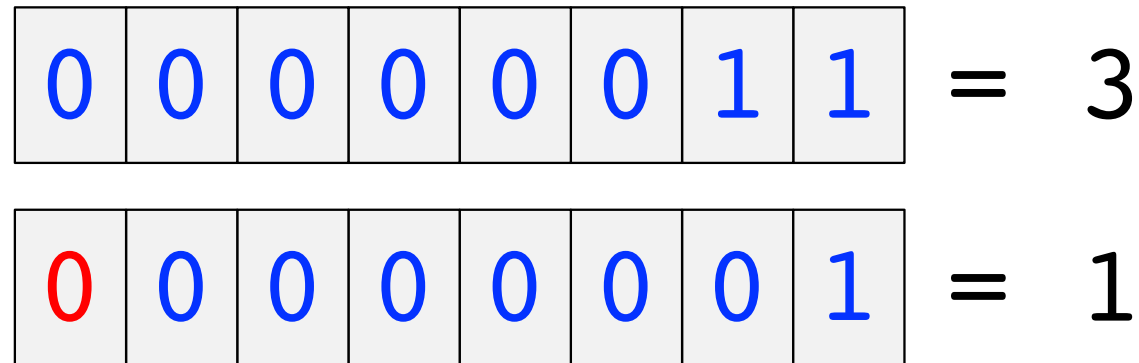
- Shift the number **LEFT** by **ONE** BIT
- INSERT **0** in **Least Significant Position**
- Get **RID** of the **Most Significant BIT**

Logical Shift Left (LSL)



- Binary Number after shift in Decimal = 6
- SHIFT LEFT = MULTIPLY BY 2

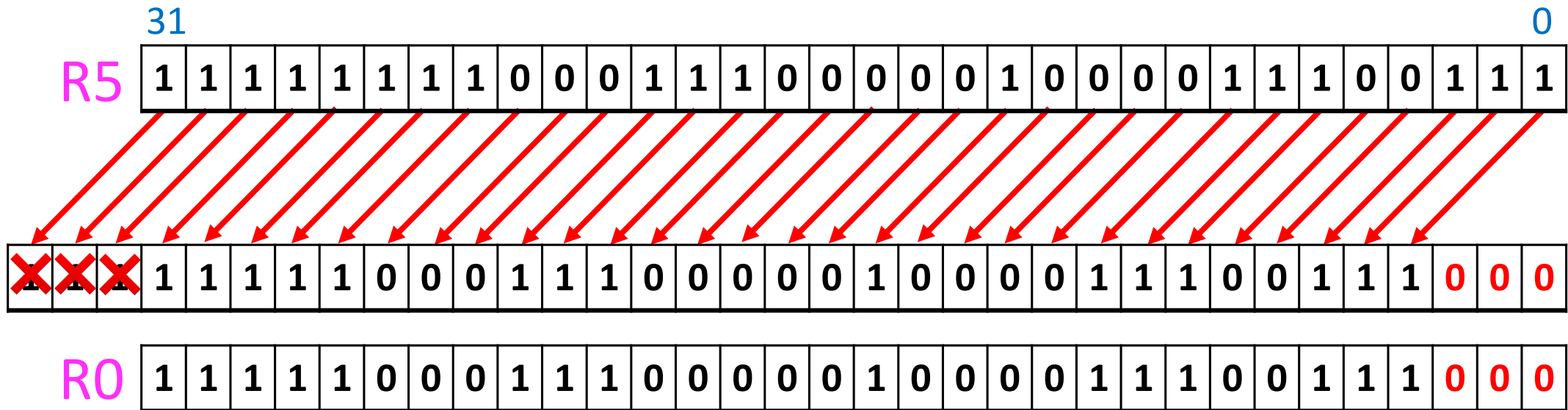
Logical Shift Right (LSR)



- Binary Number after right shift in Decimal = 1
- SHIFT RIGHT = DIVIDE BY 2

Logical Shift Left (LSL)

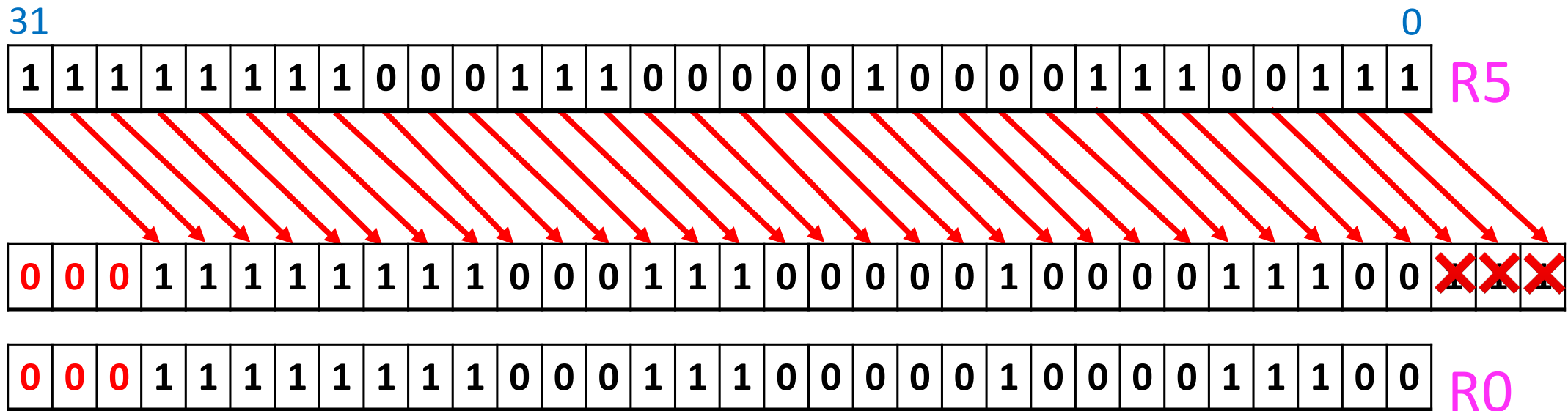
ARM Instruction `LSL R0, R5, #3`



- Shift all bits left **3** positions, fill **3** least significant bits with **0's**
- Drop the **3** bits off the end

Logical Shift Right (LSR)

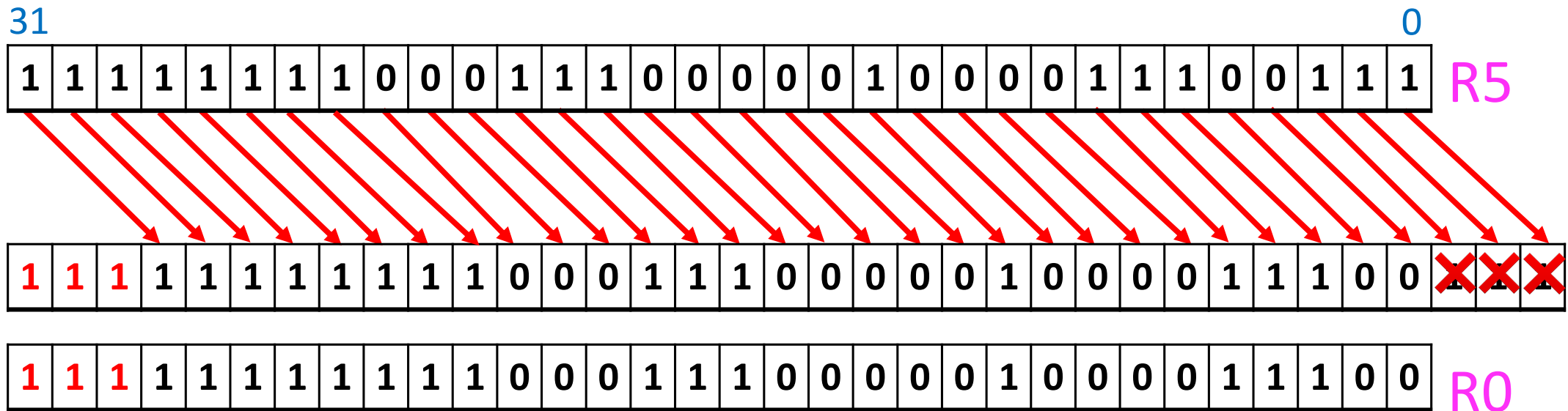
ARM Instruction `LSR R0, R5, #3`



- Shift all bits right **3** positions, insert three **0**'s from the right
- Drop the **3** bits from the left

Arithmetic Shift Right (ASR)

ARM Instruction `ASR R0, R5, #3`

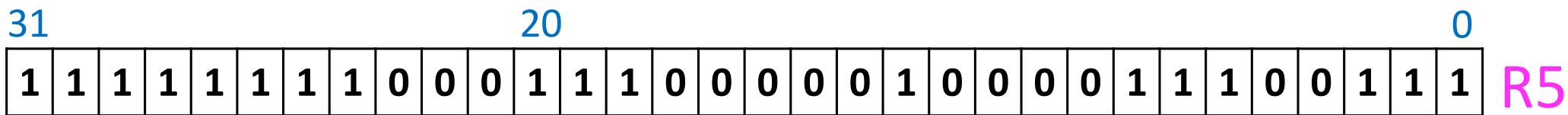


- Shift all bits right **3** positions, insert three **1**'s from the right
- Drop the **3** bits from the left

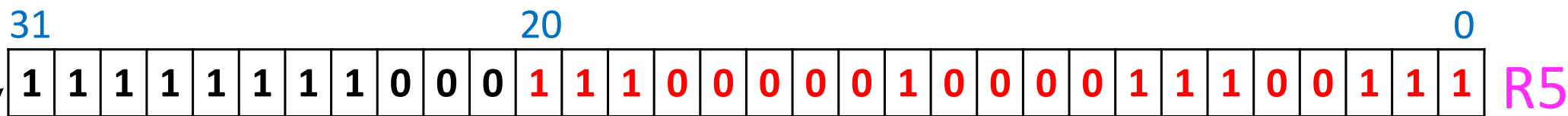
Rotate Right (ROR)

ARM Instruction

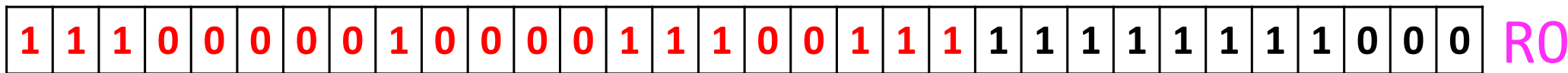
```
ROR R0, R5, #21
```



- Do a circular shift
- Right shift by 21 and put back bits that fall off at left end



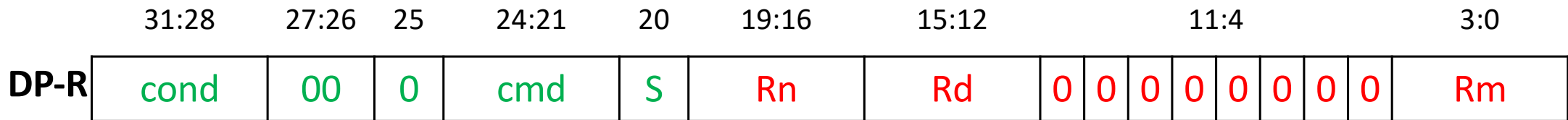
Result



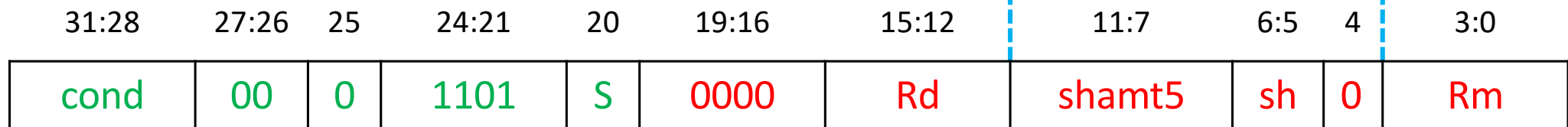
Binary Encoding of Shift Instructions

- Self Study
- Section 6.4 of H&H

Shifts: Machine Representation



Shift Instructions

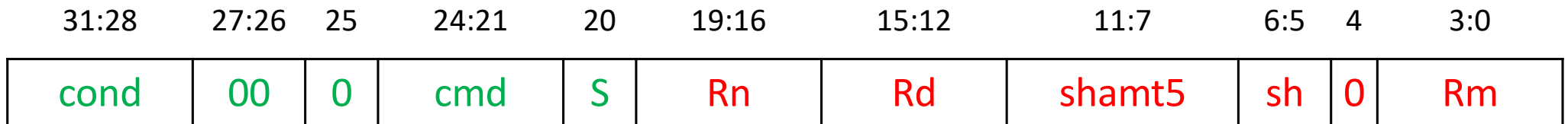


- cmd = 1101
- sh = 00 (LSL), 01 (LSR), 10 (ASR), 11 (ROR)
- Rn = 0
- shamt5 = 5-bit shift amount

Shifts: Machine Representation

- Format (Src2 = Register)

LSL R0, R5, #3
↓ ↓ ↓
LSL Rd, Rm, shamt5

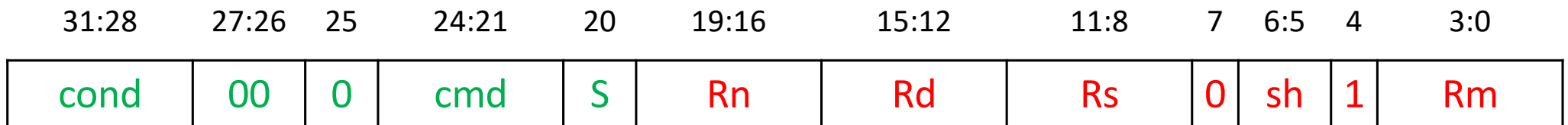


Shifts: Machine Representation

- ARM also has instructions with shift amount held in a register

LSL R4, R8, R6

ROR R5, R8, R6



Use of Shift Instructions

- **Left shift** by N = Multiplication by 2^N
- **Arithmetic right shift** by N = Division by 2^N
- **Extract bits or assemble new bit patterns**
 - Network programming
 - Cryptography
 - Compression of data

Examples of Shift Instructions

		Source register			
	R5	1111 1111	0001 1100	0001 0000	1110 0111
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

Figure 6.4 Shift instructions with immediate shift amounts

		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

Figure 6.5 Shift instructions with register shift amounts

Shift amount can be in a register

Manipulating Characters & Bytes

Characters & Encoding

- Reading and writing text is ubiquitous
 - Different devices (tablet, laptop, desktop, mobile)
 - Different applications (word, whatsapp, email)
 - Different manufactures (Apple, Intel, Samsung)
- Need a **standardized way** to represent characters that make up text
 - From **bits and bytes** to **character representations**
 - **Things still go wrong!**

```
'äf%äf!ä,äf"ä,*ä @æCE!ä@sä «é-çä "ä,äf"äf@äf-äf«  
i,»äffäf"ä @é! *ä ,ä «ä,*ä,äf"äf@äf-äf«  
!ä,äf"ä,*ä @ä%æ! ,ä «é-çä "ä,äf"äf@äf-äf«
```

Thinking about Character Input/Output

- Keyboard data is captured in a register



- Some binary data is sent to a special memory associated with graphics chip to display the character

Manipulating Characters

- Manipulating characters is common
- We need architectural support for manipulating characters
- Character is the same as a byte
 - So, architectural support for manipulating bytes
 - Regular LDR/STR deal with words (not bytes)

ASCII Encoding

- English characters can be encoded in a single byte (< 256)
- **1963: ASCII** was developed
 - **American Standard Code for Information & Interchange**
 - Assigns each text character a **unique** byte
 - **Information exchange** became feasible across **manufactures** and **geographical boundaries**
- The C language uses the type **char** to represent byte or character
- **Optimize the common case:** Need architectural support for manipulating bytes

Other Encodings

- Other programming languages such as Java, use different character encodings
- Unicode is the most well-known
- 16 bits to represent accents, Asian languages, and more
 - www.unicode.org

Decimal - Binary - Octal - Hex – ASCII Conversion Chart

Decimal	Binary	Octal	Hex	ASCII	Decimal	Binary	Octal	Hex	ASCII	Decimal	Binary	Octal	Hex	ASCII	Decimal	Binary	Octal	Hex	ASCII
0	00000000	000	00	NUL	32	00100000	040	20	SP	64	01000000	100	40	@	96	01100000	140	60	`
1	00000001	001	01	SOH	33	00100001	041	21	!	65	01000001	101	41	A	97	01100001	141	61	a
2	00000010	002	02	STX	34	00100010	042	22	"	66	01000010	102	42	B	98	01100010	142	62	b
3	00000011	003	03	ETX	35	00100011	043	23	#	67	01000011	103	43	C	99	01100011	143	63	c
4	00000100	004	04	EOT	36	00100100	044	24	\$	68	01000100	104	44	D	100	01100100	144	64	d
5	00000101	005	05	ENQ	37	00100101	045	25	%	69	01000101	105	45	E	101	01100101	145	65	e
6	00000110	006	06	ACK	38	00100110	046	26	&	70	01000110	106	46	F	102	01100110	146	66	f
7	00000111	007	07	BEL	39	00100111	047	27	'	71	01000111	107	47	G	103	01100111	147	67	g
8	00001000	010	08	BS	40	00101000	050	28	(72	01001000	110	48	H	104	01101000	150	68	h
9	00001001	011	09	HT	41	00101001	051	29)	73	01001001	111	49	I	105	01101001	151	69	i
10	00001010	012	0A	LF	42	00101010	052	2A	*	74	01001010	112	4A	J	106	01101010	152	6A	j
11	00001011	013	0B	VT	43	00101011	053	2B	+	75	01001011	113	4B	K	107	01101011	153	6B	k
12	00001100	014	0C	FF	44	00101100	054	2C	,	76	01001100	114	4C	L	108	01101100	154	6C	l
13	00001101	015	0D	CR	45	00101101	055	2D	-	77	01001101	115	4D	M	109	01101101	155	6D	m
14	00001110	016	0E	SO	46	00101110	056	2E	.	78	01001110	116	4E	N	110	01101110	156	6E	n
15	00001111	017	0F	SI	47	00101111	057	2F	/	79	01001111	117	4F	O	111	01101111	157	6F	o
16	00010000	020	10	DLE	48	00110000	060	30	0	80	01010000	120	50	P	112	01110000	160	70	p
17	00010001	021	11	DC1	49	00110001	061	31	1	81	01010001	121	51	Q	113	01110001	161	71	q
18	00010010	022	12	DC2	50	00110010	062	32	2	82	01010010	122	52	R	114	01110010	162	72	r
19	00010011	023	13	DC3	51	00110011	063	33	3	83	01010011	123	53	S	115	01110011	163	73	s
20	00010100	024	14	DC4	52	00110100	064	34	4	84	01010100	124	54	T	116	01110100	164	74	t
21	00010101	025	15	NAK	53	00110101	065	35	5	85	01010101	125	55	U	117	01110101	165	75	u
22	00010110	026	16	SYN	54	00110110	066	36	6	86	01010110	126	56	V	118	01110110	166	76	v
23	00010111	027	17	ETB	55	00110111	067	37	7	87	01010111	127	57	W	119	01110111	167	77	w
24	00011000	030	18	CAN	56	00111000	070	38	8	88	01011000	130	58	X	120	01111000	170	78	x
25	00011001	031	19	EM	57	00111001	071	39	9	89	01011001	131	59	Y	121	01111001	171	79	y
26	00011010	032	1A	SUB	58	00111010	072	3A	:	90	01011010	132	5A	Z	122	01111010	172	7A	z
27	00011011	033	1B	ESC	59	00111011	073	3B	;	91	01011011	133	5B	[123	01111011	173	7B	{
28	00011100	034	1C	FS	60	00111100	074	3C	<	92	01011100	134	5C	\	124	01111100	174	7C	
29	00011101	035	1D	GS	61	00111101	075	3D	=	93	01011101	135	5D]	125	01111101	175	7D	}
30	00011110	036	1E	RS	62	00111110	076	3E	>	94	01011110	136	5E	^	126	01111110	176	7E	~
31	00011111	037	1F	US	63	00111111	077	3F	?	95	01011111	137	5F	_	127	01111111	177	7F	DEL

Lower case and upper case differ by 0x20 (32)

Instructions for Loading/Storing Bytes

- **LDRB**
 - Load byte in register, and **zero-extend** to fill the 32 bits
- **LDRSB**
 - Load byte in register, and **sign-extend** to fill the 32 bits
- **STRB**
 - Store the **LSB** of the **32-bit integer** into the **specified** byte in memory
 - More significant bits of the register are ignored

Loading/Storing Bytes

- What is in **R1**, **R2**, and **memory** after each of the instruction has executed? Assume **R4** = 0

Byte Address	Data
4	...
3	F7
2	8C
1	42
0	03

Registers

R1	XX XX XX XX	LDRB R1, [R4, #2]
R2	XX XX XX XX	LDRSB R2, [R4, #2]
R3	11 10 A1 9B	STRB R3, [R4, #3]

Loading/Storing Bytes

- What is in **R1**, **R2**, and **memory** after each of the instruction has executed? Assume **R4** = 0

Byte Address	Data
4	...
3	9B
2	8C
1	42
0	03

Registers

R1	00	00	00	8C	LDRB R1, [R4, #2]
R2	FF	FF	FF	8C	LDRSB R2, [R4, #2]
R3	XX	XX	XX	9B	STRB R3, [R4, #3]

Strings in C

- A series of characters is a **string**
- Two ways to create strings in C
 - `char welcome[6] = {'H', 'E', 'L', 'L', 'O', '\0'};`
 - `char welcome[] = "HELLO";`
- Different **strings** have different number of characters
 - We need to know the end of the **string** to write correct programs that manipulate **strings**
 - The **null terminator** `'\0'` marks the end of the string

Strings in C

- `char welcome[6] = {'H', 'E', 'L', 'L', 'O', '\0'};`
- `char welcome[] = "HELLO";`

- Compiler figures out the length
- 5 + 1 for '\0'
- Manually track length (unlike Python)

- Compiler inserts a **null terminator** '\0' automatically

- Need a way to know the end of the string
 - C strings are **null-terminated**

Exercise: Manipulating Char Array

C code:

```
char array[11] = "anthonymay";  
int i;  
  
for (i = 0; i < 10; i = i + 1)  
    array[i] = array[i] - 32;
```

Exercise: Manipulating Char Array

- Transform the 10-character ASCII string, namely `array`, from lower case to upper case

C code:

```
char array[11] = "anthonymay";
int i;

for (i = 0; i < 10; i = i + 1)
    array[i] = array[i] - 32;
```

Assembly code:

```
; R0 = base addr, R1 = i
MOV    R1,    #0
LOOP
CMP    R1,    #10
BGE    DONE
LDRB   R2,    [R0, R1]
SUB    R2,    R2,    #32
STRB   R2,    [R0, R1]
ADD    R1,    R1,    #1
B      LOOP
DONE
```

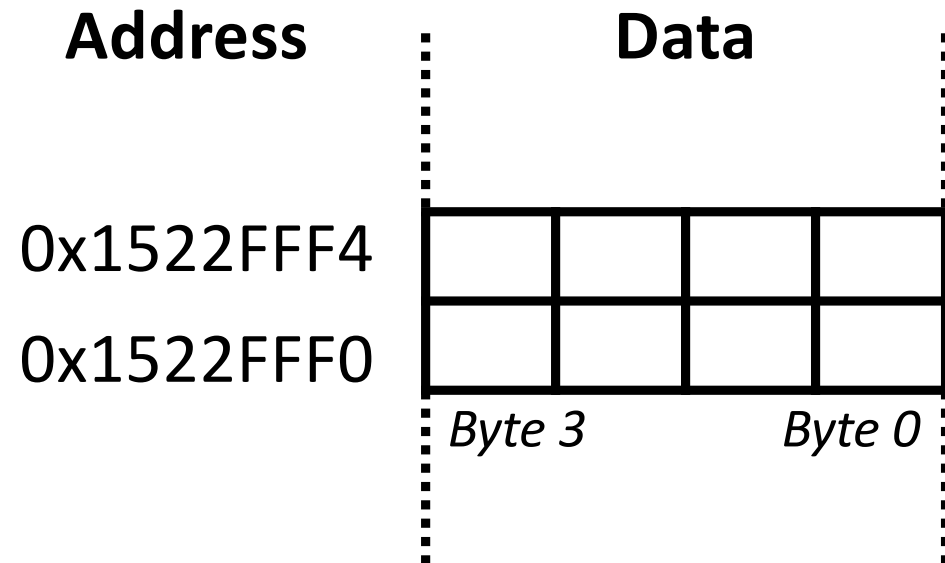
- `i = 0`
- `i < 10?`
- if `i >= 10`, exit
- `R2 = array[i]`
- subtract 32
- store `array[i]`
- `i = i + 1`
- repeat loop

Exercise: Strings in Memory

- Show how “HELLO!” is stored in memory below at address `0x1522FFF0`.

ASCII Encoding

H	0x48
E	0x65
L	0x6C
O	0x6F
!	0x21
Null	0x00

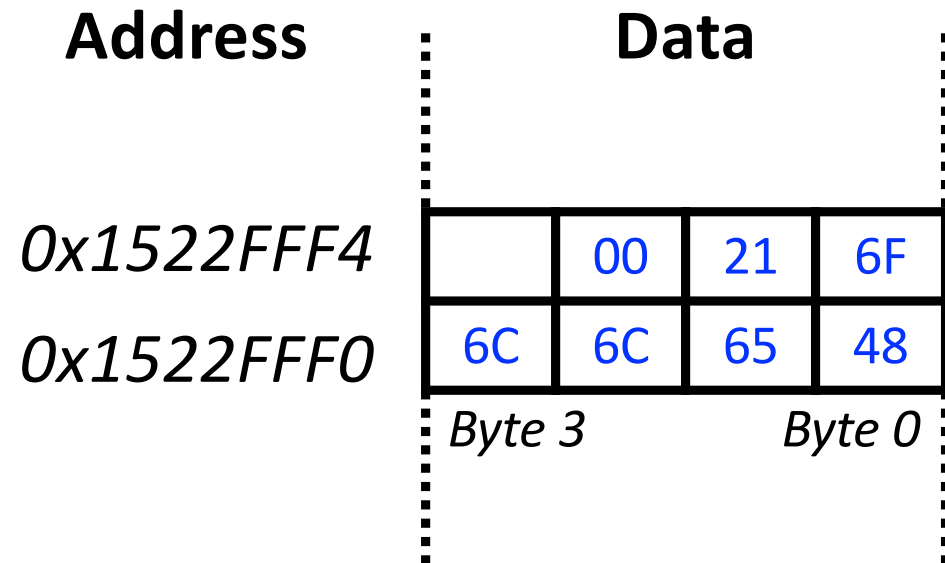


Exercise: Strings in Memory

- Show how “HELLO!” is stored in memory below at address `0x1522FFF0`.

ASCII Encoding

H	0x48
E	0x65
L	0x6C
O	0x6F
!	0x21
Null	0x00



Some Assembly Practice

More Assembly Practice

C Code

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

ARM Assembly Code

```
; 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
```

More Assembly Practice

C Code

```
int array[200];
int i;
for (i=199; i >= 0; i = i - 1)
    array[i] = array[i] * 8;
```

ARM Assembly Code

```
; R0 = array base address, R1 = i
MOV R0, 0x60000000
MOV R1, #199

FOR
LDR R2, [R0, R1, LSL #2] ; R2 = array(i)
LSL R2, R2, #3 ; R2 = R2<<3 = R3*8
STR R2, [R0, R1, LSL #2] ; array(i) = R2
SUBS R1, R1, #1 ; i = i - 1
; and set flags

BPL FOR ; if (i>=0) repeat
loop
```