

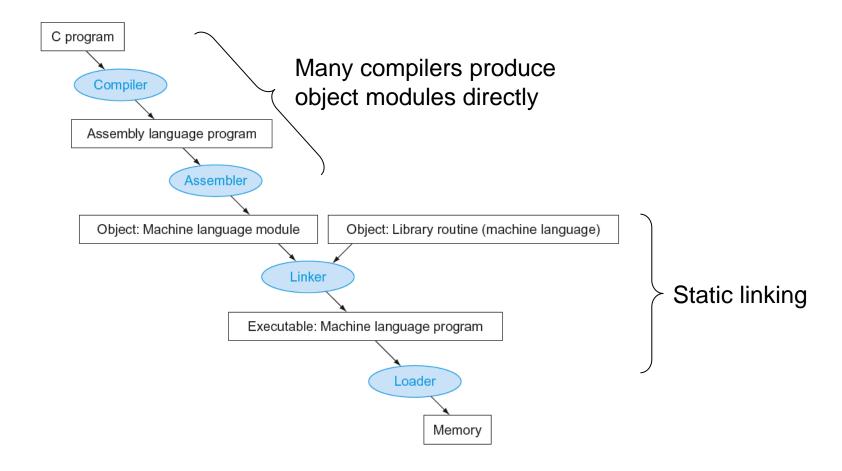
Fundamentals of Computer Architecture

ARM - Review

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Translation and Startup





Producing an Object Module

- Assembler (or compiler) translates program into machine instructions
- Provides information for building a complete program from the pieces
 - Header: described contents of object module
 - Text segment: translated instructions
 - Static data segment: data allocated for the life of the program
 - Relocation info: for contents that depend on absolute location of loaded program
 - Symbol table: global definitions and external refs
 - Debug info: for associating with source code



Linking Object Modules

- Produces an executable image
 - 1. Merges segments
 - 2. Resolve labels (determine their addresses)
 - 3. Patch location-dependent and external refs
- Could leave location dependencies for fixing by a relocating loader
 - But with virtual memory, no need to do this
 - Program can be loaded into absolute location in virtual memory space



Loading a Program

- Load from image file on disk into memory
 - 1. Read header to determine segment sizes
 - 2. Create virtual address space
 - 3. Copy text and initialized data into memory
 - Or set page table entries so they can be faulted in
 - 4. Set up arguments on stack
 - 5. Initialize registers (including SP, FP)
 - 6. Jump to startup routine
 - Copies arguments to X0, ... and calls main
 - When main returns, do exit syscall





Dynamic Linking

- Only link/load library procedure when it is called
 - Requires procedure code to be relocatable
 - Avoids image bloat caused by static linking of all (transitively) referenced libraries
 - Automatically picks up new library versions



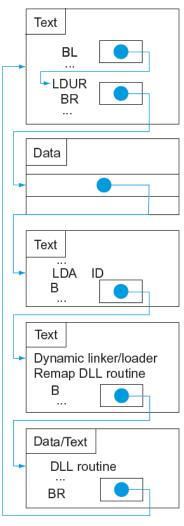
Lazy Linkage

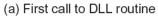
Indirection table

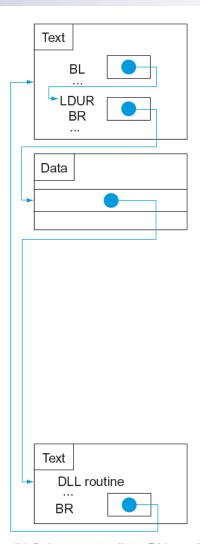
Stub: Loads routine ID, Jump to linker/loader

Linker/loader code

Dynamically mapped code





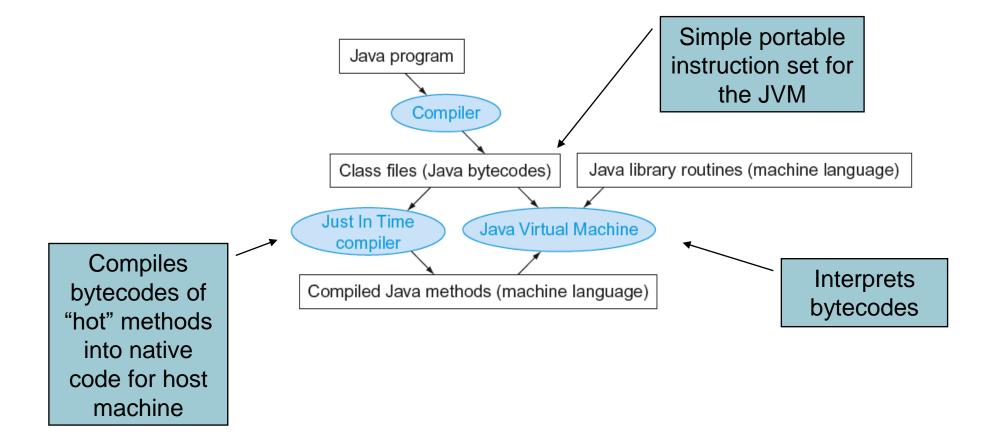


(b) Subsequent calls to DLL routine





Starting Java Applications





C Sort Example

- Illustrates use of assembly instructions for a C bubble sort function
- Swap procedure (leaf)

```
void swap(long long int v[],
long long int k)
{
  long long int temp;
  temp = v[k];
  v[k] = v[k+1];
  v[k+1] = temp;
}
```

v in X0, k in X1, temp in X9



The Procedure Swap



The Sort Procedure in C

```
Non-leaf (calls swap)
  void sort (long long int v[], size_t n)
     size_t i, j;
     for (i = 0; i < n; i += 1) {
       for (j = i - 1;
             j >= 0 \&\& v[j] > v[j + 1];
         swap(v,j);
 v in X0, n in X1, i in X19, j in X20
```

· V[2]=6 ·=3)=2 ·(2)=6 2=3=3



The Outer Loop

Skeleton of outer loop:

```
• for (i = 0; i < n; i += 1) {
                          // i = 0
  MOV X19,XZR
for1tst:
                          // compare X19 to X1 (i to n)
  CMP X19, X1
                           // go to exit1 if X19 \ge X1 (i \ge n)
  B.GE exit1
  (body of outer for-loop)
                          // i += 1
  ADD X19,X19,#1
  B for1tst
                          // branch to test of outer loop
exit1:
```



The Inner Loop

Skeleton of inner loop:

```
• for (j = i - 1; j >= 0 \&\& v[j] > v[j + 1]; j -= 1) {
   SUB X20, X19, #1 // j = i - 1
for2tst: CMP X20,XZR // compare X20 to 0 (j to 0)
            // go to exit2 if X20 < 0 (j < 0)
   B.LT exit2
   LDR X13, [X11,#8] // reg X13 = v[j + 1]
   CMP X12, X13 // compare X12 to X13
            // go to exit2 if X12 ≤ X13
   B.LE exit2
   MOV X0, X21 // first swap parameter is v
            // second swap parameter is j
   MOV X1, X20
             // call swap
   BL swap
   SUB X20, X20, #1 // j = 1
                    // branch to test of inner loop
   B for2tst
 exit2:
```

Preserving Registers

Preserve saved registers:

```
SUB SP,SP,#40 // make room on stack for 5 regs
STR LR,[SP,#32] // save LR on stack
STR X22,[SP,#24] // save X22 on stack
STR X21,[SP,#16] // save X21 on stack
STR X20,[SP,#8] // save X20 on stack
STR X19,[SP,#0] // save X19 on stack
MOV X21, X0 // copy parameter X0 into X21
MOV X22, X1 // copy parameter X1 into X22
```

Restore saved registers:

```
exit1: LDUR X19, [SP,#0] // restore X19 from stack

LDR X20, [SP,#8] // restore X20 from stack

LDR X21, [SP,#16] // restore X21 from stack

LDR X22, [SP,#24] // restore X22 from stack

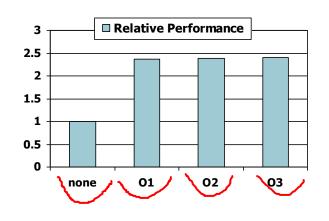
LDR X30, [SP,#32] // restore LR from stack

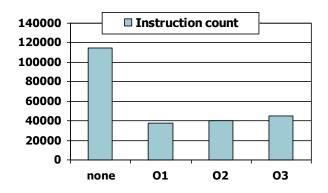
SUB SP,SP,#40 // restore stack pointer
```

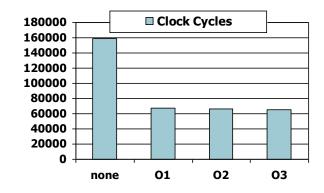


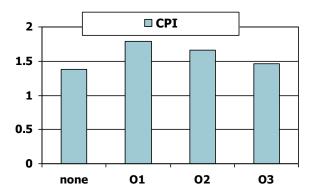
Effect of Compiler Optimization

Compiled with gcc for Pentium 4 under Linux



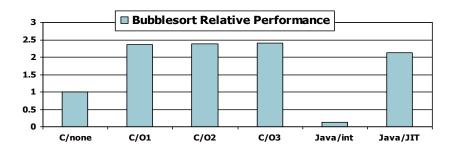


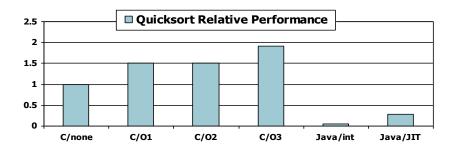


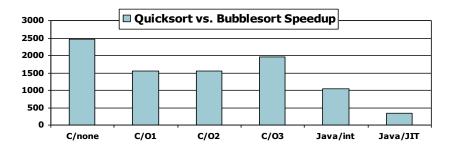




Effect of Language and Algorithm









Lessons Learnt

- Instruction count and CPI are not good performance indicators in isolation
- Compiler optimizations are sensitive to the algorithm
- Java/JIT compiled code is significantly faster than JVM interpreted
 - Comparable to optimized C in some cases
- Nothing can fix a dumb algorithm!



Arrays vs. Pointers

- Array indexing involves
 - Multiplying index by element size
 - Adding to array base address
- Pointers correspond directly to memory addresses
 - Can avoid indexing complexity



Example: Clearing an Array

```
clear1(int array[], int size) {
                                         clear2(int *array, int size) {
 int i;
                                           int *p;
 for (i = 0; i < size; i += 1)
                                           for (p = \&array[0]; p < \&array[size];
    arrav[i] = 0:
                                                p = p + 1
                                             *p = 0:
      MOV X9,XZR // i = 0
                                                MOV X9,X0
                                                                // p = address of
loop1: LSL x10, x9, #3 // x10 = i * 8
                                                                // array[0]
                                                LSL X10, X1, #3 // X10 = size * 8
      ADD X11,X0,X10 // X11 = address
                      // of array[i]
                                                ADD X11,X0,X10 // X11 = address
       STR XZR, [X11,#0]
                                                                // of array[size]
                     // \operatorname{arrav}[i] = 0
                                         loop2: STR XZR,0[X9,#0]
      ADD x9, x9, #1 // i = i + 1
                                                               // Memory[p] = 0
      CMP X9.X1 // compare i to
                                                ADD X9, X9, \#8 // p = p + 8
                     // size
                                                CMP X9,X11 // compare p to <
       B.LT loop1
                    // if (i < size)
                                                               // &array[size]
                                                               // if (p <
                      // go to loop1
                                                B.LT loop2
                                                               // &array[size])
                                                                // go to loop2
```

Comparison of Array vs. Ptr

- Multiply "strength reduced" to shift
- Array version requires shift to be inside loop
 - Part of index calculation for incremented i
 - c.f. incrementing pointer
- Compiler can achieve same effect as manual use of pointers
 - Induction variable elimination
 - Better to make program clearer and safer

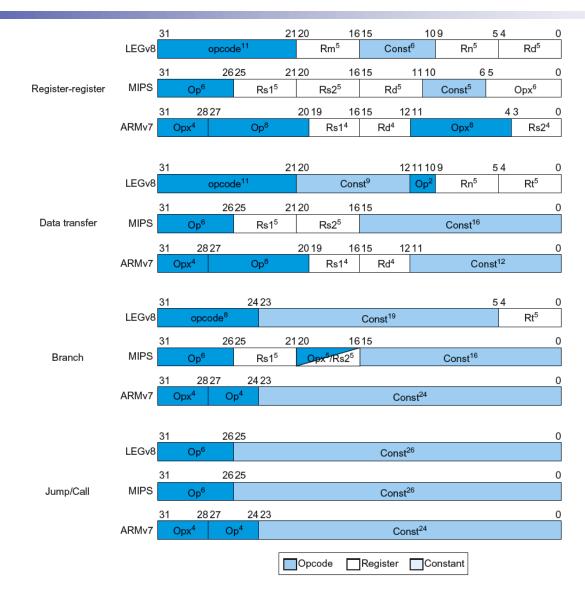


ARM & MIPS Similarities

- ARM: the most popular embedded core
- Similar basic set of instructions to MIPS

	ARM	MIPS
Date announced	1985	1985
Instruction size	32 bits	32 bits
Address space	32-bit flat	32-bit flat
Data alignment	Aligned	Aligned
Data addressing modes	9	3
Registers	15 × 32-bit	31 × 32-bit
Input/output	Memory mapped	Memory mapped

Instruction Encoding





The Intel x86 ISA

- Evolution with backward compatibility
 - 8080 (1974): 8-bit microprocessor
 - Accumulator, plus 3 index-register pairs
 - 8086 (1978): 16-bit extension to 8080
 - Complex instruction set (CISC)
 - 8087 (1980): floating-point coprocessor
 - Adds FP instructions and register stack
 - 80286 (1982): 24-bit addresses, MMU
 - Segmented memory mapping and protection
 - 80386 (1985): 32-bit extension (now IA-32)
 - Additional addressing modes and operations
 - Paged memory mapping as well as segments



The Intel x86 ISA

- Further evolution...
 - i486 (1989): pipelined, on-chip caches and FPU
 - Compatible competitors: AMD, Cyrix, ...
 - Pentium (1993): superscalar, 64-bit datapath
 - Later versions added MMX (Multi-Media eXtension) instructions
 - The infamous FDIV bug
 - Pentium Pro (1995), Pentium II (1997)
 - New microarchitecture (see Colwell, The Pentium Chronicles)
 - Pentium III (1999)
 - Added SSE (Streaming SIMD Extensions) and associated registers
 - Pentium 4 (2001)
 - New microarchitecture
 - Added SSE2 instructions

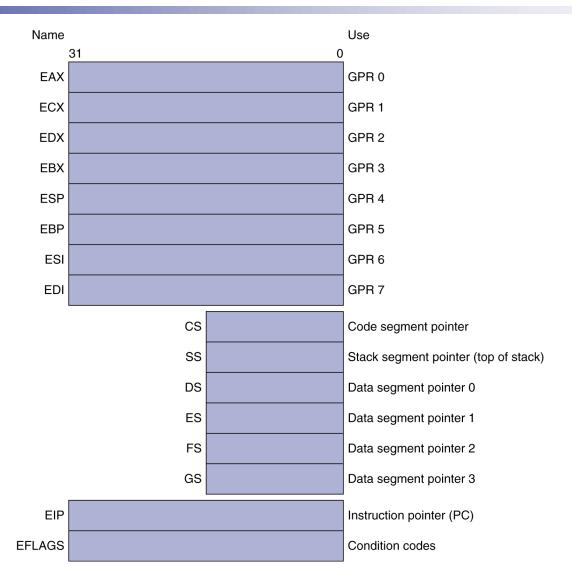


The Intel x86 ISA

- And further...
 - AMD64 (2003): extended architecture to 64 bits
 - EM64T Extended Memory 64 Technology (2004)
 - AMD64 adopted by Intel (with refinements)
 - Added SSE3 instructions
 - Intel Core (2006)
 - Added SSE4 instructions, virtual machine support
 - AMD64 (announced 2007): SSE5 instructions
 - Intel declined to follow, instead...
 - Advanced Vector Extension (announced 2008)
 - Longer SSE registers, more instructions
- If Intel didn't extend with compatibility, its competitors would!
 - Technical elegance ≠ market success



Basic x86 Registers





Basic x86 Addressing Modes

Two operands per instruction

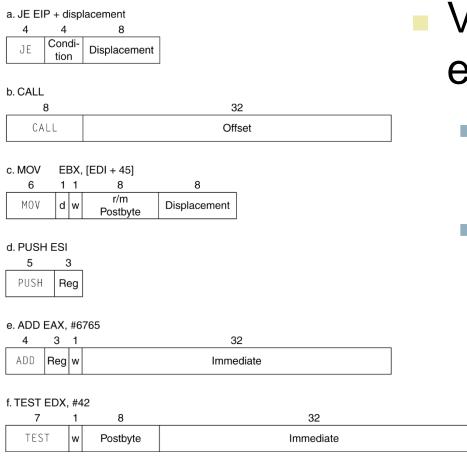
Source/dest operand	Second source operand	
Register	Register	
Register	Immediate	
Register	Memory	
Memory	Register	
Memory	Immediate	

Memory addressing modes

- Address in register
- Address = R_{base} + displacement
- Address = R_{base} + 2^{scale} × R_{index} (scale = 0, 1, 2, or 3)
- Address = R_{base} + 2^{scale} × R_{index} + displacement



x86 Instruction Encoding



- Variable length encoding
 - Postfix bytes specify addressing mode
 - Prefix bytes modify operation
 - Operand length, repetition, locking, ...



Implementing IA-32

- Complex instruction set makes implementation difficult
 - Hardware translates instructions to simpler microoperations
 - Simple instructions: 1–1
 - Complex instructions: 1—many
 - Microengine similar to RISC
 - Market share makes this economically viable
- Comparable performance to RISC
 - Compilers avoid complex instructions



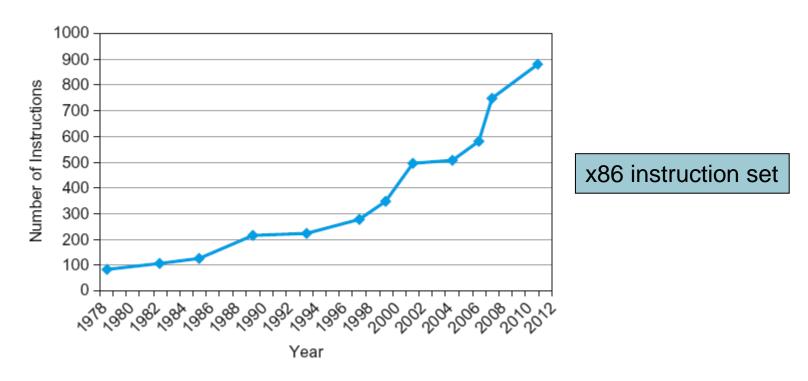
Fallacies

- Powerful instruction ⇒ higher performance
 - Fewer instructions required
 - But complex instructions are hard to implement
 - May slow down all instructions, including simple ones
 - Compilers are good at making fast code from simple instructions
- Use assembly code for high performance
 - But modern compilers are better at dealing with modern processors
 - More lines of code ⇒ more errors and less productivity



Fallacies

- Backward compatibility ⇒ instruction set doesn't change
 - But they do accrete more instructions





Concluding Remarks

- Design principles
 - 1. Simplicity favors regularity
 - 2. Smaller is faster
 - 3. Make the common case fast
 - 4. Good design demands good compromises
- Layers of software/hardware
 - Compiler, assembler, hardware
- ARMv8: typical of RISC ISAs
 - c.f. x86

