# COMS12200 Introduction to Computer Architecture

Dr. Cian O'Donnell cian.odonnell@bristol.ac.uk

Topic 2: Intro to memory

### 1. Data, control and instructions

#### Summary from last lecture

- How data and control information get processed.
- What control information looks like.
- An introduction to instructions.
- How instructions are encoded as op-codes.
- How op-codes can be decoded.

# Topics

- 1. Data, Control and Instructions
- 2. Memory
- 3. Execution cycle
- 4. Processor control flow
- 5. Machine types
- 6. State machines and decoding
- 7. Memory paradigms

# Topics

- 1. Data, Control and Instructions
- 2. Memory
- 3. Execution cycle
- 4. Processor control flow
- 5. Machine types
- 6. State machines and decoding
- 7. Memory paradigms

### 2. Intro to memory

#### **Overview**

- Memory as a place to store data and instructions
- What is the memory hierarchy?
- Memory addressing

### Memory

- Memory is simply a place to store information.
- Memories allow two basic operations:
   Write, which allows information to be inserted
   Read, which allows information to be extracted

# Memory organisation

- Each piece of information in memory is assigned to a unique address.
- To access or update information, we need to specify this address to a memory, then our information can be returned or changed.
- Addresses are specified as indexes.

# Memory addresses

Example of addresses and stored values

Address	Value
0	1
1	82
2	291
3	271
4	22
5	89
6	427

Which values are data and which are instructions?

### Instructions in memory

Values can be op-codes, for example

Address	Value (op-code)	
0	1	'ADD'
1	2	'SUB'
2	1	'ADD'
3	4	'MUL'
4	1	'ADD'
5	3	'DIV'
6	427	?

### Instructions and data

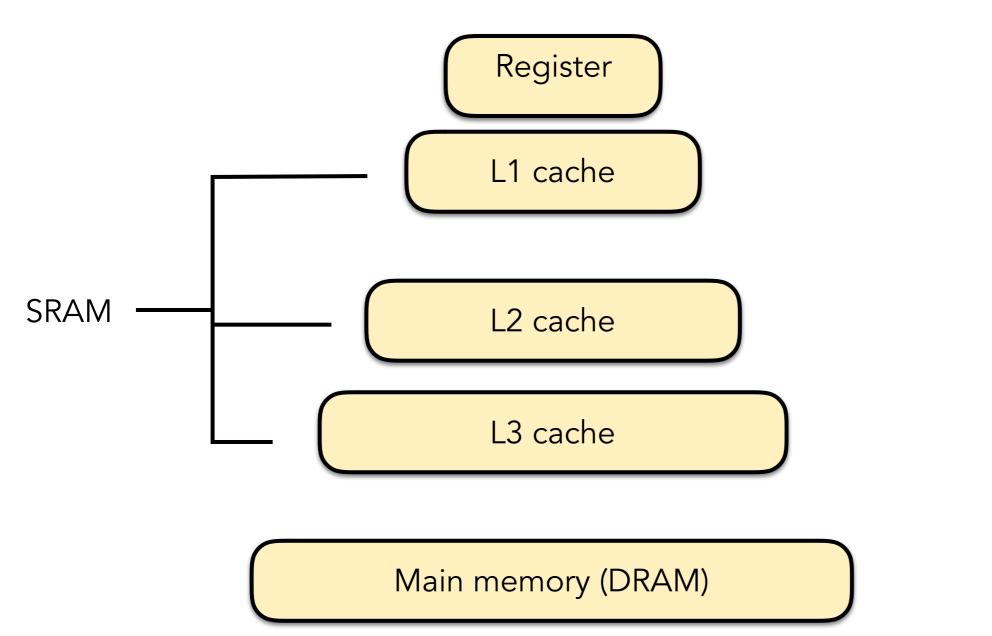
- A single memory location can combine both an instruction and some data.
- This can be useful for e.g. constant-based operations
- Consider ADD1
- Or something that loads a constant e.g. MOVE2

### Instructions and data

- Example: ADD1
- ADD  $\rightarrow$  '1'
- 1 → '1'
- So ADD1 could be expressed as '11'

...it all depends how it is interpreted.

# Memory hierarchy



32 words <1 ns ~32 KB ~ 1 ns ~512 KB 5-10 ns 1-8 MBs 10-100 ns 1-16 GB ~100 ns

Hard disk/SSD

100-1000 GBs ~10 ms

### Memory addressing

#### a.k.a. Addressing modes

- 1. Immediate addressing
- 2. Direct addressing
- 3. Memory-indirect addressing
- 4. Register-indirect addressing
- 5. Indexed addressing

# What is addressing?

- When we want to access memory (as opposed to registers),
   we need to specify which memory address to use
  - e.g. MEM[10] access memory address 10
- Ideally, we could directly specify a memory address every time, but this is not always possible.
- Sometimes, we would actually like to specify a sequence of addresses.
- Therefore, we have invented many different ways to specify a memory address.

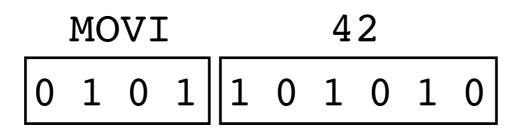
# 1.Immediate addressing

 Immediate addressing is when data is supplied in an instruction — there is no real memory address, and all information is embedded in the instruction and data is immediately available.

• e.g. 
$$r1 \leftarrow 42$$

Very fast and simple — the simplest.

Example:



# 1.Immediate addressing

#### **Pros**

All information embedded in instruction (predictable)

Makes it very fast

Easy to understand

Good for optimisers to analyse

#### Cons

Lack of flexibility

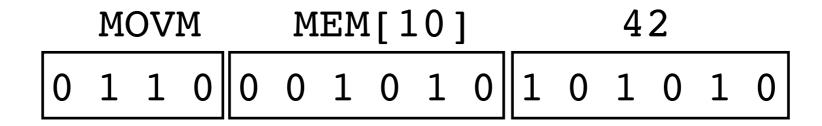
Must be inserted statically

Limited range (limited by permitted number of operand bits in opcode)

What about an instruction like
 MEM[10] ← 42

- How is this instruction actually formulated?
  - Operation | Operand 1 | Operand 2
  - e.g. 6 | 10 | 42
- This is called Direct addressing
- The exact memory address used is embedded in the instruction

Example:



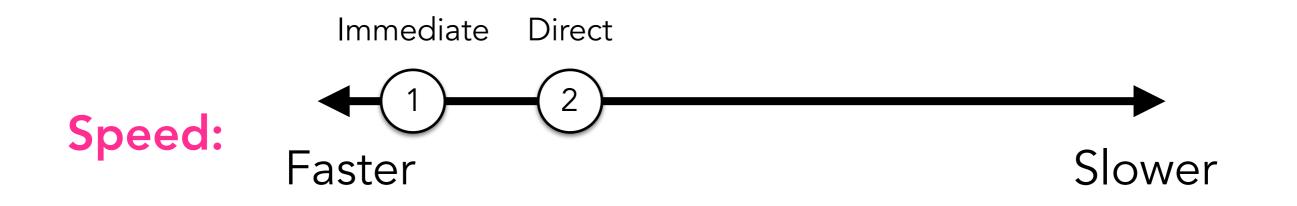
• Direct (a.k.a. absolute) addressing has the same pros and cons as immediate addressing.

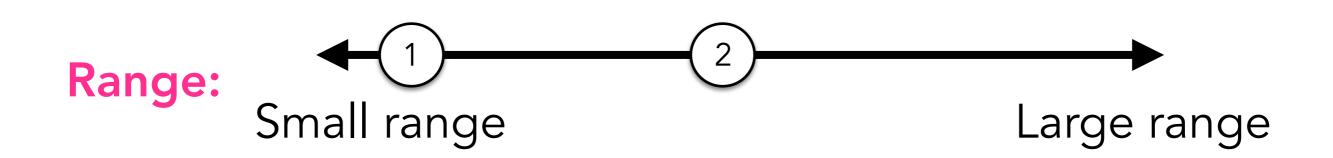
#### Pros:

- All information embedded in instruction
- Easy to understand
- Good for optimisers to analyse

#### • Cons:

- Lack of flexibility
- Must be inserted statically
- Slower than immediate addressing
- Limited range e.g. 16 bits can specify only 2<sup>16</sup>=65,536 unique addresses (corresponds to 64KB of memory)





### 3. Memory-indirect addressing

- Memory-indirect addressing solves the problem of limited range by storing the address to be accessed in memory itself.
- e.g. MEM[ MEM[ 42 ]  $\rightarrow$  r1
  - Meaning: go and look at memory address 42 and fetch the value there.
  - That value is the address to write the value in r1 to.

### 3. Memory-indirect addressing

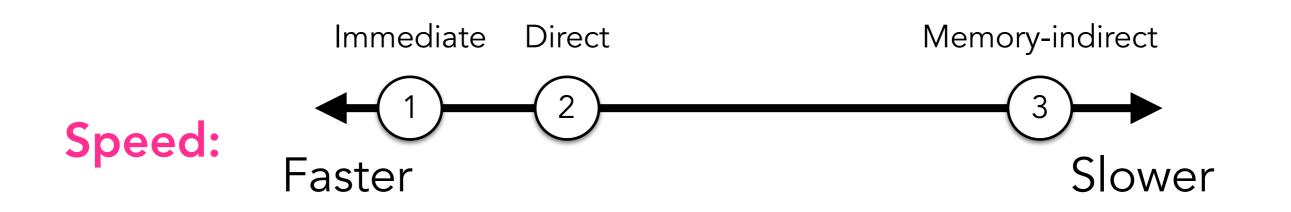
#### Plus points:

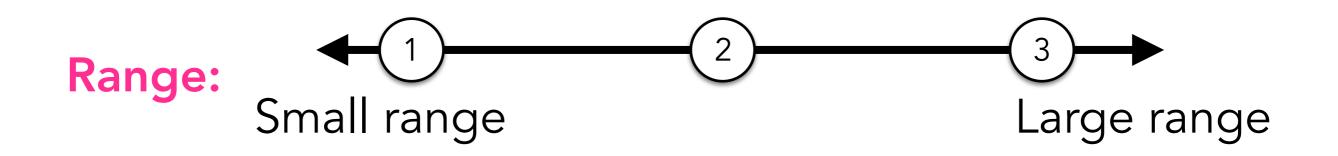
- Larger range, e.g. 32 bits (corresponds to ~4GBs)
- The source memory location for the address may be dynamically changed.

#### Still has some drawbacks:

- The first memory address is still statically compiled.
- The range restriction now applies to the initial memory range.
- Slower than direct addressing

### 3. Memory-indirect addressing





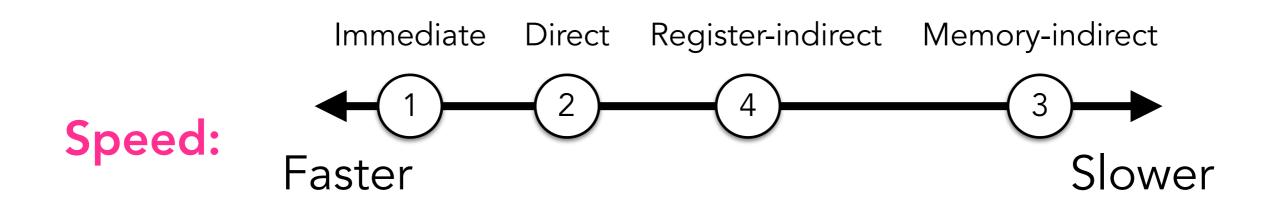
### 4. Register-indirect addressing

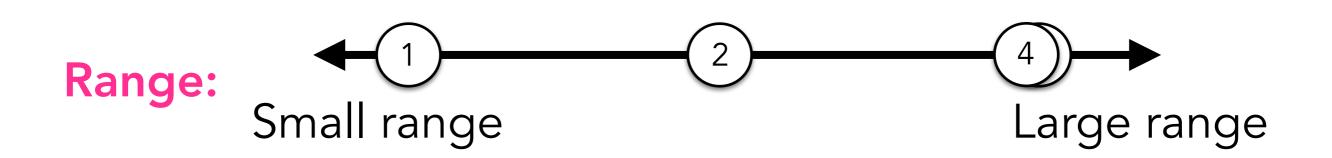
- Register-indirect provides more flexibility.
- Idea: use a register's value as the memory address
   e.g. MEM[ r1 ] ← r1

# 4. Register-indirect

- There are lots of advantages to register-indirect addressing:
  - The memory address can be dynamically computed.
  - The value does not need to be stored in the instruction, reducing code size
  - The register is internal to the processor faster, more energy efficient.

# 4. Register-indirect





### Pointers

- Indirect addressing allows native support of pointers, a key programming primitive.
- Accessing indirectly is equivalent to a dereferencing operation (e.g. \*p in C)

- Sometimes it makes sense to define a base address and access memory based on this.
  - Useful for stacks, arrays, caches...
  - Indexed addressing extends indirect addressing to support this.
  - We have a base address and an offset.

- Normally the base and offset are both stored in registers, although this need not be the case.
- We gain instructions like
   MEM [ r1 + r2 ] ← r3
- r1 is the base, r2 is the offset
- Base and offset can be varied independently.

- Many implementations support the base + offset construct natively.
- Architectures often have a dedicated register to help, normally called either:
  - The stack pointer
  - Or the base register

- The stack / base registers may or may not be general purpose, depending on the architecture.
- The offset usually comes from an additional general purpose register.
- Example of indexed addressing based on an array

### Example of indexed addressing

Example:

```
for i = 0:10
  x = some computation...
  a[i] = x
end
```

Registers

Memory

Before:

rb	r3	r5
17526	x=?	i=?

MEM[17533]

Get to 
$$i = 7$$
: MEM [ rb + r5 ]  $\leftarrow$  r3

Before inst:

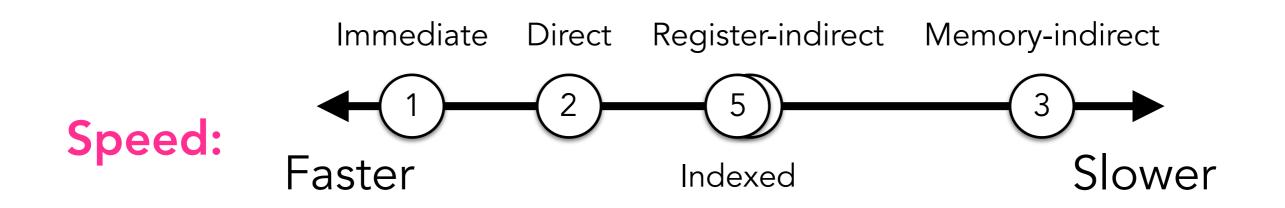
rb	r3	r5
17526	x=?	7

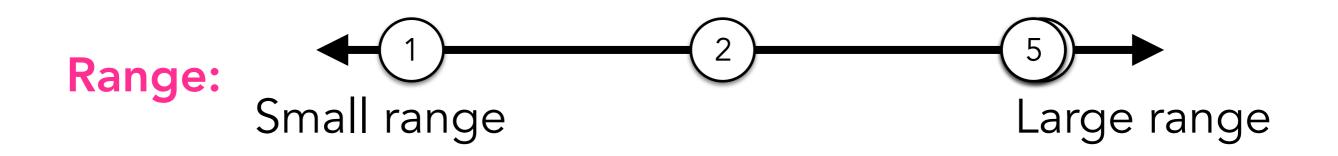
MEM[17533]

After:

rb	r3	r5
17526	25	8

MEM[17533] 25





# Summary

- We have seen 5 methods of memory addressing.
- We have evaluated their use and efficiency.
- Some directly relate to programming primitives.
- There are more methods with varying complexity, but these are the most commonly used ones.