Lecture 9

CMPEN 331

Jump Addressing

- Jump (j and jal) targets could be anywhere in text segment
 - Encode full address in instruction

ор	address
6 bits	26 bits

Branch Addressing

- Branch instructions specify
 - Opcode, two registers, target address
- Most branch targets are near branch
 - Forward or backward

ор	rs	rt	constant or address
 6 bits	5 bits 5 bits		16 bits

- PC (program counter)-relative addressing
 - Target address = PC + branch address

Target Addressing Example

- Loop code from earlier example
 - Assume Loop at location 80000

Loop:	sll	\$t1,	\$s3,	2	80000	0	0	19	9	2	0
	add	\$t1,	\$t1,	\$ s6	80004	0	9	22	9	0	32
	٦w	\$t0,	0(\$t	1)	80008	35	9	8		0	
	bne	\$t0,	\$s5,	Exit	80012	5	8	21	, e e e e	2	
	addi	\$s3,	\$s3,	1	80016	8	19	19	**********	1	
	j	Loop			80020	2	********	•••	20000		
Exit:					80024						

Branching Far Away

- If branch target is too far to encode with 16-bit offset, assembler rewrites the code
- Example

```
beq $s0,$s1, L1
↓
bne $s0,$s1, L2
j L1
L2: ...
```

Addressing Modes

- Addressing modes are the ways of specifying an operand or a memory address.
- It is how an address (memory or register) is determined.
- Instruction type is how the instruction is put together.
- Example: addi, beq, and lw are all I-types instructions.
 - addi uses immediate addressing mode
 - beq uses pc-relative addressing
 - Iw uses base addressing

Addressing Modes

- IMMEDIATE: a numeric value embedded in the instruction is the actual operand.
- REGISTER: a source or destination operand is specified as content of one of the registers \$0-\$31. This is used in the jr (jump register) instruction
- PC-RELATIVE: a data or instruction memory location is specified as an offset relative to the incremented PC. This is used in the beq and bne (branch equal, branch not equal) instructions.
- BASE: a data or instruction memory location is specified as assigned offset from a register. This is used in the lw and sw (load word, store word) instructions.
- PSEUDO-DIRECT: the memory address is(mostly) embedded in the instruction. This is used in the j (jump) instruction.

Addressing Modes

Register addressing

Operand is in register add \$s1, \$s2, \$s3 means \$s1 ← \$s2 + \$s3

Base addressing

Operand is in memory.

The address is the sum of a register and a constant.

lw \$s1, 32(\$s3) means $$s1 \leftarrow M[s3 + 32]$

Immediate addressing

The operand is a constant.

addi \$s1, \$zero, 7 means \$s1 \leftarrow 0 + 7

PC-relative addressing

The operand address = PC + an offset

Implements position-independent codes.

Pseudo-direct addressing

Used in the J format. The target address is the concatenation of the 4 MSB's of the PC with the 28-bit offset. This is a minor variation of the PC-relative addressing format.

Addressing Mode Summary

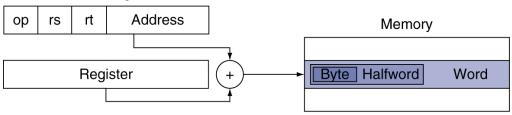
1. Immediate addressing



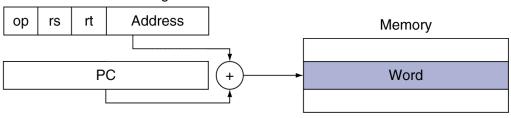
2. Register addressing



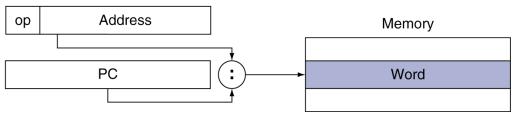
3. Base addressing



4. PC-relative addressing



5. Pseudodirect addressing



Lecture 10

CMPEN 331

C Swap Example

- Illustrates use of assembly instructions for a C bubble sort function
- Swap procedure (leaf)
 void swap(int v[], int k)
 {
 int temp;
 temp = v[k];
 v[k] = v[k+1];
 v[k+1] = temp;
 }
 - v in \$a0, k in \$a1, temp in \$t0

The Procedure Swap

```
swap: sll $t1, $a1, 2  # $t1 = k * 4
  add $t1, $a0, $t1 # (address of v[k])
  lw $t0, 0($t1)  # $t0 (temp) = v[k]
  lw $t2, 4($t1)  # $t2 = v[k+1]
  sw $t2, 0($t1)  # v[k] = $t2 (v[k+1])
  sw $t0, 4($t1)  # v[k+1] = $t0 (temp)
  jr $ra  # return to calling routine
```

Assembler Pseudoinstructions

- Most assembler instructions represent machine instructions one-to-one
- Pseudoinstructions:

```
move $t0, $t1 \rightarrow add $t0, $zero, $t1 blt $t0, $t1, L \rightarrow slt $at, $t0, $t1 bne $at, $zero, L
```

\$at (register 1): assembler temporary

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

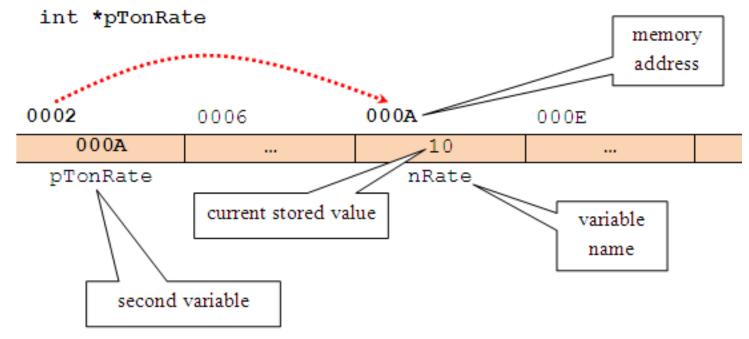
Example: Clearing and Array

```
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:
                                         }
      move t0,\zero # i = 0
                                                move t0,a0 # p = & array[0]
                                                sll $t1,$a1,2  # $t1 = size * 4
loop1: sll $t1,$t0,2  # $t1 = i * 4
      add $t2,$a0,$t1 # $t2 =
                                                add t2,a0,t1 # t2 =
                       # &array[i]
                                                                   &array[size]
      sw zero, 0(t2) # array[i] = 0
                                         loop2: sw zero,0(t0) # Memory[p] = 0
                                                addi t0,t0,4 # p = p + 4
      addi $t0,$t0,1 # i = i + 1
      s1t $t3.$t0.$a1 # $t3 =
                                                s1t $t3.$t0.$t2 # $t3 =
                       # (i < size)
                                                                #(p<&array[size])</pre>
      bne $t3,$zero,loop1 # if (...)
                                                bne $t3,$zero,loop2 # if (...)
                          # goto loop1
                                                                    # goto loop2
```

What is a pointer

- In a generic sense, a "pointer" is anything that tells us where something can be found.
- When declaring a variable, the compiler sets aside memory storage with a <u>unique address</u> to store that variable.
- The compiler associates that address with the variable's name.
- We can manipulate the memory address by using pointers which means that we create a second variable for storing the memory address.

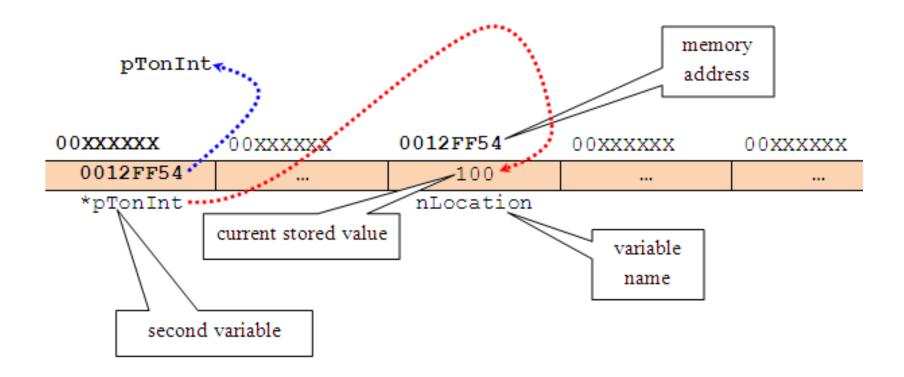
- Let store the nRate's memory address, in pTonRate variable.
- So, pTonRate now holds the nRate's memory address, where the actual data (10) is stored.
- Pointer variable declaration becomes something like this, int *pTonRate;
- The asterisk (*) is used to show that is it the pointer variable instead of normal variable.



- A variable name <u>directly</u> references a value.
- A pointer indirectly references a value. Referencing a value through a pointer is called indirection.
- A pointer variable must be declared before it can be used.
- C uses two pointer operators,
 - Indirection operator (★) asterisk symbol, has been explained previously.
 - 2. <u>Address-of-operator (€)</u> ampersand symbol, means return the address of...
- When & operator is placed before the name of a variable, it will returns the memory address of the variable instead of stored value.

- & "address operator" which gives or produces the memory address of a data variable
- * "dereferencing operator" which provides the contents in the memory location specified by a pointer
- The ★ operator is a complement of & operator.

```
int * pToInt;
pToInt = &nLocation;
nLocation = 100;
```



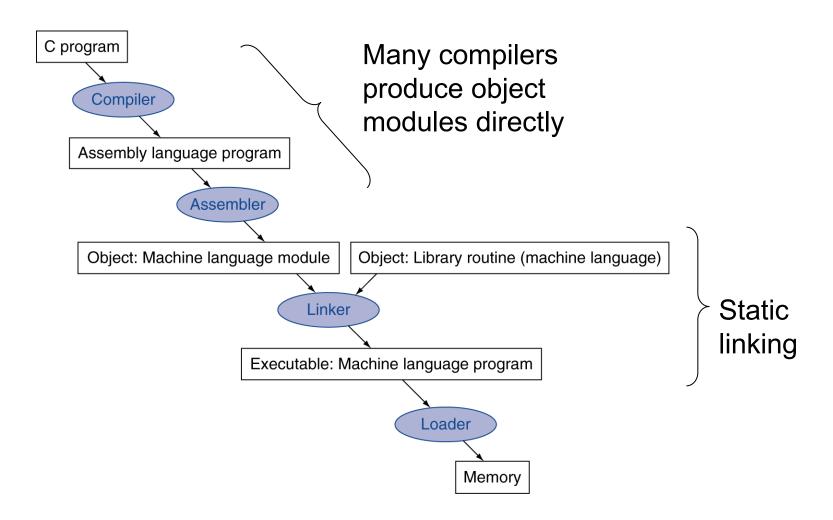
Example: Clearing and Array

```
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:
                                         }
      move t0,\zero # i = 0
                                                move t0,a0 # p = & array[0]
                                                sll $t1,$a1,2  # $t1 = size * 4
loop1: sll $t1,$t0,2  # $t1 = i * 4
      add $t2,$a0,$t1 # $t2 =
                                                add t2,a0,t1 # t2 =
                       # &array[i]
                                                                   &array[size]
      sw zero, 0(t2) # array[i] = 0
                                         loop2: sw zero,0(t0) # Memory[p] = 0
                                                addi t0,t0,4 # p = p + 4
      addi $t0,$t0,1 # i = i + 1
      s1t $t3.$t0.$a1 # $t3 =
                                                s1t $t3.$t0.$t2 # $t3 =
                       # (i < size)
                                                                #(p<&array[size])</pre>
      bne $t3,$zero,loop1 # if (...)
                                                bne $t3,$zero,loop2 # if (...)
                          # goto loop1
                                                                    # goto loop2
```

Comparison of Array vs. Ptr

- Array version requires shift to be inside loop
 - Part of index calculation for incremented I
 - incrementing pointer
- Compiler can achieve same effect as manual use of pointers
 - Induction variable elimination (eliminating array address calculations within loops)
 - Better to make program clearer and safer

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
 - 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

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, \$gp)
 - 6. Jump to startup routine
 - Copies arguments to \$a0, ... and calls main
 - When main returns, do exit system call

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

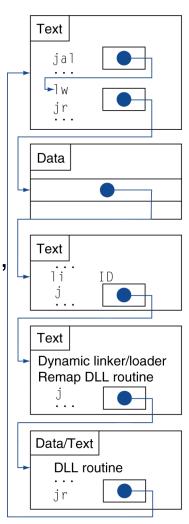
Lazy Linkage

Indirection table

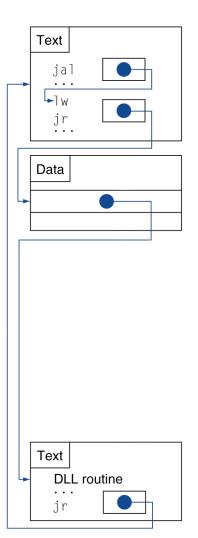
Stub: Loads routine ID, Jump to linker/loader

Linker/loader code

Dynamically mapped code



a. First call to DLL routine



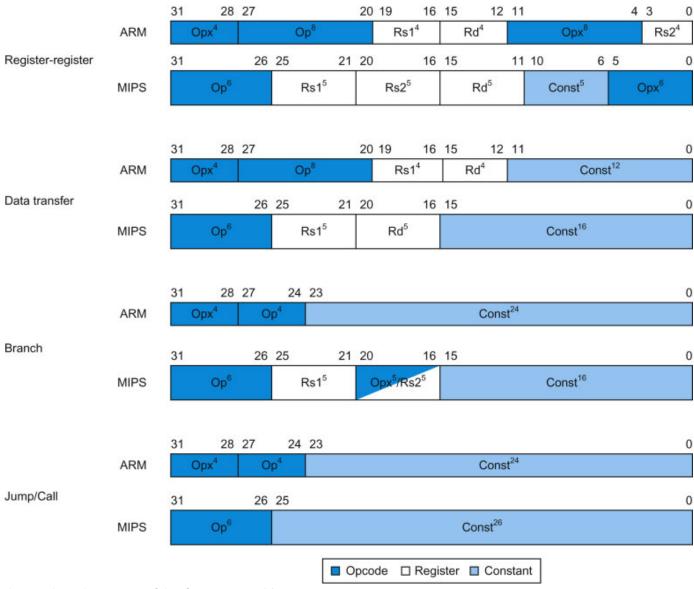
b. Subsequent calls to DLL routine

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	32 × 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
 - 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

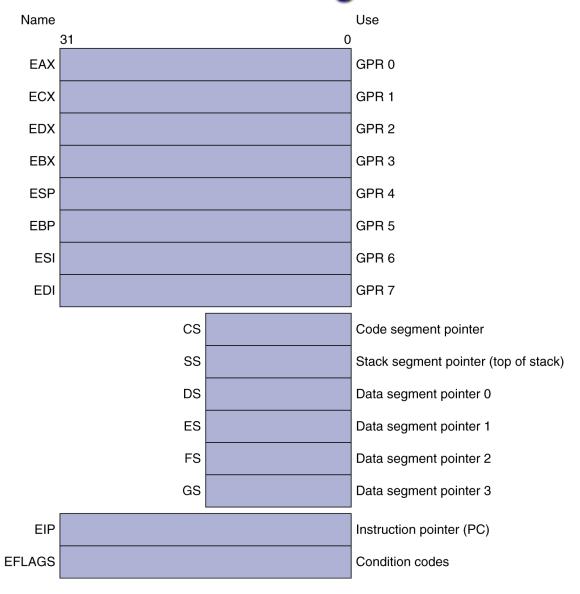
The Intel x86 ISA

- 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

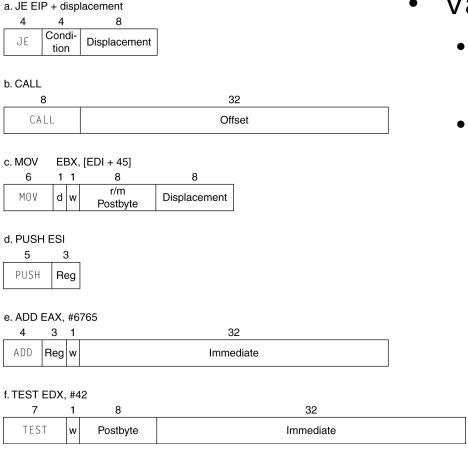
The Intel x86 ISA

- 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!

Basic x86 Registers



x86 Instruction Encoding



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

x86 Typical Operation

Instruction	Meaning					
Control	Conditional and unconditional branches					
jnz, jz	Jump if condition to EIP + 8-bit offset; JNE (for JNZ), JE (for JZ) are alternative names					
jmp	Unconditional jump—8-bit or 16-bit offset					
call	Subroutine call—16-bit offset; return address pushed onto stack					
ret	Pops return address from stack and jumps to it					
loop	Loop branch—decrement ECX; jump to EIP + 8-bit displacement if ECX ≠0					
Data transfer	Move data between registers or between register and memory					
move	Move between two registers or between register and memory					
push, pop	Push source operand on stack; pop operand from stack top to a register					
les Load ES and one of the GPRs from memory						
Arithmetic, logical	Arithmetic and logical operations using the data registers and memory					
add, sub	Add source to destination; subtract source from destination; register-memory format					
cmp	Compare source and destination; register-memory format					
shl, shr, rcr	Shift left; shift logical right; rotate right with carry condition code as fill					
cbw	Convert byte in eight rightmost bits of EAX to 16-bit word in right of EAX					
test	Logical AND of source and destination sets condition codes					
inc, dec Increment destination, decrement destination						
or, xor	Logical OR; exclusive OR; register-memory format					
String	Move between string operands; length given by a repeat prefix					
movs Copies from string source to destination by incrementing ESI and I repeated						
lods	Loads a byte, word, or doubleword of a string into the EAX register					

Arithmetic for Computers

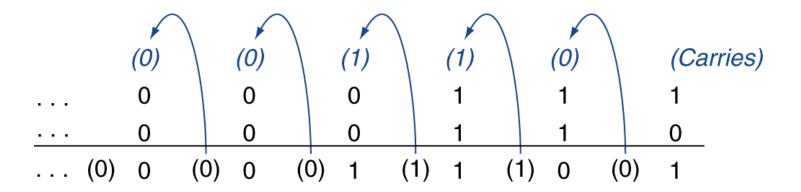
Chapter 3

Arithmetic for Computers

- Operations on integers
 - Addition and subtraction
 - Multiplication and division
 - Dealing with overflow
- Floating-point real numbers
 - Representation and operations

Integer Addition

Example: 7 + 6



- Overflow if result out of range
 - Adding +ve and –ve operands, no overflow
 - Adding two +ve operands
 - Overflow if result sign is 1
 - Adding two –ve operands
 - Overflow if result sign is 0

Integer Subtraction

- Add negation of second operand
- Example: 7 6 = 7 + (–6) +7: 0000 0000 ... 0000 0111 –6: 1111 1111 ... 1111 1010
 - +1: 0000 0000 ... 0000 0001
- Overflow if result out of range
 - Subtracting two +ve or two –ve operands, no overflow
 - Subtracting +ve from –ve operand
 - Overflow if result sign is 0
 - Subtracting –ve from +ve operand
 - Overflow if result sign is 1