

COMPUTER ORGANIZATION AND DESIGN

The Hardware/Software Interface



Chapter 2

Instructions: Language of the Computer

Lecture #4



Jump Addressing

Jump (j and jal) targets could be anywhere in text segment

ор	address
6 bits	26 bits

- j 10000 # go to location 10000
 - op = 2, address = 10000
- Direct jump addressing
 - Target address = address × 4

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-relative addressing
 - Target address = PC + offset × 4

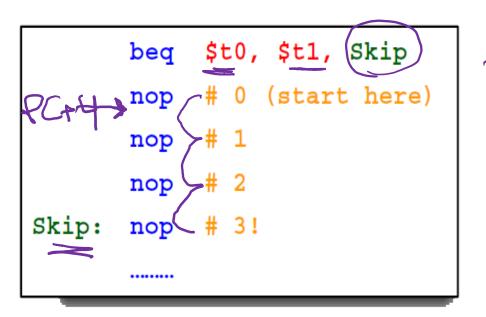
Addressing in Branches and Jumps

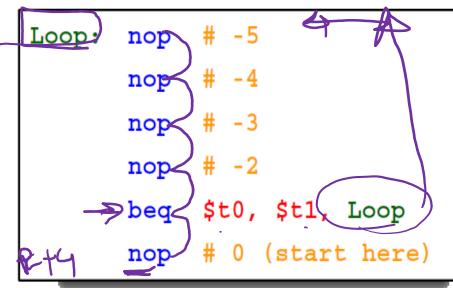
- Design principle 3: Make the common case fast
 - 16-bits for conditional branch addresses are far too small (maximum allowable program size will be 2¹⁶ bytes)
 - Conditional branches (bne and beq) are found in loops and if statements, so they tend to branch to a nearby instruction
 - About 50% of all conditional branches in SPEC benchmarks go to locations less than 16 instructions away (principle of locality!)
- As the Program Counter (PC) holds the address of the instruction to be executed, we can branch within ±2¹⁵ bytes of the instruction to be executed
- Use PC-relative addressing: add the value of the PC to the branch offset to get the jump-to address
- As it is convenient for the hardware to increment the PC early to point to the next instruction, branch offset is actually relative to the following instruction (PC + 4) as opposed to the current one (PC)
- Have the branch offset refer to the number of words to the destination (instead of bytes), which stretches the branch offset to be within ±2¹⁵ words (±2¹⁷ bytes) of the current instruction

next PC (branch-to address) = (current PC + 4) + branch offset * 4

Addressing in Branches and Jumps (cont.)

Branch offset: number of instructions counted from the next instruction





Offset =
$$3$$

Offset =
$$-5$$

Addressing in Branches and Jumps (cont.)

- J-format instructions jump to addresses that have no reason to be near them
- J-format involves absolute (direct) addressing
- The 26-bit field in J-format instructions is a word address
 - it represents 28-bit byte addresses
- Since the PC is 32 bits, the address in J-format instructions replaces only the lower 28 bits of the PC, leaving the upper 4 bits of the PC unchanged (Pseudodirect addressing)
- J-format instructions can only be used within memory blocks of a maximum size = 256 MB (28-bit address)
- The loader and linker must be careful to avoid placing a program across an address boundary of 256 MB, for otherwise a jump must be replaced by a jump register (jr) instruction preceded by other instructions to load the full 32-bit address into a register

jump instruction: 0000 1010 1100 0101 0001 0100 0110 0010 op-code 26-bit target field from

p-code 26-bit target field from jump instruction

Shift Left two

32-Bit Jump Address: 0101 1011 0001 0100 0101 0001 1000 1000

High-order four bits from PC

PC: 0101 0110 0111 0110 0111 0010 1001 0100

Instruction Formats (cont.)

bits	31-26	25-21	20-16	15-11	10-6	5-0
No. of bits	6	5	5	5	5	6
I-format	ор	rs	rt	16- bit i	mmediate/	address

Fields of immediate-format branch instructions				
ор	6 bits	Code for the comparison to perform first		
rs	5 bits	1 st argument register		
rt	5 bits	2 nd argument register		
address	16 bits	Branch offset embedded in the instruction		

bits	31-26	25-21	20-16	15-11	10-6	5-0
No. of bits	6	5	5	5	5	6

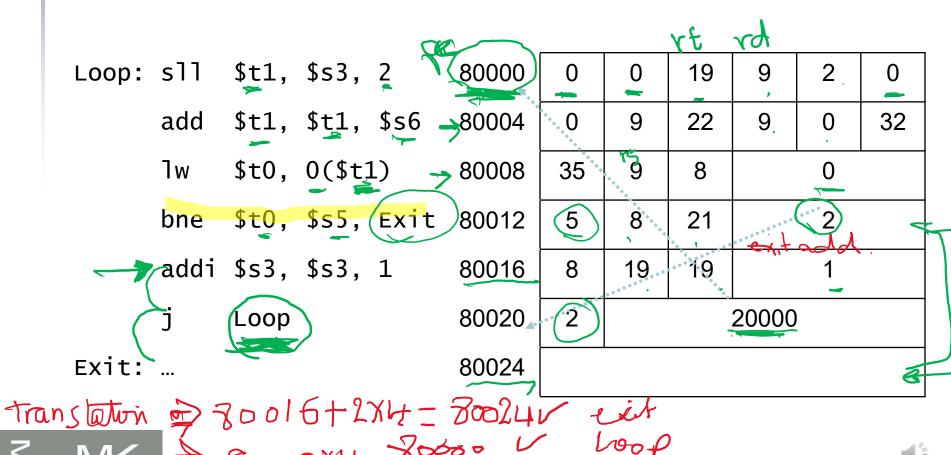
J-format	ор	26-bit address

Fields of jump-format instructions				
ор	6 bits	Code for jump instructions j or jal		
address	26 bits	Target address embedded in the instruction		
Note: the jr instruction is a register-format instruction				



Target Addressing Example

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



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: ...
```

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

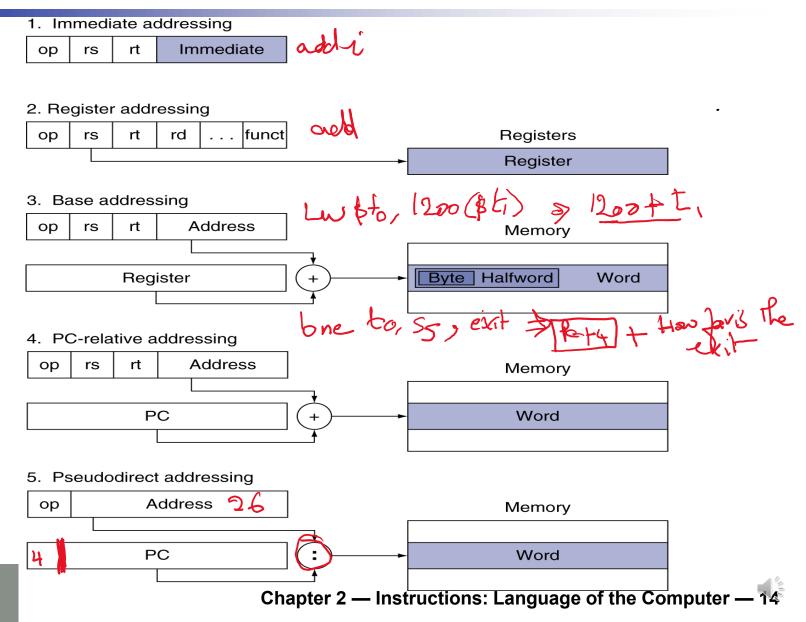
```
clear1(int array[], int size) {
                                            clear2(int *array, int size) {
  int i;
                                              int *p;
  for (i = 0; i < size; i += 1)
                                              for (p = \&array[0]; p < \&array[size];
                                                   p = p + 4)
    arrav[i] = 0:
                                                *p = 0:
       move $t0, $zero # i = 0
                                                    move t0,a0 # p = & array[0]
loop1: sll $t1,$t0,2 # $t1 = i * 4
                                                    s11 $t1,$a1,2  # $t1 = size * 4
                                                    add($t2,$a0,$t1 #$t2 = &array[size]
       add ($t2) $a0, $t1
                         # $t2 =
                         # &array[i]
       sw zero, 0(t2) # array[i] = 0
                                             qop2: sw $zero,0($t0) # Memory[p] = 0
                                                    addi $t0,$t0,4 # p = p + 4
       addi $t0,$t0,1
                         \# i = i + 1
       slt($t3)$t0,$a1
                         # $t3 =
                                                    s1t $t3,$t0,$t2 # $t3 =
                                                                     #(p<&array[size])
                            (i < size)
                                                    bne $t3,$zero,\(\int_0\)op2 \(\mathbe{#}\) if (...)
       bne $t3,$zero,\lambda oop1 #\rightarrow if (...)
                            # goto loop1
                                                                         # goto loop2
```

Comparison of Array vs. Ptr

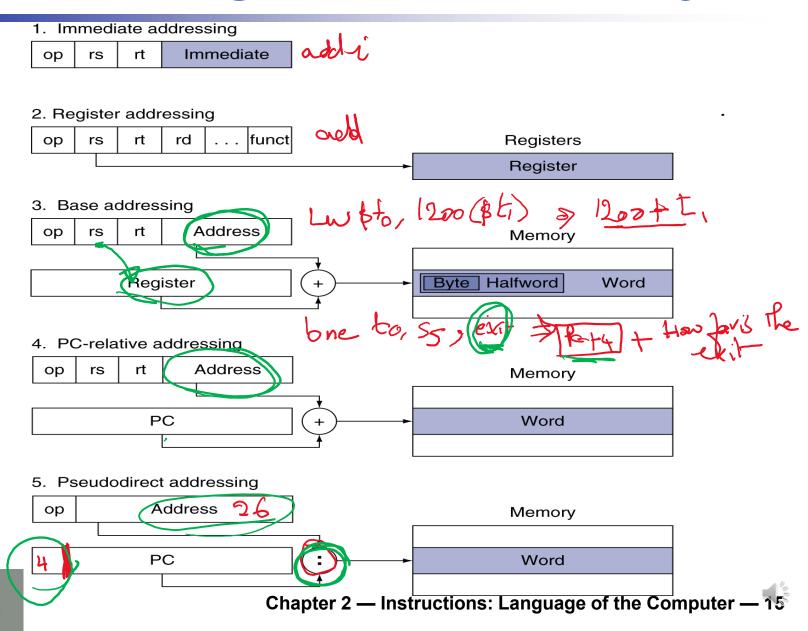
- Multiply "strength reduced" to shift
- Array version requires shift to be inside loop
 - Part of index calculation for incremented i
 - c.f. incrementing pointer
- Compiler can achieve same effect as manual use of pointers
 - Better to make program clearer and safer



Addressing Mode Summary



Addressing Mode Summary



MIPS Addressing Modes Summary

- Immediate addressing: the operand is a constant within the instruction addi \$s1, \$s2, 100
- Register addressing: the operand is a register add \$s1, \$s2, \$s3
- Base or displacement addressing: the operand is at the memory location whose address is the sum of a register and a constant in the instruction lw \$\$1, 100 (\$\$2)
- PC-relative addressing: the address is the sum of the current PC and a constant (multiplied by 4) in the instruction
 beq \$\$1, \$\$2, 100
- Pseudodirect addressing: the jump address is a constant (26 bits) in the instruction (multiplied by 4) concatenated with the upper 4 bits of the PC j 2500
- The assembler calculates effectives addresses for branches, jumps, loads, and stores



MIPS Addressing Modes Summary (cont.)

- Relative versus absolute (pseudodirect) addressing
 - Branch instructions (beq, bne)
 - Offset is relative
 - Next PC = (Current PC + 4) + Offset × 4
 - Jump instructions (j, jal)
 - Address is absolute
 - Next PC = (PC & 0xF0000000) | (Address × 4)
 - Absolute is relative to a 256 MB region of memory

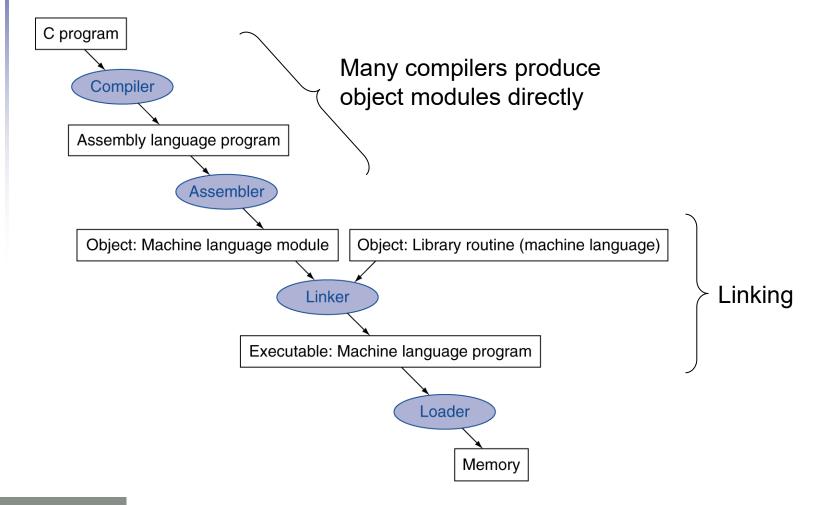
Assembler Pseudoinstructions

- Most assembler instructions represent machine instructions oneto-one
- Pseudoinstructions: Common variations of assembly instructions that are not part of the instruction set
 - Often appear in MIPS programs and are treated as regular ones.
 - Their appearance in assembly language simplifies programming
 - The assembler produces a minimal sequence of actual MIPS instructions to accomplish their operations
 - The assembler uses the \$at register to accomplish this, if needed
 - The hardware need not implement these instructions

```
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

Translation and Startup





Producing an Object Module

- Assembler 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 file
 - 1. Place code and data modules in memory
 - 2. Resolve labels (determine their addresses)
 - 3. Patch all references

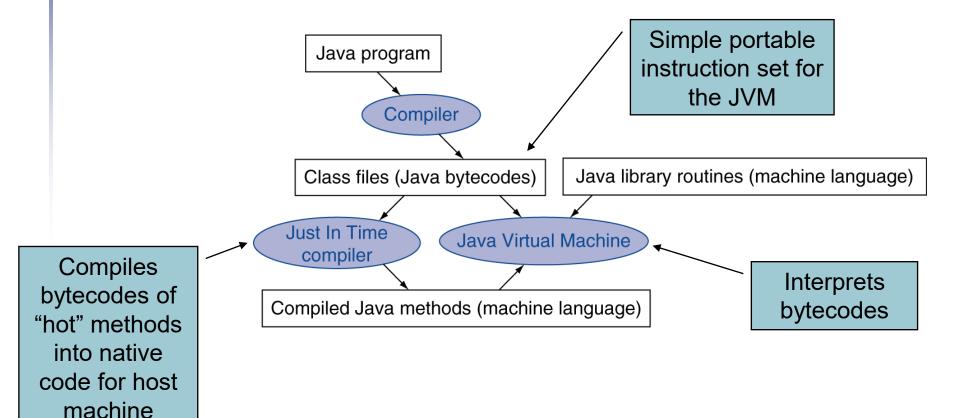
Loading a Program

- Load from file on disk into memory
 - 1. Read header to determine the size
 - 2. Create address space
 - 3. Copy the instructions and data from the executable file into memory
 - 4. Copy parameters on stack
 - 5. Initialize the machine registers
 - 6. Jump to startup routine

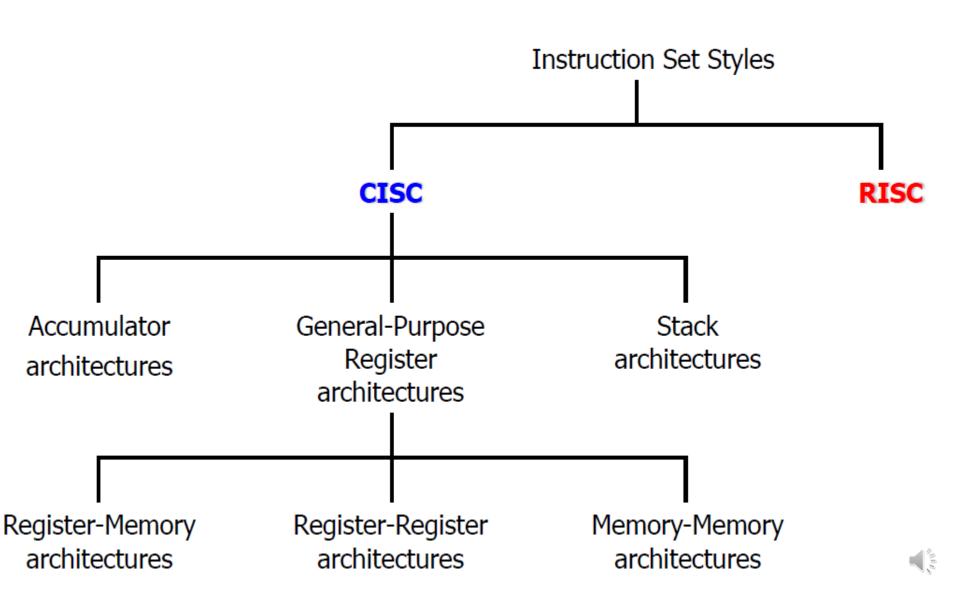
Dynamic Linking

- Only link/load library procedure when it is called
 - Avoids image bloat caused by static linking of all referenced libraries
 - Automatically picks up new library versions

Starting Java Applications



Instruction Set Styles



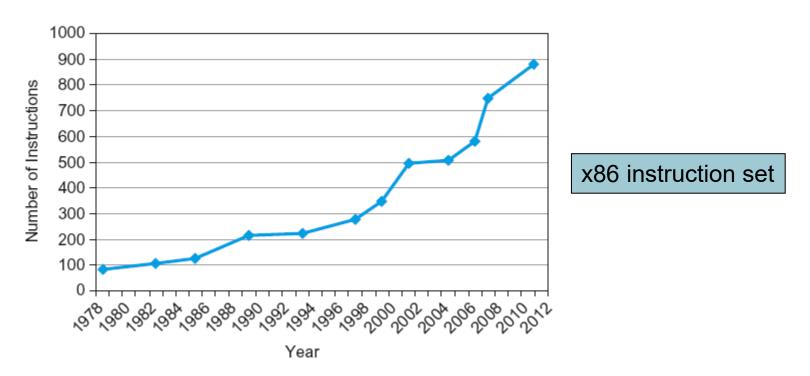
Fallacies

- 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



Pitfalls

- Sequential words are not at sequential addresses
 - Increment by 4, not by 1!
- Keeping a pointer to an automatic variable after procedure returns
 - e.g., passing pointer back via an argument
 - Pointer becomes invalid when stack popped

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
- MIPS
 - ARM and x86

