

Instruction Set Design

Chapter 13: Addressing Modes and Instruction Formats

Joannah Nanjehye

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Addressing Modes

The address field or fields in a typical instruction format are relatively small. We would like to be able to reference a large range of locations in main memory or, for some systems, virtual memory.

Common addressing techniques:

- ▶ Immediate
- ▶ Direct
- ▶ Indirect
- ▶ Register
- ▶ Register Direct
- ▶ Displacement
- ▶ Stack

Notations

A = contents of an address field in the instruction.

R = contents of an address field in the instruction that refers to a register.

EA = actual (effective) address of the location containing the referenced operand.

(X) = contents of memory location X or register X.

Several approaches are used, so different opcodes will use different addressing modes. Also, bits in the instruction format can be used as a **mode field**.

Immediate Addressing



- ▶ Operand is part of the instruction
- ▶ *Operand = A*
- ▶ Example SUB 9
 - ▶ Subtract 9 from the contents of the accumulator
 - ▶ 9 is the operand
- ▶ Saves one memory or cache cycle due to no memory reference
- ▶ Affected by the limited word length (instruction sets is small compared to the word length)
- ▶ Used for constants and variable initialization

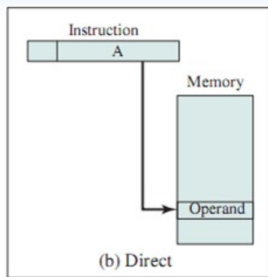
Direct Addressing

- Address field contains address of operand.

$$EA = A$$

Example: ADD A.

- Add contents of cell A to accumulator.
- Look in memory at address A for operand.



- Single memory reference to access data.
- No additional calculations to work out effective address.
- Limited address space.

Indirect Addressing

- The address field refer to the address of a word in memory.
- Memory cell pointed to by address field contains the address of (pointer to) the operand.

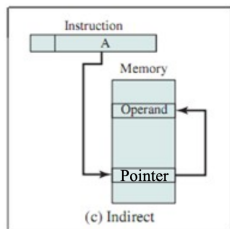
$$EA = (A)$$

– Look in A, find address (A) and look there for operand.

Example: ADD (A).

– Add contents of cell pointed to by contents of A to accumulator (AC).

- The disadvantage is that instruction execution requires two memory references to fetch the operand (address + value).

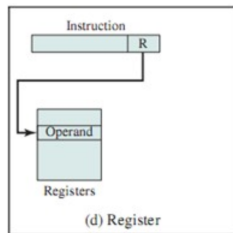


Register Addressing

- It is similar to direct addressing. The only difference is that the address field refers to a register rather than M.M address.

$$EA = R$$

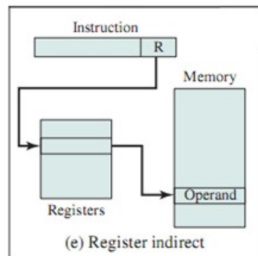
- Limited number of registers.
- No memory access.
- Very fast execution.
- The advantages are:
 - Only a small address field is needed in the instruction.
 - No time-consuming memory references are required.
- The main disadvantage is very limited address space.
- In modern Processors, multiple registers helps performance.



Indirect Register Addressing

- It is analogous to indirect addressing. The only difference is that the address field refers to a register.

$$EA = (R)$$



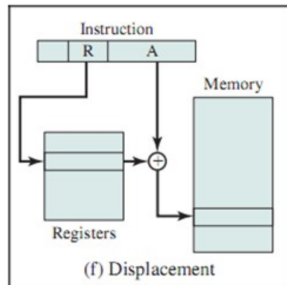
- Operand is in memory cell pointed to by contents of register R.
- Large address space (2^n).
- One fewer memory access than indirect addressing.

Displacement Addressing

“A very powerful mode of addressing that combines the capabilities of direct addressing and register indirect addressing”.

$$EA = A + (R)$$

- The value contained in one address field (value = A) is used directly. The other address field, or an implicit reference refers to a register (R) whose contents are added to A to produce the effective address.



Displacement Addressing ..

- There are three of the most common uses of displacement addressing:
 - Relative addressing
 - Base-register addressing
 - Indexing

(a) Relative addressing:

- $R = \text{Program counter(PC)}$.
- $EA = A + (PC)$.
- Get operand from A cells from current location pointed to by PC.
- This share the locality of reference & cache usage.

Displacement Addressing ...

(b) base-register addressing:

- The referenced register contains a main memory address, and the address field contains a displacement from that address.
- A holds displacement.
- R holds pointer to base address.
- The register reference may be explicit or implicit.

(c) Indexing addressing:

- The address field references a main memory address, and the referenced register contains a positive displacement from that address.
- This usage is just the opposite of the interpretation for base-register addressing.

Displacement Addressing ...

- $A = \text{base}$ $R = \text{displacement}$ $EA = A + R$
- The value A is stored in the instruction's address field, and the chosen register, called an **index register**, is initialized to 0. After each operation, the index register is incremented by 1.
- Some systems automatically do this as part of the same instruction cycle. This is known as **autoindexing**.

$$\begin{array}{l} EA = A + (R) \\ (R) \leftarrow (R) + 1 \end{array}$$

- In some machines, both indirect addressing and indexing are provided, and it is possible to employ both in the same instruction. There are two possibilities: the indexing is performed either before or after the indirection.

Displacement Addressing ...

- If indexing is performed after the indirection, it is termed **postindexing**

$$EA = (A) + (R)$$

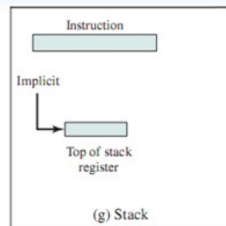
- First, the contents of the address field are used to access a memory location containing a direct address. This address is then indexed by the register value.
- With **preindexing**, the indexing is performed before the indirection.

$$EA = (A + (R))$$

- An address is calculated as with simple indexing. In this case, however, the calculated address contains not the operand, but the address of the operand.

Stack Addressing

- A stack is a linear array of locations.
- It is sometimes referred to as a **pushdown list** or **last-in-first-out queue**.
- The top two elements of the stack may be in processor registers, in which case the stack pointer references the third element of the stack.
- The stack pointer is maintained in a register. Thus, references to stack locations in memory are in fact register indirect addresses.
- The machine instructions need not include a memory reference but it is (implicitly) on top of stack.



Summary

Mode	Algorithm	Principal Advantage	Principal Disadvantage
Immediate	Operand = A	No memory reference	Limited operand magnitude
Direct	EA = A	Simple	Limited address space
Indirect	EA = (A)	Large address space	Multiple memory references
Register	EA = R	No memory reference	Limited address space
Register indirect	EA = (R)	Large address space	Extra memory reference
Displacement	EA = A + (R)	Flexibility	Complexity
Stack	EA = top of stack	No memory reference	Limited applicability

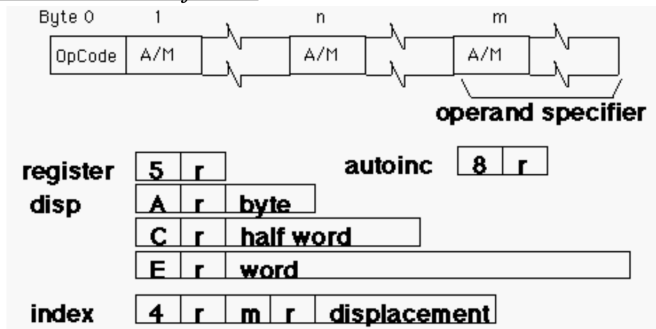
Instruction Formats

- ▶ The layout of the bits in an instruction set:
 - ▶ Opcodes
 - ▶ Operands, implicit or explicit
 - ▶ Memory address
 - ▶ Register
- ▶ Usually more than one instruction format is used and usually varies depending on whether its addressing memory, I/O devices or a register

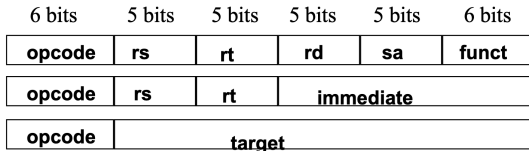
Instruction Bit Semantics

- ▶ Many instruction formats:
 - ▶ complicates decoding
 - ▶ Uses more instruction bits (to specify the format)

VAX 11 instruction format

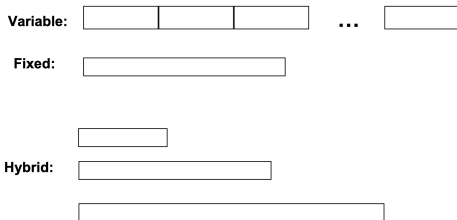


Instruction Bit Semantics



- the opcode tells the machine which format
- so `add r1, r2, r3` has
 - opcode=0, funct=32, rs=2, rt=3, rd=1, sa=0
 - 000000 00010 00011 00001 00000 100000

Instruction Length



- ▶ Variable-length instructions (Intel 80x86, VAX) require multi-step fetch and decode, but allow for a much more flexible and compact instruction set
- ▶ Fixed-length instructions allow easy fetch and decode, and simplify pipelining and parallelism

Instruction Length

- ▶ Affected by and affects:
 - ▶ Memory size
 - ▶ Memory organization
 - ▶ Bus structure
 - ▶ CPU complexity
 - ▶ CPU speed

Longer Instruction Length

- ▶ Pros:
 - ▶ More opecodes
 - ▶ Operands
 - ▶ Addressing modes
 - ▶ Greater address range
 - ▶ Easier programming
- ▶ Cons:
 - ▶ Waste of space

Expanding Opcodes

- ▶ Make some opcodes short, but have a means to provide longer ones when needed
- ▶ When the opcode is short, a lot of bits are left to hold operands
- ▶ If an instruction has no operands (such as Halt), all the bits can be used for the opcode
- ▶ In between, there are longer opcodes with fewer operands as well as shorter opcodes with more operands

Example 1

- ▶ Consider a machine with 16-bit instructions and 16 registers. And we wish to encode the following instructions:
 - ▶ 15 instructions with 3 addresses
 - ▶ 14 instructions with 2 addresses
 - ▶ 31 instructions with 1 address
 - ▶ 16 instructions with 0 addresses
- ▶ Can we encode this instruction set in 16 bits?

Example 1

0	0000	R1	R2	R3
⋮	⋮			
14	1110	R1	R2	R3

15 3-address codes

0	240	1111	0000	R1	R2
⋮	⋮	⋮			
13	253	1111	1101	R1	R2

14 2-address codes

0	4064	1111	1110	0000	R1
⋮	⋮	⋮			
30	4094	1111	1111	1110	R1

31 1-address codes

0	65520	1111	1111	1111	0000
⋮	⋮	⋮			
15	65535	1111	1111	1111	1111

16 0-address codes

Solution

- ▶ The first 15 instructions account for:
 $15 \times 2^4 \times 2^4 \times 2^4 = 15 \times 2^{12} = 61440$ bit patterns
- ▶ The next 14 instructions account for: $14 \times 2^4 \times 2^4 = 15 \times 2^8 = 3584$ bit patterns
- ▶ The next 31 instructions account for: $31 \times 2^4 = 496$ bit patterns
- ▶ The last 16 instructions account for 16 bit patterns
- ▶ In total we need $61440 + 3584 + 496 + 16 = 65536$ different bit patterns
- ▶ Having a total of 16 bits we can create $2^{16} = 65536$ bit patterns

We have an exact match with no wasted patterns. So our instruction set is possible

Example 2

- ▶ Is it possible to design an expanding opcode to allow the following to be encoded with a 12-bit instruction? Assume a register operand requires 3 bits
 - ▶ 4 instructions with 3 registers
 - ▶ 255 instructions with 1 register
 - ▶ 16 instructions with 0 register

Solution

- ▶ The first 4 instructions account for: -
 $4 \times 2^3 \times 2^3 \times 2^3 = 4 \times 2^9 = 2048$ bit patterns
- ▶ The next 255 instructions account for: - $255 \times 2^3 = 2040$ bit patterns
- ▶ The last 16 instructions account for 16 bit patterns
- ▶ In total we need $2048 + 2040 + 16 = 4104$ bit patterns
- ▶ With 12 bit instruction we can only have $2^{12} = 4096$ bit patterns

Required bit patterns (4104) is more than what we have (4096), so this instruction set is not possible with only 12 bits

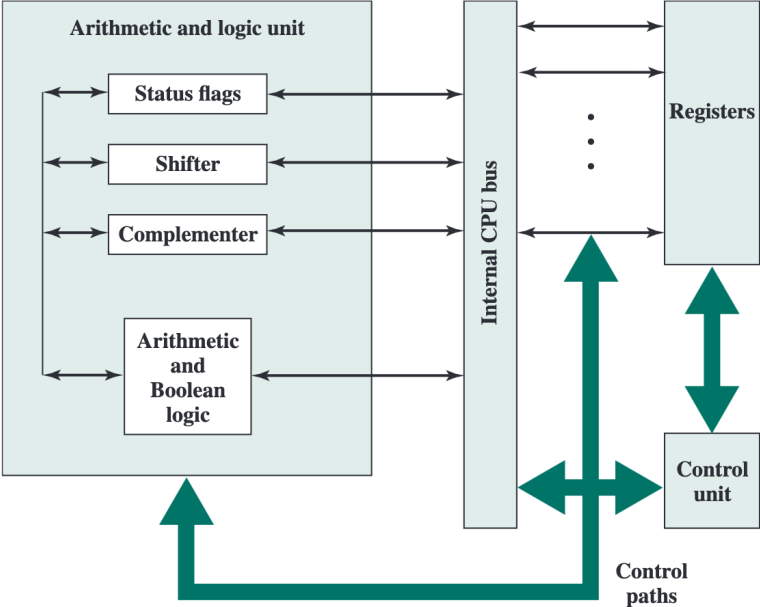
Allocation Bits

Trade-off between opcodes and the power of the addressing capability. Variable-length opcodes are helpful

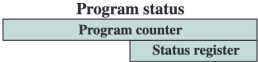
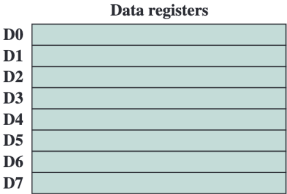
- ▶ Factors determining the use of addressing bits:
 - ▶ Number of addressing modes
 - ▶ Number of operands
 - ▶ Register vs. memory
 - ▶ Number of register sets
 - ▶ Address range

Pre-lecture 16

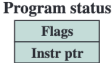
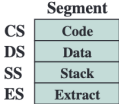
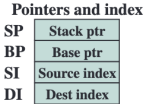
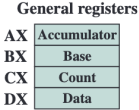
Processor Organization



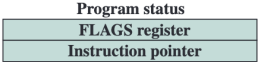
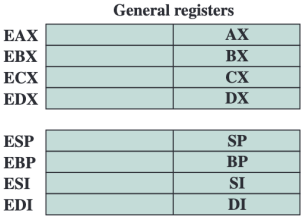
Register Organization



(a) MC68000



(b) 8086



(c) 80386—Pentium 4

Acknowledgement of Sources

- ▶ Most of these slides are adopted from Dr. Nader Taleb lectures
- ▶ <https://slideplayer.com/slide/10852334/>
- ▶ <https://cseweb.ucsd.edu/classes/su06/cse141/slides/s02-isa-1up.pdf>
- ▶ <https://slideplayer.com/slide/9163053/>
- ▶ <https://h3turing.vmhost.psu.edu/cmpsc312/ExpOpcodes1.pdf>
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