Advanced Architecture

Computer Organization and Assembly Languages
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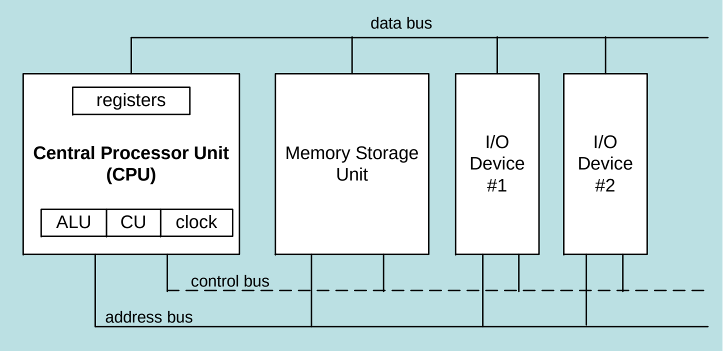
with slides by S. Dandamudi, Peng-Sheng Chen, Kip Irvine, Robert Sedgwick and Kevin Wayne

Basic architecture

Basic microcomputer design

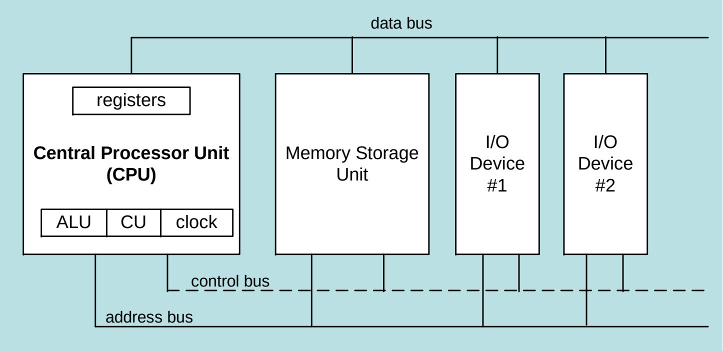
- clock synchronizes CPU operations
- control unit (CU) coordinates sequence of execution steps
- ALU performs arithmetic and logic operations



data bus
registers
Central Processor Unit (CPU)
ALU
CU
clock
Memory Storage Unit
I/O Device #1
I/O Device #2
control bus
address bus

Basic microcomputer design

- The memory storage unit holds instructions and data for a running program
- A bus is a group of wires that transfer data from one part to another (data, address, control)



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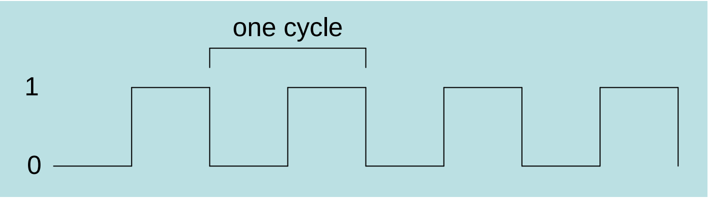
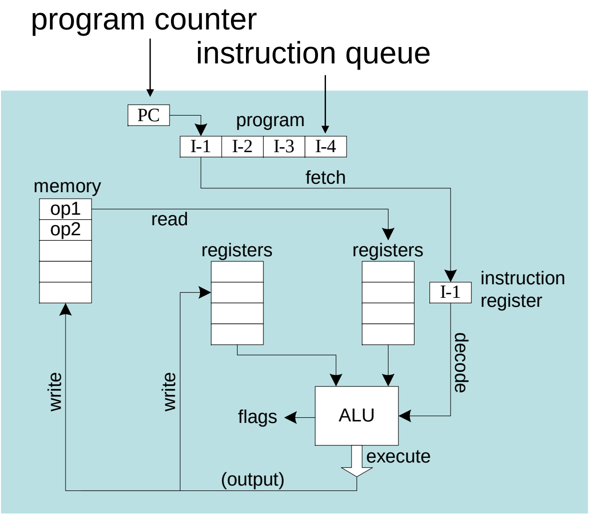
Clock

- synchronizes all CPU and BUS operations
- machine (clock) cycle measures time of a single operation
- clock is used to trigger events



- Basic unit of time, 1GHz→clock cycle=1ns
- An instruction could take multiple cycles to complete, e.g. multiply in 8088 takes 50 cycles

Instruction execution cycle



- Fetch
- Decode
- Fetch operands
- Execute
- Store output

Pipeline

Multi-stage pipeline

- Pipelining makes it possible for processor to execute instructions in parallel
- Instruction execution divided into discrete stages

Example of a non-pipelined processor. For example, 80386. Many wasted cycles.

Stages

Cycles	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6
1	I-1					
2		I-1				
3			I-1			
4				I-1		
5					I-1	
6						I-1
7	I-2					
8		I-2				
9			I-2			
10				I-2		
11					I-2	
12						I-2

Pipelined execution

- More efficient use of cycles, greater throughput of instructions: (80486 started to use pipelining)

Stages

Cycles	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6
1	I-1					
2	I-2	I-1				
3		I-2	I-1			
4			I-2	I-1		
5				I-2	I-1	
6					I-2	I-1
7						I-2

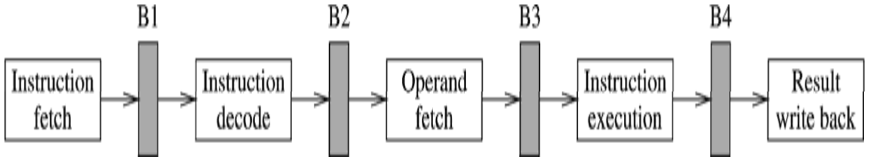
For *k* stages and *n* instructions, the number of required cycles is:

$k + (n - 1)$

compared to k*n

Pipelined execution

- Pipelining requires buffers
  - Each buffer holds a single value
  - Ideal scenario: equal work for each stage
    - Sometimes it is not possible
    - Slowest stage determines the flow rate in the entire pipeline



Pipelined execution

- Some reasons for unequal work stages
  - A complex step cannot be subdivided conveniently
  - An operation takes variable amount of time to execute, e.g. operand fetch time depends on where the operands are located
    - Registers
    - Cache
    - Memory
  - Complexity of operation depends on the type of operation
    - Add: may take one cycle
    - Multiply: may take several cycles

Pipelined execution

- Operand fetch of I2 takes three cycles
  - Pipeline *stalls* for two cycles
    - Caused by hazards
  - Pipeline stalls reduce overall throughput

Clock cycle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
I1	IF	ID	OF	IE	WB					
I2		IF	ID	OF			IE	WB		
I3			IF	ID			OF	IE	WB	
I4				IF			ID	OF	IE	WB

Wasted cycles (pipelined)

- When one of the stages requires two or more clock cycles, clock cycles are again wasted.

Stages

Cycles	S1	S2	S3	S4 exe	S5	S6
1	I-1					
2	I-2	I-1				
3	I-3	I-2	I-1			
4		I-3	I-2	I-1		
5			I-3	I-1		
6				I-2	I-1	
7				I-2	▨	I-1
8				I-3	I-2	▨
9				I-3	▨	I-2
10					I-3	▨
11						I-3

For *k* stages and *n* instructions, the number of required cycles is:

$k + (2n - 1)$

Superscalar

A superscalar processor has multiple execution pipelines. In the following, note that Stage S4 has left and right pipelines (u and v).

Stages

				S4			
Cycles	S1	S2	S3	u	v	S5	S6
1	I-1						
2	I-2	I-1					
3	I-3	I-2	I-1				
4	I-4	I-3	I-2	I-1			
5		I-4	I-3	I-1	I-2		
6			I-4	I-3	I-2	I-1	
7				I-3	I-4	I-2	I-1
8					I-4	I-3	I-2
9						I-4	I-3
10							I-4

For *k* states and *n* instructions, the number of required cycles is:

$k + n$

Pentium: 2 pipelines

Pentium Pro: 3

Pipeline stages

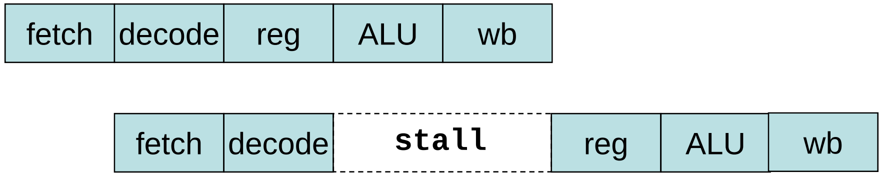
- Pentium 3: 10
- Pentium 4: 20~31
- Next-generation micro-architecture: 14
- ARM7: 3

Hazards

- Three types of hazards
  - Resource hazards
    - Occurs when two or more instructions use the same resource, also called *structural hazards*
  - Data hazards
    - Caused by data dependencies between instructions, e.g. result produced by I1 is read by I2
  - Control hazards
    - Default: sequential execution suits pipelining
    - Altering control flow (e.g., branching) causes problems, introducing control dependencies

Data hazards

```
add r1, r2, #10     ; write r1
sub r3, r1, #20     ; read r1
```



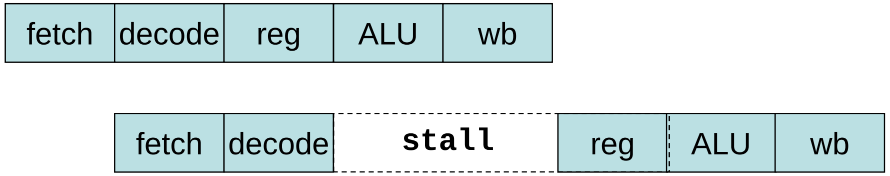
fetch decode reg ALU wb

fetch decode stall reg ALU wb

Data hazards

- Forwarding: provides output result as soon as possible

```
add r1, r2, #10     ; write r1
sub r3, r1, #20     ; read r1
```



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Data hazards

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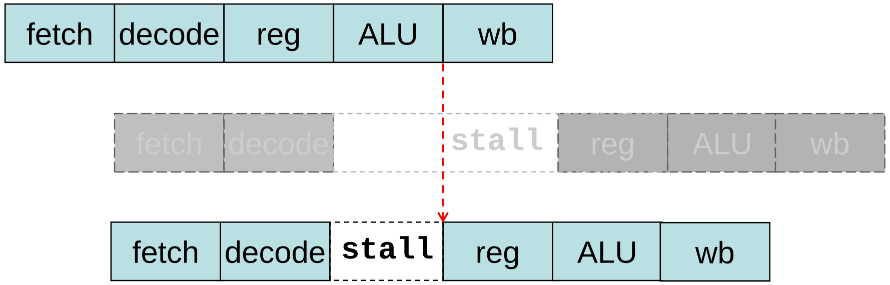


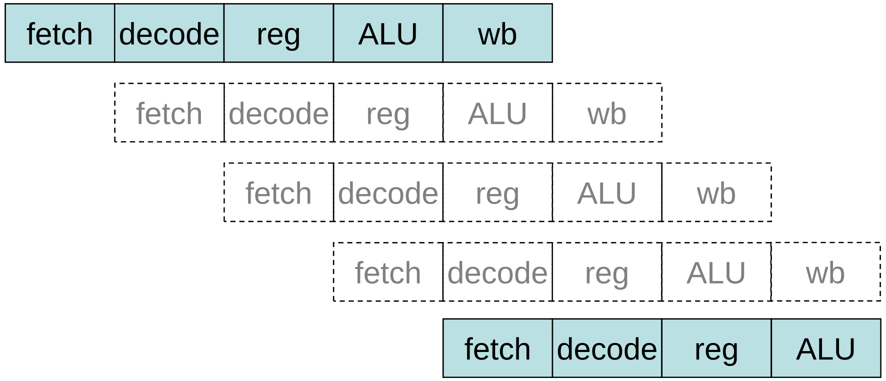
fetch decode reg ALU wb

fetch decode stall reg ALU wb

fetch decode stall reg ALU wb

Control hazards

```
         bz  r1, target
         add r2, r4, 0
         ...
target:  add r2, r3, 0
```



fetch decode reg ALU wb

fetch decode reg ALU wb

fetch decode reg ALU wb

fetch decode reg ALU wb

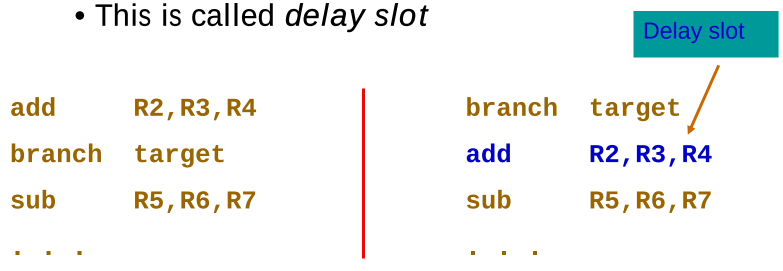
fetch decode reg ALU

Control hazards

- Braches alter control flow
  - Require special attention in pipelining
  - Need to throw away some instructions in the pipeline
    - Depends on when we know the branch is taken
    - Pipeline wastes three clock cycles
      - Called *branch penalty*
  - Reducing branch penalty
    - Determine branch decision early

Control hazards

- Delayed branch execution
  - Effectively reduces the branch penalty
  - We always fetch the instruction following the branch
    - Why throw it away?
    - Place a useful instruction to execute
    - This is called *delay slot*



Delay slot

```
add      R2,R3,R4
branch   target
sub      R5,R6,R7
. . .
```

```
branch   target
add      R2,R3,R4
sub      R5,R6,R7
. . .
```

Branch prediction

- Three prediction strategies
  - Fixed
    - Prediction is fixed
      - Example: **branch-never-taken**
        - » Not proper for loop structures
  - Static
    - Strategy depends on the branch type
      - Conditional branch: always not taken
      - Loop: always taken
  - Dynamic
    - Takes run-time history to make more accurate predictions

Branch prediction

- Static prediction
  - Improves prediction accuracy over Fixed

Instruction type	Instruction Distribution (%)	Prediction: Branch taken?	Correct prediction (%)
Unconditional branch	70*0.4 = 28	Yes	28
Conditional branch	70*0.6 = 42	No	42*0.6 = 25.2
Loop	10	Yes	10*0.9 = 9
Call/return	20	Yes	20

Overall prediction accuracy = **82.2%**

Branch prediction

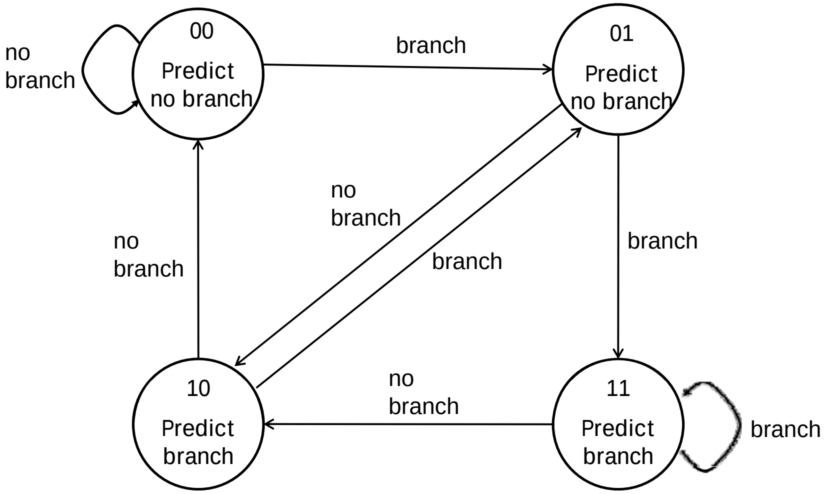
- Dynamic branch prediction
  - Uses runtime history
    - Takes the past *n* branch executions of the branch type and makes the prediction
  - Simple strategy
    - Prediction of the next branch is the **majority** of the previous *n* branch executions
    - Example*:* *n* = 3
      - If two or more of the last three branches were taken, the prediction is "branch taken"
    - Depending on the type of mix, we get more than 90% prediction accuracy

Branch prediction

- Impact of past *n* branches on prediction accuracy

	Type of mix		
n	Compiler	Business	Scientific
0	64.1	64.4	70.4
1	91.9	95.2	86.6
2	93.3	96.5	90.8
3	93.7	96.6	91.0
4	94.5	96.8	91.8
5	94.7	97.0	92.0

Branch prediction

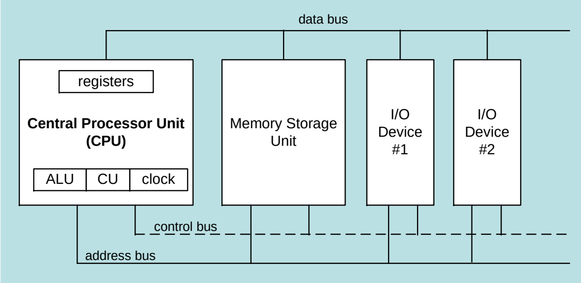


Multitasking

- OS can run multiple programs at the same time.
- Multiple threads of execution within the same program.
- Scheduler utility assigns a given amount of CPU time to each running program.
- Rapid switching of tasks
  - gives illusion that all programs are running at once
  - the processor must support task switching
  - scheduling policy, round-robin, priority

Cache

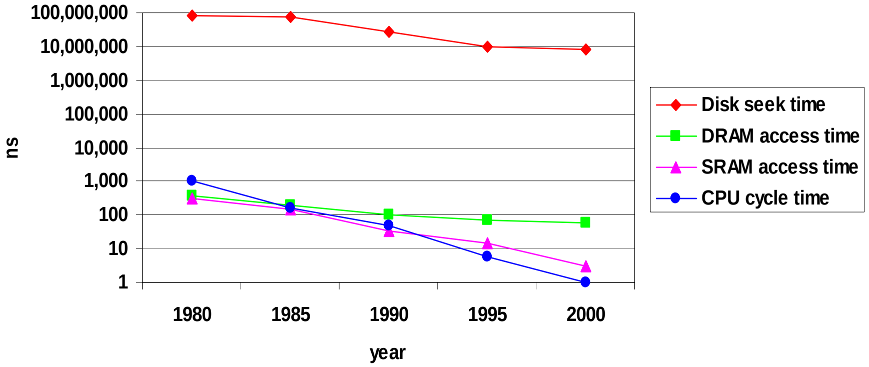
SRAM vs DRAM



	Tran. per bit	Access time	Needs refresh?	Cost	Applications
SRAM	4 or 6	1X	No	100X	cache memories
DRAM	1	10X	Yes	1X	Main memories, frame buffers

The CPU-Memory gap

The gap widens between DRAM, disk, and CPU speeds.

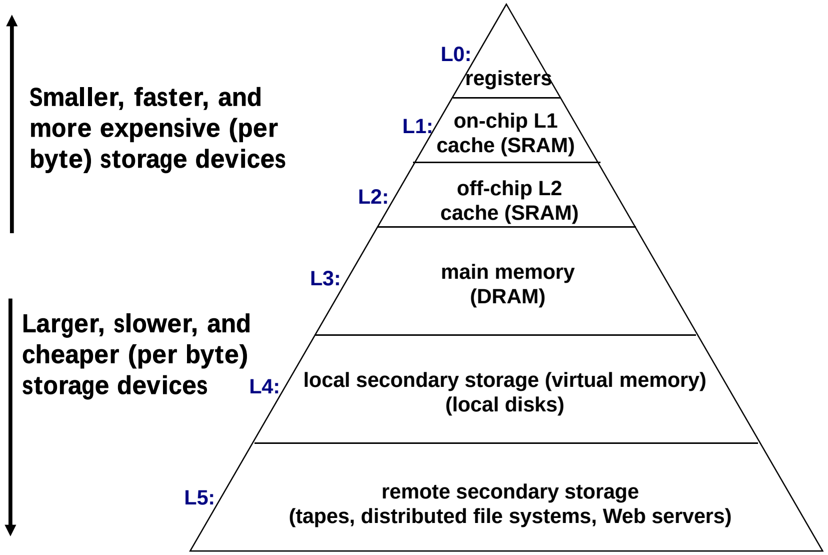


	register	cache	memory	disk
Access time (cycles)	1	1-10	50-100	20,000,000

Memory hierarchies

- Some fundamental and enduring properties of hardware and software:
  - Fast storage technologies cost more per byte, have less capacity, and require more power (heat!).
  - The gap between CPU and main memory speed is widening.
  - Well-written programs tend to exhibit good locality.
- They suggest an approach for organizing memory and storage systems known as a memory hierarchy.

Memory system in practice



Smaller, faster, and more expensive (per byte) storage devices

Larger, slower, and cheaper (per byte) storage devices

L0: registers

L1: on-chip L1 cache (SRAM)

L2: off-chip L2 cache (SRAM)

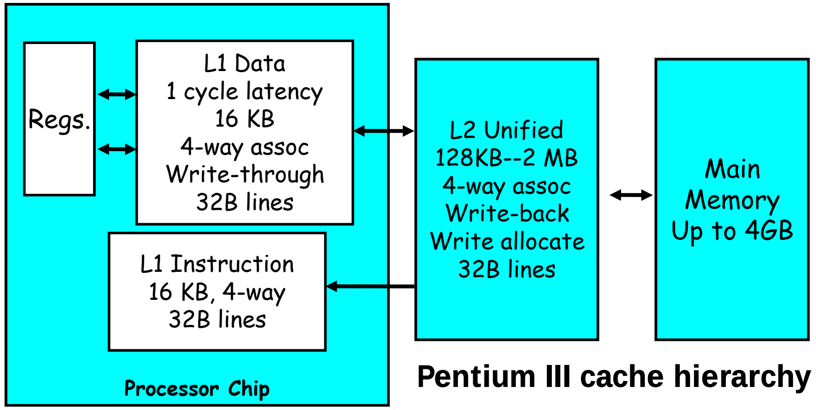
L3: main memory (DRAM)

L4: local secondary storage (virtual memory) (local disks)

L5: remote secondary storage (tapes, distributed file systems, Web servers)

Reading from memory

- Multiple machine cycles are required when reading from memory, because it responds much more slowly than the CPU (e.g.33 MHz). The wasted clock cycles are called wait states.



Regs.

L1 Data
1 cycle latency
16 KB
4-way assoc
Write-through
32B lines

L1 Instruction
16 KB, 4-way
32B lines

Processor Chip

L2 Unified
128KB--2 MB
4-way assoc
Write-back
Write allocate
32B lines

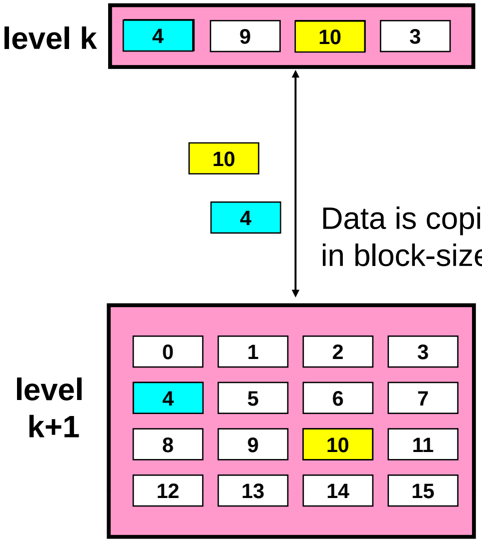
Main
Memory
Up to 4GB

Pentium III cache hierarchy

Cache memory

- High-speed expensive static RAM both inside and outside the CPU.
  - Level-1 cache: inside the CPU
  - Level-2 cache: outside the CPU
- Cache hit: when data to be read is already in cache memory
- Cache miss: when data to be read is not in cache memory. When? compulsory, capacity and conflict.
- Cache design: cache size, n-way, block size, replacement policy

Caching in a memory hierarchy



level k

4	9	10	3

10

4

level k+1

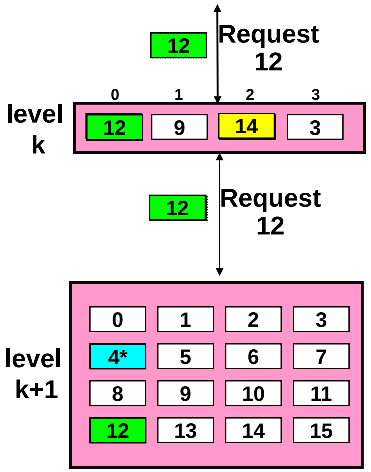
0	1	2	3
4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11
12	13	14	15

Smaller, faster, more Expensive device at level k caches a subset of the blocks from level k+1

Data is copied between levels in block-sized transfer units

Larger, slower, cheaper Storage device at level k+1 is partitioned into blocks.

General caching concepts


Request 12

12

level k

0 1 2 3

12 9 14 3

Request 12

12

level k+1

0 1 2 3

4* 5 6 7

8 9 10 11

12 13 14 15

- Program needs object d, which is stored in some block b.
- Cache hit
  - Program finds b in the cache at level k. E.g., block 14.
- Cache miss
  - b is not at level k, so level k cache must fetch it from level k+1. E.g., block 12.
  - If level k cache is full, then some current block must be replaced (evicted). Which one is the “victim”?
    - Placement policy: where can the new block go? E.g., b mod 4
    - Replacement policy: which block should be evicted? E.g., LRU

Locality

- Principle of Locality: programs tend to reuse data and instructions near those they have used recently, or that were recently referenced themselves.
  - Temporal locality: recently referenced items are likely to be referenced in the near future.
  - Spatial locality: items with nearby addresses tend to be referenced close together in time.
- In general, *programs with good locality run faster then programs with poor locality*
- Locality is the reason why cache and virtual memory are designed in architecture and operating system. Another example is web browser caches recently visited webpages.

Locality example

```
sum = 0;
for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
   sum += a[i];
return sum;
```

- **Data**
  - Reference array elements in succession (stride-1 reference pattern): **Spatial locality**
  - Reference sum each iteration: **Temporal locality**
- **Instructions**
  - Reference instructions in sequence: **Spatial locality**
  - Cycle through loop repeatedly: **Temporal locality**

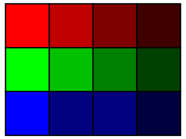
Locality example

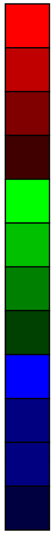
- Being able to look at code and get a qualitative sense of its locality is important. Does this function have good locality?

```
int sum_array_rows(int a[M][N])
{
    int i, j, sum = 0;

    for (i = 0; i < M; i++)
        for (j = 0; j < N; j++)
            sum += a[i][j];
    return sum;
}
```

stride-1 reference pattern



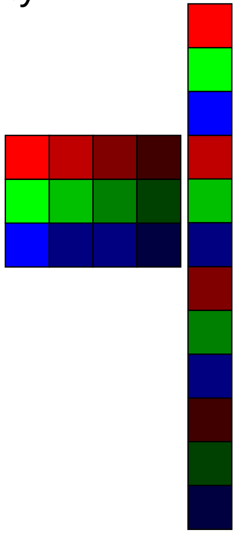


Locality example

- Does this function have good locality?

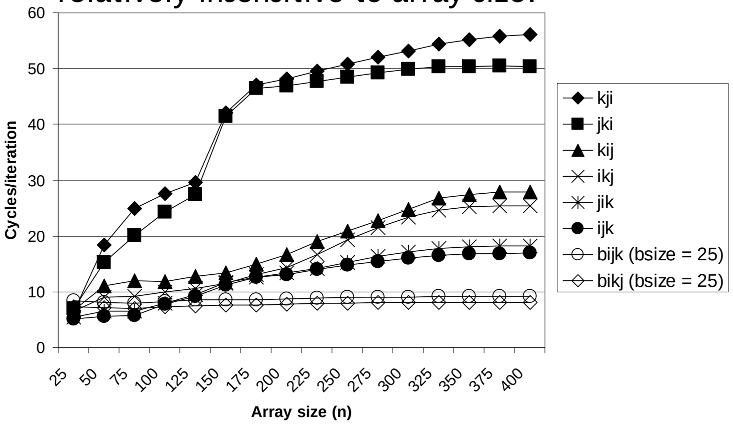
```
int sum_array_cols(int a[M][N])
{
    int i, j, sum = 0;

    for (j = 0; j < N; j++)
        for (i = 0; i < M; i++)
            sum += a[i][j];
    return sum;
} stride-N reference pattern
```



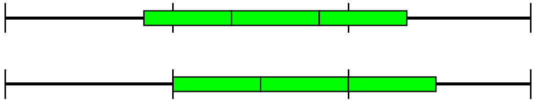
Blocked matrix multiply performance

- Blocking (bijk and bikj) improves performance by a factor of two over unblocked versions (ijk and jik)
  - relatively insensitive to array size.

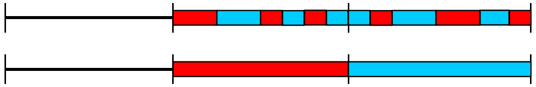


Cache-conscious programming

- make sure that memory is cache-aligned



- Split data into hot and cold (list example)



- Use union and bitfields to reduce size and increase locality

RISC v.s. CISC

Trade-offs of instruction sets

$$\text{high-level language} \xrightarrow[\text{semantic gap}]{\text{compiler}} \text{machine code}$$

C, C++
Lisp, Prolog, Haskell…

- Before 1980, the trend is to increase instruction complexity (one-to-one mapping if possible) to bridge the gap. Reduce fetch from memory. Selling point: number of instructions, addressing modes. (CISC)
- 1980, RISC. Simplify and regularize instructions to introduce advanced architecture for better performance, pipeline, cache, superscalar.

RISC

- 1980, Patternson and Ditzel (Berkeley),RISC
- Features
  - Fixed-length instructions
  - Load-store architecture
  - Register file
- Organization
  - Hard-wired logic
  - Single-cycle instruction
  - Pipeline
- Pros: small die size, short development time, high performance
- Cons: low code density, not x86 compatible

RISC Design Principles

- Simple operations
  - Simple instructions that can execute in one cycle
- Register-to-register operations
  - Only load and store operations access memory
  - Rest of the operations on a register-to-register basis
- Simple addressing modes
  - A few addressing modes (1 or 2)
- Large number of registers
  - Needed to support register-to-register operations
  - Minimize the procedure call and return overhead

RISC Design Principles

- Fixed-length instructions
  - Facilitates efficient instruction execution
- Simple instruction format
  - Fixed boundaries for various fields
    - opcode, source operands,…

CISC and RISC

- CISC – complex instruction set
  - large instruction set
  - high-level operations (simpler for compiler?)
  - requires microcode interpreter (could take a long time)
  - examples: Intel 80x86 family
- RISC – reduced instruction set
  - small instruction set
  - simple, atomic instructions
  - directly executed by hardware very quickly
  - easier to incorporate advanced architecture design
  - examples: ARM (Advanced RISC Machines) and DEC Alpha (now Compaq), PowerPC, MIPS

CISC and RISC

	CISC (Intel 486)	RISC (MIPS R4000)
#instructions	235	94
Addr. modes	11	1
Inst. Size (bytes)	1-12	4
GP registers	8	32

Why RISC?

- Simple instructions are preferred
  - Complex instructions are mostly ignored by compilers
    - Due to semantic gap
- Simple data structures
  - Complex data structures are used relatively infrequently
  - Better to support a few simple data types efficiently
    - Synthesize complex ones
- Simple addressing modes
  - Complex addressing modes lead to variable length instructions
    - Lead to inefficient instruction decoding and scheduling

Why RISC? (cont'd)

- Large register set
  - Efficient support for procedure calls and returns
    - Patterson and Sequin's study
      - Procedure call/return: 12–15% of HLL statements
        - » Constitute 31–33% of machine language instructions
        - » Generate nearly half (45%) of memory references
  - Small activation record
    - Tanenbaum's study
      - Only 1.25% of the calls have more than 6 arguments
      - More than 93% have less than 6 local scalar variables
      - Large register set can avoid memory references

ISA design issues

Instruction set design

- Issues when determining ISA
  - Instruction types
  - Number of addresses
  - Addressing modes

Instruction types

- Arithmetic and logic
- Data movement
- I/O (memory-mapped, isolated I/O)
- Flow control
  - Branches (unconditional, conditional)
    - set-then-jump (**`cmp AX, BX; je target`**)
    - Test-and-jump (**`beq r1, r2, target`**)
  - Procedure calls (register-based, stack-based)
    - Pentium: **`ret`**; MIPS: **`jr`**
    - Register: faster but limited number of parameters
    - Stack: slower but more general

Operand types

- Instructions support basic data types
  - Characters
  - Integers
  - Floating-point
- Instruction overload
  - Same instruction for different data types
  - Example: Pentium

```
mov    AL,address   ;loads an 8-bit value
mov    AX,address   ;loads a 16-bit value
mov    EAX,address  ;loads a 32-bit value
```

Operand types

- Separate instructions
  - Instructions specify the operand size
  - Example: MIPS

```
lb    Rdest,address   ;loads a byte
lh    Rdest,address   ;loads a halfword
                      ;(16 bits)
lw    Rdest,address   ;loads a word
                      ;(32 bits)
ld    Rdest,address   ;loads a doubleword
                      ;(64 bits)
```

Number of addresses

Number of addresses

- Four categories
  - 3-address machines
    - two for the source operands and one for the result
  - 2-address machines
    - One address doubles as source and result
  - 1-address machine
    - Accumulator machines
    - Accumulator is used for one source and result
  - 0-address machines
    - Stack machines
    - Operands are taken from the stack
    - Result goes onto the stack

Number of addresses

Number of addresses	instruction	operation
3	OP A, B, C	A ← B OP C
2	OP A, B	A ← A OP B
1	OP A	AC ← AC OP A
0	OP	T ← (T-1) OP T

A, B, C: memory or register locations
AC: accumulator
T: top of stack
T-1: second element of stack

3-address

Example: RISC machines, TOY

$$Y = \frac{A-B}{C+(D\times E)}$$

opcode	A	B	C

```
SUB Y, A, B    ; Y = A - B
MUL T, D, E    ; T = D × E
ADD T, T, C    ; T = T + C
DIV Y, Y, T    ; Y = Y / T
```

2-address

Example: IA32

$$Y = \frac{A-B}{C+(D\times E)}$$

opcode	A	B

```
MOV Y, A          ; Y = A
SUB Y, B          ; Y = Y - B
MOV T, D          ; T = D
MUL T, E          ; T = T × E
ADD T, C          ; T = T + C
DIV Y, T          ; Y = Y / T
```

1-address

Example: IA32’s MUL (EAX)

$$Y = \frac{A-B}{C+(D\times E)}$$

opcode	A

```
LD   D         ; AC = D
MUL  E         ; AC = AC × E
ADD  C         ; AC = AC + C
ST   Y         ; Y = AC
LD   A         ; AC = A
SUB  B         ; AC = AC – B
DIV  Y         ; AC = AC / Y
ST   Y         ; Y = AC
```

0-address

Example: IA32’s FPU, HP3000

$$Y = \frac{A-B}{C+(D\times E)}$$

opcode

```
PUSH A            ; A
PUSH B            ; A, B
SUB               ; A-B
PUSH C            ; A-B, C
PUSH D            ; A-B, C, D
PUSH E            ; A-B, C, D, E
MUL               ; A-B, C, D× E
ADD               ; A-B, C+(D× E)
DIV               ; (A-B) / (C+(D× E))
POP  Y
```

Number of addresses

- A basic design decision; could be mixed
- Fewer addresses per instruction results in
  - a less complex processor
  - shorter instructions
  - longer and more complex programs
  - longer execution time
- The decision has impacts on register usage policy as well
  - 3-address usually means more general-purpose registers
  - 1-address usually means less

Addressing modes

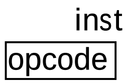
Addressing modes

- How to specify location of operands? Trade-off for address range, address flexibility, number of memory references, calculation of addresses
- Operands can be in three places
  - Registers
    - Register addressing mode
  - Part of instruction
    - Constant
    - Immediate addressing mode
    - All processors support these two addressing modes
  - Memory
    - Difference between RISC and CISC
    - CISC supports a large variety of addressing modes
    - RISC follows load/store architecture

Addressing modes

- Common addressing modes
  - Implied
  - Immediate (**`lda R1, 1`**)
  - Direct (**`st R1, A`**)
  - Indirect
  - Register (**`add R1, R2, R3`**)
  - Register indirect (**`sti R1, R2`**)
  - Displacement
  - Stack

Implied addressing

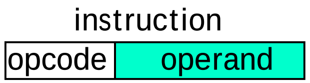


- No address field; operand is implied by the instruction

  `CLC ; clear carry`

- A fixed and unvarying address

Immediate addressing

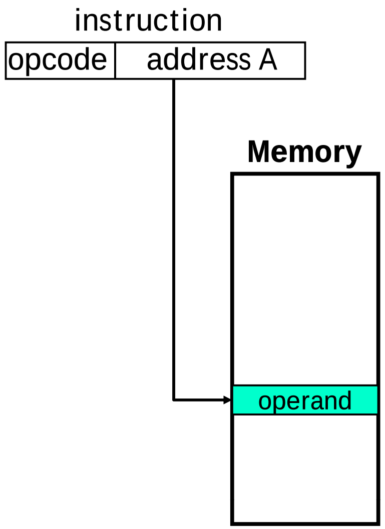


- Address field contains the operand value

  `ADD 5; AC=AC+5`

- Pros: no extra memory reference; faster
- Cons: limited range

Direct addressing

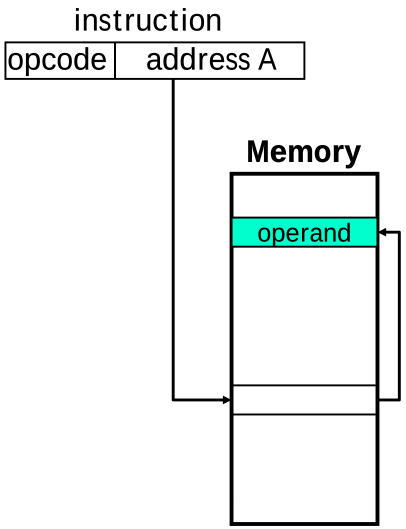


- Address field contains the effective address of the operand

  `ADD A; AC=AC+[A]`

- single memory reference
- Pros: no additional address calculation
- Cons: limited address space

Indirect addressing

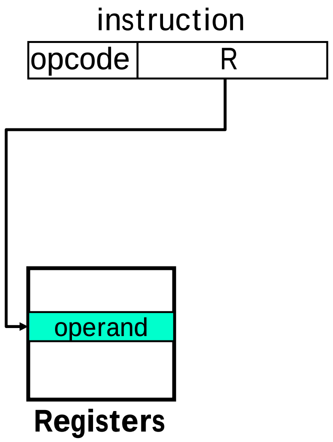


- Address field contains the address of a pointer to the operand

  `ADD [A]; AC=AC+[[A]]`

- multiple memory references
- Pros: large address space
- Cons: slower

Register addressing

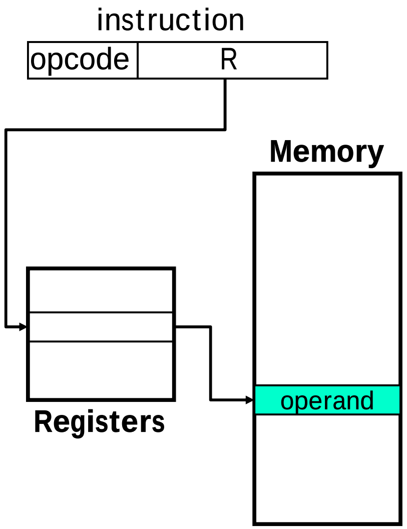


- Address field contains the address of a register

  `ADD R; AC=AC+R`

- Pros: only need a small address field; shorter instruction and faster fetch; no memory reference
- Cons: limited address space

Register indirect addressing

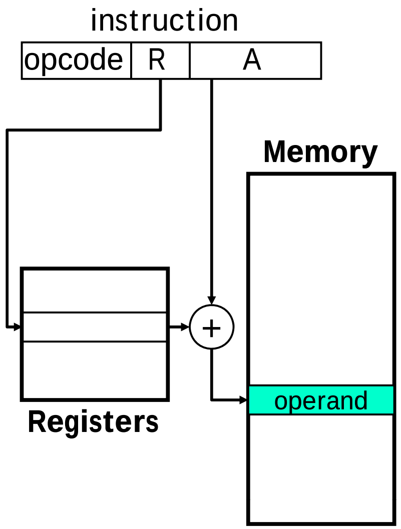


- Address field contains the address of the register containing a pointer to the operand

  `ADD [R]; AC=AC+[R]`

- Pros: large address space
- Cons: extra memory reference

Displacement addressing

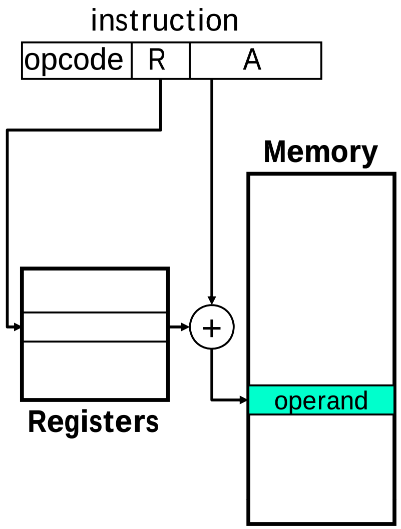


- Address field could contain a register address and an address

  `MOV EAX, [A+ESI*4]`

- EA=A+[R×S] or vice versa
- Several variants
  - Base-offset: **`[EBP+8]`**
  - Base-index: **`[EBX+ESI]`**
  - Scaled: **`[T+ESI*4]`**
- Pros: flexible
- Cons: complex

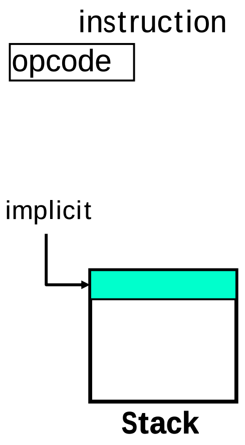
Displacement addressing



`MOV EAX, [A+ESI*4]`

- Often, register, called indexing register, is used for displacement.
- Usually, a mechanism is provided to efficiently increase the indexing register.

Stack addressing



- Operand is on top of the stack

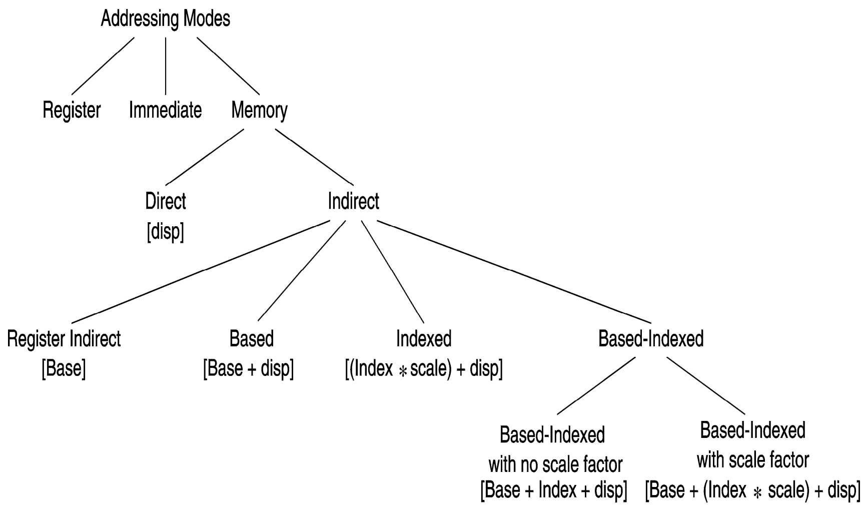
  `ADD [R]; AC=AC+[R]`

- Pros: large address space
- Pros: short and fast fetch
- Cons: limited by FILO order

Addressing modes

Mode	Meaning	Pros	Cons
Implied		Fast fetch	Limited instructions
Immediate	Operand=A	No memory ref	Limited operand
Direct	EA=A	Simple	Limited address space
Indirect	EA=[A]	Large address space	Multiple memory ref
Register	EA=R	No memory ref	Limited address space
Register indirect	EA=[R]	Large address space	Extra memory ref
Displacement	EA=A+[R]	Flexibility	Complexity
stack	EA=stack top	No memory ref	Limited applicability

IA32 addressing modes


Addressing Modes

Register

Immediate

Memory

Direct [disp]

Indirect

Register Indirect [Base]

Based [Base + disp]

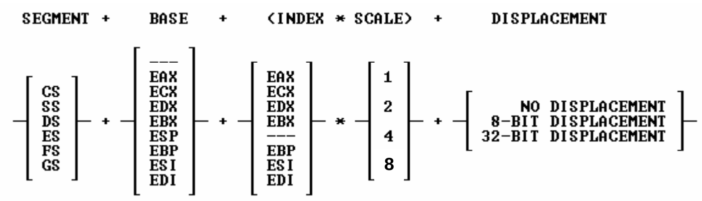
Indexed [(Index * scale) + disp]

Based-Indexed

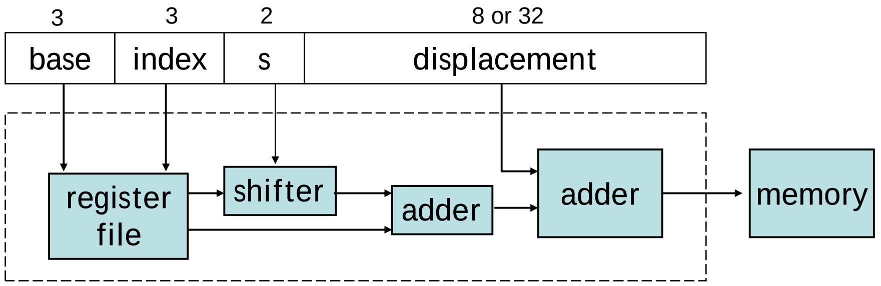
Based-Indexed with no scale factor [Base + Index + disp]

Based-Indexed with scale factor [Base + (Index * scale) + disp]

Effective address calculation (IA32)



A dummy format for one operand



Based Addressing

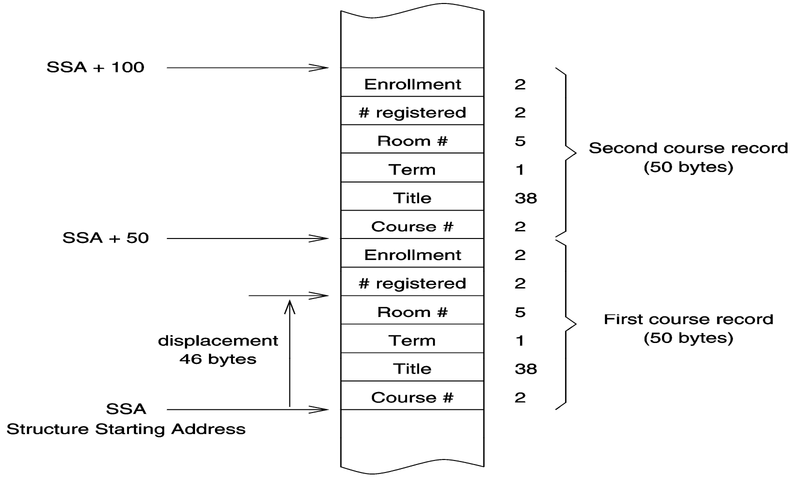
- Effective address is computed as

  base + signed displacement

  - Displacement:
    - 16-bit addresses: 8- or 16-bit number
    - 32-bit addresses: 8- or 32-bit number
- Useful to access fields of a structure or record
  - Base register → points to the base address of the structure
  - Displacement → relative offset within the structure
- Useful to access arrays whose element size is not 2, 4, or 8 bytes
  - Displacement → points to the beginning of the array
  - Base register → relative offset of an element within the array

To be used with S. Dandamudi, “Fundamentals of Computer Organization and Design,” Springer, 2003.

Based Addressing



Indexed Addressing

- Effective address is computed as

  (index * scale factor) + signed displacement

  - 16-bit addresses:
    - displacement: 8- or 16-bit number
    - scale factor: none (i.e., 1)
  - 32-bit addresses:
    - displacement: 8- or 32-bit number
    - scale factor: 2, 4, or 8
- Useful to access elements of an array (particularly if the element size is 2, 4, or 8 bytes)
  - Displacement → points to the beginning of the array
  - Index register → selects an element of the array (array index)
  - Scaling factor → size of the array element

Indexed Addressing

Examples

```
add   AX,[DI+20]
```

- We have seen similar usage to access parameters off the stack

```
add   AX,marks_table[ESI*4]
```

- Assembler replaces **marks_table** by a constant (i.e., supplies the displacement)
- Each element of **marks_table** takes 4 bytes (the scale factor value)
- ESI needs to hold the element subscript value

```
add   AX,table1[SI]
```

- SI needs to hold the element offset in *bytes*
- When we use the scale factor we avoid such byte counting

Based-Indexed Addressing

Based-indexed addressing with no scale factor

- Effective address is computed as

  base + index + signed displacement

- Useful in accessing two-dimensional arrays
  - Displacement → points to the beginning of the array
  - Base and index registers point to a row and an element within that row
- Useful in accessing arrays of records
  - Displacement → represents the offset of a field in a record
  - Base and index registers hold a pointer to the base of the array and the offset of an element relative to the base of the array

Based-Indexed Addressing

- Useful in accessing arrays passed on to a procedure
  - Base register → points to the beginning of the array
  - Index register → represents the offset of an element relative to the base of the array

Example

Assuming BX points to **`table1`**

```
mov   AX,[BX+SI]
cmp   AX,[BX+SI+2]
```

compares two successive elements of **`table1`**

Based-Indexed Addressing

Based-indexed addressing with scale factor

- Effective address is computed as

  base + (index * scale factor) + signed displacement

- Useful in accessing two-dimensional arrays when the element size is 2, 4, or 8 bytes
  - Displacement ==> points to the beginning of the array
  - Base register ==> holds offset to a row (relative to start of array)
  - Index register ==> selects an element of the row
  - Scaling factor ==> size of the array element