

CPSC 213

Introduction to Computer Systems

Unit 1b

Static Scalars and Arrays

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Reading for Next 3 Lectures

▸ Companion

- 2.4.1-2.4.3

▸ Textbook

- Array Allocation and Access
- 3.8

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The Big Picture

- ▶ Build machine model of execution
 - for Java and C programs
 - by examining language features
 - and deciding how they are implemented by the machine
- ▶ What is required
 - design an ISA into which programs can be compiled
 - implement the ISA in the hardware simulator
- ▶ Our approach
 - examine code snippets that exemplify each language feature in turn
 - look at Java and C, pausing to dig deeper when C is different from Java
 - design and implement ISA as needed
- ▶ The simulator is an important tool
 - machine execution is hard to visualize without it
 - this visualization is really our WHOLE POINT here

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Design Plan

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Examine Java and C Bit by Bit

▸ Reading writing and arithmetic on Variables

- static base types (e.g., int, char)
- static and dynamic arrays of base types
- dynamically allocated objects and object references
- object instance variables
- procedure locals and arguments

▸ Control flow

- static intra-procedure control flow (e.g., if, for, while)
- static procedure calls
- dynamic control flow and polymorphic dispatch

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Design Tasks

▸ Design Instructions for SM213 ISA

- design instructions necessary to implement the languages
- keep hardware simple/fast by adding as few/simple instructions possible

▸ Develop Compilation Strategy

- determine how compiler will compile each language feature it sees
- which instructions will it use?
- in what order?
- what can compiler compute statically?

▸ Consider Static and Dynamic Phases of Computation

- the static phase of computation (compilation) happens just once
- the dynamic phase (running the program) happens many times
- thus anything the compiler computes, saves execution time later

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The Simple Machine (SM213) ISA

► Architecture

- Register File 8, 32-bit general purpose registers
- CPU one cycle per instruction (fetch + execute)
- Main Memory byte addressed, Big Endian integers

► Instruction Format

- 2 or 6 byte instructions (each character is a hexits)
 - **x-01**, **xx01**, **x0vv** or **x-01 vvvvvvvv**
- where
 - **x** is *opcode* (unique identifier for this instruction)
 - **-** means unused
 - **0** and **1** are operands
 - **vv vvvvvvvv** are immediate / constant values

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Machine and Assembly Syntax

► Machine code

- [addr:] x-01 [vvvvvvvv]
 - addr: sets starting address for subsequent instructions
 - x-01 hex value of instruction with opcode x and operands 0 and 1
 - vvvvvvvv hex value of optional extended value part instruction

► Assembly code

- ([label:] [instruction | directive] [# comment] |)*
 - directive :: (.pos number) | (.long number)
 - instruction :: opcode operand+
 - operand :: \$literal | reg | offset (reg) | (reg,reg,4)
 - reg :: r 0..7
 - literal :: number
 - offset :: number
 - number :: decimal | 0x hex

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Register Transfer Language (RTL)

▶ Goal

- a simple, convenient pseudo language to describe instruction semantics
- easy to read and write, directly translated to machine steps

▶ Syntax

- each line is of the form LHS ← RHS
- LHS is memory or register specification
- RHS is constant, memory, or arithmetic expression on two registers

▶ Register and Memory are treated as arrays

- $m[a]$ is memory location at address a
- $r[i]$ is register number i

▶ For example

- $r[0] \leftarrow 10$
- $r[1] \leftarrow m[r[0]]$
- $r[2] \leftarrow r[0] + r[1]$

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Static Variables of Built-In Types

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Static Variables, Built-In Types (S1-global-static)

▶ Java

- static data members are allocated to a class, not an object
- they can store built-in scalar types or references to arrays or objects (references later)

```
public class Foo {
    static int a;
    static int[] b; // array is not static, so skip for now

    public void foo () {
        a = 0;
    }
}
```

▶ C

- global variables and any other variable declared static
- they can be static scalars, arrays or structs or pointers (pointers later)

```
int a;
int b[10];

void foo () {
    a = 0;
    b[a] = a;
}
```

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Static Variable Allocation

```
int a;
int b[10];

void foo () {
    a = 0;
    b[a] = a;
}
```

```
int a;
int b[10];
```

Static Memory Layout

```
0x1000: value of a
0x2000: value of b[0]
0x2004: value of b[1]
...
0x2020: value of b[9]
```

▶ Allocation is

- assigning a memory location to store variable's value
- assigning the variable an address (its name for reading and writing)

▶ Key observation

- global/static variable's can exist before program starts and live until after it finishes

▶ Static vs dynamic computation

- compiler allocates variables, giving them a constant address
- no dynamic computation required to allocate the variables, they just exist

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Static Variable Access (scalars)

```
int a;  
int b[10];  
  
void foo () {  
    a = 0;  
    b[a] = a;  
}
```

`a = 0;`

`b[a] = a;`

Static Memory Layout

```
0x1000: value of a  
0x2000: value of b[0]  
0x2004: value of b[1]  
...  
0x2020: value of b[9]
```

Key Observation

- address of **a**, **b[0]**, **b[1]**, **b[2]**, ... are constants known to the compiler

Use RTL to specify instructions needed for **a = 0**

Generalizing

- * What if its $a = a + 2$? or $a = b$? or $a = \text{foo}()$?
- * What about reading the value of **a**?

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Question (scalars)

```
int a;  
int b[10];  
  
void foo () {  
    a = 0;  
    b[a] = a;  
}
```

`a = 0;`

`b[a] = a;`

Static Memory Layout

```
0x1000: value of a  
0x2000: value of b[0]  
0x2004: value of b[1]  
...  
0x2020: value of b[9]
```

When is space for **a** allocated (when is its address determined)?

- [A] The program locates available space for **a** when program starts
- [B] The compiler assigns the address when it compiles the program
- [C] The compiler calls the memory to allocate **a** when it compiles the program
- [D] The compiler generates code to allocate **a** before the program starts running
- [E] The program locates available space for **a** when the program starts running
- [F] The program locates available space for **a** just before calling **foo()**

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Static Variable Access (static arrays)

```
int a;  
int b[10];  
  
void foo () {  
    a = 0;  
    b[a] = a;  
}
```

`a = 0;`

`b[a] = a;`

Static Memory Layout

```
0x1000: value of a  
0x2000: value of b[0]  
0x2004: value of b[1]  
...  
0x2020: value of b[9]
```

Key Observation

- compiler does not know address of **b[a]**
 - unless it can know the value of a statically, which it could here by looking at a=0, but not in general
- ▶ Array access is computed from base and index
 - address of element is *base plus offset*; *offset is index times element size*
 - the base address (0x2000) and element size (4) are static, the index is dynamic
- ▶ Use RTL to specify instructions for **b[a] = a**, not knowing **a**?

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Designing ISA for Static Variables

Requirements for scalars `a = 0;`

- load constant into register
 - $r[x] \leftarrow v$
- store value in register into memory at constant address
 - $m[0x1000] \leftarrow r[x]$
- load value in memory at constant address into a register
 - $r[x] \leftarrow m[0x1000]$

Additional requirements for arrays `b[a] = a;`

- store value in register into memory at address in register*4 plus constant
 - $m[0x2000+r[x]*4] \leftarrow r[y]$
- load value in memory at address in register*4 plus constant into register
 - $r[y] \leftarrow m[0x2000+r[x]*4]$

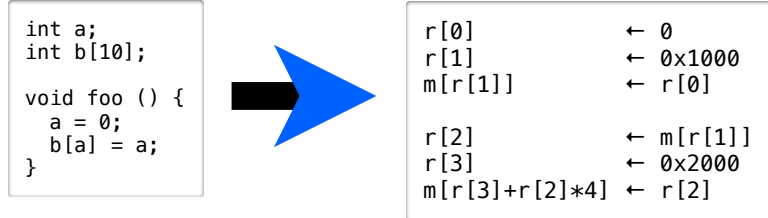
Generalizing and simplifying we get

- $r[x] \leftarrow \text{constant}$
- $m[r[x]] \leftarrow r[y]$ and $r[y] \leftarrow m[r[x]]$
- $m[r[x] + r[y]*4] \leftarrow r[z]$ and $r[z] \leftarrow m[r[x] + r[y]*4]$

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► The compiler's semantic translation

- it uses these instructions to compile the program snippet

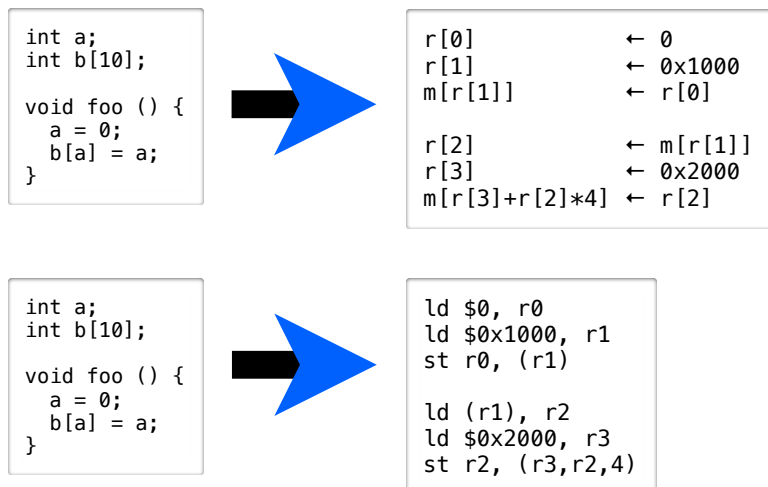


► ISA Specification for these 5 instructions

Name	Semantics	Assembly	Machine
<i>load immediate</i>	$r[d] \leftarrow v$	ld \$v, rd	0d-- vvvvvvvv
<i>load base+offset</i>	$r[d] \leftarrow m[r[s]]$	ld ?(rs), rd	1?sd
<i>load indexed</i>	$r[d] \leftarrow m[r[s]+4*r[i]]$	ld (rs,ri,4), rd	2sid
<i>store base+offset</i>	$m[r[d]] \leftarrow r[s]$	st rs, ?(rd)	3s?d
<i>store indexed</i>	$m[r[d]+4*r[i]] \leftarrow r[s]$	st rs, (rd,ri,4)	4sdi

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► The compiler's assembly translation



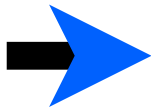
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► If a human wrote this assembly

- list static allocations, use labels for addresses, add comments

```
int a;
int b[10];

void foo () {
    a = 0;
    b[a] = a;
}
```



```
ld $0, r0      # r0 = 0
ld $a_data, r1 # r1 = address of a
st r0, (r1)    # a = 0

ld (r1), r2    # r2 = a
ld $b_data, r3 # r3 = address of b
st r2, (r3,r2,4) # b[a] = a

.pos 0x1000
a_data:
.long 0        # the variable a

.pos 0x2000
b_data:
.long 0        # the variable b[0]
.long 0        # the variable b[1]
...
.long 0        # the variable b[9]
```

Addressing Modes

► In these instructions

Name	Semantics	Assembly	Machine
<i>load immediate</i>	$r[d] \leftarrow v$	ld \$v, rd	0d-- vvvvvvvv
<i>load base+offset</i>	$r[d] \leftarrow m[r[s]]$	ld?(rs), rd	1?sd
<i>load indexed</i>	$r[d] \leftarrow m[r[s]+4*r[i]]$	ld(rs,ri,4), rd	2sid
<i>store base+offset</i>	$m[r[d]] \leftarrow r[s]$	st rs,?(rd)	3s?d
<i>store indexed</i>	$m[r[d]+4*r[i]] \leftarrow r[s]$	st rs, (rd,ri,4)	4sdi

► We have specified 4 *addressing modes* for operands

- *immediate* constant value stored in instruction
- *register* operand is register number, register stores value
- *base+offset* operand in register number
register stores memory address of value
- *indexed* two register-number operands
store base memory address and index of value

Basic Arithmetic, Shifting NOP and Halt

▸ Arithmetic

Name	Semantics	Assembly	Machine
<i>register move</i>	$r[d] \leftarrow r[s]$	mov rs, rd	60sd
<i>add</i>	$r[d] \leftarrow r[d] + r[s]$	add rs, rd	61sd
<i>and</i>	$r[d] \leftarrow r[d] \& r[s]$	and rs, rd	62sd
<i>inc</i>	$r[d] \leftarrow r[d] + 1$	inc rd	63-d
<i>inc address</i>	$r[d] \leftarrow r[d] + 4$	inca rd	64-d
<i>dec</i>	$r[d] \leftarrow r[d] - 1$	dec rd	65-d
<i>dec address</i>	$r[d] \leftarrow r[d] - 4$	deca rd	66-d
<i>not</i>	$r[d] \leftarrow \sim r[d]$	not rd	67-d

▸ Shifting NOP and Halt

Name	Semantics	Assembly	Machine
<i>shift left</i>	$r[d] \leftarrow r[d] \ll S = s$	shl rd, s	71SS
<i>shift right</i>	$r[d] \leftarrow r[d] \ll S = -s$	shr rd, s	
<i>halt</i>	<i>halt machine</i>	halt	f0--
<i>nop</i>	<i>do nothing</i>	nop	ff--

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Global Dynamic Array

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Global Dynamic Array

▶ Java

- array variable stores reference to array allocated dynamically with **new** statement

```
public class Foo {
    static int a;
    static int b[] = new int[10];

    void foo () {
        b[a]=a;
    }
}
```

▶ C

- array variables can store static arrays or pointers to arrays allocated dynamically with call to **malloc** library procedure

```
int a;
int* b;

void foo() {
    b = (int*) malloc (10*sizeof(int));
    b[a] = a;
}
```

malloc does not assign a type
of bytes to allocate

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How C Arrays are Different from Java

▶ Terminology

- use the term **pointer** instead of **reference**; they mean the same thing

▶ Declaration

- the type is a pointer to the type of its elements, indicated with a *

▶ Allocation

- malloc allocates a block of bytes; no type; no constructor

▶ Type Safety

- any pointer can be type cast to any pointer type

▶ Bounds checking

- C performs no array bounds checking
- out-of-bounds access manipulates memory that is not part of array
- this is the major source of virus vulnerabilities in the world today

Question: Can array bounds checking be perform statically?

- * what does this say about a tradeoff that Java and C take differently?

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Static vs Dynamic Arrays

▸ Declared and allocated differently, but accessed the same

```
int a;  
int b[10];  
  
void foo () {  
    b[a] = a;  
}
```

```
int a;  
int* b;  
  
void foo () {  
    b = (int*) malloc (10*sizeof(int));  
    b[a] = a;  
}
```

▸ Static allocation

- for static arrays, the compiler allocates the array
- for dynamic arrays, the compiler allocates a pointer

```
0x2000: value of b[0]  
0x2004: value of b[1]  
...  
0x2024: value of b[9]
```

```
0x2000: value of b
```

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▸ Then when the program runs

- the dynamic array is allocated by a call to malloc, say at address 0x3000
- the value of variable b is set to the memory address of this array

```
0x2000: value of b[0]  
0x2004: value of b[1]  
...  
0x2024: value of b[9]
```

```
0x2000: 0x3000  
0x3000: value of b[0]  
0x3004: value of b[1]  
...  
0x3024: value of b[9]
```

▸ Generating code to access the array

- for the dynamic array, the compiler generates an additional load for b

```
r[0] ← 0x1000  
r[1] ← m[r[0]]  
r[2] ← 0x2000  
m[r[2]+r[1]*4] ← r[1]
```

```
r[0] ← 0x1000  
r[1] ← m[r[0]]  
r[2] ← 0x2000  
r[3] ← m[r[1]]  
m[r[3]+r[2]*4] ← r[2]
```

load a
load b
b[a]=a

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► In assembly language

Static Array

```
ld $a_data, r0 # r1 = address of a
ld (r0), r1 # r2 = a
ld $b_data, r2 # r2 = address of b
st r1, (r2,r1,4) # b[a] = a

.pos 0x1000
a_data:
.long 0 # the variable a

.pos 0x2000
b_data:
.long 0 # the variable b[0]
.long 0 # the variable b[1]
...
.long 0 # the variable b[9]
```

Dynamic Array

```
ld $a_data, r0 # r1 = address of a
ld (r0), r1 # r2 = a
ld $b_data, r2 # r2 = address of b
ld (r2), r3 # r3 = b
st r1, (r3,r1,4) # b[a] = a

.pos 0x1000
a_data:
.long 0 # the variable a

.pos 0x2000
b_data:
.long 0 # the b
```

► Comparing static and dynamic arrays

- what is the benefit of static arrays?
- what is the benefit of dynamic arrays?

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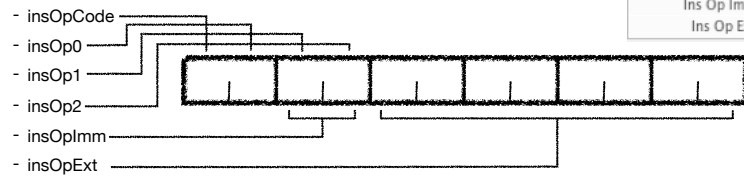
Implementing the ISA

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The CPU Implementation

Internal state

- pc address of *next* instruction to fetch
- instruction the value of the current instruction



Reg	Value
PC:	0000010e
Instruction:	3001 00000000
Ins Op Code:	3
Ins Op 0:	0
Ins Op 1:	0
Ins Op 2:	1
Ins Op Imm:	01
Ins Op Ext:	00000000

Operation

- fetch
 - read instruction at pc from memory, determine its size and read all of it
 - separate the components of the instruction into sub-registers
 - set pc to store address of next instruction, sequentially
- execute
 - use insOpCode to select operation to perform
 - read internal state, memory, and/or register file
 - update memory, register file and/or pc

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Pointers in C

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C and Java Arrays and Pointers

▶ In both languages

- an array is a list of items of the same type
- array elements are named by non-negative integers start with 0
- syntax for accessing element i of array b is $b[i]$

▶ In Java

- variable a stores a pointer to the array
- $b[x] = 0$ means $m[m[b] + x * \text{sizeof}(\text{array-element})] \leftarrow 0$

▶ In C

- variable a can store a pointer to the array or the array itself
- $b[x] = 0$ means $m[b + x * \text{sizeof}(\text{array-element})] \leftarrow 0$
or $m[m[b] + x * \text{sizeof}(\text{array-element})] \leftarrow 0$
- dynamic arrays are just like all other pointers
 - stored in TYPE^*
 - access with either $a[x]$ or $*(a+x)$

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Example

▶ The following two C programs are identical

```
int *a;  
a[4] = 5;
```

```
int *a;  
*(a+4) = 5;
```

▶ For array access, the compiler would generate this code

```
r[0]      ← a      ld $a, r0  
r[1]      ← 4      ld $4, r1  
r[2]      ← 5      ld $5, r2  
m[r[0]+4*r[1]] ← r[2] st r2, (r0,r1,4)
```

- multiplying the index 4 by 4 (size of integer) to compute the array offset

▶ So, what does this tell you about pointer arithmetic in C?

Adding X to a pointer of type Y^* , adds $X * \text{sizeof}(Y)$ to the pointer's memory-address value.

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Pointer Arithmetic in C

▶ Its purpose

- an alternative way to access dynamic arrays to the `a[i]`

▶ Adding or subtracting an integer *index* to a pointer

- results in a new pointer of the same type
- value of the pointer is offset by index times size of pointer's referent
- for example
 - adding 3 to an `int*` yields a pointer value 12 larger than the original

▶ Subtracting two pointers of the same type

- results in an integer
- gives number of referent-type elements between the two pointers
- for example
 - `(&a[7]) - (&a[2]) == 5 == (a+7) - (a+2)`

▶ other operators


- `& X` the address of X
- `* X` the value X points to

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Question (from S3-C-pointer-math.c)

```
int *c;

void foo () {
    // ...
    c = (int *) malloc (10*sizeof(int));
    // ...
    c = &c[3];
    *c = *&c[3];
    // ...
}
```



▶ What is the equivalent Java statement to

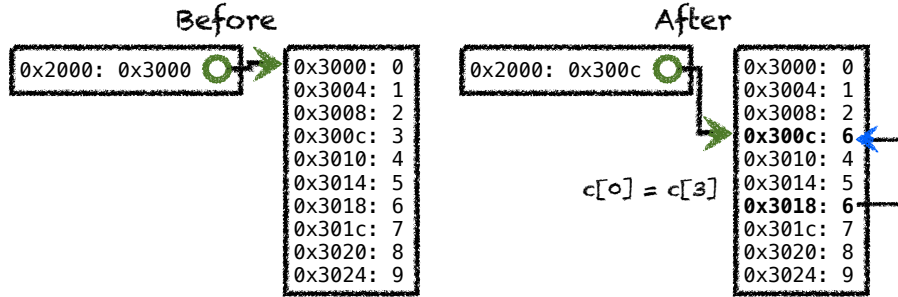
- [A] `c[0] = c[3];`
- [B] `c[3] = c[6];`
- [C] there is no typesafe equivalent
- [D] not valid, because you can't take the address of a static in Java

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Looking more closely

```
c = &c[3];  
*c = *&c[3];
```

```
r[0] ← 0x2000      # r[0] = &c  
r[1] ← m[r[0]]     # r[1] = c  
r[2] ← 12          # r[2] = 3 * sizeof(int)  
r[3] ← r[2]+r[1]   # r[2] = c + 3  
m[r[0]] ← r[2]     # c = c + 3  
  
r[3] ← 3           # r[3] = 3  
r[4] ← m[r[2]+4*r[3]] # r[4] = c[3]  
m[r[2]] ← r[4]    # c[0] = c[3]
```



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► And in assembly language

```
r[0] ← 0x2000      # r[0] = &c  
r[1] ← m[r[0]]     # r[1] = c  
r[2] ← 12          # r[2] = 3 * sizeof(int)  
r[3] ← r[2]+r[1]   # r[2] = c + 3  
m[r[0]] ← r[2]     # c = c + 3
```

```
r[3] ← 3           # r[3] = 3  
r[4] ← m[r[2]+4*r[3]] # r[4] = c[3]  
m[r[2]] ← r[4]    # c[0] = c[3]
```

```
ld $0x2000, r0      # r0 = &c  
ld (r0), r1         # r1 = c  
ld $12, r2          # r2 = 3*sizeof(int)  
add r1, r2          # r2 = c+3  
st r2, (r0)         # c = c+3
```

```
ld $3, r3           # r3 = 3  
ld (r2,r3,4), r4    # r4 = c[3]  
st r4, (r2)         # c[0] = c[3]
```

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Summary: Static Scalar and Array Variables

▶ Static variables

- the compiler knows the address (memory location) of variable

▶ Static scalars and arrays

- the compiler knows the address of the scalar value or array

▶ Dynamic arrays

- the compiler does not know the address the array

▶ What C does that Java doesn't

- static arrays
- arrays can be accessed using pointer dereferencing operator
- arithmetic on pointers

▶ What Java does that C doesn't

- typesafe dynamic allocation
- automatic array-bounds checking