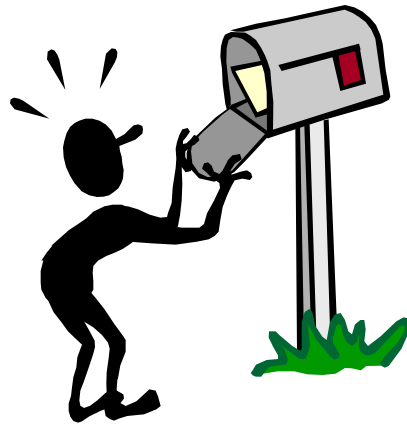


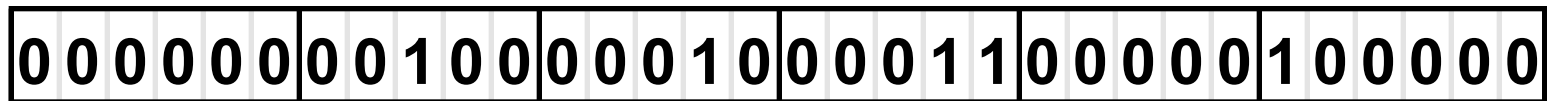
Operands and Addressing Modes



- Where is the data?
- Addresses as data
- Names and Values
- Indirection

Last Time - "Machine" Language

32-bit (4-byte) ADD instruction:



op = R-type

Rs

Rt

Rd

func = add

Means, to MIPS, $\text{Reg}[3] = \text{Reg}[4] + \text{Reg}[2]$

But, most of us would prefer to write

`add $3, $4, $2` (ASSEMBLER)

or, better yet,

`a = b + c;` (C)

Revisiting Operands

- Operands – the variables needed to perform an instruction's operation
- Three types in the MIPS ISA:
 - Register:
`add $2, $3, $4` # operands are the "Contents" of a register
 - Immediate:
`addi $2,$2,1` # 2nd source operand is part of the instruction
 - Register-Indirect:
`lw $2, 12($28)` # source operand is in memory
`sw $2, 12($28)` # destination operand is memory
- Simple enough, but is it enough?

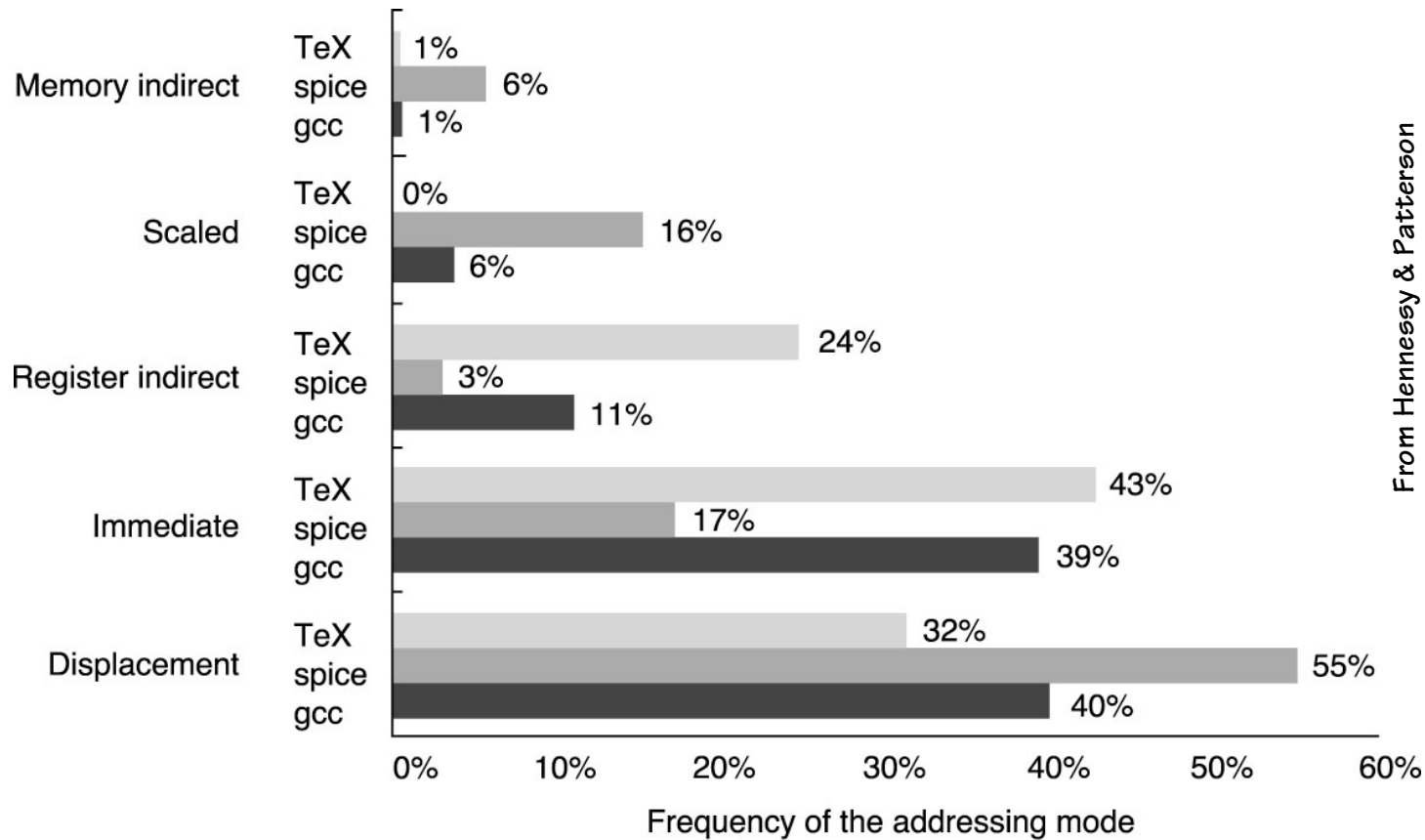
Common “Addressing Modes”

MIPS can do these with appropriate choices for Ra and const

- **Absolute (Direct):** $lw \$8, 0x1000(\$0)$
 - Value = Mem[constant]
 - Use: accessing static data
- **Indirect:** $lw \$8, 0(\$9)$
 - Value = Mem[Reg[x]]
 - Use: pointer accesses
- **Displacement:** $lw \$8, 16(\$9)$
 - Value = Mem[Reg[x] + constant]
 - Use: access to local variables
- **Indexed:**
 - Value = Mem[Reg[x] + Reg[y]]
 - Use: array accesses (base+index)
- **Memory indirect:**
 - Value = Mem[Mem[Reg[x]]]
 - Use: access thru pointer in mem
- **Autoincrement:**
 - Value = Mem[Reg[x]]; Reg[x]++
 - Use: sequential pointer accesses
- **Autodecrement:**
 - Value = Mem[Reg[x]--]; Mem[Reg[x]]
 - Use: stack operations
- **Scaled:**
 - Value = Mem[Reg[x] + c + d*Reg[y]]
 - Use: array accesses (base+index)

Argh! Is the complexity worth the cost?
Need a cost/benefit analysis!

Memory Operands: Usage



Usage of different memory operand modes

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Absolute (Direct) Addressing

- What we want:
 - The contents of a specific memory location
- Examples:

“C”

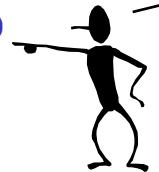
```
int x = 10;

main() {
    x = x + 1;
}
```

“MIPS Assembly”

```
main:    lw     $2,x
         addi  $2,$2,1
         sw     $2,x
         jr     $31
```

```
x: .word 10
```



Allocates space for a single integer (4-bytes) and initializes its value to 10

- Caveats
 - In practice `$gp` is often used as a base address for variables
 - Can only address the first and last 32K of memory this way
 - Sometimes generates a two instruction sequence:

```
lui    $1,xhighbits
lw     $2,xlowbits($1)
```

An Aside: Let's C

C is an ancestor to many languages commonly used today.

{Algol, Fortran, Pascal} → C → C++ → Java

C was developed to write the operating system UNIX.

C is still widely used for “systems” programming

C's developers were frustrated that the high-level languages available at the time, lacked the expressiveness and capabilities of assembly code necessary to write an OS.

The advantage of high-level languages is that they are portable (i.e. not ISA specific).

C, thus, was an attempt to create a portable blend of a high-level language and an assembler

C begat Java

C++ was envisioned to add Object-Oriented (OO) concepts on top of C

Java was envisioned to be more purely OO, and hide the details of Class/Method/Member implementation

For our purposes C is almost identical to JAVA except:

C has “functions”, whereas JAVA has “methods”.

C has explicit variables that contain the addresses of other variables or data structures in memory.

JAVA hides them under the covers.

C pointers

```
int i;          // simple integer variable
int a[10];     // array of integers (a is a pointer)
int *p;        // pointer to integer(s)
```

** (expression) is content of address computed by expression .*

$a[k] \equiv *(a+k)$

*a is a constant of type "int *"*

$a[k] = a[k+1] \equiv *(a+k) = *(a+k+1)$

Other Pointer Related Syntax

```
int i;           // simple integer variable
int a[10];      // array of integers
int *p;         // pointer to integer(s)

p = &i;         // & means address of
p = a;         // no need for & on a
p = &a[5];      // address of 6th element of a
*p             // value of location pointed by p
*p = 1;        // change value of that location
*(p+1) = 1;    // change value of next location
p[1] = 1;      // exactly the same as above
p++;          // step pointer to the next element
```

Legal uses of Pointers

```
int i;           // simple integer variable
int a[10];      // array of integers
int *p;        // pointer to integer(s)
```

So what happens when

```
p = &i;
```

What is value of p[0]?

What is value of p[1]?

C Pointers vs. object size

```
int i;           // simple integer variable
int a[10];      // array of integers
int *p;         // pointer to integer(s)
```

Does "p++" really add 1 to the pointer?

NO! It adds 4. Why 4?

```
char *q;
```

```
...
```

```
q++; // really does add 1
```

Clear123

```
void clear1(int array[], int size) {  
    for(int i=0; i<size; i++)  
        array[i] = 0;  
}
```

```
void clear2(int array[], int size) {  
    for(int *p = &array[0]; p < &array[size]; p++)  
        *p = 0;  
}
```

```
void clear3(int *array, int size) {  
    while(array < array + size)  
        *array++ = 0;  
}
```

Pointer summary

- In the “C” world and in the “machine” world:
 - a pointer is just the address of an object in memory
 - size of pointer is fixed regardless of size of object
 - to get to the next object increment by the object’s size in bytes
 - to get the the i^{th} object add $i * \text{sizeof}(\text{object})$
- More details:
 - $\text{int } R[5] \equiv R$ is int^* constant address of 20 bytes storage
 - $R[i] \equiv *(R+i)$
 - $\text{int } *p = \&R[3] \equiv p = (R+3)$ (p points 12 bytes after R)

Indirect Addressing

- What we want:
 - The contents of a memory location held in a register
- Examples:

“C”

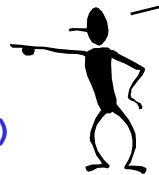
```
int x = 10;

main() {
    int *y = &x;
    *y = 2;
}
```

“MIPS Assembly”

```
main:    ori    $2,$0,x
        addi   $3,$0,2
        sw    $3,0($2)
        jr    $31

x:      .word  10
```



Loads the “address”
of x into \$2, not its
contents

- Caveats
 - You must make sure that the register contains a valid address (double, word, or short aligned as required)

Displacement Addressing

- What we want:
 - The contents of a memory location relative to a register

- Examples:

“C”

```
int a[5];

main() {
    int i = 3;
    a[i] = 2;
}
```

“MIPS Assembly”

```
main:    addi $2,$0,3
         addi $3,$0,2
         sll  $1,$2,2
         sw   $3,a($1)
         jr   $31
```

```
a:       .space 5
```

Space for a 5 integers
(20-bytes)



- Caveats

- Must multiply (shift) the “index” to be properly aligned

Displacement Addressing: Once More

- What we want:
 - The contents of a memory location relative to a register
- Examples:

“C”

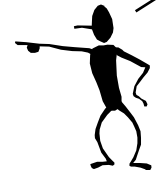
```
struct p {  
    int x, y;  
}  
  
main() {  
    p.x = 3;  
    p.y = 2;  
}
```

“MIPS Assembly”

```
main:    ori    $1,$0,p  
        addi  $2,$0,3  
        sw   $2,0($1)  
        addi  $2,$0,2  
        sw   $2,4($1)  
        jr   $31
```

```
p:      .space 8
```

Allocates space for
2 uninitialized
integers (8-bytes)



- Caveats
 - Constants offset to the various fields of the structure
 - Structures larger than 32K use a different approach

C/Assembly Translation: Conditionals

C code:

```
if (expr) {  
    STUFF  
}
```

C code:

```
if (expr) {  
    STUFF1  
} else {  
    STUFF2  
}
```

MIPS assembly:

```
(compute expr in $rx)  
beq $rx, $0, Lendif  
(compile STUFF)
```

Lendif:

MIPS assembly:

```
(compute expr in $rx)  
beq $rx, $0, Lelse  
(compile STUFF1)  
beq $0, $0, Lendif
```

Lelse:

```
(compile STUFF2)
```

Lendif:

There are little tricks that come into play when compiling conditional code blocks. For instance, the statement:

```
if (y > 32) {  
    x = x + 1;  
}
```

compiles to:

```
lw    $24, y  
ori   $15, $0, 32  
slt   $1, $15, $24  
beq   $1, $0, Lendif  
lw    $24, x  
addi  $24, $24, 1  
sw    $24, x
```

Lendif:

C/Assembly Translation: Loops

C code:

```
while (expr) {  
    STUFF  
}
```

MIPS assembly:

```
Lwhile:  
    (compute expr in $rx)  
    beq $rX,$0,Lendw  
    (compile STUFF)  
    beq $0,$0,Lwhile  
Lendw:
```

Alternate MIPS assembly:

```
    beq $0,$0,Ltest  
Lwhile:  
    (compile STUFF)  
Ltest:  
    (compute expr in $rx)  
    bne $rX,$0,Lwhile  
Lendw:
```

Compilers spend a lot of time optimizing in and around loops.

- moving all possible computations outside of loops
- unrolling loops to reduce branching overhead
- simplifying expressions that depend on “loop variables”

C/Assembly Translation: For Loops

- Most high-level languages provide loop constructs that establish and update an iteration variable, which is used to control the loop's behavior

C code:

```
int sum = 0;

int data[10] =
    {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10};

int i;

for (i=0; i<10; i++) {
    sum += data[i]
}
```

MIPS assembly:

```
sum:
    .word 0x0
data:
    .word 0x1, 0x2, 0x3, 0x4, 0x5
    .word 0x6, 0x7, 0x8, 0x9, 0xa

    add $30,$0,$0
Lfor:
    lw $24,sum($0)
    sll $15,$30,2
    lw $15,data($15)
    addu $24,$24,$15
    sw $24,sum
    add $30,$30,1
    slt $24,$30,10
    bne $24,$0,Lfor
Lendfor:
```

Next Time

- Pseudo instructions
- More C idioms
- Calling procedures
- Recursion

