

Data Structures in Assembly

❖ Arrays

- One-dimensional
- Multi-dimensional (nested)
- **Multi-level**

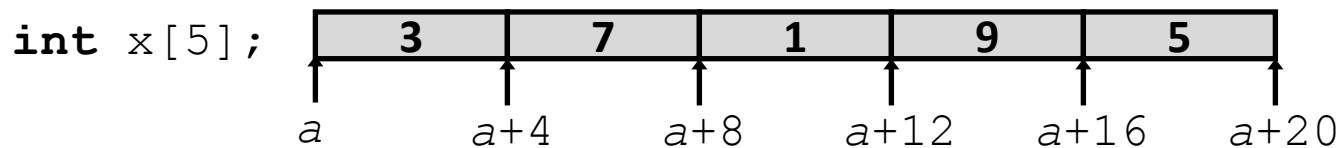
❖ Structs

- Alignment

Array Access

❖ Basic Principle

- **T** A[N] ; → array of data type **T** and length N
- Identifier A returns address of array (type **T***)



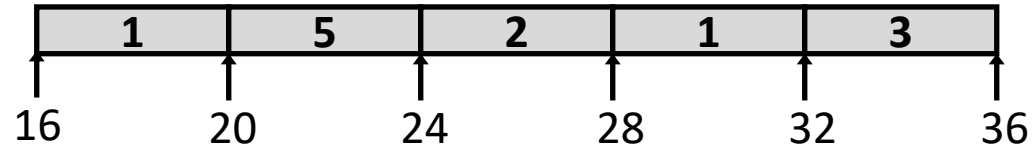
❖ Reference Type Value

<code>x[4]</code>	<code>int</code>	5
<code>x</code>	<code>int*</code>	<code>a</code>
<code>x+1</code>	<code>int*</code>	<code>a + 4</code>
<code>&x[2]</code>	<code>int*</code>	<code>a + 8</code>
<code>x[5]</code>	<code>int</code>	?? (whatever's in memory at addr <code>x+20</code>)
<code>*(x+1)</code>	<code>int</code>	7
<code>x+i</code>	<code>int*</code>	<code>a + 4*i</code>

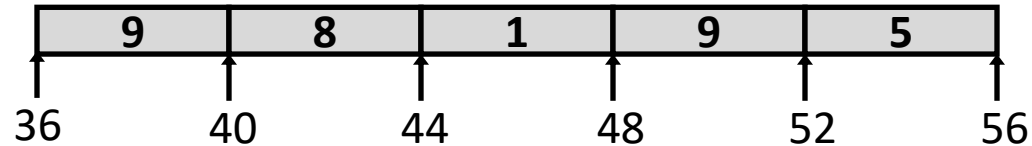
```
typedef int zip_dig[5];
```

Referencing Examples

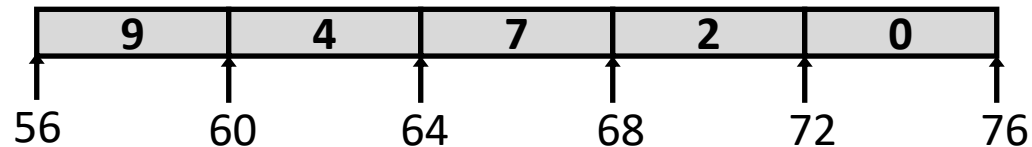
`zip_dig cmu;`



`zip_dig sfu;`



`zip_dig ucb;`



<u>Reference</u>	<u>Address</u>	<u>Value</u>	<u>Guaranteed?</u>
<code>sfu[3]</code>	$36 + 4 * 3 = 48$	9	Yes
<code>sfu[6]</code>	$36 + 4 * 6 = 60$	4	No
<code>sfu[-1]</code>	$36 + 4 * -1 = 32$	3	No
<code>cmu[15]</code>	$16 + 4 * 15 = 76$	??	No

- ❖ No bounds checking
- ❖ Example arrays happened to be allocated in successive 20 byte blocks
 - Not guaranteed to happen in general

Nested Array Example

```
typedef int zip_dig[5];
```

```
zip_dig sea[4] =  
{ { 9, 8, 1, 9, 5 },  
  { 9, 8, 1, 0, 5 },  
  { 9, 8, 1, 0, 3 },  
  { 9, 8, 1, 1, 5 } };
```



same as:

```
int sea[4][5];
```

Remember, $\mathbf{T} \ A[N]$ is
an array with elements
of type $\mathbf{T}$, with length N

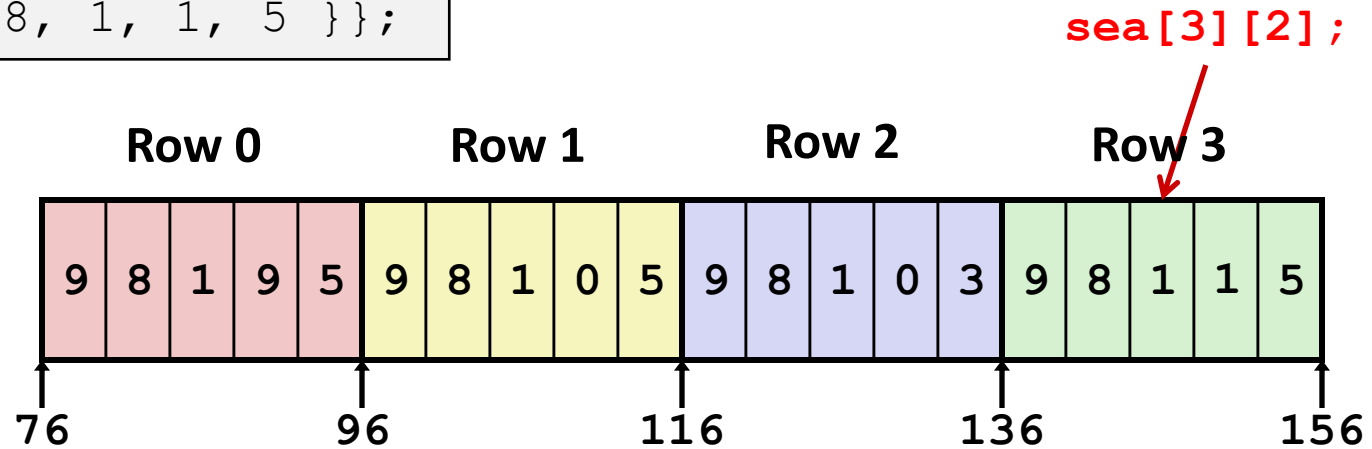
What is the layout in memory?

Nested Array Example

```
typedef int zip_dig[5];
```

```
zip_dig sea[4] =
{
  { 9, 8, 1, 9, 5 },
  { 9, 8, 1, 0, 5 },
  { 9, 8, 1, 0, 3 },
  { 9, 8, 1, 1, 5 }
};
```

Remember, $\mathbf{T} \ A[N]$ is an array with elements of type $\mathbf{T}$, with length N

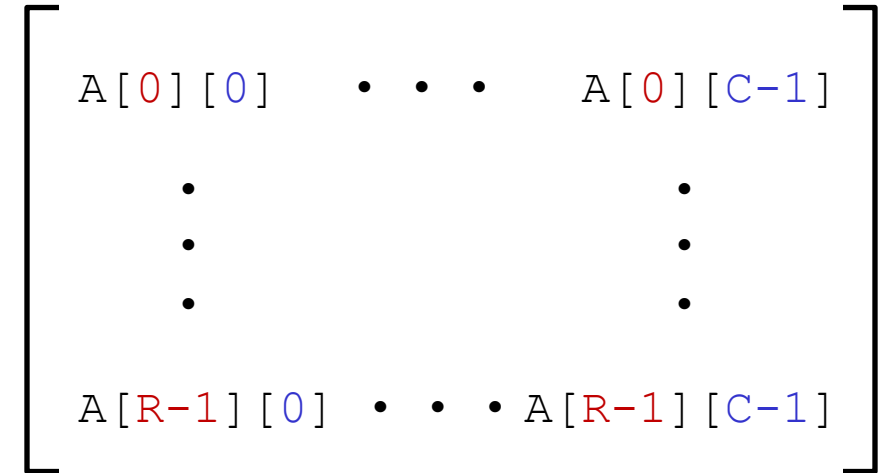


- ❖ “Row-major” ordering of all elements
- ❖ Elements in the same row are contiguous
- ❖ Guaranteed (in C)

Two-Dimensional (Nested) Arrays

❖ Declaration: **T** A[R][C];

- 2D array of data type T
- R rows, C columns
- Each element requires **sizeof(T)** bytes

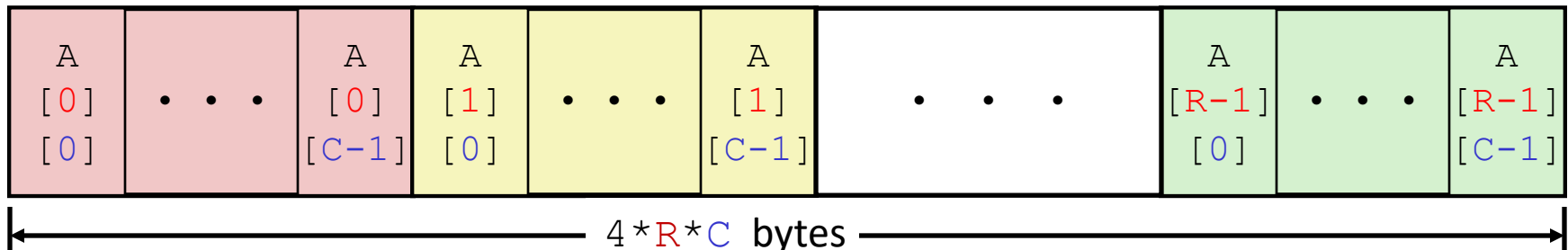


❖ Array size:

- $R * C * \text{sizeof}(T)$ bytes

❖ Arrangement: **row-major** ordering

int A[R][C];



Multi-Level Array Example

Multi-Level Array Declaration(s):

```
int cmu[5] = { 1, 5, 2, 1, 3 };  
int sfu[5] = { 9, 8, 1, 9, 5 };  
int ucb[5] = { 9, 4, 7, 2, 0 };
```

```
int* univ[3] = {sfu, cmu, ucb};
```

2D Array Declaration:

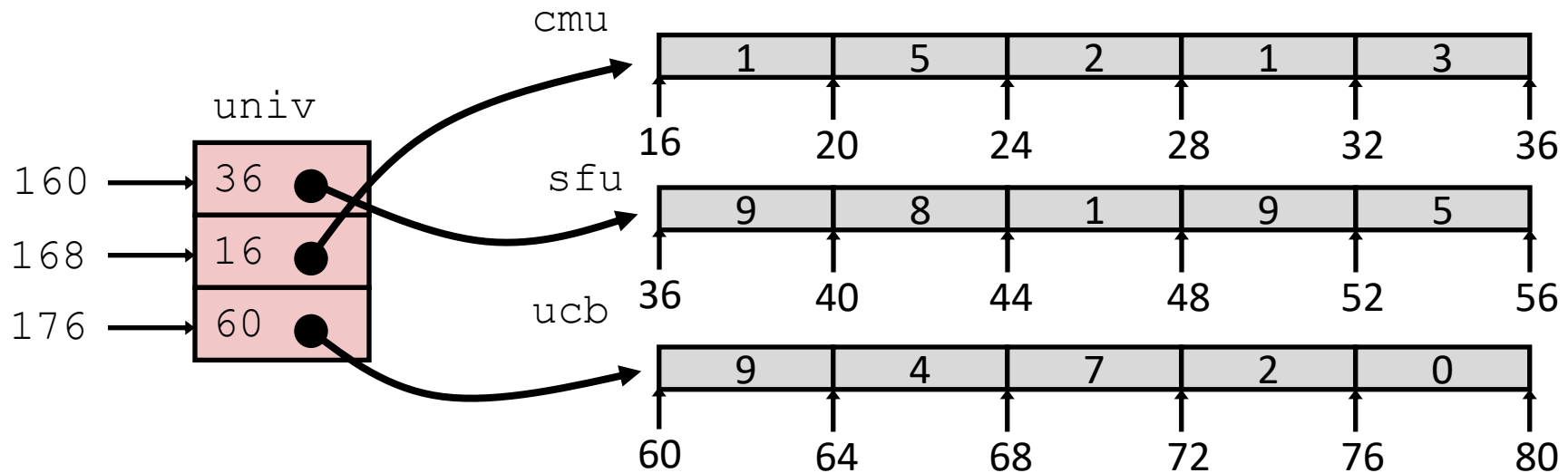
```
zip_dig univ2D[3] = {  
    { 9, 8, 1, 9, 5 },  
    { 1, 5, 2, 1, 3 },  
    { 9, 4, 7, 2, 0 }  
};
```

Is a multi-level array the same thing as a 2D array?

NO

One array declaration = one contiguous block of memory

Multi-Level Referencing Examples



<u>Reference</u>	<u>Address</u>	<u>Value</u>	<u>Guaranteed?</u>
------------------	----------------	--------------	--------------------

<code>univ[2][3]</code>			
-------------------------	--	--	--

<code>univ[1][5]</code>			
-------------------------	--	--	--

<code>univ[2][-2]</code>			
--------------------------	--	--	--

<code>univ[3][-1]</code>			
--------------------------	--	--	--

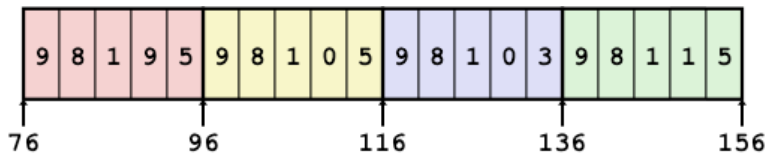
<code>univ[1][12]</code>			
--------------------------	--	--	--

- C code does not do any bounds checking
- Location of each lower-level array in memory is *not* guaranteed

Array Element Accesses

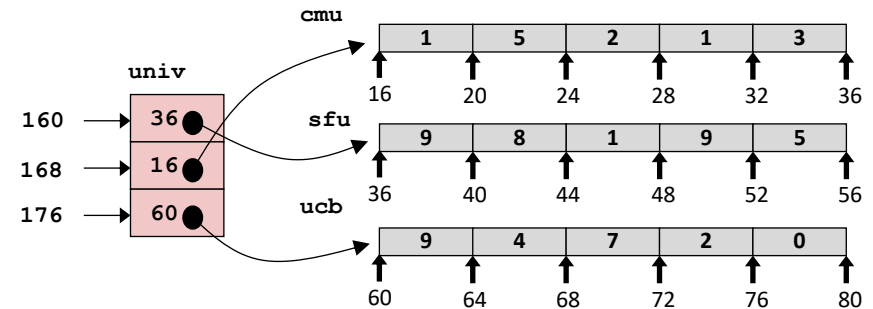
Nested array

```
int get_sea_digit
(int index, int digit)
{
    return sea[index][digit];
}
```



Multi-level array

```
int get_univ_digit
(int index, int digit)
{
    return univ[index][digit];
}
```



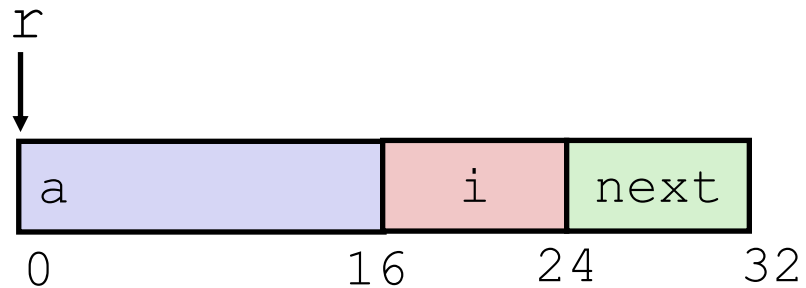
Access *looks* the same, but it isn't:

Mem[sea+20*index+4*digit]

Mem[**Mem**[univ+8*index]+4*digit]

C Structure Representation

```
struct rec {  
    int a[4];  
    long i;  
    struct rec *next;  
};  
  
struct rec *r;
```

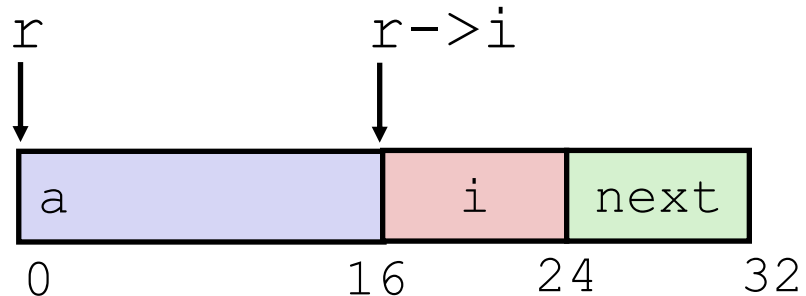


- ❖ Structure represented as block of memory
 - Big enough to hold all of the fields
- ❖ Fields ordered according to declaration order
 - Even if another ordering would be more compact
- ❖ Compiler determines overall size + positions of fields
 - Machine-level program has no understanding of the structures in the source code

Accessing a Structure Member

```
struct rec {
    int a[4];
    long i;
    struct rec *next;
};

struct rec *r;
```



```
long get_i(struct rec *r)
{
    return r->i;
}
```

❖ Compiler knows the *offset* of each member within a struct

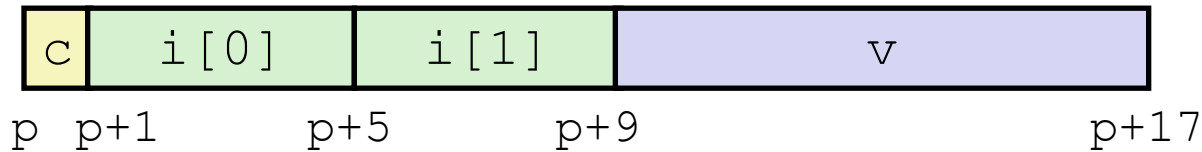
■ Compute as
`* (r+offset)`

- Referring to absolute offset, so no pointer arithmetic

```
add a0, a1, 16 # Coming up in Week 3
ret
```

Structures & Alignment

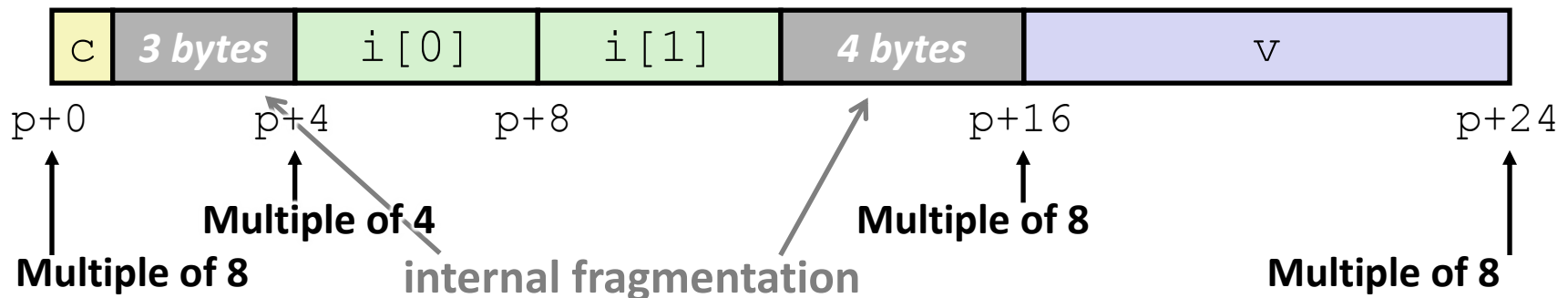
❖ Unaligned Data



```
struct S1 {
    char c;
    int i[2];
    double v;
} *p;
```

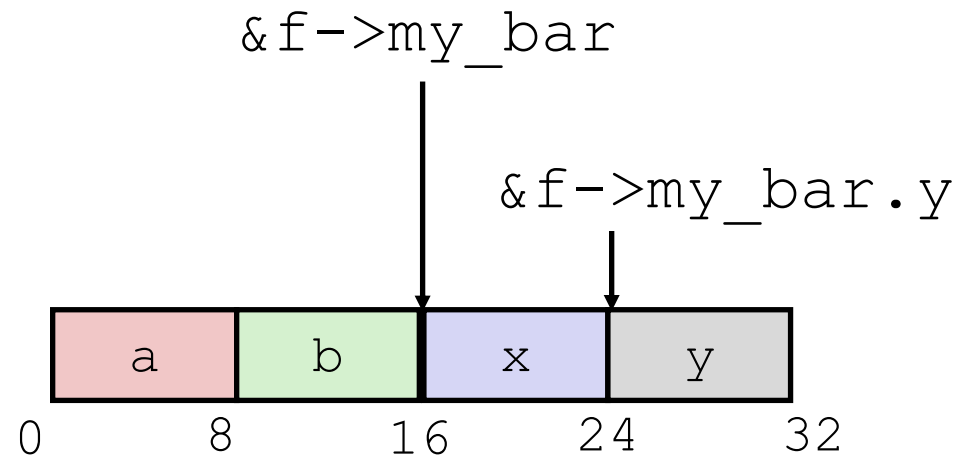
❖ Aligned Data

- Primitive data type requires K bytes
- Address must be multiple of K



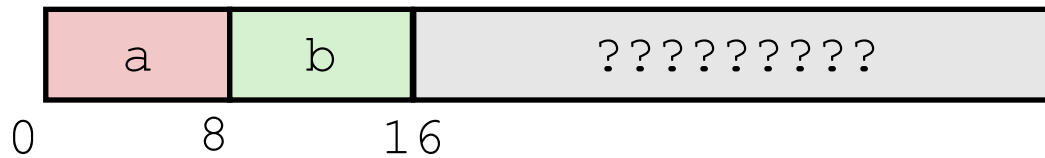
Nested Struct

```
struct foo {  
    long a;  
    long b;  
    struct bar my_bar;  
};  
  
struct bar {  
    long x;  
    long y;  
};  
  
struct foo *f;
```



Nested Struct

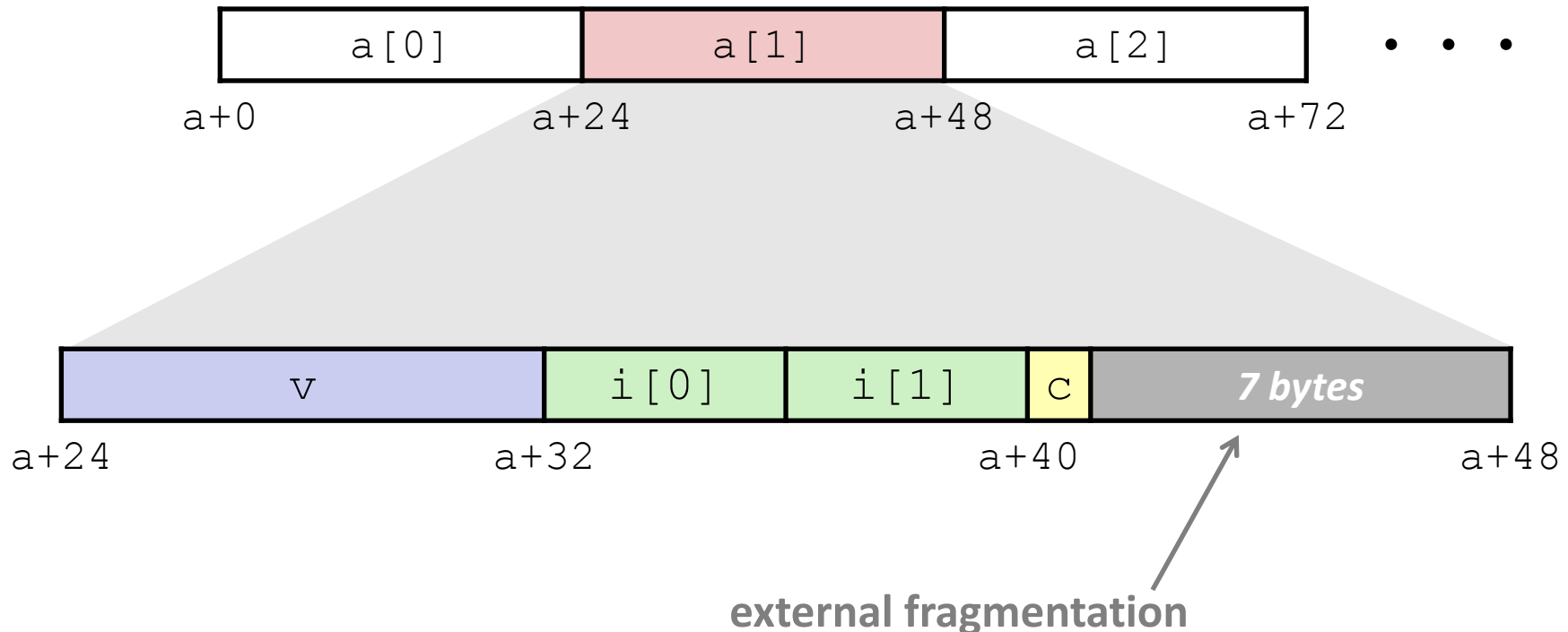
```
struct foo {  
    long a;  
    long b;  
    struct foo my_foo;  
};
```



Arrays of Structures

- ❖ Overall structure length multiple of K_{max}
- ❖ Satisfy alignment requirement for every element in array

```
struct S2 {  
    double v;  
    int i[2];  
    char c;  
} a[10];
```



Sparse Arrays (Array of Structs)

Arrays



Array of structures (non zeros)



```

struct coo { int row; int col; int val; } // each non-zero
int nnz                                // number of non zeros
struct coo_array[nnz]                  // Array of non zeros

for i = 0 to nnz
    int* base = &coo[i]
    int r = *base
    int c = *(base+1)
    int val = *(base+2)
  
```


Sparse Arrays (Structs of Arrays)

❖ `int row[nnz]`

0	0	0	0	0	0
---	---	---	---	---	---

❖ `int col[nnz]`

0	2	4	5	7	8
---	---	---	---	---	---

❖ `int val[nnz]`

1	3	5	6	7	9
---	---	---	---	---	---

```
for i = 0 to nnz
  int r = row[i]
  int c = col[i]
  int val = val[i]
```

Multiple Ways to Store Program Data

Multiple Ways to Store Program Data

❖ Static global data

- *Fixed size* at compile-time
- Entire *lifetime of the program* (loaded from executable)
- Portion is read-only (e.g. string literals)

```
int array[1024];

void foo(int n) {
    int tmp;
    int local_array[n];

    int* dyn =
        (int*)malloc(n*sizeof(int));
}
```

❖ Stack-allocated data

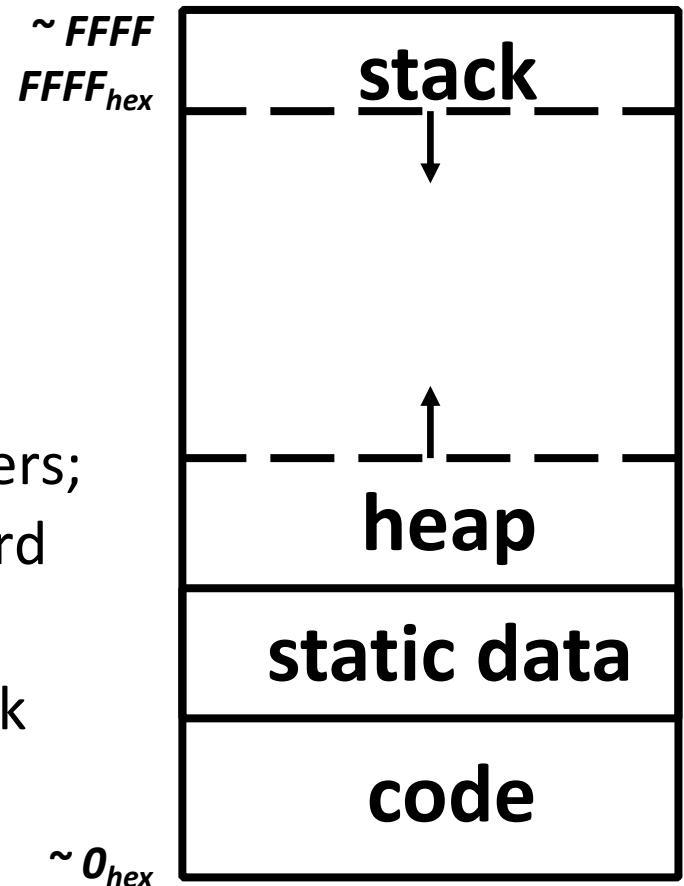
- Local/temporary variables
 - *Can* be dynamically sized (in some versions of C)
- *Known lifetime* (deallocated on `return`)

❖ **Dynamic (heap) data**

- Size known only at runtime (i.e. based on user-input)
- Lifetime known only at runtime (long-lived data structures)

C Memory Layout

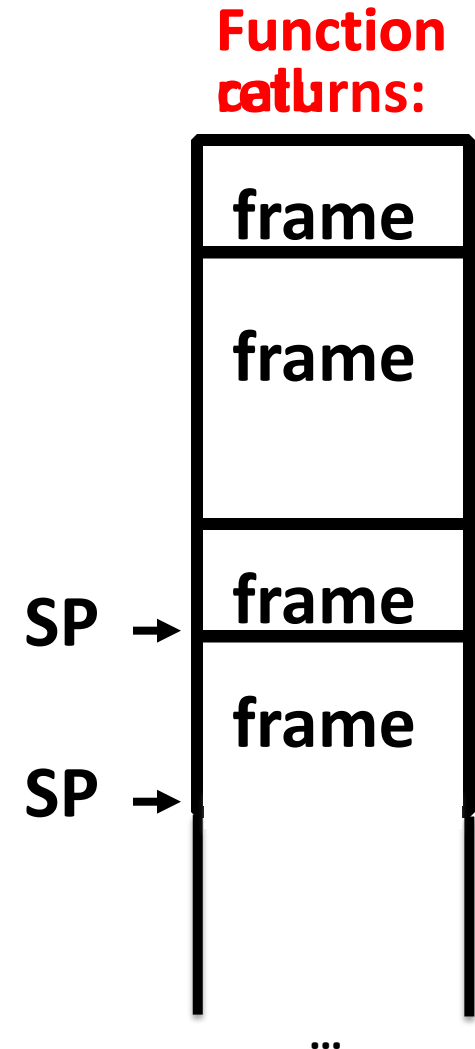
- Program's *address space* contains 4 regions:
 - **Stack**: local variables, grows downward
 - **Heap**: space requested via `malloc()` and used with pointers; resizes dynamically, grows upward
 - **Static Data**: global and static variables, does not grow or shrink
 - **Code**: loaded when program starts, does not change



*OS prevents accesses
between stack and heap
(via virtual memory)*

The Stack

- Each stack frame is a contiguous block of memory holding the local variables of a single procedure
- A stack frame includes:
 - Location of caller function
 - Function arguments
 - Space for local variables
- Stack pointer (SP) tells where lowest (current) stack frame is
- When procedure ends, stack pointer is moved back (but data remains (**garbage!**)); frees memory for future stack frames;



Bit-Level Operations in C

❖ $\&$ (AND), $|$ (OR), $\wedge$ (XOR), $\sim$ (NOT)

- View arguments as bit vectors, apply operations bitwise
- Apply to any “integral” data type
 - long, int, short, char, unsigned

❖ Examples with char a, b, c;

- `a = (char) 0x41;` `// 0x41->0b 0100 0001`
`b = ~a;` `//                    0b                    ->0x`
- `a = (char) 0x69;` `// 0x69->0b 0110 1001`
`b = (char) 0x55;` `// 0x55->0b 0101 0101`
`c = a & b;` `//                    0b                    ->0x`
- `a = (char) 0x41;` `// 0x41->0b 0100 0001`
`b = a;` `//                    0b 0100 0001`
`c = a ^ b;` `//                    0b                    ->0x`

Intuition for logical operators

Operator	Input	Output
& 1 : Copy	1001 & 1111	1001
 1 : Set	1001 1111	1111
& 0 : Reset	1001 & 0000	0000
 0 : Copy	1001 0000	1001
^ 1 : Flip	1001 ^ 1111	0110
^ 0 : Copy	1001 ^ 0000	1001

e.g., extract bits at position 3 and 2 from number
 number & 1100 - Copy positions 3 and 2. Reset positions 1 and 0
 1001 & 1100 = 1000

1000  --10

Shift Operations (also watch Lab 3 video)

❖ Left shift ($x \ll n$)

- Fill with 0s on right

❖ Right shift ($x \gg n$)

- Logical shift (for **unsigned** values)
 - Fill with 0s on left
- Arithmetic shift (for **signed** values)
 - Replicate most significant bit on left

❖ Notes:

- Shifts by $n < 0$ or $n \geq w$ (bit width of x) are *undefined*
- **In C:** behavior of $\gg$ is determined by compiler
 - depends on data type of x (signed/unsigned)
- **In Java:** logical shift is $\ggg$ and arithmetic shift is $\gg$

x	0010 0010
$x \ll 3$	0001 0 000
logical: $x \gg 2$	00 00 1000
arithmetic: $x \gg 2$	00 00 1000

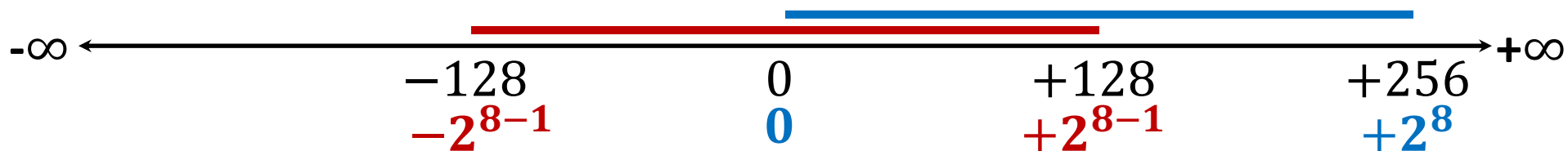
x	1010 0010
$x \ll 3$	0001 0 000
logical: $x \gg 2$	00 10 1000
arithmetic: $x \gg 2$	11 10 1000

Integers

- ❖ Sign and unsigned variables in C
 - Bit pattern remains the same, just *interpreted* differently
 - Strange things can happen with our arithmetic when we convert/cast between sign and unsigned numbers
 - Type of variables affects behavior of operators (shifting, comparison)
- ❖ We can only represent so many numbers in w bits
 - When we exceed the limits, *arithmetic overflow* occurs
 - *Sign extension* tries to preserve value when expanding
- ❖ Shifting is a useful bitwise operator
 - Right shifting can be arithmetic (sign) or logical (0)
 - Can be used in multiplication with constant or bit masking

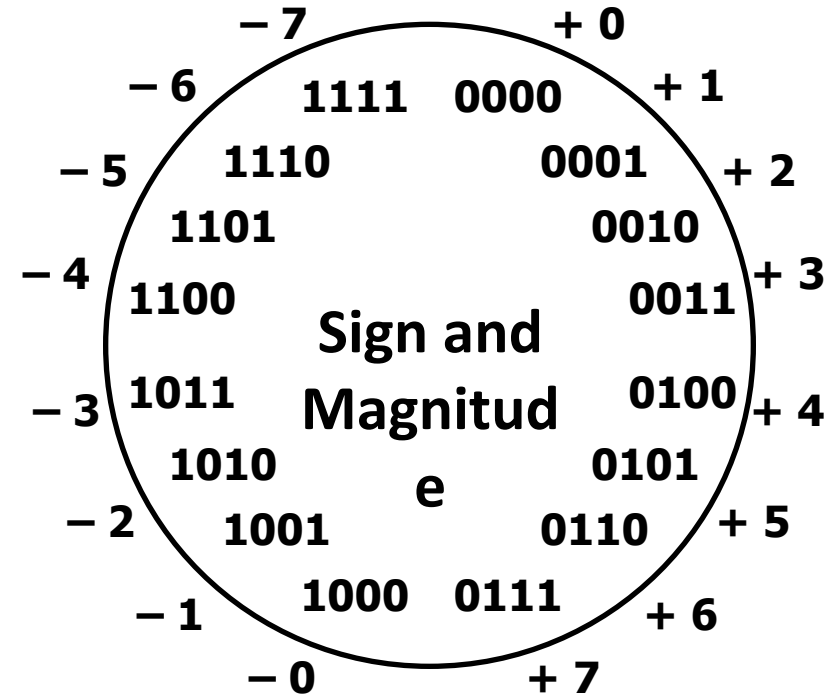
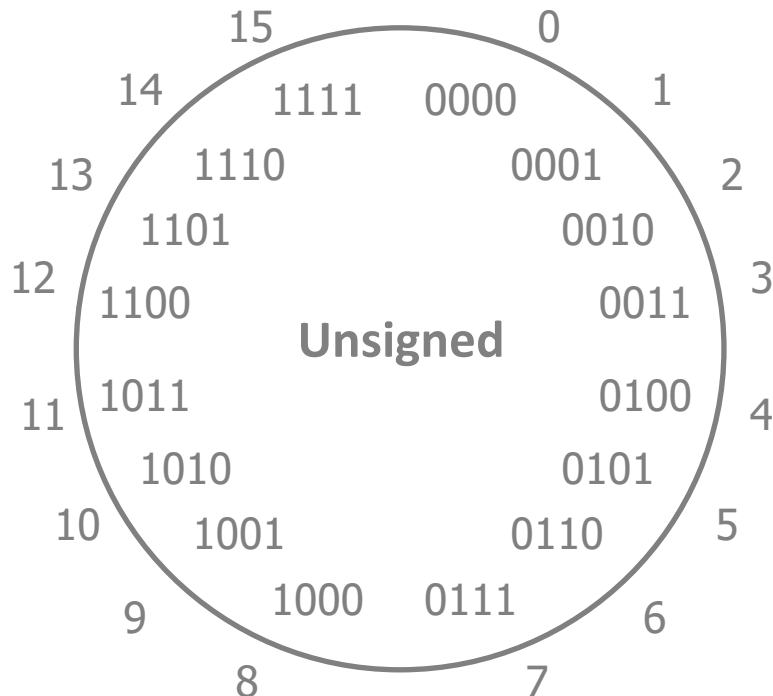
Encoding Integers

- ❖ The hardware (and C) supports two flavors of integers
 - *unsigned* – only the non-negatives
 - *signed* – both negatives and non-negatives
- ❖ Cannot represent all integers with w bits
 - Only 2^w distinct bit patterns
 - Unsigned values: $0 \dots 2^w - 1$
 - Signed values: $-2^{(w-1)} \dots 0 \dots 2^{(w-1)} - 1$
- ❖ **Example:** 8-bit integers (*e.g.* `char`)



Sign and Magnitude

- ❖ MSB is the sign bit, rest of the bits are magnitude
- ❖ Drawbacks?



Sign and Magnitude

❖ MSB is the sign bit, rest of the bits are magnitude

❖ Drawbacks:

■ Two representations of 0 (bad for checking equality)

■ **Arithmetic is cumbersome**

• Example: $4 - 3 \neq 4 + (-3)$

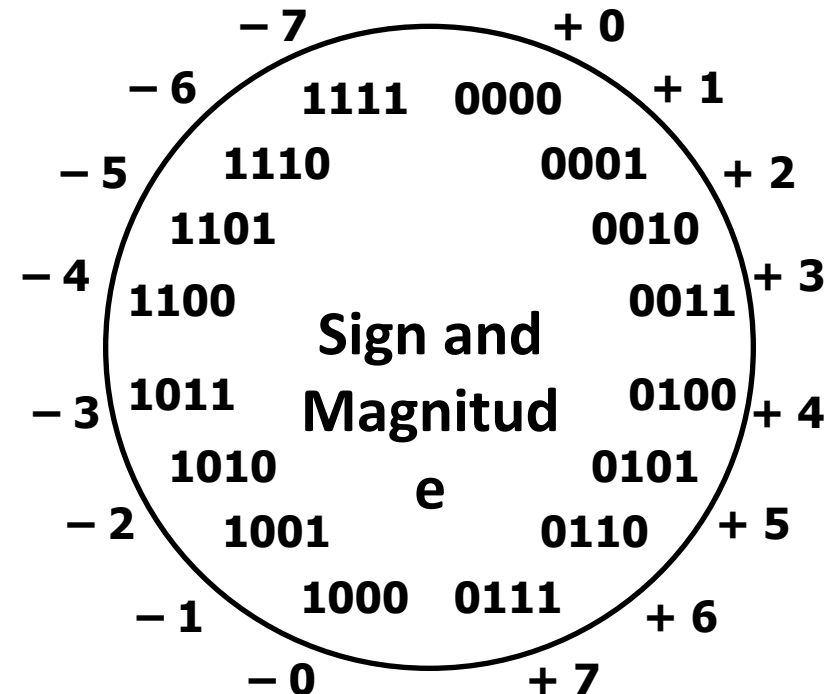
4	0100
- 3	- 0011
1	0001



4	0100
+ -3	+ 1011
-7	1111

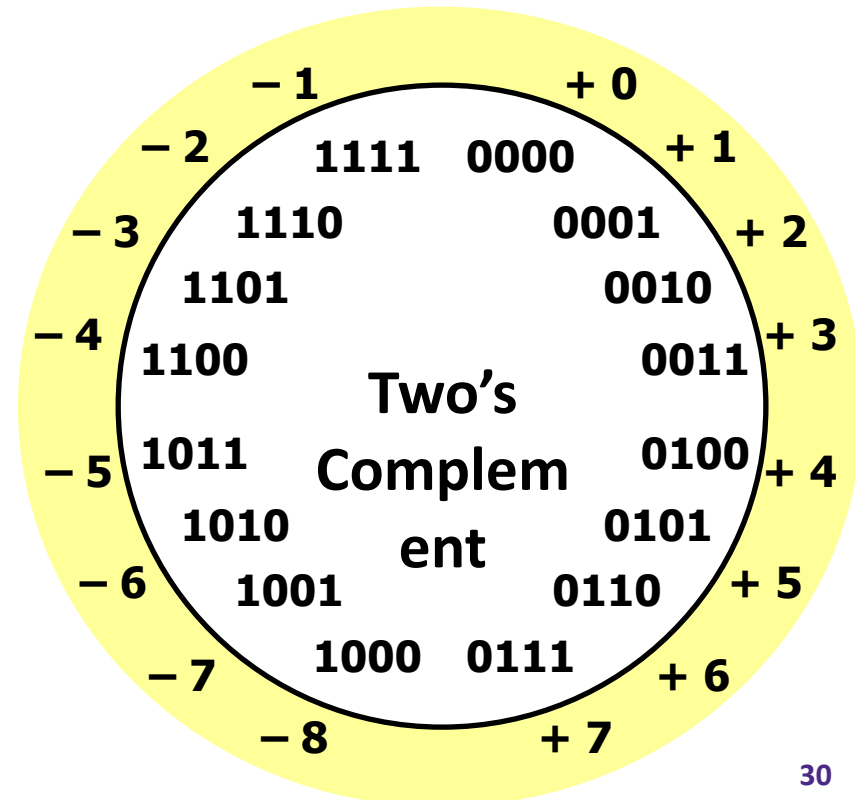


• Negatives “increment” in wrong direction!



Why Two's Complement is So Great

- ❖ Roughly same number of (+) and (−) numbers
 - ❖ Positive number encodings match unsigned
 - ❖ Simple arithmetic ($x + -y = x - y$)
 - ❖ Single zero
 - ❖ All zeros encoding = 0
 - ❖ Simple negation procedure:
 - Get negative representation of any integer by taking bitwise complement and then adding one!
- (~x + 1 == -x)



Sign Extension

❖ **Task:** Given a w -bit signed integer X , convert it to $w+k$ -bit signed integer X' *with the same value*

❖ **Rule:** Add k copies of sign bit

■ Let x_i be the i -th digit of X in binary

■ $X' = \underbrace{x_{w-1}, \dots, x_{w-1}}_{k \text{ copies of MSB}}, \underbrace{x_{w-1}, x_{w-2}, \dots, x_1, x_0}_{\text{original } X}$

