

# CPSC 213, Winter 2014, Term 1 — Midterm **Solution**

Date: October 24, 2014; Instructor: Mike Feeley

**1 (7 marks) Variables and Memory.** Consider the following C code with three global variables, `a`, `b`, and `c`, that are stored at addresses `0x1000`, `0x2000`, `0x3000`, respectively, and a procedure `foo()` that accesses them.

```
int a[1];    // at address 0x1000
int b[1];    // at address 0x2000
int* c;      // at address 0x3000

void foo() {
    a[0] = 1;
    b[0] = 2;
    c = a;
    c[0] = 3;
    c = b;
    *c = 4;
}
```

Describe what you know about the content of memory following the execution of `foo()` on a 32-bit **Little Endian** processor. List only memory locations whose address and value you know. **List each byte of memory separately** using the form “`byte_address: byte_value`”. List all numbers in hex.

```
0x1000: 0x03
0x1001: 0x00
0x1002: 0x00
0x1003: 0x00
0x2000: 0x04
0x2001: 0x00
0x2002: 0x00
0x2003: 0x00
0x3000: 0x00
0x3001: 0x20
0x3002: 0x00
0x3003: 0x00
```

**2 (7 marks) C Pointers.** Consider the following C code.

```
int  a[10] = {0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9}; // i.e., a[i] = i
int* b      = a+4;

int foo (int* x, int* y, int* z) {
    *x = *x + *y;
    *x = *x + *z;

    return *x;
}

int bar () {
    return foo (b - 2, a + (b - a) + (&a[7] - &a[6]), a + 2);
}
```

What value does `bar()` return? Justify your answer (1) by simplifying the description of the arguments to `foo()` as much as possible so that the relationship among them, if any, is clear and (2) by carefully explaining what happens when `foo()` executes.

$$\begin{aligned}
 b - 2 &= a + 4 - 2 \\
 &= a + 2 \\
 a + (b - a) + (\&a[7] - \&a[6]) &= a + ((a+4) - a) + ((a+7) - (a+6)) \\
 &= a + 4 + 1 \\
 &= a + 5
 \end{aligned}$$

So the call to `foo` simplifies to `foo(a+2, a+5, a+2)`. Thus when `foo()` runs we have:

```

*(a+2) = *(a+2) + *(a+5);
        = 2 + 5
        = 7
*(a+2) = *(a+2) + *(a+2)
        = 7 + 7
        = 14

```

Thus `foo()` returns 14.

### 3 (6 marks) Global Arrays. Consider the following C global variable declarations.

```

int a[10];
int* b;
int i;

```

Give the SM213 assembly code the compiler might generate for the following statements that access these variables. You may use labels `a`, `b`, and `c` for addresses. You may not assume anything about the value of registers. **Comment every line.**

#### 3a `b = a;`

```

ld $a, r0    # r0 = &a
ld $b, r1    # r1 = &b
st r0, (r1)  # b = a

```

#### 3b `a[i] = i;`

```

ld $i, r0    # r0 = &i
ld (r0), r1   # r1 = i
ld $a, r2    # r2 = &a = &a[0]
st r1, (r2, r1, 4) # a[i] = i

```

### 4 (3 marks) Instance Variables. Consider the following C global variable declarations.

```

struct S {
    int a;
    void* b;
    int c;
};

```

```

struct S* s;

```

Give the SM213 assembly code the compiler might generate for the statement:

```

s->b = &s->c;

```

You may use the label `s`. You may not assume anything about the value of registers. **Comment every line.**

```

ld $s, r0    # r0 = &s
ld (r0), r1   # r1 = s = &s->a
ld $8, r2     # r2 = 8
add r1, r2    # r2 = &s1->c
st r2, 4(r1)  # s1->b = &s1->c

```

### 5 (6 marks) Count Memory References. Consider the following C global variable declarations.

```

struct S {
    int a[10];
};

struct S s;

```

```

struct T {
    int* x;
};

struct T* t;

```

For each question, count the number of memory **reads and writes** occur when the statement executes. Do not count the memory reads that fetch instructions. Justify your answer carefully by describing the reads and writes that occur.

**5a** `s.a[2] = s.a[3];`

1 read: `s.a[3]`; 1 write: `s.a[2]`

**5b** `t->x[2] = t->x[3];`

3 reads: `t, t->x, t->x[3]`; 1 write: `t->x[2]`

**6 (8 marks) Loops and If.** The following assembly code computes `s = a[0]` where `a` is a global, static array of integers. Modify this code so that it computes the sum of all positive elements of the array where the size of the array is stored in a global int named `n`. Your solution should avoid unnecessary memory accesses where possible (e.g., inside of the loop). You may modify the code in place. Comment every line you add. Hint: notice that you have to add four things: (1) read the value of `n`, (2) turn part of this code into a loop, (3) exit the loop at the right time, and (4) only sum positive numbers; you might want to take these one at a time.

```

ld $a, r0          # r0 = &a = &a[0]
ld $0, r1          # r1 = temp_i = 0
ld $0, r2          # r2 = temp_s = 0
ld (r0, r1, 4), r3  # r3 = a[temp_i]
add r3, r2         # temp_s = temp_s + a[temp_i]
ld $s, r4          # r4 = &s
st r2, (r4)        # s = temp_s

```

Added lines are numbered

```

[1]      ld $a, r0          # r0 = &a = &a[0]
[2]      ld $0, r1          # r1 = temp_i = 0
[3]      ld $0, r2          # r2 = temp_s = 0
[4]      ld $n, r5          # r5 = &n
[5]      ld (r5), r5        # r5 = n = temp_n
[6]      loop:
[7]          bgt r5, cont    # continue if temp_n > 0
[8]          br done        # exit loop if temp_n <= 0
[9]      cont:
[10]         ld (r0, r1, 4), r3  # r3 = a[temp_i]
[11]         dec r5            # temp_n --
[12]         inc r1           # temp_i ++
[13]         bgt r3, add      # goto add if a[temp_i] > 0
[14]         br loop         # skip add & goto loop if a[temp_i] <= 0
[15]      add:
[16]         add r3, r2        # temp_s += a[temp_i] if a[temp_i] < 0
[17]         br loop         # start next iteration of loop
[18]      done:
[19]         ld $s, r4        # r4 = &s
[20]         st r2, (r4)      # s = temp_s

```

**7 (7 marks) Procedure Calls** Implement the following C code in assembly. Pass arguments on the stack. Assume that `r5` has already been initialized as the stack pointer and assume that some other procedure (not shown) calls `doit()`. You do not have to show the allocation of `x`; just use the label `x` to refer to its address. Comment every line.

```

int x;

void doit () {
    x = addOne (5);
}

int addOne (int a) {
    return a + 1;
}

```

```

doit:
    deca r5          # allocate space for ra on stack
    st r6, (r5)      # save ra on stack
    deca r5          # make room for argument on stack
    ld $5, r0        # r0 = 5
    st r0, (r5)      # arg0 = 5
    gpc $6, r6       # get return address
    j add            # call addOne (5)
    inca r5          # remove argument area
    ld $x, r1        # r1 = &x
    st r0, (r1)      # x = addOne (5)
    ld (r5), r6      # restore ra from stack
    inca r5          # remove ra space from stack
    j (r6)           # return
addOne:
    ld (r5), r0      # r0 = a
    inc r0           # r0 = a + b
    j (r6)           # return a + b

```

**8 (3 marks) Programming in C.** Consider the following C code.

```

int* b;

void set (int i) {
    b [i] = i;
}

```

There is a dangerous bug in this code. Carefully describe what it is. Assume that `b` was assigned a value somewhere else in the program.

There's a potential array overflow. Need to check that `i` is in range  $(0 \dots \text{size of } b - 1)$  before writing to `b[i]` and thus this size, which is dynamically determined, should be a parameter to `set` or a global variable.

**9 (3 marks) Programming in C.** Consider the following C code.

```

int* one () {
    int loc = 1;
    return &loc;
}

void two () {
    int zot = 2;
}

void three () {
    int* ret = one();
    two();
}

```

There is a dangerous bug in this code. Carefully describe what it is.

Hint: what is the value of `*ret` just before and just after `two()` is called? Look carefully at the implementation of `one()`, what it returns, and when variables are allocated and deallocated.

Yes; there's a dangling pointer. The procedure `one()` returns a pointer to a local variable, but that local variable is deallocated when the procedure returns. Just before `three()` calls `two()` the value of `*ret` is 1, but after calling `two()` it changes to 2 because `two()`'s local variable `zot` will be allocated in the same location as `one()`'s `loc`, and `*ret` is a dangling pointer pointing to that location.