

# Computer Systems

## Lecture 10

# Arrays

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# Outline

- Address arithmetic
- Arrays
  - Representation
  - Allocation
  - Indexed addressing
- Array traversal and for loops
- Example program ArrayMax
- Programming tips

# Why [R0]?

- So far, we have always been writing [R0] after constants or names
  - lea R2,39[R0]
  - load R3,xyz[R0]
  - store R4,total[R0]
- Why?
- This is part of a general and powerful technique called **address arithmetic**

# Address arithmetic

- Every piece of data in the computer (in registers, or memory) is a **word of bits**
- A word can represent several different kinds of data (and instructions)
  - So far, we've just been using **integers**
  - Represented with **two's complement**:  $-2^{15}, \dots, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots, 2^{15} - 1$
- Now, we'll start doing computations with **addresses** too
- Addresses are **unsigned numbers**:  $0, 1, 2, \dots, 65535$ 
  - Represented in binary

# What can you do with address arithmetic?

- Powerful data structures
  - **Today:** Arrays
  - **Next week:** Pointers and records
  - Linked lists, queues, dequeues, stacks, trees, graphs, hash tables, ...  
(subject of Algorithms and Data Structures)
- Powerful control structures
  - Input/Output
  - Procedures and functions
  - Recursion
  - Case dispatch
  - Coroutines, classes, methods

# Data structures

- An **ordinary variable** holds one value (e.g. an integer)
- A data structure can hold many individual elements
- A data structure is a **container**
- The simplest data structure: array
- There are many more data structures!
- The **key idea**: **we will do arithmetic on addresses**

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# Arrays

- In **mathematics**, an array (vector) is a sequence of indexed values  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n - 1$ 
  - $x$  is the entire array
  - $x_3$  is one specific element of the array with index 3
  - It's useful to refer to an arbitrary element by using an integer variable as index (subscript notation):  $x_i$
- In **programming languages**, we refer to  $x_i$  as  $x[i]$
- Arrays are ubiquitous: used in all kinds of applications



# Representing an array

- An array is represented in a computer by placing the elements in consecutive memory locations
- The array  $x$  starts in memory at some location: for example **01a5**
- The address of the array  $x$  is the address of its first element  **$x[0]$**
- The elements follow in consecutive locations

value	$x[0]$	$x[1]$	$x[2]$	$x[3]$	$x[4]$	$x[5]$	$x[6]$
address	... 01a5	01a6	01a7	01a8	01a9	01aa	01ab ...

**The address of  $x[i]$  is  $x+i$**

# Allocating an array

- An array is in memory along with other data
  - After the trap instruction that terminates the program
- You can allocate the elements and give them initial value with data statements
- Use the name of the array as a label on the first element (the one with index 0)
- Don't put labels on the other elements

# Example of array allocation

...

trap R0,R0,R0 ; terminate

; Variables and arrays

abc data 25 ; some variable

n data 6 ; size of array x

x data 13 ; x[0]

data 189 ; x[1]

data 870 ; x[2]

data 42 ; x[3]

data 0 ; x[4]

data 1749 ; x[5]

def data 0 ; some other variable

# What about big arrays?

- In the programs we'll work with, arrays will be small (e.g. 5-10 elements)
- In real scientific computing, it's common to have large arrays with thousands (or even millions) of elements
- It would be horrible to have to write thousands of data statements!
- In large scale software, arrays are allocated **dynamically** with help from the **operating system**
  - The user program calculates how large an array it wants, and stores that in a variable (e.g.  $n = 40000$ )
  - It uses a trap to request (from the operating system) a block of memory big enough to hold the array
  - The operating system returns the address of this block to the user program
- We won't do this: we will just allocate small arrays using data statements

# Accessing an element of an array

- Suppose we have array  $x$  with elements  $x[0], x[1], \dots, x[n-1]$
- Elements are stored in consecutive memory locations
- Use the label  $x$  to refer to the array ( $x$  is also the location of  $x[0]$ )
- The address of  $x[i]$  is  $x+i$
- To do any calculations on  $x[i]$ , we must load it into a register, or store a new value into it
- But how?
  - If you try load  $R4, x[R0]$  the effect will be  $R4 := x[0]$
  - We need a way to access  $x[i]$  where  $i$  is a variable

# Effective address

- An RX instruction specifies addresses in two parts
  - Examples: `result[R0]` or `x[R4]` or `$00a5[R2]`
  - The **displacement** is a 16 bit constant: you can write the number, or use a name (the assembler will put in the address for you)
  - The **index register** is written in brackets
- The machine adds the displacement to the value in the index register
  - This is called the **effective address**
- The instruction is performed using the effective address

# Using the effective address

- The addressing mechanism is flexible!
- You can access an ordinary variable: `load R2,sum[R0]`
  - R0 always contains 0, so the effective address is just the address of sum
- You can access an array element
  - If R8 contains an index i, then `load R2,x[R8]` will load x[i] into R2
- Other cases: e.g. effective address is the content of a register `load R2,0[R8]`
- **There's more:** effective addresses are used to implement...
  - pointers, functions, procedures, methods, classes, instances, jump tables, case dispatch, coroutines, records, interrupt vectors, lists, heaps, trees, forests, graphs, hash tables, activation records, stacks, queues, dequeues, etc

# Addressing modes

- An **addressing mode** is a scheme for specifying the address of data
- **Sigma16** has one addressing mode: **displacement[index]**, e.g. x[R4]
- Many older computers provided many addressing modes
  - One for variables, another for arrays, yet another for linked lists, still another for stacks, and so on
- It's more efficient to provide just one or two flexible addressing modes, rather than a big collection of them



# Using effective address for an array

- Suppose we want to execute  $x[i] := x[i] + 50$

```
lea R1,50[R0]      ; R1 := 50
load R5,i[R0]      ; R5 := i
load R6,x[R5]      ; R6 := x[i]
add R6,R6,R1       ; R6 := x[i] + 50
store R6,x[R5]     ; x[i] := x[i] + 50
```

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# Array traversal

- A typical operation on an array is to **traverse** it
- That means to perform a calculation on each element
- Here's a loop that doubles each element of x

```
i := 0;  
while i < n do  
  { x[i] := x[i] * 2;  
    i := i + 1;  
  }
```

# For loops

- A for loop is designed specifically for array traversal
- It handles the loop index automatically
- It sets the index to each array element index and executes the body
- The intuition is “do the body for every element of the array”

```
for i := exp1 to exp2 do  
    { statements }
```

# Array traversal with while and for

- Here is the program that doubles each element of  $x$ , written with both constructs

```
i := 0;
```

```
while i < n do
```

```
  { x[i] := x[i] * 2;
```

```
    i := i + 1;
```

```
  }
```

```
for i := 0 to n-1 do
```

```
  { x[i] := x[i] * 2; }
```

# Translating the for loop to low level

- High level for loop (with any number of statements in the body)

```
for i := exp1 to exp2 do
  { statement1;
    statement2;
  }
```

- Translate to low level with this pattern

```
  i := exp1;
loop: if i > exp2 then goto loopdone;
      statement1;
      statement2;
      i := i + 1;
      goto loop;
loopdone:
```

# Alternative syntax for for loops

- In languages derived from C (C++, Java, C#, and many more) you will see for loops written like this

```
for (i=x; i<y; i++)  
    { S1; }  
S2;
```

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# Example program ArrayMax

- A complete programming example
- **The problem:** find the maximum element of an array
- To do this we need to
  - Allocate an array
  - Loop over the elements
  - Access each element
  - Perform a conditional
- This example puts all our techniques together into one program

# State what the program does

```
; Program ArrayMax
; John O'Donnell

;-----
; The program finds the maximum element of an array.  It is given
;   * a natural number n, assume n>0
;   * an n-element array x[0], x[1], ..., x[n-1]
; and it calculates
;   * max = the maximum element of x

; Since n>0, the array x contains at least one element, and a maximum
; element is guaranteed to exist.
```

# High level algorithm

```
;-----  
; High level algorithm  
  
;   max := x[0];  
;   for i := 1 to n-1 do  
;       { if x[i] > max  
;           then max := x[i];  
;       }  
;
```

# Translate high level code to low level “goto form”

```
;-----  
; Low level algorithm  
  
;   max := x[0]  
;   i := 1  
; forloop:  
;   if i >= n then goto done  
;   if x[i] <= max then goto skip  
;   max := x[i]  
; skip:  
;   i := i + 1  
;   goto forloop  
; done:  
;   terminate
```

# Specify how the registers are used

- Note that the program is written in the “register variable style”

```
;-----  
; Assembly language  
  
; Register usage  
;   R1 = constant 1  
;   R2 = n  
;   R3 = i  
;   R4 = max
```

# Block of statements to initialise registers

```
; Initialise
    lea    R1,1[R0]          ; R1 = constant 1
    load   R2,n[R0]          ; R2 = n
; max := x[0]
    load   R4,x[R0]          ; R4 = max = x[0]
; i := 1
    lea    R3,1[R0]          ; R3 = i = 1
```

# Beginning of loop

```
; Top of loop, determine whether to remain in loop  
forloop
```

```
; if i >= n then goto done
```

```
    cmp    R3,R2
```

```
; compare i, n
```

```
    jumpge done[R0]
```

```
; if i>=n then goto done
```

## Body of loop: if-then

```
; if x[i] <= max then goto else
    load    R5,x[R3]           ; R5 = x[i]
    cmp     R5,R4              ; compare x[i], max
    jumple  skip[R0]           ; if x[i] <= max then goto skip

; max := x[i]
    add     R4,R5,R0           ; max := x[i]
```



# End of loop

skip

; i := i + 1

add R3,R3,R1

; i = i + 1

; goto forloop

jump forloop[R0]

; go to top of forloop

# Finish

```
; Exit from forloop
done    store R4,max[R0]           ; max = R4
; terminate
        trap  R0,R0,R0           ; terminate
```

# Data definitions

; Data area

n	data	6
max	data	0
x	data	18
	data	3
	data	21
	data	-2
	data	40
	data	25

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# A useful convention

- The instruction set is designed to be regular, and follow consistent conventions
  - This makes programming easier
  - It also helps with the hardware design!
- For most instructions, the operands follow the pattern of an assignment statement: information goes right to left
  - Assignment statement: `reg1 := reg2 + reg3`
  - Add instruction: `add R1,R2,R3`
  - The two operands on the right (R2, R3) are added, and placed in the destination on the left (R1)
  - Load instruction: `load R1,x[R0]` means `R1 := x`
- An **exception**: `store`
  - `store R1,x[R0]` means `x := R1`: the information goes from left to right
  - Why? Doing it this way makes the digital circuit (the processor) a bit faster

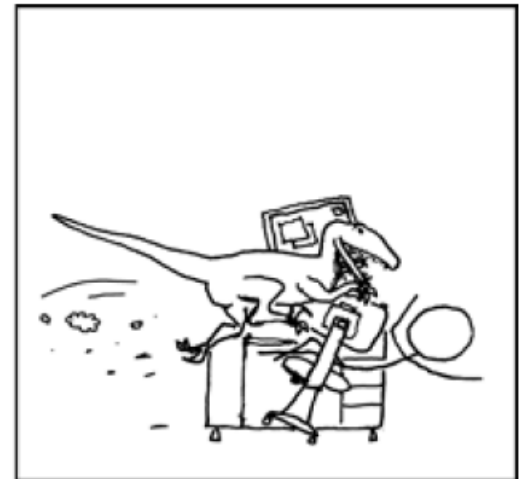
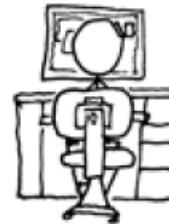
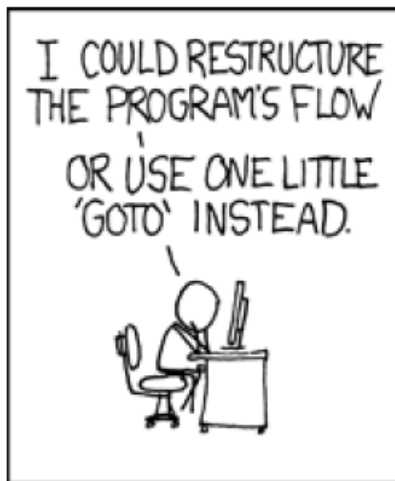
# Programming tip: Copying one register to another

- Here's a useful tip (a standard programming technique)
- Sometimes you want to copy a value from one register to another
  - $R3 := R12$
- There's a standard way to do it
  - `add R3,R12,R0` ;  $R3 := R12$
- The **idea** is that  $R12 + 0 = R12$ !
- Why do it this way?
  - It's actually more efficient than providing a separate instruction just to copy the register!

# Using load and store

- A common error is to confuse load and store
- The main points to remember
  - We need to keep variables in memory (most of the time) because memory is big (there aren't enough registers to hold all your variables)
  - The computer hardware can do arithmetic on data in registers, but it cannot do arithmetic on data in memory
  - Therefore, to do arithmetic on variables, you must
    - Copy the variables from memory to registers (**load**)
    - Do the arithmetic in the registers (**add**, **sub**, ...)
    - Copy the result from registers back to memory (**store**)

# goto



<https://xkcd.com/292/>