Addressing mode in MIPS

Different formats of addressing registers or memory locations are called **addressing modes**.

- *Immediate addressing.* where operand is a constant in the instruction. e.g. addi, lui, slti, andi, ori, sll, srl
- *Register addressing.* when the operand is in a register. Simple, addresses location inside the processor. e.g. add, sub, and, or, nor, jr
- *Base addressing.* where operand is at a location = (16-bit constant in instruction) + (memory location stored in a register). Used for addressing elements of an array. e.g. lw, sw, lh, sh, lb, sb
- *PC-relative addressing.* when the address of the operand = PC + (16-bit constant shifted by 2). e.g.: branching instructions, beq, bne
- *Pseudo-direct addressing.* used for jump instruction. address = (26 bits shifted left = 28 bits) concatenated w/ upper 4 bits of PC. e.g. j, jal

Translating and Starting a program

Q. What happens when you compile a C program? When you run one?

There are 4 steps for transforming a C source code into a running program in memory: compiling, aseembling, linking, loading (accomplished by **systems programs**). Of course in an IDE, these steps are hidden from the user.

The steps taken are:

- Preprocessing. processing included header files, condition compilation (ifdefs), and macros
- **Compiler.** Produces an assembly language program, a symbolic form of machine (binary) language. Much more lines than the source code. Low-level code (OS, assemblers) were written in AL.
- Assembler. Translates the assembly program into *object file*: machine code + (global) data + information for placing instructions in memory properly.
 - header. size and position of sections in .0 file.
 - text. contains machine code
 - static data. Data that will available for the lifetime of program
 - * .bss uninitialized global data
 - * .data initialized global data
 - * .rodata read-only global data. string literals and constants.
 - relocation information. instructions and data that depend on absolute addresses when the program runs. For e.g. j Label1. Linker uses this info to adjust section contents. For e.g. the linker tracks the address of a procedure so other procedures may call it.



Figure 1: Steps for translating a C program



Figure 2: Linking the objects files



Figure 3: Use of relocation records

- symbol table. tracks labels. set of label symbols and their addresses. Since assembler needs to remove traces of all labels.
- debugging information. description of how code was compiled

Assembler also provides **pseudoinstructions** to make things easy for assembly code writer. For e.g. move \$t0, \$t1 is a p-instruction that is translated as add \$t0, \$zero, \$t1. Similarly, blt is translated into slt and bne, and so on. Assembler reserves register \$at for its own purposes like these.

- Linker. Stitches all independent assembled, machine language programs into one.
 - Changing one line of code would require recompilation.
 - obvious for personal code. Very wasteful for libraries, since they never change.
 - Better:
 - * Compile & assemble code separately so recompilation is contained
 - Linker also allows us to develop libraries in isolation
 - Three steps in linking
 - * place code and data in memory symbolically
 - * determine addresses of data and instruction labels
 - * patch internal and external references
 - Uses relocation info and symbol table in each .o module to resolve undefined labels
 - produces an **executable file** w/ same format as .o file but with no unresolved references.
 - Statically linked vs. dynamically linked

- * with static approach: can be using old linked library; size issues
- Loader. Loads the executable in memory to start it
 - reads size of text and data segments
 - creates address space for them and copies them to the created space
 - copies arguments for main to the stack
 - initializes registers (sets to 0) sets SP to 1st free location on stack
 - calls a start-up routine that copies args to arg registers and calls the main routine.