Chapter 2

Instructions: Language of the Computer

Instructions: Language of the Computer

- Introduction
- Operations of the Computer Hardware
- Operands of the Computer Hardware
- Signed and Unsigned Numbers
- Representing Instructions in the Computer
- Logical Operations
- Instructions for Making Decisions
- Communicating with People
- MIPS Addressing for 32-Bit Immediates and Addresses
- Parallelism and Instructions: Synchronization
- A C Sort Example to Put It All Together
- Concluding Remarks

Instruction Set

§2.1 Introduction

- The collection of instructions of a computer
- Different computers have different instruction sets
    - But with many aspects in common
- Early computers had very simple instruction sets
    - Simplified implementation
- Many modern computers also have simple instruction sets

The MIPS Instruction Set

§2.1 Introduction

- Used as an example throughout the course
- Stanford MIPS commercialized by MIPS Technologies (www.mips.com)
- Large share of embedded core market
  - Applications in consumer electronics, network/storage equipment, cameras, printers, …
- Typical of many modern ISAs
  - See MIPS Reference Data tear-out card, and Appendices B and E

Arithmetic Operations

- Add and subtract, three operands
  - Two sources and one destination

```
add a,b,c # a gets b + c
```

- All arithmetic operations have this form
- *Design Principle 1:* Simplicity favors regularity
  - Regularity makes implementation simpler
  - Simplicity enables higher performance at lower cost

§2.2 Operations of the Computer Hardware

MIPS operands

Name	Example	Comments
32 registers	$s0–$s7, $t0–$t9, $zero, $a0–$a3, $v0–$v1, $gp, $fp, $sp, $ra, $at	Fast locations for data. In MIPS, data must be in registers to perform arithmetic, register $zero always equals 0, and register $at is reserved by the assembler to handle large constants.
2^{30} memory words	Memory[0], Memory[4], . . . , Memory[4294967292]	Accessed only by data transfer instructions. MIPS uses byte addresses, so sequential word addresses differ by 4. Memory holds data structures, arrays, and spilled registers.

MIPS assembly language

Category	Instruction	Example	Meaning	Comments
Arithmetic	add	add $s1,$s2,$s3	$s1 = $s2 + $s3	Three register operands
	subtract	sub $s1,$s2,$s3	$s1 = $s2 – $s3	Three register operands
	add immediate	addi $s1,$s2,20	$s1 = $s2 + 20	Used to add constants
Data transfer	load word	lw $s1,20($s2)	$s1 = Memory[$s2 + 20]	Word from memory to register
	store word	sw $s1,20($s2)	Memory[$s2 + 20] = $s1	Word from register to memory
	load half	lh $s1,20($s2)	$s1 = Memory[$s2 + 20]	Halfword memory to register
	load half unsigned	lhu $s1,20($s2)	$s1 = Memory[$s2 + 20]	Halfword memory to register
	store half	sh $s1,20($s2)	Memory[$s2 + 20] = $s1	Halfword register to memory
	load byte	lb $s1,20($s2)	$s1 = Memory[$s2 + 20]	Byte from memory to register
	load byte unsigned	lbu $s1,20($s2)	$s1 = Memory[$s2 + 20]	Byte from memory to register
	store byte	sb $s1,20($s2)	Memory[$s2 + 20] = $s1	Byte from register to memory
	load linked word	ll $s1,20($s2)	$s1 = Memory[$s2 + 20]	Load word as 1st half of atomic swap
	store condition. word	sc $s1,20($s2)	Memory[$s2+20]=$s1;$s1=0 or 1	Store word as 2nd half of atomic swap
	load upper immed.	lui $s1,20	$s1 = 20 * 2^{16}	Loads constant in upper 16 bits
Logical	and	and $s1,$s2,$s3	$s1 = $s2 & $s3	Three reg. operands; bit-by-bit AND
	or	or $s1,$s2,$s3	$s1 = $s2 | $s3	Three reg. operands; bit-by-bit OR
	nor	nor $s1,$s2,$s3	$s1 = ~ ($s2 | $s3)	Three reg. operands; bit-by-bit NOR
	and immediate	andi $s1,$s2,20	$s1 = $s2 & 20	Bit-by-bit AND reg with constant
	or immediate	ori $s1,$s2,20	$s1 = $s2 | 20	Bit-by-bit OR reg with constant
	shift left logical	sll $s1,$s2,10	$s1 = $s2 << 10	Shift left by constant
	shift right logical	srl $s1,$s2,10	$s1 = $s2 >> 10	Shift right by constant
Conditional branch	branch on equal	beq $s1,$s2,25	if ($s1 == $s2) go to PC + 4 + 100	Equal test; PC-relative branch
	branch on not equal	bne $s1,$s2,25	if ($s1!= $s2) go to PC + 4 + 100	Not equal test; PC-relative
	set on less than	slt $s1,$s2,$s3	if ($s2 < $s3) $s1 = 1; else $s1 = 0	Compare less than; for beq, bne
	set on less than unsigned	sltu $s1,$s2,$s3	if ($s2 < $s3) $s1 = 1; else $s1 = 0	Compare less than unsigned
	set less than immediate	slti $s1,$s2,20	if ($s2 < 20) $s1 = 1; else $s1 = 0	Compare less than constant
	set less than immediate unsigned	sltiu $s1,$s2,20	if ($s2 < 20) $s1 = 1; else $s1 = 0	Compare less than constant unsigned
Unconditional jump	jump	j 2500	go to 10000	Jump to target address
	jump register	jr $ra	go to $ra	For switch, procedure return
	jump and link	jal 2500	$ra = PC + 4; go to 10000	For procedure call

Arithmetic Example

- C code:

```
f = (g + h) - (i + j);
```

- Compiled MIPS code:

```
add t0, g, h   # temp t0 = g + h
add t1, i, j   # temp t1 = i + j
sub f, t0, t1  # f = t0 - t1
```

§2.2 Operations of the Computer Hardware

Register Operands

- Arithmetic instructions use register operands
- MIPS has a 32 by 32-bit register file
  - Used for frequently accessed data
  - Numbered 0 to 31
  - 32-bit data called a “word”
- Assembler names
  - $t0, $t1, …, $t9 for temporary values
  - $s0, $s1, …, $s7 for saved variables
- *Design Principle 2:* Smaller is faster
  - c.f. main memory: millions of locations

§2.3 Operands of the Computer Hardware

Register Operand Example

- C code:

```
f = (g + h) - (i + j);
```

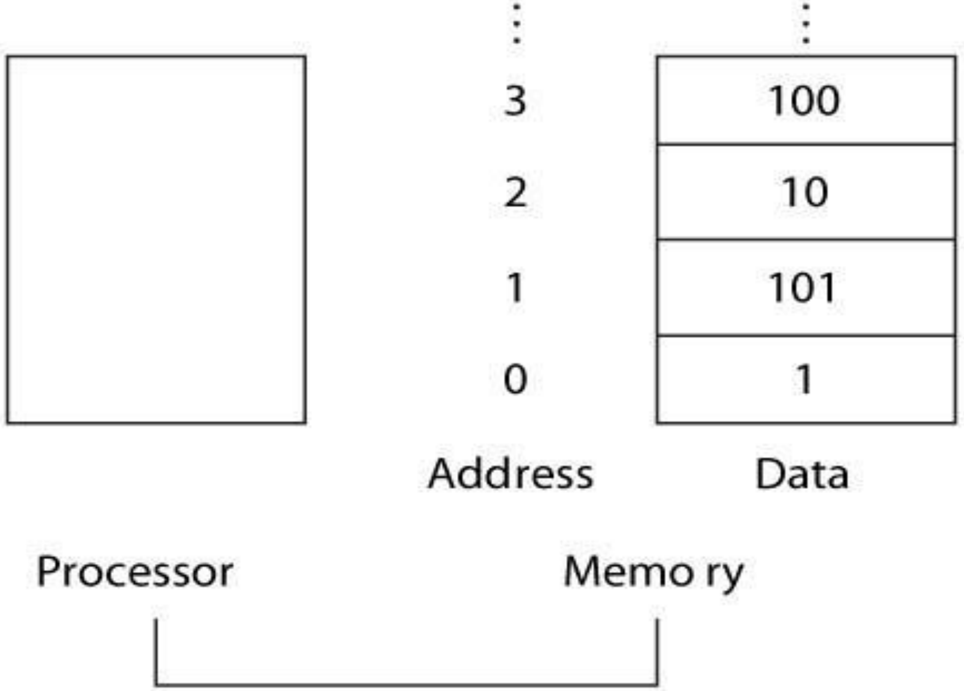
  - f, …, j in $s0, …, $s4

- Compiled MIPS code:

```
add $t0, $s1, $s2
add $t1, $s3, $s4
sub $s0, $t0, $t1
```

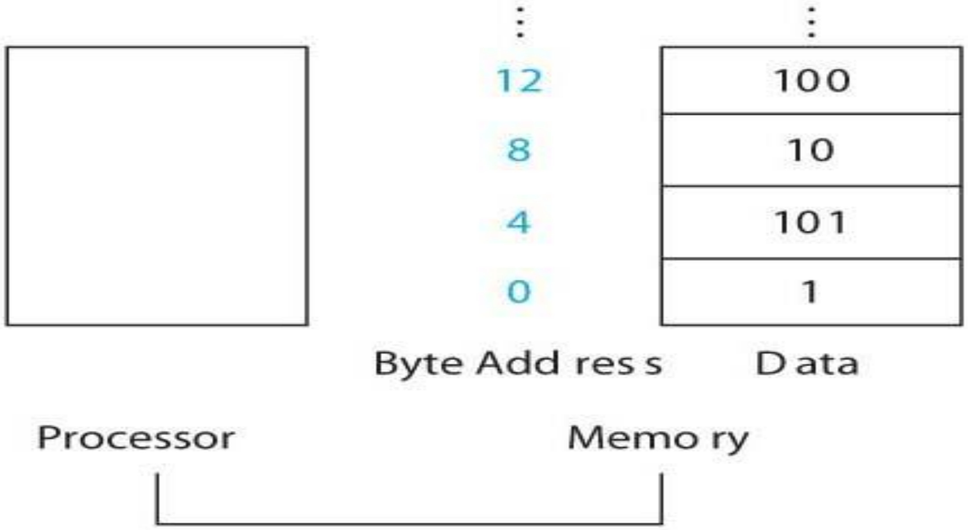
Memory Operands (1)

- Main memory used for composite data
  - Arrays, structures, dynamic data
- To apply arithmetic operations
  - Load values from memory into registers
  - Store result from register to memory



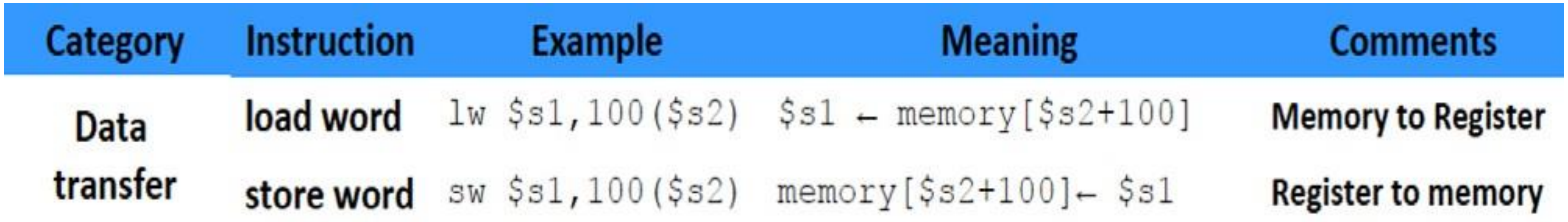
Memory Operands (2)

- Memory is byte addressed
  - Each address identifies an 8-bit byte
- Words are aligned in memory
  - Address must be a multiple of 4
- MIPS is Big Endian
  - Most-significant byte at least address of a word
  - *c.f.* Little Endian: least-significant byte at least address



Memory Operands (3)

- Data is transferred between memory and register using data transfer instructions: lw and sw



Category	Instruction	Example	Meaning	Comments
Data transfer	load word	`lw $s1,100($s2)`	`$s1 ← memory[$s2+100]`	Memory to Register
	store word	`sw $s1,100($s2)`	`memory[$s2+100]← $s1`	Register to memory

  - $s1 is receiving register
  - $s2 is base address of memory, 100 is called the offset, so ($s2+100) is the address of memory location

Memory Operand Example(1)

- C code:

```
g = h + A[8];
```

  - g in $s1, h in $s2, base address of A in $s3
- Compiled MIPS code:
  - Index 8 requires offset of 32
    - 4 bytes per word

```
lw  $t0, 32($s3)    # load word
add $s1, $s2, $t0
```

offset

base register

Memory Operand Example(2)

- C code:

```
A[12] = h + A[8];
```

  - h in $s2, base address of A in $s3
- Compiled MIPS code:
  - Index 8 requires offset of 32

```
lw  $t0, 32($s3)    # load word
add $t0, $s2, $t0
sw  $t0, 48($s3)    # store word
```

Registers vs. Memory

- Registers are faster to access than memory
- Operating on memory data requires loads and stores
  - More instructions to be executed
- Compiler must use registers for variables as much as possible
  - Only spill to memory for less frequently used variables
  - Register optimization is important!

Immediate Operands

- Constant data specified in an instruction
  - `addi $s3, $s3, 4`
- No subtract immediate instruction
  - Just use a negative constant

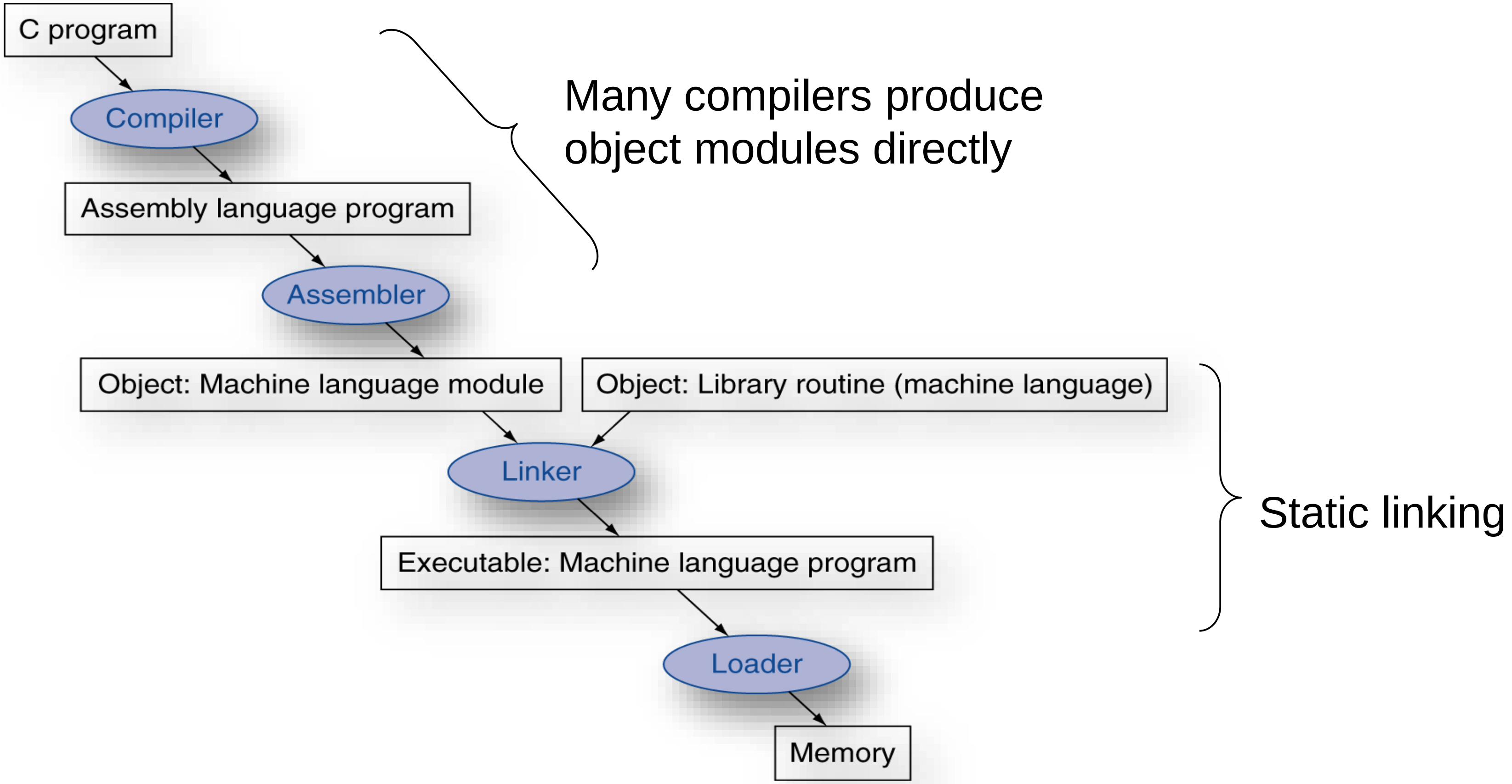
    `addi $s2, $s1, -1`
- *Design Principle 3:* Make the common case fast
  - Small constants are common
  - Immediate operand avoids a load instruction

The Constant Zero

- MIPS register 0 ($zero) is the constant 0
  - Cannot be overwritten
- Useful for common operations
  - E.g., move between registers

```
add $t2, $s1, $zero
```

Translation and Startup


C program
Compiler
Assembly language program
Assembler
Object: Machine language module
Object: Library routine (machine language)
Linker
Executable: Machine language program
Loader
Memory

Many compilers produce object modules directly

Static linking

UNIX: C source files are named x.c, assembly files are x.s, object files are named x.o, statically linked library routines are x.a, dynamically linked library routes are x.so, and executable files by default are called a.out.
MS-DOS uses the .C, .ASM, .OBJ, .LIB, .DLL, and .EXE to the same effect.

Translation

- Assembler (or compiler) translates program into machine instructions
- Linker produces an executable image
- Loader loads from image file on disk into memory

SPIM Simulator

- SPIM is a software simulator that runs assembly language programs
- SPIM is just MIPS spelled backwards
- SPIM can read and immediately execute assembly language files
- Two versions for different machines
    - Unix xspim(used in lab), spim
    - PC/Mac: QtSpim
- Resources and Download
    - http://spimsimulator.sourceforge.net

System Calls in SPIM

- SPIM provides a small set of system-like services through the system call (syscall) instruction.
- Format for system calls
  - Place value of input argument in $a0
  - Place value of system-call-code in $v0
  - Syscall

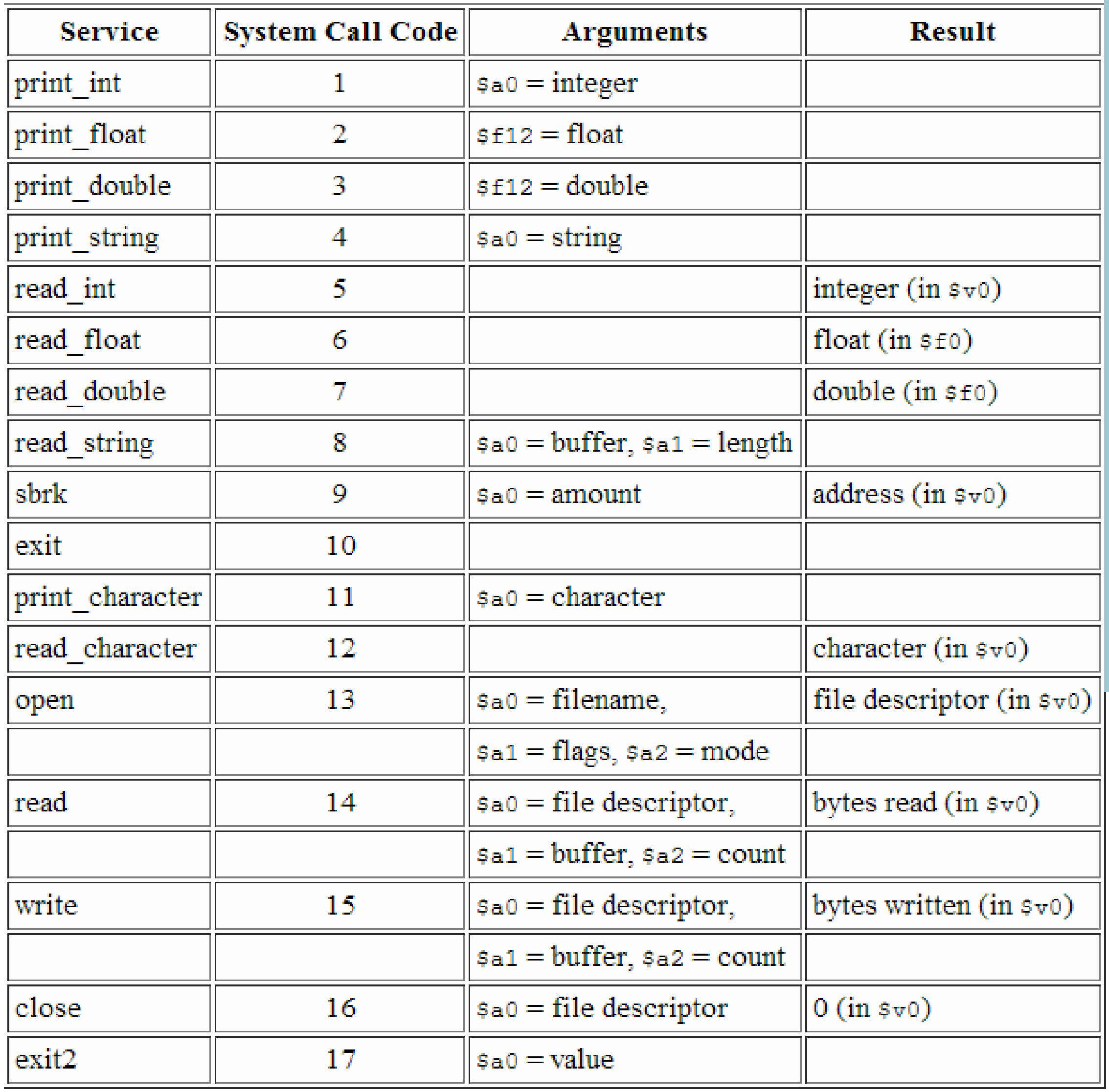
§2.3 Operands of the Computer Hardware

System Calls

Example: print a string

```
    .data
str: # --------------------
    .asciiz “answer is:”

    .text
    addi $v0,$zero,4
    la $a0, str
    syscall
```



Service	System Call Code	Arguments	Result
print_int	1	$a0 = integer	
print_float	2	$f12 = float	
print_double	3	$f12 = double	
print_string	4	$a0 = string	
read_int	5		integer (in $v0)
read_float	6		float (in $f0)
read_double	7		double (in $f0)
read_string	8	$a0 = buffer, $a1 = length	
sbrk	9	$a0 = amount	address (in $v0)
exit	10		
print_character	11	$a0 = character	
read_character	12		character (in $v0)
open	13	$a0 = filename,	file descriptor (in $v0)
		$a1 = flags, $a2 = mode	
read	14	$a0 = file descriptor,	bytes read (in $v0)
		$a1 = buffer, $a2 = count	
write	15	$a0 = file descriptor,	bytes written (in $v0)
		$a1 = buffer, $a2 = count	
close	16	$a0 = file descriptor	0 (in $v0)
exit2	17	$a0 = value	

Assembler Pseudoinstructions

- Most assembler instructions represent machine instructions one-to-one
- Pseudoinstructions: figments of the assembler's imagination

```
move $t0, $t1     →  add $t0, $zero, $t1
blt $t0, $t1, L   →  slt $at, $t0, $t1
                     bne $at, $zero, L
```

  - $at (Register 1): assembler temporary

Assembler Pseudoinstructions(2)

- Pseudoinstructions give MIPS a richer set of assembly language instructions than those implemented by the hardware
- Register $at (assembler temporary) reserved for use by the assembler
- For productivity, use pseudoinstructions to write assembly programs
- For performance, use real MIPS instructions

Reading

- Read Appendix A.9 for SPIM
- List of Pseudoinstructions can be found on page 235 of book

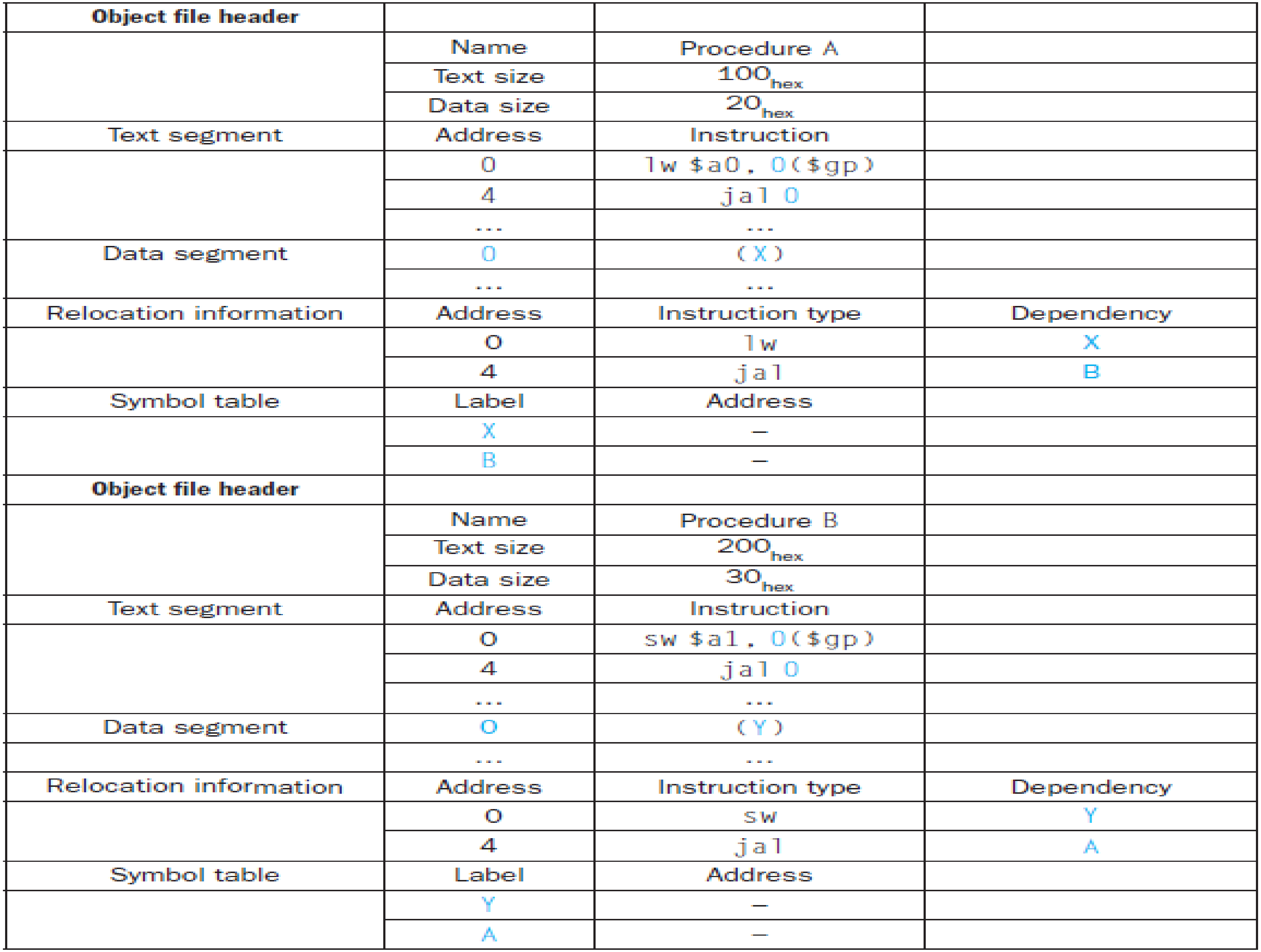
Producing an Object Module

- Assembler (or compiler) translates program into machine instructions
- Provides information for building a complete program from the pieces
  - Header: contains size and position of pieces of object module
  - Text segment: translated machine instructions
  - Static data segment: data allocated for the life of the program
  - Relocation info: for instructions and data words that depend on absolute location of loaded program
  - Symbol table: global definitions and external refs
  - Debug info: for associating with source code

Linking Object Modules

- Produces an executable file
  1. Merges segments
  2. Resolves labels (determines their addresses)
  3. Patches location-dependent and external refs
- Could leave location dependencies for fixing by a relocating loader
  - But with virtual memory, no need to do this
  - Program can be loaded into absolute location in virtual memory space

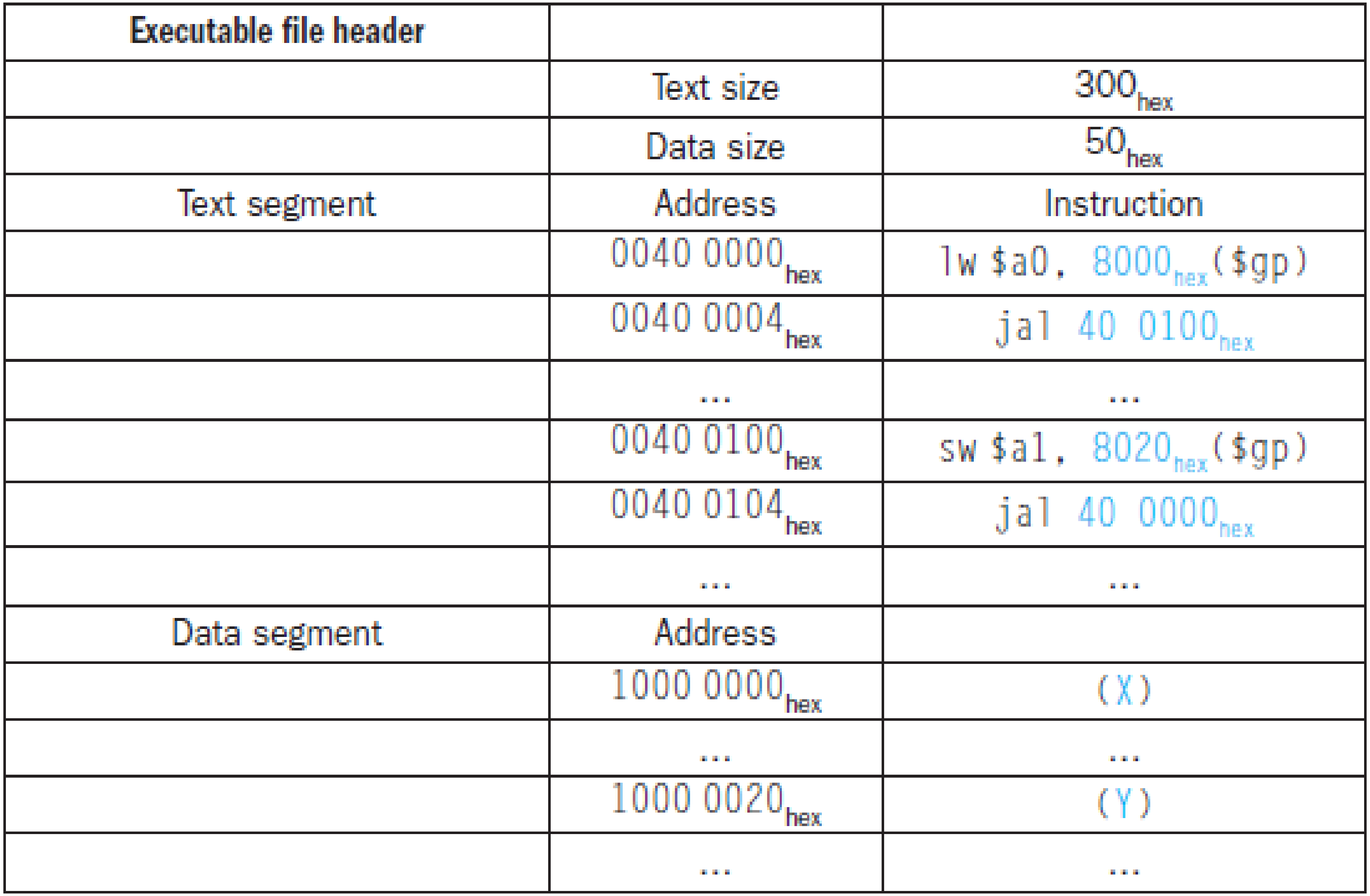
§2.3 Operands of the Computer Hardware



Object file header			
	Name	Procedure A	
	Text size	100_{hex}	
	Data size	20_{hex}	
Text segment	Address	Instruction	
	0	`lw $a0, 0($gp)`	
	4	`jal 0`	
	...	...	
Data segment	0	(X)	
	...	...	
Relocation information	Address	Instruction type	Dependency
	0	`lw`	X
	4	`jal`	B
Symbol table	Label	Address	
	X	–	
	B	–	
Object file header			
	Name	Procedure B	
	Text size	200_{hex}	
	Data size	30_{hex}	
Text segment	Address	Instruction	
	0	`sw $a1, 0($gp)`	
	4	`jal 0`	
	...	...	
Data segment	0	(Y)	
	...	...	
Relocation information	Address	Instruction type	Dependency
	0	`sw`	Y
	4	`jal`	A
Symbol table	Label	Address	
	Y	–	
	A	–	

Linking Object Modules

§2.3 Operands of the Computer Hardware



Executable file header		
	Text size	300_{hex}
	Data size	50_{hex}
Text segment	Address	Instruction
	$0040\ 0000_{\text{hex}}$	`lw $a0, 8000`$_{\text{hex}}$`($gp)`
	$0040\ 0004_{\text{hex}}$	`jal 40 0100`$_{\text{hex}}$
	...	...
	$0040\ 0100_{\text{hex}}$	`sw $a1, 8020`$_{\text{hex}}$`($gp)`
	$0040\ 0104_{\text{hex}}$	`jal 40 0000`$_{\text{hex}}$
	...	...
Data segment	Address	
	$1000\ 0000_{\text{hex}}$	`(X)`
	...	...
	$1000\ 0020_{\text{hex}}$	`(Y)`
	...	...

Loading a Program

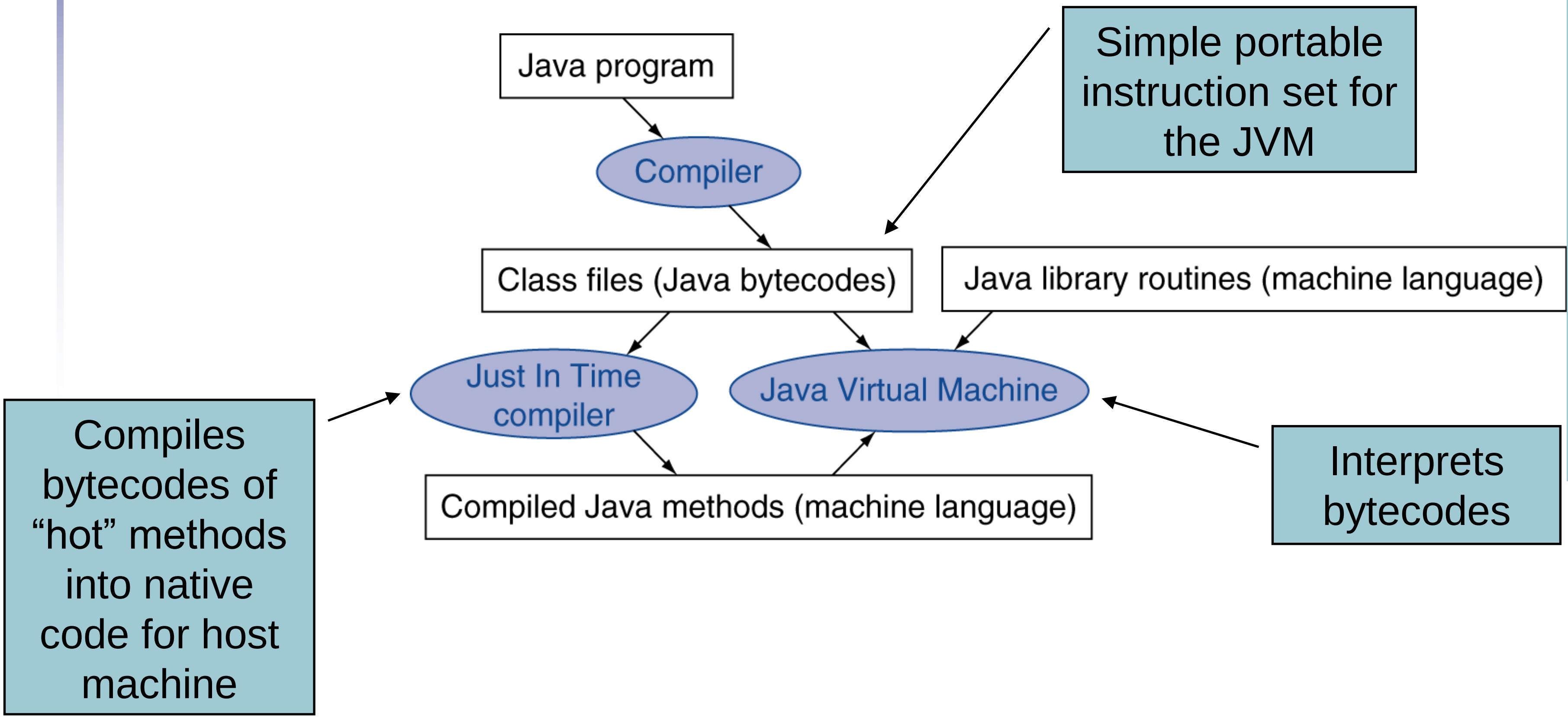
- Load from file on disk into memory
  1. Read header to determine segment sizes
  2. Create address space for text and data
  3. Copy text and initialized data into memory
  4. Set up arguments on stack
  5. Initialize registers (including $sp, $fp, $gp)
  6. Jump to startup routine
     - Copies arguments to $a0, … and calls main
     - When main returns, do exit syscall

Dynamic Linking

- Only link/load library procedure when it is called
  - Requires procedure code to be relocatable
  - Avoids image enlarge caused by static linking of all (transitively) referenced libraries
  - Automatically picks up new library versions

Starting Java Applications

§2.3 Operands of the Computer Hardware



Java program

Compiler

Class files (Java bytecodes)

Java library routines (machine language)

Just In Time compiler

Java Virtual Machine

Compiled Java methods (machine language)

Simple portable instruction set for the JVM

Compiles bytecodes of “hot” methods into native code for host machine

Interprets bytecodes

An Example MIPS Program

```
#  Program: (descriptive name)                Programmer: NAME
#  Due Date:                                   Course: CSE 2021
#  Functional Description:  Find the sum of the integers from 1 to N where
#  N is a value input from the keyboard.
##########################################################
# Register Usage: $t0 is used to accumulate the sum
#                        $v0 the loop counter, counts down to zero
###########################################################
# Algorithmic Description in Pseudocode:
# main:    v0 <<  value read from the keyboard (syscall 5)
#              if (v0 < = 0 ) stop
#             t0 = 0;                  # t0 is used to accumulate the sum
#             While (v0 > 0)  { t0 = t0 + v0;  v0 = v0 - 1}
#             Output to monitor syscall(1) << t0;     goto main
###########################################################
                        .data
prompt:                 .asciiz            "\n\n   Please Input a value for N = “
result:                 .asciiz             " The sum of the integers from 1 to N is “
bye:                    .asciiz             "\n  **** Have a good day **** "
                        .globl             main
```

An Example MIPS Program(2)

§2.3 Operands of the Computer Hardware

```
              .text
main:         li        $v0, 4            # system call code for print_str
              la        $a0, prompt       # load address of prompt into a0
              syscall                     # print the prompt message
              li        $v0, 5            # system call code for read int
              syscall                     # reads a value of N into v0
              blez      $v0,  done        # if ( v0  < = 0 ) go to done
              li        $t0, 0            # clear $t0 to zero
loop:         add       $t0, $t0, $v0     # sum of integers in register $t0
              addi      $v0, $v0, -1      # summing  in reverse order
              bnez      $v0, loop         # branch to loop if $v0 is != zero
              li        $v0, 4            # system call code for print_str
              la        $a0, result       # load address of message into $a0
              syscall                     # print the string
              li        $v0, 1            # system call code for print_int
              move      $a0, $t0          # a0 = $t0
              syscall                     # prints the value  in register $a0
              b         main
done:         li        $v0, 4            # system call code for print_str
              la        $a0, bye          # load address of msg. into $a0
              syscall                     # print the string
              li        $v0, 10           # terminate program
              syscall                     # return control to  system
```

Four Important Number Systems

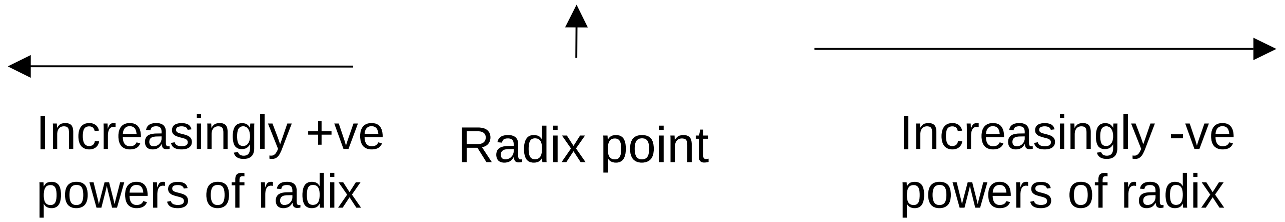
§2.3 Operands of the Computer Hardware

System	Why?	Remarks
Decimal	Base 10: (10 fingers)	Most used system
Binary	Base 2: On/Off systems	2-4 times more digits than decimal
Octal	Base 8: Shorthand notation for working with binary	3 times less digits than binary
Hex	Base 16	4 times less digits than binary

Positional Number Systems

- Have a radix *r* (base) associated with them.
- In the decimal system, *r* = 10:
  - Ten symbols: 0, 1, 2, ..., 8, and 9
  - More than 9 move to next position, so each position is power of 10
  - Nothing special about base 10 (used because we have 10 fingers)
- What does 642.391_{10} mean?

$$6 \text{ x } 10^{2} + 4 \text{ x } 10^{1} + 2 \text{ x } 10^{0} \quad . \quad 3 \text{ x } 10^{-1} + 9 \text{ x } 10^{-2} + 1 \text{ x } 10^{-3}$$



Increasingly +ve powers of radix

Radix point

Increasingly -ve powers of radix

Positional Number Systems(2)

- What does 642.391_{10} mean?

Radix point

Base 10 **(*r*)**	**10^2** **(100)**	**10^1** **(10)**	**10^0** **(1)**	**10^{-1}** **(0.1)**	**10^{-2}** **(0.01)**	**10^{-3}** **(0.001)**
Coefficient **(a_j)**	**6**	**4**	**2**	**3**	**9**	**1**
Product: a_j*r^i	**600**	**40**	**2**	**0.3**	**0.09**	**0.001**
Value	**= 600 + 40 + 2 + 0.3 + 0.09 + 0.001 = 642.391**					

- Multiply each digit by appropriate power of 10 and add them together
- In general:

$$\sum_{i=n-1}^{-m} a_i \times r^i$$

Positional Number Systems(3)

§2.3 Operands of the Computer Hardware

Number system	Radix	Symbols
Binary	2	{0,1}
Octal	8	{0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7}
Decimal	10	{0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9}
Hexadecimal	16	{0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,a,b,c,d,e,f}

Binary Number System

§2.3 Operands of the Computer Hardware

Decimal	Binary	Decimal	Binary
0	0000	**8**	1000
1	0001	**9**	1001
2	0010	**10**	1010
3	0011	**11**	1011
4	0100	**12**	1100
5	0101	**13**	1101
6	0110	**14**	1110
7	0111	**15**	1111

Octal Number System

Decimal	Octal	Decimal	Octal
0	0	8	10
1	1	9	11
2	2	10	12
3	3	11	13
4	4	12	14
5	5	13	15
6	6	14	16
7	7	15	17

Hexadecimal Number System

§2.3 Operands of the Computer Hardware

Decimal	Hex	Decimal	Hex
0	0	8	8
1	1	9	9
2	2	10	A
3	3	11	B
4	4	12	C
5	5	13	D
6	6	14	E
7	7	15	F

Four Number Systems

Decimal	Binary	Octal	Hex	Decimal	Binary	Octal	Hex
0	0000	0	0	8	1000	10	8
1	0001	1	1	9	1001	11	9
2	0010	2	2	10	1010	12	A
3	0011	3	3	11	1011	13	B
4	0100	4	4	12	1100	14	C
5	0101	5	5	13	1101	15	D
6	0110	6	6	14	1110	16	E
7	0111	7	7	15	1111	17	F

Conversion: Binary to Decimal

Binary → Decimal

1101.011_2 → $(??)_{10}$

r^j	$2^3(8)$	$2^2(4)$	$2^1(2)$	$2^0(1)$	$2^{-1}(0.5)$	$2^{-2}(0.25)$	$2^{-3}(0.125)$
a_j	1	1	0	1	0	1	1
$a_j{*}r^j$	8	4	0	1	0	0.25	0.125
	$(1101.011)_2 = 8 + 4 + 1 + 0.25 + 0.125 = 13.375$						

$1 \times 2^3 + 1 \times 2^2 + 0 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0$ **.** $0 \times 2^{-1} + 1 \times 2^{-2} + 1 \times 2^{-3} = 13.375_{10}$

↑

Binary point

Conversion: Decimal to Binary

- A decimal number can be converted to binary by repeated division by 2 if it is an integer

number	÷2	Remainder	
155	77	1	Least Significant Bit (LSB)
77	38	1	
38	19	0	
19	9	1	
9	4	1	
4	2	0	
2	1	0	
1	0	1	Most Significant Bit (MSB)

Arrange remainders in reverse order

$155_{10} = 10011011_2$

Conversion: Decimal to Binary (2)

- If the number includes a radix point, it is necessary to separate the number into an integer part and a fraction part, each part must be converted differently.

Decimal → Binary

$(27.375)_{10} \rightarrow (??)_2$

number	÷2	Remainder
27	13	1
13	6	1
6	3	0
3	1	1
1	0	1

Arrange remainders in reverse order: 11011

number	x2	Integer
0.375	0.75	0
0.75	1.50	1
0.50	1.0	1

Arrange in order: 011

$\Rightarrow\ 27.375_{10}=11011.011_2$

Conversion: Octal to Binary

§2.3 Operands of the Computer Hardware

Octal $\longrightarrow$ Binary

$345.5602_8 \longrightarrow (???)_2$

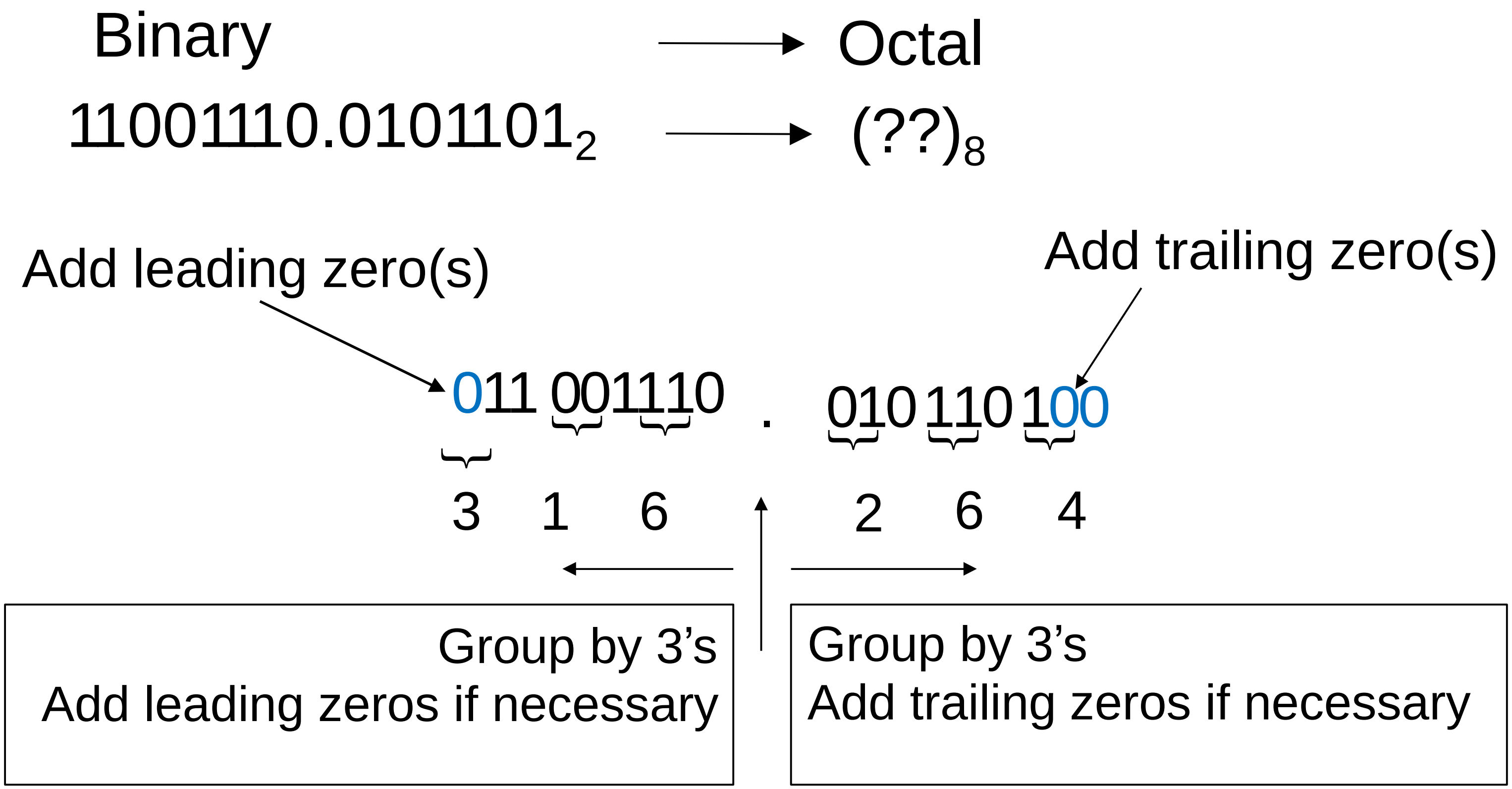
$$\underbrace{3}_{011}\,\underbrace{4}_{100}\,\underbrace{5}_{101}\,.\,\underbrace{5}_{101}\,\underbrace{6}_{110}\,\underbrace{0}_{000}\,\underbrace{2}_{010}$$

Discard leading zero(s)

Discard trailing zero(s)

$$345.5602_8 = 11100101.10111000001_2$$

Conversion: Binary to Octal



Binary → Octal

11001110.0101101_2 → $(??)_8$

Add leading zero(s)

Add trailing zero(s)

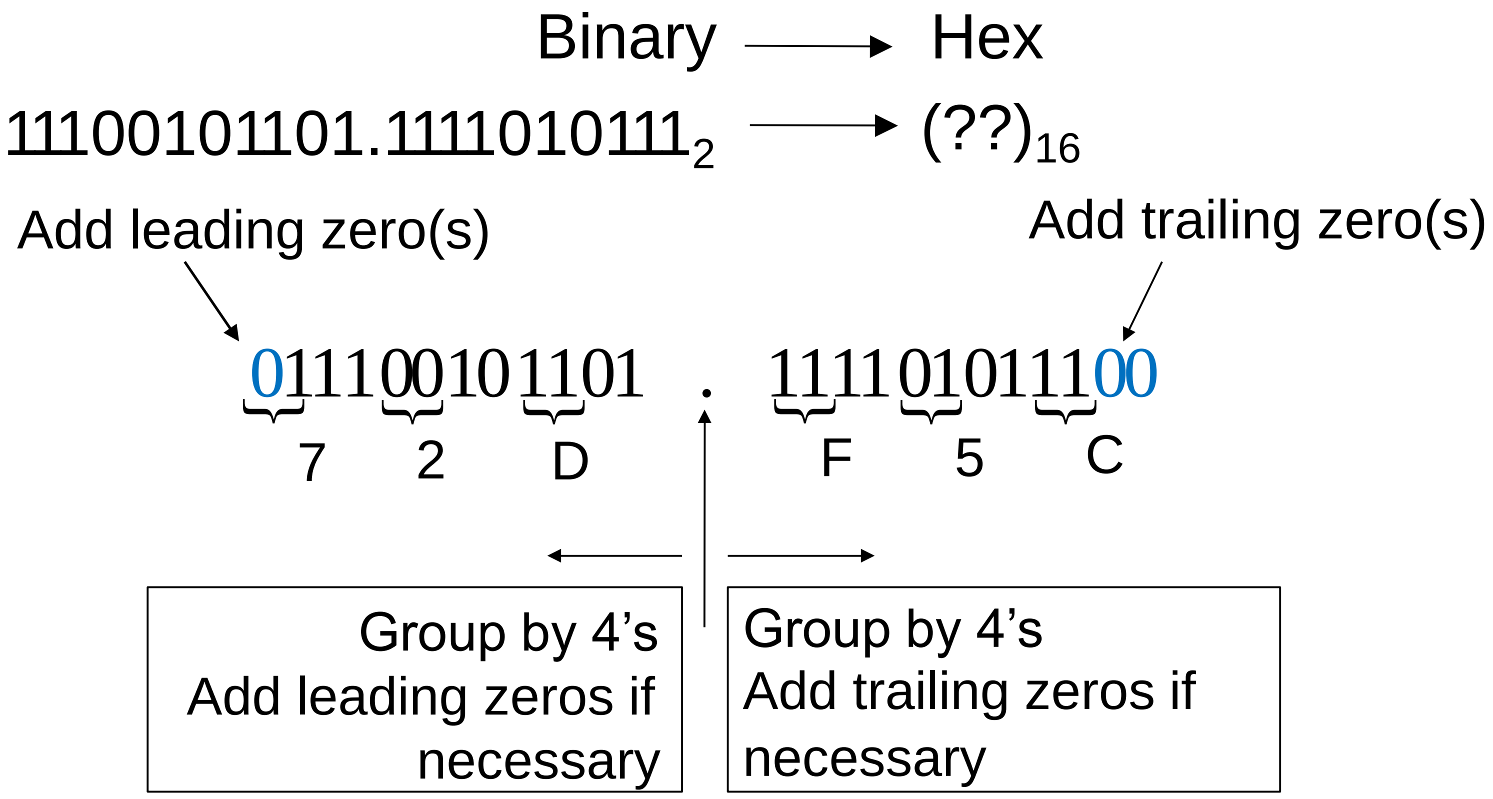
$\underbrace{011}_{3}\ \underbrace{001}_{1}\ \underbrace{110}_{6}\ .\ \underbrace{010}_{2}\ \underbrace{110}_{6}\ \underbrace{100}_{4}$

Group by 3's
Add leading zeros if necessary

Group by 3's
Add trailing zeros if necessary

$$11001110.0101101_2 = 316.264_8$$

Conversion: Binary to Hex



Binary → Hex

11100101101.1111010111_2 → $(??)_{16}$

Add leading zero(s)

Add trailing zero(s)

$\underbrace{0111}_{7}\,\underbrace{0010}_{2}\,\underbrace{1101}_{D}\;.\;\underbrace{1111}_{F}\,\underbrace{0101}_{5}\,\underbrace{1100}_{C}$

Group by 4’s
Add leading zeros if necessary

Group by 4’s
Add trailing zeros if necessary

$= 72D.F5C_{16}$

§2.3 Operands of the Computer Hardware

Conversion: Hex to Binary

Hex → Binary

$B9A4.E6C_{16}$ → $(??)_2$

Discard trailing zero(s)

$$\underbrace{1011}_{B}\,\underbrace{1001}_{9}\,\underbrace{1010}_{A}\,\underbrace{0100}_{4}\;.\;\underbrace{1110}_{E}\,\underbrace{0110}_{6}\,\underbrace{1100}_{C}$$

$1011100110100100.1110011011_2$

Conversion: Hex to Decimal

Hex → Decimal

$B63.4C_{16} \longrightarrow (??)_{10}$

16^2	16^1	16^0	16^{-1}	16^{-2}
B (=11)	6	3	4	C (=12)
= 2816 + 96 + 3 + 0.25 + 0.046875 = 2915.296875				

$$11\times16^2+6\times16^1+3\times16^0\,.\,4\times16^{-1}+12\times16^{-2}=(2915.296875)_{10}$$

§2.3 Operands of the Computer Hardware

Conversion: Activity 1

- Convert the hexadecimal number A59.FCE to binary
- Convert the decimal number 166.34 into binary

Activity 1: Solution

- Convert the hexadecimal number A59.FCE to binary

$$\underbrace{1010}\ \ \underbrace{0101}\ \ \underbrace{1001}\ \bullet\ \underbrace{1111}\ \ \underbrace{1100}\ \ \underbrace{1110}$$

- Convert the decimal number 166.34 into binary

$$\begin{array}{r} 83 \\ 2\overline{)166} \\ \underline{166} \\ 0 \end{array} \leftarrow \begin{array}{r} 41 \\ 2\overline{)\ 83} \\ \underline{82} \\ 1 \end{array} \leftarrow \begin{array}{r} 20 \\ 2\overline{)41} \\ \underline{40} \\ 1 \end{array} \leftarrow \begin{array}{r} 10 \\ 2\overline{)20} \\ \underline{20} \\ 0 \end{array} \leftarrow \begin{array}{r} 5 \\ 2\overline{)10} \\ \underline{10} \\ 0 \end{array} \leftarrow \begin{array}{r} 2 \\ 2\overline{)5} \\ \underline{4} \\ 1 \end{array} \leftarrow \begin{array}{r} 1 \\ 2\overline{)2} \\ \underline{2} \\ 0 \end{array} \leftarrow \begin{array}{r} 0 \\ 2\overline{)1} \\ \underline{0} \\ 1 \end{array}$$

$$.34 \times 2 = 0.68 \rightarrow .68 \times 2 = 1.36 \rightarrow .36 \times 2 = 0.72 \rightarrow .72 \times 2 = 1.44.....$$

$$(\text{A59.FCE})_{16} = (10100110.0101\ldots)_{2}$$

Binary Numbers

- How many distinct numbers can be represented by *n* bits?

No. of bits	Distinct nos.
1	2 {0,1}
2	4 {00, 01, 10, 11}
3	8 {000, 001, 010, 011, 100, 101, 110, 111}
n	2^n

- Number of permutations double with every extra bit
- 2^n *unique* numbers can be represented by *n* bits

Number System and Computers

- Some tips
  - Binary numbers often grouped in fours for easy reading
  - 1 byte=8-bit, 1 word = 4-byte (32 bits)
  - In computer programs (e.g. Verilog, C) by default decimal is assumed
  - To represent other number bases use

System	Representation	Example for 20
Hexadecimal	0x...	0x14
Binary	0b...	0b10100
Octal	0o… (zero and ‘O’)	0o24

Number System and Computers(2)

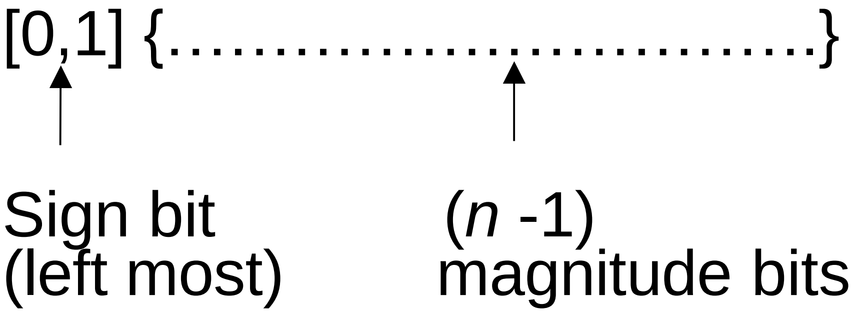
- Addresses often written in Hex
  - Most compact representation
  - Easy to understand given their hardware structure
  - For a range 0x000 – 0xFFF, we can immediately see that 12 bits are needed, 4K locations
  - Tip: 10 bits = 1K

Negative Number Representation

- Three kinds of representations are common:

1. Signed Magnitude (SM)
2. One’s Complement
3. Two’s Complement

Signed Magnitude Representation



[0,1] {…………………………….}

Sign bit
(left most)

(*n* -1)
magnitude bits

- 0 indicates +ve
- 1 indicates -ve

8 bit representation for +13 is 0 0001101

8 bit representation for -13 is 1 0001101

1’s Complement Notation

Let *N* be an *n*-bit number and *Ñ*(1) be the 1’s Complement of the number. Then,

$$\tilde{N}(1) = 2^{n} - 1 - |N|$$

- The idea is to leave positive numbers as is, but to *represent negative numbers by the 1’s Complement of their magnitude*.
- *Example*: Let *n* = 4. What is the 1’s Complement representation for +6 and -6?
  - +6 is represented as 0110 (as usual in binary)
  - -6 is represented by 1’s complement of its magnitude (6)

1’s Complement Notation (2)

- 1’s C representation can be computed in 2 ways:
  - *Method 1*: 1’s C representation of -6 is:

    $2^4 - 1 - |N| = (16 – 1 – 6)_{10} = (9)_{10} = (1001)_2$

  - *Method 2*: For -6, the magnitude = 6 $= (0110)_2$
    - The 1’s C representation is obtained by complementing the bits of the magnitude: $(1001)_2$

2’s Complement Notation

Let N be an *n* bit number and Ñ(2) be the 2’s Complement of the number. Then,

$$\tilde{N}(2) = 2^{n} - |N|$$

- Again, the idea is to leave positive numbers as is, but to *represent negative numbers by the 2’s C of their magnitude*.
- *Example*: Let *n* = 5. What is 2’s C representation for +11 and -13?
    - +11 is represented as 01011 (as usual in binary)
    - -13 is represented by 2’s complement of its magnitude (13)

2' s Complement Notation (2)

- 2' s C representation can be computed in 2 ways:
  - *Method 1*: 2's C representation of -13 is $2^5 - |N| = (32 - 13)_{10} = (19)_{10} = (10011)_2$
  - *Method 2*: For -13, the magnitude is $13 = (01101)_2$
    - The 2's C representation is obtained by adding 1 to the 1's C of the magnitude
    - $2^5 - |N| = (2^5 - 1 - |N|) + 1 =$ 1's C + 1

$$01101 \xrightarrow[\text{1's C}]{} 10010 \xrightarrow[\text{add 1}]{} 10011$$

Comparing All Signed Notations

4-bit No.	SM	1’ s C	2’ s C
0000	+0	+0	0
0001	1	1	1
0010	2	2	2
0011	3	3	3
0100	4	4	4
0101	5	5	5
0110	6	6	6
0111	7	7	7
1000	-0	-7	-8
1001	-1	-6	-7
1010	-2	-5	-6
1011	-3	-4	-5
1100	-4	-3	-4
1101	-5	-2	-3
1110	-6	-1	-2
1111	-7	-0	-1

- In all 3 representations, a –ve number has a 1 in MSB location
- To handle –ve numbers using *n* bits,
  - = 2^{n-1} symbols can be used for positive numbers
  - = 2^{n-1} symbols can be used for negative umbers
- In 2’ s C notation, only 1 combination used for 0

Unsigned Binary Integers

- Given an n-bit number

$$x = x_{n-1}2^{n-1} + x_{n-2}2^{n-2} + \cdots + x_1 2^1 + x_0 2^0$$

- Range: 0 to $+2^n - 1$
- Example
  - $0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 1011_2$
    $= 0 + \ldots + 1{\times}2^3 + 0{\times}2^2 + 1{\times}2^1 + 1{\times}2^0$
    $= 0 + \ldots + 8 + 0 + 2 + 1 = 11_{10}$
- Using 32 bits
  - 0 to +4,294,967,295

2's-Complement Signed Integers

- Given an n-bit number

$$x = -x_{n-1}2^{n-1} + x_{n-2}2^{n-2} + \cdots + x_1 2^1 + x_0 2^0$$

- Range: -2^{n-1} to $+2^{n-1} - 1$
- Example
  - $1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1100_2$
    $= -1 \times 2^{31} + 1 \times 2^{30} + \ldots + 1 \times 2^2 + 0 \times 2^1 + 0 \times 2^0$
    $= -2{,}147{,}483{,}648 + 2{,}147{,}483{,}644 = -4_{10}$
- Using 32 bits
  - –2,147,483,648 to +2,147,483,647

2’s-Complement Signed Integers(2

- Bit 31 is sign bit
  - 1 for negative numbers
  - 0 for non-negative numbers
- Non-negative numbers have the same unsigned and 2’s-complement representation
- Some specific numbers
  - 0: 0000 0000 … 0000
  - –1: 1111 1111 … 1111
  - Most-negative: 1000 0000 … 0000
  - Most-positive: 0111 1111 … 1111

§2.4 Signed and Unsigned Numbers

Signed Negation

- Complement and add 1
  - Complement means 1 → 0, 0 → 1

$$x + \overline{x} = 1111...111_2 = -1$$

$$\overline{x} + 1 = -x$$

- Example: negate +2
  - $+2 = 0000\ 0000 \ldots 0010_2$
  - $-2 = 1111\ 1111 \ldots 1101_2 + 1$
    $= 1111\ 1111 \ldots 1110_2$

Sign Extension

§2.4 Signed and Unsigned Numbers

- Representing a number using more bits
  - Preserve the numeric value
- In MIPS instruction set
  - `addi`: extend immediate value
  - `lb`, `lh`: extend loaded byte/halfword
  - `beq`, `bne`: extend the displacement
- Replicate the sign bit to the left
  - c.f. unsigned values: extend with 0s
- Examples: 8-bit to 16-bit
  - +2: 0000 0010 => 0000 0000 0000 0010
  - –2: 1111 1110 => 1111 1111 1111 1110

Representing Instructions

- Instructions are encoded in binary
  - Called machine code
- MIPS instructions
  - Encoded as 32-bit instruction words
  - Small number of formats encoding operation code (opcode), register numbers, …
  - Regularity!
- Register numbers
  - $t0 – $t7 are reg's 8 – 15
  - $t8 – $t9 are reg's 24 – 25
  - $s0 – $s7 are reg's 16 – 23

MIPS R-format Instructions

§2.5 Representing Instructions in the Computer

op	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	6 bits

- Instruction fields
  - op: operation code (opcode)
  - rs: first source register number
  - rt: second source register number
  - rd: destination register number
  - shamt: shift amount (00000 for now)
  - funct: function code (extends opcode)

R-format Example

op	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	6 bits

```
add $t0, $s1, $s2
```

special	$s1	$s2	$t0	0	add

0	17	18	8	0	32

000000	10001	10010	01000	00000	100000

$00000010001100100100000000100000_2 = 02324020_{16}$

Hexadecimal

§2.5 Representing Instructions in the Computer

- Base 16
  - Compact representation of bit strings
  - 4 bits per hex digit

0	0000	4	0100	8	1000	c	1100
1	0001	5	0101	9	1001	d	1101
2	0010	6	0110	a	1010	e	1110
3	0011	7	0111	b	1011	f	1111

- Example: eca8 6420
  - 1110 1100 1010 1000 0110 0100 0010 0000

MIPS I-format Instructions

§2.5 Representing Instructions in the Computer

op	rs	rt	constant or address
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	16 bits

- Immediate arithmetic and load/store instructions
  - rt: destination or source register number
  - Constant: $–2^{15}$ to $+2^{15} – 1$
  - Address: offset added to base address in rs
- *Design Principle 4:* Good design demands good compromises
  - Different formats complicate decoding, but allow 32-bit instructions uniformly
  - Keep formats as similar as possible

MIPS I-format Example

op	rs	rt	constant or address
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	16 bits

lw $t0, 32($s3) # Temporary reg $t0 gets A[8]

lw	$s3	$t0	address
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	16 bits

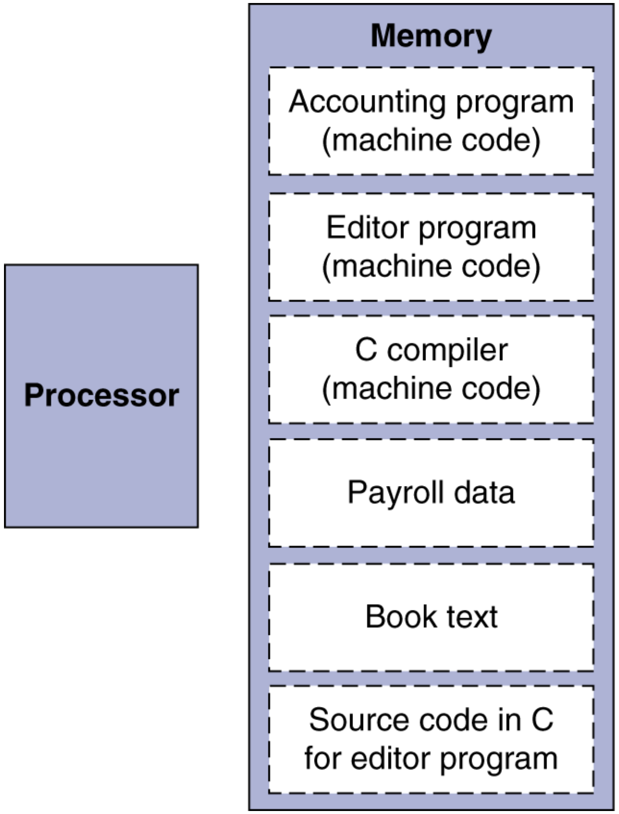
35	19	8	32
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	16 bits

100011	10011	01000	0000000000100000
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	16 bits

§2.5 Representing Instructions in the Computer

Stored Program Computers

The BIG Picture


Memory
Accounting program (machine code)
Editor program (machine code)
C compiler (machine code)
Payroll data
Book text
Source code in C for editor program
Processor

- Instructions represented in binary, just like data
- Instructions and data stored in memory
- Programs can operate on programs
  - e.g., compilers, linkers, …
- Binary compatibility allows compiled programs to work on different computers
  - Standardized ISAs

Logical Operations

- Instructions for bitwise manipulation

Operation	C	Java	MIPS
Shift left	<<	<<	`sll`
Shift right	>>	>>>	`srl`
Bitwise AND	&	&	`and, andi`
Bitwise OR	|	|	`or, ori`
Bitwise NOT	~	~	`nor`

- Useful for extracting and inserting groups of bits in a word

Shift Operations

op	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	6 bits

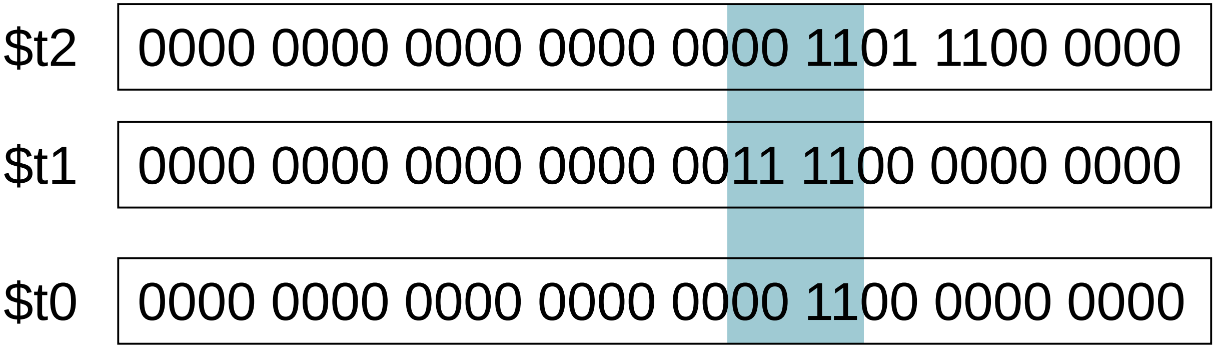
- shamt: how many positions to shift
- Shift left logical
  - Shift left and fill with 0 bits
  - `sll` by *i* bits multiplies by 2^i
- Shift right logical
  - Shift right and fill with 0 bits
  - `srl` by *i* bits divides by 2^i (unsigned only)

AND Operations

§2.6 Logical Operations

- Useful to mask bits in a word
  - Select some bits, clear others to 0

```
and $t0, $t1, $t2
```



$t2 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 1101 1100 0000

$t1 0000 0000 0000 0000 0011 1100 0000 0000

$t0 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 1100 0000 0000

OR Operations

- Useful to include bits in a word
  - Set some bits to 1, leave others unchanged

```
or $t0, $t1, $t2
```

$t2	0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 1101 1100 0000
$t1	0000 0000 0000 0000 0011 1100 0000 0000
$t0	0000 0000 0000 0000 0011 1101 1100 0000

NOT Operations

- Useful to invert bits in a word
  - Change 0 to 1, and 1 to 0
- MIPS has NOR 3-operand instruction
  - a NOR b == NOT (a OR b)

```
nor $t0, $t1, $zero
```

Register 0: always read as zero

```
$t1   0000 0000 0000 0000 0011 1100 0000 0000
$t0   1111 1111  1111 1111  1100  0011 1111 1111
```

Conditional Operations

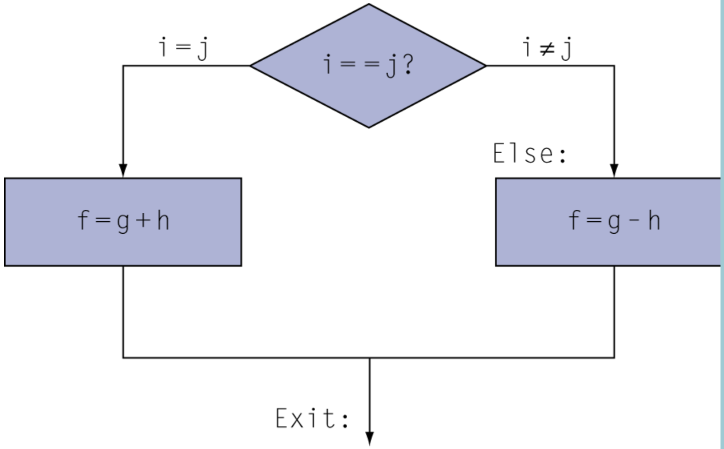
- Branch to a labeled instruction if a condition is true
  - Otherwise, continue sequentially
- `beq rs, rt, L1`
  - if (rs == rt) branch to instruction labeled L1;
- `bne rs, rt, L1`
  - if (rs != rt) branch to instruction labeled L1;
- `j L1`
  - unconditional jump to instruction labeled L1

Compiling If Statements

- C code:

```
if (i==j) f = g+h;
else f = g-h;
```

  - f, g,h in $s0, $s1, $s2



- Compiled MIPS code:

```
      bne $s3, $s4, Else
      add $s0, $s1, $s2
      j   Exit
Else: sub $s0, $s1, $s2
Exit: …
```

Assembler calculates addresses

Compiling Loop Statements

- C code:

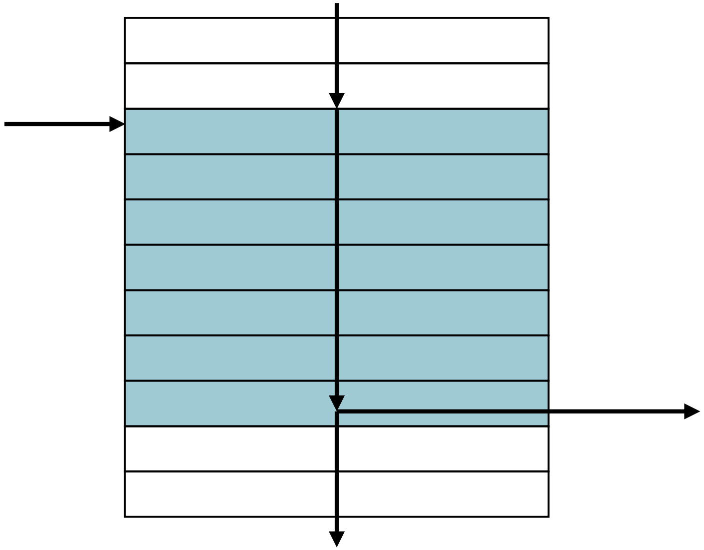
```
while (save[i] == k) i += 1;
```

  - i in $s3, k in $s5, address of save in $s6
- Compiled MIPS code:

```
Loop: sll  $t1, $s3, 2
      add  $t1, $t1, $s6
      lw   $t0, 0($t1)
      bne  $t0, $s5, Exit
      addi $s3, $s3, 1
      j    Loop
Exit: …
```

Basic Blocks

- A basic block is a sequence of instructions with
  - No embedded branches (except at end)
  - No branch targets (except at beginning)



- A compiler identifies basic blocks for optimization
- An advanced processor can accelerate execution of basic blocks

§2.7 Instructions for Making Decisions

More Conditional Operations

- Set result to 1 if a condition is true
  - Otherwise, set to 0
- `slt rd, rs, rt`
  - if (rs < rt) rd = 1; else rd = 0;
- `slti rt, rs, constant`
  - if (rs < constant) rt = 1; else rt = 0;
- Use in combination with beq, bne

```
slt $t0, $s1, $s2  # if ($s1 < $s2)
bne $t0, $zero, L  #   branch to L
```

Branch Instruction Design

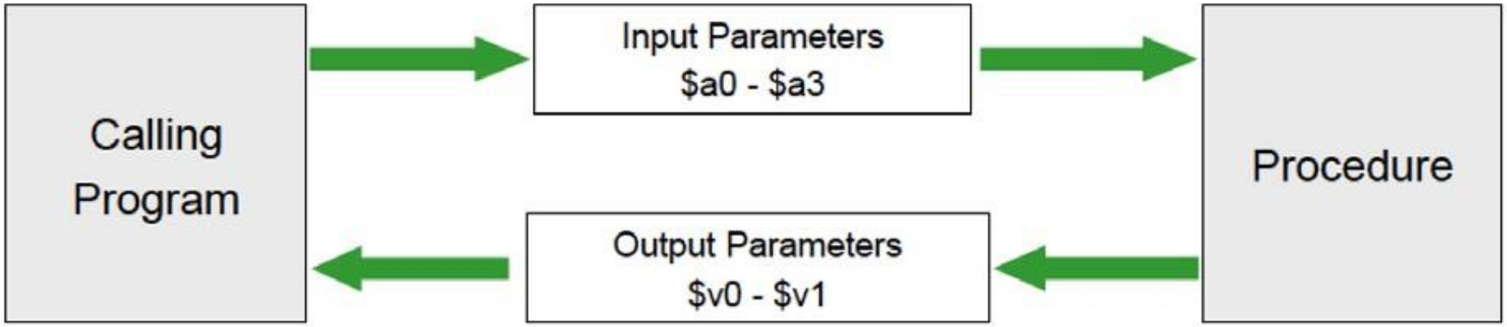
- Why not `blt`, `bge`, etc?
- Hardware for <, ≥, … slower than =, ≠
  - Combining with branch involves more work per instruction, requiring a slower clock
  - All instructions penalized!
- `beq` and `bne` are the common case
- This is a good design compromise

Signed vs. Unsigned

- Signed comparison: `slt`, `slti`
- Unsigned comparison: `sltu`, `sltui`
- Example
  - $s0 = 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111
  - $s1 = 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0001
  - `slt  $t0, $s0, $s1  # signed`
    - –1 < +1 ⇒ $t0 = 1
  - `sltu $t0, $s0, $s1  # unsigned`
    - +4,294,967,295 > +1 ⇒ $t0 = 0

Procedure Calling

- Procedure (function) performs a specific task and returns results to caller.



Procedure Calling

- Calling program
  - Place parameters in registers $a0 - $a3
  - Transfer control to procedure
- Called procedure
  - Acquire storage for procedure, save values of required register(s) on stack $sp
  - Perform procedure's operations, restore the values of registers that it used
  - Place result in register for caller $v0 - $v1
  - Return to place of call by returning to instruction whose address is saved in $ra

Register Usage

- $a0 – $a3: arguments (reg’s 4 – 7)
- $v0, $v1: result values (reg’s 2 and 3)
- $t0 – $t9: temporaries
  - Can be overwritten by callee
- $s0 – $s7: saved
  - Must be saved/restored by callee
- $gp: global pointer for static data (reg 28)
- $sp: stack pointer for dynamic data (reg 29)
- $fp: frame pointer (reg 30)
- $ra: return address (reg 31)

Procedure Call Instructions

- Procedure call: jump and link

  ```
  jal ProcedureLabel
  ```

  - Address of following instruction put in $ra
  - Jumps to target address
- Procedure return: jump register

  ```
  jr $ra
  ```

  - Copies $ra to program counter
  - Can also be used for computed jumps
    - e.g., for case/switch statements

Leaf Procedure Example

- C code:

```
int leaf_example (int g, h, i, j)
{ int f;
  f = (g + h) - (i + j);
  return f;
}
```

  - Arguments g, …, j in $a0, …, $a3
  - f in $s0 (hence, need to save $s0 on stack)
  - Result in $v0

Leaf Procedure Example (2)

- MIPS code:

```
leaf_example:
   addi $sp, $sp, -4
   sw   $s0, 0($sp)
   add  $t0, $a0, $a1
   add  $t1, $a2, $a3
   sub  $s0, $t0, $t1
   add  $v0, $s0, $zero
   lw   $s0, 0($sp)
   addi $sp, $sp, 4
   jr   $ra
```

Save $s0 on stack

Procedure body

Result

Restore $s0

Return

Leaf Procedure Example (3)

§2.7 Instructions for Making Decisions

- MIPS code for calling function:

```
main:

…
jal leaf_example
…
```

Non-Leaf Procedures

- Procedures that call other procedures
- For nested call, caller needs to save on the stack:
  - Its return address
  - Any arguments and temporaries needed after the call
- Restore from the stack after the call

Non-Leaf Procedure Example

- C code:

```
int fact (int n)
{
  if (n < 1) return 1;
  else return n * fact(n - 1);
}
```

  - Argument n in $a0
  - Result in $v0

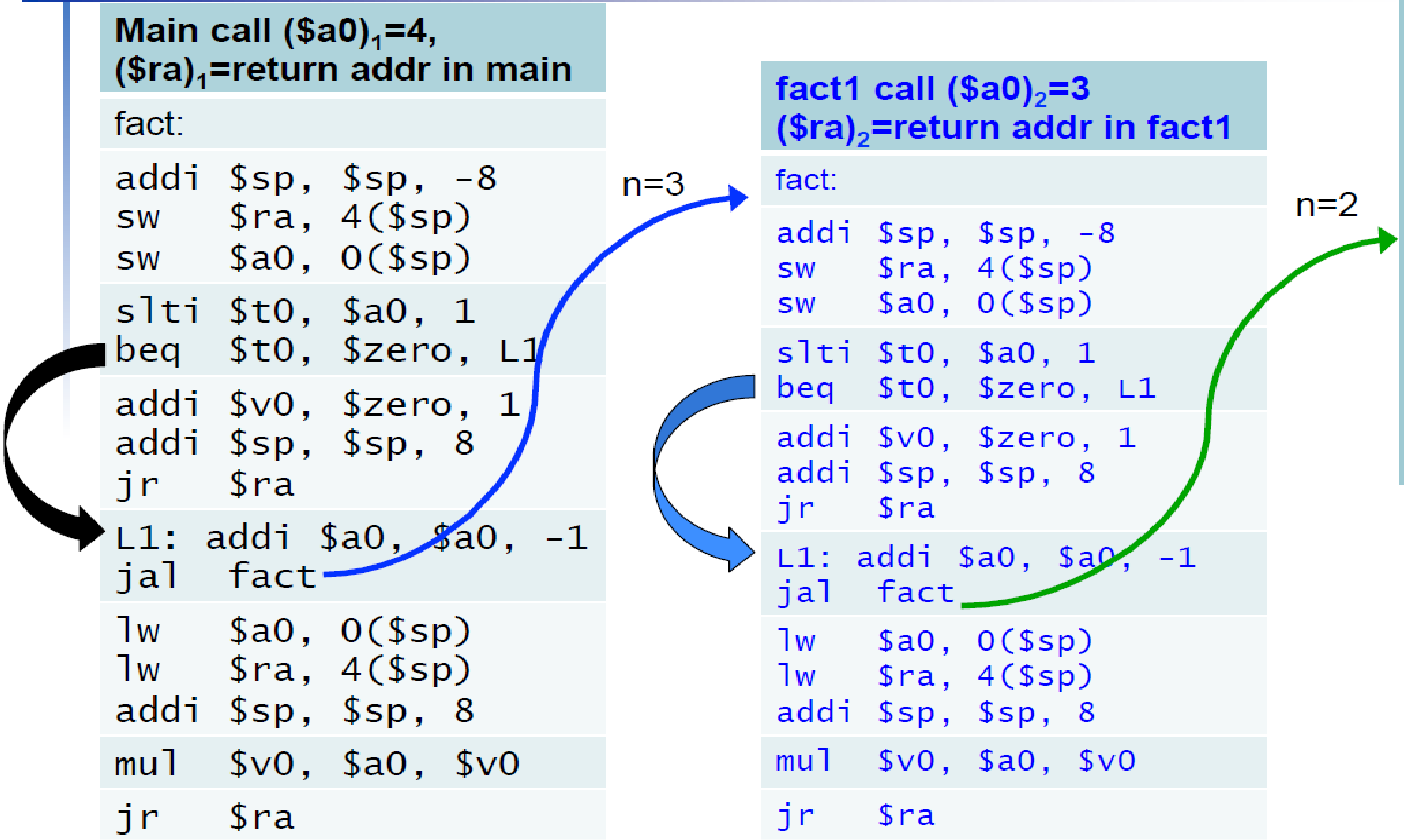
§2.7 Instructions for Making Decisions

Non-Leaf Procedure Example 2

- MIPS code:

```
fact:
    addi $sp, $sp, -8     # adjust stack for 2 items
    sw   $ra, 4($sp)      # save return address
    sw   $a0, 0($sp)      # save argument
    slti $t0, $a0, 1      # test for n < 1
    beq  $t0, $zero, L1
    addi $v0, $zero, 1    # if so, result is 1
    addi $sp, $sp, 8      #   pop 2 items from stack
    jr   $ra              #   and return
L1: addi $a0, $a0, -1     # else decrement n
    jal  fact             # recursive call
    lw   $a0, 0($sp)      # restore original n
    lw   $ra, 4($sp)      #   and return address
    addi $sp, $sp, 8      # pop 2 items from stack
    mul  $v0, $a0, $v0    # multiply to get result
    jr   $ra              # and return
```

Non-Leaf Procedure Example 3



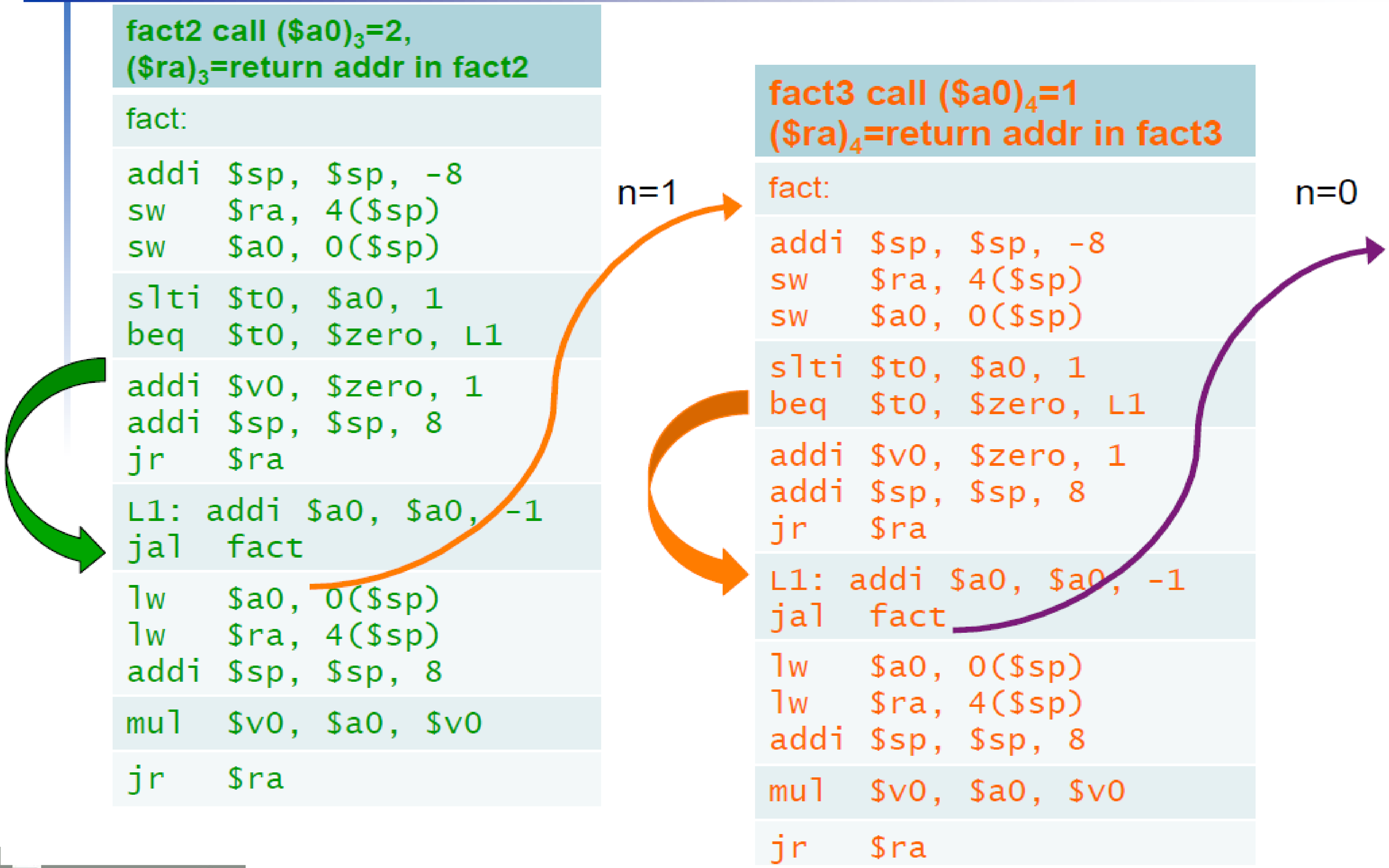
Main call $(\$a0)_1=4$,
$(\$ra)_1$=return addr in main

```
fact:
addi  $sp, $sp, -8
sw    $ra, 4($sp)
sw    $a0, 0($sp)
slti  $t0, $a0, 1
beq   $t0, $zero, L1
addi  $v0, $zero, 1
addi  $sp, $sp, 8
jr    $ra
L1: addi  $a0, $a0, -1
jal   fact
lw    $a0, 0($sp)
lw    $ra, 4($sp)
addi  $sp, $sp, 8
mul   $v0, $a0, $v0
jr    $ra
```

fact1 call $(\$a0)_2=3$
$(\$ra)_2$=return addr in fact1

```
fact:
addi  $sp, $sp, -8
sw    $ra, 4($sp)
sw    $a0, 0($sp)
slti  $t0, $a0, 1
beq   $t0, $zero, L1
addi  $v0, $zero, 1
addi  $sp, $sp, 8
jr    $ra
L1: addi  $a0, $a0, -1
jal   fact
lw    $a0, 0($sp)
lw    $ra, 4($sp)
addi  $sp, $sp, 8
mul   $v0, $a0, $v0
jr    $ra
```

Non-Leaf Procedure Example 4



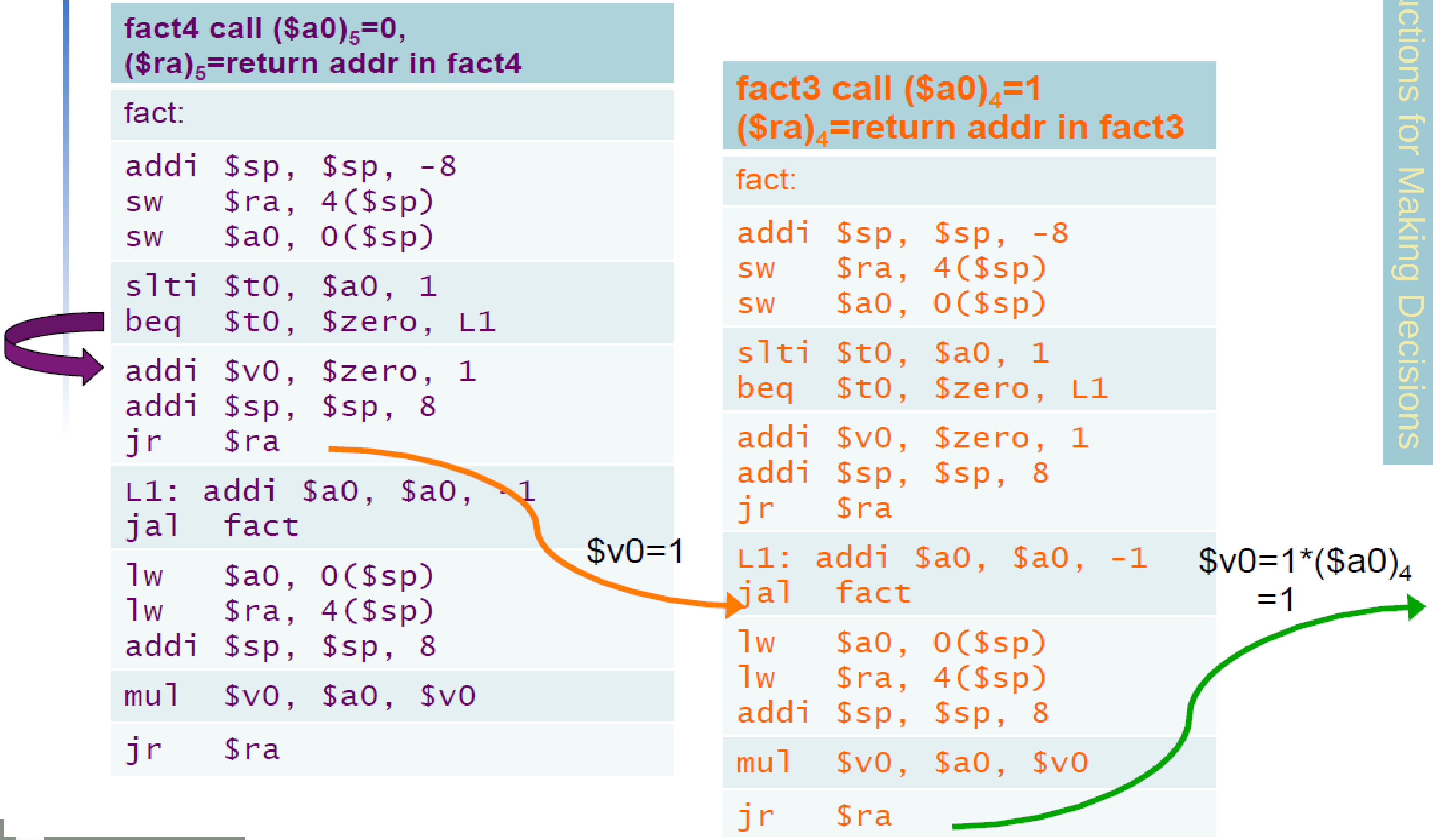
fact2 call ($a0)$_3$=2,
($ra)$_3$=return addr in fact2

```
fact:
addi $sp, $sp, -8
sw   $ra, 4($sp)
sw   $a0, 0($sp)
slti $t0, $a0, 1
beq  $t0, $zero, L1
addi $v0, $zero, 1
addi $sp, $sp, 8
jr   $ra
L1: addi $a0, $a0, -1
jal  fact
lw   $a0, 0($sp)
lw   $ra, 4($sp)
addi $sp, $sp, 8
mul  $v0, $a0, $v0
jr   $ra
```

fact3 call ($a0)$_4$=1
($ra)$_4$=return addr in fact3

```
fact:
addi $sp, $sp, -8
sw   $ra, 4($sp)
sw   $a0, 0($sp)
slti $t0, $a0, 1
beq  $t0, $zero, L1
addi $v0, $zero, 1
addi $sp, $sp, 8
jr   $ra
L1: addi $a0, $a0, -1
jal  fact
lw   $a0, 0($sp)
lw   $ra, 4($sp)
addi $sp, $sp, 8
mul  $v0, $a0, $v0
jr   $ra
```

Non-Leaf Procedure Example 5



fact4 call ($a0)$_5$=0,
($ra)$_5$=return addr in fact4

```
fact:
addi  $sp, $sp, -8
sw    $ra, 4($sp)
sw    $a0, 0($sp)
slti  $t0, $a0, 1
beq   $t0, $zero, L1
addi  $v0, $zero, 1
addi  $sp, $sp, 8
jr    $ra
L1: addi  $a0, $a0, -1
jal   fact
lw    $a0, 0($sp)
lw    $ra, 4($sp)
addi  $sp, $sp, 8
mul   $v0, $a0, $v0
jr    $ra
```

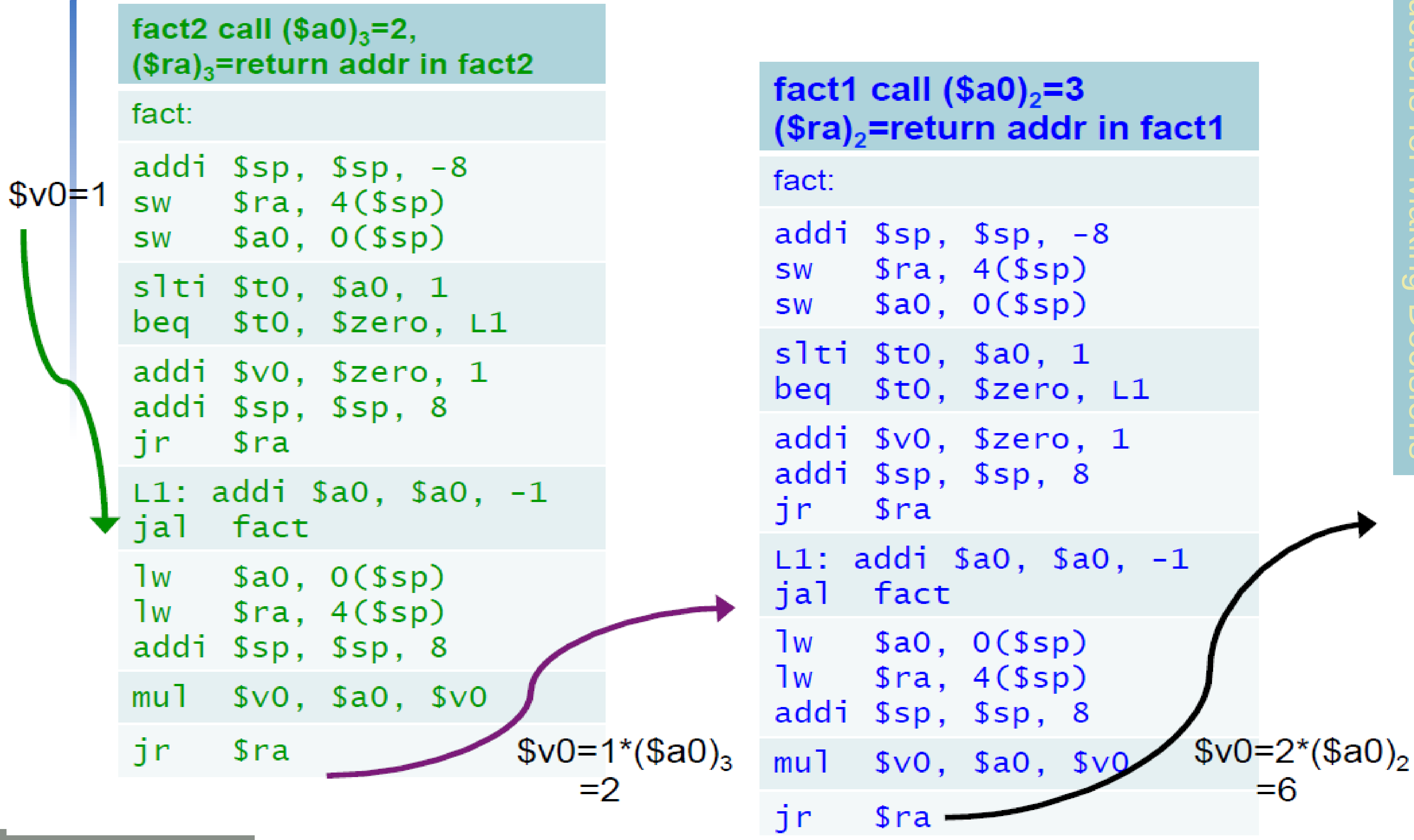
$v0=1

fact3 call ($a0)$_4$=1
($ra)$_4$=return addr in fact3

```
fact:
addi  $sp, $sp, -8
sw    $ra, 4($sp)
sw    $a0, 0($sp)
slti  $t0, $a0, 1
beq   $t0, $zero, L1
addi  $v0, $zero, 1
addi  $sp, $sp, 8
jr    $ra
L1: addi  $a0, $a0, -1
jal   fact
lw    $a0, 0($sp)
lw    $ra, 4($sp)
addi  $sp, $sp, 8
mul   $v0, $a0, $v0
jr    $ra
```

$v0=1*($a0)$_4$
=1

Non-Leaf Procedure Example 6



fact2 call $(\$a0)_3$=2, $(\$ra)_3$=return addr in fact2

```
fact:
addi  $sp, $sp, -8
sw    $ra, 4($sp)
sw    $a0, 0($sp)
slti  $t0, $a0, 1
beq   $t0, $zero, L1
addi  $v0, $zero, 1
addi  $sp, $sp, 8
jr    $ra
L1: addi  $a0, $a0, -1
jal   fact
lw    $a0, 0($sp)
lw    $ra, 4($sp)
addi  $sp, $sp, 8
mul   $v0, $a0, $v0
jr    $ra
```

$v0=1

$v0=1*($a0)$_3$ =2

fact1 call $(\$a0)_2$=3 $(\$ra)_2$=return addr in fact1

```
fact:
addi  $sp, $sp, -8
sw    $ra, 4($sp)
sw    $a0, 0($sp)
slti  $t0, $a0, 1
beq   $t0, $zero, L1
addi  $v0, $zero, 1
addi  $sp, $sp, 8
jr    $ra
L1: addi  $a0, $a0, -1
jal   fact
lw    $a0, 0($sp)
lw    $ra, 4($sp)
addi  $sp, $sp, 8
mul   $v0, $a0, $v0
jr    $ra
```

$v0=2*($a0)$_2$ =6

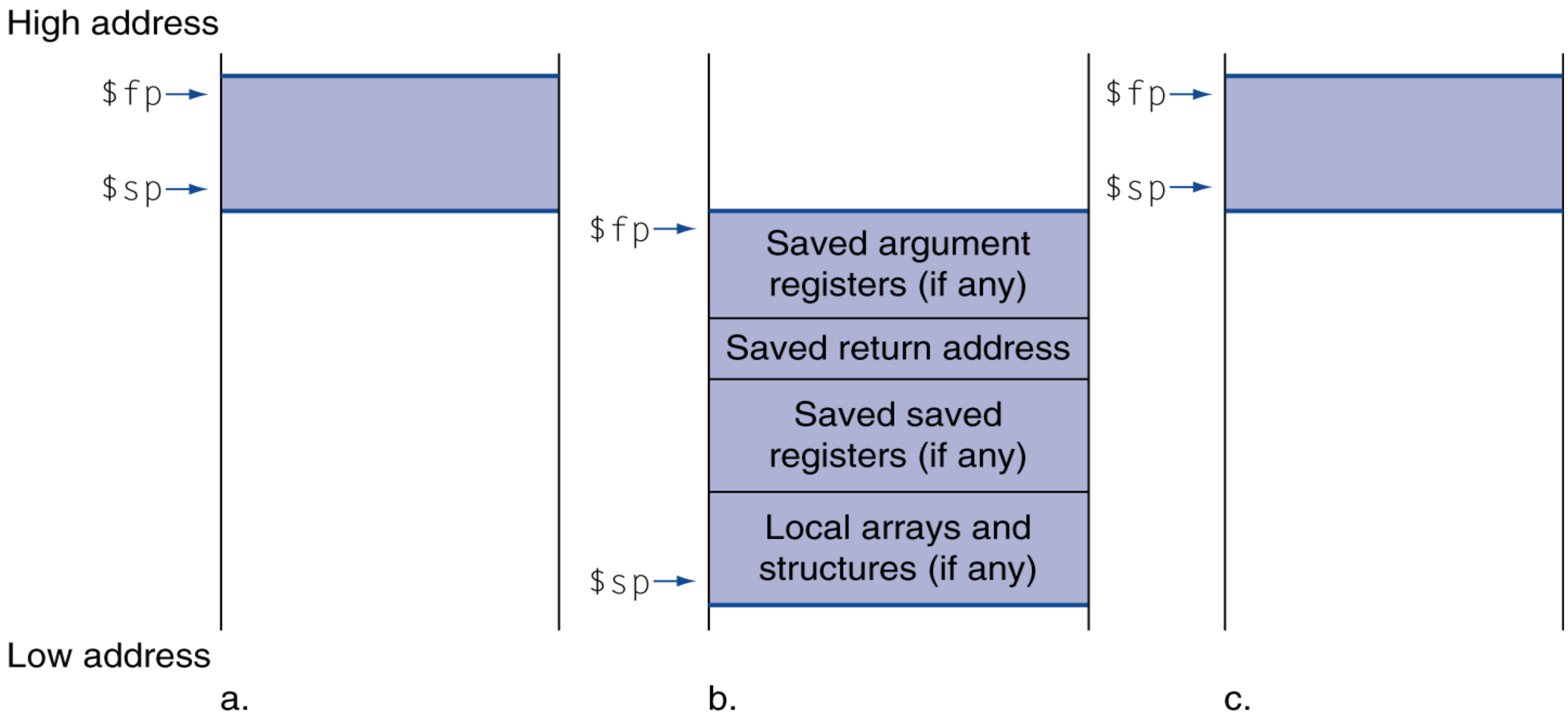
Non-Leaf Procedure Example 7

Main call ($a0)$_1$=4,
($ra)$_1$=return addr in main

$v0= **6**

```
fact:
addi $sp, $sp, -8
sw   $ra, 4($sp)
sw   $a0, 0($sp)
slti $t0, $a0, 1
beq  $t0, $zero, L1
addi $v0, $zero, 1
addi $sp, $sp, 8
jr   $ra
L1: addi $a0, $a0, -1
jal  fact
lw   $a0, 0($sp)
lw   $ra, 4($sp)
addi $sp, $sp, 8
mul  $v0, $a0, $v0        #$v0=6*($a0)1=24
jr   $ra
```

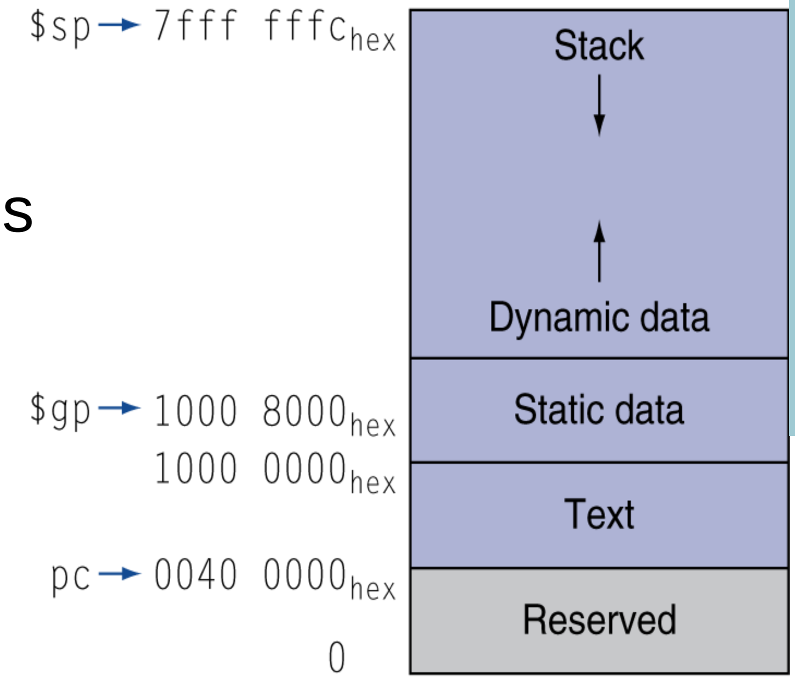
Local Data on the Stack


High address
$fp
$sp
$fp
$sp
$fp
$sp
Saved argument registers (if any)
Saved return address
Saved saved registers (if any)
Local arrays and structures (if any)
Low address
a.
b.
c.

- Local data allocated by callee
  - e.g., C automatic variables
- Procedure frame (activation record)
  - Used by some compilers to manage stack storage

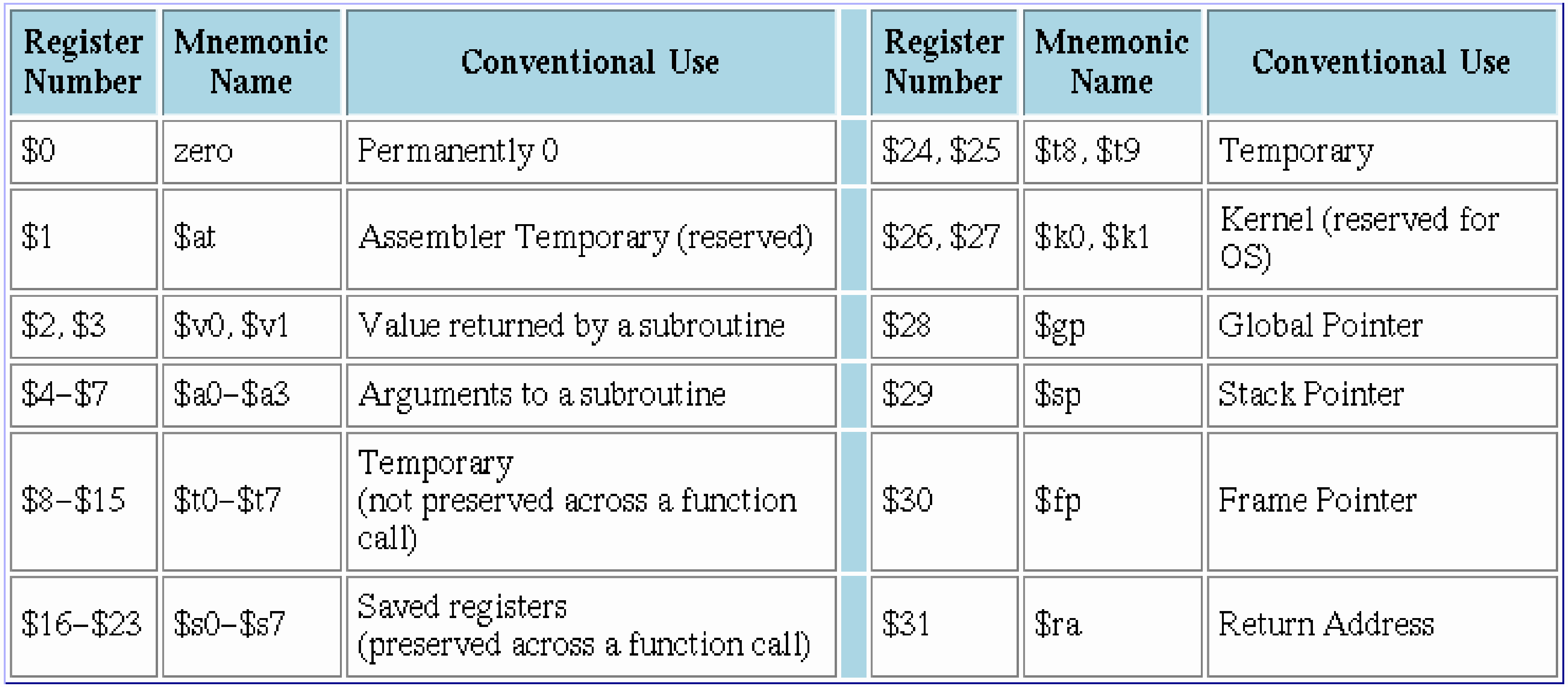
Memory Layout

- Text: program code
- Static data: global variables
  - e.g., static variables in C, constant arrays and strings
  - $gp initialized to address allowing ±offsets into this segment
- Dynamic data: heap
  - E.g., malloc in C, new in Java
- Stack: automatic storage



Register Summary

- The following registers are preserved on call
- $s0 - $s7, $gp, $sp, $fp, and $ra

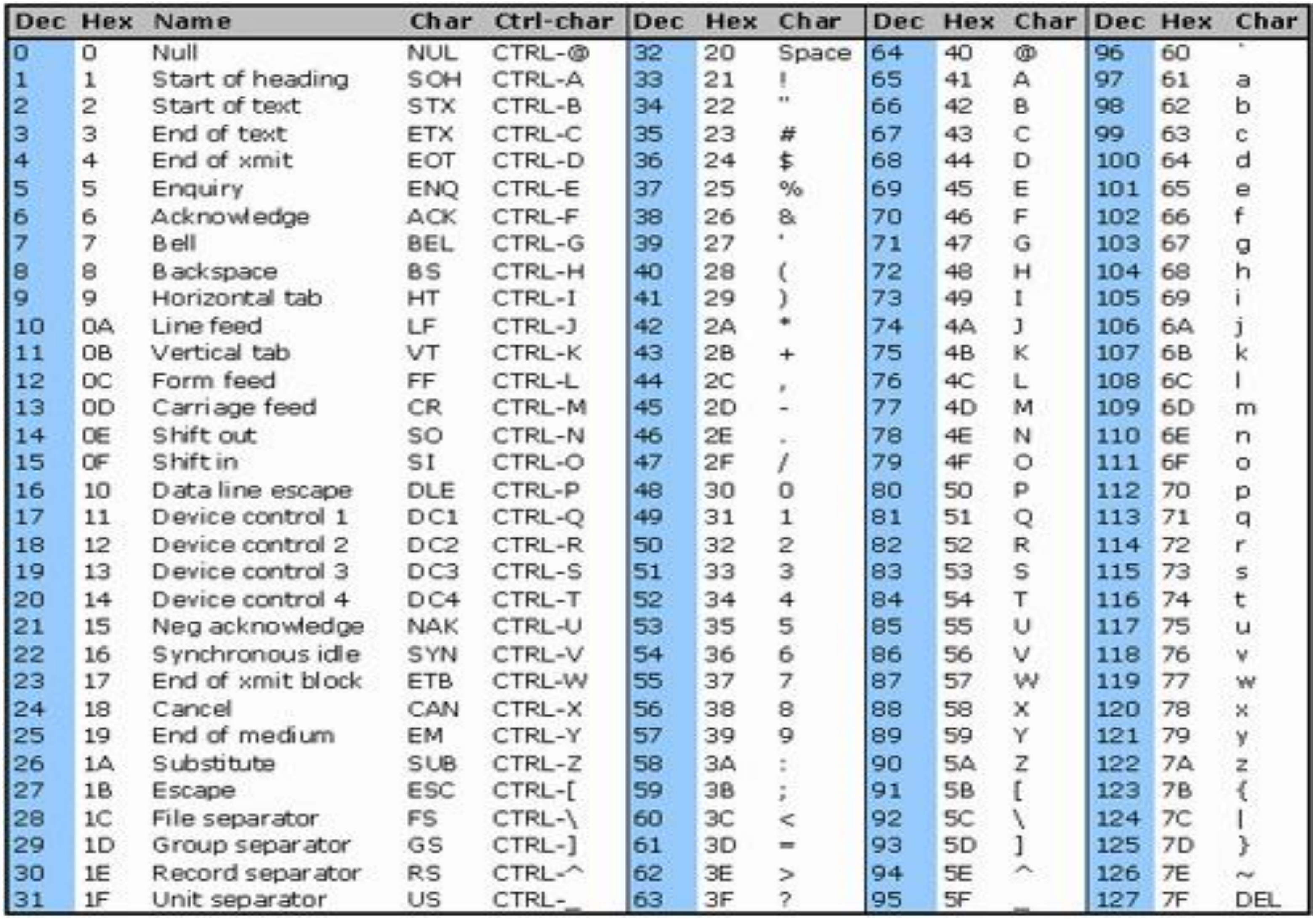


Register Number	Mnemonic Name	Conventional Use	Register Number	Mnemonic Name	Conventional Use
$0	zero	Permanently 0	$24, $25	$t8, $t9	Temporary
$1	$at	Assembler Temporary (reserved)	$26, $27	$k0, $k1	Kernel (reserved for OS)
$2, $3	$v0, $v1	Value returned by a subroutine	$28	$gp	Global Pointer
$4–$7	$a0–$a3	Arguments to a subroutine	$29	$sp	Stack Pointer
$8–$15	$t0–$t7	Temporary (not preserved across a function call)	$30	$fp	Frame Pointer
$16–$23	$s0–$s7	Saved registers (preserved across a function call)	$31	$ra	Return Address

Character Data

- Byte-encoded character sets
  - ASCII: (7-bit) 128 characters
    - 95 graphic, 33 control
  - Latin-1: (8-bit) 256 characters
    - ASCII, +96 more graphic characters
- Unicode: 32-bit character set
  - Used in Java, C++ wide characters, …
  - Most of the world’s alphabets, plus symbols
  - UTF-8, UTF-16: variable-length encodings

ASCII Representation of Characters



Dec	Hex	Name	Char	Ctrl-char	Dec	Hex	Char	Dec	Hex	Char	Dec	Hex	Char
0	0	Null	NUL	CTRL-@	32	20	Space	64	40	@	96	60	`
1	1	Start of heading	SOH	CTRL-A	33	21	!	65	41	A	97	61	a
2	2	Start of text	STX	CTRL-B	34	22	"	66	42	B	98	62	b
3	3	End of text	ETX	CTRL-C	35	23	#	67	43	C	99	63	c
4	4	End of xmit	EOT	CTRL-D	36	24	$	68	44	D	100	64	d
5	5	Enquiry	ENQ	CTRL-E	37	25	%	69	45	E	101	65	e
6	6	Acknowledge	ACK	CTRL-F	38	26	&	70	46	F	102	66	f
7	7	Bell	BEL	CTRL-G	39	27	'	71	47	G	103	67	g
8	8	Backspace	BS	CTRL-H	40	28	(	72	48	H	104	68	h
9	9	Horizontal tab	HT	CTRL-I	41	29	)	73	49	I	105	69	i
10	0A	Line feed	LF	CTRL-J	42	2A	*	74	4A	J	106	6A	j
11	0B	Vertical tab	VT	CTRL-K	43	2B	+	75	4B	K	107	6B	k
12	0C	Form feed	FF	CTRL-L	44	2C	,	76	4C	L	108	6C	l
13	0D	Carriage feed	CR	CTRL-M	45	2D	-	77	4D	M	109	6D	m
14	0E	Shift out	SO	CTRL-N	46	2E	.	78	4E	N	110	6E	n
15	0F	Shift in	SI	CTRL-O	47	2F	/	79	4F	O	111	6F	o
16	10	Data line escape	DLE	CTRL-P	48	30	0	80	50	P	112	70	p
17	11	Device control 1	DC1	CTRL-Q	49	31	1	81	51	Q	113	71	q
18	12	Device control 2	DC2	CTRL-R	50	32	2	82	52	R	114	72	r
19	13	Device control 3	DC3	CTRL-S	51	33	3	83	53	S	115	73	s
20	14	Device control 4	DC4	CTRL-T	52	34	4	84	54	T	116	74	t
21	15	Neg acknowledge	NAK	CTRL-U	53	35	5	85	55	U	117	75	u
22	16	Synchronous idle	SYN	CTRL-V	54	36	6	86	56	V	118	76	v
23	17	End of xmit block	ETB	CTRL-W	55	37	7	87	57	W	119	77	w
24	18	Cancel	CAN	CTRL-X	56	38	8	88	58	X	120	78	x
25	19	End of medium	EM	CTRL-Y	57	39	9	89	59	Y	121	79	y
26	1A	Substitute	SUB	CTRL-Z	58	3A	:	90	5A	Z	122	7A	z
27	1B	Escape	ESC	CTRL-[	59	3B	;	91	5B	[	123	7B	{
28	1C	File separator	FS	CTRL-\	60	3C	<	92	5C	\	124	7C	|
29	1D	Group separator	GS	CTRL-]	61	3D	=	93	5D	]	125	7D	}
30	1E	Record separator	RS	CTRL-^	62	3E	>	94	5E	^	126	7E	~
31	1F	Unit separator	US	CTRL-_	63	3F	?	95	5F	_	127	7F	DEL

ASCII Characters

- American Standard Code for Information Interchange (ASCII).
- Most computers use 8-bit to represent each character. (Java uses Unicode, which is 16-bit).
- Signs are combination of characters.
- How to load a byte?
  - lb, lbu, sb for byte (ASCII)
  - lh, lhu, sh for half-word instruction (Unicode)

Byte/Halfword Operations

- Could use bitwise operations
- MIPS byte/halfword load/store
  - String processing is a common case

```
lb rt, offset(rs)      lh rt, offset(rs)
```

  - Sign extend to 32 bits in rt

```
lbu rt, offset(rs)     lhu rt, offset(rs)
```

  - Zero extend to 32 bits in rt

```
sb rt, offset(rs)      sh rt, offset(rs)
```

  - Store just rightmost byte/halfword

String Copy Example

- C code:
  - Null-terminated string

```
void strcpy (char x[], char y[])
{ int i;
  i = 0;
  while ((x[i]=y[i])!='\0')
    i += 1;
}
```

  - Addresses of x, y in $a0, $a1
  - i in $s0

String Copy Example

- MIPS code:

```
strcpy:
    addi $sp, $sp, -4      # adjust stack for 1 item
    sw   $s0, 0($sp)       # save $s0
    add  $s0, $zero, $zero # i = 0
L1: add  $t1, $s0, $a1     # addr of y[i] in $t1
    lbu  $t2, 0($t1)       # $t2 = y[i]
    add  $t3, $s0, $a0     # addr of x[i] in $t3
    sb   $t2, 0($t3)       # x[i] = y[i]
    beq  $t2, $zero, L2    # exit loop if y[i] == 0
    addi $s0, $s0, 1       # i = i + 1
    j    L1                # next iteration of loop
L2: lw   $s0, 0($sp)       # restore saved $s0
    addi $sp, $sp, 4       # pop 1 item from stack
    jr   $ra               # and return
```

32-bit Constants

- Most constants are small
  - 16-bit immediate is sufficient
- For the occasional 32-bit constant

```
lui rt, constant
```

  - Copies 16-bit constant to left 16 bits of rt
  - Clears right 16 bits of rt to 0

`lui $s0,61`	0000 0000 0011 1101	0000 0000 0000 0000
`ori $s0,$s0,2304`	0000 0000 0011 1101	0000 1001 0000 0000

§2.10 MIPS Addressing for 32-Bit Immediates and Addresses

Branch Addressing

- Branch instructions specify
  - Opcode, two registers, target address
- Most branch targets are near branch
  - Forward or backward

op	rs	rt	constant or address
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	16 bits

- PC-relative addressing
  - Target address = PC + offset × 4
  - PC already incremented by 4 by this time

Jump Addressing

- Jump (`j` and `jal`) targets could be anywhere in text segment
  - Encode full address in instruction

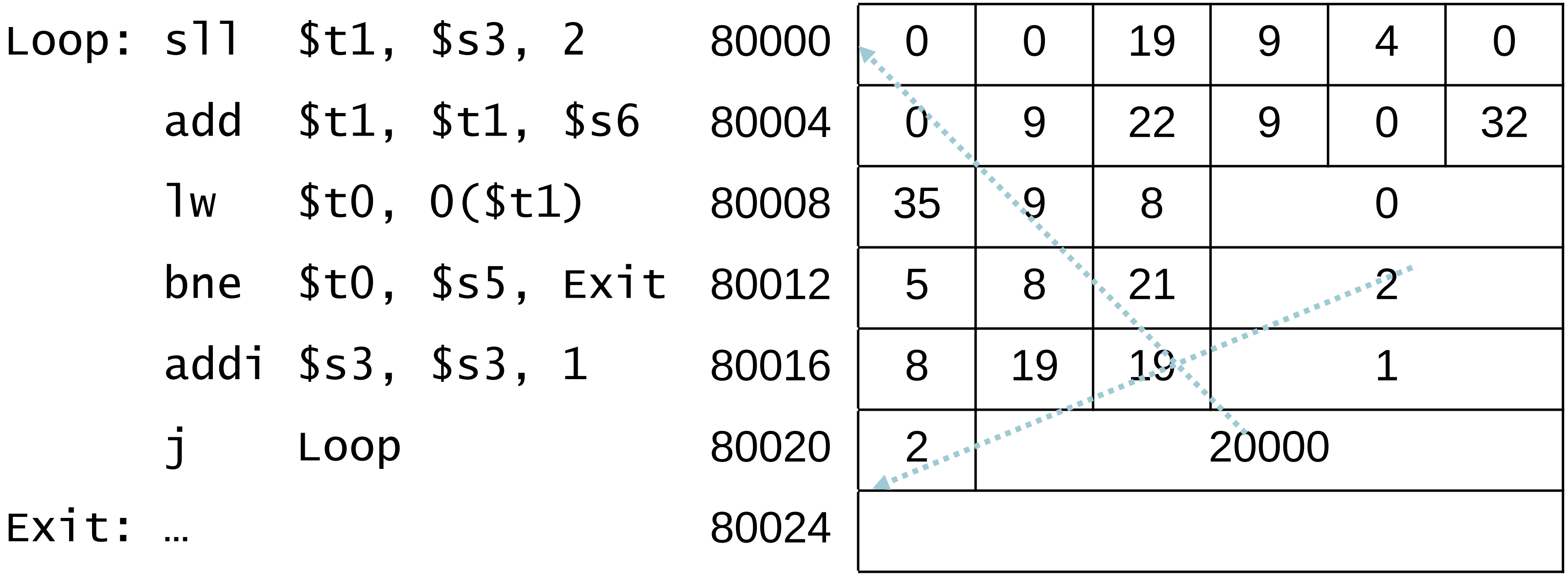
op	address
6 bits	26 bits

- PseudoDirect jump addressing
  - $$\underset{\text{32 bits =}}{\text{Target address =}}\ \underset{\text{4 bits}}{\underline{PC_{31\ldots28}}} : \underset{\text{28 bits}}{\underline{(\text{address} \times 4)}}$$

§2.10 MIPS Addressing for 32-Bit Immediates and Addresses

Target Addressing Example

- Loop code from earlier example
  - Assume Loop at location 80000



`Loop: sll  $t1, $s3, 2`	80000	0	0	19	9	4	0
`      add  $t1, $t1, $s6`	80004	0	9	22	9	0	32
`      lw   $t0, 0($t1)`	80008	35	9	8	0		
`      bne  $t0, $s5, Exit`	80012	5	8	21	2		
`      addi $s3, $s3, 1`	80016	8	19	19	1		
`      j    Loop`	80020	2	20000				
`Exit: …`	80024						

Branching Far Away

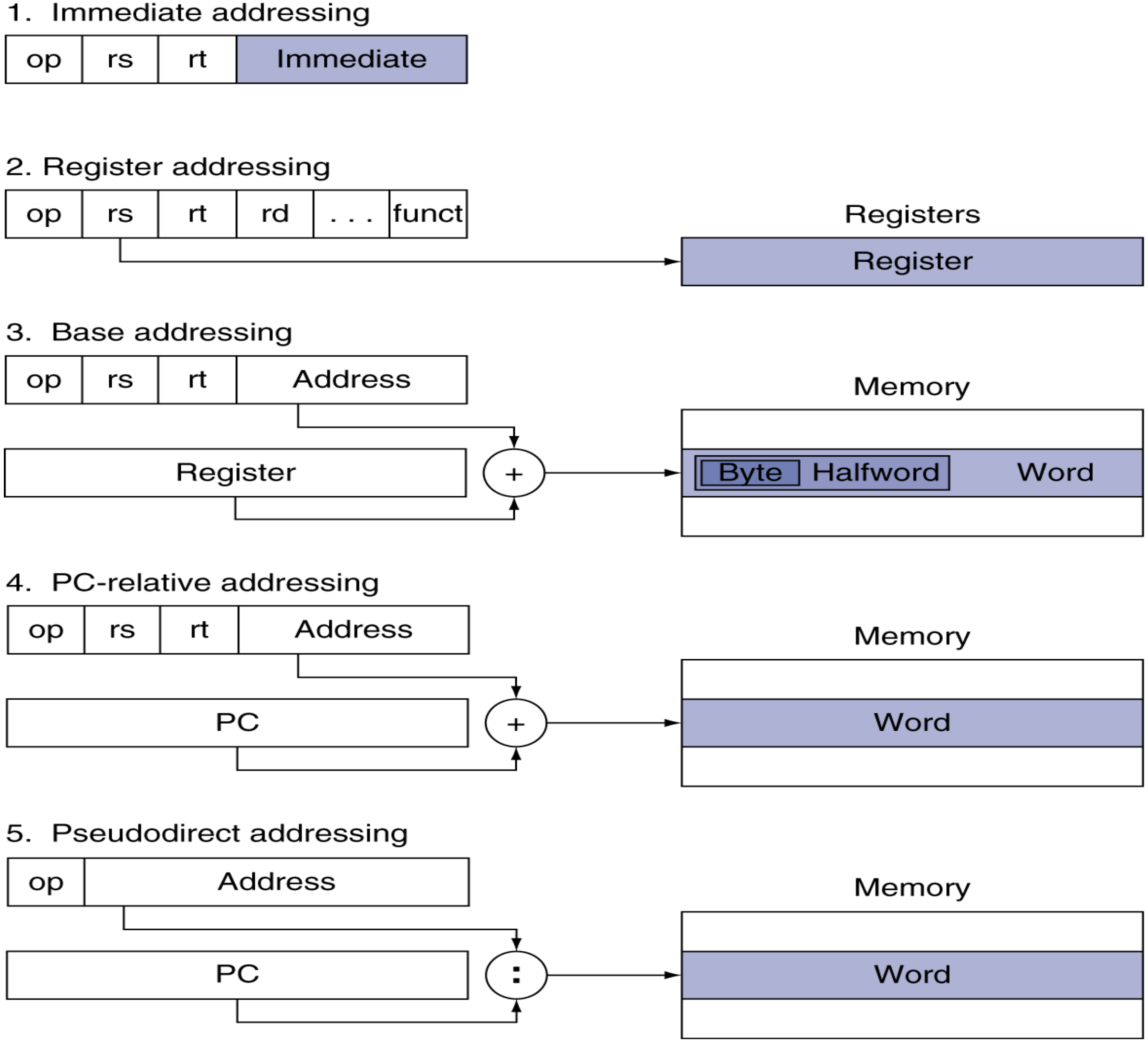
- If branch target is too far to encode with 16-bit offset, assembler rewrites the code
- Example

```
          beq $s0,$s1, L1
```

written as

```
          bne $s0,$s1, L2
          j L1
      L2: …
```

Addressing Mode Summary



§2.10 MIPS Addressing for 32-Bit Immediates and Addresses

Synchronization (Parallelism)

- Two processors sharing an area of memory
  - P1 writes, then P2 reads
  - Data race if P1 and P2 don't synchronize
    - Result depends on order of accesses
- Hardware support required
  - Atomic read/write memory operation
  - No other access to the location allowed between the read and write
- Could be a single instruction
  - E.g., atomic swap of register ↔ memory
  - Or an atomic pair of instructions

Synchronization in MIPS

- Load linked: `ll rt, offset(rs)`
- Store conditional: `sc rt, offset(rs)`
  - Succeeds if location not changed since the `ll`
    - Returns 1 in rt
  - Fails if location is changed
    - Returns 0 in rt
- Example: atomic swap (to test/set lock variable)

```
try: add $t0,$zero,$s4 ;copy exchange value
     ll  $t1,0($s1)    ;load linked
     sc  $t0,0($s1)    ;store conditional
     beq $t0,$zero,try ;branch store fails
     add $s4,$zero,$t1 ;put load value in $s4
```

§2.11 Parallelism and Instructions: Synchronization

C Sort Example

- Illustrates use of assembly instructions for a C bubble sort function
- Swap procedure (leaf)

```
void swap(int v[], int k)
{
  int temp;
  temp = v[k];
  v[k] = v[k+1];
  v[k+1] = temp;
}
```

  - v in $a0, k in $a1, temp in $t0

The Procedure Swap

```
swap: sll $t1, $a1, 2   # $t1 = k * 4
      add $t1, $a0, $t1 # $t1 = v+(k*4)
                        #   (address of v[k])
      lw $t0, 0($t1)    # $t0 (temp) = v[k]
      lw $t2, 4($t1)    # $t2 = v[k+1]
      sw $t2, 0($t1)    # v[k] = $t2 (v[k+1])
      sw $t0, 4($t1)    # v[k+1] = $t0 (temp)
      jr $ra            # return to calling routine
```

§2.13 A C Sort Example to Put It All Together

Example

§2.13 A C Sort Example to Put It All Together

```
          .data
STR:      .asciiz   "a1b2c3d4e5f6g7h8i9" # STR[0,1,..,17]=a,1,b,..,9 (8 bits)
MAX:      .word 0x44556677;         # MAX = 0x44556677     (32 bits)
SIZE:     .byte 33,22,11;           # SIZE[0,1,2] = 33,22,11 (8 bits)
count:    .word 0,1,2;              # count[0,1,2] = 0,1,2     (32 bits)
#------------------------------------------------------------------------------
          .text
main:
          la        $t0, STR        # $t0 = address(STR)
          lb        $t1, 0($t0)     # $t1 = 97 (ascii code for 'a' in decimal)
          addi      $t2, $t1, -4    # $t2 = 93
          lb        $t3, 3($t0)     # $t3 = 50 (ascii code for '2' in decimal)
          lb        $t4, 23($t0)    # $t4 = 68 = 44 hex
          lb        $t5, 24($t0)    # $t5 = 33
          lb        $t6, 32($t0)    # $t6 = 1
          lb        $t7, 33($t0)    # $t7 = 0
          lh        $t8, 26($t0)    # $t8 = 11 = b hex
          lw        $t9, 36($t0)    # $t9 = 2
#------------------------------------------------------------------------------
          jr        $ra             # return
```

Concluding Remarks

- Design principles
  1. Simplicity favors regularity
  2. Smaller is faster
  3. Make the common case fast
  4. Good design demands good compromises
- Layers of software/hardware
  - Compiler, assembler, hardware
- MIPS: typical of RISC ISAs
  - c.f. x86

Acknowledgement

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