

EECS 370 - Lecture 8

Combinational Logic



Announcements

- P2
 - P1 s+m due today
 - P2 posted by tomorrow
- HW 1
 - Due Monday
- Lab 4 meets Fr/M
 - Don't forget the pre-lab quiz tonight!



What do object files look like?

```
extern int X;
extern void foo();
int Y;

void main() {
   Y = X + 1;
   foo();
}
```

"extern" means
defined in another
file

```
extern int Y;
int X;

void foo() {
   Y *= 2;
}
```

```
.main:
LDUR X1, [XZR, X]
ADDI X9, X1, #1
STUR X9, [XZR, Y]
BL foo
HALT
```

Compile

Uh-oh!
Don't know
address of X, Y,
or foo!

.foo:
LDUR X1, [XZR, Y]
LSL X9, X1, #1
STUR X9, [XZR, Y]
BR X30



Compile

Linking

.main:
LDUR X1, [XZR, X]
ADDI X9, X1, #1
STUR X9, [XZR, Y]
BL foo
HALT

.foo: LDUR X1, [XZR, Y] LSL X9, X1, #1 STUR X9, [XZR, Y] BR X30 What needs to go in this intermediate "object file"?

??? Assemble **???** Assemble

NOTE: this will actually be in machine code, not assembly

LDUR X1, [XZR, #40] **ADDI** X9, X1, #1 X9, [XZR, #36] STUR BL #2 HALT **LDUR** X1, [XZR, #36] LSL X9, X1, #1 **STUR** X9, [XZR, #36] BR X30 // Addr #36 starts here

Linking

.main: LDUR X2

X1, [XZR, X]

ADDI X9, X1, #1

STUR X9, [XZR, Y]

BL foo

HALT

Assemble ???

We need:

- the assembled machine code:
- list of instructions that need to be updated once addresses are resolved
- list of symbols to cross-ref





What do object files look like?

- Since we can't make executable, we make an object file
- Basically, includes the machine code that will go in the executable
 - Plus extra information on what we need to modify once we stitch all the other object files together
- Looks like this ->

We won't discuss "Debug" much. Get's included when you compile with "-g" in gcc

Object code format

Header

Text

Data

Symbol table

Relocation table (maps symbols to instructions)

Debug info



Assembly \rightarrow Object file - example

```
extern int G;
extern void B();
int X = 3;
main() {
  Y = G + 1;
  B();
}
```

```
      LDUR
      X1, [XZR, G]

      ADDI
      X9, X1, #1

      BL
      B
```

		•
Header	Name Text size Data size	foo 0x0C //probably bigger 0x04 //probably bigger
Text	Address 0 4 8	Instruction LDUR X1, [XZR, G] ADDI X9, X1, #1 BL B
Data	0	X 3
Symbol table	Label X B main G	Address 0 - 0 -
Reloc table	Addr O 8	Instruction type Dependency LDUR G BL B



Assembly \rightarrow Object file - example

extern in extern vo int X = 3 main() { Y = G + 1; B(); } Header: keeps track of size of each section

 LDUR
 X1, [XZR, G]

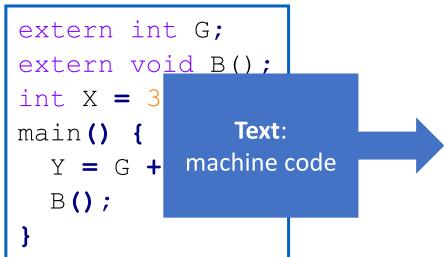
 ADDI
 X9, X1, #1

 BL
 B

		•	
Header	Name Text size Data size	foo 0x0C //probably bi 0x04 //probably bi	
Text	Address 0 4 8	Instruction LDUR X1, [XZR, G] ADDI X9, X1, #1 BL B	
Data	0	X	3
Symbol table	Label X B main G	Address 0 - 0 -	
Reloc table	Addr 0 8	Instruction type LDUR BL	Dependency G B



Assembly > Object file - example



LDUR	X1, [XZR, G]
ADDI	X9, X1, #1
BL	В

Header	Name Text size Data size	foo 0x0C //probably big 0x04 //probably big	
Text	Address 0 4 8	Instruction LDUR X1, [XZR, G] ADDI X9, X1, #1 BL B	
Data	0	Х	3
Symbol table	Label X B main G	Address 0 - 0 -	
Reloc table	Addr 0 8	Instruction type LDUR BL	Dependency G B



Simplifying Assumption for EECS370

All globals and static locals (initialized or not) go in the data segment

Assembly -> Object file - example

```
extern int G;
extern void B();
int X = 3;
main() {
  Y = G + 1;
  B();
}

Data:
initialized globals
and static locals
```

LDUR	X1, [XZR, G]
ADDI	X9, X1, #1
BL	В

Header	Name Text size Data size	foo 0x0C //probably bi 0x04 //probably b	
Text	Address 0 4 8	Instruction LDUR X1, [XZR, G] ADDI X9, X1, #1 BL B	
Data	0	Х	3
Symbol table	Label X B main G	Address 0 - 0 -	
Reloc table	Addr 0 8	Instruction type LDUR BL	Dependency G B



Assembly -> Object file - example

Header Name

Reloc

table

Addr

8

Text size

Data size

```
extern int G;
extern void B();
int X = 3;
main() {
   Y = G + 1;
   B();
}
```

Symbol table:

Lists all labels visible outside this file (i.e. function names and global variables)

Text	Address 0 4 8	Instruction LDUR X1, [XZR, G] ADDI X9, X1, #1 BL B	
Data	0	X	3
	Label	Address	
Symbol	X	0	
table	В	-	
	main	0	
	G	-	

LDUR

BL

foo

0x0C //probably bigger

0x04 //probably bigger

Instruction type Dependency

G



LDUR

ADDI

BL

Assembly -> Object file - example

```
extern int G;
extern void B();
int X = 3;
main() {
   Y = G + 1;
   B();
}
```

IDIID V1 [V7D C]

Relocation Table:

list of instructions and data words that must be updated if things are moved in memory

		· ·	
Header	Name Text size Data size	foo 0x0C //probably bi 0x04 //probably bi	
Text	Address 0 4 8	Instruction LDUR X1, [XZR, G] ADDI X9, X1, #1 BL B	
Data	0	X	3
Symbol table	Label X B main G	Address 0 - 0 -	
Reloc table	Addr 0 8	Instruction type LDUR BL	Dependency G B

Class Problem 1

Poll: Which symbols will be put in the symbol table? (i.e. which

"things" should be visible to all files?)

```
file1.c
extern void bar(int);
extern char c[];
int a;
int foo (int x) {
  int b;
  a = c[3] + 1;
  bar(x);
  b = 27;
file 1 – symbol table
             loc
sym
             data
foo
             text
```

```
file2.c
extern int a;
char c[100];
void bar (int y) {
  char e[100];
  a = y;
  c[20] = e[7];
file 2 – symbol table
             loc
sym
С
             data
bar
            text
a
```

Class Problem 2

```
file1.c
    extern void bar(int);
    extern char c[];
   int a;
    int foo (int x) {
5
      int b;
      a = c[3] + 1;
6
      bar(x);
8
      b = 27;
9
   file 1 - relocation table
   line
                              dep
                type
    6
                 ldur
                              C
                 stur
                              a
                 bl
                              bar
```

```
file2.c
    extern int a;
    char c[100];
    void bar (int y) {
      char e[100];
5
      a = y;
6
      c[20] = e[7];
    file 2 - relocation table
    line
                             dep
                type
                stur
                              a
    6
                stur
                             C
```

Note: in a real relocation table, the "line" would really be the address in "text" section of the instruction we need to update.

Linker

- Stitches independently created object files into a single executable file (i.e., a.out)
 - Step 1: Take text segment from each .o file and put them together.
 - Step 2: Take data segment from each .o file, put them together, and concatenate this onto end of text segments.
- What about libraries?
 - Libraries are just special object files.
 - You create new libraries by making lots of object files (for the components of the library) and combining them (see ar and ranlib on Unix machines).
 - Step 3: Resolve cross-file references to labels
 - Make sure there are no undefined labels.



Linker - Continued

- Determine the memory locations the code and data of each file will occupy
 - Each function could be assembled on its own
 - Thus, the relative placement of code/data is not known up to this point
 - Must relocate absolute references to reflect placement by the linker
 - PC-Relative Addressing (beq, bne): never relocate
 - Absolute Address (mov 27, #X): always relocate
 - External Reference (usually bl): always relocate
 - Data Reference (often movz/movk): always relocate
- Executable file contains <u>no relocation info or symbol table</u> these just used by assembler/linker
 - (Not necessarily true today)



Loader

- Executable file is sitting on the disk
- Puts the executable file code image into memory and asks the operating system to schedule it as a new process
 - Creates new address space for program large enough to hold text and data segments, along with a stack segment
 - Copies instructions and data from executable file into the new address space
 - Initializes registers (PC and SP most important)
- Take operating systems class (EECS 482) to learn more!



Summary

- Compiler converts a single source code file into a single assembly language file
- Assembler handles directives (.fill), converts what it can to machine language, and creates a checklist for the linker (relocation table). This changes each .s file into a .o file
- Assembler does 2 passes to resolve addresses, handling internal forward references
- Linker combines several .o files and resolves absolute addresses
- Linker enables separate compilation: Thus unchanged files, including libraries need not be recompiled.
- Linker resolves remaining addresses.
- Loader loads executable into memory and begins execution



Floating Point Arithmetic

See end of slides for bonus material (not covered in HW or exams)



Why floating point

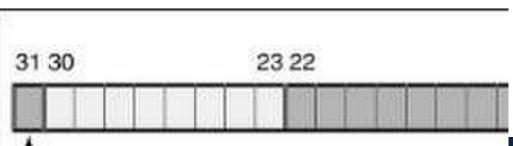
- Have to represent real numbers somehow
- Rational numbers
 - Ok, but can be cumbersome to work with
- Fixed point
 - Do everything in thousandths (or millionths, etc.)
 - Not always easy to pick the right units
 - Different scaling factors for different stages of computation
- Scientific notation: this is good!
 - Exponential notation allows HUGE dynamic range
 - Constant (approximately) relative precision across the whole range



IEEE Floating point format (single precision)

- Sign bit: (0 is positive, 1 is negative)
- Significand: (also called the mantissa; stores the 23 most significant bits after the decimal point)
- Exponent: used biased base 127 encoding
 - Add 127 to the value of the exponent to encode:

 - $0 \rightarrow 01111111$ $128 \rightarrow 11111111$
- How do you represent zero ? Special convention:
 - Exponent: -127 (all zeroes), Significand 0 (all zeroes), Sign + or -

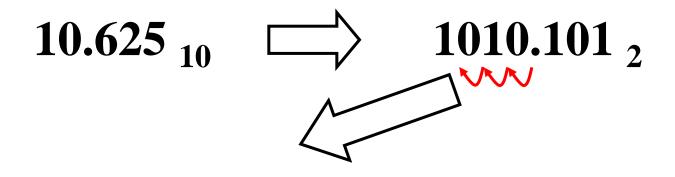


Some other exception cases (e.g. NaN) we won't cover



- Step 1: convert from decimal to binary
 - 1st bit after "binary" point represents 0.5 (i.e. 2⁻¹)
 - 2nd bit represents 0.25 (i.e. 2⁻²)
 - etc.

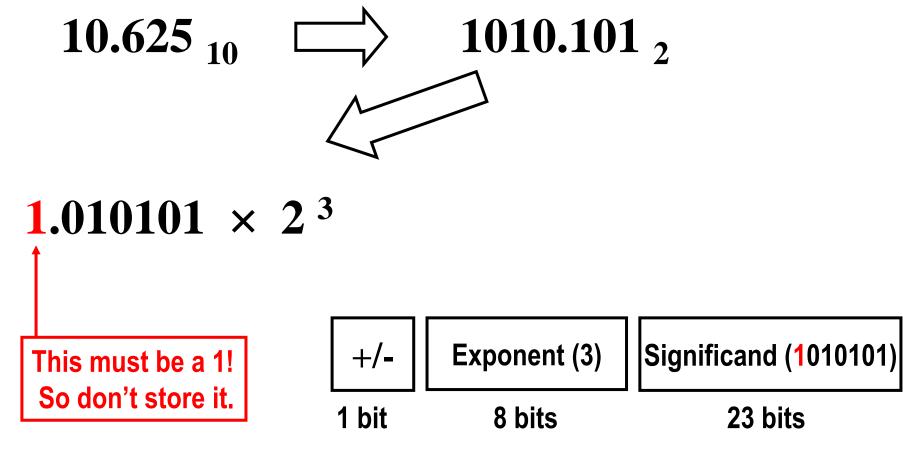




$$1.010101 \times 2^{3}$$

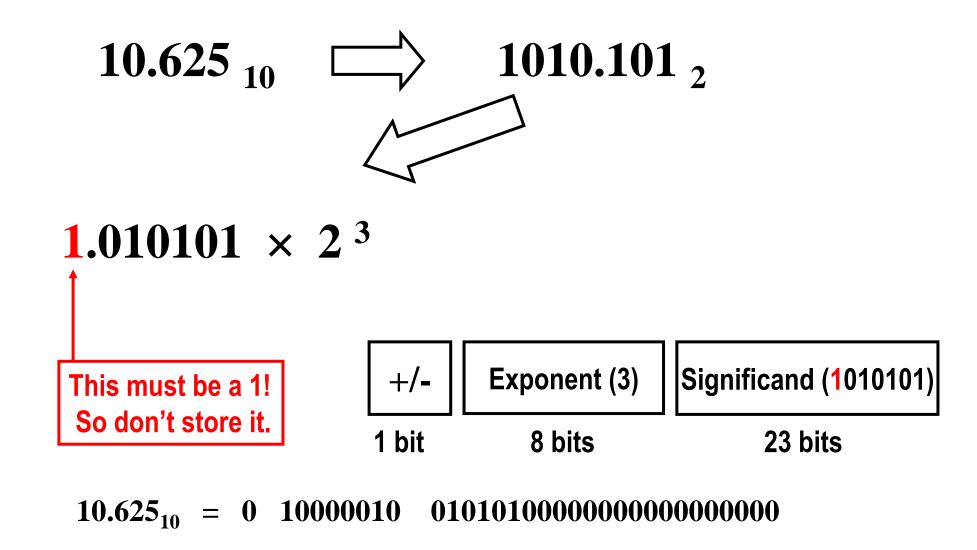
Step 2: normalize number by shifting binary point until you get 1.XXX * 2^Y





Step 3: store relevant numbers in proper location (ignoring initial 1 of significand)







Class Problem



 What is the value of the following IEEE 754 floating point encoded number?

1 = -10000101 = 133 - 127 -> exponent 6 01011001 = mantissa -1.01011001 x 2^6 -1010110.01 -(2^6+2^4+2^2+2^1+2^-2) -(64+16+4+2+1/4) -86.25

1 10000101 01011001000000000000000



What matters to a CS person?

- What happens if you add a big number to a small number?
 - E.g.

1000 + .00001

- The larger the exponent, the larger the "gap" between numbers that can be represented
- When the smaller number is added to the larger one, it can't be represented so precisely
 - Rounded down to zero: addition has no effect
 - Imagine having a loop do the above a million times: you'd end up with 1000 instead of 1010
 - Can be a big problem in scientific code
- You need to be aware of the issue.
 - This is why most people use "double" instead of "float"
 - The problem can still exist, it's just less likely.

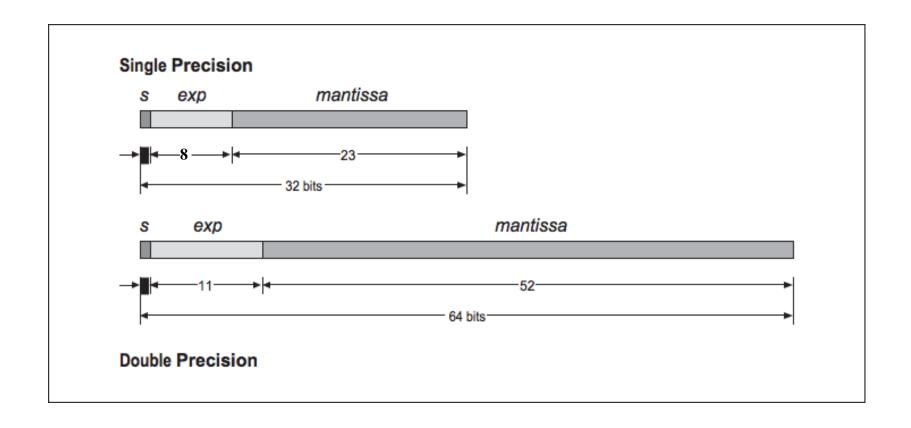


More precision and range

- We've described IEEE-754 binary32 floating point format, i.e. "single precision" ("float" in C/C++)
 - 24 bits precision; equivalent to about 7 decimal digits
 - 3.4 * 10³⁸ maximum value
 - Good enough for most but not all calculations
- IEEE-754 also defines larger binary64 format, "double precision" ("double" in C/C++)
 - 53 bits precision, equivalent to about 16 decimal digits
 - 1.8 * 10³⁰⁸ maximum value
 - Most accurate physical values currently known only to about 47 bits precision, about 14 decimal digits
- Interestingly, there's been a surge in popularity for lower precision floating point lately. Why?

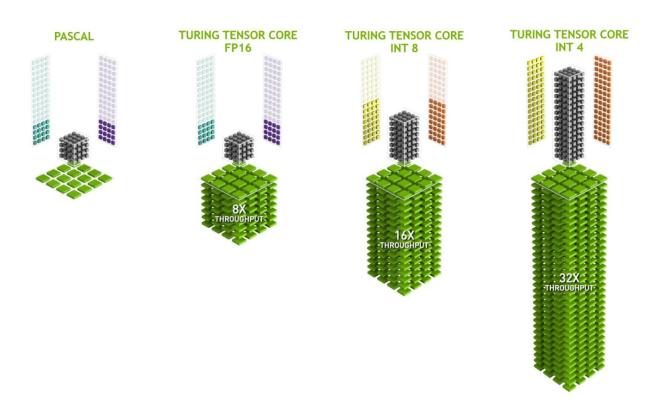


Single ("float") precision





Low Precision FP Popular in accelerating Al





Next few lectures: Digital Logic

- Lectures 1-7:
 - LC2K and ARMv8/LEGv8 ISAs
 - Converting C to Assembly
 - Function Calls
 - Linking
- Today:
 - Floating Point
 - Combinational Logic
- Next lecture:
 - Sequential Logic



Up Until Now...

- We've covered high-level C code to an executable
 - Compilation
 - Assembly
 - Linking
 - Loading
- Now, we'll talk about the hardware that runs this code
 - First step: the basics of digital logic



Next 3 Lectures

- 1. Combinational Logic:
 - Basics of electronics; logic gates, muxes, decoders
- 2. Sequential Logic
 - Clocks, latches and flip-flops
- 3. State Machines
 - Building a simple processor

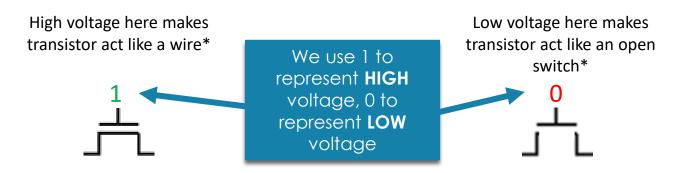


Transistors

- ☐ At the heart of digital logic is the transistor
- ☐ Electrical engineers draw it like this



■The physics is complicated, but at the end of the day, all it is a really small and really fast electric switch





Basic gate: Inverter

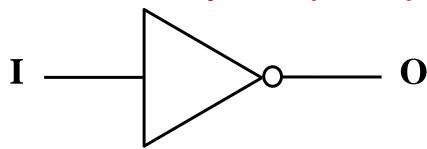
CS abstraction

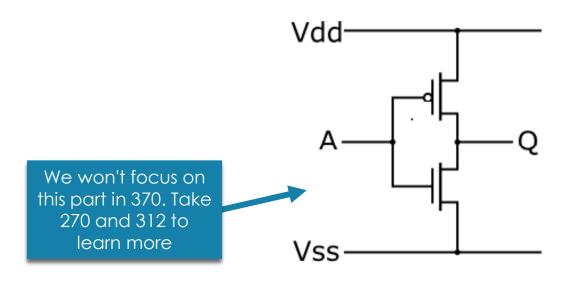
- logic function

Truth Table

	0
0	1
1	0

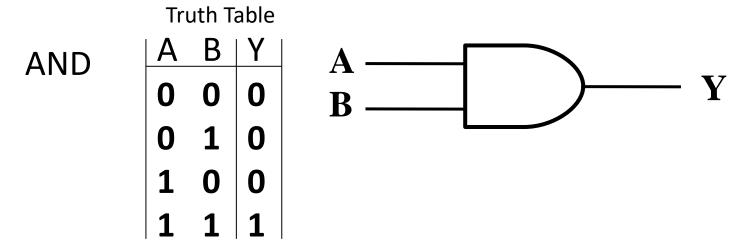
Schematic symbol (CS/EE)



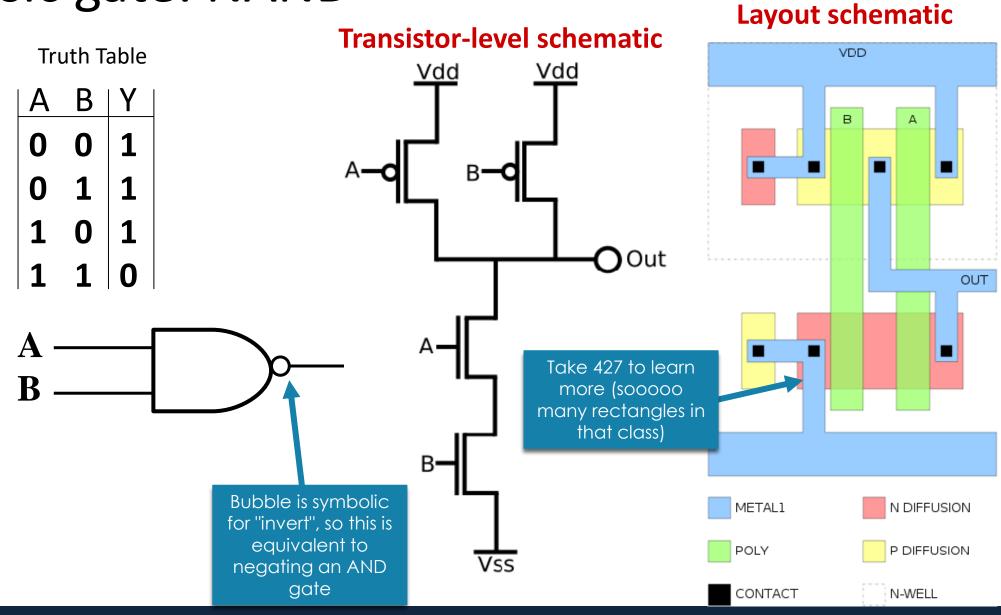




Basic gates: AND and OR

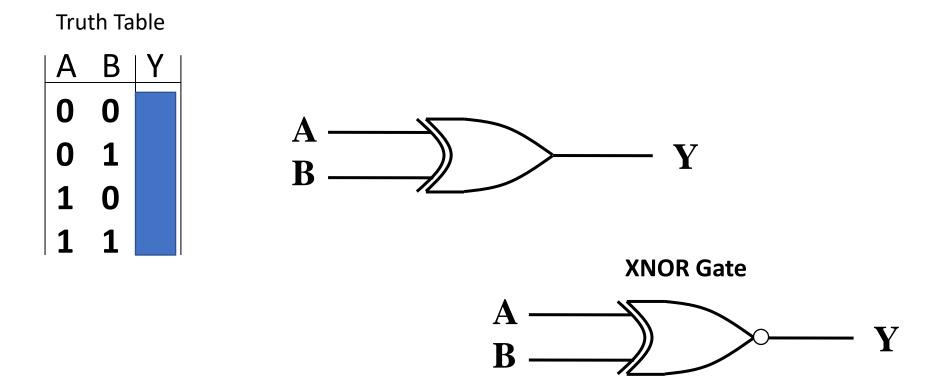


Basic gate: NAND





Basic gate: XOR (eXclusive OR)



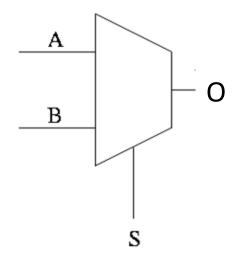
Building Complexity: Selecting

- We want to design a circuit that can select between two inputs (multiplexer or **mux**)
- Let's do a one-bit version
 - 1. Draw a truth table

Poll: How do we fill in the truth table for this?

A	В	S	0
0	0	0	
0	0	1	
0	1	0	
0	1	1	
1	0	0	
1	0	1	
1	1	0	
1	1	1	

Symbol



O = S ? B : A



Building Complexity: Selecting

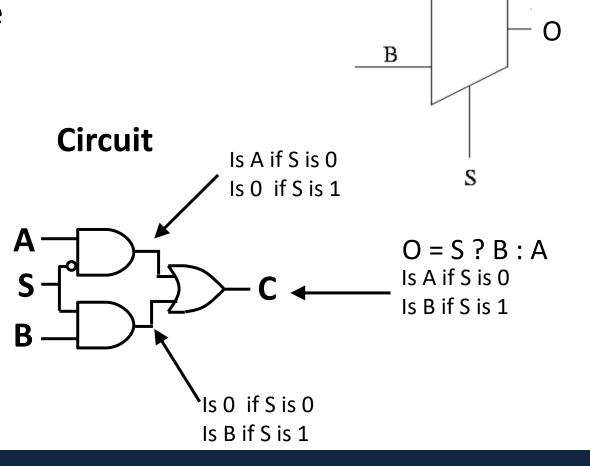
- We want to design a circuit that can select between two inputs (multiplexor or **mux**)
- Let's do a one-bit version
 - 1. Draw a truth table

Muxes are
universal! A 2^N entry
truth table can be
implemented by
passing each ouput
value into an input
of a 2^N—to-1 mux

Α	В	S	0
0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0
0	1	0	0
0	1	1	1
1	0	0	1
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	1
1	1	1	1



Α

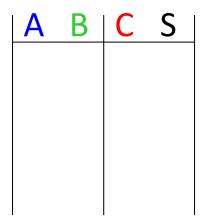




Building Complexity: Addition

- We want to design a circuit that performs binary addition
- Let's start by adding two bits
 - Design a circuit that takes two bits (A and B) as input
 - Generates a sum and carry bit (S and C)
 - 1. Make a truth table
 - 2. Design a circuit

	Т	U	U	Т	T	
+	0	0	1	1	0	

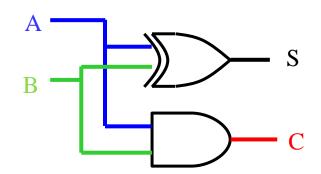




Building Complexity: Addition

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 - Design a circuit that takes two bits (A and B) as input
 - Generates a sum and carry bit (S and C)
 - 1. Make a truth table
 - 2. Design a circuit

()	1	1	0	
	1	0	0	1	1
+ (0	0	1	1	0
	1	1	0	0	1

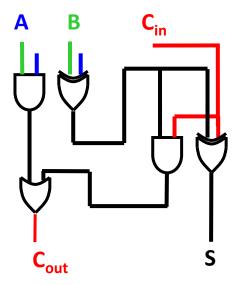


Α	В	C	S
0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1
1	0	0	1
1	1	1	0



Building Complexity: Addition

- Now we can add two bits, but how do we deal with carry bits?
- This is a **full adder**
 - We have to design a circuit that can add three bits
 - Inputs: A, B, Cin
 - Outputs: S, Cout
 - 1. Design a truth table
 - 2. Circuit
- This is a full adder



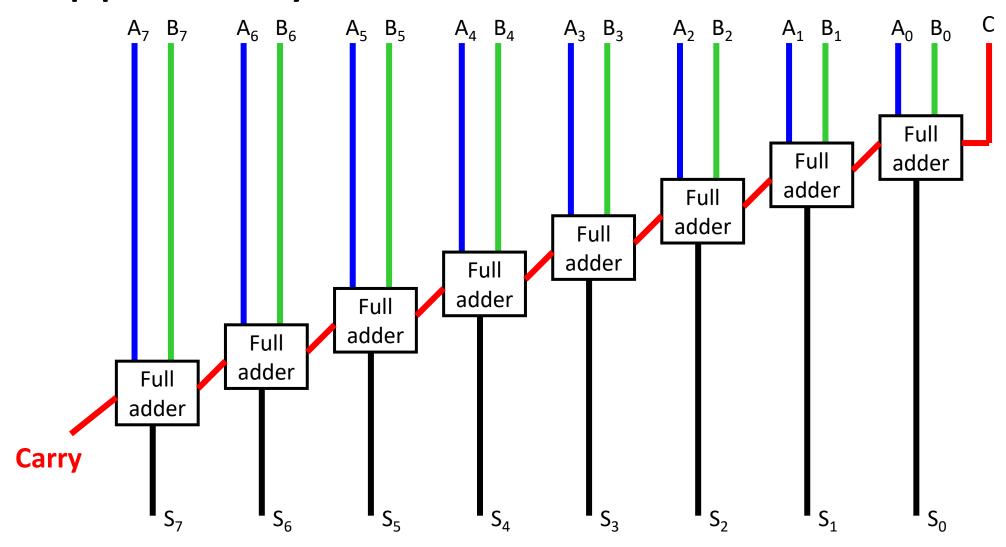
	0	1	1	0	
	1	0	0	1	1
+	0	0	1	1	0
	1	1	0	0	1

Cir	ı A	В	Cout	S
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	1
0	1	0	0	1
0	1	1	1	0
1	0	0	0	1
1	0	1	1	0
1	1	0	1	0
1	1	1	1	1



If we invert B's bits and set C to 1, we also have a subtractor! Why?

8-bit Ripple Carry Adder



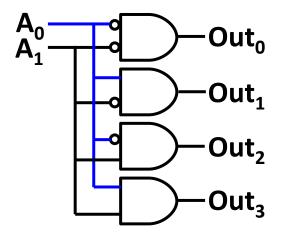
This will be very slow for 32 or 64 bit adds, but is sufficient for our needs



Building Complexity: Decoding

- Another common device is a decoder
 - Input: N-bit binary number
 - Output: 2^N bits, exactly one of which will be high
 - Allows us to index into things (like a register file)

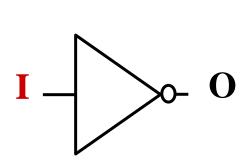
Decoder

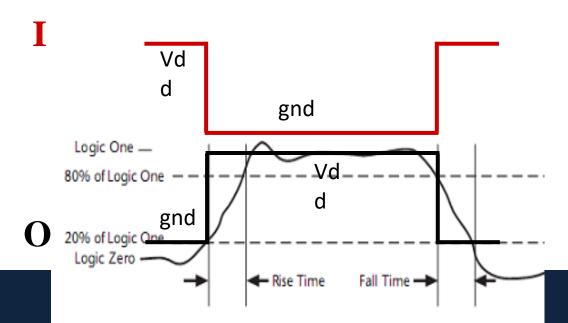


Poll: What will be the output for 101?

Propagation delay in combinational gates

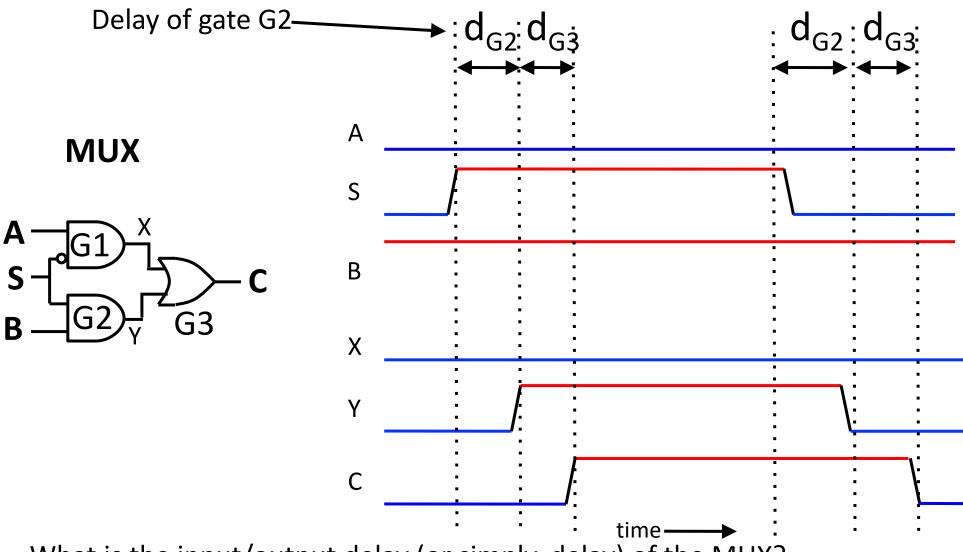
- Gate outputs do not change exactly when inputs do.
 - Transmission time over wires (~speed of light)
 - Saturation time to make transistor gate switch
 - ⇒ Every combinatorial circuit has a propagation delay (time between input and output stabilization)







Timing in Combinational Circuits



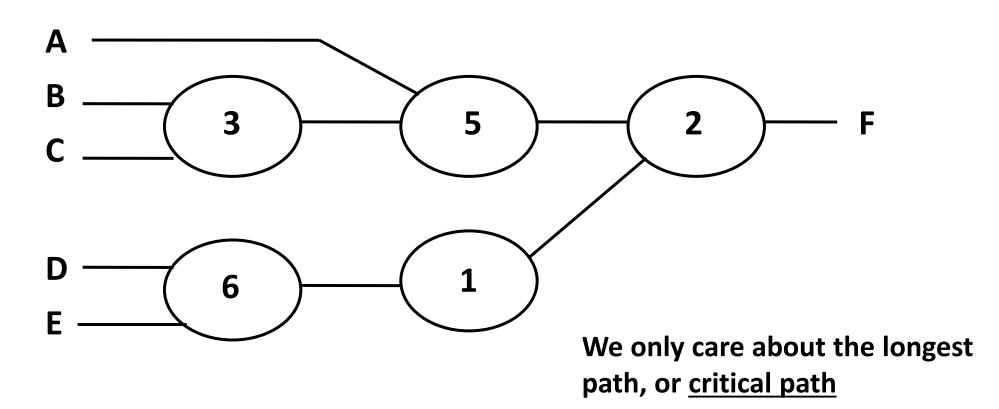
What is the input/output delay (or simply, delay) of the MUX?



What is the delay of this Circuit?

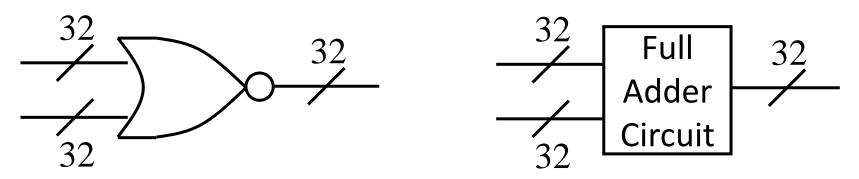
Each oval represents one gate, the type does not matter

Poll: What is the delay?



Exercise

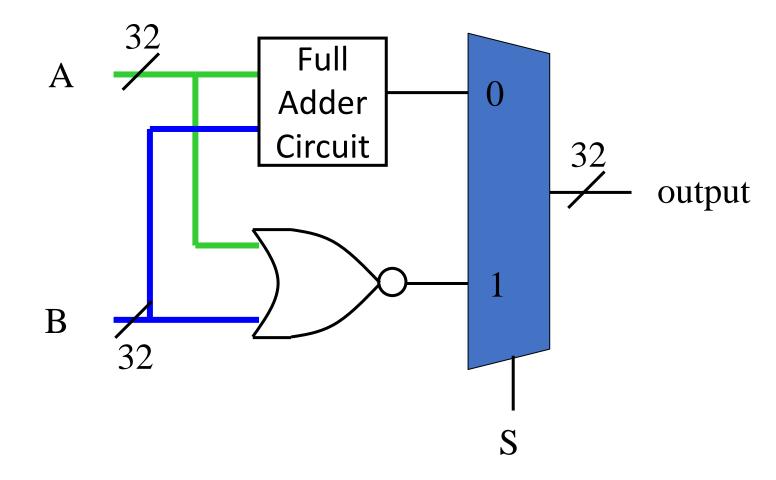
- Use the blocks we have learned about so far (full adder, NOR, mux) to build this circuit
 - Input A, 32 bits
 - Input B, 32 bits
 - Input S, 1 bit
 - Output, 32 bits
 - When S is low, the output is A+B, when S is high, the output is NOR(a,b)
- Hint: you can express multi-bit gates like this:





Exercise

- This is a basic ALU (Arithmetic Logic Unit)
- It is the heart of a computer processor!





Next Time

- Logic circuits that "remember"
 - Aka "sequential logic"

BONUS Floating Point Slides



Bonus slides – this material is not testable

- This material is here for those folks that may care.
 - You may find it useful when considering the gap between representations
 - But the material isn't directly testable.
- It is interesting if you are into that kind of thing.
- It can be useful if you are going to do scientific programming for a living.
- So it is provided as a reference, but isn't part of the class (we may cover a bit of it in lecture if we have time)



Floating point multiplication

- Add exponents (don't forget to account for the bias of 127)
- Multiply significands (don't forget the implicit 1 bits)
- Renormalize if necessary
- Compute sign bit (simple exclusive-or)

Floating point multiply



0 10000101 10101001000000000000000

 1101010.01_2 = 106.25_{10}



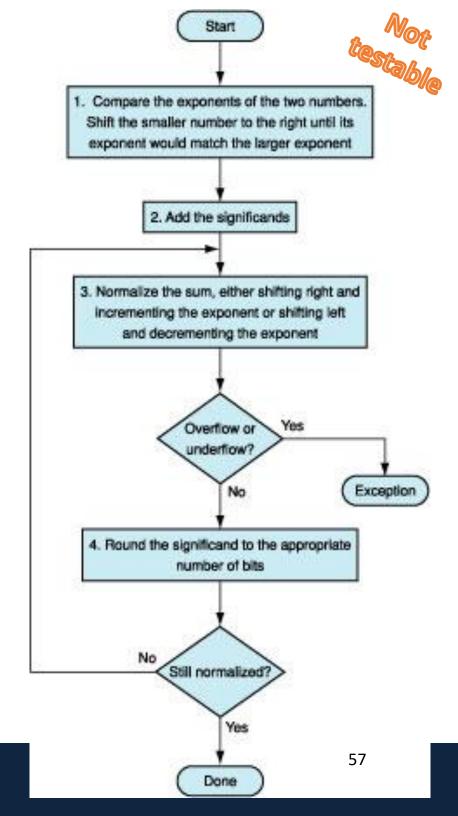


Floating point addition

- More complicated than floating point multiplication!
- If exponents are unequal, must shift the significand of the smaller number to the right to align the corresponding place values
- Once numbers are aligned, simple addition (could be subtraction, if one of the numbers is negative)
- Renormalize (which could be messy if the numbers had opposite signs; for example, consider addition of +1.5000 and -1.4999)
- Added complication: rounding to the correct number of bits to store could denormalize the number, and require one more step

Floating point Addition

- 1. Shift smaller exponent right to match larger.
- 2.Add significands
- 3. Normalize and update exponent
- 4. Check for "out of range"







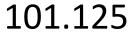
Class Problem

Show how to add the following 2 numbers using IEEE floating point addition: 101.125 + 13.75





Class Problem



13.75

Shift by 6-3=3

Shift mantissa by difference in exponent

Sum Significands

1100101001 +0001101110

1110010111

Sum didn't overflow, so no re-normalization needed

00110111000000000000000

Note: When shifting to the right, the first shift should put the implicit 1, then 0's

10000101 11001011100000000000000

= 114.875

Class Problem

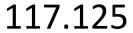


Show how to add the following 2 numbers using IEEE floating point addition: 117.125 + 13.75



1 NVC 6

Class Problem



13.75

Shift by 6-3=3

Shift mantissa by difference in exponent

Sum Significands

1110101001 +0001101110

10000010111

00110111000000000000000

Note: When shifting to the right, the first shift should put the implicit 1, then 0's

10000110 0000010111000000000000

Súm overflows, re-normalize by adding one to exponent and shifting mantissa by one

= 130.875