

CS241

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1. BINARY AND HEXADECIMAL NUMBERS

- (1) bit – binary digits 1 and 0 (all computer understands)
- (2) byte – 8 bits
- (3) word
 - (a) machine specific grouping of bits
 - (b) assume 32-bit architecture
 - (c) 1 word = 32 bits = 4 bytes
- (4) nibble – 4 bits half a byte

1.1. **Given a byte(or word) in memory what does it mean?** Could mean many things.

- (1) A number (which number?)

1.2. **How can we represent negative numbers?** Simply use a sign bit with 0 for + and 1 for - (Sign-Magnitude representation) but then you have two -1's and arithmetic is tricky

1.2.1. *Two's Complement notation.* Interpret the n-bit number as a an unsigned int. If first bit is 0 done else subtract 2^n

n bits- represent $-2^{n-1} \dots 2^{n-1}$ with left bit still giving sign. arithmetic is clean, just mod 2^n

We cant tell if a number is signed unsigned or two's complement and we have to remember.

We don't even know if what it means:a number, a character, An instruction (or part of one), Garbage

1.3. **Hexadecimal notation.**

- (1) base 16 0-9, A-F
- (2) more compact than binary
- (3) each hex digit = 4 bits (1 nibble)
- (4) e.g. 1100 1001 = C9
- (5) NOTATION: 0xC9

1.4. **Mapping from binary to characters.**

1.4.1. *ASCII*. Uses 7 bits

IBM implemented extended ascii to use all 8-bits, but they add some weird characters i.e. frame like characters. Compatibility issues because no one standard.

11001001 is not 7 bit ascii, 01001001 decimal 73 is ASCII for I
other standards like EBCDIC

2. MACHINE LANGUAGE

Computer programs operate on data and are data (occupy same space as data)

2.1. **Von Neumann architecture.** Programs reside in the same memory as data.

Programs can operate on other programs i.e OS

2.2. **Central Processing Unit.** see physical notes for diagram

- (1) Control Unit
 - (a) decodes instructions
 - (b) dispatches to other parts of the computer to carry out instructions
- (2) Arithmetic logic unit: Does Math

2.3. **Memory—Many Kinds (Ranked in speed order).**

- (1) **CPU
- (2) cache
- (3) **main memory RAM
- (4) disk memory
- (5) network memory

2.4. **Registers.** On the CPU, small amount of very fast memory called registers

MIPS 32 General purpose registers \$0 to \$31

- (1) each holds 32 bits
- (2) can only operate on data that is in regs.
- (3) \$0 is always 0
- (4) \$31 is special and \$30
- (5) EX: add the contents of two registers and put the result in another register.
- (6) 5 bits encode a register $2^5 = 32$
- (7) 15 bits to encode registers, 17 bits to encode operation

2.5. **RAM.**

- (1) large amount of memory away from cpu
- (2) travels between the cpu and ram on the bus
- (3) big array of n-bytes, $n \cdot 10^9$
- (4) each cell has an address $0, \dots, n-1$
- (5) each 4-byte block of the form is a word (see diagram 2 in notes)
- (6) word addresses are 0,4,8,c,10,14,18,1c
- (7) RAM access much slower than reg access

2.6. Communicating with RAM. two commands

- (1) load
 - (a) transfer a word from an address to a register. desired address goes into the memory address register(MAR), goes out on bus
 - (b) data at that location comes back on the bus, goes into the memory data register (MDR)
 - (c) value in MDR moved to destination register
- (2) store: does the reverse of load

2.7. How does a computer know which words contain instructions and which contain data? It Doesn't

2.8. **How does it run.** Special register called pc(program counter) which stores the address of the next instruction to execute instruction to execute.

By convention, guarantee that some address(i.e. 0) contains code, initialize pc to 0.

Computer then runs the fetch-execute cycle

```
PC <- 0
loop
IR <- MEM[PC]
PC <- 4
decode and execute the instruction in IR
end loop
```

only program the machine really runs

NOTE: PC holds the address of the next instruction while the current instruction is executing.

2.9. **How does a program get executed.** Program called a loader that puts the program in memory and sets PC to the address of the first instruction in the program and sets PC to the address of the first instruction in the program

2.10. **What happens when a program ends?** need to return control to the loader, set pc to the address of the next instruction in the loader.\$31 will contain the right address.

need to set pc to \$31

2.11. **Example.** Example1: Add value in \$5 to the value in the \$7 store result in \$3 and return

location	binary	hex	meaning
00000000	0000 0000 1010 0111 0001 1000 0010 0000	00a71820	add \$3, \$5, \$7
00000004	0000 0011 1110 0000 0000 0000 0000 1000	03e00008	* jr \$31

Example 2 add 42 to 52, store in \$3, return

lis \$d "load immediate and skip", treat the next word as an immediate value and load it in to \$d then skip to the instruction

location	binary	hex	meaning
00000000	0000 0000 0000 0000 0010 1000 0001 0100	00002814	lis \$5
00000004	0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0010 1010	00000004	.word 42
00000008	0000 0000 0000 0011 1000 1000 0001 0100	00002814	lis \$7
0000000c	0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0011 0100	00000004	.word 52
00000004	0000 0011 1110 0000 0000 0000 0000 1000	03e00008	jr \$31

```
add $3 $5 $7
```

2.12. assembly language. replace tedious binary/hex encodings with easier to read mnemonics less chance of error, translation to binary can be automated (assembler), one line of assembly = one machine instruction (word)

```
lis $5; load imm and skip
.word 42; not an instruction, is a directive that next word in binary should
literally be 42
list $7;
.word 52
add $3 $5 $7; destination reg first
jr $31
```

2.12.1. *EX3*. Compute the absolute value of \$1 store in \$1 and return

- (1) some instructions modify PC = "branches" and "jumps", i.e. jr
- (2) beq: branch if 2 registers have equal contents, increment PC by a given number of words, can branch backwards.
- (3) lone bne
- (4) slt: "set less than"

```
slt $a, $b, $c
$a = {1 : $b < $c, 0}
```

2.12.2. *RAM*. lw= load word from ram into reg

```
lw $a, i($b) loads the word at MEM[$b + i] into $a
```

sw = store word from regs into RAM

```
sw $a, i($b) stores word in $a at mem[$b+i]
```

see examples on paper.

2.13. **Multiplication.** mult = multiply

mult \$a, \$b ; Product of 2 32 bit numbers up to 64bitz, too big for register
Concatenation of hi and lo registers is the entire product of multiplication

mflo = move from lo

```
mflo $a, ; $a <- lo
```

for division lo stores quotient, and hi stores remainder

2.14. **revisit looping example.** have to keep track of offsets if instructions are added or remove

2.15. **Assembler.** assembler allows labeled instructions

```
foo: add $1, $2, $3
```

assembler associates the name foo with the address of the instruction

assembler calculates the distance between the label and the program counter, in words

$$\frac{top-PC}{4}$$

3. PROCEDURES IN MIPS

2 problems to solve

- (1) call and return : transferring control into and out of the procedure (Procedures calling other Procedures)
- (2) Registers: what if a proc overwrites my registers.

We could : reserve some registers for f and some for main line so they wont interfere. but when using recursion we run out of registers.

Instead guarantee that procs leave regs unchanged when done by storing in RAM. Must stop processes from using the same ram because the same issue will arise.

see diagram

Can allocate from one end of ram to the other for procs. Need to track what ram is in use. Mips machine helps us \$30 initialized by the loader to just past the last word of memory.

can use \$30 as a "bookmark" to separate used and unused RAM

diagram

RAM uses LIFO order \$30 is the stack pointer address at the top of the stack

3.1. Template for Procedures.

```
f:  sw $2, -4($30) ;
    sw $3, -8($30); push registers f modifies on the stack
    lis $3
    .word 8      ; decrement 30
    sub $30, $30, $3
    ; body

g:
add $30, $30, $3 ; assuming $3 remains 8 increment 30
lw $3, -8($30)
lw $2, -4($30)
```

3.2. Call and return.

```
main: ...
lis $5
.word f; address of line labelled f
jr $5 ; jump to that line
;(HERE)
```

Return: we need to set PC to the line after the jr(i.e. to HERE)

Solution: jalr

3.2.1. *jalr(Jump and link register)*. like jr, but sets \$31 to the address of the next instruction

```
main: ...
lis $5
.word f; address of line labelled f
jalr $5 ; jump to that line
```

Question: jalr overwrites \$31 so how do we get back to the loader, what if f calls g

Answer: Save \$31 to the stack before the call and restore afterwards

```
main:
lis $5
.word f
sw $31, -4($30)
lis $31
.word 4
sub $30, $30, $31
jalr $5
lis $31
.word 4
add $30, $30, $31
lw $31, -4($30)
jr $31
```

3.3. Parameters and Results. generally use regs (document)

if too many, use stack

```
; sum 1ToN: computes 1 + ... + N
; Register
; $1 - working
; $2 - input (value of N)
$ $3 - output; do not save this one
sum1toN:
```

4. RECURSION

no extra machinery needed

if registers, parameters, stack managed properly, recursion will just work

4.1. **I/O.** output: Use sw to store word in location 0xffff000c. the last byte in the word will be printed

```
lis $1
.word 0xffff000c
list $2
.word 67
sw $2, 0($1)
lis $2
.word 83
sw $2, 0($1)
```

5. THE ASSEMBLER

Any translation involves two phases

- (1) Analysis: Understand what is meant by the source string
- (2) Synthesis: output equivalent target string

starts with assembly file: stream of characters

- (1) group characters into meaningful tokens: label, hex #, reg #, .word, etc
- (2) group tokens into instructions if possible
- (3) if tokens do not form sensible instructions, output ERROR to stderr
- (4) NOTE: There are many more wrong tokens than right ones. try to find right combos

5.1. **Biggest problem with assembler.** how do we assemble

```
beq $2, $0, abc
abc:
```

cant assemble the first beq because we dont know the value of abc

5.2. **Standard solution.** assemble in two passes

Pass 1: group tokens into instructions. record addresses of labelled instructions into a symbol table(list of [label, address] pairs)

NOTE: a line of assembly can have more than one label. you can label the word after the end of the program

Pass 2: translate each instruction into machine code. If an instruction refers to a label, lookup the associated address in the symbol table

Your Assembler output the assembled mips code to stdout. output the symbol table to stderr

marmoset only cares output ERROR

5.3. **Code.**

```
main: lis $2
.word 13
add $3, $3, $0
top: add $3, $3, $2
lis $1
```

```
.word 1
sub $2, $2, $1
bne $2, $0, top
jr $31
end:
```

5.3.1. *Pass 1.* group tokens into instructions. build symbol table

main	0
top	c
end	24

5.3.2. *Pass 2.* translate each instruction

```
lis $2 ---- 0x00001014
.word 13 ---- 0x0000000d
bne $2, $0, top -- lookup top in symbol table
calculate (top-pc)/4 = -5 ==> 0x1440ffff
```

6. BIT LEVEL OPERATIONS

to assemble bne \$2, \$0, top (where $(\text{top} - \text{pc})/4 = -5$)

opcode = 000101 = 5

1st reg = \$2 = 00010

2nd reg = \$0 = 00000

offset = -5

| 6 bits (opcode) | 5 bits(1st reg) | 5 bits(2nd reg) | 16 bits (offset)

to put 000101 into the first 6 bits append 26 0's (left shift by 26 bits) $5 \ll 26$

move 2 21 bits to the left

$2 \ll 21$

move 0 16 bits to the left

$0 \ll 16$

6.1. **Bitwise and/or.** normal AND/OR.

and with 0 gives 0, with 1 gives other digit

or with 0 gives other digit, 1 gives 1

use bitwise and to turn bits off

use bitwise or to turn bits on

bitwise and with 0xffff, -5 & 0xffff bitwise and -5

bitwise or the four pieces together

$(5 \ll 26) | (2 \ll 21) | (0 \ll 16) | (-5 \& 0xffff)$

6.2. **C++ stuff.** int converts to int ascii codeo

char outputs the actual value and the screen interprets

```
unsigned int instr = 5 << 26 | ...;
```

```
char c = instr >> 24;
```

```
cout << c
```



```

c = instr >> 16;
cout << c;
c = instr >> 8;
cout << c;

```

7. LOADERS

OS Code:

```

repeat:
p <- next program to run
copy P into memory, starting at 0
jalr $0
beq $0, $0, repeat

```

8. OS

Problem: os is a program - where does it sit in memory. other programs in memory at the same time, all cant be at address 0.

labels may be resolved to the wrong addresses

8.1. **How do you fix it.** could pick different starting addresses for programs at assembly time

let the loader decide where to put the program, fix bad label references

8.2. **Loader's job.**

- (1) take a program P as input, find a location a in memory for P
- (2) copy P into mmeory starting at a
- (3) return a to the os

OS 2.0

```

repeat: p <- next program
$3 <- loader(P)
jalr $3
beq $0, $0, repeat

```

9. LOADER PSEUDOCODE

Input: words w_1, \dots, w_n < - the code

$n = k + \text{space for stack}$ (how much? pick something)

a = address of n contiguous words if free RAM

```

for i=0..k-1
MEM[a+i*4] <- wi+1
$30 a+4*n
return a

```