

3/31/25 L1: UNSIGNED BINARY, BINARY, C BASICS

SCHEDULE:

M: lecture

T: rec, due E night

W: LAB (DON'T BE LATE)

S: online ex, lab/post lab checkoffs due

FINAL: May 7, 7:30-9:30

WHAT IS INFO?

- Anything providing answer to question of some kind
- BIT: one Y/N amount of info (represented as 1/0)

-more info = more bits

$$-8 \text{ bits? } 2^n = m \rightarrow 2^8 = 256$$

- BYTE: grouping of 8 bits. 00000000 through 11111111

$$\text{Ex: } 2341 \text{ options? } \log_2(2341) = 11.19 \text{ bits}$$

ANALOG VS. DIGITAL:

ANALOG: many voltage values

- Ex: 0 to 10V, 0.01 step - single V can be $\log_2(1000) \approx 9.96$ bits of info
- susceptible to noise (ex: 2.03 could be 1.98 + 0.03V)

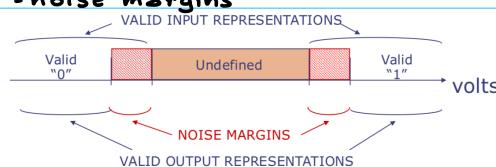
EX: PAUL REVERE

- full - by land
- half - by sea
- off - not come

DIGITAL: limited voltage values

- Ex: 0V or 10V - $\log_2(2) = 1$ bit of info
- can deal w/ noise (above certain amt = 10V, below = 0V)
- tighter constraints
- noise margins

- 0 land
- 0 sea easier to know
- 0 not come w/ fog!



SCALING: encoding + ints

- each bit assigned a weight



$$v = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} 2^i b_i$$

smallest: 0

largest: $2^N - 1$

Base 2

$$\begin{array}{r} 111 \\ 1110 \\ + 111 \\ \hline 10101 \end{array}$$

$\begin{array}{r} 111 \\ 1110 \\ - 111 \\ \hline 0111 \end{array}$

BINARY: ADD & SUBTRACT

- just like base 10

MOD:

OVERFLOW:

- computers have fixed # bits, but may want to do more rigorous calculations

$$\begin{array}{r} 111 \\ 1110 \\ + 0111 \\ \hline 10101 \end{array}$$

Overflow,
actual result is
 $21 \bmod 2^4 = 5$

↳ only returns this - can calculate from here

Ex: encode 21 using 6 bits

START: 21

→ does 2^5 (32) fit 21? $x \rightarrow 0$

$$2^4 (16) \rightarrow \checkmark \rightarrow 21 - 16 = 5$$

$$2^3 (8) \text{ fit? } 5? \rightarrow x \rightarrow 0$$

$$2^2 (4) \text{ fit? } 5? \rightarrow \checkmark \rightarrow 5 - 4 = 1$$

$$2^1 (2) \text{ fit? } 1? \times$$

$$2^0 ? \checkmark$$

binary

ANSWER: 0b010101

0 1 0 1 0 1
16 0 4 0 1

C: THE LANGUAGE

- more unsafe
- older & more low-level
- K&R C book

PYTHON

- | | |
|------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| · interpreted (slower) | <i>C ← "closer to the metal!"</i> |
| · no type declaration | · compiler |
| · no pointers | · faster execution (typically) |
| · auto memory manag | · type declaration |
| | · pointers |
| | · manual mem. manage. |
| | · have to tell explicitly |

CODE:

```
//comments are with "//"
//This is our "entry point" function called app_main...start here
void app_main(){ //gotta use curly braces (and ; at end of most lines!)
    int x; //declare a variable of type int without defining it
    x = 11; //assign 11 to
    int y = 15; //declare and defie a variable of type int
    int z = x+y;
    printf("the value of x is %d\n", x); //print using C-string format
    printf("the value of y is %d\n", y);
    printf("the value of z is %d\n", z);
    // what did this "make" in memory?
}
```

At the end of our code, our computer memory looked like this:

Address:	Value:
0x3fc93f48:	0x00000000
0x3fc93f4c:	0x420000e4
0x3fc93f50:	0x00000000
0x3fc93f54:	0x0000001a ← $z \rightarrow 1a = 16 + 10 = 26$
0x3fc93f58:	0x0000000f ← $y = 15$
0x3fc93f5c:	0x0000000b ← var x in memory (ii)
0x3fc93f60:	0x00000000
0x3fc93f64:	0x00000000
0x3fc93f68:	0x00000000
0x3fc93f6c:	0x4201652c

SYNTAX:

- ; @ end of all lines
- spacing doesn't matter
- { delineates code chunks

MEMORY: large chunk of electrical storage

- stored digitally (0s 1s)
- low to high
- 0b @ start to indicate binary (base 2)
- HEXADECIMAL: 0x, 4 binary → 1 hex, base 16

git.
 $2^{11} 2^{10} 2^9 2^8 2^7 2^6 2^5 2^4 2^3 2^2 2^1 2^0$

BINARY:

 HEX: 7 D 0

$$0b011111010000 = 0x7D0$$

Preface hexadecimal numbers with **0x**

- underlying bits are still the same!

Hexadecimal - base 16

0000	- 0	1000	- 8
0001	- 1	1001	- 9
0010	- 2	1010	- A
0011	- 3	1011	- B
0100	- 4	1100	- C
0101	- 5	1101	- D
0110	- 6	1110	- E
0111	- 7	1111	- F

ddress: Value:

"0"	Byte 3	Byte 2	Byte 1	Byte 0
"4"	Byte 7	Byte 6	Byte 5	Byte 4
"8"	Byte 11	Byte 10	Byte 9	Byte 8
"12"	Byte 15	Byte 14	Byte 13	Byte 12
"16"	Byte 19	Byte 18	Byte 17	Byte 16

ORGANIZATION:



- smallest accessible unit of mem = byte (8 bits)
- our system: 32-bit system = 4 byte words
- 4 byte words w/ addresses
 - each word → 32 bits data
 - each addy ↗
- chars only require 1 byte in memory
- float: 4 bytes
- int: 4 bytes

"..."

ad nauseum...

TYPES

PRINT:

- specify width: `printf("%03d, %06d\n", a, b);` ← 3 cols & 6 cols of space
- %0f prints float, %d = decimal, %c = char

```
int app_main () {
    printf ("%5d\n", 123 ); /* Prints " 123" */
    printf ("%*d\n", 5, 123 ); /* Prints " 123" */
    printf ("%+05d\n", 123 ); /* Prints "+0123" */
    printf ("%x\n", 123); /* Prints "7b" */
    printf ("%#x\n", 123); /* Prints "0x7b" */
    printf ("%#x\n", 123); /* Prints "0X7B" */
    printf ("%-.10.2f\n", 12.3 ); /* Prints "12.30" */
    printf ("%10.2f\n", 12.3); /* Prints " 12.30" */
    printf ("%lu\n", 123); /* Prints "123" */
    printf ("%s\n", "Testing"); /* Prints "Testing" */
    printf ("%c\n", 'A'); /* Prints "A" */
}
```

- careful not to represent float as int!

IMPORTS:

#include <stdint.h> ← more defs

#include <stdio.h> ← printf

C

- loops

```
if (a < b) {
    statement(s);
} else if (a == b) {
    statement(s);
} else {
    statement(s);
}
```

while (n > 1) { statement(s); }

```
for (i = 1; i < 10; i++) { statement(s);
}
```

- conditionals

- logical ops
 - &&, ||, !
 - any nonzero value is considered T (1)
 - ^ = XOR
 - ~ = NOT

- bitwise ops

- shift right by i = divide by 2^i
- shift left by i = multiply by 2^i

Ex: $x = 0b000101$ shift by 3 ($x \ll 3$) left

000101
001010
010100
101000

x bitwise AND y x & y	x bitwise OR y x y	x bitwise XOR y x ^ y	bitwise NOT x ~x
00101	00101	00101	00101
00110	00110	00110	
00100	00111	00011	11010

Ex:

x << y; //shift x left by y bits
x >> y; //shift x right by y bits
x & y; //bitwise and x with y
x | y; //bitwise or x with y
~x; //bitwise invert x
x ^ y; //bitwise xor x with y

```

int summ(int a, int b) {
    return a + b;
}
int x, y, z;
x = 1;
y = 2;
z = summ(x, y);

```

functions

- pointer → data type that "points" to other data
 - stores reference mem. addy
 - can recall if needed (dereference)
 - dangerous but freeing

Ex:

```

void app_main(){
    int x = 5; //make int called x
    int *ptr_to_x; //make int pointer called ptr_to_x
    ptr_to_x = &x; //give ptr_to_x the address of x
    printf("x is %d\n", x);
    printf("ptr_to_x's value is %d\n", *ptr_to_x);
    printf("The value ptr_to_x points at is %d\n", *ptr_to_x);
}

```

- This Prints:

x is 5
 ptr_to_x's value is 1070153564
 The value ptr_to_x points at is 5

The value of "x"

The value of "ptr_to_x"
 Which is the address of x

The value contained in the
 memory spot that ptr_x points to
 (which should be x)

Address:	Value:
0x3fc93f58:	0x42016554
0x3fc93f5c:	0x00000005 ← x
0x3fc93f60:	0x3fc93f5c ← ptr_to_x
0x3fc93f64:	0x00000000
0x3fc93f68:	0x00000000
0x3fc93f6c:	0x42016554

* in C:

- multiply int q = a * b;
 - declare pointer type int * z; ← declare int pointer named z
 - dereferencing * z = a; ← set val of z pts to int a
 $b = *z$; ← set int b to val z pts to
- 8 in C:
- and (logic) int q = a & b;
 - reference to / addy int * z = &a; ← set pointer z's val to a's addy

★IMPORTANT: * and & are opposites - can cancel out

```

int x = 5; //create x and set to 5
x = 6; //set x to 6
*(&x) = 6; //same thing as line above

```

&x == "the address of x"

*(...) == "the value at address ..."

PURPOSE OF POINTERS:

1) point to a variable.

- can alter outside world

- Can allow you to modify variables in place. For example, this function has no return type, but does have an "output" in the form of the pointer z

```
void add_and_assign(int x, int y, int *z){
    //the value of z is a reference (address)
    //the value at that address (*z) is now to be x+y;
    *z = x+y;
}
```

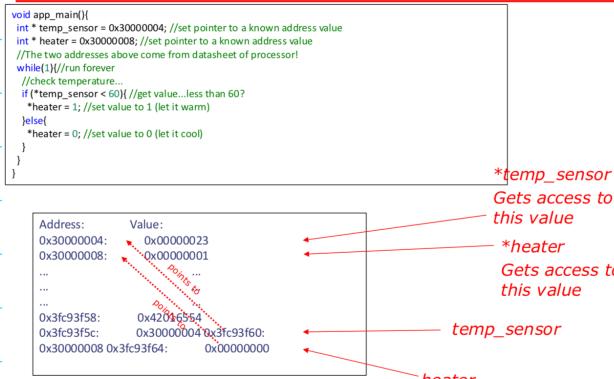
```
void app_main(){
    int a = 1;
    int b = 2;
    int c = 0; //starts at 0
    add_and_assign(a,b,&c); //give int a, b, and ref to c
    //this function call will change variable c!
    printf("Value of c: %d\n",c); //will print 3
}
```

2) refer to memory regions that aren't associated w/ variables

- memory-mapped-input-output

- set/get vals from software → hardware, v.v.

MMIO Example...



3) point to a group/region of data/variables

- can use pointer for data group & make faster

// in C:

```
int a[6] = {3, 9, 6, 1, 7, 2};
int x;
```

```
x = a[1];
```

pointer to start of array

```
int sum(int *a, int len) {
    int s = 0;
    for (int i=0; i<len; i++){
        s += a[i];
    }
    return s;
}
sum(a, 6);
```

ARRAYS:

size of array must be known C creation
type of elements must all be same

gth of len .
array
(need to tell)

Ex:

```
void app_main(){  
    int x[] = {1,2,3,4,5};  
    //10 long array of ints accessible through ptr y  
    //only four vals specified (rest are unknown)  
    int y[10] = {10,11,12,13};  
    printf("%d\n", x[1]); //prints 2  
    printf("%d\n", *x); //prints 1 same as x[0] or *(x+0)  
    printf("%d\n", x); //prints 1070153528 (0x3fc93f38 in hex)  
    printf("%d\n", x+1); //prints 1070153532 (0x3fc93f3c in hex) ← 2's memory  
    printf("%d\n", *(x+2)); //prints 3...same as x[2]  
    printf("%d\n", *(x+5)); //prints undefined...same as x[5]...no idea what's in that memory  
    printf("%d\n", *(y+10)); //prints 1...because you bled into where x is and x[0] is 1  
    //wait does that mean I could do this???  
    y[12]=15; //oh god please throw an error ] changes  
    printf("%d\n", x[2]); //prints 15...oh no ] 3rd element of x!  
}
```

memory after code:

Address:	Value:
0x3fc93f0c:	0x420001ec
0x3fc93f10:	0x0000000a
0x3fc93f14:	0x0000000b
0x3fc93f18:	0x0000000c
0x3fc93f1c:	0x0000000d
0x3fc93f20:	0x00000000
0x3fc93f24:	0x00000000
0x3fc93f28:	0x00000000
0x3fc93f2c:	0x00000000
0x3fc93f30:	0x00000000
0x3fc93f34:	0x00000000
0x3fc93f38:	0x00000001
0x3fc93f3c:	0x00000002
0x3fc93f40:	0x00000003
0x3fc93f44:	0x00000004
0x3fc93f48:	0x00000005

int y[10]

int x[]

EXERCISES:

Ex:
 $\begin{array}{r} 0b0110 \\ + 0b0010 \\ \hline 0b1000 \end{array}$

Ex:
 $\begin{array}{r} 0b0110 \\ - 0b0001 \\ \hline 0b0011 \end{array}$ borrowing 2
 (Always borrow the base! ex: 2 in binary, 6 in hex)

Ex:
 $4 \quad 3 = 12$
 $0b100 * 0b011 = 0b1100$

Ex: largest # bits to represent the result of multiplying two 5 bit #'s together → 10 BUT WHY?

Ex:
 $\begin{array}{r} 0b111 \quad 7 \\ * 0b100 \quad 4 \\ \hline 0b1111100 \quad 28 \end{array}$ $31 \quad 15 \quad 7 \quad 3 \quad 1$ $31^2 \rightarrow 961 \rightarrow 2^{10}$
 $0b0001100000$ $0b111 \quad 0b110$ $0b11100$
 $0b100 \quad 0b111$
 $0b10101010$
 10011010

Ex: $0b001010 \ll 2 = 0b101000$] does NOT wrap around.

Ex: $0b110010 \gg 2 = 0b1100$] ends become 0 when bit-shifting

SIGNED → + & - #s

UNSIGNED → + & 0 #s

Ex: $0b00100 \& 0b00011 = 1$ b/c # = 1 always? 0 = 0?

Ex: $!0b101010 = 1$

this = 0!

Ex: $(0b0010 - 0b0001 - 0b0001) \&& 0b0101 = 0!$

& evaluates each digit.

&& evaluates numbers (nonzero)

[4/11/25] - recitation 1

BIT:

- Fundamental unit
- 0 or 1

BYTE:

- 8 bits
- $2^8 = 256$ configurations

WORD:

- 2^{32}
- 8 bytes

UNSIGNED (non-neg) BINARY

`uint8_t = unsigned int - 8 bits type`

each can represent up to $2^N - 1$ numbers $[0, 2^N - 1]$

in binary \rightarrow prefix 0b

REMAINDER:

div remain

Ex: $13 / 2 = 6$	1	← least significant
$6 / 2 = 3$	0	
$3 / 2 = 1$	1	
$1 / 2 = 0$	1	← most significant (left)

POWER OF 2:

Ex: $13 = 8 + 4 + 1$

$$2^3 \quad 2^2 \quad 2^1 \rightarrow 1101$$

BINARY TO DECIMAL:

$$\text{Ex: } 0b1001 = 2^3 + 0 \cdot 2^2 + 0 \cdot 2^1 + 2^0 = 9$$

OPERATIONS:

$$\begin{array}{r} 0b111 \\ + 0b0001 \\ \hline 1000 \end{array} \quad \text{for 3 bits, result would be 000}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 0b1010 \\ 0b1100 \\ \hline 10110 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} * 0b1010 \\ 0b1111 \\ + 0b1010 \\ 0b1010 \\ \hline 10010110 \end{array} \quad 10010110$$

Binary Operations

- Bitwise
- Do operation on EACH bit
 - & (and), | (or), ~ (not), ^ (xor)
 - >> (right shift), << (left shift)

- Logical
- 0 = False
 - Anything else = True
- && (and), || (or), ! (not)
==, !=, >=, <=, <, > [Same as python]

X	Y	X&Y	X Y	X^Y	~(X)
0	0	0	0	0	1
0	1	0	1	1	1
1	0	0	1	1	0
1	1	1	1	0	0

Python	C
and	&&
or	
not	!

$$\text{Ex: } ((0b1001 \mid 0b1100) \& 0b0011) \ll 3$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 0b1101 \\ \quad \quad \quad 8 \quad 0b0011 \\ \hline 0b0001 \end{array} \quad \ll 3 = 1000$$

BITWISE

$$\text{Ex: } ((0b0000_1111)^ 0b1100_1100) \gg 4$$

$$0b1111_0000^ 0b1100_1100 = 0b0011_1100 \quad \gg 4 = 0000_0011$$

$$\text{Ex: } (0b100 \& (0b000 \ll 1)) == 0b001$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \quad \quad \quad 1 (\top) \\ \quad \quad \quad 1 (\top) - both \#s \\ \quad \quad \quad 1 == 1 \vee \text{TRUE} \rightarrow 1 \end{array}$$

$$\text{Ex: } !0b101\ 11 ((0b100_0b111_0b001) \& 0b001)$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \quad \quad \quad 0b0000 \\ \quad \quad \quad 0 \\ \quad \quad \quad 0 \end{array}$$

HEXADECIMAL:

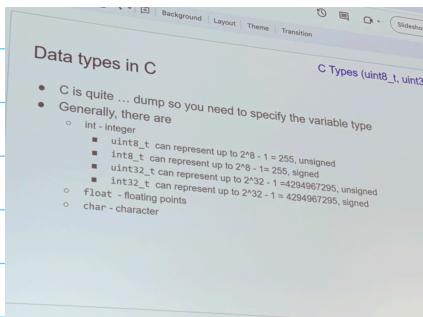
- base 16
- prefix 0x
- 1 digit of hex = 4 digits bin.

review
hex

Ex: hex of 0b00011100
1 C

Ex: $0 \times 2^0 \rightarrow 2 \times 16 = 32$

DATA TYPES:



DIVISION:

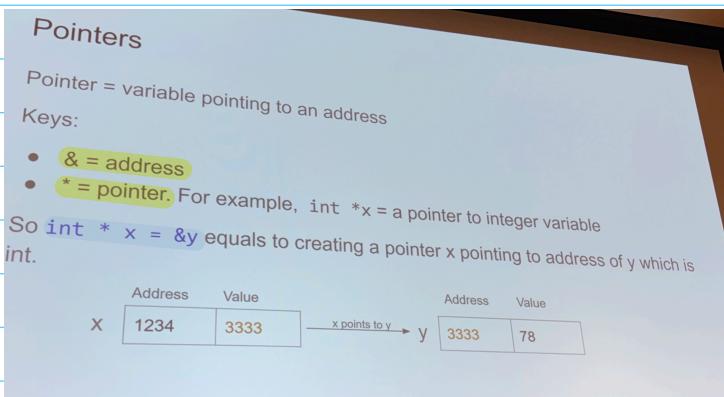
- integer division: int/int
- floating point division: if one or both its operands is float

Ex: float x = $\frac{9}{2}$ → x = 4.0

POINTERS:

& = addy

* = pointer



MEMORY:

Memory

- Store information containing
 - Address: sequential numbers, generally represented as four-byte word (32 bits)
 - Values: int, float, char, etc. not 0 automatically
 - For example, when declare int x, the initial value of x is not 0.

Address:	Value:
0x3fc93f48:	0x00000000
0x3fc93f4c:	0x4201652c
0x3fc93f50:	0x00000000
0x3fc93f54:	0x00000001
0x3fc93f58:	0x0000000f
0x3fc93f5c:	0x00000000
0x3fc93f60:	0x00000000
0x3fc93f64:	0x00000000
0x3fc93f68:	0x00000000
0x3fc93f6c:	0x4201652c

Chat sheet:
 a = variable = the address of the variable
 & a = address of a = 0x3fc93f58
 * (0x3fc93f5c) = value at the address
 0x3fc93f5c = 0xb

HELP ★ EX:

```
#include<stdio.h>
int main(void){
    int v = 16;
    int *x = &v; val of x = addy of v
diff. [ *x = **x*x; val of x = v
    printf("value at %u is %d\n", (int)x, *x);
}
```

ENUM & ARRAYS:

Enums and Arrays

Enumerate : giving names to integer constants

- enum State {Working = 1, Failed = 0};
- enum week {Mon, Tue, Wed, Thur, Fri, Sat, Sun};
- enum week today = Tue;

Arrays: a list of things, starting from index 0, fixed size

- int abc[] = {0, 1, 2, 3, 4}; **← can't change size**
- char def[3] = {'d', 'e', 'f'}; // 3 inside [] is optional
- def[1] = 'i'; // now def is {'d', 'i', 'f'}

EXERCISES - HEX

Ex: $\begin{array}{r} 0b0110-0100 \\ \hline 6 \quad 4 \end{array}$

Ex: $\begin{array}{r} 0x2A \\ + 0x49 \\ \hline 0x73 \end{array}$ *review
ops (add → 2 carries)
sub → base #

Ex: 8 bit result of $0xA \ll 2$
8 bits $32' + 4 = 42$

binary: $0b00101010$
 $\ll 2 \rightarrow 0b10101000$

hex: A8

Ex: 12-bit result $0x2b \ll 4$
 $32' + 11 = 43$

$0b0000000101011$
 $\ll 4 \rightarrow \underbrace{00}_{2} \underbrace{10}_{8} \underbrace{1011}_{0} 0000$

DIGITAL SYSTEMS:

- represent using binary, on/off, I/O
- each 0 or 1 value = bit
- n bits - encode 2^n unique things
 - $\rightarrow 1 \text{ bit} = 2 \text{ (0 or 1)}$
 - $\rightarrow 2 \text{ bits} = 2^2 = 4$
 - $\rightarrow 8 \text{ bits} = 2^8 = 256$

HOW MANY BITS NEEDED?

- t possibilities = $\lceil \log_2(t) \rceil$ bits
- light on/off $\rightarrow 1 \text{ bit} \rightarrow \log_2 2 = 1$
- days of week $\rightarrow \lceil \log_2 7 \rceil \rightarrow 3$
- states in US $\rightarrow \lceil \log_2 50 \rceil \rightarrow 6$

CONTEXT MATTERS: 8-bit value, 2^8 unique things, ex: 0b10100011 can mean...

- 163 unsigned
- 93 signed
- memory location
- etc.

COMPUTER ORG:

- byte = 8 bits
- 32-bit system = four-byte word

COMPUTER MEMORY:

- 4 byte words w/ addresses
- each word contains 32 bits of data
- express addresses as data in hexadecimal
- consecutive words have addresses that are 4 bytes apart
- 32-bit system can have 2^{32} bytes of data, or 2^{30} words
- variable store & pointers

POINTERS:

- pointers must have size (32 bits in size)
- data types have diff. amounts of bytes
- pointers must have type

POINTER SYNTAX:

```
int *x;
int *ptr_x = &x;    & gets addy of x
int r = *ptr_x + *ptr_y * creates pointer of type int
```

*dereference when used w/ op.

Ex:

- What will this output?

```
int main(void){
    int x = -16; //make signed int -16
    int* ptr_x = &x; //point pointer ptr_x to address of x
    int y = -32; //make a int of -32
    int *ptr_y = &y; //point pointer ptr_y to address of y
    int result = *ptr_x + *ptr_y; //add thing ptr_x points
                                //to thing ptr_y points
    printf("%d + %d is %d\n", x,*ptr_y,result);
}
```

-16 -32 \nwarrow pointer to y points to y

Output: -16 + -32 is -48

- What will this output?

Ex:

```
int main(void){
    int x = -16; //make signed int -16
    int* ptr_x = &x; //point pointer ptr_x to address of x
    float y = -32; //make a float of -32
    int* ptr_y = &y; //point pointer ptr_y to address of y
    int result = *ptr_x + *ptr_y; //add thing ptr_x points
                                    //to thing ptr_y points
    printf("%d + %f is %d\n", x,y,result);
}
```

Output: -16 + -32.000000 is -1040187408

Interpreting the contents at &y as an int is a problem. y is a float, but ptr_y is an int pointer. When we dereference, we're interpreting the bits as if they encode an integer

→ made a float but an int pointer to it

→ interpreted float as an int → CANT!

→ diff. from casting - int & floats are incompatible.

- What will this output?

Ex:

```
int main(void){
    char c = 'J';
    char* ptr_c = &c; //point ptr_c to c's address
    [ int* ptr_d = &c; //point ptr_d to c's address
    printf("ptr_c points to %.c. ptr_d points to %d\n", *ptr_c, *ptr_d);
}
```

Output: ptr_c points to J. ptr_d points to 525944906

Interpreting the contents at &c as an int was a problem. A char is not an int...their encodings and sizes are different! See that in a little bit!

→ interpreting char as int

→ interpreting right byte but wrong neighb.

- What will this output?

Ex:

```
int main(void){
    int8_t e = 22; //8 bit signed int e
    int8_t* ptr_e = &e; //point to it with correct pointer type
    int* ptr_f; //make a 32 bit signed pointer
    ptr_f = &e; //point a (32 bit) signed int to e
    printf("ptr_e points to %d. ptr_f points to %d\n", *ptr_e, *ptr_f);
}
```

Output: ptr_e points to 22. ptr_f points to 923355158

Interpreting the contents at &e as a 32-bit int was a problem. Both pointers are of integer type but different sizes of integers! (more on that in a little bit!!!)

→ both of type int but diff. int sizes

- What will this output?

Ex:

```
int main(void){
    int8_t e = 22; //8 bit signed int e
    int8_t* ptr_e = &e; //point to it with correct pointer type
    int* ptr_f; //make a 32 bit signed pointer
    ptr_f = &e; //point a (32 bit) signed int to e
    printf("ptr_e points to %d. ptr_f points to %d\n", *ptr_e, *ptr_f);
}
```

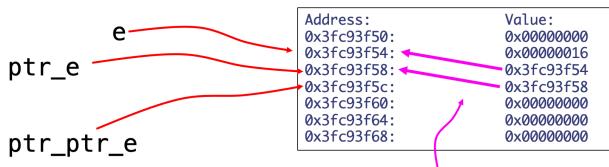
Output: ptr_e points to 22. ptr_f points to 923355158

Interpreting the contents at &e as a 32-bit int was a problem. Both pointers are of integer type but different sizes of integers! (more on that in a little bit!!!)

→ printing the address, not val.

• pointers live in memory & can be pointed to (pointer pointer)

```
int main(void){  
    int e = 22; //32 bit signed int e  
    int* ptr_e = &e; //point to it with correct pointer type  
    int** ptr_ptr_e = &ptr_e; //make a pointer to a pointer  
}
```



▪ Consider this:

```
int main(void){  
    int e = 22; //32 bit signed int e  
    int* ptr_e = &e; //point to it with correct pointer type  
    int** ptr_ptr_e = &ptr_e; //make a pointer to a pointer  
    **ptr_ptr_e = 15;  
    printf("The value of e is %d \n", e);  
}
```

Output: The value of e is 15

ptr_ptr_e points to ptr_e, so we need to first dereference to get to ptr_e's value, which is itself a reference (address) to e, so we need to then dereference a second time!

• can manipulate data in place

```
int f1(int x, int y){  
    return x+y;  
}  
void app_main(){  
    int a = 5;  
    int b = 9;  
    int c;  
    c = f1(a,b);  
}
```

"Take in x and y, give me back their sum. I will then copy it into c."

```
void f2(int x, int y, int *z){  
    *z = x+y;  
} val of c = x+y ↑ val of c  
void app_main(){  
    int a = 5;  
    int b = 9;  
    int c;  
    f2(a,b, &c);  
} ↑ addy of c
```

"Take in x and y, store their sum where z points. Just take care of it. I trust you."

These effectively do the same thing, one modifies "in place" and one modifies externally

• pointers are valuable (refer to large memory structures)

ARRAYS:

- in C, arrays = continuous chunks of memory
 - fixed size & memory (define length @ start)
- 1) allocates memory for array
- 2) creates pointer by which you access that spot in memory

- Consider this code...

```
int y[10] = {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10};
*(y+3) = 123; ↳ 123
printf("%d\n", y[3]); //what does this print?
```

- Dereferencing with an offset is identical to indexing! In fact:
 - **y[3] === *(y+3)//SAME THING**
- They are equivalent...and goes both ways:

```
int* d; pointer 123
int y[10] = {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10};
*(y+3) = 123; change 3rd el
d = y+3;
printf("%d\n", *(y+3)); 123
printf("%d\n", d[1]); //what does this print?
↳ 5 d pointing to 1th el → 1 more
*(d-1)=3
```

INDEXING:

- no boundary checks!
- watch limits!
- can point into unknown parts of mem.

ARRAY = FIXED pointer (cant reassign)

```
int a = 11;
int* x = &a;
int y[10] = {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10};
//x and y are the same type! int pointers! (sort of)
y = &a; //not allowed will throw compile error
printf("%d\n", *y);
```

ARRAYS INTO FUNCTIONS:

- all C function sees is array's pointer.
- Hand length/metadata about array in along with array

```
void double_every_entry_better(int* ptr, int length){
    for (int i = 0; i < length; i++) {
        *(ptr+i) = *(ptr+i)*2;
    }
}
void app_main_better(){
    int LEN = 10;
    int y[LEN] = {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10};
    double_every_entry_better(y, LEN);
}
```

metadata

→ no way to know len
of array in a func.

special char mark end (null)

→ string / char array: `char x[] = { 'c', 'a', 't', 's', '\0' };` longer
= "cats" ← easier

ASCII: 8 bits, 256 possibilities (only 128 used)

• 0b01000001 = 'A'

• 0b01100001 = 'a'

• 0b0 _____ = NULL

UNICODE: more modern

- up to 4 bytes (32 bits) vs. 1 byte / 8 bits ASCII
- represent ~~will~~ mill possible chars - we've used ~~miss~~ 000 so far

8 bits = 1 byte

- based in ASCII
- computers expand in 8... (16, 32, 64)

BOOLEANS:

- 0 = false
- everything else = true] unsigned int
- one bit

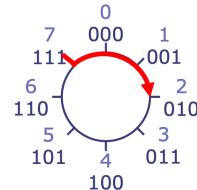
UNSIGNED INTS (uint):

- uint8_t → 1 byte, 8 bits = 2^8 vals
- uint16_t → 2 bytes, 16 bits = 2^{16} vals

INHERENT MODULARITY:

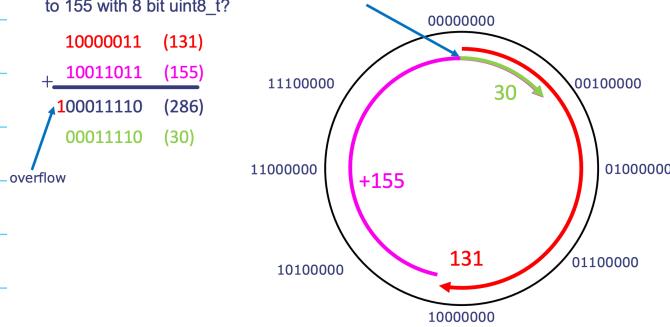
- using fixed # bits may result in overflow (results out of range)
- common approach: ignore extra bit.
- wrap around
- potential cause of bugs, can be good for cryptography

Example: $(7 + 3) \bmod 2^3$?



L02-5

- What happens if you add 131 to 155 with 8 bit uint8_t?



NEGATIVES: Solutions...

SIGN BIT:

- if msb is 1, interpret as neg. sign

0b00010001 = +(16+1) == 17
0b10010001 = -(16+1) == -17] however, signed 0 (+0 -0) = BIG PROBLEM
-double 0

'ONE'S COMPLEMENT':

- if msb is 0, interpret as unsigned val
- if msb is 1, neg.

$$-A = \sim A$$

$$0b00010001 == +(16+1)$$

$$0b11101110 == \text{bitflip of } 17 == -17$$

PROBLEMS:

- signed 0
- add/sub has carry/wrap around

INHERENT MOD:

- add 1 & move CW

• If I start at "3" aka 0b011,

what could I add to get to 1?

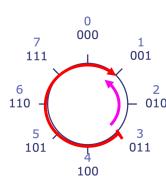
• To go back 2, I can add:

• $2^3 - 2 = 6$

• $(3+6)\%8 = 1$.

• Or: $\sim 010 = 110$

• $-2 = 8 - 2$



• The negative of a number A can be expressed as:

$$-A = 2^3 - A \quad -A = 8 - A$$

• Or written a different way:

$$-A = 0b001 + 0b111 - A$$

• 0b111 minus any 3 bit value will be the same as

the bitflip aka bitwise inversion of that value ($\sim A$)

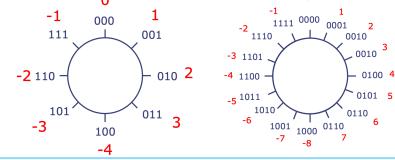
$$-A = 0b001 + (0b111 - A)$$

• So the negative of any value must be:

$$-A = 1 + \sim A$$

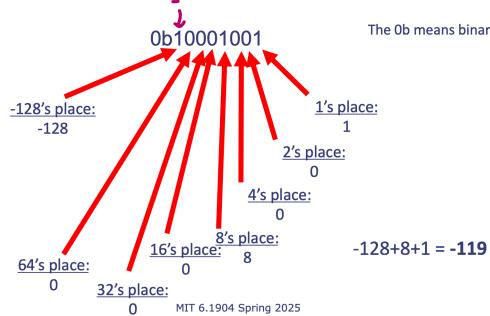
2's COMPLEMENT:

- If we make 0b100 into -4, the system of numbers becomes consistent and easily extensible to more bits.



- pos → neg range, not inherently -
- negative weighted bits
- msb → -2^{N-1}
- most pos # = $+2^{N-1} - 1$
- if all bits = 1 → 0b111...11 → -1
- no double zero

- If you want to interpret it as a 2's complement

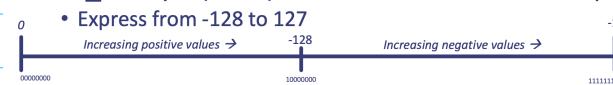


/7/25

MIT 6.1904 Spring 2025

SIGNED INT (ints):

- int8_t: 1 byte (8 bits): 2^8 values: 256 numbers to rep

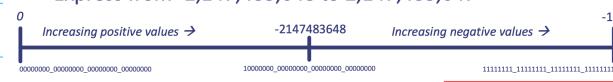


- int16_t: 2 bytes (16 bits): 2^{16} values: 65,536 numbers



- int32_t: 4 bytes (32 bits): 2^{32} values: 4,294,967,296 nums

- Express from -2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647



4/7/25

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int32_t == "int"

L02-67

EXTENDING DIGITS:

- need to sign extend

Ex: 8 bit $-64 = 0b11000000$ 16 bit $-64 = 0b11111111_11000000$

SHIFT LEFT: FILL w/ 1s

Ex: $+64 = 0b01000000$
 $-64 = 0b11000000$

SHIFT RIGHT:

- more sticky
- type dependent
- signed: f:ll w/ 1s
- unsigned: f:ll w/ 0s

*LOGICAL = unsigned

*ARITHMETIC = signed!

- Consider two signed numbers: +32 and -32 as 8 bit signed values:

 $+32 = 0b00100000$ $-32 = 0b11100000$

- If we left shift (<<) what do we get?

 $+64 = 0b10000000$ $-64 = 0b11000000$

New digits that show up are zeros/same

- Consider two signed numbers: +32 and -32 as 8 bit signed values:

 $+32 = 0b00100000$ $-32 = 0b11100000$

- If we right-shift (>>) what do we get?

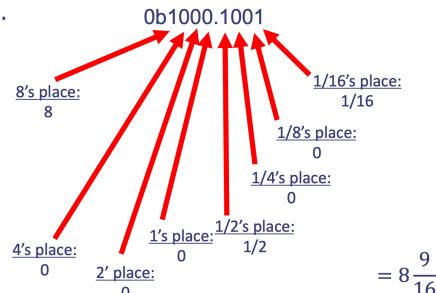
 $+16 = 0b00010000$ $-16 = 0b11110000$

New digits that show up are different

NON-INT #: fixed pt representation

- radix marker '.' @ fixed pt in binary
- precision & range limited
- more bits on right of '.' = fewer on left
- many things do not exist in linear space

- Pretend there's a radix marker (".") at a fixed location in your binary...then reinterpret meaning of bits.



EXPONENTIAL FORMAT:

- If you needed to encode something that is best represented by orders of magnitude?
 - Have an 8-bit type called `exp8_t` where the 8 bits represent a unsigned 8 bit number `exp` which is used in the following encoding formula*:

Value = $2^{\exp-127}$

-127 Base-two exponentials are easy to calculate in binary!

- Represent from:

- Up to: $2^{255-127} = 2^{128} \approx 3.403 \times 10^{38}$

- Down to: $2^{0-127} = 2^{-127} \approx 5.877 \times 10^{-39}$

made this up but I'm going somewhere with it.

**made this up but I'm going somewhere with this so bear with me...*

- So if you had an `exp8_t` with `0b01111100` as its value...that means: `0b01111100` The 0

The 0b means binary

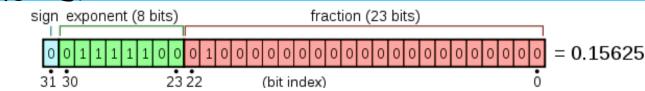


- So actual $= 2^{124-127} = 2^{-3} = 0.125$

• large range of #s, but limited precision

IEEE 754

- float: 4 bytes (32 bits), 2^{32} vals
 - wide range & good precision
 - decimal pt is floating not fixed format:

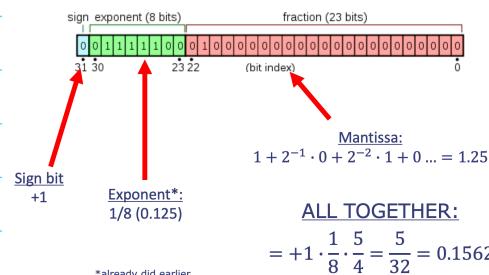


$$\text{Value} = (-1)^{\text{sign.}} \cdot 2^{\exp - 127} \cdot (1 + \sum_{i=1}^{23} b_{23-i} 2^{-i})$$

~~exp up to~~ $2^{255-127} = 2^{128}$

$$\text{down to } z^{0-127} = z^{-127}$$

$$\text{Value} = (-1)^{\text{sign.}} \cdot 2^{\exp - 127} \cdot (1 + \sum_{i=1}^{23} b_{23-i} 2^{-i})$$



$$= +1 \cdot \frac{1}{8} \cdot \frac{5}{4} = \frac{5}{32} = 0.15625$$

in class: just care ab. REPRESENTATION

• 32 bit float does NOT let us represent more #s. 2^{32} unique vals only

• Compromise → sacrifice precision for range

• can have massive "gaps"

- **approximation based**
 - 32 Bit floats represent 2^{32} (4.3×10^9) values between -3.4×10^{38} to $+3.4 \times 10^{38}$
 - There is NO WAY to represent every single number between these to limits with only 32 bits.
 - There is NO WAY to represent even every integer between these to limits.

```
#include<stdio.h>
int main(void)
{
    float x = 123456789;
    float y = 123456788;
    printf("The value of x is %f\n",x);
    printf("The value of y is %f\n",y);
}
```

■ Exponential representation means:

- Merging (+/-, etc...) two numbers of vastly different scales can result in the smaller one getting consumed by the larger one and lost

```
int main(void){  
    float x = 1.35e9; //create float that is "1.35 billion"  
    float y = 23.0; //create float that is "23.0"  
    float sum = x+y; //sum them  
    float sum_wo_x = sum - x; //remove x again  
    printf("%f is %f\n%f is %f\n%f is %f\n",x,y,sum,sum_wo_x);  
}
```

Output:

x is 1350000000.000000
y is 23.000000
x+y is 1350000000.000000

FLOATS (cont.)

- has a double zero
→ not necess. issue (beneficial for limits)

EXERCISES:

Ex: -5 in 8-bit 2's complement: 0b1111011

Ex: negate 4-bit 2's comp. 0b1110 to make it +2's comp. #

$$-A = 1 + \bar{A} = 1 + 0001 = 0b0010$$

Ex: negate 5-bits 2's comp 0b01000 to make neg 2's comp #

$$-A = 1 + \bar{A} = 1 + 0b10111 = 11000$$

Ex: 0b0011
0b1010

Ex: -0b00111
10111

Ex: 0b100001 > 0b011101 → 0 (2's comp. not.)

(*) Ex: decimal equivalent of 2's comp. hex 0xab

to binary: 1010-1011

$$\begin{array}{r} 64 \ 16 \ 4 \ 1 \\ \text{invert: } 0101-0100+1 = 0101-0101 \rightarrow -85 \end{array}$$

apply neg. sign

Ex: 0x3c << 2 in 8 bits?

$$0011-1100 \ll 2 = \overbrace{\quad\quad\quad}^F \overbrace{\quad\quad\quad}^0$$

Ex: 0x8e >> 3

$$1000-\underline{1110} \gg 3 = \overbrace{\quad\quad\quad}^F \overbrace{\quad\quad\quad}^I$$

(*) Ex: 2's comp. hex of decimal # -1

1 in binary: 0b0001

$$\bar{A} + 1 = 0b1111 = F$$

(*) Ex: 2's comp. 8 bit result of 0x8e >> 3

binary: 1000-1110

arithm. Shift: 1111-0001 = F1

(*) Ex: 0xC080000 < 0xC3980000 → 0
• binary, invert bits & add 1

Ex: What is the decimal equivalent of 32-bit floating point number

0b1011_1111_0100_0000_0000_0000_0000_0000?

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{exp} = 2^{126-127} \\ &= 2^{-1} \times \frac{1}{2} \\ &2+4+8+16+32+64 \\ &= 126 \end{aligned}$$

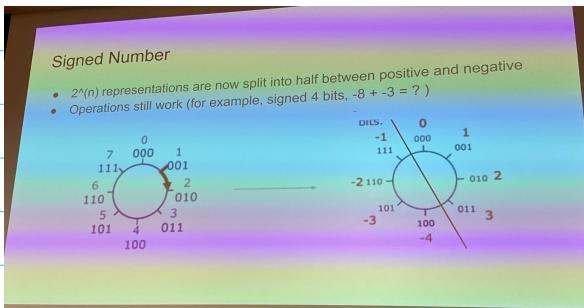
$$\begin{aligned} \text{frac} &= (1+2^{-1}) = \left(1+\frac{1}{2}\right) \\ &-2^{-1} \times (1+2^{-1}) = -\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2^2} = -0.5 - 0.25 = -0.75 \end{aligned}$$

Ex: 0x43A80000

$$\begin{aligned} &0100-0011-\underline{1010-1000-0000-0000-0000-0000} \\ &+ 2^{35-127} = 2^8 \cdot (1+2^{-2}+2^{-4}) \end{aligned}$$

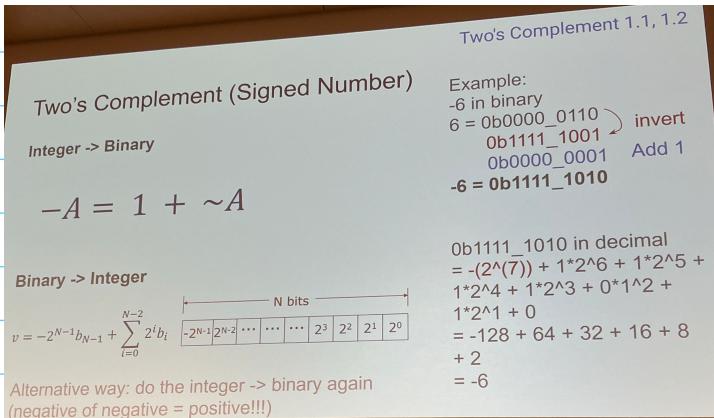
4/8/25 - RECITATION 2 : signed #s, floats, pointers

SIGNED #:



INT → BINARY $-A = 1 + \sim A$

$$\text{BINARY} \rightarrow \text{INT} \quad v = -2^{N-1} b_{N-1} + \sum_{i=0}^{N-2} 2^i b_i$$

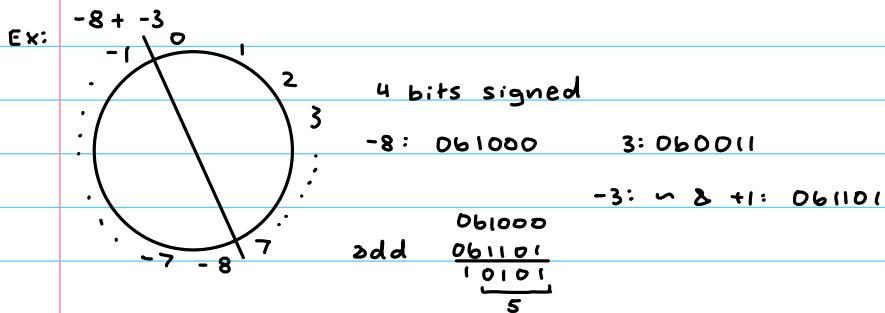


Ex: 1111-1010

~ invert: 0000-0101

+1: 0000-0110

= 6



Ex: Smallest/largest # represented using 2's complement?

$$\text{smallest} = \text{largest} \ominus \text{value} = 0b1000000 = -2^6 = -64$$

$$\text{largest} = \text{largest} \oplus \text{value} = 0b0111111 = 2^5 + 2^4 + 2^3 + 2^2 + 2^1 = 63$$

LOGICAL & ARITHMETIC SHIFT:

<< always fill with 0s

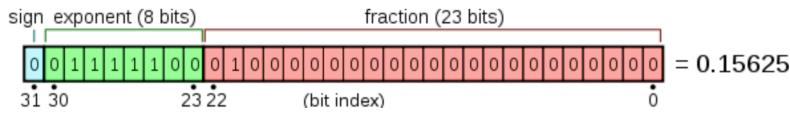
>>

unsigned = patch with 0s (logical)

signed = patch with 1s if MSB=1, 0s other (arithmetic)

FLOATS:

2) Floating point representation ([Wikipedia](#))



$$\text{Value} = (-1)^{\text{sign}} \cdot 2^{\text{exp}-127} \cdot \left(1 + \sum_{i=1}^{23} b_{23-i} 2^{-i}\right)$$

Floating point numbers are represented using 32 bits of binary. The most significant bit represents the sign (1 is negative, 0 is positive), the next 8 bits represent the exponent +127, and the last 23 bits represent the mantissa. The mantissa encodes the fractional part of the number. The actual value of the number is $\text{sign} \cdot 2^{\text{exponent}-127} \cdot \text{fraction}$.

2.1) Floating point to decimal

To convert from floating point to decimal:

- Convert hex representation to sign_normalizedExponent_mantissa representation.
- If sign is 1, then sign is negative otherwise sign is positive.
- Find the actual exponent by subtracting 127 from the normalized exponent.
- Express numeric portion as 1.mantissa.
- If the actual exponent is positive, shift this number to the left by exponent bits. If the exponent is negative, shift this number to the right by exponent bits.
- Convert the resulting value to decimal treating each position to the left of the decimal as a positive power of 2 starting at 0, and each position to right of the decimal point as a negative power of 2.

Ex: decimal equivalent of 32-bit floating point number 0x40840000 ?

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{convert to binary: } & 0100_0000_1000_0100_0000_0000_0000_0000 \\
 & \text{sign } 1 \quad \text{exponent } 2^1 2^2 \dots \quad \text{mantissa } 2^{7+1}=129 \\
 & = (-1)^0 \times 2^{129-127} \times (1 + [0.2^{-1}] + [0.2^{-2}] \dots + [2^{-5}]) \\
 & = 1 \times 2^2 \times (1 + \frac{1}{2^5}) \\
 & = 4 + \frac{1}{32} = 4.125
 \end{aligned}$$

2.2) Decimal to Floating point

To convert from decimal floating point:

- Convert original number to base 2
- Shift number to the right or left so that the shifted number is of the form 1.mantissa. In other words, the decimal is just to the right of the leftmost 1. A shift to the left represents a negative exponent whose magnitude is the number of bits shifted, while a shift to the right represents a positive exponent. For example, 0b100.0 = 1.0×2^2 , whereas 0.01 = 1.0×2^{-2} .
- Find the normalized exponent by adding 127 to the actual exponent.
- Your floating point number is sign_normalizedExponent_mantissa
- Convert the 32-bit binary representation to hexadecimal.

Ex: -5.75 in 32-bit floating point representation

sign = 1 (negative)

$$5 = 4 + 1 = 2^2 + 1 = 0b101$$

$$0.75 = 0.5 + 0.25 = 2^{-1} + 2^{-2}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \rightarrow 0b101.1100 \\
 & \rightarrow 2 \text{ (sci. notation)} \\
 & 0b1.011100 \times 2^2 \text{ (shift left 2)} \\
 & \text{mantissa} \uparrow
 \end{aligned}$$

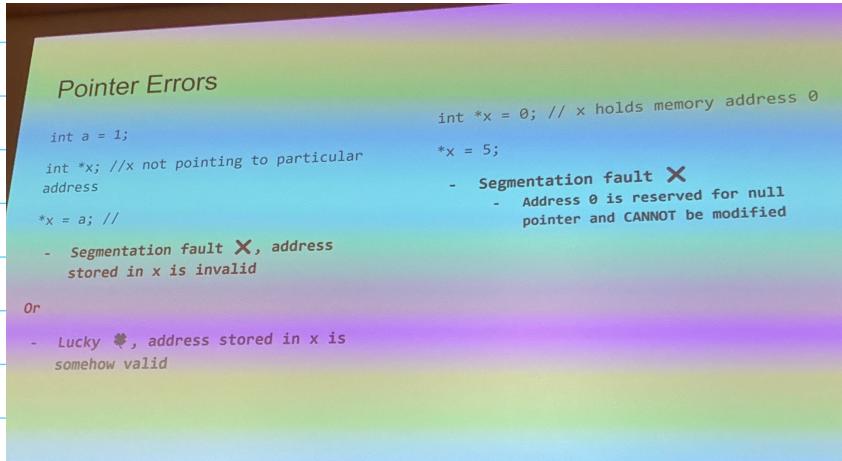
$$\text{Ex: } 0.111 \rightarrow 1.11 \times 2^{-1}$$

$$\text{exp}-127=2 \rightarrow \text{exp}=129$$

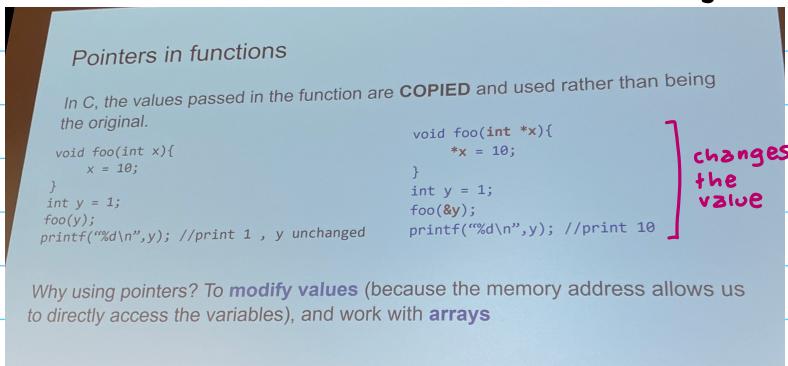
$$\begin{aligned}
 129 &= 128 + 1 = 1000001 \\
 1-1000001_011100\ldots &\quad \text{23 bits} \\
 C & \quad O \quad B \quad 8 \quad 0000
 \end{aligned}$$

POINTERS:

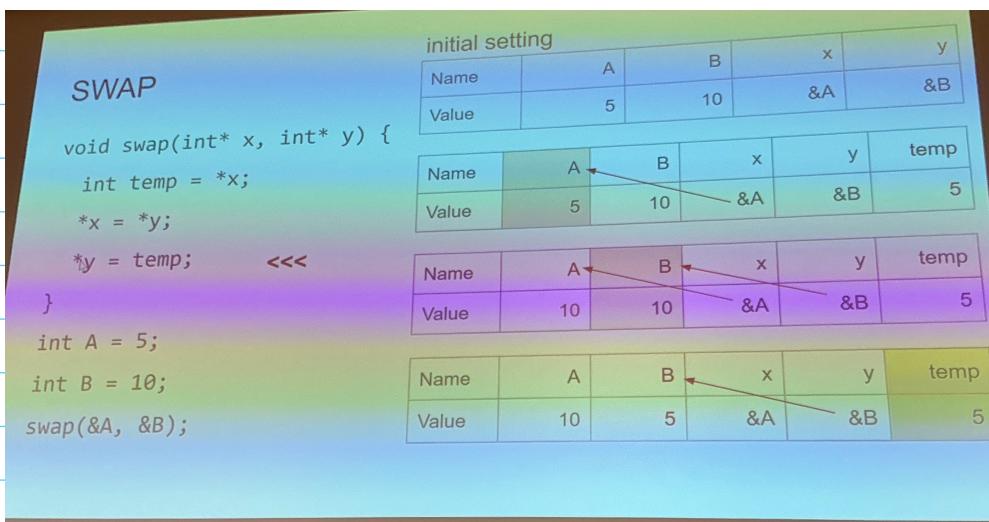
- 32 bit memory addy
- diff. data types = diff. # of bytes
- need to specify type of pointer so it knows how many bytes to read & interpret
- $\&x$ = addy of x
- $*y$ = value of memory addy of y = dereference y



- values passed in function as COPIES not original



(A)



ARRAYS:

- continuous chunks of memory
- must declare type/size
- stores first addy in section of memory

Ex: `int y[10] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10};`

```
printf("%d\n", y[3]); }  
*(y+3) } all print 4!  
(y+3)[0]  
(y+3)[2] → prints 6
```

STRING

- array of chars (constant pointer)
- use ASCII encoding to represent chars
- use '\0' null char to indicate end of string

Ex: `printf("%c\n", GS) → 'A'` string = " double quotes
`%d\n 'C' → 67` char = ' single quotes

deref: `s[2] = 'a'`
`*(s+2) = '?'`

`printf("%s", s+2) ← prints until end when it sees \0 null
output: 'Hello world'`

3) Square

Ex: Write a function that takes a pointer to an int as an input and returns the square of the value it points to.

```
1 v int square(int* x) {  
2   // your code  
3   return ****; value @ x * value @ x  
4 }
```

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1) String index

Ex: Write a function that receives a string and a character as inputs and it returns the first index at which that character is found in the string or -1 if not found. Again, write this using array indices and then rewrite it by updating the pointers and dereferencing them to access the string's characters.

```
1 v int string_index(char *s, char c) {  
2   // don't have the len -- know to stop when reach \0 (value = 0)  
3   for (int i = 0; s[i] != '\0'; i++) {  
4     if (s[i] == c) return i; // if at index i, char == char  
5   }  
7   return -1; // if failed  
8  
// pointer version  
9   int i = 0;  
10  while (*s != 0) { // loop until s hits end of the string  
11    if (*s == c) return i; // dereference s, check equal to c  
12    s++; // move s to next element  
13    i++;  
14  }  
15  return -1;  
16 }
```

Submit View Answer 100.00%

You have infinitely many submissions remaining.

Your score on your most recent submission was: 100.00%

Show/Hide Detailed Results

5) Pointers to pointers

EX:

```
1 int x = 60004, y = 314;
2 int *ptr, *ptr2;
3 ptr = &x; // ptr points to x, so *ptr == 60004
4 int **ptr_to_ptr;
5 ptr_to_ptr = &ptr; // ptr_to_ptr points to ptr, so *ptr_to_ptr == ptr and **ptr_to_ptr == 60004
6 x = 0; // we still have *ptr_to_ptr == *ptr == x, just now they're all 0
7 *ptr = 1; // we still have *ptr_to_ptr == *ptr == x, just now they're 1
8 ptr2 = &y;
9 *ptr_to_ptr = ptr2; // This is tricky! Draw a diagram with what everything points to and what
value everything has.
10 // Answer: We still have *ptr_to_ptr == ptr1. Since we assigned the new value to ptr2, now ptr1
== ptr2. In particular this means **ptr_to_ptr == *ptr == *ptr2 == y == 314
11 y = 77; // Changing the value of y changes all of the above equalities!
12 // But what is x? Nothing points to x anymore, so we still have x == 1
13 x = 2; // This changes x, but none of our pointers are related to x anymore so nothing else
changes
```

[4/14/25] - C STRINGS

Will inherit
what's in
memory
beforehand

```
int x[] = {1,2,3,4}; //make four long int array call it x
int y[10]; //create ten long int array, call it y (But don't declare values)
int z[5] = {1}; //create array 5 long called z, 0th element is 1, rest are 0
```

ARRAYS:

continuous portions of memory accessible via pointer

char array syntax more flexible

char arrays always null-terminated

```
char a[10] = {'t','h','e',' ','c','a','t','\0'}; //10 char array with two nulls
//at end
char b[] = "the cat."; //9 long array with "the cat." followed by null
```

```
void app_main(){
    int x[] = {1,2,3,4,5}; //compiler figures out array length large enough for items listed
    //10 long array of ints accessible through ptr y
    //only five vals specified (rest are unknown)
    int y[10] = {10,11,12,13};
    printf("%d\n", x[1]); //prints 2
    printf("%d\n", *x); //prints 1 same as x[0] or *(x+0)
    printf("%x\n", x); //prints 1070153528 (3fc93f38 in hex)
    printf("%d\n", x+1); //prints 1070153532 (3fc93f3c in hex)
    printf("%d\n", *(x+2)); //prints 3...same as x[2]
    printf("%d\n", *(x+5)); //prints undefined...same as x[5]...no idea what's in that memory
    printf("%d\n", *(y+10)); //prints 1...because you bled into where x is and x[0] is 1
}
```

- What does the following print?

hexadecimal

```
printf("%x\n", *(y+2)); 0x0C
12 in hex →
```

```
void app_main(){
    int x[] = {1,2,3,4,5}; //compiler figures out array length large enough for items listed
    //10 long array of ints accessible through ptr y
    //only five vals specified (rest are unknown)
    int y[10] = {10,11,12,13};
    printf("%d\n", x[1]); //prints 2
    printf("%d\n", *x); //prints 1 same as x[0] or *(x+0)
    printf("%x\n", x); //prints 1070153528 (3fc93f38 in hex)
    printf("%d\n", x+1); //prints 1070153532 (3fc93f3c in hex)
    printf("%d\n", *(x+2)); //prints 3...same as x[2]
    printf("%d\n", *(x+5)); //prints undefined...same as x[5]...no idea what's in that memory
    printf("%d\n", *(y+10)); //prints 1...because you bled into where x is and x[0] is 1
}
```

each int
occupies 32 bits

Address:	Value:
0x3fc93f0c:	0x420001ec
0x3fc93f10:	0x0000000a
0x3fc93f14:	0x0000000b
0x3fc93f18:	0x0000000c
0x3fc93f1c:	0x0000000d
0x3fc93f20:	0x0000000e
0x3fc93f24:	0x0000000f
0x3fc93f28:	0x00000000
0x3fc93f2c:	0x00000000
0x3fc93f30:	0x00000000
0x3fc93f34:	0x00000000
0x3fc93f38:	0x00000001
0x3fc93f3c:	0x00000002
0x3fc93f40:	0x00000003
0x3fc93f44:	0x00000004
0x3fc93f48:	0x00000005

"int y[10]" ← Stack into
memory

"int x[]"

but, computer doesn't see whole memory - just glimpses

Sizeof: provides size of data object (in BYTES)

```
char a[10] = {'t','h','e',' ','c','a','t','\0'}; //10 char array with two nulls
char b[] = "the cat"; //8 long array with "the cat" followed by null
int x;
char y;
int z[15];
printf("%d\n", sizeof(a)); //prints 10
printf("%d\n", sizeof(b)); //prints 8
printf("%d\n", sizeof(x)); //prints 4
printf("%d\n", sizeof(y)); //prints 1
printf("%d\n", sizeof(z)); //prints 60 ← 4·15 (each int=4 bytes)
printf("%d\n", sizeof(z)/sizeof(int)); //prints 15 will get you array

```

works for char b/c each char is only 1 byte

in C, all function args are passed by value!

when array is handed in as arg to function in C,
can only see pointer, NOT the array

(A)

(P)

```

int sum_array(int* ai){
    int sum = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < sizeof(ai); i++){
        sum+= ai[i];
    }
    return sum;
}

int main(void){
    int aa[10] = {2,4,6,8,10,12,14,16,18,20};
    int c = sum_array(aa);
    //value of c? = 2
}

```

```

int aa[10] = {2,4,6,8,10,12,14,16,18,20};

int sum_array(int* ai){
    int sum = 0;
    printf("size of ai: %d\n", sizeof(ai)); ④
    printf("size of aa: %d\n", sizeof(aa)); ④
    for (int i = 0; i < sizeof(ai); i++){ ④
        sum+= ai[i];
    }
    return sum;
}

int main(void){
    int c = sum_array(aa);
    printf("%d\n", c);
}

```

What is printed here?

- **sizeof** provides the number of bytes that a *thing* is.
- On previous slide, the "thing" is a pointer inside a function and that is:
 - only four bytes (on 32-bit system)
 - or eight bytes (on a 64-bit system)
- There is NO WAY to inherently know the size of an array that is passed in as an argument in C.
- You MUST:
 - Pass along variable informing of size of array
 - (general solution)
 - Establish some sort of rule-set for the size of the object
 - (C-strings)

more acceptable:

```

int sum_array(int* ai, int arr_len){
    int sum = 0;
    printf("size of ai: %d\n", sizeof(ai));
    for (int i = 0; i < arr_len; i++){
        sum+= ai[i];
    }
    return sum;
}

int main(void){
    int aa[10] = {2,4,6,8,10,12,14,16,18,20};
    int bb[5] = {19,20,21,4,1};
    int c = sum_array(aa, sizeof(aa)/sizeof(int));
    int d = sum_array(bb, sizeof(bb)/sizeof(int));
    printf("%d\n", c);
    printf("%d\n", d);
}

```

- sizeof is NOT a function, it's an operator
- interpreted @ compile time not run time
- before code runs, evals where used & replaced w/ #

there's no way to inherently know size of array

SOLUTIONS:

- pass along var informing size of array (general soln)
- establish some sort of rule-set for size of obj (C-str)

C-STRING

- null-terminated char array
- all elements are ASCII
- C-string array points to where 1st null occurs

String.h

- library
- determine attributes, manipulate, compare
- **strlen**: determine len of C-string
 - takes in pointer to C-string const char *str
 - returns length (# of non-null chars up until null)

• **strcpy**: copy a C-string

- copy to destination pointed by src (transfer data)
- can be dangerous (overwrite)
- prez lives after buffer in memory
so when we call **jstrcpy**, copies over it

• **strcat**: concat. a C-string

- adds onto destination ptd to by src

```

int jstrlen(const char *str) {
    char *searcher = str;
    while (*searcher != '\0') {
        searcher++;
    }
    return searcher - str;
}

```

```

char * jstrcpy (char *destination, const char *source) {
    uint_32 spot=8;
    while (* (source+spot) != NULL) {
        destination[spot] = *(source+spot);
        spot += 1; ← write code before switch ind.
    }
    destination[spot] = 0;
    return destination;
}

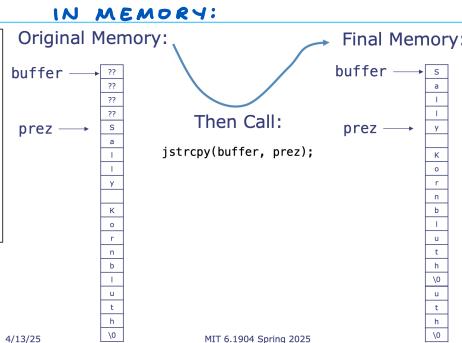
char * jstrcat (char *destination, const char * source) {
    int null_loc = jstrlen(destination);
    return strcpy(destination + null_loc, source);
}

```



```
int main(void){
    char prez[] = "Sally Kornbluth";
    char buffer[4];
    int len = jstrlen(prez);
    printf("length of string: %d\n", len);
    jstrcpy(buffer, prez);
    printf("Original String: \"%s\"\n", prez);
    printf("Copied String: \"%s\"\n", buffer);
}
```

length of string: 15
 Original String: "y Kornbluth"
 Copied String: "Sally Kornbluth"



4/13/25

• all bytes have addresses & accessible

- **strcpy**: copy a c-string
- **strncpy**: copy n characters from a c-string
- **strlcpy**: copy n-1 characters from a c-string and makes sure to NULL terminate

restrictions: →

- **strcat**: concatenate a c-string
- **strncat**: concatenate n characters from a c-string
- **strlcat**: concatenate n-1 characters from a c-string and makes sure to NULL terminate

STRING.H COMPARISONS:

strcmp compares first n chars

strncmp compares entire c-string

OUTPUTS:

- First unmatched char is lower in str1 than str2
- equal
-

string.h Search Functions

- **strchr**: Find first instance of character in c-string
- **strrchr**: Find last instance of character in c-string
- **strstr**: Find location of sub c-string inside c-string
- **strtok**: Tokenize c-string into sub c-strings.
 (exercise this week!)

- Looks for last instance of **needle** in c-string **haystack** and returns a pointer to it
- How must this function's search differ from regular **strchr**?

- **char * strchr (const char * haystack, char needle);**
- Looks for first instance of **needle** in c-string **haystack** and returns a pointer to it
- If it isn't found, it returns a **NULL** Pointer!
- Example:
 - Determine if there is an 'l' in "Sally Kornbluth"
 - How could we determine where this first occurrence is?

```
char * strstr(const char * haystack, char needle) {
    uint_32 ind=0;
    while (haystack[ind] != NULL) {
        if (*(haystack+ind)==needle) {
            return haystack+ind;
        }
        ind++;
    }
}
```

sprintf:

- not part of **string.h** lib
- Similar to **printf** but writes to a string you provide, not the terminal
- Function returns # chars written

```
int i = some_function(19,86); //return 2012
char temp[10];
sprintf(temp,"%d",i);
//temp now holds the c-string: "2012\0"
//(NULL is auto-added in sprintf)
```

Ex:

Generate C-string that has every number in it from 0 to 1000!

- One function that repeatedly uses `strcat`:
- One function that uses `sprintf` in conjunction with pointer arithmetic directly!:

```
//version one using strcat:  
char totes[100000]; //big enough  
void build_num_string_1(){  
    totes[0] = 0; //null first value  
    for (int i = 0; i<1000; i++){  
        char temp[10];  
        sprintf(temp,"%d ",i);  
        strcat(totes,temp);  
    }  
    printf("%s\n",totes);  
}
```

```
//version 2 using sprintf and  
//pointer arithmetic:  
char totes[10000]; //big enough  
void build_num_string_2(){  
    totes[0] = 0; //null first value  
    int tally = 0;  
    for (int i = 0; i<1000; i++){  
        tally += sprintf(totes+tally,"%d ",i);  
    }  
    printf("%s\n",totes);  
}
```

- `strcat` has to go through str & search for null repeatedly
 - slow, takes longer
 - longer run times for longer strs

Structs:

- can have member vars, but do not have member methods/funcs
- define, access w/ dot op (ex: `thing.x` to access `thing's x`)

```
struct Subject{  
    int dept;  
    int units;  
    char name[100];  
    int num_students;  
};
```

```
#include<stdio.h>  
#include<string.h>  
struct Subject{  
    int dept;  
    int units;  
    char name[100];  
    int num_students;  
};  
  
int main(void){  
    struct Subject our_course;  
    our_course.dept = 6;  
    our_course.units = 6;  
    strcpy(our_course.name, "6.1904: Intro to C and Assembly");  
    our_course.num_students = 255;  
    printf("%s has %d students and is in Course %d and is %d credits.\n",  
          our_course.name, our_course.num_students,  
          our_course.dept, our_course.units);  
}
```

Structs with functions: modular package code

```
//function takes in struct Subject, returns a struct Subject  
struct Subject make_subject2(struct Subject s){  
    s.dept = 8;  
    s.units = 12;  
    strcpy(s.name, "8.02: Physics 2");  
    s.num_students = 500;  
    return s;  
}
```

- args always passed by value

```
our_course = make_subject2(our_course); //call function on our_course return/overwrite  
printf("%s has %d students and is in Course %d and is %d credits.\n",  
      our_course.name, our_course.num_students,  
      our_course.dept, our_course.units);
```

- lots of time to make copies - create pointers instead
 - lots of mem.

STRUCT POINTER:

- Just like everything else, you can have a pointer to a struct
- The pointer allows us to reference things in memory (round-about way of passing by reference) and modify it directly!

```
void make_subject3(struct Subject* s);
```

```
make_subject3(&our_course); //call function on pointer to our_course  
printf("%s has %d students and is in Course %d and is %d credits.\n",  
      our_course.name, our_course.num_students,  
      our_course.dept, our_course.units);
```

- What would/should this print?

() b/c * is lower priority than .

ACCESS MEMBERS: `(*s).units = 12;` `s -> units = 12;` same
`combo of * . (deref. & member)`

C OPERATOR HIERARCHY:

Appendix 3: C Operator Precedence

Precedence	Operator	Description	Associativity
1	<code>++ --</code>	Suffix/postfix increment and decrement	Left-to-right
	<code>()</code>	Function call	
	<code>[]</code>	Array subscripting	
	<code>.</code>	Structure and union member access	
2	<code>-></code>	Structure and union member access through pointer	Right-to-left
	<code>++ --</code>	Prefix increment and decrement	
	<code>+ -</code>	Unary plus and minus	
	<code>! ~</code>	Logical NOT and bitwise NOT	
	<code>(type)</code>	Cast	
	<code>*</code>	Indirection (dereference)	
3	<code>&</code>	Address-of	Left-to-right
	<code>* / %</code>	Multiplication, division, and remainder	
	<code>+ -</code>	Addition and subtraction	
	<code><< >></code>	Bitwise left shift and right shift	
	<code>< <=</code>	For relational operators <code><</code> and <code>≤</code> respectively	
	<code>> >=</code>	For relational operators <code>></code> and <code>≥</code> respectively	
	<code>== !=</code>	For relational <code>=</code> and <code>≠</code> respectively	
	<code>&</code>	Bitwise AND	
	<code>^</code>	Bitwise XOR (exclusive or)	
	<code> </code>	Bitwise OR (inclusive or)	
	<code>&&</code>	Logical AND	
	<code> </code>	Logical OR	
13	<code>?:</code>	Ternary conditional	Right-to-left
	<code>=</code>	Simple assignment	
	<code>+= -=</code>	Assignment by sum and difference	
	<code>*= /= %=</code>	Assignment by product, quotient, and remainder	
14	<code><<= >>=</code>	Assignment by bitwise left shift and right shift	
	<code>&= ^= =</code>	Assignment by bitwise AND, XOR, and OR	

A

- So putting it all together:

```
void make_subject3(struct Subject* s){
    s->dept = 8; //or (*s).dept
    s->units = 12; //or (*s).units
    strcpy((*s).name, "8.02: Physics 2"); //or s->name
    (*s).num_students = 500; //or s->num_students
}
```

```
make_subject3(&our_course); //call function on pointer to our_course
printf("%s has %d students and is in Course %d and is %d credits.\n",
       our_course.name, our_course.num_students,
       our_course.dept, our_course.units);
```

How BIG IS STRUCT:

at least as big as sum of component parts

Ex:

```
struct Subject{
    int dept;
    int units;
    char name[100];
    int num_students;
};
```

4+4+100+4 = 112 bytes

Struct notes:

- no concept of public/private
- cannot have struct with member struct
- many ways to initialize:

```
//declare but don't initialize:
struct Subject our_course;
//declare and initialize:
struct Subject other_course ={9, 12, "9.01: Intro Brain Stuff", 100};
//declare and initialize (named fields):
struct Subject other_other_course {.dept=1, .units=12,
                                  .name="1.01: Intro Prob/Inference",
                                  .num_students=100};
```

NULL:

- C says "NULL" is none

EXERCISES - WK 3:

- `char digit = '7'; ← 55 in dec`
- `int result = digit + 0; = 55 + 0 = 55`
- `hello! = 104 + 101 + 108 + 108 + 111 + 33 = 565`

[4/15/25] - RECITATION

STRUCT:

- Similar to class in Python but no function, only vars
- use . to access members

```
struct Subject {  
};
```

returns size (in bytes) of variables

STRUCT POINTERS:

- avoid copying struct (large; directly modify value if needed)
- dereference pointer with * before access with .
`(*struct_ptr).member or struct_ptr->member`

`sizeof`: finds how big something is

```
sizeof  
Return size (in bytes) of the variables (int, array, struct, etc.)  
char c;  
char str[100] = "abc";  
uint8_t i = 10;  
uint8_t *int_ptr = &i;  
int arr[10];  
printf("%d\n", sizeof(c)); // print "1"  
printf("%d\n", sizeof(str)); // print "100"  
printf("%d\n", sizeof(i)); // print "1"  
printf("%d\n", sizeof(int_ptr)); // print "4"  
printf("%d\n", sizeof(arr)); // print "40"
```

`int = 4 bytes`

`char = 1 byte`

string.h functions:

- `strlen` returns length of string (NOT same as `sizeof`)
- `strcpy` puts src string into a destination until '\0'
 - can overflow if `sizeof(dest) < sizeof(src)` → might touch other memory

`strncpy` copy up to n chars (more control)

`strncpy` copy up to n-1 character + '\0'

`strcat` concatenates & overwrites first '\0' of dest with 1st char of src

- can still overflow if `len(dest) + len(src) > sizeof(dest)`

`strncat` up to nth char

`strncat` up to n-1 char + '\0'

strcmp compares str1 & str2

=0 → same

>0 → first diff char: str1's char ascii > str2 char ascii

<0 → 1st str's first diff. char ascii < 2nd

do: `strcmp(str1, str2) == 0` don't: `str1 != str2`

strncmp compares up to n chars

Strchr finds 1st occurrence of character in string

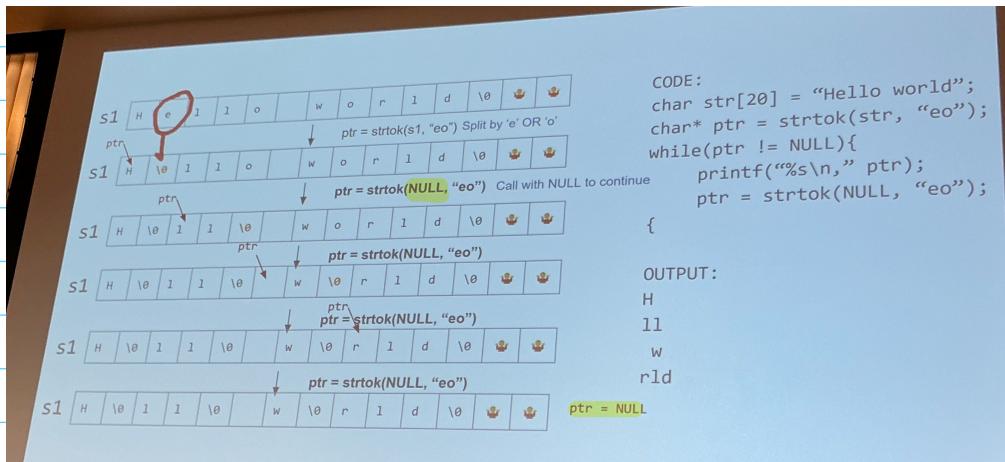
- returns pointer to 1st occurrence of char (null if not found)
- `strrchr` finds last instance of char
- `strstr` finds sub c-strings inside

REVIEW



strtok splits str into tokens by delimiters

- split chars by something
- in subsequent call → str replaced by null.



CHAR ARRAY CREATION:

char message[22] = "This is a message!";

char(message[22], str, str, str)

■ = '\0'//NULL

■ = some non - NULL char

→ = assignment/overwrite

→ = path of scan/checking

■ = returned pointer

FIRST CALL:

char* ptr = strtok (message, " ");

1.) Pointer to start of char array (which is the char array itself)

2.) Scan until first delimiter or NULL

3.) Replace with NULL

4.) Returnptr ■

ptr now refers to the NULL terminated char array!

SECOND CALL:

char* ptr = strtok (NULL, " ");

1.) entering NULL means start where left off

2.) Scan until first delimiter or NULL

3.) Replace with NULL

4.) Returnptr ■

ptr now refers to this NULL terminated char array!

THIRD CALL:

char* ptr = strtok (NULL, "");

1.) entering NULL means start where left off

2.) Scan until first delimiter or NULL

3.) Replace with NULL

4.) Returnptr ■

ptr now refers to this NULL terminated char array!

FOURTH CALL:

char* ptr = strtok (NULL, "");

1.) entering NULL means start where left off

2.) Scan until first delimiter or NULL

3.) NULL Found! Remember that!

4.) Returnptr ■

ptr now refers to this NULL terminated char array!

FIFTH, ETC... CALL:

char* ptr = strtok (NULL, "");

1.) entering NULL means start where left off

2.) Previously ended in NULL so...

3.) Returnptr ■ = NULL

OTHER STRING FUNCS:

sprintf

- Similar to printf, but prints into a String not terminal

```
sprintf(str-var, "format %d %c %f %os\n", a,b,c,d);
```

atoi

- converts string to int
- expects char array

```
Ex: int x = atoi("61904");
```

const char*

- constant char array

TYPECASTING

```
Ex: uint8_t hi = (uint8_t) message[i];
```

LECTURE 4: RISC-V ASSEMBLY

GENERAL PURPOSE PROCESSOR:

- list of instructions that can execute using its hardware (assembly language)
- assembly lang gets translated into binary (machine code)
 - tells us exact steps that processor carries out

Let's Sum an Array

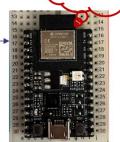
Assume we have an array arr with 10 integers starting at memory address 0x700.

Assembly Language

```
addi x5, x0, 0  
addi x6, x0, 0  
addi x7, x0, 40  
loop:  
    bge x5, x7, end  
    lw x8, 0x700(x5)  
    add x6, x6, x8  
    addi x5, x5, 4  
    jal x0, loop  
end:
```

Machine Language (Code)

```
0x00000293  
0x00000313  
0x02800393  
0x0072da63  
0x7002a403  
0x00830333  
0x00428293  
0xff1ff06f
```



Direct translation
(same level of detail)!



Assembly is for the programmer, machine code is for the processor.

High Level vs Assembly Language

High Level Language

1. Complex arithmetic and logical operations
2. Complex data types and data structures
3. Complex control structures - conditional statements, loops and functions
4. Not suitable for direct implementation in hardware

Assembly Language

1. Primitive arithmetic and logical operations
2. Primitive data structures – bits/bytes
3. Control flow instructions
4. Designed to be directly implementable in hardware

tedious programming!

ASSEMBLY LANG: sequence of instructions which execute in sequential order unless **control flow** instruction is executed

- math/logic ops, comparisons, jumps, memory access

INSTRUCTION SET ARCHITECTURE (ISA): contract b/w software & hardware

· functional def. of ops & storage locations

· precise def. of how software can invoke/access them

CISC: (complex instruction set computer) larger instruction set w/ more options/ operation variants

· can have many instructions; more complex; fewer instructions

RISC: (reduced) smaller w/ only bare minimum ops

· basic, smaller set, may need more instructions (but simpler)

Ex:

- We'd like to add two numbers from memory locations 0x7E8 and 0x7EC and store the resulting sum back in 0x7EC.
- In a hypothetical **CISC** architecture you might be able to do this in one instruction:

ADDMR 0x7EC, 0x7E8

"add contents stored at memory address 0x7E8 to contents stored at 0x7EC and put the resulting sum into 0x7EC"

- With a **RISC** architecture, this might look like:

```

addi x10, x0, 0x7E8 # x10 <- 0x7E8 + 0 = 0x7E8
lw x11, 0(x10) # x11 <- Mem[x10]
lw x12, 4(x10) # x12 <- Mem[x10 + 4]
add x11, x11, x12 # x11 <- x11 + x12
sw x11, 4(x10) # Mem[x10 + 4] <- x11

```

RISC-V ISA:

- 'I' base int, 'M' $\times 8 \div$, 'C' compressed instruct, 'F' & 'D' single/doub-precision FP
- ours: base int 32-bit variant

Registers vs. Memory

- Both store information

Registers	Memory
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expensive • Physically large • Quick to access • Actually in the computer itself 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cheap • Very dense/small • Slower to access • Further away/separate from the computer.

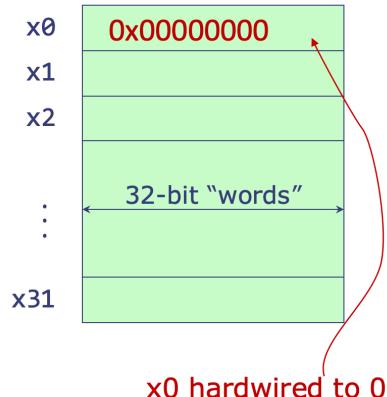
- Conclusion for most computers – *compromise*:
 - Have a small set of registers (maybe twenty or thirty) that you use as much as possible as temporary variables
 - Use memory as rarely as possible!

REGISTERS:

• 32 general purpose $x_0 - x_{31}$ ($x_0 = 0$)

• each register = 32 bits wide

Register File

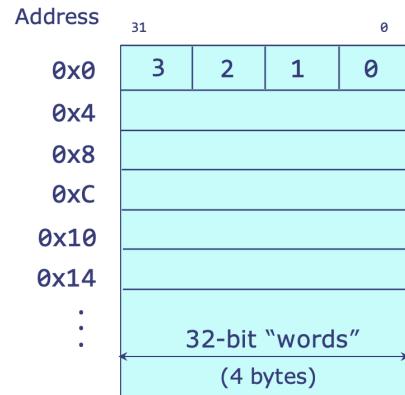


MEMORY:

• 32 bits wide (1 word)

• addresses = 32 bits

Main Memory



RISC-V INSTRUCTIONS:

Instruction	Syntax	Description	Execution
LUI	lui rd, luiConstant	Load Upper Immediate	$\text{reg}[rd] \leftarrow \text{luiConstant} \ll 12$
JAL	jal rd, label	Jump and Link	$\text{reg}[rd] \leftarrow \text{pc} + 4$ $\text{pc} \leftarrow \text{label}$
JALR	jalr rd, offset(rs1)	Jump and Link Register	$\text{reg}[rd] \leftarrow \text{pc} + 4$ $\text{pc} \leftarrow (\text{reg}[rs1] + \text{offset})[31:1], 1'b0$ $\text{pc} \leftarrow (\text{reg}[rs1] == \text{reg}[rs2]) ? \text{label} : \text{pc} + 4$
BEQ	beq rs1, rs2, label	Branch if =	$\text{pc} \leftarrow (\text{reg}[rs1] & \text{reg}[rs2]) ? \text{label} : \text{pc} + 4$
BNE	bne rs1, rs2, label	Branch if ≠	$\text{pc} \leftarrow (\text{reg}[rs1] \neq \text{reg}[rs2]) ? \text{label} : \text{pc} + 4$
BLT	blt rs1, rs2, label	Branch if < (Signed)	$\text{pc} \leftarrow (\text{reg}[rs1] < \text{reg}[rs2]) ? \text{label} : \text{pc} + 4$
BGE	bge rs1, rs2, label	Branch if ≥ (Signed)	$\text{pc} \leftarrow (\text{reg}[rs1] \geq \text{reg}[rs2]) ? \text{label} : \text{pc} + 4$
BLTU	bltu rs1, rs2, label	Branch if < (Unsigned)	$\text{pc} \leftarrow (\text{reg}[rs1] < \text{reg}[rs2]) ? \text{label} : \text{pc} + 4$
BGEU	bgeu rs1, rs2, label	Branch if ≥ (Unsigned)	$\text{pc} \leftarrow (\text{reg}[rs1] \geq \text{reg}[rs2]) ? \text{label} : \text{pc} + 4$
LW	lw rd, offset(rs1)	Load Word	$\text{reg}[rd] \leftarrow \text{mem}[\text{reg}[rs1] + \text{offset}]$
SW	sw rs2, offset(rs1)	Store Word	$\text{mem}[\text{reg}[rs1] + \text{offset}] \leftarrow \text{reg}[rs2]$
ADDI	addi rd, rs1, constant	Add Immediate	$\text{reg}[rd] \leftarrow \text{reg}[rs1] + \text{constant}$
SLTI	slti rd, rs1, constant	Compare < Immediate (Signed)	$\text{reg}[rd] \leftarrow (\text{reg}[rs1] < \text{constant}) ? 1 : 0$
SLTIU	sltiu rd, rs1, constant	Compare < Immediate (Unsigned)	$\text{reg}[rd] \leftarrow (\text{reg}[rs1] \leq \text{constant}) ? 1 : 0$
XORI	xori rd, rs1, constant	Xor Immediate	$\text{reg}[rd] \leftarrow \text{reg}[rs1] \oplus \text{constant}$
ORI	ori rd, rs1, constant	Or Immediate	$\text{reg}[rd] \leftarrow \text{reg}[rs1] \text{constant}$
ANDI	andi rd, rs1, constant	And Immediate	$\text{reg}[rd] \leftarrow \text{reg}[rs1] \& \text{constant}$
SLLI	slli rd, rs1, shamt	Shift Left Logical Immediate	$\text{reg}[rd] \leftarrow \text{reg}[rs1] \ll \text{shamt}$
SRLI	srai rd, rs1, shamt	Shift Right Logical Immediate	$\text{reg}[rd] \leftarrow \text{reg}[rs1] \gg \text{shamt}$
SRAI	sra rd, rs1, shamt	Shift Right Arithmetic Immediate	$\text{reg}[rd] \leftarrow \text{reg}[rs1] \gg \text{shamt}$
ADD	add rd, rs1, rs2	Add	$\text{reg}[rd] \leftarrow \text{reg}[rs1] + \text{reg}[rs2]$
SUB	sub rd, rs1, rs2	Subtract	$\text{reg}[rd] \leftarrow \text{reg}[rs1] - \text{reg}[rs2]$
SLL	sll rd, rs1, rs2	Shift Left Logical	$\text{reg}[rd] \leftarrow \text{reg}[rs1] \ll \text{reg}[rs2][4:0]$
SLT	slt rd, rs1, rs2	Compare < (Signed)	$\text{reg}[rd] \leftarrow (\text{reg}[rs1] < \text{reg}[rs2]) ? 1 : 0$
SLTU	sltu rd, rs1, rs2	Compare < (Unsigned)	$\text{reg}[rd] \leftarrow (\text{reg}[rs1] \leq \text{reg}[rs2]) ? 1 : 0$
XOR	xor rd, rs1, rs2	Xor	$\text{reg}[rd] \leftarrow \text{reg}[rs1] \oplus \text{reg}[rs2]$
SRL	srl rd, rs1, rs2	Shift Right Logical	$\text{reg}[rd] \leftarrow \text{reg}[rs1] \gg \text{reg}[rs2][4:0]$
SRA	sra rd, rs1, rs2	Shift Right Arithmetic	$\text{reg}[rd] \leftarrow \text{reg}[rs1] \gg \text{reg}[rs2][4:0]$
OR	or rd, rs1, rs2	Or	$\text{reg}[rd] \leftarrow \text{reg}[rs1] \text{reg}[rs2]$
AND	and rd, rs1, rs2	And	$\text{reg}[rd] \leftarrow \text{reg}[rs1] \& \text{reg}[rs2]$

computational

control flow

loads/stores

computational: arithmetic / logical ops on registers

loads & stores: move data b/w registers & main mem.

control flow: change execution order of instructions (conditionals, function calls)

Format	Arithmetic	Comparisons	Logical	Shifts
Register-Register	add, sub	slt, sltu	and, or, xor	sll, srl, sra
Register-Immediate	addi		andi, ori, xori	slli, srli, srai

COMPUTATIONAL:

REGISTER-REGISTER: oper rd, rs1, rs2

- 2 source operand registers (rs1, rs2) ← can be same
- 1 destination register for result (rd)

Operations (oper):

Arithmetic	Comparisons	Logical	Shifts
add, sub	slt, sltu	and, or, xor	sll, srl, sra

- add x3, x1, x2 $\#x3 \leftarrow x1 + x2$
- slt x3, x1, x2 $\# \text{If } x1 < x2 \text{ then } x3 = 1 \text{ else } x3 = 0$
- and x3, x1, x2 $\#x3 \leftarrow x1 \& x2$
- sll x3, x1, x2 $\#x3 \leftarrow x1 \ll x2$

indicated w/ i

REGISTER-IMMEDIATE: oper rd, rs1, constant

- 1 source operand comes from register (rs1)
- 1 source operand comes from constant (constant) ← 12 bits (5 for shift)
- 1 destination register (rd)

Arithmetic	Comparisons	Logical	Shifts
addi	slti, sltiu	andi, ori, xori	slli, srli, srai

- addi x3, x1, 4 $\#x3 \leftarrow x1 + 4$
- slti x3, x1, 4 $\# \text{If } x1 < 4 \text{ then } x3 = 1 \text{ else } x3 = 0$
- andi x3, x1, 4 $\#x3 \leftarrow x1 \& 4$
- slli x3, x1, 4 $\#x3 \leftarrow x1 \ll 4$

- No sub, instead use addi with negative constant.
- addi x3, x1, -4 $\#x3 \leftarrow x1 - 4$

* all values are binary!

NOTE: logical vs. arithmetic right shifts

- Suppose: $x1 = 00101$ Suppose: $x1 = 10101$
 $x2 = 00010$ $x2 = 00010$

<code>srl x3, x1, x2 00101 00010 00001</code>	<code>srl x3, x1, x2 10101 01010 00101</code>
---	---

<code>sra x3, x1, x2 00101 00010 00001</code>	<code>sra x3, x1, x2 10101 11010 11101</code>
---	---

Logical right shift: Shift in 0s.
Arithmetic right shift: Shift in value of most significant bit.

- Ex:**
- What if we wanted to put 0x12345678 into x2?
 - No problem!

```
addi x2, x0, 0x12345678 # x2 = 0x12345678 + 0
# x2 = 0x12345678
```

- Actually, there is a problem: 
- addi can only encode a **12 bit constant**
- 0x12345678 is more than 12 bits
- The above code would not compile.

LOAD UPPER IMMEDIATE (LUI): lui rd, luiconstant

- puts 20-bit constant value (luiconstant) in upper 20 bits of a register (rd)
- appends 12 zeros to low end of register
- Supports putting in constants larger than 12 bits into register

```
lui x2, 0x12345 # put 0x12345 into upper 20 bits of x2
# x2 = 0x12345000
```

```
addi x2, x2, 0x678 # x2 = 0x12345000 + 0x678
# x2 = 0x12345678
```

- Let's do $a = ((b+3) \gg c) - 1$

- Break up complex expression into **basic computations**.
 - Our instructions can only specify two source operands and one destination operand
- Computational instructions can only access registers, not memory.
 - Assume a, b, c are in registers x1, x2, and x3 respectively. Use x4 for temp0, and x5 for temp1.

temp0 = b + 3;	addi x4, x2, 3
temp1 = temp0 >> c;	sra x5, x4, x3
a = temp1 - 1;	addi x1, x5, -1

Let's Sum an Array

Assume we have an array arr with 10 integers starting at memory address 0x700.

C Program

```
int i = 0;
int arr_sum = 0;
int arr_len = 10;
while (i < arr_len) {
    int val = *(arr + i);
    arr_sum += val;
    i++;
}
```

Assembly

addi x5, x0, 0
addi x6, x0, 0
addi x7, x0, 10
add x6, x6, x8
addi x5, x5, 1

LOADS & STORES: only instructions that interact w/ memory

LOAD: lw rd, offset(rs1)

read 32-bit value stored C memory addy

= lw x1, 0x4(x0) # $x1 \leftarrow \text{Mem}[x0 + 0x4]$

base addy: rs1 stored in register

= lw x2, 0x8(x0) # $x2 \leftarrow \text{Mem}[x0 + 0x8]$

offset: offset 12-bit constant

base + offset must be multiple of 4!

put 32-bit value in register rd

STORE: sw rs2, offset(rs1) taking from register & putting into mem

take 32-bit value in register rs2 and store C mem addy rs1 + offset

= sw x3, 0x10(x0) # $\text{Mem}[x0 + 0x10] \leftarrow x3$

base addy rs1 always stored in register

offset offset 12-bit constant

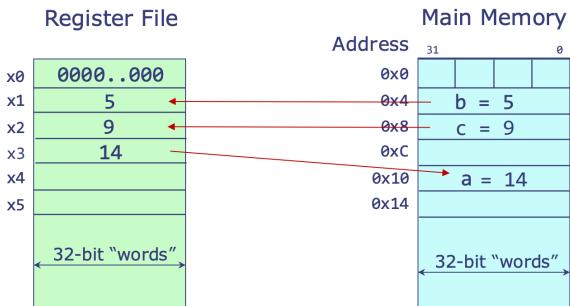
base offset must be multiple of 4

a = b + c

Assume:

- a is at address 0x10
- b is at address 0x4
- c is at address 0x8

```
lw x1, 0x4(x0)
lw x2, 0x8(x0)
add x3, x1, x2
sw x3, 0x10(x0)
```



C Program

```
int i = 0;
int arr_sum = 0;
int arr_len = 10;
while (i < arr_len) {
    int val = *(arr + i);
    arr_sum += val;
    i++;
}
```

Assembly

```
addi x5, x0, 0
addi x6, x0, 0
addi x7, x0, 10

lw x8, 0x700(x5)
add x6, x6, x8
addi x5, x5, 1
```

CONTROL FLOW:

- assembly lang translated into machine lang & stored in mem. for processor to read & execute
- RISC-V processor has special register called program counter (pc).
- holds mem. addy of current instruction

- processor uses this addy to fetch instruction from mem. then decodes & executes it

Address	31	0
0x0	0x00000293	
0x4	0x00000313	
0x8	0x02800393	
0xC	0x0072da63	
0x10	0x7002a403	
:		

- Processor fetches 32 bits stored at address 0x8
- Processor interprets those 32 bits as an instruction.
- Processor executes instruction.
 - pc is updated

- assembly always continues to next instruction ($pc = pc + 4$) unless otherwise told by control flow instruction ($pc = pc + \text{offset}$)

CONDITIONAL BRANCH: branch jump only if condition is met

UNCONDITIONAL JUMP: always jump

allows us to create conditional (if/else statements) & loops (while, for)

LABELS: give convenient names to lines of instructions

- takes no space in memory (no size)

```
some_code: addi x5, x0, 521
          addi x6, x0, 177
some_other_code:
          lui x2, 0x12345
          addi x2, x2, 0x678
```

- some_code refers to addi x5, x0, 521
- some_other_code refers to the instruction immediately below it: lui x2, 0x12345

CONDITIONAL BRANCH: Comp rs1, rs2, label

- first performs comparison to determine if branch taken or not

- if True, branch is taken (jump to label) & updates pc accordingly

Instruction	beq	bne	blt	bge	bltu	bgeu
comp	==	!=	<	≥	<	≥

- beq x1, x2, label # If x1 == x2, jump to
label. Otherwise, go to
next instruction.

Conditional Branch Example

C Code:

```
if (a < b) {
    c = a + 1;
} else {
    c = b + 2;
}
```

Assume:

x1 = a
x2 = b
x3 = c

Assembly Code:

```
bge x1, x2, else
addi x3, x1, 1
beq x0, x0, end
else: addi x3, x2, 2
end:
```

UNCONDITIONAL BRANCH: jal rd, label

jump to instruction following label

- pc updates to be addy of instruction

link stored in register rd
unconditional jump via register+link

ANOTHER: jalr rd, offset(rs1)

jump to instruction specified by rs1 + offset

rs1 is register, offset is constant

can jump to any 32 bit addy

Assume we have an array arr with 10 integers starting at memory address 0x700.

C Program

```
int i = 0;
int arr_sum = 0;
int arr_len = 10;
while (i < arr_len) {
    int val = *(arr + i);
    arr_sum += val;
    i++;
}
```

Assembly

```
addi x5, x0, 0
addi x6, x0, 0
addi x7, x0, 40
loop:
bge x5, x7, end
lw x8, 0x700(x5)
add x6, x6, x8
addi x5, x5, 4
jal x0, loop
end:
```

INSTRUCTION ENCODING:

6 main types:

MIT 6.191 (6.004) ISA Reference Card: Instruction Encodings

31	25	24	20	19	15	14	12	11	7	6	0
funct7		rs2		rs1	funct3		rd		opcode		R-type
imm[11:0]				rs1	funct3		rd		opcode		I-type
imm[11:5]	rs2				funct3	imm[4:0]			opcode		S-type
imm[12:10:5]	rs2			rs1	funct3	imm[4:1][11]		rd	opcode		B-type
		imm[31:12]					rd		opcode		U-type
		imm[20:10:1][11:19:12]						rd	opcode		J-type

R-type: Register-Register Instruction Format

31	25	24	20	19	15	14	12	11	7	6	0
	funct7		rs2		rs1	funct3	rd		opcode		

Some parts are found in the ISA:

- funct7, funct3: encodes the function (add, and, etc.)
- opcode: encodes the instruction type (register-register)

Some parts come from the instruction:

- rs2: source register 2 (5 bits)
- rs1: source register 1 (5 bits)
- rd: destination register (5 bits)

use ISA to determine which register is which!

I-type: Register-Immediate Instruction Format



Some parts are found in the ISA:

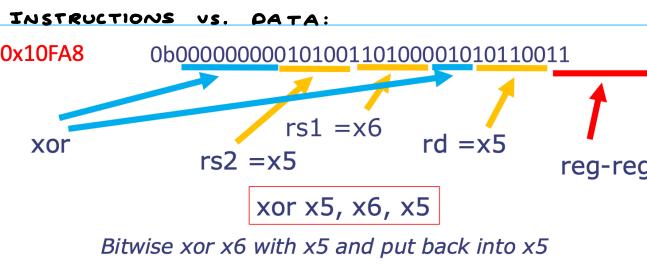
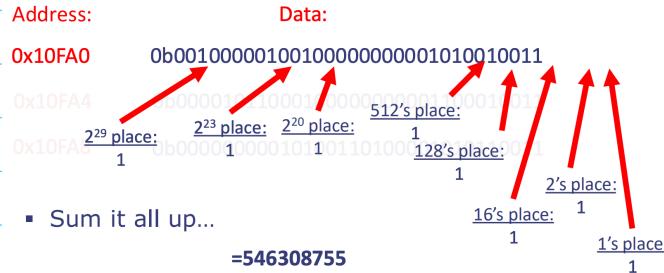
- funct3: encodes the function (addi, andi, etc.)
- opcode: encodes the instruction type (register-immediate)

Some parts come from the instruction:

- imm[11:0]: immediate (12 bits)
- rs1: source register 1 (5 bits)
- rd: destination register (5 bits)

If we're in a Data Region of Memory

- Maybe the value at 0x10FA0 is an unsigned int:



- So this would get interpreted by the computer as:

Address: Data:

0x10FA0	0b00100000100100000000001010010011
0x10FA4	0b0000101100010000000000001100010011
0x10FA8	0b000000000010100110100001010110011

```
addi x5, x0, 521
addi x6, x0, 177
xor x5, x6, x5
```

EXERCISES:

Ex: 0b101 xor 0b011 → 0b110 → 0x06

Ex: 0b101 srl 2 → 0b101>2 → 0b001 = 1

* Ex: lui x4 7 = 0x00007000 ← adds 12 binary 0's (3 hex 0s)

Ex: addi x1, x0, 7 x1→7

addi x2, x0, 2 x2→2

blt x1, x2, L1 if 1 < 2 go to L1 X

addi x2, x2, 4 x2 = 2 + 4 = 6

L1: addi x2, x2, 5 x2 = 6 + 5 = 11 → 0x8



Ex: addi x1, x1, -1

imm = -1 → find binary = complement (invert)

variable

1111-1111-1110 + 1 → 1111-1111-1111

x1 → 0b000001

1111-1111-1111-00001-000-00001-0010011 addi: ??

Ex: 0x12341234: 0b0000_0000_0000_0000_0000_0000_0000_0000

imm[12] = 0

imm[10:5] = 000000

imm[4:1] = _1000

imm[11] = 0

imm = 00_000000_10000

Curr + imm = 0x12341244

Ex: binary → instruction

0b00000000_10111001_10001011_00110011
 0 rs2=11 rs1=19 000 rd=6+16
 =22

Ex: bge x2 x3 label
 00010 00011

4 inst after → 4 bits · 4 = 16

0_0000000_00011_00010_101_1000_0_1100011
 12 4:1 0th
 7

Ex: sw x6 8(x2)
 rs2 rs1
 00010 00110 8 12 11:5 4:0
 000001_00110_00010_010_00000_0100011

Ex: 0b01000000_10001000_10000010_00110011 → sub x4, x17, x8
 Sub rs2 rs1 rd SUB
 x8 x17 x4

Ex: 0b00000101_01101001_10110011_10010011 → sliiu x7, x19, 86
 Imm[11:0] xrs1 011 x7
 6+16+64 x19 Sliiu rd

Ex: 0b101110011_10100101_10101101_10010011 → sli: x27, x11, 0xb3a
 imm[11:0] rs1 010 rd signed: 101100111010
 B 3 A SLI x27
 0xb3a u: 010011000101+1
 010011000100

$$2^4 + 64 + 128 + 1024 \\ 2^{10} + 2^7 + 2^6 + 6$$

[4/22/25] - recitation

ASSEMBLY:

- even lower level than C

REGISTERS VS. MEMORY

- in C, all vars are in memory
- registers = temp vars that are faster, smaller
- $x_0 \rightarrow x_{31}$ ($0 \rightarrow 31$)
- x_0 is always 0 (hardwired)

INSTRUCTION TYPES:

- computational
- loads & stores (move registers \leftrightarrow memory)
- control flow (causes PC to jump around)

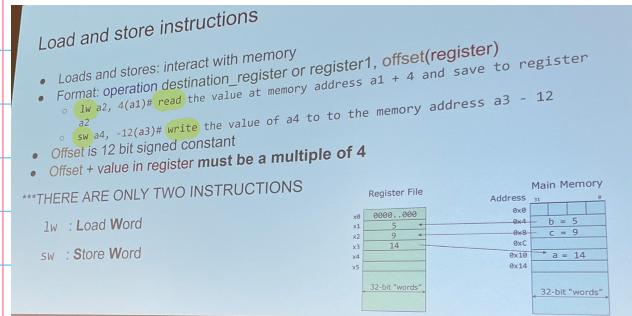
COMPUTATIONAL:

Computational Instructions

- Two subtypes
 - register-register
 - register-immediate (ending with i)
- Format: operation destination_register(rd), register1, register2 or constant
 - addi $a_2, a_1, 5 \# a_2 = a_1 + 5$
 - add $a_2, a_1, a_3 \# a_2 = a_1 + a_3$
- Constant is signed 12 bits that is signed extended to 32 bits
 - E.g. imm = 0xC00 \rightarrow 0xFFFFFC00 when extend to 32 bits
- Shift value is unsigned 5 bits, lui constant is 20 bits
- There is no subi, but you can addi with negative constant

- LUI = load upper immediate: set upper 20 bits b/c immediate only allows 12 bits

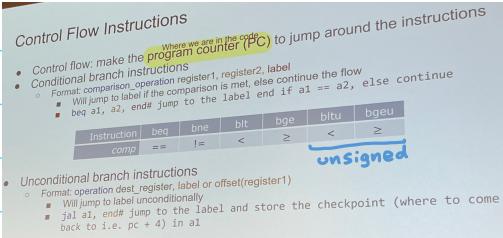
LOAD & STORE:



LABELS:

- takes up no space in memory
- label lines of instructions
- used with control flow instructions

CONTROL FLOW:

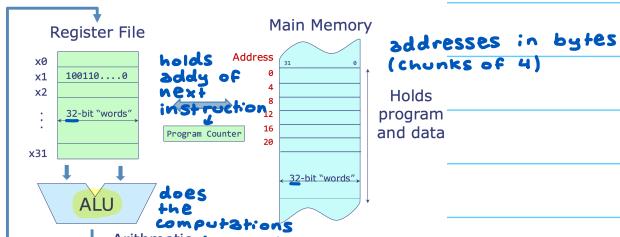


DEBUG:

- .csbreak n lines of interest
- can see registers, memory, etc.

[4/28/25] - COMPILING CODE & IMPLEMENTING PROCEDURES

Components of a RISC-V Processor



RISC-V Instruction Types

- Computational Instructions executed by ALU
 - Register-Register: `op rd, rs1, rs2`
 - Register-Immediate: `op rd, rs1, constant (12-bit)`
 - `lui rd, luiConstant (20-bit)`
 - Loads and Stores
 - `lw rd, offset(rs1)`
 - `sw rs2, offset(rs1)`
 - Memory address = $Reg[rs1] + \text{sign_extend}(\text{offset})$
 - Control flow instructions
 - Conditional: `comp rs1, rs2, label`
 - Unconditional: `jal rd, label` and `jalr rd, offset(rs1)`
 - Pseudoinstructions
 - Shorthand for other instructions
- reading val writing
branch if... always branch
- only have total of 32-bits, have 12 bits left gets sign extended
- can get 32-bit value with these
- Ex: `1111111111 = -1`
`1111111111111111 = -1`
extend
- ← sign extended offset

PSEUDOINSTRUCTIONS:

Pseudoinstructions

- Not "real", but they make our lives easier. Can use freely!
- They are converted into actual RISC-V instructions when being assembled into machine code.

MIT 6.191 (6.004) ISA Reference Card: Pseudoinstructions

Pseudoinstruction	Description	Execution
<code>li rd, 11constant</code>	Load Immediate	$reg[rd] \leftarrow 11constant$
<code>mv rd, rs1</code>	Move	$reg[rd] \leftarrow reg[rs1]$
<code>not rd, rs1</code> (flip bits)	Logical Not	$reg[rd] \leftarrow \neg reg[rs1]$
<code>neg rd, rs1</code>	Logical Negative	$reg[rd] \leftarrow -reg[rs1]$
<code>j label</code>	Jump	$pc \leftarrow 1$
<code>jal label</code>	Jump and Link (with ra)	$reg[ra] \leftarrow pc + 4$ $pc \leftarrow 1$
<code>call label</code>	Jump Register	$pc \leftarrow 1$
<code>jalr rs</code>	Jump and Link Register (with rs)	$reg[ra] \leftarrow pc + 4$ $pc \leftarrow reg[rs]$
<code>ret</code>	Return from Subroutine	$pc \leftarrow 1$
<code>bgt rs1, rs2, label</code>	Branch > (Signed)	$pc \leftarrow (reg[rs1] > reg[rs2]) ? \text{label} : pc + 4$
<code>ble rs1, rs2, label</code>	Branch < (Signed)	$pc \leftarrow (reg[rs1] < reg[rs2]) ? \text{label} : pc + 4$
<code>bne rs1, rs2, label</code>	Branch ≠ (Signed)	$pc \leftarrow (reg[rs1] \neq reg[rs2]) ? \text{label} : pc + 4$
<code>bge rs1, rs2, label</code>	Branch ≥ (Signed)	$pc \leftarrow (reg[rs1] \geq reg[rs2]) ? \text{label} : pc + 4$
<code>beq rs1, rs2, label</code>	Branch = (Signed)	$pc \leftarrow (reg[rs1] == reg[rs2]) ? \text{label} : pc + 4$
<code>bne rs1, label</code>	Branch ≠ (Signed)	$pc \leftarrow (reg[rs1] \neq reg[rs2]) ? \text{label} : pc + 4$
<code>bge rs1, label</code>	Branch ≥ (Signed)	$pc \leftarrow (reg[rs1] \geq reg[rs2]) ? \text{label} : pc + 4$
<code>bgt rs1, label</code>	Branch > (Signed)	$pc \leftarrow (reg[rs1] > reg[rs2]) ? \text{label} : pc + 4$
<code>blt rs1, label</code>	Branch < (Signed)	$pc \leftarrow (reg[rs1] < reg[rs2]) ? \text{label} : pc + 4$

- Shorthand

- Converted to actual RISC-V instructions that's equivalent

pseudo:

Ex: mv x2, x1

assem:

addi x2, x1, 0

b1e x1, x2, label1

bge x2, x1, label1

j label1

jal x0, label1

load immediate:

(32 bits)

smaller #: li x2, 3 → addi x2, x0, 3

larger #: li x3, 0x4321 → lui x3, 0x4
lui & addi:
(64 bits) → takes up 2 words in mem.

addi x3, x3, 0x321

DATA VS. INSTRUCTION MEM

· different sections of memory

· if program counter pointing to something, we assume it's pointing to instructions

· don't overwrite!

· pc keeps track of next instruction

- The program counter (pc) register keeps track of the address of your next instruction
 - Default (non control-flow instructions): pc = pc + 4 ← consecutive locations in mem. are 4 bytes apart
 - Control flow instructions might update pc by a different amount.

.. = bit is stored at addy 0x0

C 0x100,
0x12345678
is stored there

if x1 < x2: pc = 0x8
else: pc = pc + 4

x3 = 0x12345678
going to 0x100,
getting data val, putting
into x3

Address	33	0
0x0	bit	
0x4	addi	
0x8	lw	
0xC		
0x10		
..		
0x100		0x12345678

Ex: sum array

Assume we have an array arr with 10 integers starting at memory address 0x700.

C Program

```
int i = 0;
int arr_sum = 0;
int arr_len = 10;
while (i < arr_len) {
    int val = *(arr + i);
    arr_sum += val;
    i++;
}
```

Assembly

```
addi x5, x0, 0
addi x6, x0, 0
addi x7, x0, 40
loop:
    bge x5, x7, end
    lw x8, 0x700(x5)
    add x6, x6, x8
    addi x5, x5, 4
    jal x0, loop
end:
```

array len is $10 \cdot 4 = 40$ bytes apart in mem.

memory addy + bytes offset (i)

incr. by 4 bytes

Ex: conditional statement

C code

```
if (expr) {
    if-code;
} else {
    else-code;
}
```

- Compile *expr* into *xN*
- Conditional branch instruction that will jump to *else* when *expr* is 0.
- Compile *if-code* into assembly.
- Add unconditional jump past *else* branch.
- Compile *else-code* into assembly.

Ex:

```
if (x > y) {
    x = x - y;
} else {
    y = y - x;
}
```

We'll use x10 for x and x11 for y

```
slt x12, x11, x10
beq x12, x0, else
sub x10, x10, x11
jendif ← unconditionally jump to skip else portion
else:
    sub x11, x11, x10
endif:
```

ex: diff. ways:

C code

```
if (expr) {
    if-code;
} else {
    else-code;
}
```

1. Conditional branch instruction that will jump when the *opposite* of *expr* is true.
2. Compile *if-code* into assembly.
3. Add unconditional jump past *else* branch.
4. Compile *else-code* into assembly.

Ex:

```
if (x > y) {
    x = x - y;
} else {
    y = y - x;
}
```

```
ble x10, x11, else
sub x10, x10, x11
j endif
else:
    sub x11, x11, x10
endif:
```

Ex: while loop

C code

```
while (expr) {
    loop-code
}
```

1. Conditional branch instruction that will jump past loop body when *opposite* of *expr* is true.
2. Compile *loop-code* into assembly.
3. Add unconditional jump to top of loop at end of *loop-code*.

```
while (x != y) {
    if (x > y) {
        x = x - y;
    } else {
        y = y - x;
    }
}
```

```
loop:
    beq x10, x11, endloop
    ble x10, x11, else
    sub x10, x10, x11
    j endif
    else:
        sub x11, x11, x10
    endif:
    j loop
endloop:
```

← control flow instructions
can be costly...
instead of having 2...

diff. way:

C code

```
while (expr) {
    loop-code
}
```

1. Compile *loop-code* into assembly.
2. Put a conditional branch instruction after *loop-code* that jumps to top of loop when *expr* is true.
3. Before starting loop, jump to that conditional branch instruction.

```
while (x != y) {
    if (x > y) {
        x = x - y;
    } else {
        y = y - x;
    }
}
```

```
j compare
loop:
    ble x10, x11, else
    sub x10, x10, x11
    j endif
    else:
        sub x11, x11, x10
    endif:
    compare:
    bne x10, x11, loop ← only one control flow!
```

PROCEDURES: gcd

- Procedure (a.k.a. function or subroutine): Reusable code fragment that performs a specific task
 - Single named **entry point**
 - Zero or more **formal arguments**
 - Local storage
 - Returns to the caller when finished
- Using procedures enables **abstraction and reuse**
 - Compose large programs from collections of simple procedures

```
int gcd(int a, int b) {
    int x = a;
    int y = b; ← callee
    while (x != y) {
        if (x > y) {
            x = x - y;
        } else {
            y = y - x;
        }
    }
    return x;
}
```

```
bool coprimes(int a, int b) { ← caller
    return gcd(a, b) == 1;
}

coprimes(5, 10); # false
coprimes(9, 10); # true
```

CALLER: procedure that called other procedure

CALLEE: procedure that was called by caller

* a procedure can be both caller & callee!

How to transfer control to callee & back to caller?

- register $x1$ (ra) used to hold a procedure's RETURN ADDRESS
- once finished, callee will use ra to jump back to correct instruction within caller procedure

Jump and Link

jal: Unconditional jump and link

Format: `jal rd, label`

- Jump to instruction at **label**
 - program counter (pc) updates to be address of that instruction
- Link:** stored in register **rd** ← **NEW THIS WEEK**
 - The **link** is the address of the instruction **after** the `jal` instruction ($rd = pc + 4$)
 - This is how we remember where we came from!

<code>jal x1, label</code>	1. Jump to instruction following label
<code>addi x7, x7, 1</code>	2. $x1$ holds address of <code>addi</code> instruction

- `jal ra, sum`
 - When calling a procedure, we store the link in ra

proc:
...
[0x100] `jal ra, sum # ra = 0x104`
...
[0x678] `jal ra, sum # ra = 0x67C`
...

sum:
...
 $j ??$

Equivalent pseudoinstructions:

- `jal sum`
- `call sum`

How can the callee use ra to return back to the caller?

Jump and Link Register

jalr: Unconditional jump via register and link

Format: `jalr rd, offset(rs1)`

- Jump to instruction stored at address $Reg[rs1] + offset$
 - program counter (pc) updates to be address of that instruction
- Link:** stored in register **rd** ← **NEW THIS WEEK**
 - The **link** is the address of the instruction **after** the `jalr` instruction ($rd = pc + 4$)
 - This is how we remember where we came from!

<code>jalr x3, 0(x1)</code>	1. <u>Jump to instruction at memory address in $x1$</u>
<code>addi x7, x7, 1</code>	2. <u>$x3$ holds address of <code>addi</code> instruction</u>

How to transfer control back to caller?

- `jalr x0, 0(ra)`
 - ra indicates where the program should return to
 - As long as `sum` was called using `jal ra, sum` or equivalent, and ra hasn't been overwritten since.
 - Store link in $x0$
 - Effectively discarding it... we have no need to remember that we came from the end of a procedure.

proc:
...
[0x100] `jal ra, sum # ra = 0x104` ← putting into ra
...
[0x678] `jal ra, sum # ra = 0x67C`
...

sum:
...
`jalr x0, 0(ra)`

Equivalent pseudoinstructions:
• `jr ra` • `ret`

* ra remembers return addy from procedure call

summary:

Summary: Transferring control between caller and callee

- To call a procedure: `jal ra, label`
 - or `jal label`
 - or `call label`
- To return from a procedure: `jalr x0, 0(ra)`
 - or `jr ra`
 - or `ret`

*switching control back & forth b/t caller/callee

```
proc:  
...  
[0x100] jal ra, sum # ra = 0x104  
...  
[0x678] jal ra, sum # ra = 0x67C  
...
```

```
sum:  
...  
jalr x0, 0(ra)
```

How to communicate arguments & return values?

- we need rules (calling convention)

CALLING CONVENTION: rules for register usage across procedures

function args /return vals:
- 1st arg in a0, 2nd a1, ...

Symbolic name	Registers	Description
a0 to a7	x10 to x17	Function arguments
a0 and a1	x10 and x11	Function return values

- callee can find them!

- The caller is responsible for putting function arguments in the necessary registers before calling a procedure.

```
int coprimes(int a, int b) {  
    return gcd(a, b) == 1;  
}
```

coprimes responsible for making sure a0 = a, a1 = b before calling gcd...

```
int gcd(int x, int y){  
    ...  
}
```

... so that gcd can assume a0 = x and a1 = y

- First return val in a0, second a1, ...

- callee responsible for putting return vals in necessary registers

- The callee is responsible for putting return values in the necessary registers before returning.

```
int gcd(int x, int y){  
    ...  
    return val;  
}
```

gcd responsible for putting val in a0 before returning...

```
int coprimes(int a, int b) {  
    return gcd(a, b) == 1;  
}
```

...so coprimes can assume gcd(a,b) will be in a0, ready to use

How to let procedures use more storage than can fit in registers?

- allocate special section of memory (stack) that isn't for registers

RISC-V STACK:

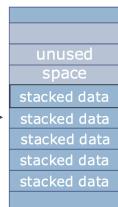
- grows down from high → low addys (LIFO)

- SP points to top of stack

- push & pull operations

- must make room before pushing, must move ptr after pulling

- Two operations: push and pop
 - Push: put something on top of stack
`addi sp, sp, -4 # allocate space`
`sw a1, 0(sp) # put element on`
 - Pop: take something off top of stack
`lw a1, 0(sp) # take element off`
`addi sp, sp, 4 # deallocate space`

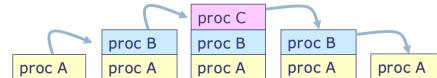


- any procedure can use stack, but before returning, must put stack back how it was
- sp must be reset to value that it was @ beginning of procedure

ACTIVATION RECORD:

- holds all storage needs of procedure that do not fit in registers
- activation records go on stack (LIFO)
- stack frame: current procedure's activation record always @ top of stack

What if caller & callee need to use same register?



RISC-V calling conventions specify rules for sharing

- If a register will (potentially) be overwritten across a function call, its value must be saved on the stack.
 - The **caller** procedure is responsible for saving some registers...
 - ...and the **callee** procedure is responsible for saving others.
- RISC-V ISA tells us which ones are which!

Registers	Symbolic names	Description	Saver
x0	zero	Hardwired zero	—
x1	ra	Return address	Caller
x2	sp	Stack pointer	Callee
x3	gp	Global pointer	—
x4	tp	Thread pointer	—
x5-x7	t0-t2	Temporary registers	Caller
x8-x9	s0-s1	Saved registers	Callee
x10-x11	a0-a1	Function arguments and return values	Caller
x12-x17	a2-a7	Function arguments	Caller
x18-x27	s2-s11	Saved registers	Callee
x28-x31	t3-t6	Temporary registers	Caller

one or the other
(wasteful if both)

Caller-saved Registers (aN, tN, ra)

→ assumed to not be preserved
across procedure calls!

Registers not preserved across a procedure call.

- The **callee** can use them freely
- The **caller** doesn't know what registers the **callee** will use
→ must assume it'll use them all.

If the **caller** needs a caller-saved register's value after the procedure call, it must:

- Before calling the procedure: save the register's value on the stack.
- After returning from the procedure: restore the old value from the stack before next using the register.

Any callee can use these registers freely because it can safely assume the caller will save any register values it will need.

Callee-saved Registers (sN, sp*)

IS PRESERVED guaranteed across calls

Preserved across a procedure call!

- The **caller** can assume that the register's value will be the same before and after the procedure call.

If the **callee** wants to use a callee-saved register, it must:

- Before using: save the register's value on the stack.
- After using: restore the old value from the stack before returning to the **caller**.

*The stack pointer (sp) doesn't go on the stack, just needs to be reset to its original value.

Any caller can safely assume that these register values will be "untouched" because the callee will make sure to restore them to their original state before returning.

Calling convention:

• t-registers (temporary - not guaranteed to be preserved)

• s-registers (saved - guaranteed preservation)

Symbolic name	Registers	Description	Saver
a0 to a7	x10 to x17	Function arguments	Caller
a0 and a1	x10 and x11	Function return values	Caller
ra	x1	Return address	Caller
t0 to t6	x5-7, x28-31	Temporaries	Caller
s0 to s11	x8-9, x18-27	Saved registers	Callee
sp	x2	Stack pointer	Callee
gp	x3	Global pointer	---
tp	x4	Thread pointer	---
zero	x0	Hardwired zero	---

Let's put this all together

Caller: (use freely)

- Saves any aN, tN, or ra registers whose values need to be maintained past the procedure call on the stack prior to the procedure call
- Restores them before using them again after returning from the callee.

Callee: (preserved)

- Saves original values of sN registers on the stack before using them in a procedure.
- Must restore sN registers and stack pointer when done using them, before exiting procedure.

Ex: callee-saved

Implement f using s0 and s1 to store intermediate values

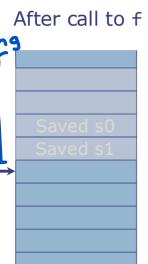
```

int f(int x, int y) {
    return (x + 3)|(y + 0x123456);
}

f:
    addi sp, sp, -8    # allocate 2 words (8 bytes) on stack
    sw s0, 0(sp)       # save s0
    sw s1, 4(sp)       # save s1
    addi s0, a0, 3      x (1st ret)
    li s1, 0x123456
    add s1, a1, s1
    or a0, s0, s1
    lw s0, 0(sp)       # restore s0
    lw s1, 4(sp)       # restore s1
    addi sp, sp, 8      # deallocate 2 words from stack
    # (restore sp)
    ret
    return stack how it was before
  
```

reverses

Stack contents:



Ex: caller-saved

Caller

```

int x = 1;
int y = 2;
int z = sum(x, y);
int w = sum(z, y);
  
```

* cannot assume what callee did.
caller must save I onto stack & restore I after the procedure call

Callee

```

int sum(int a, int b) {
    return a + b;
}
  
```

sum:

```

add a0, a0, a1
ret
  
```

Why did we save a1?

Callee may have modified a1 (caller doesn't see implementation of sum!)

Why didn't we save a0?

We don't need the original value after either procedure call. (no need to save)

(A)

Ex: nested procedures

- If a procedure calls another procedure, it needs to save its own return address
 - Remember that ra is **caller-saved**
- Example:

```
int coprimes(int a, int b) {
    return gcd(a, b) == 1;
}

coprimes:
    addi sp, sp, -4
    sw ra, 0(sp)
    call gcd <- overwrites ra # overwrites ra
    addi a0, a0, -1 ] restores ra
    stiu a0, a0, 1
    lw ra, 0(sp)
    addi sp, sp, 4
    ret <- jumping to ra # where will the program
                           return to?
```

computing with large data structures:

- Suppose we want to write a procedure that finds the maximum value in an array a[].
 - The array is too large to be stored in registers
- How do we pass the array a[] as an argument?
 - Pass the **base address (pointer to array)** and the **size of the array** as arguments (*len*)

Just like we've been doing in C!

(P) (A)

Ex:

```
# Finds maximum element in an
# array with size elements
int maximum(int *a, int size) {
    int max = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < size;
        i++) {
        if (a[i] > max) {
            max = a[i];
        }
    }
    return max;
}

int main() {
    int ages[5] =
        {23, 4, 6, 81, 16};
    int max = maximum(ages, 5);
}
```

main: li a0, ages
li a1, 5
call maximum
max returned in a0

ages: 23
4
6
81
16

```
int main() {
    int ages[5] =
        {23, 4, 6, 81, 16};
    int max = maximum(ages, 5);
}

# Finds maximum element in an
# array with size elements
int maximum(int *a, int size) {
    int max = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < size;
        i++) {
        if (a[i] > max) {
            max = a[i];
        }
    }
    return max;
}

int main() {
    int ages[5] =
        {23, 4, 6, 81, 16};
    int max = maximum(ages, 5);
}
```

maximum:
mv t0, zero # t0: i
mv t1, zero # t1: max
j compare
loop:
 slli t2, t0, 2 # t2: i*4
 add t3, a0, t2
 # t3: addr of a[i]=base+i*4
 lw t4, 0(t3) # t4: a[i]
 ble t4, t1, endif
 mv t1, t4 # max = a[i]
endif:
 addi t0, t0, 1 # i++
compare:
 blt t0, a1, loop
 mv a0, t1 # a0 = max
ret

EXERCISES:

pseudo → non-p
ex: call function-name → jal ra, function-name

non → pse

ex: sub a4, zero, a2 → neg a4, a2

ex: add a4, zero, a3 → mv a4, a3

(A) ex: addi x2, zero, 0xF2
15
↓
0000 1111 0010 12 bits → +!

addi x3, zero, 0xFF4
↓

1111 1111 0010 ← NEG! interp. as FFFF...F4 (12 bits)

The s0–s11 registers are callee-saved registers. This means that: (select all correct answers)

- Prior to making a procedure call, all s registers must be saved on the stack.
- At the beginning of each procedure, all s registers must be saved to the stack.
- All s registers that are overwritten within a procedure must first be saved to the stack.
- At the end of each procedure, all s registers must be restored from the stack.
- At the end of each procedure, all modified s registers must be restored from the stack.

Submit **View Answer** **100.00%**

You have infinitely many submissions remaining.

Which of the following statements are True in code that follows the RISC-V calling convention?

- Since a registers are caller-saved, you never need to save them onto the stack in your procedure implementation.
- All a registers must be saved to the stack prior to making a procedure call.
- Only the a registers whose value you will need after returning from a procedure must be saved onto the stack.
- The ra register must be saved to the stack at the beginning of every procedure.
- The ra register must be saved to the stack prior to making a procedure call.
- The s registers must be saved to the stack prior to making a procedure call.
- The t registers never need to be saved on the stack.
- The s registers are guaranteed to be returned from a procedure call with their values unchanged.
- A procedure may modify the stack without restoring it to its original state.

Submit **View Answer** **100.00%**

You have infinitely many submissions remaining.

Ex:

a0 a1
4,6

// (1)
mv a2, a1 a2=6
mv s0, a1 s0=6
li a1, 2 a1=2
// (2)
call mul
// (3)
add a0, a0, a2
add a0, a0, s0
// (4)
ret
// (5)

mul (4,2) a2=2
s0=2 a1=2

Given that mul follows the calling convention, which of the following register(s) are guaranteed to hold the same value at both points (2) and (3) in the code execution? Select all correct answers.

- zero
- ra
- a0
- a1
- a2
- t0
- t1
- s0
- s1

Submit **View Answer** **100.00%**

★ Ex: jal ra, label

ra 7
0_0001010000_ _00000_1101111 20 bit imm: 0....1010000
0-19-12 0 320

Ex: lw s8, 4(sp)
rd rsi

sp = x2 = 0b010
s8 = x24 = 0b011000
imm = 4 = 0b0100

0-001010000-0- 0
256 = 2⁸
64 = 2⁶

000000000100- 00010- 010- 11000- 0000011

Ex: `beq rs1, rs2, 7 → 28`
 imm: 11100
 \downarrow
 \downarrow
 $x15 \ x30$
 $01111 \ 11110$

Ex: `sw t3, 4(a0)` → im: 0100
 \downarrow
 \downarrow
 $x28 \ x10 \ rs1$
 $11100 \ 01010$

Ex: 0b00000000_00101_10000_101_10110_0110011
 SRL rs2 x16 x22
 ... x5 rsi SG
 t0 36

```
int quad_sum(int w, int x, int y, int z) {
    int a = sum(w, x);
    int b = sum(y, z);
    return sum(a, b);
}
```

```
quad_sum:
?????????
sw ra, 0(sp)
sw s0, 4(sp)
sw s1, 8(sp)
```

```
mv s0, a2
mv s1, a3
call sum
```

```
mv t0, a0
mv a0, s0
mv a1, s1
mv s0, t0
call sum
```

```
mv a1, s0
call sum
```

```
lw ra, 0(sp)
lw s0, 4(sp)
lw s1, 8(sp)
?????????
```

```
ret
```

lower address

SP →

higher address

bottom of stack

→ r2 jal r8+4 → r2 = 48

← previous func. call's r2

$$64 + 16 + 3 = 83$$

```
int fn(int x) {
    int lowbit = x & 1;
    int rest = x >> 1;
    if (x == 0) return 0;
    else return ???;
}
```

fn:
 $r2 = \text{addr of most recent call to fn}$
 addi sp, sp, -12
 sw s0, 0(sp)
 sw s1, 4(sp)
 sw ra, 8(sp)
 $\text{andi s0, a0, 1 } s0 = \text{lowbit}$
 $\text{srai s1, a0, 1 } s1 = \text{rest}$

← stop

yy:
 beqz a0, rtn
 $\text{mv a0, s1 } \leftarrow r2 = \text{rest}^*$
 jal ra, fn
 $\text{add a0, a0, s0 } \leftarrow \text{return val + lowbit}$

recursion

rtn:
 lw s0, 0(sp)
 lw s1, 4(sp)
 lw ra, 8(sp)
 addi sp, sp, 12
 jr ra

lower address

SP →

higher address

bottom of stack

$$r2 = 0x53 = 0b\ 0101_0011$$

$$\text{lowbit} = 0000_0001$$

$$\text{rest} = 0010_1001$$

$$\text{return fn(}) + 1$$

from previous

$s0$ ← most recent

$s1$ ← most recent

ra

$$x = -s1 \ll 1 + s0$$

$$= 010_00110 \ 0001 = \underline{\underline{0100}} \ \underline{\underline{0111}}$$

$$jal = ra - 4 = A4$$

jal points to next line

$$1st \ call \ (diff \ ra) \quad r2 = jal - 4 = 6C - 4 = 68$$

01001001.111111
 \swarrow 8
 \nwarrow 01001001

01001001.000000
 \swarrow 8
 \nwarrow 000000.111111
 \swarrow 8
 \nwarrow 8

01001001.000000

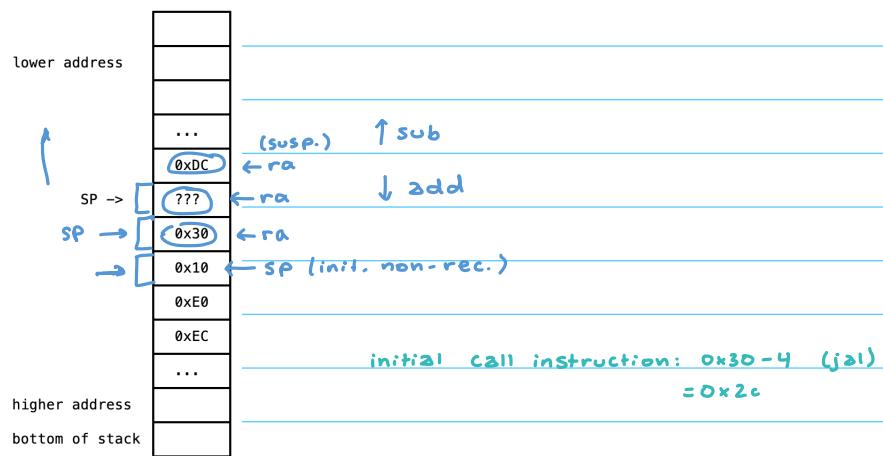
8

```

int get_remainder(int x, int y) {
    int difference = x - y;
    if (difference < 0) return x;
    else return ???;
}

get_remainder:      a0=x
                    a1=y
                    t0=diff
    sub t0, a0, a1
    bltz t0, rtn
    addi sp, sp, -4
    sw ra, 0(sp)
    mv a0, t0    20=x-y   20=0x7
    jal get_remainder  get-rem(diff,y)
    lw ra, 0(sp)
    addi sp, sp, 4
rtn:   ← suspend.
    jr ra

```



getrem(0x67, 0x20)

0110-0111 0010-0000
64+32+7 32
103

rem=7

0111
7 → 20

y=32

00100000
2 0

The following C program computes the sum of all elements in an array.

```

int arraySum(int* a, int b){
    // int *a: pointer to array
    // int b: length of array
    if (b == 1) return a[0];
    else {
        return a[0] + arraySum(a+1, b-1);
    }
}

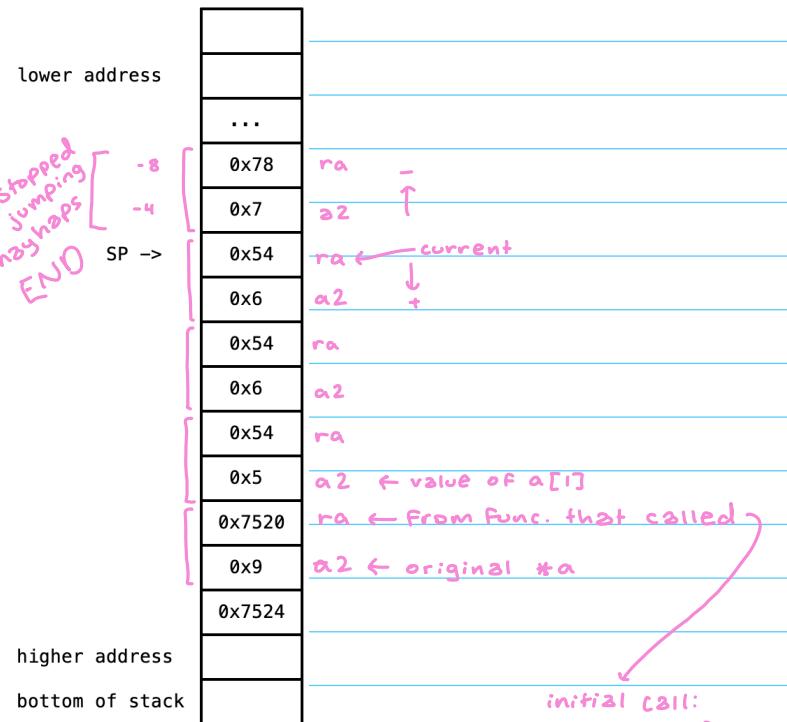
```

The corresponding assembly program is shown below:

```

arraySum:      a1=b
    lw a2, 0(a0) ← a2=*&a
    li a3, 1     a3=1
    beq a1, a3, end
    addi sp, sp, -8
    sw ra, 0(sp)
    sw a2, 4(sp)
    addi a0, a0, 4
    #REPLACE <---      store r2
    jal arraySum      store [0] addy
    lw a2, 4(sp)      a0+4
    add a2, a2, a0
    lw ra, 0(sp)
    addi sp, sp, 8
end:           mv a0, a2
    ret

```



b=len = how many times recursion happens = 5

[4/29/25] - rec 5

Pseudoinstructions unlocked!

MIT 6.191 (6.004) ISA Reference Card: Pseudoinstructions

Pseudoinstruction	Description	Execution
li rd, iconstant	Load Immediate	reg[rd] <= 11(Constant)
and rd, rs1	Logical And	reg[rd] <= reg[rs1] ^ 1
not rd, rs1	Logical Not	reg[rd] <= 0 - reg[rs1]
neg rd, rs1	Arithmetic Negation	pc <= label
jal label	Jump	reg[ra] <= pc + 4
call label	Jump and Link (with ra)	pc <= label
jr ra	Jump Register	reg[ra] <= pc + 4
jalr rs	Jump and Link Register (with ra)	pc <= reg[rs1] & -1
ret	Return from Subroutine	pc <= reg[ra]
beq rs1, rs2, label	Branch > (Signed)	pc <= (reg[rs1] > reg[rs2]) ? label : pc + 4
bne rs1, rs2, label	Branch != (Signed)	pc <= (reg[rs1] < reg[rs2]) ? label : pc + 4
bgtu rs1, rs2, label	Branch >= (Signed)	pc <= (reg[rs1] >= reg[rs2]) ? label : pc + 4
btsu rs1, rs2, label	Branch <= (Signed)	pc <= (reg[rs1] <= reg[rs2]) ? label : pc + 4
beqz rs1, label	Branch = 0	pc <= (reg[rs1] == 0) ? label : pc + 4
bnez rs1, label	Branch != 0	pc <= (reg[rs1] != 0) ? label : pc + 4
bltz rs1, label	Branch < 0 (Signed)	pc <= (reg[rs1] < 0) ? label : pc + 4
bgtz rs1, label	Branch > 0 (Signed)	pc <= (reg[rs1] > 0) ? label : pc + 4
bnez rs1, label	Branch > 0 (Signed)	pc <= (reg[rs1] > 0) ? label : pc + 4
blez rs1, label	Branch ≤ 0 (Signed)	pc <= (reg[rs1] <= 0) ? label : pc + 4

Note: *label* is a 32-bit value.

For examples,

x=5

Before: addi a0, x0, 5

After li a0, 5

a1=a2

Before: addi a1, a2, 0

After mv a1, a2

Return "jump to ra"

Before: jal x0, 0(ra)

After: ret

Calling Convention

Why? We have limited shared registers so we don't want to mess up other processes if there are multiple going on.

```
main:
#assume a0 is the address of arr
a5 is index i
loop:
    (sth)
    slli a2, a5, 2 #a2 = 4*i
    add a2, a2, a0 #a2 = address arr[i]
    lw a1, 0(a2)
    call mod
    add a1, a0, a1
    j loop CALLEE
    (sth)
```

mod: CALLEE
 (do sth)
 mv a0, a2 #put return value in a0
 ret

they are all same a0
 (not like in C where we have scope)

pc: program counter

ra: return addy

pc, ra, jalr

pc = program counter = where we are

ra = return address = where should we go back if we "return"

caller:

```
...
addi sp, sp, -N
sw a0, 0(sp)
sw t0, 4(sp)
sw ra, 8(sp)
pc → call callee #i.e. jal ra, callee
pc+4 lw a0, 0(sp) ← ra: come back after func.
pc+8 lw t0, 4(sp)
lw ra, 8(sp)
addi sp, sp, N
call
```

pc → callee:

```
...
addi sp, sp, -N
sw s0, 0(sp)
...
something
...
lw s0, 0(sp)
addi sp, sp, N
pc → ret # jal x0, 0(ra)
goes back to ra
```

Stack and sp "backup memory"

Stack = part of memory address where we use to store some values, going from higher to lower

Stack pointer (sp) = point to the top of stack

Two operations: push and pop

- Push: put something on top of stack


```
addi sp, sp, -4 # allocate space
sw a1, 0(sp) # put element on
```
- Pop: take something off top of stack


```
lw a1, 0(sp) # take element off
addi sp, sp, 4 # deallocate space
```

sp →
 tells us where we are in stack



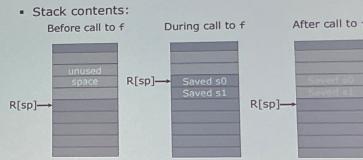
sw a0, 0(sp)
 write a0 to mem.

lw a0, 0(sp)
 move stack ptr back

Sample,

This function used s (callee saved) -> need to restore it back at the end

```
f:  
    addi sp, sp, -8    # allocate 2 words (8 bytes) on stack  
    sw $0, 0(sp)      # save $0  
    sw $1, 4(sp)      # save $1  
    addi $0, a0, 3  
    li $0, 0x123456  
    add $1, a1, $1  
    or a0, $0, $1  
    lw $0, 0(sp)      # restore $0  
    lw $1, 4(sp)      # restore $1  
    addi sp, sp, 8    # deallocate 2 words from stack  
                      # (restore sp)  
ret
```



Who save what?

caller:
...
CALL
...
caller save = a's, t's, ra
- save in mem.
8 load back
for safety
RETURN

callee:
...
addi sp, sp, -N
sw \$0, 0(sp)
...
something
...
lw \$0, 0(sp)
addi sp, sp, N
ret

Why does caller need to store ra?

Ex: caller & callee

One can be both caller and callee

caller_and_callee:
...
addi sp, sp, -N
sw a0, 0(sp)
sw t0, 4(sp)
sw ra, 8(sp)
sw s0, 12(sp)
...
call callee
...

lw a0, 0(sp)
lw t0, 4(sp)
lw ra, 8(sp)
lw s0, 12(sp)
addi sp, sp, N
ret

Blue = callee part
Red = caller part

You don't need to save everything, only things that you modify (for s in callee) and use (for a and t in caller)

```
int function_A(int a, int b) {  
    some_other_function();  
    return a + b;  
}
```

function_A:
addi sp, sp, -8
sw a0, 8(sp)
sw a1, 4(sp)
sw ra, 0(sp)
jal some_other_function
lw a0, 8(sp)
lw a1, 4(sp)
add a0, a0, a1
lw ra, 0(sp)
addi sp, sp, 8
ret

-12

Does the above assembly obey the calling conventions?

Yes

No

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You have infinitely many submissions remaining.

if no store:

Ex: caller → caller 2: call caller
= = = = =
call caller 2 → ret
= = = = =
ret (jump back to ra)

if store:

caller add ... → caller 2: call caller
= = = = =
ra → = = = = =
ret (jump back to ra)

```
int function_B(int a, int b) {
    int i = foo((a + b) ^ (a - b));
    return (i + 1) ^ i;
}
```

```
function_B:
    addi sp, sp, -4
    sw ra, 0(sp)
    add t0, a0, a1
    sub a0, a0, a1
    xor a0, t0, a0
    jal foo
    addi t0, a0, 1
    xor a0, t0, a0
    lw ra, 0(sp)
    addi sp, sp, 4
    ret
```

Does the above assembly obey the calling convention?

- Yes
 No

```
int function_C(int x) {
    foo(1, x);
    bar(2, x);
    baz(3, x);
    return 0;
}
```

```
function_C:
    addi sp, sp, -4
    sw ra, 0(sp)
    mv a1, a0
    li a0, 1
    jal foo
    li a0, 2 SW & LW
    jal bar
    li a0, 3
    jal baz
    li a0, 0
    lw ra, 0(sp)
    addi sp, sp, 4
    ret
```

Does the above assembly obey the calling convention?

- Yes
 No

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```
int function_D(int x, int y) {
    int i = foo(1, 2);
    return i + x + y;
}
```

```
function_D:      SW $0,
                 -12   SW $1
                 addi sp, sp, -4  LW $0,
                 sw ra, 0(sp)  LW $1
                 mv $0, a0 ] need to store $0 &
                 mv $1, a1 ] $1 to stack then
                 li a0, 1           restore back
                 li a1, 2
                 jal foo
                 add a0, a0, $0
                 add a0, a0, $1
                 lw ra, 0(sp)
                 addi sp, sp, 4
                 ret
```

Does the above assembly obey the calling convention?

- Yes
 No

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Ex: trace shows countBits(10); Stopped before rtn label

pc
countBits:
allocate 8 bytes & store s0.ra:

```

int countBits(unsigned x) {
    unsigned y;      x=10
    if (x == 0) return 0;
    else {
        srli s0, a0, 1 /* Shifts x right by 1 bit. */
        mv a0, s0 a0=prev a0>>1
        y = x >> 1
        f y = x >> 1;
        jal ra, countBits
        call self
        return countBits(y) + 1;
        ra is updated
    }
}

```

count b: y
ra is updated

deallocate & restore s0.ra:

```

lw ra, 0(sp)
lw s0, 4(sp)
addi sp, sp, 8

```

stop →
rtn: jr ra

b=50

0x240
244
248
24C
250

same

0x93		
0x240	ra	
0x1		
A = 0x240	ra	s0 = 1 recursive calls to countBits
B 0x2	ra	s0 =
0x240		5 >> 1 = 101
0x5		
0x1108	ra	s0 = 5 = a0 >> 1
0x37	ra	
	ra	
	ra	

value at...

S. 2

SP cannot tell

PC

	a0	a1	a2	a3
binary_search:	<pre> addi sp, sp, -8 sw ra, 4(sp) sw \$0, 0(sp) mv s0, a2 beq a1, a2, done add t0, a1, a2 srli t0, t0, 1 slli t1, t0, 2 add t1, a0, t1 lw t1, 0(t1) </pre>	<pre> unsigned binary_search(int* arr, uint32_t start, uint32_t end, int element) { if (start == end) { return end; } mid = (start + end) / 2; if (element < arr[mid]) { end = mid; } else { start = mid + 1; } return binary_search(arr, start, end, element); } </pre>		
if:	<pre> el1 arr[mid] bge a3, t1, elise mv a2, t0 j recurse </pre>			<p>how is it a3?</p>
else:	<pre> addi t0, t0, 1 mv a1, t0 </pre>			<p>How many words will be written to the stack before the program makes each recursive call to the function <input type="text" value="binary_search?2"/></p>
recurse:	<pre> call binary_search mv s0, a0 ← ra 0xC4 </pre>			<p>Submit View Answer 100.00%</p> <p>You have infinitely many submissions remaining.</p>
done:	<pre> mv a0, s0 ← c8 lw s0, 0(sp)] cc lw ra, 4(sp) </pre>			<p>← stop</p>
L1:	<pre> addi sp, sp, 8 ↵ D4 ret D8 ↵ pc </pre>			

The program's initial call to function `binary_search` occurs outside of the function definition via the instruction `call binary_search`. The program is interrupted *during a recursive call* to `binary_search`, just prior to the execution of `addi sp, sp, 8` at label L1. The diagram below shows the contents of a region of memory. All addresses and data values are shown in hex. The current value in the `sp` register is `0xEB0` and points to the location shown in the diagram.

Address	Data	
0xEA4	0x0	
0xEA8	0x5	s0
0xEAC	0xC4	ra
SP → 0xEB0	0x6	s0
0xEB4	0xC4	ra
0xEB8	0x6	s0
0xEBC	0xC4	ra
0xEC0	0xA	s0
0xEC4	0xC4	ra
0xEC8	0x3E	s0
0xECC	0xCA4	ra
0xED0	0xCED	

Annotations:

- Blue arrows point from the `ra` column to the `0xC4` values at addresses 0xEAC, 0xEB4, 0xEBC, 0xEC4, and 0xECC. A blue arrow also points from the `ra` column to the `0xC4` value at address 0xEC0.
- Pink annotations include `arr = cannot tell`, `end (init) = A`, `current s0 = 6`, and `current ra = c4`.
- A blue arrow points from the `0xA` value at address 0xEC0 to the `0x3E` value at address 0xEC8, labeled `original end`.
- A blue arrow points from the `0xCA4` value at address 0xECC to the `0xC4` value at address 0xEC4, labeled `initial call`.

5.4) Problem 5.4

What is the value in register `s0` right when the execution of `binary_search` is interrupted? Write CAN'T TELL if you cannot tell.
6

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What is the value in register `ra` right when the execution of `binary_search` is interrupted? Write CAN'T TELL if you cannot tell.
c4

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5.5) Problem 5.5

What is the hex address of the `call binary_search` instruction that made the *initial call* to `binary_search`?

ca0

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5.6) Problem 5.6

What is the hex address of the `ret` instruction?
d8

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[51612s] - REC

STACK DETECTIVE:

- Find the assembly code corresponding w/ assembly

```
uint32_t foo(uint32_t x) {
    if (x == 0) {
        return 0;
    } else {
        if (x & 1 == 1) {
            return bar(x >> 1); // diff
        } else {
            return foo(x >> 1); // diff
        }
    }
}
```

```
uint32_t bar(uint32_t x) {
    if (x == 0) {
        return 0;
    } else {
        if (x & 1 == 1) {
            return 1; // diff
        } else {
            return bar(x >> 1); // diff
        }
    }
}
```

z1 stores last bit

and we know func. goes to foo_else
.. z1 last bit must be 0!

```
foo:
    addi sp, sp, -8
    sw $0, 0(sp)
    sw ra, 4(sp)
    beqz a0, foo_end
    andi a1, a0, 1
    a0 = a0 >> 1
L1:
    srli $0, a0, 1
    beqz a1, foo_else
    mv a0, $0 # diff
    call bar # diff ← call 0xC00
    j foo_end          ← 0xC04 ← -4
foo_else:
    mv a0, $0 # diff
    call foo # diff   ← call foo 0xC0C
    foo_end:
        lw $0, 0(sp)
        lw ra, 4(sp)
        addi sp, sp, 8
        ret
```

bar:

```
bar:
    addi sp, sp, -8
    sw $0, 0(sp)
    sw ra, 4(sp)
    beqz a0, bar_end
    andi a1, a0, 1
L2:
    srli $0, a0, 1
    beqz a1, bar_else
    li a0, 1 # diff
    j bar_end
bar_else:
    mv a0, $0 # diff
    call bar # diff ← call ← ra C48
    bar_end:
        lw $0, 0(sp)
        lw ra, 4(sp)
        addi sp, sp, 8
        ret
```

stop here PC ← ra - 6(4)

we call this & don't modify it!

Pointers	Address	Data
	0xEA8	???
	0xEAC	???
so	sp → 0xEB0	0x1
ra	0xEB4	0xC4C
so	0xEB8	0x2
ra	0xEBC	0xC4C
so	0xEC0	0x4
ra	0xEC4	0xC04
so	0xEC8	0x9
ra	0xECC	0xC10
so	0xED0	0x13
ra	0xED4	0xB08

current values

same addy!
so must be bar (bar call bar, not foo call bar)

diff ra ← stored: 20 >> 1

diff ra! ← init call 0xB08 - 4 = 0xB04

pc = addy of instruction

so = 0x9 = 0b100111

= 0b10010 = 0x12

- find starting point (jumps)

The following line of code is run. At various points throughout the program (denoted TIME POINT X), the values in certain memory locations and registers are saved. Some of these values are shown in the table on the next page. Using the code below and those values, fill in the missing cells in the table.

jal ra, log_a_x # <----- TIME POINT 0 (after this line is executed)

```

1 ilog2: # produce ilog2 of a0
2 addi sp, sp, -4
3 sw ra, 0(sp)
4 addi t1, zero, 1
5 blt t1, a0, ilog_else
6 addi a0, zero, 0
7 beq zero, zero, ilog_ret
8 ilog_else:
9 srl a0, a0, 1
10 jal ra, ilog2 ← calls itself (same ra)
11 addi a0, a0, 1
12 ilog_ret:
13 lw ra, 0(sp)
14 addi sp, sp, 4
15 jalr zero, 0(ra)
16
17 idiv: #produce idiv of a0/a1
18 addi sp, sp, -4
19 sw ra, 0(sp)
20 addi t1, zero, 0
21 bge a0, a1, idiv_else
22 addi a0, zero, 0
23 beq zero, zero, idiv_ret
24 idiv_else:
25 sub a0, a0, a1
26 jal ra, idiv
27 addi a0, a0, 1
28 idiv_ret:
29 lw ra, 0(sp)
30 addi sp, sp, 4
31 jalr zero, 0(ra)
32
33 log_a_x: #compute the log of a0 in base a1
34 addi sp, sp, -12 ]
35 sw ra, 0(sp) ] 3 words
36 sw s0, 4(sp)
37 sw s1, 8(sp)
38 add s0, a0, zero ← # <----- TIME POINT 1 (after line 38 executed)
39 addi a0, a1, 0  s0 = a0
40 jal ra, ilog2 ]
41 addi s1, a0, 0    sp remain same
42 addi a0, s0, 0    # <----- TIME POINT 2 (after line 42 executed)
43 jal ra, ilog2 ]
44 addi a1, s1, 0
45 jal ra, idiv ]
46 lw s1, 8(sp)      # <----- TIME POINT 3 (after line 46 executed)
47 lw s0, 4(sp)
48 lw ra, 0(sp)
49 addi sp, sp, 12
50 jalr zero, 0(ra) # <----- TIME POINT 4 (after line 50 executed)

```

Complete this table for Problem 5, using the code on the previous page.

Address	TIME POINT 0	TIME POINT 1	TIME POINT 2	TIME POINT 3	TIME POINT 4
0x3fc93f00	0xffffffff	0xffffffff	0xffffffff	0xffffffff	0xffffffff
0x3fc93f04	0xa5a5a5a5	0xa5a5a5a5	0xa5a5a5a5	0x42001620	0x42001620
0x3fc93f08	0xa5a5a5a5	0xa5a5a5a5	0xa5a5a5a5	0x42001620	0x42001620
0x3fc93f0c	0x00000004	0x00000004	0x00000004	0x42001620	0x42001620
0x3fc93f10	0x000007c2	0x000007c2	0x000007c2	0x42001620	0x42001620
0x3fc93f14	0x00000123	0x00000123	0x00000123	0x42001650	0x42001650
0x3fc93f18	0xffffffff	0xffffffff	0x42001620	0x42001650	0x42001650
0x3fc93f1c	0x00000123	0x00000123	0x42001620	0x42001650	0x42001650
0x3fc93f20	0x420165b0	0x420165b0	0x4200167c	0x42001690	0x42001690
0x3fc93f24	0x3fc91000	0x4201540a	0x4201540a	0x4201540a	0x4201540a
0x3fc93f28	0x3fc91000	0x0000000f	0x0000000f	0x0000000f S1 → 8(sp)	0x0000000f
0x3fc93f2c	0x00000011	0x00000001	0x00000001	0x00000001	0x00000001
0x3fc93f30	0x00000000	0x00000000	0x00000000	0x00000000	0x00000000
0x3fc93f34	0x00000111	0x00000111	0x00000111	0x00000111	0x00000111
Register	TIME POINT 0	TIME POINT 1	TIME POINT 2	TIME POINT 3	TIME POINT 4
a0	0x0000008a	0x0000008a	0x0000008a	3	3
a1	0x00000005	0x00000005	0x00000005	2	2
s0	0x0000000f	0x00000008a	0x00000008a	8a	0kf
s1	0x00000001	0x00000001	2	1	1
ra	0x4201540a	0x4201540a	0x4200167c	0x42001690	0x4201540a
t1	0x0000000a	0x0000000a	0x00000001	no change 0	0
sp	0x3fc93f30	0x3fc93f24	0x3fc93f24	0x3fc93f24	0x3fc93f30 loaded back

TIPS TO MYSELF:

- pace yourself!
- understand full question before diving in
- pay attention to types
 - signed vs. unsigned
 - hex, decimal, binary
 - pointer?
 - char vs. int
 - 0 vs. \0 null ptr
 - size (8 bits? 32?)
- ^{sw, lw} memory? *4 ... array? i, no multiplier