## CSC258 Winter 2016 Lecture 9

#### Announcements

- If you'd like to borrow a DE-2 board for your own project, talk to Andrew Wang.
- For assembly labs you can work individually or in pairs. How matter how you do it, the important thing is that each individual of you learns from the lab.
- Midterm remarking requests have been processed, you may check you updated marks on MarkUs and pick up your midterms.



Today's quiz has 4 marks in total.

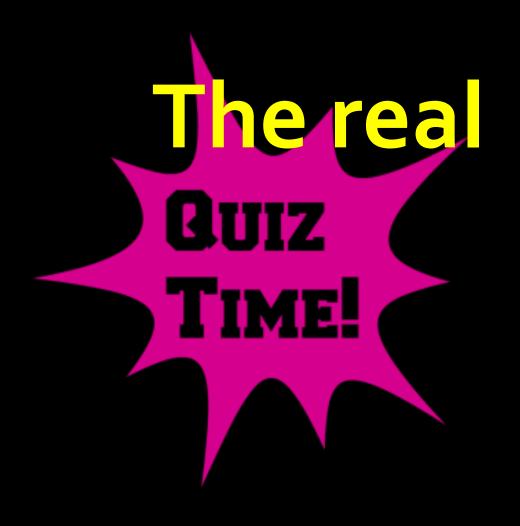
Tear off the reference sheet, and keep it.

Below is the content of an executable file "mystery.exe", what does this program do?

```
1000 1110 0000 1000 0101 1010 1111 0001
1000 1110 0010 1001 1101 0010 0011 0010
0000 0001 0000 1001 0101 0000 0010 0000
1000 1110 0100 1011 1111 0011 0011 0111
0000 0000 0000 1100 0011 0001 0000
0000 0010 0110 1010 1010 0000 0010 0010
1010 1101 1101 0100 0000 1111 0101 1010
```

OK, this one is too long for a quiz, but it is a legit question, which you should be able to answer. Do it at home for practice.





Today's quiz has 4 marks in total.

Tear off the reference sheet, and keep it.

Below is a R-type instruction

0000 0000 0110 0101 0100 0000 0010 0111

Which type operation does it do?

Which register is the result stored in?

Below is an I-type instruction (BNE, branch on not equal)

0001 0100 1010 1001 1111 1111 1110 1111

When the NE condition is satisfied, what is the change of the PC value?

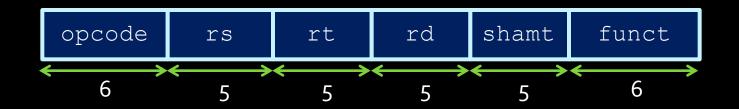
PC = PC +

In a Jump (J) instruction, PC changes by an offset, i.e., PC = PC + offset

How big is the range of possible offset values (the difference between the most positive possible offset and the most negative possible offset)?

Write your answer in terms of a power of 2.

# Solutions



Below is a R-type instruction

0000 0000 0110 0101 0100 0000 0010 0111

Which type operation does it do?

NOR

Which register is the result stored in? \_\_\_\_\_8\_

\_8\_\_\_\_





Below is an I-type instruction (BNE, branch on not equal)

0001 0100 1010 1001 1111 1111 1110 1111

When the NE condition is satisfied, what is the change of the PC value?

Two's complement: 0000 0000 0001 0001 = 17

so offset is: -17 << 2, i.e., -17 x 4

PC = PC + \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_

```
000010 00 11010001 00000000 00100110
```

destination address = {PC[31:28], whats-above, 00}

In a Jump (J) instruction, PC changes by an offset, i.e., PC = PC + offset

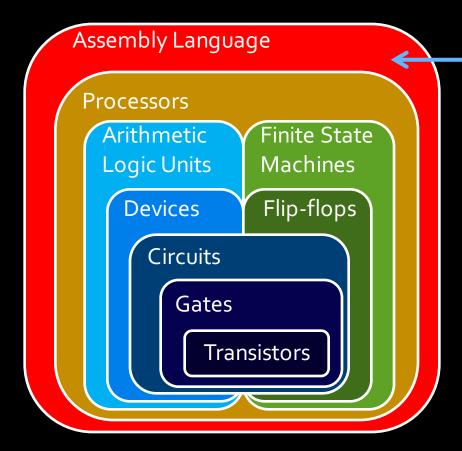
How big is the range of possible offset values (the different between the most positive offset and the most negative offset)?

Write your answer in terms of a power of 2.

$$2^{28} = 256MB$$

Because the highest 4 bits of the new PC must be the same as the current PC.

#### We are here



## Programming the processor

- Things to learn:
  - Control unit signals to the datapath
  - Machine code instructions
  - Assembly language instructions
  - Programming in assembly language



#### Machine Code Instructions

```
00 00 00 01 4D 00 53 00
00000040
                            6C 00 6C 00 20 00 44 00
                                                .S.h.e.l.l. .D
       20 00 53 00 68 00 65 00
                            00 00 00 00 00 02 00 00
00000050
                            C3 00 36 00 32 25 00 00
00000060
       03 01 A1 50 53 00 3A 00
       FF FF 83 00 00 00 00 00
                            00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
00000070
       03 00 01 50 0E 00 56 00
08000000
                           41 00 0A 00 4A 26 00 00
00000090
       FF FF 80 00 26 00 41 00
                           70 00 70 00 6C 00 79 00
       20 00 74 00 6F 00 20 00 61 00 6C 00 6C 00 00 00
                                                .t.o. .a.l.l.
000000a0
000000ь0
       00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 01 00 01 50
       00 00 01 50 B4 00 7D 00
                           32 00 0E 00 02 00 00 00
000000e0
       FF FF 80 00 43 00 61 00
                           6E 00 63 00 65 00 6C 00
                                                ....C.á.n.c.e.l
000000f0
       00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
                            00 00 00 00 00 00 01 50
                                                00000100
      EA 00 7D 00 32 00 06 00
26 00 48 00 65 00 6C 00
00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
3B 00 0E 00 2F 25 00 00
                           00000110
00000130
                           00000140
00000150 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
00000160 1E 00 08 00 EE 25 00 00 FF FF 82 00 46 00 69 00
       6C 00 65 00 20 00 54 00
                           50 00 61 00 72 00 73 00
000001a0
                            69 00 6E 00 67 00 20 00 P.a.r.s.i.n.g. .
       52 00 75 00 6C 00 65 00
                            73 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 R.u.l.e.s.....
000001Ъ0
000001c0
       00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
                            07 00 00 50 06 00 07 00 ..........P....
                           000001d0
       6C 00 65 00 63 00 74 00
                            20 00 52 00 75 00 6C 00
00000200
       65 00 20 00 46 00 6F 00
                           72 00 20 00 46 00 69 00 e. .F.o.r. .F.i
00000210
       6C 00 65 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 1.e......
00000220
       80 08 81 50 0E 00 1B 00 08 01 0E 00 EB 25 00 00
       FF FF 81 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
                           00 00 02 50 19 00 61 00
```

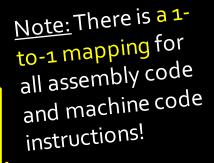
#### Intro to Machine Code

- Machine code are the 32-bit binary instructions which the processor can understand (you can now understand, too)
- All programs (C, Java, Python) are eventually translated into machine code (by a compiler or interpreter).
- While executing, the instructions of the program are loaded into the instruction register one by one
- For each instruction loaded, the Control Unit reads the opcode and sets the signals to control the datapath, so that the processor works as instructed.

### Assembly language

- Each line of assembly code corresponds to one line of 32-bit long machine code.
- Basically, assembly is a user-friendly way to write machine code.
- Example: C = A + B
  - Store A in \$t1, B in \$t2, C in \$t3
  - Assembly language instruction:

Machine code instruction:



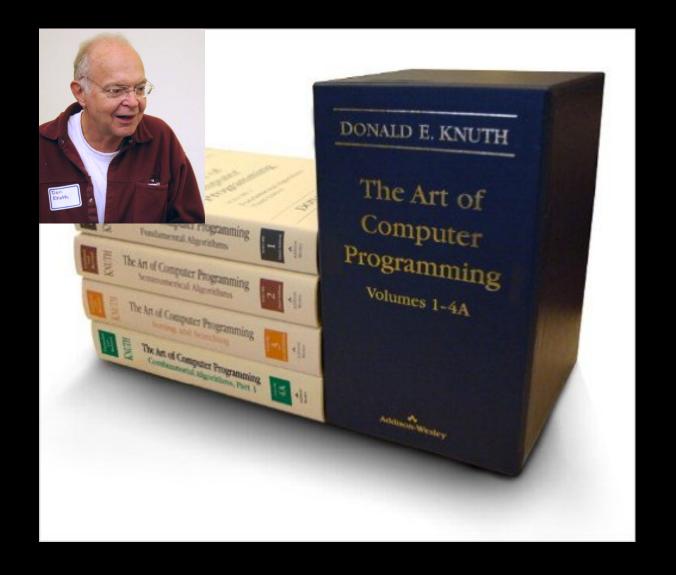
## Why learn assembly?

- You'll understand how your program really works.
- You'll understand your program's performance better by knowing its real "runtime".
- You'll understand how control flows (if / else / for / while) are implemented.
- You'll understand why eliminating if statements makes your code faster.
- You'll understand why pointer is such a natural concept for programming.
- You'll understand the cost of making function calls.
- You'll understand why stack can overflow
- You'll understand there is no "recursion" in the hardware, and how it's actually done.
- You'll understand why memory need to be managed.
- You'll understand why people spend so much time creating operating systems.
- You'll appreciate more the constructs in high-level programming languages.
- And much more...

And, you'll be able to read this book.

Donald Knuth "The Art of Computer Programming"

"All algorithms in this book are written in assembly for clarity."



## About register names

In machine code with have register 0 to register 31, specified by 5 bits of the instruction.

In assembly we have names like \$t1, \$t2, \$s1, \$v0, etc.

What's the relation between these two?

## Machine code + registers

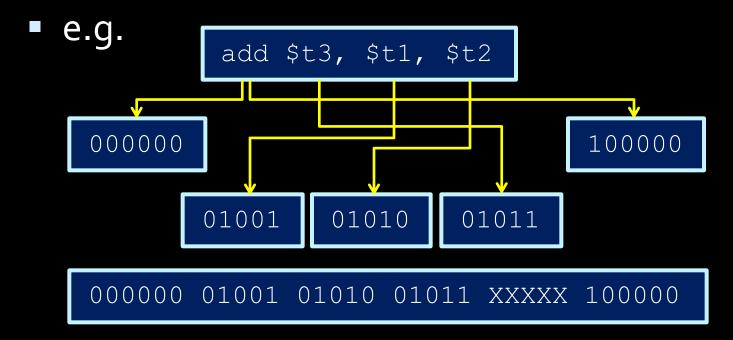
- MIPS is register-to-register.
  - Every operation operates on data in registers.
- MIPS provides 32 registers.
  - Several have special values:
    - Register 0 (\$zero): value 0 -- always.
    - Register 1 (\$at): reserved for the assembler.
    - Registers 2-3 (\$vo, \$v1): return values
    - Registers 4-7 (\$ao-\$a3): function arguments
    - Registers 8-15, 24-25 (\$to-\$t9): temporaries
    - Registers 16-23 (\$so-\$s7): saved temporaries
    - Registers 28-31 (\$gp, \$sp, \$fp, \$ra): memory and function support
    - Registers 26-27: reserved for OS kernel
  - Also three special registers (PC, HI, LO) that are not directly accessible.
    - HI and LO are used in multiplication and division, and have special instructions for accessing them.

\$vo, \$t2, \$a3, etc are the registers' nicknames in assembly

Technically you can use any register for anything, but this is the convention

## Translate assembly to machine code

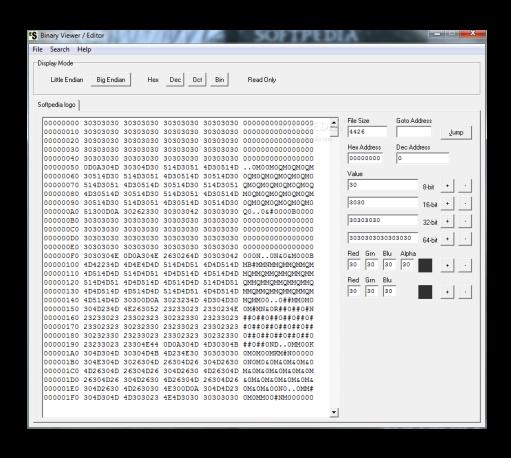
 When writing machine code instructions (or interpreting them), we need to know which register values to encode (or decode).



#### Machine code details

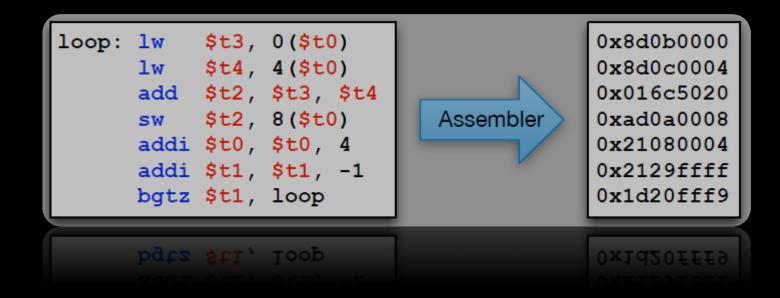
- Things to note about machine code:
  - R-type instructions have an opcode of 000000, with a
     6-bit function listed at the end.
  - Although we specify "don't care" bits as X values, the assembly language interpreter always assigns them to some value (like 0)
  - In exams, we want you to write X instead of 0, to show that you know we don't care those bits

Now you can totally program an executable like this (don't even need a compiler).



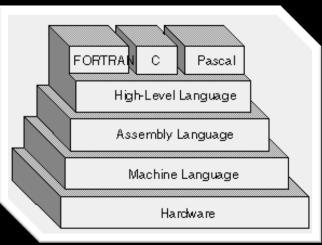


#### Assembly Language Instructions



## Assembly language

- Assembly language is the lowest-level language that you'll ever program in.
- Many compilers translate
  their high-level program
  commands into assembly commands, which
  are then converted into machine code and
  used by the processor.
- Note: There are multiple types of assembly language, especially for different architectures!



#### Trivia

The thing that converts assembly code to executable is NOT called a compiler.

It's called an assembler, because there is no fancy complication needed, it just

assembles the lines!

#### A little about MIPS

#### MIPS

- Short for Microprocessor without Interlocked Pipeline Stages
  - A type of RISC (Reduced Instruction Set Computer) architecture.
- Provides a set of simple and fast instructions
  - Compiler translates instructions into 32-bit instructions for instruction memory.
  - Complex instructions are built out of simple ones by the compiler and assembler.

## The layout of assembly code

## Code sectioning syntax: example

```
.data
      .space 400 # array of 100 integers
A:
B:
       .space 400
                       # array of 100 integers
.text
main:
       add $t0, $zero, $zero # load "0" into $t0
       addi $t1, $zero, 400  # load "400" into $t1
       addi $t9, $zero, B # store address of B
       addi $t8, $zero, A  # store address of A
      add $t4, $t8, $t0 # $t4 = addr(A) + i
loop:
       add $t3, $t9, $t0 # $t3 = addr(B) + i
       lw $s4, 0 ($t3) # $s4 = B[i]
       addi $t6, $s4, 1 \# $t6 = B[i] + 1
       addi $t0, $t0, 4 \# $t0 = $t0++
       bne $t0, $t1, loop # branch back if $t0<400
end:
```

## Code sectioning syntax

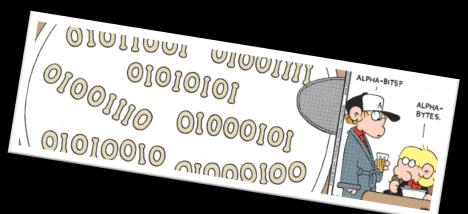
- data
  - Indicates the start of the data declarations.
- .text
  - Indicates the start of the program instructions.
- main:
  - The initial line to run when executing the program.
- You can create other labels as needed.

#### MIPS Instructions

- Things to note about MIPS instructions:
  - Instruction are written
    - as: <instr> <parameters>



- All instructions are 32 bits (4 bytes) long
- Instruction addresses are measured in bytes, starting from the instruction at address o.
- The following tables show the most common MIPS instructions, the syntax for their parameters, and what operation they perform.



#### Arithmetic instructions

Instruction	Opcode/Function	Syntax	Operation	
add	100000	\$d, \$s, \$t	\$d = \$s + \$t	
addu	100001	\$d, \$s, \$t	\$d = \$s + \$t	
addi	001000	\$t, \$s, i	\$t = \$s + SE(i)	
addiu	001001	\$t, \$s, i	\$t = \$s + SE(i)	
div	011010	\$s, \$t	lo = \$s / \$t; hi = \$s % \$t	
divu	011011	\$s, \$t	lo = \$s / \$t; hi = \$s % \$t	
mult	011000	\$s, \$t	hi:lo = \$s * \$t	
multu	011001	\$s, \$t	hi:lo = \$s * \$t	
sub	100010	\$d, \$s, \$t	\$d = \$s - \$t	
subu	100011	\$d, \$s, \$t	\$d = \$s - \$t	

Note: "hi" and "lo" refer to the high and low bits referred to in the register slide. "SE" = "sign extend".

#### ALU instructions

- Note that for ALU instruction, most are R-type instructions.
  - The six-digit codes in the tables are therefore the function codes (opcodes are 000000).
  - Exceptions are the I-type instructions (addi, andi, ori, etc.)
- Not all R-type instructions have an I-type equivalent.
  - RISC architectures dictate that an operation doesn't need an instruction if it can be performed through multiple existing operations.
  - Example: divi \$t0, 42 can be done by
  - addi \$t1, \$zero, 42
  - div \$t0 t1

## Logical instructions

Instruction	Opcode/Function	Syntax	Operation
and	100100	\$d, \$s, \$t	\$d = \$s & \$t
andi	001100	\$t, \$s, i	\$t = \$s & ZE(i)
nor	100111	\$d, \$s, \$t	\$d = ~(\$s   \$t)
or	100101	\$d, \$s, \$t	\$d = \$s   \$t
ori	001101	\$t, \$s, i	\$t = \$s   ZE(i)
xor	100110	\$d, \$s, \$t	\$d = \$s ^ \$t
xori	001110	\$t, \$s, i	\$t = \$s ^ ZE(i)

Note: ZE = zero extend (pad upper bits with 0 value).

#### Shift instructions

Instruction	Opcode/Function	Syntax	Operation
sll	000000	\$d, \$t, a	\$d = \$t << a
sllv	000100	\$d, \$t, \$s	\$d = \$t << \$s
sra	000011	\$d, \$t, a	\$d = \$t >> a
srav	000111	\$d, \$t, \$s	\$d = \$t >> \$s
srl	000010	\$d, \$t, a	\$d = \$t >>> a
srlv	000110	\$d, \$t, \$s	\$d = \$t >>> \$s

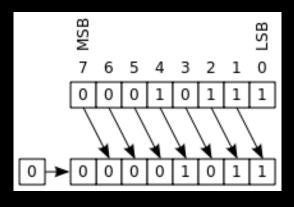
Note: srl = "shift right logical", and <math>sra = "shift right arithmetic".The "v" denotes a variable number of bits, specified by \$s.

# Logic shift vs Arithmetic shift

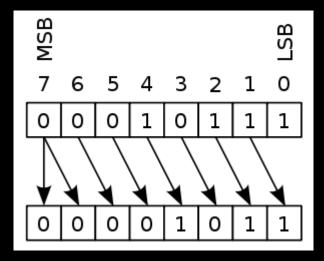
Left shift: same, fill empty spot with zero (that's why we have sll but no sla)

#### Right shift: different

- Logic shift fills empty spot with zero
- Arithmetic shift fills empty spot with the MSB of the original number.



Logic



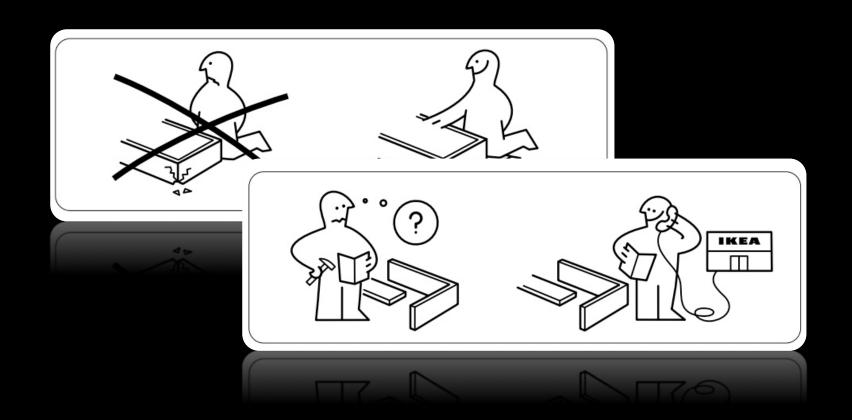
Arithmetic

#### Data movement instructions

Instruction	Opcode/Function	Syntax	Operation
mfhi	010000	\$d	\$d = hi
mflo	010010	\$d	\$d = lo
mthi	010001	<b>\$</b> S	hi = \$s
mtlo	010011	<b>\$</b> S	lo = \$s

 These are instructions for operating on the HI and LO registers described earlier.

# Time for more instructions!



# Flow control: Branch and loop

## Control flow in assembly

- Not all programs follow a linear set of instructions.
  - Some operations require the code to branch to one section of code or another (if/else).
  - Some require the code to jump back and repeat a section of code again (for/while).
- For this, we have labels on the left-hand side that indicate the points that the program flow might need to jump to.
  - References to these points in the assembly code are resolved at compile time to offset values for the program counter.

#### Branch instructions

Instruction	Opcode/Function	Syntax	Operation
beq	000100	\$s, \$t, label	if (\$s == \$t) pc += i << 2
bgtz	000111	\$s, label	if (\$s > 0) pc += i << 2
blez	000110	\$s, label	if (\$s <= 0) pc += i << 2
bne	000101	\$s, \$t, label	if (\$s != \$t) pc += i << 2

- Branch operations are key when implementing if statements and while loops.
- The labels are memory locations, assigned to each label at compile time.
  - Note: i is calculated as (label (current PC + 4)) >> 2

#### Note: Real vs Pseudo instructions

What we list in the slides are all real instructions, i.e., each one has an opcode corresponding to it.

There are some pseudo-instructions, which don't have their own opcode, but is implemented using real instructions; they are provided for coding convenience.

#### For example:

- bge \$t0,\$t1,Label is actually
- slt \$t2,\$t0,\$t1; beq \$t2,\$zero,Label

# Jump instructions

Instruction	Opcode/Function	Syntax	Operation
j	000010	label	pc += i << 2
jal	000011	label	\$31 = pc; pc += i << 2
jalr	001001	<b>\$</b> S	\$31 = pc; pc = \$s
jr	001000	<b>\$</b> S	pc = \$s

- jal = "jump and link".
  - Register \$31 (aka \$ra) stores the address that's used when returning from a subroutine.
- Note: jr and jalr are not j-type instructions.

# Comparison instructions

Instruction	Opcode/Function	Syntax	Operation
slt	101010	\$d, \$s, \$t	\$d = (\$s < \$t)
sltu	101001	\$d, \$s, \$t	\$d = (\$s < \$t)
slti	001010	\$t, \$s, i	\$t = (\$s < SE(i))
sltiu	001001	\$t, \$s, i	\$t = (\$s < SE(i))

Note: Comparison operation stores a one in the destination register if the less-than comparison is true, and stores a zero in that location otherwise.

#### If/Else statements in MIPS

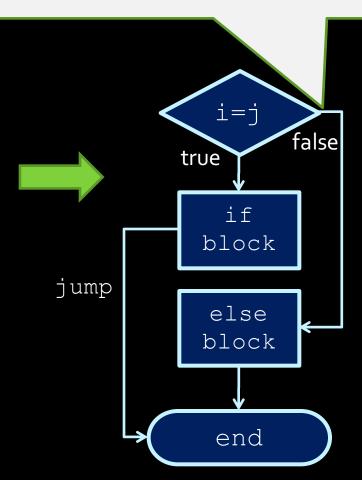
```
if ( i == j )
   i++;
else
   j--;
j += i;
```

- Strategy for if/else statements:
  - Test condition, and jump to if logic block whenever condition is true.
  - Otherwise, perform else logic block, and jump to first line after if logic block.
- A flowchart can be helpful here

#### If statement

Only problem: branch instructions jump on TRUE instead of FALSE, so negate the checked condition to i!= j

```
if ( i == j )
   i++;
else
   j--;
j += i;
```



#### If statement flowcharts

```
if ( i == j )
                                              i!=j
          i++;
         else
                                                    true
                                            false
         j += i;
                                               if
                                              block
                                   jump
                                              else
# $t1 = i, $t2 = j
                                              block
main: bne $t1, $t2, ELSE
        addi $t1, $t1, 1
        j END
         addi $t2, $t2, -1
ELSE:
                                               end
         add $t2, $t2, $t1
END:
```

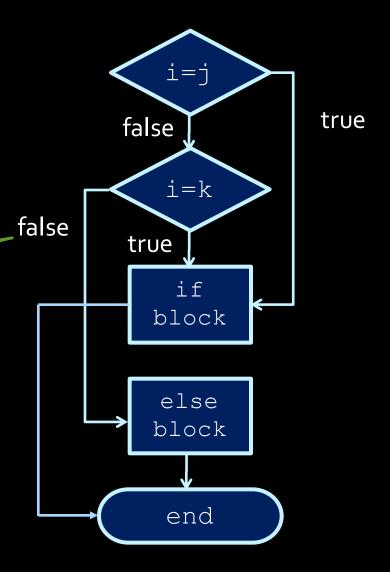
#### Translated if/else statements

 If we change BNE to BEQ, then we also need to swap the IF and ELSE blocks

# Multiple if conditions

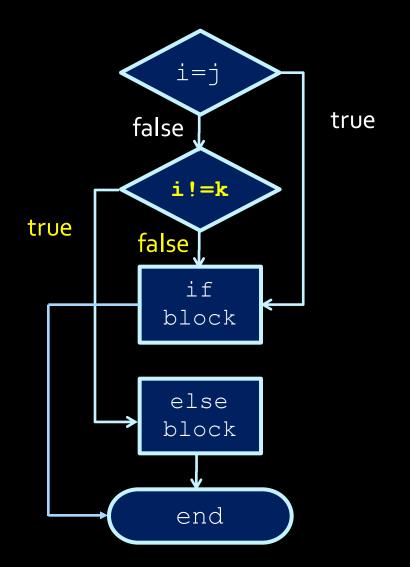
```
if ( i == j || i == k )
    i++ ;  // if-body
else
    j-- ;  // else-body
j = i + k ;
```

Branch on FALSE!



# Multiple if conditions

```
if ( i == j || i == k )
    i++ ; // if-body
else
    j-- ; // else-body
j = i + k ;
```



# Loops

# Loops in MIPS (while loop)

Example of a simple loop, in assembly:

...which is the same as saying (in C):

```
while (i < 100) {
    i++;
}
```

# For loop

 For loops (such as above) are usually implemented with the following structure:

#### Exercise:

#### Answer

```
j = 0
for ( i=0 ; i!=100 ; i++ )
{
    j = j + i;
}
```

This translates to:

while loops are the same, without the initialization and update sections.

#### Another exercise

- Fibonacci sequence:
  - How would you convert this into assembly?

```
int fib(void) {
   int n = 10;
   int f1 = 1, f2 = -1;
   while (n != 0) {
      f1 = f1 + f2;
      f2 = f1 - f2;
      n = n - 1;
   return f1;
```

# Assembly code example

Fibonacci sequence in assembly code:

```
# fib.asm
# register usage: $t3=n, $t4=f1, $t5=f2
# RES refers to memory address of result
FIB: addi $t3, $zero, 10 # initialize n=10
     addi $t4, $zero, 1  # initialize f1=1
     addi $t5, $zero, -1 # initialize f2=-1
LOOP: beq $t3, $zero, END
                            # done loop if n==0
     add $t4, $t4, $t5
                            # f1 = f1 + f2
     sub $t5, $t4, $t5
                            # f2 = f1 - f2
     addi $t3, $t3, -1
                            \# n = n - 1
     j LOOP
                            # repeat until done
END: sb $t4, RES
                            # store result
```

```
int fib(void) {
   int n = 10;
   int f1 = 1, f2 = -1;

while (n != 0) {
    f1 = f1 + f2;
    f2 = f1 - f2;
    n = n - 1;
   }
  return f1;
}
```

# Making an assembly program

- Assembly language programs typically have structure similar to simple Python or C programs:
  - They set aside registers to store data.
  - They have sections of instructions that manipulate this data.
- It is always good to decide at the beginning which registers will be used for what purpose!
  - More on this later ©