# CS2100

# Jia Cheng

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# 1 Definitions

MSB: Most significant bit LSB: Least significant bit

# 2 Conversion Table

$\operatorname{Dec}$	Hex	Bin
0	0	0000
1	1	0001
2	2	0010
3	3	0011
4	4	0100
5	5	0101
6	6	0110
7	7	0111
8	8	1000
9	9	1001
10	a	1010
11	b	1011
12	c	1100
13	d	1101
14	e	1110
15	f	1111

# 3 Number representations

Note: The following terminology may be slightly confusing. 2s complement representation refers to the number representation format. 2s complement of a number N refers to how -N is represented under the 2s complement representation.

Ditto for 1s complement representation and 1s complement of a number N.

## 3.1 Bs complement

Given a base B, positive integer n. The n-digit B's complement representation operates modulo  $B^n$ . We now denote Bs as n-digit B's complement representation. An interesting observation is that we can map the Bs values, i.e. the **ordered** set  $\{(b_{n-1} \dots b_0) : b_i \in \{0,1,\dots,B-1\}\}$  to **any** translation + cyclic permutation of  $\mathbb{Z}/B^n\mathbb{Z}$ .

We now arbitrarily fix the integer 10, so as to demonstrate the meaning of translation and cyclic permutation. An example of translation of  $\mathbb{Z}/10\mathbb{Z}$  is  $\{2,3,4,\ldots,11\}$ . In this case, this is a translation of +2. An example of cyclic permutation of  $\mathbb{Z}/10\mathbb{Z}$  is  $\{2,3,4,\ldots,9,0,1\}$ .

In the case of the regular 8-bit 2s complement representation, we have a combination of translation and cyclic permutation of  $\mathbb{Z}/256\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Example** To show the completely arbitrary nature of such a map from  $\{(b_{n-1} \dots b_0) : b_i \in \{0, 1, \dots, B-1\}\}$  to any translation + cyclic permutation of  $\mathbb{Z}/B^n\mathbb{Z}$ , consider the map of 5-bits to  $\mathbb{Z}/32\mathbb{Z}$ . Call this representation R. Note that under 2s complement, the 5-bits would have been mapped to the ordered set  $\{0, 1, \dots, 15, -16, -15, \dots, -1\}$ 

Then,  $31 = (11111)_R$ ,  $-31 \equiv 32 - 31 \pmod{32} = 1 = (00001)_R$ . Hence,  $31 - 31 = 32 + (-31) = (11111)_R + (00001)_R = (00000)_R = 0$ , which is indeed the expected result.

## 3.2 Fractional complements

## 3.2.1 (B-1)'s complement

Suppose a fractional number N has n integer digits and m fractional digits, then (B-1)'s complement of N is given by  $B^n - B^{-m} - N$ .

To see why, simply remove the decimal point by multiplying N by  $B^m$  (and then dividing  $B^m$ ). Hence,

$$B^{-m}(B^{n+m} - 1 - B^m N) = B^n - B^{-m} - N$$

## 3.3 Sign extension to the left

#### 3.3.1 Binary case

For positive numbers, i.e. numbers with the MSB 0, in both 2s and 1s complement, it suffices to pad the "left" of the number with 0's.

It is particularly easy to mentally prove the sign extension rules for 1s, since for a negative number x, we simply invert it to get positive -x, apply the positive sign extension rules (pad with 0's), then invert it back.

Regardless, it is easy to prove the validity of the sign extension by doing summations.

For **both** 1s and 2s complement representations

- Sign extending number with 0 as MSB: Pad with 0's.
- Sign extending number with 1 as MSB: Pad with 1's.
- Note that the reason why I didn't say positive/negative here is because in 1s complement, there is a positive and a negative 0 value. Referring to the MSB would be the most general.

## 3.3.2 General case

#### 3.4 Sign extension to the right

i.e. after the decimal point

Technically this is not called sign extension. But I don't know what is the technical term for this, so I'll just call this sign extension to the right for convenience.

1s complement (fractional)

- Sign extending number with 0 as MSB: Pad with 0's.
- Sign extending number with 1 as MSB: Pad with 1's.

2s complement (fractional)

• Pad with 0's regardless of MSB

## 3.5 Excess representation

Excess-n representation of a number x will be the binary representation of x + n.

**Example** Excess-127 representation of x is binary representation of x + 127. The correspondence with  $\mathbb{Z}/255\mathbb{Z}$  are as follows:

```
0 \dots 127 \ 128 \dots 255 \ (mod \ 255)

0 \dots 127 \ -128 \dots -1 \ (2s \ complement)

-127 \dots 0 \ 1 \dots 128 \ (excess-127)

-128 \dots -1 \ 0 \dots 127 \ (excess-128)
```

# 4 High level code to MIPS Assembly

- 4.1 if-elseif-else
- 4.2 switch-case
- 4.3 while
- 4.4 do-while
- 4.5 for

## 4.6 Encoding space problem

The most general statement of this problem type is as follows: Given an ISA, with n types of instructions, type  $T_1, \ldots, T_n$ . Each instruction type  $T_i$  has an opcode of length  $l_i$ , with  $i < j \implies l_i < l_j$ . i.e.  $l_1 < \cdots < l_n$ .

Given that the encoding space is fully utilised and that there are at least 1 of each type of instructions encoded, what is the minimum and maximum number of instructions?

Define  $l_0 = 0$ .

Minimum

$$\sum_{1 \le i \le n-1} (2^{l_i - l_{i-1}} - 1) + 2^{l_n - l_{n-1}}$$

I will give an intuitive argument for the minimum case as I'm not too sure how to give a formal proof. We start by allocating space for the shortest instruction  $T_1$ . For the first  $l_1$  bits, combinatorial analysis (product rule) tells us that there are  $2^{l_1}$  "outcomes". Since all other instructions are longer than  $T_1$ , at least 1 of the first  $2^{l_1}$  must be allocated for the other instructions of type  $T_2$  to  $T_n$ . Since we want to minimise the total number of instructions, we will allocated exactly 1 of the first  $2^{l_1}$  to the other

instructions and  $2^{l_1} - 1$  to instruction type  $T_1$ .

We repeat this argument for  $T_2$ , allocating  $2^{l_2-l_1}-1$  of the next  $2^{l_2-l_1}$  outcomes (generated by  $l_2-l_1$  bits) to instructions of type  $T_2$ . And so on.

Finally, we reach the final instruction type  $T_n$ . Then the last  $l_n - l_{n-1}$  bits generate  $2^{l_n - l_{n-1}}$  outcomes, which we will all allocate to  $T_n$ .

## Maximum

$$(n-1) + 2^{l_n} - \sum_{1 \le i \le n-1} 2^{l_n - l_i}$$

Argument: For  $1 \le i \le n$ , define  $S_i$  as the set of encoding allocated to instruction type  $T_i$ . By problem definition,  $|S_i| \ge 1$ . So obviously, to maximise  $\sum_{1 \le i \le n} |S_i|$ , our strategy is to minimise  $|S_i|$ ,  $1 \le i < n$  so as to maximise  $|S_n|$ . In particular, we find a way to let  $|S_i| = 1, \forall 1 \le i < n$ .

Here we introduce the notion of making encoding "unavailable". For instance, when we allocate  $l_i$  bits to an instruction of type  $T_i$ , i < n, the remaining n - i bits are "wasted", that is, they are made unavailable. So, in a certain sense, we lose  $2^{l_n - l_i}$  encodings.

We know that if  $\forall 1 \leq i, j < n(\text{WLOG } i \leq j)$ , then any instruction of type  $T_i$  cannot have the same first i bits as an instruction of type  $T_j$ . This implies that the encodings made unavailable by any 2 such instructions are disjoint.

To give a concrete example, suppose we have n = 3,  $l_1 = 2$ ,  $l_2 = 4$ ,  $l_3 = 5$ .

Let (0,0) be an encoding allocated for instruction A of type  $T_1$ . Let (0,1,0,0) be an encoding allocated for instruction B of type  $T_2$ .

Then the encoding made unavailable by A is  $\{(0,0,0,0,0),\ldots,(0,0,1,1,1)\}$ . The encoding made unavailable by B is  $\{(0,1,0,0,0),(0,1,0,0,1)\}$ . Notice how these 2 sets are disjoint since no 2 entries across the 2 respective sets can share the first  $2 = l_1$  bits.

This idea of disjoint sets gives the intuition for why we can keep on subtracting  $2^{l_n-l_i}$ , overall subtracting away  $\sum_{1 \le i \le n-1} 2^{l_n-l_i}$ .

Note that the first (n-1) refers to  $\sum_{1 \le i < n} |S_i|$ , where  $\forall 1 \le i < n, |S_i| = 1$ . That is, we only allocate 1 encoding for each instruction of type  $T_1, \ldots, T_{n-1}$ .

# 5 Boolean Algebra

#### 5.1 Minterms and maxterms

On n variables  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ , define the minterms and maxterms as follows:

Consider m[x], where  $x \in \{0, ..., 2^n - 1\}$ ,  $x = (b_1 ... b_n)_2$ .

Then for each i in  $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ , we have the literal  $x_i$  if  $b_i = 1$ ,  $x'_i$  if  $b_i = 0$ .

Another way to remember this is that the product of literals forming m[x] equals 1 when each  $b_i$  is substituted into  $x_i/x_i'$ .

Consider M[x], where  $x \in \{0, ..., 2^n - 1\}$ ,  $x = (b_1 ... b_n)_2$ .

Then for each i in  $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ , we have the literal  $x_i$  if  $b_i = 0$ ,  $x'_i$  if  $b_i = 1$ .

Another way to remember this is that the sum of literals forming M[x] equals 0 when each  $b_i$  is substituted into  $x_i/x_i'$ .

In short, when it comes to minterms, negate the 0's, when it comes to maxterms, negate the 1's