## Binary Arithmetic Intro to Assembly Language

CS 64: Computer Organization and Design Logic
Lecture #3

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## Adding this Class

The class is full – I will not be adding more ppl



Even if others drop

#### Lecture Outline

- Addition and subtraction in binary
- Multiplication in binary

Introduction to MIPS Assembly Language

## **Any Questions From Last Lecture?**

## 5-Minute Pop Quiz!!!

#### YOU MUST SHOW YOUR WORK!!!

- 1. Calculate and give your answer in hexadecimal:
  - a) 0xA2 & 0xFE
  - b)  $\sim$ (0x3E | 0xFC)
- 2. Convert from binary to decimal AND to hexadecimal. Use any technique(s) you like:
  - a) 1001001
  - b) 10010010

#### Answers...

1. Calculate and give your answer in hexadecimal:

```
a) 0xA2 \& 0xFE = 0xA2
```

b) 
$$\sim (0x3E \mid 0xFC) = \sim (0xFE) = 0x01$$

2. Convert from binary to decimal AND hexadecimal. Use any technique you like:

a) 
$$1001001 = 0100 1001 = 0x49$$

$$= 1 + 8 + 64 = 73$$

b) 
$$10010010$$
 =  $10010010 = 0x92$  | I see that it's  $(1001001) \times 2 = 146$ 

## Twos Complement Method

Let's write out -6<sub>(10)</sub> in 2s-Complement binary in 4 bits:

First take the unsigned (abs) value (i.e. 6)

and convert to binary: 0110

Then negate it (i.e. do a "NOT" function on it): 1001

Now add 1: 1010

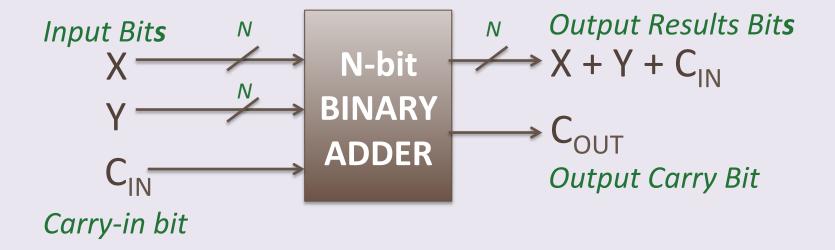
**So,** 
$$-6_{(10)} = 1010_{(2)}$$

#### **Exercises**

RECALL THESE EXERCISES: Implementing an 8-bit adder:

- What is (0x52) + (0x4B)?
  - Ans: 0x9D, output carry bit = 0
- What is (0xCA) + (0x67)?
  - Ans: 0x31, output carry bit = 1

## Black Box Perspective of ANY N-Bit Binary Adder



This is a useful perspective for either writing an N-bit adder function in code, or for designing the actual digital circuit that does this!

## Output Carry Bit Significance

- For unsigned (i.e. positive) numbers,
   C<sub>OUT</sub> indicates if the result did not fit all the way into the number of bits allotted
- Could be used as an error condition for software
  - For example, you've designed a 16-bit adder and during some calculation of positive numbers, your carry bit/flag goes to "1". Conclusion?
  - Your result is outside the maximum range allowed by 16 bits.

## Carry vs. Overflow

 The carry bit/flag works for – and is looked at – only for unsigned (positive) numbers

 A similar bit/flag works is looked at for if signed (two's complement) numbers are used in the addition: the overflow bit

## Overflow: for Negative Number Addition

- What about if I'm adding two negative numbers?
   Like: 1001 + 1011?
  - Then, I get: 0100 with the extra bit set at 1
  - Sanity Check:
     That's adding (-7) + (-5), so I expected -12, which is beyond the capability of 4 bits in 2's complement!
- The extra bit in this case is called overflow and it indicates that the addition of negative numbers has resulted in a number beyond the range of the given bits.

## How Do We Determine if Overflow Has Occurred?

• When adding 2 *signed* numbers: x + y = s

if 
$$x, y > 0$$
 AND  $s < 0$ 

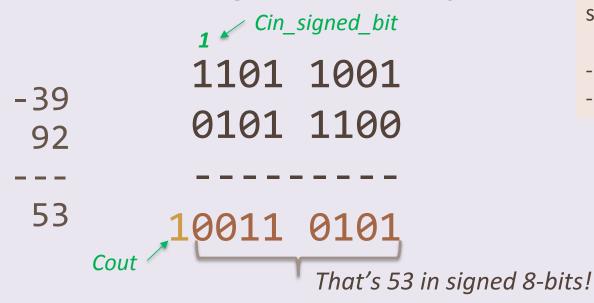
OR if x, y < 0 AND s > 0

\_\_\_\_\_

Then, overflow has occurred

## Example 1

#### Add: -39 and 92 in signed 8-bit binary



#### Side-note:

What is the range of signed numbers w/ 8 bits?

-2<sup>7</sup> to 2<sup>7</sup> - 1, or -128 to 127

There's a carry-out (we don't care)
But there is no overflow (V)
Note that V = 0, while Cout = 1 and Cin signed bit = 1

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### Example 2

V = Cout ⊕ Cin\_signed\_bit

#### Add: 104 and 45 in signed 8-bit binary

```
104 0110 1000
45 0010 1101
--- 149 Cout = 0 That's NOT 149 in signed 8-bits!
```

There's no carry-out (again, we don't care)

But there **is** overflow! Given that this binary result is not 149, but actually **-107**!

Note that V = 1, while Cout = 0 and Cin\_signed\_bit = 1

## Multiplication

- More complicated than addition...
  - Unless it's just "multiply by a power of 2"!!
- We'll only assume positive numbers
- Look at just one of many algorithms that can do this...

#### Central Idea

- Accumulate a partial product: the result of the multiplication as we go on
- Computed via a series of additions
- When we are finished, the partial product becomes the final product (the result)
- Build off of addition and multiplication of a single digit (much like with addition)

## Decimal Algorithm

- Let P be the partial product, M be the multiplicand, and N be the multiplier
  - − i.e. P eventually will be M \* N
- Initially, P is 0
- If N is 0, then P = the result
- If not, then P += (the rightmost digit of N) times M
- Shift N <u>right</u> once, and M <u>left</u> once
- Repeat

### **Example with Decimals**

803 \* 151 (which we expect to be 121,253)

P	M	N
0	803	151

1. N is not 0

- 2. P += (rightmost digit of N[1]) \* M[803]
  Shift N right once, M left once
  N is not 0
- 3. P += (rightmost digit of N<sub>[5]</sub>) \* M<sub>[8030]</sub>
  Shift N right once, M left once
  N is not 0
- 4. P += (rightmost digit of N[1]) \* M[80300] Shift N right once, M left once

N IS 0; END

### **Example with Decimals**

803 \* 151 (which we expect to be 121,253)

P	M	N
0	803	151
803	8030	15
40953	80300	1
121253	803000	0

1. N is not 0

- 2. P += (rightmost digit of N[1]) \* M[803]
  Shift N right once, M left once
  N is not 0
- 3. P += (rightmost digit of N[5]) \* M[8030] Shift N right once, M left once N is not 0
- 4. P += (rightmost digit of N[1]) \* M[80300] Shift N right once, M left once

N IS 0; END

## Simplified Binary Version of the Multiplication Algorithm

• In binary, it's easier to implement

- Initially, P is 0
- If N is 0, then P = the result
- If the rightmost digit if N is 1, then P += M
- Shift N <u>right</u> once, and M <u>left</u> once
- Repeat

### **ASSEMBLY**

## The Simple Language of a CPU

- We have: variables, integers, addition, and assignment
- Restrictions:
  - Can only assign integers directly to variables (not indep.)
  - Can only add variables, always two at a time

#### **EXAMPLE:**

z = 5 + 7; has to be simplified to:

$$z = x + y;$$
  $\leftarrow \leftarrow \leftarrow$ 

An adder: but how many bits?

## **Core Components**

#### What we need in a CPU is:

- Some place to hold the statements (instructions to the CPU)
  as we operate on them
- Some *place* to tell us *which statement* is next
- Some place to hold all the variables
- Some way to add (do arithmetic on) numbers

## That's ALL that Processors Do!!

Processors just read a series of statements (instructions) forever.

No magic!

### **Core Components**

#### What we need in a CPU is:

- Some place to hold the statements (instructions to the CPU)
  - as we operate on them -> MEMORY
- Some place to tell us which statement is next COUNTER (PC)
- Some place to hold all the variables → REGISTERS
- Some way to add (do arithmetic on) numbers  $\rightarrow$

ARITHMETIC LOGIC UNIT (ALU)

**PROGRAM** 

#### ...And one more thing:

Some place to tell us which statement is currently being executed → INSTRUCTION REGISTER (IR)

#### **Basic Interaction**

- Copy instruction from memory at wherever the program counter (PC) says into the instruction register (IR)
- Execute it, possibly involving registers and the arithmetic logic unit (ALU)
- Update the PC to point to the next instruction
- Repeat

```
initialize();
while (true) {
   instruction_register =
       memory[program_counter];
   execute(instruction_register);
   program_counter++;
}
```

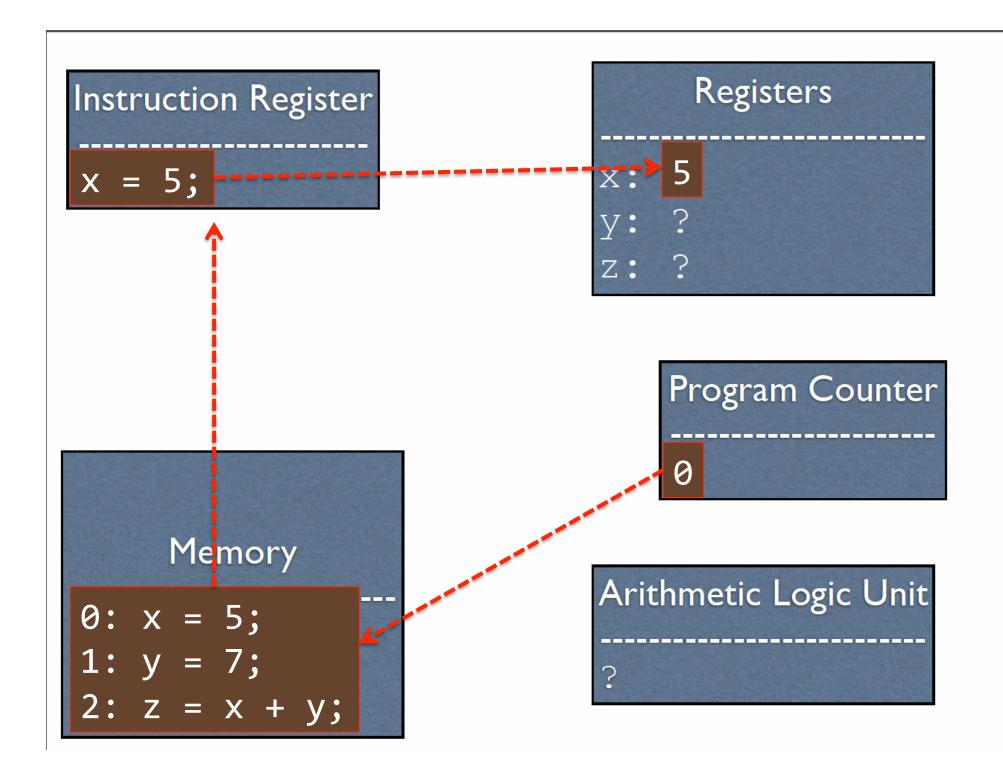
## Instruction Register -----?

# Memory ?

# Registers x: ? y: ? z: ?

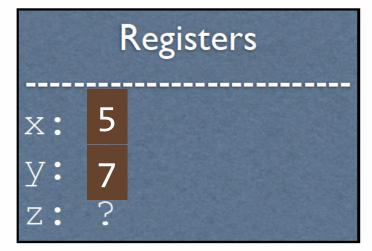


```
Arithmetic Logic Unit -----?
```



## Registers Instruction Register Program Counter Memory Arithmetic Logic Unit 0: x = 5;

## Instruction Register z = x + y;Memory 0: x = 5;



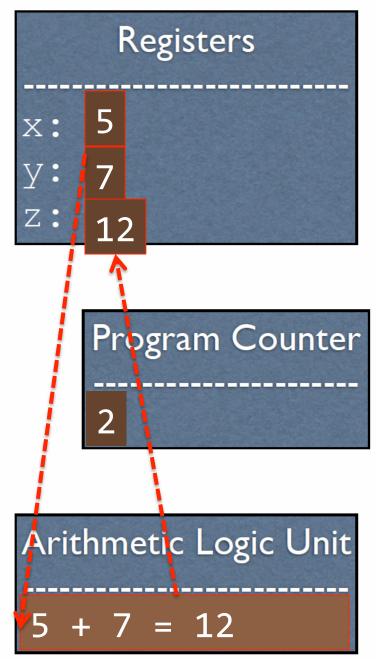
Program Counter
2

Arithmetic Logic Unit

1 + 1 = 2

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# Memory 0: x = 5; 1: y = 7; 2: z = x + y;



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## Why MIPS?

- MIPS:
  - a reduced instruction set computer (RISC) architecture developed by MIPS Technologies (1981)
- Relevant in the embedded systems domain
- All modern commercial processors share the same core concepts as MIPS, just with extra stuff
- ...but most importantly...

## It's Simpler...

- ... than other instruction sets for CPUs
  - So it's a good learning tool

- Dozens of instructions as opposed to hundreds
- Lack of redundant instructions or special cases
- 5 stage pipeline versus 24 stages

#### **Original**

```
x = 5;

y = 7;

z = x + y;
```

#### **MIPS**

```
li $t0, 5
li $t1, 7
add $t3, $t0, $t1
```

#### **Original**

$$x = 5;$$
  
 $y = 7;$   
 $z = x + y;$ 

#### **MIPS**

```
li $t0, 5
li $t1, 7
add $t3, $t0, $t1
```

<u>load immediate</u>: put the given value into a register

\$t0: temporary register 0

#### **Original**

$$x = 5;$$
  
 $y = 7;$   
 $z = x + y;$ 

#### **MIPS**

```
li $t0, 5
li $t1, 7
add $t3, $t0, $t1
```

<u>load immediate</u>: put the given value into a register

\$t1: temporary register 1

#### **Original**

$$x = 5;$$
  
 $y = 7;$   
 $z = x + y;$ 

#### **MIPS**

```
li $t0, 5
li $t1, 7
add $t3, $t0, $t1
```

<u>add</u>: add the rightmost registers, putting the result in the first register

\$t3: temporary register 3

## Available Registers

- 32 registers in all
  - Each one has 32 bits

- For the moment, we will only consider registers \$t0 \$t9
  - Your MIPS Reference Card shows you all of them

## Assembly

 The code that you see is MIPS assembly

```
li $t0, 5
li $t1, 7
add $t3, $t0, $t1
```

- Assembly is \*almost\* what the machine sees. For the most part, it is a direct translation to binary from here (known as machine code)
- An assembler takes assembly code and changes it into the actual 1's and 0's for machine code
  - Analogous to a compiler for HL code

## Machine Code/Language

- This is what the process actually executes and accepts as input
- Each instruction is represented with 32 bits
- Three different instruction formats; for the moment, we'll only look at the *R format*

### **YOUR TO-DOs**

- Assignment #1
  - Due Friday

