COMP1036 - Revision

General Information

- Exam 50% of the total mark
- 1 hour 2 questions
- 17:00 29th Dec 2023 (TB-118 & TB-226)

Part 1

Elementary Logic Gates

$$A = \overline{A}$$

$$A \text{ AND } B = A \cdot B$$

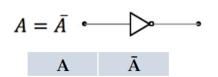
$$A \text{ OR } B = A + B$$

$$A \text{ XOR } B = A \oplus B$$

$$A \text{ NAND } B = \overline{A \cdot B}$$

 $A NOR B = \overline{A + B}$

Collection of Elementary Logic Gates



4 4 N D D 4 D	•
$A AND B = A \cdot B$	-

A	В	$A \bullet B$
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

$$A OR B = A + B$$

A	В	A + B
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

A XOR B	$=A \oplus B$	

A	В	$A \oplus B$
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

$$A \ NAND \ B = \overline{A \cdot B}$$

A	В	$\overline{A \bullet B}$
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

$$A NOR B = \overline{A + B}$$

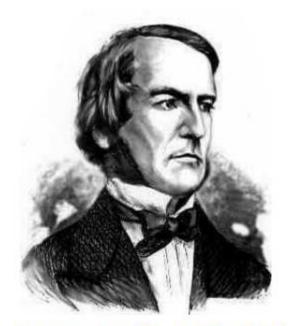
A	В	$\overline{A+B}$
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	0

Boolean Logic

All chips constructed from elementary logic gates

- Every chip can be built from a combination of:
 - AND
 - OR
 - NOT
 - No integration, division, differentiation...
 - "Canonical Representation"
- AND, OR and NOT can be built from NAND





George Boole, 1815-1864
("A Calculus of Logic")

Boolean Function

- A Boolean function is a function that operates on binary inputs and return binary outputs
- Truth table is every possible function evaluation of the input variables
- [note 0 and 1 used to define false and true]
- Everything can be defined by a truth table

Composite Gates

$$f(A,B,C) = (A+B) \cdot \overline{C}$$

(A OR B) AND NOT C

 $C \leftarrow C$
 $C \leftarrow C$

Α	В	C	f(A,B,C)
0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0
0	1	0	1
0	1	1	0
1	0	0	1
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	1
1	1	1	0

Precedence

Precedence

Parentheses evaluated first

Then **Not**

Then **And**

Then Or

Not X Or Y And Z = (Not X) Or (Y And Z)

Not X And Y Or Z = ((Not X) And Y) Or Z

Brackets over-rule everything...use when in doubt

((Not (X)) And (Y)) Or (Z)

Laws of Boolean Algebra

1. Law of Identity

$$A = A$$

2. Commutative Law

 $A \cdot B = B \cdot A$

3. Associative Law

 $(A \cdot B) \cdot C = A \cdot (B \cdot C)$

4. Idempotent Law

 $A \cdot A = A$

5. Double Negative Law

 $\overline{A} = A$

6. Complementary Law

 $A \cdot \overline{A} = 0$

7. Law of Intersection

 $A \cdot 1 = A$

8. Law of Union

 $A + 1 = 1$

7. Law of Union

 $A + 1 = 1$

9. Distributive Law

 $A \cdot (B + C) = (A \cdot B) + (A \cdot C)$
 $A \cdot (B + C) = (A + B) \cdot (A + C)$

10. Law of Absorption

 $A \cdot (A + B) = A$

A \cdot (A \cdot B) = A + B

11. Law of Common Identities

 $A \cdot (\overline{A} + B) = AB$

A \cdot B = $\overline{A} + \overline{B}$

12. De Morgan's Law

 $\overline{A + B} = \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}$

Simplify Boolean Expression

```
Not(Not(x) And Not(x Or y)) =
Not(Not(x) And (Not(x) And Not(y))) =
Not((Not(x) And Not(x)) And Not(y)) =
Not(Not(x) And Not(y)) =
Not(Not(x Or y)) =
                           double negation
x Or y
```

Boolean Arithmetic

Binary to Decimal

• Each binary digit corresponds to a power of 2:

Place	7 th	6 th	5 th	4 th	3^{rd}	2^{nd}	1 st	0 th
Weight	27	2^{6}	2 ⁵	24	2^3	2^2	2^1	20
	= 128	= 64	= 32	= 16	= 8	=4	= 2	= 1

- Where the digit is 1, we add the corresponding weight
- Example: convert 1100 1010₂ into decimal

$$1100\ 1010_2 = 1 \times 128 + 1 \times 64 + 0 \times 32 + 0 \times 16$$
$$+ 1 \times 8 + 0 \times 4 + 1 \times 2 + 0 \times 1$$
$$= 128 + 64 + 8 + 2 = 202_{10}$$

Decimal to Binary

- Repeatedly divide by 2, until we reach 0
- The right/left-most binary digit is the first/last remainder
- E.g. $101_{10} = 1100101_2$

101	Remainder
50	1
25	0
12	1
6	0
3	0
1	1
0	1

- Example: convert 163₁₀ into binary
- 10100011₂

Decimal to Binary (look-up table)

- $87 = 64 (64 = 2^6)$, the biggest 2ⁿ that 87 is divisible by) + 23 (reminder)
- 87 = 64 + 16 ($16 = 2^4$, the biggest 2^n that 23 is divisible by) + 7 (reminder)
- $87 = 64 + 16 + 4 (4 = 2^2)$, the biggest 2^n that 7 is divisible by 10^n (reminder)
- 87 = 64 + 16 + 4 + 2 ($2 = 2^{1}$, the biggest 2^{n} that 3 is divisible by) + 1 (reminder)
- $87 = 64 + 16 + 4 + 2 + 1(1 = 2^{0})$, the biggest 2^{n} that 1 is divisible by) + 0 (reminder)
- Stop when reminder = 0

Representing Negative Numbers

- So far, unsigned numbers
 - How are negative numbers represented on a computer?
- What we use in decimal notation
 - +/- and 0, 1, 2, · · ·
- Such a representation is called sign and magnitude
- For binary numbers define leftmost bit to be the sign
 - $0 \Rightarrow +, 1 \Rightarrow -$
 - Rest of bits can be numerical value of number
 - Hence, only seven bits are left in a byte (apart from the sign bit), the magnitude can range from 0000000 (0) to 1111111 (127)
- Problems?

One's Complement

- Alternatively, a system known as one's complement can be used to represent negative numbers
- A negative binary number is the bitwise NOT applied to it the "complement" of its positive counterpart
- E.g. the ones' complement form of 00101011 (43_{10}) becomes 11010100 (-43_{10})
- Still has two representations of 0: 00000000 (+0) and 11111111 (-0)
- The range of signed numbers using one's complement is represented by $-(2^{N-1}-1)$ to $(2^{N-1}-1)$ and ± 0
 - A conventional eight-bit byte is -127_{10} to $+127_{10}$ with zero being either 00000000 (+0) or 11111111 (-0)

Excess-n

- Excess-n, also called offset binary or biased representation, uses a prespecified number n as a biasing value
- A value is represented by the unsigned number which is n greater than the intended value
- Therefore 0 is represented by n, and -n is represented by the all-zeros bit pattern
- E.g. Excess-3
 - 0 is represented by 0011 (3)
 - +1 is represented by 0100 (4), +2 is represented by 0101(5)...
 - -1 is represented by 0010 (2), -2 is represented by 0001 (1)
 - -3 is represented by 0000 (0)

Two's Complement

- The two's complement of an N-bit binary number is defined as the complement with respect to 2^N
 - It is the result of subtracting the number from 2^N
 - -x is represented as 2^{N} -x
- There's a quicker way to calculate 2^N -x:
 - $x + (1's complement of x) = 2^N-1 (all 1 bits)$
 - $2^N-x = (1's complement of x) +1$
 - Take the bitwise inverse (NOT) of x, then add 1 to result
- An N-bit two's-complement numeral system can represent every integer in the range $-(2^{N-1})$ to $+(2^{N-1}-1)$
 - One's complement: $-(2^{N-1}-1)$ to $(2^{N-1}-1)$
- The sum of a number and its two's complement will always equal 0 (the last digit is ignored)
 - The sum of a number and its one's complement will always equal -0 (all 1 bits)

Example of 4-Bit Signed Encodings

Sign and	Mag.
1111	-7
1110	-6
1101	-5
1100	_4
1011	-3
1010	-2
1001	-1
1000	-0
0000	+0
0001	+1
0010	+2
0011	+3
0100	+4
0101	+5
0110	+6
0111	+7

Ones' Co	mp.
1000	-7
1001	-6
1010	-5
1011	-4
1100	-3
1101	-2
1110	-1
1111	-0
0000	+0
0001	+1
0010	+2
0011	+3
0100	+4
0101	+5
0110	+6
0111	+7

Excess-3	
0000	-3
0001	-2
0010	-1
0011	0
0100	+1
0101	+2
0110	+3
0111	+4
1000	+5
1001	+6
1010	+7
1011	+8
1100	+9
1101	+10
1110	+11
1111	+12

Two's Co	omp.
1000	-8
1001	-7
1010	-6
1011	-5
1100	-4
1101	-3
1110	-2
1111	-1
0000	0
0001	+1
0010	+2
0011	+3
0100	+4
0101	+5
0110	+6
0111	+7

Adder

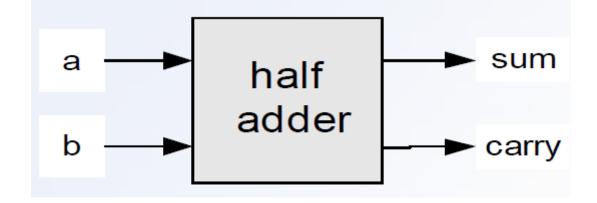
- Build an Adder:
 - Half adder: adds two bits
 - Full adder: adds three bits
 - Adder: adds two integers

Half Adder

Add two single binary digits and provide the output plus a carry value

• It has two inputs, called A(a) and B(b), and two outputs S (sum) and C

(carry)



Half Adder

- Least significant bit in the addition is called sum (a+b)
- Most significant bit is called carry (carry of a+b)

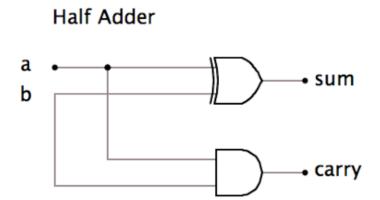
a	b	Carry	Sum
0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1
1	0	0	1
1	1	1	0

Never has a situation when sum and carry are both 1

Half Adder

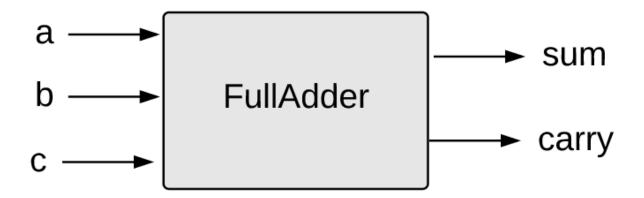
a	b	Carry	Sum
0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1
1	0	0	1
1	1	1	0

• The common representation uses a XOR and a AND gate



Full Adder

- Add three single binary digits and provide the output plus a carry value
- It has three inputs, called A, B and Carry(in), and two outputs S (sum) and Carry(out)



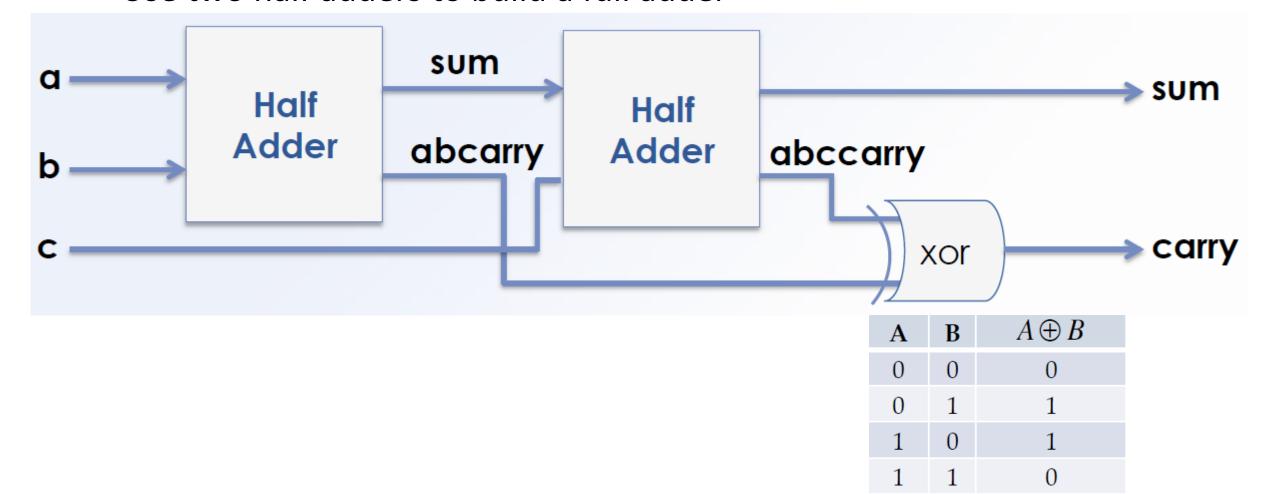
Full Adder

- Least significant bit in the addition is called sum (a+b+c_in)
- Most significant bit is called carry(out) (carry of a+b+c_in)

a	b	Carry(in)	Carry(out)	Sum
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	1
0	1	0	0	1
0	1	1	1	0
1	0	0	0	1
1	0	1	1	0
1	1	0	1	0
1	1	1	1	1

Full Adder: Implementation

• Use two half adders to build a full adder



Sequential Logic and ALU

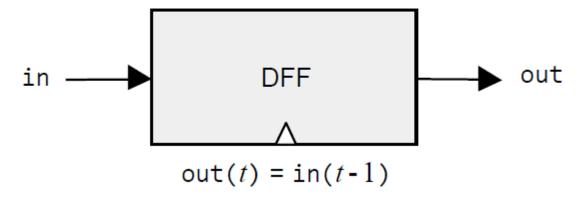
Sequential Logic Circuits

 Combinational chips compute functions that depend solely on combinations of their input values

- Sequential Logic Circuits
 - Output depends not only on the present value of its input signals but on the sequence of past inputs, the input history as well

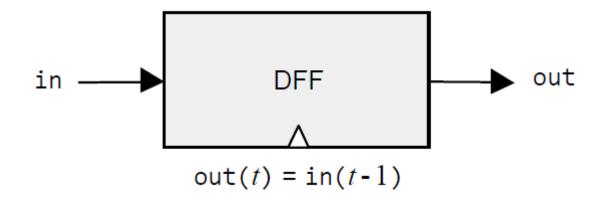
Flip Flops

- The flip flop is the most elementary sequential element in the computer
- Data Flip Flop (DFF): the simplest state keeping gate (built-in)



Contains a single bit input and a single bit output

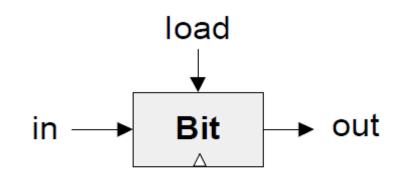
Flip Flops



- The gate outputs its previous input: out(t)= in(t-1)
- Implementation: a gate that can flip between two stable states:
 - Remembering 0/Remembering 1
 - Also can be made from looping NAND gates

Register

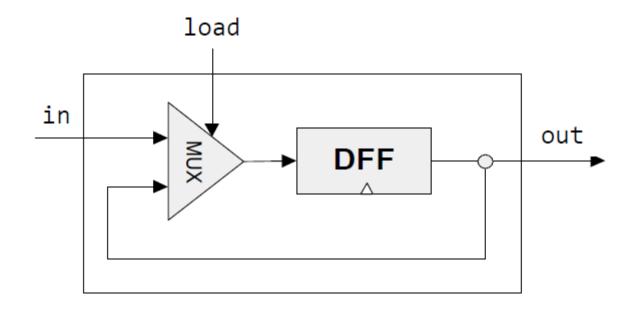
- A register is a storage device that can "store" or "remember" a value over time
- Typically is composed of flip flops
- 1-bit register:
 - Store (maintain) a bit
 - Until it is instructed to load(store) another bit



if
$$load(t)$$
 then $out(t+1) = in(t)$
else $out(t+1) = out(t)$

1-bit Register: Implementation

• The select bit of the Mux can become the load bit!



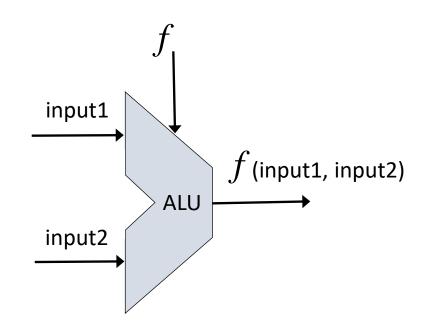
Arithmetic Logical Unit

- A combinational circuit that performs arithmetic and bitwise operations on integers represented as binary numbers.
- Input the data and some code for the operation
- Output will be some data and any additional information
- ALUs perform simple functions, because of this they can be executed at high speeds (i.e., very short propagation delays)

The Arithmetic Logical Unit

The ALU computes a function on the two inputs, and outputs the result

f: one out of a family of pre-defined arithmetic and logical functions

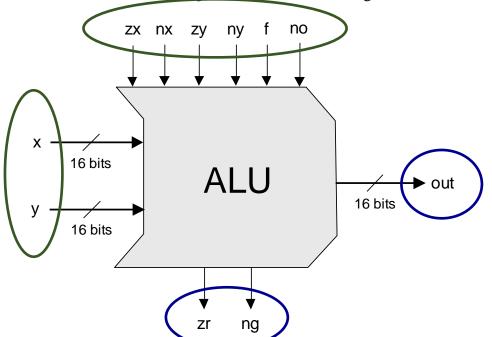


- □ Arithmetic functions: integer addition, multiplication, division, ...
- □ logical functions: And, Or, Xor, ...

Which functions should the ALU perform? A hardware / software tradeoff.

The Hack ALU

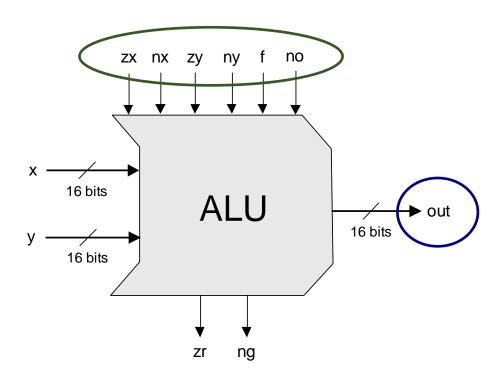
- Operates on two 16-bit, two's complement values
- Outputs a 16-bit, two's complement value
- Which function to compute is set by six 1-bit inputs
- Computes one out of a family of 18 functions
- Also outputs two 1-bit values
 - if the ALU output is 0, zr is set to 1; otherwise zr is set to 0
 - If out<0, ng is set to 1; otherwise ng is set to 0



out
0
0 1
-1
X
у
!x
x y !x !y -x
- X
-y x+1
x+1
y+1
x-1
y+1 x-1 y-1 x+y x-y y-x x&y x y
х+у
х-у
y-x
x&y
x y

The Hack ALU

To cause the ALU to compute a function, set the control bits to one of the binary combinations listed in the table.



control bits

zx	nx	zy	ny	f	no	out
1	0	1	0	1	0	0
1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	0	1	0	-1
0	0	1	1	0	0	Х
1	1	0	0	0	0	у
0	0	1	1	0	1	!x
1	1	0	0	0	1	!y
0	0	1	1	1	1	-X
1	1	0	0	1	1	-y
0	1	1	1	1	1	x+1
1	1	0	1	1	1	y+1
0	0	1	1	1	0	x-1
1	1	0	0	1	0	y-1
0	0	0	0	1	0	x+y
0	1	0	0	1	1	x-y
0	0	0	1	1	1	y-x x&y
0	0	0	0	0	0	x&y
0	1	0	1	0	1	x y

Memory

Fetch-Decode-Execute Cycle

- At some level, every programmable processor implements a fetch-execute cycle
- Automatically implemented by processor hardware, allows processor to move through program steps
- Fetch The opcode for the instruction is fetched from memory
- Decode Opcode decoded to work what parts of the CPU are needed
- Execute CPU processes the instruction
- And repeat for the next instruction

Fetch-Execute Algorithm

```
Repeat {
  Fetch (PC):
     • Fetch the instruction word (at PC)

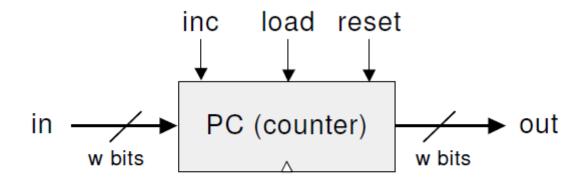
    Instruction decoded

    Calculate next instruction address

  Execute (ALU, Registers and Control):
     • Read operands
     • Executes the operations
     • Write/store results
```

Program Counter

- Program counter emits the address of the next instruction.
 - To start/restart the program execution: PC=0
 - No jump: PC++
 - Unconditional jump: PC=A
 - Conditional jump: if (cond.) PC=A else PC++
- Implementation requirements:
 - Counting
 - Put counter in correct working mode based on the 3 different control bits



```
If reset(t-1) then out(t)=0
  else if load(t-1) then out(t)=in(t-1)
      else if inc(t-1) then out(t)=out(t-1)+1
      else out(t)=out(t-1)
```

Memory Hierarchy

• As it goes further, capacity and latency increase

Registers 1KB 1 cycle

L1 data or instruction
Cache
32KB
2 cycles

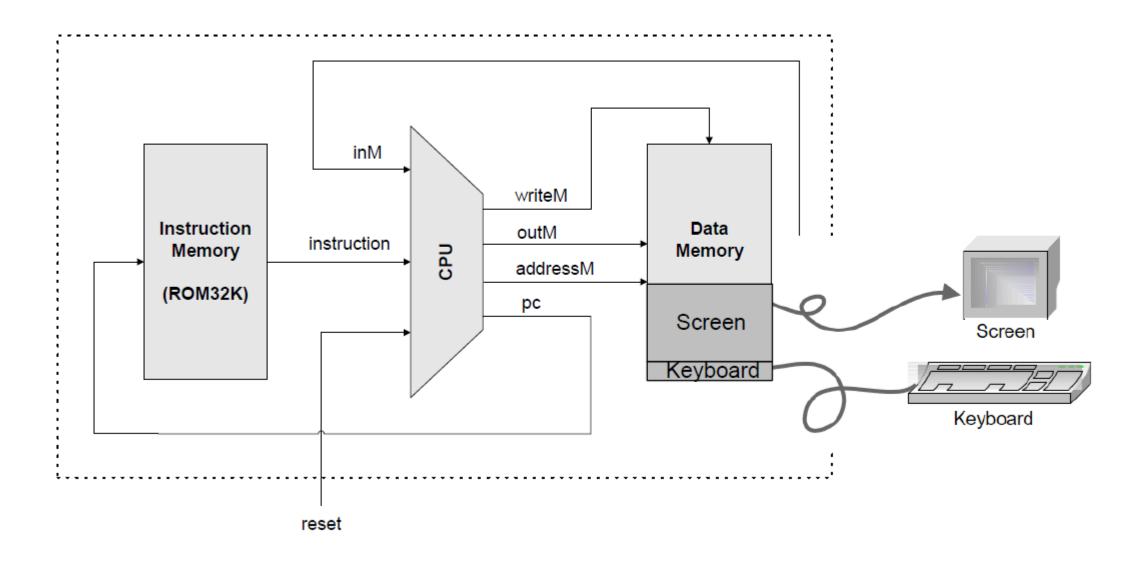
L2 cache 2MB 15 cycles Memory 2GB 300 cycles

Disk
Magnetic Disk
1 TB
10M cycles

The Hack Computer: Main Parts

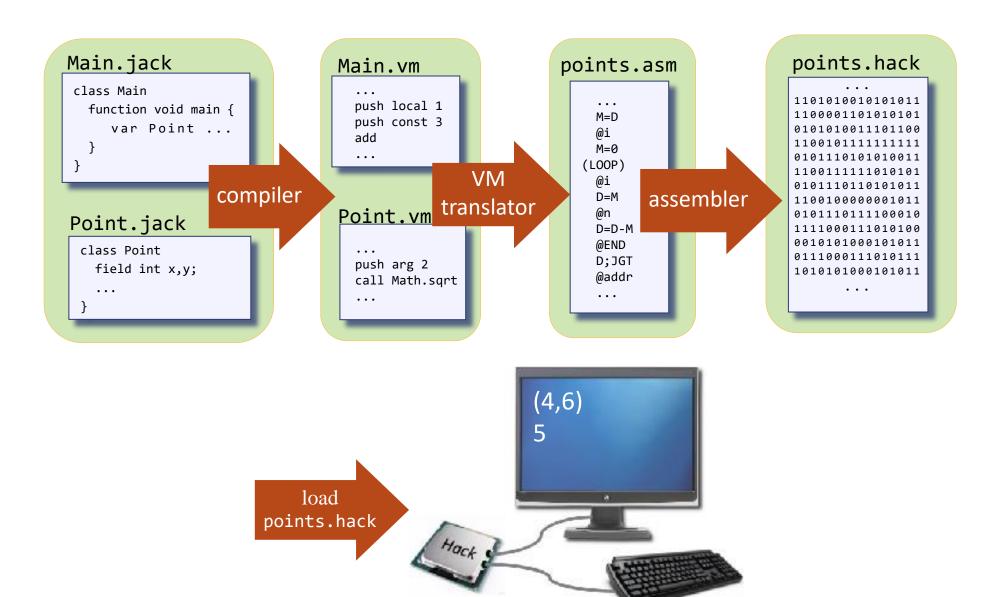
- Instruction memory (ROM)
- Memory (RAM)
 - Data memory
 - Screen (memory map)
 - Keyboard (memory map)
- CPU
- Computer (the logic that holds everything together)

The Hack Computer (Put Together)



Part 2

Big picture

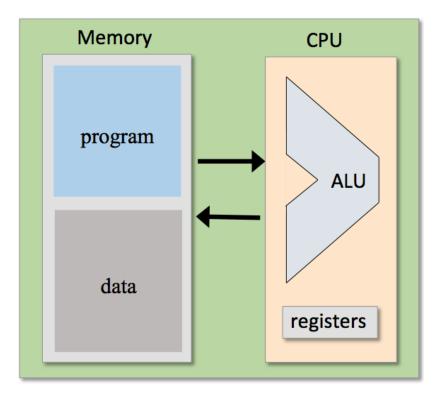


Outlines

- Hack assembly programming
- Assembler
- Virtual machine

An informal definition

• A *machine language* can be viewed as an agreedupon formalism, designed to manipulate a *memory* using a *processor* and a set of *registers*. (Nisan & Schocken)



Addressing modes

Register

```
    ➤ ADD R1, R2  // R2 ← R2 + R1
    ➤ Access data from a register R2.
```

Direct

```
    ➤ ADD R1, M[67] // Mem[67] ← Mem[67] + R1
    ➤ LOAD R1, 67 // R1 ← Mem[67]
    ➤ Access data from fixed memory address 67.
```

Indirect

```
\trianglerightADD R1, @A // Mem[A] \leftarrow Mem[A] + R1
```

Access data from memory address specified by variable A.

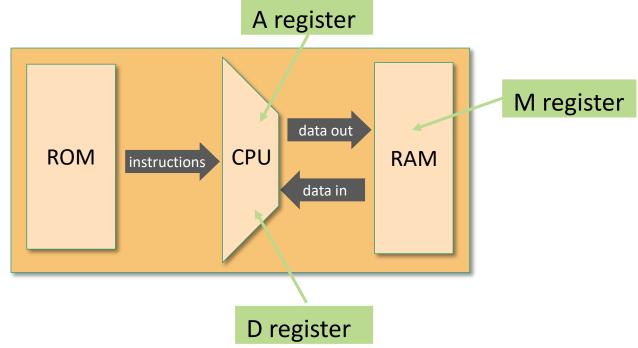
Immediate

```
➤ ADD 67, R1 // R1 \leftarrow R1 + 67

➤ LOADI R1, 67 // R1 \leftarrow 67
```

>Access the data of value 67 immediately.

Hack computer: registers



- Three 16-bit registers:
 - > D: Store data
 - > A: Store data / address the memory
 - M: Represent currently addressed memory register: M = RAM[A]

A-instruction specification

<u>Semantics:</u> Set the A register to *value*

Symbolic syntax:

@ value

Where *value* is either:

Example:

@21

set A to 21

- \rightarrow a non-negative decimal constant ≤ 65535 (=2¹⁵-1) or
- > a symbol referring to a constant (come back to this later)

Binary syntax:

0 value

Where *value* is a 15-bit binary constant

Example:

000000000010101

set A to 21

opcode signifying an A-instruction

C-instruction

```
      Syntax:
      dest = comp; jump
      (both dest and jump are optional)

      where:
      0, 1, -1, D, A, !D, !A, -D, -A, D+1, A+1, D-1, A-1, D+A, D-A, A-D, D&A, D|A

      comp =
      M, !M, -M, M+1, M-1, D+M, D-M, M-D, D&M, D|M

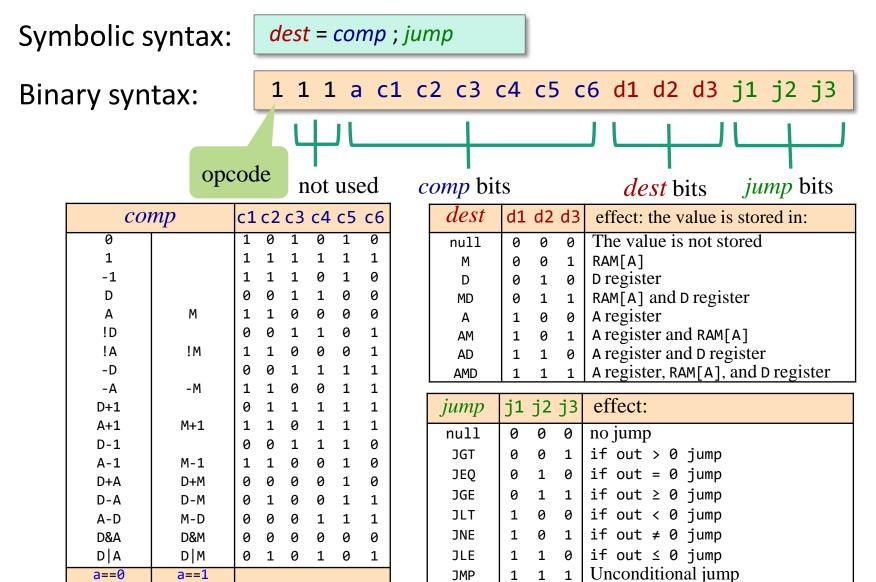
      dest =
      null, M, D, MD, A, AM, AD, AMD
      (M refer to RAM[A])

      jump =
      null, JGT, JEQ, JGE, JLT, JNE, JLE, JMP
```

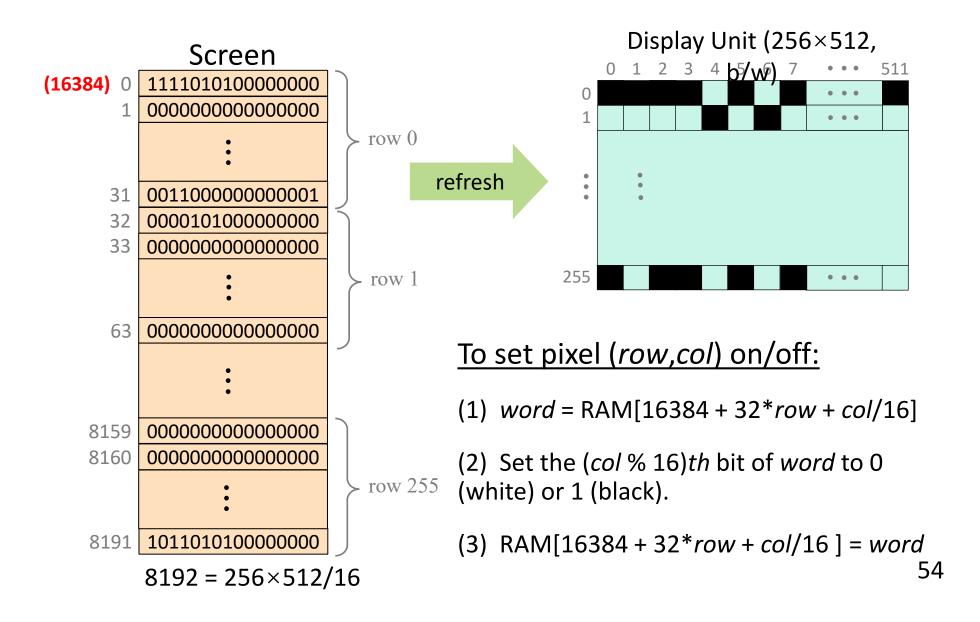
Semantics:

- Computes the value of *comp*
- Stores the result in *dest*
- If the Boolean expression (*comp jump* 0) is true, jumps to execute the instruction at ROM[A]

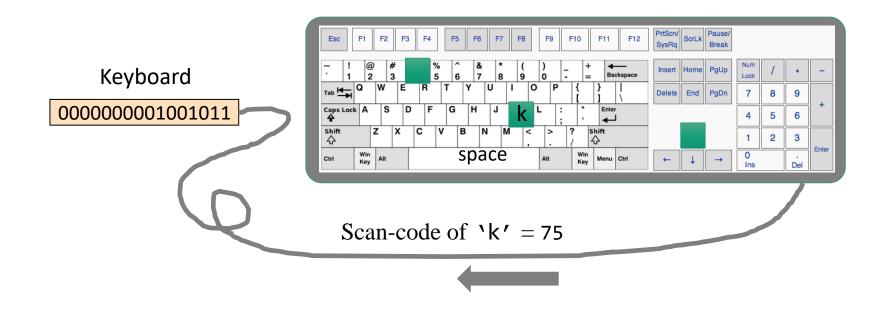
C-instruction specification



Memory mapped output



Handle the keyboard



- To check which key is currently pressed:
 - Probe the contents of the Keyboard chip
 - > In the Hack computer: probe the contents of RAM[24576].

Terminate a program

Hack assembly code

```
// Program: Add2.asm
    // Computes: RAM[2] = RAM[0] + RAM[1]
    // Usage: put values in RAM[0], RAM[1]
                                                translat
    @0
0
                                                e and
    D=M // D = RAM[0]
                                                load
    @1
    D=D+M // D = D + RAM[1]
    @2
    M=D // RAM[2] = D
                    • Jump to instruction number A
6
    @6
                     (which happens to be 6)
    0;JMP
                    • 0: syntax convention for jmp
                     instructions
```

Best practice:

To terminate a program safely, end it with an infinite loop.

Memory (ROM)



Built-in symbols

The Hack assembly language features built-in symbols:

<u>symbol</u>	<u>value</u>	<u>symbol</u>	<u>value</u>
RO	0	SP	0
	1	LCL	1
R1		ARG	2
 R15	 15	THIS	3
SCREEN	16384	THAT	4
KBD	24576		

- RO, R1,..., R15: "virtual registers", can be used as variables
- SCREEN and KBD: base addresses of I/O memory maps
- Remaining symbols: used in the implementation of the Hack virtual machine, discussed in chapters 7-8.

Labels

```
// Program: Signum.asm
// Computes: if R0>0
        R1=1
      else
        R1=0
// Usage: put a value in RAM[0],
     run and inspect RAM[1].
 @R0
 D=M // D = RAM[0]
                     referring
                     to a label
 @POSITIVE -
 D;JGT // If R0>0 goto 8
 @R1
 M=0 // RAM[1]=0
 @END
 0;JMP // goto end
                    declaring
                    a label
(POSITIVE)
 @R1
 M=1 // R1=1
(END)
 @END // end
 0;JMP
```

resolving labels

Implications:

- Instruction numbers no longer needed in symbolic programming
- The symbolic code becomes *relocatable*.

Memory

```
@0
       D=M
       @8
              // @POSITIVE
       D; JGT
       @1
       M=0
       @10
              // @END
       0;JMP
       @1
       M=1
       @10
   10
              // @END
   11
       0;JMP
   12
   13
   14
   15
32767
```

Variables

```
// Program: Flip.asm
// flips the values of
// RAM[0] and RAM[1]
// temp = R1
// R1 = R0
// R0 = temp
            symbol used for
  @R1
            the first time
  D=M
  @temp
          // temp = R1
   M=D
  @R0
   D=M
  @R1
   M=D
          // R1 = R0
            symbol used
   @temp
            again
   D=M
   @R0
          // R0 = temp
  M=D
(END)
  @END
   0;JMP
```

resolving symbols

Symbol resolution rules:

- A reference to a symbol without label declaration is treated as a reference to a variable.
- If the reference @ symbol occurs in the program for first time, symbol is allocated to address 16 onward (say n), and the generated code is @ n.
- All subsequencet
 @ symbol commands are translated into @ n.

```
Memory
      @1
       D=M
           // @temp
       @16
       M=D
      @0
      D=M
      @1
      M=D
           // @temp
      @16
      D=M
   10
      @0
      M=D
   12
      @12
   13
      0;JMP
   14
   15
32767
```

Note: variables are allocated to **RAM[16]** onward.

Iterative processing

pseudo code

```
// Compute RAM[1] =
    1+2+ ... +RAM[0]
    n = R0
    i = 1
    sum = 0

LOOP:
    if i > n goto STOP
    sum = sum + i
    i = i + 1
    goto LOOP

STOP:
    R1 = sum
```

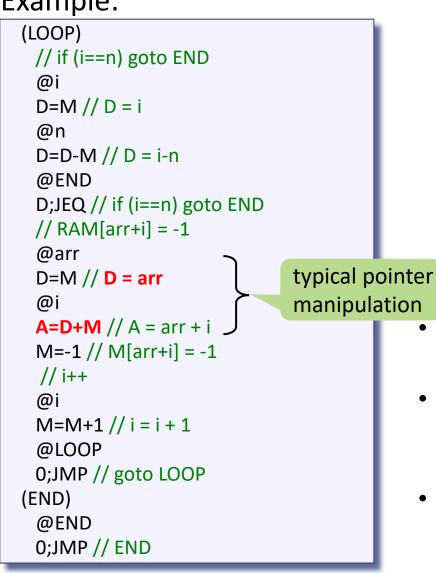
assembly code

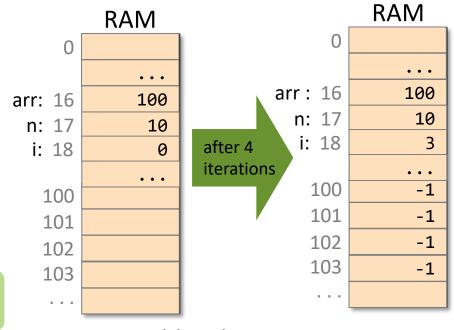
```
// Compute RAM[1] = 1+2+ ... +n
// Usage: put a number (n) in
   RAM[0]
 @R0
 D=M
 @n
 M=D // n = R0
 @i
 M=1 // i = 1
 @sum
 M=0 // sum = 0
(LOOP)
 @i
 D=M // D = i
 @n
 D=D-M // D = i - n
 @STOP
 D;JGT // if i > n goto STOP
```

```
@sum
 D=M // D = sum
 @i
 D=D+M // D = sum + i
 @sum
 M=D // sum = sum + i
 @i
 M=M+1 // i = i + 1
 @LOOP
 0;JMP // goto LOOP
(STOP)
 @sum
 D=M // D = sum
 @R1
 M=D // RAM[1] = sum
(END)
 @END
 0;JMP // end
```

Pointers

Example:





- Pointers: Variables that store memory addresses (like arr).
- Pointers in Hack: Whenever we have to access memory using a pointer, we need an instruction like A = expression.
- Semantics: "set the address register to some value". 61

Outlines

- Hack assembly programming
- Assembler
- Virtual machine

Translating A-instructions

Symbolic syntax:

@ value

Examples:

@21

@foo

Where *value* is either

- a non-negative decimal constant or
- a symbol referring to such a constant

Binary syntax:

0 valueInBinary

Example:

000000000010101

Translation to binary:

- If *value* is a decimal constant, generate the equivalent binary constant
- If *value* is a symbol, later.

Translating C-instructions

Symbolic syntax:

dest = comp ; jump

Binary syntax:

1 1 1 a c1 c2 c3 c4 c5 c6 d1 d2 d3 j1 j2 j3

COI	c1	c2	с3	с4	c5	с6	
0		1	0	1	0	1	0
1		1	1	1	1	1	1
-1		1	1	1	0	1	0
D		0	0	1	1	0	0
Α	М	1	1	0	0	0	0
!D		0	0	1	1	0	1
!A	! M	1	1	0	0	0	1
-D		0	0	1	1	1	1
-A	-M	1	1	0	0	1	1
D+1		0	1	1	1	1	1
A+1	M+1	1	1	0	1	1	1
D-1		0	0	1	1	1	0
A-1	M-1	1	1	0	0	1	0
D+A	D+M	0	0	0	0	1	0
D-A	D-M	0	1	0	0	1	1
A-D	M-D	0	0	0	1	1	1
D&A	D&M	0	0	0	0	0	0
DA	D M	0	1	0	1	0	1
a=0	a=1						

dest	d1	d2	d3	effect: the value is stored in:
null	0	0	0	The value is not stored
М	0	0	1	RAM[A]
D	0	1	0	D register
MD	0	1	1	RAM[A] and D register
Α	1	0	0	A register
AM	1	0	1	A register and RAM[A]
AD	1	1	0	A register and D register
AMD	1	1	1	A register, RAM[A], and D register

jump	j1	j2	j3	effect:
null	0	0	0	no jump
JGT	0	0	1	if out > 0 jump
JEQ	0	1	0	if out = 0 jump
JGE	0	1	1	if out ≥ 0 jump
JLT	1	0	0	if out < 0 jump
JNE	1	0	1	if out ≠ 0 jump
JLE	1	1	0	if out ≤ 0 jump
JMP	1	1	1	Unconditional jump

Symbolic:

Binary:

Example:

MD=D+1

1110011111000

Hack language specification: symbols

Pre-defined symbols:

<u>symbol</u>	<u>value</u>	<u>symbol</u>	<u>value</u>
RO	0	SP	0
R1	1	LCL	1
R2	2	ARG	2
•••	•••	THIS	3
R15	15	THAT	4
SCREEN	16384		
KBD	24576		

<u>Label declaration:</u> (label)

Variable declaration: @variableName

```
// Computes RAM[1]=1+...+RAM[0]
 M=1 // i = 1
 @sum
 M=0 // sum = 0
(LOOP)
 @i // if i>RAM[0] goto STOP
 D=M
 @R0
 D=D-M
 @STOP
 D;JGT
 @i // sum += i
 D=M
 @sum
 M=D+M
 @i //i++
 M=M+1
 @LOOP // goto LOOP
 0;JMP
```

Outlines

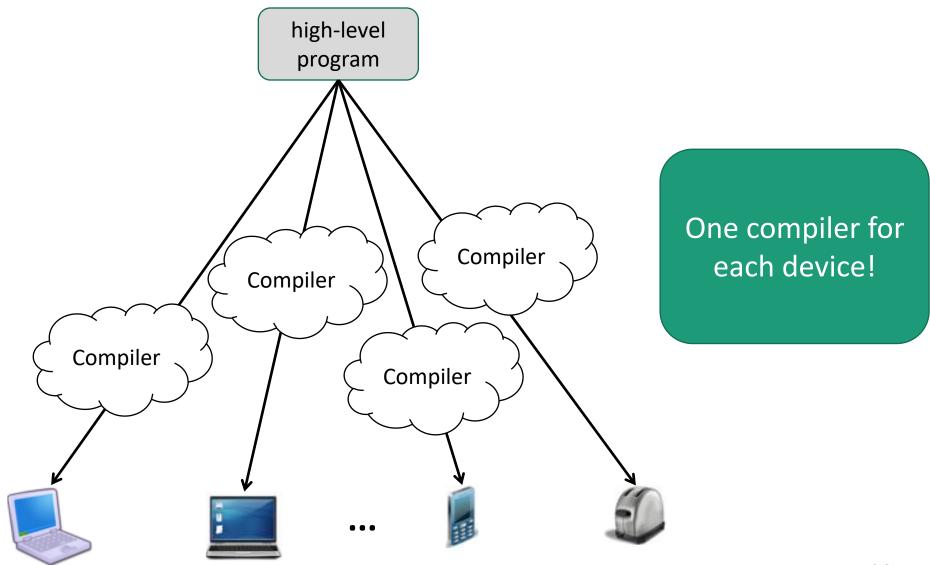
- Hack assembly programming
- Assembler
- Virtual machine

Why we need virtual machine?

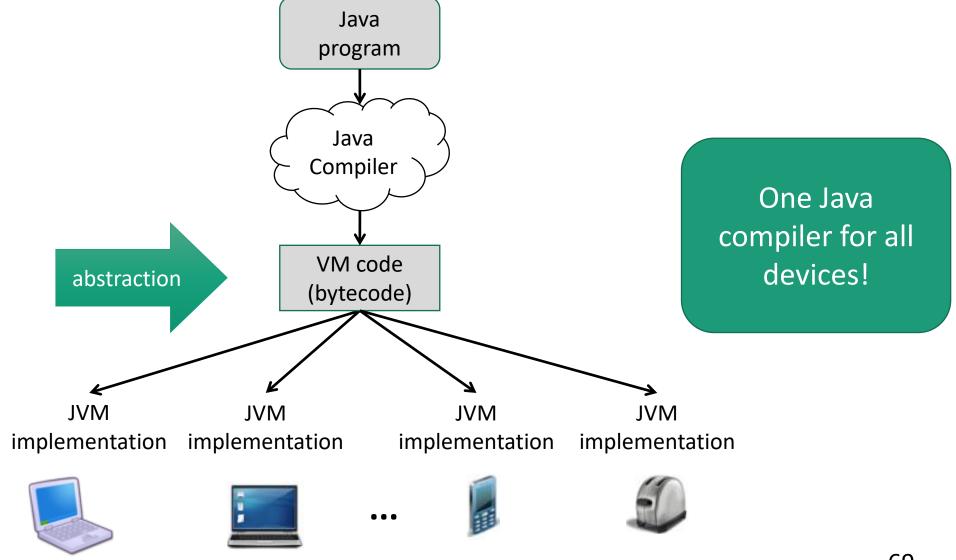
Code transportability

- ➤ Many high-level languages can work on the same platform: virtual machine.
- >VM may be implemented with relative ease on multiple target platforms.
- As a result, VM-based software can run on **many** processors and operating systems without modifying source code.

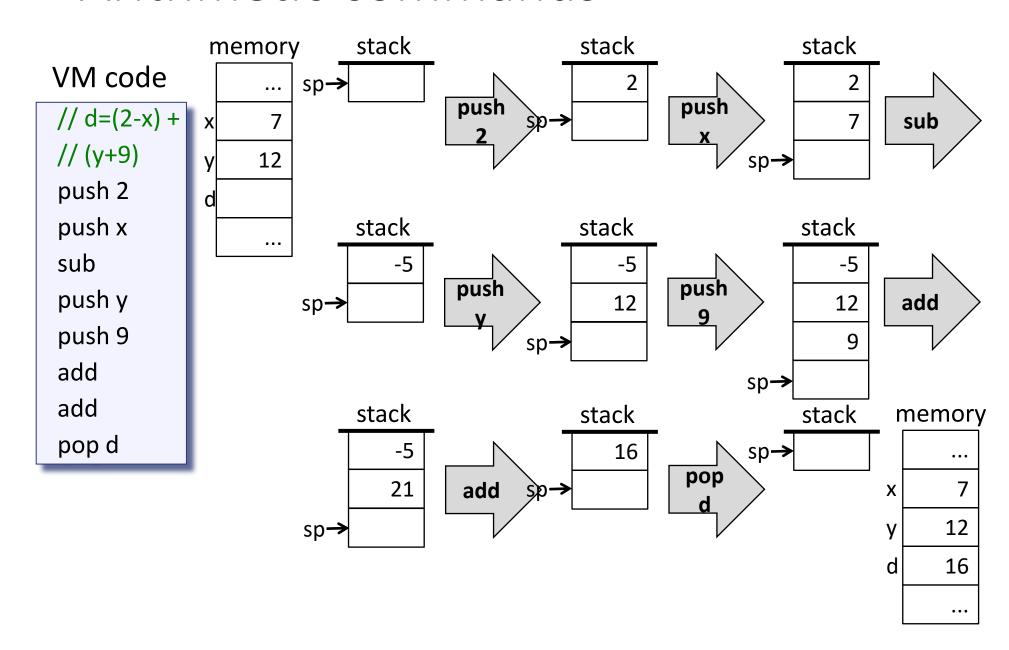
Program compilation: 1-tier



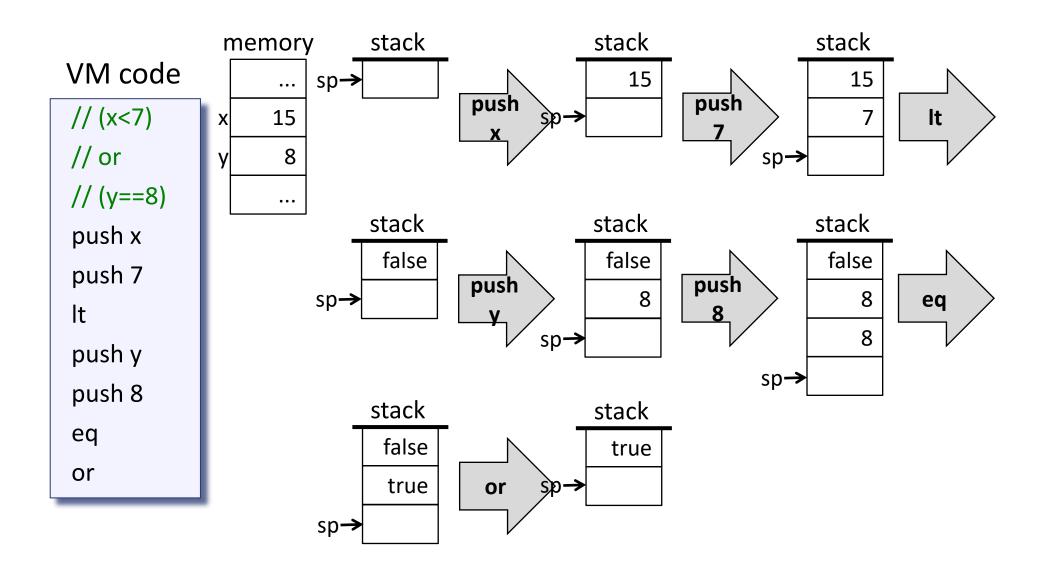
Program compilation: 2-tier



Arithmetic commands



Logical commands



Arithmetic / Logical commands

Command	Return value	Return value
add	x + y	integer
sub	x - y	integer
neg	-y	integer
eq	x = y	boolean
gt	x > y	boolean
lt	x < y	boolean
and	x and y	boolean
or	x or y	boolean
not	not x	boolean

<u>Observation:</u> Any arithmetic or logical expression can be expressed and evaluated by applying some sequence of the above operations on a stack.

Pointer manipulation

Pseudo assembly code

In Hack:

A=M

D=M

0	257
1	1024
2	1765

RAM

257 23

19

256

258 903

.. | ..

1024 5

1025 12

1026

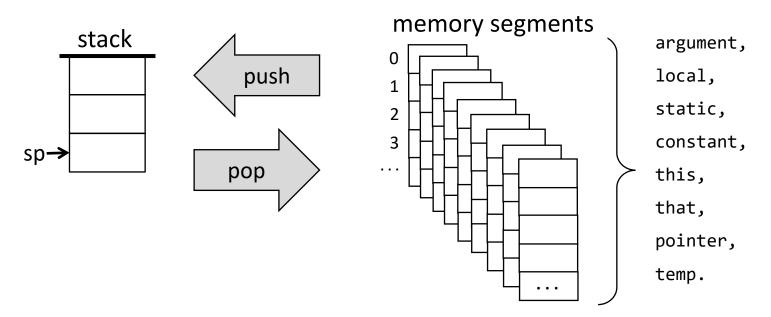
Notation:

*p // the memory location that p points at

x-- // decrement: x = x - 1

x++ // increment: x = x + 1

Memory segments



Syntax: push segment i where segment is: argument, local, static, constant, this, that, pointer, or temp and i is a non-negative integer.

Syntax: pop segment i

Where segment is: argument, local, static,
this, that, pointer, or temp
and i is a non-negative integer.

Implement **push** constant *i*

VM code:

push constant i

VM Translator

(no pop constant operation)

<u>Implementation:</u>

Supplies the specified constant.

Assembly psuedo code:

```
*SP = i, SP++
```

Hack assembly:

```
// D = i
@i
D=A
// *SP=D
@SP
A=M
M=D
// SP++
@SP
M=M+1
```

Implement pop local i

Abstraction

pop local i

Implementation:

addr=LCL+ *i*, SP--, *addr=*SP

i is a constant here!!! but LCL is a variable.

Hack assembly:

```
// addr=LCL+i
@i
D=A
@LCL
D=D+M
@addr
M=D
     // SP--
@SP
M=M-1
@SP
     // D=*SP
A=M
D=M
@addr // *addr=D
A=M
M=D
```

Implement push/pop local i



pop local i

push local i

VM Translator

Assembly pseudo code:

$$addr = LCL + i, SP--, *addr = *SP$$

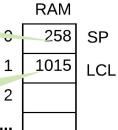
$$addr = LCL + i$$
, *SP = *addr, SP++

Stack pointer

Base address of the local segment

<u>Implementation:</u>

The local segment is stored somewhere in the RAM



12

1015 ... 1016 ... 1017 ...

•••

256

257

258

Hack assembly:

```
// implement
// push local i
// addr=LCL+i
@i
D=A
@LCL
D=D+M
@addr
M=D
```

// *SP = *addr@addr// D=*addr A=MD=M@SP // *SP=D A=MM=D// SP++ @SP M=M+1

Implement push / pop local / argument / this / that i

VM code:

push segment i

pop segment i

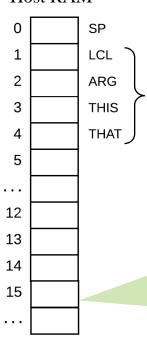
Assembly pseudo code:

addr = segmentPointer + i, *SP = *addr, SP++

addr = segmentPointer + i, SP--, *addr = *SP

 $segment = \{local, argument, this, that\}$

Host RAM



base addresses of the four segments are stored in these pointers

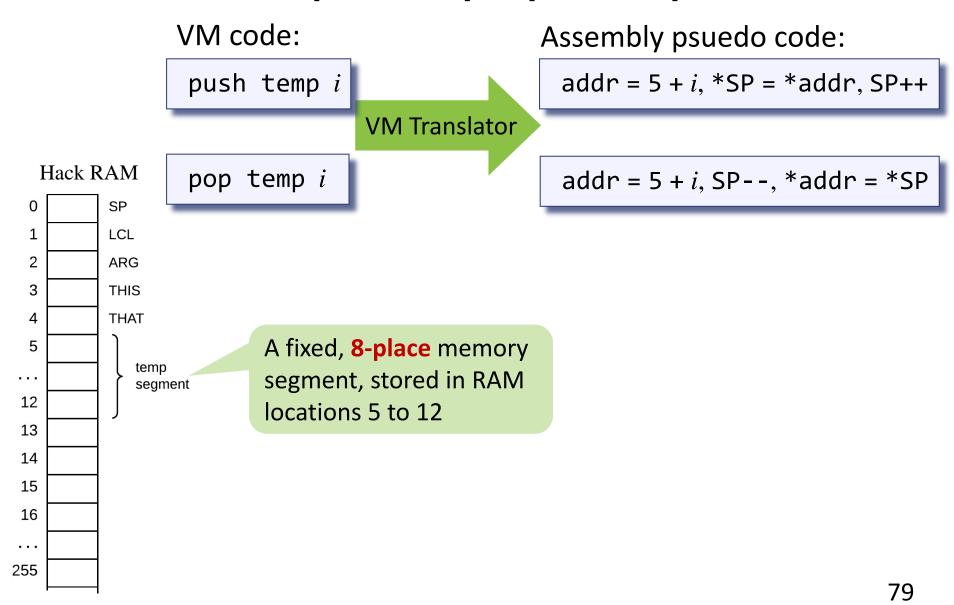
VM translator

the four segments are stored somewhere in the RAM

- push/pop local i
- push/pop argument *i*
- push/pop this *i*
- push/pop that i

implemented precisely the same way.

Implement push/pop temp i



Implement push/pop pointer 0/1

VM code:

push pointer 0/1

VM Translator

pop pointer 0/1

Assembly psuedo code:

*SP = THIS/THAT, SP++

SP--, THIS/THAT = *SP

A fixed, 2-place segment:

- accessing pointer 0 should result in accessing THIS
- accessing pointer 1 should result in accessing THAT

Implementation:

Supplies THIS or THAT // (the base addresses of this and that).

Branching

- goto *label*
 - > jump to execute the command just after *label*
- if-goto *label*
 - \triangleright cond = pop
 - if cond jump to execute the command just after label
- label *label*
 - > label declaration command
- <u>Implementation</u> (VM translation):
 - ➤ The assembly language has similar branching commands.

```
// Computes 3 +5 * 8
0 function main 0
1 push constant 3
2 push constant 8
3 push constant 5
4 call mult 2
5 add
6 return caller
```

```
// Computes the product of two given arguments
0 function mult 2
1 push constant 0
2 pop local 0
3 push constant 1
4 pop local 1
5 label LOOP
6 push local 1
7 push argument 1
//... computes the product into local 0
19 label END
20 push local 0
21 return

callee
```

<u>Implementation</u>

We can write low-level code to

- Handle the VM command call
- Handle the VM command function
- Handle the VM command return.

```
// Computes 3 +5 * 8
0 function main 0
1 push constant 3
2 push constant 8
3 push constant 5
4 call mult 2
5 add
6 return caller
```

```
// Computes the product of two given arguments
0 function mult 2
1 push constant 0
2 pop local 0
3 push constant 1
4 pop local 1
5 label LOOP
6 push local 1
7 push argument 1
//... computes the product into local 0
19 label END
20 push local 0
21 return

// callee
```

Handling call:

- Determine the return address within the caller's code;
- Save the caller's return address, stack and memory segments;
- Pass parameters from the caller to the callee;
- Jump to execute the callee.

```
// Computes 3 +5 * 8
0 function main 0
1 push constant 3
2 push constant 8
3 push constant 5
4 call mult 2
5 add
6 return caller
```

```
// Computes the product of two given arguments
0 function mult 2
1 push constant 0
2 pop local 0
3 push constant 1
4 pop local 1
5 label LOOP
6 push local 1
7 push argument 1
//... computes the product into local 0
19 label END
20 push local 0
21 return

// callee
```

Handling function:

- Initialize the local variables of the callee;
- Handle some other simple initializations (later);
- Execute the callee function.

```
// Computes 3 +5 * 8
0 function main 0
1 push constant 3
2 push constant 8
3 push constant 5
4 call mult 2
5 add
6 return caller
```

```
// Computes the product of two given arguments
0 function mult 2
1 push constant 0
2 pop local 0
3 push constant 1
4 pop local 1
5 label LOOP
6 push local 1
7 push argument 1
//... computes the product into local 0
19 label END
20 push local 0
21 return

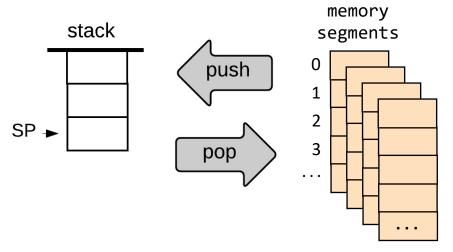
// Computes the product into local 0
callee
```

Handling return:

(a function always ends by pushing a return value on the stack)

- Return the return value to the caller;
- Recycle the memory resources used by the callee;
- Reinstate the caller's stack and memory segments;
- Jump to the return address in the caller's code.

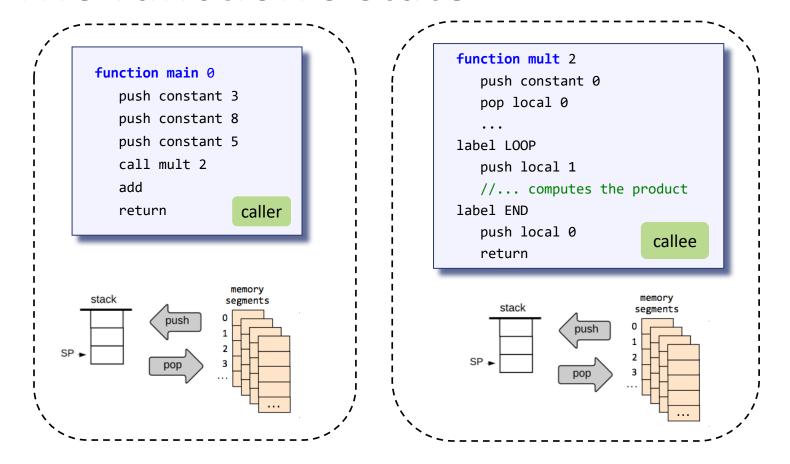
The function's state



During run-time:

- Each function uses a working stack + memory segments
- The working stack and some of the segments should be:
 - Created when the function starts running,
 - Maintained as long as the function is executing,
 - Recycled when the function returns.

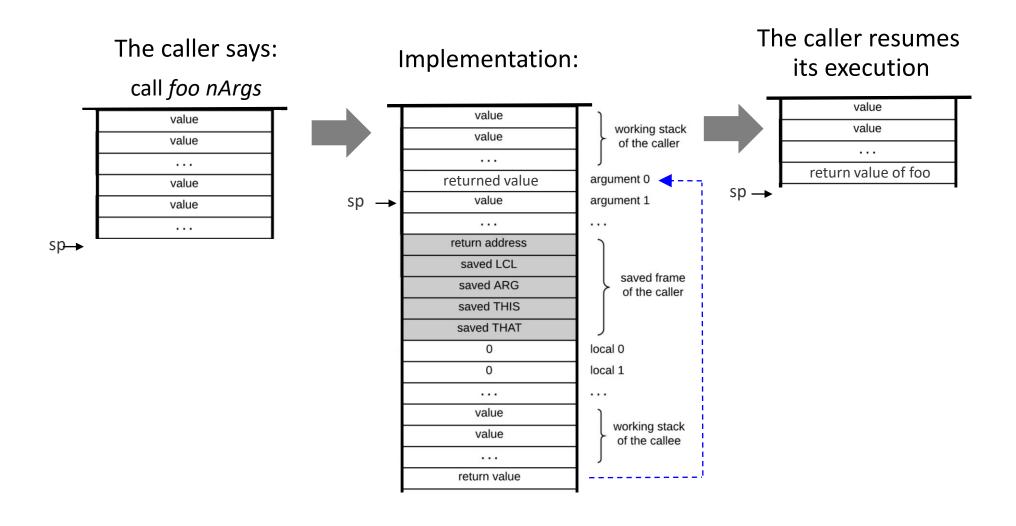
The function's state



Challenge:

- Maintain the states of all the functions up the calling chain.
- Can be done by using a single *global* stack.

Recap: function call and return



Final remark

- Be sure that you know how to program in hack assembly language.
- Be sure that you know how to translate hack assembly codes into binary machine codes.
- Be sure that you know how to perform stack operations in VM. (VM abstraction)
- Be sure that you know how to program in VM code. (VM abstraction)
- Be sure that you know how to translate VM codes to hack assembly codes. (VM implementation)
- Make sure that you understand all the examples, exercises and quizes given in the lecture slides.