

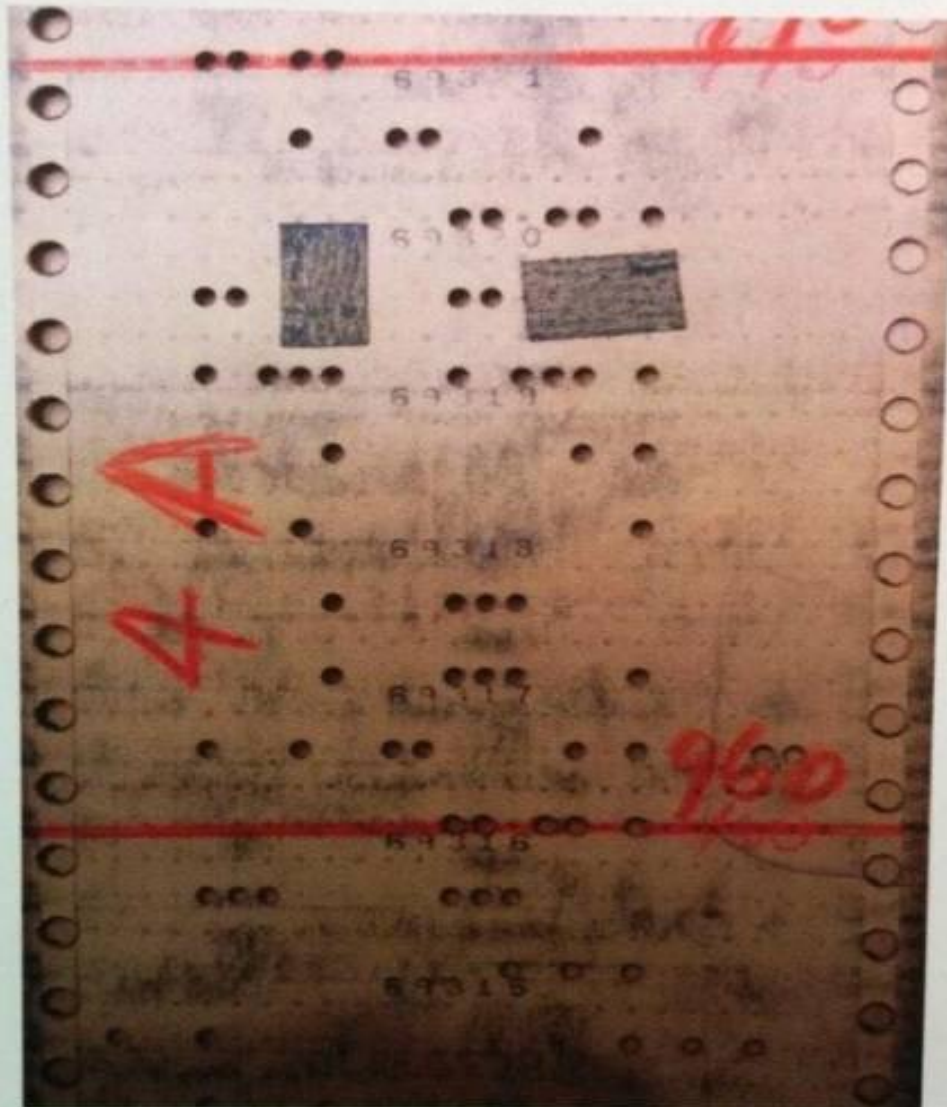
Introduction to Assembly Language

**CS 64: Computer Organization and Design Logic
Lecture #4
Winter 2019**

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*This Week
on
“Didja
Know
Dat?!”*

The “Patch”



Small corrections to the programmed sequence could be done by patching over portions of the paper tape and re-punching the holes in that section.

Image courtesy of the Smithsonian Archives Center.

Lecture Outline

- Review of Carry Out vs. Overflow bits
- MIPS core processing blocks
- Basic programming in assembly
- Arithmetic programs

Administrative Stuff

- How did Lab# 2 go?
 - Too easy? Too hard? Just right?
 - Remember: it's due via *turnin* on Monday!
- We will be providing assignment (lab) feedback on GauchoSpace!
 - Follow up with me/TAs during office hours
- Remember, our office hours! 😊

– Prof. Matni	Th. 1 – 2:30 PM	<i>SSMS 4409</i>
– TA Bay-Yuan	Fr. 11 AM – 1 PM	<i>Trailer 936</i>
– TA Shiyu	Fr. 3 – 5 PM	<i>Trailer 936</i>

Any Questions From Last Lecture?

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, so what's wrong here?
 - The answer 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 that's
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

	<i>1</i> ← <i>Cin_signed_bit</i>
-39	1101 1001
92	0101 1100
---	-----
53	<i>1</i> 0011 0101

Cout ← *1*

That's 53 in signed 8-bits! Looks ok!

Side-note:

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

-2^7 to $(2^7 - 1)$, 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 $Cin_signed_bit = 1$

Example 2

$$V = \text{Cout} \oplus \text{Cin_signed_bit}$$

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

	<i>1</i> ← <i>Cin_signed_bit</i>
104	0110 1000
45	0010 1101
---	-----
149	<u>1001 0101</u>

Cout = 0 *That's NOT 149 in signed 8-bits!*

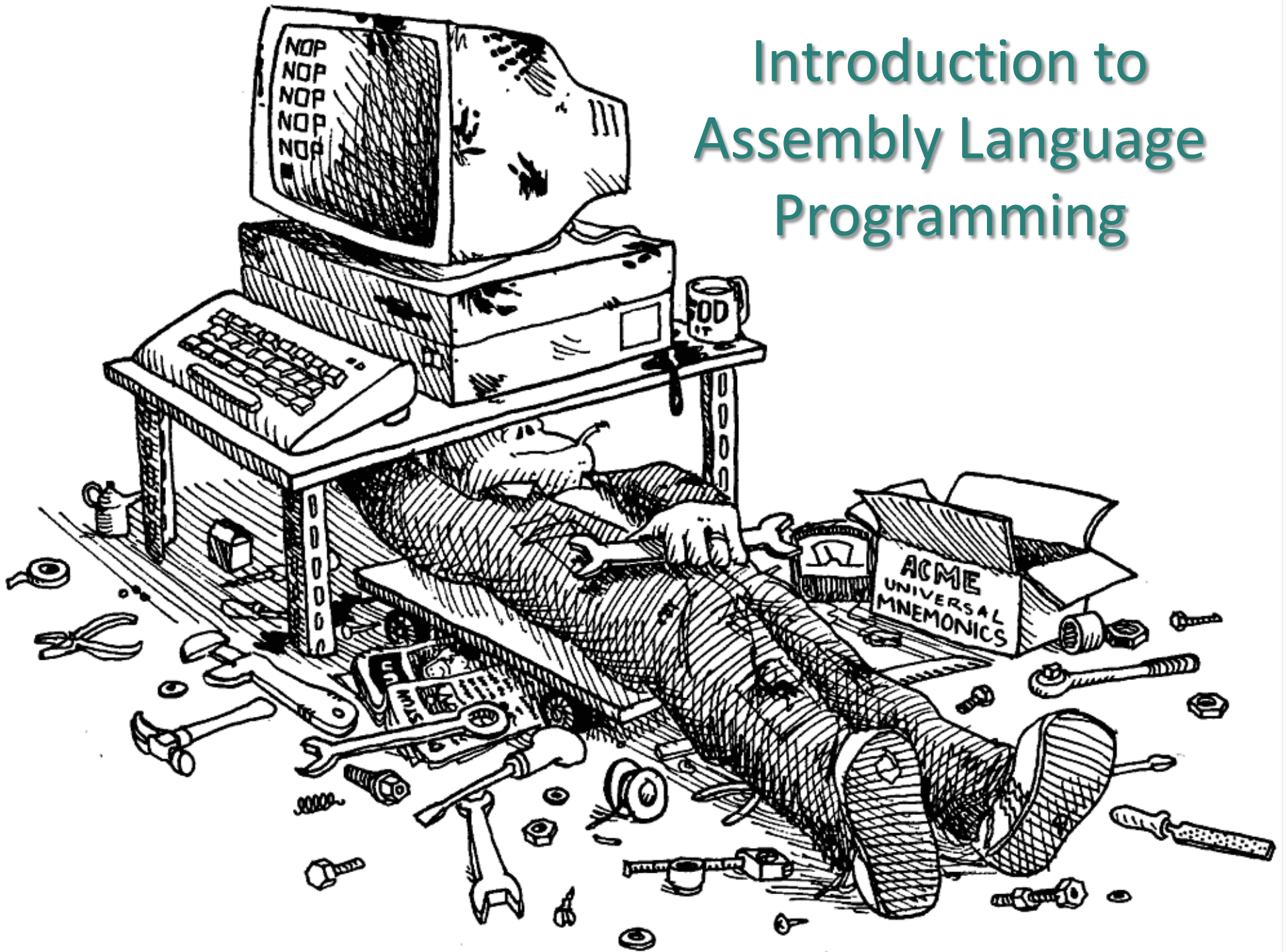
There's no carry-out (again, we don't care)

But there is overflow!

Given that this binary result is not 149, but actually -107 !

Note that $V = 1$, while $\text{Cout} = 0$ and $\text{Cin_signed_bit} = 1$

Introduction to Assembly Language Programming



The Simple Language of a CPU

- We have: variables, integers, addition, and assignment
- Restrictions:
 - Can only assign **integers** directly to variables
 - Can only add variables, always **two at a time** (no more)

EXAMPLE:

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

$x = 5;$

$y = 7;$

$z = x + y;$

**What func is needed to
implement this?**

←←←

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 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** → **PROGRAM COUNTER (PC)**
- Some *place* to **hold all the variables** → **REGISTERS**
- Some *way* to **do arithmetic on numbers** → **ARITHMETIC LOGIC UNIT (ALU)**

...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

?

Registers

x : ?

y : ?

z : ?

Program Counter

?

Memory

?

Arithmetic Logic Unit

?

Instruction Register

x = 5;

Registers

x: 5

y: ?

z: ?

Program Counter

0

Memory

0: x = 5;

1: y = 7;

2: z = x + y;

Arithmetic Logic Unit

?

Instruction Register

x = 5;

Registers

x: 5

y: 7

z: ?

Program Counter

1

Memory

0: x = 5;

1: y = 7;

2: z = x + y;

Arithmetic Logic Unit

0 + 1 = 1

Instruction Register

`z = x + y;`

Registers

x: 5

y: 7

z: ?

Program Counter

2

Memory

0: x = 5;

1: y = 7;

2: z = x + y;

Arithmetic Logic Unit

1 + 1 = 2

Instruction Register

z = x + y;

Memory

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

Registers

x: 5
y: 7
z: 12

Program Counter

2

Arithmetic Logic Unit

5 + 7 = 12

Why MIPS?

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

MIPS is Simpler...

... than other instruction sets for CPUs

So it's a great learning tool

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

Note: Pipelining in CPUs

- Pipelining is a fundamental design in CPUs
- Allows multiple instructions to go on at once
 - a.k.a instruction-level parallelism

Basic five-stage pipeline

Instr. No. \ Clock cycle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	IF	ID	EX	MEM	WB		
2		IF	ID	EX	MEM	WB	
3			IF	ID	EX	MEM	WB
4				IF	ID	EX	MEM
5					IF	ID	EX

(IF = Instruction Fetch, ID = Instruction Decode, EX = Execute, MEM = Memory access, WB = Register write back).

Code on MIPS

Original

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

MIPS

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


Code on MIPS

Original

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

MIPS

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

load immediate: put the given value into a register

\$t0: temporary register 0

Code on MIPS

Original

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

MIPS

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

load immediate: put the given value into a register

\$t1: temporary register **1**

Code on MIPS

Original

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

MIPS

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

add: add the rightmost registers, putting the result in the first register

\$t3: temporary register 3

Available Registers in MIPS

- 32 registers in all
 - Refer to your MIPS Reference Card
- For the moment, let's only consider registers **\$t0 thru \$t9**

NAME	NUMBER	USE
\$zero	0	The Constant Value 0
\$at	1	Assembler Temporary
\$v0-\$v1	2-3	Values for Function Results and Expression Evaluation
\$a0-\$a3	4-7	Arguments
\$t0-\$t7	8-15	Temporaries
\$s0-\$s7	16-23	Saved Temporaries
\$t8-\$t9	24-25	Temporaries
\$k0-\$k1	26-27	Reserved for OS Kernel
\$gp	28	Global Pointer
\$sp	29	Stack Pointer
\$fp	30	Frame Pointer
\$ra	31	Return Address

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 language/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

- What a CPU actually accepts as input
- What actually gets executed
- Each instruction is represented with **32 bits**
 - No more, no less
- There are **three** different *instruction formats*: **R**, **I**, and **J**
 - These allow for instructions to take on different roles
 - R-Format is used when it's all about **registers**
 - I-Format is used when you involve **(immediate) numbers**
 - J-Format is used when you do code “**jumping**” (i.e. branching)

Instruction Register

?

Registers

\$t0: ?
\$t1: ?
\$t2: ?

Since all instructions are 32-bits, then they each occupy 4 Bytes of memory.

Memory is addressed in Bytes
(more on this later).

Program Counter

?

Memory

?

Arithmetic Logic Unit

?

Instruction Register

?

Registers

\$t0: ?
\$t1: ?
\$t2: ?

Since all instructions are 32-bits, then they each occupy 4 Bytes of memory.

Memory is addressed in Bytes (more on this later).

Program Counter

0

Memory

0: li \$t0, 5
4: li \$t1, 7
8: add \$t3, \$t0, \$t1

Arithmetic Logic Unit

?

Instruction Register

`li $t0, 5`

Registers

`$t0: ?`

`$t1: ?`

`$t2: ?`

Since all instructions are 32-bits, then they each occupy 4 Bytes of memory.

Memory is addressed in Bytes (more on this later).

Program Counter

`0`

Memory

`0: li $t0, 5`

`4: li $t1, 7`

`8: add $t3, $t0, $t1`

Arithmetic Logic Unit

`?`

Instruction Register

```
li $t0, 5
```

Registers

```
$t0: 5
```

```
$t1: ?
```

```
$t2: ?
```

Since all instructions are 32-bits, then they each occupy 4 Bytes of memory.

Memory is addressed in Bytes (more on this later).

Program Counter

```
0
```

Memory

```
0: li $t0, 5
```

```
4: li $t1, 7
```

```
8: add $t3, $t0, $t1
```

Arithmetic Logic Unit

```
?
```

Instruction Register

```
li $t0, 5
```

Registers

```
$t0: 5
```

```
$t1: ?
```

```
$t2: ?
```

Since all instructions are 32-bits, then they each occupy 4 Bytes of memory.

Memory is addressed in Bytes (more on this later).

Program Counter

```
4
```

Memory

```
0: li $t0, 5
```

```
4: li $t1, 7
```

```
8: add $t3, $t0, $t1
```

Arithmetic Logic Unit

```
0 + 4 = 4
```

Instruction Register

```
-----  
li $t1, 7
```

Registers

```
-----  
$t0: 5  
$t1: ?  
$t2: ?
```

Since all instructions are 32-bits, then they each occupy 4 Bytes of memory.

Memory is addressed in Bytes (more on this later).

Program Counter

```
-----  
4
```

Memory

```
-----  
0: li $t0, 5  
4: li $t1, 7  
8: add $t3, $t0, $t1
```

Arithmetic Logic Unit

```
-----  
?
```

Instruction Register

```
li $t1, 7
```

Registers

```
$t0: 5  
$t1: 7  
$t2: ?
```

Since all instructions are 32-bits, then they each occupy 4 Bytes of memory.

Memory is addressed in Bytes (more on this later).

Program Counter

4

Memory

```
0: li $t0, 5  
4: li $t1, 7  
8: add $t3, $t0, $t1
```

Arithmetic Logic Unit

?

Instruction Register

```
li $t1, 7
```

Registers

```
$t0: 5  
$t1: 7  
$t2: ?
```

Since all instructions are 32-bits, then they each occupy 4 Bytes of memory.

Memory is addressed in Bytes (more on this later).

Program Counter

8

Memory

```
0: li $t0, 5  
4: li $t1, 7  
8: add $t3, $t0, $t1
```

Arithmetic Logic Unit

4 + 4 = 8

Instruction Register

```
add $t3, $t0, $t1
```

Registers

```
$t0: 5  
$t1: 7  
$t2: ?
```

Since all instructions are 32-bits, then they each occupy 4 Bytes of memory.

Memory is addressed in Bytes (more on this later).

Program Counter

```
8
```

Memory

```
0: li $t0, 5  
4: li $t1, 7  
8: add $t3, $t0, $t1
```

Arithmetic Logic Unit

```
?
```

Instruction Register

```
add $t3, $t0, $t1
```

Registers

```
$t0: 5  
$t1: 7  
$t2: ?
```

Since all instructions are 32-bits, then they each occupy 4 Bytes of memory.

Memory is addressed in Bytes (more on this later).

Program Counter

```
8
```

Memory

```
0: li $t0, 5  
4: li $t1, 7  
8: add $t3, $t0, $t1
```

Arithmetic Logic Unit

```
5 + 7 = 12
```


Instruction Register

```
add $t3, $t0, $t1
```

Since all instructions are 32-bits, then they each occupy 4 Bytes of memory.

Memory is addressed in Bytes (more on this later).

Memory

```
0: li $t0, 5
4: li $t1, 7
8: add $t3, $t0, $t1
```

Registers

```
$t0: 5
$t1: 7
$t2: 12
```

Program Counter

8

Arithmetic Logic Unit

```
5 + 7 = 12
```

</LECTURE>