

Lecture 8: Number Crunching

- Today's topics:
 - MARS wrap-up
 - RISC vs. CISC
 - Numerical representations
 - Signed/Unsigned

Example Print Routine

```
.data
    str: .asciiz "the answer is "
.text
    li   $v0, 4           # load immediate; 4 is the code for print_string
    la   $a0, str         # the print_string syscall expects the string
                                # address as the argument; la is the instruction
                                # to load the address of the operand (str)
    syscall              # MARS will now invoke syscall-4
    li   $v0, 1           # syscall-1 corresponds to print_int
    li   $a0, 5           # print_int expects the integer as its argument
    syscall              # MARS will now invoke syscall-1
```

To put "5" in \$a0, we can also do:

```
.data
    myint: .word 5
.text
    la   $t0, myint
    lw   $a0, 0($t0)
```

Example

- Write an assembly program to prompt the user for two numbers and print the sum of the two numbers

Example

.text

```
li $v0, 4
la $a0, str1
syscall
li $v0, 5
syscall
add $t0, $v0, $zero
li $v0, 5
syscall
add $t1, $v0, $zero
li $v0, 4
la $a0, str2
syscall
li $v0, 1
add $a0, $t1, $t0
syscall
```

.data

```
str1: .asciiz "Enter 2 numbers:"
str2: .asciiz "The sum is "
```

IA-32 Instruction Set

- Intel's IA-32 instruction set has evolved over 20 years – old features are preserved for software compatibility
- Numerous complex instructions – complicates hardware design (Complex Instruction Set Computer – CISC)
- Instructions have different sizes, operands can be in registers or memory, only 8 general-purpose registers, one of the operands is over-written
- RISC instructions are more amenable to high performance (clock speed and parallelism) – modern Intel processors convert IA-32 instructions into simpler micro-operations

Endian-ness

Two major formats for transferring values between registers and memory

Memory: low address 45 7b 87 7f high address

Little-endian register: the first byte read goes in the low end of the register

Register: 7f 87 7b 45
Most-significant bit ↗ ↖ Least-significant bit (x86)

Big-endian register: the first byte read goes in the big end of the register

Register: 45 7b 87 7f
Most-significant bit ↗ ↖ Least-significant bit (MIPS, IBM)

Binary Representation

- The binary number

01011000 00010101 00101110 11100111

Most significant bit ← ← Least significant bit

represents the quantity

$$0 \times 2^{31} + 1 \times 2^{30} + 0 \times 2^{29} + \dots + 1 \times 2^0$$

- A 32-bit word can represent 2^{32} numbers between 0 and $2^{32}-1$
... this is known as the unsigned representation as we're assuming that numbers are always positive

ASCII Vs. Binary

- Does it make more sense to represent a decimal number in ASCII?
- Hardware to implement arithmetic would be difficult
- What are the storage needs? How many bits does it take to represent the decimal number 1,000,000,000 in ASCII and in binary?

ASCII Vs. Binary

- Does it make more sense to represent a decimal number in ASCII?
- Hardware to implement arithmetic would be difficult
- What are the storage needs? How many bits does it take to represent the decimal number 1,000,000,000 in ASCII and in binary?
 - In binary: 30 bits ($2^{30} > 1$ billion)
 - In ASCII: 10 characters, 8 bits per char = 80 bits

Negative Numbers

32 bits can only represent 2^{32} numbers – if we wish to also represent negative numbers, we can represent 2^{31} positive numbers (incl zero) and 2^{31} negative numbers

$$0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000_{\text{two}} = 0_{\text{ten}}$$

$$0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0001_{\text{two}} = 1_{\text{ten}}$$

...

$$0111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111_{\text{two}} = 2^{31}-1$$

$$1000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000_{\text{two}} = -2^{31}$$

$$1000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0001_{\text{two}} = -(2^{31} - 1)$$

$$1000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0010_{\text{two}} = -(2^{31} - 2)$$

...

$$1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1110_{\text{two}} = -2$$

$$1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111_{\text{two}} = -1$$

2's Complement

$$0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000_{\text{two}} = 0_{\text{ten}}$$

$$0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0001_{\text{two}} = 1_{\text{ten}}$$

...

$$0111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111_{\text{two}} = 2^{31}-1$$

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...

$$1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1110_{\text{two}} = -2$$

$$1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111\ 1111_{\text{two}} = -1$$

Why is this representation favorable?

Consider the sum of 1 and -2 ... we get -1

Consider the sum of 2 and -1 ... we get +1

This format can directly undergo addition without any conversions!

Each number represents the quantity

$$x_{31} - 2^{31} + x_{30} 2^{30} + x_{29} 2^{29} + \dots + x_1 2^1 + x_0 2^0$$

2's Complement

```
0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000two = 0ten
0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0001two = 1ten
...
0111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111two = 231-1

1000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000two = -231
1000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0001two = -(231 - 1)
1000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0010two = -(231 - 2)
...
1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1110two = -2
1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111two = -1
```

Note that the sum of a number x and its inverted representation x' always equals a string of 1s (-1).

$$x + x' = -1$$

$x' + 1 = -x$... hence, can compute the negative of a number by

$-x = x' + 1$ inverting all bits and adding 1

Similarly, the sum of x and $-x$ gives us all zeroes, with a carry of 1

In reality, $x + (-x) = 2^n$... hence the name 2's complement

Example

- Compute the 32-bit 2's complement representations for the following decimal numbers:
5, -5, -6

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- Compute the 32-bit 2's complement representations for the following decimal numbers:

5, -5, -6

5: 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0101

-5: 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1011

-6: 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1010

Given -5, verify that inverting and adding 1 yields the number 5

Signed / Unsigned

- The hardware recognizes two formats:

unsigned (corresponding to the C declaration `unsigned int`)

-- all numbers are positive, a 1 in the most significant bit just means it is a really large number

signed (C declaration is `signed int` or just `int`)

-- numbers can be +/- , a 1 in the MSB means the number is negative

This distinction enables us to represent twice as many numbers when we're sure that we don't need negatives

MIPS Instructions

Consider a comparison instruction:

```
slt $t0, $t1, $zero
```

and \$t1 contains the 32-bit number 1111 01...01

What gets stored in \$t0?

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```
slt $t0, $t1, $zero
```

and \$t1 contains the 32-bit number 1111 01...01

What gets stored in \$t0?

The result depends on whether \$t1 is a signed or unsigned number – the compiler/programmer must track this and accordingly use either `slt` or `sltu`

```
slt $t0, $t1, $zero    stores 1 in $t0
```

```
sltu $t0, $t1, $zero   stores 0 in $t0
```

Sign Extension

- Occasionally, 16-bit signed numbers must be converted into 32-bit signed numbers – for example, when doing an add with an immediate operand
- The conversion is simple: take the most significant bit and use it to fill up the additional bits on the left – known as sign extension

So 2_{10} goes from 0000 0000 0000 0010 to
0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0010

and -2_{10} goes from 1111 1111 1111 1110 to
1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1110

Alternative Representations

- The following two (intuitive) representations were discarded because they required additional conversion steps before arithmetic could be performed on the numbers
 - sign-and-magnitude: the most significant bit represents +/- and the remaining bits express the magnitude
 - one's complement: $-x$ is represented by inverting all the bits of x

Both representations above suffer from two zeroes