



Arithmetic

ICS312 Machine-Level and Systems Programming

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Addition and Subtraction

- Two instructions used for additions and subtractions: **add** and **sub**
- Both instructions can be used on a pair of signed numbers or on a pair of unsigned numbers
 - One of the big advantages of 2's complement storage
 - **No mixing of signed and unsigned numbers**
- **IMPORTANT:** The CPU does not know whether numbers stored in registers are signed or unsigned!
 - You, the programmer, must keep your own interpretation of the number consistent throughout your program
 - The CPU will happily add whatever registers together using binary addition
- These two instructions each may set some bits of the FLAG register:
 - The **carry** bit
 - The **overflow** bit
 - The **zero** bit (=1 if the result is equal to zero)
 - The **sign** bit (=1 if the result is negative)

The Magic of 2's Complement

- I have two 1-byte values, A3 and 17, and I add them together:
 $A3 + 17 = BA$
- If my interpretation of the numbers is **unsigned**:
 - $A3h = 163d$
 - $17h = 23d$
 - $BAh = 186d$
 - and indeed, $163d + 23d = 186d$
- If my interpretation of the numbers is **signed**:
 - $A3h = -93d$
 - $17h = 23d$
 - $BAh = -70d$
 - and indeed, $-93d + 23d = -70d$
- So, as long as I stick to my interpretation, the binary addition will do the right thing.... amazing!
 - Same thing for the subtraction

Overflow???

- Generally speaking, overflow occurs when the result of an arithmetic operation generates a result that's “out of range”
- This happens because a register has a **limited number of bits**, which means that our interpretation of a number comes with a **valid range**
- For instance
 - adding 1-byte unsigned quantity 240d to 1-byte unsigned quantity 100d will lead to an overflow because $340d > 255d$
 - subtracting 1-byte unsigned quantity 240d from 1-byte unsigned quantity 100d will lead to an overflow because $-140d < 0d$
 - adding 1-byte signed quantity 100d to 1-byte signed quantity 120d will lead to an overflow because $220d > 127d$
 - etc.
- Question: how do we detect overflow in a program?
 - Important otherwise we could be working with bogus numbers
- It depends on whether numbers are signed or unsigned...

Overflow for Unsigned Operations

- There is an overflow with an unsigned operation (i.e., on unsigned quantities) if the carry bit is set
- If the carry bit is set, that means we'd need a larger quantity to hold the result
 - This also works for subtractions (instead of a carry, we have a "borrow", but it's still set in the carry bit)
- 1-byte Example (all in hex):
 - $FF + 02$ Carry is set (result would be 101h)
 - $255 + 2 > 255$
 - $01 - 02$ Carry is set (result cannot be negative)
 - $1 - 2 < 0$
 - $8A - 0F$ Carry is not set (result is 7Bh)
 - $138 - 15 = 123$

Overflow for Signed Operations

- There is an overflow with a signed operation (i.e., on signed quantities) if the overflow bit is set
 - This bit is set when the sign of the result does not agree with the signs of the operands
- 1-byte Example (all in hex, same as before):
 - FF + 02 Overflow is not set (result is 01h)
 - -1 + 2 = +1
 - 01 - 02 Overflow is not set (result is FFh)
 - 1 - 2 = -1
 - 8A - 0F Overflow is set (result would be < 80h)
 - 8A is negative, and is equal to -76h = -118d
 - -118 - 15 < -128, and thus cannot be represented as a 1-byte signed quantity

Determining Overflow

- Another way to determine whether a particular signed operation would overflow is to look at the sign of the result and see if it makes sense
- Example: 1-byte operation $8A + A2$
 - $8A$ is negative
 - $A2$ is negative
 - In hex $8A + A2 = 2C$ (and a carry)
 - $2C$ is positive
 - The sum of two negative numbers should be negative, so we've experienced an overflow



Overflow is your Responsibility

- The processor merely computes bits and puts them into the destination location as if everything were fine, and it's your responsibility to check the overflow!
- Let's look at two examples
 - An unsigned arithmetic example
 - A signed arithmetic example
- Note that we will see later how to “check” the Carry bit and the Overflow bit in the FLAGS register

Unsigned Overflow

On web site as
ics312_overflow_unsigned.asm

```
mov     al, 0F0h      ; al = F0h
mov     bl, 0A3h      ; bl = A3h
add     al, bl        ; al = al + bl
movzx   eax, al       ; increase size for printing
call    print_int     ; print al as an integer
```

- As a programmer we decided to do some computation with **unsigned values**
- We put value F0h in al (unsigned F0h is decimal 240)
- We put value A3h in bl (unsigned A3h is decimal 163)
- We add them together
- The “true” result should be decimal $240+163 = 403$, which cannot be encoded on 8 bits (should be < 255)
- But the processor just goes ahead: $F0 + A3 = 193h$, and then drops the leftmost bits to truncate to a 1-byte value to get 93h!
- To call `print_int`, we need the integer in `eax`, so we `movzx` `al` into `eax`
- `print_int` print the decimal value corresponding to `00000093h`, that is: 147!
- This is obviously wrong, and we can tell (or will be able to shortly) because the carry bit is in fact set to 1
- **Note that this is all correct if we assume signed values and replace `movzx` by `movsx`, but then our initial interpretation of the two values is different**

Signed Overflow

On web site as
ics312_overflow_signed.asm

```
mov     al, 09Ah      ; al = 9Ah
mov     bl, 073h     ; bl = 73h
sub     al, bl        ; al = al - bl
movsx   eax, al      ; increase size for printing
call    print_int    ; print al as an integer
```

- As a programmer we decided to do some computation with **signed values**
- We put value 9Ah in al (signed 9Ah is decimal -102)
- We put value 73h in bl (signed 73h is decimal +115)
- We subtract bl from al
- The “true” result should be decimal $-102 - 115 = -217$, which cannot be encoded on 8 bits (should be ≥ -128)
- But the processor just goes ahead: $9A - 73 = 27h$
- To call print_int, we need the integer in eax, so we movsx al into eax
- print_int prints the decimal value corresponding to 00000027h, that is: 39!
- This is obviously wrong, and we can tell (or will be able to shortly) because the overflow bit is in fact set to 1
- **Note that this is all correct if we assume unsigned values and replace movsx by movzx, but then our initial interpretation of the two values is different**

Multiplication

- There are two instructions to perform multiplications
- Multiplying **unsigned** numbers: **mul**
- Multiplying **signed** numbers: **imul**
- Why do we need two different instructions?
- Consider the multiplication of FF by FF
 - If we assume unsigned quantities, this is $255 * 255 = 65035 = \text{FE0Bh}$
 - If we assume signed quantities, this is $-1 * -1 = 1 = 0001\text{h}$

The mul Instruction

- The size of the result of the multiplication is sometimes twice larger than the size of the operands
 - Multiplications just leads to much bigger numbers than additions
 - At most the result will be twice the size of the operands ($255 * 255 = 65,025$, which is encodable on 2 bytes)
- The oldest form of multiplication is the “mul” instruction, which produce a result twice the size of its **unsigned** operand

mul <register or memory reference>

- If the operand is a byte, then it is multiplied by AL and the result is stored in (16-bit) AX
- If the operand is 16-bit, it is multiplied by AX and stored in (32-bit) DX:AX
 - There used to be no 32-bit registers
- If the operand is 32-bit, it is multiplied by EAX and the result is stored in (64-bit) EDX:EAX
 - We don't have 64-bit registers on a 32-bit architecture

The imul instruction

- Imul, which is used for **signed** numbers, has three formats:

imul src

imul dst, src1

imul dst, src1, src2

- The different combinations are shown in Table 2.2 in the text book
- This table uses the typical way in which one specifies operands:
 - reg16: a 16-bit register
 - reg32: a 32-bit register
 - immed8: an 8-bit immediate operand (i.e., a number)
 - mem16: a word of memory
 - etc.
- Let's look at the table

The imul instruction

Will not overflow
(although the
overflow bit may
be set)

dst	src1	src2	action
	reg/mem8		AX = AL * src1
	reg/mem16		DX:AX = AX * src1
	reg/mem32		EDX:EAX = EAX * src1
reg16	reg/mem16		dst *= src1
reg32	reg/mem32		dst *= src1
reg16	immed8		dst *= immed8
reg32	immed8		dst *= immed8
reg16	immed16		dst *= immed16
reg32	immed32		dst *= immed32
reg16	reg/mem16	immed8	dst = src1*src2
reg32	reg/mem32	immed8	dst = src1*src2
reg16	reg/mem16	immed16	dst = src1*src2
reg32	reg/mem32	immed32	dst = src1*src2

Division

- Two instructions:
 - **div** for unsigned quantities
 - **idiv** for signed quantities
- They perform **integer division**
 - e.g.,: $19 / 4$ produces quotient = 4 remainder = 3
- Only one format for both:
div/idiv src
- If src is an 8-bit quantity:
 - AX is divided by src
 - quotient stored into AL
 - remainder stored into AH
- If src is a 16-bit quantity:
 - DX:AX is divided by src
 - quotient stored into AX
 - remainder stored into DX



Division

- If src is a 32-bit quantity:
 - EDX:EAX is divided by src
 - quotient stored into EAX
 - remainder stored into EDX
- Warning: it's very common for programmers to forget initializing DX or EDX before the division



Negation

- There is a convenient instruction to negate an operand: `neg`
- It simply computes the 2's complement of a quantity
- Works on 8-bit, 16-bit, or 32-bit quantities
 - either in registers or in memory
- We'll ignore the content of Section 2.1.5 in the textbook



Example Program in Textbook

- Section 2.1.4 shows a sample program that uses all the arithmetic operations we just saw
- There is nothing particularly difficult about it, especially because overflows are not handled (so the numbers entered had better be “small”)
- One interesting point: One cannot divide by an immediate value and must use a register
- Make sure you go through this example and understand how it works
 - You may want to run it as well



Conclusion

- One has to be careful when doing arithmetic operations because the processor happily produces results but it's your responsibility to check for overflow/carry bits