

CMSC 313

COMPUTER ORGANIZATION

&

ASSEMBLY LANGUAGE

PROGRAMMING

Lecture 1, Fall 2014

TOPICS TODAY

- **Course overview**
- **Levels of machines**
- **Machine models: von Neumann & System Bus**
- **Fetch-Execute Cycle**
- **Base Conversion**

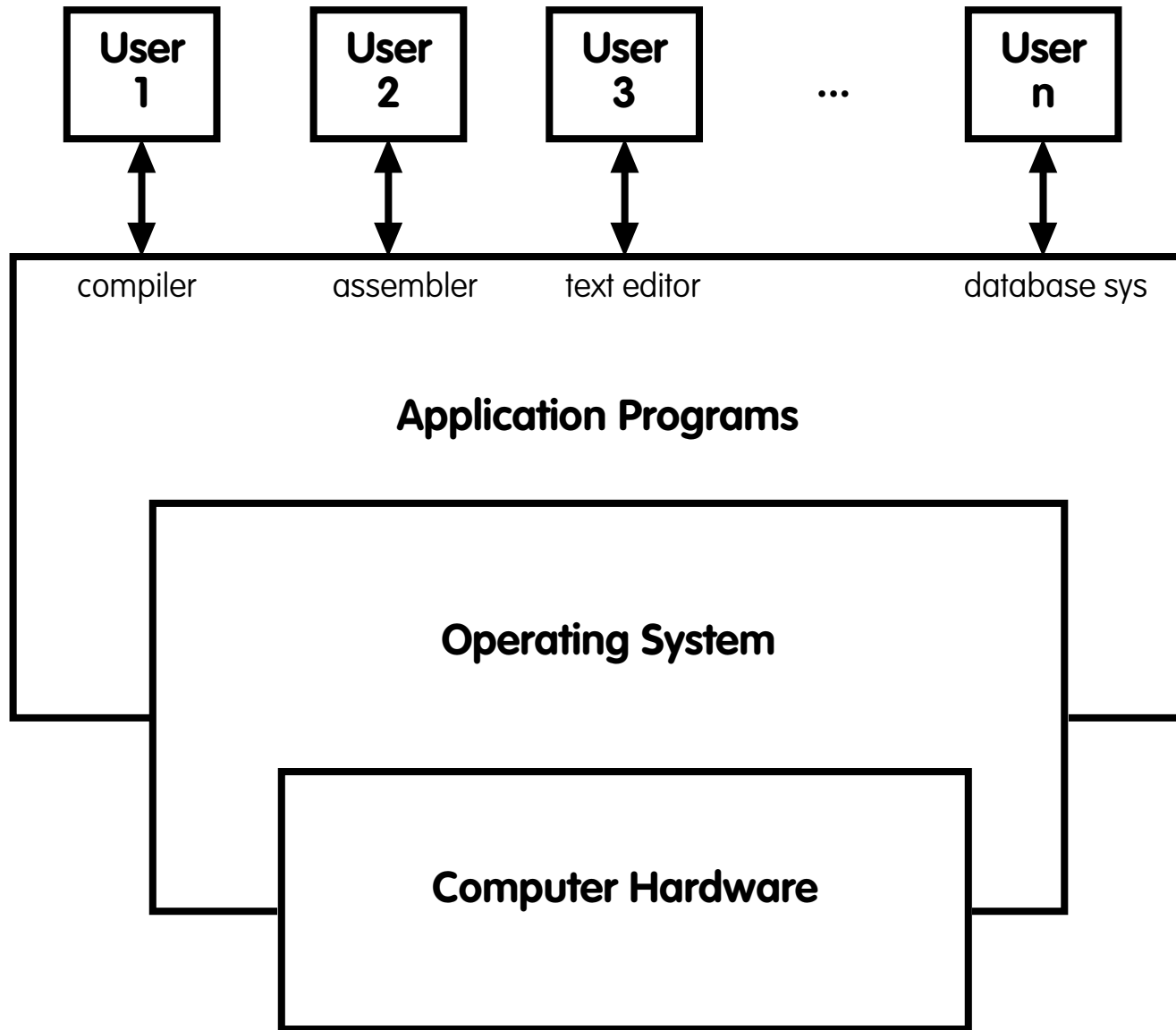
COURSE OVERVIEW



LEVELS OF MACHINES

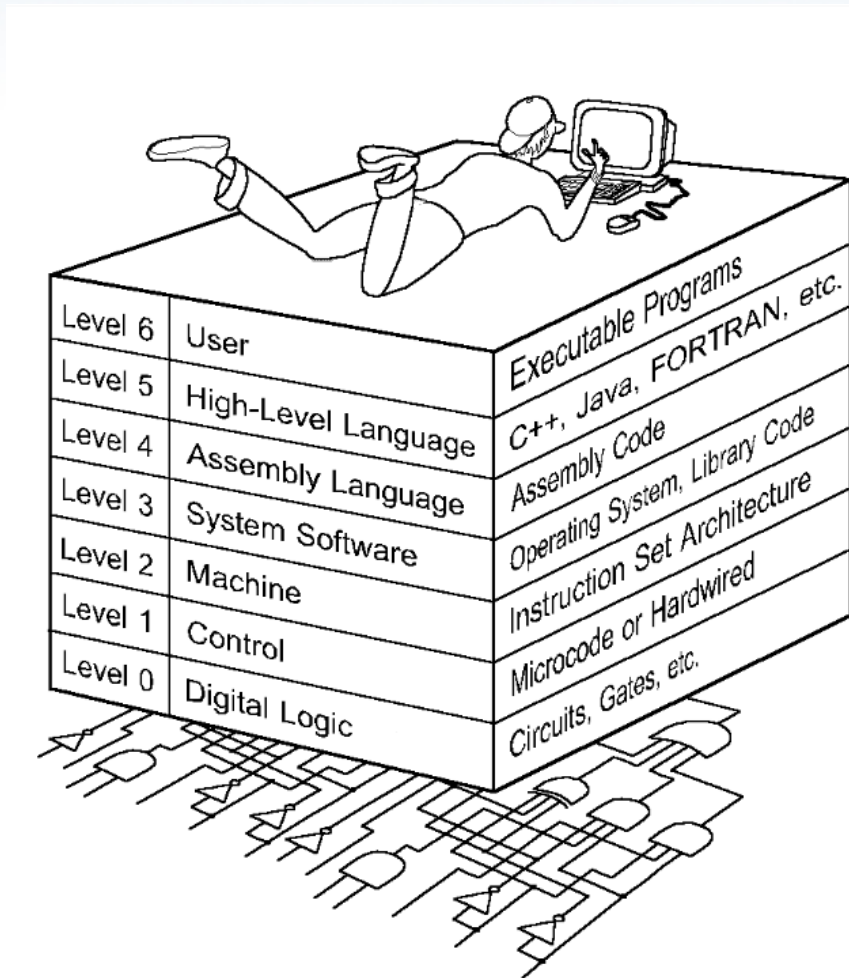


Computer Science View of the World



1.6 The Computer Level Hierarchy

- Each virtual machine layer is an abstraction of the level below it.
- The machines at each level execute their own particular instructions, calling upon machines at lower levels to perform tasks as required.
- Computer circuits ultimately carry out the work.



1.6 The Computer Level Hierarchy

- Level 6: The User Level
 - Program execution and user interface level.
 - The level with which we are most familiar.
- Level 5: High-Level Language Level
 - The level with which we interact when we write programs in languages such as C, Pascal, Lisp, and Java.

1.6 The Computer Level Hierarchy

- **Level 4: Assembly Language Level**
 - Acts upon assembly language produced from Level 5, as well as instructions programmed directly at this level.
- **Level 3: System Software Level**
 - Controls executing processes on the system.
 - Protects system resources.
 - Assembly language instructions often pass through Level 3 without modification.

1.6 The Computer Level Hierarchy

- Level 2: Machine Level
 - Also known as the Instruction Set Architecture (ISA) Level.
 - Consists of instructions that are particular to the architecture of the machine.
 - Programs written in machine language need no compilers, interpreters, or assemblers.

1.6 The Computer Level Hierarchy

- Level 1: Control Level
 - A *control unit* decodes and executes instructions and moves data through the system.
 - Control units can be *microprogrammed* or *hardwired*.
 - A microprogram is a program written in a low-level language that is implemented by the hardware.
 - Hardwired control units consist of hardware that directly executes machine instructions.

1.6 The Computer Level Hierarchy

- Level 0: Digital Logic Level
 - This level is where we find digital circuits (the chips).
 - Digital circuits consist of gates and wires.
 - These components implement the mathematical logic of all other levels.

MACHINE MODELS



1.7 The von Neumann Model

- On the ENIAC, all programming was done at the digital logic level.
- Programming the computer involved moving plugs and wires.
- A different hardware configuration was needed to solve every unique problem type.

Configuring the ENIAC to solve a “simple” problem required many days labor by skilled technicians.

1.7 The von Neumann Model

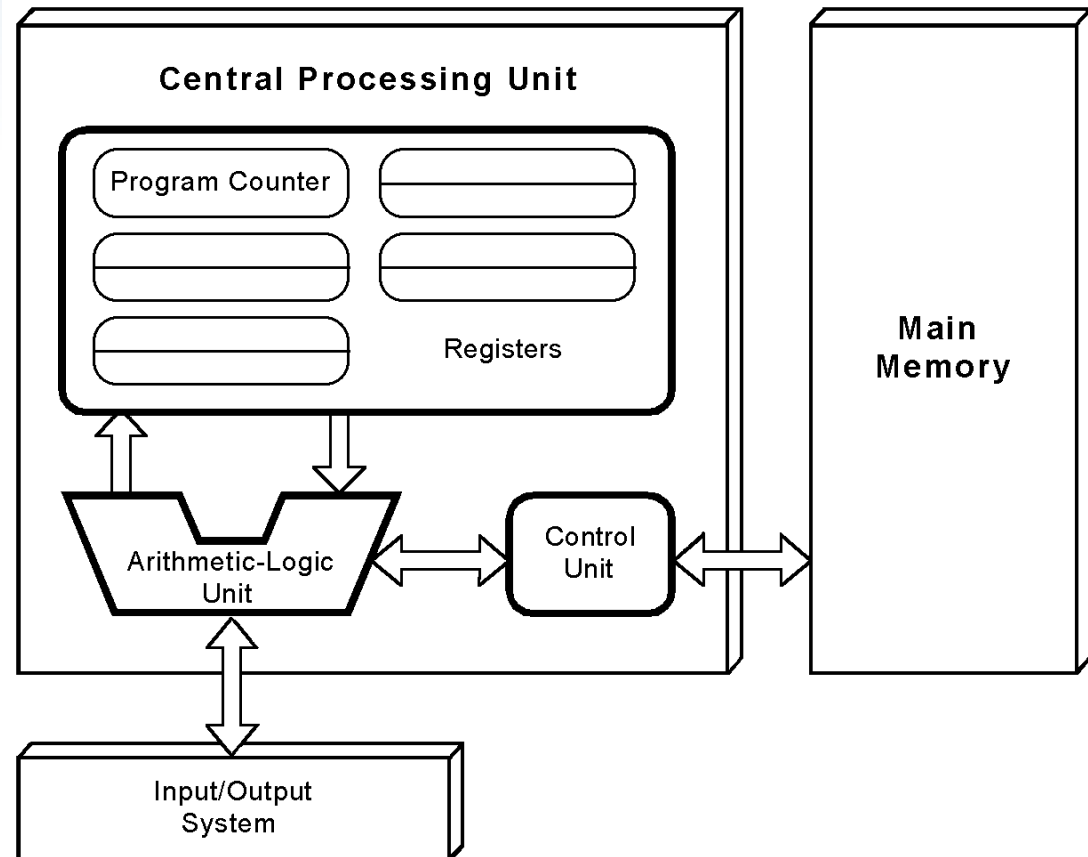
- Inventors of the ENIAC, John Mauchley and J. Presper Eckert, conceived of a computer that could store instructions in memory.
- The invention of this idea has since been ascribed to a mathematician, John von Neumann, who was a contemporary of Mauchley and Eckert.
- Stored-program computers have become known as von Neumann Architecture systems.

1.7 The von Neumann Model

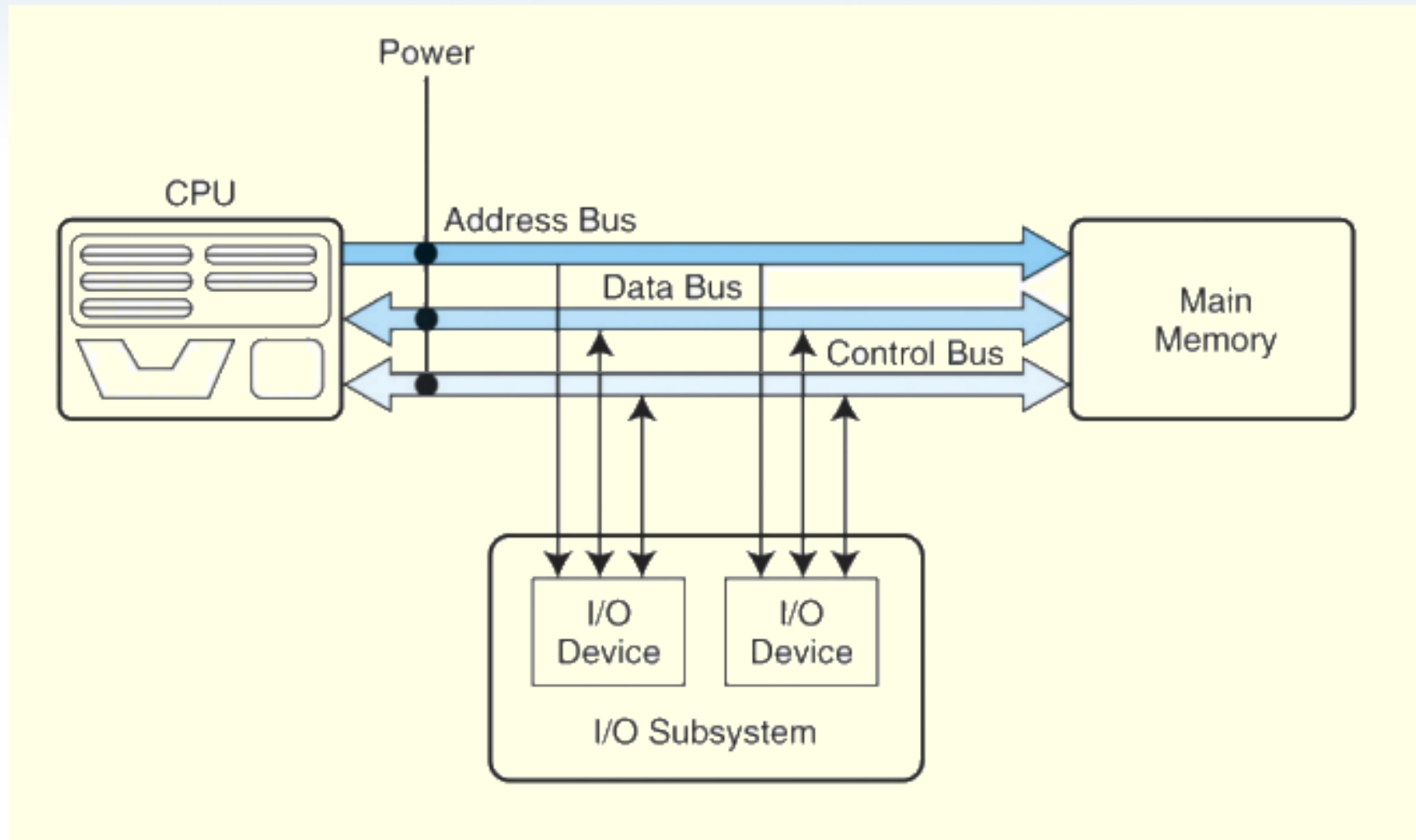
- Today's stored-program computers have the following characteristics:
 - Three hardware systems:
 - A central processing unit (CPU)
 - A main memory system
 - An I/O system
 - The capacity to carry out sequential instruction processing.
 - A single data path between the CPU and main memory.
 - This single path is known as the *von Neumann bottleneck*.

1.7 The von Neumann Model

- This is a general depiction of a von Neumann system:
- These computers employ a fetch-decode-execute cycle to run programs as follows . . .

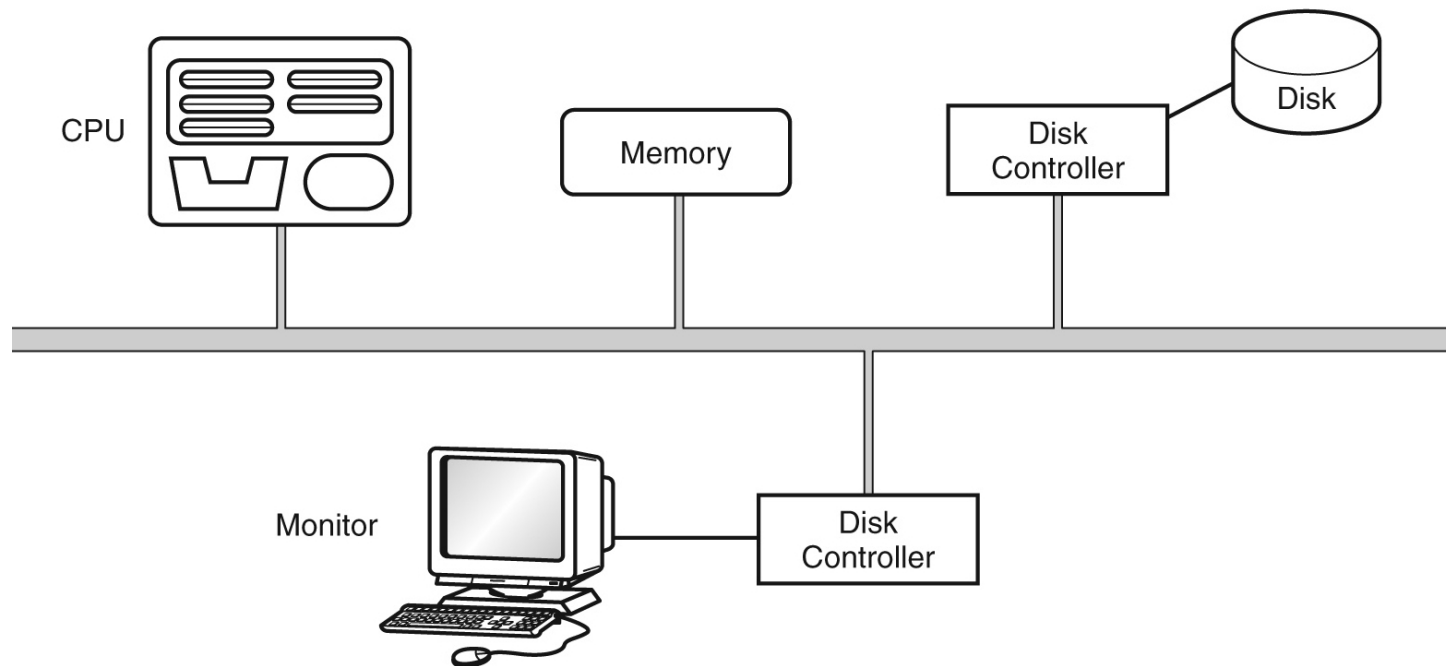


4.3 The Bus



4.3 The Bus

- A multipoint bus is shown below.
- Because a multipoint bus is a shared resource, access to it is controlled through protocols, which are built into the hardware.

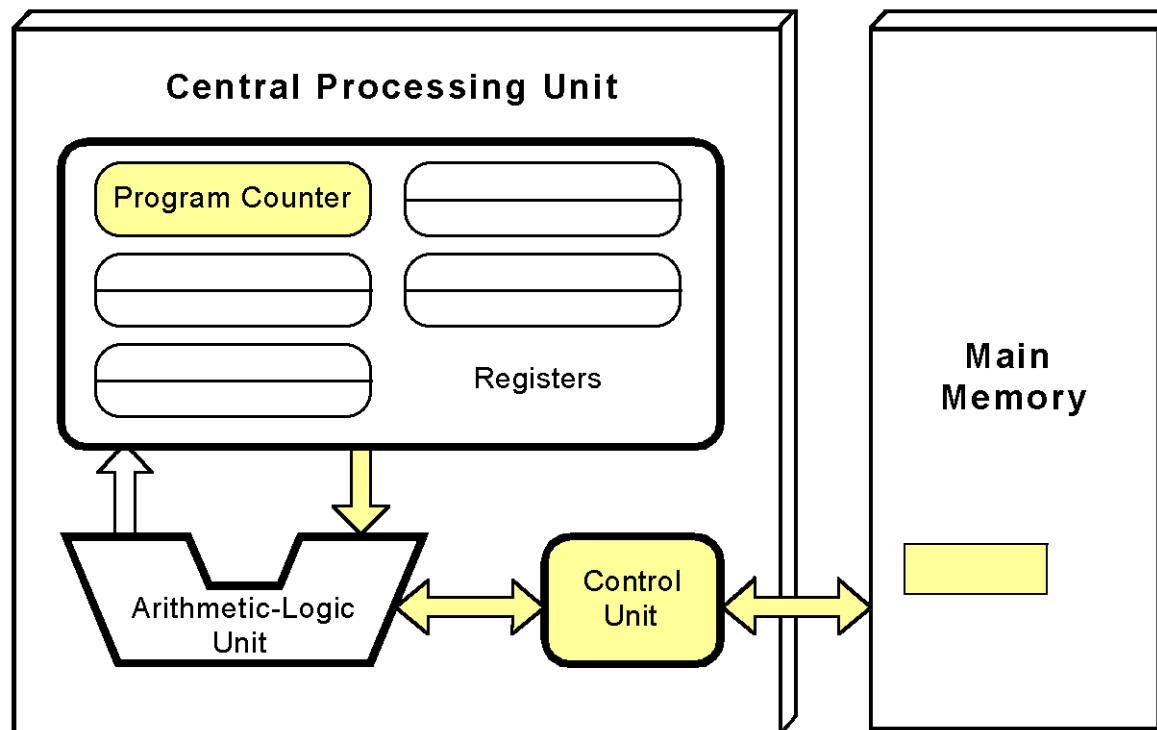


FETCH EXECUTE CYCLE



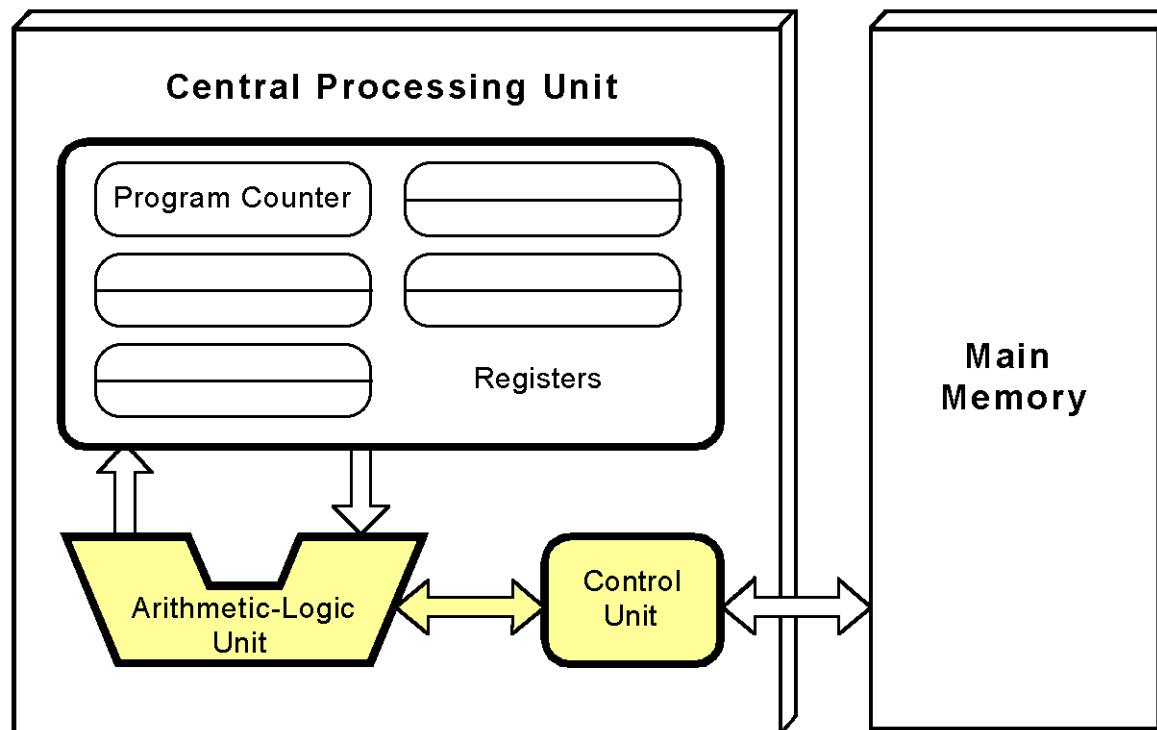
1.7 The von Neumann Model

- The control unit fetches the next instruction from memory using the program counter to determine where the instruction is located.



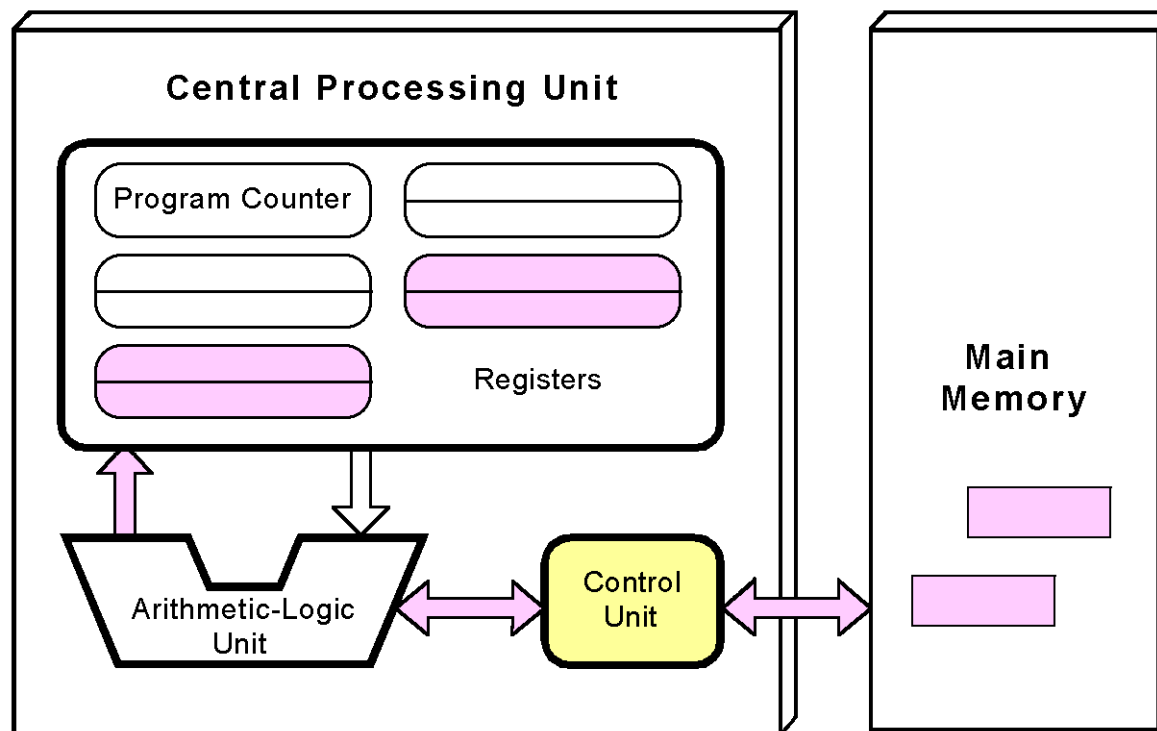
1.7 The von Neumann Model

- The instruction is decoded into a language that the ALU can understand.



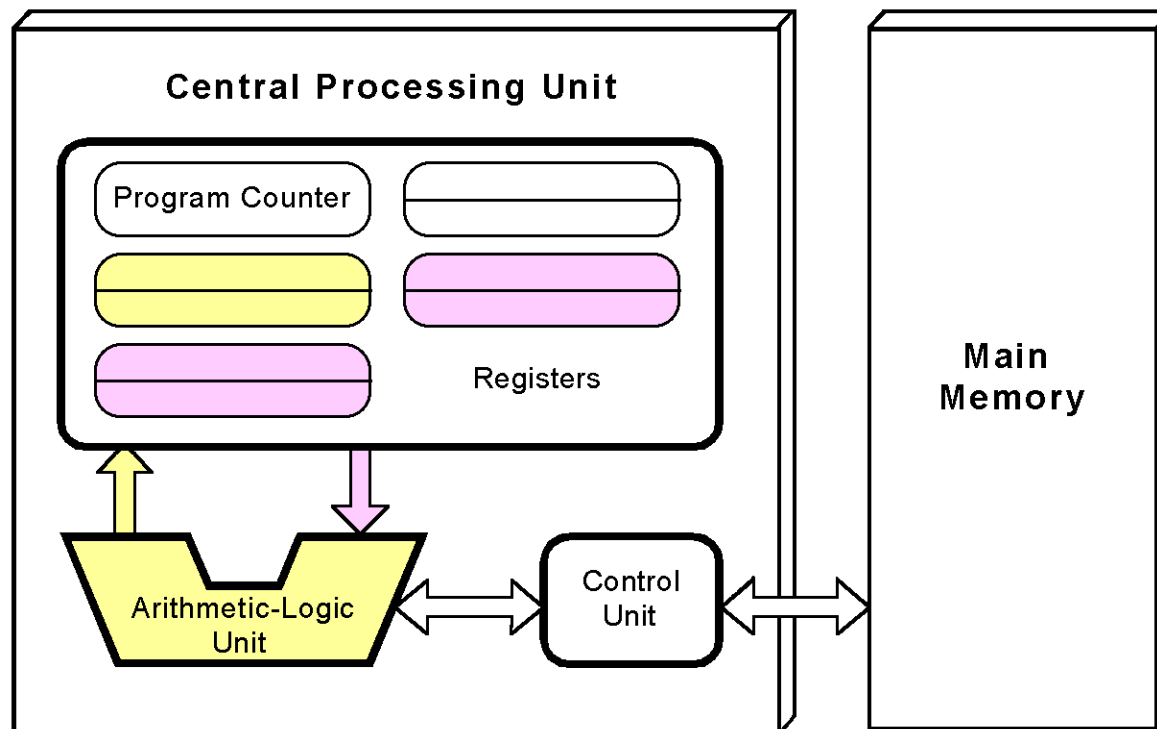
1.7 The von Neumann Model

- Any data operands required to execute the instruction are fetched from memory and placed into registers within the CPU.



1.7 The von Neumann Model

- The ALU executes the instruction and places results in registers or memory.



BASE CONVERSION



2.1 Introduction

- A *bit* is the most basic unit of information in a computer.
 - It is a state of “on” or “off” in a digital circuit.
 - Sometimes these states are “high” or “low” voltage instead of “on” or “off.”
- A *byte* is a group of eight bits.
 - A byte is the smallest possible *addressable* unit of computer storage.
 - The term, “addressable,” means that a particular byte can be retrieved according to its location in memory.

2.1 Introduction

- A *word* is a contiguous group of bytes.
 - Words can be any number of bits or bytes.
 - Word sizes of 16, 32, or 64 bits are most common.
 - In a word-addressable system, a word is the smallest addressable unit of storage.
- A group of four bits is called a *nibble*.
 - Bytes, therefore, consist of two nibbles: a “high-order nibble,” and a “low-order” nibble.

2.2 Positional Numbering Systems

- Bytes store numbers using the position of each bit to represent a power of 2.
 - The binary system is also called the base-2 system.
 - Our decimal system is the base-10 system. It uses powers of 10 for each position in a number.
 - Any integer quantity can be represented exactly using any base (or *radix*).

2.2 Positional Numbering Systems

- The decimal number 947 in powers of 10 is:

$$9 \times 10^2 + 4 \times 10^1 + 7 \times 10^0$$

- The decimal number 5836.47 in powers of 10 is:

$$\begin{aligned} &5 \times 10^3 + 8 \times 10^2 + 3 \times 10^1 + 6 \times 10^0 \\ &+ 4 \times 10^{-1} + 7 \times 10^{-2} \end{aligned}$$

2.2 Positional Numbering Systems

- The binary number 11001 in powers of 2 is:

$$\begin{aligned} & 1 \times 2^4 + 1 \times 2^3 + 0 \times 2^2 + 0 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0 \\ &= 16 + 8 + 0 + 0 + 1 = 25 \end{aligned}$$

- When the radix of a number is something other than 10, the base is denoted by a subscript.
 - Sometimes, the subscript 10 is added for emphasis:

$$11001_2 = 25_{10}$$

2.3 Converting Between Bases

- **Converting 190 to base 3...**
 - First we take the number that we wish to convert and divide it by the radix in which we want to express our result.
 - In this case, 3 divides 190 63 times, with a remainder of 1.
 - Record the quotient and the remainder.

$$\begin{array}{r} 3 \overline{) 190} \quad 1 \\ \underline{63} \end{array}$$

2.3 Converting Between Bases

- **Converting 190 to base 3...**
 - 63 is evenly divisible by 3.
 - Our remainder is zero, and the quotient is 21.

$$\begin{array}{r} 3 \overline{) 190} \quad 1 \\ 3 \overline{) 63} \quad 0 \\ \quad 21 \end{array}$$

2.3 Converting Between Bases

- **Converting 190 to base 3...**
 - Continue in this way until the quotient is zero.
 - In the final calculation, we note that 3 divides 2 zero times with a remainder of 2.
 - Our result, reading from bottom to top is:

$$190_{10} = 21001_3$$

3		190	1
3		63	0
3		21	0
3		7	1
3		2	2
		0	

2.3 Converting Between Bases

- **Using the multiplication method to convert the decimal 0.8125 to binary, we multiply by the radix 2.**
 - The first product carries into the units place.

$$\begin{array}{r} .8125 \\ \times \quad 2 \\ \hline 1.6250 \end{array}$$

2.3 Converting Between Bases

- **Converting 0.8125 to binary . . .**

- Ignoring the value in the units place at each step, continue multiplying each fractional part by the radix.

$$\begin{array}{r} .8125 \\ \times \quad 2 \\ \hline 1.6250 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} .6250 \\ \times \quad 2 \\ \hline 1.2500 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} .2500 \\ \times \quad 2 \\ \hline 0.5000 \end{array}$$

2.3 Converting Between Bases

- **Converting 0.8125 to binary . . .**

- You are finished when the product is zero, or until you have reached the desired number of binary places.
- Our result, reading from top to bottom is:

$$0.8125_{10} = 0.1101_2$$

- This method also works with any base. Just use the target radix as the multiplier.

$$\begin{array}{r} .8125 \\ \times \quad 2 \\ \hline 1.6250 \\ \\ .6250 \\ \times \quad 2 \\ \hline 1.2500 \\ \\ .2500 \\ \times \quad 2 \\ \hline 0.5000 \\ \\ .5000 \\ \times \quad 2 \\ \hline 1.0000 \end{array}$$

Converting Base 6 to Base 10

- $123.45_6 = ????.???_{10}$

$$123_6 = 1 \times 36_{10} + 2 \times 6_{10} + 3 \times 1_{10} = 51_{10}$$

$$0.45_6 = 4 \times 1/6_{10} + 5 \times 1/36_{10} = 0.805555..._{10}$$

$$123.45_6 = 51.805555..._{10}$$

Converting Base 10 to Base 6

- $754.94_{10} = 3254.5\ 35012\ 35012\ 35012..._6$

$$754_{10} = 11_6 \times 244_6 + 5_6 \times 14_6 + 4_6 \times 1_6 = ???_6$$

$$754 \div 6 = 125 \text{ remainder } 4$$

$$125 \div 6 = 20 \text{ remainder } 5$$

$$20 \div 6 = 3 \text{ remainder } 2$$

$$3 \div 6 = 0 \text{ remainder } 3$$

$$3254_6 = 3 \times 216_{10} + 2 \times 36_{10} + 5 \times 6_{10} + 4 \times 1 = 754_{10}$$

Converting Base 10 to Base 6 (cont)

• $0.94_{10} = ????.???_6$

$$0.94 \times 6 = 5.64 \rightarrow 5$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} 0.64 \times 6 = 3.84 \rightarrow 3 \\ 0.84 \times 6 = 5.04 \rightarrow 5 \\ 0.04 \times 6 = 0.24 \rightarrow 0 \\ 0.24 \times 6 = 1.44 \rightarrow 1 \\ 0.44 \times 6 = 2.64 \rightarrow 2 \\ 0.64 \times 6 = 3.84 \rightarrow 3 \end{array} \right.$$

$$0.94_{10} = 0.5350123501235012..._6$$

$$5/6 + 3/36 + 5/216 + 0 + 1/6^5 + 2/6^6 = 0.939986282..._{10}$$

2.3 Converting Between Bases

- The binary numbering system is the most important radix system for digital computers.
- However, it is difficult to read long strings of binary numbers -- and even a modestly-sized decimal number becomes a very long binary number.
 - For example: $11010100011011_2 = 13595_{10}$
- For compactness and ease of reading, binary values are usually expressed using the hexadecimal, or base-16, numbering system.

BASES

Decimal	Binary	Octal	Hexadecimal
0	0000	0	0
1	0001	1	1
2	0010	2	2
3	0011	3	3
4	0100	4	4
5	0101	5	5
6	0110	6	6
7	0111	7	7
8	1000	10	8
9	1001	11	9
10	1010	12	A
11	1011	13	B
12	1100	14	C
13	1101	15	D
14	1110	16	E
15	1111	17	F

2.3 Converting Between Bases

- The hexadecimal numbering system uses the numerals 0 through 9 and the letters A through F.
 - The decimal number 12 is C_{16} .
 - The decimal number 26 is $1A_{16}$.
- It is easy to convert between base 16 and base 2, because $16 = 2^4$.
- Thus, to convert from binary to hexadecimal, all we need to do is group the binary digits into groups of four.

A group of four binary digits is called a hextet

2.3 Converting Between Bases

- Using groups of hextets, the binary number 11010100011011_2 ($= 13595_{10}$) in hexadecimal is:

0011	0101	0001	1011
3	5	1	B

If the number of bits is not a multiple of 4, pad on the left with zeros.

- Octal (base 8) values are derived from binary by using groups of three bits ($8 = 2^3$):

011	010	100	011	011
3	2	4	3	3

Octal was very useful when computers used six-bit words.

NEXT TIME

- Representing numbers
- Representing negative numbers
- Floating point numbers (briefly)
- Characters and strings