

UNIT 8B
Computer Organization:
Levels of Abstraction

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Last Time

- Boolean Logic (Algebra)
 - Truth Tables
 - Properties of AND and OR
 - De Morgan's Law
- Basic Gates:
 - AND, OR, NOT, NAND, NOR, XOR
 - How we can combine them to implement circuits that compute specific functions (also expressed as Boolean expressions).

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MORE CIRCUIT EXAMPLES

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Adding Binary Numbers

A: 0 0 1 1
B: 0 1 0 1

0 1 1 1 0

Adding two 1-bit numbers without taking the carry into account



Sum = A ⊕ B

How can we handle the carry?

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Adding Binary Numbers

A: 0 0 1 1
B: 0 1 0 1

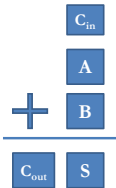
0 1 1 1 0



Half Adder: adds two single digits

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A Full Adder



| A | B | C_{in} | C_{out} | S |
|---|---|----------|-----------|---|
| 0 | 0 | 0 | | |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | | |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | | |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | | |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | | |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | | |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | | |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | | |

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A Full Adder

| | | |
|---|-----------|---|
| | C_{in} | |
| | A | |
| + | B | |
| | C_{out} | S |

| A | B | C_{in} | C_{out} | S |
|---|---|----------|-----------|---|
| 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 |

$$S = A \oplus B \oplus C_{in}$$

$$C_{out} = ((A \oplus B) \wedge C_{in}) \vee (A \wedge B)$$

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A Full Adder

| | | |
|---|-----------|---|
| | C_{in} | |
| | A | |
| + | B | |
| | C_{out} | S |

| A | B | C_{in} | C_{out} | S |
|---|---|----------|-----------|---|
| 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 |

S: 1 when there is an odd number of bits that are 1

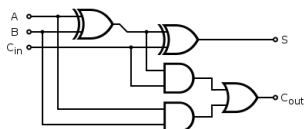
C_{out} : 1 if both A and B are 1 or, one of the bits and the carry in are 1.

$$S = A \oplus B \oplus C_{in}$$

$$C_{out} = ((A \oplus B) \wedge C_{in}) \vee (A \wedge B)$$

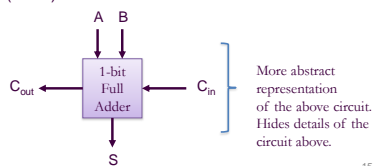
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Full Adder (FA)



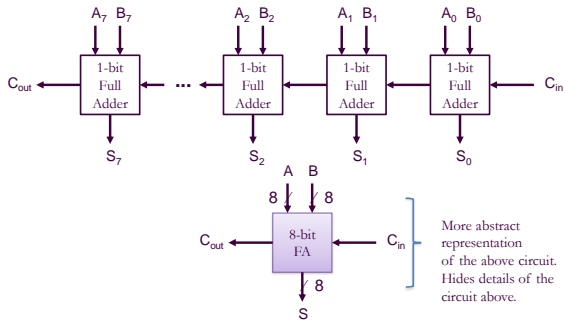
$$S = A \oplus B \oplus C_{in}$$

$$C_{out} = ((A \oplus B) \wedge C_{in}) \vee (A \wedge B)$$



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8-bit Full Adder



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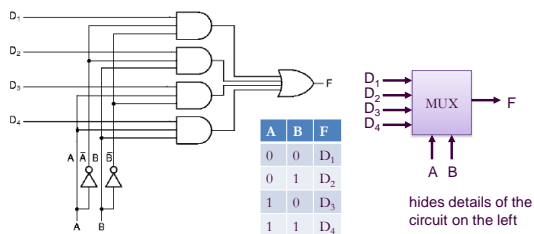
Control Circuits

- In addition to circuits for basic logical and arithmetic operations, there are also circuits that determine the order in which operations are carried out and to select the correct data values to be processed.

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Multiplexer (MUX)

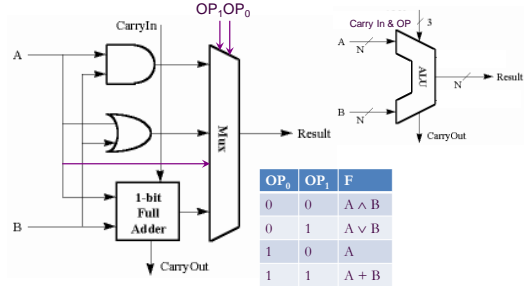
- A multiplexer chooses one of its inputs.
 2^n input lines, n selector lines, and 1 output line



<http://www.cise.ufl.edu/~mssz/CompOrg/CDAIntro.html>

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Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU)

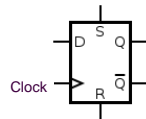
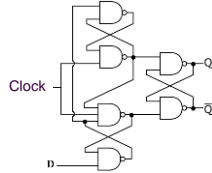


<http://cs-ab-pc3.massey.ac.nz/notes/59304/4.html>

Depending on the OP code Mux chooses the result of one of the functions (and, or, identity, addition)

Flip Flop

- A flip flop is a sequential circuit that is able to maintain (save) a state.
 - Example: D (Data) Flip-Flop – sets output Q to input D when clock turns on. (Images from Wikipedia)



S=Set Q to 1,
R=Reset Q to 0

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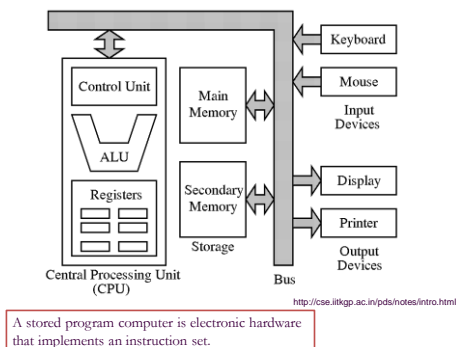
BUILDING A COMPLETE COMPUTER FROM PARTS

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Computing Machines

- An **instruction** is a single arithmetic or logical operation.
- A **program** is a sequence of instructions that causes the desired function to be calculated.
- A **computing system** is a combination of program and machine (computer).
- How can we build a computing system that calculates the desired function specified by a program?

Stored Program Computer



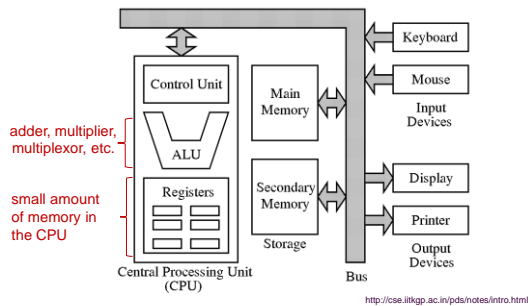
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Von Neumann Architecture

- Bid idea: Data and instructions to manipulate the data are both bit sequences
- Modern computers built according to the Von Neumann Architecture includes separate units
 - To process information (CPU): reads and executes instructions of a program in the order prescribed by the program
 - To store information (memory)

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Stored Program Computer



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Central Processing Unit (CPU)

- A CPU contains:
 - Arithmetic Logic Unit to perform computation
 - Registers to hold information
 - Instruction register (current instruction being executed)
 - Program counter (to hold location of next instruction in memory)
 - Accumulator (to hold computation result from ALU)
 - Data register(s) (to hold other important data for future use)
 - Control unit to regulate flow of information and operations that are performed at each instruction step

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Memory

- The simplest unit of storage is a bit (1 or 0). Bits are grouped into bytes (8 bits).
- Memory is a collection of cells each with a unique physical address.
 - We use the generic term cell rather than byte or word because the number of bits in each *addressable location* varies from one machine to another.
 - A machine that can generate, for example, 32-bit addresses, can utilize a memory that contains up to 2^{32} memory cells.

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Memory Layout

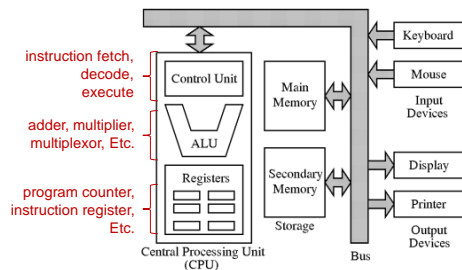
| Address | Content | Address | Content |
|---------|---------|-----------|--------------|
| 100: | 50 | 01100100: | ... 01100100 |
| 104: | 42 | 01101000: | ... 01010100 |
| 108: | 85 | 01101100: | ... 01010101 |
| 112: | 71 | 01110000: | ... 01000111 |
| 116: | 99 | 01110100: | ... 01100011 |

We saw this picture in Unit 6. It hid the bit representation for readability. Assumes that memory is byte addressable and each integer occupies 4 bytes .

In this picture and in reality, addresses and memory contents are sequences of bits.

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Stored Program Computer



Two specialized registers: **the instruction register** holds the current instruction to be executed and **the program counter** contains the address of the next instruction to be executed.

Processing Instructions

- Both data and instructions are stored in memory as bit patterns
 - Instructions stored in contiguous memory locations
 - Data stored in a different part of memory
- The address of the first instruction is loaded into the program counter and the processing cycle starts.

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Fetch-Decode-Execute Cycle

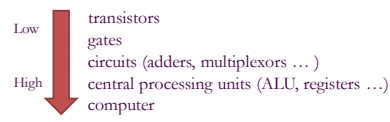
- Modern computers include **control logic** that implements the **fetch-decode-execute** cycle introduced by John von Neumann:
 - **Fetch** next instruction from memory into the instruction register.
 - **Decode** instruction to a control signal and get any data it needs (possibly from memory).
 - **Execute** instruction with data in ALU and store results (possibly into memory).
 - Repeat.

Note that all of these steps are implemented with circuits of the kind we have seen in this unit.

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POWER OF ABSRACTION

Using Abstraction in Computer Design

- We can use layers of abstraction to hide details of the computer design.
 - We can work in any layer, not needing to know how the lower layers work or how the current layer fits into the larger system.
- 
- A component at a higher abstraction layer uses components from a lower abstraction layer without having to know the details of how it is built. It only needs to know what it does.

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Abstraction in Programming

- The set of all operations that can be executed by a processor is called its **instruction set**.
 - Instructions are built into hardware: electronics of the CPU recognize binary representations of the specific instructions. That means each CPU has its own machine language that it understands.
- But we can write programs without thinking about on what machine our program will run. This is because we can write programs in high-level languages that are abstractions of machine level instructions.

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A High-Level Program

```
# This programs displays "Hello, World!"
print "Hello world!"
```

A Low-Level Program

```
title Hello World Program
; This program displays "Hello, World!"

dosseg
.model small
.stack 100h

.data
hello_message db 'Hello, World!',0dh,0ah,'$'

.code
main proc
mov ax,0data
mov ds,ax

mov ah,9
mov dx,offset hello_message
int 21h

mov ax,4C00h
int 21h
main endp
end main
```

Obtaining Machine Language Instructions

- Programs are typically written in higher-level languages and then translated into machine language (executable code).
- A **compiler** is a program that translates code written in one language into another language.
- An **interpreter** translates the instructions one line at a time into something that can be executed by the computer's hardware.

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Summary

- A **computing system** is a combination of program and machine (computer). In this lecture, we focused on how a machine can be designed using levels of abstraction:
 - gates → circuits for elementary operations →
 - basic processing units → computer