

UNIT I

Syllabus: Basic Structure Of Computers: Functional unit, Basic Operational concepts, Bus structures, System Software, Performance, The history of computer development.

Computer: Computer is a fast electronic calculating machine that accepts digitized input information, processing it according to a list of internally stored instructions and produces the resulting output information. The list of instructions is called as a Computer program and the internal storage is called as Computer memory.

Types of Languages: Just as humans use language to communicate, and different regions have different languages, computers also have their own languages that are specific to them. Different kinds of languages have been developed to perform different types of work on the computer. Basically, languages can be divided into two categories according to how the computer understands them.

➤ **Low-Level Languages:** A language that corresponds directly to a specific machine. Low-level computer languages are either machine codes or are very close them. A computer cannot understand instructions given to it in high-level languages or in English. It can only understand and execute instructions given in the form of machine language i.e. binary. There are two types of low-level languages:

- **Machine Language:** a language that is directly interpreted into the hardware. Machine language is the lowest and most elementary level of programming language and was the first type of programming language to be developed. Machine language is basically the only language that a computer can understand and it is usually written in hex. It is represented inside the computer by a string of binary digits (bits) 0 and 1. The symbol 0 stands for the absence of an electric pulse and the 1 stands for the presence of an electric pulse. Since a computer is capable of recognizing electric signals, it understands machine language.

Advantages:

- Machine language makes fast and efficient use of the computer.
- It requires no translator to translate the code. It is directly understood by the computer.

Disadvantages:

- All operation codes have to be remembered
- All memory addresses have to be remembered.
- It is hard to amend or find errors in a program written in the machine language.
- **Assembly Language:** A slightly more user-friendly language that directly corresponds to machine language. Assembly language was developed to overcome some of the many inconveniences of machine language. This is another low-level but very important language in which operation codes and operands are given in the form of alphanumeric symbols instead of 0's and 1's.

These alphanumeric symbols are known as mnemonic codes and can combine in a maximum of five-letter combinations e.g. ADD for addition, SUB for subtraction, START, LABEL etc. Because of this feature, assembly language is also known as 'Symbolic Programming Language.'

Advantages:

- Assembly language is easier to understand and use as compared to machine language.
- It is easy to locate and correct errors.
- It is easily modified.

Disadvantages:

- Like machine language, it is also machine dependent/specific.
- Since it is machine dependent, the programmer also needs to understand the hardware.
- **High-Level Languages:** Any language that is independent of the machine. High-level computer languages use formats that are similar to English. The purpose of developing high-level languages was to enable people to write programs easily, in their own native language environment (English).

High-level languages are basically symbolic languages that use English words and/or mathematical symbols rather than mnemonic codes. Each instruction in the high-level language is translated into many machine language instructions that the computer can understand.

Advantages:

- High-level languages are user-friendly
- They are easier to learn.
- They are easier to maintain
- A program written in a high-level language can be translated into many machine languages and can run on any computer
- programs developed in a high-level language can be run on any computer text

Disadvantages:

- A high-level language has to be translated into the machine language by a translator, which takes up time

Computer Types: Basing capacity, technology used and performance of computer, they are classified into two types

- According to computational ability
- According to generation

According to computational ability (Based on Size, cost and performance):

There are mainly 4 types of computers. These include:

- a) **Micro computers**
- b) **Mainframe computers**
- c) **Mini computers**
- d) **Super computer**

a) Micro computers: -

Micro computers are the most common type of computers in existence today, whether at work in school or on the desk at home. These computers include:

1. **Desktop computer**
2. **Personal digital assistants (more commonly known as PDA's)**
3. **Palmtop computers**
4. **Laptop and notebook computers**

Micro computers were the smallest, least powerful and least expensive of the computers of the time. The first Micro computers could only perform one task at a time, while bigger computers ran multi-tasking operating systems, and served multiple users. Referred to as a personal computer or "desktop computer", Micro computers are generally meant to service one user (person) at a time. By the late 1990s, all personal computers run a multi-tasking operating system, but are still intended for a single user.

b) Mainframe Computers :-

The term Mainframe computer was created to distinguish the traditional, large, institutional computer intended to service multiple users from the smaller, single user machines. These computers are capable of handling and processing very large amounts of data easily and quickly. **A mainframe speed is so fast that it**

is measured in millions of tasks per milliseconds (MTM). While other computers became smaller, Mainframe computers stayed large to maintain the ever growing memory capacity and speed.

Mainframe computers are used in large institutions such as government, banks and large corporations. These institutions were early adopters of computer use, long before personal computers were available to individuals. "Mainframe" often refers to computers compatible with the computer architectures established in the 1960's. Thus, the origin of the architecture also affects the classification, not just processing power.

c) Mini Computers / Workstation :-

Mini computers, or Workstations, were computers that are one step above the micro or personal computers and a step below mainframe computers. They are intended to serve one user, but contain special hardware enhancements not found on a personal computer. They run operating systems that are normally associated with mainframe computers, usually one of the variants of the UNIX operating system.

d) Super Computer:-

A Super computer is a specialized variation of the mainframe. Where a mainframe is intended to perform many tasks, a Super computer tends to focus on performing a single program of intense numerical calculations. Weather forecasting systems, Automobile design systems, extreme graphic generator for example, are usually based on super computers.

Type	Word length	Memory	Processing speed	Application
Super computer	64-96 bits	256MB	400-10000mips	Sophisticated Scientific problems, Weather forecasting, Aerodynamics, Atomic Research etc
Main Frame	48-64 bits	128mb	30-100mips	Large industries, banks, airlines, NGO's.
Mini	32bits	96mb	10-30mips	Interactive and multi user environment.
Micro	8-32 bits	64MB	1-5MIPS	General purpose calculations, Industrial Control, Office Automation, e.t.c

According to Generations of Computers:

The history of computer development is often referred to in reference to the different generations of computing devices. Each generation of computer is characterized by a major technological development that fundamentally changed the way computers operate, resulting in increasingly smaller, cheaper, more powerful and more efficient and reliable devices.

a) First Generation (1940-1956): Vacuum Tubes:

The first computers used vacuum tubes for circuitry and magnetic drums for memory, and were often enormous, taking up entire rooms. They were very expensive to operate and in addition to using a great deal of electricity, generated a lot of heat, which was often the cause of malfunctions.

First generation computers relied on machine language, the lowest-level programming language understood by computers, to perform operations, and they could only solve one problem at a time. Input was based on punched cards and paper tape, and output was displayed on printouts.

Example: The UNIVAC and ENIAC computers are examples of first-generation computing devices. The UNIVAC was the first commercial computer delivered to a business client, the U.S. Census Bureau in 1951.

b) Second Generation (1956-1963): Transistors:-

Transistors replaced vacuum tubes and ushered in the second generation of computers. The transistor was invented in 1947 but did not see widespread use in computers until the late 1950s. The

transistor was far superior to the vacuum tube, allowing computers to become smaller, faster, cheaper, more energy-efficient and more reliable than their first-generation predecessors. Though the transistor still generated a great deal of heat that subjected the computer to damage, it was a vast improvement over the vacuum tube. Second-generation computers still relied on punched cards for input and printouts for output.

Second-generation computers moved from cryptic binary machine language to symbolic, or assembly, languages, which allowed programmers to specify instructions in words. High-level programming languages were also being developed at this time, such as early versions of COBOL and FORTRAN. These were also the first computers that stored their instructions in their memory, which moved from a magnetic drum to magnetic core technology.

The first computers of this generation were developed for the atomic energy industry.

c) Third Generation (1964-1971): Integrated Circuits

The development of the integrated circuit was the hallmark of the third generation of computers. Transistors were miniaturized and placed on silicon chips, called semiconductors, which drastically increased the speed and efficiency of computers.

Instead of punched cards and printouts, users interacted with third generation computers through keyboards and monitors and interfaced with an operating system, which allowed the device to run many different applications at one time with a central program that monitored the memory. Computers for the first time became accessible to a mass audience because they were smaller and cheaper than their predecessors.

d) Fourth Generation (1971-Present): Microprocessors

The microprocessor brought the fourth generation of computers, as thousands **of integrated circuits were built onto a single silicon chip**. What in the first generation filled an entire room could now fit in the palm of the hand. **The Intel 4004 chip**, developed in 1971, located all the components of the computer—from the central processing unit and memory to input/output controls—on a single chip.

In 1981 IBM introduced its first computer for the home user, and in 1984 Apple introduced the Macintosh. Microprocessors also moved out of the realm of desktop computers and into many areas of life as more and more everyday products began to use microprocessors.

As these small computers became more powerful, they could be linked together to form networks, which eventually led to the development of the Internet. Fourth generation computers also saw the development of GUIs, the mouse and handheld devices.

e) Fifth Generation (Present and Beyond): Artificial Intelligence

Fifth generation computing devices, based on artificial intelligence, are still in development, though there are some applications, such as voice recognition, that are being used today. The use of parallel processing and superconductors is helping to make artificial intelligence a reality. Quantum computation and molecular and nanotechnology will radically change the face of computers in years to come. The goal of fifth-generation computing is to develop devices that respond to natural language input and are capable of learning and self-organization.

Functional Unit (Or) Structure of a Computer System :

Every Digital computer systems consist of five distinct functional units. These units are as follows:

1. Input unit
2. Memory unit
3. Arithmetic logic unit
4. Output unit
5. Control Unit

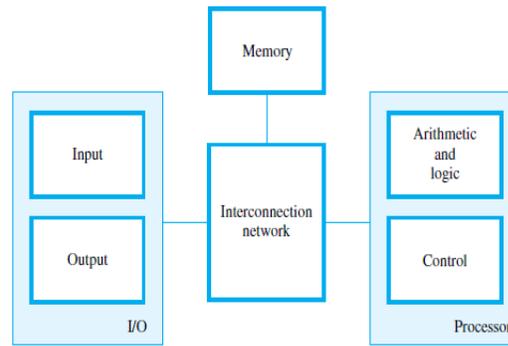


Figure 1.1 Basic functional units of a computer.

These units are interconnected by electrical cables to permit communication between them. A computer must receive both data and program statements to function properly and be able to solve problems. The method of feeding data and programs to a computer is accomplished by an input device. **Computer input devices** read data from a source, such as magnetic disks, and translate that data into electronic impulses for transfer into the CPU. Example for input devices are a keyboard, a mouse, or a scanner. **Central Processing Unit** The brain of a computer system is the central processing unit (CPU). The CPU processes data transferred to it from one of the various input devices. It then transfers either an intermediate or final result of the CPU to one or more output devices. A central control section and work areas are required to perform calculations or manipulate data. The CPU is the computing center of the system. It consists of a control section, an arithmetic-logic section, and an internal storage section (main memory). Each section within the CPU serves a specific function and has a particular relationship with the other sections within the CPU.

Input Unit: An input device is usually a keyboard or mouse, the input device is the conduit through which data and instructions enter a computer.

1. The most common input device is the *keyboard*, which accepts letters, numbers, and commands from the user.
2. Another important type of input device is *the mouse*, which lets you select options from on-screen menus. You use a mouse by moving it across a flat surface and pressing its buttons. A variety of other input devices work with personal computers, too:
3. The trackball and touchpad are variations of the mouse and enable you to draw or point on the screen.

The joystick is a swiveling lever mounted on a stationary base that is well suited for playing video games

Memory unit: memory is used to store programs and data. There are two classes of storage, called primary and secondary.

Primary storage: It is a fast memory that operates at electronic speeds. Programs must stay in memory while they are being executed. The memory contains a large number of semiconductor storage cells, each capable of storing one bit of information. To provide easy access to any word in the memory, a distinct address is associated with each word location. Addresses are numbers that identify successive locations. A given word is accessed by specifying its address and issuing a control command.

The number of bits in each word is referred as the word length of the computer. Typical word lengths range from 16 to 64 bits.

Programs must reside in the memory during execution. Instructions and data can be written into the memory or read out under the control of the processor.

1. Memory in which any location can be reached in a short and fixed amount of time after specifying its address is called random access memory (RAM).
2. The time required to access one word is called the memory access time.
3. The small, fast, Ram units are called caches. They are tightly coupled with the processor and are often contained on the same integrated circuit chip to achieve high performance.
4. The largest and slowest units are referred to as the main memory.

Secondary storage: Secondary storage is used when large amounts of data and many programs have to be stored, particularly for information that is accessed infrequently.

Examples for secondary storage devices are *Magnetic Disks, Tape and Optical disks*.

Arithmetic-Logic Unit:- The arithmetic-logic section performs arithmetic operations, such as addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division.

Arithmetic-Logic Unit usually called the ALU is a digital circuit that performs two types of operations— arithmetic and logical.

Arithmetic operations are the fundamental mathematical operations consisting of addition, subtraction, multiplication and division.

Logical operations consist of comparisons. That is, two pieces of data are compared to see whether one is equal to, less than, or greater than the other. The ALU is a fundamental building block of the central processing unit of a computer.

Out put Unit:- An **output device** is any piece of computer hardware equipment used to communicate the results of data processing carried out by an information processing system (such as a computer) to the outside world.

In computing, input/output, or I/O, refers to the communication between an information processing system (such as a computer), and the outside world. Inputs are the signals or data sent to the system, and outputs are the signals or data sent by the system to the outside.

Examples of output devices:

- Speaker
- Headphones
- Screen
- Printer

Control Unit: All activities inside the machine are directed and controlled by the control unit. **Control Unit** is the part of the computer's central processing unit (CPU), which directs the **operation** of the processor. A **control unit** works by receiving input information to which it converts into **control** signals, which are then sent to the central processor

The Basic Operational Concepts of a Computer:-

1. The program contains of a list of instructions is stored in the memory.
2. Individual instructions are brought from the memory into the processor, which execute the specified operations.
3. Data to be used as operands are also stored in the memory.

Add R1,R2,R3

In This instruction add is the operation perform on operands R1,R2 and place the result stored in R3.

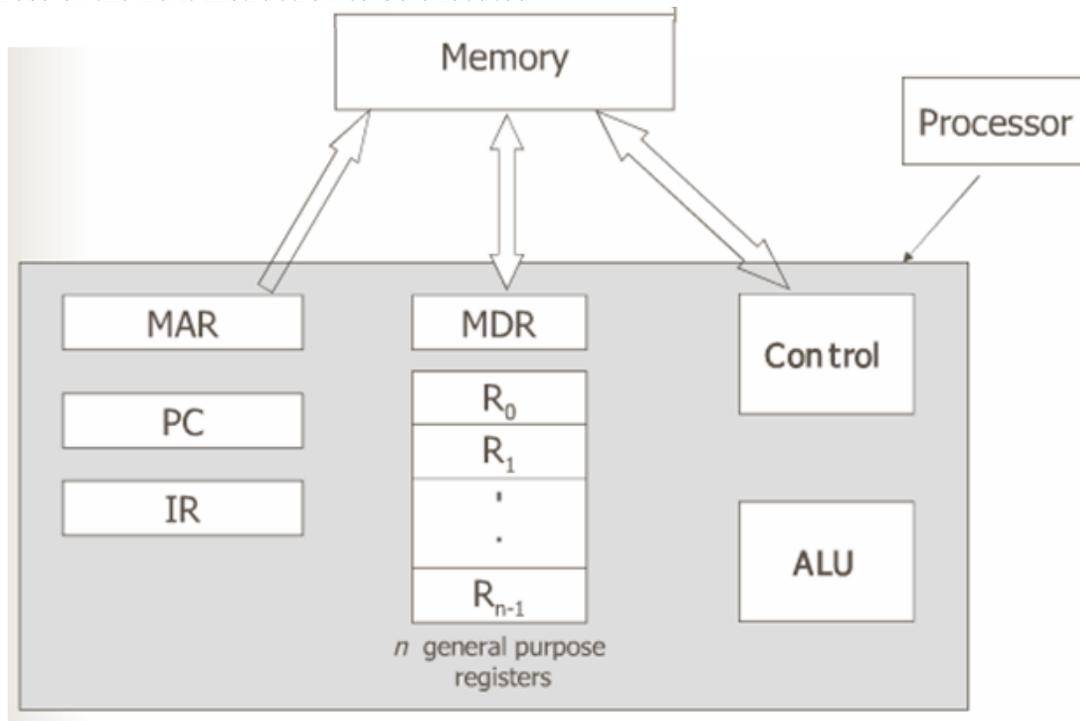
The top level view of the computer is as follows:

1. Instruction register (IR):

1. **The instruction register holds the instruction that is currently being executed.**
2. Its output is available to the control circuits, which generate the timing signals that control the various processing elements involved in executing the instruction.

2. Program counter (PC):

1. The program counter is another specialized register.
2. It keeps track of the execution of a program.
3. **It contains the memory address of the next instruction to be fetched and executed.**
4. During the execution of an instruction, the contents of the PC are updated to correspond to the address of the next instruction to be executed



3. Memory address register (MAR) & Memory data register(MDR):-

1. These two registers facilitate communication with the memory.
2. The MAR holds **the address of the location to be accessed.**
3. The MDR contains the **data to be written into or read out of the addressed location.**

4. Operating steps for Program execution (or) Instruction Cycle :

1. **Execution of the program (stored in memory) starts when the PC is set to point to the first instruction of the program.**
2. The contents of the PC are transferred to the MAR and a Read control signal is sent to the memory.
3. **The addressed word is read out of the memory and loaded into the MDR. Next, the contents of the MDR are transferred to the IR. At this point, the instruction is ready to be decoded and executed.**
4. **If the instruction involves an operation to be performed by the ALU, it is necessary to obtain the required operands.**

5. If an operand resides in memory (it could also be in a general purpose register in the processor), it has to be fetched by sending its address to the MAR and initiating a Read cycle.
6. When the operand has been read from the memory into the MDR, it is transferred from the MDR to ALU.
7. After one or more operands are fetched in this way, the ALU can perform the desired operation.
8. If the result of the operation is to be stored in the memory, then the result is sent to the MDR.
9. The address of the location where the result is to be stored is sent to the MAR, and a write cycle is initiated.
10. At some point during the execution of the current instruction, the contents of the PC are incremented so that the PC points to the next instruction to be executed.
11. Thus, as soon as the execution of the current instruction is completed, a new instruction fetch may be started.
12. In addition to transferring data between the memory and the processor, the computer accepts data from input devices and sends data to output devices. Thus, some machine instructions with the ability to handle I/O transfers are provided.

Bus Structures:-

1. **BUS:** A group of lines(wires) that serves as a **connecting path for several devices of a computer is called a bus.**

The following are different types of busses:

1. **Address Bus**
2. **Data Bus**
3. **Control Bus**

The Data bus Carries(transfer) data from one component (source) to other component (destination) connected to it. The data bus consists of 8, 16, 32 or more parallel signal lines. The data bus lines are bi-directional. This means that CPU can read data on these lines from memory or from a port, as well as send data out on these lines to a memory location.

The Address bus is the set of lines that carry(transfer) address information about where in memory the data is to be transferred to or from. It is an unidirectional bus. **The address bus consists of 16, 20, 24 or more parallel signal lines.** On these lines CPU sends out the address of the memory location.

The Control Bus carries the **Control and timing information.** Including these three the following are various types of busses. They are

System Bus: A System Bus is usually a **combination of address bus, data bus, and control bus respectively.**

Internal Bus: The bus that operates **only with the internal circuitry of the CPU.**

External Bus: Buses which connects computer to **external devices is nothing but external bus.**

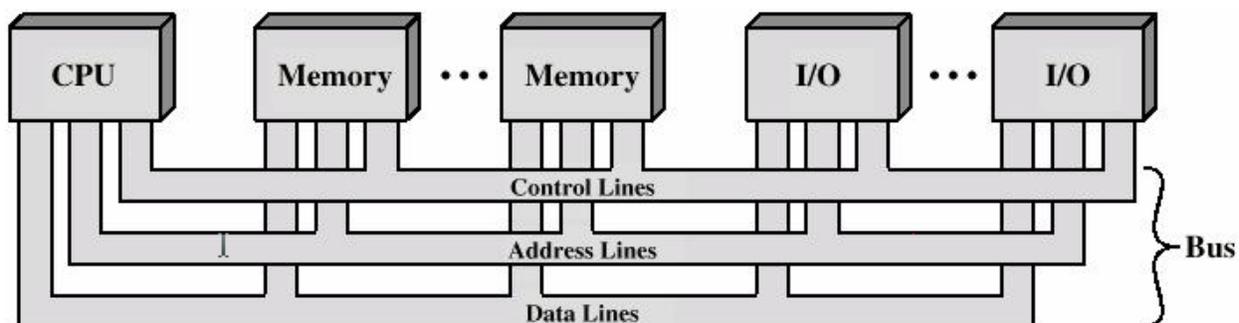
Back Plane: A Back Plane bus includes a row of connectors into which system modules can be plugged in.

I/O Bus: The bus used by I/O devices to communicate with the CPU is usually referred as I/O bus.

Synchronous Bus: While using Synchronous bus, data transmission between source and destination units takes place in a **given timeslot** which is already known to these units.

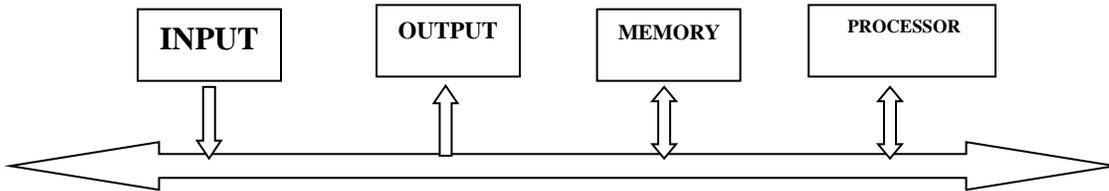
Asynchronous Bus: In this case the data transmission is governed by a special concept. That is handshaking control signals.

The Bus interconnection Scheme:-



Single bus structure :-

1. A group of lines(wires) that serves as a **connecting path for several devices of a computer is called a bus.**
2. **In addition to the lines that carry the data, the bus must have lines for address and control purposes.**
3. The simplest way to interconnect functional units is to use a single bus, as shown below.



4. All units are connected to this bus. Because the bus can be used for only one transfer at a time, only two units can actively use the bus at any given time.
5. Bus control lines are used to arbitrate multiple requests for use of the bus.

ADVANTAGE:

Its is **low cost and its flexibility** for attaching peripheral devices

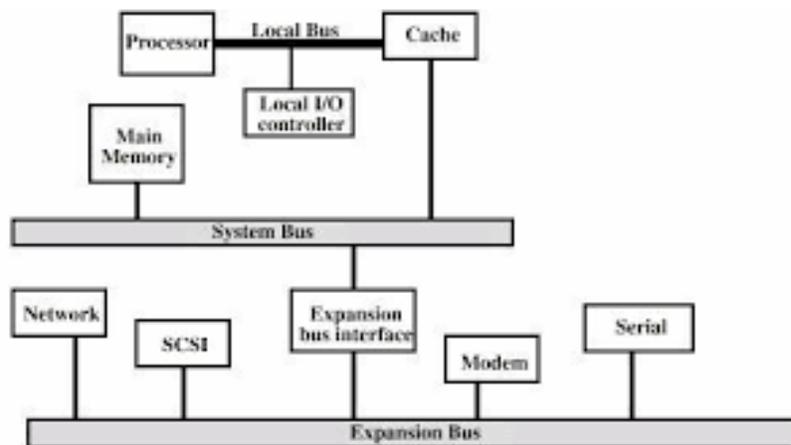
DISADVANTAGE:

low performance because at time only one transfer

Traditional / Multiple bus Structure: There is a local bus that connects the processor to cache memory and that may support one or more local devices. There is also a cache memory controller that connects this cache not only to this local bus but also to the system bus.

On the system, the bus is attached to the main memory modules. In this way, I/O transfers to and from the main memory across the system bus do not interfere with the processor's activity. An expansion bus interface buffers data transfers between the system bus and the I/O controllers on the expansion bus.

Some typical I/O devices that might be attached to the expansion bus include: Network cards (LAN), SCSI (Small Computer System Interface), Modem, Serial Com etc..



Advantages: better performance

Disadvantage: increased cost.

Software:-

A total computer system includes both software and Hardware .

1. **Hardware consists of physical components** and all associated equipment.
2. **Software refers to the collection programs that are written for the computer** and writing a program for a computer consists of specifying, directly or indirectly a sequence of machine instructions.
3. The computer software consists of the instructions and data that the computer manipulates to perform various data processing tasks.

Types:

1. Application software,
2. System software

System software: System software is used to run application software.

System software is a collection of programs that are executed as needed to perform functions such as

1. Receiving and interpreting user commands.
2. Entering and editing application programs and sorting them as files in secondary storage devices.(Editor)
3. Managing the storage and retrieval of files in secondary storage devices.
4. Running standard application programs such as word processors, spread sheets, or games, with data supplied by the user.
5. Controlling I/O units to receive input information and produce output results.
6. Translating programs from high level language to low level language.(Assemblers)
7. Linking and running user-written application program with existing standard library routines, such as numerical computation packages.(Linker)

Application software: Application software allows end users to accomplish one or more specific (not directly computer development related) tasks. Its usually written in high level languages, such as c ,c++, java. Typical applications include:

- **Word processing**
- **spreadsheet**
- **computer games**
- **databases**
- **industrial automation**
- **business software**
- quantum chemistry and solid state physics software
- telecommunications (i.e., the internet and everything that flows on it)
- educational software
- medical software
- military software
- molecular modeling software
- image editing
- simulation software
- Decision making software

Compiler:- A compiler is a computer program (or set of programs) that **transforms source code written in a computer language (the *source language*) into another computer language (the *target language*, often having a binary form known as *object code*)**. The most common reason for wanting to transform source code is to create an executable program. The name "compiler" is primarily used for programs that translate

source code from a high-level programming language to a lower level language (e.g., assembly language or machine code). A program that translates from a low level language to a higher level one is a *decompiler*. A program that translates between high-level languages is usually called a *language translator*, *source to source translator*

Linker: - Linker is a program in a system which helps to link a object modules of program into a single object file. It performs the process of linking. Linker are also called link editors. Linking is process of collecting and maintaining piece of code and data into a single file. Linker also link a particular module into system library. It takes object modules from assembler as input and forms an executable file as output for loader. Linking is performed at both compile time, when the source code is translated into machine code and load time, when the program is loaded into memory by the loader. Linking is performed at the last step in compiling a program.

Assembler: - An assembler is a program that converts assembly language into machine code. It takes the basic commands and operations from assembly code and converts them into binary code that can be recognized by a specific type of processor. Assemblers are similar to compilers in that they produce executable code. However, assemblers are more simplistic since they only convert low-level code (assembly language) to machine code. Since each assembly language is designed for a specific processor, assembling a program is performed using a simple one-to-one mapping from assembly code to machine code.

Loader:- A loader is a major component of an operating system that ensures all necessary programs and libraries are loaded, which is essential during the startup phase of running a program. It places the libraries and programs into the main memory in order to prepare them for execution.

Performance

Performance: - The most important measure of the performance of a computer is how quickly it can compute programs. The speed with which a computer executes programs is affected by the design of its hardware and its machine language instructions. To represent the performance of a processor, we should consider only the periods during which the processor is active.

At the start of execution, all program instructions and the required data are stored in the memory as shown below. As execution proceeds, instructions are fetched one by one over the bus into the processor, and a copy is placed in the cache. When the execution of instruction calls for data located in the main memory, the data are fetched and a copy is placed in the cache. Later, if the same instruction or data item is needed a second time, it is read directly from the cache.

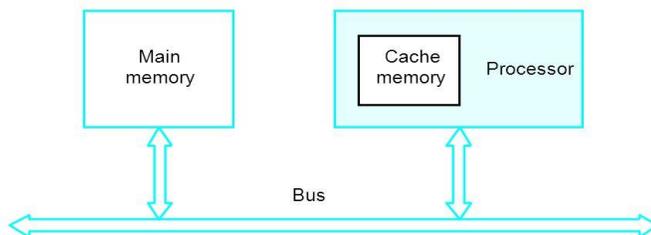


Figure 1.5. The processor cache.

Computer performance is often described in terms of clock speed (usually in MHz or GHz). This refers to the cycles per second of the main clock of the CPU. Performance of a computer depends on the following factors.

a) Processor clock:-

1. Processor circuits are controlled by a timing signal called a clock. A clock is a microchip that regulates speed and timing of all computer functions.
2. **Clock Cycle** is the speed of a computer processor, or CPU, which is the amount of time between two pulses of an oscillator. Generally speaking, the higher number of pulses per second, the faster the computer processor will be able to process information
3. CPU **clock speed**, or **clock rate**, is measured in Hertz — generally in gigahertz, or GHz. A CPU's **clock speed rate** is a measure of how many **clock** cycles a CPU can perform per second
4. To execute a machine instruction, the processor divides the action to be performed into a sequence of basic steps, such that each step can be completed in one clock cycle.
5. The length P of one clock cycle is an important parameter that affects processor performance.
6. Its inverse is the clock rate, $R = 1/P$, which is measured in cycles per second.
7. If the clock rate is 500(MHz) million cycles per second, then the corresponding clock period is 2 nanoseconds.

b) Basic performance equation:- The **Performance Equation** is a term used in computer science. It refers to the calculation of the performance or speed of a central processing unit (CPU).

Basically the *Basic Performance Equation [BPE]* is an equation with 3 parameters which are required for the calculation of "Basic Performance" of a given system. It is given by

$$T = (N*S)/R$$

Where '**T**' is the *processor time* [Program Execution Time] required to execute a given program written in some high level language .The compiler generates a machine language object program corresponding to the source program.

'**N**' is the **total number of steps required to complete program execution**. 'N' is the actual number of instruction executions, not necessarily equal to the total number of machine language instructions in the object program. Some instructions are executed more than others (loops) and some are not executed at all (conditions).

'**S**' is the **average number of basic steps each instruction execution requires**, where each basic step is completed in one clock cycle. We say average as each instruction contains a variable number of steps depending on the instruction.

'**R**' is the **clock rate** [In cycles per second]

c) Pipelining and Super scalar operation:-

1. A substantial improvement in performance can be achieved by overlapping the execution of successive instructions, using a technique called pipelining.
2. Consider the instruction
3. Add R1, R2, R3
4. Which adds the contents of registers R1 and R2, and places the sum into R3
5. The contents of R1 and R2 are first transferred to the inputs of the ALU.
6. After the add operation is performed, the sum is transferred to R3.
7. Processor can read the next instruction from the memory while the addition operation is being performed.
8. Then, if that instruction also uses the ALU, its operands can be transferred to the ALU inputs at the same time that the result of add instruction is being transferred to R3.
9. Thus, pipelining increases the rate of executing instructions significantly.

d) Super scalar operation:-

1. A higher degree of concurrency can be achieved if multiple instruction pipelines are implemented in the processor.
2. This means that multiple function units are used, creating parallel paths through which different instructions can be executed in parallel.
3. With such an arrangement, it becomes possible to start the execution of several instructions in every clock cycle.
4. This mode of execution is called super scalar operation.

e)Clock rate:-

1. There are two possibilities for increasing the clock rate, R.
2. First, improving the Integrated Circuit technology makes logic circuit faster, which reduces the needed to complete a basic step. This allows the clock period, P, to be reduced and the clock rate, R, to be increased.
3. Second, reducing the amount of processing done in one basic step also makes it possible to reduce the clock period, P.

f)Instruction set: CISC and RISC:-

1. The terms CISC and RISC refer to design principles and techniques.
2. RISC: Reduced instruction set computers.
3. Simple instructions require a small number of basic steps to execute.
4. For a processor that has only simple instructions, a large number of instructions may be needed to perform a given programming task. This could lead to a large value of N and a small value for S.
5. It is much easier to implement efficient pipelining in processors with simple instruction sets.
6. CISC: Complex instruction set computers.
7. Complex instructions involve a large number of steps.
8. If individual instructions perform more complex operations, fewer instructions will be needed, leading to a lower value of N and a larger value of S.
9. Complex instructions combined with pipelining would achieve good performance.

g)Optimizing Compiler:-

1. A compiler translates a high-level language program into a sequence of machine instructions.
2. To reduce N, we need to have a suitable machine instruction set and a compiler that makes good use of it.
3. An optimizing compiler takes advantage of various features of the target processor to reduce the product N * S.
4. The compiler may rearrange program instructions to achieve better performance.

h)Performance measurement:-

1. SPEC rating.
2. A nonprofit organization called "System Performance Evaluation Corporation" (SPEC) selects and publishes representative application programs for different application domains.
3. The SPEC rating is computed as follows.
4.
$$\text{SPEC rating} = \frac{\text{Running time on the reference computer}}{\text{Running time on the computer under test.}}$$
5. Thus SPEC rating of 50 means that the computer under test is 50 times faster than the reference computer for these particular benchmarks.
6. The test is repeated for all the programs in the SPEC suite, and the geometric mean of the results is computed.
7. Let SPEC_i be the rating for program 'i' in the suite.
The overall SPEC rating for the computer is given by

$$\text{SPEC rating} = \sqrt[n]{\prod_{i=1}^n (\text{SPEC}_i)}$$

Where n is the number of programs in the suite.

FREQUENTLY ASKED QUESTIONS

1. Discuss the generations of computers based on the development technologies used to fabricate the processors, memories and I/O units.
2. What are the functional units of a computer system? Explain the way of handling information by each of them.
3. "System software is responsible for coordination of all activities in a computing system"-Justify this statement with the functionalities of it.
4. Write a short note on bus structures used in computer system.
5. Explain the importance of instruction set in measuring the performance of a computer system.
6. Discuss various computer types with their applications in real world environment.
7. What is the role of Processor clock, clock rate in the performance of computer system? Explain.
8. Suppose two numbers located in memory are to be added. What are the functional units of digital computer system will carry out this? Explain how.
9. Define system software.
10. Mention different types of Bus structures.
11. Explain the structure of a computer system.
12. Write about logical structure of a simple personal computer.
13. Explain the organization of a computer system and its input-output processor.
14. Write differences between RISC and CISC.

UNIT-2

Syllabus: Machine Instruction and Programs: Instruction and Instruction sequencing:

Register Transfer notation, Assembly Language Notation, Basic Instruction types, **Addressing Modes, Basic Input / Output operations, the role of Stacks and queues in computer programming equation. Component of instructions:** logic instructions shift and rotate instructions.

Instructions and Instruction Sequencing: computer programming consists of a sequence of small steps, such as adding two numbers, testing for particular condition ,reading the character from keyboard and sending a character to be displayed on screen.

A computer must have instructions capable of performing **four types of operations:**

1. **Data transfers between the memory and the processor registers**
2. **Arithmetic and logic operations on data**
3. **Program sequencing and control**
4. **I/O transfers**

Register Transfer Notation: It is used to transfer information from one location to other location inside the computer. In RTN, source is always a value specified on right hand side of “← “. Destination is always a processor register, specified on left hand side.

Syntax :

Register ← Source

The right hand side of RTN is always denotes a value and the left hand side is the name of a location where the value is to be placed. Source can be processor register, I/O register, memory location, but destination register is always a processor register. RTN uses square brackets to indicate content of location. These braces are always placed only around the Source. For example,

1. $R_3 \leftarrow [R_1] + [23]$

This operation that adds the contents of registers R1 and R2, and places their sum into register R3

2. $R_2 \leftarrow [LOC]$, means that the contents of memory location LOC are transferred into processor register R2.

Assembly Language Notation: Assembly Language Notation is a type of notation which is used to represent machine instructions and programs.

For example:

LOAD LOC, R2

a generic instruction that causes the transfer, from memory location LOC to processor register R2, is specified by the statement

The contents of LOC are unchanged by the execution of this instruction, but the old contents of register R2 are overwritten. The name Load is appropriate for this instruction, because the contents read from a memory location are *loaded* into a processor register.

The second example :

ADD R4, R2, R3

Adding two numbers contained in processor registers R2 and R3 and placing their sum in R4 can be specified by the assembly-language statement

In this case, registers R2 and R3 hold the source operands, while R4 is the destination.

An *instruction* specifies an operation to be performed and the operands involved. In the above examples, we used the English words Load and Add to denote the required operations. **In the assembly-language instructions of actual (commercial) processors, such operations are defined by using mnemonics**, which are typically abbreviations of the words describing the operations. For example, the operation Load may be written as LD, while the operation Store, which transfers a word from a processor register to the memory, may be written as STR or ST. Assembly languages for different processors often use different mnemonics for a given operation.

Basic Instruction types:An instruction is of various lengths depending upon the number of addresses it contains. Generally CPU organization is of three types on the basis of number of address fields:

- **Single Accumulator organization**
- **General register organization**
- **Stack organization**

1. In first organization operation is done involving a special register called accumulator.

2. In second on multiple registers are used for the computation purpose.

3. In third organization the work on stack basis operation due to which it does not contain any address field. On the basis of number of addresses instructions are classified as:

Three address Instructions: This instruction has three operands(address fields) to specify a register or a memory location.

- **Syntax**

: operation source1, source2,

EX: Add A, B, C [C ← [A] + [B])

Where A, B are called source operands, C is called destination operand.

- **Two address Instructions:** This instruction has two operands(address fields) to specify a register or a memory location.
- **Syntax : operation source , destination.**

For example,

Add A, C (C ← [A] + [C])

- **One address Instructions:** This instruction has one operand (address field) to specify a register or a memory location. This use a implied Accumulator(AC) Register for data manipulation. One operand is in AC and other is in register or memory location. Implied means that the CPU already know that one operand is in AC so there is no need to specify it. For example,

LOAD A ($AC \leftarrow [A]$)

ADD B ($AC \leftarrow [AC] + [B]$)

STORE C ($C \leftarrow [AC]$)

- **Zero address Instructions:** This instruction has zero address fields. A stack based computer do not use address field in instruction. It uses stack operations PUSH and POP to perform operations. To evaluate a expression first it is converted to revere Polish Notation i.e. Post fix Notation. For example,

Push A ($TOS \leftarrow [A]$)

Push B ($TOS \leftarrow [B]$)

Add ($TOS \leftarrow [A] + [B]$)

Pop C ($C \leftarrow [TOS]$)

Example: evaluate $X = (A + B) * (C + D)$

Three Address:

Add A, B, R1 ($R1 \leftarrow [A] + [B]$)

Add C, D, R2 ($R2 \leftarrow [C] + [D]$)

Mul R1, R2, X ($X \leftarrow [R1] * [R2]$)

Two Address:

Move A, R1 ($R1 \leftarrow [A]$)

Add B, R1 ($R1 \leftarrow [R1] + [B]$)

Move C, R2 ($R2 \leftarrow [C]$)

Add D, R2 ($R2 \leftarrow [R2] + [D]$)

Mul R1, R2 ($R2 \leftarrow [R1] * [R2]$)

Move R2, X ($X \leftarrow [R2]$)

One Address:

Load A ($AC \leftarrow [A]$)

Add B ($AC \leftarrow [AC] + [B]$)

Store T1 ($T1 \leftarrow [AC]$)

Load C ($AC \leftarrow [C]$)

Add D ($AC \leftarrow [AC] + [D]$)

Mul T1 ($AC \leftarrow [AC] * [T1]$)

Store X ($X \leftarrow [AC]$)

Zero address:

Push A (TOS \leftarrow [A])
Push B (TOS \leftarrow [B])
Add (TOS \leftarrow [A] + [B])
Push C (TOS \leftarrow [C])
Push D (TOS \leftarrow [D])
Add (TOS \leftarrow [C] + [D])
Mul (TOS \leftarrow ([A] + [B]) * ([C] + [D]))
Pop X (X \leftarrow [A] + [B]) * ([C] + [D])

Instruction Execution and Straight-Line Sequencing: To begin **executing** a program, the address of its first **instruction** (I in our example) must be placed into the PC. Then, the processor control circuits use the information in the PC to fetch and **execute instructions**, one at a time, in the order of increasing addresses. This is called **straight-line sequencing**. For example, consider the following assembly instruction which add contents of two memory locations. i.e. $C \leftarrow [A] + [B]$. The following diagram shows a possible program segment for this task as it appears in the memory of a computer.

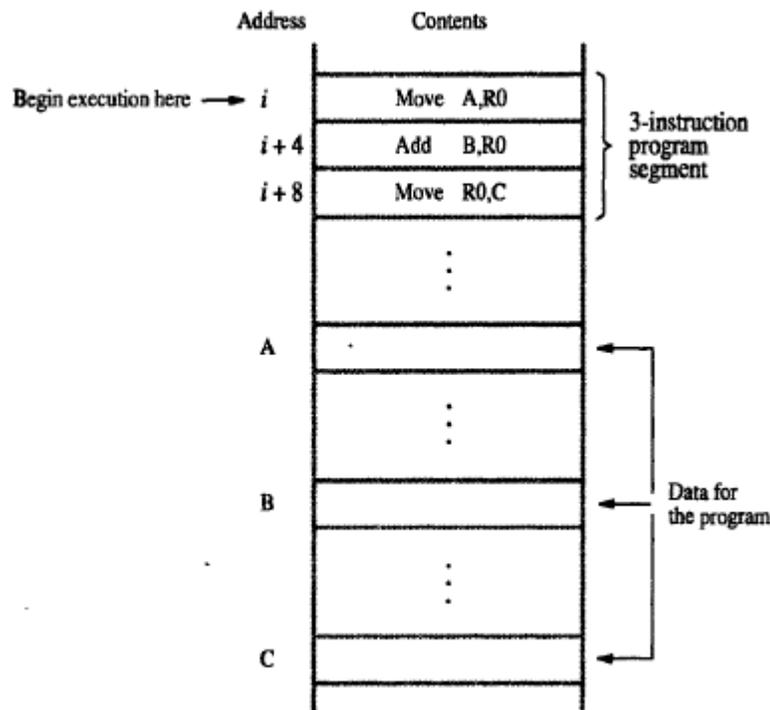


Figure 2.8 A program for $C \leftarrow [A] + [B]$.

The four instructions of the program are in successive word locations, starting at location i . Since, each instruction is 4 bytes long, the second, third, and fourth instructions are at addresses $i + 4$, $i + 8$, and $i + 12$. The processor contains a register called the *program counter* (PC), which holds the address of the next instruction to be executed. To begin executing a program, the address of its first instruction (i in our example) must be placed into the PC. Then, the processor control circuits use the information in the PC to fetch and execute instructions, one at a time, in the order of increasing addresses. This is called *straight-line sequencing*. During the execution of each instruction, the PC is incremented by 4 to point to the next instruction. Thus, after the Store instruction at location $i + 12$ is executed, the PC contains the value $i + 16$, which is the address of the first instruction of the next program segment.

Executing a given instruction is a two-phase procedure. In the first phase, called *instruction fetch*, the instruction is fetched from the memory location whose address is in the PC. This instruction is placed in the *instruction register (IR)* in the processor. At the start of the second phase, called *instruction execute*, the instruction in IR is examined to determine which operation is to be performed. The specified operation is then performed by the processor. This involves a small number of steps such as fetching operands from the memory or from processor registers, performing an arithmetic or logic operation, and storing the result in the destination location. At some point during this two-phase procedure, the contents of the PC are advanced to point to the next instruction. When the execute phase of an instruction is completed, the PC contains the address of the next instruction, and a new instruction fetch phase can begin.

Branching: Normally, the instructions executed in linear fashion through the program, and the address of the instructions is obtained from PC in the control unit. This sequence is interrupted when a branch instruction is executed, at such a time the address field of the Branch instruction is inserted into the PC and the process continues. Consider the task of adding a list of n numbers. The following diagram shows straight line sequencing program to add list of n numbers.

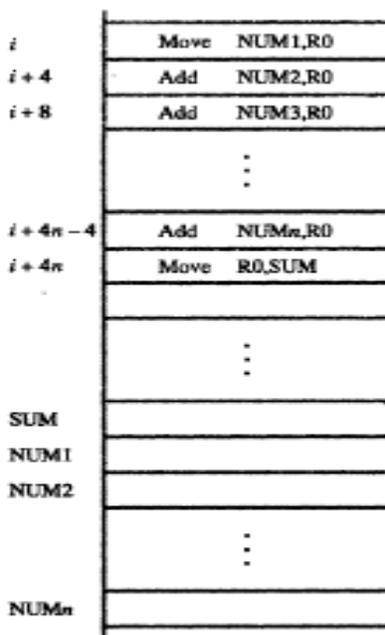


Figure 2.9 A straight-line program for adding n numbers.

The addresses of the memory locations containing the n numbers are symbolically given as NUM1, NUM2, . . . , NUM n , and separate Add instructions is used to add each number to the contents of register R0. After all the numbers have been added, the result is placed in memory location SUM.

Instead of using a long list of Add instructions, it is possible to implement a program loop in which the instructions read the next number in the list and add it to the current sum. To add all numbers, the loop has to be executed as many times as there are numbers in the list. The following shows the structure of the desired program. The body of the loop is a straight-line sequence of instructions executed repeatedly. It starts at location LOOP and ends at the instruction Branch > 0. During each pass through this loop, the address of the next list entry is determined, and that entry is fetched and added to R0.

Assume that the number of entries in the list, n , is stored in memory location N, as shown. Register R1 is used as a counter to determine the number of times the loop is executed. Hence, the contents of location N are loaded into register R1 at the beginning of the program. Then, within the body of the loop, the instruction

Decrement R1

reduces the contents of R1 by 1 each time through the loop. Execution of the loop is repeated as long as the contents of R1 are greater than zero.

Next use branch instruction. This type of instruction loads a new address into the program counter. As a result, the processor fetches and executes the instruction at this new address, called the *branch target*, instead of the instruction at the location that follows the branch instruction in sequential address order. A *conditional branch* instruction causes a branch only if a specified condition is satisfied. If the condition is not satisfied, the PC is incremented in the normal way, and the next instruction in sequential address order is fetched and executed.

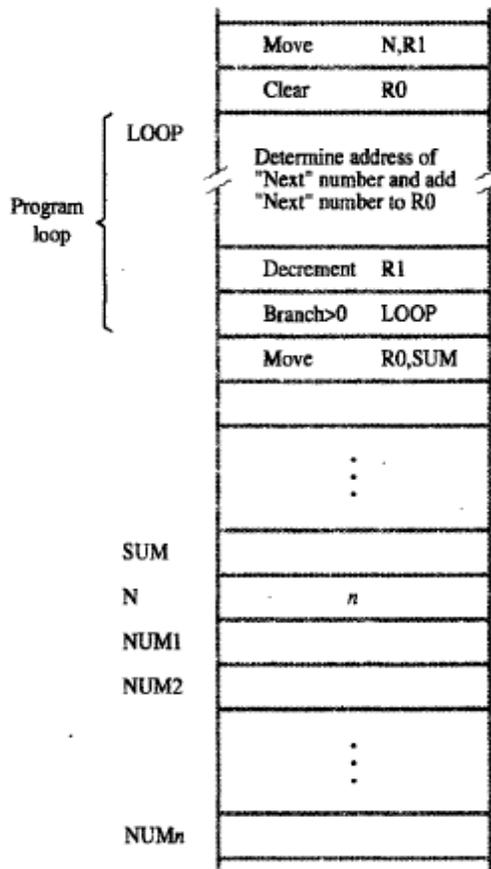


Figure 2.10 Using a loop to add n numbers.

The instruction

Branch > 0 LOOP

is a conditional branch instruction that causes a branch to location LOOP if the contents of register R1 are greater than zero. This means that the loop is repeated as long as there are entries in the list that are yet to be added to R0. At the end of the n th pass through the loop, the Subtract instruction produces a value of zero in R2, and, hence, branching does not occur. Instead, the Store instruction is fetched and executed. It moves the final result from R0 into memory location SUM.

Condition Codes: The processor keeps track of information about the results of various operations for use by subsequent conditional branch instructions. This is done by recording the required information in individual bits, often called condition code flags. These flags are grouped together in a special processor register called condition code register or status register. Individual condition code flags are set to 1 or cleared to 0, depending on outcome of operation performed. Four commonly used flags are

- **N (negative):** Set to 1 if the result is negative; otherwise, cleared to 0.
- **Z (zero):** Set to 1 if the result is zero; otherwise, cleared to 0.
- **V (overflow):** Set to 1 if arithmetic overflow occurs; otherwise, cleared to 0.
- **C (carry):** Set to 1 if a carry-out results from the operation; otherwise, cleared to 0.

Addressing Modes: The different ways for specifying the locations of instruction operands are known as *addressing modes*.

Table 2.1 Generic addressing modes

Name	Assembler syntax	Addressing function
Immediate	#Value	Operand = Value
Register	R _i	EA = R _i
Absolute (Direct)	LOC	EA = LOC
Indirect	(R _i)	EA = [R _i]
	(LOC)	EA = [LOC]
Index	X(R _i)	EA = [R _i] + X
Base with index	(R _i , R _j)	EA = [R _i] + [R _j]
Base with index and offset	X(R _i , R _j)	EA = [R _i] + [R _j] + X
Relative	X(PC)	EA = [PC] + X
Autoincrement	(R _i) ⁺	EA = [R _i]; Increment R _i
Autodecrement	-(R _i)	Decrement R _i ; EA = [R _i]

EA = effective address

Value = a signed number

- **Implementation of Variables and constants:** In assembly language, a **variable is represented by allocating a register or memory location to hold its value**. Thus, the value can be changed as needed using appropriate instructions. **Variables** can be represented by register and absolute addressing modes.

- **Immediate mode: Immediate mode:** The operand is given explicitly in the instruction. For example, the instruction

MOV #200, R0

Moves the value 200 to register R0. Constants are frequently used in high level languages. For example, the statement A = B + 6. This statement can be represented as

MOV B, R1

ADD #6, R1

MOV R1, A

- **Register mode: The operand is the contents of a processor register;** the name of the register is given in the instruction.

- **For example,** instruction

Add R1, R2, R3

Uses the Register mode for all three operands. Registers R1 and R2 hold the two source operands, while R3 is the destination.

Here, register R2 is used as a pointer to the numbers in the list, and the operands are accessed indirectly through R2. The initialization section of the program loads the counter value n from memory location N to R1 and uses the immediate addressing mode to place the address value NUM1, which is the address of first number in the list, into R2. Then it clears R0 to 0. The instruction ADD (R2), R0 fetches the operand at location NUM1 and adds it to R0. The second ADD instruction adds 4 to the contents of the pointer R2, so that it will contain the address value NUM2, when the above instruction is executed in the second pass through the loop and so on.

Consider the C-language statement $A = * B$; where B is a pointer variable. This statement may be compiled into

```
MOVE B, R1
MOVE ( R1 ), A
```

Using indirect addressing through memory, the same action can be achieved with

```
MOVE ( B ), A
```

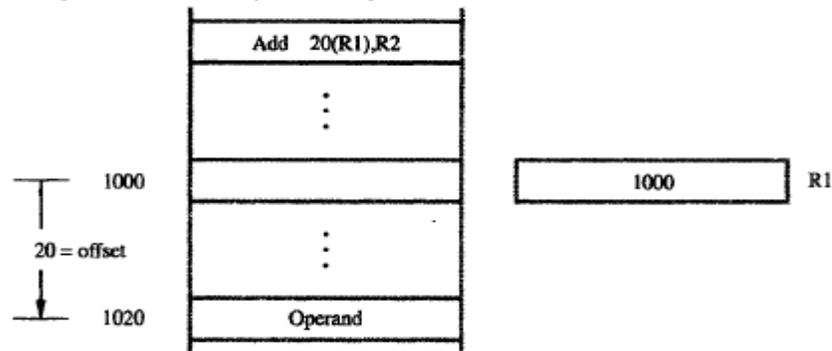
- **Indexing and Arrays:** It is useful in dealing with lists and arrays.
 - **Index Mode,** the effective address of the operand is generated by adding a constant value to the contents of a register. The register used may be either a general purpose register or index register. Symbolically index mode can be represented as

$X (R_i)$

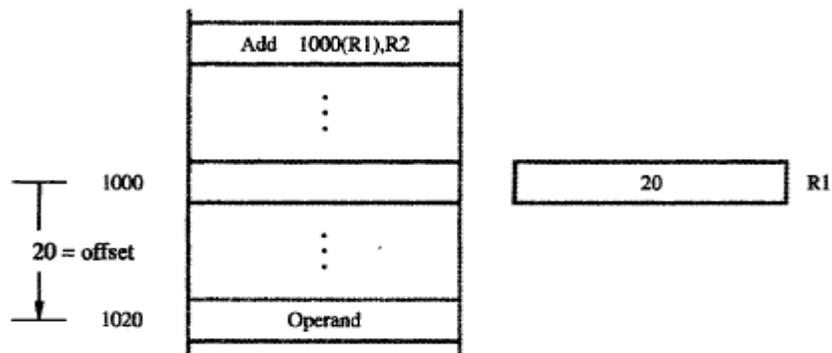
Where X denotes the constant value contained in the instruction and R_i is the name of the register involved. The effective address of the operand is given by

$$EA = X + [R_i]$$

The following shows the way of using Index mode.



(a) Offset is given as a constant



(b) Offset is in the index register

Figure 2.13 Indexed addressing.

In first case, the index register R1 contains the address of a memory location and the value x defines an offset from this address to the location where the operand is found.

In second case, the constant X corresponds to a memory address and the contents of the index register define the offset to the operand. In either case, the effective address is the sum of two values: one is given explicitly in the instruction and the other is stored in a register.

Consider a simple example involving a list of test scores for students taking a given course. Assume that the list of scores beginning at location LIST as shown below.

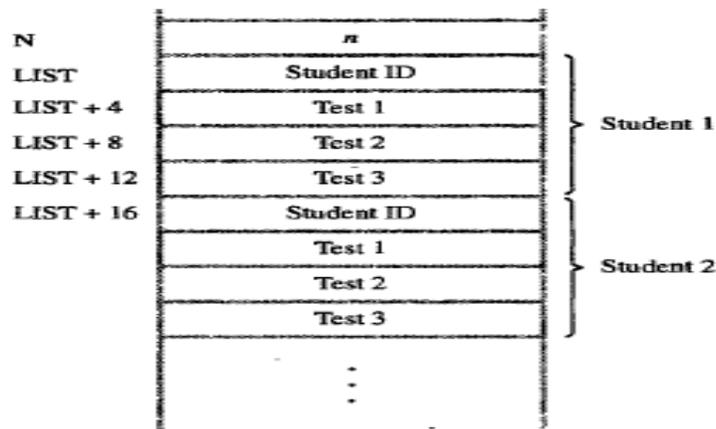


Figure 2.14 A list of students' marks.

A four word memory block comprises a record that stores the relevant information for each student. Each record consists of the students ID, followed by the scores the student earned on three tests. There are n students in the class, and the value n is stored in location N immediately in front of the list. Suppose our aim is to find the sum of all scores obtained on each of the tests and store these sums in memory locations SUM1, SUM2, and SUM3. A possible program for this task is given below.

On the first pass through the loop, test scores of the first student are added to the running sums held in registers R1, R2, and R3, which are initially cleared to zero. These scores are accessed using index addressing modes 4(R0), 8(R0), and 12(R0). The index registers then incremented by 16 to point to the ID location of the second student. Register R4, which is initialized to the value n is decremented by 1 at the end of each pass through the loop. When the contents of R4 reached to 0, all the student records have been accessed, and the loop terminates. Until then, the conditional branch instruction transfer control back to the start of the loop to process the next record. The last three instructions transfer the accumulated sums from R1, R2, and R3 into memory locations SUM1, SUM2, and SUM3.

- **Base with Index Mode:** In this mode, effective address is generated by adding the contents of base register with the contents of index register. It is represented as shown below.

$$\text{Add } (R_i, R_j)$$

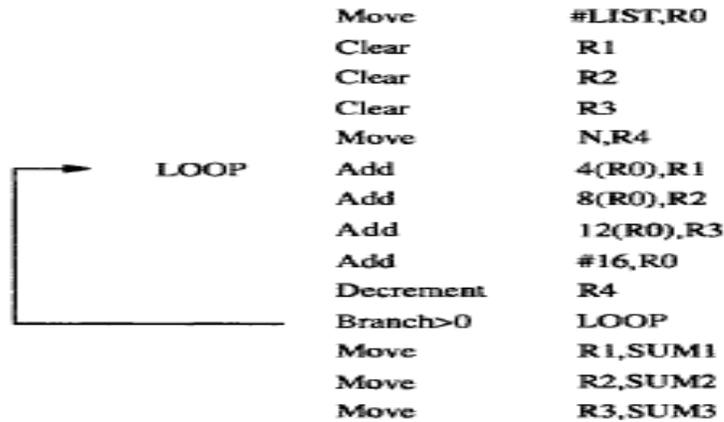
The effective address is the sum of the contents of registers R_i , and R_j . The second register is usually called the base register.

$$EA = [R_i] + [R_j]$$

- **Base with Index and Offset:** In this mode, effective address is the sum of the constant X and the contents of registers R_i and R_j . It is represented as shown below.

$$X (R_i, R_j)$$

$$EA = X + [R_i] + [R_j]$$



- **Relative Addressing:** In Relative Addressing, the Program counter is used instead of a general purpose register.'

- **Relative Mode:** In this mode, the effective address is determined by adding the contents of program counter to offset value. It is represented symbolically as

$$X (PC)$$

The effective address of the operand is given by

$$EA = X + [PC]$$

This mode can be used to access data operands. It's most common use is to specify the target address in branch instructions. An instruction such as

Branch > 0 LOOP

Causes program to go to branch location identified by the name LOOP if the branch condition is satisfied. This location can be computed by specifying it as n offset from the current value of the program counter. For example, suppose that the relative mode is used to generate the branch target address LOOP in the branch instruction of the program using indirect addressing. Assume that the four instructions of the loop body, starting at LOOP, are located at memory locations 1000, 1004, 1008, and 1012. Hence, the updated contents of the PC at the time the branch target address is generated will be 1016. To branch to location LOOP (1000), the offset value needed is $X = -16$.

- **Additional Modes:** The additional modes like auto increment and auto decrement are useful for accessing data items in successive locations in memory.

- **Auto increment Mode:** The effective address of the operand is the contents of a register specified in the instruction. **After accessing the operand, the contents of this register are automatically incremented to point to the next item in a list.** It is represented as

$$(R_i) +$$

It normally increments 1, but in byte sized operands or byte addressable memory. Thus, the increment is 1 for 8 bit operands, 2 for 16 bit and 4 for 32 bit operands. The effective address of the operand is

$$EA = [R_i]; \text{Increment } R_i$$

- **Auto decrement Mode:** The contents of a register specified in the instruction **are first automatically decremented and are then used as effective address of the operand.** It is represented as

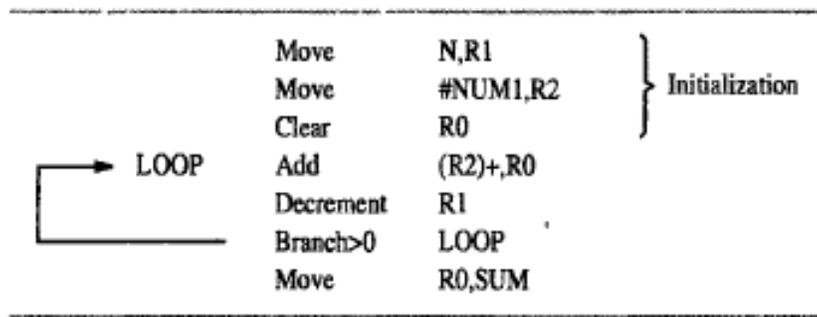
$$- (R_i)$$

The effective address of the operand is

Decrenebt R_i ;

$$EA = [R_i]$$

The following program describes how to use auto increment mode



Basic Input / Output Operations: Input / Output operations are essential which has a significant effect on performance of a computer. **An I/O device is connected to the interconnection network by using a circuit, called the *device interface***, which provides the means for data transfer and for the exchange of status and control information needed to facilitate the data transfers and govern the operation of the device. The interface includes some registers that can be accessed by the processor.

Consider a task that reads in **character input from a keyboard** and **produces character output on a display screen**. A simple way of performing such I/O tasks is to use a method known as **Program controlled I/O**. A solution to this problem is as follows: On output, the processor sends the first character and then waits for a signal from the display that the character has been received. It then sends the second character, and so on. Input is sent from the keyboard in a similar way; the processor waits for a signal indicating that a character key has been struck and that its code is available in some buffer register associated with the keyboard. Then the processor proceeds to read that code.

The keyboard and the display are separate devices as shown below.

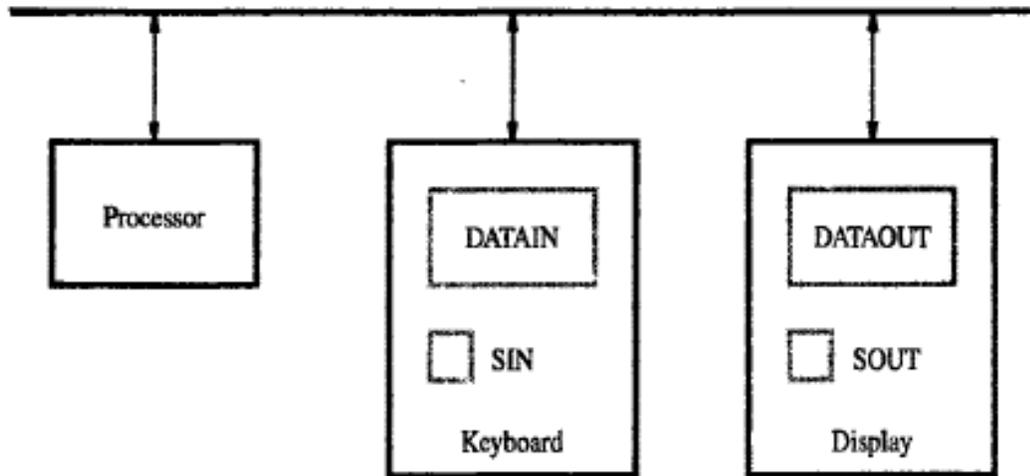


Figure 2.19 Bus connection for processor, keyboard, and display.

Consider the problem of moving a character from the keyboard to the processor. Striking a key stores the corresponding character code in an 8-bit buffer register DATAIN which is associated with the keyboard. To inform the processor that a valid character is in DATAIN, a status control flag, SIN, is set to 1 (initially SIN=0).

A program monitors SIN, and when SIN is set to 1, the processor reads the contents of DATAIN.

When the character is transferred to the processor, SIN is again set to 0 and the process repeats.

To transfer the characters from processor to display, a buffer register, DATAOUT, and a status control flag, SOUT, are used.

When SOUT equals 1, the display is ready to receive a character. Under program control, the processor monitors SOUT, and when SOUT is set to 1, the processor transfers a character code to DATAOUT clears SOUT to 0; when the display device is ready to receive a second character, SOUT is again set to 1.

The processor can monitor the keyboard status flag SIN and transfer a character from DATAIN to register R1 by the following sequence of operations.

```

READWAIT  Branch to READWAIT if SIN = 0
              MOVE DATAIN, R1
    
```

The contents of the keyboard character buffer DATAIN can be transferred to processor register instruction is

```

MoveByte  DATAIN ,R1
    
```

An analogous sequence of operations is used for transferring output to display as shown below.

```

WRITEWAIT Branch to WRITEWAIT if SOUT = 0
              MOVE R1, DATAOUT
    
```

The contents of the processor register R1 transferred to display buffer DATAOUT instruction is

```

MoveByte  R1,OUTDATA
    
```

The following program explains how to read sequence of characters and display it.

	Move	#LOC,R0	Initialize pointer register R0 to point to the address of the first location in memory where the characters are to be stored.
READ	TestBit	#3,INSTATUS	Wait for a character to be entered in the keyboard buffer DATAIN.
	Branch=0	READ	Transfer the character from DATAIN into the memory (this clears SIN to 0).
	MoveByte	DATAIN,(R0)	Wait for the display to become ready.
ECHO	TestBit	#3,OUTSTATUS	Move the character just read to the display buffer register (this clears SOUT to 0).
	Branch=0	ECHO	Check if the character just read is CR (carriage return). If it is not CR, then branch back and read another character.
	MoveByte	(R0),DATAOUT	Also, increment the pointer to store the next character.
	Compare	#CR,(R0)+	
	Branch≠0	READ	

Here assume that 3rd bit in registers INSTATUS and OUTSTATUS corresponds to SIN and SOUT respectively.

The role of STACKS and QUEUES in computer programming equation: In order to organize the control and information linkage between the main program and the subroutine, a data structure called a stack is used. A stack is the list of data elements, usually words or bytes, with the accessing restriction that elements can be added or removed at one end of the list only. This end is called as top of the stack, and another end is called as bottom. The structure is sometimes referred as pushdown stack. Stack follows Last-In-First-Out (LIFO) strategy, where elements inserted last will be the element removed first. Two basic operations that can be performed on stack are PUSH and POP, which add and remove elements from top of the stack respectively.

Data stored in the memory of a computer can be organized as a stack, with successive elements occupying successive memory locations. Assume that first element is placed in location BOTTOM, and when new elements are pushed onto the stack, they are placed in successive lower address locations. The following diagram shows a stack of word data items in the memory of a computer.

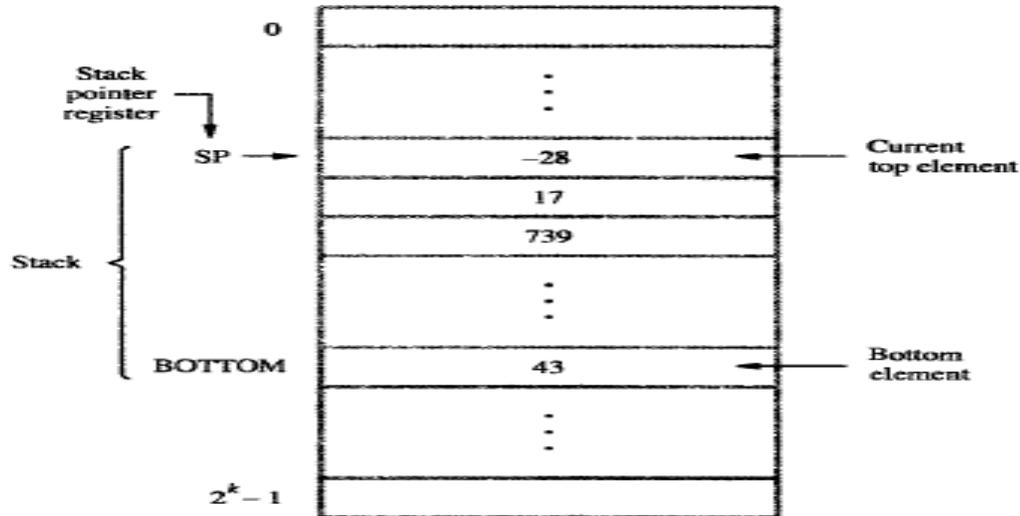


Figure 2.21 A stack of words in the memory.

It contains numerical values, with 43 at bottom and -28 at the top. A processor register is used to keep track of the address of the element of the stack that is at the top at any given time. This register is called the Stack Pointer (SP). It could be one of the general purpose registers or a register dedicated to this function. Assume a byte addressable memory with 32-bit word length, the PUSH operation can be implemented as

```

Subtract #4,SP
Move NEWITEM,(SP)

```

Where the Subtract instruction subtracts the source operand 4 from the destination operand contained in SP and places the result in SP. These two instructions move the word from location NEWITEM onto the top of the stack, decrementing the stack pointer by 4 before the move.

```

Move (SP),ITEM
Add #4,SP

```

if the processor has the auto increment and auto decrement address modes the PUSH operation can be performed by the instruction:

```

Move NEWITEM,-(SP)

```

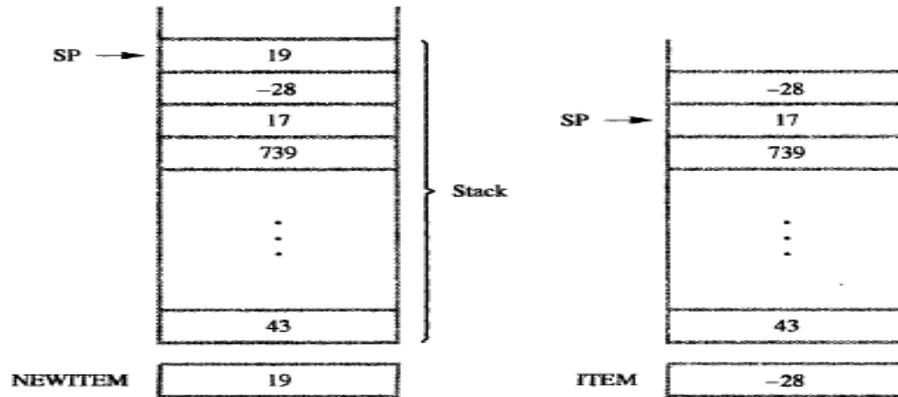
The POP operation can be implemented as:

```

Move (SP)+,ITEM

```

These two instructions move the top value from the stack into location ITEM and then increment the stack pointer by 4, so that it points to the new top element as shown below.



(a) After push from NEWITEM

(b) After pop into ITEM

Suppose that a stack runs from location 2000 (BOTTOM) down no further than 1500. The stack pointer is loaded initially with the address value 2004. SP is decremented by 4 before new data are stored on the stack. Hence, an initial value of 2004 means that the first item pushed on to the stack will be at location 2000. To prevent either pushing an item on a full stack or popping an item off an empty stack, the single instruction PUSH and POP operations can be replaced by the following instruction sequences.

SAFEPOP	Compare Branch>0	#2000,SP EMPTYERROR	Check to see if the stack pointer contains an address value greater than 2000. If it does, the stack is empty. Branch to the routine EMPTYERROR for appropriate action.
	Move	(SP)+,ITEM	Otherwise, pop the top of the stack into memory location ITEM.

a safe pop operation

SAFEPUSH	Compare Branch≤0	#1500,SP FULLERROR	Check to see if the stack pointer contains an address value equal to or less than 1500. If it does, the stack is full. Branch to the routine FULLERROR for appropriate action.
	Move	NEWITEM,-(SP)	Otherwise, push the element in memory location NEWITEM onto the stack.

a safe push operation

Another useful data structure that is similar to the stack is called a Queue. Data are stored in and retrieved from a queue on a First-In-First-Out (FIFO) basis. Thus, if queue grows in the direction of increasing addresses in memory, new data are added at the back (high address end) and retrieved from the front (low address end) of the queue.

There are two important differences between stack and queue. One end of the stack is fixed (the bottom), while the other end raises and falls as data are pushed and popped. A single pointer is needed to point to the top of the stack at any given time. On the other hand, both ends of a queue move to higher addresses as data are added at the back and removed from the front. So, two pointers are needed to keep track of two ends of the queue.

Another difference between stack and queue is that, a queue would continuously move through memory of a computer in the direction of higher addresses. This can be avoided by using Circular Queue.

Additional Instructions (Or) Component of Instructions:

Additional Instructions (Or) Component of Instructions are two types

1.Logic Instructions

2.Shift and Rotate Instructions

Logic Instructions: Logic operations such as AND, OR, and NOT applied to individual bits, are the basic building blocks of digital circuits. It is also useful to be able to perform logic operations in software. For example,

1's complement:

NOT dst

NOT dst complements all bits contained in the destination operand, changing 0's to 1 and 1's to 0.

2's complement:

The following two instructions calculates 2's complement of a number

NOT R0

ADD #1, R0

Many computers have a single instruction for 2's complement..i.e. NEGATE R0

Logic Instructions AND, OR, and NOT represented as bits in a table as follows:

AND table :

Operand 1	Operand 2	AND
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

OR table

Operand 1	Operand 2	OR
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

NOT table

Operand	NOT
0	1
1	0

Shift and Rotate Instructions: There are many applications that require the bits of an operand to be shifted right or left some specified number of bit positions. There are two types of shift instructions.

1. Logical Shift Instructions((LShiftL, LShiftR)
2. Arithmetic Shift Instructions

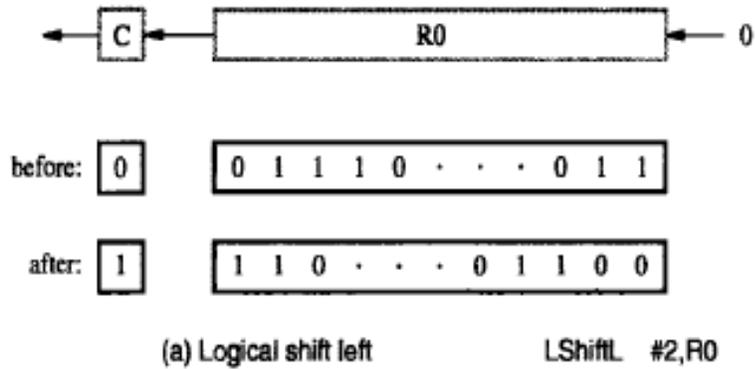
1. **Logical Shift Instructions:** These instructions shift an operand over a number of bit positions specified in a count operand in the instruction. There are two types of Logical Shift Instructions: Logical left shift (LShiftL) and Logical right shift ((LShiftR)

Logical left shift (LShiftL): The general form of Logical Shift Left Instruction is

LShiftL count, DST

The count operand may be an immediate operand or it may be contained in a processor register. For example,

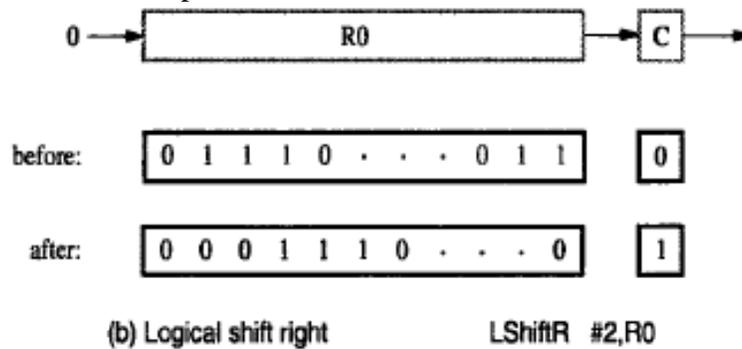
LShiftL #2, R0, this is represented as



It shifts the contents of register R0 left by two positions. Vacated positions are filled with 0's.

- **Logical right shift (LShiftR):** The general form of Logical Shift Right Instruction is **LShiftR count, DST**

The count operand may be an immediate operand or it may be contained in a processor register. For example, LShiftR #2, R0, this is represented as



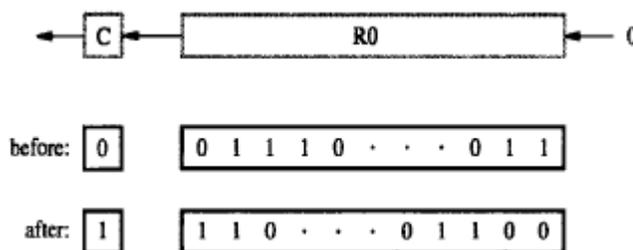
It shifts the contents of register R0 right by two positions. Vacated positions are filled with 0's.

2. Arithmetic Shift Instructions: There are two types of Arithmetic Shift Instructions:

- **Arithmetic Shift Left (AShiftL):** A Left Arithmetic shifts a binary number by specified number of positions towards left. The vacated positions are filled with 0's. It can be represented as

AShiftL count, DST

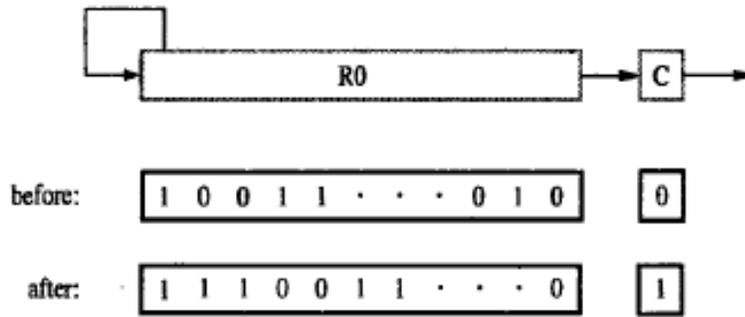
For example, AShiftL #2, R0 shifts contents of R0 by 2 positions and vacated positions are filled with zeros as shown below.



- **Arithmetic Shift Right (AShiftR):** A Right Arithmetic shifts a binary number by specified number of positions towards right. The vacated positions are filled with copies of the original MSB bit. It can be represented as

AShiftR count, DST

For example, AShiftR #2, R0 shifts contents of R0 by 2 positions and vacated positions are filled with copies of the original MSB bit as shown below.

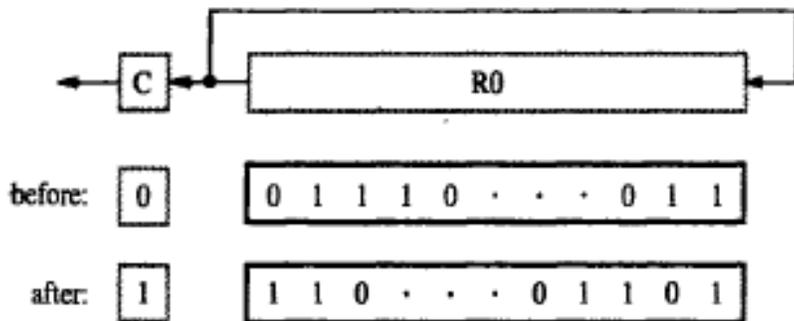


(c) Arithmetic shift right AShifR #2,R0

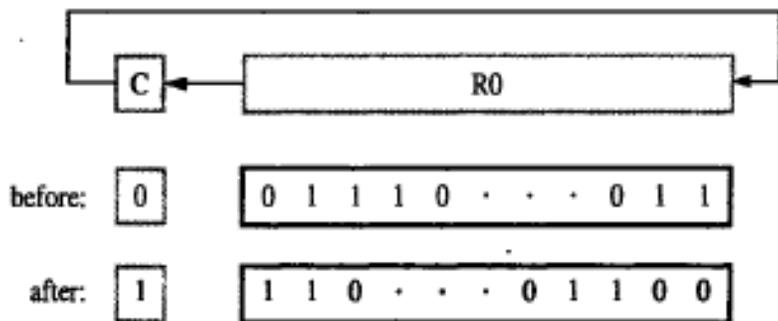
Rotate Instructions: In shift operations, the bits shifted out of the operand are lost, except for the last bit shifted out which is in the carry flag C. To preserve all bits, a set of rotate instructions can be used. They move the bits that are shifted out of one end of the operand back into the other end. Different rotate instructions are

1. Rotate Left without Carry
2. Rotate Left with Carry
3. Rotate Right without Carry
4. Rotate Right with Carry

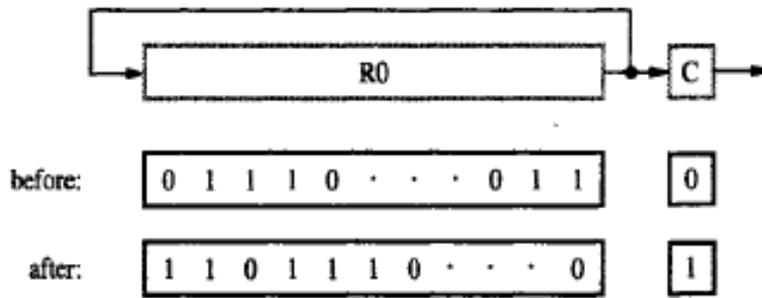
They are represented as follows.



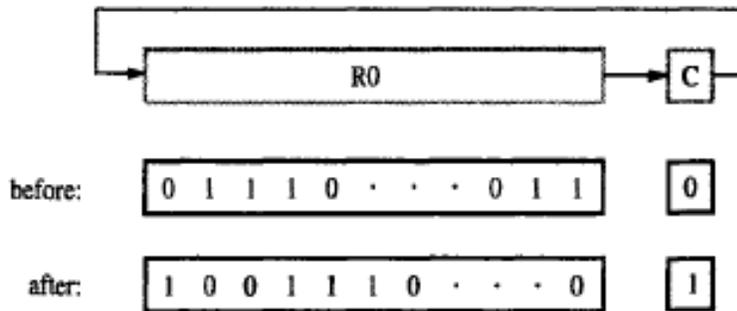
(a) Rotate left without carry Rotatel #2,R0



(b) Rotate left with carry RotatelC #2,R0



(c) Rotate right without carry RotateR #2,R0



(d) Rotate right with carry RotateRC #2,R0

Digit-Packing Example:

Consider a task which uses both shift and logic operations. Suppose two decimal digits represented in ASCII code are located in memory at byte locations LOC and LOC + 1. Our goal is to represent each of these digits in the 4-bit BCD code and store both of them in a single byte location PACKED. The result is said to be in packed-BCD format.

To do this, extract the lower order 4 bits in LOC and LOC + 1 and concatenate them into the single byte at PACKED as shown below.

Move	#LOC,R0	R0 points to data.
MoveByte	(R0)+,R1	Load first byte into R1.
LShiftL	#4,R1	Shift left by 4 bit positions.
MoveByte	(R0),R2	Load second byte into R2.
And	#\$F,R2	Eliminate high-order bits.
Or	R1,R2	Concatenate the BCD digits.
MoveByte	R2,PACKED	Store the result.

Here, R0 is a pointer to the ASCII characters in memory, and use the registers R1 and R2 to develop the BCD codes. MoveByte instruction transfers a byte between memory and a 32-bit processor register. The And instruction is used to mask out all except the four rightmost bits in R2. Immediate operand \$F, interpreted as a 32-bit pattern, has 28 zero's in most significant bit positions.

Vector Dot Product Program: Let A and B be two vectors of length n. Their dot product can be defined as

$$\text{Dot Product} = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} A(i) \times B(i)$$

The following program computes dot product and storing it in memory location DOTPROD. The first elements of each vector, A(0), and B(0), are stored at memory locations AVEC and BVEC.

	Move	#AVEC,R1	R1 points to vector A.
	Move	#BVEC,R2	R2 points to vector B.
	Move	N,R3	R3 serves as a counter.
	Clear	R0	R0 accumulates the dot product.
LOOP	Move	(R1)+,R4	Compute the product of
	Multiply	(R2)+,R4	next components.
	Add	R4,R0	Add to previous sum.
	Decrement	R3	Decrement the counter.
	Branch>0	LOOP	Loop again if not done.
	Move	R0,DOTPROD	Store dot product in memory.

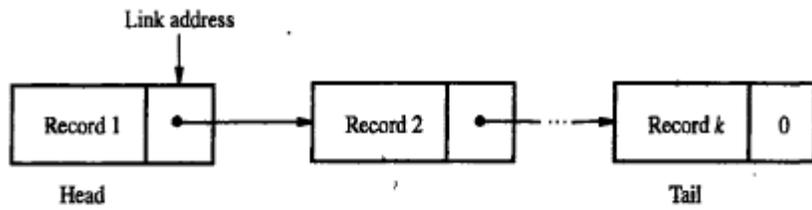
Figure 2.33 A program for computing the dot product of two vectors.

Byte Sorting Program: Consider a program for sorting a list of bytes stored in memory into ascending alphabetic order. Assume that the list consists of n bytes. Let the list stored in memory locations LIST through LIST + $n - 1$, and let n be a 32-bit value stored at address N. To do this, use straight selection sort algorithm. First, the largest number is found and placed at the end of the list in location LIST + $n - 1$. Then the largest number in the remaining sub list of $n - 1$ numbers is placed at the end of the sub list in location LIST + $n - 2$. The procedure is repeated until the list is sorted.

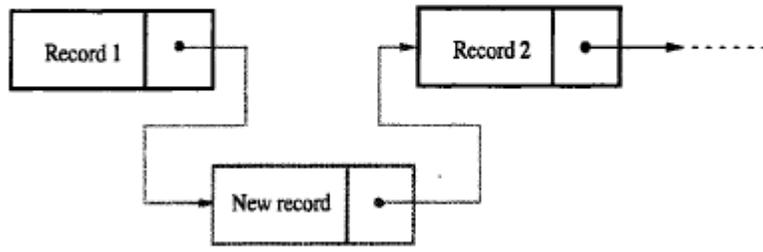
	Move	#LIST,R0	Load LIST into base register R0.
	Move	N,R1	Initialize outer loop index
	Subtract	#1,R1	register R1 to $j = n - 1$.
OUTER	Move	R1,R2	Initialize inner loop index
	Subtract	#1,R1	register R2 to $k = j - 1$.
	MoveByte	(R0,R1),R3	Load LIST(j) into R3, which holds
			current maximum in sublist.
INNER	CompareByte	R3,(R0,R2)	If LIST(k) \leq [R3],
	Branch \leq 0	NEXT	do not exchange.
	MoveByte	(R0,R2),R4	Otherwise, exchange LIST(k)
	MoveByte	R3,(R0,R2)	with LIST(j) and load
	MoveByte	R4,(R0,R1)	new maximum into R3.
	MoveByte	R4,R3	Register R4 serves as TEMP.
NEXT	Decrement	R2	Decrement index registers R2 and
	Branch \geq 0	INNER	R1, which also serve as
	Decrement	R1	as loop counters, and branch
	Branch $>$ 0	OUTER	back if loops not finished.

(b) Assembly language program for sorting

Linked Lists: Suppose to maintain list of student records in consecutive memory locations in increasing order of student ID numbers, use a data structure called Linked List as shown below. To insert a record between i and $i+1$, the link address in record i is copied into the link field in the new record and then the address of the new record is written into the link field of record i . To delete record i , the address in its link field is copied into the link field of record $i-1$.



(a) Linking structure



(b) Inserting a new record between Record 1 and Record 2

Figure 2.35 Linked-list data structure.

A subroutine for performing insertion and deletion are shown below.

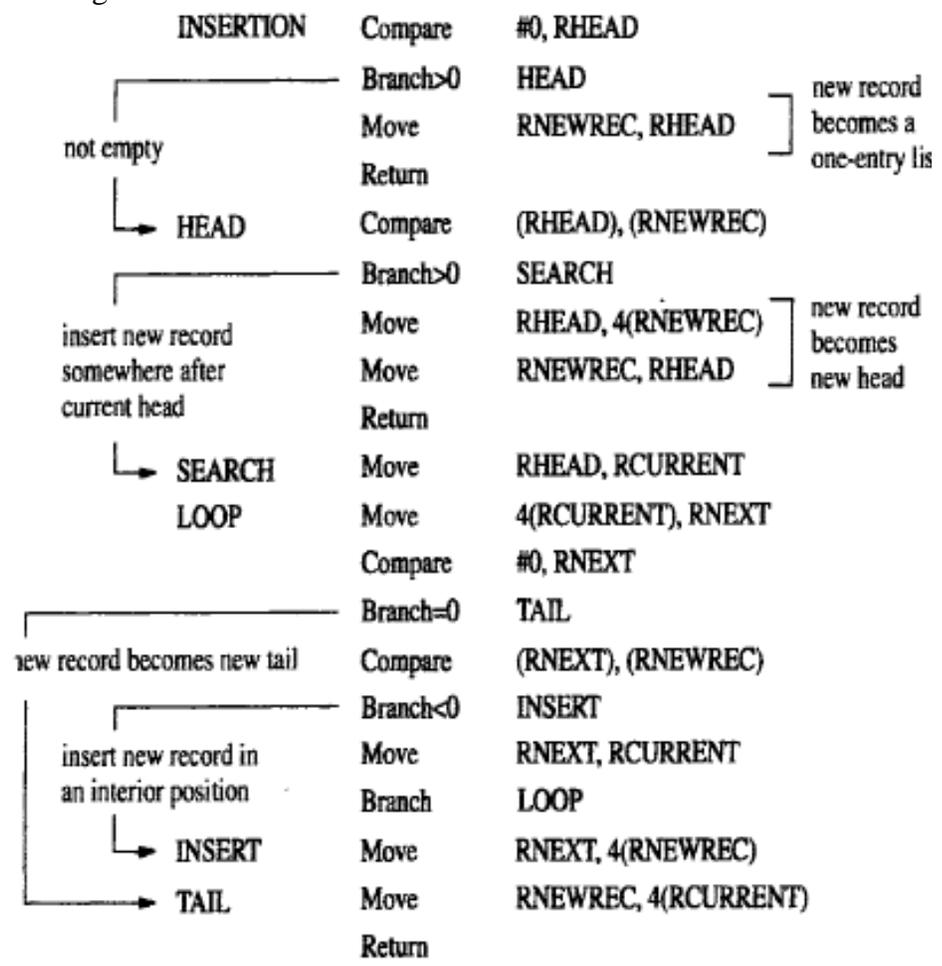


Figure 2.37 A subroutine for inserting a new record into a linked list.

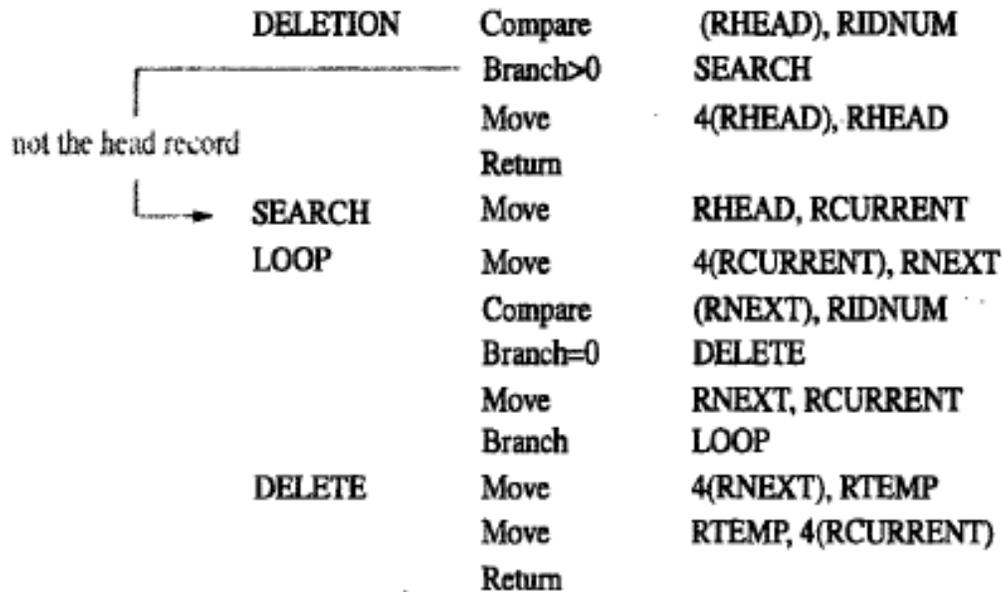


Figure 2.38 A subroutine for deleting a record from a linked list.

FREQUENTLY ASKED QUESTIONS

1. What is a register transfer language?
2. Differentiate the instruction execution for adding 'n' numbers using Straight line sequencing and branching.
3. Write short notes on shift and rotate instructions.
4. Write about various means by which data are transferred between memory of a computer and outside world.
5. What is register transfer notation? Write and explain these notations to three-address, two-address, single address and zero-address instruction types.
6. In how many ways the location of an operand is specified in an instruction? Explain each mode with suitable examples.
7. What are different addressing modes? Explain.
8. Give example for left and right shift operations.
9. List basic input and output operations.
10. Write short notes on additional addressing modes
11. With an example write about relative addressing.
12. Illustrate the concept of assembly directives with an assembly language program
13. Illustrate with examples rotate instruction?
14. Differentiate between shift and rotate instructions.

UNIT – 3

Types of Instructions: Arithmetic and Logic Instructions, Branch Instructions, Addressing modes, Input / Output Instructions.

Arithmetic and Logic Instructions: The ARM instruction set has a number of instructions for **arithmetic operations** on operands that are either contained in the general-purpose registers or given as immediate operands in the instruction itself. The basic assembly-language format for arithmetic and logic instructions is shown below.

opcode *Rd, Rn, Rm*

where the operation specified by the opcode is performed on the source operands in general-purpose registers *Rn* and *Rm*. The result is placed in destination register *Rd*.

Arithmetic Instructions: Different types of Arithmetic instructions are **ADD, SUB, MUL and MLA**. For example, the instruction

ADD R0, R2, R4

performs the operation

$R0 \leftarrow [R2] + [R4]$

The instruction

SUB R0, R6, R5

performs the operation

$R0 \leftarrow [R6] - [R5]$

The second source operand can be specified in the immediate mode. Thus,

ADD R0, R3, #17

performs the operation

$R0 \leftarrow [R3] + 17$

The immediate operand is an 8-bit value contained in bits *b7–0* of the encoded machine instruction. It is an unsigned number in the range 0 to 255. The assembly language allows negative values to be used as immediate operands. If the instruction

ADD R0, R3, #-17

is used in a program, the assembler replaces it with the instruction

SUB R0, R3, #17

When the second source operand is specified as the contents of a register, they can be shifted or rotated before being used in the operation. Logical shift left (LSL), logical shift right (LSR), arithmetic shift right (ASR), and rotate right (ROR). For example, the instruction

ADD R0, R1, R5, LSL #4

is executed as follows. The second source operand, which is contained in register R5, **is shifted left 4 bit positions (equivalent to $[R5] \times 16$)**, then added to the contents of register R1. The sum is placed in register R0. The carry bit, C, is not involved in these operations. The shift or rotation amount can also be specified as the contents of a fourth register.

Two basic versions of a multiply instruction are provided. The first version multiplies the contents of two registers and places the low-order 32-bits of the product in a third register. The high-order bits of the product are discarded. If the operands are 2's-complement numbers, and if their product can be represented in 32 bits, then the retained low-order 32 bits of the product represent the correct result. For example, the instruction

MUL R0, R1, R2

Performs the operation

$R0 \leftarrow [R1] \times [R2]$

The second version of the basic Multiply instruction specifies a fourth register whose contents are added to the product before the result is stored in the destination register. Hence, the instruction

MLA R0, R1, R2, R3

Performs the operation

$$R0 \leftarrow ([R1] \times [R2]) + [R3]$$

This is called a Multiply-Accumulate operation. It is often used in signal-processing applications.

Logic Instructions: Different types of Logic Instructions are **AND, OR, XOR, BIC** and **MVC**. For example, **The AND instruction**

AND Rd, Rn, Rm

performs a bitwise logical AND of the operands in registers *Rn* and *Rm* and places the result in register *Rd*. For example, if register **R0** contains the hexadecimal pattern **02FA62CA** and **R1** contains the pattern **0000FFFF**, then the instruction

AND R0, R0, R1 ($R0 \leftarrow [R0] \wedge [R1]$)

will result in the pattern **000062CA** being placed in register R0.

The Bit Clear instruction, BIC, is closely related to the AND instruction. It complements each bit in operand *Rm* before ANDing them with the bits in register *Rn*. Using the same R0 and R1 bit patterns as in the above example, the instruction

BIC R0, R0, R1 ($R0 \leftarrow [R0] \wedge [\text{NOT } R1]$)

results in the pattern **02FA0000** being placed in R0.

The OR instruction

OR R0,R0,R1 ($R0 \leftarrow [R0] \vee [R1]$)

Performs OR operation between contents of R0, R1 registers.

The XOR instruction

XOR R0,R0,R1 ($R0 \leftarrow [R0] \oplus [R1]$)

Performs XOR operation between contents of R0, R1 registers.

The Move Negation instruction, with the opcode Mnemonic **MVN**, complements the bits of the source operand and places the result in *Rd*. for example,

MVN R0, R3.

If the contents of R3 are the hexadecimal pattern **0F0F0F0F**, then it places the result **F0F0F0F0** in the register R0.

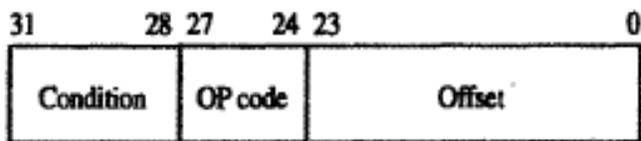
The following ARM program merges two BCD digits into a byte.

LDR	R0, POINTER	Load address LOC into R0 .
LDRB	R1, [R0]	Load ASCII characters
LDRB	R2, [R0, #1]	into R1 and R2 .
AND	R2, R2, #&F	Clear high-order 28 bits of R2 .
ORR	R2, R2, R1, LSL #4	Or [R1] shifted left into [R2] .
STRB	R2, PACKED	Store packed BCD digits
		into PACKED .

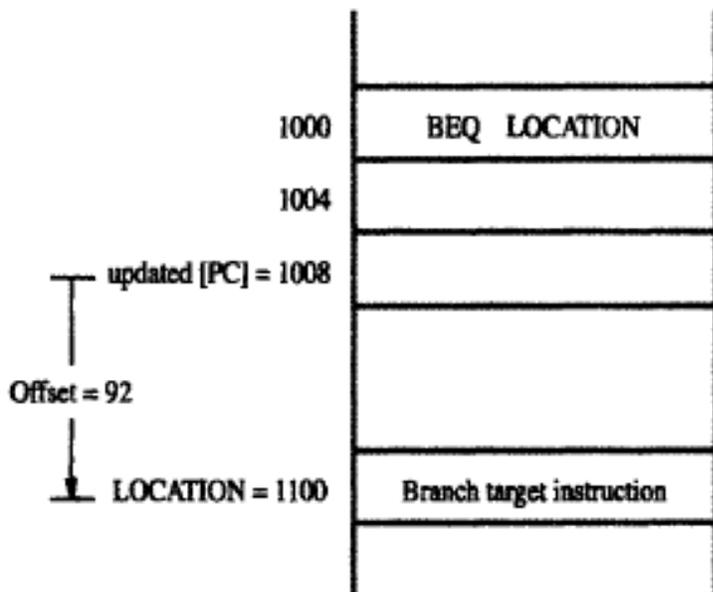
Figure 3.5 An ARM program for packing two 4-bit decimal digits into a byte.

The first instruction in the program loads the address **LOC** into register **R0**. The two ASCII characters containing the BCD digits in their low-order four bits are loaded into the low-order byte positions of registers **R1** and **R2** by the next two Load instructions. The **AND** instruction clears the high-order 2 bits of **R2** to zero, leaving the second BCD digit in the four low-order bit positions. The '&' character in this instruction signifies hexadecimal notation for the immediate value. The **ORR** instruction then shifts the first BCD digit in **R1** to the left four positions and places it to the left of the second BCD digit in **R2**. The two digits packed into the low-order byte of **R2** are then stored into location **PACKED**.

Branch Instructions: Conditional branch instructions contain a signed, 2's complement, 24-bit offset that is added to the updated contents of the program counter to generate the branch target address. The format for the branch instruction is shown below.



(a) Instruction format



(b) Determination of a branch target address

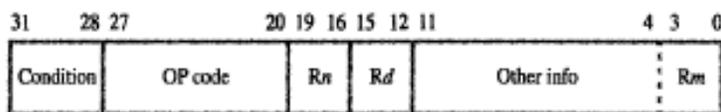


Figure 3.2 ARM instruction format.

The BEQ instruction (Branch if Equal to 0) causes a branch if the Z flag is set to 1. The higher order 4 bits b_{31-28} , of the instruction word determines whether or not branching should take place. At the time the branch target address is computed, the contents of the PC will have been updated to contain the address of the instruction that is two words beyond the Branch instruction itself. This is due to pipelined instruction execution. If the Branch instruction is at address location 1000 and the branch target address is 1100, as shown in Figure D.6, then the offset is 92, because the contents of the updated PC will be $1000 + 8 = 1008$ when the branch target address 1100 is computed.

Setting condition codes: The Compare and Test instructions always update the condition code flags. Some instructions, such as compare, given by `CMP Rn, Rm` performs the operation $[Rn] - [Rm]$. The arithmetic, logic, and Move instructions affect the condition code flags only if explicitly specified to do so by a bit in the OP-code field. This is indicated by appending the suffix S to the assembly language OP-code mnemonic. For example, the instruction `ADDS R0, R1, R2` sets the condition code flags, but `ADD R0, R1, R2` does not.

The following is an ARM program for adding n numbers. Here, Location N contains the number of entries in the list, and location SUM is used to store the sum. The Load and Store operations performed by

the first and last instructions use the Relative addressing mode. This assumes that the memory locations N and SUM are within the range reachable by offsets relative to the PC. The address NUM1 of the first of the numbers to be added is loaded into register R2 by the second instruction. The Post-indexed addressing mode, which includes writeback, is used in the first instruction of the loop.

	LDR	R1,N	Load count into R1.
	LDR	R2,POINTER	Load address NUM1 into R2.
	MOV	R0,#0	Clear accumulator R0.
LOOP	LDR	R3,[R2],#4	Load next number into R3.
	ADD	R0,R0,R3	Add number into R0.
	SUBS	R1,R1,#1	Decrement loop counter R1.
	BGT	LOOP	Branch back if not done.
	STR	R0,SUM	Store sum.

Figure 3.7 An ARM program for adding numbers.

Input / Output Instructions:

Input / Output Instructions: The ARM architecture uses memory mapped I/O. Input / Output operations are essential which has a significant effect on performance of a computer. An I/O device is connected to the interconnection network by using a circuit, called the *device interface*, which provides the means for data transfer and for the exchange of status and control information needed to facilitate the data transfers and govern the operation of the device. The interface includes some registers that can be accessed by the processor. One register may serve as a buffer for data transfers, another may hold information about the current status of the device, and yet another may store the information that controls the operational behavior of the device. These *data*, *status*, and *control* registers are accessed by program instructions as if they were memory locations.

Consider a task that reads in character input from a keyboard and produces character output on a display screen. A simple way of performing such I/O tasks is to use a method known as Program controlled I/O. A solution to this problem is as follows: On output, the processor sends the first character and then waits for a signal from the display that the character has been received. It then sends the second character, and so on. Input is sent from the keyboard in a similar way; the processor waits for a signal indicating that a character key has been struck and that its code is available in some buffer register associated with the keyboard. Then the processor proceeds to read that code.

The keyboard and the display are separate devices as shown below.

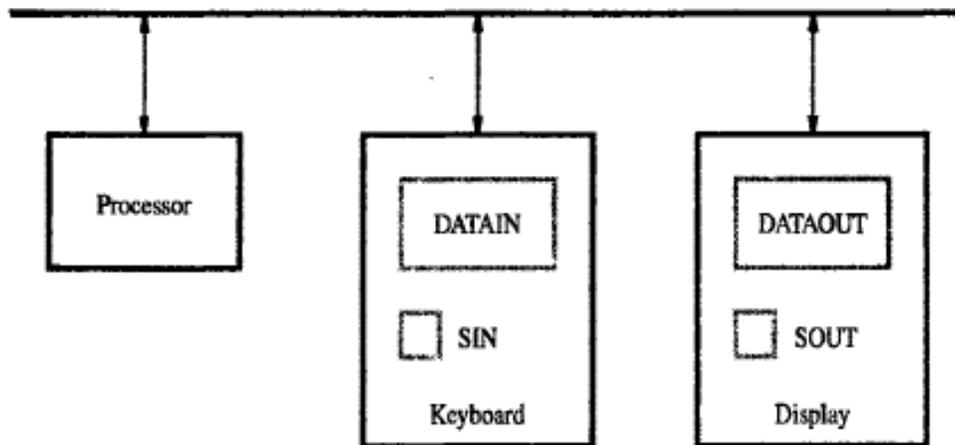


Figure 2.19 Bus connection for processor, keyboard, and display.

Consider the problem of moving a character from the keyboard to the processor. Striking a key stores the corresponding character code in an 8-bit buffer register DATAIN which is associated with the keyboard. To inform the processor that a valid character is in DATAIN, a status control flag, SIN, is set to 1 (initially SIN=0). A program monitors SIN, and when SIN is set to 1, the processor reads the contents of DATAIN. When the character is transferred to the processor, SIN is again set to 1 and the process repeats.

To transfer the characters from processor to display, a buffer register, DATAOUT, and a status control flag, SOUT, are used. When SOUT equals 1, the display is ready to receive a character. Under program control, the processor monitors SOUT, and when SOUT is set to 1, the processor transfers a character code to DATAOUT clears SOUT to 0; when the display device is ready to receive a second character, SOUT is again set to 1.

Suppose that bit 3 in each of the device status registers INSTTUS and OUTSTATUS contains the respective control flags SIN and SOUT. Also assume that the keyboard DATAIN and display DATAOUT registers are located at addresses INSTATUS + 4 and OUTSTATUS + 4. The READ and WRITE wait loops can be implemented as follows.

```

READWAIT  LDR   R3,[R1]
          TST   R3,#8
          BEQ   READWAIT
          LDRB  R3,[R1,#4]
WRITEWAIT LDR   R4,[R2]
          TST   R4,#8
          BEQ   WRITEWAIT
          STRB  R3,[R2,#4]

```

Assume that the address INSTATUS has been loaded into register R1. The instruction sequence reads a character into register R3 when a key has been pressed on the keyboard. The test (TST) instruction performs the bitwise logical AND operation on its two operands and sets the condition code flags based on the result. The immediate operand 8 (0000 1000) has a single 1 in the bit 3 position. Therefore, the result of the TST operation will be zero if bit 3 of INSTATUS is zero and will be non zero if bit 3 is one, signifying that a character is available in DATAIN. The BEQ instruction branches back to READWAIT if the result is zero.

Assuming that the address OUTSTATUS has been loaded into register R2, the instruction sequence sends the character in register R3 to the DATAOUT register when display is ready to receive it.

The following ARM program reads line of characters.

```

READ  LDR   R3,[R1]      Load [INSTATUS] and
      TST   R3,#8        wait for character.
      BEQ   READ
      LDRB  R3,[R1,#4]   Read the character and
      STRB  R3,[R0],#1   store it in memory.
ECHO  LDR   R4,[R2]      Load [OUTSTATUS] and
      TST   R4,#8        wait for display
      BEQ   ECHO        to be ready.
      STRB  R3,[R2,#4]   Send character to display.
      TEQ   R3,#CR      If not carriage return,
      BNE   READ        read more characters.

```

Figure 3.9 An ARM program that reads a line of characters and displays it.

ARM Addressing Modes:

Table D.1 ARM indexed addressing modes.

Name	Assembler syntax	Addressing function
With immediate offset:		
Pre-indexed	$[Rn, \#offset]$	$EA = [Rn] + offset$
Pre-indexed with writeback	$[Rn, \#offset]!$	$EA = [Rn] + offset;$ $Rn \leftarrow [Rn] + offset$
Post-indexed	$[Rn], \#offset$	$EA = [Rn];$ $Rn \leftarrow [Rn] + offset$
With offset magnitude in Rm :		
Pre-indexed	$[Rn, \pm Rm, shift]$	$EA = [Rn] \pm [Rm] \text{ shifted}$
Pre-indexed with writeback	$[Rn, \pm Rm, shift]!$	$EA = [Rn] \pm [Rm] \text{ shifted};$ $Rn \leftarrow [Rn] \pm [Rm] \text{ shifted}$
Post-indexed	$[Rn], \pm Rm, shift$	$EA = [Rn];$ $Rn \leftarrow [Rn] \pm [Rm] \text{ shifted}$
Relative (Pre-indexed with immediate offset)	Location	$EA = \text{Location}$ $= [PC] + offset$

EA = effective address

offset = a signed number contained in the instruction

shift = direction #integer

where direction is LSL for left shift or LSR for right shift; and

integer is a 5-bit unsigned number specifying the shift amount

$\pm Rm$ = the offset magnitude in register Rm can be added to or subtracted from the contents of base register Rn

The basic method for addressing memory operands is an indexed addressing mode, defined as

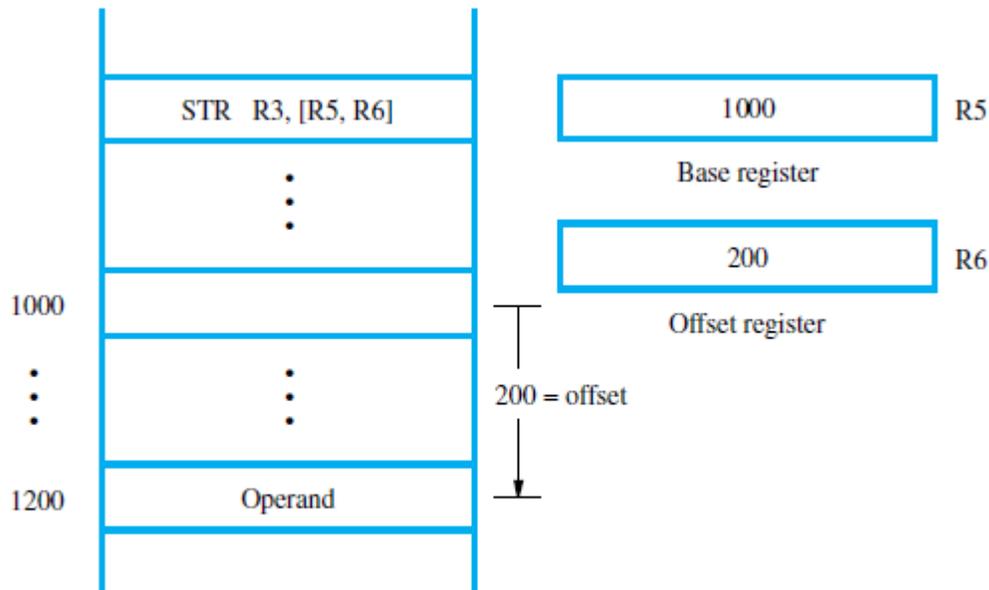
- *Pre-indexed mode*: The effective address of the operand is the **sum of the contents of a base register, Rn , and a signed offset**. For example, the Load instruction

LDR Rd , $[Rn, \#offset]$

specifies the offset (expressed as a signed number) in the immediate mode and performs the operation

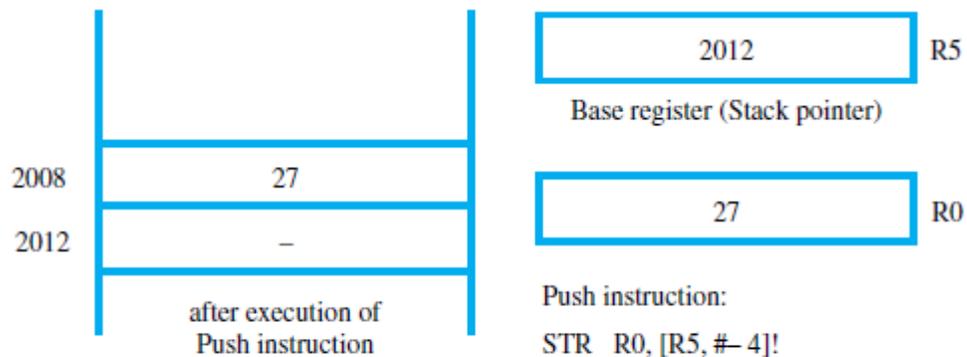
$Rd \leftarrow [Rn] + offset$

The following shows an example of the Pre-indexed mode with the offset contained in register R6 and the base value contained in R5. The Store instruction (STR) stores the contents of R3 into the word at memory location 1200.



(b) Pre-indexed addressing mode

- *Pre-indexed with write back mode:* The effective address of the operand is generated in the same way as in the Pre-indexed mode, then the effective address is written back into R_n . The exclamation mark signifies write-back in pre-indexed addressing mode.



(b) Pre-indexed addressing with writeback

Above shows an example of pushing the contents of register R0, which are 27, onto a programmer-defined stack. Register R5 is used as the stack pointer. Initially, it contains the address 2012 of the current TOS (top-of-stack) element. The Pre-indexed addressing mode with write back can be used to perform the Push operation with the instruction

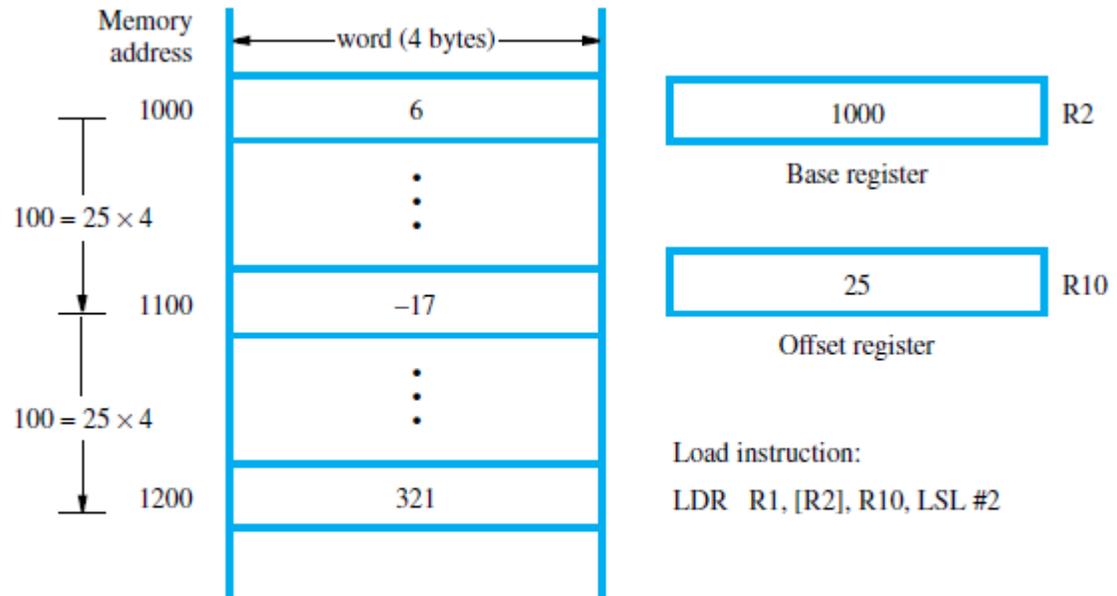
`STR R0, [R5, #-4]!`

The immediate offset -4 is added to the contents of R5 and the new value is written back into R5. Then, this address value of the new top of the stack, 2008, is used as the effective address for the Store operation. The contents of register R0 are then stored at this location.

- ***Post-indexed mode***—The effective address of the operand is the contents of R_n . The offset is then added to this address and the result is written back into R_n . The post-indexed mode always involves write back, so the exclamation is not needed.

pre- and post-indexing are distinguished by the way the square brackets are used. When only the base register is enclosed in square brackets, its contents are used as the effective address. The offset is added to the register contents after the operand is accessed. In other words, post-indexing is specified. When both the base register and the offset are placed inside the square brackets, their sum

is used as the effective address of the operand, that is, pre-indexing is used. If writeback is to be performed, it must be indicated by the exclamation character.



(a) Post-indexed addressing

The first time that the Load instruction is executed, the effective address is $[R2] = 1000$. Therefore, the number 6 at this address is loaded into R1. Then, the write back operation changes the contents of R2 from 1000 to 1100 so that it points to the second number, -17. It does this by shifting the contents, 25, of the offset register R10 left by two bit positions and then adding the shifted value to the contents of R2. The contents of R10 are not changed in this process. The left shift is equivalent to multiplying 25 by 4, generating the required offset of 100. When the Load instruction is executed on the second pass through the loop, the second number, -17, is loaded into R1. The third number, 321, is loaded into R1 on the third pass, and so on.

In all three indexed addressing modes, the offset may be given as an immediate value in the Range ± 4095 . Alternatively, the magnitude of the offset may be specified as the contents of the R_m register, with the sign (direction) of the offset specified by a \pm prefix on the register name. For example, the instruction

LDR R0, [R1, -R2]!

performs the operation

$R0 \leftarrow [[R1] - [R2]]$

The effective address of the operand, $[R1] - [R2]$, is then loaded into R1 because write back is specified.

When the offset is given in a register, it may be scaled by a power of 2 before it is used by shifting it to the right or to the left. This is indicated in assembly language by placing the shift direction (LSL for left shift or LSR for right shift) and the shift amount after the register name, R_m . For example, the contents of R2 in the example above may be multiplied by 16 before being used as an offset by modifying the instruction as follows:

LDR R0, [R1, -R2, LSL #4]!

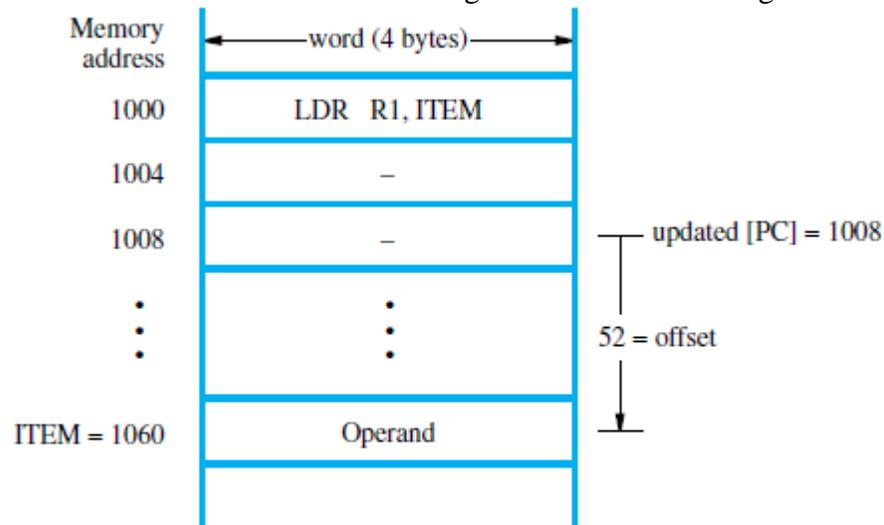
This instruction performs the operation

$R0 \leftarrow [[R1] - 16 \times [R2]]$

and then loads the effective address into R1 because write back is specified.

- *Relative Addressing*: The program counter PC, may be used as the base register R_n . In this case, the relative addressing mode is used. The assembler determines the immediate offset as the signed distance

between the address of the operand and the contents of the updated PC. When the effective address is calculated at instruction execution time, the contents of PC will have been updated to the address two words (8 bytes) forward from the instruction containing the relative addressing mode.



(a) Relative addressing mode

The address of the operand, given symbolically in the instruction as ITEM, is 1060. There is no Absolute addressing mode available in the ARM architecture. Therefore, when the address of a memory location is specified by placing an address label in the operand field, the assembler uses the Relative addressing mode. This is implemented by the Pre-indexed mode with an immediate offset, using PC as the base register. As shown in the figure, the offset calculated by the assembler is 52, because the updated PC will contain 1008 when the offset is added to it during program execution. The effective address generated by this instruction is $1060 = 1008 + 52$. The operand must be within a distance of 4095 bytes forward or backward from the updated PC. If the operand address is outside this range, an error is indicated by the assembler and a different addressing mode must be used to access the operand.

68000 Addressing Modes: The 68000 has several addressing modes which are defined as follows.

Name	Assembler syntax	Addressing function
Immediate	#Value	Operand = Value
Absolute Short	Value	EA = Sign Extended WValue
Absolute Long	Value	EA = Value
Register	Rn	EA = R _n that is, Operand = [R _n]
Register Indirect	(An)	EA = [A _n]
Autoincrement	(An)+	EA = [A _n]; Increment A _n
Autodecrement	-(An)	Decrement A _n ; EA = [A _n]
Basic index	WValue(An)	EA = WValue + [A _n]
Full index	BValue(An, Rk)	EA = BValue + [A _n] + [R _k]
Basic relative	WValue(PC)	EA = WValue + [PC]
Full relative	BValue(PC, Rk)	EA = BValue + [PC] + [R _k]

- *Immediate mode*: The operand is a constant value that is contained within the instruction. Four sizes of immediate operands can be specified. Small 3-bit numbers can be included in the OP-code word of certain instructions. Byte, word, and long word operands are found in one or two extension words that follow the OP-code word.
- *Absolute mode*: The memory address of an operand is given in the instruction immediately after the OP-code word. There are two versions of this mode—long and short. In the long mode, a full 24-bit address is specified in two extension words. In the short mode, a 16-bit value is given in one extension word.
- *Register mode*: The operand is in a processor register, A_n or D_n , that is specified in the instruction.
- *Register indirect mode*: The effective address of the operand is in an address register, A_n , that is specified in the instruction.
- *Auto increment mode*: The effective address of the operand is in an address register, A_n , that is specified in the instruction. After the operand is accessed, the contents of A_n are incremented by 1, 2, or 4, depending on whether the operand is a byte, a word, or a long word.
- *Auto decrement mode*: The contents of an address register, A_n , that is specified in the instruction are first decremented by 1, 2, or 4, depending on whether the operand is a byte, a word, or a long word. The effective address of the operand is then given by the decremented contents of A_n .
- *Basic index mode*: A 16-bit signed offset and an address register, A_n , are specified in the instruction. The offset is sign-extended to 32 bits, and the sum of the sign-extended offset and the 32-bit contents of A_n is the effective address of the operand.
- *Full index mode*: An 8-bit signed offset, an address register A_n , and an index register R_k (either an address or a data register) are given in the instruction. The effective address of the operand is the sum of the sign-extended offset, the contents of register A_n , and the signed contents of register R_k .
- *Basic relative mode*: This mode is the same as the Basic index mode, except that the program counter (PC) is used instead of an address register, A_n .
- *Full relative mode*: This mode is the same as the Full index mode, except that the program counter (PC) is used instead of an address register, A_n .

IA-32 Addressing Modes: The IA-32 architecture has a large and flexible set of addressing modes which are defined as follows.

Name	Assembler syntax	Addressing function
Immediate	Value	Operand = Value
Direct	Location	EA = Location
Register	Reg	EA = Reg that is, Operand = [Reg]
Register indirect	[Reg]	EA = [Reg]
Base with displacement	[Reg + Disp]	EA = [Reg] + Disp
Index with displacement	[Reg * S + Disp]	EA = [Reg] × S + Disp
Base with index	[Reg1 + Reg2 * S]	EA = [Reg1] + [Reg2] × S
Base with index and displacement	[Reg1 + Reg2 * S + Disp]	EA = [Reg1] + [Reg2] × S + Disp

Value = an 8- or 32-bit signed number
 Location = a 32-bit address
 Reg, Reg1, Reg2 = one of the general purpose registers EAX, EBX, ECX, EDX, ESP, EBP, ESI, EDI, with the exception that ESP cannot be used as an index register.
 Disp = an 8- or 32-bit signed number, except that in the Index with displacement mode it can only be 32 bits.
 S = a scale factor of 1, 2, 4, or 8

- *Immediate mode:* The operand is contained in the instruction. It is a signed 8-bit or 32-bit number, with the length being specified by a bit in the opcode of the instruction. This bit is 0 for the short version and 1 for the long version.
- *Direct mode:* The memory address of the operand is given by a 32-bit value in the instruction.
- *Register mode:* The operand is contained in one of the eight general-purpose registers specified in the instruction.
- *Register indirect mode:* The memory address of the operand is contained in one of the eight general-purpose registers specified in the instruction.
- *Base with displacement mode:* An 8-bit or 32-bit signed displacement and one of the eight general-purpose registers to be used as a base register are specified in the instruction. The effective address of the operand is the sum of the contents of the base register and the displacement.
- *Index with displacement mode:* A 32-bit signed displacement, one of the eight general purpose registers to be used as an index register, and a scale factor of 1, 2, 4, or 8, are specified in the instruction. To obtain the effective address of the operand, the contents of the index register are multiplied by the scale factor and then added to the displacement.
- *Base with index mode:* Two of the eight general-purpose registers and a scale factor of 1, 2, 4, or 8, are specified in the instruction. The registers are used as base and index registers. The effective address of the operand is determined by first multiplying the contents of the index register by the scale factor and then adding the result to the contents of the base register.
- *Base with index and displacement mode:* An 8-bit or 32-bit signed displacement, two of the eight general-purpose registers, and a scale factor of 1, 2, 4, or 8, are specified in the instruction. The registers are used as base and index registers. The effective address of the operand is determined by first multiplying the contents of the index register by the scale factor and then adding the result to the contents of the base register and the displacement.

FREQUENTLY ASKED QUESTIONS

1. Write about branch instruction and its significance?
2. Write about logic instruction and its significance.
3. Differentiate post-indexed and pre-indexed addressing with write back policy.
4. Differentiate relative and absolute addressing modes for branch instructions
5. What is the format of arithmetic instruction in assembly language? Elaborate variants of OP code in it.
6. How to determine branch target address?
7. Write in detail, about register operands, immediate operands and shifted immediate operands of arithmetic and logic instructions.
8. Discuss load/store instructions for multiple operands.
9. What are the conditional branch instructions? Explain each with an example
10. How to perform AND, OR, NAND, NOR and XOR logic instructions? Give example
11. Write the instruction format of ARM.