

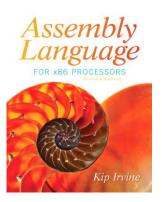
# EE213 COMPUTER ORGANIZATION AND ASSEMBLY LANGUAGE

Fall 2019

#### Instructor

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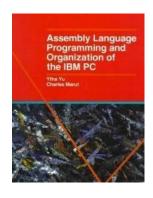
#### **Recommended Text Book**



#### Assembly Language

FOR X86 PROCESSORS
Seventh Edition
Kip R. Irvine

#### Reference Text Book



Assembly Language Programming and Organization of the IBM PC
Ytha Yu, Charles Marut

### MARKS DISTRIBUTION

- •MID I (6<sup>th</sup> Week) : 15 %
- •MID II (12<sup>th</sup> Week): 15 %
- •Quizzes/Assignment(s): ~20%
- •Semester Project : ~ 10%
- •Final: ~40% ~50 %

### **PREREQUISITES**

Digital Logic Design

Programming experience with some high-level language such C, C ++, Java ...

### **COURSE OBJECTIVE**

- •Covering the basics of computer organization with emphasis on the lower level abstraction of a computer system
- Programming Methodology of low-level languages, the assembly language.
- Accessing computer hardware directly
- Overview of a user-visible architecture (of Intel 80x86 processors)
- •Intel 80x86 instruction set, assembler directives, macro, etc.
- Device handlers
- •How is it possible to interface high-level language and low-level language modules

### TEACHING PLAN

- •Coverage from  $\sim$ **12** chapters from recommended book.
- Additional coverage from reference material.

#### •Mid I:

- Coverage from Ch#1 Ch#5 (~ 5 Chapters)
- Quiz I

#### •Mid II:

- Ch#5 Ch#8 (~ 4 Chapters)
- Quiz II
- Semester Project

#### Finals

- Ch#9, Ch#12, Ch#13, Ch#17, Reference Material
- Quiz III
- Semester Assignment

### ASSEMBLY LANGUAGE (ASM)

- Machine-dependent, low-level language that uses words instead of binary code to program a specific computer system
  - Assembler is a utility program that converts source code programs from assembly language into machine language.
  - A *linker* is a utility program that combines individual files created by an assembler into a single executable program.
- •Strong correspondence between the language and the architecture's machine code instructions.
- Specific to a particular computer architecture.

### WHY ASSEMBLY LANGUAGE

- •You'll be able to choose better high-level language statements.
- •To learn the costs associated with various high-level constructs.
- Direct hardware manipulation
- •Access to specialized processor instructions, or to address critical performance issues
- •For writing the compilers or device drivers, write some code in assembly language.

### **COMPUTER ORGANIZATION**

- •Computer organization describes *how* a task is done by the computer.
  - Usually a high-level description of the logic, memory, etc.

#### Computer Architecture VS Computer's organization

- •Computer architecture is abstract model and are those attributes that are visible to programmer
- instructions sets, no of bits used for data, addressing techniques.
- Computer organization expresses the realization of the architecture
  - how features are implemented like these registers, those data paths or this connection to memory
  - how different components of computer are linked together to meet the requirements.
- •Computer architecture comes before computer organization.

#### Assembly Language and the Machine Language

\*Assembly language has a *one-to-one* relationship with machine language.

#### High Level Language and the Assembly Language

•High-level languages have a *one-to-many* relationship with assembly language and machine language.

• Assembly language consists of statements written with short mnemonics such as ADD, MOV, SUB, and CALL.

Machine Language	Assembly Language	High-Level Language
Collection of binary numbers.	Symbolic form of machine language (i.e. Symbolic names names are used to represent represent operations, registers &	Combines algebraic expressions expressions & symbols taken from taken from English language (e.g. language (e.g. C++, java, Pascal, Pascal, FORTRAN,etc)
e.g. 10100001 00000000 00000000 00000101 00000100 00000000	e.g. MOV AX, A ADD AX, 4 MOV A, AX	e.g. A = A + 4

#### The Instruction Set Architecture (ISA)

- •instruction set, in the processor, to carry out basic operations, such as move, add, or multiply.
  - also referred to as machine language.

#### **Assembly Language**

•Above the ISA level, assembly language uses short mnemonics which are easily translated to the ISA level.

#### **High Level Languages**

 Above the assembly level, their powerful statements are translate into multiple assembly language instructions

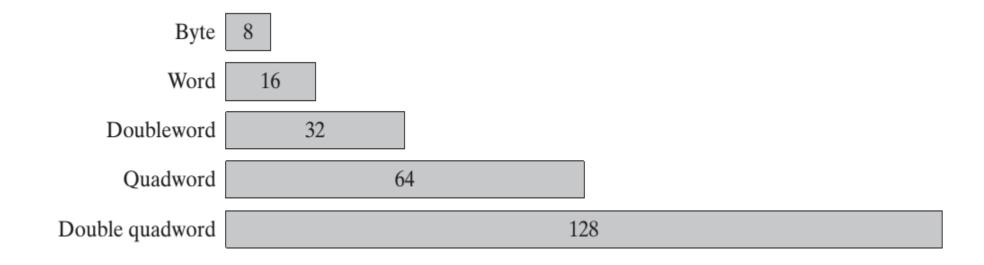
Level 4	High-level language
Level 3	Assembly language
Level 2	Instruction set architecture (ISA)
Level 1	Digital logic

### DATA REPRESENTATION

System	Base	Possible Digits
Binary	2	0 1
Octal	8	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Decimal	10	0123456789
Hexadecimal	16	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A B C D E F

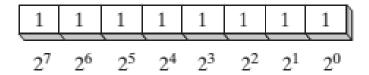
MSB												L	SB				
	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	
	15															0	Bit number

### STORAGE SIZES

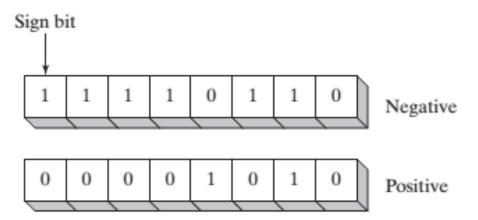


### SIGNED VS UNSIGNED

Unsigned



Signed



### TWO'S-COMPLIMENT REPRESENTATION

•Negative integers use two's-complement representation.

Starting value	0000001
Step 1: Reverse the bits	11111110
Step 2: Add 1 to the value from Step 1	11111110 +00000001
Sum: Two's-complement representation	11111111

### **BOOLEAN EXPRESSIONS**

NOT

X	¬х
F	T
T	F

•AND

X	Υ	$\mathbf{X} \wedge \mathbf{Y}$
F	F	F
F	T	F
T	F	F
Т	T	T

•OR

Х	Υ	$\mathbf{X} \vee \mathbf{Y}$
F	F	F
F	Т	T
Т	F	T
Т	Т	T

## X86 Processor Architecture

### **OUTLINES**

•General Concepts

•32-Bit x86 Processors

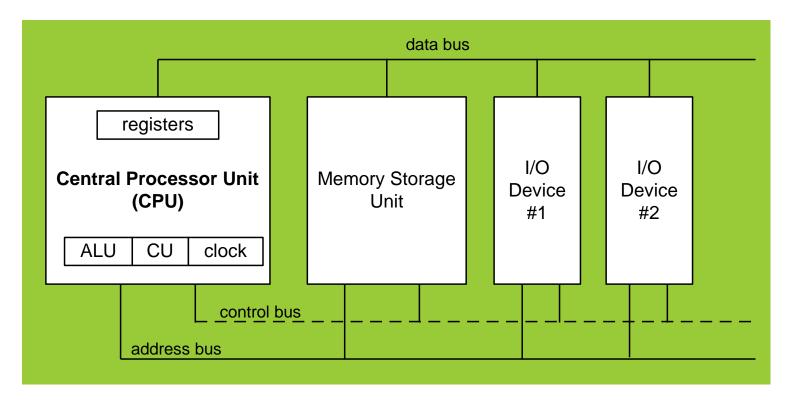
Components of a Typical x86 Computer

### GENERAL CONCEPTS

Basic microcomputer design

•Instruction execution cycle

#### BASIC MICROCOMPUTER DESIGN



Clock synchronizes CPU operations

Control Unit (CU) coordinates sequence of execution steps

ALU performs arithmetic and bitwise processing

•Memory Storage Unit: primary memory

•I/O Devices: Input/Output devices

•Data Bus: moves data between memory, i/o, and registers

•Control Bus: The *control bus* uses binary signals to synchronize actions of all devices attached to the system bu

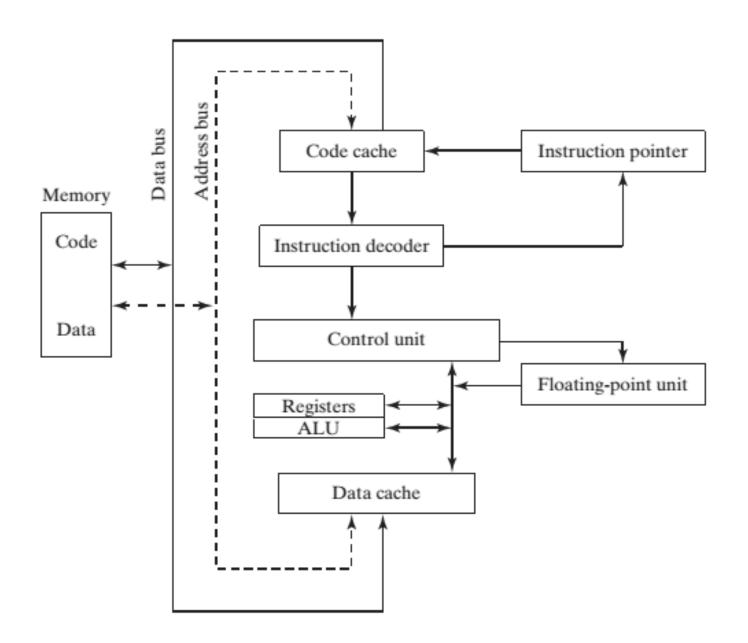
•Address Bus: determines where the data comes from or goes to

#### INSTRUCTION EXECUTION CYCLE

- •An instruction is not executed all at once, the CPU has to go through the *Instruction Execution Cycle* (a sequence of steps) to execute a machine instruction:
- 1. CPU has to **fetch the instruction** from an area of memory called the *instruction queue*.
- 2. Next, the CPU decodes the instruction by looking at its binary bit pattern.
- 3. If operands are involved, the CPU **fetches the operands** from registers and memory.
- 4. Next, the CPU **executes** the instruction, using any operand values it fetched during the earlier step.
- 5. Finally, if an output operand was part of the instruction, the CPU stores the result of its execution in the operand.

#### program counter instruction queue PC program fetch **Fetch** memory op1 read **Decode** op2 registers registers Fetch operands instruction **I-1** register **Execute** decode Store output write ALU flags ← execute (output)

INSTRUCTION EXECUTION CYCLE



### 32-BIT X86 PROCESSORS

Modes of Operation

Basic Execution Environment

\*x86 Memory Management

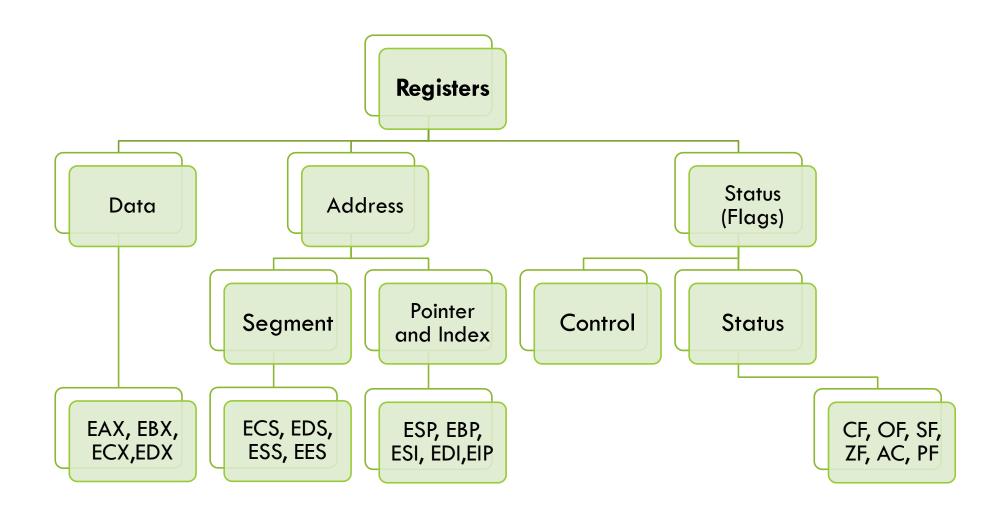
### MODES OF OPERATION

- •The CPU privilege levels.
- Protected Mode: all instructions are available.
- •Real-address Mode: implements programming environment of Intel8086 processor
- •System Management Mode: provides OS for power management, system security, diagnostics etc.
- Virtual-8086 mode
  - hybrid of Protected
  - each program has its own 8086 computer

### BASIC EXECUTION ENVIRONMENT

#### **Basic Program Execution Registers**

- •Registers are high-speed named storage locations directly inside the CPU.
- •The registers are classified according to the functions they perform:
  - Data/General Purpose Registers hold data for an operation
  - Address registers hold the address of an instruction or data
  - Status register keeps the current status of the processor.



- •Data Registers (EAX, EBX, ECX, EDX): These four registers are available to the programmer for general data manipulation.
- EAX (Extended Accumulator Register) is preferred to use in in arithmetic, logic and control instructions.
- EBX (Extended Base Register) is used to serve as an address register.
- **ECX** (Extended Counter Register) serves as loop counter.
- EDX (Extended Data Register) is used in multiplication and division.
- The high and low bytes of the data registers can be accessed separately.

- •Portions of some registers can be addressed as 8-bit values.
  - For example, the AX register has an 8-bit upper half named AH and an 8-bit lower half named AL.

32-Bit	16-Bit	8-Bit (High)	8-Bit (Low)		8	8	
EAX	AX	АН	AL		AH	AL	8 bits + 8 bits
EBX	BX	ВН	BL				
ECX	CX	СН	CL		A	X	1617
EDX	DX	DH	DL				16 bits
				E	AX		221:4
							32 bits

- •Memory Segment: A memory segment is a block of consecutive memory bytes. Each segment is identified by a segment number.
- •Within a segment, a memory location is specified by giving an **offset**. This is the number of bytes from the beginning of the segment.
- •A memory location may be specified by providing a segment number and an offset, written in the format **Segment:Offset**.
- •E.g. A4FB:4872h means offset 4872h within segment A4FBh.

- •The program's code, data, and stack are loaded into different memory segments, we call them the **code** segment, data segment, and stack segment.
- Stack segment holds local function variables and function parameters
- •To keep track of the various program segments, segment register are used.
- •The ECS (Extended Code Segment), EDS (Extended Data Segment), and ESS (Extended Stack Segment) registers contain the code, data, and segment numbers (base addresses) respectively.
  - If a program needs to access a second data segment, it can use the EES (Extended Extra segment) register.

#### Pointer and Index Register (ESP, EBP, ESI, EDI)

- •The registers ESP, EBP, ESI, and EDI normally point to (contain the offset addresses of) memory locations.
- •Unlike segment registers, the pointers and index registers can be used in arithmetic and other operations.
  - ESP (Extended Stack Pointer): this register is used in conjunction with ESS for accessing the stack segment.
  - EBP (Extended Base Pointer): these registers are used to access data on the stack and other segments.
  - **ESI (Extended Source Index)**: these registers are used to point to memory locations in the data segment addressed by EDS.
  - **EDI (Extended Destination Index):** these registers perform the same functions as ESI, these are used to access memory location addressed by EES.

#### Extended Instruction Pointer (EIP):

- •The memory registers covered so far are for data access.
- •To access instructions, x86 uses the ECS and EIP registers.
- •The ECS contain the number(base address) of next instruction to be executed and EIP contains the offset.
  - EIP is updated every time an instruction is executed so that it will point to the next instruction.

#### •FLAGS Register

- •The purpose of the FLAGS register is to indicate the status of the microprocessor. It does this by the setting of individual bits called *flags*.
  - A flag is set when it equals 1; it is clear (or reset) when it equals 0.

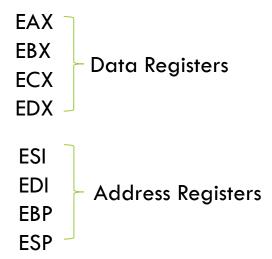
- •There are two kinds of flags: control flags and status flags.
- •The control flags enable or disable certain operations of the processor.
- for example, if the IF (interrupt flag) is cleared (set to 0), inputs from the keyboard are ignored by the processor.
- •The status flags reflect the result of an instruction executed by the processor.
- •For example, when a subtraction operation results in a 0, the **ZF** (zero flag) is set to 1 (true).
- •Carry Flag: set when the result of an *unsigned* arithmetic operation is too large to fit into the destination.
  - CF = 1 if there is a carry out from the most significant bit (msb) on addition, or there is a borrow into the MSB on subtraction.
- •The **Overflow** flag (OF) is set when the result of a *signed* arithmetic operation is too large or too small to fit into the destination.
  - OF = 1 if signed overflow occurred, otherwise it is 0

- •The **Sign** flag (SF) is set when the result of an arithmetic or logical operation generates a negative result.
  - SF = 1 if the msb of a result is 1; SF = 0 if the msb is 0
- •The **Zero** flag (ZF) is set when the result of an arithmetic or logical operation generates a result of zero.
- •The **Auxiliary Carry** flag (AC) is set when an arithmetic operation causes a carry from bit 3 to bit 4 in an 8-bit operand.
- •The **Parity** flag (PF) is set if the least-significant byte in the result contains an even number of 1 bits.

#### •In x86 processors, there are:

- eight general-purpose registers
- six segment registers
- a processor status flags register (EFLAGS)
- an instruction pointer (EIP).

•General Purpose Registers: These are primarily used for arithmetic and data movement.



### SUMMARY

Assembly Language and its Objective(s)

Computer Organization VS Computer Architecture

High Level, Low Level, Machine Language

Instruction Set Architecture

Data Representation

Storage Sizes

Signed VS Unsigned Values

Two's Complement

**Boolean Expressions** 

### **SUMMARY**

Central Processing Unit (CPU)

Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU)

Instruction execution cycle

Real mode and Protected mode

Base vs Offset Address

Registers

Memory types