

The x86 PC

assembly language, design, and interfacing

fifth
edition

Prentice Hall

Dec	Hex	Bin
0	0	00000000

ORG ; ZERO

Introduction To Computing

The x86 PC

assembly language,
design, and interfacing

fifth edition

MUHAMMAD ALI MAZIDI
JANICE GILLISPIE MAZIDI
DANNY CAUSEY



OBJECTIVES

this chapter enables the student to:

- Convert any number from base 2, base 10, or base 16 to any of the other two bases.
- Add and subtract hex numbers.
- Add binary numbers.
- Represent any binary number in 2's complement.
- Represent an alphanumeric string in ASCII code.
- Describe logical operations AND, OR, NOT, XOR, NAND, NOR.
- Use logic gates to diagram simple circuits.

OBJECTIVES

(*cont*)

this chapter enables the student to:

- Explain the difference between a bit, a nibble, a byte, and a word.
- Give precise mathematical definitions of the terms *kilobyte*, *megabyte*, *gigabyte*, and *terabyte*.
- Explain the difference between RAM and ROM, and describe their use.
- Describe the purpose of the major components of a computer system.
- List the three types of buses in a computer system and describe the purpose of each bus.

OBJECTIVES

(*cont*)

this chapter enables the student to:

- Describe the role of the CPU in computer systems.
- List the major components of the CPU and describe the purpose of each.

0.1 Numbering and Coding Systems

- Speculation is that origin of the base 10 system is the fact that human beings have 10 fingers.
- Humans use base 10 (*decimal*) arithmetic, and computers use the base 2 (*binary*) system.
 - In base 10 are 10 distinct symbols, 0, 1, 2, ...9.
 - In base 2 there are only two symbols, the binary digits 0 & 1 - commonly referred to as *bits*.
- The binary system is used in computers because 0 & 1 represent the two voltage levels of *off* & *on*.

0.1 Numbering and Coding Systems

converting from decimal to binary

- To convert decimal to binary, divide the decimal number by 2 repeatedly until the quotient is zero.
 - Remainders are written in reverse order to obtain the binary number.

Convert 25_{10} to binary.

Solution:

	<i>Quotient</i>	<i>Remainder</i>	
$25/2 =$	12	1	LSB (least significant bit)
$12/2 =$	6	0	
$6/2 =$	3	0	
$3/2 =$	1	1	
$1/2 =$	0	1	MSB (most significant bit)

Therefore, $25_{10} = 11001_2$.

0.1 Numbering and Coding Systems

converting from binary to decimal

- To convert from binary to decimal, it is important to understand the concept of weight associated with each digit position.
 - Each digit position of a number in base 2 has a weight associated with it.

	<i>Decimal</i>	<i>Binary</i>
$110101_2 =$		
$1 \times 2^0 = 1 \times 1 = 1$	1	1
$0 \times 2^1 = 0 \times 2 = 0$	0	00
$1 \times 2^2 = 1 \times 4 = 4$	4	100
$0 \times 2^3 = 0 \times 8 = 0$	0	0000
$1 \times 2^4 = 1 \times 16 = 16$	16	10000
$1 \times 2^5 = 1 \times 32 = \underline{32}$	<u>32</u>	<u>100000</u>
	53	110101

$740683_{10} =$	
$3 \times 10^0 =$	3
$8 \times 10^1 =$	80
$6 \times 10^2 =$	600
$0 \times 10^3 =$	0000
$4 \times 10^4 =$	40000
$7 \times 10^5 =$	<u>700000</u>
	740683

0.1 Numbering and Coding Systems

converting from binary to decimal

- Knowing the weight of each bit in a binary number makes it simple to add them together to get the number's decimal equivalent.
 - Shown here in Example 0-2.

Convert 11001_2 to decimal.

Solution:

Weight:	16	8	4	2	1
Digits:	1	1	0	0	1
Sum:	$16 +$	$8 +$	$0 +$	$0 +$	$1 = 25_{10}$

0.1 Numbering and Coding Systems

converting from decimal to binary

- Knowing the weight associated with each binary bit position allows one to convert a decimal number to binary directly instead of going through the process of repeated division.
 - This is Example 0-3.

Use the concept of weight to convert 39_{10} to binary.

Solution:

Weight:	32	16	8	4	2	1
	1	0	0	1	1	1
	32 +	0 +	0 +	4 +	2 +	1 = 39

Therefore, $39_{10} = 100111_2$.

0.1 Numbering and Coding Systems

hexadecimal system

- Base 16, or the *hexadecimal* system is a convenient representation of binary numbers, using 16 digits.

The first ten digits, 0 to 9, are the same as in decimal.

For the remaining six digits, letters A, B, C, D, E, and F are used. subtraction.

It is easier for humans to express strings of 0s & 1s like 100010010110 as the hexadecimal number 896H.

**Base 16
Number System**

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

0.1 Numbering and Coding Systems

converting binary to hex

- To represent a binary number as its equivalent hexadecimal number, start from the right & group 4 bits at a time, replacing each 4-bit binary number with its hex equivalent shown.

Represent binary 100111110101 in hex.

Solution:

First the number is grouped into sets of 4 bits: 1001 1111 0101.
Then each group of 4 bits is replaced with its hex equivalent:

1001	1111	0101
9	F	5

Therefore, $100111110101_2 = 9F5$ hexadecimal.

0.1 Numbering and Coding Systems

converting hex to binary

- To convert from hex to binary, each hex digit is replaced with its 4-bit binary equivalent.
 - Shown here in Example 0-5.

Convert hex 29B to binary.

Solution:

		2	9	B
29B	=	0010	1001	1011

Dropping the leading zeros gives 1010011011.

0.1 Numbering and Coding Systems

two ways of converting decimal to hex

- Convert directly from decimal to hex by repeated division, keeping track of the remainders.

Convert the following hexadecimal numbers to decimal.

(a) $6B2_{16} = 0110\ 1011\ 0010_2$

<u>1024</u>	<u>512</u>	<u>256</u>	<u>128</u>	<u>64</u>	<u>32</u>	<u>16</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>
1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0

$$1024 + 512 + 128 + 32 + 16 + 2 = 1714_{10}$$

(b) $9F2D_{16} = 1001\ 1111\ 0010\ 1101_2$

<u>32768</u>	<u>16384</u>	<u>8192</u>	<u>4096</u>	<u>2048</u>	<u>1024</u>	<u>512</u>	<u>256</u>	<u>128</u>	<u>64</u>	<u>32</u>	<u>16</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>
1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1

$$32768 + 4096 + 2048 + 1024 + 512 + 256 + 32 + 8 + 4 + 1 = 40,749_{10}$$

- Convert to binary first, then convert to hex.

(a) Convert 45_{10} to hex.

$\frac{32}{1}$	$\frac{16}{0}$	$\frac{8}{1}$	$\frac{4}{1}$	$\frac{2}{0}$	$\frac{1}{1}$	First, convert to binary. $32 + 8 + 4 + 1 = 45$
----------------	----------------	---------------	---------------	---------------	---------------	--

$$45_{10} = 0010\ 1101_2 = 2D\ \text{hex}$$

(b) Convert 629_{10} to hex.

$\frac{512}{1}$	$\frac{256}{0}$	$\frac{128}{0}$	$\frac{64}{1}$	$\frac{32}{1}$	$\frac{16}{1}$	$\frac{8}{0}$	$\frac{4}{1}$	$\frac{2}{0}$	$\frac{1}{1}$
-----------------	-----------------	-----------------	----------------	----------------	----------------	---------------	---------------	---------------	---------------

$$629_{10} = (512 + 64 + 32 + 16 + 4 + 1) = 0010\ 0111\ 0101_2 = 275\ \text{hex}$$

(c) Convert 1714_{10} to hex.

$\frac{1024}{1}$	$\frac{512}{1}$	$\frac{256}{0}$	$\frac{128}{1}$	$\frac{64}{0}$	$\frac{32}{1}$	$\frac{16}{1}$	$\frac{8}{0}$	$\frac{4}{0}$	$\frac{2}{1}$	$\frac{1}{0}$
------------------	-----------------	-----------------	-----------------	----------------	----------------	----------------	---------------	---------------	---------------	---------------

$$1714_{10} = (1024 + 512 + 128 + 32 + 16 + 2) = 0110\ 1011\ 0010_2 = 6B2\ \text{hex}$$

0.1 Numbering and Coding Systems

counting in bases 10, 2 & 16

- Table 0-2 shows the relationship between all three bases in the sequence of numbers from 0 to 31 in decimal, with equivalent binary & hex numbers.

In each base, when one more is added to the highest digit, that digit becomes zero.

A 1 is carried to the next-highest digit position.

Decimal	Binary	Hex	Decimal	Binary	Hex
0	00000	0	16	10000	10
1	00001	1	17	10001	11
2	00010	2	18	10010	12
3	00011	3	19	10011	13
4	00100	4	20	10100	14
5	00101	5	21	10101	15
6	00110	6	22	10110	16
7	00111	7	23	10111	17
8	01000	8	24	11000	18
9	01001	9	25	11001	19
10	01010	A	26	11010	1A
11	01011	B	27	11011	1B
12	01100	C	28	11100	1C
13	01101	D	29	11101	1D
14	01110	E	30	11110	1E
15	01111	F	31	11111	1F

0.1 Numbering and Coding Systems

addition of binary and hex numbers

- Table 0-3 shows the addition of two bits.

A + B	Carry	Sum
0 + 0	0	0
0 + 1	0	1
1 + 0	0	1
1 + 1	1	0

- Example 0-8 shows addition of binary numbers.

Add the following binary numbers. Check against decimal equivalents.

Solution:	<i>Binary</i>	<i>Decimal</i>
	1101	13
+	<u>1001</u>	<u>9</u>
	10110	22

0.1 Numbering and Coding Systems

subtraction of binary & hex numbers

- All computers use the addition process to implement subtraction.
 - Computers have adder circuitry, but no separate circuitry for subtracters.
- Adders are used in conjunction with *2's complement* circuitry to perform subtraction.
 - To implement " $x - y$ ", the computer takes the 2's complement of y and adds it to x .

0.1 Numbering and Coding Systems

2's complement of a binary number

- To get the 2's complement of a binary number, invert all the bits and then add 1 to the result.

Take the 2's complement of 100111

Solution:	10011101	binary number
	01100010	1's complement
	+ 1	
	01100011	2's complement

- Inverting the bits is simply a matter of changing all 0s to 1s and 1s to 0s.
 - This is called the *1's complement*.

0.1 Numbering and Coding Systems

addition & subtraction of hex numbers

- To add, start with the least significant digit, & add the digits together.
 - If the result is less than 16, write that digit as the sum for that position.
 - If greater than 16, subtract 16 from it to get the digit and carry 1 to the next digit.

Perform hex addition: 23D9 + 94BE.

Solution:

23D9	LSD: $9 + 14 = 23$	$23 - 16 = 7$ with a carry
+ 94BE	$1 + 13 + 11 = 25$	$25 - 16 = 9$ with a carry
B897	$1 + 3 + 4 = 8$	
	MSD: $2 + 9 = B$	

0.1 Numbering and Coding Systems

addition & subtraction of hex numbers

- In subtracting two hex numbers, if the second digit is greater than the first, borrow 16 from the preceding digit.

Perform hex addition: $23D9 + 94BE$.

Solution:

$$\begin{array}{r} 23D9 \\ + 94BE \\ \hline B897 \end{array}$$

LSD: $9 + 14 = 23$

$1 + 13 + 11 = 25$

$1 + 3 + 4 = 8$

MSD: $2 + 9 = B$

$23 - 16 = 7$ with a carry

$25 - 16 = 9$ with a carry

Mastery of these techniques is essential.

0.1 Numbering and Coding Systems

ASCII code

- Because all information in the computer must be represented by 0s & 1s, binary patterns must be assigned to letters and other characters.
- In the 1960s, a standard representation called **ASCII** was established.
 - Named for the **A**merican **S**tandard **C**ode for **I**nformation **I**nterchange, pronounced “Ask-E”.
- It assigns binary patterns for numbers 0 to 9, and all English alphabet letters, upper- and lower-case.
 - Also many control codes & punctuation marks.

0.1 Numbering and Coding Systems

ASCII code

- ASCII code is used by most computers, so information can be shared among them.
 - ASCII uses a total of 7 bits to represent each code.

Often, a zero is placed in the most-significant bit position to make it an 8-bit code.

A complete list of ASCII codes is given in Appendix F.

<i>Hex</i>	<i>Symbol</i>	<i>Hex</i>	<i>Symbol</i>
41	A	61	a
42	B	62	b
43	C	63	c
44	D	64	d
...
59	Y	79	y
5A	Z	7A	z

Figure 0-1 Selected ASCII Codes

0.1 Numbering and Coding Systems

ASCII code

- ASCII is standard for keyboards and provides a standard for printing & displaying characters by output devices.
 - The pattern of ASCII was designed to allow for easy manipulation of ASCII data.
- Digits 0 - 9 are represented by ASCII codes 30 - 39.
 - This enables a program to convert ASCII to decimal by masking off (changing to zero) the “3” in the upper nibble.
- Conversion between uppercase and lowercase is as simple as changing bit 5 of the ASCII code.

0.1 Numbering and Coding Systems

selected ASCII codes

Hex	Ch	Hex	Ch	Hex	Ch	Hex	Ch	Hex	Ch	Hex	Ch	Hex	Ch
00		10	▶	20		30	0	40	@	50	P	60	'
01	☺	11	◀	21	!	31	1	41	A	51	Q	61	a
02	☹	12	↕	22	"	32	2	42	B	52	R	62	b
03	♥	13	⚡	23	#	33	3	43	C	53	S	63	c
04	♦	14	¶	24	\$	34	4	44	D	54	T	64	d
05	♣	15	§	25	%	35	5	45	E	55	U	65	e
06	♠	16	▬	26	&	36	6	46	F	56	V	66	f
07	+	17	⚖	27	'	37	7	47	G	57	W	67	g
08	◼	18	↑	28	<	38	8	48	H	58	X	68	h
09	◯	19	↓	29	>	39	9	49	I	59	Y	69	i
0A	◻	1A	→	2A	✖	3A	:	4A	J	5A	Z	6A	j
0B	◼	1B	←	2B	+	3B	;	4B	K	5B	[6B	k
0C	♀	1C	└	2C	,	3C	<	4C	L	5C	\	6C	l
0D	♫	1D	↔	2D	-	3D	=	4D	M	5D]	6D	m
0E	♫	1E	▲	2E	.	3E	>	4E	N	5E	^	6E	n
0F	✳	1F	▼	2F	/	3F	?	4F	O	5F	_	6F	o
												70	p
												71	q
												72	r
												73	s
												74	t
												75	u
												76	v
												77	w
												78	x
												79	y
												7A	z
												7B	{
												7C	
												7D	}
												7E	~
												7F	Δ

0.2 Digital Primer

binary logic

- Signals in digital electronics have two distinct voltage levels.
 - A system may define 0 V as logic 0 and +5 V as logic 1.
- A valid digital signal in this example should be within either of the two shaded areas.
 - Fig. 0-2 shows this with built-in tolerances for variation in voltage.

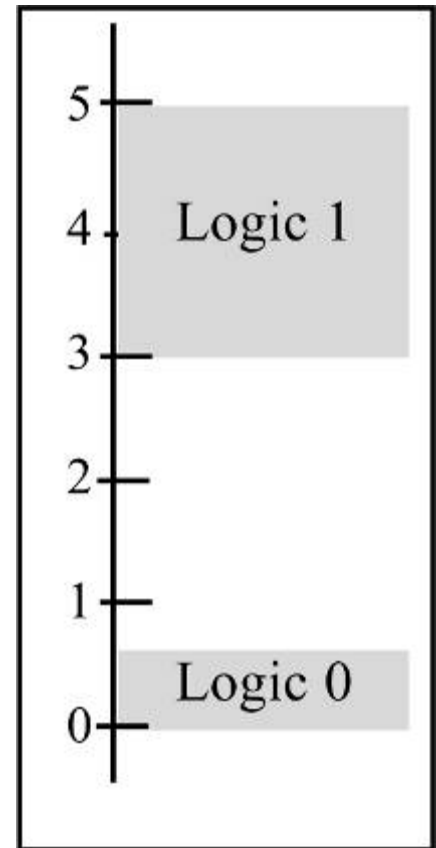


Figure 0-2 Binary signals

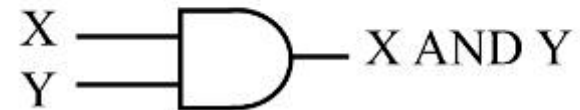
0.2 Digital Primer

logic gates

- Binary logic gates are simple circuits that take one or more input signals & send out one output signal.
- AND gate** - takes two or more inputs and performs a logic AND on them.

Logical AND Function

<u>Inputs</u>		<u>Output</u>
<u>X</u>	<u>Y</u>	<u>X AND Y</u>
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1



0.2 Digital Primer

logic gates

- Binary logic gates are simple circuits that take one or more input signals & send out one output signal.
- **OR gate** - will output a 1 if one or more inputs is 1.
 - If all inputs are 0, then, and only then, will output be 0.

Logical OR Function

<u>Inputs</u>		<u>Output</u>
<u>X</u>	<u>Y</u>	<u>X OR Y</u>
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

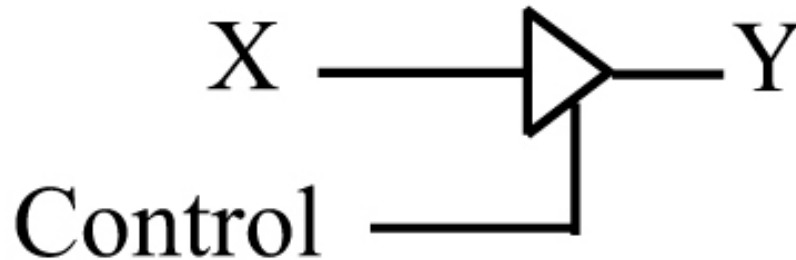


0.2 Digital Primer

logic gates

- ***Tri-state buffer*** - does not change the logic level of the input.
 - It is used to isolate or amplify the signal.

Buffer



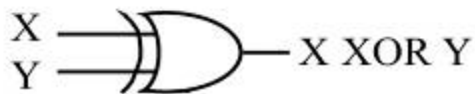
0.2 Digital Primer

logic gates

- **Inverter** - also called NOT. Outputs value opposite to that input to the gate.
 - A 1 input will give a 0 output.
 - 0 input will give a 1 output.

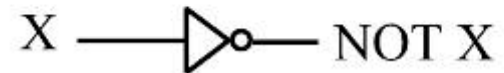
Logical XOR Function

Inputs		Output
X	Y	X XOR Y
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0



Logical Inverter

Input	Output
X	NOT X
0	1
1	0



- **XOR gate** - performs an exclusive-OR operation on the inputs. gate.
 - Exclusive-OR produces a 1 output if one (but only one) input is 1.

0.2 Digital Primer

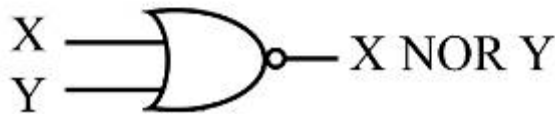
logic gates

- **NAND** - functions like an AND gate with an inverter on the output.

Logical NOR Function

Inputs	Output
--------	--------

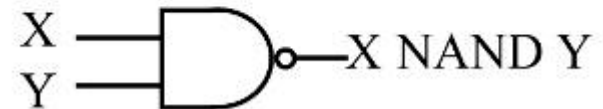
X Y	X NOR Y
0 0	1
0 1	0
1 0	0
1 1	0



Logical NAND Function

Inputs	Output
--------	--------

X Y	X NAND Y
0 0	1
0 1	1
1 0	1
1 1	0



- **NOR gates** - function like an OR gate with an inverter on the output.

0.2 Digital Primer

logic design using gates

- A simple logic design to add two binary digits.
 - If we add two binary digits there are four possible.

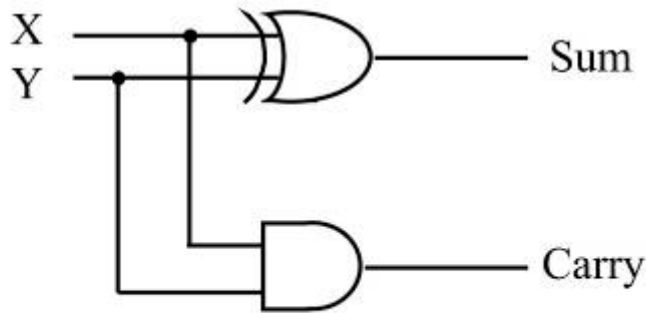
The sum column matches the output for the XOR function, and the carry column matches the output for the AND function.

	<i>Carry</i>	<i>Sum</i>
$0 + 0 =$	0	0
$0 + 1 =$	0	1
$1 + 0 =$	0	1
$1 + 1 =$	1	0

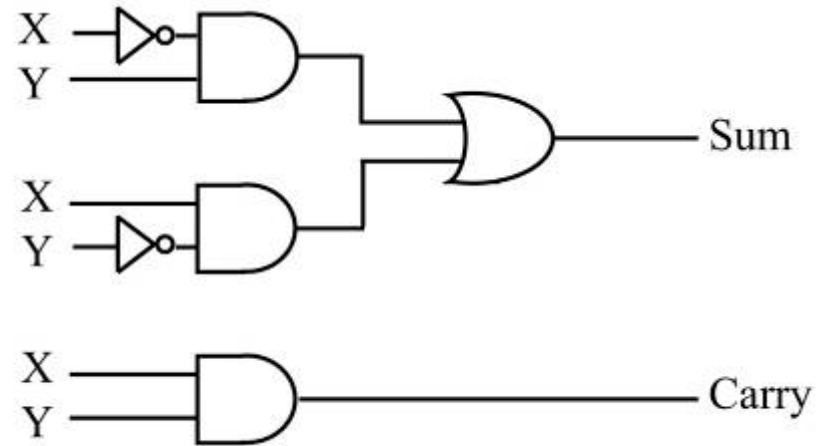
0.2 Digital Primer

logic design using gates

- Fig. 0-3(a) shows a simple adder implemented with XOR and AND gates.



(a) Half-Adder Using XOR and AND



(b) Half-Adder Using AND, OR, Inverters

- Figure 0-3(b) shows the same logic circuit implemented with AND and OR gates and inverters.

Figure 0-3 Two Implementations of a Half-Adder

0.2 Digital Primer

logic design using gates

- Fig. 0-4 shows a block diagram of a half-adder
 - Two half-adders can be combined to form an adder that can add three input digits.
 - Called a full-adder.

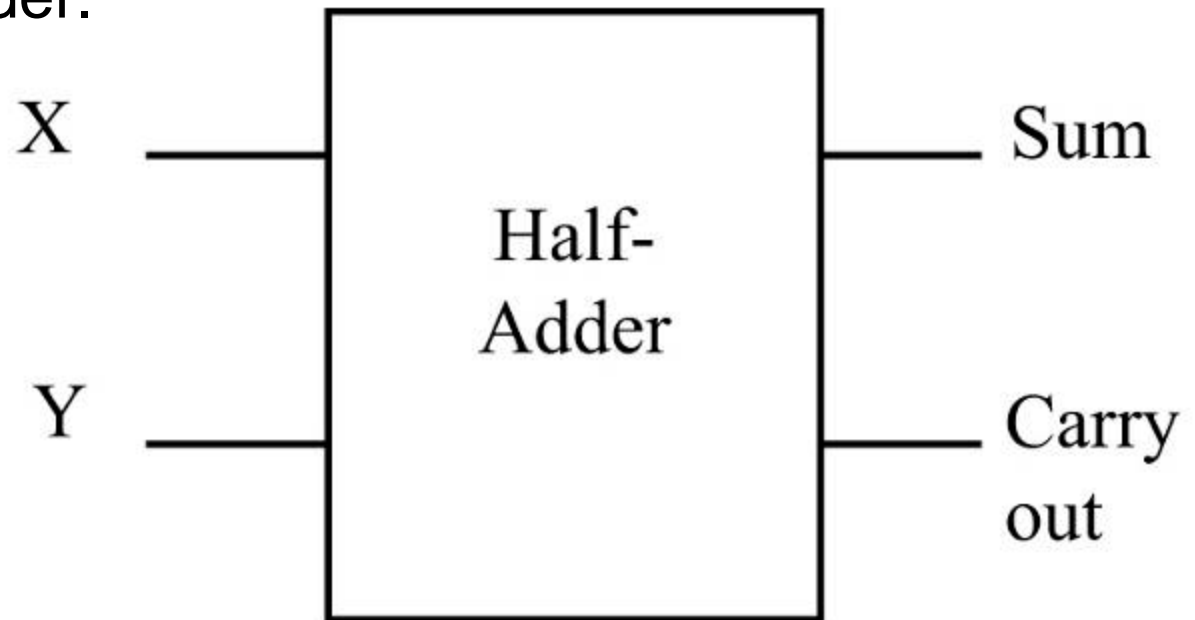


Figure 0-4 Block Diagram of a Half-Adder

0.2 Digital Primer

logic design using gates

- Fig. 0-5 shows the logic diagram of a full-adder, along with a block diagram that masks the details of the circuit.

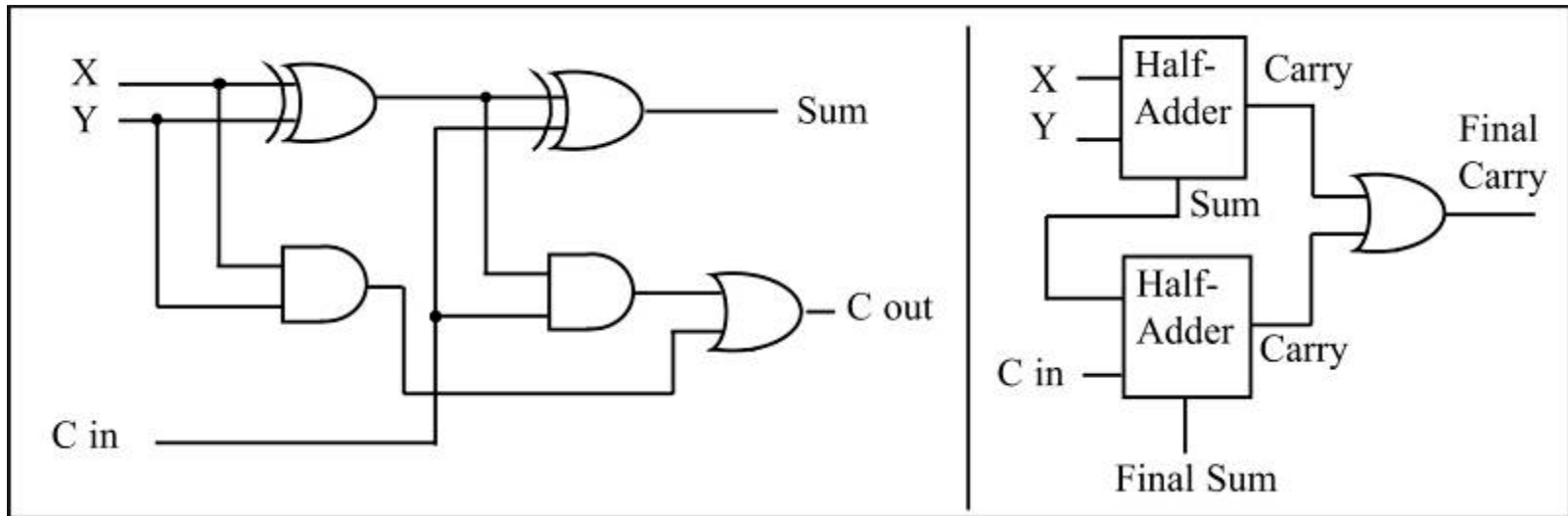


Figure 0-5 Full-Adder Built from a Half-Adder

0.2 Digital Primer

logic design using gates

- Fig. 0-6 shows a 3-bit adder using three full-adders.

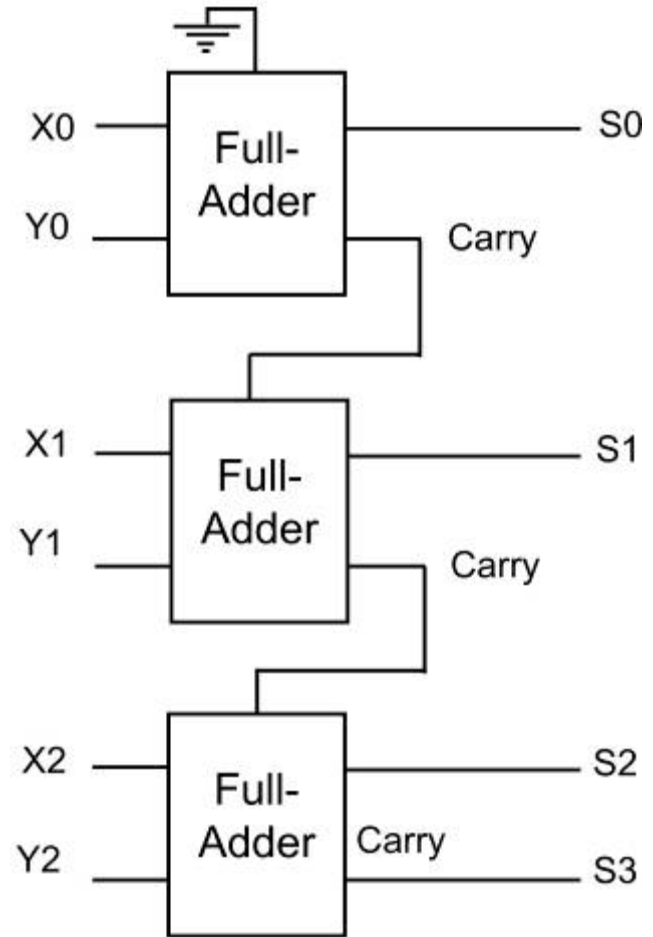


Figure 0-6 3-Bit Adder Using Three Full-Adders

0.2 Digital Primer decoders

- Another application of logic gates is the decoder.
 - Widely used for address decoding in computer design.
 - Figure 0-7 shows decoders for 9 (1001 binary) and 5 (0101) using inverters and AND gates.

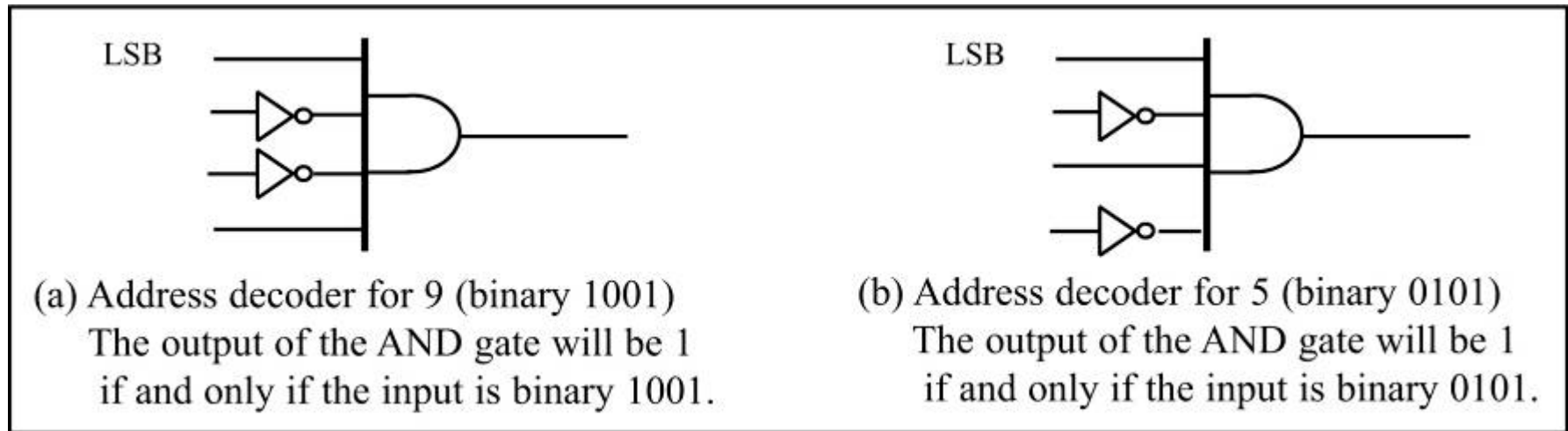
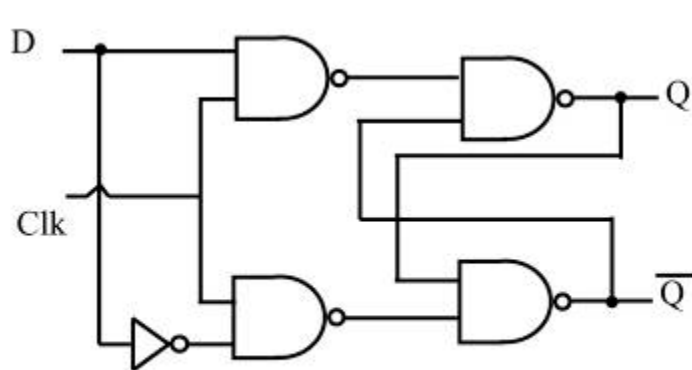


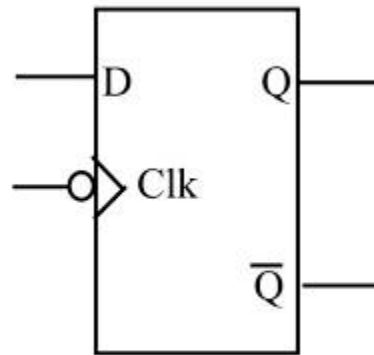
Figure 0-7 Address Decoders

0.2 Digital Primer flip-flops

- A widely used component in digital systems
 - Frequently used to store data.
- D flip-flop is widely used widely used to latch data.
 - D-FF grabs data at the input as the clock is activated.
 - D-FF holds the data as long as the power is on.



(a) Circuit diagram



(b) Block diagram

Clk	D	Q
No	x	no change
\downarrow	0	0
\downarrow	1	1

x = don't care

(c) Truth table

Figure 0-8 D Flip-Flops

0.3 Inside the Computer terminology

- A *bit* is a binary digit that can have the value 0 or 1.

Bit				0
Nibble				0000
Byte			0000	0000
Word	0000	0000	0000	0000

- A *nibble* is 4 bits.
- A *byte* is defined as 8 bits.
- A *word* is two bytes, or 16 bits.

0.3 Inside the Computer terminology

- A *kilobyte* is 2^{10} bytes, which is 1,024 bytes.
 - The abbreviation K is often used to represent kilobytes.
- A *megabyte*, or *meg*, is 2^{20} bytes.
 - A little over 1 million bytes; exactly 1,048,576 bytes.
- A *gigabyte* is 2^{30} bytes (over 1 billion).
- A *terabyte* is 2^{40} bytes (over 1 trillion).

Power of 2

$$2^{10} = 1024 = 1\text{K}$$

$$2^{20} = 1024\text{K} = 1\text{M}$$

$$2^{30} = 1024\text{M} = 1\text{G}$$

$$2^{40} = 1024\text{G} = 1\text{T}$$

0.3 Inside the Computer

two common memory types

- **RAM** - which stands for “random access memory” (sometimes called *read/write memory*).
 - Used for temporary storage of programs while running.
 - Data is lost when the computer is turned off.
 - RAM is sometimes called *volatile memory*.
- **ROM** - stands for “read-only memory”.
 - Contains programs and information essential to the operation of the computer.
 - Information in ROM is permanent, cannot be changed by the user, and is not lost when the power is turned off.
 - ROM is called *nonvolatile memory*.

0.3 Inside the Computer

internal organization of computers

- Internal workings of every computer can be broken down into three parts:

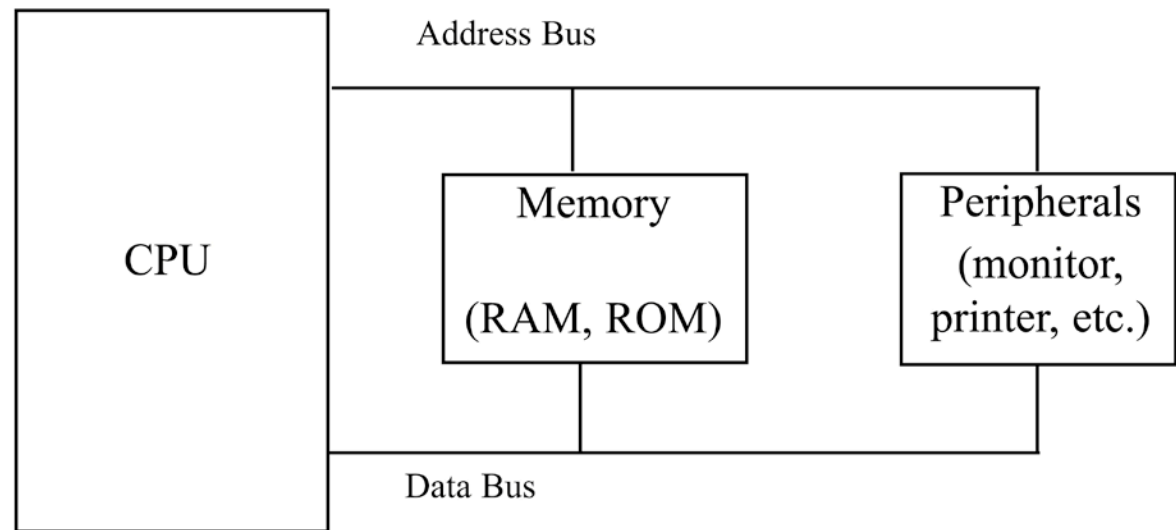


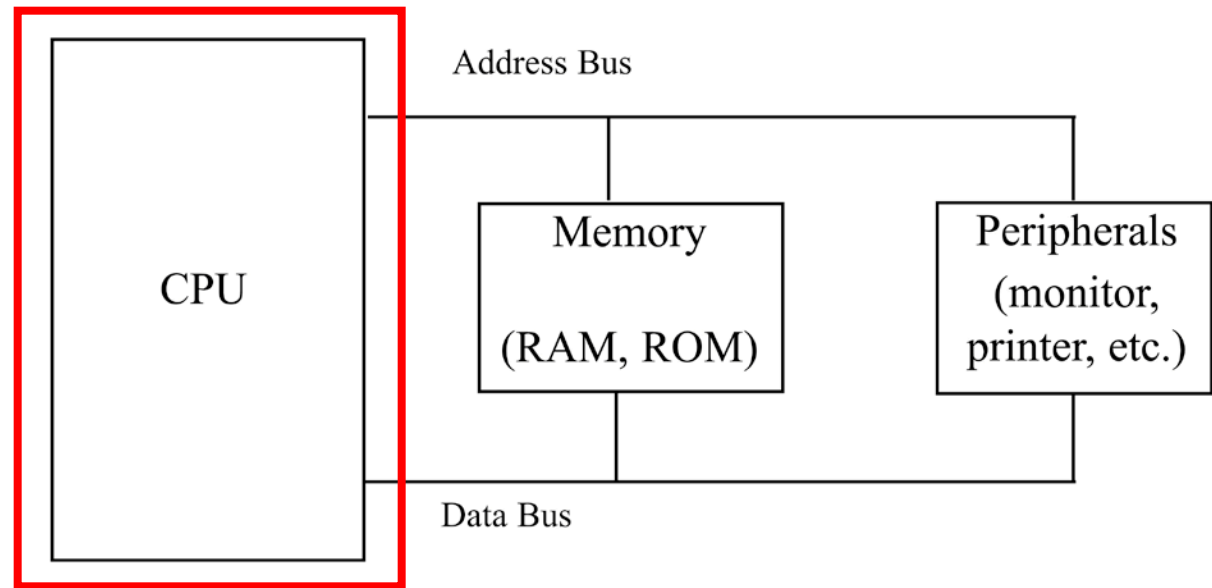
Figure 0-9
Inside the
Computer

0.3 Inside the Computer

internal organization of computers

- Internal workings of every computer can be broken down into three parts:
 - **CPU** (central processing unit).

Figure 0-9
Inside the
Computer



0.3 Inside the Computer

internal organization of computers

- Internal workings of every computer can be broken down into three parts:
 - **CPU** (central processing unit).
 - **Memory.**

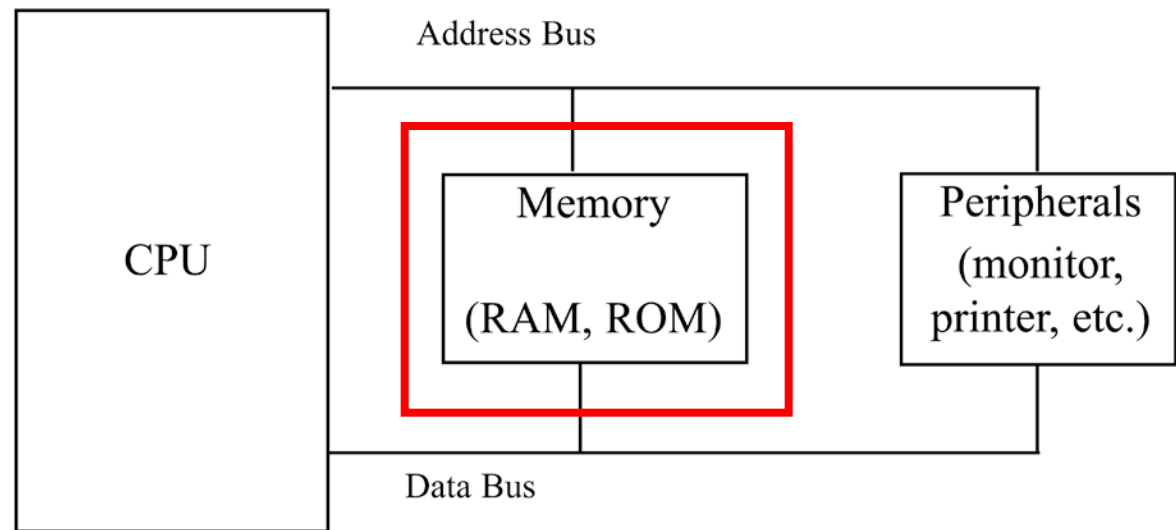


Figure 0-9
Inside the
Computer

0.3 Inside the Computer

internal organization of computers

- Internal workings of every computer can be broken down into three parts:
 - **CPU** (central processing unit).
 - **Memory**.
 - **I/O** (input/output) devices.

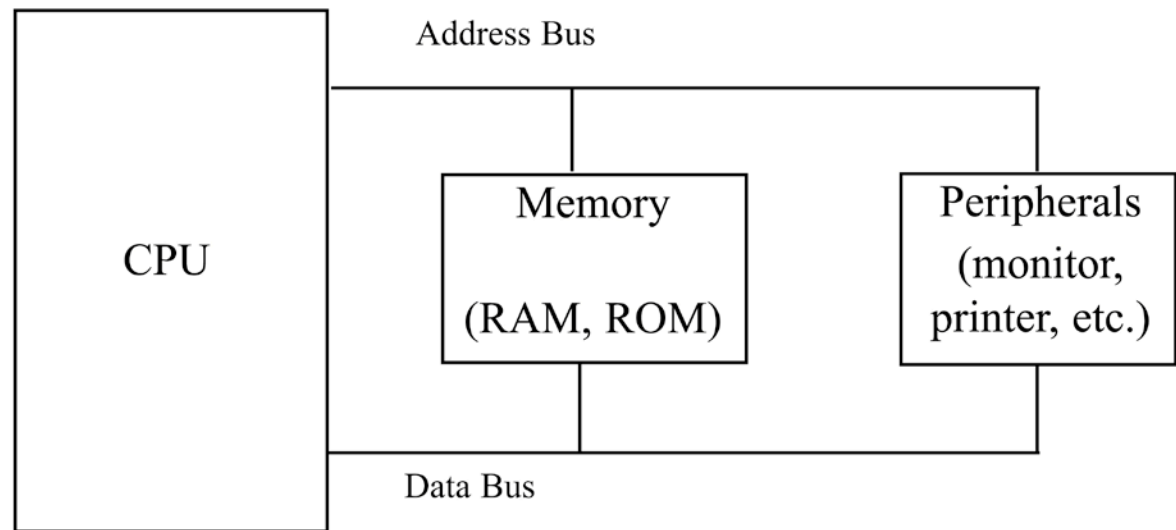


Figure 0-9
Inside the
Computer

0.3 Inside the Computer

internal organization of computers

- CPU function is to execute (process) information stored in memory.
- I/O devices, such as keyboard & monitor provide a means of communicating with the CPU.
- The CPU is connected to memory and I/O through a group of wires called a *bus*.
 - Allows signals to carry information from place to place.
- In every computer there are three types of buses:
 - Address bus; Data bus; Control bus.

0.3 Inside the Computer

internal organization of computers

- For a device (memory or I/O) to be recognized by the CPU, it must be assigned an address.
 - No two devices can have the same address.
 - The address assigned to a given device must be unique.
- The CPU puts the address (in binary) on the address bus & decoding circuitry finds the device.
 - The CPU then uses the data bus either to get data from that device or to send data to it.
- Control buses provide device read/write signals.
 - To indicate if the CPU is asking for, or sending information.

0.3 Inside the Computer

internal organization of computers

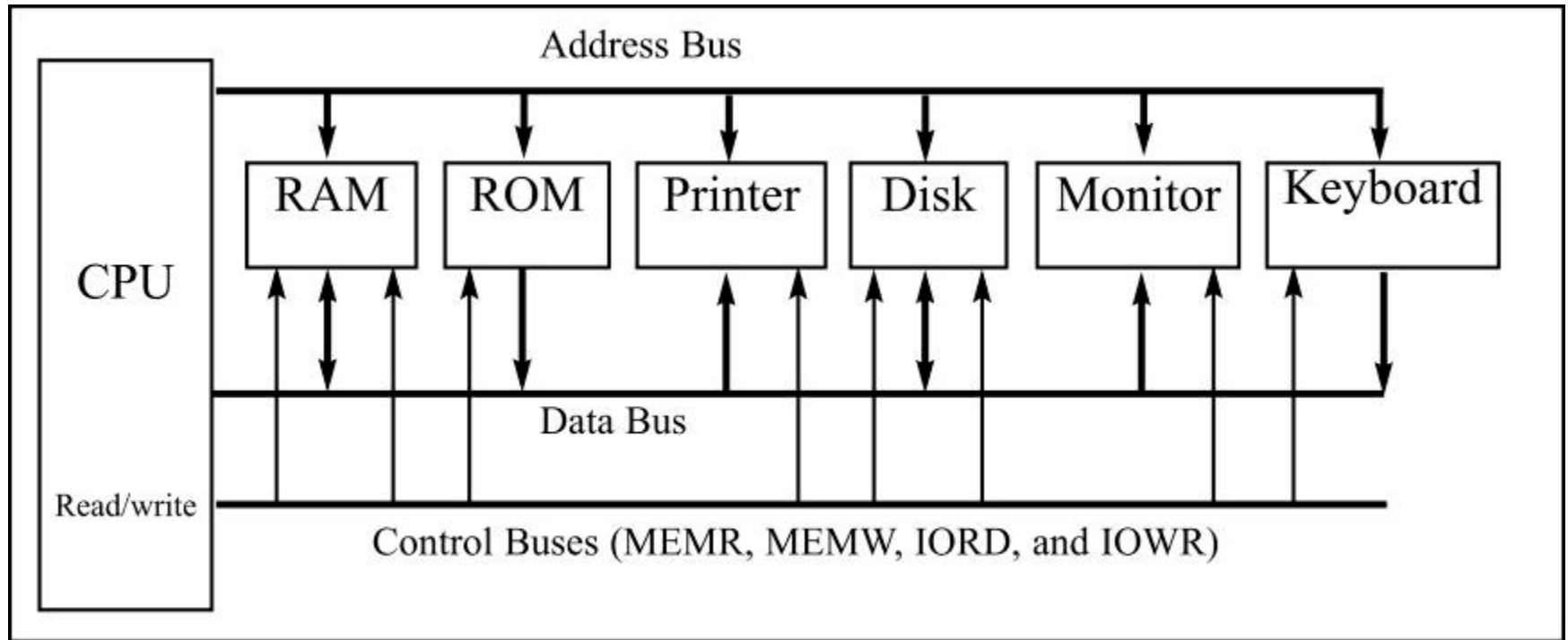


Figure 0-10 Internal Organization Of Computers

0.3 Inside the Computer

more about the data bus

- As data buses carry information in/out of a CPU, the more data buses available, the better the CPU.
 - More buses mean a more expensive CPU & computer.
- Data buses are bidirectional, because the CPU must use them either to receive or to send data.
 - Average bus size is between 8 and 64.
- Computer processing power is related to bus size.
 - An 8-bit bus can send out 1 byte at a time.
 - A 16-bit bus can send out 2 bytes at a time.
 - Twice as fast.

0.3 Inside the Computer

more about the address bus

- The address bus is used to identify devices and memory connected to the CPU.
 - The more address bits available, the larger the number of devices that can be addressed.
- The number of CPU address bits determines the number of locations with which it can communicate.
 - Always equal to 2^x , where x is the number of address lines, regardless of the size of the data bus.
- The address bus is *unidirectional*.
 - The CPU uses the bus only to send addresses *out*.

0.3 Inside the Computer

CPU & relation to RAM and ROM

- For the CPU to process information, the data must be stored in RAM or ROM.
 - The CPU cannot get the information from the disk directly because the disk is too slow.
 - RAM & ROM are often referred to as *primary memory*.
 - Disks are called *secondary memory*.

0.3 Inside the Computer inside CPUs

- A program stored in memory provides instructions to the CPU to perform an action.
 - Adding payroll numbers or controlling a robot.

Function of the CPU is to fetch these instructions from memory and then execute them.

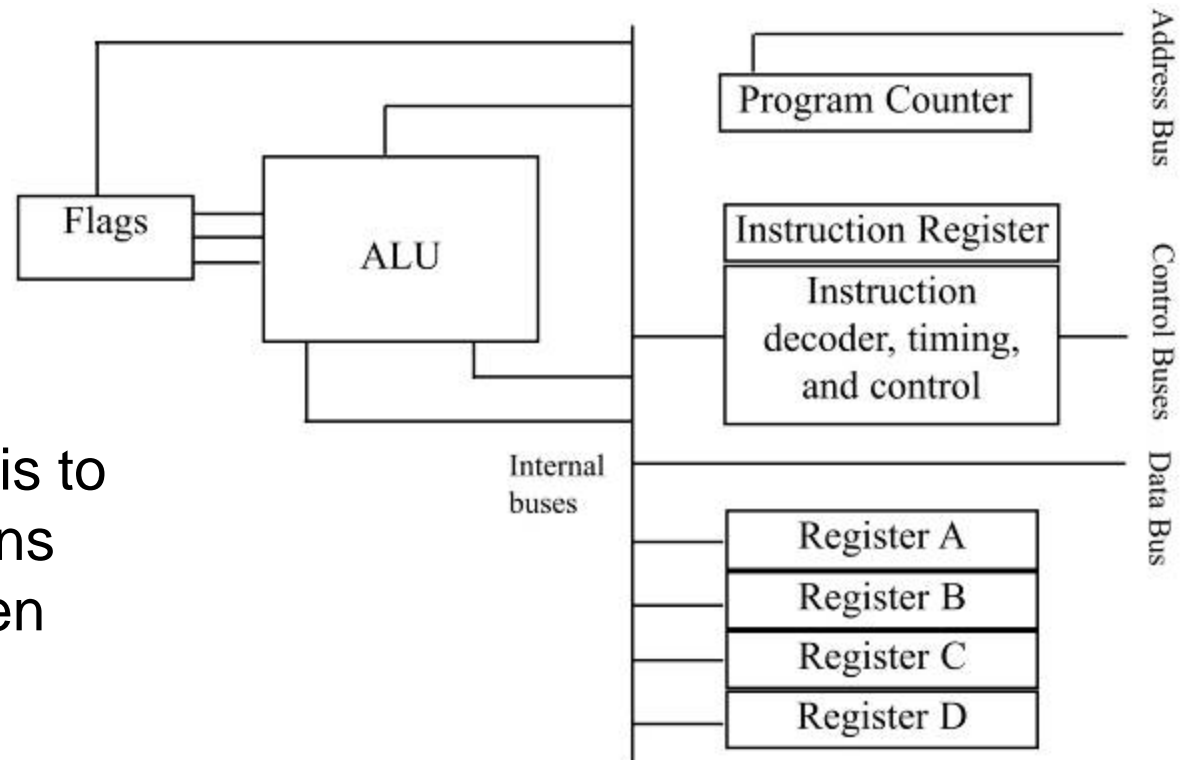


Figure 0-19 Internal Block Diagram of a CPU

0.3 Inside the Computer

CPU and relation to RAM and ROM

- To perform the actions of fetch and execute, all CPUs are equipped with resources such as...
 - **Registers** - to store information temporarily.
 - 8, 16, 32, 64 bit, depending on CPU.
 - **ALU** (arithmetic/logic unit) - for arithmetic functions such as add, subtract, multiply, and divide.
 - Also logic functions such as AND, OR, and NOT.
 - **Program counter** - to point to the address of the next instruction to be executed.
 - In the IBM PC, a register called IP or *instruction pointer*.
 - **Instruction decoder** - to interpret the instruction fetched into the CPU.

0.3 Inside the Computer

internal workings of computers

- A step-by-step analysis of CPU processes to add three numbers, with steps & code shown.
 - Assume a CPU has registers A, B, C, and D.
 - An 8-bit data bus and a 16-bit address bus.
 - The CPU can access memory addresses 0000 to FFFFH.
 - A total of 10000H locations.

Action	Code	Data
Move value 21H into register A	B0H	21H
Add value 42H to register A	04H	42H
Add value 12H to register A	04H	12H

0.3 Inside the Computer

internal workings of computers

- If the program to perform the actions listed above is stored in memory locations starting at 1400H, the following would represent the contents for each memory address location...

<i>Memory address</i>	<i>Contents of memory address</i>
1400	(B0) code for moving a value to register A
1401	(21) value to be moved
1402	(04) code for adding a value to register A
1403	(42) value to be added
1404	(04) code for adding a value to register A
1405	(12) value to be added
1406	(F4) code for halt

0.3 Inside the Computer

internal workings of computers

- The CPU's program counter can have a value between 0000 and FFFFH.
 - The program counter must be set to the address of the first instruction code to be executed - 1400H.

<i>Memory address</i>	<i>Contents of memory address</i>
1400	(B0) code for moving a value to register A
1401	(21) value to be moved
1402	(04) code for adding a value to register A
1403	(42) value to be added
1404	(04) code for adding a value to register A
1405	(12) value to be added
1406	(F4) code for halt

0.3 Inside the Computer

internal workings of computers

- The CPU puts the address 1400H on the address bus and sends it out.
 - Memory finds the location while the CPU activates the READ signal, indicating it wants the byte at 1400H.
 - The content (B0) is put on the data bus & brought to the CPU.

<i>Memory address</i>	<i>Contents of memory address</i>
1400	(B0) code for moving a value to register A
1401	(21) value to be moved
1402	(04) code for adding a value to register A
1403	(42) value to be added
1404	(04) code for adding a value to register A
1405	(12) value to be added
1406	(F4) code for halt

0.3 Inside the Computer

internal workings of computers

- The CPU decodes the instruction **B0** with the help of its instruction decoder dictionary.
 - Bring the byte of the next memory location into CPU Register A.

<i>Memory address</i>	<i>Contents of memory address</i>
1400	(B0) code for moving a value to register A
1401	(21) value to be moved
1402	(04) code for adding a value to register A
1403	(42) value to be added
1404	(04) code for adding a value to register A
1405	(12) value to be added
1406	(F4) code for halt

0.3 Inside the Computer

internal workings of computers

- From memory location 1401H, the CPU fetches code 21H directly to Register A.
 - After completing the instruction, the program counter points to the address of the next instruction - 1402H.
 - Address 1402H is sent out on the address bus, to fetch the next instruction.

<i>Memory address</i>	<i>Contents of memory address</i>
1400	(B0) code for moving a value to register A
1401	(21) value to be moved
1402	(04) code for adding a value to register A
1403	(42) value to be added
1404	(04) code for adding a value to register A
1405	(12) value to be added
1406	(F4) code for halt

0.3 Inside the Computer

internal workings of computers

- From 1402H, the CPU fetches code 04H.
 - After decoding, the CPU knows it must add the byte at the next address (1403) to the contents of register A.
 - After it brings the value (42H) into the CPU, it provides the contents of Register A, along with this value to the ALU to perform the addition.
 - Program counter becomes 1404, the next instruction address.

<i>Memory address</i>	<i>Contents of memory address</i>
1400	(B0) code for moving a value to register A
1401	(21) value to be moved
1402	(04) code for adding a value to register A
1403	(42) value to be added
1404	(04) code for adding a value to register A
1405	(12) value to be added
1406	(F4) code for halt

0.3 Inside the Computer

internal workings of computers

- Address 1404H is put on the address bus and the code is fetched, decoded, and executed.
 - Again adding a value to Register A.
 - The program counter is updated to 1406H

<i>Memory address</i>	<i>Contents of memory address</i>
1400	(B0) code for moving a value to register A
1401	(21) value to be moved
1402	(04) code for adding a value to register A
1403	(42) value to be added
1404	(04) code for adding a value to register A
1405	(12) value to be added
1406	(F4) code for halt

0.4 Harvard and von Neumann CPU Architectures – internal workings

- The contents of address 1406 (HALT code) are fetched in and executed.
 - The HALT instruction tells the CPU to stop incrementing the program counter and asking for the next instruction.
 - Without HALT, the CPU would continue updating the program counter and fetching instructions.

<i>Memory address</i>	<i>Contents of memory address</i>
1400	(B0) code for moving a value to register A
1401	(21) value to be moved
1402	(04) code for adding a value to register A
1403	(42) value to be added
1404	(04) code for adding a value to register A
1405	(12) value to be added
1406	(F4) code for halt

The x86 PC

assembly language, design, and interfacing

fifth
edition

Prentice Hall

Dec	Hex	Bin
0	0	00000000

ENDS ; ZERO

The x86 PC

assembly language,
design, and interfacing

fifth edition

MUHAMMAD ALI MAZIDI
JANICE GILLISPIE MAZIDI
DANNY CAUSEY

