

COMPUTER SYSTEM ARCHITECTURE

- Decimal to Hexadecimal

$$(213)_{10} = 16 \left| \begin{array}{r} 213 \\ 13 \end{array} \right| 5 = (D5)_{16}$$

$$(976)_{10} = (3D0)_4$$

- Hexadecimal to Decimal

$$(D5)_{16} = D \times 16^1 + 5 \times 16^0 = (213)_{10}$$

- Hexadecimal to Binary

$$0 \rightarrow 0000$$

$$1 \rightarrow 0001$$

$$2 \rightarrow 0010$$

$$3 \rightarrow 0011$$

$$4 \rightarrow 0100$$

$$5 \rightarrow 0101$$

$$6 \rightarrow 0110$$

$$7 \rightarrow 0111$$

$$8 \rightarrow 1000$$

$$9 \rightarrow 1001$$

$$10) A \rightarrow 1010$$

$$11) B \rightarrow 1011$$

$$12) C \rightarrow 1100$$

$$13) D \rightarrow 1101$$

$$14) E \rightarrow 1110$$

$$15) F \rightarrow 1111$$

$$(2A6)_{16} = (0010 1010 0110)_2$$

$$(9B7D)_{16} = (10011011011110)_2$$

• Binary to HexaDecimal

$$(1011010001110111)_2 = (B4F7)_{16}$$

• Decimal to Octal

$$(467)_{10} = \begin{array}{r} 8 \\ \sqrt[8]{467} \\ \hline 58 \\ \hline 7 \end{array} 3 = (723)_8$$

• Octal to HexaDecimal

$$(7643)_8 = (111110100011)_2$$

$$(111110100011) = (FA3)_{16}$$

$$(A90D)_{16} = (001010100100001101)_2 = (124415)_8$$

Summary

• Decimal to any Number System

(a) Divide by the base 2 for binary, 8 for octal,
8 & 16 for hexa if no. is real

(b) Multiply by base 2 for binary, 8 for
octal & 16 for hexa if no. is
fractional



From any to Decimal

Multiply by powers of base
binary = $2^3 \ 2^2 \ 2^1 \ 2^0 \ 2^{-1} \ 2^{-2} \ 2^{-3}$ fractional

8 for Octal & 16 for Hexa

Binary to Octal

Combination of three bits starting from LSB

Octal to Binary

Each digit into respective three bits

Binary to Hexa

Combination of four bits from LSB

Hexa to Binary

Each digit into four bits.

Octal to Hexa

First convert Octal to Binary
then Binary to Hexa

Hexa to Octal

Hexa \rightarrow Binary \rightarrow Octal

Logic Gates

Logic gates are the basic building blocks of any digital circuit.

Types

Basic Gates

- 1) AND
- 2) OR
- 3) NOT

Universal Gates

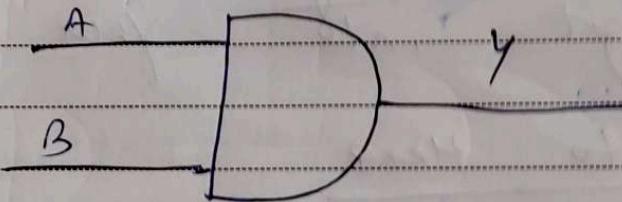
- 1) NAND
- 2) NOR

Exclusive Gates

- 1) EX-OR
- 2) EX-NOR

1) AND Gate

Symbol:



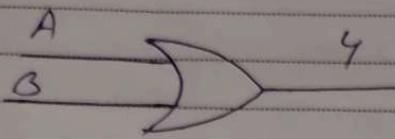
Equation : $Y = A \cdot B$

I-T	A	B	Y
	0	0	0
	0	1	0
	1	0	0
	1	1	1

If any ~~input~~ input is zero than output is zero, when both 1 then only output 1.



2) OR Gate

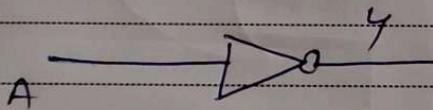


$$Y = A + B$$

A	B	Y
1	1	1
1	0	1
0	1	1
0	0	0

If any input is 1 then output 1
else output is zero

3) NOT Gate



$$Y = \bar{A}$$

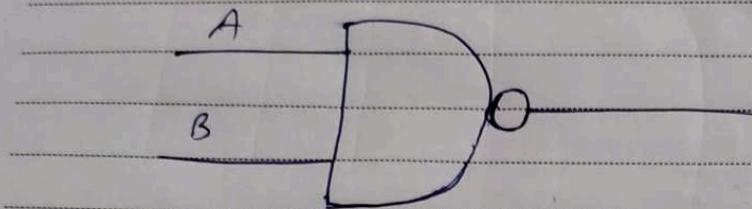
A	Y
0	1
1	0

NOT gate acts as an inverter if input is high
output is one & vice versa



4) NAND Gate

$\text{NAND} = \text{NOT} \& \text{AND}$



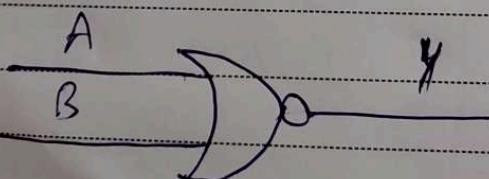
$$Y = \overline{A \cdot B} = \bar{A} + \bar{B}$$

$A \cdot T$	$B \cdot T$	Y
1	1	0
1	0	1
0	1	1
0	0	1

any
if ≥ 1 input is low output is high otherwise
low.

5) NO R Gate

$\text{NOT} + \text{OR}$



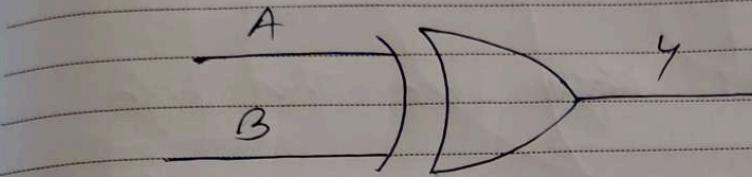
$$Y = \overline{A+B} = \bar{A} \cdot \bar{B}$$

$A \cdot T$	$B \cdot T$	Y
1	1	1
1	0	0
0	1	0
0	0	0



If any input low then low . otherwise output is high.

Q) EX-OR

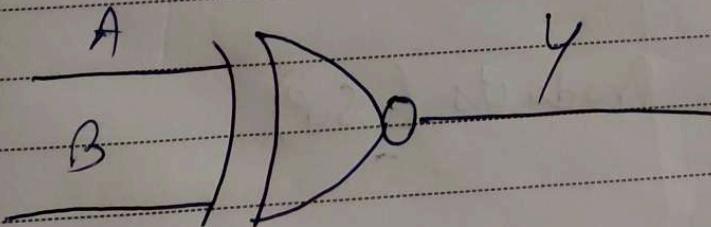


$$Y = \overline{AB} + A\overline{B} \quad \text{or} \quad A \oplus B$$

A	B	Y
1	1	0
1	0	1
0	1	1
0	0	0

If both input same output is low otherwise output is high when both output different.

7) EX-NOR

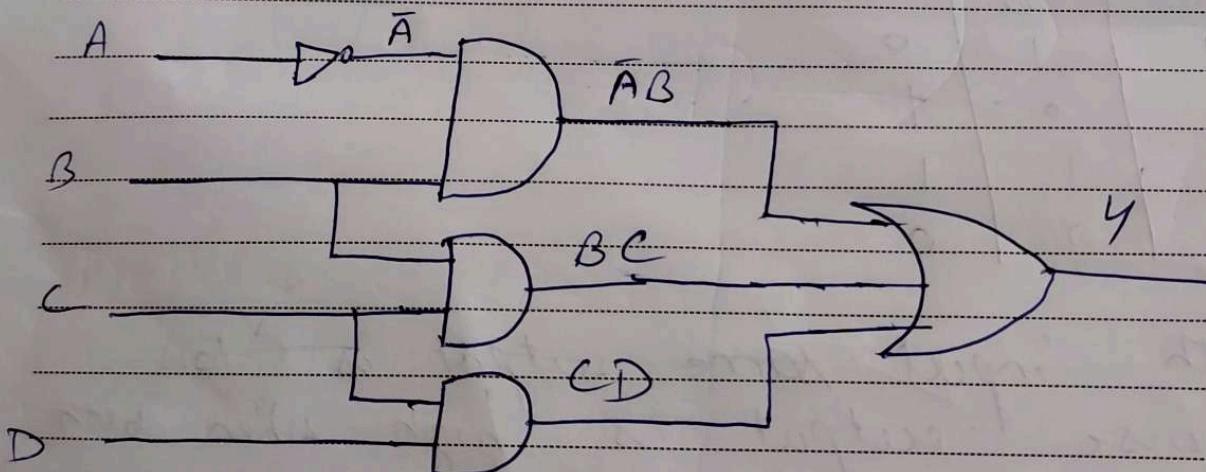


$$y = \overline{A \oplus B} = A \odot B = \overline{AB} + AB$$

A	B	y
1	1	1
1	0	0
0	1	0
0	0	1

When both input ~~is~~ same then high
otherwise low.

$$\Rightarrow y = \overline{AB} + CD + BC$$



$$\Rightarrow ① y = A\bar{B}C + ACD + B\bar{D}$$

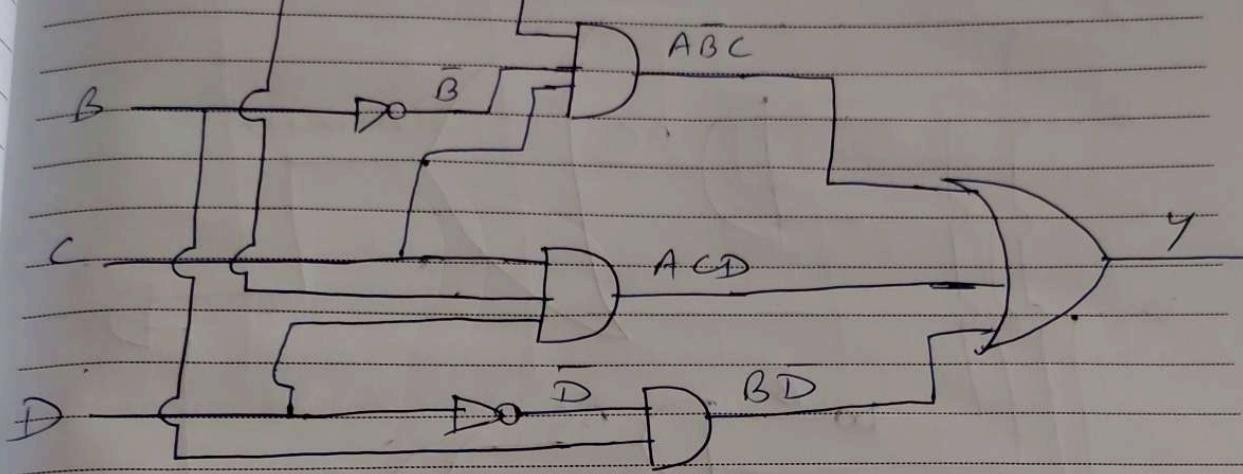
$$② y = AC + \bar{B}CD + ABC$$

These are Sum of Products (SOP)

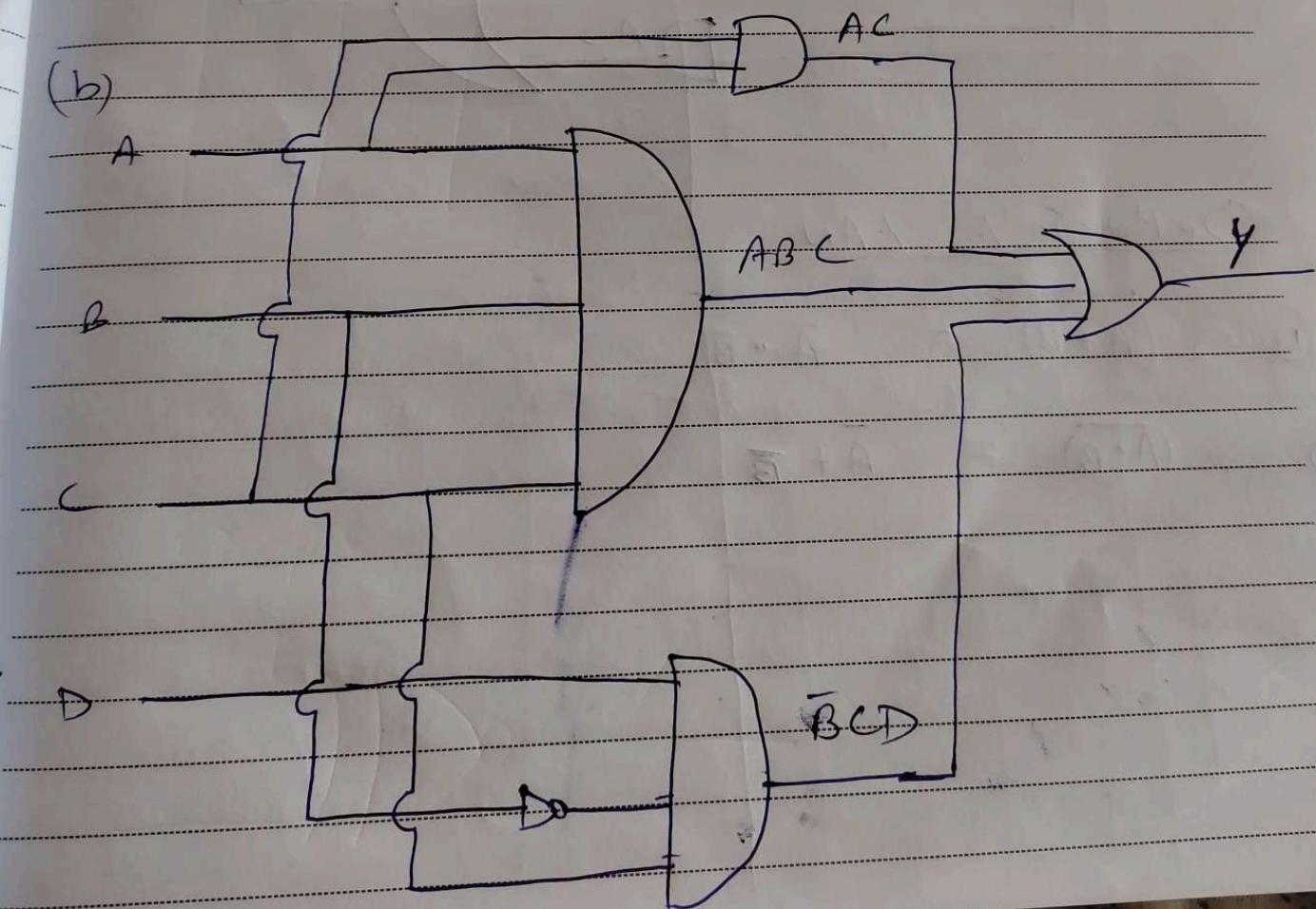


Sol:

(a)

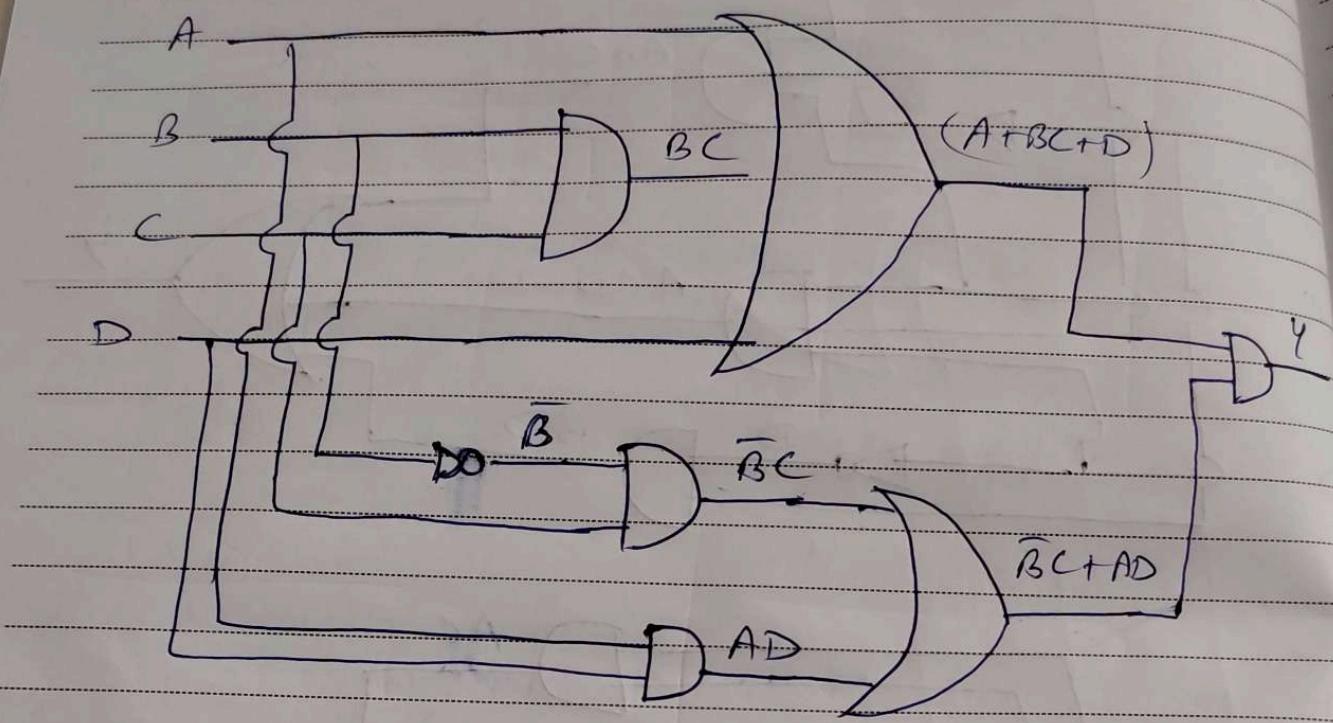


(b)



Ans: $y = (A + BC + D)(\bar{B}C + AD)$

This is Product of Sums (POS)



DeMorgan's Law

$$\textcircled{1} \quad (A + B) = \bar{A} \cdot \bar{B}$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad (\bar{A} \cdot \bar{B}) = \bar{A} + \bar{B}$$

Digital Circuits

Combinational Circuit

Sequential Circuits

Synchronous Circuits

Asynchronous Circuits

Combinational

1) In this type of circuits output variables at any instant of time are dependent only on the present input variables.

In this output variables at any instant of time are dependent not only on the present input variables but also on the present state i.e. on the past history of the system.

2) Memory unit is not required.

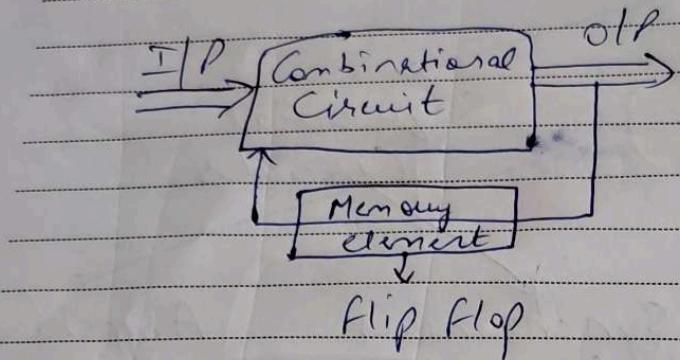
Memory unit is required to store past history of input variables.

3) Faster because the delay b/w the input & the output is due to the propagation delay of gates only.

Slower than combinational circuits.

4) Easy to design

Comparatively harder to design



Clock: It is a continuous pulse used to synchronise all the units of the system

* Synchronous

1) Memory elements are clocked flip flops

Asynchronous

Memory elements are either unclocked flip flops or time delay elements.

2) The change in input signal can effect memory elements upon activation of clock signal. Change in input signal can effect memory elements at any instant of time

3) Maximum operating speed of the clock depends on time delays involved. Because of the absence of clock asynchronous circuits can operate faster than synchronous circuits

4) Easier

Latch
flops

the
open

flip
having

it's
a

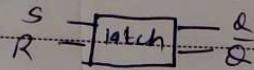
cal

#S
R

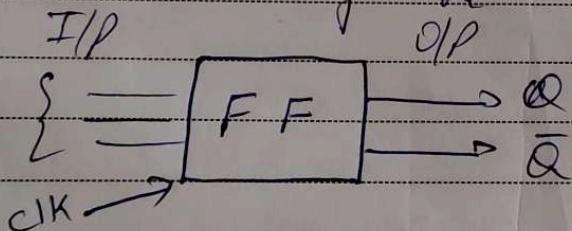


↳ Easier to design | More difficult to design

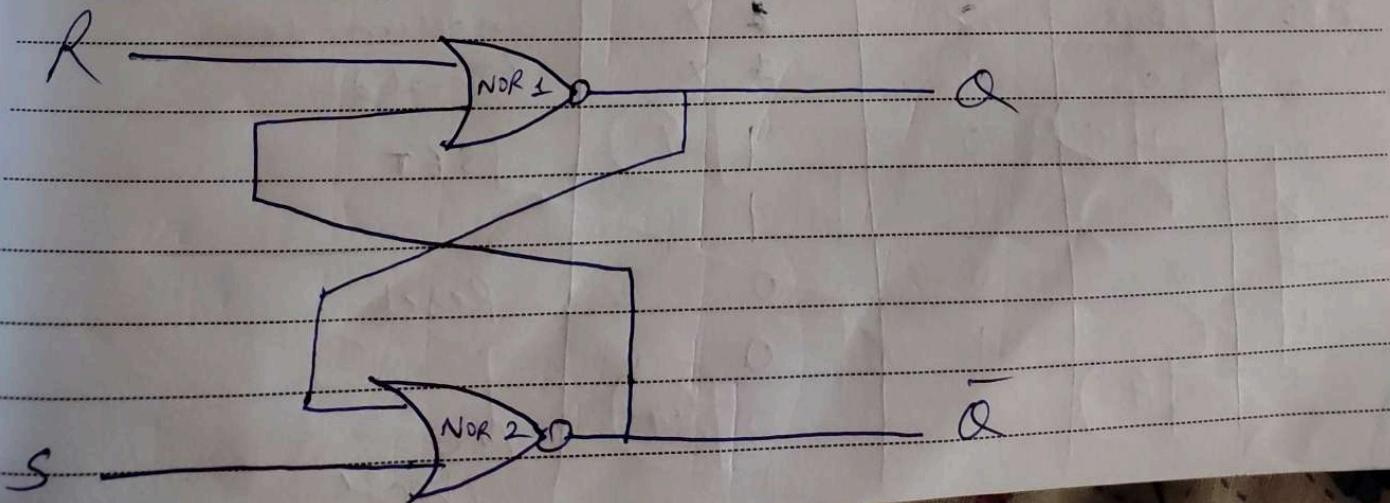
Latch: It refers to non clocked flip flops as these flip flops latch onto 1 or 0 immediately after receiving the input pulse SET or RESET. Latch doesn't depend on clock for their operation.



Flip Flop: It is a bi-stable device having two stable states, it can remain in either of the state indefinitely. Its state can be changed by applying a proper triggering pulse. It is also called a binary or 1-bit memory.



SR Latch





T-T

S	R	Present State(Q_n)	Next State(Q_{n+1})	Status
0	0	0	0	No Change
0	0	1	1	
0	1	0	0	Reset
0	1	1	0	
1	0	0	1	SET
1	0	1	0	
1	1	0	0	Indeterminate (Invalid)
1	1	1	1	

Present
always
output
cannot

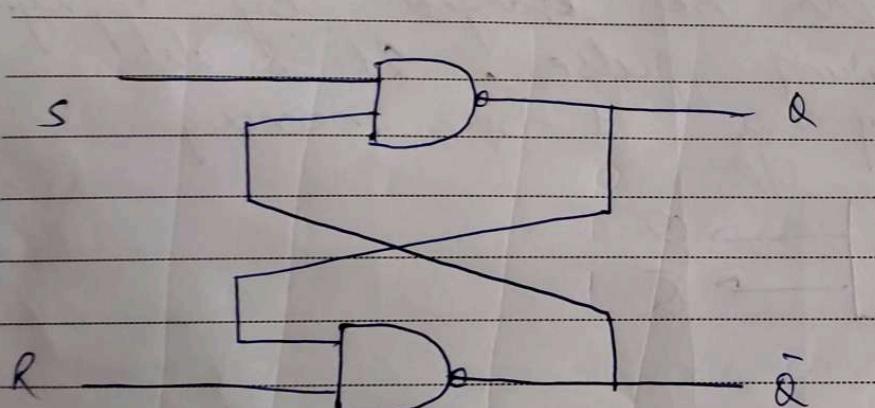
* SR

S

EN -

R

E

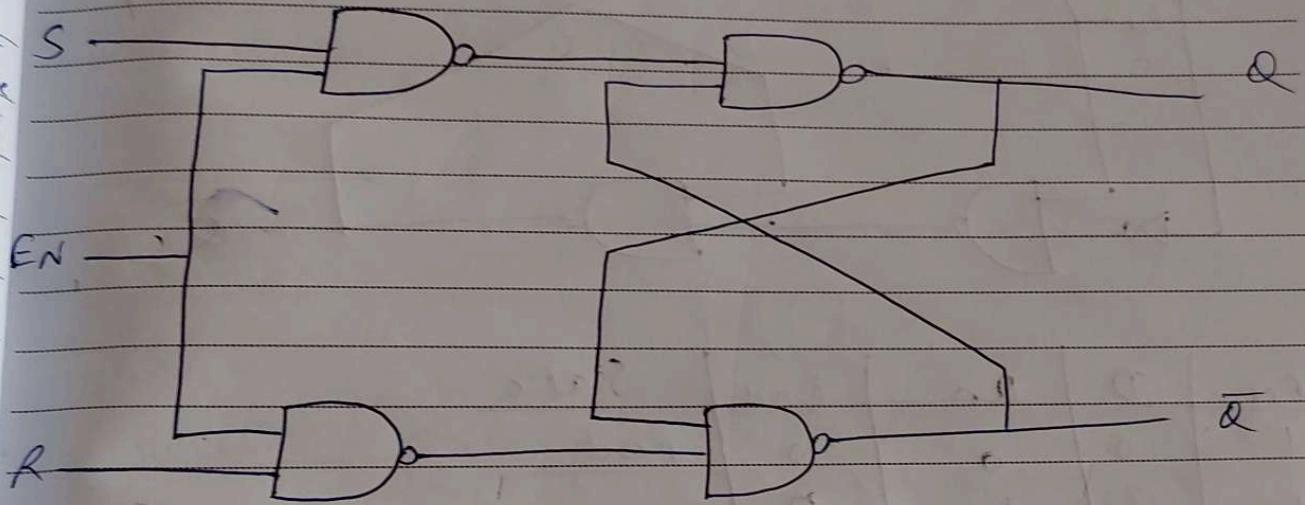


S	R	Q_n	Q_{n+1}	states
0	0	0	1 X	Indeterminate (Invalid)
0	0	1	0 X	(Invalid)
0	1	0	1	SET
0	1	1	1	
1	0	0	0	Reset
1	0	1	0	
1	1	0	0	No charge
1	1	1	1	



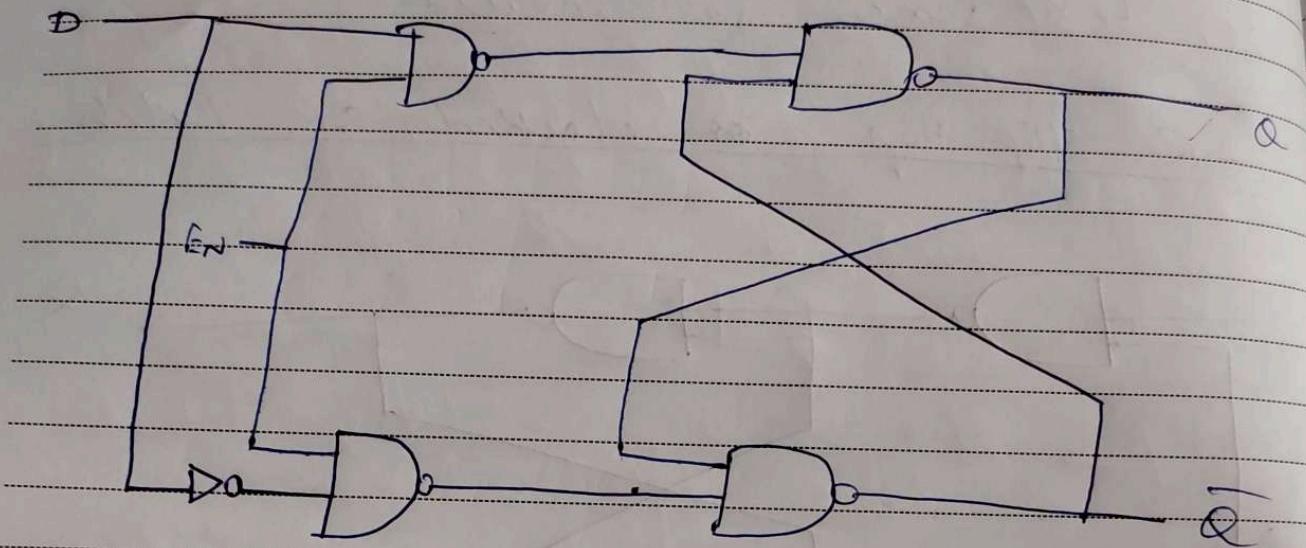
Present state will be ignored as output will always be 1 as when one input is zero output of nand is 1 & so a cannot be same so invalid

A SR Flip flop or clocked SR Latch



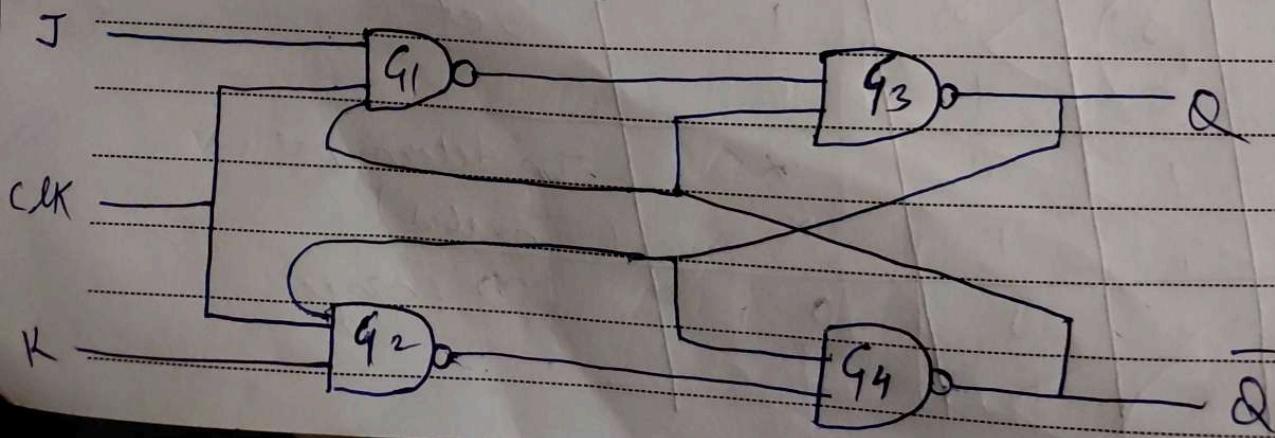
EN	S	R	an	an	State
1	0	0	0	0	No change
1	0	0	1	1	
1	0	1	0	0	Reset
1	0	1	1	0	
1	1	0	0	1	Set
1	1	0	1	1	
1	1	1	0	*	In determinate (Invalid)
1	1	1	1	*	
0	X	X	0	0	No change
0	X	X	1	1	

D Flip Flop



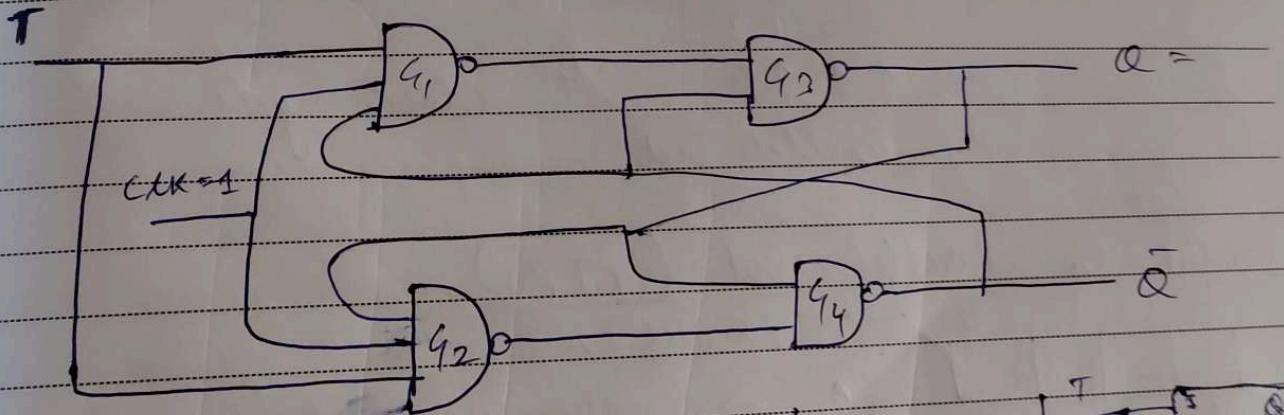
EN	D	Q_n	Q_{n+1}	State
1	0	0	0	Reset
1	0	1	0	
1	1	0	1	Set
0	x	0	0	No change
0	x	1	1	

J-K Flip Flop



CLK	J	K	on	Qn	State
↑	0	0	0	0	
↑	0	0	1	1	No change
↑	0	1	0	0	
↑	0	1	1	0	Reset
↑	1	0	0	1	
↑	1	0	1	1	Set
↑	1	1	0	1	
↑	1	1	1	0	Toggle
0	X	X	0	0	No change
0	X	X	1	1	

* T - Flip Flop



CLK	T	on	Qn	State	
↑	0	0	0	0	No change
↑	0	1	1	1	
↑	1	0	1	0	Toggle
↑	1	1	0	1	
0	X	1	1	1	No change
0	X	1	1	0	

Digital Computers



Hardware: Electronic & electro-mechanical devices comprising the physical entity of the system

Software: Instructions & data that computer/processor manipulates to perform data processing task.

Program: Sequence of instructions written to perform a specific task.

Database: Data that are to be manipulated by the program.

Program

Software Program
(system program OS compiles)

Application program
(Written by the user)

↓
make more effective use of computer & provide an environment for the user to work efficiently.

Are written by the user for the purpose of solving a particular problem e.g. all high level languages.

These are included in system software package
for eg: OS, compiler

* Computer Architecture

Instruction set, instruction format architecture & is concerned with the specific instructions supported by the processor. It includes instruction set, instruction format, specific registers, and their roles, techniques for accessing data stored in memory & the way in which I/O operations are performed. Thus computer architecture is the external view of a comp i.e. essential to be understood by the user who is to program a computer using machine or assembly language.

* Computer Organisation: The way hardware components operate & how they are connected together to form a computer system. It helps to understand the internal operations that are carried out by a computer while the program is being executed. It gives the internal view of the computer.

✓ Application Program

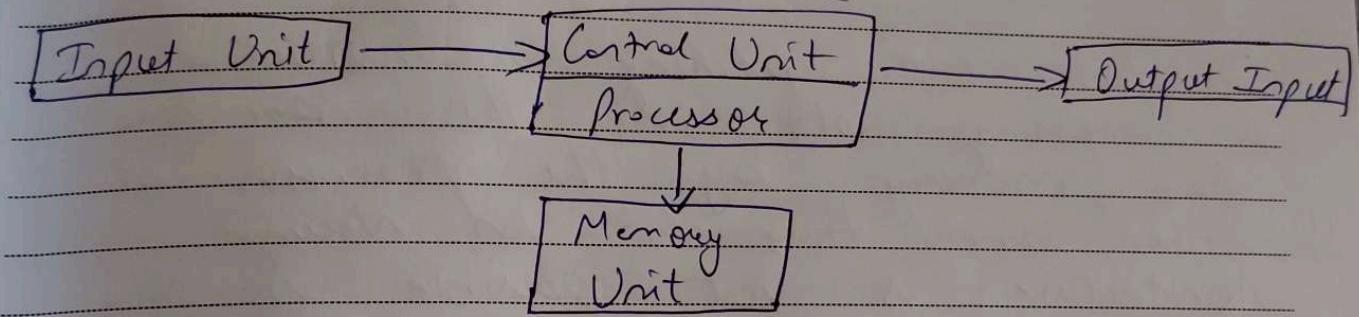
✓ System Program

Architecture
Organisation

Interface b/w the hardware & software.

* Computer Design : Concerned with the hardware design of the computer or the architecture & other specs of the computer are formulated then it is the task of the computer designer to develop the hardware of the system. What hardware to be used & how they are interconnected. Also known as computer implementation

Von Neumann Architecture



In early days of computing one instruction at a time of a program was executed with an operator setting up each instruction & also initiating the execution of each instruction (by flipping some switches on a switch board that will set up the required data & control part). Then in 1945 John Von Neumann proposed that instructions can be encoded & stored in the memory just like data. During the execution of program, the stored instructions can be fetched from memory & then decoded to set up the necessary data path & generate control signal.

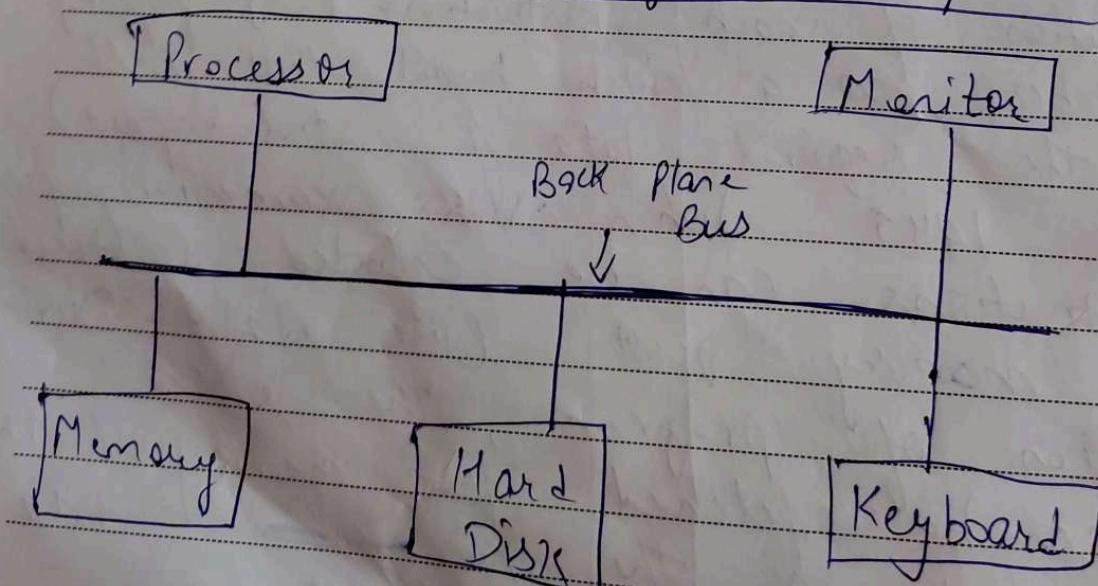
Advantages: (i) Eliminated the need of operator
(ii) Execution became faster as human intervention is removed.

* Bottle Neck of Von Neumann Architecture
For faster computation there is a bottle neck in Von Neumann Architecture

In Von Neumann Architecture a single connection exists b/w memory and processor. At any time only one memory access can occur (instruction can be fixed or data item can be accessed).

Therefore both fetching an instruction & accessing data over the same bus from memory by the processor at the same time in Von Neumann Architecture is not possible. So this is bottle neck in achieving high performance competition.

Basic Organisation of A Computer





① Back Plane Bus: A single bus interconnecting all the components of a computer.

② Processor: It is responsible for fetching or executing it.

It contains ALU for manipulating data, a number of registers for storing data and a control unit. Control Unit generates necessary control signals for fetching & executing. The signals & stored results. Also called as RAM.

Main Memory: Also called as RAM because CPU can access any location in the memory at random & retrieves the binary information at that memory location.

Monitor: It is a visual display unit & it serves as the main/primary output unit.

Peripheral Devices: These are the I/O devices that are connected to the computer.
eg: Keyboard, printer, scanner, camera. CPU can provide output to these output devices & collect input from the input devices over back plane bus.



→ Back Plane Bus is partitioned further in three type of buses :- Control Bus, Address Bus & Data Bus.

- Buses used to carry control signals are ~~used~~ called as control bus
- Buses that carry data are termed as data bus.
- Buses that carry address are termed as Address bus

Generation of Computers

1) First Generation Computers (1941 - 1956)

First Gen Computers are characterised by their use of vacuum tubes for computation & magnetic drums for storing the data.

2) Second Generation Computers (1956 - 1963)

With the invention of transistor in 1947 by Shockley, Brattain & Bardeene vacuum tubes were replaced by transistors.



3) Third Generation Computers (1964 - 1971)

Integrated Circuit (IC) created in 1958 by Jack Kilby were used.
This gen is much more compact & multi-programming came into existence

4) Fourth Generation Computers (1971 - present)

VLSI, ULSI were used & structure became more compact & it increased power efficiency & speed.

5) Fifth Generation Computers (Present & beyond)

Based on Machine Learning & Artificial Intelligence and are still in development stage.

Instruction Code

An instruction code is a group of bits that instruct the computer to perform a specific operation. There are two main parts of instruction code operational code (op code) & operand.

Op Code / Operational Code: It is the group of bits that define operations such as



add, sub, multiply, shift & compliment

No. of bits required for operation code depends upon the total number of operations available in the computer.

For n bits 2^n distinct operations can be performed.

For eg: if $n=6$ then $2^6 = 64$ operations

When op code is decoded by the control unit the computer issues control signals to read an operand from the memory & add the operand to the processor register.

Operand: It is the data on which the operation is to be performed. Operand are specified in the registers or by memory words, from where the data is to be retrieved or stored.

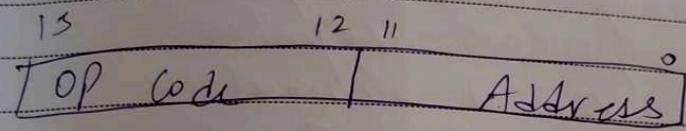
Memory words specify address of the memory.

Binary code of K bits will specify 2^K registers.

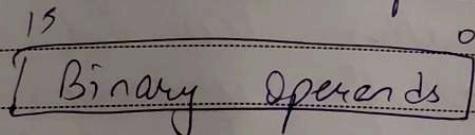
Instruction code format are to be designed.

by the computer designer who specifies the architecture.

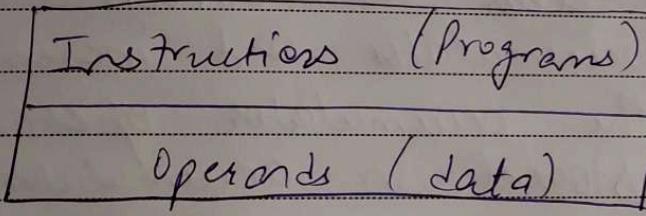
Op code also known as Macro operation and the operations that are initiated by the control unit are called as micro operations.



(a) Instruction format



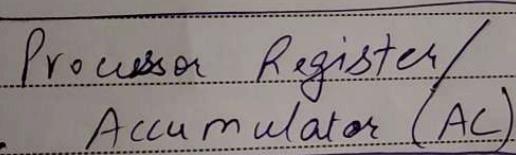
(b)



Memory
4096 X 16

stored program
Organization

(c)



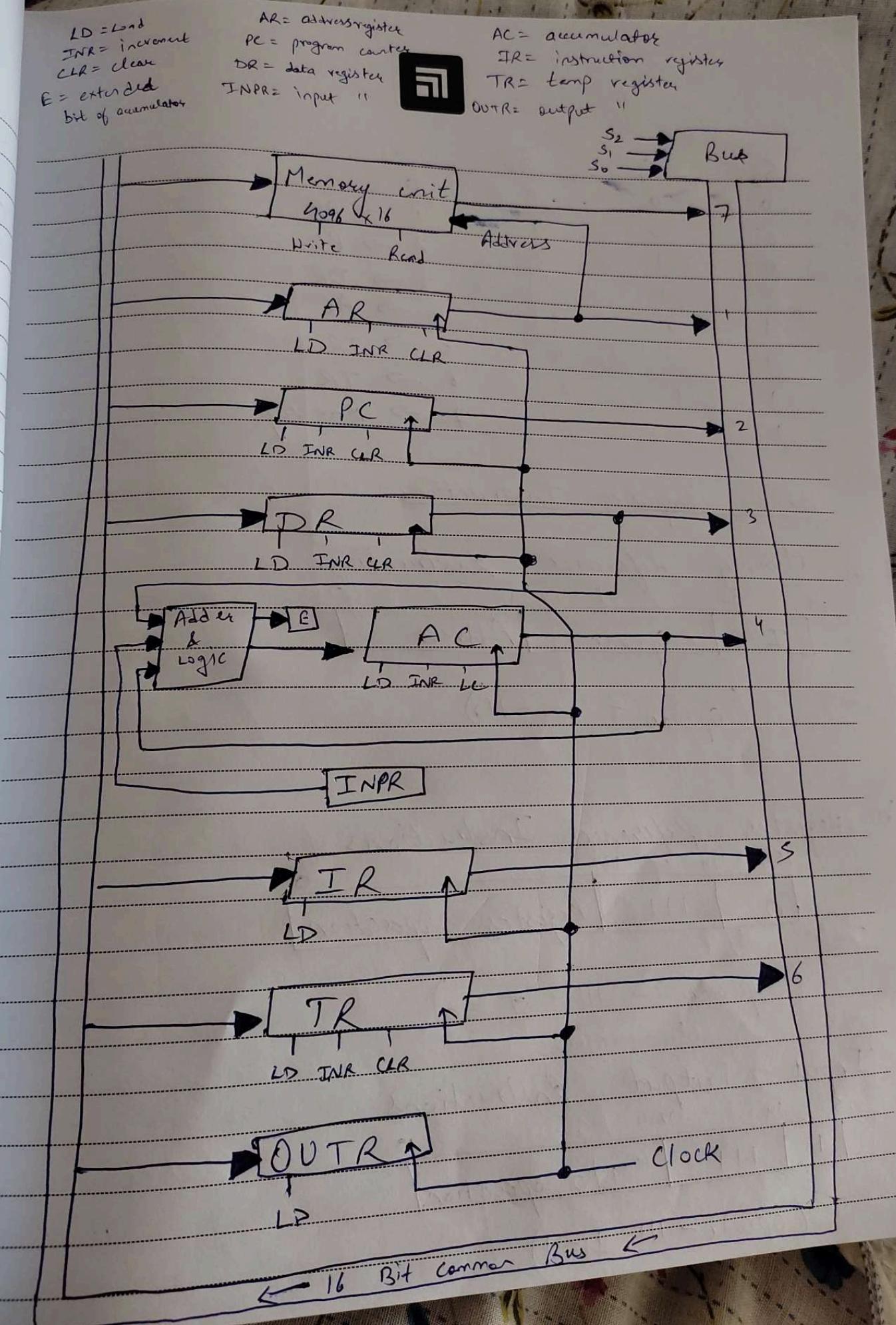
Instructions are stored in one section of memory & data in another. From the instruction format 12 bit Address line can access 4096 bits of memory. Instruction code consists of 16 bits, 12 bits for address of operand &

LD = Load
INR = increment
CLR = clear
E = extended
bit of accumulator

4 bits for op code. Control Unit reads a 16 bit instruction from the program portion of the memory, uses 12 bits to read the address of the instruction, to read a 16 bit operand from the data portion of the memory and then executes the operation specified by the op code. Computer having a single process register usually assign 17 as a accumulator. The operation is performed with the memory operand & the content of accumulator. If the operation does not need an operand from the memory the rest of the bits can be used for some other purpose for eg:- operations like clear the accumulator, compliment the accumulator and increment or decrement the accumulator operates on the data stored in accumulators register.

Common Bus System

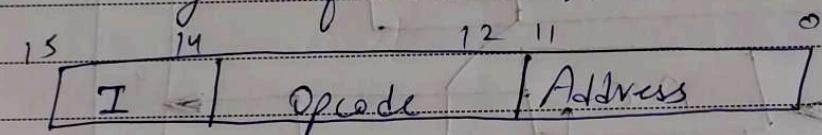
It is a 16 bit system where all the transistors are connected and provided with unique code so that every register or transistor can be accessed using the bus.



S_2	S_1	S_0		
0	0	0	1	$\rightarrow AR$
0	0	1	2	$\rightarrow PC$
0	1	0	3	$\rightarrow DR$
0	1	1	4	$\rightarrow AC$
1	0	0	5	$\rightarrow IR$
1	0	1	6	$\rightarrow TR$
1	1	0	7	$\rightarrow \text{Memory}$
1	1	1		

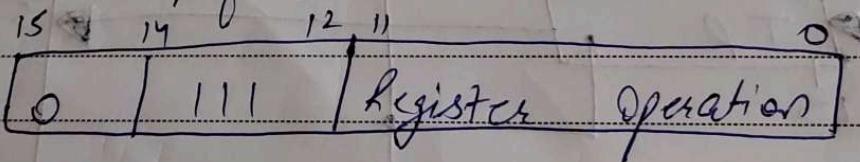
Basic Computer Instructions

(a) Memory Reference Instructions



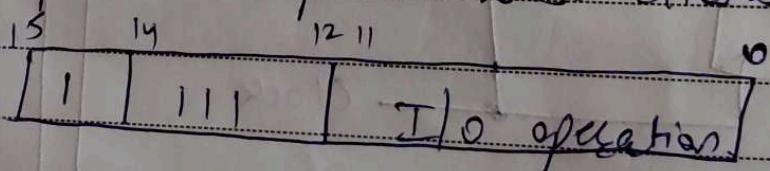
$$(\text{opcode} = 000 - 110)$$

(b) Register Reference Instructions



$$(\text{opcode} = 111, I=0)$$

(c) Input - Output Instructions



$$(\text{opcode} = 111, I=1)$$

AND

It will perform AND operation b/w the contents of memory word and accumulator

ADD

It will add the content of memory word with accumulator

LDA (Load Accumulator)

Load: memory word to accumulator

STA

Store the contents of accumulator in memory

BUN (Branch unconditionally)

BSA: Branch and save the return address

ISZ: increment & skip if zero

CLA: Clear the contents of accumulator

CLE: Extended bit of accumulator

CMA: Complement the content of accumulator.



CME: Complement the content of extended bit of accumulator

CIR: Circulate right the content of accumulator and F

CIL: Circulate left accumulator & F

INC: Increment of the content of accumulator

SPA: skip next instruction if accumulator is positive.

SNA - skip next instruction if ~~if zero to R~~ if accumulator is -ve

SZA - skip next instruction if accumulator is zero

SZE: skip next instruction if extended accumulator is zero

~~Halt~~ HLT: Halt the computer

INP: input character to ~~to~~ accumulator

OUT: output character from accumulator

SKI: skip on input flag.



SKO : skip or output flag

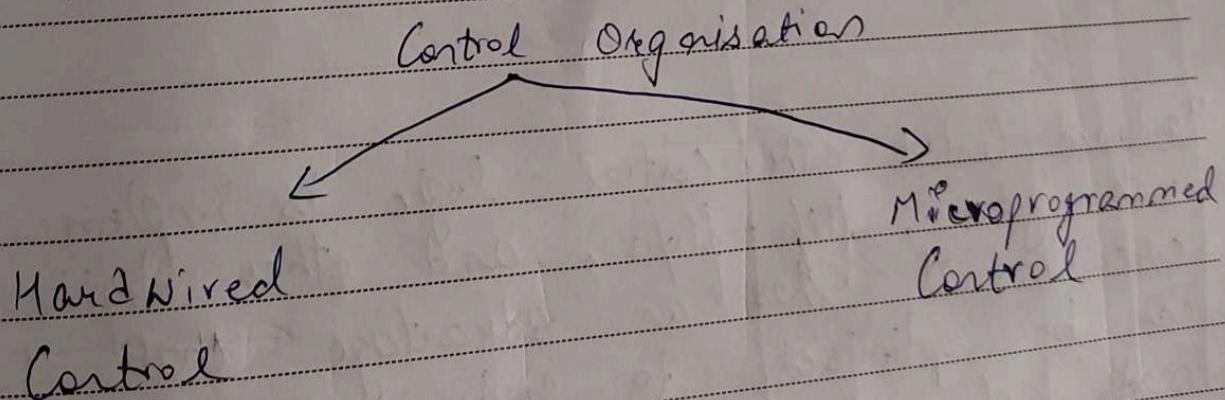
ION : interrupt on

IOP = interrupt off

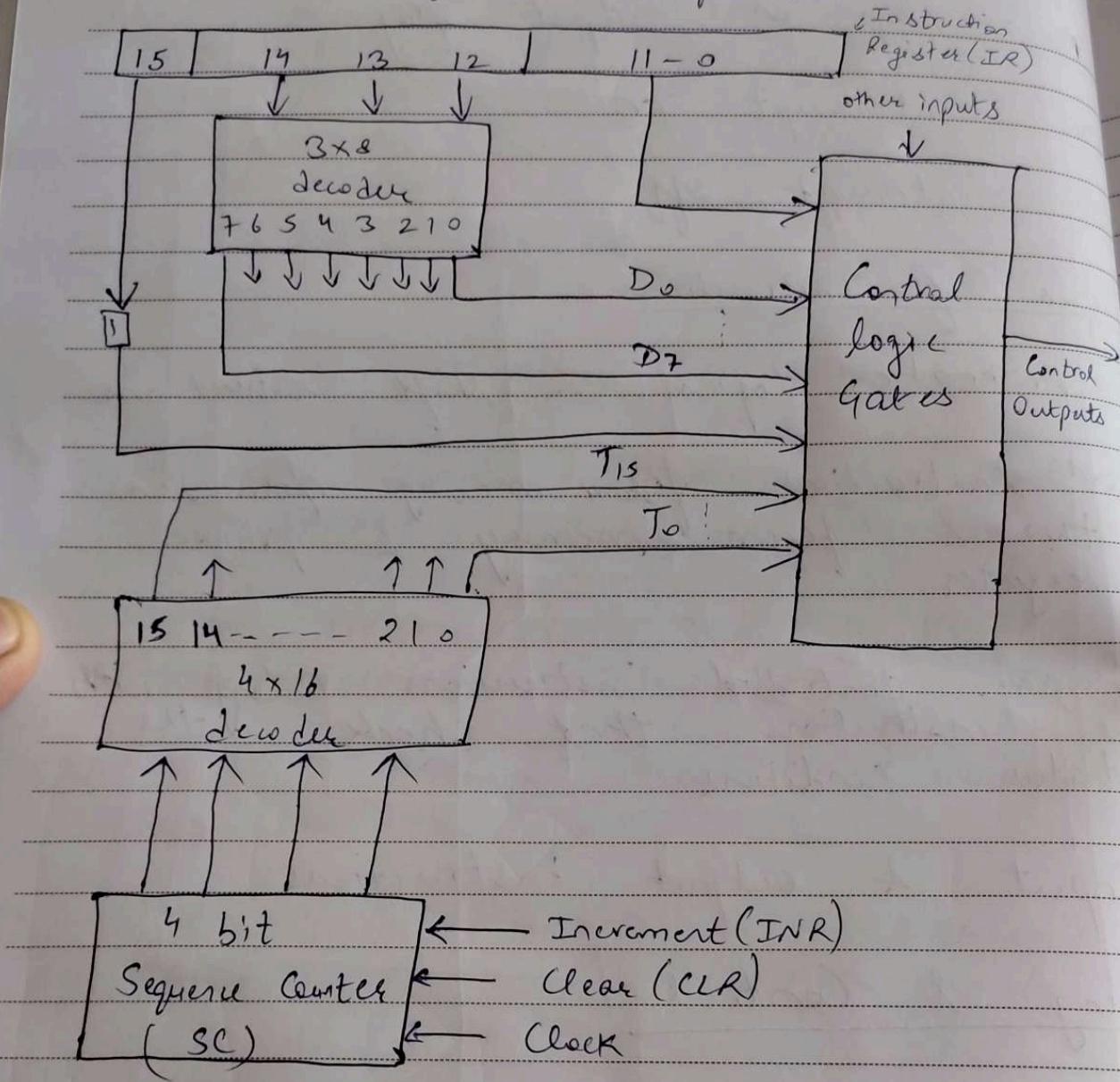
Types of Instructions

- ① Arithmetic, logical & shift instructions
- ② ~~Instructions~~ form moving information between memory & processor
- ③ program controlled instructions along with the instructions that check the status conditions
- ④ Input & output instructions.

Timing & Control



Control Unit of Basic Computer



Hardwired Control: The control logic is implemented with gates, flip-flops, and other digital circuit. It has an advantage that it can be optimised to produce a fast mode of operation, any change or

instruction
Register (IR)
Outputs



modification requires change in the hardware
(Bring among various components)

Microprogrammed Control: In microprogrammed control the control information is stored in a control memory. The control memory is programmed to initiate the required sequence of micro-operations. Any change or modification can be done by updating the microprogram in control memory.

* Block Diagram of Control Unit consists of two decoders, one sequence counter & number of control logic gates.

IR: An instruction read from memory is placed in instruction Register

15th ~~most~~ bit \rightarrow Mode (I)

14 - 12 \rightarrow op code

0 - 11 \rightarrow Address

12 - 14 bit i.e. op code line or op code bits are connected to 3x8 decoder which will generate D0 to D7 outputs / decimal equivalent of the binary value of the corresponding operation code

15th bit i.e. T bit i.e. Mode is transferred to the flip-flops designated by the symbol T

Address line 0-11 applied to control logic gates

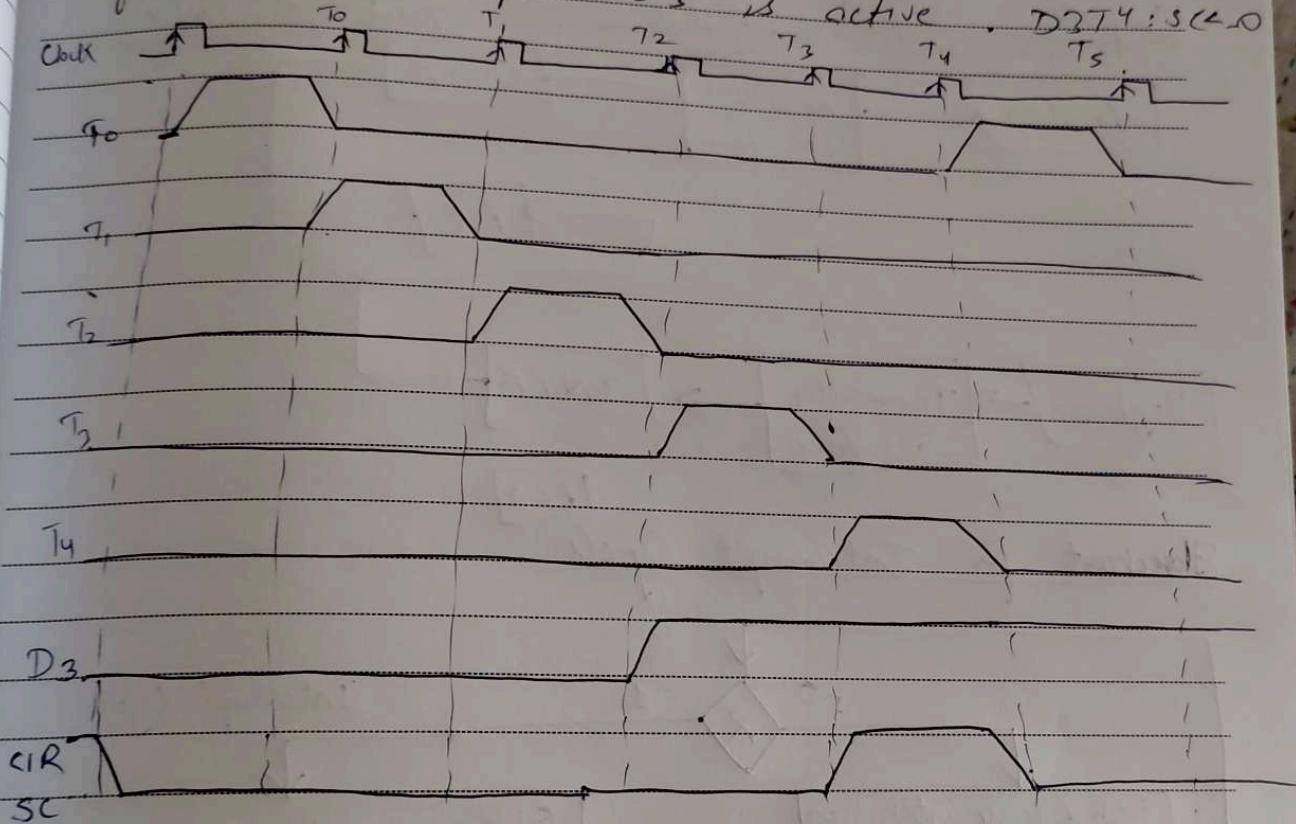
9 bit Sequence Counter : It will count from 0 to 15. The output of the counter are decoded into 16 timing signals

To through T₁₅. Sequence counter can be incremented and cleared synchronously. Most of the time SC is incremented to provide sequence of timing signals out of 4x16 decoder, once in a while the counter is cleared to zero causing the next active timing signal to be T₀.

- Q: Consider a case sequence counter is incremented to provide timing signals T₀, T₁, T₂, T₃ and T₄ in sequence. At time T₄ SC is cleared to zero if decoded output of D3 is active. So



As an example SC is incremented to provide signals to T_0, T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4 in sequence. At time T_4 , SC is cleared up to 0 if decoder output D_3 is active. $D_3 T_4 : S C \downarrow 0$

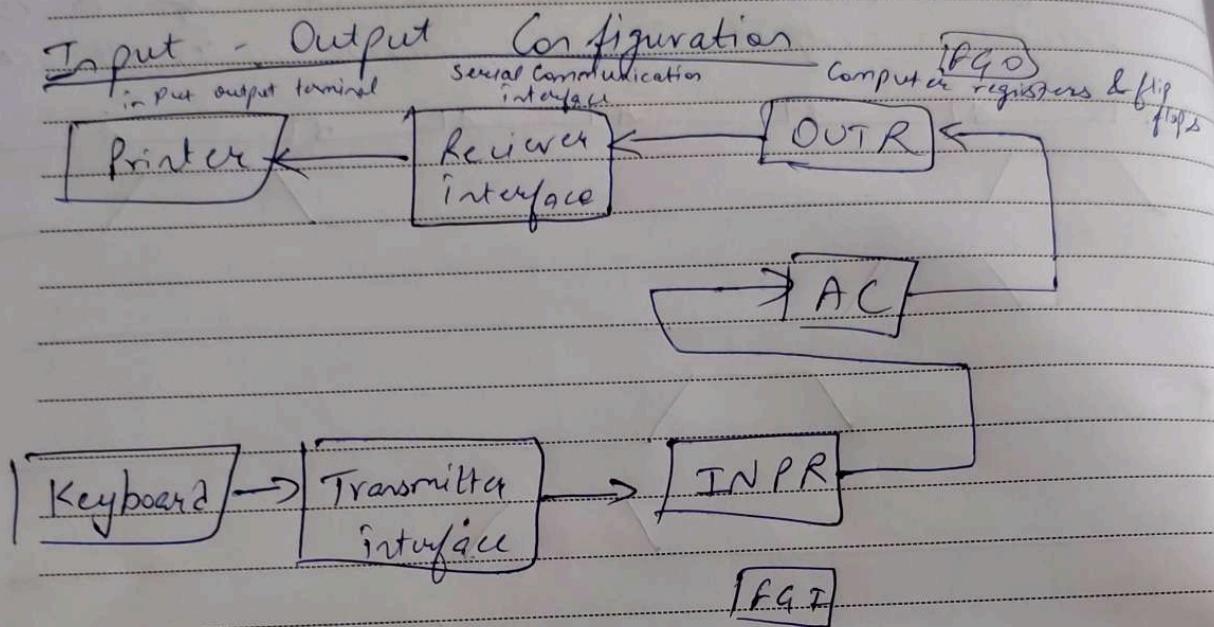


Instruction Cycle

Each instruction cycle consists of following phases

- ① Fetch an instruction from memory
- ② Decode the instruction
- ③ Read the effective address from memory if the instruction has an indirect address
- ④ Execute the instruction

This process continues indefinitely unless a Halt instruction is encountered.



Flowchart for Interrupt Cycle

