

Outline

- Components of microcomputer system
- Executing an instruction
- I/O devices
- Programming languages

Components of a Microcomputer System

- Memory
 - Information processed by the computer is stored in its memory.
- The CPU
 - In a microcomputer the CPU is a single chip processor known as microprocessor.
- I/O Ports
 - System board or mother board contains expansion slots which are connectors for additional circuits boards called add in boards. I/O circuits are usually on these boards.

- A memory circuit element can store one bit of data.
- Organized into groups that can store eight bits of data.
- String of eight bits called a byte.
- Each memory byte is identified by address.
- The first memory byte has address 0.
- The data stored in a memory byte called its contents or values.
- The address of a memory byte is fixed and different from any other addresses whereas contents are not fixed.
- The contents of memory byte are always eight bits but address depends on the processor. For example some assign 20 bits address whereas some assign 24 bit address.

• Bit Position

- The positions are numbered from right to left starting with 0.
- Low byte comes from memory byte with lower address and high byte comes from memory byte with higher address.

Byte	7		6		5	4			3		2		1		()
Word	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0

Operations

- Processor can perform two operations on memory: read(fetch) and write(store).
- In read processor gets a copy of data and the contents of that location is unchanged whereas in write the data becomes the new content of the location.

RAM and ROM

- Two kinds of memory circuits: RAM(Random Access Memory) and ROM(Read Only Memory).
- RAM locations can be read and write but ROM locations only can be read.
- Program instructions and data normally loaded into RAM.
- System programs are stored in ROM.
- RAM memory lost when the power is off but ROM circuits retain their values when the power is off.

Buses

- Processor communicates with memory and I/O devices by using signals that travel along a set of wires called buses.
- Three kinds of buses: address bus, data bus and control bus.

Memory Devices

- Random-Access Memory (RAM)
 - DRAM = Dynamic RAM
 - 1-Transistor cell + trench capacitor.
 - Dense but slow, must be refreshed.
 - Typical choice for main memory.
 - SRAM: Static RAM
 - 6-Transistor cell, faster but less dense than DRAM.
 - Typical choice for cache memory.
- Read-Only-Memory(ROM)
 - Many types: ROM, EPROM, EEPROM, and FLASH memory can be erased electrically in blocks.
- Cache
 - A very fast type of RAM that is used to store information that is most frequently or recently used by the computer.
 - Recent computers have 2-levels of cache; the first level is faster but smaller in size (usually called internal cache), and the second level is slower but larger in size (external cache).

- Suppose a processor uses 20 bits for an address. How many memory bytes can be accessed?
- The number of memory bytes will be $2^{20} = 1,048,576 = 1MB$

CPU

- It controls computer by executing programs stored in the memory.
- The instructions performed by a CPU is known as instruction set.
- Instruction set for each CPU is unique.
- 8086 microprocessor has two main components: Execution Unit and Bus Interface Unit.
- EU and BIU is connected by an internal bus.
- When EU is executing an instruction the BIU fetches up to six bytes
 of the next instruction and places them in the instruction queue
 known as instruction pre-fetch.

CPU

Execution Unit

- Used to execute instructions.
- Contains a circuit called Arithmetic and Logic Unit(ALU).
- The data for the operations are stored in circuits called registers.
- Eight registers for storing data: AX, BX, CX, DX, SI, DI, BP and SP.
- It also contains FLAGS register whose individual bits reflect the result of a computation.

Bus Interface Unit

- Facilitates communication between the EU and the memory or I/O circuits.
- Transmits addresses, data and control signals on the buses.
- Registers are CS, DS, ES, SS and IP holding address of memory locations.
- IP contains the address of the next instruction to be executed by the EU.

I/O Ports

- I/O devices are connected to the computer through I/O circuits.
- Each of these circuits contains several registers known as I/O ports.
- I/O ports have addresses and connected to the bus system.
- These addresses are known as I/O addresses and can only be used in input or output instructions.
- Data to be input from an I/O device are sent to a port where they can be read by the CPU.
- On output CPU writes data to an I/O port.
- Two types of I/O ports: Serial and Parallel.

I/O Ports

- Serial port
 - Transfers one bit at a time.
 - Used for slower transfer such as keyboard.
- Parallel port
 - Transfers 8 or 16 bits at a time.
 - Requires more wiring connections.
 - Used for faster data transfer such as disk drives.

I/O Devices

Magnetic Disk

- Magnetic disks are used for permanent storage of programs and data.
- The device that reads and writes data on a disk is called disk drive.
- Floppy Disk
 - Light weight and portable.
 - Easy to put away for safekeeping and use it on different computers.
 - Amount of data depends on type, ranging from 360KB-1.44MB (1KB).
- Hard Disk
 - Enclosed in a hermetically sealed container that is non removable from computer called a fixed disk.
 - Can store more data than floppy disk. Typically 20, 40 to over 100MB.
 - A program can access information in a hard disk much faster than a floppy disk.

I/O Devices

Keyboard

- Allows the user to enter information in a computer.
- It has keys of typewriters and a number of control and function keys.
- Has own microprocessor that sends coded signal to computer when a key is pressed or released.
- No direct contact between keyboard and display.

Display Monitor

- Standard output device of the computer.
- Displayed information on the screen is generated by video adapter.
- Most adapters can generate both text characters and graphics images.
- Some even display in color.

I/O Devices

- Printers
 - Printers are slower than monitors but provide more permanent output.
 - Printer outputs are known as hardcopies.
 - Daisy wheel
 - The output is similar to that of a typewriter.
 - Dot matrix
 - Prints characters composed of dots.
 - Some can generate near-letter-quality printing.
 - Print characters with different fonts as well as graphics.
 - Laser printers
 - Print characters composed of dots.
 - The resolution is high (300 dots per inch).
 - It is expensive.

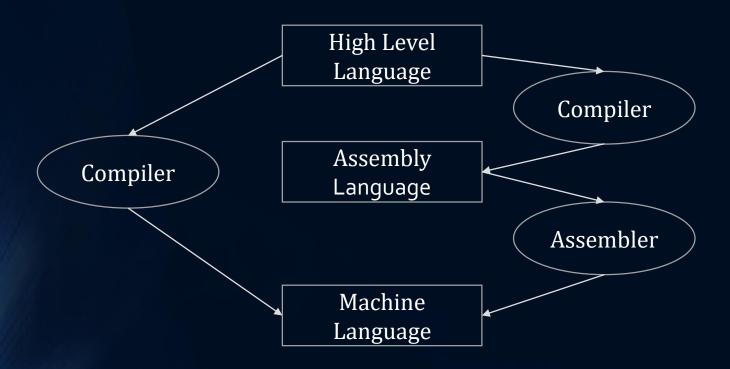
Instruction Execution

- Machine instructions have two parts: Opcode and Operands.
- Opcode field which stands for operation code and it specifies the particular operation that is to be performed. Each operation has its unique opcode.
- Operands fields which specify where to get the source and destination operands for the operation specified by the opcode. The source/destination of operands can be a constant, the memory or one of the general-purpose registers.
- The steps of executing an instruction(the fetch-execution cycle) are:
 - Fetch
 - 1. Fetch an instruction from memory.
 - 2. Decode the instruction to determine the operation.
 - 3. Fetch data from memory if necessary.
 - Execution
 - 1. Perform the operation on the data.
 - 2. Store the result in memory if needed.

Programming Languages

- Machine language
 - A CPU can only execute machine language instructions.
 - Instructions consist of binary code: 1s and 0s.
- Assembly language
 - A programming language that uses symbolic names to represent operations, registers and memory locations.
 - Readability of instructions is better than machine language.
 - One-to-one correspondence with machine language instructions to machine code.
 - Assemblers translates assembly code to machine code.
- High Level Language
 - Compilers translate high-level programs to machine code directly or indirectly via an assembler.

Compiler and Assembler



Advantages of High-Level Languages and Assembly Language

- High Level Language
 - Program development is faster as it is closer to natural language.
 - Program maintenance is easier.
 - Programs are portable as it can be used with little or no modifications on different machines.
- Assembly Language
 - Assembly Language is close to machine language.
 - It helps one to understand how the computer thinks.

Mapping Between Assembly Language and High Level Language

- Translating High Level Language programs to machine language programs is not a one-to-one mapping.
- A High Level Language instruction (usually called a statement) will be translated to one or more machine language instructions.

Instruction Class	С	Assembly Language
Data Movement	A=5	MOV A,5
Arithmetic or Logic	B=A+5	MOV AX,A ADD AX,5 MOV B,AX
Data Movement	goto LBL	JMP LBL

Why Learn Assembly Language?

- Accessibility to system hardware
 - Assembly Language is useful for implementing system software.
 - Also useful for small embedded system applications.
- Space and Time efficiency
 - Understanding sources of program inefficiency.
 - Tuning program performance.
 - Writing compact code
- Writing assembly programs gives the computer designer the needed deep understanding of the instruction set and how to design one.
- To be able to write compilers for High Level Languages, we need to be expert with the machine language. Assembly programming provides this experience.