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## 0.1 Assessment

- Online Quizzes (10% = Best 10 × 1%)  
Due Mondays at 8am
- Mid-semester exam (10% or 20%)  
Saturday (centrally scheduled - sometime week 5 to 7)  
Multiple-choice, open-book
- Prac Exam (Pass/Fail)  
Held during Monday/Wednesday Learning Lab sessions in week 6  
You must pass in order to pass the course
- Project (20%)  
Develop a microcontroller program
- Final Exam (50% or 60%)  
Short answer, problem solving, open-book

# Chapter 1

## Lecture Notes

### 1.1 Bits, Bytes and Binary

#### 1.1.1 Structured Computer Organization

**Level 5:** Problem-oriented language level

**Level 4:** Assembly language level

**Level 3:** Operating system machine level

**Level 2:** Instruction set architecture level

**Level 1:** Microarchitecture level

**Level 0:** Digital Logic level

#### 1.1.2 Unsigned Number in Binary

Each bit position has a value  $\rightarrow 2^n$  (starting at zero). Add all values of the positions together and that's unsigned value.

#### 1.1.3 Least and Most Significant Bits

**Most Significant Bit (MSB):** Bit that's worth the most, the left-most bit

**Least Significant Bit (LSB):** Bit that's worth the least, the right-most bit

#### 1.1.4 Radices

- **Radix:** number system base
- A radix- $k$  number system
  - $k$  different symbols to represent digits 0 to  $k - 1$
  - Value of each digit is (from the right)  $k^0, k^1, k^2, k^3, \dots$
- Often convenient to deal with
  - Octal** (radix-8) - Symbols: 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7
    - One octal digit corresponds to 3 bits
  - Hexadecimal** (radix-16) - Symbols: 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, A, B, C, D, E, F

#### Radix Identification

- Hexadecimal
  - Leading 0x (C, Atmel AVR)
  - Trailing h (Some assembly languages)
  - Leading \$ (Atmel AVR Assembly)
- Octal
  - Leading 0 (C, Atmel AVR)
  - Trailing q (Some assembly languages)
  - Leading @ (Some assembly languages)
- Binary
  - Leading 0b (Atmel AVR Assembly, Some C)
  - Trailing b (Some assembly languages)
  - Leading % (some assembly languages)

#### 1.1.5 Conversions

Easiest to convert from most formats to binary then to the desired format.

##### Octal

**From Binary:** Group bits into series of 3 and then convert to decimal (0b010 = 02)

**To Binary:** Convert each octal number to binary and append

##### Hex

**From Binary:** Group bits into series of 4 and then convert to hex with overflow being apart of the alphabet (0b1100 = 0xC)

**To Binary:** Convert each hex number to binary and append

##### Decimal

**From Binary:** Add together the powers of two at each position  $n$  (0b1010 =  $2^3 + 2^1 = 10$ )

**To Binary:** Starting with LSB, divide by 2 with the remainder being bit value at position.  
( $9 = 9/2 = 4\text{rem}1, 4/2 = 2\text{rem}0, 2/2 = 1\text{rem}0, 1/2 = 0\text{rem}1. \therefore 9 = 0b1001$ )

#### 1.1.6 Negative Numbers

##### Signed Magnitude

Leftmost bit is the sign bit, true is negative and false is positive

## One's Complement

Leftmost bit = sign-bit (as per signed magnitude), true is negative and false is positive. If negative all bits are inverted

## Two's Complement

MSB signifies if negative, true is negative and false is positive. To negate invert all bits and add decimal 1.

■ Allows addition without requiring conversion

**Excess**  $2^{m-1}$

e.g. for 8 bits, excess-128. Add 128 to the original bit and convert to binary

variables (literals), e.g.  $A B X$   
functions, e.g.  $+. \oplus \bar{A}$

- Rules about how this works called **Boolean algebra**
- Variables and functions can only take on values **0** or **1**

## Conventions

**Inversion:**  $\bar{A}$  (overline of A)

**AND:** dot(.) or implied by adjacency.  $AB = A.B$

**OR:** plus sign.  $OR(A, B, C) = A + B + C$

**XOR:**  $OR(A, B) = A \oplus B = \bar{A}B + A\bar{B}$

**NAND:**  $\overline{ABC}$

**NOR:**  $\overline{A + B}$

## 1.2 Logic Gates

**NOT Gate:** Inverts the signal (i.e. input is true, output is false)

**AND Gate:** Output is true only if **all** inputs are true

**NAND Gate:** Opposite of AND, always true unless all inputs are true

**OR Gate:** Output is true when at **least one** input is true

**XOR Gate:** Output is true if only one input is true

### Note 1: XOR Multiple Inputs

For more than 2 inputs, XOR is true if there is an odd number of inputs true. Also referred to as the "odd function"

### 1.2.1 Logic Functions

- Logic functions can be expressed as expressions involving:

## Representations of Logic Functions

There are four representations of logic functions (assume function of  $n$  inputs)

- **Truth Table**

Lists output for all  $2^n$  combinations of inputs

- **Boolean Function** (or equation)

Describes the conditions under which the function output is true

- **Logic Diagram**

Combination of logic symbols joined by wires

- **Timing Diagram**

### 1.2.2 Logic Function Implementation

Any logic function can be implemented as the OR of AND combinations of the inputs. Called **sum of products**.

Table 1.1: Boolean Identities

Name	AND Form	OR Form
Identity Law	$1A = A$	$0 + A = A$
Null Law	$0A = 0$	$1 + A = 1$
Idempotent Law	$AA = A$	$A + A = A$
Commutative Law	$AB = BA$	$A + B = B + A$
Associative Law	$(AB)C = A(BC)$	$(A + B) + C = A + (B + C)$
Distributive Law	$A + BC = (A + B)(A + C)$	$A(B + C) = AB + AC$
Absorption Law	$A(A + B) = A$	$A + AB = AB$
De Morgan's Law	$\overline{AB} = \bar{A} + \bar{B}$	$\overline{A + B} = \bar{A}\bar{B}$

## 1.3 Binary Arithmetic

### 1.3.1 Equivalent Circuits

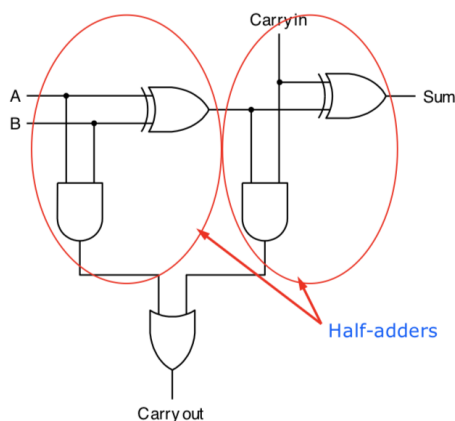
All circuits can be constructed from NAND and NOR gates

### 1.3.2 Overflow

Overflow with two's complement addition:

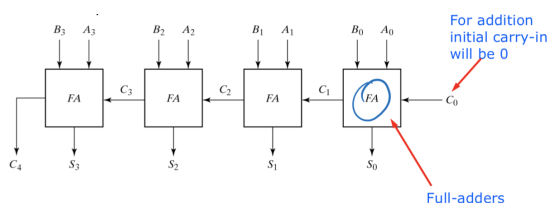
- Carry into sign-bit is different to the carry out of the sign-bit
- Equivalently, overflow occurs if
  - Two negatives added together give a positive, or
  - Two positives added together give a negative

### 1.3.3 Full Adder



### 1.3.4 Binary Adder

Can cascade full adders to make binary adder. This is a **ripple-carry adder**.



## 1.4 Combination Logic

### 1.4.1 Combinational Circuits

Each output can be expressed as a function of  $n$  input variables. Can write truth table also:

- $n$  input columns
- $m$  output columns

- $2^n$  rows (i.e. possible input combination)

#### Note 2: Multiplexer (or Mux)

- $2^n$  data inputs
- 1 output
- $n$  control (or **select**) inputs - that **select** one of the inputs to be "sent" or "steered" to the output

#### Note 3: Decoder

Converts  $n$ -bit input to a logic-1 on exactly one of  $2^n$  outputs

### 1.4.2 Timing Diagram

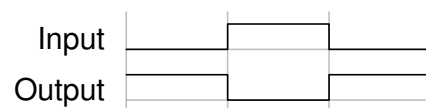


Figure 1.1: Timing Diagram of an inverter

There is a slight delay in logic timings in reality

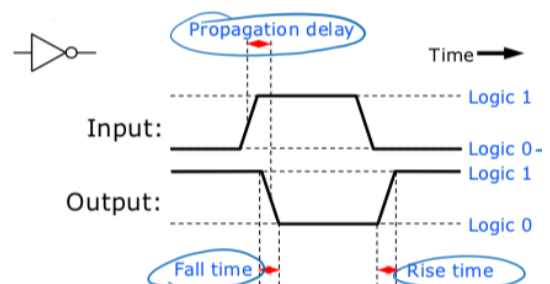


Figure 1.2: Reality of Timing

**Propagation delay:** time for change in input to affect output

**Fall time:** time taken for output to fall from 1 to 0

**Rise time:** time for output to rise from 0 to 1

## 1.5 Flip-flops

### 1.5.1 D Flip Flop

- **D** is input
- **Q** is output
- **CLK** (clock) is control input

Q copies the value of D (and remembers it) whenever CLK goes from 0 to 1 (**rising edge**).

## Characteristic Table

**Characteristic table** defines operation of flip-flop in tabular form

Table 1.2: D Flip-Flop Characteristic Table

D	Q(t+1)
0	0
1	1

## 1.5.2 Flip-Flops Vs Latches

- The last few slides show **latches**  
These are **level-triggered** devices
- Remember we want to capture the input value at rising **edge** (a short instant)!
- Any devices based on edges are referred to as **flip-flops**  
These are **edge-triggered** devices

## 1.6 Shift Registers

### 1.6.1 Combinational vs Sequential Circuits

- **Combinational** Circuits
  - Logic gates only (no flip-flops)
  - Output is uniquely determined by the inputs  
i.e. you'll always get the same output for a given set of inputs
- **Sequential** Circuits
  - Include flip-flops
  - Output determined by current inputs and current **state** (values in the flip-flops)
  - Output can change when clock “ticks” (rising edge)

### Sequential Circuits

- **State** is value stored in flip-flops
- Output depends on input and state or sometimes just the state
- Next state depends on inputs and state

### Synchronous Sequential Circuit

- Storage elements (flip-flops) can only change at discrete instants of time

## 1.6.2 Registers

- A **register** is a group of flip-flops  
 $n$ -bit register consists of  $n$  flip-flops capable of storing  $n$  bits
- A register is a sequential circuit *without* any combinational logic

### Shift Register

A shift register is a register which is capable of shifting its binary information in one or both directions

## 1.7 Counters

- A **counter** is a multi-bit register that goes through a determined sequence of states (values) upon the application of input pulses
- A counter which follows binary number sequence is a **binary counter**  
 $n$ -bit binary counter has  $n$  flip-flops and can count from 0 to  $2^n - 1$

### Note 4: State

- Values stored in the flip-flops can be considered the **current state** of the circuit
- D inputs to the flip-flops are the **next state**
- D inputs are some function of the current state and inputs

### Key Points

- Next state is a function of previous state (and possibly inputs)
- Count sequence can be binary numbers but does not have to be  
If it is, counter is a **binary counter**
- Circuits are **synchronous**  
All flip-flops have the same clock

## 1.8 State Machines

- Sequential circuits can also be called state machines  
finite state machines (FSMs)
- State machine has
  - Finite number of possible states
  - Only one **current state**
  - Can **transition** to other states based on inputs and current state

### Note 5: Types of State Machines

**Mealy Machines:** Outputs depend on current state and inputs

**Moore Machines:** Outputs depend only on current state (flip-flop values)  
Outputs can only change when state changes

Table 1.4: Two-dimensional state table

Current State	Next State		Outputs	
	$\bar{U}$	$U$	$Q_1$	$Q_0$
S0	S3	S1	0	0
S1	S0	S2	0	1
S2	S1	S3	1	0
S3	S2	S0	1	1

## 1.8.1 State diagram

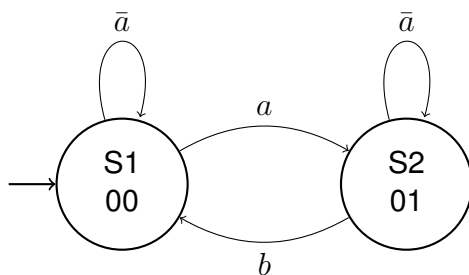


Figure 1.3: Example single input state diagram

*Note: I couldn't figure out how to add the line that is meant to go between the state label and the state number*

### Completeness

Each possible combination of inputs should be addressed **exactly once** for each state. i.e. transition arrows from each state must encompass all possibilities (exactly once)

## 1.8.2 State tables

- State diagrams can also be represented in a state table

Table 1.3: Example State Table

Current State	Input $U$	Next State	Outputs	
			$Q_1$	$Q_2$
S0	0	S3	0	0
S0	1	S1	0	0
S1	0	S0	0	1
S1	1	S2	0	1
S2	0	S1	1	0
S2	1	S3	1	0
S3	0	S2	1	1
S3	1	S1	1	1

## 1.8.3 State encoding

- Must encode each state into flip-flop values
- Choose
  - Number of flip-flops
  - Bit patterns that represent each state
- Ideally, choose state encoding to make combinational logic simple, for both
  - Output logic
  - Next state logic

## 1.9 ALUs and Memory

### 1.9.1 Parts of a CPU

- Control Unit**
  - Fetches instructions from memory, makes the ALU and the registers perform the instruction
- ALU**
  - Performs arithmetic and logical operations
- Registers**
  - High speed memory – stores temporary results and control

### 1.9.2 Registers

Different types of registers

- Program Counter Register**
  - Stores the memory address of the next instruction to be fetched
- Instruction Register**
  - Contains the current instruction
- General Purpose Registers**
  - Contains data to be operated on (e.g. data read from memory), results of operations, ...
  - Width is CPU word size
  - Sometimes called the **register file**

### 1.9.3 Buses

**Bus** = Common pathway (collection of “wires”) connecting parts of a computer

Characteristics:

- Can be **internal** to CPU (e.g. ALU to registers)
- Can be **external** to CPU (e.g. CPU to memory)
- Buses have a **width** – number of bits that can be transferred together over a bus  
May not always be the same as the word size of the computer

#### Note 6: Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU)

Does more than adding... **Function / control** input dictates the operation that the ALU is to perform, e.g.

- Addition
- Increment (+1)
- Subtraction
- Bitwise AND
- Bitwise OR

Like adders, ALUs can be made up from 1-bit slices

Stores status of last ALU operation

#### Note 7: Status Register

Typically Includes:

**Z:** zero bit – was the last result 0?

**V:** overflow bit – did the last addition/subtraction operation overflow (assuming it was a two’s complement operation)?

**C:** carry bit – was a carry out generated?

**N:** negative bit – was the result negative if considered as two’s complement (i.e. what’s the sign bit)?

### 1.9.4 Data Path

- Operands come from register file
- Result written to register file
- Implements routine instructions such as arithmetic, logical, shift
- Width of registers/buses is the CPU word size

## 1.10 CPU Control Unit

### 1.10.1 Control Unit

- Control signals come from the **control unit**
- Control unit must generate the control signals in the right order for a given instruction  
Instruction determined by contents of the **Instruction Register (IR)**

#### Data Influencing Control

- Need to know more than what’s in the instruction register
- Control unit can’t operate without knowing something about the data
- **Status Register**  
Determined by ALU operations

## 1.11 AVR Introduction

### 1.11.1 Instructions

**Opcode** (Operation code): defines the operation

**Operands** : what’s being operated on (e.g. particular registers or memory address)

## 1.12 Instruction Set Architecture

### 1.12.1 Instruction Set Architecture (ISA)

**ISA** defines the interface between hardware and software

- ISA is a specification
- **Microarchitecture** is how the control unit is built

For hardware (microarchitecture) designers

- Don’t need to know about the high level software
- Just build a microarchitecture that implements the ISA

For software writers (machine language programmers and compiler writers)

- Don’t need to know (much) about microarchitecture
- Just write or generate instructions that match the ISA

#### What makes an ISA?

- Memory modules
  - Issues
    - \* Addressable cell size



- \* Alignment
- \* Address spaces
- \* Endianness
- Registers
- Instructions
- Data types

#### Note 8: Addressable Cell Size

- Memory has cells, each of which has a unique address (or cell number)
- Most common cell size is 8 bits (but not always!)  
AVR Instruction memory has 16 bit cells
- Bus is used to transport the content of cell, but sometimes the data bus may be wider

## Bus Sizes

For every doubling of data bus width, remove least significant bit of address bus. e.g. data bus of 32 bits, address bus of n-2 bits, four cells transferred at a time

#### Note 9: Alignment

Many architectures require **natural alignment**

#### Note 10: Address Spaces

Many microprocessors have a single linear memory address space (**von Neumann architecture**). However, **Harvard architecture** is separate address spaces for instructions and data

#### Note 11: Endianness

- Different machines may support different byte orderings
- **Little endian** - little end (least significant byte) stored first (at lowest address)
- **Big endian** - big end stored first

## Registers

Two types of registers:

- General purpose (used for temporary results)
- Special purpose

- Program Counter (PC)
- Stack Pointer (SP)
- Input/Output Registers
- Status Register (Tanenbaum calls this Program Status Word)

Some other registers are part of the microarchitecture NOT the ISA (e.g. Instruction Register (IR))

#### Note 12: AVR I/O Registers

AVR ATmega324A has 224 I/O register addresses to control peripherals and get data to/from them, e.g.

- Timers and counters
- Analog to Digital Converters
- Serial input/output
- General purpose input/output ports
- Three registers associated with each

**DDRx** - Data direction register

**PORTx** - Values to output

**PINx** - Values on the pins

## Instructions

Instruction types include:

**Input/Output** - communicate with I/O devices

**Load/Store** - move data from/to memory

**Move** - copy data between registers

**Arithmetic** - addition, subtraction, ...

**Logical** - Boolean operations

**Branching** - for deciding which instruction to perform next

#### Note 13: Instruction Types

**Dyadic Instructions:** combine 2 operands to produce a result

**Monadic Instructions:** one operand → one result

**Shift Instructions:** LSL, LSR, ASR

**Rotate Instructions:** ROL, ROR

**Comparison Instructions:** Same as subtraction, sets status register flags

**Branch Instructions:** Based on status register values

## Addressing Modes

**Immediate** addressing: An operand value is in the instruction

**Register** addressing: Only register numbers in instruction

**Direct** addressing: Memory address is in instruction

## Data Types

- Numeric
  - Integers of different lengths
  - Floating point: 32bit (single precision) or 64bit (double precision)
- Non-numeric
  - Boolean
  - Bit-map (collection of bools)
  - Characters
  - Pointers

### Note 14: AVR Status Bit

- $N$  bit = negative (1 if sign bit of result is 1)
- $V$  bit = two's complement overflow
- $S = N \oplus V$

If overflow happens, sign bit will be wrong so instead of checking  $N$  bit, check  $S$  bit

## 1.13 Flow of Control

### 1.13.1 Procedures

- Group of instructions that performs some task
- May have operands (**arguments** or **parameters**)
- May produce result(s)
- Can be **invoked** (called) from multiple places in program
- After invocation, control returns to the statement after the call
- Also known as a **subroutine**, **function**, **method**
- Return address is stored in a stack

## 1.14 Interrupts

CPU receiving interrupt causes it to execute software to handle the interrupt

- Software routine is called **interrupt handler** or **interrupt service routine (ISR)**

### 1.14.1 Finding the Interrupt Handler

Look in the **interrupt vector table** which contains either a table of addresses or table of jump instructions

## Transparency

When ISR finishes, computer is in the same state as it was before the interrupt. Save the status register and any other registers that will be used by the interrupt.

## Interrupt Priority

Priority only occurs when two priorities are triggered at relatively the same time. Highest priority is the one with the lower vector value

### 1.14.2 Traps

Traps are **software interrupts** caused by events in software.

- Overflow, Divide by zero, Undefined opcode
- Traps save continually checking for errors
- Trap handlers (service routines) don't always return to the original program

## 1.15 Pulse Width Modulation (PWM)

**Duty cycle:** % of time that the signal is high

**Average Value:** If the periodic pulse is fast enough, signal looks like the average value (brightness control of led)

**Fast PWM Mode:** Output is high on OCR0B trigger and low (and reset) on OCR0A trigger

**Phase Correct PWM:** Center of pulses remain the same point in period. Counter counts up and then down

## 1.16 Serial

### 1.16.1 Synchronous

**SPI** - Serial Peripheral Interface

### 1.16.2 Asynchronous

**UART** - Universal Asynchronous Receiver and Transmitter

**USART** - Universal Synchronous/Asynchronous Receiver and Transmitter

**USB** - Universal Serial Bus

#### Note 15: Sync vs Async

**Sync:** Clock signal is transmitted with data

**Async:** Clock signal must be recovered from data stream

Example: Use start and stop bits

### Baudrate

Symbols per second. Not the same as bit rate.  
2400, 4800, 9600, 14400, 19200, 28800, 38400, 57600, 115200

$$UBRR_n = \frac{f_{osc}}{16 \times BAUD} - 1 = \frac{8 \times 10^6}{16 \times BAUD} - 1$$

## 1.17 Analog to Digital Conversion (ADC)

Input pin is compared against GND and a reference voltage (VREF)

### 1.17.1 Bus Masters and Slaves

**Master** - Device which initiates (and controls) the transfer of data

**Slave** - Waits for requests, responds to master

**I<sup>2</sup>C** - Inter-Integrated Circuit

**TWI** - Two-wire Interface

**1-Wire** - Communication over a single wire

**Bit Bashing** - Simulate I/O standards with general purpose ports

## 1.18 Assembly

Statements have 4 parts:

**Labels** needed so statements can be jumped to, and so that data can be referenced

**Opcode** has symbolic abbreviation for an instruction opcode

**Operand** field specifies addresses and registers used as operands of the instruction

**Comments** field is space for programmer to put helpful explanations

A command (directive) to the assembler itself! Preceded with a “.”, called **Pseudo-instruction** or **directive**

### 1.18.1 Memory Segments

- Different types of memory are known as **segments** to the assembler
- Assembler directives enable code/data to be placed into different segments
- AVR has
  - Data segment (RAM)  
Can't place values here, just reserve space (for variables)
  - Code segment (Flash)  
Can place program code or constant data here
  - EEPROM Segment  
Can place constants here

### 1.18.2 Pseudo-instructions

- **.byte**: Reserve space; only allowed in **dseg** (RAM)
- Segment directives **.cseg** and **.dseg** allow the text and data segments to be built up in pieces
- **.db**: Initialise constant in code or EEPROM segment
- **.dw**: As above but defines a 16-bit word
- **.def**: Make a definition (for registers only)
- **.device**: Specify the exact processor that this program is designed for (**.device ATmega324A**)
- **.include**: Include a file
- **.exit**: Stop processing this file
- **.equ**: Equate (not changeable)
- **.set**: Equate (but changeable)
- **.org**: Set location counter - i.e. address (in any segment)

## 1.19 Compiling and Linking

### 1.19.1 Object File Structure

- 6. End of module:** Contains address at which to start execution and maybe a checksum
- 5. Relocation dictionary:** Contains: List of addresses of code/data in (4) that need to be relocated
- 4. Machine instructions and constants:** Contains: Assembled code and constants (code segment, data segment)
- 3. External reference table:** Contains: List of all symbols that are used in the module but not defined in module

**2. Entry point table:** Contains: List of symbols other modules can reference. Values of symbols (addresses): Procedure entry points, variables, addresses are relative to beginning of this object module

**1. Identification:** Contains: Name of module, Location of the other sections in the file, Assembly date

### 1.19.2 Dynamic Linking

Linking can happen at run-time. Link when the procedure is first called. DLLs on Windows, SO on \*nix. Advantages:

- Saves space, libraries aren't linked into binary executable
- Library can be updated independently of the programs that use it, can be disadvantage also

## 1.20 Memory and Disks

### 1.20.1 Memory Types

**Static** memory: Flip-flops or latches used to store bits

**Dynamic** memory: Each cell is a switch (transistor) plus capacitor

**RAM** : Volatile read/write memory

**SRAM** : Static memory

**DRAM** : Dynamic memory

### 1.20.2 Volatility

#### Volatile memory

- Contents "forgotten" when power off
- Both SRAM and DRAM are volatile  
DRAM forgets contents within milliseconds if not refreshed, i.e. contents rewritten

#### Non-volatile memory

- Contents remembered when power off
- **ROM** - Read only memory
- **EPROM** - Erasable Programmable ROM
- **EEPROM** - Electronically Erasable PROM
- **Flash** - New EEPROM

#### Note 16: When do use powers of 2 or 10

- **Main Memory** capacity, always based on powers of 2

$$1GB = 1024 \times 1024 \times 1024 \text{ bytes} = 2^{30} \text{ bytes}$$

- **Hard Disks**, manufacturers base sizes on powers of 10

$$1GB = 1000 \times 1000 \times 1000 \text{ bytes} = 10^9 \text{ bytes}$$

Operating Systems base sizes on powers of 2

- **Data Speeds (transfer rates)** based on powers of 10

$$1Gbps = 10^9 \text{ bits per second}$$

### 1.20.3 Kibibytes, Mebibytes

- Kilo-, mega-, giga- prefixes mean powers of 10 in SI units
- 1 **kibibyte** = 1KiB = 1024 bytes
- 1 **mebibyte** = 1MiB = 1024 KiB
- 1 **gibibyte** = 1GiB = 1024 MiB

### 1.20.4 Types of DRAM

- Bits stored as charge on capacitor, not in flip-flops
- Cells are smaller, so can pack more bits on a chip than static memory
- Fast Page Mode (FPM DRAM)
- Extended Data Out (EDO DRAM)
- Synchronous DRAM (SDRAM)
- Rambus DRAM (RDRAM)
- Double Data Rate DRAM (DDR DRAM) 1, 2, 3, and 4

### 1.20.5 Cache Memory

- CPUs are faster than main memory
- Small amount of very fast memory combined with larger slower memory
- Most commonly used memory words kept in cache
- Three levels, each lower is progressively slower but larger

### 1.20.6 Magnetic Disks

- Rotating **platters** with magnetised coating
- Data stored magnetically in circular **tracks**
- Read/write **heads** float above platter surfaces

- Usually use both sides of platters

## Sectors and Tracks

### Cylinders

- Set of tracks at a given radial position
- Number of tracks in cylinder = 2 x number of platters

### Sectors

- Tracks divided into fixed-length sectors  
Smallest data unit, i.e. must read/write a whole sector at a time
- Sector consists of: Preamble, Data, Error correction codes (ECCs), Inter-sector gap
- About 85% of disk capacity usable by operating system

### Access Time

- **Access Time** = seek time + rotational latency + transfer time
- **Seek time** - time to move heads to right cylinder
- **Rotational latency** - time to wait for sector to arrive under head
- **Transfer time** - Time for sector to pass under

What's the average access time for a hard disk which rotates at 7200rpm and has an edge-to-edge seek time of 10ms? (Assume that seek time is proportional to the number of tracks to seek)

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Avg Access Time} &= \text{Avg seek time} + \text{Avg rotational} \\ &= \frac{\text{e-to-e seek}}{3} + \frac{\text{rot time}}{2} \\ &= \frac{10}{3} + \frac{1/120}{2} \\ &= 7.5\text{ms}\end{aligned}$$

## 1.21 File Systems, Buses and Chipsets

### 1.21.1 File System

FAT, FAT32, NTFS, exFAT, EXT2, EXT3, EXT4, APFS, HFS+, UFS, ZFS

- Some sectors used for index information (e.g. File Allocation Table)

## Disk Formatting

- **Low level format** - Reinitialises all sectors
- **High level format** - Creates empty file system, only writes index/table sectors

### Note 17: Fragmentation

The sectors on the disk become non-contiguous leaving the disk with unused sectors resulting in a slower access due to seek time.

### 1.21.2 Buses

Bus controller is known as a **chipset**. DDR4-RAM, DDR3, PCI Express, USB, SATA, PCI. **Peripheral** bus is an external I/O device.

#### PCI Bus

- Peripheral Component Interconnect bus
- PCI 1 - 32 bits wide, 33 MHz, 132MB/sec
- PCI 2.2 - 64bit wide, 66MHz, 528MB/sec
- 32bit cards have 120 pins
- 64bit cards have an extra 64-bit connector

## 1.22 Floating Point Numbers

- Single Precision (32 bits)  
1 sign bit, 8 exponent (excess 127 format), 23 mantissa
- Double Precision (64 bits)  
1 sign bit, 11 exponent (excess 1023), 52 mantissa

$$\begin{aligned}-23.25 &= -(16 + 4 + 2 + 1 + 0.25) \\ &= -10111.01000\dots \\ &= -1.011101000 \times 2^4 \\ &= [1][10000011][0111010000\dots00]\end{aligned}$$

### 1.23 Pipelining

Allows the processor to fetch and execute code ahead of time

- **Higher clock rate** (i.e. reduced clock cycle time)  
Maximum clock rate determined by most complex logic path in circuit
- **Higher throughput** more instructions executed per unit time  
Achieve one instruction per cycle (if pipeline is full)