

# COMPUTER TECHNOLOGY HEIRARCHY

Computer technology has advanced by successively adding new abstractions, or more layers, to the technology heirarchy between problem and the existing tools for implementing a solution. Partitioning technology in levels like this allows each level to be worked without over involvement in details at lower levels. Each level furnishes a "model" to those above it.

Problem Domain

Ops Research / Analysis

Graphic + Symbolic Tools, Shells

Higher Level Languages

Assembly Language

Microcode

Registers + Busses (RTL)

Logic Devices / Gates

Electronics

Semiconductor Devices

Solid State Physics

Application specific  
Problem Solving  
Levels

Computer Science

Computer Engineering

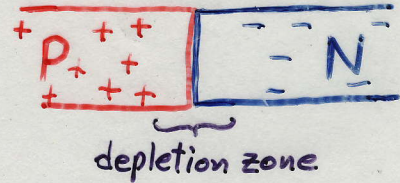
Electrical  
Engineering



# Examples - Technology Hierarchy <sup>2</sup>

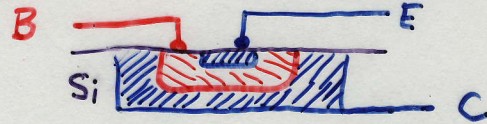
Solid State Physics :

The semiconductor junction



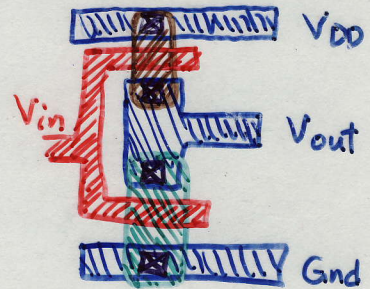
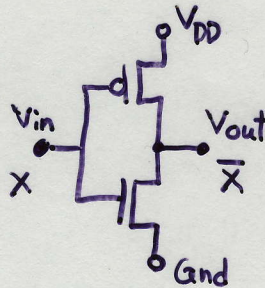
Semiconductor Devices :

The transistor



Electronics :

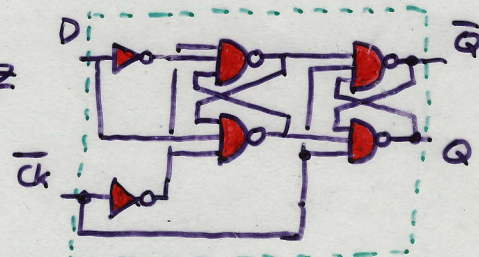
The CMOS inverter



Logic :

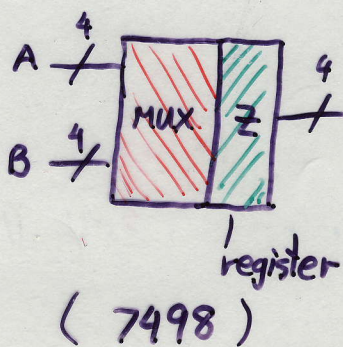
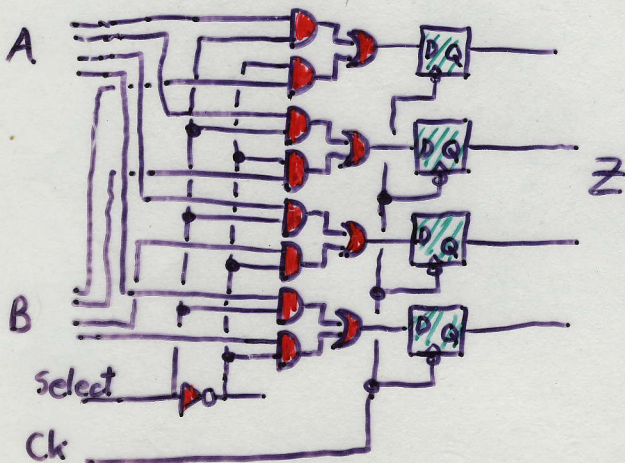
Gates and latches

|   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|
|   |   | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |

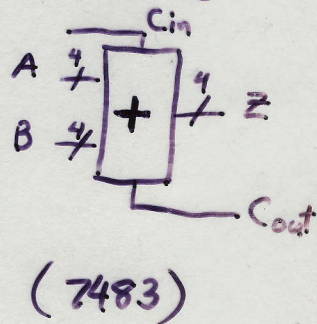


Registers : Assemblage of gates + latches

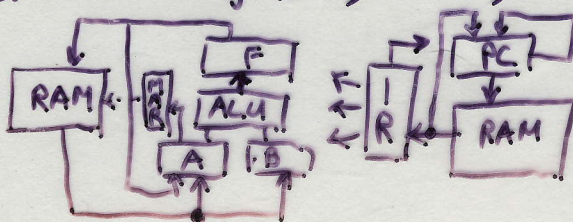
(MSI level :  
Medium Scale Integration)



Also consider :



The CPU : Registers, Busses, Mux'es, ALU etc to form a Processor



*\* This is where we are headed!*



# Current in PMOS devices

6 1/2

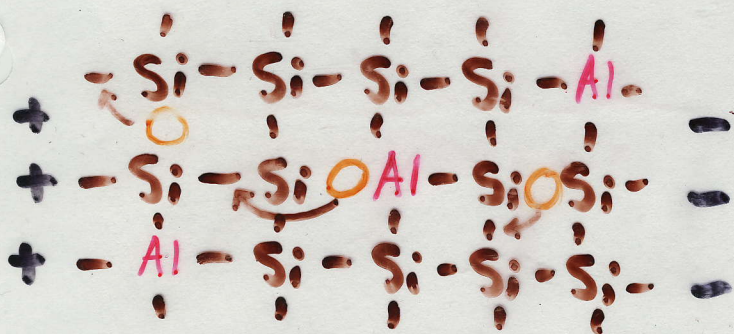
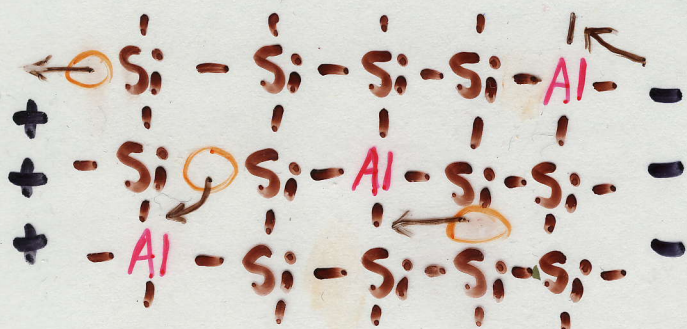
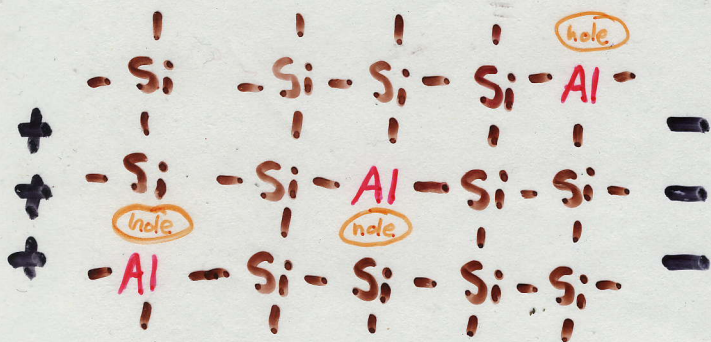
| I  | II | III | IV | V  | VI | VII | VIII |
|----|----|-----|----|----|----|-----|------|
| H  | He |     |    |    |    |     |      |
| Li | Be | B   | C  | N  | O  | F   | Ne   |
| Na | Ca | Al  | Si | P  | S  | Cl  | Ar   |
|    |    |     |    | As |    |     |      |

4 valence electrons -

These semiconductors try to establish 4 bonds with adjacent atoms

Al, with 3 valence electrons, will fit into the Si lattice, but brings 1 too few electrons to the party.

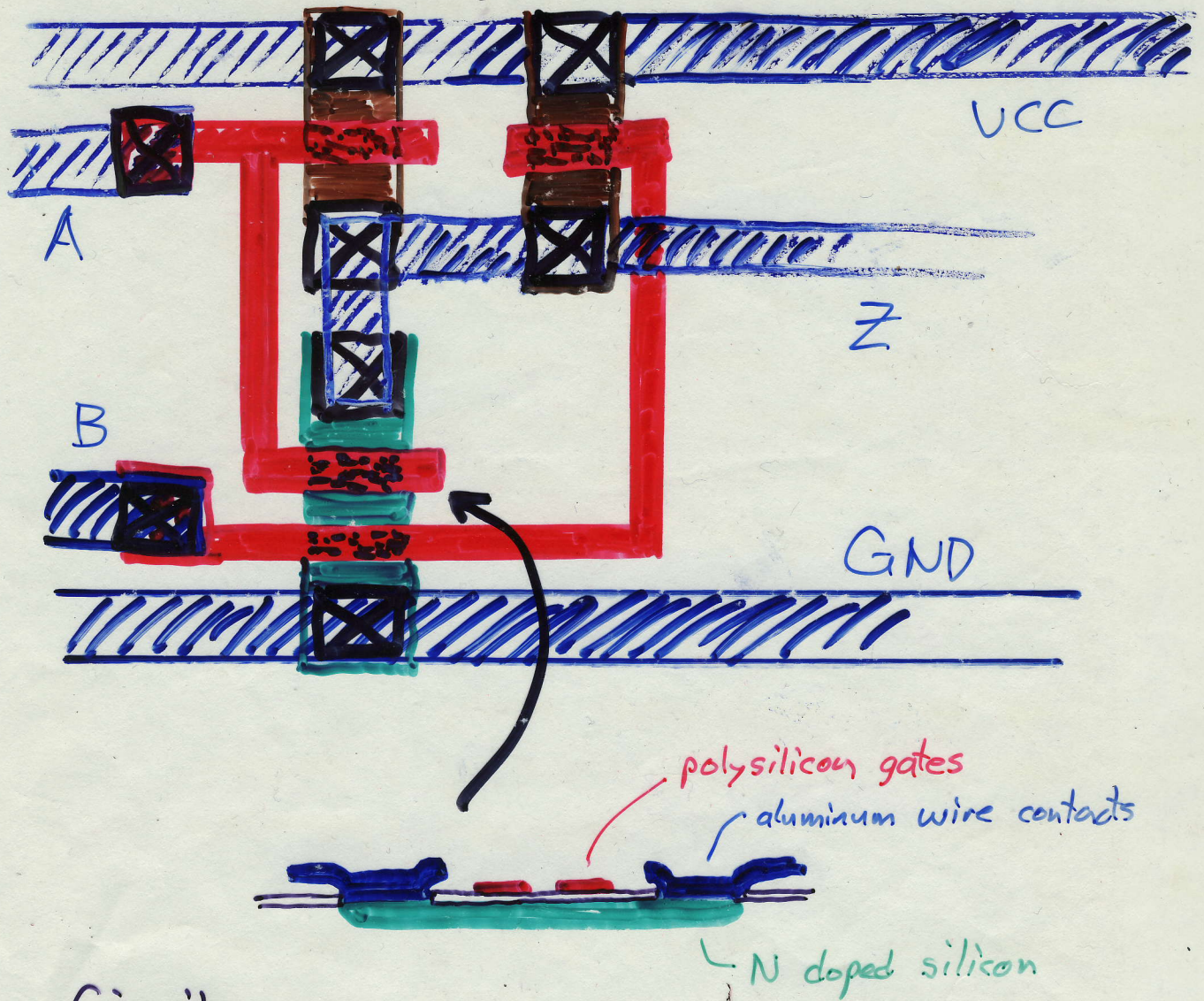
While P-doped Si is electrically neutral. The material craves more electrons - It has a surplus of "holes".



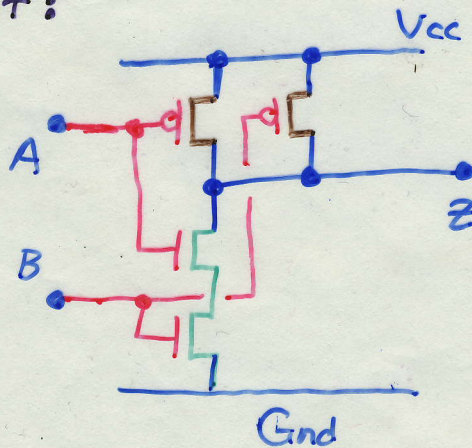
As electrons change positions, it appears that the "holes" flow from + to -



# NAND gate in CMOS



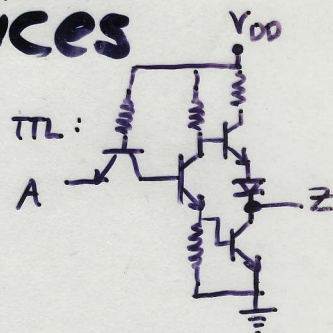
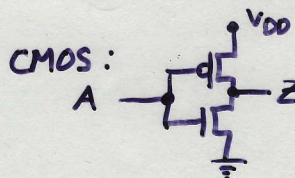
Circuit:



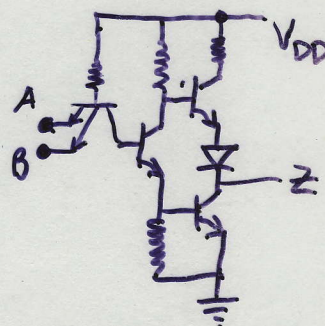
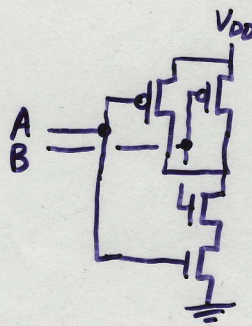
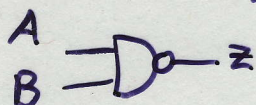


# Logic Functions and Devices

Inverter :  $A \rightarrow Z$   $Z = \bar{A}$



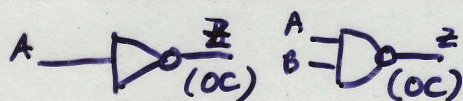
Nand : similar to inverter, but multiple inputs



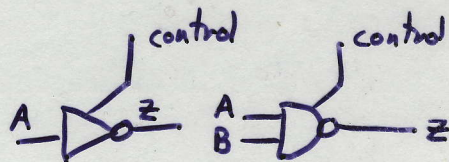
Nor :  $A$   $B$  or  $Z$  (dual of Nand)

And, Or : as Nand, Nor but with inverted output

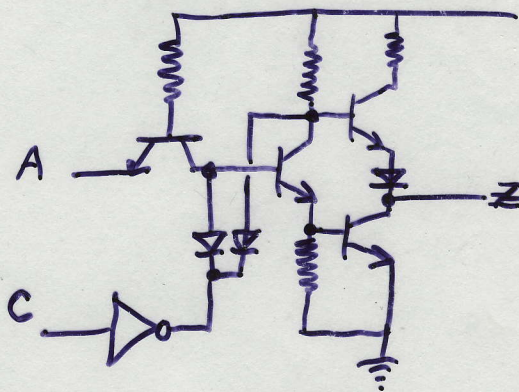
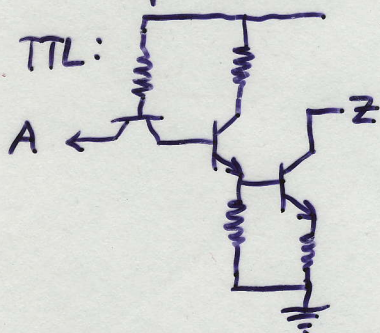
Buffers



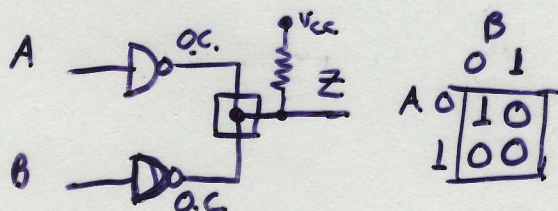
Open collector



Tri-state (simplified)

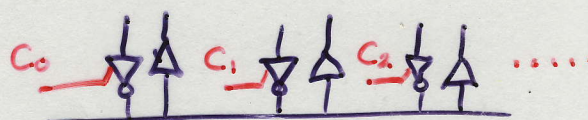


Allows "wired-OR"



| Z | C | I   |
|---|---|-----|
| 0 | 1 | hiZ |
| 1 | 0 | hiZ |

Allows Bussing :



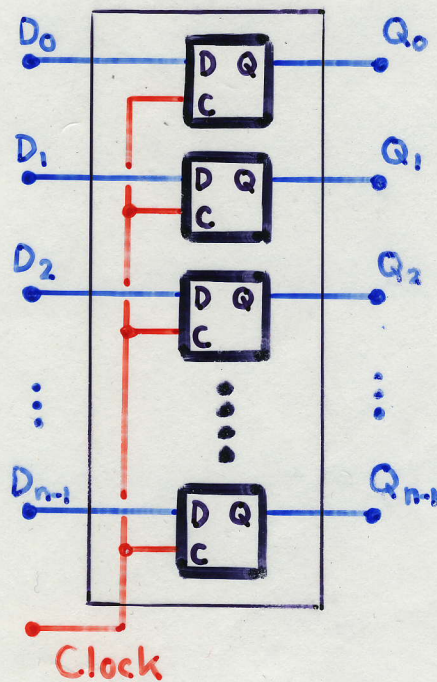
Has active pull-ups for faster switching

See Appendix A for more.

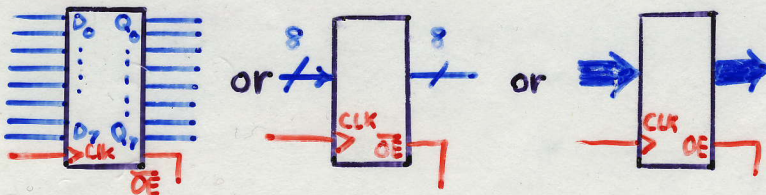


# RTL (Register Transfer Level) Components 3

## 1. The register



Symbol used :



- a) Is an array of flipflops with common CLK
- b) Contents referred to as a value (e.g. multiple bits expressed in binary, hexadecimal, etc.)

- c) Specified by:
  - $n$  = number of bits
  - Clock type (edge, level, etc.)
  - Inverted clock
  - Output control (e.g. 3 state)
  - Inverted Outputs
  - Possibly MUX on input

d) Examples :

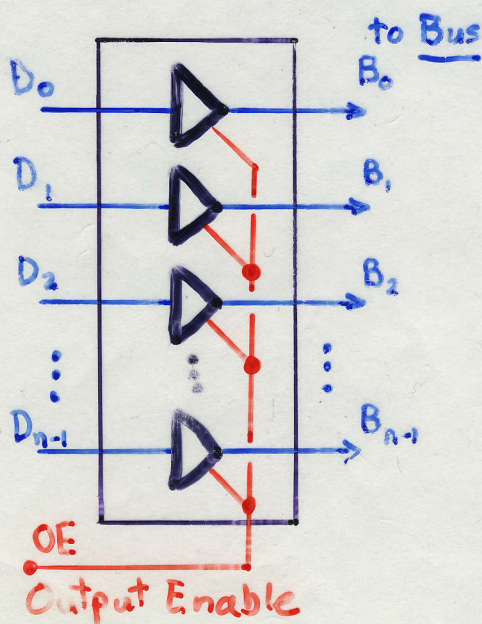
7475 : 4 bit, "transparent" with complementary outputs

7498 : 4 bit "transparent" with 2 in MUX

74373 : 8 bit "transparent" with OE (3 state)

**The register is our basic data storage device.**

## 2. The Buffer



- a) Is an array of binary buffer elements
- b) Usually tri-state (or open collector)
- c) Used to selectively switch a multi-bit value from some source onto a bus (Multiplexing function)

d) Specified by • number of bits  $n$

- Inversion of data and/or enable
- Type of output - e.g. tri-state

e) Examples : 74125 4 bit, separate enables

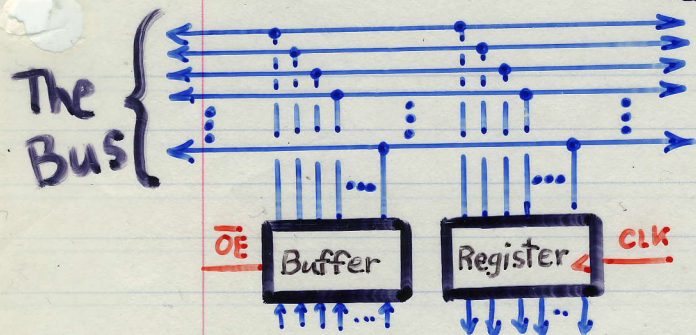
74241 8 bit, 2 enables



# RTL Components (continued) 4

## 3. The Bus

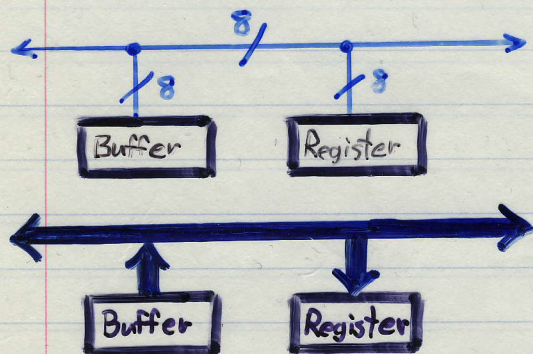
: An organized collection of signals (wires) used to convey data (values) from one place to another. Usually, there is more than one possible source, and/or more than one possible destination.



(The Bus is equivalent to a Mux, with output routed to various destinations.)

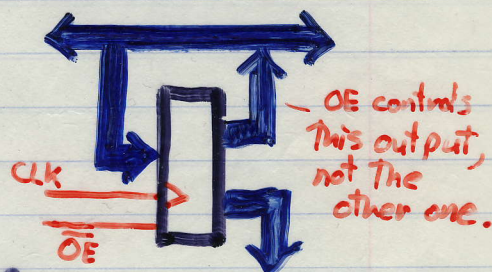
## Bus rules:

- 1) Only one buffer (device on the bus) may be enabled at a time.
- 2) Do enables before clocking data into registers from the bus. (Get timing right)



There may be many buffers on the bus, and many registers. Devices other than registers may take data from the bus. (eg. ALU's)

A common device on busses is a register that can be written or read:



## Other RTL Components:

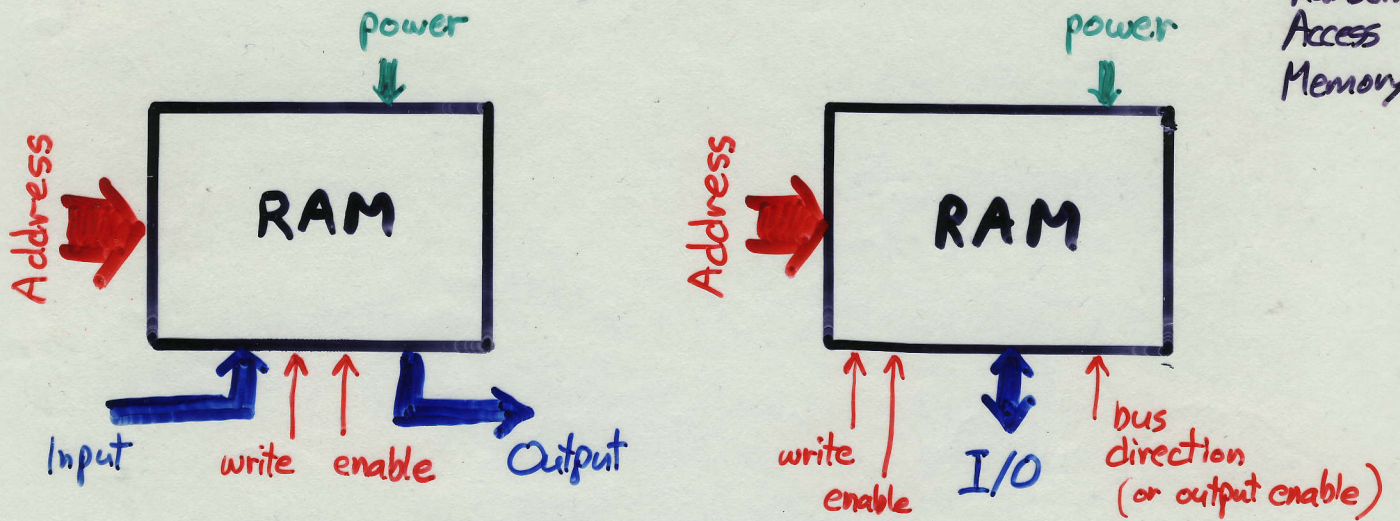
4. Memory (RAM): like an addressable collection of registers (ROM)
5. ALU (Arithmetic, Logic Unit) performs operation on data
6. MUX's (Multiplexers) + DeMUX's (Decoders)
7. Counters, Shift registers, etc.

Put enough of these together correctly, with control circuitry and you get a CPU.

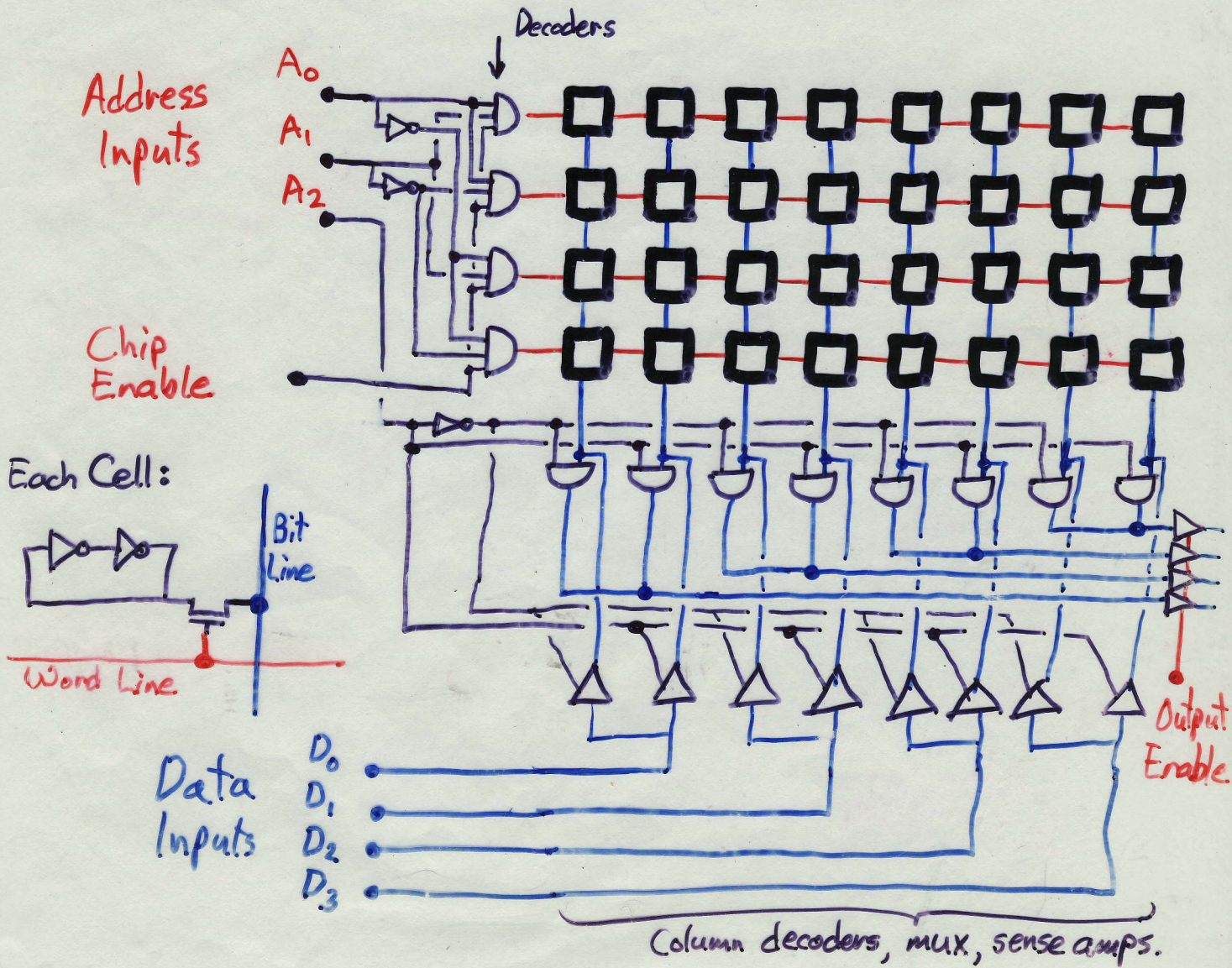


# Memory Organization

(RAM)  
= Random  
Access  
Memory



Inside The Box :





## Size

 Nybble - 4 bits - (seldom used)

Byte: Usually 8 bits - 0 to 255 or (signed) -128 to 127

Word/Short/Halfword : 16 bits

Word : 32  
or so bits

Diagram illustrating the structure of a floating point word:

- The word is divided into two main sections:
  - exponent (signed)**: The left section, containing 8 bits.
  - mantissa**: The right section, containing 24 bits (indicated by a dashed line for extension).
- The total structure is labeled as a **Floating point word (32 or more bits usually)**.

bit: 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array} = 1 \times 2^6 + 1 \times 2^3 + 1 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^0 = 77$$
  

$$128 \ 64 \ 32 \ 16 \ 8 \ 4 \ 2 \ 1 = 64 + 8 + 4 + 1 = 77$$

## Mapping signed binary arrays to negative integers

bit

| S | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |

2 representations exist:

1's complement : Flip all bits and treat as positive except for sign

as position

$\rightarrow -1101100 = -108$

note: 1111111  
equals -0

2's complement : Flip all bits, Then add 1  
and treat as positive except for sign

and treat as positive

→  $-1101100 \rightarrow -1101101 = -109$

(Most computers nowadays use 2's complement)

Floating Point : Many, Many different representations



⑦

# Encoding of Information (cont.)<sup>7</sup>

## Character and String Data

(ASCII =  
American  
Standards  
Committee  
on Information  
Exchange)  
see Appendix D

7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0  
x 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 → 'A' ASCII character

Strings: (of arbitrary length)

pointer (to RAM address)

length PASCAL  
4 W O R D (other data)

or

C  
W O R D /0 (other data)

or

W O R D (other data)  
 and  
4 (elsewhere)

Notation :

for the stored data:

0 1 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 1 0

binary 0100101000111010

octal 0 4 5 0 7 2

hexadecimal 4 A 3 A

decimal 19002

notation b0100101000111010

notation o45072

notation 0x4A3A

notation 19002

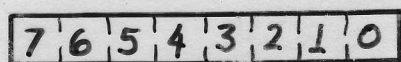
Note: Hexadecimal has come to be preferred for work at the machine/assembly level, since digits align on byte boundaries for multi-byte words.



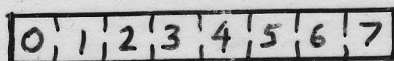
# The Endian Wars

8

Bit order in a byte :



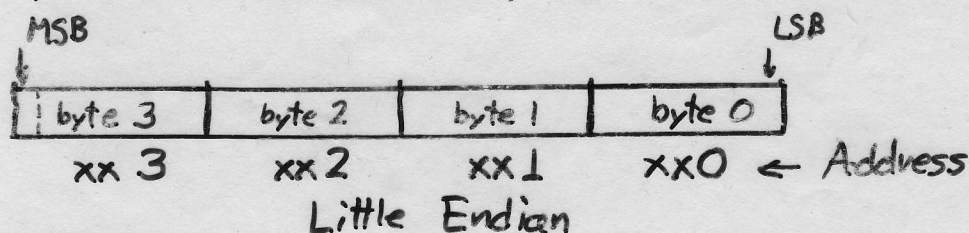
Little Endian



Big Endian

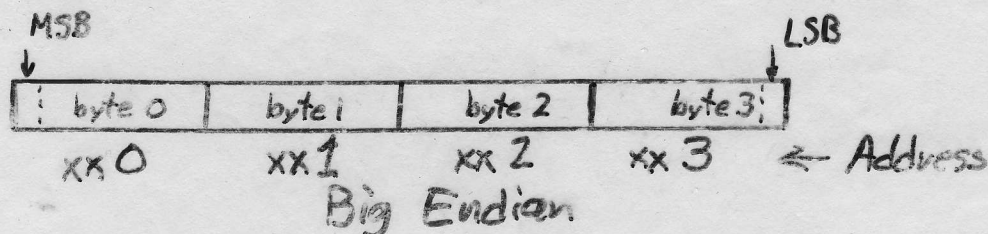
For bytes, virtually everyone uses the Little Endian scheme

Byte order (and memory address order) in a Word :



MSB = most significant bit

LSB = least significant bit



Little Endian : PDP-11, VAX, Intel + others ← more of these seemingly

Big Endian : Motorola + others

Suppose you print the bytes in order :

Little Endian    0x1234 :      3412  
(hexadecimal)

Big Endian      0x1234 :      1234

Theorists, number oriented applications seem to prefer "little endian" byte order.

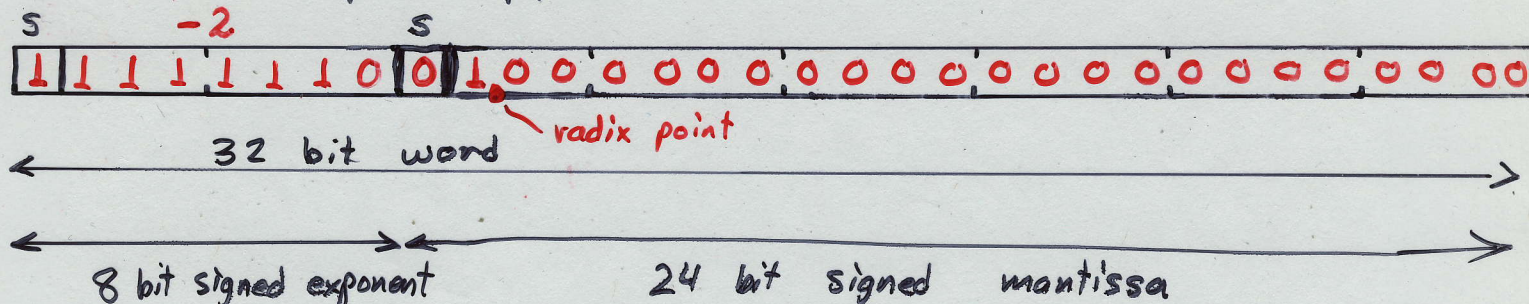
Character oriented applications seem to prefer "big endian" byte order.



# Floating Point

A "simple" approach:

.25

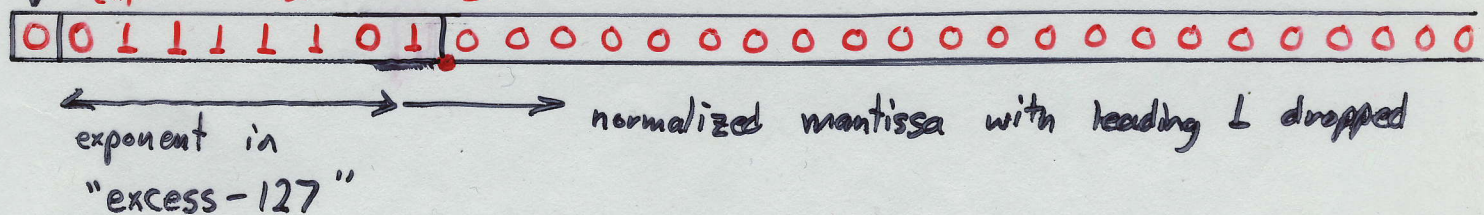


- Problems:
- 1) You cannot use a simple arithmetic compare to see which of two numbers is larger
  - 2) For normalized numbers you always have a "1" in bit position 23. This is wasteful.

An alternative (IEEE 32 bit "single precision")

Sign of number

↓ exponent = 125  $\Rightarrow$  -2 ← mantissa = 1.000....



Now:

- 1) We can use a simple arithmetic (integer) subtract to compare two numbers
- 2) We have an extra bit of precision for the mantissa.
- 4) Numbers that can be represented:  $\pm 1.M \times 2^{E-127}$
- 5) Special values for exponent:

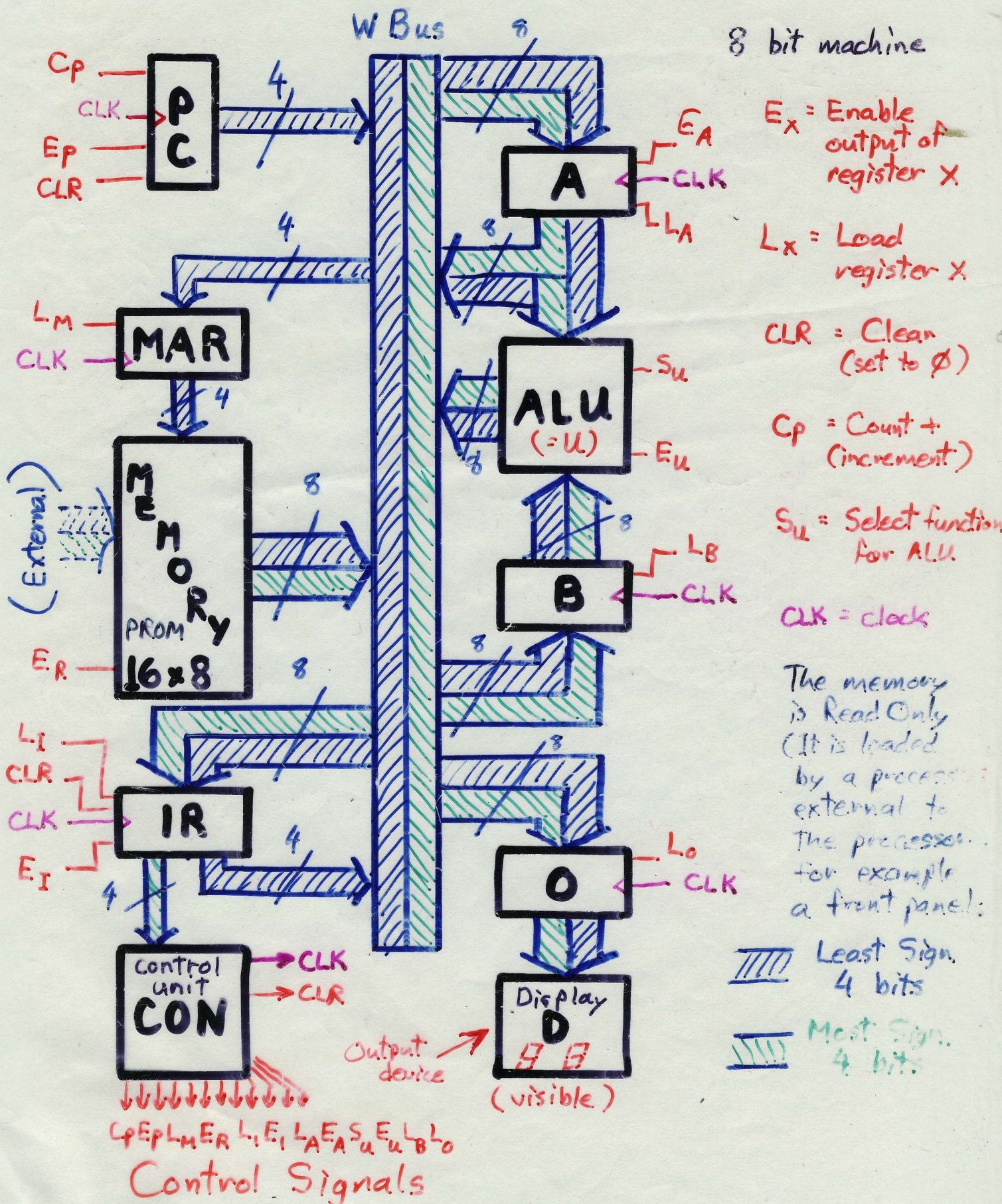
0 = 00000000  $\Rightarrow$  zero exactly  
 255 = 11111111  $\Rightarrow$  infinity

See Fig 7.25 on p 305 for other, longer, formats.



# SAP-1 Data Path (+)

17



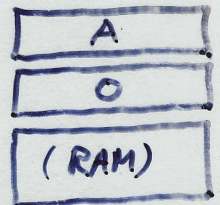


# SAP-1 Instruction Set



R = register (memory address)

Programming Model:



0 = 0000  
1 = 0001  
2 = 0010  
E = 1110  
F = 1111

R  
R  
R

LDA  
ADD  
SUB  
OUT  
HLT

(R) → A  
(R) + A → A  
A - (R) → A  
A → O  
Halt execution

## Sample Program:

| label | mnemonic | operands |
|-------|----------|----------|
| START | LDA      | R9       |
|       | ADD      | RA       |
|       | ADD      | RB       |
|       | ADD      | RC       |
|       | SUB      | RD       |
|       | OUT      |          |
|       | HLT      |          |

|   |    |
|---|----|
| 0 | 09 |
| 1 | 1A |
| 2 | 1B |
| 3 | 1C |
| 4 | 2D |
| 5 | EX |
| 6 | FX |

Assembly Language

Machine Language

## Alternate Assembly Language:

|       |     |   |
|-------|-----|---|
| V     | DC  |   |
| T     | DC  |   |
| X     | DC  |   |
| Y     | DC  |   |
| Z     | DC  |   |
| START | LDA | V |
|       | ADD | T |
|       | ADD | X |
|       | ADD | Y |
|       | SUB | Z |
|       | OUT |   |
|       | HLT |   |

Somewhere the assembler would need to be instructed to allocate addresses for data starting at 9 and code starting at START to be compatible with the (manual) loader.

|   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 4 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 5 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | x | x | x |
| 6 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | x | x | x |
| 7 | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| 8 | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| 9 | d | d | d | d | d | d | d |
| A | d | d | d | d | d | d | d |
| B | d | d | d | d | d | d | d |
| C | d | d | d | d | d | d | d |
| D | d | d | d | d | d | d | d |
| E | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| F | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |

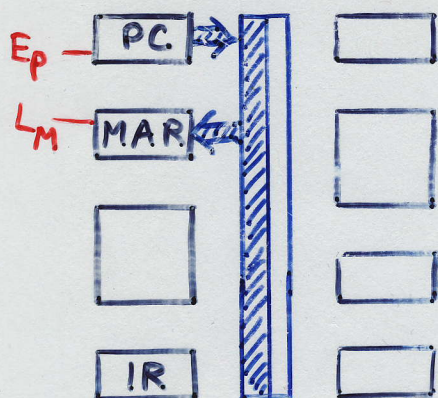
Memory Image

Usually, the loader decides exactly where code and data go, but That's a more advanced topic.



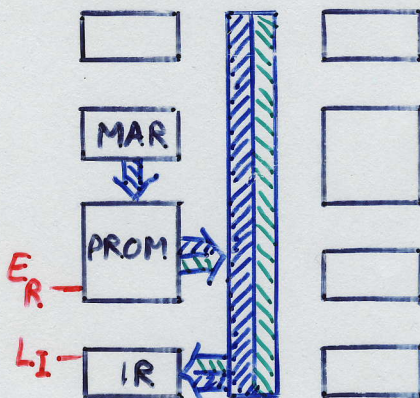
# SAP-1 Instruction Cycle

1 Fetch Instruction



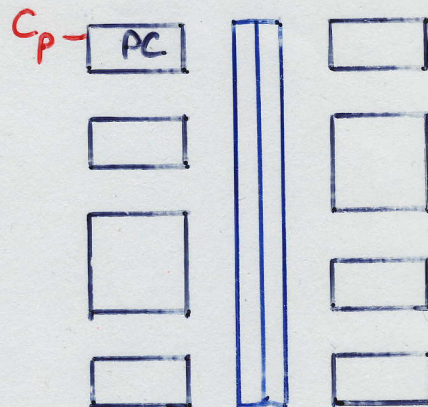
(Execute 1)

2 Address Instruction



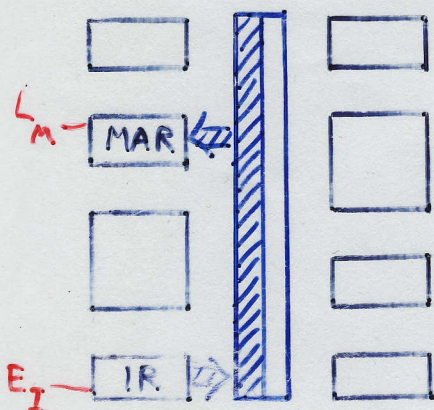
(Execute 2)

3 Increment PC

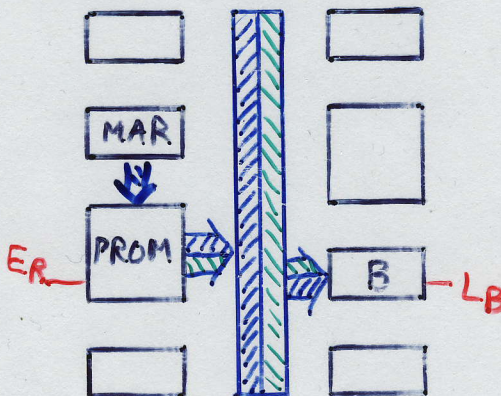


(Execute 3)

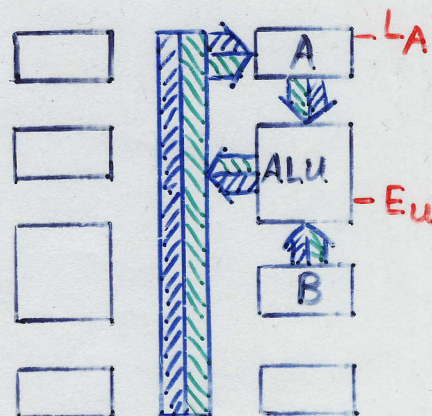
4 Fetch Data



5 Load B



6 Add



Control Signal Sequence :

Phase Cp Ep Lm ER L, Ei LA EA Su Eu LB Lo

| Addr | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6   |
|------|---|---|---|---|---|-----|
| 0    |   | 1 | 1 |   |   |     |
| 1    |   |   | 1 | 1 |   |     |
| 2    | 1 |   |   |   |   |     |
| 3    |   | 1 |   | 1 |   |     |
| 4    |   |   | 1 |   |   |     |
| 5    |   |   |   | 1 |   | 1   |
| 6    |   |   |   |   | 1 | 0 1 |

Notice: Register A must be master-slave, since it is referenced and loads during same clock !!

Simple Controller Implementation

