Exam Review

CS 2130: Computer Systems and Organization 1 February 22, 2023

- Exam 1 Friday (in class)
 - Closed book, closed notes, closed neighbor, closed internet, closed smart-watch
 - Please bring pen or pencil, we will have scratch paper if needed
 - $\cdot\,$ For SDAC accommodations, please schedule a time with their testing center
- Homework 3 due tonight
- Homework 4 available after the exam

Topics

So far, we have electricity on wire to building a computer and programming it!

- Logic: Operations, Gates, Truth tables
- Numbers: Binary, Octal, Decimal, Hexadecimal
- Bitwise Operations: and, or, bitwise not, logical not, xor, ...
- Binary Arithmetic: addition, subtraction
- Binary Representations: biased integers, two's complement, floating point (8-bit)
- Circuits: adder, subtractor, incrementer, registers, clocks
- High-level how these pieces fit together to form a computer
- Instruction Set Architectures (ISAs) and how to write instructions with our ISA

Today's Agenda

- \cdot and, or, not
- \cdot nand, nor, xor
- Transistors and how to make these gates (high level)

Trinary operator - Mux

- Python: x = b if a else c
- · Java: x = a? b : c

From our oldest cultures, how do we mark numbers?

- Arabic numerals
 - Positional numbering system
 - The 10 is significant:
 - 10 symbols, using 10 as base of exponent
 - The **10** is arbitrary
 - We can use other bases! π , 2130, 2, ...

Try to turn 134_8 into base-10:

Long Numbers in Binary

Making binary more readable

- Typical to group by 3 or 4 bits
- No need for commas *Why*?
- We can use a separate symbol per group
- How many do we need for groups of 3?
- Turn each group into decimal representation
- Converts binary to **octal**

Making binary more readable

- \cdot Groups of 4 more common
- How many symbols do we need for groups of 4?
- Converts binary to hexadecimal
- Base-16 is very common in computing

Representing negative integers

- Computers store numbers in fixed number of wires
- Ex: consider 4-digit decimal numbers
- Throw away the last borrow:
 - 0000 0001 = 9999
 - 9999 0001 = 9998
 - Normal subtraction/addition still works
- \cdot This works the same in binary

Two's Complement

This scheme is called Two's Complement

- More generically, a *signed* integer
- There is a break as far away from 0 as possible
- First bit acts vaguely like a minus sign
- Works as long as we do not pass number too large to represent

0000 1111 0001 0 1110 0010 +1-2 +2 1101 0011 +3 1100 +4 0100 -4+5 0101 1011 +6 1010 0110 1001 0111

Consider the following 8-bit two's complement binary number:

11010011

What is its value in decimal?

- 1. Flip all bits
- 2. Add 1

Biased Integers

Similar to Two's Complement, but add bias

- Two's Complement: Define 0 as 00...0
- Biased: Define 0 as 0111...1
- Biased wraps from 000...0 to 111...1

0000 0001 1110 0010 +8 -6 +7 1101 0011 +6-3 0100 1100 +5-2 +41011 0101 +3 1010 0110 1001 0111 1000

Biased Integers

0000 1111 0001 0 1110 0010 -1 +1 +2 -2 1101 0011 +3 -3 +4 0100 1100 -4 +5 -5 1011 0101 +6 -6 1010 -7 +7 0110 -8 1001 1000 0111

Two's Complement

0000 0001 1111 -7 1110 0010 +8 -6 +7 -5 1101 0011 -4 +6 1100 -3 0100 +5 -2 +4 1011 0101 +3 -1 +2 1010 0 0110 +11000 0111 1001 Biased

Floating point numbers

- Decimal: 3.14159
- Binary: 11.10110
- With integers, the point is always fixed after all digits
- With floating point numbers, the point can move!

Challenge! only 2 symbols in binary

We must store 3 components

- sign (1-bit): 1 if negative, 0 if positive
- fraction or mantissa: (?-bits): bits after binary point
- exponent (?-bits): how far to move binary point

We do not need to store the value before the binary point. Why?

How do we store them?

- Originally many different systems
- IEEE standardized system (IEEE 754 and IEEE 854)
- Agreed-upon order, format, and number of bits for each

1.01101×2^{5}

Exponent

How do we store the exponent?

• Exponents can be negative

$$2^{-3} = \frac{1}{2^3} = \frac{1}{8}$$

- Need positive and negative ints (but no minus sign)
- Don't we always use Two's Complement? Unfortunately Not
- Biased integers
 - Make comparison operations run more smoothly
 - Hardware more efficient to build
 - Other valid reasons

Four cases:

• Normalized: What we have seen today

 $\textit{seeeeffff} = \pm 1.\textit{ffff} \times 2^{\textit{eeee-bias}}$

• **Denormalized**: Exponent bits all 0

$$see e f f f f = \pm 0.f f f f \times 2^{1-bias}$$

- Infinity: Exponent bits all 1, fraction bits all 0
- Not a Number (NaN): Exponent bits all 1, fraction bits not all 0

So far, we have discussed:

- Addition: x + y
 - Can get multiplication
- Subtraction: x y
 - $\cdot\,$ Can get division, but more difficult
- Unary minus (negative): -x
 - Flip the bits and add 1

Bit vector: fixed-length sequence of bits (ex: bits in an integer)

• Manipulated by bitwise operations

Bitwise operations: operate over the bits in a bit vector

- Bitwise not: $\sim x$ flips all bits (unary)
- Bitwise and: *x*&*y* set bit to 1 if *x*, *y* have 1 in same bit
- Bitwise or: x|y set bit to 1 if either x or y have 1
- Bitwise xor: x^y set bit to 1 if x, y bit differs

Example: Bitwise AND

11001010 & 01111100

Example: Bitwise OR

Example: Bitwise XOR

11001010 ^ 01111100

Your Turn!

What is: **0x1a** ^ **0x72**

Operations (on Integers)

- Logical not: !x
 - $!0 = 1 \text{ and } !x = 0, \forall x \neq 0$
 - Useful in C, no booleans
 - \cdot Some languages name this one differently
- Left shift: $x \ll y$ move bits to the left
 - Effectively multiply by powers of 2
- Right shift: x >> y move bits to the right
 - Effectively divide by powers of 2
 - Signed (extend sign bit) vs unsigned (extend 0)

Right Bit-shift Example 2

For **signed** integers, extend the sign bit (1)

- Keeps negative value (if applicable)
- Approximates divide by powers of 2

11001010 >> 1

Ripple-Carry Adder



Ripple-Carry Adder



Ripple-Carry Adder



Increment Circuit



1-bit Register Circuit



Another Circuit



Write code to build circuits from gates

- Gates we already know: δ, |, ^, ~
- Operations we can build from gates: +, -
- Others we can build:
- \cdot Ternary operator: ? :

Equals

Equals: =

- Attach with a wire (i.e., connect things)
- Ex: z = x * y
- What about the following?
 - x = 1
 - x = 0
- **Single assignment**: each variable can only be assigned a value once

Indexing with square brackets: []

- Register bank (or register file) an array of registers
 - Can programmatically pick one based on index
 - I.e., can determine which register while running
- Two important operations:
 - x = R[i] Read from a register
 - R[j] = y Write to a register

Reading

x = R[i] - connect output of registers to x based on index i





R[j] = y - connect y to input of registers based on index j



Memory and Storage

Registers

- 6 gates each, \approx 24 transistors
- Efficient, fast
- Expensive!
- Ex: local variables

Memory

- Two main types: SRAM, DRAM
- DRAM: 1 transistor, 1 capacitor per bit
- DRAM is cheaper, simpler to build
- Ex: data structures, local variables

These do not persist between power cycles



 \approx KiB

Disk



- Two main types: flash (solid state), magnetic disk
- Magnetic drive
 - Platter with physical arm above and below
 - Cheap to build
 - Very slow! Physically move arm while disk spins

• Ex: files

Data on disk does persist between power cycles

What do we need to keep track of?

- Code the program we are running
 - RAM (Random Access Memory)
- State things that may change value (i.e., variables)
 - Register file can read and write values each cycle
- Program Counter (PC) were we are in our code
 - Single register byte number in memory for next instruction

Building a Computer





Building a Computer



Our Instruction Set Architecture

icode	b	meaning
0		rA = rB
1		rA += rB
2		rA &= rB
3		$\mathbf{r}\mathbf{A}$ = read from memory at address $\mathbf{r}\mathbf{B}$
4		write ${f r}{f A}$ to memory at address ${f r}{f B}$
5	0	$rA = \sim rA$
	1	rA = -rA
	2	rA = !rA
	3	rA = pc
6	0	rA = read from memory at pc + 1
	1	rA += read from memory at pc + 1
	2	rA &= read from memory at pc + 1
	3	rA = read from memory at the address stored at pc + 1
		For icode 6, increase pc by 2 at end of instruction
7		Compare rA as 8-bit 2's-complement to 0
		if rA <= 0 set pc = rB
		else increment pc as normal
		icode a b

7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0

In general, 3 kinds of instructions

- moves move values around without doing "work"
- math broadly doing "work"
- jumps jump to a new place in the code

Few forms

- Register to register (icode 0), x = y
- Register to/from memory (icodes 3-4), x = M[b], M[b] = x

Memory

- Address: an index into memory.
 - Addresses are just (large) numbers
 - Usually we will not look at the number and trust it exists and is stored in a register

Math

Broadly doing work

Example 3-bit icode

icode	b	meaning
1		rA += rB
2		rA δ= rB
5	0	$rA = \sim rA$
	1	rA = -rA
	2	rA = !rA
6	1	rA += read from memory at pc + 1
	2	rA &= read from memory at pc + 1

Note: I can implement other operations using these things!

- \cdot Moves and math are large portion of our code
- $\cdot\,$ We also need control constructs
 - \cdot Change what we are going to do next
 - if, while, for, functions, ...
- Jumps provide mechanism to perform these control constructs
- We jump by assigning a new value to the program counter **PC**

icode 6 provides literals, **immediate** values

Example 3-bit icode

icode	b	action
6	0	rA = read from memory at $pc + 1$
	1	rA += read from memory at pc + 1
	2	rA &= read from memory at pc + 1
	3	rA = read from memory at the address stored at pc + 1
		For icode 6, increase pc by 2 at end of instruction







Example 3-bit icode

icode	meaning
7	Compare ${f r}{f A}$ as 8-bit 2's-complement to 0
	if rA <= 0 set pc = rB
	else increment pc as normal

Instruction icode 7 provides a **conditional** jump

• Real code will also provide an **unconditional** jump, but a conditional jump is sufficient

We can now write any* program!

- When you run code, it is being turned into instructions like ours
- Modern computers use a larger pool of instructions than we have (we will get there)

*we do have some limitations, since we can only represent 8-bit values and some operations may be tedious.

Array: a sequence of values (collection of variables)

In Java, arrays have the following properties:

- Fixed number of values
- Not resizable
- \cdot All values are the same type

How do we store them in memory?

In memory, store array sequentially

- Pick address to store array
- Subsequent elements stored at following addresses
- Access elements with math

Example: Store array arr at **0x90**

• Access arr[3] as **0x90** + **3** assuming 1-byte values

What are we missing?

- Nothing says "this is an array" in memory
- Nothing says how long the array is