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Internal Assessment Test I – Sept. 2019

Sub:	COMPUTER ORGANIZATION				Sub Code:	18CS34	Branch:	CSE
Date:	7 / 09 / 2019	Duration:	90 mins	Max Marks:	50	Sem / Sec:	3 (A,B,C)	OBE

Answer **FIVE FULL** questions selecting **AT LEAST ONE** question **FROM EACH PART**

PART A

1 (a) List the steps needed to execute the machine instruction

ADD A, LOCA, R4

in terms of transfers between the components and some simple control commands. Assume that the instruction itself is stored in the memory at location LOC and that this address is initially in register PC.

MARKS	CO	RBT
[10]	CO1	L3

Operating steps

⊛ Programs (list of instructions) reside in memory (usually stored there though get there through input unit).

- ① PC is set to point to first instruction of program.
- ② This PC contents is transferred to MAR and Read signal is sent to memory.
- ③ After time required to access the memory elapses, addressed word (1st instruction in this case) is read out from memory and loaded in MDR.
- ④ MDR contents are transferred to IR.
- ⑤ If instruction involves an operation by ALU:

get operands from memory or general purpose register. If operand resides in memory, its address is sent to MAR. Read cycle is initialized. Operand comes to MDR. It is sent to ALU. Similarly, more operands are sent to ALU (if required).

ALU performs operation and sends result to MDR. The address of location where result is to be stored is sent to MAR, and Write cycle is initiated.

⑥ PC is incremented to point to next instruction.

NOTE: If a source of destination is a register (R), MAR, MDR steps are not required as registers are directly accessible to ALU as both reside inside processor. MAR and MDR are required only if we want to access main memory for read or write operation.

OR

- 2 (a) Assume a program with 1000 instructions. 25% of the instructions take 4 clock cycles, 40% of the instructions take 5 clock cycles, and the remaining instructions take 3 clock cycles to execute respectively. Calculate the time of execution assuming basic performance equation if the clock rate of the machine is 1GHz.

[5]

$$P=N*S/R$$

Ans=4.05 micro sec

- (b) Define Exception. Explain any 2 Kinds of Exception.

[5]

Exceptions

Exception is any event that causes an interruption. I/O interrupts are one example of an exception.

Recovery from Errors

- Many computers include an error-checking code in main memory, which allows detection of errors in the stored data. If error occurs, the control hardware detects it and informs the processor by raising an interrupt.
- The processor may also interrupt a program if it detects an error or an unusual condition while executing the instructions of program. Eg- invalid opcode, division by zero etc.

Debugging

System software usually includes a program called debugger, which helps the programmer find errors in a program. The debugger uses exceptions to provide two important facilities called trace and breakpoints.

- Trace - when a processor is operating in the trace mode, an exception occurs after execution of every instruction, using the debugging program as the exception-service routine. The debugging program enables user to examine the contents of registers, memory locations, etc. On return from debugging program, next instruction in program being debugged is executed, the debugging program is activated again. The trace exception is disabled during the execution of debugging program.
- Breakpoints - In this, the program being debugged is interrupted only at specific points selected by user. An instruction called Trap or Software-interrupt is usually provided for this purpose. Eg- user wants to interrupt program execution after instruction i. Debugging routine saves

CO1	L3
CO2	L2

PART B

3 (a) Explain basic instruction types with example.

[6]

Q4 Instruction types (one-address, two-address, three-address instructions)

Basic Instruction Types

Two-address instruction

Operation Source, Destination

Move B, C

Add A, C

$$C \leftarrow [A] + [B]$$

Add contents of A & B, place sum in C. A, B contents are un-
Consider three-address instruction

Operation Source1, Source2, Destination

Add A, B, C

It may be happen that 2-address instruction doesn't fit in one word for usual word length & address size. In that case, we may adopt one-address instruction.
Operation Source/Destination.

A processor register, usually called the accumulator may be used for this purpose. This may be used a register to temporarily hold values.

Load A	Copy A contents to accumulator
Add B	Add B contents to accumulator
Store C	Store accumulator to C.

(b) Three devices, A, B, and C, are connected to the bus of a computer. I/O transfers for all three devices use interrupt control. Interrupt nesting for devices A and B is not allowed, but interrupt requests from C may be accepted while either A or B is being serviced. Suggest different ways in which this can be accomplished in each of the following cases:

[4]

(a) The computer has one interrupt-request line.

CO1	L2
CO2	L3

(b) Two interrupt-request lines, INTR1 and INTR2, are available, with INTR1 having higher priority.

Specify when and how interrupts are enabled and disabled in each case.

4.6. (a) Interrupts should be enabled, except when C is being serviced. The nesting rules can be enforced by manipulating the interrupt-enable flags in the interfaces of A and B.

(b) A and B should be connected to INTR₂, and C to INTR₁. When an interrupt request is received from either A or B, interrupts from the other device will be automatically disabled until the request has been serviced. However, interrupt requests from C will always be accepted.

OR

4 (a) Explain addressing modes with example of each mode.

[10]

CO1

L2

ADDRESSING MODES

The different ways in which the location of an operand is specified in an instruction are referred to as addressing modes.

① Immediate mode

The operand is given explicitly in the instruction.

Eg. $\text{Move } \#200, R0$

Above instruction places value 200 in register R0.
Generally, this mode is used to represent constants.

② Register mode

The operand is the contents of a processor register.

The name of the register is given in the instruction.

Eg. - $\text{Move } R1, R2$

Above instruction moves the contents of register R1 to register R2.
Generally, this mode is used to access variables.

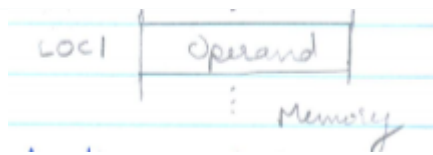
③ Absolute (Direct) mode

The address of the memory location where the operand is located is given explicitly in the instruction.

Eg. - $\text{Move } \text{LOC1}, \text{LOC2}$

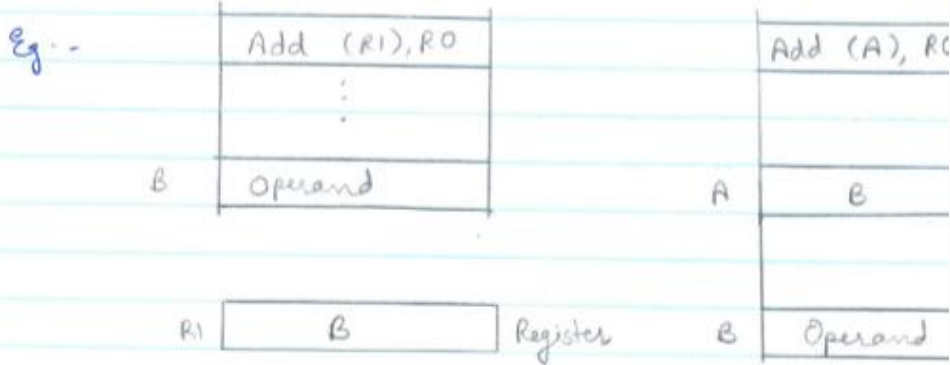
Above instruction moves the operand at location LOC1 to location LOC2.

It is generally used for ^{representing} global variables.



④ Indirect mode

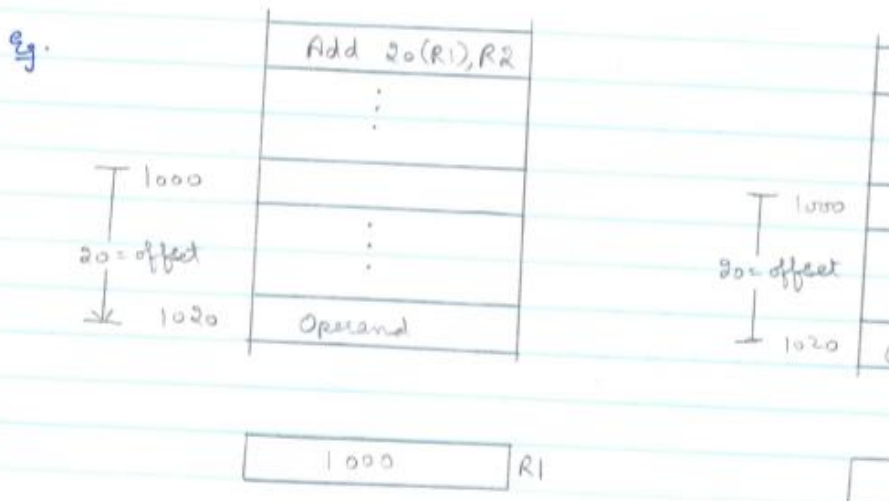
The contents of register or memory location given instruction gives the ^{effective} address of the operand.



(a) Through a general purpose register (b) Through
Indirect addressing

⑤ Index mode

The effective address of the operand is adding a constant value to the contents register. The register used may be a special or a general-purpose register and is known as an index register.



(a) offset is given as a constant (b) offset is in
Indexed addressing

Base with index mode

The effective address is the sum of the contents of multiple registers.

$$\text{Eg - } \begin{array}{ccc} R1 & 1000 & R2 & 20 \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow & \\ (R1, R2) & & & \end{array} \rightarrow 1020$$

Base with index and offset

2 registers and a constant is used to calculate the address of the operand.

$$\text{Eg - } 20(R1, R2)$$

$$R1 \quad 1000 \quad R2 \quad 20 \quad + 20 \quad 1040$$

⑥ Relative mode

The effective address is determined by the using the program counter in place of the purpose register R_i .

$$\text{Eg - } \text{of } R_i \quad 20(PC)$$

If PC has address 1000, then effective address operand will be 1020.

⑦ Autoincrement mode

The effective address of the operand is the register specified in the instruction. After accessing operand, the contents of this register are incremented to point to the next item in a...

$$\text{Eg - Add } (R2)+, R0$$

⑧ Autodecrement mode

The contents of a register specified in the instruction are first automatically decremented and are used as effective address of the operand.

$$\text{Eg - Add } -(R2), R0$$

PART C

5 (a) Explain the operation of stack with example.

[8]
[2]

C01	L2
-----	----

A stack is a list of data elements, usually bytes, with the accessing restriction that elements can be added or removed at one end of it only. This end is called the top of stack, and the other end is called bottom. The structure is sometimes referred to as a pushdown stack. It is just a pile of trays. It is also called as LIFO (Last In, First Out) stack. Push operation is used to place an item on the stack, pop operation is used to remove the top item from the stack.

Assume that the first element is placed in location BOTTOM, and when new elements are pushed onto the stack, they are placed in successively lower locations. We use a stack that grows in the direction of decreasing memory addresses.

Consider a stack containing numerical values, with the bottom element 43 and -28 at the top. A processor register is used to keep track of the address

of the element of the stack that is at the top at any time. This register is called the stack pointer (SP)



A stack of words in the memory

SUBROUTINES

In a program, if a particular subtask is performed more than once on different data values, such subtask is usually a subroutine. Eg subroutine to evaluate the sine of an angle. To save space, only one copy of the instructions that perform the subtask is placed in the memory, and any time that requires the use of the subroutine, simply branch to its starting location. This branching to a subroutine is called as calling the subroutine. The instruction that initiates this branch operation is named a Call instruction. The instruction that ends the subroutine is named a Return instruction. The contents of PC must be saved before the Call instruction to enable correct return to the program.

The method followed to call and return from subroutine is referred to as subroutine linkage method.

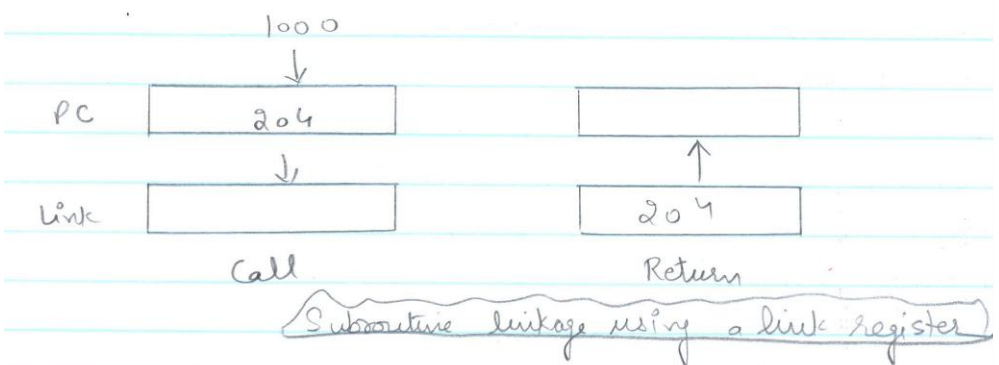
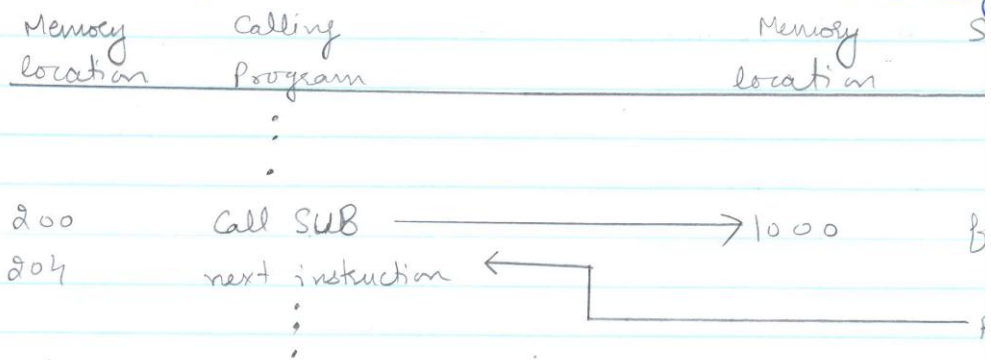
Eg - save a return address in a specific location like a link register. When subroutine completes its task, the instruction returns to the calling program by branching indirectly through the link register.

Call instruction

- Store contents of PC in link register
- Branch to the target address specified by the instruction

Return instruction

- Branch to the address contained in the link register



Subroutine nesting and the processor stack.

Subroutine nesting - when one subroutine calls another. The return address of second call is also stored in link saving contents of link register at other location.

Return addresses are generated and used in a LIFO particular register. is designated as stack pointer, SP, to a stack called processor stack. The Call instruction the contents of PC onto processor stack & loads sub address into PC. The return instruction pops the return from the processor stack into PC.

(b) Explain any three assembler directives with example.

[3]

CO1	L2
-----	----

Assembler Directives

Assembler directives are instructions, ^{statements} that direct assembler to do something, for eg. to set aside space for variables to include additional source files or to establish start address of the program.

These statements do not execute when object program runs nor they ^{or instructions} appear in the object program. It simply provides information to assembler.

Eg- SUM EQU 200

~~ORGANON~~ ORIGIN 204

N DATAWORD 100

NUM1 RESERVE 400

RETURN

END START

PART D

7 (a) With a neat diagram, explain registers in DMA interface. Also, explain bus arbitration approaches in DMA. [4+6]

DMA controller registers with bus arbitration?

DIRECT MEMORY ACCESS

- To transfer large blocks of data at high speed, between external devices and main memory, DMA (Direct Memory Access) approach is often used.
- DMA controller (control ~~data~~ circuit in I/O device interface) data transfer directly between I/O device and memory, with minimal intervention of processor.
- DMA controller acts as a processor, but it is controlled
- To initiate transfer of a block of words, the processor sends the following data to controller:
 - i) The starting address of the memory block
 - ii) The word count
 - iii) Control - to specify the mode of transfer such as read or write.
 - iv) A control to start the DMA transfer.

- DMA controller performs the requested I/O operation and sends an interrupt to the processor upon completion

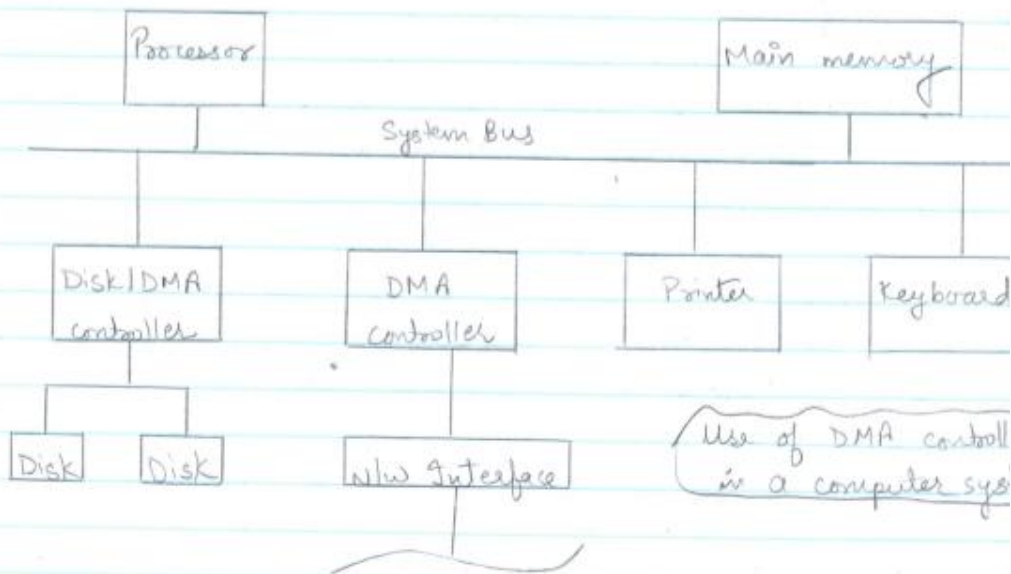
Status and Control	31	30	1
	IRQ	IE	R/W

Starting address

Word count

Registers in a DMA interface

Bits & Flags	1	0
R/W	READ	WRITE
Done	Data transfer finishes	
IRQ	Interrupt request	
IE	Raise interrupt (enable) after data transfer.	



• Memory accesses by the processor and DMA Controller interwoven. DMA devices have higher priority than processor over bus control.

→ Cycle Stealing - DMA controller 'steals' memory cycle from processor, though processor originates most memory access. For each byte to be transferred, DMA interrupts processor.

→ Block or Burst mode - The DMA controller given exclusive access to the main memory to transfer a block of data without its interruption.

A conflict may arise if both the processor and a DMA controller or two DMA controllers try to use the bus at the same time to access the main memory. To resolve this, bus arbitration methods are required.

Bus Arbitration

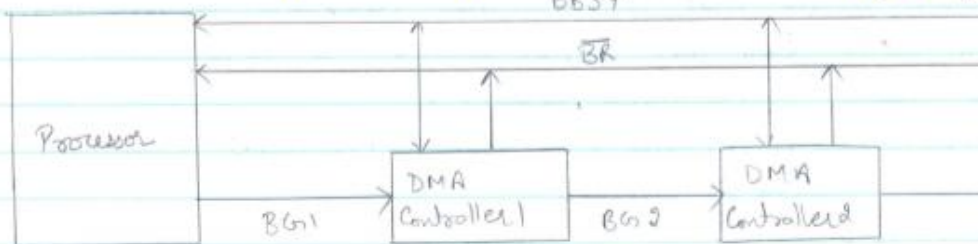
- Bus master: device that initiates data transfers on the bus. The next device can take control of the bus after the current master relinquishes control.
 - Bus Arbitration: process by which the next device to become master is selected.
- 2 main types :-

① Centralized Arbitration

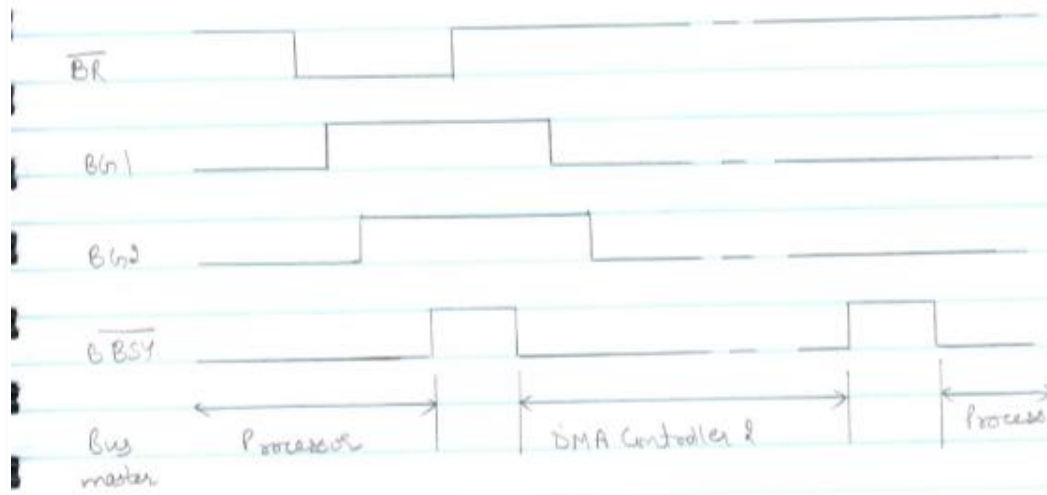
② Distributed Arbitration.

• Centralized Bus Arbitration Technique

- A 'single bus arbiter' performs the required arbitration.
- Bus arbiter may be the processor or a separate device connected to the bus (eg. DMA controller having hi priority).
- Initially the processor will act as 'bus master'.
- Whenever a DMA controller generates a request (\overline{BR}), ~~setting~~ activating Bus Request line, processor activates Bus-Grant (BG_1) signal indicating DMA controller can become a master.
- BG_1 signal line is connected to all DMA devices using daisy chain link.
- If DMA controller 1 has enabled the request, it blocks BG_1 signal and acts as a master for bus arbitration thereby disabling the bus for other device use.
- If DMA controller 1 has not enabled bus arbitration. It simply forwards BG_1 signal to its downstream i.e. DMA controllers by asserting BG_2 . New bus master active (Bus Busy)



Bus arbitration using Daisy chain

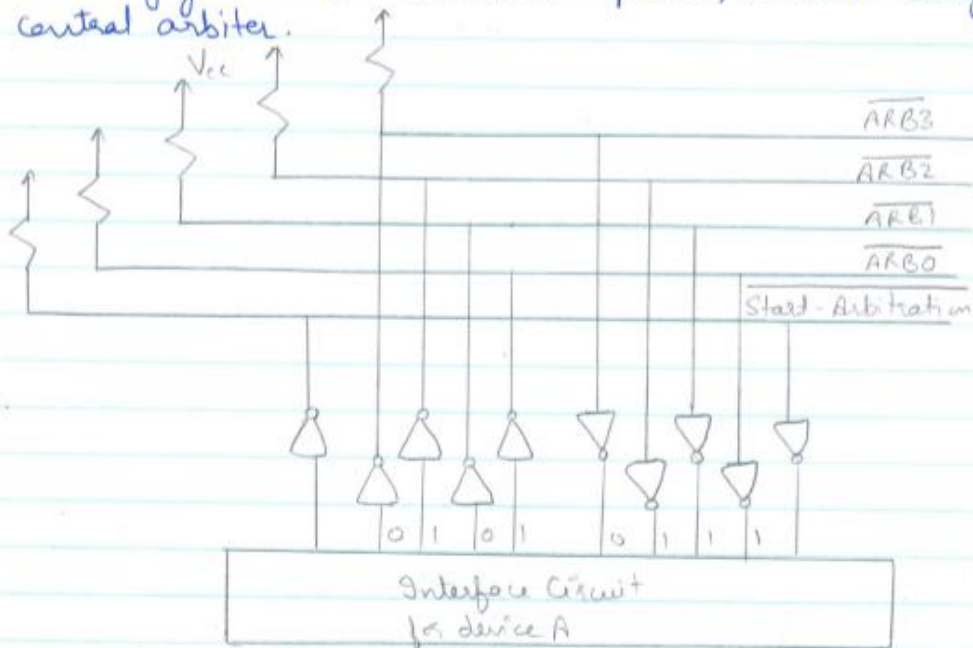


Sequence of signals for transfer of bus mastership from to DMA controller 2

DMA controller 2 requests and acquires the bus mastership the bus. At this time, it activates the bus busy line to prevent other devices from using the bus at same time. After it finishes its task, when bus is free again, it acquires the bus if no other DMA controller request is present and activates bus busy line.

Distributed Bus Arbitration

- All devices waiting to use the bus have equal responsibility in carrying out the arbitration process, without using central arbiter.



Distributed arbitration scheme

- Each device is identified by using a 4-bit identification number.
- Devices start contending for bus by enabling 'start' signal and place their 4-bit identification ~~number~~ on the bus (4 lines ARB₀-ARB₃).
- Device having ~~the~~ highest identification number is to get the granted service.
- Selection procedure:

• Assume that two devices A and B have their id numbers 5 and 6 respectively.

i.e. id of A = 0101

id of B = 0110.

Device A transmits the pattern 0101 on arbitration & device B sends the pattern 0110 on arbitration.

• A code value is calculated applying 'Logical OR' identification numbers of contending devices.

i.e. 0101

+ 0110

0111 ← code generated.

This code generated by 'OR' operation is sent to all the contending devices.

- Each contending device, compares its own id on a line with code value bit by bit starting from
- When it finds a mismatch in any bit place, remaining lower order bits of that device id are disabled to '0'.

device A	0101	Code	0111
	↑↑		↑↑
	✓✓		✓
	↓		
	mismatch		

so now device A shows 0100.

device B	0110	code	0111
	✓✓✓		✓✓
	↓		
	mismatch		

• 0110 code.

now → 'OR' for new codes

0100
+ 0110
<u>0110</u>

This means device B wins the election and is chosen the bus master.

OR

- 8 (a) Explain various methods for handling interrupts from multiple devices with neat diagram. [10]

CO2 L2

Handling multiple devices/interrupts (polling, vectored interrupts, interrupt nesting, daisy chaining)

Handling multiple devices

- Multiple devices can initiate interrupts. They use interrupt request line.

Following techniques may be used :-

- Polling
- Vectored Interrupts
- Interrupt nesting
- Daisy chaining.

① POLLING

- The IRQ (Interrupt request) bit in the status of a device is set to 1 when a device is requesting an interrupt.
- The Interrupt service routine polls the I/O devices to the bus.
- The first device encountered with the IRQ bit set is serviced and ISR is invoked.
- It is easy to implement, but too much time is spent checking the IRQ of all devices, though some may not be requesting service.

② VECTORED INTERRUPTS

- Device requesting an interrupt identifies itself directly to the processor.

(4 to 8 bits)

The device sends a special code_n to the processor bus.

- The code contains:
 - identification of the device,
 - starting address of ISR,
 - address of the branch to ISR (if ISR not at that loc)

The location pointed to by the interrupting device to store the starting address of the interrupt routine. This address is called interrupt vector reads it and loads it into PC.

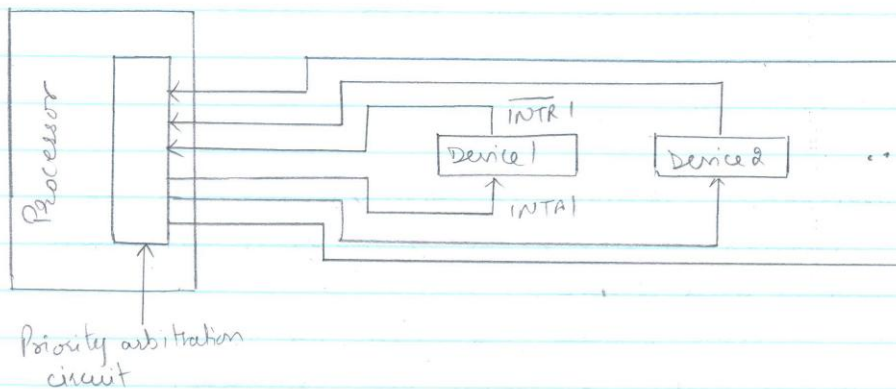
* When the processor is ready to receive its code, it may activate interrupt-acknowledge (INTA). The I/O device responds by sending its vector code and turning off the interrupt signal (INTR).

② INTERRUPT NESTING

- Disabling interrupts during execution of the program does not favor devices which need immediate response, keeping track of time of day.
- Pre-emption of low priority interrupt by higher priority interrupt is known as Interrupt Nesting.
- Only interrupts requests of higher priority are accepted during execution of ISR of lower priority.
- A priority level is assigned to processor which is currently being executed. Only higher priority interrupts than this are accepted.
- Processor's priority is encoded in a few bits.

status word which can be changed by programs called privileged instructions, which can be executed while processor is running in supervisor mode (executing OS routines).

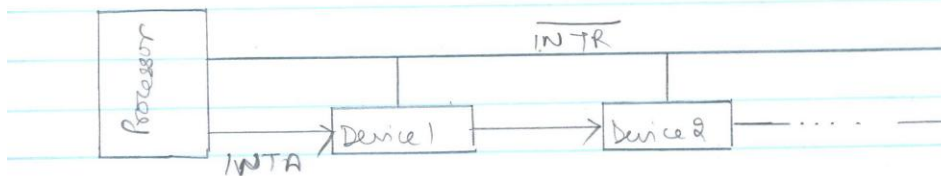
- An attempt to execute a privileged instruction in user mode leads to a special type called a privilege exception.
- A multiple-priority scheme can be implemented using separate interrupt request and interrupt lines for each device. Each interrupt-request is assigned a different priority level. Interrupt requests received over these lines are sent to a priority arbitration circuit in the processor. A request is only accepted if it has a higher priority level than the one currently being processed by the processor.



Implementation of interrupt priority using individual interrupt request and acknowledge lines

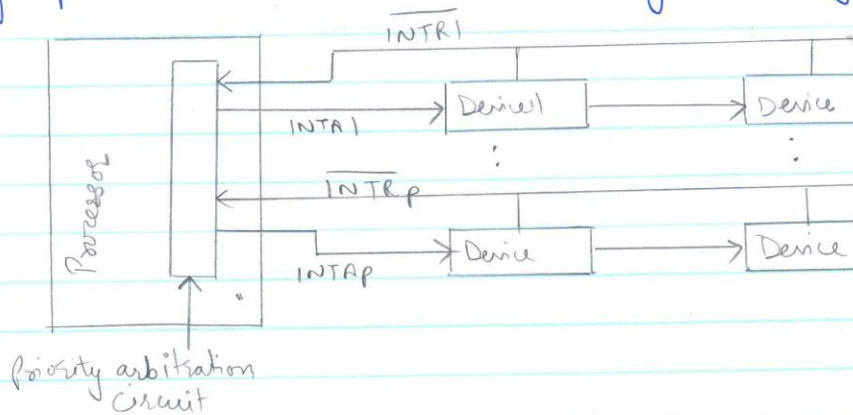
④ DAISY CHAINING

- The interrupt request line \overline{INTR} is common to the devices.
- The interrupt acknowledgement line $INTA$ is shared by devices in a daisy chain way.
- $INTA$ propagates serially through the devices.
- Device that is electrically closest to the processor gets high priority.
- Low priority device may have a danger.



Daisy chaining with priority group :-

- Combining daisy chaining and interrupt nesting to a group.
- Each group has different priority levels and with group devices are connected in daisy chain way.



Arrangement of priority groups

9 (a) **PART E** Write about shift and rotate instruction with neat diagram and example of each.

[6]
[4]

CO1 L2,L3

a) Shift and Rotate Instructions.

~~These~~ ^{Shift} instructions shift bits of an operand to right or left some specified number of bit positions.

Rotate instructions move the bits that are shifted out of one end of the operand back into the other end.

• Logical Shifts

Shift an operand over a number of bit positions specified in a count operand contained in the instruction. Count operand may be given as an immediate operand or it may be contained

in a processor register.

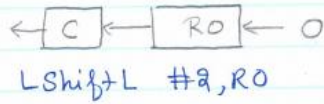
Syntax: LShiftL count, dst

LShiftR count, dst

Bits shifted out are passed through carry flag, C & then dropped.

→ Logical Shift Left

Eg-



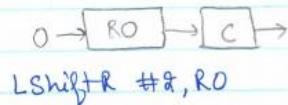
Before:

0	01110011
1	11001100

Logical Shift Left

→ Logical Shift Right

Eg-



Before:

01110011	0
00011100	1

Logical Shift Right

• Arithmetic Shifts

All in bits are not always zero as in logical shift operations.

Syntax: AShiftL count, dst

AShiftR count, dst

→ Left Arithmetic Shift

Eg-

AShiftL #1, RO

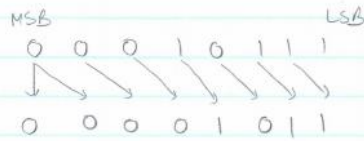
The empty position in the LSB (least significant bit) is filled with a zero.

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

→ Right Arithmetic Shift

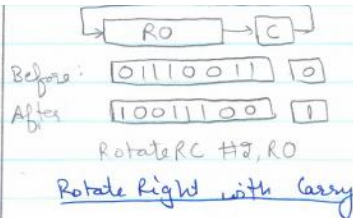
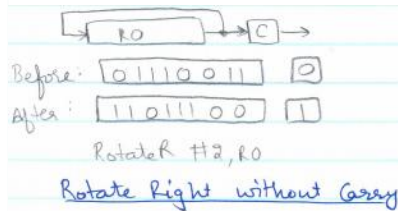
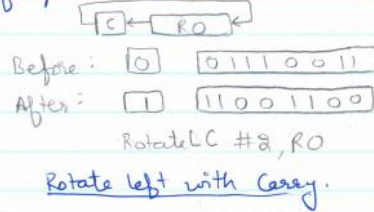
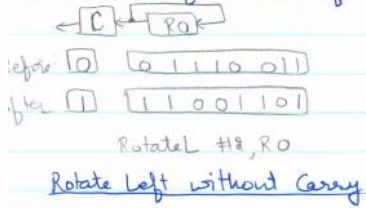
eg- ASHIFT R #1, R0

The empty position in the MSB bit is filled with a copy of original MSB.



• Rotate operations

It preserves all bits shifted out of the operand. They move the bits shifted out of one end of operand back into the other end.



3) Multiplication and Division.

Multiply R_i, R_j

$$R_j \leftarrow [R_i] \times [R_j]$$

Divide R_i, R_j

$$R_j \leftarrow [R_j] / [R_i]$$

(quotient is placed in R_j)

Write an assembly program to read a character and display it.

Example :- A program that reads a line of characters and displays it.

	Move	#LOC, R0	Initialize pointer register R0 to point to the address of the first location in memory where characters are to be stored.
READ)	TestBit	#3, INSTATUS	wait for character to be entered in keyboard buffer
	Branch=0	READ	
	MoveByte	DATAIN, (R0)	DATAIN. Transfer the character from DATAIN into memory (this clears SIN to 0)
ECHO	TestBit	#3, OUTSTATUS	wait for display to become ready
	Branch=0	ECHO	
	MoveByte	(R0), DATAOUT	Move the character just read to display buffer register. (this clears SOUT to 0)

	Compare	#CR, (R0)+	check if character just read is CR (carriage return). If not CR, then branch back & read another character.
	Branch≠0	READ	
			Also, increment the pointer to store next character.

OR

10 (a) What is an Interrupt? With an example, illustrate the concept of interrupt.

[10]

CO2	L2
-----	----

INTERRUPTS

In program-controlled I/O processor repeated device status. During this wait loop, processor performing any useful computation. There situations where other tasks can be perform waiting for the I/O device to become ready device may alert the processor when it become. This alert may be sent using a hardware called an interrupt to the processor. Eg at least one of the bus control lines, called a

Program: It consists of 2 routines.

COMPUTE - produces a set of n lines.

PRINT - send lines of output to printer
a time.

without interrupts

COMPUTE produces n lines.

PRINT sends 1st line

(wait for it to be printed)

send 2nd line

(wait for it to be printed)

⋮

send n^{th} line

(wait for it to be printed)

COMPUTE produces next n lines.

PRINT sends 1st line

(wait)

send 2nd line.

(wait)

⋮

send n^{th} line

~~wait~~ (wait)

⋮

so on.

is advantage - Processor spends a considerable
time waiting for printer to become ready.



with interrupts Overlapping printing and computation
i.e., execute COMPUTE routine while printing is in

COMPUTE produces n lines

PRINT send 1st line

(suspend PRINT)

COMPUTE next n lines, printer printing

if printer ready, send ISK.

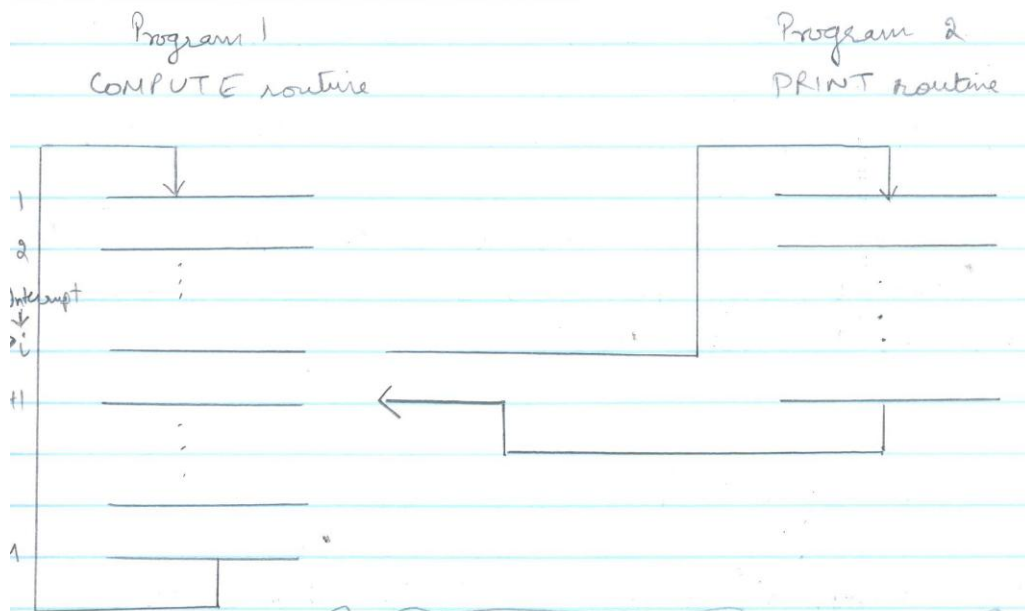
COMPUTE interrupted.

PRINT send 2nd line

(suspend print)

COMPUTE next n lines, printer printing

⋮
So on



Transfer of control through the use of interrupts