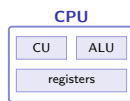


Processor Fundamentals

AS Computer Science • Topic 4

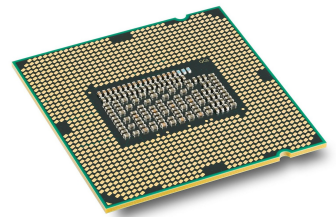
A-Level Computer Science



Processor Fundamentals

What we will cover

- 1 Von Neumann & the CPU
- 2 Buses & performance
- 3 Fetch-execute & interrupts
- 4 Assembly & addressing
- 5 Binary shifts & masking
- 6 Recap



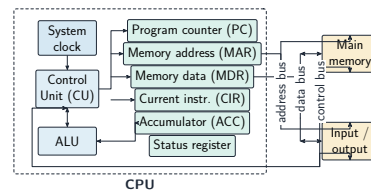
1

Von Neumann and the CPU

Processor Fundamentals

↳ Von Neumann and the CPU

Von Neumann architecture



One **single memory** holds both program and data – the **stored program** 存储程序.

- CPU fetches and runs one instruction at a time
- change the program ⇒ change behaviour, no rewiring
- instructions run **in order** unless a branch changes the flow

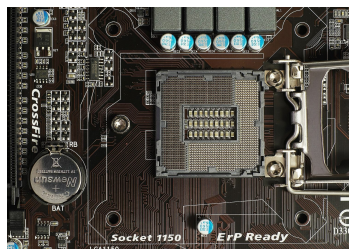
Processor Fundamentals

↳ Von Neumann and the CPU

The CPU's main parts

- **ALU** 算术逻辑单元 – arithmetic & logic
- **control unit** 控制单元 – decodes, sends control signals
- **clock** 时钟频率 – keeps the CPU in step
- **registers** 寄存器 – tiny, very fast stores, including the **general-purpose registers** 通用寄存器 for temporary values

All of it sits inside one small chip.

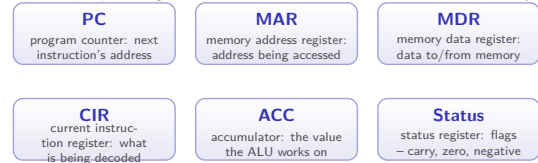


Processor Fundamentals

↳ Von Neumann and the CPU

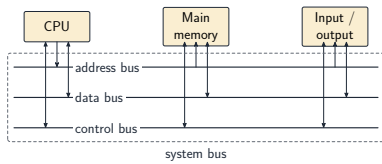
Special-purpose registers

Six **special purpose registers** 专用寄存器 do the work of the fetch-execute cycle:



Data moves are written as register transfers, e.g. $MAR \leftarrow [PC]$.

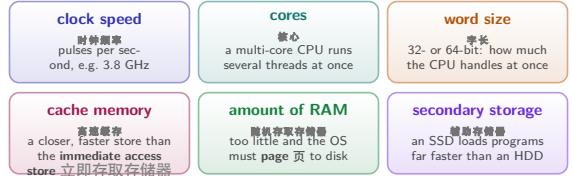
The system buses



- **address bus** 地址总线 – address, **one-way**
- **data bus** 数据总线 – data, two-way
- **control bus** 控制总线 – signals, two-way

Three sets of parallel wires. An n -bit address bus reaches 2^n locations.

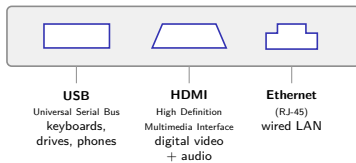
What actually makes a computer faster



Each instruction takes a fixed number of clock cycles. Match the specs to the **workload**: a quad-core beats a dual-core on parallel work, but higher per-core speed wins on single-threaded work.

Ports connect the peripherals

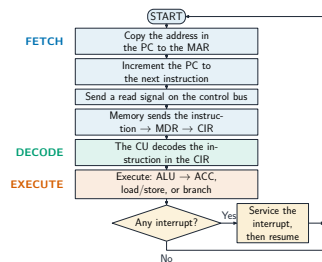
A **port** 端口 is a physical socket for a **peripheral** 外围设备. Different ports carry different signals, so an HDMI cable will not fit a USB socket.



Also on the case: **VGA** (older *analogue* video) and audio jacks. **USB-C** is unusual – it carries video, data *and* power.

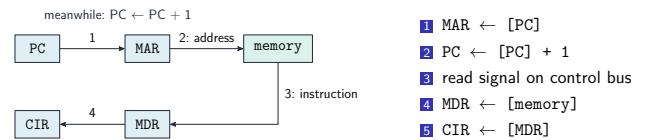
2 Fetch-execute and interrupts

The fetch-execute cycle



- **fetch**: PC → MAR, increment PC, read → MDR → CIR
 - **decode**: the CU reads the instruction
 - **execute**: ALU / load-store / branch
- Then check for interrupts and repeat.

The register transfers in a fetch



- 1 MAR ← [PC]
- 2 PC ← [PC] + 1
- 3 read signal on control bus
- 4 MDR ← [memory]
- 5 CIR ← [MDR]

Processor Fundamentals
Fetch-execute and interrupts

Interrupts

Main program running (fetch-execute cycle)

Interrupt signal arrives

Finish the current instruction

Save the state: push the PC and registers onto the stack

Load the ISR's address into the PC

The interrupt service routine (ISR) runs and handles the event

Restore the saved state (pop the PC and registers back)

Resume the interrupted program

carry on where it left off

An **interrupt** 中断 pauses the cycle for an urgent event:

1 finish the current instruction

2 save the state (PC, registers)

3 run the **ISR** 中断服务程序

4 restore and carry on

Processor Fundamentals
Fetch-execute and interrupts

Interrupts, and what the CU decodes

decode

an interrupt 中断

what happens

then

priorities

why it matters

the CU decodes the instruction in the CIR – what operation, and which operands or addresses

a signal that pauses the normal cycle so the CPU can handle an urgent event – a key press, a packet arriving, a hardware fault

the current registers are saved, and the **interrupt service routine** 中断服务程序 runs

the saved state is restored and the interrupted program continues as if nothing happened

a higher-priority interrupt can interrupt a lower one; equal ones queue

the system responds without the CPU constantly checking devices – and it is how the OS multitasks

Polling wastes cycles asking “anything yet?”. An interrupt lets the device speak, which is why every modern system uses them.

3

Assembly and addressing

Processor Fundamentals
Assembly and addressing

Assembly and machine code

The **processor** 处理器 runs **machine code** 机器码 (bit patterns). **Assembly language** 汇编语言 is readable, one line per instruction, using **mnemonics** 助记符 (LDD, ADD, JMP). A **two-pass assembler** 两遍汇编器: pass 1 builds a **symbol table** 符号表 of **labels** 标签; pass 2 generates code (handling forward references).

LDD 100

assembler

0011 01100100

assembly

machine code

Processor Fundamentals
Assembly and addressing

The instruction set, and the two-pass assembler

data movement

arithmetic

logic and shifts

comparison and jumps

the assembler's job

why two passes

LDD, LDM, LDI, LDH, STO, MOV

ADD, SUB, INC, DEC

AND, OR, XOR, LSL, LSR – and a **cyclic shift** 循环移位, where the bit leaving one end re-enters the other

CMP, JMP, JPE, JPN

translate mnemonics to machine code, resolving labels to addresses

to handle **forward references** 前向引用 – a jump to a label that is defined later in the source

Pass one builds the symbol table; pass two writes the code. One pass alone cannot know an address it has not yet reached.

Processor Fundamentals
Assembly and addressing

Addressing modes

How the CPU finds the operand:

immediate

direct

indirect

indexed

LDM #10

LDD 200

LDI 200

LDX 100

operand = 10

[200] = 42

[200] = 250

[100+5] = 7

index register IR = 5

operand = 10

42

250

99

7

immediate

direct

indirect

indexed

立即寻址: the operand is the value

直接寻址: the value at that address

间接寻址: the address of an address

变址寻址: address + an index register

相对寻址: an offset from the current position

Worked example: trace the program

```
LDD 200  
ADD 201  
STO 202
```

[200] = 5 [201] = 7 [202] = ?

LDD load • ADD add • STO store

A **trace table** 跟踪表 records every register after *each* instruction – exactly what exam trace questions ask for.

after...	ACC	[202]
LDD 200	5	–
ADD 201	12	–
STO 202	12	12

4

Binary shifts and masking

Binary shifts

A **logical shift** 逻辑移位 fills with 0:

- left by 1 = $\times 2$
- right by 1 = $\div 2$ (integer)

An **arithmetic** right shift keeps the sign bit.

LSL #1 00001011 $\rightarrow$ 00010110 $\times 2$ (0 in on the right)

LSR #1 00001011 $\rightarrow$ 00000101 $\div 2$ (0 in on the left)

ASR #1 10110100 $\rightarrow$ 11011010 sign bit kept (stays negative)

Logical vs arithmetic right shift

Both move every bit one place to the right. They differ only in *what enters on the left* – and that single bit decides whether a negative number survives.

start 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 = 240 unsigned, –16 signed

LSR #1 0 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 = 120 halves the unsigned value

ASR #1 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 = –8 halves the signed value

The two results differ in **one bit** – the one that entered on the left. LSR always brings in a 0; ASR copies the sign bit, so a negative number stays negative and $-16 \div 2$ comes out right.

ASR copies the **sign bit**, so a negative number stays negative.

Bit masking

One **bit** 位 per signal; use a **mask** 掩码:

- **set**: OR a 1 in that bit
- **clear**: AND a 0 in that bit
- **toggle**: XOR a 1 in that bit

set bit 2	clear bit 6	toggle bit 3
01001000	01001000	01001000
OR 00000100	AND 10111111	XOR 00001000
= 01001100	= 00001000	= 01000000

Bit masking: the three operations

test bit n R AND the mask, then check whether the result is non-zero

set bit n R OR the mask – ones in the mask force ones in the result

clear bit n R AND the *inverted* mask – zeros force zeros, ones leave the rest alone

flip bit n R XOR the mask

building a mask a 1 in the position you care about and 0 everywhere else – 00001000 for bit 3

where it is used monitoring and control: one byte can carry eight independent sensor or actuator states

Each operation is chosen for what it leaves *unchanged*. AND clears, OR sets, XOR flips – and in every case the other bits survive.

Worked example – four addressing modes

Memory: location 200=250, 250=99, 105=7. **The index register holds 5. What is in the accumulator after each instruction?**

- LDM #200 – **immediate**: the operand *is* the number. Accumulator = **200**.
- LDD 200 – **direct**: go to location 200 and take what is there. = **250**.
- LDI 200 – **indirect**: location 200 holds 250, which is another *address*, so go on to 250. = **99**.
- LDX 100 – **indexed**: add the index register, $100 + 5 = 105$, and read location 105. = **7**.

Count the hops: immediate none, direct one, indirect two, indexed one after an addition.

Exam tips

- Learn the **fetch-execute cycle** in register-transfer terms (PC, MAR, MDR, CIR, ACC) and what increments the PC.
- Name each register's job; the **address bus is one-way**, the data bus is two-way.
- Distinguish the **addressing modes** (immediate, direct, indirect, indexed) – a frequent question.
- Explain how clock speed, number of cores, cache size and word length affect **performance**.
- For a **binary shift**, state whether it is logical or arithmetic; a left shift multiplies by 2, a right shift divides by 2.

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Recap

Topic 4 – key takeaways

1 Von Neumann

one memory for program & data

2 Buses

address (one-way), data, control

3 Cycle

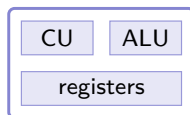
fetch → decode → execute;
interrupts pause it

4 Assembly

mnemonics; addressing modes;
shifts & masks

Check yourself

- 1 Which register holds the next instruction's address?
- 2 Which bus is one-way?
- 3 What does an interrupt make the CPU do first?
- 4 00000110 after LSL #1 – value?



Answers 1. the PC 2. the address bus 3. finish the current instruction, then save state 4. $00001100 = 12$