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Logic gates are the basic building blocks of any digital system. It is an electronic circuit having one or more than one input and only one output. The relationship between the input and the output is based on certain logic. Based on this, logic gates are named as AND gate, OR gate, NOT gate etc.

AND Gate

A circuit which performs an AND operation is shown in figure. It has n input ($n \geq 2$) and one output.

Logic diagram



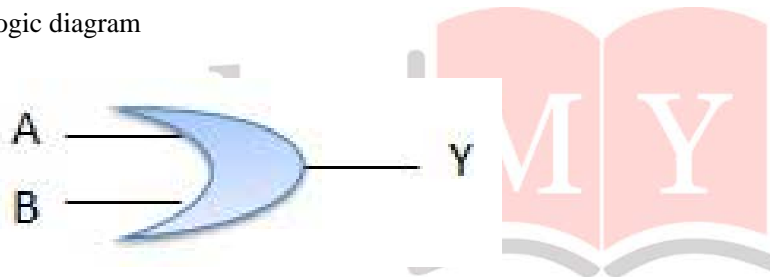
Truth Table

Inputs		Output
A	B	AB
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

OR Gate

A circuit which performs an OR operation is shown in figure. It has n input ($n \geq 2$) and one output.

Logic diagram

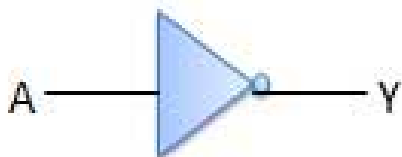


Inputs		Output
A	B	A + B
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

NOT Gate

NOT gate is also known as **Inverter**. It has one input A and one output Y.

Logic diagram

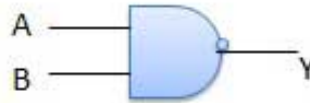
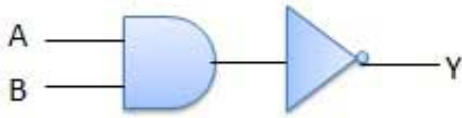


Inputs	Output
A	B
0	1
1	0

NAND Gate

A NOT-AND operation is known as NAND operation. It has n input ($n \geq 2$) and one output.

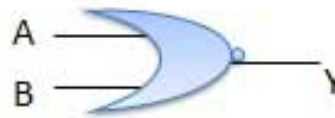
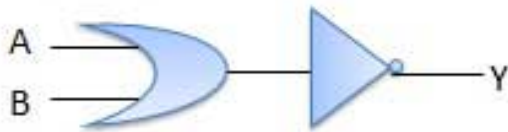
Logic diagram



Inputs		Output
A	B	\overline{AB}
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

NOR Gate

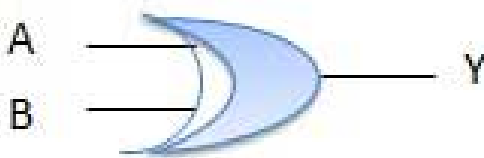
A NOT-OR operation is known as NOR operation. It has n input ($n \geq 2$) and one



Inputs		Output
A	B	$\overline{A+B}$
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	0

XOR Gate

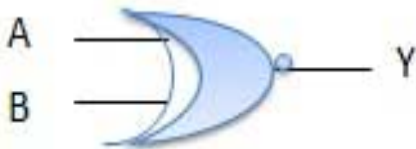
XOR or Ex-OR gate is a special type of gate. It can be used in the half adder, full adder and subtractor. The exclusive-OR gate is abbreviated as EX-OR gate or sometime as X-OR gate. It has n input ($n \geq 2$) and one output.



Inputs		Output
A	B	$A \oplus B$
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

XNOR Gate

XNOR gate is a special type of gate. It can be used in the half adder, full adder and subtractor. The exclusive-NOR gate is abbreviated as EX-NOR gate or sometime as X-NOR gate. It has n input ($n \geq 2$) and one output.



Inputs		Output
A	B	$A \ominus B$
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

Combinational Circuits

Combinational circuit is a circuit in which we combine the different gates in the circuit, for example encoder, decoder, multiplexer and demultiplexer. Some of the characteristics of combinational circuits are following –

- ❖ The output of combinational circuit at any instant of time, depends only on the levels present at input terminals.
- ❖ The combinational circuit do not use any memory. The previous state of input does not have any effect on the present state of the circuit.
- ❖ A combinational circuit can have an n number of inputs and m number of outputs.

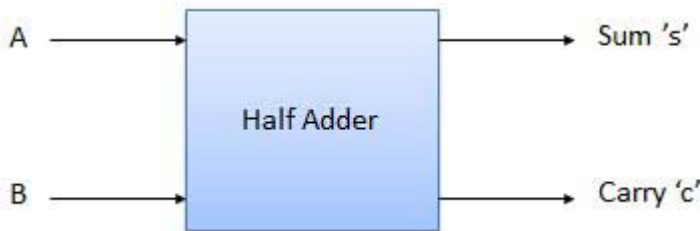
Block diagram



We're going to elaborate few important combinational circuits as follows.

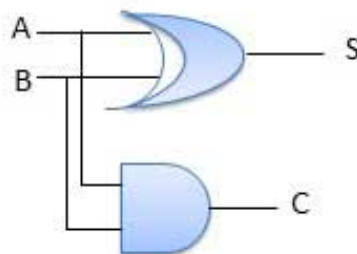
Half Adder

Half adder is a combinational logic circuit with two inputs and two outputs. The half adder circuit is designed to add two single bit binary number A and B. It is the basic building block for addition of two **single** bit numbers. This circuit has two outputs **carry** and **sum**. Block diagram



Inputs		Output	
A	B	S	C
0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	1

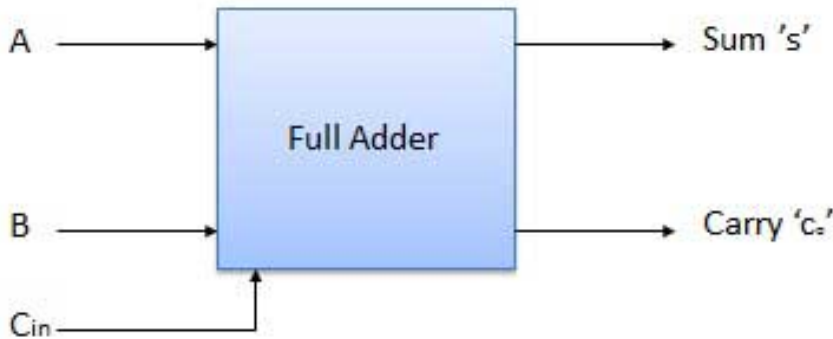
Circuit Diagram



Full Adder

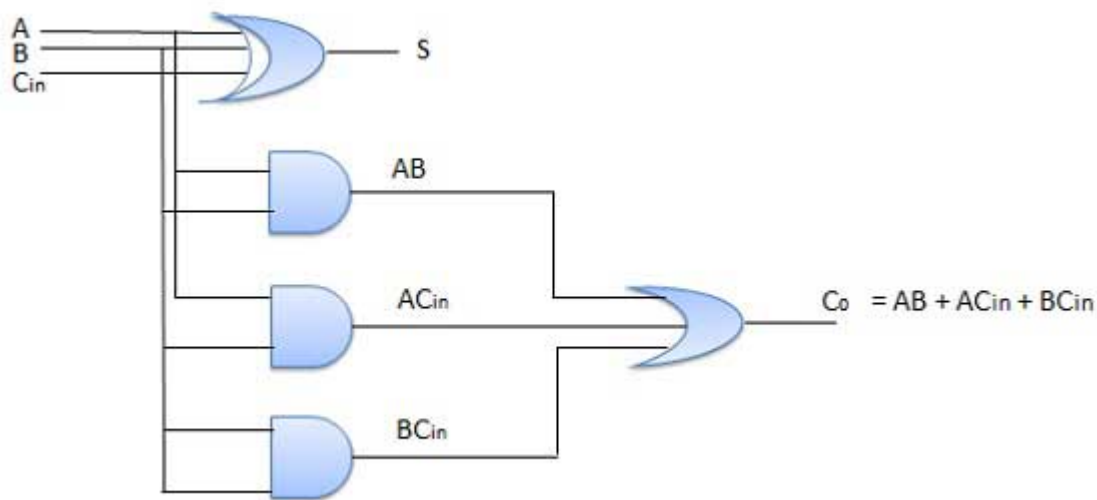
Full adder is developed to overcome the drawback of Half Adder circuit. It can add two one-bit numbers A and B, and carry c. The full adder is a three input and two output combinational circuit.

Block diagram



Inputs			Output	
A	B	C _{in}	S	C _o
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1	0
0	1	0	1	0
0	1	1	0	1
1	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	1
1	1	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1

Circuit Diagram



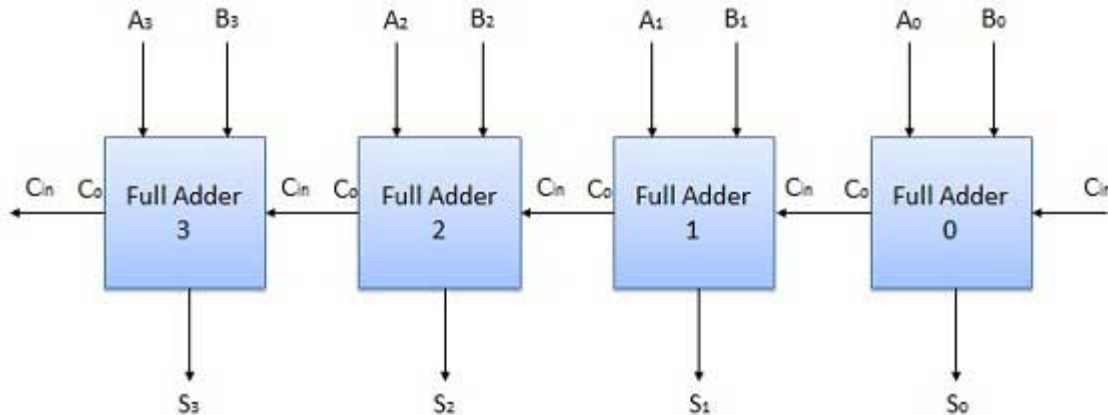
N-Bit Parallel Adder

The Full Adder is capable of adding only two single digit binary number along with a carry input. But in practical we need to add binary numbers which are much longer than just one bit. To add two n-bit binary numbers we need to use the n-bit parallel adder. It uses a number of full adders in cascade. The carry output of the previous full adder is connected to carry input of the next full adder.

4 Bit Parallel Adder

In the block diagram, A₀ and B₀ represent the LSB of the four bit words A and B. Hence Full Adder-0 is the lowest stage. Hence its C_{in} has been permanently made 0. The rest of the connections are exactly same as those of n-bit parallel adder is shown in fig. The four bit parallel adder is a very common logic circuit.

Block diagram



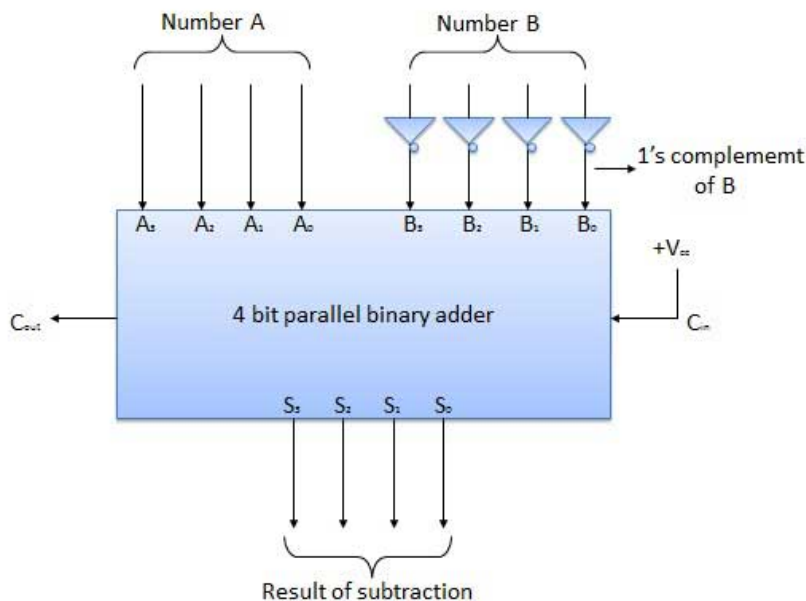
N-Bit Parallel Subtractor

The subtraction can be carried out by taking the 1's or 2's complement of the number to be subtracted. For example we can perform the subtraction (A-B) by adding either 1's or 2's complement of B to A. That means we can use a binary adder to perform the binary subtraction.

4 Bit Parallel Subtractor

The number to be subtracted (B) is first passed through inverters to obtain its 1's complement. The 4-bit adder then adds A and 2's complement of B to produce the subtraction. $S_3 S_2 S_1 S_0$ represents the result of binary subtraction (A-B) and carry output C_{out} represents the polarity of the result. If $A > B$ then $C_{out} = 0$ and the result of binary form (A-B) then $C_{out} = 1$ and the result is in the 2's complement form.

Block diagram

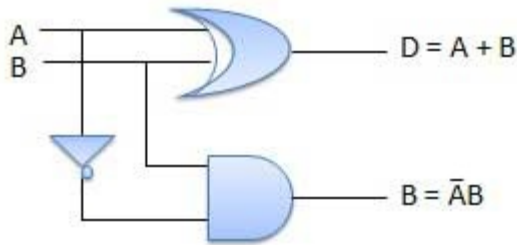


Half Subtractors

Half subtractor is a combination circuit with two inputs and two outputs (difference and borrow). It produces the difference between the two binary bits at the input and also produces an output (Borrow) to indicate if a 1 has been borrowed. In the subtraction (A-B), A is called as Minuend bit and B is called as Subtrahend bit.

Inputs		Output	
A	B	(A - B)	Borrow
0	0	0	0
0	1	1	1
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	0

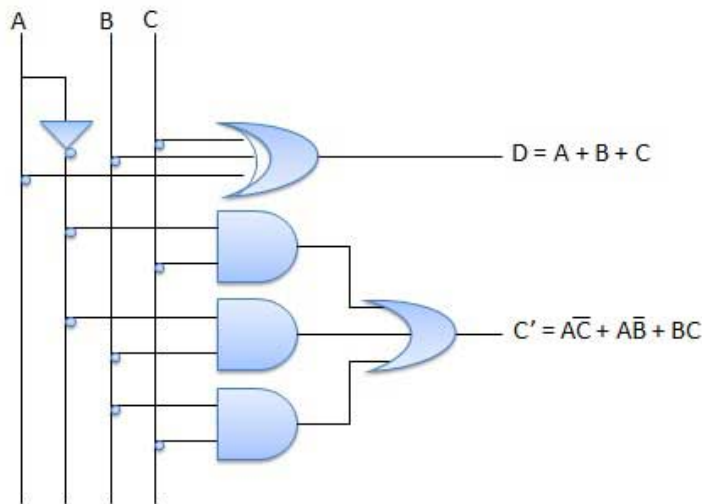
Circuit Diagram



Full Subtractors

The disadvantage of a half subtractor is overcome by full subtractor. The full subtractor is a combinational circuit with three inputs A,B,C and two output D and C'. A is the 'minuend', B is 'subtrahend', C is the 'borrow' produced by the previous stage, D is the difference output and C' is the borrow output.

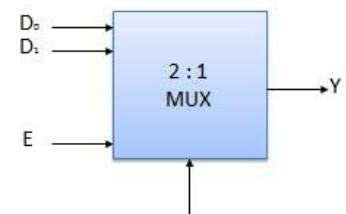
Circuit Diagram



Inputs			Output	
A	B	C	(A-B-C)	C'
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1	1
0	1	0	1	1
0	1	1	0	1
1	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	0
1	1	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	1

Multiplexers

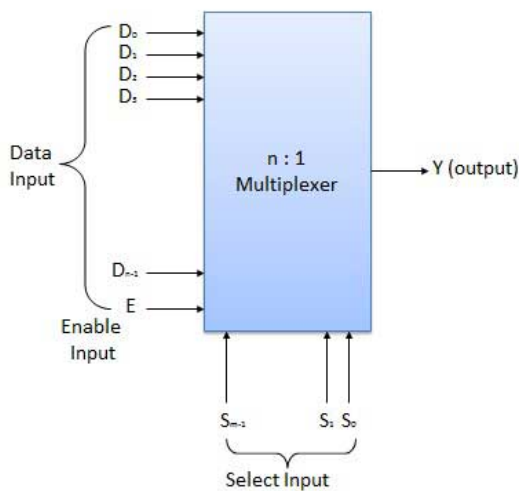
Multiplexer is a special type of combinational circuit. There are n-data inputs, one output and m select inputs with $2^m = n$. It is a digital circuit which selects one of the n data inputs and routes it to the output. The selection of one of the n inputs is done by the selected inputs. Depending on the digital code applied



at the selected inputs, one out of n data sources is selected and transmitted to the single output Y. E is called the strobe or enable input which is useful for the cascading. It is generally an active low terminal that means it will perform the required operation when it is low.

Multiplexers come in multiple variations

- 2 : 1 multiplexer
- 4 : 1 multiplexer
- 16 : 1 multiplexer
- 32 : 1 multiplexer



Enable	Select	Output
E	S	Y
0	x	0
1	0	D ₀
1	1	D ₁

x = Don't care

Demultiplexers

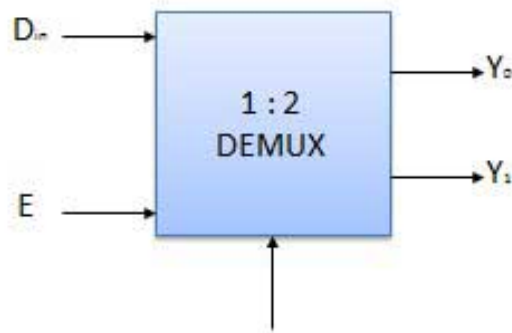
A demultiplexer performs the reverse operation of a multiplexer i.e. it receives one input and distributes it over several outputs. It has only one input, n outputs, m select input. At a time only one output line is selected by the select lines and the input is transmitted to the selected output line. A de-multiplexer is equivalent to a single pole multiple way switch as shown in fig.

Demultiplexers comes in multiple variations.

- 1 : 2 demultiplexer
- 1 : 4 demultiplexer
- 1 : 16 demultiplexer
- 1 : 32 demultiplexer

Enable	Select	Output
E	S	Y ₀ Y ₁
0	x	0 0
1	0	0 D _{in}
1	1	D _{in} 0

x = Don't care



Decoder

A decoder is a combinational circuit. It has n input and to a maximum $m = 2^n$ outputs. Decoder is identical to a demultiplexer without any data input. It performs operations which are exactly opposite to those of an encoder.



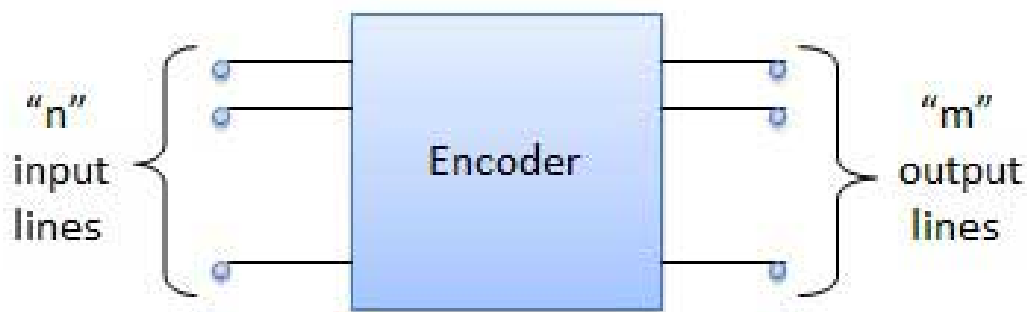
Examples of Decoders are following.

- Code converters
- BCD to seven segment decoders
- Nixie tube decoders
- Relay actuator

Encoder

Encoder is a combinational circuit which is designed to perform the inverse operation of the decoder. An encoder has n number of input lines and m number of output lines. An encoder produces an m bit binary code corresponding to the digital input number. The encoder accepts an n input digital word and converts it into an m bit another digital word.

Block diagram

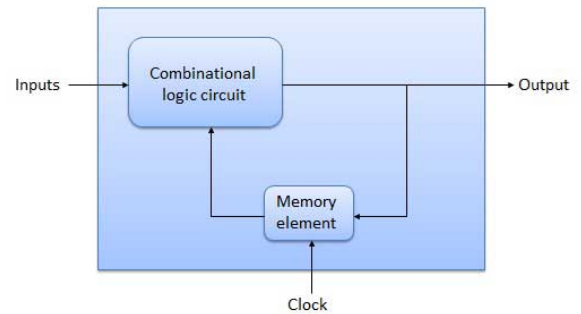


Examples of Encoders are following.

- Priority encoders
- Decimal to BCD encoder
- Octal to binary encoder
- Hexadecimal to binary encoder

Sequential Circuits

The combinational circuit does not use any memory. Hence the previous state of input does not have any effect on the present state of the circuit. But sequential circuit has memory so output can vary based on input. This type of circuits uses previous input, output, clock and a memory element.

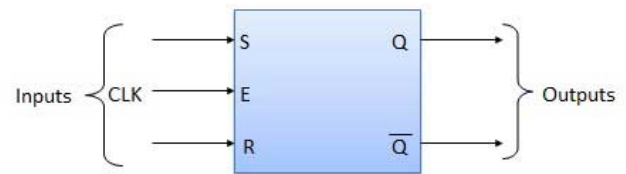


Flip Flop

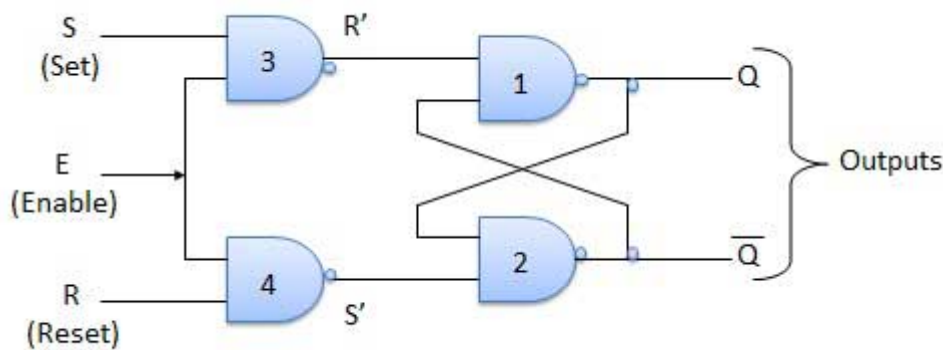
Flip flop is a sequential circuit which generally samples its inputs and changes its outputs only at particular instants of time and not continuously. Flip flop is said to be edge sensitive or edge triggered rather than being level triggered like latches.

S-R Flip Flop

It is basically S-R latch using NAND gates with an additional **enable** input. It is also called as level triggered SR-FF. For this, circuit in output will take place if and only if the enable input (E) is made active. In short this circuit will operate as an S-R latch if E = 1 but there is no change in the output if E = 0.



Circuit Diagram



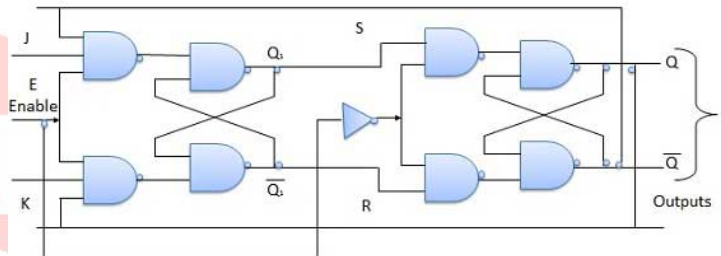
Operation

S.N.	Condition	Operation
1	S = R = 0 : No change	<p>If S = R = 0 then output of NAND gates 3 and 4 are forced to become 1.</p> <p>Hence R' and S' both will be equal to 1. Since S' and R' are the input of the basic S-R latch using NAND gates, there will be no change in the state of outputs.</p>

2	S = 0, R = 1, E = 1	<p>Since S = 0, output of NAND-3 i.e. R' = 1 and E = 1 the output of NAND-4 i.e. S' = 0.</p> <p>Hence $Q_{n+1} = 0$ and $Q_{n+1} \text{ bar} = 1$. This is reset condition.</p>
3	S = 1, R = 0, E = 1	<p>Output of NAND-3 i.e. R' = 0 and output of NAND-4 i.e. S' = 1.</p> <p>Hence output of S-R NAND latch is $Q_{n+1} = 1$ and $Q_{n+1} \text{ bar} = 0$. This is the reset condition.</p>
4	S = 1, R = 1, E = 1	<p>As S = 1, R = 1 and E = 1, the output of NAND gates 3 and 4 both are 0 i.e. S' = R' = 0.</p> <p>Hence the Race condition will occur in the basic NAND latch.</p>

Master Slave JK Flip Flop

Master slave JK FF is a cascade of two S-R FF with feedback from the output of second to input of first. Master is a positive level triggered. But due to the presence of the inverter in the clock line, the slave will respond to the negative level. Hence when the clock = 1 (positive level) the master is active and the slave is inactive. Whereas when clock = 0 (low level) the slave is active and master is inactive.

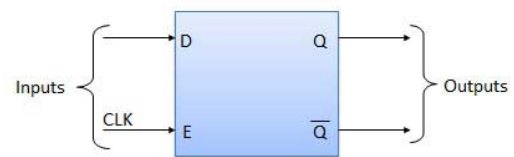
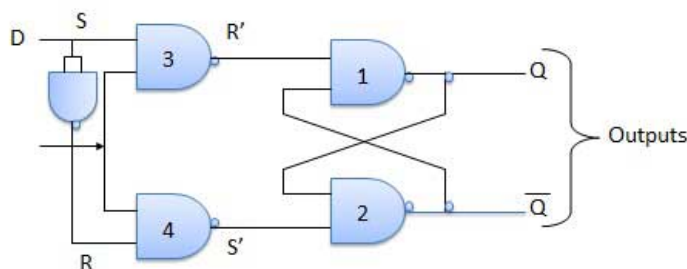


S.N.	Condition	Operation
1	J = K = 0 (No change)	<p>When clock = 0, the slave becomes active and master is inactive. But since the S and R inputs have not changed, the slave outputs will also remain unchanged. Therefore outputs will not change if J = K = 0.</p>
2	J = 0 and K = 1 (Reset)	<p>Clock = 1 – Master active, slave inactive. Therefore outputs of the master become $Q_1 = 0$ and $Q_1 \text{ bar} = 1$. That means S = 0 and R = 1.</p> <p>Clock = 0 – Slave active, master inactive. Therefore outputs of the slave become Q = 0 and Q bar = 1.</p> <p>Again clock = 1 – Master active, slave inactive. Therefore even with the changed outputs Q = 0 and Q bar = 1 fed back to master, its output will be $Q_1 = 0$ and $Q_1 \text{ bar} = 1$. That means S = 0 and R = 1.</p> <p>Hence with clock = 0 and slave becoming active the outputs of slave will</p>

		remain $Q = 0$ and $Q \text{ bar} = 1$. Thus we get a stable output from the Master slave.
3	J = 1 and K = 0 (Set)	<p>Clock = 1 – Master active, slave inactive. Therefore outputs of the master become $Q_1 = 1$ and $Q_1 \text{ bar} = 0$. That means $S = 1$ and $R = 0$.</p> <p>Clock = 0 – Slave active, master inactive. Therefore outputs of the slave become $Q = 1$ and $Q \text{ bar} = 0$.</p> <p>Again clock = 1 – then it can be shown that the outputs of the slave are stabilized to $Q = 1$ and $Q \text{ bar} = 0$.</p>
4	J = K = 1 (Toggle)	<p>Clock = 1 – Master active, slave inactive. Outputs of master will toggle. So S and R also will be inverted.</p> <p>Clock = 0 – Slave active, master inactive. Outputs of slave will toggle.</p> <p>These changed output are returned back to the master inputs. But since clock = 0, the master is still inactive. So it does not respond to these changed outputs. This avoids the multiple toggling which leads to the race around condition. The master slave flip flop will avoid the race around condition.</p>

Delay Flip Flop / D Flip Flop

Delay Flip Flop or D Flip Flop is the simple gated S-R latch with a NAND inverter connected between S and R inputs. It has only one input. The input data is appearing at the output after some time. Due to this data delay between i/p and o/p, it is called delay flip flop. S and R will be the complements of each other due to NAND inverter. Hence $S = R = 0$ or $S = R = 1$, these input condition will never appear. This problem is avoid by $SR = 00$ and $SR = 11$ conditions.



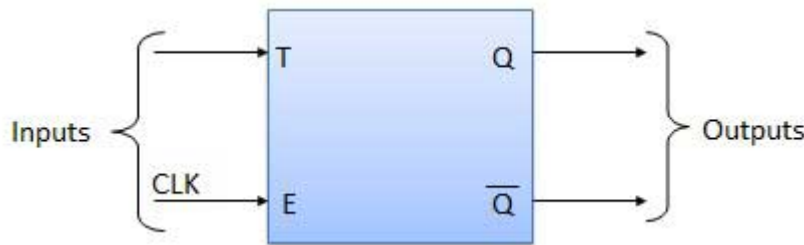
S.N.	Condition	Operation
1	E = 0	Latch is disabled. Hence no change in output.
2	E = 1 and D = 0	If $E = 1$ and $D = 0$ then $S = 0$ and $R = 1$. Hence

		irrespective of the present state, the next state is $Q_{n+1} = 0$ and $Q_{n+1} \text{ bar} = 1$. This is the reset condition.
3	E = 1 and D = 1	If E = 1 and D = 1, then S = 1 and R = 0. This will set the latch and $Q_{n+1} = 1$ and $Q_{n+1} \text{ bar} = 0$ irrespective of the present state.

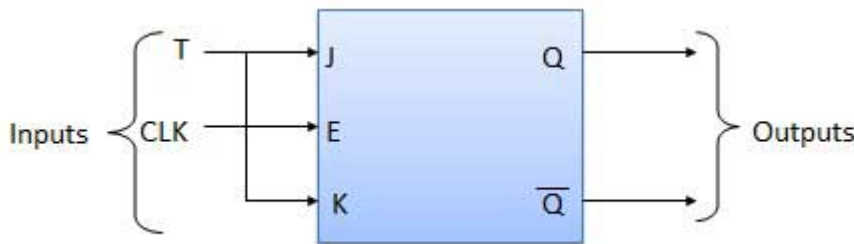
Toggle Flip Flop / T Flip Flop

Toggle flip flop is basically a JK flip flop with J and K terminals permanently connected together. It has only input denoted by **T** as shown in the Symbol Diagram. The symbol for positive edge triggered T flip flop is shown in the Block Diagram.

Symbol Diagram



Block Diagram



Operation

S.N.	Condition	Operation
1	T = 0, J = K = 0	The output Q and Q bar won't change
2	T = 1, J = K = 1	Output will toggle corresponding to every leading edge of clock signal.

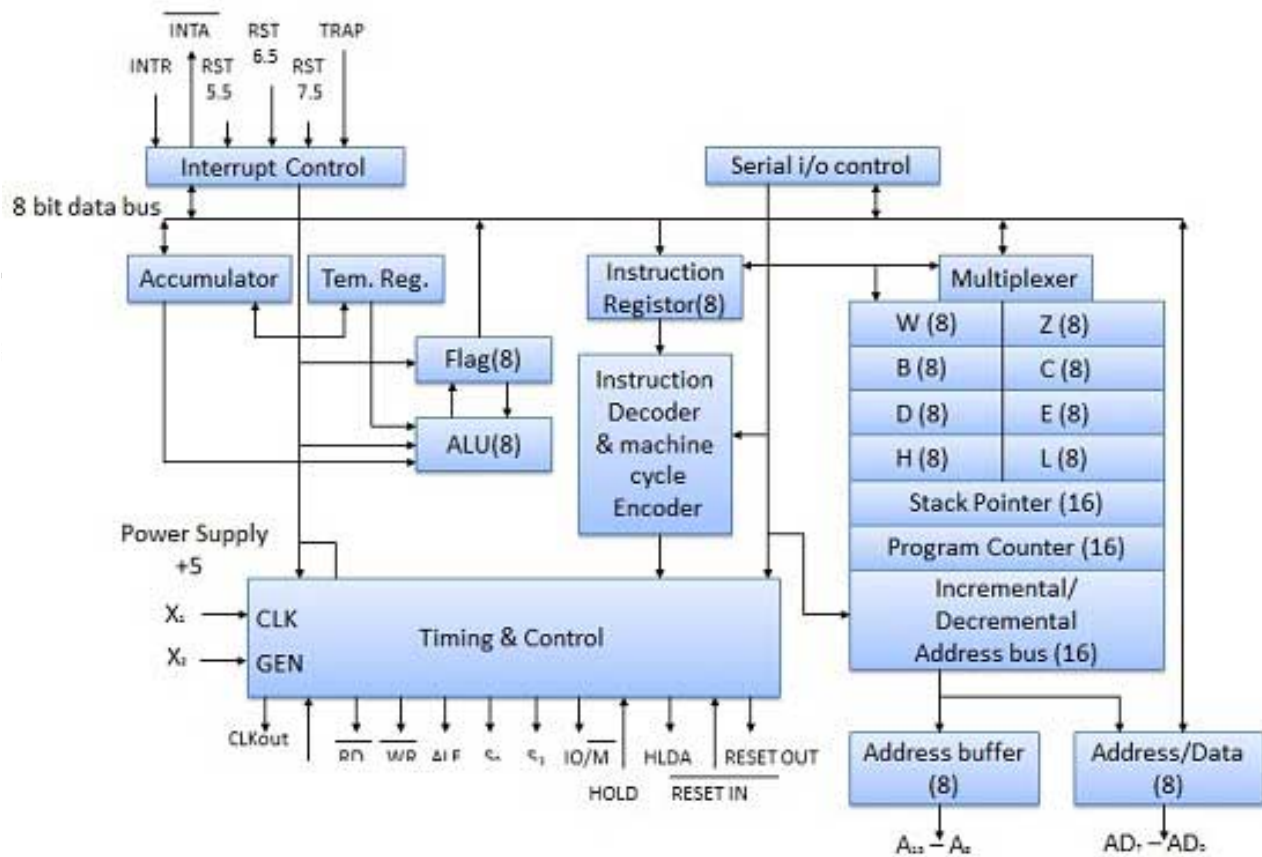
CPU Architecture

Microprocessing unit is synonymous to central processing unit, CPU used in traditional computer. Microprocessor (MPU) acts as a device or a group of devices which do the following tasks.

- communicate with peripherals devices
- provide timing signal
- direct data flow
- perform computer tasks as specified by the instructions in memory

8085 Microprocessor

The 8085 microprocessor is an 8-bit general purpose microprocessor which is capable to address 64k of memory. This processor has forty pins, requires +5 V single power supply and a 3-MHz single-phase clock.



Block Diagram

ALU

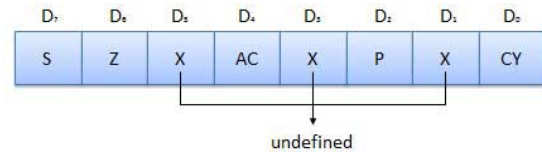
The ALU perform the computing function of microprocessor. It includes the accumulator, temporary register, arithmetic & logic circuit & and five flags. Result is stored in accumulator & flags.

Accumulator

It is an 8-bit register that is part of ALU. This register is used to store 8-bit data & in performing arithmetic & logic operation. The result of operation is stored in accumulator.

Flags

Flags are programmable. They can be used to store and transfer the data from the registers by using instruction. The ALU includes five flip-flops that are set and reset according to data condition in accumulator and other registers.



- **S (Sign) flag** – After the execution of an arithmetic operation, if bit D₇ of the result is 1, the sign flag is set. It is used to signed number. In a given byte, if D₇ is 1 means negative number. If it is zero means it is a positive number.
- **Z (Zero) flag** – The zero flag is set if ALU operation result is 0.
- **AC (Auxiliary Carry) flag** – In arithmetic operation, when carry is generated by digit D₃ and passed on to digit D₄, the AC flag is set. This flag is used only internally BCD operation.
- **P (Parity) flag** – After arithmetic or logic operation, if result has even number of 1s, the flag is set. If it has odd number of 1s, flag is reset.
- **C (Carry) flag** – If arithmetic operation result is in a carry, the carry flag is set, otherwise it is reset.

Register section

It is basically a storage device and transfers data from registers by using instructions.

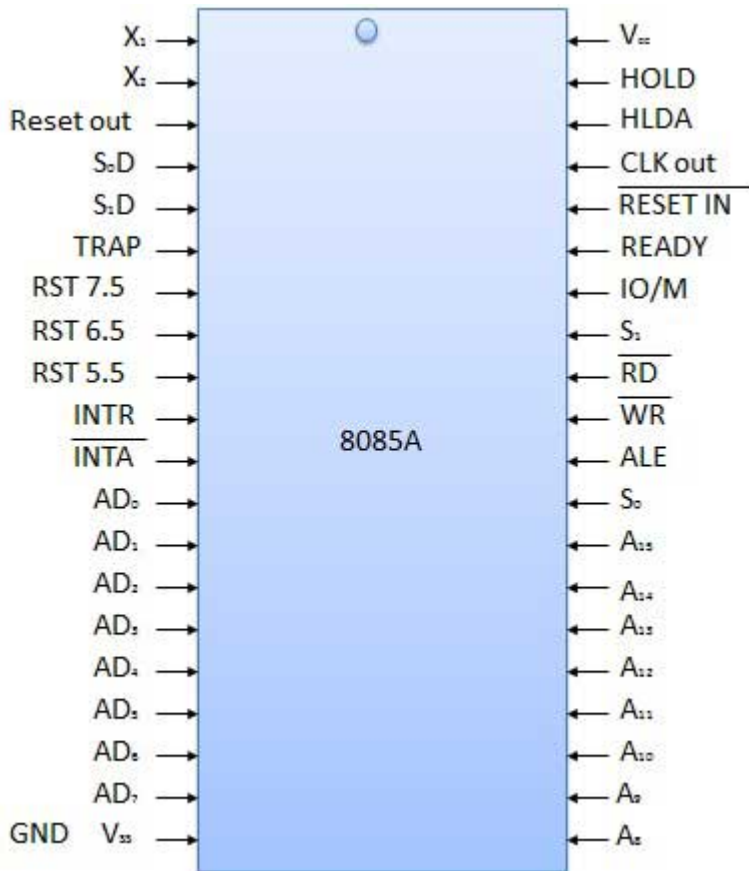
- **Stack Pointer (SP)** – The stack pointer is also a 16-bit register which is used as a memory pointer. It points to a memory location in Read/Write memory known as stack. In between execution of program, sometime data to be stored in stack. The beginning of the stack is defined by loading a 16-bit address in the stack pointer.
- **Program Counter (PC)** – This 16-bit register deals with fourth operation to sequence the execution of instruction. This register is also a memory pointer. Memory location have 16-bit address. It is used to store the execution address. The function of the program counter is to point to memory address from which next byte is to be fetched.
- **Storage registers** – These registers store 8-bit data during a program execution. These registers are identified as B, C, D, E, H, L. They can be combined as register pair BC, DE and HL to perform some 16 bit operations.

Time and Control Section

This unit is responsible to synchronize Microprocessor operation as per the clock pulse and to generate the control signals which are necessary for smooth communication between Microprocessor and peripherals devices. The RD bar and WR bar signals are synchronous pulses which indicates whether data is available on

the data bus or not. The control unit is responsible to control the flow of data between microprocessor, memory and peripheral devices.

PIN diagram



exam

All the signal can be classified into six groups

S.N.	Group	Description
1	Address bus	The 8085 microprocessor has 8 signal line, A ₁₅ - A ₈ which are uni directional and used as a high order address bus.
2	Data bus	The signal line AD ₇ - AD ₀ are bi-directional for dual purpose. They are used as low order address bus as well as data bus.
3	Control signal and Status signal	Control Signal RD bar – It is a read control signal (active low). If it is active then memory read the data.

		<p>WR bar – It is write control signal (active low). It is active when written into selected memory.</p> <p>Status signal</p> <p>ALU (Address Latch Enable) – When ALU is high. 8085 microprocessor use address bus. When ALU is low. 8085 microprocessor is use data bus.</p> <p>I/O bar – This is a status signal used to differentiate between i/o and memory operations. When it is high, it indicate an i/o operation and when it is low, it indicate memory operation.</p> <p>S₁ and S₀ – These status signals, similar to i/o and memory bar, can identify various operations, but they are rarely used in small system.</p>
4	Power supply and frequency signal	<p>V_{cc} – +5v power supply.</p> <p>V_{ss} – ground reference.</p> <p>X, X – A crystal is connected at these two pins. The frequency is internally divided by two operate system at 3-MHz, the crystal should have a frequency of 6-MHz.</p> <p>CLK out – This signal can be used as the system clock for other devices.</p>
5	Externally initiated signal	<p>INTR (i/p) – Interrupt request.</p> <p>INTA bar (o/p) – It is used as acknowledge interrupt.</p> <p>TRAP (i/p) – This is non maskable interrupt and has highest priority.</p> <p>HOLD (i/p) – It is used to hold the executing program.</p> <p>HLDA (o/p) – Hold acknowledge.</p> <p>READY (i/p) – This signal is used to delay the microprocessor read or write cycle until a slow responding peripheral is ready to accept or send data.</p> <p>RESET IN bar – When the signal on this pin goes low, the program counter is set to zero, the bus are tri-stated, & MPU is</p>

		<p>reset.</p> <p>RESET OUT – This signal indicate that MPU is being reset. The signal can be used to reset other devices.</p> <p>RST 7.5, RST 6.5, RST 5.5 (Request interrupt) – It is used to transfer the program control to specific memory location. They have higher priority than INTR interrupt.</p>
6	Serial I/O ports	The 8085 microprocessor has two signals to implement the serial transmission serial input data and serial output data.

Complement Arithmetic

Complements are used in the digital computers in order to simplify the subtraction operation and for the logical manipulations. For each radix-r system (radix r represents base of number system) there are two types of complements.

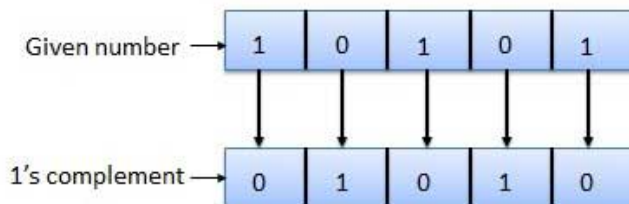
S.N.	Complement	Description
1	Radix Complement	The radix complement is referred to as the r's complement
2	Diminished Radix Complement	The diminished radix complement is referred to as the (r-1)'s complement

Binary system complements

As the binary system has base $r = 2$. So the two types of complements for the binary system are 2's complement and 1's complement.

1's complement

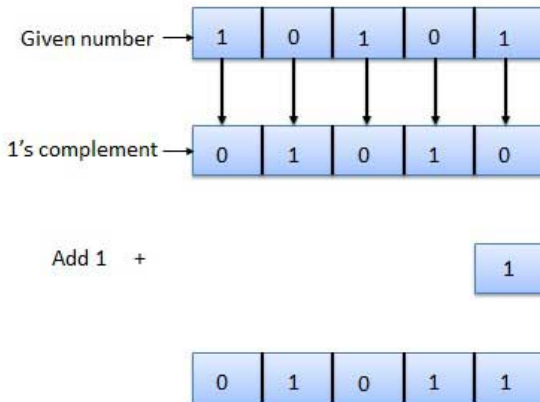
The 1's complement of a number is found by changing all 1's to 0's and all 0's to 1's. This is called as taking complement or 1's complement. Example of 1's Complement is as follows.



2's complement

The 2's complement of binary number is obtained by adding 1 to the Least Significant Bit (LSB) of 1's complement of the number.

2's complement = 1's complement + 1, Example of 2's Complement is as follows.



Boolean algebra:

Boolean Algebra is used to analyze and simplify the digital (logic) circuits. It uses only the binary numbers i.e. 0 and 1. It is also called as **Binary Algebra** or **logical Algebra**. Boolean algebra was invented by **George Boole** in 1854.

Boolean Laws

There are six types of Boolean Laws.

Commutative law

Any binary operation which satisfies the following expression is referred to as commutative operation.

$$(i) A \cdot B = B \cdot A \quad (ii) A + B = B + A$$

Commutative law states that changing the sequence of the variables does not have any effect on the output of a logic circuit.

Associative law

This law states that the order in which the logic operations are performed is irrelevant as their effect is the same.

$$(i) (A \cdot B) \cdot C = A \cdot (B \cdot C) \quad (ii) (A + B) + C = A + (B + C)$$

Distributive law

Distributive law states the following condition.

$$A.(B + C) = A.B + A.C$$

AND law

These laws use the AND operation. Therefore they are called as **AND** laws.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{(i) } A.0 = 0 & \text{(ii) } A.1 = A \\ \text{(iii) } A.A = A & \text{(iv) } A.\bar{A} = 0 \end{array}$$

OR law

These laws use the OR operation. Therefore they are called as **OR** laws.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{(i) } A + 0 = A & \text{(ii) } A + 1 = 1 \\ \text{(iii) } A + A = A & \text{(iv) } A + \bar{A} = 1 \end{array}$$

INVERSION law

This law uses the NOT operation. The inversion law states that double inversion of a variable results in the original variable itself.

$$\bar{\bar{A}} = A$$



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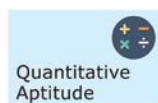
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