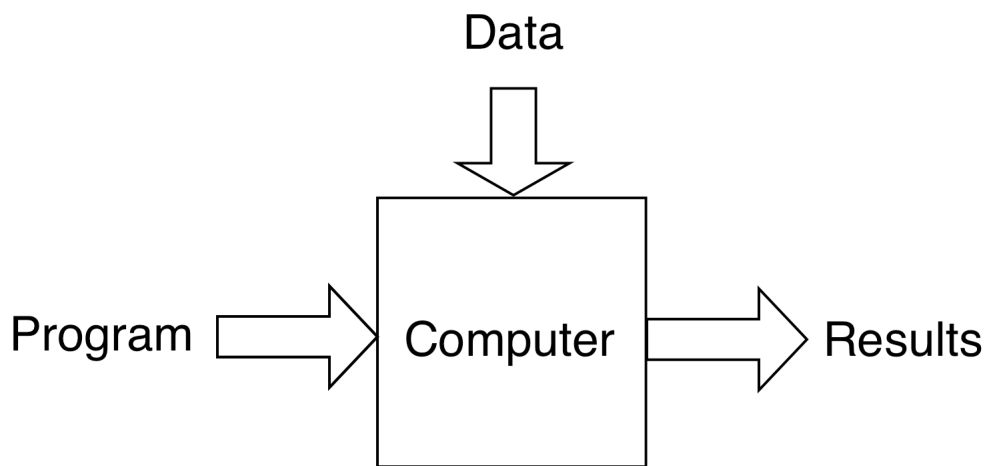


Computer Organization

Introduction

Here are some natural questions:

How does a computer execute a program?



What is there inside a computer?

Do all computer have identical hardware ?

What is the difference between a PC and a Mac?

Technologies

A computer is an instruction-execution engine.

Different hardware technologies are possible:

- Mechanical
- Pneumatic
- Electronic
- Quantum
- Biological

We will focus on **electronic technology** only, which is the most common technology used today. It primarily uses **silicon-based integrated circuits**.

Classification

General purpose

Your PC

Special purpose

The computers in your car

The computer in your cell phone

The computer inside your camera

The computer in your washing machine

Partial History of modern day computers

Eckert and Mauchley

Moore School of the U. of Pennsylvania, ENIAC

John Von Neumann

Princeton U.

EDVAC, the [blueprint](#) of the [first stored program digital computer](#)

Maurice Wilkes

Cambridge U., EDSAC, the [first operational stored-program digital computer](#)

John Vincent Atanasoff

Iowa State University

Designed a machine in 1939-1940 to solve differential equations. Recognition came much later.

Generations

First generation: vacuum tubes

Second generation: transistors

Third generation: integrated circuits

Fourth generation: LSI and VLSI

Units of time

1 second

1 millisecond (ms) = 10^{-3} second

1 microsecond (μ s) = 10^{-6} second

1 nanosecond (ns) = 10^{-9} second

1 picosecond (ps) = 10^{-12} second

Questions

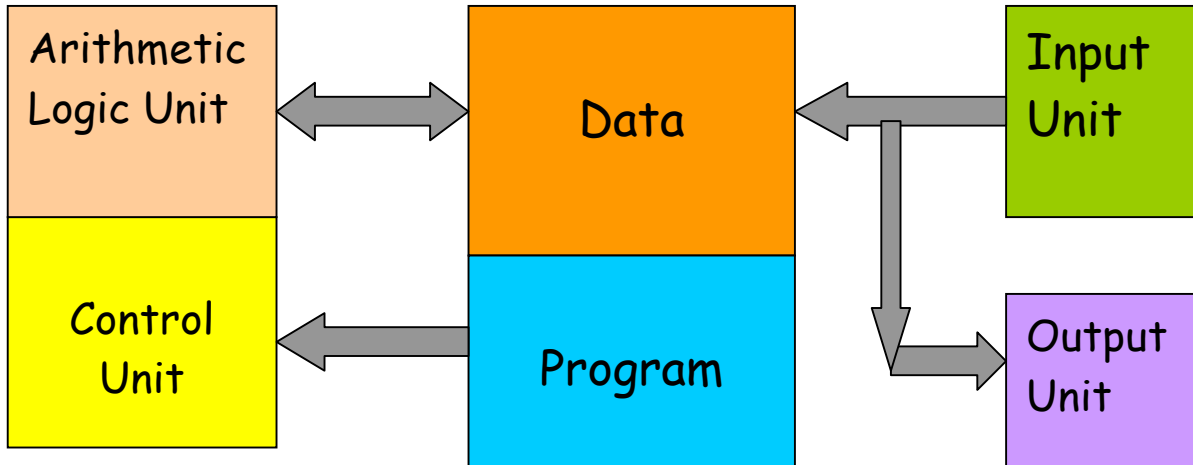
My PC has a 3 GHz clock. What does the clock do?

How much time does it take to add two integers?

How much time does your computer take to read a 1 MB (megabyte) file from a disk?

What distance does an electronic signal travel in 1 nanosecond?

A Basic Digital Computer



CPU or Processor

MEMORY

I/O

There are different ways of designing the "boxes" or the functional units. At the upper level, we care only about the functionality and not so much about their internal construction.

Measuring the Speed

MIPS = Million Instructions Per Second

MFLOPS = Million FLOating point ops Per Sec

GFLOPS = Billion (Giga) FLOating point ops Per Sec

TERAFLOPS = Trillion FLOating point ops Per Sec

PETAFLOPS = 10^{15} FLOating point ops Per Sec

What do we do with a TERAFL0P or a PETAFL0P machine? Do we have enough work for them (other than playing video games)?

Laws of Hardware

- Signals cannot travel faster than the speed of light.
- Memory is always slower than the CPU.
- Software is slower than hardware.

Moore's Law.

The packaging density of transistors on an integrated circuit increases **2x** every 18 months.

Gates Law.

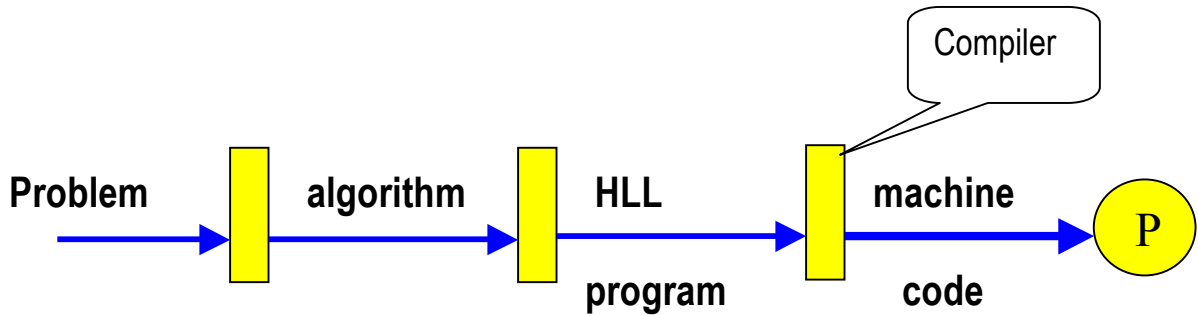
The speed of software halves every 18 months

(Microsoft is the worst offender. Software bloat almost compensates for hardware improvement due to Moore's law).

Amdahl's law

Concerned with the speedup achievable from an improvement to a computation that affects a fraction of that computation.

Factors influencing computer performance



How fast can you solve a problem on a machine?

Depends on

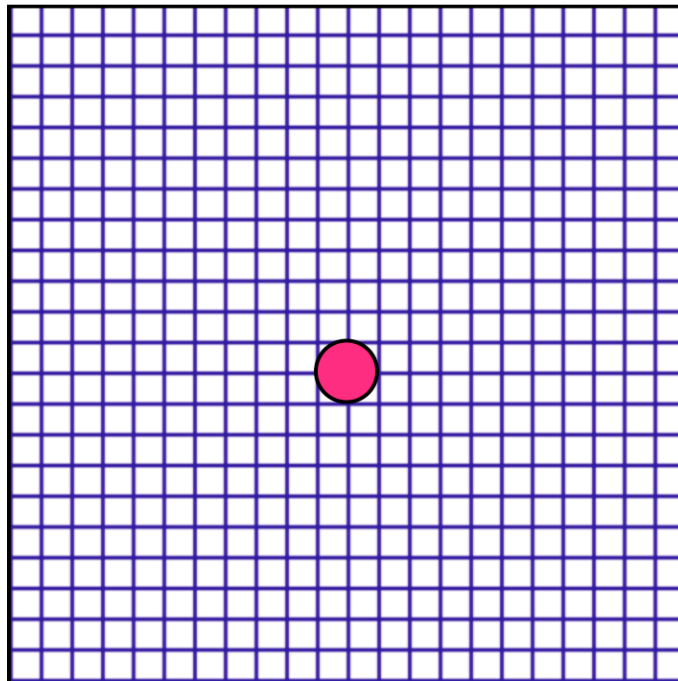
- The algorithm used
- The HLL program code
- The efficiency of the compiler

And, of course, it also depends on the target machine. If the algorithm is lousy, then do not blame the computer!

Assembly Language Programming

Program a robot

It should move on a 2D plane, or sometimes jump
(without moving)



What should a typical program look like?

How will you encode it?

How will the robot understand your language?

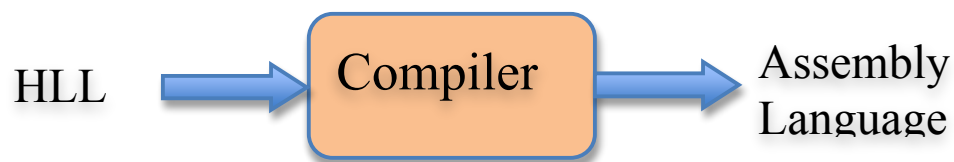
High-level vs. Assembly language

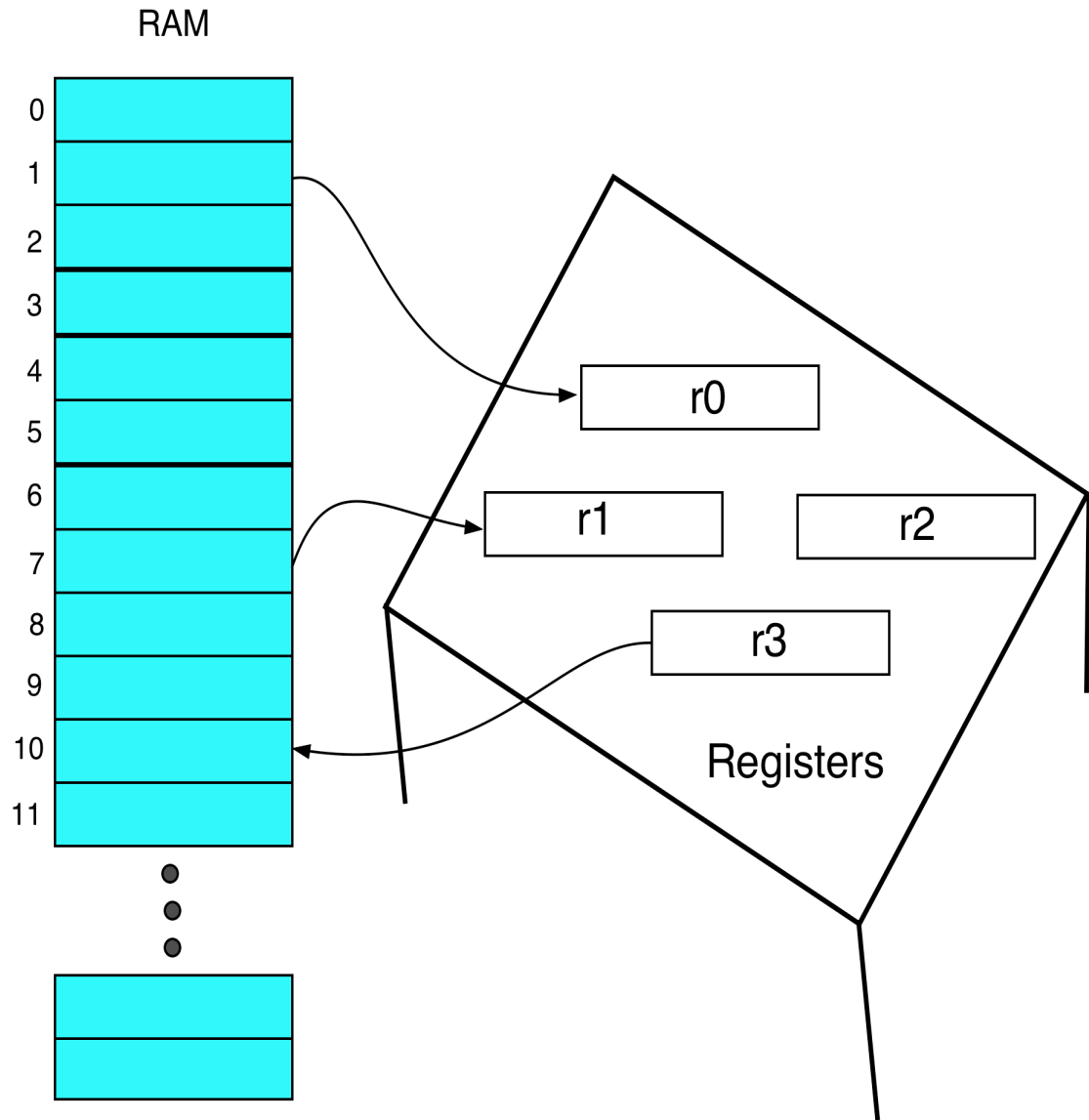
Consider the following statements

```
1.  a = x + y - z
2.  if x > y
      then x := x + y
      else x := x - y
```

HLL (High Level Language) programs are machine independent. They are easy to learn, easy to use, and convenient for managing complex tasks.

Assembly language programs are machine specific. It is the language that the processor "directly" understands.





Memory can be viewed
as a bookshelf

View registers as
spaces on your table

Understanding Assembly Language

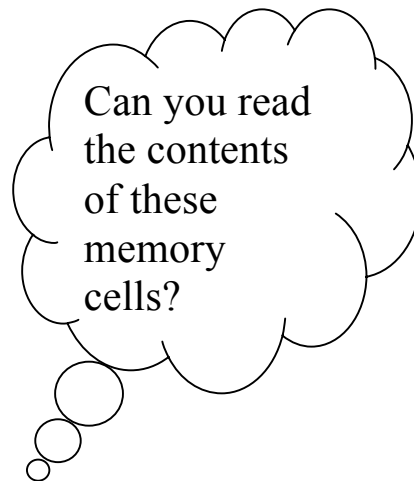
Let us begin with data representation. How to represent

- Signed integers
- Fractions
- Alphanumeric characters
- Floating point numbers
- Pictures?

Review

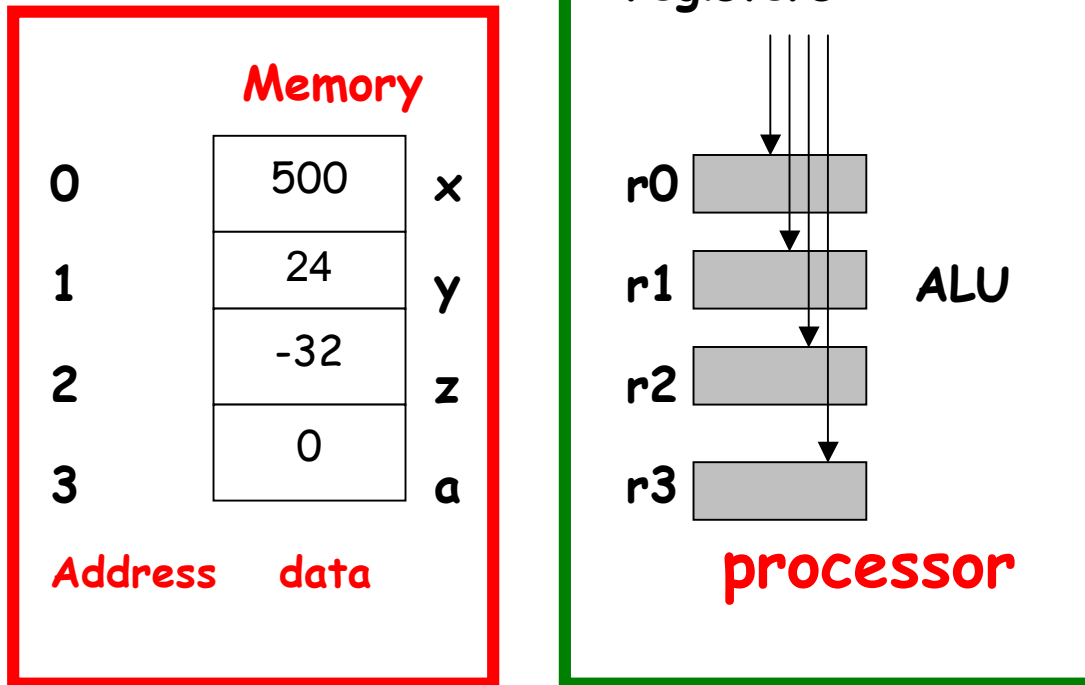
Memory

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



Visualizing instruction execution

(The main concept is register-transfer operation.)



A register is a fast storage within the CPU

$a = x + y - z$ \Rightarrow

- load x into r1
- load y into r2
- load z into r0
- $r3 \leftarrow r1 + r2$
- $r0 \leftarrow r3 - r0$
- store r0 into a

Assembly language instructions for a hypothetical machine (not MIPS)

```
Load x, r1
Load y, r2
Load z, r0
Add r3, r1, r2
Sub r0, r3, r0
Store r0, a
```

Each processor has a different set of registers, and different assembly language instructions. The assembly language instructions of Intel Pentium and MIPS are completely different.

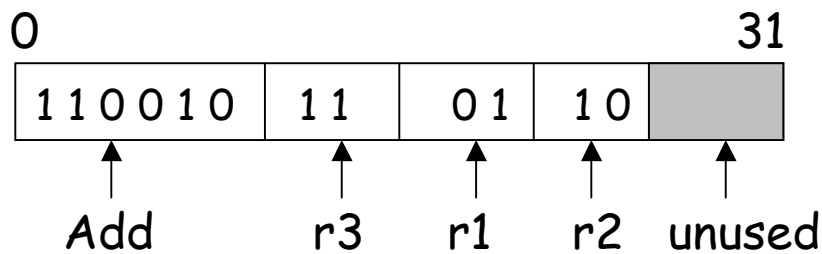
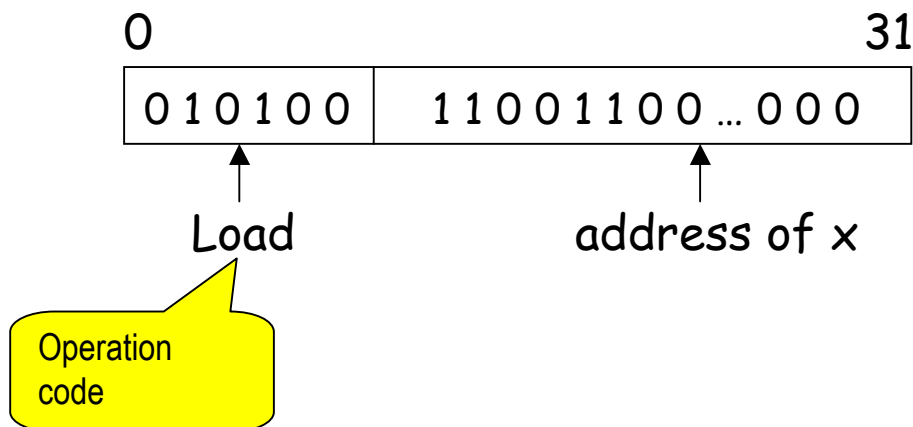
Motorola 68000 has 16 registers r0-r15

MIPS has 32 registers r0-r31

Pentium has 8 general purpose & 6 segment registers.

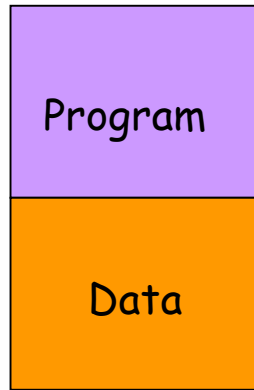
Binary or Machine Language program

Both program and data are represented **using only 0's and 1's** inside a computer. Here is a sample:



These are **instruction formats**. Each instruction has a specific format.

Can we distinguish program from data?



Both are bit strings.
Indistinguishable.

MEMORY

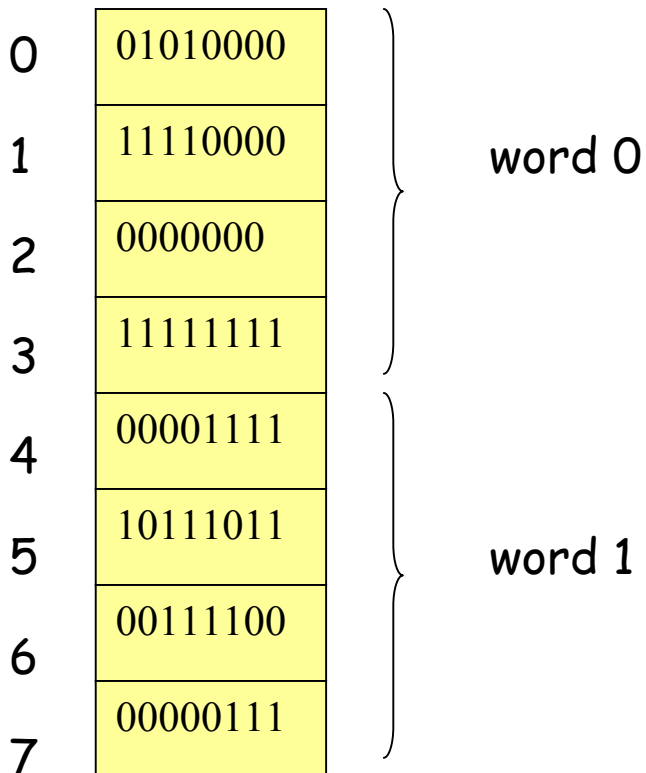
Normally, the programmer has to tell the machine (or use some convention) to specify the address of the first instruction. Incorrect specification will lead to errors, and the program is most likely to crash.

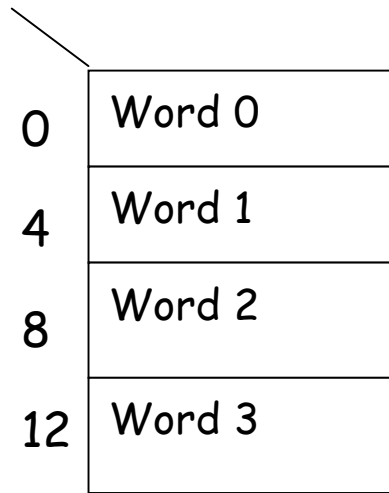
Bits, bytes, words

Bit: 0, 1

Byte: string of 8 bits. Each byte has an address.

Word: one or more bytes (usually 2 or 4 or 8).





Byte order in a word

Big Endian order [byte 0, byte 1, byte 2, byte 3]

Little Endian order [byte 3, byte 2, byte 1, byte 0]

Registers vs. memory

Data can be stored in **registers or memory locations**. **Memory access is slower (takes approximately 50 ns) than register access (takes approximately 1 ns or less)**.

To increase the speed of computation it pays to keep the variables in registers as long as possible. However, due to technology limitations, the number of registers is quite limited (typically 8-64).

MIPS registers

MIPS has 32 registers r0-r31. The conventional use of these registers is as follows:

register	assembly name	Comment
r0	\$zero	Always 0
r1	\$at	Reserved for assembler
r2-r3	\$v0-\$v1	Stores results
r4-r7	\$a0-\$a3	Stores arguments
r8-r15	\$t0-\$t7	Temporaries, not saved
r16-r23	\$s0-\$s7	Contents saved for later use
r24-r25	\$t8-\$t9	More temporaries, not saved
r26-r27	\$k0-\$k1	Reserved by operating system
r28	\$gp	Global pointer
r29	\$sp	Stack pointer
r30	\$fp	Frame pointer
r31	\$ra	Return address

Example assembly language programs

Example 1 $f = g + h - i$

Assume that f, g, h, i are assigned to $\$s0, \$s1, \$s2, \$s3$

add \$t0, \$s1, \$s2	# register \$t0 contains $g + h$
sub \$s0, \$t0, \$s3	# $f = g + h - i$

Example 2. $g = h + A[8]$

Assume that g, h are in $\$s1, \$s2$. A is an array of words, the elements are stored in consecutive locations of the memory. The base address is stored in $\$s3$.

lw t0, 32(\$s3)	# t0 gets $A[8]$, $32 = 4 \times 8$
add \$s1, \$s2, \$t0	# $g = h + A[8]$

Machine language representations

Instruction "add" belongs to the **R-type format**.

opcode	rs	rt	rd	shift amt	function
6	5	5	5	5	6
	↑	↑	↑		
	src	src	dst		

add \$s1, \$s2, \$t0 will be coded as

0	18	8	17	0	32
6	5	5	5	5	6

The function field is an extension of the opcode, and they together determine the operation.

Note that "sub" has a similar format.