Computer Organization

Computer Organization: An Overview

Computer Memory

Computer Processor

Implementing Computers
Computer Organization: An Overview
The Von Neumann Architecture (1945)

Also known as the stored-program architecture
A computer is a machine that

(1) stores a very, very large number of numbers and

(2) performs very, very long specified sequences of very simple operations on these numbers

(3) very, very fast.
There are two main principles of computer organization:

1. **Levels of Abstraction**: A complex system can be described as a hierarchy of levels, where collections of interacting entities at one level are encapsulated in a single entity at a higher level (see Textbook, Figure 5.1, p. 223).

2. **Internal vs. External Representation**: Within a complex system, the representations used internally by an entity to perform its functions need not be those with which it interacts externally with other entities.
The Von Neumann Architecture: An Abstract View

**Figure 5.2** Components of the Von Neumann Architecture
The Von Neumann Architecture: A Detailed View

Figure 5.18 The Organization of a Von Neumann Computer
The Von Neumann Architecture: An Operational View

The Von Neumann Execution Cycle:

repeat
   Fetch next instruction
   Decode instruction
   Execute instruction
Computer Memory: Overview

- Focus here on (volatile) Random-Access Memory (RAM), cf. (non-volatile) Read-Only Memory (ROM).
- Three characteristics of RAM:
  1. Divided into fixed-width cells, each of which has a unique unsigned-integer address $0, 1, 2, \ldots, \text{MAX}$ (address space).
  2. The cell is the minimal unit of fetch / store access.
  3. All cells have the same access time.
- Crucial to distinguish a memory address and the contents of memory at a particular address, e.g.,

  $\text{address} \implies 5743_{10}: -29_{10} \leftarrow \text{contents}$
Computer Memory: Overview (Cont’d)

- Standard cell-width $W = 8$ bits (byte); standard address = 32 or 64 bits; standard access time $\approx 5$-10 nanoseconds.
- Memory size stated in terms of number of bytes:

  - Kilobyte (KB) $= 10^3$ (thousand) bytes
  - Megabyte (MB) $= 10^6$ (million) bytes
  - Gigabyte (GB) $= 10^9$ (billion) bytes
  - Terabyte (TB) $= 10^{12}$ (trillion) bytes
  - Petabyte (PB) $= 10^{15}$ (quadrillion) bytes
  - Exabyte (EB) $= 10^{18}$ (quintillion) bytes
  - ...
Computer Memory: Overview (Cont’d)

- All communication done via the **Memory Address Register (MAR)** and the **Memory Data Register (MDR)**.
- Two basic operations:
  - **Fetch(address):**
    1. Load address into MAR
    2. Decode address in MAR
    3. Copy cell contents at address into MDR
  - **Store(address, value):**
    1. Load address into MAR
    2. Load value into MDR
    3. Decode address in MAR
    4. Copy MDR value into addressed cell
Computer Memory: Internal Structure (1D Abstract)

Figure 5.3
Structure of Random Access Memory
Computer Memory: Internal Structure (1D)

Figure 5.5 Organization of Memory and the Decoding Logic
Computer Memory: Internal Structure (2D Abstract)

Figure 5.6 Two-Dimensional Memory Address Organization
Computer Memory: Internal Structure (2D)

Figure 5.7
Overall RAM Organization
Computer Memory: The Memory Hierarchy

Memory speed lags behind CPU speed

Processor vs. Memory performance gap
Computer Memory:  
The Memory Hierarchy (Cont’d)

Deal with processor / memory speed differences as follows:

1. **Registers**: Communicate with(in) processor; contain currently-executed instruction and data and associated information.

2. **Cache**: Communicates with registers and primary; uses principle of locality to pre-load anticipated instructions and data from primary.

3. **Primary**: Communicates with cache and secondary; contains programs being executed and their data.

4. **Secondary**: Communicates with primary; contains all programs and data of interest.

I/O interface devices, e.g., keyboards, screens, are treated as secondary memory devices.
Computer Memory: The Memory Hierarchy (Cont’d)
Computer Memory: The Memory Hierarchy (Cont’d)

• Deal with very large access-time difference between primary and secondary memory using an I/O controller, a special-purpose computer consisting of one or more I/O buffers and associated control logic.

• When fetching from secondary, the I/O controller loads data from the appropriate device into the buffer and, when full, sends the buffer’s contents to the processor.

• When storing to secondary, the I/O controller loads data from the processor into the buffer and sends the buffer’s contents to the appropriate device.

• Special interrupt signals used to let the processor know when I/O operations are done.
Computer Memory:
The Memory Hierarchy (Cont’d)

Figure 5.9
Organization of an I/O Controller
Computer Processor: Overview

Two main parts:

1. **Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU)**: Performs arithmetic and logical operations.

2. **Control Unit**: Handles interpretation and execution of program instructions. This involves directing the operations of the ALU and memory as well as interacting with the I/O controller.

Both the ALU and the Control Unit have their own associated groups of special-purpose registers associated with their internal operations.
Computer Processor: The Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU)

- Two types of ALU registers:
  1. **Value Registers (R0, R1, R2, ...)**: A set of 16–128 registers which contain data for current and upcoming operations as well as intermediate results.
  2. **Condition Code Register (CCR)**: A collection of bits specifying the results (1 if true, 0 if false) of the most recently executed value comparison, e.g., LT (less-than), EQ (equal-to), GT (greater-than).

- Value registers communicate with memory and the ALU and can be specified as either the left or right operand.
- The CCR communicates with the ALU, which passes the value of any condition-bit as requested to the control unit.
Computer Processor:
The Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU) (Cont’d)

Figure 5.11 Multiregister ALU Organization
Computer Processor:
The Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU) (Cont’d)

Figure 5.13 Overall ALU Organization
Computer Processor: The Control Unit

- Two Control Unit registers:
  1. **Program Counter (PC)**: Holds address in memory of next instruction to be executed.
  2. **Instruction Register (IR)**: Holds the current instruction being executed. This includes not only the op-code (IR\textsubscript{op}) but the addresses of the instruction operands (IR\textsubscript{add}, e.g., memory / ALU value registers).

- Instruction decoder circuitry uses the the \( k \)-bit opcode in the instruction in the IR to specify the appropriate one of the \( 2^k \) signals to that instruction’s execution circuitry and/or other computer components.
Figure 5.16
Organization of the Control Unit Registers and Circuits
Computer Processor: Machine Language

- An instruction = op-code + 0–3 address fields, e.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>op-code</th>
<th>address-1</th>
<th>address-2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>000101</td>
<td>000000110011</td>
<td>000010001100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMPARE</td>
<td>Addr1</td>
<td>Addr2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Is part of either Reduced or Complex Instruction Set Computer (RISC / CISC) machine language; differ in tradeoff of required hardware vs. resulting program size.
Computer Processor: 
Machine Language (Cont’d)

Four types of machine language instructions:

1. **Data Transfer**: Move values between memory cells and/or ALU registers, e.g., LOAD Addr1, LOAD Addr2, MOVE Addr1 Addr2.

2. **Arithmetic**: Perform arithmetic / logical operations on values in memory cells and/or ALU registers, e.g., ADD Addr1 Addr2 Addr3, ADD Addr1 Addr2.

3. **Comparison**: Compare two values and set CCR bits, e.g., COMPARE Addr1 Addr2.

4. **Branch**: Alter next instruction to be executed (often on basis of preceding comparison), e.g., JUMP Addr1, JUMPGT Addr1, HALT.
Computer Processor:
Machine Language (Cont’d)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>100</th>
<th>value of a</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>101</td>
<td>value of b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>102</td>
<td>value of c</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

... set $a$ to value of $b + c$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>50</th>
<th>LOAD 101</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>51</td>
<td>ADD 102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>STORE 100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

... if $a > b$ then

set $c$ to value of $a$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>60</th>
<th>COMPARE 100 101</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>61</td>
<td>JUMPGT 64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

else

set $c$ to value of $b$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>62</th>
<th>MOVE 100 102</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>63</td>
<td>JUMP 65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>MOVE 100 102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Von Neumann Architecture: A Detailed View Redux

Figure 5.18 The Organization of a Von Neumann Computer
The Von Neumann Architecture: An Operational View Redux

The Von Neumann Execution Cycle:

while no **HALT** or fatal error do
  Fetch next instruction
  Decode instruction
  Execute instruction

- Let us consider the details of this cycle in the context of a 16-instruction RISC machine language for a computer with a single-register ALU.
### The Von Neumann Architecture: An Operational View Redux (Cont’d)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OC</th>
<th>Instruction</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>LOAD Addr</td>
<td>( CON(Addr) \rightarrow R )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>STORE Addr</td>
<td>( R \rightarrow CON(Addr) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>CLEAR Addr</td>
<td>( 0 \rightarrow CON(Addr) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>ADD Addr</td>
<td>( R + CON(Addr) \rightarrow R )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>INCREMENT Addr</td>
<td>( CON(Addr) + 1 \rightarrow CON(Addr) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>SUBTRACT Addr</td>
<td>( R - CON(Addr) \rightarrow R )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>DECREMENT Addr</td>
<td>( CON(Addr) - 1 \rightarrow CON(Addr) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>COMPARE Addr</td>
<td>if ( CON(Addr) &gt; R ) then ( GT = 1 ) else 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>if ( CON(Addr) = R ) then ( EQ = 1 ) else 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>if ( CON(Addr) &lt; R ) then ( LT = 1 ) else 0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### The Von Neumann Architecture: An Operational View Redux (Cont’d)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OC</th>
<th>Instruction</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>JUMP Addr</td>
<td>Addr $\rightarrow$ PC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>JUMPGT Addr</td>
<td>if $GT = 1$ then Addr $\rightarrow$ PC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>JUMPEQ Addr</td>
<td>if $EQ = 1$ then Addr $\rightarrow$ PC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>JUMPLT Addr</td>
<td>if $LT = 1$ then Addr $\rightarrow$ PC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>JUMPNEQ Addr</td>
<td>if $EQ = 0$ then Addr $\rightarrow$ PC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>IN Addr</td>
<td>Store input value at Addr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>OUT Addr</td>
<td>Output $CON(Addr)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>HALT</td>
<td>Stop program execution</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

See page 261 of textbook for notations in “Meaning” column.
The Von Neumann Architecture: An Operational View Redux (Cont’d)

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
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<tbody>
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<tr>
<td>102</td>
<td>value of c</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

if \( a > b \) then

set \( c \) to value of \( a \)

else

set \( c \) to value of \( b \)
The Von Neumann Architecture: An Operational View Redux

Details of the three phases of the Von Neumann cycle:

1. **Fetch next instruction**: Load next instruction into IR and update PC, i.e.,
   
   1. \( PC \rightarrow MAR \)
   2. \( FETCH \)
   3. \( MDR \rightarrow IR \)
   4. \( PC + 1 \rightarrow PC \)

2. **Decode instruction**: Determine which circuitry must be activated to execute the instruction, i.e.,
   
   1. \( IR_{op} \rightarrow \text{instruction decoder} \)
3. **Execute instruction**: Trigger the unique circuitry required to execute the instruction, e.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instruction</th>
<th>1.</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>4.</th>
<th>5.</th>
<th>6.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LOAD Addr</td>
<td>$IR_{addr} \rightarrow MAR$</td>
<td>$FETCH$</td>
<td>$MDR \rightarrow R$</td>
<td>$R \rightarrow MDR$</td>
<td>$STORE$</td>
<td>$ADD$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STORE Addr</td>
<td>$IR_{addr} \rightarrow MAR$</td>
<td>$R \rightarrow MDR$</td>
<td>$STORE$</td>
<td>$MDR \rightarrow ALU$</td>
<td>$R \rightarrow ALU$</td>
<td>$ADD$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADD Addr</td>
<td>$IR_{addr} \rightarrow MAR$</td>
<td>$FETCH$</td>
<td>$MDR \rightarrow ALU$</td>
<td>$R \rightarrow ALU$</td>
<td>$ADD$</td>
<td>$ALU \rightarrow R$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Implementing Computers: Beginnings

SSEM ("Baby")
(1948, U. Manchester)

EDSAC
(1949, U. Cambridge)

SSEM and EDSAC were world’s first operational electronic stored-program computers.
Implementing Computers: Mainframes

IBM System/360 (1967)
Implementing Computers: Minicomputers

PDP I (1960)

PDP 8 (1965)
Implementing Computers: Memory


Massive cheap transistor-based storage possible in 1990s.
Implementing Computers: I/O Interfaces

Punch card / tape (1940s)

Teletype (1940s)

CRT Display (1940s)
Implementing Computers: Microprocessors

Instead of being a little mainframe, the PC is, in fact, more like an incredibly big chip. – Robert X. Cringely

The microprocessor was invented by Ted Hoff in 1971.
Implementing Computers: Microcomputers

Implementing Computers: Non-Von Neumann Architectures

Based on massively parallel instruction execution by multiple processors (CM-2) or quantum entanglement (DWave 2000Q).
...And If You Liked This...

- MUN Computer Science courses on this area:
  - COMP 2003: Computer Architecture
  - COMP 4723: Introduction to Microprocessors
- MUN Computer Science professors teaching courses / doing research in in this area:
  - Rod Byrne
  - Ashoke Deb
  - Paul Gillard (Retired)