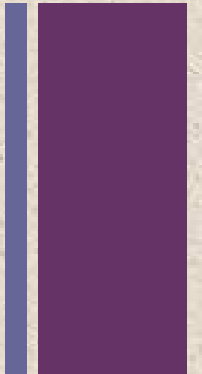


# Computer Organization and Architecture

## Week 5



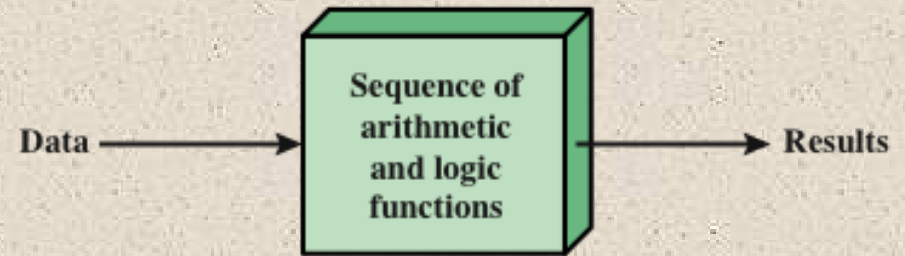
# Computer Components



- Virtually all contemporary computer designs are based on concepts developed by John von Neumann at the Institute for Advanced Studies, Princeton
- Referred to as the *von Neumann architecture* and is based on three key concepts:
  - Data and instructions are stored in a single read-write memory
  - The contents of this memory are addressable by location, without regard to the type of data contained there
  - Execution occurs in a sequential fashion (unless explicitly modified) from one instruction to the next
- *Hardwired program*
  - The result of the process of connecting the various components in the desired configuration as a form of programming.
  - The resulting “program” is in the form of hardware and is termed a hardwired program

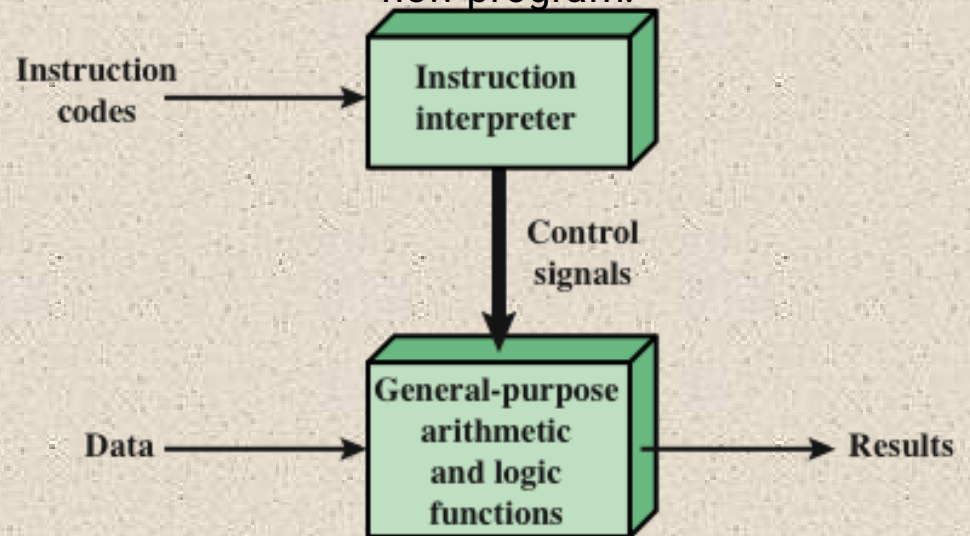


# Hardware and Software Approaches



(a) Programming in hardware

With general-purpose hardware, the system accepts data (configuration of arithmetic and logic functions) and control signals and produces results. Rewiring the hardware for each new program.



(b) Programming in software

The entire program is actually a sequence of steps. At each step, some arithmetic or logical operation is performed on some data.

For each step, a new set of control signals is needed. Let us provide a unique code for each possible set of control signals, and let us add to the general-purpose hardware a segment that can accept a code and generate control signals

**Figure 3.1 Hardware and Software Approaches**

# Software

Programming is now much easier. Instead of rewiring the hardware for each new program

- A sequence of codes or instructions
- Part of the hardware interprets each instruction and generates control signals
- Provide a new sequence of codes for each new program instead of rewiring the hardware

## Major components:

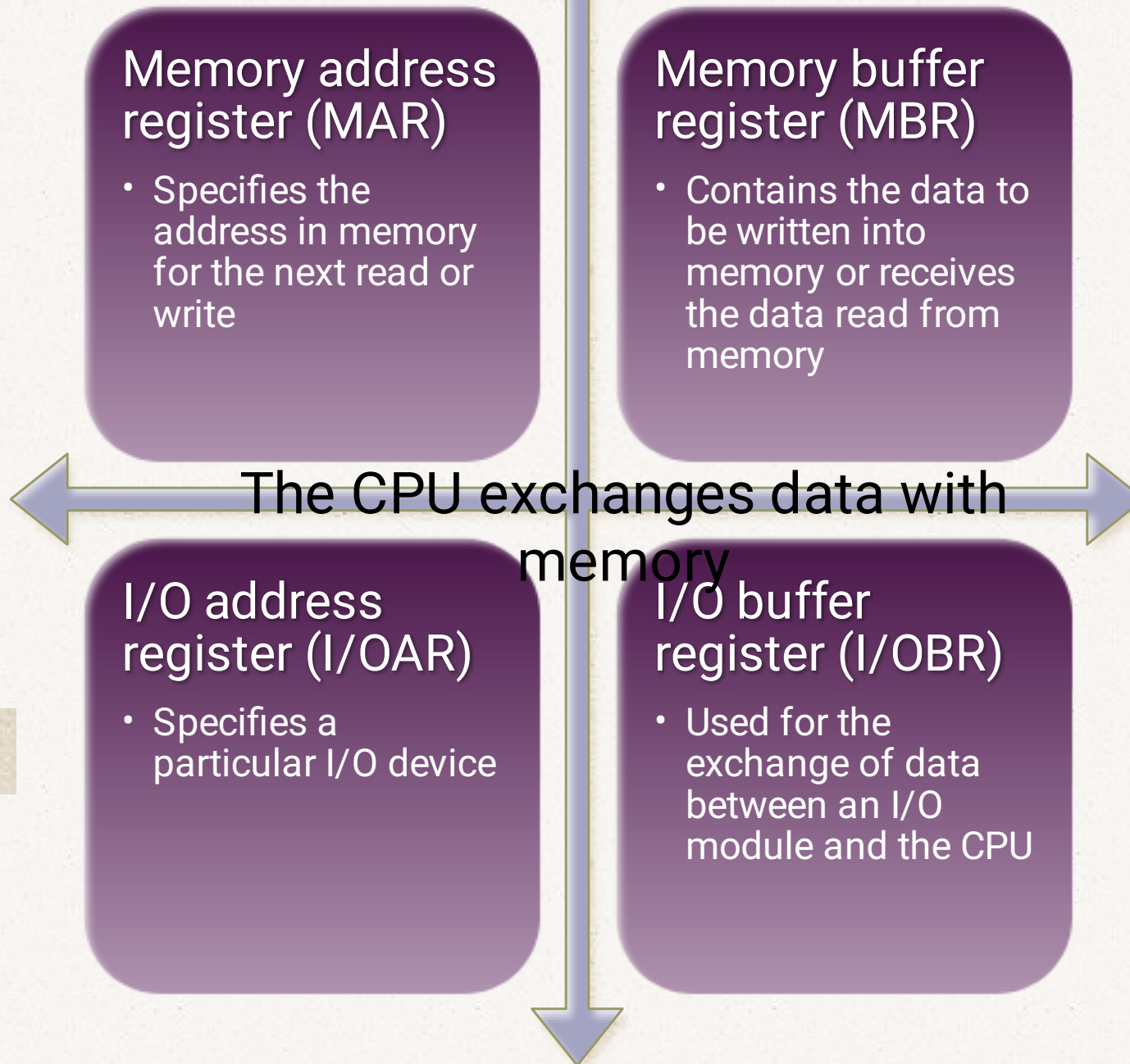
- CPU
  - Instruction interpreter
  - Module of general-purpose arithmetic and logic functions
- I/O Components
  - Input module
    - Contains basic components for accepting data and instructions and converting them into an internal form of signals usable by the system
  - Output module
    - Means of reporting results

Software

I/O  
Components



One more component is needed. An input device will bring instructions and data in sequentially. But a program is not invariably executed sequentially; it may jump around



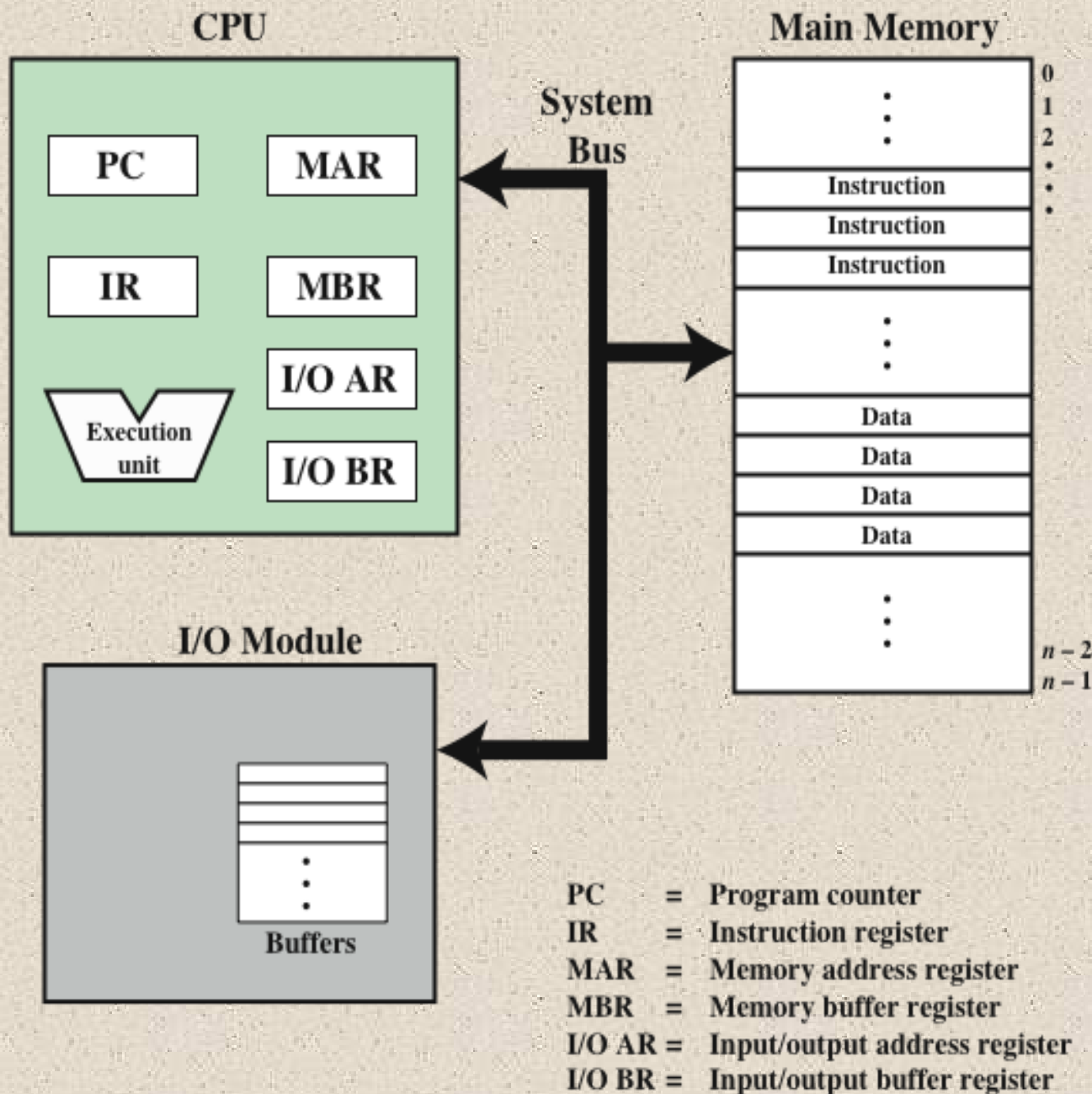
Operations on data may require access to more than just one element at a time in a predetermined sequence and must be a place to store temporarily both instructions and data.

MEMORY

MAR

MBR



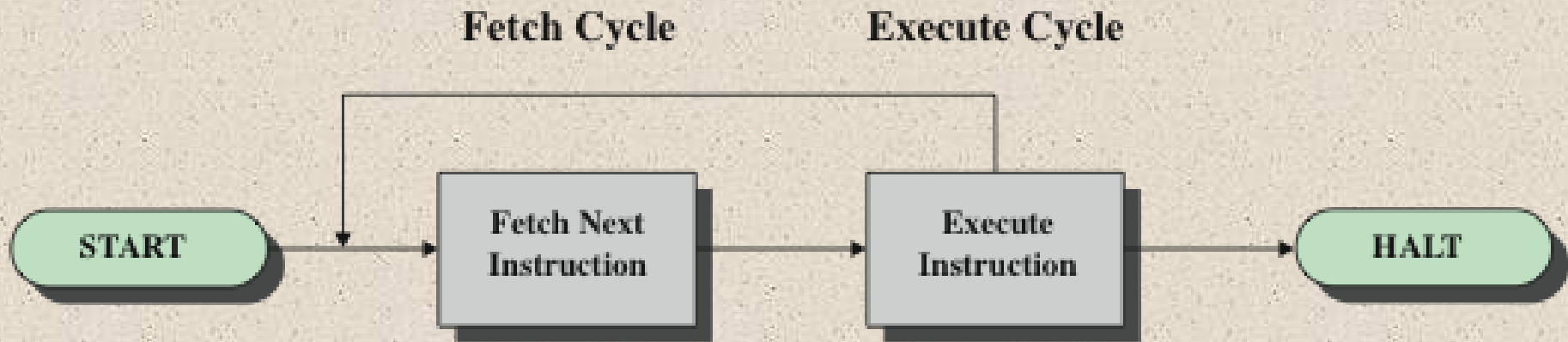


## Computer Components: Top Level View

A memory module consists of a set of locations, defined by sequentially numbered addresses. Each location contains a binary number that can be interpreted as either an instruction or data. An I/O module transfers data from external devices to CPU and memory, and vice versa. It contains internal buffers for temporarily holding these data until they can be sent on.

Figure 3.2 Computer Components: Top-Level View

# + Basic Instruction Cycle

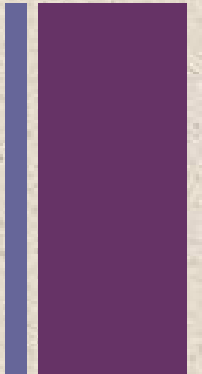


Program execution halts only if the machine is turned off, some sort of unrecoverable error occurs, or a program instruction that halts the computer is encountered.

**Figure 3.3 Basic Instruction Cycle**



# Fetch Cycle



- At the beginning of each instruction cycle the processor fetches an instruction from memory
- In a typical processor, a register called the program counter (PC) holds the address of the instruction to be fetched next
- The processor increments the PC after each instruction fetch so that it will fetch the next instruction in sequence
- For example, consider a computer in which each instruction occupies one 16-bit word of memory. Assume that the program counter is set to memory location 300, where the location address refers to a 16-bit word. The processor will next fetch the instruction at location 300. On succeeding instruction cycles, it will fetch instructions from locations 301, 302, 303, and so on..





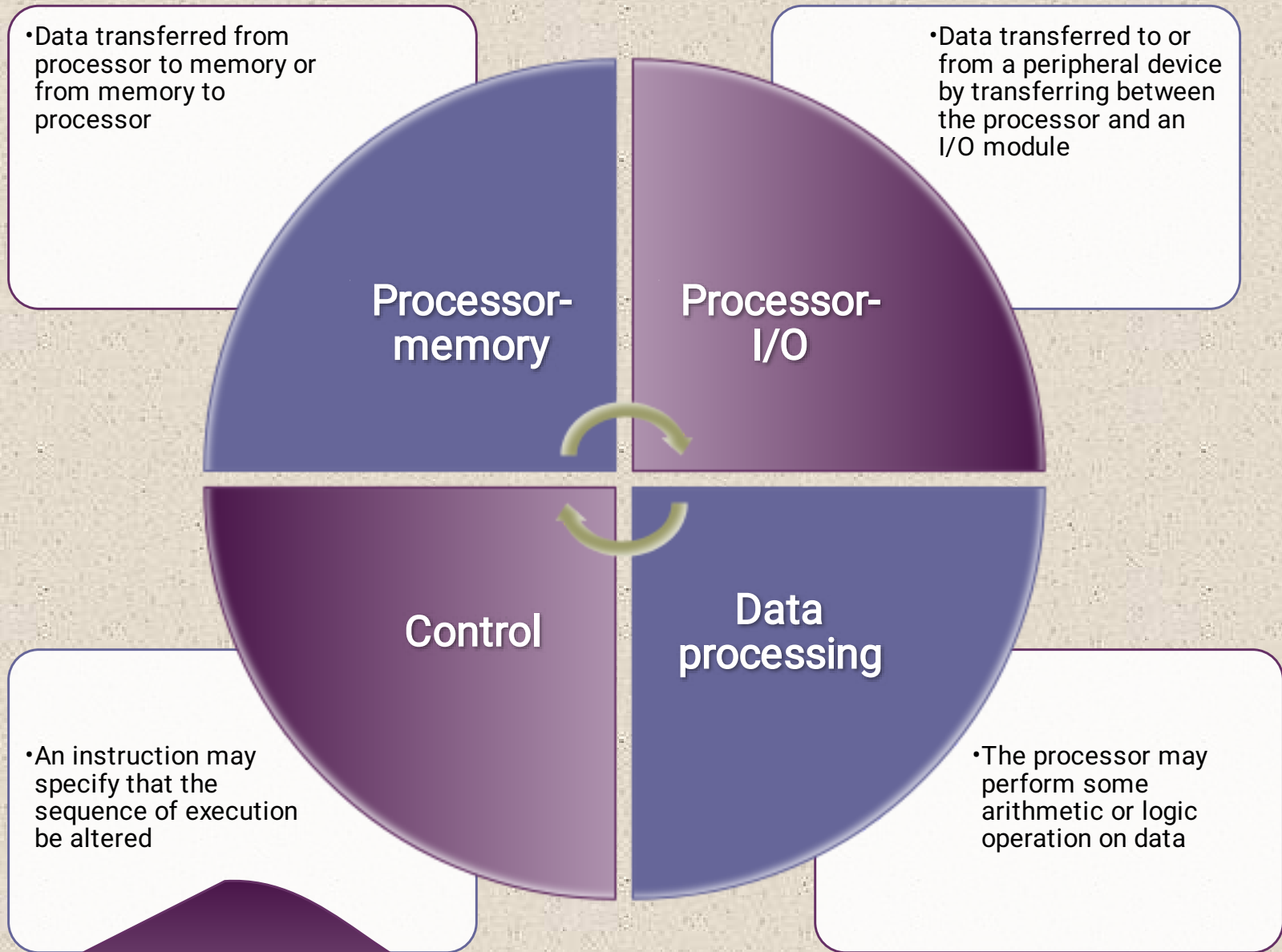


# Fetch Cycle

- The fetched instruction is loaded into the instruction register (IR)
- The processor interprets the instruction and performs the required action



# Action Categories



For example, the processor may fetch an instruction from location 149, which specifies that the next instruction be from location 182. The processor will remember this fact by setting the program counter to 182. Thus, on the next fetch cycle, the instruction will be fetched from location 182 rather than 150.



(a) Instruction format



(b) Integer format

Program Counter (PC) = Address of instruction  
Instruction Register (IR) = Instruction being executed  
Accumulator (AC) = Temporary storage

(c) Internal CPU registers

0001 = Load AC from Memory  
0010 = Store AC to Memory  
0101 = Add to AC from Memory

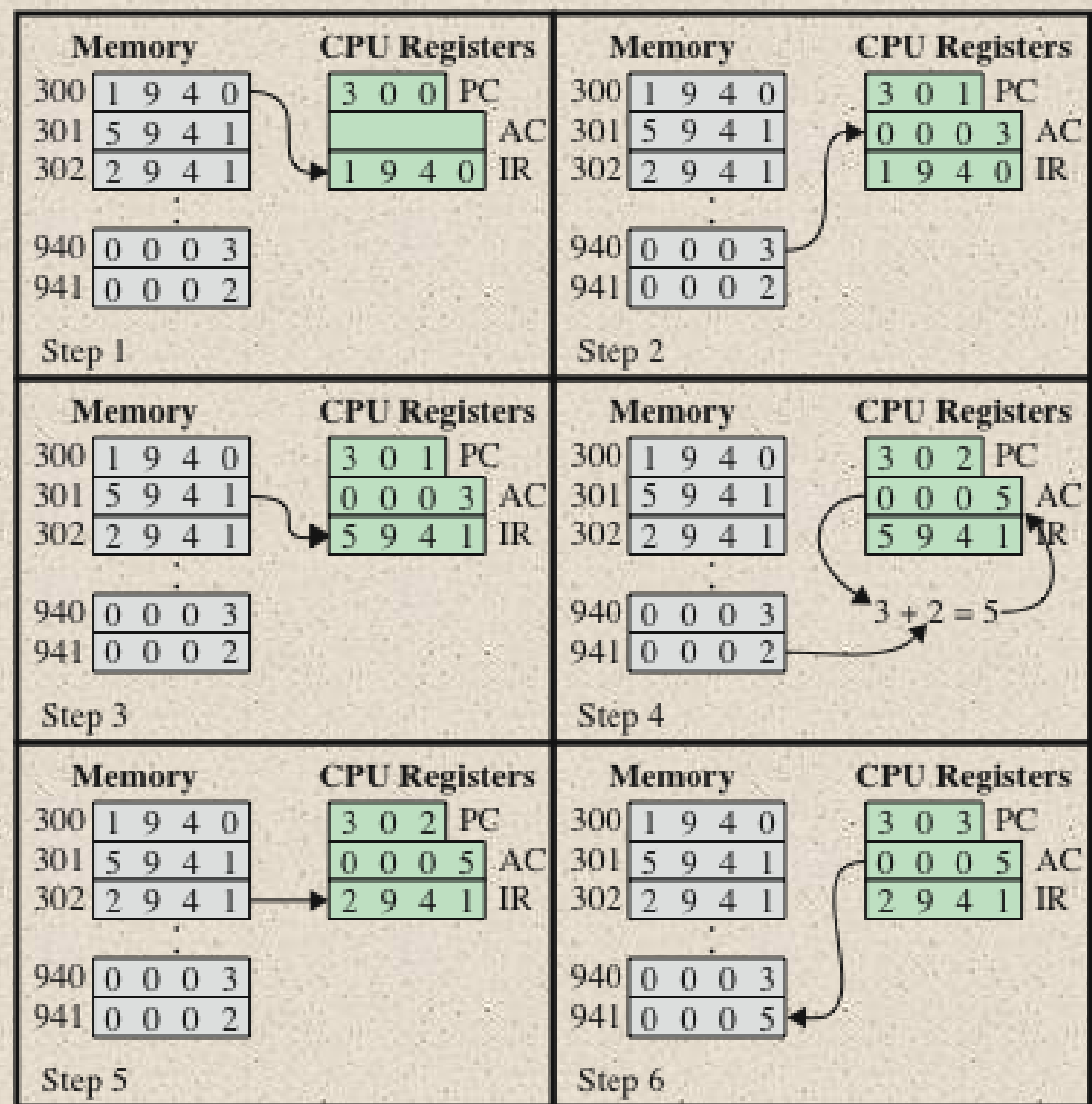
(d) Partial list of opcodes

The processor contains a single data register, called an accumulator (AC). Both instructions and data are 16 bits long. Thus, it is convenient to organize memory using 16-bit words. The instruction format provides 4 bits for the opcode, so that there can be as many as  $2^4 = 16$  different opcodes, and up to  $2^{12} = 4096$  (4K) words of memory can be directly addressed.

**Figure 3.4 Characteristics of a Hypothetical Machine**

# + Example of Program Execution

1. The PC contains 300, the address of the first instruction. This instruction (the value 1940 in hexadecimal) is loaded into the instruction register IR, and the PC is incremented.
2. The first 4 bits (first hexadecimal digit) in the IR indicate that the AC is to be loaded. The remaining 12 bits (three hexadecimal digits) specify the address (940) from which data are to be loaded.
3. The next instruction (5941) is fetched from location 301, and the PC is incremented.
4. The old contents of the AC and the contents of location 941 are added, and the result is stored in the AC.
5. The next instruction (2941) is fetched from location 302, and the PC is incremented.
6. The contents of the AC are stored in location 941.



This example, three instruction cycles, each consisting of a fetch cycle and an execute cycle, are needed to add the contents of location 940 to the contents of 941

**Figure 3.5 Example of Program Execution**  
(contents of memory and registers in hexadecimal)

# + Instruction Cycle State

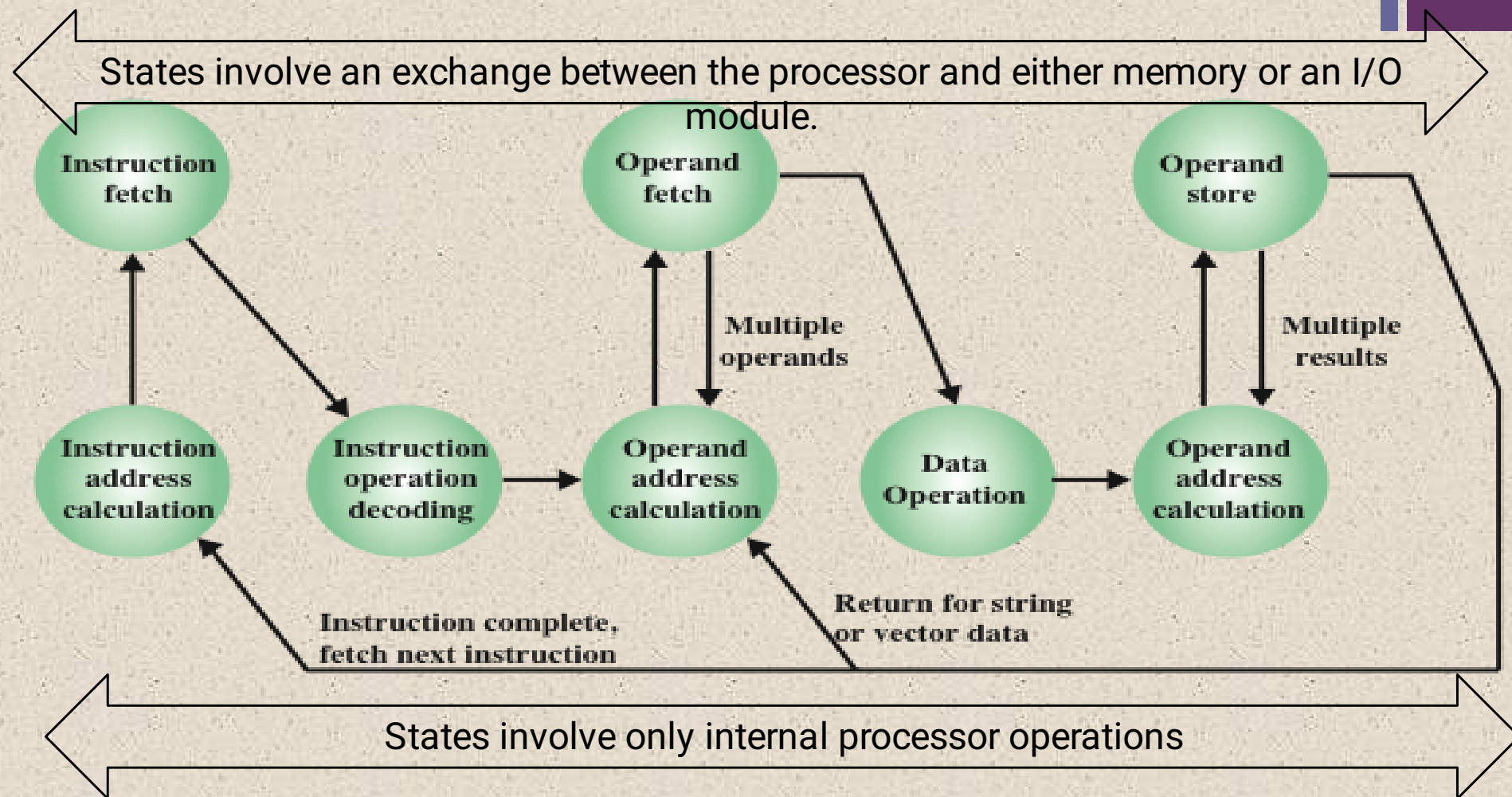
- For example, PDP-II processor includes and instructions, expresses symbolically as ADD B,A, that stores the sum of the contents of memory locations B and A into memory location A.
- A single instruction cycle with the following steps occurs:
  - Fetch the ADD instruction
  - Read the contents of memory location A into the processor.
  - Read the contents of memory location B into the processor. In order that the contents A are not lost, the processor must have at least two registers for storing memory values, rather than a single accumulator.
  - Add the two values.
  - Write the result from the processor to memory location A.



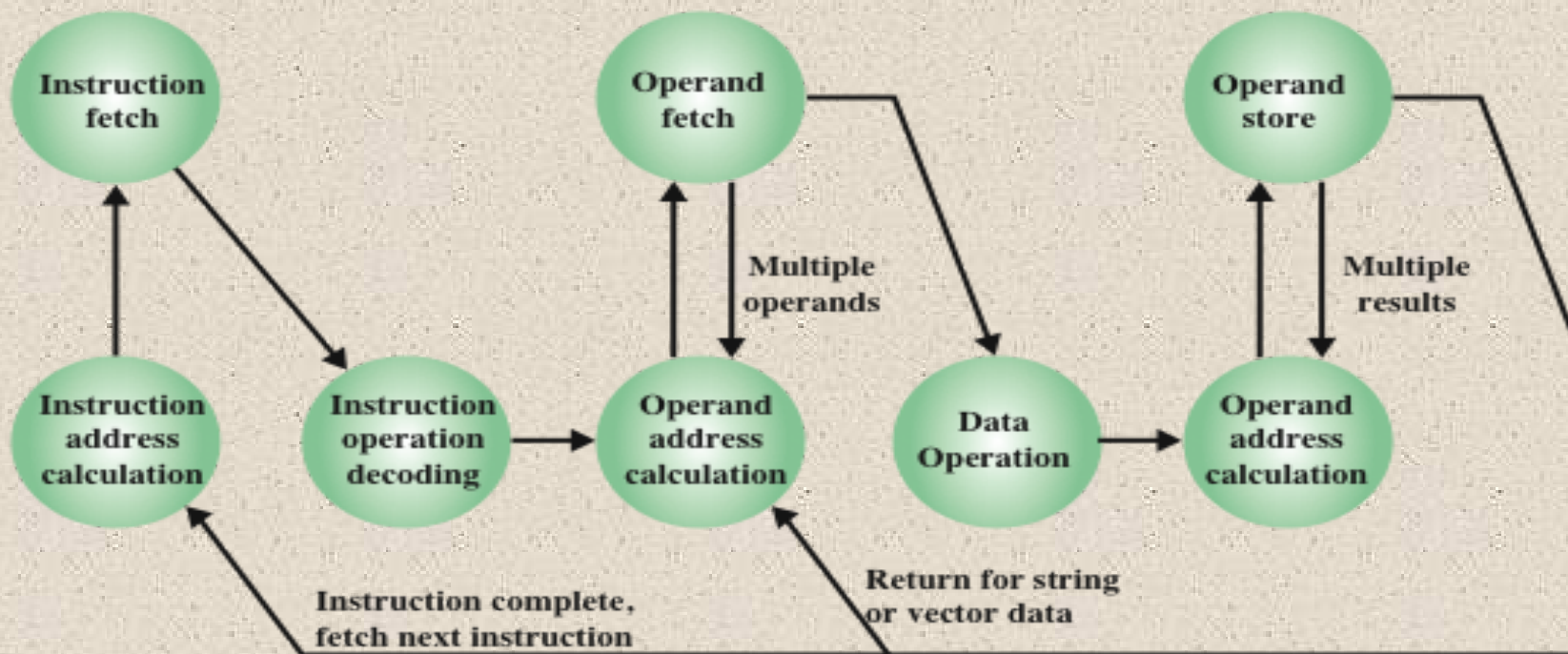


# + Instruction Cycle State Diagram

The execution cycle for a particular instruction may involve more than one reference to memory. Also, instead of memory references, an instruction may specify an I/O operation. Indicates, this would involve repetitive operand fetch and/or store operations.



**Figure 3.6 Instruction Cycle State Diagram**



vector (one-dimensional array) of numbers or a string (one-dimensional array) of characters

**if:** Read instruction from its memory location into the processor.

**iac:** Determine the address of the next instruction to be executed.

**iod:** Analyze instruction to determine type of operation to be performed and operand(s) to be used.

**oac:** If the operation involves reference to an operand in memory or available via I/O, then determine the address of the operand.

**of:** Fetch the operand from memory or read it in from I/O.

**do:** Perform the operation indicated in the instruction.

**os:** Write the result into memory or out to I/O.

The **oac** state appears twice, because an instruction may involve a read, a write, or both

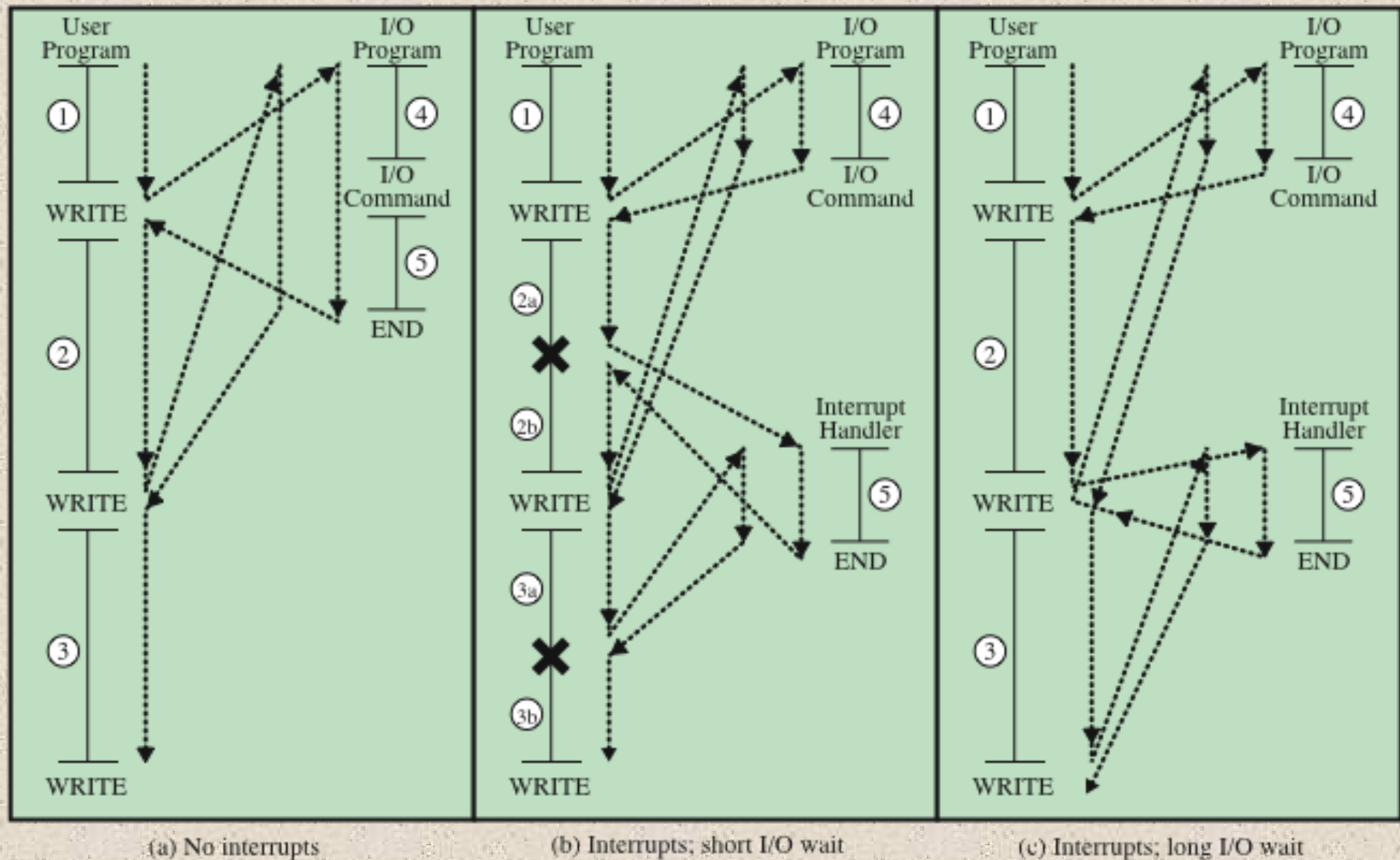
# +Classes of Interrupts

Virtually all computers provide a mechanism by which other modules (I/O, memory) may **interrupt** the normal processing of the processor.

**Following are the most common classes of interrupts.**

<b>Program</b>	Generated by some condition that occurs as a result of an instruction execution, such as arithmetic overflow, division by zero, attempt to execute an illegal machine instruction, or reference outside a user's allowed memory space.
<b>Timer</b>	Generated by a timer within the processor. This allows the operating system to perform certain functions on a regular basis.
<b>I/O</b>	Generated by an I/O controller, to signal normal completion of an operation, request service from the processor, or to signal a variety of error conditions.
<b>Hardware failure</b>	Generated by a failure such as power failure or memory parity error.

# Program Flow Control

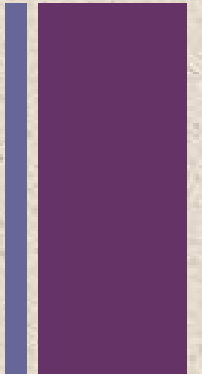


✗ = interrupt occurs during course of execution of user program

Figure 3.7 Program Flow of Control Without and With Interrupts

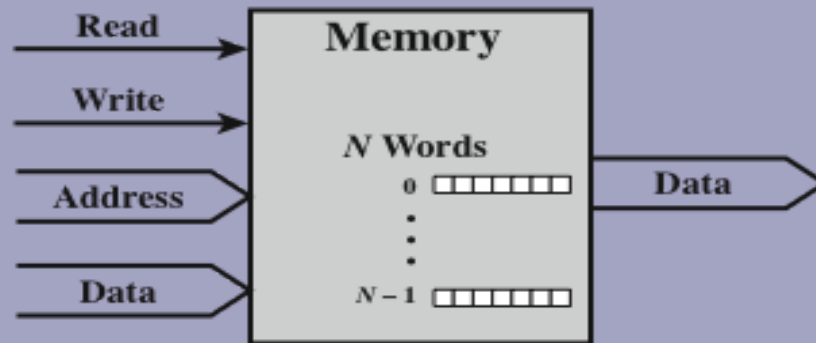


# I/O Function

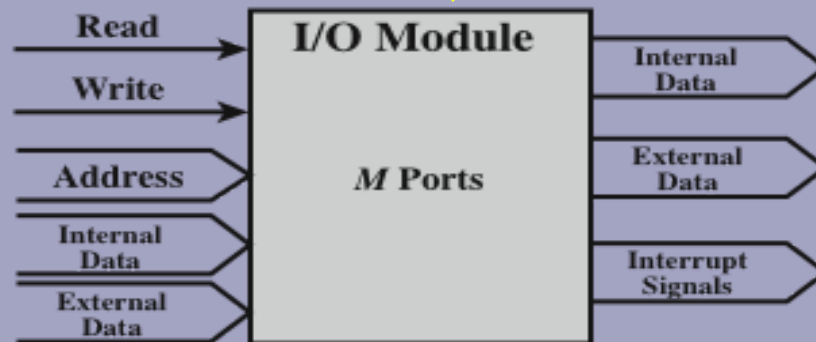


- I/O (e.g., a disk controller) module can exchange data directly with the processor
- Processor can read data from or write data to an I/O module
  - Processor identifies a specific device that is controlled by a particular I/O module
  - I/O instructions rather than memory referencing instructions
- In some cases it is desirable to allow I/O exchanges to occur directly with memory
  - The processor grants to an I/O module the authority to read from or write to memory so that the I/O memory transfer can occur without tying up the processor
  - The I/O module issues read or write commands to memory relieving the processor of responsibility for the exchange
  - This operation is known as direct memory access (DMA)





a memory module will consist of  $N$  words of equal length.  
Each word is assigned a unique numerical address (0, 1, ...,  $N - 1$ )



to an external device as a *port* and give each a unique address (e.g., 0, 1, ...,  $M - 1$ )

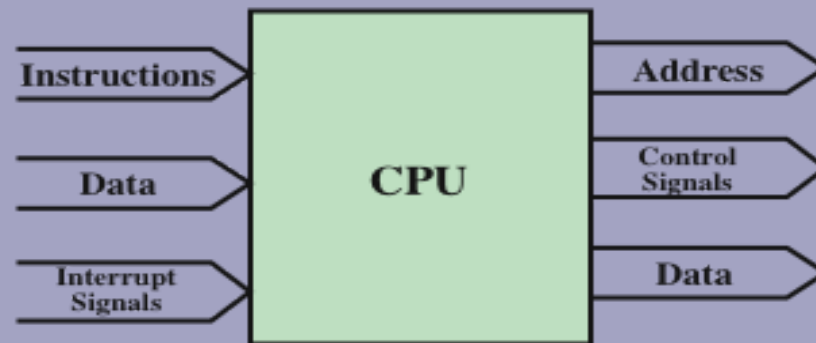


Figure 3.15 Computer Modules

Computer  
Modules

*interconnection  
structure*

The interconnection structure must support the following types of transfers:

Memory  
to  
processor

Processor  
reads an  
instruction  
or a unit of  
data from  
memory

Processor  
to  
memory

Processor  
writes a unit  
of data to  
memory

I/O to  
processor

Processor  
reads data  
from an I/O  
device via an  
I/O module

Processor  
to I/O

Processor  
sends data  
to the I/O  
device

I/O to or  
from  
memory

An I/O  
module is  
allowed to  
exchange  
data directly  
with memory  
without  
going  
through the  
processor  
using direct  
memory  
access

A communication pathway connecting two or more devices

- Key characteristic is that it is a shared transmission medium

Signals transmitted by any one device are available for reception by all other devices attached to the bus

- If two devices transmit during the same time period their signals will overlap and become garbled



Typically consists of multiple communication lines

- Each line is capable of transmitting signals representing binary 1 and binary 0

Computer systems contain a number of different buses that provide pathways between components at various levels of the computer system hierarchy



### *System bus*

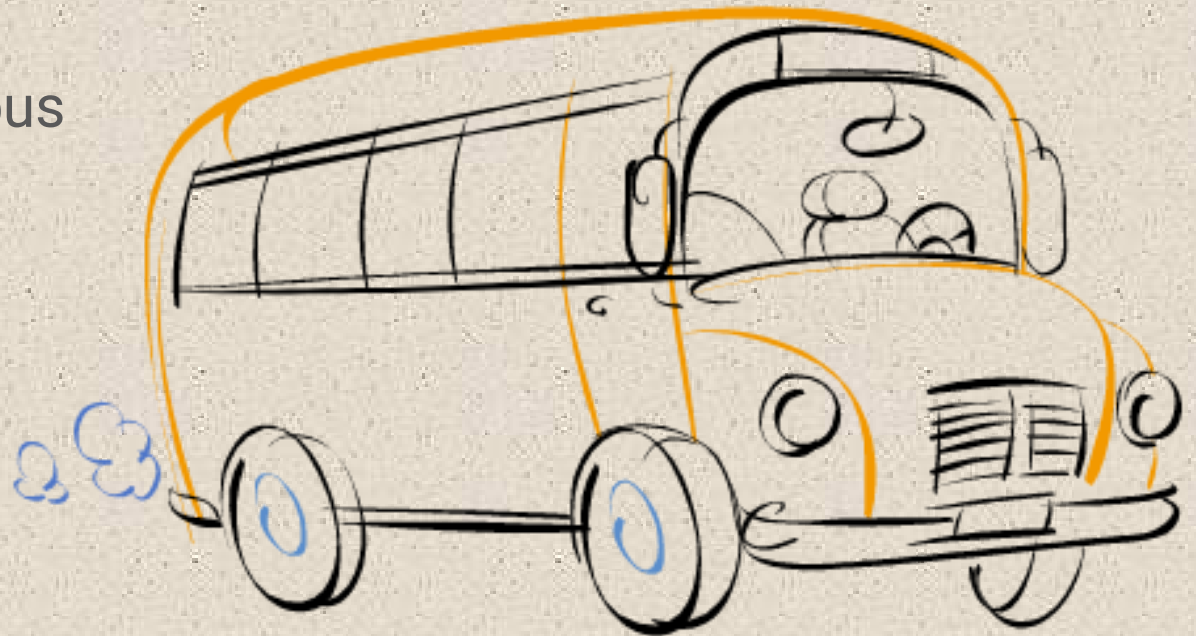
- A bus that connects major computer components (processor, memory, I/O)

The most common computer interconnection structures are based on the use of one or more system buses

# Interconnection Buses

# Data Bus

- Data lines that provide a path for moving data among system modules
- May consist of 32, 64, 128, or more separate lines
- The number of lines is referred to as the *width* of the data bus
- The number of lines determines how many bits can be transferred at a time
- The width of the data bus is a key factor in determining overall system performance





# Address Bus



- Used to designate the source or destination of the data on the data bus
  - If the processor wishes to read a word of data from memory it puts the address of the desired word on the address lines
- Width determines the maximum possible memory capacity of the system
- Also used to address I/O ports
  - The higher order bits are used to select a particular module on the bus and the lower order bits select a memory location or I/O port within the module

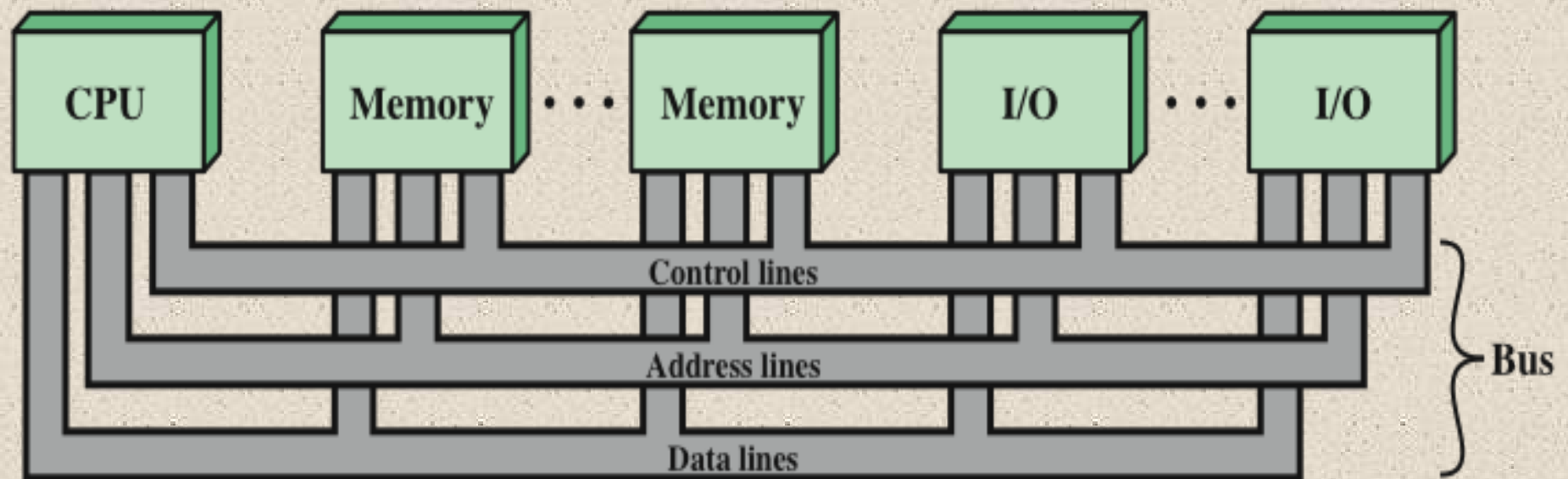
# Control Bus



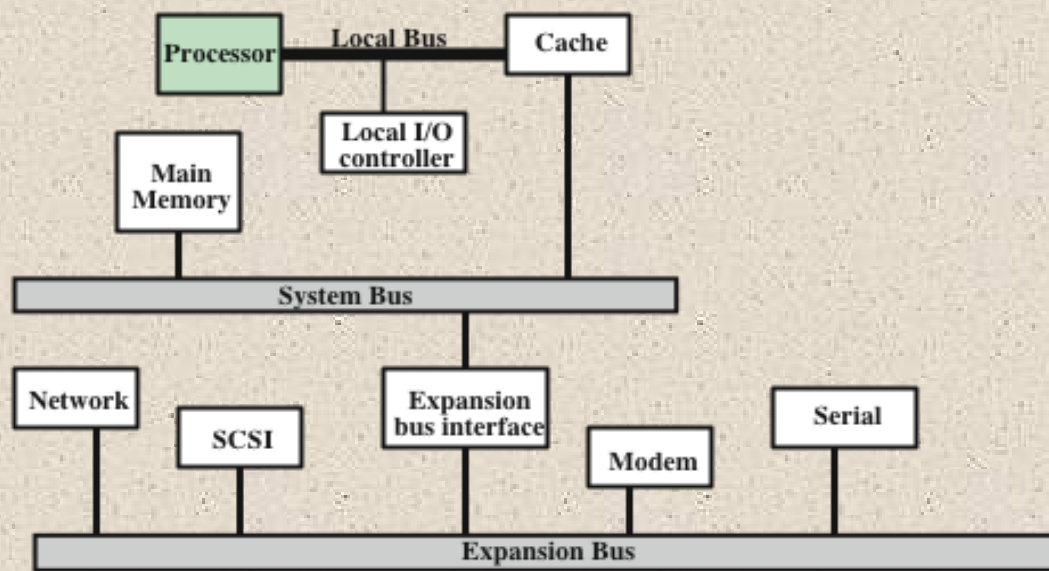
- Used to control the access and the use of the data and address lines
- Because the data and address lines are shared by all components there must be a means of controlling their use
- Control signals transmit both command and timing information among system modules
- Timing signals indicate the validity of data and address information
- Command signals specify operations to be performed



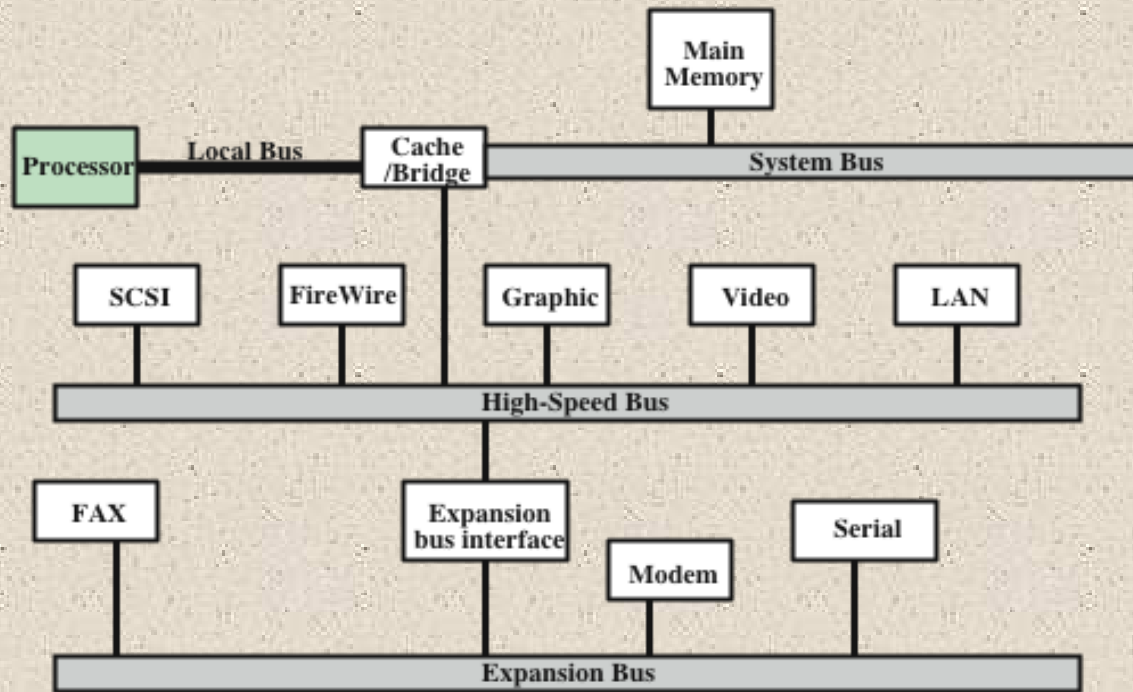
# Bus Interconnection Scheme



**Figure 3.16** Bus Interconnection Scheme



(a) Traditional Bus Architecture



(b) High-Performance Architecture

Figure 3.17 Example Bus Configurations