

CSE301 – Computer Organization

Lecture 2 Notes

Programming Concept

	Special Purpose (Customized) Hardware	General Purpose Hardware
Logic Components Interconnection	Logic components are connected to perform a specific task.	Logic components are connected to form general hardware configured using input control signals.
Types of Computations	Based on how components are connected (hardwired programming).	Defined by input control signals (software programming).
Change Computation Type	Replace or rewire the hardware.	Change the program/code.
Diagram	<p>The diagram illustrates the difference in programming paradigms between two types of hardware. On the left, labeled '(a) Programming in hardware', a block labeled 'Sequence of arithmetic and logic functions' receives 'Data' and produces 'Results'. On the right, labeled '(b) Programming in software', 'Instruction codes' enter an 'Instruction interpreter' which sends 'Control signals' to a block labeled 'General-purpose arithmetic and logic functions'. This block also receives 'Data' and produces 'Results'.</p>	

Common Computer Architectures

There are several computer architectures, but the **most common** and historically significant one is the **Von Neumann Architecture**.

Von Neumann Architecture

The **Von Neumann Architecture** is based on the idea that both **data** and **instructions** share the **same memory space**.

It is characterized by the following principles:

1. Shared Memory:

Both data and instructions are stored in a **single read/write memory**.

2. Addressable Memory:

Each memory location can be **uniquely addressed**, regardless of the content stored there.

3. Sequential Execution:

Instructions are executed **one after another**, in a sequential manner — unless the sequence is modified by control instructions (e.g., jumps or branches).

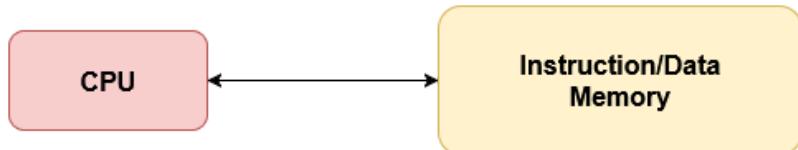


Figure 1: Von Neumann Architecture

Harvard Architecture

In contrast, the **Harvard Architecture** uses **separate memory** for data and instructions, allowing simultaneous access and faster performance.

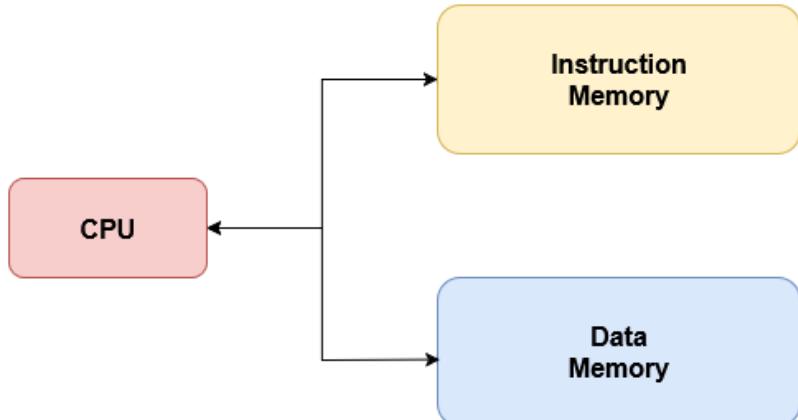


Figure 2: Harvard Architecture

Instruction Cycle

Computer Components

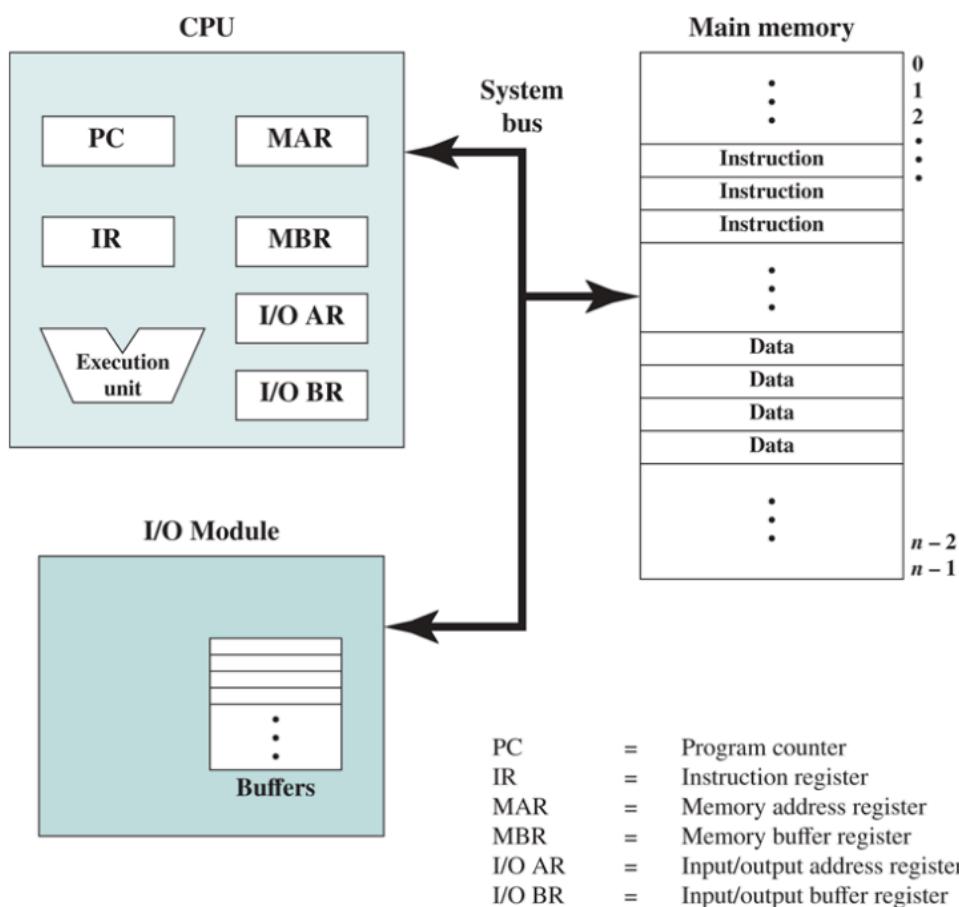


Figure 3: Computer Components

Instruction Cycle

The **Instruction Cycle** is the fundamental process by which a computer executes instructions. It primarily consists of two major stages:

- **Fetch Cycle**
- **Execute Cycle**

Fetch Cycle

1. **Program Counter (PC)** holds the address of the next instruction to be fetched.
2. The **processor** fetches the instruction from memory into the **Memory Data/Buffer Register (MDR / MBR)**.
3. The **Memory Address Register (MAR)** is loaded with the address from the **PC**.
4. **PC** is **incremented** to point to the next instruction.
5. The fetched instruction is **transferred to the Instruction Register (IR)** for decoding.

Registers updated during fetch:

-  ← PC
-  ← Memory[MAR]
-  ← MDR
-  ← PC + 1

Execute Cycle

The **execute cycle** performs the operation specified by the instruction. Depending on the instruction type, it may:

- Access memory
- Perform arithmetic or logic operations
- Control program flow (e.g., jumps, branches)
- Communicate with I/O devices

For **CPU-Memory** or **CPU-I/O** type instructions, the steps typically include:

1. **Instruction Fetch** – (Already done in the Fetch Cycle)
 -  holds the current instruction.
2. **Instruction Decode**
 - The **Control Unit (CU)** interprets the opcode and identifies the required operands and operation.
3. **Operand Fetch**
 - The **MAR or I/O AR** is loaded with the operand address.
 - The **MBR or I/O BR** receives the operand value from memory or I/O.
 - If a register operand is required, it's read from the **register file**.
4. **Instruction Execute**
 - The **Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU)** performs the required operation (add, AND, compare, etc.).
 - Intermediate results are stored in **Accumulator (ACC)** or a temporary register.
5. **Operand Store**
 - The result is written back to memory () or an output register/I/O port.

Register Updates Summary

Stage	CPU-Memory Instruction	CPU-I/O Instruction

Operand Fetch	$\text{MAR} \leftarrow \text{address}$, $\text{MBR} \leftarrow \text{Memory}[\text{MAR}]$	$\text{IOAR} \leftarrow \text{I/O port}$, $\text{IODR} \leftarrow \text{I/O data}$
Execute	$\text{ACC} \leftarrow \text{ALU}(\text{MBR or Reg})$	$\text{ACC} \leftarrow \text{ALU}(\text{IOBR or Reg})$
Operand Store	$\text{MAR} \leftarrow \text{address}$, $\text{Memory}[\text{MAR}] \leftarrow \text{MBR}$	$\text{IOAR} \leftarrow \text{port}$, $\text{I/O Write using IOBR}$
PC Updates	$\text{PC} \leftarrow \text{next instruction (or branch target)}$	same as memory instruction

Machine Instructions Overview

Instruction Set

- A **set of all operations** a CPU can perform — known as the **Instruction Set Architecture (ISA)**.
- Instructions can be represented in:
 - **Binary (machine language)** — executed directly by hardware.
 - **Symbolic (assembly language)** — human-readable mnemonics (e.g., `ADD`, `MOV`).

Each instruction includes:

1. **Opcode** – the operation to perform (e.g., ADD, I/O).
2. **Source operand(s)** – where data comes from.
3. **Result operand** – where to store the result.
4. **Next instruction reference** – usually implicit (from the PC).

Operands can reside in:

- Immediate value
- Main memory (address)
- CPU register
- I/O device (via I/O module or memory-mapped I/O)

Number of Addresses in Instructions

- Each **address** = explicit operand reference.
- Binary arithmetic operations need:
 - 2 source operands
 - 1 destination operand
 - 1 next instruction address (implicit via PC)

So **up to 4 addresses** are needed — but specifying all would make instructions too long!

Hence, some are **implicit**.

Address Formats

Type	Example	Description
3-address	$C = A + B$	Two operands and one destination; long but flexible.
2-address	$A = A + B$	One operand doubles as destination; shorter.
1-address	$AC = AC + X$	Uses an accumulator register implicitly.
0-address	Stack-based (<code>push</code> , <code>pop</code>)	Operands are taken from the top of the stack.

Interrupts

An **interrupt** temporarily halts the normal program flow so the CPU can handle another event (e.g., I/O, timer, or error).

→ Improves CPU efficiency by avoiding idle waiting.

Types of Interrupts

- **Program:** Execution errors (e.g., divide by zero)
- **Timer:** From internal clock (for multitasking)
- **I/O:** From device controllers (data ready)
- **Hardware Failure:** Faults (e.g., memory error)

Interrupt Cycle

1. CPU checks for interrupt after each instruction.
2. If none → fetch next instruction.
3. If interrupt →
 - o Save context (PC + registers)
 - o Load ISR (Interrupt Service Routine) address
 - o Execute ISR → restore context → resume program

Multiple Interrupts

Method	Description
Sequential Execution	Interrupts are handled one at a time in the order they arrive (like a queue). The current ISR must finish before another begins — always non-preemptive .
Priority Execution	Interrupts are handled based on their priority level (using a priority queue). A higher-priority interrupt may either: <ul style="list-style-type: none">– Disable the interrupt line → acts non-preemptively.– Leave the line enabled → allows preemption (nested interrupts).