

* Books Recommended:

"Computer System Architecture"

— Morris Mano.

* Theory



computer Organization:

- Major component - functional units.
- Hardware components.

Physical aspects:

- circuit design
- control signal
- Memory types

computer design / design of computer.

- ↳ specifications — formulated designer dev. of hardware.

computer Architecture

- ↳ the format
- the instruction set

techniques for addressing memory.

It concerns with specification of processors - memories & structuring them together into computer system.

* It deals with all logical aspects

↳ → instruction formats

→ instruction sets

→ Data types

→ Addressing mode.

Q. Why we study computer Architecture?

Ans:-

Design Better Programs:

(i) System software such as compiler.

(ii) Operating system.

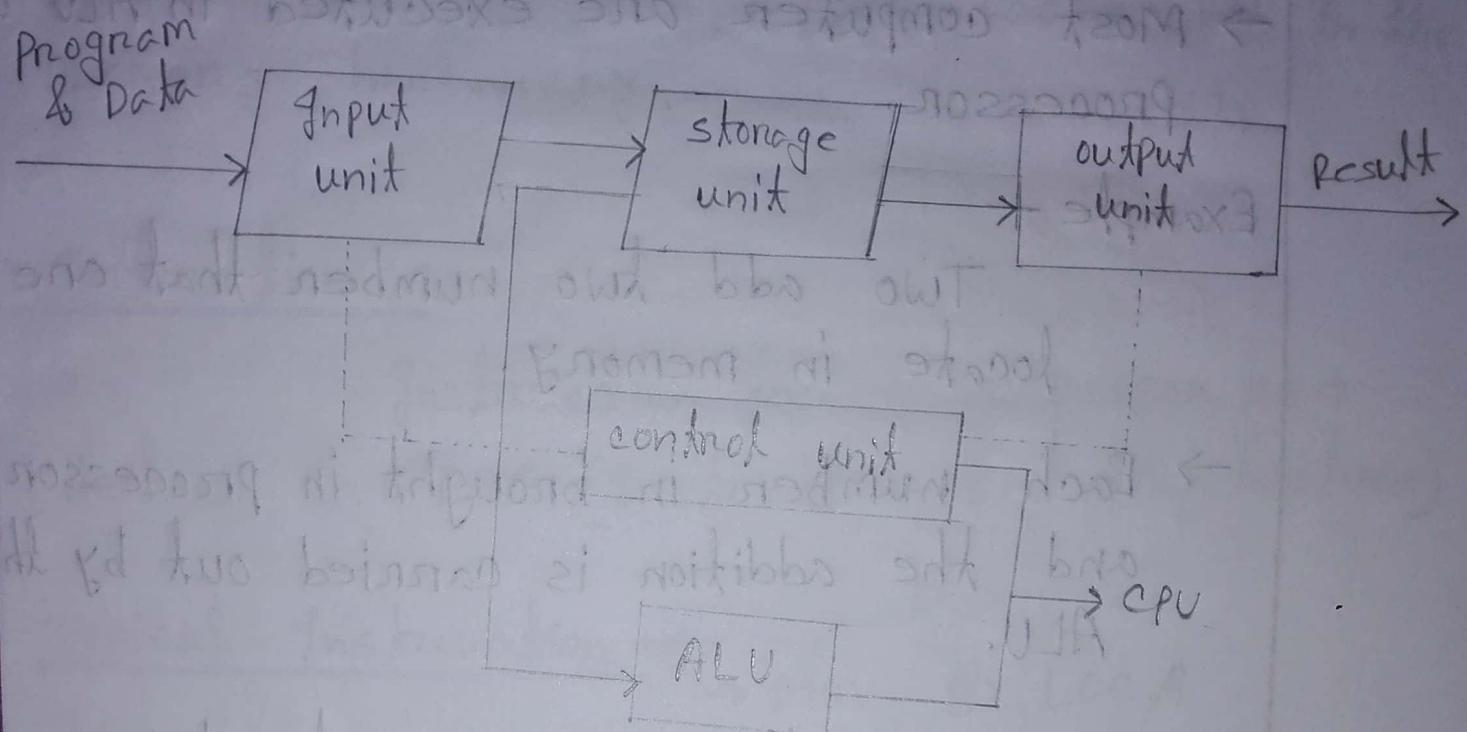
(iii) Device Drivers.

(iv) Optimise program behaviours.

(v) Evaluate computer system performance.

(vi) Understanding time, space, and trade-offs.

* Basic Computer Operation:



* Five Major Operation:

- (i) It accepts data or instruction by way of input.
- (ii) It stores data.
- (iii) It can process data as required by user.
- (iv) It gives results in the form of output.
- (v) It controls all operations include a computer.

* Basic Operation concepts of computer: and *

→ Most computer are executed in ALU of a processor.

Example —

Two add two number that are both locate in memory.

- Each number is brought in processor and the addition is carried out by the ALU.
- The sum them may be stored in memory or retained in the processor for immediate use.

* Registers:

When operands are brought into processor they are stored in high speed elements.

- A Register can store one piece of data. (8 bit, 16 bit, 32 bit, & 64 bit registers).

Access time to registers are faster than access time to the faster cache unit in the memory hierarchy.

* Instruction:

Instruction for a processor are define in ISA (Instruction set Architecture)

Typical Instruction —

→ MOV BX, LOC A

→ fetch the instruction

→ Fetch the content of memory location.

→ store the content of general purpose register BX.

* BUS structure:

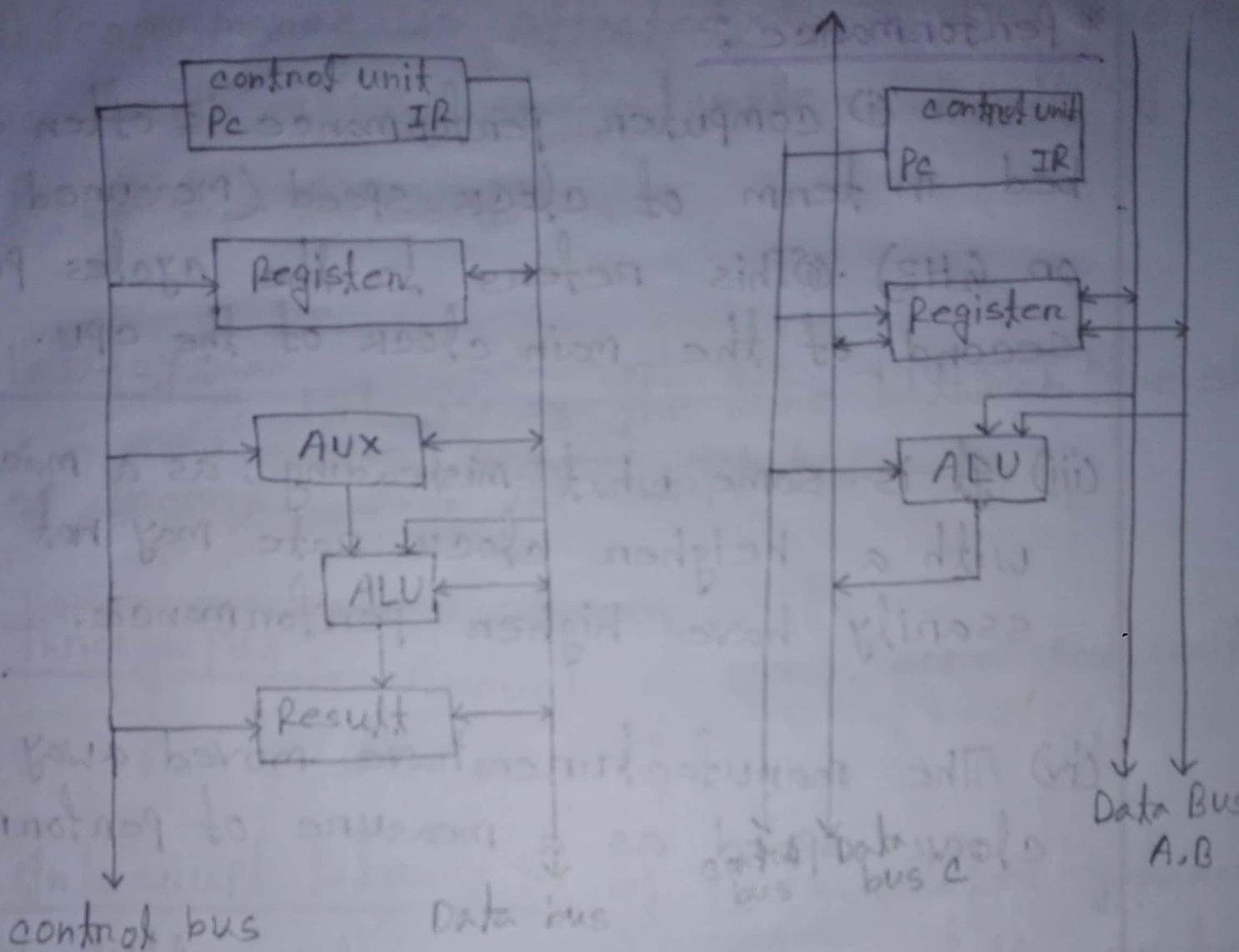
A BUS is basically sub system which transforms data between the components of computer.

→ It connects peripheral devices.

Some properties:

- (i) In single bus structure all units are connected in the same bus than connecting different buses as multiple bus structure.
- (ii) Multiple Bus structure performance is better than a single Bus structure.
- (iii) Single bus structure is cheap than multiple bus.

Diagram:



(a) Single bus. (b) Multiple Bus.

fig: Bus structure.

* Performance:

- (i) computer performance is often described in term of clock speed (Measured by MHz or GHz). This refers to the cycles per second of the main clock of the CPU.
- (ii) It is some what misleading, as a machine with a higher clock rate may not necessarily have higher performance.
- (iii) The manufacturers have moved away from clock speed as a measure of performance
- (iv) Modern CPU can execute multiple instruction per clock cycle to speed up. Other factors influence speed.
 - The mix of functional units, bus speeds
 - Available main and cache memory.
 - The type and others of instruction in the program being run.

(vi) Performance is affected by a very wide range of design choice. For example — pipelining, parallel processing.

* Latency: Latency is the time between the start of process and its completion.

* Throughput: Amount of work done per unit time.

* Interrupt latency: It is guaranteed maximum response time of the system to an electronic event.

* Design trade off:

- Maximum performance.
- Maximum cost.
- Best performance.

* Execute time:

Elapsed time

CPU time.

Our focus on CPU time.

* Measure of performance:

→ Clock time = time between fronts =
secondly cycle.

→ Clock rate = cycles per second.

④ A 200 MHz clock has cycle time.

$$\text{Clock time} = \frac{1}{200 \times 10^6} \times 10^9 = 5 \text{ ns}$$

$$\therefore 3 \text{ GHz cycle time} = \frac{1}{3 \times 10^9} \times 10^9 \\ = 0.33 \text{ ns} \rightarrow$$

$$\begin{aligned} * \text{MIPS} &= \frac{\text{Clock/second}}{\text{Average clocks per instruction}} \\ &= \frac{\text{Frequency in MHz}}{\text{CPI}} \end{aligned}$$

Q. Machine has clock cycle time of 10 ns and CPI of 2.0.

Sln:

$$\text{MIPS} = \frac{10^6 / 10 \times 10^{-9}}{2}$$

$$= 50$$

Q. Machine has clock cycle time of 20 ns and CPI of 1.2.

Sln:

$$\text{MIPS} = \frac{10^6 / 20 \times 10^{-9}}{1.2}$$

$$= 41.66$$

$$\therefore \frac{50}{41.66} = 1.2$$

* Maximum performance measure by the number of instruction executed per sec Maximum cost:

Measured by the size of circuit.

Best performance price.

Measured by the ration of MIPS to size. In power sensitive application MIPS/Watt, is important too.

* Execution time:

Elapsed time/wall clock time:

count everything (i.e; disk and memory access I/o etc)

a useful numbers, but often not good for comparison purpose.

* CPU time:

Doesn't include I/o on time spent running other program can be broken up into system time and user time.

* Our focus on CPU time: Time spent executing actual instructions of our program.

20th
T-1) * CPU: CPU time is the amount of time for which CPU was used for processing instruction of a computer program.

* Machine Instruction:

- (i) A program is a set of instruction that specify the operation, operand and the sequence.
- (ii) An instruction is a binary code that specifies a sequence of micro operation.
- (iii) code and data stored in memory.
- (iv) The computer reads each instruction from memory and places it in a control register.
- (v) The control then interprets the binary code and process to execute it.

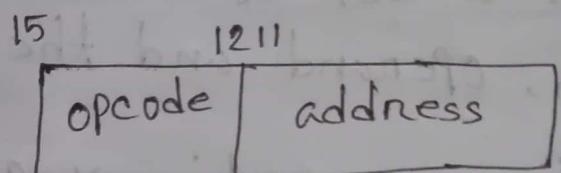
and logic resources
(e.g.) registers

* Instruction code:

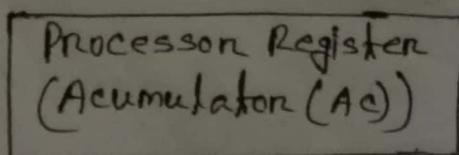
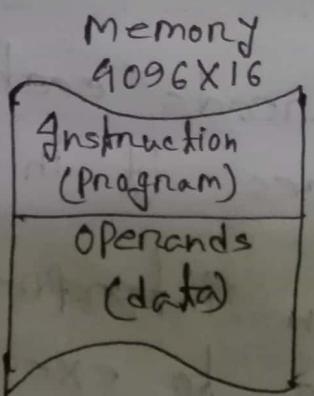
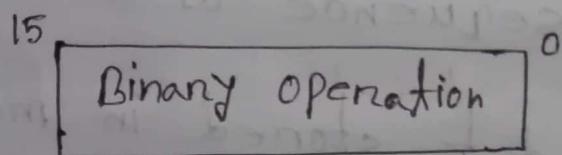
A group of bits that instruction the computer to perform specific operation. It usually divided into Part.

* Operation code:

The most basic Part of instruction code. A group of bits that define such operations as add, subtract, multiply, shift and complement.



Instruction format



* stone program operation :

Instruction code for format with two parts opcode + address.

Opcode: specify 16 possible operations. (4 bit)

Address: specify the address of operand. (12 bit)

* Memory:

12 bit = 4096 word

(Instruction + data are stored stone each instruction code (program) and operand (data) in 16 bit memory.

List of registers in basic computer :

Register symbol	Number of bit	Register Name	Function
DR	16	Data Register	Hold memory operand
AR	12	Address 11	11 Address for memory
AC	16	Accumulator	Processor register.
IR	16	Instruction Register	Hold instruction code
PC	12	Program counter	Hold address of instruction.

TR	16	Temporary Register	Hold temporary data.
TNRR	8	Input Register	Hold input characters
OUTR	8	Output Register	Hold output characters

counter

* Program control: hold the address of the next instruction to be read from memory after the current instruction. is executed.

A branch instruction calls for transfer to a non-consecutive instruction in the program.

This address part often branch instruction is transferred to pc to pc to become the address of next instruction. To read instruction memory read cycle is initiated and pc is incremented by one.

* Timing and control:

- A master clock generator controls the timing for all register in the basic computer.
- The clock pulse are applied to all F/Fs and register in system.

The clock pulse do not change the state of a register unless the register is enabled by control signal.

- The control signals are generated in the control unit. It provides controls for MUX in the common bus, register etc.

* Hardware control:

- The control logic is implemented with gates, F/Fs, decodes and other digital circuit.
- For any change, need to change hardware.
- First operation / operation is fast.

* Microprogram control:

- The control information is stored in a programmed control memory.
- Any required change can be done by updating the microprogram in control memory.
- Operation is slow.

* Instruction cycle:

- (i) Instruction fetch from memory: Read instruction from memory through the data bus.
- (ii) Instruction Decode: The control unit determine the type of instruction that was just read from memory.
- (iii) Fetch the Operand: Accumulate the operands to make operation. Read from memory in case of indirect addressing mode.
- (iv) Instruction Execution: Perform the operation based on decode Opcode.
- (v) Go to step (i) Next instruction $[Pc + 1]$.
The address field depend on the arrangement of register.

- Most computers fall into one of three type:
 - Single Accumulator organization : ADD X
 - General Register organization : ADD R₁, R₂, R₃
 - Stack operation : PUSH X

* Instruction with different address field:

(i) Three address instruction:

ADD R₁, A, B $R_1 \leftarrow M[A] + M[B]$
 MUL X, R₁, R₂ $M[X] \leftarrow R_1 * R_2$

- Each address fields specify either a processor register or a memory operand.
- short program.
- Require too many bit to specify 3 address.

(ii) Two address instruction:

MOV R₁, A $R_1 \leftarrow M[A]$

MUL R₁, R₂ $R_1 \leftarrow R_1 * R_2$

MOV X, R₁ $M[X] \leftarrow R_1$

- The most common in commercial computer.
- Each address fields specify either a processor register or a memory operand.

(iii) One address instruction:

LOAD A $AC \leftarrow M[A]$

ADD B $AC \leftarrow AC + M[B]$

All operation are done between the AC register or a memory operand.

(iv) Zero Address instruction:

PUSH A $TOS \leftarrow A$

PUSH B $TOS \leftarrow B$

ADD $TOS \leftarrow A+B$

- stack organised computer does not use an address field for the instructions ADD and MUL.
- PUSH and POP instruction need an address field to specify operand.

➤ zero Address : Absence of Address (ADD, MUL)

* Exam - 22-10-19

Introduction

Machine instruction.

* Addressing Mode:

- It specifies a rule for interpreting the address field operands.

* Implied Mode:

Operands are specified implicitly in defined of the instruction.

Example - COM → Complement Accumulator

→ Operand in AC is implied in the definition of the instruction.

→ PUSH → STACK PUSH

→ Operand \$ is implied to be on top of the stack.

* Addressing Mode:

(i) Immediate Mode:

- Operand field contain the actual operand.
- It is useful for initializing register to a constant value.

Example — LD # NBR.

(ii) Register Mode:

Operands are in Register. Register is selected from a register field in the instruction

Example — LD R1 AC \leftarrow R1

(iii) Direct Addressing Mode:

Effective address is equal to the addressing field of the instruction.

Example — LD ADR AC \leftarrow M [ADR]

(iv) Indirect Address:

Address field of the instruction gives the address where the effective address is stored in memory.

Example -

$$LD @ADR \quad AC \leftarrow M[M[ADR]]$$

(v) Relative Addressing Mode:

PC is added to the address part of the instruction to obtain the effective address.

Example -

$$LD \$ADR \quad AC \leftarrow M[PC+ADR]$$

(vi) Index Addressing Mode:

→ XR (Index Register) is added to the address part of the instruction to obtain effective address.

Exam -

$$LD ADR(XR) \quad AC \leftarrow M[ADR+XR]$$

ii) Base Register address Mode:

The content of a base register is added to the address part of the instruction to obtain effective address.

→ base register hold a base address.

Exam - LD ADR(BR)

$$AC \leftarrow M[BR + ADR]$$

* I/O configuration :

The configuration with I/O is performed through two register

(i) Input register (INPR)

(ii) Output register (ONPR)

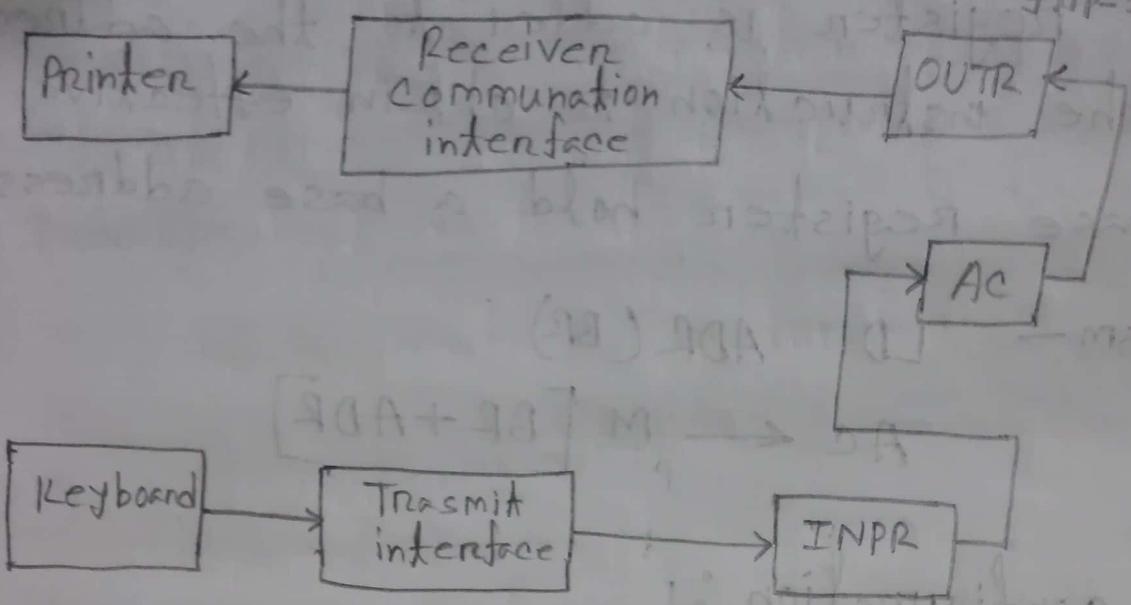
The registers communicate I/O serially and with the AC in parallel.

(P.T.O) →

Input-output terminal

serial communication interface

computer reads register and flip-flop.



* I/o instruction :

→ INP and OUT are the common instruction for I/O processing. INP - Ac(0-7) ← INPR

F6 I ← 0 : input character.

F6 I → input flag

OUT → OUTR ← Ac(0-7)

F6 O ← 0 , output character.

F6 O → output Flag.

H.W

* Program control with status bits.

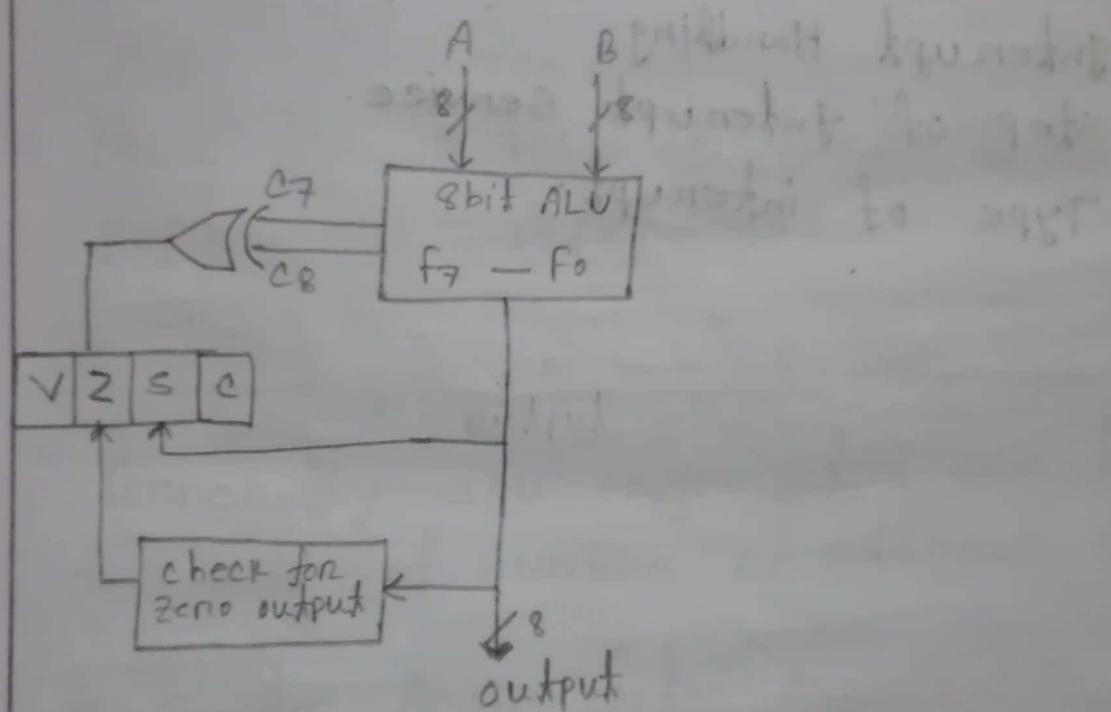
4 bit status

(1) bit c (carry)

(2) bit s (sign)

(3) bit z (zero)

(4) bit v (overflow).



* Data transfer and manipulation.

3 categories

(i) Data transfer

(ii) " Manipulation

(iii) Program control instruction.

* Data transfer instruction.

* Data manipulate instruction.

① Arithmetic instruction.

② Logic and Bit manipulation

③ Shift instruction.

* Program-control instruction.

* Interrupt Handling

* Step of interrupt service.

* Type of interrupt.

* Zero address:

PUSH A	TOS A	$x = (A \oplus B) \times (C+D)$
PUSH B	TOS B	post fixed \rightarrow $x = AB + CD + X$
ADD	TOS A+B	TOS \rightarrow TOP of STACK..
PUSH C	TOS C	
PUSH D	TOS D	
ADD	TOS C+D	
MUL	TOS = $(A+B) \times (C+D)$	
POP X	$M(X) = TOS$	

* Generally CPU organization are three type
on basis of number of address field.

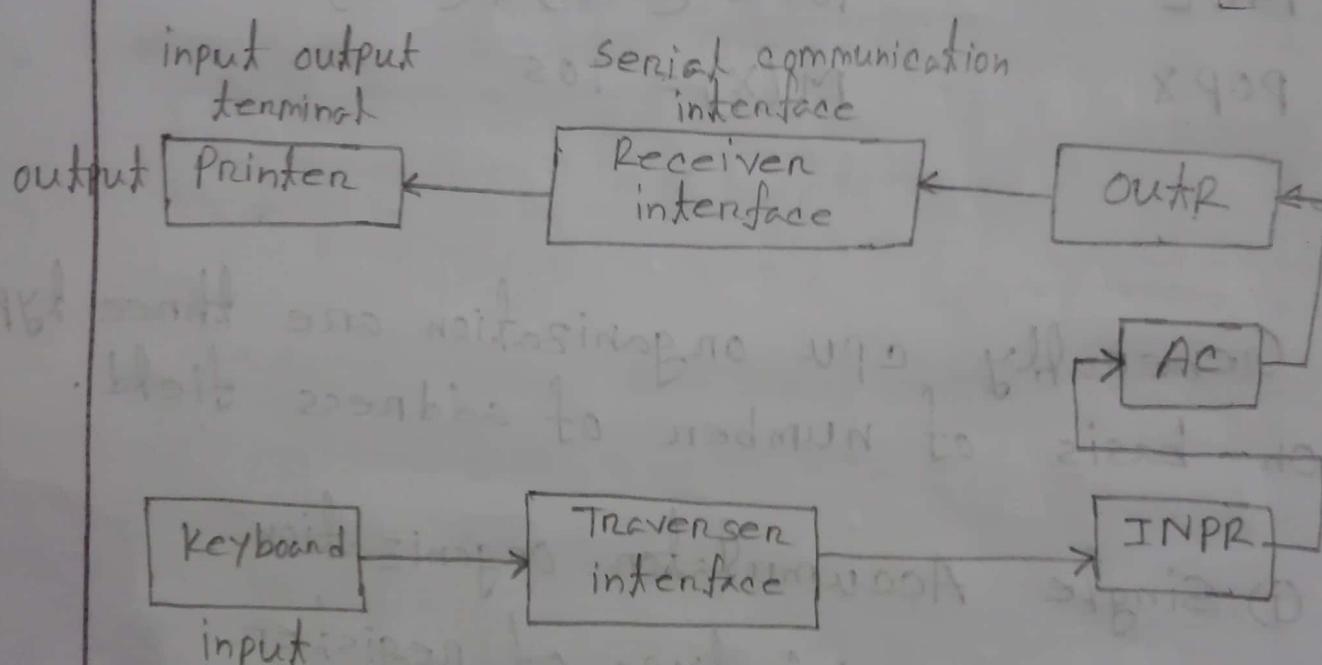
(i) Single Accumulator organization
 \rightarrow special type of register.

(ii) General Register \rightarrow use for computation purpose.

(iii) STACK organization : The work on basis operation due to which it does not contain any address field.

* Input output configuration :

Manis Mano book : Fig - 5.12 , Page - 151



* Flag Register:

8-bit register

5 bit used. Unused 3 bit

S	Z	-	Ac	-	P	-	Cy
---	---	---	----	---	---	---	----

Carry flag:

When carry is generated it is set

1. No carry it is set 0.

Parity flag:

1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

no of 1 is = 4 N is even - set 1.
no of

1 7013 31905T 26m

Sign flag: (S flag) \rightarrow Negative - 1
Positive - 0

Zero flag:

$$\boxed{2} - \boxed{2} = 0 \\ 2 - 2 = 0 \quad \text{zero flag} \rightarrow 0$$

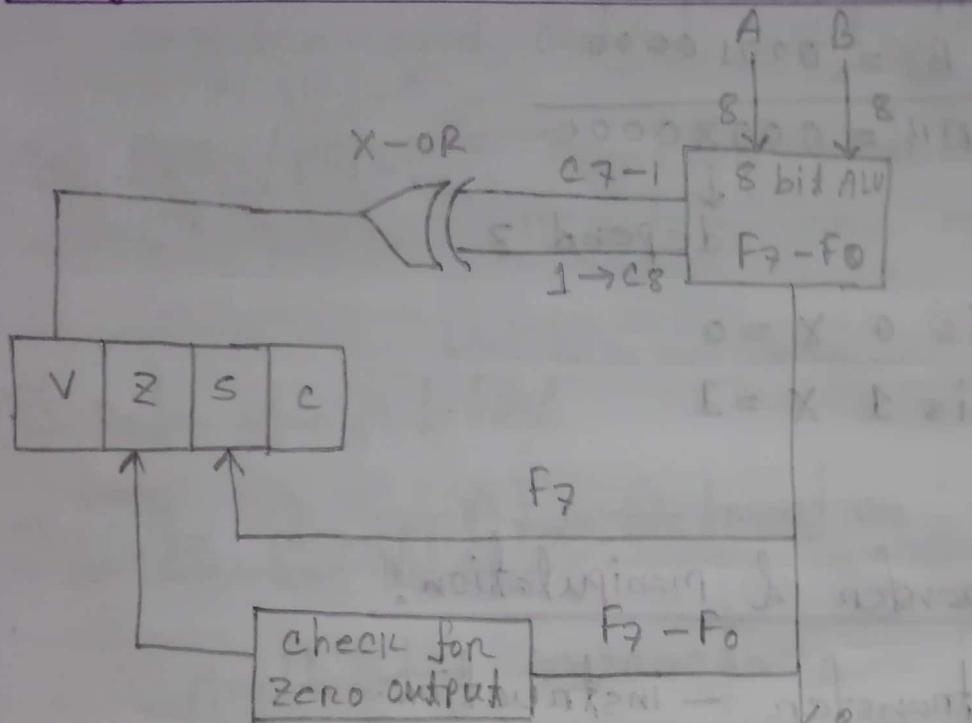
$$\boxed{3} - \boxed{2} = 1 \\ 3 - 2 = 1 \quad \text{zero flag} \rightarrow 1$$

AC = Auxiliary carry flag.

$$A \rightarrow \begin{array}{r} 1101 \ 1101 \\ 001 \ 1101 \\ \hline 1000 \ 10110 \\ \downarrow \quad \downarrow \quad \downarrow \quad \downarrow \quad \downarrow \\ AC = 1. \end{array}$$

S	Z	-	AC	-	P	-	CY
↓	↓	↓	①	↓	0	↓	↑

* Program control with status bit:



Bit c: If s set 1, if carry 1 is generate.

s → If s set to 1, if highest order bit F₈ is 1.

If set to 'z' the output of ALU contain zero.

If set to 'v' (overflow) it set 1. If X-OR of the last

two carries (C₈ and C₇) equal 1, else 0.

Ex -

$$\begin{array}{r}
 A = 101 \times 1100 \\
 B = 00010000 \\
 \hline
 A \cap B = 000 \times 0000 \\
 \downarrow \\
 \text{depend } Z
 \end{array}$$

if Z is 0 $X = 0$ if Z is 1 $X = 1$

* Data transfer & manipulation:

① Data transfer - instruction.

- ① LOAD - transfer from memory to processor register usually Ac.
- ② - ④ STORE - transfer from memory to processor register into memory.

- ③ MOVE - transfer from one register to another register.

- ④ Exchange - swap instruction from one register to another register.

between two registers / a register and a memory word.

(v) Input Output → Transfer data among processors register and output input device.

(vi) PUSH/POP → Transfer between processor register and memory stack.

② Data manipulation

① Data manipulate instruction:

(i) Arithmetic instruction — Perform basic arithmetic operation on specific operand

Examp — INC, DEC, ADD, SUB, MUL, DIV.

② Logical and Bit manipulate instruction:

(ii) Logical and Bit manipulate instruction perform binary operations on the string of Bits stored in register

Examp — CLR, OR, AND, COM. ↳ (complement).

(iii) Shift operation: Shift operation in which the bits of words are moved to the left
(P.T.O) →

or right.

Ex - SHR, ROR, SHL → (Logical shift left).
↓
(Logical shift right). (Rotate Right).

* Program control instruction:

is used to make the flow of program controlled to be altered. It specifies condition for altering the content of the program counter breaking the sequence of instruction execution.

Example - BR (conditional Branch), call,
JMP (Jump),

* Interrupt handling:

Interrupt is an event that changes the sequence in which the process execute instructions.

Transfer program control from a current running program to another service.

(P.T.O) →

control return to the original program after the service program is execute.

Type of interrupt: (i) External Interrupt
(ii) Internal " "
(iii) Software "

(i) External Interrupt: comes from I/o device, from a timing device from a circuit monitoring the power supply. and any other external source.

(ii) Internal Interrupt: caused by register overflow attempt to devide by zero an invalid operation stack operation and protection violation.

(iii) Software Interrupt: Initiated by executing an instruction by the programmer to initiate (P.T.O) →

an interrupt procedure at any desire point in the program.

* STEPS of Interrupt service taken by CPU:

- (i) An interrupt is initiated by internal or external signal.
- (ii) The address of interrupt service Routine (ISR) is determined by hardware.
- (iii) An interrupt procedure all the information necessary to define the state of the CPU.
- (iv) Execute the ISR.
- (v) Restore the original state

9-10-19

* Computer Generation :-

(i) First generation (1940-1956) → used vacuum

tube as a major piece of technology.

Vacuum tube was used were widely used from 1940 to 1956. Vacuum tube were large component and result in first generation computer. being quite large in size taking up a lot of space in room. Some of first generation computers took up an entire.

ENIAC: is a great example of first generation computer. It consisted of nearly 20,000 vacuum as well a 10,000 capacitor and 70,000 registers.

It ~~re~~quire weighted over 30 tons and took up lot of space, requiring large room to house it. Other example of first generation computer including EDSAC, IBM 701 and Manchester Mark 1.

2016
T.CB

Limitation of first generation of computer:

- (i) Operating speed was very slow.
- (ii) Power consumption was very high.
- (iii) They required large space for installation.
- (iv) The program capability was very low.
- (v) Quite larger, they generate lots of heat.
require special housing.
- (vi) The medium internal storage.

(ii) Second Generation (1956-1963) → The second generation computer saw the use of transistors instead of vacuum tube. Transistor are widely used in computer from 1956 to 1963. Transistor were smaller in size, faster in speed. and cheaper to build. The first computer to use transistors was the TX-0. and was introduced in 1956.

Other computer that used transistors include the IBM-7070, philco transac S-1000, and RCA 501.

2016
Q. Which limitation of first generation solved in second generation?

⇒ Transistor replaced the vacuum tubes of the first generation computer.

Transistor allows computer become smaller, faster, cheaper, energy efficient and reliable.

2017
1(a) Limitation of second generation of computer:

- (i) They used transistor as their main component.
- (ii) Maintenance requirement is high.
- (iii) Very costly.

Third generation computer (1964-1971) → The third generation of computer introduced the use of IC in computer. The IC in computer helped reduce in size of components even more compared to second generation computer. as well as make more faster. They used IC is popularly known as chips. The capacities of main memory were greatly enlarged. They used operating system that allow machines to run many different program simultaneously.

Limitation of third generation of computer:

(iv) Fourth generation computer (1972 - 2010)

The fourth generation computers took advantage of the invention of microprocessor most commonly known as CPU. Microprocessor along with integrated circuits helped make it possible to fit computer easily on a desk. and for introduction of the laptop. They have high computing power and extremely large memories than earlier computers. They used large scale integrated circuit and very large scale integrated circuit.

Limitation of fourth generation computer:

(v) Fifth generation computer (2010 - at present) →

The fifth generation of computer is beginning of ~~Artistic~~ Artificial Intelligence (AI) an exciting technology that has many potential application around the world. Leaps have been made in AI technology and computers. But there is still much room for improvement.

Limitation of Fifth generation computer: