第一讲



第一部分: 概述

一. 计算机组成与结构简介

- 1. 计算机的基本组成
- 2. 计算机的层次结构
- 3. 总线结构

二. 计算机中数的表示

- 1. 无符号数和有符号数
- 2. 定点数、浮点数表示
- 3. 非数值数据的表示

三. 计算机的基本工作过程

- 1. 指令的含义
- 2. 程序的执行
- 3. 计算机最基本的操作与控制:微操作

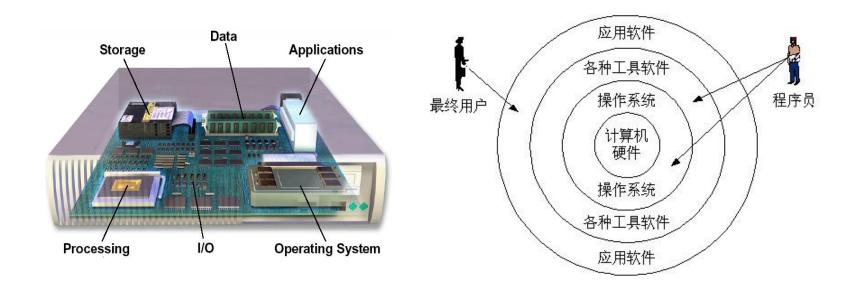


❖ 硬件(Hardware)

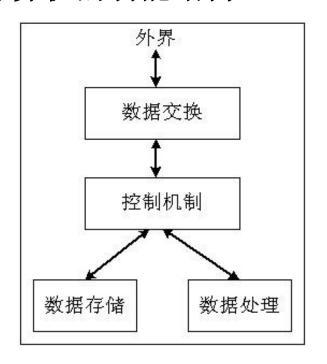
> 计算机的物理部分,可以实现计算机最基本的操作行为。

❖ 软件(Software)

▶使计算机实现各种功能的程序集合。包括系统软件、应用软件两大类。



- ❖计算机的功能
 - Data Processing (数据处理)
 - Data Storage (数据存储)
 - Data Movement (数据移动,交换)
 - ➤ Control (控制)
- ❖计算机的功能结构



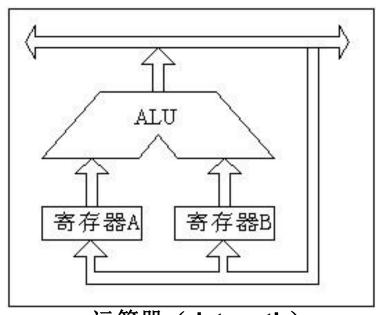
数据处理 -- 运算器

数据存储 -- 存储器

数据交换 -- 10设备

控制 -- 控制器

- ❖运算器:实现数据处理的部件
 - > 完成最基本的算术逻辑运算
 - **► ALU** (Arithmetic and Logic Unit) + Registers
 - >运算器与机器字长(字的概念)的关系
 - >运算器与机器性能指标:
 - MIPS: Millions of Instructuions Per Second
 - CPI : Cycle per Instruction
- ❖简单运算器结构图

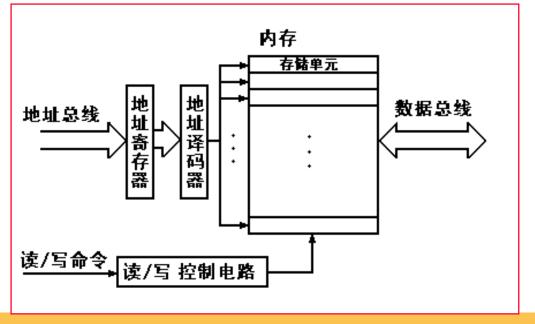


运算器(datapath)

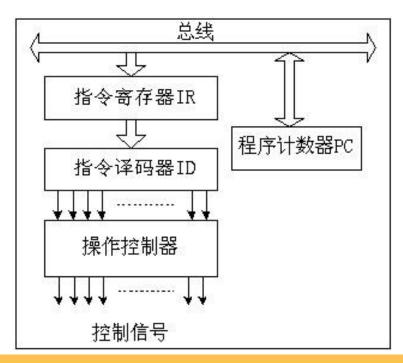
❖存储器:实现数据存储的部件

- >保存程序和数据(二进制信息)
- ▶存储体(多个存储单元组成) + 控制电路
- >存储字:每个存储单元存放的二进制代码
- ▶ 存储字长:每个存储单元存放的二进制代码的位数
- ▶存储容量:存储单元个数 X 存储字长, 单位: bit, Byte, Word
- ▶地址的概念:每一个字节单元拥有一个唯一的地址(索引)
- ▶存储器的工作方式:读、写

❖存储器结构简图

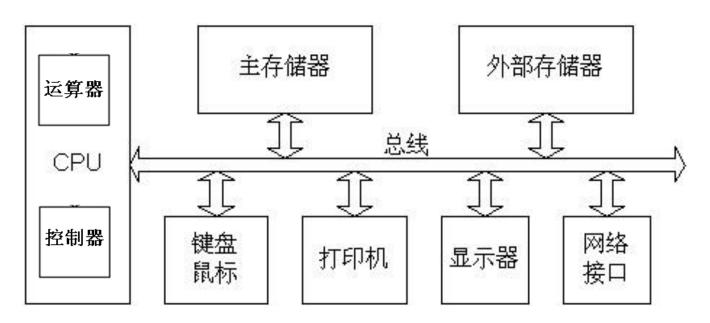


- ❖控制器:实现控制功能的部件
 - >提供各部件工作所需的控制信号,控制计算机其他部件协同工作
 - ▶指令部件(Instruction Register , Instruction Decoder)
 - ▶指令顺序控制(Program Counter)
 - ▶时序逻辑部件(Clock,Timer ,Sequencing Logic)
 - ▶控制信号生成部件(Control Signal Generator or Control Memory)
 - ▶ Datapath +Control = CPU (Central Process Unit) or Processor
- ❖控制器结构简图

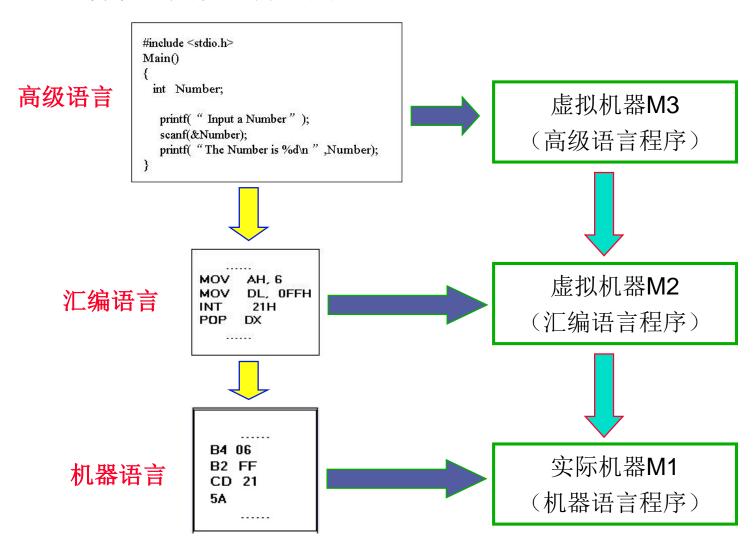


- ❖ 输入输出: 实现数据交换的部件
 - ▶实现计算机内部与外界(其他系统或人类)的信息交换
 - >实现数据交换的设备:输入设备、输出设备
 - >接口标准与接口部件

❖ 计算机整体结构简图



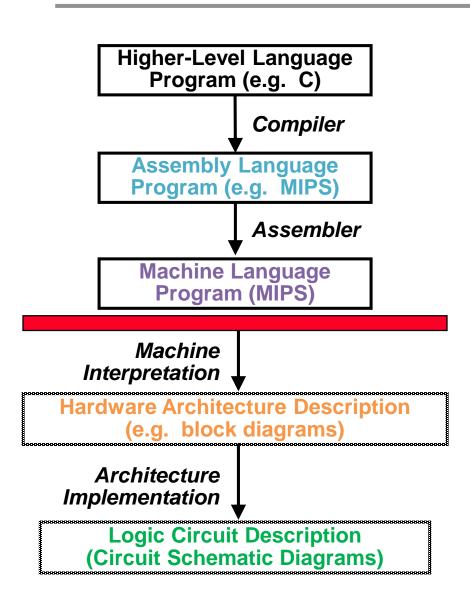
❖ 计算机的层次结构的演变



(机器语言程序)

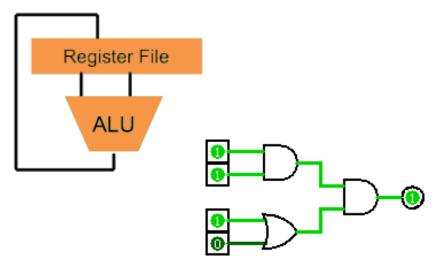
❖ 三级层次结构的计算机系统 编译程序 链接程序 虚拟机器M3 高级语言源程序 第三级 **PASCAL** 机器语言 (高级语言程序) 链接 **FORTRAN** 可执行程序 目标程序 C/C++ 汇编程序 链接程序 虚拟机器M2 第二级 MOV AH, 6 (汇编语言程序) B4 06 B4 06 MOV DL, OFF# 汇编 链接 B2 FF B2 FF INT 21H CD 21 CD 21 POP DX 5A 5A 机器语言 机器语言 汇编语言源程序 目标程序 可执行程序 实际机器M1 第一级 机器语言程序直接在M1上运行

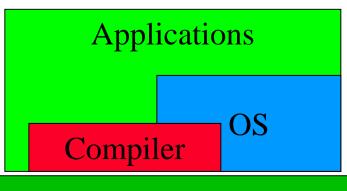




```
temp = v[k];
v[k] = v[k+1];
v[k+1] = temp;
Lw $t0, 0($2)
Lw $t1, 4($2)
Sw $t1, 0($2)
Sw $t0, 4($2)
```

0000 1001 1100 0110 1010 1111 0101 1000 1010 1111 0101 1000 0000 1001 1100 0110 1100 0110 1010 1010 1010 1010 1010 1010 1010 1010 1111





Software layers of abstraction

Instruction Set Architecture (ISA)

Instruction Input/Output

Datapath & Control

Digital Design

Circuit Design

Hardware layers for design abstraction

第二讲

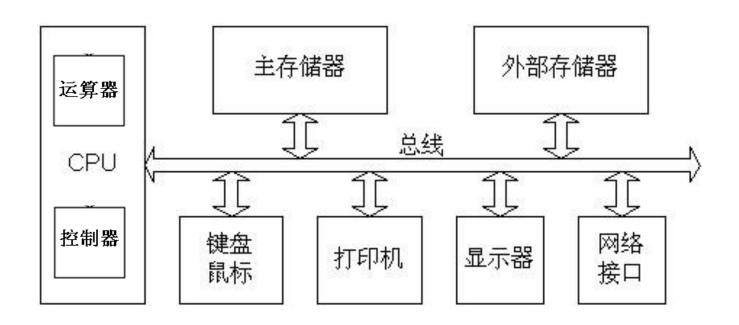


第一讲简要回顾

❖ 计算机基本组成

- 硬件和软件
- 存储器、运算器、控制器、输入设备和输出设备
- > 总线结构

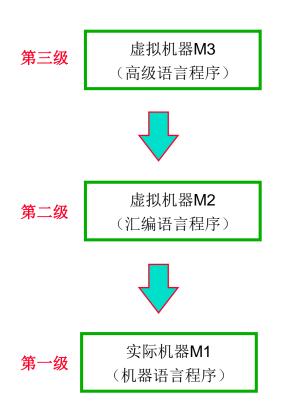
❖ 计算机整体结构简图

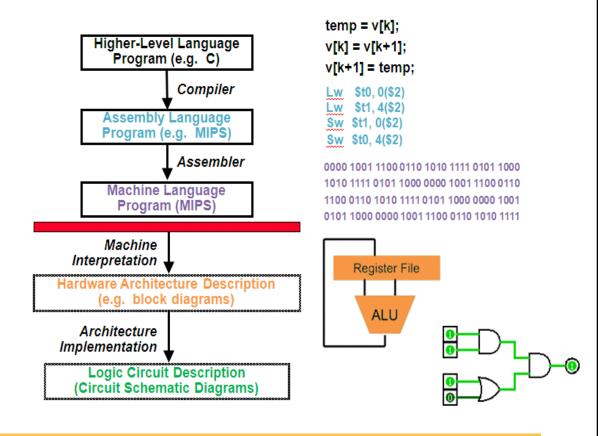


第一讲简要回顾(续)

❖ 计算机层次结构

- ▶ 可运行高级语言程序的M3、可运行汇编语言程序的M2、可运行机器语言程序的M1
- ▶ 指令集系统结构 ISA

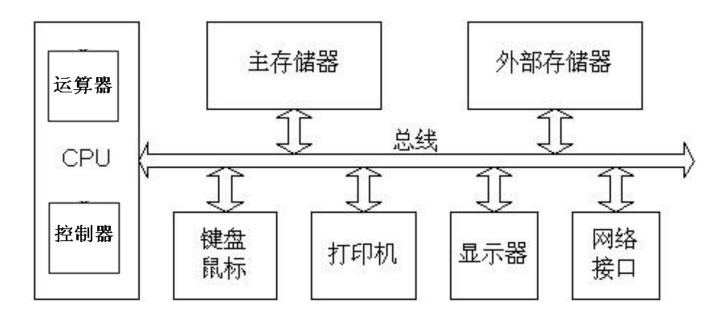




1.3 计算机总线结构

❖ 总线结构

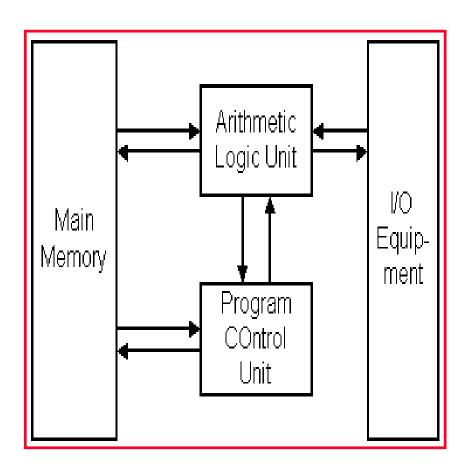
- ▶总线: 符合一定的标准的一组公共信息通道
- >系统总线构成: 地址总线、数据总线、控制总线
- ▶总线举例: QPI/HT, PCI/PCI-E, SCSI/EISA/ISA
- 单总线结构、多总线结构



1.3 计算机总线结构

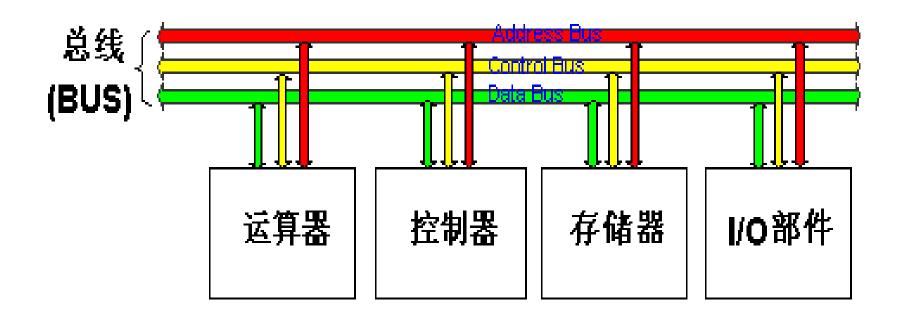
□ 1946年,冯 诺依曼与同事开始研制 IAS。该机结构被公认为随后发展起来的通用计算机的原型。





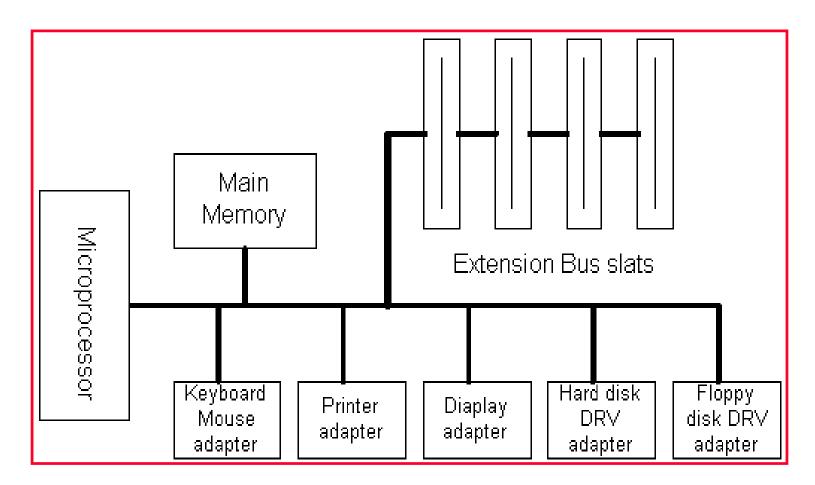
1.4 计算机总线结构

◆单总线结构



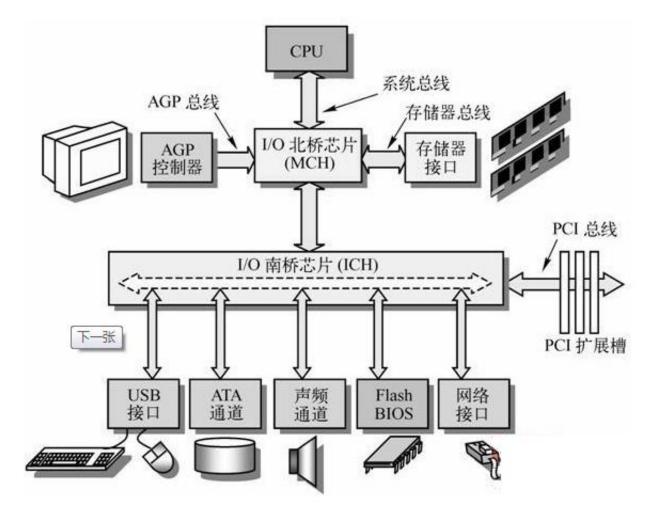
1.4 计算机总线结构

□ 早期PC(PC/XT)的内部结构(单总线结构)



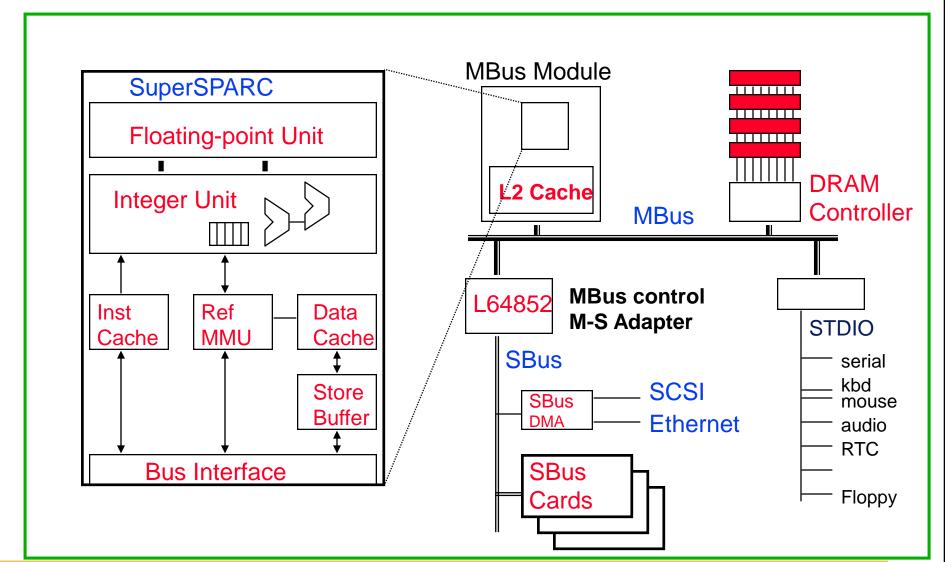
1.3 计算机总线结构

U 普通PC (Pentium) 的内部结构 (多总线结构)

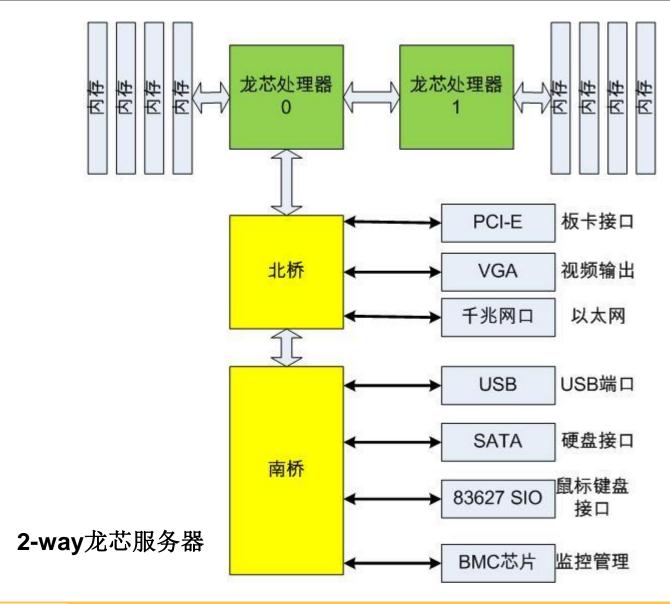


1.3 计算机总线结构

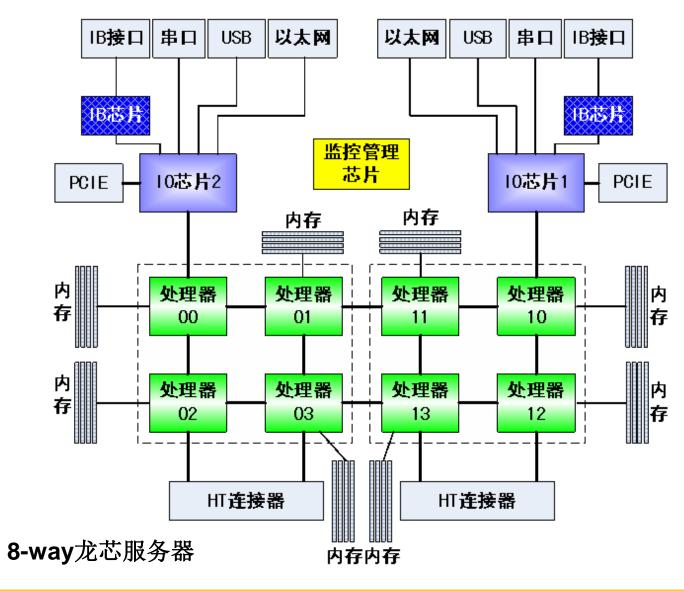
🛄 Sun SPARCstation20(RISC)多总线结构



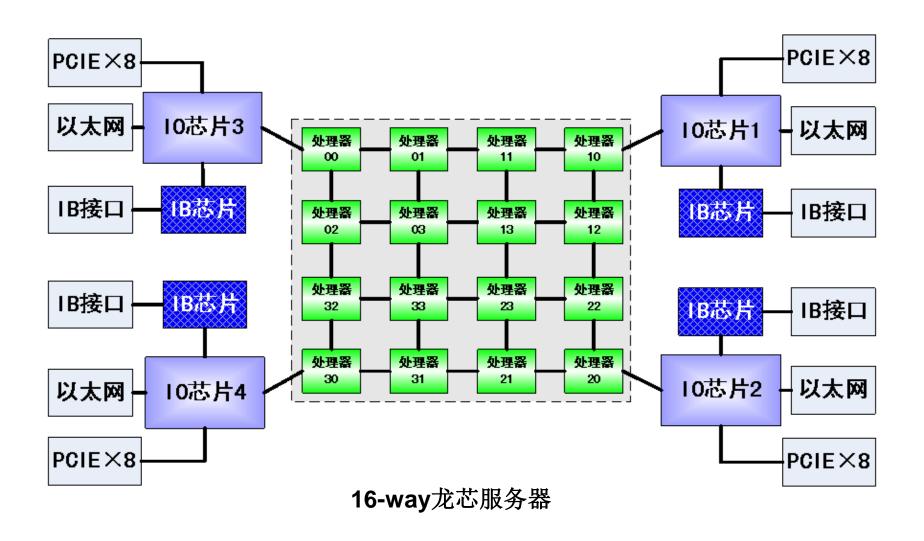
1.3 计算机总线结构 ---- 实例



1.3 计算机总线结构 ---- 实例



1.3 计算机总线结构---- 实例

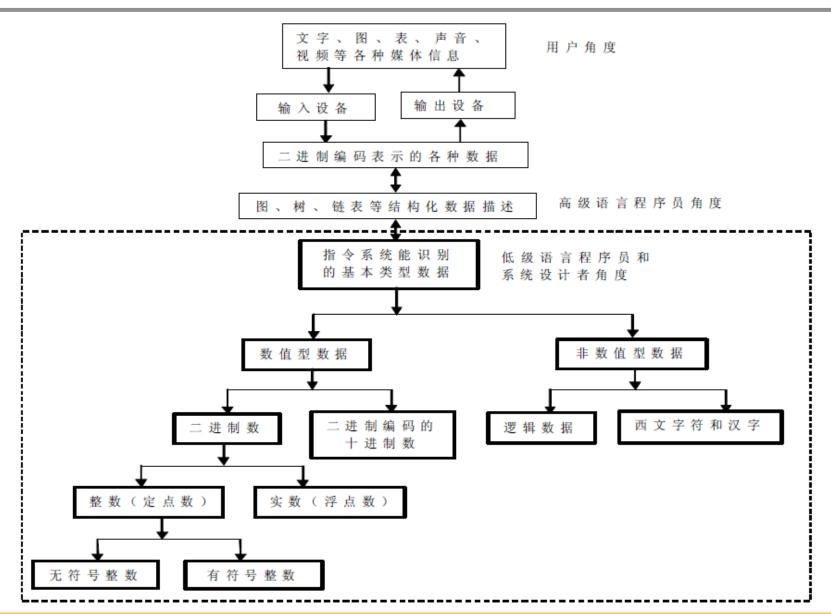




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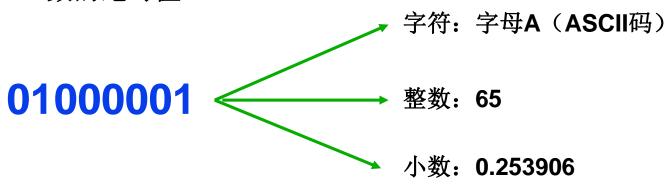


计算机中数的表示的基本问题



计算机中数的表示的基本问题

- ❖ 基本约束:采用二进制,只有1和0
- ❖ 编码规则
- ❖ 数的表示要解决的问题
 - >数的符号:正数、负数、零
 - ▶数的形态:整数、小数、小数点的性质
 - >数的绝对值



2.1 无符号数和有符号数

❖无符号数

- 数的编码中所有位均为数值位,没有符号位
- > 只能表示 >=0 的正整数
- 16位无符号数的表示范围: 0~65535
- 一般在全部是正数运算且不出现负值结果的场合下, 可使用无符号数表示,例如 地址运算



2.1 无符号数和有符号数

- ❖ 有符号数
 - 数的实例: + 0.1010110, 0.1101001, + 1001.001, -1101101
- ❖ 机器数表示
 - 数的正负问题:设符号位,
 - "0"表示"正", "1"表示"负", 固定为编码的最高位。
 - 机器数和真值
 - 真值0怎么办:正零,负零
 - 小数点怎么办:固定小数点(即定点数)
 - 定点小数:绝对值小于1,如: 0 ^1100000
 - 定点整数:没有小数部分,如: 0 1100000^
 - 带有整数和小数部分的数怎么办:浮点数,
 - 按2为基的科学表示方法表示

C语言中变量为什么要一定先定义类型才能使用 char、int、unsigned、float、double



2.1 无符号数和有符号数

▶定点小数

如: 01100000

是十进制的0.75



>定点整数

如: 01100000

是十进制的96



2.2 定点数表示(定点整数与定点小数)

❖机器数表示及其表示范围 (原码、反码、补码、移码)

$$[x]_{\mathbb{R}} = \begin{cases} x & 0 \le x \le 2^{n-1} - 1 \\ 2^{n-1} - x & -(2^{n-1} - 1) \le x \le 0 \end{cases}$$

$$[x]_{\mathbb{K}} = \begin{cases} x & 0 \le x \le 2^{n-1} - 1 \\ (2^n - 1) + x & -(2^{n-1} - 1) \le x \le 0 \end{cases}$$

$$[x]_{\mathbb{K}} = \begin{cases} x & 0 \le x \le 2^{n-1} - 1 \\ -(2^{n-1} - 1) \le x \le 0 \end{cases}$$

$$[x]_{\mathbb{K}} = \begin{cases} x & 0 \le x \le 2^{n-1} - 1 \\ -(2^{n-1} - 1) \le x \le 0 \end{cases}$$

$$[x]_{\mathbb{K}} = 2^{n-1} + x & -2^{n-1} \le x \le 2^{n-1} - 1 \end{cases}$$

N位定点整数的原码、反码、补码和移码表示及其表示范围

2.2 定点数 (定点整数与定点小数)

十进制数值	原码	反码	补码
0	0000	0000	0000
1	0001	0001	0001
2	0010	0010	0010
3	0011	0011	0011
4	0100	0100	0100
5	0101	0101	0101
6	0110	0110	0110
7	0111	0111	0111
-0	1000	1111	0000
-1	1 001	1 110	1 111
-2	1 010	1 101	1 110
-3	<mark>1</mark> 011	1 100	1 101
-4	1100	1 011	1 100
-5	1 101	1 010	1 011
-6	1 110	1 001	1 010
-7	1111	1000	1001

2.2 定点数 (定点整数与定点小数)

❖原码

- > 容易理解
- "0"的表示不唯一,不利于程序员编程
- ▶ 机器实现加、减运算的方法不统一
- > 需对符号位进行单独处理,不利于硬件设计

❖反码

> 很少使用

❖补码

- ▶ "0"的表示唯一
- >机器实现加、减运算的方法统一(模运算)
- ▶符号位参加运算,不需要单独处理
- >容易判溢出(用双符号位)

2.3 浮点数表示

❖浮点数的一般表示法: $S \times 2^{J}$,分为阶码和尾数两个部分

▶ 阶码J: 采用定点整数表示

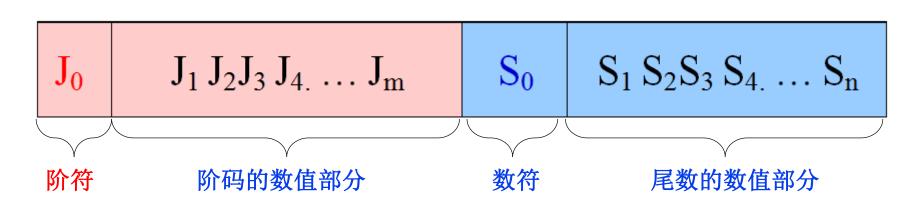
▶尾数S: 采用定点小数表示

▶例: (178.125)₁₀=(10110010.001)₂ (进制转化)

 $=0.10110010001 \times 2^{01000}$ (规格化)

阶码: 01000.

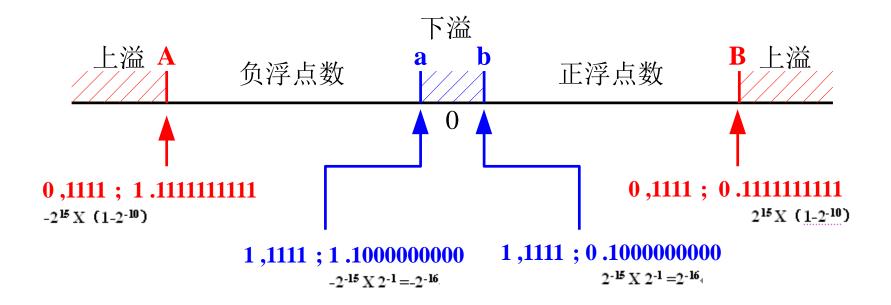
尾数: 0.10110010001



2.3 浮点数表示

- ❖浮点数的溢出问题
 - ≻上溢
 - ▶下溢(机器零)

假设阶码数值位数m=4,尾数数值位数n=10,那么对应规格化后浮点数的表示范围是:



2.3 浮点数表示 (IEEE 754)

- ❖IEEE 754: 符号(Sign)、阶码(Exponent)和尾数(Mantissa)。
- ❖IEEE 754标准: 单精度浮点数32位, 双精度浮点数64位
 - ▶数符 S: 1位, 0表示正数, 1表示负数
 - ▶ 阶码 E: 用移码表示, n 位阶码偏移量为 2ⁿ⁻¹-1。如8位阶码偏移量 为 7FH(即127), 11位阶码偏移量3FFH(即1023)
 - ▶尾数 M: 尾数必须规格化成小数点左侧一定为1,并且小数点前面 这个1作为隐含位被省略。这样单精度浮点数尾数实际上为24位。
 - ▶规格化数(尾数)形式: M=1.m

单精度浮点数 32位

双精度浮点数 64位

2.3 浮点数表示(IEEE 754标准)

❖浮点数精度

- ▶单精度浮点数表示公式: (-1)^S×1.m×2^(E-127)
- ▶双精度浮点数表示公式: (-1)^S×1.m×2^(E-1023)

❖IEEE 754关于浮点数表示的约定(单精度为例)

E	M	浮点数 N
1≤E ≤ 254	$M \neq 0$	表示规范浮点数 $N = (-1)^{s} \times 1.m \times 2^{(E-127)}$
E = 0	M = 0	表示 N = 0
E = 0	$M \neq 0$	表示非规范浮点数 $N = (-1)^{s} \times 0.m \times 2^{-126}$
E = 255	M = 0	表示无穷大,由符号位 S 确 定是正无穷大还是负无穷大
E = 255	$M \neq 0$	NaN(Not a Number) 不是一个数

非规格化浮点数尾数部 分不必规格化成小数点 左侧为**1**,而是**0**。

2.3 浮点数表示 (IEEE 754标准)

❖单精度浮点数表示范围

Range Name	Sign (s) 1 [31]	Exponent (E) 8 [30-23]	Mantissa (<i>m</i>) 23 [22-0]	Hexadecimal Range	Range
-NaN	1	1111	111 ~ 0001	FFFFFFF ~ FF800001	
-Infinity (Negative Overflow)	1	1111	0000	FF800000	< -(2-2 ⁻²³) × 2 ¹²⁷
Negative Normalized $-1.m \times 2^{(E-127)}$	1	1110 ~ 0001	1111 ~ 0000	FF7FFFFF ~ 80800000	-(2-2 ⁻²³) × 2 ¹²⁷ ~-2 ⁻¹²⁶
Negative Denormalized $-0.m \times 2^{(-126)}$	1	0000	1111 ~ 0001	807FFFFF ~ 80000001	-(1-2 ⁻²³) × 2 ⁻¹²⁶ ~ -2 ⁻¹⁴⁹
-0	1	0000	0000	80000000	-0
+0	0	0000	0000	00000000	0
Positive Denormalized $0.m \times 2^{(-126)}$	0	0000	0001 ~ 1111	00000001 ~ 007FFFFF	2 ⁻¹⁴⁹ ~ (1-2 ⁻²³) × 2 ⁻¹²⁶
Positive Normalized $1.m \times 2^{(F-127)}$	0	0001 ~ 1110	0000 ~ 1111	00800000 ~ 7F7FFFF	2 ⁻¹²⁶ ~ (2-2 ⁻²³) × 2 ¹²⁷
+Infinity (Positive Overflow)	0	1111	0000	7F800000	> (2-2 ⁻²³) × 2 ¹²⁷
+NaN	0	1111	0001 ~ 111	7F800001 ~ 7FFFFFF	

2.3 浮点数表示 (IEEE 754标准)

◆单精度浮点数示例: 178.125, -0.0449219

$$(178.125)_{10} = (10110010.001)_2$$

 $= 1.0110010001 \times 2^{111}$
 $S = 0$
 $E = 00000111 + 011111111$
 $= 10000110$
 $m = 0110010001000000000000000$

2.4 非数值数据的表示

❖逻辑数据编码

▶一位二进制编码表示:真(1)、假(0)

❖西文字符编码(ASCII码,7位)

- ▶数字字符: 0/1/2/.../9
- ▶英文字母(大小写): A/B/C/.../Z/a/b/c/.../z
- **▶专用符号: +/-/%/*/&/...**
- ▶控制字符(不可打印或显示字符)

❖汉字编码

- ▶输入码:用于汉字的输入,如拼音码、五笔字型码;
- ➤国标码: 1981年我国颁布了《信息交换用汉字编码字符集·基本集》 (GB2312—80)。该标准规定了6763个常用汉字的标准代码。
- ▶内 码:用于汉字存储、查找、传送等,基于国标码,占2个字节;
- ▶点阵码或汉字向量描述:用于汉字的显示和打印。



2.4 非数值数据的表示

❖国际多字符集

- ▶国际标准ISO/IEC 10646提出了一种包括全世界现代书面语言文字所使用的所有字符的标准编码,每个字符用4个字节编码(UCS-4)或2字节编码(UCS-2)。
- ▶我国(包括港台地区)与日本、韩国联合制订了一个统一的汉字字符集(CJK编码),共收集了上述不同国家和地区的共约2万多汉字及符号,采用2字节编码(UCS-2),现已成为国标(GB13000)。
- ▶微软Windows中采用中西文统一编码,收集了中、日、韩三国常用的约2万汉字,称为"Unicode",采用2字节编码,与UCS-2一致。

2.5 数据的检错/纠错

❖数据的检错/纠错

- ▶数据在存取和传送时,由于元器件故障或噪音干扰等原因会出现数据差错,因此产生了检查差错、纠正差错的需求
- ▶采用"冗余校验"的思想,在原数据编码之外,增加若干位校 验码,实现检错或纠错功能
- >常用校验码
 - 奇偶校验码
 - 海明校验码
 - 循环冗余校验码



第一部分: 概述

- 计算机组成与结构简介
- 1. 计算机的基本组成
- 2. 计算机的层次结构
- 3. 总线结构
- 二. 计算机中数的表示
 - 1. 无符号数和有符号数
 - 2. 定点数和浮点数
 - 3. 非数值数据表示
- 三. 计算机的基本工作过程
 - 1. 指令的含义
 - 2. 程序的执行
 - 3. 计算机最基本的操作与控制:微操作



3.1 计算机的工作过程

- ❖机器指令: 计算机硬件可以执行的表示一种基本操作的 二进制代码。
 - ▶指令格式:操作码 + 操作数(操作数地址)
 - ▶操作码: 指明指令的操作性质
 - >操作数(地址): 指令操作数的位置(或操作数本身)

操作码

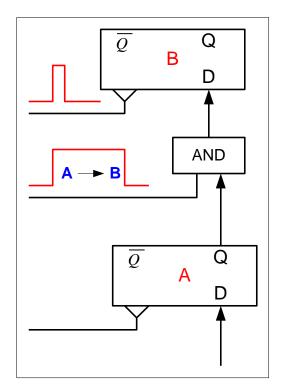
操作数地址

11010101 10000100 01010001 10100000

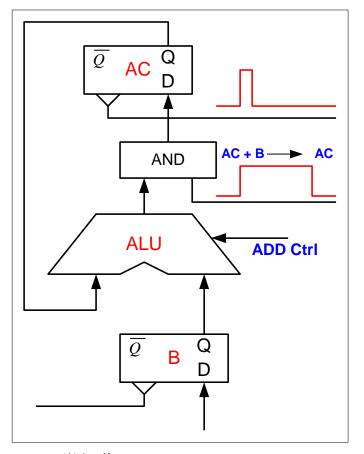
- ❖程序: 在此特指一段机器指令序列。
 - >完成一定的功能,采用某种算法,具备一定的流程;
 - ▶计算机按照程序所规定的流程和指令顺序,一条一条地执行指令,达到完成程序所规定的功能的目的。
 - ▶ 计算机采用程序计数器 (Program Counter) 来决定指令执行的顺序。

3.2 指令的执行过程

- ❖ 微操作: 计算机可以完成的最基本的操作,一条机器指令的执行 可以解释为一系列的微操作的执行
 - ▶操作性质:对数据进行某种处理
 - ▶操作对象
 - >操作的时间与条件



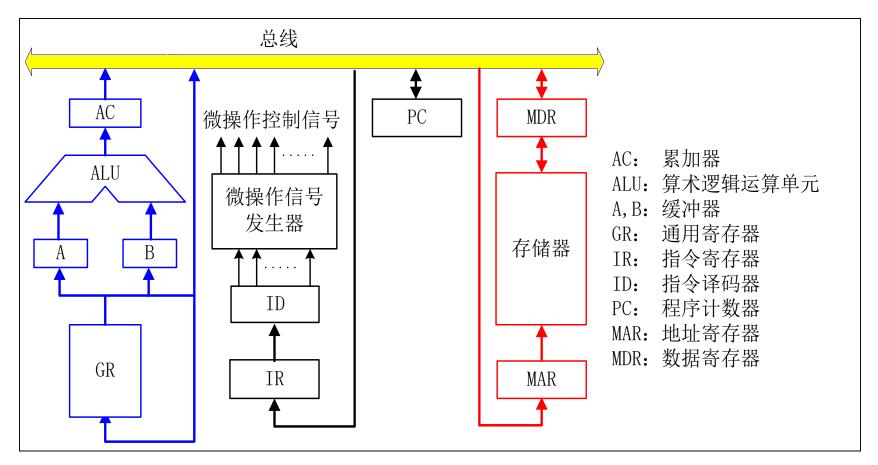
微操作: RegA→RegB



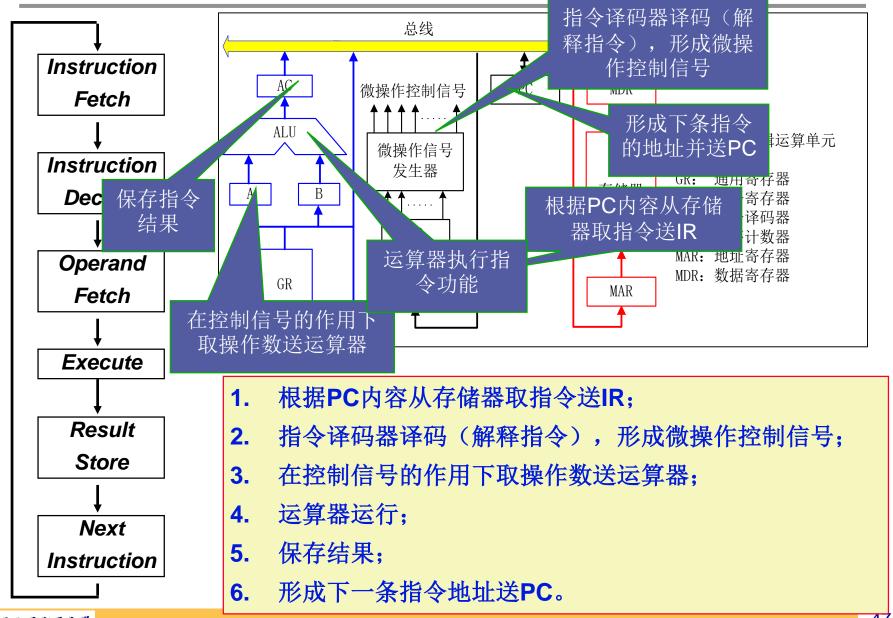
微操作: AC +RegB→ AC

3.2 指令的执行过程

机器结构简化图



3.2 指令的执行过程



Example

Y=ax²+bx-c 假定a,b,c,x均为已知数,且已存放在内存,求y。

假定指令系统: 16位指令系统

Opcode	Address	
8	8	

指令	操作码	说明	
ADD	00H	$AC \leftarrow (AC) + Mem(Add)$	
LD	01H	AC ← Mem(Add)	
SUB	02H	$AC \leftarrow (AC) - Mem(Add)$	
MUL	03H	$AC \leftarrow (AC) \times Mem(Add)$	
ST	04H	Mem(Add) ← (AC)	

内存	地址
	00H
	02H
	04H
	06H
	H80
	0AH
	0CH
	0EH
结果y将存放在此	10H
值a	12H
值b	14H
值c	16H
值x	18H

444

Example

Y=ax²+bx-c 假定a,b,c,x均为已知数,且存放在内存中,求y。

指令	操作码	说明	
ADD	00H	$AC \leftarrow (AC) + Mem(Add)$	
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MUL	03H	$AC \leftarrow (AC) \times Mem(Add)$	
ST	04H	Mem(Add) ← (AC)	

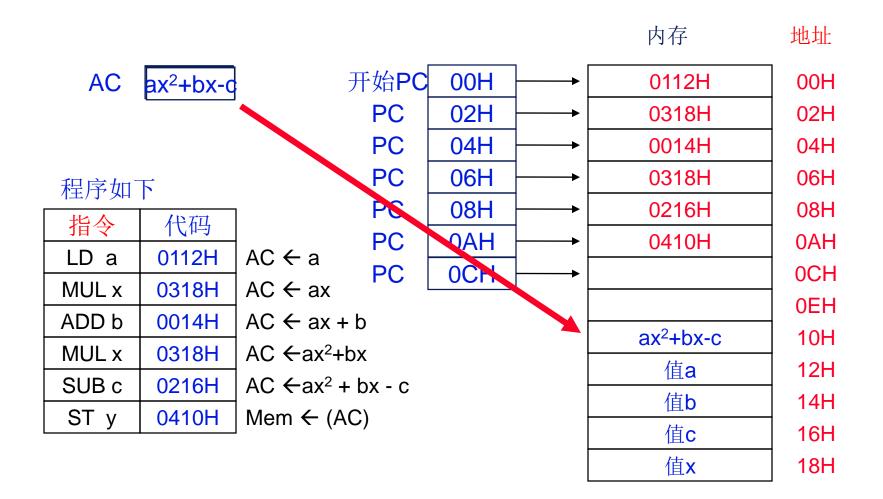
程序如下

指令	代码	
LD a	0112H	AC ← a
MUL x	0318H	AC ← ax
ADD b	0014H	AC ← ax + b
MUL x	0318H	AC ←ax²+bx
SUB c	0216H	AC ←ax² + bx - c
ST y	0410H	Mem ← (AC)

内存	地址
	00H
	02H
	04H
	06H
	08H
	0AH
	0CH
	0EH
结果y将存放在此	10H
值a	12H
值b	14H
值c	16H
值x	18H

444 444

Example





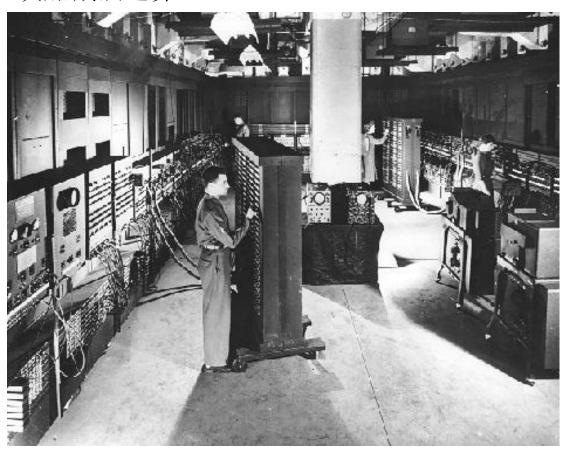
冯. 诺依曼计算机结构的特点

❖主要特点

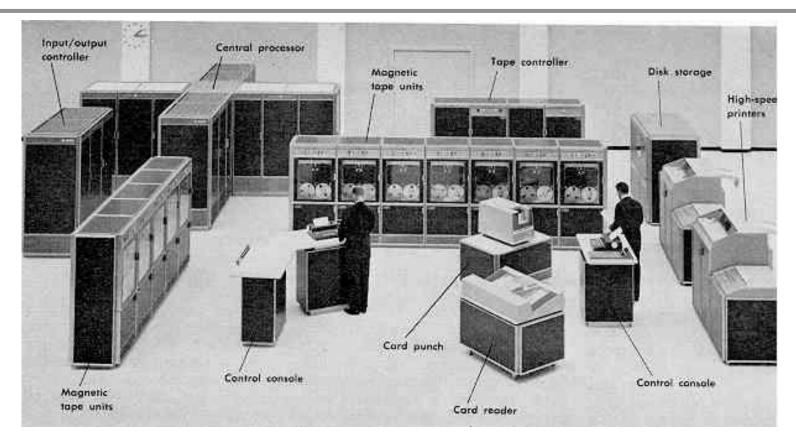
- ▶ 计算机由运算器、存储器、控制器和输入输出部分组成
- ▶指令和数据用二进制表示,两者在形式上没有差别
- ▶指令和数据存放在存储器中,按地址访问
- ▶指令有操作码和地址码两个部分组成,操作码指定操作性质,地址码指定操作数位置
- ▶采用"存储程序"方式进行工作

ENIAC (1946)

- ▶ ENIAC: 十进制(而非二进制)计算机,用十个真空管(一个ON, 其余OFF)表示一位十进制数,算术运算按十进制的方式完成。
- ▶ 占地170平方米,重30吨,耗电140千瓦,共用18000个真空管,每秒可进行5000次加减法运算。



Mainframe Era: 1950s - 1960s



Enabling Tech: Computers

Big Players: "Big Iron" (IBM, UNIVAC)

Cost: \$1M, Target: Businesses

Using: COBOL, Fortran, timesharing OS

Minicomputer Era: 1970s



Enabling Tech: Integrated circuits

Big Players: Digital, HP

Cost: \$10k, Target: Labs & universities

Using: C, UNIX OS

PC Era: Mid 1980s - Mid 2000s



Enabling Tech: Microprocessors

Big Players: Apple, IBM

Cost: \$1k, Target: Consumers (1/person)

Using: Basic, Java, Windows OS

Post-PC Era: Late 2000s - ???

Personal Mobile Devices (PMD):



Enabling Tech: Wireless networking, smartphones

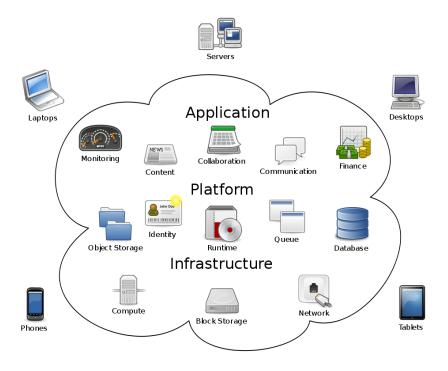
Big Players: Apple, Nokia, ...

Cost: \$500, Target: Consumers on the go

Using: Objective C, Android OS

Post-PC Era: Late 2000s - ???

Cloud Computing:



Enabling Tech: Local Area Networks, broadband Internet

Big Players: Amazon, Google, ...

Target: Transient users or users who cannot afford high-end equipment



Moore's Law

The experts look ahead

Cramming more components onto integrated circuits

With unit cost falling as the number of components per circuit rises, by 1975 economics may dictate squeezing as many as 65,000 components on a single silicon chip

By Gordon E. Moore

Director, Research and Development Laboratories, Fairchild Semiconductor division of Fairchild Cemera and Instrument Corp.

The future of integrated electronics is the future of electronics itself. The advantages of integration will bring about a proliferation of electronics, pushing this science into many new areas.

Integrated circuits will lead to such wonders as home computers—or at least terminals connected to a central computer—automatic controls for automatics, and personal portable communications equipment. The electronic wristwatch needs only a display to be feasible today.

But the biggest potential lies in the production of large systems. In telephone communications, integrated circuits in digital filters will separate channels on multiplex equipment. Integrated circuits will also switch te lephone circuits and perform data processing.

Computers will be more powerful, and will be organized in completely different ways. For example, memories built of integrated electronics may be distributed throughout the

The author

Dr. Gordon E. Moone is one of the new bread of a laddonic engineers, so hooked in the engineers, so hooked in the engineers of the control of the engineers of the control of the laddonic of the control of the darges in chamitary from the University of California and a Ph.D. dagges in pipelical chamistry from the California institute of l'acknology, the was one of the foundary of Paticalid Semiconductor and this bean development is boredonic and development is boredonic and development is boredonic and development is boredonic and the machine instead of being concentrate addition, the improved reliability made circuits will allow the construction of I Machines similar to those in existence lower costs and with faster turn-aroun Present and future

By integrated electronics, I mean nologies which are referred to as micr well as any additional ones that result tions supplied to the user as irreduch in ologies were first investigated in the ject was to miniaturize electronics equi crassingly complex electronic functions minimum weight. Several approach microassembly techniques for individi film structures and semi-onductor inte

Each approach evolved rapidly a each borrowed techniques from anoth believe the way of the future to be a co ous approaches.

The advocates of semiconductor in airea dy using the improved characteris tors by applying such films directly too tor substate. Those advocating a tefilms are developing sophisticated tech ment of active semiconductor devices mas.

Both approaches have worked we in equipment today.

Electronics, Volume 38, Number 8, April 19, 1965

The establishment

Integrated electronics is established today. Its techniques amost mandatory for new millitary systems, since effective liability, size and veight required by some of them is a chievable only with integration. Such programs as Apollo, for manned moon flight, have demonstrated thereliability of integrated electronics by showing that complete clicuit functions are as free from failure as the best individual transitions.

Most companies in the commercial computer field have minies in design or in early production employing integrated electronics. These machines cost less and perform better than those which use "conventional" electronics.

Instruments of various sorts, especially the rapidly increasing numbers employing digital techniques, are starting to use integration because it outs costs of both manufacture and design.

The use of linear integrated circuitry is still restricted primarily to the military. Such its degreted functions are expensive and not available in the variety required to satisfy a major function of linear electronics. But the first applications are beginning to appear in commercial electronics, paticularly in equi pment which needs low-frequency amplifiers of small size.

Reliability courts

In almost every of strated high reliability tion—low compared fers reduced systems performance has been

Integrated elector more generally a valid ing many functions the other techniques or no will be lower costs as from a ready supply of For most applicat

will predominate. Se somble candidates pr ments of integrated cir look attractive too, b and high reliability, b nota prime requisite.

Silic on is likely to others will be of use it gallium arsenide will functions. But silicon because of the technolist and its oxide, and be inexpensive starting in Costs and ourses.

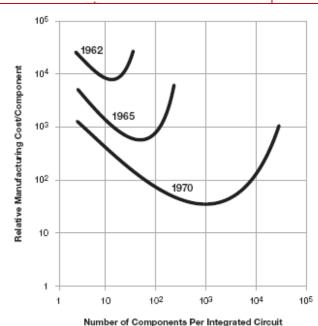
Reduced cost is a electronics, and the othe technology evolve larger circuit function For simple circuits, the proport ional to the nu equivalent piece of semiconductor in the equivalent package containing more components. But as components are added, decreased yields more than compensate for the increased complexity, sending to raise the cost per component. Thus there is a minimum costat any given time in the evolution of the technology. As present, it is reached when 50 components are used per circuit. But the minimum is rising rapidly while the entire cost curve is failing (see graph below). If we look ahead five years, a plot of costs suggests that the minimum in cost per componentinglish the expected in circuits with about 1,000 components per circuit (powking such circuit functions can be produced in moderate quantities.). In 1970, the manufacturing cost per component can be expected to be only a tenth of the present cost.

The complexity for minimum component costs has increased at a race of soughly a factor of two per year (see graph on next page). Certainly over the short term this race on be expected to continue, if not to increase. Over the longer term, the rate of increase is a bit more uncertain, although there is no reason to believe it will not remain nearly constant for at least 10 years. That means by 1975, the number of components per integrated circuit for minimum cost will be 65,000.

I believe that such a large circuit can be built on a single



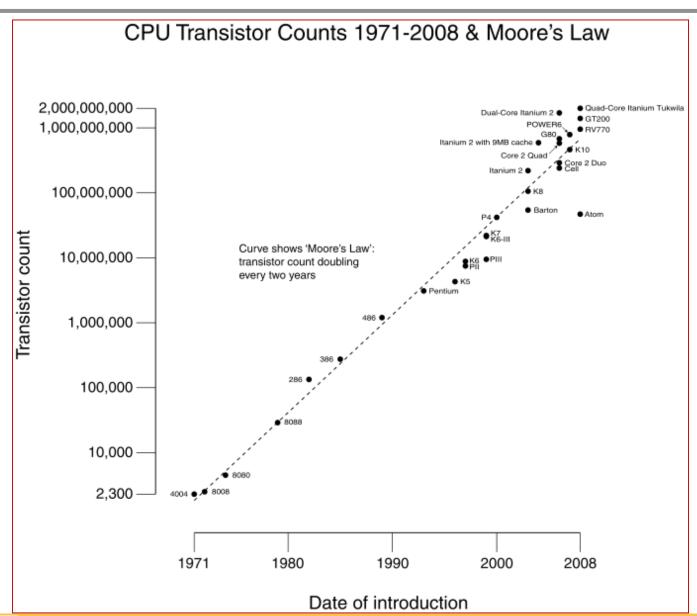
Gordon E. Moore



1965 John Stranger of Country of Country of Country for hispart Country

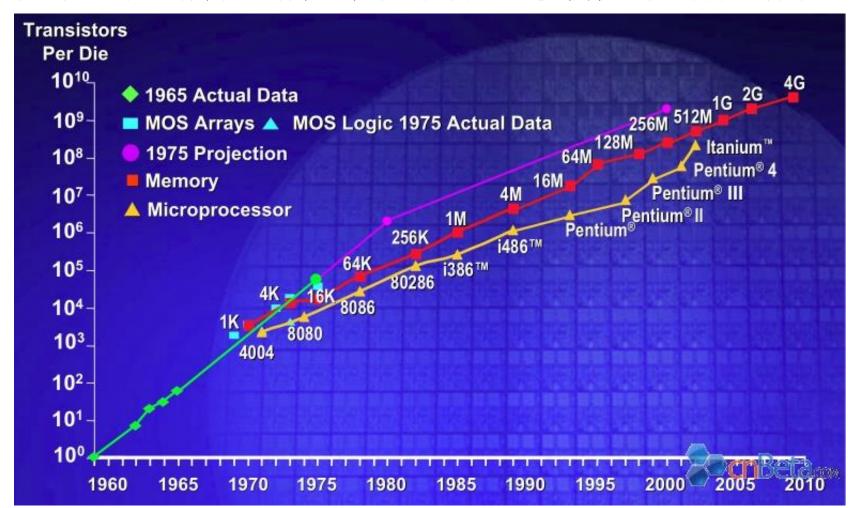
Electronics, Volume 38, Number 8, April 19, 1965

Moore's Law



Moore's Law

iSuppli公司的首席分析师Len Jelinek称:摩尔定律将可能在2014年到达极限, 当芯片工艺从20纳米向18纳米进军时,半导体工艺技术将达到芯片制造的极限



后续课程内容概要

