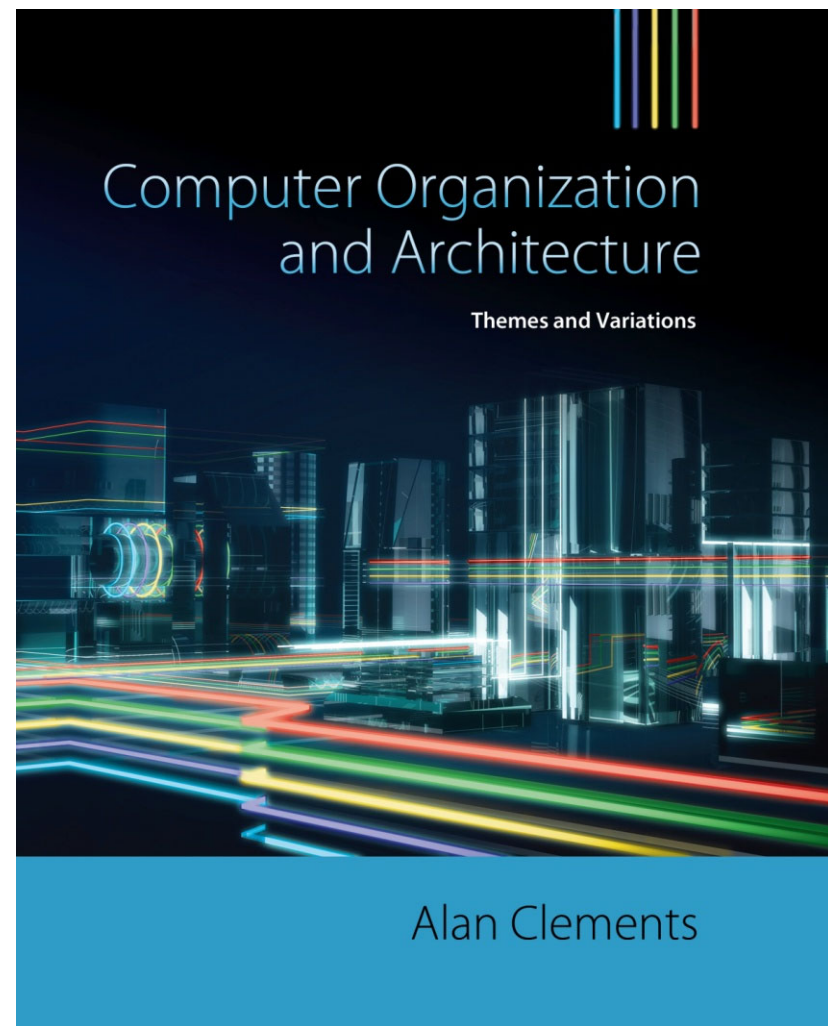


# CHAPTER 1

## Computer Systems Architecture



1

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# Structure of the Book (5 Parts)

## Part I *The Beginning*

introduces the concepts, history and underlying technology of digital computers.

1. *Computer Systems Architecture*
2. *Computer Arithmetic and Digital Logic*

## Part II *Instruction Set Architectures (ISAs)*

looks at the *programming model* of a computer and introduces the *register model* of a computer, its *instruction types*, and the *addressing modes* of a typical microprocessor.

3. *Architecture and Organization*
4. *Instruction Set Architectures - Breadth and Depth*
5. *Computer Architecture and Multimedia*

## Part III *Organization and Efficiency*

describes how we measure the performance of computers.

6. *Performance - Meaning and Metrics*
7. *Processor Control*
8. *Beyond RISC: Superscalar, VLIW, and Itanium*

# Structure of the Book

## Part IV *The System*

covers the other parts of a computer required to convert the microprocessor chip into a complete system; for example, *peripheral subsystems* and the wide range of *memory systems*, *storage devices*, and *buses* available to the computer systems' designer.

- 9. Cache Memory and Virtual Memory
- 10. Main Memory
- 11. Secondary Storage
- 12. Input/output

## Part V *Processor-Level Parallelism*

goes beyond the single-processor computer and introduces the notion of computers with multiple processors.

- 13. Processor-Level Parallelism

# Computer Architecture

- ❑ Computer architecture is a set of rules that describe the functionality of a computer system
  - Characterized by its instruction set architecture (ISA)
- ❑ An **ISA** is concerned with the computer's register set, instruction set, and addressing modes
- ❑ An **ISA** defines the model of a computer from the programmer viewpoint
- ❑ The computer's assembly language embodies its **ISA**
- ❑ An **ISA** is an abstract entity because it does not consider the specific design or implementation of a computer

⇒ blackbox  
of hardware.

# Computer Organization

- ❑ Computer *organization* is concerned with the *implementation* of an ISA
- ❑ Any given ISA can have many different organizations
  - Examples

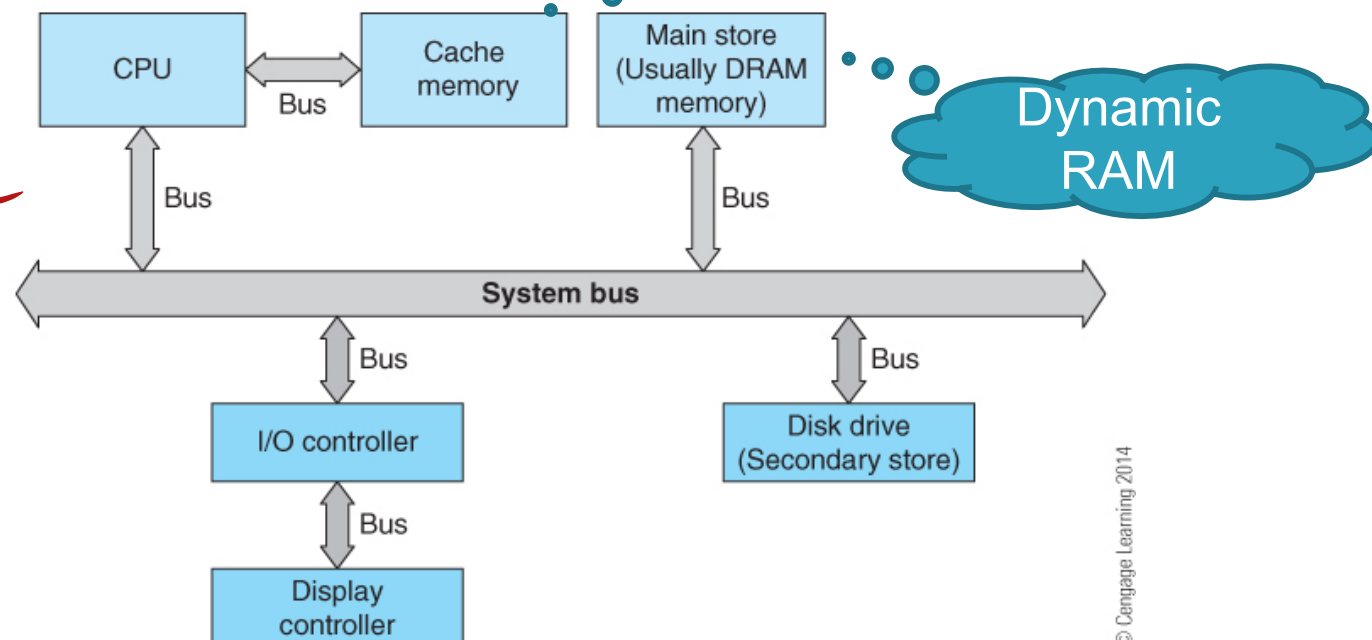
*same final output, different architecture.*
- ❑ Computer manufacturers regularly *modify the organization* of a processor while *keeping its ISA essentially constant*
- ❑ Today, a *computer's organization* is often referred to as its *microarchitecture*
- ❑ In *theory*, *architecture* and *organization* are orthogonal; that is, they are entirely independent
- ❑ You could say that
  - *architecture* tells you *what* a computer does and
  - *organization* tells you *how* it does it

# Computer Structure

- ❑ Figure 1.1 describes the **structure of a computer**.
- ❑ The term **computer** describes the **entire system**.
- ❑ The **CPU** is the *Central Processing Unit* that **reads instructions** and **executes** them.
- ❑ The **CPU** is often synonymous with **microprocessor**.
- ❑ **Modern microprocessors** usually include **cache** (high-speed) **memory on-chip**.
- ❑ A key component of computers is the **bus** (or family of busses) that moves information around the computer between different functional units (**data highway**).

FIGURE 1.1

Structure of a computer system



## Processor Register

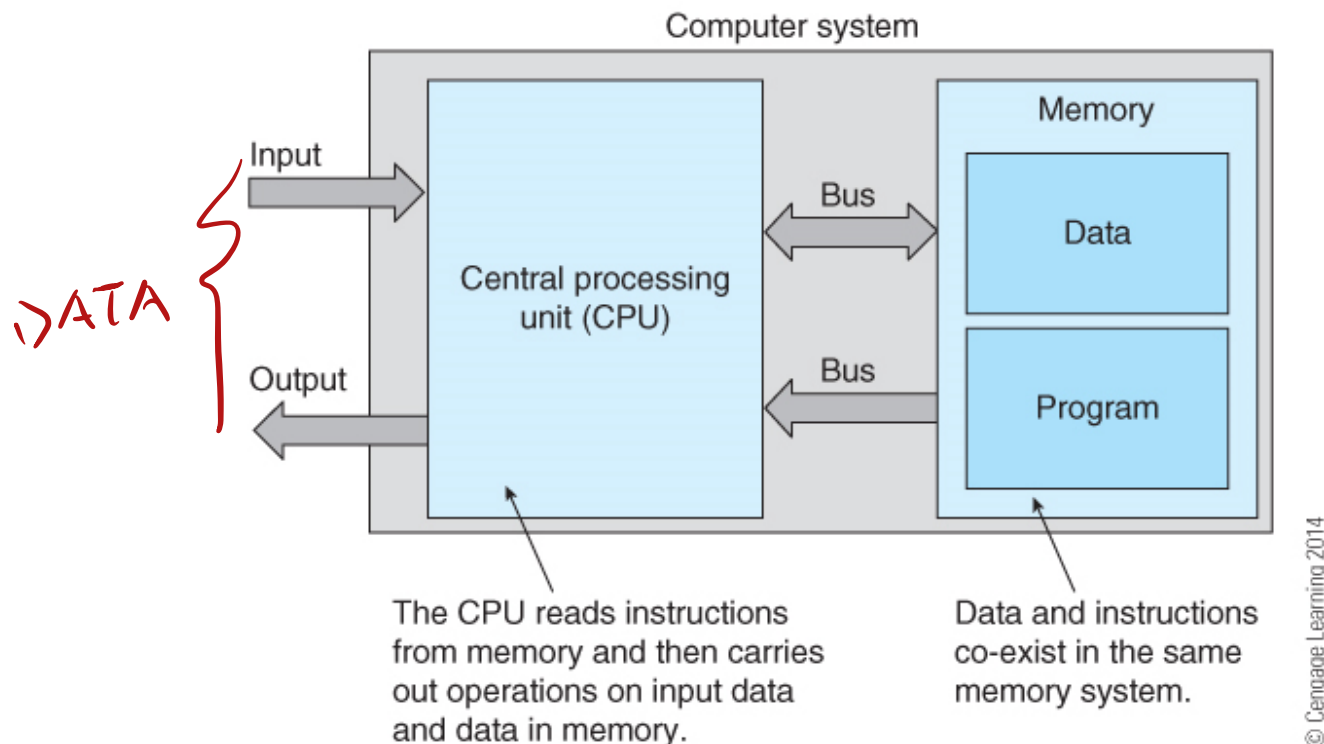
- ❑ A **processor register** is a memory element that holds a single unit data (a **word** of data).
- ❑ A <sup>or data</sup> **processor register** is **specified** in terms of the **number of bits it holds**, which is typically, 8, 16, 32, or 64.
  - Currently, most of computers either have **32-bit** or **64-bit-wide** registers.
- ❑ Each processor has a specified number or registers.
- ❑ There is **no fundamental difference** between
  - a register and
  - a word in memory.
- ❑ The **practical difference** is that registers are located within the CPU
  - can be accessed *more rapidly* than other memories.

## Stored Program Computer

- ❑ Figure 1.3 emphasizes the nature of the stored program computer.
- The CPU reads instructions from memory and then
  - carries out operations on input data and data in memory
  - Data and instructions co-exist in the same memory system

**FIGURE 1.3**

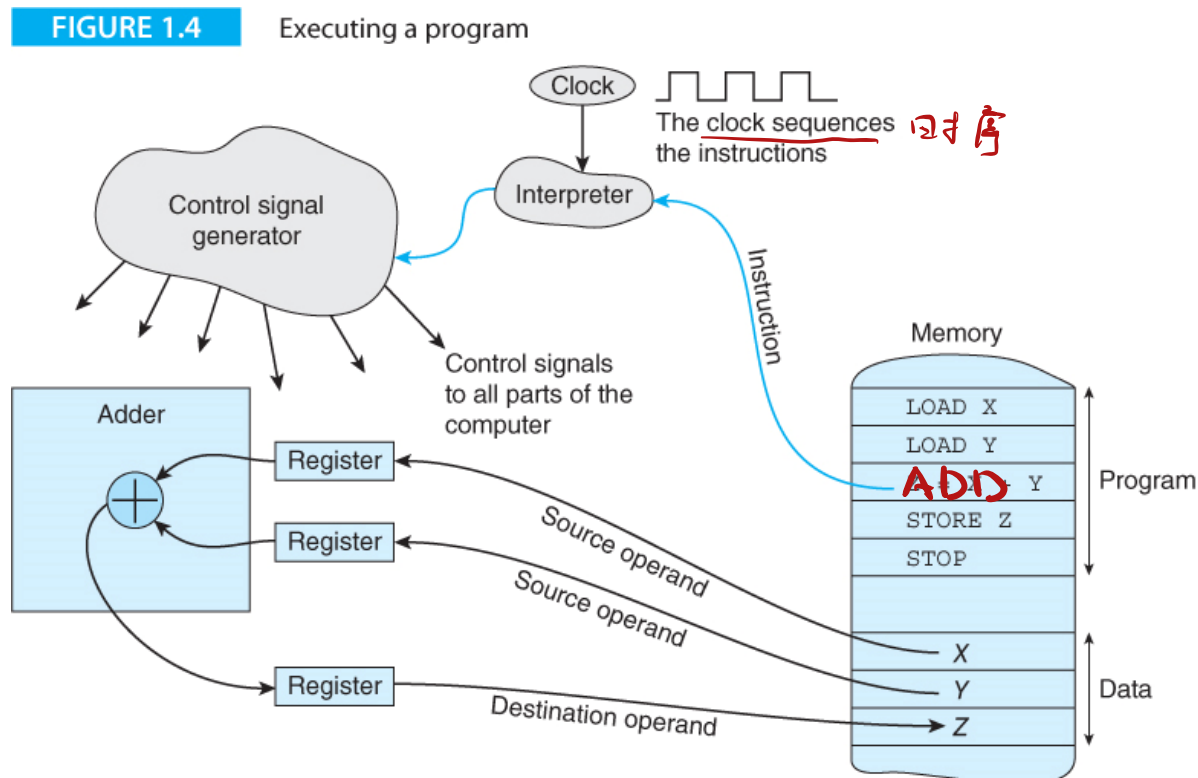
Structure of the stored program computer





## Stored Program Computer

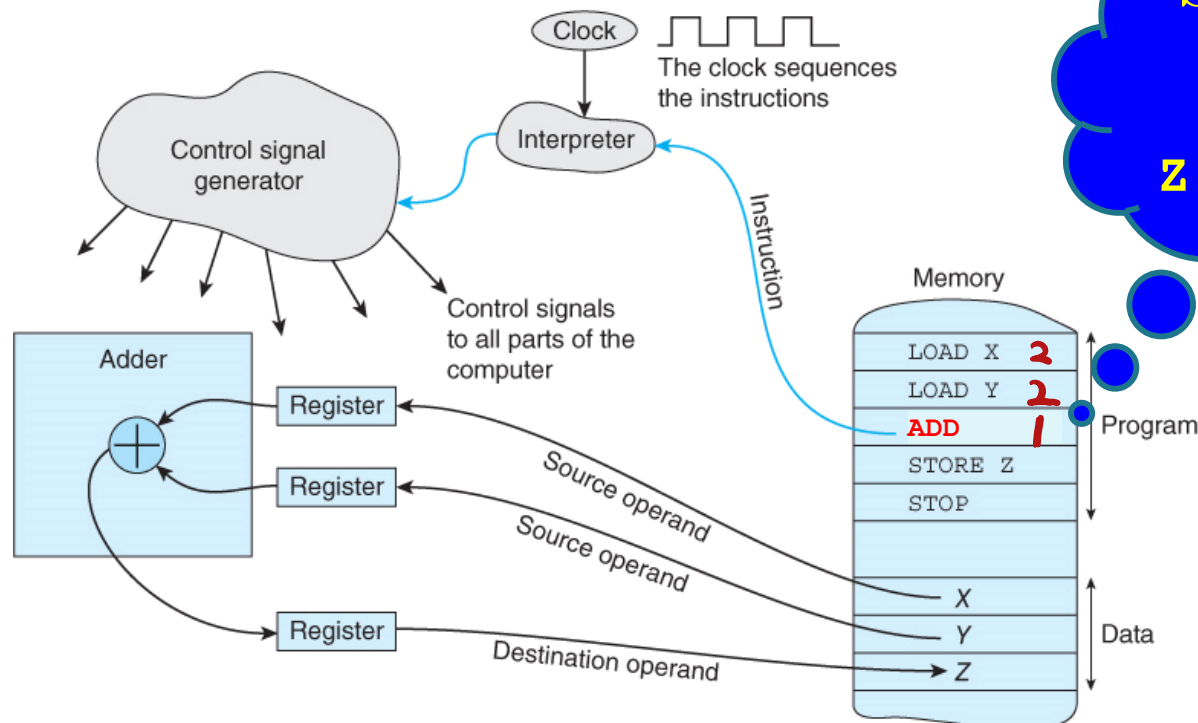
- ❑ Figure 1.4 illustrates the operation of a stored program, where the statement  $Z = X + Y$  is read from memory, interpreted and executed to add  $X$  and  $Y$  to create  $Z$ .
- ❑ A clock (a stream of pulses) sequences all operations in a computer.
- ❑ All events in a computer are triggered by clock pulses.



# Stored Program Computer

- ❑ **LOAD** moves data from memory to a register and
- ❑ **STORE** moves data from a register to memory.
- ❑  $Z = X + Y$  performs a simple addition operation on data.
- ❑ Memory is a bottleneck because
  - instructions must flow from it.
  - Data must flow from it to take part in operations and
  - Data must flow back to store the result.

**FIGURE 1.4** Executing a program



How many memory access do we need to execute this program?

8

Should be  
**ADD**  
Not  
 $Z = X + Y$

load  
load  $X > 2$ .

## The Clock *to synchronize things.*

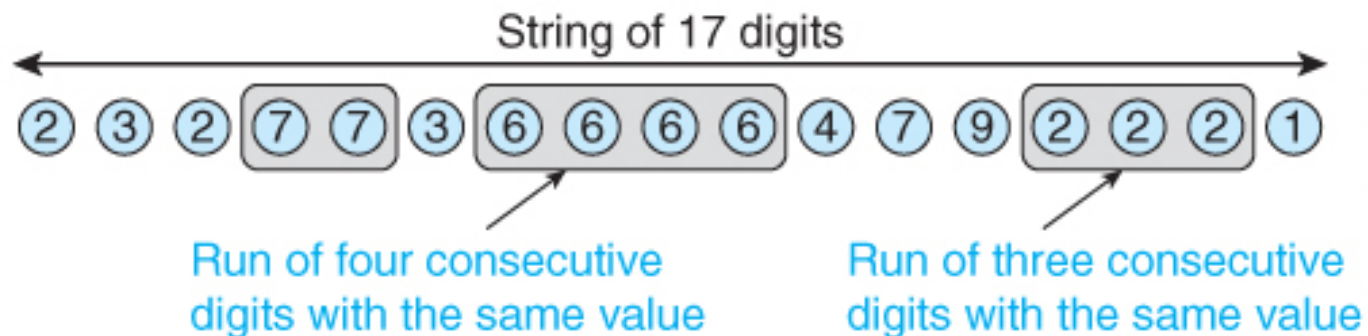
- ❑ Most digital electronic circuits have a clock that generates a continuous stream of regularly spaced electrical pulses.
- ❑ It's called a clock because the pulses are used to time or sequence all events within the computer; for example, a processor might start executing a new instruction each time a clock pulse arrives.
- ❑ A clock is defined in terms of its repetition rate i.e., frequency.
- ❑ Typical clock frequencies in computers range from 1 MHz to about 4.5 GHz.
- ❑ Clocks are also defined in terms of the width of a clock pulse, which is the reciprocal of its frequency; that is  $f = 1/T$ ;  
for example, a 1 MHz clock has a duration of 1  $\mu s$  (i.e.,  $10^{-6}s$ ),  
and a 1 GHz clock has a duration of 1 ns (i.e.,  $10^{-9}s$ ).
- ❑ A 5 GHz clock has a period of 0.2 ns or simply 200 ps (picoseconds)—1 ps =  $10^{-12} s$

# Introducing the Computer by Solving a Problem

- ❑ Before introducing the computer, itself, let us look at what is needed to solve a simple problem.
- ❑ We want to find the longest sequence of repeated digits in a stream of digits.
- ❑ In figure 1.7 the longest run of repeated digits is four consecutive sixes.
- ❑ How can we automate this?  
What do we need to do?

**FIGURE 1.7**

A string of digits



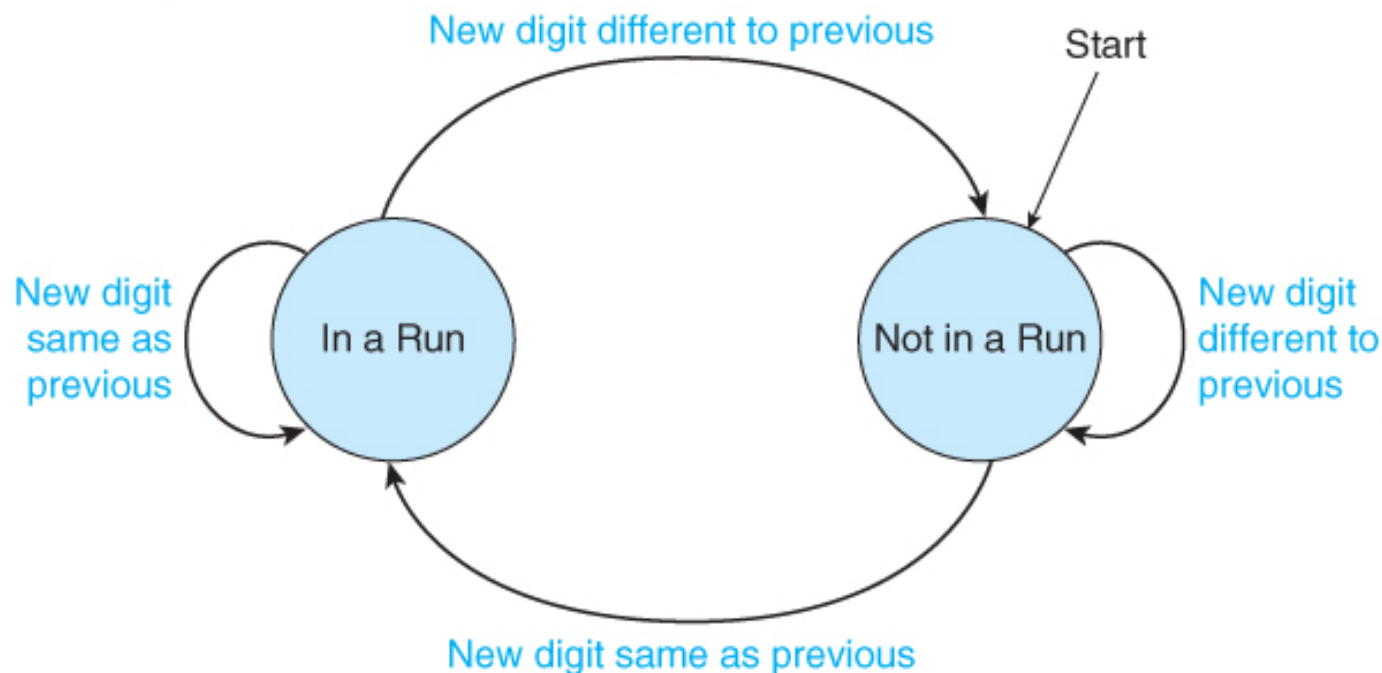
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# Introducing the Computer by Solving a Problem

- ❑ We are going to solve this problem *sequentially* by examining one digit at a time.
- ❑ One way of solving this problem is to note that we are always in one of two states:
  - in a repeated digits sequence, or
  - at the start of a new sequence.
- ❑ Figure 1.8 demonstrates how we can illustrate this with a state diagram.

**FIGURE 1.8**

A state diagram for a run-length counter



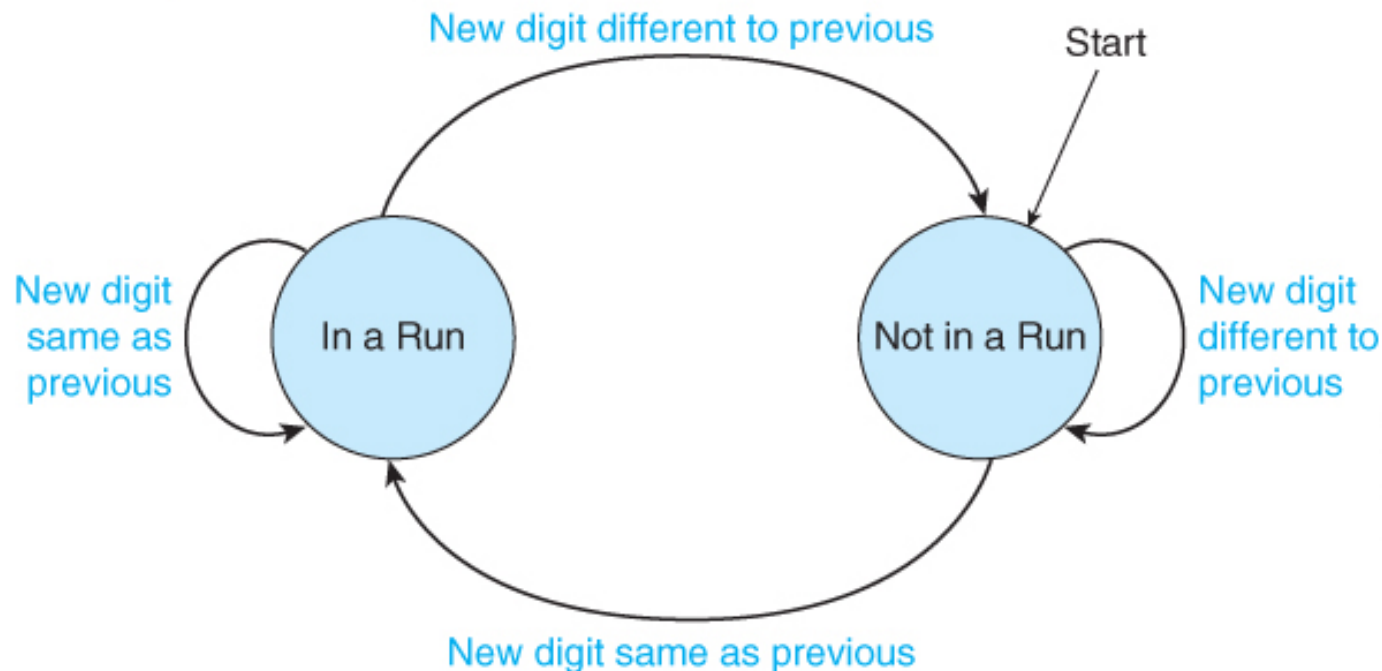
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## State Diagram

- ❑ Each circle represents a possible state
- ❑ There are two states: **In a Run** and **Not in a Run**
- ❑ A state change takes place each time we examine a new digit
- ❑ A state transition can
  - take you from *the current state* to *a new state* or
  - keep you in *the current state*.

**FIGURE 1.8**

A state diagram for a run-length counter



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# State Diagram

- Figure 1.9 shows the state we are in after picking up each digit
- We start at the left hand end

FIGURE 1.8

A state diagram for a run-length counter

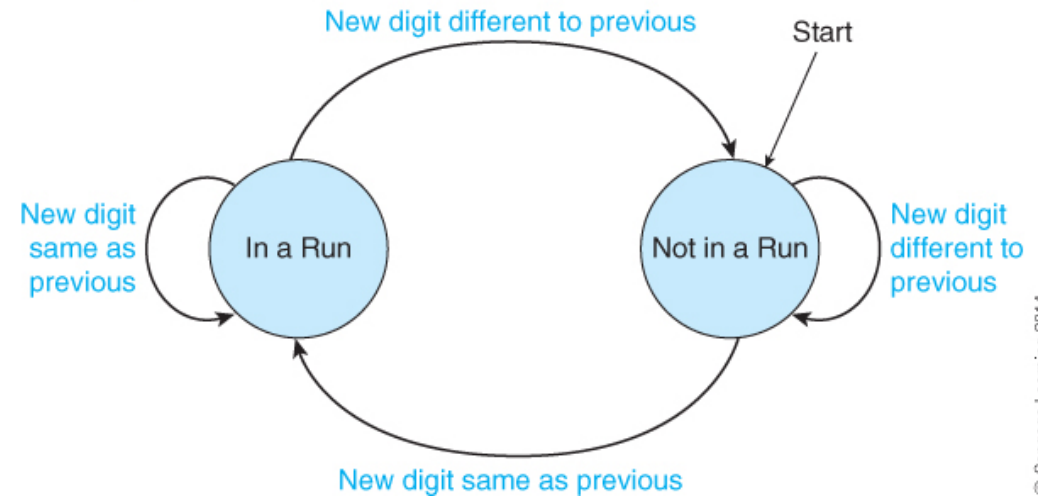
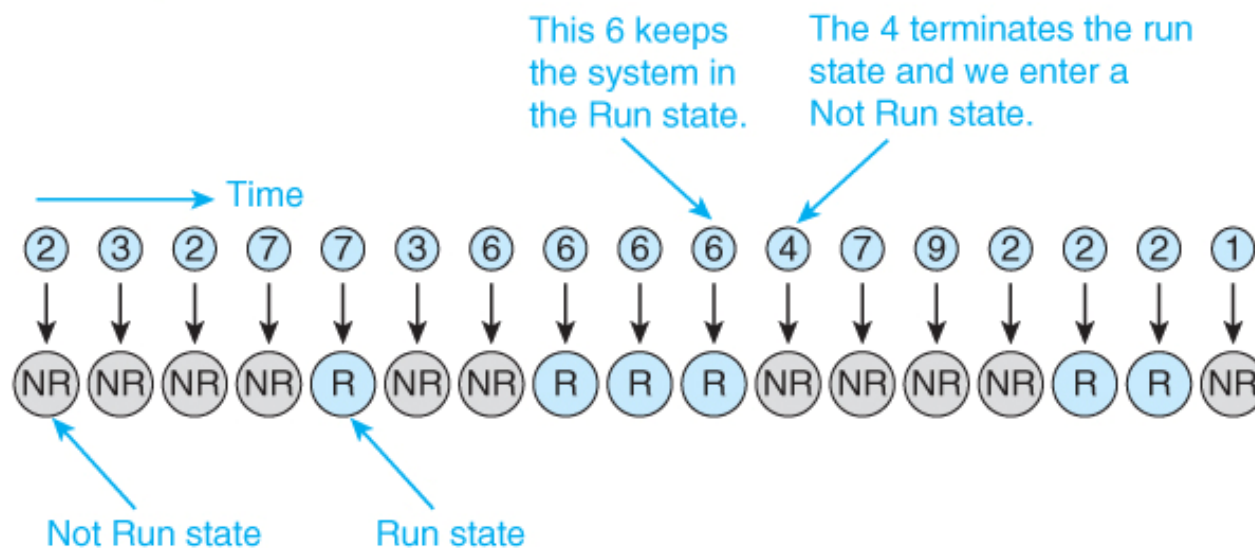


FIGURE 1.9

State changes when reading the string of Figure 1.7





# State Diagram

- ❑ Table 1.1 represents the problem in a table form
- ❑ The top line gives the position or location of each digit from 1 to 17
- ❑ The second line gives the value of each element (i.e., the string itself)
- ❑ The third line gives the current run value. This is the same as the previous digit.

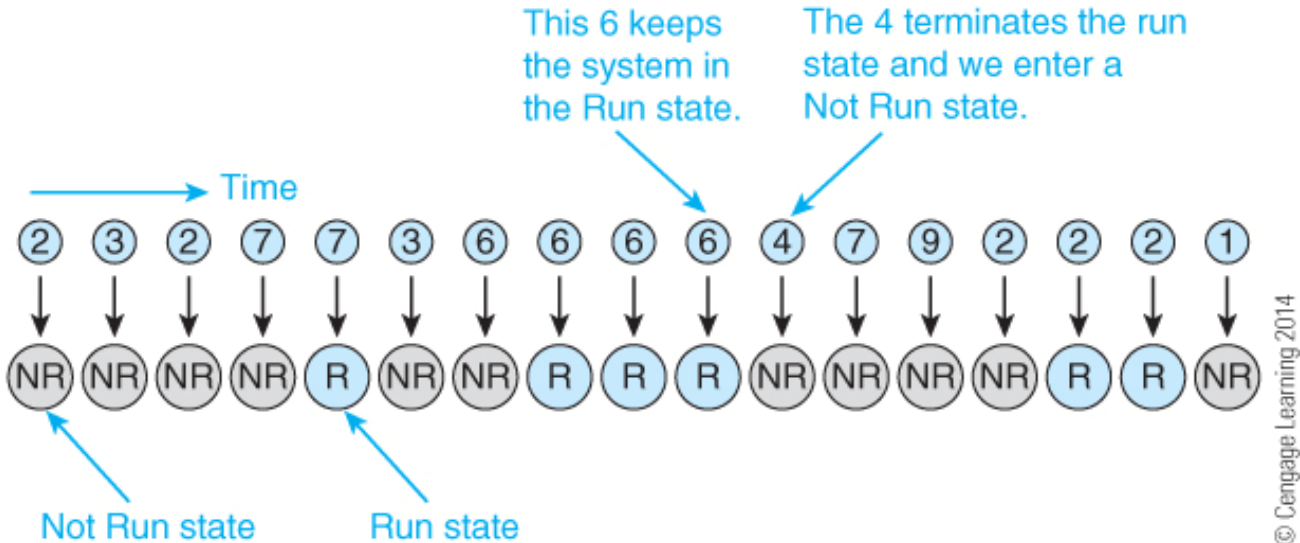
TABLE 1.1

Turning the String into a Table of Values

Position in String	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Element Value	2	3	2	7	7	3	6	6	6	6	4	7	9	2	2	2	1
Current Run Value	?	2	3	2	7	7	3	6	6	6	6	4	7	9	2	2	2

FIGURE 1.9

State changes when reading the string of Figure 1.7





## State Diagram

- ❑ Table 1.2 is an extension of table 1.1
- ❑ We have added a new row at the bottom: the length of the current run

TABLE 1.1

Turning the String into a Table of Values

Position in String	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Element Value	2	3	2	7	7	3	6	6	6	6	4	7	9	2	2	2	1
Current Run Value	?	2	3	2	7	7	3	6	6	6	6	4	7	9	2	2	2

TABLE 1.2

The Current Run Length at Each Position Along the String of Digits

Position in String	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Element Value	2	3	2	7	7	3	6	6	6	6	4	7	9	2	2	2	1
Current Run Value	?	2	3	2	7	7	3	6	6	6	6	4	7	9	2	2	2
Current Run Length	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	3	4	1	1	1	1	2	3	1

## State Diagram

- ❑ Table 1.3 adds a new bottom line, the length of the longest run found so far
- ❑ We can now look at how we would solve the problem mechanically.

TABLE 1.1

Turning the String into a Table of Values

Position in String	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Element Value	2	3	2	7	7	3	6	6	6	6	4	7	9	2	2	2	1
Current Run Value	?	2	3	2	7	7	3	6	6	6	6	4	7	9	2	2	2

TABLE 1.2

The Current Run Length at Each Position Along the String of Digits

Position in String	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Element Value	2	3	2	7	7	3	6	6	6	6	4	7	9	2	2	2	1
Current Run Value	?	2	3	2	7	7	3	6	6	6	6	4	7	9	2	2	2
Current Run Length	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	3	4	1	1	1	1	2	3	1

TABLE 1.3

Expanding Table 1.2 to Include the Maximum Run Length

Position in String	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Element Value	2	3	2	7	7	3	6	6	6	6	4	7	9	2	2	2	1
Current Run Value	?	2	3	2	7	7	3	6	6	6	6	4	7	9	2	2	2
Current Run Length	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	3	4	1	1	1	1	2	3	1
Maximum Run Length	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4

## The Data

□ We now invent some names for the variables in Table 1.3

**i** The *current position* in the string

**New\_Digit** The *value* of the *current digit* just read from the string of digits

**Current\_Run\_Value** The *value* of the elements in the *current run*

**Current\_Run\_length** The *length* of the *current run*

**Max\_Run** The *length* of the *longest run* we've found so far

**TABLE 1.3**

Expanding Table 1.2 to Include the Maximum Run Length

Position in String	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Element Value	2	3	2	7	7	3	6	6	6	6	4	7	9	2	2	2	1
Current Run Value	?	2	3	2	7	7	3	6	6	6	6	4	7	9	2	2	2
Current Run Length	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	3	4	1	1	1	1	2	3	1
Maximum Run Length	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4

## The Algorithm in Pseudo-code

□ We can now look at how we would solve the problem.

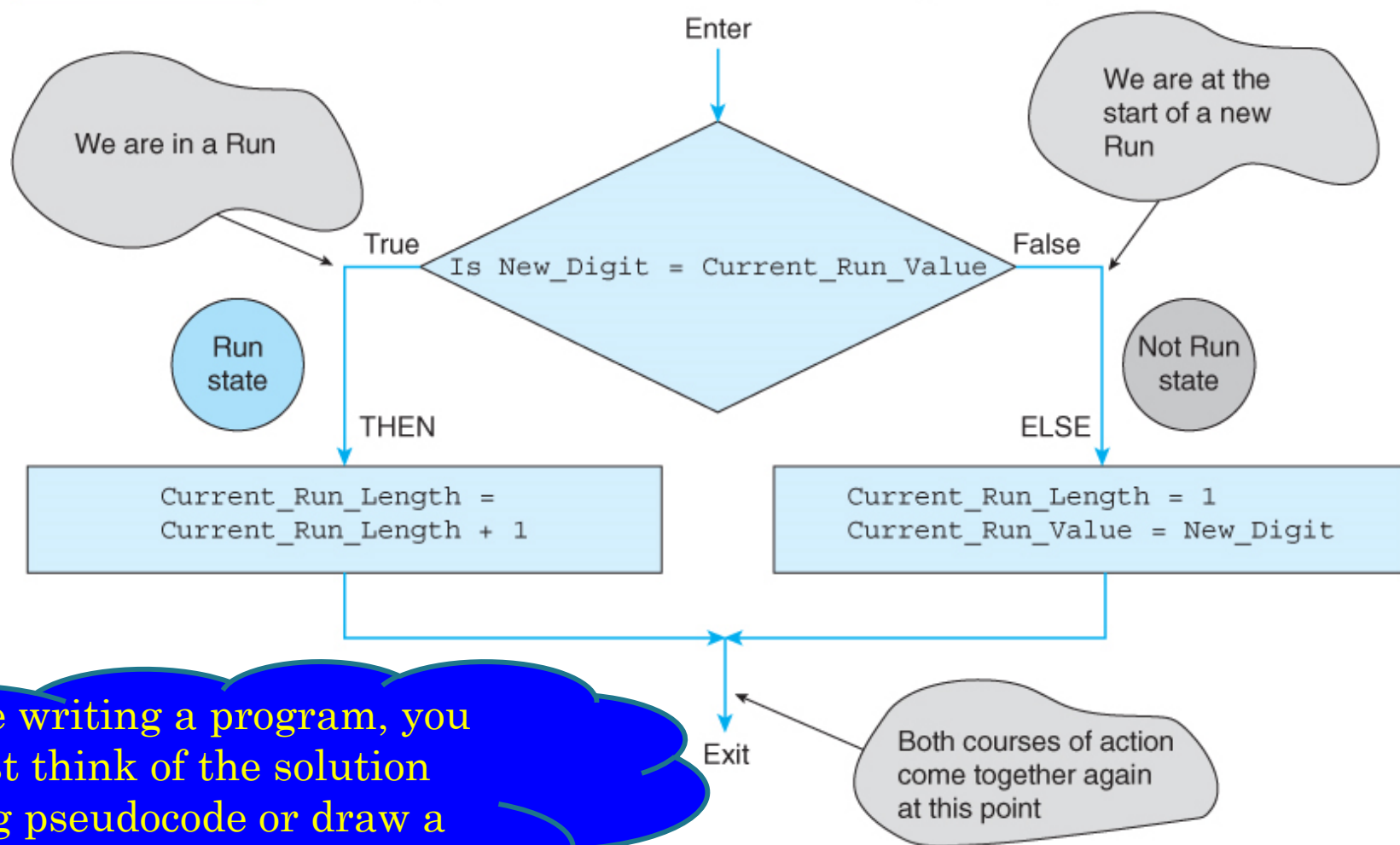
1. Read the first digit in the string and call it **New\_Digit**
2. Set the **Current\_Run\_Value** to **New\_Digit**
3. Set the **Current\_Run\_Length** to 1
4. Set the **Max\_Run** to 1
5. REPEAT
6.     Read the next digit in the sequence (i.e., read a **New\_Digit**)
7.     IF its value is the same as **Current\_Run\_Value**
8.         THEN **Current\_Run\_Length** = **Current\_Run\_Length** + 1
9.         ELSE {**Current\_Run\_Length** = 1
10.             **Current\_Run\_Value** = **New\_Digit**}
11.     IF **Current\_Run\_Length** > **Max\_Run**
12.         THEN **Max\_Run** = **Current\_Run\_Length**
13. UNTIL The last digit is read

↑  
*pseudo  
instructions*

## The Algorithm in Pseudo-code

- ❑ Figure 1.10 illustrates the use of the **IF...THEN...ELSE** construct where we test whether we are in a run or not to either increment the run length or reset it to 1.

**FIGURE 1.10** Illustrating the IF...THEN...ELSE construct graphically



Before writing a program, you must think of the solution using pseudocode or draw a flowchart for the solution.



# Program and Data

- ❑ Figure 1.11 provides a table that includes
  - the operations,
  - the variables, and
  - the string of digits to be tested.
- ❑ This table can be modelled as a memory array.
  - The line-number 0 to 37 corresponds to an address
  - The contents of each location represent either
    - A program instruction or
    - data.
- ❑ Note that real computer instructions are not exactly like these. But they are very similar.
- ❑ *From the bit pattern point of view, there is no way to differentiate between encoded data and encoded program instruction.*

**FIGURE 1.11** Memory map of a program and its data

0	i = 21
1	New_Digit = Memory(i)
2	Set Current_Run_Value to New_Digit
3	Set the Current_Run_Length to 1
4	Set the Max_Run to 1
5	REPEAT
6	i = i + 1
7	New_Digit = Memory(i)
8	IF New_Digit = Current_Run_Value
9	THEN Current_Run_Length = Current_Run_Length + 1
10	JUMP to 13
11	ELSE Current_Run_Length = 1;
12	Current_Run_Value = New_Digit
13	IF Current_Run_Length > Max_Run
14	THEN Max_Run = Current_Run_Length
15	UNTIL i = 37
16	Stop
17	New_Digit
18	Current_Run_Value
19	Current_Run_Length
20	Max_Run
21	2 (the first digit in the string)
22	3
23	2
23	7
...	...
37	1 (the last digit in the string)

# The Stored Program Concept

*computer has a pointer called program counter to find the next instruction*

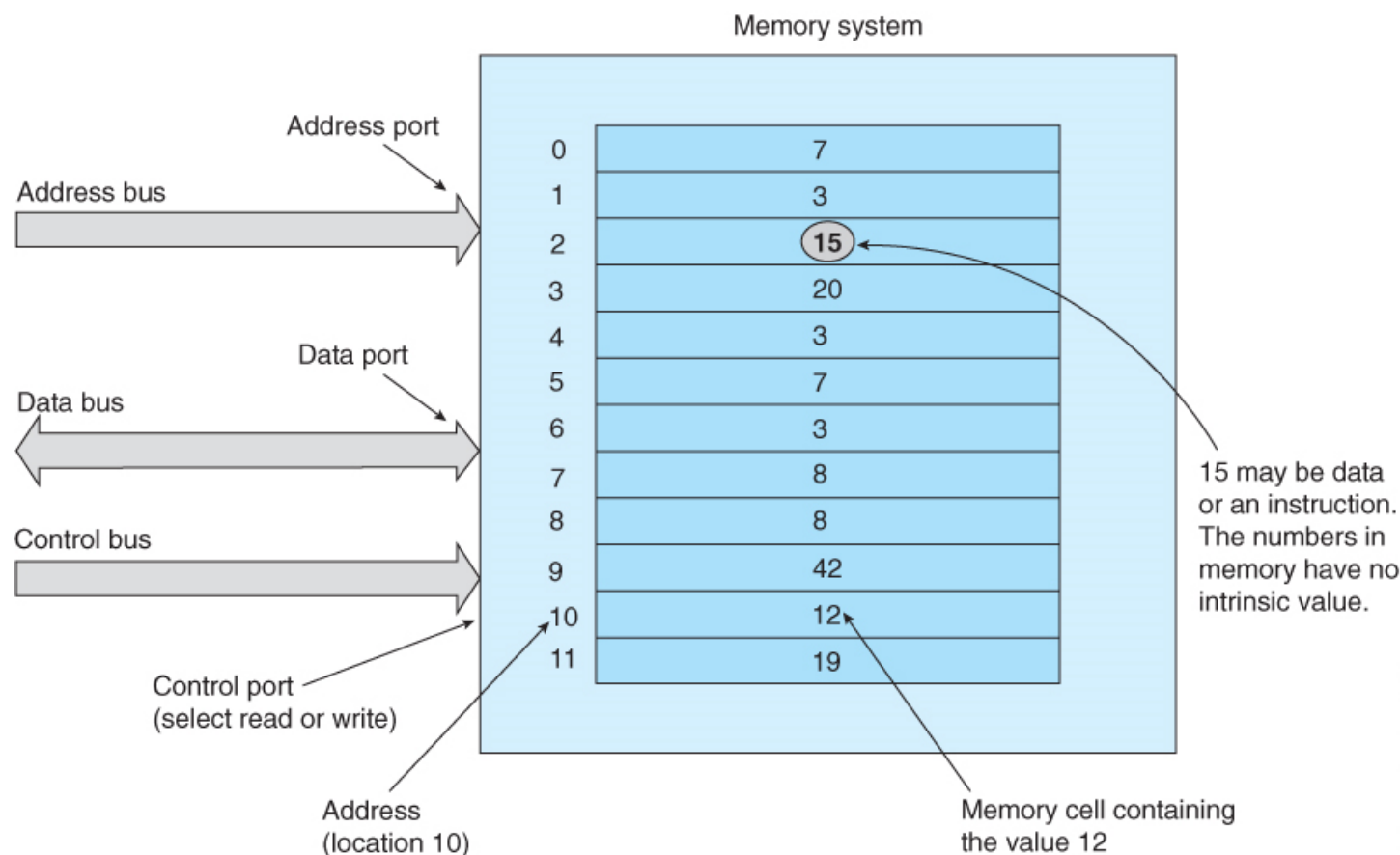
❑ A key component of a computer is the memory that holds

*the program (instructions) and data.*

❑ Figure 1.12 illustrates the elements of a *computer's memory system*.

FIGURE 1.12

The memory system



## The Stored Program Concept

- ❑ The following pseudo-code expresses the fundamental action of a stored program machine.

Stored\_program\_machine

Point to the first instruction in memory

REPEAT

1. Read the instruction at the memory location pointed at
2. Point to the next instruction
3. Decode the instruction just read from memory
4. Execute the instruction

FOREVER

End

- ❑ This pseudo-code sequence tells us that a *memory reference* (i.e., a *memory read*) is required to fetch each instruction from memory.



# The Stored Program Concept

- We can expand the action **Execute the instruction** to give

## **Execute the instruction**

IF the instruction requires data  
THEN fetch the data from memory  
END\_IF

Perform the operation defined by the instruction

IF the instruction requires data to be stored in memory  
THEN store the data in memory  
END\_IF

## **End**

- As you see, **Execute the instruction** may require a *memory read* and/or a *memory write*

# The Stored Program Concept

- We can also express this sequence of actions in **C** or **Java** as follows:

```
InstructionPointer = 0;
do
{ instruction = memory[InstructionPointer++];
    /* read the instruction */
    decode(instruction); /* decode the instruction */
    fetch(operands);     /* fetch data required */
    execute();           /* execute the instruction */
    store(results);      /* store the result */
} while (instruction != stop);
```

In the book, the post increment is missing

## Terms definition

**Constant** – a value that doesn't change during the execution of a program. For example, if  $c = 2\pi r$ , then both '2' and ' $\pi$ ' are constants.

**Variable** – a value that can change during the execution of a program. In the previous example, both  $c$  and  $r$  are variables.

**Symbolic name** – we often refer to a *variable* or a *constant* by a name that makes it easier for us to remember.

*For example*, we give the irrational number 3.1415926 the symbolic name  $\pi$ . When a program is compiled, symbolic names are replaced by actual values.

**Address** – information in a computer is stored in memory locations and each location has a unique address. *Think of computer memory as if it is an array and the index of this array is the address of the memory locations.*

Rather than trying to remember actual *address* locations in memory, we give addresses *symbolic names*; in this case the address may be called  $r$ .

**Value and Location** – When we write  $c = 2\pi r$ , what is  $r$ ? *We (humans) see  $r$  as the *symbolic name* for the value of the radius, say 5. But the *computer sees  $r$  as the *symbolic address* 1234 which has to be read to provide the value. If we write  $r = r + 1$ , do we mean  $r = 5 + 1 = 6$  or do we mean  $r = 1234 + 1 = 1235$ ?**

*It is very important to distinguish between an address and its contents. This factor becomes significant when we introduce pointers.*

**Pointer** – A pointer is a variable whose value is an address. If you modify the value of a pointer, it points to a different value.

In conventional arithmetic we write  $x_i$  where  $i$  is really a pointer; we just call it an index. If you change the pointer (index) we can step through the elements of a table, array or matrix, i.e.,  $x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4$ .

## Register Transfer Language (RTL) Notation

- ❑ In RTL notation, **square brackets** indicate the **contents of a memory location**.
  - For example, The expression  $[15] = \text{Max\_Run}$  means **“the content of memory location 15 is equal to the value of Max\_Run”**, i.e., it is a sort of initialization not an assignment.
- ❑ The **backward arrow symbol**,  $\leftarrow$ , indicates a **data transfer**.
  - For example,  $[15] \leftarrow [15] + 1$  means **“the content of memory location 15 is increased by 1”** and **“the result is put in memory location 15”**.
- ❑ Consider:
  - a.  $[20] = 6$       *initialization*
  - b.  $[20] \leftarrow 6$       *assignment*
  - c.  $[20] \leftarrow [6]$
  - (a) states that the content of memory location 20 is equal to the number 6.
  - (b) states that the number 6 is put into memory location 20.
  - (c) states that the contents of memory location 6 is copied into memory location 20.

## Three Address Instructions

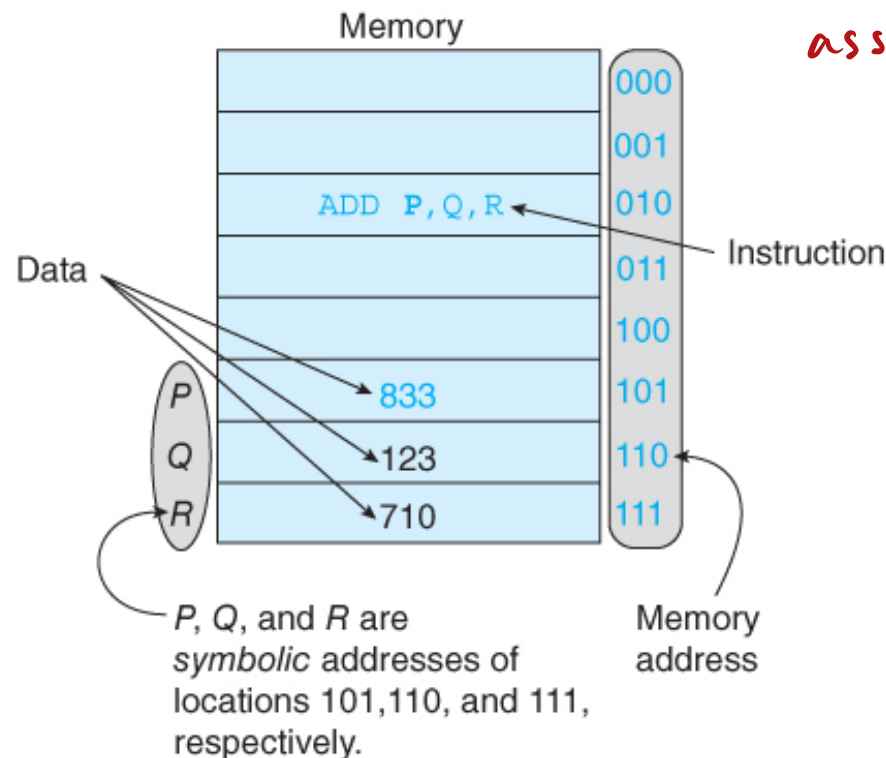
- ❑ Consider the three-address format:
  - *Operation Address1, Address2, Address3*  
where *Operation* specifies the action of the instruction, whereas *Address1*, *Address2*, and *Address3*, are locations of the three operands in memory.
  - We use *bold* font to indicate the address that is the destination of data.
- ❑ In this example, the operands are the addresses of data and not the data itself.
- ❑ *ADD P, Q, R*, is a three-operand instruction
  - *P*, *Q*, and *R* are the *symbolic names* of the *addresses of three memory locations*.
- ❑ The three-operand format *can be expressed in RTL notation* as:
  - *[Address1] ← [Address2] Operation [Address3]*
- ❑ The contents of the memory locations specified by *Address2* and *Address3* are operated on by the *operation* (e.g., *add*, *subtract*, ...), and the result is placed in the memory location specified by *Address1*.

## Three Address Instructions

- ❑ Although memory addresses are numeric (in this case we use binary numbers **000** to **111**), we normally use symbolic names because they are easier for us to remember.
- ❑ If you write **P** in a program, it is automatically translated to address **101**.

**FIGURE 1.13**

Relationship between instruction and operands



*assembly => machine language.*

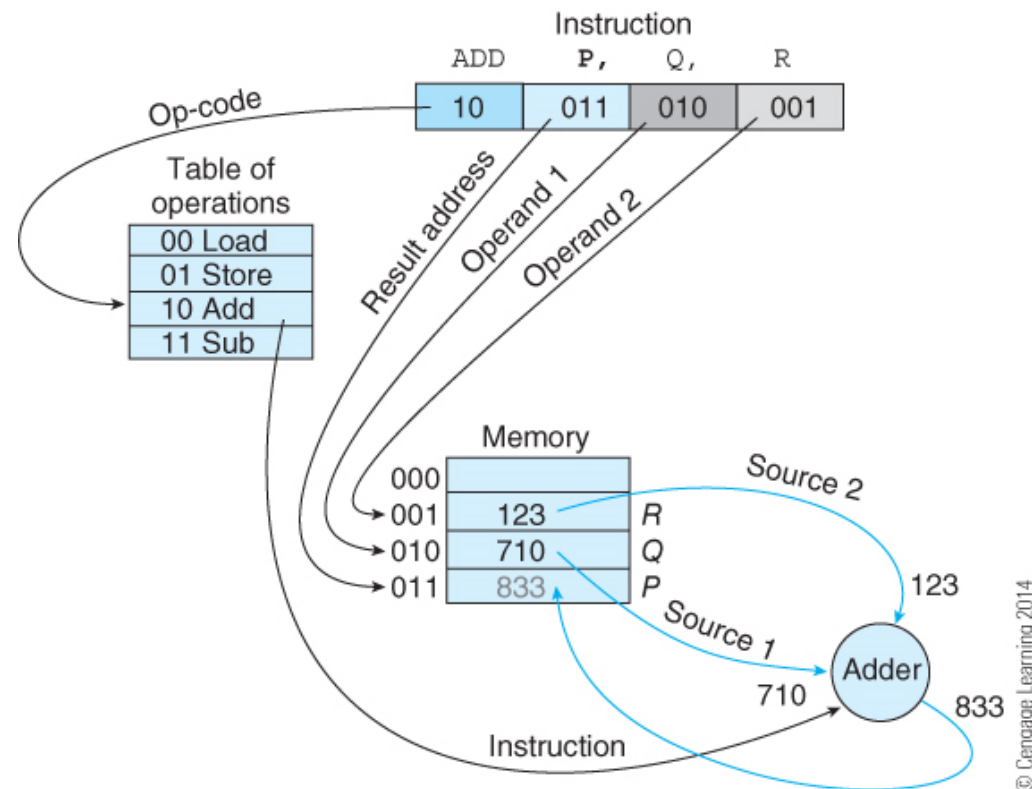
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## Three Address Instructions

- Figure 1.14 shows a hypothetical computer that has an instruction with three addresses; for example, **ADD P, Q, R** which implements  $[P] \leftarrow [Q] + [R]$ . Here **P**, **Q**, and **R** are the symbolic names of their locations in memory.
- The purpose of this figure is to show the flow of information when an instruction is executed and to demonstrate the possible structure of an instruction.

FIGURE 1.14

Interpreting the instruction ADD P, Q, R



## Two Address Instructions

- ❑ Some computers implement a two-address instruction format of the form  
*Operation Address1, Address2*
  - where *Address2* is a *source operand* and
  - *Address1* is both a *source* and a *destination operand*.
    - This operand is *accessed, operated on, and the result placed in the same location*.
  - The definition of *ADD P,Q*, is  $[P] \leftarrow [P] + [Q]$
- ❑ A two-address instruction destroys one of the operands; that is, source operand *P* is *replaced (overwritten)* by the result.
- ❑ Practical computers *do not generally allow you to use three or two main memory addresses in the same instruction*.
  - Computers like the Core *i7* processors specify *one address in memory* and *a second address is a register*.
- ❑ A register is a single storage element in the computer with a name like *r0, r1, r2 ... or r31* and is used to hold temporary data during calculations.
- ❑ A *register* behaves like *a memory location* except that it is located within the *CPU*.

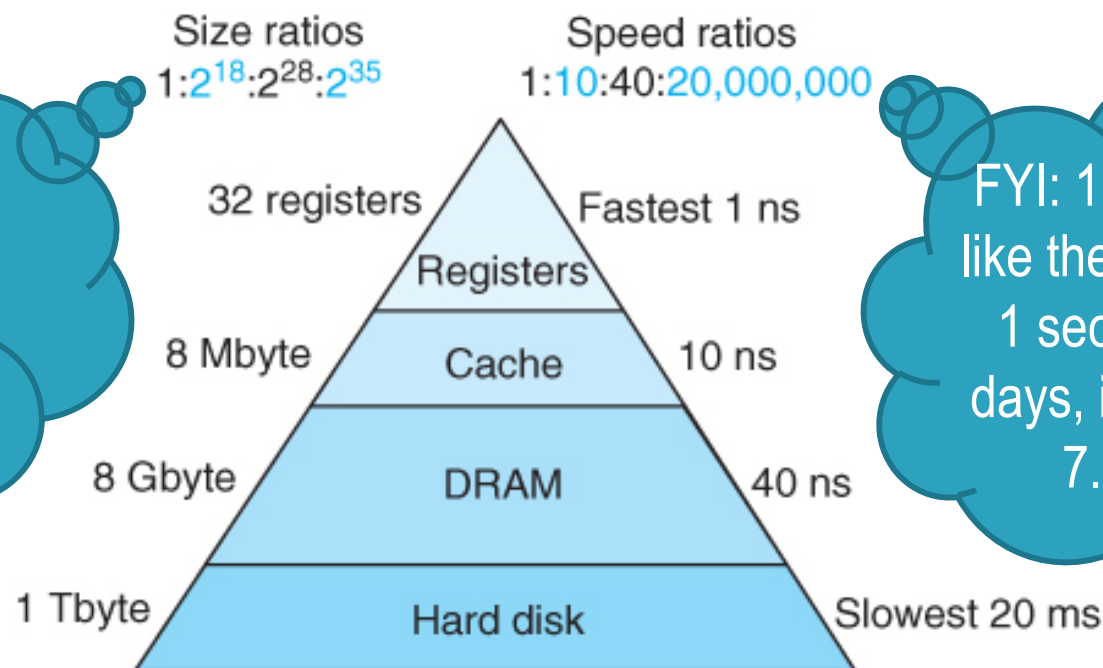


# Memory Hierarchy

- ❑ An important characteristic of modern computers is the wide range of technologies used to implement computers.
- ❑ Figure 1.16 illustrates memory hierarchy that covers the memory system of a typical computer.
- ❑ At the top are small amounts of on-chip register memory.  
At the bottom are the large quantities of storage provides by hard disks.

FIGURE 1.16

Memory hierarchy



This ratio is based on number of units, not based on number of bytes.

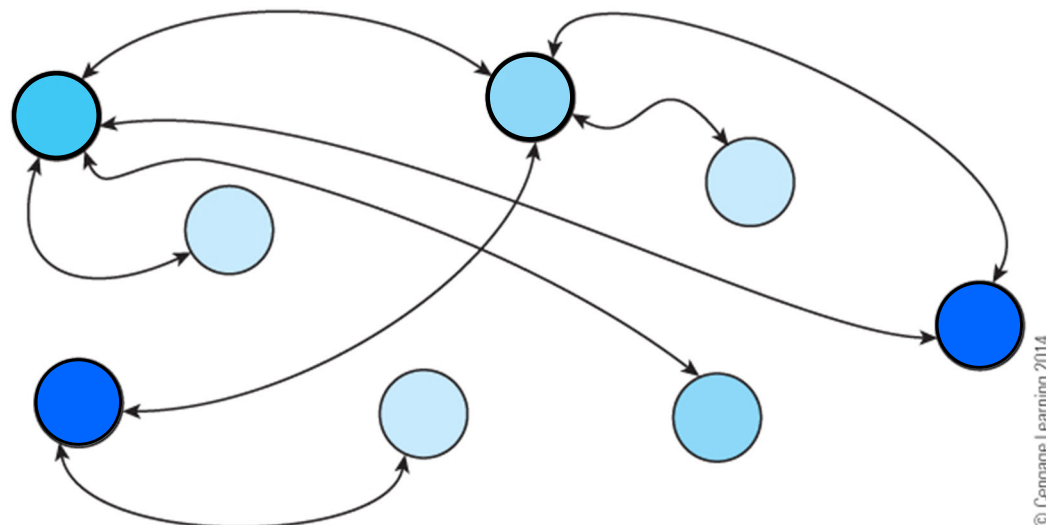
FYI: 1:20,000,000 is like the ratio between 1 second to 231.5 days, i.e., more than 7.5 months.

## The Bus

- ❑ Buses **link** together two or more **functional parts** of a computer and allow the exchange of data;
  - for example, the bus between the CPU and its graphics card.
- ❑ Buses also **link** computers to **external peripherals**;
  - for example, the USB bus that connects a printer to a computer.
- ❑ Figure 1.17 illustrates the structure of a *hypothetical system without a bus*. Imagine that the blue circles are processing units that must communicate with each other.
- ❑ In this example some units communicate directly with only one other unit, whereas other units must communicate with several devices.

**FIGURE 1.17**

An arbitrary interconnect structure—life without the bus

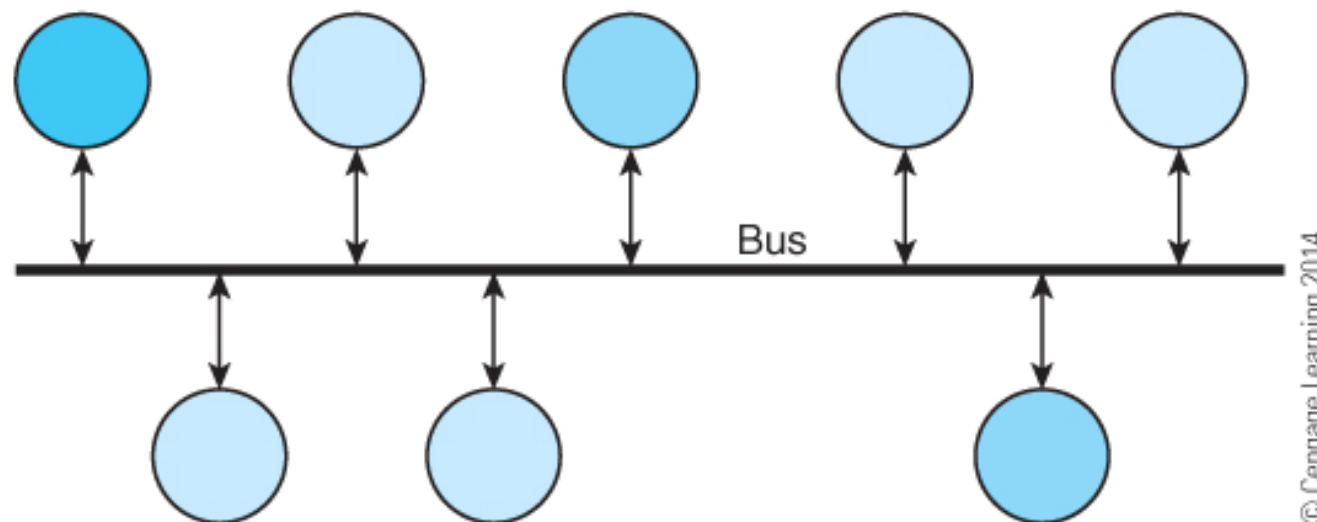


## The Bus

- ❑ Figure 1.18 illustrates the structure of *a system with a bus*.
- ❑ Functional units may
  - ❑ *request the bus*,
  - ❑ *use it to communicate with other units* and then
  - ❑ *relinquish the bus*.
- ❑ **Internal** buses (within the CPU or on the motherboard) and **external** buses (USB, FireWire) are vital components of the computer system and contribute to its overall performance.

**FIGURE 1.18**

A common bus connecting all units



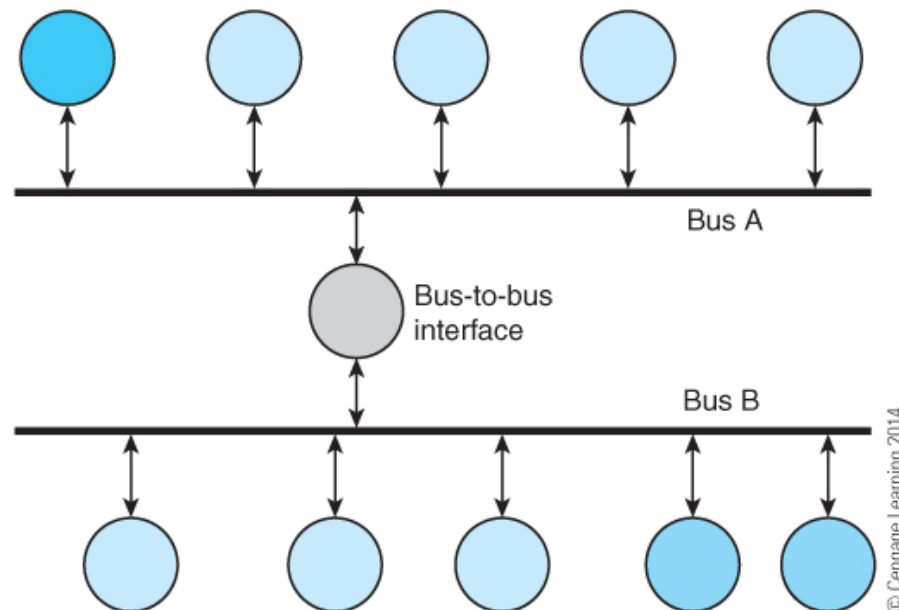
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## The Bus

- ❑ Figure 1.19 illustrates the structure of *a system with two buses*.
- ❑ Multiple buses permit parallel operation because transactions on each bus can take place simultaneously.
- ❑ Each bus may be optimized for its specific application (e.g., a high-speed bus for graphics and a lower speed bus for peripherals).

**FIGURE 1.19**

A system with two interconnected buses



## Bus Terminology

- Width** The width of a bus is defined as *the number of parallel data paths*. A 64-bit bus can carry 64-bits (8 bytes) of *data* at a time.
- However, the same term can also be used to indicate *the total number of wires (connections) that make up a bus*. For example, a bus may have 50 information paths of which 32 of them carry *data* (the rest may be paths for *control signals* or even power lines).
- Bandwidth** The bandwidth of a bus is *a measure of the rate at which information can be transported across the bus*. The bandwidth is expressed in either *bytes per second* or *bits per second*.
- Increasing the width of a bus while keeping the data rate per wire constant increases the bandwidth.*
- Latency** Latency is the *waiting period between a data transfer request and the actual data transmission completed*.
- Typically, a bus's latency includes the time taken to arbitrate for the bus before transmission can take place.