# Introduction

Computer Architecture Riad Bourbia

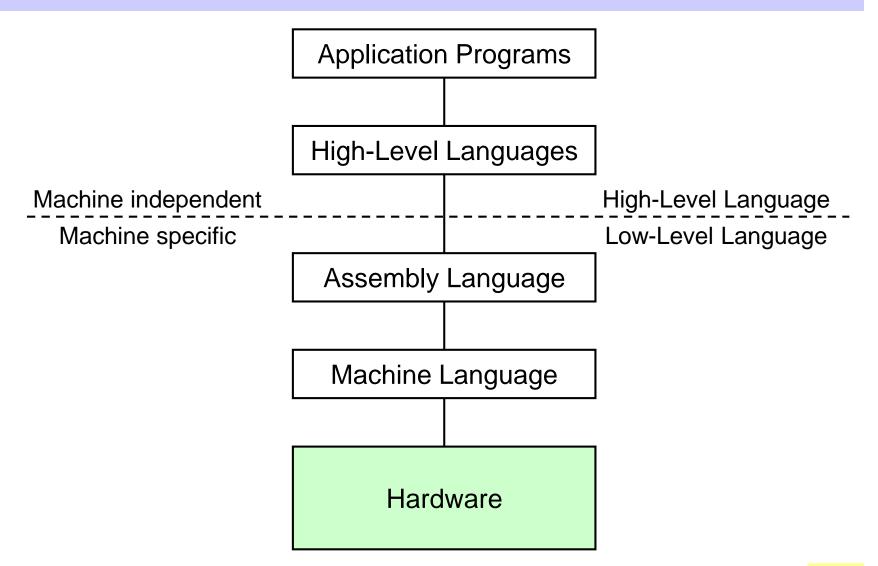
Computer Sciences department Guelma University

[Adapted from slides of Dr. A. El-maleh]



- High-Level, Assembly-, and Machine-Languages
- Components of a Computer System
- Technology Improvements
- Programmer's View of a Computer System

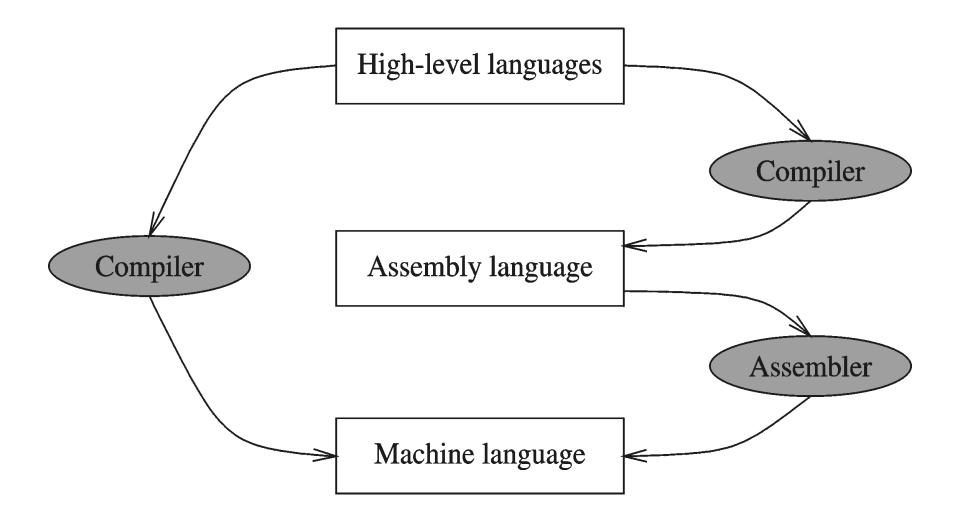
## A Hierarchy of Languages



## Assembly and Machine Language

- Machine language
  - ♦ Native to a processor: executed directly by hardware
  - ♦ Instructions consist of binary code: 1s and 0s
- Assembly language
  - ♦ Slightly higher-level language
  - ♦ Readability of instructions is better than machine language
  - ♦ One-to-one correspondence with machine language instructions
- Assemblers translate assembly to machine code
- Compilers translate high-level programs to machine code
  - $\diamond$  Either directly, or
  - ♦ Indirectly via an assembler

#### **Compiler and Assembler**



## Instructions and Machine Language

- Each command of a program is called an instruction (it instructs the computer what to do).
- Computers only deal with binary data, hence the instructions must be in binary format (0s and 1s).
- The set of all instructions (in binary form) makes up the computer's machine language. This is also referred to as the instruction set.

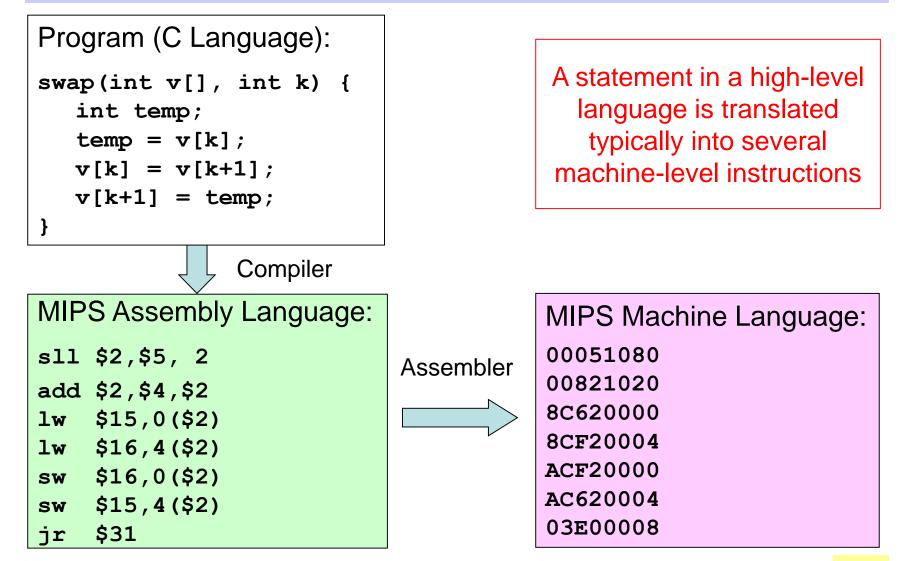
### **Instruction Fields**

- Machine language instructions usually are made up of several fields. Each field specifies different information for the computer. The major two fields are:
- Opcode field which stands for operation code and it specifies the particular operation that is to be performed.

 $\diamond$  Each operation has its unique opcode.

- Operands fields which specify where to get the source and destination operands for the operation specified by the opcode.
  - ♦ The source/destination of operands can be a constant, the memory or one of the general-purpose registers.

## Translating Languages



# Advantages of High-Level Languages

- Program development is faster
  - $\diamond$  High-level statements: fewer instructions to code
- Program maintenance is easier
  - $\diamond\,$  For the same above reasons
- Programs are portable
  - ♦ Contain few machine-dependent details
    - Can be used with little or no modifications on different machines
  - ♦ Compiler translates to the target machine language
  - ♦ However, Assembly language programs are not portable

# Why Learn Assembly Language?

#### ✤ Many reasons:

- ♦ Accessibility to system hardware
- ♦ Space and time efficiency
- Accessibility to system hardware
  - ♦ Assembly Language is useful for implementing system software
  - ♦ Also useful for small embedded system applications

#### Space and Time efficiency

- ♦ Understanding sources of program inefficiency
- ♦ Tuning program performance
- ♦ Writing compact code

# Assembly Language Programming Tools

- Editor
  - ♦ Allows you to create and edit assembly language source files

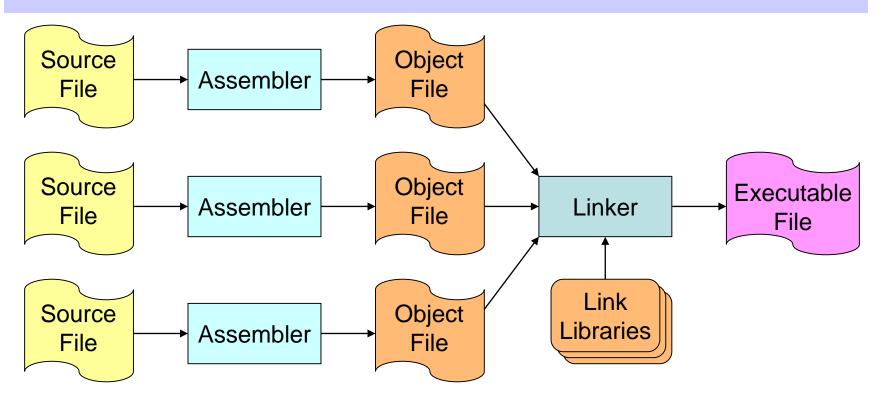
#### Assembler

- ♦ Converts assembly language programs into object files
- ♦ Object files contain the machine instructions
- Linker
  - ♦ Combines object files created by the assembler with link libraries
  - ♦ Produces a single executable program

#### Debugger

- $\diamond$  Allows you to trace the execution of a program
- $\diamond$  Allows you to view machine instructions, memory, and registers

#### Assemble and Link Process



A project may consist of multiple source files

Assembler translates each source file separately into an object file

Linker links all object files together with link libraries

### MARS Assembler and Simulator Tool

C:\Users\mudawar\Documents\+COE 301\Tools\MARS\Fibonacci.asm - MARS 4.5								
<u>File E</u> dit <u>R</u> un <u>S</u> ettings <u>T</u> ools <u>H</u> elp								
88			ed at ma	x (no interacti	on)			
□     □ </th								
Edit	Edit     Execute     Coproc 1     Coproc 0							
fib.	asm Fibonacci.asm			Name	Number	Value		
1	# Compute first twelve	Fibonacci numbers and put in array, then print		\$zero	0	0		
2	.data			\$at \$v0	1	0		
3	fibs: .word 0 : 12	# "array" of 12 words to contain fib values		\$v1	3	0		
4	size: .word 12	# size of "array"		\$a0	4	0		
5	.text	» 5120 01 ultuy		\$al	5	0		
6		# load address of array		\$a2	6	0		
7		# load address of size variable		\$a3 \$t0	7	0		
				\$t0 \$t1	9	0		
8		<pre># load array size # 1 is first and second Fib number</pre>		\$t2	10	0		
9	li \$t2, 1	# 1 is first and second Fib. number		\$t3	11	0		
10	add.d \$f0, \$f2,			\$t4	12	0		
11	sw \$t2, <b>0(</b> \$t0)			\$t5	13	0		
12	sw \$t2, 4(\$t0)			\$t6 \$t7	14	0		
13		2 # Counter for loop, will execute (size-2) times		\$30	16	0		
14	loop: 1w \$t3, 0(\$t0)	# Get value from array F[n]		\$s1	17	0		
15	lw \$t4, <b>4(</b> \$t0)	) # Get value from array F[n+1]		\$s2	18	0		
16		t4 # t2 = F[n] + F[n+1]		\$ <b>s</b> 3	19	0		
17	sw \$t2, 8(\$t0)	# Store F[n+2] = F[n] + F[n+1] in array		\$s4 \$s5	20	0		
18	addi \$t0, \$t0,	# increment address of Fib. number source		\$35	21	0		
19	addi \$t1, \$t1,			\$37	23	0		
20	bgtz \$t1, loop	# repeat if not finished yet.		\$t8	24	0		
21	la \$a0 fibs	# first argument for print (array)		\$t9	25	0		
22		<pre>\$t5 # second argument for print (size)</pre>		\$k0	26	0		
23	jal print	# call print routine.		\$k1 \$gp	27	268468224		
24		# system call for exit		\$sp	29	2147479548		
	svscall	# we are out of here.	-	\$fp	30	0		
25	Syscari	# we are out of here.		\$ra pc	31	0		
Line: 1 Column: 1 🖌 Show Line Numbers						4194304		
						0		
Mars Messages Run I/O								
C	Clear							

## MARS Assembler and Simulator Tool

- Simulates the execution of a MIPS program
  - ♦ No direct execution on the underlying Intel processor
- Editor with color-coded assembly syntax
- Assembler

Converts MIPS assembly language programs into object files

- Debugger
  - Allows you to trace the execution of a program and set breakpoints
  - Allows you to view machine instructions, edit registers and memory

#### Next...

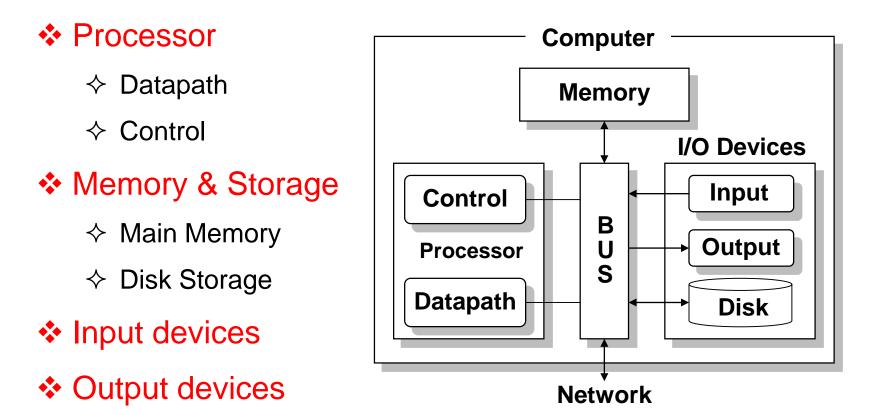
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#### Von Neumann Architecture

#### John von Neumann (1903–1957) was a Hungarian-American mathematician and physicist.



## Components of a Computer System



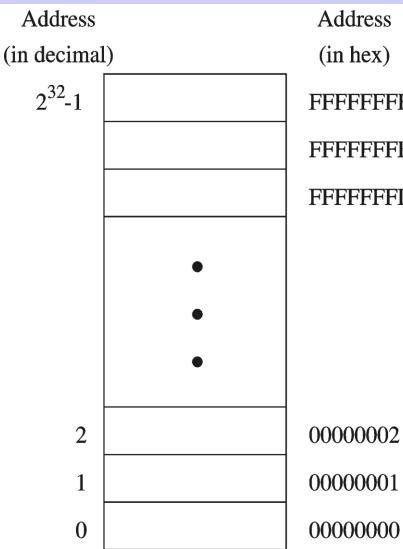
- Bus: Interconnects processor to memory and I/O
- Network: newly added component for communication

### Memory

Ordered sequence of bytes

- ♦ The sequence number is called the memory address
- Byte addressable memory
  - ♦ Each byte has a unique address
  - ♦ Supported by almost all processors
- Physical address space
  - ♦ Determined by the address bus width
  - ♦ Pentium has a 32-bit address bus
    - Physical address space = 4GB = 2<sup>32</sup> bytes
  - ♦ Itanium with a 64-bit address bus can support
    - Up to 2<sup>64</sup> bytes of physical address space

#### Address Space



(in hex) FFFFFFF FFFFFFE

#### FFFFFFD

Address Space is the set of memory locations (bytes) that can be addressed

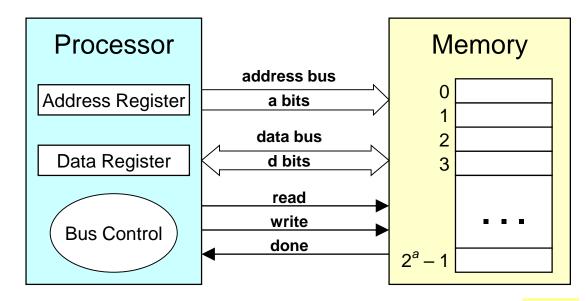
## Address, Data, and Control Bus

#### ✤ Address Bus

- ♦ Memory address is put on address bus
- $\diamond$  If memory address = *a* bits then 2<sup>*a*</sup> locations are addressed
- Data Bus: bi-directional bus
  - $\diamond$  Data can be transferred in both directions on the data bus

#### Control Bus

- Signals control transfer of data
- ♦ Read request
- ♦ Write request
- ♦ Done transfer



## Memory Devices

- Volatile Memory Devices
  - ♦ Data is lost when device is powered off
  - RAM = Random Access Memory
  - DRAM = Dynamic RAM
    - 1-Transistor cell + trench capacitor
    - Dense but slow, must be refreshed
    - Typical choice for main memory
  - ♦ SRAM: Static RAM
    - 6-Transistor cell, faster but less dense than DRAM
    - Typical choice for cache memory
- Non-Volatile Memory Devices
  - ♦ Stores information permanently
  - ROM = Read Only Memory
  - ♦ Used to store the information required to startup the computer
  - ♦ Many types: ROM, EPROM, EEPROM, and FLASH
  - ♦ FLASH memory can be erased electrically in blocks

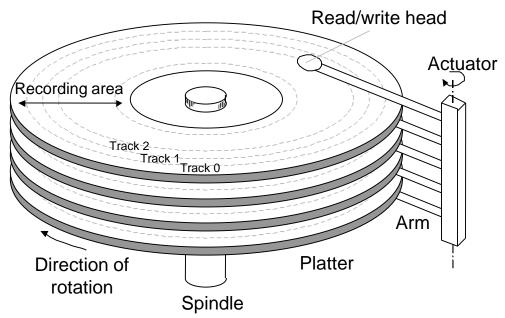




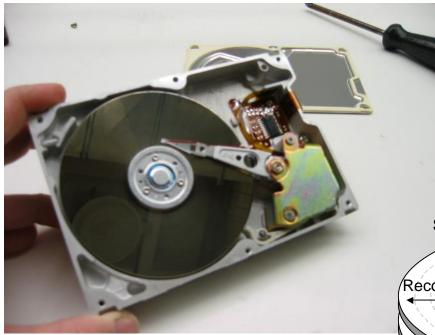
#### Magnetic Disk Storage



Arm provides read/write heads for all surfaces The disk heads are connected together and move in conjunction A Magnetic disk consists of a collection of platters Provides a number of recording surfaces



### Magnetic Disk Storage

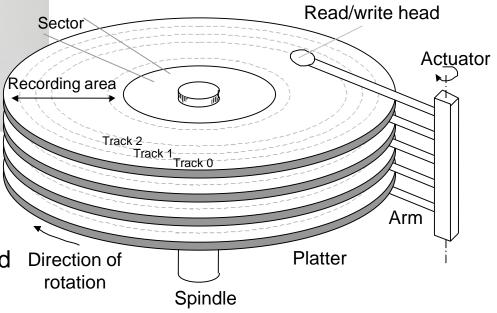


Seek Time: head movement to the desired track (milliseconds)

Rotation Latency: disk rotation until desired sector arrives under the head

Transfer Time: to transfer data

Disk Access Time = Seek Time + Rotation Latency + Transfer Time



### Example on Disk Access Time

Given a magnetic disk with the following properties

- ♦ Rotation speed = 7200 RPM (rotations per minute)
- ♦ Average seek = 8 ms, Sector = 512 bytes, Track = 200 sectors

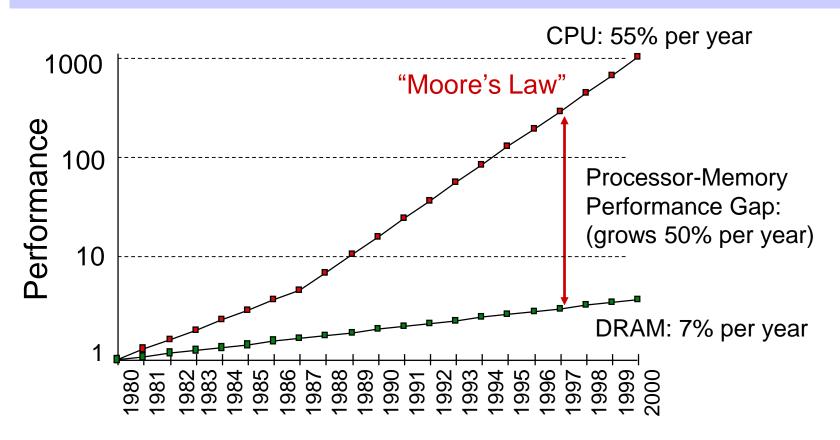
#### Calculate

- ♦ Time of one rotation (in milliseconds)
- ♦ Average time to access a block of 32 consecutive sectors

#### Answer

- $\diamond$  Rotations per second = 7200/60 = 120 RPS
- $\diamond$  Rotation time in milliseconds = 1000/120 = 8.33 ms
- $\diamond$  Average rotational latency = time of half rotation = 4.17 ms
- $\Rightarrow$  Time to transfer 32 sectors = (32/200) \* 8.33 = 1.33 ms
- $\diamond$  Average access time = 8 + 4.17 + 1.33 = 13.5 ms

### Processor-Memory Performance Gap



- ✤ 1980 No cache in microprocessor
- ✤ 1995 Two-level cache on microprocessor

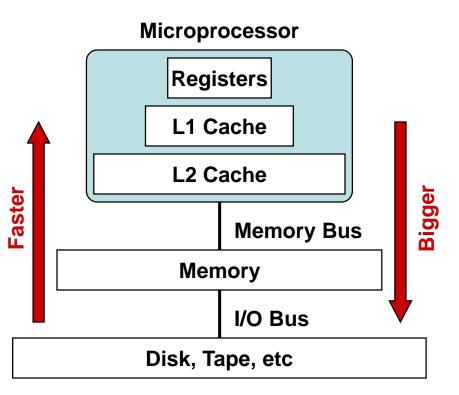
## The Need for a Memory Hierarchy

Widening speed gap between CPU and main memory

- ♦ Processor operation takes less than 1 ns
- $\diamond$  Main memory requires more than 50 ns to access
- Each instruction involves at least one memory access
  - $\diamond$  One memory access to fetch the instruction
  - $\diamond$  A second memory access for load and store instructions
- Memory bandwidth limits the instruction execution rate
- Cache memory can help bridge the CPU-memory gap
- Cache memory is small in size but fast

## Typical Memory Hierarchy

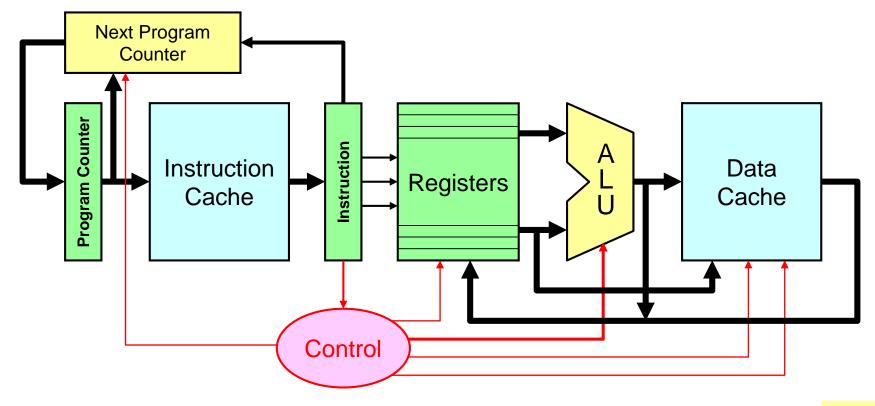
- Registers are at the top of the hierarchy
  - ♦ Typical size < 1 KB</p>
  - ♦ Access time < 0.5 ns</p>
- ★ Level 1 Cache (8 64 KB)
   ♦ Access time: 0.5 1 ns
- ✤ L2 Cache (64 KB 8 MB)
  - ♦ Access time: 2 10 ns
- ✤ Main Memory (1 64 GB)
  - $\diamond$  Access time: 50 70 ns
- Disk Storage (> 200 GB)
  - ♦ Access time: milliseconds



#### Processor

Datapath: part of a processor that executes instructions

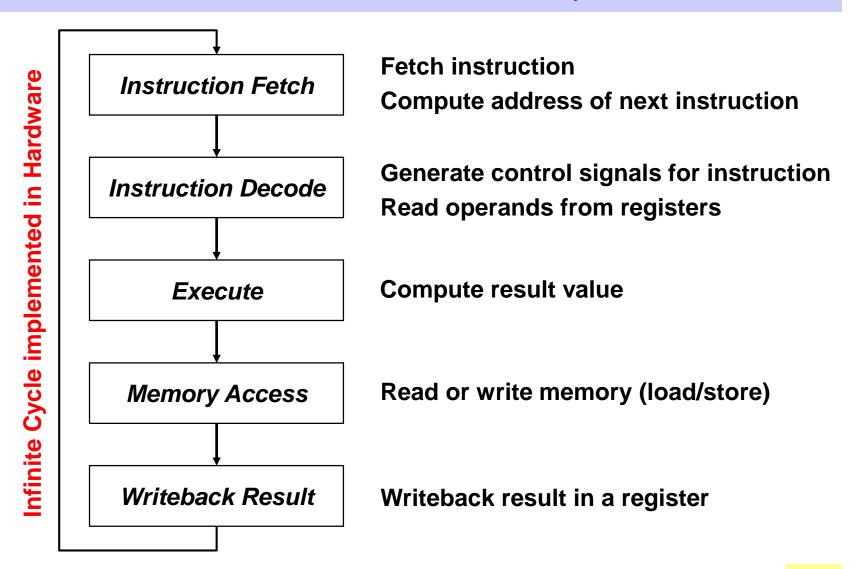
Control: generates control signals for each instruction



## Datapath Components

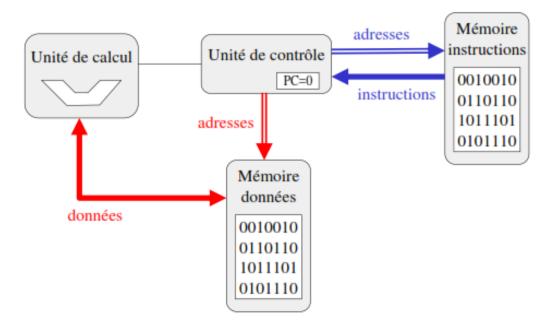
- Program Counter (PC)
  - ♦ Contains address of instruction to be fetched
  - ♦ Next Program Counter: computes address of next instruction
- Instruction Register (IR)
  - ♦ Stores the fetched instruction
- Instruction and Data Caches
  - ♦ Small and fast memory containing most recent instructions/data
- Register File
  - ♦ General-purpose registers used for intermediate computations
- ✤ ALU = Arithmetic and Logic Unit
  - ♦ Executes arithmetic and logic instructions
- Buses
  - $\diamond$  Used to wire and interconnect the various components

## Fetch - Execute Cycle



### Harvard Architecture

The Harvard architecture is a processor design that physically separates data memory from program memory. Access to each of the two memories is done through two distinct buses.



### Difference between Von Neumann and Harvard Architecture

#### **Comparison Table**

It is a theoretical design based on the stored-program computer concept.	It is a modern computer architecture based on the Harvard Mark I relay- based computer model.		
It uses same physical memory	It uses separate memory addresses		
address for instructions and data.	for instructions and data.		
Processor needs two clock cycles to execute an instruction.	Processor needs one cycle to complete an instruction.		
Simpler control unit design and	Control unit for two buses is more		
development of one is cheaper and	complicated which adds to the		
faster.	development cost.		
Data transfers and instruction	Data transfers and instruction		
fetches cannot be performed	fetches can be performed at the same		
simultaneously.	time.		
Used in personal computers, laptops, and workstations.	Used in microcontrollers and signal processing.		

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#### Next...

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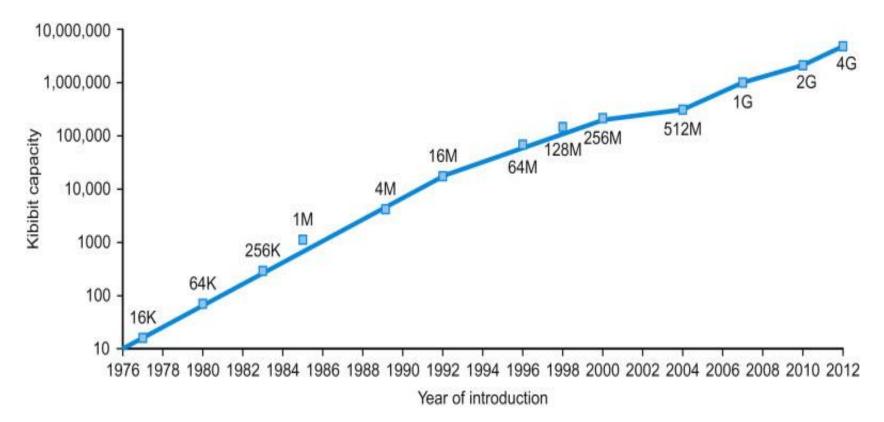
## **Technology Improvements**

- $\clubsuit$  Vacuum tube  $\rightarrow$  transistor  $\rightarrow \rightarrow$  VLSI
- Processor
  - ♦ Transistor count: about 30% to 40% per year
- Memory
  - ♦ DRAM capacity: about 60% per year (4x every 3 yrs)
  - ♦ Cost per bit: decreases about 25% per year
- Disk
  - ♦ Capacity: about 60% per year
- Opportunities for new applications
- Better organizations and designs

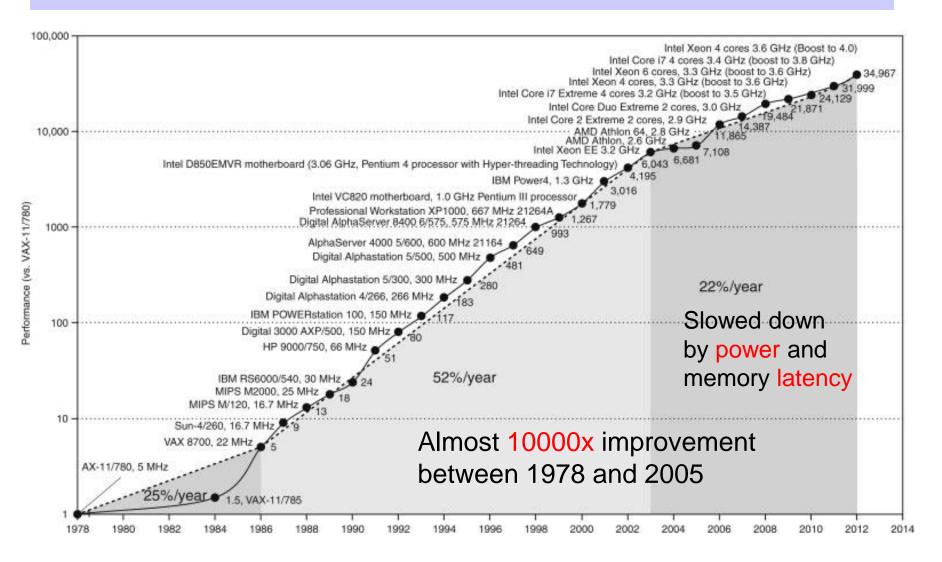
## Growth of Capacity per DRAM Chip

DRAM capacity quadrupled almost every 3 years

 $\diamond$  60% increase per year, for 20 years

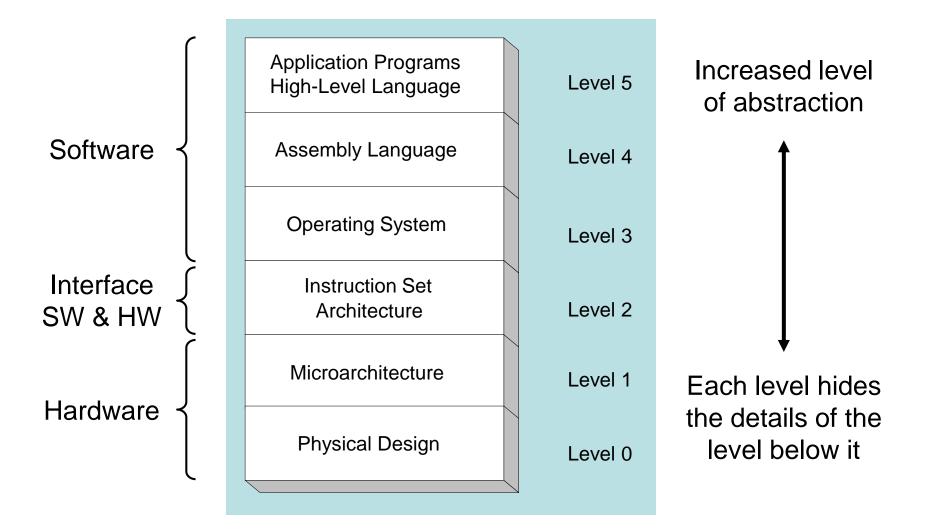


#### Processor Performance



#### Next...

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- Application Programs (Level 5)
  - ♦ Written in high-level programming languages
  - ♦ Such as Java, C++, Pascal, Visual Basic . . .
  - ♦ Programs compile into assembly language level (Level 4)
- Assembly Language (Level 4)
  - ♦ Instruction mnemonics (symbols) are used
  - ♦ Have one-to-one correspondence to machine language
  - $\diamond$  Calls functions written at the operating system level (Level 3)
  - ♦ Programs are translated into machine language (Level 2)

- Operating System (Level 3)
  - ♦ Provides services to level 4 and 5 programs
  - ♦ Translated to run at the machine instruction level (Level 2)
- Instruction Set Architecture (Level 2)
  - ♦ Interface between software and hardware
  - ♦ Specifies how a processor functions
  - ♦ Machine instructions, registers, and memory are exposed
  - ♦ Machine language is executed by Level 1 (microarchitecture)

- Microarchitecture (Level 1)
  - ♦ Controls the execution of machine instructions (Level 2)
  - ♦ Implemented by digital logic
- Physical Design (Level 0)
  - ♦ Implements the microarchitecture at the transistor-level
  - ♦ Physical layout of circuits on a chip