Lecture 2:

Simple Computer Architecture I

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Lecture 2: Monday 8th October 2001

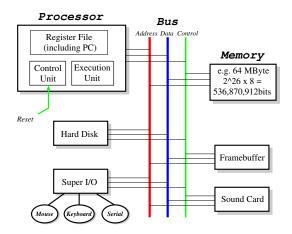
Today's Lecture

Today we'll cover:

- What's inside a computer?
 - Registers,
 - Memory Hierarchy,
 - Control, Execution units
 - Fetch-Execute Cycle,
 - ALU.
- How do we store and manipulate numbers?
 - Sign and Magnitude,
 - Two's complement,
 - Arithmetic

Lecture 2: Contents

A (Simple) Modern Computer



- Processor (CPU): executes programs.
- Memory: stores both programs & data.
- Devices: for input and output.
- Bus: transfers information.

Registers and the Register File

R0	0x5A
R1	0x102034
R2	0x2030ADCB
R3	0x0
R4	0x0
R5	0x2405
R6	0x102038
R7	0x20

R8	0xEA02D1F
R9	0x1001D
R10	0xfffffff
R11	0x102FC8
R12	0xFF0000
R13	0x37B1CD
R14	0x1
R15	0x20000000

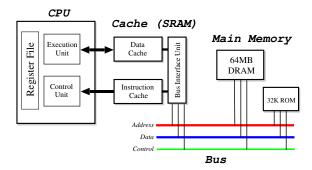
Computers are all about operating on information:

- information arrives into memory from input devices
- memory is a essentially large byte array which can hold any information we wish to operate on.
- computer *logically* takes values from memory, performs operations, and then stores result back.

In practice, CPU operates on registers:

- a register is an extremely fast piece of on-chip memory, usually either 32- or 64-bits in size.
- modern CPUs have between 8 and 128 registers.
- data values are *loaded* from memory into registers before being operated upon,
- and results are stored back again.

Memory Hierarchy



- Use cache between main memory and register: try to hide delay in accessing (relatively) slow DRAM.
- Cache made from faster SRAM:
 - more expensive, so much smaller
 - holds copy of subset of main memory.
- Split of instruction and data at cache level ⇒
 "Harvard" architecture.
- Cache ↔ CPU interface uses a custom bus.
- ullet Today have $\sim 512 \mathrm{KB}$ cache, $\sim 128 \mathrm{MB}$ RAM.

Lecture 2: Anatomy of a Computer

"Ideally one would desire an indefinitely large memory capacity such that any particular. . . word would be immediately available. . . We are. . . forced to recognize the possibility of constructing a hierarchy of memories, each of which has greater capacity than the preceding but which is less quickly accessible."

Burks, Goldstine & Von Neumann, 1946.

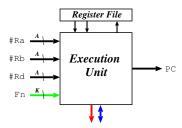
Lecture 2: Anatomy of a Computer

The Fetch-Execute Cycle

Execution Unit | Decode | IB | Decode |

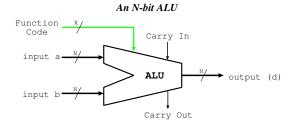
- A special register called PC holds a memory address; on reset, initialised to 0.
- Then:
 - 1. Instruction fetched from memory address held in PC into instruction buffer (IB).
 - 2. Control Unit determines what to do: decodes instruction.
 - 3 Execution Unit executes instruction.
 - 4. PC updated, and back to Step 1.
- Continues pretty much forever

Execution Unit



- The "calculator" part of the processor.
- Broken into parts (functional units), e.g.
 - Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU).
 - Shifter/Rotator
 - Multiplier.
 - Divider.
 - Memory Access Unit (MAU).
 - Branch Unit.
- Choice of functional unit determined by signals from control unit.

Arithmetic Logic Unit



- Part of the execution unit.
- Inputs from register file; output to register file.
- Performs simple two-operand functions:
 - -a+b
 - a b
 - a AND b
 - a OR b
 - etc.
- Typically perform *all* possible functions; use function code to select (mux) output.

Lecture 2: Arithmetic and Logical Operations

Number Representation

0000_{2}	0_{16}	0110_{2}	6_{16}	1100_{2}	C_{16}
0001_{2}	1_{16}	0111_{2}	7_{16}	1101_{2}	D_{16}
0010_{2}	2_{16}	1000_{2}	8_{16}	1110_{2}	E_{16}
0011_{2}	3_{16}	1001_{2}	9_{16}	1111_{2}	F_{16}
0100_{2}	4_{16}	1010_{2}	A_{16}	10000_{2}	10_{16}
0101_{2}	5_{16}	1011_{2}	B_{16}	10001_{2}	11_{16}

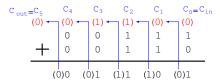
- a n-bit register $b_{n-1}b_{n-2}\dots b_1b_0$ can represent 2^n different values.
- Call b_{n-1} the most significant bit (msb), b_0 the least significant bit (lsb).
- Unsigned numbers: treat the obvious way, i.e. val = $b_{n-1}2^{n-1}+b_{n-2}2^{n-2}+\cdots+b_12^1+b_02^0$, e.g. $1101_2=2^3+2^2+2^0=8+4+1=13$.
- Represents values from 0 to 2^n-1 inclusive.
- For large numbers, binary is unwieldy: use hexadecimal (base 16).
- To convert, group bits into groups of 4, e.g. $1111101010_2 = 0011|1110|1010_2 = 3EA_{16}$.
- Often use "0x" prefix to denote hex, e.g. 0x107.
- Can use dot to separate large numbers into 16-bit chunks, e.g. 0x3FF.FFFF.

Lecture 2: Arithmetic and Logical Operations

Number Representation cont.

- What about *signed* numbers? Two main options:
- Sign & magnitude:
 - top (leftmost) bit flags if negative; remaining bits make value.
 - e.g. byte $10011011_2 \rightarrow -0011011_2 = -27$.
 - represents range $-(2^{n-1}-1)$ to $+(2^{n-1}-1)$, and the bonus value -0 (!).
- 2's complement:
 - to get -x from x, invert every bit and add 1.
 - $\text{ e.g. } +27 = 00011011_2 \Rightarrow$
 - $-27 = (11100100_2 + 1) = 11100101_2.$
 - treat $1000 \dots 000_2$ as -2^{n-1} .
 - represents range -2^{n-1} to $+(2^{n-1}-1)$
- Note:
 - in both cases, top-bit means "negative".
 - both representations depend on n;
- In practice, all modern computers use 2's complement.

Unsigned Arithmetic



(we use 5-bit registers for simplicity)

• Unsigned addition: C_n means "carry":

0	01100	12	1	00101	5
+	00111	7	+	00111	7
	00101	5		11110	30

• Unsigned subtraction: $\overline{C_n}$ means "borrow":

	01100	12		00111	7
+	11001	-7	+	10110	-10
1	00101	5	0	11101	29

10

Signed Arithmetic

- In signed arithmetic, carry no good on its own. Use the **overflow** flag, $V = (C_n \oplus C_{n-1})$.
- Also have **negative** flag, $N = b_{n-1}$ (i.e. the msb).
- Signed addition:

• Signed subtraction:

 \bullet Note that in overflow cases the sign of the result is always wrong (i.e. the N bit is inverted).

Summary

You should now understand:

- Some details of simple computer architecture,
- The fetch-execute cycle,
- Binary and hexadecimal numbers,
- Representing signed numbers in binary, and
- Arithmetic with signed binary numbers.

Next lecture: Simple Computer Architecture II

Background Reading:

- Hennessy/Patterson:
 - Chapter 4 Arithmetic
 - Chapter 7 Memory

Lecture 2: Arithmetic and Logical Operations