Computer Organization and Architecture : Introduction

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Course website :

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Recommended Books :

1. John L. Hennessy and David A. Patterson, Computer Architecture -- A Quantitative Approach, 5th Edition, Morgan Kaufmann Publications, Elsevier, Inc., 2012.

2. Carl Hamachar, Zvonco Vranesic and Safwat Zaky, Computer Organization, McGraw Hill

3. William Stallings, Computer Organization and Architecture: Designing for Performance, Pearson Education

4. John P. Hayes , Computer Architecture and Organization, McGraw Hill

Resources for the course



Hamacher et al.



Hayes Computer Architecture and Organization



- Slides provide key concepts, books provide details
- Use lecture notes supplemented with textbook and internet
- Develop your assembly language programming skills
- For design

H&P



Elements of Computing System : Building a computer from first principles

Resources for the Lab

Architectural Simulators:

MARS (MIPS Simulation)





EmuARM

Resources for the Lab

Design:

- 1. NAND to Tetris https://www.nand2tetris.org/
- 2. ModelSim simulator



What is the course all about ???

- What are the components of a computer and how do they work?
- How to program a computer?
- How to store different kinds of data in a computer ?
- How can I run my programs faster ?
- Use of techniques such as caching and pipelining
- How to work with multiple processors?
- What are GPUs and how can they improve performance?
- Can I build my own computer?

..... and more

What is a computer ?

Computer

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

For other uses, see Computer (disambiguation).

A computer is a machine that can be programmed to carry out sequences of arithmetic or logical operations automatically. Modern computers can perform generic sets of operations known as programs. These programs enable computers to perform a wide range of tasks. A computer system is a "complete" computer that includes the hardware, operating system (main software), and peripheral equipment needed and used for "full" operation. This term may also refer to a group of computers that are linked and function together, such as a computer network or computer cluster.

A broad range of industrial and consumer products use computers as control systems. Simple special-purpose devices like microwave ovens and remote controls are included, as are factory devices like industrial robots and computer-aided design, as well as general-purpose devices like personal computers and mobile devices like smartphones. Computers power the Internet, which links hundreds of millions of other computers and users.

Early computers were only meant to be used for calculations. Simple manual instruments like the abacus have aided people in doing calculations since ancient times. Early in the Industrial Revolution, some mechanical devices were built to automate long tedious tasks, such as guiding patterns for looms. More sophisticated electrical machines did specialized analog calculations in the early 20th century. The first digital electronic calculating machines were developed during World War II. The first semiconductor transistors in the late 1940s were followed by the silicon-based MOSFET (MOS transistor) and monolithic integrated circuit (IC) chip technologies in the late 1950s, leading to the microprocessor and the microcomputer revolution in the 1970s. The speed, power and versatility of computers have been increasing dramatically ever since then, with transistor counts increasing at a rapid pace (as predicted by Moore's law), leading to the Digital Revolution during the late 20th to early 21st centuries.

Conventionally, a modern computer consists of at least one processing element, typically a central processing unit (CPU) in the form of a microprocessor, along with some type of computer memory, typically semiconductor memory chips. The processing element carries out arithmetic and logical operations, and a sequencing and control unit can change the order of operations in response to stored information. Peripheral devices include input devices (keyboards, mice, joystick, etc.), output devices (monitor screens, printers, etc.), and input/output devices that perform both functions (e.g., the 2000s-era touchscreen). Peripheral devices allow information to be retrieved from an external source and they enable the result of operations to be saved and retrieved.



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Computers and computing devices from different eras – clockwise from top left: Early vacuum tube computer (ENIAC) Mainframe computer (IBM System 360) Desktop computer (IBM ThinkCentre S50 with monitor) Supercomputer (IBM Summit) Video game console (Nintendo GameCube)

Computer - A Computing Machine



- Q: What can a computer do ?
- Ans: Determine if a given integer is a prime number
 - A Palindrome recognizer
 - Determine the shortest time journey between two airports
 - Missile control, finger print recognition, chess player
 - Speech recognition, language recognition

Computer facilitates the user by validating the devised solution (program / algo) on a number of test cases (input)

Need for a Computer : Human Efficiency Vs. Machine Performance

Q: If I am devising the solution (algorithm) to a problem, why do I need a machine?

Ans: The machine performs the task in lesser time and more accurately

Ex: Compare the task of sorting 1000 numbers when performed by a human and using a computer.

A computer clearly outperforms the human.

Components of a Computer System

Block diagram of computer



Computer System



Computer Motherboard



Functions of a Computer

- Data Processing
- Data Control
- Data Movement
- Control

Central Processing Unit (CPU)



- The program control unit has a set of registers and control circuit to generate control signals
- The execution unit or data processing unit contains a set of registers for storing data and an Arithmetic and Logic Unit (ALU) for execution of arithmetic and logical operations. In addition CPU may have some additional registers for temporary storage

CPU Components

- Control Unit (CU): Controls the operation of the CPU and hence the computer
- Arithmetic and Logic Unit (ALU): Performs computer's data processing functions.
- **Register:** Provides storage internal to the CPU.
- CPU Interconnection: communication among the control unit, ALU, and register.

Inside the CPU



Nehalem : Intel's core i7 microarchitecture

Storage elements – Primary Memory

Memory unit is used to store the data and program. CPU can work with the information stored in memory unit. This memory unit is termed as primary memory or main memory module. These are basically semi conductor memories

Volatile Memory : RAM (Random Access Memory).

Non-Volatile Memory : ROM (Read only Memory), PROM (Programmable ROM) EPROM (Erasable PROM), EEPROM (Electrically Erasable PROM).



RAM Random Access Memory



ROM Read only Memory

Memory Organization

- Memory consists of millions of storage cells each storing a bit (0/1) of information
- Bits are held in groups of fixed size requires basic operation
- Each *n-bit* group is called a *Word (n* describes the word length *)*
- Memory is a collection of words
- Each location of memory has an unique address



Storage Elements – Secondary Memory

Secondary memories are non volatile memory and it is used for permanent storage of data and program. Example of secondary memories: Hard Disk, USB Drives, CD-ROM



Input Unit

Program or data is read into main storage from input device or secondary storage under the control of CPU input instruction



Output Unit

Used to Provide results to the user.

Data from main storage in transferred to the output units under control of CPU output instructions



How does the computer work?

- Computer needs to be programmed to do such tasks
- Programming is the process of writing instructions in a language that can be understood by the computer so that a desired task can be performed by it
- Program: sequence of instructions to do a task, computer processes the instructions sequentially one after the other
- **Software:** programs for doing tasks on computers
- CPU understands machine language
 - Different strings of 0's and 1's (Hard to remember)
 - Mnemonic names of the strings Instruction set
- Alternate way to instruct CPU use high level language

Example of machine-language

Here's what a program-fragment looks like:

10100001 10111100 10010011 00000100 00001000 00000011 00000101 11000000 10010011 00000100 00001000 10100011 11000000 10010100 00000100 00001000

It means:
$$z = x + y;$$

Assembly Language



Programming a Computer in the language of the Computer : Assembly Language

Instruction set : Start Read M Write M Load Data, M *Copy M*1,*M*2 Add M1, M2, M3 Sub M1, M2, M3, Compare M1, M2, M3, Jump L J Zero M,L

Halt

<u>Program</u>

- 0: Start
- 1: Read 10
- 2: Read 11
- 3: Add 10, 11, 12
- 4: Write 12
- 5: Halt

Programming a Computer using High Level Language

• Instruction set of different CPUs are different

 Need to write different programs for computers with different types of CPUs even to do the same thing

• Solution – High Level Language (C, C++, Java,)

- CPU neutral One program for many
- Compiler to convert from high level program to low level program that the computer understands

High Level Program

Variables x, y;

Begin

Read (x);

Read (y);

If (x >y) then Write (x)

else Write (y); End.

Low Level Program 0: Start 1: Read 20 2: Read 21 3: Compare 20, 21, 22 4: J_Zero 22, 7 5: Write 20 6: Jump 8 7: Write 21 8: Halt

HLL – Assembly – Machine Code



(a) First, compile to assembly-level code.



(b) Second, assemble-link to machine code.



Computer is all about Abstraction



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How Do We Solve a Problem by a Computer ?

Ans : Through a systematic sequence of transformation between layers of abstraction



Layers of Absttraction



Layers of Abstraction

How are programs executed by the computer?

Program Execution

What happens after the machine code a program is generated?

Loading a Program in Memory

Memory Layout of a C code

| 1 | <pre>#include <stdio.h></stdio.h></pre> | 11 | HIGHER ADDRESS | |
|----|---|----|----------------|----------------------------|
| | <pre>#include <malloc.h></malloc.h></pre> | | | |
| | | | Unmapped | |
| | | | | |
| | | | main() | |
| | <pre>char str[] = "Hi!"; // Initialized read-write area of DATA segment</pre> | | ptr | |
| | <pre>const int x = 1; // Uninitialized DATA segment</pre> | | | Stack segment |
| | int i; | | | |
| 9 | | | | |
| 10 | | | | |
| | | | | |
| | Vola tunc() | | | |
| | i static ist was A: // Initialized DATA segment | | | |
| 14 | int a: // stack from sogmont | | | |
| 16 | | | | Heen segment |
| | | | | |
| 18 | | | | |
| 19 | | | | |
| 20 | <pre>int main()</pre> | | | Uninitialized DATA segment |
| 21 | { · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · | | | |
| | <pre>char *ptr = (char *)malloc(sizeof(char)); // Heap segment</pre> | | | |
| | <pre>func(); // stack frame</pre> | | | Initialized DATA segment |
| | return 0; | | str[] = "Hi!" | |
| | } | | | |
| 26 | | | | |
| | | | Executable | Text segment |
| 28 | | | Instructions | |
| 29 | | | | |
| | | | | |
| 31 | | | LOWER ADDRESS | |

What Happens After Loading?

- CPU fetches the compiled code sequentially from memory to its registers
- Executes the code using Arithmetic and Logic Unit on instructions from the Control Unit

Example of Program Execution

| Memory CPU Registers | Memory CPU Registers |
|--|---|
| 300 <u>1 9 4 0</u> 301 <u>5 9 4 1</u> 302 <u>2 9 4 1</u> 940 <u>0 0 0 3</u> 941 <u>0 0 0 2</u> Step 1 | 3001 19 4.0 0.0 19 4.0 3012 2.9 4.1 1.9 4.0 IR 940 0.0 0.0 2 Step 2 Step 2 |
| Memory CPU Registers 3001 9 4 3015 9 4 3022 9 4 9400 0 0 9410 0 2 Step 3 3 5 | $\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$ |
| Memory CPU Registers 300[1940] 302PC 3015941 302PC 302294 2941 940[0003] 941[0002] Step 5 5 | Memory CPU Registers 3001 9.4 0 3012 9.4 1 302 9.4 1 940 0 0 5 941 0 0 5 Step 6 5 5 |
| | $\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$ |

CPU Execution

Program execution Steps

- Write a program in high level language (Say in C)
 - Use a text editor to write the source code (save the file with .c extension
- Compile the program using a C compiler (gcc compiler)
 - On the terminal : gcc <file.c> -o <output file name>
- Run the program (Ask the computer to execute it)
 - On the terminal : ./ <output file name>

Compilation Steps

Choices of implementation at different layers

Layers of Abstraction

The Hierarchical nature of computer system

- A hierarchical system is a set of interrelated subsystems, each in turn, hierarchical in structure; until at the lowest level we have elementary subsystems
- A computer is a complex hierarchical system
- The hierarchical nature of complex systems is essential to both their design and their description. The designer need only deal with a particular level of the system at a time
- At each level, the system consists of a set off *components and their interrelationships*.
- The behaviour at each level depends only on a simplified, abstracted characterization of the system at the next lower level.At each level,, the designer is concerned with structure and function:
- Structure: The way in which the components are interrelated.
- Function : The operation of each individual component

What is Architecture and Organization?

Computer Architecture vs Computer Organization

- Computer organization
 - Encompasses all physical aspects of computer systems.
 - E.g., circuit design, control signals, memory types.
 - How does a computer work?

Computer architecture

- Logical aspects of system implementation as seen by the programmer.
- E.g., instruction sets, instruction formats, data types, addressing modes.
- How do I design a computer?

History of Computer – Past to Present

First Generation Computers

Time Period : 1951 to 1959 Size : Very Large System Technology : Vacuum Tubes Processing : Very Slow

First Generation Computers

Characterized By:-Magnetic Drums

- Magnetic Tapes
- Difficult to program
- Used machine language & assembly language

Second generation of computers

Second Generation Computers

Time Period : 1959 to 1963 Size : Smaller Technology : Transistors Processing : Faster

Second Generation Computers

Characterized By:-

- Magnetic Cores
- Magnetic Disk
- Used high level language
- Easier to program

Third generation computers

Third Generation Computers

| Time Period | : 1963 to 1975 |
|-------------|---|
| Technology | : ICs (Integrated Circuits) |
| | Incorporated many transistors & electronic circuits on a single chip |
| Size | : Small as compared to 2nd generation computers |
| Processing | Faster then 2nd generation computers |

IC (Integrated Circuit)

Characterized by:-

 Minicomputers accessible by multiple users from remote terminals.

Fourth generation of Computers

Fourth generation (1971-1980) VLSI microprocessor based

- Storage Semiconductor memory, 1000 MB disks
- Software FORTRAN-77, PASCAL, COBOL 74
- Applications personal computers,graphics oriented system,

Fifth generation of computers

Fifth Generation of Computer (1980-Present)

Artificial Intelligence

Fifth Generation Computer - Desktop

The Generations

Present day computing

| РНОТО | COMPUTING DEVICE | USES | PROCESSING POWER | MOBILITY |
|--------------|-----------------------|---|--|---|
| AROSCOCKORNA | Laptops | Laptop computers are used for almost anything, from document processing in an office environment, to graphic design and video editing, to browsing the internet and playing games. However, laptop computers are easily moved around allowing you to work anywhere and anytime. | Medium to high processing power | Fully mobile |
| | Desktop computers | A desktop computer's uses are exactly the same as those of a laptop except that a desktop is not mobile. | Medium to high processing power | Minimal mobility |
| J. | Smart phones | Smartphones are better than desktops at tasks that require a very mobile device, like taking photos, setting alarms, navigating the roads, making calls and sending and receiving short messages. | Medium to low processing power | Excellent mobility |
| | Tablets | Info on keyboard, screen size and applications. Reading of books is better on a tablet than on a smartphone. | Medium processing power | Excellent mobility |
| | Servers | Servers are designed for managing networks, providing access to specific files and hosting websites, as well as processing huge amounts of data. | High processing power | No mobility |
| | Embedded computers | Embedded devices are devices designed for a fixed purpose, whether that purpose is to wake you up in the morning, control the temperature of the air conditioning or refrigerator, or any navigation system. | Low processing power | Varies depending on the device |

Moore's Law

- Increased density of components on chip
- Gordon Moore co-founder of Intel
- Number of transistors on a chip will double every year
- Since 1970's development has slowed a little
 - Number of transistors doubles every 18 months
- Cost of a chip has remained almost unchanged
- Higher packing density means shorter electrical paths, giving higher performance
- Smaller size gives increased flexibility
- Reduced power and cooling requirements
- Fewer interconnections increases reliability

Moore's Law

Performance Balance

Processor speed increased

- Memory capacity increased
- Memory speed lags behind processor speed

Logic – Memory performance gap

Solutions

- Increase number of bits retrieved at one time
- -Make DRAM "wider" rather than "deeper"
- **Change DRAM interface**
- -Cache
- **Reduce frequency of memory access**
- -More complex cache and cache on chip
- Increase interconnection bandwidth
- -High speed buses
- -Hierarchy of buses

I/O Devices

Peripherals with intensive I/O demands Large data throughput demands Processors can handle this Problem moving data Solutions: -Caching

- -Buffering
- -Higher-speed interconnection buses
- -More elaborate bus structures
- -Multiple-processor configurations

I/O Device data rate

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Improvement in Chip Organization and Architecture

Increase hardware speed of processor

- -Fundamentally due to shrinking logic gate size
- More gates, packed more tightly, increasing clock rate
- Propagation time for signals reduced

Increase size and speed of caches

- -Dedicating part of processor chip
- Cache access times drop significantly

Change processor organization and architecture

- -Increase effective speed of execution
- -Parallelism

Problems with Clock Speed and Logic density

Power

- Power density increases with density of logic and clock speed
- **Dissipating heat**
- **RC delay**
- Speed at which electrons flow limited by resistance and capacitance of metal wires connecting them
- **Delay increases as RC product increases**
- Wire interconnects thinner, increasing resistance
- Wires closer together, increasing capacitance
- **Memory latency**
- Memory speeds lag processor speeds
- Solution:
- More emphasis on organizational and architectural approaches

Intel Microprocessor Performance

- Typically two or three levels of cache between processor and main memory Chip density increased
- -More cache memory on chip
- **Faster cache access**
- Pentium chip devoted about 10% of chip area to cache
- Pentium 4 devotes about 50%

More Complex Execution Logic

- Enable parallel execution of instructions Pipeline works like assembly line
- —Different stages of execution of different instructions at same time along pipeline
- Superscalar allows multiple pipelines within single processor
- -Instructions that do not depend on one another can be executed in parallel

New Approach - Multi-core chips

Multiple processors on single chip

Large shared cache

Within a processor, increase in performance proportional to square root of increase in complexity

- If software can use multiple processors, doubling number of processors almost doubles performance
- So, use two simpler processors on the chip rather than one more complex processor
- With two processors, larger caches are justified

Power consumption of memory logic less than processing logic

Multi-core processor

X86 evolution

8080 : first general purpose microprocessor

- 8 bit data path
- Used in first personal computer Altair
- 8086 5MHz 29,000 transistors
- much more powerful
- 16 bit
- instruction cache, prefetch few instructions
- 8088 (8 bit external bus) used in first IBM PC 80286
- 16 Mbyte memory addressable
- up from 1Mb
- 80386: 32 bit
- Support for multitasking
- **80486**
- sophisticated powerful cache and instruction pipelining
- built in maths co-processor

X86 evolution

Pentium

- •Superscalar
- Multiple instructions executed in parallel

•Pentium Pro

- Increased superscalar organization
- Aggressive register renaming
- branch prediction
- data flow analysis
- speculative execution

• Pentium II

- MMX technology
- graphics, video & audio processing

Pentium III

Additional floating point instructions for 3D graphics

X86 evolution

•Pentium 4

- Arabic rather than Roman numerals
- Further floating point and multimedia enhancements

• Core

- First x86 with dual core
- Core 2
- 64 bit architecture
- Core 2 Quad 3GHz 820 million transistors
- Four processors on chip

x86 architecture dominant outside embedded systems Organization and technology changed dramatically Instruction set architecture evolved with backwards compatibility ~1 instruction per month added 500 instructions available See Intel web pages for detailed information on processors