Advanced Parallel ArchitectureLesson 3

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Von Neumann Architecture

Summary of the traditional computer architecture:
Von Neumann architecture

http://WilliamStallings.com/COA/COA7e.html

Architecture & Organization

In describing computers, a distinction is often made:

- Architecture attributes visible to the programmer
 - ▶ Instruction set, number of bits used for data representation, I/O mechanisms, addressing techniques
 - e.g. Is there a multiply instruction?
- Organization operational units and their interconnections that realize the architectural specifications
 - Control signals, interfaces, memory technology
 - e.g. Is there a hardware multiply unit or is it done by repeated addition?

Structure & Function

- A computer is a complex system containing millions of elementary electronic components
- The key to describe a computer is to recognize its hierarchical nature, as for most complex systems:
 - ▶ At each level, the system consists of a **set of components**
 - ▶ The **interrelationships** between components
 - ▶ The behavior at each level depends only on a simplified, abstracted characterization of the system at the next lower level

Structure & Function

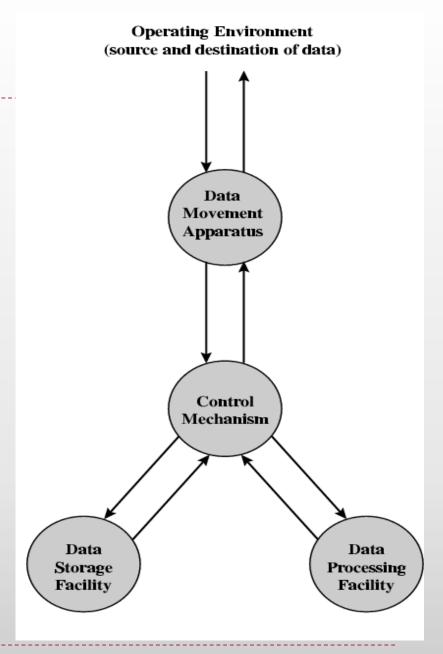
- At each level, we are concerned with:
 - ▶ **Structure** the way in which components relate to each other
 - Function the operation of individual components as part of the structure

- The basic functions that a computer can perform are:
 - Data processing
 - Data storage
 - Data movement
 - Control

Structure & Function

The computer must be able:

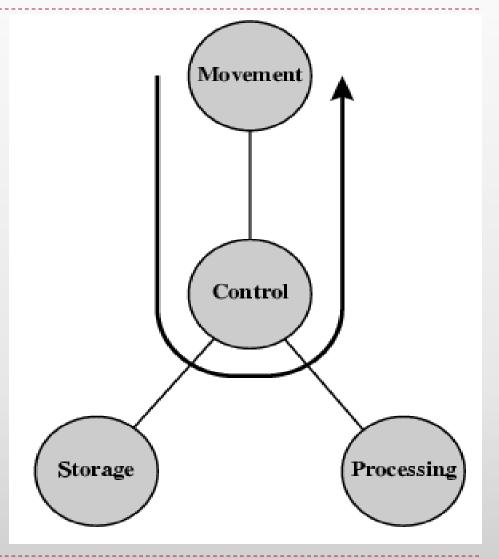
- To process data, that may take a wide variety of forms
- To store data temporarily store at least those pieces of data that are being worked on at any given moment
- To move data between itself and the outside world
- To control these three functions



Operations - Data movement

Four possible types of operations

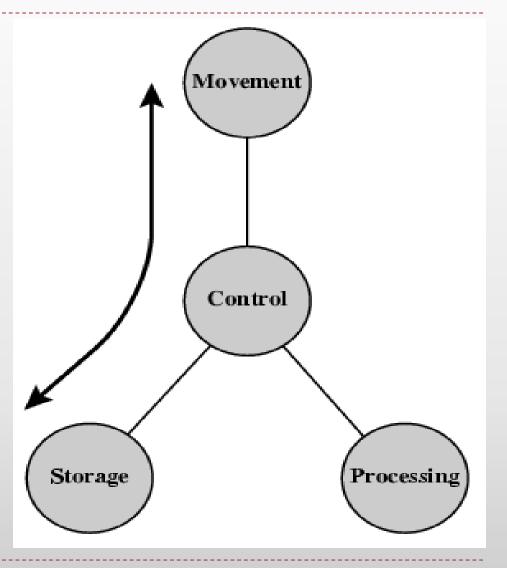
The *computer* can function as a data movement device, simply transferring data from one peripheral or communications line to another



Operations - Storage

Four possible types of operations

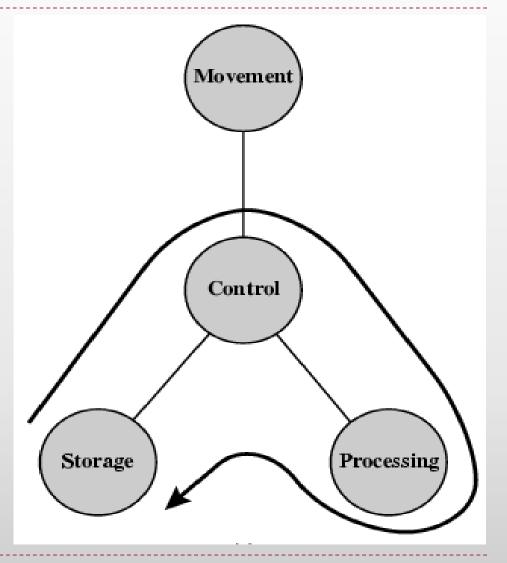
The computer can function as a data data storage device, with data transferred from the external environment to computer storage (read) and vice versa (write)



Operation - Processing from/to storage

Four possible types of operations

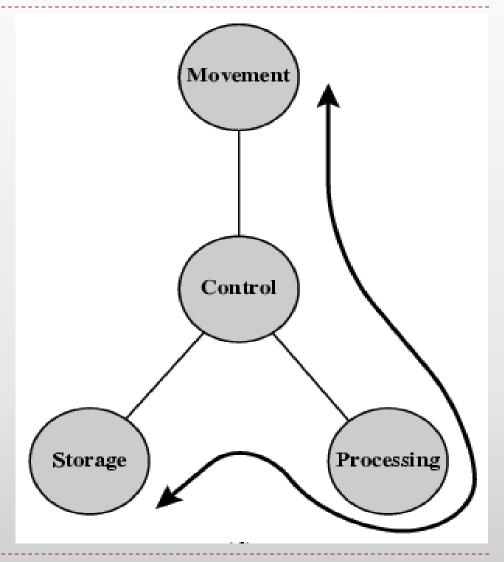
The *computer* can execute operations involving data processing, on *data in* storage



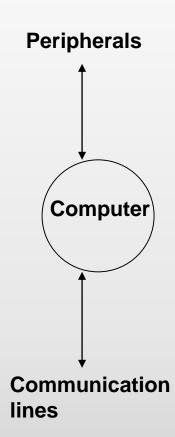
Operation - Processing from storage to I/O

Four possible types of operations

The *computer* can execute operations involving data processing, on *data en* route between storage and the external environment



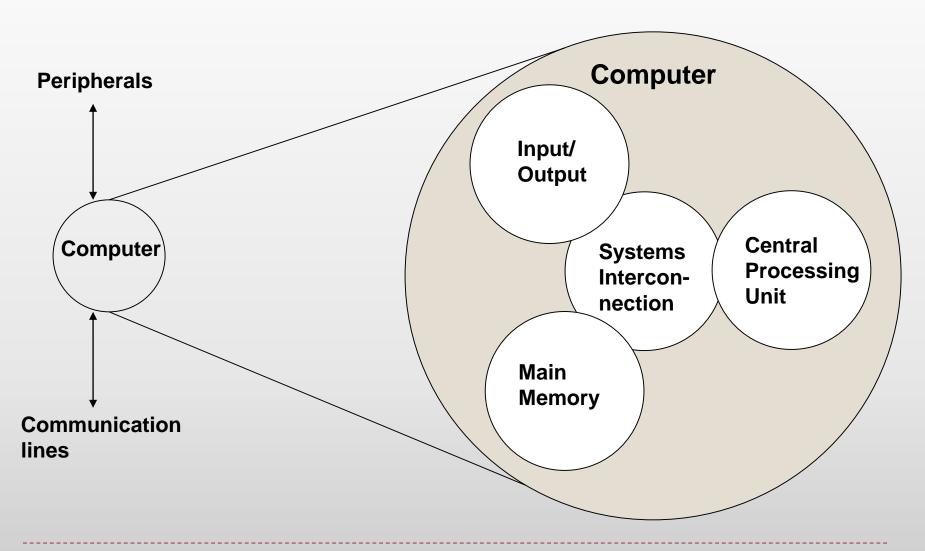
Structure - Top Level



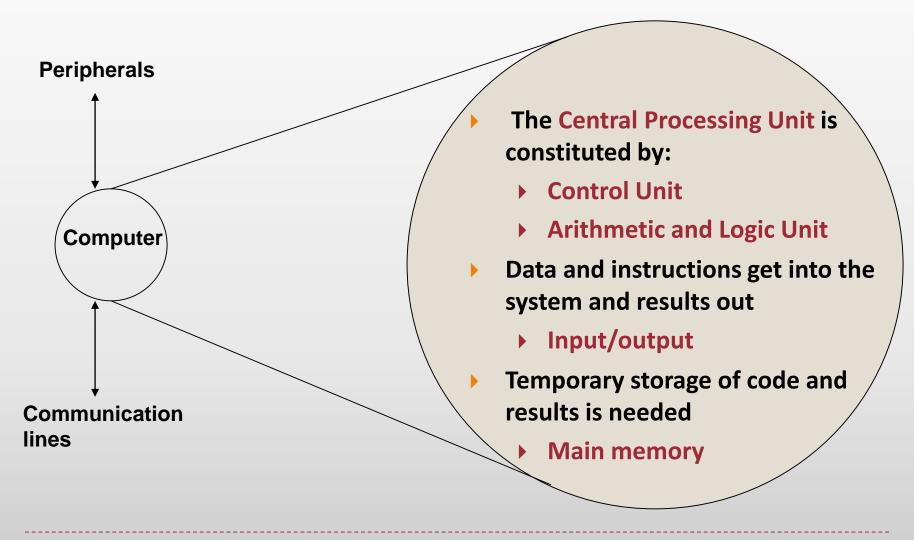
The internal structure of the computer consists of four main structural components:

- Central processing unit (CPU): Controls the operation of the computer and performs its data processing functions (processor)
- Main memory: Stores data
- ▶ I/O: Moves data between the computer and its external environment
- ▶ System interconnection: Some mechanism that provides for communication among CPU, main memory, and I/O (for example a system bus)

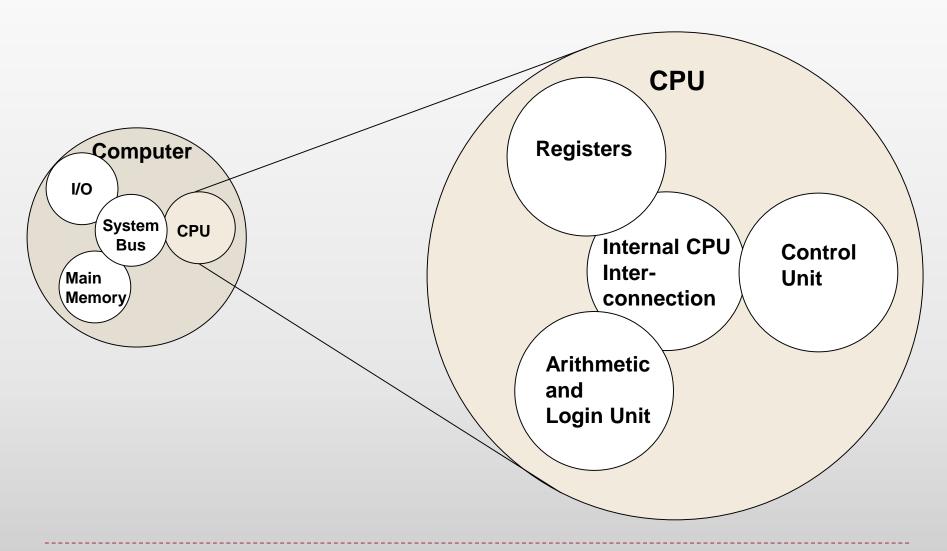
Structure - Top Level



Structure - Top Level



Structure - The CPU

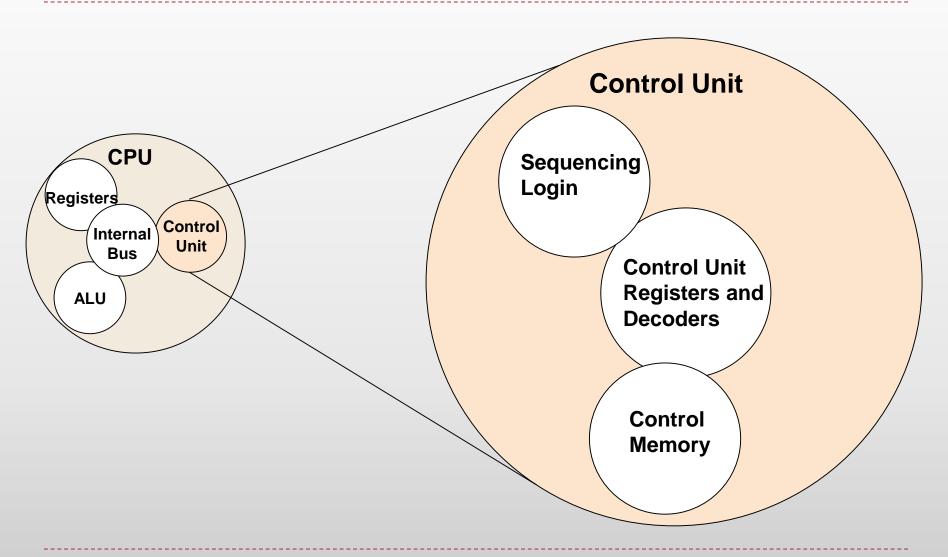


Components

Basic element of a Central Processing Unit (processor)

- Control Unit
- ALU Arithmetic and Logic Unit
- Registers
- Internal data paths
- External data paths

Structure - The Control Unit



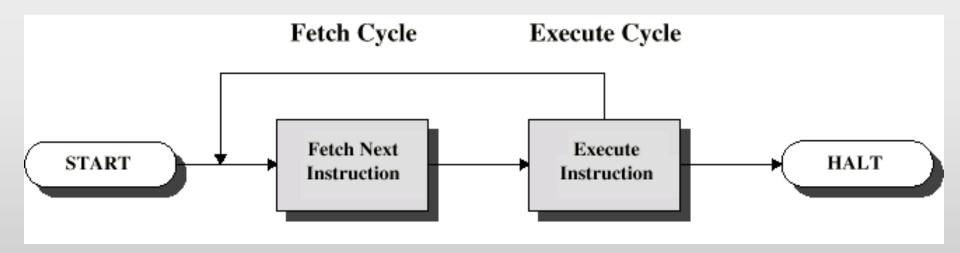
Observations

- Traditionally, the computer has been viewed as a sequential machine
- Most computer programming languages require the programmer to specify algorithms as sequences of instructions
- Processors execute programs by executing machine instructions in a sequence and one at a time
- Each instruction is executed in a sequence of operations (fetch instruction, fetch operands, perform operation, store results)
- This view of the computer has never been entirely true

Instruction execution

Instruction Cycle

- The processing required for a single instruction is called an instruction cycle
- The instruction cycle can be illustrated using a simplified two-step description
- The two steps are referred to as the fetch cycle and the execute cycle



Fetch Cycle

- Program Counter (PC) holds address of next instruction to fetch
- Processor fetches instruction from memory location pointed to by PC
- Increment PC
 - Unless told otherwise
- Instruction loaded into Instruction Register (IR)
- Processor interprets instruction and performs required actions

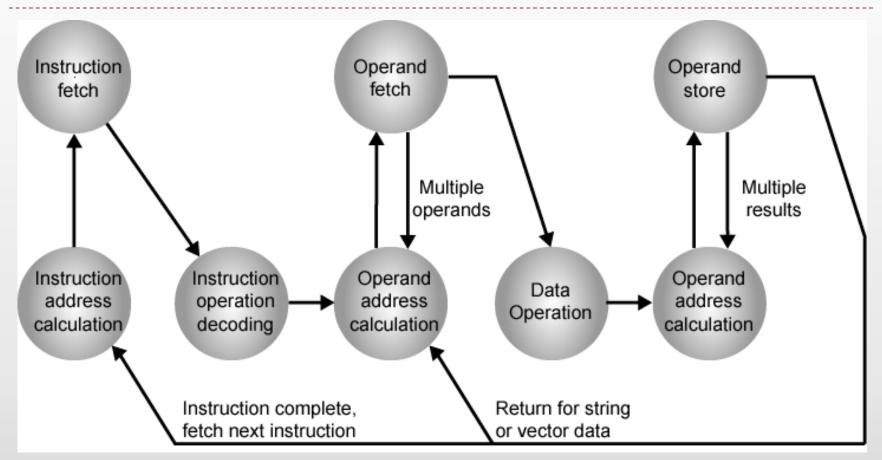
Execute Cycle

- Processor-memory
 - data transfer between CPU and main memory
- Processor I/O
 - Data transfer between CPU and I/O module
- Data processing
 - Some arithmetic or logical operation on data
- Control
 - Alteration of sequence of operations
 - e.g. jump
- Combination of above

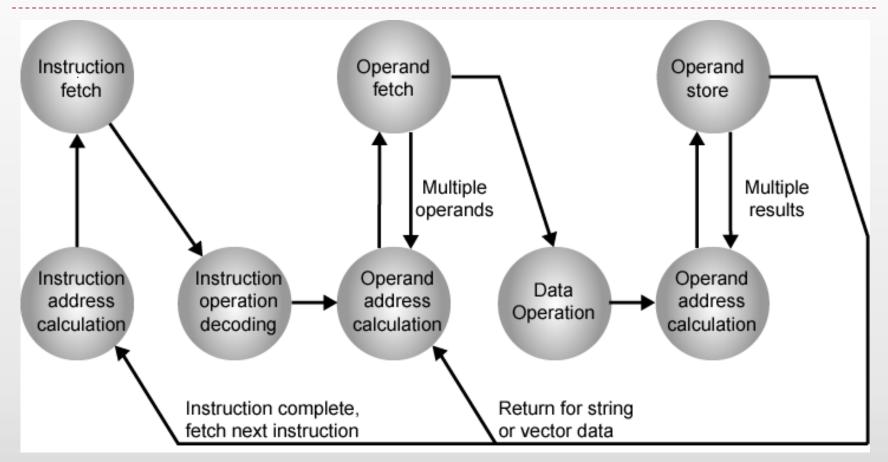
Instruction Execution

The requirements placed on the processor (that is the things that it must do):

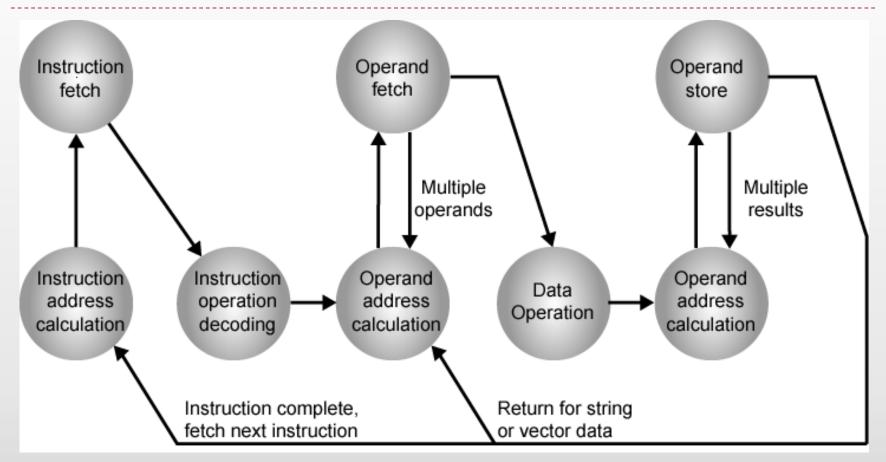
- Fetch instruction: The processor reads an instruction from memory (register, cache, main memory)
- Interpret instruction: The instruction is decoded to determine what action is required
- ▶ Fetch data: The execution of an instruction may require reading data from memory or an I/O module
- Process data: The execution of an instruction may require performing some arithmetic or logical operation on data.
- Write data: The results of an execution may require writing data to memory or an I/O module



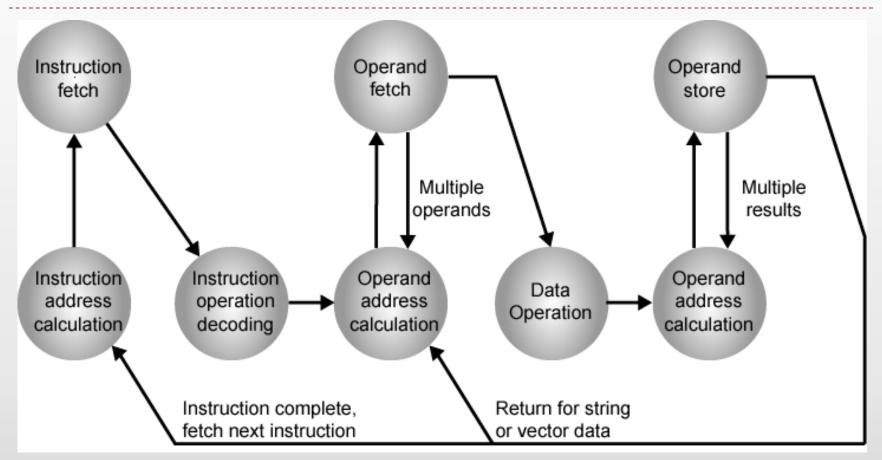
Instruction address calculation (iac): Determine the address of the next instruction to be executed (usually, adding a fixed number to the address of the previous instr.)



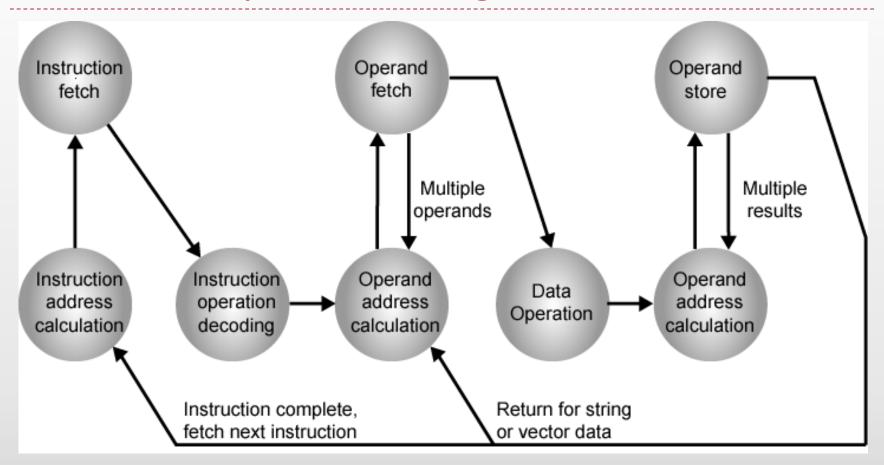
Instruction fetch (if): Read instruction from its memory location into the processor



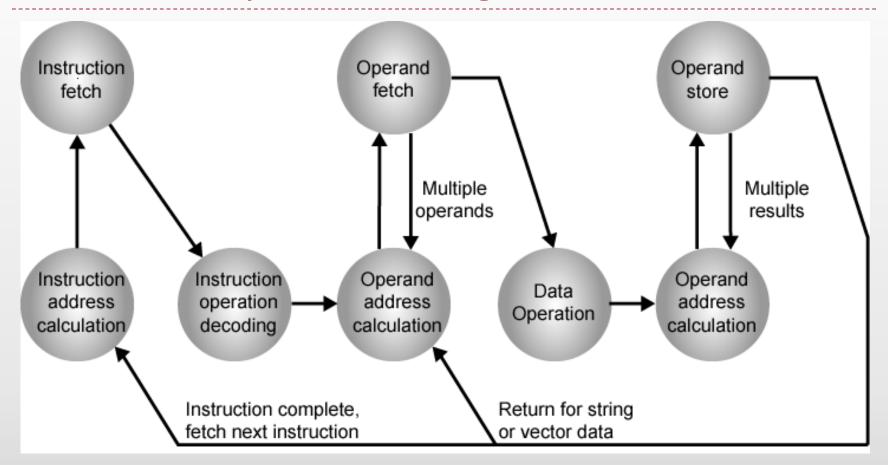
Instruction operation decoding (iod): Analyze instruction to determine type of operation to be performed and operand(s) to be used



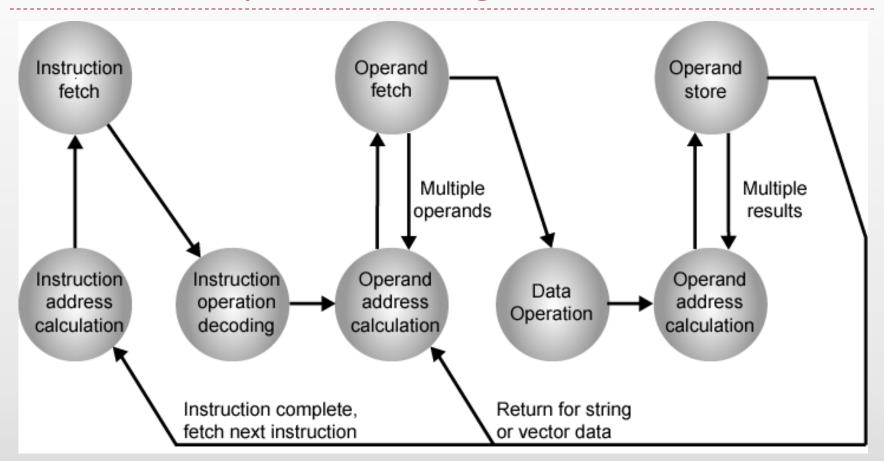
Operand address calculation (oac): If the operation involves reference to an operand in memory or available via I/O, then determine the address of the operand



Operand fetch (of): Fetch the operand from memory or read it in from I/O

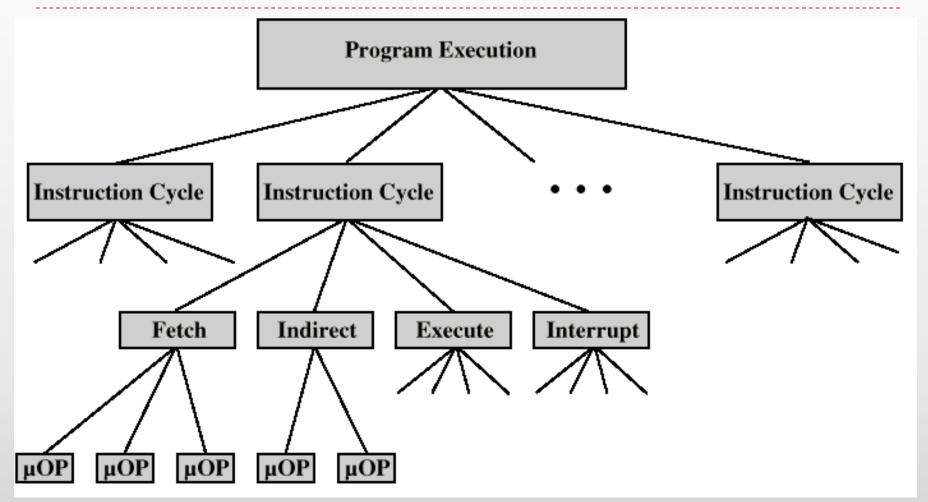


Data operation (do): Perform the operation indicated in the instruction



Operand store (os): Write the result into memory or out to I/O

Constituent Elements of Program Execution



The instruction cycle is decomposed into sequence of elementary *micro-operations*

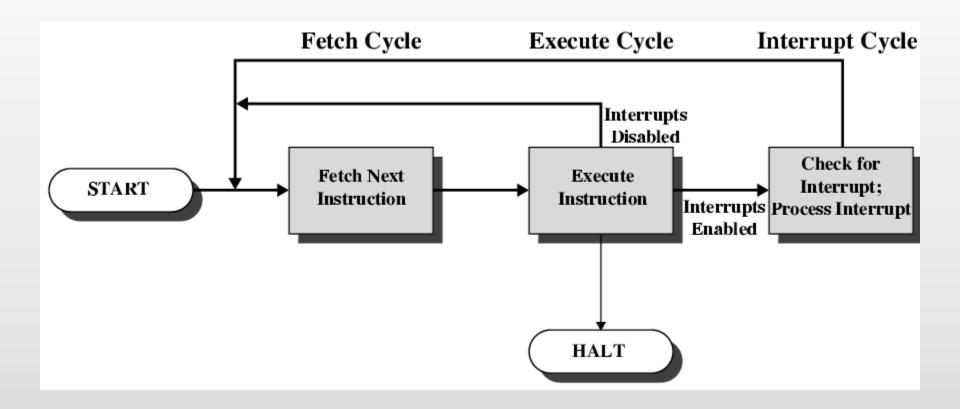
Interrupts

- Mechanism by which other modules may interrupt normal sequence of processing
- Program
 - e.g. overflow, division by zero
- Timer
 - Generated by internal processor timer
 - Used in pre-emptive multi-tasking
- I/O
 - from I/O controller
- Hardware failure
 - e.g. memory parity error

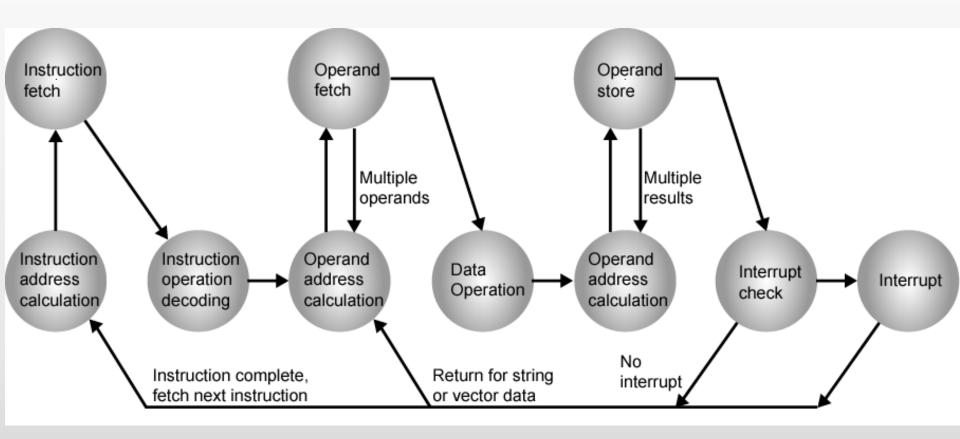
Interrupt Cycle

- Added to instruction cycle
- Processor checks for interrupt
 - Indicated by an interrupt signal
- If no interrupt, fetch next instruction
- If interrupt pending:
 - Suspend execution of current program
 - Save context
 - Set PC to start address of interrupt handler routine
 - Process interrupt
 - Restore context and continue interrupted program

Instruction Cycle with Interrupts



Instruction Cycle with Interrupts - State Diagram



Multiple Interrupts

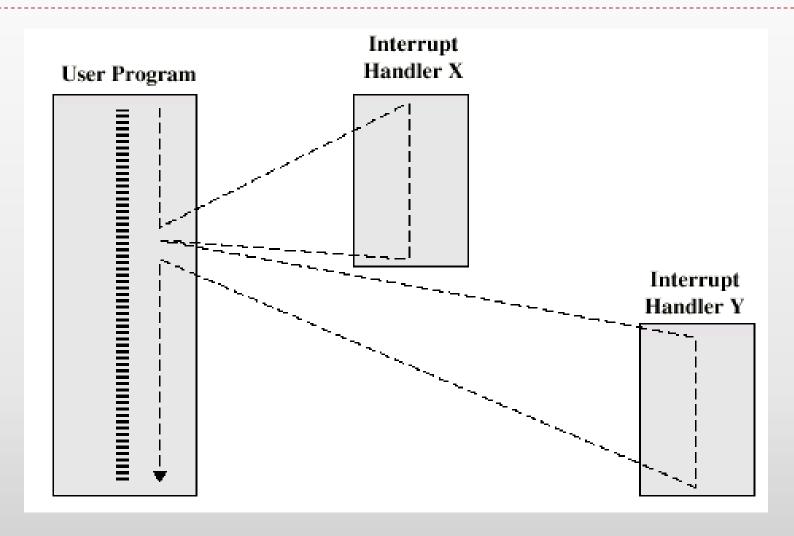
Disable interrupts

- Processor will ignore further interrupts whilst processing one interrupt
- ▶ Interrupts remain pending and are checked after first interrupt has been processed
- Interrupts handled in sequence as they occur

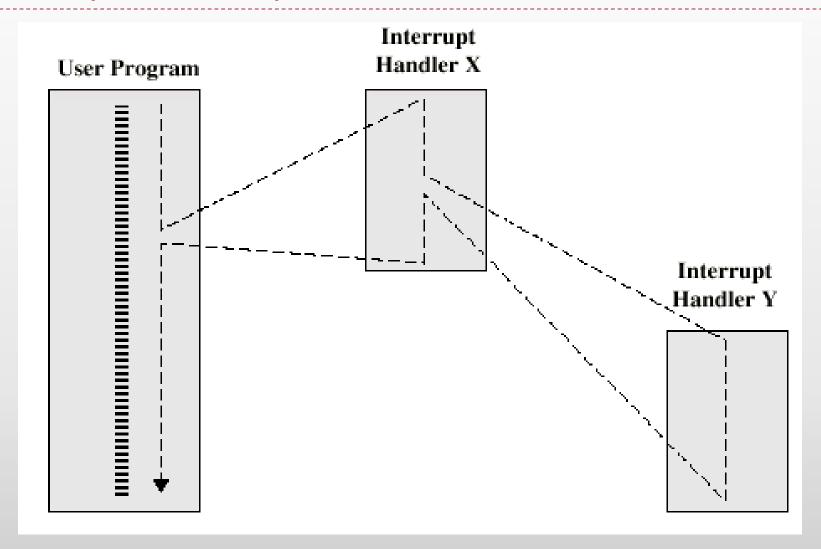
Define priorities

- Low priority interrupts can be interrupted by higher priority interrupts
- When higher priority interrupt has been processed, processor returns to previous interrupt

Multiple Interrupts - Sequential



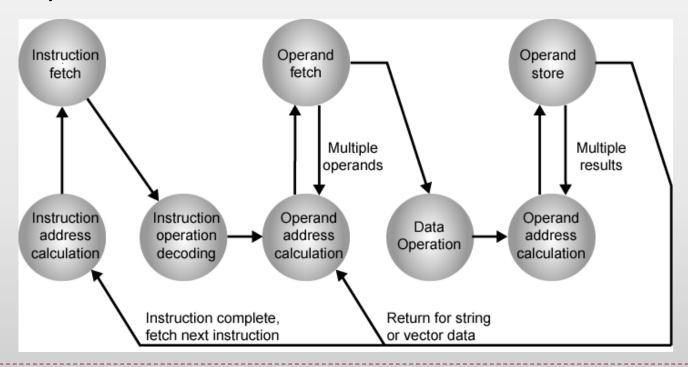
Multiple Interrupts – Nested



Instruction characteristics

Instruction Set

- ▶ The **instruction set** is the complete collection of instructions that the processor can execute
- Each instruction must contain the information required by the processor for execution



Elements of an Instruction

Elements of a machine instruction are:

- Operation code (Op code)
 - Do this
- Source Operand reference
 - ▶ To this
- Result Operand reference
 - Put the answer here
- Next Instruction Reference
 - When you have done that, do this...

Instruction Representation

- In machine code each instruction has a unique bit pattern
- For human understanding (e.g., programmers) a symbolic representation is used
 - Opcodes e.g. ADD, SUB, LOAD
- Operands can also be represented symbolically
 - ▶ ADD A,B

Instruction Types

We can categorize instruction types as follows:

- Data processing Arithmetic and logic instructions
- Data storage (main memory) Movement of data into or out of register and or memory locations
- Data movement I/O instructions
- Control Test and branch instructions

Number of Addresses

- An instruction could plausibly be required to contain four address references:
 - two source operands
 - one destination operand
 - the address of the next instruction

- In most architectures, most instructions have:
 - one, two, or three operand addresses,
 - address of the next instruction implicit (obtained from the program counter)

Number of Addresses

- 3 addresses (not common)
 - Operand 1, Operand 2, Result -> a = b + c;
 - May be a forth next instruction (usually implicit)
 - Needs very long words to hold everything
- Three-address instruction formats are not common because they require a relatively long instruction format to hold the three address references

Number of Addresses

2 addresses

- One address doubles as operand and result a = a + b
- Reduces length of instruction
- Requires some extra work (to avoid altering the value of an operand, a MOVE instruction is used to move one of the values to a temporary location before performing the operation)
- ▶ 1 address (Common on early machines)
 - Implicit second address Usually a register (accumulator)
- O addresses
 - All addresses implicit applicable to a memory organization as a stack

How Many Addresses

More addresses

- More complex (powerful?) instructions
- More registers
 - Inter-register operations are quicker
- Fewer instructions per program

Fewer addresses

- Less complex (powerful?) instructions
- More instructions per program
- ► Faster fetch/execution of instructions

Instruction Set Design

The design of an instruction set is very complex because it affects so many aspects of the computer system

- The instruction set:
 - defines many of the functions performed by the processor
 - has a significant effect on the implementation of the processor
 - is the programmer's means of controlling the processor

Instruction Set Design

The most important of fundamental design issues include:

Operation repertoire

How many and which operations to provide, and how complex operations should be

Data types

Various types of data upon which operations are performed

Instruction formats

- Instruction length (in bits)
- Number of addresses
- Size of various fields
- Registers
 - Number of CPU registers available
- Advanced and Parallel Architectures 2016/2017 Which operations can be performed on which registers?

Instruction Set Design

The most important of fundamental design issues include:

- Registers
 - Number of CPU registers available
 - Which operations can be performed on which registers
- Addressing modes
 - ▶ The modes by which the address of an operand is specified
- RISC v CISC

Types of Operand

- Machine instructions operate on data
- ▶ The most important general categories of data are:
 - Addresses
 - Numbers
 - Integer/floating point
 - Characters
 - > ASCII etc.
 - Logical Data
 - Bits or flags

Addressing Modes and Formats

Addressing Modes

- The address field or fields in a typical instruction format are relatively small
- We would like to be able to reference a large range of locations in main memory
- A variety of addressing techniques has been employed
 - ▶ Immediate
 - Direct
 - ▶ Indirect
 - Register
 - Register Indirect
 - Displacement (Indexed)
 - Stack

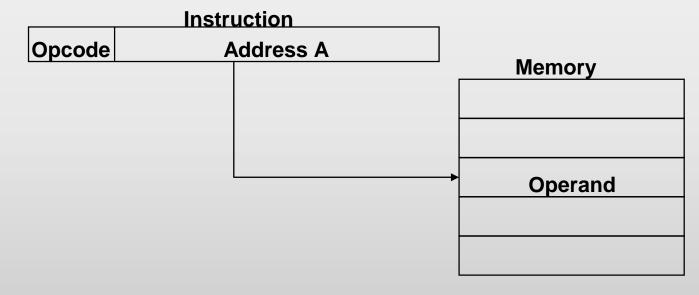
Immediate Addressing

- Operand is part of instruction
- Operand = address field
- e.g. ADD 5
 - Add 5 to contents of accumulator
 - ▶ 5 is operand
- No memory reference to fetch data
- Fast
- Limited range

Instruction

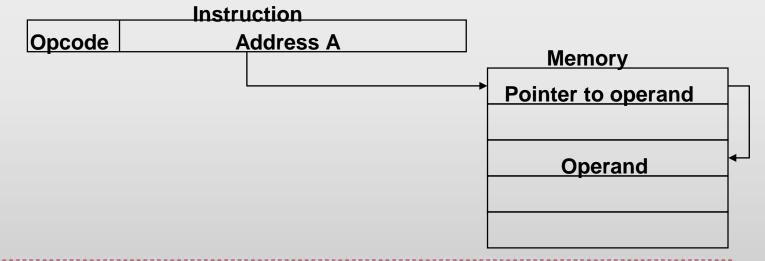
Direct Addressing

- Address field contains address of operand
- Effective address (EA) = address field (A)
- Single memory reference to access data
- No additional calculations to work out effective address
- Limited address space



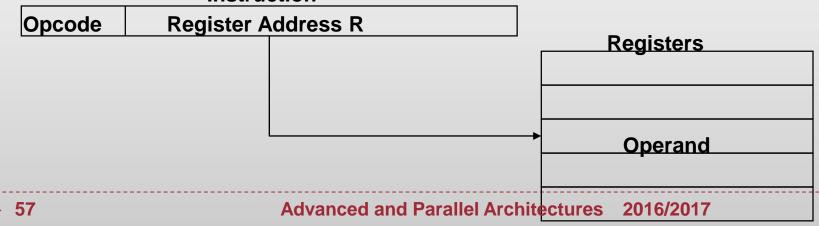
Indirect Addressing

- Memory cell pointed to by address field contains the address of (pointer to) the operand
- ► EA = (A)
 - ▶ Look in A, find address (A) and look there for operand
- Large address space 2ⁿ where n = word length
- Multiple memory accesses to find operand hence slower



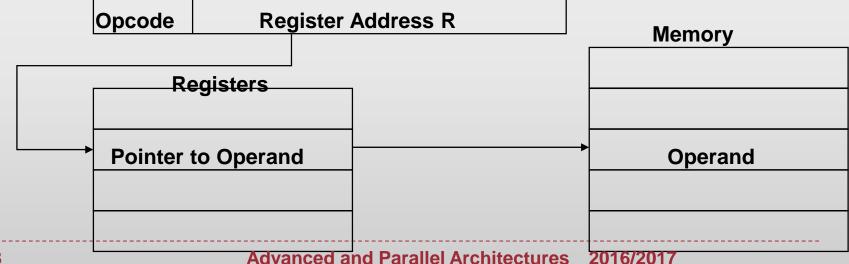
Register Addressing

- Operand is held in register named in address filed
- Limited number of registers
- Very small address field needed
 - Shorter instructions Faster instruction fetch
- No memory access -Very fast execution
- Very limited address space
- Multiple registers helps performance Instruction



Register Indirect Addressing

- C.f. indirect addressing
- ► EA = (R)
- Operand is in memory cell pointed to by contents of register R
- Large address space (2ⁿ)
- One fewer memory access than indirect addressing Instruction



Displacement Addressing

- \triangleright EA = A + (R)
- Address field hold two values
 - ▶ A = base value
 - ► R = register that holds displacement
- Opcode Register R Address A Memory

 Registers

 Pointer to Operand

 Opcode Register R Address A Memory

 Operand

Relative Addressing

- A version of displacement addressing
- R = Program counter, PC
- ► EA = A + (PC)
- i.e. get operand from A cells from current location pointed to by PC
- c.f locality of reference & cache usage

Base-Register Addressing

- A holds displacement
- R holds pointer to base address
- R may be explicit or implicit
- e.g. segment registers in 80x86

Indexed Addressing

- ► A = base
- ▶ R = displacement
- \triangleright EA = A + R
- Good for accessing arrays
 - \blacktriangleright EA = A + R
 - ▶ R++

Stack Addressing

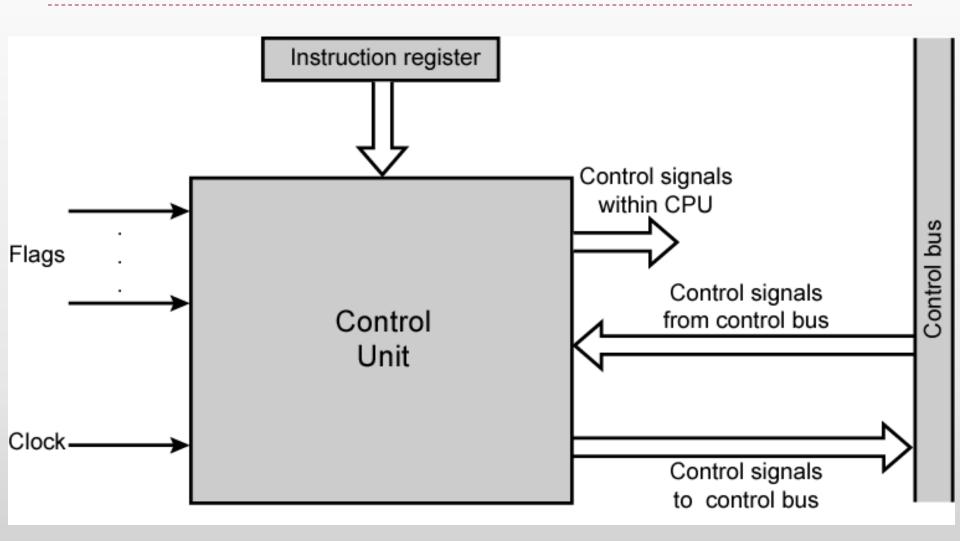
- A stack is a linear array of reserved memory locations
- Can be sometimes referred to as a pushdown list or lastin-first-out queue
- Items are appended to the top of the stack
- At any given time, the location block is partially filled
- Associated with the stack is a pointer stack pointer whose value is the address of the top of the stack

Control unit

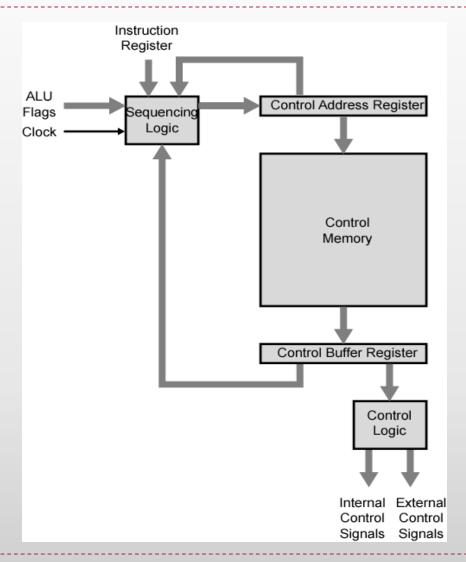
Control unit

- The control unit is that portion of the processor that actually causes things to happen
- The control unit issues:
 - Control signals external to the processor to cause data exchange with memory and I/O modules
 - Control signals internal to the processor to move data between registers, to cause the ALU to perform a specified function, and to regulate other internal operations
- Input to the control unit consists of the instruction register, flags, and control signals from external sources (e.g., interrupt signals).

Model of Control Unit



Control Unit Organization



Types of Micro-operation

- The execution of a program consists of operations involving different processor elements
- Operations consist of a sequence of micro-operations
- All micro-operations fall into one of the following categories:
 - Transfer data between registers
 - Transfer data from register to external
 - Transfer data from external to register
 - Perform an arithmetic or logical operation, using registers for input and output

Functions of Control Unit

- Sequencing
 - ▶ Causing the CPU to step through a series of micro-operations
- Execution
 - Causing the performance of each micro-op
- This is done using Control Signals

Control Signals

- Clock
 - One micro-instruction (or set of parallel micro-instructions) per clock cycle
- Instruction register
 - Op-code for current instruction
 - Determines which micro-instructions are performed
- Flags
 - State of CPU
 - Results of previous operations
- From control bus
 - Interrupts
 - Acknowledgements

Control Signals - output

- Within CPU
 - Cause data movement
 - Activate specific functions
- Via control bus
 - To memory
 - ► To I/O modules

Example Control Signal Sequence - Fetch

- \blacktriangleright MAR \leftarrow (PC)
 - Control unit activates signal to open gates between PC and MAR
- ▶ MBR ← (memory)
 - Open gates between MAR and address bus
 - Memory read control signal
 - Open gates between data bus and MBR

Internal Organization

- Usually a single internal bus
- Gates control movement of data onto and off the bus
- Control signals control data transfer to and from external systems bus
- Temporary registers needed for proper operation of ALU

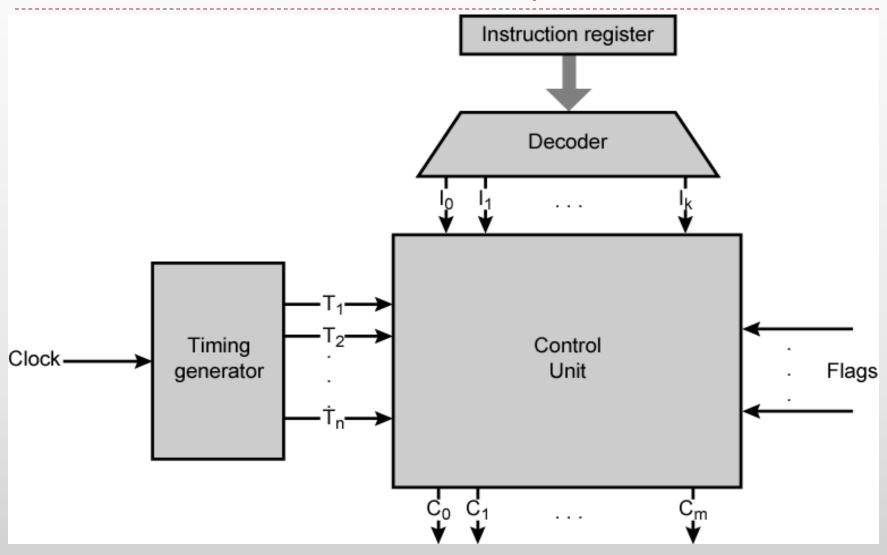
Implementations

- We have discussed the control unit in terms of its inputs, output, and functions
- A wide variety of techniques for the control unit implementation have been used
- Most of these fall into one of two categories:
 - Hardwired implementation
 - Microprogrammed implementation
- In a hardwired implementation, the control unit is essentially a state machine circuit:
 - ▶ Its input logic signals are transformed into a set of output logic signals, which are the control signals

Hardwired Implementation

- Control unit inputs
- Flags and control bus (each bit means something)
- Instruction register
 - Different control signals for each different instruction
 - Unique logic for each op-code
 - Decoder takes encoded input and produces single output
 - \triangleright *n* binary inputs and 2^n outputs
- Clock
 - Repetitive sequence of pulses
 - Must be long enough to allow signal propagation
 - Different control signals at different times within instruction cycle

Control Unit with Decoded Inputs



Problems With Hardwired Designs

- Complex sequencing & micro-operation logic
- Difficult to design and test
- Inflexible design
- Difficult to add new instructions

Microprogrammed Control

- An alternative to a hardwired control unit is a microprogrammed control unit
- The logic of the control unit is specified by a microprogram, consisting of a sequence of instructions in a microprogramming language
- ▶ The (very simple) instructions specifies micro-operations
- A microprogrammed control unit is a relatively simple logic circuit that is capable of
 - sequencing through microinstructions
 - generating control signals to execute each microinstruction

Microprogrammed Control

- Each microinstruction line describes a set of microoperations occurring at one time
- For each micro-operation, all that the control unit is allowed to do is generate a set of control signals
- Thus, for any micro-operation, each control line emanating from the control unit is either on or off
- ▶ Each micro-operation is represented by a different pattern of 1s and 0s: the **control word**
- In a *control word* each bit represents one control line
- A sequence of control words represents the sequence of micro-operations performed by the control unit

Implementation

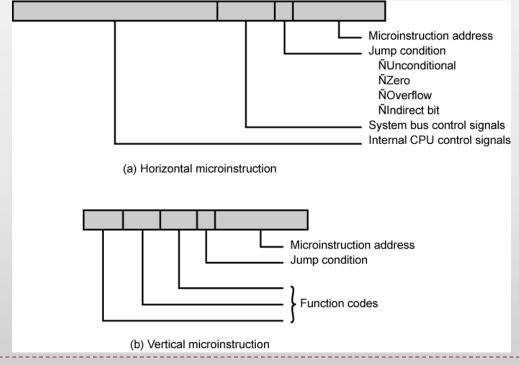
- Control words are put in a memory and each word has a unique address
- An address field is added to each control word indicating the location of the next control word to be executed if a certain condition is true
- There is a sequence of control words for each machine code instruction
- Today's large microprocessor
 - Many instructions and associated register-level hardware
 - Many control points to be manipulated

Micro-instruction Types

Vertical micro-programming: each micro-instruction specifies (single or few) micro-operations to be performed

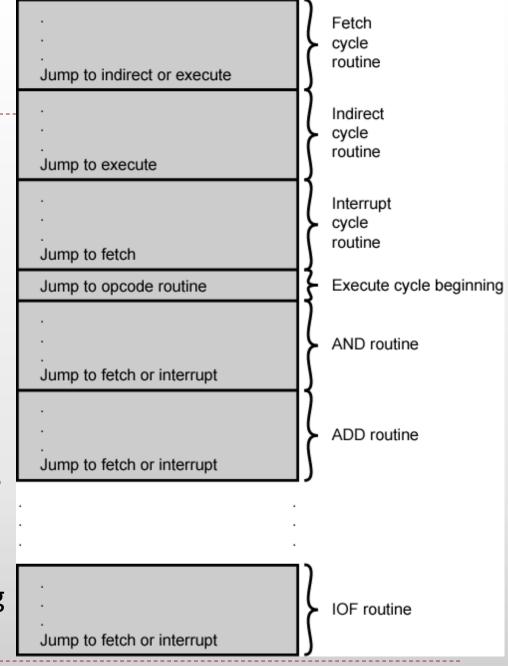
Horizontal micro-programming: each micro-instruction specifies many different micro-operations to be performed

in parallel



Organization of Control Memory

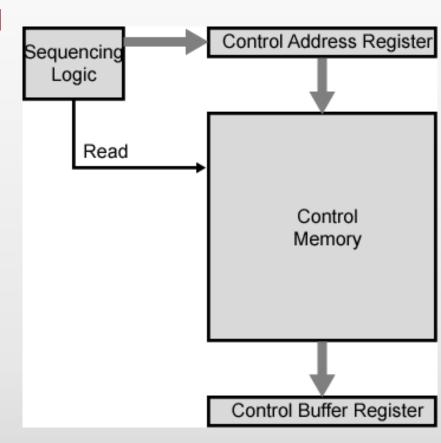
- Microinstructions (or control words) are arranged in a control memory (rom)
- Microinstructions in a routine are executed sequentially
- Each routine ends with a branch or jump instruction indicating where to go next
- A special execute cycle routine specifies the instruction routine (AND, ADD, and so on) to be executed next (according to the current opcode)



Control Unit

Key elements of microprogrammed implementation:

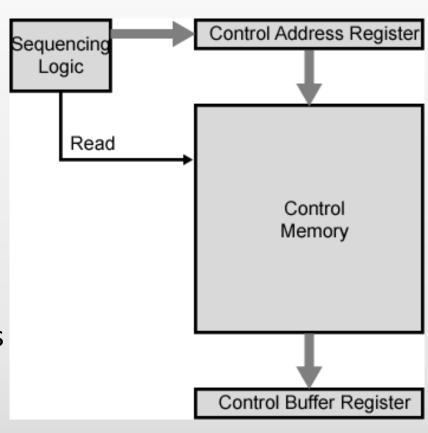
- The set of microinstructions is stored in the control memory
- The control address register contains the address of the next microinstruction to be read



Control Unit

Key elements of microprogrammed implementation:

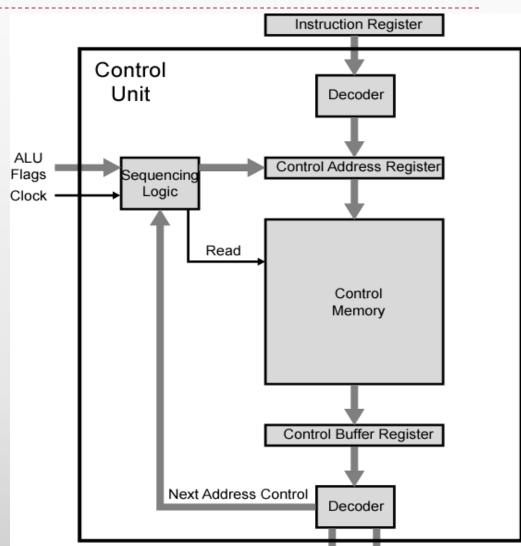
- When a microinstruction is read from the control memory, it is transferred to a control buffer register
- Reading a microinstruction from the control memory is the same as executing that microinstruction
- The sequencing unit loads the control address register and issues a read command



Functioning of Microprogrammed Control Unit

The control unit functions as follows:

- 1. To execute an instruction, the sequencing logic unit issues a READ command to the control memory
- 2. The word whose address is specified in the control address register is read into the control buffer register

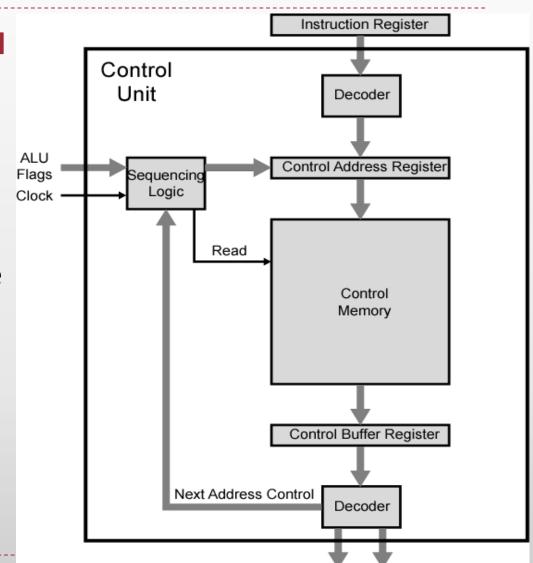


Within CPU

Functioning of Microprogrammed Control Unit

- 3. The content of the control buffer register generates control signals and next address information for the sequencing logic unit
- 4. The sequencing logic unit loads a new address into the control address register (based on the next-address information from the control buffer register and the ALU flags)

All this happens during one clock pulse



Functioning of Microprogrammed Control Unit

Figure shows two decoder:

- The upper decoder translates the opcode of the IR into a control memory address
- The lower decoder is used for vertical microinstructions

