CS222: Computer Architecture

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الاحترام - الادب - الاخلاق
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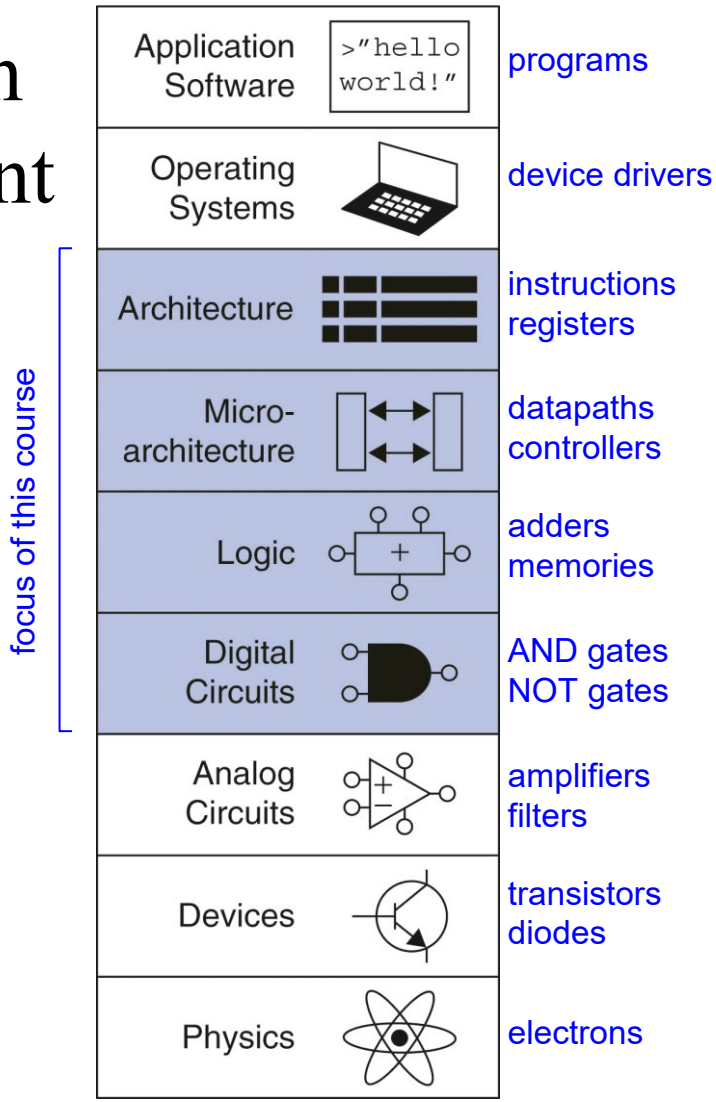
Quick Review
Previous Chapters

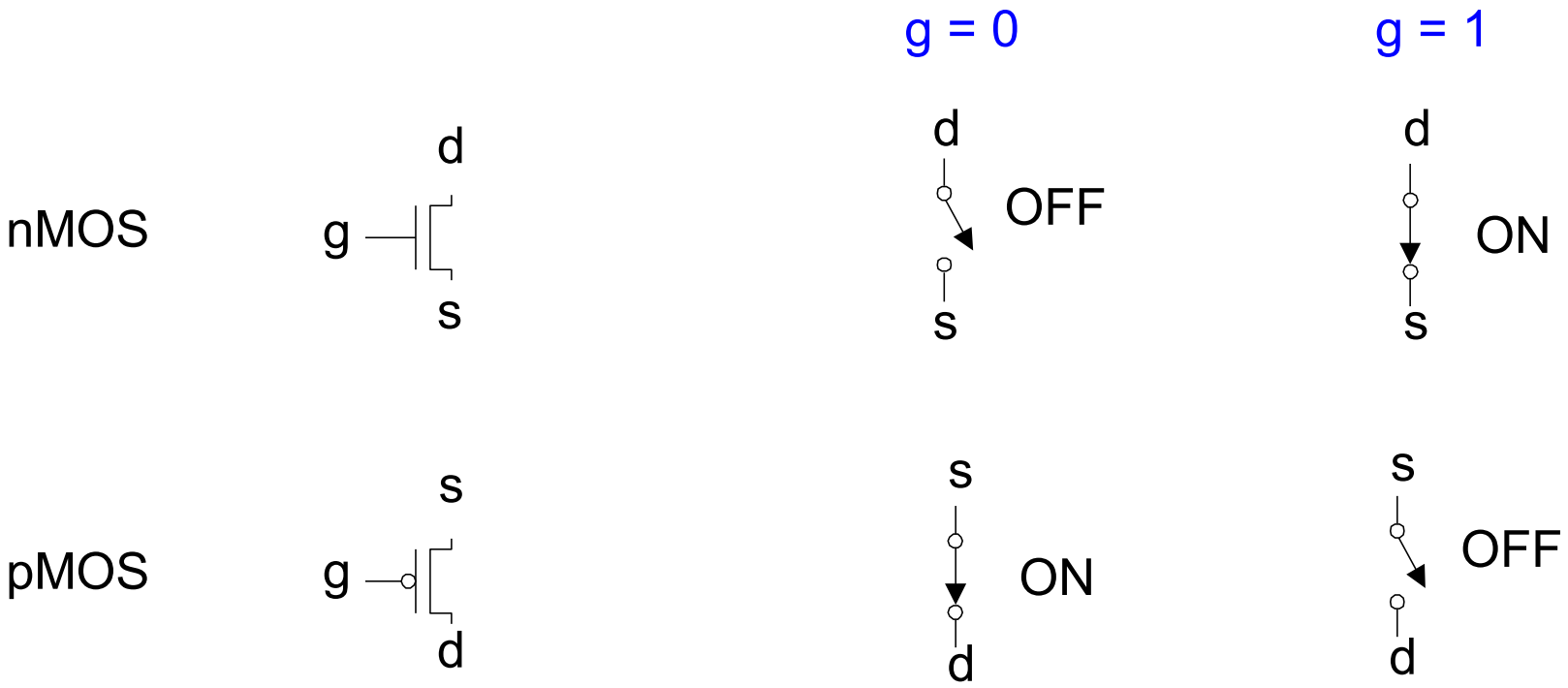
Lecture link (Video):
https://web.microsoftstream.com/video/11828805-d57f-4d4b-a2eb-564327f62a59

Abstraction

- Hiding details when they aren't important

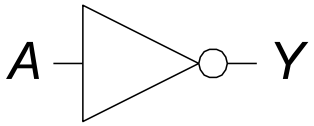


Transistor Function



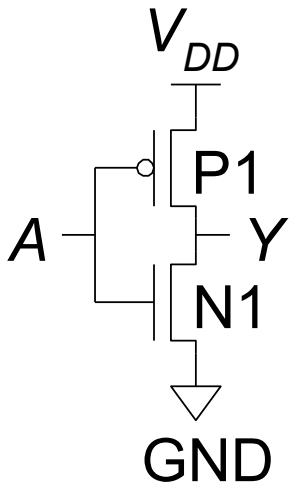
CMOS Gates: NOT Gate

NOT



$Y = \overline{A}$

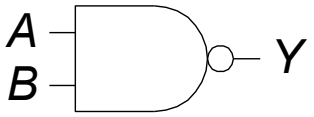
A	Y
0	1
1	0



A	P1	N1	*Y*
0	ON	OFF	1
1	OFF	ON	0

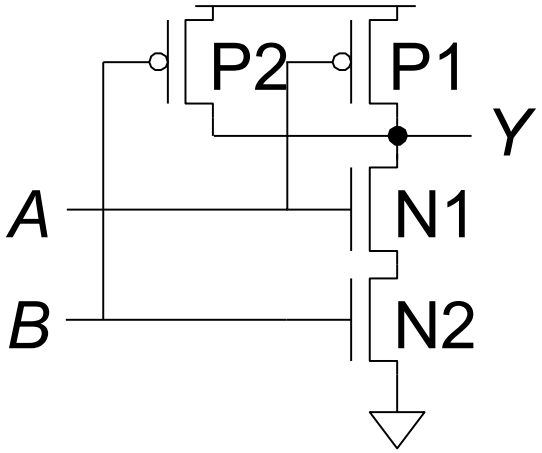
CMOS Gates: NAND Gate

NAND



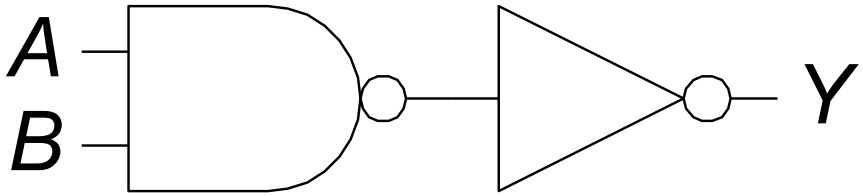
$Y = \overline{AB}$

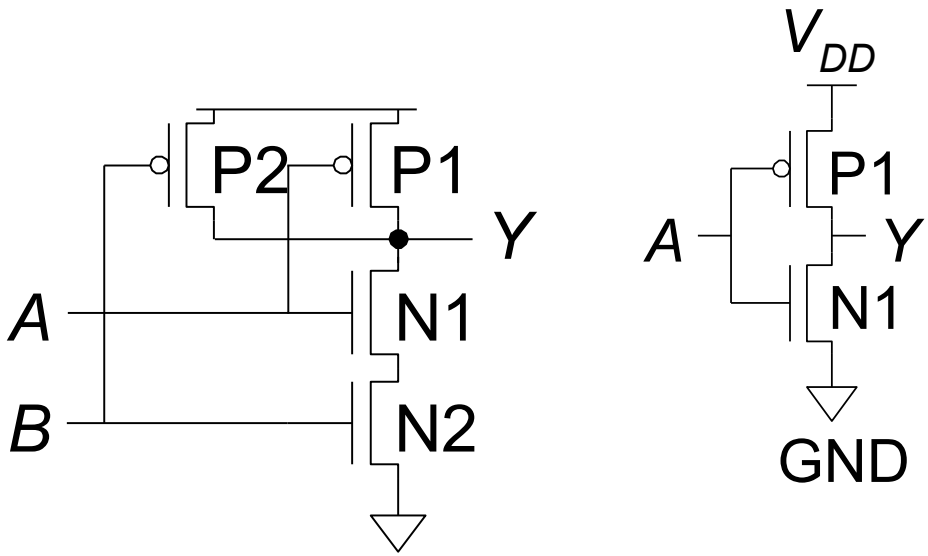
A	B	Y
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0



A	*B*	P1	P2	N1	N2	*Y*
0	0	ON	ON	OFF	OFF	1
0	1	ON	OFF	OFF	ON	1
1	0	OFF	ON	ON	OFF	1
1	1	OFF	OFF	ON	ON	0

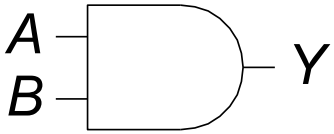
AND Gate





Two-Input Logic Gates

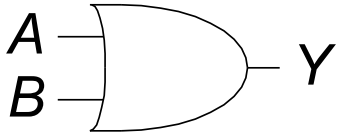
AND



$Y = AB$

A	B	Y
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

OR

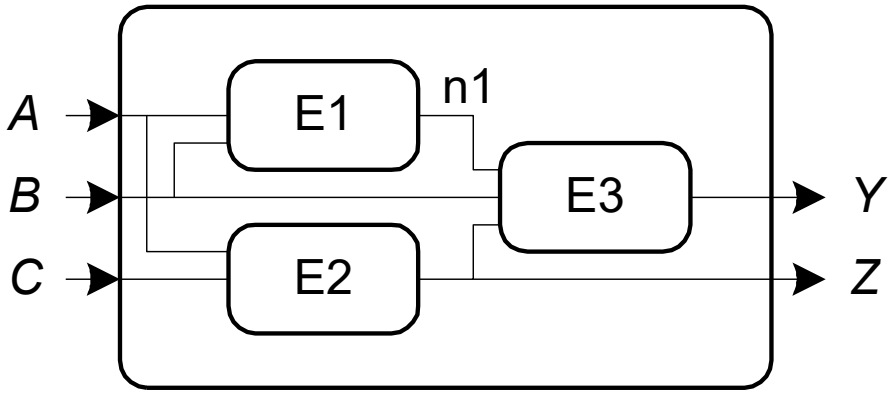


$Y = A + B$

A	B	Y
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

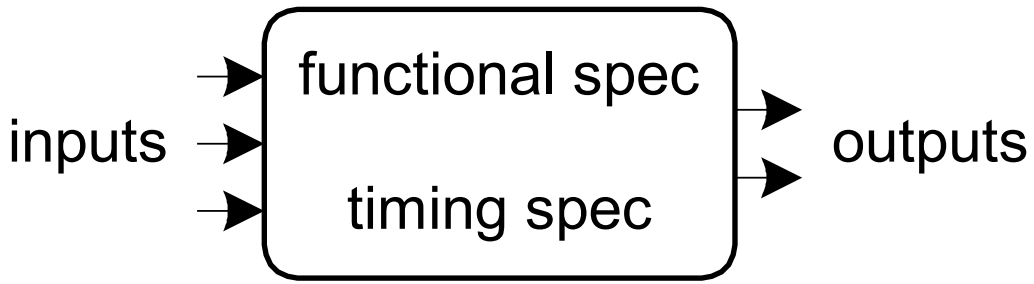
Circuits

- Nodes
  - Inputs: *A*, *B*, *C*
  - Outputs: *Y*, *Z*
  - Internal: n1
- Circuit elements
  - E1, E2, E3
  - Each a circuit



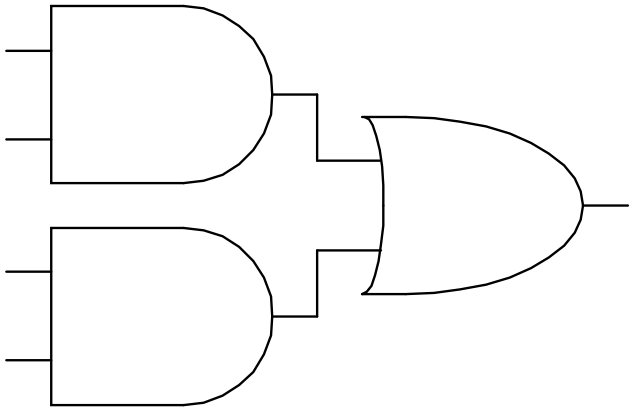
Types of Logic Circuits

- **Combinational Logic**
  - Memoryless
  - Outputs determined by current values of inputs
- **Sequential Logic**
  - Has memory
  - Outputs determined by previous and current values of inputs

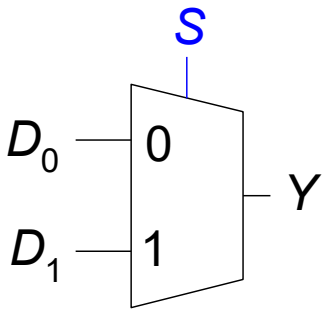


Combinational Composition

- Every element is combinational
- Every node is either an input or connects to *exactly one* output
- The circuit contains no cyclic paths
- **Example:**

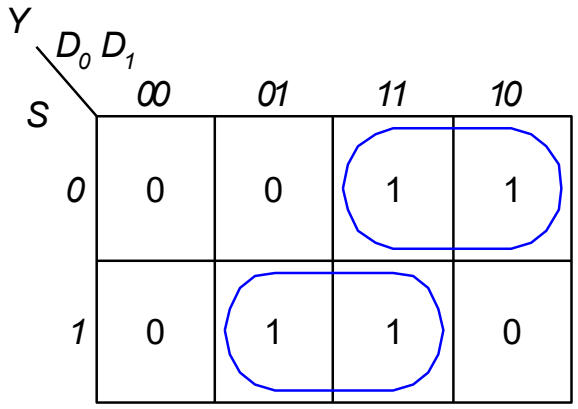


Multiplexer

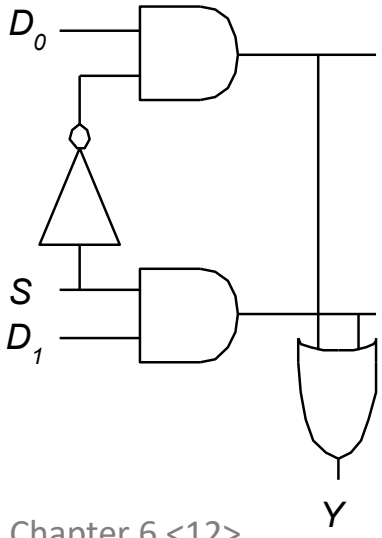


S	D_1	D_0	Y
0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1
0	1	0	0
0	1	1	1
1	0	0	0
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	1
1	1	1	1

S	Y
0	D_0
1	D_1



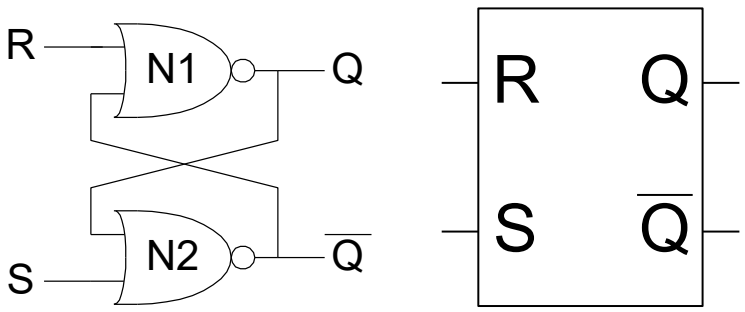
$$Y = D_0\overline{S} + D_1S$$



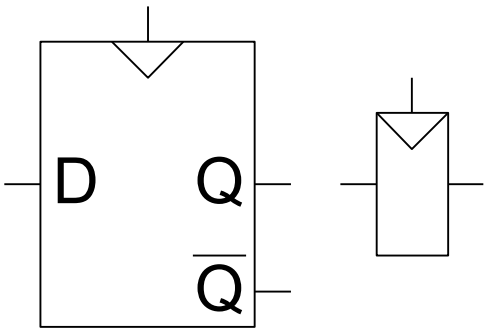
Sequential Circuits

- Give sequence to events
- Have memory (short-term)
- Use feedback from output to input to store information

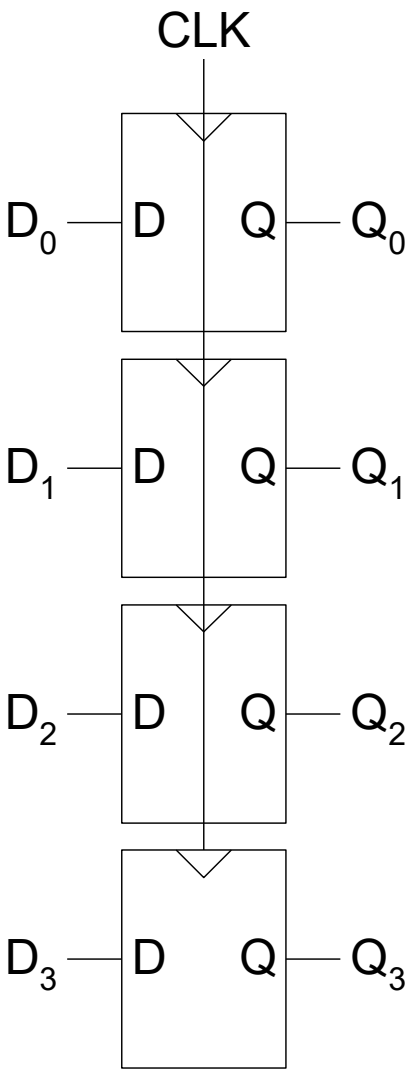
SR Latch Symbol

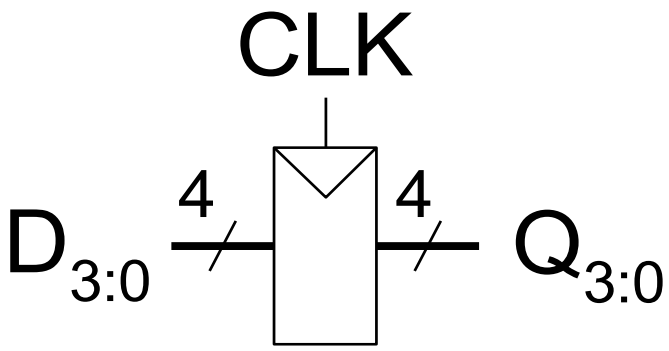


D Flip-Flop Symbols



Registers

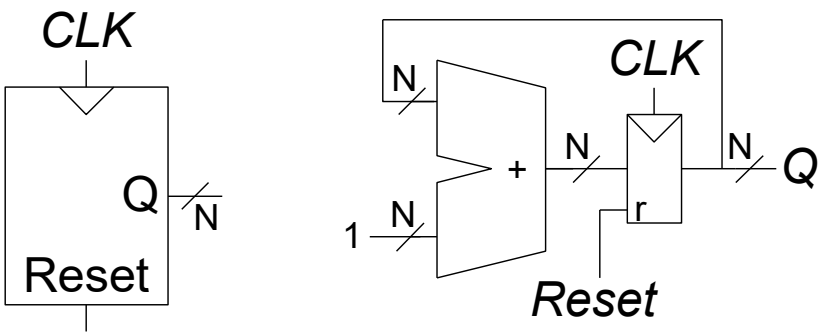




Counters

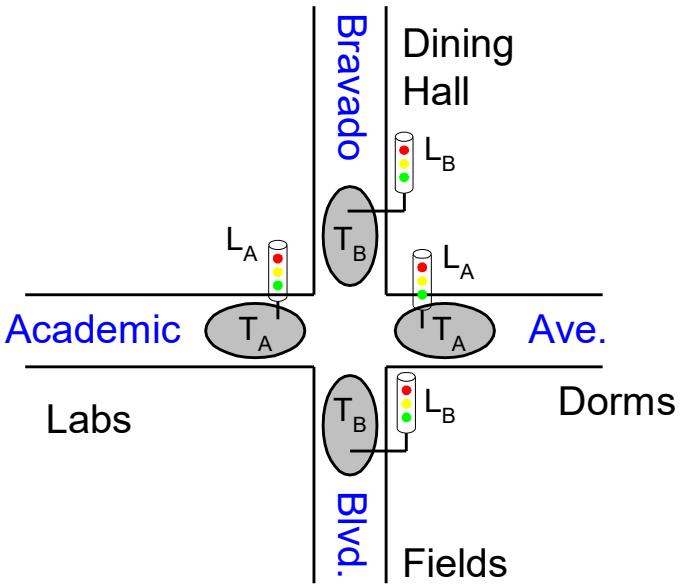
- Increments on each clock edge
- Used to cycle through numbers. For example,
  - 000, 001, 010, 011, 100, 101, 110, 111, 000, 001…
- Example uses:
  - Digital clock displays
  - Program counter: keeps track of current instruction executing

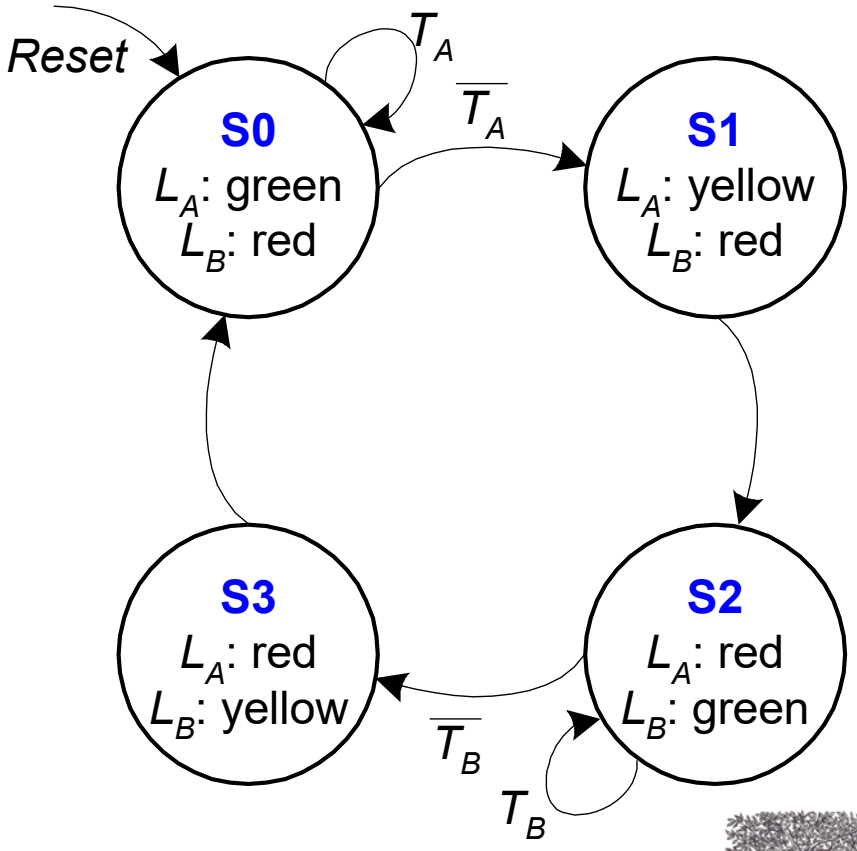
Symbol **Implementation**



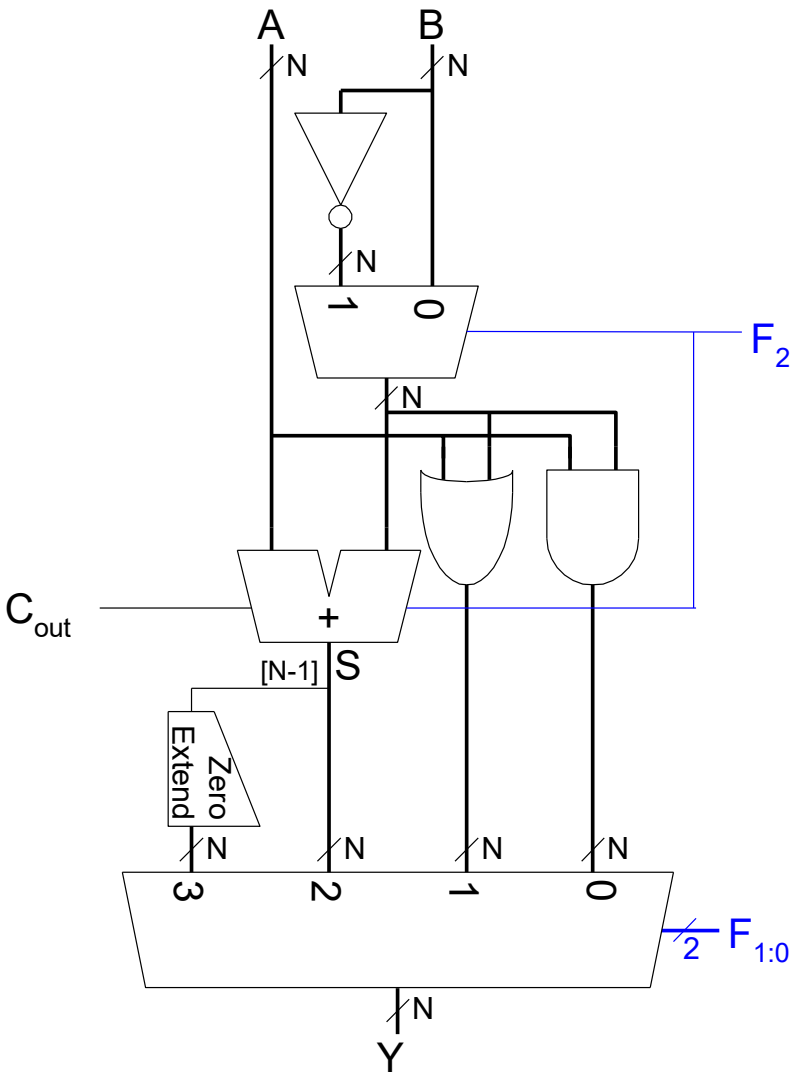
FSM State Transition

- **Moore FSM:** outputs labeled in each state
- **States:** Circles
- **Transitions:** Arcs



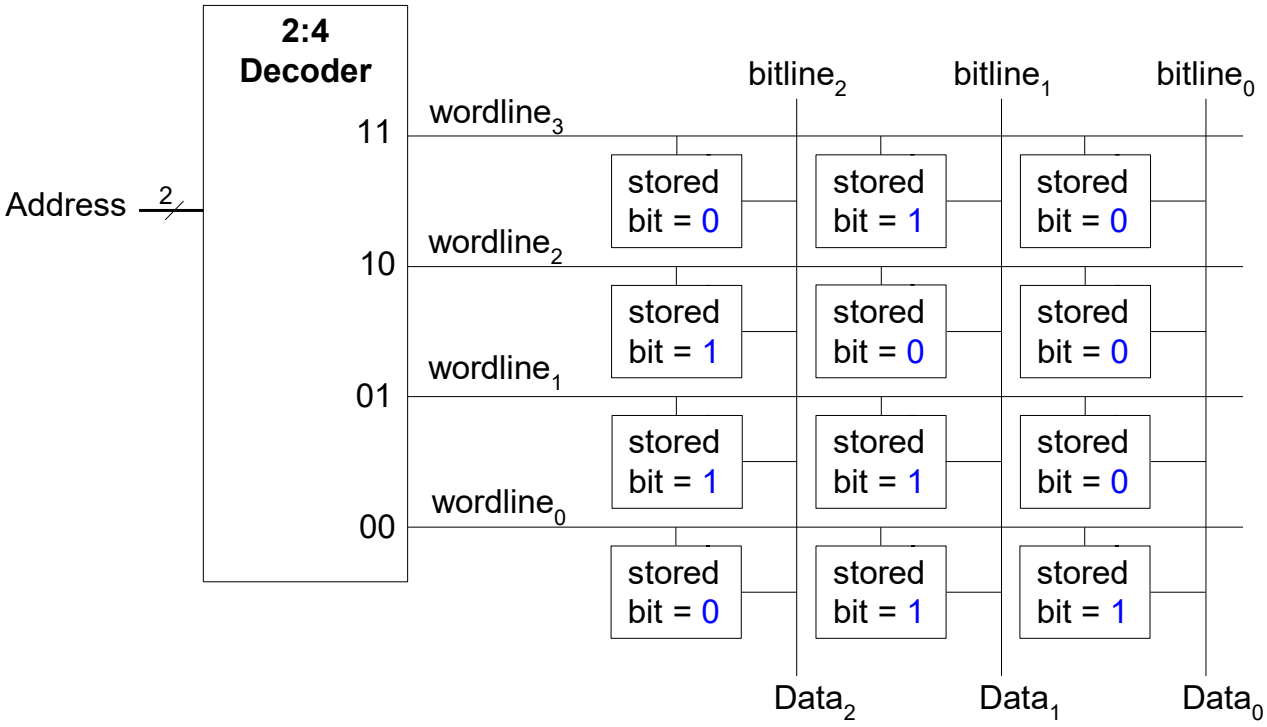


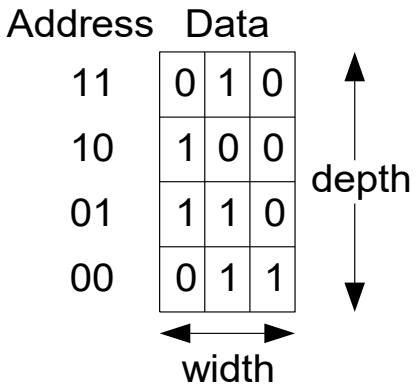
ALU Design



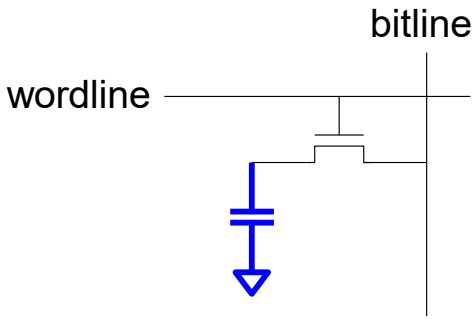
$F_{2:0}$	Function
000	A & B
001	A | B
010	A + B
011	not used
100	A & ~B
101	A | ~B
110	A - B
111	SLT

Memory Arrays Review

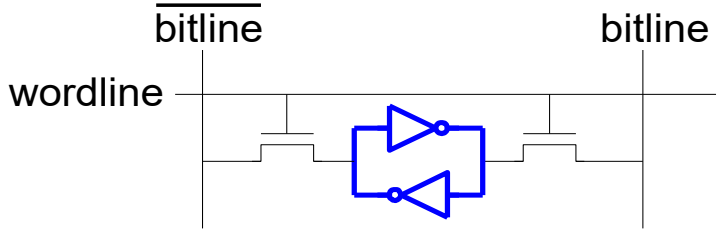




DRAM bit cell:

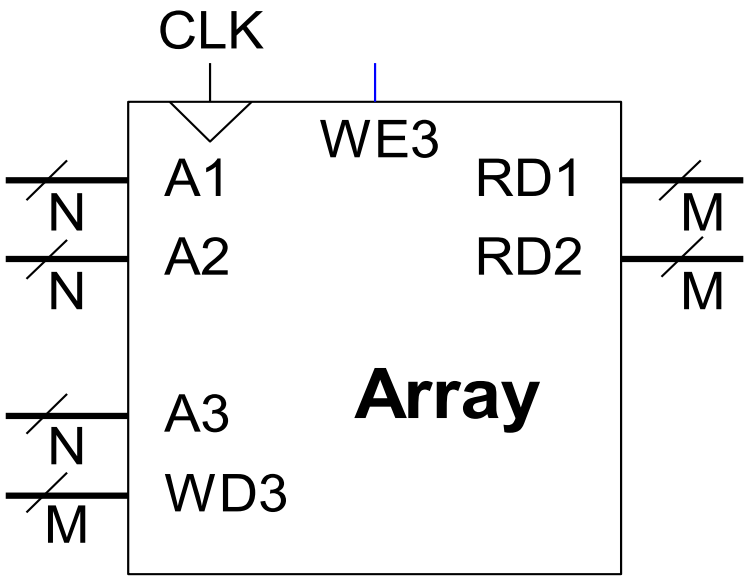


SRAM bit cell:



Multi-ported Memories

- **Port:** address/data pair
- 3-ported memory
  - 2 read ports (A1/RD1, A2/RD2)
  - 1 write port (A3/WD3, WE3 enables writing)
- **Register file:** small multi-ported memory



COMPUTER ARCHITECTURE

Chapter 6

***Digital Design and Computer Architecture*, 2nd Edition**

David Money Harris and Sarah L. Harris

Lecture link (Video):
https://web.microsoftstream.com/video/519f39d5-2629-44d8-8211-28272bec626a

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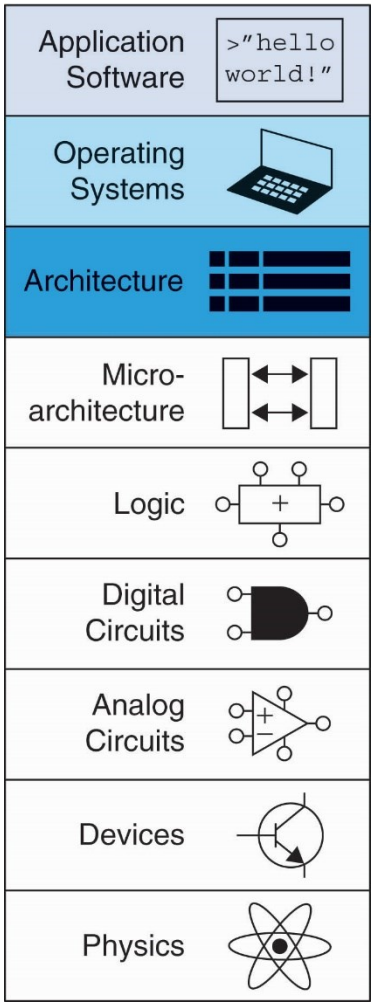
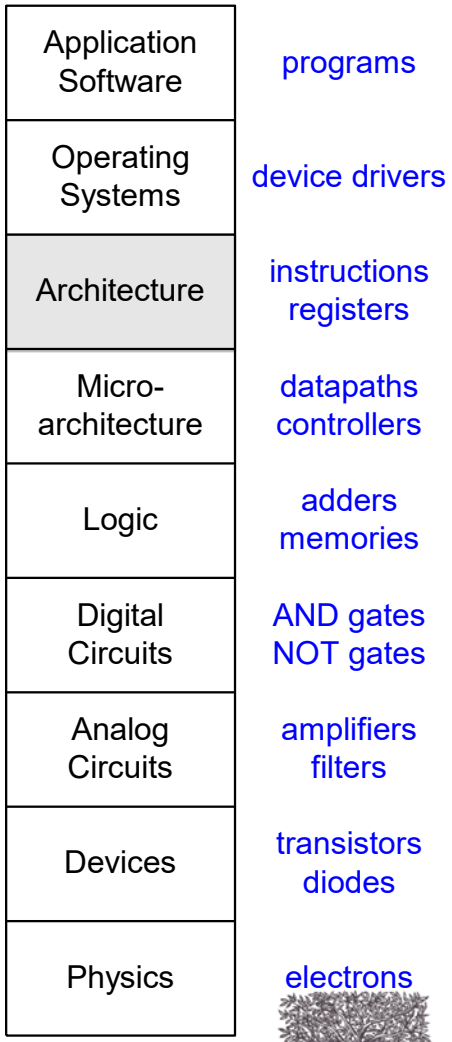
Chapter 6 :: Topics

- Introduction
- Assembly Language
- Machine Language
- Programming
- Addressing Modes
- Lights, Camera, Action: Compiling, Assembling, & Loading
- Odds and Ends

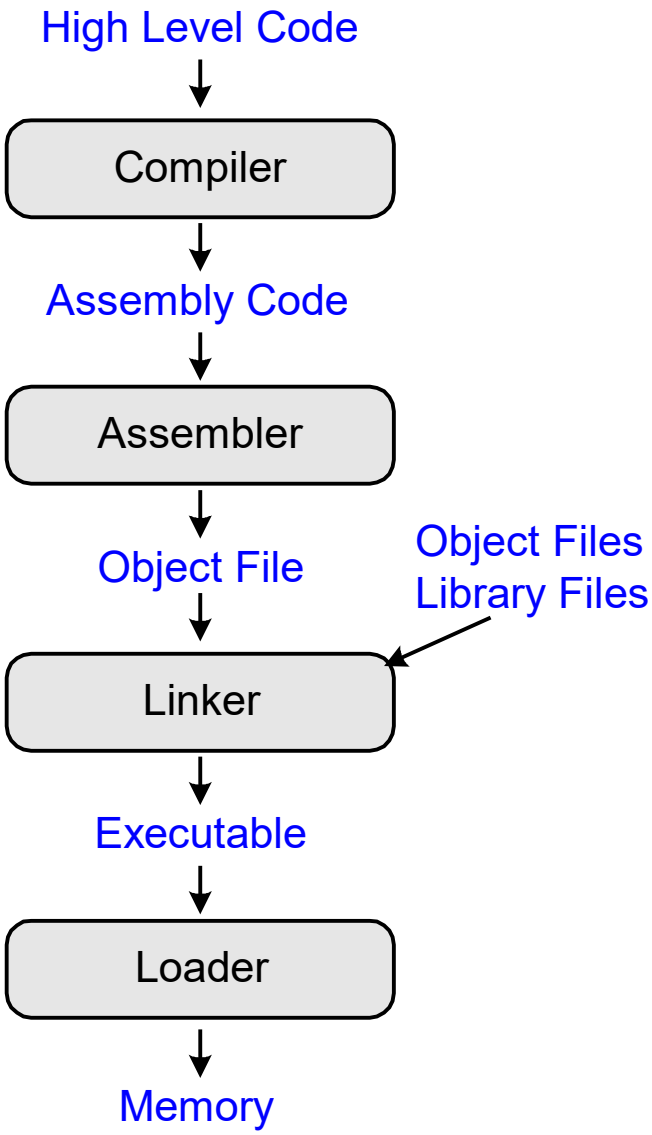


Introduction

- Jumping up a few levels of abstraction
- **Architecture:** programmer's view of computer
  - Defined by instructions & operand locations
- **Microarchitecture:** how to implement an architecture in hardware (covered in Chapter 7)



How to Compile & Run a Program



Assembly Language

- **Instructions:** commands in a computer's language
  - **Assembly language:** human-readable format of instructions
  - **Machine language:** computer-readable format (1's and 0's)
- **MIPS** architecture:
  - Developed by John Hennessy and his colleagues at Stanford and in the 1980's.
  - Used in many commercial systems, including Silicon Graphics, Nintendo, and Cisco

Once you've learned one architecture, it's easy to learn others

Architecture Design Principles

Underlying design principles, as articulated by Hennessy and Patterson:

1. **Simplicity favors regularity**
2. **Make the common case fast**
3. **Smaller is faster**
4. **Good design demands good compromises**

Instructions: Addition

C Code

```
a = b + c;
```

MIPS assembly code

```
add a, b, c
```

- **add:** mnemonic indicates operation to perform
- **b, c:** source operands (on which the operation is performed)
- **a:** destination operand (to which the result is written)

Instructions: Subtraction

- Similar to addition - only mnemonic changes

C Code

```
a = b - c;
```

MIPS assembly code

```
sub a, b, c
```

- **sub:** mnemonic
- **b, c:** source operands
- **a:** destination operand

Design Principle 1

Simplicity favors regularity

- Consistent instruction format
- Same number of operands (two sources and one destination)
- Easier to encode and handle in hardware

```
add a, b, c
Sub a, b, c
```

Multiple Instructions

- More complex code is handled by multiple MIPS instructions.

C Code

```
a = b + c - d;
```

MIPS assembly code

```
add t, b, c  # t = b + c
sub a, t, d  # a = t - d
```

Design Principle 2

C Code

```
a = b + c - d;
```

MIPS assembly code

```
add t, b, c  # t = b + c
sub a, t, d  # a = t - d
```

Make the common case fast

- MIPS includes only simple, commonly used instructions
- Hardware to decode and execute instructions can be simple, small, and fast
- More complex instructions (that are less common) performed using multiple simple instructions
- MIPS is a ***reduced instruction set computer*** **(RISC)**, with a small number of simple instructions
- Other architectures, such as Intel's x86, are ***complex instruction set computers*** **(CISC))**, with a large number of complex instructions and addressing modes.

Operands

- Operand location: physical location in computer
  - Registers
  - Memory
  - Constants (also called *immediates*)

Operands: Registers

- MIPS has 32 32-bit registers
- Registers are faster than memory
- MIPS called "32-bit architecture" because it operates on 32-bit data

Design Principle 3

Simplicity favors regularity

```
add a, b, c
Sub a, b, c
```

Make the common case fast

C Code

```
a = b + c - d;
```

MIPS assembly code

```
add t, b, c   # t = b + c
sub a, t, d   # a = t - d
```

Smaller is Faster

- MIPS includes only a small number of registers

MIPS Register Set

Name	Register Number	Usage
`$0`	0	the constant value 0
`$at`	1	assembler temporary
`$v0-$v1`	2-3	Function return values
`$a0-$a3`	4-7	Function arguments
`$t0-$t7`	8-15	temporaries
`$s0-$s7`	16-23	saved variables
`$t8-$t9`	24-25	more temporaries
`$k0-$k1`	26-27	OS temporaries
`$gp`	28	global pointer
`$sp`	29	stack pointer
`$fp`	30	frame pointer
`$ra`	31	Function return address

Operands: Registers

- Registers:
  - `$` before name
  - Example: `$0`, “register zero”, “dollar zero”
- Registers used for specific purposes:
  - `$0` always holds the constant value 0.
  - the *saved registers*, `$s0-$s7`, used to hold variables
  - the *temporary registers*, `$t0 - $t9`, used to hold intermediate values during a larger computation
  - Discuss others later

Instructions with Registers

- Revisit add instruction

C Code

```
a = b + c
```

MIPS assembly code

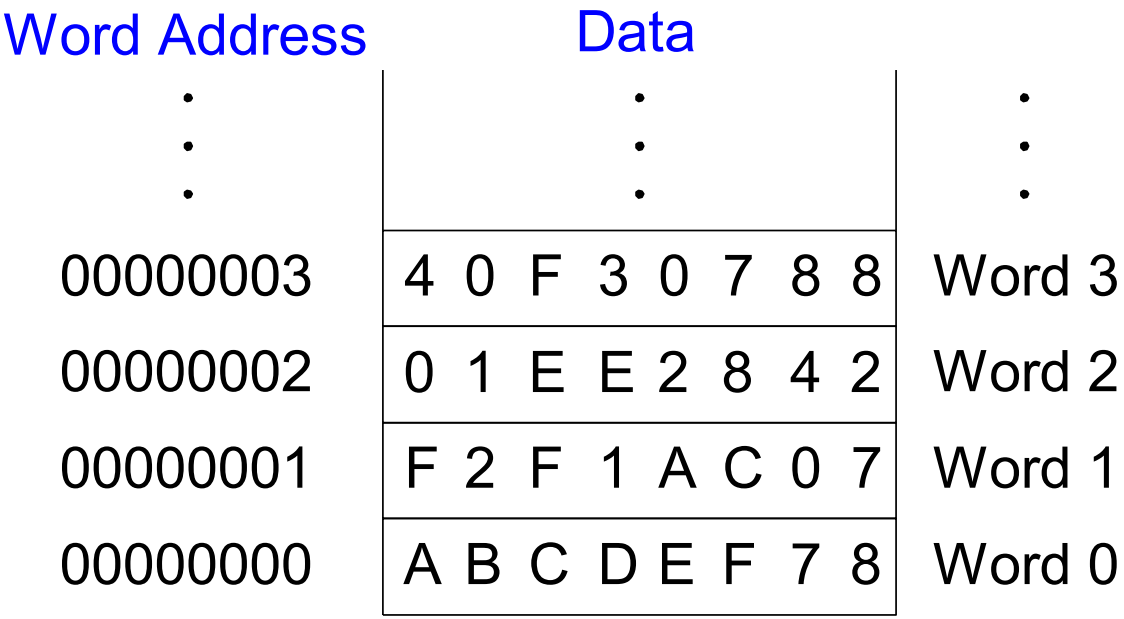
```
# add a, b, c
# $s0 = a, $s1 = b, $s2 = c
add $s0, $s1, $s2
```

Operands: Memory

- Too much data to fit in only 32 registers
- Store more data in memory
- Memory is large, but slow
- Commonly used variables kept in registers

Word-Addressable Memory

- Each 32-bit data word has a unique address



Note: MIPS uses byte-addressable memory, which we'll talk about next.

Reading Word-Addressable Memory

- Memory read called ***load***
- **Mnemonic:** *load word* (`lw`)
- **Format:**

```
lw $s0, 5($t1)
```

- **Address calculation:**
  - add *base address* (`$t1`) to the *offset* (5)
  - address = (`$t1` + 5)
- **Result:**
  - `$s0` holds the value at address (`$t1` + 5)

Any register may be used as base address

Reading Word-Addressable Memory

- **Example:** read a word of data at memory address 1 into `$s3`
  - address = (`$0` + 1) = 1
  - `$s3` = 0xF2F1AC07 after load

`$0`, "register zero"

Assembly code

```
lw $s3, 1($0)   # read memory word 1 into $s3
```

Word Address	Data	
⋮	⋮	⋮
00000003	4 0 F 3 0 7 8 8	Word 3
00000002	0 1 E E 2 8 4 2	Word 2
00000001	F 2 F 1 A C 0 7	Word 1
00000000	A B C D E F 7 8	Word 0

Writing Word-Addressable Memory

- Memory write are called ***store***
- **Mnemonic:** *store word* (`SW`)

Writing Word-Addressable Memory

- **Example:** Write (store) the value in `$t4` into memory address 7
  - add the base address (`$0`) to the offset (0x7)
  - address: ($0 + 0x7) = 7

Offset can be written in decimal (default) or hexadecimal

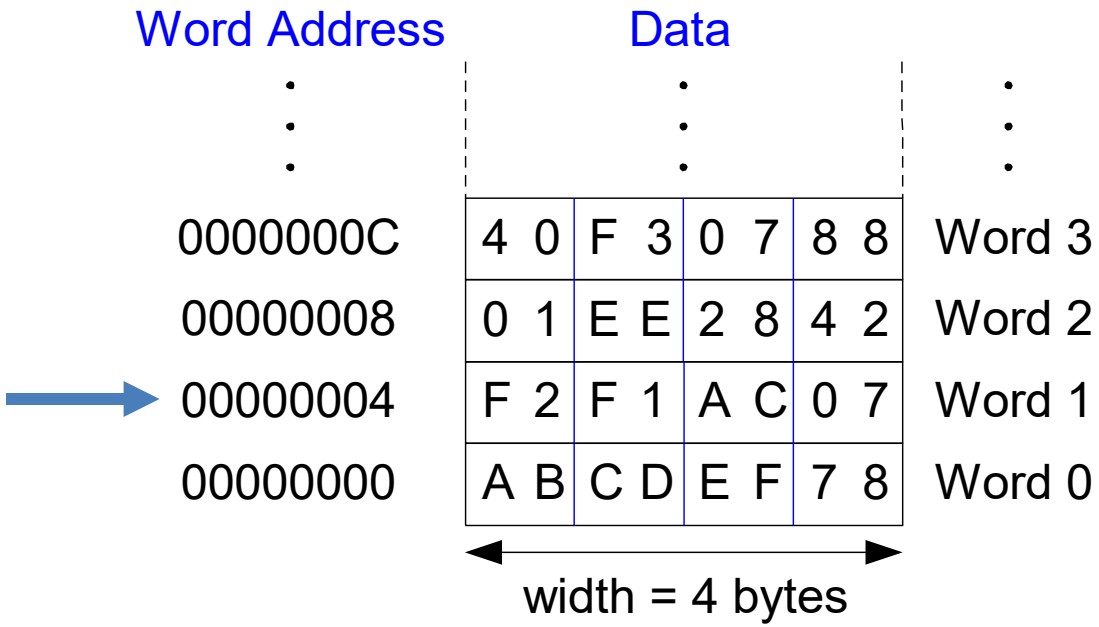
Assembly code

```
sw $t4, 0x7($0)   # write the value in $t4
                  # to memory word 7
```

Word Address	Data	
⋮	⋮	⋮
00000003	4 0 F 3 0 7 8 8	Word 3
00000002	0 1 E E 2 8 4 2	Word 2
00000001	F 2 F 1 A C 0 7	Word 1
00000000	A B C D E F 7 8	Word 0

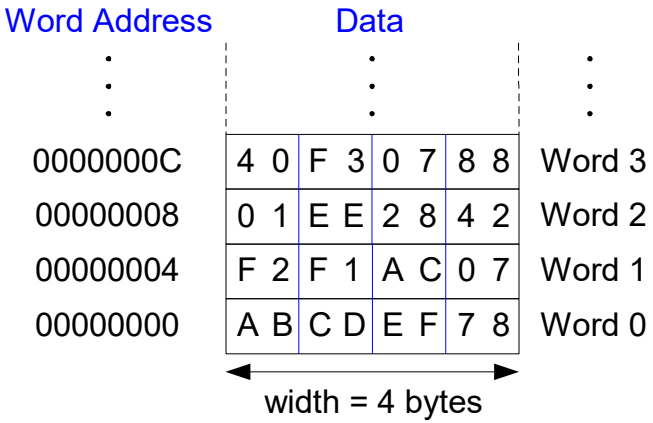
Byte-Addressable Memory

- Each data byte has unique address
- Load/store words or single bytes: load byte (`lb`) and store byte (`sb`)
- 32-bit word = 4 bytes, so word address increments by 4



Reading Byte-Addressable Memory

- The address of a memory word must now be multiplied by 4. For example,
  - the address of memory word 2 is $2 \times 4 = 8$
  - the address of memory word 10 is $10 \times 4 = 40$ (0x28)
- **MIPS is byte-addressed, not word-addressed**

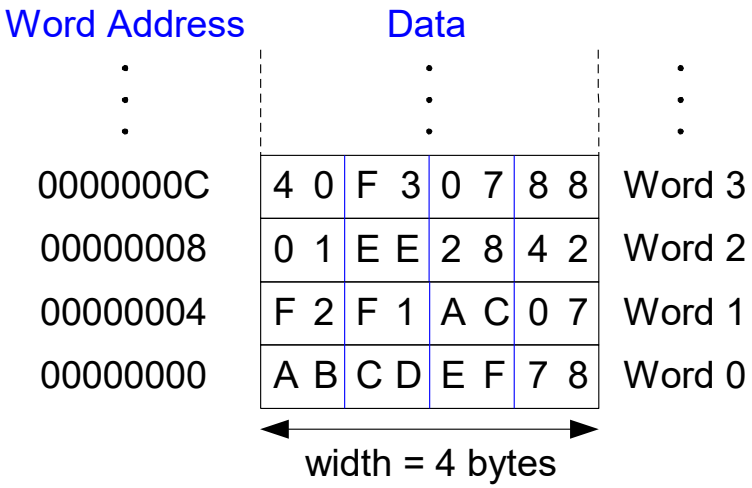


Reading Byte-Addressable Memory

- **Example:** Load a word of data at memory address 4 into `$s3`.
- `$s3` holds the value 0xF2F1AC07 after load

MIPS assembly code

```
lw $s3, 4($0)   # read word at address 4 into $s3
```

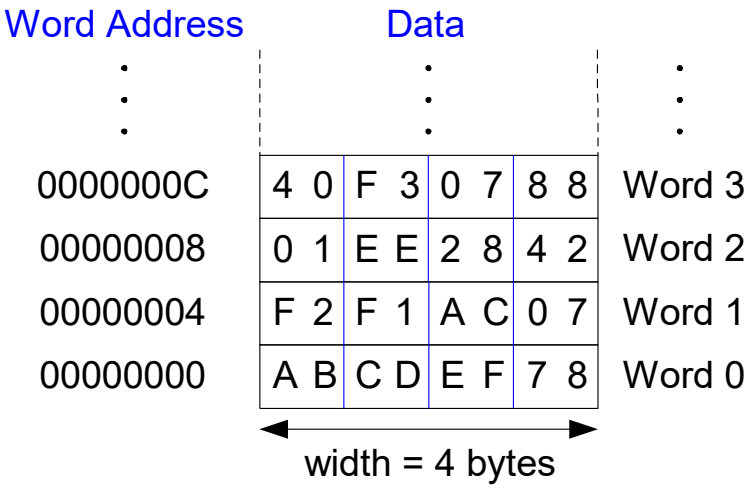


Writing Byte-Addressable Memory

- **Example:** stores the value held in `$t7` into memory address 0x0C (12)

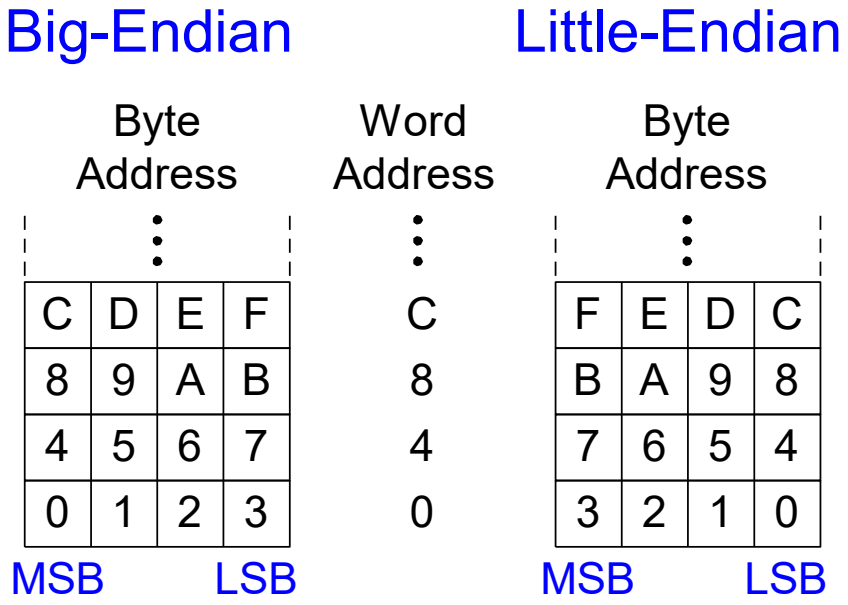
MIPS assembly code

```
sw $t7, 12($0)   # write $t7 into address 12
```



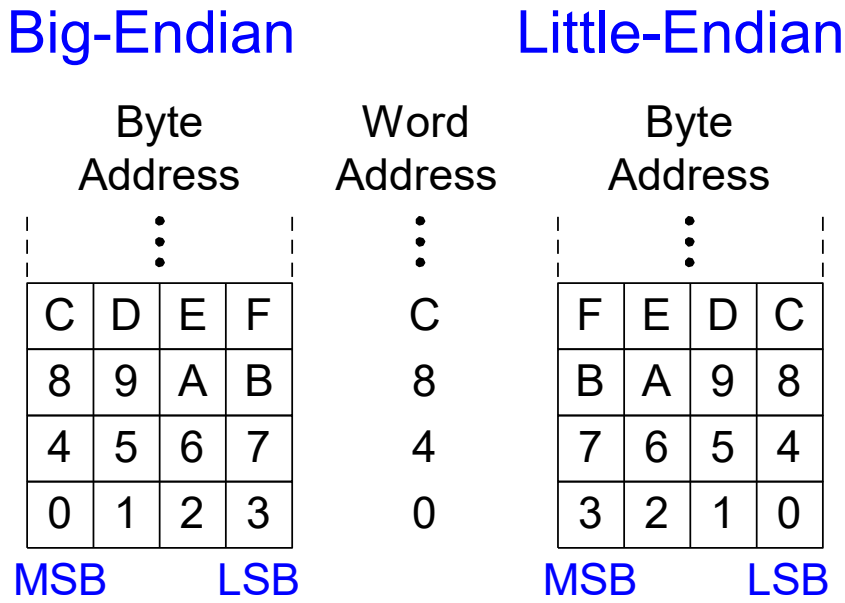
Big-Endian & Little-Endian Memory

- How to number bytes within a word?
- **Little-endian:** byte numbers start at the little (least significant) end
- **Big-endian:** byte numbers start at the big (most significant) end
- **Word address** is the **same** for big- or little-endian



Big-Endian & Little-Endian Memory

- It doesn't really matter which addressing type used – except when the two systems need to share data!

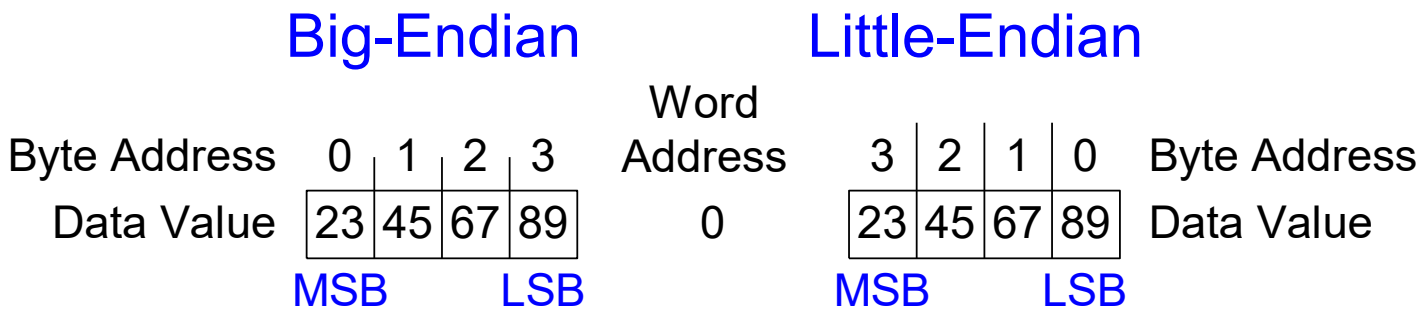


Big-Endian & Little-Endian Example

- Suppose `$t0` initially contains 0x23456789
- After following code runs on big-endian system, what value is `$s0`?
- In a little-endian system?

```
sw $t0, 0($0)
lb $s0, 1($0)
```

- Big-endian: 0x00000045
- Little-endian: 0x00000067



Design Principle 4

Good design demands good compromises

- Multiple instruction formats allow flexibility
  - `add`, `sub`: use 3 register operands
  - `lw`, `sw`: use 2 register operands and a constant
- Number of instruction formats kept small
  - to adhere to design principles 1 and 3 (simplicity favors regularity and smaller is faster).

Operands: Constants/Immediates

- `lw` and `sw` use constants or *immediates*
- *immediate*ly available from instruction
- 16-bit two's complement number
- `addi`: add immediate
- Subtract immediate (`subi`) necessary?

C Code

```
a = a + 4;
b = a - 12;
```

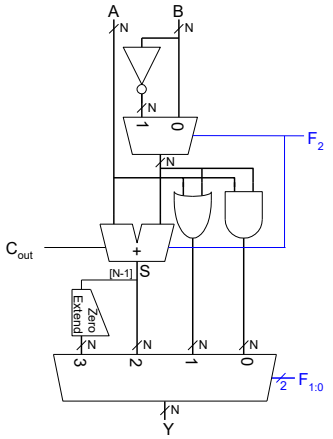
MIPS assembly code

```
# $s0 = a, $s1 = b
addi $s0, $s0, 4
addi $s1, $s0, -12
```

Machine Language

- Binary representation of instructions
- Computers only understand 1's and 0's
- 32-bit instructions
  - Simplicity favors regularity: 32-bit data & instructions
- 3 instruction formats:
  - **R-Type:** register operands
  - **I-Type:** immediate operand
  - **J-Type:** for jumping (discuss later)

R-Type



- *Register-type*
- 3 register operands:
  - `rs`, `rt`: source registers
  - `rd`: destination register
- Other fields:
  - `op`: the *operation code* or *opcode* (0 for R-type instructions)
  - `funct`: the *function* with opcode, tells computer what operation to perform
  - `shamt`: the *shift amount* for shift instructions, otherwise it's 0

R-Type

op	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	6 bits

R-Type Examples

Table B.2 R-type instructions, sorted by funct field—Cont'd

Funct	Name	Description	Operation
100000 (32)	add rd, rs, rt	add	[rd] = [rs] + [rt]
100001 (33)	addu rd, rs, rt	add unsigned	[rd] = [rs] + [rt]
100010 (34)	sub rd, rs, rt	subtract	[rd] = [rs] - [rt]
100011 (35)	subu rd, rs, rt	subtract unsigned	[rd] = [rs] - [rt]

Assembly Code

```
add $s0, $s1, $s2
sub $t0, $t3, $t5
```

Field Values

op	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
0	17	18	16	0	32
0	11	13	8	0	34
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	6 bits

Machine Code

op	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct	
000000	10001	10010	10000	00000	100000	(0x02328020)
000000	01011	01101	01000	00000	100010	(0x016D4022)
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	5 bits	6 bits	

Name	Register
$0	0
$at	1
$v0-$v1	2-3
$a0-$a3	4-7
$t0-$t7	8-15
$s0-$s7	16-23
$t8-$t9	24-25

Note the order of registers in the assembly code:

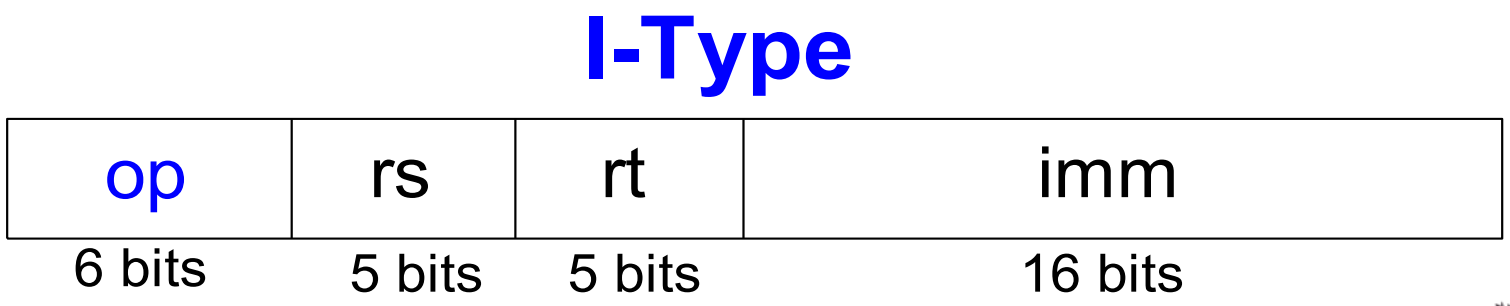
```
add rd, rs, rt
```

MIPS Register Set

Name	Register Number	Usage
`$0`	0	the constant value 0
`$at`	1	assembler temporary
`$v0-$v1`	2-3	Function return values
`$a0-$a3`	4-7	Function arguments
`$t0-$t7`	8-15	temporaries
`$s0-$s7`	16-23	saved variables
`$t8-$t9`	24-25	more temporaries
`$k0-$k1`	26-27	OS temporaries
`$gp`	28	global pointer
`$sp`	29	stack pointer
`$fp`	30	frame pointer
`$ra`	31	Function return address

I-Type

- *Immediate-type*
- 3 operands:
  - `rs`, `rt`: register operands
  - `imm`: 16-bit two's complement immediate
- Other fields:
  - `op`: the opcode
  - Simplicity favors regularity: all instructions have opcode
  - Operation is completely determined by opcode



I-Type Examples

100011 (35)	lw rt, imm(rs)	load word	[rt] = [Address]
101011 (43)	sw rt, imm(rs)	store word	[Address] = [rt]
001000 (8)	addi rt, rs, imm	add immediate	[rt] = [rs] + SignImm

Name	Regist
$0	0
$at	1
$v0-$v1	2-3
$a0-$a3	4-7
$t0-$t7	8-15
$s0-$s7	16-23
$t8-$t9	24-25

Assembly Code

```
addi $s0, $s1, 5
addi $t0, $s3, -12
lw   $t2, 32($0)
sw   $s1,  4($t1)
```

Field Values

op	rs	rt	imm
8	17	16	5
8	19	8	-12
35	0	10	32
43	9	17	4
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	16 bits

Note the differing order of registers in assembly and machine codes:

```
addi rt, rs, imm
lw   rt, imm(rs)
sw   rt, imm(rs)
```

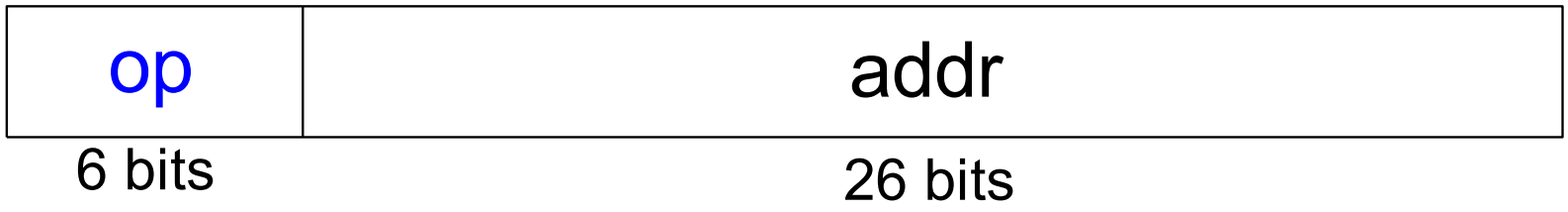
Machine Code

op	rs	rt	imm	
001000	10001	10000	0000 0000 0000 0101	(0x22300005)
001000	10011	01000	1111 1111 1111 0100	(0x2268FFF4)
100011	00000	01010	0000 0000 0010 0000	(0x8C0A0020)
101011	01001	10001	0000 0000 0000 0100	(0xAD310004)
6 bits	5 bits	5 bits	16 bits	

Machine Language: J-Type

- *Jump-type*
- 26-bit address operand (`addr`)
- Used for jump instructions (`j`)

J-Type

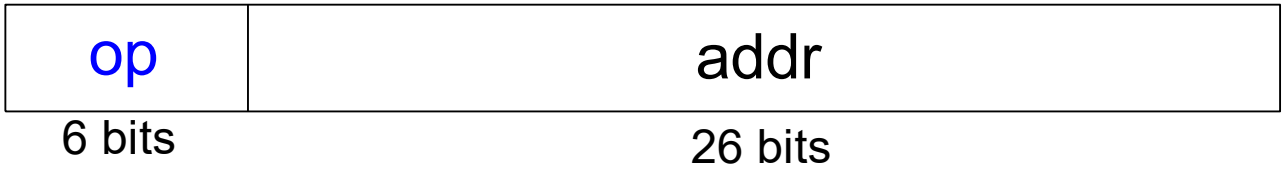


Review: Instruction Formats

R-Type

I-Type

J-Type



Design Principle

Simplicity favors regularity

```
add a, b, c
Sub a, b, c
```

Make the common case fast

C Code

```
a = b + c - d;
```

MIPS assembly code

```
add t, b, c  # t = b + c
sub a, t, d  # a = t - d
```

Smaller is Faster

MIPS includes only a small number of registers

Good design demands good compromises

Multiple instruction formats allow flexibility (R/I/J Types)

MIPS is byte-addressed, not word-addressed

Assembly Instructions / Binary Representation