

Welcome To CSE 378!

- Administrivia
- Course Goals
- Course Contents
- First Assignments!

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What is 378??

- Official title: "Computer Organization and Assembly Language Programming"
- Better title: "Computer architecture, machine organization, and assembly language" Too long for the catalog!
- A follow-on to CSE370
 - 370 is now a prerequisite
 - Needed knowledge: number systems and representation; computer arithmetic; basic CPU design: datapath and control
- An answer to the question: What *is* a computer, really?
How does a computer work?

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What CSE378 is not...

- Not a programming course
- "Assembly language programming" is definitely programming, but...
- "Assembly language" is not a computer language in the sense of Java or C
- Assembly language is a more or less direct reflection of the computer's underlying hardware architecture
- Learning the computer's architecture and organization is key to learning its assembly language, and vice versa

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Course Activities

- Lecture
- Quiz sections
- Written homework
- Computer-based (programming) homework
- Mini-paper

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What is Computer Architecture?

- **Structure:** static arrangement of the parts
- **Organization:** dynamic interaction of the parts and their control
- **Implementation:** design of specific building blocks
- **Performance:** behavioral study of the system or of some of its components

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Alternate definition: Instruction Set Architecture (ISA)

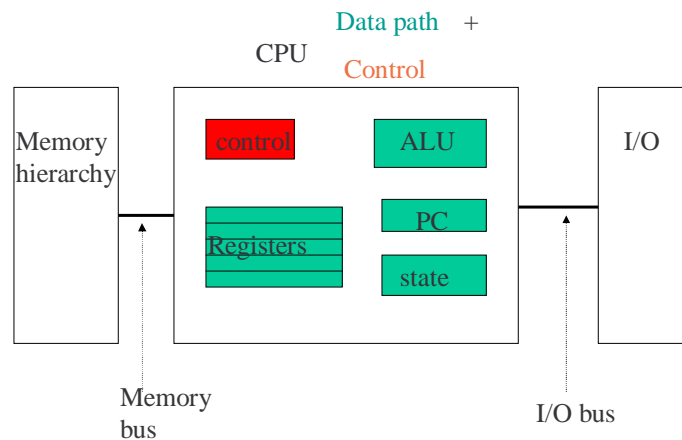
- Architecture is an **interface** between layers
- ISA is the interface between hardware and software
- ISA is what is visible to the programmer (and ISA might be different for O.S. and applications)
- ISA consists of:
 - instructions (operations and how they are encoded)
 - information units (size, how are they addressed etc.)
 - registers (or more generally processor state)
 - input-output control

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Computer structure: Von Neumann model



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Computer Organization

- Organization and architecture often used as synonyms
- **Organization** (in this course) refers to:
 - what are the basic blocks of a computer system, more specifically
 - basic blocks of the CPU
 - basic blocks of the memory hierarchy
 - how are the basic blocks designed, controlled, connected?
- Organization used to be transparent to the ISA.
- Sometimes aspects of the organization get “*exposed*” to the user/compiler.

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Advances in technology

Processor technology	Vacuum tubes	Transistor	Integrated circuits	VLSI
Memory technology	Vacuum tubes	Ferrite core	Semi-conductor	Semi-conductor
Processor structure	Single processor	Main frames	Micros and minis	PC's 64-bit arch Superscalar Multithreaded

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Some Computer families

- Computers that have the same (or very similar) ISA
 - Compatibility of software between various implementations
- IBM
 - 704, 709, 70xx etc.. From 1955 till 1965
 - 360, 370, 43xx, 33xx From 1965 to the present
 - Power PC
- DEC
 - PDP-11, VAX From 1970 till 1985
 - Alpha (now Compaq, now HP) in 1990's

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More computer families

- Intel
 - Early micros 40xx in early 70's
 - x86 (086,...,486, Pentium, Pentium Pro, Pentium 3, Pentium 4) from 1980 on
 - IA-64 (Itanium) in 2001
- SUN
 - Sparc, Ultra Sparc 1985 on
- MIPS-SGI
 - Mips 2000, 3000, 4400, 10000 from 1985 on

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MIPS is a RISC

- RISC = *Reduced Instruction Set Computer*
- R could also stand for “regular”
- All arithmetic-logical instructions are of the form
$$R_a \leftarrow R_b \text{ op } R_c$$
- MIPS (as all RISC's) is a *Load-Store* architecture
 - ALU operates only on operands that are in registers
 - The only instructions accessing memory are load and store
- Sloop is also a RISC, load-store architecture

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Registers

- Registers are the “*bricks*” of the CPU
- Registers are an essential part of the ISA
 - Visible to the hardware and to the programmer
- Registers are
 - Used for high speed storage for operands. For example, if a, b, c are in registers 8,9,10 respectively
add \$8,\$9,\$10 # a = b + c
 - Easy to name (most computer have 32 registers visible to the programmer and their names are 0, 1, 2, ...,31)
 - Used for addressing memory

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Registers (ct'd)

- Not all registers are “equal”
 - Some are special-purpose (e.g., register 0 in MIPS is wired to the value 0)
 - Some are used for integer and some for floating-point (e.g., 32 of each in MIPS)
 - Some have restricted use by convention (cf. App. A pp A-22-23)
 - Why no more than 32 or 64 registers
 - Well, sometimes there is (SPARC, Itanium, Cray, Tera)
 - Smaller is faster
 - Instruction encoding (names have to be short)
 - There can be more registers but they are invisible to the ISA
 - this is called *register renaming* (see CSE 471)

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Memory system

- Memory is a *hierarchy* of devices with faster and more expensive ones closer to CPU
 - Registers
 - Caches (hierarchy: on-chip, off-chip)
 - Main memory (DRAM)
 - Secondary memory (disks)

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Information units

- Basic unit is the *bit* (has value 0 or 1)
- Bits are grouped together in information units:
 - Byte = 8 bits
 - Word = 4 bytes
 - Double word = 2 words
 - etc.

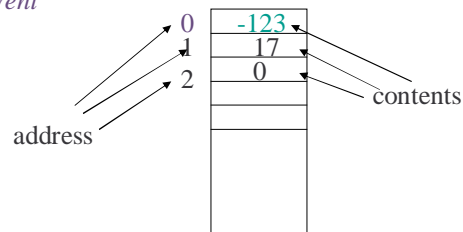
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Memory addressing

- Memory is an array of information units
 - Each unit has the same size
 - Each unit has its own *address*
 - *Address* of an unit and *contents* of the unit at that address are *different*



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Addressing

- In most of today's computers, the basic I-unit that can be addressed is a byte
 - MIPS is *byte addressable*
- The *address space* is the set of all I-units that a program can reference
 - The address space is tied to the length of the registers
 - MIPS has 32-bit registers. Hence its address space is 4G bytes
 - Older micros (minis) had 16-bit registers, hence 64 KB address space (too small)
 - Some current (Alpha, Itanium, Sparc) machines have 64-bit registers, hence an enormous address space

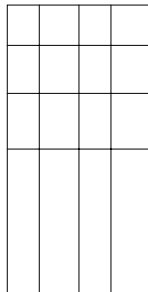
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Addressing words

- Although machines are byte-addressable, words are the most commonly used I-units
- Every word *starts at an address divisible by 4*



Word at address 0

Word at address 4

Word at address 8

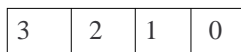
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Big-endian vs. little endian

- Byte order within a word:



Little-endian
(we'll use this)



Big-endian

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The CPU - Instruction Execution Cycle

- The CPU executes a program by repeatedly following this cycle
 1. Fetch the next instruction, say instruction i
 2. Execute instruction i
 3. Compute address of the next instruction, say j
 4. Go back to step 1
- Of course we'll optimize this but it's the basic concept

What's in an instruction?

- An instruction tells the CPU
 - the operation to be performed via the **OPCODE**
 - where to find the operands (source and destination)
- For a given instruction, the ISA specifies
 - what the OPCODE means (semantics)
 - how many operands are required and their types, sizes etc.(syntax)
- Operand is either
 - register (integer, floating-point, PC)
 - a memory address
 - a constant