BEHIND THE CURTAIN





- Computer organization
 Computer Instructions
 Memory concepts
 Where should code go?
 Computers as systems
 - Problem Set #1 will go out on Thursday

LOGIN TO COURSE WEBSITE



1) Login to your Comp311 account



2) Your username is your UNC ONYEN and your password is your PID







3) Once you are logged in, press "Course" and then a "Setup" button should appear. Press "Setup" and you should see something like:

Comparinzz Problem Sets a	anu Exams.		
Comp311F22 Exercises:			
Exercises:			
leehart has submitted 0 of 0 exercise	ses		
	You	ur Profile	
	You Username:	ur Profile leehart	
	You Username: First Name:	ur Profile leehart Lee	
	You Username: First Name: Last Name:	u r Profile leehart Lee Hart	
	You Username: First Name: Last Name: Email:	u r Profile leehart Lee Hart leehart@email.unc.edu	
	You Username: First Name: Last Name: Email: Institution:	ur Profile leehart Lee Hart leehart@email.unc.edu Comp311F22	
	You Username: First Name: Last Name: Email: Institution: New Password:	ur Profile leehart Lee Hart leehart@email.unc.edu Comp311F22	
	You Username: First Name: Last Name: Email: Institution: New Password: Verify Password:	ur Profile leehart Lee Hart leehart@email.unc.edu Comp311F22	

4) (BTW, you can also change your password here if you want).

CATCHING UP FROM LAST TIME ...



What decimal value is represented by 0x3f800000, when interpreted as an IEEE 754 single precision floating point number?





HOW COLORS ARE REPRESENTED

- Each pixel is stored as three primary parts
- Red, green, and blue
- Usually around 8-bits per channel
- Pixels can have individual
 R,G,B components or
 they can be stored indirectly
 via a "look-up table"

8-bits	8-bits	8-bits		
3 - 8-bit unsigned binary integers (0,255)				
3 - Fixed	-012- point 8-bit va	lues (0-1.0)		



COLOR SPECIFICATIONS



Web colors:

Name	Hex	Decimal Integer	Fractional
Orange	#FFA500	(255, 165, 0)	(1.0, 0.65, 0.0)
Sky Blue	#87CEEB	(135, 206, 235)	(0.52, 0.80, 0.92)
Thistle	#D8BFD8	(216, 191, 216)	(0.84, 0.75, 0.84)

Colors are stored as binary too. You'll commonly see them in Hex, decimal, and fractional formats.

Summary



- ALL modern computers represent signed integers using a two's-complement representation
- Two's-complement representations eliminate the need for separate addition and subtraction units
- Addition is identical using either unsigned and two's-complement numbers
- Finite representations of numbers on computers leads to anomalies
- Floating point numbers have separate fraction and exponent components.



- · Every computer has at least three basic units
 - Input/Output
 - \cdot where data arrives from the outside world
 - \cdot where data is sent to the outside world
 - \cdot where data is archived for the long term (i.e. when the lights go out)
 - Memory
 - \cdot where data is stored (numbers, text, lists, arrays, data structures)
 - Central Processing Unit
 - · where data is manipulated, analyzed, etc.



COMPUTER ORGANIZATION (CONT)



· Properties of units

- Input/Output
 - · converts symbols to bits and vice versa
 - \cdot where the analog "real world" meets the digital "computer world"
 - · must somehow synchronize to the CPU's clock
- Memory
 - · stores bits that represent information
 - · every unit of memory has an "address" and "contents",
- Central Processing Unit
 - · besides processing, it also coordinates data's movements between units

WHAT SORT OF "PROCESSING"



A CPU performs low-level operations called INSTRUCTIONS

Arithmetic

- ADD X to Y then put the result in Z
- SUBTRACT X from Y then put the result back in Y

Logical

- Set Z to 1 if X AND Y are 1, otherwise set Z to 0 (AND X with Y then put the result in Z)
- Set Z to 1 if X OR Y are 1, otherwise set Z to 0 (OR X with Y then put the result in Z)

Comparison

- Set Z to 1 if X is EQUAL to Y, otherwise set Z to O
- Set Z to 1 if X is GREATER THAN OR EQUAL to Y, otherwise set Z to O

Control

- Skip the next INSTRUCTION if Z is EQUAL to O

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ANATOMY OF AN INSTRUCTION



Nearly all instructions can be made to fit a common template



HOW IS MEMORY ORGANIZED



- By now you know memory is a vast collection of bits
- Groups of bits can represent various types of data Integers, Signed integers. Floating-point values, Strings, Pixels How do bits get "Grouped"?
- Memory is organized as a vector of bits with indices called "addresses"



ADDRESSES ARE KEY!



The need to "address" bits is one of the most important factors of a computer's design.

- How many bits will I ever need?
 (remember computer representations are finite)
- The size of scratch variables (registers), is more determined by the need to address bits than the size of the data-types needed..
- Should we squander address space by giving "every" bit a distinct address?
- · Perhaps we could address bits in more manageable units



MEMORY CONCEPTS

- Memory is divided into "addressable" units, each with an address (like an array with indices)
- Addressable units are usually larger than a bit, typically 8 (byte), 16 (halfword),
 32 (word), or 64 (long) bits
- · Each address has variable "contents"
- · Memory contents might be:
 - · Integers in 2's complement
 - · Floats in IEEE format
 - · Strings in ASCII or Unicode
 - · Data structure de jour
 - · ADDRESSES
 - Nothing distinguishes the difference

Address	Contents
0	42
1	3.141592
2	"Lee "
3	"Hart"
4	"Bud "
5	"Levi"
6	"le "
7	2
8	0x0000293
9	0x00a00313
10	0x006282b3
11	0xfff30313
12	0xfe601ce3
13	0x000006f
14	0x00004020
15	0x20090001







ONE MORE THING

- INSTRUCTIONS for the CPU are stored in memory along with data
- CPU fetches instructions, decodes them and then performs their implied operation
- Mechanism inside the CPU directs which instruction to get next.
- They appear in memory as a string of bits that are typically uniform in size
- Their encoding as "bits" is called "machine language." ex: Oc3cld7fff
- We assign "mnemonics" to particular bit patterns to indicate meanings.
- These mnemonics are called Assembly language. ex: mv x1, 10

Address	Contents
0	42
1	3.141592
2	"Lee "
3	"Hart"
4	"Bud "
5	"Levi"
6	"le "
7	2
8	li x5,0
9	li x6,10
10	add x5,x5,x6
11	addi x6,x6,-1
12	bne x0,x6,2
13	j.
14	0x00004020
15	0x20090001







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HARVARD ARCHITECTURE

Instructions and data do not/should not interact. They can have different "word sizes" and exist in different "address spaces"

- Advantages:
 - · No self-modifying code (a common hacker trick)
 - · Optimize word-lengths of instructions for control and data for applications
 - Higher Throughput (i.e. you can fetch data and instructions from their memories simultaneously)
- Disadvantages:
 - The H/W designer decides the trade-off between how big of a program and how large are data
 - Hard to write "Native" programs that generate new programs (i.e. assemblers, compilers, etc.)
 - Hard to write "Operating Systems" which are programs that at various points treat other programs as data (i.e. loading them from disk into memory, swapping out processes that are idle)





Howard Aiken: Architect of the Harvard Mark 1

VON NEUMANN ARCHITECTURE

Instructions are just a type of data that share a common "word size" and "address space" with other types.





John Von Neumann: Proponent of unified memory architecture

- Most common model used today, and what we assume in 411
- Advantages:
 - · S/W designer decides how to allocate memory between data and programs
 - · Can write programs to create new programs (assemblers and compilers)
 - Programs and subroutines can be loaded, relocated, and modified by other programs (dangerous, but powerful)

- Disadvantages:

- · Word size must suit both common data types and instructions
- Slightly lower performance due to memory bottleneck (mediated in modern computers by the use of separate program and data caches)
- · We need to be very careful when treading on memory. Folks have taken advantage of the program-data unification to introduce viruses.

INSTRUCTIONS ARE SIMPLE



- Computers interpret "programs" by translating them from the high-level language where into "low-level" simple instructions that it understands
- High-Level Languages
 - Compilers (C, C++, Fortran)
 - Interpreters (Basic, Ruby, Lua, Python, Perl, JavaScript)
 - Hybrids (Java)
- Assembly Language

- x: .word 0 y: .word 0 c: .word 123456
- int x, y; lw t0,0(gp) # get x y = (x-3)*(y+123456);addi t0,t0,-3 t1,4(qp)lw # get y lw t2,8(gp) # get c add t1,t1,t2 mul t0,t0,t1 t0,0(gp) SW # save y

INSTRUCTIONS ARE BINARY



- Computers interpret "assembly programs" by translating them from their mnemonic simple instructions into strings of bits
- Assembly Language
- Machine Language
 - Note the "mostly" one-to-one correspondence between lines of assembly code and Lines of machine code

```
x: .word 0
y: .word 0
c: .word 123456
```

SW

lw t0,0(gp)
addi t0,t0,-3
lw t1,4(gp)
lw t2,8(gp)
add t1,t1,t2
mul t0,t0,t1

t0,0(gp)



0x00000000 0x00000000 0x0001E240

• • •

0x0001E240 0x0001A283 0xFFD28293 0x0081A383 0x00730333 0x026282B3 0x0051A023

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A GENERAL-PURPOSE COMPUTER

THE VON NEUMANN MODEL

Many architectural approaches to the general purpose computer have been explored. The one upon which nearly all modern computers is based was proposed by John von Neumann in the late 1940s. Its major components are:



ANATOMY OF AN INSTRUCTION



- Computers execute a set of primitive operations called instructions
- Instructions specify an operation and its operands (arguments of the operation)
- Types of operands: destination, source, and immediate



MEANING OF AN INSTRUCTION



- Operations are abbreviated into opcodes (1-4 letters)
- Instructions are specified with a very regular syntax
 Opcodes are followed by arguments
 - Usually the destination is next, then one or more source arguments (This is not strictly the case, but it is generally true)
- Why this order?
 - Analogy to high-level language like Java or C

add t0,t1,t2

The instruction syntax provides operands in the same order as you would expect in a statement from a high level language.

int r0, r1, r2; r0 = r1 + r2;

Instead of:

r1 + r2 = r0;

A SERIES OF INSTRUCTIONS



- Generally...
 - Instructions are retrieved sequentially from memory
 - An instruction executes to completion before the next instruction is started
 - But, there are exceptions to these rules



PROGRAM ANALYSIS



- Repeat the process treating the variables as unknowns or "formal variables"
- Knowing what the program does allows us to write down its specification, and give it a meaningful name
- The instruction sequence then becomes a general-purpose tool



Vo	aric	ıbl	es
•			

-	add t0, t1, t1		t0: X 2 4 8x
-	add t0, t0, t0	What does this program do?	t1:¥ 7x
-	add t0, t0, t0	, ²	t2:y
-	sub t1, t0, t1	X	t3:z
		7	

LOOPING THE FLOW



- Repeat the process treating the variables as unknowns or "formal variables"
- Knowing what the program does allows us to write down its specification, and give it a meaningful name
- The instruction sequence then becomes a general-purpose tool

An infinite loop

Instructions

times7:	add	t0,t1,t1
	add	t0,t0,t0
	add	t0,t0,t0
	sub	t1,t0,t1
	j	times7

Variables

t0:M	8% 5	ō₩x	392x	
t1:X	7 🗶	4 <u>%</u> x	343x	
t2:y				
t3:z				



OPEN ISSUES IN OUR SIMPLE MODEL

- WHERE in memory are INSTRUCTIONS stored?
- HOW are instructions represented?
- WHERE are VARIABLES stored?
- What are LABELs? How do they relate to where instructions are stored?
- How about more complicated data types?
 - Arrays?
 - Data Structures?
 - Objects?
- Where does a program start executing?
- When does it stop?





THE STORED-PROGRAM COMPUTER

- The von Neumann architecture addresses these issues as follows:
- Instructions and Data are stored in a common memory
- Sequential semantics: To the PROGRAMMER all instructions appear to execute in an order, or sequentially

Key idea: Memory holds not only data, but coded instructions that make up a program.



data

CPU fetches and executes instructions from memory

- · The CPU is a H/W interpreter
- · Program IS simply DATA for this interpreter
- · Main memory: Single expandable resource pool
- constrains both data and program size
- don't need to make separate decisions of how large of a program or data memory to buy



ANATOMY OF A VON NEUMANN COMPUTER





Encoding of instructions raises some interesting choices...

- Trade Offs: performance, compactness, programmability
- Uniformity. Should different instructions
 - Be the same size (number of bits)?
 - Take the same amount of time to execute?
 - Trend: Uniformity. Affords simplicity, speed, pipelining.
- Complexity. How many different instructions? What level operations?
 - Level of support for particular software operations: array indexing, procedure calls, "polynomial evaluate", etc
 - "Reduced Instruction Set Computer"
 (RISC) philosophy: simple instructions, optimized for speed
- Mix of Engineering & Art ...



RISC-V PROGRAMMING MODEL

A REPRESENTATIVE RISC MACHINE

Processor State (inside the CPV)

x0 = 0	
x1	A
x2	
x3	
x4	
x5	
x6	
x7	
x8	
x9	
:	
x29	
x30	
x31	
рс	



In Comp 311 we'll use a subset of the RISC-V core Instruction set as an example ISA (RV321).



RISC-V uses BYTE memory addresses. However, each instruction is 32-bits wide.. Each word contains four 8-bit bytes. Addresses of consecutive instructions (words) differ by 4.

32

- · Memory locations are addressable in different sized chunks
 - 8-bit chunks (bytes)

RISC-V MEMORY NITS

- IG-bit chunks (shorts)
- 32-bit chunks (words)
- G4-bit chunks
 (longs/doubles)
- We also frequently need access to individual bits! (Instructions help with this)
- Every BYTE has a unique address
 (RISC-V is a byte-addressable machine)
- Most instructions are one word





NEXT TIME

• We'll examine the RISC-V instruction set

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- · Assembly language
- · Machine language



