



中国科学技术大学

University of Science and Technology of China

计算系统概论A

Introduction to Computing Systems

(CS1002A.03)

Chapter 4

The von Neumann Model

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计算机科学与技术学院

School of Computer Science and Technology

■ MOS transistors are used as switches to implement logic functions.

- N-type: connect to GND, turn on (with 1) to pull down to 0
- P-type: connect to +2.9V, turn on (with 0) to pull up to 1

■ Basic gates: NOT, NOR, NAND

- Logic functions are usually expressed with AND, OR, and NOT

■ Properties of logic gates

● Completeness

- can implement any truth table with AND, OR, NOT

● DeMorgan's Law

- convert AND to OR by inverting inputs and output

Review



■ We' ve touched on basic digital logic

- Transistors
- Gates
- Storage (latches, flip-flops, memory)
- State machines

■ Built some simple circuits

- adder, subtracter, adder/subtracter, Incrementer
- Counter (consisting of register and incrementer)
- Hard-coded traffic sign state machine
- Programmable traffic sign state machine

■ Up next: a computer as a state machine

■ Great Idea #2: Stored program computer(Von Neumann Model--A Machine Structure

- Basic Components for a machine
- The LC-3: An Example von Neumann Machine
- Instruction Processing

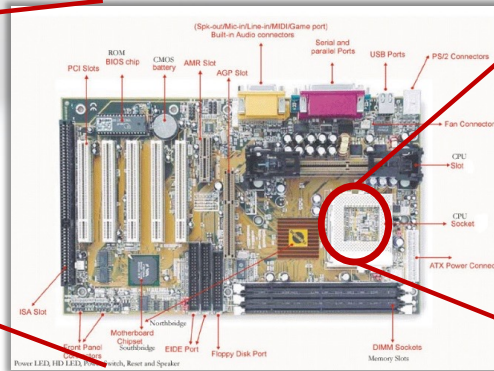
Bottom up approach



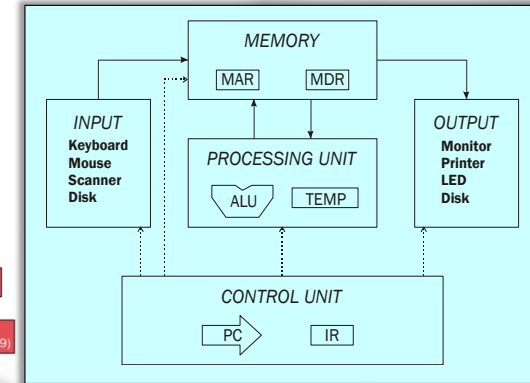
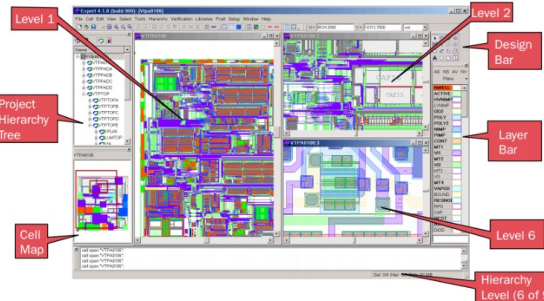
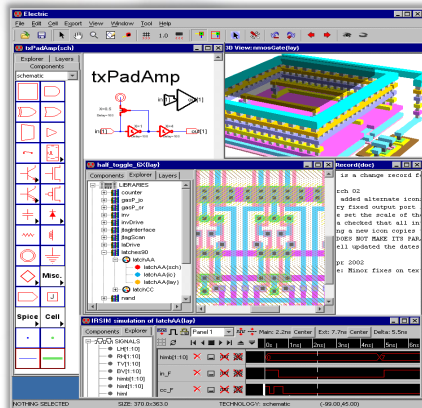
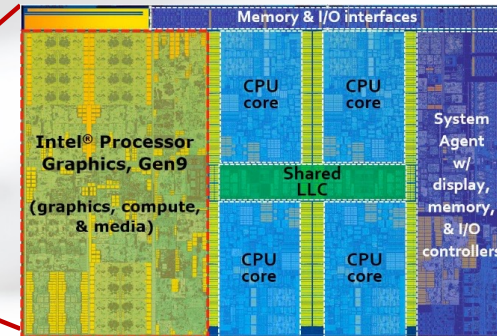
**Personal Computer:
Hardware & Software Design
1~10PCBs/System**



**Motherboard Circuit Design
10 ICs/ PCB
1~50G Devices**



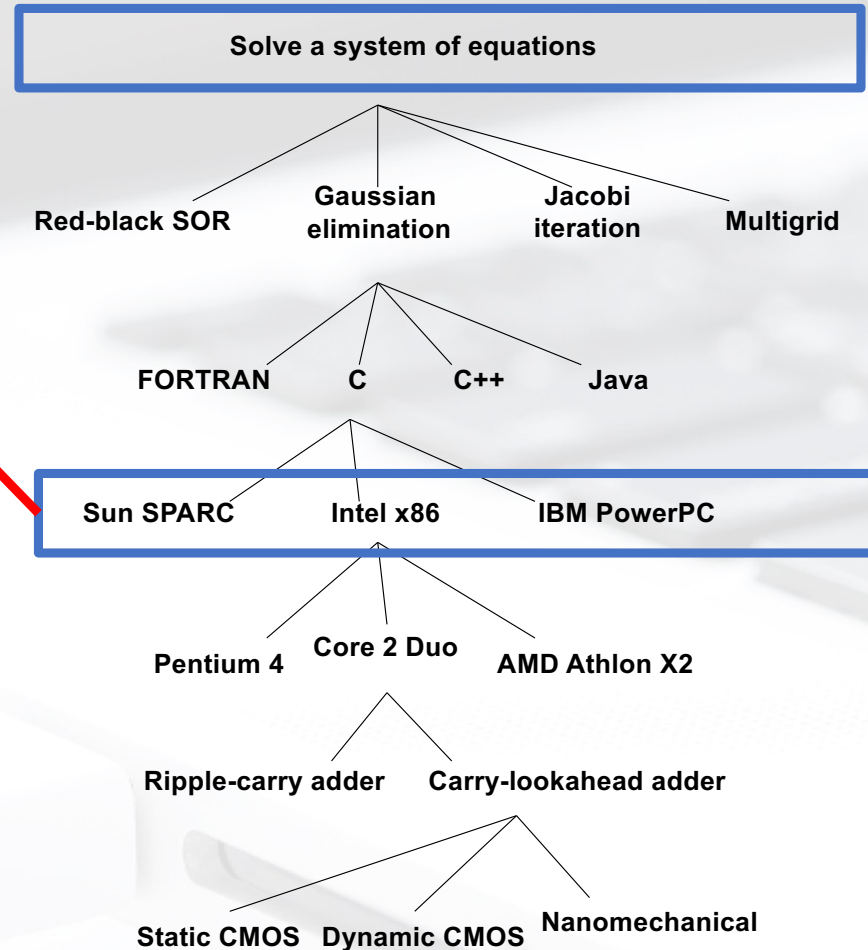
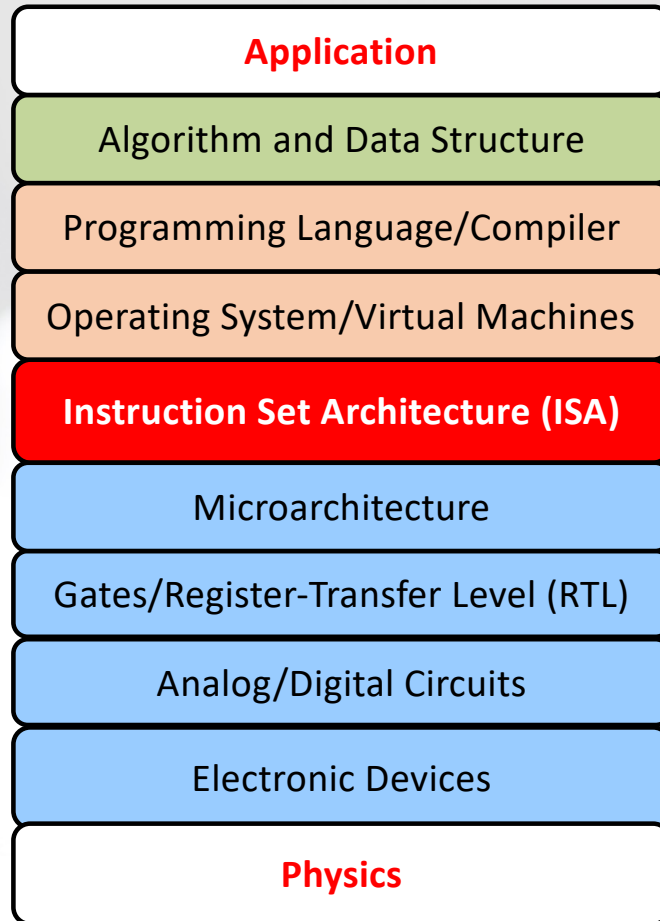
**Integrated Circuit Design
100 Modules/ IC
0.25M~20G Devices**



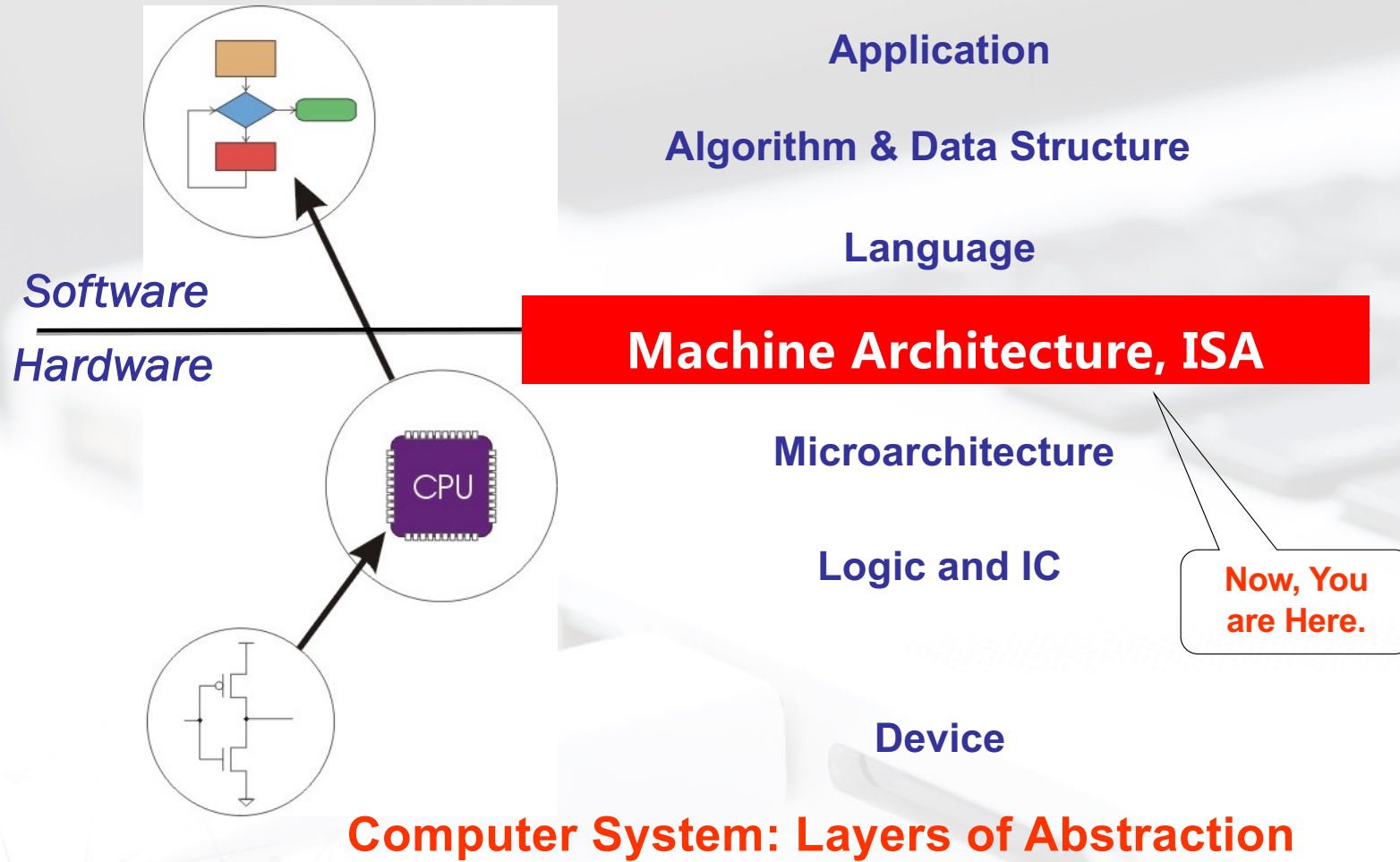
Electronic System Level (ESL) Design

Now, You are Here.

Great Idea #3: Abstraction Helps Us Manage Complexity



Great Idea #4: Software and Hardware Co-design



1 From ENIAC to the Stored Program Computer

2 Basic Components

3 The LC-3: An Example von Neumann Machine

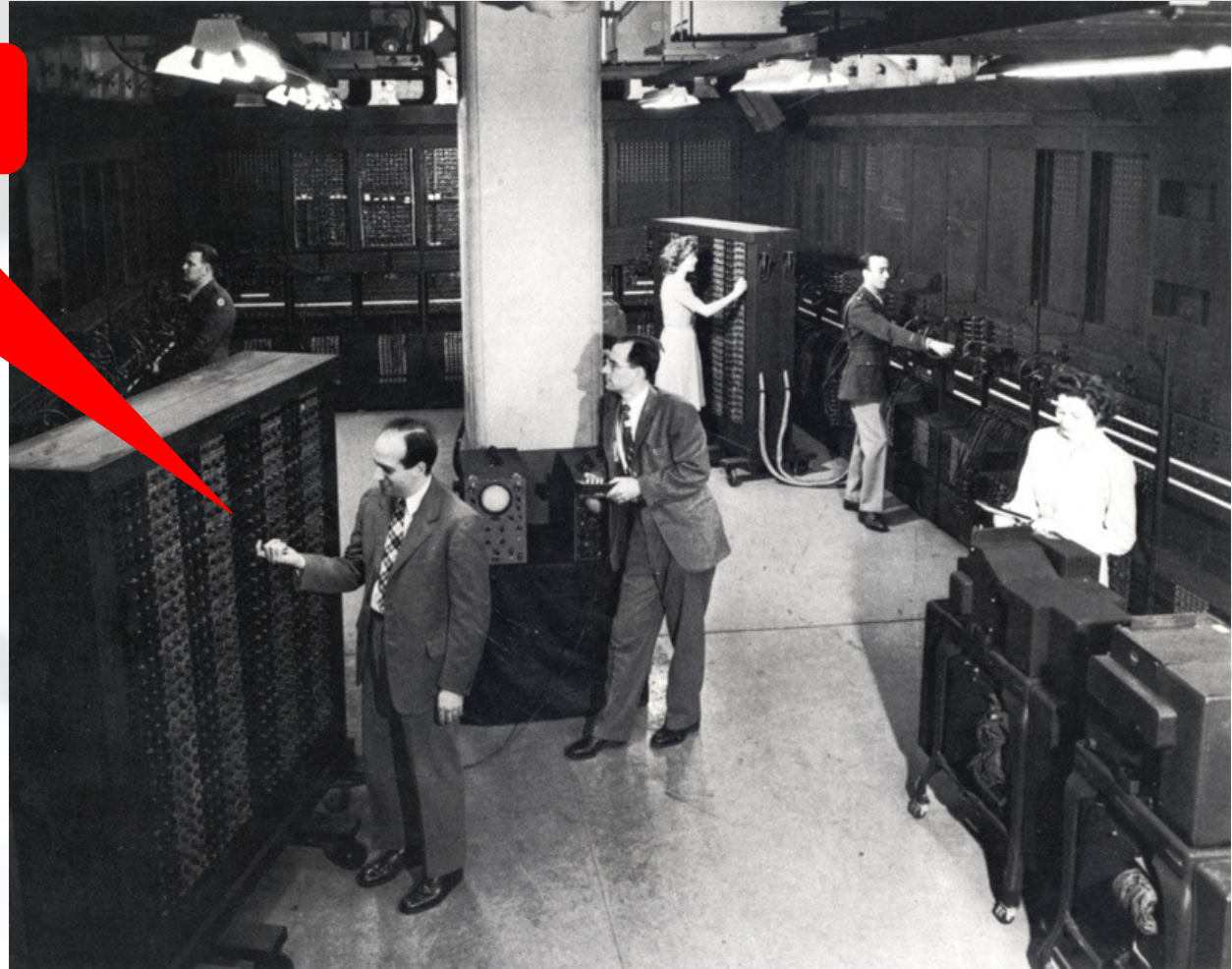
4 Instruction Processing

5 Our First Program: A Multiplication Algorithm

6 Summary

ENIAC - The first electronic computer ,1946年

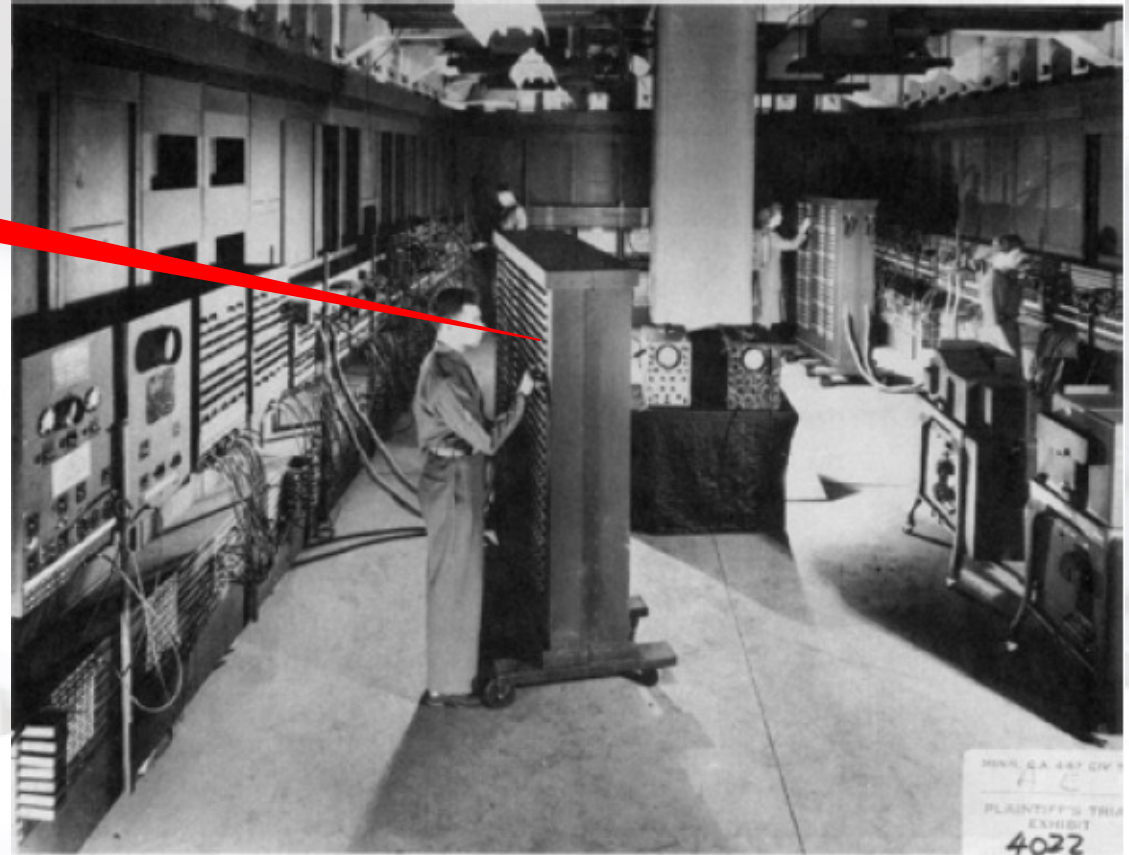
ENIAC



ENIAC - The first electronic computer ,1946年



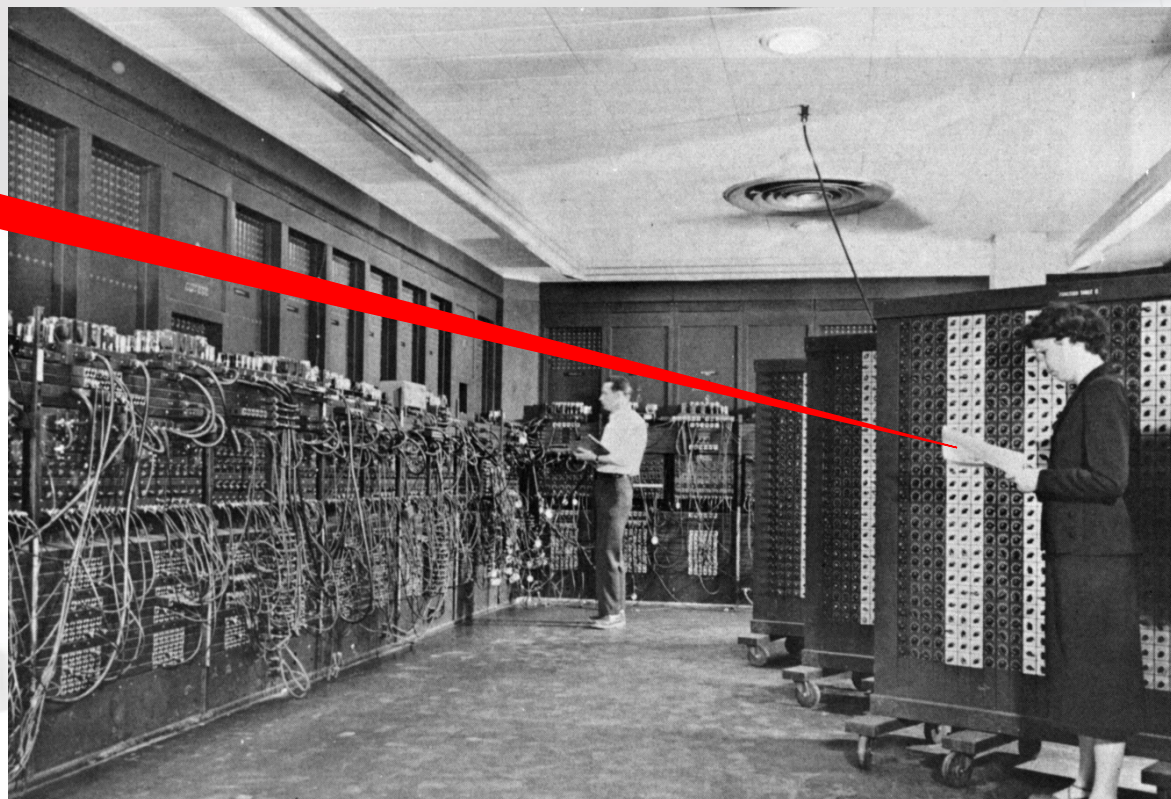
?



ENIAC - The first electronic computer ,1946年



Programmed by plugboard and switches, time consuming!



Changing the program could take days!

The Origin of the Stored Program Computer



John von Neumann,
c. 1955
Credit: Computer
History Museum

1944: ENIAC

- Presper Eckert and John Mauchly -- first general electronic computer.
- **Hard-wired program -- settings of dials and switches.**

1944: Beginnings of EDVAC

- John von Neumann joined ENIAC team and proposed a stored program computer called EDVAC

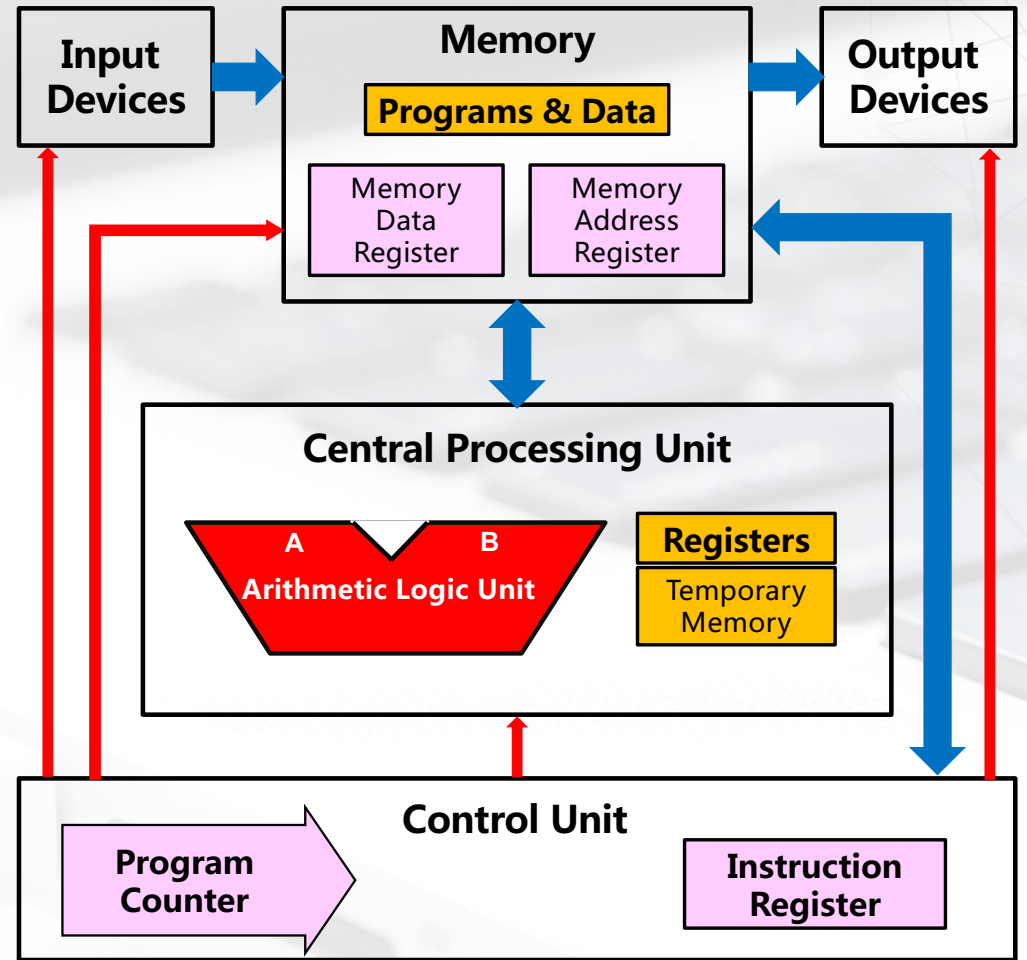
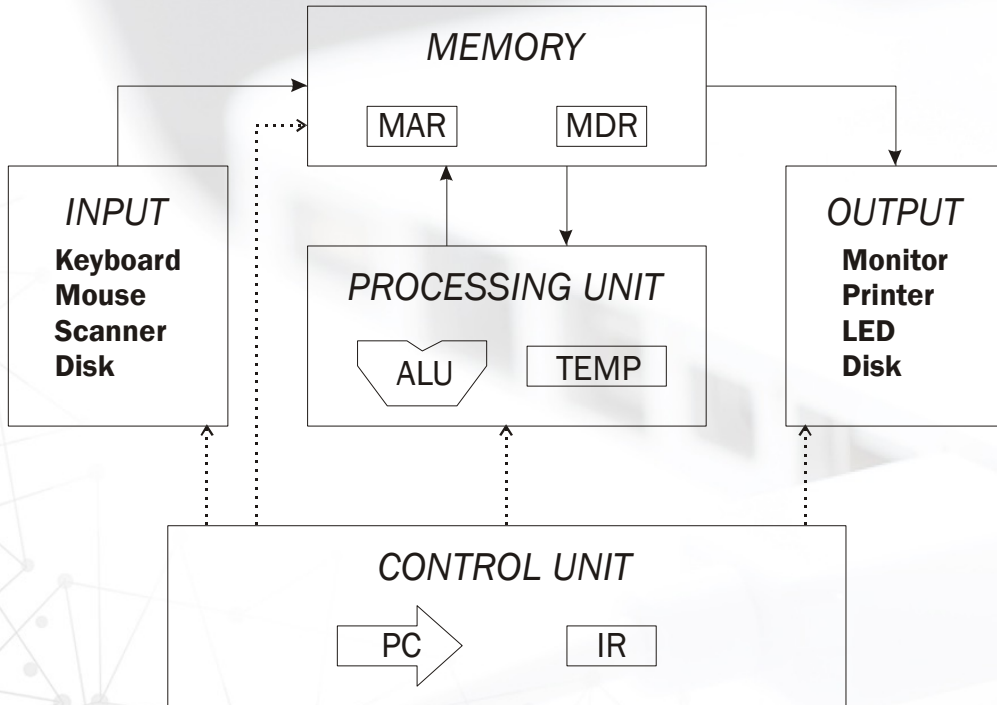
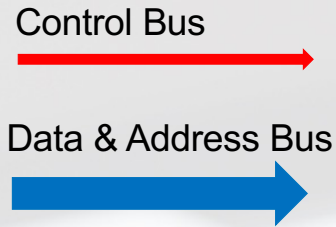
1945: John von Neumann

- John von Neumann wrote "**First Draft of a Report on the EDVAC**" in which he outlined the architecture of a stored-program computer.
- failed to credit designers, ironically still gets credit

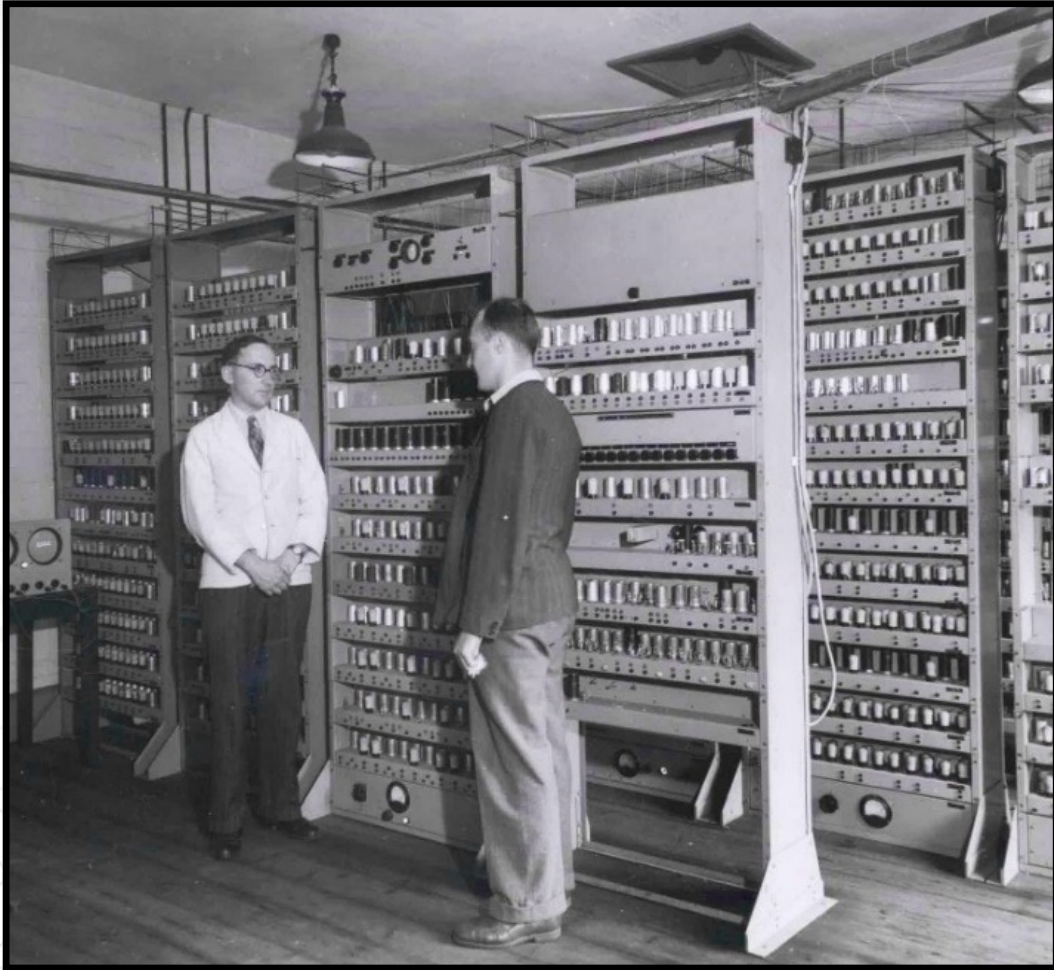
The basic structure proposed in the draft became known as the “von Neumann machine” (or model).

- a **memory**, containing instructions and data
- a **processing unit**, for performing arithmetic and logical operations
- a **control unit**, for interpreting instructions

The Stored Program Computer Architecture (von Neumann Machine Architecture or Model)



The Stored Program Computer



EDSAC
University of Cambridge
UK, 1949

Electronic storage of programming information and data eliminated the need for the more clumsy methods of programming, such as punched paper tape — a concept that has characterized mainstream computer development since 1945.



Maurice Vincent
Wilkes

Two major inventions of the microprocessor chip



Stored program + Transistor technology



Change the program so that you can do all kinds of tasks on the same hardware

The device is smaller and faster than a vacuum tube

1 From ENIAC to the Stored Program Computer

2 Basic Components

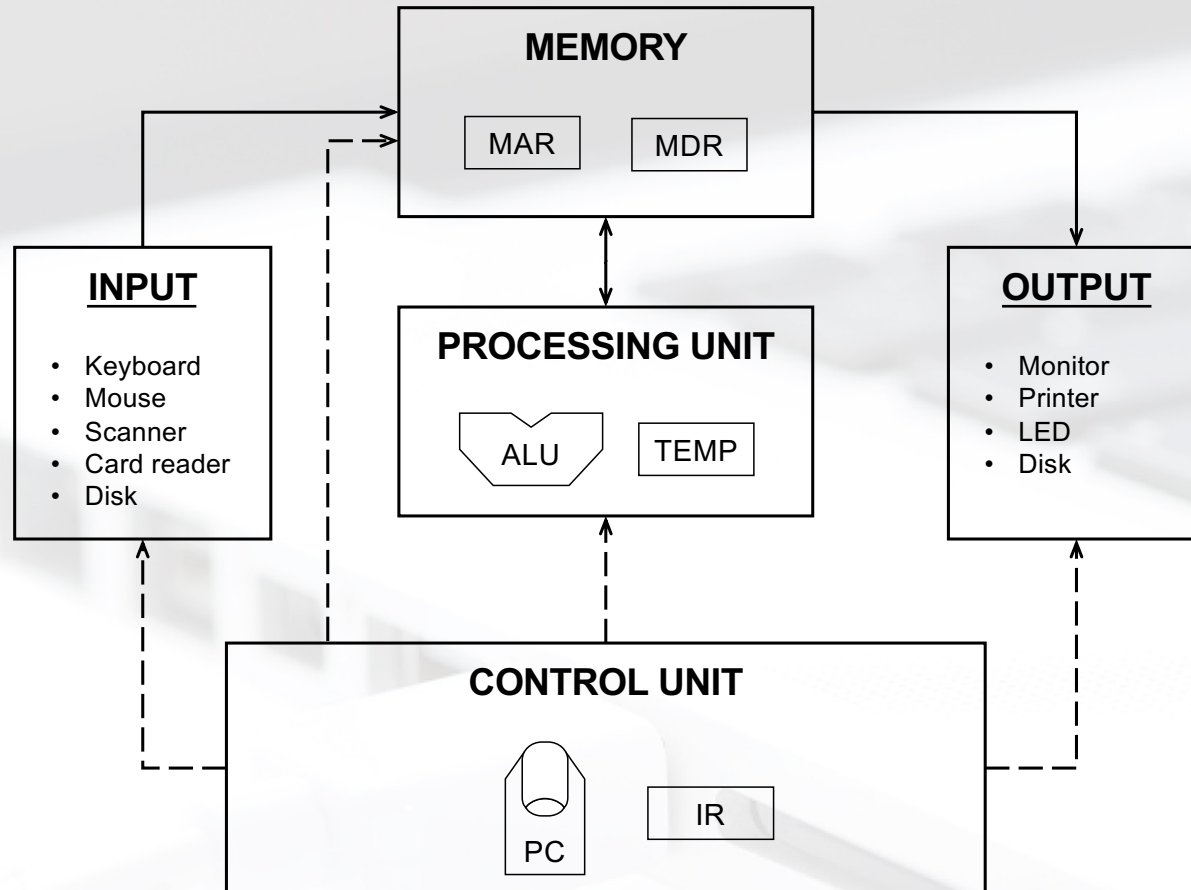
3 The LC-3: An Example von Neumann Machine

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von Neumann Model



Memory

$k \times m$ array of stored bits (k is usually 2^n)

Address

- unique (n-bit) identifier of location

Contents

- m-bit value stored in location

Basic Operations:

LOAD

- read a value from a memory location

STORE

- write a value to a memory location

0000	
0001	
0010	
0011	00101101
0100	
0101	
0110	
	⋮
1101	10100010
1110	
1111	

Interface to Memory



How does processing unit get data to/from memory?

MAR: Memory Address Register

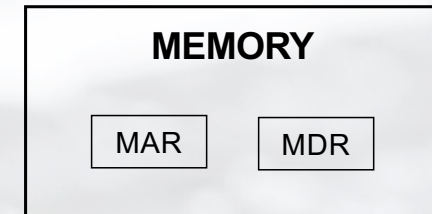
MDR: Memory Data Register

To read a location (A):

1. Write the address (A) into the MAR.
2. Send a "read" signal to the memory.
3. Read the data from MDR.

To write a value (X) to a location (A):

1. Write the data (X) to the MDR.
2. Write the address (A) into the MAR.
3. Send a "write" signal to the memory.



Processing Unit



Functional Units

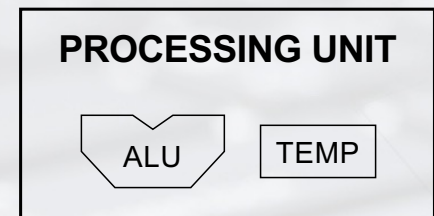
- ALU = Arithmetic and Logic Unit
- could have many functional units. some of them special-purpose (multiply, square root, ...)
- LC-3 performs ADD, AND, NOT

Registers

- Small, temporary storage
- Operands and results of functional units
- LC-3 has eight register (R0, ..., R7)

Word Size

- number of bits normally processed by ALU in one instruction
- also width of registers
- LC-3 is 16 bits





Input and Output

- Devices for getting data into and out of computer memory
- Each device has its own interface, usually a set of registers like the memory's **MAR and MDR**

- LC-3 supports keyboard (input) and console (output)
- keyboard: data register (KBDR) and status register (KBSR)
- console: data register (CRTDR) and status register (CRTSR)
- frame buffer: memory-mapped pixels

- Some devices provide both input and output

- disk, network

- Program that controls access to a device is usually called **a driver**.

INPUT

- Keyboard
- Mouse
- Scanner
- Card reader
- Disk

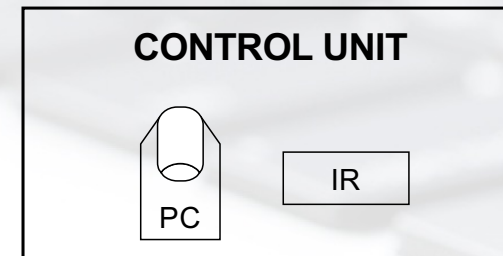
OUTPUT

- Monitor
- Printer
- LED
- Disk

Control Unit



- Orchestrates execution of the program
- **Instruction Register (IR)** contains the *current instruction*.
- **Program Counter (PC)** contains the *address* of the next instruction to be executed.
- **Control unit:**
 - reads an instruction from memory
 - the instruction's address is in the PC
 - interprets the instruction, generating signals that tell the other components what to do
 - an instruction may take many *machine cycles* to complete



1 From ENIAC to the Stored Program Computer

2 Basic Components

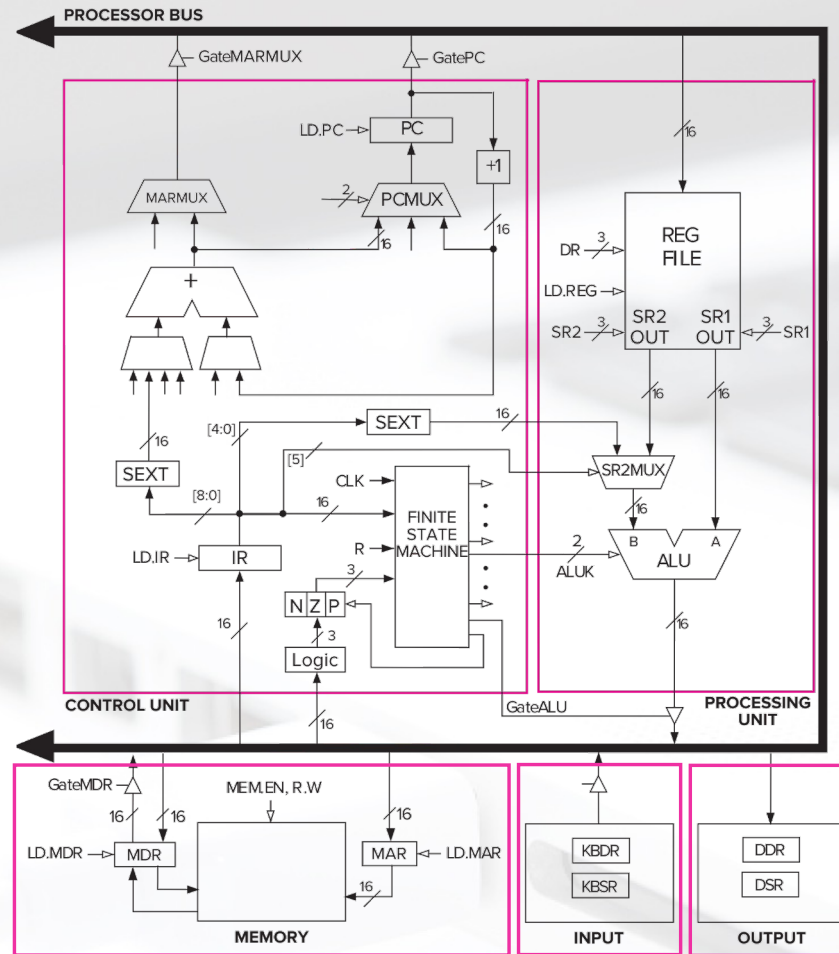
3 **The LC-3: An Example von Neumann Machine**

4 Instruction Processing

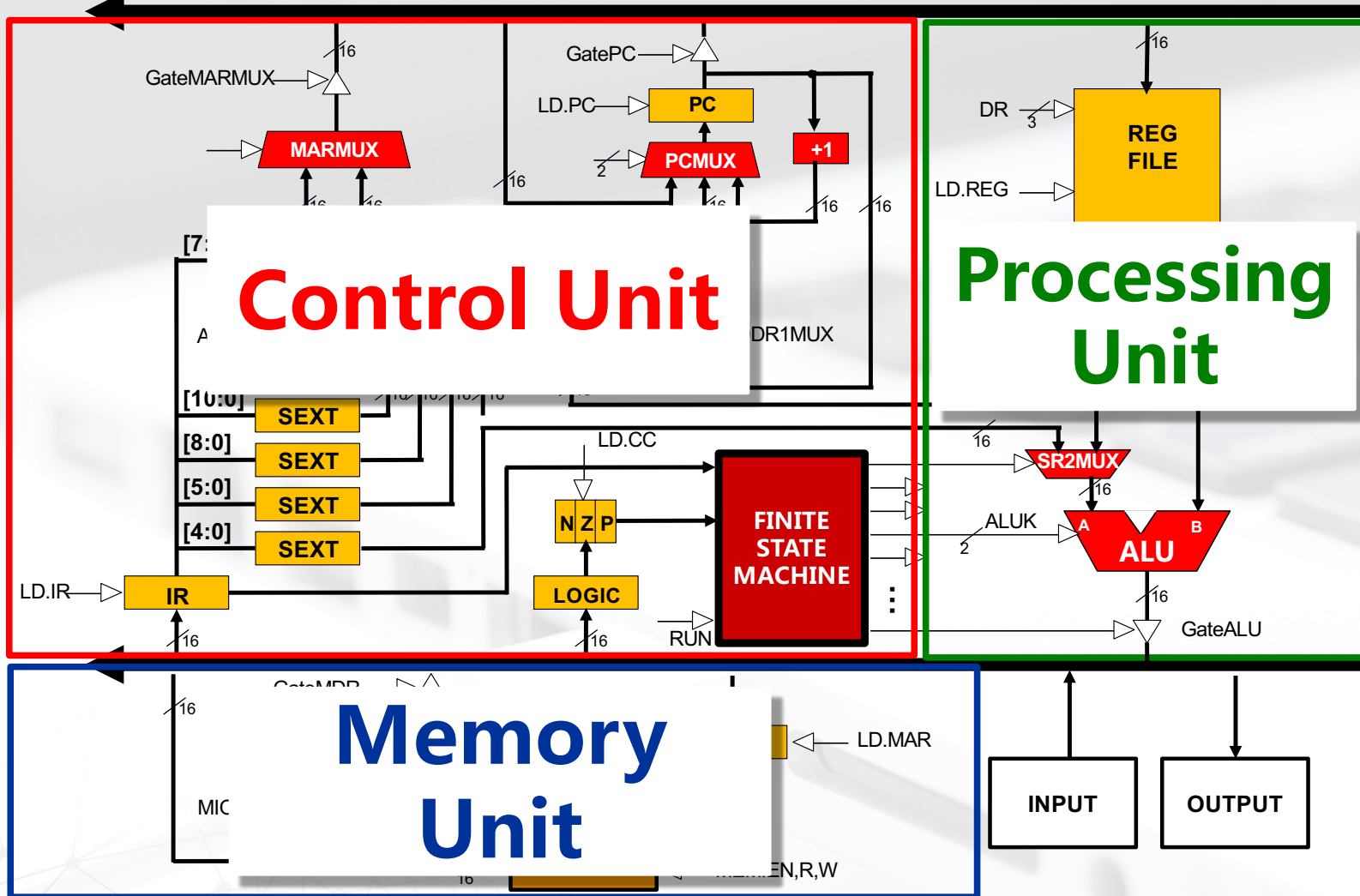
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LC-3 Data Path



LC-3 Data Path



1 From ENIAC to the Stored Program Computer

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4 **Instruction Processing**

5 Our First Program: A Multiplication Algorithm

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Instruction



- The instruction is the fundamental unit of work.
- Specifies two things:
 - opcode: operation to be performed
 - operands: data/locations to be used for operation
- An instruction is encoded as a sequence of bits. (*Just like data!*)
 - Often, but not always, instructions have a fixed length, such as 16 or 32 bits.
 - Control unit interprets instruction: generates sequence of control signals to carry out operation.
 - Operation is either executed completely, or not at all.
- A computer' s instructions and their formats is known as its *Instruction Set Architecture (ISA)*.
 - Persistent ISA invented by UW grad Gene Amdahl (IBM 360)



Example: LC-3 ADD Instruction

■ LC-3 has 16-bit instructions.

- Each instruction has a four-bit opcode, bits [15:12].

■ LC-3 has eight *registers* (R0-R7) for temporary storage.

- Sources and destination of ADD are registers.

15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
ADD				Dst			Src1			0	0	0	Src2		

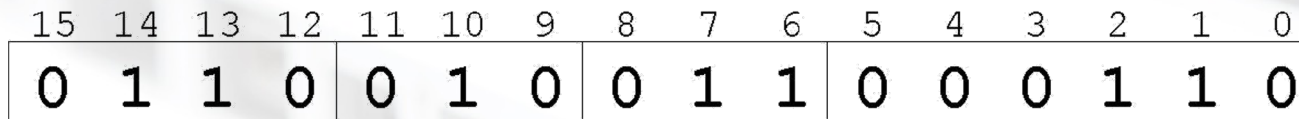
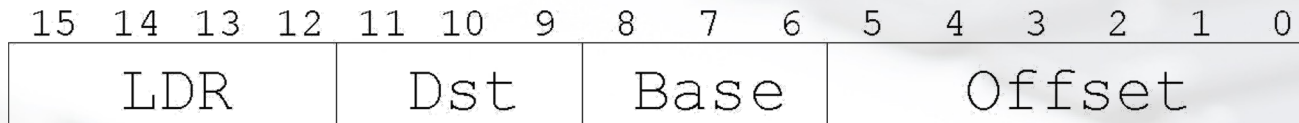
15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0

*“Add the contents of R2 to the contents of R6,
and store the result in R6.”*



Example: LC-3 LDR Instruction

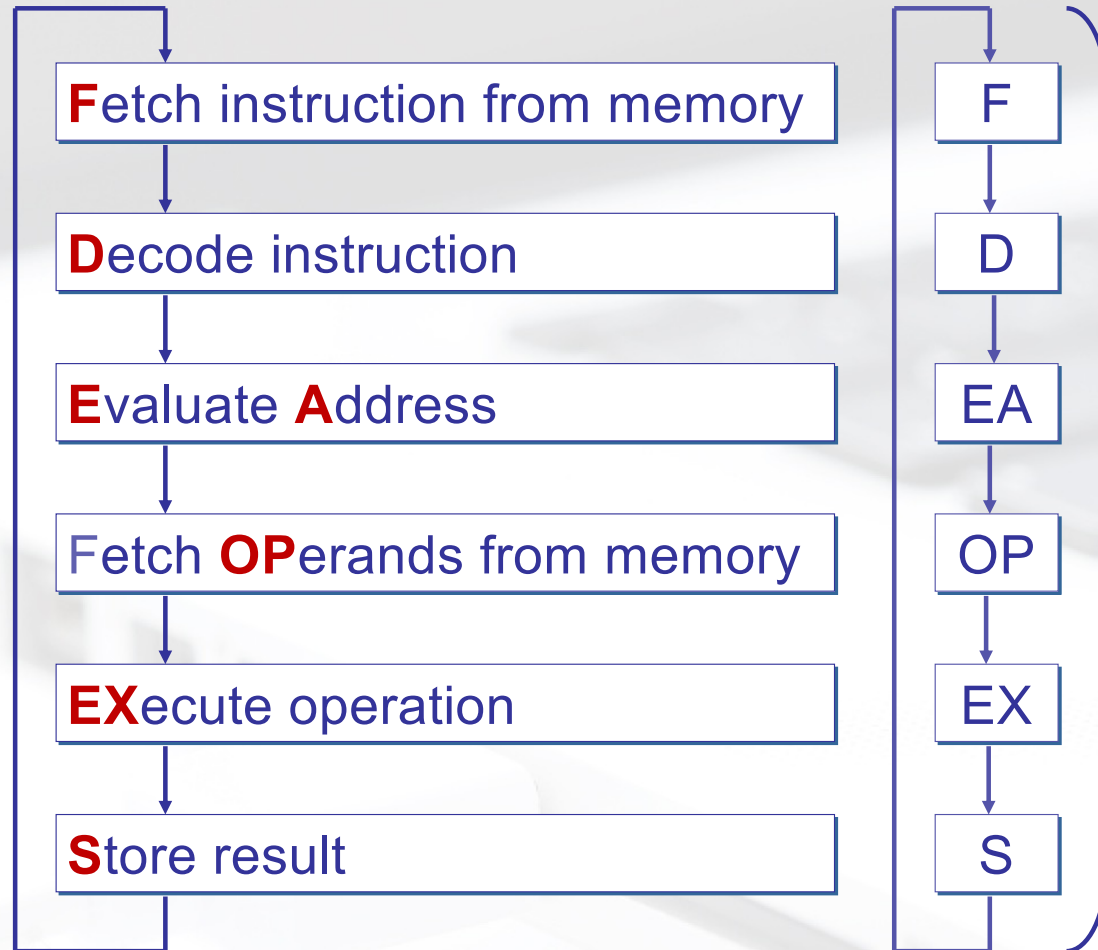
- Load instruction -- reads data from memory
- Base + offset mode:
 - add offset to base register -- result is memory address
 - load from memory address into destination register



“Add the value 6 to the contents of R3 to form a memory address. Load the contents stored in that address to R2.”

Instruction Processing (State Transition)

Instruction	1
Instruction	2
Instruction	3
.....	
Instruction	n
Instruction	n+1
Instruction	n+2
.....	



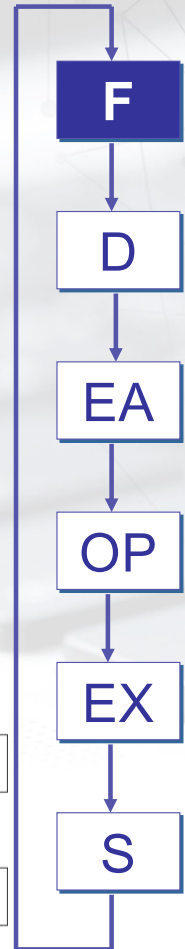
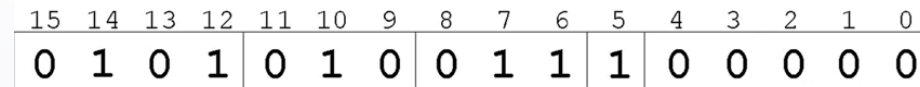
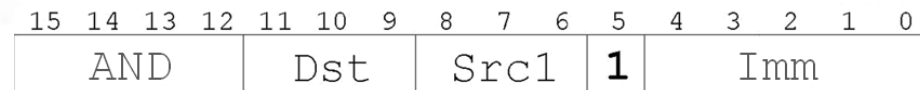
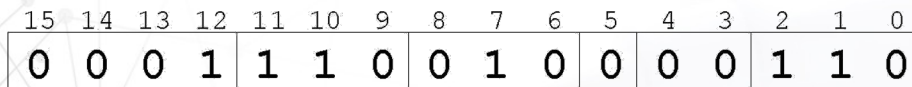
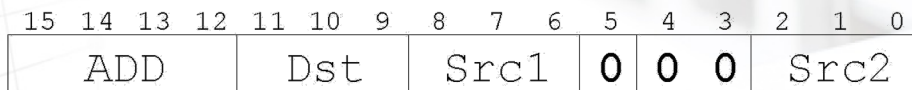
Instruction Processing: **FETCH**

■ Load next instruction (at address stored in PC) from memory into Instruction Register (IR).

- Load contents of PC into MAR.
- Send "read" signal to memory.
- Read contents of MDR, store in IR.

■ Then increment PC, so that it points to the next instruction in sequence.

- PC becomes PC+1.





Instruction Processing: **DECODE**

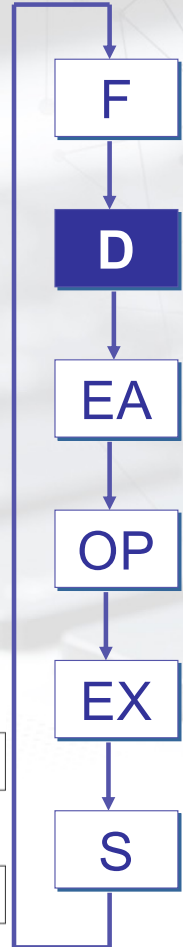
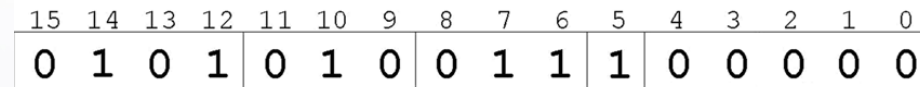
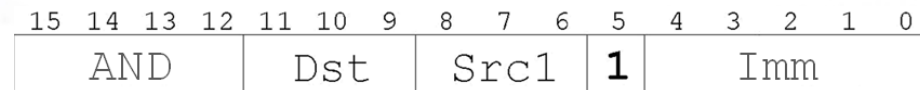
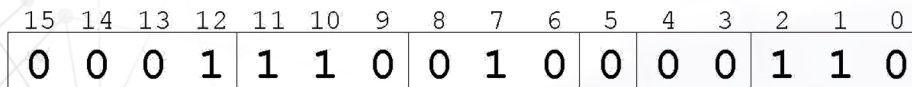
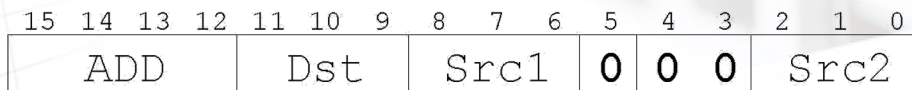
■ First identify the opcode.

- In LC-3, this is always the first four bits of instruction.
- A 4-to-16 decoder asserts a control line corresponding to the desired opcode.

■ Depending on opcode, identify other operands from the remaining bits.

● Example:

- for ADD, last three bits is source operand #2
- for LDR, last six bits is offset

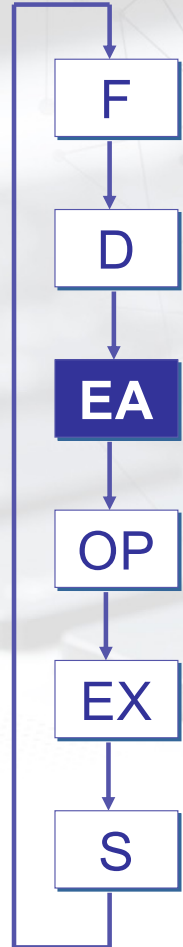
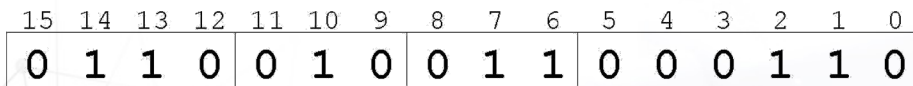
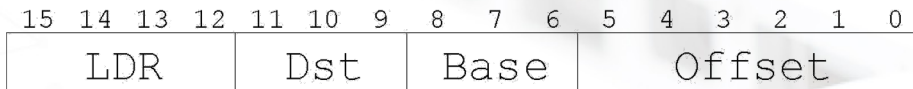


Instruction Processing: **EVALUATE ADDRESS**

■ For instructions that require memory access, compute address used for access.

■ **Examples:**

- add offset to base register (as in LDR)
- add offset to PC (or to part of PC)
- add offset to zero

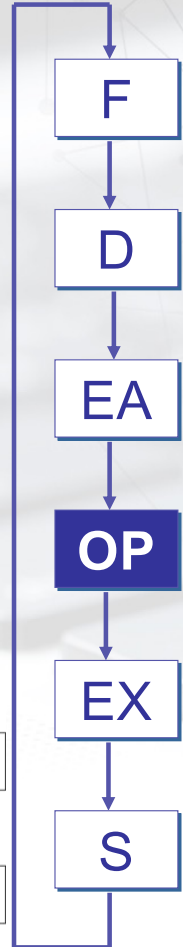
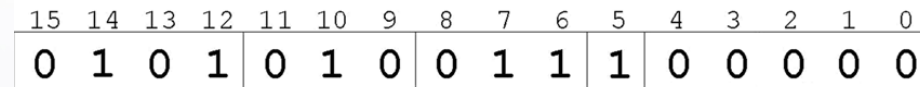
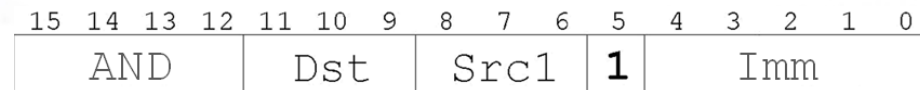
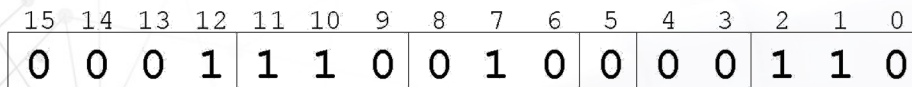
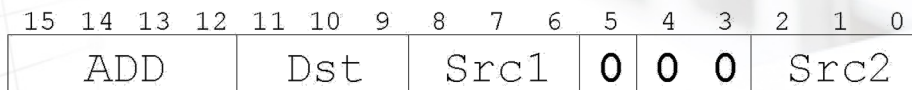


Instruction Processing: **FETCH OPERANDS**

■ Obtain source operands needed to perform operation.

■ Examples:

- read data from register file (ADD)
- load data from memory (LDR)

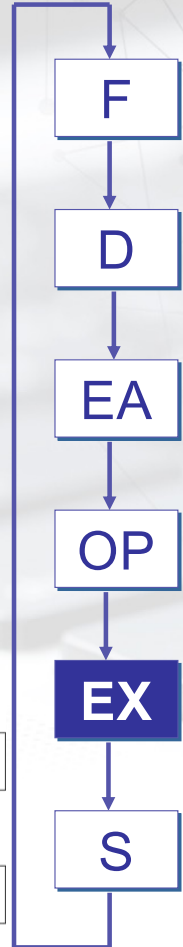
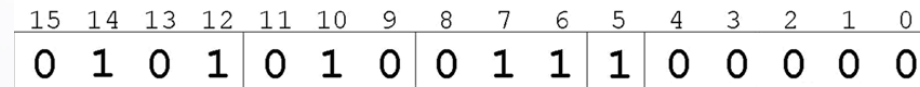
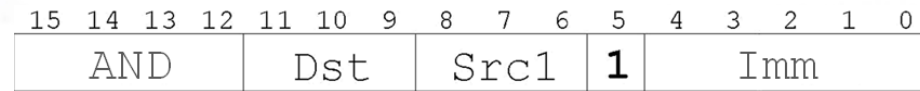
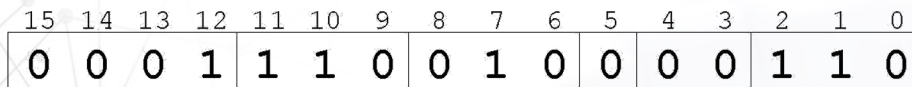
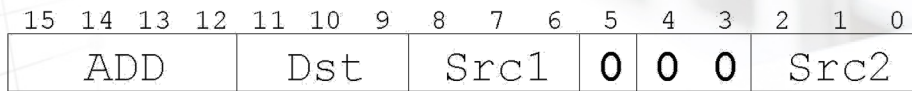


Instruction Processing: EXECUTE

■ Perform the operation, using the source operands.

■ Examples:

- send operands to ALU and assert ADD signal
- do nothing (e.g., for loads and stores)

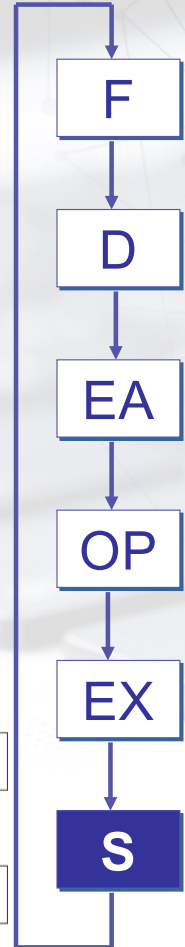
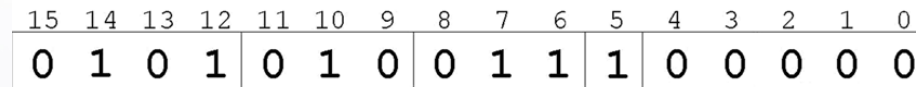
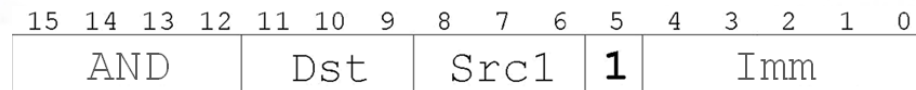
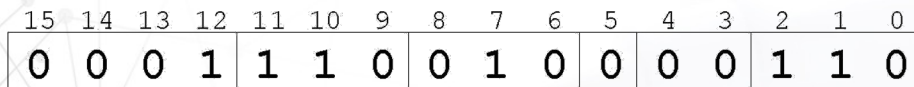
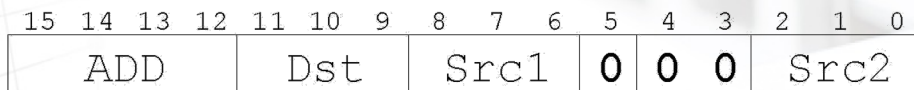


Instruction Processing: **STORE**

■ Write results to destination. (register or memory)

■ Examples:

- result of ADD is placed in destination register
- result of memory load is placed in destination register
- for store instruction, data is stored to memory
 - write address to MAR, data to MDR
 - assert WRITE signal to memory





Changing the Sequence of Instructions

- In the FETCH phase, we incremented the Program Counter by **1**.
- What if we don' t want to always execute the instruction that follows this one?
 - examples: `loop`, `if-then-else`, `function call`
--Need special instructions that change the contents of the PC.
- These are called *jumps* and *branches*.
 - *jumps* are unconditional -- they always change the PC
 - *branches* are conditional -- they change the PC only if some condition is true (e.g., the contents of a register is zero)



Example: LC-3 BR Instruction

- Set the PC to the value $PC + PCoffset$. This becomes the address of the next instruction to fetch.

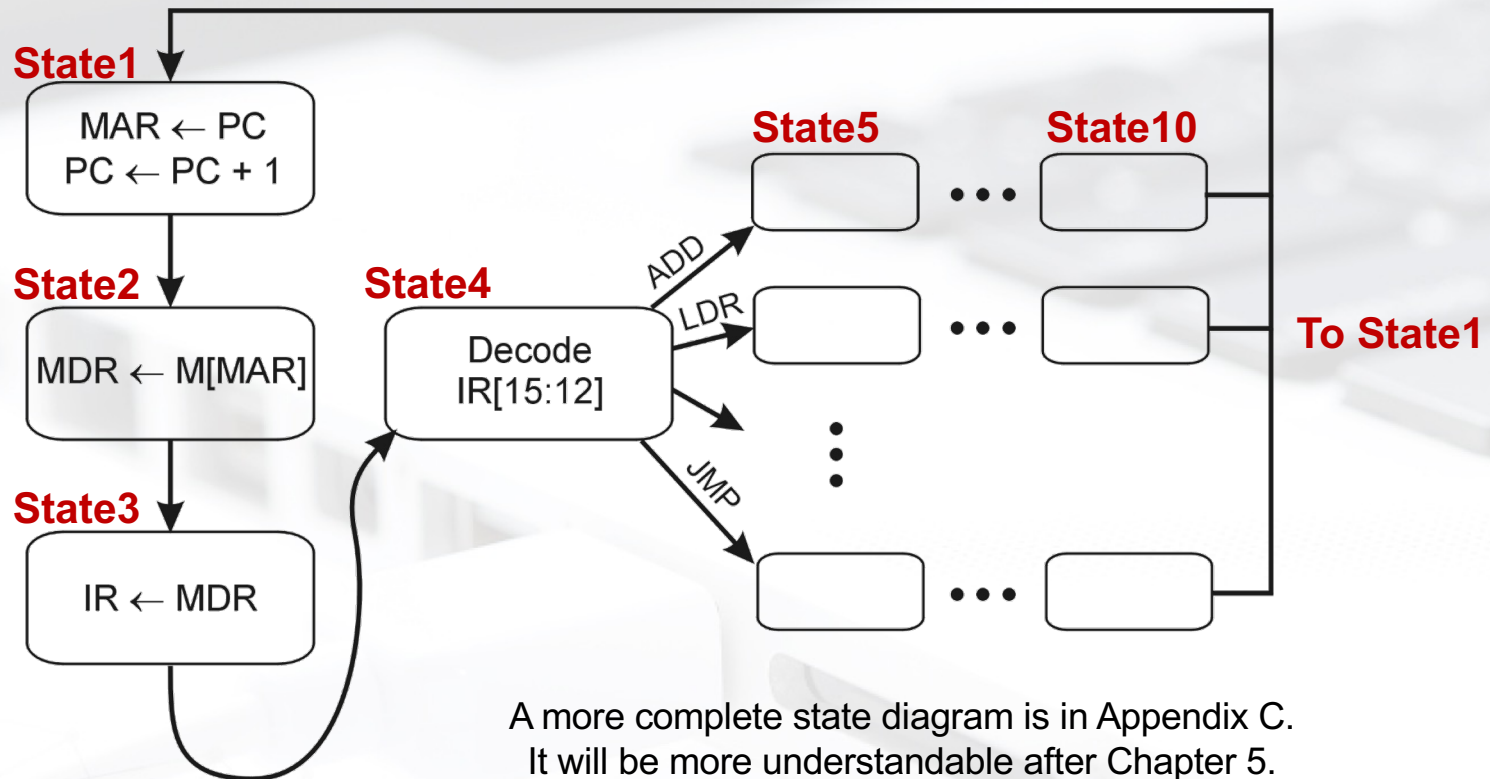
15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
BR				Condition			PCoffset								

15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0

“Load the contents of $(PC + PCoffset)$ into the PC.”

Control of the Instruction Cycle

- The control unit is a state machine. Here is part of a simplified state diagram for the LC-3:



A more complete state diagram is in Appendix C. It will be more understandable after Chapter 5.



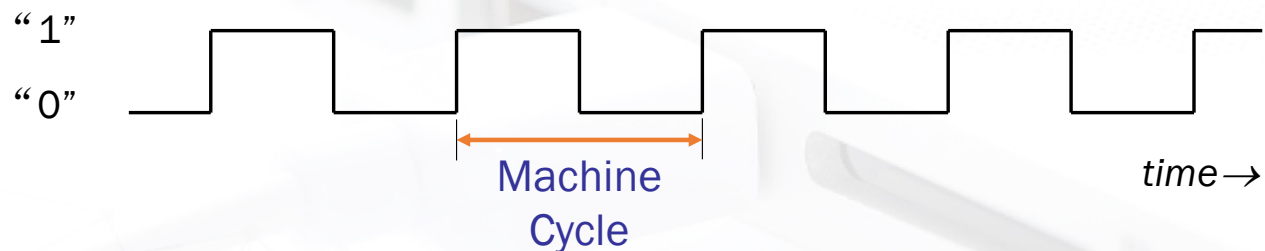
Driving Force: The Clock

■ The clock is a signal that keeps the control unit moving.

- At each clock "tick," **control unit** moves to the next machine cycle
 - may be next instruction or next phase of current instruction.

■ Clock generator circuit:

- Based on crystal oscillator
- Generates regular sequence of "0" and "1" logic levels
- ***Clock Cycle (or Machine Cycle)*** -- rising edge to rising edge





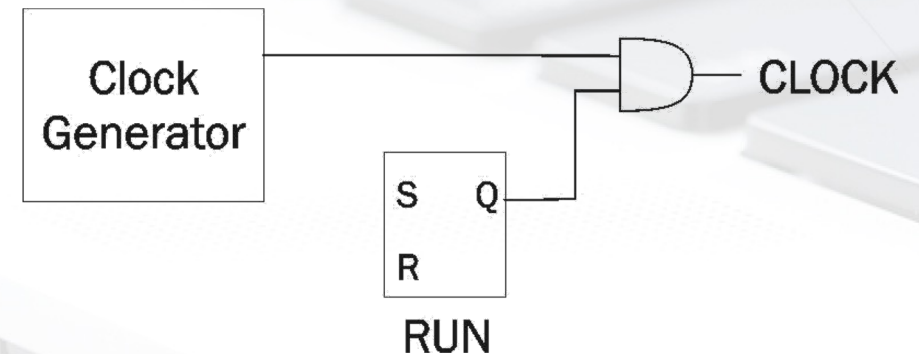
Halting the Computer: Stopping the Clock(by TRAP Instruction)

■ Control unit will repeat instruction processing sequence as long as clock is running.

- If not processing instructions from your application, then it is processing instructions from the Operating System (OS).
- The OS is a special program that manages processor and other resources.

■ To stop the computer

- AND the clock generator signal with ZERO
- when control unit stops seeing the CLOCK signal, it stops processing



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6 Summary

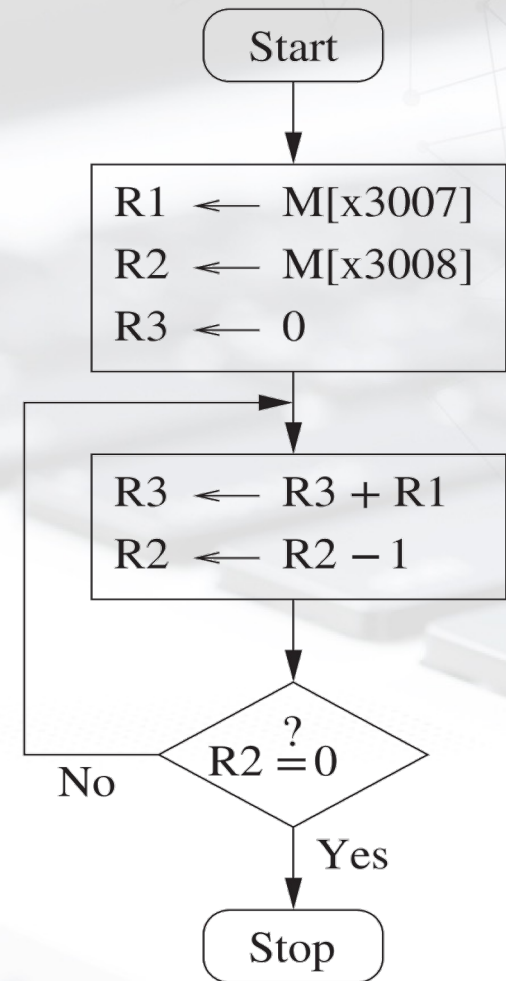
An algorithm for 5 x 4

- We had ADD, AND, LD, BR, HALT(TRAP)
- We had ADD instructions, but did not have multiply instructions. So, we do

$$5 \times 4 = 5 + 5 + 5 + 5$$

$M[x3007]=5$

$M[x3008]=4$



A program that multiplies without a multiply instruction



Address	Instruction											Comments					
x3000	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	$R1 \leftarrow M[x3007]$
x3001	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	$R2 \leftarrow M[x3008]$
x3002	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	$R3 \leftarrow 0$
x3003	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	$R3 \leftarrow R3+R1$
x3004	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	$R2 \leftarrow R2-1$
x3005	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	$BR \text{ not zero } M[x3003]$
x3006	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	HALT
x3007	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	The value 5
x3008	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	The value 4

1 From ENIAC to the Stored Program Computer

2 Basic Components

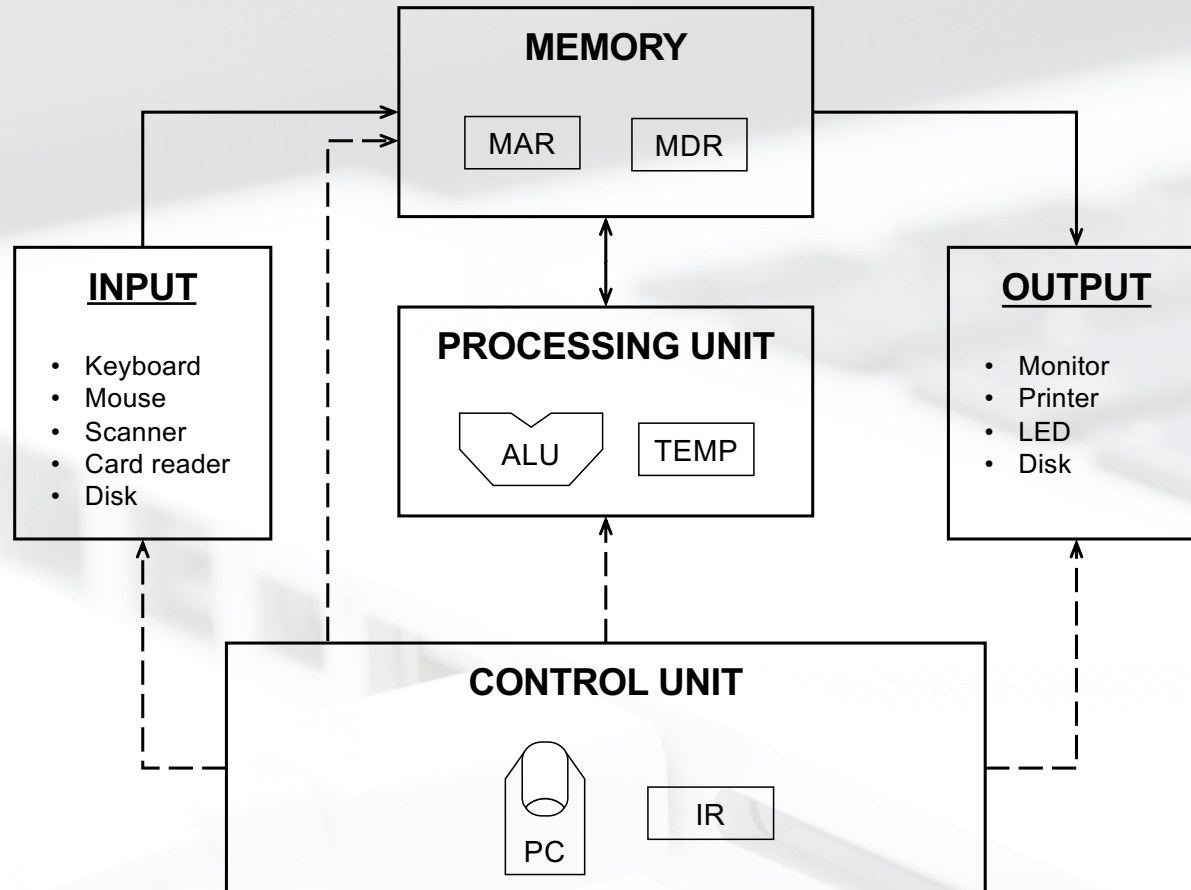
3 The LC-3: An Example von Neumann Machine

4 Instruction Processing

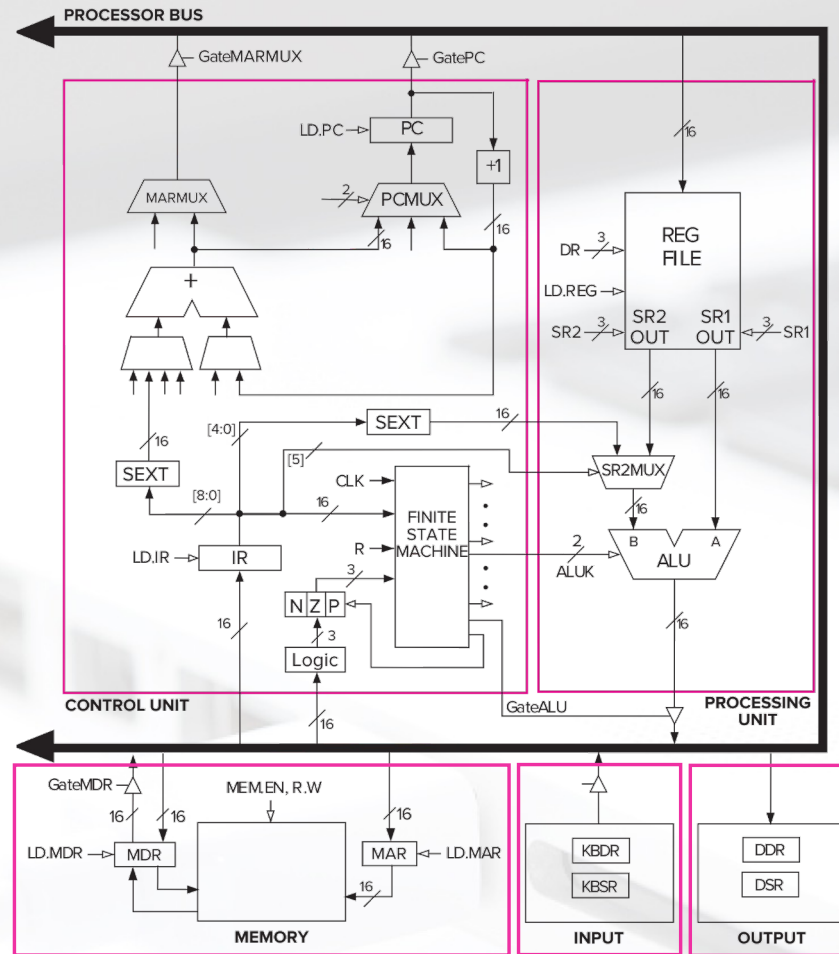
5 Our First Program: A Multiplication Algorithm

6 Summary

Von Neumann Model



LC-3 Data Path





Instruction Processing Summary

■ Instructions look just like data -- it's all interpretation.

■ Three basic kinds of instructions:

- computational instructions (ADD, AND, ...)
- data movement instructions (LD, ST, ...)
- control instructions (JMP, BRnz, ...)

■ Six basic phases of instruction processing:

- not all phases are needed by every instruction
- phases may take variable number of machine cycles

