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 [ijirset@gmail.com](mailto:ijirset@gmail.com)

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# A Study on Von Neumann and Harvard Architectures

Koppula Geetha<sup>1</sup>

Assistant Professor, Department of ECE, SVS Group of Institutions, India<sup>1</sup>

**ABSTRACT:** An instruction set, or instruction set architecture (ISA), is the part of the computer architecture related to programming, including the native data types, instructions, registers, addressing modes, memory architecture, interrupt and exception handling, and external I/O. An ISA includes a specification of the set of opcodes (machine language), and the native commands implemented by a particular processor. To run the application, when power is first turned ON, the microprocessor addresses a predefined location and fetches, decodes, and executes the instruction one after the other. This paper provides a detailed study on von neumann and harvard architectures.

**KEYWORDS:** embedded systems, von Neumann architecture, Harvard architecture

## I. ARCHITECTURES

### Von Neumann Architecture

The Von Neumann architecture was first proposed by a computer scientist John von Neumann. In this architecture, one data path or bus exists for both instruction and data. As a result, the CPU does one operation at a time. It either fetches an instruction from memory, or performs read/write operation on data. So an instruction fetch and a data operation cannot occur simultaneously, sharing a common bus.

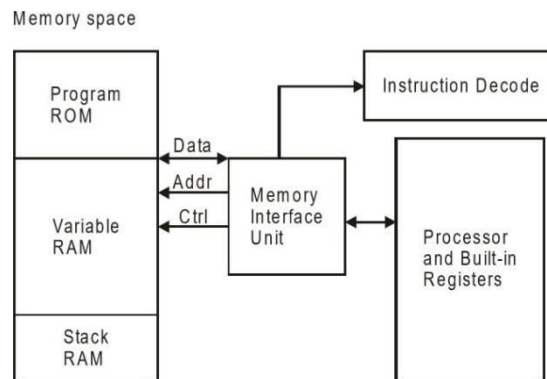


Figure 1: Von-Neumann Architecture

Von-Neumann architectures support simple hardware. It allows the use of a single, sequential memory. Today's processing speeds vastly outpace memory access times, and we employ a very fast but small amount of memory (cache) local to the processor.

### Harvard Architecture

The Harvard architecture offers separate storage and signal buses for instructions and data. This architecture has data storage entirely contained within the CPU, and there is no access to the instruction storage as data. Computers have separate memory areas for program instructions and data using internal data buses, allowing simultaneous access to both instructions and data.

Programs needed to be loaded by an operator; the processor could not boot itself. In a Harvard architecture, there is no need to make the two memories share properties.

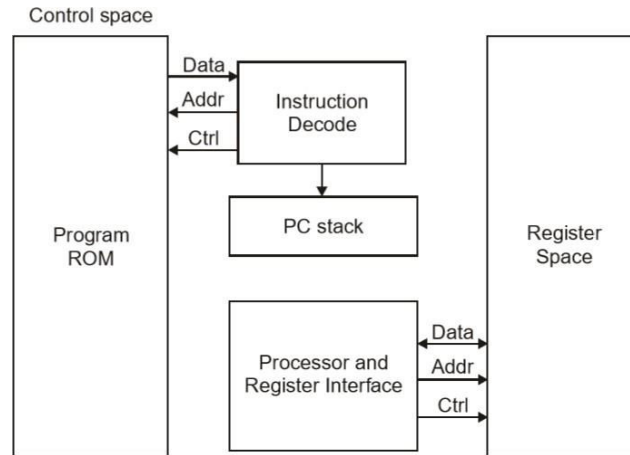


Figure 2: Harvard Architecture

II. PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS AND OPTIMIZATION

Performance or efficiency measures

Performance is a measure of the results achieved. Performance efficiency is the ratio between effort expended and results achieved. The difference between current performance and the theoretical performance limit is the performance improvement zone.

Another way to think of performance improvement is to see it as improvement in four potential areas. First, is the resource INPUT requirements (e.g., reduced working capital, material, replacement/reorder time, and set-up requirements). Second, is the THROUGHPUT requirements, often viewed as process efficiency; this is measured in terms of time, waste, and resource utilization. Third, OUTPUT requirements, often viewed from a cost/price, quality, functionality perspective. Fourth, OUTCOME requirements, did it end up making a difference.

Performance improvement at the operational or individual employee level usually involves processes such as statistical quality control. At the organizational level, performance improvement usually involves softer forms of measurement such as customer satisfaction surveys which are used to obtain qualitative information about performance from the viewpoint of customers.

The difficulty is the significant variability one encounters when running the program.

What input data?

What hardware platform?

What compiler?

What compiler options?

We can focus on several major areas:

Complexity Time

Power consumption

Memory size

Cost

Weight

Other considerations include

Development time



Ease of maintenance

Extensibility

A system is a set of interacting or interdependent components forming an integrated whole<sup>[1]</sup> or a set of elements (often called 'components' ) and relationships which are different from relationships of the set or its elements to other elements or sets

Complexity analysis involves breaking down a user task into a set of constituent steps and then calculating a complexity metric for each step in the task relative to the type of user. Complexity analysis can also be used to provide relative comparisons of complexity between releases of a product.

The complexity of an algorithm is a function describing the efficiency of the algorithm in terms of the amount of data the algorithm must process. Usually there are natural units for the domain and range of this function. There are two main complexity measures of the efficiency of an algorithm:

Time complexity is a function describing the amount of time an algorithm takes in terms of the amount of input to the algorithm. "Time" can mean the number of memory accesses performed, the number of comparisons between integers, the number of times some inner loop is executed, or some other natural unit related to the amount of real time the algorithm will take. We try to keep this idea of time separate from "wall clock" time, since many factors unrelated to the algorithm itself can affect the real time (like the language used, type of computing hardware, proficiency of the programmer, optimization in the compiler, etc.). It turns out that, if we chose the units wisely, all of the other stuff doesn't matter and we can get an independent measure of the efficiency of the algorithm. Space complexity is a function describing the amount of memory (space) an algorithm takes in terms of the amount of input to the algorithm. We often speak of "extra" memory needed, not counting the memory needed to store the input itself. Again, we use natural (but fixed-length) units to measure this. We can use bytes, but it's easier to use, say, number of integers used, number of fixed-sized structures, etc. In the end, the function we come up with will be independent of the actual number of bytes needed to represent the unit. Space complexity is sometimes ignored because the space used is minimal and/or obvious, but sometimes it becomes as important an issue as time.

### III. PERFORMANCE OPTIMIZATION

In order to improve the performance, we must look at the common mistakes that are often made when assessing and trying to improve performance

Common mistakes

Expecting improvement in one aspect of the design to improve the overall performance proportional to improvement.

Using hardware independent metrics to predict performance. Using peak performance  
Comparing performance based on a couple of metrics Using synthetic benchmarks.

High demand input or output operations, with tight timing constraints and high throughput.

Streaming applications including high speed audio and video. With such application, delays in the time domain translate directly to distortion in the frequency domain.

#### Caches and performance

A CPU cache is a cache used by the central processing unit of a computer to reduce the average time to access memory. The cache is a smaller, faster memory which stores copies of the data from frequently used main memory locations. As long as most memory accesses are cached memory locations, the average latency of memory accesses will be closer to the cache latency than to the latency of main memory.

The proportion of accesses that result in a cache hit is known as the hit rate, and can be a measure of the effectiveness of





the cache for a given program or algorithm.

Read misses delay execution because they require data to be transferred from memory much more slowly than the cache itself. Write misses may occur without such penalty, since the processor can continue execution while data is copied to main memory in the background.

Instruction caches are similar to data caches, but the CPU only performs read accesses (instruction fetches) to the instruction cache. (With Harvard architecture and modified Harvard architecture CPUs, instruction and data caches can be separated for higher performance, but they can also be combined to reduce the hardware overhead.)

In computer science, a cache is a component that transparently stores data so that future requests for that data can be served faster. The data that is stored within a cache might be values that have been computed earlier or duplicates of original values that are stored elsewhere. If requested data is contained in the cache (cache hit), this request can be served by simply reading the cache, which is comparatively faster. Otherwise (cache misses), the data has to be recomputed or fetched from its original storage location, which is comparatively slower. Hence, the greater the number of requests that can be served from the cache, the faster the overall system performance becomes.

To be cost efficient and to enable an efficient use of data, caches are relatively small. Nevertheless, caches have proven themselves in many areas of computing because access patterns in typical computer applications have locality of reference. References exhibit temporal locality if data is requested again that has been recently requested already. References exhibit spatial locality if data is requested that is physically stored close to data that has been requested already.

Small memories on or close to the CPU can operate faster than the much larger main memory. Most CPUs since the 1980s have used one or more caches, and modern high-end embedded, desktop and server microprocessors may have as many as half a dozen, each specialized for a specific function. Examples of caches with a specific function are the D-cache and I-cache (data cache and instruction cache).

#### IV. CONCLUSION

Performance improvement is the concept of measuring the output of a particular process or procedure, then modifying the process or procedure to increase the output, increase efficiency, or increase the effectiveness of the process or procedure. The concept of performance improvement can be applied to either individual performance such as an athlete or organizational performance such as a racing team or a commercial enterprise. This paper provided a detailed study on von Neumann and Harvard architectures.

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