The RAM Computation Model

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This is not a programming course.

**Take-away message 1 from this course**

Programming is the last step in software development, which occurs only after the algorithms are clear.

**Take-away message 2**

Computer science is a branch of mathematics with its art reflected in the beauty of algorithms.

- Programming knowledge is not necessary to study algorithms.

**Many people believe that this branch holds the future of mankind.**
In mathematics (and hence, computer science) everything—including every term and symbol—must be rigorous.

Computer science is a subject where we

1 first define a **computation model**, which is a simple yet accurate abstraction of a computing machine;

2 then slowly build up a theory in this model from scratch.
The Random Access Machine (RAM) model

A machine has a **memory** and a **CPU**.

**Memory**

- An infinite **sequence** of **cells**, each of which contains the same number \( w \) of bits.
- Every cell has an **address**: the first cell of memory has address 1, the second cell 2, and so on.
The Random Access Machine (RAM) model

**CPU**

- Contains a fixed number—32 in this course—of **registers**, each of which has \( w \) bits (i.e., same as a memory cell).

![Diagram of CPU registers and addresses](image)
The Random Access Machine (RAM) model

CPU

- Can do the following **atomic operations**: 
  1. **(Register (Re-)Initialization)**
     
     Set a register to a fixed value (e.g., 0, −1, 100, etc.), or to the content of another register.
The Random Access Machine (RAM) model

CPU

- Can do the following 4 **atomic operations**:
  
  2. **(Arithmetic)**
     Take the integers $a, b$ stored in two registers, calculate one of the following and store the result in a register:
     - $a + b$, $a - b$, $a \cdot b$, and $a/b$.

     **Note:** $a/b$ is “integer division”, which returns an integer. For example, $6/3 = 2$ and $5/3 = 1$. 
The Random Access Machine (RAM) model

CPU

- Can do the following 4 **atomic operations**:
  3. *(Comparison/Branching)*
     Take the integers $a, b$ stored in two registers, compare them, and learn which of the following is true:
     - $a < b, a = b, a > b$. 
The Random Access Machine (RAM) model

**CPU**

- Can do the following 4 **atomic operations**:

  4. (Memory Access) Take a memory address $A$ currently stored in a register. Do one of the following:

    - Read the content of the memory cell with address $A$ into another register (overwriting the bits there).

    - Write the content of another register into the memory cell with address $A$ (overwriting the bits there).
An **execution** is a sequence of atomic operations.

Its **cost** (also called its **running time**, or simply, **time**) is the **length** of the sequence, namely, the number of atomic operations.
The Random Access Machine (RAM) model

A **word** is a sequence of $w$ bits, where $w$ is called the **word length**.

- In other words, each memory cell and CPU register store a word.

Unless otherwise stated, you do not need to pay attention to the value of $w$ in this course.
Problem: Suppose that an integer of $n \geq 1$ has already been stored in a register. We want to calculate $1 + 2 + \ldots + n$. The sum should be stored in a register.
Example 1—Our Strategy

Suppose that $n$ is stored in register $a$.
Set register $b$ to 0, $c$ to 1, and $d$ to 1.

Repeat the following until $c > a$:

- Calculate $b + c$, and store the result in $b$.
- Calculate $c + d$, and store the result in $c$ (effectively increasing $c$ by 1).

**Cost of the execution of our strategy = $3n + 3$**

Think: which atomic operations are performed?

We have described our strategy in English words. The next slide shows a different way to describe the same.
Example 1—Our Strategy (Re-stated)

/* n in register a */
1. register b ← 0, c ← 1, d ← 1
2. repeat
3.   b ← b + c
4.   c ← c + d
5. until c > a
6. return b

The above is called pseudocode. As you can see, we are not restricting ourselves to any particular programming languages. The description is in a “free form”, mixing English words and “programming-like” statements as we wish, as long as it serves the purpose of clarifying—without ambiguity—our strategy.
Example 2

Same problem as before.

But this time we will give a faster strategy.
Example 2—Strategy 2

Set register $a$ to 1, and $b$ to 2. Let $c$ be the register storing $n$. Then:

- Set $a$ to $a + c$ (note: $a$ now equals $n + 1$).
- Set $a$ to $a \times c$ (now equals $n(n + 1)$).
- Set $a$ to $a/b$ (now equals $n(n + 1)/2$).

Cost of the execution = 5

This is significantly faster than the previous strategy when $n$ is large. In particular, the time of the previous strategy increases linearly with $n$, while the time of the above one remains constant.
Earlier we have described two different strategies for solving the same problem. Each piece of description is called an algorithm in computer science.

Formally:

- An **input** refers to a way to initialize the registers and memory cells.
- An **algorithm** is a piece of description that, given an input, can be utilized to unambiguously produce a sequence of atomic operations, namely, the **execution** of the algorithm.
- The **cost** of an algorithm is the length of its execution (i.e., the number of atomic operations required).

In other words, we have designed two algorithms solving the same problem. The first algorithm has cost $3n + 3$, while the second has cost 5.
Although we have not talked about how to implement our algorithms into actual programs, now it should be straightforward for you (who must have learned a programming language prior to taking this course) to do so.

Indeed, to design algorithms, a real computer science person never has a programming language in mind. Instead, s/he focuses on the simple abstraction of the RAM model, knowing that once an algorithm is out, implementing it into an actual program is merely a matter of translation and experience.