Computer Architecture Overview

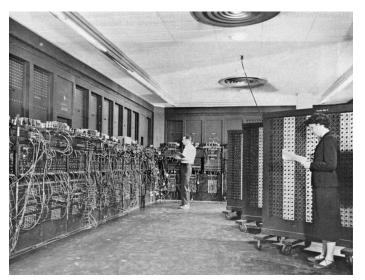
ICS332
Operating Systems

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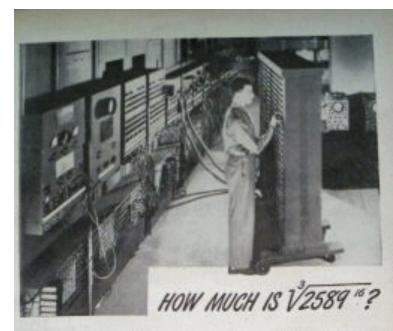
1946: The ENIAC

- The ENIAC (Electronic Numerical Integrator and Computer) was unveiled in 1946
- The first all-electronic, general-purpose digital computer that could be (re)programmed
- Main sponsor: University of Pennsylvania / Ballistic Research Laboratory
 - Designed by Mauchly and Eckert
- First programmers: a team a 6 women during WWII
- Specs
 - □ 17,468 vacuum tubes
 - □ 1,800 sqft
 - □ 30 tons
 - 174 kilowatt of power
 - 1,000-bit memory

The ENIAC in Pictures







The Army's ENIAC can give you the enswer is a fraction of a second!

Thick that's naturage? You death we save of the ENIAC's problem? Beain twisters that if put to paper would run off this page and feet beyond . . . addition, obtraction, multiplication, division—square root, cale root, any root. Selved by an accordible verying system of circuits operating 13,000 electronic pulses and typing the scales at 10 total.

The ENIAC is symbolic of rouny arrating Army derices with a beilliest forme for you! The new Regular Army needs tarn with aptitude for exemitic work, and so are of the first maked in the past-war era, you stand to get in on the ground floor of importure jobs.

YOUR REGULAR ARMY SERVES THE NATION AND MANERING IN WAR AND PEACE which have never before existed. You'll find that an Acrey career pays off.

The most attractive fields are filling quiedly. Our area the usin while the petting's good! 1½, 2 and 3 year callstrasers are open in the Begaler Arony to archifectus young men 18 to 38 :17 with poents' content) who are otherwise qualified. If you ordist for 3 years, you may choose your own branch at the service, of those still open. Get full fetalls at your restreet Army Recording Station.



OCTOBER 1946

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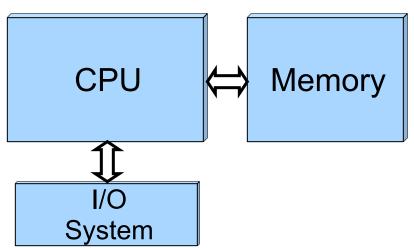
The Von Neumann Architecture

- ENIAC design finalized in 1943
- In 1944, John von Neumann learned about ENIAC and joined the group.
- He wrote a memo about computer architecture, formalizing the ideas that came out of ENIAC and transferring them to a wider audience
- This became the Von Neumann architecture, which we still use today...

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The Von-Neumann Architecture

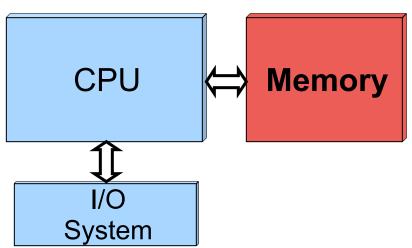
- Three hardware systems
 - A Central Processing Unit (CPU): performs operations and controls the sequence of operations
 - A Memory Unit: stores both code and data
 - Input/Output devices to interact with the machine
- Computers today are still very close to this basic architecture



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The Von-Neumann Architecture

- Three hardware systems
 - A Central Processing Unit (CPU): performs operations and controls the sequence of operations
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The Memory Unit

- Called "Memory" or RAM (Random Access Memory)
- All "information" in the computer is in binary form
 - Since Claude Shannon's M.S. thesis in the 1930's
 - □ 0: zero voltage, 1: positive voltage (e.g., 5V)
 - bit (binary digit): the smallest unit of information (0 or 1)
- The basic unit of memory is a byte
 - 1 Byte = 8 bits, e.g., "0101 1101"
 - □ 1 KiB = 2^{10} byte = 1,024 bytes
 - □ 1 MiB = 2^{10} KiB = 2^{20} bytes (~ 1 Million)
 - □ 1 GiB = 2^{10} MiB = 2^{30} bytes (~ 1 Billion)
 - □ 1 TiB = 2^{10} GiB = 2^{40} bytes (~ 1 Trillion)
 - □ 1 PiB = 2^{10} TiB = 2^{50} bytes (~ 1000 Trillion)
 - □ 1 EiB = 2^{10} PiB = 2^{60} bytes (~ 1 Million Trillion)

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Data Stored in Memory

- Each byte in memory is labeled by a unique address
- An address is a number that identifies the memory location of each byte in memory
 - □ e.g., the byte at address 3 is 00010010
 - e.g., the byte at address 241 is 10110101
- Typically, we write addresses in binary as well
 - e.g., the byte at address 00000011 is 00010010
 - e.g., the byte at address 11110001 is 10110101
- We talk of a byte-addressable memory
- All addresses in RAM have the same number of bits
 - e.g., 8-bit addresses
- The processor has instructions that say "Read the byte at address X and give me its value" and "Write some value into the byte at address X"
- The Memory Unit (Bus + RAM) has the hardware to do this

Example Byte-Addressable RAM with 16-bit addresses

address

0000	0000	0000	0000
0000	0000	0000	0001
0000	0000	0000	0010
0000	0000	0000	0011
0000	0000	0000	0100
0000	0000	0000	0101
0000	0000	0000	0110
0000	0000	0000	0111
0000	0000	0000	1000

content

0110	1110				
1111	0100				
0000	0000				
0000	0000				
0101	1110				
1010	1101				
0000	0001				
0100	0000				
1111	0101				
•••					

. . .

Example Byte-Addressable RAM with 16-bit addresses

	add	ress		content
0000	0000	0000	0000	0110 1110
0000	0000	0000	0001	1111 0100
0000	0000	0000	0010	0000 0000
0000	0000	0000	0011	0000 0000
0000	0000	0000	0100	0101 1110
000	At ad	drood	, 0000	0000 0000 0010
000				0000 0000 0010
000		1e co	ntent	is 0000 0000
0000	0000	0000	1000	1111 0101

Ex

Example Byte-Addressable RAM with 16-bit addresses

address				content
0000	0000	0000	0000	0110 1110
0000	0000	0000	0001	1111 0100
0000	0000	0000	0010	0000 0000
0000	0000	0000	0011	0000 0000
0000	0000	0000	0100	0101 1110
000	At ad	droop		0000 0000 0400
000				0000 0000 0100
000	T.	ne co	ntent	is 0101 1110
0000	0000	0000	1000	1111 0101



Example

Let's consider machine with 8-bit addresses, and a program that does: "At address 1000 0000, store the address of the first 7 (000 0111) in memory"

Addre	SS	Content		
0000	0000	0000	0011	
0000	0001	0010	1010	
0000	0010	1111	0101	
0000	0011	1000	0000	
0000	0100	0000	0111	
0000	0101	1011	1111	
0000	0110	1111	1111	
0000	0111	1101	0000	
		•••		
1000	0000	1010	1101	
1000	0001	1011	0000	

Addre	SS	Content		
0000	0000	0000	0011	
0000	0001	0010	1010	
0000	0010	1111	0101	
0000	0011	1000	0000	
0000	0100	1100	0101	
0000	0101	1011	1111	
0000	0110	1111	1111	
0000	0111	1101	0000	
•••				
1000	0000	0000	0100	
1000	0001	1011	0000	

Example

■ Let's consider machine with 8-bit addresses, and a program that does: "At address 1000 0000, store the address of the first 7 (000 0111) in memory"

Address	Content		Addres	S	Conte	nt
0000 0000	0000 0011				0000	0011
0000 0001					010	1010
0000 001	nyhody co	n toll mo	thon	ama	111	0101
0000 0010 A	Trybody Ca			iaiiie	000	0000
0000 010 O	t the conce	ept this p	rogra	m	100	0101
0000 0101 jr	mplements	?			011	1111
0000 011					111	1111
0000 0111				_	101	0000
	•••		•••		•••	
1000 0000	1010 1101		1000 (0000	0000	0100
1000 0001	1011 0000		1000 (0001	1011	0000

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Indirection

- An address is just information (a number)
- In the previous example, the program implemented indirection
 - The memory content at a memory location is the address of another memory location
 - We call this content a pointer / reference
 - It's just an address, that is, just a number
 - At that address there is some content that presumably we care about
 - In the example, the value '7'
 - But if it was another address, then we'd have a double indirection, and so on...

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Address vs. Values

- It's the job of the programmer to know what memory content means (to the CPU, it's just a bunch of numbers)
- This is a well-known difficulty when writing assembly (ICS312/ICS331)
- High-level programming languages do all this for you, but in C of course you can do whatever you want
 - e.g., on a 64-bit architecture a C pointer is simply an unsigned long

```
unsigned long x = 42;
int *ptr = (int *)x; // bogus pointer
```

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Hardware Instructions

Some high-level pseudo-code

```
Step 1) Set the content of variable A to the content at address 1000 0000 Step 2) Set the content of variable B to the content at address 1000 0001 Step 3) Add A and B together and store the result in A Step 4) Set the content at address 1000 0001 to the contents of A Step 5) Go back to Step 1
```

Assembly translations

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Instruction Encoding

- Instructions are encoded in binary (the "binary code"), based on the specifications of the microprocessor
- Here are some x86 instruction encodings

Instruction	Encoding (hex)	Size
ADD EAX, 1	83C001	3 bytes
ADD EAX, -1	83C0FF	3 bytes
ADD EAX, -100000	056079FEFF	5 bytes
ADD EAX, EBX	01D8	2 bytes

- More instruction leads to larger executable binaries
 - An assembler transforms assembly code into binary code, so assembly programmers typically don't know the binary code for instructions

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Address Space

A program is stored in RAM

Add	ress	Content		Mea	ning
0000	0000	83	ADD	EAX,	1
0000	0001	C0			
0000	0010	01	ADD	EAX,	EBX
0000	0011	D8			
0000	0100	05	ADD	EAX,	-10000
0000	0101	60			
0000	0110	79			
0000	0111	FE			
0000	1000	FF			
• •	•			•	

Address Space

A program is stored in RAM along with data

	Address	Content	Meaning
•	0000 0000	83	ADD EAX, 1
	0000 0001	C0	
	0000 0010	01	ADD EAX, EBX
	0000 0011	D8	
1	0000 0100	05	ADD EAX, -10000
	0000 0101	60	
	0000 0110	79	
	0000 0111	FE	
١	0000 1000	FF	
	• • •		
	1000 0010	61	Character 'a'
	1000 0011	00	Character '\0'
	1000 0100	FF	Integer -1
	1000 0101	FF	
	1000 0110	FF	
	1000 0111	FF	
		1	l

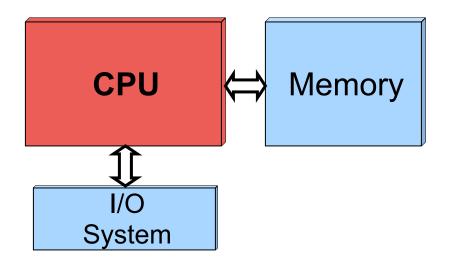
Address Space

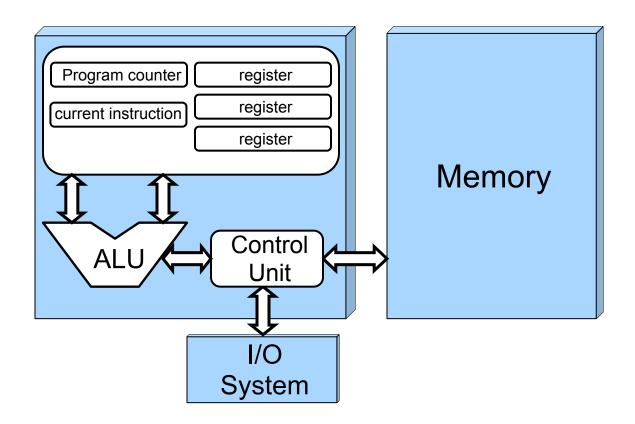
A program is stored in RAM along with data

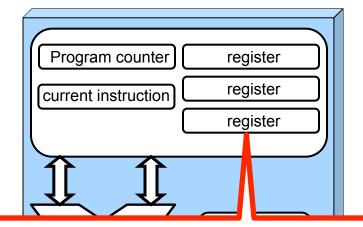
	Address	Content	Meaning
1	0000 0000	83	ADD EAX, 1
	0000 0001	C0	
1	0000 0010	01	ADD EAX, EBX
	0000 0011	D8	
\	0000 0100	05	ADD EAX, -10000
	0000 0101	60	
	0000 0110	79	
	0000 0111	FE	
\	0000 1000	FF	
,			
	1000 0010	61	Character 'a'
	1000 0011	00	Character '\0'
	1000 0100	FF	Integer -1
	1000 0101	FF	
	1000 0110	FF	
	1000 0111	FF	

- All the bytes in RAM that "belong" to the program are called the program's address space
- This address space contains the code and the data
 - And other things we'll see later

The CPU







Registers: values that hardware instructions work with

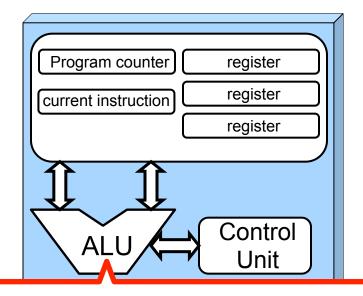
Data can be loaded from memory into a register

Data can be stored from a register back into memory

Operands and results of computations are ALL in registers

Accessing a register is really fast

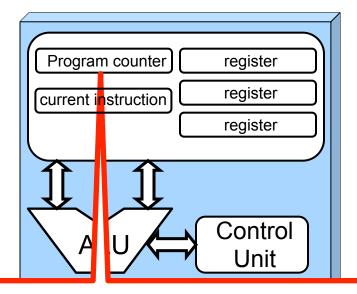
There is a limited number of registers (which will make our life a bit difficult)



Arithmetic and Logic Unit: what you do computation with

used to compute a value based on current register values and store the result back into a register

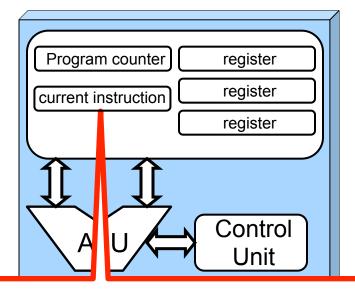
+, *, /, -, OR, AND, XOR, etc.



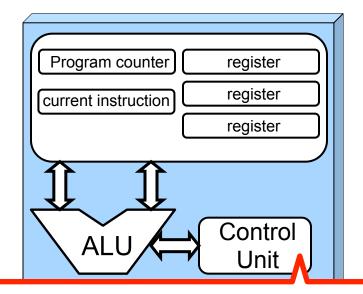
Program Counter: Points to the next instruction

Special register that contains the address in memory of the next instruction that should be executed

(gets incremented after each instruction, or can be set to whatever value whenever there is a change of control flow)



Current Instruction: Holds the instruction that's currently being executed



Control Unit: Decodes instructions and make them happen

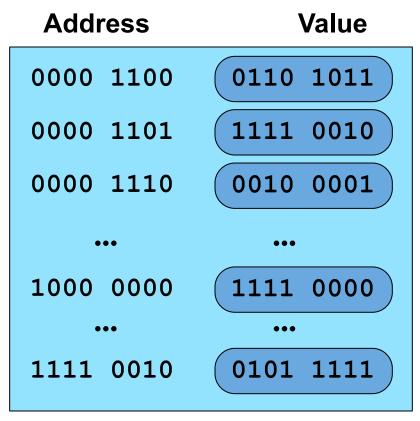
Logic hardware that decodes instructions (i.e., based on their bits) and sends the appropriate (electrical) signals to hardware components in the CPU

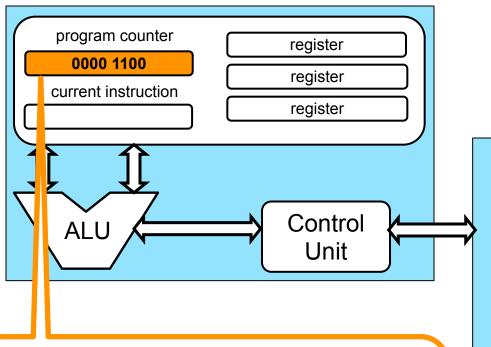
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Fetch-Decode-Execute Cycle

- The Fetch-Decode-Execute cycle
 - The control unit fetches the next program instruction from memory
 - Using the program counter to figure out where that instruction is located in the memory
 - The control unit decodes the instruction and signals are sent to hardware components
 - e.g., is the instruction loading something from memory? is it adding two register values together?
 - The instruction is executed
 - Operands are fetched from memory and put in registers, if needed
 - The ALU executes computation, if any, and stores the computed results in the registers
 - Register values are stored back to memory, if needed
 - Repeat
- Computers today implement MANY variations on this model
- But one can still program with the above model in mind
 - But then without understanding performance issues

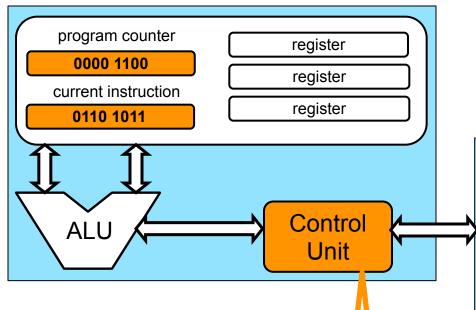






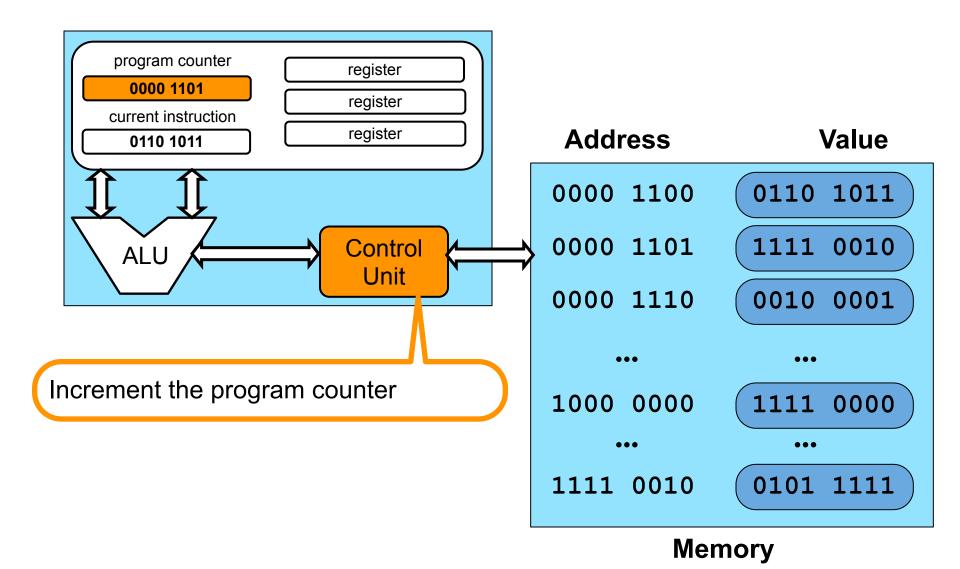
Somehow, the program counter is initialized to some content, which is an address (done by the OS)

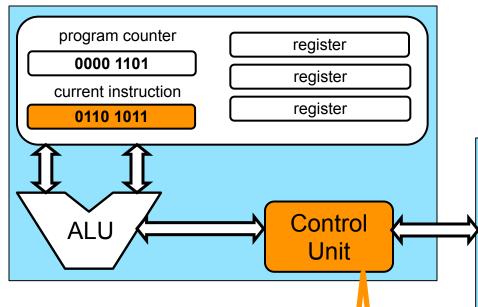




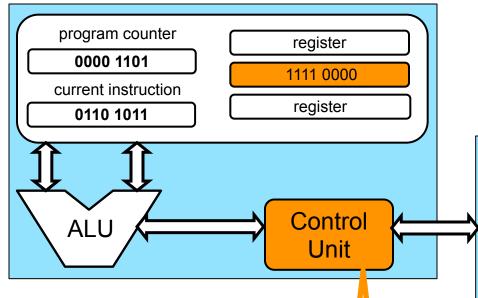
Fetch the content (instruction) at address 0000 1100, which is "0110 1011", and store it in the "current instruction" register



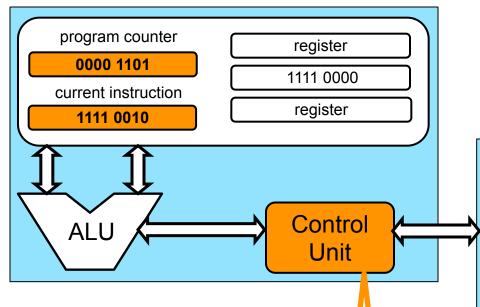




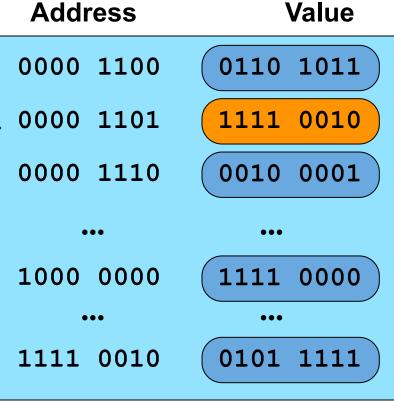
Decode instruction "0110 1011". Let's pretend it means: "Load the value at address 1000 0000 and store it in the second register"



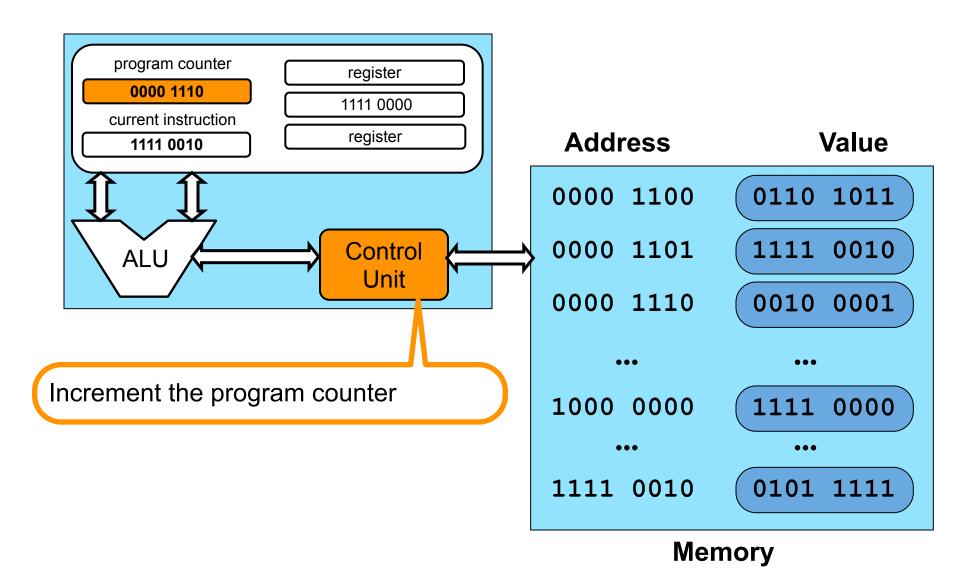
Send signals to all hardware components to execute the instruction: load the value at address 1000 0000, which is "1111 0000" and store it in the second register



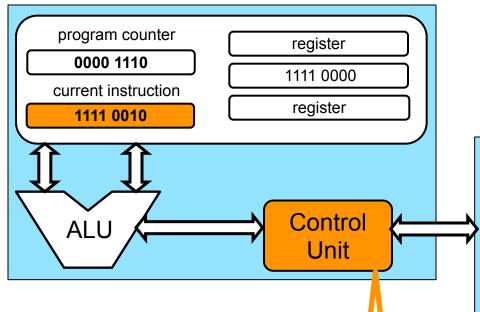
Fetch the content (instruction) at address 0000 1101, which is "1111 0010", and store it in the "current instruction" register







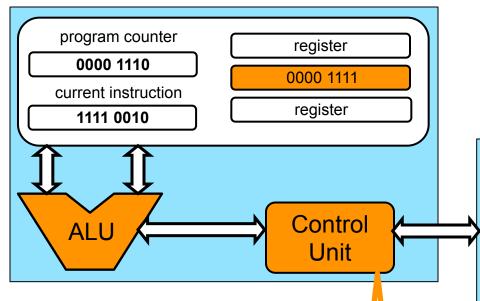




Decode instruction "1111 0010". Let's pretend it means: "Do a logical NOT on the second register"

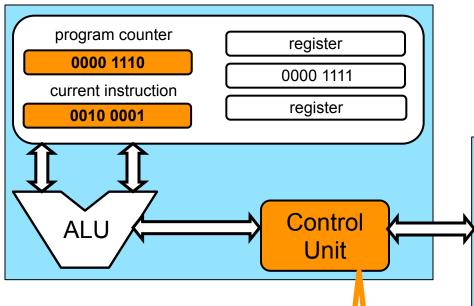
Memory

Fetch-Decode-Execute

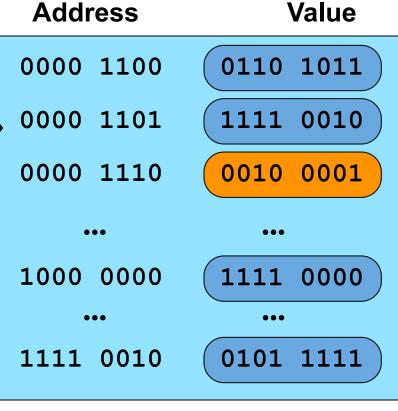


Send signals to all hardware components to execute the instruction: do a logical NOT on the second register

Fetch-Decode-Execute

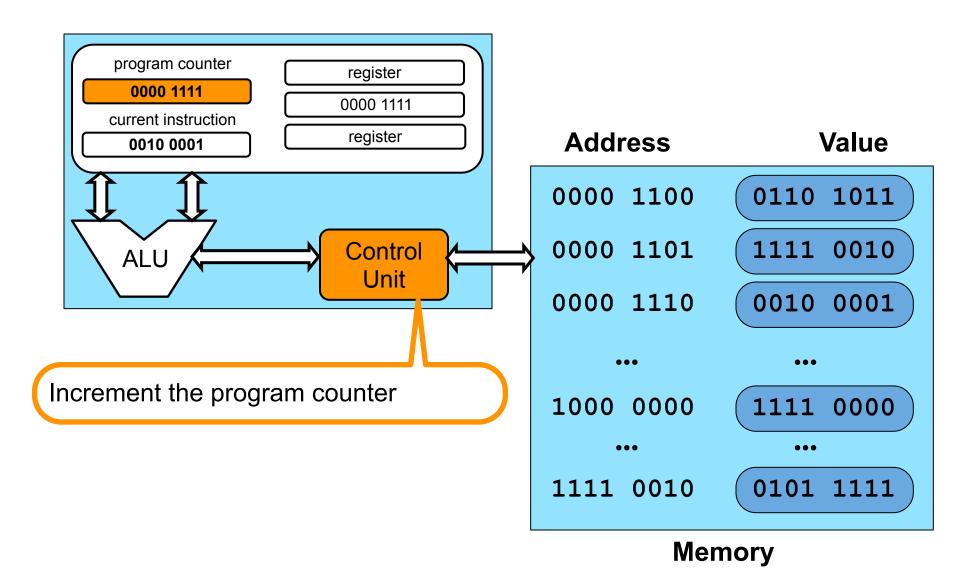


Fetch the content (instruction) at address 0000 1110, which is "0010 0001", and store it in the "current instruction" register

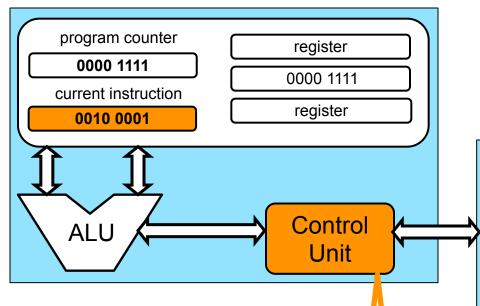


Memory





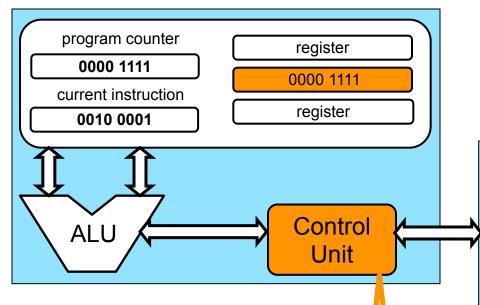




Decode instruction "0010 0001". Let's pretend it means: "Store the value in the second register to memory at address 1111 0010"

Memory

Fetch-Decode-Execute



Send signals to all hardware components to execute the instruction: store the value in the second register, which is 0000 1111, to memory at address 1111 0010

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Fetch-Decode-Execute

- This is only a simplified view of the way things work
- The "control unit" is not a single thing
 - Control and data paths are implemented by several complex hardware components
- There are multiple ALUs, there are caches, there are multiple CPUs in fact ("cores")
- Execution is pipelined: e.g., while one instruction is fetched, another one is being executed
- Decades of computer architecture research have gone into improving performance, thus often leading to staggering hardware complexity
 - Doing smart things in hardware requires more logic gates and wires, thus increasing processor cost
- But conceptually, fetch-decode-execute is it



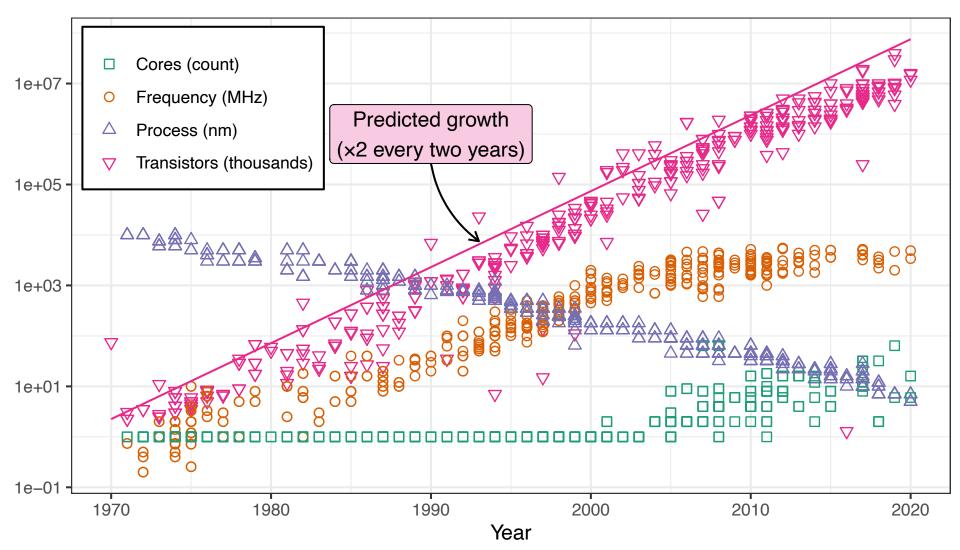
Multi-Core

- What we have described is what happens in a single core
- But nowadays all our machines are multicore (e.g., my laptop has 10 cores)
- Let's see why that is...

Moore's Law

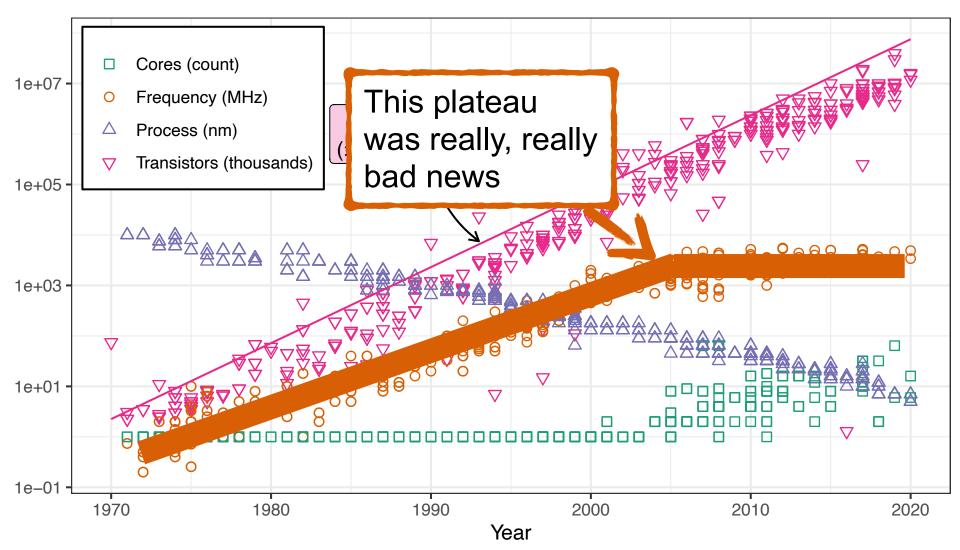
- In 1965, Gordon Moore (co-founder of Intel) predicted that transistor density of semiconductor chips would double roughly every 24 months (often "misquoted" as 18 months)
- He was right
- But, the law was often wrongly interpreted as:
 "Computers get twice as fast every 2 years"
- This wrong interpretation was true for a while, but no longer...

50-year Trend



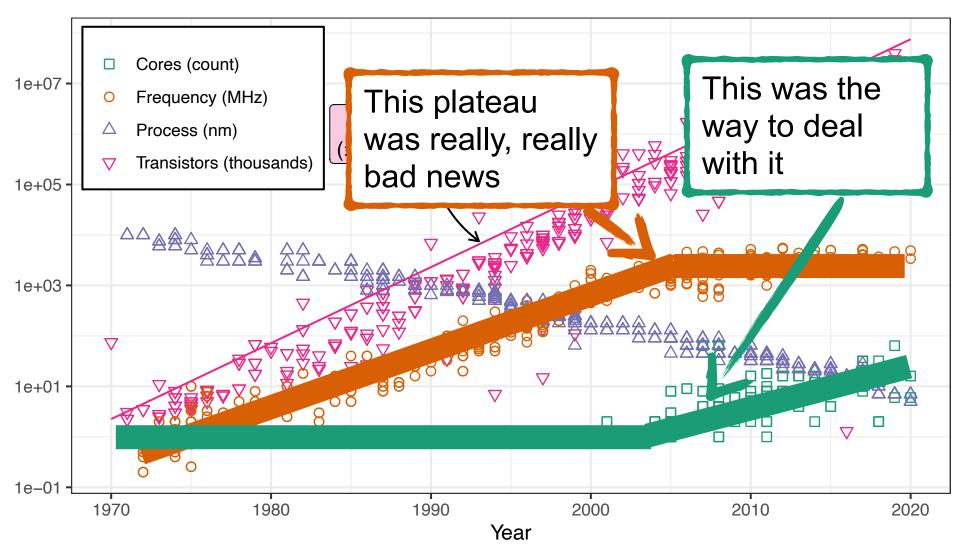
Plot inspired from the work of Pedro Bruel, generated with data from Wikipedia [Wik21a; Wik21b].

50-year Trend



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50-year Trend



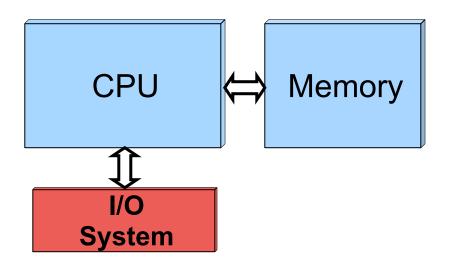
Plot inspired from the work of Pedro Bruel, generated with data from Wikipedia [Wik21a; Wik21b].

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Multi-core Chips

- Constructors cannot increase clock rate further
 - Power/heat issues
- They bring you multi-core processors
 - Multiple "low" clock rate processors on a chip
- It's really a solution to a problem, not a cool new advance
- Most developers would rather have a 100GHz core than 50 2GHz cores
 - In which case we would not need to write concurrent programs
- But we don't have 100GHz cores, which is why you should take ICS 432:)

I/O







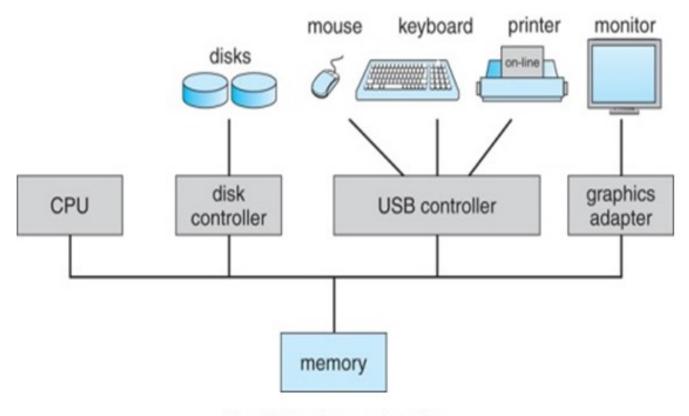


Figure 1.2 A modern computer system.

[reproduced from Operating Systems Concepts (Silberschatz, Galvin, Gagne)]

- We've all used may I/O devices (screens, keyboard, disks, ..)
- These all have their specific hardware controllers
- That's all I am going to say for now



Conclusion

- Computer Architecture is obviously a very large topic
- If you want to know more
 - Take a computer architecture course
 - Classic Textbook: Computer
 Organization and Design, Fourth
 Edition: The Hardware/Software
 Interface (Patterson and
 Hennessy, Morgan Kaufmann)
- Let's now talk more about memory...

