Computer Architecture Overview

ICS332

Operating Systems

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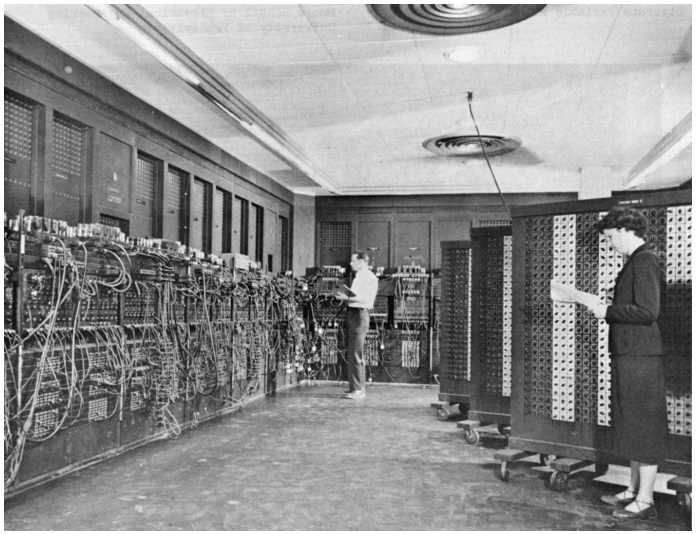
1946: The ENIAC

- 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



HOW MUCH IS $\sqrt[3]{2589}^{16}$?

The Army's ENIAC can give you the answer in a fraction of a second!

Think that's a stumper? You should see some of the ENIAC's problems! Brain twisters that if put to paper would run off this page and feet beyond . . . addition, subtraction, multiplication, division—square root, cube root, any root. Solved by an incredibly complex system of circuits operating 18,000 electronic tubes and tipping the scales at 30 tons!

The ENIAC is symbolic of many amazing Army devices with a brilliant future for you! The new Regular Army needs men with aptitude for scientific work, and as one of the first trained in the post-war era, you stand to get in on the ground floor of important jobs which have never before existed. You'll find that an Army career pays off.

The most attractive fields are filling quickly. Get into the swim while the getting's good! 1½, 2 and 3 year enlistments are open in the Regular Army to ambitious young men 18 to 34 (17 with parents' consent) who are otherwise qualified. If you enlist for 3 years, you may choose your own branch of the service, of those still open. Get full details at your nearest Army Recruiting Station.

YOUR REGULAR ARMY SERVES THE NATION AND MANKIND IN WAR AND PEACE

A GOOD JOB FOR YOU

U. S. Army

CHOOSE THIS FINE PROFESSION NOW!

OCTOBER 1946

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…

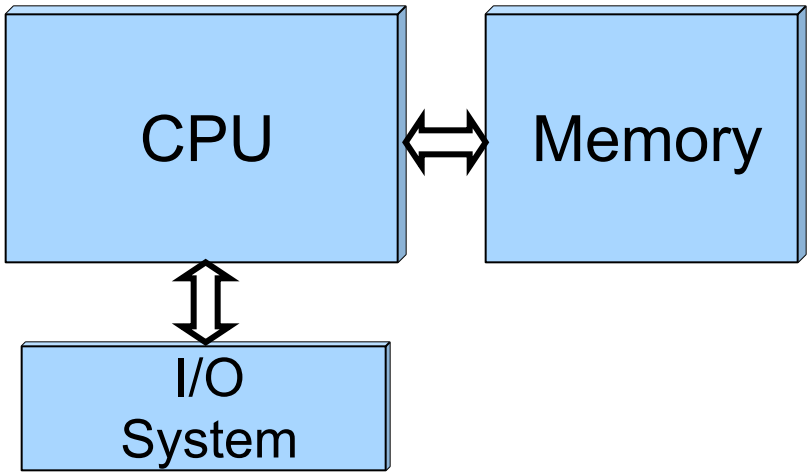
Disclaimer

- Several of the next few slides may also have been show in ICS332
  - Because ICS312 and ICS332 are not in a prerequisite chain
- So you may have seen them before
- Or you may see them again

- Regardless, it's good to be reminded of computer architecture basics!

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



The Von-Neumann Architecture

- Three hardware systems
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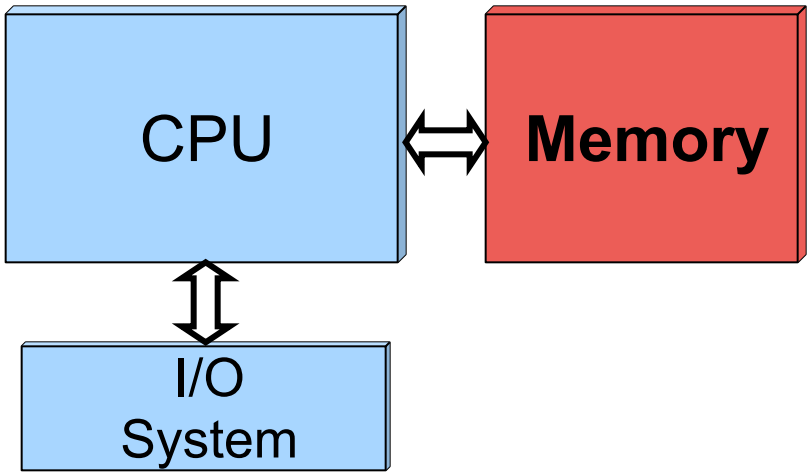


The Memory Unit

- 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)
  - ...

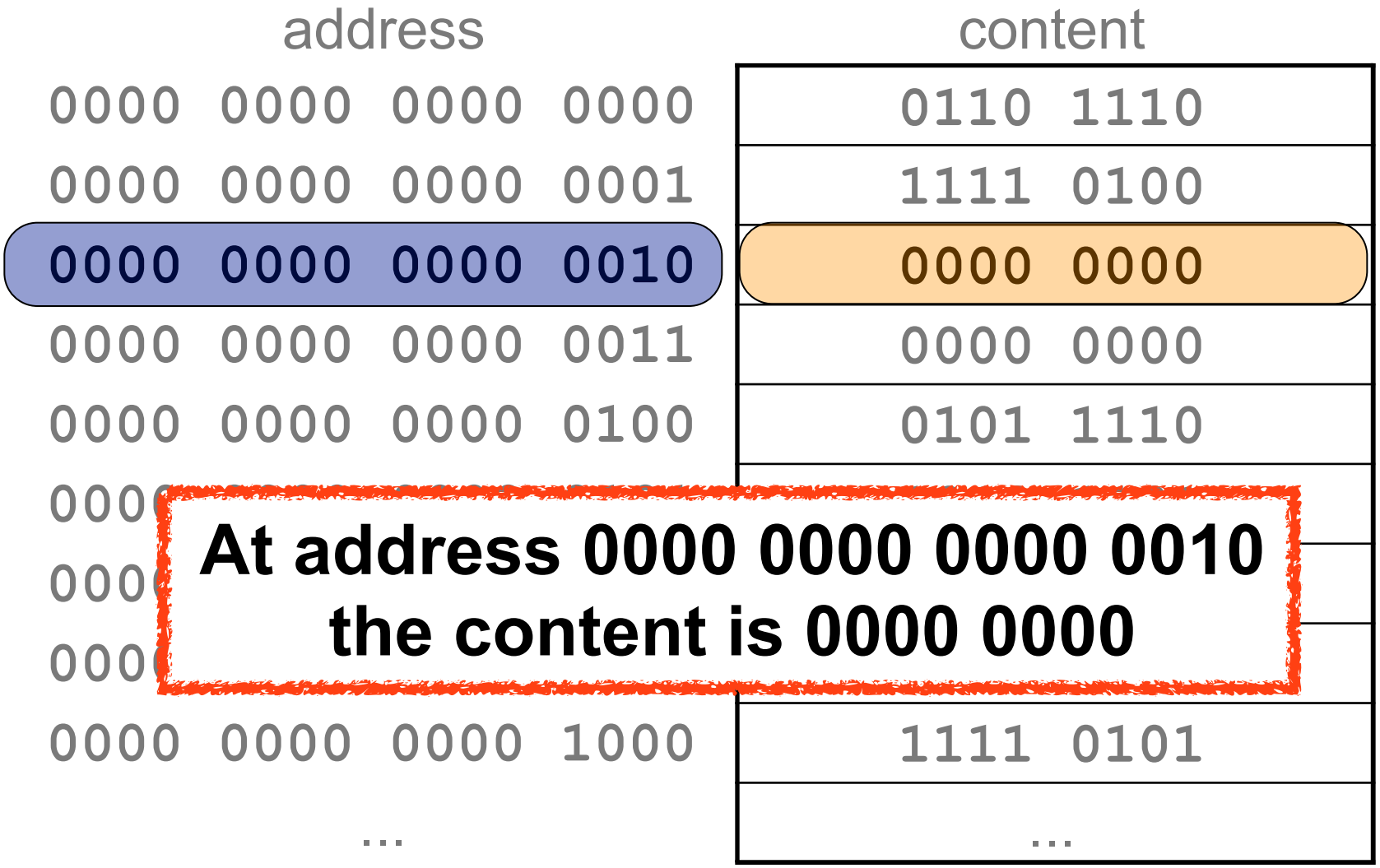
Data Stored in Memory

- 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

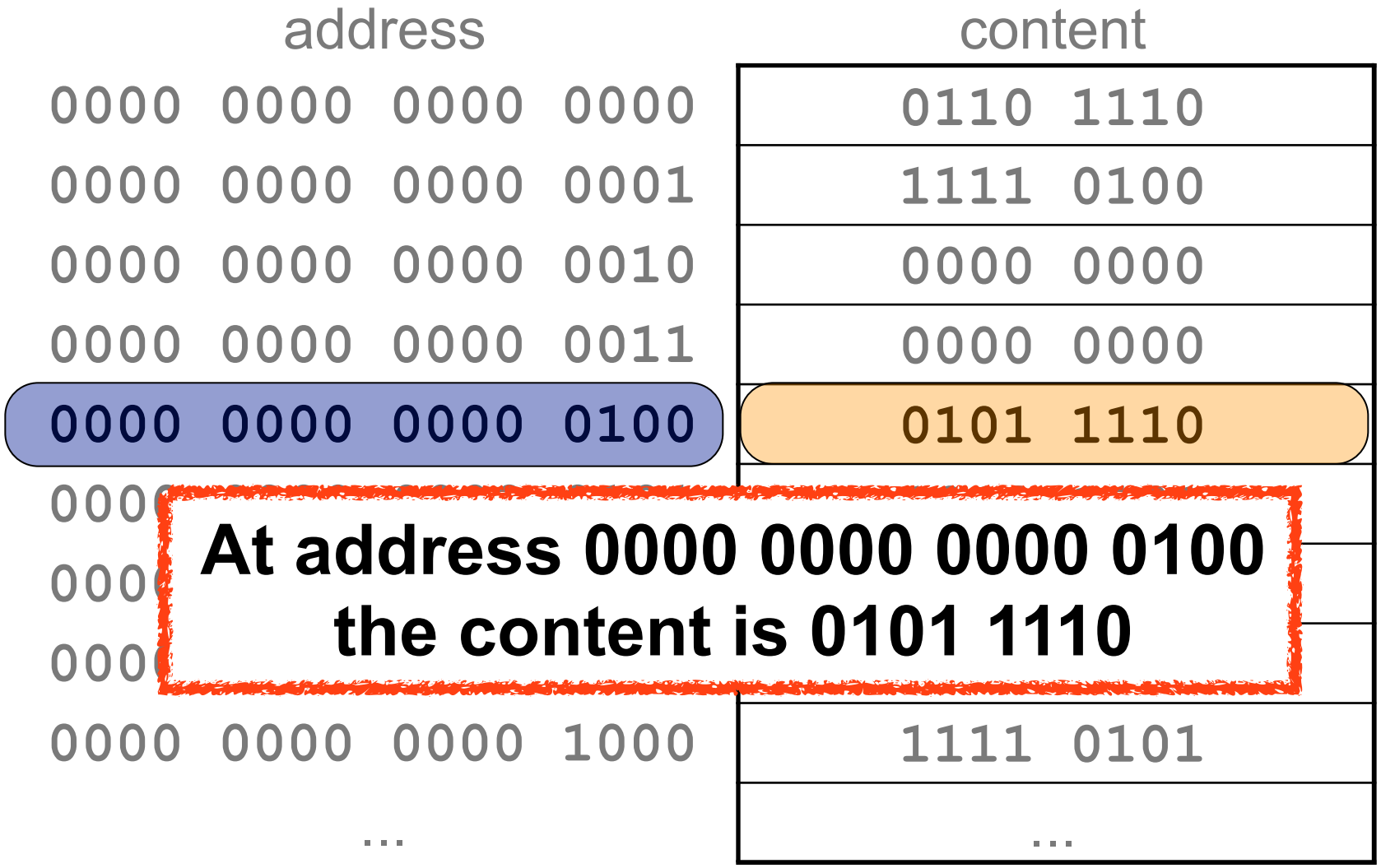
Example Byte-Addressable RAM with 16-bit addresses

address	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
0000 0000 0000 0101	1010 1101
0000 0000 0000 0110	0000 0001
0000 0000 0000 0111	0100 0000
0000 0000 0000 1000	1111 0101
…	…

Example Byte-Addressable RAM with 16-bit addresses



Example Byte-Addressable RAM with 16-bit addresses

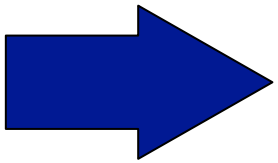


At address 0000 0000 0000 0100 the content is 0101 1110

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 (i.e., value 0000111) in memory"

Address	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



Address	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 (i.e., value 0000111) in memory"

Address	Content
0000 0000	0000 0011
0000 0001	
0000 0010	
0000 0011	
0000 0100	
0000 0101	
0000 0110	
0000 0111	
…	…
1000 0000	1010 1101
1000 0001	1011 0000

Anybody can tell me the name of the concept this program implements?

Address	Content
0000 0000	0000 0011
	010 1010
	111 0101
	000 0000
	100 0101
	011 1111
	111 1111
	101 0000
…	…
1000 0000	0000 0100
1000 0001	1011 0000

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…

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
```

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 0010 to the contents of A
Step 5) Go back to Step 1
```

- Assembly translations

```
// MIPS-like (ICS 331)
S1: LOAD A, (1000 0000)
S2: LOAD B, (1000 0001)
S3: ADD A,B
S4: STORE A, (1000 0010)
S5: JMP S1
```

```
// x86-like (ICS 312)
S1: MOV AL, [1000 0000]
S2: MOV BL, [1000 0001]
S3: ADD AL, BL
S4: MOV [1000 0010], AL
S5: JMP S1
```

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
SUB ECX, EDX	29D1	2 bytes
ADD EAX, -1	83C0FFFFFFFF	6 bytes
ADD AX, 2	050200	3 bytes

- More instructions 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

Address Space

- A program is stored in RAM

code

Address	Content	Meaning
0000 0000	29	SUB ECX, EDX
0000 0001	D1	
0000 0010	05	ADD AX, 2
0000 0011	02	
0000 0100	00	
0000 0101	83	ADD EAX, -10000
0000 0110	C0	
0000 0111	FF	
0000 1000	FF	
0000 1001	FF	

Address Space

- A program is stored in RAM along with data

	Address	Content	Meaning
code	0000 0000	29	SUB ECX, EDX
	0000 0001	D1	
	0000 0010	05	ADD AX, 2
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	0000 0100	00	
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	0000 0110	C0	
	0000 0111	FF	
	0000 1000	FF	
	0000 1001	FF	
	. . .	. . .	. . .
data	1000 0010	61	Character 'a'
	1000 0011	00	Character '\0'
	1000 0100	FF	Integer -1
	1000 0101	FF	
	1000 0110	FF	
	1000 0111	FF	
	. . .	. . .	. . .

Address Space

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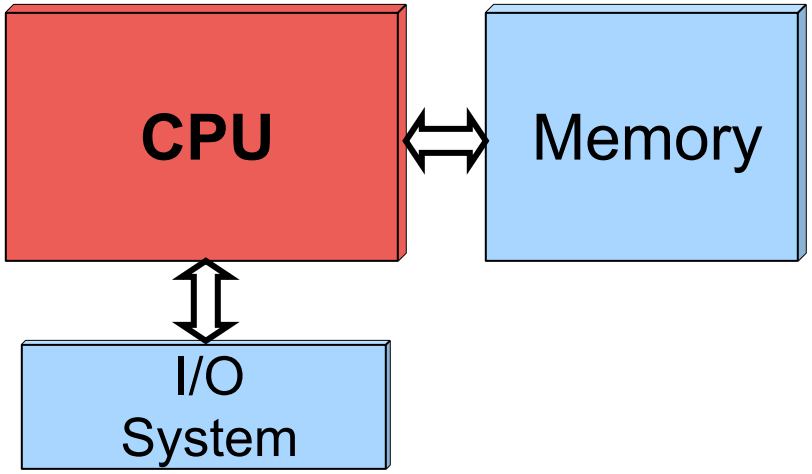
	1000 0100	FF	Integer -1
	1000 0101	FF	
	1000 0110	FF	
	1000 0111	FF	
	. . .	. . .	. . .

- 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



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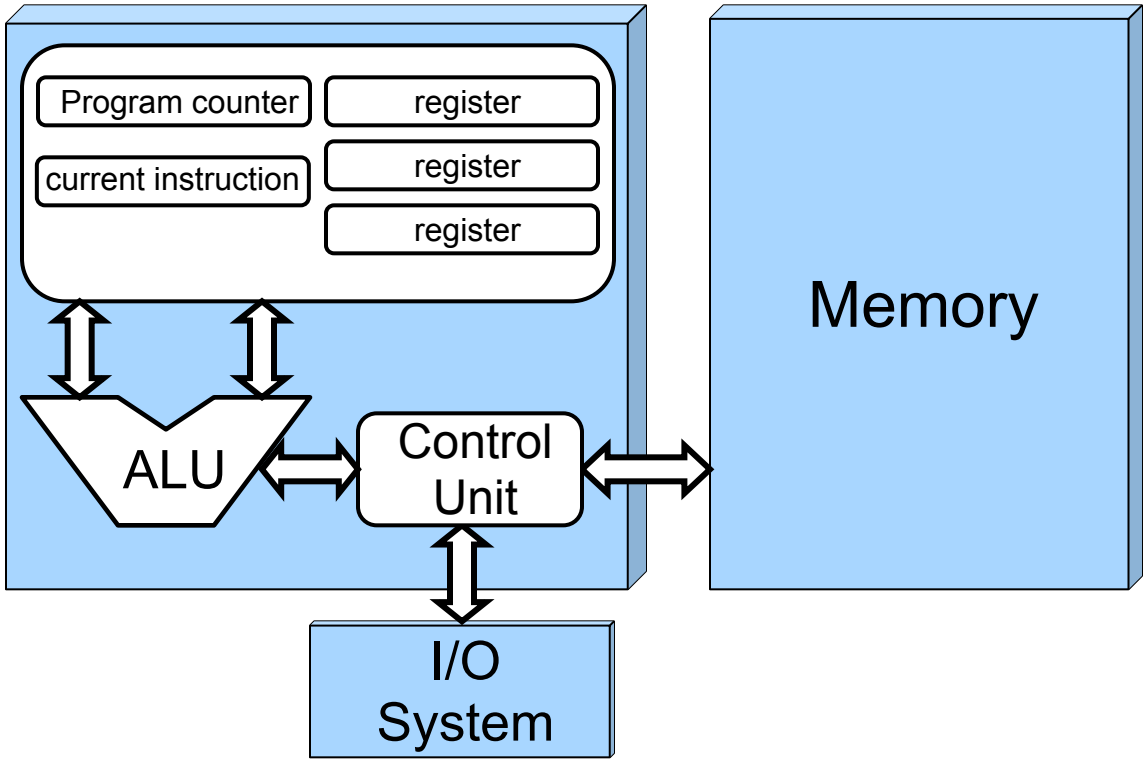
What's in the CPU?



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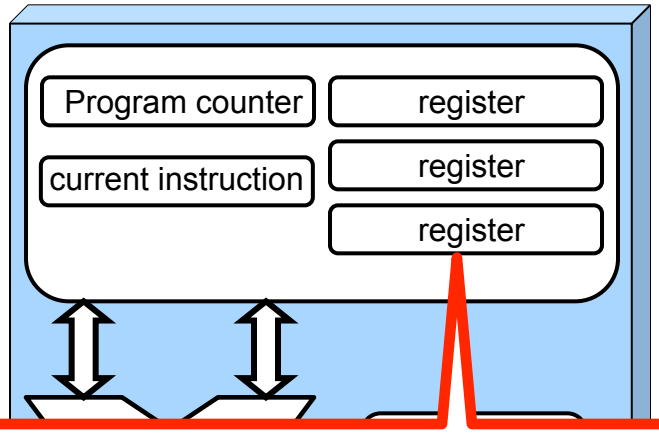
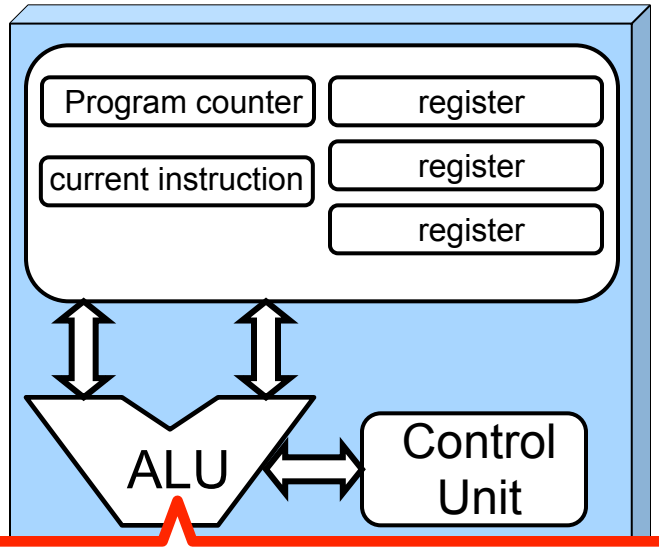


Registers: values that hardware instructions work with

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)

What's in the CPU?

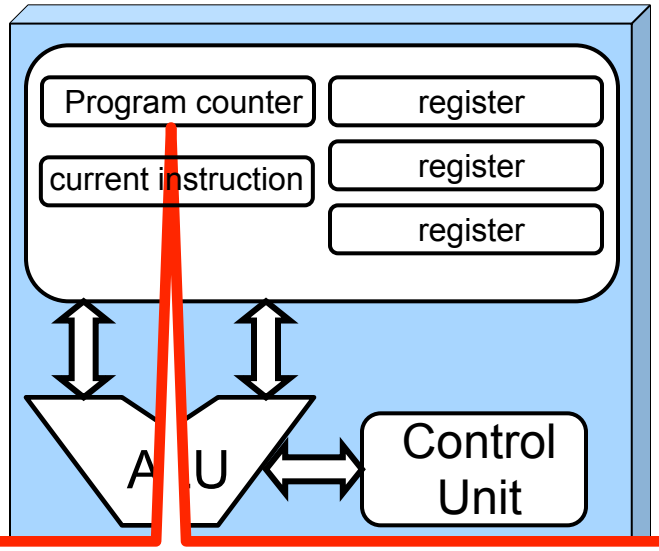


Arithmetic and Logic Unit: what you do computation with

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

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

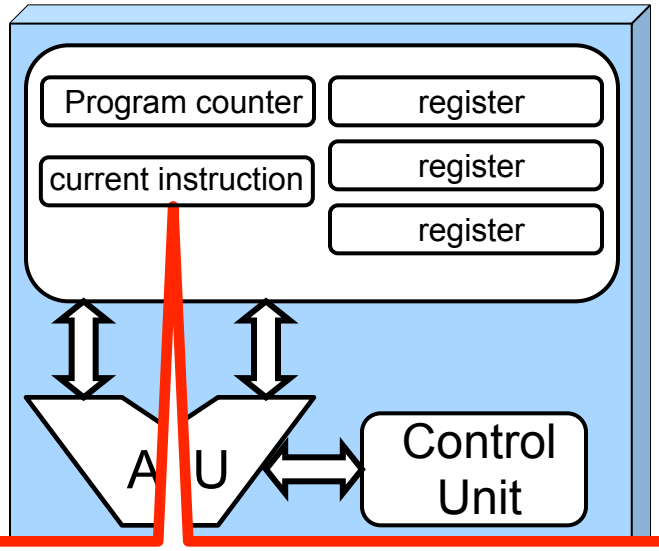
What's in the CPU?



Program Counter: Points to the next instruction

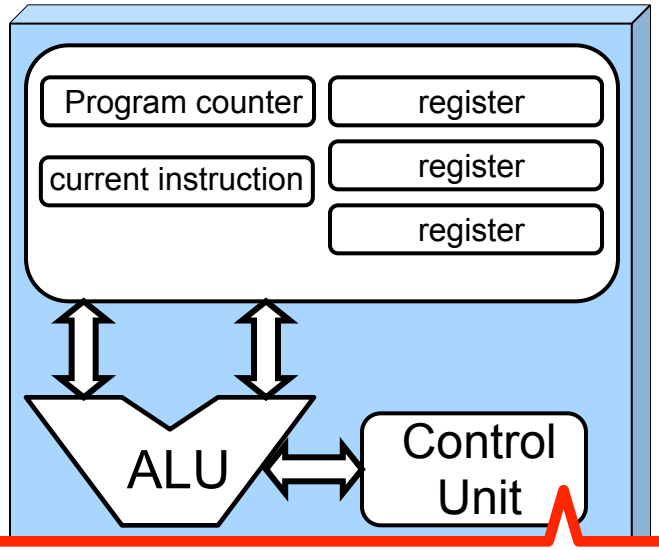
Special register that contains the address in memory of the next instruction that should be executed
(gets incremented after each instruction, or can be set to whatever value whenever there is a change of control flow)

What's in the CPU?



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

What's in the CPU?



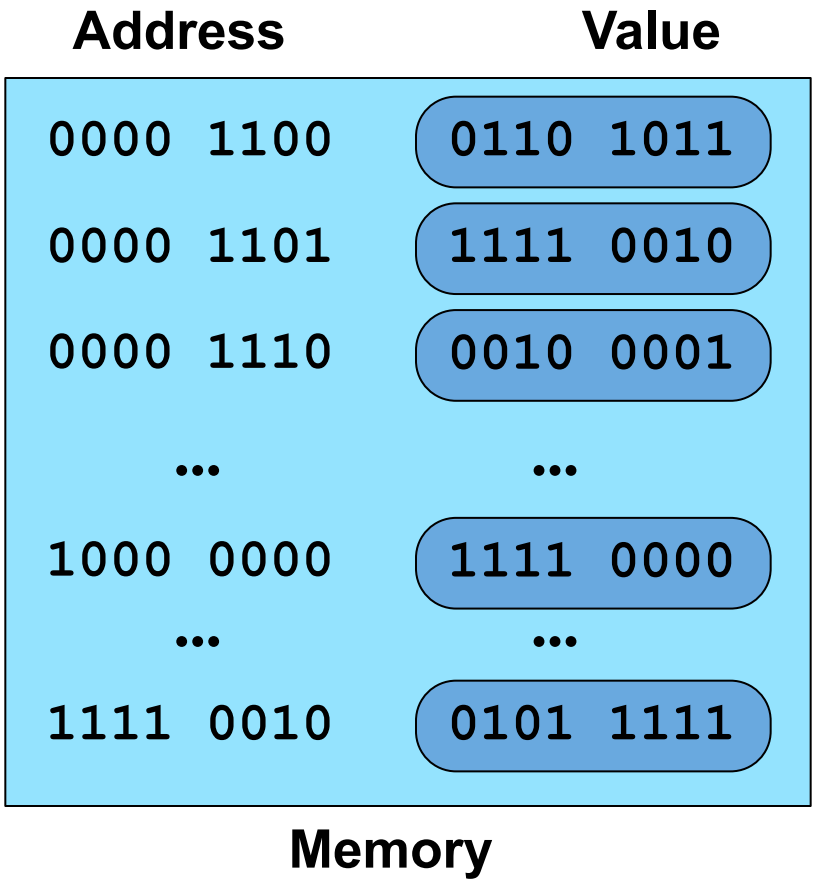
Control Unit: Decodes instructions and make them happen

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

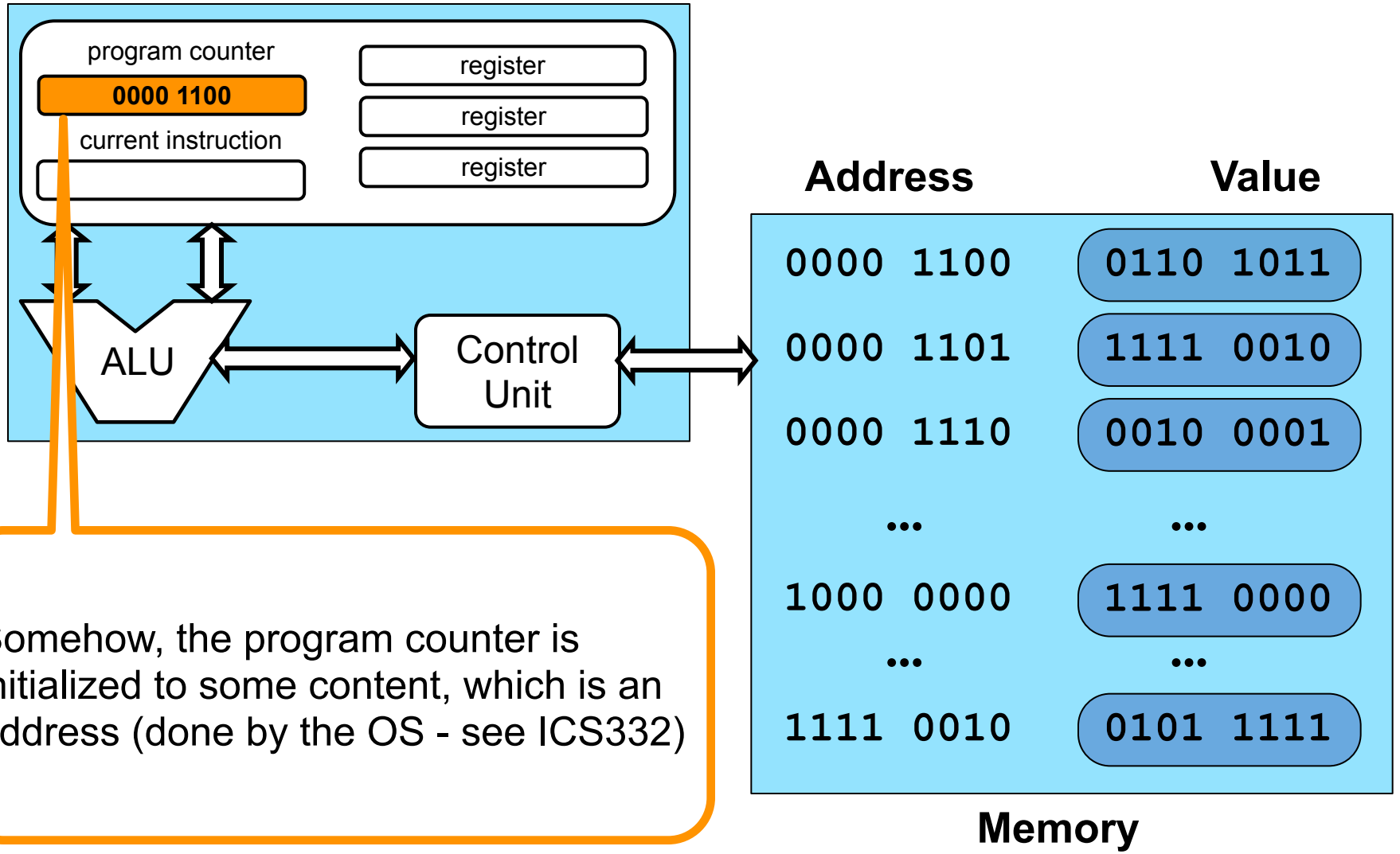
Fetch-Decode-Execute Cycle

- 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

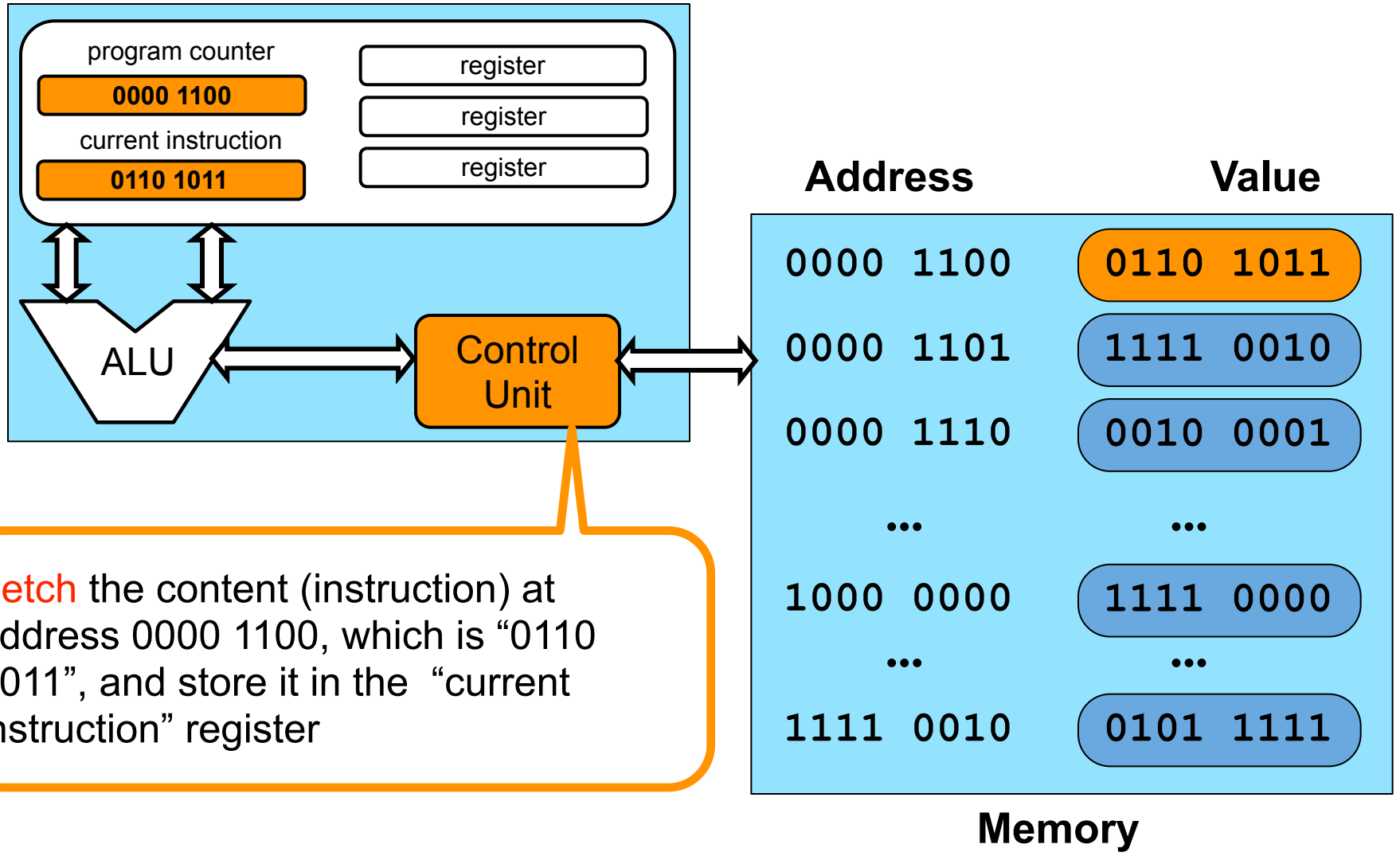
Fetch-Decode-Execute



Fetch-Decode-Execute

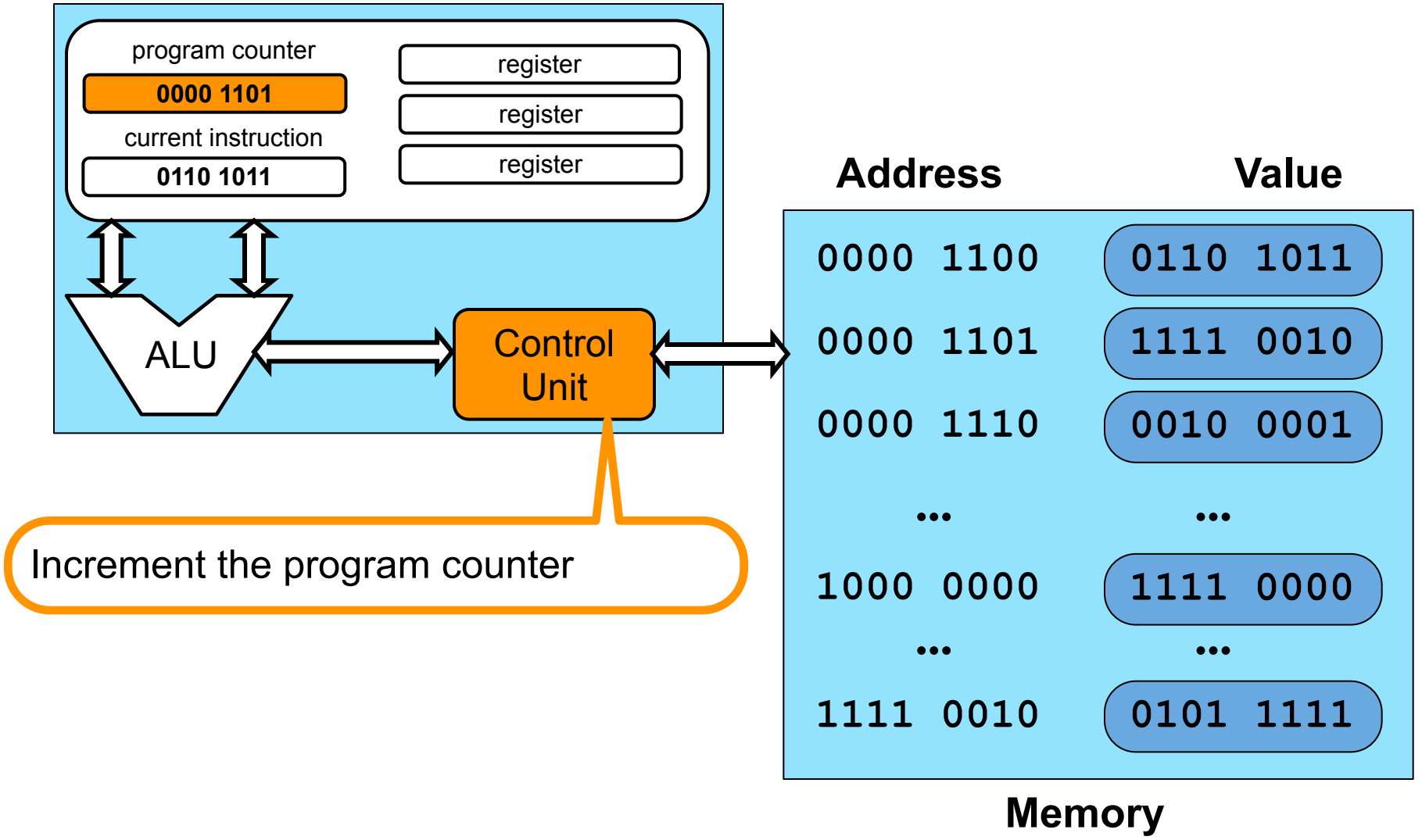


Fetch-Decode-Execute

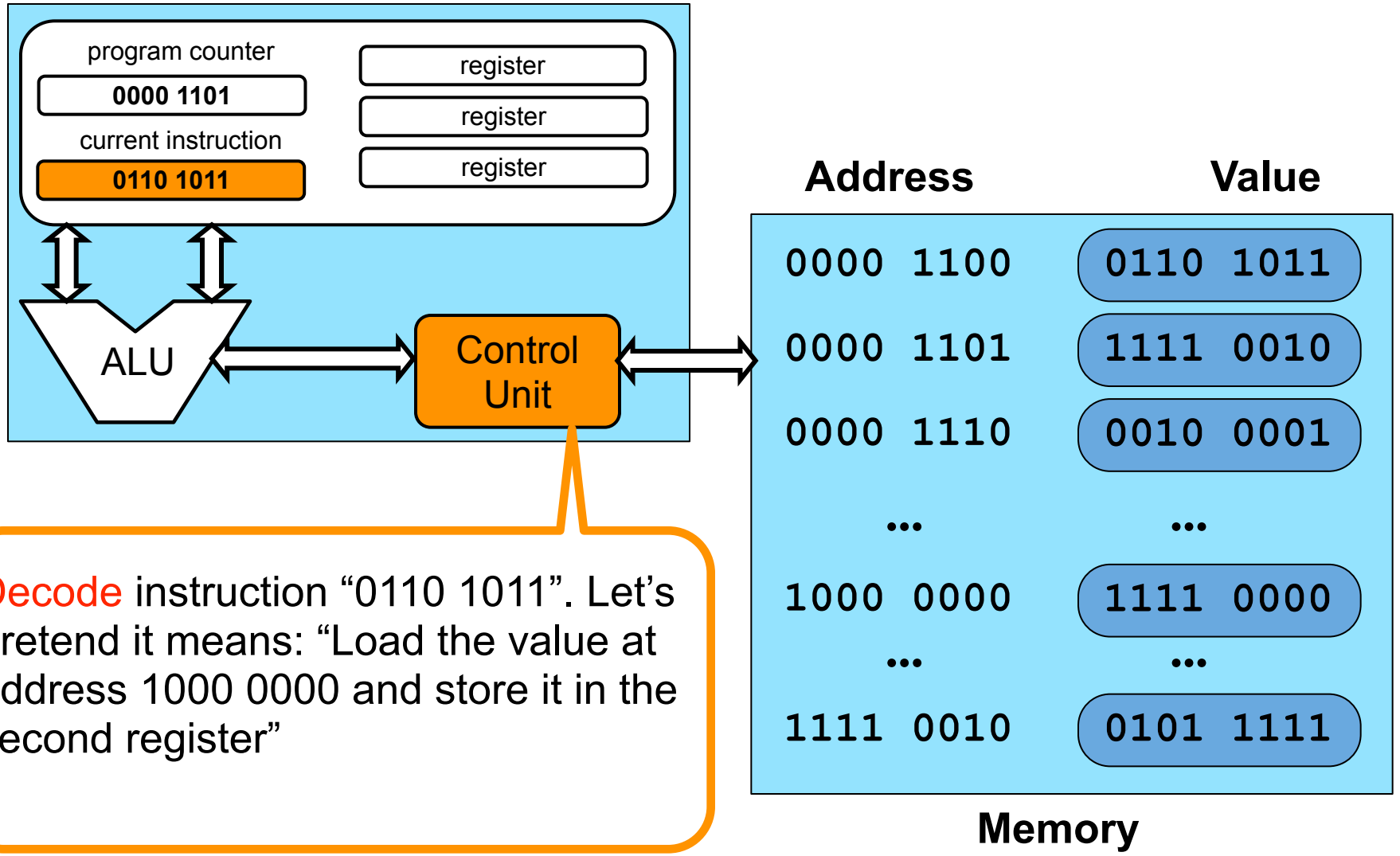


Fetch the content (instruction) at address 0000 1100, which is “0110 1011”, and store it in the “current instruction” register

Fetch-Decode-Execute

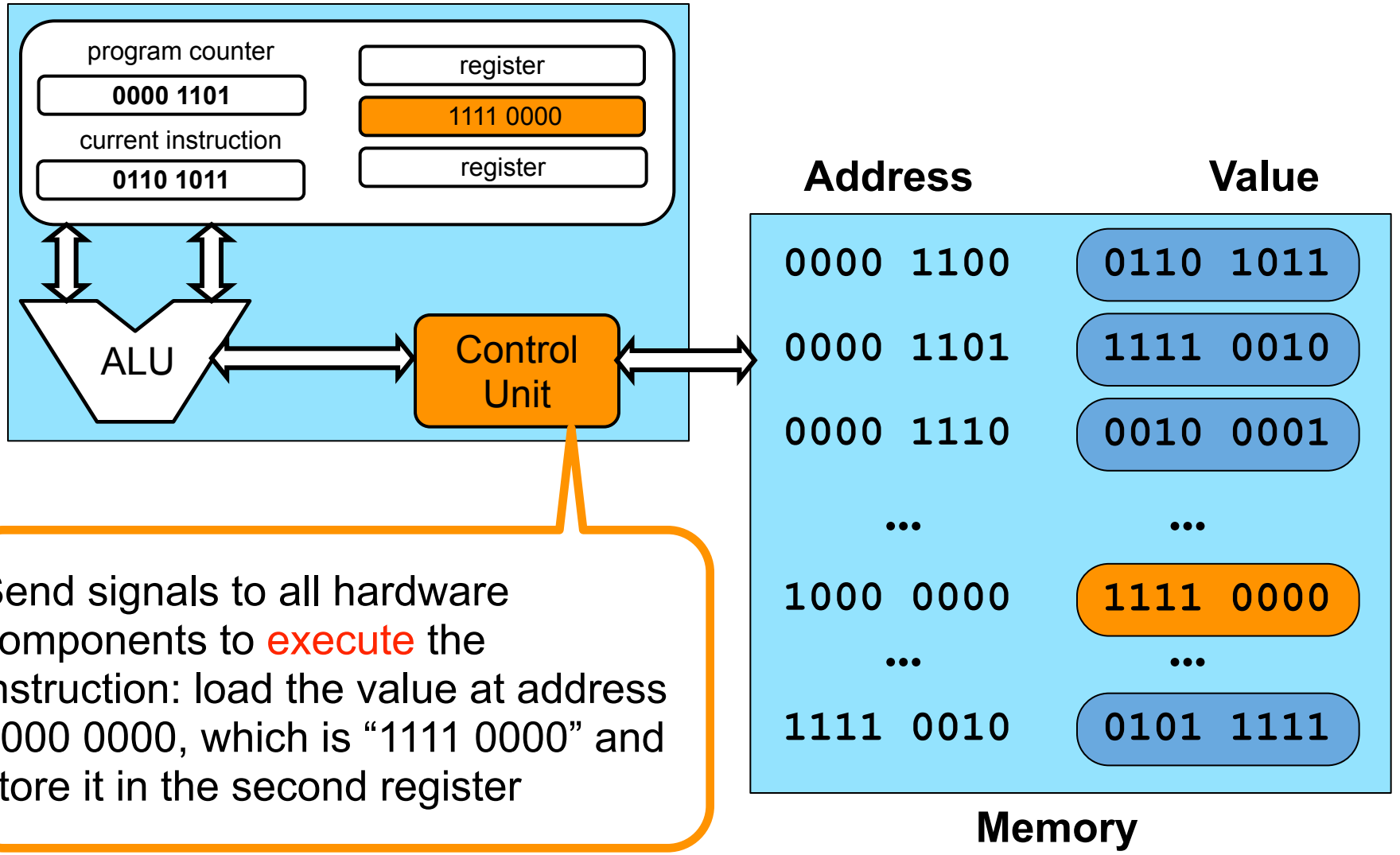


Fetch-Decode-Execute



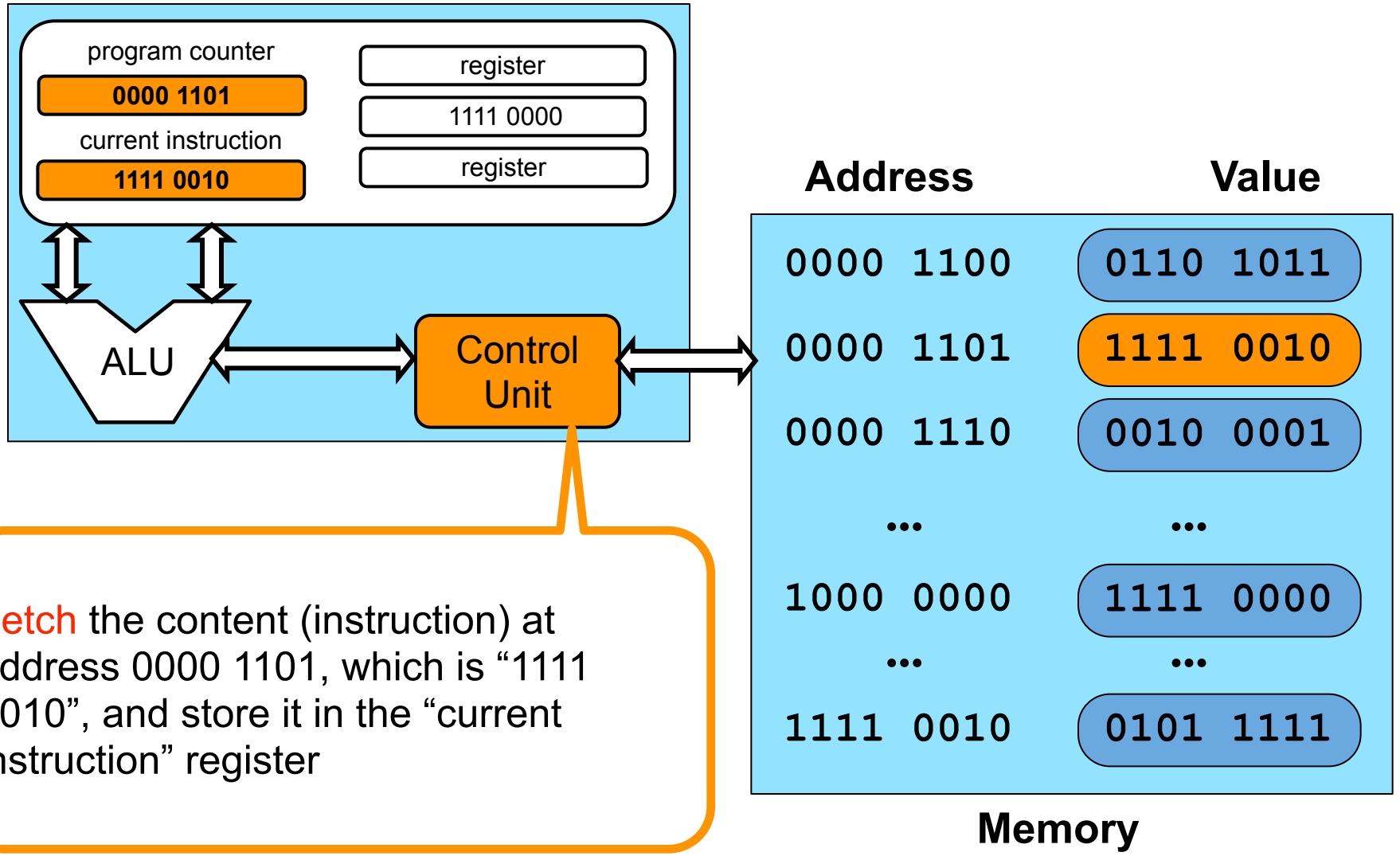
Decode instruction “0110 1011”. Let’s pretend it means: “Load the value at address 1000 0000 and store it in the second register”

Fetch-Decode-Execute



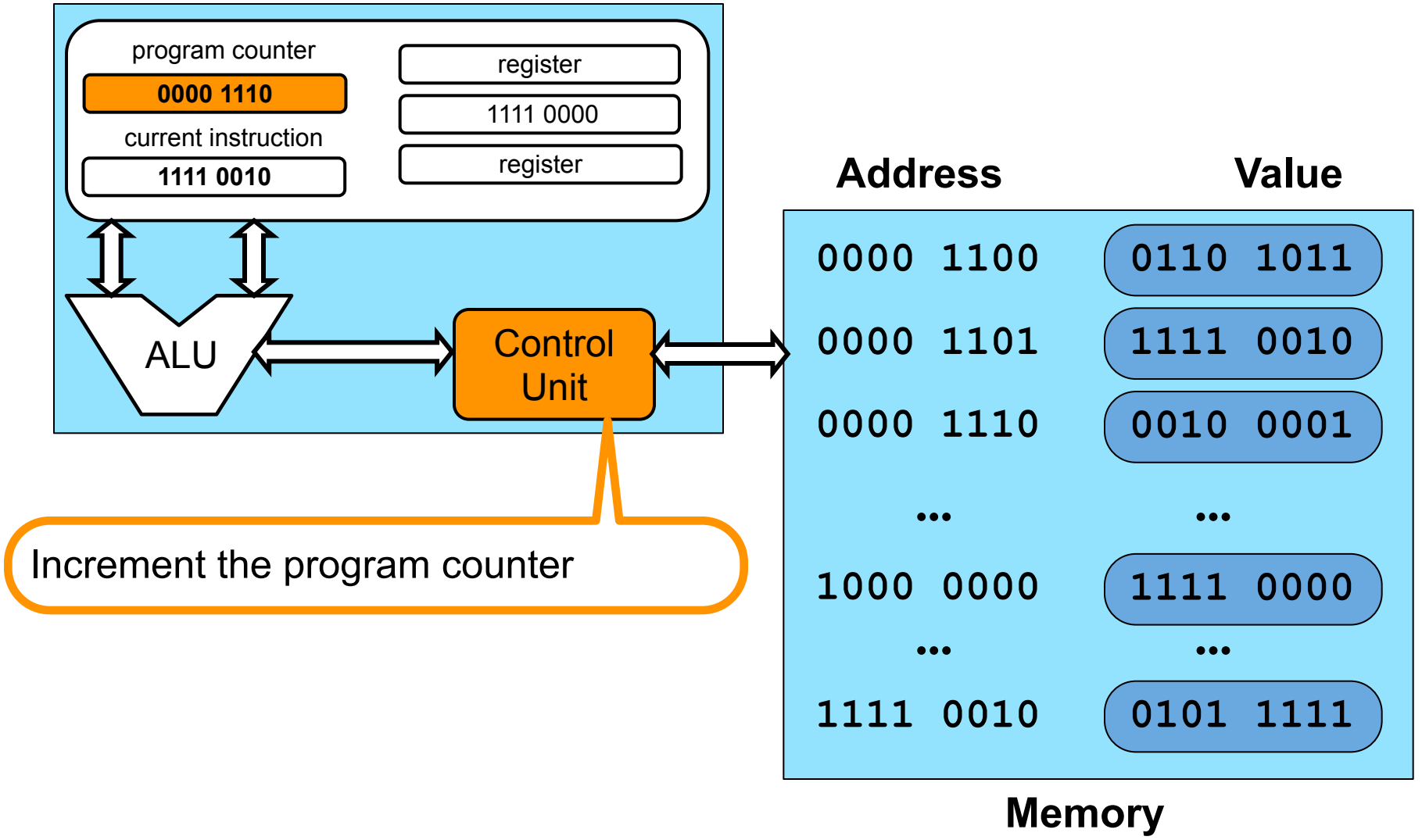
Send signals to all hardware components to execute the instruction: load the value at address 1000 0000, which is “1111 0000” and store it in the second register

Fetch-Decode-Execute

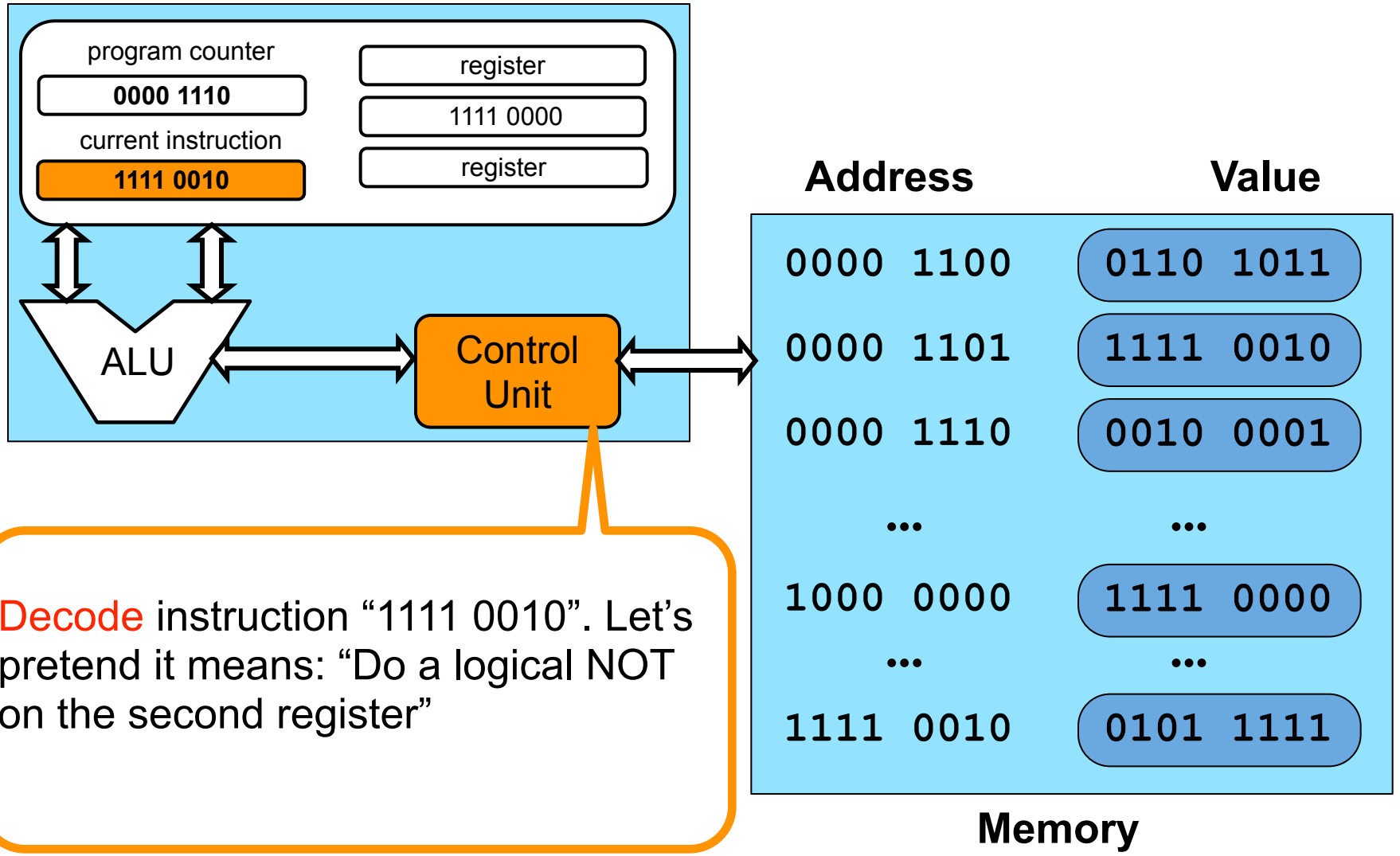


Fetch the content (instruction) at address 0000 1101, which is “1111 0010”, and store it in the “current instruction” register

Fetch-Decode-Execute

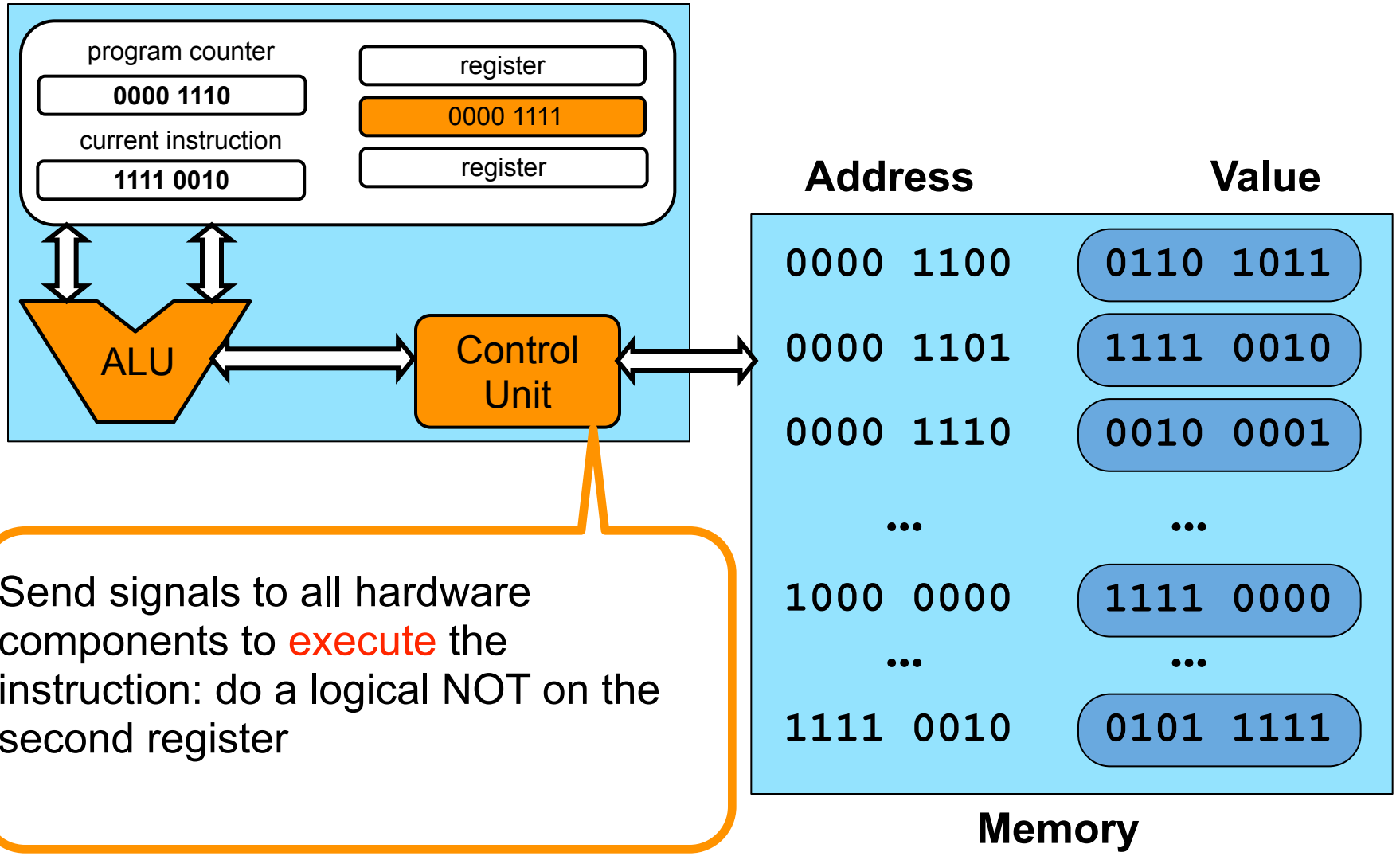


Fetch-Decode-Execute

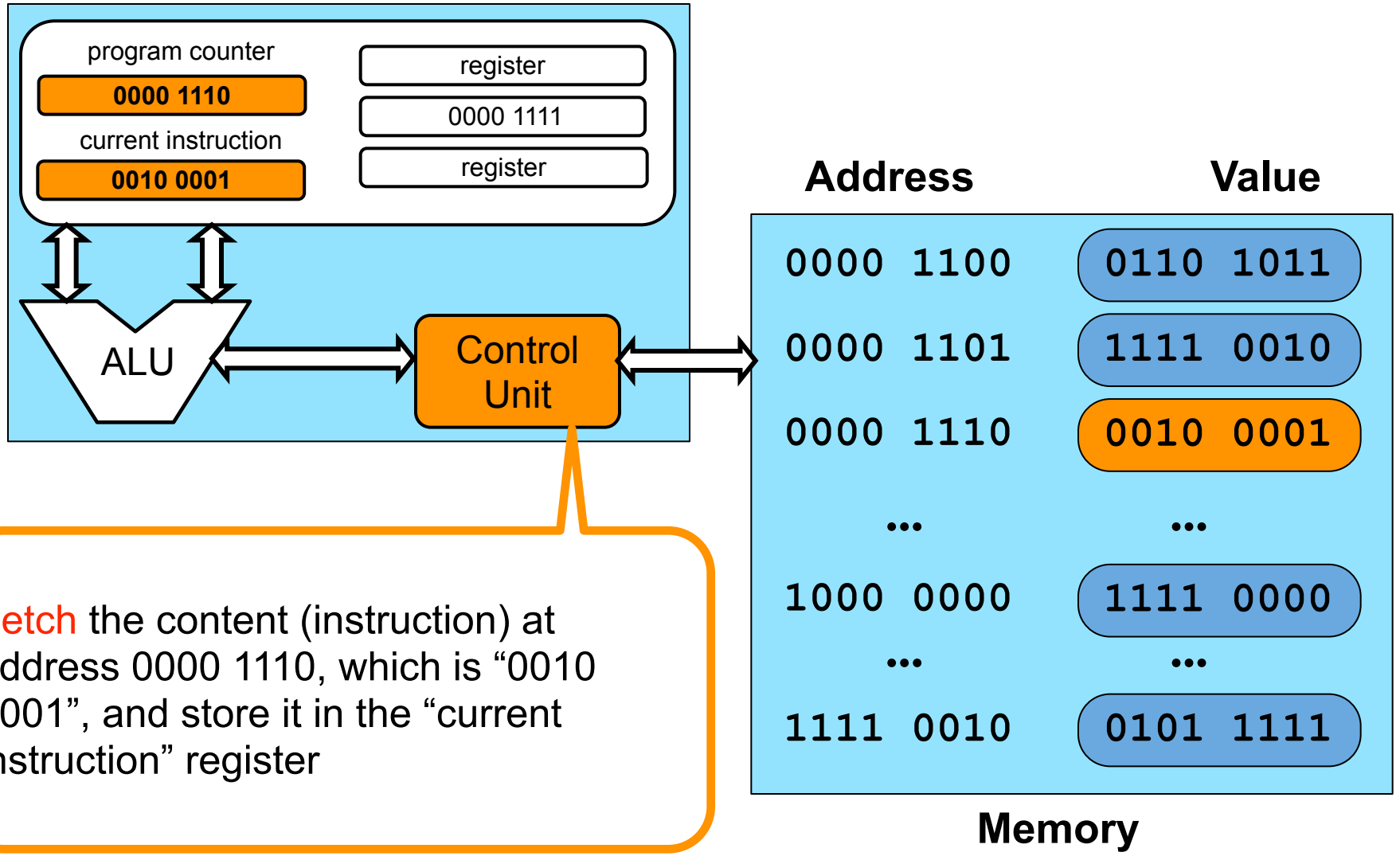


Decode instruction “1111 0010”. Let’s pretend it means: “Do a logical NOT on the second register”

Fetch-Decode-Execute

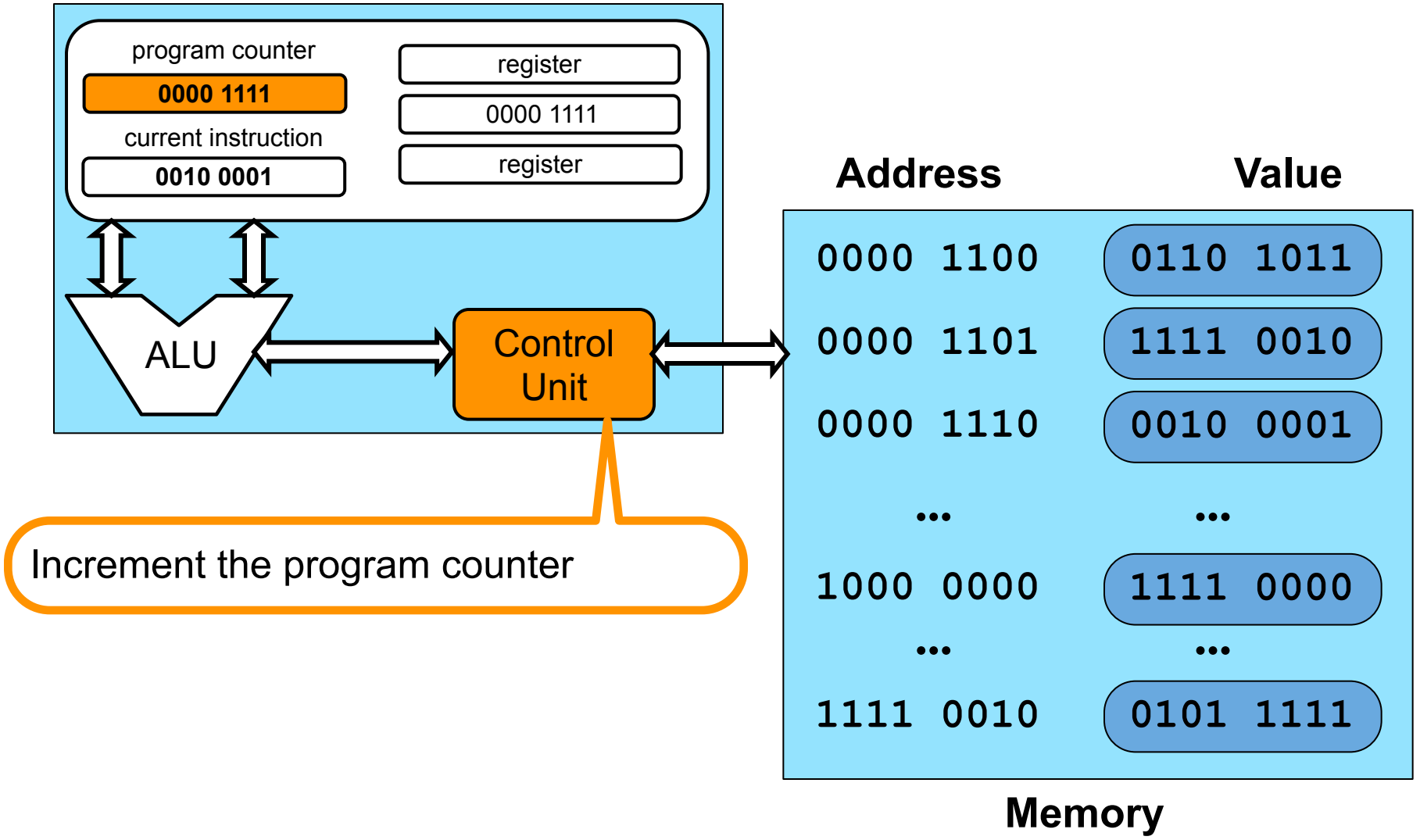


Fetch-Decode-Execute

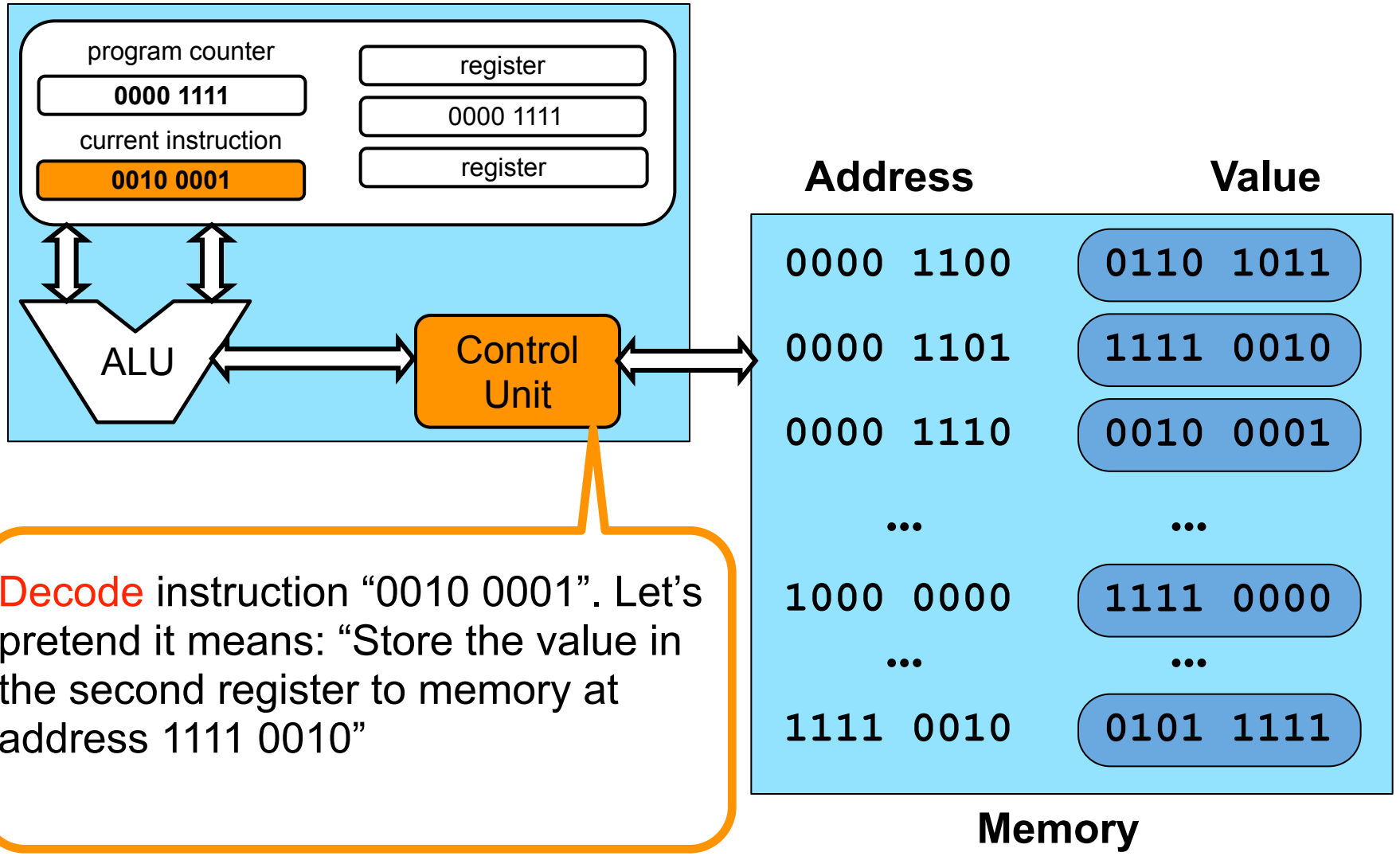


Fetch the content (instruction) at address 0000 1110, which is “0010 0001”, and store it in the “current instruction” register

Fetch-Decode-Execute

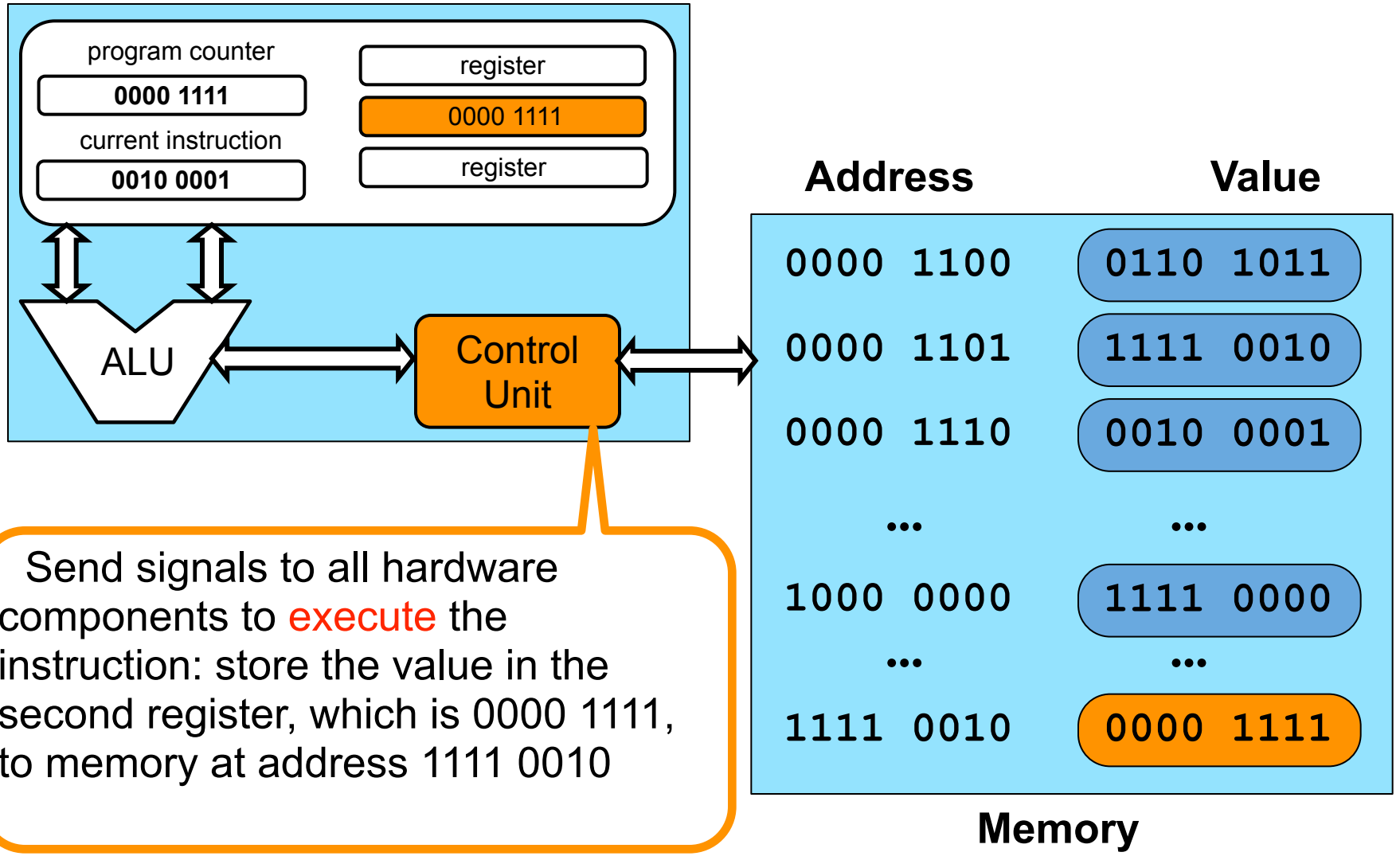


Fetch-Decode-Execute



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

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

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

The Clock

- Every computer maintains an internal clock that regulates how quickly instructions can be executed, and is used to synchronize system components
  - Just like a metronome
- Each “event” in the fetch-decode-execute cycle happen at a different “tick” of the clock
- The frequency of the clock is called the clock rate
- The time in between two clock ticks is called a clock cycle or cycle for short
- Clock cycle = 1 / Clock Rate
  - Clock rate = 2.4 GHz
  - Clock cycle = 1 / (2.4*1000*1000*1000)
    = 0.416 e^{-9} sec
    = 0.416 ns (nanosec)

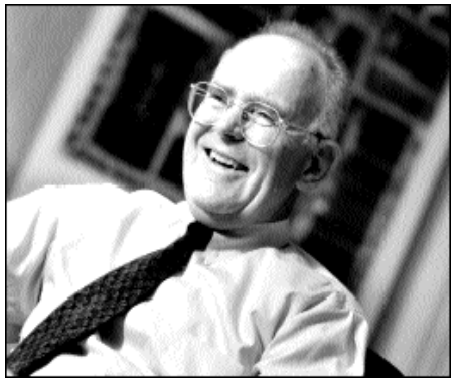
Faster/slower Clock Rate

- The higher the clock rate, the shorter the clock cycle
- It's tempting to think that a faster clock rate means a faster computer
- But it all depends of what amount of work is done in a clock cycle!
  - Computer A: clock rate of 2GHz and a multiplication requires 10 cycles
  - Computer B: clock rate of 1.5GHz and a multiplication requires 5 cycles
  - Computer B is faster than Computer A to run a program that performs a lot of multiplications
- Therefore, clock rates should not be used to compare computers in different families
  - A core of a 3.0GHz Intel i7 is most likely slower than a core of a 3.5GHz Intel i7
  - A core of a 3.0GHz Intel i7 could be slower than a core of a 2.8GHz IBM POWER9
- Furthermore, comparisons depends on the type of applications
  - Computer A faster than Computer B for some applications
  - Computer B faster than Computer A for other applications

Multi-Core

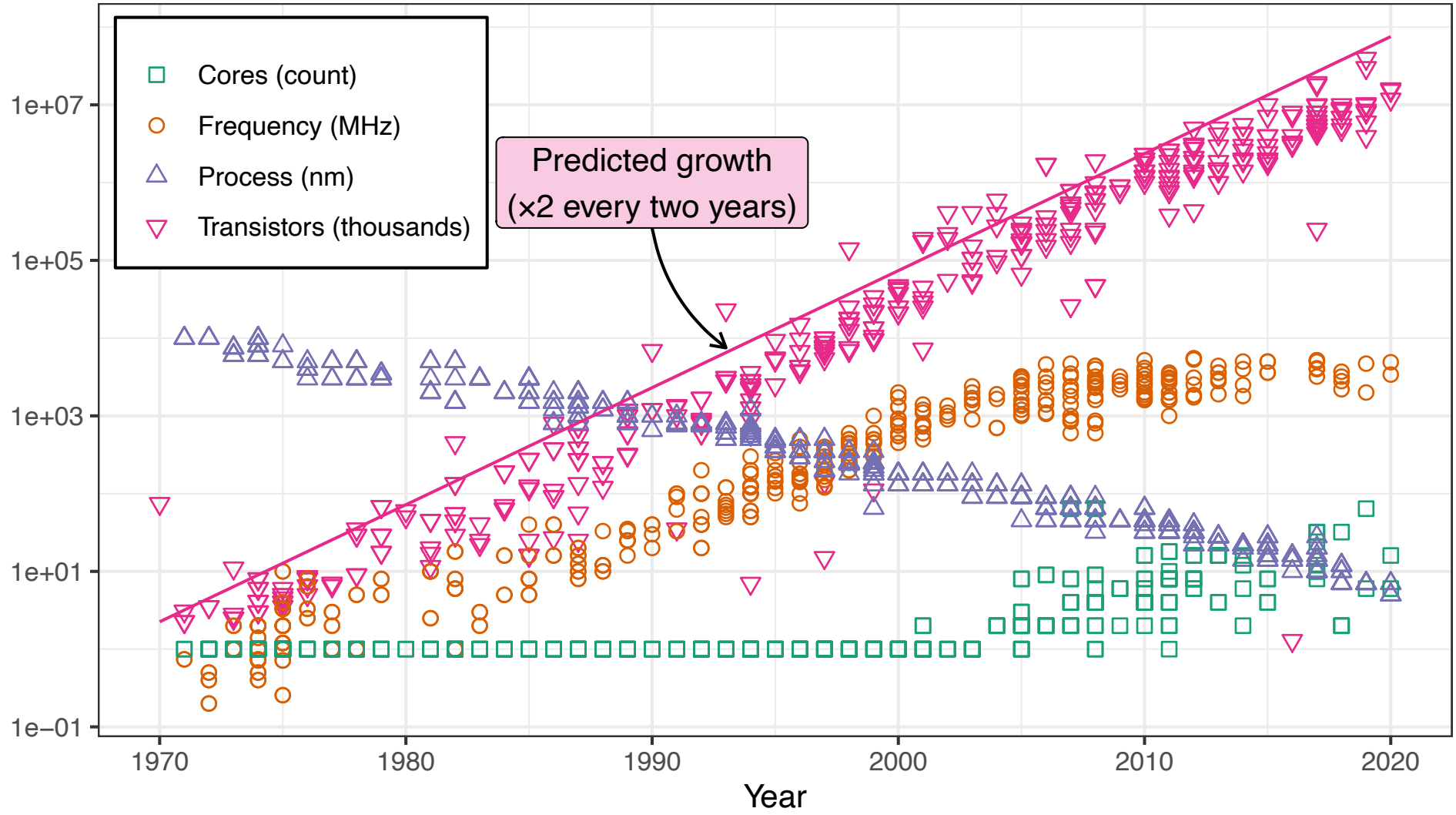
- What we have described is what happens in a single core
- But nowadays all our machines are multi-core (e.g., my laptop has 10 cores)
- Let's see why that is…

Moore's Law



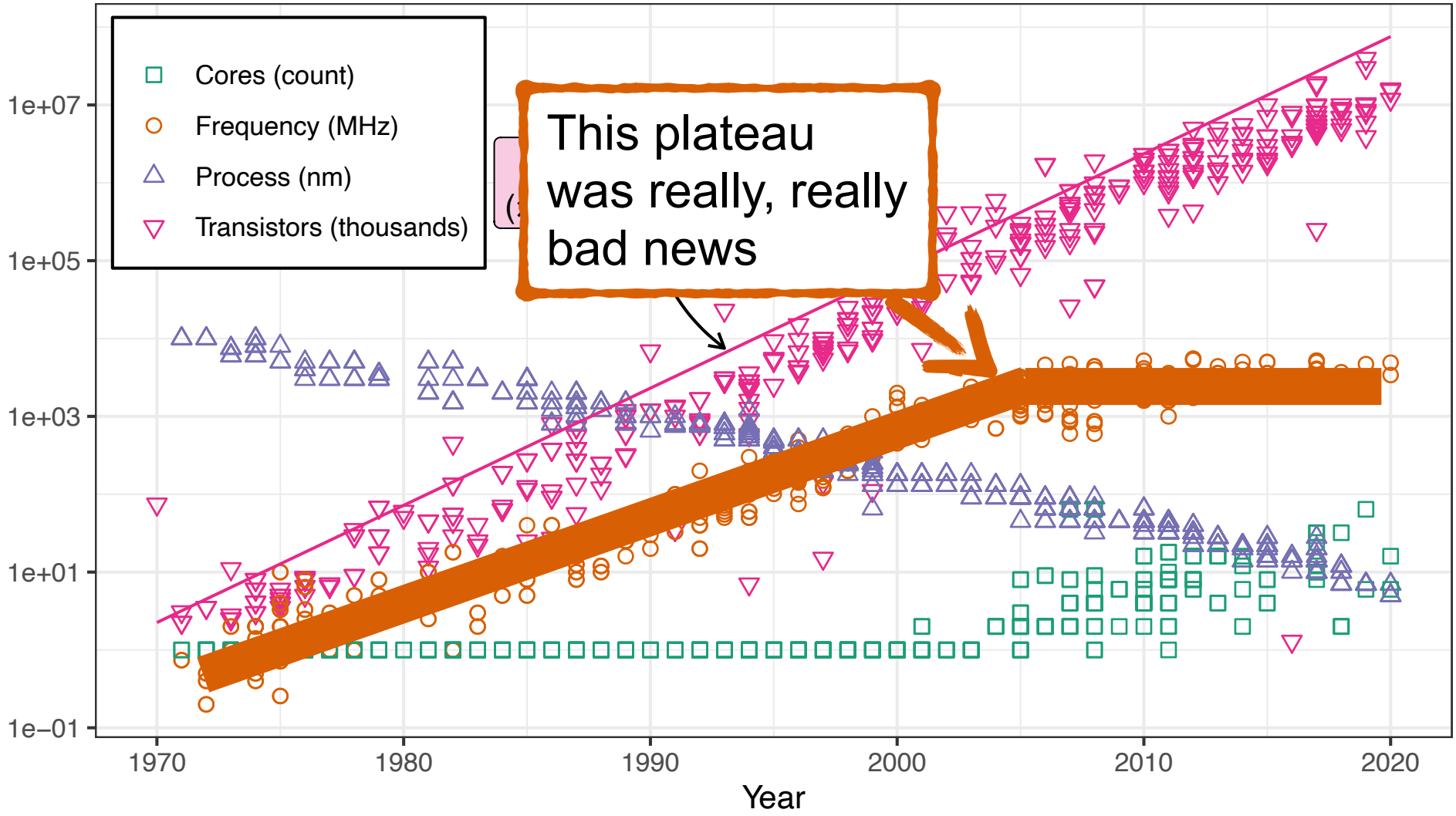
- In 1965, Gordon Moore (co-founder of Intel) predicted that transistor density of semiconductor chips would double roughly every 24 months (often "misquoted" as 18 months)
  - He was right
  - But, the law was often wrongly interpreted as: "Computers get twice as fast every 2 years"
  - This wrong interpretation 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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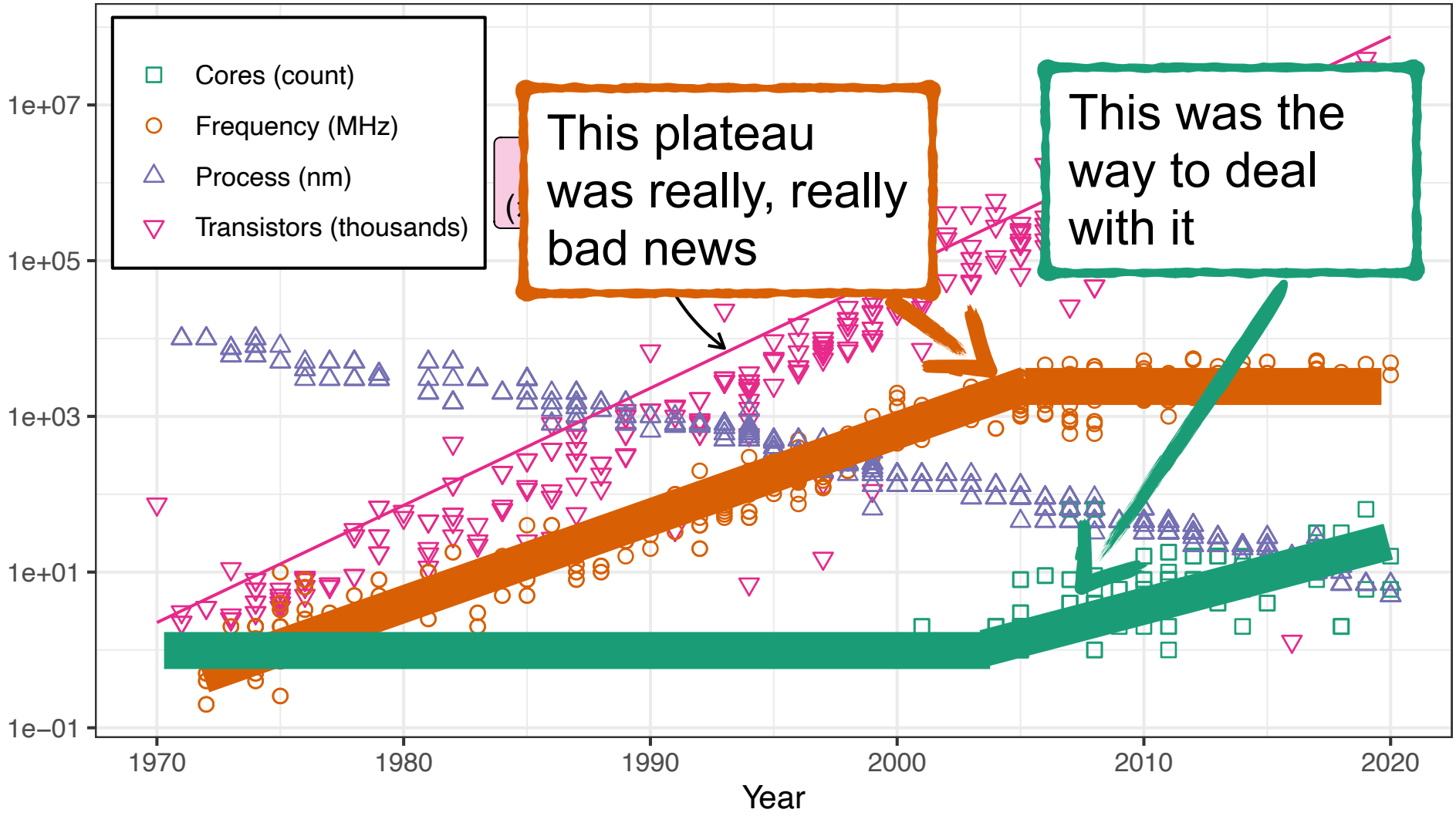
50-year Trend

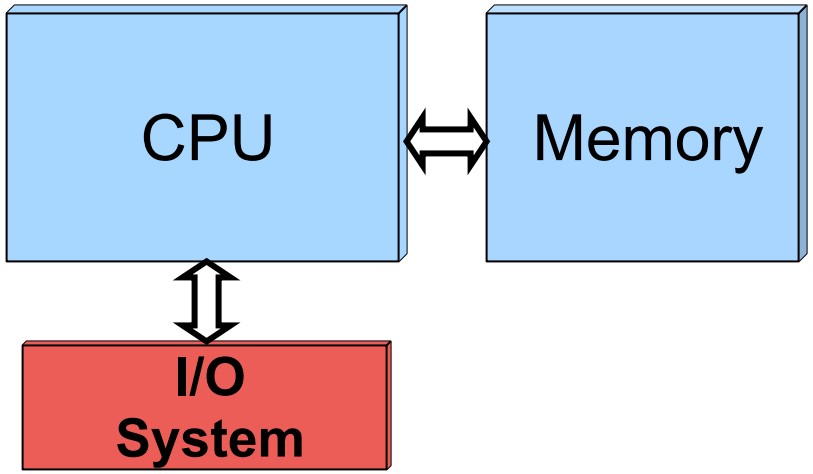


Plot inspired from the work of Pedro Bruel, generated with data from Wikipedia [Wik21a; Wik21b].

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



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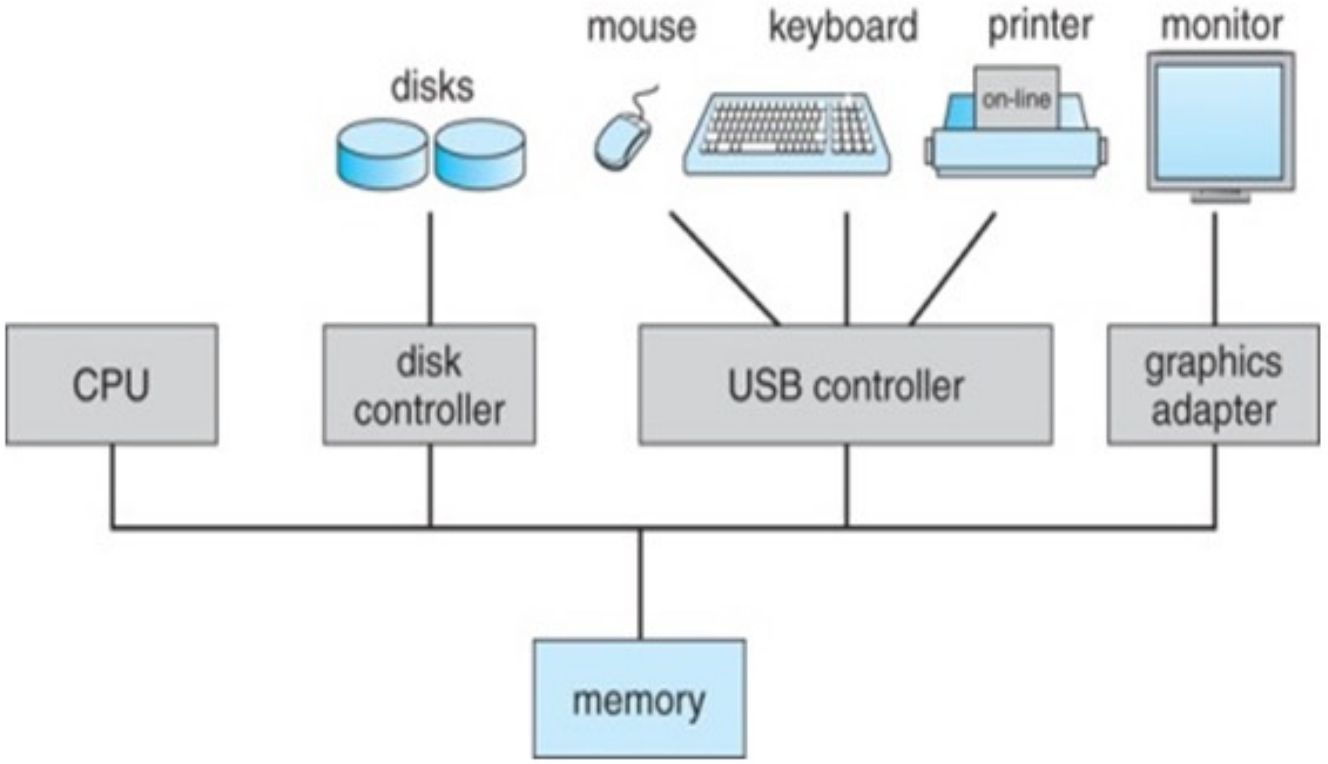

Figure 1.2 A modern computer system.

[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

Main Takeaways

- The ENIAC was the first electronic computer
- The Von Neumann Architecture is “it” for now
- RAM, addresses, and “values” (indirection)
- Instruction set architectures
- The CPU: registers, ALU, control unit
- The Fetch-Decode-Execute cycle
- The Clock and Clock Rate
- Moore’s Law and why we have multi-core machines

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…