Computer Architecture Overview

ICS332 Operating Systems

Henri Casanova (henric@hawaii.edu)

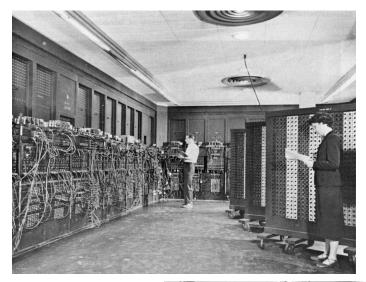
1946: The ENIAC

- 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

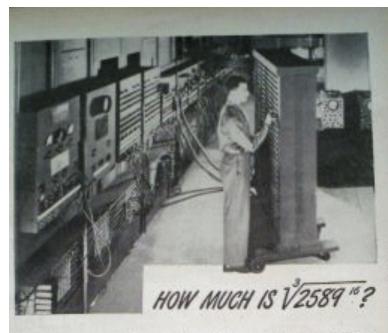
Specs

- 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 in a fraction of a second !

Thick that's a storper? You should see same of the ENIAC's problems! Teals twisters that if put to paper would run off this page and leet beyond . . . addition, subtraction, multiplication, division -- square root, calse root, any ment. Selved by an incredibly complexunites of circuits sperating 18,000 electronic talass and tipping the scales at 30 torn!

The ENIAC is symbolic of many amazing. Army derices with a brilliant forume har you! The use Regular Army needs tarm with aptimale for scientific work, and an one of the first. mained in the past-war era, you stand to get in on the ground floor of important jobs

YOUR RESULAR ARMY SERVES THE NATION. AND MARKING IN WAR AND PEACE

OCTOBER 1946

which have never before existed. You'll find that an Arney earner pays off.

The most attractive fields are filling quickly. Get into the usin while the getting's good! 11/2, 2 and 3 year enlistments are open in the Regular Army to architious young men-18 to 34 (17 with parents' consent) who are otherwise qualified. If you onlist for 3 years, you may choose your own beauch of the service, of those still open. Got fall details at your manual Army Recruiting Station.



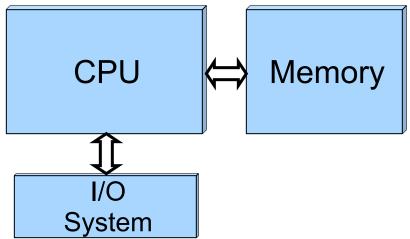
The Von Neumann Architecture

- 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...

The Von-Neumann Architecture

Three hardware systems

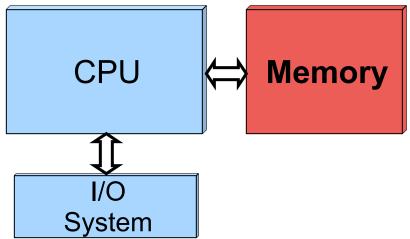
- A Central Processing Unit (CPU): performs operations and controls the sequence of operations
- A Memory Unit: stores both code and data
- Input/Output devices to interact with the machine
- Computers today are still very close to this basic architecture



The Von-Neumann Architecture

Three hardware systems

- 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
 - I 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

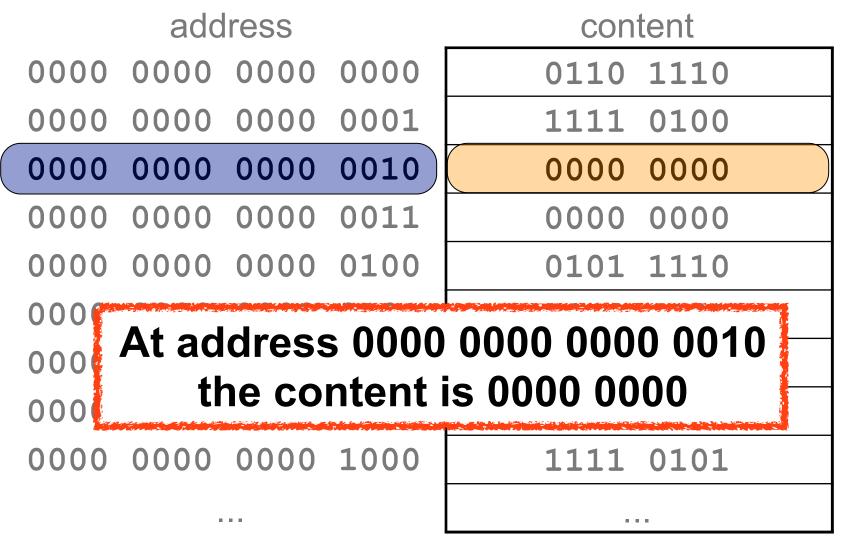
0000	0000	0000	0000
0000	0000	0000	0001
0000	0000	0000	0010
0000	0000	0000	0011
0000	0000	0000	0100
0000	0000	0000	0101
0000	0000	0000	0110
0000	0000	0000	0111
0000	0000	0000	1000

. . .

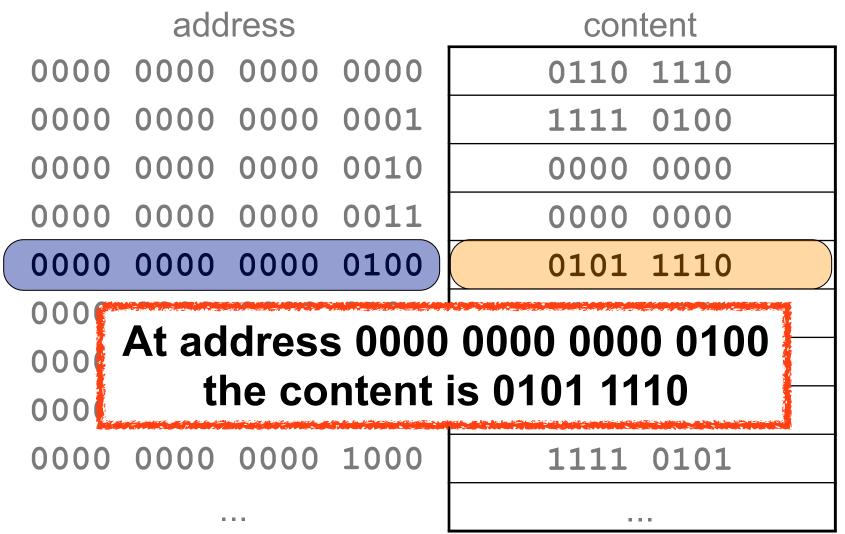
C)110	1110	
1	111	0100	
(0000	0000	
(0000	0000	
()101	1110	
]	L010	1101	
(0000	0001	
()100	0000	
1	111	0101	

- - -

Example Byte-Addressable RAM with 16-bit addresses



Example Byte-Addressable RAM with 16-bit addresses



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	C	onter	nt	Addre	SS	Conte	nt
0000 00	00 00	000	0011	0000	0000	0000	0011
0000 00	001 00	010	1010	0000	0001	0010	1010
0000 00	010 1:	111	0101	0000	0010	1111	0101
0000 00	011 10	000	0000	0000	0011	1000	0000
0000 01	100 00	000	0111	0000	0100	1100	0101
0000 01	101 10	011	1111	0000	0101	1011	1111
0000 01	110 1:	111	1111	0000	0110	1111	1111
0000 01	111 1:	101	0000	0000	0111	1101	0000
				•••		•••	
1000 00	000 10	010	1101	1000	0000	0000	0100
1000 00	001 10	011	0000	1000	0001	1011	0000

Example

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Address	Content	Addre	SS	Conte	nt	
0000 000)0 0000 0011		0000	0000	0011	
0000 000	01			010	1010	
0000 00:		n toll mo tho	nomo	111	0101	
0000 00:	Allybour Ca	an tell me the	name	000	0000	
0000 0100 of the concept this program 10					0101	
0000 0101 implements? 011 1111						
0000 01:						
0000 01:	0000 0111 101 0000					
•••				•••		
1000 000	00 1010 1101	1000	0000	0000	0100	
1000 000	01 1011 0000	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 0001 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
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

Address Space

A program is stored in RAM

	Address		Content		Mear	ning
1	0000 000	00	83	ADD	EAX,	1
	0000 000)1	C0			
	0000 001	0	01	ADD	EAX,	EBX
	0000 001	.1	D8			
Ń	0000 010	00	05	ADD	EAX,	-10000
	0000 010)1	60			
	0000 011	0	79			
	0000 011	.1	FE			
١	0000 100	0	FF			
			• • •	$ \cdot $	•	

Address Space

A program is stored in RAM along with data

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

code

data

Address Space

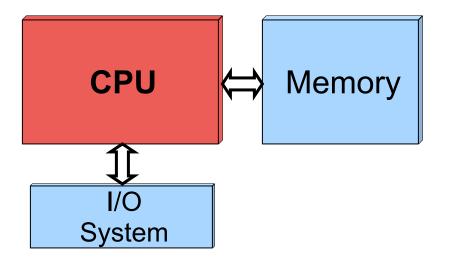
A program is stored in RAM along with data

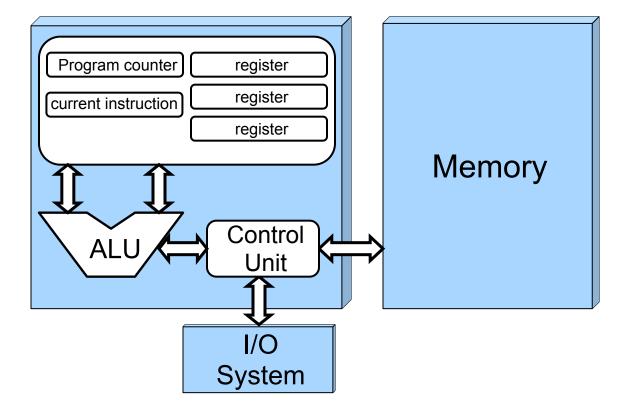
	Address	Content	Meaning
(0000 0000	83	ADD EAX, 1
	0000 0001	C0	
	0000 0010	01	ADD EAX, EBX
	0000 0011	D8	
\langle	0000 0100	05	ADD EAX, -10000
	0000 0101	60	
	0000 0110	79	
	0000 0111	FE	
١	0000 1000	FF	
,			
(1000 0010	61	Character `a'
	1000 0011	00	Character `\0'
]	1000 0100	FF	Integer -1
	1000 0101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

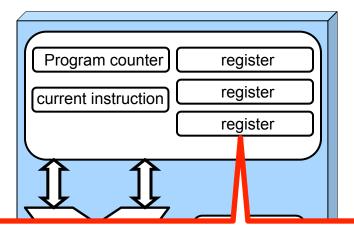
- All the bytes in RAM that "belong" to the program are called the program's address space
- This address space contains the code and the data
 - And other things we'll see later

lata

The CPU

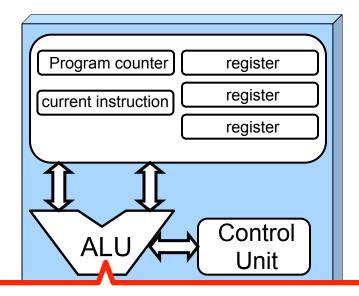






Registers: values that hardware instructions work with

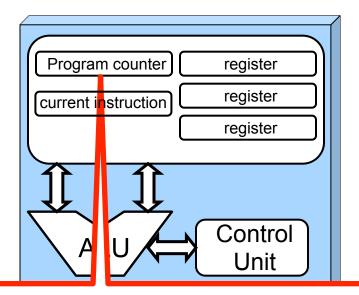
Data can be loaded from memory into a register Data can be stored from a register back into memory Operands and results of computations are ALL in registers Accessing a register is really fast There is a limited number of registers (which will make our life a bit difficult)



Arithmetic and Logic Unit: what you do computation with

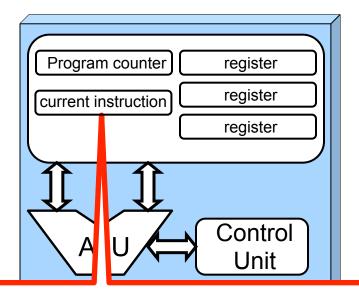
used to compute a value based on current register values and store the result back into a register

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

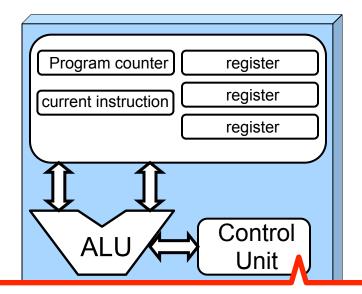


Program Counter: Points to the next instruction

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



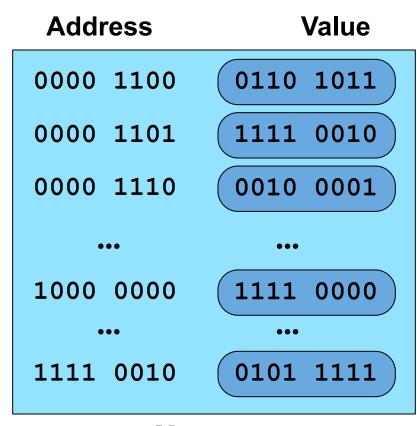
Control Unit: Decodes instructions and make them happen

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

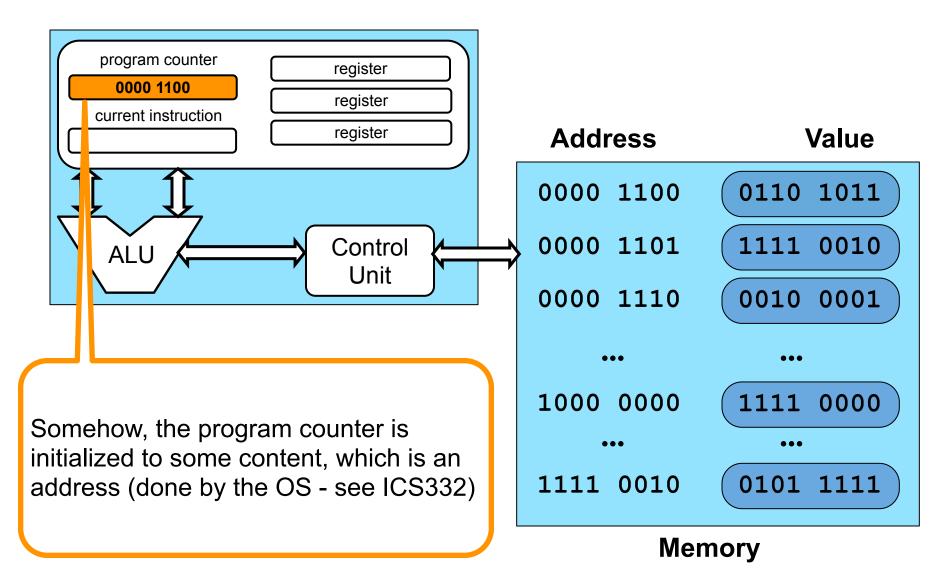
Fetch-Decode-Execute Cycle

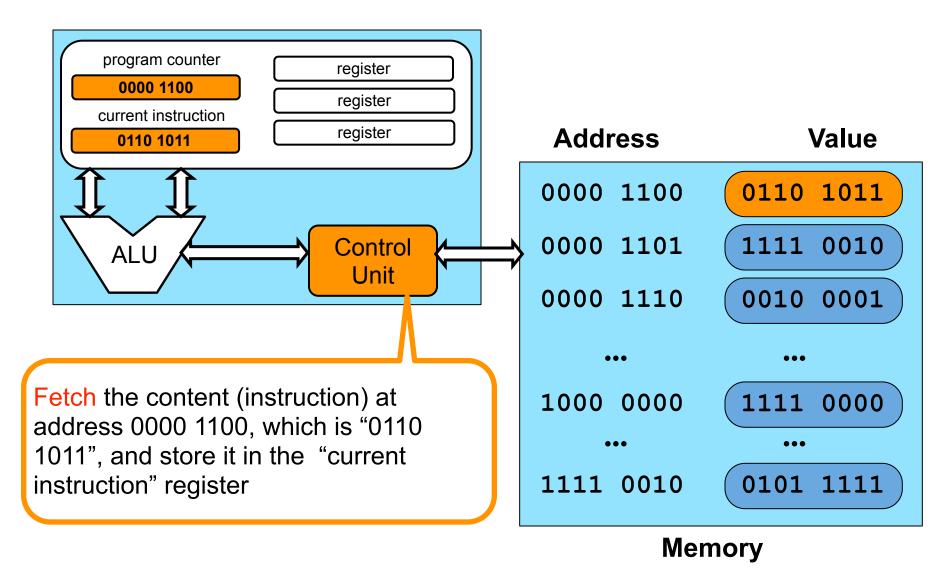
The Fetch-Decode-Execute cycle

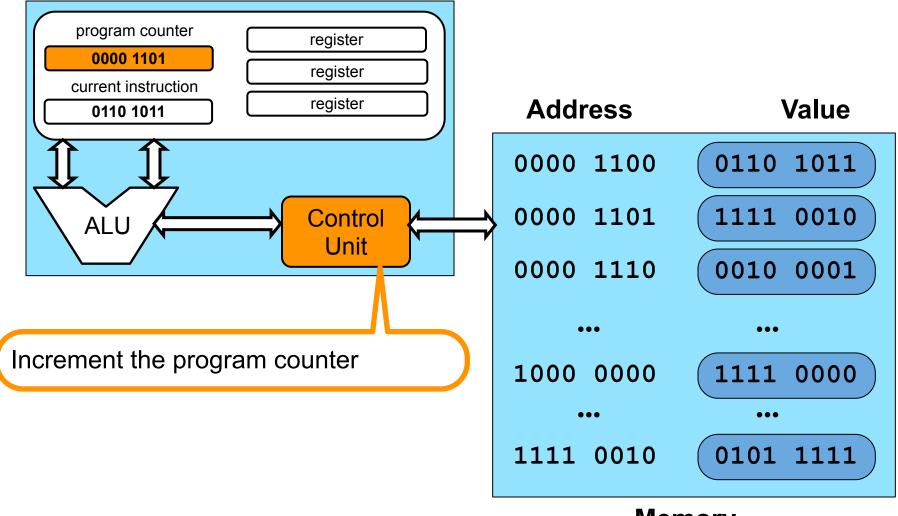
- □ The control unit **fetches** the next program instruction from memory
 - Using the program counter to figure out where that instruction is located in the memory
- The control unit decodes the instruction and signals are sent to hardware components
 - e.g., is the instruction loading something from 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



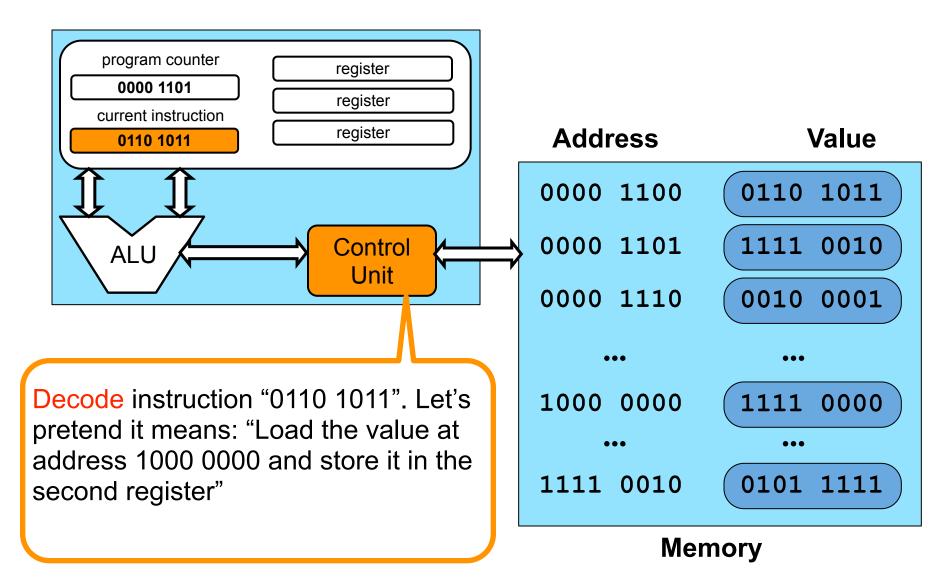
Memory

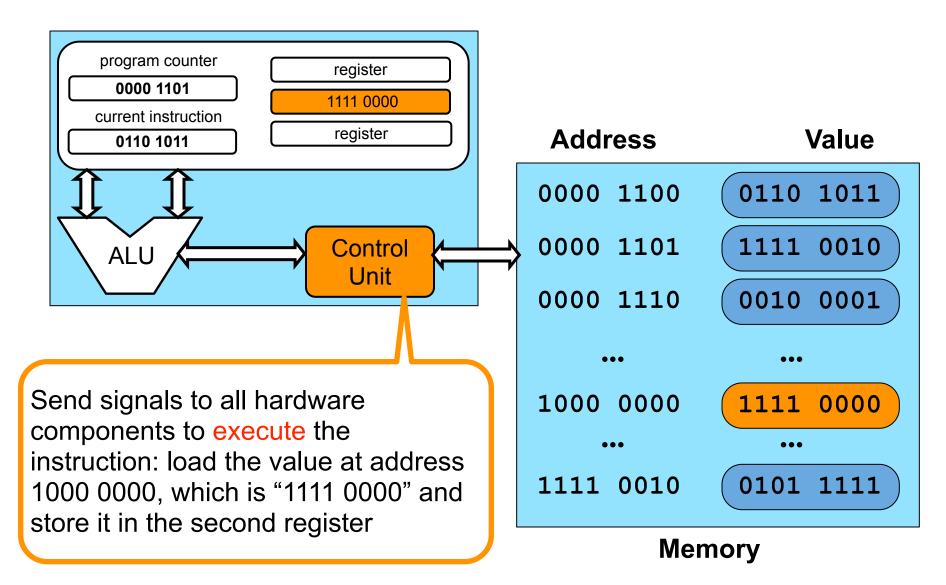


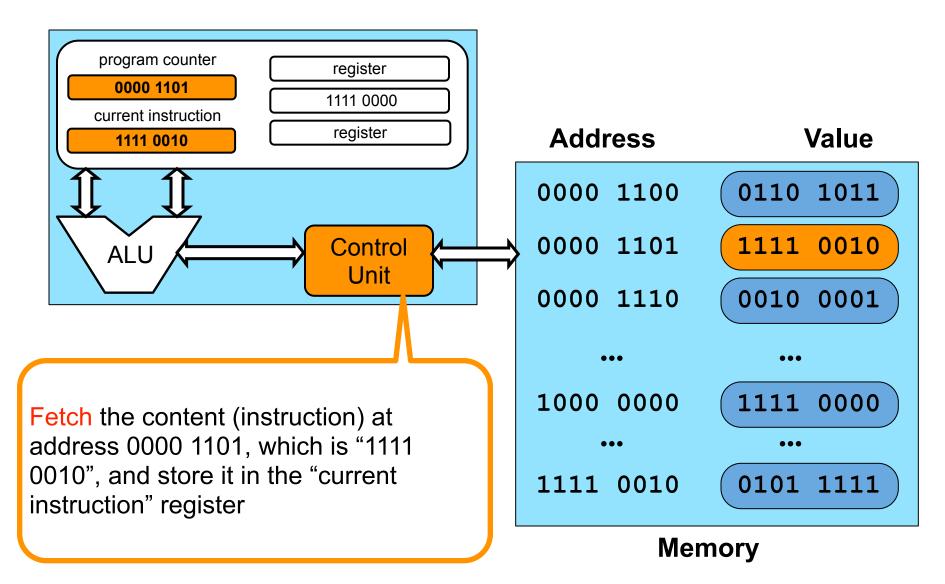


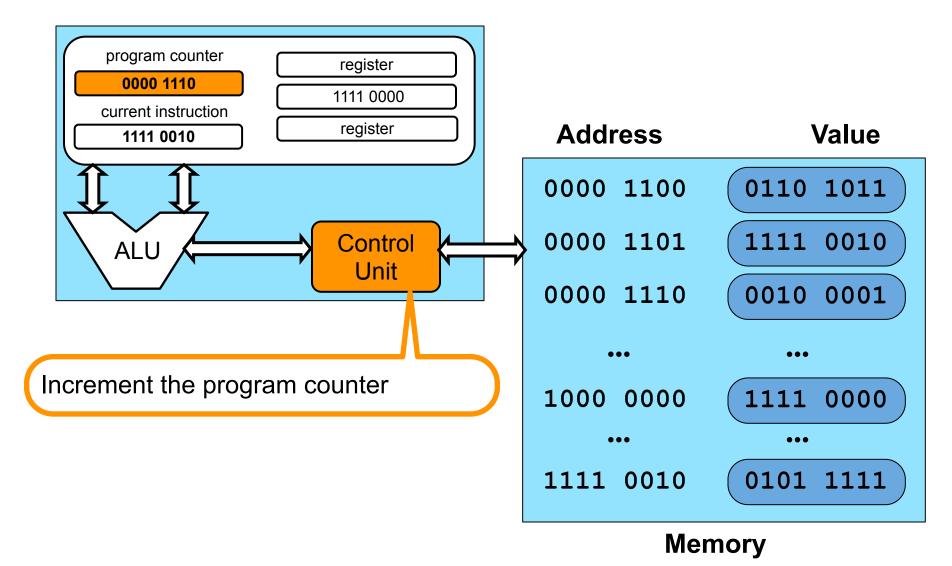


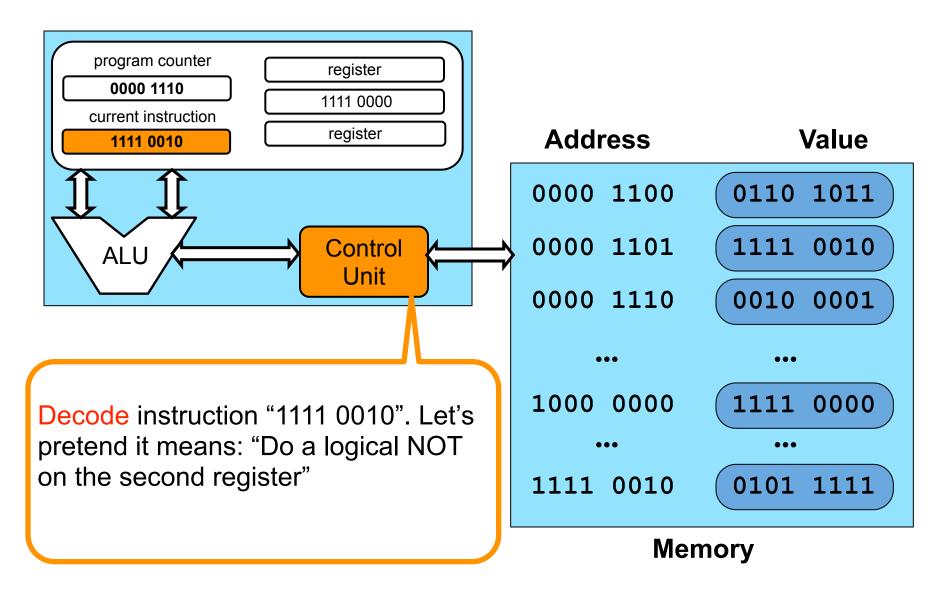
Memory

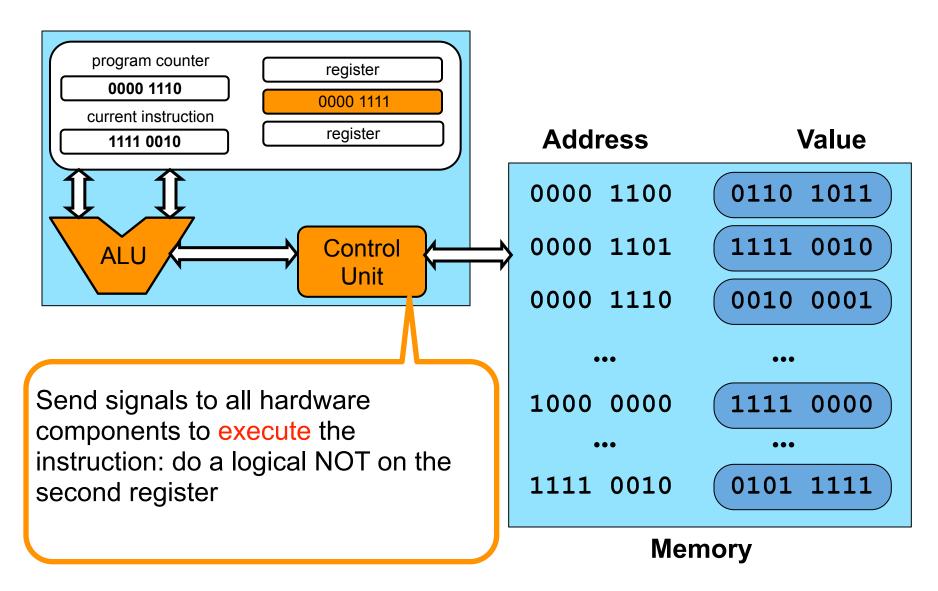


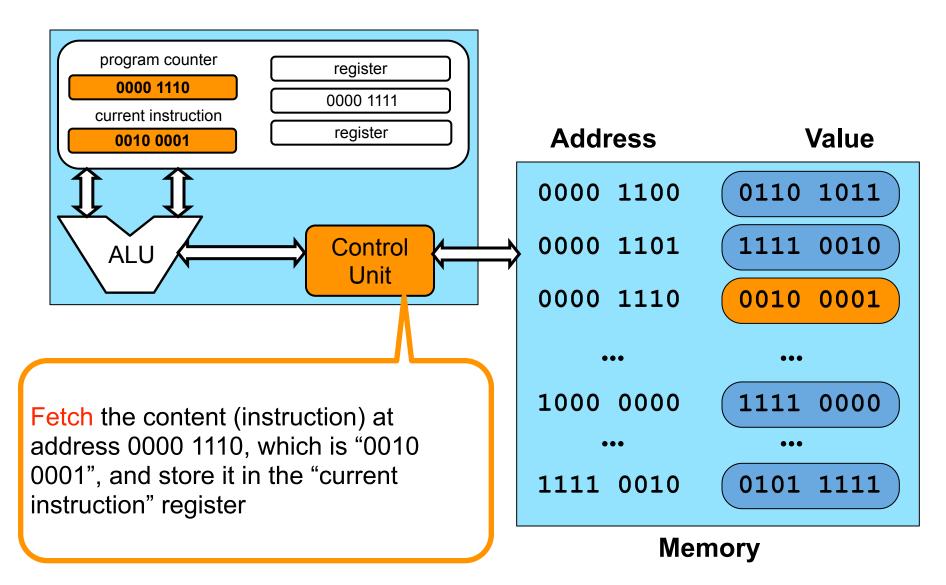


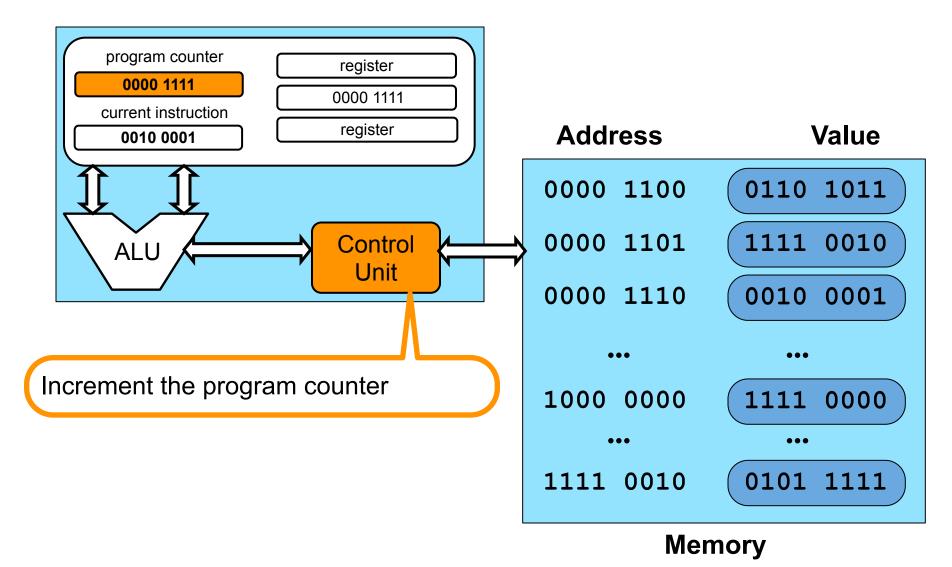


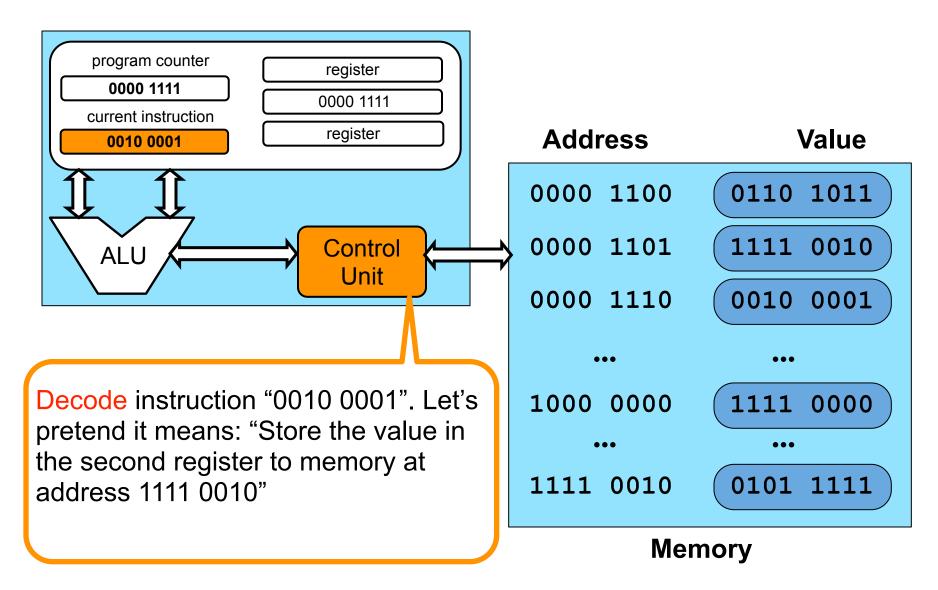


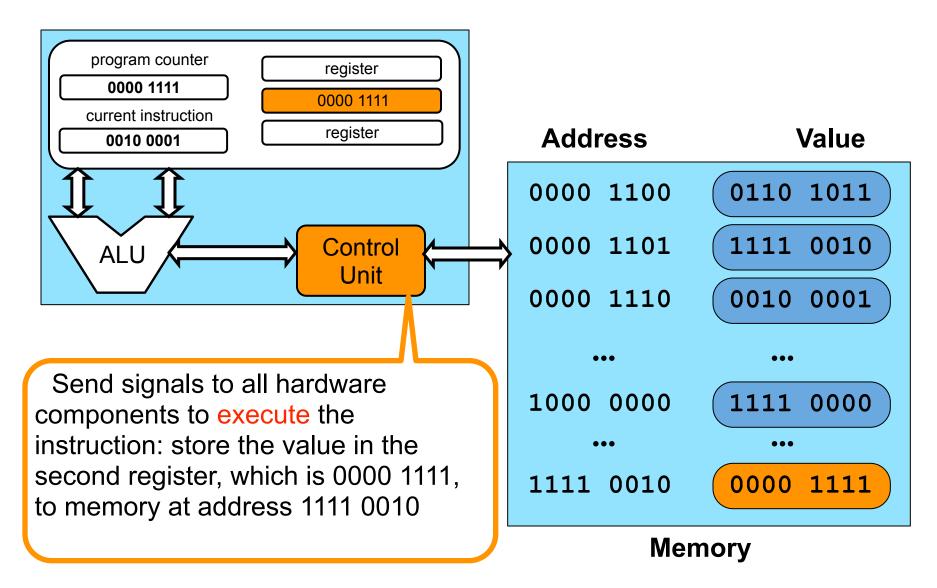












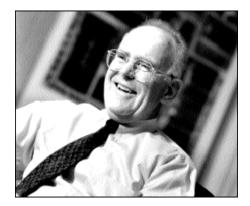
- This is only a simplified view of the way things work
- The "control unit" is not a single thing
 - Control and data paths are implemented by several complex hardware components
- There are multiple ALUs, there are caches, there are multiple CPUs in fact ("cores")
- Execution is pipelined: e.g., while 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...

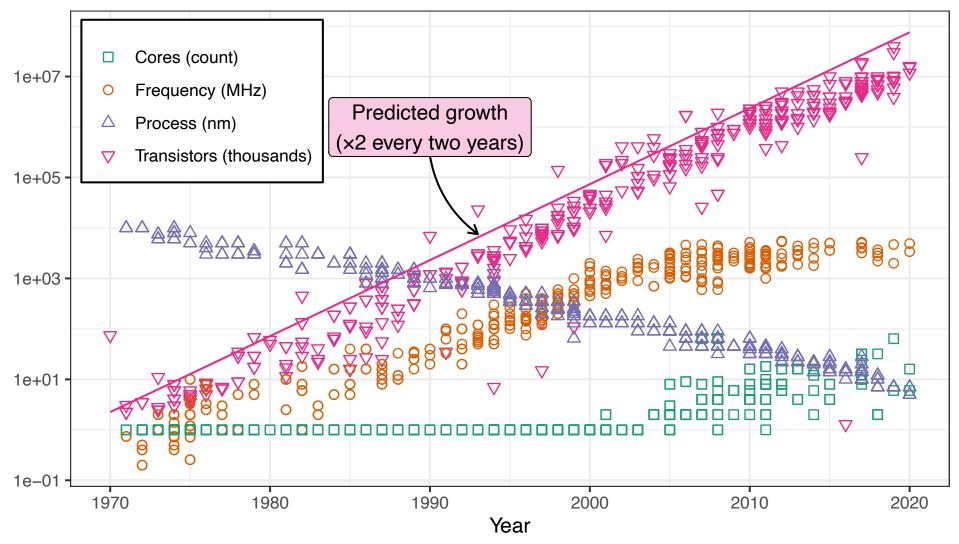
Moore's Law

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)



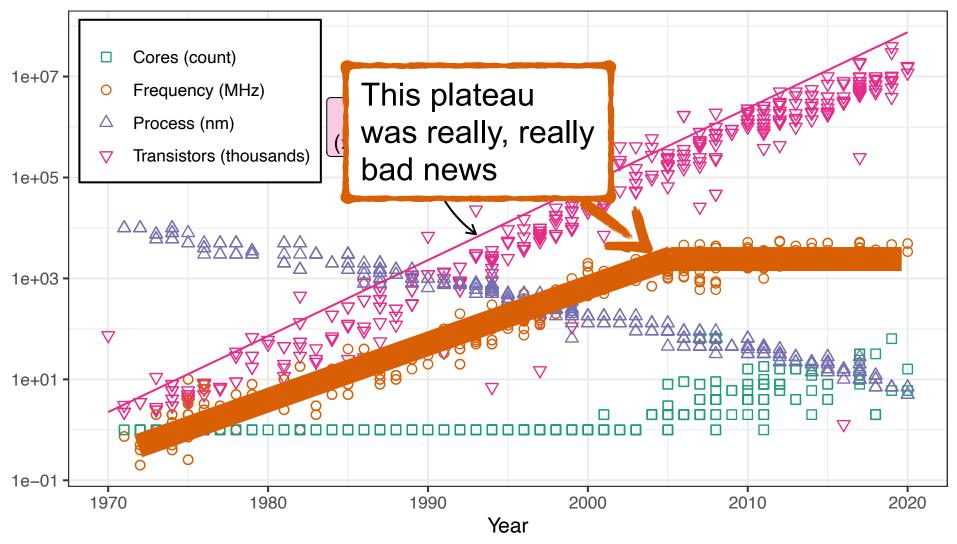
- □ He was right
- But, the law was often wrongly interpreted as: "Computers get twice as fast every 2 years"
- This wrong interpretation was true for a while, but no longer...

50-year Trend



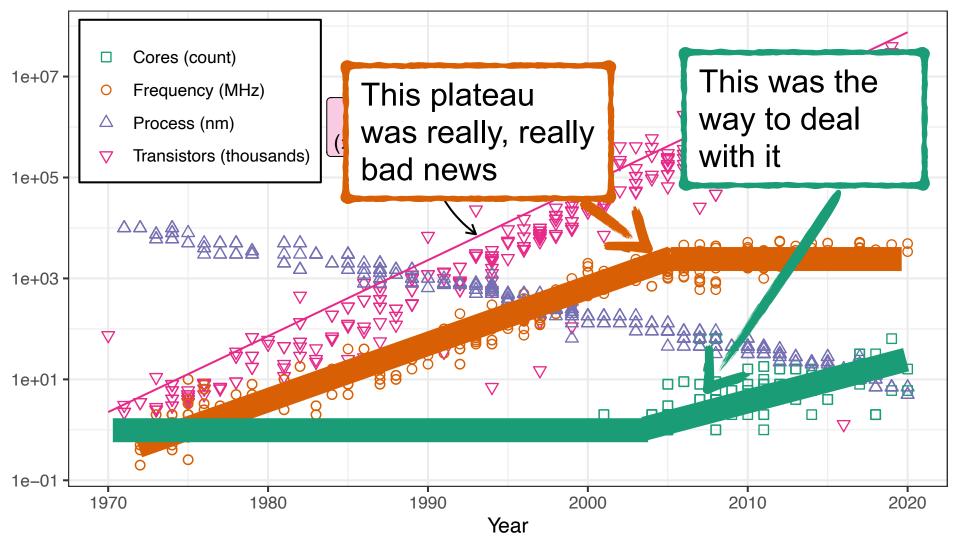
Plot inspired from the work of Pedro Bruel, generated with data from Wikipedia [Wik21a; Wik21b].

50-year Trend



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50-year Trend

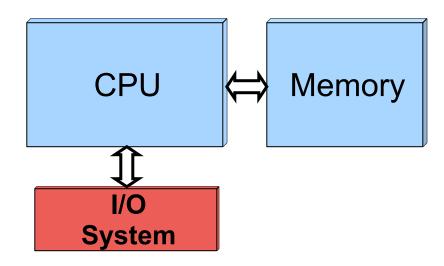


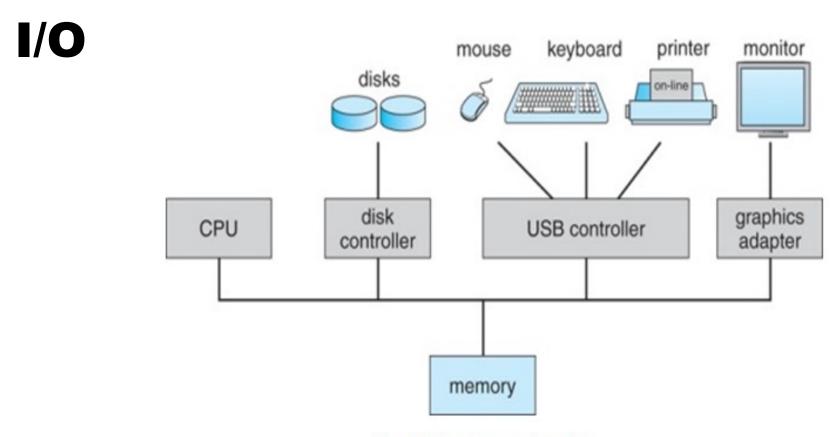
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Multi-core Chips

- 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







[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...

