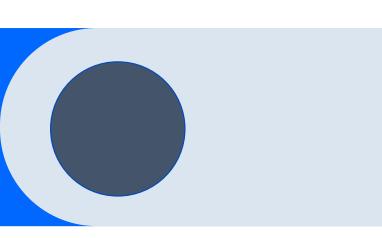
Computer Architecture

2nd Class, Computer Science Dept.

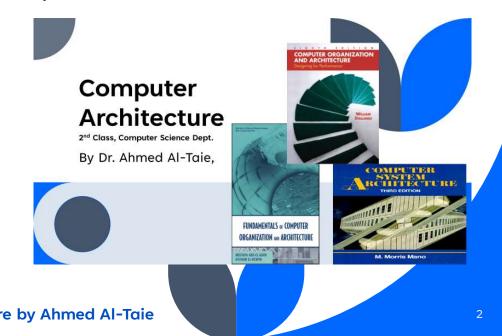
By Dr. Ahmed Al-Taie,





Chapter 1 Introduction to Computer Systems **Outline**

- Historical Background
- Architectural Development and Styles
- Technological Development
- Performance Measures



Introduction to Computer Systems

The technological advances

witnessed in the computer industry are the result of a long chain of immense and successful efforts made by two major forces.

These are the *academia*, represented by university research centers, and the *industry*, represented by computer companies.

The objective

of such historical review is to understand the factors affecting computing as we know it today and hopefully to forecast the future of computation.

A great majority of the computers of our daily use are known as *general purpose machines*.

These are

machines that are built with no specific application in mind, but rather are capable of performing computation needed by a diversity of applications.

These machines are to be **distinguished** from those built to serve specific applications.

The latter are known as **special purpose machines.**

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Computer systems

have conventionally been defined through their interfaces at a number of **layered abstraction levels**, each providing **functional support** to its predecessor.

Included

among the levels are the application programs, the high-level languages, and the set of machine instructions.

Based on the interface between

different levels of the system, a number of computer architectures can be defined.

The interface between

the **application programs** and a **high-level language** is

referred to as a *language architecture*.

The *instruction set architecture* defines the interface between the basic machine instruction set and the runtime and I/O control.

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A different definition of

computer architecture is built on four basic viewpoints.

These are *the structure*, *the organization*, *the implementation*, and *the performance*.

In this definition,

the *structure* defines the interconnection of various hardware components,

the *organization* defines the dynamic interplay and management of the various components,

the *implementation*

defines the detailed design of hardware components, and the **performance specifies** the behavior of the computer system.

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We should emphasize at

- the outset that the effort to build computers has not originated at one single place.
- We also firmly believe that building a computer requires teamwork.

Historical Background

- It is probably fair to say that the first programcontrolled (mechanical) computer ever build was the Z1 (1938).
- This was followed in 1939
 by the Z2 as the first
 operational program controlled computer with
 fixed-point arithmetic.

However,

- the first recorded universitybased attempt to build a computer originated on lowa State University campus in the early 1940s.
- Researchers on that campus were able to build a smallscale special-purpose electronic computer. However, that computer was never completely operational.

Just about the same time

- a complete design of a fully functional programmable special-purpose machine, the Z3, was reported in Germany in 1941.
- It appears that the lack of funding prevented such design from being implemented.

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General-purpose machines

- the University of Pennsylvania is recorded to have hosted the building of the Electronic Numerical Integrator and Calculator (ENIAC) machine in 1944.
- It was the first operational general-purpose machine built using vacuum tubes.
- The machine was primarily built to help compute artillery firing tables during World War II.

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The improved version

- of the ENIAC, called the Electronic Discrete Variable Automatic Computer (EDVAC), was an attempt to improve the way programs are entered and explore the concept of stored programs.
- Inspired by the ENIAC's ideas, researchers at the Institute for Advanced Study (IAS) at Princeton built (in 1946) the IAS machine, which was about 10 times faster than the ENIAC.

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In 1946 and while the EDVAC

- project was in progress, a similar project was initiated at Cambridge University.
- The project was to build a stored-program computer, known as the Electronic Delay Storage Automatic Calculator (EDSAC).
- It was in 1949 that the EDSAC became the world's first fullscale, stored-program, fully operational computer.

A spin-off of the EDSAC

- resulted in a series of machines introduced at Harvard. The series consisted of MARK I, II, III, and IV.
- The latter two machines introduced the concept of separate memories for instructions and data.
- The term Harvard Architecture was given to such machines to indicate the use of separate memories and it is used today to describe machines with separate cache memories.

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The first general-purpose

- commercial computer, the UNIVersal Automatic Computer (UNIVAC I), was on the market by the middle of 1951.
- It represented an improvement over the BINAC, which was built in 1949.
- **IBM** announced its first computer, the **IBM701**, in **1952**.
- The early **1950s** witnessed a slowdown in the computer industry.
- In **1964 IBM** announced a line of products under the name **IBM 360 series**.

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This led Digital Equipment Corporation (DEC)

- to introduce the first minicomputer, the PDP-8. It was considered a remarkably low-cost machine.
- Intel introduced the first microprocessor, the Intel 4004, in 1971.
- The world witnessed the birth of the first personal computer (PC) in 1977 when Apple computer series were first introduced.

In 1977 the world also witnessed

- the introduction of the VAX 11/780 by DEC.
- Intel followed suit by introducing the first of the most popular microprocessor, the 80 86 series.
 - Personal computers, which . were introduced in **1977** by **Altair, Processor Technology, North Star, Tandy, Commodore, Apple**, and many others, **enhanced the productivity** of end-users in numerous departments.

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Personal computers from

- Compaq, Apple, IBM, Dell, and many others, soon became pervasive, and changed the face of computing.
- In parallel with small-scale machines, supercomputers were coming into play.
- The first such supercomputer, the CDC 6600, was introduced in 1961 by Control Data Corporation.
- CrayResearchCorporationintroducedthebestcost/performancesupercomputer,theCray-1, in1976.

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The 1980s and 1990s witnessed the introduction

- of many commercial parallel computers with multiple processors.
- They can generally be classified into two main categories: (1) shared memory and (2) distributed memory systems.
- The number of processors in a single machine ranged from several in a shared memory computer to hundreds of thousands in a massively parallel system.

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Examples of parallel computers during

- this era include Sequent Symmetry, Intel iPSC, nCUBE, Intel Paragon, Thinking Machines (CM-2, CM-5), MsPar MP), Fujitsu (VPP500), and others.
- One of the clear trends in computing is the substitution of centralized servers by networks of computers.
- These networks connect inexpensive, powerful desktop machines to form unequaled computing power.

Local area networks (LAN)

- of powerful personal computers and workstations began to replace mainframes and minis by 1990.
- These individual desktop computers were soon to be connected into larger complexes of computing by wide area networks (WAN).

Summary of Historical Background

- The pervasiveness of the Internet created interest in network computing and more recently in grid computing. Grids are geographically distributed platforms of computation.
- They should provide dependable, consistent, and inexpensive access to high-end computational facilities.
- In Table 1.1, major characteristics of the different computing paradigms are associated with each decade of computing, starting from 1960.

TABLE 1.1 Four Decades of Computing

Feature	Batch	Time-sharing	Desktop	Network
Decade	1960s	1970s	1980s	1990s
Location	Computer room	Terminal room	Desktop	Mobile
Users	Experts	Specialists	Individuals	Groups
Data	Alphanumeric	Text, numbers	Fonts, graphs	Multimedia
Objective	Calculate	Access	Present	Communicate
Interface	Punched card	Keyboard & CRT	See & point	Ask & tell
Operation	Process	Edit	Layout	Orchestrate
Connectivity	None	Peripheral cable	LAN	Internet
Owners	Corporate computer centers	Divisional IS shops	Departmental end U <u>ser</u>	Everyone
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ARCHITECTURAL DEVELOPMENT AND STYLES

- Increasing the performance of the architectures, has taken a number of forms.
- Among these is the philosophy that by doing more in a single instruction, one can use a smaller number of instructions to perform the same job.
- The immediate consequence of this is the need for fewer memory read/write operations and an eventual **speedup** of operations.
- It was also argued that increasing the complexity of instructions and the number of addressing modes has the theoretical advantage of reducing the "semantic gap" between the instructions in a high-level language and those in the low-level (machine) language.
- A single (machine) instruction to convert several binary coded decimal (BCD) numbers to binary is an example for how complex some instructions were intended to be.



ARCHITECTURAL DEVELOPMENT AND STYLES

- The huge number of addressing modes considered (more than 20 in the VAX machine) further adds to the complexity of instructions.
- Machines following this philosophy have been referred to as complex instructions set computers (CISCs).
- Examples of CISC machines include the Intel Pentium[™], the Motorola MC68000[™], and the IBM & Macintosh PowerPC[™].
- It should be noted that as more capabilities were added to their processors, manufacturers realized that it was increasingly difficult to support higher clock rates that would have been possible otherwise.
- This is because of the increased complexity of computations within a single clock period.

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ARCHITECTURAL DEVELOPMENT AND STYLES

- A number of studies (from the mid-1970s and early-1980s) also identified that in typical programs more than 80% of the instructions executed are those using assignment statements, conditional branching and procedure calls.
- It was also surprising to find out that simple assignment statements constitute almost 50% of those operations. These findings caused a different philosophy to emerge.
- This philosophy promotes the optimization of architectures by speeding up those operations that are most frequently used while reducing the instruction complexities and the number of addressing modes.
- Machines following this philosophy have been referred to as reduced instructions set computers (RISCs).
- Examples of RISCs include the Sun SPARC[™] and MIPS[™] machines.

TECHNOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENT

- Computer technology has shown an unprecedented rate of improvement.
- This **includes** the **development** of **processors** and **memories**.
- The integration of numbers of transistors (a transistor is a controlled on/off switch) into a single chip has increased from a few hundred to millions.
- This impressive increase has been made possible by the advances in the fabrication technology of transistors.

TECHNOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENT

- The scale of integration has grown from small-scale (SSI) to medium-scale (MSI) to large-scale (LSI) to very large-scale integration (VLSI), and currently to wafer scale integration (WSI).
- Table 1.2 shows the typical numbers of devices per chip in each of these technologies.

Integration	Technology	Typical number of devices	Typical functions
SSI	Bipolar	10-20	Gates and flip-flops
MSI	Bipolar & MOS	50-100	Adders & counters
LSI	Bipolar & MOS	100-10,000	ROM & RAM
VLSI	CMOS (mostly)	10,000-5,000,000	Processors
WSI	CMOS	>5,000,000	DSP & special purpose

TABLE 1.2	Numbers of Devices per Chip	D
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SSI, small-scale integration; MSI, medium-scale integration; LSI, large-scale integration; VLSI, very large-scale integration; WSI, wafer-scale integration.

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TECHNOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENT

- The continuous decrease in the minimum devices feature size has led to a continuous increase in the number of devices per chip, which in turn has led to a number of developments.
- Among these is the increase in the number of devices in RAM memories, which in turn helps designers to trade off memory size for speed.
- The improvement in the feature size provides golden opportunities for introducing improved design styles.