Processors and Performance

History of Computers



Ward 1



Ward 2

Generations in Computer Organization

- Zeroth generation mechanical computers (1642 - 1945)
- First generation vacuum tubes (1945 1955)
- Second generation transistors (1955 1965)
- Third generation integrated circuits (1965 1980)
- Fourth generation VLSI (Very Large Scale Integration) (1980 - ?)

Milestones in Computer Organization

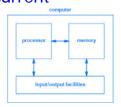
- 1642, Blaise Pascal, mechanical machine with gears to add and subtract
- c. 1670, Baron Gottfried Wilhelm von Leibniz, mechanical machine with gears to add, subtract, multiply and divide
- 1834, Charles Babbage, Analytical Engine (Ada Lovelace wrote its "assembler")
- 1936, Konrad Zuse, Z1, calculator made of electromagnetic relays
- 1940's, John Atanasoff, George Stibbitz, Howard Aiken (Mark I and II); each worked independently on calculating machines with properties such as binary arithmetic and capacitors for memory





Milestones in Computer Organization

- 1943, Alan Turing and British govt., COLOSSUS, first electronic computer
- 1946, John Mauchley and J. Presper Eckert, ENIAC, vacuum tubes
- 1949, Maurice Wilkes, EDSAC, first storedprogram computer
- 1952, John von Neumann, most current computers use his basic design





Milestones in Computer Organization

- 1963, Burroughs, B500, first machine designed for high-level language (Algol)
- 1964, Seymour Cray of CDC (Control Data Corp.), 6600, nearly 10 times as fast as IBM's 7094 because CPU highly parallelized
- 1965, PDP-8, first mass-market minicomputer. Used a single bus.

Milestones in Computer Organization

- 1950's, researchers at M.I.T (Massachusetts Institute of Technology), TX-0, first computer using transistors
- 1960, Kenneth Olsen founder of DEC (Digital Equipment Corp.), PDP-1, first minicomputer.
- 1961, IBM, 1401, very popular small business machine
- 1962, IBM, 7094, 709 with transistors. Dominated scientific computing.

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Milestones in Computer Organization

- 1964, IBM, System/360, a family of machines (low end to high end), all compatible. First computer with multiprogramming (several programs in memory at once). Used integrated circuits (dozens of transistors on one chip)
- 1970, PDP-11, DEC, used integrated circuits.
- 1974, Intel, 8080, first general-purpose computer on a chip



Milestones in Computer Organization

- 1974, Cray-1, first vector computer (single) instructions on vectors of numbers)
- 1978, DEC, VAX, first 32-bit mini-computer
- Steve Jobs and Steve Wozniak, Apple, personal computer (PC)
- 1981, IBM, IBM PC, became most popular PC. Used MS-DOS by Microsoft as OS (operating system) and chip by Intel

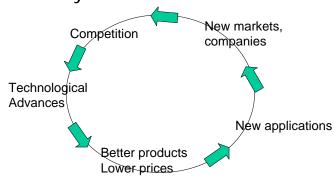
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Milestones in Computer Organization

 Moore's Law: number of transistors on a chip doubles every 18 months. Virtuous cycle:

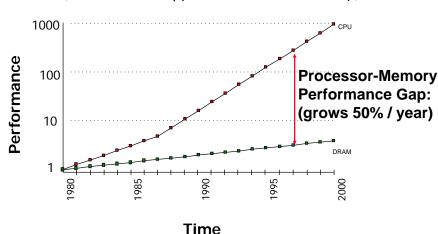


Milestones in Computer Organization

- 1985, MIPS (company), MIPS, First commercial RISC machine
- 1987, Sun Microsystems, SPARC, RISC machine
- 1990, IBM, RS6000, first superscalar machine (CPU very parallelized)

Memory Hierarchy Importance

1980: no cache in uproc; 1995: 2-level cache on chip (1989 first Intel uproc with a cache on chip)



Definition

The terms *processor* and *computational* engine refer broadly to any mechanism that drives computation.

Processor Organization











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Von Neumann Architecture

- Characteristic of most modern processors
- Reference to mathematician John Von Neumann who was one of the computer architecture pioneers
- Central idea is stored program

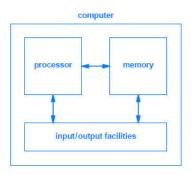
Three Basic Components of Von **Neumann Architecture**

- Processor
- Memory
- I/O facilities

All interact to form a complete computer



Illustration of Von Neumann Architecture



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Hierarchical Structure and Computational Engines

- Most computer architecture follows a hierarchical approach
- Subparts of a large, central processor are sophisticated enough to meet our definition of processor
- Some engineers use term computational engine for sub-piece that is less powerful than main processor

Processor

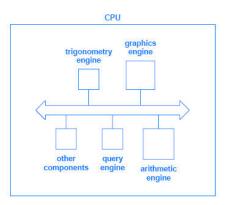
- Digital device
- Performs computation involving multiple steps
- Building blocks used to form computer system

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Illustration of Processor Hierarchy





Major Components of a Conventional **Processor**

- Controller
- Computational engine (ALU)
- Local data storage
- Internal interconnection(s)
- External interface

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Parts of a Conventional Processor [1]

- Controller
 - Overall responsibility for execution
 - Moves through sequence of steps
 - Coordinates other units
- Computational engine
 - Operates as directed by controller
 - Typically provides arithmetic and Boolean operations (ALU)
 - Performs one operation at a time

external connection

external interface

Illustration of a Conventional

Processor

Parts of a Conventional Processor [2]

- Local data storage
 - Holds data values for operations
 - Must be loaded before operation can be performed
 - Typically implemented with registers
- Internal interconnections
 - Allow transfer of values among units of the processor
 - Sometimes called data path





Parts of a Conventional Processor [3]

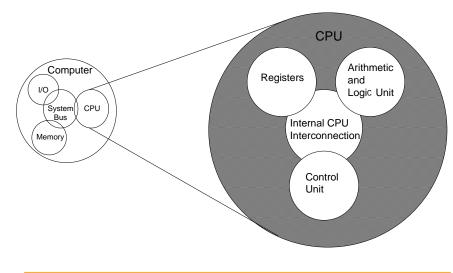
- External interface
 - Handles communication between processor and rest of computer system
 - Provides connections to external memory as well as external I/O devices



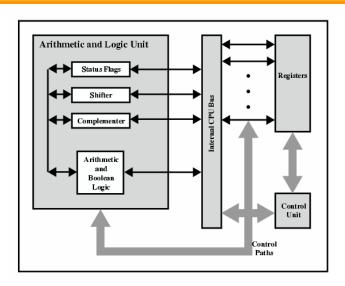
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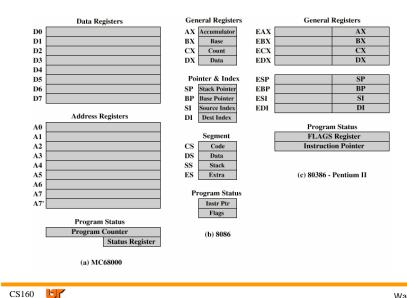
Another Illustration of Processor



Yet Another Illustration



Example Register Organizations



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Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU)

- Main computational engine in conventional processor
- Complex unit that can perform variety of tasks
- Typical ALU operations
 - Integer arithmetic (add, subtract, multiply, divide)
 - Shift (left, right, circular)
 - Boolean (and, or, not, exclusive or)









Coprocessor

- Operates in conjunction with and under the control of another processor
- Usually
 - Special-purpose processor
 - Performs a single task
 - Operates at high speed
- Example: floating point accelerator

Processor Categories and Roles

- Many possible roles for individual processors in
 - Coprocessors
 - Microcontrollers
 - Microsequencers
 - Embedded system processors
 - General-purpose processors

Microcontroller

- Programmable device
- Dedicated to control of a physical system
- Example: run automobile engine or grocery store door





Example Steps a Microcontroller Performs (Automatic Door)

```
do forever {
    wait for the sensor to be tripped;
    turn on power to the door motor;
    wait for a signal that indicates the
    door is open;
    wait for the sensor to reset;
    delay ten seconds;
    turn off power to the door motor;
}
```











Embedded System Processor

- Runs sophisticated electronic device
- Usually more powerful than microcontroller
- Example: control DVD player, including commands from a remote control

Microsequencer

- Similar to microcontroller
- Controls coprocessors and other engines within a large processor
- Example: move operands to floating point unit; invoke an operation; move result back to memory



General-Purpose Processor

- Most powerful type of processor
- Completely programmable
- Full functionality
- Example: CPU in a personal computer





Processor Performance

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Basic Performance Equation

Define:

N = actual number of instructions executed in program

S = average number of cycles for instructions in program

 $R = \operatorname{clock} \operatorname{rate}$

T = program execution time

$$\mathcal{T} = \frac{N * S}{R}$$

Clock and Instruction Rate

- Clock cycle
 - Time interval in which all basic circuits (steps) inside a processor must complete
 - Time at which gates are clocked
- Clock rate
 - 1 / clock cycle (GHz billion cycles per second)
- Instruction rate
 - Measure of time required to execute instructions (MIPS – million instructions per second)
 - Varies because some instructions take more time (require more cycles) than others
 - Can typically estimate average cycles per instruction for normal job mix

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Improve Performance

- To improve performance, must decrease N or S or increase R
- Parameters are not independent (e.g., increasing R may increase S)
- N primarily controlled by compiler
- Processors with largest R may not have the best performance (due to different S)
- Making logic circuits faster is a clear win, increases R while S and N remain unchanged



Benchmarks

- SPEC rating
 - Based upon a suite of applications

$$SPEC_i = \frac{run \ time \ on \ reference \ computer}{run \ time \ on \ test \ computer}$$

SPEC rating =
$$\left(\prod_{i=1}^{n} SPEC_{i}\right)^{1/n}$$

- http://www.spec.org
- LINPACK (Scientific Computing)
 - Speed in solving linear system of equation
 - http://www.top500.org/lists/2005/11/basic

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