CS 152 Computer Architecture and Engineering

Lecture 1 - Introduction

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http://inst.eecs.berkeley.edu/~cs152
In its broadest definition, computer architecture is the design of the abstraction layers that allow us to implement information processing applications efficiently using available manufacturing technologies. (but there are exceptions, e.g. magnetic compass)
Abstraction Layers in Modern Systems

UCB EECS Courses
CS170
CS164
CS162

CS152
EECS151
EE143

Application
Algorithm
Programming Language
Operating System/Virtual Machines
Instruction Set Architecture (ISA)
Microarchitecture
Gates/Register-Transfer Level (RTL)
Circuits
Devices
Physics
Architecture continually changing

Applications provide need to improve technology, provide revenue to fund development

Cost of software development makes compatibility a major force in market

Improved technologies make new applications possible
Computing Devices Then...

EDSAC, University of Cambridge, UK, 1949
Computing Devices Now

- Sensor Nets
- Cameras
- Set-top boxes
- Games
- Media Players
- Laptops
- Servers
- Routers
- Robots
- Smart phones
- Automobiles
- Supercomputers
Moore’s Law
The Fifth Paradigm

Major Technology Generations

Calculations per Second per $1,000

Electromechanical
Relays
Vacuum Tubes
Bipolar
CMOS
nMOS
pMOS
Integrated Circuit

[from Kurzweil]
Uniprocessor Performance


- **VAX**: 25%/year 1978 to 1986
- **RISC + x86**: 52%/year 1986 to 2002
- **RISC + x86**: ??%/year 2002 to present

What happened???
The End of the Uniprocessor Era

*Single biggest change in the history of computing systems*
This Year’s CS152

• CS152 focuses on interaction of software and hardware
  – more architecture and less digital engineering
  – more useful for OS developers, compiler writers, performance programmers

• Much of the material you’ll learn this term was previously in CS252
  – Some of the current CS61C, I first saw in CS252 over 20 years ago!
  – Maybe every 10 years, shift CS252->CS152->CS61C?

• Class contains labs based on various different machine designs
  – Experiment with how architectural mechanisms work in practice with real software.
  – Designs written in Chisel hardware description language
  – Get to see (and modify) all the working parts of a modern microprocessor
  – Hopefully FPGA versions later in course!
Related Courses

CS61C
- Basic computer organization, first look at pipelines + caches

CS 152
- Computer Architecture, first look at parallel architectures
- Strong Prerequisite

EECS 151
- Digital Logic Design, FPGAs, ASICs

CS 250
- VLSI Systems Design

CS 252
- Graduate Computer Architecture, Advanced Topics
CS152 Executive Summary

The processor you built in CS61C

What you’ll understand and experiment with in CS152

Plus, the technology behind chip-scale multiprocessors (CMPs) and graphics processing units (GPUs)
CS152 Administrivia

Instructor: Prof. John Wawrzynek, johnw@eecs
Office: 631 Soda Hall
Office Hours: Tuesday 12:30-1:30PM, 631 Soda

GSI: Martin Maas, maas@eecs
Office Hours: Friday 1-2PM, 9 Evans (after discussion section)

Lectures: Tu/Th, 11-12:30PM, 306 Soda (Possible room change!)
Section: F 1-2PM, 9 Evans

Text: Computer Architecture: A Quantitative Approach,
Hennessey and Patterson, 5th Edition (2012)
Readings assigned from this edition, some readings available in older editions –see web page.

Web page: http://inst.eecs.berkeley.edu/~cs152
Lectures available online by noon before class

Piazza: http://piazza.com/berkeley/spring2013/cs152
CS152 Structure and Syllabus

Five modules

1. Simple machine design (ISAs, microprogramming, unpipelined machines, Iron Law, simple pipelines)
2. Memory hierarchy (DRAM, caches, optimizations) plus virtual memory systems, exceptions, interrupts
3. Complex pipelining (score-boarding, out-of-order issue)
4. Explicitly parallel processors (vector machines, VLIW machines, multithreaded machines)
5. Multiprocessor architectures (memory models, cache coherence, synchronization)
CS152 Course Components

• 15% Problem Sets (one per module)
  – Intended to help you learn the material. Feel free to discuss with other students and instructors, but must turn in your own solutions. Grading based mostly on effort, but quizzes assume that you have worked through all problems. Solutions released after PSs handed in.

• 40% Labs (one per module)
  – Labs use advanced full system simulators (Chisel simulators)
  – Directed plus open-ended sections to each lab

• 45% Quizzes (one per module)
  – In-class, closed-book, no calculators, no smartphones, no laptops,...
  – Based on lectures, readings, problem sets, and labs
CS152 Labs

- Each lab has directed plus open-ended assignments
- Directed portion (50%) is intended to ensure you learn main concepts behind lab
  - Everyone must perform own lab and hand in their own lab report
  - You may discuss the exercise with others
- Open-ended assignment (50%) is to allow you to show your creativity
  - Roughly a one-day “mini-project” (probably more if working alone)
    » E.g., try an architectural idea and measure potential, negative results OK (if explainable!)
  - You can work individually or in groups of two or three (larger groups are expected to do more work!)
  - Groups turn in a single report.
  - Need to fill out 2 online forms
    » One to “register” your group - (First one due 9/1)
    » Another to provide feedback and credit each group member.
  - Students encouraged to work in different groups for different assignments
- Lab reports must be readable English summaries – not dumps of log files! In PDF format and with posted page limit.
RISC-V ISA

- RISC-V is a new simple, clean, extensible ISA developed at Berkeley for education and research
  - RISC-I/II, first Berkeley RISC implementations
  - Berkeley research machines SOAR/SPUR considered RISC-III/IV
- Both of the dominant ISAs (x86 and ARM) are too complex to use for teaching
- RISC-V ISA manual available on web page (riscv.org)
- Full GCC-based tool chain available
Chisel simulators

• Chisel is a new hardware description language we developed at Berkeley based on Scala
  – Constructing Hardware in a Scala Embedded Language

• Labs will use RISC-V processor simulators derived from Chisel processor designs
  – Gives you much more detailed information than other simulators
  – Can map to FPGA or real chip layout

• You need to learn some minimal Chisel in CS152, but we’ll make Chisel RTL source available so you can see all the details of our processors

• Can do lab projects based on modifying the Chisel RTL code if desired
Chisel Design Flow

Chisel Design Description

Chisel Compiler

C++ code

C++ Compiler

FPGA Verilog

FPGA Tools

FPGA Emulation

ASIC Verilog

ASIC Tools

GDS Layout

C++ Simulator
Computer Architecture: A Little History

Throughout the course we’ll use a historical narrative to help understand why certain ideas arose.

Why worry about old ideas?

• Helps to illustrate the design process, and explains why certain decisions were taken.

• Because future technologies might be as constrained as older ones.

• Those who ignore history are doomed to repeat it.
  – Every mistake made in mainframe design was also made in minicomputers, then microcomputers, where next?
Charles Babbage 1791-1871
Lucasian Professor of Mathematics,
Cambridge University, 1827-1839
Charles Babbage

• *Difference Engine* 1823

• *Analytic Engine* 1833
  – The forerunner of modern digital computer!

Application
  – Mathematical Tables – Astronomy
  – Nautical Tables – Navy

Background
  – Technique from *Weierstrass*
    – Any continuous function can be approximated by a polynomial
    – Any polynomial can be computed from *difference* tables

Technology
  – mechanical - gears, Jacquard’s loom
Difference Engine
A machine to compute mathematical tables

Weierstrass:
- Any continuous function can be approximated by a polynomial
- Any polynomial can be computed from difference tables

An example

\[ f(n) = n^2 + n + 41 \]
\[ d1(n) = f(n) - f(n-1) = 2n \]
\[ d2(n) = d1(n) - d1(n-1) = 2 \]

\[ f(n) = f(n-1) + d1(n) = f(n-1) + (d1(n-1) + 2) \]

all you need is an adder!

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>n</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>d2(n)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>![Red Arrow]2 ![Red Arrow]2 ![Red Arrow]2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d1(n)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>![Red Arrow]4 ![Red Arrow]6 ![Red Arrow]8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Difference Engine

1823
-  Babbage’s paper is published

1834
-  The paper is read by Scheutz & his son in Sweden

1842
-  Babbage gives up the idea of building it; he is onto Analytic Engine!

1855
-  Scheutz displays his machine at the Paris World Fare
-  Can compute any 6th degree polynomial
-  Speed: 33 to 44 32-digit numbers per minute!

Now the machine is at the Smithsonian
Analytic Engine

1833: Babbage’s paper was published
- conceived during a hiatus in the development of the difference engine

Inspiration: *Jacquard Looms*
- looms were controlled by punched cards
  » The set of cards with fixed punched holes dictated the pattern of weave ⇒ *program*
  » The same set of cards could be used with different colored threads ⇒ *numbers*

1871: Babbage dies
- The machine remains unrealized.

*It is not clear if the analytic engine could be built using the mechanical technology of the time*
Analytic Engine
The first conception of a general-purpose computer

1. The store in which all variables to be operated upon, as well as all those quantities which have arisen from the results of the operations are placed.
2. The mill into which the quantities about to be operated upon are always brought.

The program

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>variable1</th>
<th>variable2</th>
<th>variable3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

An operation in the mill required feeding two punched cards and producing a new punched card for the store.

An operation to alter the sequence was also provided!
The first programmer
Ada Byron aka “Lady Lovelace” 1815-52

Ada’s tutor was Babbage himself!
Babbage’s Influence

• Babbage’s ideas had great influence later primarily because of
  – Luigi Menabrea, who published notes of Babbage’s lectures in Italy
  – Lady Lovelace, who translated Menabrea’s notes into English and thoroughly expanded them.
    “... Analytic Engine weaves algebraic patterns....”

• In the early twentieth century - the focus shifted to analog computers but
  – Harvard Mark I built in 1944 is very close in spirit to the Analytic Engine.
Harvard Mark I

• Built in 1944 in IBM Endicott laboratories
  – Howard Aiken – Professor of Physics at Harvard
  – Essentially mechanical but had some electro-magnetically controlled relays and gears
  – Weighed 5 tons and had 750,000 components
  – A synchronizing clock that beat every 0.015 seconds (66Hz)

Performance:
  0.3 seconds for addition
  6 seconds for multiplication
  1 minute for a sine calculation

Decimal arithmetic
No Conditional Branch!

Broke down once a week!
Linear Equation Solver
John Atanasoff, Iowa State University

1930’s:
- Atanasoff built the Linear Equation Solver.
- It had 300 tubes!
- Special-purpose binary digital calculator
- Dynamic RAM (stored values on refreshed capacitors)

Application:
- Linear and Integral differential equations

Background:
- Vannevar Bush’s Differential Analyzer
  --- an analog computer

Technology:
- Tubes and Electromechanical relays

Atanasoff decided that the correct mode of computation was using electronic binary digits.
Electronic Numerical Integrator and Computer (ENIAC)

• Inspired by Atanasoff and Berry, Eckert and Mauchly designed and built ENIAC (1943-45) at the University of Pennsylvania
• The first, completely electronic, operational, general-purpose analytical calculator!
  – 30 tons, 72 square meters, 200KW
• Performance
  – Read in 120 cards per minute
  – Addition took 200 $\mu$s, Division 6 ms
  – 1000 times faster than Mark I
• Not very reliable!

Application: Ballistic calculations

angle = f (location, tail wind, cross wind, air density, temperature, weight of shell, propellant charge, ... )
Electronic Discrete Variable Automatic Computer (EDVAC)

• ENIAC’s programming system was external
  – Sequences of instructions were executed independently of the results of the calculation
  – Human intervention required to take instructions “out of order”

• Eckert, Mauchly, John von Neumann and others designed EDVAC (1944) to solve this problem
  – Solution was the stored program computer
    \[ \Rightarrow \text{“program can be manipulated as data”} \]

• First Draft of a report on EDVAC was published in 1945, but just had von Neumann’s signature!
  – In 1973 the court of Minneapolis attributed the honor of inventing the computer to John Atanasoff
Stored Program Computer

Program = A sequence of instructions

How to control instruction sequencing?

manual control

automatic control

- external (paper tape) Harvard Mark I, 1944
- Zuse’s Z1, WW2

internal

- plug board ENIAC 1946
- read-only memory ENIAC 1948
- read-write memory EDVAC 1947

• The same storage can be used to store program and data

EDSAC 1950 Maurice Wilkes
Technology Issues

ENIAC
18,000 tubes
20 10-digit numbers

EDVAC
4,000 tubes
2000 word storage
mercury delay lines

*ENIAC had many asynchronous parallel units but only one was active at a time*

BINAC: Two processors that checked each other for reliability.

_Didn’t work well because processors never agreed_
Dominant Problem: *Reliability*

Mean time between failures (MTBF)

*MIT’s Whirlwind with an MTBF of 20 min. was perhaps the most reliable machine!*

Reasons for unreliability

1. Vacuum Tubes
2. Storage medium
   - acoustic delay lines
   - mercury delay lines
   - Williams tubes
   - Selections

Reliability solved by invention of Core memory by J. Forrester 1954 at MIT for Whirlwind project
Commercial Activity: 1948-52

IBM’s SSEC (follow on from Harvard Mark I)

Selective Sequence Electronic Calculator

– 150 word store.
– Instructions, constraints, and tables of data were read from paper tapes.
– 66 Tape reading stations!
– Tapes could be glued together to form a loop!
– Data could be output in one phase of computation and read in the next phase of computation.
And then there was IBM 701

IBM 701 -- 30 machines were sold in 1953-54
used CRTs as main memory, 72 tubes of 32x32b each

IBM 650 -- a cheaper, drum based machine,
more than 120 were sold in 1954
and there were orders for 750 more!

Users stopped building their own machines.

Why was IBM late getting into computer
technology?

IBM was making too much money!
Even without computers, IBM revenues were
doubling every 4 to 5 years in 40’s and 50’s.
Computers in mid 50’s

- Hardware was expensive
- Stores were small (1000 words)
  ⇒ No resident system software!
- Memory access time was 10 to 50 times slower than the processor cycle
  ⇒ Instruction execution time was totally dominated by the memory reference time.
- The *ability to design complex control circuits* to execute an instruction was the central design concern as opposed to *the speed* of decoding or an ALU operation
- Programmer’s view of the machine was inseparable from the actual hardware implementation
The IBM 650 (1953-4)

Magnetic Drum (1,000 or 2,000 10-digit decimal words)

Active instruction (including next program counter)

20-digit accumulator

Digit-serial ALU

[From 650 Manual, © IBM]
Programmer’s view of the IBM 650

A drum machine with 44 instructions

Instruction: 60 1234 1009
• “Load the contents of location 1234 into the distribution; put it also into the upper accumulator; set lower accumulator to zero; and then go to location 1009 for the next instruction.”

Good programmers optimized the placement of instructions on the drum to reduce latency!
The Earliest Instruction Sets

_Single Accumulator_ - A carry-over from the calculators.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instruction</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LOAD x</td>
<td>AC ← M[x]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STORE x</td>
<td>M[x] ← (AC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADD x</td>
<td>AC ← (AC) + M[x]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUB x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MUL x</td>
<td>Involved a quotient register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIV x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SHIFT LEFT</td>
<td>AC ← 2 × (AC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SHIFT RIGHT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JUMP x</td>
<td>PC ← x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JGE x</td>
<td>if (AC) ≥ 0 then PC ← x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOAD ADR x</td>
<td>AC ← Extract address field(M[x])</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STORE ADR x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

_Typically less than 2 dozen instructions!_
### Programming:
#### Single Accumulator Machine

**Equation:**
\[ C_i \leftarrow A_i + B_i, \; 1 \leq i \leq n \]

**Code:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instruction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LOOP LOAD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JGE DONE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADD ONE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STORE N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F1 LOAD A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2 ADD B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F3 STORE C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JUMP LOOP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DONE HLT</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **A:** 
- **B:** 
- **C:**
  - N: \(-n\)
  - ONE: 1

**Question:** How to modify the addresses A, B and C?
Self-Modifying Code

\[
C_i \leftarrow A_i + B_i, \quad 1 \leq i \leq n
\]

Each iteration involves

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>total book-keeping</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>instruction fetches</td>
<td>17 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>operand fetches</td>
<td>10 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stores</td>
<td>5 4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

modify the program for the next iteration

9/25/2016
Index Registers

Tom Kilburn, Manchester University, mid 50’s

One or more specialized registers to simplify address calculation

Modify existing instructions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LOAD</th>
<th>x, IX</th>
<th>AC ← M[x + (IX)]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ADD</td>
<td>x, IX</td>
<td>AC ← (AC) + M[x + (IX)]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Add new instructions to manipulate index registers

| JZi     | x, IX | if (IX)=0 then PC ← x  
|         |       |   else IX ← (IX) + 1 |
| LOADi   | x, IX | IX ← M[x] (truncated to fit IX) |
|         |       | ...              |

Index registers have accumulator-like characteristics
Using Index Registers

\[ C_i \leftarrow A_i + B_i, \ 1 \leq i \leq n \]

LOADi -n, IX  
LOOP JZi DONE, IX  
LOAD LASTA, IX  
ADD LASTB, IX  
STORE LASTC, IX  
JUMP LOOP  
DONE HALT

- **Program does not modify itself**
- **Efficiency has improved dramatically (ops / iter)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>with index regs</th>
<th>without index regs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>instruction fetch</td>
<td>5 (2)</td>
<td>17 (14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>operand fetch</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10 (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>store</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5 (4)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **Costs:** Instructions are 1 to 2 bits longer  
  Index registers with ALU-like circuitry  
  Complex control
Operations on Index Registers

To increment index register by k

\[
\text{AC} \leftarrow (\text{IX}) \quad \text{new instruction}
\]
\[
\text{AC} \leftarrow (\text{AC}) + k
\]
\[
\text{IX} \leftarrow (\text{AC}) \quad \text{new instruction}
\]

also the AC must be saved and restored.

It may be better to increment IX directly

\[
\text{INCI} \quad k, \text{IX} \quad \text{IX} \leftarrow (\text{IX}) + k
\]

More instructions to manipulate index register

\[
\text{STOREI} \quad x, \text{IX} \quad \text{M}[x] \leftarrow (\text{IX}) \text{ (extended to fit a word)}
\]

...  

**IX begins to look like an accumulator**

⇒ several index registers

⇒ several accumulators

⇒ General Purpose Registers
Evolution of Addressing Modes

1. Single accumulator, absolute address
   LOAD x

2. Single accumulator, index registers
   LOAD x, IX

3. Indirection
   LOAD (x) memory address x hold address

4. Multiple accumulators, index registers, indirection
   LOAD R, IX, x
   or LOAD R, IX, (x) the meaning?
   \[ R \leftarrow M[M[x] + IX] \]
   or \[ R \leftarrow M[M[x + IX]] \]

5. Indirect through registers
   LOAD R_I, (R_J) Reg R_J holds address

6. The works
   LOAD R_I, R_J, (R_K) R_J = index, R_K = base addr
Variety of Instruction Formats

- **One address formats**: Accumulator machines
  - Accumulator is always other source and destination operand

- **Two address formats**: the destination is same as one of the operand sources
  
  \[(\text{Reg} \times \text{Reg}) \text{ to Reg} \quad R_i \leftarrow (R_i) + (R_j)\]
  \[(\text{Reg} \times \text{Mem}) \text{ to Reg} \quad R_i \leftarrow (R_i) + M[x]\]
  
  - \(x\) can be specified directly or via a register
  - effective address calculation for \(x\) could include indexing, indirection, ...

- **Three address formats**: One destination and up to two operand sources per instruction
  
  \[(\text{Reg} \times \text{Reg}) \text{ to Reg} \quad R_i \leftarrow (R_j) + (R_k)\]
  \[(\text{Reg} \times \text{Mem}) \text{ to Reg} \quad R_i \leftarrow (R_j) + M[x]\]
Zero Address Formats

- Operands on a stack

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{add} & \quad M[sp-1] \leftarrow M[sp] + M[sp-1] \\
\text{load} & \quad M[sp] \leftarrow M[M[sp]]
\end{align*}
\]

- Stack can be in registers or in memory (usually top of stack cached in registers)
Burrough’s B5000 Stack Architecture:
An ALGOL Machine, Robert Barton, 1960

• Machine implementation can be completely hidden if the programmer is provided only a high-level language interface.

• Stack machine organization because stacks are convenient for:
   1. expression evaluation;
   2. subroutine calls, recursion, nested interrupts;
   3. accessing variables in block-structured languages.

• B6700, a later model, had many more innovative features
  – tagged data
  – virtual memory
  – multiple processors and memories
Evaluation of Expressions

\[
\frac{(a + b \times c)}{(a + d \times c - e)}
\]

Reverse Polish

\[a \ b \ c \ * \ + \ a \ d \ c \ * \ + \ e \ - \ /
\]

Evaluation Stack
Evaluation of Expressions

\[(a + b * c) / (a + d * c - e)\]

Reverse Polish

\[a \ b \ c \ * \ + \ a \ d \ c \ * \ + \ e \ - \ /\]

Evaluation Stack
Hardware organization of the stack

• Stack is part of the processor state
  ⇒ *stack must be bounded and small*
  ≈ number of Registers,
  *not* the size of main memory

• Conceptually stack is unbounded
  ⇒ *a part of the stack is included in the processor state; the rest is kept in the main memory*
Stack Operations and Implicit Memory References

- Suppose the top 2 elements of the stack are kept in registers and the rest is kept in the memory.
  
  Each push operation $\Rightarrow$ 1 memory reference
  
  pop operation $\Rightarrow$ 1 memory reference
  
  No Good!

- Better performance by keeping the top N elements in registers, and memory references are made only when register stack overflows or underflows.

  Issue - when to Load/Unload registers?
# Stack Size and Memory References

```plaintext
program                      stack (size = 2)                      memory refs
push a                       R0                                      a
push b                       R0 R1                                     b
push c                       R0 R1 R2                                  c, ss(a)
*                             R0 R1                                     sf(a)
+                             R0
push a                       R0 R1                                     a
push d                       R0 R1 R2                                  d, ss(a+b*c)
push c                       R0 R1 R2 R3                               c, ss(a)
*                             R0 R1 R2                                 sf(a)
+                             R0 R1                                     sf(a+b*c)
push e                       R0 R1 R2                                  e, ss(a+b*c)
push d                       R0 R1 R2                                  e, ss(a+b*c)
/                             R0                                      sf(a+b*c)
```

4 stores (implicit), 4 fetches
Stack Size and Expression Evaluation

\[
a b c * + a d c * + e - /\]

**program**

- push a
- push b
- push c
- *
- +
- push a
- push d
- push c
- *
- +
- push e
- -
- /

**stack (size = 4)**

- R0
- R0 R1
- R0 R1 R2
- R0 R1
- R0
- R0 R1
- R0 R1 R2
- R0 R1 R2
- R0 R1 R2 R3
- R0 R1 R2
- R0 R1
- R0 R1
- R0 R1
- R0

*a and c are “loaded” twice
⇒ not the best use of registers!*
Register Usage in a GPR Machine

\[(a + b \times c) / (a + d \times c - e)\]

More control over register usage since registers can be named explicitly

- Reuse R2
- Reuse R3
- Reuse R0

Load R0 a
Load R1 c
Load R2 b
Mul R2 R1
Add R2 R0
Load R3 d
Mul R3 R1
Add R3 R0
Load R0 e
Sub R3 R0
Div R2 R3

Load Ri m
Load Ri (Rj)
Load Ri (Rj) (Rk)

⇒

- eliminates unnecessary Loads and Stores
- fewer Registers

but instructions may be longer!
Stack Machines: Essential features

- In addition to push, pop, + etc., the instruction set must provide the capability to:
  - refer to any element in the data area
  - jump to any instruction in the code area
  - move any element in the stack frame to the top

machinery to carry out +, -, etc.
Stack versus GPR Organization
Amdahl, Blaauw and Brooks, 1964

1. The performance advantage of push down stack organization is derived from the presence of fast registers and not the way they are used.
2. “Surfacing” of data in stack which are “profitable” is approximately 50% because of constants and common subexpressions.
3. Advantage of instruction density because of implicit addresses is equaled if short addresses to specify registers are allowed.
5. Recursive subroutine advantage can be realized only with the help of an independent stack for addressing.
6. Fitting variable-length fields into fixed-width word is awkward.
Stack Machines ( Mostly ) Died by 1980

1. Stack programs are not smaller if short (Register) addresses are permitted.

2. Modern compilers can manage fast register space better than the stack discipline.

   GPR’s and caches are better than stack

   Early language-directed architectures often did not take into account the role of compilers!

   B5000, B6700, HP 3000, ICL 2900, Symbolics 3600

Some would claim that an echo of this mistake is visible in the SPARC architecture register windows - more later...
Stacks post-1980

• Inmos Transputers (1985-2000)
  – Designed to support many parallel processes in Occam language
  – Fixed-height stack design simplified implementation
  – Stack trashed on context swap (fast context switches)
  – Inmos T800 was world’s fastest microprocessor in late 80’s

• Forth machines
  – Direct support for Forth execution in small embedded real-time environments
  – Several manufacturers (Rockwell, Patriot Scientific)

• Java Virtual Machine
  – Designed for software emulation, not direct hardware execution
  – Sun PicoJava implementation + others

• Intel x87 floating-point unit
  – Severely broken stack model for FP arithmetic
  – Deprecated in Pentium-4, replaced with SSE2 FP registers
Software Developments

up to 1955 Libraries of numerical routines
  - Floating point operations
  - Transcendental functions
  - Matrix manipulation, equation solvers, . . .

1955-60 High level Languages - Fortran 1956
  Operating Systems -
  - Assemblers, Loaders, Linkers, Compilers
  - Accounting programs to keep track of usage and charges

Machines required experienced operators
  ⇒ Most users could not be expected to understand these programs, much less write them
  ⇒ Machines had to be sold with a lot of resident software
Compatibility Problem at IBM

By early 60’s, IBM had 4 incompatible lines of computers!

701 → 7094
650 → 7074
702 → 7080
1401 → 7010

Each system had its own

- Instruction set
- I/O system and Secondary Storage: magnetic tapes, drums and disks
- assemblers, compilers, libraries,...
- market niche
  business, scientific, real time, ...

⇒ IBM 360
IBM 360 : Design Premises
Amdahl, Blaauw and Brooks, 1964

• The design must lend itself to *growth and successor machines*
• General method for connecting I/O devices
• Total performance - answers per month rather than bits per microsecond ⇒ *programming aids*
• Machine must be capable of *supervising itself* without manual intervention
• Built-in *hardware fault checking* and locating aids to reduce down time
• Simple to assemble systems with redundant I/O devices, memories etc. for *fault tolerance*
• Some problems required floating-point larger than 36 bits
IBM 360: A General-Purpose Register (GPR) Machine

• Processor State
  – 16 General-Purpose 32-bit Registers
    » *may be used as index and base register*
    » *Register 0 has some special properties*
  – 4 Floating Point 64-bit Registers
  – A Program Status Word (PSW)
    » *PC, Condition codes, Control flags*

• A 32-bit machine with 24-bit addresses
  – But no instruction contains a 24-bit address!

• Data Formats
  – 8-bit bytes, 16-bit half-words, 32-bit words, 64-bit double-words

*The IBM 360 is why bytes are 8-bits long today!*
IBM 360: Initial Implementations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Model 30</th>
<th>...</th>
<th>Model 70</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Storage</td>
<td>8K - 64 KB</td>
<td></td>
<td>256K - 512 KB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Datapath</td>
<td>8-bit</td>
<td></td>
<td>64-bit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Circuit Delay</td>
<td>30 nsec/level</td>
<td></td>
<td>5 nsec/level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Store</td>
<td>Main Store</td>
<td></td>
<td>Transistor Registers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IBM 360 instruction set architecture (ISA) completely hid the underlying technological differences between various models.

Milestone: The first true ISA designed as portable hardware-software interface!

With minor modifications it still survives today!
IBM 360: 47 years later...
The zSeries z11 Microprocessor

- 5.2 GHz in IBM 45nm PD-SOI CMOS technology
- 1.4 billion transistors in 512 mm²
- 64-bit virtual addressing
  - original S/360 was 24-bit, and S/370 was 31-bit extension
- Quad-core design
- Three-issue out-of-order superscalar pipeline
- Out-of-order memory accesses
- Redundant datapaths
  - every instruction performed in two parallel datapaths and results compared
- 64KB L1 I-cache, 128KB L1 D-cache on-chip
- 1.5MB private L2 unified cache per core, on-chip
- On-Chip 24MB eDRAM L3 cache
- Scales to 96-core multiprocessor with 768MB of shared L4 eDRAM

[IBM, HotChips, 2010]
And in conclusion ...

- Computer Architecture >> ISAs and RTL
- CS152 is about interaction of hardware and software, and design of appropriate abstraction layers
- Computer architecture is shaped by technology and applications
  - History provides lessons for the future
- Computer Science at the crossroads from sequential to parallel computing
  - Salvation requires innovation in many fields, including computer architecture
- Read Chapter 1 & Appendix A for next time!
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