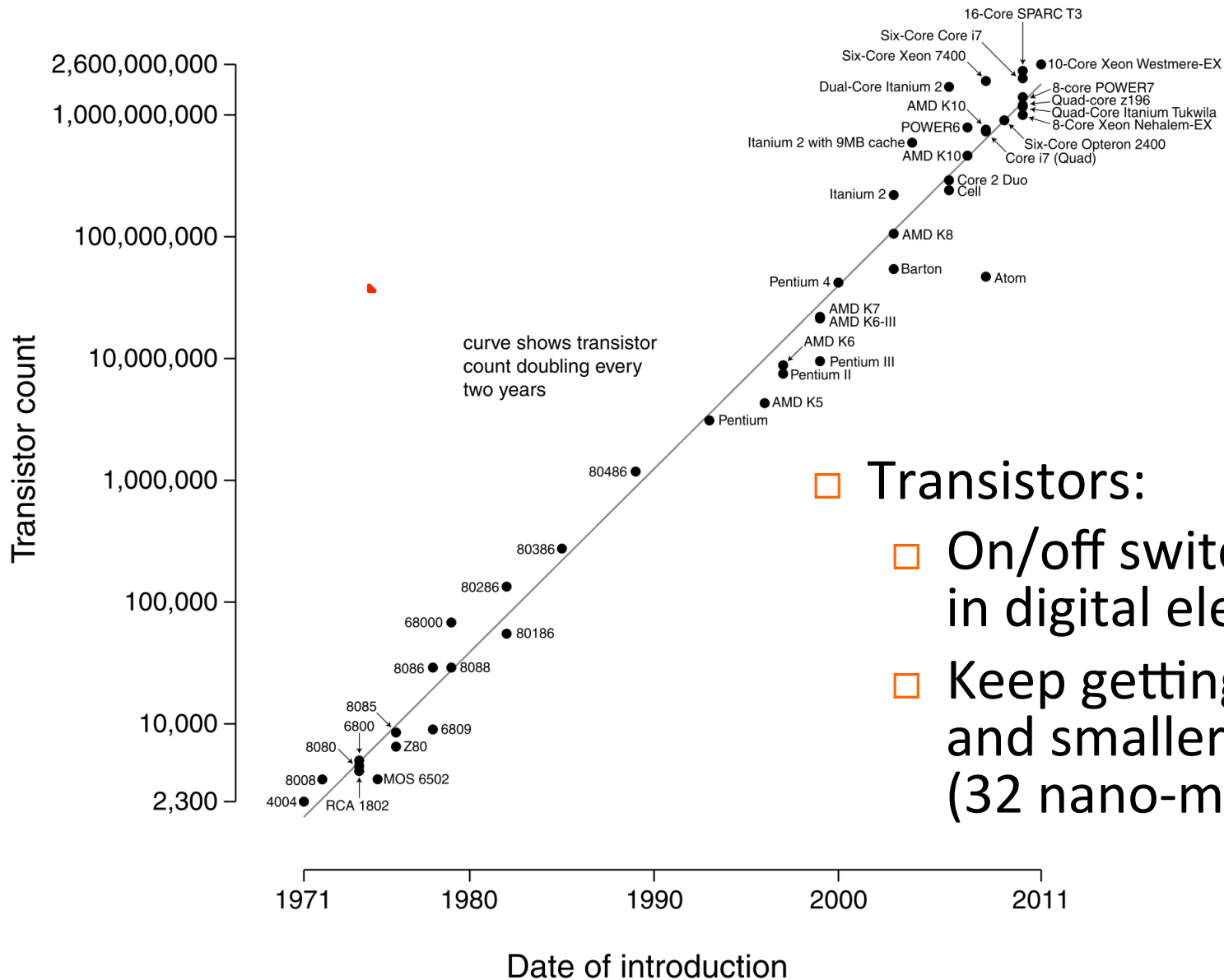


Historical Development

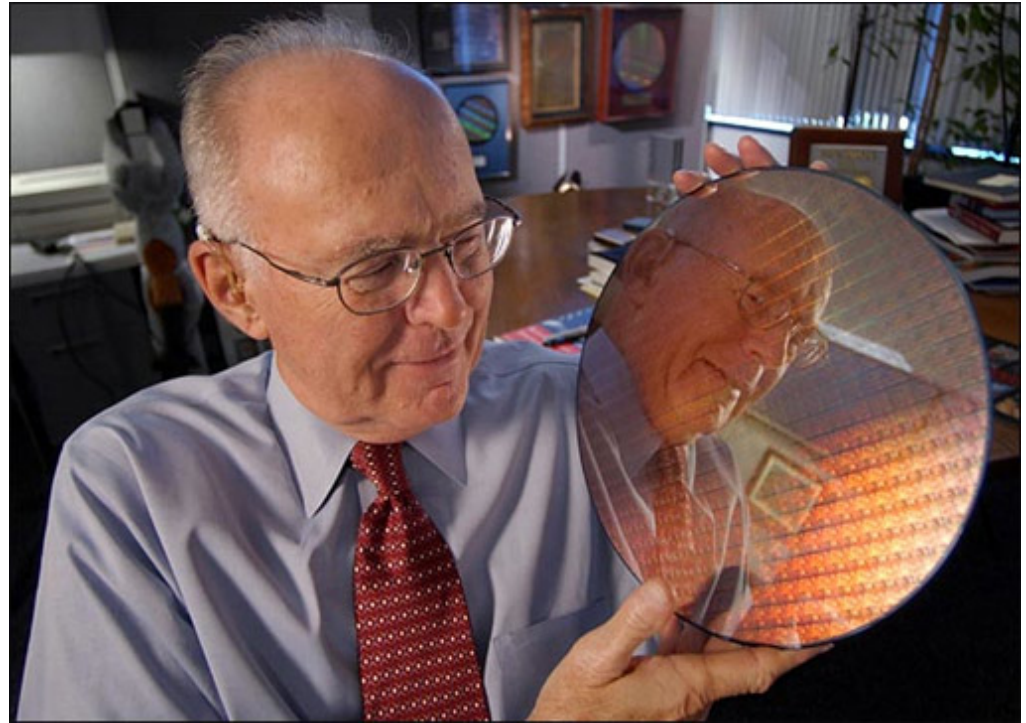
- **The Fourth Generation: VLSI Computers (1980 - ????)**
 - Very large scale integrated circuits (VLSI) have more than 10,000 components per chip
 - Build microprocessors on a single chip
 - 4-bit Intel 4004
 - 8-bit Intel 8008
 - 16-bit Intel 8086
 - 32-bit Intel 80386
 - ...
- Transistors are getting smaller and smaller
 - **How far can this go?**



- Transistors:
 - On/off switches used in digital electronics
 - Keep getting smaller and smaller!
(32 nano-meters)

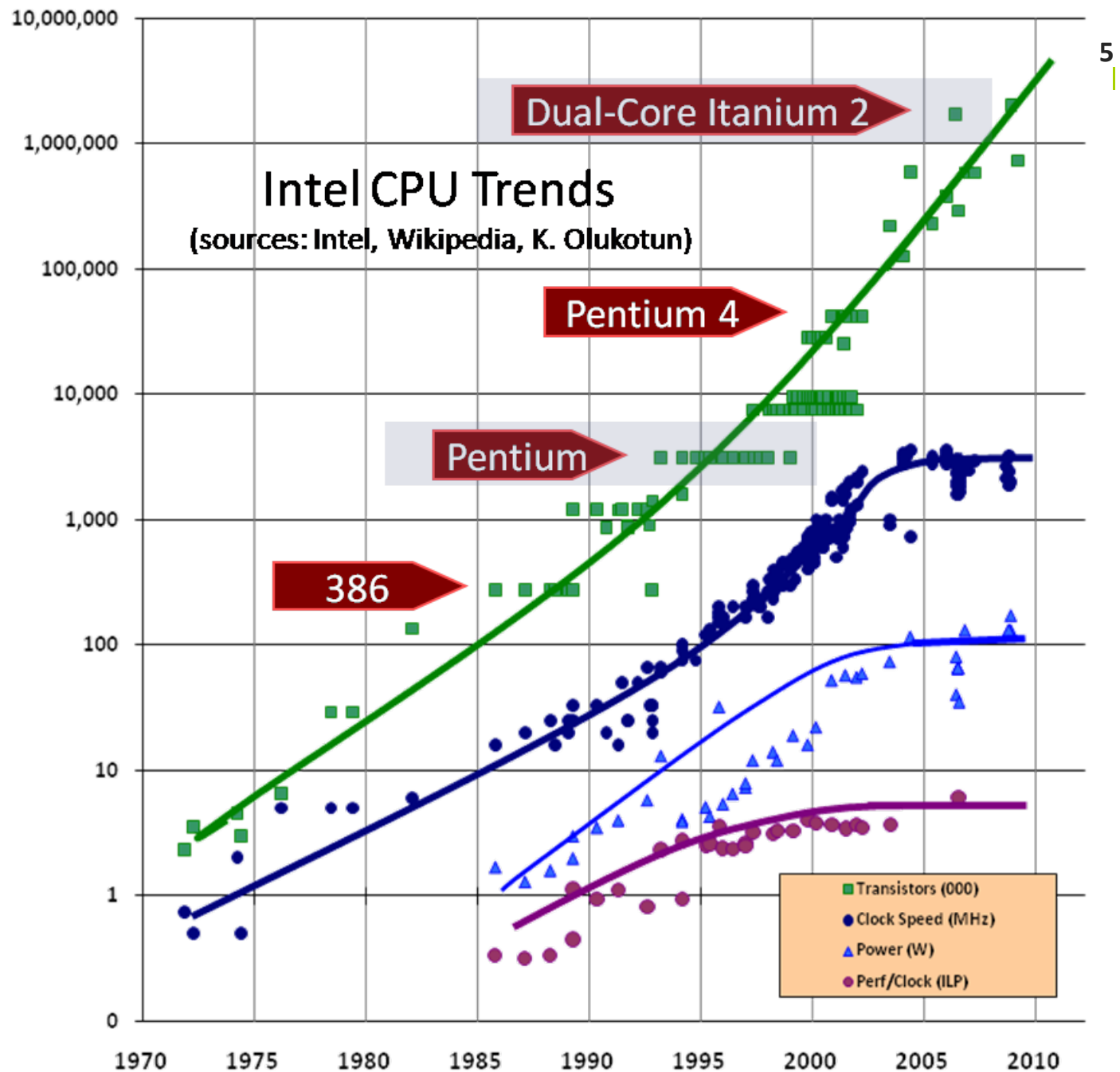
Moore's Law

- Gordon E. Moore
- Co-founder, Intel
- Proposed back in 1965
- Not a physical law!
 - An **observation of trends** in the semiconductor industry...



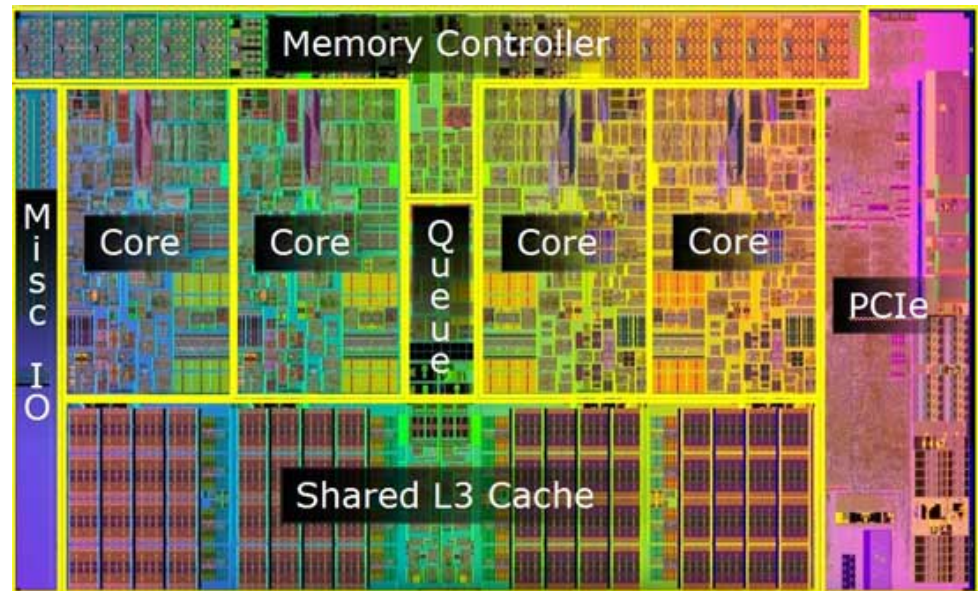
The “Law”: The number of transistors available *at a given cost* doubles approximately every two years

Where does Moore's Law end?



What to do with a billion+ transistors?

- Billions of transistors available today
 - More than we need to build a *single* fast and power-efficient (“cool running”) processor
- Let’s build **many processors** and put them on the same chip!
- How can we keep all the processors (“cores”) busy doing productive work?

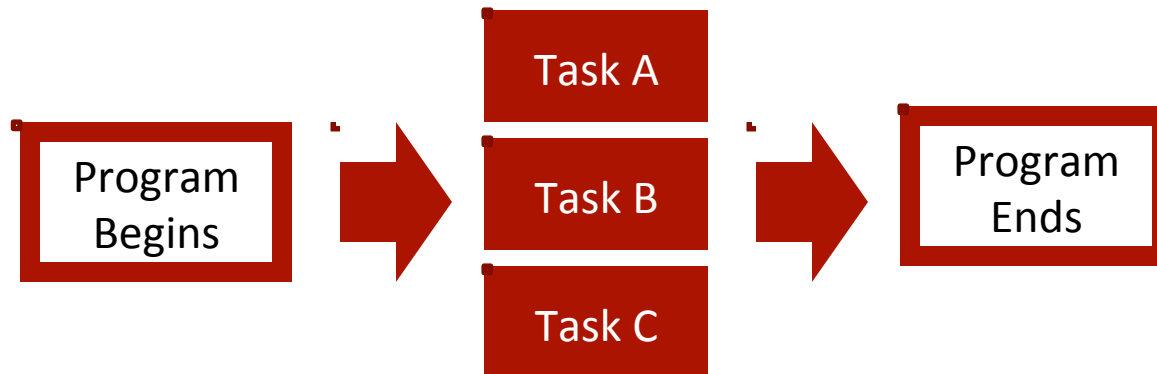


What is Parallel Programming?

- Writing code with multiple “threads” of execution.
 - These threads can be assigned to different cores
- *Sequential execution* (what we have been doing so far) means that each task is executed one after the other



- *Parallel execution* means that tasks are done at the same time



Computer Operation



The von Neumann Model

- On the ENIAC, all programming was done at the digital logic level
- Programming the computer involved moving plugs and wires
- A different hardware configuration was needed to solve every unique problem type

Configuring the ENIAC to solve a “simple” problem required many days of work by skilled technicians

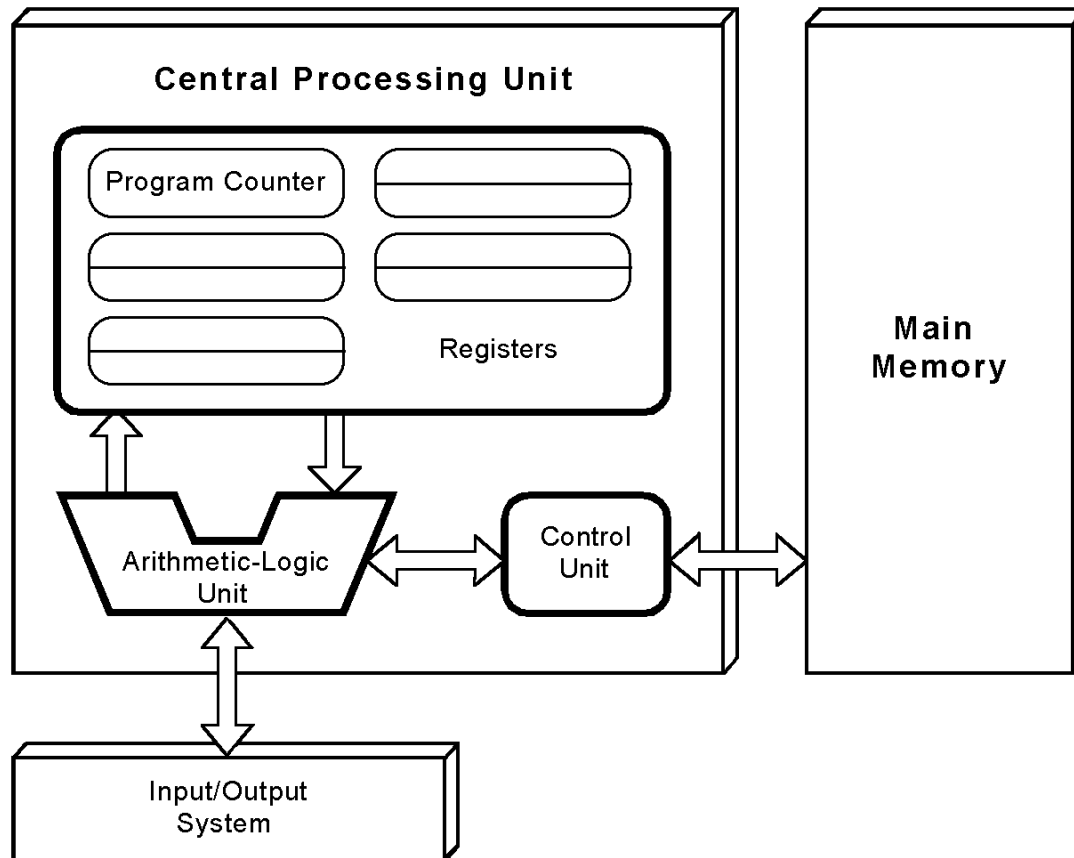
The von Neumann Model

- Inventors of the ENIAC (Mauchley and Eckert) conceived of a computer that could store instructions in memory
 - No need to re-wire the machine each time!
- First to publish this idea: John von Neumann
 - Contemporary of Mauchley and Eckert, who had to keep their ideas top secret (military)
- Stored-program computers have become known as *von Neumann Architecture* systems

The von Neumann Model

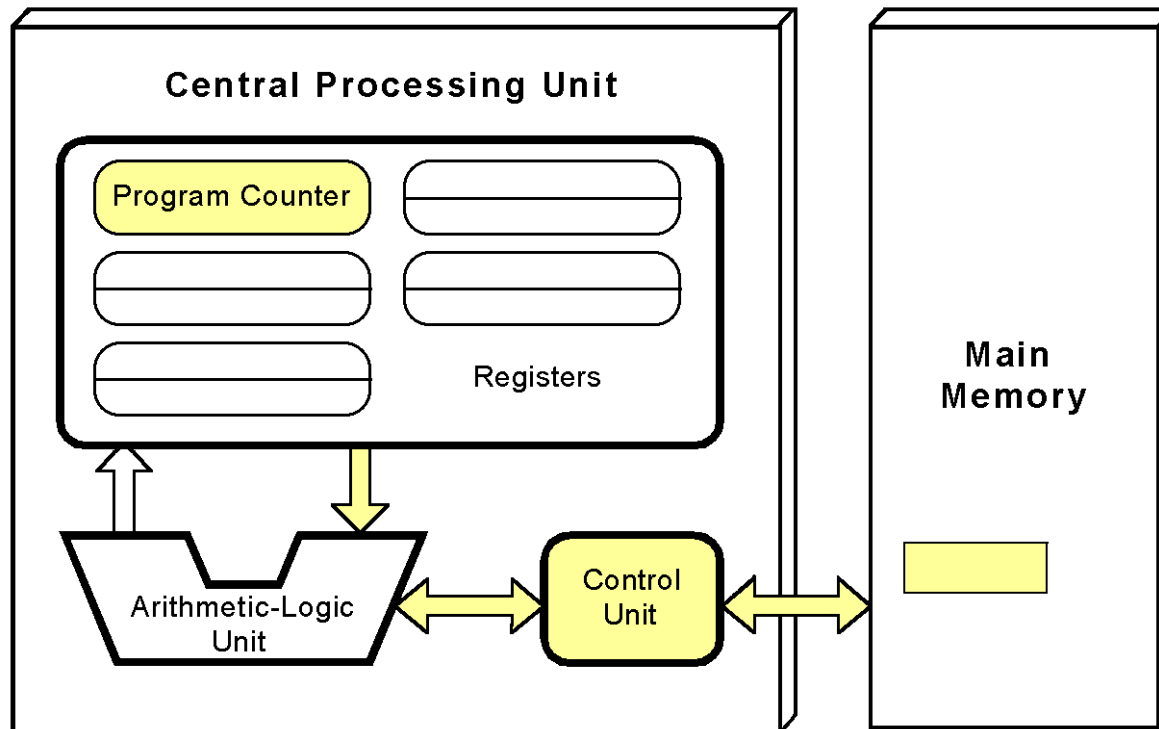
- Today's stored-program computers have the following characteristics:
 - Three hardware systems:
 - A **central processing unit** (CPU) to interpret programs
 - A **main memory** system to store programs & data
 - An **I/O** system to transfer data to/from the outside world
 - The capacity to carry out **sequential instruction** processing
 - A **single data path** between the CPU and main memory
 - This single path is known as the **von Neumann bottleneck**

The von Neumann Model



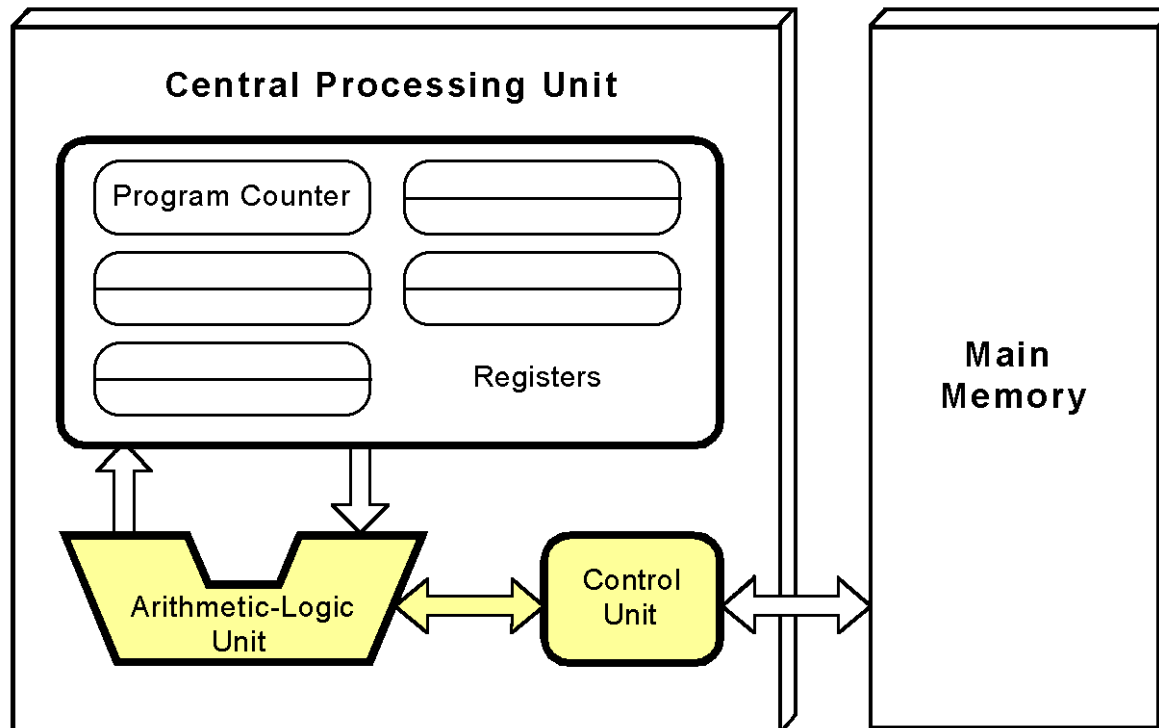
- This is a general depiction of a von Neumann system
- These computers employ a **fetch-decode-execute** cycle to run programs as follows . . .

The von Neumann Model



- The control unit **fetches** the next instruction from memory
- Which instruction?
 - Use the **program counter**

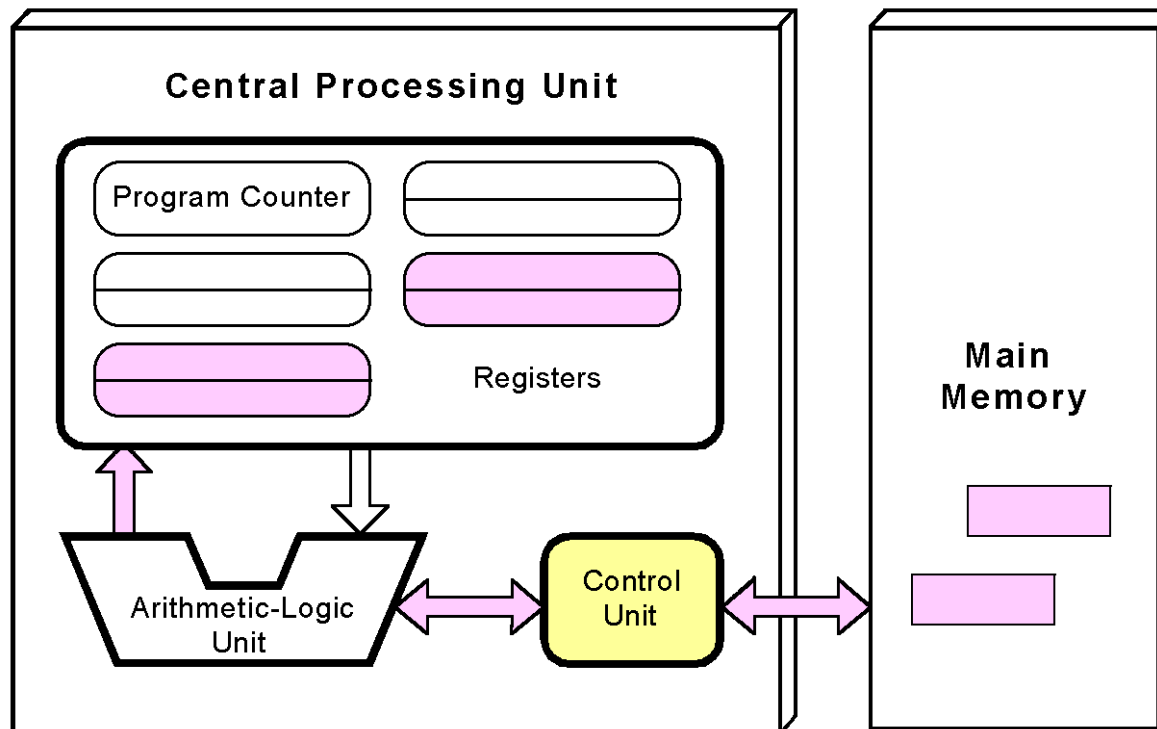
The von Neumann Model



➤ The instruction is **decoded** into a language that the ALU can understand

- Add?
- Subtract?
- Multiply?
- Compare?
- etc...

The von Neumann Model



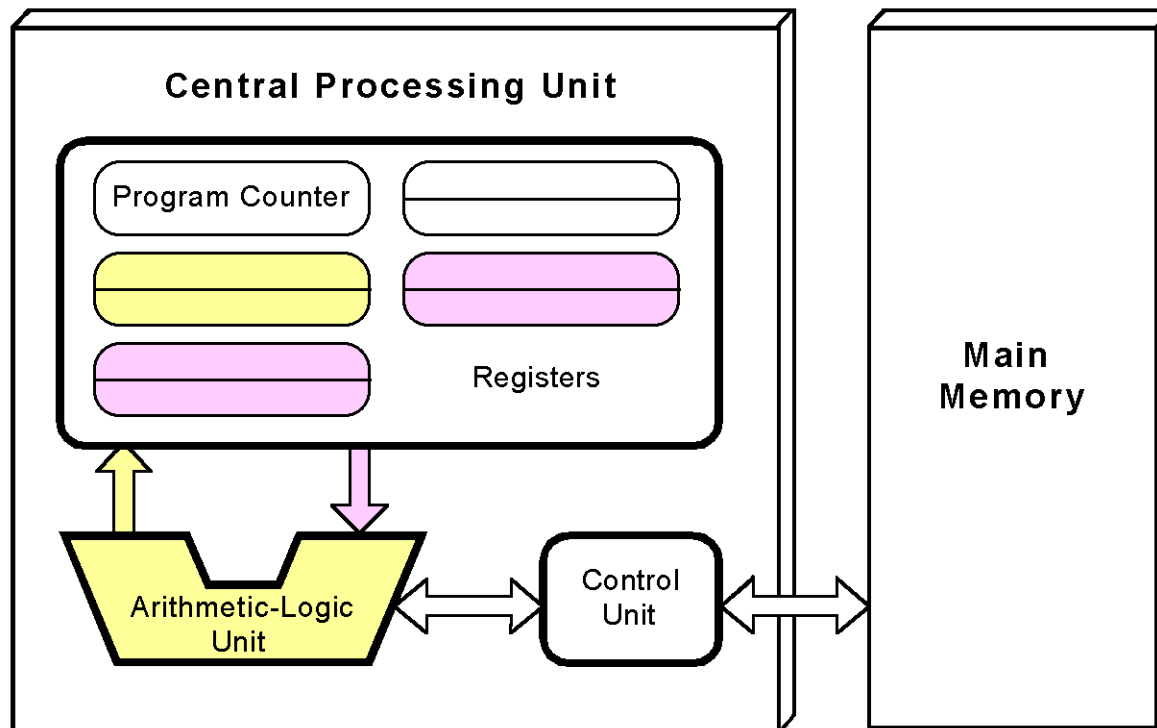
➤ Any **data operands** required to execute the instruction are fetched from memory and placed into registers within the CPU

➤ Operands?

➤ $X = 3 + 5$

➤ *3 and 5 are operands...*

The von Neumann Model



- The ALU **executes** the instruction
- Results are placed back in memory (or temporary spots called **registers**)

Non-von Neumann Models

- Conventional stored-program computers have undergone many incremental improvements over the years
 - Specialized buses
 - Floating-point units
 - Cache memories
 - ...
- Further improvements in computational power requires departure from the classic von Neumann architecture
 - One approach: Adding processors

Multi-Processor is an Old Idea!

- Late 1960s, dual processors used to increase computational throughput
- 1970s – Supercomputer systems introduced with 32 processors
- 1980s – Supercomputer systems built with 1,000 processors
- 1999 – IBM Blue Gene system with 1 million+ processors
- What is “new” is multiple processors in *your* PC

Measures of Capacity and Speed

- Kilo- (K) = 1 thousand = 10^3 and 2^{10}
- Mega- (M) = 1 million = 10^6 and 2^{20}
- Giga- (G) = 1 billion = 10^9 and 2^{30}
- Tera- (T) = 1 trillion = 10^{12} and 2^{40}
- Peta- (P) = 1 quadrillion = 10^{15} and 2^{50}
- Exa- (E) = 1 quintillion = 10^{18} and 2^{60}
- Zetta- (Z) = 1 sextillion = 10^{21} and 2^{70}
- Yotta- (Y) = 1 septillion = 10^{24} and 2^{80}

Whether a metric refers to a power of ten or a power of two typically depends upon what is being measured.

Measures of Capacity and Speed

- Hertz = clock cycles per second (frequency)
 - 1MHz = 1,000,000Hz
 - Processor speeds are measured in MHz or GHz.
- Byte = a unit of storage
 - 1KB = 2^{10} = 1024 Bytes
 - 1MB = 2^{20} = 1,048,576 Bytes
 - 1GB = 2^{30} = 1,099,511,627,776 Bytes
 - Main memory (RAM) is measured in GB
 - Disk storage is measured in GB for small systems, TB (2^{40}) for large systems.

Objectives

- Digital computers
 - How do we represent numbers and characters?
 - How do we convert between human and computer representations?
 - i.e. convert between base 10 and 2
 - Why do errors occur in computation?
 - Overflow?
 - Truncation?
 - How do we detect and correct errors?

Basics

- A **bit** is the most basic unit of information in a computer
 - It is a state of “on” or “off” in a digital circuit
 - Sometimes these states are “high” or “low” voltage instead of “on” or “off”

0

1

Basics

- A **byte** is a group of **eight bits**
 - A byte is the **smallest possible addressable unit** of computer storage
 - **Addressable?**
 - A particular byte can be retrieved according to its location in memory

01101001

Basics

- A **word** is a contiguous **group of bytes**
 - Words can be any number of bits or bytes
 - Word sizes of 16, 32, or 64 bits are most common
 - In a word-addressable system, a word is the smallest addressable unit of storage

01101001 11001010 01110001 01000111

Positional Numbering Systems

- Binary (base 2) numbers
 - Each position represents a power of 2
 - Two digits: 0, 1
- Decimal (base 10) numbers
 - Each position represents a power of 10
 - Ten digits: 0 - 9
- Hexadecimal (base 16) numbers
 - Each position represents a power of 16
 - Sixteen digits: 0-9 and A-F

Positional Numbering Systems

➤ The decimal number **947** in powers of 10 is:

$$9 \times 10^2 + 4 \times 10^1 + 7 \times 10^0$$

➤ The decimal number **5836.47** in powers of 10 is:

$$5 \times 10^3 + 8 \times 10^2 + 3 \times 10^1 + 6 \times 10^0 \\ + 4 \times 10^{-1} + 7 \times 10^{-2}$$

Positional Numbering Systems

➤ The binary number **11001** in powers of 2 is:

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{1} \times 2^4 + \mathbf{1} \times 2^3 + \mathbf{0} \times 2^2 + \mathbf{0} \times 2^1 + \mathbf{1} \times 2^0 \\ &= 16 + 8 + 0 + 0 + 1 = 25. \end{aligned}$$

➤ When the radix of a number is something other than 10, the **base is denoted by a subscript**.

➤ Sometimes, the subscript 10 is added for emphasis:

➤ $11001_2 = 25_{10}$

Positional Numbering Systems

- This system works for any base (aka *radix*) you want
 - Base 3, Base 19, etc...
- Any **integer** quantity can be represented **exactly** using any base
- **Why do computers use base 2?**
- **Why do (modern) humans use base 10?**
 - *Babylonians used base 60*
 - *Mayans used base 20*

Positional Numbering Systems

- Where do we use binary numbers beyond homework problems?
- Understanding operation of computer components
 - How big is the memory system?
 - How does the processor do arithmetic?
- Designing new processors
 - Instruction set architecture – the language of the machine
- Assembly programming
 - Particularly if you convert from assembly code to the binary executable by hand .