

Lecture No.2

Lecture Outlines

1.3 A Brief History of Computers

The First Generation: Vacuum Tubes

The Second Generation: Transistors

The Third Generation: Integrated Circuits

Later Generations

Learning Objectives

After studying this lecture, you should be able to:

- ◆ Present an overview of the evolution of computer technology from early digital computers to the latest microprocessors.

1.3 A BRIEF HISTORY OF COMPUTERS

In this section, we provide a brief overview of the history of the development of computers. This history is interesting in itself, but more importantly, provides a basic introduction to many important concepts that we deal with throughout the book.

The First Generation: Vacuum Tubes

The first generation of computers used vacuum tubes for digital logic elements and memory. A number of research and then commercial computers were built using vacuum tubes. For our purposes, it will be instructive to examine perhaps the most famous first-generation computer, known as the IAS computer.

A fundamental design approach first implemented in the IAS computer is known as the *stored-program concept*. This idea is usually attributed to the mathematician John von Neumann. Alan Turing developed the idea at about the same time. The first publication of the idea was in a 1945 proposal by von Neumann for a new computer, the EDVAC (Electronic Discrete Variable Computer).

In 1946, von Neumann and his colleagues began the design of a new stored-program computer, referred to as the IAS computer, at the Princeton Institute for Advanced Studies. The IAS computer, although not completed until 1952, is the prototype of all subsequent general-purpose computers.

Figure 1.6 shows the structure of the IAS computer (compare with Figure 1.1). It consists of

- A **main memory**, which stores both data and instructions
- An **arithmetic and logic unit (ALU)** capable of operating on binary data

are changed in the following to conform more closely to modern usage; the examples accompanying this discussion are based on that latter text.

The memory of the IAS consists of 4,096 storage locations, called *words*, of 40 binary digits (bits) each. Both data and instructions are stored there. Numbers are represented in binary form, and each instruction is a binary code. Figure 1.7 illustrates these formats. Each number is represented by a sign bit and a 39-bit value. A word may alternatively contain two 20-bit instructions, with each instruction consisting of an 8-bit operation code (opcode) specifying the operation to be performed and a 12-bit address designating one of the words in memory (numbered from 0 to 999).

The control unit operates the IAS by fetching instructions from memory and executing them one at a time. We explain these operations with reference to Figure 1.6. This figure reveals that both the control unit and the ALU contain storage locations, called *registers*, defined as follows:

- **Memory buffer register (MBR):** Contains a word to be stored in memory or sent to the I/O unit, or is used to receive a word from memory or from the I/O unit.
- **Memory address register (MAR):** Specifies the address in memory of the word to be written from or read into the MBR.
- **Instruction register (IR):** Contains the 8-bit opcode instruction being executed.
- **Instruction buffer register (IBR):** Employed to hold temporarily the right-hand instruction from a word in memory.
- **Program counter (PC):** Contains the address of the next instruction pair to be fetched from memory.
- **Accumulator (AC) and multiplier quotient (MQ):** Employed to hold temporarily operands and results of ALU operations. For example, the result

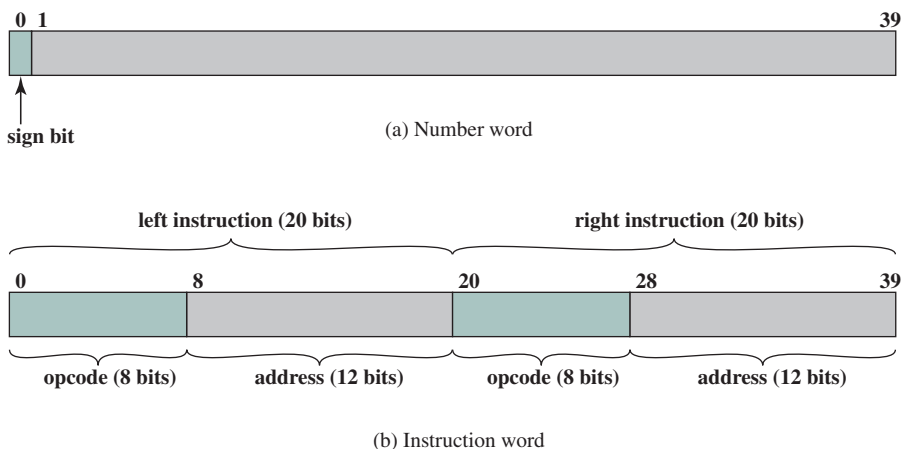
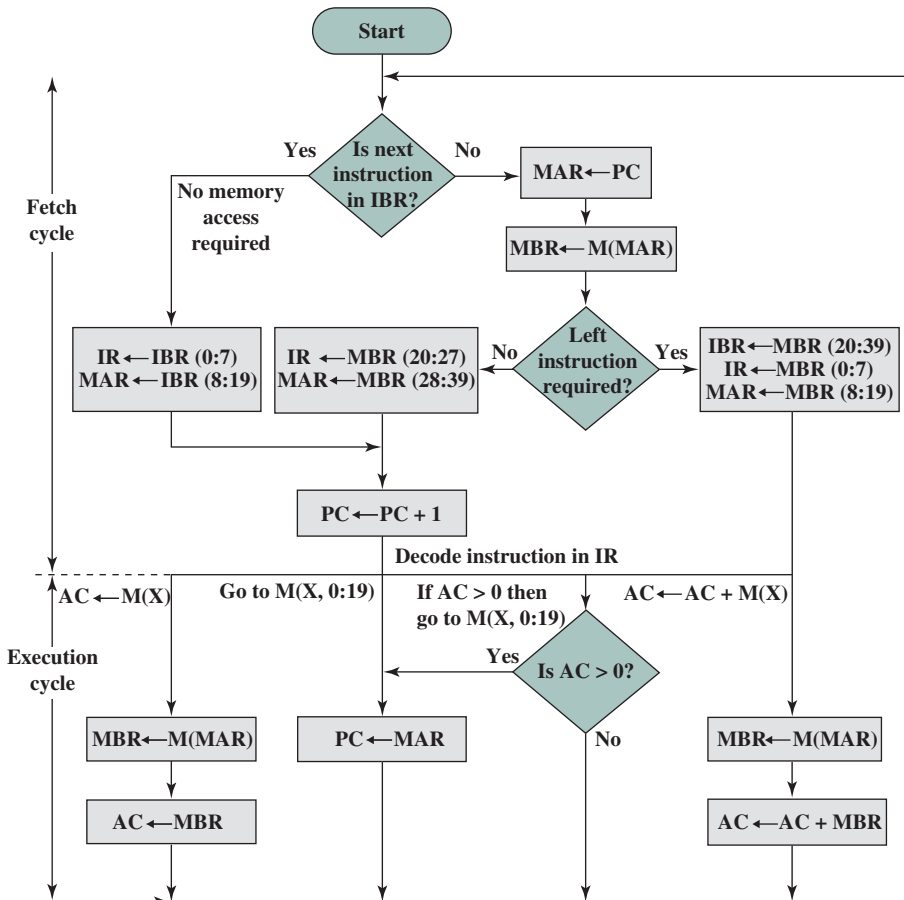


Figure 1.7 IAS Memory Formats

of multiplying two 40-bit numbers is an 80-bit number; the most significant 40 bits are stored in the AC and the least significant in the MQ.

The IAS operates by repetitively performing an *instruction cycle*, as shown in Figure 1.8. Each instruction cycle consists of two subcycles. During the *fetch cycle*, the opcode of the next instruction is loaded into the IR and the address portion is loaded into the MAR. This instruction may be taken from the IBR, or it can be obtained from memory by loading a word into the MBR, and then down to the IBR, IR, and MAR.

Why the indirection? These operations are controlled by electronic circuitry and result in the use of data paths. To simplify the electronics, there is only one register that is used to specify the address in memory for a read or write and only one register used for the source or destination.



M(X) = contents of memory location whose address is X
 (i:j) = bits i through j

Figure 1.8 Partial Flowchart of IAS Operation

Once the opcode is in the IR, the *execute cycle* is performed. Control circuitry interprets the opcode and executes the instruction by sending out the appropriate control signals to cause data to be moved or an operation to be performed by the ALU.

The IAS computer had a total of 21 instructions, which are listed in Table 1.1. These can be grouped as follows:

- **Data transfer:** Move data between memory and ALU registers or between two ALU registers.
- **Unconditional branch:** Normally, the control unit executes instructions in sequence from memory. This sequence can be changed by a branch instruction, which facilitates repetitive operations.

Table 1.1 The IAS Instruction Set

Instruction Type	Opcode	Symbolic Representation	Description
Data transfer	00001010	LOAD MQ	Transfer contents of register MQ to the accumulator AC
	00001001	LOAD MQ,M(X)	Transfer contents of memory location X to MQ
	00100001	STOR M(X)	Transfer contents of accumulator to memory location X
	00000001	LOAD M(X)	Transfer M(X) to the accumulator
	00000010	LOAD -M(X)	Transfer -M(X) to the accumulator
	00000011	LOAD M(X)	Transfer absolute value of M(X) to the accumulator
	00000100	LOAD - M(X)	Transfer - M(X) to the accumulator
Unconditional branch	00001101	JUMP M(X,0:19)	Take next instruction from left half of M(X)
	00001110	JUMP M(X,20:39)	Take next instruction from right half of M(X)
Conditional branch	00001111	JUMP + M(X,0:19)	If number in the accumulator is nonnegative, take next instruction from left half of M(X)
	00010000	JUMP + M(X,20:39)	If number in the accumulator is nonnegative, take next instruction from right half of M(X)
Arithmetic	00000101	ADD M(X)	Add M(X) to AC; put the result in AC
	00000111	ADD M(X)	Add M(X) to AC; put the result in AC
	00000110	SUB M(X)	Subtract M(X) from AC; put the result in AC
	00001000	SUB M(X)	Subtract M(X) from AC; put the remainder in AC
	00001011	MUL M(X)	Multiply M(X) by MQ; put most significant bits of result in AC, put least significant bits in MQ
	00001100	DIV M(X)	Divide AC by M(X); put the quotient in MQ and the remainder in AC
	00010100	LSH	Multiply accumulator by 2; that is, shift left one bit position
	00010101	RSH	Divide accumulator by 2; that is, shift right one position
Address modify	00010010	STOR M(X,8:19)	Replace left address field at M(X) by 12 rightmost bits of AC
	00010011	STOR M(X,28:39)	Replace right address field at M(X) by 12 rightmost bits of AC

- **Conditional branch:** The branch can be made dependent on a condition, thus allowing decision points.
- **Arithmetic:** Operations performed by the ALU.
- **Address modify:** Permits addresses to be computed in the ALU and then inserted into instructions stored in memory. This allows a program considerable addressing flexibility.

Table 1.1 presents instructions (excluding I/O instructions) in a symbolic, easy-to-read form. In binary form, each instruction must conform to the format of Figure 1.7b. The opcode portion (first 8 bits) specifies which of the 21 instructions is to be executed. The address portion (remaining 12 bits) specifies which of the 4,096 memory locations is to be involved in the execution of the instruction.

Figure 1.8 shows several examples of instruction execution by the control unit. Note that each operation requires several steps, some of which are quite elaborate. The multiplication operation requires 39 suboperations, one for each bit position except that of the sign bit.

The Second Generation: Transistors

The first major change in the electronic computer came with the replacement of the vacuum tube by the transistor. The transistor, which is smaller, cheaper, and generates less heat than a vacuum tube, can be used in the same way as a vacuum tube to construct computers. Unlike the vacuum tube, which requires wires, metal plates, a glass capsule, and a vacuum, the transistor is a *solid-state device*, made from silicon.

The transistor was invented at Bell Labs in 1947 and by the 1950s had launched an electronic revolution. It was not until the late 1950s, however, that fully transistorized computers were commercially available. The use of the transistor defines the *second generation* of computers. It has become widely accepted to classify computers into generations based on the fundamental hardware technology employed (Table 1.2). Each new generation is characterized by greater processing performance, larger memory capacity, and smaller size than the previous one.

But there are other changes as well. The second generation saw the introduction of more complex arithmetic and logic units and control units, the use of high-level programming languages, and the provision of *system software* with the

Table 1.2 Computer Generations

Generation	Approximate Dates	Technology	Typical Speed (operations per second)
1	1946–1957	Vacuum tube	40,000
2	1957–1964	Transistor	200,000
3	1965–1971	Small- and medium-scale integration	1,000,000
4	1972–1977	Large scale integration	10,000,000
5	1978–1991	Very large scale integration	100,000,000
6	1991–	Ultra large scale integration	>1,000,000,000

computer. In broad terms, system software provided the ability to load programs, move data to peripherals, and libraries to perform common computations, similar to what modern operating systems, such as Windows and Linux, do.

It will be useful to examine an important member of the second generation: the IBM 7094 [BELL71]. From the introduction of the 700 series in 1952 to the introduction of the last member of the 7000 series in 1964, this IBM product line underwent an evolution that is typical of computer products. Successive members of the product line showed increased performance, increased capacity, and/or lower cost.

The size of main memory, in multiples of 2^{10} 36-bit words, grew from 2k ($1k = 2^{10}$) to 32k words, while the time to access one word of memory, the *memory cycle time*, fell from 30 μ s to 1.4 μ s. The number of opcodes grew from a modest 24 to 185.

Also, over the lifetime of this series of computers, the relative speed of the CPU increased by a factor of 50. Speed improvements are achieved by improved electronics (e.g., a transistor implementation is faster than a vacuum tube implementation) and more complex circuitry. For example, the IBM 7094 includes an Instruction Backup Register, used to buffer the next instruction. The control unit fetches two adjacent words from memory for an instruction fetch. Except for the occurrence of a branching instruction, which is relatively infrequent (perhaps 10 to 15%), this means that the control unit has to access memory for an instruction on only half the instruction cycles. This prefetching significantly reduces the average instruction cycle time.

Figure 1.9 shows a large (many peripherals) configuration for an IBM 7094, which is representative of second-generation computers. Several differences from the IAS computer are worth noting. The most important of these is the use of *data channels*. A data channel is an independent I/O module with its own processor and instruction set. In a computer system with such devices, the CPU does not execute detailed I/O instructions. Such instructions are stored in a main memory to be executed by a special-purpose processor in the data channel itself. The CPU initiates an I/O transfer by sending a control signal to the data channel, instructing it to execute a sequence of instructions in memory. The data channel performs its task independently of the CPU and signals the CPU when the operation is complete. This arrangement relieves the CPU of a considerable processing burden.

Another new feature is the *multiplexor*, which is the central termination point for data channels, the CPU, and memory. The multiplexor schedules access to the memory from the CPU and data channels, allowing these devices to act independently.

The Third Generation: Integrated Circuits

A single, self-contained transistor is called a *discrete component*. Throughout the 1950s and early 1960s, electronic equipment was composed largely of discrete components—transistors, resistors, capacitors, and so on. Discrete components were manufactured separately, packaged in their own containers, and soldered or wired

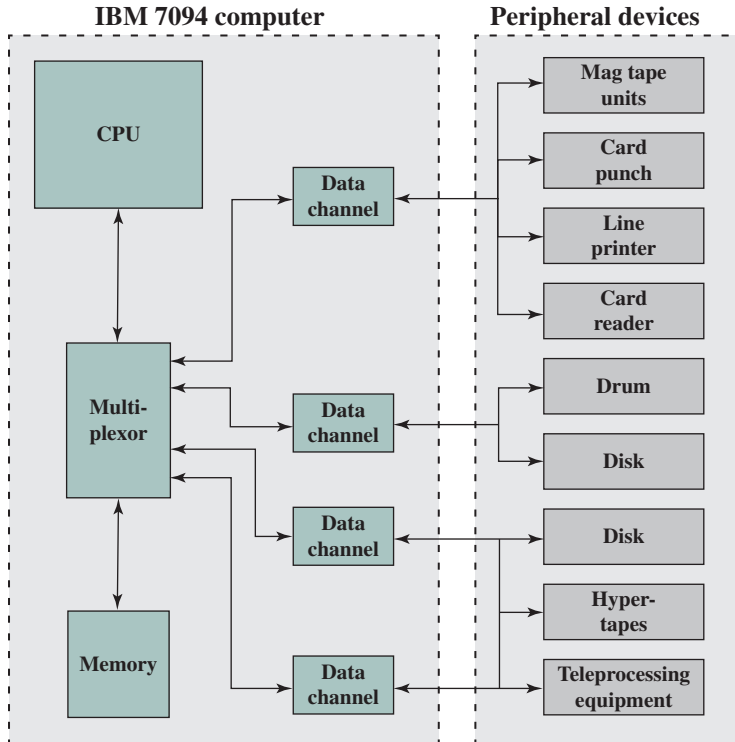


Figure 1.9 An IBM 7094 Configuration

together onto Masonite-like circuit boards, which were then installed in computers, oscilloscopes, and other electronic equipment. Whenever an electronic device called for a transistor, a little tube of metal containing a pinhead-sized piece of silicon had to be soldered to a circuit board. The entire manufacturing process, from transistor to circuit board, was expensive and cumbersome.

These facts of life were beginning to create problems in the computer industry. Early second-generation computers contained about 10,000 transistors. This figure grew to the hundreds of thousands, making the manufacture of newer, more powerful machines increasingly difficult.

In 1958 came the achievement that revolutionized electronics and started the era of microelectronics: the invention of the integrated circuit. It is the integrated circuit that defines the third generation of computers. In this section, we provide a brief introduction to the technology of integrated circuits. Then we look at perhaps the two most important members of the third generation, both of which were introduced at the beginning of that era: the IBM System/360 and the DEC PDP-8.

MICROELECTRONICS Microelectronics means, literally, “small electronics.” Since the beginnings of digital electronics and the computer industry, there has been a persistent and consistent trend toward the reduction in size of digital electronic circuits. Before examining the implications and benefits of this trend, we need to say something about the nature of digital electronics. A more detailed discussion is found in Chapter 11.

The basic elements of a digital computer, as we know, must perform data storage, movement, processing, and control functions. Only two fundamental types of components are required (Figure 1.10): gates and memory cells. A **gate** is a device that implements a simple Boolean or logical function. For example, an AND gate with inputs *A* and *B* and output *C* implements the expression IF *A* AND *B* ARE TRUE THEN *C* IS TRUE. Such devices are called gates because they control data flow in much the same way that canal gates control the flow of water. The **memory cell** is a device that can store 1 bit of data; that is, the device can be in one of two stable states at any time. By interconnecting large numbers of these fundamental devices, we can construct a computer. We can relate this to our four basic functions as follows:

- **Data storage:** Provided by memory cells.
- **Data processing:** Provided by gates.
- **Data movement:** The paths among components are used to move data from memory to memory and from memory through gates to memory.
- **Control:** The paths among components can carry control signals. For example, a gate will have one or two data inputs plus a control signal input that activates the gate. When the control signal is ON, the gate performs its function on the data inputs and produces a data output. Conversely, when the control signal is OFF, the output line is null, such as the one produced by a high impedance state. Similarly, the memory cell will store the bit that is on its input lead when the WRITE control signal is ON and will place the bit that is in the cell on its output lead when the READ control signal is ON.

Thus, a computer consists of gates, memory cells, and interconnections among these elements. The gates and memory cells are, in turn, constructed of simple electronic components, such as transistors and capacitors.

The integrated circuit exploits the fact that such components as transistors, resistors, and conductors can be fabricated from a semiconductor such as silicon. It is merely an extension of the solid-state art to fabricate an entire circuit in a tiny piece of silicon rather than assemble discrete components made from separate pieces of silicon into the same circuit. Many transistors can be produced at the same time on a single wafer of silicon. Equally important, these transistors can be connected with a process of metallization to form circuits.

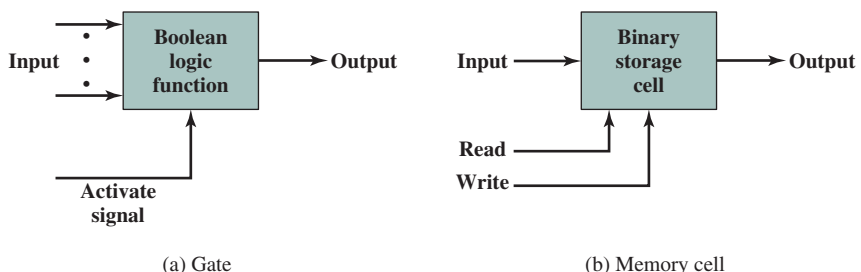


Figure 1.10 Fundamental Computer Elements

Figure 1.11 depicts the key concepts in an integrated circuit. A thin *wafer* of silicon is divided into a matrix of small areas, each a few millimeters square. The identical circuit pattern is fabricated in each area, and the wafer is broken up into *chips*. Each chip consists of many gates and/or memory cells plus a number of input and output attachment points. This chip is then packaged in housing that protects it and provides pins for attachment to devices beyond the chip. A number of these packages can then be interconnected on a printed circuit board to produce larger and more complex circuits.

Initially, only a few gates or memory cells could be reliably manufactured and packaged together. These early integrated circuits are referred to as **small-scale integration (SSI)**. As time went on, it became possible to pack more and more components on the same chip. This growth in density is illustrated in Figure 1.12; it is one of the most remarkable technological trends ever recorded. This figure reflects the famous Moore's law, which was propounded by Gordon Moore, cofounder of Intel, in 1965 [MOOR65]. Moore observed that the number of transistors that could be put on a single chip was doubling every year, and correctly predicted that this pace would continue into the near future. To the surprise of many, including Moore, the pace continued year after year and decade after decade. The pace slowed to a doubling every 18 months in the 1970s but has sustained that rate ever since.

The consequences of Moore's law are profound:

1. The cost of a chip has remained virtually unchanged during this period of rapid growth in density. This means that the cost of computer logic and memory circuitry has fallen at a dramatic rate.

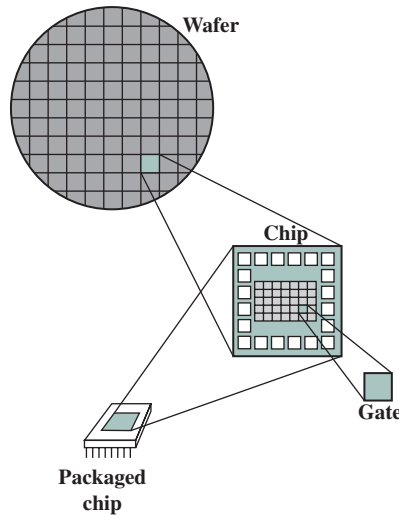


Figure 1.11 Relationship among Wafer, Chip, and Gate

2. Because logic and memory elements are placed closer together on more densely packed chips, the electrical path length is shortened, increasing operating speed.
3. The computer becomes smaller, making it more convenient to place in a variety of environments.
4. There is a reduction in power requirements.
5. The interconnections on the integrated circuit are much more reliable than solder connections. With more circuitry on each chip, there are fewer inter-chip connections.

IBM SYSTEM/360 By 1964, IBM had a firm grip on the computer market with its 7000 series of machines. In that year, IBM announced the System/360, a new family of computer products. Although the announcement itself was no surprise, it contained some unpleasant news for current IBM customers: the 360 product line was incompatible with older IBM machines. Thus, the transition to the 360 would be difficult for the current customer base, but IBM felt this was necessary to break out of some of the constraints of the 7000 architecture and to produce a system capable of evolving with the new integrated circuit technology [PADE81, GIFF87]. The strategy paid off both financially and technically. The 360 was the success of the decade and cemented IBM as the overwhelmingly dominant computer vendor, with a market share above 70%. And, with some modifications and extensions, the architecture of the 360 remains to this day the architecture of IBM's mainframe computers. Examples using this architecture can be found throughout this text.

The System/360 was the industry's first planned family of computers. The family covered a wide range of performance and cost. The models were compatible in the

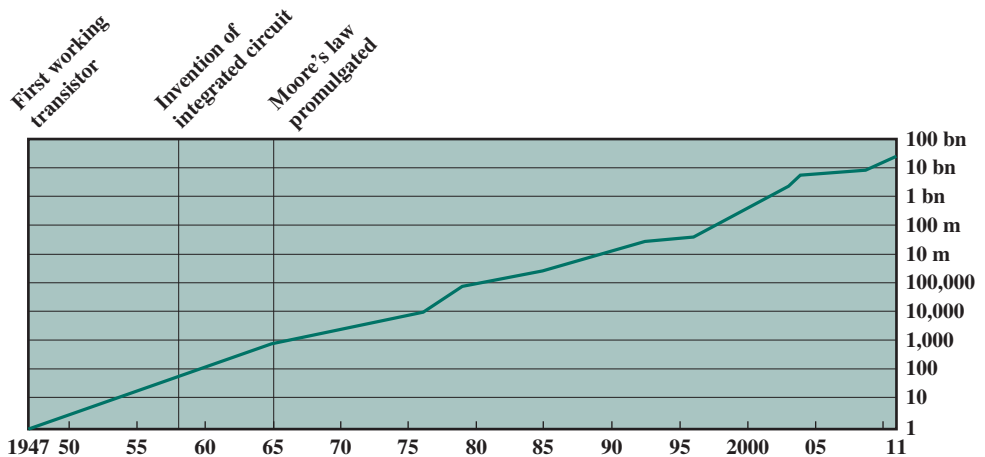


Figure 1.12 Growth in Transistor Count on Integrated Circuits

sense that a program written for one model should be capable of being executed by another model in the series, with only a difference in the time it takes to execute.

The concept of a family of compatible computers was both novel and extremely successful. A customer with modest requirements and a budget to match could start with the relatively inexpensive Model 30. Later, if the customer's needs grew, it was possible to upgrade to a faster machine with more memory without sacrificing the investment in already-developed software. The characteristics of a family are as follows:

- **Similar or identical instruction set:** In many cases, the exact same set of machine instructions is supported on all members of the family. Thus, a program that executes on one machine will also execute on any other. In some cases, the lower end of the family has an instruction set that is a subset of that of the top end of the family. This means that programs can move up but not down.
- **Similar or identical operating system:** The same basic operating system is available for all family members. In some cases, additional features are added to the higher-end members.
- **Increasing speed:** The rate of instruction execution increases in going from lower to higher family members.
- **Increasing number of I/O ports:** The number of I/O ports increases in going from lower to higher family members.
- **Increasing memory size:** The size of main memory increases in going from lower to higher family members.
- **Increasing cost:** At a given point in time, the cost of a system increases in going from lower to higher family members.

How could such a family concept be implemented? Differences were achieved based on three factors: basic speed, size, and degree of simultaneity [STEV64]. For example, greater speed in the execution of a given instruction could be gained by the use of more complex circuitry in the ALU, allowing suboperations to be carried out in parallel. Another way of increasing speed was to increase the width of the data path between main memory and the CPU. On the Model 30, only 1 byte (8 bits) could be fetched from main memory at a time, whereas 8 bytes could be fetched at a time on the Model 75.

The System/360 not only dictated the future course of IBM but also had a profound impact on the entire industry. Many of its features have become standard on other large computers.

DEC PDP-8 In the same year that IBM shipped its first System/360, another momentous first shipment occurred: PDP-8 from Digital Equipment Corporation (DEC). At a time when the average computer required an air-conditioned room, the PDP-8 (dubbed a minicomputer by the industry, after the miniskirt of the day) was small enough that it could be placed on top of a lab bench or be built into other equipment. It could not do everything the mainframe could, but at \$16,000, it was cheap enough for each lab technician to have one. In contrast, the System/360 series of mainframe computers introduced just a few months before cost hundreds of thousands of dollars.

The low cost and small size of the PDP-8 enabled another manufacturer to purchase a PDP-8 and integrate it into a total system for resale. These other manufacturers came to be known as **original equipment manufacturers (OEMs)**, and the OEM market became and remains a major segment of the computer marketplace.

In contrast to the central-switched architecture (Figure 1.9) used by IBM on its 700/7000 and 360 systems, later models of the PDP-8 used a structure that became virtually universal for microcomputers: the bus structure. This is illustrated in Figure 1.13. The PDP-8 bus, called the Omnibus, consists of 96 separate signal paths, used to carry control, address, and data signals. Because all system components share a common set of signal paths, their use can be controlled by the CPU. This architecture is highly flexible, allowing modules to be plugged into the bus to create various configurations. It is only in recent years that the bus structure has given way to a structure known as point-to-point interconnect, described in Chapter 3.

Later Generations

Beyond the third generation there is less general agreement on defining generations of computers. Table 1.2 suggests that there have been a number of later generations, based on advances in integrated circuit technology. With the introduction of **large-scale integration (LSI)**, more than 1,000 components can be placed on a single integrated circuit chip. Very-large-scale integration (VLSI) achieved more than 10,000 components per chip, while current ultra-large-scale integration (ULSI) chips can contain more than one billion components.

With the rapid pace of technology, the high rate of introduction of new products, and the importance of software and communications as well as hardware, the classification by generation becomes less clear and less meaningful. In this section, we mention two of the most important of developments in later generations.

SEMICONDUCTOR MEMORY The first application of integrated circuit technology to computers was the construction of the processor (the control unit and the arithmetic and logic unit) out of integrated circuit chips. But it was also found that this same technology could be used to construct memories.

In the 1950s and 1960s, most computer memory was constructed from tiny rings of ferromagnetic material, each about a sixteenth of an inch in diameter. These rings were strung up on grids of fine wires suspended on small screens inside the computer. Magnetized one way, a ring (called a *core*) represented a one; magnetized the other way, it stood for a zero. Magnetic-core memory was rather fast; it took as little as a millionth of a second to read a bit stored in memory. But it was

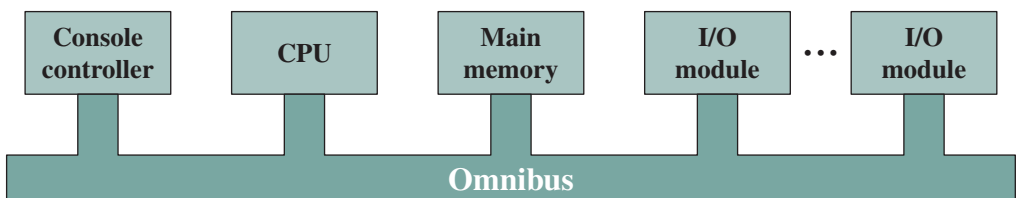


Figure 1.13 PDP-8 Bus Structure

expensive and bulky, and used destructive readout: The simple act of reading a core erased the data stored in it. It was therefore necessary to install circuits to restore the data as soon as it had been extracted.

Then, in 1970, Fairchild produced the first relatively capacious semiconductor memory. This chip, about the size of a single core, could hold 256 bits of memory. It was nondestructive and much faster than core. It took only 70 billionths of a second to read a bit. However, the cost per bit was higher than for that of core.

In 1974, a seminal event occurred: The price per bit of semiconductor memory dropped below the price per bit of core memory. Following this, there has been a continuing and rapid decline in memory cost accompanied by a corresponding increase in physical memory density. This has led the way to smaller, faster machines with memory sizes of larger and more expensive machines from just a few years earlier. Developments in memory technology, together with developments in processor technology to be discussed next, changed the nature of computers in less than a decade. Although bulky, expensive computers remain a part of the landscape, the computer has also been brought out to the “end user,” with office machines and personal computers.

Since 1970, semiconductor memory has been through 13 generations: 1k, 4k, 16k, 64k, 256k, 1M, 4M, 16M, 64M, 256M, 1G, 4G, and, as of this writing, 8 Gb on a single chip ($1\text{ k} = 2^{10}$, $1\text{ M} = 2^{20}$, $1\text{ G} = 2^{30}$). Each generation has provided increased storage density, accompanied by declining cost per bit and declining access time. Densities are projected to reach 16 Gb by 2018 and 32 Gb by 2023 [ITRS14].

MICROPROCESSORS Just as the density of elements on memory chips has continued to rise, so has the density of elements on processor chips. As time went on, more and more elements were placed on each chip, so that fewer and fewer chips were needed to construct a single computer processor.

A breakthrough was achieved in 1971, when Intel developed its 4004. The 4004 was the first chip to contain *all* of the components of a CPU on a single chip: The microprocessor was born.

The 4004 can add two 4-bit numbers and can multiply only by repeated addition. By today’s standards, the 4004 is hopelessly primitive, but it marked the beginning of a continuing evolution of microprocessor capability and power.

This evolution can be seen most easily in the number of bits that the processor deals with at a time. There is no clear-cut measure of this, but perhaps the best measure is the data bus width: the number of bits of data that can be brought into or sent out of the processor at a time. Another measure is the number of bits in the accumulator or in the set of general-purpose registers. Often, these measures coincide, but not always. For example, a number of microprocessors were developed that operate on 16-bit numbers in registers but can only read and write 8 bits at a time.

The next major step in the evolution of the microprocessor was the introduction in 1972 of the Intel 8008. This was the first 8-bit microprocessor and was almost twice as complex as the 4004.

Neither of these steps was to have the impact of the next major event: the introduction in 1974 of the Intel 8080. This was the first general-purpose microprocessor. Whereas the 4004 and the 8008 had been designed for specific applications, the 8080 was designed to be the CPU of a general-purpose microcomputer. Like the

8008, the 8080 is an 8-bit microprocessor. The 8080, however, is faster, has a richer instruction set, and has a large addressing capability.

About the same time, 16-bit microprocessors began to be developed. However, it was not until the end of the 1970s that powerful, general-purpose 16-bit microprocessors appeared. One of these was the 8086. The next step in this trend occurred in 1981, when both Bell Labs and Hewlett-Packard developed 32-bit, single-chip microprocessors. Intel introduced its own 32-bit microprocessor, the 80386, in 1985 (Table 1.3, Lecture No.3).