Evolution of the IA–32 and IA–64 Lines

Prior to this lecture, we have examined a number of Instruction Set Architectures.

Due to its volume production, the two most significant ISAs at present are

- IA-32 The Instruction Set Architecture for all 32-bit computers in the 80x86 line: 80386, 80486, and most Pentium designs.
- IA–64 The Instruction Set Architecture for a recent redesign by Intel and Hewlett Packard. This has yet to succeed commercially.

Why Study the History of the Pentium Series?

The current Pentium ISA is heavily influenced by its development history.

The reason for this is the design principle called "**backward compatibility**". For Intel, this was a management decision to facilitate sales of new computers.

Every CPU from the 80186 to present must be able to run Intel–8088 assembly language code without modification.

The Intel-4004

September 1969 The Japanese company, **Busicom**, asked Intel to manufacture a set of twelve custom chips for a proposed electronic calculator.

Ted Hoff of Intel realized that it was possible to design a 4-bit general-purpose CPU on a single chip. This would do the job more cheaply and simply.

November 1971 The Intel-4004 chip was delivered. It had 2300 transistors.



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More on the Intel-4004

The Intel–4004 was designed to perform arithmetic on a variant of Packed Decimal values, stored with four bits per decimal digit.

Its clock speed was 108 kilohertz, which is 0.108 megahertz.

It could address 128 bytes of program memory and 512 bytes of data memory.

The Intel-8008 and Intel-8080

When Intel thought it might be able to use the 4004 in other projects, it offered to buy back the rights to the chip by refunding the \$60,000 it had been paid to develop it. Busicom quickly agreed.

Intel then began the design of the Intel–8008, an eight–bit upgrade to the 4004.

When the Intel–8008 proved so popular, Intel began design of another upgrade. This was the Intel–8080, released in 1974.

The Intel–8080 quickly became a mass market item.

The EAX Register

In 1974, the Intel–8008 had an 8–bit accumulator, called the A register.

In 1978, the Intel–8086 had a 16–bit accumulator, called the AX register.

In 1983, the Intel–80386 had a 32–bit accumulator, called the EAX register.

All designs had to run Intel–8008 code, thus support the A register.

After 1978, all designs had to run Intel–8086 code, supporting the AX register. Here is Intel's solution to the problem. All IA–32 code can directly access: EAX (32 bits), AX (16 bits), AH, or AL (each is 8 bits).



Other Register Groupings

Grouping 32–bit		16–bit	8–bit
А	EAX	AX	AH and AL
В	EBX	BX	AH and BL
С	ECX	CX	CH and CL
D	EDX	DX	DH and DL

Example: Setting the 16–bit register AX to value **0x1234** (hexadecimal) Intel will call this number **1234h**.

MOV EAX, 00001234h	// Also sets upper 16 bits.
MOV AX, 1234h	<pre>// Set only AX // Upper 16 bits not affected.</pre>
MOV AH, 12h	// Set bits 15 - 8 of EAX
MOV AL, 34h	// Set bits $7 - 0$ of EAX

There is no special name for bits 31 - 16 of any register.

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More History: the Intel-8086 and After

1978 The Intel 8086 and related 8088 processors are released. Each has 16–bit internal data registers and busses.

> The Intel 8086 had a 16–bit external data bus. The Intel 8088 had an 8–bit external data bus (cheaper).

Each has a 20-bit address bus. This would allow 1 megabyte to be addressed.

Bill Gates: "Who would need more than 1 megabyte of memory?" Division of this 1 megabyte (1024 kilobytes = 2^{20} bytes)

640 kilobytes for user program memory

384 kilobytes for system use: graphics memory, I/O buffers, etc.

More History

1980 The Intel–8087 is announced as a floating–point coprocessor for the Intel–8086 and Intel–8088.

As a coprocessor, it did not adhere to the Intel-8086 ISA.

The internal floating—point representation called for 80 bits. This had a large influence on the IEE—754 floating—point standards.

This was the first of a line of coprocessors: 80187, 80287, 80387, & 80487. Later models of the Intel–80486 and all models of the Pentium placed the floating point processor on the CPU chip, dropping the coprocessor chip.

- **1982** The Intel 80186 was announced. It had a clock speed of 6 MHz. It was not compatible with the IBM PC design, so it was not popular.
- 1982 The Intel 80286 was announced, with an address space to 24 bits, for an astounding 16 Megabytes allowed.
 (Intel should have jumped to 32–bit addressing, but had convincing financial reasons not to do so). The 80286 originally had a 6 MHz clock.

Still More History

- 1983 The introduction of the Intel–80386, the first of the IA–32 family. This CPU had 32–bit registers, 32–bit data busses, and a 32–bit address bus. The 32–bit accumulator was called the "EAX register".
 The Intel–80386 was introduced with a 16 MHz clock. It had three memory protection modes: protected, real, and virtual. The Intel–80386 is the first of the IA–32 line of processors.
- 1989 The Intel 80486 is introduced. It was the first of the Intel microprocessors to contain one million transistors.Later variants incorporated the floating–point processor in the core.
- **1992** Intel attempts to introduce the Intel 80586.

It could not get a trademark on a number, so it changed the name to "Pentium".

The name "80586" was used briefly as a generic name for the Pentium and its clones by manufacturers such as AMD.

16-Bit and 32-Bit Addressing

Sixteen-bit Addressing

The Intel 8086 and later use a segmented address system in order to generate 20–bit addresses from 16–bit registers.

Each of the main address registers was paired with a segment register.

The IP (Instruction Pointer) is paired with the CS (Code Segment) register.

The SP (Stack Pointer) is paired with the SS (Stack Segment) register.

NOTE: The Intel terminology IP is superior to the standard name for the register holding the address of the next instruction to execute.

The standard name is PC (Program Counter), so named because it does not count anything.

The Intel 8086 used the segment:offset approach to generating a 20-bit address from a 16-bit segment value and 16-bit offset.

The steps are as follows.

- 1. The 16-bit value in the segment register is treated as a 20-bit number with four leading binary zeroes. This is one hexadecimal 0.
- 2. This 20 bit value is left shifted by four, shifting out the high order four 0 bits and shifting in four low order 0 bits.This is equivalent to adding one hexadecimal 0.
- 3. The 16–bit offset is expanded to a 20–bit number with four leading 0's and added to the shifted segment value. The result is a 20–bit address.

Example: CS = 0x1234 and IP = 0x2004.

CS with 4 trailing 0's:00010010001101000000 or 0x12340IP with 4 leading 0's:0000001000000100 or 0x02004Effective address:00010100001101000100 or 0x14344

Backward Compatibility in the I/O Busses

Here is a figure that shows how the PC bus grew from a 20–bit address through a 24–bit address to a 32–bit address while retaining backward compatibility.



Intel-8086/8088 peripherals could be attached to the external bus of either an Intel-80286 or Intel-80386.

Intel 80286 peripherals could be attached to an Intel-80386 data bus.

The Intel-80286 Sockets

The IBM computer designed around the Intel–80286 was called the **IBM PC/AT** for "Personal Computer / Advanced Technology"



Memory Models: Another Intel-8086 Holdover

Segment–offset addressing is based on the use of 16–bit offsets.

The offset is treated as a **16–bit unsigned integer**.

This allows byte offsets in the range 0 through 65,535, a maximum size of 64 KB.

If the code is larger than 64 KB, the CS register must be managed explicitly.

If the data area is larger than 64 KB, the DS register must be managed.

This leads to a number of **memory models**, seen on early assemblers. These are based on the size of the code and the size of the data.

Code Size	Data Size	Model to Use
Under 64 KB	Under 64 KB	Small or Tiny
Over 64KB	Under 64 KB	Medium
Under 64 KB	Over 64 KB	Compact
Over 64 KB	Over 64 KB	Large

The smaller memory models give rise to code that is more compact and efficient. Modern code, with 32–bit addressing, does not require these.

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Motherboards

A computer comprises a number of interconnected components.

Early designs, for example the PDP–10 from 1968, used wires. These backplanes were expensive and difficult to manufacture.

This lead to the creation of the PCB (Printed Circuit Board) or Motheboard.



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Another Motherboard

This motherboard appears to have copper traces. Note the fan for the CPU.



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Sockets and Slots

Each is a mechanical component that allows a circuit element (CPU, memory module, etc.) to be inserted into the motherboard. In the early designs, the CPU would be connected directly to the motherboard via a **socket**.

Some later designs had the CPU mounted in a module with other components (probably cache memory). That module was connected via a **slot**.

The design of slots and sockets was driven by the CPU pin count. Intel 8086 Pentium 1





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Early Sockets

Here is a table of some of the early sockets used for the IA-32 series.

Socket name	Year	CPU families	Package	Pin count	Bus speed
DIP	1970s	Intel 8086, Intel 8088	DIP	40	5/10 MHz
Socket 1	1989	Intel 80486	PGA	169	16–50 MHz
Socket 2	?	Intel 80486	PGA	238	16–50 MHz
Socket 3	1991	Intel 80486	PGA	237	16–50 MHz
Socket 4	?	Intel Pentium	PGA	273	60–66 MHz
Socket 5	?	Intel Pentium, AMD K5	PGA	320	50–66 MHz
Socket 6	?	Intel 80486	PGA	235	?
Socket 7	1994	Intel Pentium, Intel Pentium MMX, AMD K6	PGA	321	50–66 MHz
Socket 8	1995	Intel Pentium Pro	PGA	387	60–66 MHz

Slots and the SECC

The introduction of the Pentium II (Pentium Pro) required a new packaging method, called **SECC** (Single–Edged Contact Cartridge).

The Pentium II had a design yielding significant performance benefits, but presenting many difficulties in manufacture and testing.

The answer was a separate circuit board, called a SECC, onto which the CPU and cache memory would be mounted. Here is a Pentium 2 in a SECC.



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Slot 1

Slot 1 refers to the physical and electrical specification for the connector used by some of Intel's microprocessors:

Pentium Pro, Celeron, Pentium II and the Pentium III.

Slot 1 (also Slot1 or SC242) is a slot-type connector with 242 contacts.

Here are two pictures showing a Slot 1 connection.

The Empty Slot

The CPU and Cooling Fans in the Slot



Slot 2 refers to the physical and electrical specification for the 330-lead Single Edge Contact Cartridge (or edge-connector) used by some of Intel's Pentium II Xeon and certain models of the Pentium III Xeon.

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The LGA 775 Socket

Here is a picture from [R017] of the LGA 775 mounted on some sort of motherboard. It is used by some of the Pentium 4 designs.



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Back to the Power Wall

We now revisit the problem that stopped the advance in CPU clock speeds. It is called the "power wall", because the issue was the power emitted by the CPU.



- The design goal for the late 1990's and early 2000's was to drive the clock rate up. This was done by adding more transistors to a smaller chip.
- Unfortunately, this increased the power dissipation of the CPU chip beyond the capacity of inexpensive cooling techniques.

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Roadmap for CPU Clock Speed: Circa 2005



2001 2003 2005 2007 2009 2011 2013

Here is the result of the best thought in 2005. By 2015, the clock speed of the top "hot chip" would be in the 12 - 15 GHz range.

These projections were made purely on the electrical considerations, such as circuit density and line size. Ignoring power issues, these were very reasonable.

The CPU Clock Speed Roadmap (A Few Revisions Later)



$2001 \quad 2003 \quad 2005 \quad 2007 \quad 2009 \quad 2011 \quad 2013$

This reflects the practical experience gained with dense chips that were literally "hot"; they radiated considerable thermal power and were difficult to cool.

Law of Physics: All electrical power consumed is eventually radiated as heat.

Cooling a Faster Single–Core CPU

Here are some solutions to cooling the "hot CPU".

With coolers such as these, it is possible to **"overclock"** the CPU; that is, to run it at a higher clock rate than the commercially released version.



Akasa Copper Heatsink



Mugen 2 Cooler

A Google search for "Computer Cooling Radiators" shows a brisk market in water cooling units for commodity CPU chips.

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The Intel Prescott: The End of the Line

The CPU chip (code named "Prescott" by Intel) appears to be the high–point in the actual clock rate. The fastest mass–produced chip ran at 3.8 GHz, though some enthusiasts (called "overclockers") actually ran the chip at 8.0 GHz.

Upon release, this chip was thought to generate about 40% more heat per clock cycle that earlier variants. This gave rise to the name "*PresHot*".

The Prescott was an early model in the architecture that Intel called "NetBurst", which was intended to be scaled up eventually to **ten gigahertz**. The heat problems could never be handled, and Intel abandoned the architecture.

The following are adapted from a review of the Prescott by Sander Sassen.

- The Prescott idled at 50 degrees Celsius (122 degrees Fahrenheit)
- The only way to keep it below 60 Celsius (140 F) was to operate it with the cover off and plenty of ventilation.
- Even equipped with the massive Akasa King Copper heat sink (see a previous slide), the system reached 77 Celsius (171 F) when operating at 3.8 GHz under full load and shut itself down.

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Multicore Chips: The Start of a New Line

Rather than continuing to improve single–program performance, many commercial chip manufacturers have adopted a "server mentality"; increase the throughput of a number of programs running concurrently.

We shall study parallel processing later. At that time, we shall not that the difficulty lies in keeping all processors doing productive work.

The division of a single problem among a large number of processors, or the use of a large number of processors for cooperating tasks, is difficult.

Recall that a **multicore chip** is just a CPU chip with multiple processors.

In a server, especially a large one such as the IBM z/10, there are a large number of independent processes that do not need to intercommunicate. Allocation of processors (cores) to such a job mix is almost trivial.

Question: Compare a single processor operating at 4 GHz to a dual core processor with each core operating at 2 GHz.

The dual core processor is likely to consume less power, but can it do the same amount of work per unit time as the faster single core processor?

Intel's Multicore Chip Offerings for 2010

For 2010, Intel Corporation has released a new series of multicore processors. Here is a Intel Corp overview of this series.

Processor Number	Cache	Clock Speed	Bus Speed	Number of Cores	Intel® Virtualization Technology≎	Intel® 64≎	Intel® Trusted Execution Technology令	Execute Disable Bit◇
45 nm								
i7-960	8 MB SmartCache	3.2 GHz	4.8 GT/s QPI	4	1	~		1
i7-950	8 MB SmartCache	3.06 GHz	4.8 GT/s QPI	4	1	1		1
i7-940	8 MB SmartCache	2.93 GHz	4.8 GT/s QPI	4	1	~		1
i7-920	8 MB SmartCache	2.66 GHz	4.8 GT/s QPI	4	1	~		1
i7-870	8 MB SmartCache	2.93 GHz	2.5 GT/s DMI	4	1	~	1	1
i7-860S	8 MB SmartCache	2.53 GHz	2.5 GT/s DMI	4	1	~	1	1
i7-860	8 MB SmartCache	2.8 GHz	2.5 GT/s DMI	4	1	~	1	~

All of these seem to be quad-core.

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Picture of a Modern Quad–Core CPU



Intel's Rationale

According to Intel, the multi–core technology will

- permanently alter the course of computing as we know it,
- provide new levels of energy efficient performance,
- deliver full parallel execution of multiple software threads, and
- reduce the amount of electrical power to do the computations.

The current technology provides for one, two, four, or eight cores in a single processor.

Intel expects to have available soon single processors with several tens of cores, if not one hundred.

This new technology seems to be targeted at the commercial desktop machine, which can "run several demanding modern applications at once".

At present, there are little hard data on multicore machines. What we have mostly is marketing hype. That might change soon.