Chapter 1

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Course Goals

- Introduce you to design principles, analysis techniques and design options in computer architecture
 - Instruction set design
 - Memory-hierarchy design
 - Pipelining
 - I/O
- The use of cost/performance as a basis for making decisions about computer architecture
- Computer architecture is exciting
- Get you to ask interesting questions about computer architecture

Background

- Assume you have taken:
 - A basic computer organization course
 - A logic design course
 - Assembly language programming
- Assume that you know
 - What an instruction set looks like
 - How to program in C

The Parts of a Computer



Why Study Computer Architecture?



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Performance?

- What do we mean when we say computer A is faster than computer B
- Response time
 - Time from start to completion of an event
 - Execution time
 - Latency
- Throughput
 - Amount of work done per unit time
 - Bandwidth

Performance

- Program <u>execution time</u> is the measure of performance (seconds/program)
- Definition of execution time
 - Wall clock time, elapsed time as seen by user includes everything (disk, OS overhead, competition with other jobs).
 - CPU time: time CPU computing on your program, excluding I/O wait time
 - 1. User CPU time
 - 2. System CPU time
- System Performance: elapsed time of an unloaded system
- CPU Performance: user CPU time
 - 90.7s: user CPU time
 - 12.9s: system CPU time
 - 2:39: elapsed time
 - 65%: CPU/elapsed

Evaluating Performance

- Use real programs
 - CAD, text processing, business applications, scientific applications
 - input, output, options
 - May not know what programs users will run
- Kernels:
 - Small key pieces (inner loops) of scientific programs where program spends most of its time
 - e.g. Livermore loops, LINPACK
 - Amenable to hand analysis
- Toy Benchmarks
 - e.g. Quicksort, Puzzle
 - Easy to type, predictable results, may use to check correctness of machine but not as performance benchmark.

Summarizing Performance

- Model a real job mix with a smaller set of representative programs
- Total execution time is the ultimate measure of performance
- Weight benchmarks according to time spent in a real job mix
- How do you summarize performance?
- A single-number performance summary for the programs expressed in units of time should be directly proportional to (weighted) execution time
- A single-number performance summary for the programs expressed as a rate should be inversely proportional to to (weighted) execution time

Summarizing Performance

- Given n programs,
 - Average of execution time: arithmetic mean
 (1/n)*(Time_1 + Time_2 + ... + Time_n)
 - If performance is expressed as a rate: the average that tracks execution time: harmonic mean

n / $(1/rate_1 + 1/rate_2 + ... + 1/rate_n)$ where rate_j = f (1/Time_j)

Summarizing Performance

• Weighted arithmetic mean

(Time_1*Weight_1 + Time_2*Weight_2 + ... + Time_n*Weight_n) where Weight_1 + Weight_2 + ... + Weight_n = 1, and Weight_j > 0

• Weighted harmonic mean

1/(Weight_1/Rate_1 + Weight_2/Rate_2 + ... + Weight_n/Rate_n)
For example, Rate_j is the MIPS rate of machine j.

Geometric Mean for Normalized Execution Time

• Normalize execution time of a program j to the execution time in a reference machine

==> Execution time ratio_j

• Geometric mean:

n th root of {(Execution time ratio_1)*...*(Execution time ratio_n)}

Make the Common Case Fast

- Very important, sort of obvious but often overlooked
- Common case is made slower to make a less common case faster
- The frequent case is often simpler and can be done faster (e.g. addition rarely overflows)
- Not following this principle can increase design time.
- Complex problems should be handled in software
- Hardware should provide fast primitives, not complete solutions

Amdahl's Law

- Performance gain from improvement of some portion of a computer
- Original Observation: Speedup from parallel processing is limited by the fraction that <u>cannot</u> be parallelized.
- In general,

Speedup = ET without enh / ET with enh = ET_old / ET_new where enh => enhancement

ET_new = ET_old * {(1-fraction_enh) + fraction_enh / Speedup_enh} Speedup = 1 / {(1-fraction_enh) + fraction_enh / Speedup_enh}

Application of Amdahl's Law

- Parallel application that is 90% parallel, what is the speedup for application on 10, 100 and 1000 processors.
 - 10% I/O and initialization: s
 - 90% parallel: p

$$-S_p = 1/(s + p/P) = 1/(0.1 + 0.9/P)$$

-S_10 = 1/(0.1 + 0.9/10) = 1/0.19 = 5.26
-S_100 = 1/(0.1 + 0.9/100) = 1/0.109 = 9.1
-S_1000 = 9.9

- Diminishing returns in performance

Increasing Parallelism

- 9% I/O initialization: s
- 91% parallel: p

$$- S_p = 1/(s + p/P) = 1/(0.09 + 0.91/P)$$

- S_100 = 1/(0.09 + 0.91/100) = 1/0.099 = 10.09

Using Amdahl's Law

- Making cost performance trade-offs
 - Application spends 50% time in CPU and 50% of time waiting for I/O
 - Cost of CPU = 1/3, cost of I/O = 2/3
 - New CPU increases CPU performance 5 times and CPU cost 5 times
 - Is using a new CPU a good idea from a cost/performance standpoint.

- Speedup = 1/(0.5 + 0.5/5) = 1/0.6 = 1.67

- Cost increase = 2/3*1 + 1/3*5 = 2.33

- Spend resources proportionately to where time is spent
- How much should we increase CPU speed for equal speedup and cost increase?

CPU Performance

CPU time = CPU clock cycles per program * Clock cycle time

 $CPI = \frac{CPU \text{ clock cycles per program}}{Instruction \text{ count}}$

CPU time = Instruction count*CPI*Clock cycle time



CPU Performance

• Another way of looking at CPU time

CPU time = (CPI_1*I_1 + CPI_2*I_2 + ... + CPI_n*I_n)*Clock cycle time

• CPI is now

$$\begin{split} CPI &= CPI_1*(I_1/Instruction \ count) + CPI_2*(I_2/Instruction \ count) \\ &+ \ldots + CPI_n*(I_n/Instruction \ count) \end{split}$$
 Frequency of I_j = I_j/Instruction count

CPU Performance Example

-- Instruction frequencies for a load/store machine

| Instruction type | Frequency | Cycles |
|------------------|-----------|--------|
| Loads | 25% | 2 |
| Stores | 15% | 2 |
| Branches | 20% | 2 |
| ALU | 40% | 1 |

-- All conditional branches in this machine use simple tests of equality with zero

BEQZ, BNEZ

- -- Consider adding complex comparisons to conditional branches
- -- 25% of branches can use complex scheme--> no need preceding ALU instruction
- -- The CPU cycle time of original machine is 10% faster
- -- Will this increase CPU performance?

CPU Performance Example

• Old CPU performance

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• $CPI_{old} = 0.25 * 2 + 0.15 * 2 + 0.2 * 2 + 0.4 * 1 = 1.6$

- CPU time_{old} = $1.6*IC_{old}*CCT_{old}$

• New CPU Performance

• CPI_{new} =
$$\frac{0.25*2 + 0.15*2 + 0.2*2 + (0.4 - 0.25*0.2)*1}{1 - 0.25*0.2}$$
 =1.63

•
$$IC_{new} = 0.95 * IC_{old}$$

- CCT_{new}= $1.1 * CCT_{old}$
- CPU time new = $1.63*(0.95*IC_{old})*(1.1*CCT_{old})$ = $1.71*IC_{old}*CCT_{old}$

Locality of Reference

- Fundamental observation about programs
- Possible to predict with high accuracy what a program will reference next based on what it has referenced in the recent past
- Temporal locality: recently referenced locations are likely to be referenced again (e.g. code loops, stack accesses).
- Spatial locality: nearby locations reference together (e.g. array access, code access)
- Memory hierarchy used to exploit locality

Memory Hierarchy

- Basic principle of hardware design: smaller is faster
 - Small memories have less signal propagation delay and decoding
 - Small memories can use more power per cell for speed
 - Small fast memories cost more
- Use memory hierarchy to cost/performance of computer
 - CPU registers
 - Cache



MIPS

• An indirect measure of performance

- million instr/sec = $\frac{\text{Instruction count}}{\text{Execution time*10}^{6}} = \frac{\text{Instr. Count}}{\text{#cycles*sec/cycle*10}^{6}} = \frac{\text{clock rate}}{\text{CPI*10}^{6}}$

- Execution time= instruction count / MIPS/ 10^6
- Problems with MIPS
 - Difficult to compare different ISA
 - No indication of program or program input
 - MIPS can vary inversely to performance (?)
- Native MIPS

Megaflops

of floating point operations in program

• MFLOPS = $\frac{\pi c}{2}$

Execution time * 1,000,000

- Does not measure integer performance
- Assumes that same number and type of operations are executed on all machines
- Changes with mixture of fast and slow operations (type of float pt. operations)
- A function of instruction mix (% of float pt. operations)



Figure 1.15 This 300 mm wafer contains 280 full Sandy Bridge dies, each 20.7 by 10.5 mm in a 32 nm process. (Sandy Bridge is Intel's successor to Nehalem used in the Core i7.) At 216 mm2, the formula for dies per wafer estimates 282. (Courtesy Intel.)

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Die



Figure 1.13 Photograph of an Intel Core i7 microprocessor die, which is evaluated in Chapters 2 through 5. The dimensions are 18.9 mm by 13.6 mm (257 mm2) in a 45 nm process. (Courtesy Intel.)

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Die Floorplan



Figure 1.14 Floorplan of Core i7 die in Figure 1.13 on left with close-up of floorplan of second core on right.

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