

Introduction

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Why take this class?

- To design the next great instruction set?...well...
 - Instruction Set Architecture (ISA) has largely converged
 - Especially in the desktop / server / laptop space
 - Dictated by powerful market forces
- Tremendous organizational innovation relative to established ISA abstractions

Why take this class? (cont.)

- Many New instruction sets or equivalent
 - embedded space, controllers, and specialized devices
- Design, analysis, implementation concepts vital to all aspects of CE & CS
- Equip you with an intellectual toolbox for dealing with a host of systems design challenges





- •Coordination of many *levels of abstraction*
- Under a rapidly changing set of forces
- •Design, Measurement, and Evaluation

Computer Design

- What are the principal goals?
 - performance, performance, performance...
 - but not at any cost
- Trade-offs:
 - need to understand cost and performance issues
 - need models and measures of cost and performance

Tasks of Computer Designers (Architects)

- Designing a computer involves:
 - instruction set architecture (ISA) programmer visible
 - computer organization CPU internals, memory, buses, ...
 - computer hardware logic design, packaging, ...
- Architects must meet:
 - functional requirements
 - »market & application driven
 - performance goals
 - cost constraints

Functional Requirements

- Application area
 - general purpose, scientific, commercial
- Operating system requirements
 - address space, memory management, protection
 - context switching, interrupts
- Standards
 - floating-point, I/O interconnect, operating systems, networks, programming languages

Functional Requirements (cont.)

- Given these requirements, optimize cost/performance trade-off
 - e.g., hardware or software implementation of a feature
- Design complexity
 - time to market is critical

Technology Trends

- Software trends
 - increasing memory usage (from increasing functionality?)
 - » 1.5x to 2x per year up to one address bit/year
 - use of high-level languages use of compilers
 » ISA designed for the compiler, not the programmer
 - improved compiler technology optimization, scheduling

Technology Trends (cont.)

- Hardware trends
 - IC technology density & size transistor count; cycle time
 - DRAM capacity 4x per 3 years, but slow cycle time change
 - disk capacity was 2x per 3 years before 1990, now 4x per 3 years,
 alow change in second time
 - » slow change in access time
- Need to be aware of trends when designing computers
 - design for requirements and technology at time of shipping







- Learning curve brings manufacturing cost down
 - DRAM cost drops 40% per year
- Large volume increases purchasing and manufacturing efficiency
 - bringing both cost and selling price down
- Commodization brings both cost and price down









Cost of Die (cont.)				
$Cost of die = \frac{Cost of wafer}{Dies per water \times Die yield}$				
$\text{Dies per water} = \frac{\pi \times (\text{Wafer Diameter}/2)^2}{\text{Dies area}} - \frac{\pi \times \text{Wafer Diameter}}{\sqrt{2 \times \text{Die area}}}$				
Die yield = Wafer yield × $(1 + \frac{\text{Defects per unit area × Die area}}{\alpha})^{-\alpha}$				
where α is the manufacturing complexity factor, which is 3.0 for the multilevel metal CMOS in 1995.				

Cost of Components

• Example: component costs in	a work	station:
- Cabinet & packaging 4%	6%	
- Circuit board - processor	6%	22%
- DRAM (64/128MB)	36%	5%
- video system	14%	5%
- PCB & I/O system	4%	5%
- I/O devices - keyboard/mouse	1%	3%
- monitor	22%	19%
- disk (1/20GB)	7%	9%
- CD/DVD drive	6%	6%

Cost of Components (cont.)

- Although IC cost is a differentiator - it is not a major cost component
- Cost reductions over time offset by increased resources required
 - E.g., more DRAM & disk,...

From Component Costs to Product Prices

- Direct Cost:
 - 20-40% of component cost for labor, warranty, etc.
- Gross Margin:
 - 20-55% of the average selling price for research and development, marketing, etc.
- Average Discount:
 - 40-50% of the list price for retailers' margin







Measuring Performance

- Difficulties
 - what to measure
 - interference
 - reproducibility
 - comparability
- Only consistent and reliable measure:
 - the time taken to run real programs

Measuring Performance (cont.)

- Execution time best measured using elapsed time
 - e.g. from the clock on the wall
 - includes all aspects of execution what the user sees
- Can use a tool such as Unix time command to make measurements:

graham% time ls 2003-09-30.xbk week_01.pdf week_01_handout.ppt misc week_01.ppt 0.000u 0.010s 0:00.00 0.0%

Measuring Performance (cont.)

- On a multi-programmed system, some time spent on other jobs
 - use an otherwise unloaded system to make measurements

Benchmarks

- Real applications
 - the kind of programs run in real life, with real I/O, options, ...
 - » e.g., compiler, text processor
- Scripted applications
 - to reproduce interactive or multi-user behavior
- Kernels
 - key parts of real programs used to evaluate aspects of performance

Benchmarks (cont.)

- Toy benchmarks small programs with known results
 - » e.g., Quicksort
- Synthetic benchmarks
 - constructed to match typical behavior of real programs
 - » e.g., Whetstone, Dhrystone

SPEC Benchmarks

- Benchmark suite
 - better indication of overall performance?
- Standard Performance Evaluation Corporation (SPEC)
 - formed in response to lack of believable benchmarks
 - SPEC92, SPEC95, SPEC2000 mix of integer & floating-point benchmarks, including kernels, small programs and real programs

SPEC Benchmarks (cont.)

- SPEC reports
 - detailed machine configuration and compiler options, and includes measured data
 - $\ensuremath{\mathsf{*}}$ aim for reproducibility
 - » unlike figures often reported in magazines!
 - also compare baseline with optimized performance
- Result summarized as SPECmarks
 - relative to reference machine: VAX-11/780 = 1

http://www.spec.org/







Reporting Performance

- Want repeatable results
 - experimental science
 - predict running time for X on Y
- How do we compare machines based on collections of execution times for each?

Reporting	Performance:	Example

	Computer A	Computer B	Computer C
Program P1	1s	10s	20s
Program P2	1000s	100s	20s
Total	1001s	110s	40s





Combining Relative Ratios

Approach used by SPEC

- normalised results
- » for each program in the suite, calculate time ratio w.r.t. reference
- -use geometric mean to combine ratios

Ratio_{mean} =
$$\sqrt[n]{\prod_{i=1}^{n} \text{Ratio}_{i}}$$

Comparison

- Equal-time Weighted arithmetic mean can be influenced
 - by the peculiarity of the machine and the size of program input
- Geometric mean of normalized time is independent of them
 - Relative to referenced machine for the same program on the same input

Comparison (cont.)

- Geometric mean rewards relative improvement regardless the size of the program
 - Improvement from 2 sec to 1 sec == improvement from 2000 sec to 1000 sec
- Geometric mean cannot predict actual performance

Quantitative Principle of Computer Design

- Make The Common Case Fast
 - Make frequent cases simpler, faster and use less resources
 - Improving frequent cases has greatest impact on overall performance
- Examples:
 - in ALU, most operations don't overflow
 » make non-overflowing operations faster, even if overflow case slows down
 - exception handling in Java

Amdahl's Law

- Law of diminishing returns
- Overall effect of an enhancement is weighted by proportion of time that the enhancement is used



Amdahl's Law Example

Suppose

- we can modify branch instructions to take half as long
- measurements show branches account for 10% of execution time

 F_{enh} = 0.1, S_{enh} = 2, so

$$S_{overall} = \frac{1}{(1-0.1) + \frac{0.1}{2}} = \frac{1}{0.9 + 0.05} \cong 1.05$$

Thus improvement is only 5% - if enhancement costs more than 5% extra, is it worth it?

Clocks, Cycles, etc.

What does 2GHz mean?

- clock frequency
- clock signal used to synchronize operation of the processor
- CPU time = number of cycles for a program x cycle time
- Instruction count =
- number of instructions executed in the program
- Average cycles per instruction (CPI) = cycle count / instruction count

$CPU \ Time = IC \times CPI \times T_c$

Parameters are interrelated:

- cycle time depends on hardware technology
- IC depends on instruction set and compiler
- CPI depends on CPU organisation and instruction set

CPU Performance Model

- If we have n instruction classes, each taking different number of cycles
- IC_i = instruction count for class *i*
- CPI; = CPI for class i

$$CPU \ Time = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (IC_i \times CPI_i) \times T_c$$

$$CPI = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (IC_i \times CPI_i)}{IC} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{IC_i}{IC} \times CPI_i \right)$$

Example

- · CPU A
 - compare to set the condition code (20%)
 - conditional branch based on the condition code (20%)
- · CPU B
 - compare is included in the conditional branch (20%)
 - Cycle time is 25% slower than in CPU A.
- The conditional branch takes 2 cycles. All other instructions take one cycle.

Example (cont.)

- NIA = # of instructions on A
- CTA = cycle time of A
- CPU time A = 0.8 * NIA * 1 * CTA + 0.2 * NIA * 2 * CTA = 1.2 * NIA * CTA
- CPU time B = 0.6 * NIA * 1 * 1.25*CTA + 0.2 * NIA * 2 * 1.25*CTA = 1.25 * NIA * CTA