Chapter 1

Computer Abstractions and Technology

The Computer Revolution

- Progress in computer technology
  - Underpinned by Moore’s Law
- Makes novel applications feasible
  - Computers in automobiles
  - Cell phones
  - Human genome project
  - World Wide Web
  - Search Engines
- Computers are pervasive

Classes of Computers

- Desktop computers
  - General purpose, variety of software
  - Subject to cost/performance tradeoff
- Server computers
  - Network based
  - High capacity, performance, reliability
  - Range from small servers to building sized
- Embedded computers
  - Hidden as components of systems
  - Stringent power/performance/cost constraints

The Processor Market

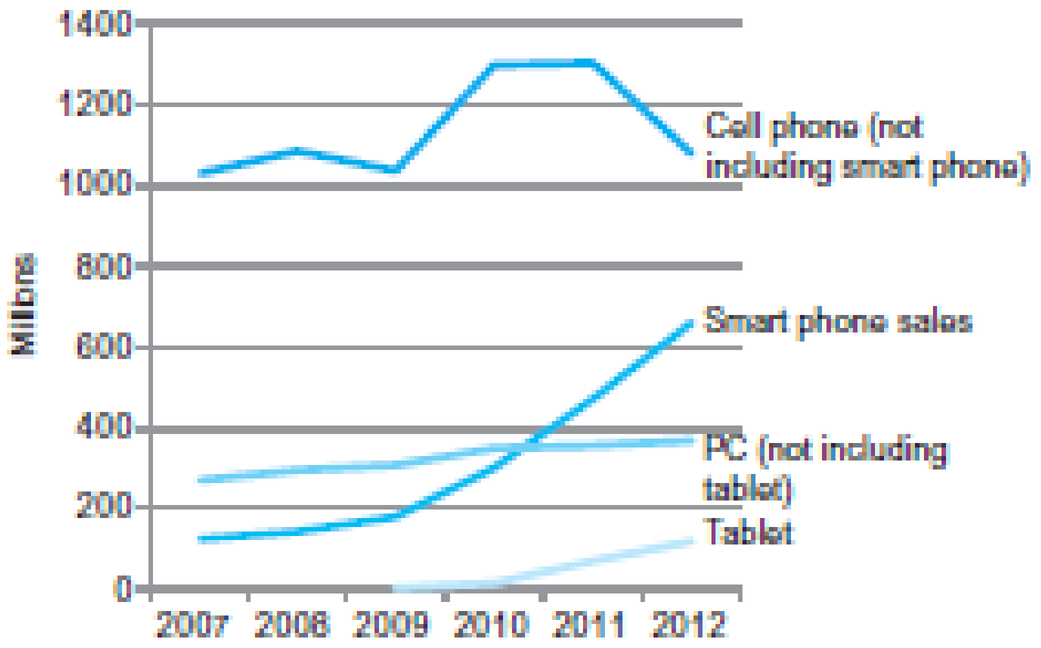


FIGURE 1.2 The number manufactured per year of tablets and smart phones, which reflect the PostPC era, versus personal computers and traditional cell phones. Smart phones represent the recent growth in the cell phone industry, and they passed PCs in 2011. Tablets are the fastest growing category, nearly doubling between 2011 and 2012. Recent PCs and traditional cell phone categories are relatively flat or declining.

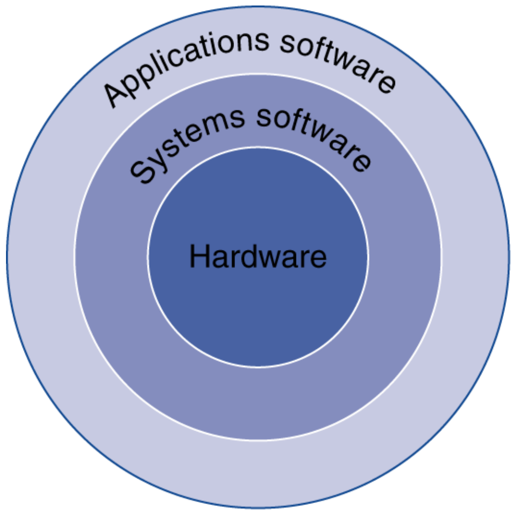
What You Will Learn

- How programs are translated into the machine language
  - And how the hardware executes them
- The hardware/software interface
- What determines program performance
  - And how it can be improved
- How hardware designers improve performance
- What is parallel processing

Understanding Performance

- Algorithm
  - Determines number of operations executed
- Programming language, compiler, architecture
  - Determine number of machine instructions executed per operation
- Processor and memory system
  - Determine how fast instructions are executed
- I/O system (including OS)
  - Determines how fast I/O operations are executed

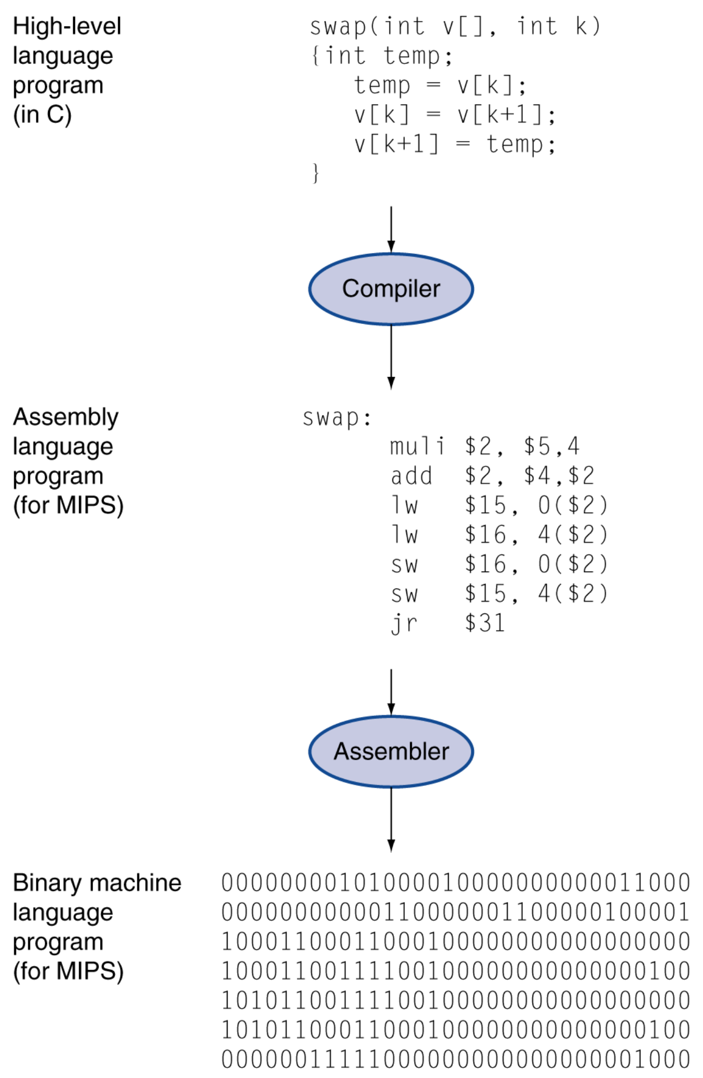
Below Your Program



- Application software
  - Written in high-level language
- System software
  - Compiler: translates HLL code to machine code
  - Operating System: service code
    - Handling input/output
    - Managing memory and storage
    - Scheduling tasks & sharing resources
- Hardware
  - Processor, memory, I/O controllers

Levels of Program Code

- High-level language
  - Level of abstraction closer to problem domain
  - Provides for productivity and portability
- Assembly language
  - Textual representation of instructions
- Hardware representation
  - Binary digits (bits)
  - Encoded instructions and data


High-level language program (in C)
Compiler
Assembly language program (for MIPS)
Assembler
Binary machine language program (for MIPS)

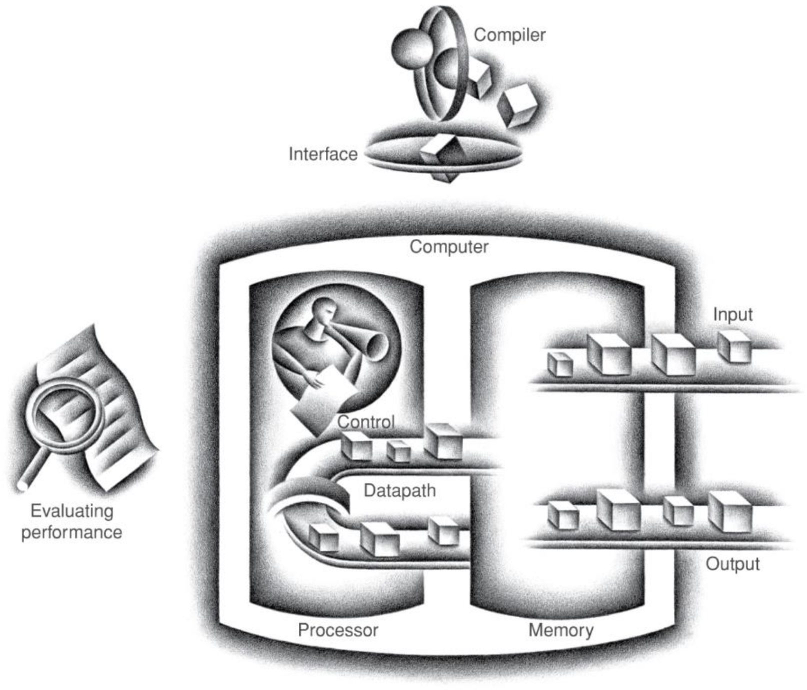
```
swap(int v[], int k)
{int temp;
   temp = v[k];
   v[k] = v[k+1];
   v[k+1] = temp;
}
```

```
swap:
      muli $2, $5,4
      add  $2, $4,$2
      lw   $15, 0($2)
      lw   $16, 4($2)
      sw   $16, 0($2)
      sw   $15, 4($2)
      jr   $31
```

```
00000000101000010000000000011000
00000000000110000001100000100001
10001100011000100000000000000000
10001100111100100000000000000100
10101100111100100000000000000000
10101100011000100000000000000100
00000011111000000000000000001000
```

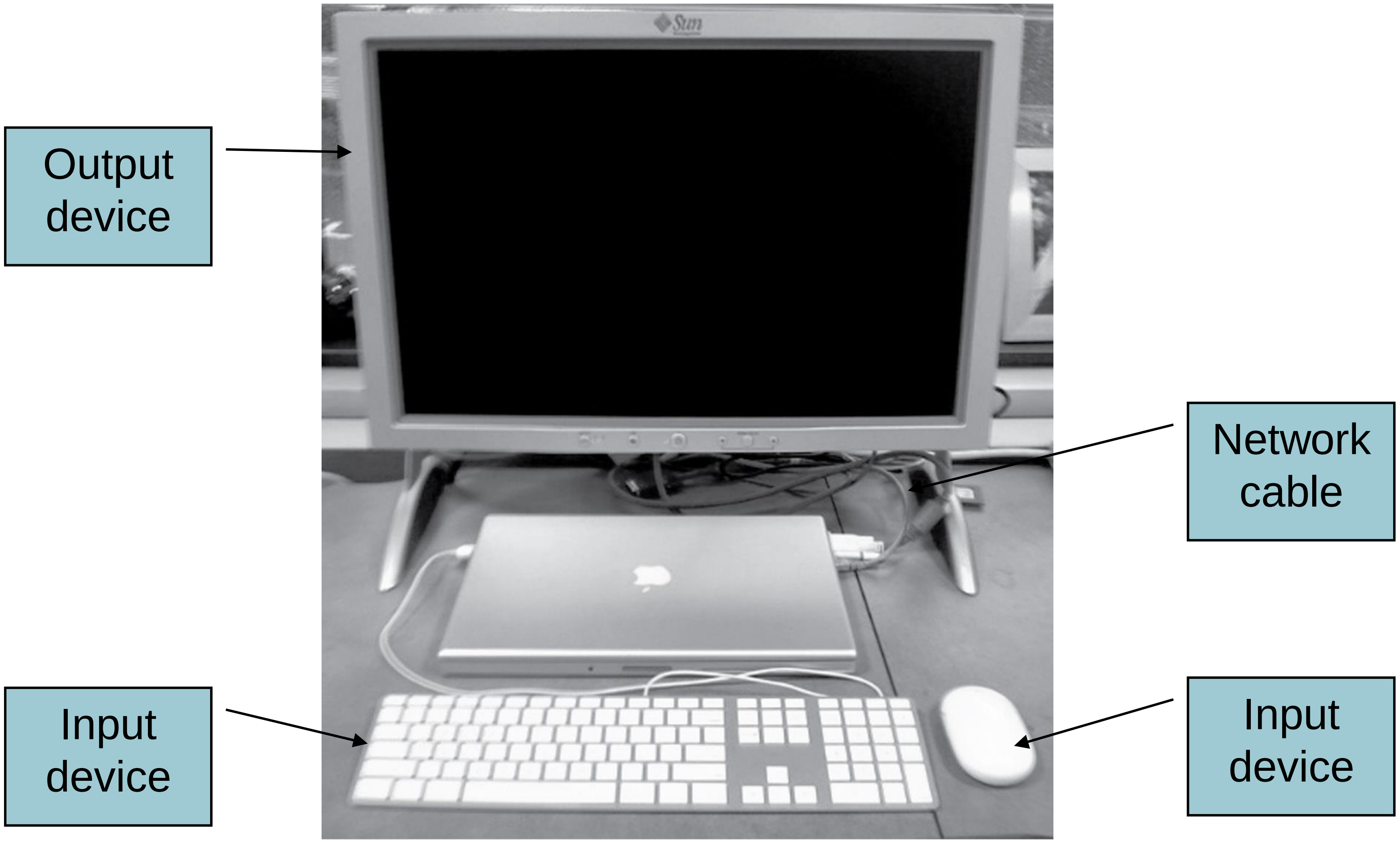
Components of a Computer

The BIG Picture



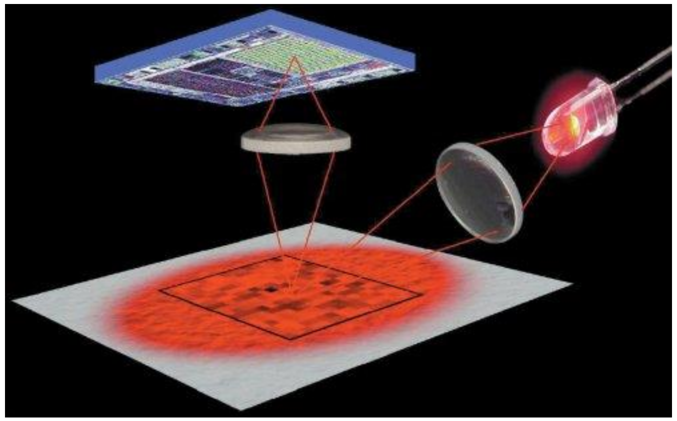
- Same components for all kinds of computer
  - Desktop, server, embedded
- Input/output includes
  - User-interface devices
    - Display, keyboard, mouse
  - Storage devices
    - Hard disk, CD/DVD, flash
  - Network adapters
    - For communicating with other computers

Anatomy of a Computer



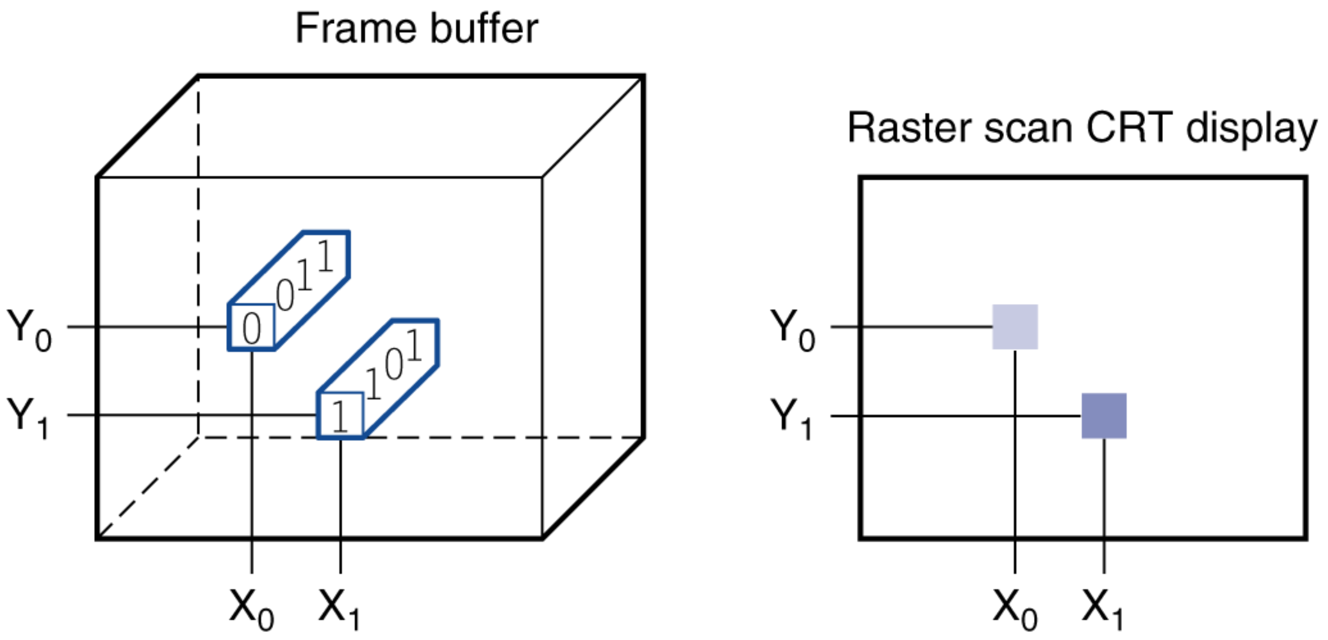
Anatomy of a Mouse

- Optical mouse
  - LED illuminates desktop
  - Small low-res camera
  - Basic image processor
    - Looks for x, y movement
  - Buttons & wheel
- Supersedes roller-ball mechanical mouse

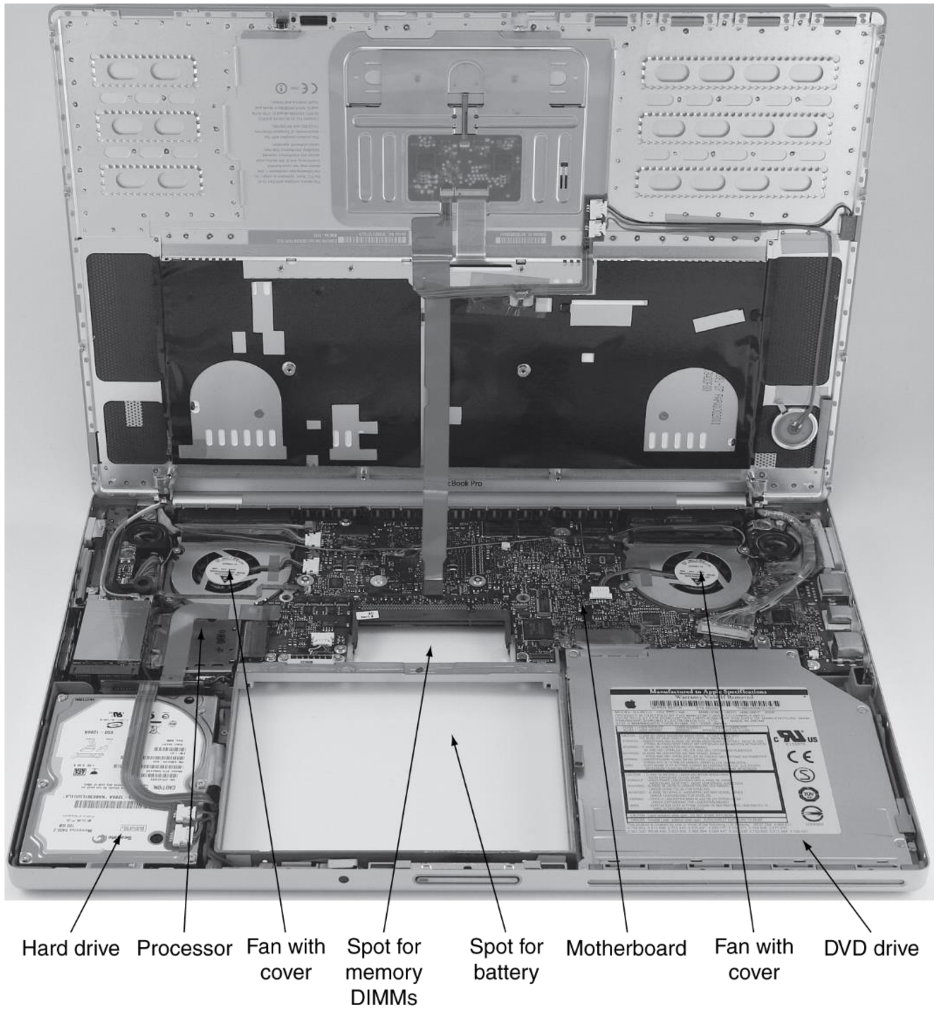


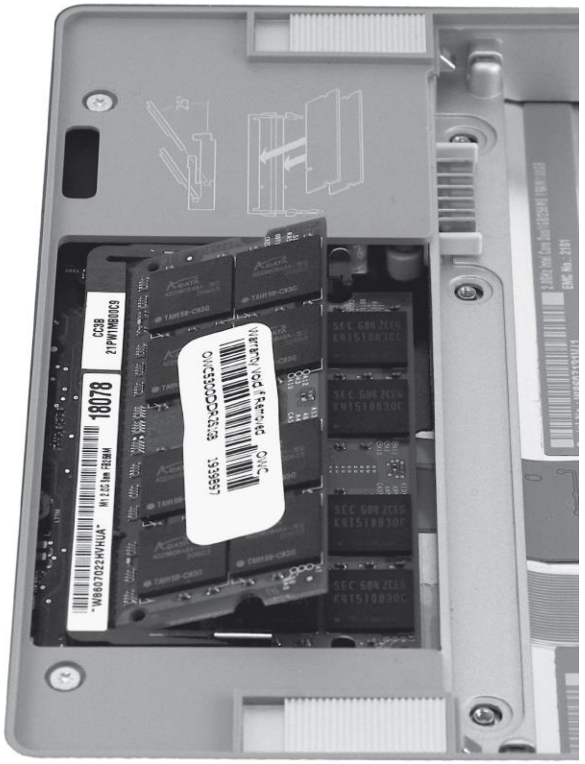
Through the Looking Glass

- LCD screen: picture elements (pixels)
  - Mirrors content of frame buffer memory



Opening the Box



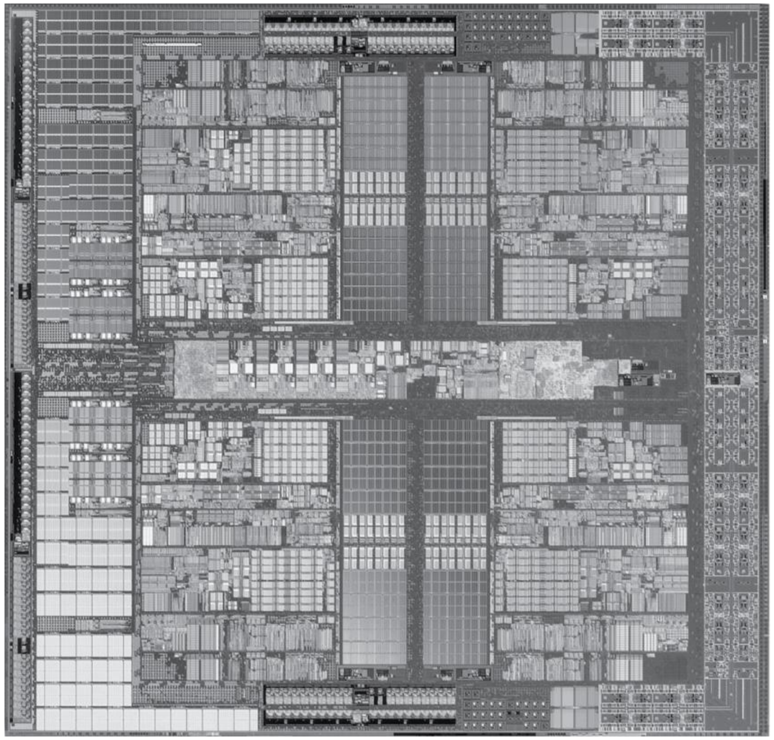


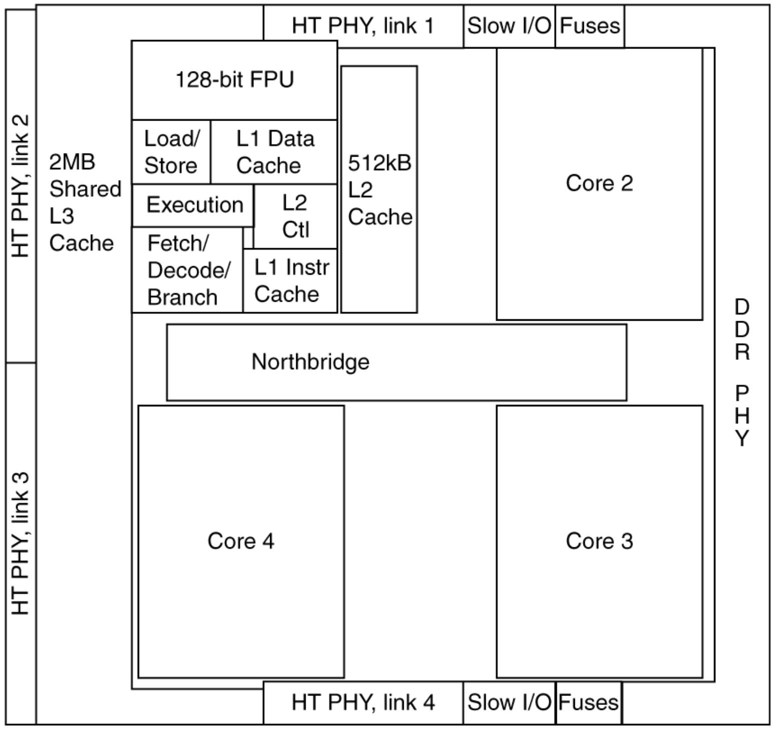
Inside the Processor (CPU)

- Datapath: performs operations on data
- Control: sequences datapath, memory, ...
- Cache memory
  - Small fast SRAM memory for immediate access to data

Inside the Processor

- AMD Barcelona: 4 processor cores





Abstractions

The BIG Picture

- Abstraction helps us deal with complexity
  - Hide lower-level detail
- Instruction set architecture (ISA)
  - The hardware/software interface
- Application binary interface
  - The ISA plus system software interface
- Implementation
  - The details underlying and interface

Some Definitions

What is Computer Architecture?

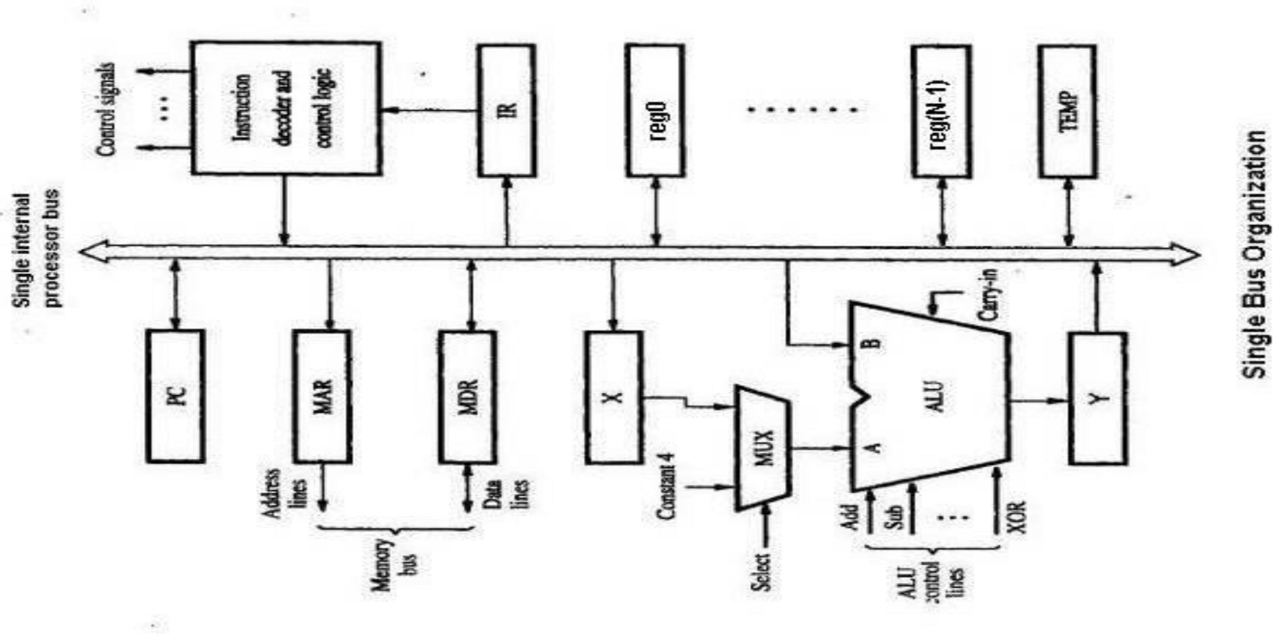
The science and art of designing, selecting, and interconnecting hardware components and designing the hardware/software interface to create a computing system that meets functional, performance, energy consumption, cost, and other specific goals.

Some Definitions

- ISA: An abstract interface between the hardware and the lowest level software of a machine that encompasses all the information necessary to write a machine language program that will run correctly, including instructions, registers, memory access, I/O, and so on.

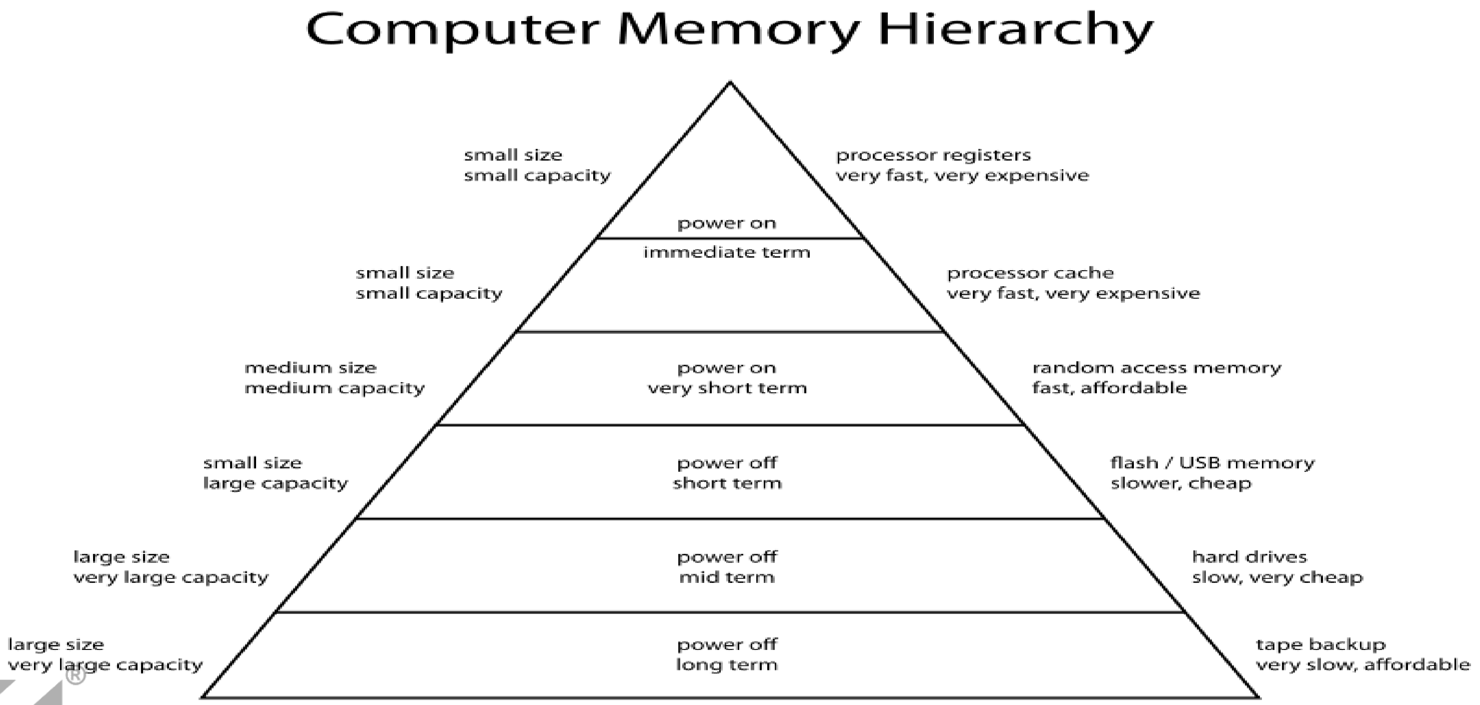
Some Definitions

- A **datapath** is a collection of functional units, such as arithmetic logic units or multipliers, that perform data processing operations. It is a central part of many central processing units (CPUs) along with the control unit, which largely regulates interaction between the datapath and the data itself, usually stored in registers or main memory. [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Datapath]



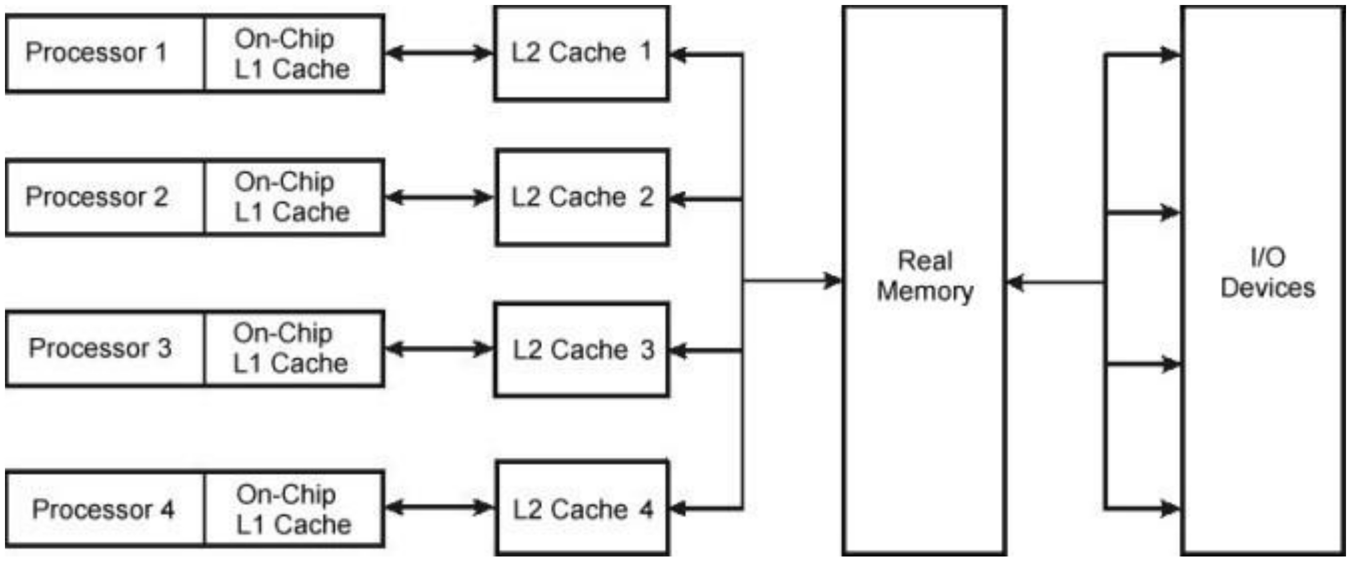
Some Definitions

- The term **memory hierarchy** is used in computer architecture when discussing performance issues in computer architectural design, algorithm predictions, and the lower level programming constructs such as involving locality of reference. A "memory hierarchy" in computer storage distinguishes each level in the "hierarchy" by response time. Since response time, complexity, and capacity are related, the levels may also be distinguished by the controlling technology. [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Memory_hierarchy]



Some Definitions

- A **multiprocessor** is a tightly coupled computer system having two or more processing units (***Multiple Processors***) each sharing main memory and peripherals, in order to simultaneously process programs.



Role of The (Computer) Architect

- Look backward (to the past)
  - Understand tradeoffs and designs, upsides/downsides, past workloads. Analyze and evaluate the past.
- Look forward (to the future)
  - Be the dreamer and create new designs. Listen to dreamers.
  - Push the state of the art. Evaluate new design choices.
- Look up (towards problems in the computing stack)
  - Understand important problems and their nature.
  - Develop architectures and ideas to solve important problems.
- Look down (towards device/circuit technology)
  - Understand the capabilities of the underlying technology.
  - Predict and adapt to the future of technology (you are designing for N years ahead). Enable the future technology.

So, I Hope You Are Here for This

CSE110/111

“Programming language” as a model of computation

Programmer’s view of how a computer system works

- How does an assembly program end up executing as digital logic?
- What happens in-between?
- How is a computer designed using logic gates and wires to satisfy specific goals?

Architect/microarchitect’s view: How to design a computer that meets system design goals. Choices critically affect both the SW programmer and the HW designer

HW designer’s view of how a computer system works

Digital logic as a model of computation

CSE260

Computer Architecture Today

- Today is a very exciting time to study computer architecture
- Industry is in a large paradigm shift (to multi-core and beyond) – many different potential system designs possible
- Many difficult problems *motivating* and *caused by* the shift
  - Power/energy constraints → multi-core?
  - Complexity of design → multi-core?
  - Difficulties in technology scaling → new technologies?
  - Memory wall/gap
  - Reliability wall/issues
  - Programmability wall/problem
  - Huge hunger for data and new data-intensive applications
- No clear, definitive answers to these problems

Technology Trends

- Electronics technology continues to evolve
  - Increased capacity and performance
  - Reduced cost

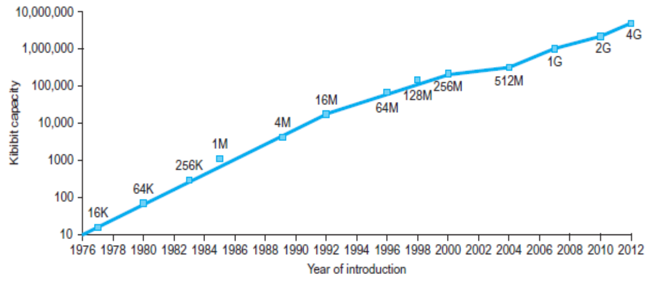


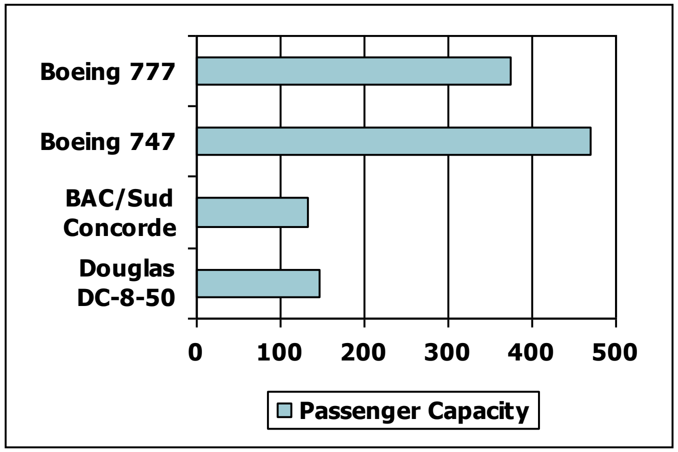
FIGURE 1.11 Growth of capacity per DRAM chip over time. The *y*-axis is measured in kibibits (2^{10} bits). The DRAM industry quadrupled capacity almost every three years, a 60% increase per year, for 20 years. In recent years, the rate has slowed down and is somewhat closer to doubling every two years to three years.

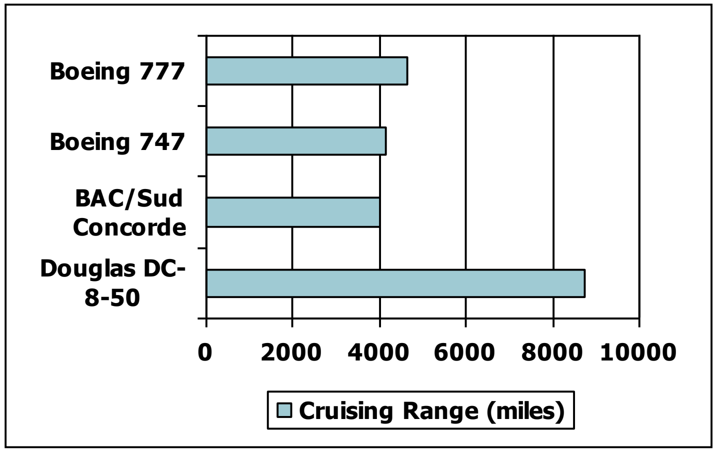
DRAM capacity

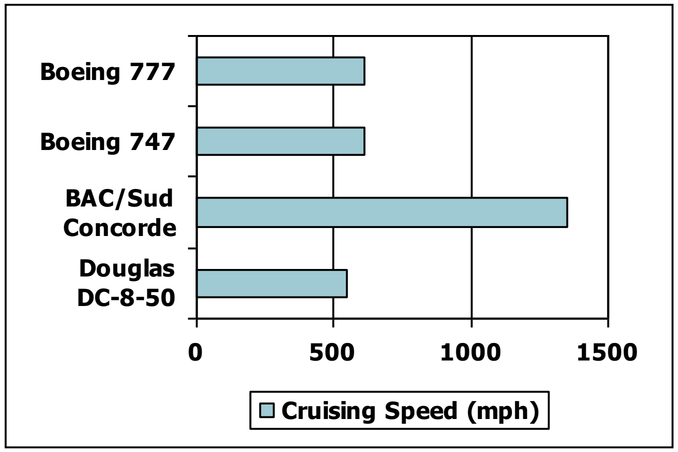
Year	Technology	Relative performance/cost
1951	Vacuum tube	1
1965	Transistor	35
1975	Integrated circuit (IC)	900
1995	Very large scale IC (VLSI)	2,400,000
2013	Ultra large-scale IC	250,000,000,000

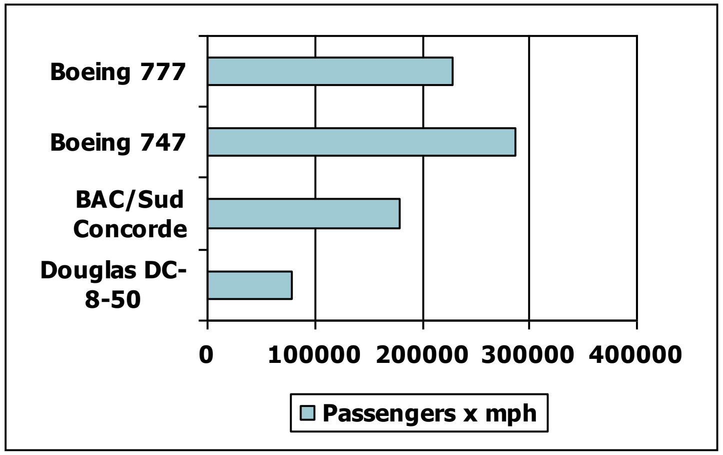
Defining Performance

- Which airplane has the best performance?









Response Time and Throughput

- Response time
  - How long it takes to do a task
- Throughput
  - Total work done per unit time
    - e.g., tasks/transactions/… per hour
- How are response time and throughput affected by
  - Replacing the processor with a faster version?
  - Adding more processors?
- We’ll focus on response time for now…

Relative Performance

- Define Performance = 1/Execution Time
- "X is n time faster than Y"

$$\text{Performance}_X / \text{Performance}_Y$$
$$= \text{Execution time}_Y / \text{Execution time}_X = n$$

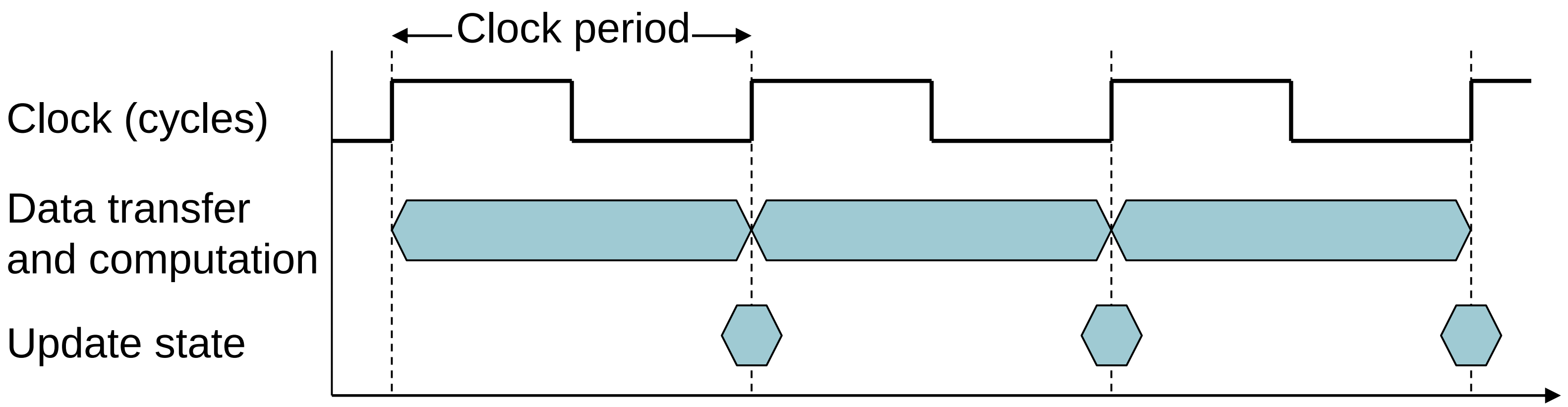
- Example: time taken to run a program
  - 10s on A, 15s on B
  - Execution Time$_B$ / Execution Time$_A$
    = 15s / 10s = 1.5
  - So A is 1.5 times faster than B

Measuring Execution Time

- Elapsed time
  - Total response time, including all aspects
    - Processing, I/O, OS overhead, idle time
  - Determines system performance
- CPU time
  - Time spent processing a given job
    - Discounts I/O time, other jobs' shares
  - Comprises user CPU time and system CPU time
  - Different programs are affected differently by CPU and system performance

CPU Clocking

- Operation of digital hardware governed by a constant-rate clock



- Clock period: duration of a clock cycle
  - e.g., 250ps = 0.25ns = 250×10^{-12}s
- Clock frequency (rate): cycles per second
  - e.g., 4.0GHz = 4000MHz = 4.0×10^{9}Hz

CPU Time

$$\text{CPU Time} = \text{CPU Clock Cycles} \times \text{Clock Cycle Time}$$
$$= \frac{\text{CPU Clock Cycles}}{\text{Clock Rate}}$$

- Performance improved by
  - Reducing number of clock cycles
  - Increasing clock rate
  - Hardware designer must often trade off clock rate against cycle count

CPU Time Example

- Computer A: 2GHz clock, 10s CPU time
- Designing Computer B
  - Aim for 6s CPU time
  - this increase will affect the rest of the CPU design, causing computer B to require 1.2 times as many clock cycles as computer A for this program
  - Can do faster clock, but causes 1.2 × clock cycles
- How fast must Computer B clock be?

$$\text{Clock Rate}_B = \frac{\text{Clock Cycles}_B}{\text{CPU Time}_B} = \frac{1.2 \times \text{Clock Cycles}_A}{6\text{s}}$$

$$\text{Clock Cycles}_A = \text{CPU Time}_A \times \text{Clock Rate}_A$$

$$= 10\text{s} \times 2\text{GHz} = 20 \times 10^9$$

$$\text{Clock Rate}_B = \frac{1.2 \times 20 \times 10^9}{6\text{s}} = \frac{24 \times 10^9}{6\text{s}} = 4\text{GHz}$$

Instruction Count and CPI

$$\text{Clock Cycles} = \text{Instructio n Count} \times \text{Cycles per Instructio n}$$

$$\text{CPU Time} = \text{Instructio n Count} \times \text{CPI} \times \text{Clock Cycle Time}$$

$$= \frac{\text{Instructio n Count} \times \text{CPI}}{\text{Clock Rate}}$$

- Instruction Count for a program
  - Determined by program, ISA and compiler
- Average cycles per instruction
  - Determined by CPU hardware
  - If different instructions have different CPI
    - Average CPI affected by instruction mix

CPI Example

- Computer A: Cycle Time = 250ps, CPI = 2.0
- Computer B: Cycle Time = 500ps, CPI = 1.2
- Same ISA
- Which is faster, and by how much?

$$\text{CPU Time}_A = \text{Instruction Count} \times \text{CPI}_A \times \text{Cycle Time}_A$$

$$= I \times 2.0 \times 250\text{ps} = I \times 500\text{ps}$$

A is faster…

$$\text{CPU Time}_B = \text{Instruction Count} \times \text{CPI}_B \times \text{Cycle Time}_B$$

$$= I \times 1.2 \times 500\text{ps} = I \times 600\text{ps}$$

$$\frac{\text{CPU Time}_B}{\text{CPU Time}_A} = \frac{I \times 600\text{ps}}{I \times 500\text{ps}} = 1.2$$

…by this much

CPI in More Detail

- If different instruction classes take different numbers of cycles

$$\text{Clock Cycles} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\text{CPI}_i \times \text{Instruction Count}_i)$$

- Weighted average CPI

$$\text{CPI} = \frac{\text{Clock Cycles}}{\text{Instruction Count}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\text{CPI}_i \times \underbrace{\frac{\text{Instruction Count}_i}{\text{Instruction Count}}}_{\text{Relative frequency}} \right)$$

CPI Example

- Alternative compiled code sequences using instructions in classes A, B, C

Class	A	B	C
CPI for class	1	2	3
IC in sequence 1	2	1	2
IC in sequence 2	4	1	1

- Sequence 1: IC = 5
  - Clock Cycles = 2×1 + 1×2 + 2×3 = 10
  - Avg. CPI = 10/5 = 2.0
- Sequence 2: IC = 6
  - Clock Cycles = 4×1 + 1×2 + 1×3 = 9
  - Avg. CPI = 9/6 = 1.5

Performance Summary

The BIG Picture

$$\text{CPU Time} = \frac{\text{Instructions}}{\text{Program}} \times \frac{\text{Clock cycles}}{\text{Instruction}} \times \frac{\text{Seconds}}{\text{Clock cycle}}$$

- Performance depends on
  - Algorithm: affects IC, possibly CPI
  - Programming language: affects IC, CPI
  - Compiler: affects IC, CPI
  - Instruction set architecture: affects IC, CPI, T_c

Power Trends

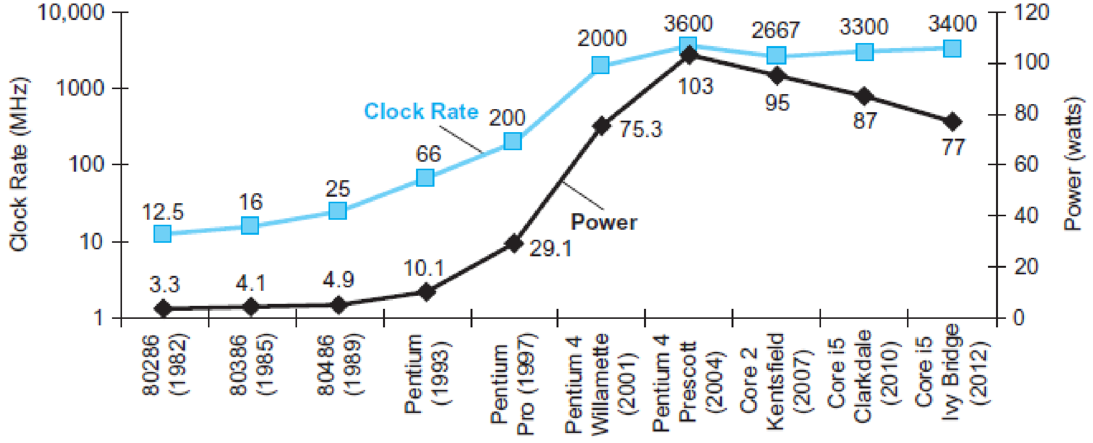


FIGURE 1.16 Clock rate and Power for Intel x86 microprocessors over eight generations and 25 years. The Pentium 4 made a dramatic jump in clock rate and power but less so in performance. The Prescott thermal problems led to the abandonment of the Pentium 4 line. The Core 2 line reverts to a simpler pipeline with lower clock rates and multiple processors per chip. The Core i5 pipelines follow in its footsteps.

- In CMOS IC technology

$$\underbrace{\text{Power}}_{\times 30} = \text{Capacitive load} \times \underbrace{\text{Voltage}^2}_{5\text{V} \rightarrow 1\text{V}} \times \underbrace{\text{Frequency}}_{\times 1000}$$

Reducing Power

- Suppose a new CPU has
  - 85% of capacitive load of old CPU
  - 15% voltage and 15% frequency reduction

$$\frac{P_{new}}{P_{old}} = \frac{C_{old} \times 0.85 \times (V_{old} \times 0.85)^2 \times F_{old} \times 0.85}{C_{old} \times V_{old}^2 \times F_{old}} = 0.85^4 = 0.52$$

- The power wall
  - We can't reduce voltage further
  - We can't remove more heat
- How else can we improve performance?

Uniprocessor Performance

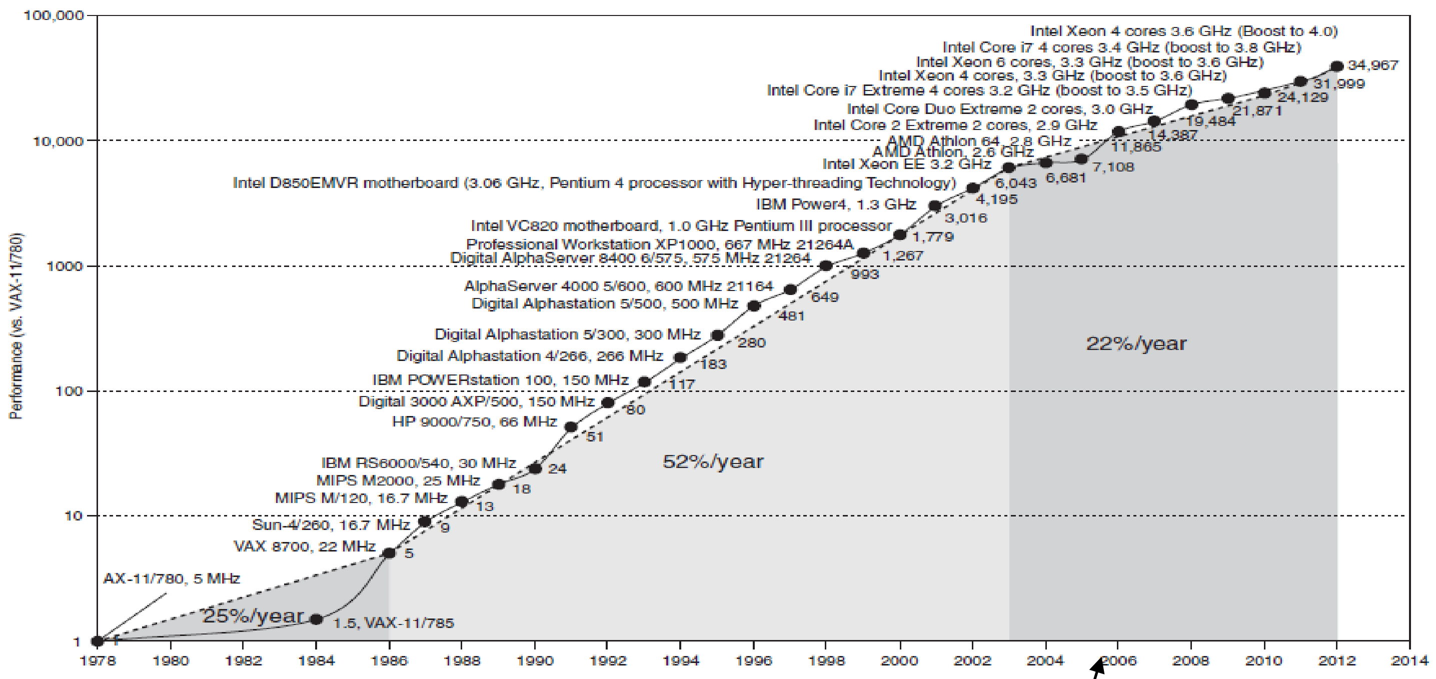


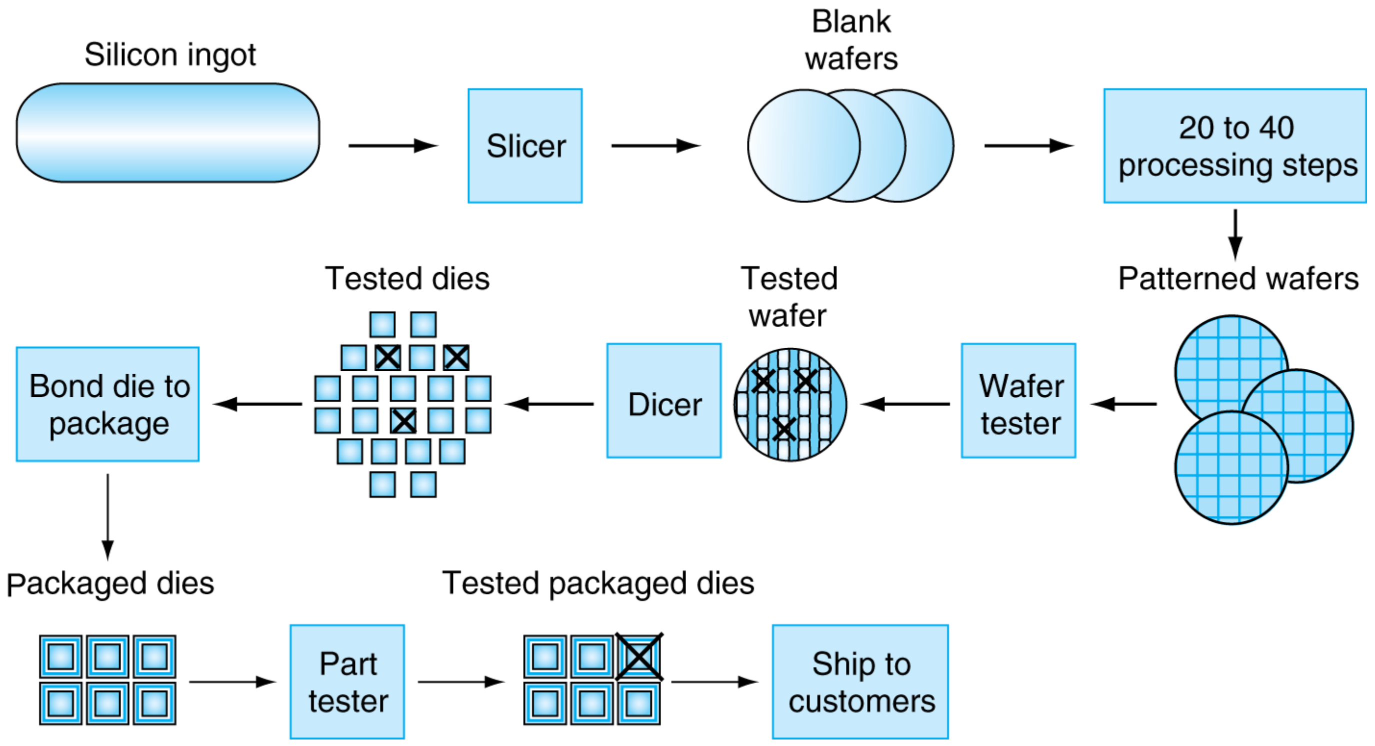
FIGURE 1.17 Growth in processor performance since the mid-1980s. This chart plots performance relative to the VAX 11/780 as measured by the SPECint benchmarks (see Section 1.10). Prior to the mid-1980s, processor performance growth was largely technology-driven and averaged about 25% per year. The increase in growth to about 52% since then is attributable to more advanced architectural and organizational ideas. The higher annual performance improvement of 52% since the mid-1980s meant performance was about a factor of seven higher in 2002 than it would have been had it stayed at 25%. Since 2002, the limits of power, available instruction-level parallelism, and long memory latency have slowed uniprocessor performance recently, to about 22% per year.

Constrained by power, instruction-level parallelism, memory latency

Multiprocessors

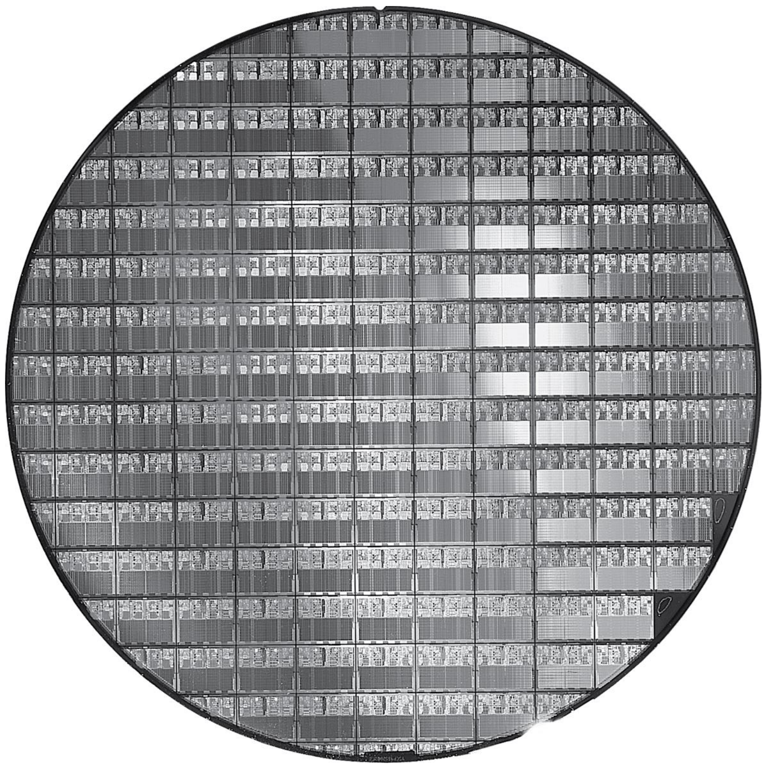
- Multicore microprocessors
  - More than one processor per chip
- Requires explicitly parallel programming
  - Compare with instruction level parallelism
    - Hardware executes multiple instructions at once
    - Hidden from the programmer
  - Hard to do
    - Programming for performance
    - Load balancing
    - Optimizing communication and synchronization

Manufacturing ICs



- Yield: proportion of working dies per wafer

AMD Opteron X2 Wafer



- X2: 300mm wafer, 117 chips, 90nm technology
- X4: 45nm technology

Integrated Circuit Cost

$$\text{Cost per die} = \frac{\text{Cost per wafer}}{\text{Dies per wafer} \times \text{Yield}}$$

$$\text{Dies per wafer} \approx \text{Wafer area} \big/ \text{Die area}$$

$$\text{Yield} = \frac{1}{(1 + (\text{Defects per area} \times \text{Die area}/2))^2}$$

- Nonlinear relation to area and defect rate
  - Wafer cost and area are fixed
  - Defect rate determined by manufacturing process
  - Die area determined by architecture and circuit design

SPEC CPU Benchmark

- Programs used to measure performance
  - Supposedly typical of actual workload
- Standard Performance Evaluation Corp (SPEC)
  - Develops benchmarks for CPU, I/O, Web, …
- SPEC CPU2006
  - Elapsed time to execute a selection of programs
    - Negligible I/O, so focuses on CPU performance
  - Normalize relative to reference machine
  - Summarize as geometric mean of performance ratios
    - CINT2006 (integer) and CFP2006 (floating-point)

$$\sqrt[n]{\prod_{i=1}^{n} \text{Execution time ratio}_i}$$

CINT2006 for Opteron X4 2356

Name	Description	IC×10^9	CPI	Tc (ns)	Exec time	Ref time	SPECratio
perl	Interpreted string processing	2,118	0.75	0.40	637	9,777	15.3
bzip2	Block-sorting compression	2,389	0.85	0.40	817	9,650	11.8
gcc	GNU C Compiler	1,050	1.72	0.47	24	8,050	11.1
mcf	Combinatorial optimization	336	10.00	0.40	1,345	9,120	6.8
go	Go game (AI)	1,658	1.09	0.40	721	10,490	14.6
hmmer	Search gene sequence	2,783	0.80	0.40	890	9,330	10.5
sjeng	Chess game (AI)	2,176	0.96	0.48	37	12,100	14.5
libquantum	Quantum computer simulation	1,623	1.61	0.40	1,047	20,720	19.8
h264avc	Video compression	3,102	0.80	0.40	993	22,130	22.3
omnetpp	Discrete event simulation	587	2.94	0.40	690	6,250	9.1
astar	Games/path finding	1,082	1.79	0.40	773	7,020	9.1
xalancbmk	XML parsing	1,058	2.70	0.40	1,143	6,900	6.0
Geometric mean							11.7

High cache miss rates

SPEC Power Benchmark

- Power consumption of server at different workload levels
  - Performance: ssj_ops/sec
  - Power: Watts (Joules/sec)

$$\text{Overall ssj\_ops per Watt} = \left(\sum_{i=0}^{10} \text{ssj\_ops}_i\right) \Big/ \left(\sum_{i=0}^{10} \text{power}_i\right)$$

SPECpower_ssj2008 for X4

Target Load %	Performance (ssj_ops/sec)	Average Power (Watts)
100%	231,867	295
90%	211,282	286
80%	185,803	275
70%	163,427	265
60%	140,160	256
50%	118,324	246
40%	920,35	233
30%	70,500	222
20%	47,126	206
10%	23,066	180
0%	0	141
Overall sum	1,283,590	2,605
∑ssj_ops/ ∑power		493

Pitfall: Amdahl's Law

- Improving an aspect of a computer and expecting a proportional improvement in overall performance

$$T_{\text{improved}} = \frac{T_{\text{affected}}}{\text{improvement factor}} + T_{\text{unaffected}}$$

- Example: multiply accounts for 80s/100s
  - How much improvement in multiply performance to get 5× overall?

$$20 = \frac{80}{n} + 20$$

  - Can't be done!
- Corollary: make the common case fast

Pitfall: MIPS as a Performance Metric

- MIPS: Millions of Instructions Per Second
  - Doesn't account for
    - Differences in ISAs between computers
    - Differences in complexity between instructions

$$\text{MIPS} = \frac{\text{Instruction count}}{\text{Execution time} \times 10^6}$$

$$= \frac{\text{Instruction count}}{\dfrac{\text{Instruction count} \times \text{CPI}}{\text{Clock rate}} \times 10^6} = \frac{\text{Clock rate}}{\text{CPI} \times 10^6}$$

  - CPI varies between programs on a given CPU

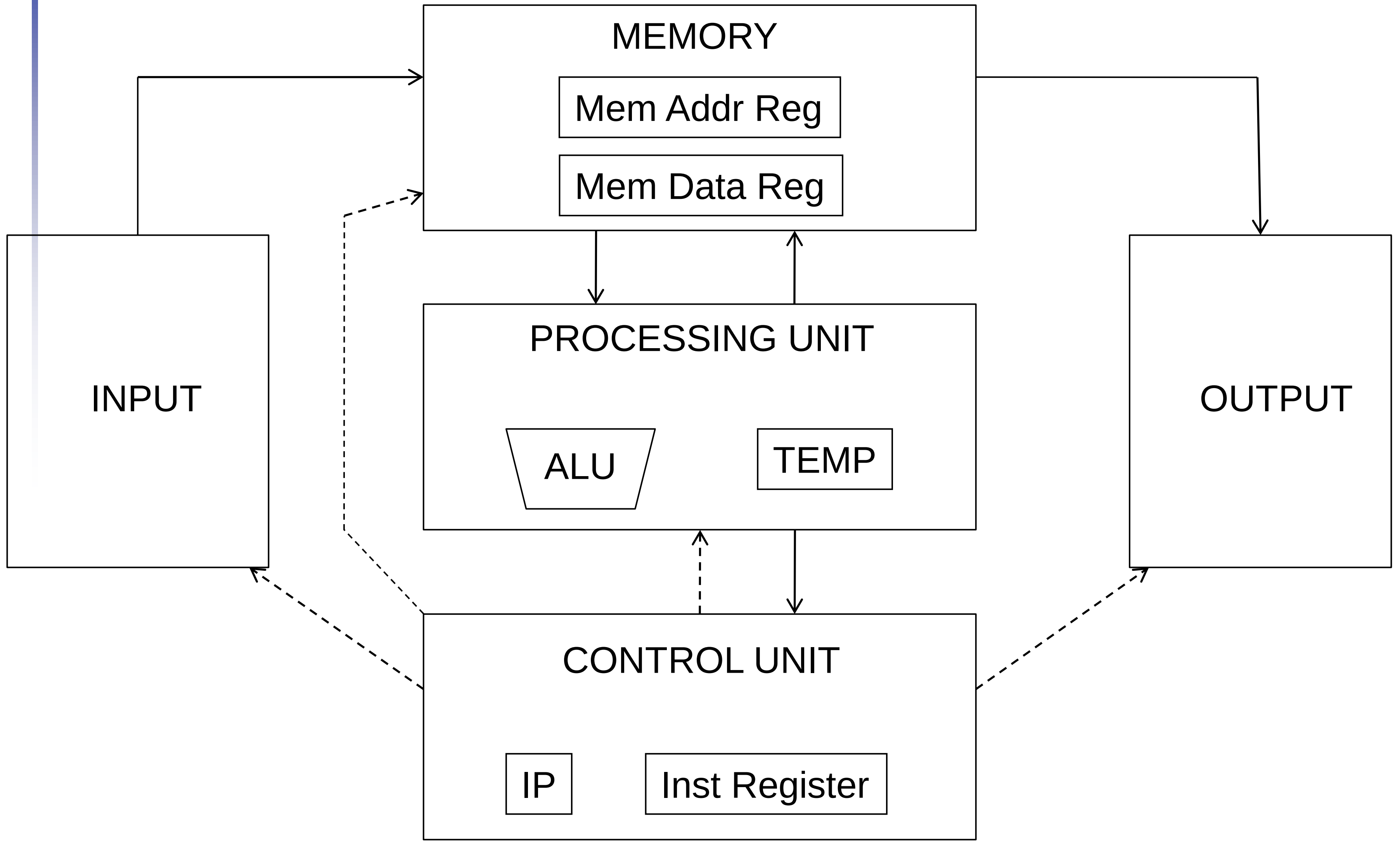
The Von Neumann Model / Architecture

- Also called *stored program computer* (instructions in memory). Two key properties:

- Stored program
  - Instructions stored in a linear memory array
  - Memory is unified between instructions and data
    - The interpretation of a stored value depends on the control signals

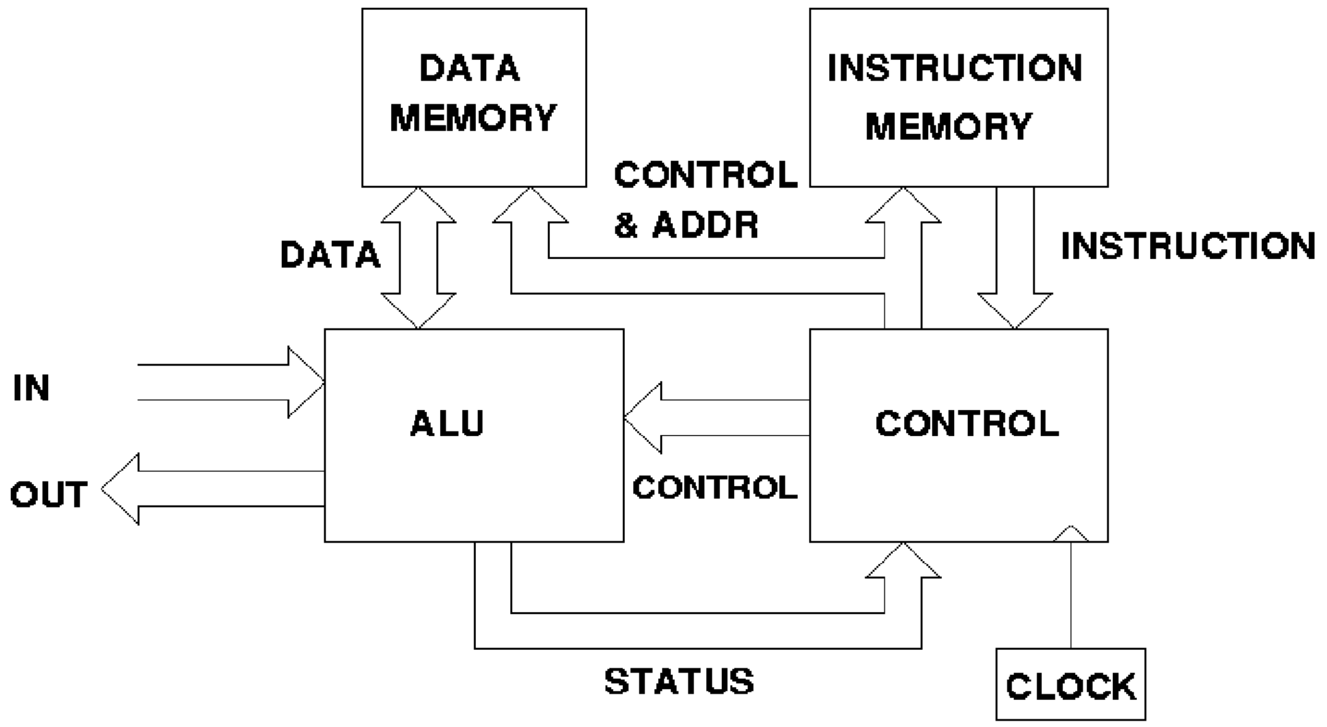
- Sequential instruction processing
  - One instruction processed (fetched, executed, and completed) at a time
  - Program counter (instruction pointer) identifies the current instr.
  - Program counter is advanced sequentially except for control transfer instructions

The Von Neumann Model / Architecture



The Harvard Architecture

Harvard architecture is a computer architecture with physically separate storage and signal pathways for instructions and data.



The Harvard Architecture

- In a computer with a von Neumann architecture (and no cache), the CPU can be either reading an instruction or reading/writing data from/to the memory.
    - Both cannot occur at the same time since the instructions and data use the same bus system.
- In a computer using the Harvard architecture, the CPU can read both an instruction and perform a data memory access at the same time, even without a cache.
- A Harvard architecture computer can thus be faster for a given circuit complexity because instruction fetches and data access do not contend for a single memory pathway.

The Harvard Architecture

- In a Harvard architecture, there is no need to make the two memories share characteristics. In particular, the word width, timing, implementation technology, and memory address structure can differ.
- In some systems, instructions can be stored in read-only memory while data memory generally requires read-write memory.
- Instruction memory is often wider than data memory.

RISC vs. CISC

CISC	RISC
• Richer instruction set, some simple, some very complex. • Instructions generally take more than 1 clock to execute. • Instructions of a variable size. • Instructions interface with memory in multiple mechanisms with complex addressing modes. • No pipelining. • Upward compatibility within a family. • Microcode control. • Work well with simpler compiler.	• Simple primitive instructions and addressing modes. • Instructions execute in one clock cycle. • Uniformed length instructions and fixed instruction format. • Instructions interface with memory via fixed mechanisms. • Pipelining. • Instruction set is orthogonal (little overlapping of instruction functionality) • Hardwired control. • Complexity pushed to the compiler.

Concluding Remarks

- Cost/performance is improving
  - Due to underlying technology development
- Hierarchical layers of abstraction
  - In both hardware and software
- Instruction set architecture
  - The hardware/software interface
- Execution time: the best performance measure
- Power is a limiting factor
  - Use parallelism to improve performance