Computer Organization and Architecture COSC 2425

Lecture – 4

Aug 31st, 2022

Acknowledgement: Slides from Edgar Gabriel & Kevin Long

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Energy Consumed by Transistor

Dominant technology is CMOS (complementary metal oxide semiconductor.

The primary source for energy consumption is called dynamic energy

$$0 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 0$$

$$1 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 1$$

 $Energy \propto Capacitive load \times Voltage^2$

Energy consumed by transistor to switch states.

$$0 \rightarrow 1$$

$$1 \rightarrow 0$$

 $Energy \propto 0.5 \times Capacitive load \times Voltage^2$

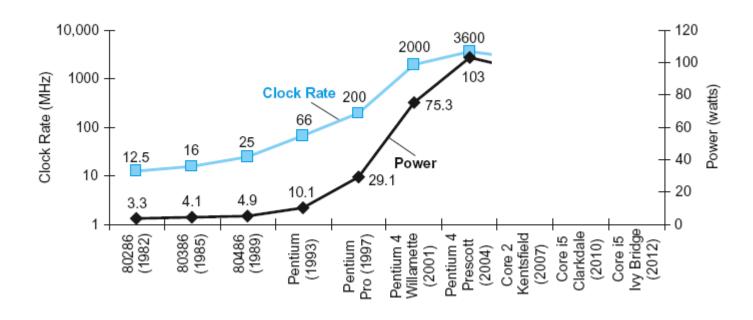
Power required per transistor

Depends on number of transitions, frequency of the cpu

 $Power \propto 0.5 \times Capacitive load \times Voltage^2 \times Frequency Switched$

- Capacitive load depends on
 - Number of transistors connected to output
 - Technology (defines capacitance of wires, and transistors)

Power Trends

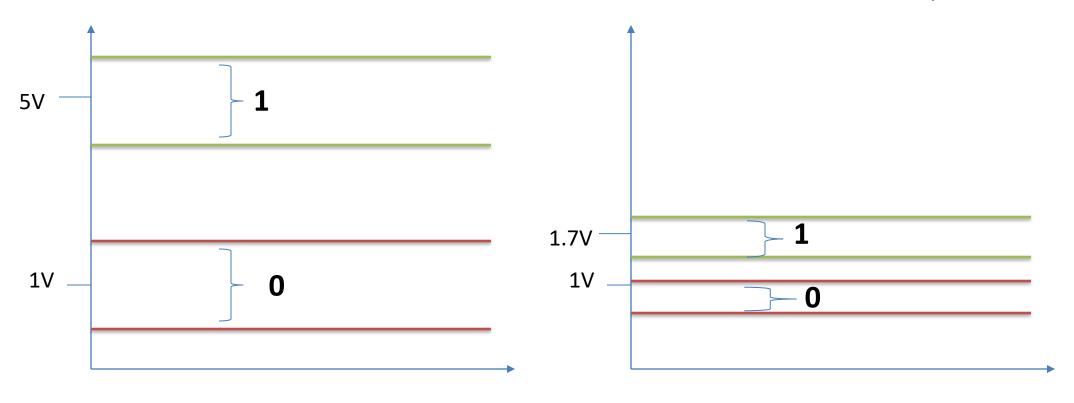


Power $\propto 0.5 \times \text{Capacitive load} \times \text{Voltage}^2 \times \text{Frequency Switched}$ ×30

×1000

Reducing Voltage

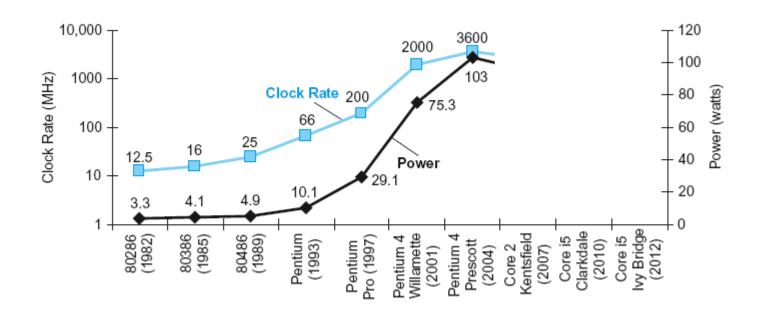
Reduces overall power consumptions

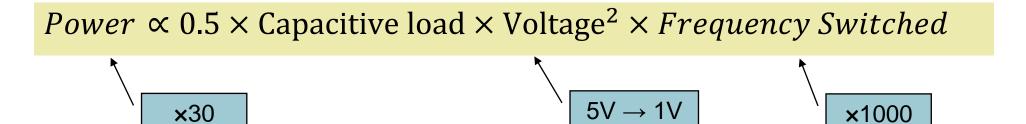


Improvements in technology allowed for lesser fluctuations and lowering the voltage

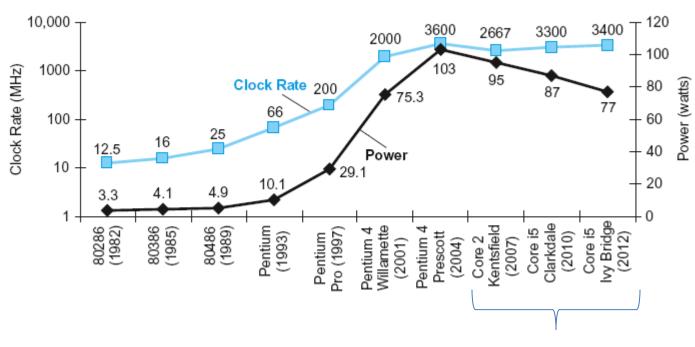
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Power Trends



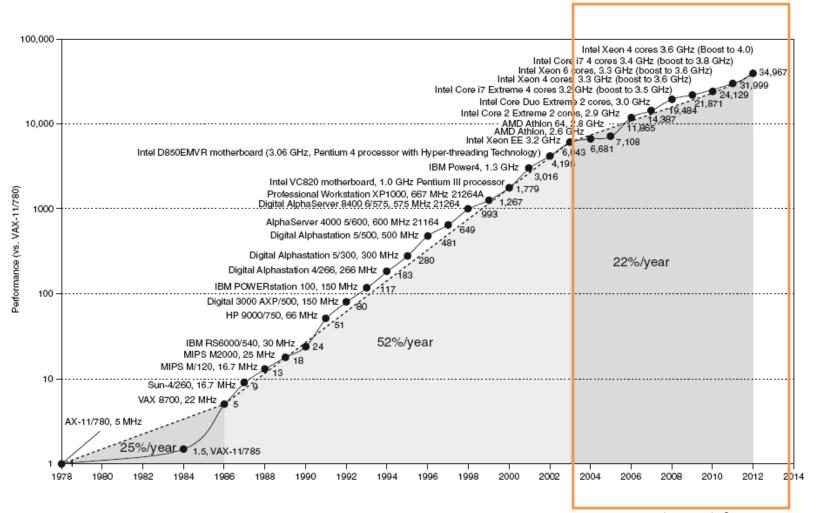


Power Wall



Multiple processors per chip

Response time



- Instead of reducing response time, focused on increasing throughput.
- 2006 and later computers shipped with multiple processes (per chip)

Reduced from 1.5 per year to 1.2 per year

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
 - Scheduling, load balancing, synchronization, communication (overhead)

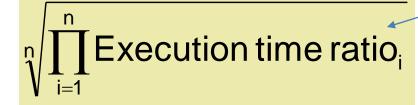
SPEC CPU Benchmark (Updated)

- Programs used to measure performance
 - Supposedly typical of actual workload
- Standard Performance Evaluation Corp (SPEC)
 - Develops benchmarks for CPU, I/O, Web, ...
- SPEC CPU2017
 - Elapsed time to execute a selection of programs
 - Negligible I/O, so focuses on CPU performance

CINT2006 for Intel Core i7 920

Description	Name	Instruction Count x 10 ⁹	CPI	Clock cycle time (seconds x 10 ⁻⁹)	Execution Time (seconds)	Reference Time (seconds)	SPECratio
Interpreted string processing	perl	2252	0.60	0.376	508	9770	19.2
Block-sorting compression	bzip2	2390	0.70	0.376	629	9650	15.4
GNU C compiler	gcc	794	1.20	0.376	358	8050	22.5
Combinatorial optimization	mcf	221	2.66	0.376	221	9120	41.2
Go game (AI)	go	1274	1.10	0.376	527	10490	19.9
Search gene sequence	hmmer	2616	0.60	0.376	590	9330	15.8
Chess game (AI)	sjeng	1948	0.80	0.376	586	12100	20.7
Quantum computer simulation	libquantum	659	0.44	0.376	109	20720	190.0
Video compression	h264avc	3793	0.50	0.376	713	22130	31.0
Discrete event simulation library	omnetpp	367	2.10	0.376	290	6250	21.5
Games/path finding	astar	1250	1.00	0.376	470	7020	14.9
XML parsing	xalancbmk	1045	0.70	0.376	275	6900	25.1
Geometric mean	-	_	-	_	-	-	25.7

Performance Summary



Pitfall: Amdahl's Law

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

- Example:
- Takes a total of 100s
- multiply accounts for 80s (of the 100s)
 - How much improvement in multiply performance to get 5x overall?

(5 times faster)
$$100/5 = 20 = \frac{80}{n} + 20$$
 Can't be done!

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

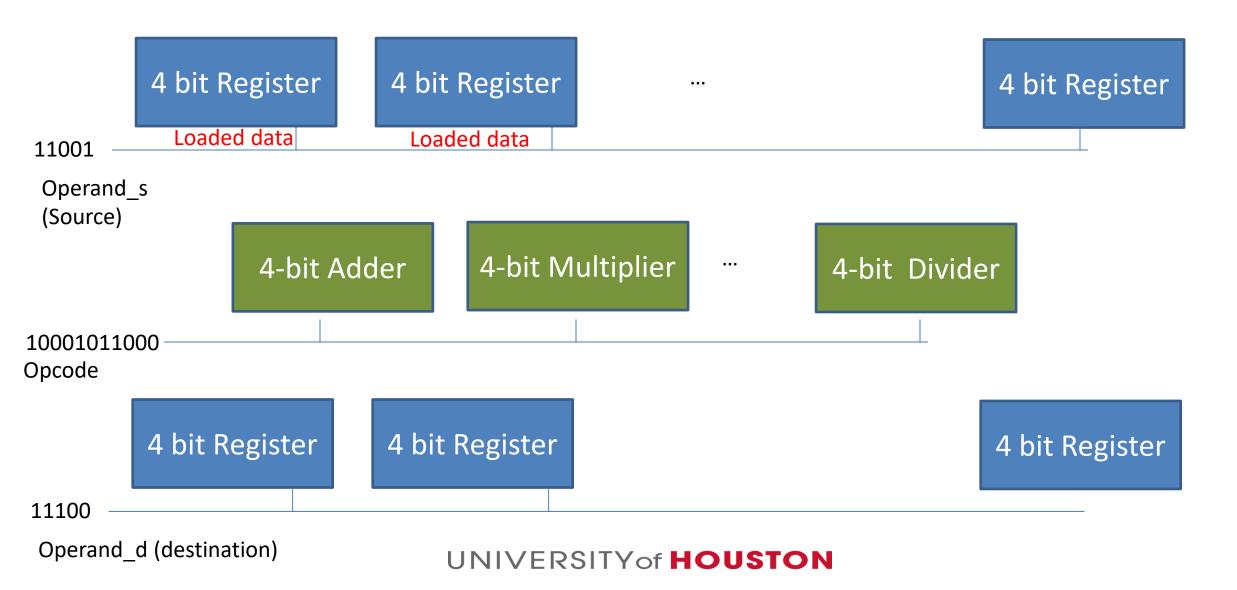
$$\begin{aligned} \text{MIPS} &= \frac{\text{Instruction count}}{\text{Execution time} \times 10^6} \\ &= \frac{\text{Instruction count}}{\frac{\text{Instruction count} \times \text{CPI}}{\text{Clock rate}}} = \frac{\text{Clock rate}}{\text{CPI} \times 10^6} \end{aligned}$$

CPI varies between programs on a given CPU

Chapter 2

Instructions: Language of the Computer

Instruction



Instruction Example

Opcode	Operand_s1	Operand_s2	Operand_d
10001011000	11001	11010	11100

Instruction: 10001011000 11001 11010 11100

Instruction are represented in binary form. Stored in memory.

The only language a computer understand.

Byte code, machine code, ...

Instruction Set

- Add
- Multiply
- Divide
- Load Data

Instruction Set

Instruction Set

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- Multiply
- Divide
- Load Data

Instruction Set

Computer 1

ISA1

Computer 2

ISA2

A manual to instruct he computer.

Many Popular Instruction Sets

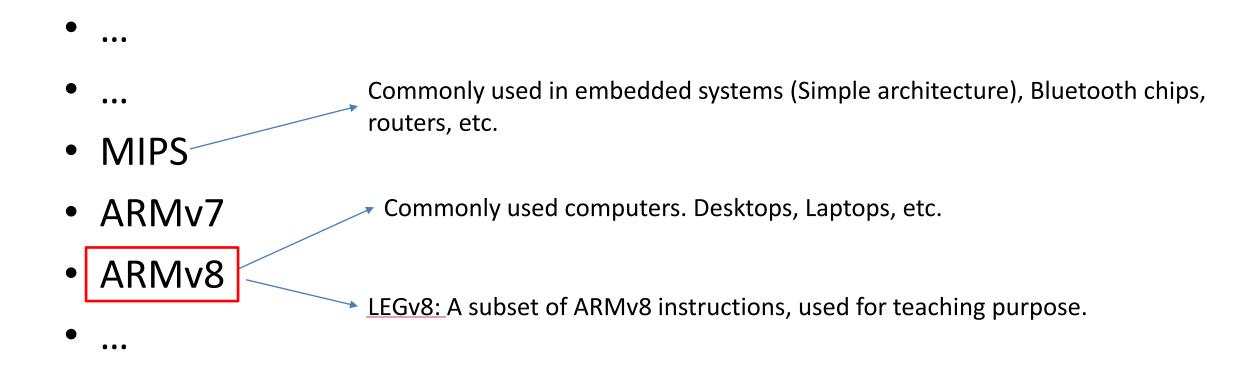
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- MIPS
- ARMv7
- ARMv8
- •

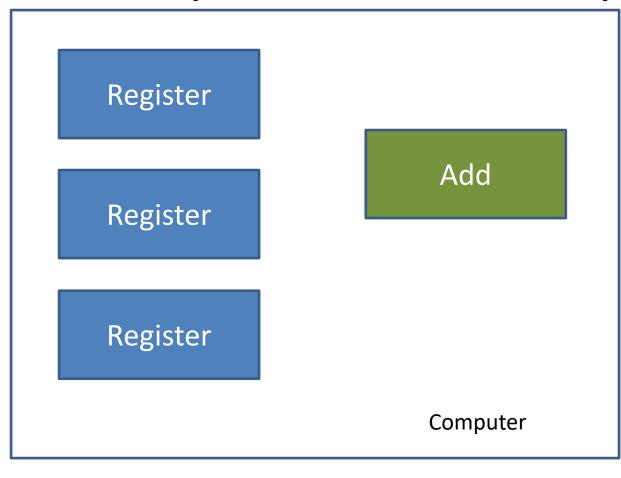
- 1. Intentionally designed with simplicity as a design principle. More on this...
- 2. Have similar instruction sets, the hardware has similar underlying technology.
- 3. Have a common goal, to find language to build hw and compilers to maximize performance.

Many Popular Instruction Sets

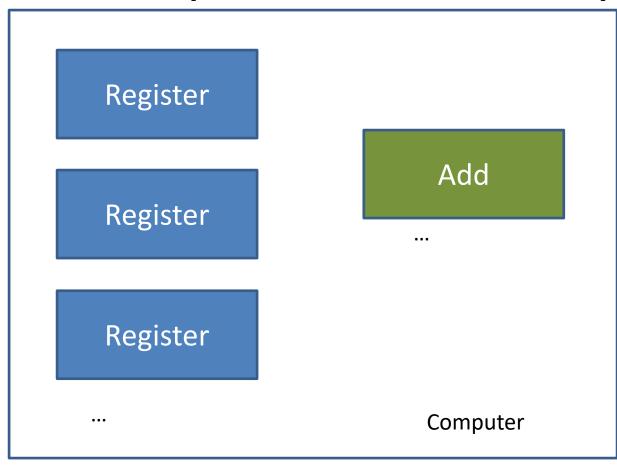


The ARMv8 Instruction Set

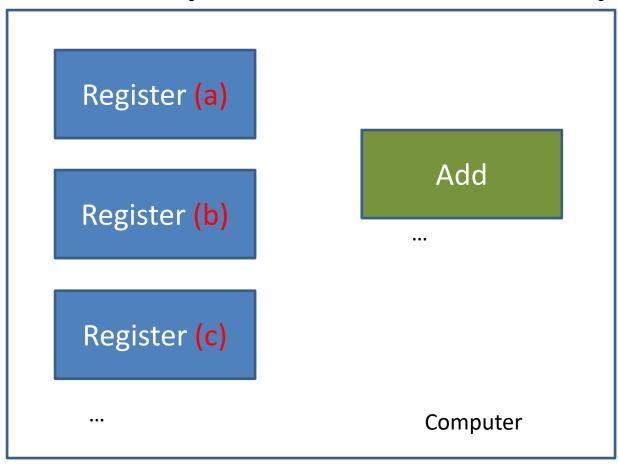
- A subset, called LEGv8, used as the example throughout the book
- Commercialized by ARM Holdings (<u>www.arm.com</u>)
- Large share of embedded core market
 - Applications in consumer electronics, network/storage equipment, cameras, printers, ...
- Typical of many modern ISAs
 - See ARM Reference Data tear-out card



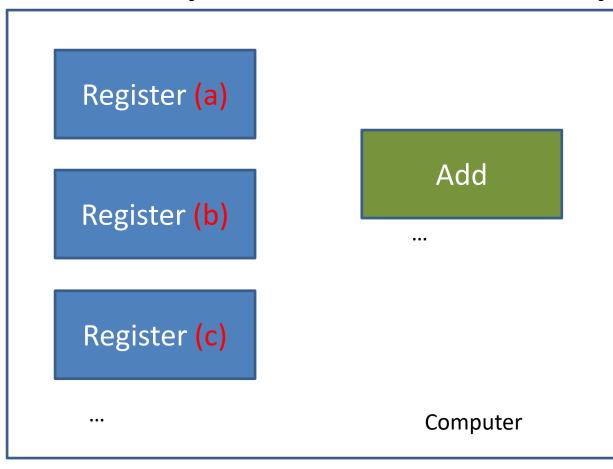
- 1. Has registers, and logic gate to perform operations. E.g. add
- 2. Add can only access data in the registers



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- 3. Operators (like Add), can only access data in the registers.

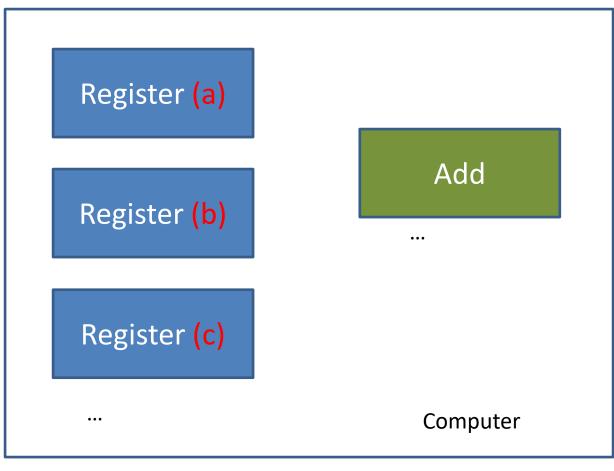


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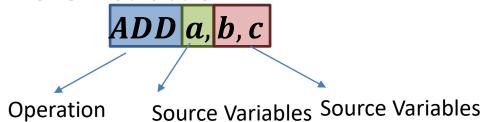
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- 1. To instruct computer to
 - 1. Add (operation)
 - **2.** Values in register b and c (Source Variables)
 - 3. Store the **result in a** (Destination Variable)

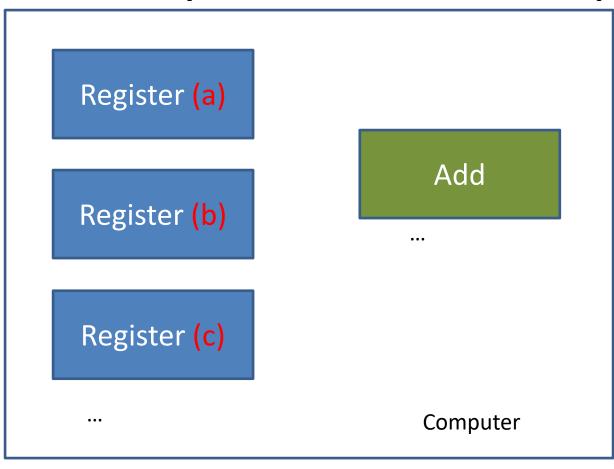
LEGv8 Instruction: ADD a, b, c



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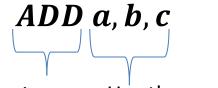
LEGv8 Instruction:





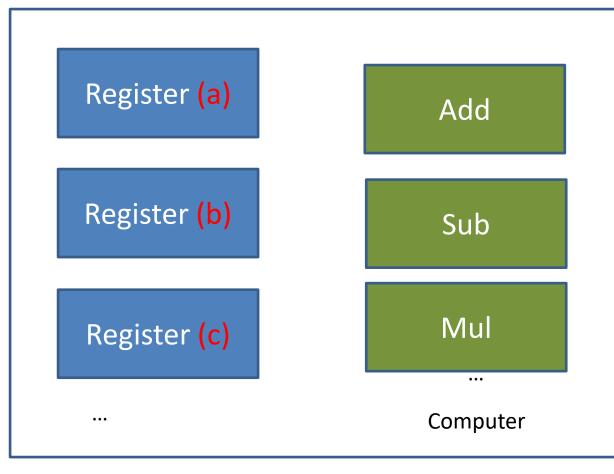
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LEGv8 Instruction:



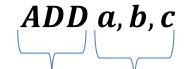
One operation Has th

Has three variables



- 1. To instruct computer to
 - **1.** Add (operation)
 - 2. Values in register b and c (Source Variables)
 - 3. Store the **result in a** (Destination Variable)

LEGv8 Instruction:



One operation

Has three variables

Design Principle 1: Simplicity favors regularity

All LEGv8 **Arithmetic Instructions** perform only one operation and always has exactly three variables

SUB a, b, c // subtract instrcution (a = b - c) MUL a, b, c // multiply instruction (a = b * c)

•
$$SUB(a,b,c)$$
 // subtract instrcution $(a=b-c)$

Design Principle 1: Simplicity favors regularity

- 1. Regularity makes implementation simpler
- 2. Simplicity enables higher performance at lower cost

- 1. Three Variables, is natural number operands for arithmetic operations.
- 2. Requiring exactly three variables, keeps the hardware simple.
 - 1. Hardware for a variable number of operands is more complicated.

$$a = b + c + d + e$$

$$a = b + c + d + e$$

$$ADD a, b, c //a = b + c$$

$$ADD a, a, d //a = a + d$$

$$ADD a, a, e //a = a + e$$

3 instruction to sum 4 variables

$$a = b + c$$
$$d = a - e$$

$$a = b + c$$
$$d = a - e$$

ADD
$$a, b, c$$
 // $a = b + c$
SUB d, a, e // $d = a - e$

$$f = (g+h) - (i+j)$$

$$f = (g+h) - (i+j)$$

ADD
$$t0$$
, g , h // $t0 = g + h$
ADD $t1$, i , j // $t1 = i + j$
SUB f , $t0$, $t1$ // $f = t0 - t1$

t0, t1: temporary variables created by the compiler

Example - 3

$$f = (g+h) - (i+j)$$

ADD
$$t0, g, h$$
 // $t0 = g + h$
ADD $t1, i, j$ // $t1 = i + j$
SUB $f, t0, t1$ // $f = t0 - t1$

Variables t0, t1, f, g, h, i, j

Stored in registers

Bits, Bytes, and Words

```
0 → 1 bit of data
```

1 > 1 bit of data

10011101 (8 bits) → 1 byte of data

10011101 10010001 10010101 ... 10010101 → n bytes is a **word**byte byte byte byte (8*n bits)

Bits, Bytes, Words, and Double Words

For our course!!!

```
0 → 1 bit of data
```

 $1 \rightarrow 1$ bit of data

10011101 (8 bits) → 1 byte of data

```
10011101 10010001 10010101 10010101 → 4 bytes is a word (32 bits)
```

```
10011101 10010001 10010101 ... 10010101 → 8 bytes is a Doubleword
1 byte 2 byte 3 byte 8 byte (64 bits)
```

Bits, Bytes, Words, and Double Words

For our course!!!

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0 → 1 bit of data
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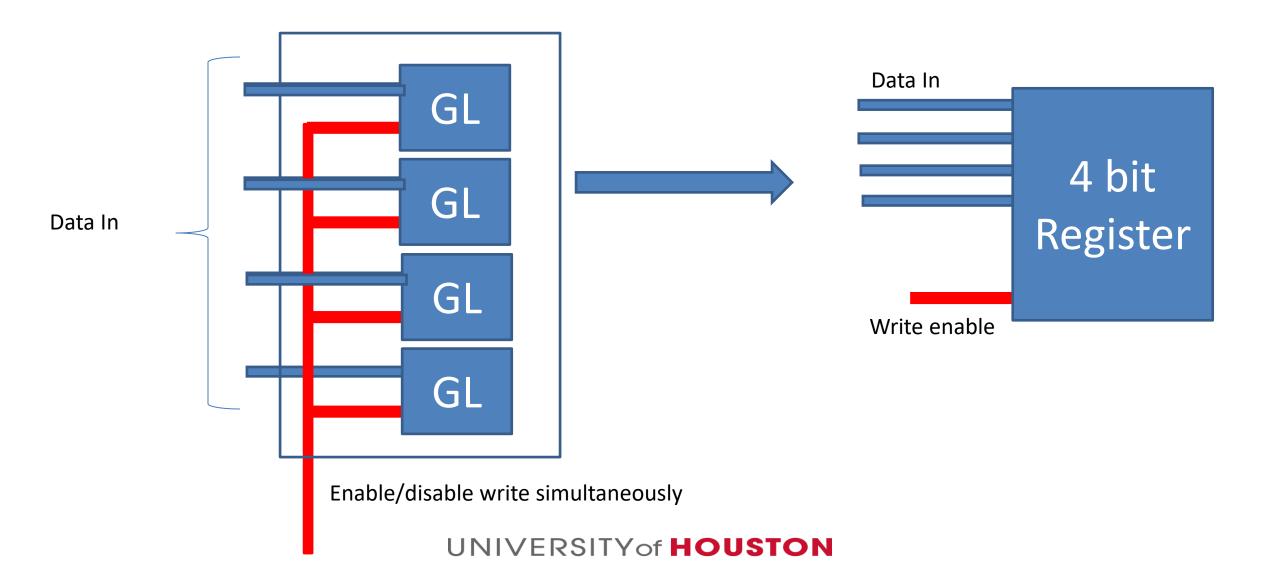
Overtime this became a basic unit of data.

Older system represented letters using bytes
As a results most memory hardware

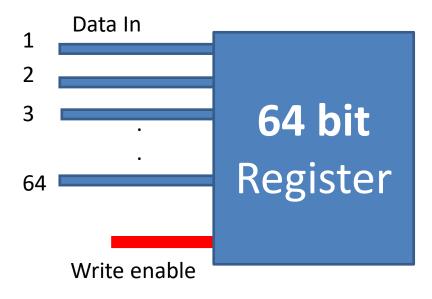
```
10011101 10010001 10010101 10010101 → 4 bytes is a word
1 byte 2 byte 3 byte 4 byte (32 bits)
```

```
10011101 10010001 10010101 ... 10010101 → 8 bytes is a Doubleword 1 byte 2 byte 3 byte 7 byte (64 bits)
```

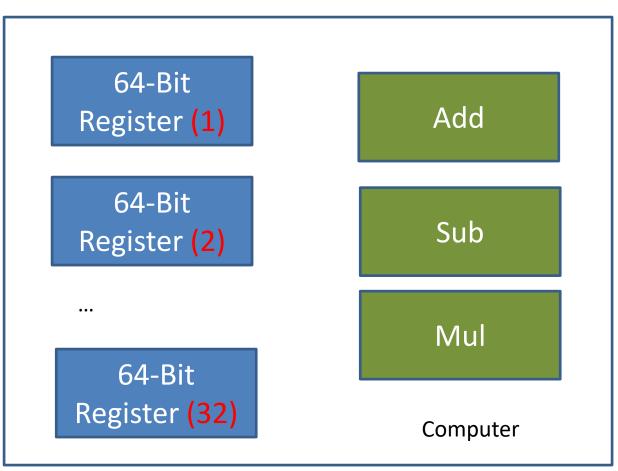
Register (4 bit) – A group of latches



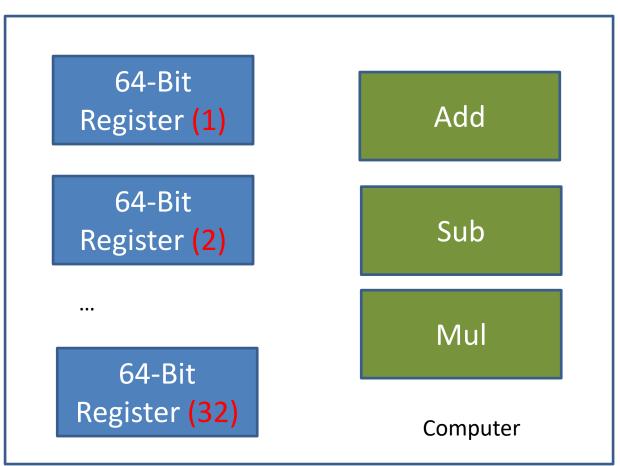
- LEGv8 Register size 64 Bits
 - Double words



- LEGv8 Register size 64 Bits
- Total of 32 registers (64-bit)



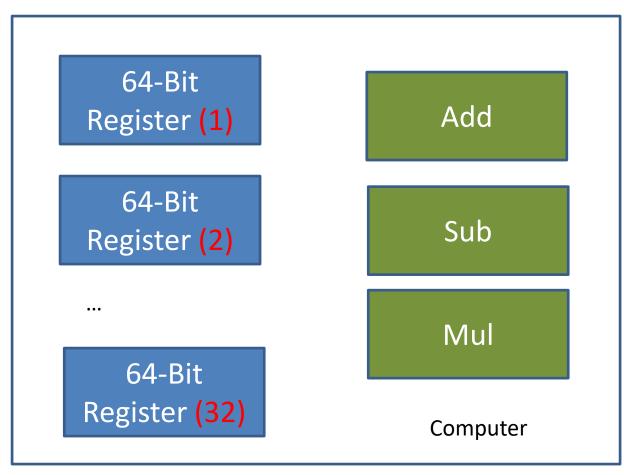
- LEGv8 Register size 64 Bits
- Total of **32 registers** (64-bit) Why only 32??



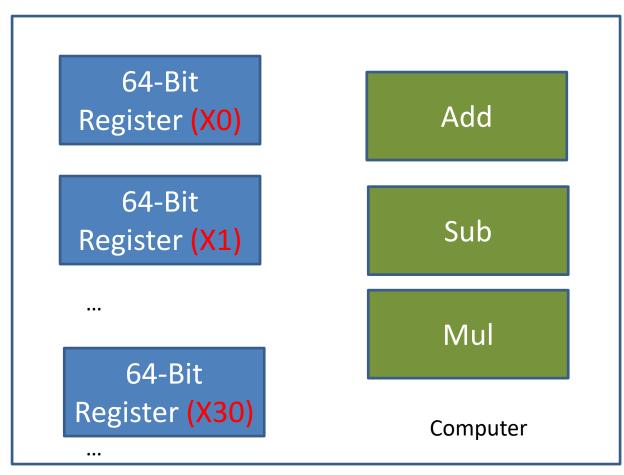
- LEGv8 Register size 64 Bits
- Total of 32 registers (64-bit)
 Why only 32??

Design Principle 2: Smaller is faster

- Having more registers may increase the clock cycle time (longer for electronic signals to travel)
- Size of instructions (number of bits) is predefined and same for all instructions.
 More register requires more bits to specify registers.
 - 1. 32 registers require 5 bits max
 - 2. 64 registers may require 6 bits.



- LEGv8 Register size 64 Bits
- Total of 32 registers (64-bit)
- Register name convention use
 X as prefix.
- Registers are names
 - -X0
 - -X1
 - **—** ...
 - X30
 - XZR(X31) (Exception, more on this later...!)



Example – 3 (Again)

$$f = (g + h) - (i + j)$$

 $f, ..., j$ store in registers X19, X20, ..., X23
Two temporary registers are availabe X9 & X10

Example – 3 (Again)

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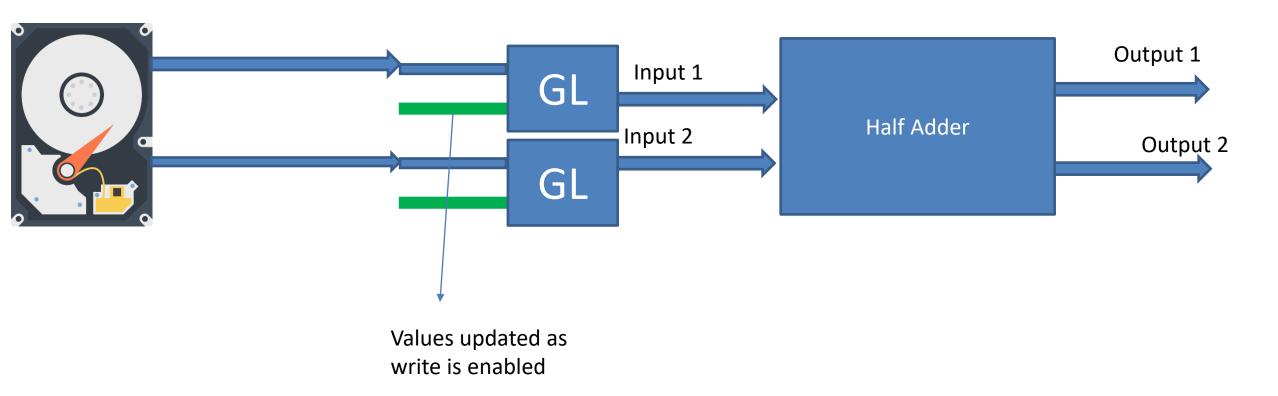
 $f, ..., j$ store in registers X19, X20, ..., X23
Two temporary registers are availabe X9 & X10

$$ADD X9, X20, X21 // X9 = g + h$$

 $ADD X10, X22, X23 // X10 = i + j$
 $SUB X19, X9, X10 // f = X9 - X10$

Review: Half-Adder with manual input

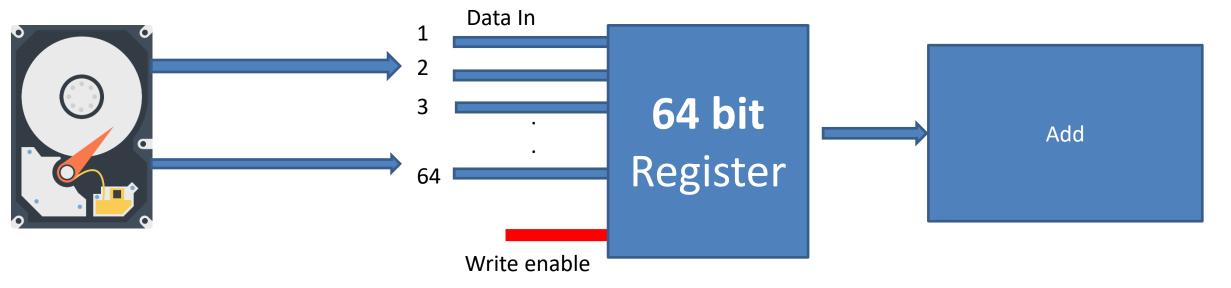
Stored in memory (E.g. HDD)



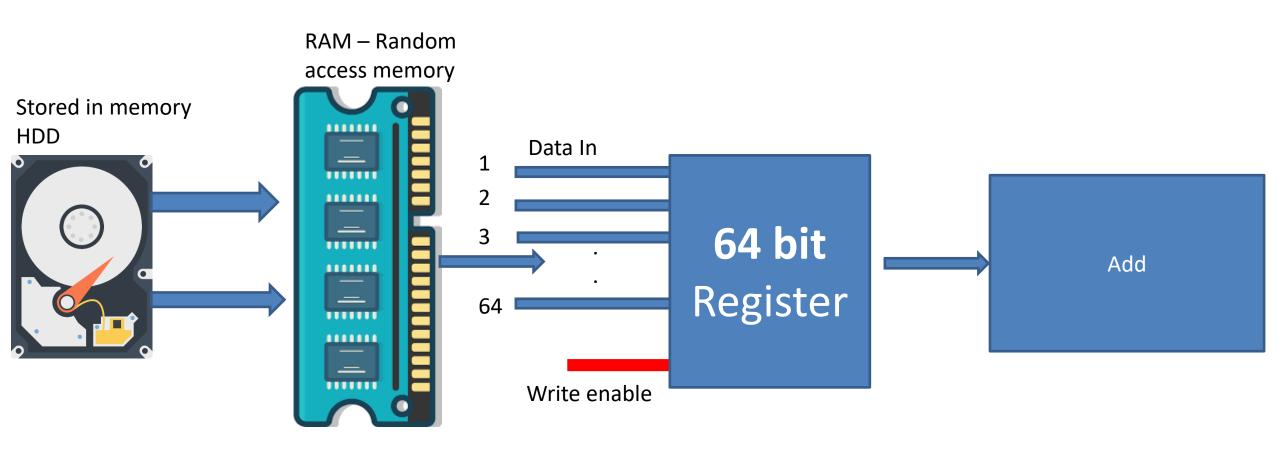
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Review: Half-Adder with manual input

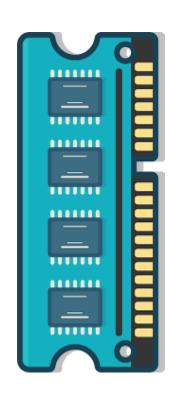
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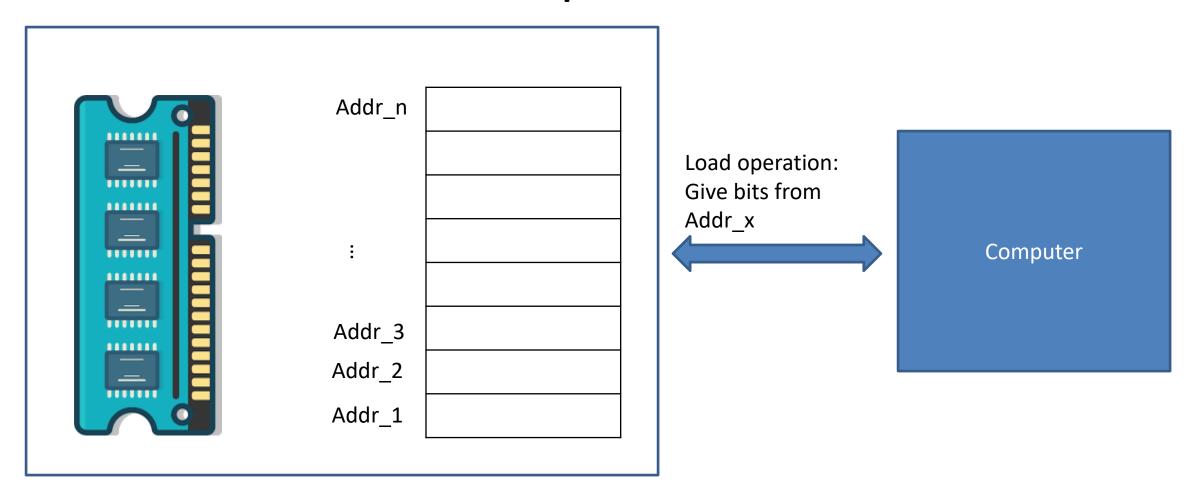


Ram Address

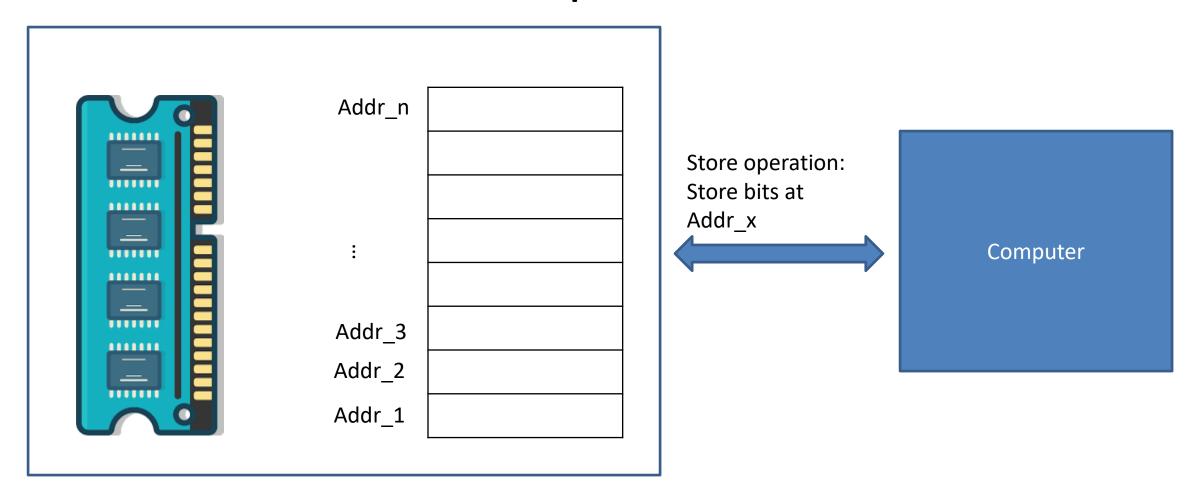


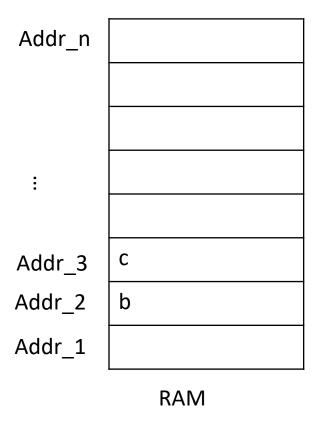
Addr_n	
ŧ	
Addr_3	
Addr_2	
Addr_1	

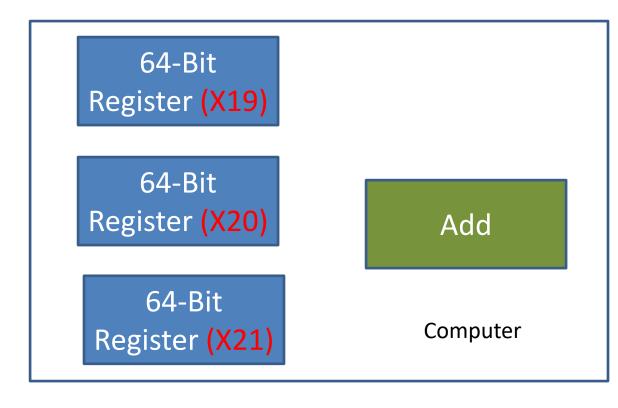
Load Operation



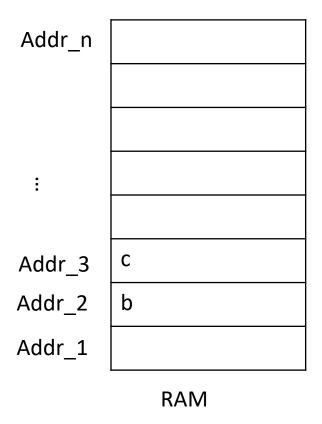
Store Operation

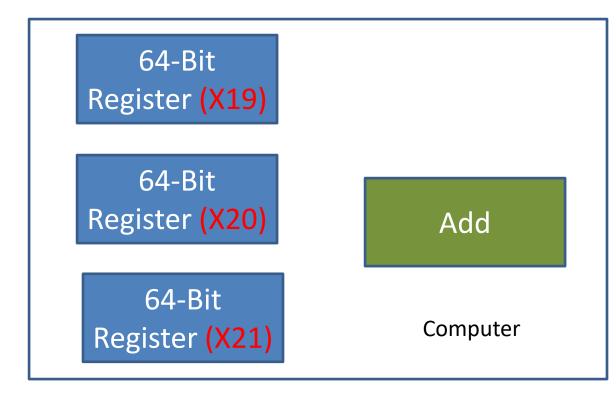






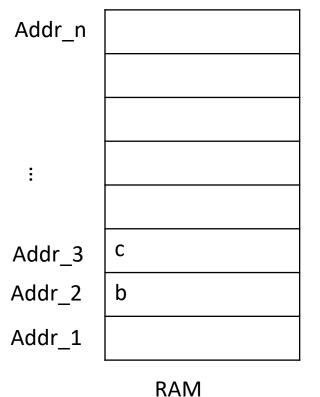
a = b + c

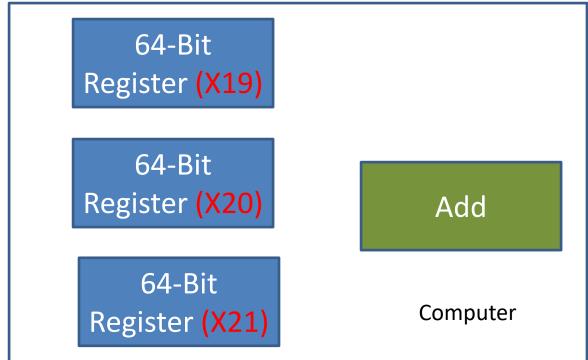




a = b + c

Load Addr_3 (c) to register X19 Load Addr_2 (b) to register X20 ADD X21, X19, X20



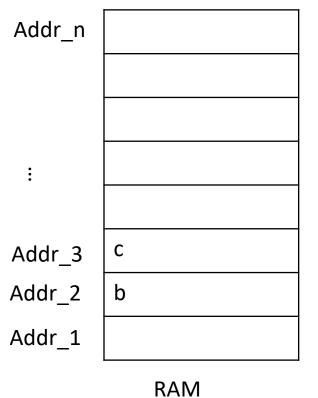


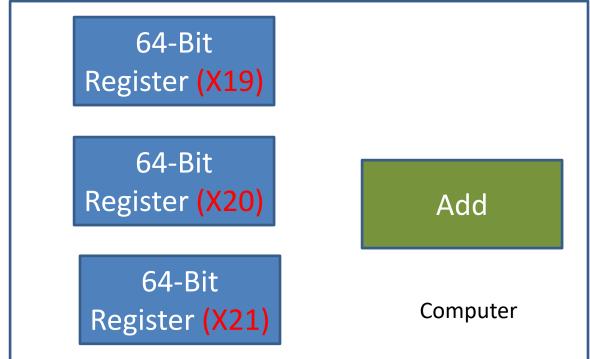
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For Load:

Need to specify the ram memory address, and the register to load the value into.





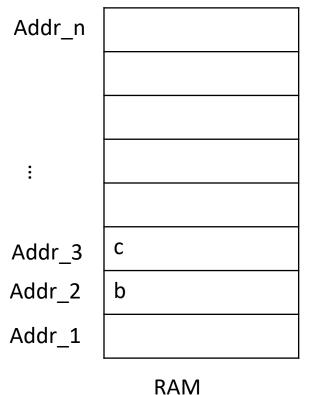
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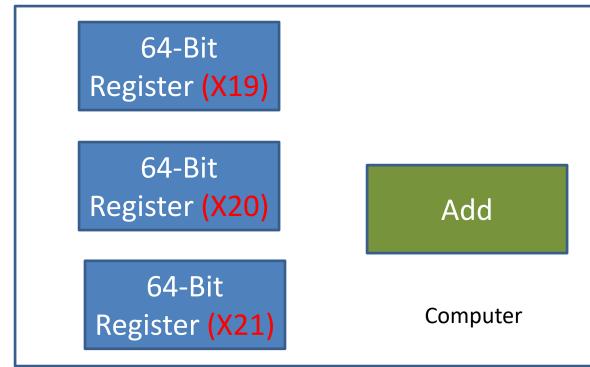
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For Load:

Need to specify the ram memory address, and the register to load the value into.

memory address-> also in bits, and needs to be stored in another register.

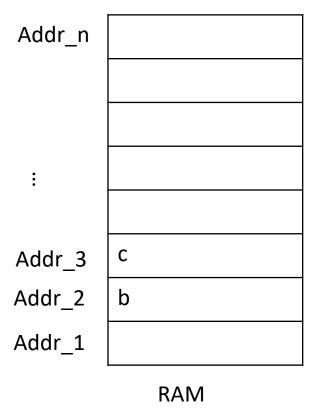


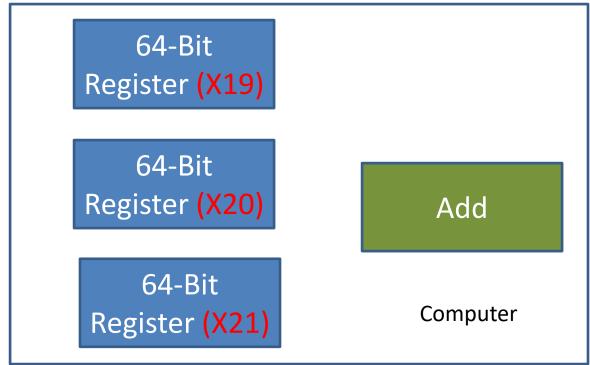


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Lets assume memory address is stored in X22





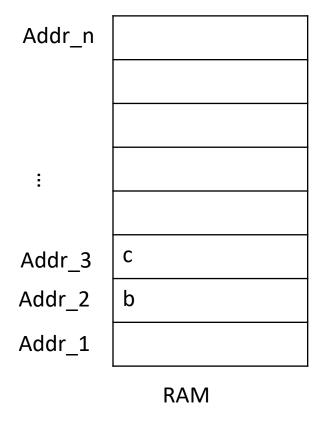
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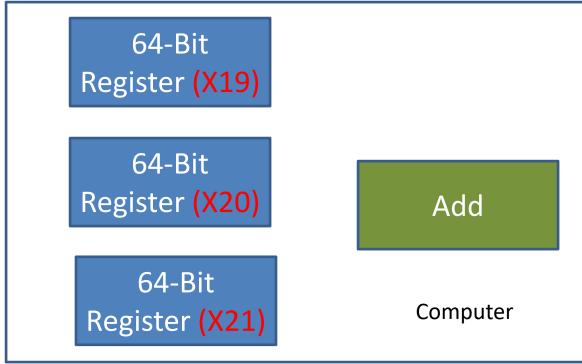
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Lets assume memory address is stored in X22

The **LEGv8 instruction** to: Load Addr_2 (c) to register X19

*LDUR X*19, [*X*22, #*const*]





$$a = b + c$$

Load Addr_3 (c) to register X19 Load Addr_2 (b) to register X20 ADD X21, X19, X20

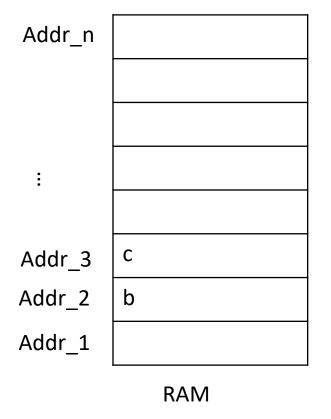
Lets assume memory address is stored in X22

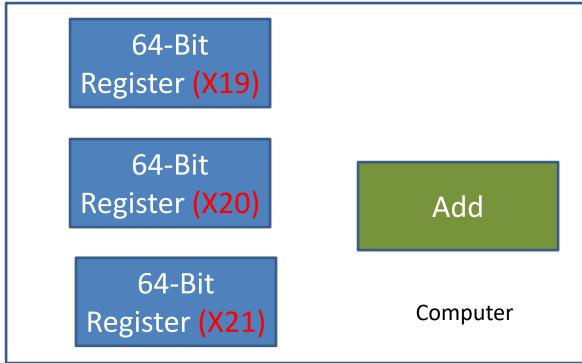
The **LEGv8 instruction** to: Load Addr_2 (a) to register X19

 $LDUR\ X19, [X22, \#const]$

Destination register

Ram address





$$a = b + c$$

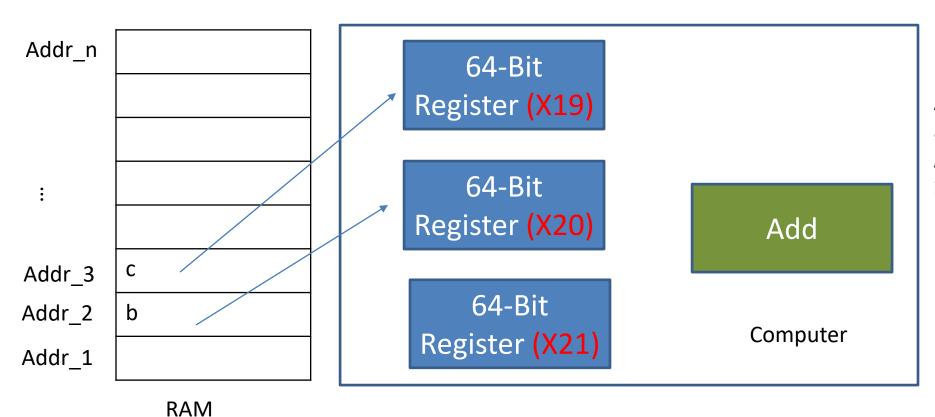
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Lets assume memory address Addr_2 is stored in X22

The **LEGv8 instruction** to: Load Addr_2 (a) to register X19

*LDUR X*19, [*X*22, #*const*]

Constant, more on this later! Lets use **0** for now

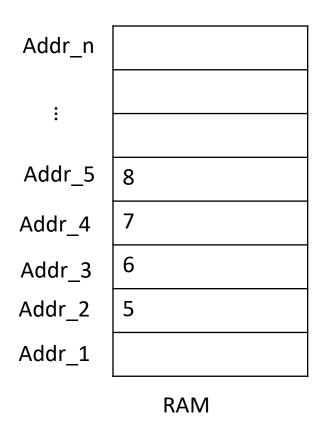


$$a = b + c$$

Assuming Addr_3 is store in X22 and Addr_2 is store in X23 Assembly code (LEGv8 instruction)

LDUR X19, [X22, #**0**] LDUR X20, [X23, #**0**] ADD X21, X19, X20

Arrays in RAM



$$int \ a[4] = \{5, 6, 7, 8\};$$

Arrays are stored in contiguous memory
 Let a start from Addr 2

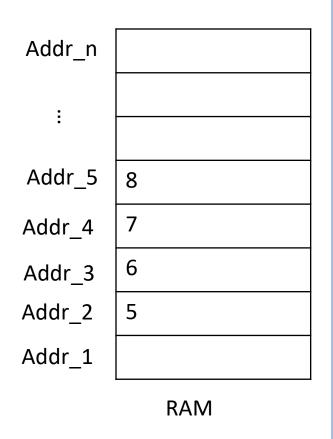
a[0] → Addr_2

 $a[1] \rightarrow Addr_3$

 $a[2] \rightarrow Addr_4$

 $a[3] \rightarrow Addr_5$

Arrays in RAM



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Arrays are stored in contiguous memory
 Let a start from Addr_2

 $a[0] \rightarrow Addr_2$

 $a[1] \rightarrow Addr_3$

 $a[2] \rightarrow Addr 4$

a[3] **→**Addr_5

To load a[1], we would have to specify where a starts in the memory, the offset (which is 1) and the destination register (d_register) to load it to.

Instruction

Load d_register, [addr_2, offset(1)]

A constant is needed to specify the offset to load arrays in the LDUR instruction

Bits, Bytes, Words, and Double Words

For our course!!!

```
0 → 1 bit of data
```

 $1 \rightarrow 1$ bit of data

```
10011101 (8 bits) → 1 byte of data
```

Overtime this became a **basic unit of data**.

Older system represented letters using bytes
As a results most memory hardware

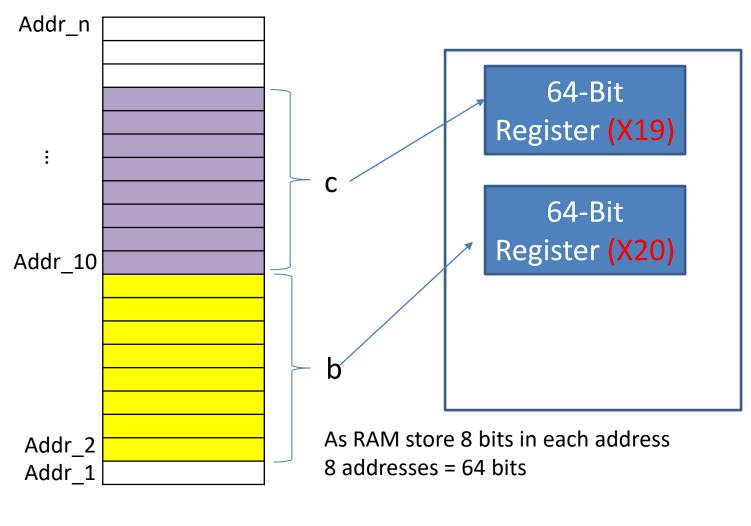
```
10011101 10010001 10010101 10010101 → 4 bytes is a word
1 byte 2 byte 3 byte 4 byte (32 bits)
```

```
10011101 10010001 10010101 ... 10010101 → 8 bytes is a Doubleword
1 byte 2 byte 3 byte 7 byte (64 bits)
```

RAMS and Byte Addresses

Addr_n	
÷	
:	
Addr_5	
Addr_4	
Addr_3	10011011
Addr_2	10110011
Addr_1	10010011
	RAM

- 1. Byte is considered a basic unit of data.
- 2. Most memory hardware store 1 byte of data at each address.
- 3. Each address is referred to as a **byte address**, as 8 bits are stores.



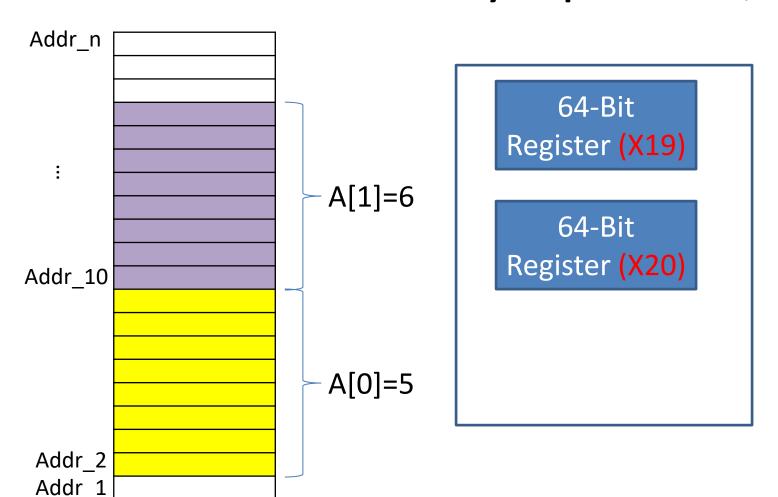
LEGv8 Registers are 64 bit. Require 8 cells in ram to store value

Assuming Addr_10 is store in X22 and Addr_2 is store in X23
Assembly code (LEGv8 instruction)

LDUR X19, [X22, #0]

LDUR X20, [X23, #0]

Designed to automatically load 8 contiguous cells from ram into register



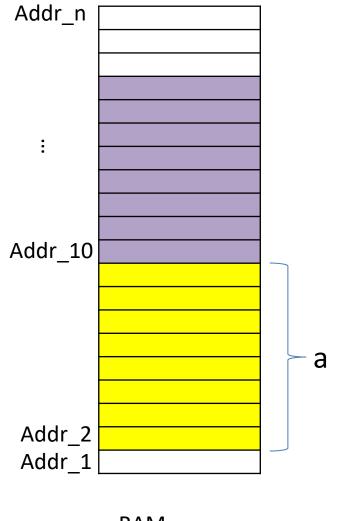
$$int \ a[4] = \{5, 6, 7, 8\};$$

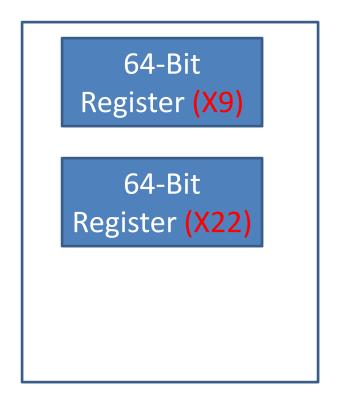
Arrays are store in contiguous memory.

So

5 is stored using 64 bits 6 is stored using 64 bits

Let start address be Addr_2
Let Addr_2 be stored in register X22
What is the LEGv8 instruction to
load a[0] into register X19?

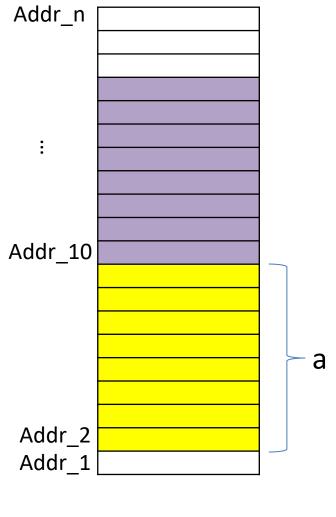


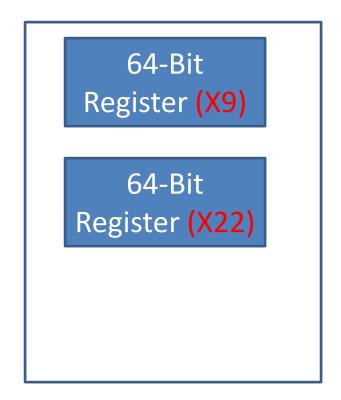


int
$$a[4] = \{5, 6, 7, 8\};$$

Let start address be Addr_2
Let Addr_2 be stored in register X22
What is the LEGv8 instruction to
load a[0] into register X9?

LDUR X9, [X22, #0]



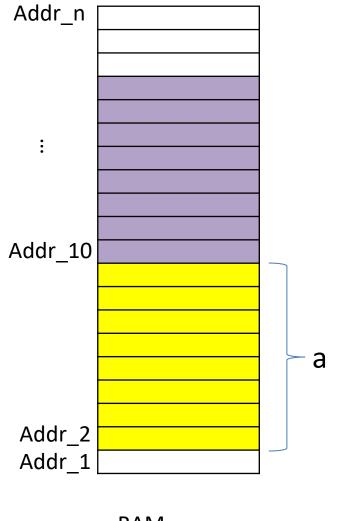


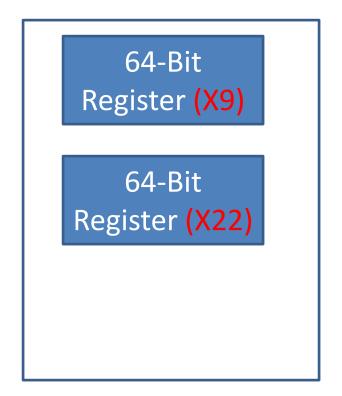
int
$$a[4] = \{5, 6, 7, 8\};$$

Let start address be Addr_2
Let Addr_2 be stored in register X22
What is the LEGv8 instruction to
load a[0] into register X9?

LDUR X9, [X22, #0]

What is the LEGv8 instruction to load a[1] into register X9?





$$int \ a[4] = \{5, 6, 7, 8\};$$

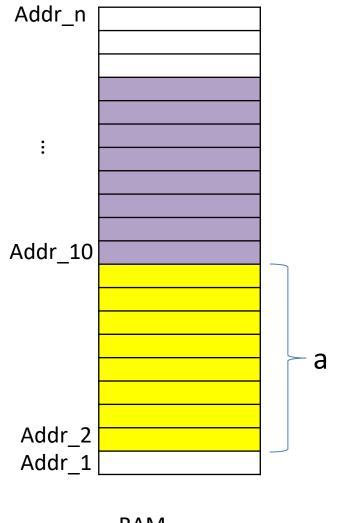
Let start address be Addr_2
Let Addr_2 be stored in register X22
What is the LEGv8 instruction to
load a[0] into register X9?

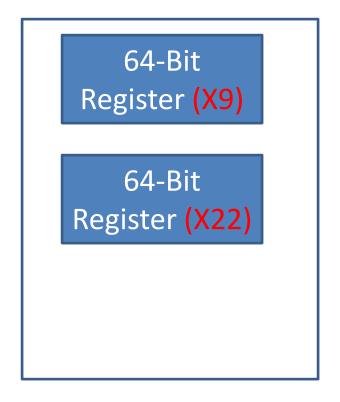
LDUR X9, [X22, #0]

What is the LEGv8 instruction to load a[1] into register X9?

LDUR X9, [X22, #8]

Memory Operand, LOAD





$$int \ a[4] = \{5, 6, 7, 8\};$$

Let start address be Addr_2
Let Addr_2 be stored in register X22
What is the LEGv8 instruction to
load a[0] into register X9?

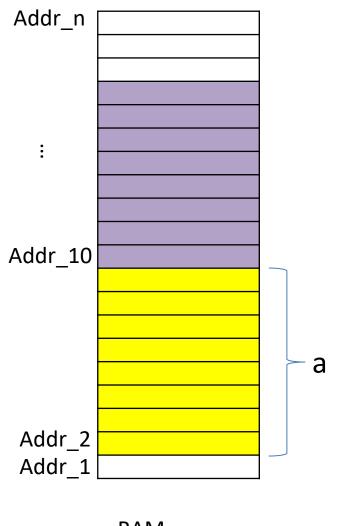
LDUR X9, [X22, #0]

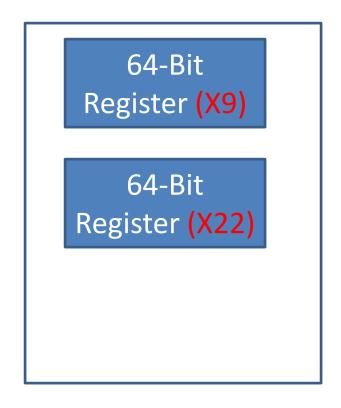
What is the LEGv8 instruction to load a[1] into register X9?

LDUR X9, [X22, #8]

What is the LEGv8 instruction to load a[4] into register X9?

Memory Operand, LOAD





$$int \ a[4] = \{5, 6, 7, 8\};$$

Let start address be Addr_2
Let Addr_2 be stored in register X22
What is the LEGv8 instruction to
load a[0] into register X9?

LDUR X9, [X22, #0]

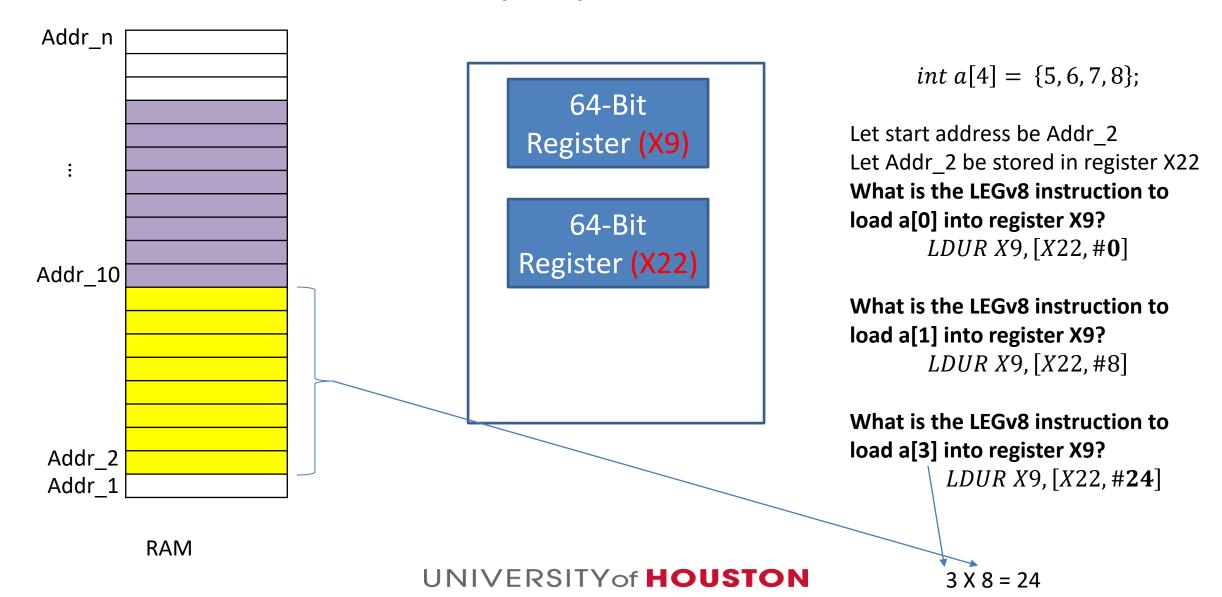
What is the LEGv8 instruction to load a[1] into register X9?

LDUR X9, [X22, #8]

What is the LEGv8 instruction to load a[3] into register X9?

LDUR X9, [X22, #24]

Memory Operand, LOAD



• C code:

```
A[12] = h + A[8];
```

- h in X21, base address of A (i.e. A[0]) in X22
- LEGv8 code:

• C code:

```
A[12] = h + A[8];
```

- h in X21, base address of A (i.e. A[0]) in X22
- LEGv8 code:

LDUR X9, [X22, #64]

• C code:

```
A[12] = h + A[8];
- h in X21, base address of A (i.e. A[0]) in X22
```

• LEGv8 code:

```
LDUR X9, [X22,#64]
ADD X9, X21, X9
```

• C code:

```
A[12] = h + A[8];
```

- h in X21, base address of A (i.e. A[0]) in X22
- LEGv8 code:

```
LDUR X9, [X22, #64]
```

ADD
$$X9, X21, X9$$

Chapter 1 – Performance review

Our favorite program runs in 10 seconds on computer A, which has a 2 GHz clock. We are trying to help a computer designer build a computer, B, which will run this program in 6 seconds. The designer has determined that a substantial increase in the clock rate is possible, but 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. What clock rate should we tell the designer to target?

Variables

Clock cycle

Clock cycle count

Clock cycle time

Clock period

Clock rate

Clock cycles per instruction

Instruction count

Execution Time

Variables

Clock cycle

Clock cycle count

Clock cycle time

Clock period

Clock rate

Clock cycles per instruction

Instruction count

Execution Time

Too many clocks!!!!



Variables

Clock cycle

Clock cycle count

Clock cycle time

Clock period

Clock rate

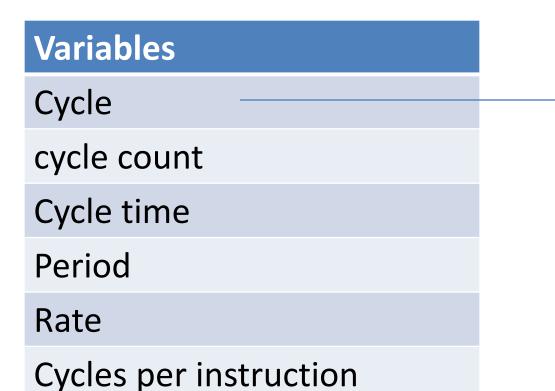
Clock cycles per instruction

Instruction count

Execution Time

Too many clocks!!!!

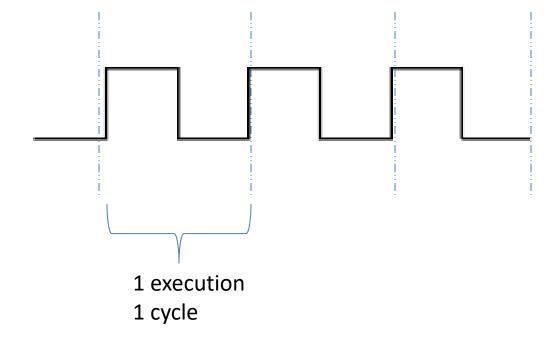


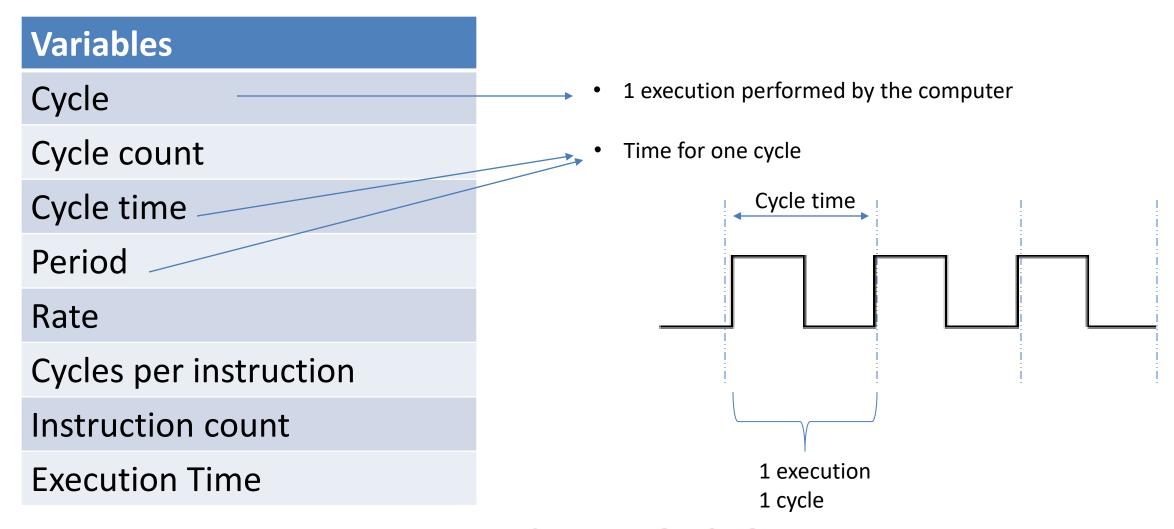


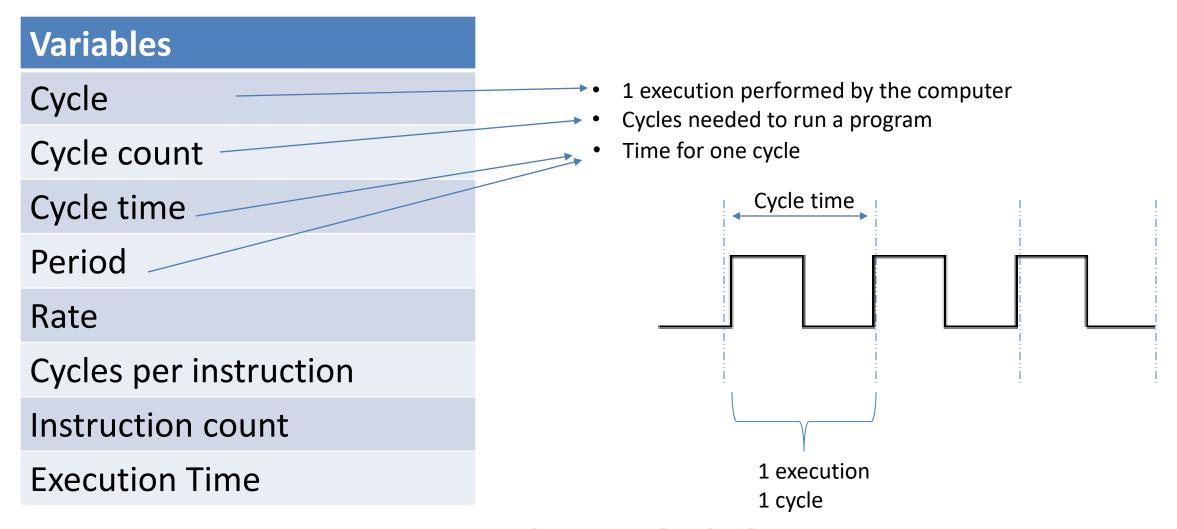
Instruction count

Execution Time

• 1 execution performed by the computer







Performance

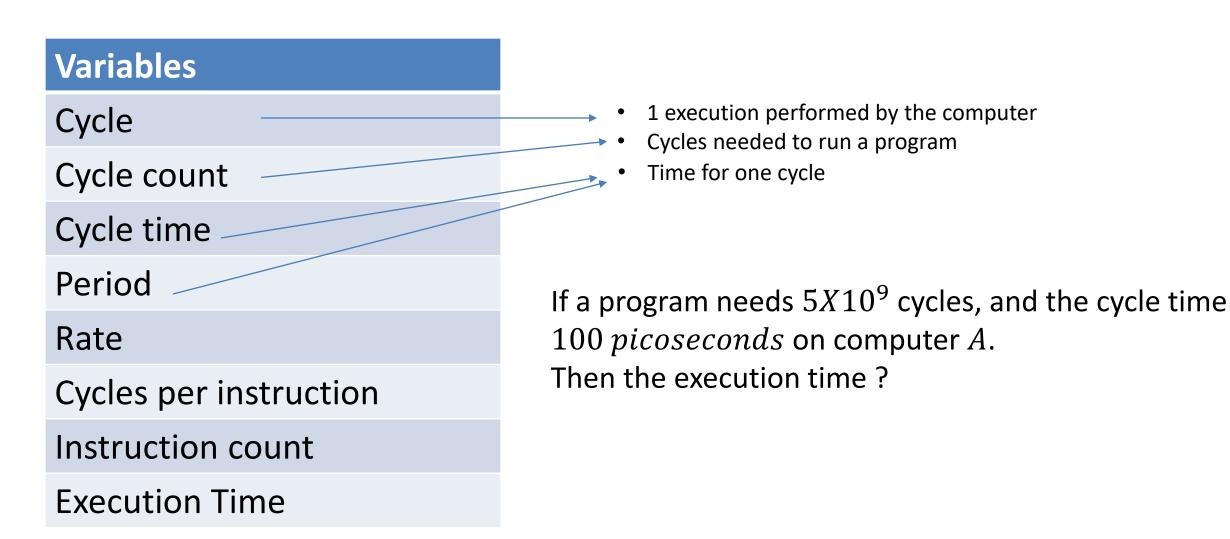
- To define performance of a computer A
- Run a program and compute the time to complete (execution time)
- Less the time better is the performance

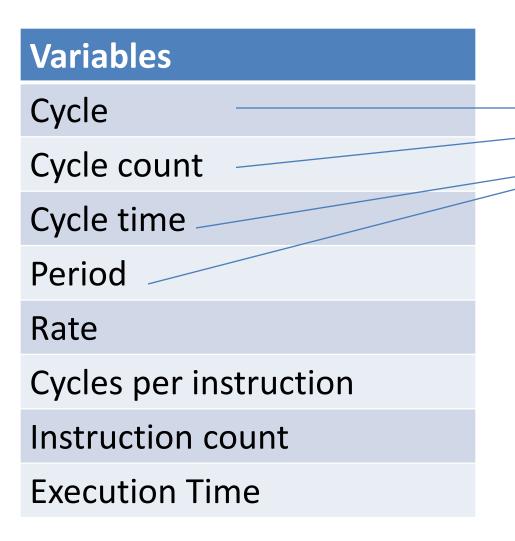
$$performance_A \propto \frac{1}{(execution \ time)}$$

Performance

- To define performance of a computer A
- Run a program and compute the time to complete (execution time)
- Less the time better is the performance

```
performance_{A} \propto \frac{1}{(execution time)}
```

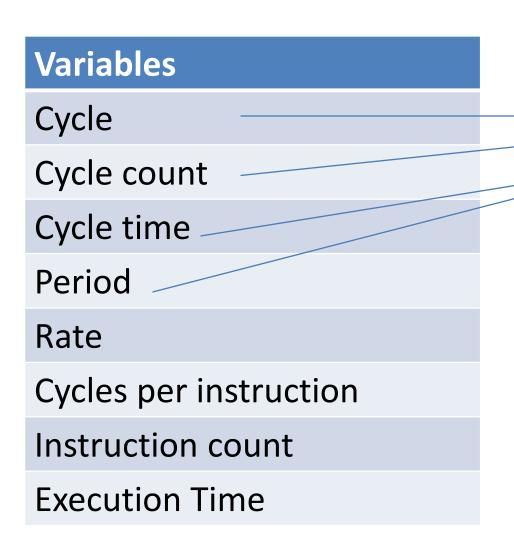




- 1 execution performed by the computer
- Cycles needed to run a program
- Time for one cycle

If a program needs $5X10^9$ cycles, and the cycle time $100 \ picoseconds$ on computer A.

Then the execution time?



- 1 execution performed by the computer
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If a program needs $5X10^9$ cycles, and the cycle time $100 \ picoseconds$ on computer A.

Then the execution time?

Execution time = cycle_count X cycle_time

Variables

Cycle

Cycle count

Cycle time

Period

Rate

Cycles per instruction

Instruction count

Execution Time

- 1 execution performed by the computer
- Cycles needed to run a program
- Time for one cycle

If a program needs $5X10^9$ cycles, and the cycle time $100 \ picoseconds$ on computer A.

Then the execution time?

Execution time =
$$cycle_count \ X \ cycle_time$$

= $(5X10^9)X (100 \ X \ 10^{-12}s)$
= $50s$

Variables	Units (usual)
Cycle	
Cycle count	cycles
Cycle time	Pico/nano seconds
Period	Pico/nano seconds
Rate	
Cycles per instruction	
Instruction count	
Execution Time	Seconds/minutes

If a program needs $5X10^9$ cycles, and the cycle time $100 \ picoseconds$ on computer A.

Then the execution time?

Execution time

=
$$cycle_count X cycle_time$$

= $(5X10^9)X (100 X 10^{-12}s)$
= $50s$



Variables	Units (usual)
Cycle	
Cycle count	cycles
Cycle time	Pico/nano seconds
Period	Pico/nano seconds
Rate	
Cycles per instruction	
Instruction count	
Execution Time	Seconds/minutes

Execution time = cycle_count X cycle_time

Variables	Units (usual)
Cycle	
Cycle count	cycles
Cycle time	Pico/nano seconds
Period	Pico/nano seconds
Rate	
Cycles per instruction	
Instruction count	
Execution Time	Seconds/minutes

Execution time = cycle_countX cycle_time

Instead of cycle time, you can be given rate.

Rate = number of cycles in a second

Variables	Units (usual)
Cycle	
Cycle count	cycles
Cycle time	Pico/nano seconds
Period	Pico/nano seconds
Rate	Hz/MHz/GHz
Cycles per instruction	
Instruction count	
Execution Time	Seconds/minutes

Execution time = cycle_count X cycle_time

Instead of cycle time, you can be given rate.

Rate = number of cycles in a second

$$Rate = \frac{1}{(cycle_time)}$$

If rate (clock rate) is 4 GHz, what is the cycle time?

Variables	Units (usual)
Cycle	
Cycle count	cycles
Cycle time	Pico/nano seconds
Period	Pico/nano seconds
Rate	Hz/MHz/GHz
Cycles per instruction	
Instruction count	
Execution Time	Seconds/minutes

 $Execution\ time = cycle_count\ X\ cycle_time$ Instead of cycle time, you can be given rate.

$$Rate = \frac{1}{(cycle_time)}$$

If rate (clock rate) is 4 GHz, what is the cycle time?

$$cycle_time = \frac{1}{(rate)} = \frac{1}{4 * 10^9 Hz}$$
$$= \frac{1}{4 * 10^9} s = \frac{1000}{4X10^{12}} s = \frac{1000}{4} X10^{-12} s$$
$$= 250 \ picoseconds$$

Now we have cycle time, we can compute execution time

Variables	Units (usual)
Cycle	
Cycle count	cycles
Cycle time	Pico/nano seconds
Period	Pico/nano seconds
Rate	Hz/MHz/GHz
Cycles per instruction	cycles
Instruction count	instruction
Execution Time	Seconds/minutes

Execution time = cycle_count X cycle_time
Instead of cycle count, you can be given,
instruction count and cycles per instruction(CPI)
CPI = cycle count for one instruction
Cycle count for 100 instructions= 100 CPI

cycle_count = instruction_count X CPI

Our favorite program runs in 10 seconds on computer A, which has a 2 GHz clock.

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Our favorite program runs in 10 seconds on computer A, which has a 2 GHz clock.

Our favorite program runs in 10 seconds on computer A, which has a 2 GHz clock.

Execution time

Our favorite program runs in 10 seconds on computer A, which has a 2 GHz clock.

Execution time

$$Execution \ time = cycle_count \ X \ cycle_time$$

$$\frac{Execution \ time}{cycle_time} = cycle_count$$

$$cycle_time = \frac{1}{Rate} = \frac{1}{2X10^9} s = 500X10^{-12} s = 500ps$$

$$cycle_count = \frac{10}{500X10^{-12}} = \frac{10000}{500X10^{-9}} = 20X10^9 = 20 \ billion \ cycles$$

 $cycle_count = 20X10^9 cycles$

 $cycle_count = 20X10^9 \ cycles$

Design a computer B $Execution \ time = 6s$ $cycle_count = 1.2X(20X10^9)cycles = 24X10^9cycles$

 $cycle_count = 20X10^9 cycles$

Design a computer B

$$Execution \ time = 6s$$

$$cycle_{count} = 1.2X(20X10^{9})cycles = 24X10^{9} \ cycles$$

$$Rate = ?$$

Execution time = cycle_count X cycle_time $cycle_time = \frac{6}{24X10^9} = \frac{1}{4X10^9} s$

 $cycle_count = 20X10^9 cycles$

Design a computer B

$$Execution \ time = 6s$$

$$cycle_{count} = 1.2X(20X10^{9})cycles = 24X10^{9} \ cycles$$

$$Rate = ?$$

Execution time = cycle_count X cycle_time $cycle_time = \frac{6}{24X10^9} = \frac{1}{4X10^9} s$ $Rate = \frac{1}{cycle_time} = 4X10^9 Hz = 4GHz$