#### Lecture 3: Performance/Power, MIPS Instructions

- Today's topic:
  - More performance/power equations, examples
  - MIPS instructions
- HW1 is due on Thursday
- TA office hours have begun

# Factors Influencing Performance

Execution time = clock cycle time x number of instrs x avg CPI

- Clock cycle time: manufacturing process (how fast is each transistor), how much work gets done in each pipeline stage (more on this later)
- Number of instrs: the quality of the compiler and the instruction set architecture
- CPI: the nature of each instruction and the quality of the architecture implementation

### Example

Execution time = clock cycle time x number of instrs x avg CPI

Which of the following two systems is better?

- A program is converted into 4 billion MIPS instructions by a compiler; the MIPS processor is implemented such that each instruction completes in an average of 1.5 cycles and the clock speed is 1 GHz
- The same program is converted into 2 billion x86 instructions; the x86 processor is implemented such that each instruction completes in an average of 6 cycles and the clock speed is 1.5 GHz

### Power and Energy

- Total power = dynamic power + leakage power
- Dynamic power  $\alpha$  activity x capacitance x voltage<sup>2</sup> x frequency
- Leakage power  $\alpha$  voltage
- Energy = power x time(joules) (watts) (sec)

### **Example Problem**

 A 1 GHz processor takes 100 seconds to execute a program, while consuming 70 W of dynamic power and 30 W of leakage power. Does the program consume less energy in Turbo boost mode when the frequency is increased to 1.2 GHz?

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Normal mode energy =  $100 \text{ W} \times 100 \text{ s} = 10,000 \text{ J}$ Turbo mode energy =  $(70 \times 1.2 + 30) \times 100/1.2 = 9,500 \text{ J}$ 

#### Note:

Frequency only impacts dynamic power, not leakage power. We assume that the program's CPI is unchanged when frequency is changed, i.e., exec time varies linearly with cycle time.

#### **Benchmark Suites**

- Each vendor announces a SPEC rating for their system
  - a measure of execution time for a fixed collection of programs
  - is a function of a specific CPU, memory system, IO system, operating system, compiler
  - enables easy comparison of different systems

The key is coming up with a collection of relevant programs

#### SPEC CPU

- SPEC: System Performance Evaluation Corporation, an industry consortium that creates a collection of relevant programs
- The 2006 version includes 12 integer and 17 floating-point applications
- The SPEC rating specifies how much faster a system is, compared to a baseline machine – a system with SPEC rating 600 is 1.5 times faster than a system with SPEC rating 400
- Note that this rating incorporates the behavior of all 29 programs this may not necessarily predict performance for your favorite program!
- ・ Latest version: SPEC 2017

### Deriving a Single Performance Number

How is the performance of 29 different apps compressed into a single performance number?

- SPEC uses geometric mean (GM)—the execution time of each program is multiplied and the N<sup>th</sup> root is derived
- Another popular metric is arithmetic mean (AM) the average of each program's execution time
- Weighted arithmetic mean the execution times of some programs are weighted to balance priorities

#### Amdahl's Law

- Architecture design is very bottleneck-driven make the common case fast, do not waste resources on a component that has little impact on overall performance/power
- Amdahl's Law: performance improvements through an enhancement is limited by the fraction of time the enhancement comes into play
- Example: a web server spends 40% of time in the CPU and 60% of time doing I/O a new processor that is ten times faster results in a 36% reduction in execution time (speedup of 1.56) Amdahl's Law states that maximum execution time reduction is 40% (max speedup of 1.66)

# Common Principles

- Amdahl's Law
- Energy: performance improvements typically also result in energy improvements – less leakage
- 90-10 rule: 10% of the program accounts for 90% of execution time

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 Principle of locality: the same data/code will be used again (temporal locality), nearby data/code will be touched next (spatial locality)

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# Recap

- Knowledge of hardware improves software quality: compilers, OS, threaded programs, memory management
- Important trends: growing transistors, move to multi-core and accelerators, slowing rate of performance improvement, power/thermal constraints, long memory/disk latencies
- Reasoning about performance: clock speeds, CPI, benchmark suites, performance equations
- Next: assembly instructions

#### Instruction Set

- Understanding the language of the hardware is key to understanding the hardware/software interface
- A program in (say, C) is compiled into an executable that is composed
  of machine instructions this executable must also run on future
  machines for example, each Intel processor reads in the same x86
  instructions, but each processor handles instructions differently
- Java programs are converted into portable bytecode that is converted into machine instructions during execution (just-in-time compilation)
- What are important design principles when defining the instruction set architecture (ISA)?

#### Instruction Set

- Important design principles when defining the instruction set architecture (SA):
  - keep the hardware simple the chip must only implement basic primitives and run fast
  - keep the instructions regular simplifies the decoding/scheduling of instructions

We will later discuss RISC vs CISC

#### A Basic MIPS Instruction

C code:

$$a = b + c$$
;

Assembly code: (human-friendly machine instructions) add a, b, c # a is the sum of b and c

Machine code: (hardware-friendly machine instructions) 00000010001100100100000000100000

Translate the following C code into assembly code: a = b + c + d + e; add a,b,c add a,a,d add a,a,e

### Example

C code a = b + c + d + e; translates into the following assembly code:

```
add a, b, c add a, b, c add a, a, d or add f, d, e add a, a, e add a, a, f
```

- Instructions are simple: fixed number of operands (unlike C)
- A single line of C code is converted into multiple lines of assembly code
- Some sequences are better than others... the second sequence needs one more (temporary) variable f

# Subtract Example

C code 
$$f = (g + h) - (i + j);$$

Assembly code translation with only add and sub instructions:

```
add f,g,h
sub f,f,i
sub f,f,j
```

# Subtract Example

C code f = (g + h) - (i + j); translates into the following assembly code:

 Each version may produce a different result because floating-point operations are not necessarily associative and commutative... more on this later

### **Operands**

- In C, each "variable" is a location in memory
- In hardware, each memory access is expensive if variable a is accessed repeatedly, it helps to bring the variable into an on-chip scratchpad and operate on the scratchpad (registers)
- To simplify the instructions, we require that each instruction (add, sub) only operate on registers
- Note: the number of operands (variables) in a C program is very large; the number of operands in assembly is fixed...
   there can be only so many scratchpad registers

19

# Registers

- The MIPS ISA has 32 registers (x86 has 8 registers) –
   Why not more? Why not less?
- Each register is 32-bit wide (modern 64-bit architectures have 64-bit wide registers)
- A 32-bit entity (4 bytes) is referred to as a word
- To make the code more readable, registers are partitioned as \$s0-\$s7 (C/Java variables), \$t0-\$t9 (temporary variables)...

ต้องมี Addres ของ Memory location นั้นๆก่อนถึงจะ Access ได้

### Memory Operands

How is memory-address determined?

# Memory Address

 The compiler organizes data in memory... it knows the location of every variable (saved in a table)... it can fill in the appropriate mem-address for load-store instructions

