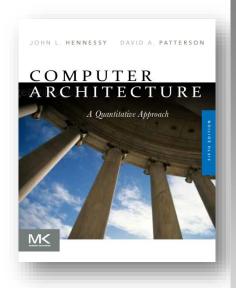


Computer Architecture

A Quantitative Approach, Fifth Edition



Chapter 1

Fundamentals of Quantitative Design and Analysis

Based on and extended from lecture note provided by publisher

Soontae Kim Dept. of Computer Science KAIST



Power and Energy

power

microprocessor

-> generate heat -> generate temperature

- Problem: Get power in, get power out
- Max or peak power = maximum power consumed by microprocessor
 - More power than power supply provides=>voltage drop and malfunction (decrease reliability)
- Thermal Design Power (TDP)
 - Sustained (long-term average) power consumption
 - Used as target for power supply and cooling system
 - Lower than peak power, higher than average power consumption if current power > TDP cooling system can't handle the power -> clock rate reduced to reduced power consumption
- Clock rate can be reduced dynamically to limit power consumption
- Energy per task is often a better measurement



Dynamic Energy and Power

- Dynamic energy
 - Transistor switch from 0 => 1 or 1 => 0
 - ½ x Capacitive load x Voltage²
 - Similar to distance

- Dynamic power energy consumption per second power(watt) = V*I energy
 - ½ x Capacitive load x Voltage² x Frequency switched
 - Similar to speed

reduce voltage -> transistor slow -> frequency low

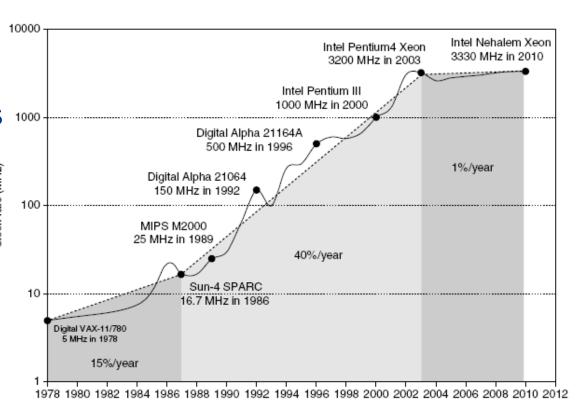
Reducing clock rate reduces power, not energy

```
pitfall: clock rate dynamic power가, work 2 dynamic enerygy가 .
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Power

- Intel 80386 consumed ~ 2 W
- 3.3 GHz Intel
 Core i7 consumes
 130 W
- Heat must be dissipated from 1.5 x 1.5 cm chip
- This is the limit of what can be cooled by air





Reducing Power

- Techniques for reducing power:
 - Do nothing well
 - Stop clock of inactive modules
 - Dynamic Voltage-Frequency Scaling (DVFS)
 - Low power state for DRAM, disks
 - Overclocking, turning off cores

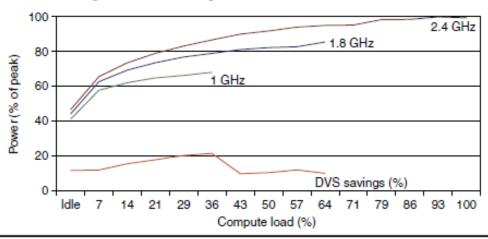


Figure 1.12 Energy savings for a server using an AMD Opteron microprocessor, 8 GB of DRAM, and one ATA disk. At 1.8 GHz, the server can only handle up to two-thirds of the workload without causing service level violations, and, at 1.0 GHz, it can only safely handle one-third of the workload. (Figure 5.11 in Barroso and Hölzle [2009].)



Static Power

- Static power consumption
 - Current_{static} x Voltage
 - Scales with number of transistors
 - To reduce: power gating



Trends in Cost

- Cost driven down by learning curve
 - Manufacturing costs decrease over time
- Yield
 - Percentage of manufactured devices that survive testing procedure
- DRAM: price closely tracks cost
- Microprocessors: price depends on volume
 - 10% less for each doubling of volume



Wafer

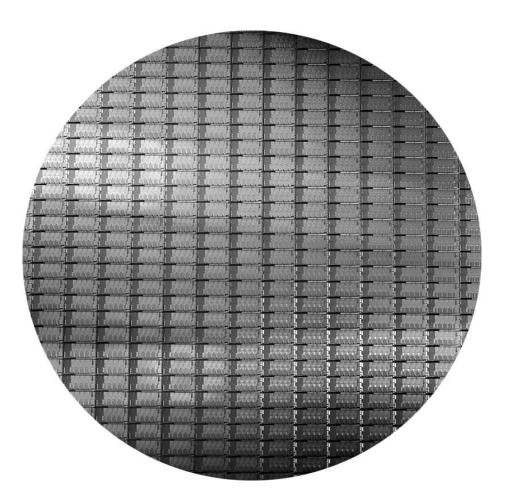


Figure 1.15 This 300 mm wafer contains 280 full Sandy Bridge dies, each 20.7 by 10.5 mm in a 32 nm process. (Sandy Bridge is Intel's successor to Nehalem used in the Core i7.) At 216 mm2, the formula for dies per wafer estimates 282. (Courtesy Intel.)



Microprocessor Die

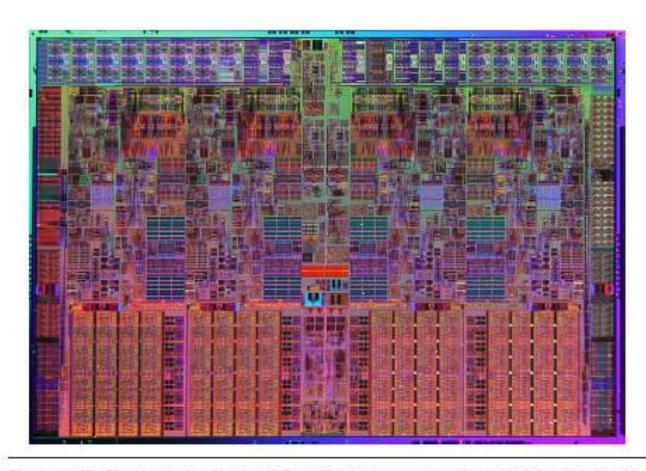


Figure 1.13 Photograph of an Intel Core i7 microprocessor die, which is evaluated in Chapters 2 through 5. The dimensions are 18.9 mm by 13.6 mm (257 mm²) in a 45 nm process. (Courtesy Intel.)



Floorplan

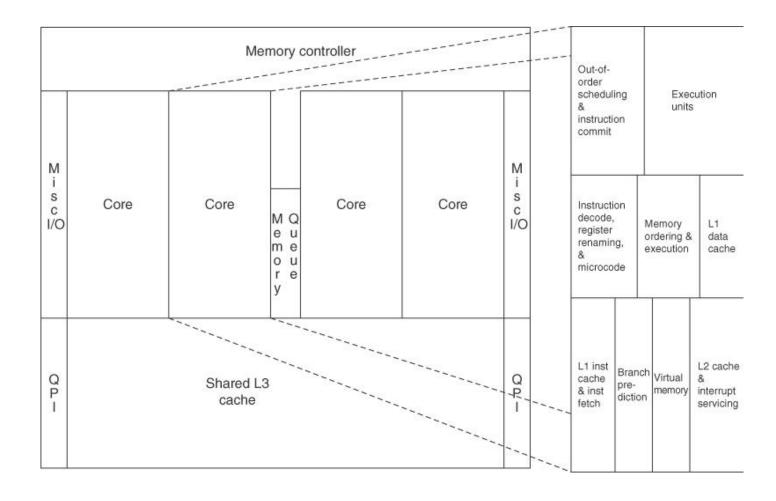


Figure 1.14 Floorplan of Core i7 die in Figure 1.13 on left with close-up of floorplan of second core on right.



Integrated Circuit Cost

Integrated circuit

$$Cost of integrated circuit = \frac{Cost of die + Cost of testing die + Cost of packaging and final test}{Final test yield}$$

Cost of die =
$$\frac{\text{Cost of wafer}}{\text{Dies per wafer} \times \text{Die yield}}$$

Dies per wafer =
$$\frac{\pi \times (\text{Wafer diameter/2})^2}{\text{Die area}} - \frac{\pi \times \text{Wafer diameter}}{\sqrt{2 \times \text{Die area}}}$$

Bose-Einstein formula:

Die yield = Wafer yield $\times 1/(1 + Defects per unit area \times Die area)^N$

- Defects per unit area = 0.016-0.057 defects per square cm (2010)
- N = process-complexity factor = 11.5-15.5 (40 nm, 2010)



Dependability

- Chips(ICs) have been reliable
 - However, transient and permanent faults are becoming common now
- Failures
 - Cause transitions b/t service accomplishment and interruption
- Module reliability
 - A measure of continuous service accomplishment of the time from a reference initial instant to failure
 - MTTF (mean time to failure) is used as a measure
- Failure rates
 - 1/MTTF
 - Use FIT (failures per billion hours of operation)



Dependability (cont'd)

- Service interruption
 - MTTR (mean time to repair)
- MTBF (mean time b/t failure) = MTTF + MTTR
- Module availability
 - MTTF/(MTTF+MTTR)
- Coping with failures
 - Primarily use redundancy
 - Time redundancy

sometimes can't determine some error in this case

- Repeat operation to see if it is still erroneous
- Resource redundancy
 - Have other components to take over from the one that failed

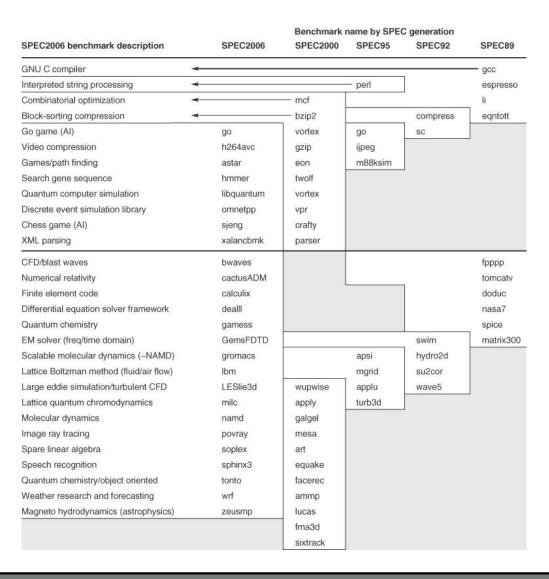


Measuring Performance

- Typical performance metrics:
 - Response time
 - Throughput
- Speedup of X relative to Y
 - Execution time_Y / Execution time_X
- Execution time
 - Wall clock time: includes all system overheads
 - CPU time: only computation time exclude I/O time
- Benchmarks
 - Kernels (e.g. matrix multiply)
 - Toy programs (e.g. sorting)
 - Synthetic benchmarks (e.g. Dhrystone)
 - Benchmark suites (e.g. SPEC06fp, TPC-C)



SPEC2006 benchmark suite





Principles of Computer Design

- Take Advantage of Parallelism
 - e.g. multiple processors, disks, memory banks, pipelining, multiple functional units
- Principle of Locality
 - Reuse of data and instructions
- Focus on the Common Case
 - Amdahl's Law

Execution time_{new} = Execution time_{old}
$$\times \left((1 - Fraction_{enhanced}) + \frac{Fraction_{enhanced}}{Speedup_{enhanced}} \right)$$

$$Speedup_{overall} = \frac{Execution time_{old}}{Execution time_{new}} = \frac{1}{(1 - Fraction_{enhanced}) + \frac{Fraction_{enhanced}}{Speedup_{enhanced}}}$$

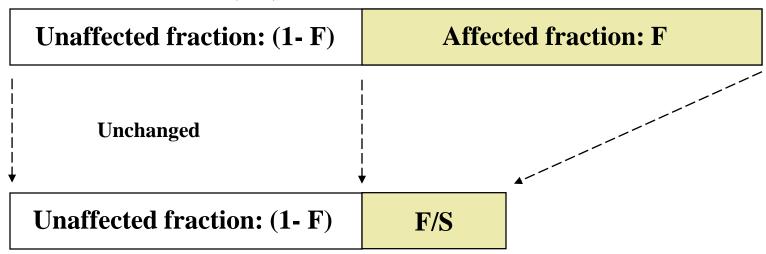


Pictorial Depiction of Amdahl's Law

Enhancement E accelerates fraction F of original execution time by a factor of S

Before:

Execution Time without enhancement E: (Before enhancement is applied) \cdot shown normalized to 1 = (1-F) + F = 1



After:

Execution Time with enhancement E:



Performance Enhancement Example

A program runs in 100 seconds on a machine with multiply operations responsible for 80 seconds of this time. By how much must the speed of multiplication be improved to make the program four times faster?

Execution time with enhancement = 25 seconds

$$25 \text{ seconds} = (100 - 80 \text{ seconds}) + 80 \text{ seconds} / n$$

 $25 \text{ seconds} = 20 \text{ seconds} + 80 \text{ seconds} / n$

$$\rightarrow$$
 5 = 80 seconds / n

Hence multiplication should be 16 times faster to get speedup of 4.



Performance Enhancement Example II

For the previous example with a program running in 100 seconds on a machine with multiply operations responsible for 80 seconds of this time. By how much must the speed of multiplication be improved to make the program five times faster?

Execution time with enhancement = 20 seconds

$$20 \text{ seconds} = (100 - 80 \text{ seconds}) + 80 \text{ seconds} / n$$

 $20 \text{ seconds} = 20 \text{ seconds} + 80 \text{ seconds} / n$

$$\rightarrow$$
 0 = 80 seconds / n

No amount of multiplication speed improvement can achieve this.



Principles of Computer Design

The Processor Performance Equation

CPU time = CPU clock cycles for a program × Clock cycle time

$$CPU time = \frac{CPU \ clock \ cycles \ for \ a \ program}{Clock \ rate}$$

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

CPU time = Instruction count × Cycles per instruction × Clock cycle time

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



Principles of Computer Design

 Different instruction types having different CPIs

CPU clock cycles =
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} IC_i \times CPI_i$$

CPU time =
$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} IC_{i} \times CPI_{i}\right) \times Clock cycle time$$



Example Suppose we have made the following measurements:

Frequency of FP operations = 25%

Average CPI of FP operations = 4.0

Average CPI of other instructions = 1.33

Frequency of FPSQR = 2%

 $CPI { of } FPSQR = 20$

Assume that the two design alternatives are to decrease the CPI of FPSQR to 2 or to decrease the average CPI of all FP operations to 2.5. Compare these two design alternatives using the processor performance equation.

Answer

First, observe that only the CPI changes; the clock rate and instruction count remain identical. We start by finding the original CPI with neither enhancement:

$$CPI_{\text{original}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} CPI_{i} \times \left(\frac{IC_{i}}{Instruction count}\right)$$
$$= (4 \times 25\%) + (1.33 \times 75\%) = 2.0$$

We can compute the CPI for the enhanced FPSQR by subtracting the cycles saved from the original CPI:

$$CPI_{with new FPSQR} = CPI_{original} - 2\% \times (CPI_{old FPSQR} - CPI_{of new FPSQR only})$$

= $2.0 - 2\% \times (20 - 2) = 1.64$

We can compute the CPI for the enhancement of all FP instructions the same way or by summing the FP and non-FP CPIs. Using the latter gives us:

$$CPI_{new FP} = (75\% \times 1.33) + (25\% \times 2.5) = 1.625$$

Since the CPI of the overall FP enhancement is slightly lower, its performance will be marginally better. Specifically, the speedup for the overall FP enhancement is

$$\begin{split} \text{Speedup}_{\text{new FP}} &= \frac{\text{CPU time}_{\text{original}}}{\text{CPU time}_{\text{new FP}}} = \frac{\text{IC} \times \text{Clock cycle} \times \text{CPI}_{\text{original}}}{\text{IC} \times \text{Clock cycle} \times \text{CPI}_{\text{new FP}}} \\ &= \frac{\text{CPI}_{\text{original}}}{\text{CPI}_{\text{new FP}}} = \frac{2.00}{1.625} = 1.23 \end{split}$$

Happily, we obtained this same speedup using Amdahl's law on page 46.

