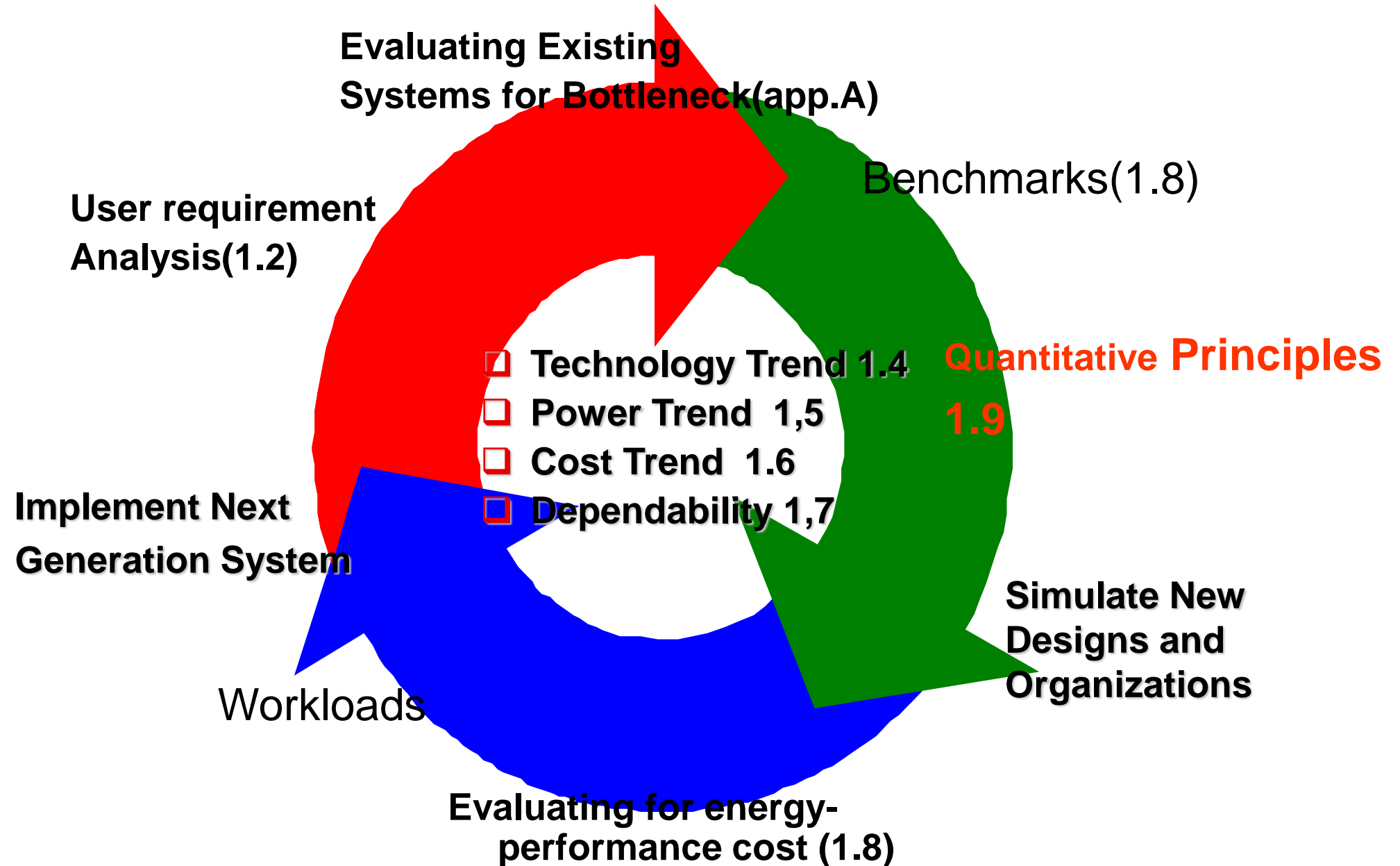


# Chapter 1-2

## Fundamentals of Quantitative Design and Analysis

# Computer Design Engineering life cycle



# Topics in Chapter

1.1 Introduction

**1.2 Classes of computers**

1.3 Defining computer architecture and What's the task of computer design?

1.4 Trends in Technology

1.5 Trends in power in Integrated circuits

1.6 Trends in Cost

1.7 Dependability

1.8 Measuring, Reporting and summarizing Perf.

1.9 Quantitative Principles of computer Design

1.10 Putting it altogether

# 5 computing markets

Feature	PMD	Desktop	Server	Clusters/ warehouse-scale computer	Internet of things /Embedded
Price of system	\$100-\$1000	\$300-\$2500	\$5000-\$10,000,000	\$100000-\$200,000,000	\$10-\$100,000
Price of microprocessor module	\$10-\$100	\$50-\$500 per proc.	\$200-\$2,000 per proc.	\$50-\$250	\$0.01-\$100 per proc.
Critical system design issues	Cost, energy, Media perf. responsiveness	Price-perf., Energy, Graphics perf.	Throughput, availability, Scalability, energy	Price-perf., Throughput, energy proportionality	Price, energy, application-specific performance.

# Personal Mobile Devices

## ❑ Wireless devices with multimedia user interfaces

ex. Smartphone, tablet computer,...

## ❑ Application

- Web-based, media-oriented
- Responsiveness, predictability

## ❑ Requirement:

- Cost, energy efficiency ( battery, no-fan)
- Real-time performance
- Minimize memory → flash memory

# Desktop Computing

- ❑ The first, and still the largest market in dollar terms, is desktop computing. (laptop > 50% market of desktop )
- ❑ Requirement:
  - Optimized price-performance
  - highest-perf. & cost-reduced Microprocessor appear first in desktop systems
- ❑ New challenges:
  - Web-centric, interactive application
  - How to evaluate performance ?

# Servers

- ❑ The role of servers to provide larger scale and more reliable file and computing services grew.
- ❑ Requirement:
  - First, **availability** is critical.
  - A second key feature of server systems is an emphasis on **scalability**. → **memory, storage and I/O bandwidth is crucial.**
  - Lastly, servers are designed for **efficient throughput**.

# Cost with downtime

Application	Cost of downtime per hour	1% 87.6 hrs/yr	0.5% 43.8 hrs/yr	0.1% 8.8 hrs/yr
Brokerage operations	\$6,450,000	\$565,000,000	\$283,000,000	\$56,500,000
Credit card authorization	\$2,600,000	\$228,000,000	\$114,000,000	\$22,800,000
Package shipping services	\$150,000	\$13,000,000	\$6,600,000	\$1,300,000
Home shopping channel	\$113,000	\$9,900,000	\$4,900,000	\$1,000,000
Catalog sales center	\$90,000	\$7,900,000	\$3,900,000	\$800,000
Airline reservation center	\$89,000	\$7,900,000	\$3,900,000	\$800,000
Cellular service activation	\$41,000	\$3,600,000	\$1,800,000	\$400,000
Online network fees	\$25,000	\$2,200,000	\$1,100,000	\$200,000
ATM service fees	\$14,000	\$1,200,000	\$600,000	\$100,000



# Cluster/Warehouse-Scale Computers

- ❑ SaaS (Search, social networking, video sharing, multiplayer games, online-shopping)
- ❑ WSC—tens of thousands of servers act as one
- ❑ Requirements:
  - Price-performance, Power ( 10% saves \$7M )
  - Availability is critical
  - Scalability ( Note the difference with server )
  - (Note the difference with supercomputer)

# Embedded systems



# Embedded Computers

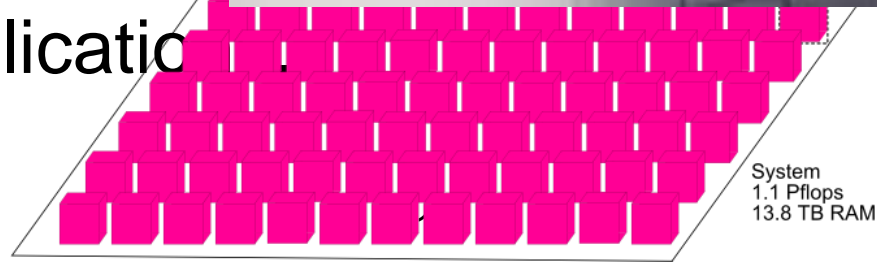
- ❑ The fastest growing portion of the computer market with widest spread of processing power and cost.
- ❑ Requirements
  - Real time performance (soft & hard)
  - Strict resource constraints
  - limited memory size, lower power consumption,...
- ❑ The use of processor cores together with application-specific circuitry.
  - DSP, mobile computing, mobile phone, Digital TV

# Other classification

- ❑ Quantum computer vs Chemical computer,
- ❑ Scalar processor vs Vector processor
- ❑ Non-Uniform Memory Access (NUMA)/ UMA
- ❑ **Register machine vs Stack machine vs Accumulator machine**
- ❑ Harvard architecture vs Von Neumann architecture  
/Non Von Neumann architecture （类脑芯片：达尔文2）
- ❑ **RISC vs. CISC**
- ❑ Cellular architecture

# Cyclops64 (known as Blue Gene/C)

- ❑ IBM's Cell microprocessor is the first one to reach the market
- ❑ Cell architecture design giving the programmer numbers of concurrent processor. Each containing thread communication. exploiting thread many applications



# Classes of Parallelism and Parallel Architecture

## ❑ Two kinds of parallelism in application

- Data-level Parallelism (DLP)
- Task-level Parallelism (TLP)

## ❑ Hardware exploit in 4 major ways

- Instruction level Parallelism
- Vector Architecture and GPUs
- Thread-Level Parallelism
- Request-Level parallelism

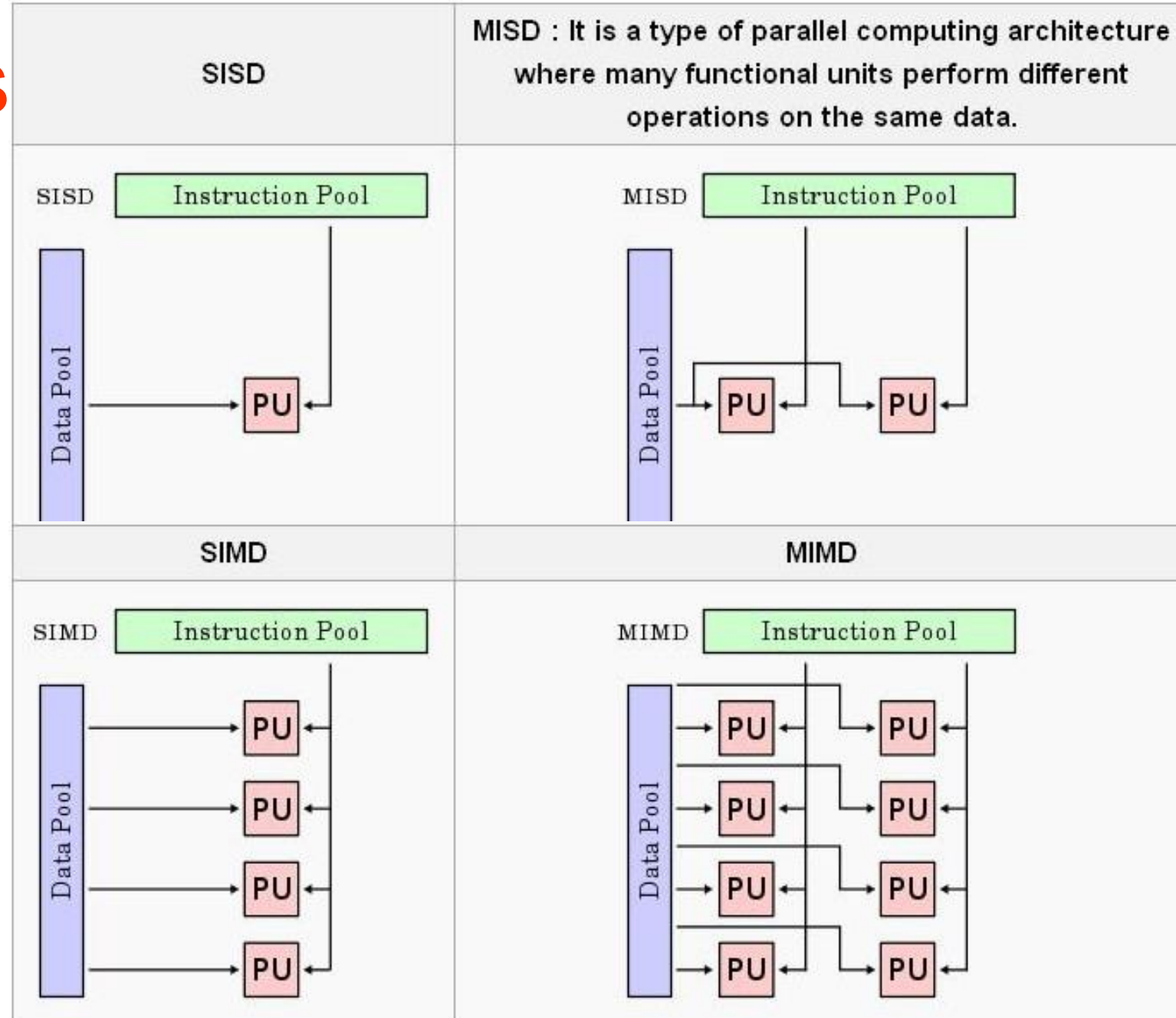
# Classes of computers

• **Flynn's Taxonomy:** A classification of computer architectures based on the number of streams of instructions and data



- **SISD (Single Instruction Single Data)**
  - Uniprocessors
- **MISD (Multiple Instruction Single Data)**
  - ???
- **SIMD (Single Instruction Multiple Data)**
  - Examples: Illiac-IV, CM-2
    - » Simple programming model
    - » Low overhead
    - » Flexibility
    - » All custom
- **MIMD (Multiple Instruction Multiple Data)**
  - Examples: SPARCCenter, T3D
    - » Flexible
    - » *Use off-the-shelf micros*

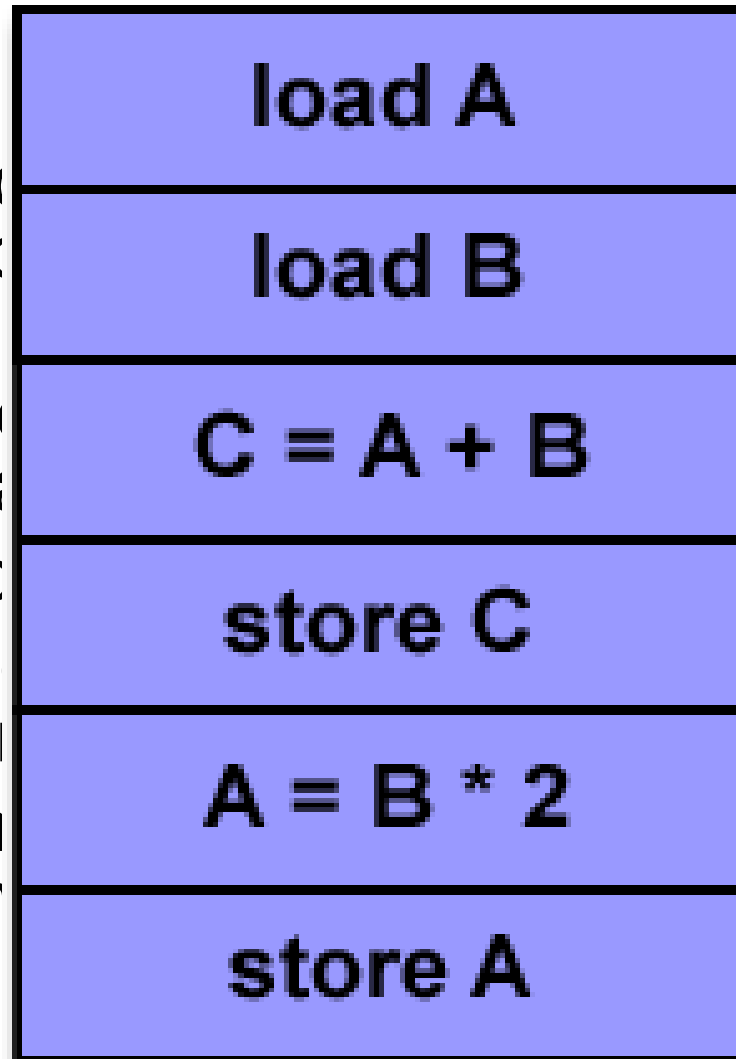
clas





# SISD

- ❑ A serial (non
- ❑ Single instruction being acted on each cycle
- ❑ Single data: one input during a cycle
- ❑ Deterministic
- ❑ This is the oldest prevalent form
- ❑ Examples: microprocessors and mainframes



team is  
the clock

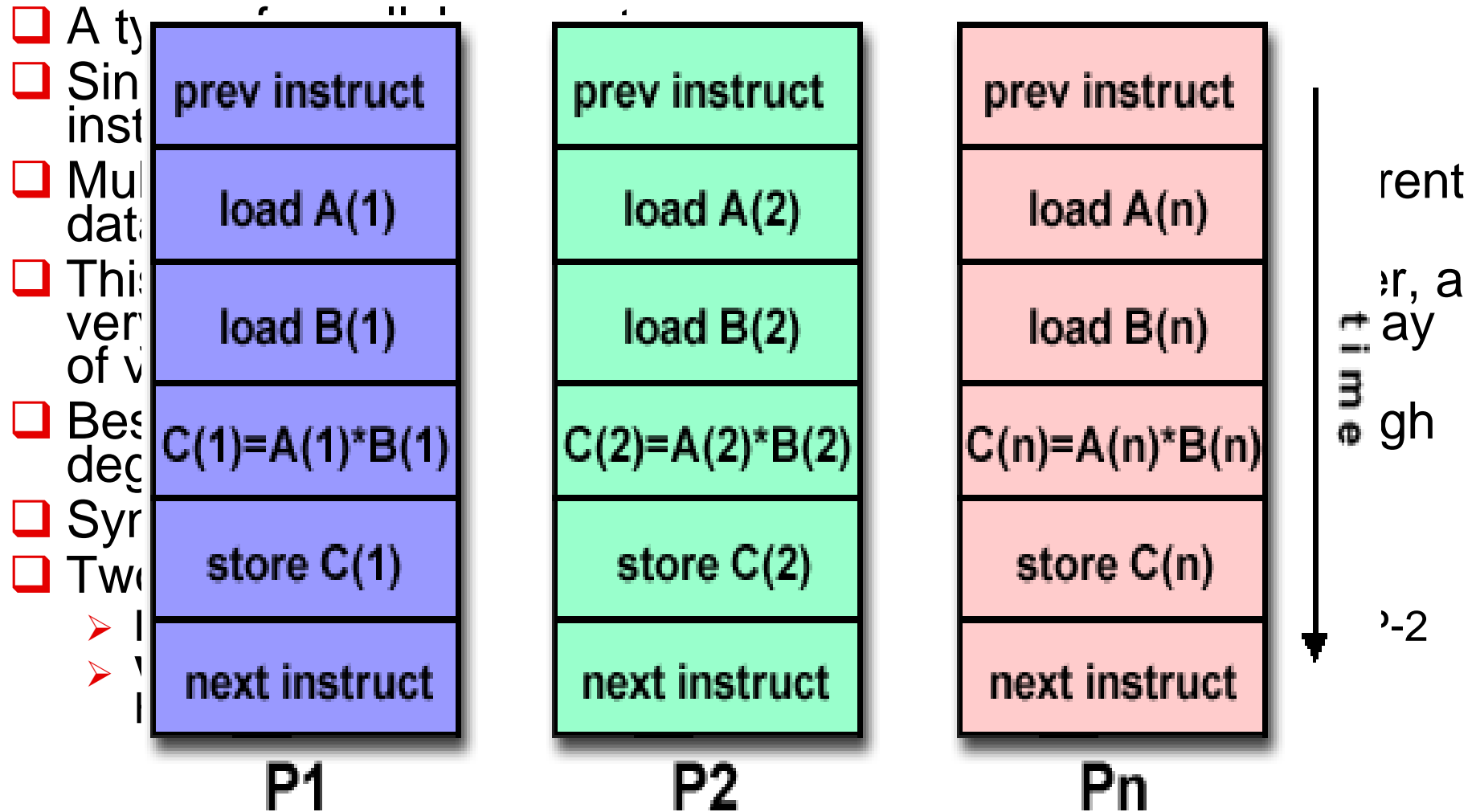
being used as

time

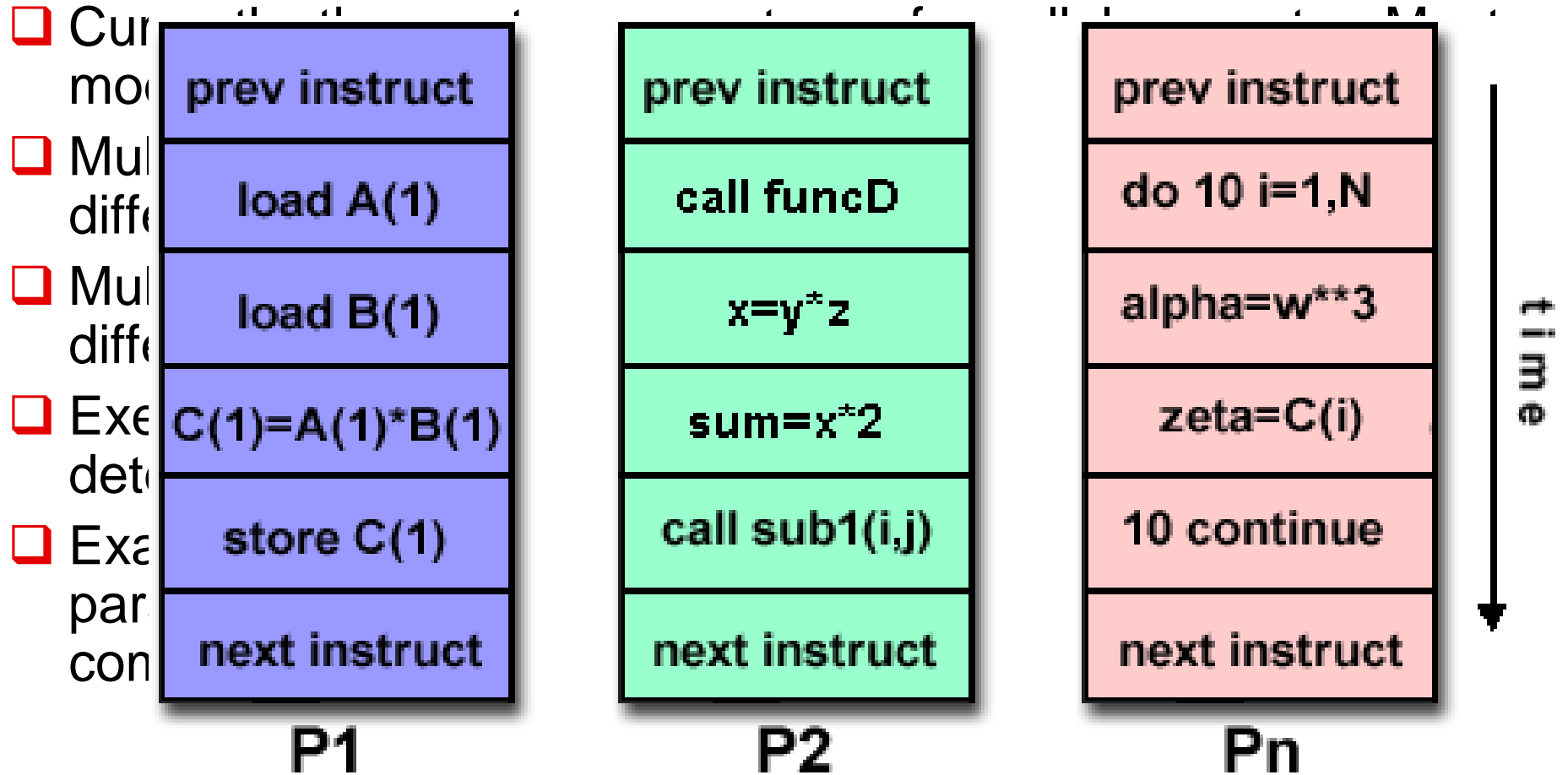
lost

ations

# SIMD



# MIMD



# Topics in Chapter

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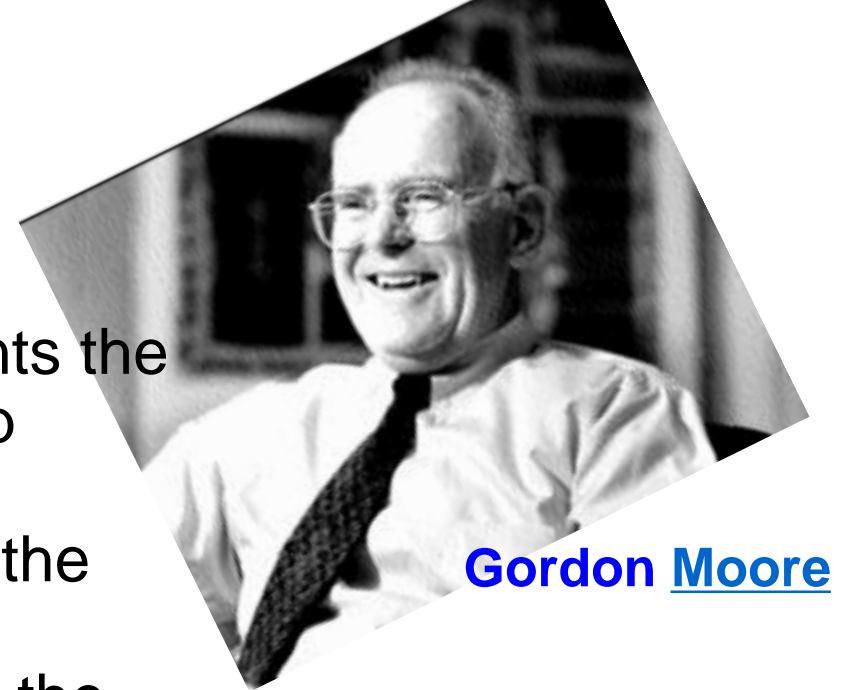
# Technology Trends

## □ Moore Law

- In 1965 he predicted that the number of components the industry would be able to place on a computer chip would **double every year**. In 1975, he updated his prediction to **once every two years**. It has become the guiding principle for the semiconductor industry to deliver ever-more-powerful chips while decreasing the cost of electronics.
- Transistor density 2x in 18-24 months (1.4-1.5x/year)

## □ DRAM density

- 1977-1997: 1.46x/year
- 1997-2017: 1.34x/year
- 2017-2022: 1.1x/year



**Gordon Moore**



# Gordon Moore on Moore's law

- ❑ **Moore's brief Bio**

<http://www.intel.com/pressroom/kits/bios/moore.htm>

- ❑ **Gordon Moore on Moore's law**

<http://www.sichinamag.com/Article/html/2007-09/2007919032802.htm>

- ❑ **Video** on conversation with Moore

<http://you.video.sina.com.cn/b/7076856-1282136212.html>

# Technology Trends

Designers often design for the next technology.

## ❑ Integrated circuit logic technology

- Transistor Density: incr. 35% per year, (4x every 4 years)
- Die size: 10%-20% per year
- Transistor count per chip: 40-55% per year or 2x 10 to 24 months

## ❑ Semiconductor DRAM

- Capacity per DRAM: 25%-40% per year (2x every 2-3 years)
- Memory speed: about 10% per year
- **Might stop and may be replaced**

## ❑ Semiconductor Flash – standard storage device in PMDs

- Capacity per flash chip: 50-60% per year (2x every 2 years)
- 15-20 times cheaper than DRAM

## ❑ Magnetic Disk tech.

- Density: 30% p.y. Before 1990; 60% p.y. 1990-1996
- 100 p.y. 1996-2004; 30% p.y. after 2004
- capacity: about 60% per year

## ❑ Network

- bandwidth: 10Mb  $\xrightarrow{10 \text{ years}}$  100Mb  $\xrightarrow{5 \text{ years}}$  1Gb

# Improvement of DRAM rate

AQA Edition	Year	DRAM growth	Characterization of impact on DRAM capacity
1	1990	60% / year	Quadrupling every 3 years
2	1996	60% / year	Quadrupling every 3 years
3	2003	40%-60%/ year	Quadrupling every 3 to 4 years
4	2007	40% / year	Doubling every 2 years
5	2011	25% - 40% / year	Doubling every 2 - 3 years



# Import Notes

## ❑ A rule of thumb

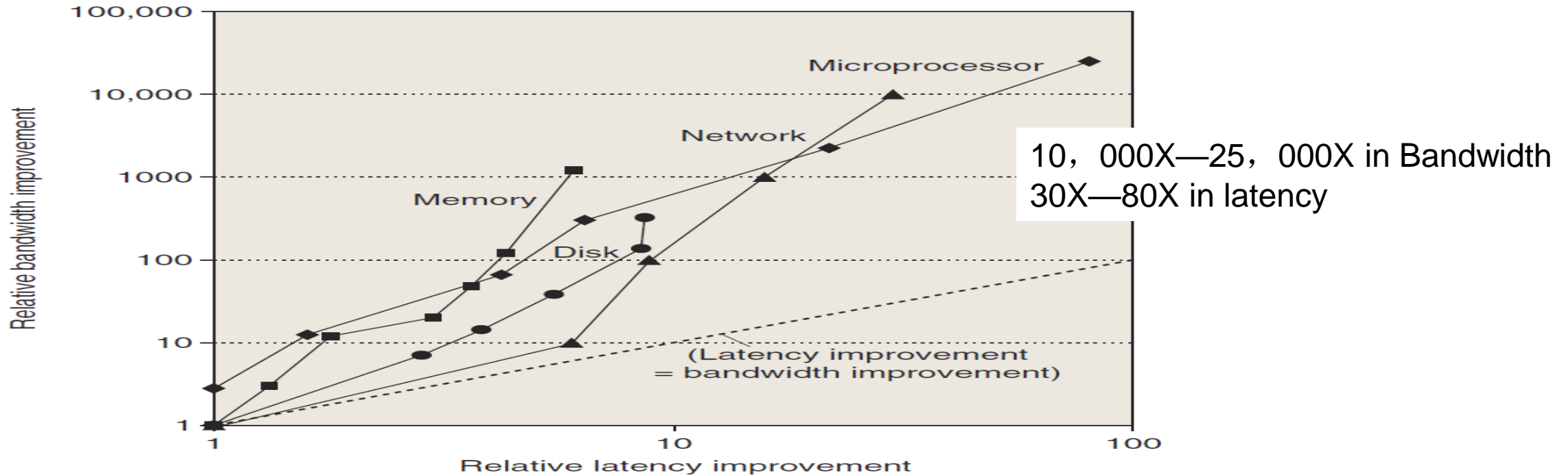
- Cost decrease rate  $\sim$  density increase rate

## ❑ Technology thresholds

- Technology improves continuously, an impact of this improvements can be in discrete leaps.

# Perf. Trends: Bandwidth over latency

- ❑ **Bandwidth/throughput**: total amount of work done in a given time
- ❑ **Latency/response time**: the time between the start and the completion of an event.
- ❑ **Rule of thumb**
  - Bandwidth grow rate  $\sim$  improvement in latency<sup>2</sup>



# Performance milestones in microprocessor

Microprocessor	16-bit address/bus, microcoded	32-bit address.bus, microcoded	5-stage pipeline, on-chip I & D caches, FPU	2-way superscalar, 64-bit bus	Out-of-order 3-way superscalar	Out-of-order superpipelined, on-chip 1.2 cache
Product	Intel 80286	Intel 80386	Intel 80486	Intel Pentium	Intel Pentium Pro	Intel Pentium 4
Year	1982	1985	1989	1993	1997	2001
Die size (mm <sup>2</sup> )	47	43	81	90	308	217
Transistors	134,000	275,000	1,200,000	3,100,000	5,500,000	42,000,000
Pins	68	132	168	273	387	423
Latency (clocks)	6	5	5	5	10	22
Bus width (bits)	16	32	32	64	64	64
Clock rate (MHz)	12.5	16	25	66	200	1500
Bandwidth (MIPS)	2	6	25	132	600	4500
Latency (ns)	320	313	200	76	50	15

# Challenges for IC Technology

## ❑ IC characteristic: feature size(特征尺寸)

- 10 microns in 1971 → 0.18microns in 2001
- → 0.09 microns in 2006 → 0.032 microns in 2011
- 7nm is under way.
- Rule of thumb: transistor perf. Improves linearly with decreasing feature size.

## ❑ IC density improvement is both opportunity and Challenge:

- signal delay for a wire increase in proportion to the product of its resistance and capacitance.

## ❑ Wire delay---major design limitation

# Bad prediction with big guy

❑ “There is no reason anyone would want a computer in their home.”

--Ken Olson, president,  
Chairman and founder of Digital Equipment Corp., 1977

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# Trends in Power

❑ Power also provide challenges as device scaled

- first microprocessor: 1/10watt -->  
2GHz P4: 135watt

❑ Challenges:

- distributing the power
- removing the heat
- preventing hot spot

# Techniques to save engery

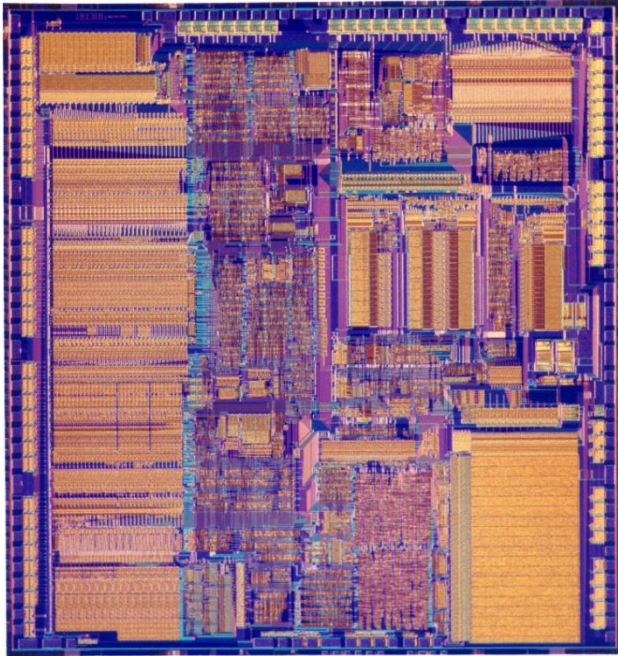
- ❑ Do nothing well----stop the clocks when cores are idle.
- ❑ Dynamic Voltage – Frequency Scaling (DVFS)
  - A few clock frequency and voltages
- ❑ Design for typical case
  - Lower power modes (LPM) –save power
  - Can not access DRAM or disk when in LPM
- ❑ Overlocking
  - Turn off all cores but one and run at higher klok rate.
- ❑ Race-to-halt
  - Use a faster, less energy-efficient processor to allow the rest of the system to to into a sleep mode



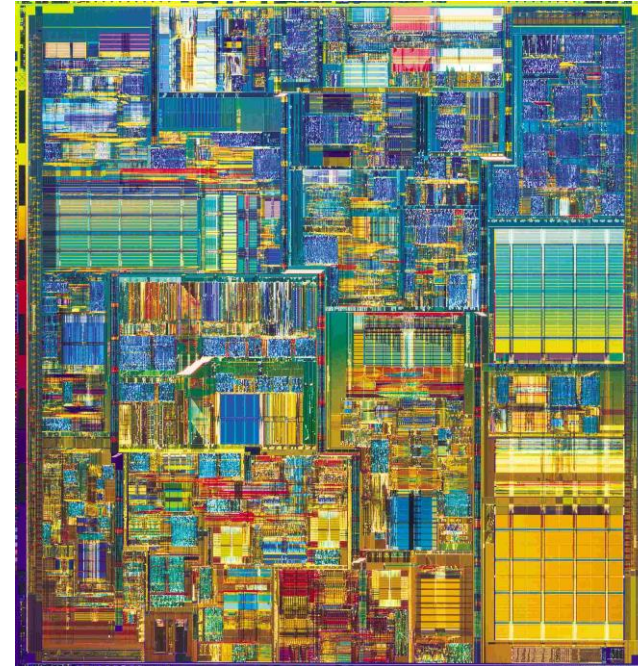
# Compare the performance / power

## 386 Processor

## Pentium® 4 Processor



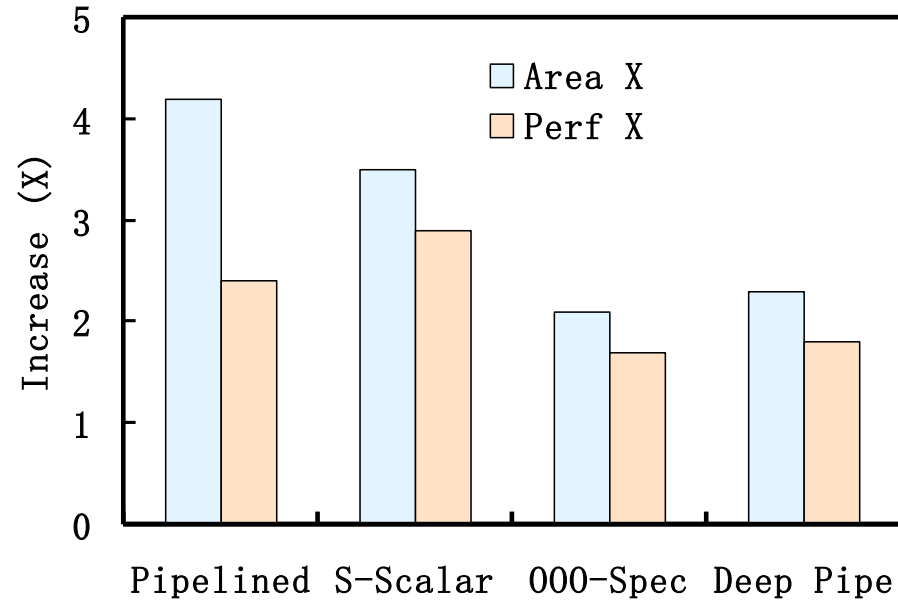
**May 1986**  
**@16 MHz core**  
**275,000 1.5 $\mu$  transistors**  
**~1.2 SPECint2000**



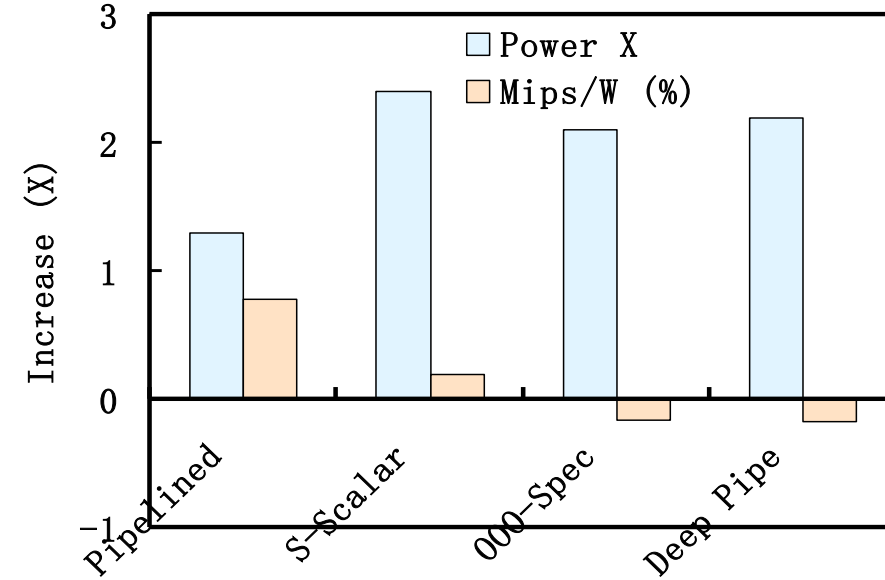
**17 Years**  
**200x**  
**200x/11x**  
**1000x**

**August 27, 2003**  
**@3.2 GHz core**  
**55 Million 0.13 $\mu$  transistors**  
**1249 SPECint2000**

# Power efficiency



Power efficiency has dropped



Performance scales with  $\text{area}^{*.5}$

# Two concepts

❑ **Dynamic power:** power consumption in switching transistors.

- $\text{Power}_{\text{dynamic}} = \frac{1}{2} * \text{Capacitive load} * \text{Voltage}^2 * \text{Frequency switched}$
- $\text{Energy}_{\text{dynamic}} = \text{Capacitive load} * \text{Voltage}^2$

❑ **Static power:** power consumption when a transistor is off due to power leakage

- $\text{Power}_{\text{static}} = \text{current static} * \text{Voltage}$

# Rule of Thumb

## ❑ 10% reduction of voltage yields

- 10% reduction in frequency
- 30% reduction in power
- Less than 10% reduction in performance

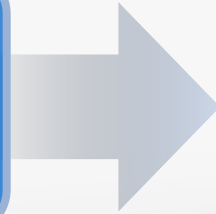
Rule of Thumb

Voltage	Frequency	Power	Performance
1%	1%	3%	0.66%

# Dual core with voltage scaling

## RULE OF THUMB

A 15%  
Reduction  
In Voltage  
Yields



Frequency  
Reduction

15%

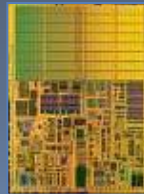
Power  
Reduction

45%

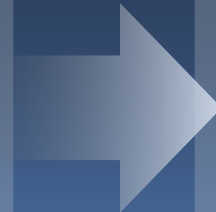
Performance  
Reduction

10%

### SINGLE CORE



Area = 1  
Voltage = 1  
Freq = 1  
Power = 1  
Perf = 1

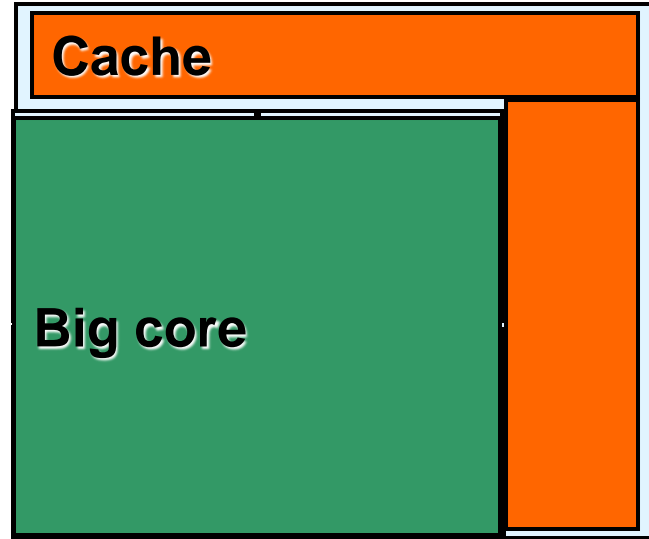


### DUAL CORE

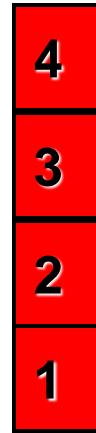


Area = 2  
Voltage = 0.85  
Freq = 0.85  
Power = 1  
Perf = ~1.8

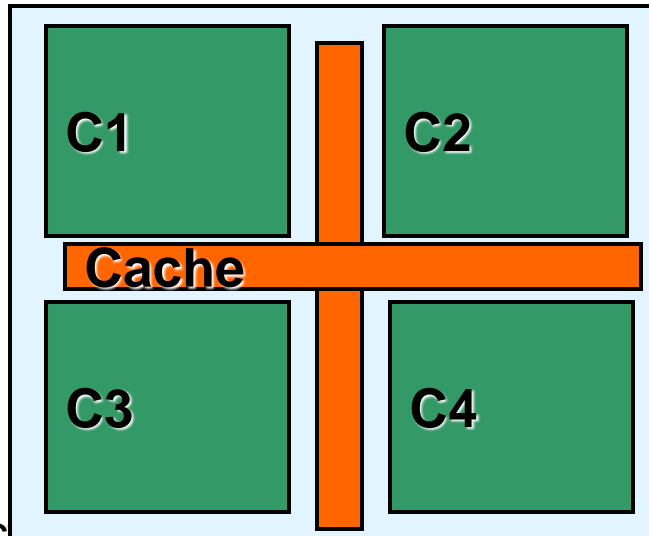
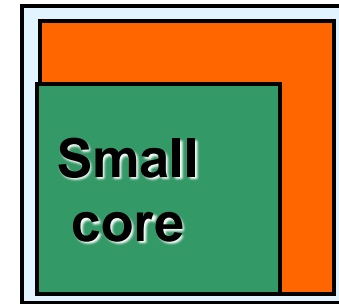
# Multiple cores deliver more performance per watt



Power



Performance

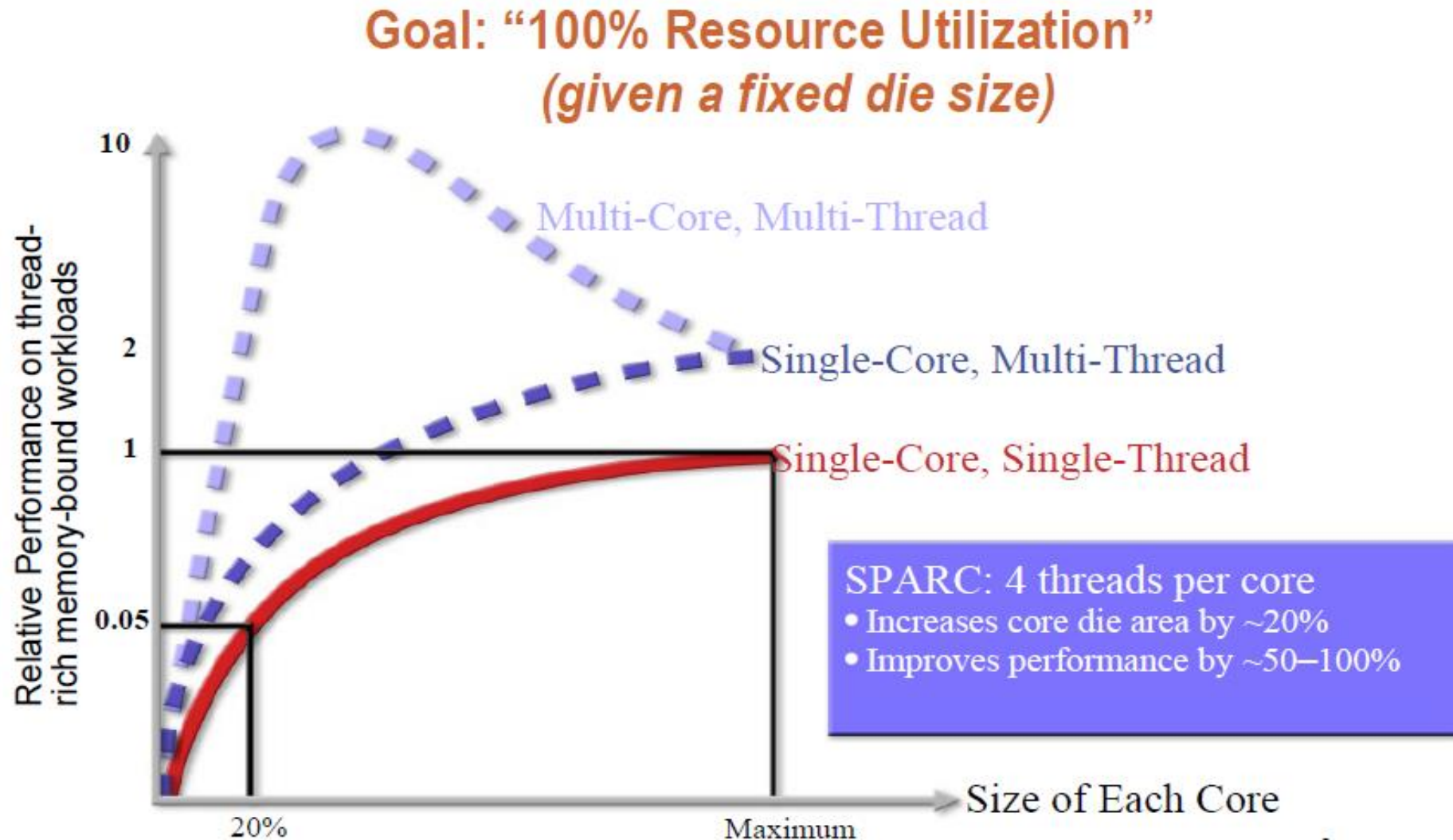


Many core is more power efficient

Power ~ area

Single thread performance ~ area<sup>.5</sup>

# Why Multicore?





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# Major Theme: Lower Cost

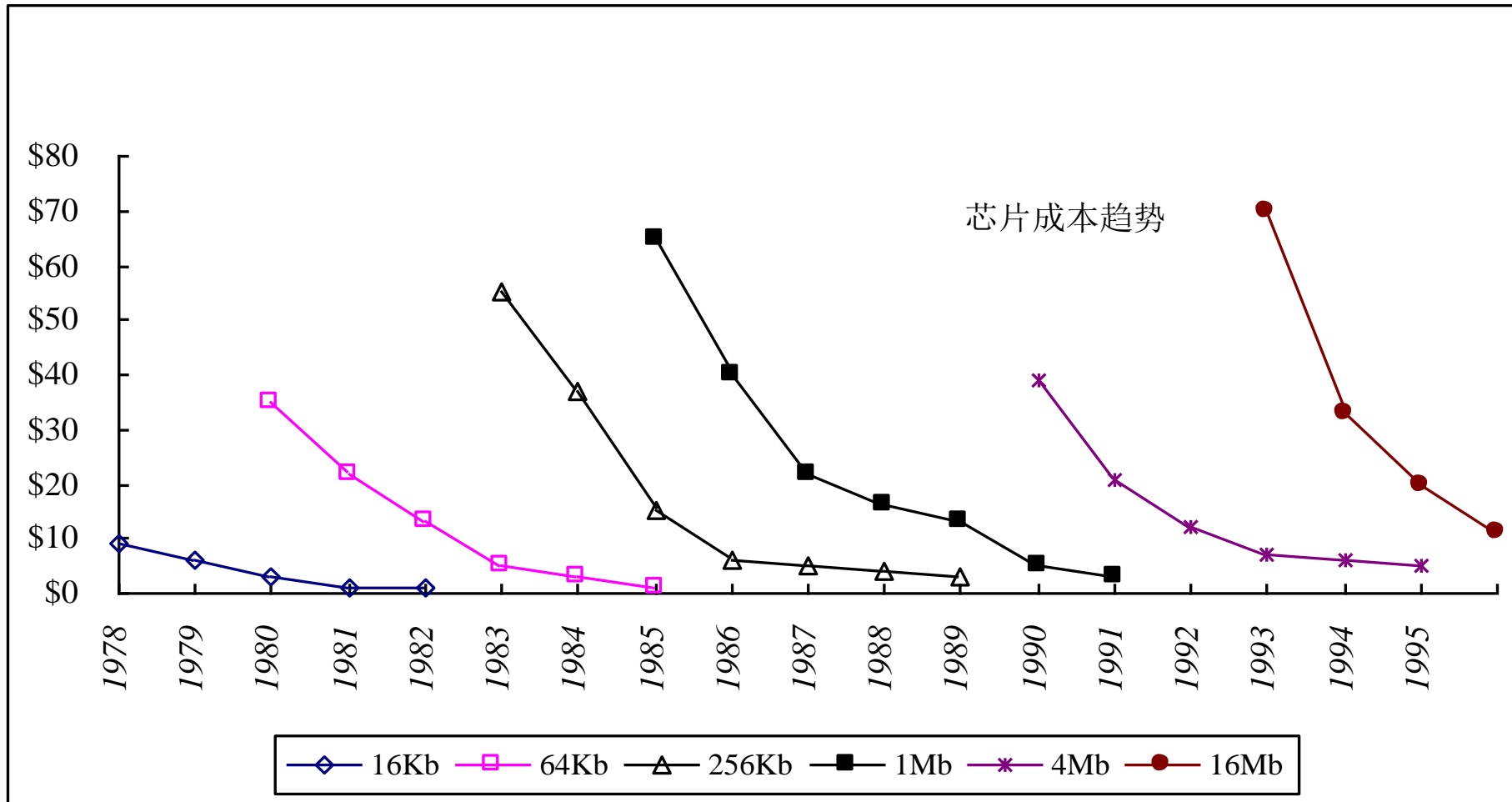
## ❑ Cost Trend

- Understanding cost trends of component is important for designers, since we design for tomorrow !

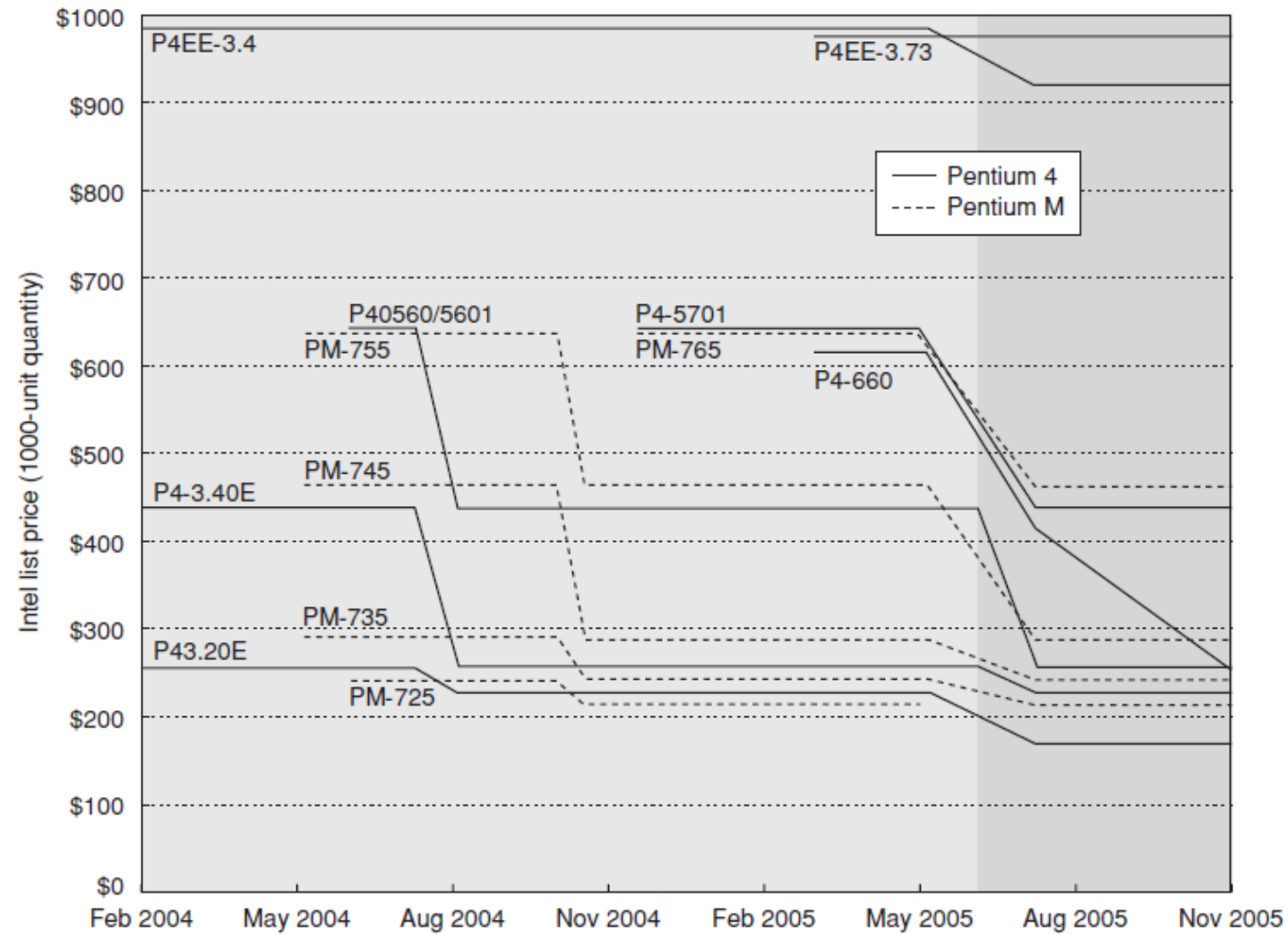
## ❑ The impact factors for cost:

- **Time**----Component prices drop over time without major improvements in manufacturing technology
- **Volume** ----Volume decreases cost due to increases in manufacturing efficiency.
- **Commodification**----The competition among the suppliers of the components will decrease overall product cost.

# Learning Curve



# Price of Pentium4 & PentiumM



# Rules of Thumb

❑ Time: learning curve ----yield

- Twice the yield will have half the cost.(for chip, board, or a system)

❑ Volume:

- Cost decrease about 10% for each doubling of volume.

❑ Commodities:

- Vendor competition
- Supplier competition
- Volume increase, however limited profits.

# Cost of an Integrated Circuit

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

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

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

$$\text{Die yield} = \text{Wafer yield} \times \left( 1 + \frac{\text{Defects per unit area} \times \text{Die area}}{\alpha} \right)^{-\alpha}$$

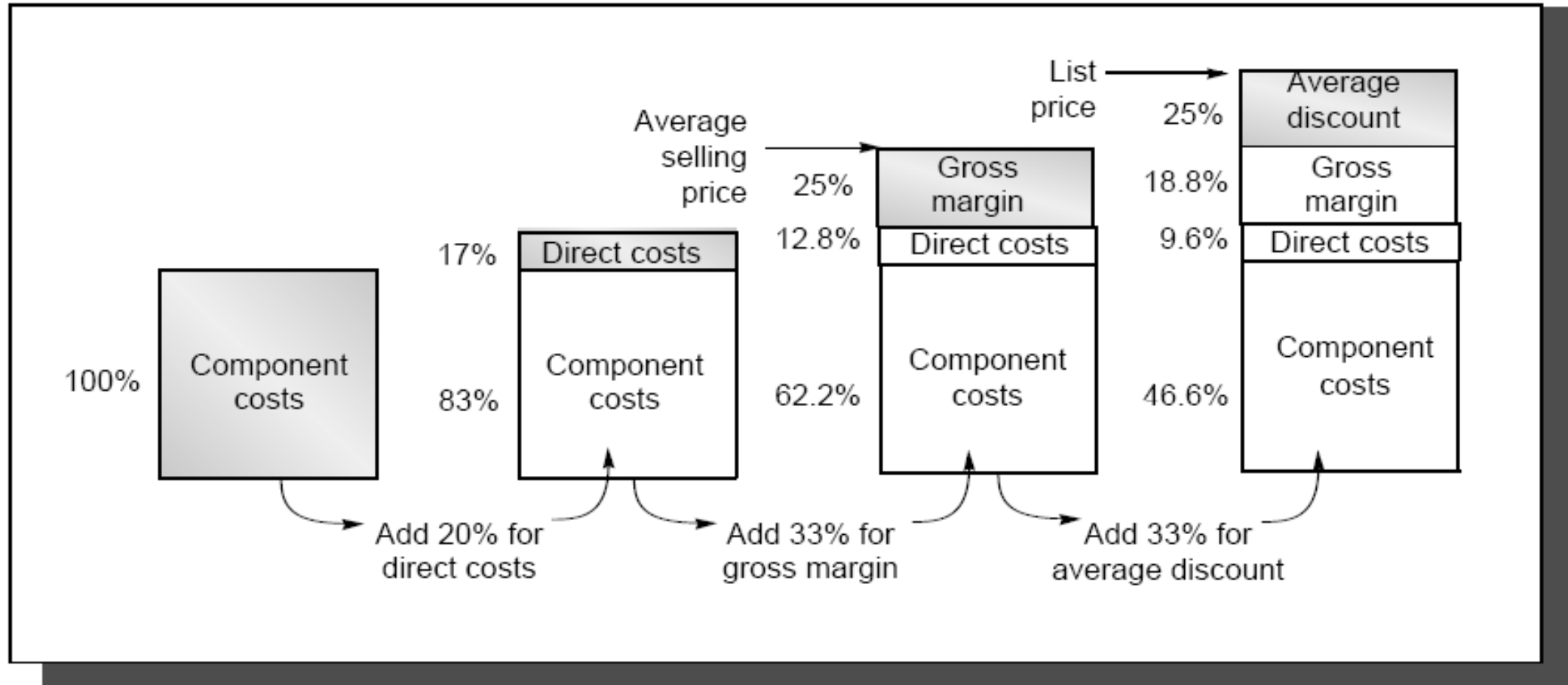
# Distribution of Cost in a System

System	Subsystem	Fraction of total
Cabinet	Sheet metal, plastic	2%
	Power supply, fans	2%
	Cables, nuts, bolts	1%
	Shipping box, manuals	1%
	Subtotal	6%
Processor board	Processor	22%
	DRAM (128 MB)	5%
	Video card	5%
	Motherboard with basic I/O support, networking	5%
	Subtotal	37%
I/O devices	Keyboard and mouse	3%
	Monitor	19%
	Hard disk (20 GB)	9%
	DVD drive	6%
	Subtotal	37%
Software	OS + Basic Office Suite	20%

# Cost vs. Price

- ❑ Component costs
  - Raw material cost.
- ❑ Direct cost:
  - Costs incurred to make a single item. Adds 20% to 40% to component cost.
- ❑ Gross margin ( Indirect cost):
  - Overhead not associated with a single item, i.e. R&D, marketing, manufacturing equipment, taxes, etc.
  - **Only 4%-12% of income are spent on R&D**
- ❑ Average Selling Price (ASP):
  - Component cost + direct cost + indirect cost.
- ❑ List price :
  - Not ASP. Stores add to the ASP to get their cut. Want 50% to 75% of list price.

# The components of price for a \$1000 PC

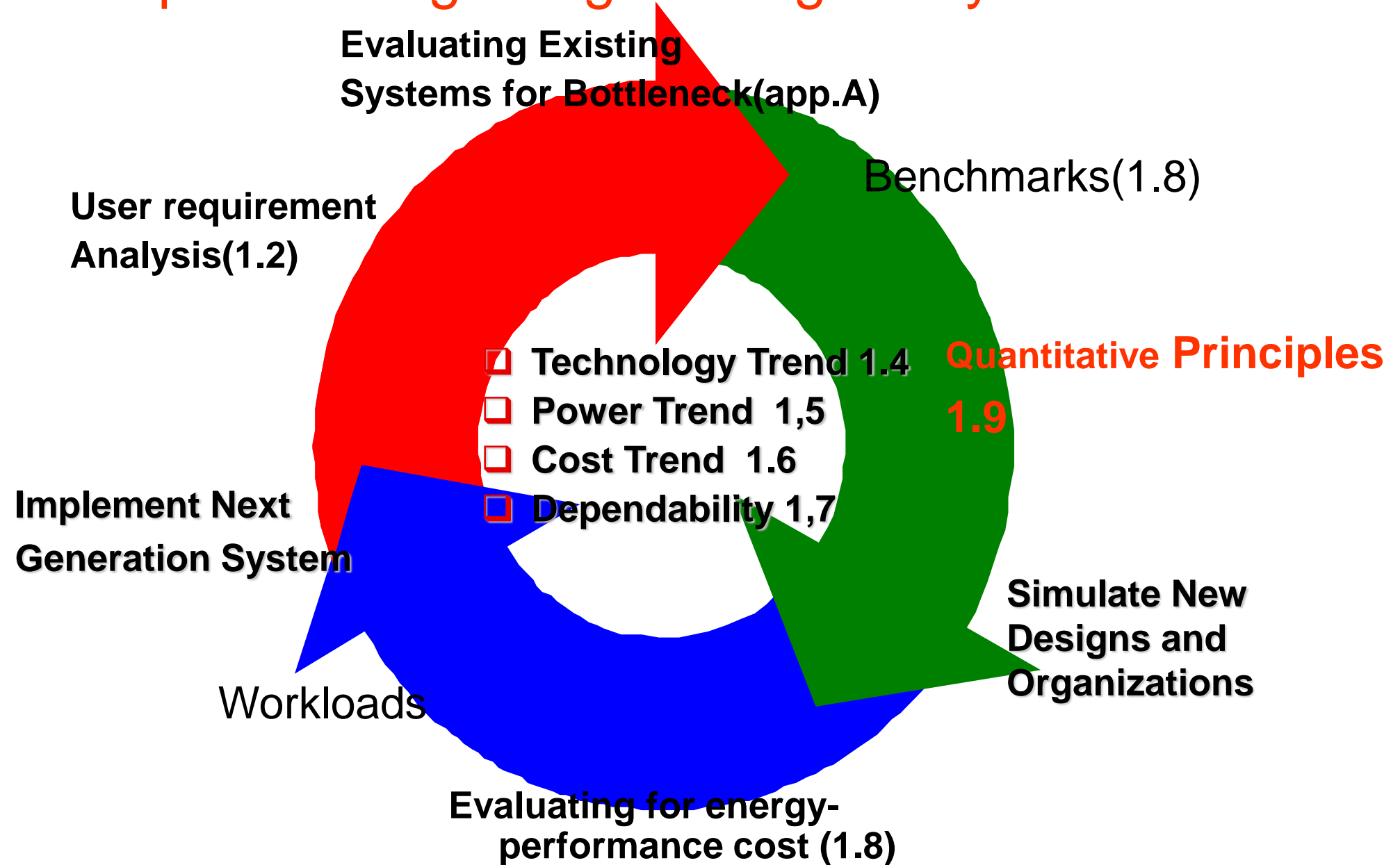




# Cost vs. Price

- ❑ This gives you insight on how a design decision will affect selling price,
  - i.e. changing cost by \$1,000 increases selling price by \$3,000 to \$4,000.
- ❑ Also, consider volume and price relationship:
  - In general, the fewer computers that are sold, the higher the price.
  - Also, a decrease in volume causes cost to increase, further increasing price.
- ❑ Therefore, **small changes in cost can have an unexpected large increase in price.**

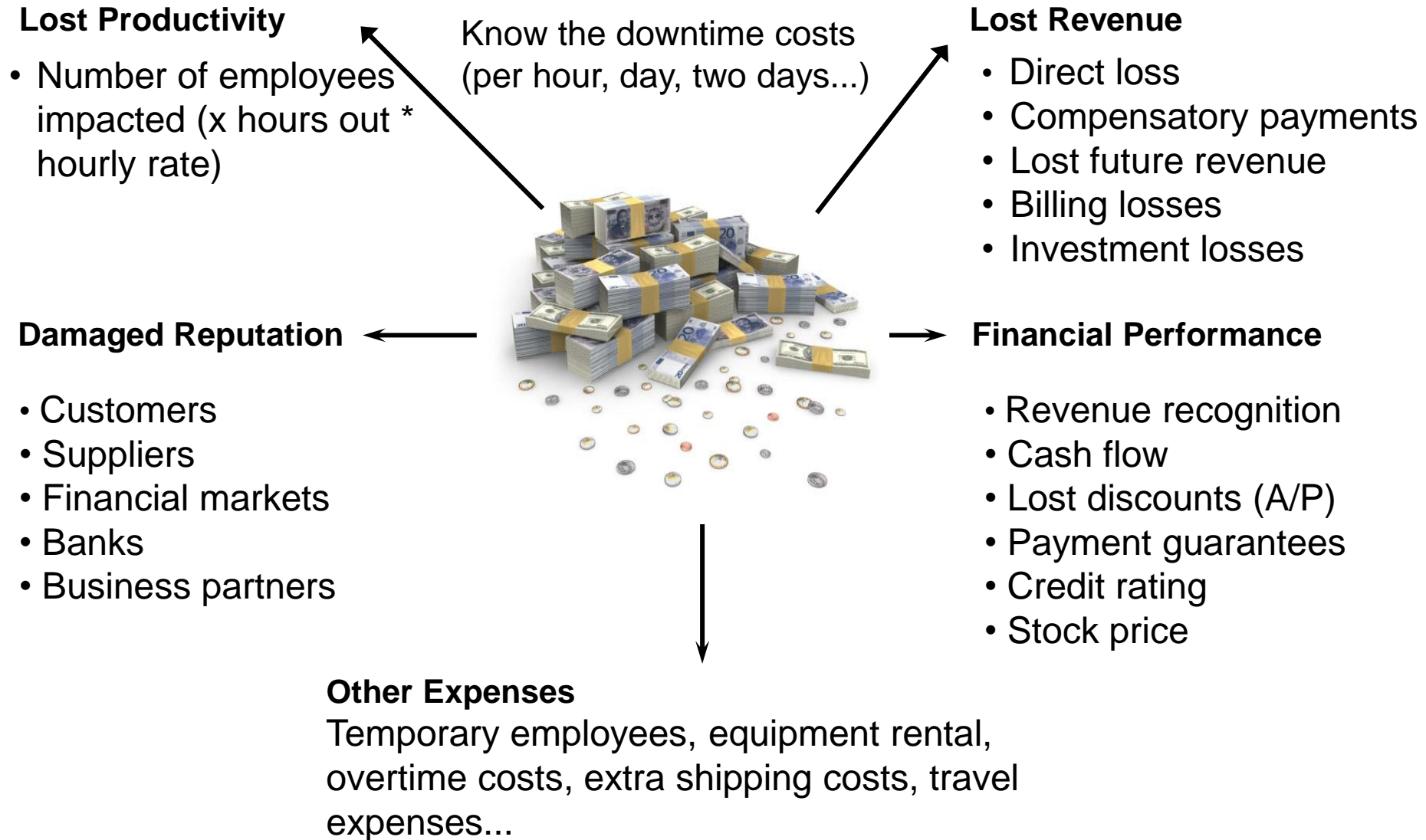
# Computer Design Engineering life cycle



# Topics in Chapter

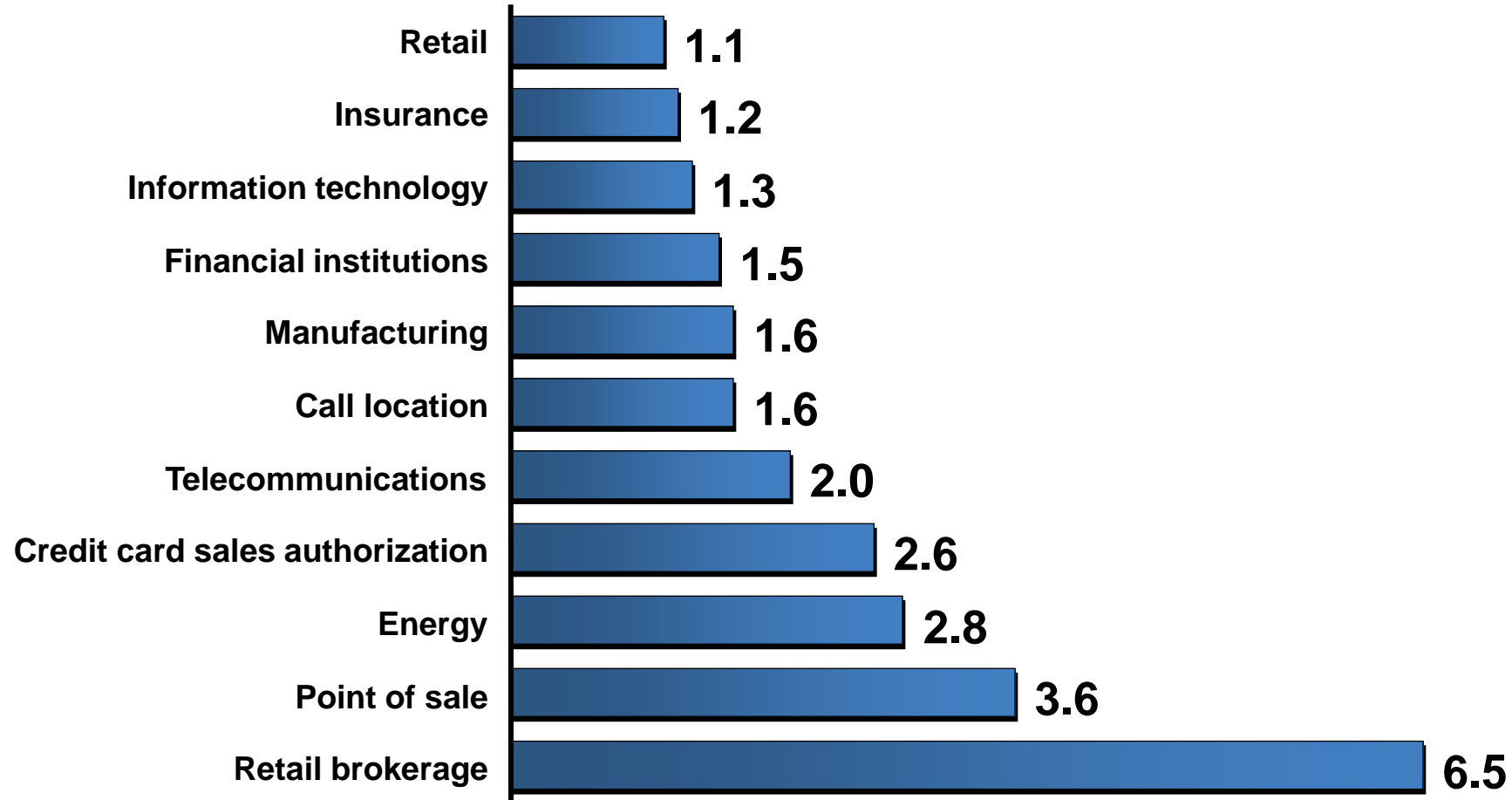
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# Why Business Continuity ?



# Why high Dependability ?

Millions of US Dollars per Hour in Lost Revenue



Source Meta Group, 2005

# Information Availability(5↗9)

% Uptime	% Downtime	Downtime per Year	Downtime per Week
98%	2%	7.3 days	3hrs 22 min
99%	1%	3.65 days	1 hr 41 min
99.8%	0.2%	17 hrs 31 min	20 min 10 sec
99.9%	0.1%	8 hrs 45 min	10 min 5 sec
99.99%	0.01%	52.5 min	1 min
99.999%	0.001%	5.25 min	6 sec
99.9999%	0.0001%	31.5 sec	0.6 sec

# Evolverment of Dependability-1

## ❑ Reliability (可靠性) 1960s

- ----field of fault tolerance and system reliability

## ❑ Definition

- In general, **reliability** (systemic def.) is the ability of a person or system to perform and maintain its functions in routine circumstances, as well as hostile or unexpected circumstances.
- The IEEE defines it as ". . . the ability of a system or component to perform its required functions under stated conditions for a specified period of time."

**The Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers**

# Evolverment of Dependability-2

## □ Dependability (可信性)

### ➤ 1985, Jean-Claude Laprie

- J.C. Laprie. "Dependable Computing and Fault Tolerance: Concepts and terminology," in Proc. 15th IEEE Int. Symp. on Fault-Tolerant Computing, 1985

- International Conference on dependable Systems and networks
- International Symposium on Reliable Distributed Systems
- International Symposium on Software Reliability Engineering.



# Definition 1 of Denpendability

- ❑ Computer system dependability is The quality of the delivered service such that reliance can justifiably be placed on this service.
  - J.C. Laprie. "Dependable Computing and Fault Tolerance: Concepts and terminology," in Proc. 15th IEEE Int. Symp. on Fault-Tolerant Computing, 1985
  - reliability, maintainability, availability, safety, are quantitative measures corresponding to distinct perceptions of the same attribute of a system: it's dependability
  - general concept

# Definition 2 of Denpendability

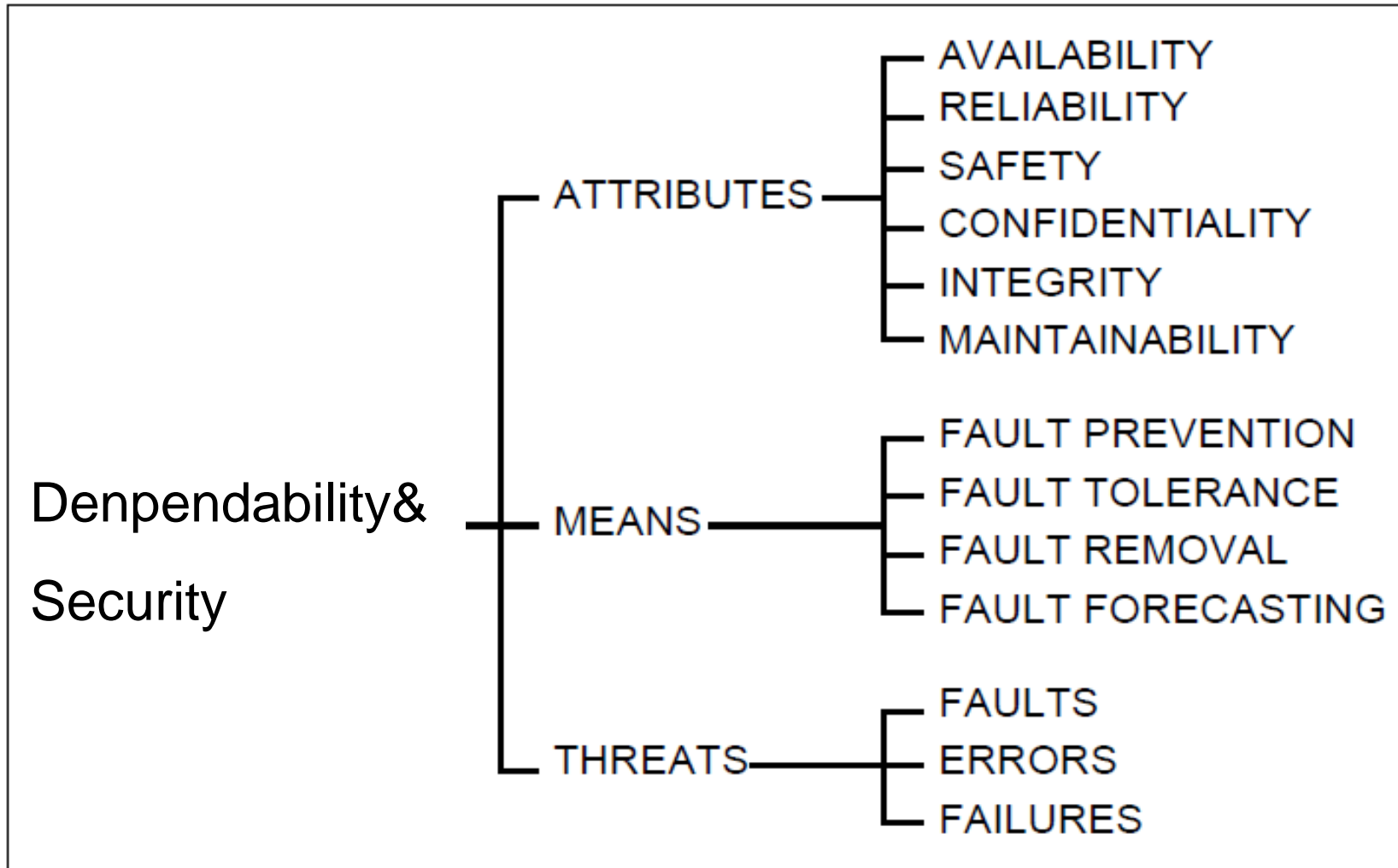


Figure 1 - The dependability tree

# Related concepts

- ❑ Availability(可用性) - readiness for correct service
- ❑ Reliability(可靠性) - continuity of correct service
- ❑ Safety(平安性?) - absence of catastrophic consequences on the user(s) and the environment
- ❑ Integrity(完整性) - absence of improper system alteration
- ❑ Maintainability(可维护性) - ability to undergo modifications and repairs
- ❑ Confidentiality(机密性), *the absence of unauthorized disclosure of information*
- ❑ Security(安全保障) is a composite of Confidentiality, Integrity, and Availability.

# Dependability(可信性)

❑ Service level Agreements(SLA) / Service level objectives (SLO)

- Service accomplishment
- Service interruption

❑ Failures:

- $S_{\text{accomplishment}} \rightarrow S_{\text{interruption}}$

❑ Restorations:

- $S_{\text{interruption}} \rightarrow S_{\text{accomplishment}}$

# Measurements of Dependability

❑ Module **reliability**: continuous service accomplishment ( of the time to failure )

- **MTTF**: Mean Time To Failure
- **MTTR**: Mean Time To Repair (service interruption)
- **FIT**: Failure In Time =  $1/\text{MTTF}$
- **MTBF**: Mean Time Between Failure =  $\text{MTTF} + \text{MTTR}$

❑ Module **availability**

- $$\frac{\text{MTTF}}{\text{MTTF} + \text{MTTR}} = \frac{\text{MTTF}}{\text{MTBF}}$$

# Example: disk system

## □ Assumption:

- 10 disks, 1000000 hour MTTF
- 1 SCSI controller, 500000 hour MTTF
- 1 power supply, 1 fan, both 200000 hour MTTF
- 1 SCSI cable, 1000000 hour MTTF

## □ Question: MTTR of the whole system

## □ Answer:

- Failure rate<sub>system</sub> =  $10 \cdot 1/1000,000 + 1/500,000 + 1/200,000 + 1/100,000$   
 $= 23000/1000,000,000$
- MTTF<sub>system</sub> =  $1/\text{Failure}_{\text{system}}$  = 43500 hours ~ 5 years

# Way to cope with failure

## ❑ Redundancy:

- **Time redundancy**: repeat the operation again to see if it is still in erroneous.
- **Resource redundancy**: have other components to take over from the one that failed.

# Dependability

## □ Compare with

- Trusted computing
- Trustworthy computing
- Credibility



# Topics in Chapter

- 1.1 Why take this course ?
- 1.2 Classes of computers in current computer market
- 1.3 Defining computer architecture and What's the task of computer design?
- 1.4 Trends in Technology
- 1.5 Trends in power in Integrated circuits
- 1.6 Trends in Cost
- 1.7 Dependability
- 1.8 Measuring, Reporting and summerizing Perf.**
- 1.9 Quantitative Principles of computer Design
- 1.10 Putting it altogether

# Measuring and Reporting Performance

## ❑ Comparing Machines

- Execution time (latency)
- Throughput
- MIPS - millions of instructions per second

## ❑ Comparing Machines Using Sets of Programs

- Choosing which program to evaluate performance
  - Benchmark Suites
- Different Means: Arithmetic, Harmonic, and Geometric Means

# different perception

- Performance means different things to different people, therefore its assessment is subtle



Sorry, Lady is first !



Faint ! When will they bring me the meal?



- different perception
  - Criteria of performance evaluation differs among users and designers

# Perf. Metrics --response time

## ❑ Wall-clock time

- Start the program and watch the clock -
- when the program ends, that's the total **wall-clock time**
- Also called **response time** or **elapsed time** or
- Measures **user perception** of the system speed

## ❑ Problems with wall-clock time

- What if more than one program is running on the same machine ?
- What if the program asks for user input ?



# Performance Metrics --CPU time

- ❑ Measures the time the CPU is computing, (not waiting for I/O)
  - Measures **designer perception** of the CPU speed
- ❑ CPU time is further divided into:
  - **User time** - time spent in user mode
  - **System time** - time spent in the operating system (OS)
- ❑ Unix time command reports CPU time as:
  - **90.7u 12.9s 2:39 65%**
  - **90.7 user CPU seconds (in the user's program)**
  - **12.9 system CPU seconds (in the system calls e.g. printf)**
  - **2 minutes, 39 seconds wall-clock time**
  - **65% of the wall clock time was spent running on the CPU**

# Performance Metrics --throughput

- ❑ **Amount of work done in a given time**
  - Measure **administrator perception** of the system perf.
- ❑ **We often use throughput to measure**
  - Number of lines of code per day
  - Number bits per second transmitted over a wire
  - Number of web pages served
- ❑ **In contrast to latency**
  - amount of time to produce 1 line of code
  - amount of time to send 1 bit over a wire
  - Amount of time spent waiting to receive web page
- ❑ **Often, processor performance is only quoted in terms of relative latency**
  - Program A ran 10 times faster than program B
- ❑ **But, for many apps, throughput **much** more important than latency**
  - Financial markets, government statistics (census)

# Response time vs. Throughput

- ❑ If you improve response time, you usually improve throughput
  - Replacing the processor of a computer with a faster version
  
- ❑ you can also improve throughput without improving response time
  - Adding additional processors to a system that uses multiple processors
  - for separate tasks (e.g. handling of airline reservations system)

# Another industry Metric: MIPS

- ❑ MIPS - Millions of Instructions per Second

$$\text{MIPS} = \frac{\frac{\text{\# of instructions}}{\text{benchmark}} \times \frac{\text{benchmark}}{\text{total run time}}}{1,000,000}$$

- ❑ When comparing two machines (A, B) with the same **instruction set**, MIPS is a fair comparison(*sometimes...*)
- ❑ But, MIPS can be a “***meaningless indicator of performance...***”



## Ex: MIPS might be meaningless

- ❑ Machine A has a special instruction for performing square root calculations. It takes 100 cycles to execute.
- ❑ Machine B doesn't have the special instruction -- must perform square root calculations in software using simple instructions (.e.g, Add, Mult, Shift) that each take 1 cycle to execute
- ❑ Machine A:  $1/100 \text{ MIPS} = 0.01 \text{ MIPS}$
- ❑ Machine B: 1 MIPS

# Another view: Power consumption and Efficiency

## ❑ Critical factors for embedded systems:

- cost
- physical size
- memory
- power consumption

## ❑ Fig. 1.27

- **AMD ElanSC520**
- **AMD K6-2E**
- **IBM PowerPC 750CX**
- **NEC VR 5432**
- **NEC VR 4122**

The NEC VR 4122 is the big winner for its **best performance/watt**, though it is the second lowest performing processor.

# Summary of performance metrics

## ❑ Response (Execution) time

- user perception
- system performance
- **the only unimpeachable measure of performance**

## ❑ CPU time

- designer perception
- CPU performance

## ❑ Throughput

- administrator perception

## ❑ MIPS

- merchant perception

# Choose Programs to Evaluate Performance

## ❑ Ideal performance evaluation:

- A random sample of users running their programs and OS commands.

## ❑ Many different types of benchmarks

- **Real applications**--- Scientific and engineering
- **Modified (or scripted) applications**--- focus on specific features
- **Kernels** --- critical program fragments
- **Toy** --- small programs, often measure very little
- **Synthetic 综合** -- created to represent some aspects of a program (e.g., mix of instruction types)
- **Database** -- a world unto itself
- **What really matters is how YOUR application performs**

# Something about Synthetic

## □ Synthetic benchmarks :

- Programs that try to "exercise" the system in the same way to **match the average frequency of operations and operands of a large set of programs.**
- Whetstone and Dhrystone.
- Similar to kernels but are **NOT** real programs !
- Compiler and hardware optimizations can artificially inflate performance of these benchmarks but not of real programs.
- These benchmarks don't reward optimizations!
- $\text{SQRT}(\text{EXP}(x)) = \sqrt{e^x} = e^{x/2} = \text{EXP}(X/2)$

# Notes on performance benchmark

- ❑ Benchmarks can focus on specific aspects of a system
  - floating point & integer ALU, memory system, I/O, OS
- Universal benchmarks **can be misleading** since hardware and compiler vendors might optimize their design for **ONLY** these programs
- **The best types of benchmarks are real applications since they reflect the end-user interest**
- Architectures might perform well for some applications and poorly for others
- **Compilation can boost performance** by taking advantage of architecture-specific features. Application-specific compiler optimization are becoming more popular.

# SPEC

## ❑ SPEC - The System Performance Evaluation Cooperative

- founded in 1988 by a small number of workstation vendors who realized that the marketplace was in desperate need of realistic, standardize performance tests.
- Grown to become successful performance standardization bodies with more than 40 member companies.
- **<http://www.spec.org>**

## ❑ SPEC's Philosophy

- The goal of SPEC is to ensure that the marketplace has a fair and useful set of metrics to differentiate candidate systems.
- The basic SPEC methodology is to provide the benchmarker with a standardized suite of source code based upon existing applications

# SPEC benchmarks: Desktop Benchmarks

## □ CPU-intensive benchmarks

- SPEC89
- SPEC92
- SPEC95
- SPEC2000
- SPEC CPU2006 ( 12 CINT2006, 17 CFP2006)

## □ graphics-intensive benchmarks

- SPEC2000
  - SPECviewperf
    - is used for benchmarking systems supporting the OpenGL graphics library
  - SPECcapc
    - consists of applications that make extensive use of graphics.



# SPEC INT 95 Benchmark descriptions

<u>Benchmark</u>	<u>Ref Time (Sec)</u>	<u>Application Area</u>	<u>Specific Task</u>
099.go	4600	Game playing; artificial intelligence	Plays the game Go against itself.
124.m88ksim	1900	Simulation	Simulates the Motorola 88100 processor running Dhrystone and a memory test program.
126.gcc	1700	Programming & compilation	Compiles pre-processed source into optimized SPARC assembly code.
129.compress	1800	Compression	Compresses large text files (about 16MB) using adaptive Lempel-Ziv coding.
130.li	1900	Language interpreter	Lisp interpreter.
132.jpeg	2400	Imaging	Performs jpeg image compression with various parameters.
134.perl	1900	Shell interpreter	Performs text and numeric manipulations (anagrams/prime number factoring).
147.vortex	2700	Database	Builds and manipulates three interrelated databases.

# SPEC FP 95 Benchmark Descriptions

<u>Ben chmark</u>	<u>Ref Time (Sec)</u>	<u>Application Area</u>	<u>Specific Task</u>
101.tomcatv	3700	Fluid Dynamics / Geometric Translation	Generation of a two-dimensional boundary-fitted coordinate system around general geometric domains.
102.swim	8600	Weather Prediction	Solves shallow water equations using finite difference approximations. (The only single precision benchmark in CFP95.)
103.su2cor	1400	Quantum Physics	Masses of elementary particles are computed in the Quark-Gluon theory.
104.hydro2d	2400	Astrophysics	Hydrodynamical Navier Stokes equations are used to compute galactic jets.
107.mgrid	2500	Electromagnetism	Calculation of a 3D potential field.
110.applu	2200	Fluid Dynamics/Math	Solves matrix system with pivoting.
125.turb3d	4100	Simulation	Simulates turbulence in a cubic area.
141.apsi	2100	Weather Predication	Calculates statistics on temperature and pollutants in a grid.
145.fpppp	9600	Chemistry	Performs multi-electron derivatives.
146.wave	3000	Electromagnetics	Solve's Maxwell's eqn on cartesian mesh.

# New SPEC Int 2000 Benchmarks

164.gzip	C	Compression
175.vpr	C	FPGA Circuit Placement and Routing
176.gcc	C	C Programming Language Compiler
181.mcf	C	Combinatorial Optimization
186.crafty	C	Game Playing: Chess
197.parser	C	Word Processing
252.eon	C++	Computer Visualization
253.perlbmk	C	PERL Programming Language
254.gap	C	Group Theory, Interpreter
255.vortex	C	Object-oriented Database
256.bzip2	C	Compression
300.twolf	C	Place and Route Simulator

# New SPEC FP 2000 Benchmarks

168.wupwise	Fortran 77	Physics / Quantum Chromodynamics
171.swim	Fortran 77	Shallow Water Modeling
172.mgrid	Fortran 77	Multi-grid Solver: 3D Potential Field
173.applu	Fortran 77	Parabolic / Elliptic Partial Differential Equations
177.mesa	C	3-D Graphics Library
178.galgel	Fortran 90	Computational Fluid Dynamics
179.art	C	Image Recognition / Neural Networks
183.quake	C	Seismic Wave Propagation Simulation
187.facerec	Fortran 90	Image Processing: Face Recognition
188.amp	C	Computational Chemistry
189.lucas	Fortran 90	Number Theory / Primality Testing
191.fma3d	Fortran 90	Finite-element Crash Simulation
200.sixtrack	Fortran 77	High Energy Nuclear Physics Accelerator Design
301.apsi	Fortran 77	Meteorology: Pollutant Distribution

# SPEC benchmarks   Server Benchmarks

- ❑ SPECrate--processing rate of a multiprocessor
  - SPEC CPU2000—throughput-oriented benchmark
  - SPECrate—processing rate of a multiprocessor
  - SPECintbase--file server benchmark
  - SPECintbase--Web server benchmark
  - Transaction-processing (TP) benchmarks
  - TPC benchmark—Transaction Processing Council
    - TPC-A, 1985
    - TPC-C, 1992,
    - TPC-H → TPC-R → TPC-W

# SPEC benchmarks   Embedded Benchmarks

- ❑ EDN Embedded Microprocessor Benchmark Consortium (or **EEMBC**, pronounced “embassy”).

Benchmark type	Number of kernels	Example benchmarks
Automotive/industrial	16	6 microbenchmarks (arithmetic operations, pointer chasing, memory performance, matrix arithmetic, table lookup, bit manipulation), 5 automobile control benchmarks, and 5 filter or FFT benchmarks
Consumer	5	5 multimedia benchmarks (JPEG compress/decompress, filtering, and RGB conversions)
Networking	3	Shortest-path calculation, IP routing, and packet flow operations
Office automation	4	Graphics and text benchmarks (Bézier curve calculation, dithering, image rotation, text processing)
Telecommunications	6	Filtering and DSP benchmarks (autocorrelation, FFT, decoder, encoder)

# Running Benchmarks

- ❑ Key factor: **Reproducibility** by other experimenters.
- ❑ **Details, details, and more details !!!** List all assumptions and conditions of your experiments.
  - i.e. program input, version of the program, version of the compiler, optimization level, OS version, main memory size, disk types, etc.
- ❑ A system's **software configuration** can significantly affect the performance results for a benchmark.

# Comparing Two Machines

Machine	CPI	Clock Period	Avg Instruction Time (secs)
Machine A	1.2	2 ns	
Machine B	2.5	1 ns	

- ❑ CPU Time = # of instructions executed \* avg instruction time
- ❑ Assume 1,000,000, 000 instructions
- ❑ Machine A:  $1,000,000,000 * 2.4\text{ns} = 2.4 \text{ seconds}$
- ❑ Machine B:  $1,000,000,000 * 2.5\text{ns} = 2.5 \text{ seconds}$
- ❑ Which machine is faster? **Machine A**
- ❑ How much faster?  $2.5 / 2.4 = 1.04 \text{ times faster}$



# Comparing Performance

- Often, we want to compare the performance of different machines or different programs. Why?
  - To help engineers understand which is “better”
  - To give marketing a “silver bullet” for the press release
  - To help customers understand why they should buy <my machine>
- 
- Performance and Execution time are *reciprocals*  
Maximizing performance means minimizing response (execution) time

$$\text{Performance} = \frac{1}{\text{Execution Time}}$$

# Common used phrases

- ❑ “Performance of  $P_1$  is better than  $P_2$ ” is, for a given work load  $L$ ,  $P_1$  takes less time to execute  $L$  than  $P_2$  does

performance( $P_1$ ) > Performance( $P_2$ )

$\Rightarrow$  Execution Time( $P_1$ ,  $L$ ) < Execution Time( $P_2$ ,  $L$ )

- ❑ “Processor  $X$  is  $n$  times fast than  $Y$ ” is

$$n = \frac{\text{Execution time}_Y}{\text{Execution time}_X}$$



# Comparing Performance Across Multiple Programs

	<u>Computer A</u>	<u>Computer B</u>	<u>Computer C</u>
Program 1 (secs)	1	10	20
Program 2 (secs)	1000	100	20
Program 3 (secs)	1001	110	40

- A is 10 times faster than B for program 1
- B is 10 times faster than A for program 2
- A is 20 times faster than C for program 1
- C is 50 times faster than A for program 2
- B is 2 times faster than C for program 1
- C is 5 times faster than B for program 2

❑ Each statement above is correct...,

...but we want to know **which machine is the best?**

# Let's Try a Simpler Example

## ❑ Two machines timed on two benchmarks

- How much faster is Machine A than Machine B?

	<u>Machine A</u>	<u>Machine B</u>
Program 1	2 seconds	4 seconds
Program 2	12 seconds	8 seconds

## ❑ Attempt 1: ratio of run times, normalized to Machine A times

- program1:  $4/2$  program2 :  $8/12$
- Machine A ran 2 times faster on program 1,  $2/3$  times faster on program 2
- On **average**, Machine A is  $(2 + 2/3) / 2 = 4/3$  times faster than Machine B

## ❑ It turns this “**averaging**” stuff can fool us

# Example: Second answer

## ❑ Two machines timed on two benchmarks

- How much faster is Machine A than Machine B?

	<u>Machine A</u>	<u>Machine B</u>
Program 1	2 seconds	4 seconds
Program 2	12 seconds	8 seconds

## ❑ Attempt 2: ratio of run times, normalized to Machine B times

- program 1:  $2/4$  program 2 :  $12/8$
- Machine A ran program 1 in  $1/2$  the time and program 2 in  $3/2$  the time
- On average,  $(1/2 + 3/2) / 2 = 1$
- Put another way, Machine A is **1.0 times faster** than Machine B

# Example: Third answer

## ❑ Two machines timed on two benchmarks

- How much faster is Machine A than Machine B?

	<u>Machine A</u>	<u>Machine B</u>
Program 1	2 seconds	4 seconds
Program 2	12 seconds	8 seconds

## ❑ Attempt 3: ratio of run times, aggregate (total sum) times,

- Machine A took **14** seconds for both programs
- Machine B took **12** seconds for both programs
- Therefore, Machine A takes  $14/12$  of the time of Machine B
- Put another way, Machine A is  **$6/7$  faster** than Machine B

# Which is Right?

## ❑ Question:

- How can we get **three different answers**?

## ❑ Solution

- Because, while they are all **reasonable** calculations...
- **...each answers a *different* question**

- ❑ We need to be more precise in understanding and posing these performance & metric questions

# Arithmetic and Harmonic

## □ Total Execution Time: A Consistent Summary Measure

- **Arithmetic mean** is the average of the execution time that tracks total execution time.

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Time_i$$

- If performance is expressed as a **rate**, then the average that tracks total execution time is the **harmonic mean**

$$\frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{Rate_i}}$$



# Problems with Arithmetic

- ❑ Applications do not have the same **probability** of being run
- ❑ Longer programs weigh more heavily in the average
- ❑ For example, two machines timed on two benchmarks

	<u>Machine A</u>	<u>Machine B</u>
<b>Program 1</b>	<b>2 seconds (20%)</b>	<b>4 seconds (20%)</b>
<b>Program 2</b>	<b>12 seconds (80%)</b>	<b>8 seconds (80%)</b>

- ❑ If we do arithmetic mean, Program 2 “counts more” than Program 1
  - an improvement in Program 2 changes the average more than a proportional improvement in Program 1
- ❑ But perhaps Program 1 is 4 times more likely to run than Program 2

# Weighted Execution Time

- Often, one runs some programs more often than others. Therefore, we should **weight** the more frequently used programs' execution time

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \text{Weight}_i \times \text{Time}_i$$

- **Weighted** Harmonic Mean

$$\frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\text{Weight}_i}{\text{Rate}_i}}$$

# Using a Weighted Sum or weighted average

	<u>Machine A</u>	<u>Machine B</u>
Program 1	2 seconds (20%)	4 seconds (20%)
Program 2	12 seconds (80%)	8 seconds (80%)
Total	10 seconds	7.2 seconds

Allows us to determine relative performance

$$10/7.2 = 1.38$$

--> Machine B is **1.38** times faster than Machine A

# Another Solution

- ❑ Normalize run time of each program to a reference

	<b><u>Machine A (ref)</u></b>	<b><u>Machine B</u></b>
Program 1	2 seconds	4 seconds
Program 2	12 seconds	8 seconds
Total	10 seconds	7.2 seconds

	<b><u>Machine A (norm to B)</u></b>	<b><u>Machine B (norm to A)</u></b>
Program 1	0.5	2.0
Program 2	1.5	0.666
Average?	1.0	1.333

- ❑ So when we normalize A to B, and average, it looks like A & B are the same.
- ❑ But when we normalize B to A, it looks like B is 33% better!

# Example

	Programs			Weightings		
	A	B	C	W(1)	W(2)	W(3)
Program P1 (secs)	1.00	10.00	20.00	0.50	0.909	0.999
Program P2 (secs)	1000.00	100.00	20.00	0.50	0.091	0.001
Arithmetic mean: W(1)	500.50	55.00	20.00			
Arithmetic mean: W(2)	91.91	18.19	20.00			
Arithmetic mean: W(3)	2.00	10.09	20.00			

$$W(B)_1 = \frac{1}{10 \times (1/10 + 1/100)} = 0.909$$

$$W(B)_2 = \frac{1}{100 \times (1/10 + 1/100)} = 0.091$$

Equal-time weighting

$$W_i = \frac{1}{\text{Time}_i \times \sum_{j=1}^n \left( \frac{1}{\text{Time}_j} \right)}$$

# Geometric Mean

- ❑ Used for relative rate or performance numbers

$$\sqrt[n]{\prod_{i=1}^n \text{Relative\_Rate}_i} = \frac{\sqrt[n]{\prod_{i=1}^n \text{Rate}_i}}{\text{Rate}_{ref}}$$

- ❑ Geometric mean's nice property

- $\frac{\text{Geometric mean}(X_i)}{\text{Geometric mean}(Y_i)} = \text{Geometric mean}\left(\frac{X_i}{Y_i}\right)$

# Using Geometric Mean

	<b>Machine A (norm to B)</b>	<b>Machine B (norm to A)</b>
Program 1	0.5	2.0
Program 2	1.5	0.666
Geometric Mean	0.866	1.155

$$1.155 = 1/0.8666!$$

## ❑ Drawback:

- Geometric mean does **NOT** predict run time

## ❑ Normalizes.

- Each application now counts equally.
- **Advantage:** Irrelevance of the reference computer in relative performance

# Summary of comparing performance

- ❑ **Total execution time or arithmetic mean**
  - **consistent** result
  - programs in the workload are **NOT** always run an equal number of times
- ❑ **Weighted arithmetic mean**
  - take into account the frequency of use in the workload
  - solution **depends on which machine is the reference.**
- ❑ **Normalized Geometric Mean---SPEC Ratio**
  - **consistent** result, no matter which machine is the reference.
  - Geometric mean does **NOT predict run time**
- ❑ **Ideal solution : Measure a real workload and weight the programs according to their frequency of execution.**
- ❑ **What really matters is how YOUR application performs**



# New SPEC Performance Numbers

- ❑ Geometric Mean of 12 (SpecInt) and 14 (SpecFP) Benchmarks
  - Performance measured against SPARC 10/40
- ❑ 2000 Performance Numbers (Microprocessor Report, Dec. 2000)

	Alpha 21264B 833MHz	Intel PentiumIII 1GHz	MIPS R12000 400MHz	HP PA-8600 552MHz	IBM Power 3-II 450MHz	Sun Ultra III 900MHz
Int	518	454	320	417	286	438
FP	590	329	319	400	356	369

# New SPEC Performance Numbers

- ❑ Geometric Mean of 12 (SpecInt) and 14 (SpecFP) Benchmarks
  - Performance measured against SPARC 10/40
- ❑ 2001 Performance Numbers (Microprocessor Report, Aug. 2001)

	Alpha 21264C 1001MHz	Intel P4 1.8GHz	MIPS R14000 500MHz	HP PA-8600 552MHz	IBM Power 3-II 450MHz	Sun Ultra III 900MHz
Int	561	599	397	417	286	439
FP	585	615	362	400	356	369

# Topics in Chapter

- 1.1 Why take this course ?
- 1.2 Classes of computers in current computer market
- 1.3 Defining computer architecture and What's the task of computer design?
- 1.4 Trends in Technology
- 1.5 Trends in power in Integrated circuits
- 1.6 Trends in Cost
- 1.7 Dependability
- 1.8 Measuring, Reporting and summarizing Perf.
- 1.9 Quantitative Principles of computer Design**
- 1.10 Putting it altogether

# 1.9 Quantitative Principles

- ❑ Take advantage of parallelism
- ❑ Principle of Locality
- ❑ Focus on the common case
- ❑ Amdahl's Law
- ❑ CPU Performance Equation

# Take advantage of parallelism

❑ Most important methods of improving performance

❑ Parallelism levels

➤ System level: use multiple processors

➤ Instruction level:

- Pipelining

➤ Operation level:

- set-associate cache

- Pipelined function unit



Any other examples ?

# Principle of Locality

Any example ?

❑ Program Property: Programs tend to reuse data and instructions they have used recently.

❑ Rule of thumb:

- a program spends 90% of its execution time in only 10% of the code.

❑ Temporal locality

- Recently accessed items are likely to be accessed in the near future.

❑ Spatial locality

- Items whose addresses are near one another tend to be referenced close together in time.

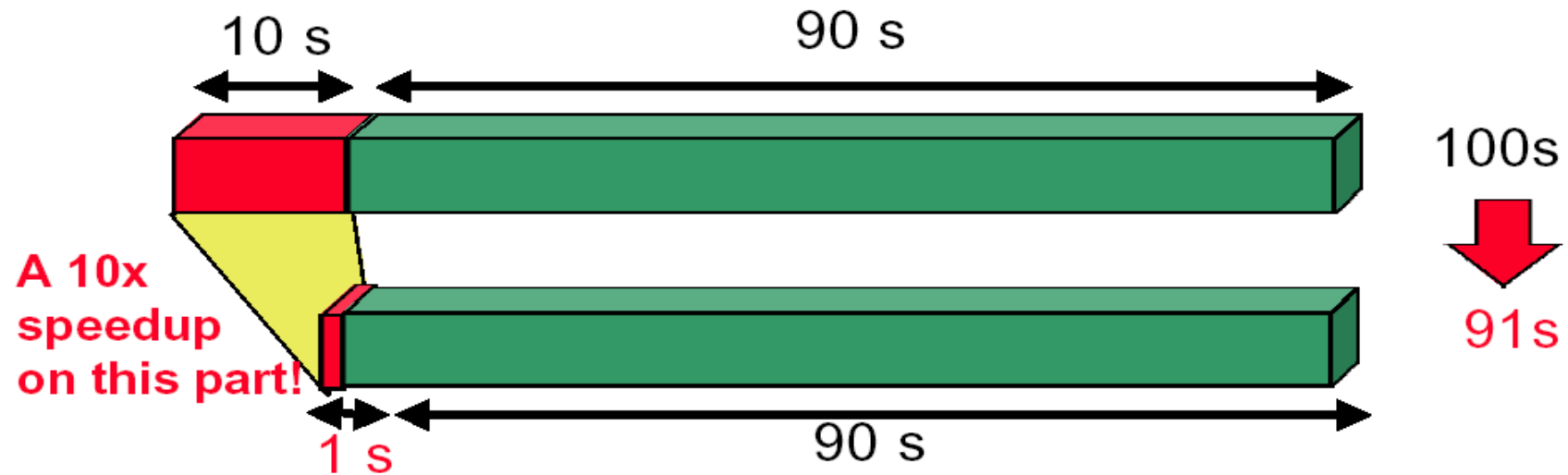
# Focus on the common case

- ❑ The most important and pervasive principle of computer design.
  - Power, resource allocation, performance, dependability.
  - Rule of thumb: **simple is fast.**
  - **Frequent case is often simpler and can be done faster.**
- ❑ A fundamental law, called *Amdahl's Law*, can be used to quantify this principle.

# Amdahl's Law

❑ The performance improvement to be gained from using some faster mode of execution is limited by the fraction of the time the faster mode can be used.

❑ Example





# Amdahl's law

Execution time after improvement =

$$\frac{\text{Execution time affected by the improvement}}{\text{Amount of improvement}}$$

+ Execution time unaffected

- Increasing the clock rate would not affect memory access time
- Using a floating point processing unit does not speed integer ALU operations

# Amdahl's law

- Amdahl's law defines the **speedup**

$$\text{Speedup} = \frac{\text{Performance with enhancement}}{\text{Performance without enhancement}} = \frac{\text{Execution time w/o enhancement}}{\text{Execution time with enhancement}}$$

- If we know two factors:

- **Fraction enhanced** : Fraction of computation time in original machine that can be converted to take advantage of the enhancement.
- **Speedup enhanced in enhanced mode** : Improvement gained by enhanced execution mode:

$$\text{Exec time}_{new} = \text{Exec time}_{old} \times \left( (1 - \text{Fraction}_{enhanced}) + \frac{\text{Fraction}_{enhanced}}{\text{Speedup}_{enhanced}} \right)$$

# Speedup Equation

$$Speedup_{overall} = \frac{ExecTime_{old}}{ExecTime_{new}} = \frac{1}{\left( (1 - Fraction_{enhanced}) + \frac{Fraction_{enhanced}}{Speedup_{enhanced}} \right)}$$

## □ Example:

- A server system with an enhanced CPU( 10 times faster than the original one) used for Web serving. Assuming the original CPU is busy with computation 40% of the time and is waiting for I/O 60% of the time.

## □ Answer:

- $Fraction_{enhanced} = 0.4$ ,  $Speedup_{enhanced} = 10$
- $Speedup = \frac{1}{0.6 + \frac{0.4}{10}} = \frac{1}{0.64} = 1.56$

# Another Example

- ❑ Implementations of floating-point (FP) square root vary significantly in performance
- ❑ Two enhancement proposal
  - One proposal is to **enhance the FPSQR hardware** and speed up this operation by a factor of 10.
  - The alternative is just to try to make **all FP instructions** in the graphics processor run faster by a factor of 1.6;
- ❑ Assuming
  - FP square root (FPSQR) is responsible for **20%** of the execution time of a critical graphics benchmark.
  - FP instructions are responsible for a total of **50%** of the execution time for the application.
  - The design team believes that they do both enhancement with the same effort.
- ❑ Compare these two design alternatives.

# Solution of the example

$$\text{Speedup}_{\text{HPSQR}} = \frac{1}{(1 - 0.2) + \frac{0.2}{10}} = \frac{1}{0.82} = 1.22$$

$$\text{Speedup}_{\text{FP}} = \frac{1}{(1 - 0.5) + \frac{0.5}{1.6}} = \frac{1}{0.8125} = 1.23$$

# Example for dependability-1

□ Given:

$$\text{➤ Failure rate}_{\text{system}} = 10 \cdot 1/1000,000 + 1/500,000 + 1/200,000 + 1/100,000$$

$$= \frac{10 + 2 + 5 + 5 + 1}{1,000,000}$$

$$= 23000/1000,000,000$$

$$\text{So, Power failure\%} = 5/23 = 0.22$$

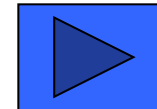
## Example for dependability-2

□ Reliability of the power supply can be improved via redundancy:

➤ 200000 → 830,000,000 ~ 4150X      5/23

□ Reliability improvement

$$= \frac{1}{(1-0.22) + 0.22/4150} = 1.28$$



# What the Amdahl's Law imply ?

- ❑ If an enhancement is only usable for a fraction of task, then the total speedup will be **no more than  $1/(1-F)$** .
- ❑ Serve the guide
  - to **how much** an enhancement will improve performance
  - to how to **distribute resource** to improve cost-performance
- ❑ Useful for comparing
  - the overall system performance of two alternatives,
  - two CPU design alternatives
- ❑ We can improve the performance by
  - **increasing the Fraction<sub>enhanced</sub>**
  - **or, increasing the Speedup<sub>enhanced</sub>**



# The CPU Performance Equation

## ❑ The “Iron Law” of processor performance:

- Often it is difficult to measure the improvement in time using a new enhancement directly.

## ❑ CPU Performance Equation

$$\text{CPU time} = \text{CPU clock cycles for a program} \times \text{Clock cycle time}$$

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

# Calculation of CPU Time

CPU time = Instruction count  $\times$  CPI  $\times$  Clock cycle time

Or 
$$\text{CPU time} = \frac{\text{Instruction count} \times \text{CPI}}{\text{Clock rate}}$$

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

**Architecture --> Implementation --> Realization**

**Compiler Designer Processor Designer Chip Designer**

Component of performance	Units of measure
CPU execution time for a program	Seconds for the program
Instruction count	Instructions executed for the program
Clock cycles per instructions (CPI)	Average number of clock cycles/instruction
Clock cycle time	Seconds per clock cycle

# Related technologies

- ❑ CPU performance is dependent upon 3 characteristics:
  - clock cycle (or rate) ( CCT )
  - clock cycles per instruction ( CPI )
  - instruction count. ( IC )

	Inst Count	CPI	Clock Rate
<b>Program</b>	<b>X</b>		
<b>Compiler</b>	<b>X</b>	<b>(X)</b>	
<b>Inst. Set.</b>	<b>X</b>	<b>X</b>	
<b>Organization</b>		<b>X</b>	<b>X</b>
<b>Technology</b>			<b>X</b>

- ❑ One difficulty: It is difficult to change one in isolation of the others.

# Other format of CPU Performance Equation

$$\text{CPU clock cycles} = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{IC}_i \times \text{CPI}_i$$

$$\text{CPU time} = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \text{IC}_i \times \text{CPI}_i \right) \times \text{Clock cycle time}$$

$$\text{CPI} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \text{IC}_i \times \text{CPI}_i}{\text{Instruction count}} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\text{IC}_i}{\text{Instruction count}} \times \text{CPI}_i$$

# Example of CPUtime calculation

- ❑ Suppose we have made the following measurements:
  - Frequency of FP operations (other than FPSQR) = 25%
  - Average CPI of FP operations = 4.0
  - Average CPI of other instructions = 1.33
  - Frequency of FPSQR = 2%
  - CPI of FPSQR = 20
- ❑ Two design alternatives
  - decrease the CPI of FPSQR to 2
  - decrease the average CPI of all FP operations to 2.5.
- ❑ Compare these two design alternatives using the CPU performance equation.

# Answer to the question

$$\begin{aligned}\text{CPI}_{\text{original}} &= \sum_{i=1}^n \text{CPI}_i \times \left( \frac{\text{IC}_i}{\text{Instruction count}} \right) \\ &= (4 \times 25\%) + (1.33 \times 75\%) = 2.0\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{CPI}_{\text{with new FPSQR}} &= \text{CPI}_{\text{original}} - 2\% \times (\text{CPI}_{\text{old FPSQR}} - \text{CPI}_{\text{of new FPSQR only}}) \\ &= 2.0 - 2\% \times (2.0 - 2) = 1.64\end{aligned}$$

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

- ❑ Since the CPI of the overall FP enhancement is slightly lower, its performance will be marginally better.

# Compare the result with that from Amdahl's law

□ This is the same speedup we obtained using Amdahl's Law:

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

- ❑ Suppose that there are four types of operations in an application. After making enhancements to the original function units, each type of operation gains performance improvement as shown in the following table.

Operation Type	IC (total 100)	CPI before enhancement	CPI after enhancement
Op1	10	2	1
Op2	30	20	15
Op3	35	10	3
Op4	25	4	1

- 1) What's the enhanced speedup of each operation respectively after improving?
- 2) What's the overall speedup of the application respectively after only improving Op2 or Op4?

❑ Hint: Calculate the overall speedup considering only one of the enhanced function units is used. There are 2 situations.



# Performance & price-performance

## ❑ Factors that responsible for the wide variation in price

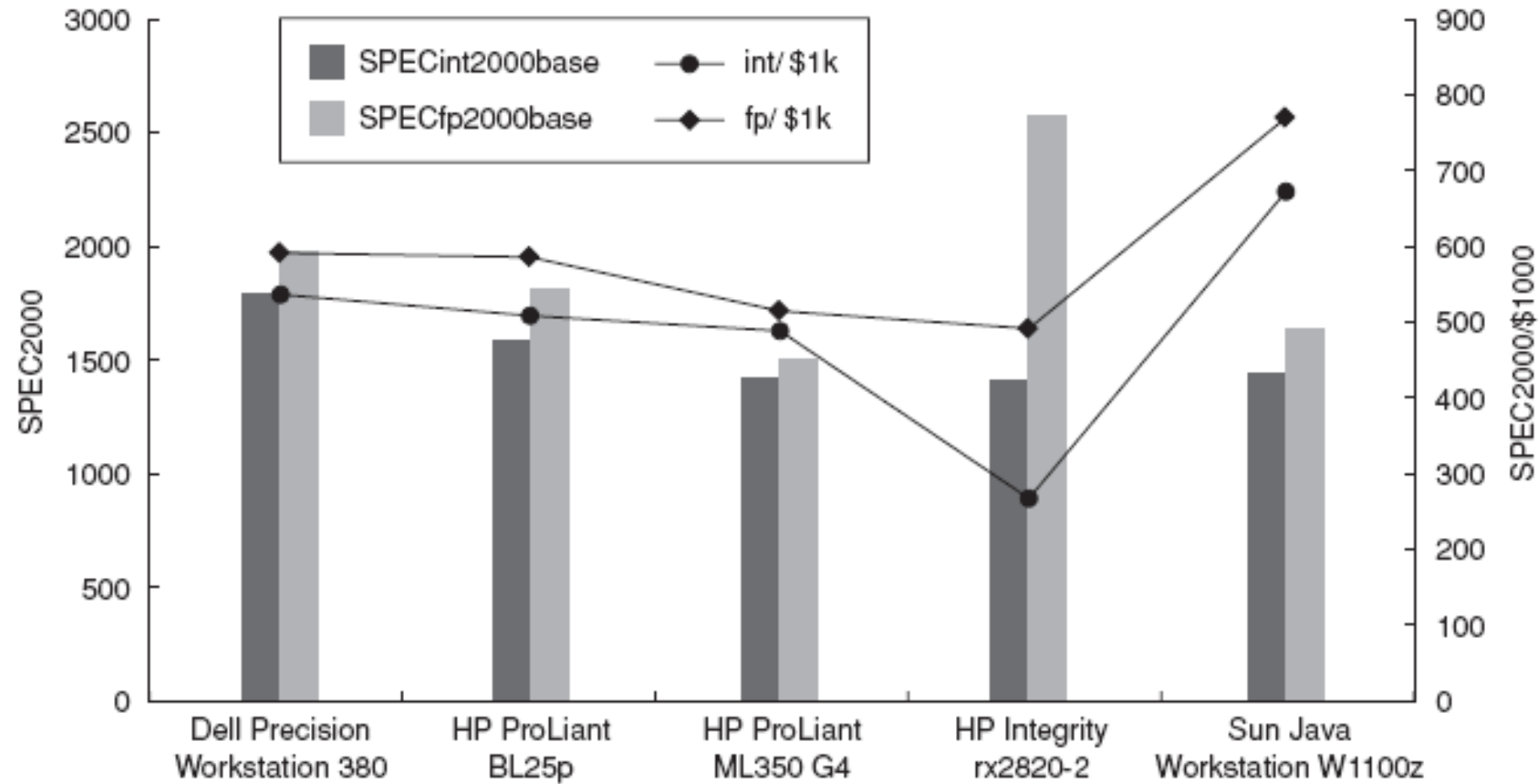
- Different levels of expandability
- Use of cheaper disks and cheaper memory
- Cost of CPU varies
- Software differences
- Lower-end system use PC commodity parts in fans, power supply, support chip sets
- Commoditization effect

# Five desktop and rack-mountable systems

Vendor/model	Processor	Clock rate	L2 cache	Type	Price
Dell Precision Workstation 380	Intel Pentium 4 Xeon	3.8 GHz	2 MB	Desk	\$3346
HP ProLiant BL25p	AMD Opteron 252	2.6 GHz	1 MB	Rack	\$3099
HP ProLiant ML350 G4	Intel Pentium 4 Xeon	3.4 GHz	1 MB	Desk	\$2907
HP Integrity rx2620-2	Itanium 2	1.6 GHz	3 MB	Rack	\$5201
Sun Java Workstation W1100z	AMD Opteron 150	2.4 GHz	1 MB	Desk	\$2145

- 1GB ECC SDRAM, 80GB disk
- Expandability(可扩展性):
  - Sun Java worktation < Dell < HP BL25p
- Cost of processor: die size, L2 cache, clock rate, cache size
- Software difference

# Price-performance



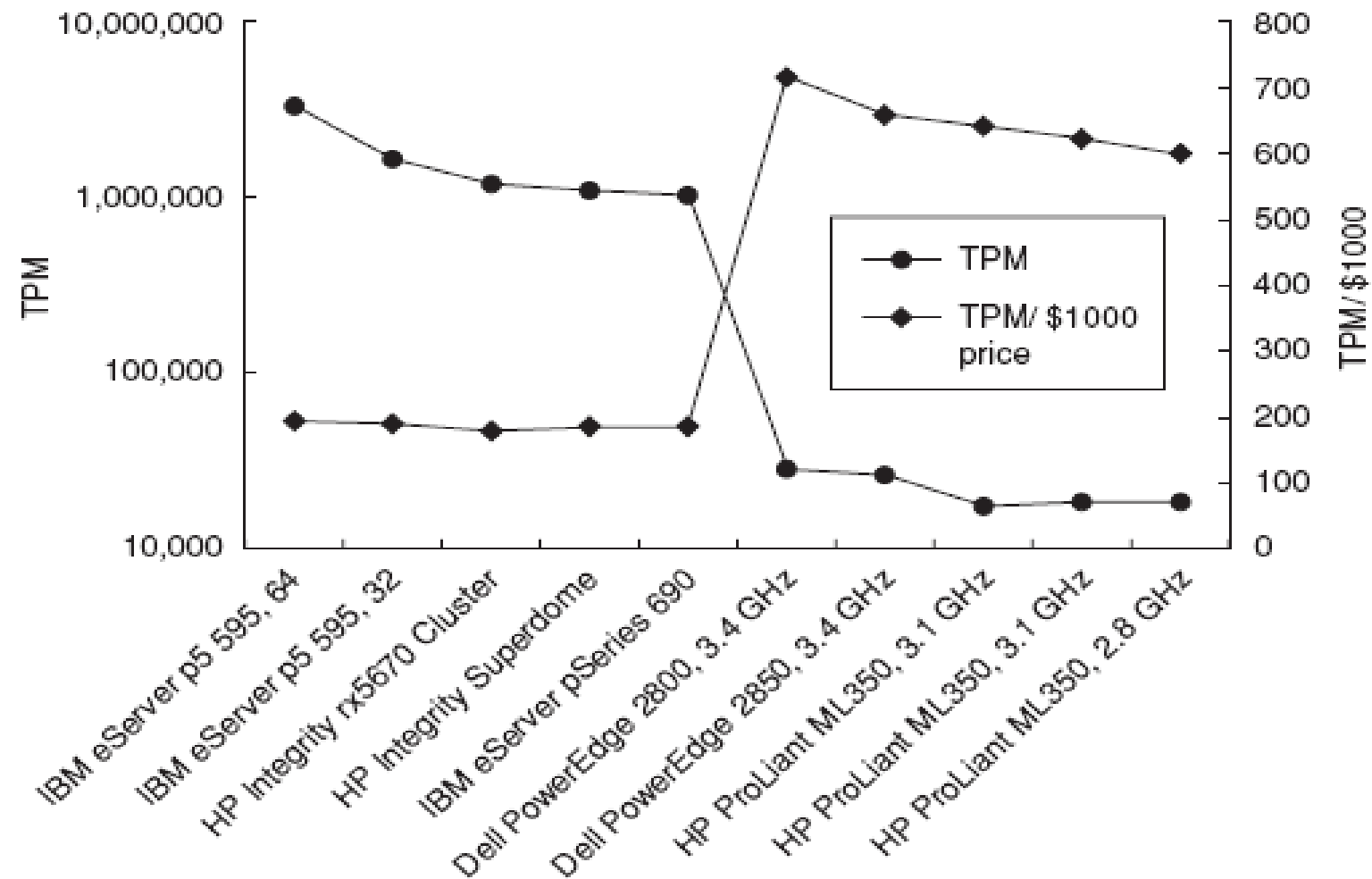
# Measurements-1

## ❑ For Servers

TPC-C : standard industry benchmark for OLTP

- Reasonable approximation
- Measure total system performance
- Rules of measurement are very complete
- Vendors devote significant effort
- Report both performance & price-performance

# Price-performance TPC-C 2005.7



# TPC-C & TPC-E

## ❑ TPC(TransactionProcessing PerformanceCouncil)

- 10 members <http://www.tpc.org>

## ❑ TPC-C:

- benchmark for OnLine Transaction Processing
- simulates a complete environment where a population of terminal operators executes transactions against a database

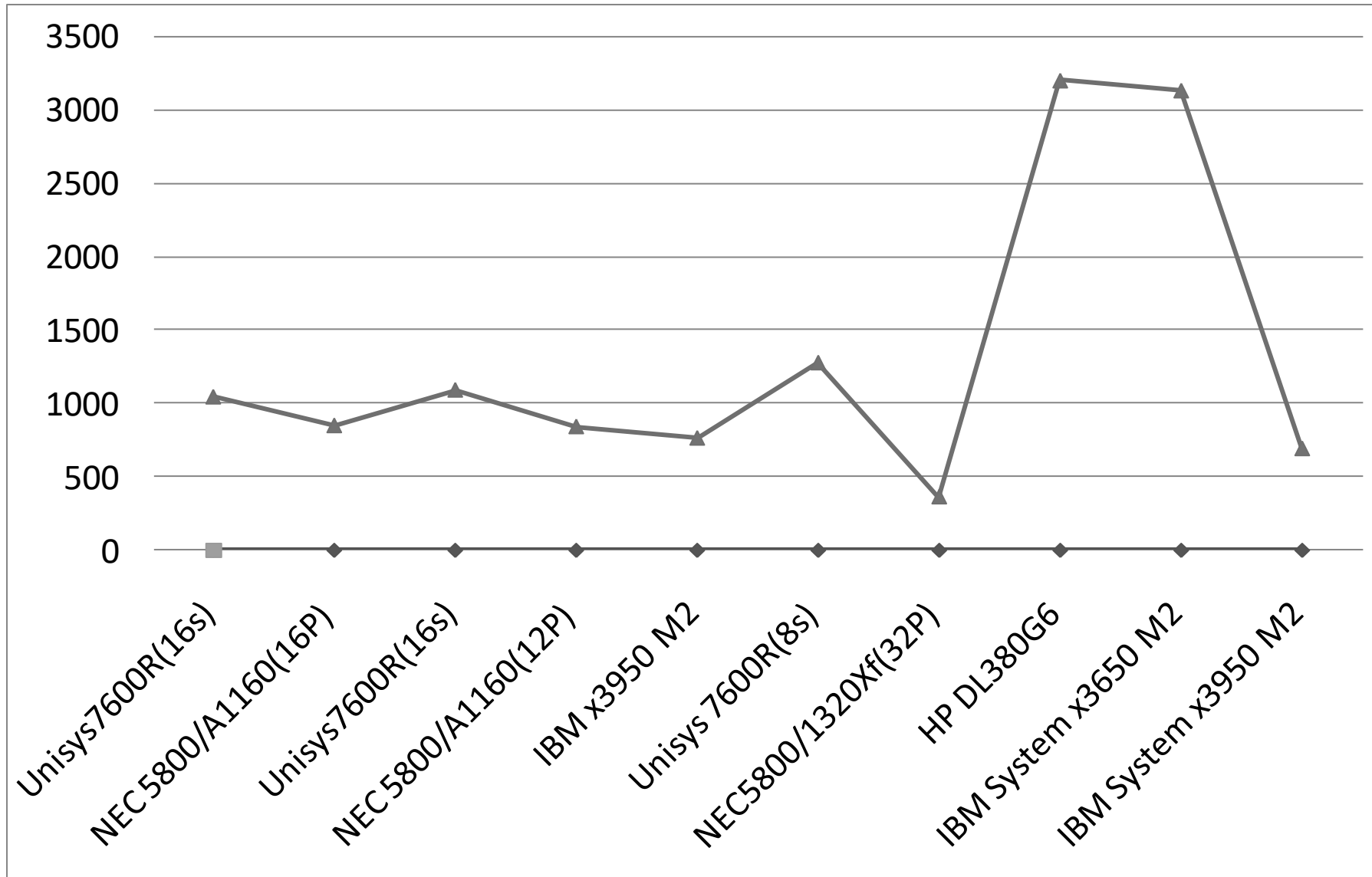
## ❑ TPC-E

- simulates the OLTP workload of a brokerage firm

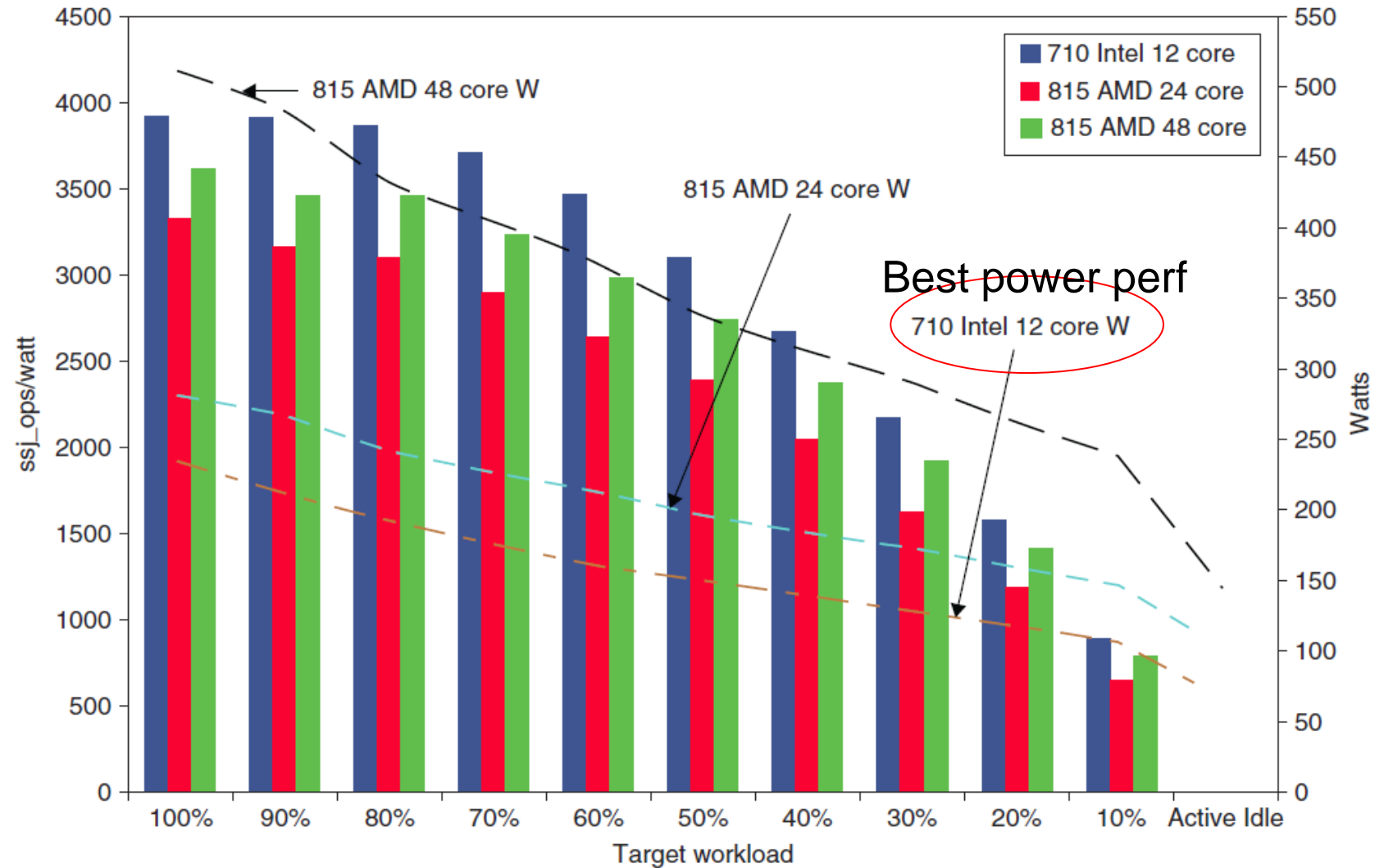
## ❑ TPC-C&TPC-E

- [http://www.searchsv.com.cn/showcontent\\_13524.htm](http://www.searchsv.com.cn/showcontent_13524.htm)

# tpsE & tpsE/100000



# Power performance for 3 servers





# Fallacies & pitfalls

## ❑ Pitfall(易犯的错误):

- Falling prey to Amdahl's Law.
  - Not to try to improve some unit of small F
- A single point of failure
  - An example of dependability
  - Don't forget **the single fan** !

**Fallacy1** : the cost of the processor dominates the cost of the system.

	Processor + cabinetry	Memory	Storage	Software
IBM eServer p5 595	28%	16%	51%	6%
IBM eServer p5 595	13%	31%	52%	4%
HP Integrity rx5670 Cluster	11%	22%	35%	33%
HP Integrity Superdome	33%	32%	15%	20%
IBM eServer pSeries 690	21%	24%	48%	7%
<b>Median of high-performance computers</b>	21%	24%	48%	7%
Dell PowerEdge 2800	6%	3%	80%	11%
Dell PowerEdge 2850	7%	3%	76%	14%
HP ProLiant ML350	5%	4%	70%	21%
HP ProLiant ML350	9%	8%	65%	19%
HP ProLiant ML350	8%	6%	65%	21%
<b>Median of price-performance computers</b>	7%	4%	70%	19%

# Fallacy

- ❑ Benchmarks remain valid indefinitely
  - “Benchmarksmanship” “benchmark engineering”
- ❑ The rated mean time to failure of the disks is 1200000 hours or almost 140 years, so disks practically never fail.
  - Real-world MTTF is about 2-4 times worse than manufacturer’s MTTF for ATA disks, 4-8 times worse for SCSI disks  
( ATA: AT Attachment )  
SCSI: Small Computer System Interface )
- ❑ Peak performance tracks observed performance.