

### Instruction Set Architecture

- Class of ISA
  - General-purpose registers
  - Register-memory vs load-store
- RISC-V registers
  - 32 g.p., 32 f.p.

Register	Name	Use	Saver	Register	Name	Use	Saver
				x9	s1	saved	callee
x0	zero	constant 0	n/a	x10-x17	a0-a7	arguments	caller
x1	ra	return addr	caller	x18-x27	s2-s11	saved	callee
x2	sp	stack ptr	callee	x28-x31	t3-t6	temporaries	caller
x3	gp	gbl ptr		f0-f7	fp0-fp7	FP temps	caller
x4	tp	thread ptr		f8-f9	fs0-fs1	FP saved	callee
x5-x7	t0-t2	temporaries	caller	f10-f17	fa0-fa7	FP arguments	callee
x8	s0/fp	saved/ frame ptr	callee	f18-f27	fs2-fs21	FP saved	callee
				f28-f31	ft8-ft11	FP temps	caller

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### Instruction Set Architecture

- Memory addressing
  - RISC-V: byte addressed, aligned accesses faster
- Addressing modes
  - RISC-V: Register, immediate, displacement (base+offset)
  - Other examples: autoincrement, indexed, PC-relative
- Types and size of operands
  - RISC-V: 8-bit, 32-bit, 64-bit

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### Instruction Set Architecture

- Operations
  - RISC-V: data transfer, arithmetic, logical, control, floating point
  - See Fig. 1.5 in text
- Control flow instructions
  - Use content of registers (RISC-V) vs. status bits (x86, ARMv7, ARMv8)
  - Return address in register (RISC-V, ARMv7, ARMv8) vs. on stack (x86)
- Encoding
  - Fixed (RISC-V, ARMv7/v8 except compact instruction set) vs. variable length (x86)

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**Trends in Technology**

- The architect must take technology changes into consideration.
- Technology changes very rapidly, architecture changes slowly (we are still using x86 compatible systems).
- Usually, the architecture you are designing now, will be used with “next technology”.

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**Trends in Technology**

- Integrated circuit technology (Moore’s Law)
  - Transistor density: 35%/year – Not any more (The end of Moore’s lay).
  - Die size: 10-20%/year
  - Integration overall: 40-55%/year
- DRAM capacity: 25-40%/year (slowing)
  - 8 Gb (2014), 16 Gb (2019), possibly no 32 Gb
- Flash capacity: 50-60%/year
  - Roughly doubling every 2 years
  - 8-10X cheaper/bit than DRAM
- Magnetic disk capacity: recently slowed to 5%/year
  - Density increases may no longer be possible, maybe increase from 7 to 9 platters
  - 8-10X cheaper/bit then Flash
  - 200-300X cheaper/bit than DRAM

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**Bandwidth and Latency**

- Bandwidth or throughput
  - Total work done in a given time
  - 32,000-40,000X improvement for processors
  - 300-1200X improvement for memory and disks
- Latency or response time
  - Time between start and completion of an event
  - 50-90X improvement for processors
  - 6-8X improvement for memory and disks

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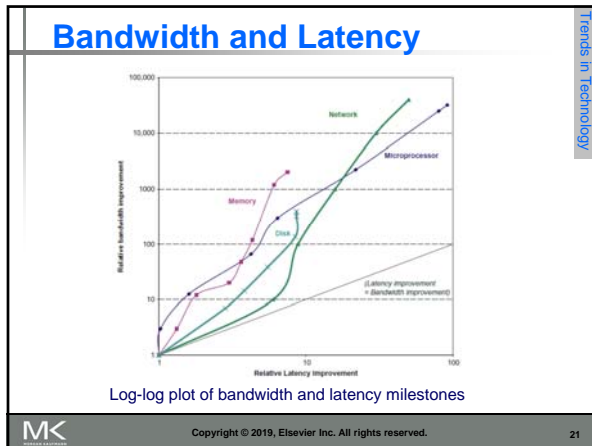
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- ### Transistors and Wires
- Feature size
    - Minimum size of transistor or wire in x or y dimension
    - 10 microns in 1971 to .011 microns in 2017
    - Transistor performance scales linearly
      - Wire delay does not improve with feature size!
    - Integration density scales quadratically
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- ### Power and Energy
- Problem: Get power in, get power out
  - Thermal Design Power (TDP)
    - Characterizes sustained power consumption
    - Used as target for power supply and cooling system
    - Lower than peak power (1.5X higher), higher than average power consumption
  - Clock rate can be reduced dynamically to limit power consumption
  - Energy per task is often a better measurement
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### Dynamic Energy and Power

- Dynamic energy
  - Transistor switch from 0 -> 1 or 1 -> 0
  - $\frac{1}{2} \times \text{Capacitive load} \times \text{Voltage}^2$
- Dynamic power
  - $\frac{1}{2} \times \text{Capacitive load} \times \text{Voltage}^2 \times \text{Frequency switched}$
- Reducing clock rate reduces power, not energy

Trends in Power and Energy

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### Dynamic Energy and Power

- Example:

Trends in Power and Energy

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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

Trends in Power and Energy

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### Reducing Power

- Techniques for reducing power:
  - Do nothing well
  - Dynamic Voltage-Frequency Scaling

The graph plots Power (% of peak) on the y-axis (0 to 100) against Compute load (%) on the x-axis (idle to 100). Three curves represent different frequencies: 1 GHz, 1.8 GHz, and 2.4 GHz. The 1 GHz curve shows the lowest power consumption, while the 2.4 GHz curve shows the highest. A secondary line represents DVS savings (%), which is highest at low compute loads and decreases as the load increases.

- Low power state for DRAM, disks
- Overclocking, turning off cores

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### Static Power

- Static power consumption
  - 25-50% of total power
  - $Current_{static} \times Voltage$
  - Scales with number of transistors
  - To reduce: power gating

Operation:	Energy (pJ)	Area ( $\mu m^2$ )
8b Add	0.03	36
16b Add	0.05	67
32b Add	0.1	137
16b FB Add	0.4	1360
32b FB Add	0.9	4184
8b Mult	0.2	282
32b Mult	3.1	3495
16b FB Mult	1.1	1640
32b FB Mult	3.7	7700
32b SRAM Read (9KB)	5	N/A
32b DRAM Read	640	N/A

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### Shift in Architecture

- Dark silicon: more silicon (devices) that could be powered at the same time.
- What to include in your design?
- Domain Specific Architecture: Do one thing really efficient

Operation:	Energy (pJ)	Area ( $\mu m^2$ )
8b Add	0.03	36
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Trends in Cost

## Trends in Cost

- Cost driven down by learning curve
  - Yield
- DRAM: price closely tracks cost
- Microprocessors: price depends on volume
  - 10% less for each doubling of volume
- Effect of “Commoditization”
  - Multiple vendors selling “*essentially*” the same product in large volume (low end computers).
  - Many suppliers compete for components
- Operational Expenses (WSC)

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Trends in Cost

## Integrated Circuit Cost

- Integrated circuit

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

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

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

- Bose-Einstein formula:  

$$\text{Die yield} = \text{Wafer yield} \times 1 / (1 + \text{Defects per unit area} \times \text{Die area})^N$$
- Defects per unit area = 0.016-0.057 defects per square cm (2010)
- N = process-complexity factor = 11.5-15.5 (40 nm, 2010)

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Dependability

## Dependability

- SLA guarantees a certain level of dependability/availability
- Module reliability
  - Mean time to failure (MTTF)
  - Mean time to repair (MTTR)
  - Mean time between failures (MTBF) = MTTF + MTTR
  - Availability = MTTF / MTBF
- Failure rate (FIT)=10<sup>9</sup>/MTTF (failure per billion hours of operation)

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## Cost of Unavailability -- Servers

Classes of Computers

Application	Cost of downtime per hour	Annual losses with downtime of		
		1% (87.6 h/year)	0.5% (43.8 h/year)	0.1% (8.8 h/year)
Brokerage service	\$4,000,000	\$350,400,000	\$175,200,000	\$35,000,000
Energy	\$1,750,000	\$153,300,000	\$76,700,000	\$15,300,000
Telecom	\$1,250,000	\$109,500,000	\$54,800,000	\$11,000,000
Manufacturing	\$1,000,000	\$87,600,000	\$43,800,000	\$8,800,000
Retail	\$650,000	\$56,900,000	\$28,500,000	\$5,700,000
Health care	\$400,000	\$35,000,000	\$17,500,000	\$3,500,000
Media	\$50,000	\$4,400,000	\$2,200,000	\$400,000

Figure 1.3 Costs rounded to nearest \$100,000 of an unavailable system are shown by analyzing the cost of downtime (in terms of immediately lost revenue), assuming three different levels of availability, and that downtime is distributed uniformly. These data are from Landstrom (2014) and were collected and analyzed by Contingency Planning Research.

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## Dependability

Dependability

- **Example**
  - 10 disks 1,000,000-hour MTTF
  - 1 ATA controller 500,000-hour MTTF
  - 1 Power supply 200,000-hour MTTF
  - 1 Fan 200,000-hour MTTF
  - 1 ATA cable 1,000,000-hour MTTF
- Assume lifetimes are exponentially distributed and failures are independent
- Calculate MTTF

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## Redundancy

Dependability

- Consider the previous example.
- 200,000 MTTF for power supplies
- What is the effect of adding one more power supply (system fails if both power supplies failed at the same time).

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### Measuring Performance

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

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### Reporting

- Many programs, how can we capture performance using a single number?

	P1	P2	P3
Machine-A	10	8	25
Machine-B	12	9	20
Machine-C	8	8	30

- Sum of execution time
- Sum of weighted execution time
- Geometric mean of execution time

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### Measuring Performance

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### Measuring Performance

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- Geometric mean of execution time

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### Measuring Performance

- Time = TC × CPI × IC
- Must be reproducible
- Complete description of the computer and compiler flags.
- Usually, compared to a standard machine execution time  
 $SPECRatioA = T_{ref}/T_A$
- Geometric mean

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### Measuring Performance

Benchmarks	Sun Ultra Enterprise 2 time (seconds)	AMD A10-6800K time (seconds)	SPEC 2006Cint ratio	Intel Xeon ES-2690 time (seconds)	SPEC 2006Cint ratio	AMD/Intel times (seconds)	Intel/AMD SPEC ratios
peribench	9770	401	24.36	261	37.43	1.54	1.54
bzip2	9650	505	19.11	422	22.87	1.20	1.20
gcc	8050	490	16.43	227	35.46	2.16	2.16
mcf	9120	249	36.63	153	59.61	1.63	1.63
gobmk	10,490	418	25.10	382	27.46	1.09	1.09
hmmer	9330	182	51.26	120	77.75	1.52	1.52
sjeng	12,100	517	23.40	383	31.59	1.35	1.35
libquantum	20,720	84	246.08	3	7295.77	29.65	29.65
h264ref	22,130	611	36.22	425	52.07	1.44	1.44
omnetpp	6250	313	19.97	153	40.85	2.05	2.05
astar	7020	303	23.17	209	33.59	1.45	1.45
xalanbmk	6900	215	32.09	98	70.41	2.19	2.19
<b>Geometric mean</b>			31.91		63.72	2.00	2.00

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**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

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

$$\text{Speedup}_{\text{overall}} = \frac{1}{(1 - \text{Fraction}_{\text{enhanced}}) + \frac{\text{Fraction}_{\text{enhanced}}}{\text{Speedup}_{\text{enhanced}}}}$$

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**Principles of Computer Design**

- The Processor Performance Equation

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

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

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

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

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

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**Principles of Computer Design**

- Different instruction types having different CPIs

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

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

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**Principles of Computer Design**

- Different instruction types having different CPIs

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

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

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**Fallacies and Pitfalls**

- All exponential laws must come to an end
  - Dennard scaling (constant power density)
    - Stopped by threshold voltage
  - Disk capacity
    - 30-100% per year to 5% per year
  - Moore's Law
    - Most visible with DRAM capacity
    - ITRS disbanded
    - Only four foundries left producing state-of-the-art logic chips
    - 11 nm, 3 nm might be the limit

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**Fallacies and Pitfalls**

- Microprocessors are a silver bullet
  - Performance is now a programmer's burden
- Falling prey to Amdahl's Law
- A single point of failure
- Hardware enhancements that increase performance also improve energy efficiency, or are at worst energy neutral
- Benchmarks remain valid indefinitely
  - Compiler optimizations target benchmarks

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**Fallacies and Pitfalls**

- The rated mean time to failure of disks is 1,200,000 hours or almost 140 years, so disks practically never fail
  - MTTF value from manufacturers assume regular replacement
- Peak performance tracks observed performance
- Fault detection can lower availability
  - Not all operations are needed for correct execution

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