COMPUTER ARCHITECTURE REVIEW

COMPUTER ABSTRACTIONS AND TECHNOLOGY

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Below Your Program

Hardware

• Processor, memory, I/O controllers

System software

- Compiler: translates HLL code to machine code
- Operating System: service code
 - Handling input/output
 - Managing memory and storage
 - Scheduling tasks & sharing resources

Application software

• Written in high-level language



Levels of Program Code

High-level language

- Level of abstraction closer to problem domain
- Provides for productivity and portability

Assembly language

• Textual representation of instructions

Hardware representation

- Binary digits (bits)
- Encoded instructions and data



Components of a Computer

Same components for all kinds of computer

• Desktop, server, embedded

Input/output includes

- User-interface devices
 - Display, keyboard, mouse
- Storage devices
 - Hard disk, CD/DVD, flash
- Network adapters
 - For communicating with other computers



ARITHMETIC FOR COMPUTERS

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Integer Addition

Example: 7 + 6



Overflow if result out of range

- Adding +ve and -ve operands, no overflow
- Adding two +ve operands
 - Overflow if result sign is 1
- Adding two -ve operands
 - Overflow if result sign is 0

Integer Subtraction

Add negation of second operand

Example: 7 - 6 = 7 + (-6)

+7: 0000 0000 ... 0000 0111 <u>-6: 1111 1111 ... 1111 1010</u> +1: 0000 0000 ... 0000 0001

Overflow if result out of range

- Subtracting two +ve or two -ve operands, no overflow
- Subtracting +ve from -ve operand
 - Overflow if result sign is 0
- Subtracting -ve from +ve operand
 - Overflow if result sign is 1

Representation of Negative Numbers

+ <i>N</i>	Positive Integers (all systems)		Negative Integers		
		-N	Sign and Magnitude	2's Complement N*	1's Complement <i>N</i>
+0	0000	-0	1000		1111
+1	0001	-1	1001	1111	1110
+2	0010	-2	1010	1110	1101
+3	0011	-3	1011	1101	1100
+4	0100	-4	1100	1100	1011
+5	0101	-5	1101	1011	1010
+6	0110	-6	1110	1010	1001
+7	0111	-7	1111	1001	1000
		-8		1000	

Floating Point

Representation for non-integral numbers

• Including very small and very large numbers

Scientific notation

• -2.34×10^{56} normalized • $+0.002 \times 10^{-4}$ not normalized • $+987.02 \times 10^{9}$

In binary

• $\pm 1.xxxxxx_2 \times 2^{yyyy}$

Types float and double in C

Defined by IEEE Std 754-1985

Developed in response to divergence of representations

• Portability issues for scientific code

Now almost universally adopted

Two representations

- Single precision (32-bit)
- Double precision (64-bit)

IEEE Floating-Point Format

	single: 8 bi double: 11 bi	ts single: 23 bits its double: 52 bits
S	Exponent	Fraction

$$x = (-1)^{S} \times (1 + Fraction) \times 2^{(Exponent-Bias)}$$

S: sign bit (0 \Rightarrow non-negative, 1 \Rightarrow negative)

Normalize significand: $1.0 \leq |significand| < 2.0$

- Always has a leading pre-binary-point 1 bit, so no need to represent it explicitly (hidden bit)
- Significand is Fraction with the "1." restored

Exponent: excess representation: actual exponent + Bias

- Ensures exponent is unsigned
- Single: Bias = 127; Double: Bias = 1203

Floating-Point Example

Represent -0.75

- $-0.75 = (-1)^1 \times 1.1_2 \times 2^{-1}$
- S = 1
- Fraction = $1000...00_2$
- Exponent = -1 + Bias
 - Single: $-1 + 127 = 126 = 0111110_2$
 - Double: -1 + 1023 = 1022 = 0111111110₂
- Single: 1011111101000...00
- Double: 101111111101000...00

	S	Exponent	Fraction
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Floating-Point Example

What number is represented by the single-precision float

11000000101000...00

- S = 1
- Fraction = 01000...00₂
- Exponent = 1000001_2 = 129

$$x = (-1)^{1} \times (1 + 01_{2}) \times 2^{(129 - 127)}$$

= (-1) × 1.25 × 2²
= -5.0

S Exponent Fraction

Single-Precision Range

Exponents 0000000 and 1111111 reserved

Smallest value

Exponent

S

Fraction

- Exponent: 00000001
 ⇒ actual exponent = 1 127 = -126
- Fraction: 000...00 \Rightarrow significand = 1.0
- $\pm 1.0 \times 2^{-126} \approx \pm 1.2 \times 10^{-38}$

Largest value

- exponent: 11111110
 ⇒ actual exponent = 254 127 = +127
- Fraction: 111...11 \Rightarrow significand \approx 2.0
- $\pm 2.0 \times 2^{\pm 127} \approx \pm 3.4 \times 10^{\pm 38}$

Double-Precision Range

Exponents 0000...00 and 1111...11 reserved

Smallest value

- Exponent: 0000000001
 ⇒ actual exponent = 1 1023 = -1022
- Fraction: $000...00 \implies \text{significand} = 1.0$
- $\pm 1.0 \times 2^{-1022} \approx \pm 2.2 \times 10^{-308}$

Largest value

- Exponent: 1111111110
 ⇒ actual exponent = 2046 1023 = +1023
- Fraction: 111...11 \Rightarrow significand \approx 2.0
- $\pm 2.0 \times 2^{\pm 1023} \approx \pm 1.8 \times 10^{\pm 308}$

S Exponent Fraction

THE PROCESSOR

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Instruction Set

The repertoire of instructions of a computer

Different computers have different instruction sets

• But with many aspects in common

Early computers had very simple instruction sets

• Simplified implementation

Many modern computers also have simple instruction sets



CPU Overview

How to make a better CPU?



Pipelining Analogy

Pipelined laundry: overlapping execution

• Parallelism improves performance



Four loads:

• Speedup = 8/3.5 = 2.3

Non-stop:

- Speedup
 ≈ 4
 - = number of stages

Pipeline Performance



Hazards

Situations that prevent starting the next instruction in the next cycle

Structure hazards

• A required resource is busy

Data hazard

 Need to wait for previous instruction to complete its data read/write

Control hazard

• Deciding on control action depends on previous instruction

Structure Hazards

Conflict for use of a resource

If MIPS pipeline uses a single memory (1 inst/data memory)

- Load/store requires data access
- Instruction fetch would have to *stall* for that cycle
 - Would cause a pipeline "bubble"

Hence, pipelined datapaths require separate instruction/data memories

• Or separate instruction/data caches



An instruction depends on completion of data access by a previous instruction

add \$\$0, \$t0, \$t1 sub \$t2, \$\$0, \$t3



Forwarding (aka Bypassing)

Use result when it is computed

- Don't wait for it to be stored in a register
- Requires extra connections in the datapath



Load-Use Data Hazard

Can't always avoid stalls by forwarding

- If value not computed when needed
- Can't forward backward in time!



Code Scheduling to Avoid Stalls

Reorder code to avoid use of load result in the next instruction



Control Hazards

Branch determines flow of control

- Fetching next instruction depends on branch outcome
- Pipeline can't always fetch correct instruction
 - Still working on ID stage of branch

In MIPS pipeline

- Need to compare registers and compute target early in the pipeline
- Add hardware to do it in ID stage

Stall on Branch

Wait until branch outcome determined before fetching next instruction



Branch Prediction

Longer pipelines can't readily determine branch outcome early

- Stall penalty becomes unacceptable
- Predict outcome of branch
 - Only stall if prediction is wrong
- In MIPS pipeline
 - Can predict branches not taken
 - Fetch instruction after branch, with no delay

MIPS with Predict Not Taken





Prediction incorrect

correct

More-Realistic Branch Prediction

Static branch prediction

- Based on typical branch behavior
- Example: loop and if-statement branches
 - Predict backward branches taken
 - Predict forward branches not taken

Dynamic branch prediction

- Hardware measures actual branch behavior
 - e.g., record recent history of each branch
- Assume future behavior will continue the trend
 - When wrong, stall while re-fetching, and update history

LARGE AND FAST: EXPLOITING MEMORY HIERARCHY

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Memory Technology

Static RAM (SRAM)

• 0.5ns - 2.5ns, \$2000 - \$5000 per GB

Dynamic RAM (DRAM)

• 50ns - 70ns, \$20 - \$75 per GB

Magnetic disk

• 5ms - 20ms, \$0.20 - \$2 per GB

Ideal memory

- Access time of SRAM
- Capacity and cost/GB of disk



Typical Access Latency (in terms of processor cycles for a 4 GHz processor)

Qureshi (IBM Research) et al., Scalable High Performance Main Memory System Using Phase-Change Memory Technology, *ISCA* 2009.

Principle of Locality

Programs access a small proportion of their address space at any time

Temporal locality

- Items accessed recently are likely to be accessed again soon
- e.g., instructions in a loop, induction variables

Spatial locality

- Items near those accessed recently are likely to be accessed soon
- E.g., sequential instruction access, array data

Taking Advantage of Locality

Memory hierarchy

Store everything on disk

Copy recently accessed (and nearby) items from disk to smaller DRAM memory

• Main memory

Copy more recently accessed (and nearby) items from DRAM to smaller SRAM memory

• Cache memory attached to CPU

Memory Hierarchy Levels

Block (aka line): unit of copying

• May be multiple words

If accessed data is present in upper level

- Hit: access satisfied by upper level
 - Hit ratio: hits/accesses
- If accessed data is absent
 - Miss: block copied from lower level
 - Time taken: miss penalty
 - Miss ratio: misses/accesses = 1 - hit ratio
 - Then accessed data supplied from upper level



Cache Memory

Cache memory

• The level of the memory hierarchy closest to the CPU

Given accesses X_1 , ..., X_{n-1} , X_n



How do we know if the data is present?

Where do we look?

a. Before the reference to X_n

b. After the reference to X_n

Direct Mapped Cache

Location determined by address

Direct mapped: only one choice

• (Block address) modulo (#Blocks in cache)



Tags and Valid Bits

How do we know which particular block is stored in a cache location?

- Store block address as well as the data
- Actually, only need the high-order bits
- Called the tag

What if there is no data in a location?

- Valid bit: 1 = present, 0 = not present
- Initially 0

Address Subdivision

Address (showing bit positions) 31 30 · · · 13 12 11 · · · 2 1 0 Byte offset 20 10 Hit Tag Data Index Valid Tag Index Data 0 1 2 . . . P 1021 1022 1023 20 32 =

Virtual Memory

Use main memory as a "cache" for secondary (disk) storage

• Managed jointly by CPU hardware and the operating system (OS)

Programs share main memory

- Each gets a private virtual address space holding its frequently used code and data
- Protected from other programs

CPU and OS translate virtual addresses to physical addresses

- VM "block" is called a page
- VM translation "miss" is called a page fault

Virtual address <-> Physical address

(App. view) (Managed by kernel)

Address Translation

Fixed-size pages (e.g., 4K)



Virtual address

Page offset

Page offset

Physical address

Page Fault Penalty

Page faults

• Referencing a virtual address in an evicted page

On page fault, the page must be fetched from disk

- Takes millions of clock cycles
- Handled by OS code

Try to minimize page fault rate

- Fully associative placement
- Smart replacement algorithms

Page Tables

Stores placement information

- Array of page table entries, indexed by virtual page number
- Page table register in CPU points to page table in physical memory
- If page is present in memory
 - PTE stores the physical page number
 - Plus other status bits (referenced, dirty, ...)
- If page is not present
 - PTE can refer to location in swap space on disk

Translation Using a Page Table



Physical address

Mapping Pages to Storage



Fast Translation Using a TLB

Address translation would appear to require extra memory references

- One to access the PTE
- Then the actual memory access

But access to page tables has good locality

- So use a fast cache of PTEs within the CPU
- Called a Translation Look-aside Buffer (TLB)
- Typical: 16–512 PTEs, 0.5–1 cycle for hit, 10–100 cycles for miss, 0.01%–1% miss rate
- Misses could be handled by hardware or software

Fast Translation Using a TLB



STORAGE AND OTHER I/O TOPICS

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Introduction

I/O devices can be characterized by

- Behaviour: input, output, storage
- Partner: human or machine
- Data rate: bytes/sec, transfers/sec

I/O bus connections



Disk Storage

Nonvolatile, rotating magnetic storage





Each sector records

- Sector ID
- Data (512 bytes, 4096 bytes proposed)
- Error correcting code (ECC)
 - Used to hide defects and recording errors
- Synchronization fields and gaps

Access to a sector involves

- Queuing delay if other accesses are pending
- Seek: move the heads
- Rotational latency
- Data transfer
- Controller overhead



Disk Access Example

Given

• 512B sector, 15,000rpm, 4ms average seek time, 100MB/s transfer rate, 0.2ms controller overhead, idle disk

Average read time

4ms seek time

 ½ / (15,000/60) = 2ms rotational latency
 + 512 / 100MB/s = 0.005ms transfer time
 + 0.2ms controller delay
 = 6.2ms

If actual average seek time is 1ms

• Average read time = 3.2ms

Disk Performance Issues

Manufacturers quote average seek time

- Based on all possible seeks
- Locality and OS scheduling lead to smaller actual average seek times
- Smart disk controller allocate physical sectors on disk
 - Present logical sector interface to host
 - SCSI, ATA, SATA
- Disk drives include caches
 - Prefetch sectors in anticipation of access
 - Avoid seek and rotational delay

Flash Storage

Nonvolatile semiconductor storage

- 100× 1000× faster than disk
- Smaller, lower power, more robust
- But more \$/GB (between disk and DRAM)





Flash Types

NOR flash: bit cell like a NOR gate

- Random read/write access
- Used for instruction memory in embedded systems

NAND flash: bit cell like a NAND gate

- Denser (bits/area), but block-at-a-time access
- Cheaper per GB
- Used for USB keys, media storage, ...

Flash bits wears out after 1000's of accesses

- Not suitable for direct RAM or disk replacement
- Wear leveling: remap data to less used blocks

Architecture of a SSD



Architecture of a SSD



HDD vs. SSD



HDD vs. SSD

Interconnecting Components

Need interconnections between

- CPU, memory, I/O controllers
- Bus: shared communication channel
 - Parallel set of wires for data and synchronization of data transfer
 - Can become a bottleneck

Performance limited by physical factors

• Wire length, number of connections

More recent alternative: high-speed serial connections with switches

• Like networks

Sun Fire x4150 1U server

