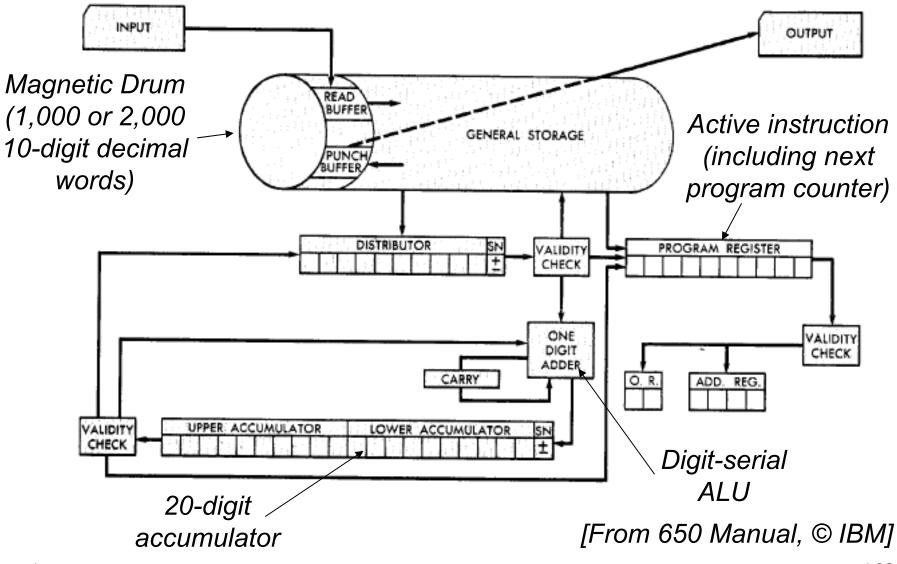
Instruction Set Architecture

Joel Emer Computer Science & Artificial Intelligence Lab M.I.T.

The IBM 650 (1953-4)



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Programmer's view of a machine: IBM 650

A drum machine with 44 instructions

Instruction: 60 1234 1009

- "Load the contents of location 1234 into the *distribution*; put it also into the *upper accumulator*; set *lower accumulator* to zero; and then go to location 1009 for the next instruction."
- Programmer's view of the machine was inseparable from the actual hardware implementation
- Good programmers optimized the placement of instructions on the drum to reduce latency!

Compatibility Problem at IBM

By early 60's, IBM had 4 incompatible lines of computers!

701	\rightarrow	7094
650	\rightarrow	7074
702	\rightarrow	7080
1401	\rightarrow	7010

Each system had its own

- Instruction set
- I/O system and Secondary Storage: magnetic tapes, drums and disks
- Assemblers, compilers, libraries,...
- Market niche

business, scientific, real time, ...

 \Rightarrow IBM 360

IBM 360: Design Premises Amdahl, Blaauw, and Brooks, 1964

The design must lend itself to growth and successor machines

- General method for connecting I/O devices
- Total performance answers per month rather than bits per microsecond ⇒ programming aids
- Machine must be capable of *supervising itself* without manual intervention
- Built-in *hardware fault checking* and locating aids to reduce down time
- Simple to assemble systems with redundant I/O devices, memories, etc. for *fault tolerance*
- Some problems required floating point words larger than 36 bits

Processor State and Data Types

The information held in the processor at the end of an instruction to provide the processing context for the next instruction.

Program Counter, Accumulator, ...

- The information held in the processor will be interpreted as having data types manipulated by the instructions.
- If the processing of an instruction can be interrupted then the *hardware* must save and restore the state in a transparent manner

Programmer's machine model is a contract between the hardware and software

Instruction Set

The control for changing the information held in the processor are specified by the instructions available in the instruction set architecture or ISA.

Some things an ISA must specify:

- A way to reference registers and memory
- The computational operations available
- How to control the sequence of instructions
- A binary representation for all of the above

ISA must satisfy the needs of the software: - assembler, compiler, OS, VM

IBM 360: A General-Purpose Register (GPR) Machine

- Processor State
 - 16 General-Purpose 32-bit Registers
 - 4 Floating Point 64-bit Registers
 - A Program Status Word (PSW)
 - PC, Condition codes, Control flags
- Data Formats
 - 8-bit bytes, 16-bit half-words, 32-bit words, 64-bit double-words
 - 24-bit addresses
- A 32-bit machine with 24-bit addresses
 - No instruction contains a 24-bit address!
- Precise interrupts

IBM 360: Initial Implementations (1964)

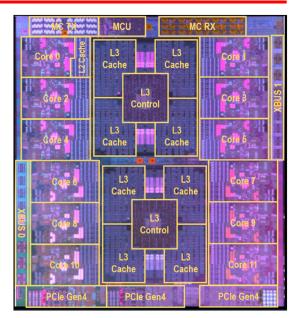
	Model 30	Model 70	
Memory Capacity	8K - 64 KB	256K - 512 KB	
Memory Cycle	2.0µs	1.0µs	
Datapath	8-bit	64-bit	
Circuit Delay	30 nsec/level	5 nsec/level	
Registers	in Main Store	in Transistor	
Control Store	Read only 1µsec	Dedicated circuits	

- Six implementations (Models, 30, 40, 50, 60, 62, 70)
- 50x performance difference across models
- ISA completely hid the underlying technological differences between various models

With minor modifications, IBM 360 ISA is still in use

IBM 360: Fifty-five years later... z15 Microprocessor

- 9.2 billion transistors, 12-core design
- Up to 190 cores (2 spare) per system
- 5.2 GHz, 14nm CMOS technology
- 64-bit virtual addressing
 - Original 360 was 24-bit; 370 was a 31-bit extension
- Superscalar, out-of-order
 - 12-wide issue
 - Up to 180 instructions in flight
- 16K-entry Branch Target Buffer
 - Very large buffer to support commercial workloads
- Four Levels of caches
 - 128KB L1 I-cache, 128KB L1 D-cache
 - 4MB L2 cache per core
 - 256MB shared on-chip L3 cache
 - 960MB shared off-chip L4 cache
- Up to 40TB of main memory per system



September 2019 Image credit: IBM

Instruction Set Architecture (ISA) versus Implementation

- ISA is the hardware/software interface
 - Defines set of programmer visible state
 - Defines data types
 - Defines instruction semantics (operations, sequencing)
 - Defines instruction format (bit encoding)
 - Examples: MIPS, RISC-V, Alpha, x86, IBM 360, VAX, ARM, JVM
- Many possible implementations of one ISA
 - 360 implementations: model 30 (c. 1964), z15 (c. 2019)
 - x86 implementations: 8086 (c. 1978), 80186, 286, 386, 486, Pentium, Pentium Pro, Pentium-4, Core i7, AMD Athlon, AMD Opteron, Transmeta Crusoe, SoftPC
 - MIPS implementations: R2000, R4000, R10000, ...
 - JVM: HotSpot, PicoJava, ARM Jazelle, ...

Processor Performance

	<u> </u>	=	<u>Instructions</u> Program		<u>Cycles</u> Instruction	*	<u>Time</u> Cycle	
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- Instructions per program depends on source code, compiler technology and ISA
- Cycles per instructions (CPI) depends upon the ISA and the microarchitecture
- Time per cycle depends upon the microarchitecture and the base technology

	Microarchitecture	CPI	cycle time
Recitation	Microcoded	>1	short
	Single-cycle unpipelined	1	long
	Pipelined	1	short

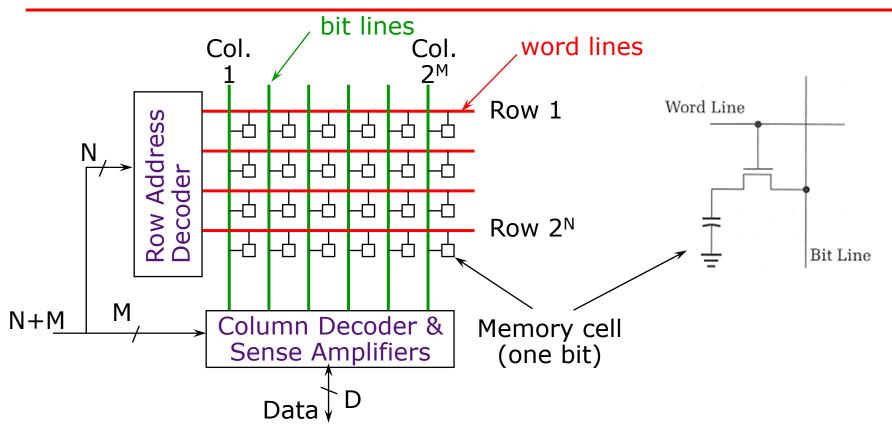
Memory and Caches

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Memory Technology

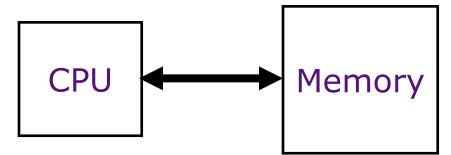
- Early machines used a variety of memory technologies
 - Manchester Mark I used CRT Memory Storage
 - EDVAC used a mercury delay line
- Core memory was first large scale reliable main memory
 - Invented by Forrester in late 40s at MIT for Whirlwind project
 - Bits stored as magnetization polarity on small ferrite cores threaded onto 2 dimensional grid of wires
- First commercial DRAM was Intel 1103
 - 1Kbit of storage on single chip
 - charge on a capacitor used to hold value
- Semiconductor memory quickly replaced core in 1970s
 - Intel formed to exploit market for semiconductor memory
- Flash memory
 - Slower, but denser than DRAM. Also non-volatile, but with wearout issues
- Phase change memory (PCM, 3D XPoint)
 - Slightly slower, but much denser than DRAM and non-volatile

DRAM Architecture



- Bits stored in 2-dimensional arrays on chip
- Modern chips have around 8 logical banks on each chip
 - Each logical bank physically implemented as many smaller arrays

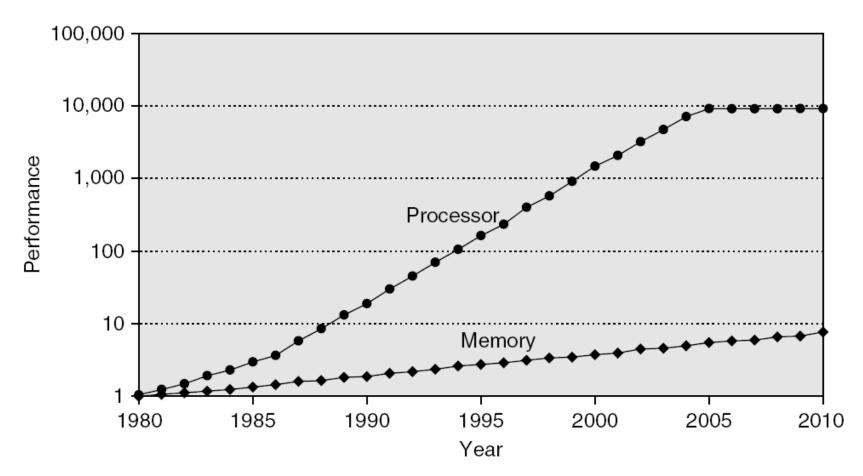
CPU-Memory Metrics



- Latency (time for a single access) Memory access time >> Processor cycle time
- Bandwidth (number of accesses per unit time) if fraction m of instructions access memory, ⇒1+m memory references / instruction ⇒ CPI = 1 requires 1+m memory refs / cycle

•Energy (nJ per access)

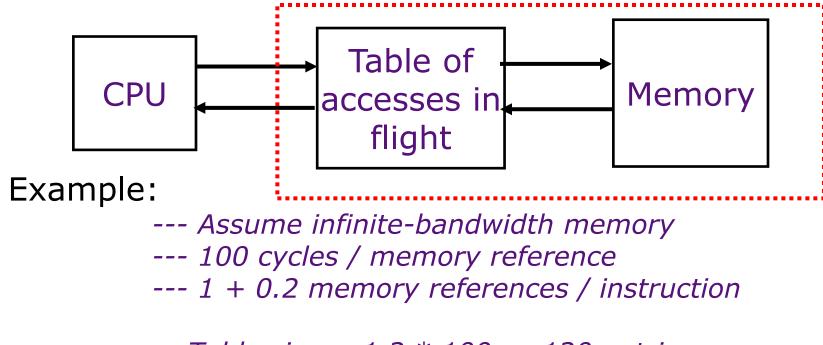
Processor-DRAM Gap (latency)



Four-issue 2GHz superscalar accessing 100ns DRAM could execute 800 instructions during time for one memory access!

Little's Law

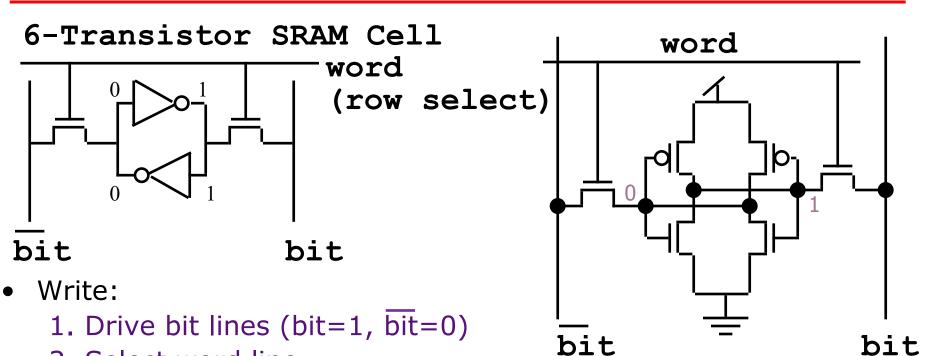
Throughput (T) = Number in Flight (N) / Latency (L)



 \Rightarrow Table size = 1.2 * 100 = 120 entries

120 independent memory operations in flight!

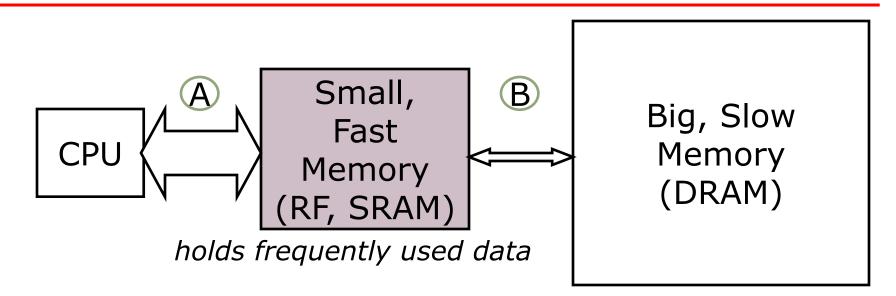
Basic Static RAM Cell



- 2. Select word line
- Read:
 - 1. Precharge bit and \overline{bit} to Vdd
 - 2. Select word line
 - 3. Cell pulls one bit line low
 - 4. Column sense amp detects difference between bit & bit

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Memory Hierarchy



- size: Register << SRAM << DRAM why?
- *latency:* Register << SRAM << DRAM why?
- *bandwidth:* on-chip >> off-chip why?

On a data access:

- data ∉ fast memory
- data \in fast memory \Rightarrow low latency access
 - \Rightarrow long latency access (DRAM)

Data Orchestration Techniques

Two approaches to controlling data movement in the memory hierarchy:

- Explicit: Manually at the direction of the programmer using instructions
- *Implicit:* Automatically by the hardware in response to a request by an instruction, but transparent to the programmer.

Multilevel Memory

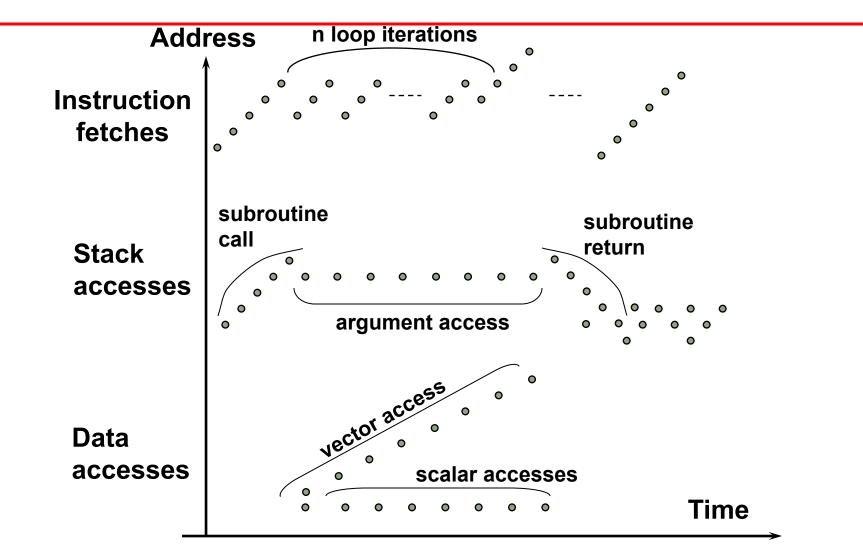
Strategy: <u>Reduce</u> average latency using small, fast memories called caches.

DC

Caches are a mechanism to reduce memory latency based on the empirical observation that the patterns of memory references made by a processor are often highly predictable:

					<u>PC</u>
	•••				96
Loop:	add r	² ,	r1,	r1	100
	subi r	۶ <i>3</i> ,	r3,	#1	104
	bnez r	<i>י3</i> ,	Loop		108
	•••				112

Typical Memory Reference Patterns



Common Predictable Patterns

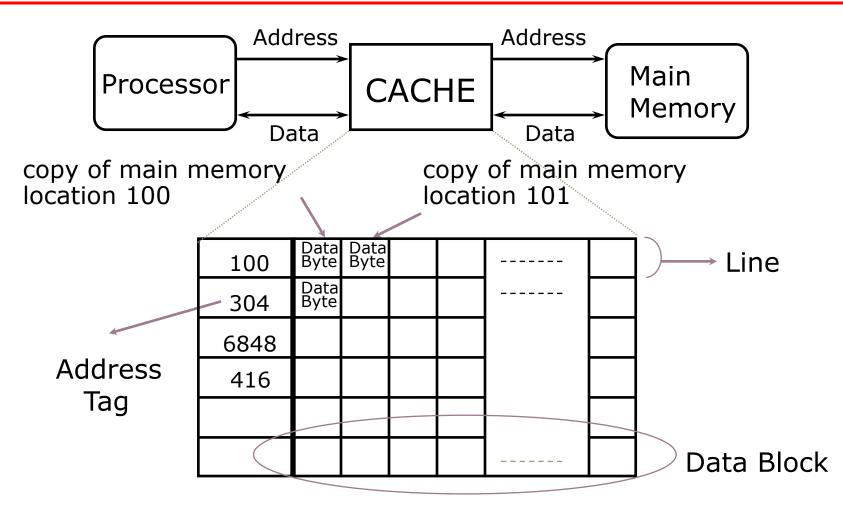
Two predictable properties of memory references:

- Temporal Locality: If a location is referenced, it is likely to be referenced again in the near future
- Spatial Locality: If a location is referenced, it is likely that locations near it will be referenced in the near future

Management of Memory Hierarchy

- Small/fast storage, e.g., registers
 - Address usually specified directly in instruction
 - Generally implemented using **explicit** data orchestration
 - e.g., directly as a register file
 - but hardware might do things behind software's back, e.g., stack management, register renaming
- Large/slower storage, e.g., memory
 - Address usually computed from values in register
 - Generally implemented using **implicit** data orchestration
 - e.g., as a cache hierarchy where hardware decides what is kept in fast memory
 - but software may provide "hints", e.g., don't cache or prefetch

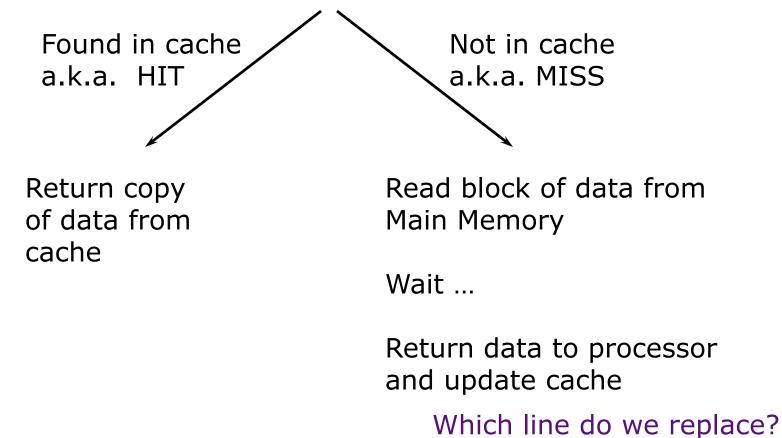
Inside a Cache



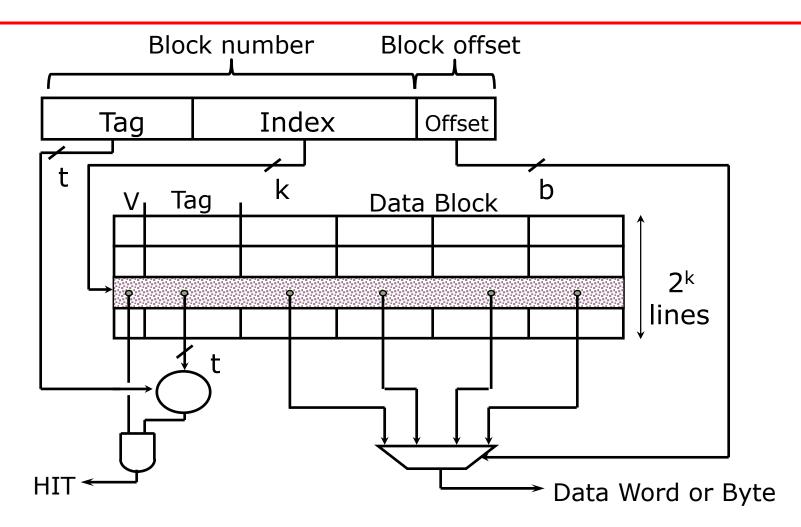
Q: How many bits needed in tag? Enough to uniquely identify block

Cache Algorithm (Read)

Look at Processor Address, search cache tags to find match. Then either

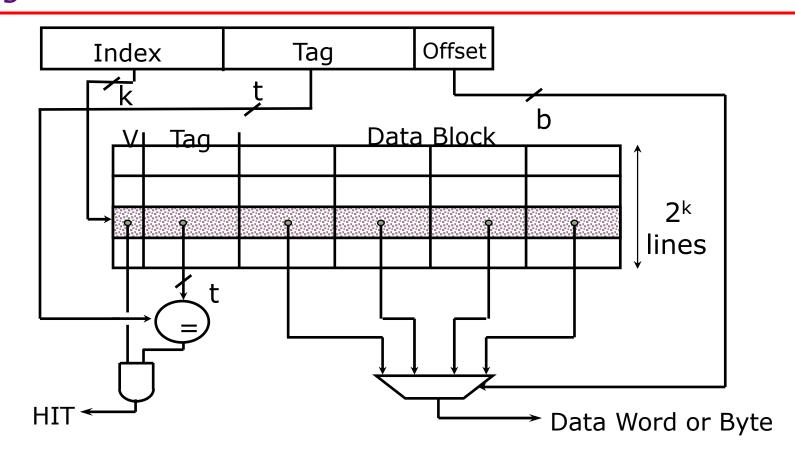


Direct-Mapped Cache



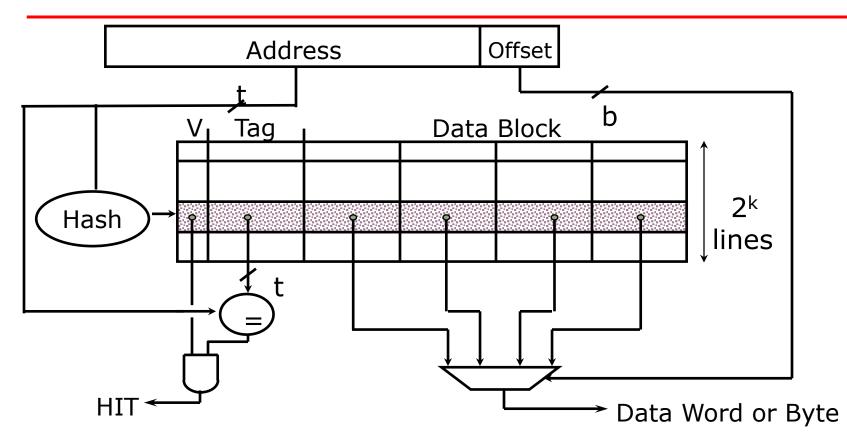
Q: What is a bad reference pattern? <u>Strided at size of cache</u>

Direct Map Address Selection higher-order vs. lower-order address bits



Q: Why might this be undesirable? Spatially local blocks conflict

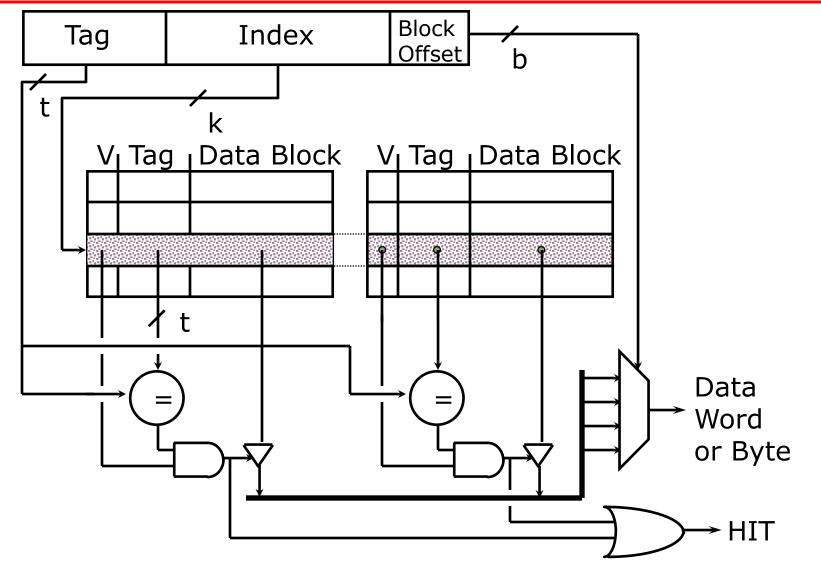
Hashed Address Mapping



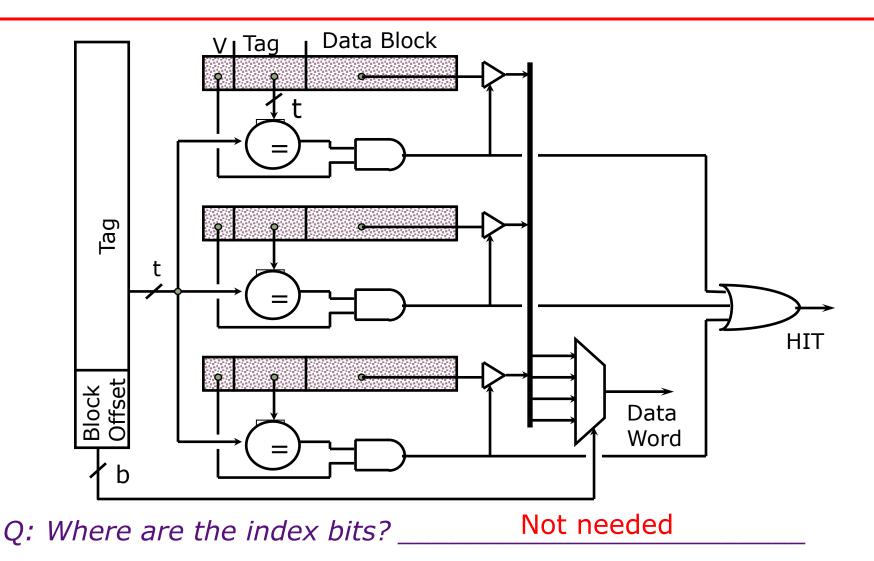
Q: What are the tradeoffs of hashing?

Good: Regular strides don't conflict Bad: Hash adds latency Tag is larger

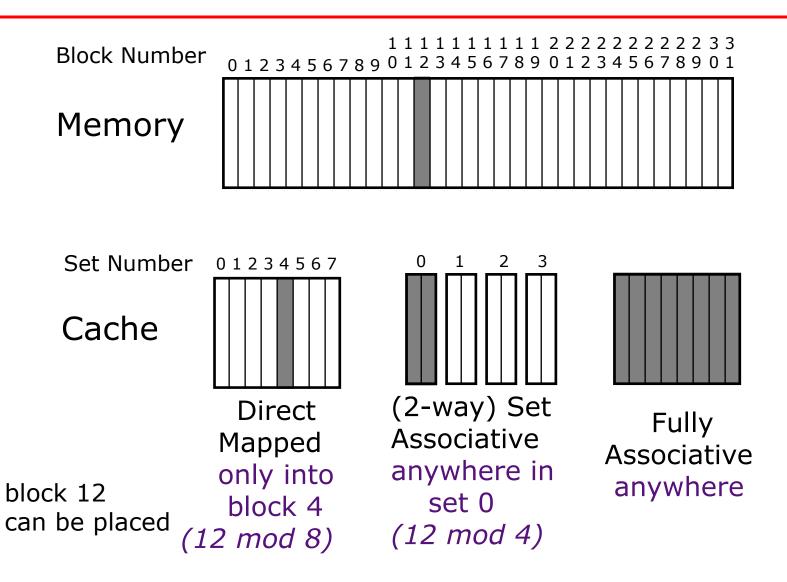
2-Way Set-Associative Cache



Fully Associative Cache



Placement Policy



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Improving Cache Performance

Average memory access time (AMAT) = Hit time + Miss rate x Miss penalty

To improve performance:

- reduce the hit time
- reduce the miss rate (e.g., larger, better policy)
- reduce the miss penalty (e.g., L2 cache)

What is the simplest design strategy?

Biggest cache that doesn't increase hit time past 1-2 cycles (approx. 16-64KB in modern technology) [design issues more complex with out-of-order superscalar processors]

Causes for Cache Misses

• Compulsory:

First reference to a block *a.k.a.* cold start misses

- misses that would occur even with infinite cache

• Capacity:

cache is too small to hold all data the program needs

- misses that would occur even under perfect placement & replacement policy
- Conflict:

misses from collisions due to block-placement strategy

- misses that would not occur with full associativity

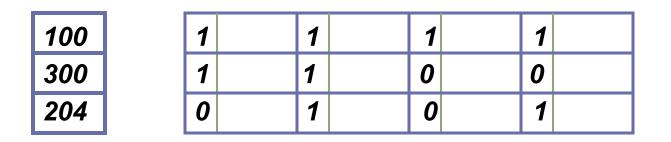
Effect of Cache Parameters on Performance

	Larger capacity cache	Higher associativity cache	Larger block size cache *
Compulsory misses			
Capacity misses			
Conflict misses			?
Hit latency			
Miss latency			

* Assume substantial spatial locality

Block-level Optimizations

- Tags are too large, i.e., too much overhead
 - Simple solution: Larger blocks, but miss penalty could be large.
- Sub-block placement (aka sector cache)
 - A valid bit added to units smaller than the full block, called sub-blocks
 - Only read a sub-block on a miss
 - If a tag matches, is the sub-block in the cache?



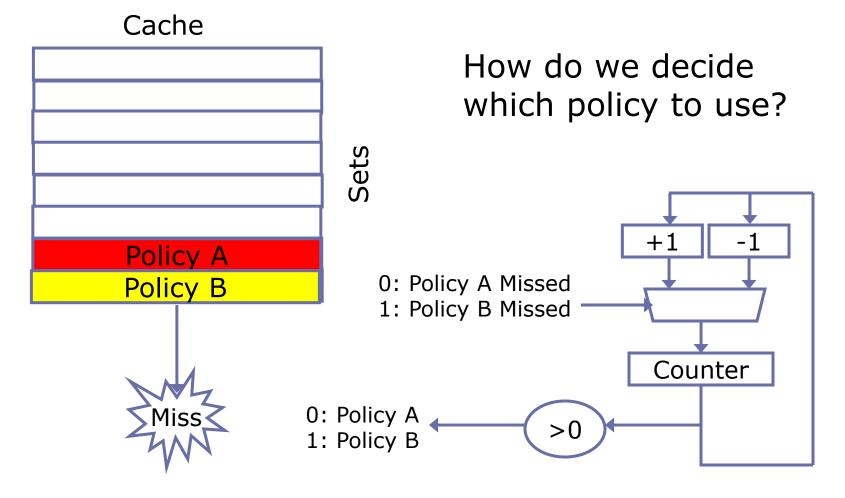
Replacement Policy

Which block from a set should be evicted?

- Random
- Least Recently Used (LRU)
 - LRU cache state must be updated on every access
 - true implementation only feasible for small sets (2-way)
 - pseudo-LRU binary tree was often used for 4-8 way
- First In, First Out (FIFO) a.k.a. Round-Robin
 - used in highly associative caches
- Not Least Recently Used (NLRU)
 - FIFO with exception for most recently used block or blocks
- One-bit LRU
 - Each way represented by a bit. Set on use, replace first unused.

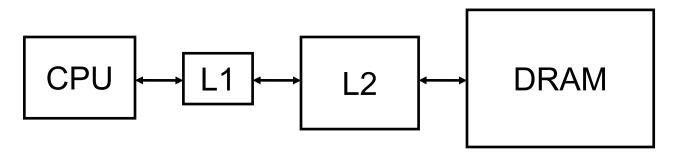
Multiple replacement policies

Use the best replacement policy for a program



Multilevel Caches

- A memory cannot be large and fast
- Add level of cache to reduce miss penalty
 - Each level can have longer latency than level above
 - So, increase sizes of cache at each level



Metrics:

Local miss rate = misses in cache/ accesses to cache

Global miss rate = misses in cache / CPU memory accesses

Misses per instruction (MPI) = misses in cache / number of instructions

Inclusion Policy

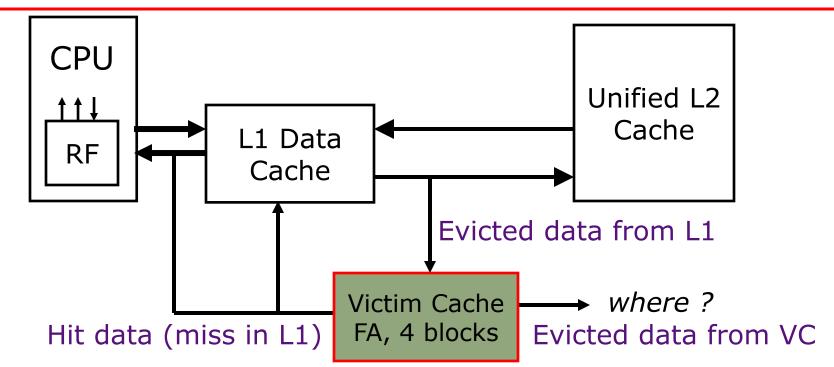
• Inclusive multilevel cache:

- Inner cache holds copies of data in outer cache
- On miss, line inserted in inner and outer cache; replacement in outer cache invalidates line in inner cache
- External accesses need only check outer cache
- Commonly used (e.g., Intel CPUs up to Broadwell)
- Non-inclusive multilevel caches:
 - Inner cache may hold data not in outer cache
 - Replacement in outer cache doesn't invalidate line in inner cache
 - Used in Intel Skylake, ARM
- Exclusive multilevel caches:
 - Inner cache and outer cache hold different data
 - Swap lines between inner/outer caches on miss
 - Used in AMD processors

Why choose one type or the other?

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Victim Caches (HP 7200)

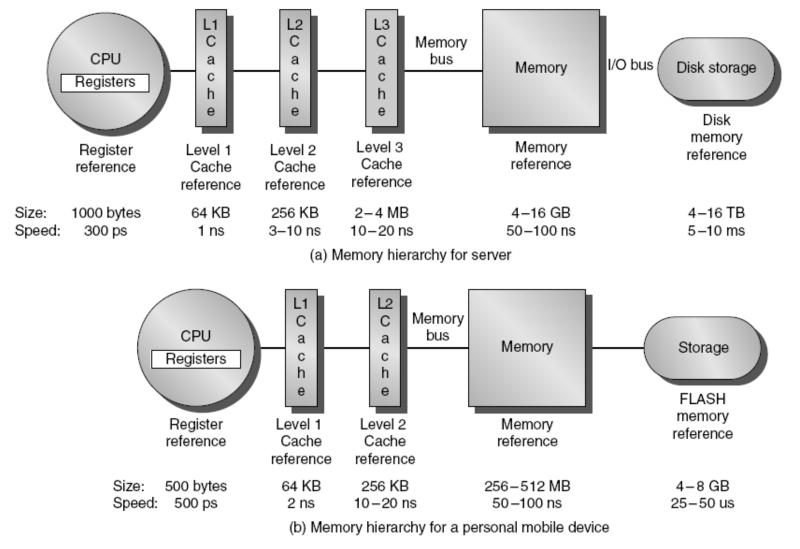


Victim cache is a small associative back up cache, added to a direct mapped cache, which holds recently evicted lines

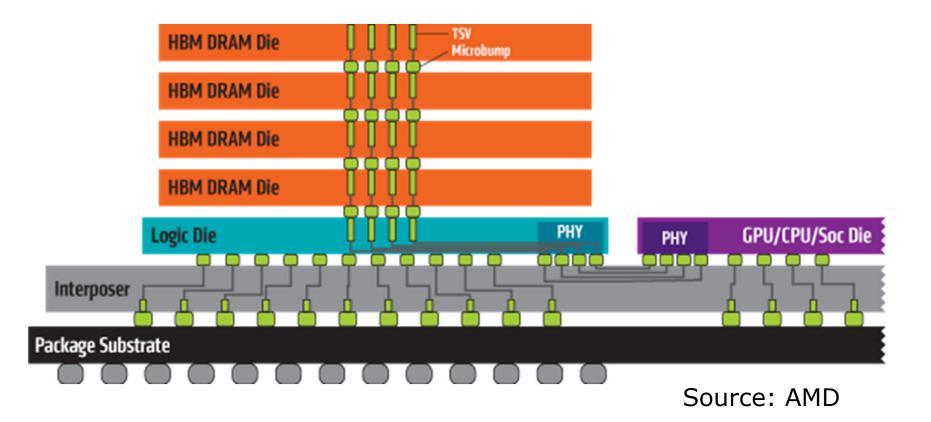
- First look up in direct mapped cache
- If miss, look in victim cache
- If hit in victim cache, swap hit line with line now evicted from L1
- If miss in victim cache, L1 victim -> VC, VC victim->? Fast hit time of direct mapped but with reduced conflict misses

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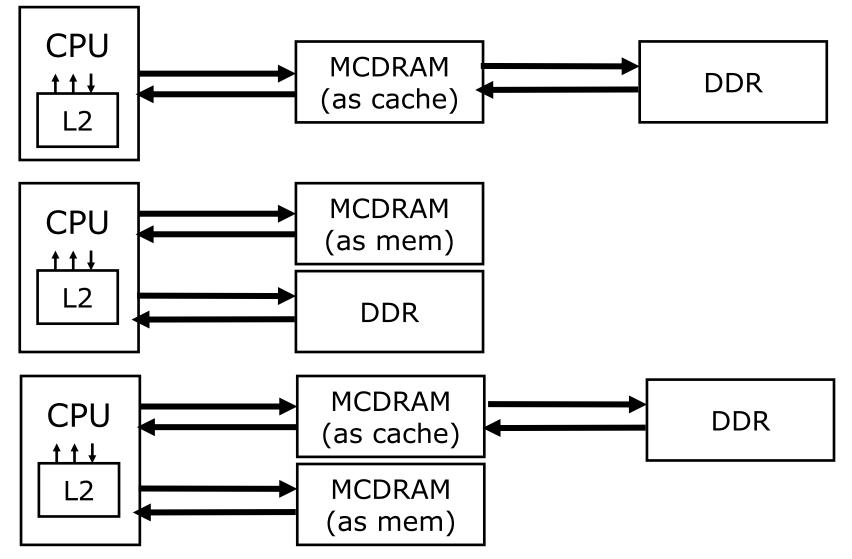
Typical memory hierarchies



HBM DRAM or MCDRAM



Mixed technology caching (Intel Knights Landing)



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Thank you!

Next lecture: Virtual memory