

Topics Before Midterm

- C & Malloc
- Memory Management
- MIPS
- Number Representation
- Floating Point
- CAL

Topics Since Midterm

- Digital Logic
 - Verilog
 - State Machines
- CPU Design
- Pipelining
- Caches
- Virtual Memory
- I/O and Performance

Today's Focus

- Focus on material from after the midterm. Don't forget to go back and look over the old review session and your midterm
- More emphasis on material that we covered just after the midterm, less on stuff from the past few weeks.
 Lots of stuff on digital logic
- Like one slide on performance
- My intent is to help you "page in" (no replacement policy, please) material from the second half of the course that you may have long since forgotten

Topics Since Midterm

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 - Verilog
- State Machines
- CPU Design
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Digital Logic (and such)

- Truth Tables
- Boolean Algebra
- · Canonical SOP
- Combinational Logic
- State Machines
- Timing Diagrams & Tables
- Programmable Logic Arrays

Digital Logic - Truth Tables

- A table describing the output of a function for every possible input
- Usually done bitwise when dealing with digital logic
- 2^{*n*} entries (each input can have two possible states)

Digital Logic – Boolean Operators									
0 0 0 1	0 0	0 1		0	0 1	1 0	R NOT 1 0		
			0 B)′	0 (A+B)'			A≡B	A'	

Digital Logic – Boolean Algebra

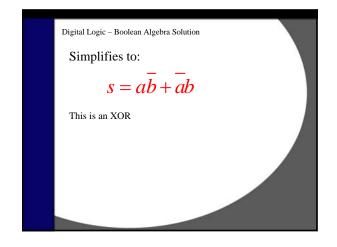
• An algebraic expression using Boolean operators

– e.g. AB + A'B + A(B+C')

- Similar laws to normal algebra
 - Distributive: AB + A'B + AB + AC'
 - Idempotent: AB + A'B + AC'
 - Complementarity: B + AC'

Digital Logic – Boolean Algebra Laws $x \cdot x = 0$ x+x-1complementarity laws of 0's and 1's x - 0 = 0x + 1 = 1 $x \cdot 1 = x$ $x \cdot x = x$ x + 0 = xidentities idempotent law x + x - x $\begin{array}{c} x\cdot y = x\\ x\cdot y = y\cdot x\\ (xy)z = x(yz)\\ x(y+z) = xy+xz\\ xy+x = x\\ \overline{x\cdot y} = \overline{x}+\overline{y} \end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c} x+x=x\\ x+y=y+x\\ (x+y)+z=x+(y+z)\\ x+ya=(x+y)(x+z)\\ (x+y)x=x\\ (x+y)=x\cdot y\\ \hline (x+y)=x\cdot y \end{array}$ commutativity associativity distribution uniting theorem DeMorgan's Law

Digital Logic – Boolean Algebra Minimize the following using Boolean Algebra simplification rules: $\overline{s} = \overline{((\overline{a} + \overline{a}\overline{b}) + b)} + \overline{(a + \overline{b})}$ What does this function do?



Digital Logic - Canonical SOP Form

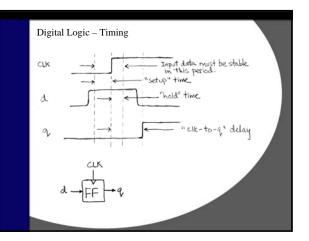
- Standardized form to describe a truth table uniquely
- For every 1 in the output column of the Truth Table have a term in the SOP
- Put every input variable in every term, with the ones that were 0 for that entry in the TT negated

Digital Logic – Combinational Logic

- Built from Boolean Algebra operators turned in to gates
- Output is purely a function of current input
- Therefore, can not have memory or remember state
- However, this is perfect for describing a truth table as we have seen it so far!

Digital Logic - Sequential Logic & State

- To implement many practical circuits we need some form of "memory".
- Registers (created from Flip Flops) are our statefull circuit elements.
- Adding state to a circuit introduces a notion of time centered around a clock
 - Complicates Truth Table
 - Necessitates Timing Diagrams



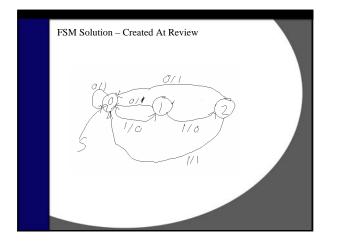
Digital Logic – Finite State Machines

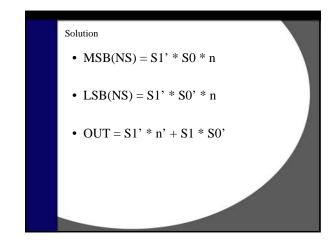
- An abstraction of any system with a finite number of states and logical transitions between them
- Useful when trying to come up with the truth table for a problem
- States in a FSM are represented by data stored in registers

Digital Logic - Putting It All Together

Exercise

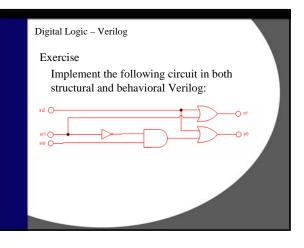
- Come up with the FSM, Truth Table (NS/Output), Canonical SOP form, Simplified Boolean Equation, and circuit diagram for this function over a continuous bit stream:
- Output 1 if the input was a 0. Output 0 if the input was a 1. Unless it was the 3rd 1 in a row, in which case you output 1 (and start over counting 1s.

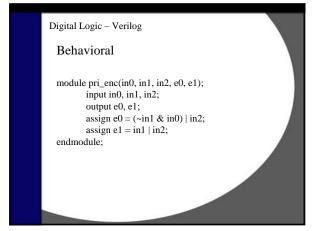




Digital Logic - Verilog

- Hardware Description Language
- Verilog description is a collection of interconnected modules
- All modules work in parallel
- Structural vs. Behavioral





Digital Logic – Verilog

Structural

module pri_enc(in0, in1, in2, e0, e1);
 input in0, in1, in2;
 output e0, e1;
 wire notIn1, and01;
 not(in1, notIn1);
 and(notIn1, in0, and01);
 or(and01, in2, e0);
 or(in1, in2, e1);
endmodule;

Digital Logic - Programmable Logic Arrays

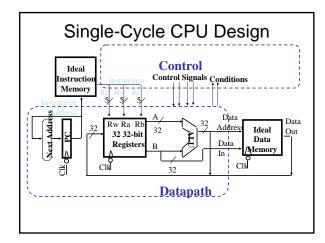
- Creating customized hardware is expensive
- We would like to be able to prefabricate a circuit and then allow it to be programmed by the developer
- PLAs are the answer!
- Review how to program one on your own

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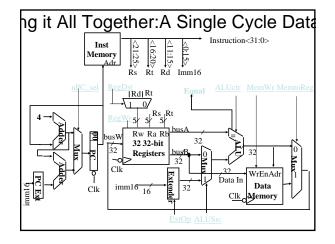
Single Cycle CPU Design

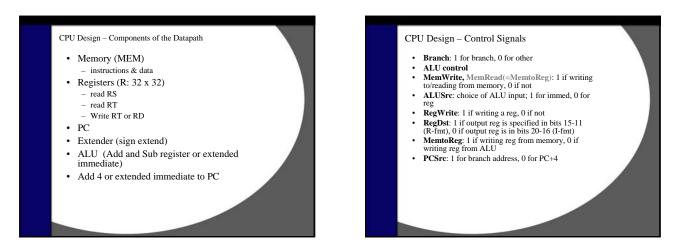
- · Overview Picture
- Two Major Issues
 - Datapath
 - Control
- Control is the hard part, but is make easier by the format of MIPS instructions

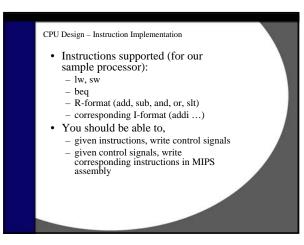


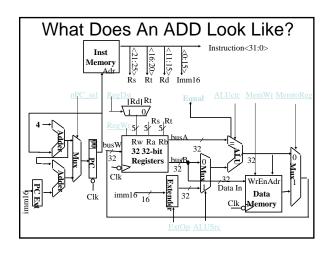
CPU Design - Steps to Design/Understand a CPU

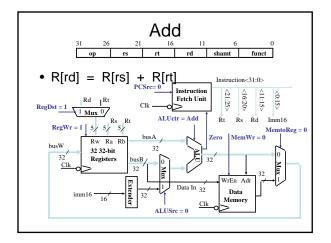
- 1. Analyze instruction set architecture (ISA) => datapath requirements
- 2. Select set of datapath components and establish clocking methodology
- 3. Assemble datapath meeting requirements
- 4. Analyze implementation of each instruction to determine setting of control points.
- 5. Assemble the control logic

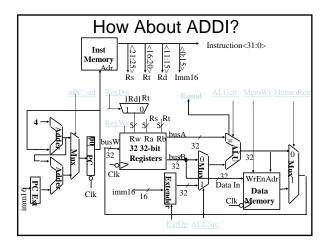


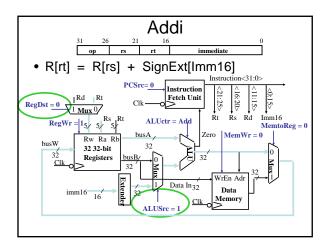


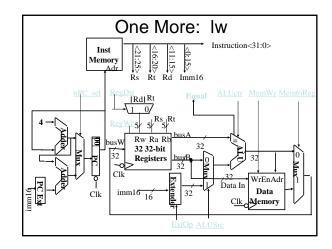


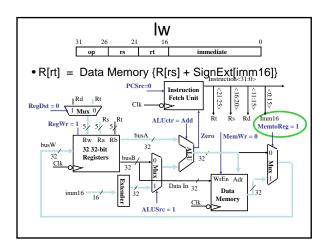




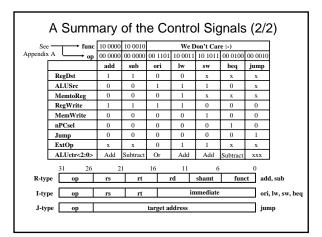


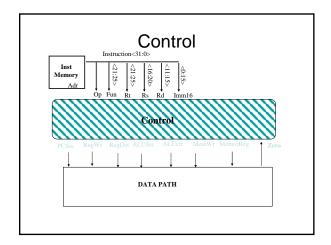


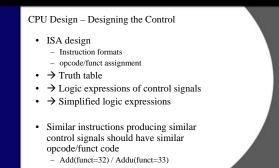




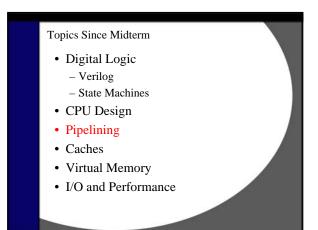
А	Summary of the C	ontrol Signals (1/2)				
inst	Register Transfer					
ADD	$R[rd] \le R[rs] + R[rt];$	PC <- PC + 4				
	ALUsrc = RegB, ALUctr = "add", Reg	Dst = rd, RegWr, nPC_sel = "+4"				
SUB	R[rd] <- R[rs] - R[rt];	PC <- PC + 4				
	ALUsrc = RegB, ALUctr = "sub", RegI	Ost = rd, RegWr, nPC_sel = "+4"				
ORi	R[rt] <- R[rs] + zero_ext(Imm16);	PC <- PC + 4				
	ALUsrc = Im, Extop = "Z", ALUctr =	"or", RegDst = rt, RegWr, nPC_sel ="+4"				
LOAD R[rt] <- MEM[R[rs] + sign_ext(Imm16)]; PC <- PC + 4						
	ALUsrc = Im, Extop = "Sn", ALUctr = MemtoReg, RegDst = rt, RegWr,					
STORE MEM[R[rs] + sign_ext(Imm16)] <- R[rs]; PC <- PC + 4						
	ALUsrc = Im, Extop = "Sn", ALUctr =	"add", MemWr, nPC_sel = "+4"				
BEQ	if ($R[rs] == R[rt]$) then PC <– PC + sign_ext(Imm16)] \parallel 00 else PC <– PC + 4					
	nPC sel = "Br", ALUctr = "sub"					





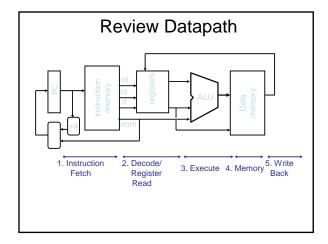


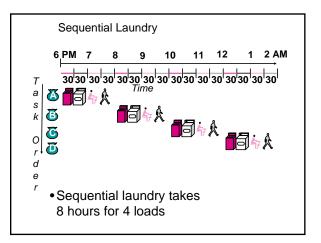
BREAK!

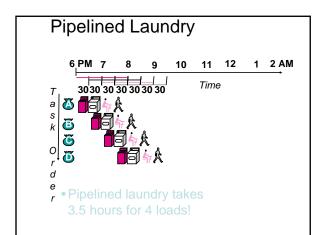


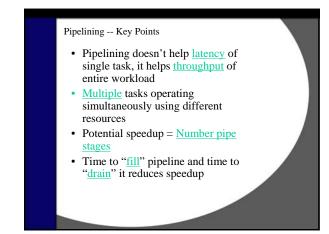
Pipelining

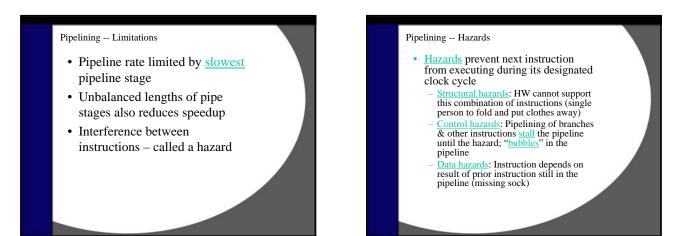
- View the processing of an instruction as a sequence of potentially independent steps
- Use this separation of stages to optimize your CPU by starting to process the next instruction while still working on the previous one
- In the real world, you have to deal with some interference between instructions











Pipelining - Structural Hazards

- Avoid memory hazards by having two L1 caches – one for data and one for instructions
- Avoid register conflicts by always writing in the first half of the clock cycle and reading in the second half
 - This is ok because registers are *much* faster than the critical path

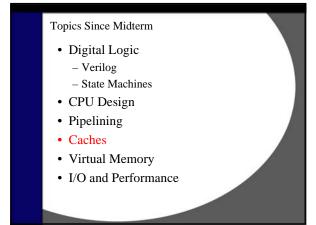
Pipelining - Control Hazards

- Occurs on a branch or jump instruction
- Optimally you would always branch when needed, never execute instructions you shouldn't have, and always have a full pipeline
 - This generally isn't possible
- Do the best we can
 - Optimize to 1 problem instruction
 - Stall
 - Branch Delay Slot

Pipelining – Data Hazards

- Occur when one instruction is dependant on the results of an earlier instruction
- Can be solved by forwarding for all cases except a load immediately followed by a dependant instruction
 - In this case we detect the problem and stall (for lack of a better plan)

Pipelining Exercise								
Assuming one instruction executed per clock cycle, delayed branch, forwarding, interlock on load hazards, and a full pipeline: how many cycles will this code take? Where is there forwarding?								
Loop:	lw,	\$t0,	0(\$s1)					
	addu,	\$t0,	\$t0,	\$s2				
	sw,	\$t0,	0(\$s1)					
	addiu,	\$s1,	\$s1,	-4				
	bne,	\$s1,	\$zero,	Loop				
	addu	\$s3,	\$t1,	\$t1				



Caches

- The Problem: Memory is slow compared to the CPU
- The Solution: Create a fast layer in between the CPU and memory that holds a subset of what is stored in memory
- We call this creature a Cache

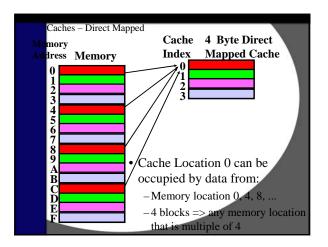
Caches – Reference Patterns

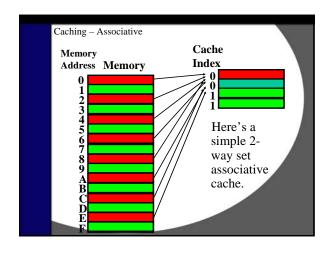
- Holding an arbitrary subset of memory in a faster layer should not provide any performance increase
 - Therefore we must carefully choose what to put there
- Temporal Locality: When a piece of data is referenced once it is likely to be referenced again soon
- Spatial Locality: When a piece of data is referenced it is likely that the data near it in the address space will be referenced soon

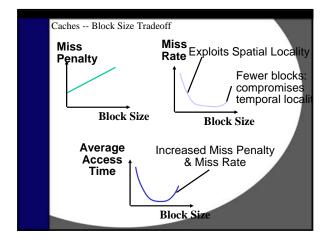
Caches – Format & Mapping

Tag	Index	Offset	
(msb)ttttttttttttttttttttttttt	iiiiiiiiiiiiiiiiiiiiiiiiiiiiiiiiiiiiiii	000000(lsb)	

Tag: Unique identifier for each block in memory that maps to same index in cache
Index: Which "row" in the cache the data block will map to (for direct mapped cache each row is a single cache block)
Block Offset: Byte offset within the block for the particular word or byte you want to access



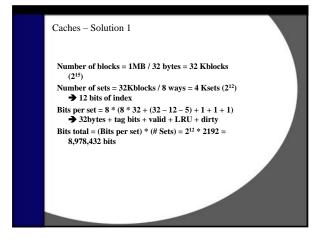


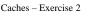




How many bits would be required to implement the following cache?

Size: 1MB Associativity: 8-way set associative Write policy: Write back Block size: 32 bytes Replacement policy: Clock LRU (requires one bit per data block)





Given the following cache and access pattern, classify each access as hit, compulsory miss, conflict miss, or capacity miss:

Cache: Word addressed 2 words/block 8 blocks 2-way set associative LRU replacement

Access Pattern (word addresses): 3, 10, 15, 0, 5, 1, 9, 4, 10, 16, 0, 3

Caches – Solution 2

3 (comp, s1, w0), 10 (comp, s1, w1), 15 (comp, s3, w0), 0 (comp, s0, w0), 5 (comp, s2, w0), 1 (hit), 9 (comp, s0, w1), 4 (hit), 10 (hit), 16 (conf, s0, w0), 0 (conf, s0, w1), 3 (hit)

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Virtual Memory

- Caching works well why not extend the basic concept to another level?
- We can make the CPU think it has a much larger memory than it actually does by "swapping" things in and out to disk
- While we're doing this, we might as well go ahead and separate the physical address space and the virtual address space for protection and isolation

VM - Virtual Address

- Address space broken into fixedsized pages
- Two fields in a virtual address - VPN
 - Offset
- Size of offset = $\log_2(\text{size of page})$

VM – Address Translation

- VPN used to index into page table and get Page Table Entry (PTE)
- PTE is located by indexing off of the Page Table Base Register, which is changed on context switches
- PTE contains valid bit, Physical Page Number (PPN), access rights

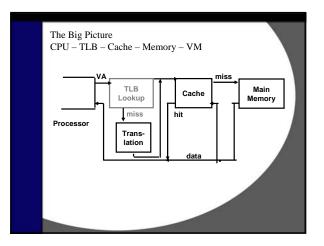
VM - Translation Look-Aside Buffer (TLB)

- VM provides a lot of nice features, but requires several memory accesses for its indirection – this really kills performance
- The solution? Another level of indirection: the TLB
- Very small fully associative cache containing the most recently used mappings from VPN to PPN

VM - Exercise

- Given a processor with the following parameters, how many bytes would be required to hold the entire page table in memory?
- Addresses: 32-bits
- Page Size: 4KB
- Access modes: RO, RW
- Write policy: Write back
- Replacement: Clock LRU (needs 1-bit)

VM – Solution Number of bits page offset = 12 bits Number of bits VPN/PPN = 20 bits Number of pages in address space = 232 bytes/212 bytes = 220 = 1Mpages Size of PTE = 20 + 1 + 1 + 1 = 23 bits Size of PTE = 220 * 23 bits = 24,117,248 bits = 3,014,656 bytes



Big Picture - Exercise

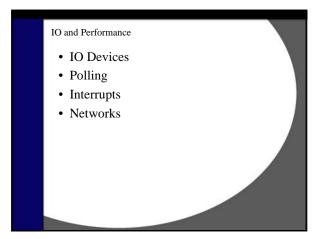
- What happens in the following cases?
- TLB Miss
- Page Table Entry Valid Bit 0
- Page Table Entry Valid Bit 1
- TLB Hit
- Cache Miss
- Cache Hit

Big Picture - Solution

- TLB Miss Go to the page table to fill in the TLB. Retry instruction.
- Page Table Entry Valid Bit 0 / Miss Page not in memory. Fetch from backing store. (Page Fault)
- Page Table Entry Valid Bit 1 / Hit Page in memory. Fill in TLB. Retry instruction.
- TLB Hit Use PPN to check cache.
- Cache Miss Use PPN to retrieve data from main memory. Fill in cache. Retry instruction.
- Cache Hit Data successfully retrieved.
- Important thing to note: Data is *always* retrieved from the cache.

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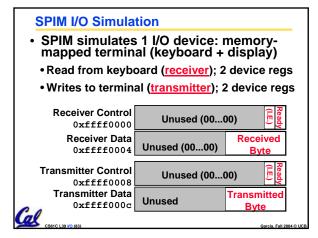
 I/O Device Examples and Speeds I/O Speed: bytes transferred per second (from mouse to Gigabit LAN: 100-million-to-1) 							
Device	Behavior	Partner	Data Rate (KBytes/s)				
Keyboard	Input	Human	0.01				
Mouse	Input	Human	0.02				
Voice output	Output	Human	5.00				
Floppy disk	Storage	Machine	50.00				
Laser Printer	Output	Human	100.00				
Magnetic Disk	Storage	Machine	10,000.00				
Wireless Network	I or O	Machine	10,000.00				
Graphics Display	Output	Human	30,000.00				
Wired LAN Network When discu	l or O Issing tra	Machine ansfer rate	1,000,000.00 es, use 10 ×				

IO - Problems Created by Device Speeds

- CPU runs far faster than even the fastest of IO devices
- CPU runs many orders of magnitude faster than the slowest of currently used IO devices
- Solved by adhering to well defined conventions
 - Control Registers

IO - Device Communication

- Some processors handle IO via special instructions. This is called Programmed IO
- MIPS (and many other platforms) use variations on Memory Mapped IO where writing to or reading from certain portions of the address space actual communicates with the IO device.
- SPIM fakes this communication by using 4 special device registers



IO – Polling

- CPU continuously checks the device's control registers to see if it needs to take any action
- Extremely easy to program
- Extremely inefficient. The CPU spends potentially huge amounts of times polling IO devices.

IO - Interrupts

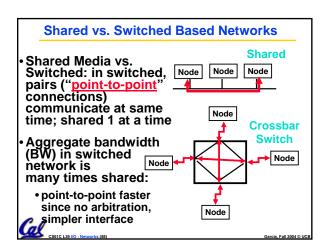
- Asynchronous notification to the CPU that there is something to be dealt with for an IO device
- Not associated with any particular instruction – this implies that the interrupt must carry some information with it
- Causes the processor to stop what it was doing and execute some other code

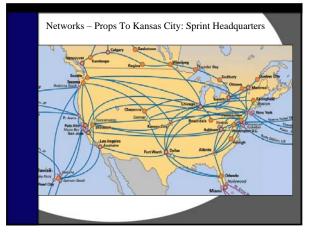
IO - Types of Interrupts

- Exception: A signal marking that something strange has happened. This is usually the direct result of an instruction (i.e. an overflow exception)
- Interrupt: An asynchronous signal that some wants the attention of the CPU, interrupts the CPU in the middle of what it is doing (i.e. a device interrupt)
- Trap: A synchronous exception that is explicitly called for by the programmer to force the processor to do something (i.e. a kernel trap)

IO - Interrupts for Device IO

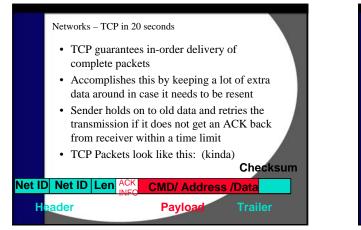
- Device raises a flag in the processor usually called an interrupt line
 When this line is asserted the processor jumps
- to a specific locationThis location is an entry point to the
- Interrupt Service Routine (ISR)
- ISR uses the information that is available about which device raised the interrupt flag to jump to the proper device routine
- Device routine deals with whatever caused the IO Device to generate the interrupt

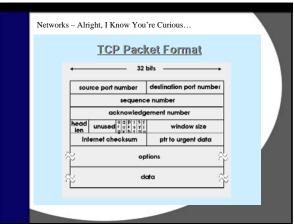




Networks - Protocols

- A protocol establishes a logical format and API for communication
- Actual work is done by a layer beneath the protocol, so as to protect the abstraction
- Allows for encapsulation carry higher level information within lower level "envelope"
- Fragmentation packets can be broken in to smaller units and later reassembled





Networks - Complications

- Packet headers eat in to your total bandwidth
- Software overhead for transmission limits your effective bandwidth significantly

Networks - Exercise

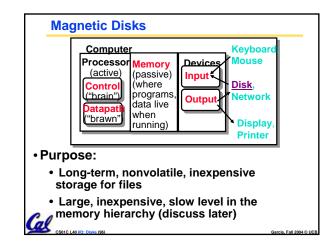
- What percentage of your total bandwidth is being used for protocol overhead in this example:
- •Application sends 1MB of true data

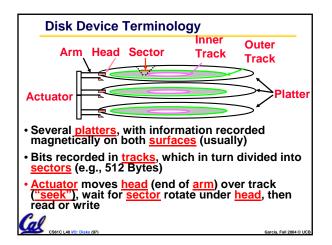
•TCP has a segment size of 64KB and adds a 20B header to each packet

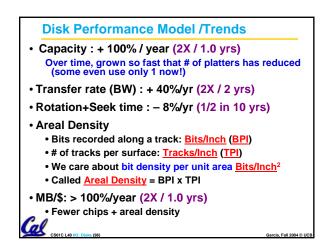
•IP adds a 20B header to each packet

•Ethernet breaks data into 1500B packets and adds 24B worth of header and trailer

Networks – Solution 1MB / 64K = 16 TCP Packets 16 TCP Packets = 16 IP Packets 64K/1500B = 44 Ethernet packets per TCP Packet 16 TCP Packets * 44 = 704 Ethernet packets 20B overhead per TCP packet + 20B overhead per IP packet + 24B overhead per Ethernet packet = 20B * 16 + 20B * 16 + 24B * 704 = 17,536B of overhead We send a total of 1,066,112B of data. Of that, 1.64% is protocol overhead.







Disks – RAID

- Idea was to use small, relatively inexpensive disks in place of large, very expensive disks to reduce cost and increase Mean Time to Failure
- Some RAID models are more successful than others
- We are not going to go over them today, since we just learned this last week.
- That being said, *make sure you know them!*

Performance -- Metrics

- Best overall raw computational power
- Least Cost
- · Best power / Cost
- Response Time?
- Throughput?

Benchmarks help quantify these ideas.

That Was A LOT of Slides!

- Stick around if you have any more questions
- See you at the final, this Tuesday 12/14 from 12:30 to 3:30 at 230 Hearst Gym (and if that isn't confusing, I don't know what is)
- Don't forget to review stuff from before the midterm!
- STUDY!!!