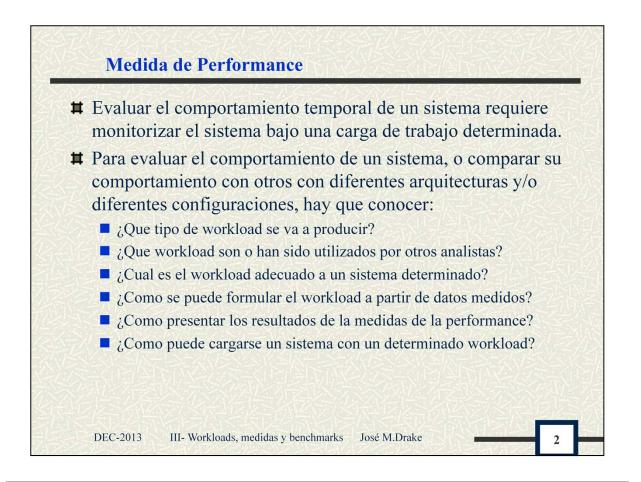
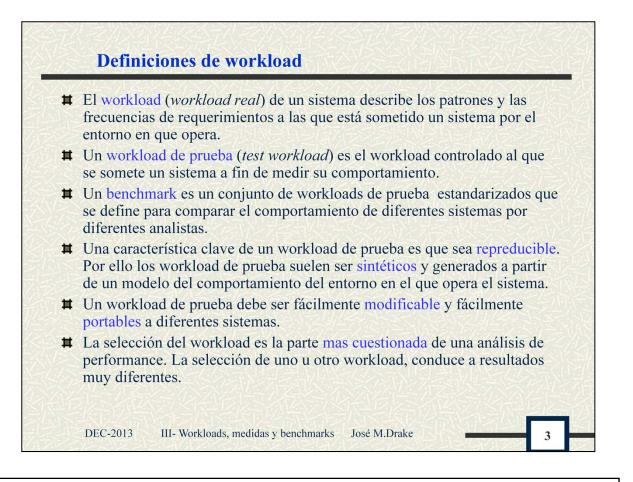


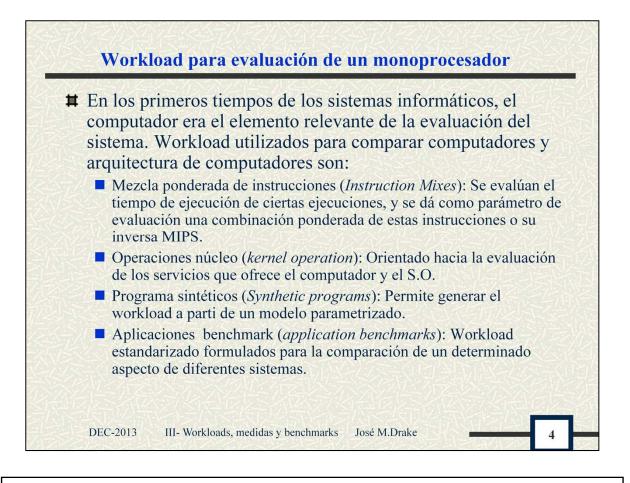
Notas:			



The workload is the most crucial part of any performance evaluation project. It is possible to reach misleading conclusions if the workload is not properly selected. When the conclusions of a study are found to be unacceptable, the inappropriateness of the workload is commonly used as a criticism of the study. Like other aspects of performance evaluation, proper selection of workloads requires many considerations and judgments by the analyst, which is a part of the art of performance evaluation that comes with experience. In this chapter, a number of considerations are described that will help you make the right selection and justify your choice.



The term **test workload** denotes any workload used in performance studies. A test workload can be real or synthetic. A **real workload** is one observed on a system being used for normal operations. It cannot be repeated, and therefore, is generally not suitable for use as a test workload. Instead, a **synthetic workload**, whose characteristics are similar to those of the real workload and can be applied repeatedly in a controlled manner, is developed and used for studies. The main reason for using a synthetic workload is that it is a representation or model of the real workload. Other reasons for using a synthetic workload are no real-world data files, which may be large and contain sensitive data, are required; the workload can be easily modified without affecting operation; it can be easily ported to different systems due to its small size; and it may have built-in measurement capabilities.

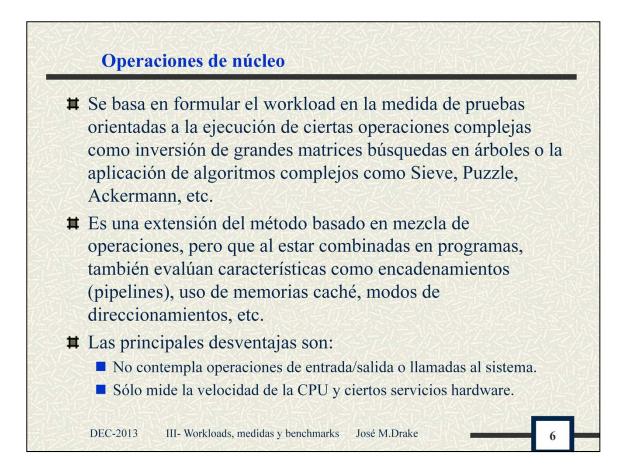


tiempo de ejecución de cie	rtas instruc ción una co MIPS.	<i>nstruction Mixes</i>): Se evalúa ciones básica de la CPU, y se mbinación ponderada de esta es la de Gibson:	e dá
Load and store	31.2%	F.P. multiply	0.6%
F.P. Add and substract	6.1%	F.P. Divide	0.2%
Compares	3.8%	Shifting	4.4%
Branches	16.6	Loggical and and or	1.6%
Floating add and substract	6.9	Instruction not using registers	5.3%
Floating multiply	0.6	Indexing	18.0%

As the number and complexity of instructions supported by the processors grew, the addition instruction was no longer sufficient, and a more detailed workload description was required. This need led several people to measure the relative frequencies of various instructions on real systems and to use these as weighting factors to get an average instruction time.

An **instruction mix** is a specification of various instructions coupled with their usage frequency. Given different instruction timings, it is possible to compute an average instruction time for a given mix and use the average to compare different processors. Several instruction mixes are used in the computer industry; the most commonly quoted one is the Gibson mix.

The Gibson mix was developed by Jack C. Gibson in 1959. The Gibson mix extended the averaging to 13 different classes of instructions, shown in the table. The average speed of a processor can be computed from the weighted average of the execution times of instructions in the 13 classes listed in the table.

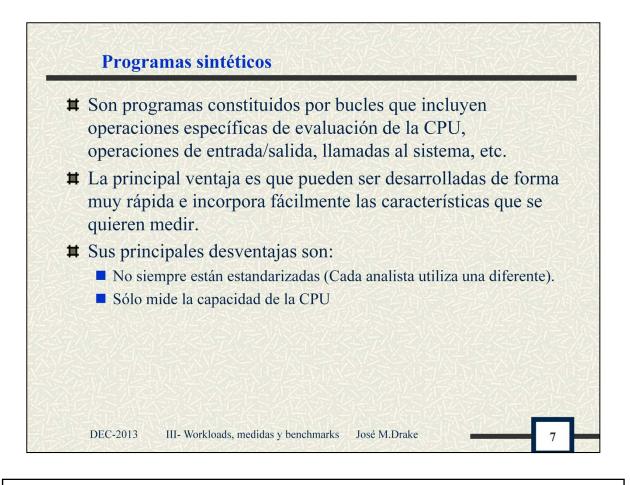


The introduction of pipelining, instruction caching, and various address translation mechanisms made computer instruction times highly variable. An individual instruction could no longer be considered in isolation. Instead, it became more appropriate to consider a set of instructions, which constitutes a higher level function, a *service* provided by the processors. Researchers started making a list of such functions and using the most frequent function as the workload. Such a function is called a **kernel**. Since most of the initial kernels did not make use of the input/output (I/O) devices and concentrated solely on the processor performance, this class of kernels could be called the **processing kernel**.

A kernel is a generalization of the instruction mix. The word *kernel* means nucleus. In some specialized applications, one can identify a set of common operations, for example, matrix inversion. Different processors can then be compared on the basis of their performance on this kernel operation. Some of the commonly used kernels are Sieve, Puzzle, Tree Searching, Ackermann's Function, Matrix Inversion, and Sorting. However, unlike instruction mixes, most kernels are not based on actual measurements of systems. Rather, they became

popular after being used by a number of researchers trying to compare their processor architectures.

Most of the disadvantages of instruction mixes also apply to kernels, although some of the disadvantages related to parameter values, such as frequency of zeros and frequency of branches, no longer apply. The main disadvantage of kernels is that they do not typically make use of I/O devices, and thus, the kernel performance does not reflect the total system performance.

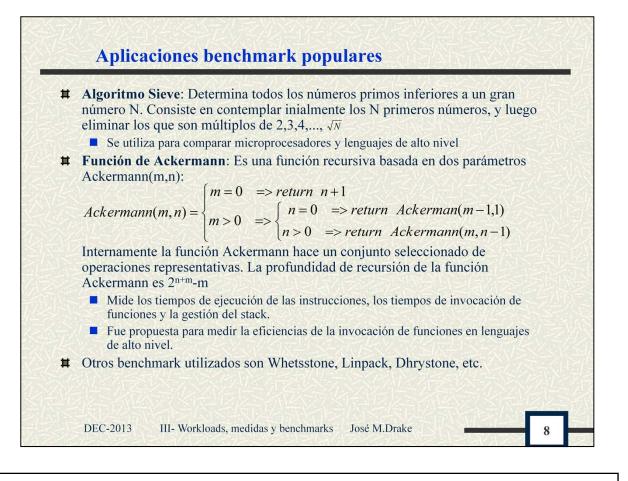


The processing kernels do not make use of any operating system services or I/O devices. As the applications of computer systems are proliferating, they are no longer used for processing-only applications. Input/output operations have become an important part of the real workloads. Initial attempts to measure I/O performance lead analysts to develop simple exerciser loops that make a specified number of service calls or I/O requests. This allows them to compute the average CPU time and elasped time for each service call. In order to maintain portability to different operating systems, such exercisers are usually written in high-level languages.

The first exerciser loop was proposed by Buchholz (1969) who called it a synthetic program. By adjusting the control parameters, one can control the number of times the request is made. Exerciser loops are also used to measure operating system services such as process creation, forking, and memory allocation.

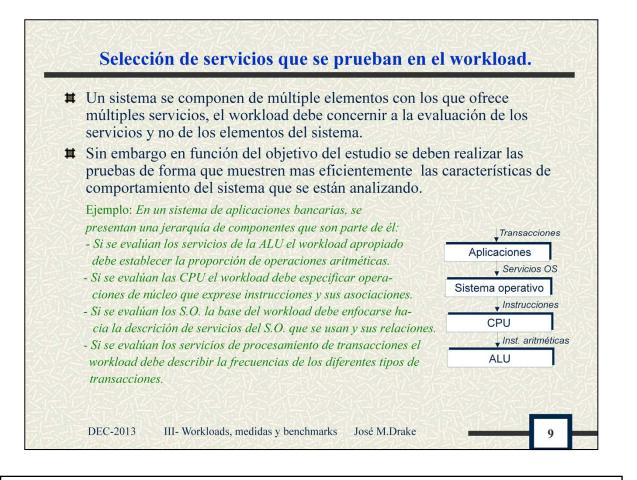
The main advantage of exerciser loops is that they can be quickly developed and given to different vendors. It is not necessary to use real data files, which may contain proprietary information. The programs can be easily modified and ported to different systems. Further, most exercisers have builtin measurement capabilities. Thus, once developed, the measurement process is. automated and can be repeated easily on successive versions of the operating systems to characterize the relative performance gains/losses.

The disadvantages of exercisers are that they are generally too small and do not make representative memory or disk references. The mechanisms of page faults and disk cache may not be adequately exercised. The CPU-I/O overlap may not be representative. In particular, exercisers are not suitable for multiuser environments since the loops may create synchronizations, which may result in better or worse performance.



If the computer systems to be compared are to be used for a particular application, such as banking or airline reservations, a representative subset of functions for that application may be used. Such benchmarks are generally described in terms of functions to be performed and make use of almost all resources in the system, including processors, I/O devices, networks, and databases.

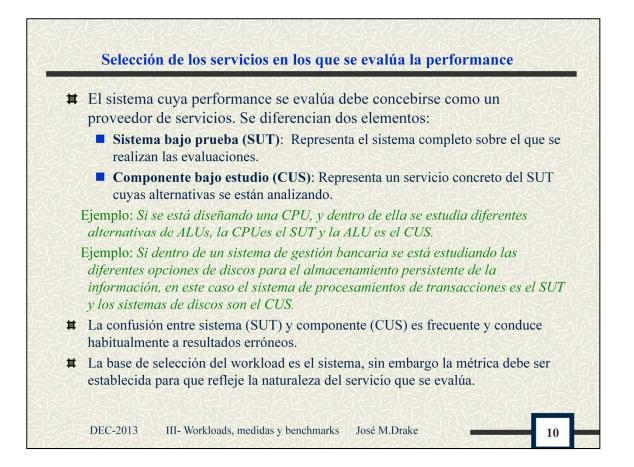
In trade presses, the term *benchmark* is almost always used synonymously with workload. Kernels, synthetic programs, and application-level workloads, for example, are all called benchmarks. Although the instruction mixes are a type of workload, they have not been called benchmarks. Some authors have attempted to restrict the term benchmark to refer only to the set of programs taken from real workloads. This distinction, however, has mostly been ignored in the literature. Thus, the process of performance comparison for two or more systems by measurements is called **benchmarks**.



The best way to start the workload selection is to view the system as a service provider. The metrics chosen should reflect the performance of services provided at the system level and not at the component level. For example, the MIPS is a justifiable metric for comparing two CPUs, but it is not appropriate for comparing two timesharing systems. The CPU is only one component of the timesharing system. A timesharing system may provide services such as transaction processing, in which case the performance would be measured by transactions (as opposed to instructions) per second.

The basis for workload selection is also the system and not the component. For example, the services provided by the CPUs are the so-called instructions, and the CPU designers may want to use instruction frequency as a possible representation of workload. The services provided by the turn-key banking systems are generally called "transactions," and so the bank may use the transaction frequencies as the workload.

Notice that using instruction frequencies to specify the workload of a banking system is not appropriate, since the performance of the banking system depends on several components in addition to that of the CPU. Similarly, using transactions to compare two CPUs may or may not be appropriate, since the performance may be affected by other components such as I/O devices. However, if a manufacturer offers two banking systems that are identical except for the CPUs, the two systems can be compared using transaction frequencies as the workload. This latter study may sometimes be inaccurately referred to as the comparison of the two CPUs.



Often the term **System Under Test (SUT)** is used to denote the complete set of components that are being purchased or being designed by the organization. Sometimes there is one specific component in the SUT whose alternatives are being considered. This component is called **Component Under Study (CUS)**.

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A single request at ahigher level may result in one or more requests at the lower level. As shown in the figure, the interface levels are:

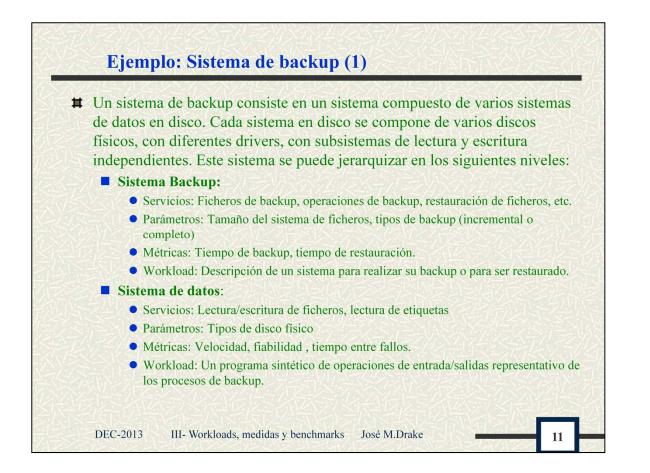
1. Arithmetic-logic unit 2. Central processing unit 3. Operating system 4. Applications

The workload could be described by summarizing the requests at any one of these interface levels, dependingupon what constitutes the SUT. If two ALUs are being compared, that is, the ALUs are the systems, the arithmetic instructions constitute the services or requests. The appropriate workload in this case is to specify the frequency of various arithmetic instructions or to specify the most frequent arithmetic instruction, which may very well be the addition instruction.

If two CPUs are being compared, the instruction set of the processors constitutes the service provided. One possibility in this case is to use the instruction mix. However, if the performance of one instruction depends upon that of other neighboring instructions, the workload should be specified in terms of a set of instructions that are commonly used together.

If two systems are being compared at the operating system level, the services provided by the operating systems, including the operating system commands and system services, should form the basis of the workload.

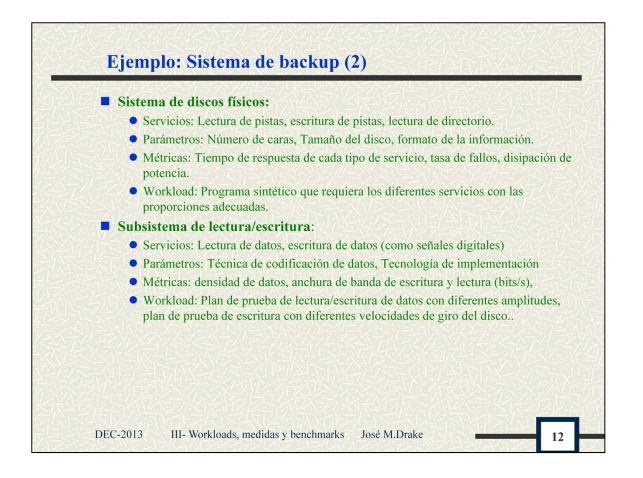
If two turn-key transaction processing systems are being compared, the application interface is the SUT level and the requests at this level, namely, the transactions, would form the basis of workload. The workload could be described by specifying the frequency of various types of transactions or the most frequent transaction.



A magnetic tape backup system consists of several tape data systems, each containing several tape drives. The drives have separate read and write subsystems. Each subsystem makes use of magnetic heads. Thus, starting from a high level and moving down to lower levels, the services, factors, metrics, and workloads are as follows:

1. Backup System:

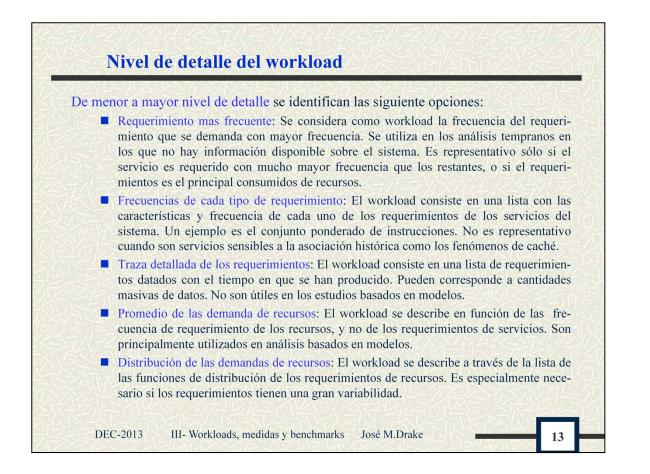
- (a) Services: Backup files, backup changed files, restore files, list backed-up files.
- (b) Factors: File system size, batch or background process, incremental or full backups.
- (c) Metrics: Backup time, restore time.
- (d) Workload: A computer system with files to be backed up. Vary frequency of backups.
- **2.** *Tape Data System:*
- (a) Services: Read/write to the tape, read tape label, autoload tapes.
- (**b**) Factors: Type of tape drive.
- (c) Metrics: Speed, reliability, time between failures.
- (d) Workload: A synthetic program generating representative tape I/O requests.



Notas: 3. *Tape Drives:*(a) Services: Read record, write record, rewind, find record, move to end of tape, move to beginning of tape. (b) Factors: Cartridge or reel tapes, drive size. (c) Metrics: Time for each type of service, for example, time to read record and to write record, speed (requests per unit time), noise, power dissipation. (d) Workload: A synthetic program exerciser generating various types of requests in a representative manner. 4. *Read/Write Subsystem:*(a) Services: Read data, write data (as digital signals). (b) Factors: Data-encoding technique, implementation technology (CMOS, TTL, and so forth).

(c) Metrics: Coding density, I/O bandwidth (bits per second).

(d) Workload: Read/write data streams with varying patterns of bits.



The least detailed alternative is to select the most frequently requested service and use it as the workload. While this may not provide enough information about the system, this is commonly used as the initial workload. The addition instruction to compare early ALUs, various kernels to compare processors, and the debit-credit benchmark to compare transaction processing systems are examples of this approach. It is particularly valid if one type of service is requested much more often than others or is a major consumer of resources in the system.

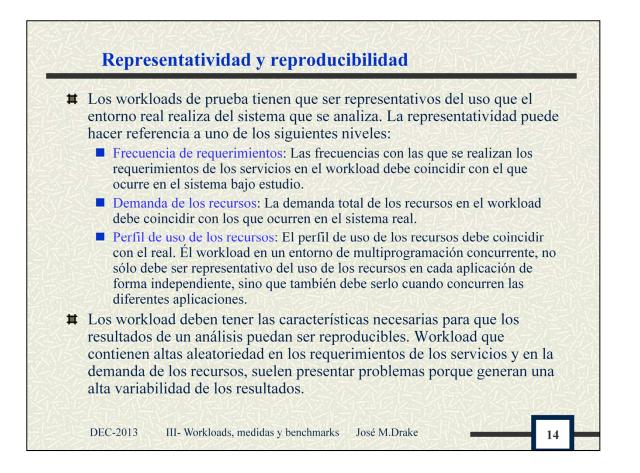
The second alternative is to list various services, their characteristics, and frequency. The instruction mixes are examples of this approach. If the performance of a service depends upon the context, that is, on the services required in the past, the set of services that are expected to be context free are more appropriate than the individual services. History-sensitive mechanisms, such as caching in computer systems, often make this grouping necessary.

The third alternative is to get a time-stamped record (called a **trace**) of requests on a real system and use it as a workload. The problem with this alternative is that it may be too detailed. It is certainly inconvenient for analytical modeling. Also, for simulation it may require exact reproduction of component behavior to maintain the timing relationships.

In analytical modeling, the resource demands placed by the requests, rather than the requests themselves, are used as the workload. For example, the statement that each user has an average CPU time of 50 milliseconds and makes 20 I/O's per request may be a sufficient workload description for analytical modeling. In case of multiple services, several similar services can be grouped into a class, and each class may be characterized by its average resource demands.

The average demand may not be sufficient in some cases, and it may be necessary to specify the complete probability distribution for resource demands. This is particularly the case if there is a large variance in resource demands or if the distribution is different than that used in the model. Particularly, in simulations, it is easy to use different distributions. The analytical models are generally restricted to a given distribution.

The workload descriptions used for analytical and simulation modeling are also referred to as **nonexecutable** workloads since they are not in a form suitable for execution on a real system. On the other hand, a trace of user commands that can be executed directly on a system would be called an **executable** workload.



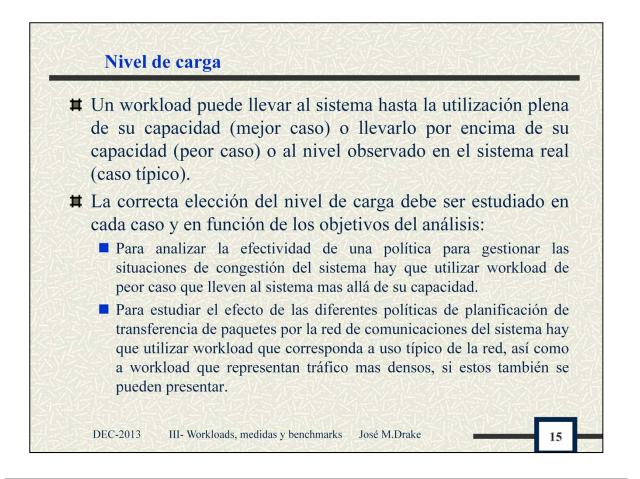
A test workload should be representative of the real application. One definition of representativeness is that the test workload and the real application match in the following three respects:

1. *Arrival Rate:* The arrival rate of requests should be the same or proportional to that of the application.

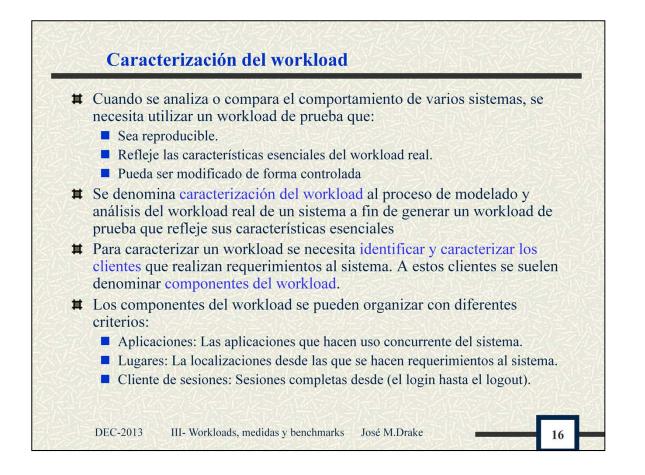
2. *Resource Demands:* The total demands on each of the key resources should be the same or proportional to that of the application.

3. *Resource Usage Profile:* Resource usage profile relates to the sequence and the amounts in which different resources are used in an application. In a multiprogramming environment, it is important that the test workloads have a resource usage profile similar to that of the applications. Otherwise, it is possible that total resource demands of individual workloads may be representative of their respective

applications, but when several workloads are run together, they may not produce results representative of combined applications.



Loading Level: A workload may exercise a system to its full capacity (best case), beyond its capacity (worst case), or at the load level observed in real workload (typical case). For procurement purposes, a workload measured in a similar existing environment may be good enough. However, for computer system design, you may have to identify all the environments where the system might be used and study performance under best, worst, and typical workloads. The correct choice of the loading level varies from case to case. For example, to measure the effectiveness of a congestion control scheme, the network should be exercised beyond its capacity, while the packet etransmission schemes should be tested for normal as well as heavy load, since the retransmissions may be required under both circumstances.



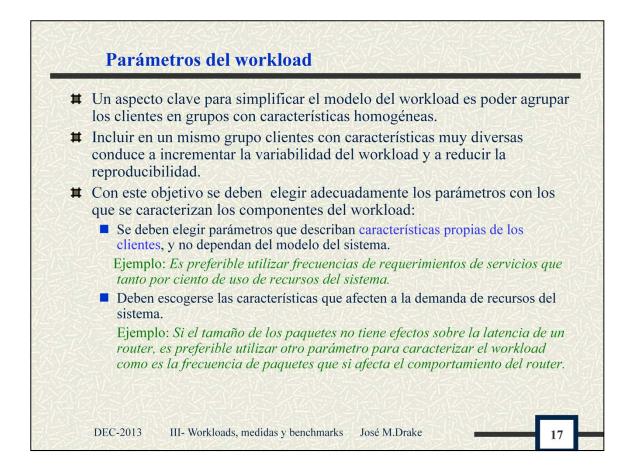
In order to test multiple alternatives under identical conditions, the workload should be repeatable. Since a real-user environment is generally not repeatable, it is necessary to study the real-user environments, observe the key characteristics, and develop a workload model that can be used repeatedly. This process is called **workload characterization**. Once a workload model is available, the effect of changes in the workload and system can be studied in a controlled manner by simply changing the parameters of the model.

In workload characterization literature, the term **workload component** or **workload unit** is used instead of the user. The workload characterization consists of characterizing a typical user or workload component. Other examples of workload components are as follows:

• *Applications*: If one wants to characterize the behavior of various applications, such as mail, text editing, or program development, then each application may be considered a workload component and the average behavior of each application may be characterized.

• *Sites*: If one desires to characterize the workload at each of several locations of an organization, the sites may be used as workload components.

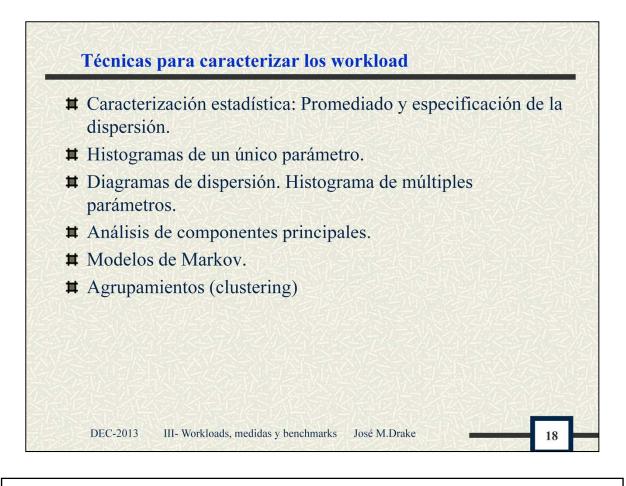
• *User Sessions*: Complete user sessions from login to logout may be monitored, and applications run during the session may be combined.



The key requirement for the selection of the workload component is that it be at the SUT interface. Another consideration is that each component should represent as homogeneous a group as possible.

The measured quantities, service requests, or resource demands, which are used to model or characterize the workload, are called **workload parameters** or **workload features**. Examples of workload parameters are transaction types, instructions, packet sizes, source destinations of a packet, and page reference pattern.

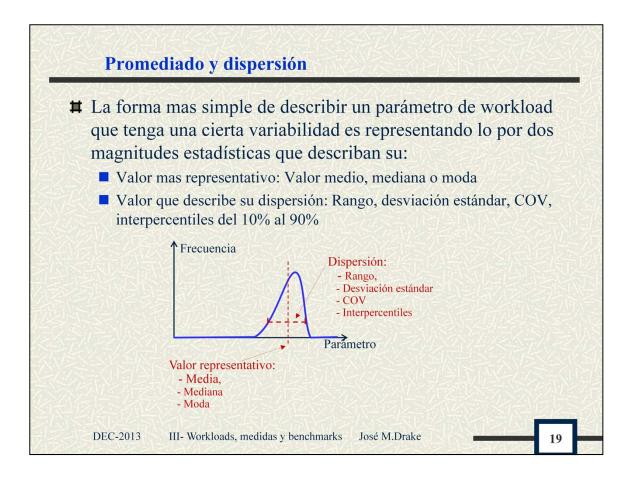
In choosing the parameters to characterize the workload, it is preferable to use those parameters that depend on the workload rather than on the system. For example, the elasped time (response time) for a transaction is not appropriate as a workload parameter, since it depends highly on the system on which the transaction is executed. This is one reason why the number of service requests rather than the amount of resource demanded is preferable as a workload parameter.

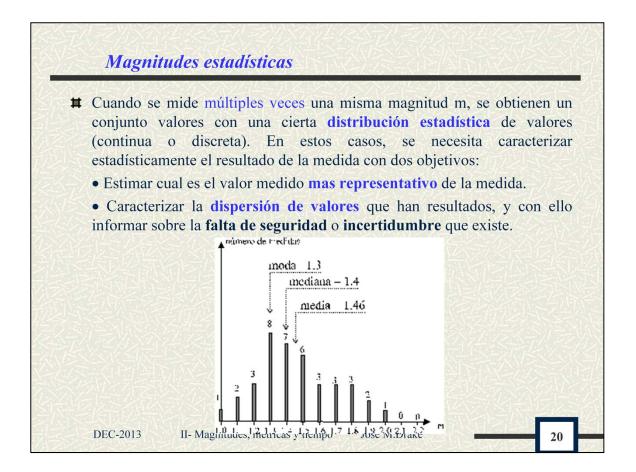


There are several characteristics of service requests (or resource demands) that are of interest. For example, arrival time, type of request or the resource demanded, duration of the request, and quantity of the resource demanded by each request may be represented in the workload model. Particularly those charcteristics that have a significant impact on the performance should be included in the workload parameters, and those that have little impact should be excluded. For example, if the packet size has no impact on packet forwarding time at a router, it may be omitted from the list of workload parameters, and only the number of packets and arrival times of packets may be used instead.

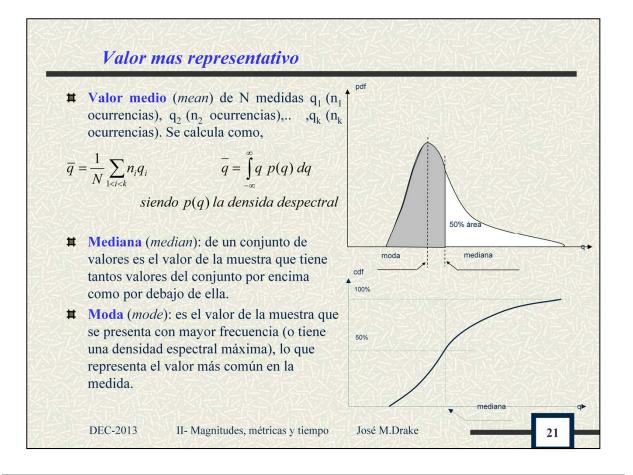
The following techniques have been used in the past for workload characterization:

- 1. Averaging
- **2.** Specifying dispersion
- 3. Single-parameter histograms
- 4. Multiparameter histograms
- 5. Principal-component analysis
- 6. Markov models
- 7. Clustering

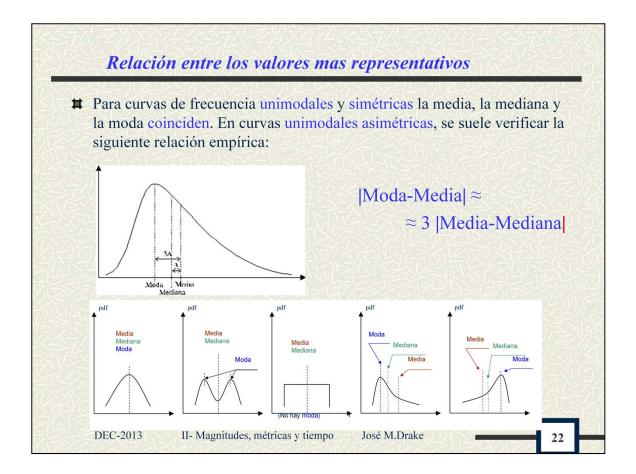




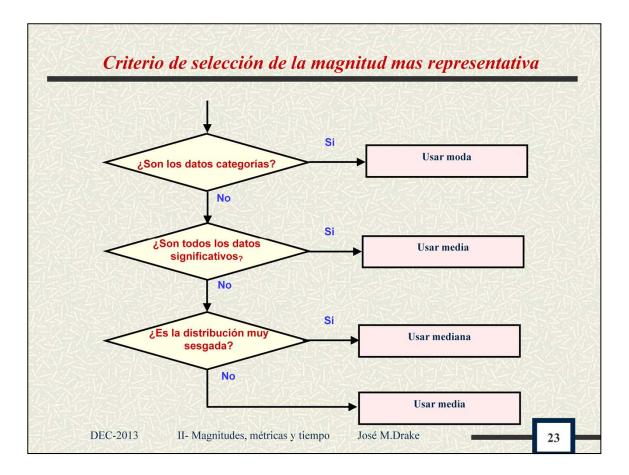




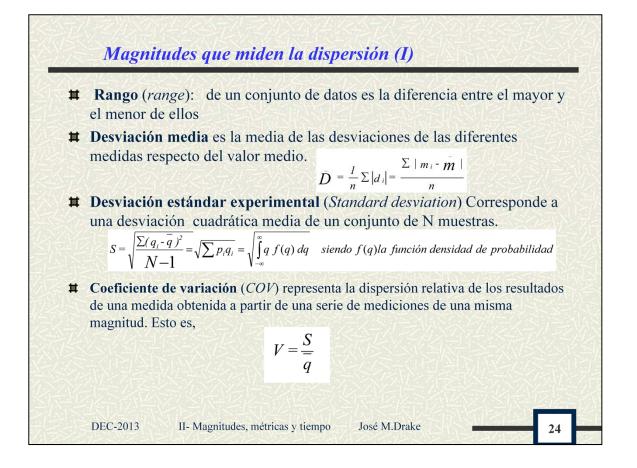
In the most condensed form, a single number may be presented that gives the key characteristic of the data set. This single number is usually called an **average** of the data. To be meaningful, this average should be representative of a major part of the data set. Three popular alternatives to summarize a sample are to specify its mean, median, or mode. These measures are what statisticians call **indices of central tendencies**. The name is based on the fact that these measures specify the center of location of the distribution of the observations in the sample.

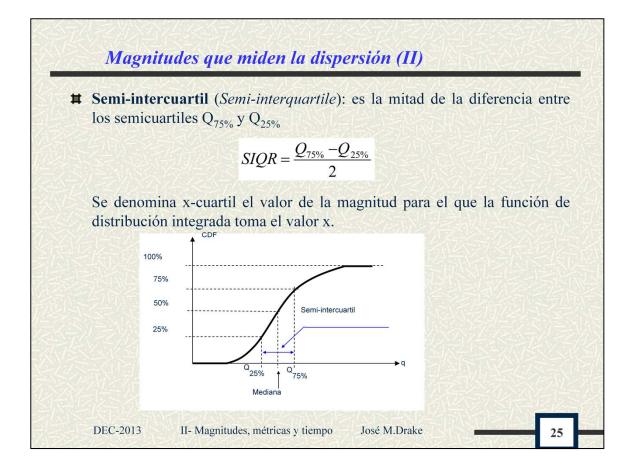


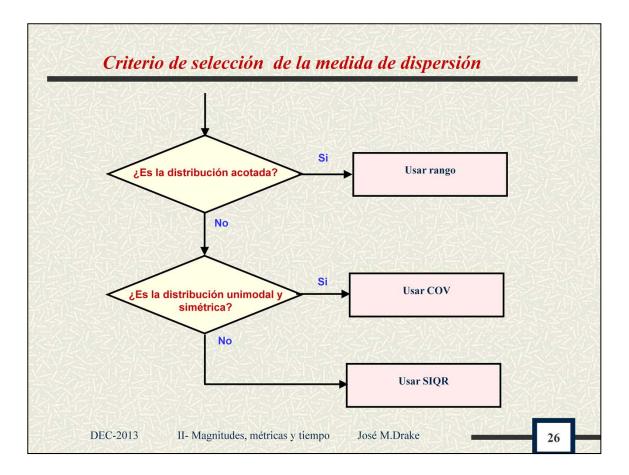
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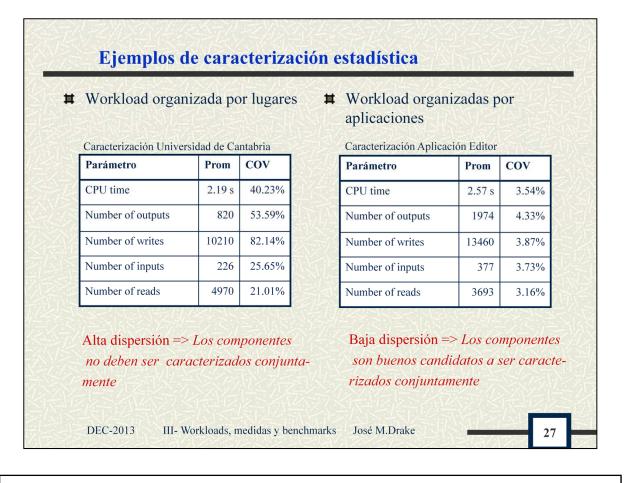




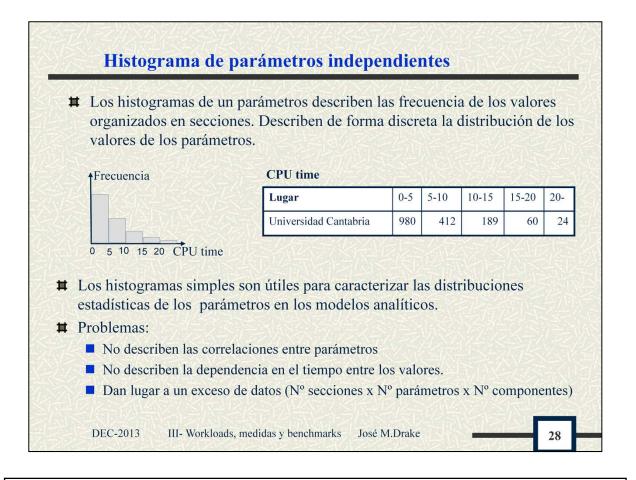








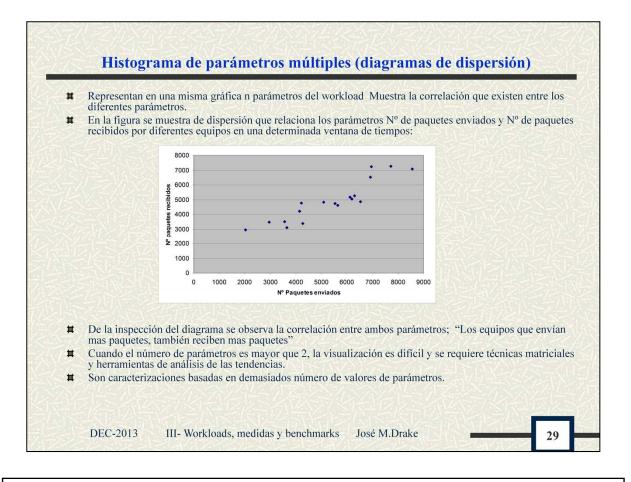
The resource demands of various programs executed on six university sites were measured for 6 months. The average demand by each program is shown in Table 6.1. Notice that the C.O.V. of the measured values are rather high, indicating that combining all programs into one class is not a good idea. Programs should be divided into several classes. The table shows the average demand for all editors in the same data. The C.O.V. are now much lower.



A histogram shows the relative frequencies of various values of a parameter. For continuous-value parameters, this requires dividing the complete parameter range into several smaller subranges called *buckets* (or *cells*) and counting the observations that fall in each cell. An example is shown in the figure for CPU time. The results can also be presented in tabular form, as shown in the table.

Given n buckets per histogram, m parameters per component, and k components, this method requires presenting nmk numerical values. This may be too much detail to be useful. Thus, this should be used only if the variance is high and the averages cannot be used.

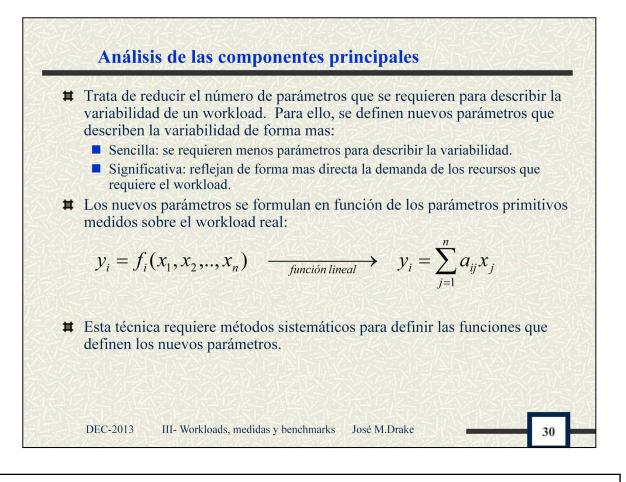
The key problem with using individual-parameter histograms is that they ignore the correlation among different parameters.



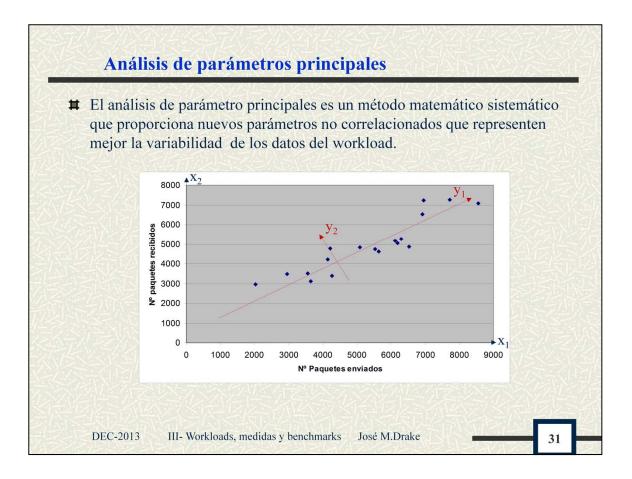
If there is a significant correlation between different workload parameters, the workload should be characterized using multiparameter histograms. An n-dimensional matrix (or histogram) is used to describe the distribution of n workload parameters.

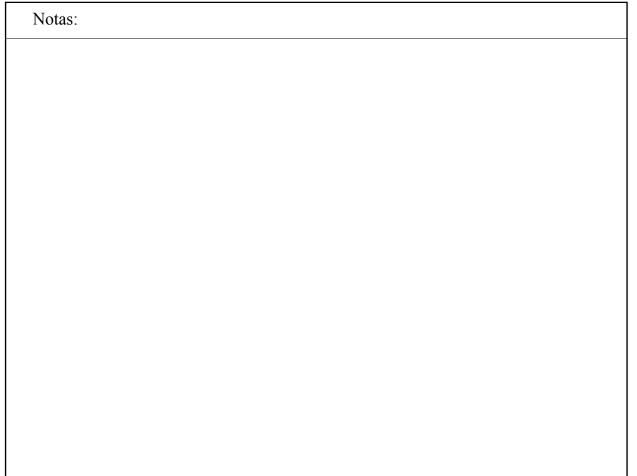
The figure shows an example of a simplistic plot of a two-parameter joint histogram. The number of frames sent and received by stations on a local-area network are plotted. Each dot in the figure represents a station. The number of dots in a square represents the number of stations that sent and received the frames in the range corresponding to the cell. Generally, the stations sending a large number of frames are also the ones that receive a large number of frames. Thus, there is a significant correlation between the two parameters.

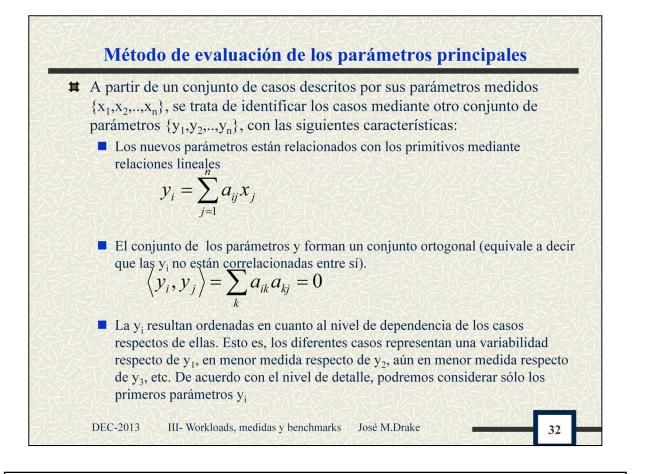
It is difficult to plot joint histograms for more than two parameters. Also, as discussed before, even single-parameter histograms are too detailed in some cases. Multiparameter histograms are even more detailed; they are therefore rarely used.



One technique commonly used to classify workload components is by the weighted sum of values. Using *aj* as weight for the *j*th parameter *xj*, the weighted sum *y* is $y=\sum_j a_j x_j$ This sum can then be used to classify the components into a number of classes such as low medium demand. Although this technique is commonly used in performance analysis software, the person running the software is asked to choose the weight. Without any concrete guidelines, may assign weights such that workload components with very different characteristics may together, and the mean characteristics of the group may not correspond to any member.







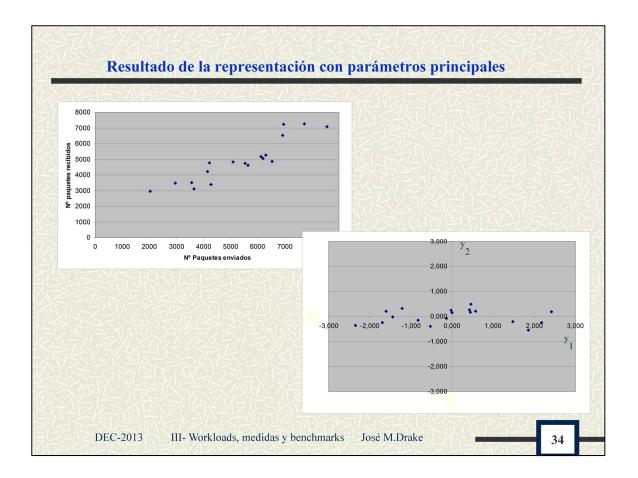
- One method of determining the weights in such situations is to use the principal-component analysis, which allows finding the weights *wi*'s such that *yj*'s provide the maximum discrimination among the components.
- The quantity y_j is called the **principal factor(*)**. Statistically, given a set of *n* parameters $\{x_1, x_2, ..., x_n\}$, the principal-component analysis produces a set of **factors** $\{y_1, y_2, ..., y_n\}$ such that the following holds:
- 1. The y's are linear combinations of x's.
- 2. The y's form an orthogonal set, that is, their inner product is zero.
- 3. The y's form an ordered set such that y1 explains the highest percentage of the variance in resource demands, y2 explains a lower percentage, y3 explains a still lower percentage, and so forth. Thus, depending upon the level of detail required, only the first few factors can be used to classify the workload components.
- (*) The correct term is principal component. However, to avoid confusion with workload components, the term

principal factor, which has a slightly different meaning in factor analysis, is used here.

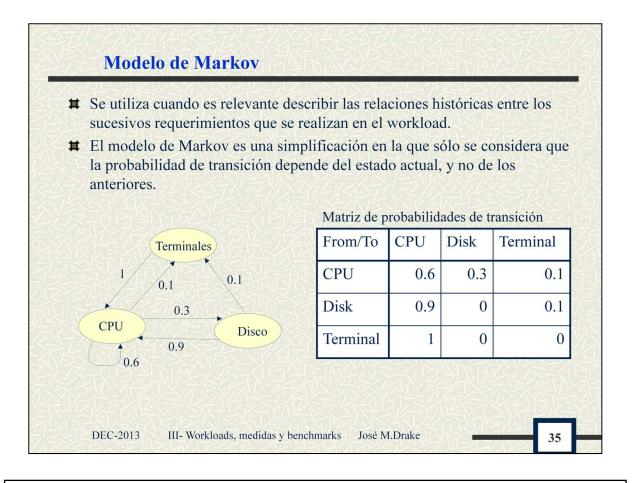
Caso	X ₁	X ₂	x'1	x'2	y ₁	y ₂	1) Se calculan la media y la
1	7718	7258	1,359	1,717	2,175	-0,253	desviación típica.
2	6958	7232	0,922	1,698	1,853	-0,549	2) Se normalizan los parámetros
3	8551	7062	1,837	1,575	2,413	0,186	3) Se calculan los coeficientes de
4	6924	6526	0,903	1,186	1,477	-0,200	correlación entre $x_1 y x_2$
5	6298	5251	0,543	0,262	0,570	0,199	4) Matriz de correlación
6	6120	5158	0,441	0,195	0,450	0,174	5) Se determinan los autovalores
7	6184	5051	0,478	0,117	0,421	0,255	de la matriz de correlación.
8	6527	4850	0,675	-0,029	0,457	0,497	6) Se calculan los autovalores de la
			-0,156	0,047			matriz de correlación
14	3562	3497			-1,441	-0,013	7) Se evalúan las ecuaciones de
15	2955	3480	-1,377	-1,022	-1,696	-0,251	transformación
16	4261	3392	-0,627	-1,085	-1,211	0,324	8) Se calculan los valores de los
17	3644	3120	-0,981	-1,283	-1,601	0,213	 casos en y₁ e y₂ 9) Se determinan los valores
18	2020	2946	-1,914	-1,409	-2,349	-0,357	medios y desviación estándar en
							los parámetros $y_1 e y_2$
Media	5352,0	4889,4	0,0000	0,0000	0,000	0,000	10) Se dibujan los datos en el
DesvStd	1741,0	1379,5	1,0000	1,0000	1,384	0,290	nuevo sistema de coordenadas.

The number of packets sent and received, denoted by xs and xr, respectively, by various stations on a local-area network were measured. The observed numbers are shown in the second and third columns of the table. A scatter plot of the data is shown in Figure (pgna 24). As seen from this figure, there is considerable correlation between the two variables. The steps in determining the principal factors are as follows:

El calculo de los factores principales de este ejemplo, puede verse completo en las Pgnas 78-80 del libro de Raj Jain.

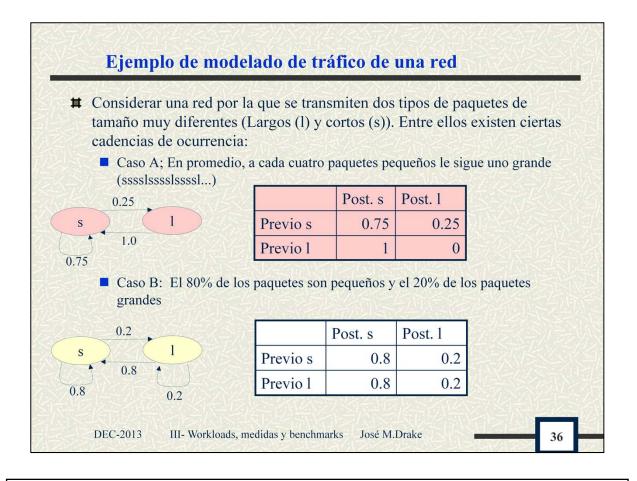






Sometimes, it is important to have not only the number of service requests of each type but also their order. The next request is generally determined by the last few requests. If it is assumed that the next request depends only on the last request, then the requests follow a **Markov model**. Actually, the term is used in a more general sense of system states rather than for user requests. That is, if the next system state depends only on the current system state, the system follows a Markov model. The models can be described by a *transition matrix*, which gives the probabilities of the next state given the current state. For example, the transition probability matrix for a job's transition between the CPU, disk, and terminal is shown in the table. The corresponding state transition diagram is shown in the figure. After each visit to the CPU, the probability that the job will move to the disk is 0.3, the probability of it going to the terminal is 0.1, and so on.

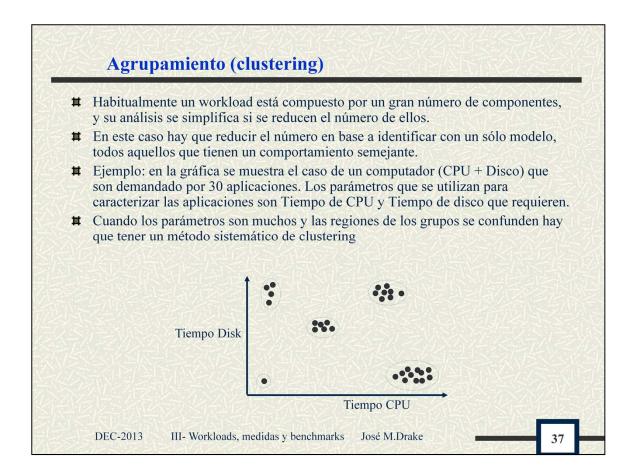
Transition matrices are used not only for resource transitions but also for application transitions. For example, if the users in a software development environment run editors, compilers, linkers, and applications, a transition probability matrix can be used to characterize the probability of a user running software of type j after running the software of type i.



Traffic monitoring on a computer network showed that most of the packets were of two sizes—small and large. The small packets constituted 80% of the traffic. A number of different transition probability matrices will result in an overall average of 80% of small packets. Two of the possibilities are as follows:

1. An average of four small packets are followed by an average of one big packet. A sample sequence, using s for small and b for big, is ssssbssssbssss. In this sequence, three of the four small packets are followed by another small packet. Also, every big packet is followed by a small packet. The corresponding transition probability matrix is the upper table..

2. Another alternative is to generate a random number between 0 and 1. If the number is less than or equal to 0.8, generate a small packet; otherwise, generate a large packet. This assumes that the next packet size does not depend upon the current packet size. The transition probability matrix in this case is the lower table.



Generally, the measured workload consists of a large number of components. For example, several thousand user profiles may have been measured. For analysis purposes, it is useful to classify these components into a small number of classes or clusters such that the components within a cluster are very similar to each other. Later, one member from each cluster may be selected to represent the class and to study the effect of system design decisions on the entire class.

The figure shows the CPU and disk I/O demands of 30 jobs. As shown, the jobs can be classified into five clusters. Thus, instead of using 30 jobs for each analysis, just 5 jobs can be used to represent the average resource demands of each cluster.

To characterize measured workload data using clustering, the steps are as follows:

- 1. Take a sample, that is, a subset of workload components.
- 2. Select workload parameters.
- 3. Transform parameters, if necessary.
- **4.** Remove outliers.
- 5. Scale all observations.
- 6. Select a distance measure.
- 7. Perform clustering.
- **8.** Interpret results.
- 9. Change parameters, or number of clusters, and repeat steps 3 to 7.
- 10. Select representative components from each cluster.

