Chapter 7

Digital Design and Computer Architecture, 2nd Edition

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Chapter 7 :: Topics

- Introduction (done)
- Performance Analysis (done)
- Single-Cycle Processor (done)
- Multicycle Processor (done)
- Pipelined Processor (done)
- Exceptions (done)
- Advanced Microarchitecture (now)





Advanced Microarchitecture

- Deep Pipelining
- Branch Prediction
- Superscalar Processors
- Out of Order Processors
- Register Renaming
- SIMD
- Multithreading
- Multiprocessors



Deep Pipelining

- 10-20 stages typical
- Number of stages limited by:
 - Pipeline hazards
 - Sequencing overhead
 - Power
 - Cost



Branch Prediction

- Ideal pipelined processor: CPI = 1
- Branch misprediction increases CPI
- Static branch prediction:
 - Check direction of branch (forward or backward)
 - If backward, predict taken
 - Else, predict not taken
- Dynamic branch prediction:
 - Keep history of last (several hundred) branches in branch target buffer, record:
 - Branch destination
 - Whether branch was taken



Branch Prediction Example

add	\$s1,	\$0,	\$O
add	\$s0,	\$0,	\$0
addi	\$t0,	\$0,	10
for:			
beq	\$s0,	\$t0,	done
add	\$s1,	\$s1.	\$s0

addi \$s0, \$s0, 1

for

done:

- # sum = 0
- # i = 0
- # \$t0 = 10
 - # if i == 10, branch
- # sum = sum + i
- # increment i



1-Bit Branch Predictor

- Remembers whether branch was taken the last time and does the same thing
- Mispredicts first and last branch of loop
- If the loop is entered again, the "taken" is incorrect.



2-Bit Branch Predictor



- When loop is exited, "strongly not taken" state transitions to "weakly not taken".
- If loop is entered again, it correctly predicts "taken" and the state returns to "strongly not taken".
- Only mispredicts last branch of loop



Superscalar

- Multiple copies of datapath execute multiple instructions at once
- Dependencies make it tricky to issue multiple instructions at once



Superscalar Example with No Dependencies





Superscalar Example with Dependencies



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Out of Order Processor

- Looks ahead across multiple instructions
- Issues as many instructions as possible at once
- Issues instructions out of order (as long as no dependencies)

• Dependencies:

- RAW (read after write): one instruction writes, later instruction reads a register
- WAR (write after read): one instruction reads, later instruction writes a register
- WAW (write after write): one instruction writes, later instruction writes a register



Out of Order Processor

- Instruction level parallelism (ILP): number of instruction that can be issued simultaneously (average < 3)
- Scoreboard: table that keeps track of:
 - -Instructions waiting to issue
 - -Available functional units
 - Dependencies



Out of Order Processor Example





Register Renaming



SIMD

- Single Instruction Multiple Data (SIMD)
 - Single instruction acts on multiple pieces of data at once
 - Common application: graphics
 - Perform short arithmetic operations (also called *packed* arithmetic)
- For example, add four 8-bit elements





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Advanced Architecture Techniques

- Multithreading
 - Wordprocessor: thread for typing, spell checking, printing
- Multiprocessors
 - Multiple processors (cores) on a single chip



Threading: Definitions

- Process: program running on a computer
 - Multiple processes can run at once: e.g., surfing
 Web, playing music, writing a paper
- Thread: part of a program
 - Each process has multiple threads: e.g., a word processor may have threads for typing (perhaps for multiple collaborators), spell checking, printing



Threads in Conventional Processor

- One thread runs at once
- When one thread stalls (for example, waiting for memory):
 - Architectural state of that thread stored
 - Architectural state of waiting thread loaded into processor and it runs
 - Called context switching
- Appears to user like all threads running simultaneously



Multithreading

- Multiple copies of architectural state
- Multiple threads active at once:
 - When one thread stalls, another runs immediately
 - If one thread can't keep all execution units busy, another thread can use them
- Does not increase instruction-level parallelism (ILP) of single thread, but increases throughput

Intel calls this "hyperthreading"



Multiprocessors

- Multiple processors (cores) with a method of communication between them
- Types:
 - Homogeneous: multiple cores with shared memory
 - Heterogeneous: separate cores for different tasks (for example, DSP, GPU, and CPU in cell phone)
 - Clusters: each core has own memory system





COMPUTER ORGANIZATION AND DESIGN The Hardware/Software Interface



Chapter 7

Multicores, Multiprocessors, and Clusters

Introduction

- Goal: connecting multiple computers to get higher performance
 - Multiprocessors
 - Scalability, availability, power efficiency
- Job-level (process-level) parallelism
 - High throughput for independent jobs
- Parallel processing program
 - Single program run on multiple processors
- Multicore microprocessors
 - Chips with multiple processors (cores)

Hardware and Software

- Hardware
 - Serial: e.g., Pentium 4
 - Parallel: e.g., 16 cores on an Intel i7-10700 CPU
- Software
 - Sequential: e.g., matrix multiplication
 - Concurrent: e.g., operating system
- Sequential/concurrent software can run on serial/parallel hardware
 - Challenge: making effective use of parallel hardware, aka "load balancing"

What We've Already Covered

- §2.11: Parallelism and Instructions
 - Synchronization
- §3.6: Parallelism and Computer Arithmetic
 - Associativity
- §4.10: Parallelism and Advanced Instruction-Level Parallelism
- §5.8: Parallelism and Memory Hierarchies
 - Cache Coherence
 - §6.9: Parallelism and I/O:
 - Redundant Arrays of Inexpensive Disks

Parallel Programming

- Parallel software is the problem
- Need to get significant performance improvement
 - Otherwise, just use a faster uniprocessor, since it's easier!
- Difficulties
 - Partitioning
 - Coordination
 - Communications overhead

Amdahl's Law (Review)

Sequential part can limit speedup

$$T = T_p + T_s$$

("p": parallelizeable, "s": sequential

$$T_{new} = T_p / N + T_s$$
 for N processors

• let $f = T_p / T_{old}$, the fraction of time in the original program that can be parallelized

• then
$$T_p = f T$$
 and $T_s = (1 - f) T$

we derive

speedup =
$$\frac{T}{T_{new}} = \frac{T}{(1-f)T + \frac{f}{N}T} = \frac{1}{(1-f) + \frac{f}{N}T}$$

Amdahl's Law (Review)

- Sequential part can limit speedup
- Example: N = 100 processors, want 90× speedup?
- We solve:

$$\frac{1}{(1-f)+\frac{f}{N}}=90$$

- Yields *f* ≈ 0.999
- Need sequential part to be 0.1% of original time

Scaling Example

- Workload: (a) sum of 10 scalars, and (b) 10 × 10 matrix sum
 - Speed up from 10 to 100 processors
- Single processor: Time = $(10 + 100) \times t_{add}$
- 10 processors
 - Time = $10 \times t_{add} + 100/10 \times t_{add} = 20 \times t_{add}$
 - Speedup = 110/20 = 5.5 (55% of potential)
- 100 processors
 - Time = $10 \times t_{add} + 100/100 \times t_{add} = 11 \times t_{add}$
 - Speedup = 110/11 = 10 (10% of potential)
- Assumes load can be balanced across processors

Scaling Example (cont)

- What if matrix size is 100 × 100?
- Single processor: Time = $(10 + 10000) \times t_{add}$
- 10 processors
 - Time = $10 \times t_{add} + 10000/10 \times t_{add} = 1010 \times t_{add}$
 - Speedup = 10010/1010 = 9.9 (99% of potential)
- 100 processors
 - Time = $10 \times t_{add} + 10000/100 \times t_{add} = 110 \times t_{add}$
 - Speedup = 10010/110 = 91 (91% of potential)
- Assuming load balanced



Strong vs Weak Scaling

- Strong scaling: problem size fixed (speedup is easy)
 - As in example
- Weak scaling: problem size proportional to number of processors (speedup is hard)
 - 10 processors, 10 × 10 matrix
 - Time = $20 \times t_{add}$
 - 100 processors, 32 × 32 matrix
 - Time = $10 \times t_{add} + 1000/100 \times t_{add} = 20 \times t_{add}$
 - Constant performance in this example

Strong vs Weak Scaling

- Which to use?
 - depends on the application:
 What are you trying to prove to whom?
 - given problem size M and P processors
- Strong scaling (solve existing problems faster)
 - memory/processor ~M/P
- Weak scaling (take on bigger problems)
 - memory/processor ~M
 - may be affected by memory bottleneck

Shared Memory

- SMP: shared memory multiprocessor
 - Hardware provides single physical address space for all processors
 - Synchronize shared variables using locks
 - Memory access time
 - UMA (uniform) vs. NUMA (nonuniform)



Example: Sum Reduction

- Sum 100,000 numbers on 100 processor UMA
 - Each processor has ID: $0 \le Pn \le 99$
 - Partition 1000 numbers per processor
 - Initial summation on each processor

Now need to add these partial sums

- Reduction: divide and conquer
- Half the processors add pairs, then quarter, ...
- Need to synchronize between reduction steps

Example: Sum Reduction



Message Passing

- Each processor has private physical address space
- Hardware sends/receives messages between processors




Loosely Coupled Clusters

- Network of independent computers
 - Each has private memory and OS
 - Connected using I/O system
 - E.g., Ethernet/switch, Internet
- Suitable for applications with independent tasks
 - Web servers, databases, simulations, …
- High availability, scalable, affordable
- Problems
 - Administration cost (prefer virtual machines)
 - Low interconnect bandwidth
 - c.f. processor/memory bandwidth on an SMP

Sum Reduction (Again)

- Sum 100,000 on 100 processors
- First distribute 1000 numbers to each
 - Then do partial sums

$$sum = 0;$$

for (i = 0; i < 1000; i = i + 1)
sum = sum + AN[i];</pre>

Reduction

- Half the processors send, other half receive and add
- The quarter send, quarter receive and add, ...

Sum Reduction (Again)

Given send() and receive() operations

```
limit = 100; half = 100; /* 100 processors */
repeat
half = (half+1)/2; /* send vs. receive
dividing line */
if (Pn >= half && Pn < limit)
send(Pn - half, sum);
if (Pn < (limit/2))
sum = sum + receive();
limit = half; /* upper limit of senders */
until (half == 1); /* exit with final sum */</pre>
```

- Send/receive also provide synchronization
- Assumes send/receive take similar time to addition

Grid Computing

- Separate computers interconnected by long-haul networks
 - E.g., Internet connections
 - Work units farmed out, results sent back
- Can make use of idle time on PCs
 - E.g., SETI@home, World Community Grid



Multithreading

- Performing multiple threads of execution in parallel
 - Replicate registers, PC, etc.
 - Fast switching between threads
- Fine-grain multithreading
 - Switch threads after each cycle
 - Interleave instruction execution
 - If one thread stalls, others are executed
- Coarse-grain multithreading
 - Only switch on long stall (e.g., L2-cache miss)
 - Simplifies hardware, but doesn't hide short stalls (eg, data hazards)

Simultaneous Multithreading

- In multiple-issue dynamically scheduled processor
 - Schedule instructions from multiple threads
 - Instructions from independent threads execute when function units are available
 - Within threads, dependencies handled by scheduling and register renaming
- Example: Intel Pentium-4 HT
 - Two threads: duplicated registers, shared function units and caches



Multithreading Example



superscalar, but no multithreading

superscalar with various kinds of multithreading

Future of Multithreading

- Will it survive? In what form?
- Power considerations ⇒ simplified microarchitectures
 - Simpler forms of multithreading
- Tolerating cache-miss latency
 - Thread switch may be most effective
- Multiple simple cores might share resources more effectively



Instruction and Data Streams

An alternate classification

		Data Streams		
		Single	Multiple	
Instruction Streams	Single	SISD : Intel Pentium 4	SIMD : SSE instructions of x86	
	Multiple	MISD : No examples today	MIMD : Intel Xeon e5345	

- SPMD: Single Program Multiple Data
 - A parallel program on a MIMD computer
 - Conditional code for different processors

SIMD

- Operate elementwise on vectors of data
 - E.g., MMX and SSE instructions in x86
 - Multiple data elements in 128-bit wide registers
- All processors execute the same instruction at the same time
 - Each with different data address, etc.
- Simplifies synchronization
- Reduced instruction control hardware
- Works best for highly data-parallel applications

Vector Processors

- Highly pipelined function units
- Stream data from/to vector registers to units
 - Data collected from memory into registers
 - Results stored from registers to memory
 - Example: Vector extension to MIPS
 - 32 × 64-element registers (64-bit elements)
 - Vector instructions
 - Iv, sv: load/store vector
 - addv.d: add vectors of double
 - addvs.d: add scalar to each element of vector of double

Significantly reduces instruction-fetch bandwidth

Example: DAXPY (Y = a × X + Y)

Conventional MIPS code

1.d \$f0,a(\$sp) ;load scalar a addiu \$r4,\$s0,#512 ;upper bound of what to load loop: 1.d \$f2,0(\$s0) ;load x(i) mul.d \$f2,\$f2,\$f0 ;a × x(i) 1.d \$f4,0(\$s1) ;load y(i) add.d \$f4,\$f4,\$f2 ;a × x(i) + y(i) s.d \$f4,0(\$s1) ;store into y(i) addiu \$s0,\$s0,#8 ;increment index to x addiu \$s1,\$s1,#8 ;increment index to y subu \$t0,\$r4,\$s0 ;compute bound bne \$t0,\$zero,loop ;check if done

Vector MIPS code

```
1.d $f0,a($sp) ;load scalar a
1v $v1,0($s0) ;load vector x
mulvs.d $v2,$v1,$f0 ;vector-scalar multiply
1v $v3,0($s1) ;load vector y
addv.d $v4,$v2,$v3 ;add y to product
sv $v4,0($s1) ;store the result
```

Vector vs. Scalar

- Vector architectures and compilers
 - Simplify data-parallel programming
 - Explicit statement of absence of loop-carried dependences
 - Reduced checking in hardware
 - Regular access patterns benefit from interleaved and burst memory
 - Avoid control hazards by avoiding loops
- More general than ad-hoc media extensions (such as MMX, SSE)
 - Better match with compiler technology

History of GPUs

- Early video cards
 - Frame buffer memory with address generation for video output
- 3D graphics processing
 - Originally high-end computers (e.g., SGI)
 - Moore's Law A lower cost, higher density
 - 3D graphics cards for PCs and game consoles
- Graphics Processing Units
 - Processors oriented to 3D graphics tasks
 - Vertex/pixel processing, shading, texture mapping, rasterization

Graphics in the System



GPU Architectures

- Processing is highly data-parallel
 - GPUs are highly multithreaded
 - Use thread switching to hide memory latency
 Less reliance on multi-level caches
 - Graphics memory is wide and high-bandwidth
- Trend toward general purpose GPUs
 - Heterogeneous CPU/GPU systems
 - CPU for sequential code, GPU for parallel code
- Programming languages/APIs
 - DirectX, OpenGL
 - C for Graphics (Cg), High Level Shader Language (HLSL), OpenGL Shading Language (GLSL)
 - Compute Unified Device Architecture (CUDA), OpenCL

Example: NVIDIA Tesla



Example: NVIDIA Tesla

- Streaming Processors
 - Single-precision FP and integer units
 - Each SP is fine-grained multithreaded

Hardware

Supported

Threads

- Warp: group of 32 threads
 - Executed in parallel, SIMD style
 - 8 SPs
 × 4 clock cycles
 - Hardware contexts for 24 warps
 - Registers, PCs, ...





...

Classifying GPUs

- Don't fit nicely into SIMD/MIMD model
 - Conditional execution in a thread allows an illusion of MIMD
 - But with performance degredation
 - Need to write general purpose code with care

	Static: Discovered at Compile Time	Dynamic: Discovered at Runtime	
Instruction-Level Parallelism	VLIW	Superscalar	
Data-Level Parallelism	SIMD or Vector	Tesla Multiprocessor	

Interconnection Networks

- Network topologies
 - Arrangements of processors, switches, and links



Fully connected

Multistage Networks









c. Omega network switch box

Network Characteristics

Performance

- Latency per message (unloaded network)
- Throughput
 - Link bandwidth
 - Total network bandwidth
 - Bisection bandwidth
- Congestion delays (depending on traffic)
- Cost
- Power
- Routability in silicon

Parallel Benchmarks

- Linpack: matrix linear algebra
- SPECrate: parallel run of SPEC CPU programs
 - Job-level parallelism
- SPLASH: Stanford Parallel Applications for Shared Memory
 - Mix of kernels and applications, strong scaling
- NAS (NASA Advanced Supercomputing) suite
 - computational fluid dynamics kernels
- PARSEC (Princeton Application Repository for Shared Memory Computers) suite
 - Multithreaded applications using Pthreads and OpenMP

Code or Applications?

- Traditional benchmarks
 - Fixed code and data sets
- Parallel programming is evolving
 - Should algorithms, programming languages, and tools be part of the system?
 - Compare systems, provided they implement a given application
- E.g., Linpack, Berkeley Design Patterns
 Would foster innovation in approaches to parallelism

Modeling Performance

- Assume performance metric of interest is achievable GFLOPs/sec
 - Measured using computational kernels from Berkeley Design Patterns
- Arithmetic intensity of a kernel
 - FLOPs per byte of memory accessed
- For a given computer, determine
 - Peak GFLOPS (from data sheet)
 - Peak memory bytes/sec (using Stream benchmark)

Roofline Diagram



Attainable GPLOPs/sec

= Max (Peak Memory BW × Arithmetic Intensity, Peak FP Performance)

Comparing Systems

- Example: Opteron X2 vs. Opteron X4
 - 2-core vs. 4-core, 2× FP performance/core, 2.2GHz
 vs. 2.3GHz
 - Same memory system



- To get higher performance on X4 than X2
 - Need high arithmetic intensity
 - Or working set must fit in X4's 2MB L-3 cache

Optimizing Performance

- **Optimize FP performance**
 - Balance adds & multiplies
 - Improve superscalar ILP and use of SIMD instructions
- Optimize memory usage
 - Software prefetch
 - Avoid load stalls
 - Memory affinity
 - Avoid non-local data accesses



Optimizing Performance

Choice of optimization depends on arithmetic intensity of code



Arithmetic intensity is not always fixed

- May scale with problem size
- Caching reduces memory accesses
 - Increases arithmetic intensity

Four Example Systems



2 × quad-core Intel Xeon e5345 (Clovertown)



2 × quad-core AMD Opteron X4 2356 (Barcelona)

Four Example Systems



2 × oct-core Sun UltraSPARC T2 5140 (Niagara 2)



2 × oct-core IBM Cell QS20

And Their Rooflines

Kernels

- SpMV (left)
- LBHMD (right)
- Some optimizations change arithmetic intensity
- x86 systems have higher peak GFLOPs
 - But harder to achieve, given memory bandwidth



Performance on SpMV

- Sparse matrix/vector multiply
 - Irregular memory accesses, memory bound
- Arithmetic intensity
 - 0.166 before memory optimization, 0.25 after



- Xeon vs. Opteron
 - Similar peak FLOPS
 - Xeon limited by shared FSBs and chipset
- UltraSPARC/Cell vs. x86
 - 20 30 vs. 75 peak GFLOPs
 - More cores and memory bandwidth

Performance on LBMHD

- Fluid dynamics: structured grid over time steps
 - Each point: 75 FP read/write, 1300 FP ops
- Arithmetic intensity
 - 0.70 before optimization, 1.07 after



- Opteron vs. UltraSPARC
 - More powerful cores, not limited by memory bandwidth
- Xeon vs. others
 - Still suffers from memory bottlenecks

Achieving Performance

- Compare naïve vs. optimized code
 - If naïve code performs well, it's easier to write high performance code for the system

System	Kernel	Naïve GFLOPs/sec	Optimized GFLOPs/sec	Naïve as % of optimized
Intel Xeon	SpMV	1.0	1.5	64%
	LBMHD	4.6	5.6	82%
AMD	SpMV	1.4	3.6	38%
Opteron X4	LBMHD	7.1	14.1	50%
Sun UltraSPARC	SpMV	3.5	4.1	86%
T2	LBMHD	9.7	10.5	93%
IBM Cell QS20	SpMV Naïve c	Naïve code	ode 6.4	0%
	LBMHD	not feasible	16.7	0%

Fallacies

- Amdahl's Law doesn't apply to parallel computers
 - Since we can achieve linear speedup
 - But only on applications with weak scaling
 - Peak performance tracks observed performance
 - Marketers like this approach!
 - But compare Xeon with others in example
 - Need to be aware of bottlenecks
Pitfalls

- Not developing the software to take account of a multiprocessor architecture
 - Example: using a single lock for a shared composite resource
 - Serializes accesses, even if they could be done in parallel
 - Use finer-granularity locking



Concluding Remarks

- Goal: higher performance by using multiple processors
- Difficulties
 - Developing parallel software
 - Devising appropriate architectures
- Many reasons for optimism
 - Changing software and application environment
 - Chip-level multiprocessors with lower latency, higher bandwidth interconnect
- An ongoing challenge for computer architects!



Other Resources

- Patterson & Hennessy's: Computer Architecture: A Quantitative Approach
- Conferences:
 - www.cs.wisc.edu/~arch/www/
 - ISCA (International Symposium on Computer Architecture)
 - HPCA (International Symposium on High Performance Computer Architecture)



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