

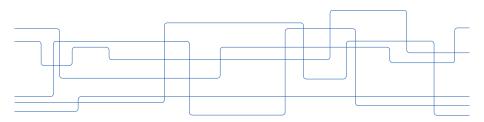
HPC Computer Architectures: Part II

AQTIVATE Training Workshop I

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CST | EECS | KTH

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Processor Core Architecture (1)

Memory Architecture (1)

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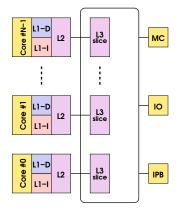


Processor Core Architecture (1)

Memory Architecture (1)



Processor Architecture: Core

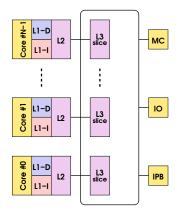


- Multi-core architectures have become the default
- Typical components
 - ► Front-end
 - Instruction fetching
 - Instruction decoding
 - Branch prediction
 - Execution engine
 - Resource allocation
 - Instruction execution
 - Instruction retirement

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Processor Architecture: Other



- Memory hierarchy
 - Caches
 - Memory controller
- ► I/O controller
 - ► Interface to I/O devices
 - Example: network controller
- Inter-Processor Bus
 - Required for multi-socket designs, only
- Intra-processor network
 - Ring or mesh network
 - Cross-bar switch

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Instruction Set Architecture (ISA)

- Relevant ISA categories
 - CISC: Complex Instruction Set Computer
 - RISC: Reduced Instruction Set Computer
 - ▶ VLIW: Very Long Instruction Word
- Classification based on internal memory architecture
 - Today's architectures are typically general-purpose register architectures
 - Load-store architectures
 - Explicit load-store operations only, operands use register addresses only
 - Examples: POWER ISA, ARM ISA
 - Register-memory architecture
 - Operand may be in memory
 - Examples: x86 ISA

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Selected set of categories for instruction operators:

Operator type	Examples	
Data transfer	Load and store operations	
Arithmetic and logic	Integer arithmetics, bitwise opera-	
	tions, compare operations	
Control	Branch, jump, procedure call and re-	
	turn	
Floating point	Floating point arithmetics	
Mathematical functions	Inverse, square root	

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ISA: Memory addressing

Classification according to memory addressing features

- Memory addressing
 - ► Granularity: Today typically byte addressing
 - Alignment requirements
- ► Addressing modes (R9 . . . destination register):

Mode	Pseudo-assembler	Description	
Register	mov RO, R9	Value from registers	
Immediate	mov 0x3, R9	Constant values	
Register indi-	ld (R1), R9	Value from location ref-	
rect		erenced by pointer	
Displacement	ld 0x100(R1), R9	Pointer plus a fixed off-	
		set	
Indexed	ld (RO+R1), R9	Pointer plus run-time	
		offset	
Scaled	ld 0x100(R0,2), R9	Pointer plus scaled run-	
		time offset	

Processor Core Performance

Program latency (= time-to-solution) may be written as

$$\Delta t = \frac{\mathsf{Instructions}}{\mathsf{Program}} \times \frac{\mathsf{Clock} \; \mathsf{cycles}}{\mathsf{Instruction}} \times \frac{\mathsf{Seconds}}{\mathsf{Clock} \; \mathsf{cycle}}$$

- Options to reduce time-to-solution
 - Reduce number of instructions
 - Decrease cycles per instruction (CPI)
 - Increase clock rate



Optimising Pipelined Architectures

- ► **CPI** = Cycles per Instruction
- Assume a pipelined architecture:

```
\begin{array}{ll} \mbox{Pipeline CPI} \ = \ & \mbox{Ideal pipeline CPI} \ + \\ \mbox{Structural stalls} \ + \mbox{Data hazard stalls} \ + \\ \mbox{Control stalls} \end{array}
```

- Structural stalls = Resource conflicts in functional units of a pipeline
- Possible causes for structural stalls
 - Functional units with different throughput B
 - Memory bus which is used for data and instructions
 conflicting load operations
- CPI can be reduced by reducing ideal pipeline CPI or stalls

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Instruction Level Parallelism (ILP)

- ► ILP = Parallelism among instructions from small code areas which are independent of one another
- Exploitation of ILP
 - Overlapping of instructions in a pipeline
 - Parallel execution of instructions in multiple functional units



ILP: Pipeline

► Consider previous example: $z = a \times b + c - d$

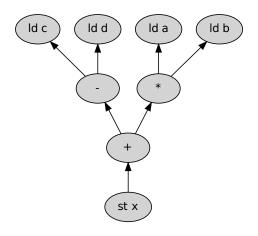
```
 \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}\hline 1 & \text{mul RO, R1, } & \text{R5} & \text{store } a \times b \text{ in register 5} \\ 2 & & \text{stall} \\ 3 & & & \text{stall} \\ 4 & & & \text{stall} \\ 5 & \text{add } & \text{R5, R2, R6} \\ 6-8 & \cdots & & & \text{stall} \\ 9 & \text{sub } & \text{R6, R3, R7} & \text{subtract } d \\ \hline \end{array}
```

Re-organisation to improve pipeline filling

```
1 mul R0, R1, R5 store a \times b in register 5 sub R2, R3, R6 store c-d in register 6 stall stall stall 6 add R5, R6, R7 add a \times b and c-d
```



Data dependence diagram for re-ordered schedule Previously omitted load-store operations included





ILP: Multiple-issue of Instructions

- Allow multiple instructions to be issued within same clock cycle
- Flavours of multiple-issue processors:
 - ► Very Long Instruction Word (VLIW) processors
 - Fixed number of instructions are scheduled per clock cycle
 - Static scheduling at compile time
 - ► Statically scheduled superscalar processors
 - ► Superscalar processor = Processor which can schedule ≥ 1 instructions per clock cycle
 - Variable number of instructions are scheduled per clock cycle and executed in-order
 - ► Dynamically scheduled superscalar processors
 - Variable number of instructions are scheduled per clock cycle and executed out-of-order

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- Single Instruction Multiple Data (SIMD) instructions exploit data-level parallelism by operating on data items in parallel
 - ► E.g., SIMD add

$$\begin{pmatrix} z_0 \\ z_1 \\ z_2 \\ z_3 \end{pmatrix} \leftarrow \begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Example ISA:
 - ► Intel Streaming SIMD Extensions (SSE)
 - ► Intel Advanced Vector Extensions (AVX, AVX2, AVX512)
 - POWER ISA (VMX/AltiVec, VSX)
 - ► ARMv7 NEON, ARMv8, ARM SVE

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AVX512 ISA: Example

Compile with: gcc -mavx512f ...

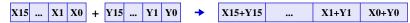
```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <immintrin.h>
typedef union { __m512d v; double d[8]; } Pdouble;
int main(void) {
  int i:
  Pdouble a, b, c, d;
  for (i = 0; i < 8; i++) {
    a.d[i] = b.d[i] = (double) i + 0.5;
  c.v = _mm512\_add\_pd(a.v, b.v);
  printf("c==(\%.2f,\%.2f)\n", c.d[1], c.d[0]);
  return 0;
```

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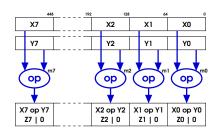


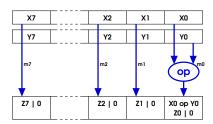
AVX512 ISA: Floating Point Instructions

- In the following me assume all mask bits set to '1'
- Floating point instructions operate on
 - Single (S) or double (D) precision operands
 - Scalar (S) or packed (P) operands
- Scalar operations update only lowest part of destination register
 - ► VADDSD: X7 ... X0 + Y7 ... Y0 → Z7 | 0 | Z1 | 0 | X0+Y0
- Packed operations update all parts
 - ► VADDPD: X7 ... X0 + Y7 ... Y0 → X7+Y7 ... X0+Y0
 - ► VADDPS:



- 512-bit wide vector units processing packed or scalar operands
 - ▶ 16× 32-bit
 - ▶ 8× 64-bit
- Support of masks: merging (m) and zeroing (z) masking
- Vector registers zmm0, xmm1, ..., zmm31
- ▶ 3-4 operands
 - One source can be a memory reference
 - Destination can be a memory reference





- Types of instructions
 - Load/store instructions
 - Arithmetic and bitwise instructions
 - Shuffle and unpack instructions
 - Memory prefetch instructions
- Multiple sets of AVX512 instructions: F, CD, ER, PF, ...

On Linux see /proc/cpuinfo to identify supported sets



Processor Core Architecture (1)

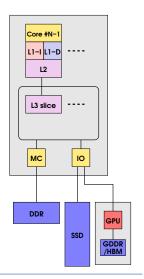
Memory Architecture (1)

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Memory in Modern Node Architectures

- Today's compute nodes: different memory types and technologies
 - Volatile memories
 - Main memory (DDR3, DDR4, or DDR5)
 - Caches (SRAM)
 - Accelerator memory (GDDR or HBM)
 - Non-volatile memories
 - SSD (NAND flash, 3D XPoint)
- **▶** Different capabilities
 - Bandwidth
 - Latency for single transfer
 - Access time
 - Cycle time
 - Capacity



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- lacktriangle Data bit storage cell =1 capacitor +1 transistor
- Capacitors discharge repriodic refresh needed
 - Refresh required in intervals of O(10) ms
 - Possibly significant performance impact
 - Memory access latencies become variable
- Memory organisation

 - Read operation:

/ras
/cas
addr /row / Col /
/we
data / data /

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Memory: DRAM (2)

- Technology improvements
 - Synchronization with system bus: Synchronous dynamic random-access memory (SDRAM)
 - Double Data Rate (DDR)
- DRAM typically packaged on small boards:
 DIMM = Dual Inline Memory Modules
 - Typical DRAM channel width: 8 Byte
- Performance range for selected set of data rates:

	DDR3	DDR4	DDR5
Standards release	2007	2012	2020
Data rate [Gbps]	0.4 - 2.333	2.133 - 3.2	4 – 8
GByte/sec/DIMM [GByte/s]	3.2 - 18.6	17.1 - 25.6	32 – 64

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- ▶ Data bit storage cell = (4 + 2) transistors
- ► Comparison with DRAM

	DRAM	SRAM
Refresh required?	yes	no
Speed	slower	faster
Density	higher	lower

► Typically used for on-chip memory

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Memory Access Locality

- ► Empirical observation: Programs tend to reuse data and instructions they have used recently
- Observation can be exploited to
 - ► Improve performance
 - Optimize use of more/less expensive memory
- Types of localities
 - Temporal locality: Recently accessed items are likely to be accessed in the near future
 - Spatial locality: Items whose addresses are near one another tend to be referenced close together in time

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Memory Access Locality: Example

```
double a[N][N], b[N][N];

for (i=0; i<N; i++)
   for (j=1; j<N; j++)
    a[i][j] = b[j-1][0] + b[j][0];</pre>
```

- Assume right-most index being fastest running index
- Temporal locality: b[j] [0]
- ▶ Spatial locality: a[i][j] and a[i][j+1](j+1 < N)

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Memory/Storage Hierarchy

Computers provide multiple levels of volatile memory and non-volatile storage

- Important because of Processor-memory performance gap
- Close to processor: very fast memory, but less capacity

Level	Access time	Capacity
Registers	O(0.1) ns	O(1) kByte
L1 cache	O(1) ns	O(10-100) kByte
L2 cache	O(10) ns	O(100) kByte
L3 cache	O(10) ns	O(1-10) MByte
Memory	O(100) ns	O(10-100) GByte
Disk	O(10) ms	O(100) GByte

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Cache miss = Word not found in cache

- Word has to be fetched from next memory level
- Typically a full cache line (=multiple words) is fetched

Cache organisation: Set associative cache

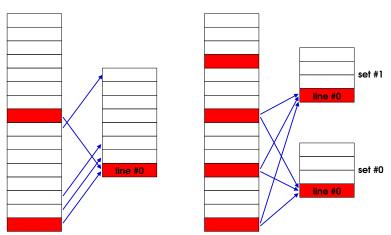
- Match line onto a set and then place line within the set
 - Choice of set address: (address) mod (number of sets)
- ► Types:
 - ▶ **Direct-mapped cache**: 1 cache line per set
 - Each line has only one place it can appear in the cache
 - Fully associative cache: 1 set only
 - A line can be placed anywhere in the cache
 - n-way set associative cache: n cache lines per set
 - A line can be placed in a restricted set of places (1 out of n different places) in the cache

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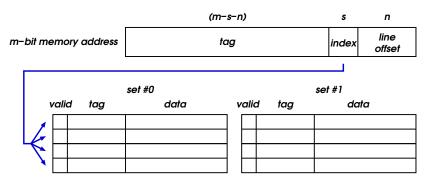
Cache Organisation

Direct-mapped vs. 4-way set associative cache:





Example: 4-way set associative cache with 2 sets (s = 2)



- ► Tag allows to identify set
- Set index defines location within set.

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Cache Replacement Policies

- ▶ Random:
 - Randomly select any possible line to evict
- ► Least-recently used (LRU):
 - Assume that a line which has not been used for some time is not going to be used in the near future
 - Requires keeping track of all read accesses
- ► First in, first out (FIFO):
 - Book keeping simpler to implement than in case of LRU

Cache Write Policies

Issue: How to keep cache and memory consistent?

- Cache write policy design options
 - Write-through cache
 - Update cache and memory
 - Memory write causes significant delay if pipeline must stall
 - Write-back cache
 - Update cache only and post-pone update of memory memory and cache will become inconsistent
 - If cache line is dirty then it must be committed before being replaced
 - Add dirty bit to manage this task

Issue: How to manage partial cache line updates?

- Typical solution: write-allocate (fetch-on-write)
 - Cache line is read before being modified

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Categories of cache misses

Compulsory: Occurs when cache line is accessed

the first time

Capacity: Re-fetch of cache lines due to lack of

cache capacity

Conflict: Cache line was discharged due to lack

of associativity

Average memory access time =

hit time + miss rate \cdot miss penalty

Hit time ... Time to hit in the cache

Miss penalty ... Time to load cache line from memory

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Cache misses (2)

Strategies to reduce miss rate:

- ► Larger cache line size
 - If spatial locality is large then other parts of cache line are likely to be re-used
- ► Bigger caches to reduce miss rate
 - Reduce capacity misses
- ► Higher associativity
 - Reduce conflict misses
 - Hit time may increase

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Strategies to reduce miss penalty

- ▶ Multilevel caches
 - ► Technical problem: Larger cache means higher miss penalty
 - ▶ Problem mitigation: Larger but slower L2 cache:

```
Average memory access time = Hit time_{L1} + Miss rate_{L1} · (Hit time_{L2} + Miss rate_{L2} · Miss penalty_{L2})
```

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Cache: Inclusive vs. Exclusive

- Policies:
 - ► Inclusive cache = Data present in one cache level also present in higher cache level
 - Example: All data in L1 cache is also present in L2 cache
 - Exclusive cache = Data present in at most one cache level
 - Intermediate policies:
 - Data available at higher cache level is allowed to be available at lower cache levels
- Advantages of inclusive cache
 - Management of cache coherence may be simpler
- Advantages of exclusive cache
 - Duplicate copies of data in several cache levels avoided
- Example for intermediate policy:
 - ► L3 cache which is used as **victim cache**: cache holds data evicted from L2, but not necessarily data loaded to L2

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Finish with an Architecture at PDC: Dardel



[PDC, 2021]

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