



Single Node Performance

CPSC 424/524

Lecture #2

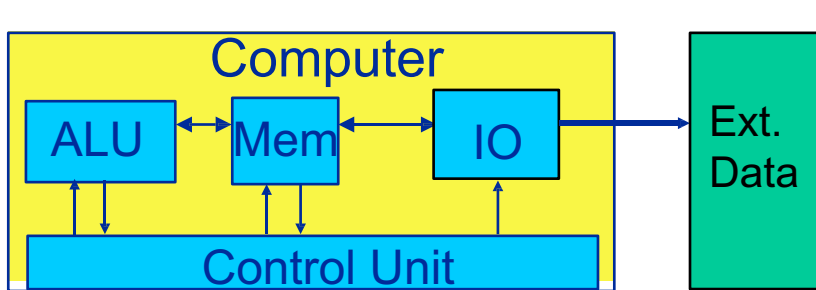
August 31, 2018

Credit: Almost all of these slides are courtesy of Prof. Gerhard Wellein, who developed them for use in HPC programming courses at University of Erlangen, Germany



Stored-Program Computer Architecture

- Modern computer architectures still implement the stored-program architecture [Turing (1936), EDVAC (1949)] widely known as the *von Neumann architecture*



Control unit: Fetches and processes low-level instructions from memory

Arithmetic/Logic Unit (ALU): Performs computations/manipulations of data stored in memory (controlled by control unit)

(CPU = Control unit + ALU)

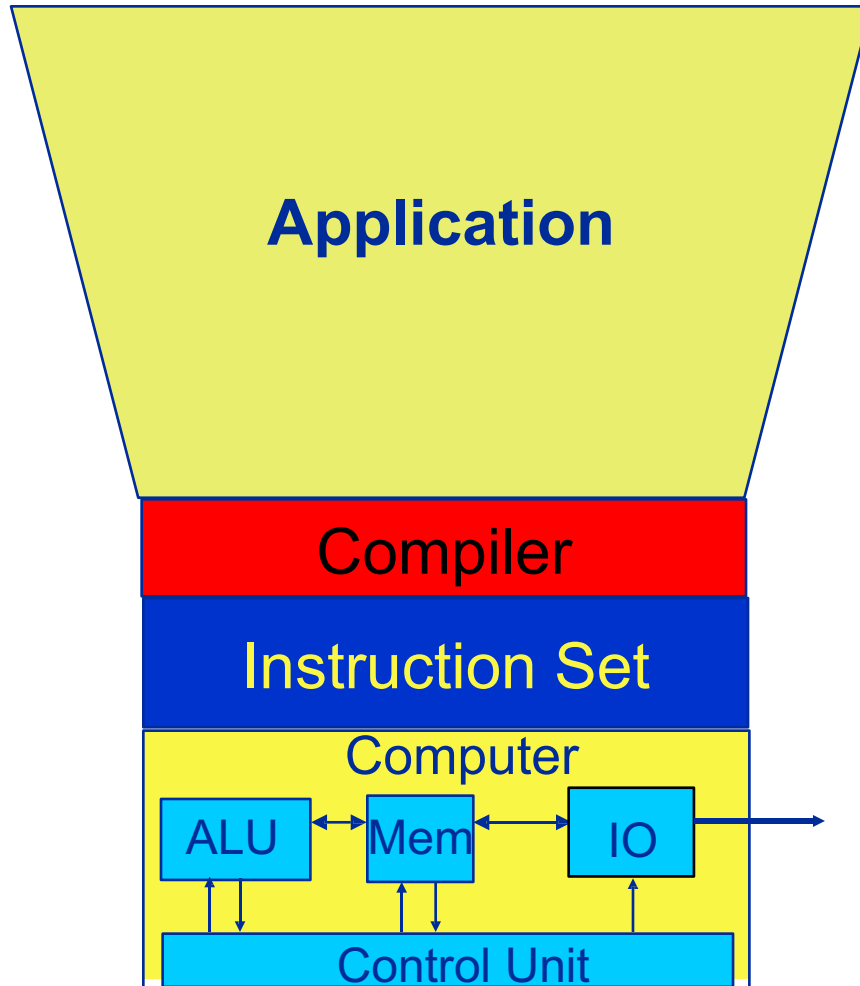
IO: Communication & external data access

Very quickly several major issues were identified:

- von Neumann bottleneck:** performance is limited by memory access speed
- Inherently sequential (single instruction working on a few data items)
- Original implementations were difficult to program (low-level instructions sets)



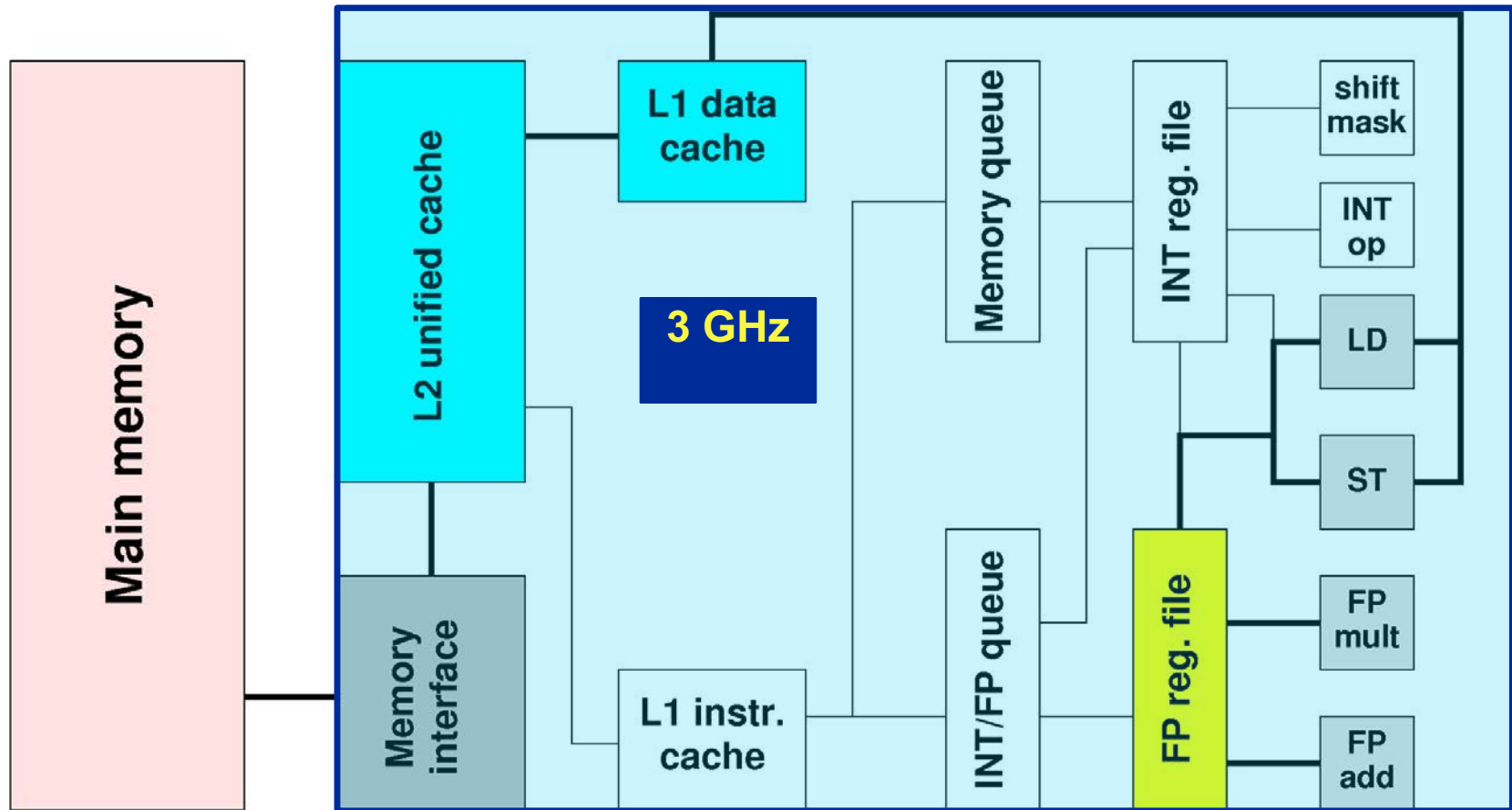
More Modern View



- **Application: "Portable"; High-Level Programming Language (e.g. C / C++ / Fortran)**
- **Compiler translates program to machine-specific instruction set**
- **Stored program/von Neumann concept is still visible, but**
 - Several memory levels:
Register – L1 – L2 – L3 – main memory
 - Multiple arithmetic/logical units
(e.g., 2 floating point units for Core i7)



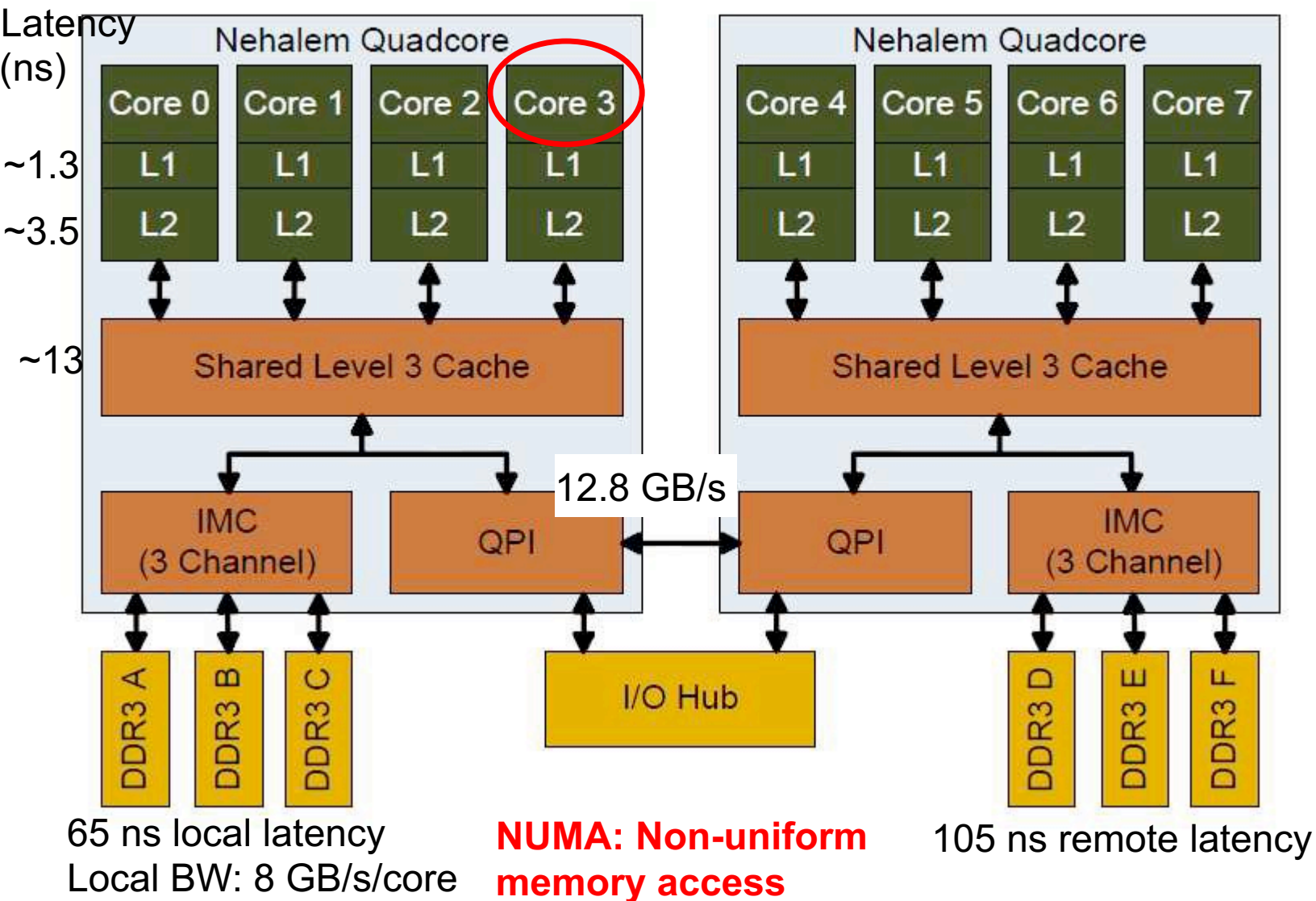
Modern general-purpose cache based microprocessor



Today, some memory (caches) are integrated on the processor chip
Not shown: most of the control unit, e.g. instruction fetch/decode, branch prediction,...



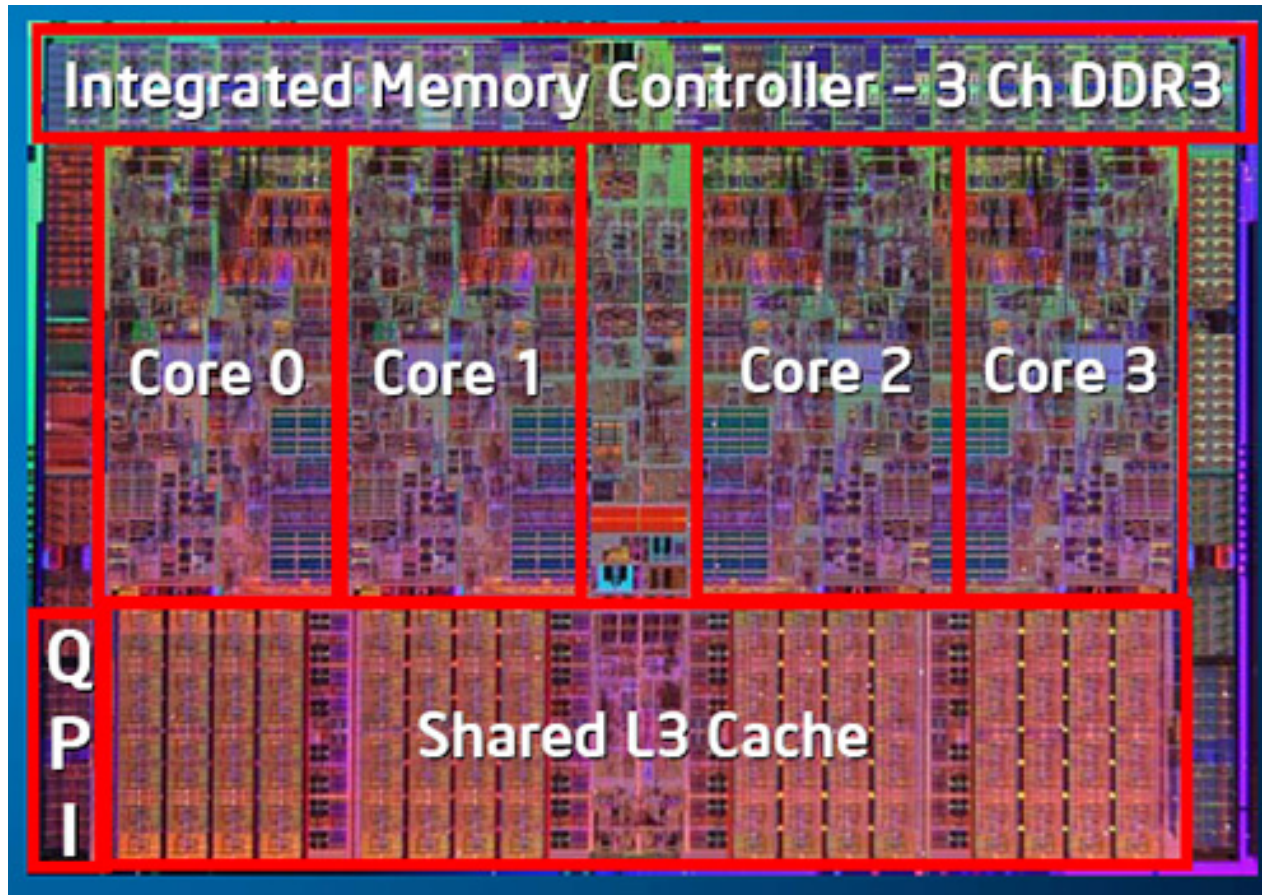
Nehalem (Core i7) Memory Hierarchy



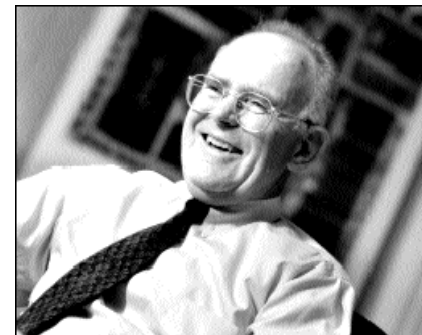
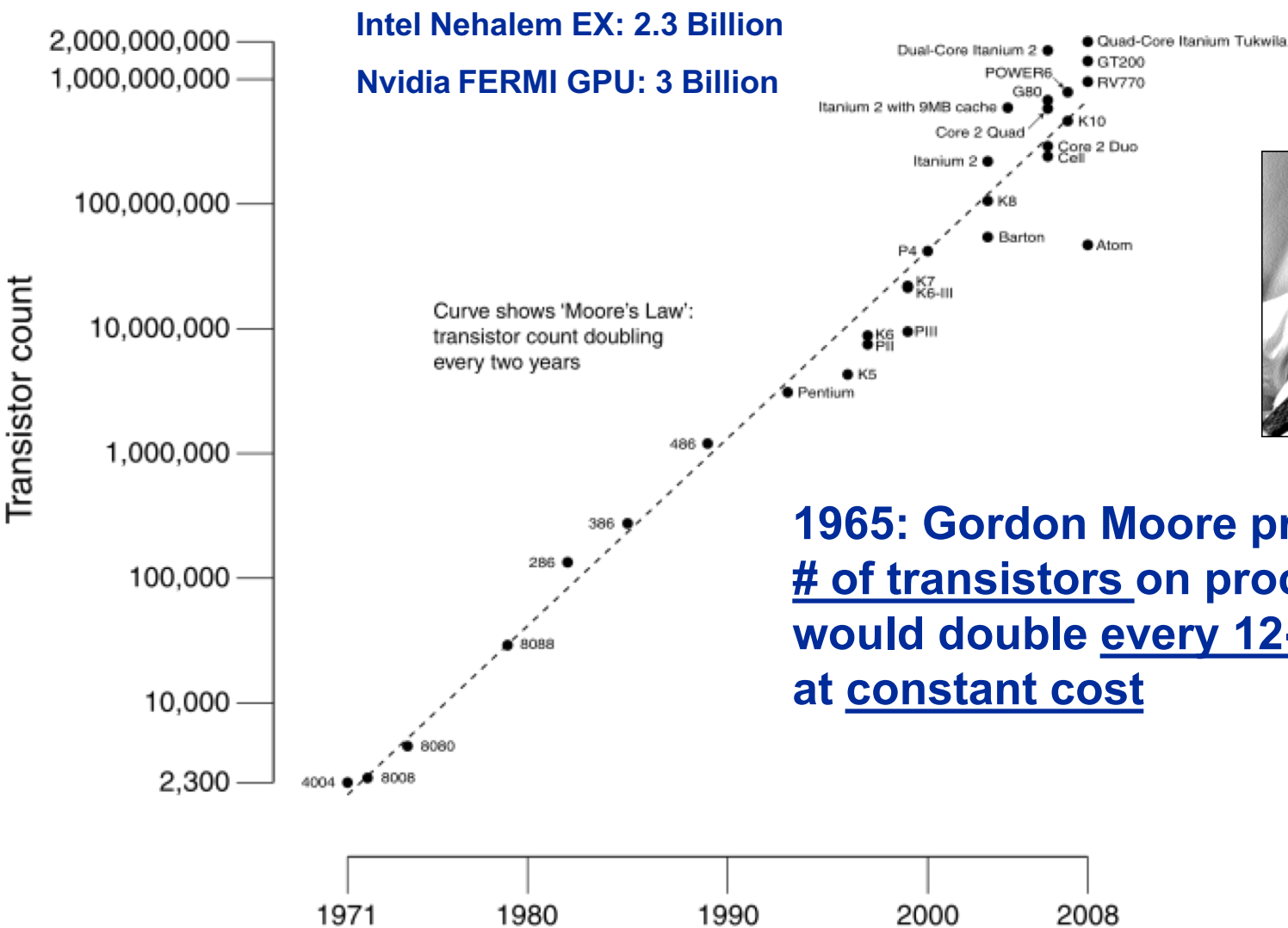
From T. Rolf, "Cache Organization and Memory Management of the Intel Nehalem Computer Architecture"



Nehalem Processor Chip



Moore's law



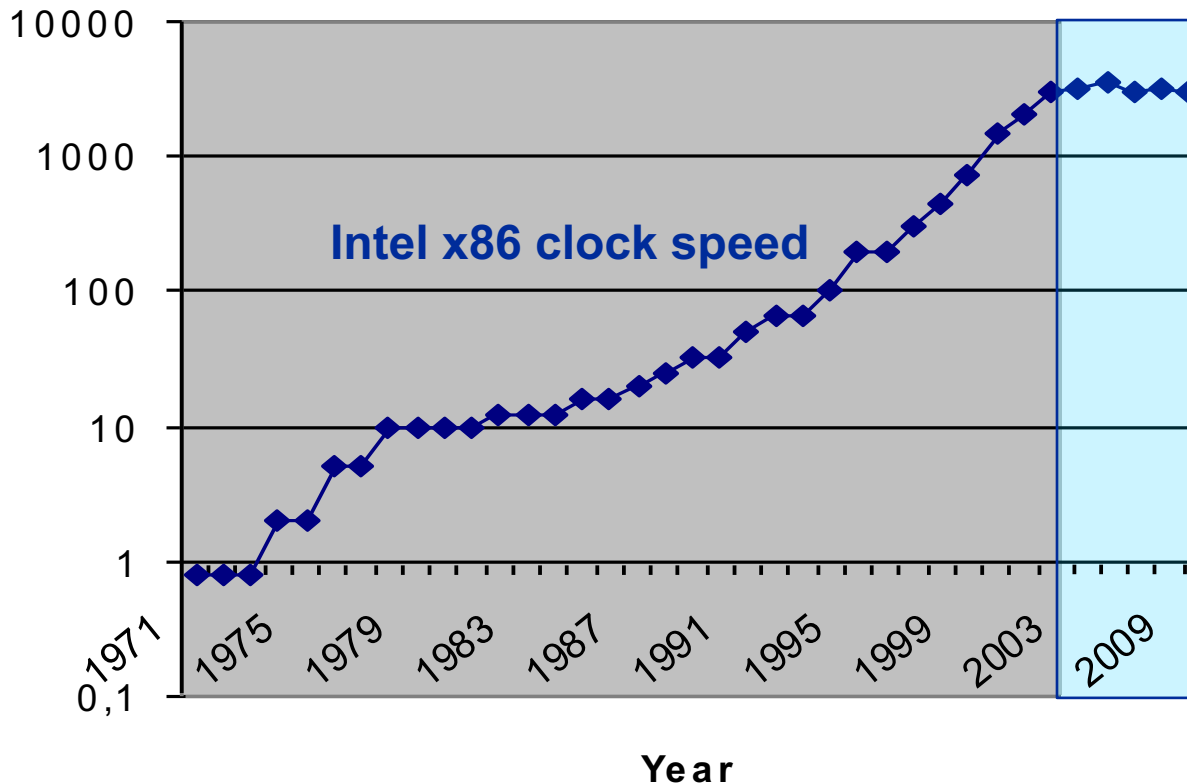
1965: Gordon Moore predicted that # of transistors on processor chip would double every 12-24 months at constant cost



Moore's law → faster cycles and beyond

- Moore's law → smaller transistors → faster clock speeds
- Faster clock speeds → Higher Throughput (Ops/sec)
- But, ultimately, clock speed is limited by power concerns

Frequency [MHz]



Increasing transistor count and limited clock speed allows & forces architectural changes:

- Pipelining
- Superscalarity
- SIMD / Vector ops (AVX, etc.)
- Multi-Core/Threading
- Complex on chip caches



Instruction Set Paradigms

- **In the 60's: Complex Instruction Set Computers (CISC):**
 - Powerful & complex instructions directly reflecting the hardware
 - Instructions could perform several (independent) operations, enabling some parallelism within instructions
 - Instructions took varying amounts of time and space
 - Difficult to build compilers
- **Mid 80's: Reduced Instruction Set Computer (RISC):**
 - Simplified instructions: single operations taking fixed numbers of cycles
 - Designed for fast clocks, many registers, caches, and "pipelining"
 - Targetable by highly optimizing compilers
 - Complex operations split into simple steps:
e.g.: $A=B*C$ is split into at least 4 operations, as in

$$\text{LD } B \rightarrow r0; \text{ LD } C \rightarrow r1; \text{ MULT } r0 * r1 \rightarrow r2; \text{ ST } r2 \rightarrow A$$
- **Now: Superscalar RISC processors**
 - Processors contain multiple execution units for parallelism
 - Complex chip designs that try to gain performance from replication, not necessarily clock speeds.



Pipelining of arithmetic/functional units

- **Idea: Assembly Line**

- Split complex instructions into several simple / fast steps (stages)
- Each step takes the same amount of time (e.g. a single cycle)
- Execute different steps from different instructions at the same time (in parallel)

- **Allows for shorter cycle times (simpler logic circuits), e.g.:**

- Floating point multiplication takes 5 cycles, but ...
- Processor can work on 5 different multiplications simultaneously
- So: can deliver one result per cycle after the pipeline is full

- **Drawbacks:**

- For efficiency: many independent, identical instructions (e.g., scaling a vector)
- Pipeline must be filled (“wind up” time) (Want instruction count \gg pipeline steps)
- Requires complex instruction scheduling by compiler & hardware – software-pipelining, out-of-order execution, etc.

- **Pipelining is widely used in modern computer architectures**



Example: Possible Stages for Floating Point Multiplication

- Floating point numbers are represented as a sign, a “normalized” mantissa, and an exponent: $s * 0.m * 2^e$ with
 - Sign $s \in \{-1, 1\}$
 - Mantissa m which does not contain 0 as leading bit
 - Exponent e some positive or negative integer m & e come in two lengths (single & double precision)
- Multiply two FP numbers in registers: $r1 * r2 \rightarrow r3$

$$r1 = s1 * 0.m1 * 2^{e1}, \quad r2 = s2 * 0.m2 * 2^{e2}$$

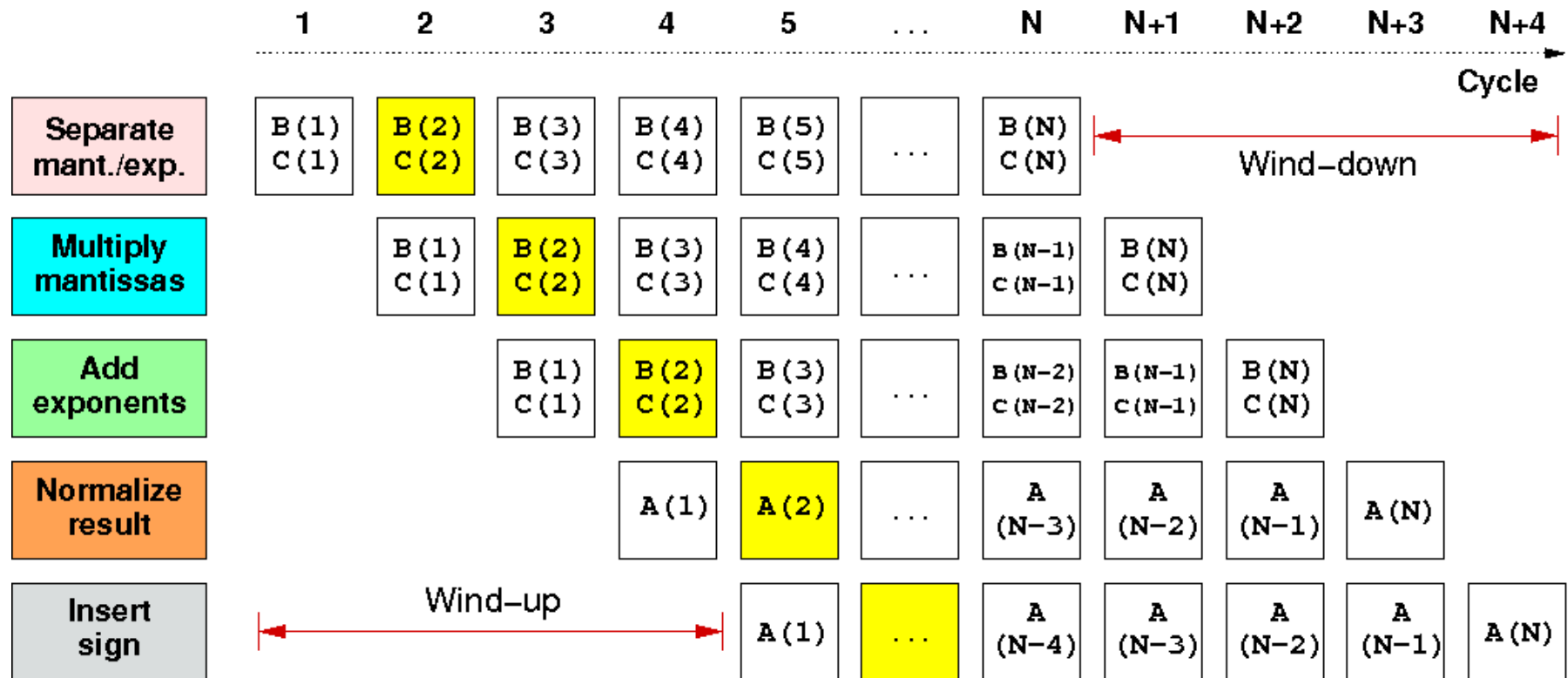
$$s1 * 0.m1 * 2^{e1} * s2 * 0.m2 * 2^{e2}$$

$$\rightarrow (s1 * s2) * (0.m1 * 0.m2) * 2^{(e1+e2)}$$

$$\rightarrow \text{Normalize result: } s3 * 0.m3 * 2^{e3}$$



5-stage Multiplication-Pipeline: $A(i)=B(i)*C(i)$; $i=1,...,N$



Wind-up/-down phases: Empty pipeline stages



Pipelining: Speed-Up and Throughput

- Assume a general m-stage pipeline, i.e. pipeline depth is m.
- Speed-up: pipelined vs non-pipelined execution at same clock speed for N ops. (Note: “time” is represented here by cycles.)

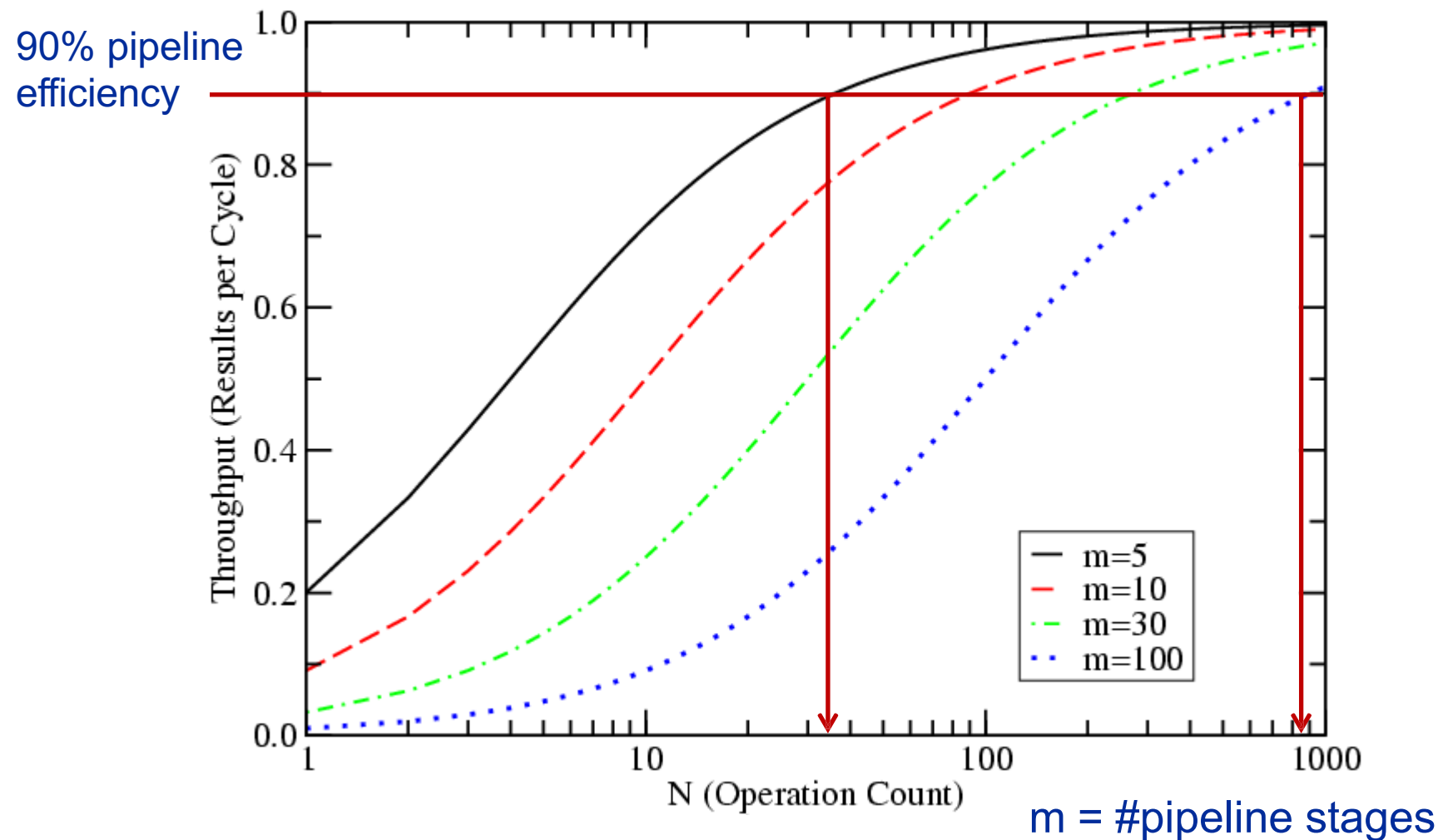
$$T_{\text{seq}} / T_{\text{pipe}} = (m \cdot N) / (N + m) \approx m \text{ for large } N (>> m)$$

- Throughput of pipelined execution (= Average # results per Cycle) executing N instructions in pipeline with m stages:

$$N / T_{\text{pipe}}(N) = N / (N + m) \approx 1 \text{ for large } N$$

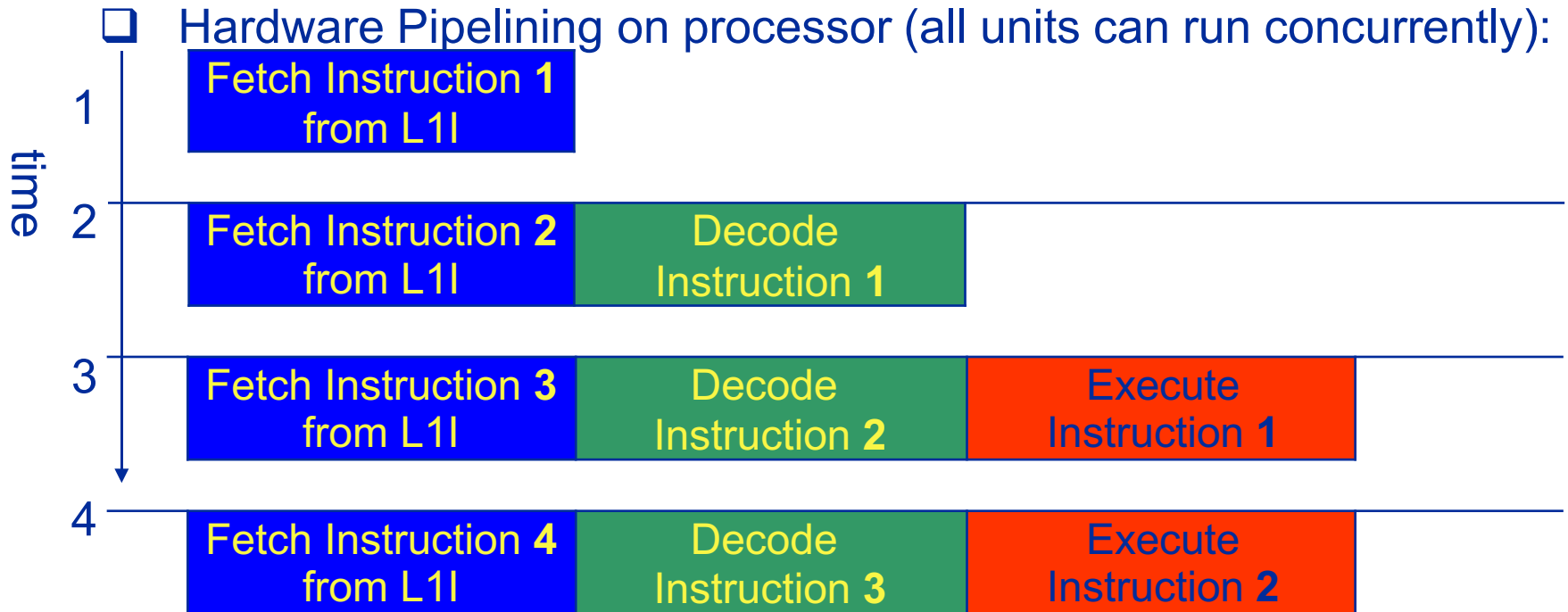


Throughput as function of pipeline stages



Pipelining: The Instruction pipeline

- Instruction execution is pipelined; that is each instruction requires at least 3 substeps:

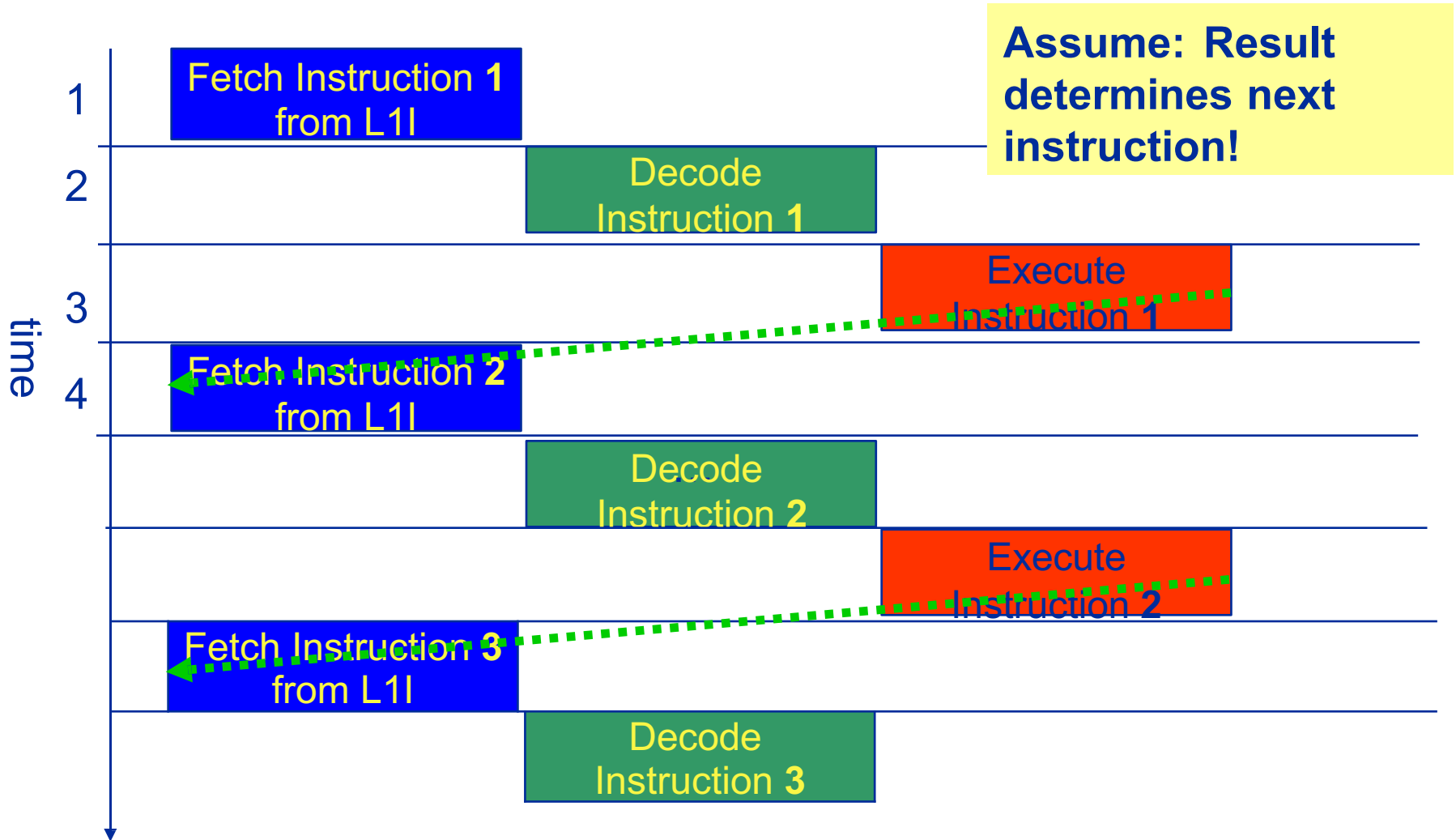


- ☐ Each Unit is pipelined. (“Execute” may be the Multiply Pipeline)
- ☐ Branches can stall this pipeline! (Speculative Execution, Prediction)



Pipelining: The Instruction pipeline

- Problem: Unpredictable branches to other instructions



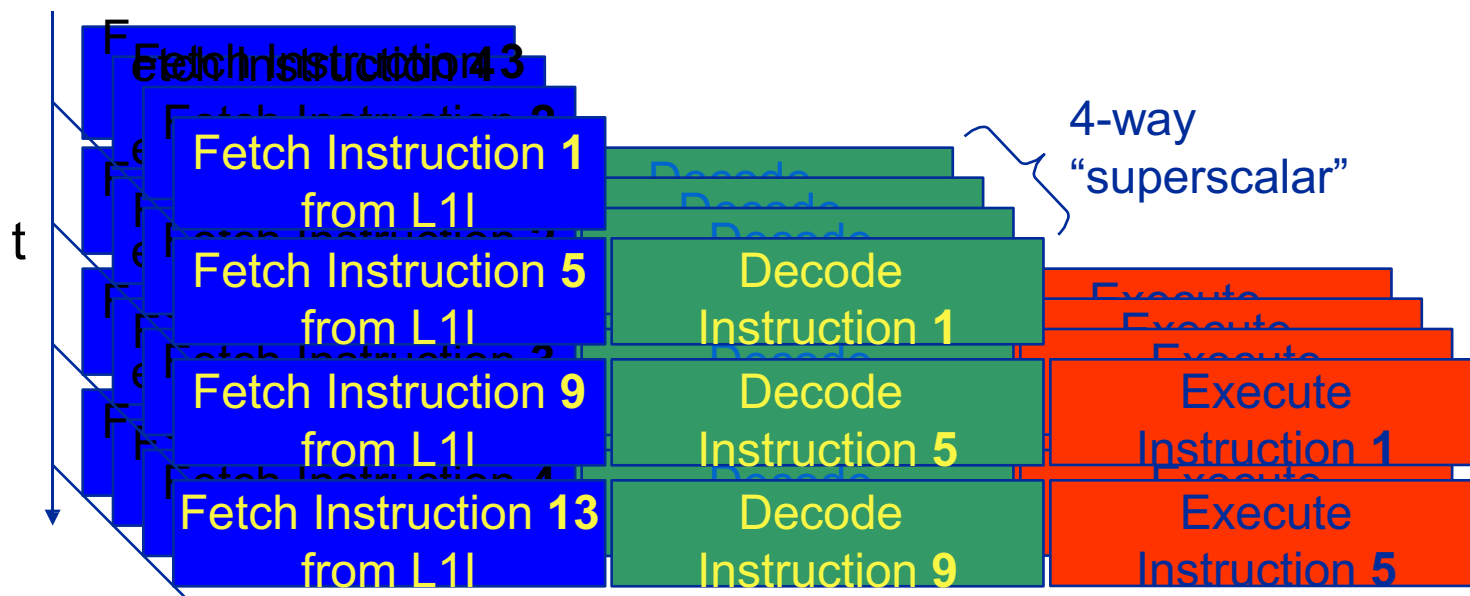
Superscalar Processors

- **Superscalar processors provide additional hardware (i.e. transistors) to execute multiple instructions per cycle**
- **Parallel hardware components / pipelines are available to**
 - fetch / decode / issues multiple instructions per cycle (typically 3 – 6 per cycle)
 - perform multiple integer / address calculations per cycle (e.g. 6 integer units on Itanium2)
 - load (store) multiple operands (results) from (to) cache per cycle (typically one load AND one store per cycle)
 - perform multiple floating point instructions per cycle (typically 2 floating point instructions per cycle, e.g. 1 MULT + 1 ADD)
- **On superscalar RISC processors, out-of order (OOO) execution hardware is available to optimize the usage of the parallel hardware**



Superscalar Processors – Instruction Level Parallelism

- Multiple units enable use of **I**nstruction **L**evel **P**arallelism (ILP):
Instruction stream is “parallelized” on the fly

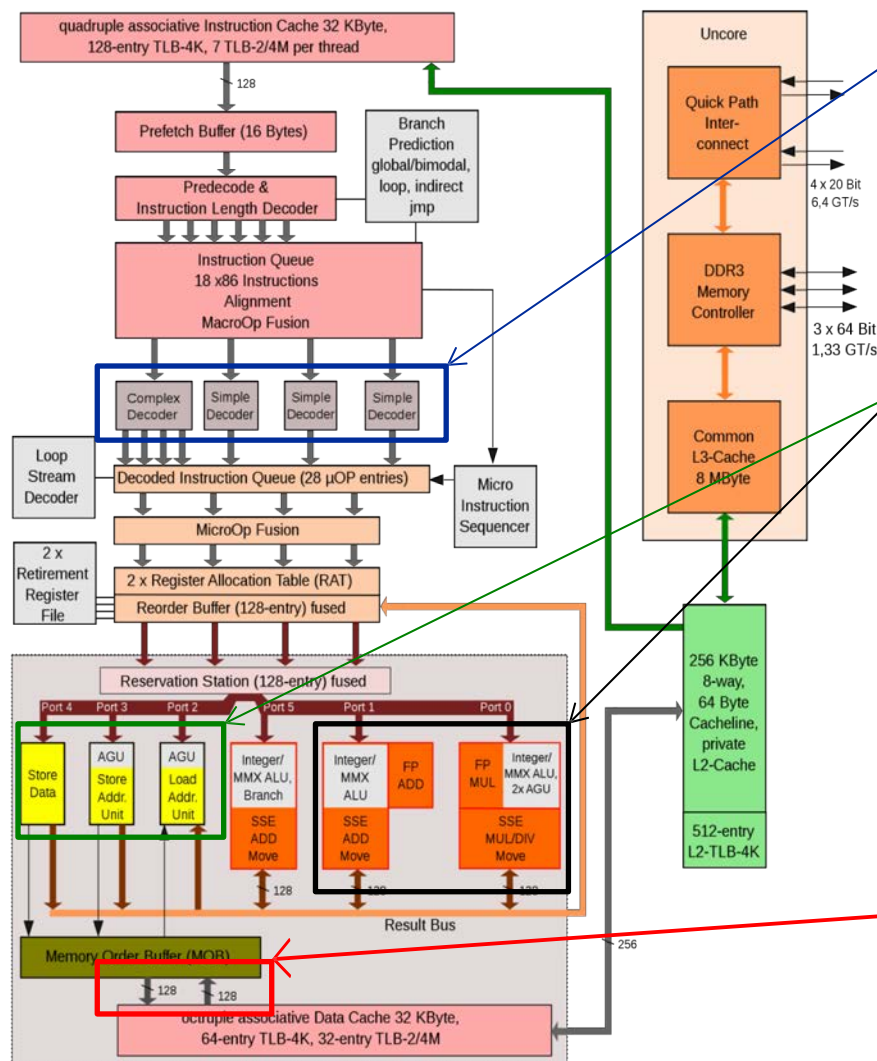


- Issuing m concurrent instructions per cycle: m -way superscalar
- Modern processors (cores) are 3- to 6-way superscalar & can perform 2 or 4 floating point operations per cycle



Superscalar processor – Intel Nehalem design

Intel Nehalem microarchitecture



GT/s: gigatransfers per second

- **Decode & issue a max. of 4 instructions per cycle: IPC=4**
→ Min. CPI=0.25 Cycles/Instruction
- **Parallel units:**
 - FP ADD & FP MULT (work in parallel)
 - LOAD + STORE (work in parallel)
- **Max. FP performance:**
 - 1 ADD + 1 MULT **instruction/cycle**
- **Max. performance:**
 - $A(i) = r0 + r1 * B(i)$
- **1/2 of max. FP performance:**
 - $A(i) = r1 * B(i)$
- **1/3 of max. FP performance:**
 - $A(i) = A(i) + B(i) * C(i)$



Software pipelining

■ Example:

Fortran Code:

```
do i=1,N  
  a(i) = a(i) * c  
end do
```

Assumptions:

Instructions block or "stall" the pipeline if operands are not available;

Assume c is in a register

```
load a[i]  
mult a[i] = c*a[i]  
store a[i]  
branch.loop
```

Load operand to register (4 cycles) ← Latencies
Multiply a(i) by c (2 cycles); a[i],c in registers
Write back result from register to mem./cache (2 cycles)
Increase loop counter if $i \leq N$ (0 cycles)

Simple Pseudo Code:

```
loop:  load a[i]  
       mult a[i] = c*a[i]  
       store a[i]  
       branch.loop
```

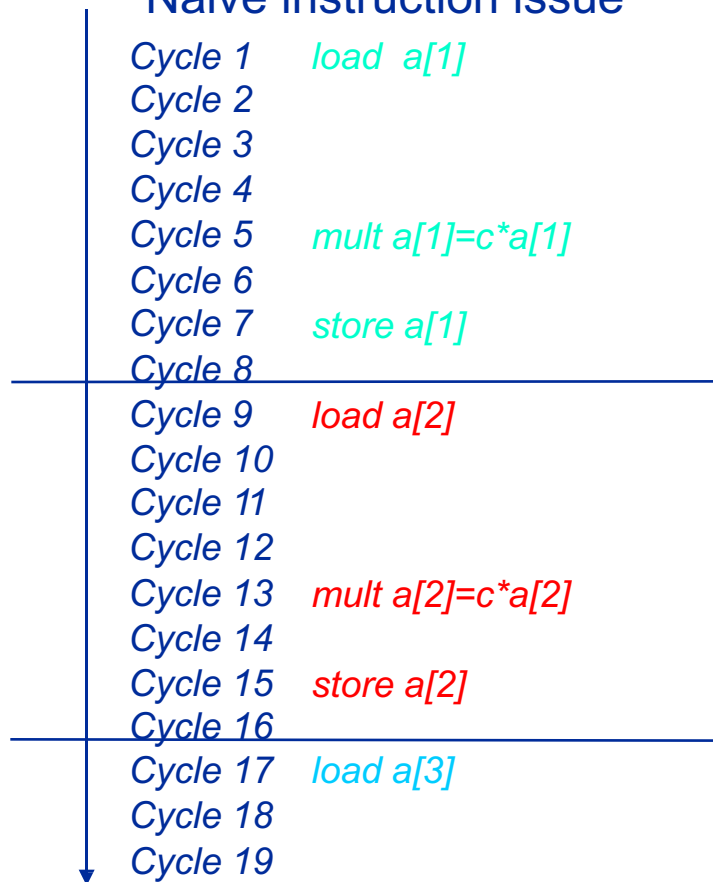
Lots of latency



Software pipelining

$a[i] = a[i] * c; N=12$

Naive instruction issue

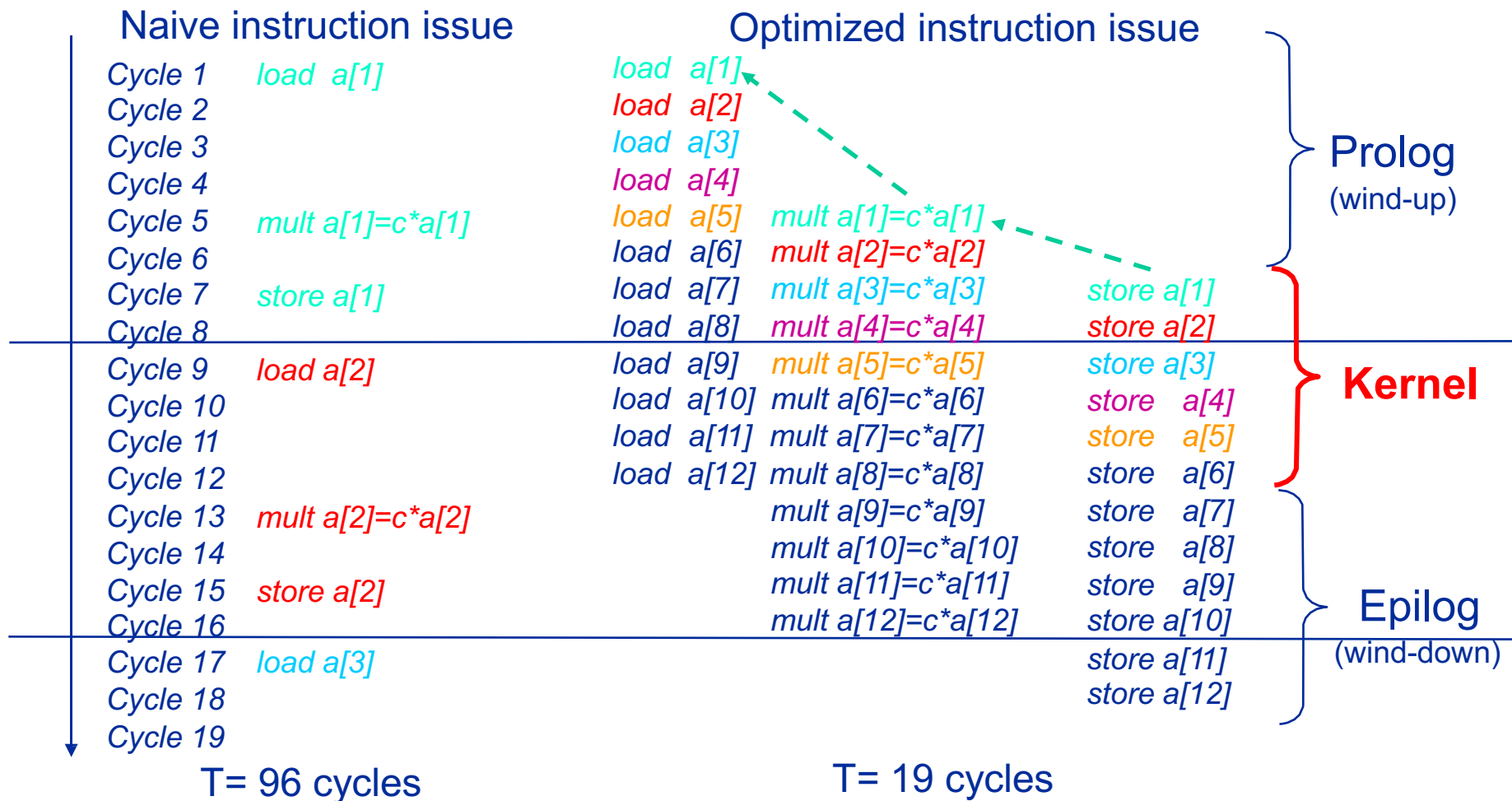


T= 96 cycles



Software pipelining

$$a[i]=a[i]*c; N=12$$



Software pipelining

■ Example:

Fortran Code:

```
do i=1,N  
  a(i) = a(i) * c  
end do
```

Assumptions:

Instructions block or "stall" the pipeline if operands are not available;

Assume c is in a register

```
load a[i]  
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Load operand to register (4 cycles) ← Latencies
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Increase loop counter if $i \leq N$ (0 cycles)

Simple Pseudo Code:

```
loop:  load a[i]  
       mult a[i] = c*a[i]  
       store a[i]  
       branch.loop
```

Lots of latency

Optimized Pseudo Code:

```
loop:  load a[i+6]  
       mult a[i+2] = c*a[i+2]  
       store a[i]  
       branch.loop
```

No latency



Efficient use of Pipelining

- **Software pipelining** can be done by the compiler, but efficient reordering of the instructions requires deep insight into application (data dependencies) and processor (latencies of functional units)
- Re-ordering of instructions can also be done at runtime by the hardware: **out-of-order (OOO) execution**
- (Potential) dependencies within loop body may prevent efficient software pipelining or OOO execution, e.g.:

No dependency:

```
do i=1,N  
  a(i) = a(i) * c  
end do
```

Dependency:

```
do i=2,N  
  a(i) = a(i-1) * c  
end do
```

Pseudo-Dependency:

```
do i=1,N-1  
  a(i) = a(i+1) * c  
end do
```



Pipelining: Beyond multiplication

- **Typical number of pipeline stages on modern CPUs:**

- 2-5 for most (important) hardware pipelines: **LoaD**; **STore**; **MULT**; **ADD**
- >>10 for other floating point pipelines: **DIVide**/**SQ**uare**Ro**o**T**

- **Most x86 processors (AMD, Intel):**

1 MULT & 1 ADD floating point unit per processor core

- **Latest Intel (Haswell+):**

2 Floating Point Fused MultiplyAdd (FMA) units

- FMA3 instruction: $s = s + a * b$ → 1 Input register (s) is overwritten
- FMA4 instruction: $s = r + a * b$ → No input register is modified

- **“Costs” of pipelined instructions**

- **Latency** [cycles/instruction]: Depth of pipeline, i.e. cycles to execute a single instruction (worst case)
- **Throughput** [instructions/cycle or results/cycle]: results per cycle for filled pipeline (best case = 1 result/ cycle for scalar operations with 1 arithmetic unit)



Expensive instructions

- Examples for Intel Sandy Bridge processors

		Operation	Instruction Latency [cy]	Throughput: Scalar Cycles per Result [cy]	Throughput: AVX Cycles per Result [cy]
instructions	{	ADD (DP/SP)	3 / 3	1 / 1	0.25 / 0.125
		MULT (DP/SP)	5 / 5	1 / 1	0.25 / 0.125
		SQRT (DP)	45	44	11
		SQRT (SP)	29	28	7
		DIV (DP)	45	44	11
Library calls	{	EXP (DP)	83 (glibc 2.12)	83 (glibc 2.12)	12.5 (SVML)
		SIN (DP)	79 (glibc 2.12)	79 (glibc 2.12)	17.5 (SVML)

SIMD

- Lesson: **Avoid expensive instructions!**



Pipelining: Potential problems (1)

- **Hidden data dependencies:**

```
void scale_shift(double *A, double *B, double *C, int n) {  
    for(int i=0; i<n; ++i)  
        C[i] = A[i] + B[i];  
}
```

- C/C++ allows “**Pointer Aliasing**”, i.e. $A \rightarrow \&C[-1]$; $B \rightarrow \&C[-2]$
→ $C[i] = C[i-1] + C[i-2]$ → **Dependency!**
- **Compiler cannot resolve potential pointer aliasing conflicts on its own!**
- **If no “Pointer Aliasing” is used, be sure to tell the compiler, e.g.**
 - use `-fno-alias` switch for Intel compiler
 - Pass arguments as `(double *restrict A,...)` (only as of C99 standard)



Pipelining: Potential problems (2)

- Simple subroutine/function calls within a loop

```
do i=1, N
    call elementsum(A(i), B(i), psum)
    C(i)=psum
enddo
...
function elementsum( a, b, psum)
...
psum=a+b
```

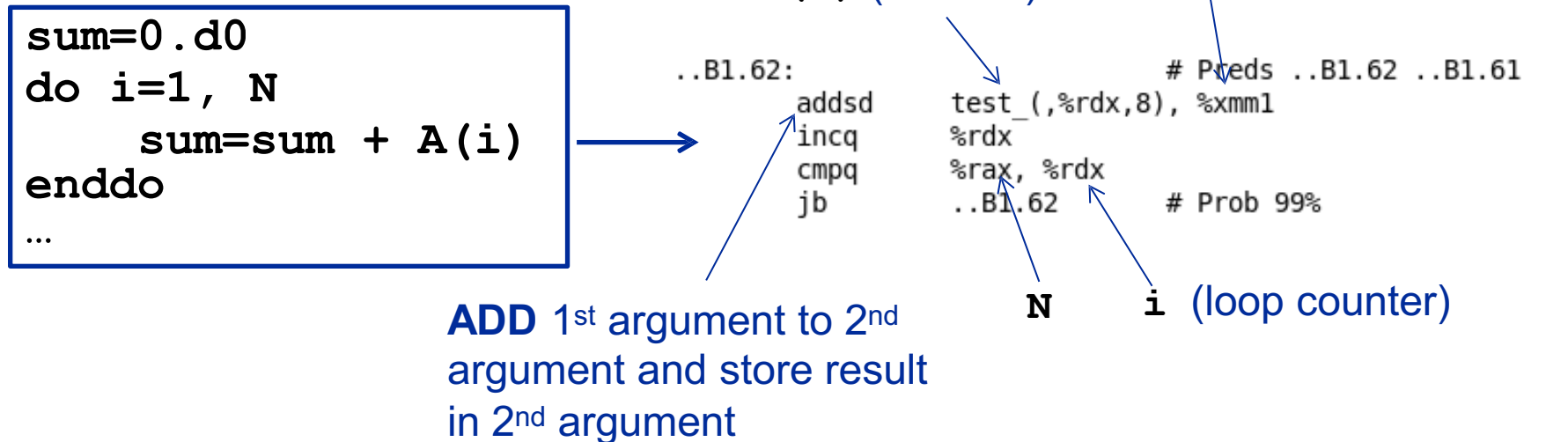
→ Inline subroutines (can be done by compiler....)

```
do i=1, N
    psum=A(i)+B(i)
    C(i)=psum
enddo
...
```



Pipelining: Potential problems (3)

What about “reduction operations”?



Benchmark: Run above assembly language kernel with N=32,64,128,...,4096 on processor with

- 3.5 GHz clock speed
- 1 pipelined ADD unit (latency 3 cycles)
- 1 pipelined LOAD unit (latency 4 cycles)

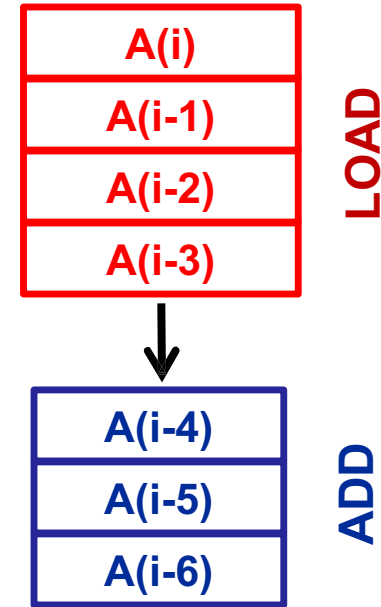
→ Clk Spd=3500 Mcycle/s

1 iteration per cycle
(after 7 iterations)



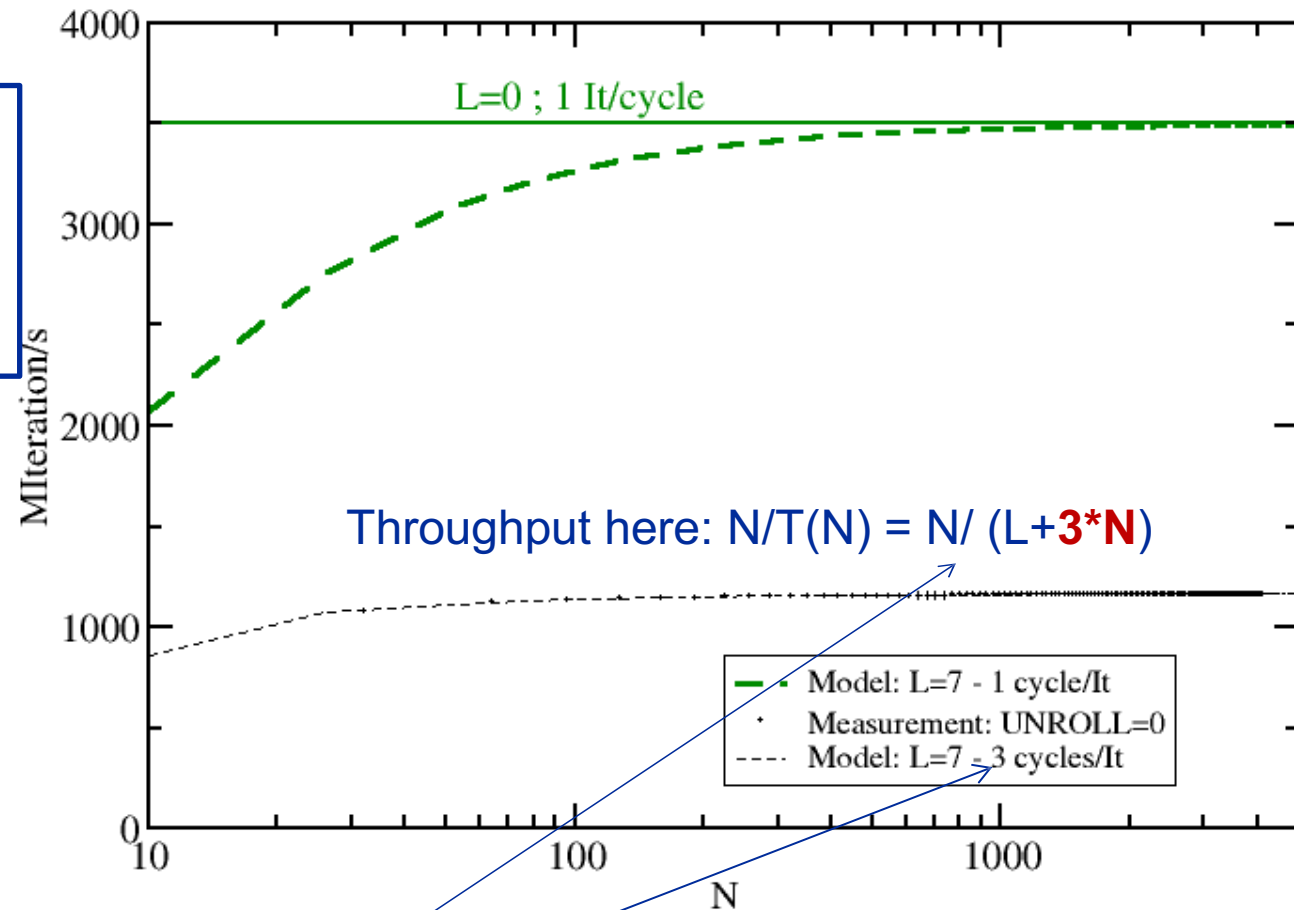
Pipelining: Potential problems (4)

- Expected Performance: $\text{Throughput} * \text{ClockSpeed}$
 - Throughput: $N/T(N) = N / (L+N)$
Assumption: **L** is **total latency** of one iteration. One result is delivered each cycle after pipeline startup.
→ Total runtime: **(L+N) cycles**
 - Total latency: **L = 4 cycles + 3 cycles = 7 cycles**
- Performance for N Iterations:
 $3500 \text{ MHz} * (N / (L+N)) \text{ Iterations/cycle}$
- Maximum performance ($N \rightarrow \infty$):
 $3500 \text{ Mcycle/s} * 1 \text{ Iteration/cycle} =$
3500 Miterations/s



Pipelining: Potential problems (5)

```
sum=0.d0
do i=1, N
  sum=sum + A(i)
enddo
...
```



Dependency on **sum** → next instruction needs to wait for completion of previous one → only 1 out of 3 stages active
→ **3 cycles per iteration**



Pipelining: Potential problems (6)

- Increase pipeline utilization by “loop unrolling”

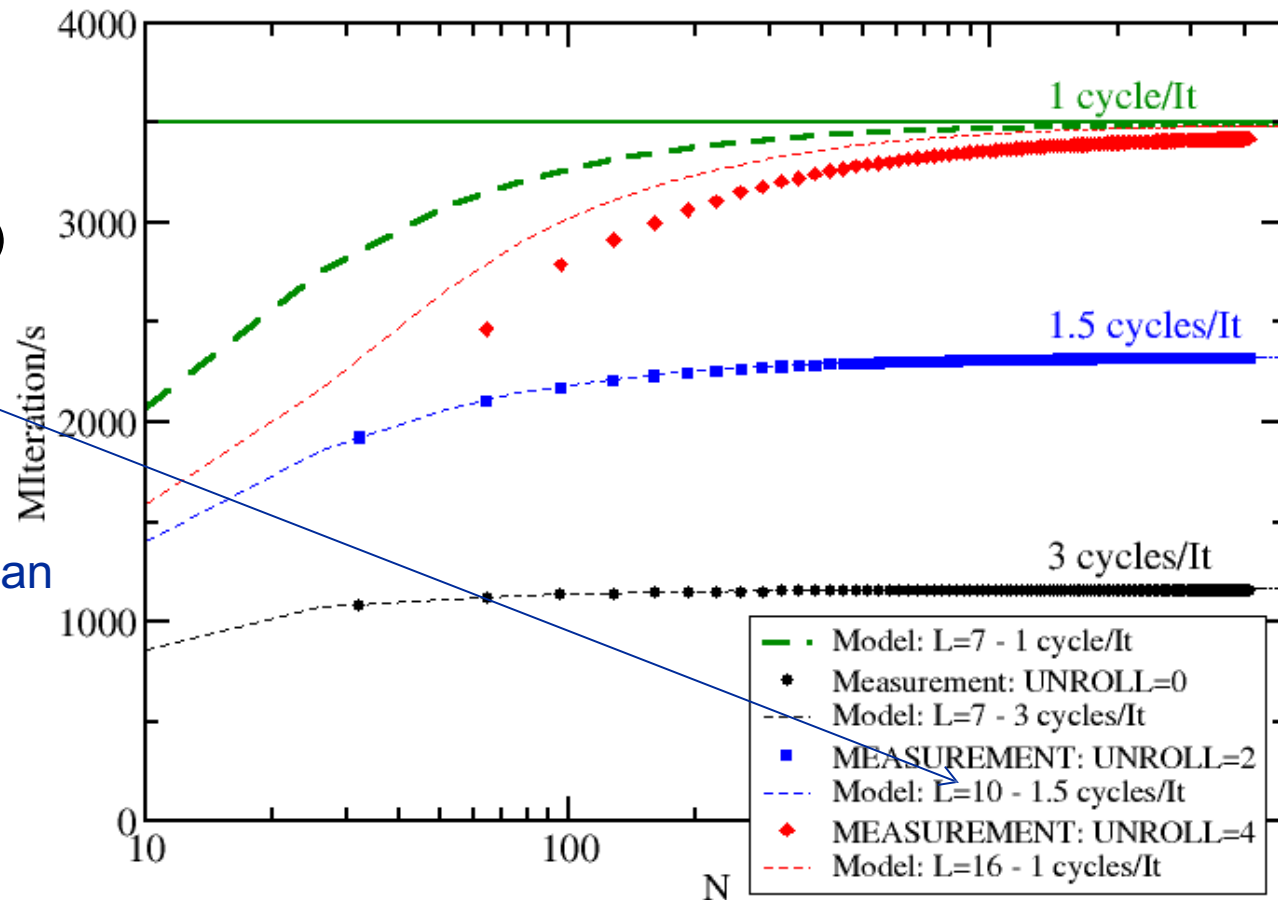
“2-way Unrolling” (N is even)

```
sum1=0.d0
sum2=0.d0
do i=1, N, 2
  sum1=sum1+A(i)
  sum2=sum2+A(i+1)
enddo
sum=sum1+sum2
```

2 out of 3 pipeline stages can
be filled

2 results every 3 cycles

1.5 cycle/Iteration



Pipelining: Potential problems (7)

- 4-way Unrolling (actually at least 3-way) to get best performance

- Sum is split up in **4 independent partial sums**

“4-way Unrolling”

- Compiler can do that, if it is allowed to do so...
- Computer’s floating point arithmetic is not associative!

$$\left(\left(\left((a+b) + c \right) + d \right) + e \right) + f \neq (a+b) + (c+d) + (e+f)$$

- If you require binary exact result (-fp-model strict) compiler is not allowed to do this transformation
- $L = (7 + 3 \cdot 3)$ cycles (see prev. slide)
(Best case with no remainder loop)

```

N_r = 4 * (N / 4)
sum1 = 0.0
sum2 = 0.0
sum3 = 0.0
sum4 = 0.0
do i = 1, N_r, 4
    sum1 = sum1 + A(i)
    sum2 = sum2 + A(i+1)
    sum3 = sum3 + A(i+2)
    sum4 = sum4 + A(i+3)
enddo
do i = N_r + 1, N
    sum1 = sum1 + A(i)
enddo
sum = sum1 + sum2 + sum3 + sum4
    
```

} Remainder loop

