Luca Tornatore, I.N.A.F.

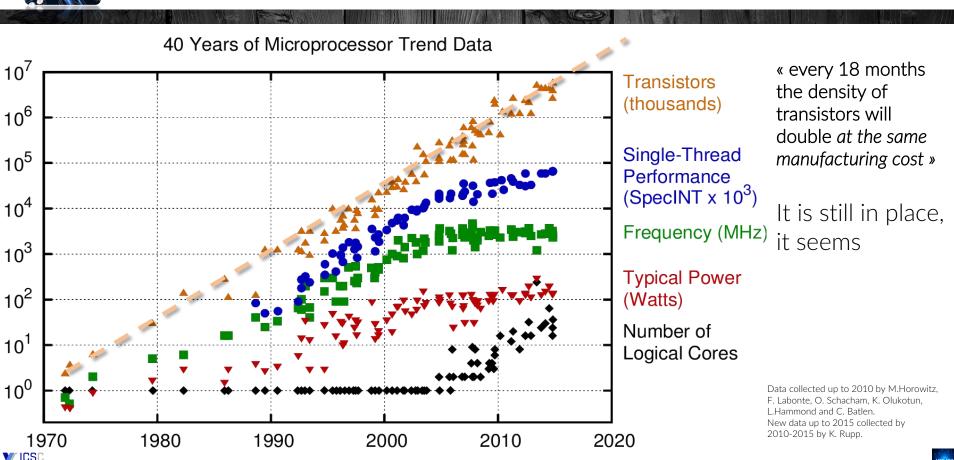
2024 INAF Course on HPC





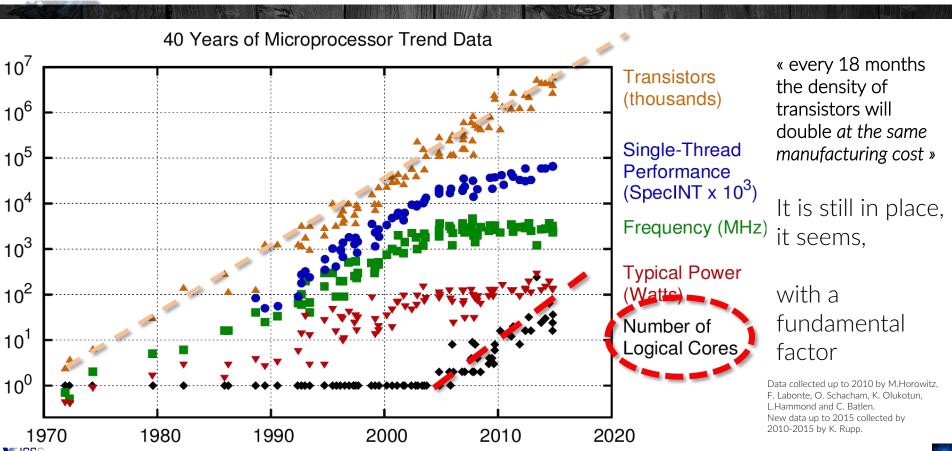


Moore's law, is it over?



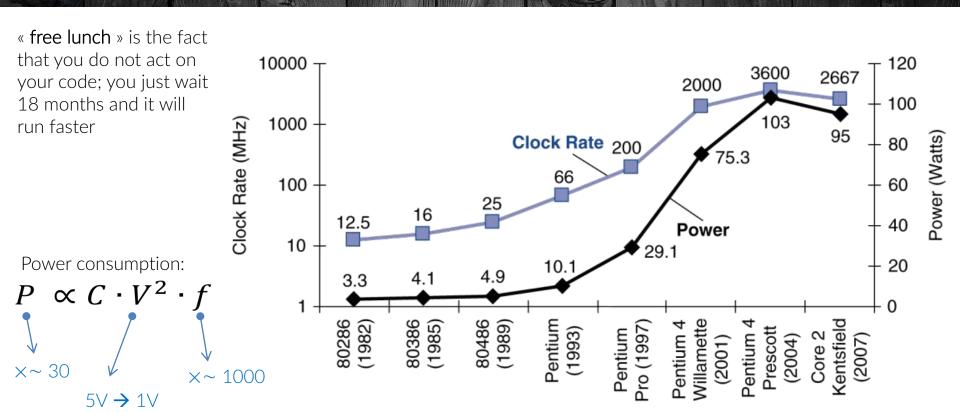
NAF course on HPC IRA, June-July - 2024

Moore's law, is it over?



INAF course on HPC IRA, June-July - 2024

Why there is no more "free lunch"?





Modern Arch. The transition from the "free lunch"

Until half of the '00s, engineers succeeded in gaining performance by essentially 3 ways:

- 1. Increasing clock speed
- 2. Optimizing execution
- 3. Enlarging/improving cache





The transition from the "free lunch"

Until half of the '00s, engineers succeeded in gaining performance by essentially 3 ways:

- 1. Increasing **clock** speed →
- 2. Optimizing execution
- 3. Enlarging/improving cache

You get more cycles per unit time; more or less that means doing the same bunch of instructions faster





The transition from the "free lunch"

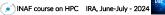
Until half of the '00s, engineers gaining performance by essent

- 1. Increasing clock speed
- 2. Optimizing execution →
- 3. Enlarging/improving cache

- More powerful instructions
- Pipelining
- Branch predictions
- Out-of-order execution
- Vector instructions

Under enormous pressure, CPUs manufacturers risked (and did) to break the semantic of your code. Or introduce horrible bugs.. (have you heard about Meltdown and Spectre?)





Modern Arch. The transition from the "free lunch"

Until half of the '00s, engineers succeeded in gaining performance by essentially 3 ways:

- 1. Increasing clock speed
- 2. Optimizing execution
- 3. Enlarging/improving cache → More on that later...







Why there is no more "free lunch"?

Applications no longer get more performance for free without significant redesign, since ≥15 years

Since 15 years, the gain in performance is essentially due to fundamentally different factors:

- 1. Multi-core + Multi-threads
- 2. Enlarging/improving cache
- 3. Hyperthreading (smaller contribution)





Why there is no more "free lunch"?

For instance:

2 Cores at 3GHz are basically 1 Core at 6GHz..?

False

- Cores coordination for cache-coherence
- × Threads coordination
- × Memory access
- × Increased algorithmic complexity

Since 15 years, the gain in performance is essentially due to fundamentally different factors:

- 1. Multi-core + Multi-threads
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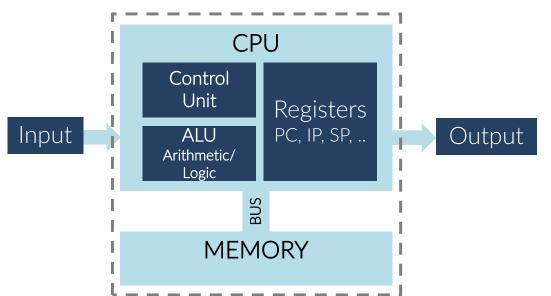




Once upon a time..

.. The computer architecture was much simpler than today. In the lecture "The Free lunch is over", we have seen the reasons why it was so – or, better, why nowadays it is much more complex.

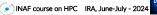




In the Von Neumann architecture

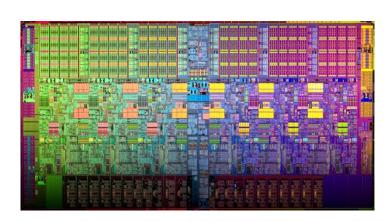
- there is only 1 processing unit
- 1 instructions is executed at a time
- memory is "flat":
 - access on any location has always the same cost
 - access to memory has the same cost than op execution







While today...



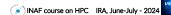
NOT an extreme example: 6-cores Intel Xeon e5600

(*) "cost" is in terms of the CPU-cycles currency

- there are many processing units
- many instructions can be executed at a time
- many data can be processed at a time
- "instructions" are internally broken down in many simpler µops that are pipelined
 - different instructions could have quite different cost^(*)
- memory is strongly not "flat":
 - there is a strong memory hierarchy
 - access memory can have very different costs^(*) depending on the location
 - accessing RAM is way more costly than performing a μop or reading an internal register

In the next slides we'll go through all this features in chronological order, as they developed in time





Modern Architecture Some of the steps in between

- The memory hierarchy
- Superscalability and out-of-order execution

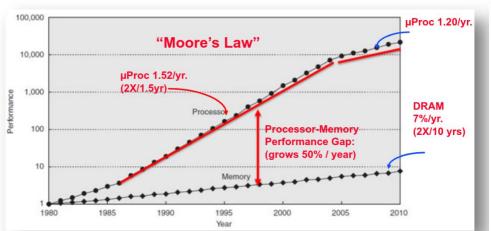
- Pipelining
- Vector capabilities







Early 90s: CPU get faster than memory



Processor	Alpha 21164				
Machine	AlphaServer 8200				
Clock Rate	300 MHz				
Memory Performance	Latency	Bandwidth			
I Cache (8KB on chip)	6.7 ns (2 clocks)	4800 MB/sec			
D Cache (8KB on chip)	6.7 ns (2 clocks)	4800 MB/sec			
L2 Cache (96KB on chip)	20 ns (6 clocks)	4800 MB/sec			
L3 Cache (4MB off chip)	26 ns (8 clocks)	960 MB/sec			
Main Memory Subsystem	253 ns (76 clocks)	1200 MB/sec			
Single DRAM component	≈60ns (18 clocks)	≈30–100 MB/sec			

Taken from a 1997 paper

The CPU had to spend more time waiting for data coming from RAM than executing ops. That is part of the so called "memory wall".

What is the solution?





A note about today

You certainly know that DDRAM memory catched up: frequency has increased in the last year up to ≥ 3-4GHz

However, that alleviate the problem only partially

Figure taken from:

Ph.D disserattion thesis, 2019, Dep.t of Computing Architectures, UPC

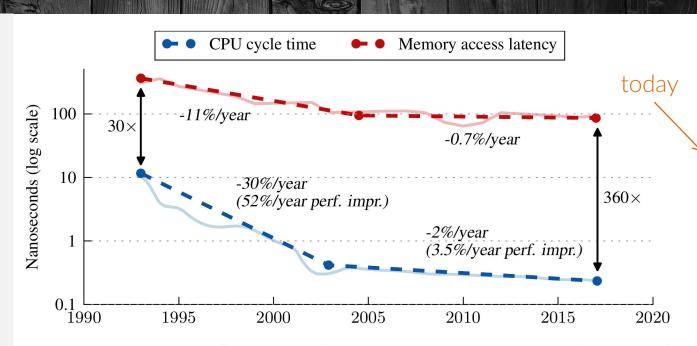


Figure 2.4: Increasing discrepancy between main memory access latency and CPU cycle time, for last 25 years. Recently the downtrend in CPU cycle time decreased to 2\%, while single processor performance improves at 3.5\% per year [52]. The decrement in memory access latency is less than 1%.

[&]quot;Memory Bandwidth and Latency in HPC: System Requirements and Performance Impact"

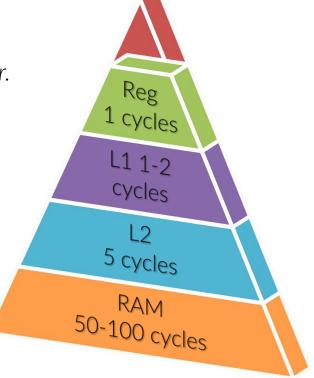
The cache memory

The solution is to equip your CPU with a *faster* memory, that, by the way, is also way more expensive and way more energy consuming.

Furthermore, to be faster it ought to be *extremely closer*. All in all, the new memory that will be called *cache*, will be much *smaller* than RAM.

The cache itself has a hierarchy:

- Level-I is inside each core.
- Level-II is also inside the core, or may be shared by more cores.
- Level-III is inside the CPU, shared by many cores.



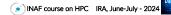


Modern Architecture Some of the steps in between

- The memory hierarchy
- Superscalability and out-of-order execution

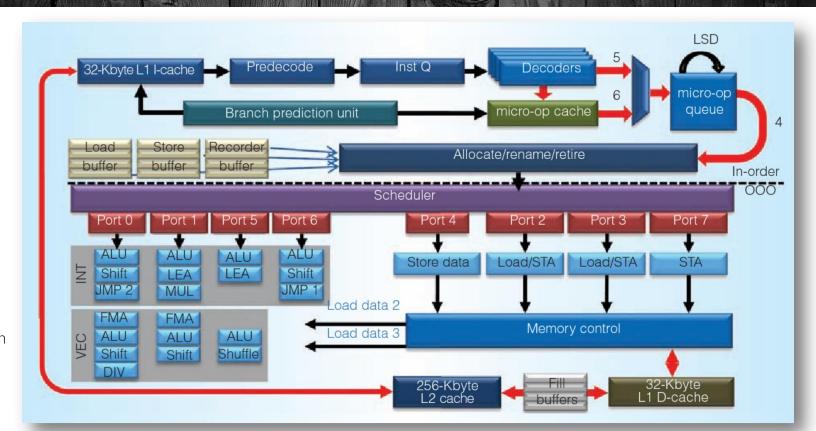
- Pipelining
- Vector capabilities







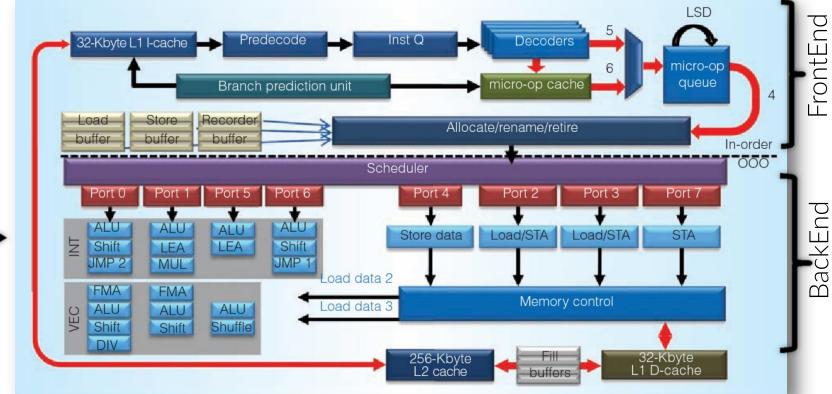
Mid 90s: superscalar and out-of-order CPUs



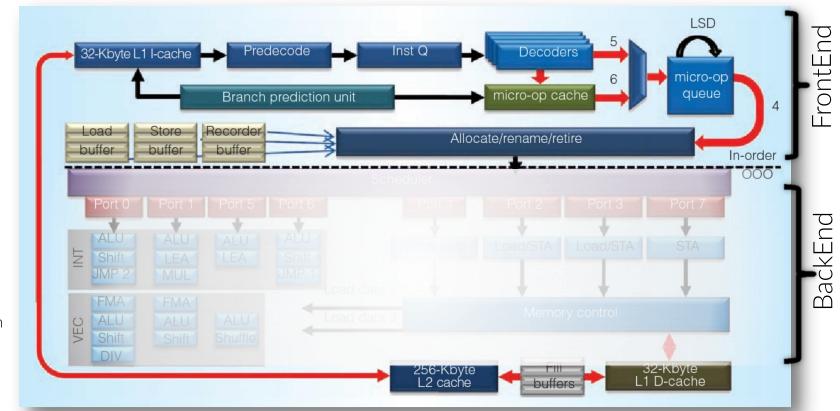
6th generation SkyLake micro-arch.



More than 1 *port* is available to execute CPU instructions, although different units have different specializations (ALU, LEA, SHIFT, FMA, ...): that is **superscalar capacity**, i.e. the capacity of executing more than 1 instructions per cycle.



6th generation SkyLake micro-arch. The *Front-End* basically fetches instructions and the data they operate on from instruction and data caches, decodes instructions, predicts branches and dispatches the instructions to different ports



6th generation SkyLake micro-arch.

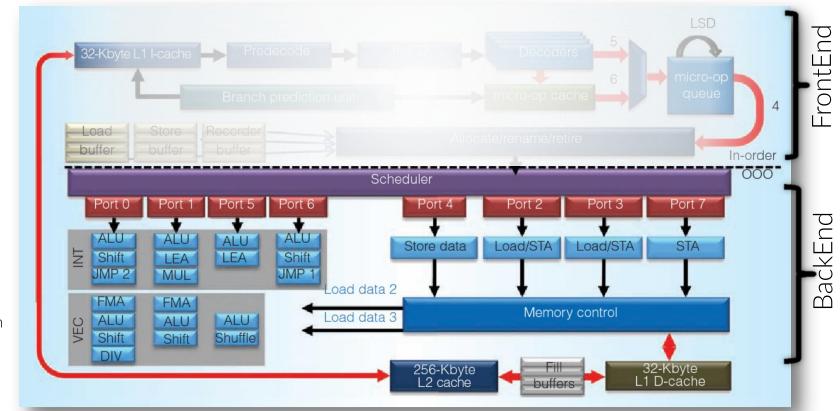
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Foundations of HPC

2023

Italian High

The *Back-End* is responsible for the actual instructions execution and for the back-writing of results in memory locations. It is responsible also for orchestrating out-of-order ops execution depending on their instructions/data dependencies.



6th generation SkyLake micro-arch.

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Foundations of HPC

2023

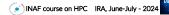
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Modern Architecture Some of the steps in between

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- Superscalability and out-of-order execution

- Pipelining
- Vector capabilities

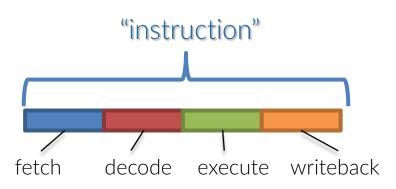




Pipelines

It would be obvious to think that an "instruction" is a kind of atomic operation that the CPU perform as a whole. Indeed that was true until the mid of the 80s.

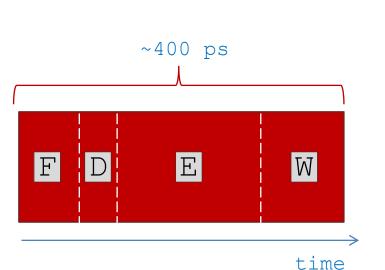
If you think carefully about it, it is easy to understand that actually an "instruction" involves at least the following **independent** steps:



- **Fetching** it must be recalled from memory/lcache
- Deconding: 2. it must be "understood and interpreted"
- Execution 3.
- Writeback: the result must be accounted in memory ()





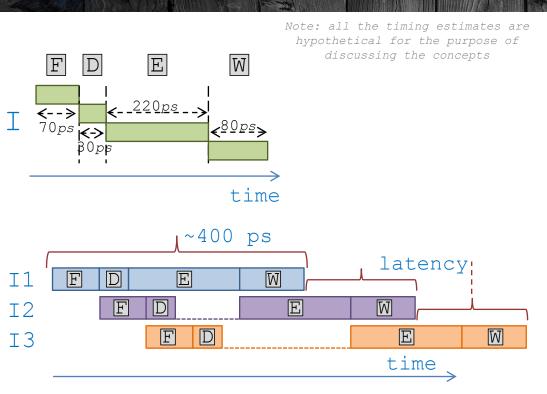


If all the four stages take ~400ps, we then would obtain a **throughput** of 2.5GIPS (giga-instructions per second).

400ps is also the total time required to get a result from an instruction, and so it is the **latency** of the instruction.

However, if we were able to "detach" the four stages, we could organize things differently, like in a car-building chain, or even at the mensa of the university.

Pipelines



If many independent logical units exist to perform each step, they could operate subsequently on different instructions:

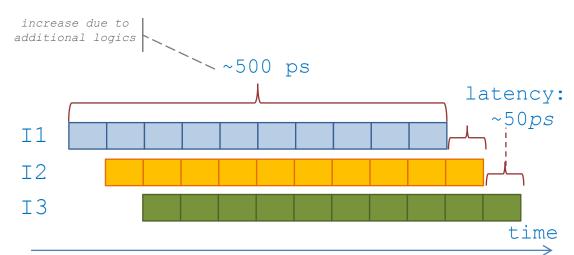
If the stage delays are not uniform, the throughput is limited by the latency $F+(D+E)-(F+D) = E \sim 220ps$, which means we have a throughput of ~ 4.5 GIPS just because of logic units separation.



Pipelines

Therefore, introducing the instructions pipelining, we can increase the throughput of our system by a large factor.

However, the efficiency of the pipelines is limited by its longest stage: the better option would be to have all equal stages, for instance further subdividing each stage – especially the most demanding ones (*).



Now the throughput of our system has increased to 1 instruction retired every 50ps, i.e. 20GIPS

(*) this is called *superpipelining*: modern CPUs may have 10-20 stages per pipeline.



Pipelines are about throughput

Pipelining is then about increasing the throughput of a system, and as we have seen it could be really effective.

However, there is more that can be done working on the **execution stage** that, of course, encompasses a large number of different **functional units**, performing a **different and independent tasks**.

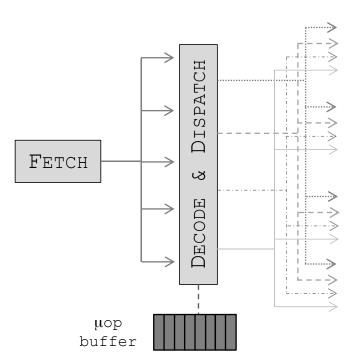
With an enhancement of the decode/dispatch stage, we can address multiple pipelines that can be active at the same time:

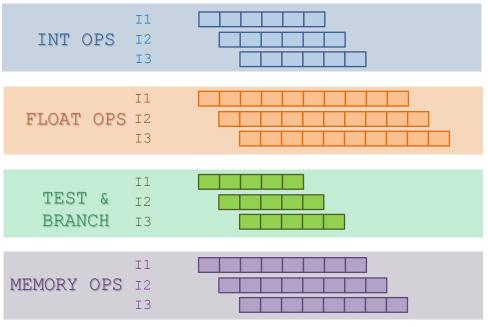
DISCLAIMER: of course things are more complicated than depicted here, and we do not get 10^{10} GIPS.





Multiple pipelines





Modern Architecture Some of the steps in between

- The memory hierarchy
- Superscalability and out-of-order execution

- Pipelining
- Vector capabilities





Late 90s: vector capabilities become mainstream

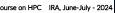
https://software.intel.com/sites/default/files/m/d/4/1/d/8/Intro to Intel AVX.pdf

SIMD Mode Scalar Mode A2 A1 **B6 B4 B3** B2 **B1** BO A6+B6 A5+B5 A4+B4 A3+B3 A2+B2 A1+B1 A0+B0

Vector registers are large special registers in the CPU that can be considered subdivided in smaller independent chunks over which the same operation can be performed:

SIMD: Single Instruction Multiple Data

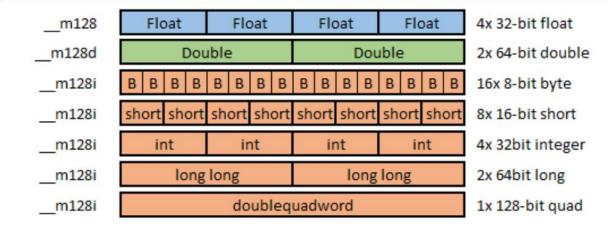






Vector registers size

SSE Data Types (16 XMM Registers)



AVX Data Types (16 YMM Registers)

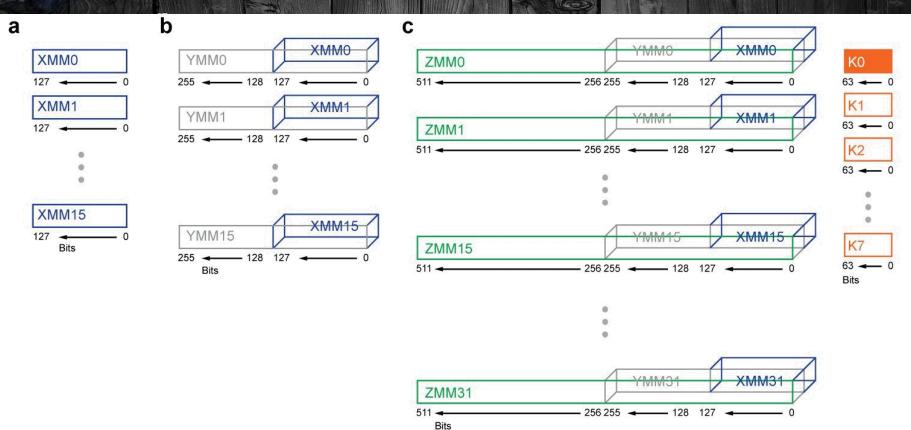
mm256	Float	Float	Float	Float	Float	Float	Float	Float	8x 32-bit float
mm256d	Double		Double		Double		Double		4x 64-bit double

_mm256i 256-bit Integer registers. It behaves similarly to __m128i.Out of scope in AVX, useful on AVX2





Vector registers size

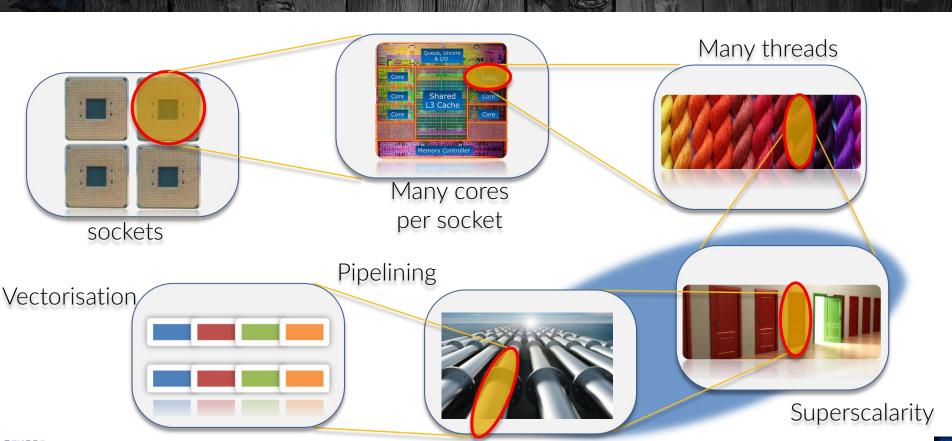








A final sketch





that's all, have fun

