



Processors & Pipelines

Important concepts from CS:APP 4.4

These slides adapted from materials provided by the textbook authors.

Real-World Pipelines: Car Washes

Sequential



Pipelined



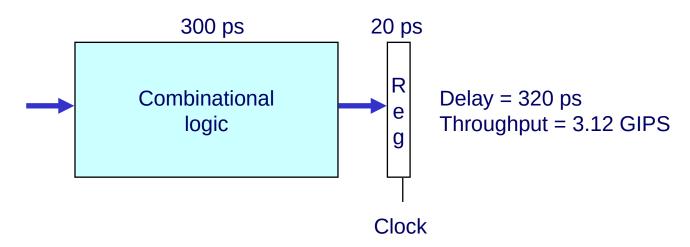
Parallel



Idea

- Divide process into independent stages
- Move objects through stages in sequence
- At any given times, multiple objects being processed

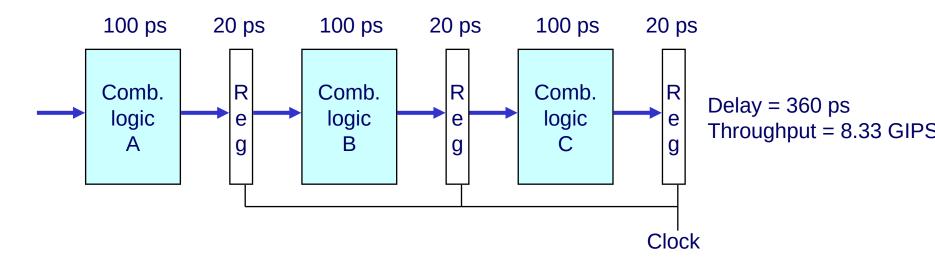
Computational Example



System

- Computation requires total of 300 picoseconds
- Additional 20 picoseconds to save result in register
- Must have clock cycle of at least 320 ps

3-Way Pipelined Version

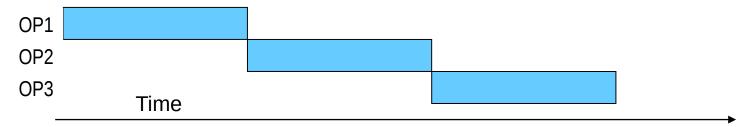


System

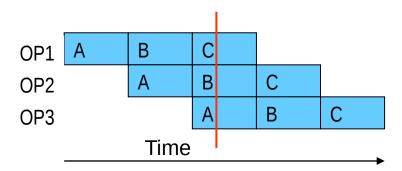
- Divide combinational logic into 3 blocks of 100 ps each
- Can begin new operation as soon as previous one passes through stage A.
 - Begin new operation every 120 ps
- Overall latency increases
 - 360 ps from start to finish

Pipeline Diagrams

Unpipelined

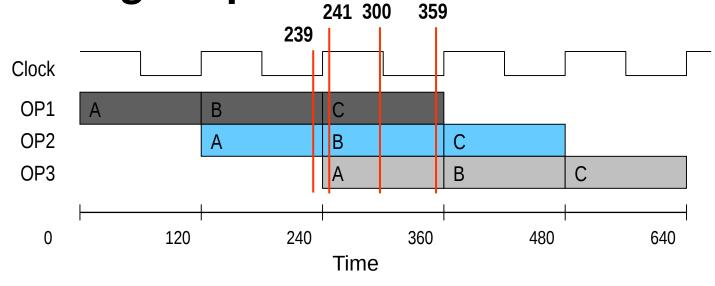


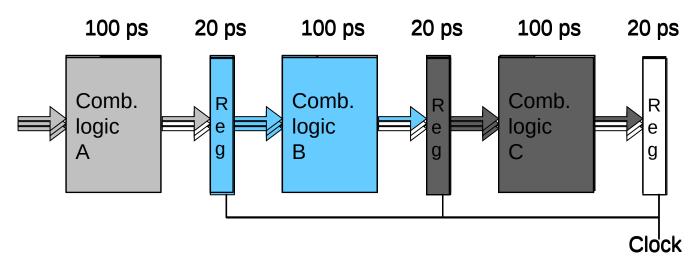
- Cannot start new operation until previous one completes
- 3-Way Pipelined



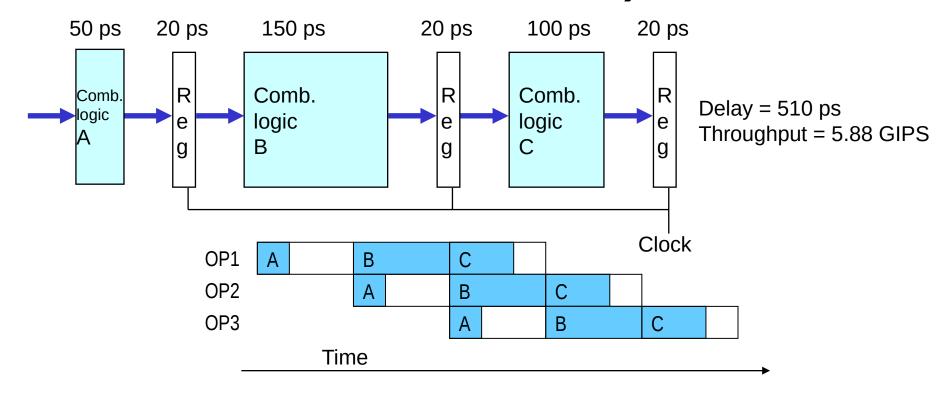
Up to 3 operations in process simultaneously

Operating a Pipeline



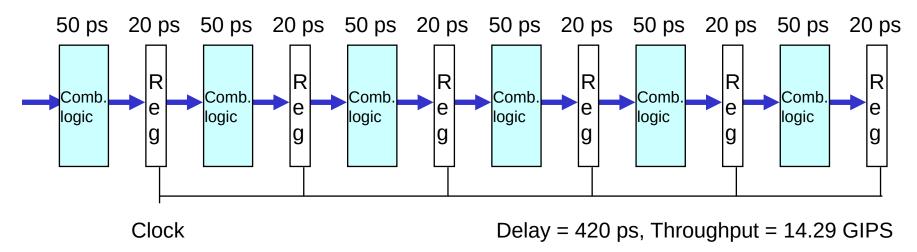


Limitations: Nonuniform Delays



- Throughput limited by slowest stage
- Other stages sit idle for much of the time
- Challenging to partition system into balanced stages

Limitations: Register Overhead



- As try to deepen pipeline, overhead of loading registers becomes more significant
- Percentage of clock cycle spent loading register:
 - **1**-stage pipeline: 6.25%
 - **3**-stage pipeline: 16.67%
 - 6-stage pipeline: 28.57%
- High speeds of modern processor designs obtained through very deep pipelining

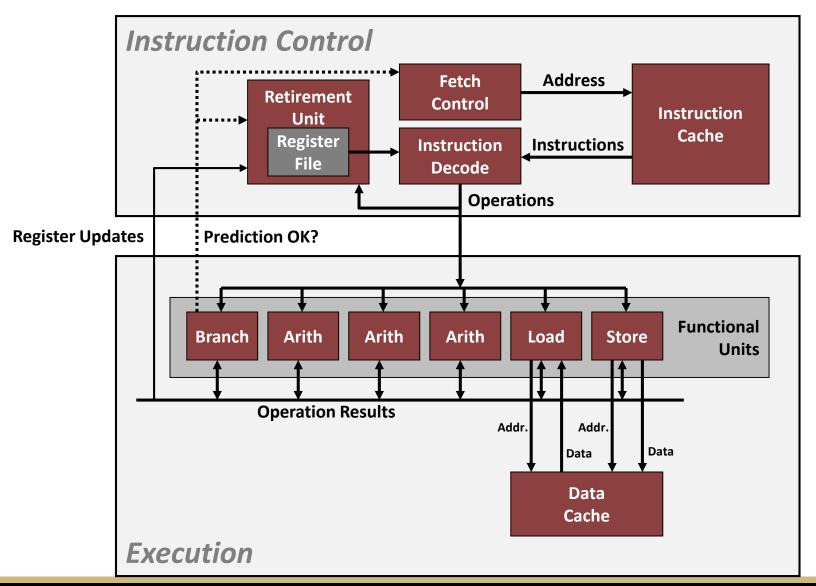
Effect of Basic Optimizations

```
void combine4(vec_ptr v, data_t *dest)
{
  long i;
  long length = vec_length(v);
  data_t *d = get_vec_start(v);
  data_t t = IDENT;
  for (i = 0; i < length; i++)
    t = t OP d[i];
  *dest = t;
}</pre>
```

Method	Inte	ger	Doub	le FP
Operation	Add Mult		Add	Mult
Combine1 -O1	10.12	10.12	10.17	11.14
Combine4	1.27	3.01	3.01	5.01

Eliminates sources of overhead in loop

Modern CPU Design

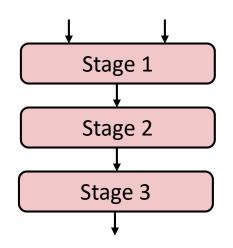


Superscalar Processor

- Definition: A superscalar processor can issue and execute multiple instructions in one cycle. The instructions are retrieved from a sequential instruction stream and are usually scheduled dynamically.
- Benefit: without programming effort, superscalar processor can take advantage of the instruction level parallelism that most programs have
- Most modern CPUs are superscalar.
- Intel: since Pentium (1993)

Pipelined Functional Units

```
long mult_eg(long a, long b, long c) {
    long p1 = a*b;
    long p2 = a*c;
    long p3 = p1 * p2;
    return p3;
}
```



	Time						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stage 1	a*b	a*c			p1*p2		
Stage 2		a*b	a*c			p1*p2	
Stage 3			a*b	a*c			p1*p2

- Divide computation into stages
- Pass partial computations from stage to stage
- Stage i can start on new computation once values passed to i+1
- E.g., complete 3 multiplications in 7 cycles, even though each requires 3 cycles

Haswell CPU

- 8 Total Functional Units
- Multiple instructions can execute in parallel
 - 2 load, with address computation
 - 1 store, with address computation
 - 4 integer
 - 2 FP multiply
 - 1 FP add
 - 1 FP divide

Some instructions take > 1 cycle, but can be pipelined

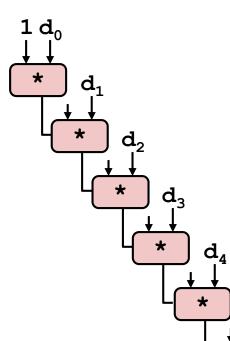
Instruction	Latency	Cycles/Issue
Load / Store	4	1
Integer Multiply	3	1
Integer/Long Divide	3-30	3-30
Single/Double FP Multiply	5	1
Single/Double FP Add	3	1
Single/Double FP Divide	3-15	3-15

x86-64 Compilation of Combine4

Inner Loop (Case: Integer Multiply)

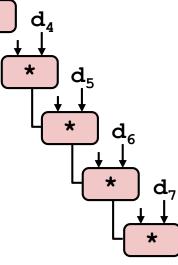
Method	Inte	eger	Double FP		
Operation	Add	Mult	Add	Mult	
Combine4	1.27	3.01	3.01	5.01	
Latency Bound	1.00	3.00	3.00	5.00	

Combine4 = Serial Computation (OP = *)



Computation (length=8)

- Sequential dependence
 - Performance: determined by latency of OP



Loop Unrolling (2x1)

```
void unroll2a combine(vec ptr v, data_t *dest)
{
    long length = vec length(v);
    long limit = length-1;
    data t *d = get vec start(v);
    data t x = IDENT;
    long i;
    /* Combine 2 elements at a time */
    for (i = 0; i < limit; i+=2) {
       x = (x OP d[i]) OP d[i+1];
    /* Finish any remaining elements */
    for (; i < length; i++) {
       x = x OP d[i];
    *dest = x;
```

Perform 2x more useful work per iteration

Effect of Loop Unrolling

Method	Inte	ger	Double FP		
Operation	Add	Mult	Add	Mult	
Combine4	1.27	3.01	3.01	5.01	
Unroll 2x1	1.01	3.01	3.01	5.01	
Latency Bound	1.00	3.00	3.00	5.00	

Helps integer add

Achieves latency bound

$$x = (x OP d[i]) OP d[i+1];$$

- Others don't improve. Why?
 - Still sequential dependency

Loop Unrolling with Reassociation (2x1a)

```
void unroll2aa combine(vec ptr v, data t *dest)
{
    long length = vec length(v);
    long limit = length-1;
    data t *d = get vec start(v);
    data t x = IDENT;
    long i;
    /* Combine 2 elements at a time */
    for (i = 0; i < limit; i+=2) {
       x = x OP (d[i] OP d[i+1]);
    /* Finish any remaining elements */
    for (; i < length; i++) {
       x = x OP d[i];
                                  Compare to before
                                  x = (x OP d[i]) OP d[i+1];
    *dest = x;
```

- Can this change the result of the computation?
- Yes, for FP. Why?

Effect of Reassociation

Method	Integer		Doub	le FP
Operation	Add	Mult	Add	Mult
Combine4	1.27	3.01	3.01	5.01
Unroll 2x1	1.01	3.01	3.01	5.01
Unroll 2x1a	1.01	1.51	1.51	2.51
Latency Bound	1.00	3.00	3.00	5.00
Throughput Bound	0.50	1.00	1.00	0.50

Nearly 2x speedup for Int *, FP +, FP *

Reason: Breaks sequential dependency

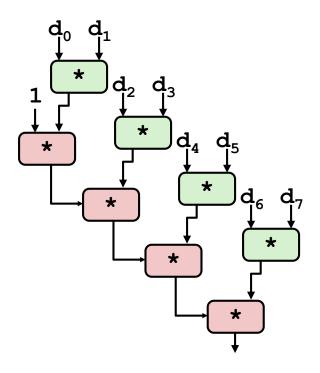
$$x = x OP (d[i] OP d[i+1]);$$

Why is that? (next slide)

4 func. units for int + 2 func. units for load

Reassociated Computation

$$x = x OP (d[i] OP d[i+1]);$$



What changed:

 Ops in the next iteration can be started early (no dependency)

Overall Performance

- N elements, D cycles latency/op
- (N/2+1)*D cycles:CPE = D/2

Loop Unrolling with Separate Accumulators

(2x2)

```
void unroll2a combine(vec ptr v, data_t *dest)
    long length = vec length(v);
    long limit = length-1;
    data t *d = get vec start(v);
    data t x0 = IDENT;
    data t x1 = IDENT;
    long i;
    /* Combine 2 elements at a time */
    for (i = 0; i < limit; i+=2) {
       x0 = x0 \text{ OP d[i]};
       x1 = x1 \text{ OP } d[i+1];
    /* Finish any remaining elements */
    for (; i < length; i++) {
        x0 = x0 \text{ OP d[i]};
    *dest = x0 OP x1;
```

Different form of reassociation

Effect of Separate Accumulators

Method	Integer		Doub	le FP
Operation	Add	Mult	Add	Mult
Combine4	1.27	3.01	3.01	5.01
Unroll 2x1	1.01	3.01	3.01	5.01
Unroll 2x1a	1.01	1.51	1.51	2.51
Unroll 2x2	0.81	1.51	1.51	2.51
Latency Bound	1.00	3.00	3.00	5.00
Throughput Bound	0.50	1.00	1.00	0.50

Int + makes use of two load units

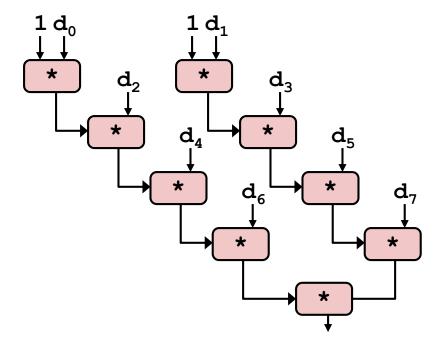
```
x0 = x0 OP d[i];
x1 = x1 OP d[i+1];
```

2x speedup (over unroll2) for Int *, FP +, FP *

Separate Accumulators

```
x0 = x0 \text{ OP d[i]};

x1 = x1 \text{ OP d[i+1]};
```



What changed:

Two independent "streams" of operations

Overall Performance

- N elements, D cycles latency/op
- Should be (N/2+1)*D cycles:
 CPE = D/2
- CPE matches prediction!

What Now?

Unrolling & Accumulating

Idea

- Can unroll to any degree L
- Can accumulate K results in parallel
- L must be multiple of K

Limitations

- Diminishing returns
 - Cannot go beyond throughput limitations of execution units
- Large overhead for short lengths
 - Finish off iterations sequentially

Accumulators

Unrolling & Accumulating: Double *

Case

- Intel Haswell
- Double FP Multiplication
- Latency bound: 5.00. Throughput bound: 0.50

FP *	Unrolling Factor L							
K	1	2	3	4	6	8	10	12
1	5.01	5.01	5.01	5.01	5.01	5.01	5.01	
2		2.51		2.51		2.51		
3			1.67					
4				1.25		1.26		
6					0.84			0.88
8						0.63		
10							0.51	
12								0.52

Accumulators

Unrolling & Accumulating: Int +

Case

- Intel Haswell
- Integer addition
- Latency bound: 1.00. Throughput bound: 0.50

FP*	Unrolling Factor L							
K	1	2	3	4	6	8	10	12
1	1.27	1.01	1.01	1.01	1.01	1.01	1.01	
2		0.81		0.69		0.54		
3			0.74					
4				0.69		1.24		
6					0.56			0.56
8						0.54		
10							0.54	
12								0.56

Achievable Performance

Method	Integer		Doub	le FP
Operation	Add	Mult	Add	Mult
Best	0.54	1.01	1.01	0.52
Latency Bound	1.00	3.00	3.00	5.00
Throughput Bound	0.50	1.00	1.00	0.50

- Limited only by throughput of functional units
- Up to 42X improvement over original, unoptimized code

Getting High Performance

- Good compiler and flags
- Watch out for hidden algorithmic inefficiencies
- Write compiler-friendly code
 - Watch out for optimization blockers: procedure calls & memory references
- Look carefully at innermost loops (where most work is done)

Memory Hierarchy

- Storage technologies and trends
- Locality of reference
- Caching in the memory hierarchy

Random-Access Memory (RAM)

Key features

- RAM is traditionally packaged as a chip.
- Basic storage unit is normally a cell (one bit per cell).
- Multiple RAM chips form a memory.

RAM comes in two varieties:

- SRAM (Static RAM)
- DRAM (Dynamic RAM)

SRAM vs DRAM Summary

1			Needs Needs refresh? EDC? Cost Applications
SRAM	4 or 6	1X	No Maybe 100xCache memories
DRAM	1 10>	〈 Yes `	Yes 1X Main memories, frame buffers

Nonvolatile Memories

DRAM and SRAM are volatile memories

Lose information if powered off.

Nonvolatile memories retain value even if powered off

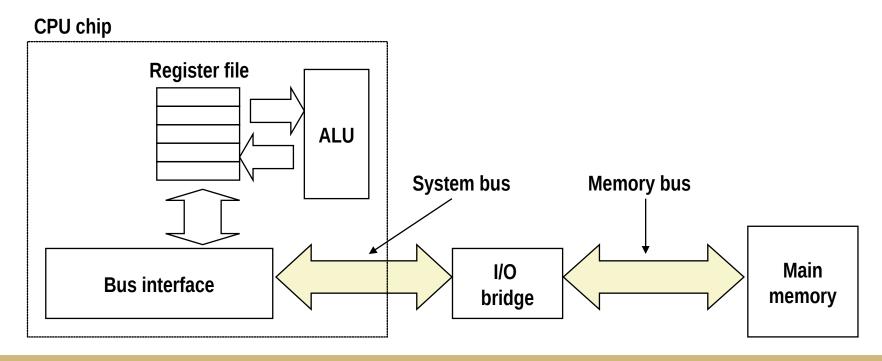
- Read-only memory (ROM): programmed during production
- Programmable ROM (PROM): can be programmed once
- Eraseable PROM (EPROM): can be bulk erased (UV, X-Ray)
- Electrically eraseable PROM (EEPROM): electronic erase capability
- Flash memory: EEPROMs. with partial (block-level) erase capability
 - Wears out after about 100,000 erasings

Uses for Nonvolatile Memories

- Firmware programs stored in a ROM (BIOS, controllers for disks, network cards, graphics accelerators, security subsystems,...)
- Solid state disks (replace rotating disks in thumb drives, smart phones, mp3 players, tablets, laptops,...)
- Disk caches

Traditional Bus Structure Connecting CPU and Memory

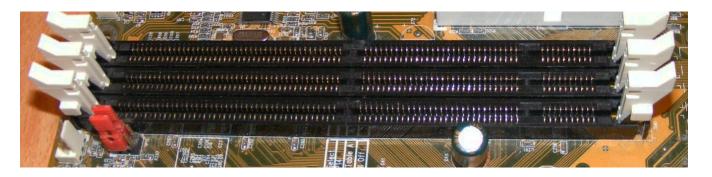
- A bus is a collection of parallel wires that carry address, data, and control signals.
- Buses are typically shared by multiple devices.



DIMM and BUS

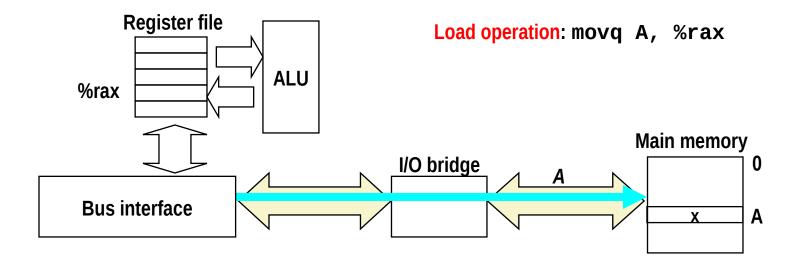






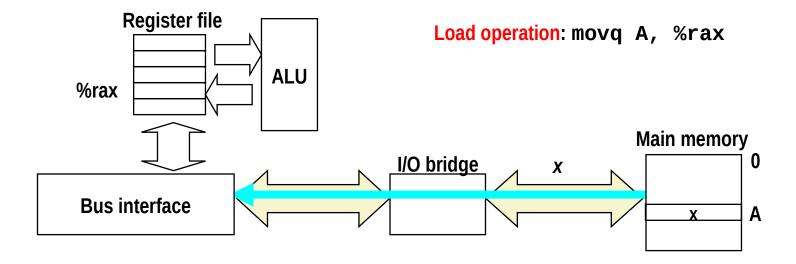
Memory Read Transaction (1)

CPU places address A on the memory bus.



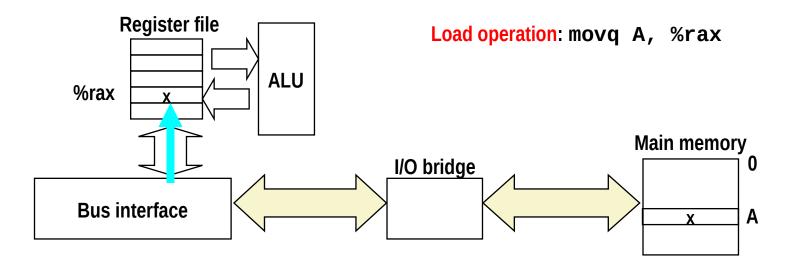
Memory Read Transaction (2)

Main memory reads A from the memory bus, retrieves word x, and places it on the bus.



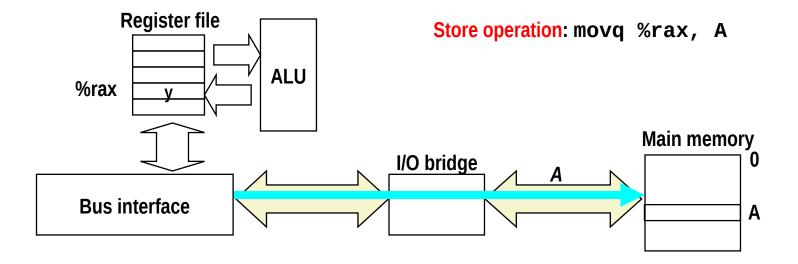
Memory Read Transaction (3)

CPU read word x from the bus and copies it into register %rax.



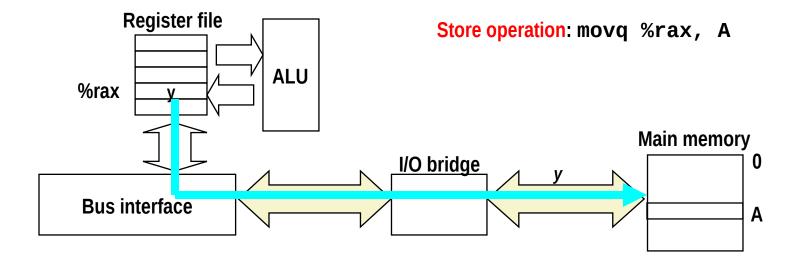
Memory Write Transaction (1)

CPU places address A on bus. Main memory reads it and waits for the corresponding data word to arrive.



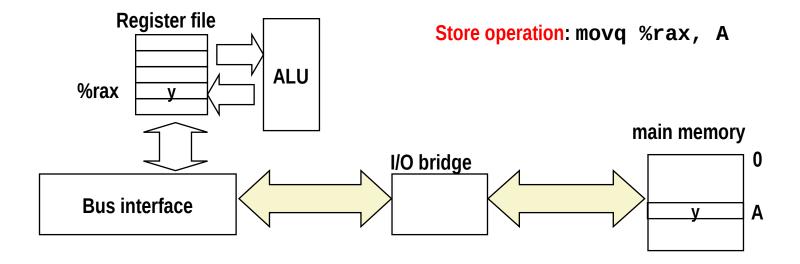
Memory Write Transaction (2)

CPU places data word y on the bus.



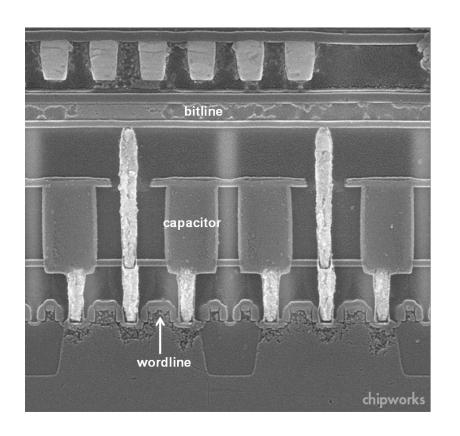
Memory Write Transaction (3)

Main memory reads data word y from the bus and stores it at address A.



What's in a DRAM cell?

- Dynamic RAM stores a charge in a capacitor
- That charge depletes over time and when read
- Reading and writing DRAM requires both reading and writing to replenish charge
- "refresh" needed as charge depeletes



65nm Embedded DRAM in Xbox GPU

What's Inside A Disk Drive?

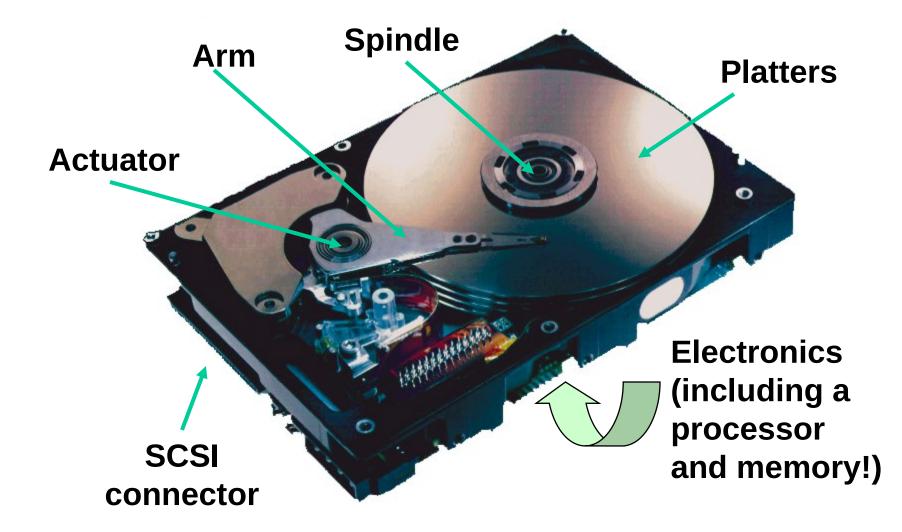
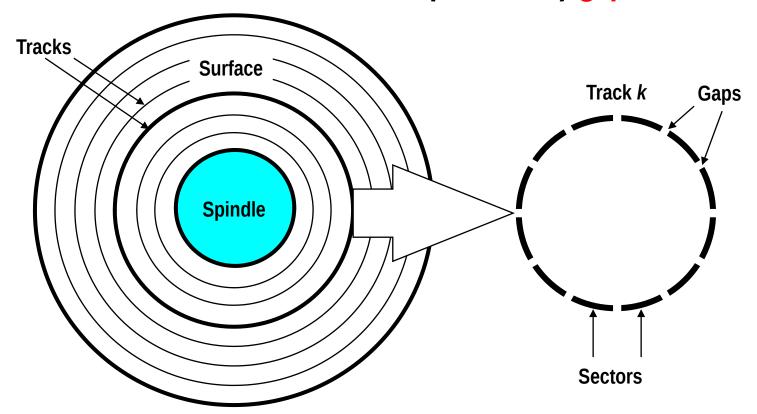


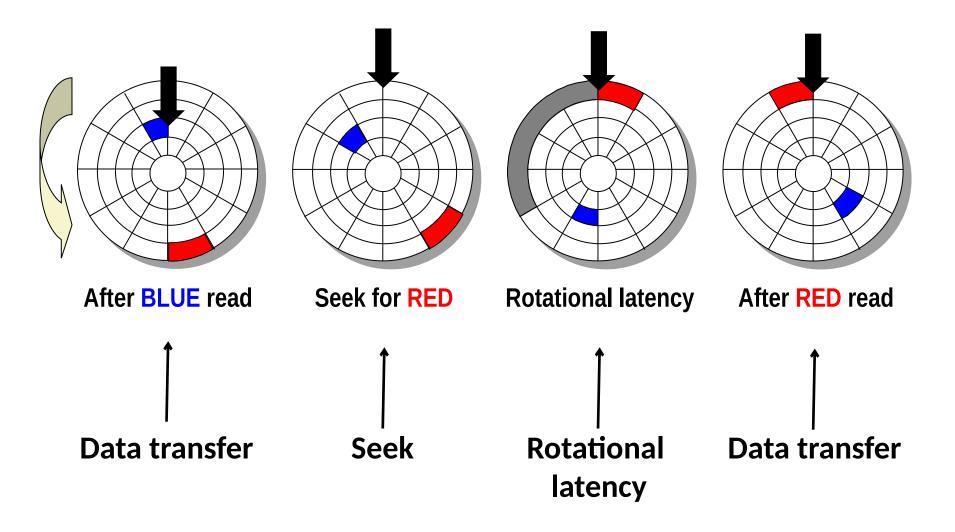
Image courtesy of Seagate Technology

Disk Geometry

- Disks consist of platters, each with two surfaces.
- Each surface consists of concentric rings called tracks.
- Each track consists of sectors separated by gaps.



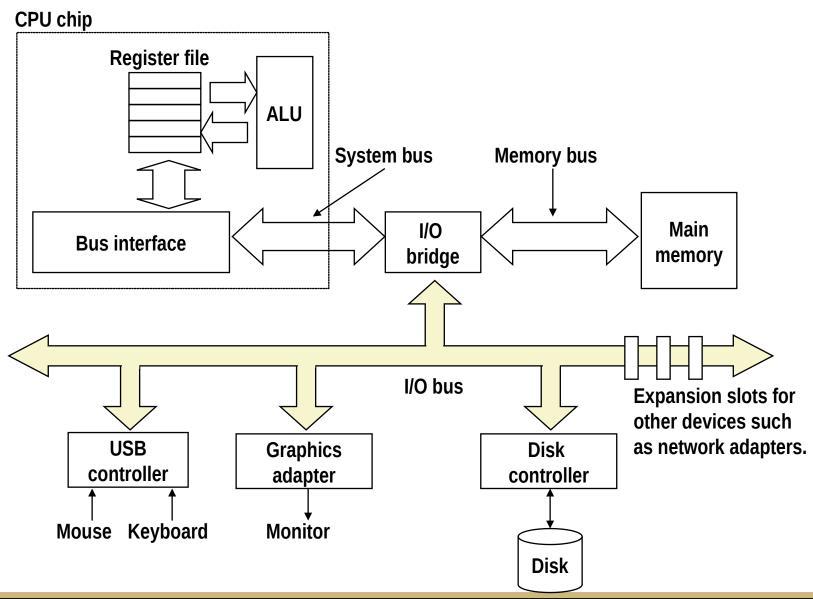
Disk Access - Service Time Components



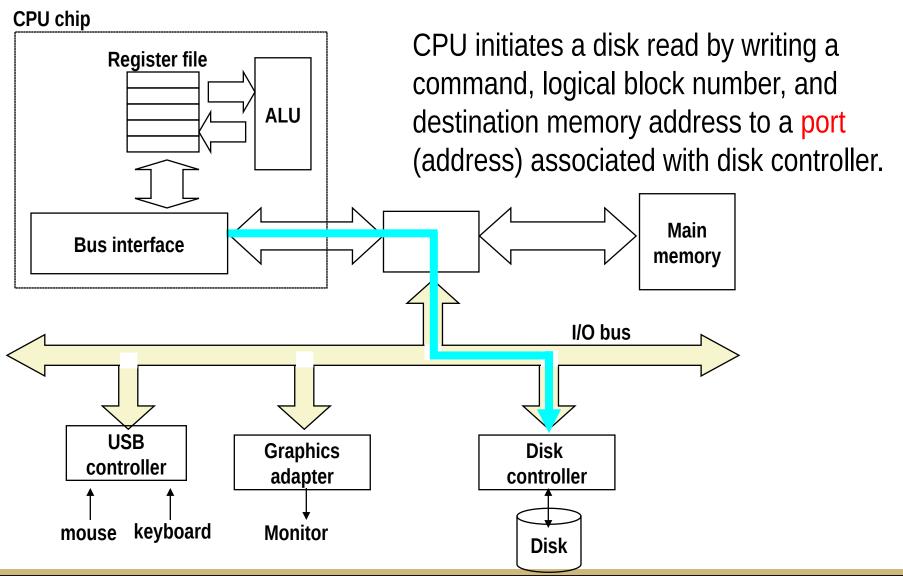
Throughput vs. IOPS

- Two programs, same disk
- Seek to one sector, read 10,000 sectors of 512 bytes each
 - Time = Tseek + Trotate + Ttransfer * 10000
 - 9 + 4 + 0.02 * 10000 = 213ms
 - 213 ms for 5.12MB at about 24 MB/s
- Read 10,000 random sectors
 - Time = 1000 * (Tseek + Trotate + Ttransfer)
 - 10000 * (9+4+0.02) = 130,020ms or 130s
 - 130,020 ms for 5.12MB at about 0.04 MB/s
- We are "latency limited" or "seek limited"

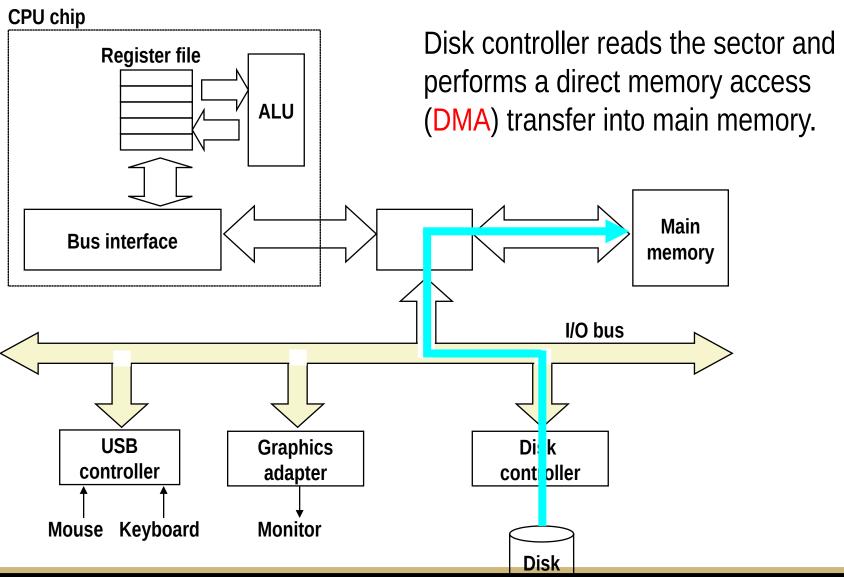
I/O Bus



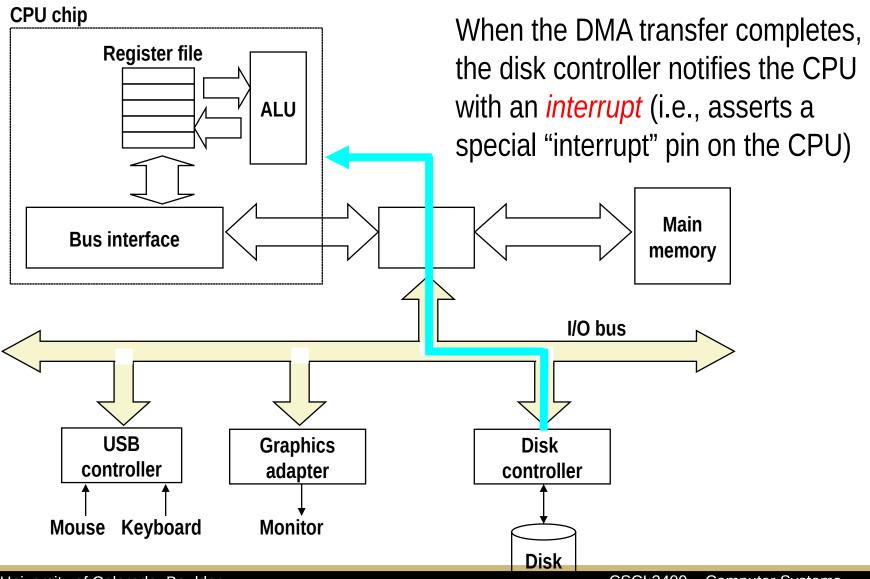
Reading a Disk Sector (1)



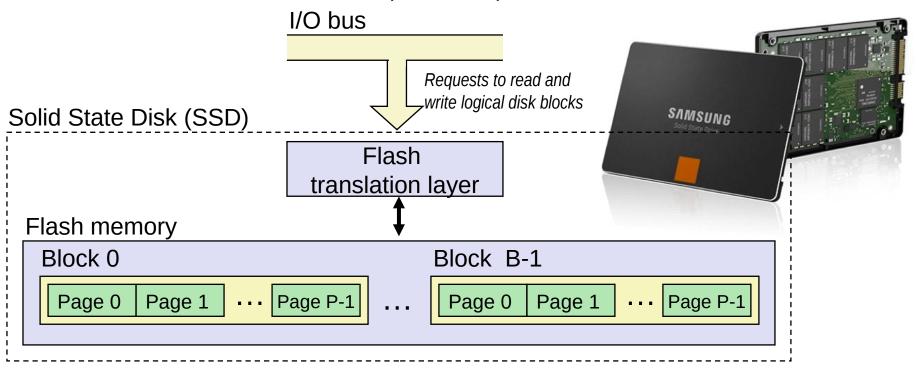
Reading a Disk Sector (2)



Reading a Disk Sector (3)



Solid State Disks (SSDs)



- Pages: 512KB to 4KB, Blocks: 32 to 128 pages
- Data read/written in units of pages.
- Page can be written only after its block has been erased
- A block wears out after about 100,000 repeated writes.

SSD Performance Characteristics

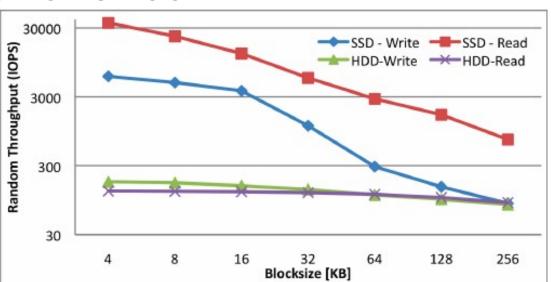
Sequential read tput 550 MB/s Sequential write tput 470 MB/s
Random read tput 365 MB/s Random write tput 303 MB/s
Avg seq read time 50 us Avg seq write time 60 us

- Sequential access faster than random access
 - Common theme in the memory hierarchy
- Random writes are somewhat slower
 - Erasing a block takes a long time (~1 ms)
 - Modifying a block page requires all other pages to be copied to new block
 - In earlier SSDs, the read/write gap was much larger.

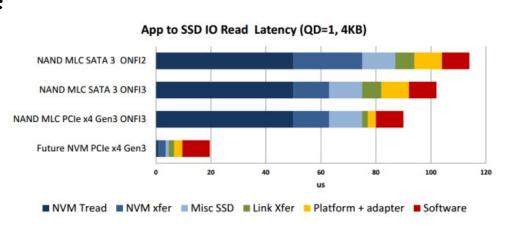
Source: Intel SSD 730 product specification.

Throughput vs. IOPS for SSD

- SSDs have small "seek time"
- Much faster for many small reads/writes
 - 80,000 SSDvs. 10 HDD



- For larger reads/writes the transfer time dominates
 - E.g. SATA-III 200-600 MB/s
 - New interfaces (NVMe)
 - 16GB/s 16,000 MB/s
 - **1,000,000 IOPS**



SSD Tradeoffs vs Rotating Disks

Advantages

No moving parts

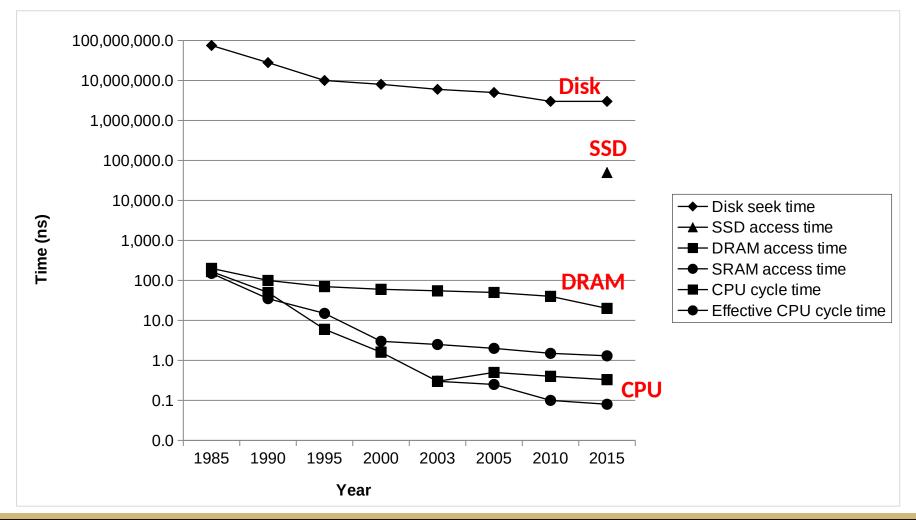
∏ faster, less power, more rugged

Disadvantages

- Have the potential to wear out
 - Mitigated by "wear leveling logic" in flash translation layer
 - E.g. Intel SSD 730 guarantees 128 petabyte (128 x 10¹⁵ bytes) of writes before they wear out
- In 2015, about 30 times more expensive per byte
- In 2018, about 3 times more (\$44 vs. \$150)

The CPU-Memory Gap

The gap widens between DRAM, disk, and CPU speeds.



Locality to the Rescue!

The key to bridging this CPU-Memory gap is a fundamental property of computer programs known as locality