

CSC 252: Computer Organization

Spring 2023: Lecture 27

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University of Rochester

Announcements

- Assignment 5 due April 28 (Extended).

9	10	11	12	13	14	15
16	17	18	19	20	21	22
23	24	25	26	27	28	29
30	May 1	2	3	4	5	6

Today

Last Class Due

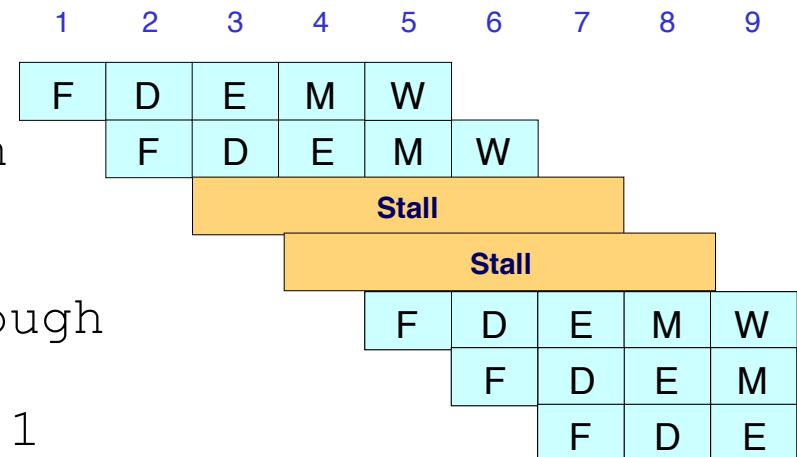
Final

Fine-Grained Switching

- One big bonus of fine-grained switching: no need for branch predictor!!

The stalling approach

```
xorg %rax, %rax
jne L1          # Not taken
Stall
Stall
L1  irmovq $1, %rax    # Fall Through
     irmovq $4, %rcx    # Target
     irmovq $3, %rax    # Target + 1
```



Fine-Grained Switching

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The branch prediction approach

```
# demo-j.ys
```

```
0x000: xorq %rax,%rax
```

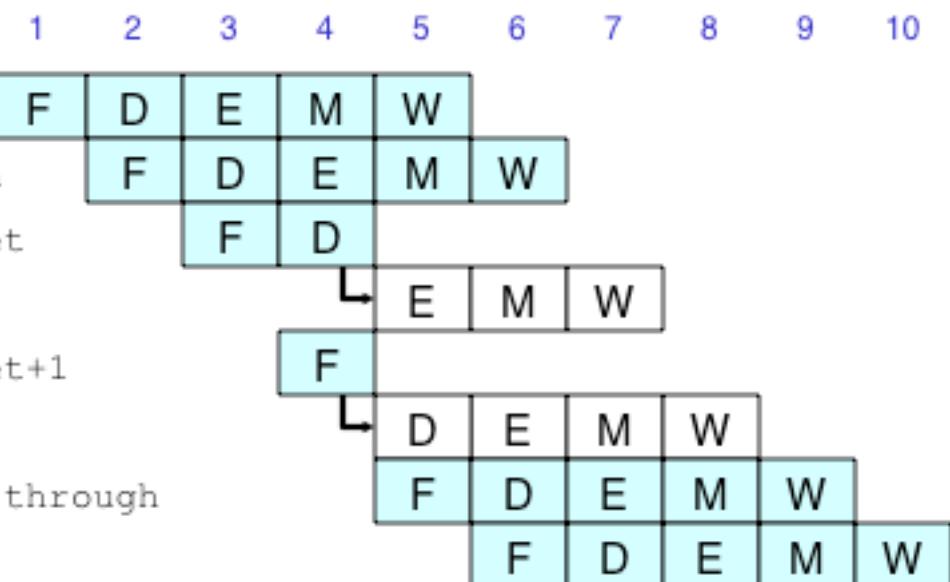
```
0x002: jne target # Not taken
```

```
0x016: irmovq $2,%rdx # Target  
       bubble
```

```
0x020: irmovq $3,%rbx # Target+1  
       bubble
```

```
0x00b: irmovq $1,%rax # Fall through
```

```
0x015: halt
```

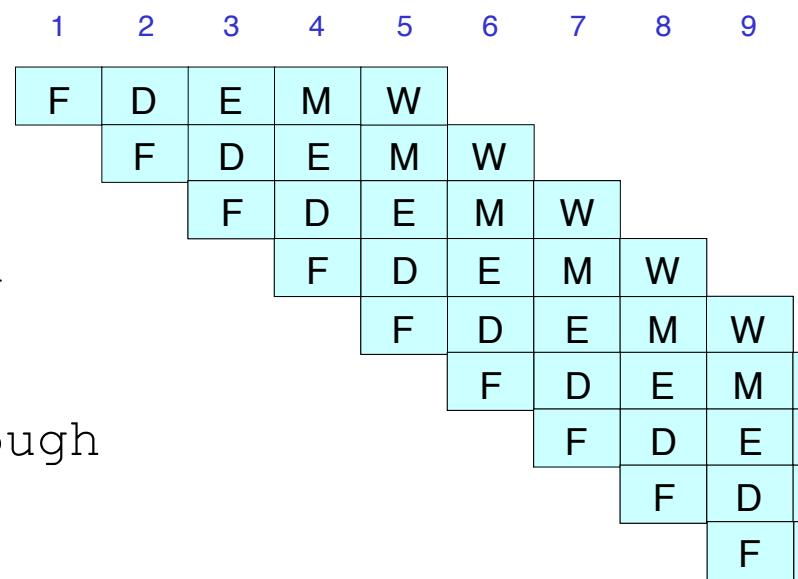


Fine-Grained Switching

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The fine-grained multi-threading approach

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...
...
```

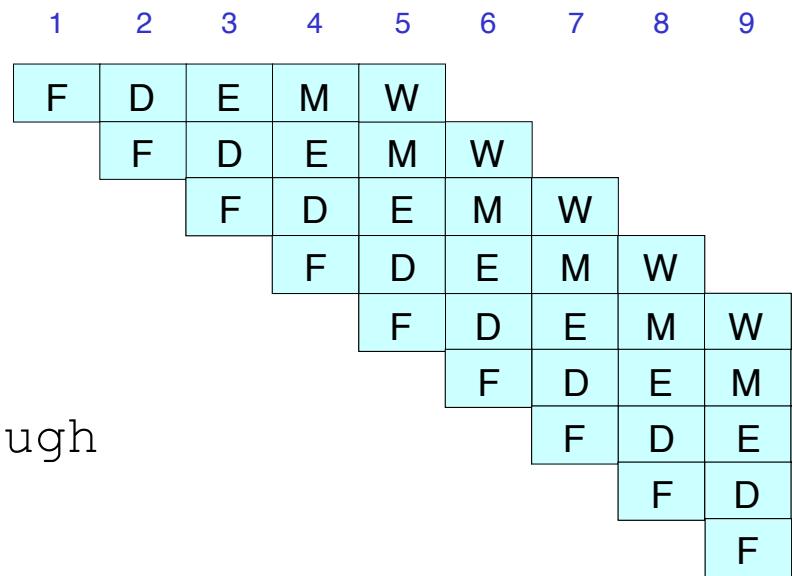


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 - Context switching overhead would be very high! Use separate hardware contexts for each thread (e.g., separate register files).

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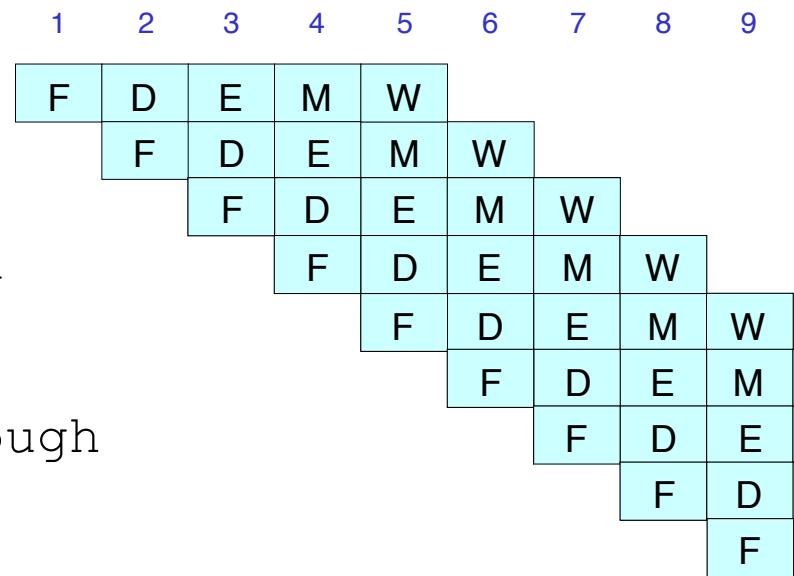


Fine-Grained Switching

- One big bonus of fine-grained switching: no need for branch predictor!!
 - Context switching overhead would be very high! Use separate hardware contexts for each thread (e.g., separate register files).
 - GPUs do this (among other things). More later.

The fine-grained multi-threading approach

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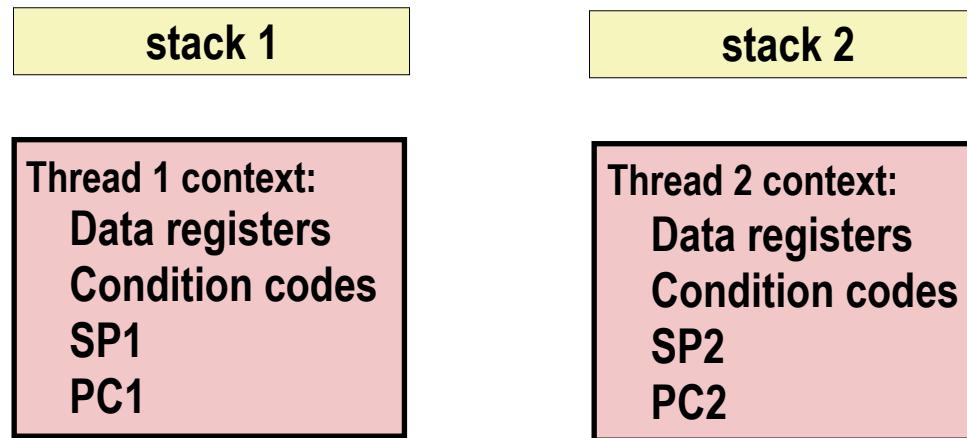
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Thread 1 (main thread) **Thread 2 (peer thread)**



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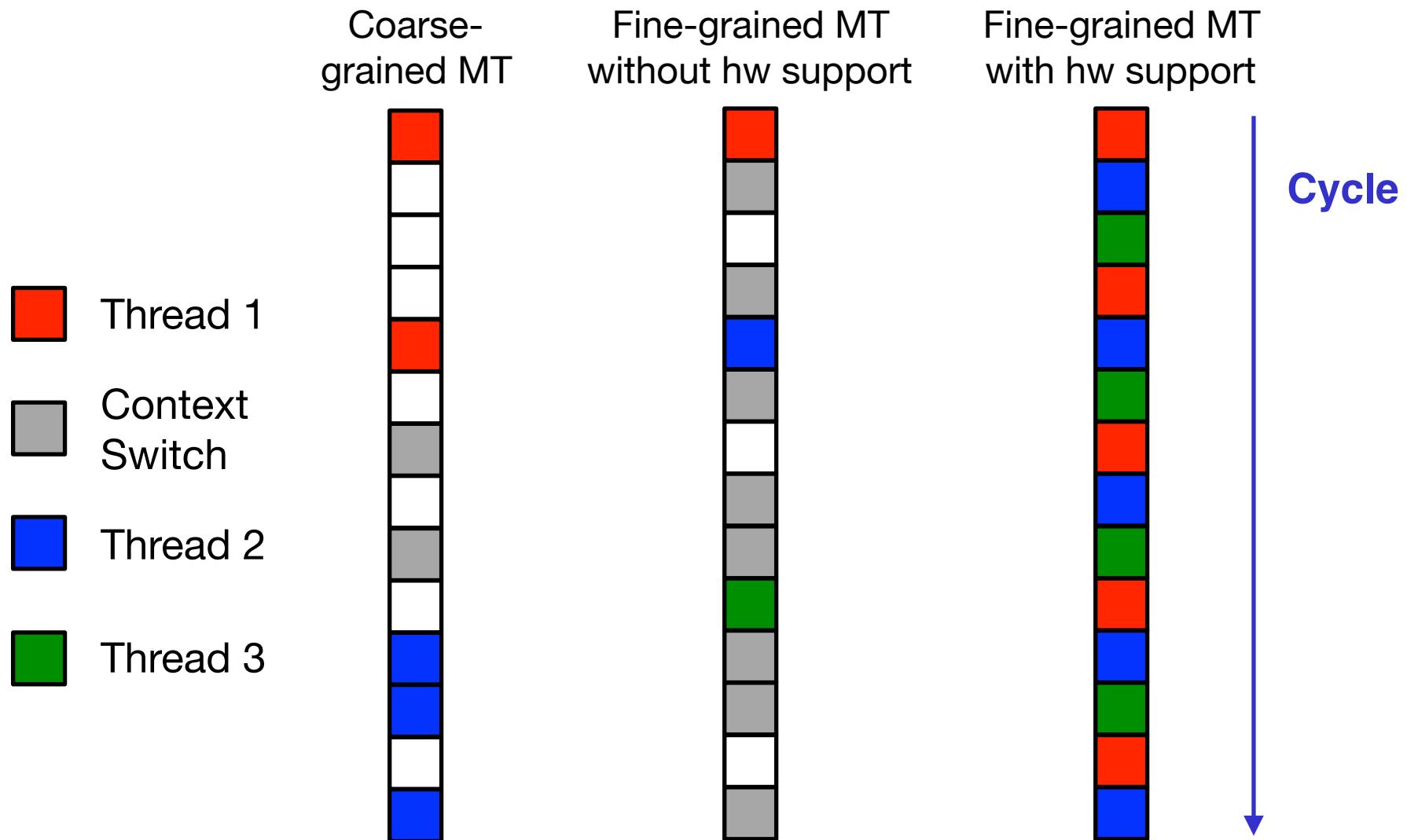
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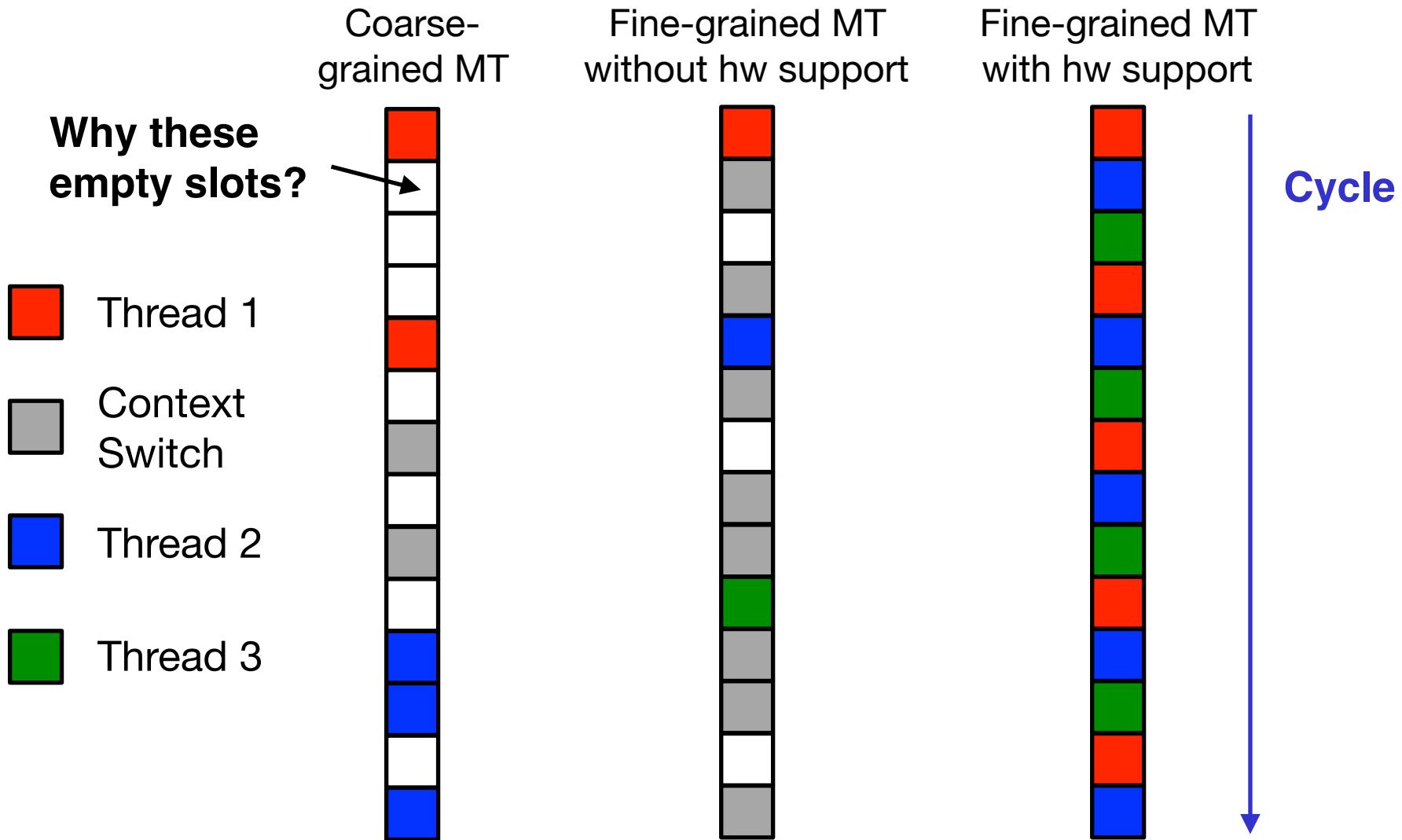
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 - GPU does this (later).
 - CPU does this for a limited number of threads (hyper-threading, later).

Multi-threading Illustration (so far...)

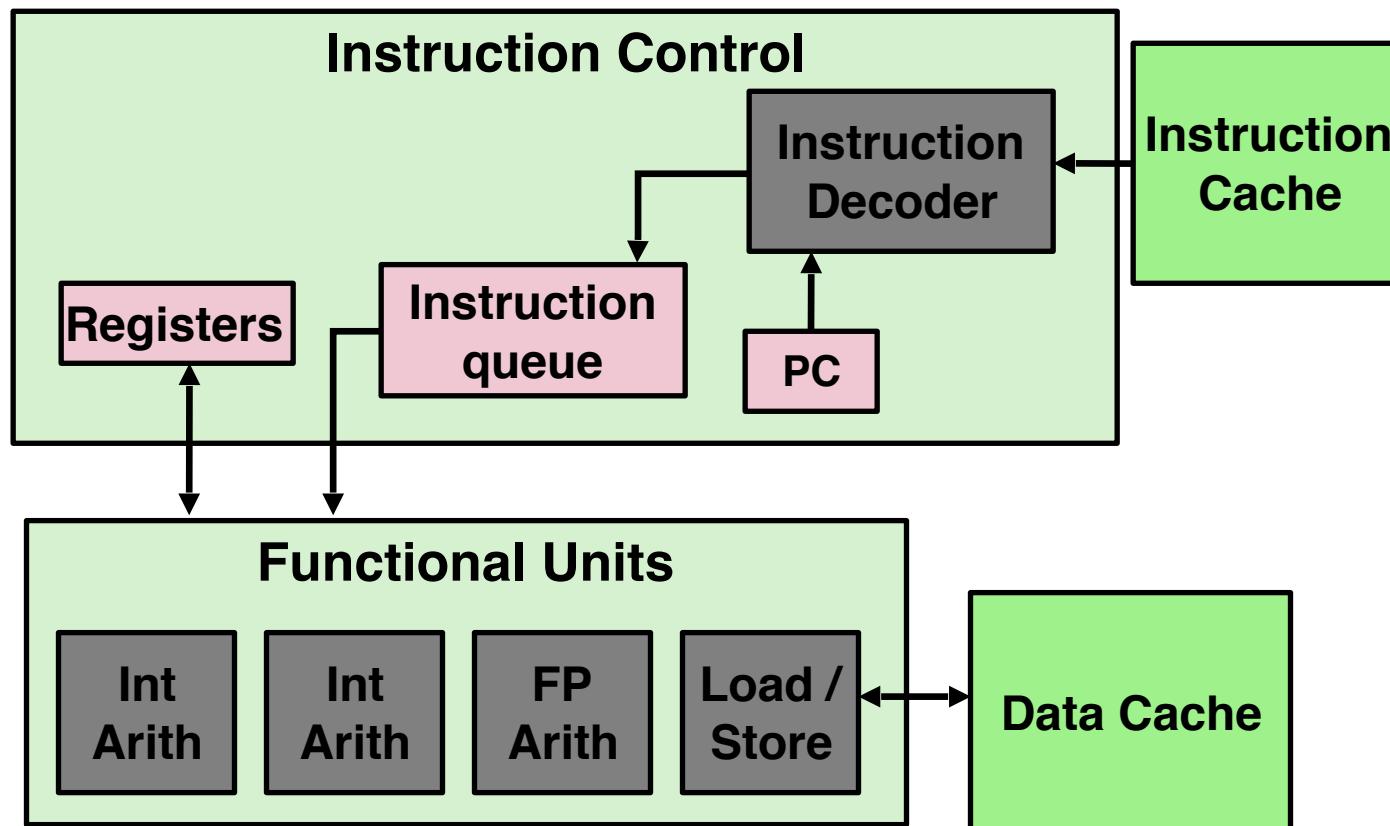


Multi-threading Illustration (so far...)

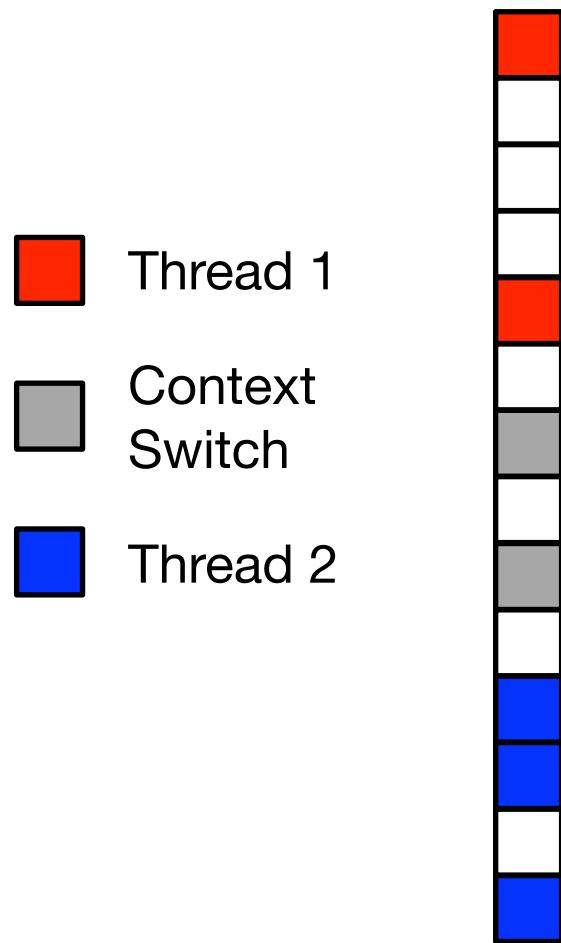


Modern Single-Core: Superscalar

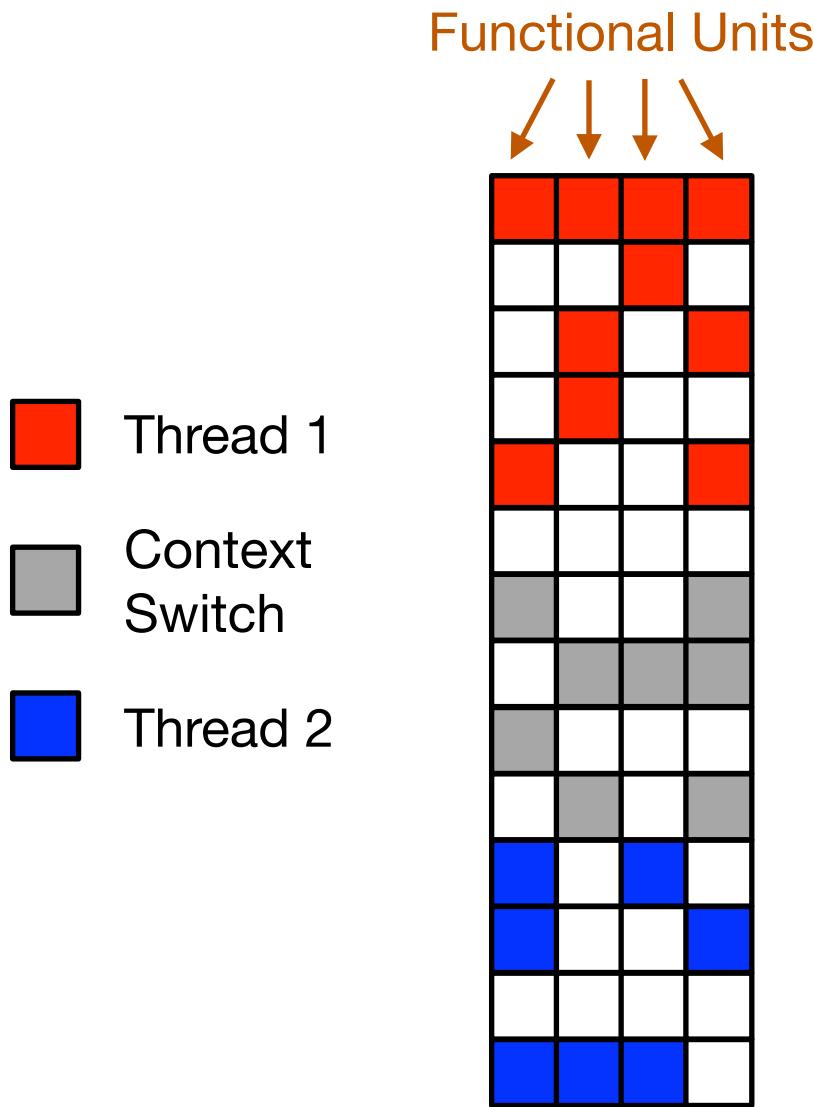
- Typically has multiple function units to allow for decoding and issuing multiple instructions at the same time
- Called “Superscalar”



From Scalar to Multi-Scalar Multi-threading

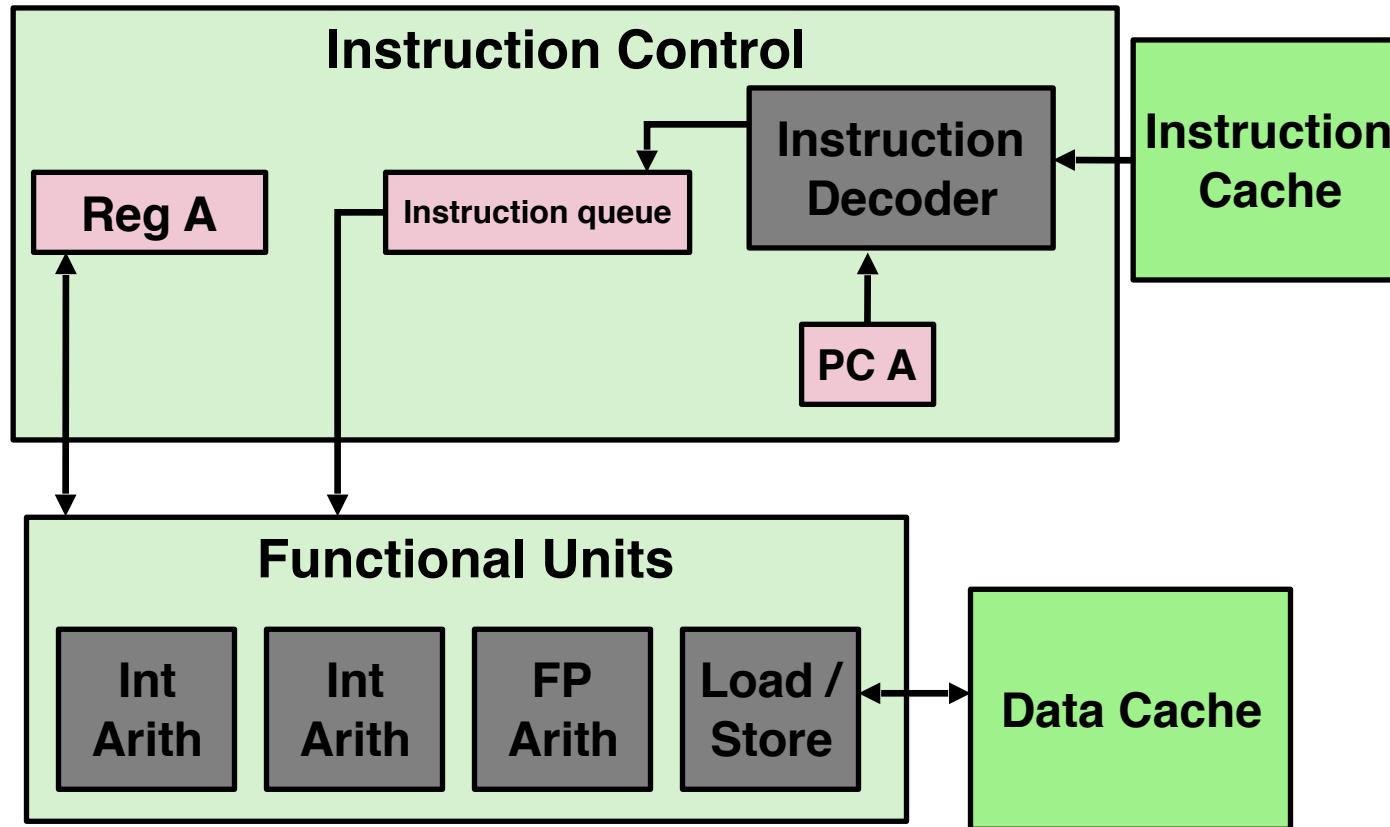


From Scalar to Multi-Scalar Multi-threading



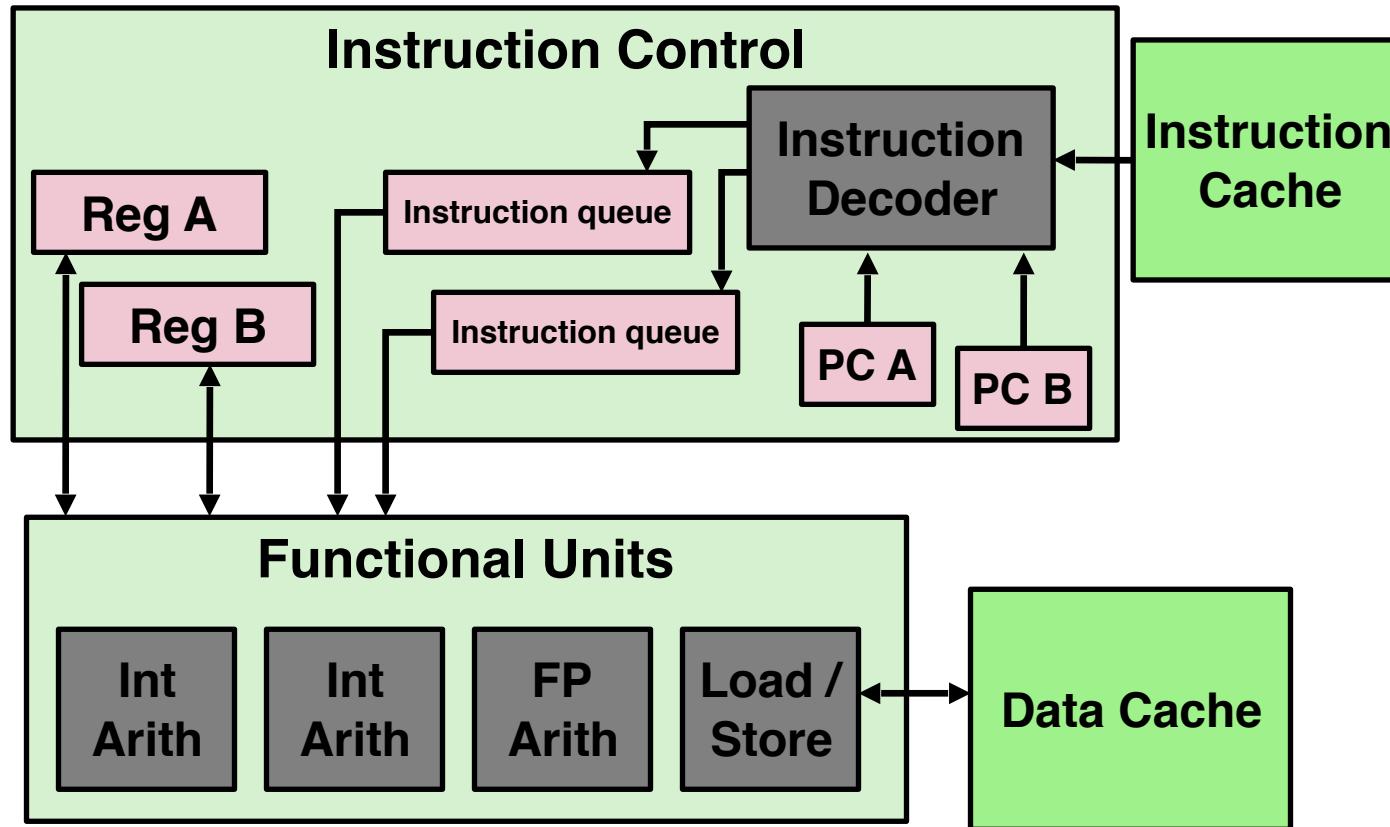
Simultaneous Multi-Threading (SMT)

- Intel call it hyper-threading.
- Replicate enough hardware structures to process K instruction streams, i.e., threads. K copies of all registers. Share functional units.
- SMT = Superscalar + Multi-threading



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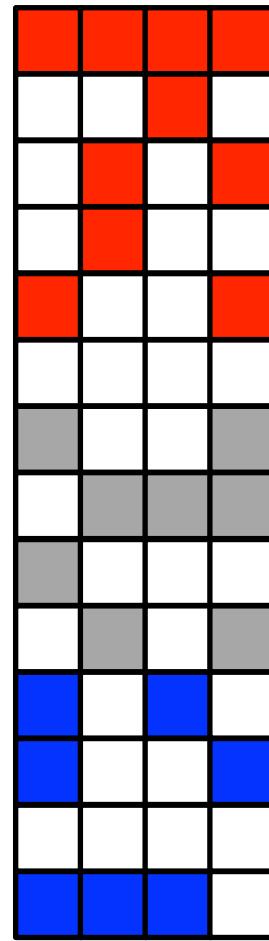
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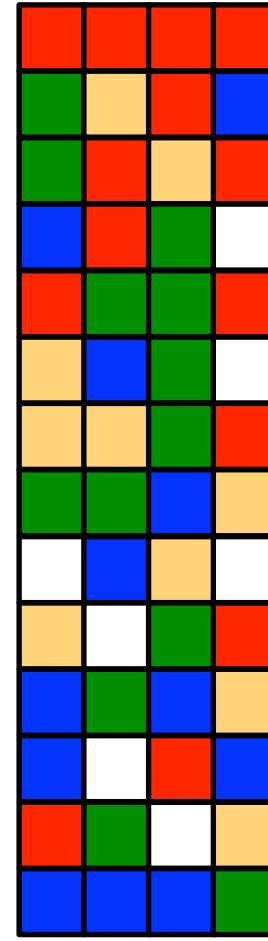
Conventional Multi-threading vs. Hyper-threading

Coarse-grained MT on
a superscalar core

- Thread 1
- Context Switch
- Thread 2
- Thread 3
- Thread 4



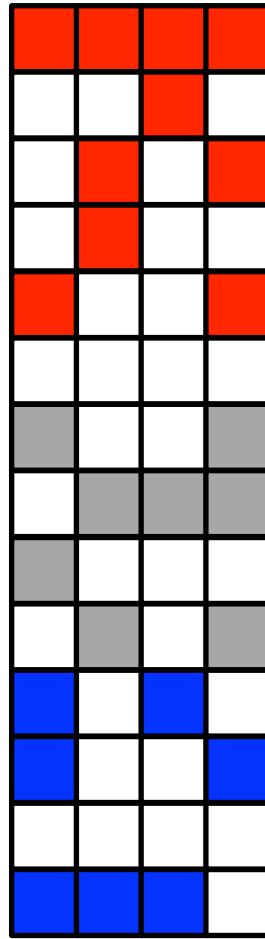
SMT



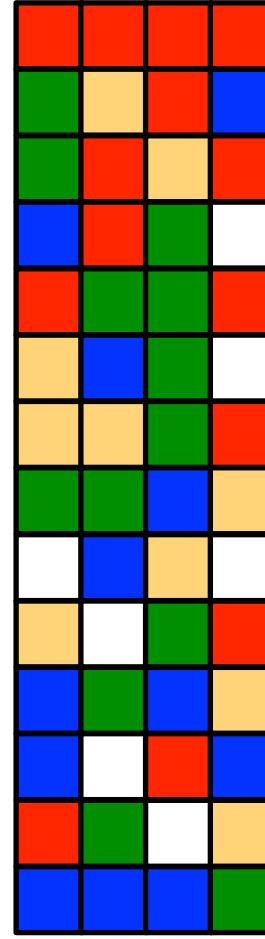
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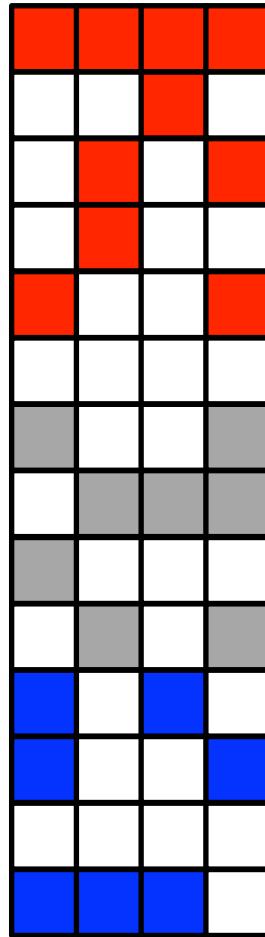


Can now make use
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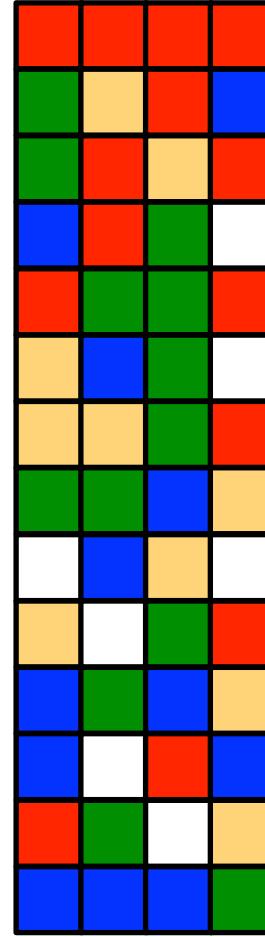
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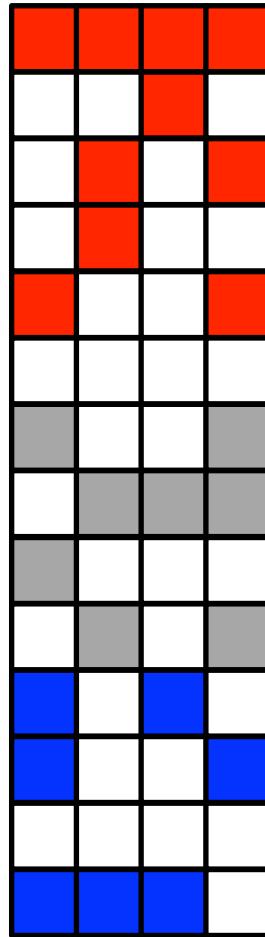
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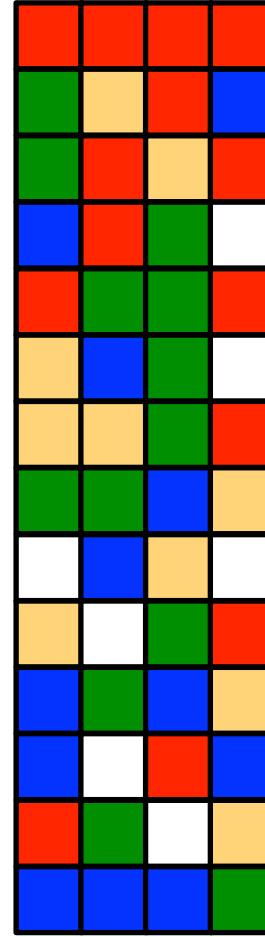
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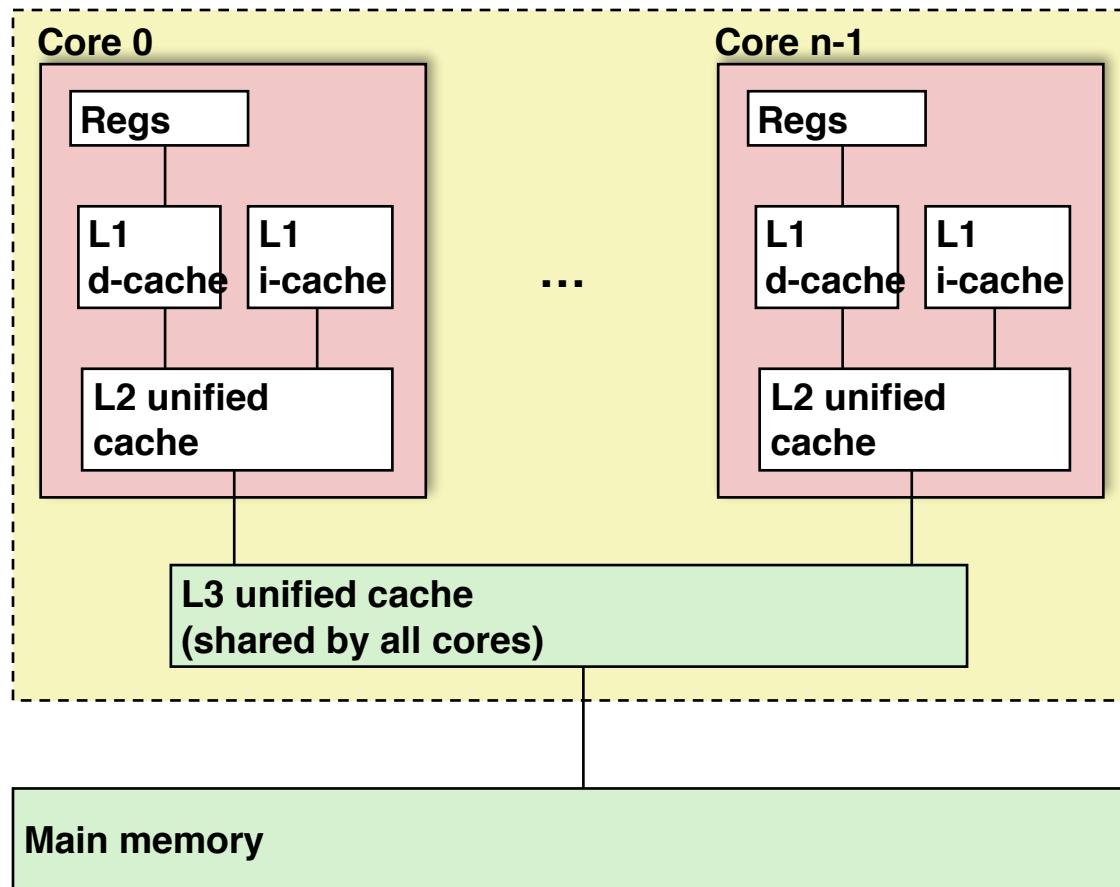
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No/little context
switch overhead

Today

- From process to threads
 - Basic thread execution model
 - Multi-threading programming
 - **Hardware support of threads**
 - Single core
 - Multi-core
 - Cache coherence

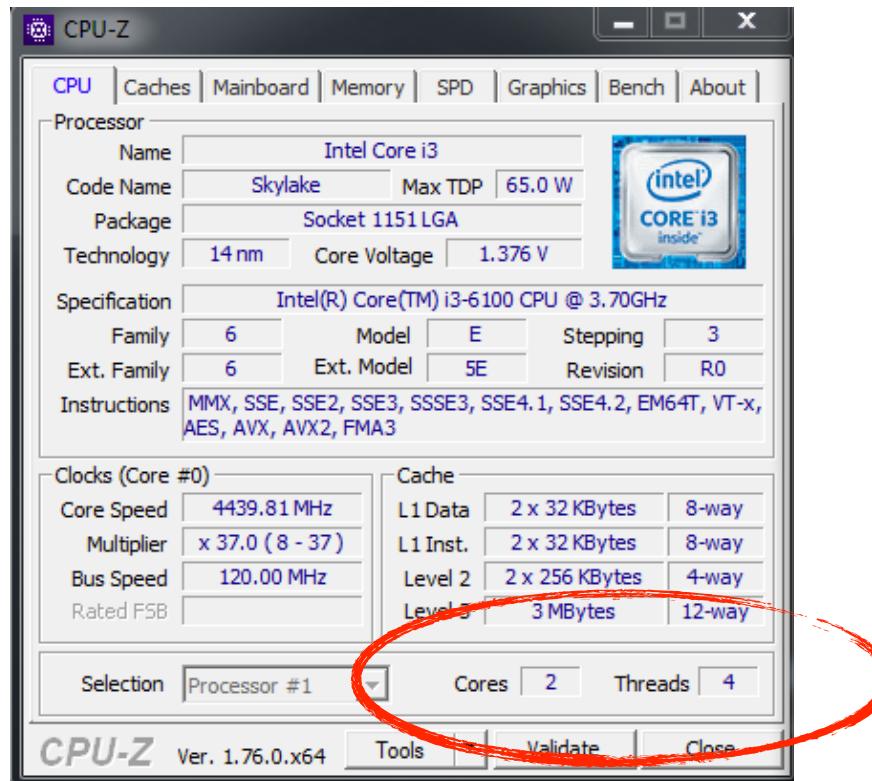
Multi-Threading on a Multi-core Processor



- Each core can run multiple threads, mostly through coarse-grained switching.
- Fine-grained switching on conventional multi-core CPU is too costly.

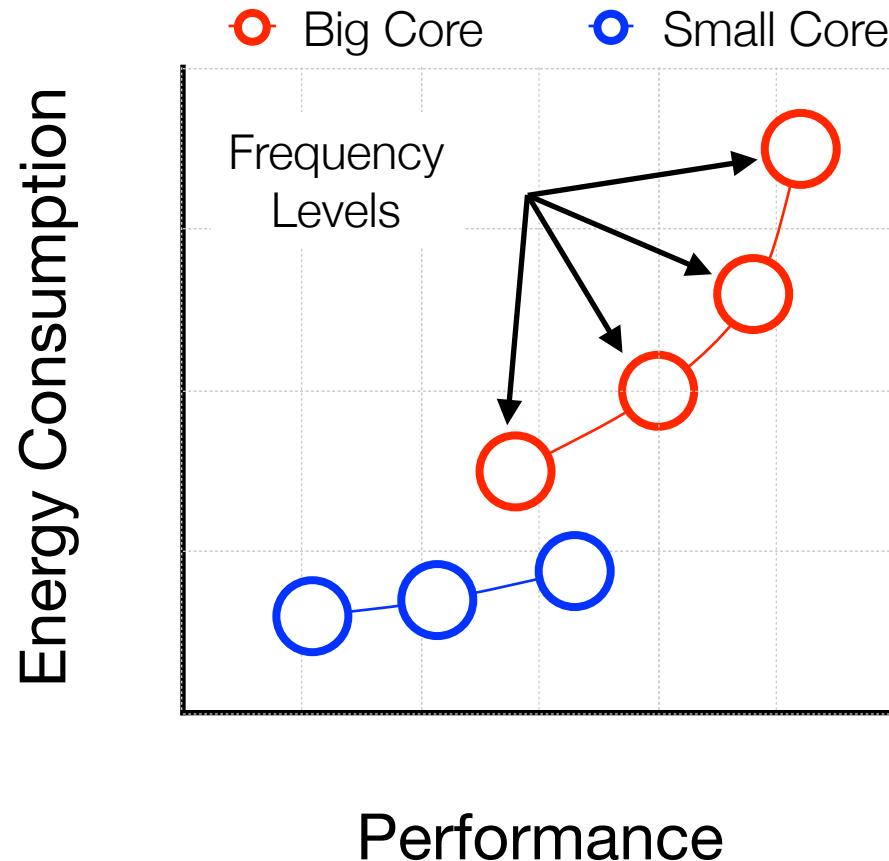
Combine Multi-core with SMT

- Common for laptop/desktop/server machine. E.g., 2 physical cores, each core has 2 hyper-threads => 4 virtual cores.
- Not for mobile processors (Hyper-threading costly to implement)



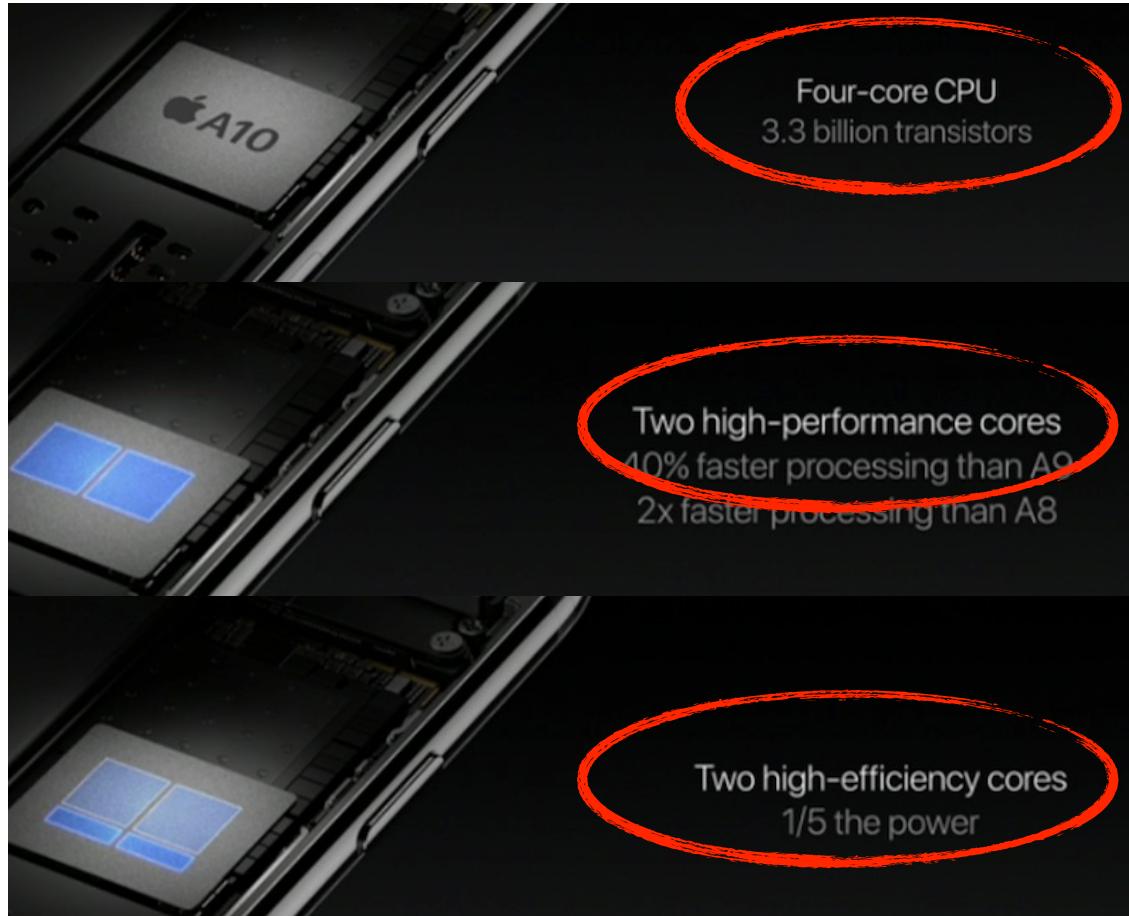
Asymmetric Multiprocessor (AMP)

- Offer a large performance-energy trade-off space



Asymmetric Chip-Multiprocessor (ACMP)

- Already used in commodity devices (e.g., Samsung Galaxy S6, iPhone 7)



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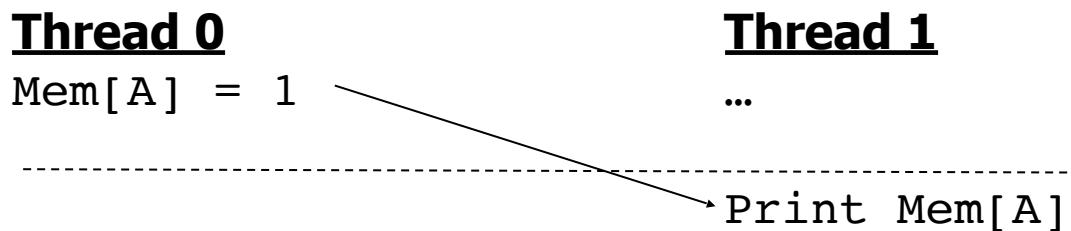
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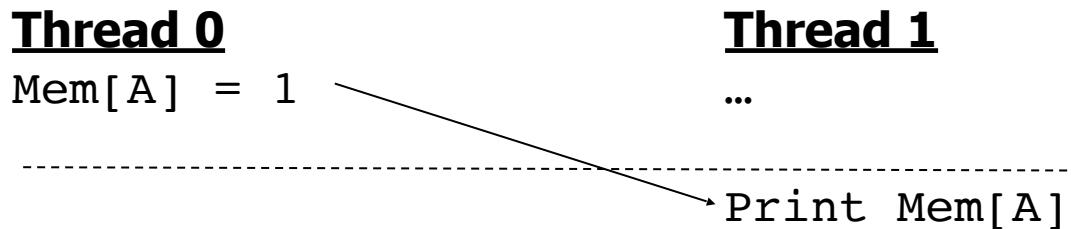
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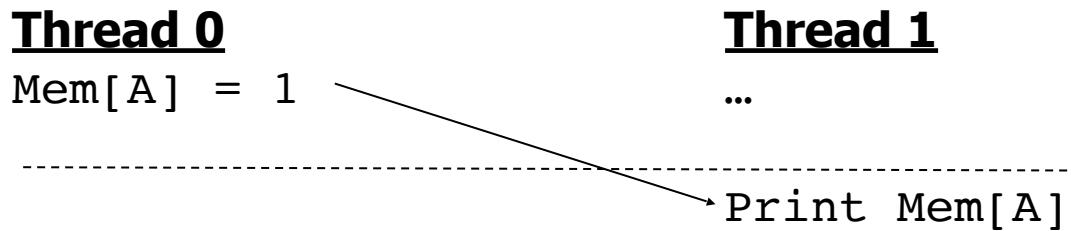
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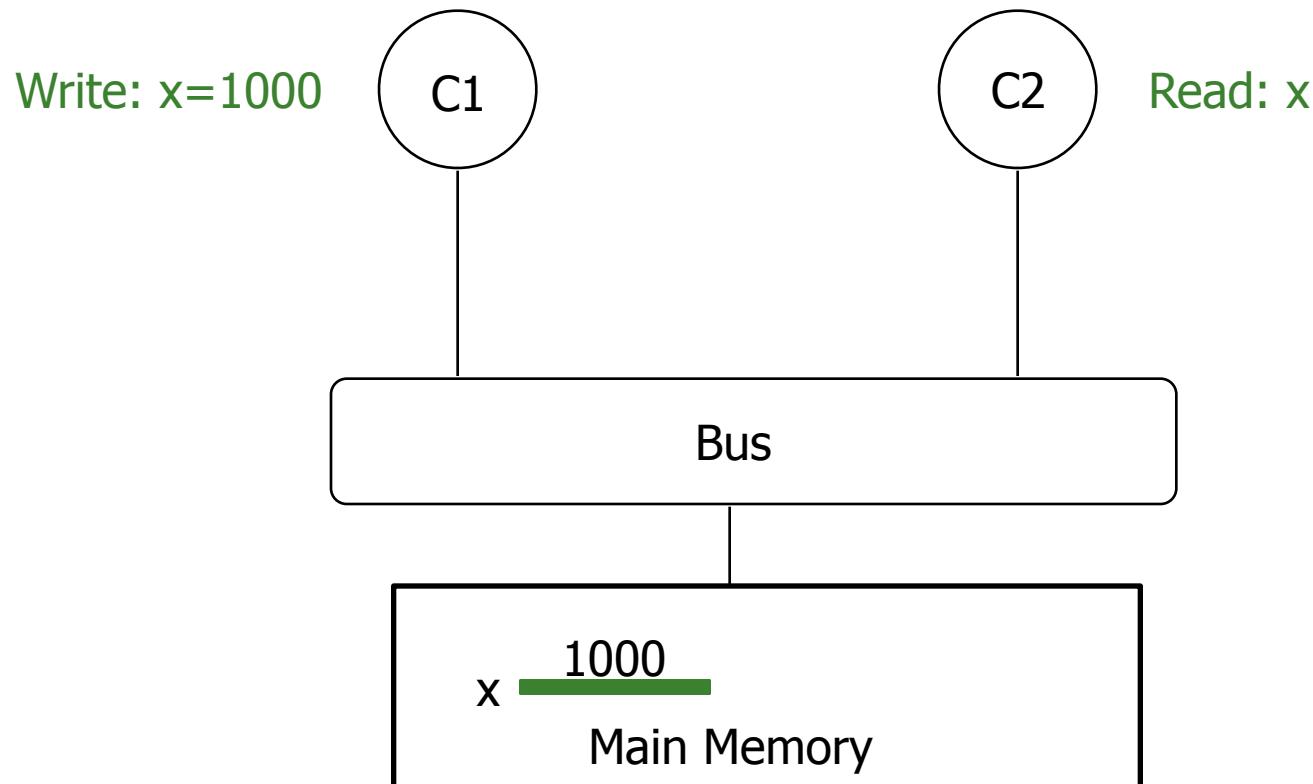
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- Threads share variables: e.g., Thread 0 writes to an address, followed by Thread 1 reading.
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- **Basic question:** If multiple cores access the same data, how do they ensure they all see a consistent state?



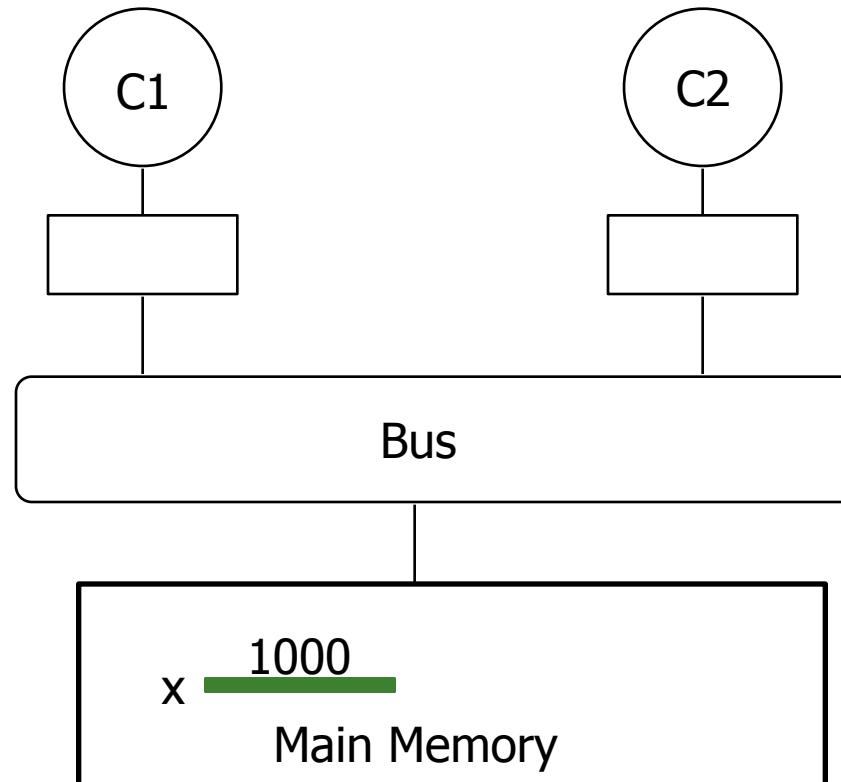
The Issue

- Without cache, the issue is (theoretically) solvable by using mutex.
- ...because there is only one copy of x in the entire system. Accesses to x in memory are serialized by mutex.



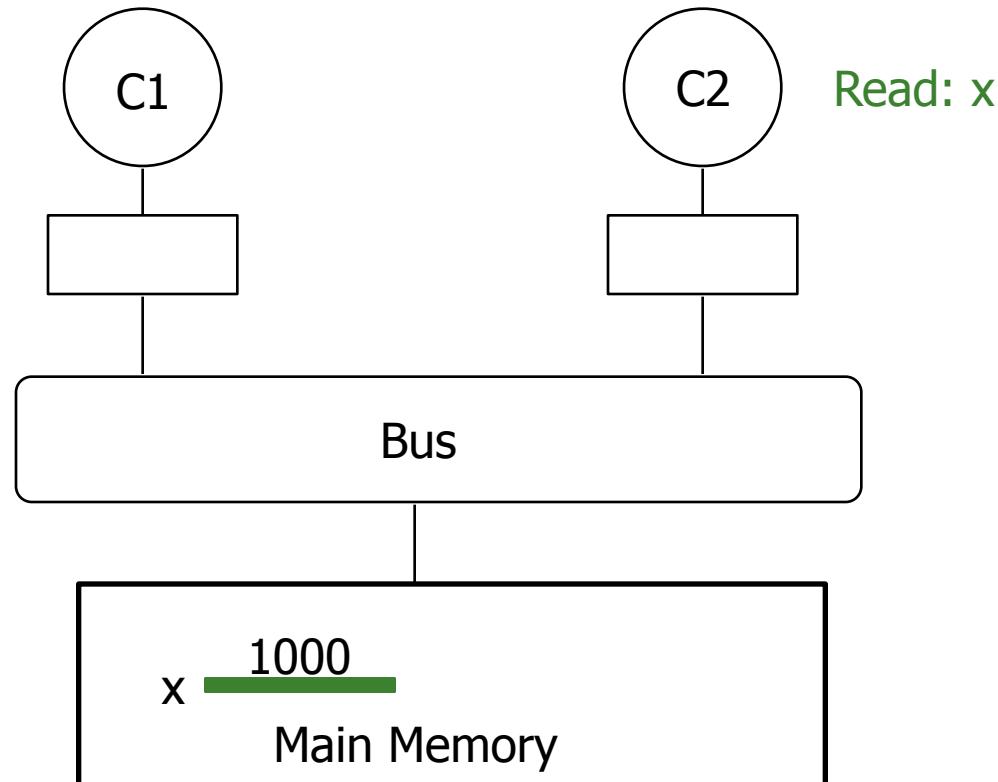
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- What if each core **cache** the same data, how do they ensure they all see a consistent state? (assuming a write-back cache)



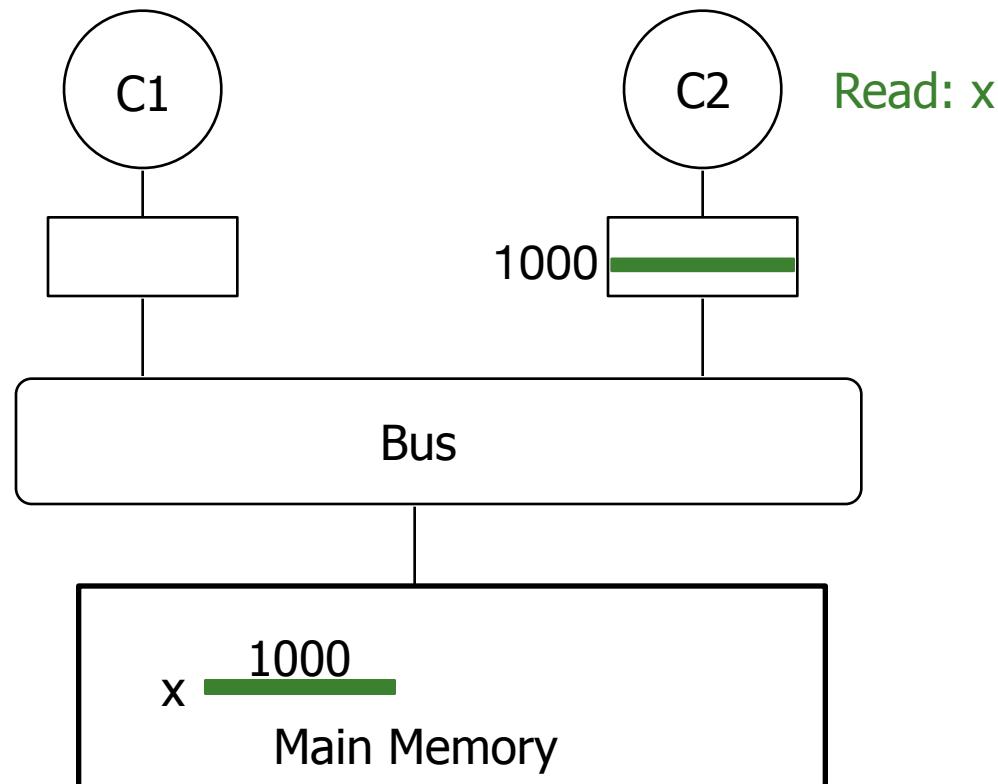
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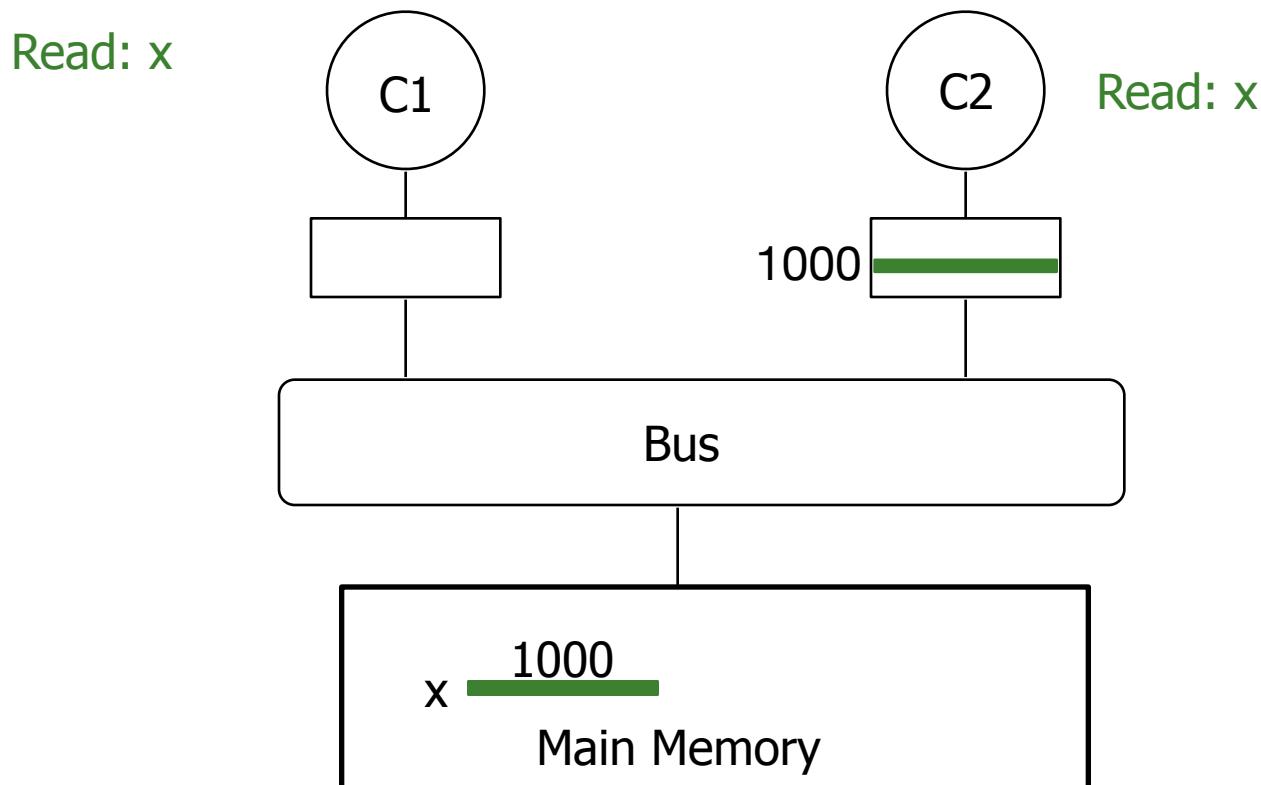
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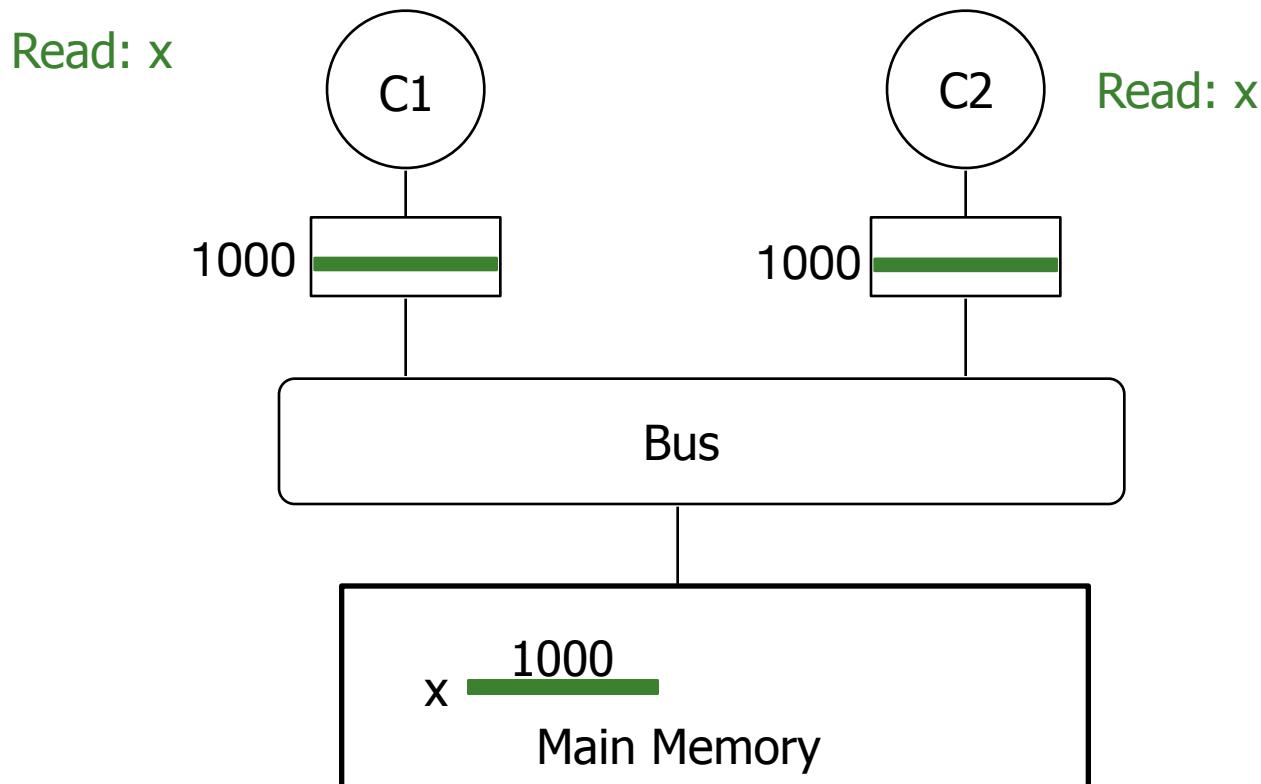
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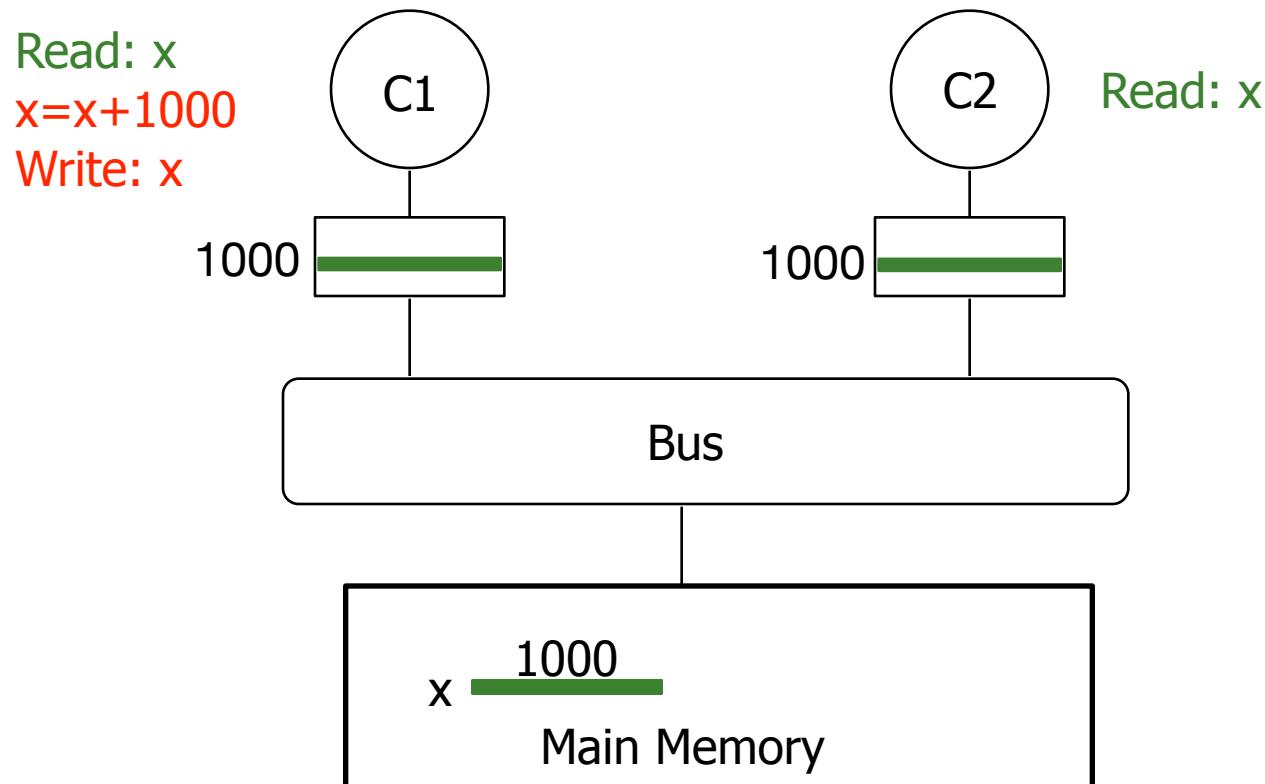
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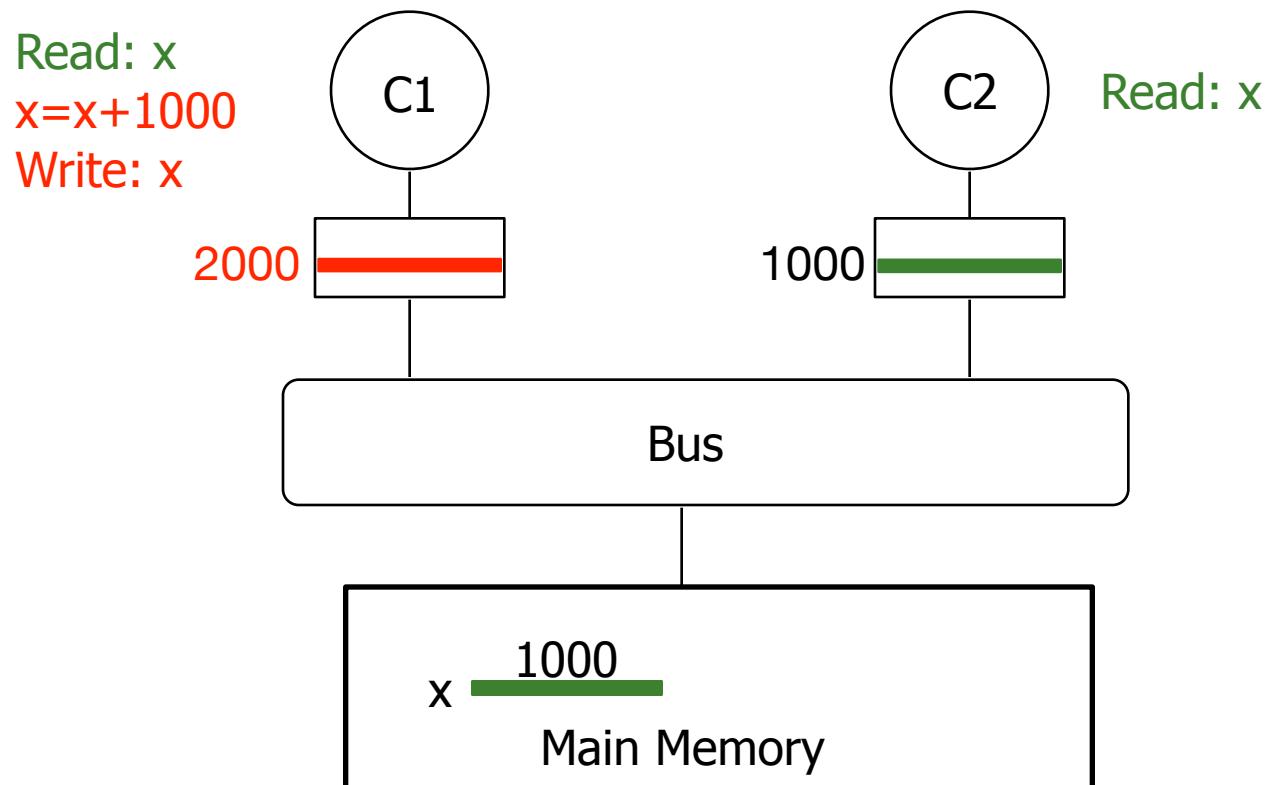
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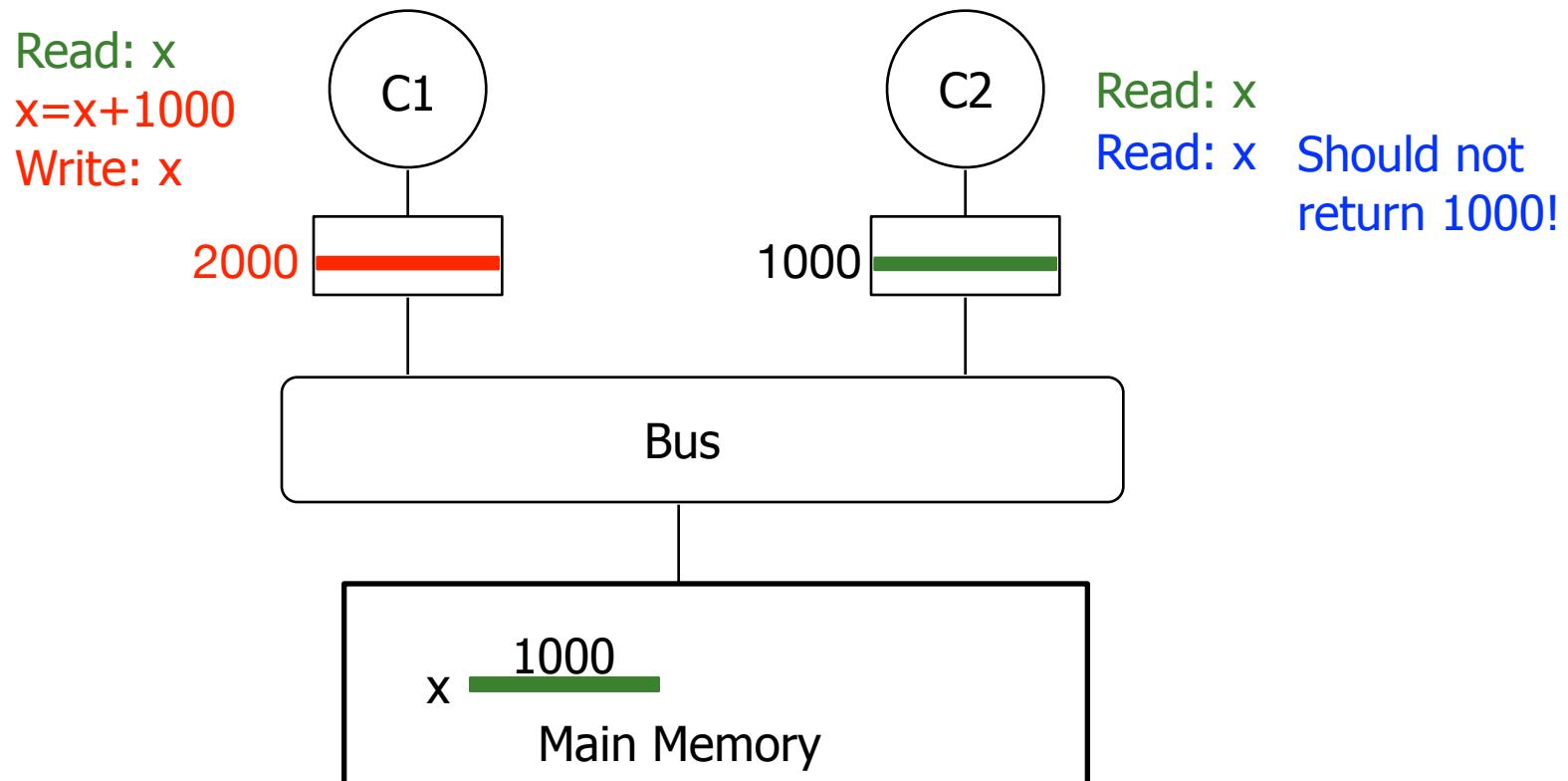
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Cache Coherence: The Idea

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- **How?** Two options:
 - **Update:** push new value to all copies (in other caches)
 - **Invalidate:** invalidate other copies (in other caches)

Readings: Cache Coherence

- Most helpful
 - Culler and Singh, Parallel Computer Architecture
 - Chapter 5.1 (pp 269 – 283), Chapter 5.3 (pp 291 – 305)
 - Patterson&Hennessy, Computer Organization and Design
 - Chapter 5.8 (pp 534 – 538 in 4th and 4th revised eds.)
 - Papamarcos and Patel, “A low-overhead coherence solution for multiprocessors with private cache memories,” ISCA 1984.
- Also very useful
 - Censier and Feautrier, “A new solution to coherence problems in multicache systems,” IEEE Trans. Computers, 1978.
 - Goodman, “Using cache memory to reduce processor-memory traffic,” ISCA 1983.
 - Laudon and Lenoski, “The SGI Origin: a ccNUMA highly scalable server,” ISCA 1997.
 - Martin et al, “Token coherence: decoupling performance and correctness,” ISCA 2003.
 - Baer and Wang, “On the inclusion properties for multi-level cache hierarchies,” ISCA 1988.

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 - FLUSH-CACHE X: Flushes/invalidates all blocks in cache X.

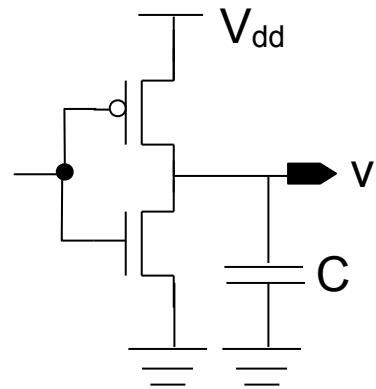
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 - FLUSH-CACHE X: Flushes/invalidates all blocks in cache X.
- Classic example: TLB
 - Hardware does not guarantee that TLBs of different core are coherent
 - ISA provides instructions for OS to flush PTEs
 - Called "TLB shootdown"

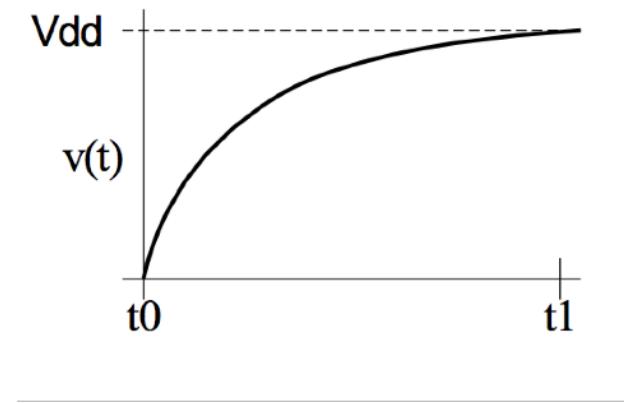
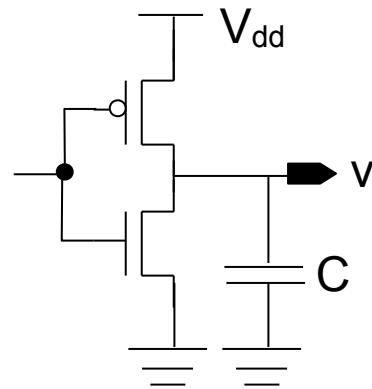
Today

- Power consumption and dark silicon
- GPU
- Accelerators

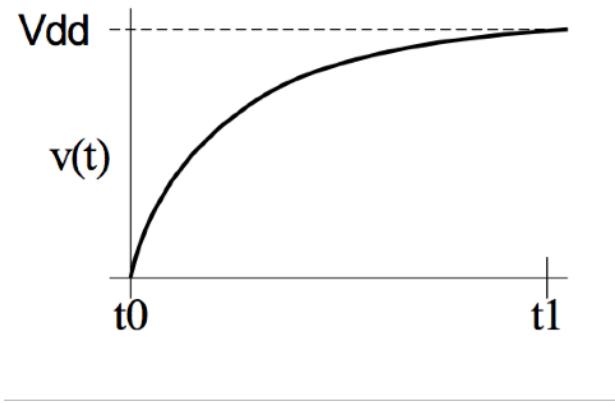
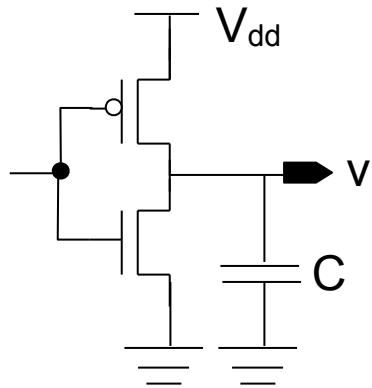
Dynamic Power



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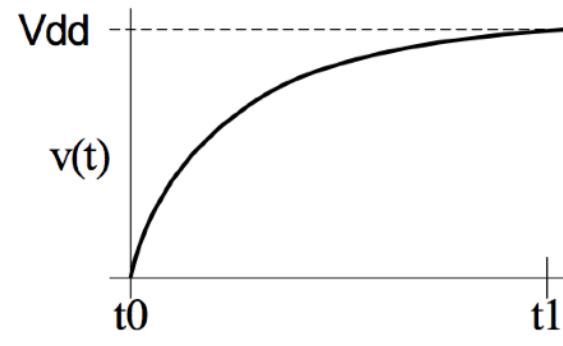
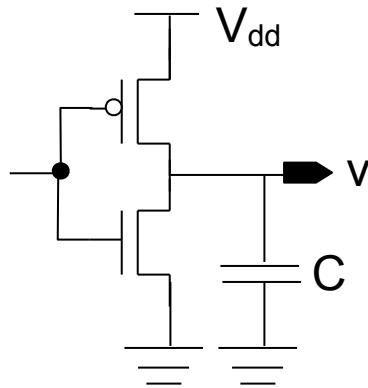


Dynamic Power



$$\begin{aligned} E_{sw} &= \int_{t_0}^{t_1} P(t) dt = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} (V_{dd} - v) \cdot i(t) dt = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} (V_{dd} - v) \cdot c (dv/dt) dt = \\ &= c V_{dd} \int_{t_0}^{t_1} dv - c \int_{t_0}^{t_1} v \cdot dv = c V_{dd}^2 - \frac{1}{2} c V_{dd}^2 = \boxed{\frac{1}{2} c V_{dd}^2} \end{aligned}$$

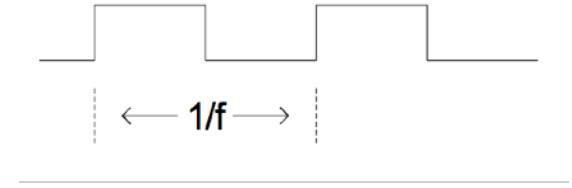
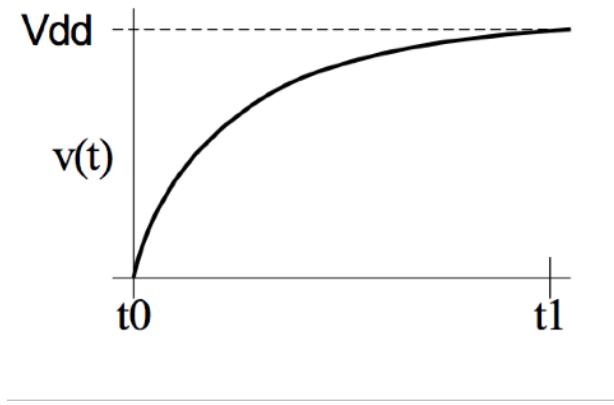
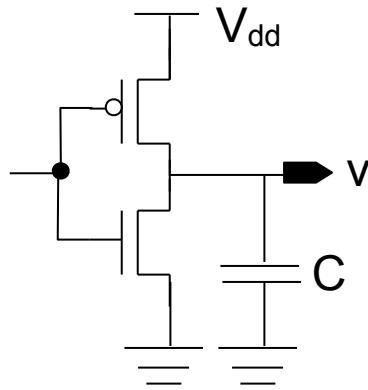
Dynamic Power



Energy dissipated for every transition ($0 \rightarrow 1$ or $1 \rightarrow 0$)

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Dynamic Power



Average dynamic power of a transistor:

$$P = \alpha \cdot (E / T) = \alpha \cdot E f = \frac{1}{2} \alpha C V_{dd}^2 f$$

α : switch activity factor. No switching, no dynamic power consumption

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 - 15% reduction in voltage requires about 15% slow down in frequency
 - What’s the impact on dynamic power? $0.85^3 \approx 60\%$ -> 40% dynamic power reduction.

Dynamic Power Favors Parallelisms

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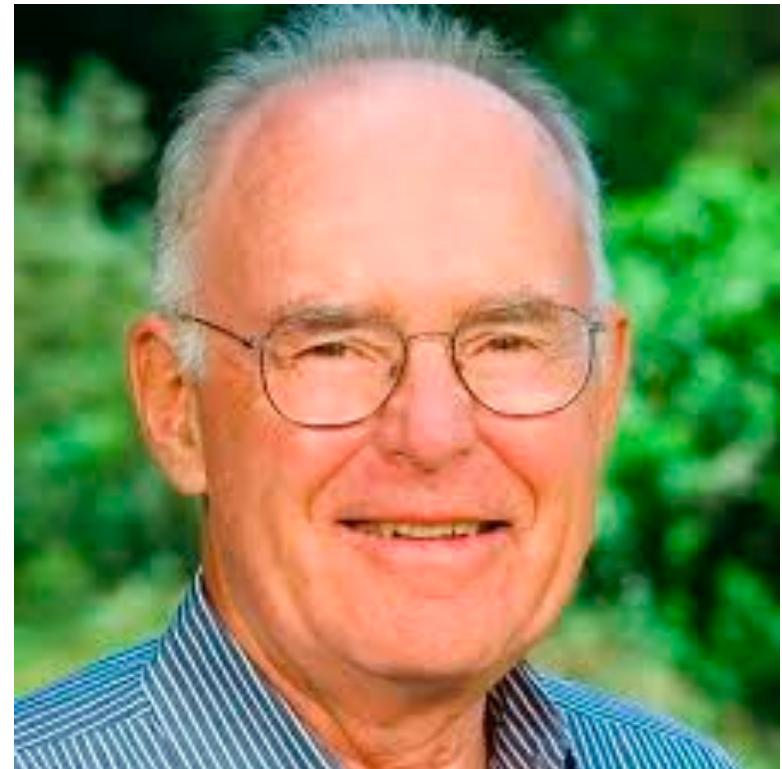
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 - Dynamic power becomes $4 \times (1/4)^3 = 1/16$

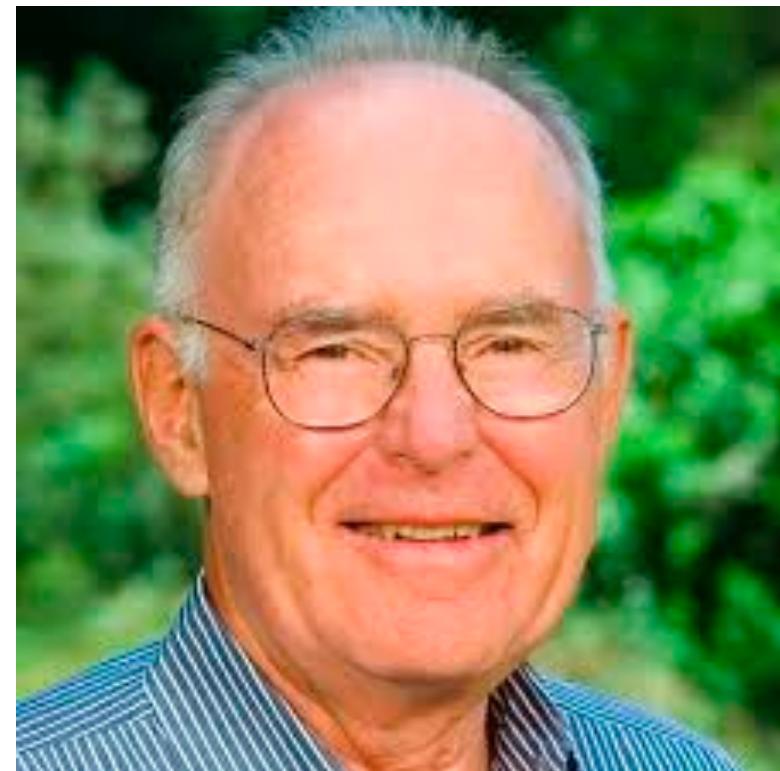
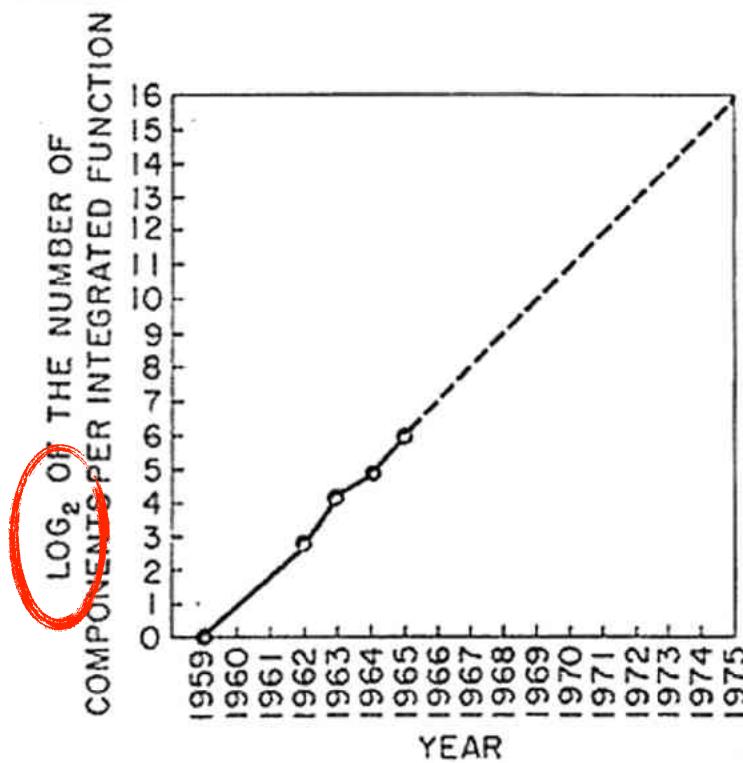
Moore's Law

- Gordon Moore in 1965 predicted that the number of transistors doubles every year



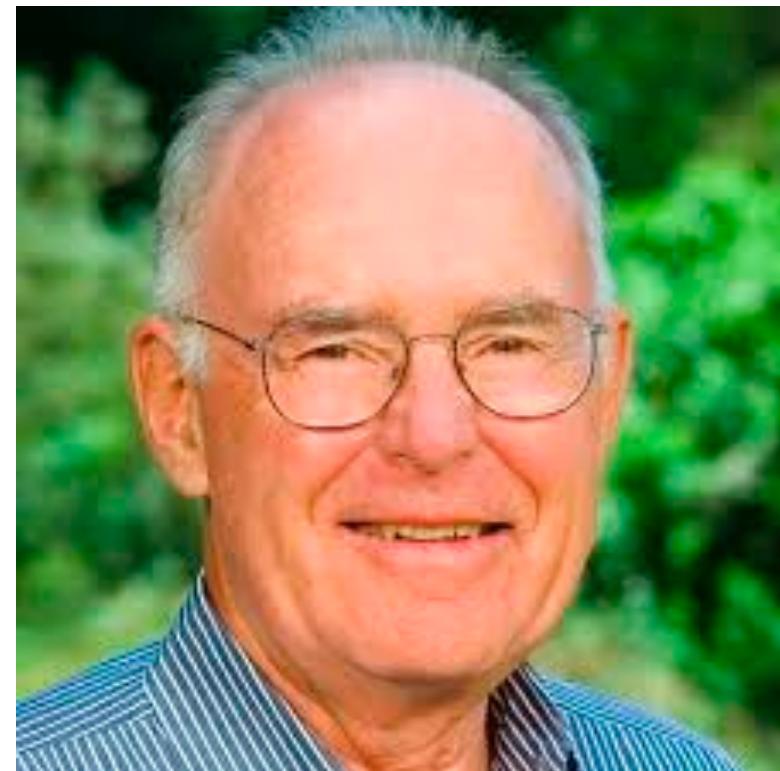
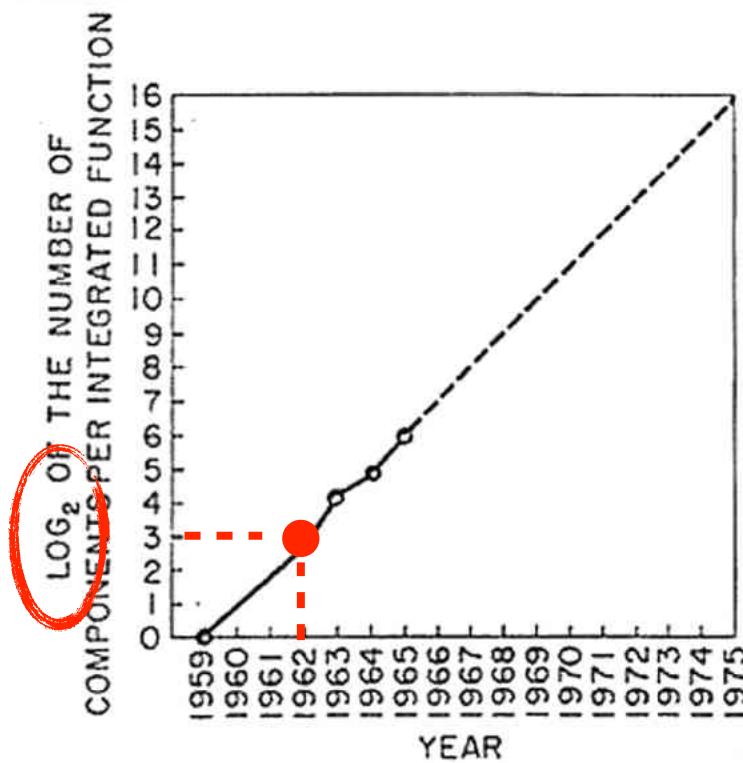
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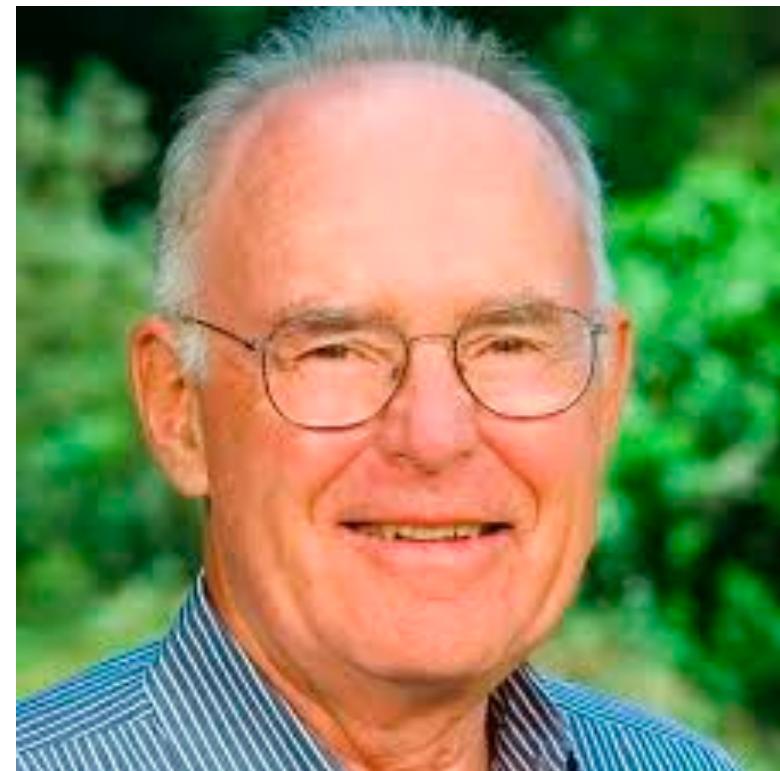
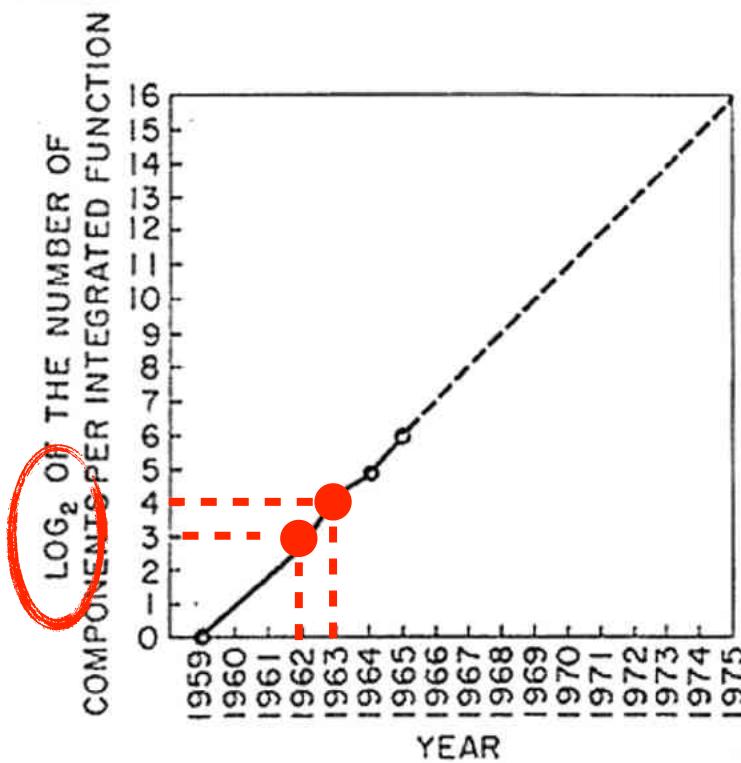
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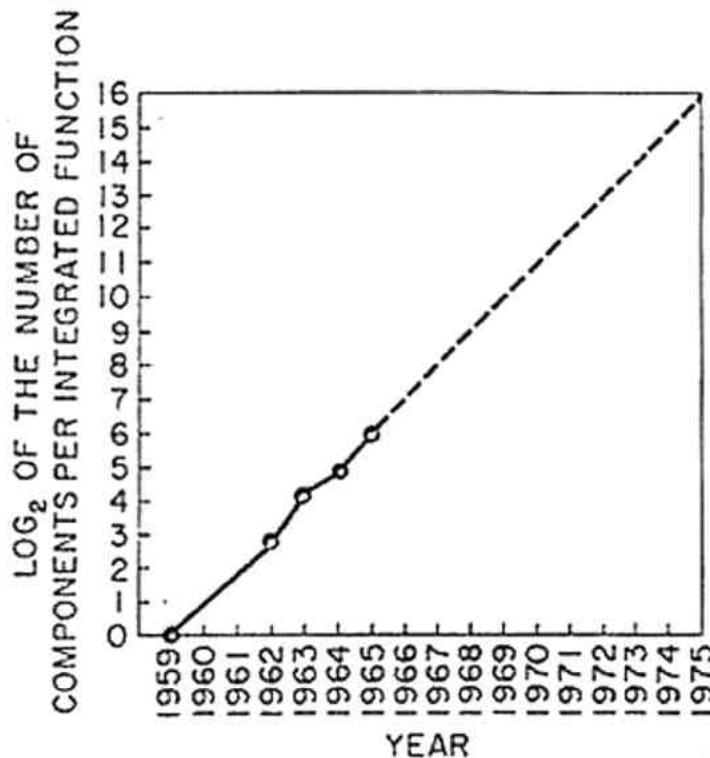
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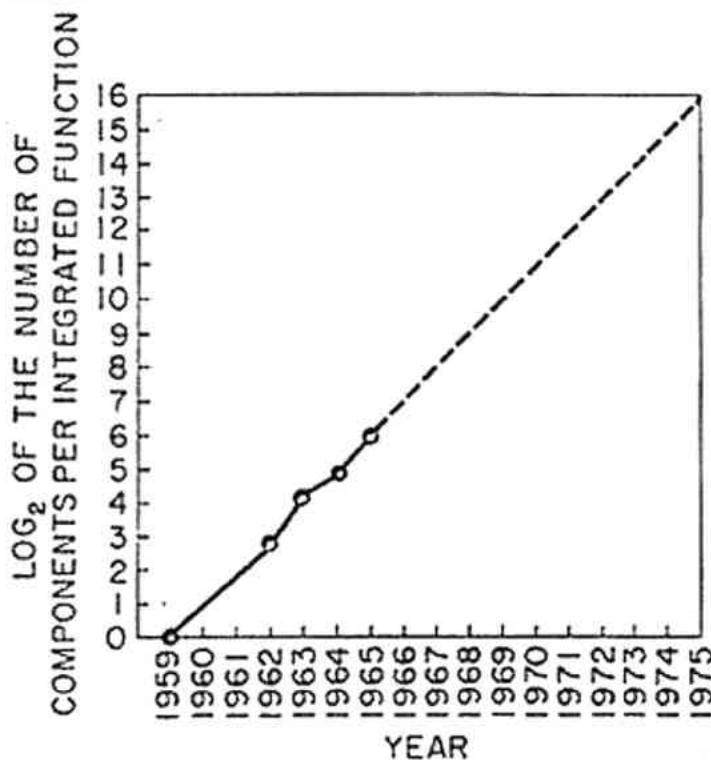
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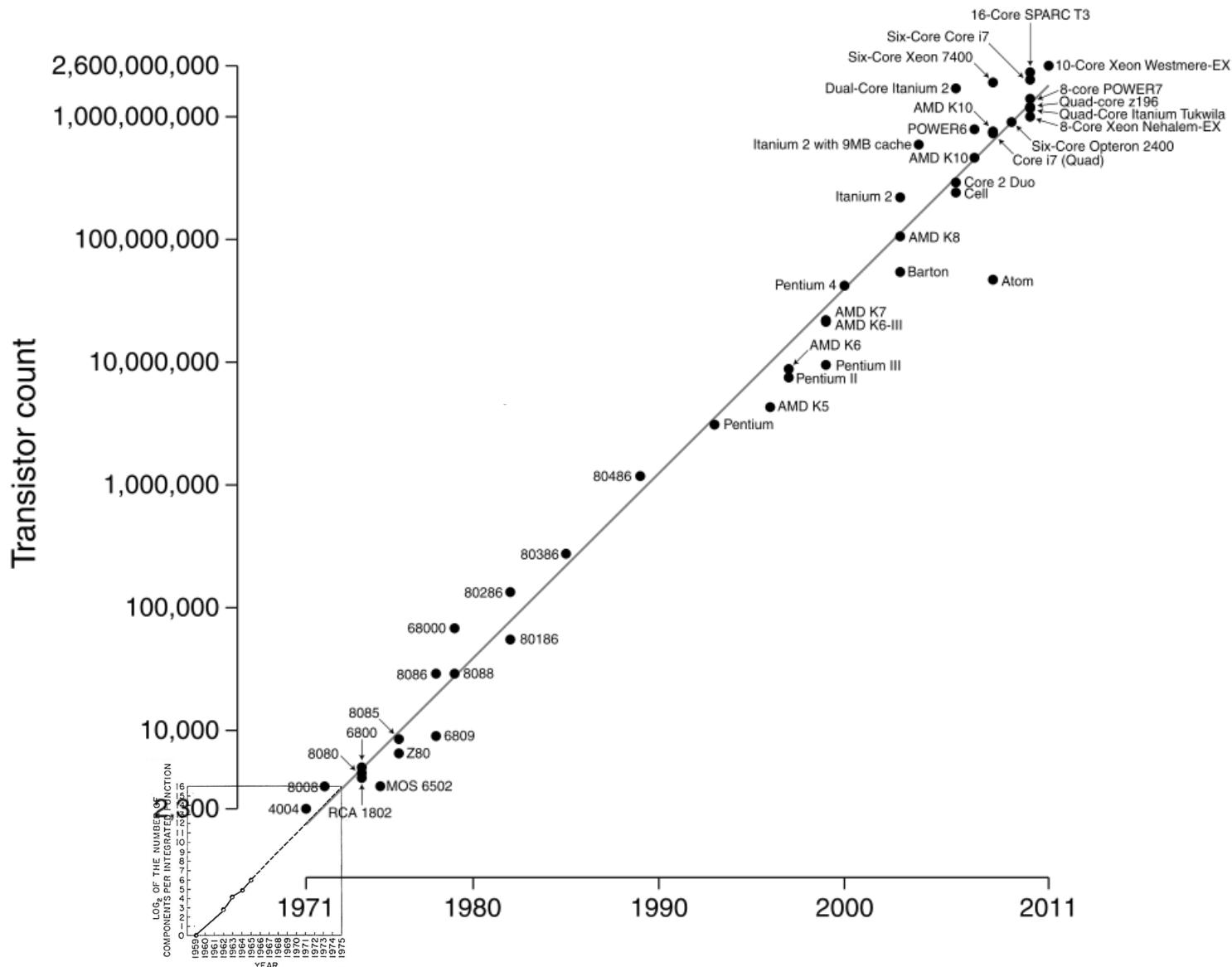


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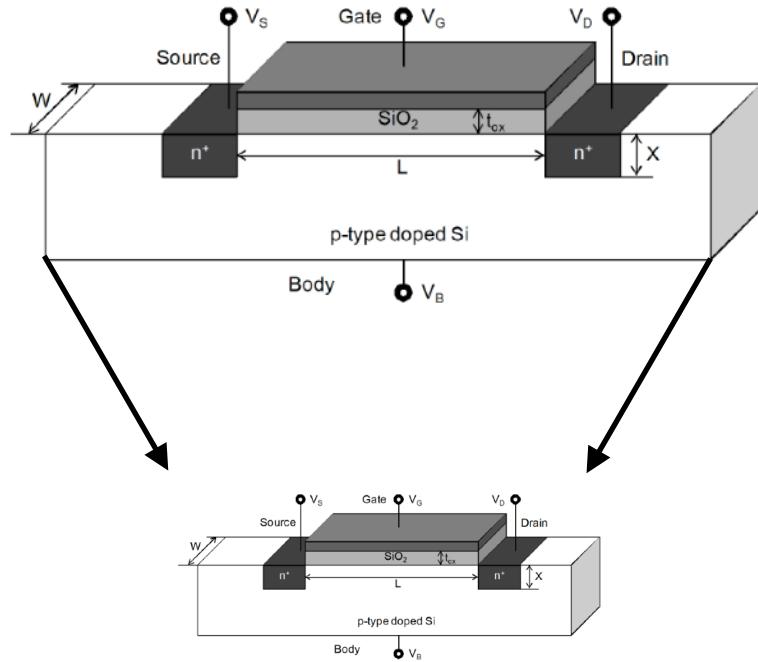
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- Today's widely-known Moore's Law: number of transistors double about every 18 months (Moore never used the number 18...)



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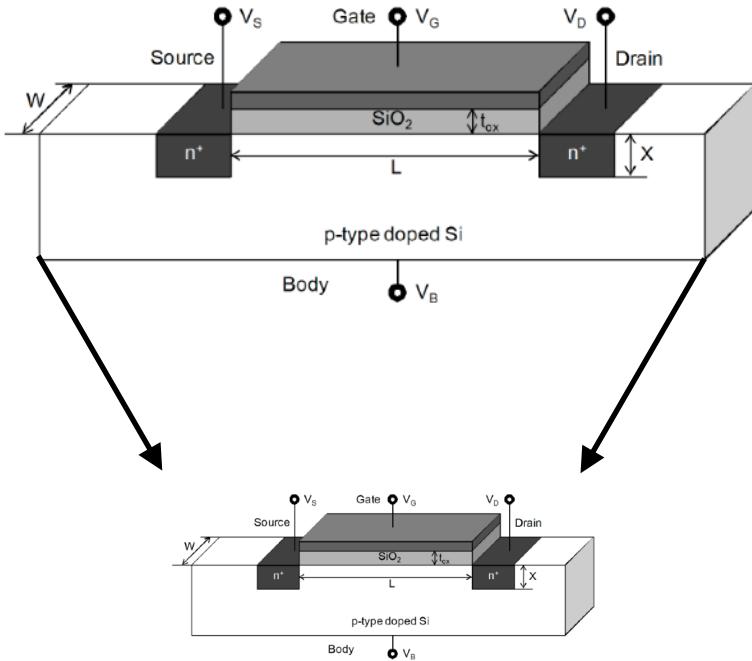
Dennard Scaling



Scale factor $\alpha < 1$

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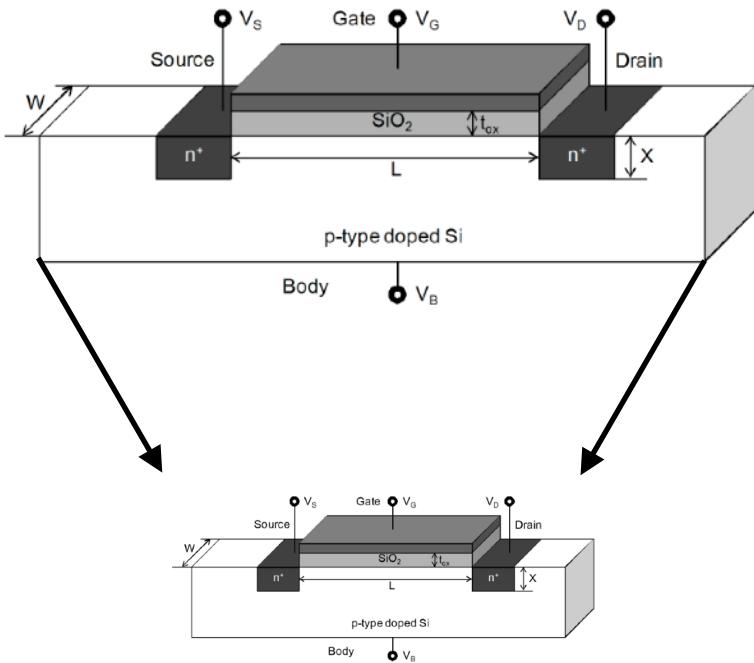


Parameter	Value	Scaled Value
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Dimensions	L, W, T_{ox}	$\alpha L, \alpha W, \alpha T_{\text{ox}}$
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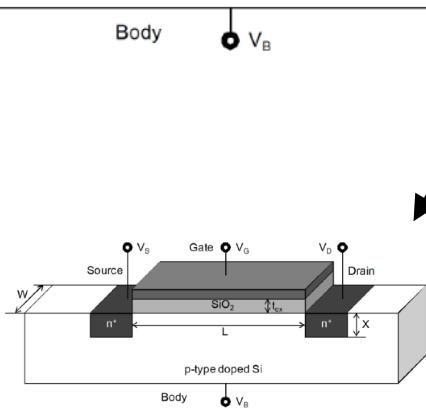
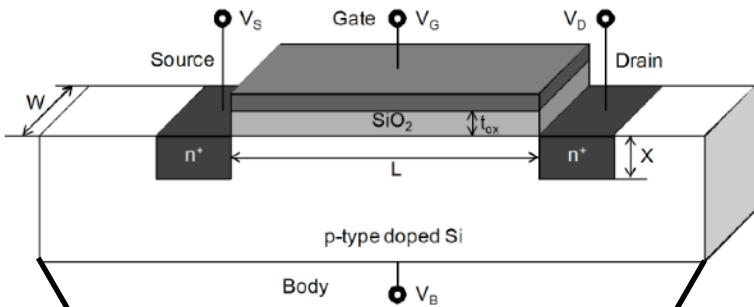


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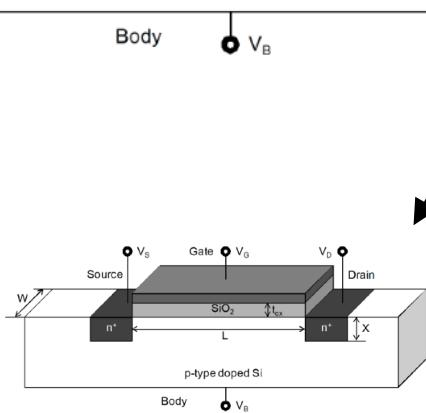
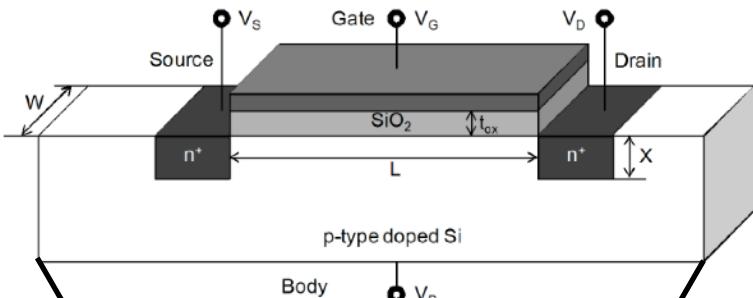


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Power (CV^2f)	P	$\alpha^2 P$
Power/area (Power density)	P_d	P_d

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Implications of Dennard Scaling and Moore's Law

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Moore's law gave us more transistors;
Dennard scaling made them useful.

Bob Colwell, DAC 2013, June 4, 2013

2005: End of Dennard Scaling

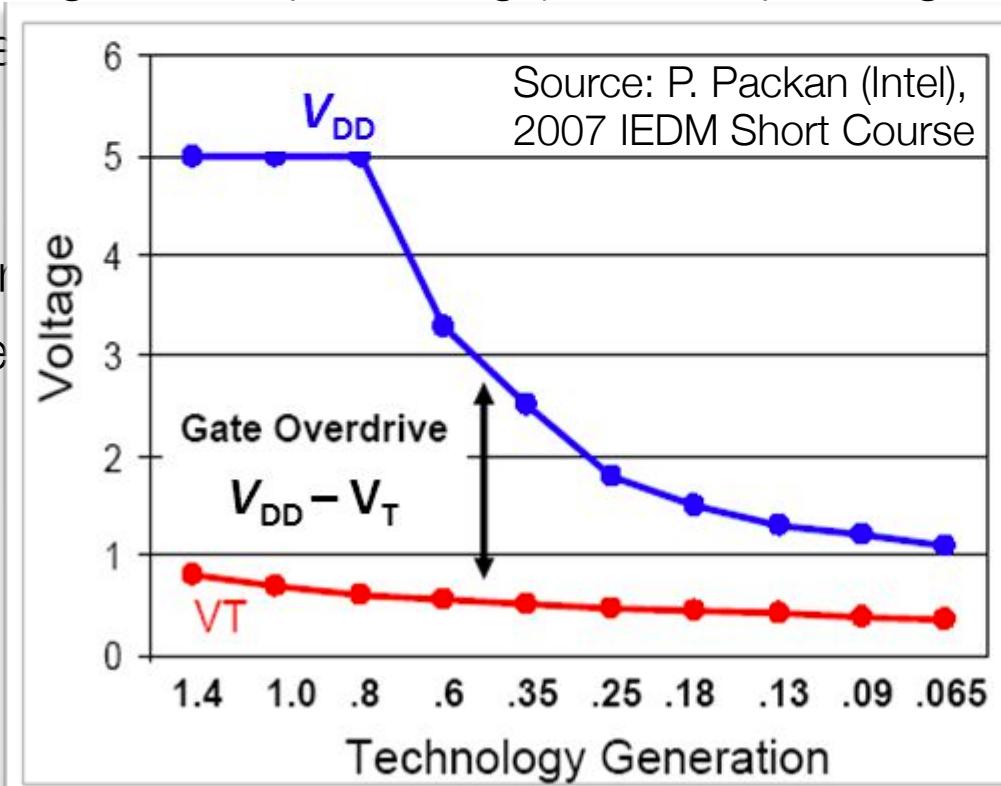
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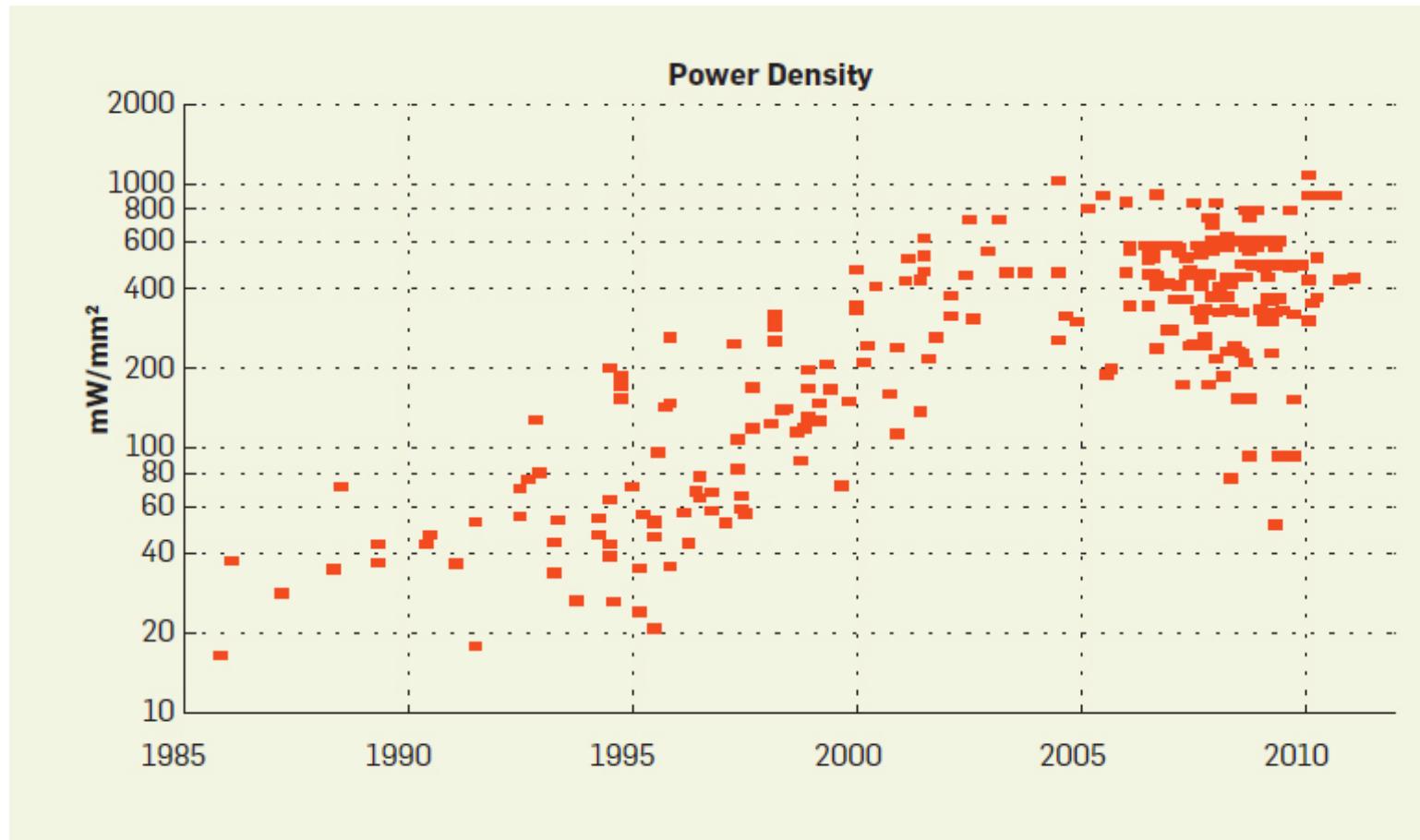


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variation
g

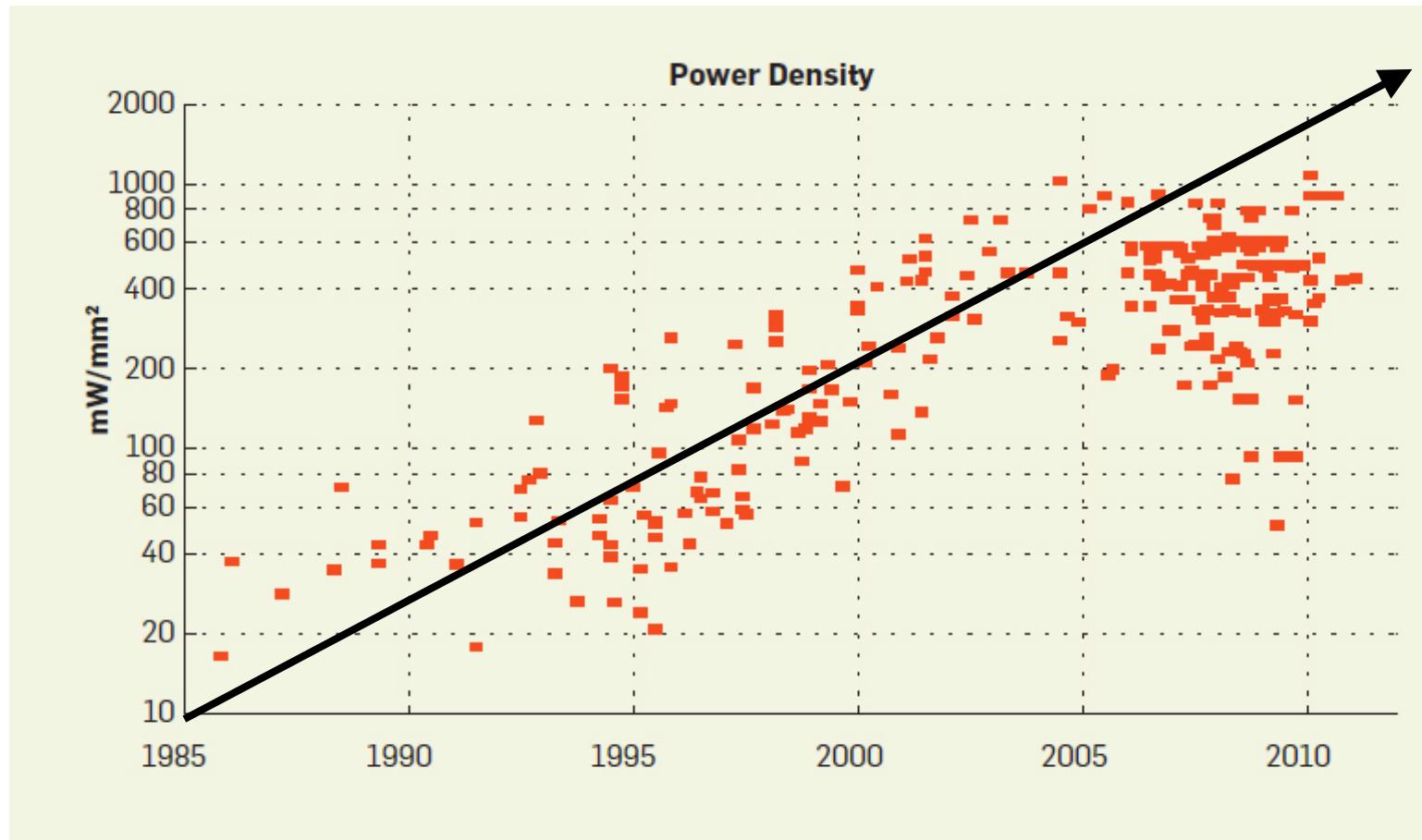
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- The demise of Dennard Scaling means the power density (power consumption per unit area) will increase rather than staying stable.

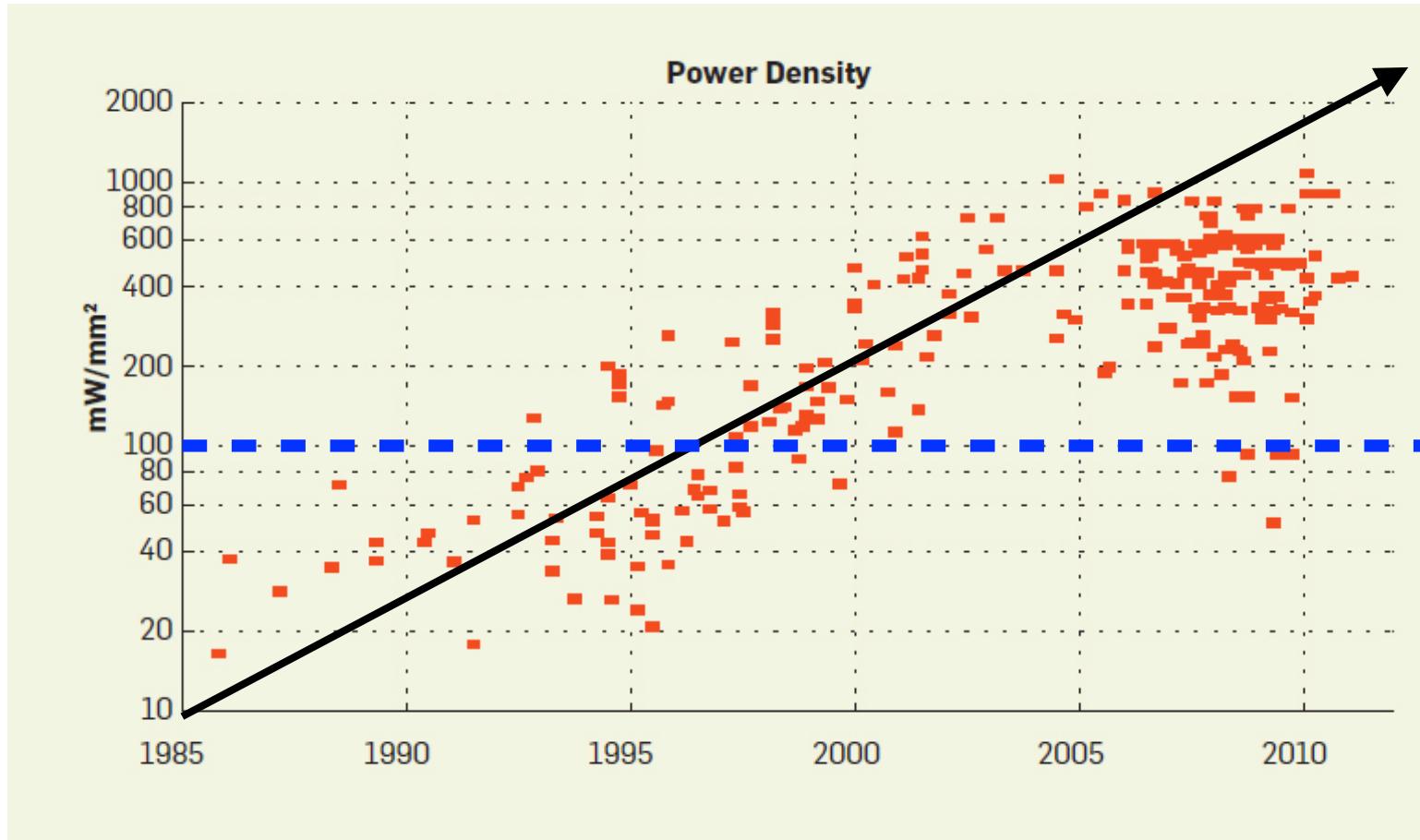
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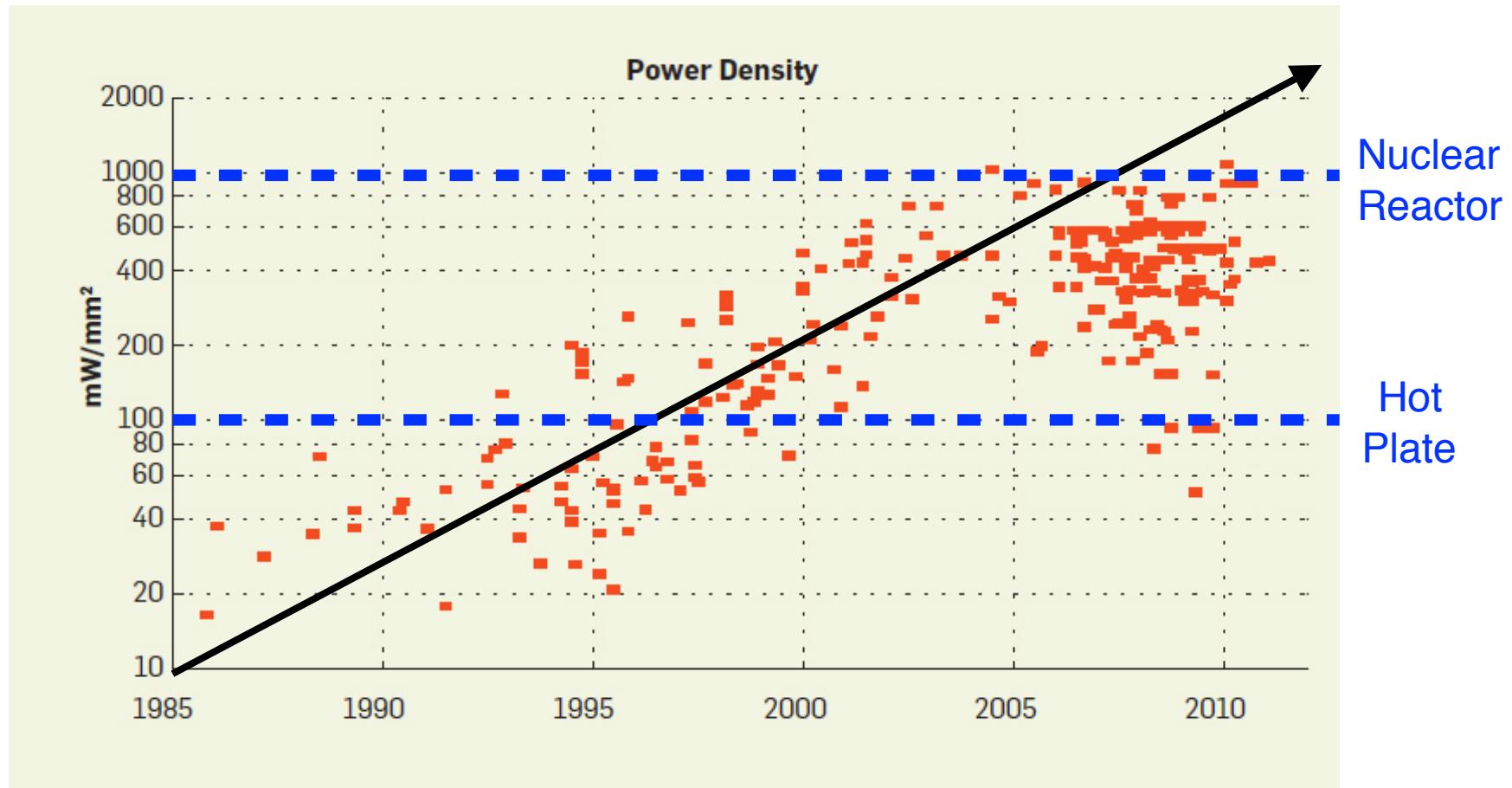
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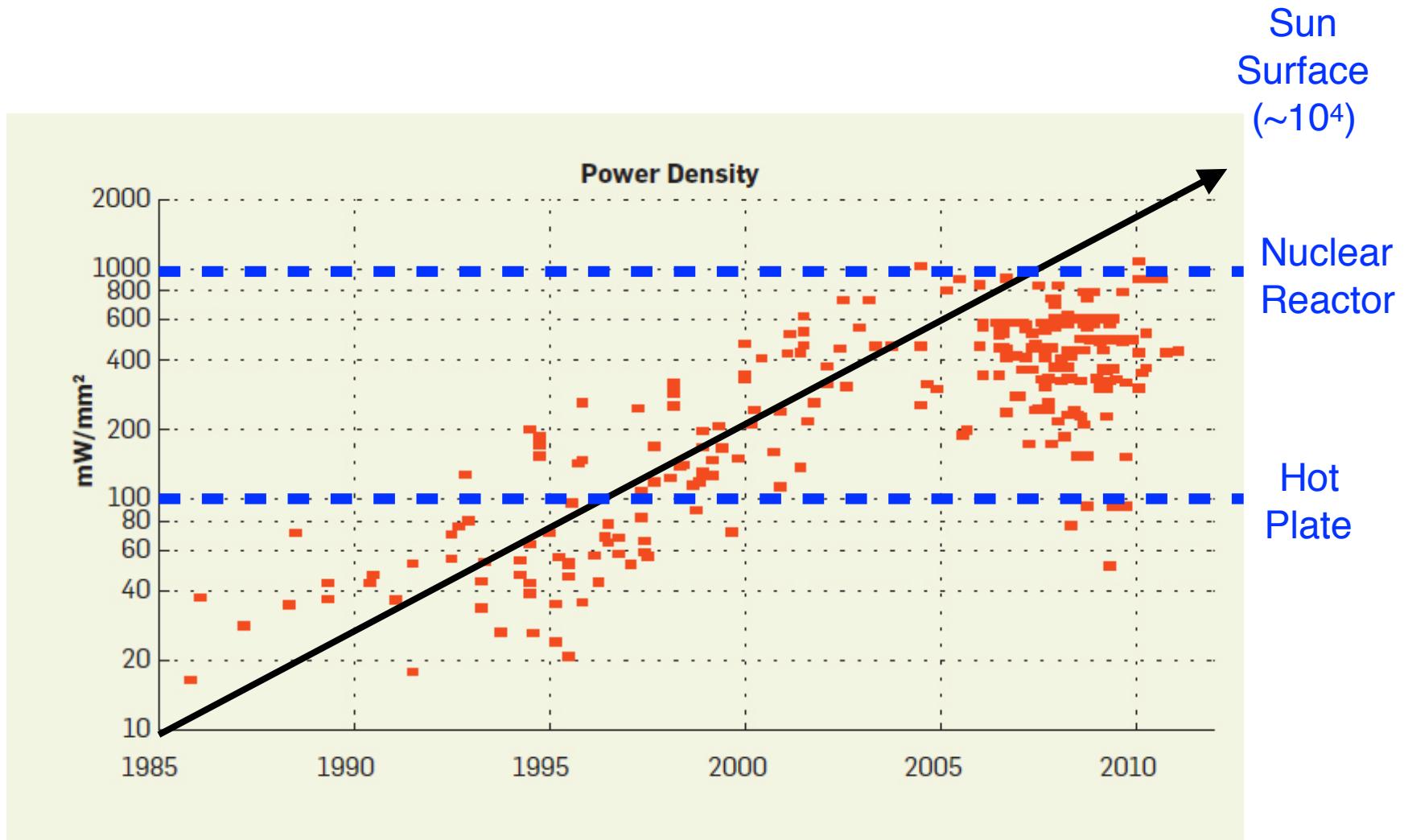
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2005: End of Dennard Scaling



Dark Silicon

n. [därk, sǐl'i-kən, -kön']

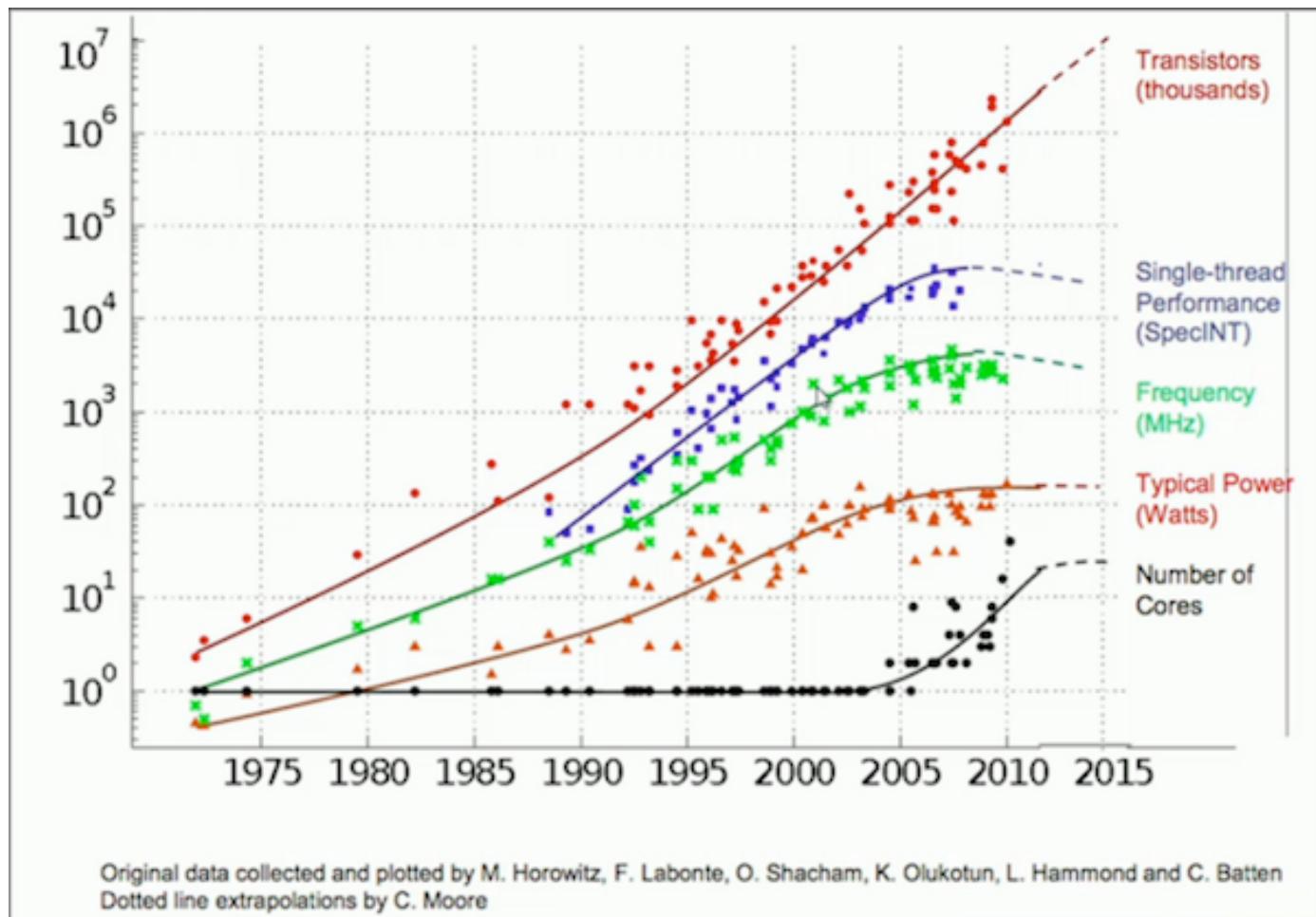
More transistors on chip (due to Moore's Law), but a growing fraction cannot actually be used due to power limits (due to the end of Dennard Scaling).

2005: End of Dennard Scaling

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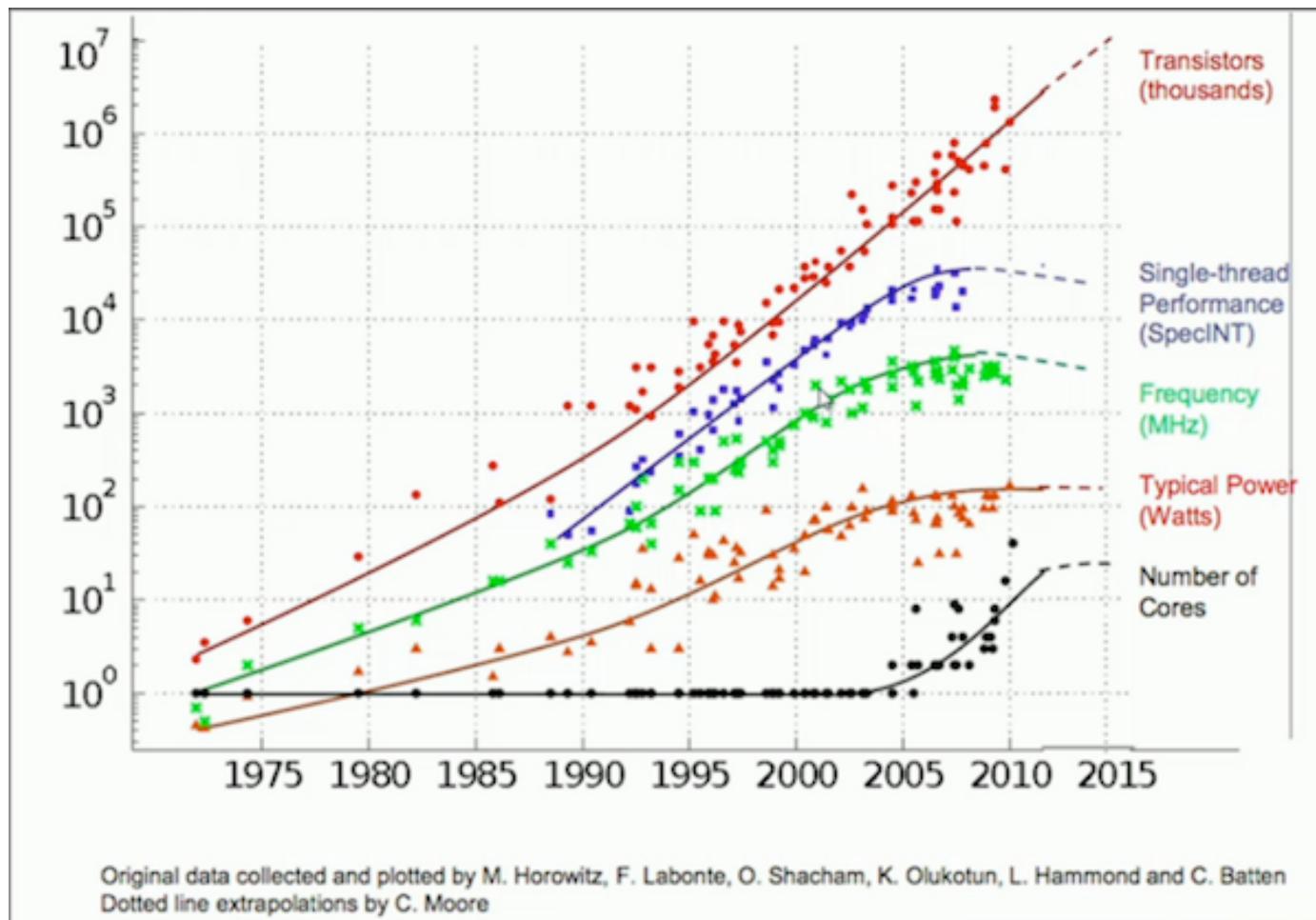
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- Initial response has been to lower frequency and increase cores / chip
- There is a limit to core scaling. Why?



2007: A Revolutionary New Computer





No Moore's Law for batteries

Fred Schlachter¹

American Physical Society, Washington, DC 20045

The public has become accustomed to rapid progress in mobile phone technology, computers, and access to information; tablet computers, smart phones, and other powerful new devices are familiar to most people on the planet.

These developments are due in part to the ongoing exponential increase in computer processing power, doubling approximately every 2 years for the past several decades. This pattern is usually called Moore's Law and is named for Gordon Moore, a co-founder of Intel. The law is not a law like that for gravity; it is an empirical observation, which has become a self-fulfilling prophecy. Unfortunately, much of the public has come to expect that all technology does, will, or should follow such a law, which is not consistent with our everyday observations: For example, the maximum

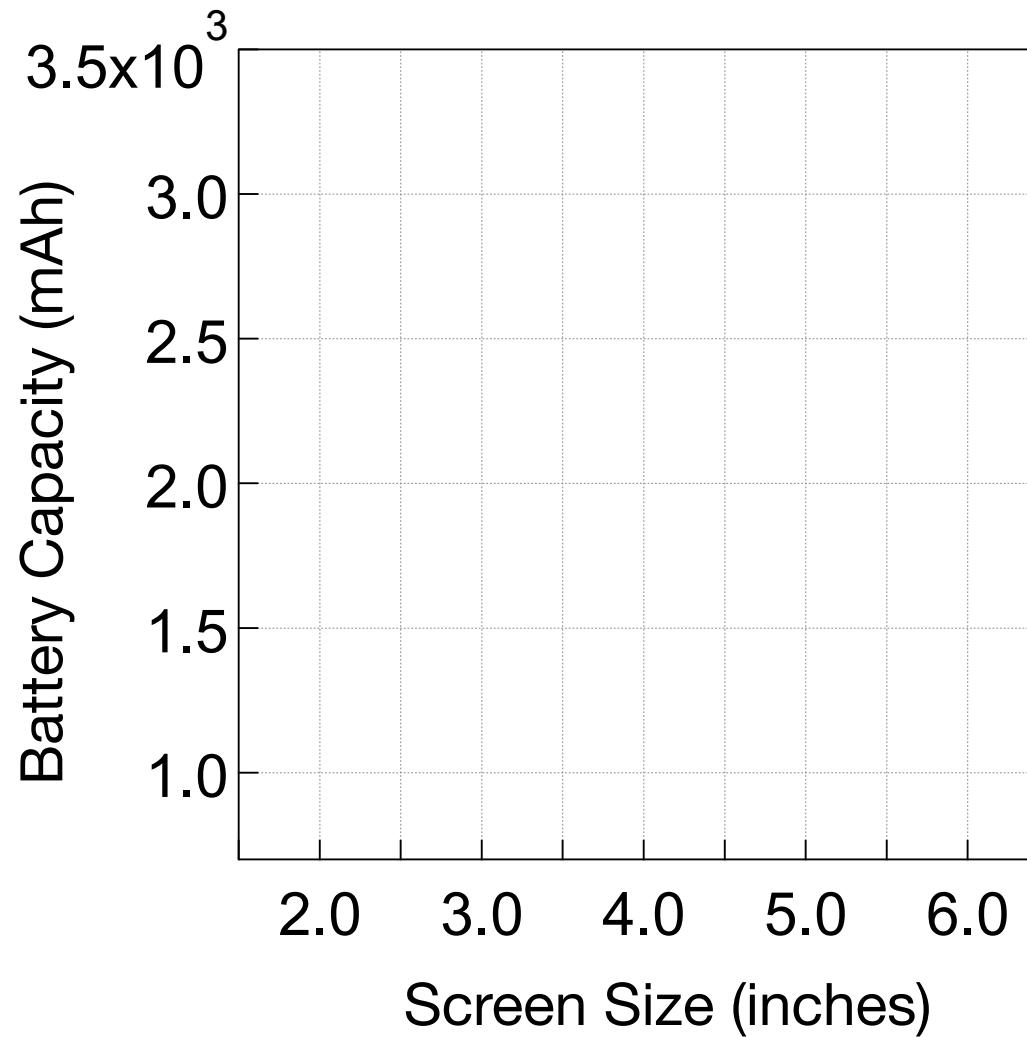
there is a Moore's Law for computer processors is that electrons are small and they do not take up space on a chip. Chip performance is limited by the lithography technology used to fabricate the chips; as lithography improves ever smaller features can be made on processors. Batteries are not like this. Ions, which transfer charge in batteries, are large, and they take up space, as do anodes, cathodes, and electrolytes. A D-cell battery stores more energy than an AA-cell. Potentials in a battery are dictated by the relevant chemical reactions, thus limiting eventual battery performance. Significant improvement in battery capacity can only be made by changing to a different chemistry.

Scientists and battery experts, who have been optimistic in the recent past about improving lithium-ion batteries and about de-

“Improving” Energy Capacity

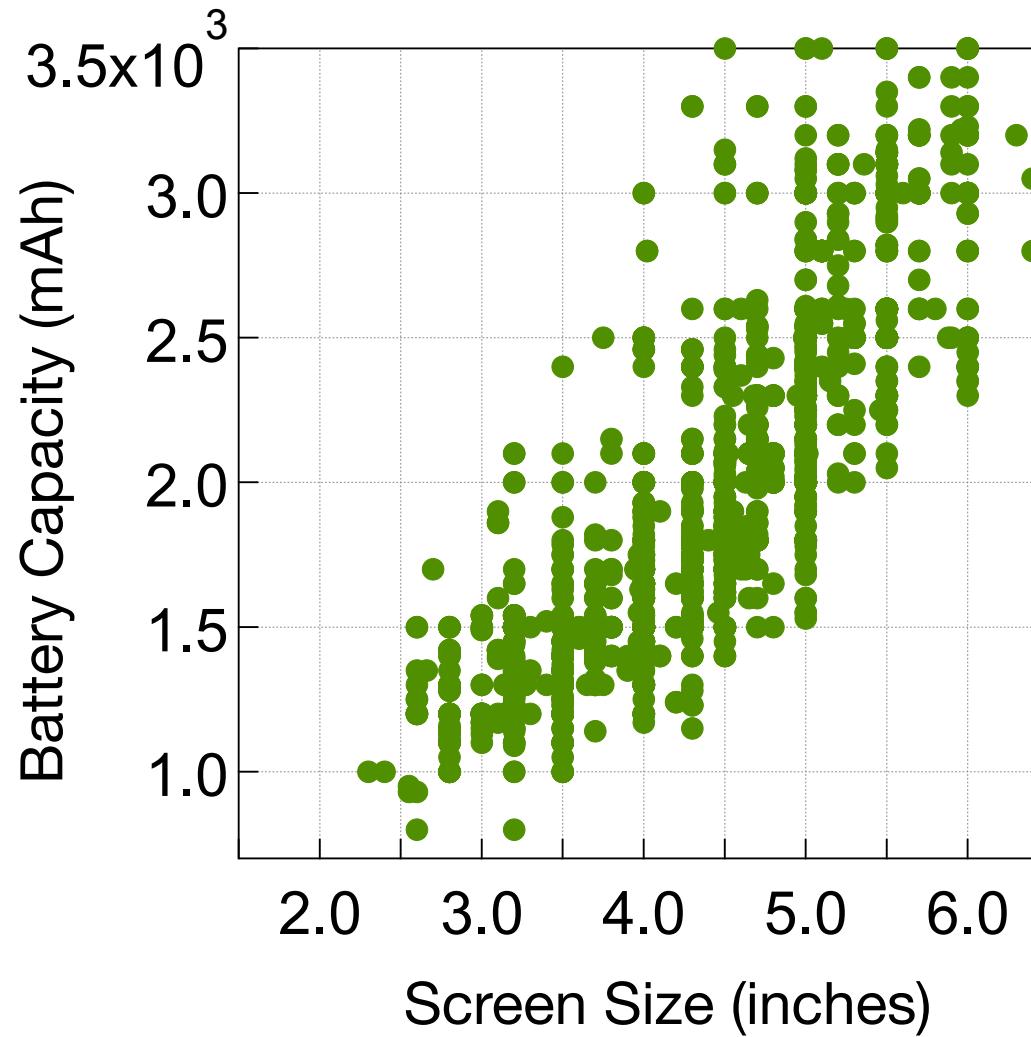
600 smartphone from 2006 to 2014 on <http://www.gsmarena.com/makers.php3>

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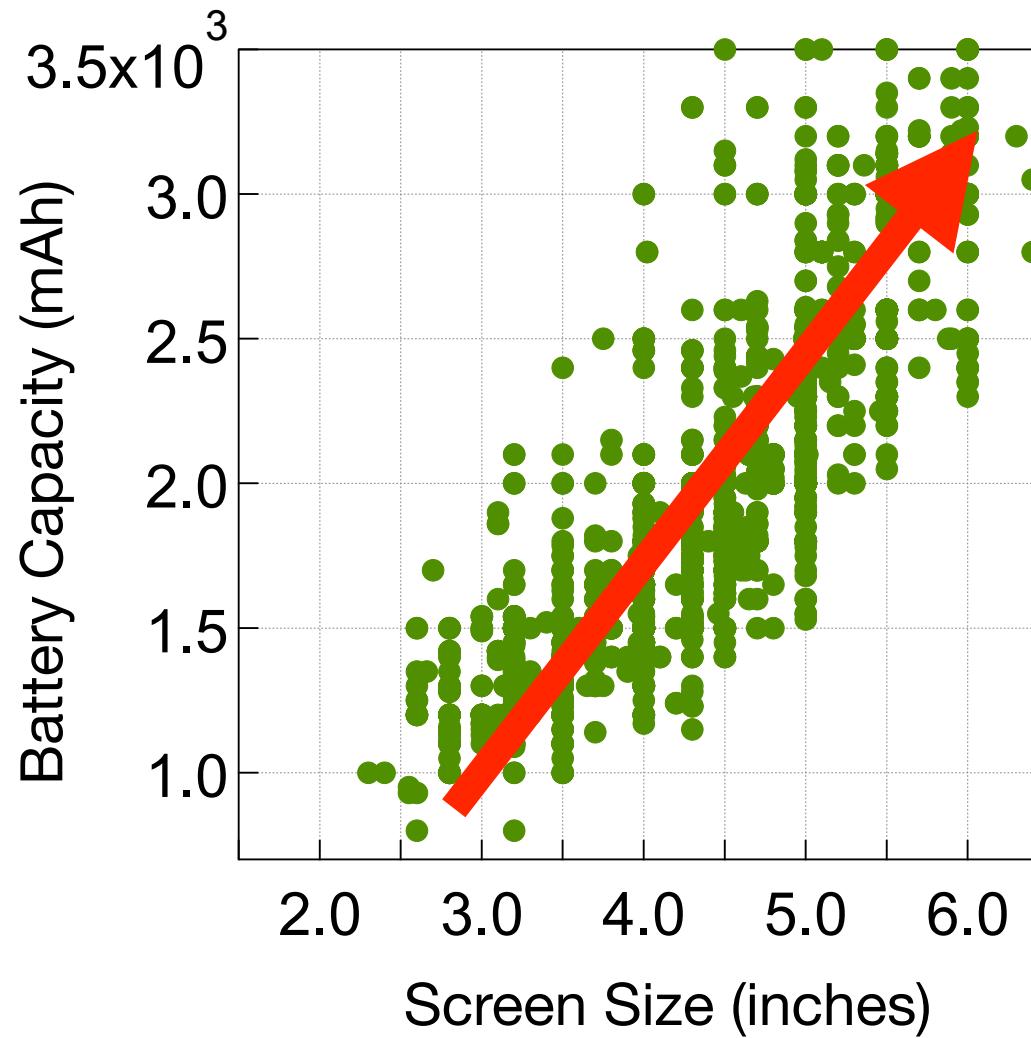
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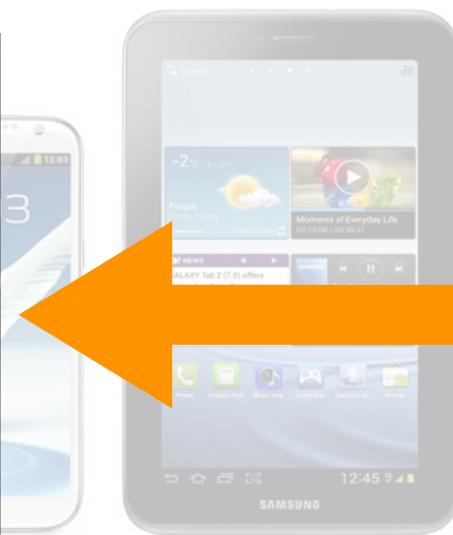
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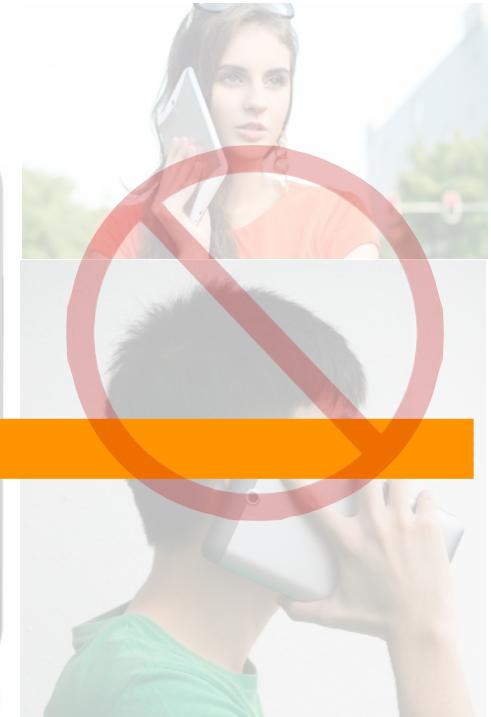


“Improving” Energy Capacity



LET

TABLET

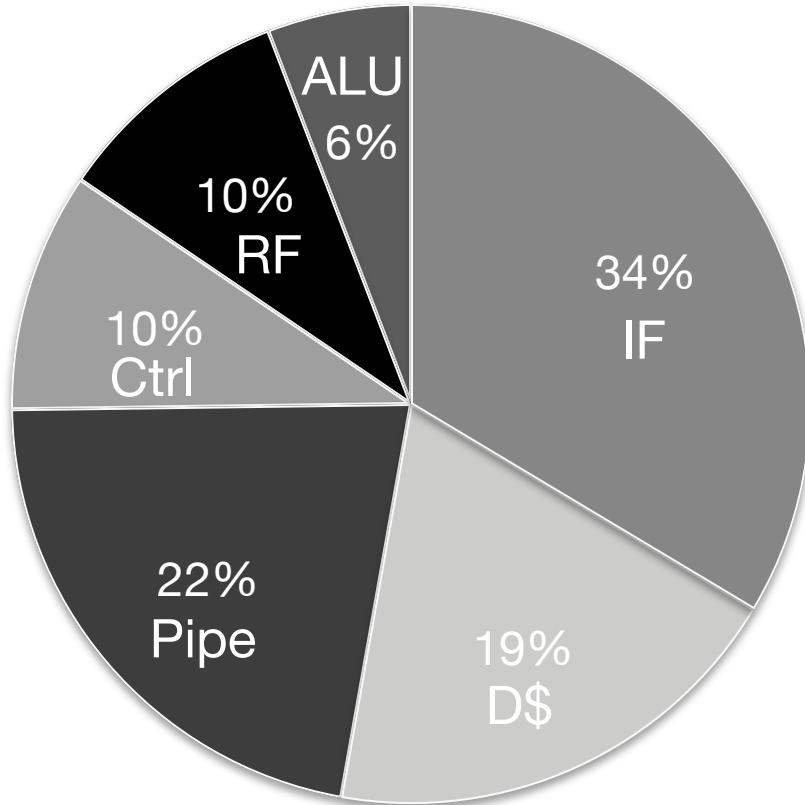


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General-Purpose CPU = Instruction Delivery + Data Feeding + Execution + Control, where instruction delivery, data feeding & control are pure overhead

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Pipe: Pipeline reg, bus, clock

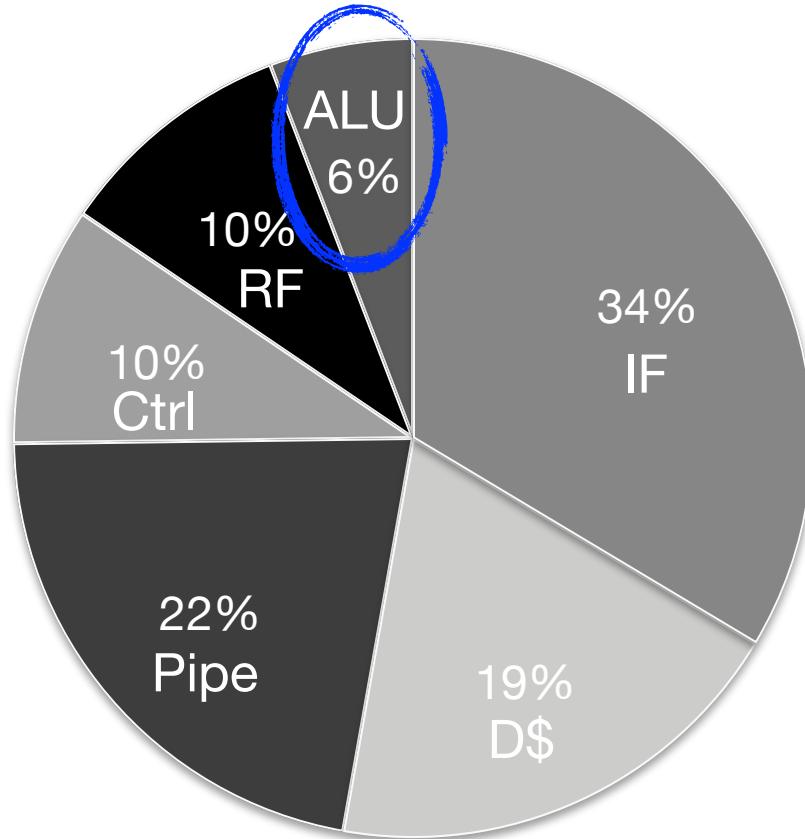
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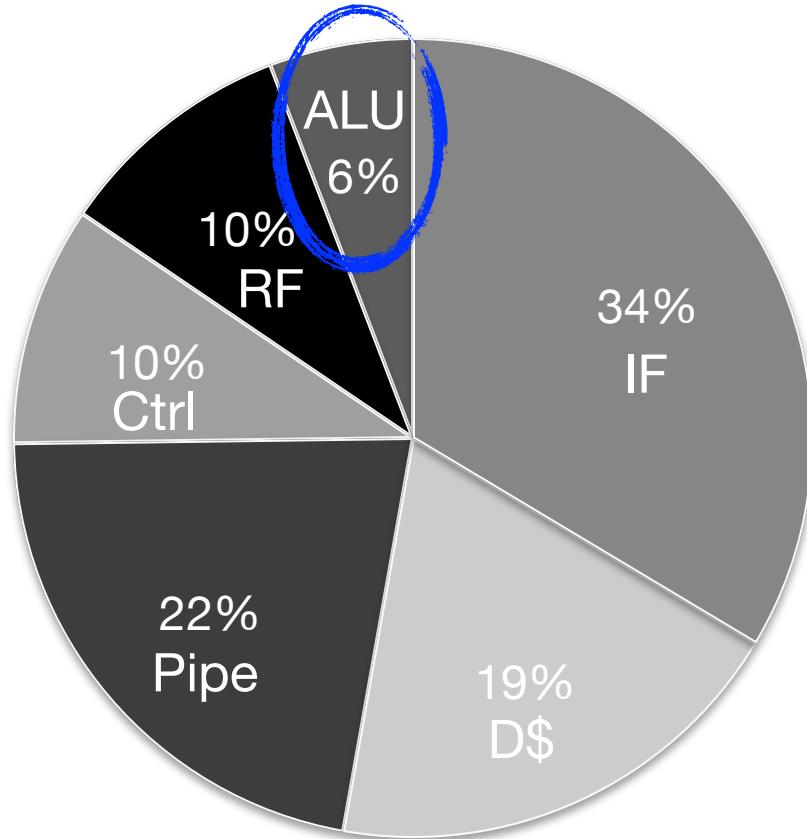
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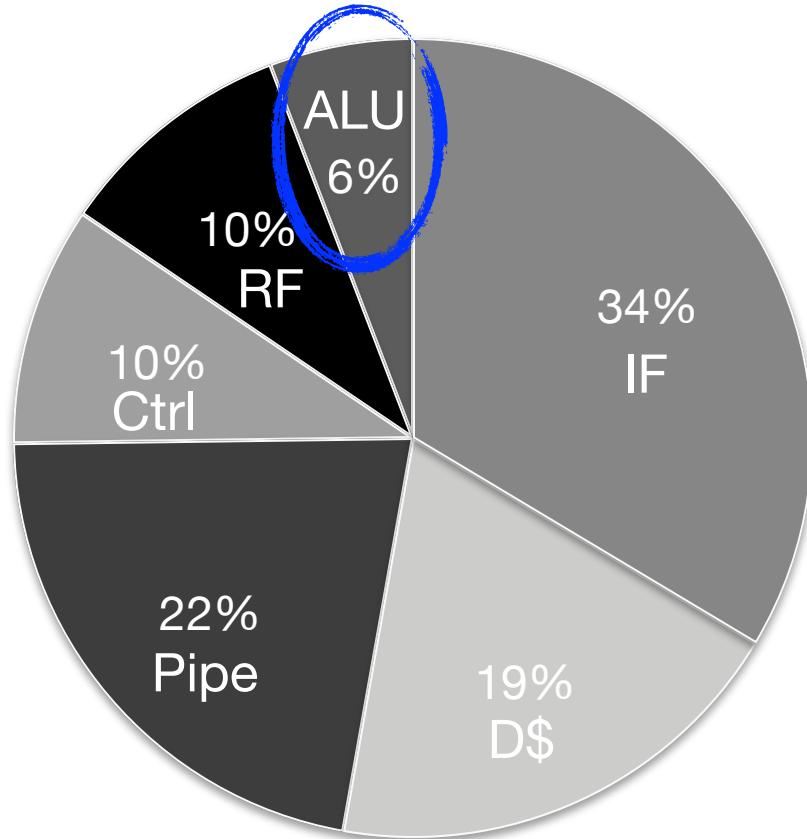
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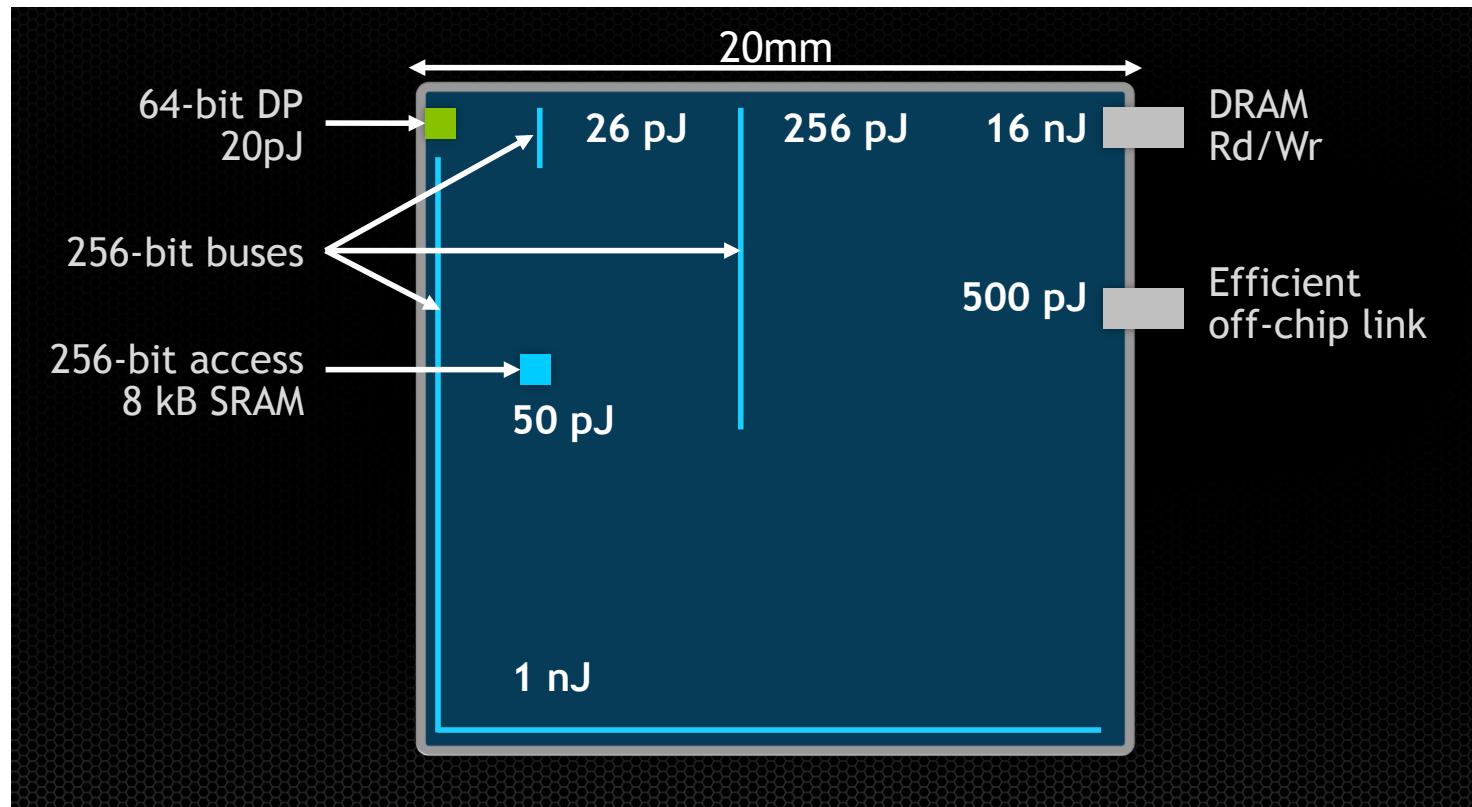
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Doing Actual Work

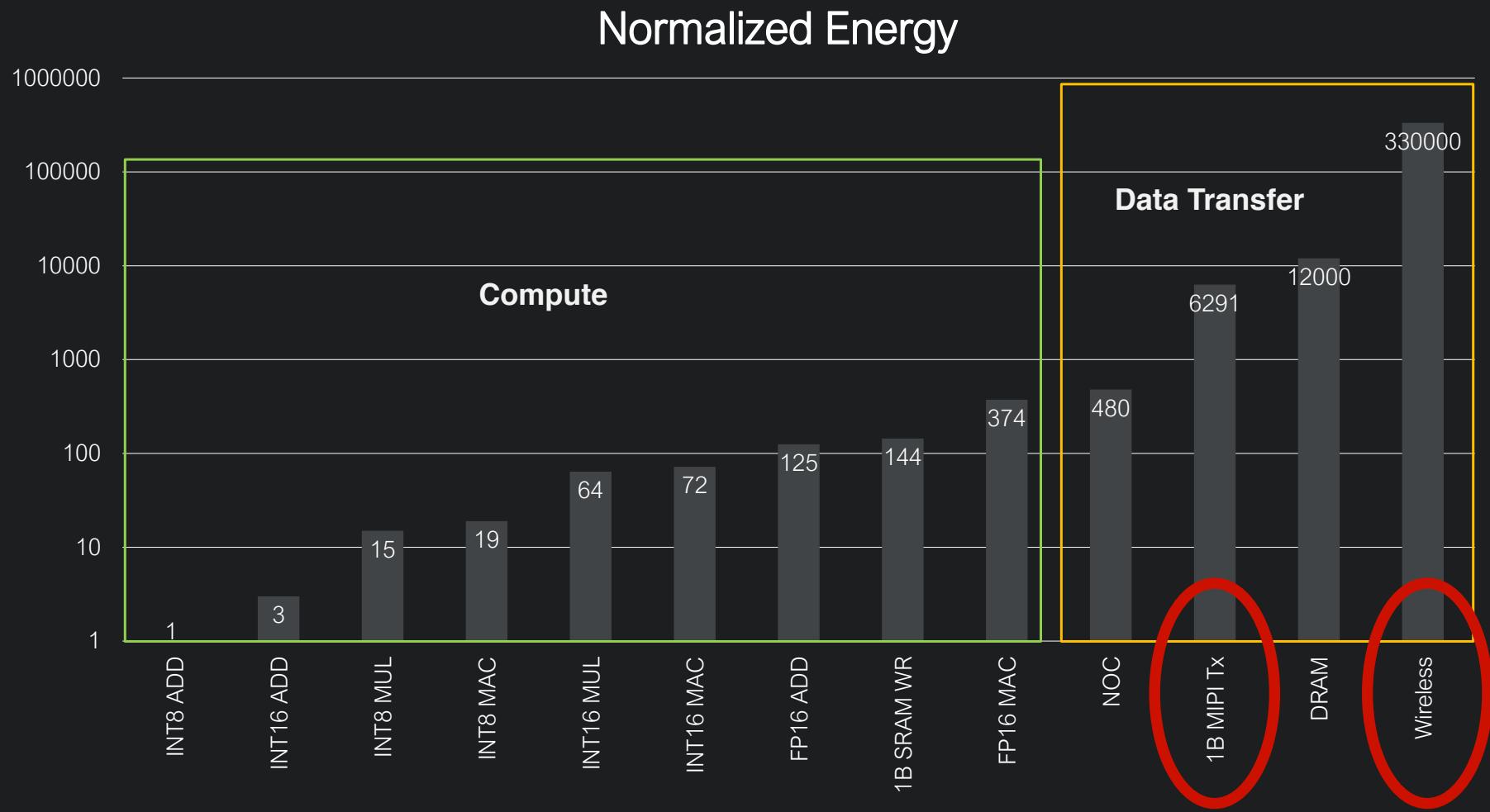
Computation vs. Data Movement

Data movement energy >> computation energy



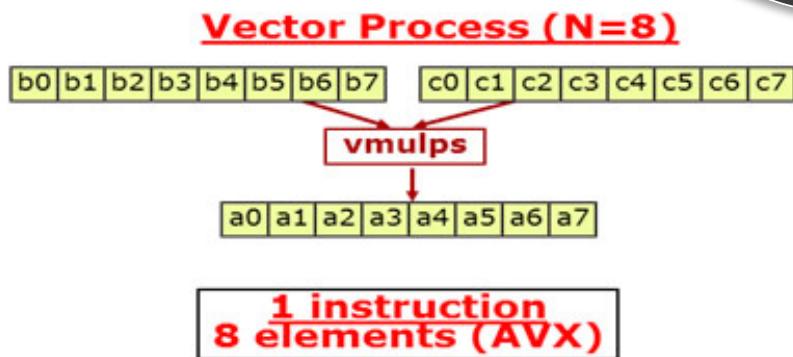
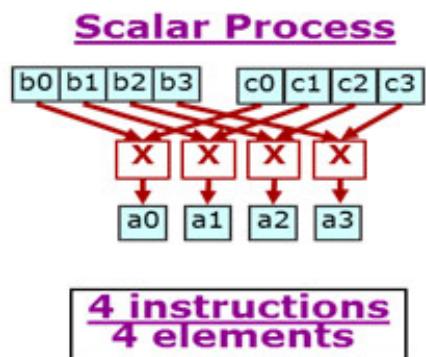
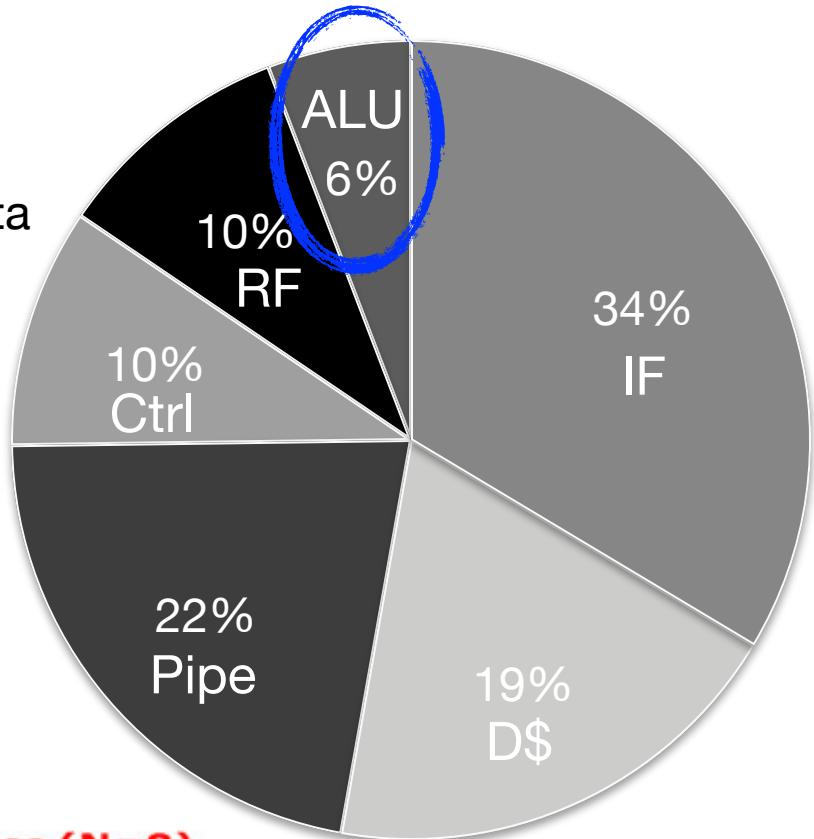
Computation vs. Data Movement

Data movement energy >> computation energy



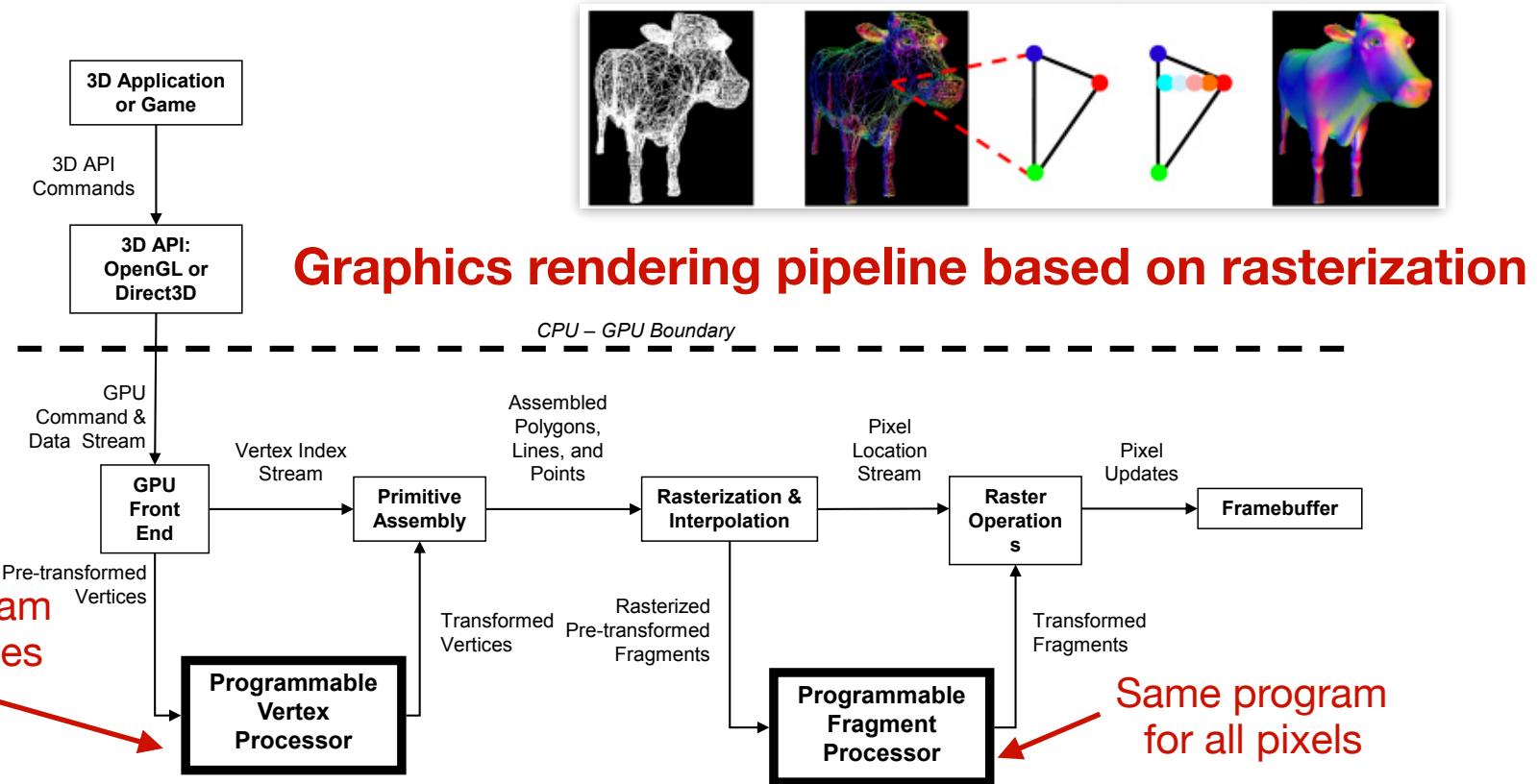
SIMD

- Single Instruction (operating on) Multiple Data
- Amortizing the cost of instruction delivery/ control across many execution units (even cores).
- Almost all modern ISAs provide such instructions:
 - x86: MMX/SSE/AVX
 - Arm: Neon



Graphics Processing Units/GPUs (SIMT)

- Designed for graphics rendering, which is massively parallel.

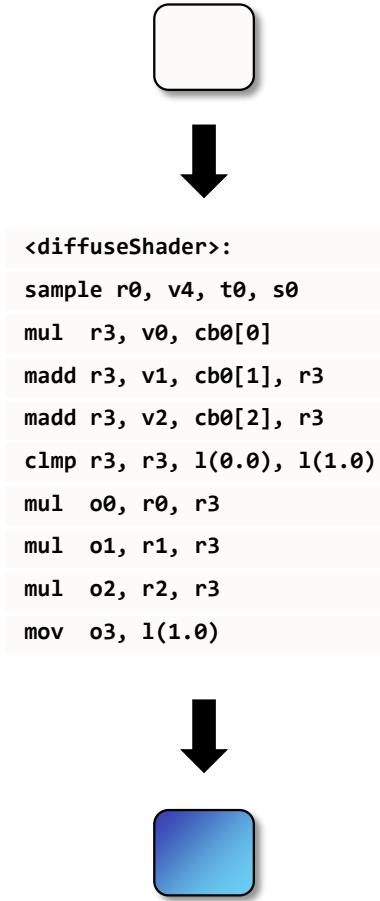
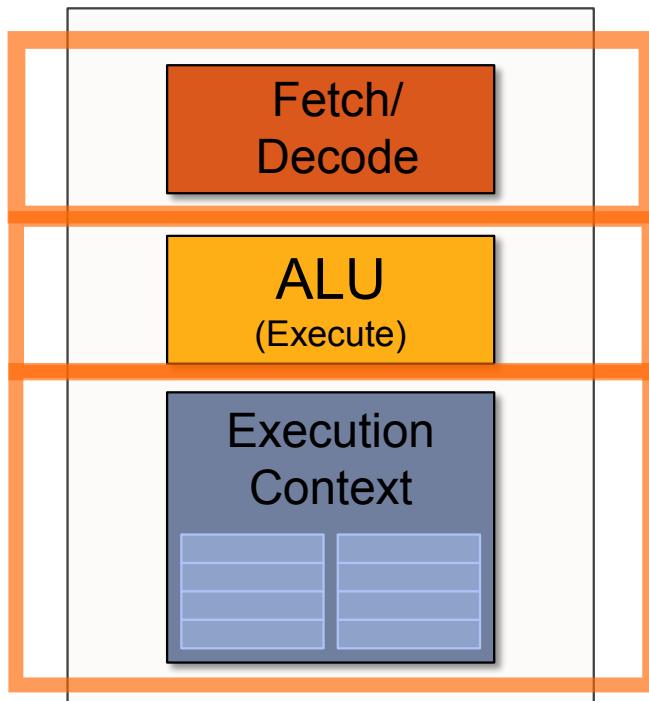


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Wen-mei W. Hwu, 2007

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Urbana-Champaign

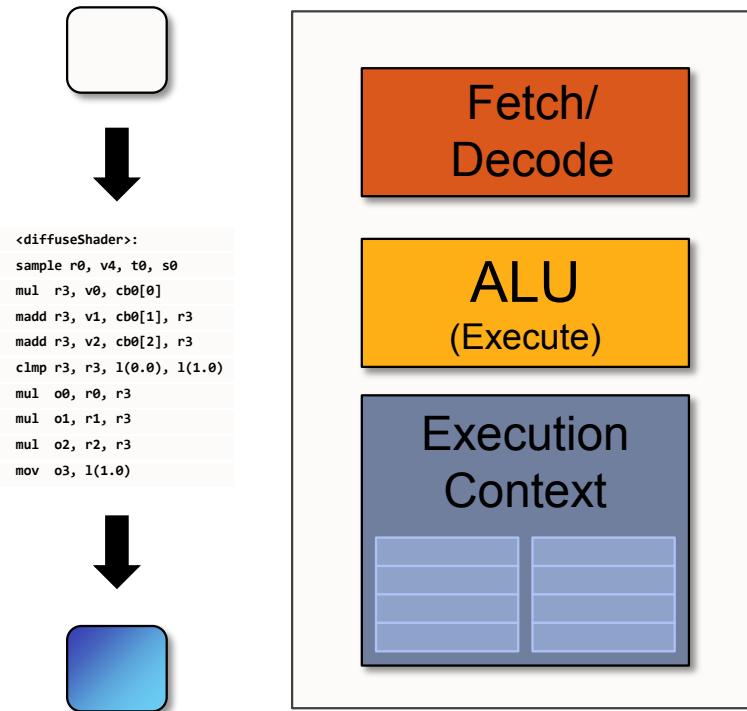
Computer Architecture

Execute shader

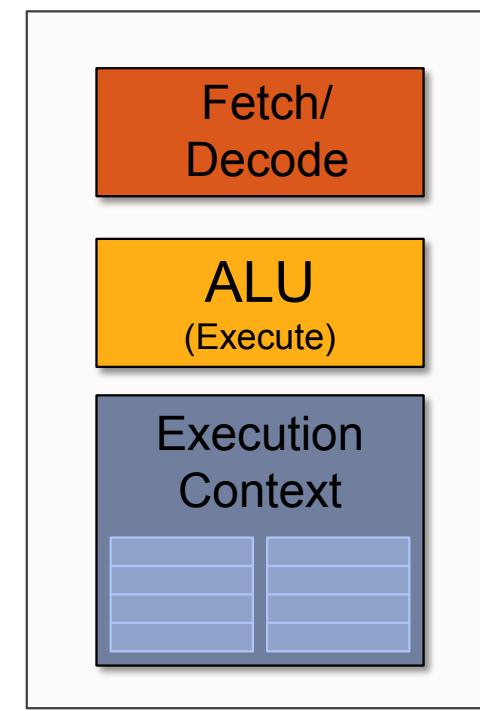


Two cores (two fragments in parallel)

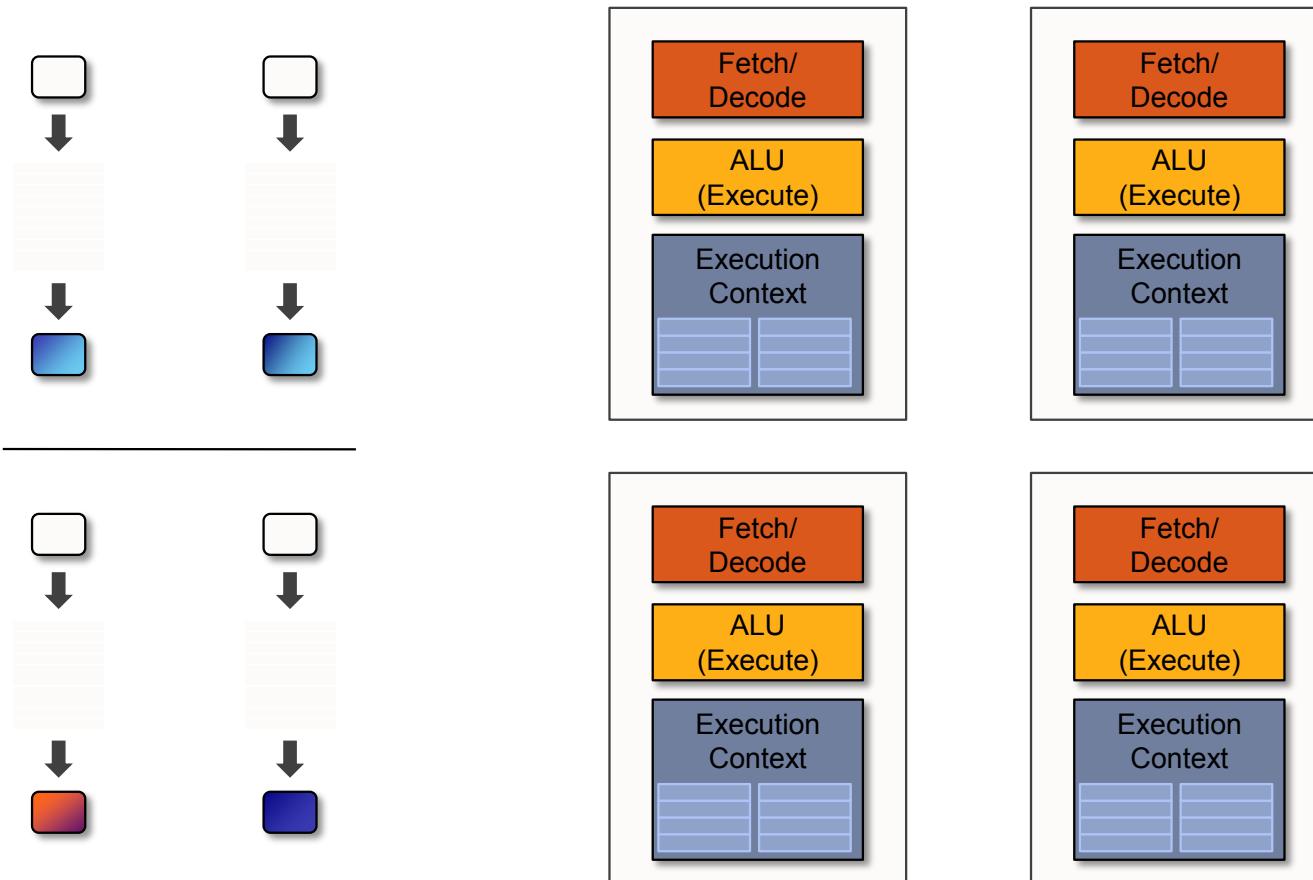
fragment 1



fragment 2

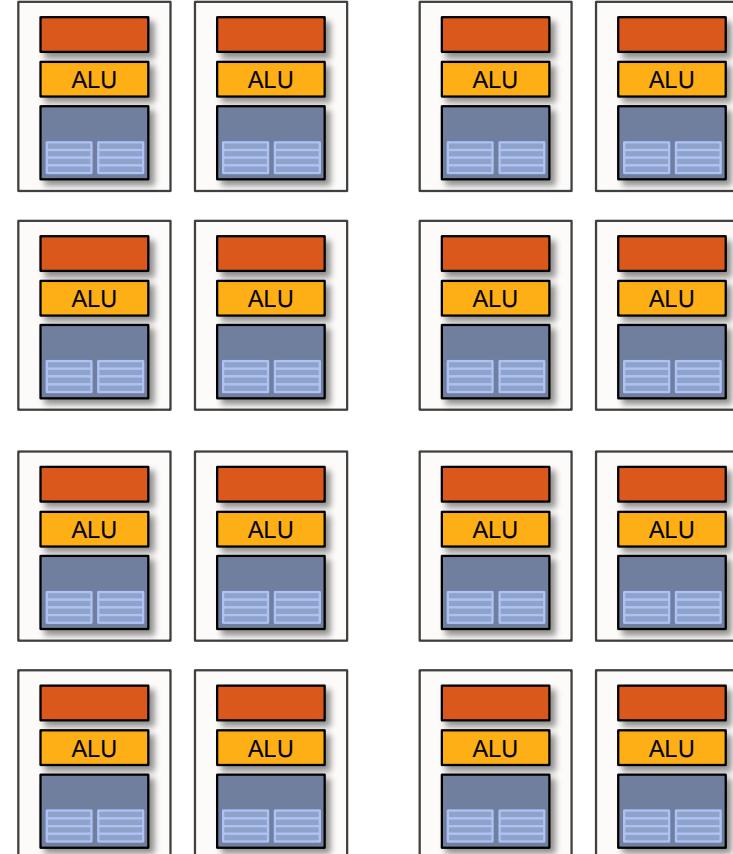
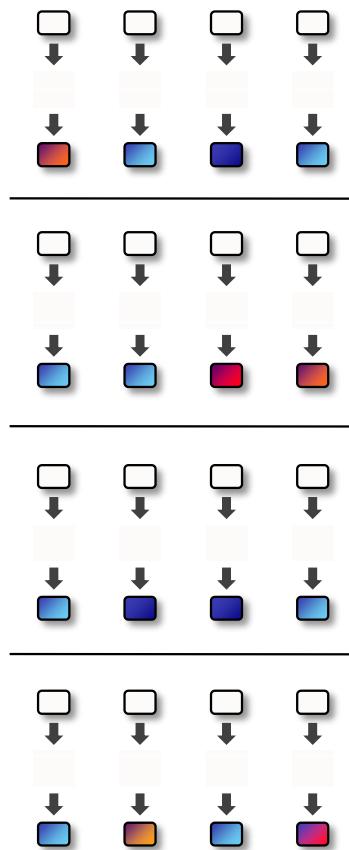


Four cores (four fragments in parallel)



Sixteen cores (sixteen fragments in parallel)

25

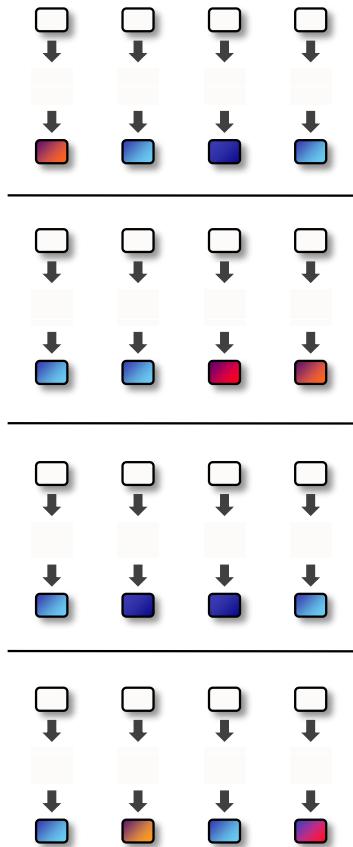


16 cores = 16 simultaneous instruction streams

50



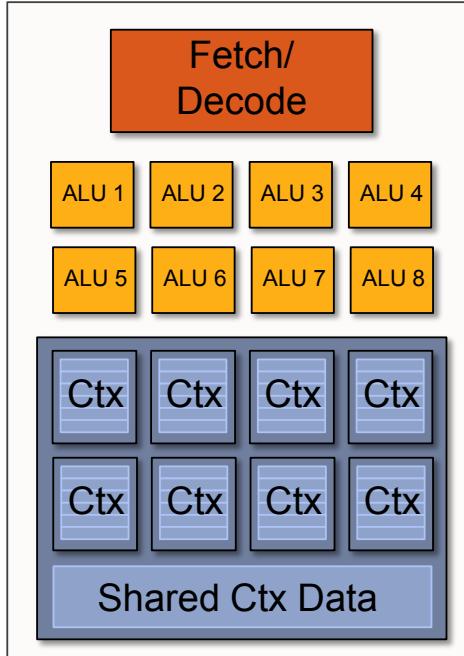
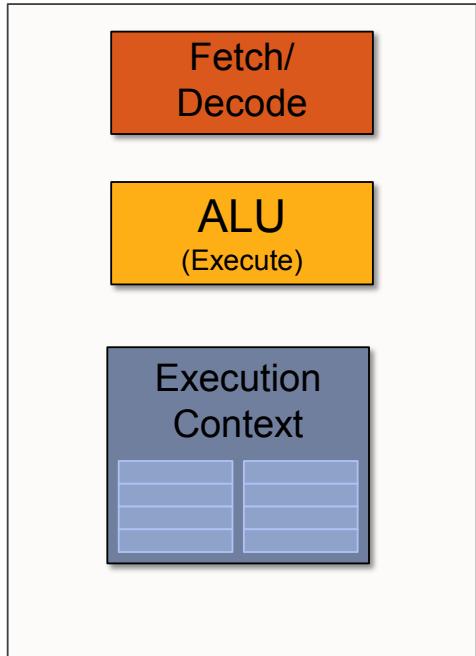
Instruction stream coherence



But... many fragments should be able to share an instruction stream!

```
<diffuseShader>:
sample r0, v4, t0, s0
mul r3, v0, cb0[0]
madd r3, v1, cb0[1], r3
madd r3, v2, cb0[2], r3
clmp r3, r3, 1(0.0), 1(1.0)
mul o0, r0, r3
mul o1, r1, r3
mul o2, r2, r3
mov o3, 1(1.0)
```

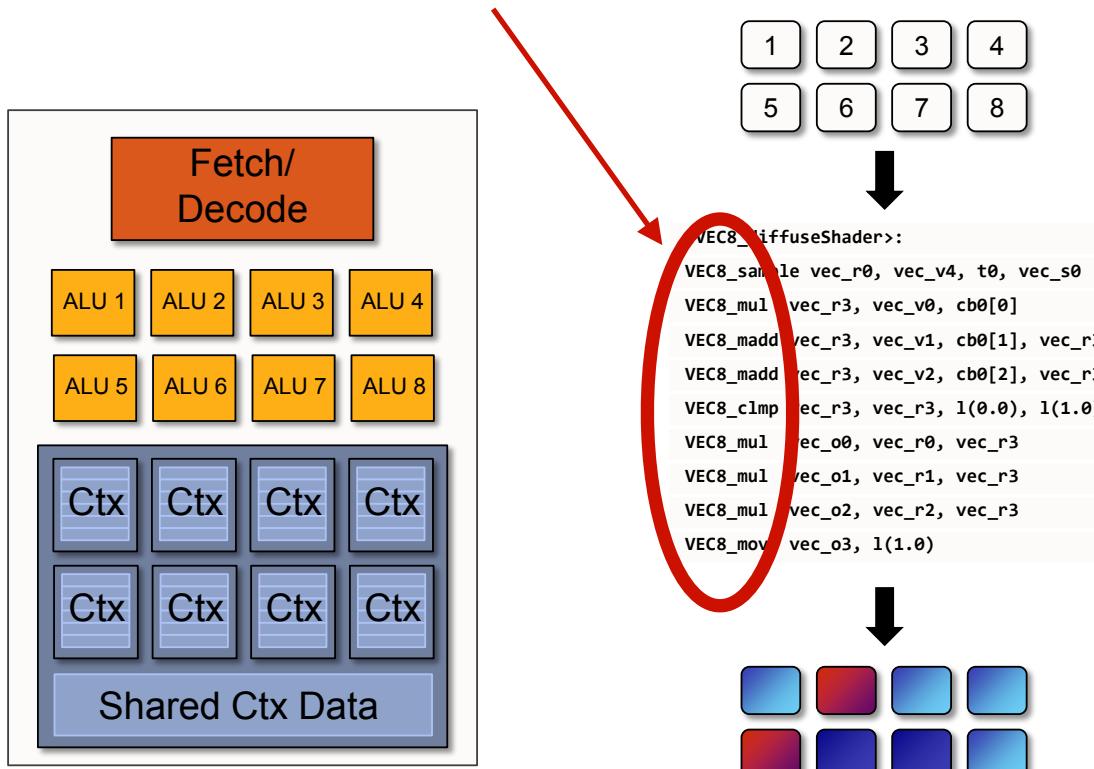




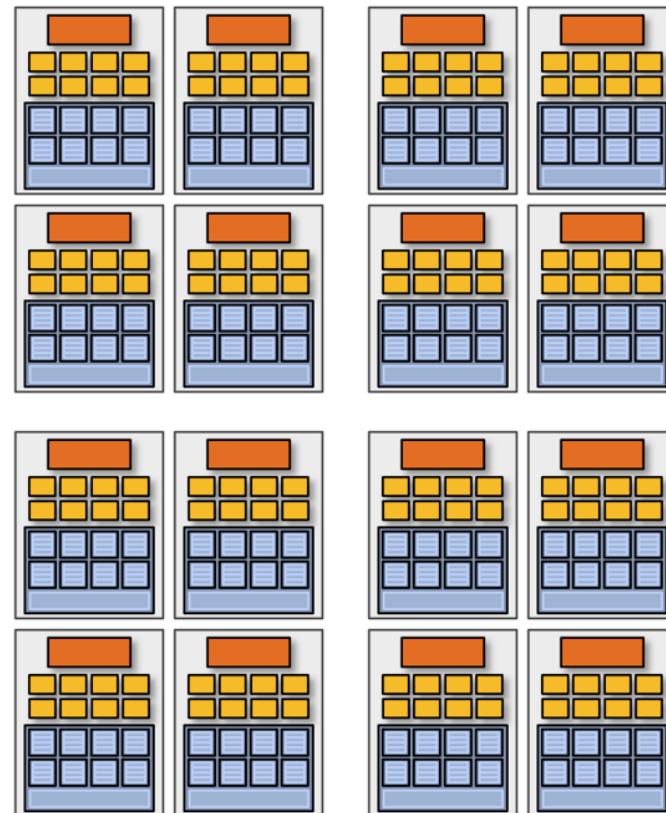
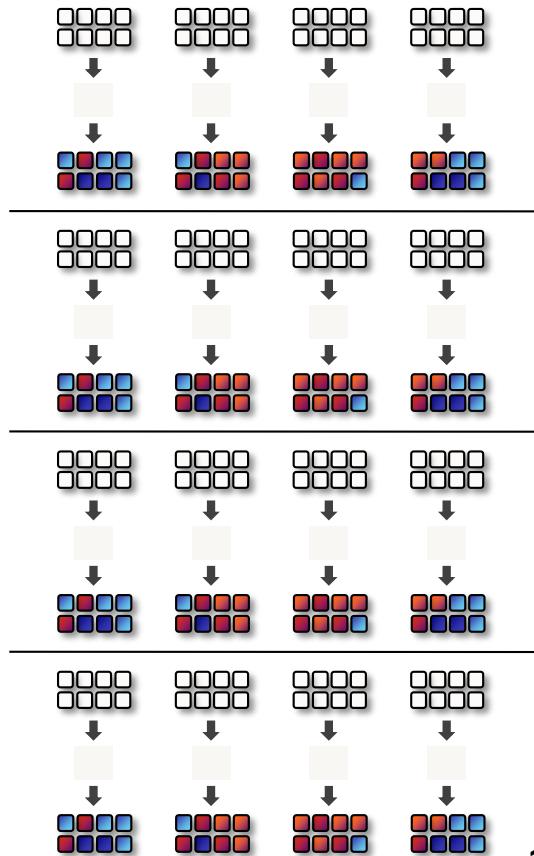
Amortize cost/complexity of managing an instruction stream across many ALUs

SIMD processing

SIMD/vector instructions, each operates on a vector of 8 elements here.

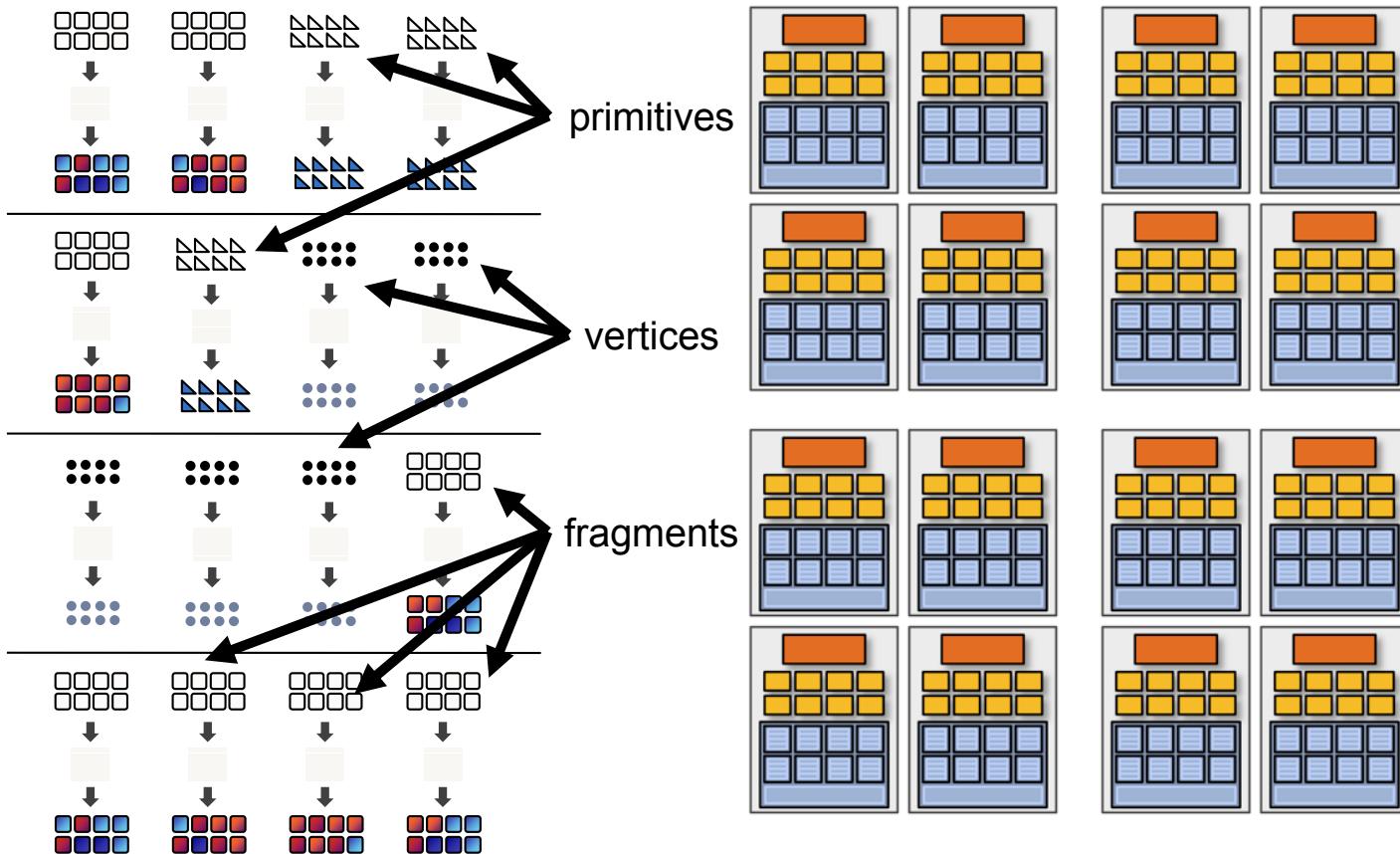


16 cores, each with 8 ALUs. Each core here runs the same program (fragment shader)



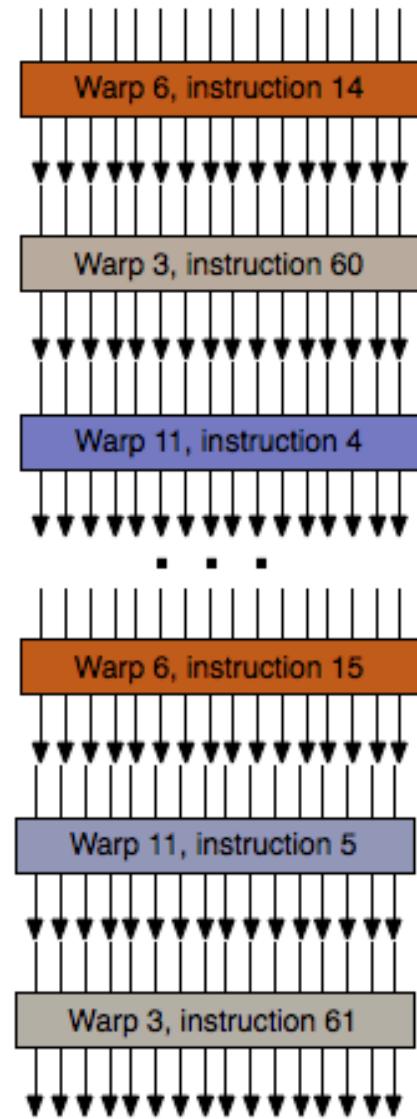
16 cores = 128 ALUs
= 16 simultaneous instruction streams

16 cores, each with 8 ALUs. Cores here run different programs
(some are processing vertices, some are processing fragments)



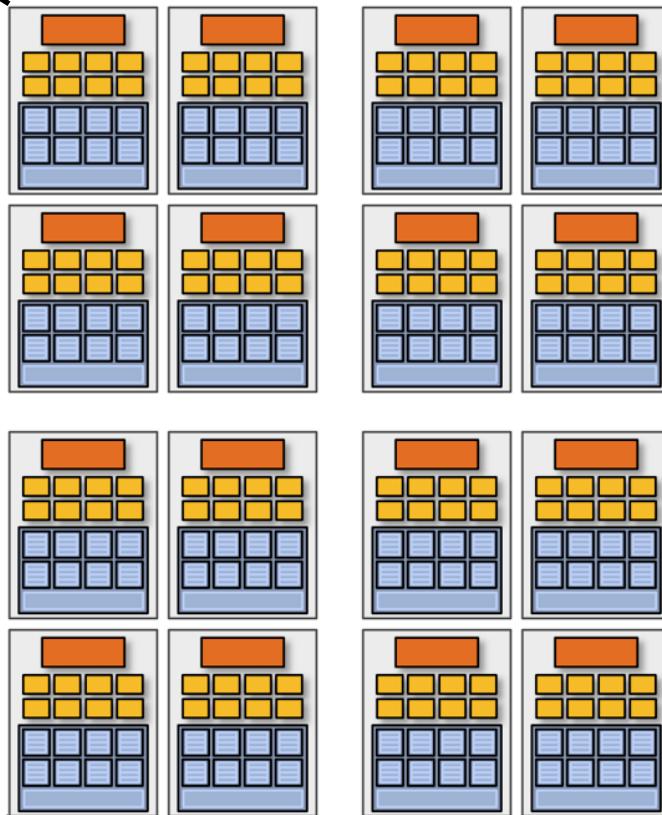
Each Core Does Fine-Grained Multi-threading

Warp: a group of threads (8 here)



Time

No need for branch prediction and out-of-order execution.
Simple core design. Each thread has its own set of registers in hardware to minimize context switch overhead.



Nvidia Maxwell GPU (2014)

- Today: General Purpose GPU (GPGPU), used for any massive parallel applications:
 - Physics simulation
 - Deep learning
 - Computer vision



Nvidia Maxwell GPU (2014)

- Today: General Purpose GPU (GPGPU), used for any massive parallel applications:

