Modern computer architecture

An introduction for software developers

Multi-core today: Intel Xeon Sapphire Rapids (2023)

- Xeon "Sapphire Rapids" (Platinum/Gold/Silver/Bronze):
  Up to 60 cores running at 1.7+ GHz
  (+ "Turbo Mode" 4.8 GHz),

- Simultaneous Multithreading
  → reports as 120-way chip

- "Intel 7" process / up to 350 W

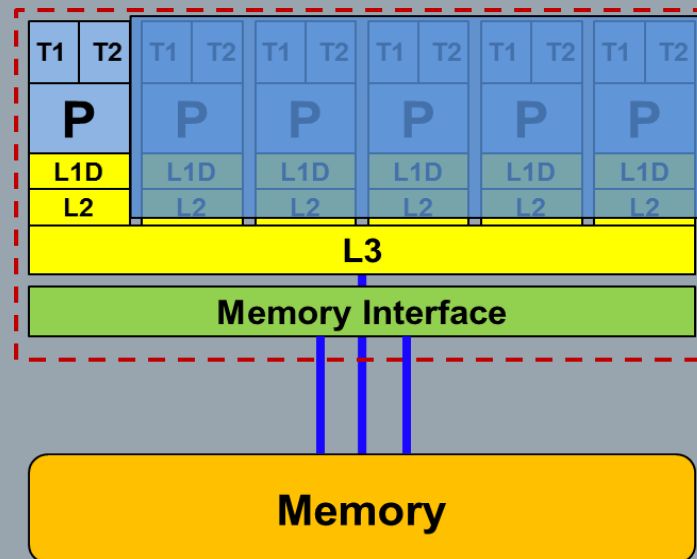- Multi-die package (4 chips)

- Clock frequency:
  flexible ☺

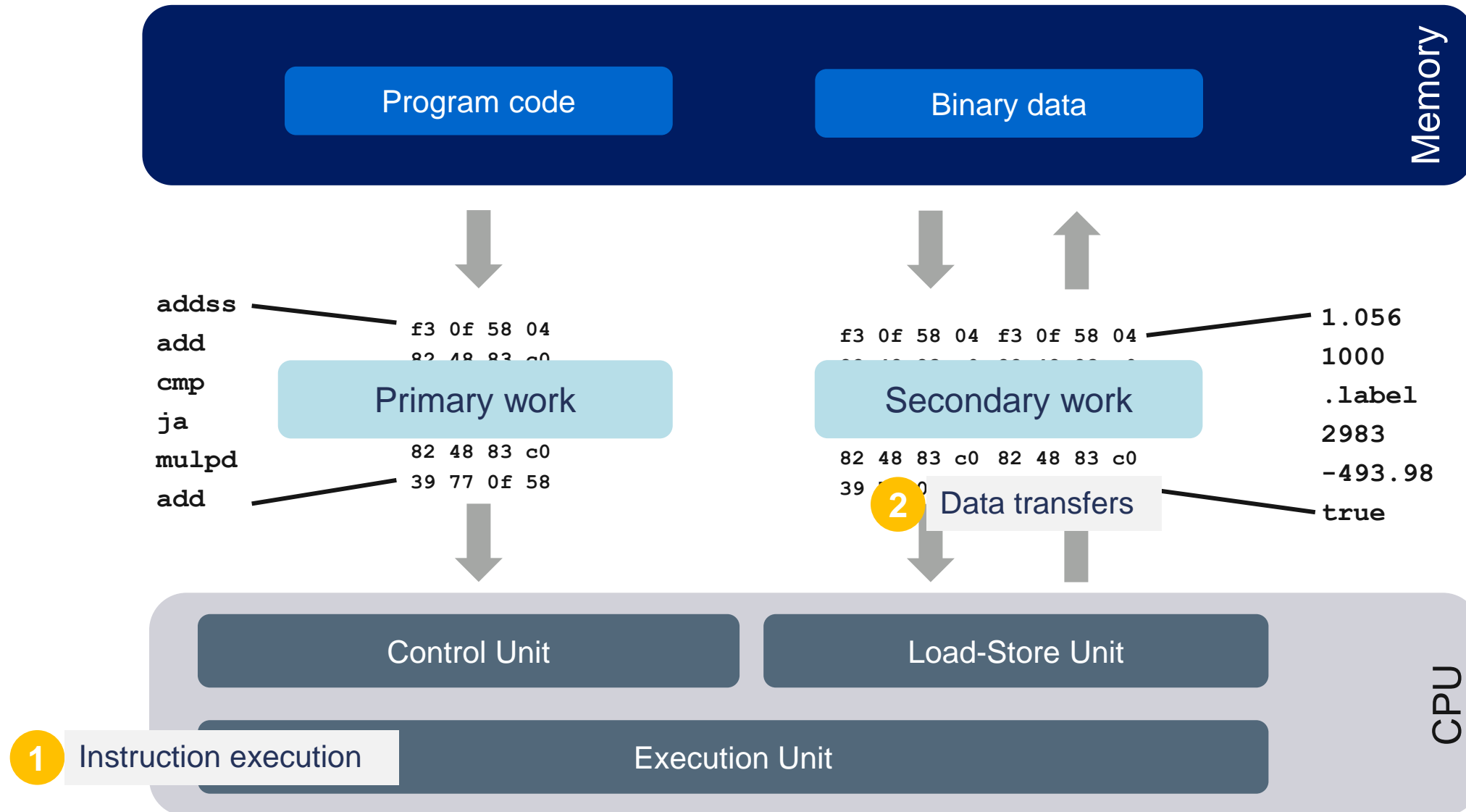Optional: "Sub-NUMA Clustering" (SNC) mode boot option

→ One memory domain per die

https://www.techpowerup.com/292204/intel-sapphire-rapids-xeon-4-tile-mcm-annotated
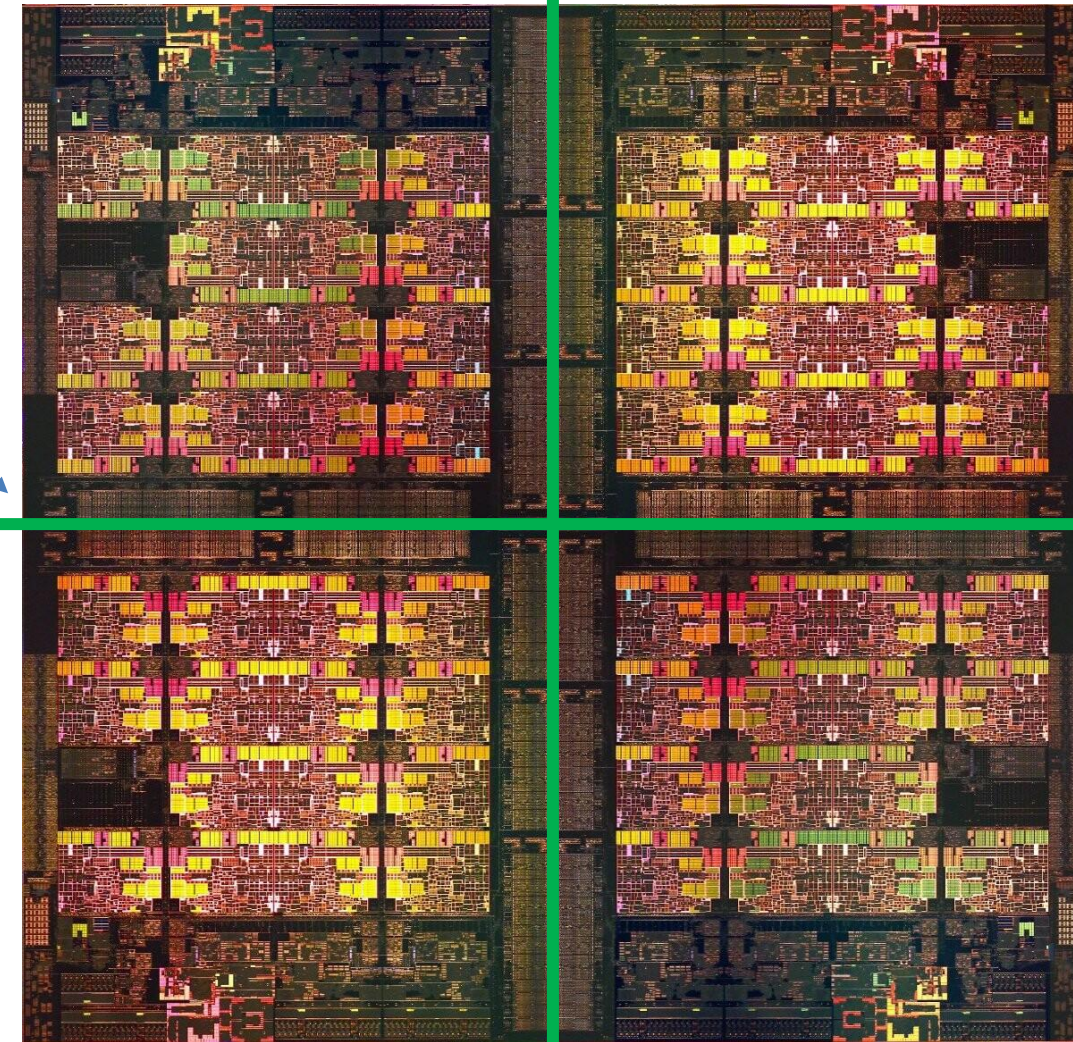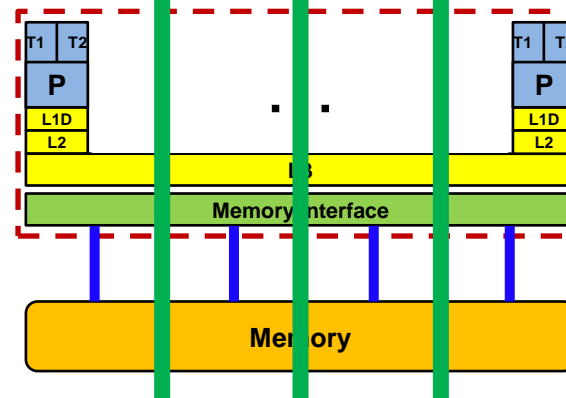
A deeper dive into core architecture

Stored Program Computer

From high level code to actual execution

```
for(int i=0; i<N; i++){
    sum += a[i];

}
```

Compiler

addsd: Add 2nd argument to 1st argument and store result in 1st argument

Load `a[i]` to register xmm2

`&a[0]`

```
..LABEL:
        movsd   xmm2, [rdi+rdx*8]
        addsd   xmm1, xmm2
        inc     rdx
        cmp     rax, rdx
        jb      ..LABEL
```

Counter increment

Compare register content

Conditional jump to label if loop continues

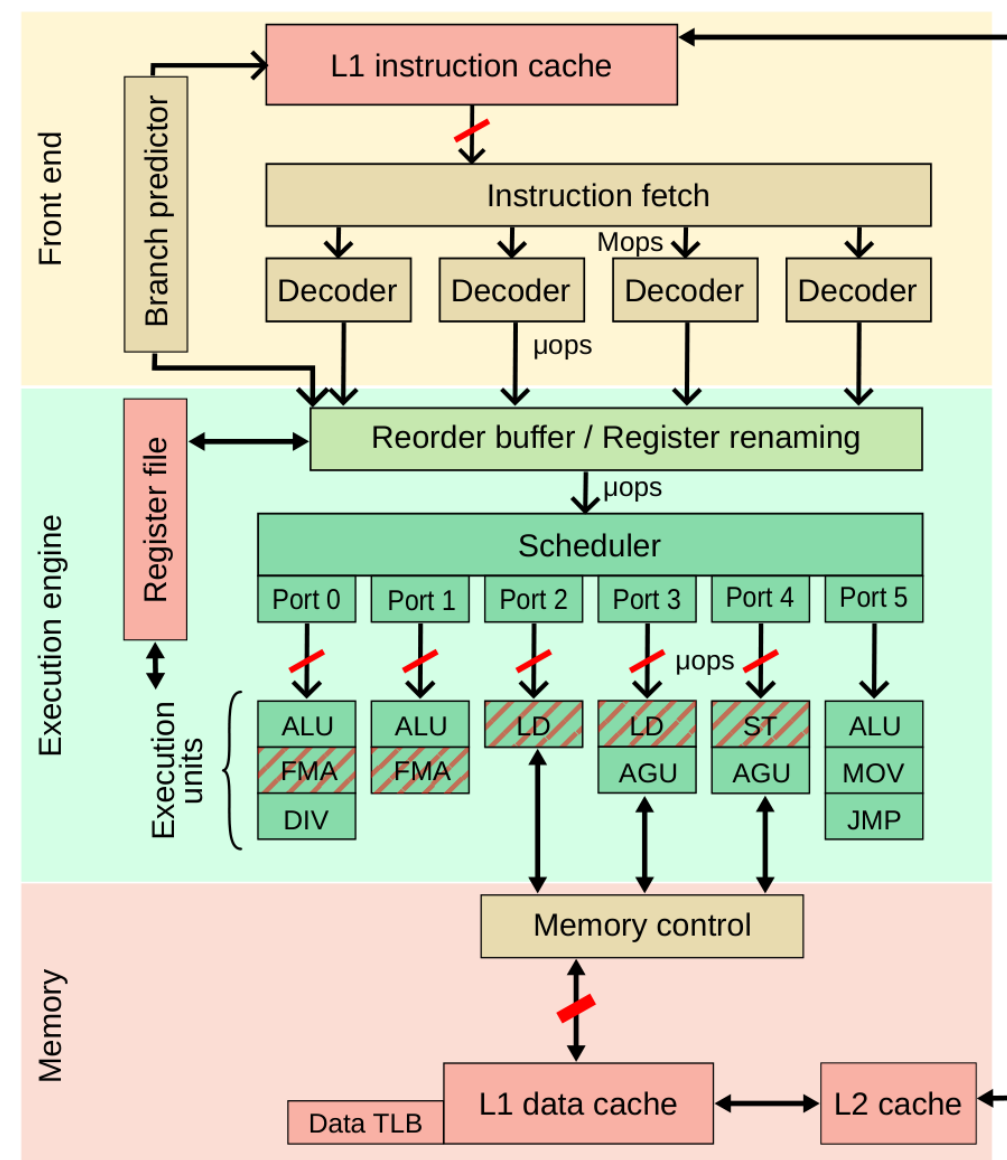`sizeof(double)`

`N` in register `rax`

`sum` in register `xmm1`

`i` in register `rdx`

General-purpose cache based microprocessor core
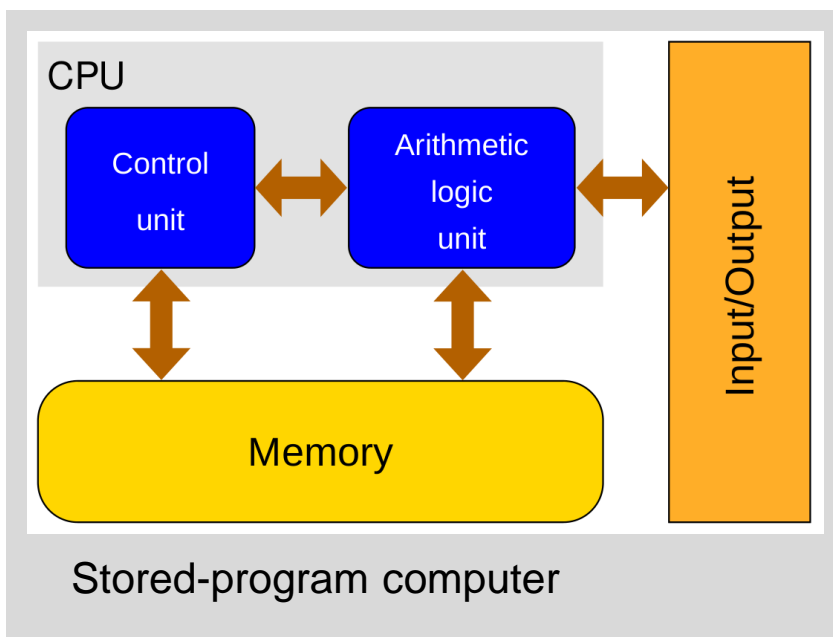
- Implements "Stored Program Computer" concept (Turing 1936)
- Similar designs on all modern systems
- (Still) multiple potential bottlenecks

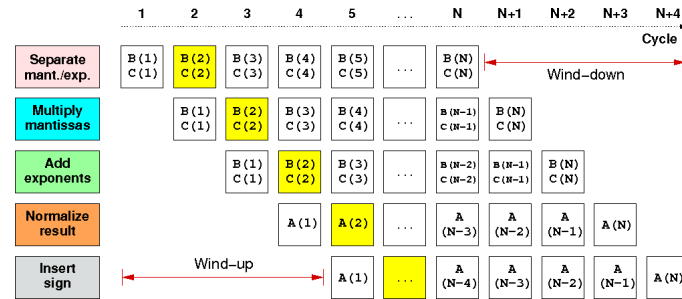The clock cycle is the "heartbeat" of the core

In-core features

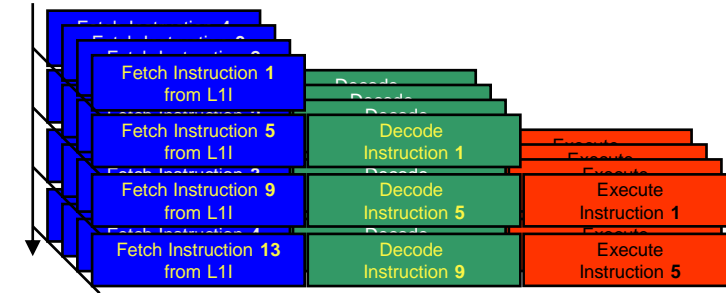Pipelining, Superscalarity, SIMD, SMT

Important in-core features

Pipelining:
Instruction execution in multiple steps

Superscalarity:
Multiple instructions per cycle

Single Instruction Multiple Data:
Multiple operations per instruction
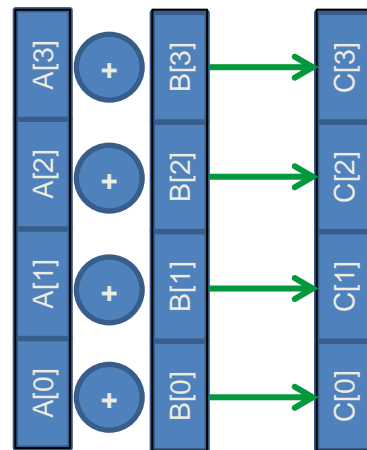
Simultaneous Multi-Threading:
Multiple instruction sequences in parallel
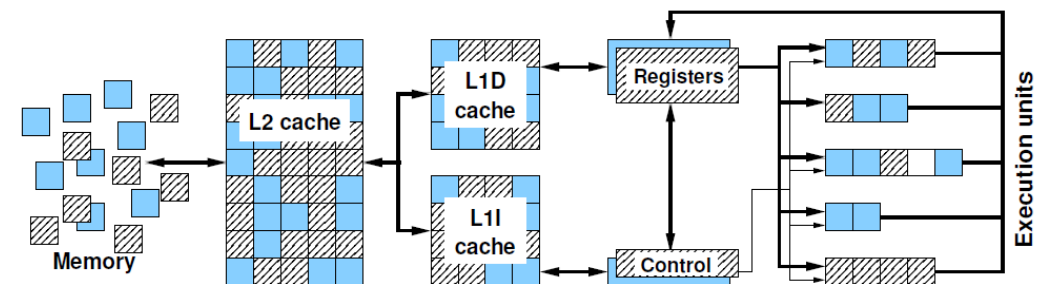
Instruction level parallelism (ILP): pipelining, superscalarity

Pipelining

Independent instructions
(of one kind, e.g., ADD):

I5 I4 I3 I2 I1

Single instruction takes 5 cycles (latency)

Cycle   1   2   3   4   5

5

pipeline stages
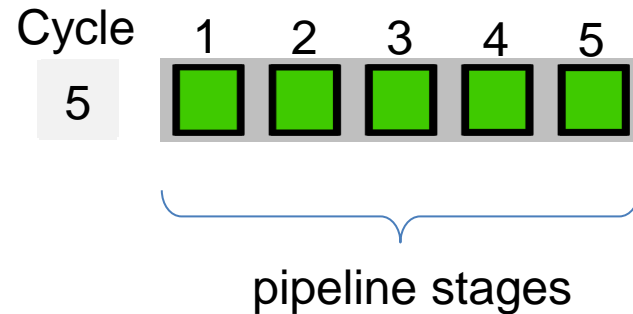
Throughput:

1 instruction per cycle after pipeline is full

→ 5x speedup

Superscalar execution
across multiple pipelines

4-way superscalar:

→ Massive boost in instruction throughput
→ Instructions can be reordered on the fly

Superscalar out-of-order execution and steady state

Instruction execution

STORE
(Latency: 2 cy)

LOAD
(Latency: 4 cy)

ADD
(Latency: 3cy)

```
for(int i=1; i<n; ++i)
    a[i] = a[i] + c;
```

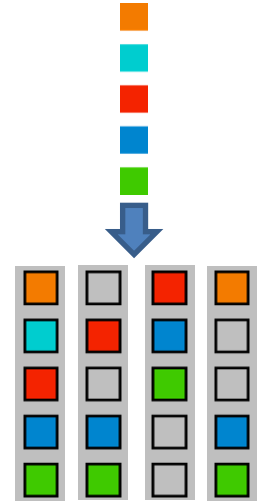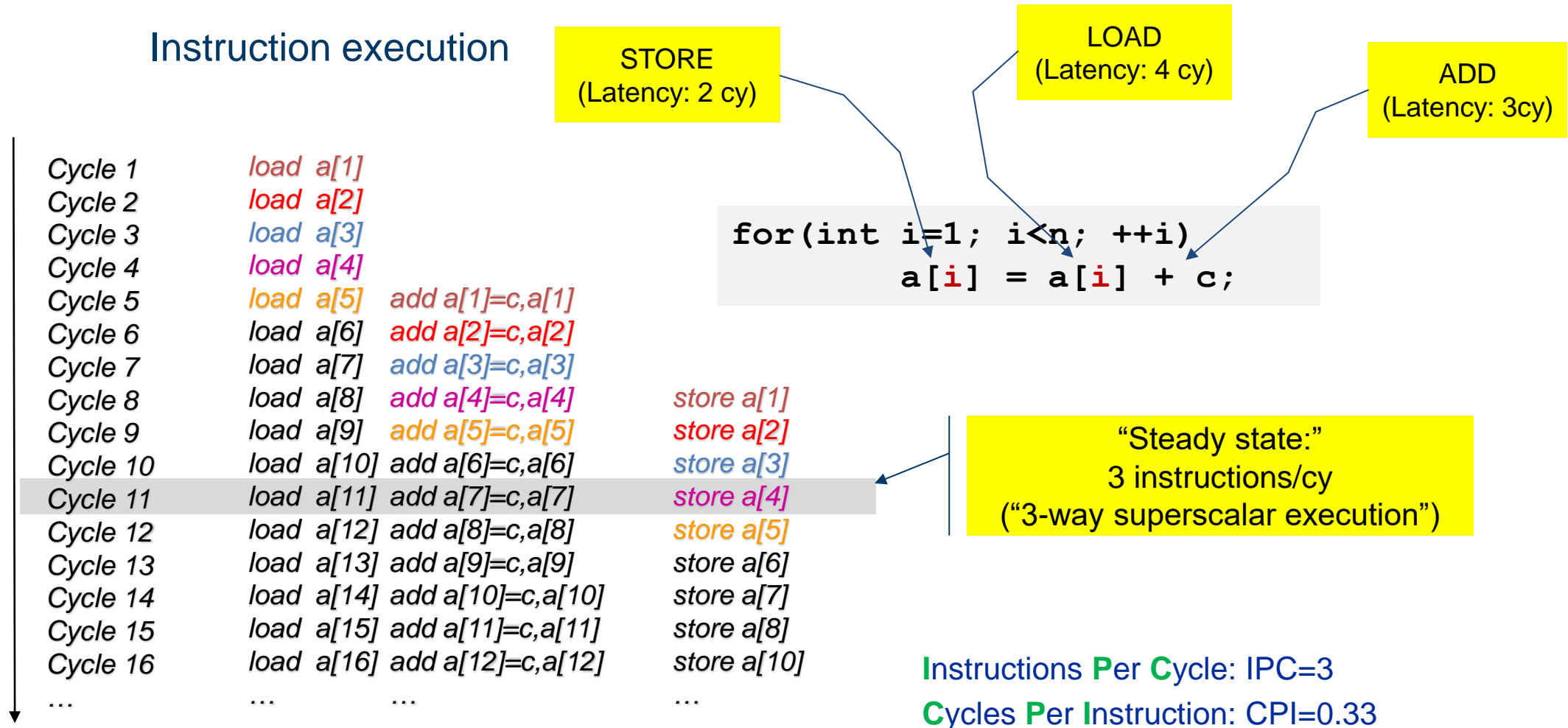|			
Cycle 1	load a[1]		
Cycle 2	load a[2]		
Cycle 3	load a[3]		
Cycle 4	load a[4]		
Cycle 5	load a[5]	add a[1]=c,a[1]	
Cycle 6	load a[6]	add a[2]=c,a[2]	
Cycle 7	load a[7]	add a[3]=c,a[3]	
Cycle 8	load a[8]	add a[4]=c,a[4]	store a[1]
Cycle 9	load a[9]	add a[5]=c,a[5]	store a[2]
Cycle 10	load a[10]	add a[6]=c,a[6]	store a[3]
Cycle 11	load a[11]	add a[7]=c,a[7]	store a[4]
Cycle 12	load a[12]	add a[8]=c,a[8]	store a[5]
Cycle 13	load a[13]	add a[9]=c,a[9]	store a[6]
Cycle 14	load a[14]	add a[10]=c,a[10]	store a[7]
Cycle 15	load a[15]	add a[11]=c,a[11]	store a[8]
Cycle 16	load a[16]	add a[12]=c,a[12]	store a[10]
…	…	…	…

"Steady state:"
3 instructions/cy
("3-way superscalar execution")

Instructions Per Cycle: IPC=3
**Cycles Per Instruction: CPI=0.33**

Hardware takes care of executing instructions as soon as their operands are available:
Out-Of-Order (OOO) execution

Simultaneous multi-threading (SMT)
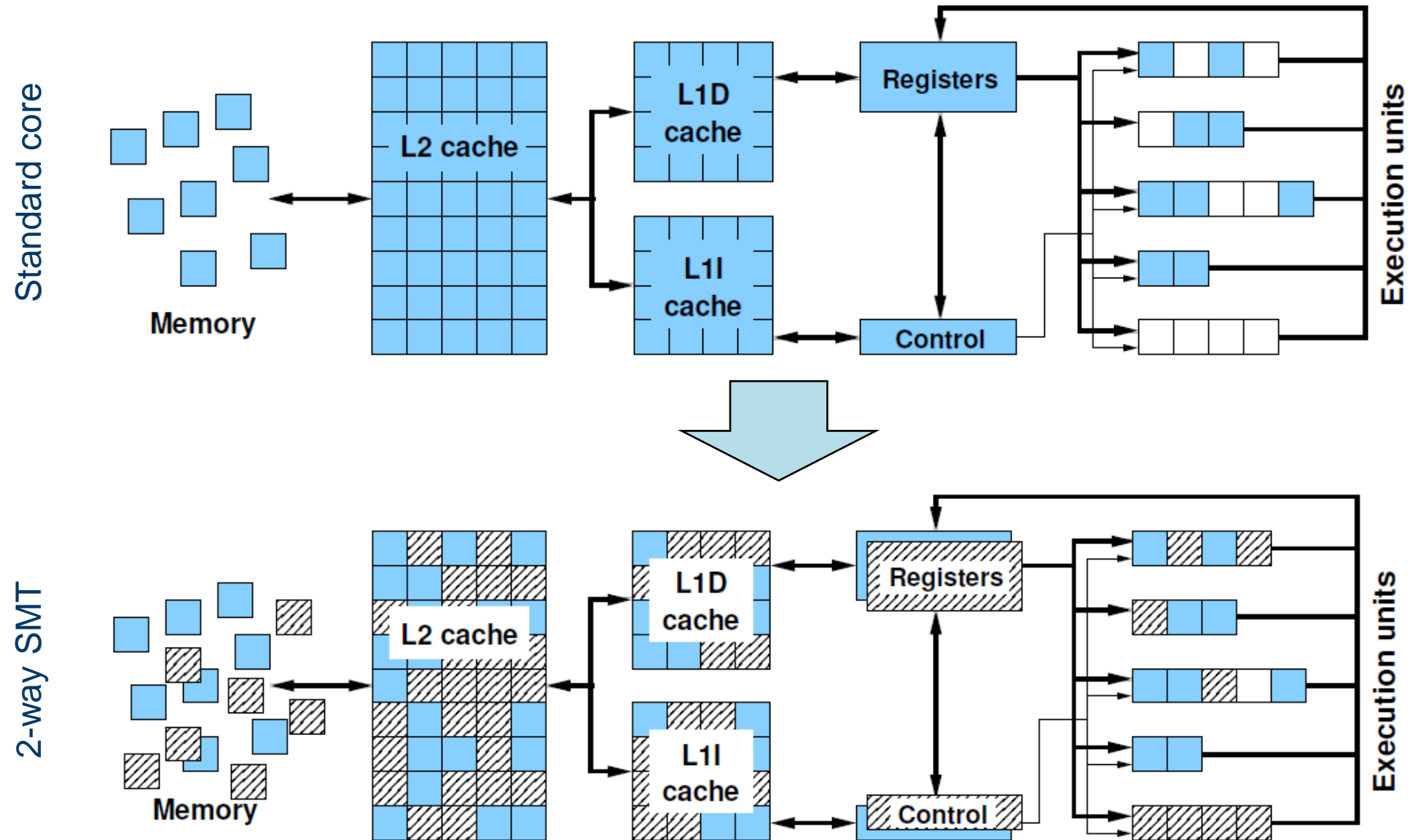
SIMD processing

- Single Instruction Multiple Data (SIMD) operations allow the execution of the same operation on "wide" registers from a single instruction

- x86 SIMD instruction sets:
    - SSE: register width = 128 Bit → 2 double precision floating point operands
    - AVX: register width = 256 Bit → 4 double precision floating point operands
    - AVX-512: … you guessed it!

- Adding two registers holding double precision floating point operands:

SIMD execution:
V64ADD [R0,R1] →R2

Scalar execution:
R2← **ADD** [R0,R1]
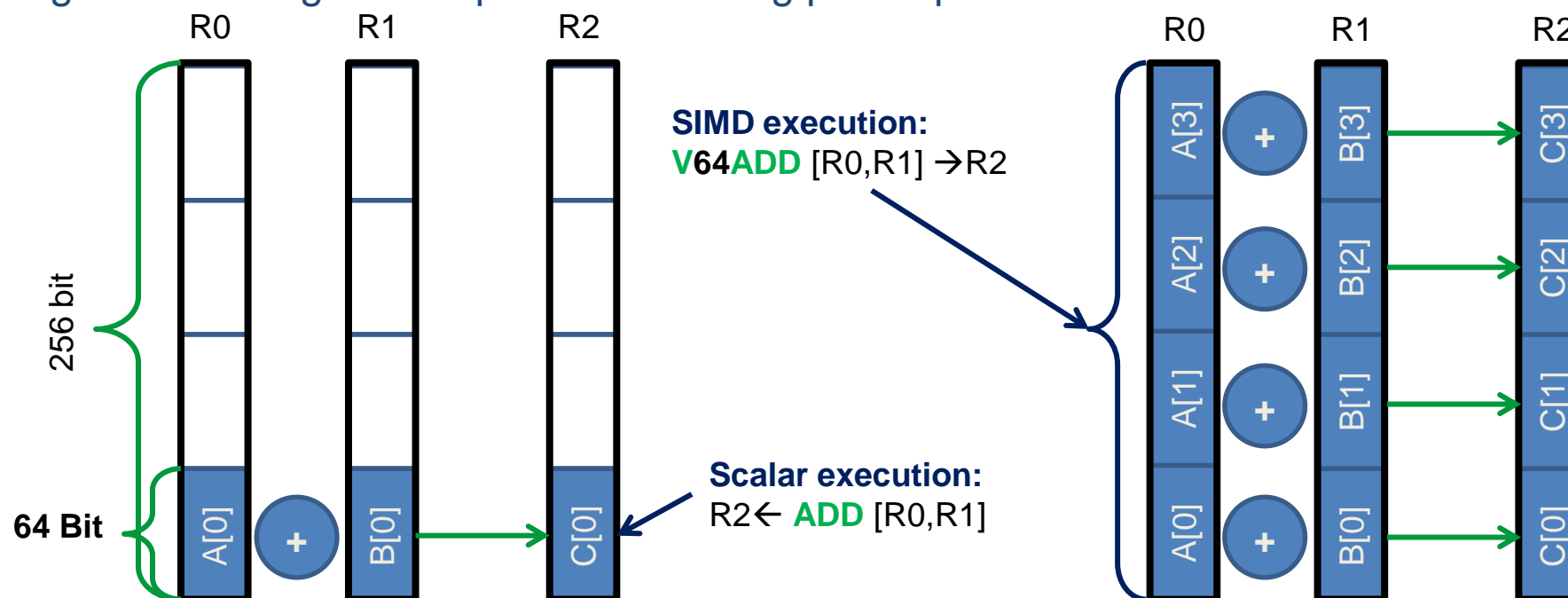
Single-core DP floating-point performance
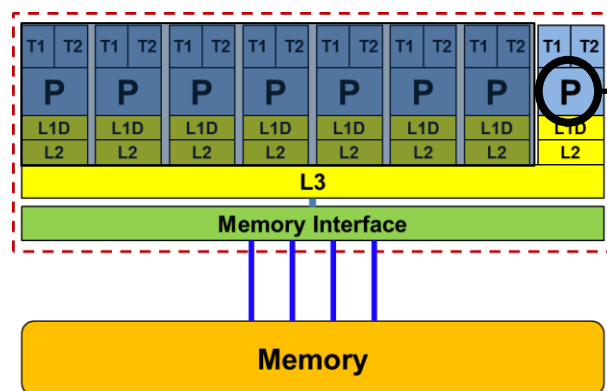
$$P_{core} = n_{super}^{FP} \cdot n_{FMA} \cdot n_{SIMD} \cdot f$$
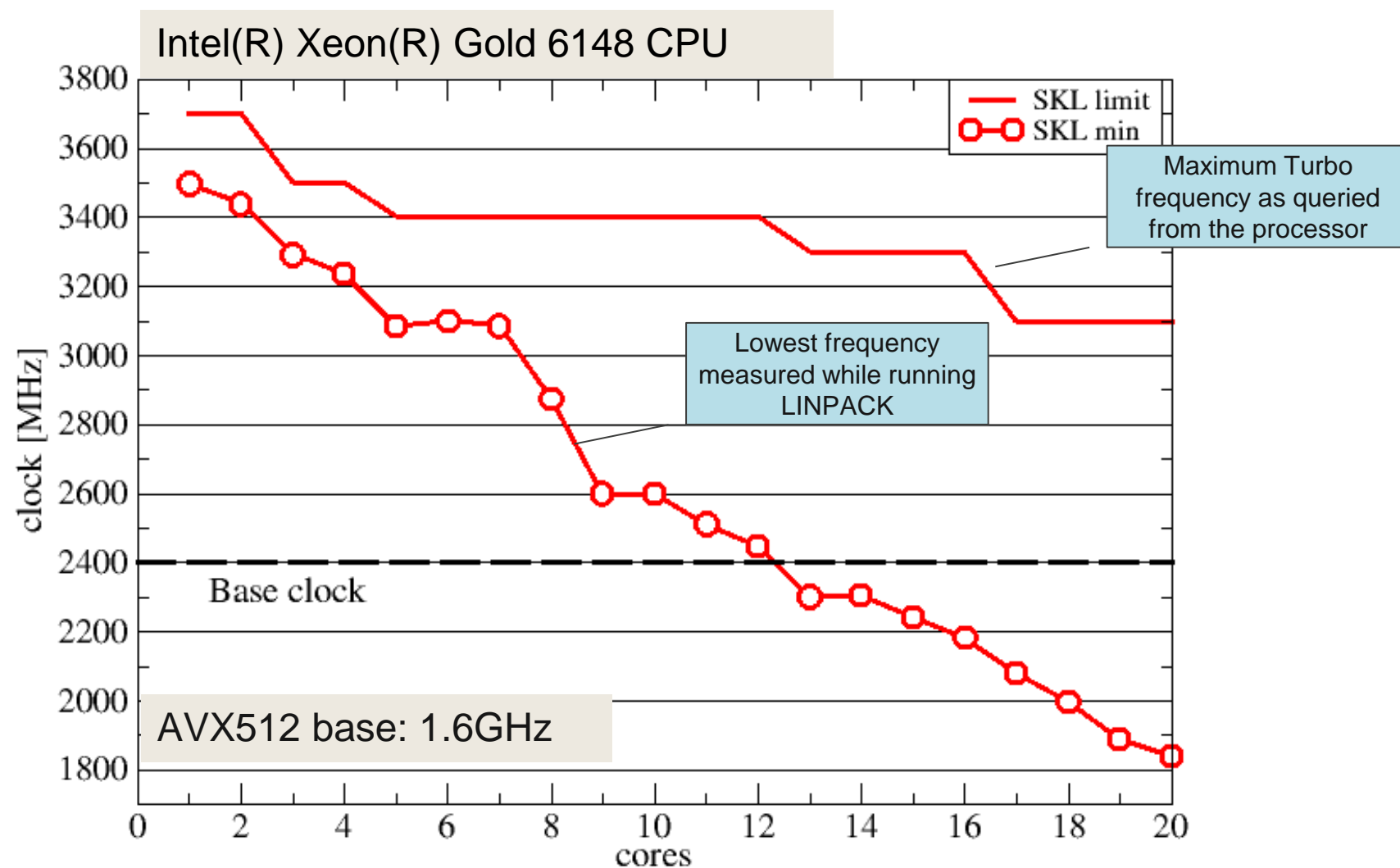
Super-scalarity · FMA factor · SIMD factor · Clock Speed

Name	n_{super}^{FP} [instr/cy]	n_{FMA} [flops/lane]	n_{SIMD} [lanes/instr]	Introd.	f [Gcy/s]	P_{core}^{DP} [Gflop/s]
Intel Westmere	2	1	2	Q1/10	2.66	10.6
Intel Ivy Bridge	2	1	4	Q3/13	2.2	17.6
IBM Power8	2	2	2	Q2/14	2.93	23.4
Intel Broadwell	2	2	4	Q1/16	2.3	36.8
Intel Knights Landing	2	2	8	Q2/16	1.3	41.6
Intel Skylake	2	2	8	Q3/17	2.4	76.8
AMD Zen 2 (Rome)	2	2	4	Q3/19	2.25	36.0
Fujitsu A64FX	2	2	8	Q2/20	2.2	70.4
AMD Zen 4 (Genoa)	2	2	4	Q3/22	2.4	38.4
Intel Sapphire Rapids	2	2	8	Q1/23	2.0	64.0
NVIDIA Grace	4	2	2	Q2/23	3.4	54.4

Multi-core today: Turbo mode

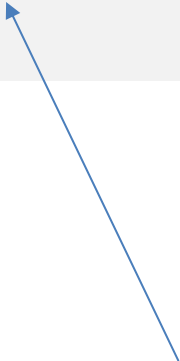The processor **dynamically** overclocks to exploit more of the **TDP** envelope if fewer cores are active

Intel(R) Xeon(R) Gold 6148 CPU

Maximum Turbo frequency as queried from the processor

Lowest frequency measured while running LINPACK

AVX512 base: 1.6GHz

Example: The sum reduction

A "simple" example: The sum reduction

```
for (int i=0; i<N; i++){
    sum += a[i];
}
```

…In single precision on an AVX-capable core (ADD latency = 3 cy)

How fast can this loop possibly run with data in the L1 cache?

- Loop-carried dependency on summation variable
- Execution stalls at every ADD until previous ADD is complete

→No pipelining?
→No SIMD?

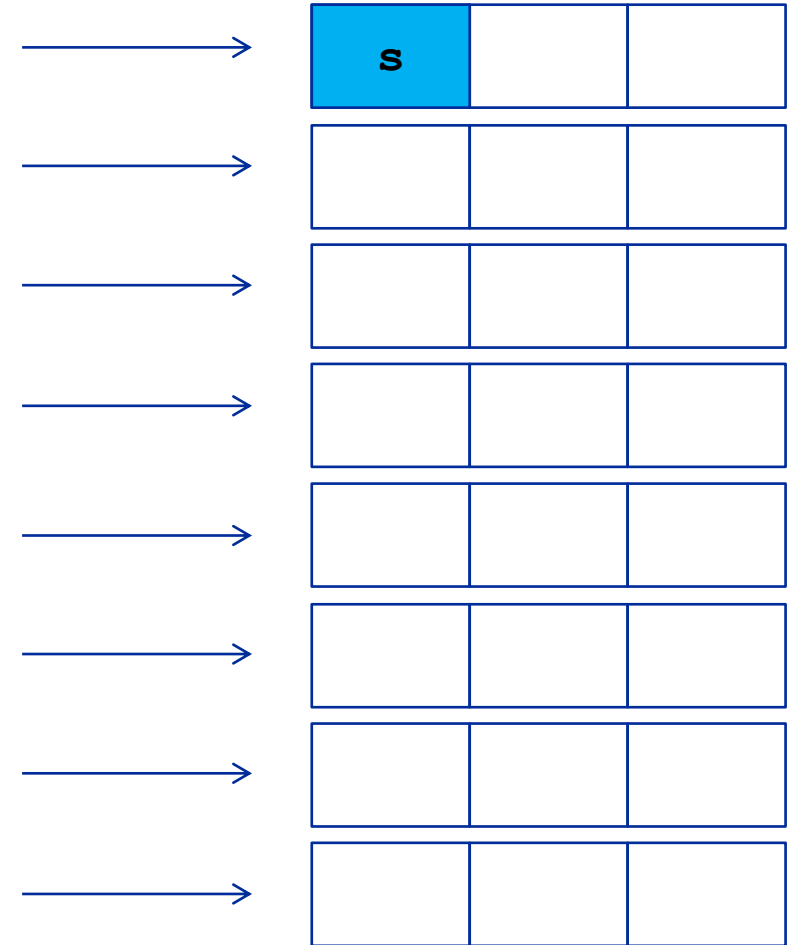# Applicable peak for the sum reduction (I)

Plain scalar code, no SIMD

ADD pipes utilization:

```
for (int i=0; i<N; i++){
    sum += a[i];
}
```

SIMD lane

```
LOAD r1.0 ← 0
i ← 1
loop:
  LOAD r2.0 ← a(i)
  ADD r1.0 ← r1.0 + r2.0
  ++i →? loop
result ← r1.0
```

SIMD lanes

→ 1/24 of ADD peak

Applicable peak for the sum reduction (II)

Scalar code, 3-way "modulo variable expansion"

```
LOAD r1.0 ← 0
LOAD r2.0 ← 0
LOAD r3.0 ← 0
i ← 1


loop:
  LOAD r4.0 ← a(i)
  LOAD r5.0 ← a(i+1)
  LOAD r6.0 ← a(i+2)

  ADD r1.0 ← r1.0 + r4.0   # scalar ADD
  ADD r2.0 ← r2.0 + r5.0   # scalar ADD
  ADD r3.0 ← r3.0 + r6.0   # scalar ADD


  i+=3 →? loop
result ← r1.0+r2.0+r3.0
```

```
for (int i=0; i<N; i+=3){
    s1 += a[i+0];
    s2 += a[i+1];
    s3 += a[i+2];
}
sum = sum + s1+s2+s3;
```

s1	s2	s3

→ **1/8 of ADD peak**

Applicable peak for the sum reduction (III)

SIMD vectorization (8-way MVE) x
         pipelining (3-way MVE)

```
for (int i=0; i<N; i+=24){
  s10 += a[i+0]; s20 += a[i+8];  s30 += a[i+16];
  s11 += a[i+1]; s21 += a[i+9];  s31 += a[i+17];
  s12 += a[i+2]; s22 += a[i+10]; s32 += a[i+18];
  s13 += a[i+3]; s23 += a[i+11]; s33 += a[i+19];
  s14 += a[i+4]; s24 += a[i+12]; s34 += a[i+20];
  s15 += a[i+5]; s25 += a[i+13]; s35 += a[i+21];
  s16 += a[i+6]; s26 += a[i+14]; s36 += a[i+22];
  s17 += a[i+7]; s27 += a[i+15]; s37 += a[i+23];
}
sum = sum + s10+s11+…+s37;
```

```
LOAD [r1.0,…,r1.7] ← [0,…,0]
LOAD [r2.0,…,r2.7] ← [0,…,0]
LOAD [r3.0,…,r3.7] ← [0,…,0]
i ← 1

loop:
  LOAD [r4.0,…,r4.7] ← [a(i),…,a(i+7)]      # SIMD LOAD
  LOAD [r5.0,…,r5.7] ← [a(i+8),…,a(i+15)]   # SIMD
  LOAD [r6.0,…,r6.7] ← [a(i+16),…,a(i+23)]  # SIMD

  ADD r1 ← r1 + r4  # SIMD ADD
  ADD r2 ← r2 + r5  # SIMD ADD
  ADD r3 ← r3 + r6  # SIMD ADD

  i+=24 →? loop
result ← r1.0+r1.1+...+r3.6+r3.7
```
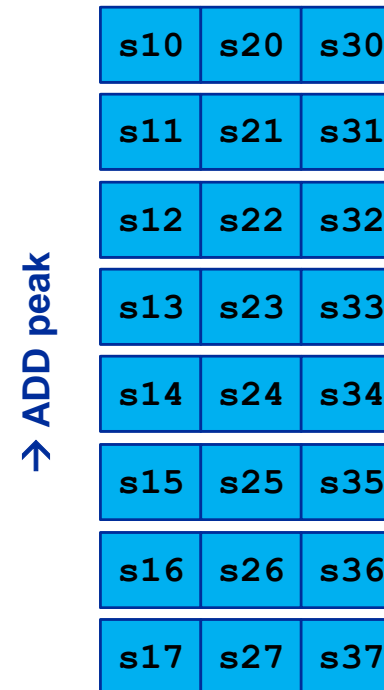
→ ADD peak

s10	s20	s30
s11	s21	s31
s12	s22	s32
s13	s23	s33
s14	s24	s34
s15	s25	s35
s16	s26	s36
s17	s27	s37

Sum reduction

Questions

- When can this performance actually be achieved?
  - No data transfer bottlenecks
  - No other in-core bottlenecks
    - Need to execute (3 LOADs + 3 ADDs + 1 increment + 1 compare + 1 branch) in 3 cycles

- What does the compiler do?
  - If allowed and capable, the compiler will do this automatically

- Is the compiler allowed to do this at all?
  - Not according to language standards
  - High optimization levels can violate language standards

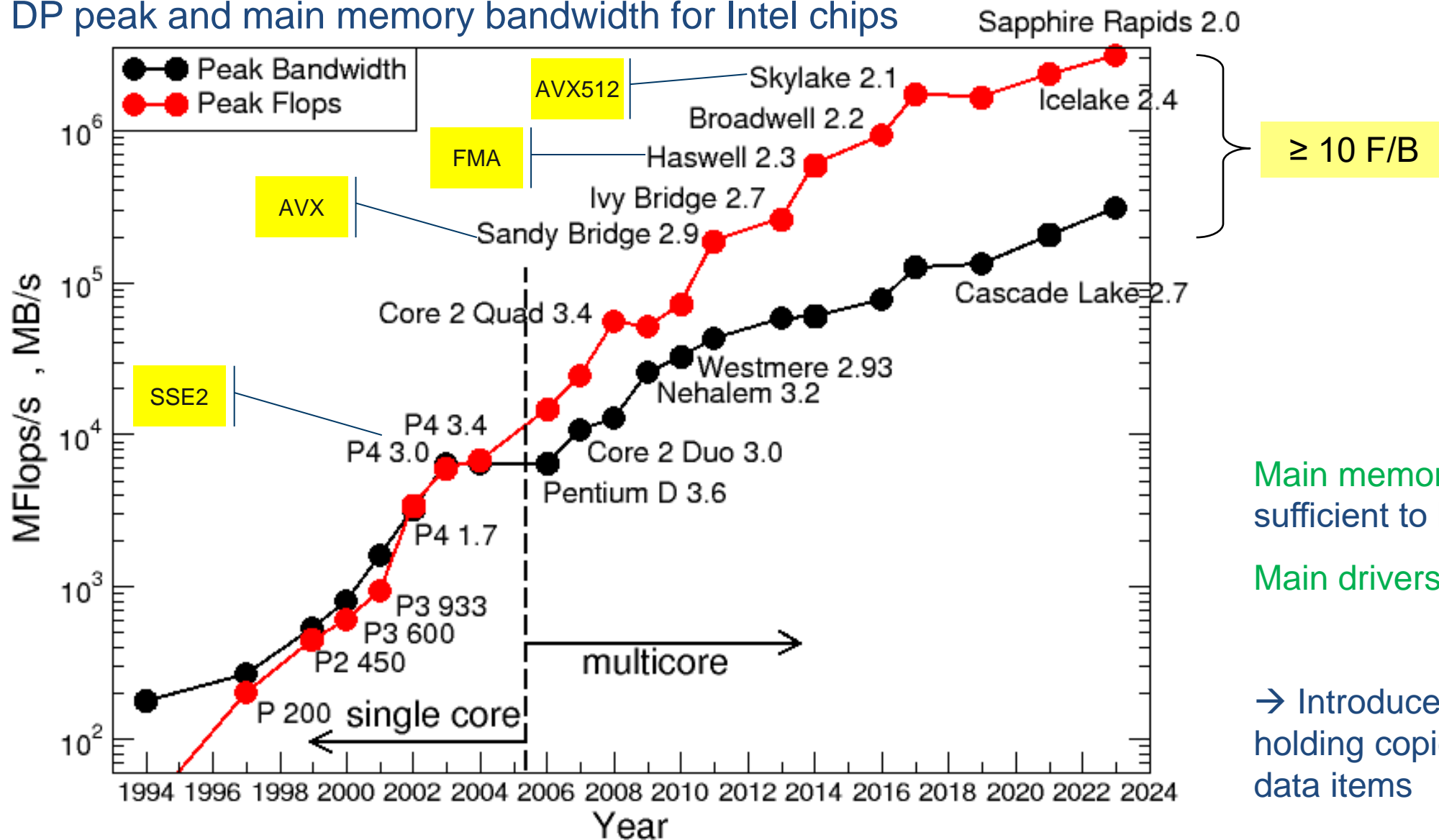- What about the "accuracy" of the result?
  - Good question ;-)

Memory Hierarchy

In-cache performance (L2, L3)

Main memory performance

Von Neumann bottleneck reloaded: "DRAM gap"
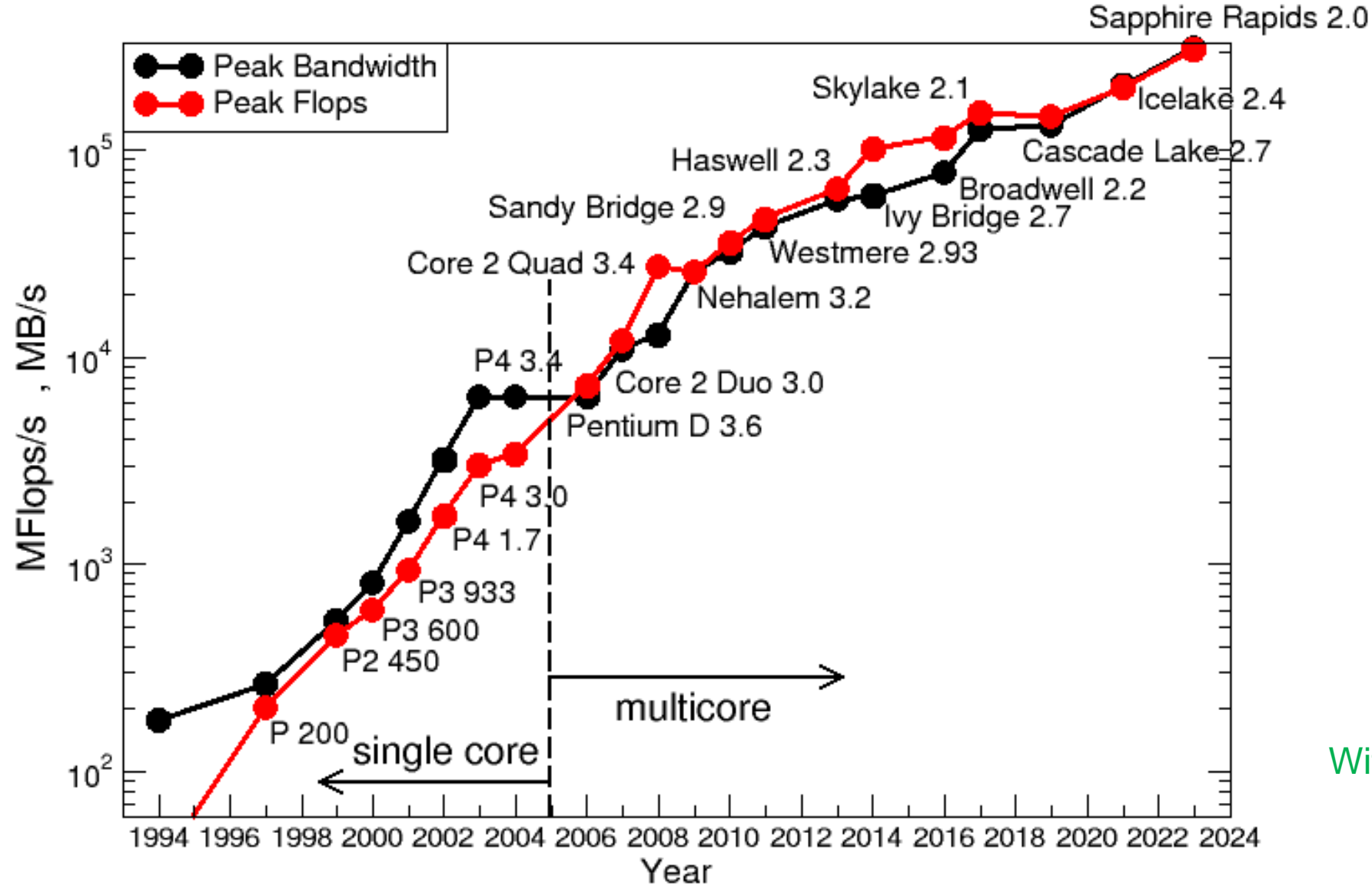
DP peak and main memory bandwidth for Intel chips

Main memory access speed not sufficient to keep CPU busy…

Main drivers of gap: SIMD, FMA

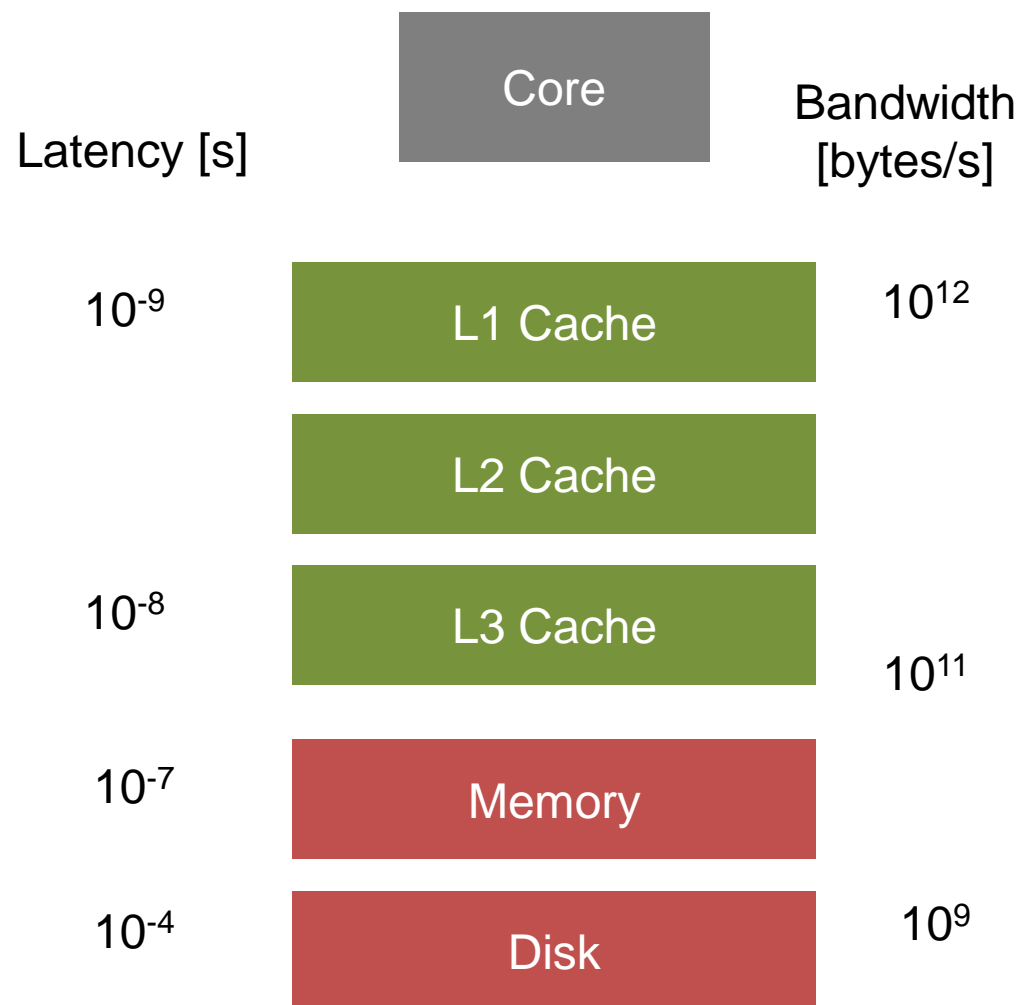→ Introduce fast on-chip caches, holding copies of recently used data items

The "stripped" von Neumann bottleneck

Memory hierarchy

You can either build a
small and fast memory
or a
large and slow memory

Latency [s]

Core

Bandwidth [bytes/s]

|		
10^{-9}	L1 Cache	10^{12}
	L2 Cache	
10^{-8}	L3 Cache	10^{11}
10^{-7}	Memory	
10^{-4}	Disk	10^{9}

Purpose of many optimizations: use data in fast memory

Data transfers in a memory hierarchy

Caches help with getting instructions and data to the CPU "fast"

How does data travel from memory to the CPU and back?

- Remember: Caches are organized in cache lines (e.g., 64 bytes)

- Only complete cache lines are transferred between memory hierarchy levels (except registers)

- Registers can only "talk" to the L1 cache

- MISS: Load or store instruction does not find the data in acache level
  → CL transfer required

- Example: Array copy `A(:)=C(:)`
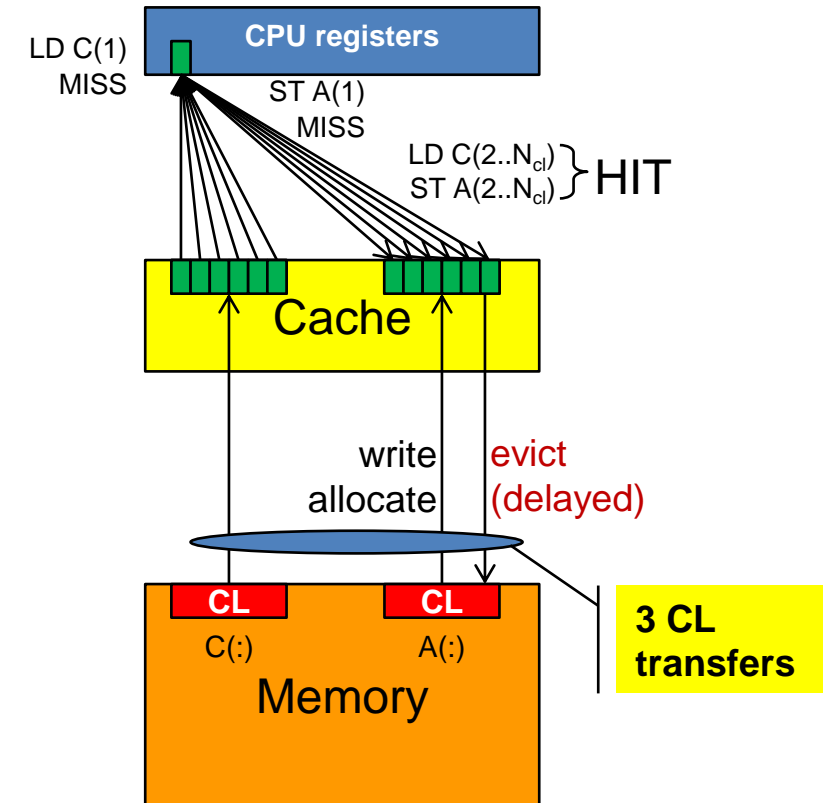
Avoiding the write-allocate transfer

Disadvantages of write-allocate:

- Cache pollution (if data not needed anytime soon)
- Additional data traffic

Solution 1:
Nontemporal stores

- A.k.a. "streaming stores," store instruction with a "nontemporal hint"
- Write "directly" to memory, ignoring the normal cache hierarchy
- Avoids cache pollution, but stored data ends up in memory

CPU registers

Cache

CL
Memory
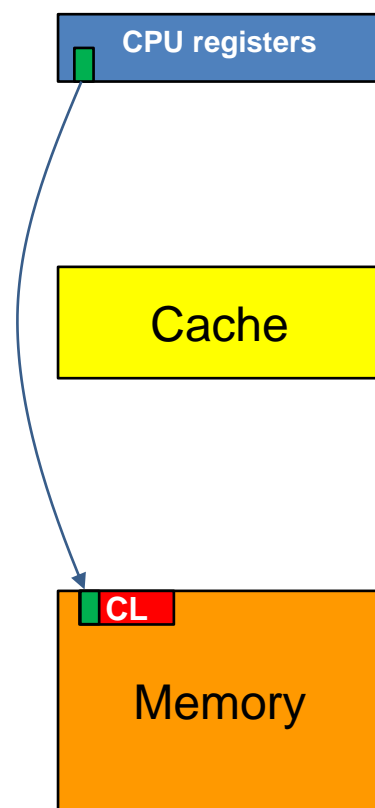
Solution 2:
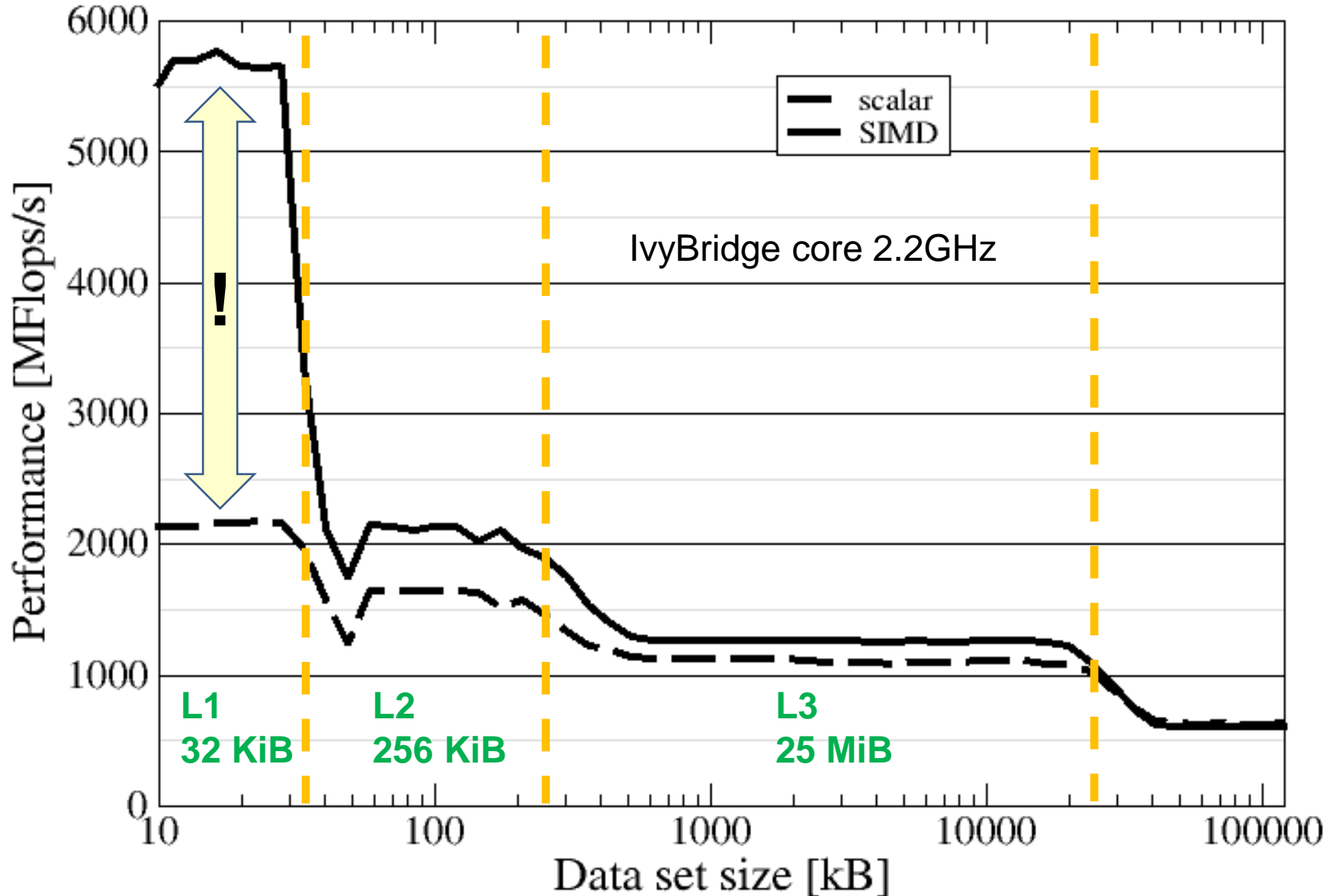Cache line claim

- Special instructions (e.g., on POWER, A64FX) or automatic in hardware (Arm, Intel Ice Lake)
- Core claims CL in some level when guranteed to be overwritten completely
- Allows stored data to remain in cache
  → does not reduce cache pollution

CPU registers
(1) ST miss
(3) Commit ST
(2) Claim CL (no WA)

Cache

CL
Memory
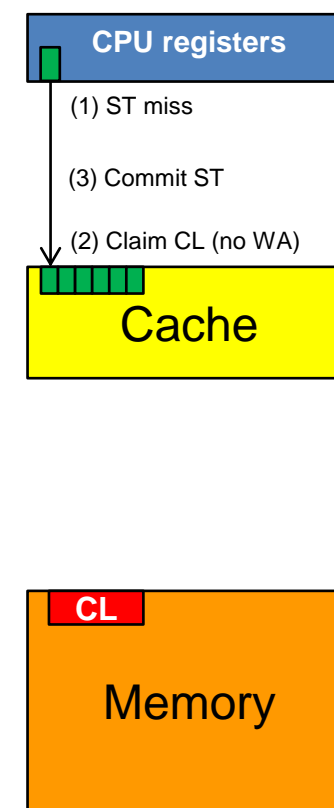
Getting the data from far away

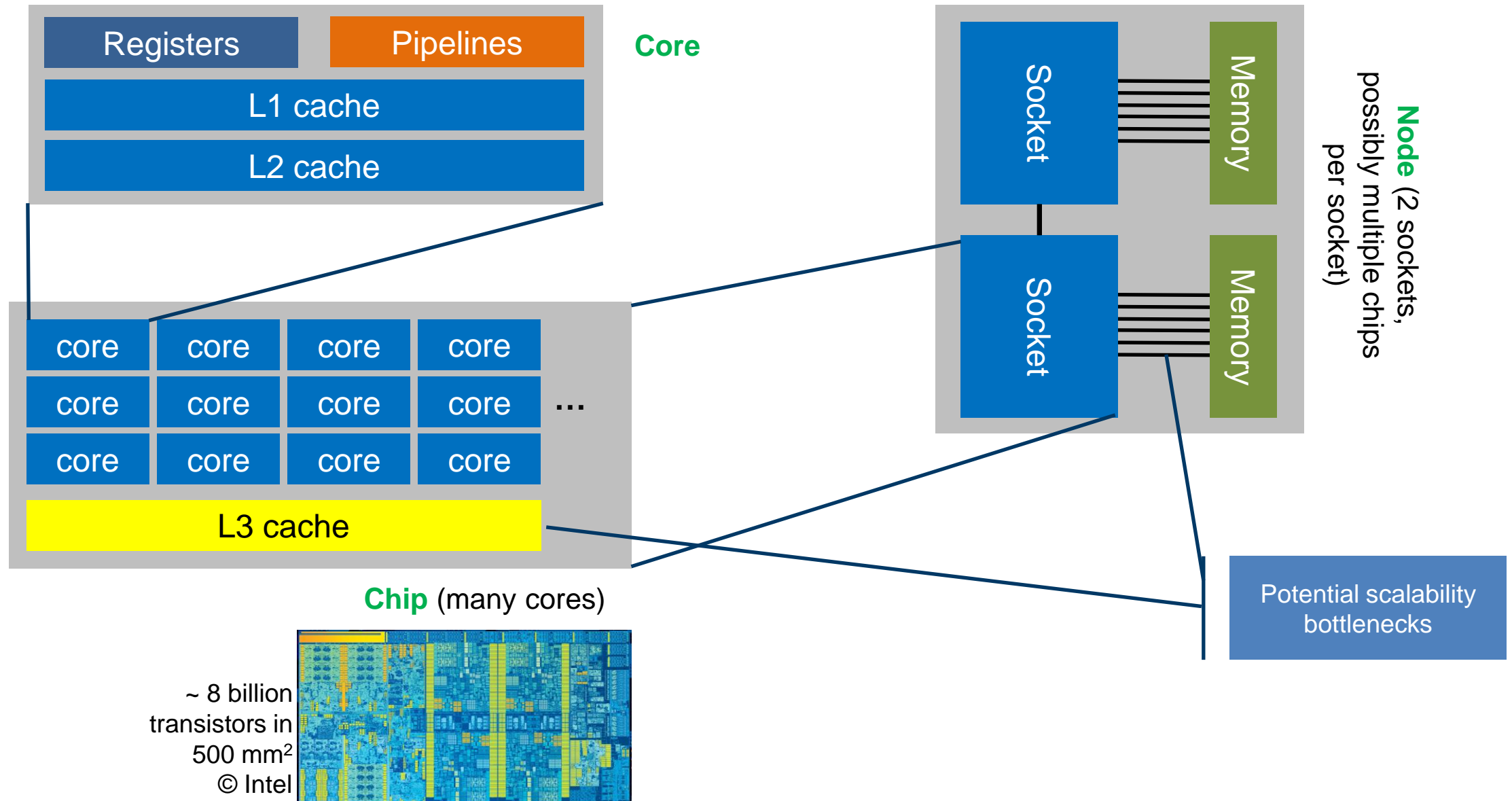

IvyBridge core 2.2GHz

```
A(:) = B(:) + C(:) * D(:)
```

Varying loop length,
repeat many times

Multicore Chips

Memory bandwidth scaling

Node topology and performance

# Node topology of HPC systems

Registers **Pipelines** **Core**

L1 cache

L2 cache

core	core	core	core
core	core	core	core
core	core	core	core

...

L3 cache

Chip (many cores)

~ 8 billion transistors in 500 mm^2 © Intel

Socket

Socket

Memory

Memory

Node (2 sockets, possibly multiple chips per socket)

Potential scalability bottlenecks

Putting the cores & caches together
AMD Epyc 7742 64-Core Processor («Rome»)

- Core features:
  - Two-way SMT
  - Two 256-bit SIMD FMA units (AVX2) → 16 flops/cycle
  - 32 KiB L1 data cache per core
  - 512 KiB L2 cache per core

- 64 cores per socket hierarchically built up from
  - 16 CCX with 4 cores and 16 MiB of L3 cache
  - 2 CCX form 1 CCD (silicon die)
  - 8 CCDs connected to IO device "Infinity Fabric" (memory controller & PCIe)

- 8 channels of DDR4-3200 per IO device
  - MemBW: 8 ch x 8 byte x 3.2 GHz = 204.8 GB/s

- ccNUMA feature (boot time option):
 - Nodes Per Socket (NPS)=1 , 2 or 4
  - **NPS=4 → 4 ccNUMA domains**

Socket
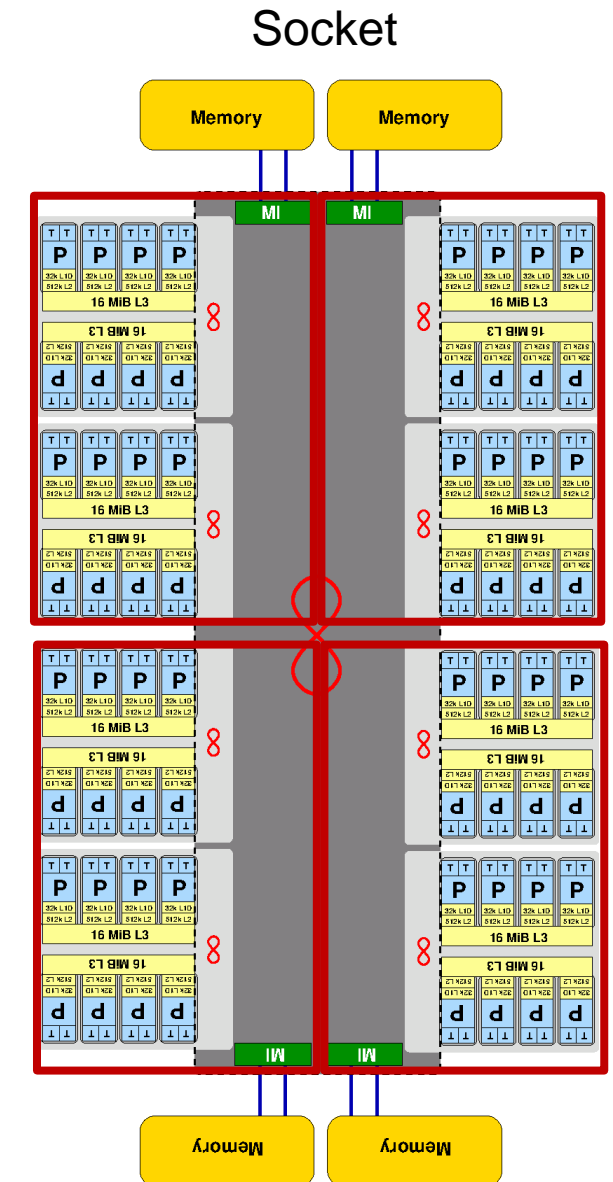
Adding accelerators to the node

PCIe

CPU 0

CPU 1

Memory

accelerator

die

core

hyper-thread
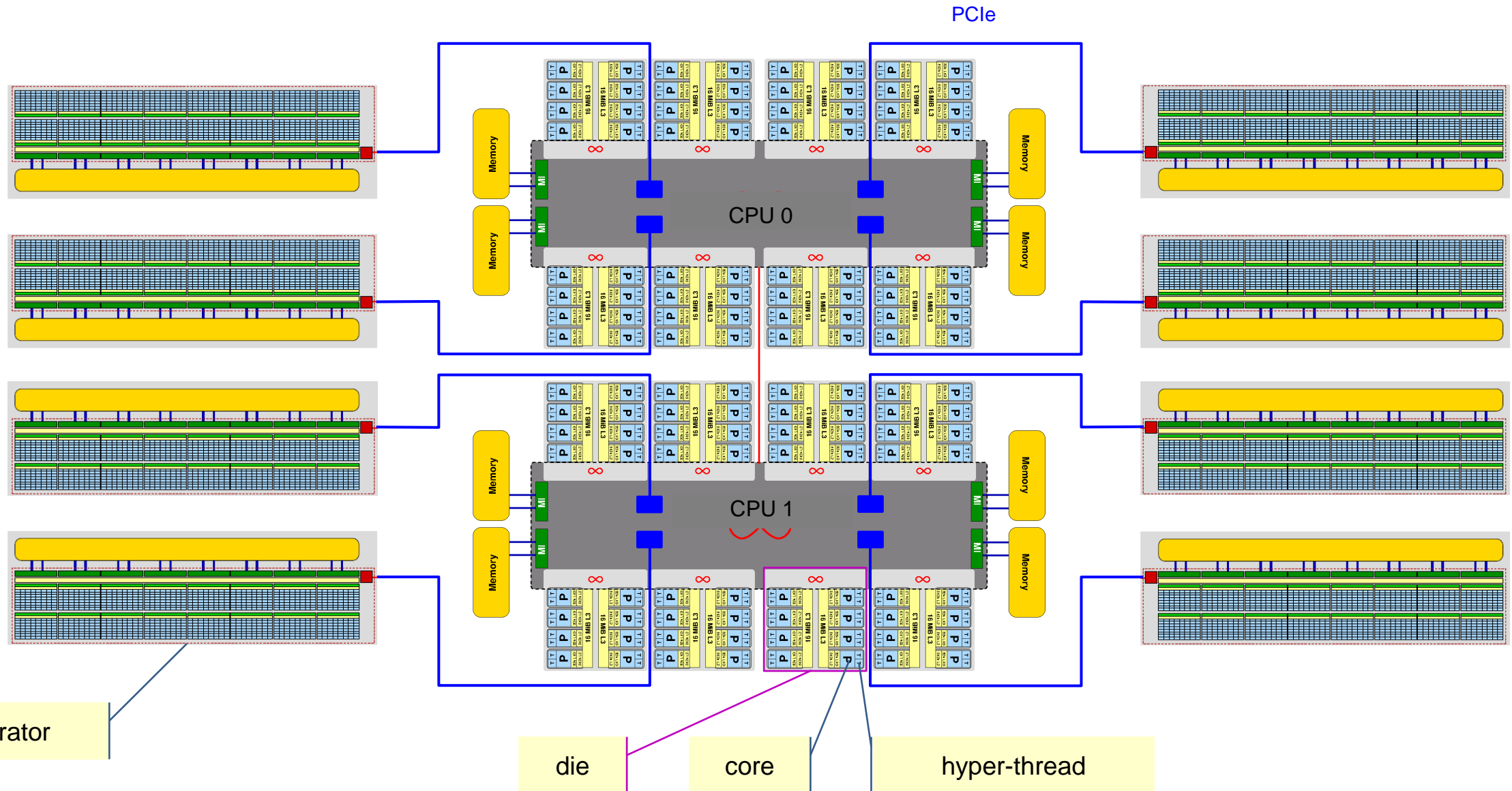
Scalable and saturating behavior

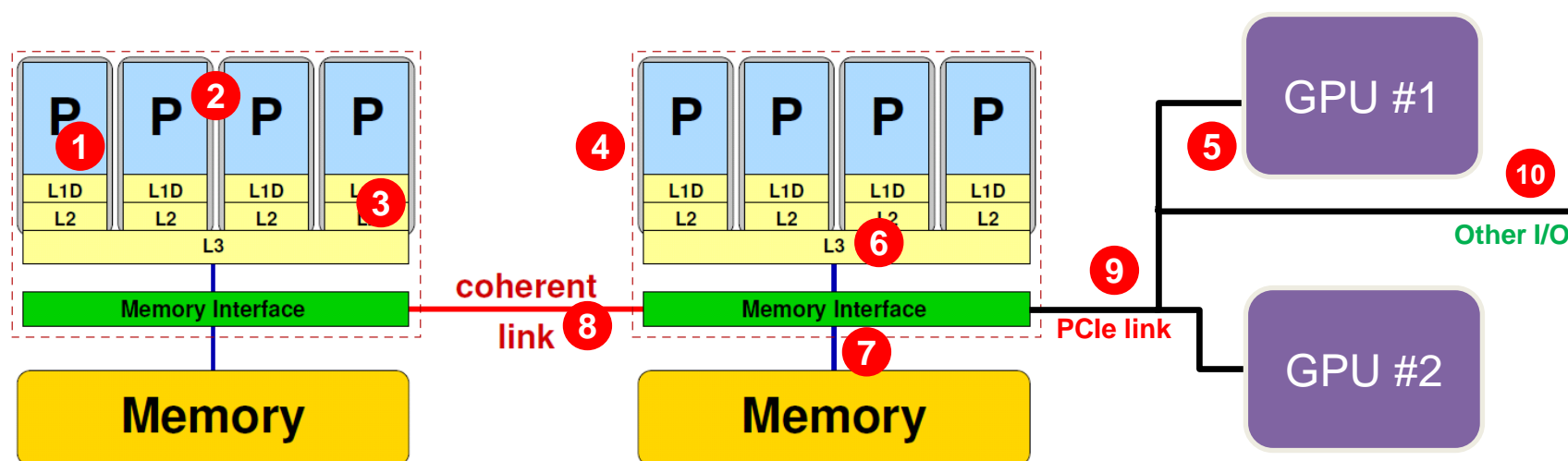Clearly distinguish between "**saturating**" and "**scalable**" performance on the chip level

One of the most important performance signatures

shared resources *may* show saturating performance

parallel resources show scalable performance
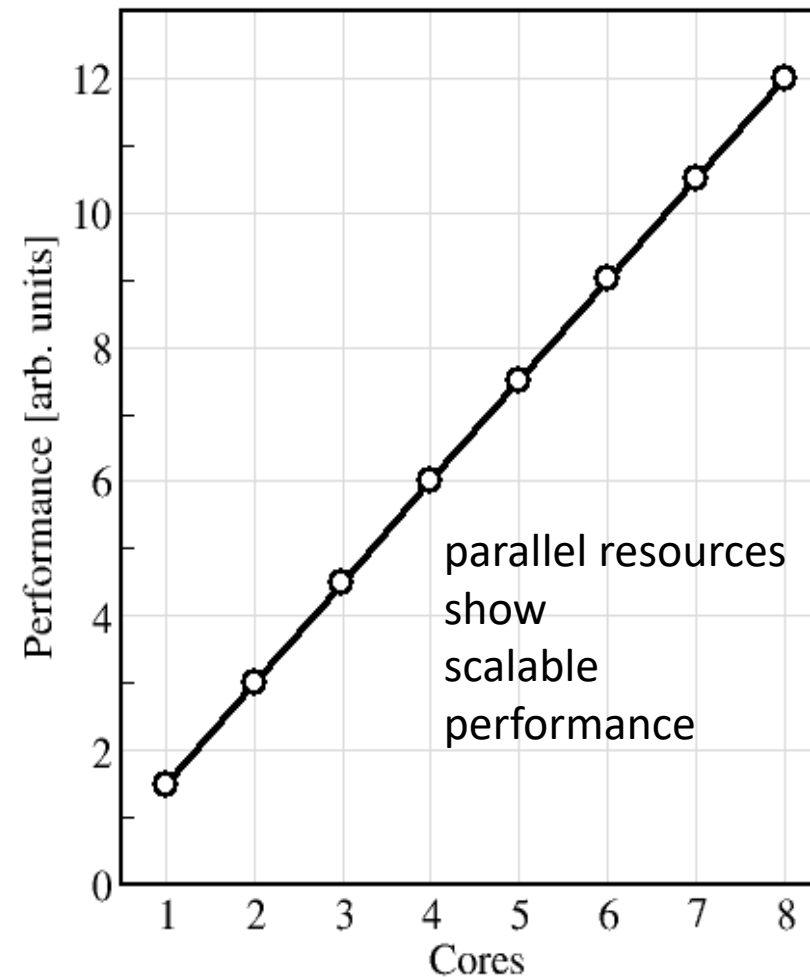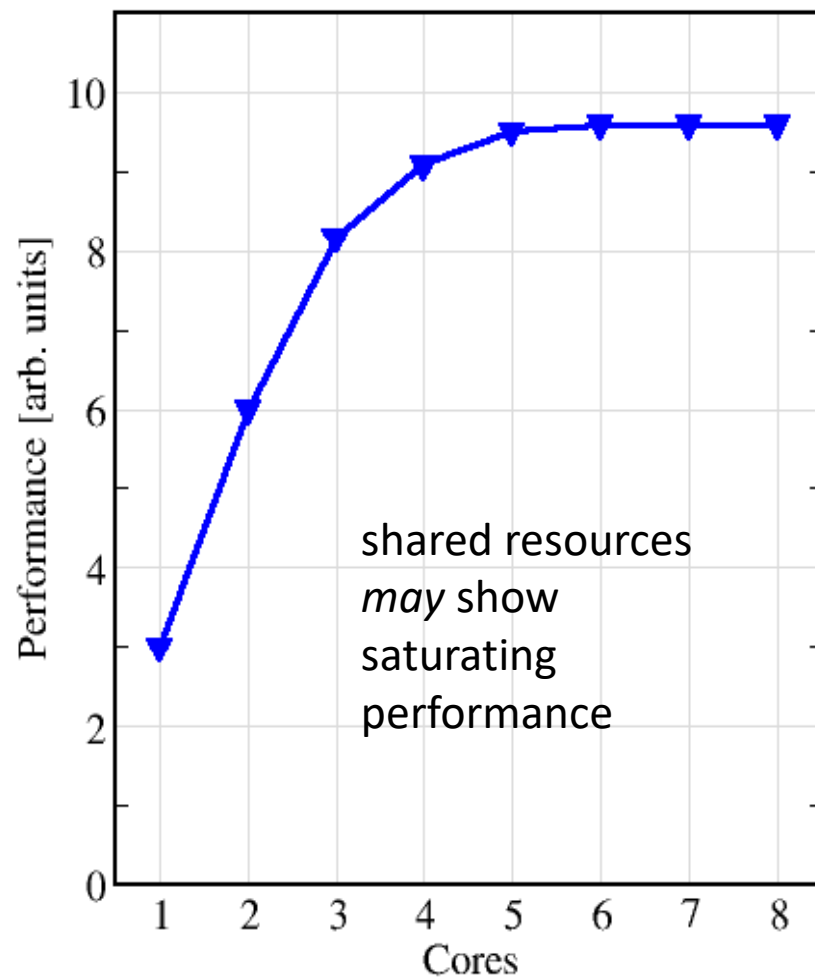
Parallelism in a modern compute node

Parallel and shared resources within a shared-memory node

Parallel resources:

- Execution/SIMD units ①
- Cores ②
- Inner cache levels ③
- Sockets / ccNUMA domains ④
- Multiple accelerators ⑤

Shared resources:

- Outer cache level per socket ⑥
- Memory bus per socket ⑦
- Intersocket link ⑧
- PCIe bus(es) ⑨
- Other I/O resources ⑩

How does your application react to all of those details?

Interlude:
# A glance at accelerator technology

NVIDIA "Hopper" H100

vs.

AMD Zen4 "Genoa"

Nvidia H100 "Hopper" SXM5 (700 W) specs

Architecture

© Nvidia

- 80 B Transistors
- ~ 2.0 GHz clock speed (turbo)
- ~ 132 "SM" units
  - 128 SP "cores" each (FMA)
  - 64 DP "cores" each (FMA)
  - 4 "Tensor Cores" each
  - 2:1 SP:DP performance

- ~ 34 TFlop/s DP peak (FP64 - turbo)
- 50 MiB L2 Cache

- 80 GB HBM3
- MemBW ~ 3300 GB/s (theoretical)
- MemBW ~ 3000 GB/s (measured)
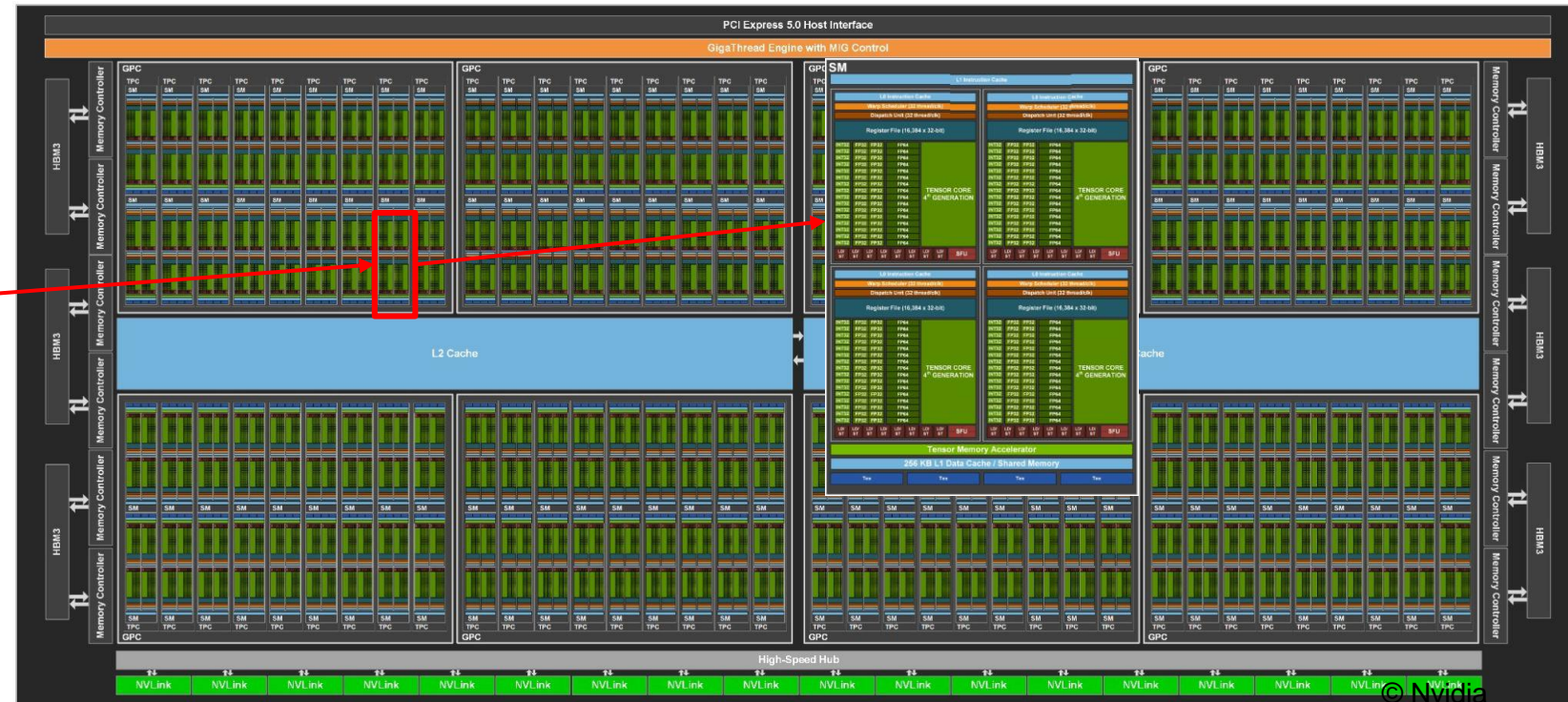
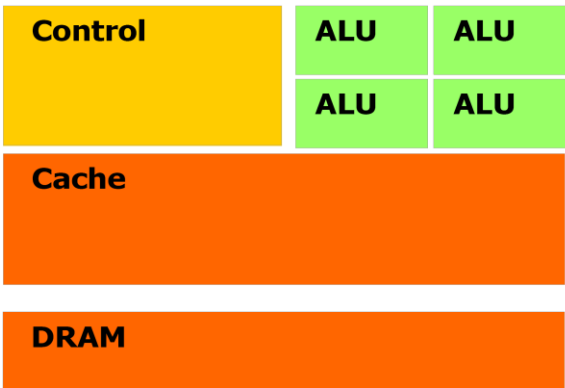$$P_{peak}^{DP} = n_{SM} \cdot n_{core} \cdot n_{FP} \cdot f$$
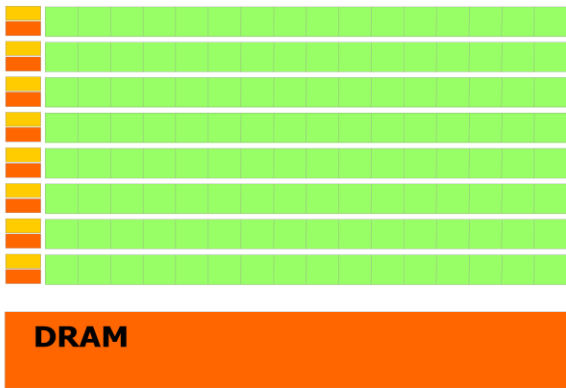
SMs   # CUDA cores/SM   # FP ops/cy

$$n_{SM} = 132$$
$$n_{core} = 64$$
$$n_{FP} = 2 \frac{flops}{cy}$$
$$f = 2.0 \frac{Gcy}{s}$$

Trading single thread performance for parallelism:
GPGPUs vs. CPUs

GPU vs. CPU
light speed estimate
(per processor chip)

|	2 x AMD EPYC 9654 "Genoa"	NVidia Tesla H100 SXM "Hopper"
Cores@Clock	2 x 96 @ 2.4 GHz	132 SMs @ ~2.0 GHz
FP32 Performance/core	76.8 GFlop/s	~ 256 GFlop/s
Threads@STREAM	~ 24	~ 100000
FP32 peak	14.7 TFlop/s	~ 67 TFlop/s
Stream BW (meas.)	2 x 360 GB/s	~ 3000 GB/s
Transistors / TDP	~ 2x 80 (?) Billion / 2x 360 W	80 Billion/700 W

Node topology and programming models

Parallel programming models: Pure MPI

- **Machine structure is invisible to user:**
  - → Very simple programming model
 - → MPI "knows what to do"!?
- **Performance issues**
  - Intranode vs. internode MPI
  - Node/system topology
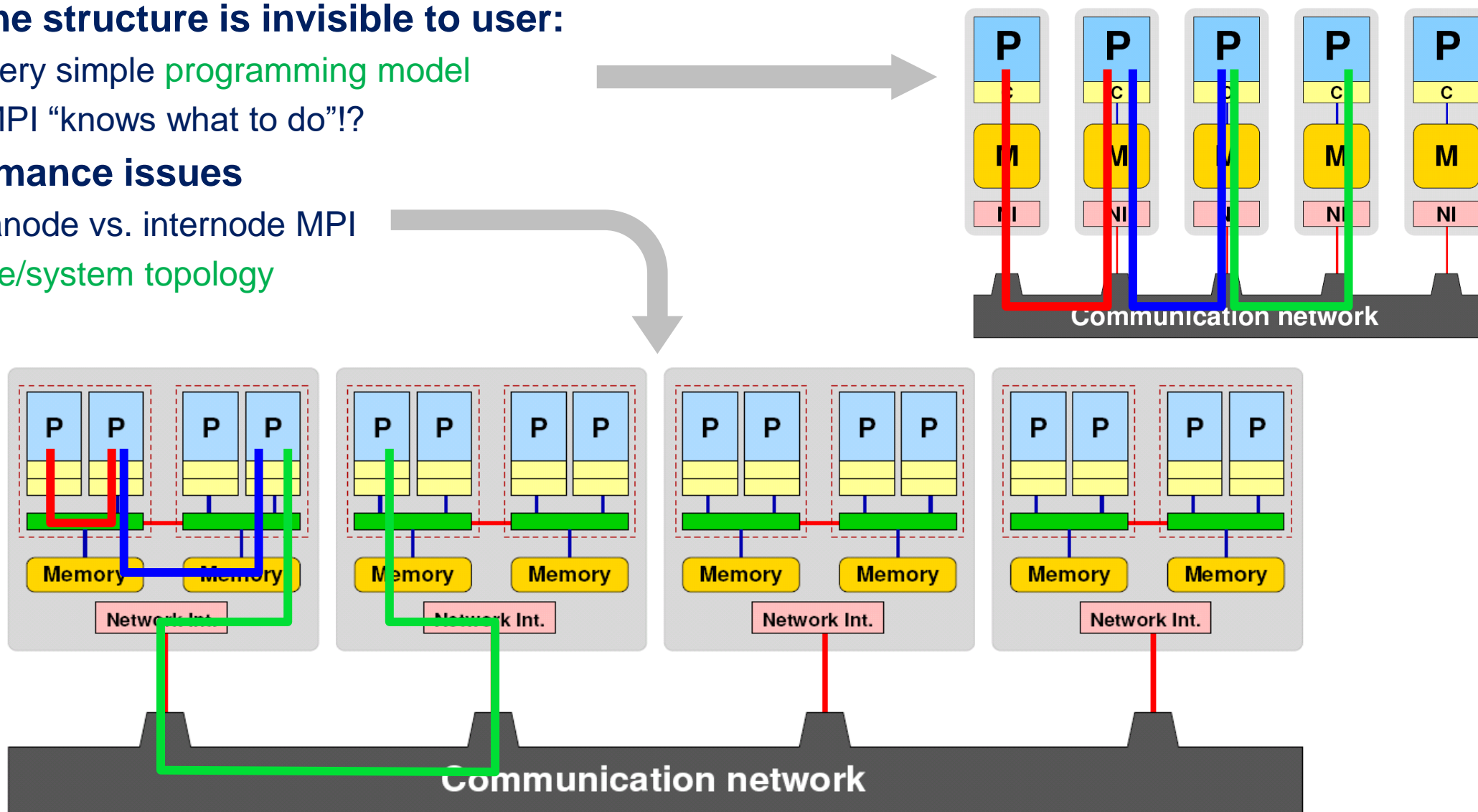
Parallel programming models: Pure threading

- **Machine structure is invisible to user**
  - Very simple programming model
  - Threading SW (OpenMP, pthreads, TBB,…) "should" know about the details
  - OpenMP 4++: some support
  - Performance issues
  - Synchronization overhead
  - Memory access
  - Node topology
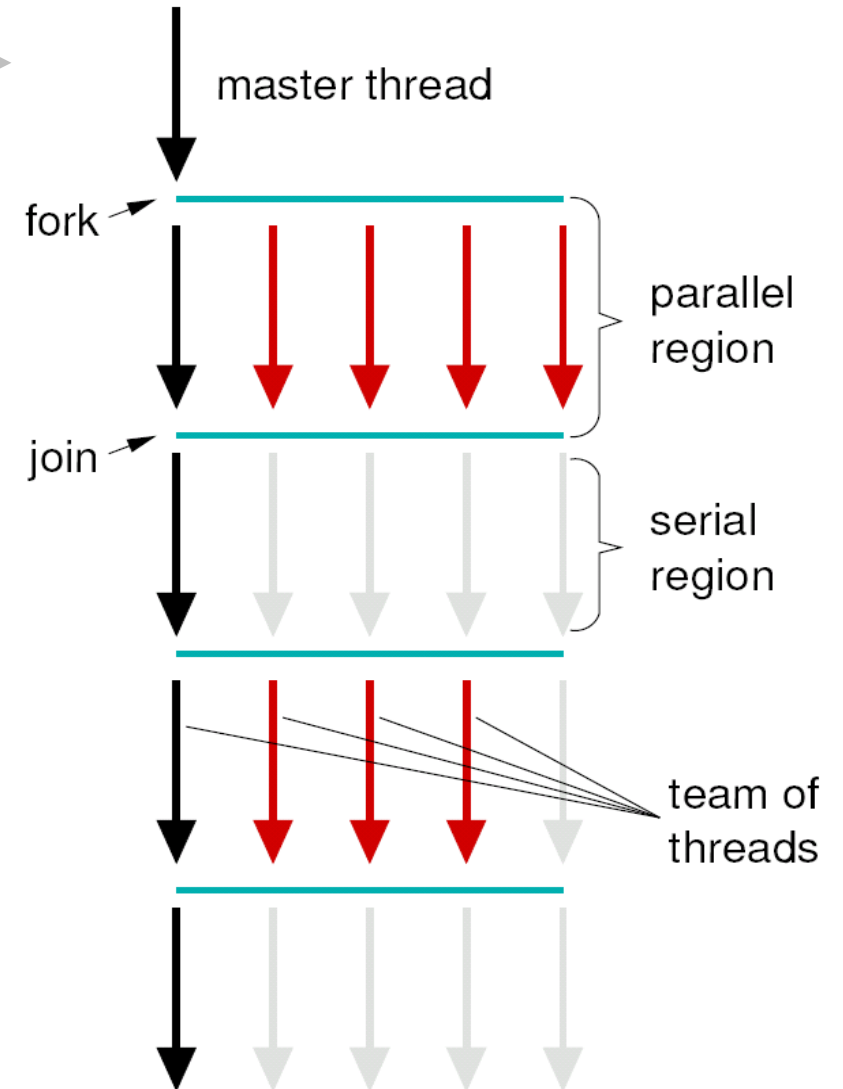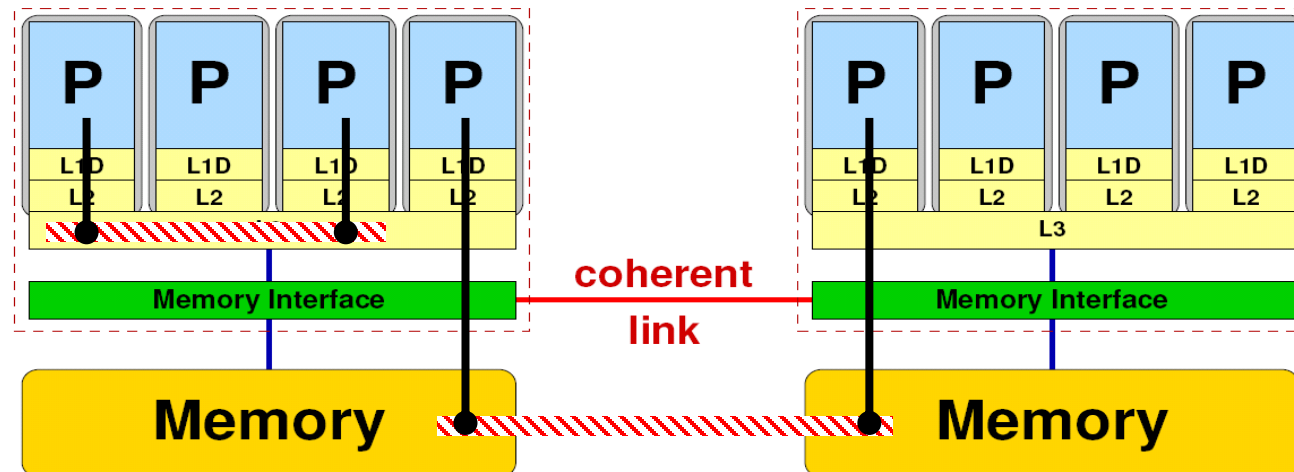
Conclusions about architecture

- Performance is a result of
  - How **many instructions** you require to implement an algorithm
  - How **efficiently** those instructions are **executed** on a processor
  - Runtime contribution of the triggered **data transfers**

- Modern computer architecture has a rich "topology"

- Node-level hardware parallelism takes many forms

  - Sockets/devices – CPU: 1-4 or more, GPGPU: 1-8
  - Cores – moderate (CPU: 20-128, GPGPU: 10-100)
  - SIMD – moderate (CPU: 2-16) to massive (GPGPU: 10's-100's)
  - Superscalarity (CPU: 2-6)

- Performance of programs is sensitive to architecture
  - Topology/affinity influences overheads of popular programming models
  - Standards do not contain (many) topology-aware features
    - Things are starting to improve slowly (MPI 3.0, OpenMP 4.0)
  - Apart from overheads, performance features are largely independent of the programming model