1) IBM Fabrication
2) Reneseeas: big/little
3) Reducing AMD power with gating
4) Flash on DDR4
Metal Oxide Semiconductor Field-Effect Transistor:

- **Gate Length, L_g**
- **Source**
- **Drain**
- **Si substrate**
- **Gate Oxide Thickness, T_{ox}**

**Drain Current** (log scale)
- **I_{ON}**
- **I_{OFF}**
- Inverse slope is subthreshold swing S

- **0**
- **V_T**
- **V_{dd}**

**Gate Voltage**
Digital Processors Limited by Power; What's The Upside?

(Targeted News Service Via Acquire Media NewsEdge) WASHINGTON, Aug. 14 -- The U.S. Department of Defense's Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency issued the following news release: Today's Defense missions rely on a massive amount of sensor data collected by intelligence, surveillance and reconnaissance (ISR) platforms. Not only has the volume of sensor data increased exponentially, there has also been a dramatic increase in the complexity of analysis required for applications such as target identification and tracking. The digital processors used for ISR data analysis are limited by power requirements, potentially limiting the speed and type of data analysis that can be done. A new, ultra-low power processing method may enable faster, mission critical analysis of ISR data.
Chapter 5: Multiprocessors

High-Performance Computer Architecture

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Chapter Outline

• Introduction
• Parallel Computers
• Shared-Memory Programming
• Synchronization
• Cache Coherence
Introduction

• Growth in data-intensive applications.
  – Data bases, file servers, …

• Growing interest in servers, server performance.

• Increasing desktop performance less important.
  – Outside of graphics

• Improved understanding in how to use multiprocessors effectively.
  – Especially servers where significant natural TLP

• Advantage of leveraging design investment by replication => CMPs or Multicores.
  – Rather than unique design
Another Reason
Limit to Processor Performance

- Complexity of exploiting ILP.
  - Difficult to support large instruction window and number of in-flight instructions.

- On-chip wires are becoming slower than logic gates.
  - Only a fraction of the die will be reachable within a single clock cycle.

- Cooling and packaging will be a real challenge due to heat release.

- Memory and processor performance gap will continue to be a challenge.
Each technology generation, gate delay reduced about 30% (src: ITRS '01)
Multicores are Coming
Already Here!

AMD Opteron
Dual Core

Intel Montecito
1.7 Billion transistors
Dual Core IA/64

Intel Tanglewood
Dual Core IA/64

Intel Pentium D
(Smithfield)

Intel Tanglewood
Dual Core IA/64

Intel Pentium Extreme
3.2GHz Dual Core

Intel Dempsey
Dual Core Xeon

Intel Yonah
Dual Core Mobile

AMD Opteron
Dual Core

Sun Olympus and Niagara
8 Processor Cores

IBM Cell
Scalable Multicore

IBM Power 4 and 5
Dual Cores Since 2001

IBM Power 6
Dual Core

Chapter 5: Multiprocessors
SS, MT, SMT, & MP

SuperScalar  Fine-Grained  Coarse-Grained  Simultaneous Multithreading  Multiprocessing

Thread 1  Thread 2  Thread 3  Thread 4  Thread 5  Idle slot
What is a Multicore?

Traditional Multiprocessor

Basic Multicore IBM Power5
3rd Generation Intel® Core™ Processor: 22nm Process

New architecture with shared cache delivering more performance and energy efficiency

Quad Core die with Intel® HD Graphics 4000 shown above
Transistor count: 1.4Billion  Die size: 160mm²

**Cache is shared across all 4 cores and processor graphics**
Inside the SCC

Dual-core SCDC Tile

- 24 Tiles
- 24 Routers
- 48 IA cores

**Router**

**1 Tile**

**Memory Controller**

- 2D mesh network with 256 GB/s bisection bandwidth
- 4 Integrated DDR3 memory controllers (64GB addressable)
Knights Corner
Figure 3: nVIDIA's Echelon Architecture
Why Move to Multicores

• Many issues with scaling a unicores
  – Power
  – Efficiency
  – Complexity
  – Wire Delay
  – Diminishing returns from optimizing a single instruction stream
Impact of Multicores

• How much data can be communicated between two cores?

• What changed?
  – Number of Wires
    • I/O is the true bottleneck
    • On-chip wire density is very high
  – Clock rate
    • I/O is slower than on-chip
  – Multiplexing
    • No sharing of pins

• Impact on programming model?
  – Massive data exchange is possible
  – Data movement is not the bottleneck
    • Locality is not that important
Impact of Multicores

- How long does it take for a round trip communication?
- What changed?
  - Length of wire
    - Very short wires are faster
  - Pipeline stages
    - No multiplexing
    - On-chip is much closer
- Impact on programming model?
  - Ultra-fast synchronization
  - Can run real-time apps on multiple cores

Chapter 5: Multiprocessors
Chapter Outline

• Introduction
• Parallel Computers
  • Shared-Memory Programming
  • Synchronization
  • Cache Coherence
Parallel Computers

• “A parallel computer is a collection of processing elements that *cooperate* and *communicate* to solve large problems fast.”
• Taxonomy of parallel computers:

![Parallel Architectures Diagram]

Chapter 5: Multiprocessors
Shared-Memory Multiprocessors
Issues in Multiprocessors

- **Programming**
  - Need to explicitly define parallelism

- **Hardware**
  - Interconnection
    - Bus
    - Network
  - Synchronization
    - Test-and-set
    - Barrier synchronization
    - Fetch and add
  - Cache Coherence
    - Snoopy protocols
    - Directory-based
Chapter Outline

- Introduction
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Shared-Memory Programming

- Many vendors have implemented their own proprietary versions of threads.
- A standardized C language threads programming interface, POSIX Threads or Pthreads
- Threaded applications offer potential performance gains and practical advantages:
  - Overlapping CPU work with I/O
  - Priority/real-time scheduling
  - Asynchronous event handling
  - Parallelization on SMPs
- Pthreads provide Over 60 routines for
  - Thread management - thread create, join, schedule, etc.
  - Mutexes - mutual exclusion
  - Conditional variables - provides communication between threads
Chapter 5: Multiprocessors

Threads

Unix Process

Threads within a process
Thread Creation

```c
main()
{
    for (i=0; i<=n; i++)
        pthread_create(&thread_id[i], NULL, f, (void *)&args[i]);
    ...
    for (i=0; i<=n; i++)
        pthread_join(thread_id[i], NULL);
}

void *f(void *param)
{
    ...
do something
    ...
}
```

Chapter 5: Multiprocessors 33
Matrix Multiply

Simple Multi-threaded matrix multiplication
compile with cc -mt -xO3 -D_SOLARIS_2 thmm.c -lpthread
or
cc -mt -xO3 -xtarget=ultra2 -xcache=16/32/1:4096/64/1 -D_SOLARIS_2
-xunroll=4 thmm.c -lpthread
***************************************************************************/

#include <stdio.h>
#include <pthread.h>
#include <sys/time.h>
#ifdef _SOLARIS_2
#include <thread.h>
#endif
#define N 500
#define NTHREADS 100
int jmax = N/NTHREADS;
/* function prototypes */
void* matMult( void* );
/* global matrix data */
double a[N][N], b[N][N], c[N][N];
int count=0;

void main( void )
{
    pthread_t thr[NTHREADS];
    int i, j;

    #ifdef _SOLARIS_2
    thr_setconcurrency(NTHREADS);
    #endif

    for( i = 0; i < NTHREADS; ++i ) {
        pthread_create(&thr[i], NULL, matmult, (void*)i);
    }
    for( i = 0; i < NTHREADS; ++i ) {
        pthread_join(thr[i], NULL);
    }
}

void* matmult(void* thread_id)
{
    int i, j, k;
    int offset, column;
    offset = jmax*(int)thread_id;

    for(j = 0; j < jmax; j++) {
        column = j+offset;
        for(i = 0; i < N; i++) {
            for(k = 0; k < N; k++) {
                c[i][column] = c[i][column] + a[i][k]*b[k][column];
            }
        }
    }
    return NULL;
}
Matrix Multiply

```c
void* matmult(void* thread_id)
{
    int i, j, k;
    int offset, column;
    offset = jmax*(int)thread_id;
    for(j = 0; j < jmax; j++) {
        column = j+offset;
        for(i = 0; i < N; i++) {
            for(k = 0; k < N; k++) {
                c[i][column] = c[i][column] + a[i][k]*b[k][column];
            }
        }
    }
    return NULL;
}
```

Chapter 5: Multiprocessors
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Synchronization

- Synchronization enforces correct sequencing of processors and ensures mutually exclusive access to shared writable data.
  - Sequence control
  - Access control
Sequence Control

• Ensures correct timing among cooperating threads/processes.
  – e.g., barrier synchronization

```
A
  ↓
B1  B2  ···  Bn
  ↓  ↓  ···  ↓
  |  |  ···  |
  |  |  ···  |
  Barrier
  ↓
C
  ↓
```
/* Savings to checking transfer */

struct account {
    int checking;
    int savings;
};

void
savings_to_checking(struct account *ap, int amount)
{
    ap->savings -= amount;
    ap->checking += amount;
}

int
total_balance(struct account *ap)
{
    int balance;
    balance = ap->checking + ap->saving;
    return balance;
}

Thread 1
ap->savings -= amount;
balance = ap->checking + ap->saving;
ap->checking += amount
return balance; Wrong balance!

Thread 2

Race conditions

Critical Section

Requires **mutual exclusion** between saving_to_checking and total_balance
Pthreads Synchronization

- Need a synchronization variable allocated in memory.
  - Lock/unlock
- All threads need to check the synchronization variable.
  - If in use, wait until it becomes available.
- Pthread uses mutexes (mutual exclusions):
  - Creating and destroying a mutex
    - `pthread_mutex_t mutex = PTHREAD_MUTEX_INITIALIZER;`
    - `int pthread_mutex_init`
    - `int pthread_mutex_destroy`
  - Locking and unlocking a mutex
    - `int pthread_mutex_lock`
    - `int pthread_mutex_unlock`
/* Savings to checking transfer */

struct account {
    int checking;
    int savings;
};

pthread_mutex_t lock = PTHREAD_MUTEX_INITIALIZER;

void savings_to_checking(struct account *ap, int amount) {
    pthread_mutex_lock(&lock);
    ap->savings -= amount;
    ap->checking += amount;
    pthread_mutex_unlock(&lock);
}

int total_balance(struct account *ap) {
    int balance;
    pthread_mutex_lock(&lock);
    balance = ap->checking + ap->saving;
    pthread_mutex_unlock(&lock);
    return balance;
}
Synchronization Primitives

• `pthread_mutex_lock` and `unlock` are high-level function calls.

• At some point within these calls, `lock` has to be read-test/modify-write atomically.

• Older (CISC-based) multiprocessors provided synchronization primitives:
  – Test-and-Set
  – Fetch-and-Add
  – Compare-and-Swap
  – Exchange (x86)
Test-and-Set

- Test-and-Set serializes access to a CS by forcing only one of several threads trying to access the CS. A thread is allowed to enter the CS only if Test-and-Set observes that lock = 0.

Test-and-Set(lock)
{  temp ← lock;
  lock ← 1;
  return temp}

/* Example code */
loop:  lock=Test-and-Set(lock)
    if lock==1 then goto loop
{      Critical Section
}
Reset(lock){lock ← 0}
Fetch-and-Add

• Fetch-and-Add is more power than Test-and-Set in the sense that it allows arbitrary number of threads to share a counter. Each thread after executing Fetch-and-Add will acquire a unique number, which can then be used in number of different ways.

```plaintext
Fetch-and-Add(x, a)
{
    temp ← x;
    x ← temp + a;
    return temp
}
```

/* Example code */
count = 1;
while (count <= n) {
    count = fetch&add(i, 1);
    if (count <= n)
        {/* execute iteration i of the loop */}
}
Hardware Support for Sync

- Modern processors are RISC-based.
  - RISC ISAs do not allow read-test/modify-write operations to be performed in a single instruction.
  - Need to provide special instructions.
  - Exception: x86 (uses xchg)

- Solution: A pair of special load and store instructions.
  - MIPS: `ll` (load-linked or load-locked) and `sc` (store-conditional)
  - PowerPC: `lwarx` (load word and reserve indexed) and `stwcx`. (store word conditional indexed)
MIPS Support for Sync

- MIPS processor provides LL-SC pair:
  - **ll** (load-linked or load-locked) - Loads a value and stores the address of the value in a *link register*. If an interrupt occurs (e.g., context switch), or if the cache block matching the address in the link register is invalidated (e.g., by another sc), the link register is cleared.
  - **sc** (store-conditional) - Stores a value only if address matches the address in the link register, and is valid. Returns 1 if it succeeds and 0 otherwise.
MIPS Support for Sync

; Example of Test-and-Set implementation
lockit:  ll   R2, 0(R1)     ; load-linked
         bnez R2, lockit    ; not available => spin
         daddui R2, R0, #1  ; locked value
         sc   R2, 0(R1)     ; conditional store
         beqz R2, lockit    ; branch if SC fails

; Example of Fetch-and-Add implementation
try:    ll   R2, 0(R1)     ; load-linked
        addi R3, R2, #1   ; increment
        sc   R23, 0(R1)   ; store conditional
        beqz R3, try      ; branch if store fails
MIPS Support for Sync

- Example: A parallel loop of $n$ iterations

```c
count = 1;
while (count <= n){
    count=fetch&add(i,1);
    if(count <= n)
        { /* execute iteration i of the loop */}
}
```

- Since the store comes after another store, the reservation is no longer intact therefore store fails.
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Cache-Coherence Problem

Sharing of Writable Data

Write-through

Write-back
Cache-Coherence Problem

Process Migration

Write-back

Write-through
I/O devices, such as DMA, will access memory directly. However, for this to work, I/O must read memory after it is written back.
Cache Coherence for Write-Through

- All processors monitor (snoop) the bus for writes.
- Diagram is based on *no-write allocate* policy, where writes update the memory and update the block only if it is present and in the valid state. The other option is *write-allocate*.
- If a write is made, an invalidate signal is generated on the bus, and other cache that have this block are invalidated (called *write-invalidate protocol*).
CC for Write-Back: MSI Protocol

States
- Invalid (I)
- Shared (S): one or more
- Dirty or Modified (M)

Processor Events:
- PrRd (read)
- PrWr (write)

Bus Transactions
- BusRd: Request for a copy with no intent to modify
- BusRdX: Request for a copy with intent to modify. Invalidates all other blocks.
- BusWB: Updates memory

Misc.
- Flush: Cache writes block on bus. Memory and requesting cache both pickup the block.
CC for Write-Back: MSI Protocol

Some Issues:

- Flush requires \textit{cache-to-cache transfer}, i.e., both memory and the requesting cache pick up the block.
- Writing into a shared block (S $\rightarrow$ M): Uses \texttt{BusRdX} to acquire exclusive ownership. But, the read block from MM (or another cache) can be ignored since the block is already in the cache (S state). To reduce traffic on the bus, a new transaction, called \textit{bus upgrade} or \texttt{BusUpgr}, can be used which simply invalidates other copies but does not cause MM (or another cache) to respond with the data for the block.
- When a processor reads in and modifies a data item (read followed by a write), two bus transactions are generated. First is \texttt{BusRd} (I $\rightarrow$ S) and then followed by \texttt{BusRdX} or \texttt{BusUpgr} (S $\rightarrow$ M). By adding a state that indicates that the block is the only copy but not modified, we can eliminate invalidation (\texttt{BusRdX} or \texttt{BusUpgr}), thus reducing the bus traffic. This new state is called \textit{exclusive-clean}.
Cache-to-Cache Transfer

Flush requires *cache-to-cache transfer*, i.e., both memory and the requesting cache pick up the block.
Writing into Shared Block

Since block already in cache, uses *bus upgrade* or BusUpgr instead BusRdX to acquire exclusive ownership. Reduces traffic on the bus.

If it was BusRdX, memory would have had to first respond by return x and the invalidate itself!
Exclusive-Clean State

When a processor reads in (\(\text{BusRd} (I \rightarrow S)\)) and modifies a data item (\(\text{BusRd}X\) or \(\text{BusUpgr} (S \rightarrow M)\)), two bus transactions are generated. By adding a state that indicates that the block is the only copy but not modified, we can eliminate invalidation (\(\text{BusRd}X\) or \(\text{BusUpgr}\)), thus reducing the bus traffic.
MESI Protocol

• MESI eliminates the need to invalidate when writing in the exclusive state. Also refer to as the Illinois protocol.
  
  – Modified - Main memory does not have an up-to-date copy of this cache line. No other cache has a copy of this sector.
  
  – Exclusive - Main memory has an up-to-date copy of this cache line. No other caches hold the line.
  
  – Shared - Main memory has an up-to-date copy of this cache line. Other caches may also have an up-to-date copy.
  
  – Invalid - This cache does not have a valid copy of the sector.
Some Issues

• Transition I → S or I → E depends on whether any other caches have this block. This is detected by a shared signal S. \texttt{BusRd}(S') means S was unasserted, while \texttt{BusRd}(S) means S was asserted.

• From state E, either \texttt{BusRd} (E → S) or \texttt{BusRdX} (E → I) causes the block to be flushed onto the bus if cache-to-cache transfer is used.

• From state S, either \texttt{BusRd} or \texttt{BusRdX} causes one of the processors to flushed the block onto the bus. Since many caches can have the block, a priority scheme is used. \texttt{Flush'} simply indicates this operation is only performed by the cache responsible for providing the block. No other caches are involved in the process.
Snoop-Based CC Design

- **Assumption:**
  - A single level cache per processor
  - Transactions on the bus is atomic.

- **Cache controller and Tag design:**
  - Two cache controllers.
  - Either dual-ported RAM or duplications of tags and state for every block.
Reporting Snoop Results

• Bus-side controller for each cache checks the address against its tags, and the collective result of the snoop from all caches must be reported on the bus.

• Requesting cache controller needs to know where the requested block is in other processors’ cache so that it can decide to load the block in exclusive (E) state or shared (S) state; and

• Memory system needs to know whether any cache has the block in modified (M) state, in which case the memory need not respond.
Dealing with Write-backs

- Write-backs require two bus transactions (one for incoming and the other for outgoing (modified or dirty) block that is being replaced).
- To speed up the write-back process, a write-back buffer is used to temporarily store the block being replaced.
- Before write-back is complete, it’s possible to see a bus transaction containing the address of the block being written back. Thus, the controller must supply the data from the write buffer and cancel its earlier pending request to the bus for a write back. This will require an address comparator to be added to snoop on the write-back buffer.
Non-Atomic State Transitions

• Assumption thus far was state transition was atomic!
  – Bus has to arbitrate among multiple requests.
  – Request and response is done using split-transaction
Transient States for Bus Acquisition