

Single Node Optimisation

Node Architectures



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Four principal technologies which make up HPC systems:

- **Processors**
 - to calculate
- **Memory**
 - for temporary storage of data
- **Interconnect**
 - enabling processors to talk to each other (and the outside world)
- **Storage**
 - disks for storing input/output data and tapes for long term archiving of data
- We will focus on the first two of these.

- Basic functionality
 - execute instructions to perform arithmetic operations (integer and floating point)
 - load data from memory and store data to memory
 - decide which instructions to execute next
- Arithmetic is performed on values in registers (local storage in the processor)
 - moving data between memory and registers must be done explicitly by load and store instructions
 - separate integer and floating point registers
 - typical size ~100 values
- Basic characteristics:
 - Clock speed
 - Peak floating point capability

Processors (cont.)

- Clock speed determines rate at which instructions are executed
 - modern chips are around 2-3 GHz
 - integer and floating point calculations can be done in parallel
 - can also have multiple issue, e.g. simultaneous add and multiply
 - peak flop rate is just clock rate x no. of floating point operations per clock cycle

- Whole series of hardware innovations
 - pipelining
 - out-of-order execution, speculative computation
 - ...

Moore's Law

- “CPU power doubles every 18 months”
 - strictly speaking, applies to transistor density
- Held true for ~40 years
- People have predicted its demise many times
 - may finally be actually happening
- Increases in power are due to increases in parallelism as well as in clock rate
 - fine grain parallelism (pipelining)
 - medium grain parallelism (superscalar, SIMD, hardware multithreading)
 - coarse grain parallelism (multiple processors on a chip)
- First two seem to be (almost) exhausted: main trend is now towards multicore

Functional units

- Functional units are the basic building blocks of processors.
 - Number and type of units varies with processor design.
- Core units for any processor include:

Instruction unit

- Responsible for fetching, decoding and dispatching of instructions.
- Fetches instruction from instruction caches
- Decodes instruction.
- Sends the instructions to the appropriate unit.
- May also be responsible for scheduling instructions (see later).

Functional units

Integer unit

- Handles integer arithmetic
- Integer addition, multiplication and division.
- Logical ops (and, or, shift etc.)
- Also known as arithmetic and logic unit (ALU)

Floating point unit

- Handles floating point arithmetic
- Addition, multiplication, division.
- Usually the critical resource for HPC
 - Machines sold by peak flop/s

Functional units

Control unit

- Responsible for branches and jumps

Load/store unit

- Responsible for loading data from memory and storing it back.

Register file

- Local storage in the CPU
 - Accessed by name (not address)
 - Separate files for integers/addresses and floating point
- Also memory management, cache controller, bus interface, graphics/multimedia,.....

Pipelining

- Key implementation technique for making fast CPUs.
- Execution of instructions is broken down into **stages**.
- Each stage can be executed in one CPU clock cycle
 - all parts of CPU operate at a fixed frequency
- Once a stage has completed for one instruction, it can be executed for the next instruction on the subsequent clock cycle.
- Allows one instruction to be completed per clock cycle, even though the instruction itself may take many cycles to complete.
 - AMD Epyc Rome has 19 stage pipeline
- But not all instructions are pipelined
 - e.g. FP square root, FP divide

Problems of pipelines

Any of the following can result in stopping and restarting the pipeline, and wasting cycles as a result:

- Two instructions both require the same hardware resource at the same time
- One instruction depends on the result of another instruction further down the pipeline
- The result of instruction changes which instruction to execute next (e.g. branches)

Overcoming pipeline hazards

- Out-of-order execution
 - Assembly code specifies an order of instructions....
 - But the hardware chooses to reorder instructions as they are fetched to minimise pipeline stalls.
 - Requires some complex bookkeeping to ensure correctness.
- Branch prediction
 - Hardware tries to guess which way the next branch will go
 - Uses a hardware table that tracks the outcomes of recent branches in the code.
 - Keeps the pipeline going and only stalls if prediction is wrong

Instruction level parallelism

- Pipelining is a form of instruction level parallelism (ILP)
 - multiple instructions are “in-flight” at the same time.
 - but maximum performance is 1 instruction per cycle
- Also possible to exploit ILP at a higher level
 - identify instructions that can be executed independently
 - use different functional units (no structural hazards)

Two main approaches:

- Superscalar processors
 - parallel instructions identified at run-time, in hardware.
- SIMD (or vector) instructions
 - operations on multiple data items encoded in a single instruction

Superscalar processors

- Divide instructions up into classes which use different resources
 - most obvious is integer and floating point
- If two or more instructions are in different classes, they can be issued on the same clock cycle, and proceed in parallel
 - could issue integer add, FP multiply in same cycle
- Can be combined with out of order execution

Superscalar processors

- Detection of independent instructions is done in hardware.
 - fetch several instructions at once
 - decide whether they can be issued on one clock cycle, or spread across more than one cycle
 - need to take structural and data hazards into account.
- Scheduling can be helped by compiler techniques
 - grouping instructions together in ways which favour multiple issue

SIMD instructions

- Instructions which encode operations on multiple data items
(**S**ingle **I**nstruction **M**ultiple **D**ata)

Example:

A simple floating point instruction might encode

$$c = a + b$$

A SIMD floating point instruction could encode

$$c = a + b \text{ and } f = d + e$$

in one instruction.

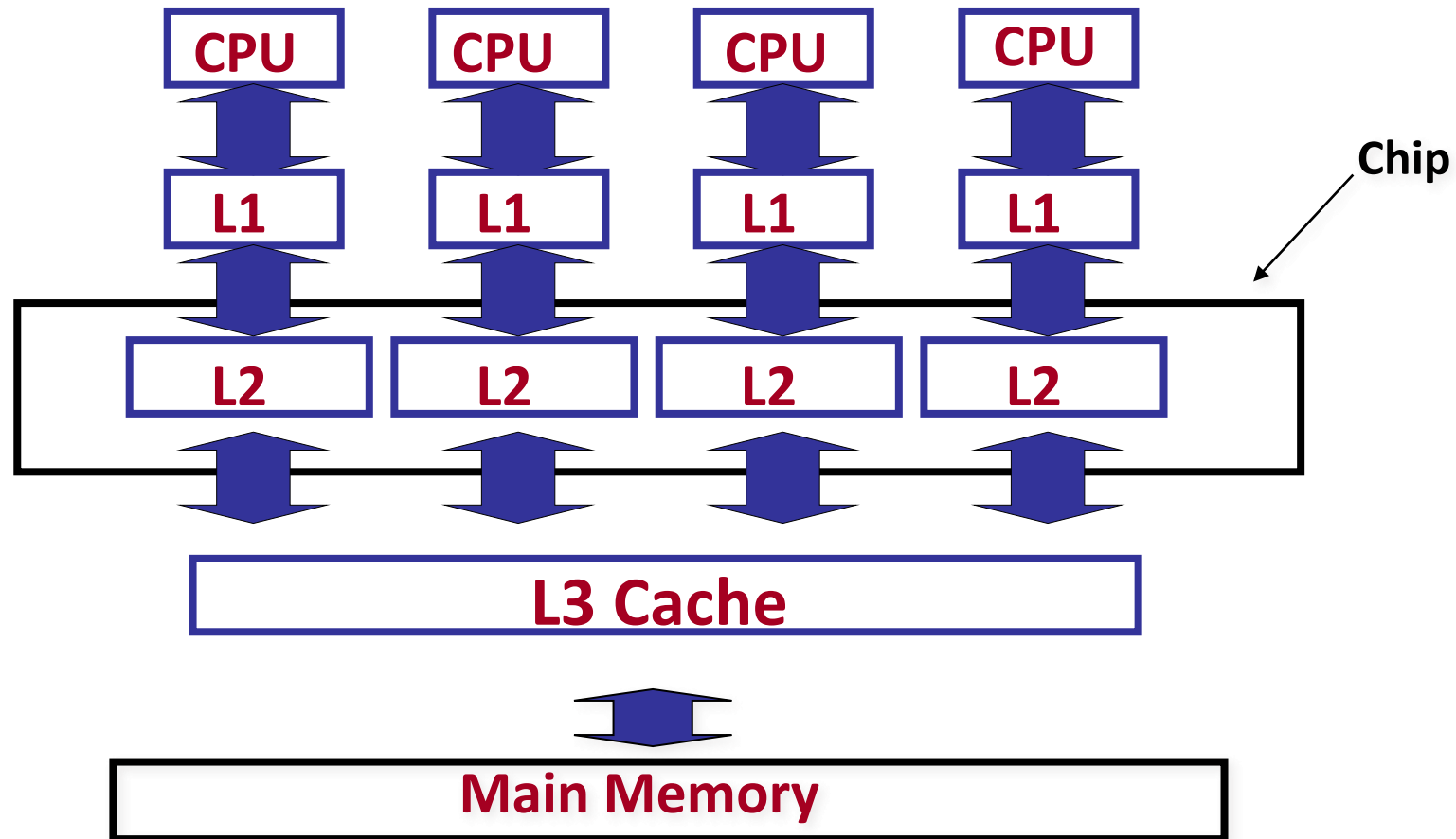
- Most modern processors include support for SIMD instructions
 - e.g. SSE, AVX, AVX2, AVX512 in x86, AltiVec in POWER, Neon, SVE in Arm
- Requires a (substantial) extension to the instruction set
 - load/stores, compares, as well as integer and FP arithmetic
- Requires multiple arithmetic units and additional vector registers to take advantage of them
- The **SIMD width** is the number of operations encoded in a SIMD instruction
 - typically 2, 4 or 8

- Restrictions on what SIMD memory operations (loads/stores) can do
 - e.g. a 2-word SIMD load of double precision values may require that the values are consecutive in memory and are 16 byte aligned.
- Compiler is responsible for identifying operations which can be combined into SIMD instructions.
- In practice, this is a tough job for the compiler.
 - alignment of data is often not determinable at compile time
 - compiler can generate multiple versions of code and pick the right one depending on the alignment encountered at run time.....
 - may require hints, or even hand-coded assembly

Multicore chips

- Now commonplace to have lots of cores on a chip.
- Typically, each core has its own Level 1 and Level 2 caches, but the Level 3 cache is shared between cores
- May also share functional units
 - i.e. FPU

Typical cache hierarchy



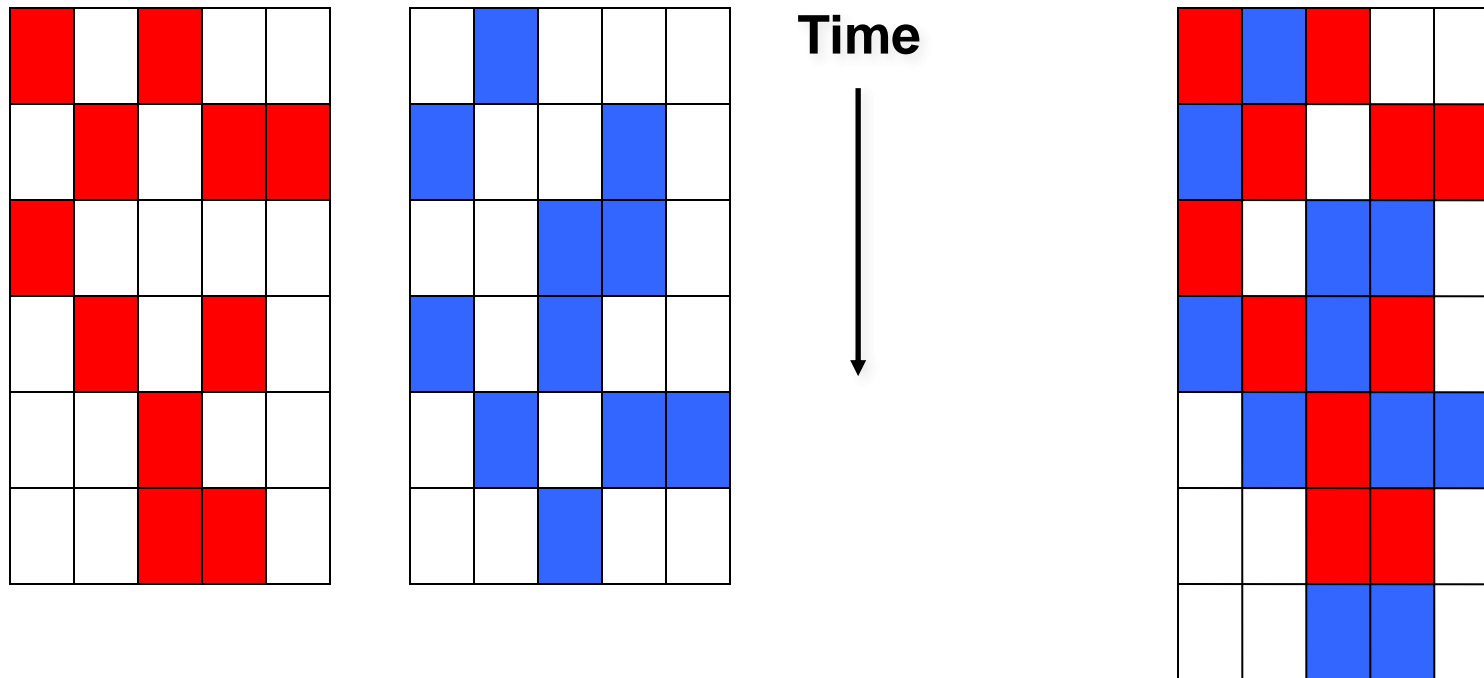
- This means that multiple cores on the same chip can communicate with low latency and high bandwidth
 - via reads and writes which are cached in the shared cache
- However, cores contend for space in the shared cache
 - one thread may suffer capacity and/or conflict misses caused by threads/processes on another core
 - harder to have precise control over what data is in the cache
 - if only single core is running, then it may have access to the whole shared cache
- Cores also share off-chip bandwidth
 - for access to main memory

Empty instruction slots

- Most modern processors are superscalar
 - can issue several instructions in every clock cycle
 - selection and scheduling of instructions is done on-the-fly, in hardware
- A typical processor can issue 4 or 5 instructions per clock, going to different functional units
 - obviously, there must be no dependencies between instructions issue on the same cycle
- However, typical applications don't have this much instruction level parallelism (ILP)
 - 1.5 or 2 is normal
 - more than half the available instruction slots are empty

- Simultaneous multithreading (SMT) (a.k.a. Hyperthreading) tries to fill these spare slots by mixing instructions from more than one thread in the same clock cycle.
- Requires some replication of hardware
 - instruction pointer, instruction TLB, register rename logic, etc.
 - Intel Xeon only requires about 5% extra chip area to support SMT
- ...but everything else is shared between threads
 - functional units, register file, memory system (including caches)
 - sharing of caches means there is no coherency problem
- For most architectures, two or four threads is all that makes sense

SMT Example



Two threads on two CPUs

Two threads on one SMT CPU

More on SMT

- How successful is SMT?
 - depends on the application, and how the threads contend for the shared resources.
- In practice, gains seem to be limited to around 1.2 to 1.3 times speedup over a single thread.
 - benefits will be limited if both threads are using the same functional units (e.g. FPUs) intensively.
- For some codes, SMT can cause slow down
 - increased contention for memory bandwidth and/or cache space
 - increasing the number of threads/processes can increase overheads such as communication or load imbalance

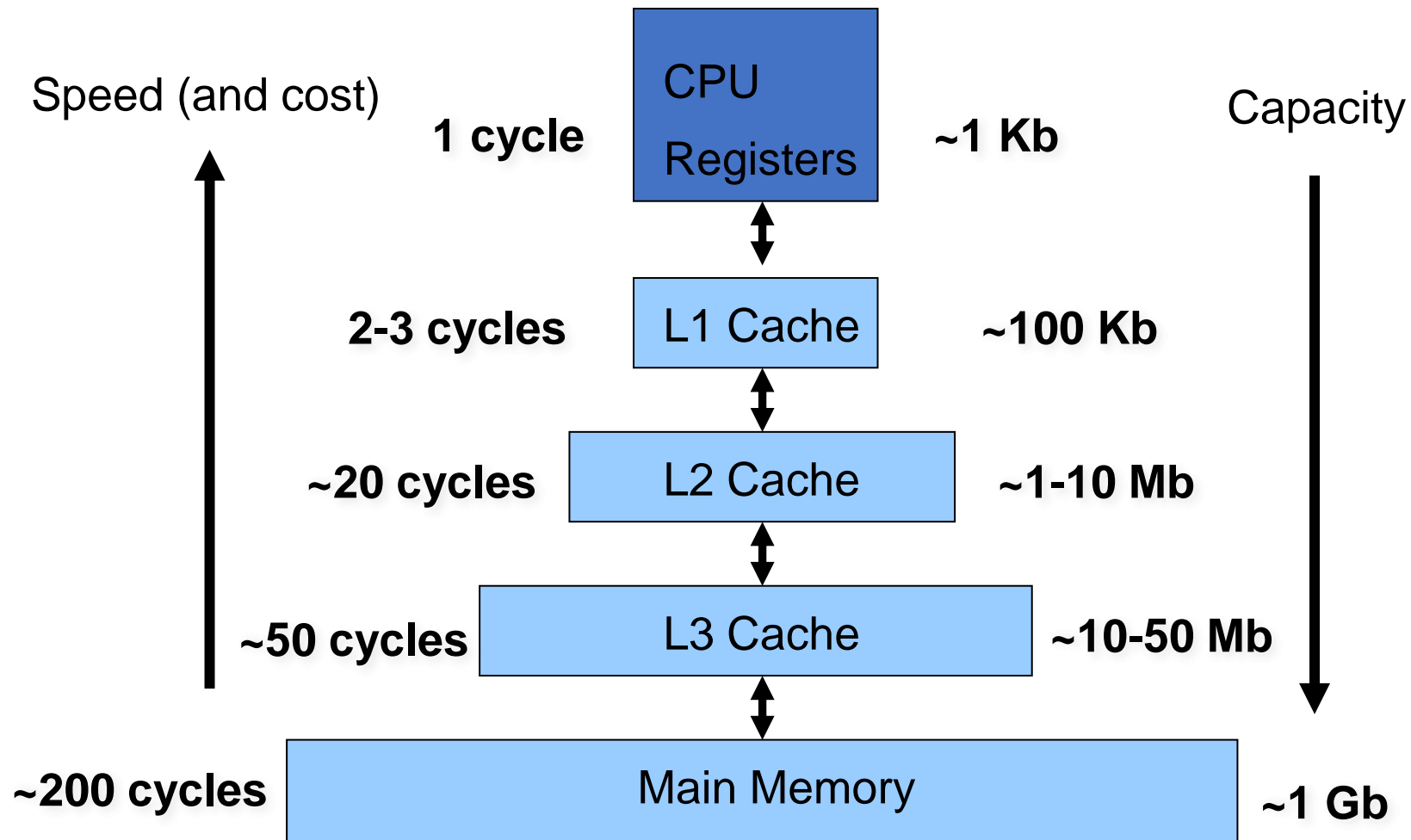
Accelerators

- Current popular trend is to include additional special purpose processors alongside the main CPU
 - large numbers of relatively simple cores
 - high memory bandwidth
 - separate memory from CPU
- Much of current interest is focussed on GPGPUs (general purpose graphics processing units)
 - low cost due to high mass market volumes
 - tricky to program
 - significant overheads in moving data to/from GPU memory

- Memory speed is often the limiting factor for HPC applications
 - keeping the CPU fed with data is the key to performance
- Memory is a substantial contributor to the cost of systems
 - typical HPC systems have a few Gbytes of memory per processor
 - technically possible to have much more than this, but it is too expensive and power-hungry
- Key metrics
 - latency: how long you have to wait for data to arrive
 - bandwidth: how fast it actually comes in
 - ballpark figures: 100's of nanoseconds and a few Gbytes/s

- Memory latencies are very long
 - 100s of processor cycles
 - fetching data from main memory is 2 orders of magnitude slower than doing arithmetic
- Solution: introduce cache memory
 - much faster than main memory
 - ...but much smaller than main memory
 - keeps copies of recently used data
- Modern systems use a hierarchy of two or three levels of cache
 - typically all on-chip

Memory Hierarchy



- Sophisticated book-keeping required
 - need to know where most up-to-date copy is kept
 - flush old data downwards to make space for new data
 - done automatically, transparent to the CPU
 - programs still see simple register/memory model
- Caches only help performance if the application re-uses recently accessed data
 - mostly the programmer's responsibility to order computations so as to maximise the re-use
- Many modern memory systems also do prefetching
 - make (quite simple) guesses as to which data will be used next
 - load these data into caches before the processor requests them

Principal of locality

- Almost every program exhibits some degree of locality.
 - Tend to reuse recently accessed data.
- Two types of data locality:
 1. Temporal locality
 - A recently accessed item is likely to be reused in the near future.
e.g. if x is read now, it is likely to be read again, or written, soon.
 2. Spatial locality
 - Items with nearby addresses tend to be accessed close together in time.
e.g. if $y[i]$ is read now, $y[i+1]$ is likely to be read soon.

How do caches help?

- Cache hold copies of data from main memory locations.
- Cache can hold recently accessed data items for fast re-access.
- Fetching an item from cache is much quicker than fetching from main memory.
 - 1 nanosecond instead of 100.
- For cost and speed reasons, cache is much smaller than main memory.

- A **cache block** is the unit of data which can be transferred from main memory into the cache.
- Normally a few words long: typically 32 to 128 bytes.
- N.B. a block is sometimes also called a **line**.

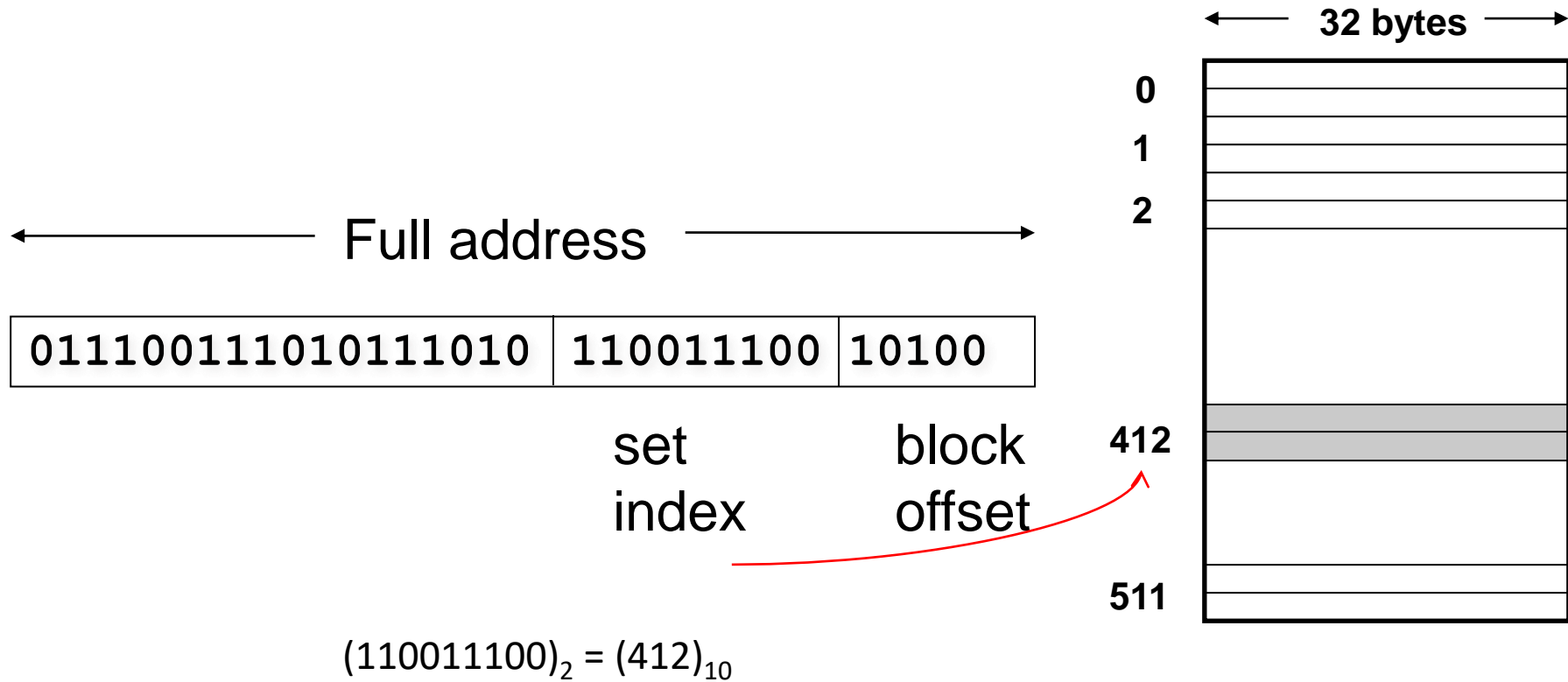
When to cache?

- Always cache on reads
 - except in special circumstances
- If a memory location is read and there isn't a copy in the cache (**read miss**), then cache the data.
- What happens on writes depends on the write strategy: see later.

Where does the data go?

- Cache is divided into **sets**
- A set is a group of blocks (typically 4, 8, 16)
- e.g. 8 blocks per set is an **8-way set associative cache**
- If we want to cache the contents of an address, we ignore the last n bits where 2^n is the block size.
- Compute set index as:
 - (remaining bits) MOD (no. of sets in cache)
- next m bits where 2^m is number of sets.
- Data can go into any block in the set.

32Kbytes cache, 32byte blocks, 2 blocks per set

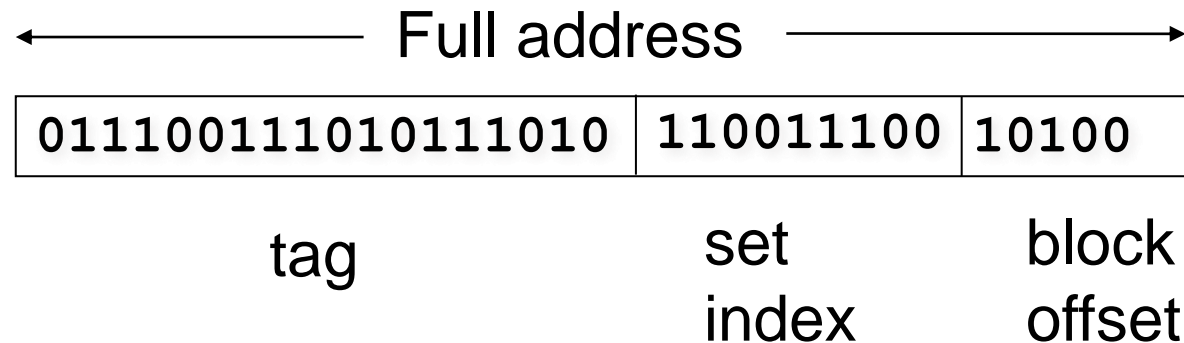


Which block to replace?

- Once a set is chosen, must choose a block in the set to store new data.
- The old contents of the block are overwritten
- Normal policy is **Least Recently Used (LRU)**
 - Replace the block in set which was unused for longest time
 - Exploit principle of locality – LRU block is less likely to be used again soon
 - Hardware keeps track of this
 - Some additional sophistication is possible....

How to find a cache block

- Whenever the CPU loads an address, the cache must check whether it has the data.
- For a given address, find set where it might be cached.
- Each block has an address tag.
 - address with the block index and block offset stripped off.
- Each block has a valid bit.
 - if the bit is set, the block contains a valid address
- Need to check tags of all valid blocks in set for target address.



What happens on write?

- Writes are less common than reads.
- Two basic strategies:

Write through

- Write data to cache block and to main memory.
- Normally do not cache on miss.

Write back

- Write data to cache block only. Copy data back to main memory only when block is replaced.
- Dirty/clean bit used to indicate when this is necessary.
- Normally cache on miss.

Write through vs. write back

- With write back, not all writes go to main memory.
 - reduces memory bandwidth.
 - harder to implement than write through.
- With write through, main memory always has valid copy.
 - useful for I/O and for some implementations of multiprocessor cache coherency.
 - can avoid CPU waiting for writes to complete by use of write buffer.

What does the processor see?

- All the machinery in the cache is essentially invisible to the processor.
- Assembly code is scheduled assuming the data is in Level 1 cache.
- If it is not (i.e. a **cache miss**), the processor has to wait until the data is found and loaded.
- Processor can continue executing instructions
 - but there is a limit on the number of outstanding memory references.
 - after this, the processor will stop and wait

Virtual memory

- Allows memory and disk to be seamless whole
 - processes can use more data that will fit into physical memory
- Allows multiple processes to share physical memory
- Can think of main memory as a cache of what is on disk
 - blocks are called **pages** (4 to 64 kbytes)
 - a miss is called a **page fault**

- CPU issues **virtual** addresses which are translated to physical addresses.
- Pages can be placed anywhere in memory
 - like a fully associative cache
 - approximate LRU replacement strategy
 - write back, not write through
- Mapping from virtual to physical address is stored in a **page table** in memory
- Page table lookup is relatively expensive
- Page faults are very expensive
 - requires system call (~1ms)

- Translation look-aside buffer (TLB) is name given to a hardware cache of virtual to physical mappings.
- Can store the mapping for a limited number of pages
 - TLB miss results in a page table lookup
 - generally has fewer blocks than level 1 cache (so that TLB lookup is not on critical path)
- TLB relies on locality
 - widely scattered memory accesses can result in lots of TLB misses
 - can be as important as cache misses in some applications
 - some systems offer a choice of page sizes: larger pages => fewer TLB misses

- One way to reduce miss rate is to load data into cache before the load is issued. This is called **prefetching**
- Processor must be able to support multiple outstanding cache misses.
- Additional hardware is required to keep track of the outstanding prefetches.
- Number of outstanding misses is limited (e.g. 4 or 8): extra benefit from allowing more does not justify the hardware cost.

- Hardware prefetching is typically very simple: e.g. whenever a block is loaded, fetch consecutive block.
 - very effective for instruction cache
 - less so for data caches, but can have multiple streams.
 - requires regular data access patterns.
- Compiler can place prefetch instructions ahead of loads.
 - requires extensions to the instruction set
 - cost in additional instructions.
 - no use if placed too far ahead: prefetched block may be replaced before it is used.

Multiple levels of cache

- Second level cache should be much larger than first level.
 - otherwise a level 1 miss will almost always be level 2 miss as well.
- Second level cache will therefore be slower
 - still much faster than main memory.
- Typically, everything in level 1 must be in level 2 as well (**inclusion**)
 - required for cache coherency in multiprocessor systems.
- Three levels of cache are now commonplace.
 - All 3 levels now on chip

- Main difficulty in building multiprocessor systems is the cache coherency problem.
- The shared memory programming model assumes that a shared variable has a unique value at a given time.
- Caching in a shared memory system means that multiple copies of a memory location may exist in the hardware.
- To avoid two processors caching different values of the same memory location, caches must be kept *coherent*.
- To achieve this, a write to a memory location must cause all other copies of this location to be removed from the caches they are in.

- Need to store information about sharing status of cache blocks
 - has this block been modified?
 - is this block stored in more than one cache?
- Two main types of protocol
 1. Snooping (or broadcast) based
 - every cached copy carries sharing status
 - no central status
 - assumes all processors can see every request
 2. Directory based
 - sharing status stored centrally (in a directory)

False sharing

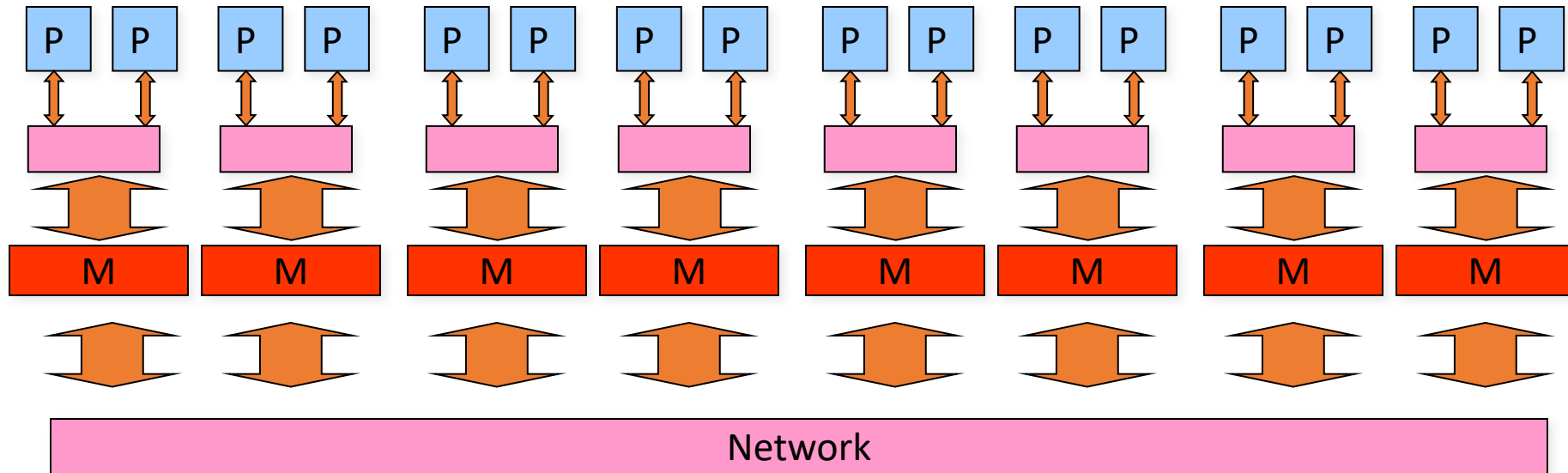
- The units of data on which coherency operations are performed are cache blocks: the size of these units is usually 64 or 128 bytes.
- The fact that coherency units consist of multiple words of data gives rise to the phenomenon of *false sharing*.
- Consider what happens when two processors are both writing to *different* words on the *same* cache line.
 - no data values are actually being shared by the processors
- Each write will invalidate the copy in the other processor's cache, causing a lot of bus traffic and memory accesses.
 - same problem if one processor is writing and the other reading
- Can be a significant performance problem in threaded programs (but not for message passing)
- Quite difficult to detect

Distributed shared memory



- Shared memory machines using buses and a single main memory do not scale to large numbers of processors
 - bus and memory become a bottleneck
- Distributed shared memory machines designed to:
 - scale to larger numbers of processors
 - retain a single address space
- Modest sized multi-socket systems connected with HyperTransport, QPI, in Infinity Fabric are, in fact, distributed shared memory

Distributed shared memory

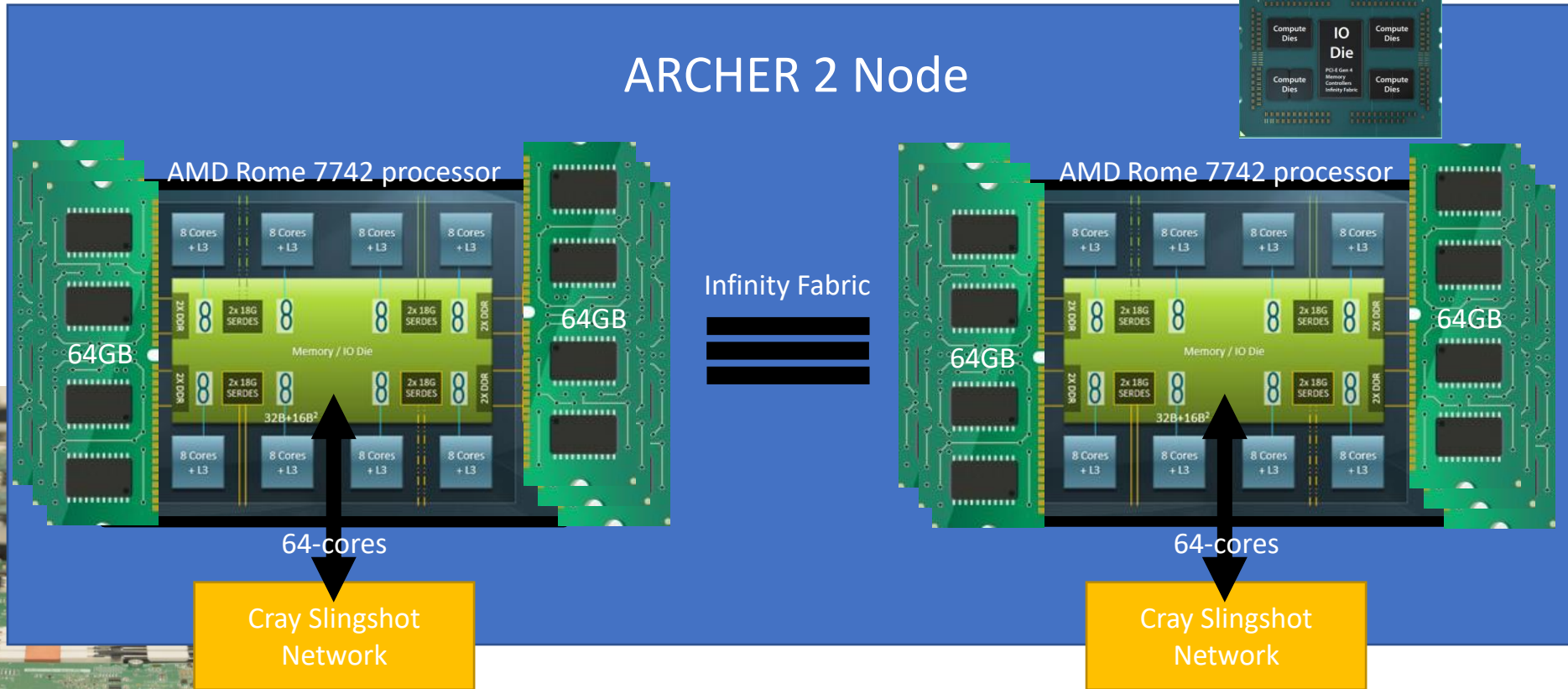
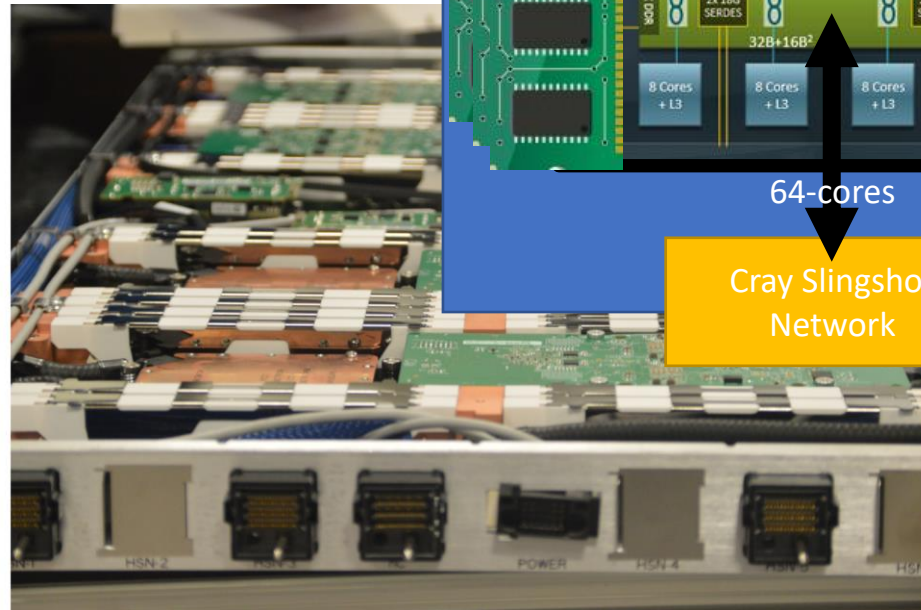


- In most distributed shared memory systems every memory address is allocated to a fixed location (its *home node*).
- This type of system is known as a cache-coherent non-uniform memory architecture (cc-NUMA).
- Main problem is that access to remote memories take longer than to local memory
 - difficult to determine which is the best node to allocate given page on
- OS is responsible for allocating pages
- Common policies are:
 - first touch: allocate on node which makes first access to the page
 - round robin: allocate cyclically

ARCHER2 Node



ARCHER 2 Node



AMD Rome Processor



- Proper name: AMD EPYC 7742
- No. of cores = 64
- Clock rate = 2.25 GHz (base)
- 2 FMA floating point vector units
- 256-bit wide AVX vector instructions
 - 4 double precision floating point ops
- Peak 16 flops per clock = 36 Gflop/s per core = 2304 Gflop/s per socket = 4608 Gflop/s per node
- SMT: 2 hardware threads per core

Memory hierarchy

- Each core has
 - Level 1 cache: 32 KB, 8-way set associative, 64 byte lines
 - Level 2 cache: 512 KB, 8-way set associative, 64 byte lines
- Each set of 4 cores (CCX) share one Level 3 cache
 - 16 MB, 16-way set associative, 64 byte lines
 - 4MB per core
- 256 GB main memory per node (512 GB on high memory nodes) in 8 NUMA regions (4 per socket, 16 cores each)
- Memory bandwidth = ~ 3 GB/s per core if all cores used
- Latencies L1/L2/L3/Mem = 4-8/12/39/ ~ 270 clock cycles)

NUMA Regions

- AMD Rome has 4 memory regions per processor
 - Memory bandwidth is proportional to memory regions
 - 16 cores per memory region
 - Scattering across processors when under-populating improves memory bandwidth
- Inter-processor, i.e. between sockets, memory communications slower and intra-processor
 - As with most multi-processor systems, staying within a single processor gives fastest communications/memory operations
- NUMA aware software sensible for good performance
 - Hybrid codes, or pure threaded/OpenMP codes need to care
 - Under-populating codes need to care