

# Architecture

François Trahay



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# Outlines

1	Introduction .....	3
2	Sequential processor .....	6
3	Pipeline .....	7
4	Parallel Processing .....	15
5	Memory hierarchy .....	20

# 1 Introduction

Why this lecture?

- To understand what is happening in the “ hardware ” part of the execution stack
- To write programs that are efficient on modern machines

# 1.1 Moore's Law

1965 - 2005

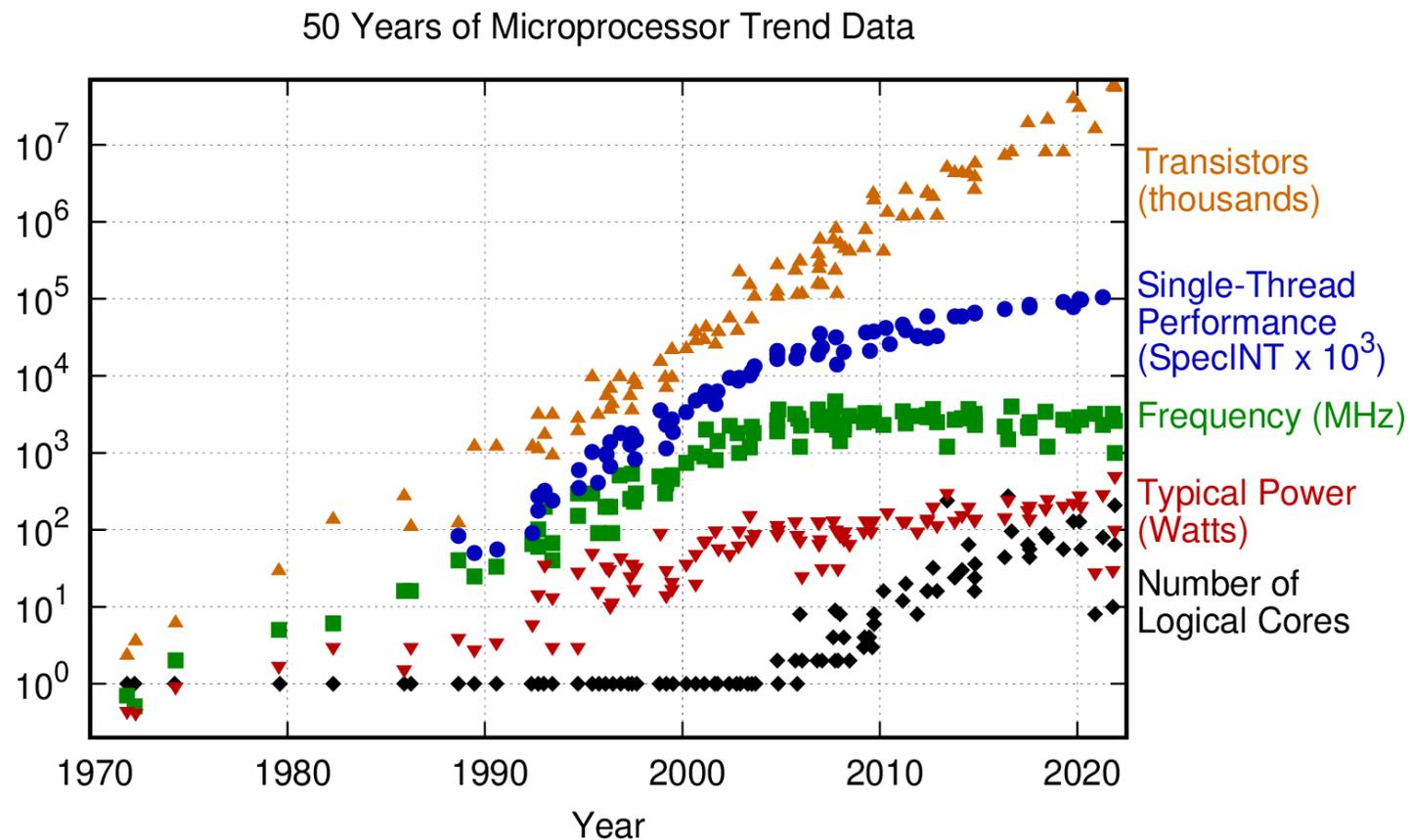
- Moore's Law (1965): the number of transistors in microprocessors doubles every two years
- The fineness of the processor engraving decreases
- The clock frequency increases

⇒ Increased processor performance

Since 2005

- The fineness of engraving continues to decrease (but less quickly)
- The clock frequency no longer increases due to heat dissipation
  - ◆ Heat dissipation depends on the frequency, and the number of transistors
- Multiple computing units per processor

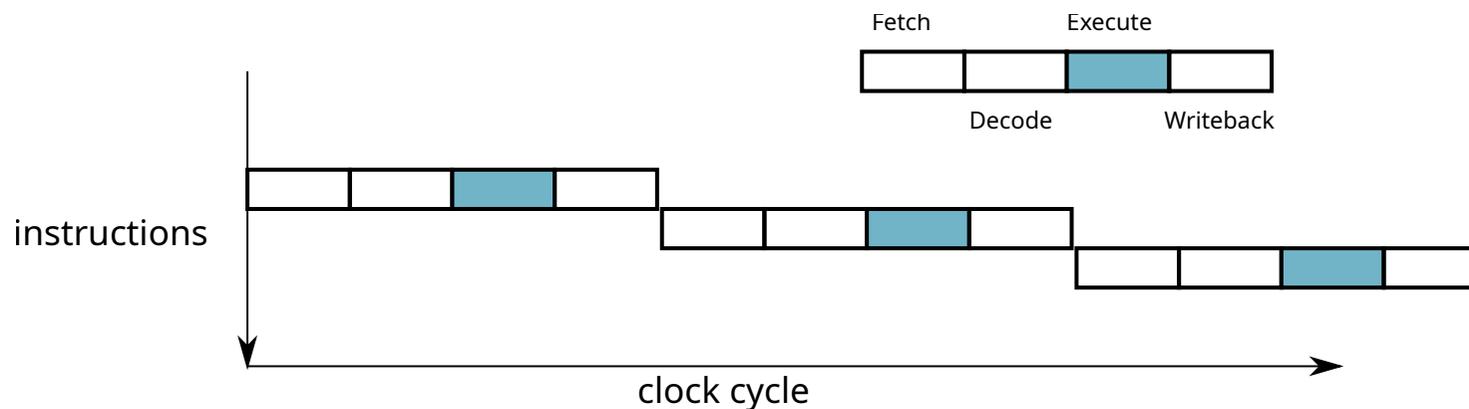
## 1.2 Evolution of processors performance



Original data up to the year 2010 collected and plotted by M. Horowitz, F. Labonte, O. Shacham, K. Olukotun, L. Hammond, and C. Batten  
New plot and data collected for 2010-2021 by K. Rupp

## 2 Sequential processor

- An instruction requires N steps
    - ◆ *Fetch*: load instruction from memory
    - ◆ *Decode*: identify the instruction
    - ◆ *Execute*: execution of the instruction
    - ◆ *Writeback*: storage of the result
  - Each step is processed by a processor circuit
  - Most circuits are not used at every stage
- One instruction is executed every N cycles



## 3 Pipeline

- Instruction pipeline
  - At each stage, several circuits are used
- One instruction is executed at each cycle

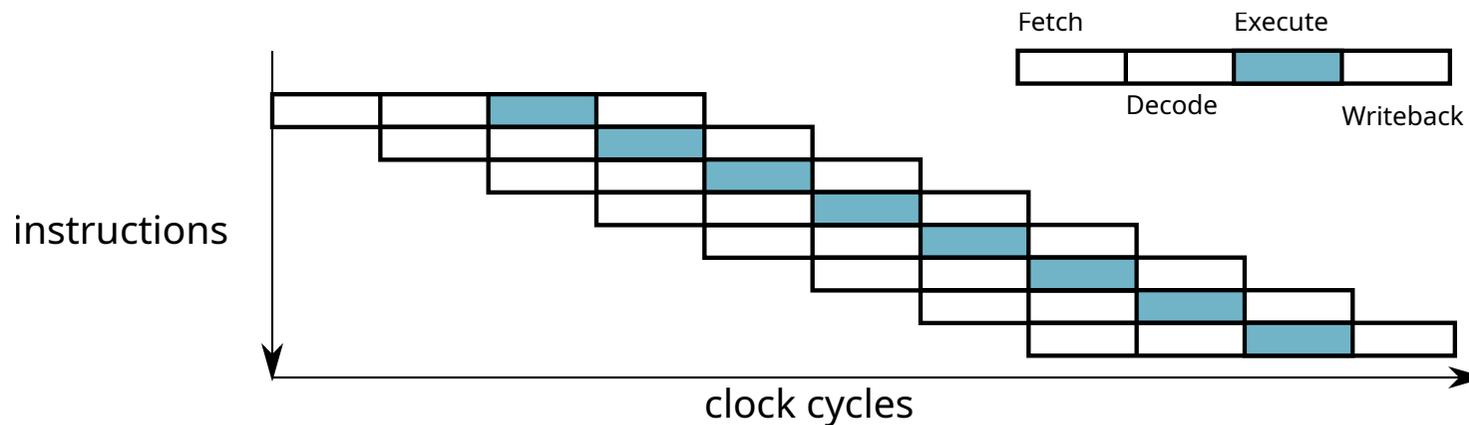


Figure 1: Execution of instructions on a processor with *pipeline*

## 3.1 Micro architecture of a pipeline

- Each stage of the pipeline is implemented by a set of logic gates
- *Execute* step: one subcircuit per type of operation (functional unit)

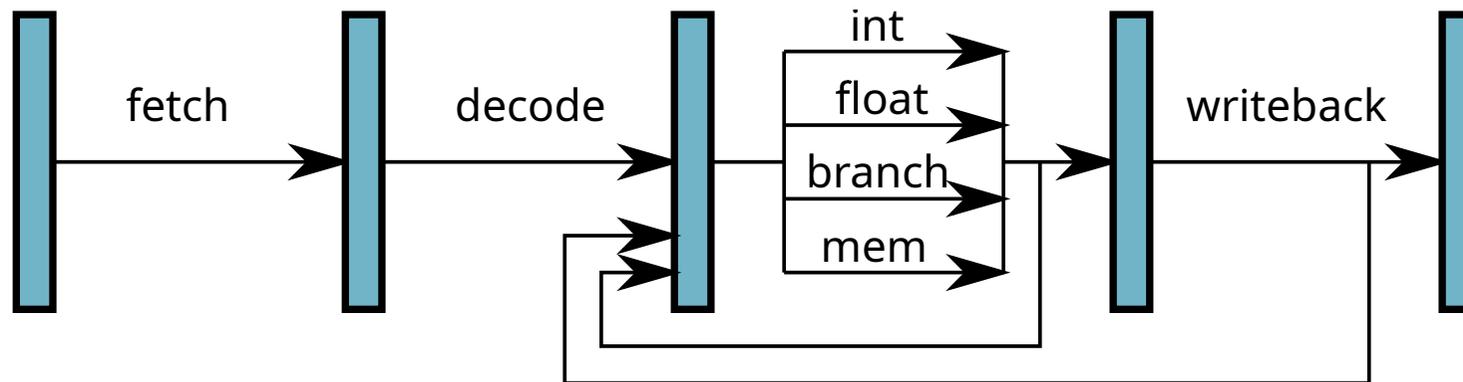


Figure 2: Micro-architecture of a *pipeline*

## 3.2 Superscalar processors

- Use of different functional units simultaneously
- ⇒ several instructions executed simultaneously!
- Require to load and decode several instructions simultaneously

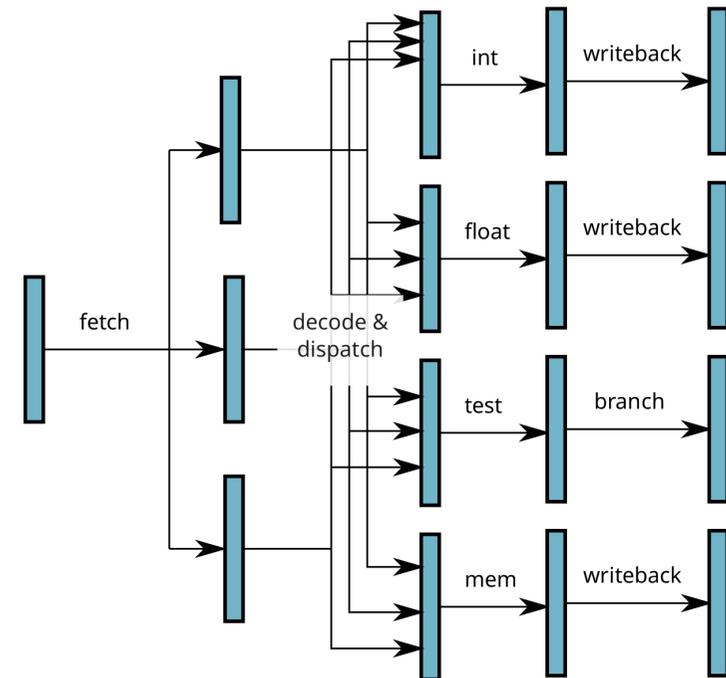
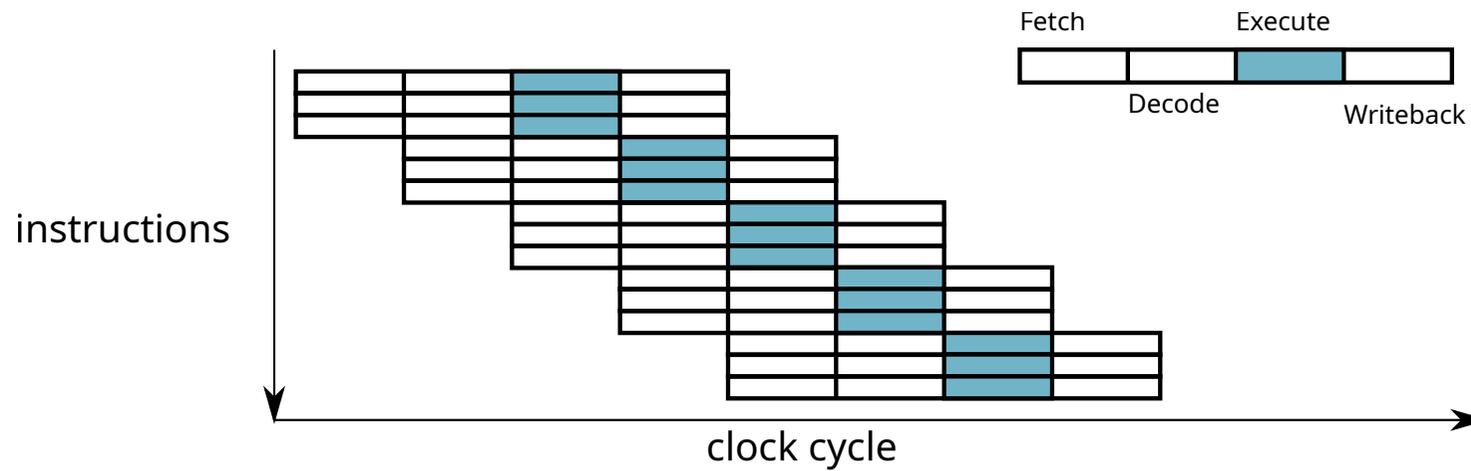


Figure 3: Micro-architecture of a *superscalar* processor

## 3.2.1 Superscalar processors



## 3.2.2 Dependence between instructions

Limitations of the superscalar:

- There should be no dependency between statements executed simultaneously.
  - ◆ Example of non-parallelizable instructions
    - a = b \* c;
    - d = a + 1;
- Degree of parallelism of the instructions: *Instruction Level Parallelism* (ILP)
- Instructions executed in parallel must use different functional units

## 3.3 Branching

- How to fill the pipeline when the instructions contain conditional jumps?

```
cmp a, 7    ; a > 7 ?
```

```
ble L1
```

```
mov c, b    ; b = c
```

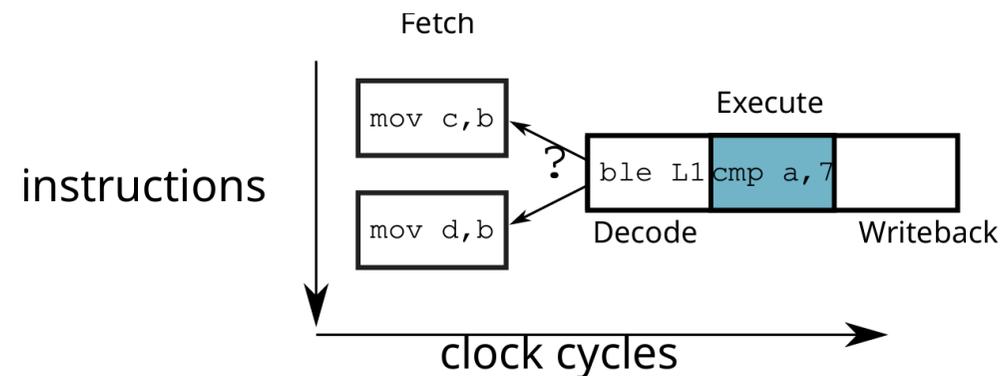
```
br L2
```

```
L1: mov d, b    ; b = d
```

```
L2: ...
```

- In case of a bad choice: the pipeline must be “emptied”

⇒ waste of time



## 3.4 Branch prediction

- The processor implements a prediction algorithm
- General idea:
  - ◆ For each conditional jump, store the previous results

0x12 loop:

```

    ...
0x50    inc  eax
0x54    cml  eax, 10000
0x5A    jl  loop
0x5C  end_loop:
    ...

```

<i>addr</i>	<i>branch history</i>
0x23	0011
0x42	1000
0x5A	1111
0x7E	0000

## 3.5 Vector instructions

- Many applications run in *Data Parallelism* mode
- *Single Instruction, Multiple Data* (SIMD): the same operation applied to a set of data

```
for(i=0; i<size; i++) {  
    C[i] = A[i] * B[i];  
}
```

- Example: image processing, *scientific computing*
- Using **vector instructions** (MMX, SSE, AVX, ...)

- ◆ Instructions specific to a processor type
- ◆ Process the same operation on multiple data at once

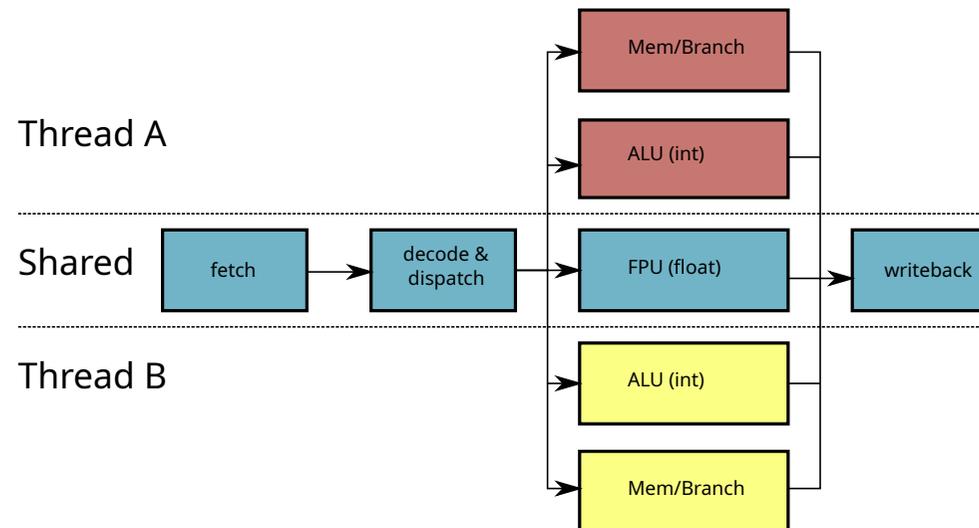
```
for(i=0; i<size; i+= 8) {  
    *pC = _mm_mul_ps(*pA, *pB);  
    pA++; pB++; pC++;  
}
```

# 4 Parallel Processing

4.1	Hyperthreading / SMT .....	16
4.2	Multi-core processors .....	17
4.3	SMP architectures .....	18
4.4	NUMA architectures .....	19

## 4.1 Hyperthreading / SMT

- Problem with superscalar / vector processors:
  - ◆ The application must have enough parallelism to exploit
  - ◆ Other applications may be waiting for the CPU
- *Simultaneous Multi-Threading* (SMT, or *Hyperthreading*):
  - ◆ Modify a superscalar processor to run multiple threads
  - ◆ Duplicate some circuits
  - ◆ Share certain circuits (eg FPU) between processing units



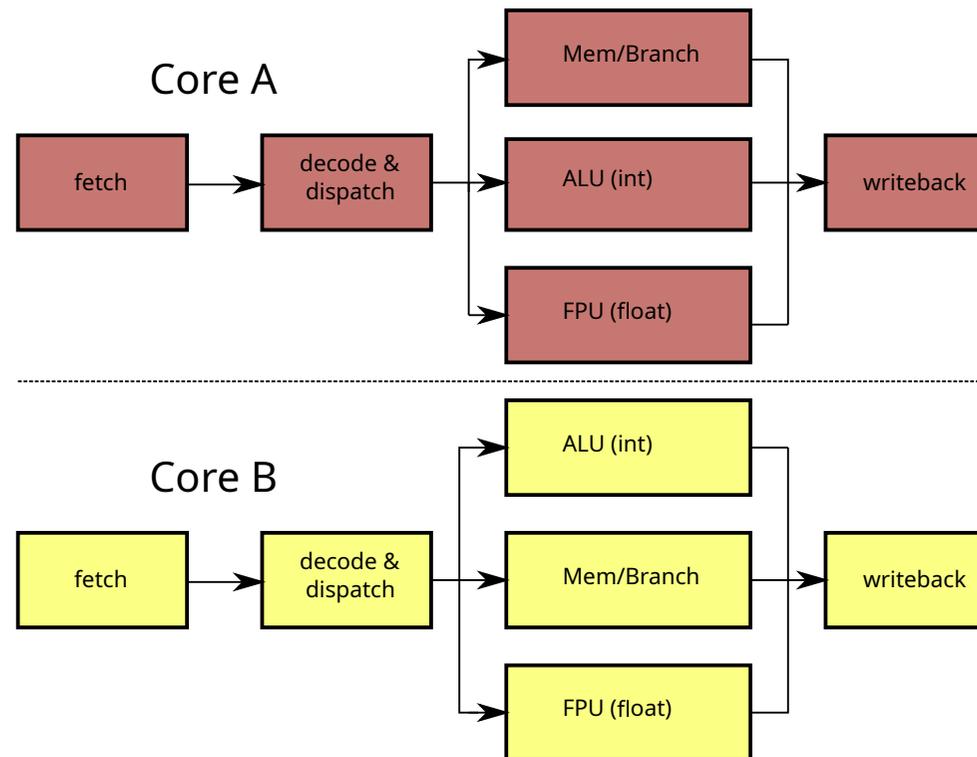
## 4.2 Multi-core processors

### ■ Limited scalability of SMT

◆ *dispatcher* is shared

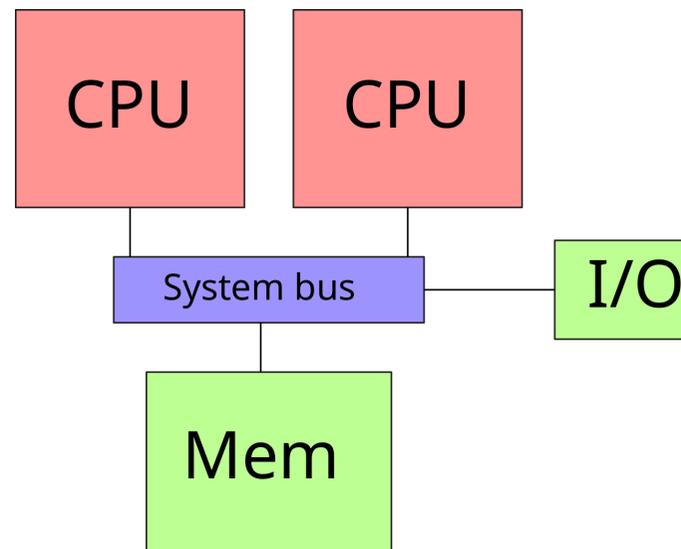
◆ FPU is shared

→ Duplicate all the circuits



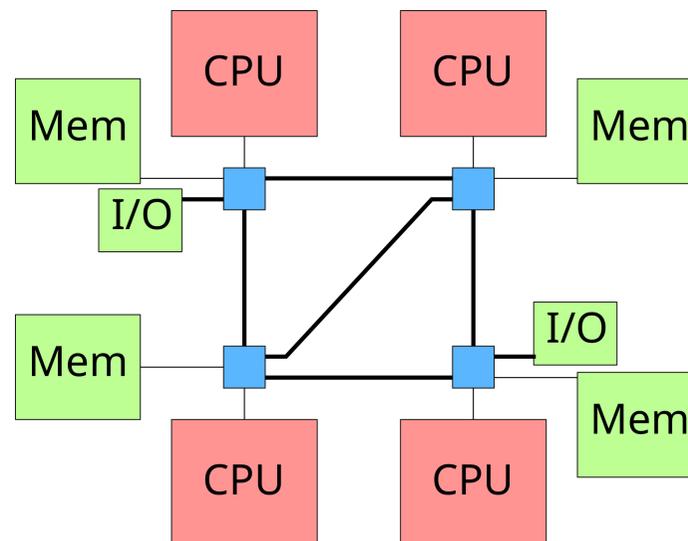
## 4.3 SMP architectures

- *Symmetric Multi-Processing*
- Multiple processors sockets on a motherboard
- The processors share the system bus
- Processors share memory
- Scalability problem: contention when accessing the bus



## 4.4 NUMA architectures

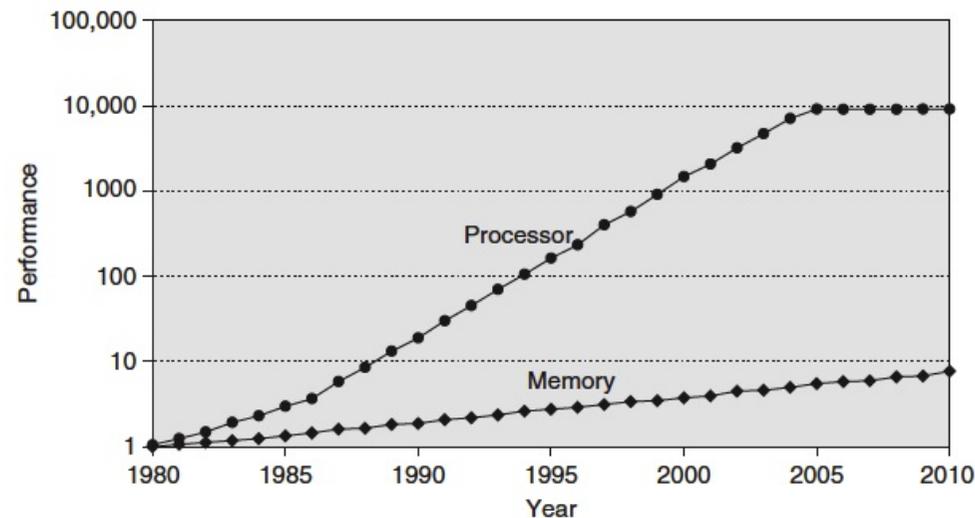
- NUMA nodes connected by a fast network
  - Memory consistency between processors
  - Privileged access to the local *memory bank*
  - Access possible (with an additional cost) to *memory banks* located on other nodes
- *Non-Uniform Memory Architecture*



## 5 Memory hierarchy

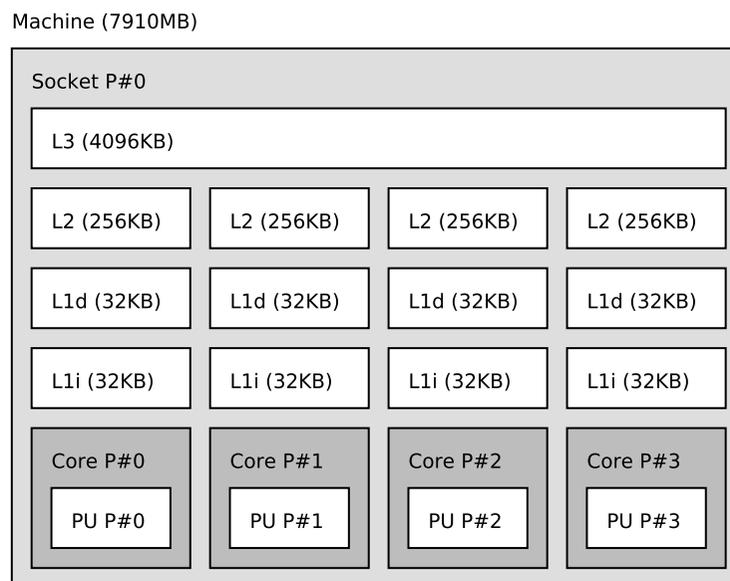
### Motivation

- Until 2005: increase in CPU performance: 55 % / year
- Since 2005: increase in the number of cores per processor
- Increased memory performance: 10 % / year
- The memory accesses which are now expensive: *Memory Wall*
- Mechanisms are needed to improve memory performance



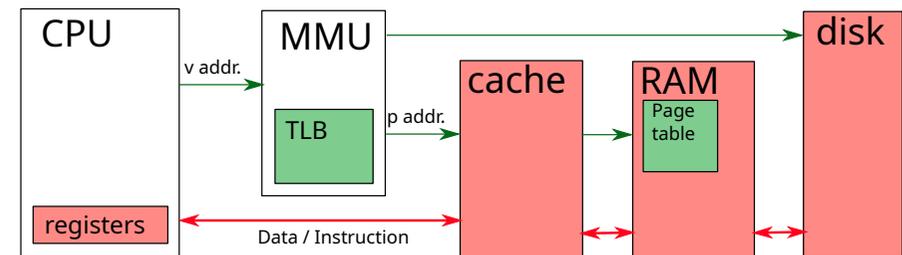
## 5.1 Cache memory

- Memory access (RAM) are very expensive (approx. 60 ns - approx. 180 cycles)
- To speed up memory access, let's use a fast cache memory:
  - ◆ L1 cache: very small capacity (typically: 64 KiB), very fast (approx. 4 cycles)
  - ◆ L2 cache: small capacity (typical: 256 KiB), fast (approx. 10 cycles)
  - ◆ L3 cache: large capacity (typically: between 4 MiB and 30 MiB), slow (approx. 40 cycles)
- Very expensive hard disk access (SWAP): approx. 40 ms (150  $\mu$ s on an SSD disk)



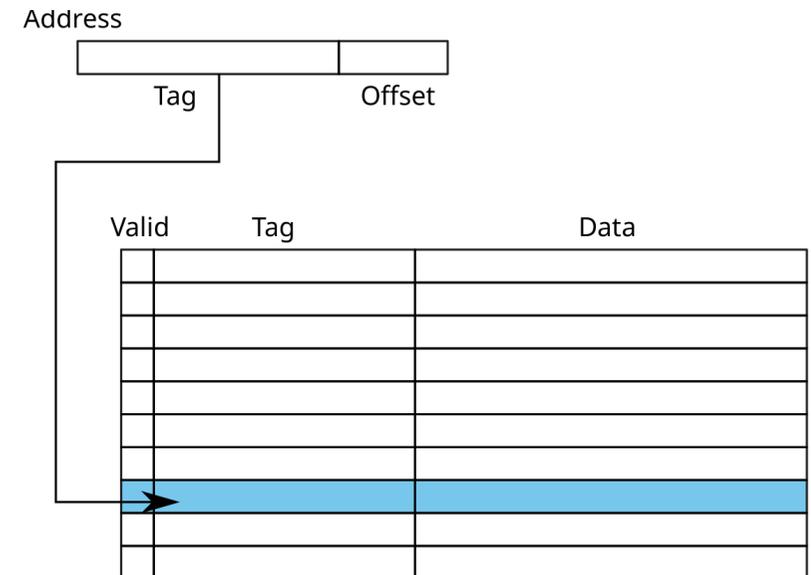
## 5.2 Memory Management Unit (MMU)

- Translates virtual memory addresses into physical addresses
- Look in the TLB (*Translation Lookaside Buffer*), then in the page table
- Once the physical address is found, request the data from the cache / memory



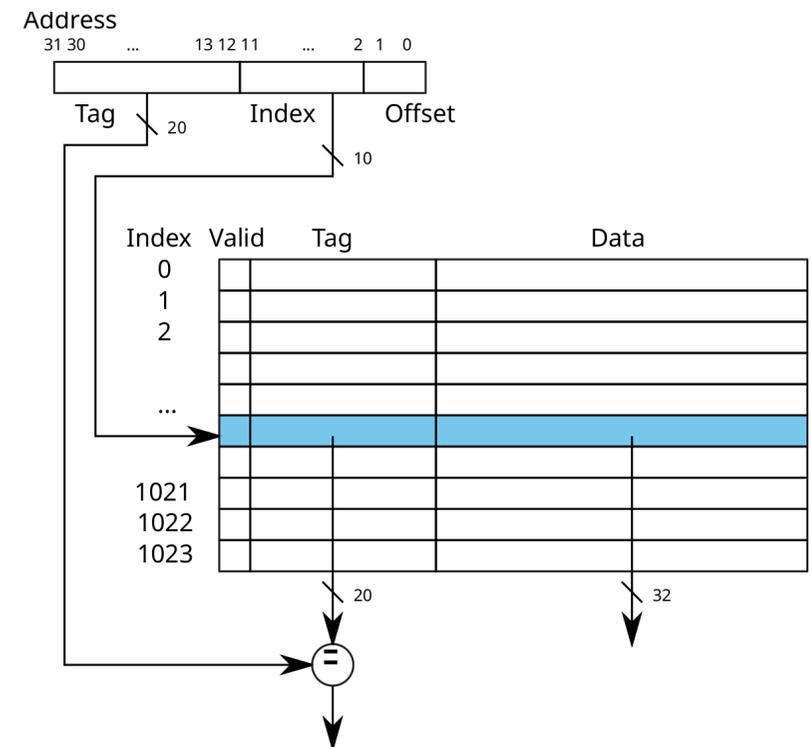
## 5.2.1 Fully-associative caches

- Cache = array with N entries
  - For each reference, search for *Tag* in the array
    - ◆ If found (*cache hit*) and Valid = 1: access to the *cache line Data*
    - ◆ Otherwise (*cache miss*): RAM access
  - Problem: need to browse the whole table
- Mainly used for small caches (ex: TLB)



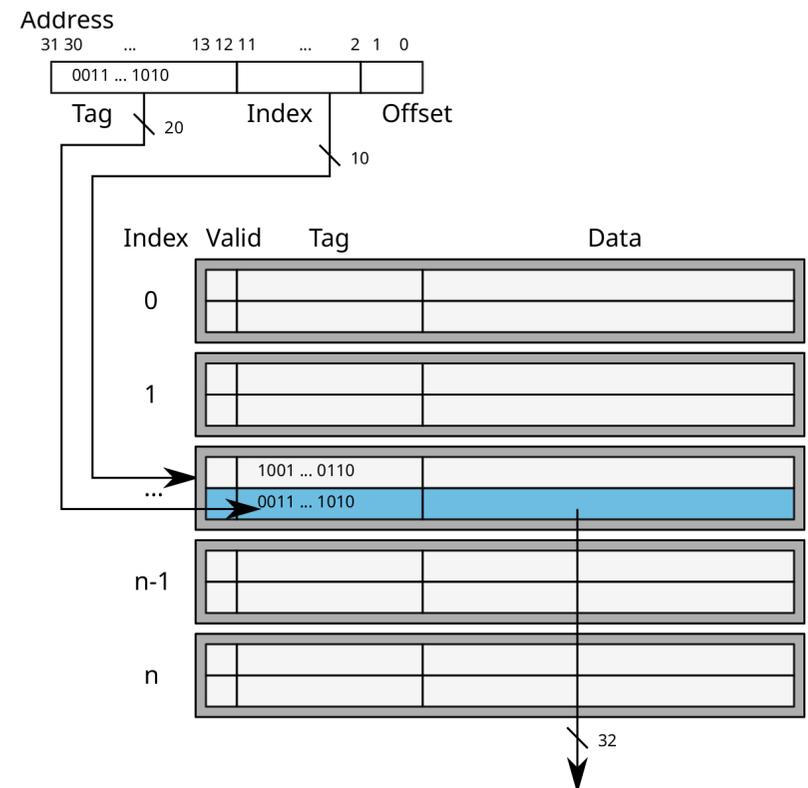
## 5.2.2 Direct-mapped caches

- Using the least significant bits of the address to find the *index* of the entry in the cache
- Comparison of the *Tag* (most significant bits) of the address and the entry.
- Direct access to the cache line
- Warning: risk of collision
  - ◆ example: `0x12345678` and `0xbff72678`



## 5.2.3 Set-associative caches

- *Index* to access a set of  $K$  cache lines
  - Search for the *Tag* among the addresses of the set
- $K$ -way associative cache (in French: *Cache associatif  $K$ -voies*)



## 5.2.4 Cache consistency

- What if 2 threads access the same cache line?
  - ◆ Concurrent read: replication in local caches
  - ◆ Concurrent write: need to invalidate data in other caches
    - ▶ *Cache snooping*: the cache sends a message that invalidates the others caches

# Bibliography