Supercomputing in Plain English

Instruction Level Parallelism

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October 1 2004



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Outline

- What is Instruction-Level Parallelism?
- Scalar Operation
- Loops
- Pipelining
- Loop Performance
- Superpipelining
- Vectors
- A Real Example

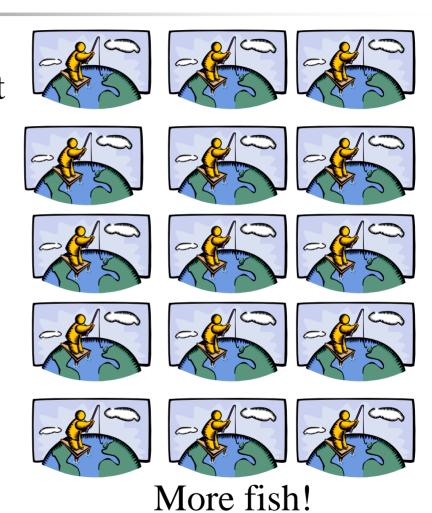


Parallelism

Parallelism means doing multiple things at the same time: you can get more work done in the same time.

Less fish ...







What Is ILP?

Instruction-Level Parallelism (ILP) is a set of techniques for executing multiple instructions at the same time within the same CPU.

The problem: the CPU has lots of circuitry, and at any given time, most of it is idle.

The solution: have different parts of the CPU work on different operations at the same time – if the CPU has the ability to work on 10 operations at a time, then the program can run as much as 10 times as fast (although in practice, not quite so much).





DON'T PANIC!





Why You Shouldn't Panic

In general, the compiler and the CPU will do most of the heavy lifting for instruction-level parallelism.

BUT:

You need to be aware of ILP, because how your code is structured affects how much ILP the compiler and the CPU can give you.





- Superscalar: perform multiple operations at the same time (e.g., simultaneously perform an add, a multiply and a load)
- Pipeline: start performing an operation on one piece of data while finishing the same operation on another piece of data perform different <u>stages</u> of the same operation on different sets of operands at the same time (like an assembly line)
- Superpipeline: combination of superscalar and pipelining –
 perform multiple pipelined operations at the same time
- *Vector*: load multiple pieces of data into special registers and perform the same operation on all of them at the same time



What's an Instruction?

- Memory: e.g., load a value from a specific address in main memory into a specific register, or store a value from a specific register into a specific address in main memory
- Arithmetic: e.g., add two specific registers together and put their sum in a specific register or subtract, multiply, divide, square root, etc
- *Logical*: e.g., determine whether two registers both contain nonzero values ("AND")
- **Branch**: jump from one sequence of instructions to another
- ... and so on



What's a Cycle?

You've heard people talk about having a 2 GHz processor or a 3 GHz processor or whatever. (For example, Henry's laptop has a 1.5 GHz Pentium4.)

Inside every CPU is a little clock that ticks with a fixed frequency. We call each tick of the CPU clock a *clock cycle* or a *cycle*.

So a 2 GHz processor has 2 billion clock cycles per second.

Typically, a primitive operation (e.g., add, multiply, divide) takes a fixed number of cycles to execute (assuming no pipelining).



What's the Relevance of Cycles?

Typically, a primitive operation (e.g., add, multiply, divide) takes a fixed number of cycles to execute (assuming no pipelining).



■ IBM POWER4 [1]

Multiply or add: 6 cycles (64 bit floating point)

■ Load: 4 cycles from L1 cache

14 cycles from L2 cache

Intel Pentium4 [2]



Multiply: 7 cycles (64 bit floating point)

Add, subtract: 5 cycles (64 bit floating point)

Divide, square root: 38 cycles (64 bit floating point)

■ Tangent: 225-250 cycles (64 bit floating point)









DON'T PANIC!





Scalar Operation

$$z = a * b + c * d;$$

How would this statement be executed?

- Load **a** into register **R0**
- Load b into R1
- 3. Multiply R2 = R0 * R1
- 4. Load c into R3
- 5. Load **d** into **R4**
- 6. Multiply R5 = R3 * R4
- 7. Add R6 = R2 + R5
- 8. Store **R6** into **z**



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Does Order Matter?

- 1. Load **a** into **R0**
- 2. Load **b** into **R1**
- 3. Multiply R2 = R0 * R1
- 4. Load c into R3
- 5. Load d into R4
- 6. Multiply R5 = R3 * R4
- 7. Add R6 = R2 + R5
- 8. Store **R6** into **z**

- 1. Load d into R0
- 2. Load c into R1
- 3. Multiply R2 = R0 * R1
- 4. Load **b** into **R3**
- 5. Load a into R4
- 6. Multiply **R5 = R3 * R4**
- 7. Add R6 = R2 + R5
- 8. Store **R6** into **z**

In the cases where order doesn't matter, we say that the operations are *independent* of one another.





Superscalar Operation

$$z = a * b + c * d;$$

- 1. Load a into RO AND load b into R1
- 2. Multiply $R2 = R0 * R1 \underline{AND}$ load c into $R3 \underline{AND}$ load d into R4
- 3. Multiply R5 = R3 * R4
- 4. Add R6 = R2 + R5
- 5. Store R6 into z

So, we go from 8 operations down to 5.

(Note: there are lots of simplifying assumptions here.)







Loops Are Good

Most compilers are very good at optimizing <u>loops</u>, and not very good at optimizing other constructs.

```
DO index = 1, length
    dst(index) = src1(index) + src2(index)
END DO
```

Why?





Why Loops Are Good

- Loops are <u>very common</u> in many programs.
- Also, it's easier to optimize loops than more arbitrary sequences of instructions: when a program does the same thing over and over, it's easier to predict what's likely to happen next.

So, hardware vendors have designed their products to be able to execute loops quickly.





DON'T PANIC!



Superscalar Loops

Each of the iterations is **completely independent** of all of the other iterations; e.g.,

$$z(1) = a(1)*b(1) + c(1)*d(1)$$

has nothing to do with

$$z(2) = a(2)*b(2) + c(2)*d(2)$$

Operations that are independent of each other can be performed in **parallel**.



Superscalar Loops

```
for (i = 0; i < n; i++) {
  z[i] = a[i] * b[i] + c[i] * d[i];
}</pre>
```

- 1. Load a[i] into R0 AND load b[i] into R1
- 2. Multiply R2 = R0 * R1 AND load c[i] into R3 AND load d[i] into R4
- 3. Multiply $R5 = R3 * R4 \underline{AND}$ load a[i+1] into $R0 \underline{AND}$ load b[i+1] into R1
- 4. Add R6 = R2 + R5 AND load c[i+1] into R3 AND load d[i+1] into R4
- 5. Store R6 into z[i] AND multiply R2 = R0 * R1
- 6. etc etc etc

Once this loop is "in flight," each iteration adds only 2 operations to the total, not 8.



Example: IBM POWER4

- **8-way** Superscalar: can execute up to 8 operations at the same time^[1]
- 2 integer arithmetic or logical operations, and
- 2 floating point arithmetic operations, and
- 2 memory access (load or store) operations, and
- 1 branch operation, and
- 1 conditional operation









Pipelining

Pipelining is like an assembly line or a bucket brigade.

- An operation consists of multiple stages.
- After a particular set of operands

$$z(i)=a(i)*b(i)+c(i)*d(i)$$

completes a particular stage, they move into the next stage.

Then, another set of operands

$$z(i+1)=a(i+1)*b(i+1)+c(i+1)*d(i+1)$$

can move into the stage that was just abandoned by the previous set.





DON'T PANIC!



Pipelining Example

t = 0	t = 1	t = 2	t = 3	t = 4	t = 5	t = 6	t = 7
Instruction Fetch	Instruction Decode	Operand Fetch	Instruction Execution	Result Writeback	i = 1	L DON'T	PANIC!
	Instruction Fetch	Instruction Decode	Operand Fetch	Instruction Execution	Result Writeback	i = 2	
	i = 3	Instruction Fetch	Instruction Decode	Operand Fetch	Instruction Execution	Result Writeback	
DON'T PANIC!		i = 4	Instruction Fetch	Instruction Decode	Operand Fetch	Instruction Execution	Result Writeback

Computation time

If each stage takes, say, one CPU cycle, then once the loop gets going, each iteration of the loop increases the total time by only one cycle. So a loop of length 1000 takes only 1004 cycles. [3]





Pipelines: Example

■ IBM POWER4: pipeline length \cong 15 stages [1]





Some Simple Loops

```
DO index = 1, length
 dst(index) = src1(index) + src2(index)
END DO !! index = 1, length
DO index = 1, length
 dst(index) = src1(index) - src2(index)
END DO !! index = 1, length
DO index = 1, length
 dst(index) = src1(index) * src2(index)
END DO !! index = 1, length
DO index = 1, length
 dst(index) = src1(index) / src2(index)
END DO !! index = 1, length
DO index = 1, length
                              Reduction: convert
 sum = sum + src(index)
END DO !! index = 1, length
                              array to scalar
```



Slightly Less Simple Loops

```
DO index = 1, length
  dst(index) = src1(index) ** src2(index)
END DO !! index = 1, length
DO index = 1, length
  dst(index) = MOD(src1(index), src2(index))
END DO !! index = 1, length
DO index = 1, length
  dst(index) = SQRT(src(index))
END DO !! index = 1, length
DO index = 1, length
  dst(index) = COS(src(index))
END DO !! index = 1, length
DO index = 1, length
  dst(index) = EXP(src(index))
END DO !! index = 1, length
DO index = 1, length
  dst(index) = LOG(src(index))
END DO !! index = 1, length
```







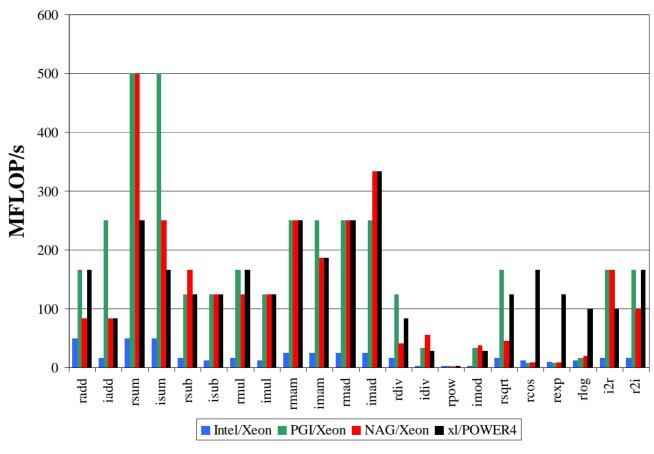
Performance Characteristics

- Different operations take different amounts of time.
- Different processor types have different performance characteristics, but there are some characteristics that many platforms have in common.
- Different compilers, even on the same hardware, perform differently.
- On some processors, floating point and integer speeds are similar, while on others they differ.



Arithmetic Operation Speeds

Ordered Arithmetic Operations





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Fast and Slow Operations

- **Fast**: sum, add, subtract, multiply
- **Medium**: divide, mod (i.e., remainder)
- **Slow**: transcendental functions (sqrt, sin, exp)
- **Incredibly slow**: power x^y for real x and y

On most platforms, divide, mod and transcendental functions are not pipelined, so a code will run faster if most of it is just adds, subtracts and multiplies (e.g., solving systems of linear equations by LU decomposition).



What Can Prevent Pipelining?

Certain events make it very hard (maybe even impossible) for compilers to pipeline a loop, such as:

- array elements accessed in <u>random order</u>
- loop body too complicated
- <u>if statements</u> inside the loop (on some platforms)
- premature <u>loop exits</u>
- function/subroutine <u>calls</u>
- <u>I/O</u>





How Do They Kill Pipelining?

- Random access order: ordered array access is common, so pipelining hardware and compilers tend to be designed under the assumption that most loops will be ordered. Also, the pipeline will constantly stall because data will come from main memory, not cache.
- <u>Complicated loop body</u>: the compiler gets too overwhelmed and can't figure out how to schedule the instructions.



How Do They Kill Pipelining?

• <u>if statements</u> in the loop: on some platforms (but not all), the pipelines need to perform exactly the same operations over and over; **if** statements make that impossible.

However, many CPUs can now perform <u>speculative</u> <u>execution</u>: both branches of the **if** statement are executed while the condition is being evaluated, but only one of the results is retained (the one associated with the condition's value).

Also, many CPUs can now perform <u>branch prediction</u> to head down the most likely compute path.



How Do They Kill Pipelining?

- Function/subroutine calls interrupt the flow of the program even more than if statements. They can take execution to a completely different part of the program, and pipelines aren't set up to handle that.
- Loop exits are similar. Most compilers can't pipeline loops with premature or unpredictable exits.
- I/O: typically, I/O is handled in subroutines (above). Also, I/O instructions can take control of the program away from the CPU (they can give control to I/O devices).





What If No Pipelining?

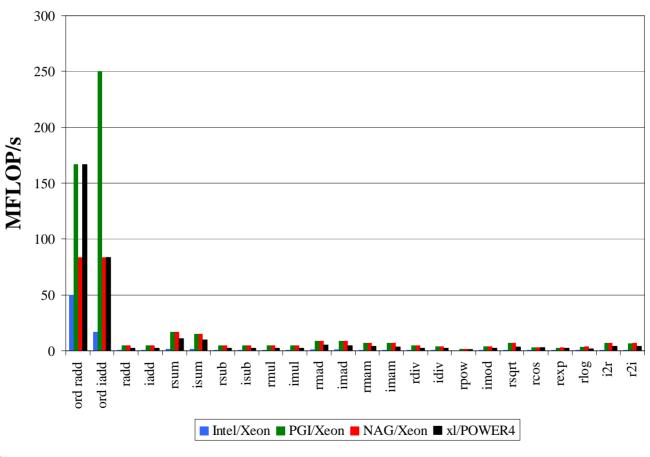
SLOW!

(on most platforms)



Randomly Permuted Loops

Permuted Arithmetic Operations









Superpipelining

Superpipelining is a combination of superscalar and pipelining.

So, a superpipeline is a collection of multiple pipelines that can operate simultaneously.

In other words, several different operations can execute simultaneously, and each of these operations can be broken into stages, each of which is filled all the time.

So you can get multiple operations per CPU cycle.

For example, a IBM Power4 can have over 200 different operations "in flight" at the same time.^[1]





More Operations At a Time

- If you put more operations into the code for a loop, you'll get better performance:
 - more operations can execute at a time (use more pipelines), and
 - you get better register/cache reuse.
- On most platforms, there's a limit to how many operations you can put in a loop to increase performance, but that limit varies among platforms, and can be quite large.



Some Complicated Loops

```
DO index = 1, length
                                                madd (or FMA):
  dst(index) = src1(index) + 5.0 * src2(index) mult then add
END DO !! index = 1, length
                                                    (2 \text{ ops})
dot = 0
DO index = 1, length
                                            dot product
  dot = dot + src1(index) * src2(index)
                                              (2 ops)
END DO !! index = 1, length
DO index = 1, length
                                                  from our
  dst(index) = src1(index) * src2(index) + &
                                                  example
                src3(index) * src4(index)
 &
                                                  (3 ops)
END DO !! index = 1, length
DO index = 1, length
                                         Euclidean distance
  diff12 = src1(index) - src2(index)
                                             (6 ops)
  diff34 = src3(index) - src4(index)
  dst(index) = SQRT(diff12 * diff12 + diff34 * diff34)
END DO !! index = 1, length
```



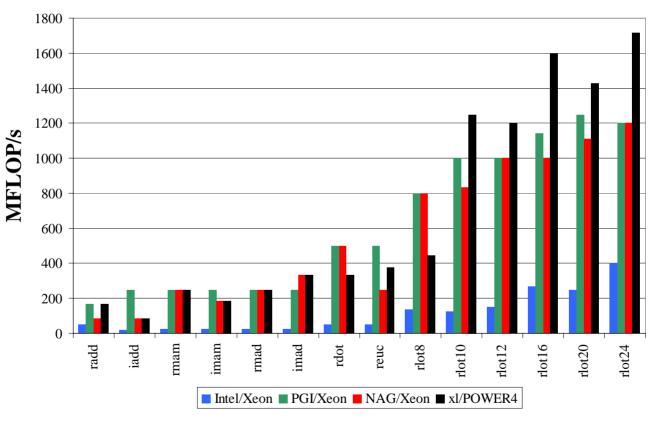
A Very Complicated Loop

```
lot = 0.0
DO index = 1, length
    lot = lot +
                                            &
      src1(index) * src2(index) +
 æ
                                            &
      src3(index) * src4(index) +
 &
                                            &
       (src1(index) + src2(index)) *
 &
                                            &
       (src3(index) + src4(index)) *
 8
                                            8
       (src1(index) - src2(index)) *
 &
                                            &
       (src3(index) - src4(index)) *
 8
                                            8
       (src1(index) - src3(index) +
                                            &
        src2(index) - src4(index)) *
 &
                                            &
       (src1(index) + src3(index) -
                                            &
        src2(index) + src4(index)) +
 8
       (src1(index) * src3(index)) +
                                            &
       (src2(index) * src4(index))
    DO !! index = 1, length
END
         24 arithmetic ops per iteration
      4 memory/cache loads per iteration
          Supercomputing in Plain English: ILP
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```



Multiple Ops Per Iteration

Ordered Arithmetic Operations Multiple Operations Per Loop











A <u>vector</u> is a collection of registers that act together to perform the same operation on multiple operands.

In a sense, vectors are like operation-specific cache.

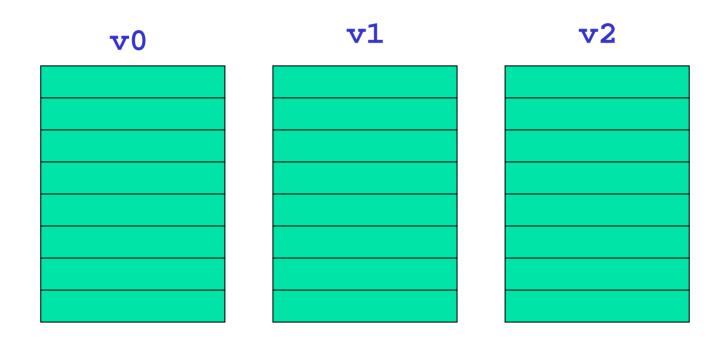
A <u>vector register</u> is a register that's actually made up of many individual registers.

A <u>vector instruction</u> is an instruction that operates on all of the individual registers of a vector register.





Vector Register



$$v2 = v0 + v1$$



Vectors Are Expensive

Vectors were very popular in the 1980s, because they're very fast, often faster than pipelines.

In the 1990s, though, they weren't very popular. Why?

Well, vectors aren't used by most commercial codes (e.g., MS Word). So most chip makers don't bother with vectors.

So, if you wanted vectors, you had to pay a lot of **extra money** for them.

However, with the Pentium III Intel reintroduced very small vectors (2 operations at a time), for integer operations only. The Pentium4 added floating point vector operations, also of size 2.







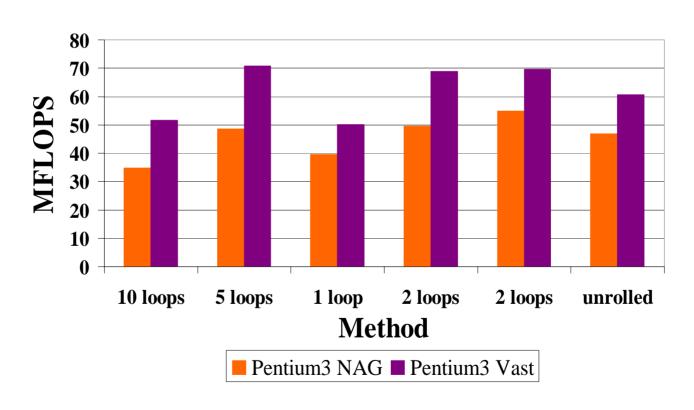
A Real Example^[4]

```
DO k=2.nz-1
 DO j=2,ny-1
   DO i=2,nx-1
      tem1(i,j,k) = u(i,j,k,2)*(u(i+1,j,k,2)-u(i-1,i,k,2))*dxinv2
      tem2(i,j,k) = v(i,j,k,2)*(u(i,j+1,k,2)-u(i,j-1,k,2))*dyinv2
      tem3(i,j,k) = w(i,j,k,2)*(u(i,j,k+1,2)-u(i,j,k-1,2))*dzinv2
    END DO
 END DO
END DO
DO k=2,nz-1
 DO j=2,ny-1
   DO i=2,nx-1
      u(i,j,k,3) = u(i,j,k,1) -
 &
                   dtbig2*(tem1(i,j,k)+tem2(i,j,k)+tem3(i,j,k))
    END DO
 END DO
END DO
```



Real Example Performance

Performance By Method







DON'T PANIC!





Why You Shouldn't Panic

In general, the compiler and the CPU will do most of the heavy lifting for instruction-level parallelism.

BUT:

You need to be aware of ILP, because how your code is structured affects how much ILP the compiler and the CPU can give you.





Next Time

Part IV: Stupid Compiler Tricks



References

- [1] Steve Behling et al, *The POWER4 Processor Introduction and Tuning Guide*, IBM, 2001.
- [2] Intel Pentium 4 and Pentium Xeon Processor Optimization: Reference Manual, Intel Corp, 1999-2002.
- [3] Kevin Dowd and Charles Severance, *High Performance Computing*, 2nd ed. O'Reilly, 1998.
- [4] Code courtesy of Dan Weber, 2001.

