

# Computer System Architecture

**Subject Code:CS405**

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## MODULE - 1

**PARALLEL COMPUTER MODELS**

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## COMPUTER ARCHITECTURE

- Computer architecture is concerned with the structure and behavior of the computer as seen by the user.
- It involves both hardware and programming requirements.
- It is a study of both Instruction Set Architecture (ISA) and machine implementation organization.

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### ❖ Lookahead

- It is used to prefetch instructions in order to overlap I/E (Instruction Fetch/Decode and Execution) operations and to enable functional parallelism.
- Functional parallelism can be achieved by two approaches
  1. Use multiple functional units simultaneously
  2. Use pipelining

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### ❖ Parallelism

- Parallel processing is a technique used to provide **simultaneous data processing** tasks for the purpose of **increasing computational speed** of a computer system.
- It perform concurrent data processing to achieve **faster execution time**.
- For implementing parallel processing , we use the following techniques
  1. Pipelining
  2. Multiplicity of functional units
  3. DMA
  4. Hierarchal memory system.
  5. Multi-programming & Time sharing

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### ❖ Pipelining

- Multiple instructions are overlapped in execution
- It increases the system throughput
- A digital computer involves 4 major steps (Instruction Cycle)
  1. Instruction Fetch
  2. Instruction Decoding
  3. Operand Fetch
  4. Execution
- In non-pipelined computer these 4 steps must be completed before the next instruction can be issued.

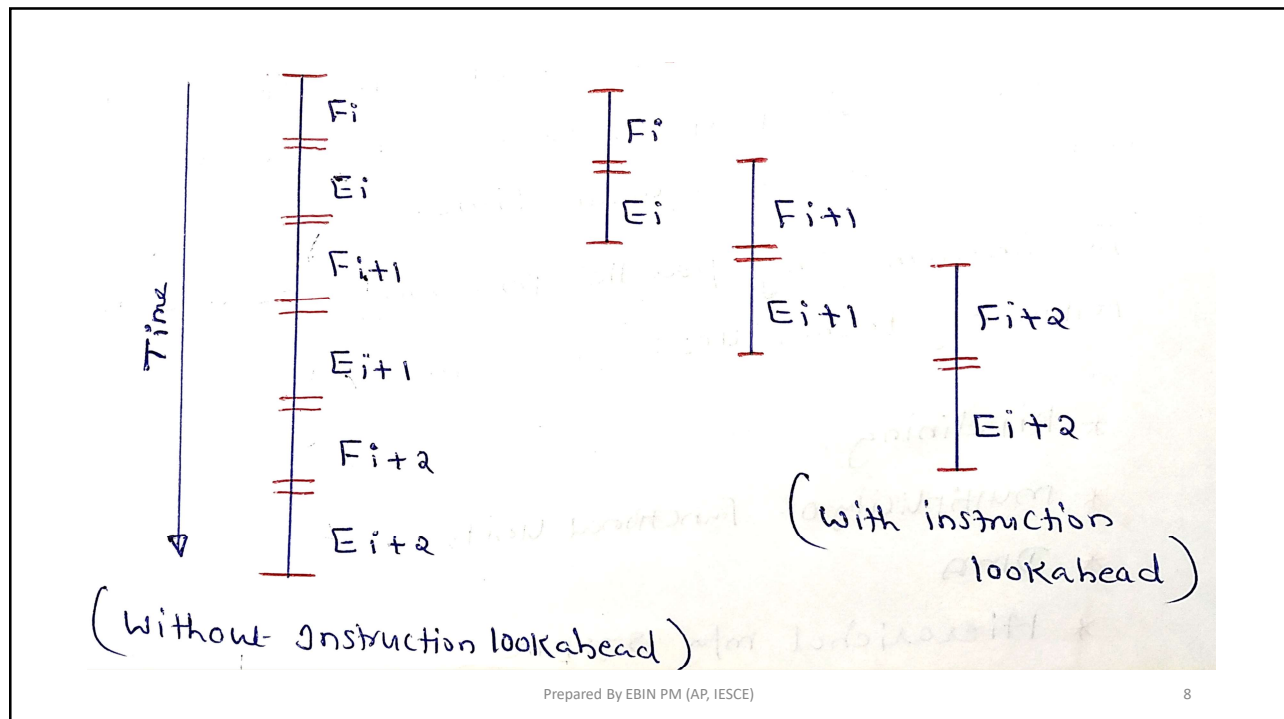
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- In a pipelined computer, successive instructions are executed in an overlapped fashion.
- The two types of pipelines are
  1. Arithmetic pipeline
  2. Instruction pipeline
- The way to speedup the CPU is to overlap the fetching of the next instruction with the execution of the current instruction. This technique is called **Instruction Lookahead**.

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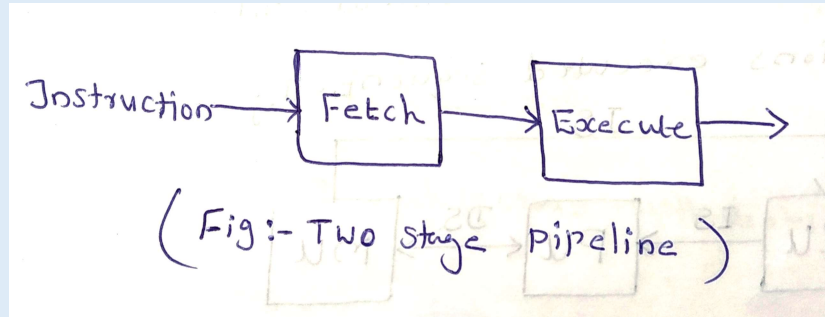
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- Without Look ahead, the three instructions take 6 time units to complete.
- With Look ahead, they take only 4 time units
- This overlapping of work is called a **two stage pipeline**



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## FLYNN'S CLASSIFICATION OF COMPUTERS

- Flynn's classification scheme is based on how many streams of **INSTRUCTIONS** and **DATA** exist in a machine.
- A stream means a sequence of items (instructions or data) as executed or operated on by a processor.
- Some machines **executes a single stream of instructions**, while others execute multiple streams.
- Some machines **reference single stream of data**, and others reference many streams of data.

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❖ Instruction Stream – Sequence of instructions

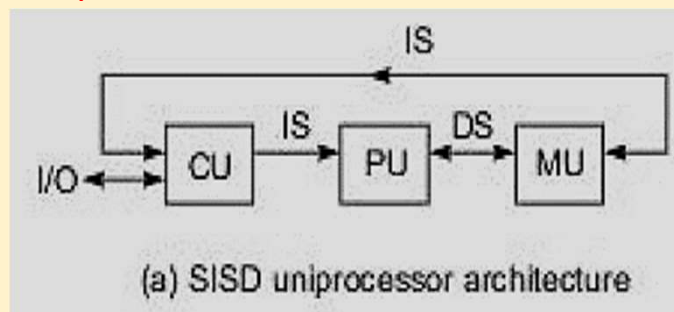
❖ Data Stream – Sequence of data

1. SISD – Single Instruction stream single Data stream
2. SIMD – Single Instruction stream Multiple Data stream
3. MISD – Multiple Instruction stream Single Data stream
4. MIMD – Multiple Instruction stream Multiple Data stream

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### (1) SISD Computer



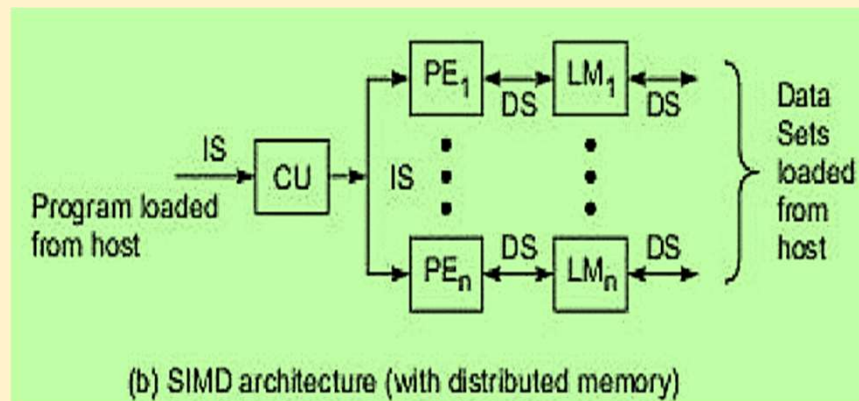
- It is also known as **Von Neumann architecture**
- Both instruction and data are fetched from the memory modules
- Instructions are decoded by the Control Unit (CU), which sends the decoded instruction stream to the processor units for execution.

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- All the serial computers are SISD
- It has more than one functional units
- Instructions executed sequentially

## (2) SIMD Computer



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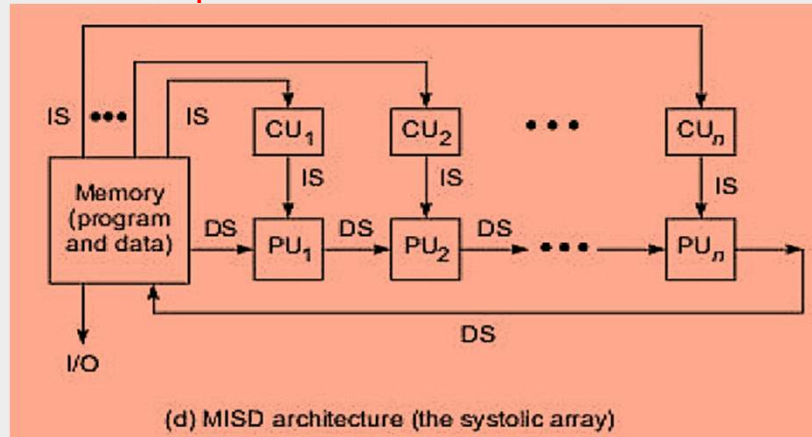
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- SIMD computers are also known as **Array processors**
- A single instruction stream is broadcasted to multiple processors, each having its own data stream.
- Since each PE (Processing Element) operates on its own local data, there are multiple data streams.
- Simultaneous communication with processor is possible
- SIMD machine can be further divided in to **Word-Slice** Vs. **Bit-Slice** modes
- **ILLIAC IV** is the first SIMD machine

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### (3) MISD Computer



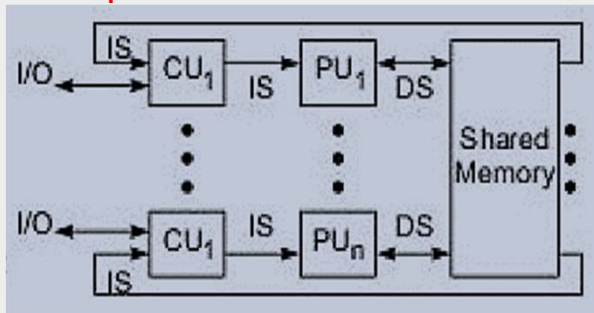
- Also known as **Systolic array**
- It has “n” processor units, each receiving distinct instructions

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- The result of one processor become the input of the next processor
- No real existence, no practical system has been constructed
- Single data stream is fed in to multiple processing units.

### (4) MIMD Computer

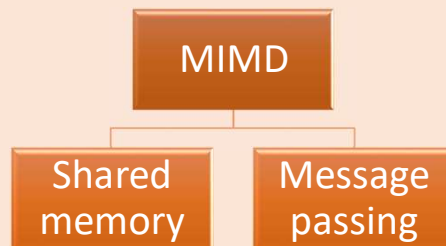


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- Parallel computers are reserved for MIMD machines.
- Each processor has its own instruction stream and input data
- Capable of processing several programs at same time
- Eg: Supercomputers, Network parallel computer grids
- Two subclasses of MIMD are

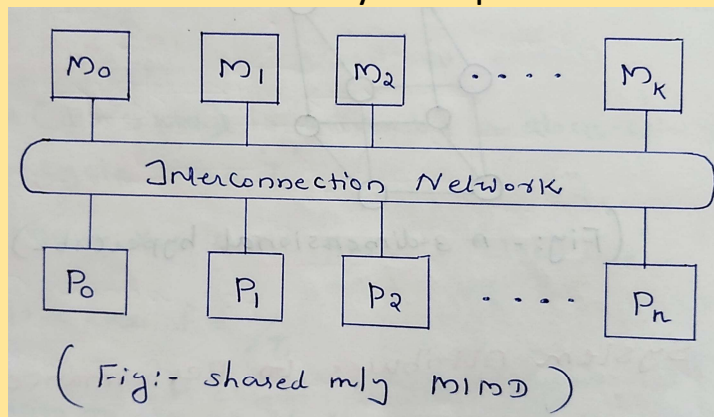


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### ❖ MIMD Shared Memory

- Here, any of the processors may read from or write to a shared memory address space.
- It is also called shared memory multiprocessor.

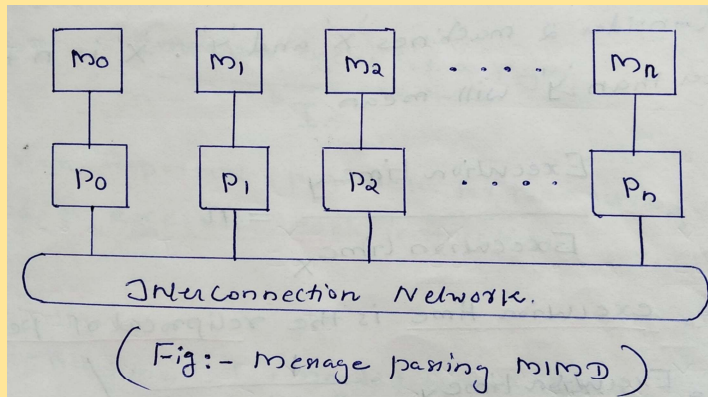


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### ❖ MIMD Message Passing

- Here, all the processors having their own local memory.
- In order to communicate, the processors send messages to each other by way of an interconnection network.

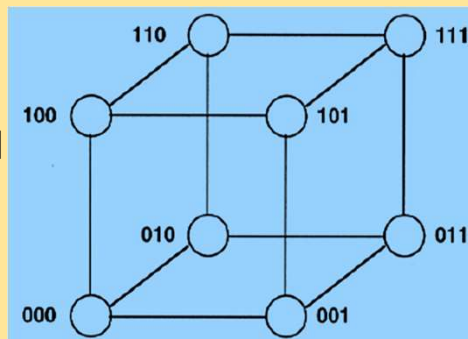


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- The interconnection network may take different forms.
- A popular interconnection network for message passing mechanism is the "K-dimensional binary hypercube".
- For example, in a 3-dimensional hypercube, the processors are at the corner of a cube.

( Fig:3-dimensional hypercube)



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## SYSTEM ATTRIBUTES TO PERFORMANCE

- The computer user is interested in reducing **response time** (the time between the start and completion of an event) and increasing **throughput** (the total amount of work done in a given time)
- Consider two machines X and Y. "X is n times faster than Y" will mean

$$\frac{\text{Execution time}_Y}{\text{Execution time}_X} = n$$

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- Since, execution time is the reciprocal of performance, the following relationship holds:

$$n = \frac{\text{Execution time}_Y}{\text{Execution time}_X} = \frac{\frac{1}{\text{Performance}_Y}}{\frac{1}{\text{Performance}_X}} = \frac{\text{Performance}_X}{\text{Performance}_Y}$$

- Because, **performance** and **execution time** are reciprocals, increasing performance decreases execution time.

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- Computer architects have come up with a variety of metrics to describe the computer performance.

### Clock rate and CPI / IPC

- CPU is driven by a clock with a constant cycle time “ $\tau$ ”
- The inverse of the cycle time is “clock rate”

$$\text{Clock rate } f = 1/\tau$$

- The size of the program is determined by the instruction count (Ic)
- If we know the no. of clock cycles and the Ic, we can calculate the average number of clock cycles per instruction (CPI)

$$\text{CPI} = \frac{\text{CPU clock cycles for a program}}{\text{Instruction count}}$$

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- CPI is an important parameter for measuring the time needed to execute each instruction.

### Performance factors

- The CPU time (T) needed to execute the program is estimated by

$$\text{CPU time} = \text{Instruction count} \times \text{Cycles per instruction} \times \text{Clock cycle time}$$

- The execution of an instruction requires going through a cycle of events involving the instruction fetch, decode, operand fetch, execution and store the result.

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- In this cycle only the instruction decode and execution phases are carried out in the CPU.
- The remaining three operations may require access to the memory.
- The processor cycles required for each instruction (CPI) can be attributed to cycles needed for instruction decode and execution ( $p$ ), and cycles needed for memory references ( $m * k$ ).
- The total time needed to execute a program can then be rewritten as

$$T = I_c * (p + m * k) * \tau.$$

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- $p \rightarrow$  no: of processor cycles needed for inst decode & execution
- $m \rightarrow$  no: of memory reference needed
- $k \rightarrow$  ratio between memory and processor cycles
- $\tau \rightarrow$  processor cycle time

- **Memory cycle**

- Time needed to complete one memory reference
- Denoted as **m**
- $k \rightarrow$  depends on
  - speed of cache
  - memory technology
  - Processor memory interconnection scheme

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▪ Let

C = total number of clock cycles needed to execute a given program (n instructions)

CPI = no. of clock cycles needed to execute single instruction

$$\text{CPI} = \frac{C}{I_c}$$

CPU time

$$\rightarrow T = C * \tau$$

$$\rightarrow T = \frac{C}{f}$$

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**Q:** Machine A takes 15 seconds and Machine B runs the same program in 25 seconds. Which one is faster and by how much?

**Ans:** Assume, Machine A is n times faster than Machine B

Execution Time B / Execution Time A = n

Performance ratio = 25/15 = 1.67

So, Machine A is 1.67 times faster than machine B

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**MIPS rate**

➤ Processor speed is measured in terms of Million Instructions Per Second (MIPS)

MIPS rate is based on following factors

- Clock rate  $f$
- Instruction count  $I_c$
- CPI of given machine

$$\text{MIPS rate} = \frac{I_c}{T * 10^6} = \frac{I_c}{I_c * \text{CPI} * \tau * 10^6} \rightarrow \frac{f}{\text{CPI} * 10^6} = \frac{f}{C/I_c * 10^6}$$

$$\text{MIPS Rate} = \frac{I_c * f}{C * 10^6}$$

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**Throughput Rate**

- CPU throughput  $W_p$
- It is the measure of how many programs can be executed per second, based on the MIPS rate & average program length

$$W_p = \frac{f}{I_c * \text{CPI}}$$

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## PROBLEM

A benchmark program is run on a 40 MHz processor. The executed program consists of 100,000 instruction executions, with the following instruction mix and clock cycle count:

Instruction Type	Instruction Count	Cycles per Instruction
Integer arithmetic	45,000	1
Data transfer	32,000	2
Floating point	15,000	2
Control transfer	8,000	2

Determine the effective CPI, MIPS rate, and execution time for this program.

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## Solution

Clock speed of the Processor = 40 MHz

Instruction Type	Instruction Count	Cycles per Instruction	cycles
Integer arithmetic	45,000	1	45,000
Data transfer	32,000	2	64,000
Floating point	15,000	2	30,000
Control transfer	8,000	2	16,000

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- Total no: of cycles required to execute complete program
  - $45000+64000+30000+16000$
  - 155000 cycles
- $C=155000$  cycles
- Effective CPI =  $C/I_c$ 
  - $155000/100000$
  - CPI = 1.55

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- MIPS rate =  $f/CPI \cdot 10^6$ 

$$= 40 / 1.55 \cdot 10^6$$

$$= 40 \cdot 10^6 / 1.55 \cdot 10^6$$

$$= \underline{25.8}$$

- Given  $f=40$  MHz →  $\tau = 1/40$
- $T = I_c \cdot CPI \cdot \tau$
- $= 100000 \cdot 1.55 \cdot 1/40$
- $= 100000 \cdot 1.55 \cdot 0.025$
- $= 3875$
- $= 3.875$  ms

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## PARALLEL PROGRAMMING APPROACHES

### Implicit Parallelism

- This approach uses C, C++, Fortran or Pascal to write the source program.
- Sequentially coded source program is translated in to parallel object code by a **parallelizing compiler**.
- The system(the libraries, compiler, OS)will do the parallelism in our code.

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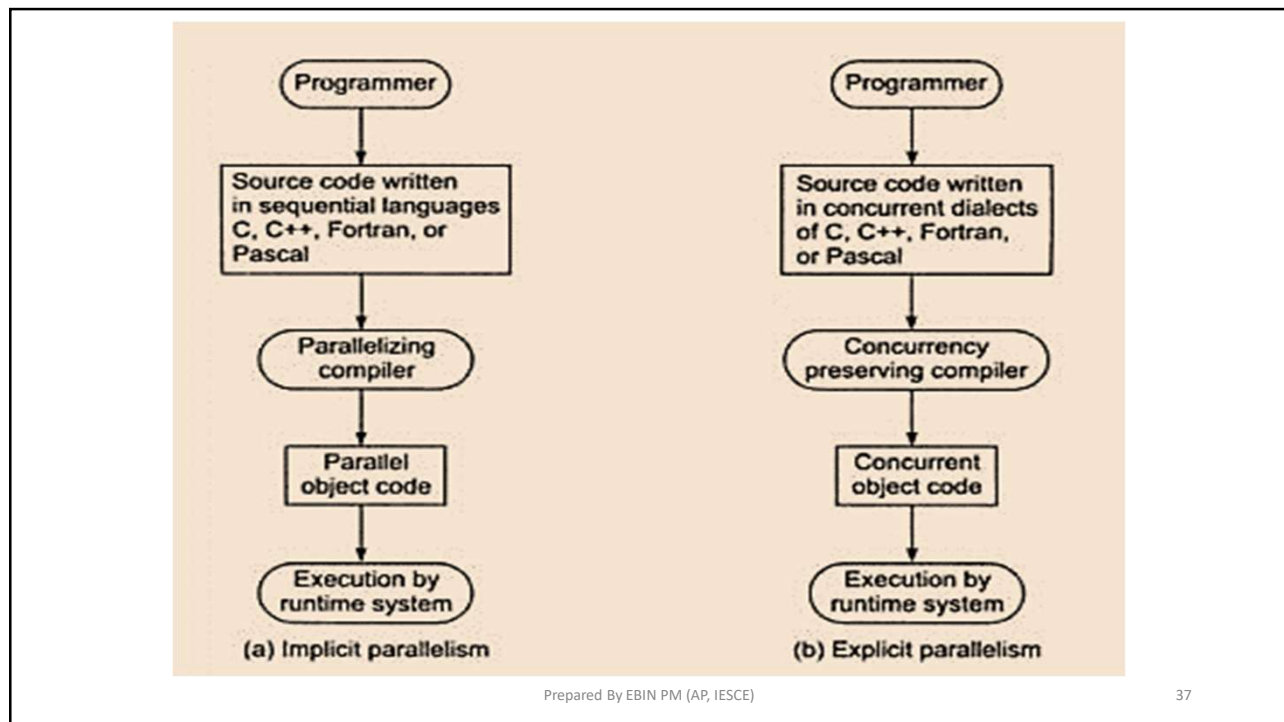
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### Explicit Parallelism

- The programmer requires more effort to develop a source program using C, C++, Fortran or Pascal
- Parallelism is explicitly specified in the user programs.
- This reduces the burden on the compiler to detect parallelism. The compiler needs to preserve the parallelism and assign target machine resources.
- The programmer decompose the work in to task and coordinate between them.

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## AMDAHL'S LAW

- It is named after Computer Scientist **Gene Amdahl** (a computer architect from IBM). It is also known as **Amdahl's Argument**.
- It is a **formula** used to find the **maximum improvement** possible by just improving a particular part of a system.
- It is often used in parallel computing to predict the theoretical speedup when using multiple processors.
- The performance gain that can be obtained by improving some portion of a computer can be calculated using Amdahl's Law.

- Amdahl's Law defines the speedup that can be gained by using a particular feature.

### Speedup is the Ratio

$$\text{Speedup} = \frac{\text{Performance for entire task using the enhancement when possible}}{\text{Performance for entire task without using the enhancement}}$$

Alternatively,

$$\text{Speedup} = \frac{\text{Execution Time for entire task without using enhancement}}{\text{Execution Time for entire task using enhancement when possible}}$$

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- Speedup tells us how much faster a task will run using the machine with the enhancement as opposed to the original machine
- Amdahl's Law gives us a quick way to find the speedup from some enhancement, which depends on two factors:

### (1) Fraction Enhanced

- The fraction of the computation time in the original machine that can be converted to take advantage of the enhancement
- For example, if 20 seconds of the execution time of a program that takes 60 seconds in total can use an enhancement, the fraction is 20/60.
- This value is called **Fraction enhanced** and is always less than or equal to 1.

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## (2) Speed-up Enhanced

- The improvement gained by the enhanced execution mode; that is, how much faster the task would run if the enhanced mode were used for the entire program
- If the enhanced mode takes 2 seconds for some portion of the program that can completely use the mode, while the original mode took 5 seconds for the same portion, the improvement is 5/2.
- This value is always greater than 1
- Amdahl's Law can serve as a guide to **how much an enhancement will improve performance** and how to distribute resources to improve cost/performance.

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$$\text{Execution time}_{\text{new}} = \text{Execution time}_{\text{old}} \times \left( (1 - \text{Fraction}_{\text{enhanced}}) + \frac{\text{Fraction}_{\text{enhanced}}}{\text{Speedup}_{\text{enhanced}}} \right)$$

❖ The overall speedup is the ratio of the execution times:

$$\text{Speedup}_{\text{overall}} = \frac{\text{Execution time}_{\text{old}}}{\text{Execution time}_{\text{new}}} = \frac{1}{(1 - \text{Fraction}_{\text{enhanced}}) + \frac{\text{Fraction}_{\text{enhanced}}}{\text{Speedup}_{\text{enhanced}}}}$$

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Suppose that we are considering an enhancement that runs 10 times faster than the original machine but is usable only 40% of the time. What is the overall speedup gained by incorporating the enhancement?

$$S_e = 10$$

$$F = 40/100 = 0.4$$

$$S_o = 1 / ((1 - F) + F/S_e)$$

$$= 1 / (0.6 + 0.4/10)$$

$$= 1/0.64 = 1.56.$$

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■ Fraction = 0.1, Speedup = 10

$$\text{Speedup}_{\text{overall}} = \frac{1}{(1 - \text{Fraction}_{\text{enhanced}}) + \frac{\text{Fraction}_{\text{enhanced}}}{\text{Speedup}_{\text{enhanced}}}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(1 - 0.1) + \frac{0.1}{10}} = \frac{1}{0.91} = 1.1$$

■ Fraction = 0.9, Speedup = 10

$$\text{Speedup}_{\text{overall}} = \frac{1}{(1 - 0.9) + \frac{0.9}{10}} = \frac{1}{0.19} = 5.3$$

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## SHARED MEMORY MULTIPROCESSORS

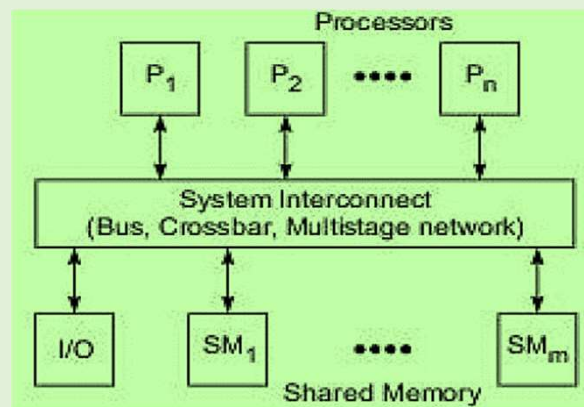
- Shared memory machines can be divided into three main classes based upon memory access times:

1. **UMA** - Uniform Memory Access model
2. **NUMA** – Non-Uniform Memory Access model
3. **COMA** – Cache-Only Memory Architecture model

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### (1) UMA Model



- All the processors share the physical memory uniformly
- All the processors have **equal access time** to all memory words, that is why it is called uniform memory access.

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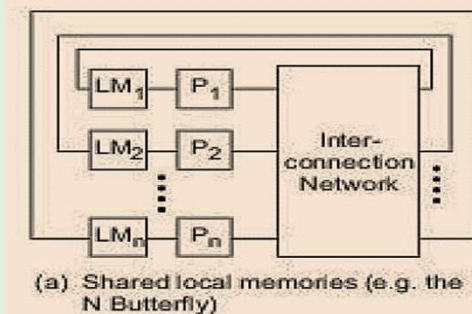
- Each processor may use private cache
- Peripherals are also shared in some fashion
- It is suitable for general purpose and time sharing applications by multiple users
- It can be used to speed up the execution of a single large program in time critical applications.
- When all processors have equal access to all peripheral devices, the system is called **Symmetric Multiprocessors**.
- In symmetric multiprocessors all the processors are equally capable of running the executive programs.

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- In an **Asymmetric Multiprocessor**, only one or a subset of processors are executive-capable. The master processor can execute the OS and handle I/O. The remaining processors have no I/O capability; and thus are called **attached processors(AP)**
- Attached processors execute user codes under the supervision of the master processor.

## (2) NUMA Model



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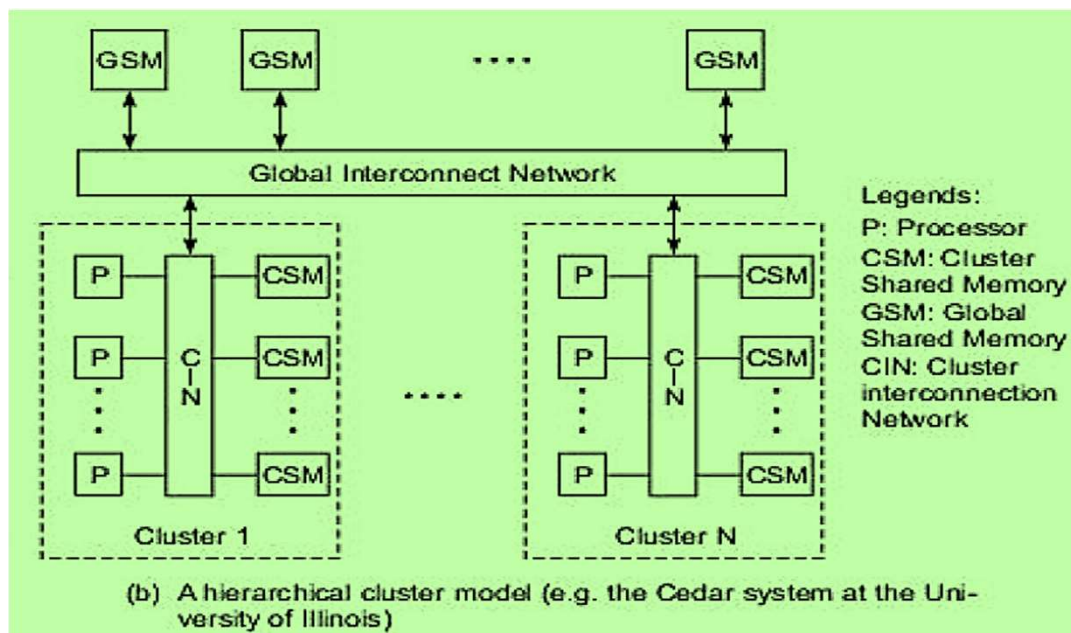
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- It is a shared memory system in which the access time varies with location of the memory word.
- The **shared memory is physically distributed to all processors**, called local memories.
- The collection of all local memories forms a global address space accessible by all processors.
- In hierarchically structured multiprocessor, the processors are divided into several clusters. Each cluster is itself an UMA or NUMA multiprocessor.
- The clusters are connected to global shared memory modules. The entire system is considered a NUMA multiprocessor.
- All clusters have equal access to the global memory.

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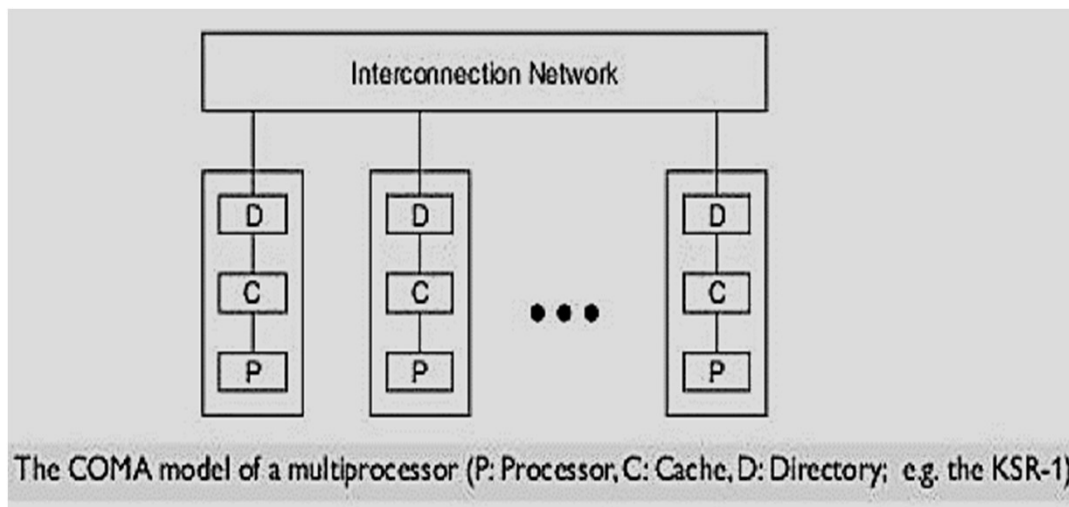
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### (3) COMA Model

- A multiprocessor using cache only memory assumes the COMA model
- It is a special case of NUMA machine, in which the distributed main memories are converted to caches
- There is no memory hierarchy and all the caches form a global address space.
- Remote cache access is assisted by the distributed cache directories.

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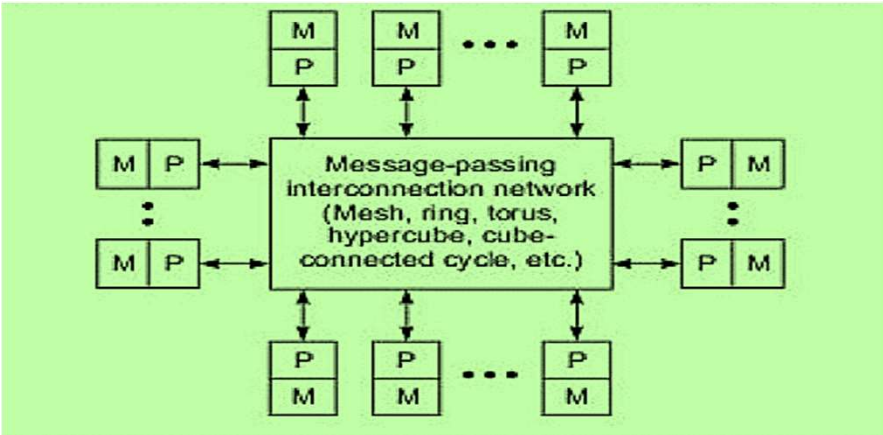
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Sr. No.	Key	UMA	NUMA
1	Definition	UMA stands for Uniform Memory Access.	NUMA stands for Non Uniform Memory Access.
2	Memory Controller	UMA has single memory controller.	NUMA has multiple memory controllers.
3	Memory Access	UMA memory access is slow.	NUMA memory access is faster than UMA memory.
4	Bandwidth	UMA has limited bandwidth.	NUMA has more bandwidth than UMA.
5	Suitability	UMA is used in general purpose and time sharing applications.	NUMA is used in real time and time critical applications.
6	Memory Access time	UMA has equal memory access time.	NUMA has varying memory access time.
7	Bus types	3 types of Buses supported: Single, Multiple and Crossbar.	2 types of Buses supported: Tree, hierarchical.

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## DISTRIBUTED - MEMORY MULTICOMPUTERS



**Fig. 1.9** Generic model of a message-passing multicomputer

- The system consist of multiple computers called nodes, **interconnected by a message passing network**
- Each **node is an autonomous computer** consisting of a processor, local memory and sometimes attached disk or I/O peripherals.
- The message passing network provides point-to-point static connections among the nodes.
- All **local memories are private** and are accessible only by local processors. For this reason, traditional multicomputer have also called “no-remote-memory-access”(NORMA) machines.

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- Modern multicomputers **use hardware routers to pass message**. A computer node is attached to each router.
- The boundary router may be connected to I/O and peripheral devices.
- Message passing between any two nodes involves a sequence of routers and channels
- Mixed type of nodes are allowed in a heterogeneous multicomputers
- The various network topologies used in multicomputers are **Ring, Tree, Mesh, Torus, Hypercube, Cube-connected cycle**
- Various communication patterns among nodes are **One to One, Broadcasting, Permutations , Multicast patterns**

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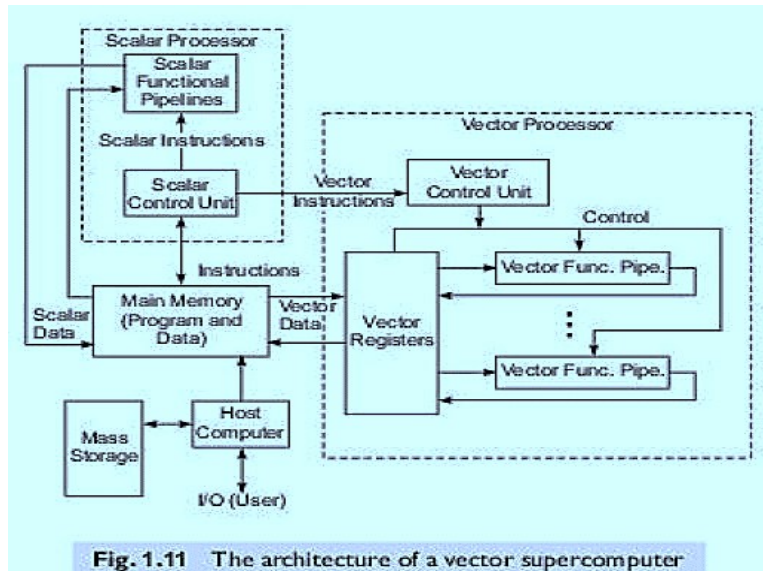
## VECTOR SUPER COMPUTER

- A vector processor is attached to a scalar processor.
- Host computer loads the program and data to the main memory.
- All instructions are first decoded by the scalar control unit.
- If the decoded instruction is a scalar operation or a program control operation, then it will be directly executed by the scalar processor using scalar functional pipelines

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- If the instruction is decoded as a vector operation, it will be sent to the vector control unit. The vector data flow is coordinated by the control unit.



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➤ The two pipeline vector supercomputer (vector processor) models are

### 1. Register-to-register architecture

- Vector registers are used to hold vector operands, intermediate and final vector result.
- There are fixed number of vector registers and functional pipelines in a vector processor

### 2. Memory-to-memory architecture

- Vector operands and results are directly retrieved from and stored into the main memory in super words (512 bits)

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## SIMD SUPERCOMPUTERS

- Computers with multiple processing elements
- SIMD Supercomputer is specified by a 5-tuple:

$$M = (N, C, I, M, R)$$

N – number of processing elements (PE) in the machine

C – Set of instructions directly executed by the control unit (CU)

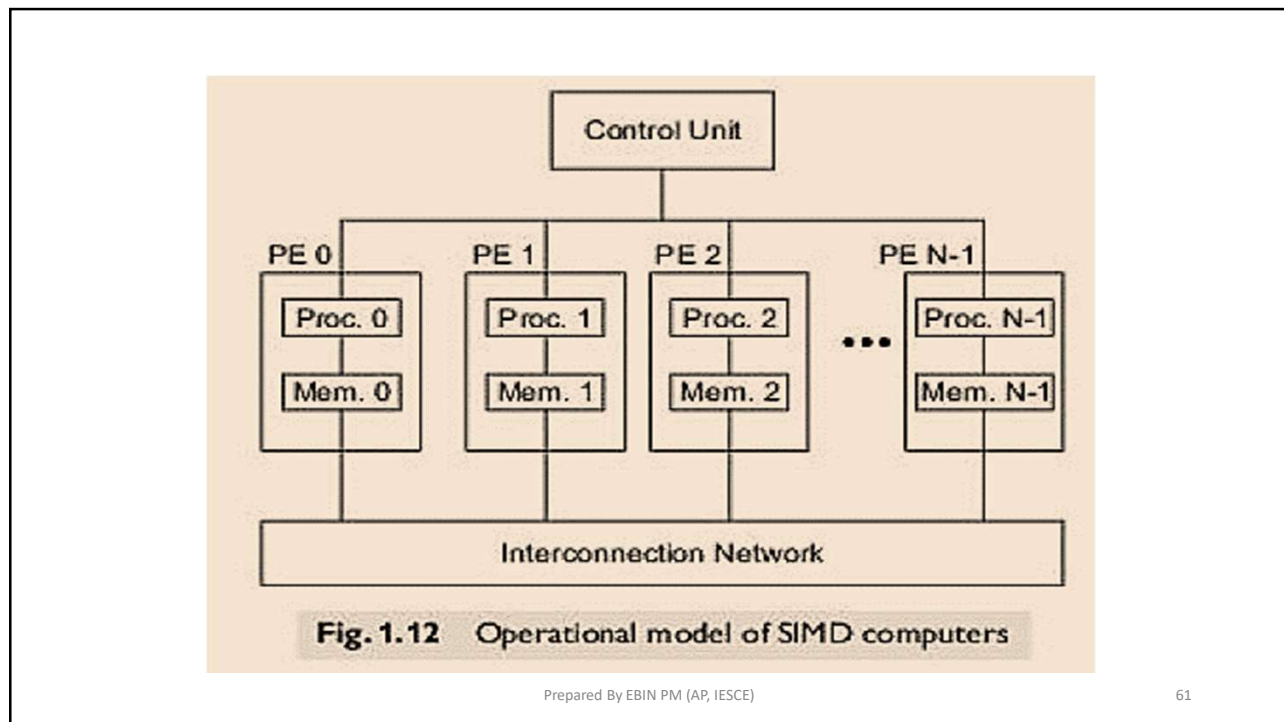
I – Set of instructions broadcast by the CU to all PEs for parallel execution

M – Set of masking schemes

R – Set of data routing functions

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## CONDITIONS OF PARALLELISM

- To execute several programs in parallel, each segment has to be independent of the other segment.
- **Dependency** is the main challenge of parallelism.
- Dependence graph shows the relation between program statements.
  - Nodes of dependence graph → program statements
  - Directed edges with labels → relations among the statements

## TYPES OF DEPENDENCES

- ❖ Data Dependence
- ❖ Control Dependence
- ❖ Resource Dependence

### (1) Data Dependence

- Ordering relationship between statements are indicated by data dependence
- Determining how one instruction depends on another
- If two instructions are parallel, they can execute simultaneously in a pipeline
- If two instructions are dependent, they are not parallel and must be executed in order.

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- 5 types of data dependences are
  - (a) Flow dependence
  - (b) Anti-dependence
  - (c) Output dependence
  - (d) I/O dependence
  - (e) Unknown dependence

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**(a) Flow Dependence**

- A statement S2 is flow dependent on statement S1,
- if an execution path exists from S1 to S2, and if at least one output of S1 is fed as an input to S2
- Denoted as  $S1 \rightarrow S2$ 
  - Eg: consider following instruction
- S1: LOAD R1,A
- S2: ADD R2,R1
- S2 is flow dependent on S1
  - Coz o/p of S1 is fed as i/p of S2
  - Ie variable A is passed into register R1

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**(b) Anti-Dependence**

- Statement S2 is anti-dependent on statement S1 if,
- S2 follows S1 in program order and if o/p of S2 overlaps the input to S1
- Denoted using a direct arrow crossed with a bar
- $S1 \bar{\rightarrow} S2$ 
  - Eg: consider the following statements
  - S2: ADD R2,R1
  - S3: move R1,R3
- S3 is anti-dependent on S2 since S3 is overlapping the input to S2
- Ie conflicts in the register content of R1

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### (3) Output Dependence

- Two statements are output dependent if they produce the same output variable
- Denoted as  $S1 \ominus \rightarrow S2$
- Eg:
- S1: LOAD R1,A
- S3: MOVE R1,R3
  
- S3 is output dependent on S1 coz they both modify the same register R1

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### (4) I/O Dependence

- I/O dependence occurs if same file is referenced by both I/O statements
- Read and write are the I/O statements
- Eg:
- S1: READ(4),A(i)
- S2: PROCESS
- S3: WRITE(4),B(I)
- S4: CLOSE(4)
  
- S1 and S3 are I/O dependent since both access the same file

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### (5) Unknown Dependence

- When the dependence relation cannot be determined between two statements, then it is known as unknown dependence.

#### Example of Data dependencies

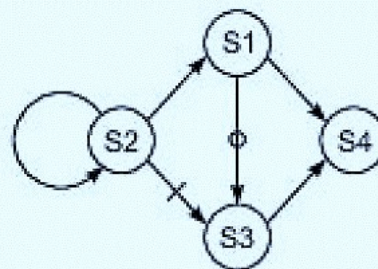
Consider the following code

S1: Load R1, A /  $R1 \leftarrow \text{memory}(A)$  /  
 S2: Add R2, R1 /  $R2 \leftarrow (R1) + (R2)$  /  
 S3: Move R1, R3 /  $R1 \leftarrow (R3)$  /  
 S4: Store B, R1 /  $\text{memory}(B) \leftarrow (R1)$  /

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- S2 is flow dependent on S1 because the variable A passed via the register R1
- S3 is anti-dependent on S2 because on potential conflicts in register content in R1
- S3 is output dependent on S1 because they both modify the same register R1



(a) Dependence graph

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## (2) Control Dependence

- An instruction is control dependent on a preceding instruction, if the outcome of later determines whether former should be executed or not.
- In the following example, instruction S2 control dependent on instruction S1
- However S3 is not control dependent up on S1 because S3 is always executed irrespective of outcome of S1.

S1: if(a == b)

S2: a= a + b

S3: b= a + b

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- There is a control dependence between two statements S1 and S2 if,
  - (a) S1 could be possibly executed before S2
  - (b) The outcome of S1 execution will determine whether S2 will be executed.

## (3) Resource Dependence

- It is concerned with the conflicts in using shared resources such as integer units, floating point units, registers and memory areas
- When the conflicting resource is an ALU, we call it **ALU dependence**
- If the conflicts involve workplace storage, it is called **storage dependence**

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## BERNSTEIN'S CONDITIONS

- Bernstein revealed a set of conditions based on **which two processes can execute in parallel**.
- Consider two processes  $P_1$ , and  $P_2$  with their input sets  $I_1$  and  $I_2$  output sets  $O_1$  and  $O_2$ , respectively.
- These two processes can execute in parallel and are denoted  $P_1 || P_2$ ; if they are independent and therefore create deterministic results

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- The following are the Bernstein's conditions

$$I_1 \cap O_2 = \emptyset$$

$$I_2 \cap O_1 = \emptyset$$

$$O_1 \cap O_2 = \emptyset$$

$I_1 \cap O_2 = \emptyset$  Input of the first program should not have any relation with the output of the second program (Anti-independent)

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$$I_2 \cap O_1 = \emptyset$$

The output of the first program should not have any dependency on the input of the second program (Flow independent)

$$O_1 \cap O_2 = \emptyset$$

The output of the two program should not be same (output independent)

➤ Bernstein's conditions simply imply that two processes can execute in parallel if they are

- Flow-independent
- Anti-independent
- Output-independent