On whether and how
D-RISC and Microgrids can be kept relevant
(self-assessment report)

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December 17, 2013
Abstract

This report lays flat my personal views on D-RISC and Microgrids as of March 2013. It reflects the opinions and insights that I have gained from working on this project during the period 2008-2013. This report is structured in two parts: deconstruction and reconstruction. In the deconstruction phase, I review what I believe are the fundamental motivation and goals of the D-RISC/Microgrids enterprise, and identify what I judge are shortcomings: that the project did not deliver on its expectations, that fundamental questions are left unanswered, and that its original motivation may not even be relevant in scientific research any more in this day and age. In the reconstruction phase, I start by identifying the merits of the current D-RISC/Microgrids technology and know-how taken at face value, re-motivate its existence from a different angle, and suggest new, relevant research questions that could justify continued scientific investment.
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Disclaimer

The arguments presented hereafter are my own, and thus may not be shared by my colleagues or work partners. To my knowledge, at the time of this writing there is no acknowledgement or consensus around the D-RISC/Microgrids enterprise, other than my own experience and impressions, that give credit to the perspective presented here.

Purpose and rationale

This report lays flat my personal views on D-RISC and Microgrids as of March 2013. It reflects the opinions and insights that I have gained from working on this project during the period 2008-2013.

The origin of this report is a case of cognitive dissonance. On the one hand, using critical thought against my “achievements” of the past few years is causing a growing discomfort, discontent and disappointment at the way the design and implementation of D-RISC/Microgrids have been carried out so far, both by myself and my colleagues. On the other hand, my optimism combined with an unusual combination of curiosity and fascination for theoretical computer science is sustaining a belief that despite its flaws, the project has produced an interesting conceptual framework which deserves further investigation at least by academics and teachers. Only by resolving this cognitive dissonance can I satisfy myself that my continued work in this area is compatible with my aspirations as a scientific researcher. By writing this report, I hope I can resolve this dissonance by externalizing both sides and construct rationally their resolution.
Executive summary

Shortcomings in the research results so far. The D-RISC/Microgrids project was purportedly intended to solve major issues in micro-architecture research, related to scalability in performance and efficiency in general-purpose microprocessors. The strategy to solve these issues was to implement a combination of dataflow scheduling with hardware support for thread concurrency management within and across cores on chip. Implementation was carried out, but the results are inconclusive. On the one hand, the proposed hardware does indeed provide higher performance and efficiency in regular, data-parallel computation kernels. On the other hand, no evidence has yet been produced that the proposed hardware benefits larger applications with more irregular workloads. Power efficiency and intelligent resource management was regularly advertised but not actively researched. Effort has been invested into widening the scope of the technology towards applications and industrial relevance, but these applications have not yet materialized.

Shortcomings in methodology. Research on D-RISC/Microgrids is not following the scientific method. It is instead currently carried out as an engineering enterprise, but without clear technology outputs and without identifying its potential applications. Its relevance in a university research group is thus questionable.

Obstacles to further progress. The D-RISC/Microgrids project has the ambitious aim to produce a general-purpose processor chip able to disrupt the current state-of-the-art. However, the limited human resources dedicated to the project are insufficient to reach this aim in isolation. The expansion of the research group to a community of users and and research partners is blocked by a fundamental lack of compatibility with existing operating systems and application software. This lack of compatibility is not properly justified, neither by practical nor theoretical reasons. Meanwhile, the scientific effort to test the hypotheses that underly the D-RISC/Microgrids project is poorly directed, and not enough attention has been given to negative results that invalidate these hypotheses. Finally, the multi-core research field is nowadays much more crowded than it was ten years ago, yet the research on D-RISC/Microgrids does not acknowledge its competition nor attempts to differentiate its contributions from the state of the art.

Actual contributions. The research has produced interesting discussions that challenge some tacit assumptions of the research community, experimental results that can be reused by future work, improvements to partner technologies and new simulation techniques. Most of the software designed and implemented during the research can be reused by third parties, and not only for research directly related to D-RISC/Microgrids. The intellectual framework educates practitioners to think about two general separations of concerns, namely concurrency vs. parallelism and using memory for storage vs. synchronization.

Individual architectural features. The D-RISC core combines features found in other processors, such as a RISC pipeline and hardware multithreading, with custom features (e.g. its TMU) and optimizations to the conventional features (e.g. switch annotations for the HMT scheduler). Some architectural optimizations found in D-RISC/Microgrids could be reused with other processors, for example switch annotations and bulk coherency in the memory network. The key feature of D-RISC/Microgrids, namely its TMU and inter-TMU control NoC, does not depend on the other features specific to D-RISC and could be potentially reused with other processors.

Follow-up strategies. I can see three follow-up strategies for new investments around D-RISC/Microgrids: exploitation, i.e. apply the technology produced so far to other uses than research; salvaging and opening the technology, i.e. extracting individual features from the D-RISC/Microgrids design and evaluating them as extensions of existing processors; and distillation of the main ideas in the realm of fundamental computer science. Ongoing research towards doctoral theses should be careful to rephrase research questions in the light of our recent shared understanding of the project’s issues.
Chapter 1

Background

1.1 Scalability in general-purpose processors

Assuming continued demand for computers where new functions can be defined by the end-user by writing and using their own software (cf. side note 1.1), the question remains of how to make general-purpose processors that are both fast (operations/second) and efficient (operations/watt). However, conventional approaches on silicon seem to have reached “walls” on both fronts around year 2000 [RML+01].

Since technology progress still delivers increasingly more transistors per chip (Moore’s law), the trend has become to glue individual processors together on the same chip, i.e. design “multi-cores.” The issue with this is that software is mostly written using sequential algorithms: introducing hardware parallelism (multiple processors) immediately raises the question of how to introduce explicit concurrency in software. Software concurrency is hard and both hardware architects and programming language designers have been making only baby steps since 2000.

1.2 D-RISC and Microgrids: what has been done

The Microgrid many-core architecture is a research project at the University of Amsterdam, which investigates whether concurrency management (thread scheduling, synchronization, and inter-thread communication) traditionally under control of software operating systems can be accelerated in hardware to obtain higher efficiency and performance. Microgrids are clusters of a simple RISC core design called D-RISC [BJM96]; each D-RISC core supports hardware multi-threading (HMT) using a dataflow scheduler, and is also equipped with a hardware Thread Management Unit (TMU) which can coordinate with neighbouring TMUs for automatic thread and data distribution (cf. side note 1.2). In short:

D-RISC = simple RISC + dataflow HMT scheduler + TMU − interrupt management

Microgrid = n×D-RISC + TMU-to-TMU NoC + custom cache/memory protocol

Prior to 2007, research on D-RISC and the Microgrid was focused on programmability issues and carried out with high-level simulators: both using traditional software multithreading and an API to emulate the TMU services [vTJLP09], and using a custom functional ISA emulator [BHJ06b]. As the initial phases of the D-RISC and Microgrid design were encouraging [BHJ06a, BGJL08], the EU-funded

Side note 1.1 On the continued demand for general-purpose computers.

One needs to accept the premise that general-purpose computers are highly desirable and that the future of computing hangs on their continued development to fully value the remainder of this report. I have explained my own reasons to accept this premise in [Pos12a sect. 1.2–1.4]; in short, I propose that general-purpose computers are, like “stem cells,” necessary to the continuation of computer science. I also propose they are essential to the democratic freedom of any citizen to create their own tools (in software) in this numeric age.

Meanwhile, I also acknowledge that it is not the role of mere academicians to decide “what people really want.” If market, fashion and politics determine that science should research instead all sorts of maximally efficient special-purpose computing devices, the deconstruction phase of this report would even be easier: there would be simply no place at all for D-RISC and Microgrids.
project Apple-CORE (2008-2011) was started to study its implementability in a system, including a full vertical tooling stack from an FPGA implementation up to benchmarks in higher-level programming languages.

The outcome of the Apple-CORE project is summarized in \cite{PLY12, Pos12a}: the D-RISC core was implemented on FPGA as UTLEON3 \cite{DKK12}, a model of Microgrids was implemented in MGSim, software tooling was delivered to program Microgrids \cite{SM11, Pos12b, GHJ09}, and D-RISC and Microgrids were confirmed using both UTLEON3 and MGSim to deliver higher performance and efficiency for some of the selected benchmarks.

1.3 D-RISC and Microgrids: what is going on

At the time of this writing, research in this area continues on two fronts. An industry-backed project has funded more effort towards tailoring D-RISC for real-time embedded systems, by adding priority-based scheduling and fault tolerance. Next to this, four doctoral candidates are planning to defend their thesis on extensions and improvements to D-RISC and Microgrids, and simulations thereof. The Microgrid-related technology produced so far is also used for graduate and undergraduate education in computer architecture and compiler construction.

\begin{side} \section{Side note 1.2} Details about D-RISC/Microgrids architecture
The rest of the text assumes passing familiarity with the D-RISC and Microgrids architecture, as presented in chapters 3 and 4 of \cite{Pos12a}. \end{side}
Part I

Deconstruction
Chapter 2

Outcomes vs. original intents: a retrospective

The research on these topics was funded based on multiple research proposals and statements of intent over time. In this section, I explore published motivations, where the scientific community has agreed via the publication approval process that the motivations and justifications were worthwhile.

Although most scientific projects are expected to diverge from their original intents, published objectives reveal the general motivation that drives the effort. Note that I do not focus here on “result-oriented” papers that report factually on research outcomes; only on those publications that made statements of intent and motivation before the corresponding work was carried out.

2.1 I. Bell, N. Hasasneh & C. Jesshope, JPP 2006

Here we explore the contributions originally advertised in [BHJ06a].

2.1.1 Summary of the article

Abstract:

Chip multiprocessors (CMPs) hold great promise for achieving scalability in future systems. Microthreaded CMPs add a means of exploiting legacy code in such systems. Using this model, compilers generate parametric concurrency from sequential source code, which can be used to optimise a range of operational parameters such as power and performance over many orders of magnitude, given a scalable implementation. This paper shows scalability in performance, power and most importantly, in silicon implementation, the main contribution of this paper. The microthread model requires dynamic register allocation and a hardware scheduler, which must support hundreds of microthreads per processor. The scheduler must support thread creation, context switching and thread rescheduling on every machine cycle to fully support this model, which is a significant challenge. Scalable implementations of such support structures are given and the feasibility of large-scale CMPs is investigated by giving detailed area estimate of these structures.

Problem statement:

In general, there are only a few requirements for the design of efficient and powerful general-purpose CMPs, these are: scalability of performance, area and power with issue width, and programmability from legacy sequential code. Issue width is defined here as the number of instructions issued on chip simultaneously, whether in a single processor or in multiple processors and no distinction is made here. To meet these requirements a number of problems must be solved, including the extraction of ILP from legacy code, managing locality, minimising global communication, latency tolerance, power-efficient instruction execution strategies (i.e. avoiding speculation), effective power management, workload balancing, and finally, the decoupling of remote and local activity to allow for an asynchronous composition of synchronous processors. Most CMPs address only some of these issues as they attempt to reuse elements of existing processor designs, ignoring the fact that these are suitable only for chips with relatively few cores.
Proposed main contribution:

In this paper a CMP is evaluated, that is based on microthreading, which addresses either directly or indirectly, all of the above issues and, theoretically, provides the ability to scale systems to very large number of processors.

2.1.2 Analysis

The “CMP” in the paper’s text refers to the D-RISC/Microgrid technology. Does this paper, and all the research since then (8 years) support the claim that it solves “all of the above issues”? We list here how the technology addresses the issues in decreasing order of success.

Extraction of ILP from legacy code: this was successful. ILP is extracted implicitly by D-RISC’s dataflow scheduler, although the ILP width is limited by the number of active threads and the number of registers per thread, because the reordering information is stored in registers.

Decoupling of remote and local activity: this is mostly successful, insofar the D-RISC’s TMU control protocol has different primitives to spawn work locally and remotely.

Scalability of performance, area and power with issue width: each D-RISC core uses a single-issue pipeline, so this claim states that performance, area and power scales with the number of cores. The research has indeed shown this to be true for large, regular, data-parallel computation kernels, but the picture is not so clear for small or more heterogeneous workloads because of the inter-core latencies in the concurrency management protocol itself and on-chip network contention due to cache coherency protocols.

Power-efficient instruction execution strategies: this is only partly successful; with one thread the execution is not too power efficient compared to traditional single-issue, in-order designs, and efficiency only increases with the number of threads active. The problem is that operand availability is only tested at the read stage of the pipeline. When there are multiple threads, annotations at the fetch stage prevent “potentially suspending” instructions from entering the pipeline, but if only one thread is active, the instructions with missing operands will still enter the pipeline, create a bubble after the read stage, and subsequently need to be rescheduled. This is a form of speculation, thus inherently less power-efficient than the traditional approach to stall the pipeline during issue.

Latency tolerance: this is only partly successful. The latency of intra-core operations is tolerated by intra-thread ILP, but then the same is possible with conventional barrel processors or out-of-order execution. Longer latencies can be tolerated as long as there are sufficient threads active on the core to interleave with a waiting thread. If most active threads are busy communicating, then latency tolerance is highly dependent on a full end-to-end support for split-phase transactions, i.e. the rest of the system must support a large number of in-flight transactions. In practice, the caches and external memory interfaces become a bottleneck, and to this day no clear solution has emerged on this front.

Minimising global communication: this is only mildly successful. For synchronization and concurrency management, global communication is limited by constraining the TMU’s automatic workload distribution to adjacent cores only. The responsibility of choosing an area of the chip where to start the distribution is left to an hypothetical resource manager, not yet researched/implemented. Next to this, one should also consider memory communication. Here all results so far use memory protocols that incur global communication for coherency. No results show yet that global memory communication has been minimized.

Workload balancing: this is only very mildly successful. D-RISC’s TMU can automatically spread a batch of threads to multiple cores using an even N/P distribution, but this is the only form of distribution supported. Due to bulk reuse and synchronization, this simple distribution causes irrecoverable imbalances as soon as the batch is heterogeneous.

\[1\] Albeit possibly at a larger area and power budget. However, the actual area and power requirement of D-RISC are yet to be evaluated.
CHAPTER 2. OUTCOMES VS. ORIGINAL INTENTS: A RETROSPECTIVE

Managing locality: this is not achieved, insofar that the data used by instructions is invisible to D-RISC’s “intelligence” (its hardware TMU), and the memory and core networks are not topologically congruent. The software has to negotiate locality of code and data explicitly with knowledge of the chip’s layout.

Programmability from legacy sequential code: to this date, most existing sequential code cannot be reused as-is with D-RISC/Microgrids, because of incomplete support for operating system services, cf. also section 4.3.

Effective power management: to this date, power management has not been explored.

2.2 NWO Microgrids: 2006-2010

2.2.1 Research question

The project NWO Microgrids was funded by the Dutch government based on the following research question:

Is it possible, through the introduction of simple and explicit concurrency controls, to develop a systematic approach to:

1. incrementally designing new processor architectures (i.e. based on an existing ISA and infrastructure);
2. dynamically managing and optimising the available resources for a variety of goals such as performance, power and reliability (i.e. resulting in autonomous and self-adaptive microgrids);
3. formally defining the architectures’ execution properties;
4. incrementally developing the architectures’ infrastructure (i.e. simulators, compilers, binary-to-binary translators and even silicon intellectual property);

all within the context of ten to fifteen years of silicon-technology scaling (i.e. maintaining scalability over a thousand fold increase in chip density)?

Note that this is a yes/no question. To answer “yes,” it suffices to propose at least one set of “simple and explicit concurrency controls” and a corresponding “systematic approach” that delivers on the four other points. Alternatively, “yes” can also be given, perhaps less satisfactorily, if a theoretical analysis indirectly merely proves the systematic approach exists (“it is possible to develop it”) without actually developing it. To answer “no,” in contrast, it is necessary to demonstrate that there cannot exist any set of “simple and explicit concurrency controls” which makes a “systematic approach” possible.

Strategically, this question suggests its own answer:

• a “no” answer would be a formidable theoretical endeavour, likely very difficult to obtain (possibly impossible within the proposed 10-15 years time frame);
• a “yes” answer based on theoretical proof of existence would be equally difficult;
• therefore, the question suggests a “yes” is expected, hinged on the ability of the researchers to use the features of an existing architecture as their candidate “simple and explicit concurrency controls,” and consequently show that a corresponding “systematic approach” delivers on the 4 other points.

In short, NWO Microgrids’s “declaration of scientific intent” can be reformulated as follows:

We will show that D-RISC/Microgrids make it possible to develop a systematic approach to:

1. incrementally designing new processor architectures (i.e. based on an existing ISA and infrastructure);
2. dynamically managing and optimising the available resources for a variety of goals such as performance, power and reliability (i.e. resulting in autonomous and self-adaptive microgrids);
3. formally defining the architectures’ execution properties;
4. incrementally developing the architectures’ infrastructure (i.e. simulators, compilers, binary-to-binary translators and even silicon intellectual property);

all within the context of ten to fifteen years of silicon-technology scaling.
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2.2.2 Outcome vs. expectations

Did NWO Microgrids deliver on its self-set expectations?

Did NWO Microgrids deliver a “systematic approach” with the desired properties? No, the design of D-RISC/Microgrids was instead carried out in an ad-hoc fashion, with multiple phases of trial-and-error and backtracking. I highlight an ethical issue here, because on the one hand the Dutch NWO funded a project on the assumption that its outcome would be a systematic approach (method) that could be reused with different architectures, and on the other hand the research team knew well in advance that systematization would not be studied.

For the sake of deconstruction, let us however stretch the word “systematic approach” to encompass “the process of designing and building D-RISC/Microgrids.” Does this extended definition match the other required properties?

Did the process of designing and building D-RISC/Microgrids incrementally designed a processor architecture, based on an existing ISA and infrastructure? Here the answer is only partially “yes”: the design was indeed incremental (starting from a simple, known-to-work RISC pipeline) and used an existing ISA (Alpha), but it did not reuse an existing infrastructure. Instead, all the infrastructure for the project was built from scratch.

Did the process of designing and building D-RISC/Microgrids enabled the dynamic management and optimisation of available resources for a variety of goals such as performance, power and reliability? The jury is still out on this one; no answer was given yet after many years of research. Even a published doctoral thesis on the topic \cite{vT13}, which merely touched performance-driven resource management, did not yield definite answers. As of this writing, another doctoral candidate is working on the reliability issue, but issues of power are still left untouched.

Did the process of designing and building D-RISC/Microgrids include a formal definition of the architecture’s execution properties? Yes, namely in \cite{VJ07} and \cite[Chap. 7]{Pos12a}.

Did the process of designing and building D-RISC/Microgrids include an incremental development of the architecture’s infrastructure? (i.e. simulators, compilers, binary-to-binary translators and even silicon intellectual property) Here the answer is only partially “yes.” Simulators and compilers were developed, and parts of silicon IP (cf. \cite{DKK12}), however there were no binary-to-binary translators produced to establish a compatibility path with existing code, as initially envisioned.

2.2.3 Restrospective on the research question

Since the process of designing D-RISC/Microgrids did not exhibit all the expected properties, it cannot be used to answer “yes” firmly to that project’s research question. However, “no” cannot be confidently given either. In other words, the question is still mostly left unanswered.

Instead, I can only summarize the situation by proposing that the NWO simply funded some additional development of D-RISC/Microgrids, and the project’s description only merely guided the development process without pressuring it into delivering scientific output.

Moreover, it is clear to me that the original research question was so ill-phrased that it cannot be answered scientifically: I cannot see any experimental path that would yield a definite answer within a reasonable time frame.

Consequently, any rephrasing would be equally unproductive, for example determine whether there is any other set of concurrency controls that yield a “yes” answer on the same research question, or whether D-RISC/Microgrids can be fixed/enhanced to this aim.

Therefore, in my opinion, the original phrasing for the project NWO Microgrids cannot be used to motivate further work in this area. The corollary is that researchers should not exploit the past attention given by NWO’s to this question as justification to spend more effort in this area. If justification is needed, it must be found somewhere else.
Problem Proposed answer
How to effectively program distributed multiprocessor systems Use SVP’s simple concurrency control primitives
How to make architectures that are both efficient and can tolerate a large latency in responding to external events Use a combination of native support for dataflow scheduling and split-phase transactions throughout the system, such as found in SVP implementations
How to design programming model that is both deterministic and free from deadlock under concurrent composition Use SVP’s strictly hierarchical concurrency and forward-only communication patterns
How to ensure binary compatibility across a range of implementations from a single processor to the highest level of concurrency a particular application can support Use SVP’s granularity-independent abstraction of concurrency resources

Table 2.1: Problems purportedly solved by SVP.

2.3 C. Jesshope, APC 2008

This whitepaper/article [Jes08] made a statement of intent about the applicability and the aims of D-RISC/Microgrids. It introduces the “SVP model,” an intellectual construction used from 2008 to 2011. SVP intended to abstract the specific inner workings of D-RISC/Microgrids, keeping only the high-level semantics of its TMU concurrency management protocol visible to programmers.

According to this article, D-RISC/Microgrids as abstracted in SVP should have solved the problems listed in table 2.1. Note that this article defined SVP and its benefits before D-RISC’s TMU, and thus Microgrids were fully defined. As it happened, the advertised features of SVP ended up not being implementable in D-RISC/Microgrids. Specifically:

- end-to-end asynchrony stops at the chip boundary, both at the memory and I/O interfaces, and these latencies cannot be fully tolerated;
- the lack of hardware mechanisms to virtualize resources prevented the proper implementation of deadlock-free composition.

Moreover, although binary compatibility is possible across chip technologies, the execution performance of the code ended up not being portable between different number of cores and interconnect topologies.

Since 2011, when D-RISC’s TMU was well-enough defined that it was both obviously different from and more powerful than SVP’s abstractions, the SVP model has been downplayed and is not a central component of publications any more.

2.4 EU Apple-CORE: 2008-2011

The project Apple-CORE was funded by the European Union based on a statement of intent via an abstract, and via a list of explicit objectives. There was no “research question” per se, as the goal of the project was to build infrastructure and show that the objectives were reached as a consequence.

2.4.1 Summary of outcomes

To an outsider, the EU seemed to have funded research to develop a new general-purpose processor, that would extend and possibly even replace the technology currently in use in commodity hardware. Had that objective been reached, the project would have been disruptive indeed. This potential to both disrupt the state of the art and advance technology in a way largely beneficial to society was sufficient, to the proposal’s initial reviewers, to justify the investment.

However, there is an ethical issue at hand. First, the Apple-CORE proposal stated that D-RISC and Microgrids were already designed and a code generator for µTC was available prior to the start of the project, whereas it was known to the authors of the proposal that this was not true.

Only after the first year, after reviewers had been induced to believe the issues were minor, did it become clear that the EU was also funding this prerequisite technology. Also, at that point there was no evidence that this “initial” technology would be sufficient to research all the project’s original objectives in
a timely fashion. Indeed, what happened is that the overhead of producing these prerequisites prevented
the consortium from exploring all the issues.

In short, Apple-CORE did not actually have the potential to disrupt the state of the art and advance
technology in the way announced using the budget requested. Besides, the details of scientific outcomes
(cf. next section) do not reveal any strong evidence that the Apple-CORE technology can replace existing
processors (cf. also section 4.3).

**Disclaimer** The results and circumstances described below have been brought to the attention of the
project’s reviewers while the project was ongoing, and the project was judged successful by both the reviewers
and the project officer despite these issues. As I have learned since then, most large, publicly-funded
projects suffer from more serious issues and the issues described here pale in comparison.

### 2.4.2 Outcomes vs. project objectives

I present below how the project’s outcome, as can be observed at the end of 2012, relates to each stated
objective in the project’s description of work. I list the objectives in decreasing order of success, and
mark with “▶▶▶” those points that most diverge from the overall initial goal of the project.

Apple-CORE will investigate the support structures in implementing the SVP model in the
LEON 3 processor and develop an SVP soft-core prototype. This was achieved, and was quite
successful [DKKS10, SKDK11, DKK12].

Apple-CORE will investigate the integration of instruction-set extensions to support custom
accelerators based on both microthreads and families of microthreads. This was achieved, and
was quite successful [DKK12].

Apple-CORE will explore the gains of SVP in the context of data-parallel programming,
investigate the implications of functional concurrency and explore the possible design space.
This was achieved, and was quite successful [HJS11].

Apple-CORE will support many-core processors by capturing concurrency systematically
using instructions in the processors’ ISA and by dynamically mapping and scheduling that
concurrency in the processors’ implementation (the SVP model). This was achieved [PLY12].

Apple-CORE will derive a set of loop transformations to transform iterative computations
into a combination of independent and dependent families of threads respecting the com-
munication restrictions in the SVP model. This was achieved [SEM09, SM11].

Apple-CORE will extract task, loop and, implicitly in the SVP model, instruction level
concurrency in the parallelising C compiler. This was only partially achieved: only loop and ILP
was extracted. Task concurrency wasn’t.

▶▶▶ Apple-CORE will provide binary-code compatibility across generations of multi-
cores from few- to many-cores. This was achieved, although Apple-CORE also showed that code
that performs well on a small number of cores typically does not scale (performance- and efficiency-wise)
to large number of cores. Conversely, code that runs with interesting speedups on large number of cores
do not run efficiently on small number of cores. The binary compatibility is thus merely functional: it
is possible to run the same code and obtain the same results, but the performance is not portable. One
can easily argue that this form of compatibility is not really what was desired.

▶▶▶ Apple-CORE will implement and evaluate memory models and coherency protocols
for many- core systems. This was achieved, only to conclude that the proposed models and protocols
were cumbersome to use, inefficient and otherwise detrimental to performance for any configuration larger
than 30-60 cores.
Apple-CORE will study the resource management issues that are exposed in exploiting massive concurrency as it arises from data-parallel or functional program specifications. This was achieved: the management issues were indeed studied, but only to conclude that the Apple-CORE strategy did not significantly simplify the problem, which is otherwise shared by all research projects in this field.

Apple-CORE will provide high-level programming environments that improve the programming productivity and automate the generation of concurrency, or at least separate the concerns of concurrent programming from its implementation, i.e. automate all scheduling and synchronisation. This was only partly achieved. By funding extra development on Single-Assignment C, Apple-CORE did indeed “improve the programming productivity and automate the generation of concurrency.” However this effort was not directly related to D-RISC/Microgrids: the improvements on SaC are portable to any parallel hardware supported by the SaC compiler. Furthermore Apple-CORE did not “separate the concerns of concurrent programming from its implementation,” and neither did it “automate all synchronization.”

Apple-CORE will investigate and implement memory protection and security issues for many-core systems. This was investigated but not implemented.

Apple-CORE will implement a port of a micro-kernel operating system onto one or more of the processor platforms (emulation and/or soft core). This was not investigated and not achieved, cf. also section 4.3.

Apple-CORE will promote the \( \mu \)TC language as a standard front-end to the gcc compiler and will use it as a target for all user-level compiler development. This did not occur, and \( \mu \)TC is not being used any more, for the reasons presented in [Pos12a, App. G]. Instead, the project used another front-end to D-RISC/Microgrids called SL [Pos12b], which is riddled with practical limitations and has yet to gain credentials in the scientific community.

Apple-CORE will investigate and evaluate programming productivity issues for the tools developed. This was not investigated nor evaluated.

Apple-CORE will select a range of benchmark applications of interest to potential users of the SVP model within the European computer industry. This was only partly achieved: the industrial participation in the project was low, therefore the relevance of the resulting benchmark selection cannot be confidently ascertained.

Apple-CORE will build an infrastructure of tools that will enable the SVP model to be evaluated and adopted by the European Computer Industry. This objective is untestable. Although an infrastructure of tools was produced, no adoption by the European Computer Industry has yet occurred.

2.4.3 Outcomes vs. intents in the project’s abstract

The project’s abstract also declared research intents not covered otherwise in the objectives. I review them here:

The benefits are large, [...] as compilers need only capture concurrency in a virtual way rather than capturing, mapping and scheduling it. These benefits were not observed. Instead, Apple-CORE taught us is not sufficient to capture concurrency; some semantics that brings an intuition of the machine back to the programmer was necessary after all.

This separates the concerns of programming and concurrency engineering and opens the door for successful parallelising compilers. There was no breakthrough in programming and concurrency engineering during Apple-CORE, and no “successful parallelising compiler” has been produced as a result. Technically, there were parallelising compilers produced, but they are not yet “successful” insofar they have not yet gathered any user base other than their own developers.
Particular benefits can be expected for data-parallel and functional programming languages as they expose their concurrency in a way that can be easily captured by a compiler. This was indeed shown, although this can be equally shown using most parallel platforms in this day and age.

Another advantage of this approach is the binary compatibility the new processor has with the modified ISA. [...] Once code is compiled with the new tools, binary-code is executable on an arbitrary numbers of processors and hence provides future binary-code compatibility. See above: although the code is binary-compatible, the performance is not portable.

The concurrency controls also allow for management of partial failure, which together with the binary-code compatibility provide the necessary support for reliable systems. This was not shown in practice by Apple-CORE, although Apple-CORE’s infrastructure does simplify a research project on this topic, started later on.

Finally, this approach exposes information about the work to be executed on each processor and how much can be executed at any given time. This information can provide powerful mechanisms for the management of power by load balancing processors based on clock/frequency scaling. This was not researched in Apple-CORE.

In particular, the binary compatibility provides a unique opportunity to make an impact on commodity processors in Europe. This was not achieved, as there is no binary compatibility with existing processors. Actually, the argument of “binary compatibility” throughout the project proposal diverges from usual expectations. “Binary compatibility” is usually understood to mean “backward compatibility with existing binary code,” meaning that existing software from other platforms can be reused on the new platform. However, Apple-CORE instead promotes “binary compatibility between multiple instances of the Apple-CORE technology,” i.e. no binary backward compatibility with other platforms.

2.5 C. Jesshope et al., ParCo 2009

This article [JHL+10] rephrased the motivation behind the D-RISC/Microgrid work, two years in the Apple-CORE project:

In a more general market [than embedded and special-purpose accelerators], the labour-intensive approach of hand mapping an application is not feasible, as the effort required is large and compounded by the many different applications. A more automated approach from the tool chain is necessary. This investment in the tool chain, in turn, demands an abstract target to avoid these compatibility issues. That target or concurrency model then needs to be implemented on a variety of platforms to give portability, whatever the granularity of that platform. Our experience suggests that an abstract target should adopt concurrent rather than sequential composition, but admit a well-defined sequential schedule. It must capture locality without specifying explicit communication. Ideally, it should support asynchrony using data-driven scheduling to allow for high latency operations. However, above all, it must provide safe program composition, i.e. guaranteed freedom from deadlock when two concurrent programs are combined. Our SVP model is designed to meet all of these requirements. Whether it is implemented in the ISA of a conventional core, as described here or encapsulated as a software API will only effect the parameters described above, which in turn will determine at what level of granularity one moves from parallel to sequential execution of the same code.

A few years afterwards, is the D-RISC/Microgrids management protocol matching the claims? I review them here in decreasing order of success.

The model should support asynchrony using data-driven scheduling to allow for high-latency operations. This was achieved (primary feature of D-RISC).
The model should adopt concurrent rather than sequential composition. This was achieved, although both concurrent and sequential composition are equally promoted.

The model must admit a well-defined sequential schedule. This was mostly achieved [Pos12a, Chap. 10]. A sequential schedule is not properly defined as soon as a program manipulates on-chip resources (in particular cores) explicitly.

The model needs to be implemented on a variety of platforms. This was not achieved. A software emulation of D-RISC’s envisioned TMU was implemented early on [vTJLP09], but the actual D-RISC TMU ended up with different semantics which have not yet been implemented elsewhere.

The model must capture locality without specifying explicit communication. This was not achieved: explicit communication is required between different threads.

Above all, it must provide safe program composition, i.e. guaranteed freedom from deadlock when two concurrent programs are combined. This was not achieved: the ability of code to manipulate resources explicitly, combined with the lack of full resource virtualization, may cause compositions to deadlock from resource starvation.

2.6 ASCI 5-year research plan, 2010

This document was submitted to a consortium of Dutch universities at the start of 2010, to define the overall research plan of the consortium over the period 2010-2014.

Over D-RISC/Microgrids this report states:

Our work on fine-grain threaded architectures with data-driven scheduling using the SVP concurrency model will continue but we will also explore software implementations of SVP on other emerging multi-core architectures such as Niagara and Intel’s SCC. This will allow us to explore multi-grain architecture and develop an infrastructure to support such an approach. One of the major directions in this work will be the development of a coherent set of operating system services that support space sharing in these heterogeneous environments and yet provide a secure operating environment that can be scaled from chip-level micro-grids to globally distributed Grids. One of the major challenges, especially in mainstream computing, will be in making these systems programmable without specialized concurrency knowledge and we have designed programming language support to express parallel computations and systems at a very high level of abstraction and developed compilation technologies that effectively map the abstract descriptions to concurrent computing environments. We have international collaborations developing the functional, data parallel language SAC (Single Assignment C) and the asynchronous co-ordination language S-Net. Our long-term vision is in the direction of a compilation infrastructure that automatically adapts running programs derived from high-level specifications to a heterogeneous and dynamically varying execution environment based on continuous reflection of execution parameters.

To this date, SVP was not implemented on other architectures. No operating systems services have yet developed that support space sharing in heterogeneous environments and provide a secure execution environment. The D-RISC/Microgrids language tools are not yet able to map the abstraction of concurrent resources to maximize performance and efficiency. “Automatic adaption of running programs towards heterogeneous and dynamically varying execution parameters based on continuous reflection” was not achieved either yet.
Chapter summary

- The D-RISC/Microgrids project was purportedly intended to solve major issues in micro-architecture research, related to scalability in performance and efficiency in general-purpose microprocessors.
- The strategy to solve these issues was to implement a combination of dataflow scheduling with hardware support for thread concurrency management within and across cores on chip.
- Implementation was carried out, but the results are inconclusive. On the one hand, the proposed hardware does indeed provide higher performance and efficiency in regular, data-parallel workloads, but these are also the “boring” applications which benefit equally well from vector units or accelerators in conventional processors. On the other hand, no evidence has yet been produced that the proposed hardware benefits larger applications with more irregular workloads.
- Power efficiency and intelligent resource management was regularly advertised but not actively researched.
- Effort has been invested into widening the scope of the technology towards applications and industrial relevance, but these applications have not yet materialized.
Chapter 3

Methodology issues

What the body of published and unpublished materials reveal is a large, loosely scoped enterprise to define a multi-core processor chip with the ambitious aim to solve the most significant problems of architecture research in the period 2010-2020.

3.1 Actual methodology

Although never explicit, a strategy guides the effort:

1. accumulate technology around the simple ideas of dataflow scheduling and partial hardware support for concurrency management, so as to define an execution platform able to run parallel benchmark programs;
2. “try it out” and measure how it behaves;
3. if the measurements are unsatisfactory, return to step #1; otherwise publish results and claim success.

An overview of this process is given in fig. 3.1 From an outsider’s perspective, this research activity is independent, as its only input is human effort and financial investment. Its overall output is scientific articles on measured results, and a regular stream of educated practitioners.

Over the year, two patterns have emerged. The first is that the research group often stalls, busy looping from unsatisfactory results back to implementing more features without questioning the overall strategy (thick blue arrow in the figure). The consequence is an irregular, unfocused publication throughput and doctoral candidates abandoning their research from lack of focus. The second pattern is that only positive, “competitive” results are retained as candidates for publication. The consequence is a lack of visibility on the research process, methodologies and shortcomings, although these could also be useful and valuable to the scientific community.

3.2 Relationship with other scientific activities

Compare the process above with fig. 3.2 explained as follows in [Pos12a, Chap. 1]:

*The traditional purpose of the fundamental sciences is the acquisition of new knowledge pertaining to observed phenomena, in an attempt to describe “what is.” In parallel to the discovery of new knowledge through scientific inquiry, philosophers, or theoreticians, derive ideas of “what could be.” Via formalisms, they construct structures of thought to validate these ideas and derive iteratively new ideas from them.*

We can focus for a moment on the human dynamics around these activities. On the one hand, the intellectual pleasure that internally motivates the human scientists is mostly to be found in the acquisition of knowledge and ideas. For natural scientists, the focus is on accuracy relative to the observed phenomena, whereas for philosophers the focus is on consistency. On the other hand, the external motivation for all fields of science, which materially sustains their activities, is the need of humans for either discovery or material benefits to their physical existence. From this position, the outcome of scientific inquiry and philosophical thought, namely knowledge and ideas, is not directly what human audiences are interested in. The “missing link” between scientific insight and its practical benefits is innovation, an engineering process in two steps.
The first step of innovation is foundational engineering: the creative, nearly artistic process where humans find a new way to assemble parts into a more complex artifact, following the inspiration and foreshadowing of their past study of knowledge and ideas, and guided by human-centered concerns. Foundational engineering, as an activity, consumes refined matter from the physical world and produces new more complex things, usually tools and machines, whose function and behavior are intricate, emergent composition of their parts. The novelty factor is key: the outcome must have characteristics yet unseen to qualify as foundational; merely reproducing the object would just qualify as manufacturing. The characteristic human factor in this foundational step is creativity, which corresponds to the serendipitously successful, mostly irrationally motivated selection of ideas, knowledge and material components in a way that only reveals itself as useful, and thus can only be justified, a posteriori.

The other step is applicative engineering, where humans assemble artifacts previously engineered into complex systems that satisfy the needs of fellow humans. In contrast to foundational engineering, the characteristic human factor here is meticulousness in the realization and scrupulousness in recognizing and following an audience’s expectations—if not fabricating them on the spot.

The entire system of activities around science is driven by a demand for applications: the need of mankind to improve its condition creates demand for man-made systems that solve its problems, which in turn creates demand for new sorts of devices and artifacts to construct these systems, which in turn creates demand for basic materials as input, on the one hand, and intellectual diversity and background in the form of knowledge and ideas. We illustrate this general view in fig. 3.2 [...]. The role of education, in turn, is to act as a glue, ensuring that the output of the various activities are duly and faithfully communicated to the interested parties.

In this context, the activity around D-RISC/Microgrids can be recognized to actually constitute foundational engineering: the process of invention that produces tools and artefacts that can subsequently solve “real-world” problems.

This immediately highlights two major issues:

- the output of foundational engineering is measured by the tools and artefacts it produces, not merely their description in the form of academic publications. For the effort on D-RISC/Microgrids to be recognized and valued as innovation, it must be accompanied by the marketing of its technology, including its flaws and limitations, and ultimately exploitation to real-world applications.

- it is not the primary purpose of the academic institutions of science to fund and support foundational engineering. Although it is not uncommon to see foundational engineering occur in academic environments, it is usually only accepted as a by-product exploitation of the other activities of science, namely natural and fundamental sciences. To justify continued effort on D-RISC/Microgrids...
CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY ISSUES

"Fundamental" sciences
- eg. logicians, mathematicians, philosophers, functional language designers
- what theorists like to do

"Natural" sciences
- for natural phenomena
- observation, inquiry & modeling
- this usually is not paid for
- "what is"

"Systems" science
- for man-caused phenomena
- what experimental scientists like to do

"Nature" i.e. things and causes not made by humans on purpose

Creative construction
- what inventors like to do
- "useful stuff"

Applied engineering
- what system engineers like to do
- what users pay for

Refined matter
- what short-term industry money pays for
- "what could be"

Man-made artefacts, whose behavior is emergent from the behavior of the intentionally selected sub-parts

Refining
- using machines as construction tools

Creative application
- what human concerns
- inspiration

Applied systems
- what the system pays for

Figure 3.2: Activities related to science.
in a university research group, the fundamental principles of the technology must be extracted, abstracted, studied formally and generalized in a relevant, technology-independent fashion. This work has not been performed so far other than via the three isolated publications [VJ07, DZJ08] and [Pos12a, Chap. 7].

Chapter summary

- Research on D-RISC/Microgrids is not following the scientific method. It is instead currently carried out as an engineering enterprise, but without clear technology outputs and without identifying its potential applications.
- Its relevance in a university research group is thus questionable.
Chapter 4

Obstacles to further progress

In chapter 2 I have presented the status of the research so far, and identified the areas where it did not deliver on its own self-set expectations. In this chapter, I follow up by reviewing the likely causes of these shortcomings.

4.1 Large project scope

The project’s aim is to eventually deliver a full general-purpose processor. However, the design of a new processor architecture requires large research and implementation investment on all the following fronts:

1. micro-processor logic (per core);
2. NoC interconnect: flow control, routing, failure management;
3. cache management and inter-cache coherency;
4. core-NoC interfaces;
5. external memory interfaces;
6. external I/O interfaces;
7. hardware/software interface design: ISA, but also I/O address space layout, MMU control, access to performance counters, etc;
8. ISA code generation in low-level compilers;
9. architecture-specific optimizations in compilers;
10. architecture-specific support in software operating systems and programming language libraries;
11. individual component validation, both from formal analysis and unit testing;
12. component-level, then system-level modeling and simulation;
13. design of the integration strategy in a larger system (exploring system parameters and how system-level interconnects will impact intra-chip behavior);
14. circuit synthesis and prototype production (either ASIC or FPGA);
15. show casing and marketing via extensive comparisons with competition products;
16. seeking and partnering with industry to define marketable products.

Each of these areas would require multiple man-years worth of investment before evidence of success in reaching the aim “delivering a full general-purpose processor” can be strongly claimed.

To this date, the research effort around D-RISC/Microgrids was focused on items 1, 3, 7 and 12, although for item 7 no clear picture of the interface to virtual memory and I/O has yet emerged. A lot of effort was also spent towards items 8 and 10 to enable benchmarking, albeit half-heartedly because the research group lacked expertise in these areas until recently. Some effort was spent on item 14 with a research partner DKK+12, although the resulting FPGA model only implements 1 core connected to a bus, i.e. it only shows limited benefits of latency tolerance and does not implement the TMU’s multi-core coordination features. The other items have not been investigated yet. Even if the scope of the research was reduced to “design a Microgrid component that can be integrated as accelerator in a larger processor chip,” as advertised in PLY+12, effort should still be invested on items 2, 4, 9, 11, 15 and 16. This is out of the reach of an isolated university research group expected to deliver strong results in periods of five years with a bandwidth of 1 to 5 contributors per year.
4.2 “Here Is My Chip, You Figure It Out”

Following the original aim thus requires partnerships with other organizations to carry out the work together. However, in the scientific community, partnerships only come into existence based on mutually beneficial arrangements: a peer researcher or institution may be willing to contribute effort and technology towards the betterment of D-RISC/Microgrids, only if they get something in return.

However, most of the interactions with potential partners so far were carried out thus: “here is our technology, we think it is good for such-and-such use cases, what about you try to use it and tell us what you do with it?” For the reasons discussed extensively in [Pos12a Sect. 1.5, 15.1 & Chap. 16], this approach is subject to the “Here Is My Chip, You Figure It Out” (HIMCYFIO) hazard: faced with alien, unrecognizable technology, a potential partner or user will be reluctant to invest the effort necessary to cross the comprehension threshold, even before they start to think about potential shared endeavours.

The producer of the technology must cross this threshold preemptively to avoid the HIMCYFIO pitfall.

Although my thesis [Pos12a] made one step in that direction, further work is needed by this research group to bring the D-RISC/Microgrid technology “to the level” of its potential partners. The participants must identify what challenges potential partners are facing, and preemptively shape the technology into a palatable solution to the partners’ problems.

To this day, the issues faced by the scientific peers in the same research domain have not been investigated thoroughly by the research group. The main reason for this is not lack of intent; rather a crucial technical practical/historical obstacle: validation and peer recognition in the micro-architecture community heavily relies on the ability to exchange hardware platforms without modifying the software, so as to enable sound comparisons between solutions. Although source-level compatibility is sufficient (recompiling code towards a new platform has become acceptable in the community), it is also necessary: given the large effort necessary to design and deliver hardware, little effort can be spent rewriting/adapting benchmark code, which has often accumulated man-years of design, towards new platforms. However, for the reasons described below and as of this writing, D-RISC/Microgrid’s cannot be made source-compatible with most existing benchmarks. This limitation is a high obstacle to publication and thus visibility, and cuts short most opening discussions with potential partners.

4.3 Lack of features needed for compatibility

In my opinion, the main obstacle to the usability of D-RISC/Microgrids by third parties is the lack of the following features:

- **process virtualization**, including per-process virtual memory address spaces and virtual I/O channels;
- interrupt-like mechanisms to handle faults and unexpected external events;
- the ability to stop a process and inspect it externally, e.g. using a debugger;
- the ability to preempt a running program and reclaim its resources.

Programmers, in particular operating system and language implementers, have been accustomed in the last 50 years to expect these features from any general-purpose computer; the corollary is that all the existing operating software underlying existing application software makes pervasive use of these services from the hardware platform.

The standpoint of the research group was that these features are an “historical artefact” that were motivated at a time when on-chip resources (cores, memory) were limited, and must thus be reconsidered at an age where there are thousands of cores on chip and 64-bit addresses to memory. As suggested in [vT06, JPvT08, vTJ11, vT13] and [Pos12a Sect. 3.3.2 & Chap. 14–15], this research group’s public answer to queries about these features goes as follows:

- “preemptive event handlers should not be needed when any two system-level tasks waiting on events could be active at the same time in different hardware threads or cores (of which there are thousands available);”
- “separate virtual address spaces should not be needed when a single virtual 64-bit address space can be partitioned a thousand-fold while still providing petabytes addressable to each process;”
- “once processes are allocated over space and not over time, process boundaries are congruent to areas on chip and resource reclamation can be implemented simply by fully resetting the corresponding hardware resources;”
- “issues of debugging and investigation do not need special supports as long as simulators and emulators are available: debugging can be performed from the simulator/emulator’s host.”
As an insider, I can also report the second half of the answer: it is possible to add support for these features, but the fear is that doing so would make the research more difficult because a larger set of issues would need to be considered. An ungrounded assumption is that introducing support for virtualization would introduce overheads in the hardware and make D-RISC and Microgrids less competitive against other processors, including for the workloads where it currently shines. The assumption is ungrounded because the consequences of extending D-RISC in that direction have simply not been investigated yet.

**In short, the position of the research group is “these are complicated engineering issues, but we think they are only superficial usability concerns so they do not deserve our attention yet.”**

The net effect is that existing operating software cannot be reused with the proposed platform. Even assuming that new, custom-built operating software could potentially show that these traditional mechanisms for virtualization can be avoided, the very lack of software compatibility caused by the current situation may well form the unsurmountable barrier preventing the group from forming the partnerships needed for further developments, for the reasons outlined in the previous section.

(For the sake of clarity, according to my own analysis these features are both necessary and sufficient to immediately enable porting and reusing operating software and existing major programming framework on the proposed platform. To my knowledge, these features constitute exactly the remaining obstacle to compatibility.)

### 4.4 Weakly grounded and tested hypotheses

The foundation for the “D-RISC enterprise” is the observation that the static and dynamic costs of OoOE in GP processors is largely caused by the logic necessary to discover instruction-level parallelism at run-time. The hypotheses of the D-RISC/Microgrids research are then articulated as follows:

1. **By shifting the responsibility to discover concurrency, from the run-time to design-time (or compile-time), these costs can be avoided.** And instead of encoding concurrency the VLIW way, which is weak when faced with the unpredictable variance of on-chip access latencies in large chips, the concurrency can be encoded via threads instead.

2. **If thread creation is not more expensive than simple branches, many sequential patterns including function calls and loops can be transparently replaced by threads, and this transformation can be performed casually in code generators for any language.** As a result, just using the platform’s compilation tools can introduce concurrency automatically in any sequential software and solve the general “programmability” challenge of parallel hardware.

3. **If concurrency management is encoded in the ISA with lightweight instructions, the same binary code can be run under any amount of resources, starting with a single thread on 1 core where it can be as fast as an equivalent branch-based sequential code.**

4. **If concurrency management is encoded without explicit reference to parallel hardware resources (“resource-agnostic”), the execution platform can adapt the code at run-time to maximize performance and efficiency to the resources effectively available.**

The first hypothesis has been largely confirmed to hold for large classes of applications, but then not by D-RISC specifically: Intel’s HyperThreaded cores, then Sun/Oracle’s Niagara cores, have been endorsing the benefits of hardware multithreading for general-purpose computing (especially in the datacenter domain) for a few years already.

The other hypotheses are more problematic.

The 2nd hypothesis heavily relies on the assumption that the sequential composition of activation frames (for function calls and loop iterations) can be cheaply and automatically replaced by parallel composition. As I reveal partially in [Pos12a, Chap. 9], this research group had “forgotten” to consider that general-purpose computations may use arbitrarily large amounts of storage at any step. This implies a local, “private” memory area of varying size for each activation frame while it is running.

With sequential execution, this is possible to implement cheaply with a stack because only the most recently called activation frame is running and can use the entire remaining memory. With parallel execution, multiple activation frames are running and compete for the available memory. Without much care (and thus “intelligence” that must in turn be implemented in the TMU, raising its cost), the management of all these “memory clients” that all grow and shrink their local memory dynamically becomes a bottleneck to parallel scalability.

Note that this problem is avoided in most highly-parallel “accelerators” by simply stating they do not support general-purpose computations [Pos12a, Sect. 1.4&12.6], and in supercomputers by providing
large amounts of local RAM next to each processor. The “supercomputer approach,” applied to D-RISC/Microgrids, would imply embedding large SRAM modules next to each core on chip or DRAM using 3D stacking, a direction not yet envisioned by this research group.

The 3rd hypothesis about automatic sequentialization was partly shown to hold with D-RISC for threads that mostly perform local computations on non-shared data and resources. As soon as shared or non-local resources are used, sequentialization must choose a computation order that maximizes locality of access and reuse. In sequential code, typically the specified order of operations carries domain knowledge from the programmer or compiler about locality; with threaded code, this knowledge has disappeared from the code and must be reintroduced at run-time while sequentializing. So far, the results produced show that the automatic sequentialization is doing a poor job [Pos12a, Sect. 10.4] but no research is being performed to improve this state of affairs.

The 4th hypothesis about performance portability has been only confirmed with D-RISC for data-parallel code with regular data access patterns. For other types of concurrent code, experimentation has shown that performance and efficiency are largely dependent on the congruence between the data access patterns and the physical topology of the interconnect between cores and memory [Pos12a, Chap. 13]. However, to this date the concurrency management interface of D-RISC’s TMU does not allow to specify data access patterns, so the TMU cannot make “intelligent” decisions about placement. No further research is being performed in this direction either.

All in all, these hypotheses seem attractive: our peers have reviewed these hypotheses through our publications and confirmed implicitly, by accepting publication and funding further research, that the hypotheses have merit and that our research efforts to test them are scientifically worthwhile. However, I can also practically observe that the work is not organized around strategic experiments that would provide clear answers on these hypotheses. Meanwhile, I have observed negative results that tend to invalidate the hypotheses as they now stand, and I have also observed that these negative results are not publicly exposed; instead, they are casually treated as “bugs” and addressed by ad-hoc workarounds in the architecture design.

4.5 Competition and lack of differentiation

Research on D-RISC/Microgrids was initiated in the late 1990’s: a time where multi-core chips were not yet widely used, and were there was still a lot of uncertainty about concurrent programming. Back then, D-RISC’s approach was not only fresh, it was also spearheading research in this area. There was thus not much to consider in terms of “competition” and “related work.”

This has now changed. Since 2005, we have observed an explosion of hardware multithreaded cores, multi-core chips and concurrent programming frameworks. There now even exists architectures where concurrency management is partly implemented in hardware: NVidia’s Fermi, Kalray’s MPPA, Tilera’s TILE are examples. Parallel and multi-core programming is now being studied by students as a basic course, and a wealth of software frameworks have evolved to manage large number of “micro threads” efficiently on today’s multi-core chips: qthreads, codelets, green threads, Erlang’s run-time system, etc. Moreover, many high-level constructs to expose concurrency in programming languages have been designed, e.g. in C/C++ (in the new 2011 standards), Scala, Haskell, etc. These have gradually introduced expectations in programmers’ sub-cultures about what features programming environments should and should not provide. Finally, some architectural features have become widely accepted as fundamental to the continued relevance of multi-cores, e.g. transactional memory and heterogeneity, which have yet not been analyzed nor picked up by the D-RISC/Microgrids enterprise.

In short, the research field has become crowded. To attract attention and thus gather momentum, it is essential to acknowledge the competition, stay competitive by keeping up and integrating the good ideas from other projects, and simultaneously differentiate the new technology by pitting it against its competition systematically. To this date, the research effort around D-RISC/Microgrids has not focused on studying and integrating the growing state-of-the-art, and differentiation is not expressed in publications.
Chapter summary

- The D-RISC/Microgrids project has the ambitious aim to produce a general-purpose processor chip able to disrupt the current state-of-the-art. However, the limited human resources dedicated to the project are insufficient to reach this aim in isolation.
- The expansion of the research group to a community of users and research partners is blocked by a fundamental lack of compatibility with existing operating systems and application software.
- This lack of compatibility is not properly justified, neither by practical nor theoretical reasons.
- Meanwhile, the scientific effort to test the hypotheses that underly the D-RISC/Microgrids project is poorly directed, and not enough attention has been given to negative results that invalidate these hypotheses.
- Finally, the multi-core research field is nowadays much more crowded than it was ten years ago, yet the research on D-RISC/Microgrids does not acknowledge its competition nor attempts to differentiate its contributions from the state of the art.
Part II

Reconstruction
Chapter 5

Actual contributions

5.1 Concrete scientific contributions

The scientific output of the project is positive on at least four angles.

First, some published discussion-oriented articles have articulated interesting challenges to the tacit assumptions of the architecture community about the exploitation of concurrency in processors, e.g. [BHJ06a, JPV08, VT11, HLL10, BGJ10, Ber10, PJ10, Pos12a, vT13].

Second, all results-oriented articles accepted by peer review for publication are based on real experimental results using “honest and best effort” implementations of the proposed ideas, e.g. [L02, JLZ09, HBJ07, DZJ08, BHJ06b, BGJL08, PLY12]. Regardless of the conclusions drawn from them, these results constitute a sound database of prior work to all future researchers working on related areas.

Third, the research group has indirectly contributed to other projects via its few partnerships. For example, the close work relationship with the designers of Single-Assignment C and S-NET have yielded both joint scientific outputs [JS08, HJS11, PGHS12, GHJ09] and technology improvements, directly or indirectly inspired by the work on D-RISC/Microgrids.

Fourth, the project has enabled ancillary research in novel techniques for system simulation when cores are hardware multi-threaded [VTJLP09, VT11, UVTP12, PLU12, LPY13], whose results are scientific contributions on their own regardless of the specific merits of D-RISC/Microgrids.

5.2 Technology products

The research efforts have produced the following components and tools:

- svp-ptl and d-utc [VTJLP09, VT11], a library of TMU-like services implemented in software over POSIX threads, ready to implement concurrent software over multi-cores and distributed memory systems;
- MGSim [PLU12, LPY13], a combination of:
  - a general discrete-event, component-based simulation framework in C++, and
  - a library of component models that can be used to simulated D-RISC/Microgrid-based architectures;
- HLSim [UVTP12], a discrete-event, thread-based simulation of multi-scale systems using the TMU protocol and the API from svp-ptl;
- the “SL core” package [Pos12a], a combination of:
  - a code translator from SL to D-RISC code, using any of its 3 possible ISAs,
  - a code translator from SL to the API of HLSim and svp-ptl,
  - a code translator from SL to “vanilla”, sequential ISO C,
  - an incomplete port of a standard C library suitable for use in the simulated D-RISC/Microgrid environments, and
  - operating system components for resource management and interfacing with I/O services on D-RISC cores;
- a set of micro-benchmarks using the SL language extensions that exercise the architecture and demonstrate the features of the simulation frameworks;
- via research partners, the UTLEON3 core design in VHDL [DKK12] which implements one D-RISC core with a partial TMU for use on FPGA.
Some of these tools are specific to the D-RISC/Microgrid architecture and are not applicable outside of this project, whereas others could be reused by researchers that have never been exposed to D-RISC/Microgrids. On a different scale, some of these tools have been explicitly packaged for reuse and tested for portability by 3rd party users, whereas others are not readily reusable due to dependencies on the local research environment. I summarize how the tools map to these two scales in fig. 5.1.

5.3 Conceptual separation of concerns

The research around D-RISC/Microgrids has strongly promoted two intellectual exercises and shaped a generation of researchers able to converse fluently about the following two issue separations.

The first is the separation between concurrency and parallelism, i.e. the distinction between opportunity for parallelism that can be encoded in software by relaxing synchronization constraints, and the actual simultaneity of execution at run-time which depends on resource duplication over space.

This first separation is promoted/enabled by D-RISC/Microgrids by promoting a TMU protocol which does not guarantee the availability of parallel resources at run-time. Software that wishes to use the TMU can only relax synchronization, i.e. introduce concurrency, whereas actual parallelism is introduced later, by the TMU at run-time, depending on resource availability. Although this separation of concerns can be promoted by other means, any researcher working on D-RISC/Microgrids cannot avoid acquiring a sharp consciousness of these issues.

The second separation is between “memory as storage” and “memory as a synchronization mechanism.” In commodity architectures, the only interface between the individual core and its environment in a multicore chip is its memory interface. This implies that the same memory interface is used for both loading and storing values to main memory within individual threads, and for coordination of work between cores. The latter, in particular, has historically mandated the extension of memory systems with transactional mechanisms (bus locking, compare-and-swap, test-and-set) which would otherwise be unneeded.

As explained in [Pos12a, Chap. 7], the proposed D-RISC/Microgrids architecture separates the memory network for data storage from a “control network-on-chip” in charge of synchronizing and coordinating work between TMUs. This forces the researchers writing software for the platform to realize that the data structures for synchronization traditionally implemented in memory, such as producer-consumer FIFOs, mutexes or semaphores, are really specific instances of abstract synchronization services whose behavior can be obtained in other ways, possibly more cheaply and efficiently.

These separation of concerns are not yet widely understood and commonly accepted in the research community. The increased intellectual acuity of the researchers “educated” by working on D-RISC/Microgrids forms an advantage that can thus be considered a contribution of the enterprise.

\[1\]The aim of this separation was to test whether a custom NoC can achieve cheaper and more efficient synchronization than a memory system, and to avoid the research overhead of developing a complex cache coherency protocol that also supports transactions. This aim was reached, insofar that a custom NoC is indeed cheaper than a comprehensive memory protocol, but it requires special support in software, cf. [Pos12a, Chap. 7].
The research has produced interesting discussions that challenge some tacit assumptions of the research community, experimental results that can be reused by future work, improvements to partner technologies and new simulation techniques.

Most of the software designed and implemented during the research can be reused by third parties, and not only for research directly related to D-RISC/Microgrids.

The intellectual framework educates practitioners to think about two general separations of concerns, namely concurrency vs. parallelism and using memory for storage vs. synchronization.
Chapter 6

Individual architectural features

Publications, posters and talks usually present the D-RISC core and Microgrid clusters thereof as a single coherent technology made from inter-dependent features. In reality, a gradual composition is possible, as well as adding TMU-like features to other processor cores than D-RISC.

I shortly present here my understanding of this composition, which I have started to recognize while writing [Pos12a, Chap. 3].

6.1 Overview

To start with, I summarize the characteristic features in fig. 6.1; in this diagram I denote with a double edge the features not found in other processors, and with a striped red edge those features found in other processors but not on D-RISC/Microgrids. This diagram exposes the composition of features in the design, as follows:

- the D-RISC core itself is a composition of the following features:
  - a pretty conventional in-order, single-issue RISC pipeline,
– a dataflow instruction scheduler that can execution instructions out-of-order while respecting data dependencies,
– multiple hardware threads (separate program counters and registers),
– a memory-mapped interface to an I/O subsystem,
– a custom hardware Thread Management Unit (TMU) that manages logical tasks and maps and schedules them over hardware threads;

• a Microgrid is a cluster of D-RISC cores together with:
  – asynchronous functional units (FUs) between cores for seldom-used instructions;
  – a shared MMU that provides a single virtual address space to all cores;
  – a custom control network-on-chip to coordinate concurrency management between TMUs;
  – optionally, a custom memory interconnect.

Of these features, we can distinguish those that provide “added value” compared to other processor architectures, namely the TMU, dataflow scheduler and control NoC, from those that are “unique” and make the design fundamentally incompatible with conventional wisdom, namely the lack of support for preemption and the lack of per-core (and per-hardware thread) MMU, which were discussed in section 4.3.

Remarkably, this overview alone reveals that the combination of features found in D-RISC could be obtained by starting from an existing RISC core design. The Tera MTA, for example, already features hardware multithreading, a dataflow scheduler and memory-mapped I/O, and could be extended with a TMU. Similarly, Sun/Oracle’s Niagara T4 cores already feature hardware multithreading, memory-mapped I/O and out-of-order instruction execution (via reservation stations, which is really a form of dataflow scheduling), and could thus be extended with a TMU as well.

6.2 Details

To understand how D-RISC and Microgrids additionally benefit from re-implementing its own “version” of features already found in existing processors, it is useful to dig one level deeper, as illustrated in fig. 6.2.

(Again, I denote with a double edge the features not found in other processors, and with a striped red edge those features found in other processors but not on D-RISC/Microgrids. Features with dotted borders are experimental, not yet ready for production. The red triangles highlight the missing features that fundamentally hurt software reuse.)

Besides highlighting the wealth of features of D-RISC’s TMU and the inter-TMU NoC, this diagram draws attention to the following points.

6.2.1 Dataflow scheduling from the register file

All dataflow schedulers rely on a matching store, which retains information about “what to do” when an operation has completed, while the operation is ongoing. In conventional architectures, matching stores are implemented:

• as part of the memory sub-system, starting at the data cache (e.g. Tera MTA, Niagara T4+), to determine “what to do when a memory operation completes,”
• via reservation stations next to functional units in out-of-order execution (e.g. PowerPC), to determine “what to do when a local operation completes.”

Like MTA and T4, D-RISC uses the L1 D-cache as matching store; but contrary to conventional OoOE techniques it uses the main register file instead of reservation stations for out-of-order execution of instructions. This choice simplifies the circuits that connects the pipeline, functional units and the register file together. The trade-off is that the number of in-flight instructions per thread is limited to the ISA register space, typically 31, whereas it can grow arbitrarily with reservation stations.

This way, we can recognize that in the large design domain where out-of-order instruction execution is desirable, D-RISC is exploring the sub-domain where per-thread ILP can be traded off with simpler circuits.

6.2.2 Optimizations to hardware multithreading

Figure 6.2 also highlight two features that optimize hardware multithreading, regardless of the presence of the TMU and of a dataflow scheduler.

The first is a tight integration of the schedule queue and the I-cache. As detailed in [LB08] and [Pos12a Sect. 3.2], a thread is not considered by the fetch stage unless its code is already in the I-cache, so as to prevent pipeline bubbles due to I-cache misses. This technique decouples code fetching and
Figure 6.2: Overview of the characteristic features of D-RISC/Microgrids (expanded).
thread scheduling and yields higher utilization of the pipeline overall. I do not know whether this feature is used by other hardware multithreaded core designs, but I would be surprised if it were not.

The other feature is the ability to hint the fetch stage of the pipeline to switch preemptively to another thread after fetching an instruction, when that instruction is likely to cause a pipeline bubble at a later stage. This can be used for any instruction that reads the result of a previously issued long-latency instruction. For example, in “ld r1 ← [x]; add r2 ← r1+r1” the “add” instruction would be annotated, so that the fetch stage preemptively switches to another thread: if the “add” suspends due to a missing input (e.g., due to a cache miss on the previous “ld” instruction), no other instruction from the same thread needs to be flushed from the pipeline. This feature also yields higher utilization of the pipeline overall, to my knowledge is not present in other processors, but could be possibly be added to them.

To this date, switch hints are implemented in D-RISC by interleaving hint bits with the instruction stream, which in turns requires a custom assembler to generate the binary program code. However, other implementations are possible, cf. [Pos12a, Sect. 4.4].

6.2.3 Bulk coherency in the shared memory network

As soon as the designer of a chip architecture combines multiple cores with memory-level parallelism and still wishes to expose a “shared memory” interface to programmers, a coherency protocol must be designed to ensure that the memory updates performed by one core on one part of the memory become eventually visible to other cores connected to other parts of the memory.

(Note that this problem disappears if all cores are physically connected to the same memory or shared cache with a bus.)

Necessarily, a coherency protocol implies communication across the memory network to propagate the data “placed into the memory” by store requests, to the point where it may be needed by subsequent load requests. Also, since the memory network cannot “predict the future,” it must make a decision to effect this propagation preemptively at some granularity: either after each individual store, or while evicting cache lines, or by allowing the program code to “grab exclusivity” for a range of addresses over the entire system (write-invalidate).

In the Microgrid design, knowledge from the TMU about the program’s structure is used to implement an optimization to coherency: when a bulk of tasks are created together (a feature of the TMU), the TMU informs the cache network that it can wait to propagate the stores performed by that bulk until all tasks in it have terminated, or until when a task creates a sub-task. This “makes sense,” i.e., it is valid, because D-RISC’s programming model specifies that stores are only visible to other tasks after a task terminates or to the sub-tasks it subsequently creates. The benefit of this optimization is a reduced number of coherency-related communication events in the memory network for some workloads.

To my knowledge, this optimization opportunity is also exploited in SIMD/SPMD accelerators, and in general it could be readily considered in any design where high-level information about the clustering of software operations is visible to the hardware.

6.3 TMU reusability

The purpose and consequence of decomposing the D-RISC design is to isolate its TMU and recognize that the TMU is really a hardware accelerator for system management functions that would be otherwise realized in software. It is actually possible to describe the TMU as an extension to any generic RISC core, even a core that does not offer the other features of D-RISC:

• without hardware multithreading, the TMU would be constrained to schedule logical tasks over a single hardware thread. This would restrict the amount of instruction-level parallelism (because the maximum number of in-flight instructions is restricted by ISA register window), but would still save up the cost of branches and increments to implement repetition, and thus accelerate loops;
• without out-of-order execution (either dataflow scheduling or via other means), instructions that control the TMU would cause the processor to wait until the TMU operation has completed. This may imply large waiting times for “complex” operations, for example allocating a group of cores on another part of the chip. It would also mandate the use of interrupts to signal asynchronous completion, for example the termination of a task, but would still save up the overhead of doing the thread management entirely in a software operating system.
Chapter summary

- The D-RISC core combines features found in other processors, such as a RISC pipeline and hardware multithreading, with custom features (e.g. its TMU) and optimizations to the conventional features (e.g. switch annotations for the HMT scheduler).
- Some architectural optimizations found in D-RISC/Microgrids could be reused with other processors, for example switch annotations and bulk coherency in the memory network.
- The key feature of D-RISC/Microgrids, namely its TMU and inter-TMU control NoC, does not depend on the other features specific to D-RISC and could be potentially reused with other processors.
Chapter 7

Follow-up strategies

Part I has highlighted shortcomings in the methodology and obstacles to further progress. This analysis raised the question of how to move forward from there differently, so as to avoid these shortcomings and obstacles. This chapter presents my view on this question, articulated in two directions: first, what would constitute “sane approaches” for new projects (section 7.1); then how to “fix” or “improve” ongoing projects/research (section 7.2).

7.1 Possible strategies for new investments

**Exploit.** Apply the technology produced so far to other uses than research.

A successful application so far has been education: with only a minor but regular maintenance effort, the simulation tools can provide support in architecture and compiler courses for the coming 5-10 years. However, given the processor is unable to support any C code that requires a “hosted” environment (or other languages whose RTS is written using hosted C), applications in industry will be limited to small embedded systems.

Possibly, with only a minor effort investment, an ad-hoc form of preemption and per-core MMU can be added to a simulation model and obtain a limited compatibility with software frameworks. Without significant research, this would yield sub-efficient (non-competitive) performance, but the gained compatibility might be sufficient to activate further external interest in the work.

**Salvage and open.** Extract individual features from the D-RISC/Microgrids design and evaluate them as extensions of existing processors.

Small “first steps” in this direction can be made by starting with the switch annotations and the coupling of the fetch stage with the I-cache. These features seem readily applicable to the Niagara architecture and the latest ARM multithreaded cores. A more significant project would be to extract the TMU and offer it as a reusable accelerator component where the processor designer can choose which TMU feature are activated. For example, the features related to bulk creation/synchronization or multi-core resource management may not be always relevant, and a designer should not need to pay the price of their integration if they end up not being used.

Conversely, the D-RISC core stripped of hardware multithreading and its TMU could be offered as a SoC building block, marketing its dataflow scheduler as a lightweight implementation of out-of-order execution. For this block to be moderately competitive, a branch predictor may be proposed as an option.

**Distill and reincarnate.** From the perspective of theoretical computer science, the D-RISC/Microgrids enterprise has raised two questions that may warrant a wealth of further fundamental research.

The first was opened on purpose: how does the cost intuition of programmers evolve when complex operating system services are available at nearly the cost of basic arithmetic? This is one of the key questions that the TMU was designed to answer. The desired answer was originally: “once programmers are comfortable about the costs of concurrency, they would use concurrency everywhere and obtain parallel speedups at every level.” This particular answer was not obtained by the research so far, but it may well be that other interesting answers can be obtained instead.

Further effort in this direction could be bootstrapped as follows. First, get acquainted with a software community already comfortable using concurrency without too much assumptions about hardware. Haskell and Erlang programmers are interesting candidates. Then, observe and inventory which specific
patterns of concurrency they already use, and those they are striving to implement. Then re-design a custom TMU that accelerates their favorite language run-time system. Then, demonstrate the net effect on existing programs, and document how the programmers modify their software over time to take advantage of this accelerator.

I discovered the other fundamental question while dismantling the “SVP model” proposed in [Jes08] and used subsequently in the period 2008-2011. SVP has captured, using its “places,” the notion that a group of processors should be considered as a single, fungible resource that can be allocated dynamically from the computing environment and sub-partitioned dynamically using abstract operators such as those implemented by D-RISC’s TMU. The designers of SVP then claimed that “places are the fundamental currency of computing” and that their abstract operators were “general-purpose,” i.e. sufficiently general to carry out any computation.

As I discuss in [Pos12a, Chap. 9&12], I believe this particular claim is invalid, because a “general” model of computing resource should offer and define memory and means for I/O as well, which SVP places do not. However, studying SVP raises the complement question: is it possible to extend a general model of computation with a cost model that uses entire virtual parallel computers with multiple cores and multiple memories as the basic resource unit? A strategy for exploring this question would probably benefit from starting with an inherently concurrent model, which Turing and queue machines are not. The Actor model [Agh85] and Milner’s π-calculus [MPW92a, MPW92b] may be more suitable candidates, as their intuitive implementations have well-understood operational semantics already.

Further effort in this direction could be bootstrapped as follows. First, select a technology which already uses virtualizations of entire parallel resources as a basic building block. Modern Unix systems and VM hypervisors are candidates. Then formalize its basic concurrency operations (e.g. fork, wait in Unix) in the conceptual terminology of a general model. Then, based on this formalization and expert knowledge of the actual behavior of the technology on parallel hardware, design a cost algebra that is reasonably predictive. Then implement a framework that visualizes and predicts cost for existing applications using that technology. Use the interest gained in this way to attract funding on the fundamental question.

7.2 Possible strategies for ongoing projects

7.2.1 Partnership with industry: 150k€ at stake

An industry partner has recently funded some initial research effort to add priority scheduling to D-RISC’s thread scheduler and to explore fault detection and recovery. Initial results suggest an opportunity to fund further development effort in that direction, with the understanding that the partner can use the benefits of the technology in their embedded aeronautics controllers, which already use space-hardened custom SPARC cores, in a 1-core or 2-core configuration.

Here the two strategies “exploit” and “salvage and open” described above are applicable.

For the “exploit” strategy, the partner would need to fund simultaneously a rewrite of the D-RISC specification in a language suitable for both simulation and synthesis, so as to avoid maintaining two source bases over time, and an extension of the current D-RISC design to support preemption and resource reclamation, as much as required by the partner’s software.

For the “salvage and open” strategy, the partner could simply fund a rewrite of D-RISC’s HMT scheduler and the subset of D-RISC’s TMU that is sufficient for the partner’s software as an extension of the partner’s favorite/desired existing processor core.

7.2.2 Ongoing PhD theses: 400k€ at stake

Both my peers who already defended a doctoral thesis founded on D-RISC and Microgrids [Ber10, vT13], and myself, have been assailed during our defenses with variation of the following:

• “why did you choose this platform?”
• “what makes this platform especially attractive?”
• “why is your evaluation by software applications so poor?”

As answers, all three of us formulated variations of “I was told this platform was general enough and/or had great potential when I started, and only later I recognized some of the obstacles, but I did my part nonetheless. And look, by the way, I found some nice answers to side research questions of my own, not initially phrased in the D-RISC/Microgrids enterprise!”

Meanwhile, our unspoken thought was: “I trusted my supervisor this was the right place to start my PhD study and obtain the scientific merit needed to graduate successfully, and as a beginner scientist I
CHAPTER 7. FOLLOW-UP STRATEGIES

| Initial impulse | Reverse-engineered research questions |
|-----------------|---------------------------------------|
| how to build a D-RISC TMU? | what are the costs/benefits of accelerating OS functions for thread management with a hardware unit? |
|                  | what insights about how the hw/sw interface influences programming language semantics, are gained while building a TMU? |
| how to build a D-RISC/Microgrids simulator? | what simulation framework would be suitable for research in micro-architecture design while keeping simulation performance high enough to run significant multi-core workloads? |
|                  | to which level of accuracy can a model in this framework simulate the behavior of a hardware implementation? |
| how to improve D-RISC’s memory performance? | what are the costs/benefits of modifying memory interfaces and protocols to increase the latency tolerance abilities of cores that use HMT and/or dataflow schedulers? |
|                  | what are the quantitative benefits of exploiting the concurrency awareness available in hardware in memory protocols? |
| how to implement priority scheduling in D-RISC? | what are the cost/benefits of extending a HMT scheduler with priorities? |
| how to implement fault tolerance in D-RISC/Microgrids? | what are the costs/benefits of exploiting the concurrency awareness available in hardware in fault tolerance protocols? |
|                  | is it possible to abstract fault tolerance to a general computing model equipped with a resource/cost model? |

Table 7.1: Example reverse-engineering of research questions.

did not have yet the critical acuity to recognize our shared methodological shortcomings. But everyone can make mistakes, and should be forgiven for them. After all, my PhD defense committee finds me worthy of a doctorate, so it couldn’t be as bad as it looks.”

In principle, the currently ongoing PhD research projects could be concluded on the same note, and numerous new projects started with the understanding they will conclude similarly.

In practice however, as I am sitting next to them and entertain close social contact, I feel dishonest letting my peers employ this strategy: given I now understand the shortcomings, is it fair to let my peers struggle with the large friction to academic publication and peer acceptance caused by our communal continued use of a flawed approach? The risk is great also that they recognize this friction but feel the obstacle is insurmountable, or worse, that this realization engenders distrust against the potentials of further research in the area.

Here, unfortunately, I do not have the experience sufficient to guarantee better outcomes with an alternate strategy with any confidence. The essence of any sane approach, to me, would be to retrospectively reverse-engineer properly formulated research questions that happen to be suitably answered by the work effectively performed, independently from the initial initiative. This question should then be phrased as generally as possible so that it does not hinge on the specifics of D-RISC/Microgrids. Only in a second phase, subsequently propose the current implementation of D-RISC/Microgrids as a case study. To illustrate, I list some possible rephrasings in table 7.1. In nearly all cases, I think it would be useful to acknowledge early on that the restrictions described in section 4.3 are arbitrary, and seek actively means to overcome them to gain access to more software benchmarks. This may even imply partial uses of the “salvage and open” strategy described earlier.
Chapter summary

- I can see three follow-up strategies for new investments around D-RISC/Microgrids: exploitation, i.e. apply the technology produced so far to other uses than research; salvaging and opening the technology, i.e. extracting individual features from the D-RISC/Microgrids design and evaluating them as extensions of existing processors; and distillation of the main ideas in the realm of fundamental computer science.
- Ongoing research towards doctoral theses should be careful to rephrase research questions in the light of our recent shared understanding of the project’s issues.
Chapter 8

Conclusion

In traditional academic research projects, the abstract and general questions receive most attention, and technology and engineering “happen” as a by-product. In contrast, the D-RISC/Microgrids project was primarily a technology and engineering enterprise, with some occasional and incidental scientific output.

My opinion is that further work in this direction faces two fundamental problems.

Firstly, a continued focus on engineering makes the project increasingly difficult to host in an academic institution and impedes the growth of an academic network.

The product of the current and past effort is made of chip blueprints, simulation software, ancillary programming tools, education materials and demonstration tools. Unfortunately, the metrics used in academia to reward scientific effort are peer-reviewed academic publications, conference attendance, invited talks and lectures, successfully defended doctoral theses, etc. This mismatch implies that the work has become extraordinarily difficult to defend in academic communities. Moreover, any team member expecting to receive an academic training from this project risks facing a strong sense of disconnect between expectations and reality that may drive them away. This is detrimental to the growth of a network of supporting researchers around the project.

Secondly, the lack of connections with related work, especially a continued disregard for software compatibility, constitutes a serious management issue that threatens the project.

This disconnect has not always been an issue. In general, at the start of a new line of research in computer architecture, compatibility can be readily sacrificed to simplify the research environment and quickly obtain preliminary evaluation results using simple, ad-hoc experiments. Moreover, ten years ago when the research strategy was being shaped, there did not yet exist any pervasive software culture for multi-core programming and software interfaces to concurrency management. In this context, a new, immature approach was simply competing with a host of other equally new, immature approaches. But this context has thus evolved, and the research risks facing irrelevance if the circumstantial changes in context and expectations are not addressed soon.

The question then remains: what to do now? For this, I have detailed in section 7.1 three possible strategies for new investments which I know are viable from the current status of the research and would address the two problems identified above.

One is to exploit: take the shortest practical route to maximize visibility of the current results and apply the technology. I am currently driving exploitation towards academia, using the produced tools for education in chip architecture and code generation. I am seeking support from undergraduate students to design a minimal but working form of exception handling and system-level compatibility with existing software. I am also keeping ready to partner with industry to work on exploitation projects that do not require further design. Another is to salvage and open: bring the technology apart and offer its most salient bits and pieces as reusable components, able to ground partnerships for follow-up joint research projects using existing platforms and processor core designs. I may be interested to support work in this direction, but not to drive the work myself. The third is distill and reincarnate: extract the underlying fundamental research questions that are still relevant in this day and age, and create a new research direction to explore. I have started some preliminary work in this direction myself already.

An incidental, more personal but more fundamental question in the bigger picture is whether any of these strategies is favorable to the development of a researcher’s career in the current academic institution where the project is currently hosted. According to my hierarchy, the answer is currently: “not likely.” I may try to convince them otherwise by sublimating the work somehow, but personal circumstances may prevent my long-term dedication to D-RISC/Microgrids in favor of more aligned research topics instead.
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