## **Runtime-Aware Architectures**

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**Abstract.** In the last few years, the traditional ways to keep the increase of hardware performance to the rate predicted by the Moore's Law have vanished. When uni-cores were the norm, hardware design was decoupled from the software stack thanks to a well defined Instruction Set Architecture (ISA). This simple interface allowed developing applications without worrying too much about the underlying hardware, while hardware designers were able to aggressively exploit instruction-level parallelism (ILP) in superscalar processors. Current multi-cores are designed as simple symmetric multiprocessors (SMP) on a chip. However, we believe that this is not enough to overcome all the problems that multi-cores face. The runtime system of the parallel programming model has to drive the design of future multi-cores to overcome the restrictions in terms of power, memory, programmability and resilience that multi-cores have. In the paper, we introduce an approach towards a Runtime-Aware Architecture (RAA), a massively parallel architecture designed from the runtime's perspective.

#### 1 Introduction and Motivation

In uni-core processors Instruction Level Parallelism (ILP) and Data Level Parallelism (DLP) are exploited to maximize the number of instructions executed per cycle. The most important designs devoted to exploit ILP are superscalar and Very Long Instruction Word (VLIW) processors. VLIW requires to statically figure out dependencies between instructions and to schedule them accordingly. However, since compilers do not do good a job obtaining optimal schedulings, VLIW is not successful in exploiting the maximal ILP of workloads. Superscalar processors handle the increasing memory latencies, the so called Memory Wall [25], by using Out of Order (OoO) and speculative executions [11]. Also, improvements like prefetching, to fetch data from main memory in advance, memory hierarchies, to exploit temporal and spatial locality, and reorder buffers, to expose more instructions to the hardware, have been extensively used. DLP is typically expressed at the software layer in an explicit way and it consists of a parallel operation on multiple data performed by multiple independent instructions, or by multiple independent threads. In uniprocessors, the Instruction Set

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Architecture (ISA) is typically in charge of decoupling the high level application source code and the underlying hardware. In this context, new architecture ideas are applied at the pipeline level. In the left hand side of Fig. 1 we represent the ISA role in decoupling the application and the hardware and the way new architectural designs impact the pipeline.

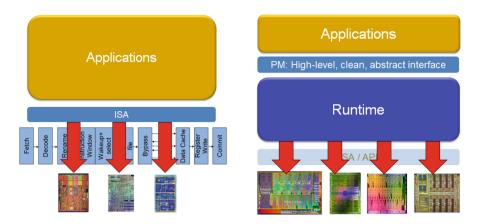
Besides the problems associated with the Memory Wall, traditionally useful ways to increase hardware performance at the Moore's Law rate do not work anymore. For instance, the processor clock frequency is stagnated because the power per unit of area (power density) can not be dissipated once a certain frequency threshold is reached. That problem is called the Power Wall. Indeed, a study made by the International Technology Roadmap for Semiconductors expects the frequency to increase by 5% every year for the next 15 years [12]. Therefore, further performance increases are expected to come from larger concurrency levels rather than higher frequencies. Indeed, to deal with the stagnation of the processor clock frequency, multi-core devices started to be on the market over a decade ago. By exploiting Task Level Parallelism (TLP) multi-core devices may achieve significant performance gains. While some aspects of the Memory and Power Walls may be aggravated: The memory bandwidth per operation and the ratio cache storage/operation remain stable or decrease in multi-cores. These challenges related to memory hierarchy issues constitute a new Memory Wall.

Also, there is a trend towards more heterogeneous multi-core systems, which might have processors with different ISA's connected through deep and complex memory hierarchies. To move data across these memory hierarchies while issues like Non-Uniform Memory Access (NUMA) or sharp power budgets are properly handled is going to be a major challenge in future multi-core machines. The Programmability Wall [7] concept is commonly use to categorize the above mentioned data management and programmability issues.

As the voltage scales up with respect to the transistor threshold voltage, the sensitivity of circuit delays to transistor parameter variations increases remarkably, which implies that processor faults will become more frequent in future designs. Additionally, future designs are expected to have more hardware components than today machines, which only makes the fault prevalence problem more dramatic. Therefore, in addition to the current challenges in parallelism, memory and power management, we are moving towards a Reliability Wall.

Since the irruption of multi-cores and parallel applications it is not possible to write high-level code in a completely hardware oblivious way anymore. An option is to transfer the role of decoupling applications from the hardware to the runtime system, that is, to let the runtime layer be in charge of efficiently using the underlying hardware without exposing its complexities to the application. In fact, the collaboration between the heterogeneous parallel hardware and the runtime layer seems appropriated to keep the programmability hardship that we are anticipating within acceptable levels while dealing with the Memory, Power and Reliability Walls.

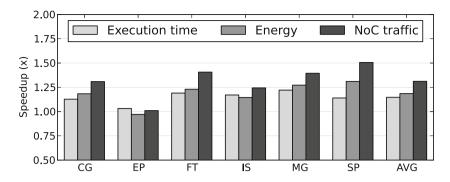
However, this is not enough to overcome all the problems that multicores already have to face. To properly take advantage of their potential, tight hardware-software collaboration is required. The runtime has to drive the



**Fig. 1.** Left: Decoupling the hardware and the software layers in uniprocessors. Right: The runtime drives the hardware design in multiprocessors. We call this approach a Runtime-Aware Architecture (RAA) design.

design of hardware components to overcome the challenges of the above mentioned walls. We envision a Runtime-Aware Architecture (RAA) [23], a holistic approach where the parallel architecture is partially implemented as a software runtime management layer whose activity is supported by specific hardware components specially designed with this purpose. In the right hand side of Fig. 1 we display the RAA concept in a schematic way. In this architecture, TLP and DLP are managed by the runtime and are transparent to the programmer. The idea is to have a task-based representation of parallel programs and handle the tasks in the same way as superscalar processors manage ILP, by means of a Task Dependency Graph (TDG), which can be built at runtime or statically. In this context, the runtime drives the design of new architecture components to support activities like the construction of the TDG [9], among other things.

In the next sections, we describe some illustrative examples of techniques that allow alleviating the challenges arisen from the Memory, Power, Resilience and Programmability Walls. These examples show how an adequate hardware-software co-designed system can significantly improve performance and energy consumption. Section 2 presents a hybrid memory approach that combines scratchpads and caches to deal with the Memory Wall. Section 3 shows how task criticality and hardware reconfiguration can reduce energy consumption. We also highlight the importance of vector processors in that same section. Next, Sect. 4 describes how the asynchrony provided by the OmpSs programming model [8], a forerunner of OpenMP, combined with fine grain error detection techniques can be efficiently combined to mitigate the Resilience Wall. Section 5 provides some examples to illustrate how to deal with the Programmability Wall. Finally, Sect. 6 presents the related work and Sect. 7 summarizes the main findings of this work.



**Fig. 2.** Performance, energy and NoC traffic speedup of the hybrid memory hierarchy on a 64-core processor with respect to a cache-only system.

# 2 Memory Wall

The increasing number of cores in shared memory manycore architectures causes important power and scalability problems in the memory hierarchy. One solution is to introduce ScratchPad Memories (SPM) alongside the caches, forming a hybrid memory hierarchy. SPMs are more power-efficient than caches and they do not generate coherence traffic, but they suffer from poor programmability. A good way to hide the programmability difficulties to the programmer is to give the compiler the responsibility of generating code to manage the scratchpad memories but, unfortunately, compilers do not succeed in generating this code in the presence of random memory accesses with unknown aliasing hazards.

We propose a hardware/software co-designed coherence protocol that allows the compiler to always generate code to manage the SPMs of hybrid memory hierarchies, even if it encounters memory aliasing hazards between strided and random memory references [1]. On the software side, the proposed solution consists on simple modifications to the compiler analysis so that it can classify memory references in three categories: strided memory references, random memory references that do not alias with strided ones, and random memory references with potential aliases. The compiler then transforms the code for the strided memory references to map them to the SPMs using tiling software caches, while for the random memory references that do not alias with strided ones it generates memory instructions that are served by the cache hierarchy. For the random memory references with possible aliasing hazards, the compiler generates a special form of memory instruction that gives the hardware the responsibility to decide what memory is used to serve them. On the hardware side, a coherence protocol is proposed so that the architecture can serve memory accesses with aliasing hazards with the valid copy of the data. For this purpose the hybrid memory hierarchy is extended with a set of directories and filters that track what part of the data set is mapped and not mapped to the SPMs. These new elements are consulted at the execution of memory accesses with unknown aliases,

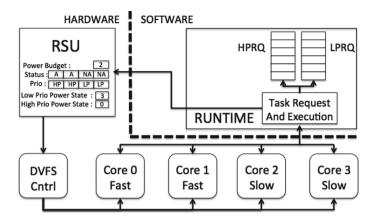


Fig. 3. Runtime Support Unit (RSU) to accelerate critical tasks in the application.

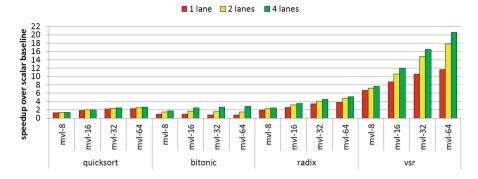
so all memory accesses can be correctly and efficiently served by the appropriate memory component avoiding thus coherence hazards.

As shown in Fig. 2, the proposed system achieves significant speedups in terms of performance, energy and NoC traffic for several NAS benchmarks. Average improvements reach 14.7%, 18.5% and 31.2%, respectively. Reduced execution time combined with more energy-efficient accesses to the hybrid memory hierarchy lead to the energy reductions. Even for benchmarks with minimal accesses to the SPM (as in the case of EP) performance, and NoC traffic are not degraded. With respect to the EP's energy consumption, there is a very minor increase, below 5%, due to the extra hardware components of the hybrid hierarchy, which consume some static power and do not contribute, in the case of EP, to the reduction of the total execution time.

### 3 Power Wall

### 3.1 Exploiting Task Criticality

Task-based data-flow programming models' intrinsic information and execution mechanisms can be exploited to open new performance gains or power savings opportunities. Such programming models overcome the performance of widely used threading approaches when running on heterogeneous many-cores. Furthermore, task criticality information can be exploited to optimize execution time or energy consumption. A task is considered critical if it belongs to the critical path of the Task Dependency Graph. Consequently, critical tasks can be run in faster or accelerated cores while non critical tasks can be scheduled to slow cores without affecting the final performance and reducing overall energy consumption. Moreover, task criticality can be simply annotated by the programmer and exploited to reconfigure the hardware by using DVFS, achieving improvements over static scheduling approaches that reach 6.6 % and 20.0 % in terms of performance and EDP respectively on a simulated 32-core processory.



**Fig. 4.** Speedup over a scalar baseline for different vectorized sorting algorithms. Different maximum vector lengths (MVL) and lanes are considered.

The cost of reconfiguring the hardware with a software-only solution rises with the number of cores. Therefore, novel architectural support is proposed to reduce these overheads on future many-core systems. Figure 3 illustrates such hardware support to build a runtime-aware architecture. The runtime system is in charge of informing the Runtime Support Unit (RSU) of the criticality of each running task. Based on this information and the available power budget, the RSU decides the frequency of each core, which can be seen as a criticality-aware turbo boost mechanism. Consequently, this hardware support minimally extends hardware structures already present in current processors, which allows further improvements in performance with negligible hardware overhead. The proposed solution, which goes from the source code to the hardware level passing through the runtime and the operating system, shows the need for a multi-layer approach to optimally exploit the heterogeneity of future many-core systems.

#### 3.2 Vector Processors

Due to their energy efficiency, SIMD extensions are ubiquitous in modern microprocessors and expected to grow in width and functionality in future generations. After extensive analysis on three diverse sorting algorithms in the context of future SIMD support, we learn that all of the algorithms suffer from bottlenecks and scalability problems due to the irregularity of the DLP and the limitations of a standard SIMD instruction set. Based on these findings we propose VSR sort [10], a novel way to efficiently vectorize the radix sort algorithm. To enable this algorithm in a SIMD architecture we define two new instructions: vector prior instances (VPI) and vector last unique (VLU). VPI uses a single vector register as input, processes it serially and outputs another vector register as a result. Each element of the output asserts exactly how many instances of a value in the corresponding element of the input register have been seen before. VLU also uses a single vector register as input but produces a vector mask as a result that marks the last instance of any particular value found. We provide a suitable hardware proposal that includes both serial and parallel

variants, demonstrating that the algorithm scales well when increasing the maximum vector length, and works well both with and without parallel lockstepped lanes. VSR sort is a clear example of the benefits that a hardware/software co-designed system can offer.

As illustrated in Fig. 4, VSR sort shows maximum speedups over a scalar baseline between 7.9x and 11.7x when a simple single-lane pipelined vector approach is used, and maximum speedups between 14.9x and 20.6x when as few as four parallel lanes are used. Next, we compare VSR sort with three very different vectorized sorting algorithms: quicksort, bitonic mergesort and a previously proposed implementation of radix sort. VSR sort outperforms all of the aforementioned algorithms and achieves a comparatively low Cycles Per Tuple (CPT) without strictly requiring parallel lanes. It has a complexity of  $O(k \cdot n)$  meaning that this CPT will remain constant as the input size increases, a highly-desirable property of a sorting algorithm. The k factor is significantly improved over the original vectorized radix sort as well as the constant performance factor. Its dominant memory access pattern is unit-stride which helps maximise the utilisation of the available memory bandwidth. Unlike the previous vectorized radix sort, VSR sort does not replicate its internal bookkeeping structures which consequently allows them to be larger and reduces the number of necessary passes of the algorithm. On average VSR sort performs 3.4x better than the next-best vectorized sorting algorithm when run on the same hardware configuration.

## 4 Reliability Wall

Relying on error detection techniques already available in commodity hardware, we develop algorithmic-level error correction techniques for Detected and Uncorrected Errors (DUE) in iterative solvers. When a data loss or corruption is detected, we use simple algorithmic redundancies that are not applicable under coarser grain error models without paying prohibitive overheads. By using this straightforward relations existing in the solver it is possible to interpolate the lost data and manage to recover it. This forward recovery scheme has better performance than backwards recoveries such as checkpointing and rollback. We are also able to avoid sacrificing convergence rate altogether thanks to the exactitude of the recovered data, allowing the solver to continue, which is better in the long run.

Furthermore, we can lever the asynchrony of task-based programming models to perform our recoveries' interpolations simultaneously with the normal work-load of the solver. This allows to reduce the overheads of our recovery technique, and is done with virtually no burden on the programmer thanks to the programming model, by scheduling the recoveries in tasks that are placed out of the critical path of the solver.

Figure 5 illustrates these behaviours, for a single error scenario where the Conjugate Gradient (CG) method for the matrix thermal 2 is disturbed by a DUE around 30s. The lightblue checkpointing scheme incurs a significant overhead when rolling back, and the restart method, in green, has a slower convergence

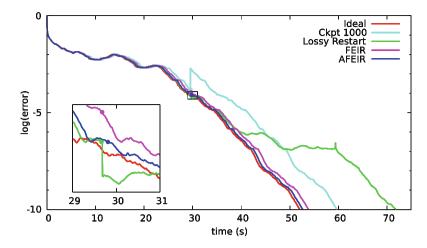


Fig. 5. CG execution example with a single error occurring at the same time for all implemented mechanisms.

afterwards, when compared to the ideal baseline, in red, which has no fault injected nor resilience mechanism. Our recovery technique, in purple, shows a convergence time close to the ideal baseline, and its asynchronous counterpart, in blue, displays an even smaller overhead.

# 5 Programmability Wall

Task-based models are used to program parallel shared memory machines, offering an alternative to other models like POSIX threads. They allow the programmer to easily describe parallel work as asynchronous tasks. Task-based models are coupled with a runtime system which in its simplest form takes the burden of thread management from the programmer. Such runtime systems offer additional functionality, such as load balancing or tracking data dependencies between different tasks, ensuring their correct order of execution. To allow data dependence tracking by the runtime system, task-based models often offer syntactic tools to the programmer to express data-flow relations between tasks [2,8,13,22,24]. The OpenMP standard has recently adopted tasks and data-flow extensions to its syntax [18], allowing dynamic tracking of dependencies during execution.

Studies on how effective this emerging programming model is in terms of performance have been done in the context of HPC [3,20,22]. Since there is an increasing interest, driven by technological trends, in parallel workloads that go beyond the traditional HPC applications, the importance of understanding how task parallelism can be effectively adopted in application domains like search engines, multimedia or finantial analytics is growing. To answer this question we consider a large subset (10 out of 13 applications) of the PARSEC benchmark suite [5] and we use the OmpSs programming model [8], which is a forerunner of

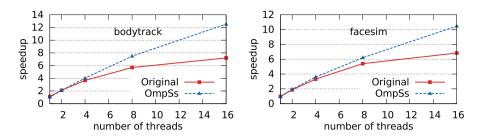


Fig. 6. Scalability comparion between OmpSs and Pthreads.

OpenMP 4.0, to implement new parallelization strategies and extract additional parallelism. We evaluate our task-based implementations in terms of performance against the native implementations of the PARSEC suite (which is always in Pthreads, except in the case of freqmine, which uses OpenMP's parallel loops). In some cases, for example when the applications use pipeline parallelism, we extract additional parallelism executing asynchronously I/O intensive sequential stages and overlapping them with computation intensive parallel regions. In these cases we improve the scalability of the applications. Figure 6 shows the scalability comparison between OmpSs and Pthreads versions for bodytrack and facesim on a 16-core machine. Both applications improve significantly their scalability over the original code, reaching a scaling factor of 12 and 10, respectively, when running with 16 cores.

To evaluate the usability of task-parallel models we study how compact and expressive the code is, compared to Pthreads/OpenMP. By measuring the lines of code, we observe that OmpSs' syntax is less verbose than Pthreads, for most benchmarks. In general, applications that have pipeline parallelism can greatly reduce the lines of code of the application, since simple data-flow relations can replace user implemented queuing and thread management systems.

## 6 Related Work

Some previous work has been devoted to many-core architectures with a single global address space where parallel work is expressed in terms of a taskcentric bulk-synchronous model using hardware support [14]. The execution paradigm of this approach is based on tasks, like the one presented in this paper. However, this previous approach assummes the mapping of the tasks to the functional units of the processor to be specified in the application binary, significantly reducing its flexibility. Other approaches propose architectures composed of multiple processor types and a set of user-managed direct memory access (DMA) engines that let the runtime scheduler overlap data transfer and computation [21]. The runtime system automatically allocates tasks on the heterogeneous cores and schedules the data transfers through the DMA engines. The programming model suggested by this approach supports highly parallel applications and specialized accelerator processors. The Runtime-Aware Architecture presented in this paper

includes these ideas and incorporates new ones (resilience, hardware support for frequency reconfiguration, etc.) to achieve a more general and robust design.

Other many-core proposals with separate execution units for runtime and application code, application-managed on-chip memory and direct physical addressing, a hierarchical on-chip network and a codelet-based execution model [6] have been suggested to reduce energy consumption and increase performance. Hardware techniques to accelerate dynamic task scheduling on scalable CMPs have also been suggested [15]. They consist in relatively simple hardware that can be placed far from the cores. While our proposal also aims to support task scheduling, it incorporates many more innovations like runtime-based hybrid memory designs or hardware support for reconfiguration, to mention just two.

Our research group has experience on runtime system techniques to enable optimizations like software prefetching [4] or overlapping communication and computation [17]. More recently, approaches derived from our initial work aim to exploit the runtime system information to either reduce cache coherence traffic [16] or enable software prefetching mechanisms [19]. The Runtime-Aware Architecture presented in this paper gathers all these previous experiences and provides a holistic view that integrates not only the memory system but also all the hardware components to ride again on the Moore's Law.

## 7 Conclusions

Our approach towards Runtime-Aware Architectures offers a single solution to fix most of the problems other approaches have: handling parallelism, the Memory Wall, the Power Wall, the Programmability Wall, and the upcoming Reliability Wall. The approach presented in this paper is applicable to a wide range of application domains from mobile up to supercomputers and its main feature consists in hardware components specifically designed to support the activity of a runtime system that handles task-parallelism plus control and data dependences. Further, we envision a hardware-software codesign approach where the parallel architecture has a software layer composed by a runtime system whose activity is supported by hardware components specifically designed for that purpose.

Altogether, this novel approach towards future parallel architectures is the way to ensure continued performance improvements by exploiting a tight collaboration between the hardware and the software without sacrificing programmability. All in all, the integrated solution proposed by this paper aims to get us out of the hardship in terms of hardware design and programmability that computers have turned into, once more riding on Moore's Law.

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