Intro to Parallel Architecture

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740

Sept. 19, 2012

What is Parallel Programming?

• Software with multiple threads?

• Multiple threads for:
  - convenience: "concurrent programming"
  - performance: "parallel programming"

What is Parallel Architecture?

• Machines with multiple processors?

• "parallel" vs. "distributed" computing

One Definition of Parallel Architecture

A parallel computer is a collection of processing elements that cooperate to solve large problems fast

Some broad issues:
  • Resource Allocation:
    - how large a collection?
    - how powerful are the elements?
    - how much memory?
  • Data access, Communication and Synchronization
    - how do the elements cooperate and communicate?
    - how are data transmitted between processors?
    - what are the abstractions and primitives for cooperation?
  • Performance and Scalability
    - how does it all translate into performance?
    - how does it scale?
Why Study Parallel Architecture and Programming?

The Answer from 10 Years Ago:
(i.e. when the textbook was written)
• Because it allows you to achieve performance beyond what we get with CPU clock frequency scaling
  - important for applications with high performance demands

The Answer Today:
• Because it is the only way to achieve higher performance in the foreseeable future
• CPU clock rates are no longer increasing!
• Instruction-level-parallelism is not increasing either!
• Without parallel programming, performance becomes a zero-sum game.

Programming Model

What programmer uses in coding applications
Speifies communication and synchronization
Examples:
• Multiprogramming: no communication or synch. at program level
• Shared address space: like bulletin board
• Message passing: like letters or phone calls, explicit point to point
• Data parallel: more regimented, global actions on data
  - Implemented with shared address space or message passing

Communication Abstraction

User level communication primitives provided
• Realizes the programming model
• Mapping exists between language primitives of programming model and these primitives

Supported directly by hw, or via OS, or via user sw
Lot of debate about what to support in sw and gap between layers

Today:
• Hw/sw interface tends to be flat, i.e. complexity roughly uniform
• Compilers and software play important roles as bridges today
• Technology trends exert strong influence

Result is convergence in organizational structure
• Relatively simple, general purpose communication primitives

Communication Architecture

= User/System Interface + Implementation

User/System Interface:
• Comm. primitives exposed to user-level by hw and system-level sw

Implementation:
• Organizational structures that implement the primitives: hw or OS
• How optimized are they? How integrated into processing node?
• Structure of network

Goals:
• Performance
• Broad applicability
• Programmability
• Scalability
• Low Cost
Evolution of Architectural Models

Historically, machines tailored to programming models
- Programming model, communication abstraction, and machine organization lumped together as the “architecture”
Evolution helps understand convergence
- Identify core concepts
Most Common Models:
- Shared Address Space, Message Passing, Data Parallel
Other Models:
- Dataflow, Systolic Arrays
Examine programming model, motivation, intended applications, and contributions to convergence

Shared Address Space Architectures

Any processor can directly reference any memory location
- Communication occurs implicitly as result of loads and stores
Convenient:
- Location transparency
- Similar programming model to time-sharing on uniprocessors
  - Except processes run on different processors
  - Good throughput on multiprogrammed workloads
Naturally provided on wide range of platforms
- History dates at least to precursors of mainframes in early 60s
- Wide range of scale: few to hundreds of processors
Popularity known as shared memory machines or model
- Ambiguous: memory may be physically distributed among processors

Recent x86 Examples

- Highly integrated, commodity systems
- On-chip: low-latency, high-bandwidth communication via shared cache
- Current scale = 4-6 processors

Earlier x86 Example: Intel Pentium Pro Quad

- All coherence and multiprocessing glue in processor module
- In its day, highly-integrated for high volume
- Low latency and bandwidth
Example: Sun SPARC Enterprise M9000

- 64 SPARC64 VII+ quad-core processors (i.e. 256 cores)
- Crossbar bandwidth: 245 GB/sec (snoop bandwidth)
- Memory latency: 437-532 nsec (i.e. 1050-1277 cycles @ 2.4 GHz)
- Higher bandwidth, but also higher latency

Scaling Up

- Problem is interconnect: cost (crossbar) or bandwidth (bus)
- Dance-hall: bandwidth still scalable, but lower cost than crossbar
  - latencies to memory uniform, but uniformly large
- Distributed memory or non-uniform memory access (NUMA)
  - Construct shared address space out of simple message transactions across a general-purpose network (e.g. read-request, read-response)
- Caching shared (particularly nonlocal) data?

Example: SGI Altix UV 1000

- Scales up to 131,072 cores
- 1568/sec links
- Hardware cache coherence

Parallel Programming Models

- Shared Address Space
- Message Passing
- Data Parallel
- Dataflow
- Systolic Arrays
Message Passing Architectures

Complete computer as building block, including I/O
- Communication via explicit I/O operations

Programming model:
- directly access only private address space (local memory)
- communicate via explicit messages (send/receive)

High-level block diagram similar to distributed-mem SAS
- But comm. integrated at IO level, need not put into memory system
- Easier to build than scalable SAS

Programming model further from basic hardware ops
- Library or OS intervention

Message Passing Abstraction

- Send specifies buffer to be transmitted and receiving process
- Recv specifies sending process and application storage to receive into
- Memory to memory copy, but need to name processes
- Optional tag on send and matching rule on receive
- Many overheads: copying, buffer management, protection

Evolution of Message Passing

Early machines: FIFO on each link
- Hardware close to programming model
  - synchronous ops
  - Replaced by DMA, enabling non-blocking ops
  - Buffered by system at destination until recv

Diminishing role of topology
- Store & forward routing: topology important
- Introduction of pipelined routing made it less so
- Cost is in node-network interface
- Simplifies programming

Example: IBM Blue Gene/L

Nodes: 2 PowerPC 400s; everything except DRAM on one chip
Earlier Example: IBM SP-2

- Made out of essentially complete RS6000 workstations
- Network interface integrated in I/O bus (bw limited by I/O bus)

Toward Architectural Convergence

Evolution and role of software have blurred boundary

- Send/recv supported on SAS machines via buffers
- Can construct global address space on MP using hashing
- Page-based (or finer-grained) shared virtual memory

Programming models distinct, but organizations converging

- Nodes connected by general network and communication assists
- Implementations also converging, at least in high-end machines

Parallel Programming Models

- Shared Address Space
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- Data Parallel
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Taxonomy of Common Large-Scale SAS and MP Systems

aka “message passing”
Data Parallel Systems

Programming model:
• Operations performed in parallel on each element of data structure
• Logically single thread of control, performs sequential or parallel steps
• Conceptually, a processor associated with each data element

Architectural model:
• Array of many simple, cheap processors with little memory each
  - Processors don’t sequence through instructions
• Attached to a control processor that issues instructions
• Specialized and general communication, cheap global synchronization

Original motivation:
• Matches simple differential equation solvers
• Centralize high cost of instruction fetch & sequencing

Application of Data Parallelism

• Each PE contains an employee record with his/her salary
  If salary > 100K then
    salary = salary *1.05
  else
    salary = salary *1.10
• Logically, the whole operation is a single step
• Some processors enabled for arithmetic operation, others disabled

Other examples:
• Finite differences, linear algebra, ...
• Document searching, graphics, image processing, ...

Example machines:
• Thinking Machines CM-1, CM-2 (and CM-5)
• Maspar MP-1 and MP-2

Evolution and Convergence

Rigid control structure (SIMD in Flynn taxonomy)
• SISD = uniprocessor, MIMD = multiprocessor

Popular when cost savings of centralized sequencer high
• 60s when CPU was a cabinet; replaced by vectors in mid-70s
• Revived in mid-80s when 32-bit datapath slices just fit on chip
• No longer true with modern microprocessors

Other reasons for demise
• Simple, regular applications have good locality, can do well anyway
• Loss of applicability due to hardwiring data parallelism
  - MIMD machines as effective for data parallelism and more general

Programming model converges with SPMD (single program multiple data)
• Contributes need for fast global synchronization
• Structured global address space, implemented with either SAS or MP

Parallel Programming Models

• Shared Address Space
• Message Passing
• Data Parallel
• Dataflow
• Systolic Arrays
Dataflow Architectures

Represent computation as a graph of essential dependences
- Logical processor at each node, activated by availability of operands
- Message (tokens) carrying tag of next instruction sent to next processor
- Tag compared with others in matching store; match fires execution

Evolution and Convergence

Key characteristics:
- Ability to name operations, synchronization, dynamic scheduling

Problems:
- Operations have locality across them, useful to group together
- Handling complex data structures like arrays
- Complexity of matching store and memory units
- Exposes too much parallelism (?)

Converged to use conventional processors and memory
- Support for large, dynamic set of threads to map to processors
- Typically shared address space as well
- But separation of programming model from hardware (like data parallel)

Lasting contributions:
- Integration of communication with thread (handler) generation
- Tightly integrated communication and fine-grained synchronization
- Remained useful concept for software (compilers etc.)

Parallel Programming Models

- Shared Address Space
- Message Passing
- Data Parallel
- Dataflow
- Systolic Arrays

Systolic Architectures

- Replace single processor with array of regular processing elements
- Orchestrate data flow for high throughput with less memory access

Different from pipelining:
- Nonlinear array structure, multidirection data flow, each PE may have (small) local instruction and data memory

Different from SIMD: each PE may do something different

Initial motivation: VLSI enables inexpensive special-purpose chips
Represent algorithms directly by chips connected in regular pattern
Systolic Arrays (Cont)

Example: Systolic array for 1-D convolution

\[ y(i) = \sum_{j=1}^{k} w(j) x(i-j) \]

- Practical realizations (e.g., iWARP) use quite general processors
  - Enable variety of algorithms on same hardware
- But dedicated interconnect channels
  - Data transfer directly from register to register across channel
- Specialized, and same problems as SIMD
  - General purpose systems work well for same algorithms (locality etc.)

Convergence: General Parallel Architecture

A generic modern multiprocessor

Node: processor(s), memory system, plus communication assist

- Network interface and communication controller
- Scalable network

Understanding Parallel Architecture

Traditional taxonomies not very useful
- Programming models not enough, nor hardware structures
  - Same one can be supported by radically different architectures

Architectural distinctions that affect software
- Compilers, libraries, programs

Design of user/system and hardware/software interface
- Constrained from above by progr. models and below by technology

Guiding principles provided by layers
- What primitives are provided at communication abstraction
- How programming models map to these
- How they are mapped to hardware
**Fundamental Design Issues**

At any layer, interface (contract) aspect and performance aspects

- **Naming**: How are logically shared data and/or processes referenced?
- **Operations**: What operations are provided on these data
- **Ordering**: How are accesses to data ordered and coordinated?
- **Replication**: How are data replicated to reduce communication?
- **Communication Cost**: Latency, bandwidth, overhead, occupancy

Understand at programming model first, since that sets requirements

Other issues:

- **Node Granularity**: How to split between processors and memory?
- ...

**Sequential Programming Model**

**Contract**

- **Naming**: Can name any variable in virtual address space
  - Hardware (and perhaps compilers) does translation to physical addresses
- **Operations**: Loads and Stores
- **Ordering**: Sequential program order

**Performance**

- Rely on dependences on single location (mostly): dependence order
- Compilers and hardware violate other orders without getting caught
- **Compiler**: reordering and register allocation
- **Hardware**: out of order, pipeline bypassing, write buffers
- **Hardware**: Transparent replication in caches

**Shared Address Space Programming Model**

**Naming**:

- Any process can name any variable in shared space

**Operations**:

- Loads and stores, plus those needed for ordering

**Simplest Ordering Model**:

- Within a process/thread: sequential program order
- Across threads: some interleaving (as in time-sharing)
- Additional orders through synchronization
- Again, compilers/hardware can violate orders without getting caught
  - Different, more subtle ordering models also possible (discussed later)

**Synchronization**

**Mutual exclusion (locks)**

- Ensure certain operations on certain data can be performed by only one process at a time
- Room that only one person can enter at a time
- No ordering guarantees

**Event synchronization**

- Ordering of events to preserve dependences
  - e.g. producer → consumer of data
- 3 main types:
  - point-to-point
  - global
  - group
**Message Passing Programming Model**

**Naming:** Processes can name private data directly.
- No shared address space

**Operations:** Explicit communication via `send` and `receive`
- Send transfers data from private address space to another process
- Receive copies data from process to private address space
- Must be able to name processes

**Ordering:**
- Program order within a process
- Send and receive can provide pt-to-pt synch between processes
- Mutual exclusion inherent

**Can construct global address space:**
- Process number + address within process address space
- But no direct operations on these names

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**Design Issues Apply at All Layers**

Programming model's position provides constraints/goals for system
In fact, each interface between layers supports or takes a position on:
- Naming model
- Set of operations on names
- Ordering model
- Replication
- Communication performance

Any set of positions can be mapped to any other by software
Let's see issues across layers:
- How lower layers can support contracts of programming models
- Performance issues

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**Naming and Operations**

Naming and operations in programming model can be directly supported by lower levels, or translated by compiler, libraries or OS

Example: Shared virtual address space in programming model

1. Hardware interface supports *shared physical address space*
   - Direct support by hardware through v-to-p mappings, no software layers

2. Hardware supports independent physical address spaces
   - Can provide SAS through OS, so in system/user interface
     - v-to-p mappings only for data that are local
     - remote data accesses incur page faults; brought in via page fault handlers
     - same programming model, different hardware requirements and cost model
   - Or through compilers or runtime, so above sys/user interface
     - shared objects, instrumentation of shared accesses, compiler support

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**Naming and Operations (Cont)**

Example: Implementing Message Passing

1. Direct support at hardware interface
   - But match and buffering benefit from more flexibility

2. Support at system/user interface or above in software (almost always)
   - Hardware interface provides basic data transport (well suited)
   - Send/receive built in software for flexibility (protection, buffering)
   - Choices at user/system interface:
     - OS each time: expensive
     - OS sets up once/infrequently, then little software involvement each time
   - Or lower interfaces provide SAS, and send/receive built on top with buffers and loads/stores

Need to examine the issues and tradeoffs at every layer
- Frequencies and types of operations, costs
Ordering

Message passing: no assumptions on orders across processes except those imposed by send/receive pairs

SAS: How processes see the order of other processes' references defines semantics of SAS
- Ordering very important and subtle
- Uniprocessors play tricks with orders to gain parallelism or locality
- These are more important in multiprocessors
- Need to understand which old tricks are valid, and learn new ones
- How programs behave, what they rely on, and hardware implications

Replication

Very important for reducing data transfer/communication Again, depends on naming model

Uniprocessor: caches do it automatically
- Reduce communication with memory

Message Passing naming model at an interface
- A receive replicates, giving a new name; subsequently use new name
- Replication is explicit in software above that interface

SAS naming model at an interface
- A load brings in data transparently, so can replicate transparently
- Hardware caches do this, e.g. in shared physical address space
- OS can do it at page level in shared virtual address space, or objects
- No explicit renaming, many copies for same name: coherence problem
- In uniprocessors, "coherence" of copies is natural in memory hierarchy

Communication Performance

Performance characteristics determine usage of operations at a layer
- Programmer, compilers etc make choices based on this

Fundamentally, three characteristics:
- Latency: time taken for an operation
- Bandwidth: rate of performing operations
- Cost: impact on execution time of program

If processor does one thing at a time: bandwidth \( \propto \frac{1}{\text{latency}} \)
- But actually more complex in modern systems

Characteristics apply to overall operations, as well as individual components of a system, however small
We will focus on communication or data transfer across nodes

Communication Cost Model

Communication Time per Message
\[ = \text{Overhead} + \text{Assist Occupancy} + \text{Network Delay} + \frac{\text{Size}}{\text{Bandwidth}} + \text{Contention} \]
\[ = o_o + l + n/B + T_c \]

Overhead and assist occupancy may be \( f(n) \) or not

Each component along the way has occupancy and delay
- Overall delay is sum of delays
- Overall occupancy (1/bandwidth) is biggest of occupancies

Comm Cost = frequency * (Comm time - overlap)

General model for data transfer: applies to cache misses too
## Summary of Design Issues

Functional and performance issues apply at all layers

**Functional:** Naming, operations and ordering

**Performance:** Organization, latency, bandwidth, overhead, occupancy

Replication and communication are deeply related
- Management depends on naming model

**Goal of architects:** design against frequency and type of operations that occur at communication abstraction, constrained by tradeoffs from above or below
- Hardware/software tradeoffs