Introduction to Parallel Programming

Sequential Architecture

- Sequential computers are based on the model presented by John von Neumann
- Performance of the model is limited by:
 - Speed of information exchange between memory and CPU
 - Execution rate of instructions
- Performance can be improved by <u>improving</u> <u>these aspects</u>

Memory Banks & Cache

- The *speed* of **information exchange** between memory and CPU can be improved
 - by using memory interleaving
 - (= simultaneous memory access by having <u>several</u> memory banks)
 - by using very fast memory (cache)

Pipeline

- Execution rate of the instructions can be improved by **overlapping** the execution of several instructions
 - *instruction pipelining* means that instructions are executed and fetched from the memory <u>at</u> the same time
 - *execution pipelining* means that different instructions are in different functional units (multipliers, adders, ...)

Instruction Pipelines

- Execution of instructions has <u>4 phases</u>:
 - Fetch
 - Decode
 - Execute
 - Write-back
- Usually these phases are executed as in industrial assembly line

=> <u>overlapping</u> of execution

Note

- It takes some time to <u>fill the pipeline</u> but as soon as the pipeline is filled the results come out in every cycle
- Branches affect the execution as new instruction need to be fetched

Slows down the execution

=> Branch prediction

About Sequential Architectures

- **<u>Pipelining</u>**, <u>memory interleaving</u> and **caching** are commonly used in sequential computers
- Some restrictions
 - Cache speed is limited by technology
 - Memory interlaving and pipelining are useful only in some cases
- Alternate way is to use real *parallel* architectures

Parallel Architectures

- Parallel architectures can be **classified** in several ways:
 - Flynn's taxonomy
 - control mechanism
 - address-space organization
 - interconnection network
 - granularity of processors
- Note! ovelapping categories

Flynn's taxonomy

- The most famous classification according to the data and instruction streams:
 - **SISD** (Single Instruction Single Data)
 - Sequential architecture
 - MISD (Multiple Instruction Single Data)
 - Several processors execute different instructions to the same data => not too practical
 - **SIMD** (Single Instruction Multiple Data)
 - Several processors execute same instruction to several different data
 - **MIMD** (Multiple Instruction Multiple Data)
 - Several processors execute instructions independently to their own data

Control Mechanism

- Parallel architectures consist of <u>several</u> <u>processing elements PE</u>
- Processing elements may operate

 under centralized control (=SISD)
 - independently (=MIMD)

SIMD & MIMD

- **SIMD:** Control unit dispatches instructions to processing elements
 - synchronous execution
 - PE is on/off
 - CM-2, Illiac IV, MP-1, MP-2
- **MIMD:** Each processing element may execute its own program

- iPSC, Symmetry, nCube 2, CM-5

Comparison

- SIMD requires less hardware because of *single control unit*
- MIMD processors are more complex because of *separate control units*
- SIMD requires <u>less memory</u> because only one copy of the program is used
- SIMD suits for *data-parallel* programs

Comparison

- SIMD may execute only **one** instruction in each **clock cycle**
- MIMD is suitable for programs <u>limited by</u> <u>condition statements</u>
- SIMD offers *automatic synchronization*
- MIMD processors are **common** whereas SIMD are special design

Address-space Organization

- Solving a problem in parallel architectures requires <u>communication</u> between processors
- Communication can be achieved by using
 - shared memory
 - message passing

Message Passing

- Multicomputer
- Each processor has its <u>own memory</u>
- Processors are connected through a *message passing* interconnection network
- Processors communicate by sending messages to each other
- Example: CM-5, **iPSC**

Shared Memory

- Multiprocessor
- Shared memory architecture uses shared memory for the communication by changing variables
- Different variations
 - UMA, uniform memory access
 - NUMA, non-uniform memory access
 - **COMA**, cache-only memory access

Uniform Memory Access

- First approach is to offer <u>equal access</u> to shared memory
- Interconnection <u>network capacity</u> problem
 - all processors may need to have something from the memory <u>at the same time</u>
 - memory access through the network may be <u>slow</u> (because of the structure)

Non-uniform Memory Access

- Avoid unnecessary memory references by using <u>local memory</u>
 - Program
 - Non-shared data structures
- Local memory concept can be extended by removing global (shared) memory
- Memory <u>references are mapped</u> by the hardware

Cache-only Memory Access

- NUMA architecture is similar to message passing architecture
 - NUMA provides hardware support
 - Message passing architecture requires explicit message passing
- In some cases the processor contains only cache memory and <u>no local memory</u>

(= cache only memory access)

Cache Coherence

- Cache can be added to processors to <u>speed up the memory references</u>
- Cache improves the performance as it does in sequential architecture
 - but the parallel architecture causes troubles if processors modify variables in their own cache
 - Memory value and cache value may *differ*

Cache Coherence Problem

- Write-through (WT) and write-back (WB) caches
 - WT: memory <u>follows the cache</u>
 - WB: <u>memory is not updated</u> until replacement
- Cache coherence problem may appear if
 - Modification of shared data
 - Process migration
 - I/O operations bypassing caches

Cache Coherence

- Cache coherence can be achieved by using several approaches:
 - snoopy coherence protocols (<u>snoopy bus</u>)
 - write invalidate
 - Invalidates all other copies
 - write update
 - Broadcasts the newly cached copy

Interconnection Network

- Both <u>shared memory</u> and <u>message passing</u> architectures can use
 - static interconnection network
 - dynamic interconnection network
- Static networks usually in message passing computers
- **Dynamic networks** usually in shared memory computers

Granularity of Processors

- Parallel architecture can be implemented by using
 - small number of powerful processors
 - large amount of less powerful processors
- Classification into
 - coarse-grain (only few processors)
 - medium-grain
 - fine-grain (a lot of processors)
- Examples: Cray Y-MP, CM-5, CM-2

Granularity

- Price and availability of processors !
 - powerful processors cost a lot and therefore parallel computers tend to have only limited number of them
- Different applications suit for different architectures
 - limited parallel properties => coarse-grain
 - lot of concurrency => fine-grain



- Ratio of the <u>time required for a basic</u> <u>communication</u> to the <u>time required for the</u> <u>basic computation</u>
 - Small ratio => suitable for communication intensive algorithms (= fine grain)
 - Large ratio => suitable for computation intensive algorithms (= coarse grain)

Another approach

- Similar way is to <u>*classify*</u> parallel computers according to the following terms:
 - **Homogeneity** (SIMD, MIMD, SPMD)
 - Synchrony (synchronous, asynhronous, loosely synchornous, BSP)
 - Interaction mechanism (shared, messages)
 - Address space (UMA, NUMA, NORMA, COMA)
 - **Memory** model (EREW, CREW, ...)

Terms

• Homogeneity

- How alike processors are

• Synchrony

– How tight synchronization is used

• Interaction mechanism

- How processes interact
- Address space
 - memory location accessible by the process
- Memory model

- How machine model handles shared memory conflicts

Physical Models

- Large scale computer systems can generally be classified into the following practical models:
 - SIMD
 - **PVP**, parallel vector processor
 - **SMP**, symmetric multiprocessor
 - **MPP**, massively parallel processor
 - **COW**, cluster of workstations
 - **DSM**, Distributed Shared Memory

PVP

- These systems contain a small number of powerful custom made vector processors
- Each processor is capable of 1 Gflops
- Custom designed crossbar swith network
- Shared memory
- Cray C-90, Cray T-90, NEC SX-4

SMP

- Uses common microprocessors
- Bus / crossbar switch
- Symmetric i.e. each processor has equal access to memory, I/O, ...
- Number of processors is limited by the centralized memory, interconnection (scaling)
- Used for database applications, data warehouses
- IBM R50, SGI Power Challenge, DEC Alpha server 8400

MPP

- Very large-scale computer system:
 - common microprocessors
 - physically distributed memory
 - high communication bandwith and low latency interconnection
 - scales well (up to 1000s of processors)
 - asynchronous MIMD machine with message passing
 - program consist of multiple processes (private address space)
- Tightly coupled

COW

- <u>Low-cost variation</u> of MPP
 - each node is a complete workstation (PC/SMP)
 - low-cost network (Ethernet, FDDI, Fiber-channel, ATM, ...)
 - loosely coupled (separate I/O bus)
 - loacl disk
 - complete operating system
- Digital TruCluster, IBM SP2, Berkley NOW

DSM

- Uses cache directory (supports distributed coherent caches) or special hardware and software extensions
- Stanford DASH, Cray T3D
- Difference to SMP is physical distribution of the memory (hardware and software makes on illusion of shared memory)
- Sofware inplementation (TreadMarks)

Comments

- Boundary between MPPs and COW is becoming fuzzy
 - IBM SP2 is MPP but has a cluster architecture with high-performance switch
 - Clustering is becoming a trend for scalable parallel computers

Clustering

- Cluster is a collection of complete computers (nodes) that are physically interconnected by a high-performance network or a local area network
- Characteristics:
 - Each computer is an SMP, workstation or PC
 - Nodes work together as a single integrated computing resource
 - Each node can be used separately if necessary

Architecturel concepts

- Cluster nodes
- Internode connection
 - Ethernet, FDDI, ATM, Fiber-channel
 - Standard protocols
- Single system image
 - single resource vs. distributed system
- Enhanced availability
 - cost-effective way to enhance availability (% of time system is available for the user)
- Better performance
 - superserver, minimize time for a job

Architectural comparison

- Clusters, SMP, MPP, distributed systems are overlapping
 - node complexity hardware and software capability
 - Single system image relative concept

Benefits and difficulties

- Usability
 - Single nodes are traditional platform
 - \Rightarrow develop and run application as used
 - More difficult to program than message passing MPP
- Availability
 - Percentage of time system is available for productive use
 - Use of common components (redundancy)
 - Processors, memory, disk array, operating system

Benefits and difficulties

- Scalable performance
 - add performance by increasing nodes
 - processors, memory, disks scale well
- Performance/cost ratio
 - clusters are cost-effective (cmp. PVP, MPP)
 - made of common components (Moore's law)

Abstract models

- Few abstract models have been developed for the parallel computing
 - PRAM, Parallel random access machine
 - BSP, Bulk synchronous parallel model
 - Phase parallel model
- Design and analysis of algorithms without worrying about the details of physical machines

PRAM

- Ideal architecture
- Characteristics:
 - p processors + unlimited memory
 - MIMD
 - Fine grain
 - Tightly synchronous
 - Zero overhead for synchronization
 - Shared variables (no communication overhead)

PRAM

- Simple and clean approach
 - many theoretical parallel algorithms are specified with PRAM
 - widely used for analysing algorithms
- Zero communication time is unrealistic
- Overheads may affect in real life
- Because of unrealistic assumptions PRAM model has not been used as a machine model for real life parallel computers

Memory models

- Memory references that happen at the same time can be solved as follows:
 - EREW (Exclusive Read Exclusive Write)
 - No memory operations at the same time
 - Weakest model
 - CREW (Concurrent Read Exclusive Write)
 - Several reads allowed but only one write
 - Concurrent writes happen sequentially
 - ERCW (Exclusive Read Concurrent Write)
 - Several writes but only one read
 - CRCW (Concurrent Read Concurrent Write)
 - Several reads and writes at the same time allowed

Concurrent write

- Concurrent write can be solved in CRCW and ERCW models as follows:
 - Common value
 - Concurrent write can be performed if the same value
 - Arbitrary value
 - One arbitrary processor succeeds
 - Priority
 - Processor with the highest priority succeeds
 - Function
 - Use some function of the values e.g. sum

BSP

- Bulk synchronous parallel model
- Overcome shortcomings of PRAM model
 - p processor memory pairs (nodes)
 - Interconnection network
 - p processes (one / node)
 - Time steps & supersteps
 - Computation operations w time steps
 - Communication gh time steps
 - Barrier synchronization l time steps

BSP

- BSP is an MIMD type computer
- Loose synchrony at superstep level (compare tight instruction level synchrony in PRAM)
- Within superstep each process execute instructions asynchronously
- Communication may use shared memory or message passing
- Point-to-point communication

BSP

- BSP is more realistic than PRAM because it consideres overheads
- Exection time of superstep is determined by:
 - load imbalance: w is max time spent on computation operations
 - synchronization overhead: lower bound for the communication network latency
 - communication overhead: gh time steps, platform dependent part g * h relation
 - time for superstep is w + gh + l

Phase Parallel Model

- Combines both PARM and BSP
 - Parallel program is executed as sequence of phases (superstep)
 - parallelism phase
 - computation phase
 - interaction phase
 - Different computation phases may execute different workloads at different speeds (w, t_f)
 - Different interactions may take different times

Sources

- Lappeenranta Univ of Technology
- Labra