Parallel Architectures

CS121 Parallel Computing Fall 2022



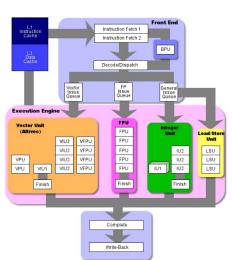
Parallelism hierarchy

- Parallelism exists at many different levels of a computer system.
 - Within a single core.
 - □ A multicore processor.
 - □ A medium scale shared memory parallel computer.
 - □ A large scale distributed memory system.



Implicit parallelism - Pipelining

- Implicit parallelism executes straight line code in parallel on multiple FUs.
- CPU contains multiple functional units, e.g. instruction fetch / decode, load / store, integer / floating point units, etc.
- Pipelining
 - Break up one instruction and execute pieces in pipeline.
 - Ex 5 stage pipeline potentially offers 5X speedup.
 - ☐ Modern processors have 10-20 stages.
 - If code branches, must guess how to fill pipeline.
 - Branch misprediction requires flushing pipeline.
 - Typical code branches every 5 instructions, so requires accurate prediction.



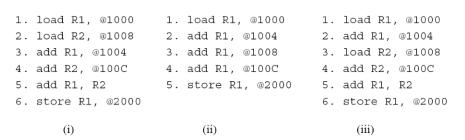
Instr. No.	Pipeline Stage						
1	IF	₽	ΕX	<u>Y</u>	WB		
2		IF	ID	EX	MEM	₩B	
3			IF	ID	EX	МЕМ	WB
4				IF	ō	EX	MEM
5					IF	₽	ΕX
Clock Cycle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



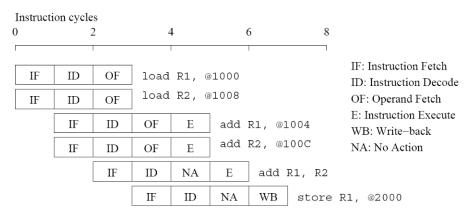
Implicit parallelism - Superscalar

- Superscalar processors issue multiple instructions each clock.
- Execution must respect data dependencies, where one instruction uses results of another.
 - All three code fragments add 4 numbers, but first code has fewer data dependencies (so more parallelism) than second.
 - Third code requires lookahead and reordering hardware to detect independence of instructions 1 and 3.

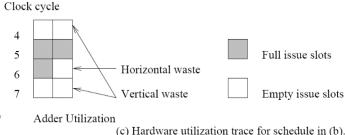
Source: Introduction to Parallel Computing, Grama et al., 2003



(a) Three different code fragments for adding a list of four numbers.



(b) Execution schedule for code fragment (i) above.





Implicit parallelism - VLIW

- Superscalar
 - □ Resource dependency is when multiple instructions use same hardware unit.
 - Branch dependency occurs when code can take different paths based on a conditional.
 - □ Waste occurs when no instruction issued in a clock cycle.
- VLIW (very long instruction word) finds and packs parallelizable instructions at compile time.
 - □ Superscalar finds parallelism at runtime.
 - □ Pro Compiler can do more sophisticated search.
 - Con Compiler doesn't have runtime state, e.g. branch history, cache misses, for efficient scheduling.

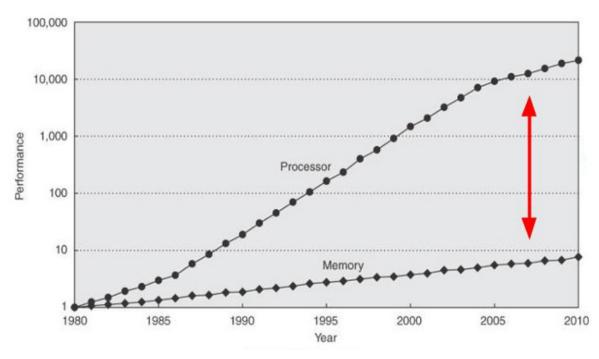
Memory performance

- We need data before we can compute. So processor performance often depends on memory performance.
- Key measures are latency and bandwidth.
- Latency is amount of time for processor to access piece of data.
- Bandwidth is amount of data transferred from memory to processor per unit time.
- Ex Consider a highway.
 - □ Latency is the how fast you can drive on the highway (or alternatively, the length of the highway).
 - □ Bandwidth is how many lanes the highway has.
- Latency and bandwidth are independent.
 - Ex you can have low latency & low bandwidth, high latency & high bandwidth, etc.
- Latency is more important if frequently transfer small amounts of data.
- Bandwidth matters when transferring large piece of data.





CPU-memory gap



- Processors today can compute much faster than memory can transfer data.
- Ex 100 GFLOPS, 20 GB/s bandwidth and 100 ns latency to main memory.
 - □ Performance is bandwidth limited. Can only transfer 5 billion floats / sec, only 5 GFLOPS!

Memory hierarchy

Typical Levels in a Hierarchical Memory

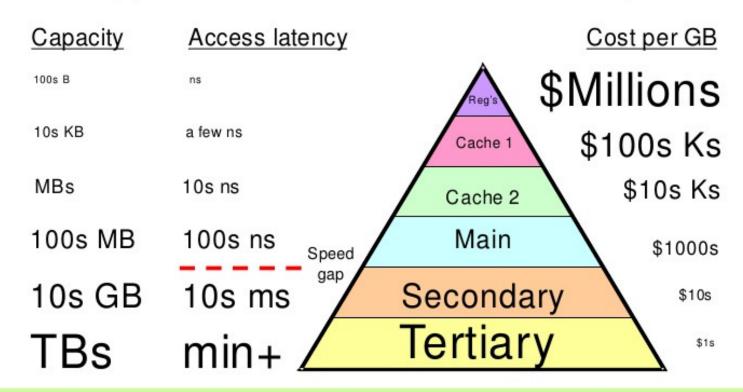


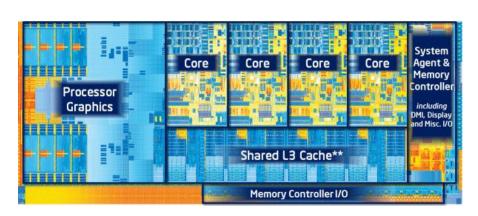
Fig. 17.14 Names and key characteristics of levels in a memory hierarchy.

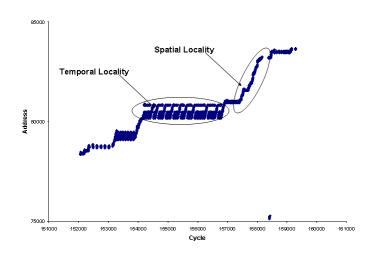




Caching

- Cache is small but fast piece of memory built directly on CPU die.
 - Low latency, high bandwidth.
 - Used to decrease (effective) latency. Also helps alleviate bandwidth limitations.
- When accessing data, processor first checks cache, and only goes to memory if data isn't in cache.
- Caches effective due to temporal and spatial locality in (most) code.
- Temporal locality Small set of data accessed repeatedly.
 - Store in cache and access quickly.
- Spatial locality
 - Nearby pieces of data accessed together.
 - Ex Iterating through an array.

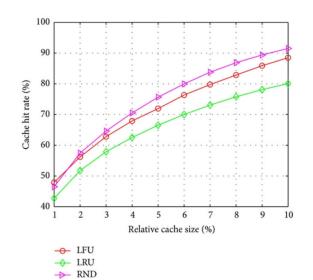






Caching performance

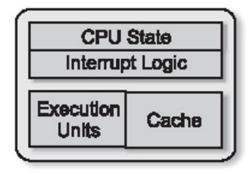
- Cache hit rate is the proportion of data accesses serviced from the cache.
 - ☐ Typically a concave function in the cache size.
- Processors have several layers of cache, each layer faster but smaller.
- Algorithms can sometimes be transformed to have greater locality.
- Caches can dramatically improve performance.
- Ex 1 GHz processor with 100 ns latency DRAM. Assume one round trip per word, one FLOP per word transferred.
 - □ Transfer 10M words / $\sec \Rightarrow$ 10 MFLOPS.
 - □ Suppose cache has 5 ns latency and 80% hit rate.
 - Avg latency per word = 5*0.8 + 100*0.2 = 24 ns.
 - Transfer 42M words / sec ⇒ 42 MFLOPS.
 - □ With 90% hit rate, latency = 5*0.9+100*0.1 = 14.5 ⇒ 69 MFLOPS.





Processor architectures

- A core is an independent execution unit that can run one or more threads.
- Core contains memory controller, instruction fetch / decoder, execution units, registers storing CPU state, etc.
- Cores and caches can be combined in various ways to form processors.

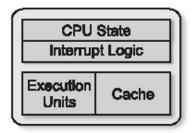


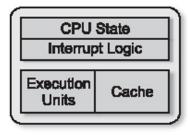
Single core processor

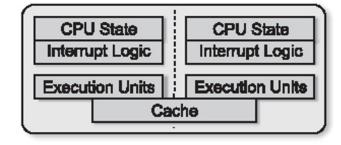


Processor architectures

- A multiprocessor contains several cores communicating through memory.
- A multicore (aka CMP, or chip multiprocessor) has several cores on a single die.
 - Each core is a complete processor, with own execution unit and CPU state.
 - □ Cores share an L2 / L3 cache.
 - Increases cache utilization, but might cause thrashing.
 - □ Threads on different cores run simultaneously.
 - □ Allows fast communication (i.e. cache coherency) between cores.
 - □ Cheap to manufacture, simpler board design, very popular.







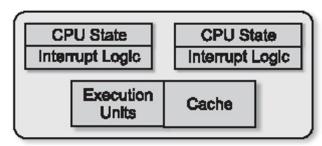
Multiprocessor

Multicore processor



Threads and multithreading

- Thread is an independent instruction stream with its own state, i.e. CPU registers, program counter and stack.
- A program can contain multiple threads running concurrently.
 - Threads can communicate through memory and cooperate on a problem.
- Simultaneous multithreading (SMT)
 - Relatively cheap to maintain the state of a thread.
 - □ A logical processor can be created using only the thread state.
 - □ Can fit several logical processors in one core.
 - Execution units and cache still shared, only state hardware duplicated.
 - □ Cheap way to get (some) extra performance and hide latency.
- Intel supports two threads per core (hyperthreading), Sun UltraSparc supports 8 threads, etc.

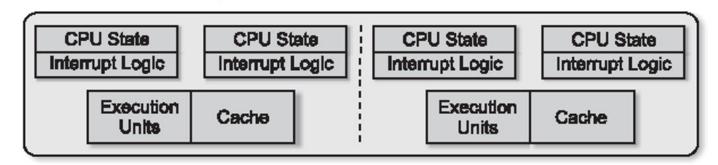


Hyperthread processor

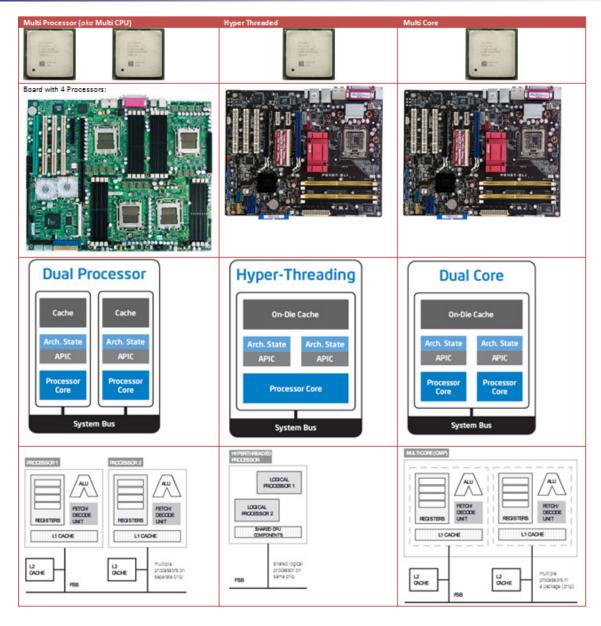


Multithreaded multicore

- Individual cores can use multithreading. Combine several cores in one package.
- Widely used, e.g. Intel Core, Xeon, AMD Ryzen, Sun UltraSparc, IBM POWER, etc.
- Hyperthreading improves performance by 15-30%, depending on application and scheduling.
 - □ Threads may compete for resources such as cache or execution units and actually decrease performance.
 - Processors allow deactivating multithreading.



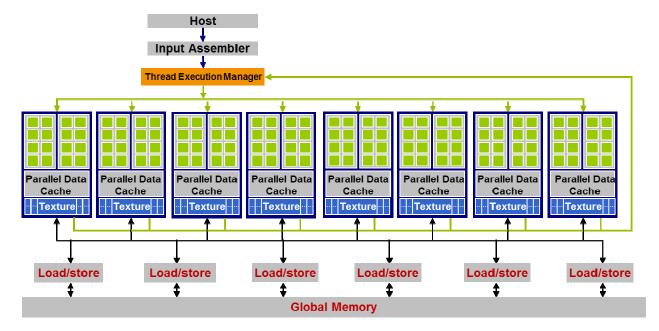
Multicore hyperthreading processor



Source: http://superuser.com/questions/214331/what-is-the-difference-between-multicore-and-multiprocessor

GPGPU

- General purpose graphics processing unit (or just GPU).
 - Using massive parallelism of graphics cards for general purpose computation.
 - □ Dozens of "streaming multiprocessors".
 - Each SM contains 32 simple cores and runs 32 threads simultaneously.
 - All cores do the same instruction.
 - Tens of thousands of active threads.
 - Hardware quickly switches between them to hide I/O latency.



ŀΑ

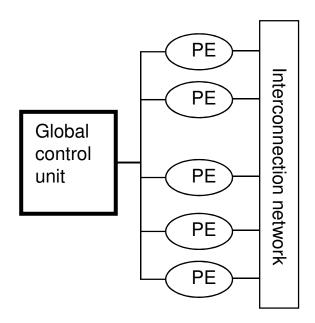
Flynn's taxonomy

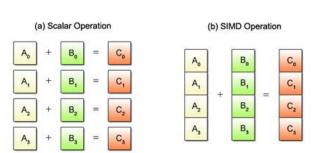
- A parallel system consists of multiple communicating, cooperating processors.
 - □ Processors may be single / multicore, single / multithreaded,
 □ GPUs / accelerators, etc.
- Unlike sequential computing, which follows the von Neumann architecture, there is a wide variety of parallel system architectures.
- Flynn (1966) classified parallel systems based on instructions and data used by the processors.
 - □ SISD Single instruction, single data
 - Conventional sequential processor.
 - □ **SIMD** Single instruction, multiple data
 - Single control unit for multiple processing units.
 - □ MISD Multiple instruction, single data
 - Uncommon; but pipelining is a form of MISD.
 - □ MIMD Multiple instruction, multiple data
- Use different hardware designs based on software characteristics.



SIMD

- Control unit fetches single instruction and broadcasts it to processing units.
- PEs each apply instruction to its own data item, in synchrony.
- Ex Adding two arrays.
 - All PEs perform addition, on different coordinates of the arrays.
- Very popular today.
 - Effective for data parallel programs, e.g. graphics and video, dense linear algebra, machine learning.
 - Cheap to implement, don't need to duplicate hardware for fetch / decode, branch prediction, OOO, etc.
 - ☐ Used in GPUs (SIMT), Intel AVX, Xeon Phi, IBM Cell SPU.
 - □ Early generations supercomputers were SIMD with very wide lanes (1000s bits).
 - Modern SIMD execute 4-32 lanes.

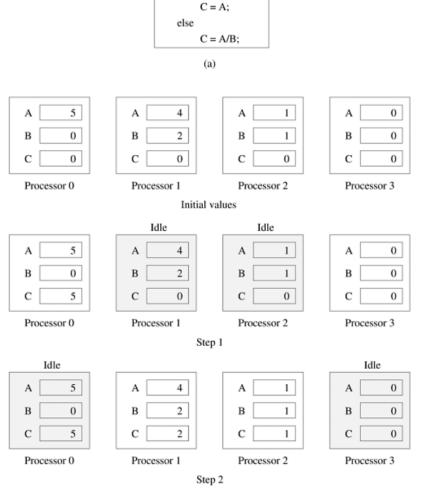






Instruction divergence

- SIMD processors can perform different instructions, but need an activity mask to deactivate processors in certain steps.
 - □ Takes k steps to do k different instructions. In each step all processors doing same instruction execute synchronously.
- SIMD works poorly for heavily branching code, where execution is data dependent.
- Also doesn't work well when threads not balanced, e.g. graph algorithms, sparse linear algebra.

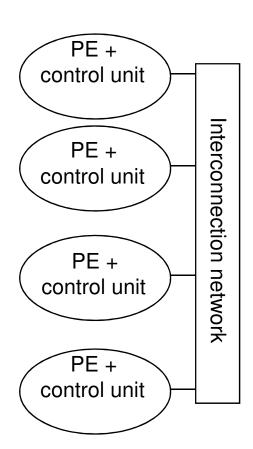


if (B == 0)



MIMD

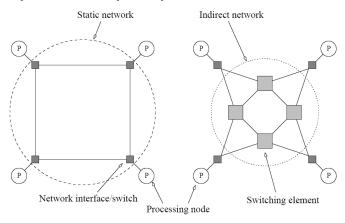
- General purpose multiprocessor system.
 - Each processor has its own instruction and data.
 - Processors communicate through an interconnection network.
- A broad category covering most parallel computers.
- Most commodity processors are a combination of MIMD with SIMD capability.
 - Ex Intel Xeon. Different cores are MIMD.
 But each core implements SIMD AVX.
- Ex Most supercomputers contain commodity processors plus SIMD coprocessors.





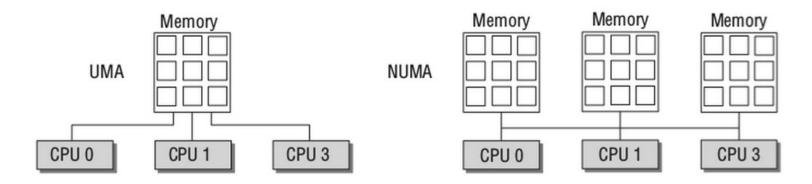
Interconnection networks

- Network allows processors to share data and cooperate.
- Built using links and switches.
 - □ Links are fixed connection between two processors.
 - Switch connect set of processors on input ports with processors on output ports.
- Static or direct networks built from links.
- Dynamic or indirect networks built from switches.
 - Switches route data between processors.
 - □ Can also buffer, multicast, etc.
 - □ Wire complexity of switches quadratic in degree, i.e. number of processors on input / output ports.



Shared memory architecture

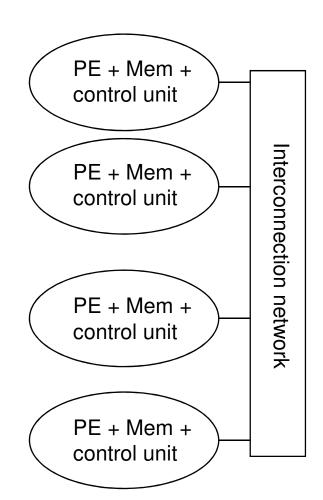
- A single memory address space for all processors.
 - □ Any address can be accessed by any processor.
 - ☐ Easier to program and reason about.
- While memory is logically one block, physically there may be multiple memory banks connected on a network.
 - OS takes care of locating the data.
- Limited scalability (100s of processors) due to bandwidth requirement on interconnect.
- Can attach caches to processors to avoid some accesses to main memory.
 - Needs cache coherence, i.e. changes to data in one processor's cache needs to be reflected in other processor using same data.
 - Coherence traffic also limits scalability.
- Memory access times can be uniform (UMA) or non-uniform (NUMA).
 - ☐ In UMA access times for all memory banks roughly equal.
 - In NUMA, accessing physically local memory faster than accessing remote memory.





Distributed memory architecture

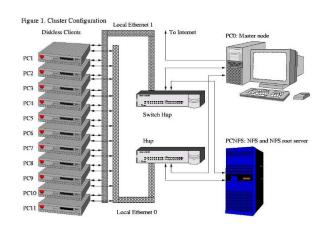
- Each processor can only directly address its own memory.
- To access remote data, processor sends message over interconnect network to data's owner.
 - ☐ Also called message passing architecture.
- Programmer keeps track of where data is located.
 - ☐ Harder to program than shared memory, but scales better.
- Large scale parallel computers are all distributed memory, because overhead of providing one logical memory is too high.
- Can also combine distributed and shared memory.
 - Ex Supercomputer is overall a distributed memory system connecting shared memory nodes.



Network of workstations (NOW)

- Networked computers as a multicomputer platform
 - Popularized in 1990's as high performance workstations and networking became commoditized (cheap).
- Advantages
 - Relatively high performance and low cost.
 - The latest processors can easily be incorporated into the system as they become available.
 - □ Existing software can be used or modified.
- Ex Beowulf, SETI@Home, Folding@Home

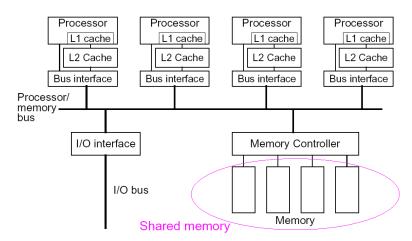






Bus architecture

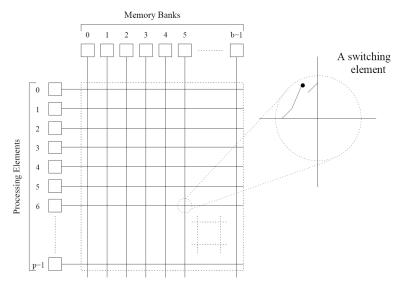
- All processors communicate with memory through common bus.
 - □ To communicate, a processor needs exclusive access to the bus.
 - Processors need media access control protocol to communicate concurrently.
- Bus has limited bandwidth, becomes communication bottleneck.
- Caches help avoid bus traffic for many memory operations.
- But still limited to small scale systems, (~50 processors).
 - □ Usually used for shared memory systems.





Crossbar architecture

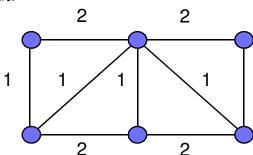
- Switched (dynamic) network for higher end shared memory systems.
- Allows all processors to communicate with all memory modules simultaneously.
 - Nonblocking, i.e. one processor's communication won't prevent another's.
- Higher bandwidth and more scalable than bus.
 - □ But more complex and expensive to implement.
- Limited to a few hundred processors.



Source: Introduction to Parallel Computing, Grama et al.

Multihop networks

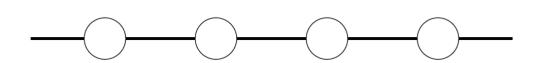
- Bus and crossbar are both one stage networks, i.e. two processors can directly communicate over a link.
- One stage networks have limited bandwidth and scalability, and sometimes high cost.
- Can improve performance using multistage or multihop networks, where messages traverse several links.
- Multihop networks can be characterized by
 - Diameter
 - Distance between farthest pair of processors.
 - Gives worst case latency.
 - Bisection width
 - Minimum number of links to cut to partition the network into two (almost) equal halves.
 - Indicates potential communication bottlenecks.
 - Bisection bandwidth is sum of bandwidths of links cut.
 - Cost
 - Number of links in network.
 - Bisection width.





1D topologies

Linear array



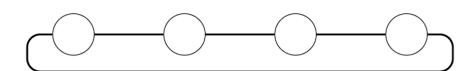
Diameter p-1

Bisection 1

Cost p-1

High diameter, low fault tolerance, low cost.

Ring



Diameter p/2

Bisection 2

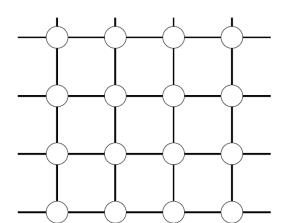
Cost ρ

Slightly improved diameter and fault tolerance, low cost. All nodes symmetric.

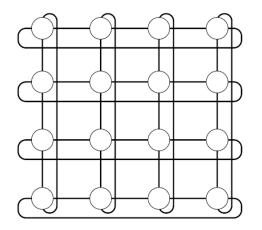


Meshes and tori

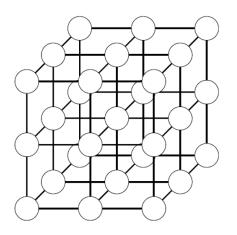
2D mesh



2D torus



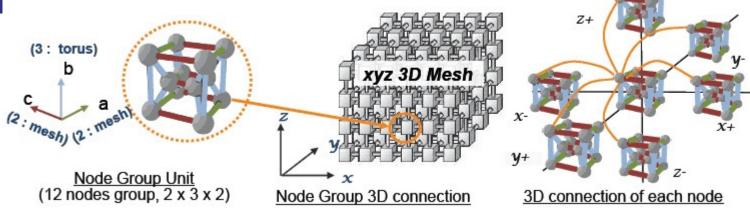
3D mesh



Diameter $2\sqrt{p-2}$ Bisection \sqrt{p} Cost $2p-2\sqrt{p}$

Diameter $\sqrt{p}-1$ Diameter $3\sqrt[3]{p}-3$ Bisection $2\sqrt{p}$ Bisection $(\sqrt[3]{p})^2$ Cost 2p Cost $3p-3(\sqrt[3]{p})^2$





6D-Mesh/Torus Network Topology



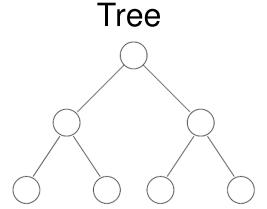
- Higher bisection bandwidth and smaller hops than 3D-Torus
- Torus fusion
 - ◆ Every XYZ Cartesian grid point has another ABC 3D-Torus
 - ♠ X, Z and B are torus (ring) axes
 - A, C and Y are mesh (linear) axes

 Conceptual Model

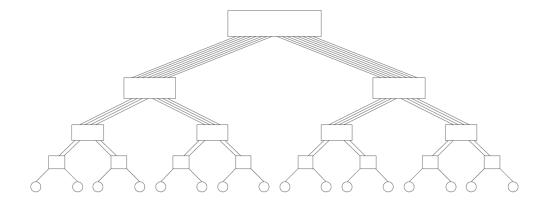
6D "tofu" network on Fujitsu K computer.

M

Trees



Fat tree



Diameter $2 \log (p+1)$ Bisection 1Cost p

Excellent diameter and cost, low fault tolerance.

Root is communication bottleneck and single point of failure.

Diameter $2 (\log p)$ Bisectionp/2Cost $p \log p/2$

Each processor has twice as many links to its parent as to each child.

When routing, messages traverse random links.
Used in e.g. Tianhe-2.

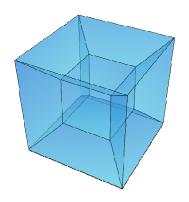
M

Hypercubes

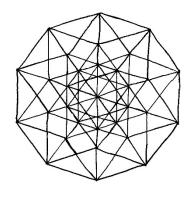
Diameter $\log p$ Bisection p/2

Cost $p \log p / 2$

Excellent diameter and fault tolerance. CM-1 used a 20-dim hypercube!



4D hypercube



5D hypercube



0-D

