Part II
Shared-Memory Parallelism

| Part I: Fundamental Concepts | 1. Introduction to Parallelism |
| Complexity and Models | 2. A Taste of Parallel Algorithms |
| Shared-Memory Algorithms | 3. Parallel Algorithm Complexity |
| Implementations and Models | 4. Models of Parallel Processing |

- 5. PRAM and Basic Algorithms
- 6A. More Shared-Memory Algorithms
- 6B. Implementation of Shared Memory
- 6C. Shared-Memory Abstractions

| Part III: Mesh-Based Architectures | 9. Sorting on a 2D Mesh or Torus |
| Data Movement on 2D Arrays | 10. Routing on a 2D Mesh or Torus |
| 12. Other Mesh-Related Architectures |

| Part IV: Low-Diameter Architectures | 13. Hypercubes and Their Algorithms |
| The Hypercube Architecture | 14. Sorting and Routing on Hypercubes |
| Hypercubic and Other Networks | 15. Other Hypercubic Architectures |
| 16. A Sampler of Other Networks |

| Part V: Some Broad Topics | 17. Emulation and Scheduling |
| Coordination and Data Access | 18. Data Storage, Input, and Output |
| Robustness and Ease of Use | 19. Reliable Parallel Processing |
| 20. System and Software Issues |

| Part VI: Implementation Aspects | 21. Shared-Memory MIMD Machines |
| Control-Parallel Systems | 22. Message-Passing MIMD Machines |
| Data Parallelism and Conclusion | 23. Data-Parallel SIMD Machines |
| 24. Past, Present, and Future |
About This Presentation

This presentation is intended to support the use of the textbook *Introduction to Parallel Processing: Algorithms and Architectures* (Plenum Press, 1999, ISBN 0-306-45970-1). It was prepared by the author in connection with teaching the graduate-level course ECE 254B: Advanced Computer Architecture: Parallel Processing, at the University of California, Santa Barbara. Instructors can use these slides in classroom teaching and for other educational purposes. Any other use is strictly prohibited. © Behrooz Parhami

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Edition</th>
<th>Released</th>
<th>Revised</th>
<th>Revised</th>
<th>Revised</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td>Spring 2005</td>
<td>Spring 2006</td>
<td>Fall 2008</td>
<td>Fall 2010</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
II’ Shared-Memory Parallelism

Shared memory is the most intuitive parallel user interface:
- Abstract SM (PRAM); ignores implementation issues
- Implementation w/o worsening the memory bottleneck
- Shared-memory models and their performance impact

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topics in This Part</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 5     PRAM and Basic Algorithms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 6A    More Shared-Memory Algorithms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 6B    Implementation of Shared Memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 6C    Shared-Memory Abstractions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5  PRAM and Basic Algorithms

PRAM, a natural extension of RAM (random-access machine):
• Present definitions of model and its various submodels
• Develop algorithms for key building-block computations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topics in This Chapter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.1  PRAM Submodels and Assumptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2  Data Broadcasting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3  Semigroup or Fan-in Computation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4  Parallel Prefix Computation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5  Ranking the Elements of a Linked List</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6  Matrix Multiplication</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Why Start with Shared Memory?

Study one extreme of parallel computation models:
• Abstract SM (PRAM); ignores implementation issues
• This abstract model is either realized or emulated
• In the latter case, benefits are similar to those of HLLs

In Part II”, we will study the other extreme case of models:
• Concrete circuit model; incorporates hardware details
• Allows explicit latency/area/energy trade-offs
• Facilitates theoretical studies of speed-up limits

Everything else falls between these two extremes
5.1 PRAM Submodels and Assumptions

Processor $i$ can do the following in three phases of one cycle:

1. Fetch a value from address $s_i$ in shared memory
2. Perform computations on data held in local registers
3. Store a value into address $d_i$ in shared memory

Fig. 4.6 Conceptual view of a parallel random-access machine (PRAM).
Types of PRAM

Reads from same location

Exclusively

Concurrently

Writes to same location

Exclusive

Concurrent

- **EREW**
  - Least “powerful”,
  - most “realistic”

- **CREW**
  - Default

- **ERCW**
  - Not useful

- **CRCW**
  - Most “powerful”,
  - further subdivided

**Fig. 5.1** Submodels of the PRAM model.
Types of CRCW PRAM

CRCW submodels are distinguished by the way they treat multiple writes:

- **Undefined**: The value written is undefined (CRCW-U)
- **Detecting**: A special code for “detected collision” is written (CRCW-D)
- **Common**: Allowed only if they all store the same value (CRCW-C) [This is sometimes called the consistent-write submodel]
- **Random**: The value is randomly chosen from those offered (CRCW-R)
- **Priority**: The processor with the lowest index succeeds (CRCW-P)
- **Max/Min**: The largest/smallest of the values is written (CRCW-M)
- **Reduction**: The arithmetic sum (CRCW-S), logical AND (CRCW-A), logical XOR (CRCW-X), or another combination of values is written
Power of CRCW PRAM Submodels

Model U is more powerful than model V if $T_U(n) = o(T_V(n))$ for some problem.

**Theorem 5.1:** A $p$-processor CRCW-P (priority) PRAM can be simulated (emulated) by a $p$-processor EREW PRAM with slowdown factor $\Theta(\log p)$.

Intuitive justification for concurrent read emulation (write is similar):

- Write the $p$ memory addresses in a list
- Sort the list of addresses in ascending order
- Remove all duplicate addresses
- Access data at desired addresses
- Replicate data via parallel prefix computation

Each of these steps requires constant or $O(\log p)$ time.
Implications of the CRCW Hierarchy of Submodels

EREW < CREW < CRCW-D < CRCW-C < CRCW-R < CRCW-P

A $p$-processor CRCW-P (priority) PRAM can be simulated (emulated) by a $p$-processor EREW PRAM with slowdown factor $\Theta(\log p)$.

Our most powerful PRAM CRCW submodel can be emulated by the least powerful submodel with logarithmic slowdown.

Efficient parallel algorithms have polylogarithmic running times.

Running time still polylogarithmic after slowdown due to emulation.

We need not be too concerned with the CRCW submodel used.

Simply use whichever submodel is most natural or convenient.
Some Elementary PRAM Computations

Initializing an $n$-vector (base address = $B$) to all 0s:

\[ \text{for } j = 0 \text{ to } \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p} \right\rfloor - 1 \text{ processor } i \text{ do} \]
\[ \text{if } jp + i < n \text{ then } M[B + jp + i] := 0 \]
\[ \text{endfor} \]

Adding two $n$-vectors and storing the results in a third (base addresses $B'$, $B''$, $B$)

Convolution of two $n$-vectors: $W_k = \sum_{i+j=k} U_i \times V_j$
(base addresses $B_W$, $B_U$, $B_V$)
5.2 Data Broadcasting

Making $p$ copies of $B[0]$ by recursive doubling

for $k = 0$ to $\lceil \log_2 p \rceil - 1$

Proc $j$, $0 \leq j < p$, do

Copy $B[j]$ into $B[j + 2^k]$

endfor

Can modify the algorithm so that redundant copying does not occur and array bound is not exceeded

Fig. 5.2 Data broadcasting in EREW PRAM via recursive doubling.

Fig. 5.3 EREW PRAM data broadcasting without redundant copying.
Class Participation: Broadcast-Based Sorting

Each person write down an arbitrary nonnegative integer with 3 or fewer digits on a piece of paper.

Students take turn broadcasting their numbers by calling them out aloud.

Each student puts an X on paper for every number called out that is smaller than his/her own number, or is equal but was called out before the student’s own value.

Each student counts the number of Xs on paper to determine the rank of his/her number.

Students call out their numbers in order of the computed rank.
All-to-All Broadcasting on EREW PRAM

EREW PRAM algorithm for all-to-all broadcasting
Processor $j$, $0 \leq j < p$, write own data value into $B[j]$ for $k = 1$ to $p - 1$
Processor $j$, $0 \leq j < p$, do
Read the data value in $B[(j + k) \mod p]$
endfor

This $O(p)$-step algorithm is time-optimal

Naive EREW PRAM sorting algorithm (using all-to-all broadcasting)
Processor $j$, $0 \leq j < p$, write 0 into $R[j]$
for $k = 1$ to $p - 1$
Processor $j$, $0 \leq j < p$, do
\[
I := (j + k) \mod p
\]
if $S[I] < S[j]$ or $S[I] = S[j]$ and $I < j$
then $R[j] := R[j] + 1$
endif
endfor
Processor $j$, $0 \leq j < p$, write $S[j]$ into $S[R[j]]$

This $O(p)$-step sorting algorithm is far from optimal; sorting is possible in $O(\log p)$ time
5.3 Semigroup or Fan-in Computation

EREW PRAM semigroup computation algorithm

Proc \( j \), \( 0 \leq j < p \), copy \( X[j] \) into \( S[j] \)

\( s := 1 \)

while \( s < p \) Proc \( j \), \( 0 \leq j < p - s \), do

\( S[j + s] := S[j] \otimes S[j + s] \)

\( s := 2s \)

endwhile

Broadcast \( S[p - 1] \) to all processors

This algorithm is optimal for PRAM, but its speedup of \( O(p / \log p) \) is not

If we use \( p \) processors on a list of size \( n = O(p \log p) \), then optimal speedup can be achieved

Fig. 5.4 Semigroup computation in EREW PRAM.

Fig. 5.5 Intuitive justification of why parallel slack helps improve the efficiency.
5.4 Parallel Prefix Computation

Same as the first part of semigroup computation (no final broadcasting)

Fig. 5.6 Parallel prefix computation in EREW PRAM via recursive doubling.
A Divide-and-Conquer Parallel-Prefix Algorithm

Fig. 5.7 Parallel prefix computation using a divide-and-conquer scheme.

In hardware, this is the basis for Brent-Kung carry-lookahead adder.

\[ T(p) = T(p/2) + 2 \]

\[ T(p) \approx 2 \log_2 p \]
Another Divide-and-Conquer Algorithm

Fig. 5.8 Another divide-and-conquer scheme for parallel prefix computation.

- Parallel prefix computation on \( n/2 \) even-indexed inputs
- Parallel prefix computation on \( n/2 \) odd-indexed inputs

Each vertical line represents a location in shared memory

\[
T(p) = T(p/2) + 1
\]

\[
T(p) = \log_2 p
\]

Strictly optimal algorithm, but requires commutativity
5.5 Ranking the Elements of a Linked List

List ranking appears to be hopelessly sequential; one cannot get to a list element except through its predecessor!

Fig. 5.9 Example linked list and the ranks of its elements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Distance from head</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 5.10 PRAM data structures representing a linked list and the ranking results.
List Ranking via Recursive Doubling

Many problems that appear to be unparallelizable to the uninitiated are parallelizable; intuition can be quite misleading!

Fig. 5.11 Element ranks initially and after each of the three iterations.
PRAM List Ranking Algorithm

PRAM list ranking algorithm (via pointer jumping)
Processor $j$, $0 \leq j < p$, do {initialize the partial ranks}
if $next[j] = j$
then $\text{rank}[j] := 0$
else $\text{rank}[j] := 1$
endif
while $\text{rank}[next[\text{head}]] \neq 0$
Processor $j$, $0 \leq j < p$, do
    $\text{rank}[j] := \text{rank}[j] + \text{rank}[next[j]]$
    $next[j] := next[next[j]]$
endwhile

Question: Which PRAM submodel is implicit in this algorithm?

Answer: CREW

If we do not want to modify the original list, we simply make a copy of it first, in constant time.
5.6 Matrix Multiplication

Sequential matrix multiplication
for $i = 0$ to $m - 1$ do
  for $j = 0$ to $m - 1$ do
    $t := 0$
    for $k = 0$ to $m - 1$ do
      $t := t + a_{ik} b_{kj}$
    endfor
    $c_{ij} := t$
  endfor
endfor

$C_{ij} := \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} a_{ik} b_{kj}$

PRAM solution with $m^3$ processors:
each processor does one multiplication
(not very efficient)
PRAM Matrix Multiplication with \( m^2 \) Processors

**PRAM matrix multiplication using \( m^2 \) processors**

Proc \((i, j), 0 \leq i, j < m, \) do

begin

\( t := 0 \)

for \( k = 0 \) to \( m – 1 \) do

\( t := t + a_{ik} b_{kj} \)

endfor

\( c_{ij} := t \)

end

\( \Theta(m) \) steps: Time-optimal

CREW model is implicit

Fig. 5.12 PRAM matrix multiplication; \( p = m^2 \) processors.
PRAM Matrix Multiplication with \( m \) Processors

PRAM matrix multiplication using \( m \) processors
for \( j = 0 \) to \( m - 1 \) Proc \( i \), \( 0 \leq i < m \), do

\[
\begin{align*}
t & := 0 \\
& \text{for } k = 0 \text{ to } m - 1 \text{ do} \\
& \quad t := t + a_{ik}b_{kj} \\
& \text{endfor} \\
& c_{ij} := t \\
& \text{endfor}
\]

\( \Theta(m^2) \) steps: Time-optimal
CREW model is implicit

Because the order of multiplications is immaterial, accesses to \( B \) can be skewed to allow the EREW model
PRAM Matrix Multiplication with Fewer Processors

Algorithm is similar, except that each processor is in charge of computing \( \frac{m}{p} \) rows of \( C \)

\( \Theta(m^3/p) \) steps: Time-optimal EREW model can be used

A drawback of all algorithms thus far is that only two arithmetic operations (one multiplication and one addition) are performed for each memory access.

This is particularly costly for NUMA shared-memory machines.

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
A & \times & B \\
\hline
i & \times & j \\
\hline
C & = & \text{\( \frac{m}{p} \) rows}
\end{array}
\]
More Efficient Matrix Multiplication (for NUMA)

Partition the matrices into $p$ square blocks

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
A & B \\
C & D
\end{bmatrix}
\times
\begin{bmatrix}
E & F \\
G & H
\end{bmatrix}
= 
\begin{bmatrix}
AE+BG & AF+BH \\
CE+DG & CF+DH
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Block matrix multiplication follows the same algorithm as simple matrix multiplication.

One processor computes these elements of $C$ that it holds in local memory.

Fig. 5.13 Partitioning the matrices for block matrix multiplication.
Details of Block Matrix Multiplication

A multiply-add computation on $q \times q$ blocks needs $2q^2 = 2m^2/p$ memory accesses and $2q^3$ arithmetic operations.

So, $q$ arithmetic operations are done per memory access.

Fig. 5.14 How Processor $(i, j)$ operates on an element of $A$ and one block-row of $B$ to update one block-row of $C$. 
6A More Shared-Memory Algorithms

Develop PRAM algorithm for more complex problems:
- Searching, selection, sorting, other nonnumerical tasks
- Must present background on the problem in some cases

Topics in This Chapter

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6A.1</th>
<th>Parallel Searching Algorithms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6A.2</td>
<td>Sequential Rank-Based Selection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6A.3</td>
<td>A Parallel Selection Algorithm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6A.4</td>
<td>A Selection-Based Sorting Algorithm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6A.5</td>
<td>Alternative Sorting Algorithms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6A.6</td>
<td>Convex Hull of a 2D Point Set</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6A.1 Parallel Searching Algorithms

Searching an unordered list in PRAM

Sequential time: \( n \) worst-case
\( n/2 \) on average

Divide the list of \( n \) items into \( p \) segments of \( \lceil n/p \rceil \) items (last segment may have fewer)

Processor \( i \) will be in charge of \( \lceil n/p \rceil \) list elements, beginning at address \( i \lceil n/p \rceil \)

Parallel time: \( \lceil n/p \rceil \) worst-case
??? on average

Perfect speed-up of \( p \) with \( p \) processors?

Pre- and postprocessing overheads

Example: \( n = 24, \ p = 4 \)

- \( A_0 \)
- \( A_1 \)
- \( A_2 \)
- \( A_3 \)
Parallel \((p + 1)\)-ary Search on PRAM

\(p\) probes, rather than 1, per step

\[
\log_{p+1}(n + 1) = \log_2(n + 1) / \log_2(p + 1) = \Theta(\log n / \log p) \text{ steps}
\]

Speedup \(\approx \log p\)

Optimal: no comparison-based search algorithm can be faster

A single search in a sorted list can’t be significantly speeded up through parallel processing, but all hope is not lost:

Dynamic data (sorting overhead)

Batch searching (multiple lookups)
6A.2 Sequential Ranked-Based Selection

Selection: Find the (or a) $k$th smallest among $n$ elements

Example: 5th smallest element in the following list is 1:

6 4 5 6 7 1 5 3 8 2 1 0 3 4 5 6 2 1 7 1 4 5 4 9 5

Naive solution through sorting, $O(n \log n)$ time

But linear-time sequential algorithm can be developed

$m$ = the median of the medians:

- $< \frac{n}{4}$ elements
- $> \frac{n}{4}$ elements

$k < |L|$  

$m = \max(|L|, |G|) \leq \frac{3n}{4}$

$k > |L| + |E|$
Linear-Time Sequential Selection Algorithm

Sequential rank-based selection algorithm \( \text{select}(S, k) \)

1. if \(|S| < q\) \{\(q\) is a small constant\}
   then sort \(S\) and return the \(k\)th smallest element of \(S\)
   else divide \(S\) into \(|S|/q\) subsequences of size \(q\)
      Sort each subsequence and find its median
      Let the \(|S|/q\) medians form the sequence \(T\)
   endif

2. \(m = \text{select}(T, |T|/2)\) \{find the median \(m\) of the \(|S|/q\) medians\}

3. Create 3 subsequences
   \(L:\) Elements of \(S\) that are \(< m\)
   \(E:\) Elements of \(S\) that are \(= m\)
   \(G:\) Elements of \(S\) that are \(> m\)

4. if \(|L| \geq k\)
   then return \(\text{select}(L, k)\)
   else if \(|L| + |E| \geq k\)
      then return \(m\)
      else return \(\text{select}(G, k – |L| – |E|)\)
   endif

\(O(n)\)
\(T(n/q)\)
\(O(n)\)
\(T(3n/4)\)
Algorithm Complexity and Examples

**We must have** $q \geq 5$; **for** $q = 5$, the solution is $T(n) = 20cn$

| $S$  | 6 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 1 | 5 | 3 | 8 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 2 | 1 | 7 | 1 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 9 | 5 |
| $T$  | 6 |   | 3 |   |   | 3 |   |   |   |   | 2 |   |   |   |   | 5 |
| $m$  | 1 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 6 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5 | 8 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 9 | 5 |

| $L$  | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| $E$  | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| $G$  | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

$|L| = 7$, $|E| = 2$, $|G| = 16$

**To find the 5th smallest element in** $S$, select the 5th smallest element in $L$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$S$</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$T$</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$m$</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Answer: 1

The 9th smallest element of $S$ is 3.

The 13th smallest element of $S$ is found by selecting the 4th smallest element in $G$. 

---

Winter 2016 Parallel Processing, Shared-Memory Parallelism

UCSB BParlani
6A.3 A Parallel Selection Algorithm

Parallel rank-based selection algorithm \( \text{PRAMselect}(S, k, p) \)

1. if \(|S| < 4\) then sort \(S\) and return the \(k\)th smallest element of \(S\)
else broadcast \(|S|\) to all \(p\) processors
   divide \(S\) into \(p\) subsequences \(S(j)\) of size \(|S|/p\)
   Processor \(j\), \(0 \leq j < p\), compute \(T_j := \text{select}(S(j), |S(j)|/2)\)
endif

2. \(m = \text{PRAMselect}(T, |T|/2, p)\) \{median of the medians\}

3. Broadcast \(m\) to all processors and create 3 subsequences
   \(L\): Elements of \(S\) that are \(< m\)
   \(E\): Elements of \(S\) that are \(= m\)
   \(G\): Elements of \(S\) that are \(> m\)

4. if \(|L| \geq k\) then return \(\text{PRAMselect}(L, k, p)\)
   else if \(|L| + |E| \geq k\) then return \(m\)
   else return \(\text{PRAMselect}(G, k - |L| - |E|, p)\)
endif

\(O(n^x)\)

\(T(n^{1-x}, p)\)

Let \(p = O(n^{1-x})\)
Algorithm Complexity and Efficiency

\[ T(n, p) = T(n^{1-x}, p) + T(3n/4, p) + cn^x \]

The solution is \( O(n^x) \); verify by substitution

Speedup = \( \Theta(n)/O(n^x) = \Omega(n^{1-x}) = \Omega(p) \)
Efficiency = \( \Omega(1) \)
Work\((n, p) = pT(n, p) = \Theta(n^{1-x}) \Theta(n^x) = \Theta(n) \)

What happens if we set \( x \) to 1? (i.e., use one processor)
\[ T(n, 1) = O(n^x) = O(n) \]

What happens if we set \( x \) to 0? (i.e., use \( n \) processors)
\[ T(n, n) = O(n^x) = O(1) \]

Remember \( p = O(n^{1-x}) \)

No, because in asymptotic analysis, we ignored several \( O(\log n) \) terms compared with \( O(n^x) \) terms
Consider the sublist $L$: Processor $i$ contributes $a_i$ items to this sublist.

Processor 0 starts storing at location 0, processor 1 at location $a_0$, processor 2 at location $a_0 + a_1$, Processor 3 at location $a_0 + a_1 + a_2$, ...
6A.4 A Selection-Based Sorting Algorithm

Parallel selection-based sort \( PRAMselectionsort(S, p) \)

1. if \( |S| < k \) then return \( quicksort(S) \)
2. for \( i = 1 \) to \( k - 1 \) do
   \( m_j := PRAMselect(S, i|S|/k, p) \) \{let \( m_0 := -\infty; m_k := +\infty\}\)
   endfor
3. for \( i = 0 \) to \( k - 1 \) do
   make the sublist \( T(i) \) from elements of \( S \) in \((m_i, m_{i+1})\)
   endfor
4. for \( i = 1 \) to \( k/2 \) do in parallel
   \( PRAMselectionsort(T(i), 2p/k) \)
   \{\( p/(k/2) \) proc’s used for each of the \( k/2 \) subproblems\}
   endfor
5. for \( i = k/2 + 1 \) to \( k \) do in parallel
   \( PRAMselectionsort(T(i), 2p/k) \)
   endfor

\( T(n/k, 2p/k) \)

Let \( p = n^{1-x} \) and \( k = 2^{1/x} \)

Fig. 6.1 Partitioning of the sorted list for selection-based sorting.
Algorithm Complexity and Efficiency

\[ T(n, p) = 2T(n/k, 2p/k) + cn^x \]

The solution is \( O(n^x \log n) \);
verify by substitution

\[
\text{Speedup}(n, p) = \Omega(n \log n) / O(n^x \log n) = \Omega(n^{1-x}) = \Omega(p)
\]

Efficiency = speedup / \( p = \Omega(1) \)

\[
\text{Work}(n, p) = pT(n, p) = \Theta(n^{1-x}) \Theta(n^x \log n) = \Theta(n \log n)
\]

What happens if we set \( x \) to 1? (i.e., use one processor)

\[ T(n, 1) = O(n^x \log n) = O(n \log n) \]

Remember

\[ p = O(n^{1-x}) \]

Our asymptotic analysis is valid for \( x > 0 \) but not for \( x = 0 \);
i.e., PRAMselectionsort cannot sort \( p \) keys in optimal \( O(\log p) \) time.
Example of Parallel Sorting

$S$: 6 4 5 6 7 1 5 3 8 2 1 0 3 4 5 6 2 1 7 0 4 5 4 9 5

Threshold values for $k = 4$ (i.e., $x = \frac{1}{2}$ and $p = n^{1/2}$ processors):

$m_0 = -\infty$

$n/k = 25/4 \approx 6$

$m_1 = PRAMselect(S, 6, 5) = 2$

$2n/k = 50/4 \approx 13$

$m_2 = PRAMselect(S, 13, 5) = 4$

$3n/k = 75/4 \approx 19$

$m_3 = PRAMselect(S, 19, 5) = 6$

$m_4 = +\infty$

$T$: 0 0 1 1 1 2 2 3 3 4 4 4 5 5 5 5 5 5 6 6 6 7 7 8 9

$m_0$  $m_1$  $m_2$  $m_3$  $m_4$

- - - - - 2 - - - - - 4 - - - - - 6 - - - - -
6A.5 Alternative Sorting Algorithms

Sorting via random sampling (assume $p << \sqrt{n}$)

Given a large list $S$ of inputs, a random sample of the elements can be used to find $k$ comparison thresholds.

It is easier if we pick $k = p$, so that each of the resulting subproblems is handled by a single processor.

Parallel randomized sort $PRAMrandomsort(S, p)$

1. Processor $j$, $0 \leq j < p$, pick $|S|/p^2$ random samples of its $|S|/p$ elements and store them in its corresponding section of a list $T$ of length $|S|/p$.

2. Processor 0 sort the list $T$
   
   \{comparison threshold $m_i$ is the $(i|S|/p^2)$th element of $T$\}

3. Processor $j$, $0 \leq j < p$, store its elements falling in $(m_i, m_{i+1})$ into $T(i)$

4. Processor $j$, $0 \leq j < p$, sort the sublist $T(j)$
Parallel Radixsort

In binary version of *radixsort*, we examine every bit of the $k$-bit keys in turn, starting from the LSB.

In Step $i$, bit $i$ is examined, $0 \leq i < k$.

Records are stably sorted by the value of the $i$th key bit.

**Binary forms**

**Question:** How are the data movements performed?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Input list</th>
<th>Sort by LSB</th>
<th>Sort by middle bit</th>
<th>Sort by MSB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5 (101)</td>
<td>4 (100)</td>
<td>4 (100)</td>
<td>1 (001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 (111)</td>
<td>2 (010)</td>
<td>5 (101)</td>
<td>2 (010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (011)</td>
<td>2 (010)</td>
<td>1 (001)</td>
<td>2 (010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (001)</td>
<td>5 (101)</td>
<td>2 (010)</td>
<td>3 (011)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 (100)</td>
<td>7 (111)</td>
<td>2 (010)</td>
<td>4 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (010)</td>
<td>3 (011)</td>
<td>7 (111)</td>
<td>5 (101)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 (111)</td>
<td>1 (001)</td>
<td>3 (011)</td>
<td>7 (111)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (010)</td>
<td>7 (111)</td>
<td>7 (111)</td>
<td>7 (111)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Data Movements in Parallel Radixsort

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Input list</th>
<th>Compl. of bit 0</th>
<th>Diminished prefix sums</th>
<th>Bit 0</th>
<th>Prefix sums plus 2</th>
<th>Shifted list</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5 (101)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1 + 2 = 3</td>
<td>4 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 (111)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2 + 2 = 4</td>
<td>2 (010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (011)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3 + 2 = 5</td>
<td>2 (010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (001)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4 + 2 = 6</td>
<td>5 (101)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 (100)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>7 (111)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (010)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>3 (011)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 (111)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5 + 2 = 7</td>
<td>1 (001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (010)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>7 (111)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Running time consists mainly of the time to perform $2k$ parallel prefix computations: $O(\log p)$ for $k$ constant.
6A.6 Convex Hull of a 2D Point Set

Best sequential algorithm for \( p \) points: \( \Omega(p \log p) \) steps

Fig. 6.2 Defining the convex hull problem.

Fig. 6.3 Illustrating the properties of the convex hull.
PRAM Convex Hull Algorithm

Parallel convex hull algorithm \( PRAM_{\text{convexhull}}(S, p) \)
1. Sort point set by \( x \) coordinates
2. Divide sorted list into \( \sqrt{p} \) subsets \( Q^{(i)} \) of size \( \sqrt{p} \), \( 0 \leq i < \sqrt{p} \)
3. Find convex hull of each subset \( Q^{(i)} \) using \( \sqrt{p} \) processors
4. Merge \( \sqrt{p} \) convex hulls \( CH(Q^{(i)}) \) into overall hull \( CH(Q) \)

Fig. 6.4 Multiway divide and conquer for the convex hull problem
Merging of Partial Convex Hulls

(a) No point of \( \text{CH}(Q(i)) \) is on \( \text{CH}(Q) \)

(b) Points of \( \text{CH}(Q(i)) \) from A to B are on \( \text{CH}(Q) \)

Analysis:

\[
T(p, p) = T(p^{1/2}, p^{1/2}) + c \log p \\
\approx 2c \log p
\]

The initial sorting also takes \( O(\log p) \) time

Tangent lines are found through binary search in log time

---

Fig. 6.5 Finding points in a partial hull that belong to the combined hull.
6B Implementation of Shared Memory

Main challenge: Easing the memory access bottleneck
• Providing low-latency, high-bandwidth paths to memory
• Reducing the need for access to nonlocal memory
• Reducing conflicts and sensitivity to memory latency

Topics in This Chapter

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6B.1</th>
<th>Processor-Memory Interconnection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6B.2</td>
<td>Multistage Interconnection Networks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6B.3</td>
<td>Cache Coherence Protocols</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6B.4</td>
<td>Data Allocation for Conflict-Free Access</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6B.5</td>
<td>Distributed Shared Memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6B.6</td>
<td>Methods for Memory Latency Hiding</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
About the New Chapter 6B

This new chapter incorporates material from the following existing sections of the book:

6.6 Some Implementation Aspects
14.4 Dimension-Order Routing
15.3 Plus-or-Minus-2\(^i\) Network
16.6 Multistage Interconnection Networks
17.2 Distributed Shared Memory
18.1 Data Access Problems and Caching
18.2 Cache Coherence Protocols
18.3 Multithreading and Latency Hiding
20.1 Coordination and Synchronization
Making PRAM Practical

PRAM needs a read and a write access to memory in every cycle.

Even for a sequential computer, memory is tens to hundreds of times slower than arithmetic/logic operations; multiple processors accessing a shared memory only makes the situation worse.

Shared access to a single large physical memory isn’t scalable.

Strategies and focal points for making PRAM practical:

1. Make memory accesses faster and more efficient (pipelining)
2. Reduce the number of memory accesses (caching, reordering of accesses so as to do more computation per item fetched/stored)
3. Reduce synchronization, so that slow memory accesses for one computation do not slow down others (synch, memory consistency)
4. Distribute the memory and data to make most accesses local
5. Store data structures to reduce access conflicts (skewed storage)
6B.1 Processor-Memory Interconnection

Fig. 4.3 A parallel processor with global (shared) memory.
Crossbar switches offer full permutation capability (they are nonblocking), but are complex and expensive: $O(p^2)$

Even with a permutation network, full PRAM functionality is not realized: two processors cannot access different addresses in the same memory module.

Practical processor-to-memory networks cannot realize all permutations (they are blocking)
Bus-Based Interconnections

**Single-bus system:**
- Bandwidth bottleneck
- Bus loading limit
- Scalability: very poor
- Single failure point
- Conceptually simple
- Forced serialization

**Multiple-bus system:**
- Bandwidth improved
- Bus loading limit
- Scalability: poor
- More robust
- More complex scheduling
- Simple serialization
Back-of-the-Envelope Bus Bandwidth Calculation

**Single-bus system:**

- Bus frequency: 0.5 GHz
- Data width: 256 b (32 B)
- Mem. Access: 2 bus cycles
  \[(0.5G)/2 \times 32 = 8 \text{ GB/s}\]
- Bus cycle = 2 ns
- Memory cycle = 100 ns
- 1 mem. cycle = 50 bus cycles

**Multiple-bus system:**

Peak bandwidth multiplied by the number of buses
(actual bandwidth is likely to be much less)
Hierarchical Bus Interconnection

Fig. 4.9 Example of a hierarchical interconnection architecture.
Removing the Processor-to-Memory Bottleneck

Challenge: Cache coherence

Parallel I/O

Processor-to-memory network

Processor-to-processor network

Processors

Caches

Memory modules

0

1

p-1

. . .

m-1

Fig. 4.4 A parallel processor with global memory and processor caches.
Why Data Caching Works

Hit rate $r$ (fraction of memory accesses satisfied by cache)

$$C_{\text{eff}} = C_{\text{fast}} + (1 - r)C_{\text{slow}}$$

**Cache parameters:**
- Size
- Block length (line width)
- Placement policy
- Replacement policy
- Write policy

Fig. 18.1 Data storage and access in a two-way set-associative cache.
Benefits of Caching Formulated as Amdahl’s Law

Hit rate $r$ (fraction of memory accesses satisfied by cache)

$$C_{\text{eff}} = C_{\text{fast}} + (1 - r)C_{\text{slow}}$$

$$S = \frac{C_{\text{slow}}}{C_{\text{eff}}} = \frac{1}{(1 - r) + \frac{C_{\text{fast}}}{C_{\text{slow}}}}$$

This corresponds to the miss-rate fraction $1 - r$ of accesses being unaffected and the hit-rate fraction $r$ (almost 1) being speeded up by a factor $\frac{C_{\text{slow}}}{C_{\text{fast}}}$

Generalized form of Amdahl’s speedup formula:

$$S = \frac{1}{(f_1/p_1 + f_2/p_2 + \ldots + f_m/p_m)}, \text{ with } f_1 + f_2 + \ldots + f_m = 1$$

In this case, a fraction $1 - r$ is slowed down by a factor $(C_{\text{slow}} + C_{\text{fast}})/C_{\text{slow}}$, and a fraction $r$ is speeded up by a factor $C_{\text{slow}}/C_{\text{fast}}$
6B.2 Multistage Interconnection Networks

Fig. 21.5 Key elements of the Cray Y-MP processor. Address registers, address function units, instruction buffers, and control not shown.

The Vector-Parallel Cray Y-MP Computer
Cray Y-MP’s Interconnection Network

Fig. 21.6 The processor-to-memory interconnection network of Cray Y-MP.
Butterfly Processor-to-Memory Network

Fig. 6.9 Example of a multistage memory access network.

Two ways to use the butterfly:
- Edge switches 1 x 2 and 2 x 1
- All switches 2 x 2

Not a full permutation network (e.g., processor 0 cannot be connected to memory bank 2 alongside the two connections shown)

Is self-routing: i.e., the bank address determines the route

A request going to memory bank 3 (0 0 1 1) is routed:
lower upper upper
Butterfly as Multistage Interconnection Network

Generalization of the butterfly network
- High-radix or \( m \)-ary butterfly, built of \( m \times m \) switches
- Has \( m^q \) rows and \( q + 1 \) columns (\( q \) if wrapped)

Fig. 6.9 Example of a multistage memory access network

Fig. 15.8 Butterfly network used to connect modules that are on the same side
Self-Routing on a Butterfly Network

Fig. 14.6 Example dimension-order routing paths.

Number of cross links taken = length of path in hypercube

From node 3 to 6: routing tag = 011 \( \oplus \) 110 = 101 “cross-straight-cross”
From node 3 to 5: routing tag = 011 \( \oplus \) 101 = 110 “straight-cross-cross”
From node 6 to 1: routing tag = 110 \( \oplus \) 001 = 111 “cross-cross-cross”
Butterfly Is Not a Permutation Network

Fig. 14.7 Packing is a “good” routing problem for dimension-order routing on the hypercube.

Fig. 14.8 Bit-reversal permutation is a “bad” routing problem for dimension-order routing on the hypercube.
Structure of Butterfly Networks

Switching these two row pairs converts this to the original butterfly network. Changing the order of stages in a butterfly is thus equivalent to a relabeling of the rows (in this example, row xyz becomes row xzy).

Fig. 15.5 Butterfly network with permuted dimensions.

The 16-row butterfly network.
Beneš Network

A $2^q$-row Beneš network:
- Can route any $2^q \times 2^q$ permutation
- It is “rearrangeable”

Fig. 15.9 Beneš network formed from two back-to-back butterflies.
Routing Paths in a Beneš Network

To which memory modules can we connect proc 4 without rearranging the other paths?

What about proc 6?

Fig. 15.10 Another example of a Beneš network.
Augmented Data Manipulator Network

Data manipulator network was used in Goodyear MPP, an early SIMD parallel machine.

“Augmented” means that switches in a column are independent, as opposed to all being set to same state (simplified control).

Fig. 15.12 Augmented data manipulator network.
Fat Trees

Fig. 15.6 Two representations of a fat tree.

Skinny tree?

Front view: Binary tree

Side view: Inverted binary tree

Fig. 15.7 Butterfly network redrawn as a fat tree.
Numerous indirect or multistage interconnection networks (MINs) have been proposed for, or used in, parallel computers.

They differ in topological, performance, robustness, and realizability attributes.

We have already seen the butterfly, hierarchical bus, Beneš, and ADM networks.

Fig. 4.8 (modified)
The sea of indirect interconnection networks.
Self-Routing Permutation Networks

Do there exist self-routing permutation networks? (The butterfly network is self-routing, but it is not a permutation network)

Permutation routing through a MIN is the same problem as sorting

Fig. 16.14 Example of sorting on a binary radix sort network.
Partial List of Important MINs

- **Augmented data manipulator (ADM):** aka unfolded PM2I (Fig. 15.12)
- **Banyan:** Any MIN with a unique path between any input and any output (e.g. butterfly)
- **Baseline:** Butterfly network with nodes labeled differently
- **Beneš:** Back-to-back butterfly networks, sharing one column (Figs. 15.9-10)
- **Bidelta:** A MIN that is a delta network in either direction
- **Butterfly:** aka unfolded hypercube (Figs. 6.9, 15.4-5)
- **Data manipulator:** Same as ADM, but with switches in a column restricted to same state
- **Delta:** Any MIN for which the outputs of each switch have distinct labels (say 0 and 1 for $2 \times 2$ switches) and path label, composed of concatenating switch output labels leading from an input to an output depends only on the output
- **Flip:** Reverse of the omega network (inputs × outputs)
- **Indirect cube:** Same as butterfly or omega
- **Omega:** Multi-stage shuffle-exchange network; isomorphic to butterfly (Fig. 15.19)
- **Permutation:** Any MIN that can realize all permutations
- **Rearrangeable:** Same as permutation network
- **Reverse baseline:** Baseline network, with the roles of inputs and outputs interchanged
6B.3 Cache Coherence Protocols

Fig. 18.2 Various types of cached data blocks in a parallel processor with global memory and processor caches.
Example: A Bus-Based Snoopy Protocol

Each transition is labeled with the event that triggers it, followed by the action(s) that must be taken.

Fig. 18.3  Finite-state control mechanism for a bus-based snoopy cache coherence protocol.
Implementing a Snoopy Protocol

A second tags/state storage unit allows snooping to be done concurrently with normal cache operation.

Getting all the implementation timing and details right is nontrivial.

Fig. 27.7 of Parhami’s Computer Architecture text.
Scalable (Distributed) Shared Memory

Some Terminology:

NUMA
Nonuniform memory access (distributed shared memory)

UMA
Uniform memory access (global shared memory)

COMA
Cache-only memory arch

Fig. 4.5 A parallel processor with distributed memory.
Example: A Directory-Based Protocol

- **Exclusive (read/write)**
  - Write miss: Fetch data value, request invalidation, return data value, sharing set = \{c\}
  - Read miss: Return data value, sharing set = sharing set + \{c\}

- **Uncached**
  - Write miss: Return data value, sharing set = \{c\}

- **Shared (read-only)**
  - Read miss: Return data value, sharing set = \{c\}
  - Read miss: Fetch data value, return data value, sharing set = sharing set + \{c\}

- **Correction to text**

**Fig. 18.4** States and transitions for a directory entry in a directory-based coherence protocol (c denotes the cache sending the message).
Implementing a Directory-Based Protocol

Sharing set implemented as a bit-vector (simple, but not scalable)

When there are many more nodes (caches) than the typical size of a sharing set, a list of sharing units may be maintained in the directory

The sharing set can be maintained as a distributed doubly linked list (will discuss in Section 18.6 in connection with the SCI standard)
6B.4 Data Allocation for Conflict-Free Access

Try to store the data such that parallel accesses are to different banks.

For many data structures, a compiler may perform the memory mapping.

Each matrix column is stored in a different memory module (bank).

Accessing a column leads to conflicts.

Fig. 6.6 Matrix storage in column-major order to allow concurrent accesses to rows.
Fig. 6.7  Skewed matrix storage for conflict-free accesses to rows and columns.
A Unified Theory of Conflict-Free Access

Fig. 6.8 A $6 \times 6$ matrix viewed, in column-major order, as a 36-element vector.

$A_{ij}$ is viewed as vector element $i + jm$

<p>| | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A $qD$ array can be viewed as a vector, with “row”/“column” accesses associated with constant strides.

Column: $k, k+1, k+2, k+3, k+4, k+5$  Stride = 1
Row: $k, k+m, k+2m, k+3m, k+4m, k+5m$  Stride = $m$
Diagonal: $k, k+m+1, k+2(m+1), k+3(m+1), k+4(m+1), k+5(m+1)$  Stride = $m + 1$
Antidiagonal: $k, k+m-1, k+2(m-1), k+3(m-1), k+4(m-1), k+5(m-1)$  Stride = $m - 1$
Fig. 6.8  A 6 × 6 matrix viewed, in column-major order, as a 36-element vector.

With a linear skewing scheme, vector elements $k, k + s, k + 2s, \ldots, k + (B - 1)s$ will be assigned to different memory banks iff $sb$ is relatively prime with respect to the number $B$ of memory banks.

A prime value for $B$ ensures this condition, but is not very practical.
6B.5 Distributed Shared Memory

Fig. 4.5 A parallel processor with distributed memory.

Some Terminology:

NUMA  
Nonuniform memory access  
(distributed shared memory)

UMA  
Uniform memory access  
(global shared memory)

COMA  
Cache-only memory arch
Butterfly-Based Distributed Shared Memory

Randomized emulation of the $p$-processor PRAM on $p$-node butterfly

Use hash function to map memory locations to modules

$p$ locations $\rightarrow$ $p$ modules, not necessarily distinct

With high probability, at most $O(\log p)$ of the $p$ locations will be in modules located in the same row

Average slowdown = $O(\log p)$

Fig. 17.2   Butterfly distributed-memory machine emulating the PRAM.
PRAM Emulation with Butterfly MIN

Emulation of the $p$-processor PRAM on $(p \log p)$-node butterfly, with memory modules and processors connected to the two sides; $O(\log p)$ avg. slowdown

Less efficient than Fig. 17.2, which uses a smaller butterfly

By using $p / (\log p)$ physical processors to emulate the $p$-processor PRAM, this new emulation scheme becomes quite efficient (pipeline the memory accesses of the $\log p$ virtual processors assigned to each physical processor)

Fig. 17.3 Distributed-memory machine, with a butterfly multistage interconnection network, emulating the PRAM.
Deterministic Shared-Memory Emulation

Deterministic emulation of $p$-processor PRAM on $p$-node butterfly

Store $\log_2 m$ copies of each of the $m$ memory location contents

Time-stamp each updated value

A “write” is complete once a majority of copies are updated

A “read” is satisfied when a majority of copies are accessed and the one with latest time stamp is used

Why it works: A few congested links won’t delay the operation
PRAM Emulation Using Information Dispersal

Instead of \((\log m)\)-fold replication of data, divide each data element into \(k\) pieces and encode the pieces using a redundancy factor of 3, so that any \(k/3\) pieces suffice for reconstructing the original data.

Possible read set of size \(2k/3\)

Possible update set of size \(2k/3\)

Up-to-date pieces

Recunstruction algorithm

Original data word and its \(k\) pieces

The \(k\) pieces after encoding (approx. three times larger)

Original data word recovered from \(k/3\) encoded pieces

Fig. 17.4 Illustrating the information dispersal approach to PRAM emulation with lower data redundancy.
6B.6 Methods for Memory Latency Hiding

By assumption, PRAM accesses memory locations right when they are needed, so processing must stall until data is fetched.

Method 1: Predict accesses (prefetch)
Method 2: Pipeline multiple accesses

Not a smart strategy:
Memory access time = 100s times that of add time

Proc. 0’s access request
Proc. 0’s access response

Processor-to-processor network
Processor-to-memory network
Parallel I/O
6C  Shared-Memory Abstractions

A precise memory view is needed for correct algorithm design
- Sequential consistency facilitates programming
- Less strict consistency models offer better performance

Topics in This Chapter

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6C.1</td>
<td>Atomicity in Memory Access</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6C.2</td>
<td>Strict and Sequential Consistency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6C.3</td>
<td>Processor Consistency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6C.4</td>
<td>Weak or Synchronization Consistency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6C.5</td>
<td>Other Memory Consistency Models</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6C.6</td>
<td>Transactional Memory</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6C.1 Atomicity in Memory Access

Performance optimization and latency hiding often imply that memory accesses are interleaved and perhaps not serviced in the order issued.
Given that AND is a semigroup computation, it is only a small step to generalize it to a more flexible “global combine” operation.

Reduction of synchronization overhead:
1. Providing hardware aid to do it faster
2. Using less frequent synchronizations

Fig. 20.3  The performance benefit of less frequent synchronization.
Synchronization via Message Passing

Task interdependence is often more complicated than the simple prerequisite structure thus far considered.

Schematic representation of data dependence

Details of dependence

Process A:  

Process B:  

Communication latency

B waits

Time

Fig. 20.1 Automatic synchronization in message-passing systems.
Synchronization with Shared Memory

Accomplished by accessing specially designated shared control variables

The fetch-and-add instruction constitutes a useful atomic operation

If the current value of $x$ is $c$, fetch-and-add($x$, $a$) returns $c$ to the process and overwrites $x = c$ with the value $c + a$

A second process executing fetch-and-add($x$, $b$) then gets the now current value $c + a$ and modifies it to $c + a + b$

Why atomicity of fetch-and-add is important: With ordinary instructions, the 3 steps of fetch-and-add for $A$ and $B$ may be interleaved as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time step</th>
<th>Process A</th>
<th>Process B</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>read $x$</td>
<td>read $x$</td>
<td>$A$’s accumulator holds $c$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$B$’s accumulator holds $c$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>add $a$</td>
<td>add $b$</td>
<td>$A$’s accumulator holds $c + a$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$B$’s accumulator holds $c + b$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>store $x$</td>
<td>store $x$</td>
<td>$x$ holds $c + a$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$x$ holds $c + b$ (not $c + a + b$)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Barrier Synchronization: Implementations

Make each processor, in a designated set, wait at a barrier until all other processors have arrived at the corresponding points in their computations.

**Software implementation** via fetch-and-add or similar instruction

**Hardware implementation** via an AND tree (raise flag, check AND result)

**A problem with the AND-tree:**
If a processor can be randomly delayed between raising its flag and checking the tree output, some processors might cross the barrier and lower their flags before others have noticed the change in the AND tree output.

**Solution:** Use two AND trees for alternating barrier points.

---

**Fig. 20.4** Example of hardware aid for fast barrier synchronization [Hoar96].
6C.2 Strict and Sequential Consistency

**Strict consistency:** A read operation always returns the result of the latest write operation on that data object.

Strict consistency is impossible to maintain in a distributed system which does not have a global clock.

While clocks can be synchronized, there is always some error that causes trouble in near-simultaneous operations.

Example: Three processes sharing variables 1-4 (r = read, w = write)

```
Process A: \text{w1} \rightarrow \text{r2} \rightarrow \text{w2} \rightarrow \text{w3} \rightarrow \text{r1} \rightarrow \text{r2'}
Process B: \text{w4} \rightarrow \text{r1} \rightarrow \text{r3} \rightarrow \text{r3'} \rightarrow \text{w2}
Process C: \text{r5} \rightarrow \text{r2} \rightarrow \text{r3} \rightarrow \text{w3} \rightarrow \text{w4} \rightarrow \text{r4} \rightarrow \text{r3} \rightarrow \text{r1}
```

Real time
Sequential Consistency

**Sequential consistency (original def.):** The result of any execution is the same as if processor operations were executed in some sequential order, and the operations of a particular processor appear in the sequence specified by the program it runs.

A possible ordering

```
        w4 w1 r1 r5 r2 r2 w2 r3 r3’ w3 w4 w3 w4 w3 w4 r4 w2 r1 r3 r1 r2
```

**Sequential consistency (new def.):** Write operations on the same data object are seen in exactly the same order by all system nodes.
The Performance Penalty of Sequential Consistency

Initially
\[ X = Y = 0 \]

Thread 1
\[
X := 1 \\
R1 := Y \\
R2 := X \\
\]

Thread 2
\[
Y := 1 \\
R2 := X \\
R1 := Y \\
\]

Exec 1
\[
X := 1 \\
R1 := Y \\
Y := 1 \\
R2 := X \\
\]

Exec 2
\[
Y := 1 \\
R2 := X \\
X := 1 \\
R1 := Y \\
\]

Exec 3
\[
X := 1 \\
Y := 1 \\
R1 := Y \\
R2 := X \\
\]

If a compiler reorders the seemingly independent statements in Thread 1, the desired semantics (R1 and R2 not being both 0) is compromised.

**Relaxed consistency (memory model):** Ease the requirements on doing things in program order and/or write atomicity to gain performance.

When maintaining order is absolutely necessary, we use synchronization primitives to enforce it.
6C.3 Processor Consistency

**Processor consistency:** Writes by the same processors are seen by all other processors as occurring in the same order; writes by different processors may appear in different order at various nodes.

Example: Linear array in which changes in values propagate at the rate of one node per time step.

If P0 and P4 perform two write operations on consecutive time steps, then this is how the processors will see them:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>P0</th>
<th>P1</th>
<th>P2</th>
<th>P3</th>
<th>P4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td>WA</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>WX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td>WB</td>
<td>WA</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>WX</td>
<td>WY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 3</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>WB</td>
<td>WA, WX</td>
<td>WY</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 4</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>WX</td>
<td>WB, WY</td>
<td>WA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 5</td>
<td>WX</td>
<td>WY</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>WB</td>
<td>WA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 6</td>
<td>WY</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6C.4 Weak or Synchronization Consistency

**Weak consistency:** Memory accesses are divided into two categories:
(1) Ordinary data accesses  
(2) Synchronizing accesses
Category-1 accesses can be reordered with no limitation.
If ordering of two operations is to be maintained, the programmer must specify at least one of them as a synchronizing, or Category-2, access.

A sync access is performed after every preceding write has completed and before any new data access is allowed.
6C.5 Other Memory Consistency Models

**Release consistency:** Relaxes synchronization consistency somewhat
(1) A process can access a shared variable only if all of its previous acquires have completed successfully
(2) A process can perform a release operation only if all of its previous reads and writes have completed
(3) Acquire and release accesses must be sequentially consistent

For more on memory consistency models, see:


For general info on memory management, see:
6C.6 Transactional Memory

TM systems typically provide atomic statements that allow the execution of a block of code as an all-or-nothing entity (much like a transaction)

Example of transaction: Transfer $x$ from account A to Account B

1. if $a \geq x$
   then $a := a - x$
   else return “insufficient funds”
2. $b := b + x$
3. return “transfer successful”

TM allows a group of read & write operations to be enclosed in a block, so that any changed values become observable to the rest of the system only upon the completion of the entire block.
Examples of Memory Transactions

A group of reads, writes, and intervening operations can be grouped into an atomic transaction.

**Example:** If $wa$ and $wb$ are made part of the same memory transaction, every processor will see both changes or neither of them.
Implementations of Transactional Memory

**Software:** 2-7 times slower than sequential code [Laru08]

**Hardware acceleration:** Hardware assists for the most time-consuming parts of TM operations
  
  e.g., maintenance and validation of read sets

**Hardware implementation:** **All** required bookkeeping operations are implemented directly in hardware
  
  e.g., by modifying the L1 cache and the coherence protocol

For more information on transactional memory, see: