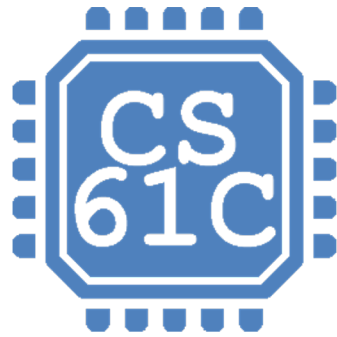
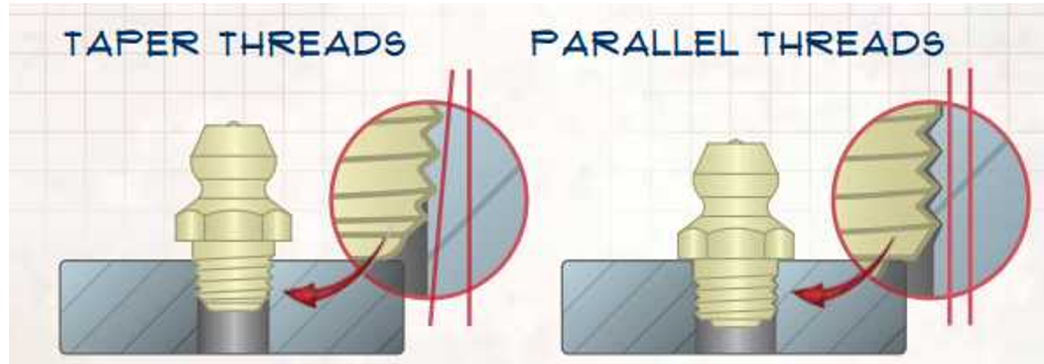




Great Ideas in Computer Architecture

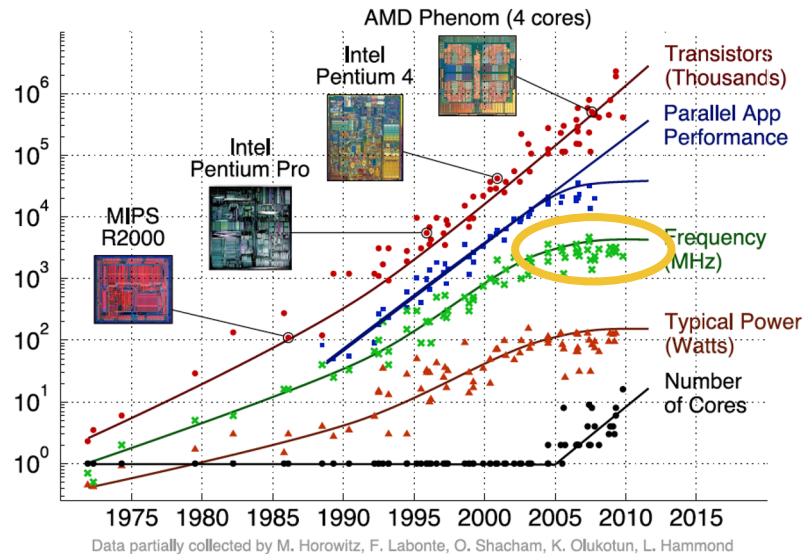
Amdahl's Law and Thread Level Parallelism

Instructor: Stephan Kaminsky



Review

We stopped being able to increase clock speeds for our computers...



If we want more performance,
we have to come up with new solutions

Review

- Methods to increase performance
 - Domain-Specific Hardware
 - Parallelism!!
 - Instruction-Level Parallelism
 - Data-Level Parallelism
 - Thread-Level Parallelism
 - Request-Level Parallelism

Review

Flynn's Taxonomy

		Data Streams	
		Single	Multiple
		Single	Multiple
Instruction Streams	Single	SISD: Single Stage Processor	SIMD: Vector Instructions
	Multiple	MISD: Nothing really here	MIMD: Multi-core Processors

Great Idea #4: Parallelism

- **Parallel Requests**
Assigned to computer
e.g. search “Garcia”
- **Parallel Threads**
Assigned to core
e.g. lookup, ads
- **Parallel Instructions**
> 1 instruction @ one time
e.g. 5 pipelined instructions
- **Parallel Data**
> 1 data item @ one time
e.g. add of 4 pairs of words
- **Hardware descriptions**
All gates functioning in parallel at same time

Software

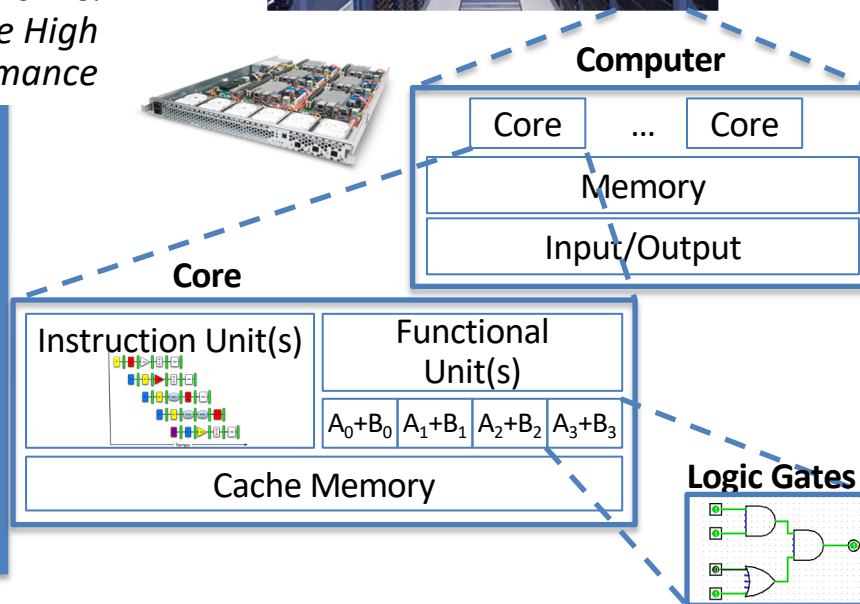
Hardware

Warehouse
Scale
Computer

Smart
Phone



*Leverage
Parallelism &
Achieve High
Performance*



Agenda

- **Parallel Computing**
 - **Multi-processing**
 - Multi-threading
- Parallelism Challenges
 - Amdahl's Law
 - Data Races
- Synchronization
- OpenMP
- OpenMP Work Sharing

MIMD Computing

Flynn's
Taxonomy

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		Single	Multiple
		Single	Multiple
Instruction Streams	Single	SISD: Single Stage Processor	SIMD: Vector Instructions
	Multiple	MISD: Nothing really here	MIMD: Multi-core Processors

How do we apply parallelism to processors?

Goal:

Make computer faster by performing tasks concurrently

Solutions:

1. Use multiple cores to run multiple tasks in parallel
2. Run multiple tasks on a single core concurrently

How do we apply parallelism to processors?

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2. Run multiple tasks on a single core concurrently

Software Tasks: Processes

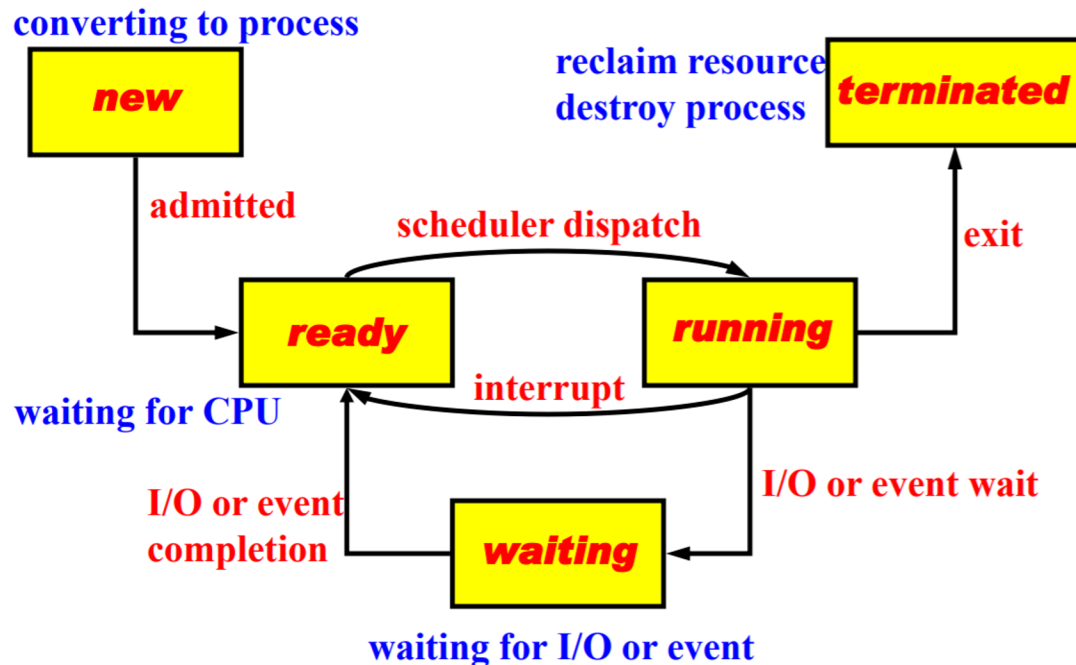
Program

- Compiled, assembled and linked code that's ready to be loaded and run

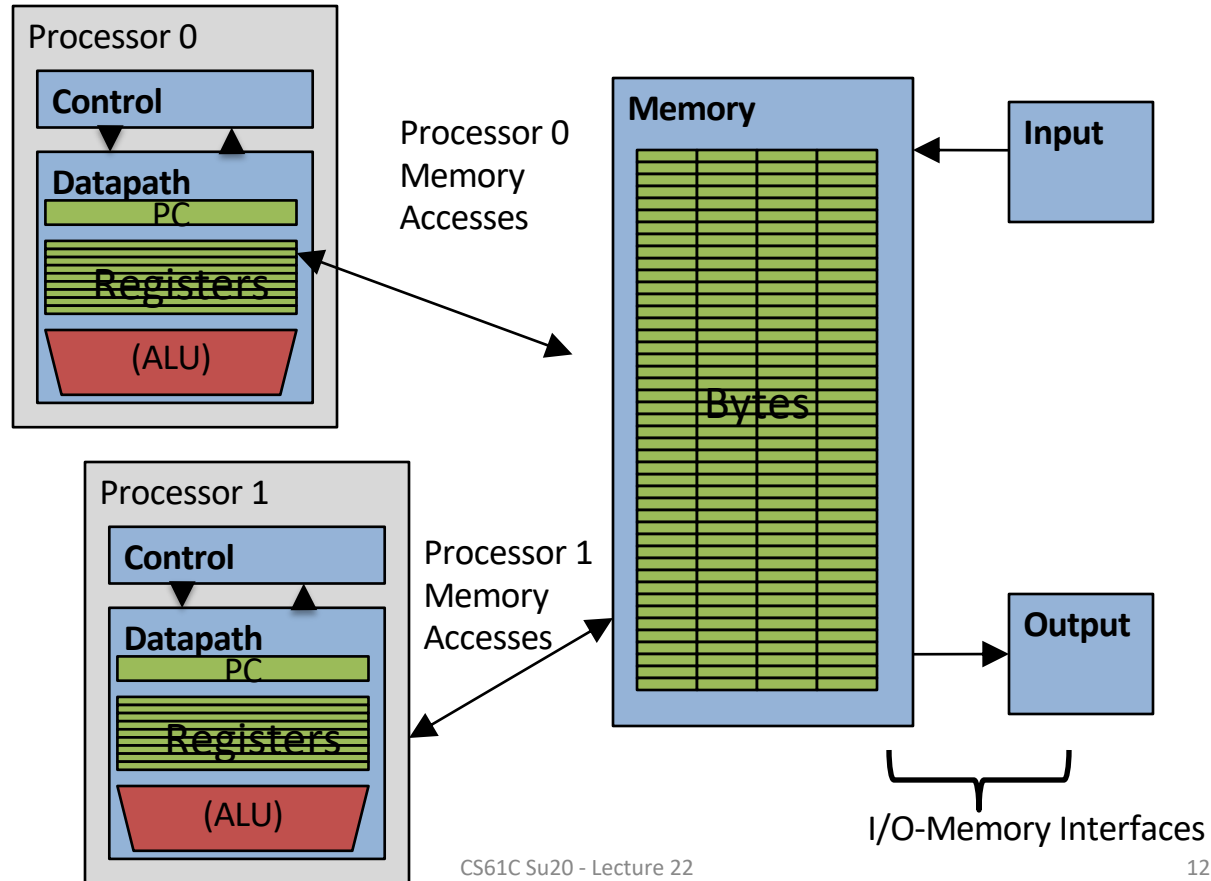
Process

- A program that's currently running (on a “processor”)
- Has a PC and a memory space

Process State Diagram



Multiprocessor Systems



Multiprocessor Systems

A computer system with at least 2 processors or *cores*

- Each core has its own PC and registers
- Each core executes independent instruction streams
- Processors share the same system memory
- Communication through loads and stores to a common location

Deliver high throughput for independent jobs via task-level parallelism

Multiprocessor Example

Run Chrome and Minecraft simultaneously

- Each are separate programs
- Each has a different memory space
- Each can run on a separate core

Don't even need to communicate...

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1. Use multiple cores to run multiple tasks in parallel
- 2. Run multiple tasks on a single core concurrently**

Software Tasks: Threads

Unit of execution *within* a process

Processes we've written so far have a single thread

- They “have a single thread of execution”
- They “are single-threaded”

But a single process could have multiple threads...

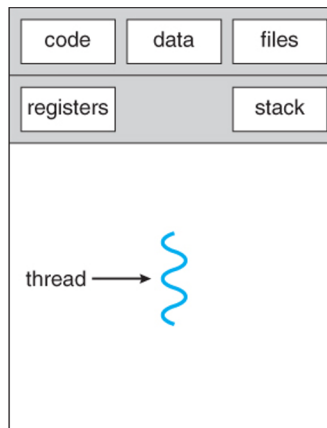
Thread Memory

Threads have separate:

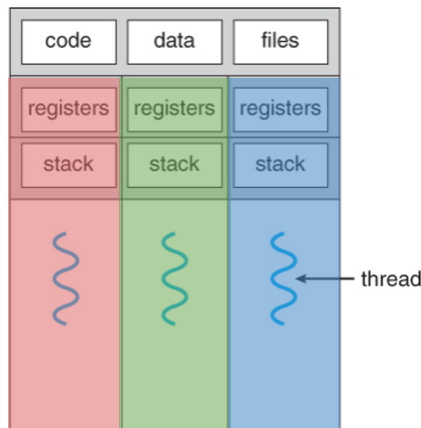
- PC
- Registers
- Stack memory

Threads share:

- Code memory
- Static memory



single-threaded process



multithreaded process

Thread Example

Let's say you're implementing Chrome:

You want a tab for each web page you open:

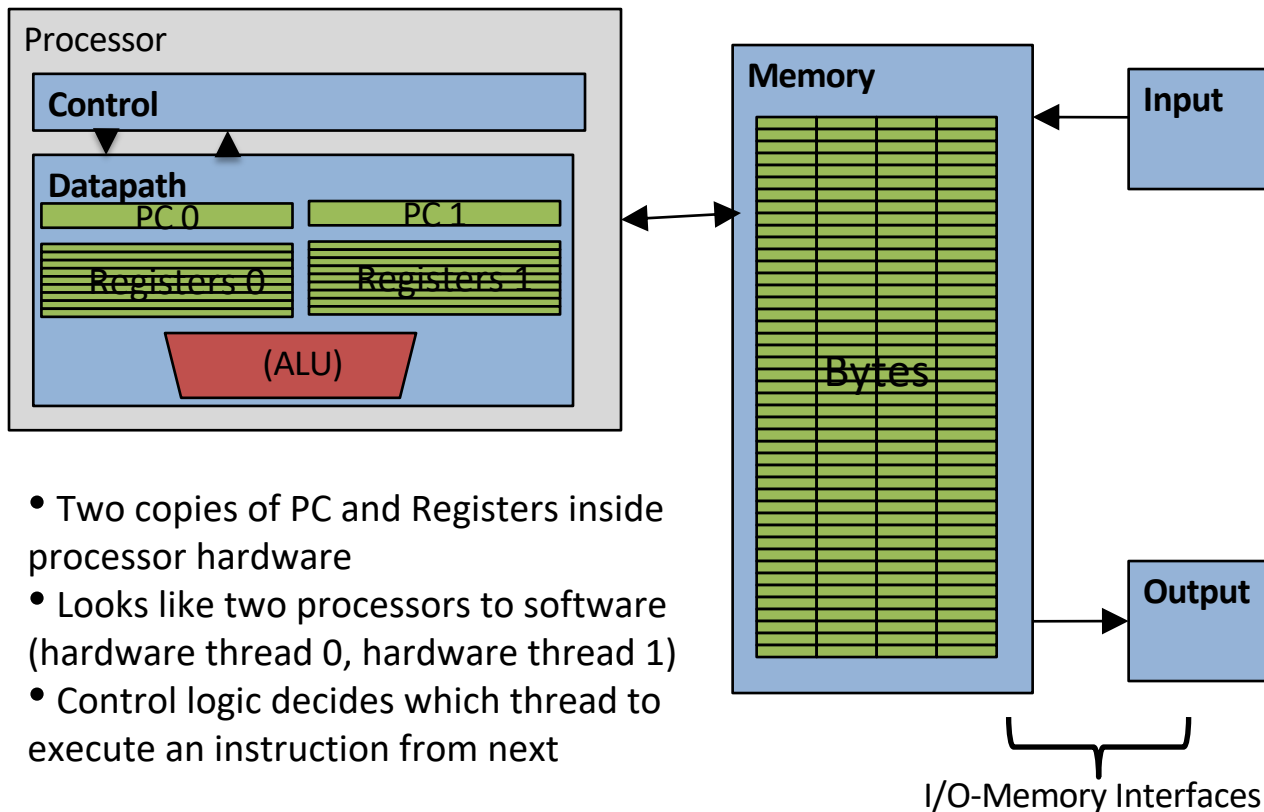
- The same code loads each website (shared code section)
- The same global settings are shared by each tab (shared static section)
- Each tab does have separate state for things happening locally though (separate stack and registers)

Disclaimer: Actually, browsers use separate processes for each tab for a variety of reasons including performance and security

Multithreading Processors

- **Basic idea:** Processor resources are expensive and should not be left idle
- Long memory latency to memory on cache miss?
 - Hardware switches threads to bring in other useful work while waiting for cache miss
 - Cost of thread context switch must be much less than cache miss latency

Hardware Support for Multithreading



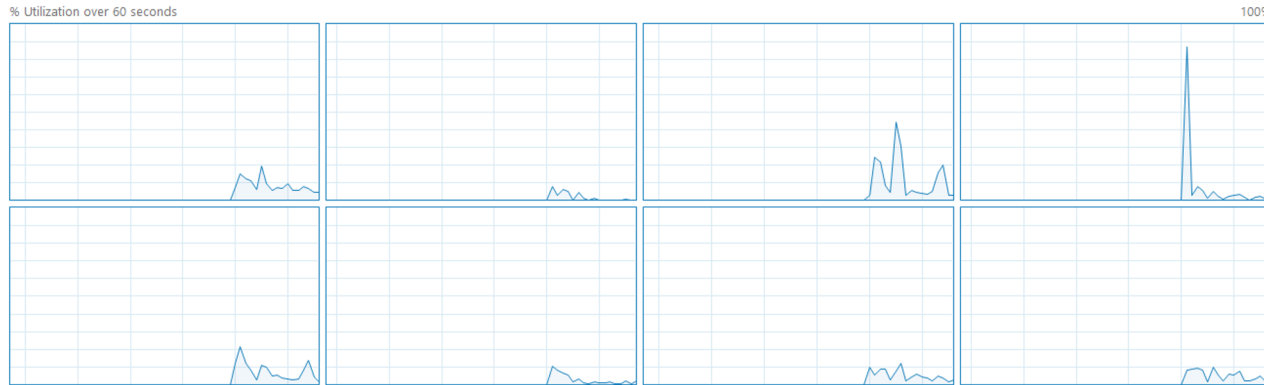
Multithreading vs. Multicore

- Multithreading => Better Utilization
 - $\approx 5\%$ more hardware, 1.30X better performance?
 - Share integer adders, floating point adders, caches (L1 I, L1 D, L2 cache, L3 cache), Memory Controller
- Multicore => Duplicate Processors
 - $\approx 50\%$ more hardware, $\approx 2X$ better performance?
 - Share some caches (L2 cache, L3 cache), Memory Controller
- Modern machines do both
 - Multiple cores with multiples threads per core

A desktop computer

CPU

Intel(R) Core(TM) i7-7700 CPU @ 3.60GHz



Utilization	Speed	Base speed:	3.60 GHz
2%	4.08 GHz	Sockets:	1
Processes	Threads	Cores:	4
236	2909	Logical processors:	8
Up time	Handles	Virtualization:	Enabled
12:02:28:40	111153	L1 cache:	256 KB
		L2 cache:	1.0 MB
		L3 cache:	8.0 MB

4 total cores
Each capable of 2 threads

≈ 8 processors

Raspberry Pi 4

Quad core processor

- 3-way superscalar pipeline
- L1 Cache
 - 32 KiB 2-way set associative data cache
 - 48 KiB 3-way set associative instruction cache
 - Per core
- L2 Cache
 - 512 KiB to 4 MiB (shared)
- RAM 1-4 GB



\$35

Literally all computers
are doing parallelism
these days

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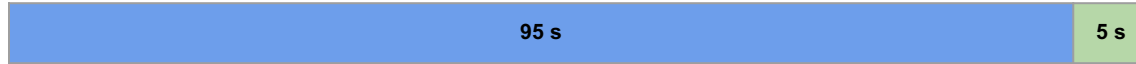
Challenges to Parallelism

Parallelism is great! We can do so many things!!

But what's the downside...?

- 1. How much speedup can we get from it?**
- 2. How hard is it to write parallel programs?**

Speedup Example

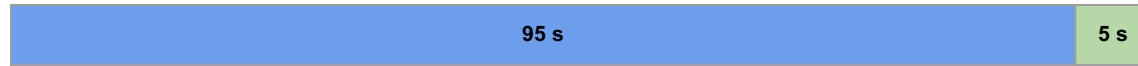


Imagine a program that takes 100 seconds to run

- 95 seconds in the blue part
- 5 seconds in the green part

Speedup from Improvements

$$\text{Speedup with Improvement} = \frac{\text{Execution time without improvement}}{\text{Execution time with improvement}}$$



5s -> 2.5 s: Speedup = $100/97.5 = 1.026$

5s -> 1 s: Speedup = $100/96 = 1.042$

5s -> 0.001s: Speedup = $100/95.001 = 1.053$

Performance improvements are only impactful if they are on the important part!

Amdahl's Law

Equivalent to prior equation

$$\text{Speedup} = \frac{1}{(1 - F) + \frac{F}{S}}$$

Non-speed-up part Speed-up part

F = Fraction of execution time speed up

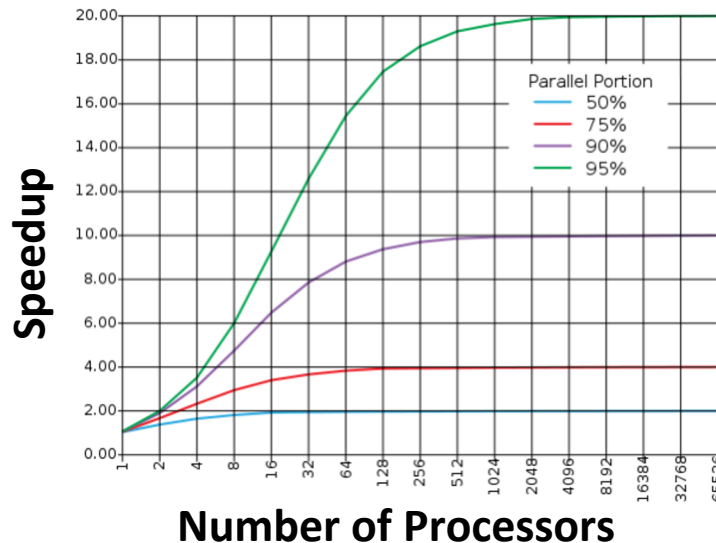
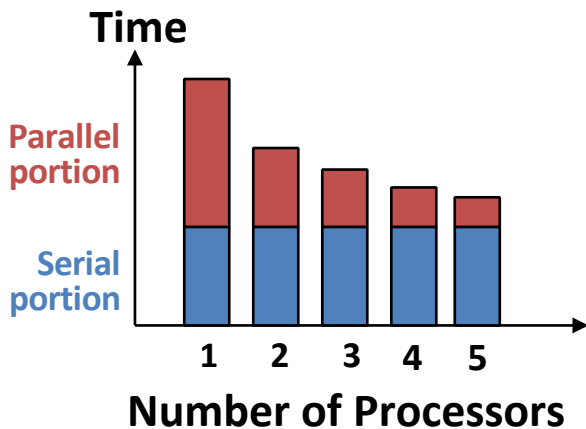
S = Scale of improvement

Example: 2x improvement to 25% of the program

$$\frac{1}{0.75 + \frac{0.25}{2}} = \frac{1}{0.75 + 0.125} = 1.14$$

Amdahl's (Heartbreaking) Law

- The amount of speedup that can be achieved through parallelism is limited by the non-parallel portion of your program!



Parallel Speed-up Examples (1/3)

$$\text{Speedup with enhancement} = 1 / [(1-F) + F/S]$$

- Consider an enhancement which runs 20 times faster but which is only usable 15% of the time

$$\text{Speedup} = 1 / (.85 + .15/20) = 1.166$$

- What if it's usable 25% of the time?

$$\text{Speedup} = 1 / (.75 + .25/20) = 1.311$$

Nowhere near
20x speedup!

- Amdahl's Law tells us that to achieve linear speedup with more processors, none of the original computation can be scalar (non-parallelizable)
- To get a speedup of 90 from 100 processors, the percentage of the original program that could be scalar would have to be 0.1% or less

$$\text{Speedup} = 1 / (.001 + .999/100) = 90.99$$

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Challenges to Parallelism

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But what's the downside...?

1. How much speedup can we get from it?
- 2. How hard is it to write parallel programs?**

Data Races

- Thread scheduling is **non-deterministic**
 - There is no guarantee that any thread will go first or last or not be interrupted at any point
- If different threads write to the same variable
 - The final value of the variable is also non-deterministic
 - This is a *data race*
- Avoid incorrect results by:
 - 1) not writing to the same memory address
 - 2) *synchronizing* writing and reading to get deterministic behavior

Example: Sum Reduction

- Sum 100,000 numbers on 100 processors
 - Each processor has ID: $0 \leq P_n \leq 99$
 - Partition 1000 numbers per processor
- **Step 1:** Initial summation on *each* processor

```
sum[Pn] = 0;
for (i=1000*Pn; i<1000*(Pn+1); i++)
    sum[Pn] = sum[Pn] + A[i];
```

Example: Sum Reduction

- Sum 100,000 numbers on 100 processors
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```
sum[Pn] = 0;
for (i=1000*Pn; i<1000*(Pn+1); i++)
    sum[Pn] = sum[Pn] + A[i];
```

 - no data dependencies so far
 - not writing to same address in memory

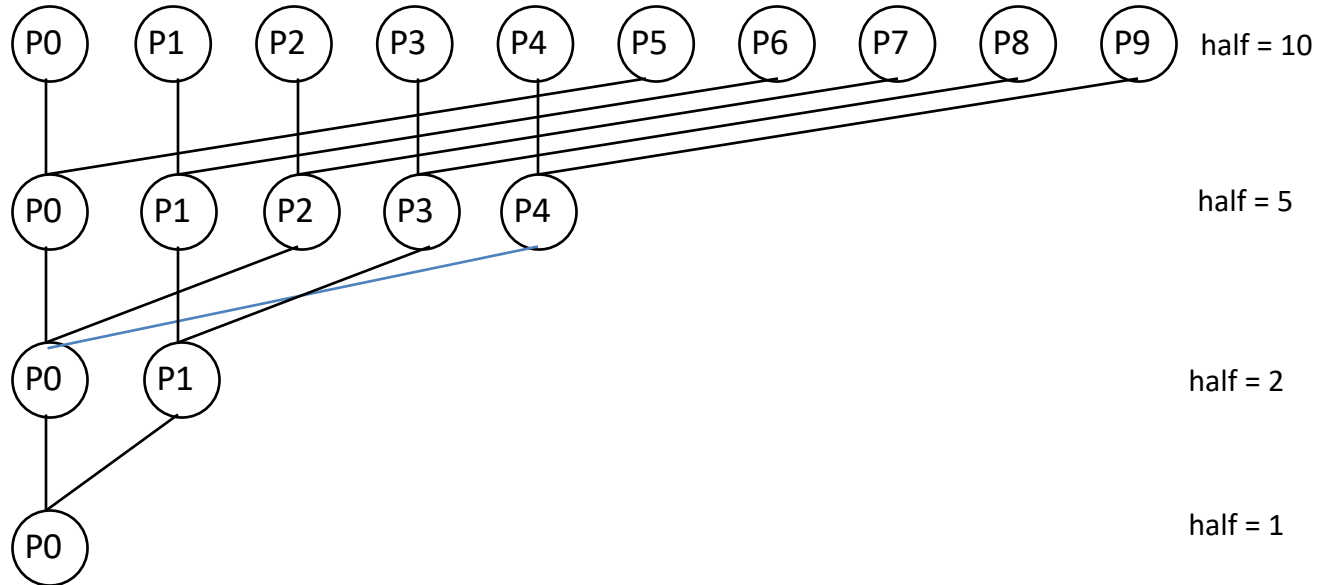
Example: Sum Reduction

- Sum 10,000 numbers on 10 processors
 - Each processor has ID: $0 \leq P_n \leq 9$
 - Partition 1000 numbers per processor
- **Step 1:** Initial summation on *each* processor

```
sum[Pn] = 0;
for (i=1000*Pn; i<1000*(Pn+1); i++)
    sum[Pn] = sum[Pn] + A[i];
```
- **Step 2:** Now need to add these partial sums
 - Reduction:** divide and conquer approach to sum
 - Half the processors add pairs, then quarters, ...
 - Data dependencies: Need to synchronize between reduction steps

Sum Reduction with 10 Processors

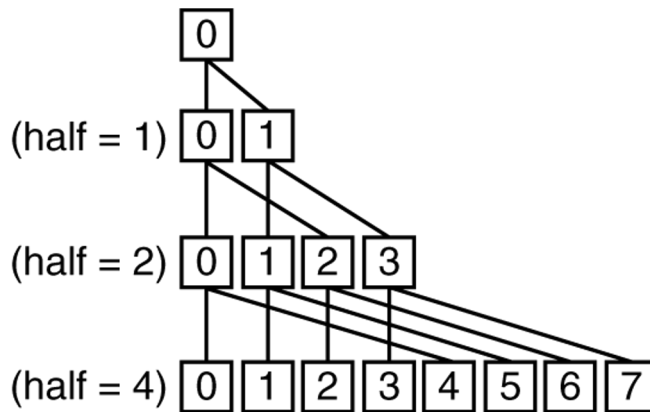
sum[P0] sum[P1] sum[P2] sum[P3] sum[P4] sum[P5] sum[P6] sum[P7] sum[P8] sum[P9]



Example: Sum Reduction Pseudocode

This is **Step 2**, after all
“local” sums computed.
*This code runs simultaneously
on all processors.*

```
half = 10;  
repeat  
    synch();  
    ... /* handle odd elements */  
  
    half = half/2; /* dividing line on who sums */  
    if (Pn < half)  
        sum[Pn] = sum[Pn] + sum[Pn+half];  
  
until (half == 1);
```



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Synchronization

We can't always avoid any shared memory
(and still perform useful tasks)

Avoid data races by *synchronizing* writing and reading
to get deterministic behavior

Analogy: Buying Milk

- Your fridge has no milk. You and your roommate will return from classes at some point and check the fridge
- Whoever gets home first will check the fridge, go and buy milk, and return
- What if the other person gets back while the first person is buying milk?
 - You've just bought twice as much milk as you need!

How do we solve this?

- It would've helped to have left a note...

Lock Synchronization (1/2)

- Use a “Lock” to grant access to a region (*critical section*) so that only one thread can operate at a time
 - Need all processors to be able to access the lock, so use a location in shared memory as *the lock*
- Processors read lock and either wait (if locked) or set lock and go into critical section
 - 0** means lock is free / open / unlocked / lock off
 - 1** means lock is set / closed / locked / lock on

Lock Synchronization (2/2)

- Pseudocode:

Check lock  Can loop/idle here
if locked
Set the lock
Critical section
(e.g. change shared variables)
Unset the lock

Synchronization with Locks

```
// wait for lock released
while (lock != 0) ;
// lock == 0 now (unlocked)

// set lock
lock = 1;

// access shared resource ...
// sequential execution!
// (Amdahl says ewwww)

// release lock
lock = 0;
```

Lock Synchronization

Thread 1

```
while (lock != 0) ;
```



```
lock = 1;
```

```
// critical section
```

```
lock = 0;
```

- AND, the lock is set to 0 while Thread 2 is in the critical section!!

Thread 2

```
while (lock != 0) ;
```

- Thread 2 finds lock not set, before thread 1 sets it
- Both threads believe they got and set the lock!

```
lock = 1;
```

```
// critical section
```

```
lock = 0;
```

Lock Synchronization Synchronization

```
while(locklock != 0)
locklock = 1;
    // wait for lock released
    while (lock != 0) ;
    // lock == 0 now (unlocked)

    // set lock
    lock = 1;
locklock = 0;

    // access shared resource ...

// release lock
lock = 0;
```

This isn't going to work...

Try as you like, this problem has no software solution because the lock itself is shared memory.

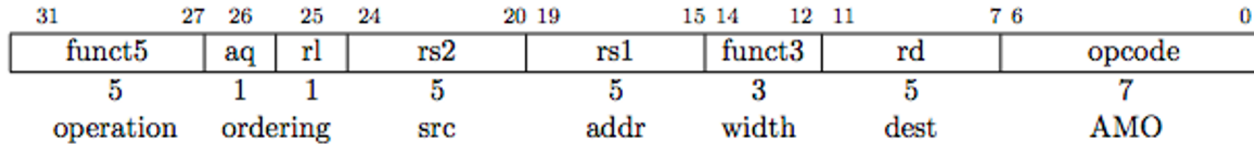
Unless we introduce new instructions, that is!

Hardware Synchronization

- Solution:
 - Atomic read/write
 - Read & write in single instruction
 - No other access permitted between read and write
- Common implementations:
 - Atomic swap of register $\leftrightarrow$ memory
 - Pair of instructions for “linked” read and write
 - write fails if memory location has been “tampered” with after linked read
- RISC-V has variations of both, but for simplicity we will focus on the former

RISCV Atomic Memory Operations (AMOs)

- AMOs atomically perform an operation on an operand in memory and set the destination register to the original memory value
- R-Type Instruction Format: Add, And, Or, Swap, Xor, Max, Max Unsigned, Min, Min Unsigned



`amoadd.w rd,rs2,(rs1):`

`temp = M[R[rs1]];`

`R[rd] = temp`

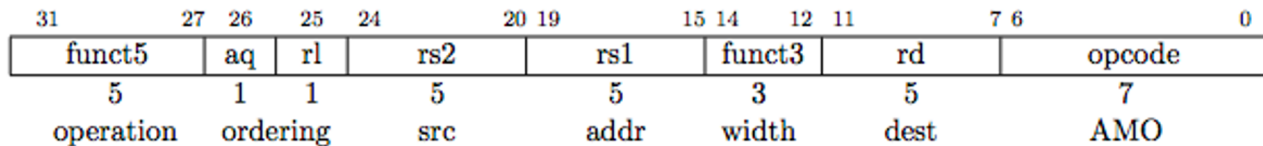
`M[R[rs1]] = temp + R[rs2]`

Note: Only one Load actually occurs!!

Load value into Rd from memory

Add to value and store to memory

Memory Ordering



Atomic instructions include memory ordering

aq - acquiring lock

- execute no memory accesses after this instruction until it completes

rl - releasing lock

- finish all memory accesses before this instruction completes

RISCV Critical Section

- Assume that the lock is in memory location stored in register a0
- The lock is “set” if it is 1; it is “free” if it is 0 (it’s initial value)

```
    addi  t0, x0, 1    # Get 1 to set lock
Try:  amoswap.w.aq t1, t0, (a0) # t1 gets old lock value
                                # while we set it to 1
    bnez t1, Try        # if already 1, another
                        # thread has lock, so
                        # we must try again
... critical section goes here ...
    amoswap.w.rl x0, x0, (a0) # store 0 in lock to
                              # release
```

Lock Synchronization

Broken Synchronization

```
while (lock != 0) ;  
lock = 1;  
// critical section  
lock = 0;
```

Fix (lock is at location (a0))

```
    addi t0, x0, 1  
Try: amoswap.w.aq t1, t0, (a0)  
    bnez t1, Try  
Locked:  
  
    # critical section  
  
Unlock:  
    amoswap.w.rl x0, x0, (a0)
```

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OpenMP

- API used for multi-threaded, shared memory parallelism
 - Compiler Directives
 - Runtime Library Routines
 - Environment Variables
- Portable
- Standardized
- Resources: <http://www.openmp.org/>
and <http://computing.llnl.gov/tutorials/openMP/>

Summary of
OpenMP 3.0
C/C++ Syntax



Download the full OpenMP API Specification at www.openmp.org.

Directives

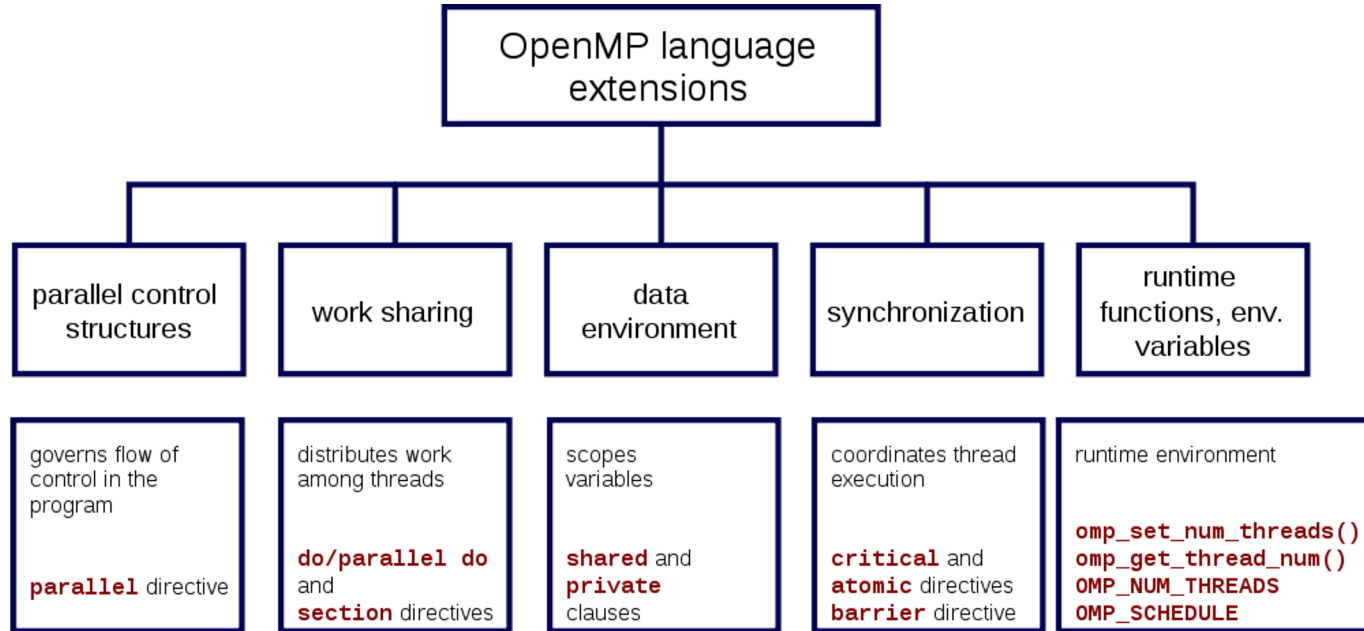
An OpenMP executable directive applies to the succeeding structured block or an OpenMP Construct. A “structured block” is a single statement or a compound statement with a single entry at the top and a single exit at the bottom.

The **parallel** construct forms a team of threads and starts parallel execution.

```
#pragma omp parallel [clause[ , ]clause] ...] new-line  
structured-block
```

```
clause: if (scalar-expression)  
        num_threads (integer-expression)  
        default (shared | none)  
        private (list)  
        firstprivate (list)  
        shared (list)  
        copyin (list)  
        reduction (operator: list)
```

OpenMP Specification



Shared Memory Model with Explicit Thread-based Parallelism

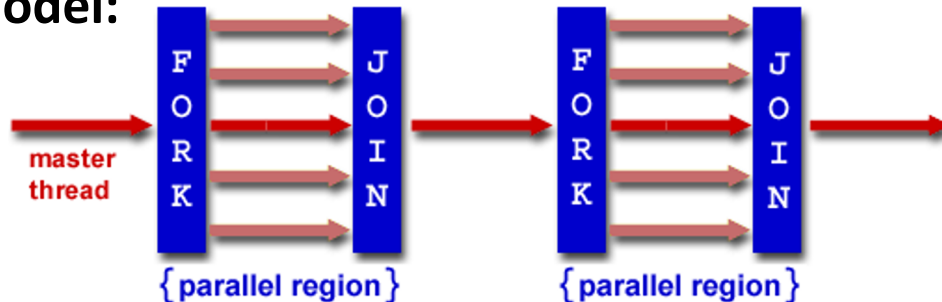
- Multiple threads in a shared memory environment, explicit programming model with full programmer control over parallelization
- **Pros:**
 - Takes advantage of shared memory, programmer need not worry (that much) about data placement
 - Compiler directives are simple and easy to use
 - Legacy serial code does not need to be rewritten
- **Cons:**
 - Code can only be run in shared memory environments
 - Compiler must support OpenMP (e.g. gcc 4.2)

OpenMP in CS61C

- OpenMP is built on top of C, so you don't have to learn a whole new programming language
 - Make sure to add `#include <omp.h>`
 - Compile with flag: `gcc -fopenmp`
 - Mostly just a few lines of code to learn
- You will NOT become experts at OpenMP
 - Use slides as reference, will learn to use in lab
- **Key ideas:**
 - Shared vs. Private variables
 - OpenMP directives for parallelization, work sharing, synchronization

OpenMP Programming Model

- Fork - Join Model:



- OpenMP programs begin as single process (*master thread*) and executes sequentially until the first parallel region construct is encountered
 - *FORK*: Master thread then creates a team of parallel threads
 - Statements in program that are enclosed by the parallel region construct are executed in parallel among the various threads
 - *JOIN*: When the team threads complete the statements in the parallel region construct, they synchronize and terminate, leaving only the master thread

OpenMP Extends C with Pragmas

- *Pragmas* are a preprocessor mechanism C provides for language extensions
- Commonly implemented pragmas: structure packing, symbol aliasing, floating point exception modes (not covered in 61C)
- Good mechanism for OpenMP -- compilers that don't recognize a pragma just ignore them
 - Runs on sequential computer even with embedded pragmas

parallel Pragma and Scope

- Basic OpenMP construct for parallelization:

```
#pragma omp parallel
{
    /* code goes here */
}
```

← This is annoying, but curly brace MUST go on separate line from #pragma

- Each* thread runs a copy of code within the block
- Thread scheduling is *non-deterministic*

- Variables declared outside pragma are *shared*

- To make private, need to declare with pragma:

```
#pragma omp parallel private
```

(x)

Thread Creation

- Defined by **OMP_NUM_THREADS** environment variable (or code procedure call)
 - Set this variable to the *maximum* number of threads you want OpenMP to use
- Usually equals the number of cores in the underlying hardware on which the program is run

OMP_NUM_THREADS

- OpenMP intrinsic to set number of threads:

```
omp_set_num_threads(x);
```

- OpenMP intrinsic to get number of threads:

```
num_th = omp_get_num_threads();
```

- OpenMP intrinsic to get Thread ID number:

```
th_ID = omp_get_thread_num();
```

Parallel Hello World

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <omp.h>
int main () {
    int nthreads, tid;

    /* Fork team of threads with private var tid */
    #pragma omp parallel private(tid)
    {
        tid = omp_get_thread_num(); /* get thread id */
        printf("Hello World from thread = %d\n", tid);

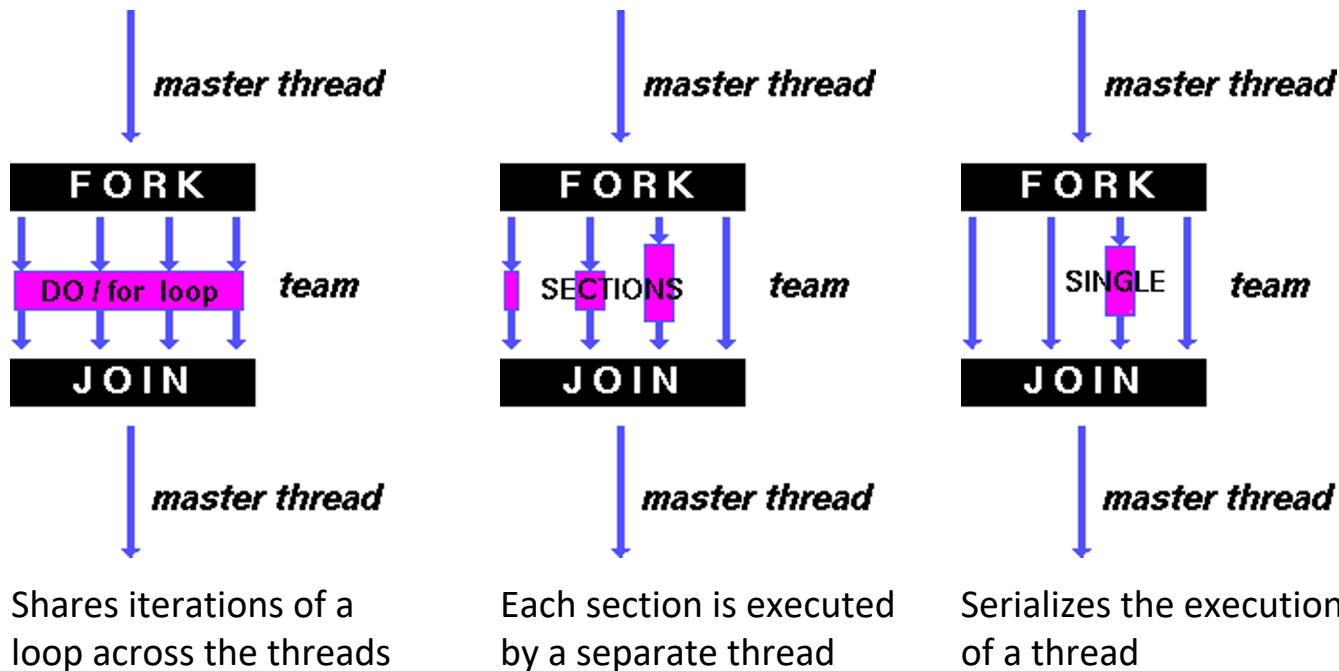
        /* Only master thread does this */
        if (tid == 0) {
            nthreads = omp_get_num_threads();
            printf("Number of threads = %d\n", nthreads);
        }
    } /* All threads join master and terminate */
}
```

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- **OpenMP Work Sharing**

OpenMP Directives (Work-Sharing)

- These are defined *within* a `parallel` section



Parallel Statement Shorthand

```
#pragma omp parallel
{
    #pragma omp for
    for(i=0;i<len;i++) { ... }
}
```

This is the only
directive in the
parallel section



can be shortened to:

```
#pragma omp parallel for
    for(i=0;i<len;i++) { ... }
```

Building Block: `for` loop

```
for (i=0; i<max; i++) zero[i] = 0;
```

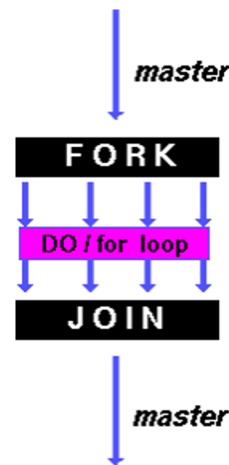
- Break *for loop* into chunks, and allocate each to a separate thread
 - e.g. if `max = 100` with 2 threads:
assign 0-49 to thread 0, and 50-99 to thread 1
 - Must have relatively simple “shape” for an OpenMP-aware compiler to be able to parallelize it
 - Necessary for the run-time system to be able to determine how many of the loop iterations to assign to each thread
 - No premature exits from the loop allowed
 - i.e. No `break`, `return`, `exit`, `goto` statements
- In general, don't jump outside of any `pragma` block

Parallel `for` *pragma*

```
#pragma omp parallel for
```

```
for (i=0; i<max; i++) zero[i] = 0;
```

- Master thread creates additional threads, each with a separate execution context
- All variables declared outside for loop are shared by default, except for loop index which is *private* per thread (Why?)
- Divide index regions sequentially per thread
 - Thread 0 gets 0, 1, ..., (max/n)-1;
 - Thread 1 gets max/n, max/n+1, ..., 2*(max/n)-1
 - Why?
- Implicit synchronization at end of for loop



Cache blocking -- better AMAT

Agenda

- Parallel Computing
 - Multi-processing
 - Multi-threading
- Parallelism Challenges
 - Amdahl's Law
 - Data Races
- Synchronization
- OpenMP
- OpenMP Work Sharing

Summary

We can take advantage of parallel programming in order to further improve our performance

Need to be careful of data races and solve them with synchronization techniques

Amdahl's Law lets you measure speedup and determine how much of an effect you can possibly have