Parallel Numerical Algorithms

Chapter 2 – Parallel Thinking Section 2.3 – Parallel Performance

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Parallel Efficiency

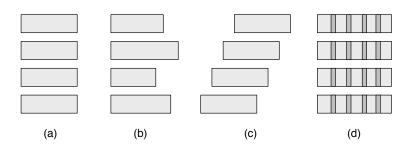
Efficiency: effectiveness of parallel algorithm relative to its serial counterpart (more precise definition later)

Factors determining efficiency of parallel algorithm

- Load balance: distribution of work among processors
- Concurrency: processors working simultaneously
- Overhead: additional work not present in corresponding serial computation

Efficiency is maximized when load imbalance is minimized, concurrency is maximized, and overhead is minimized

Parallel Efficiency



- (a) perfect load balance and concurrency
- (b) good initial concurrency but poor load balance
- (c) good load balance but poor concurrency
- (d) good load balance and concurrency but additional overhead

Algorithm Attributes

- Memory (M) overall memory footprint of the algorithm in words
- Work (Q) total number of operations (e.g., flops) computed by algorithm, including loads and stores
- Depth (D) longest sequence (chain) of dependent work operations
- Time (T) elapsed wall-clock time (e.g., secs) from beginning to end of computation, expressed using
 - α time to transfer a 0-byte message
 - β bandwidth cost (per-word)
 - γ time to perform one local operation (unit work)

Note that effective γ is generally between the time to compute a floating point operation and the time to load/store a word, depending on local computation performed

Scaling of Algorithm Attributes

- Subscript indicates number of processors used (e.g., T_1 is serial execution time, Q_p is work using p processors, etc.)
- We assume the *input size*, an attribute of the **problem** rather than the **algorithm**, is M_1
- Most algorithms we study will be $\it memory \ \it efficient$, meaning $M_p=M_1$ in which case we drop subscript and write just M
- If serial algorithm is optimal then $Q_p \geq Q_1$
- Parallel work overhead: $O_p := Q_p Q_1$

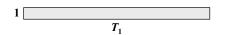
Basic Definitions

- Amount of data often determines amount of computation, in which case we may write $\mathcal{Q}(M)$ to indicate dependence of computational complexity on the input size
- For example, when multiplying two full matrices of order n, $M=\Theta(n^2)$ and $Q=\Theta(n^3)$, so $Q(M)=\Theta(M^{3/2})$
- ullet In numerical algorithms, every data item is typically used in at least one operation, so we generally assume that work Q grows at least linearly with the input size M

Execution Time and Cost

Execution time \geq (total work)/(overall processor speed)

- Serial execution time: $T_1 = \gamma Q_1$
- Parallel execution time: $T_p \ge \gamma Q_p/p$





We can quantify T_p in terms of the critical path cost (sum of costs of longest chain of dependent subtasks)

$$Cost := (L, W, F) := (\#messages, \#words, \#flops)$$

$$\max(\alpha L, \beta W, \gamma F) \le T_p \le \alpha L + \beta W + \gamma F$$

Efficiency and Speedup

• Speedup:

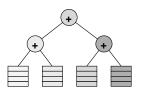
$$S_p \coloneqq \frac{\text{serial time}}{\text{parallel time}} = \frac{T_1}{T_p}$$

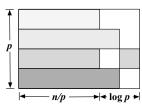
• Efficiency:

$$E_p \coloneqq \frac{\text{speedup}}{\text{number of processors}} = \frac{S_p}{p}$$

Example: Summation

- Problem: compute sum of *n* numbers
- Using p processors, each processor first sums n/p numbers
- Subtotals are then summed in tree-like fashion to obtain grand total





Example: Summation

Generally, $\alpha \gg \beta \gg \gamma$, which we use to simplify analysis Serial Parallel

•
$$M_1 = n$$

•
$$Q_1 \approx n$$

•
$$T_1 \approx \gamma n$$

$$\bullet \ M_p = n$$

•
$$Q_p \approx n$$

•
$$T_p \approx \alpha \log(p) + \gamma n/p$$

$$S_p = \frac{T_1}{T_p} \approx \frac{\gamma n}{\alpha \log p + \gamma n/p} = \frac{p}{1 + (\alpha/\gamma)(p/n) \log p}$$
$$E_p = \frac{S_p}{p} \approx \frac{1}{1 + (\alpha/\gamma)(p/n) \log p}$$

To achieve a good speed-up want α/γ to be small and $n\gg p$

Parallel Scalability

- Scalability: relative effectiveness with which parallel algorithm can utilize additional processors
- A criterion: algorithm is *scalable* if its efficiency is bounded away from zero as number of processors grows without bound, or equivalently, $E_p = \Theta(1)$ as $p \to \infty$
- Algorithm scalability in this sense is impractical unless we permit the input size to grow or bound the number of processors used

Parallel Scalability

Why use more processors?

- solve given problem in less time
- solve larger problem in same time
- obtain sufficient memory to solve given (or larger) problem
- solve ever larger problems regardless of execution time

Larger problems require more memory M_1 and work Q_1 , e.g.,

- finer resolution or larger domain in atmospheric simulation
- more particles in molecular or galactic simulations
- additional physical effects or greater detail in modeling

Problem Scaling

The relative parallel scaling of different algorithms for a problem can be studied by fixing

- input size: constant M_1
- ullet input size per processor: constant M_1/p

The relative parallel scaling of different parallelizations of an algorithm can be studied by fixing

- amount of work per processor: constant Q_1/p
- efficiency: constant E_p
- time: constant T_p

In all cases, we seek to quantify the relationship between parameters of the problem/algorithm with respect to the performance (time/efficiency)

Strong Scaling

Strong scaling – solving the same problem with a growing number of processors (constant input size)

- Ideal strong scaling to p processors requires $T_p = T_1/p$
- When problem is not embarrassingly parallel, the best we can hope for is $T_p \approx T_1/p$ (i.e., $E_p \approx 1$) up to some p
- We say an algorithm is *strongly scalable* to p_s processors if

$$E_{p_s} = \Theta(1)$$

i.e., we seek to asymptotically characterize the function $p_s(Q_1)$ such that $E_{p_s(Q_1)}(Q_1)={\rm const}$ for any Q_1

Example: Summation

For summation example,

$$E_p = \frac{1}{1 + (\alpha/\gamma)(p/n)\log p}$$

- The binary tree summation algorithm is therefore strongly scalable to $p_s = \Theta((\gamma/\alpha)n/\log((\gamma/\alpha)n))$ processors
- The term α/γ is constant for a given architecture, but can range from 10^3 to 10^6 on various machines
- Ignoring the dependence on this constant, the algorithm is strongly scalable to $p_s = \Theta(n/\log(n))$ processors

Basic Bounds on Strong Scaling

• Since all processors have work to do only if $Q_p/p \ge 1$ for any p the speed-up is bounded by

$$S_p \le \frac{Q_1}{Q_p/p} \le Q_1$$

• It is possible but rare to achieve $S_p>M_1$ by using additional memory $M_p>M_1$, as otherwise some processors have no data to work on

Amdahl's Law

- Amdahl's law: if a fraction 1/s of the computation is done sequentially, the achievable speed-up is at most s
- Refers to most expensive unparallelized section of code
- Recall that the depth (D) of an algorithm is the longest chain of dependent operations, i.e., this chain of operations is inherently sequential
- Amdahl's law implies that

$$S_p = \frac{T_1}{T_p} \le \frac{Q_1 \gamma}{D \gamma} = \frac{Q_1}{D}$$

in words, speedup ≤ work / depth

• The law provides a basic strong scaling limit $p_s = O(Q/D)$, although communication cost often gives a tighter bound

Weak Scaling

We refer to *weak scaling* as solving a problem with a fixed input size per processor ($M_1/p = \text{const}$)

- In literature, weak scaling often refers to fixed work per processor Q_1/p , which is the same only if $Q_1(M_1)=\Theta(M_1)$
- This scaling mode $(M_1/p = \text{const})$ is natural when parallelism is being used to solve larger problems
- An algorithm is weakly scalable to p_w processors if

$$E_{p_w}(p_w M_0) = \Theta(1) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{T_{p_w}(p_w M_0)}{T_1(M_0)} = \Theta\left(\frac{Q_1(p_w M_0)}{p_w Q_1(M_0)}\right)$$

meaning when increasing p with constant $M_1/p=M_0$, the time grows roughly as the work per processor until $p>p_w$

• If $Q_1(M)$ is linear with M then the right side is $\Theta(1)$

Example: Summation

If considering the binary tree summation where $M_1=n$ and $Q_1(M_1)=M_1$, weak scalability to p_w processors requires

$$\frac{T_{p_w}(p_w n)}{T_1(n)} = \Theta(1)$$

$$\frac{T_{p_w}(p_w n)}{T_1(n)} \approx \frac{\alpha \log(p_w) + \gamma n}{\gamma n} = 1 + (\alpha/\gamma) \log(p_w)/n$$

Therefore, the algorithm is weakly scalable up to $p_w = \Theta(2^{n\gamma/\alpha})$. We can conclude the following about the scalability of the binary tree algorithm with respect to n:

- it is strongly scalable to $p_s = \Theta(n/\log(n))$ processors
- it is weakly scalable to $p_w = \Theta(2^n)$ processors

Fixed Execution Time

- Maintaining fixed execution time is applicable when computation must be completed within strict time limit (e.g., real-time constraints) or when user wishes to maintain given turn-around time
- Since $T_p \ge Q_1/p$, Q_1/p must be constant or decreasing
- If Q_1 grows faster than linearly with input size M_1 , then M_1 must grow sublinearly with p to maintain constant T_p
- To achieve perfect execution time scalability, all cost components (L,W,F) of the algorithm must stay constant when Q_p and p grow by the same factor
- Easier to achieve than strong scaling, but harder than weak scaling, where Q_p can increase as p and M_1 grow

Fixed Accuracy

- For some problems, desired accuracy of solution determines amount of memory and work required
- It is pointless to increase input size beyond that necessary to achieve desired accuracy
- \bullet Choice of resolution can affect serial work Q_1 in subtle and complex ways
 - conditioning of problem
 - convergence rate for iterative method
 - length of time step for time-dependent problem

Fixed Efficiency

- Previous scaling invariants determined rate of growth in problem size, and then we analyzed resulting efficiency to determine scalability
- An alterntative approach is to use efficiency itself as scaling invariant, i.e., we determine minimum growth rate in work required to maintain constant efficiency
- If this is possible, then algorithm is scalable, but it may still be impractical if required growth rate in work is excessive, leading to unacceptably large execution time
- Thus, resulting growth rate in work determines degree to which algorithm is scalable

Isoefficiency Function

Isoefficiency function $\tilde{Q}(p)$ is the amount of work required to maintain given constant efficiency E_p

- The scaling with input size associated with the isoefficiency function, $\tilde{M}(p)$ is defined by solving for M_1 in $Q_1(M_1)=\tilde{Q}(p)$, i.e., $\tilde{M}(p)=Q_1^{-1}(\tilde{Q}(p))$
- ullet So more precisely, we want to find $ilde{Q}(p)=Q_1(ilde{M}(p))$ so

$$E_p(\tilde{M}(p)) = \text{const.}$$
 for increasing p

• In practice we are only concerned with the asymptotic scaling of $\tilde{Q}(p)$

Example: Isoefficiency

To get the isoefficiency function for the binary tree sum:

• Find $\tilde{M}(p)$ so $E_p(\tilde{M}(p)) = \Theta(1)$, which for the binary tree is

$$E_p(\tilde{M}(p)) \approx \frac{1}{1 + (\alpha/\gamma)(p/\tilde{M}(p))\log p} = \Theta(1)$$
$$(\alpha/\gamma)(p/\tilde{M}(p))\log p = \Theta(1)$$
$$\tilde{M}(p) = \Theta((\alpha/\gamma)p\log(p))$$

② Determine $\tilde{Q}(p)=Q_1(\tilde{M}(p)),$ which for the binary tree is just $\tilde{Q}(p)=\tilde{M}(p)$

So, for the binary tree, constant efficiency is maintained so long as the work scales as $Q_1 = n = \Theta(p \log(p))$.

However, in this scaling mode, the time T_p and memory footprint per processor $\tilde{M}(p)/p$ grow with $\log p$

Isoefficiency and Scalability

- If we scale with constant efficiency, $T_p = \Theta(\tilde{Q}(p)/p)$ stays constant if isoefficiency function is $\tilde{Q}(p) = \Theta(p)$, but otherwise T_p grows with p
- ullet Growth rate of T_p or $\tilde{M}(p)/p$ may not be acceptable
- Isoefficiency function of $\Theta(p)$ is desirable, but for many problems is not attainable
- More achievable isoefficiency function is $\Theta(p \log p)$ or $\Theta(p\sqrt{p})$, for which T_p grows relatively slowly, like $\log p$ or \sqrt{p} , respectively, which may be acceptable
- Algorithm with isoefficiency function $\Theta(p^2)$ or higher has poor scalability, since T_p grows at least linearly with p

Example: Atmospheric Flow Model

Lets now analyze a simplified version of the previously mentioned iterative method for the atmospheric flow model

- 3-D $n_x imes n_y imes n_z$ grid with $n_z \ll n_x, n_y$
- 5-point stencil on x, y (horizontal) planes
- implicit solves along z (vertical) fibers

Assuming we can solve for each z-fiber with $\Theta(n_z)$ work,

- sequential work is $Q_1 = \Theta(n_x n_y n_z)$ per iteration
- depth $D = \Theta(n_z)$ per iteration assuming each implicit solve is nonparallelizable

1-D Agglomeration Strategy

- Partition: assign one grid point per fine-grain task
- Communicate: near-neighbor communication for 5-point horizontal stencil, all-to-all vertical communication for vertical solve
- Agglomerate: First, consider 1-D agglomeration along one horizontal dimension of 3-D grid, with subgrid of size $n_x \times (n_y/p) \times n_z$ assigned to each coarse-grain task

Cost Analysis: 3-D Grid, 1-D Agglomeration

We would like to find the costs (L,W,F) that will model the execution time as $T \approx \alpha L + \beta W + \gamma F$

 Since the parallel algorithm subdivides the mesh in a load balanced way and works in a fully concurrent manner,

$$F = Q_p/p = Q_1/p = \Theta(n_x n_y n_z/p)$$

• Each task exchanges $2n_xn_z$ grid points with each of its two neighbors, so

$$W = 2n_x n_z$$
 and $L = 2$

Thus

$$T_p = \alpha 2 + \beta 2n_x n_z + \Theta(\gamma n_x n_y n_z/p) = \alpha 2 + \beta 2n_x n_z + T_1/p$$

Efficiency Analysis: 3-D Grid, 1-D Agglomeration

Efficiency:

$$E_p = \frac{S_p}{p} = \frac{T_1}{pT_p} = \frac{T_1}{p(\alpha 2 + \beta 2n_x n_z + T_1/p)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 + \alpha 2p/T_1 + \beta 2n_x n_z p/T_1} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{\alpha}{\gamma} \frac{2p}{n_x n_y n_z} + \frac{\beta}{\gamma} \frac{2p}{n_y}}$$

Strong Scaling:

• 1-D agglomeration is strongly scalable ($E_{p_s} = \Theta(1)$) to

$$p_s = \Theta(\min[(\gamma/\alpha)n_x n_y n_z, (\gamma/\beta)n_y])$$

processors, for a given machine configuration $p_s = \Theta(n_y)$

• Amdahl's law gives us a lower bound, $S_{p_s} \leq Q_1/D = \Theta(n_x n_y n_z/n_z) = \Theta(n_x n_y)$, so we observe that 1-D agglomeration may not be optimal

Weak Scalability: 3-D Grid, 1-D Agglomeration

We have
$$E_p(n_x,n_y,n_z)=1/(1+\frac{\alpha}{\gamma}\frac{2p}{n_xn_yn_z}+\frac{\beta}{\gamma}\frac{2p}{n_y})$$
 Weak Scaling:

- To reason about weak scaling, we need a notion of increasing input size for this problem
 - can increase n_x, n_y, n_z proportionally
 - ullet can increase n_x, n_y while keeping n_z constant
- Assuming the latter, the weak scalability is characterized by constant

$$E_{p_w}(p_w^{1/2}n_x, p_w^{1/2}n_y, n_z) = 1/\left(1 + \frac{\alpha}{\gamma} \frac{2}{n_x n_y n_z} + \frac{\beta}{\gamma} \frac{2\sqrt{p_w}}{n_y}\right)$$

• As p_w grows, the last term in the denominator grows, so 1-D agglomeration is weakly scalable to

$$p_w = \Theta(((\gamma/\beta)n_y)^2)$$
 processors

Isoefficiency: 3-D Grid, 1-D Agglomeration

Isoefficiency gives a relative growth rate $\tilde{n}(p) = n_x(p) = n_y(p)$ needed to maintain constant efficiency, i.e.,

$$E_p(\tilde{n}(p), \tilde{n}(p), n_z) = 1 / \left(1 + \frac{\alpha}{\gamma} \frac{2p}{\tilde{n}(p)^2 n_z} + \frac{\beta}{\gamma} \frac{2p}{\tilde{n}(p)} \right) = \Theta(1)$$

The last term in the denominator implies we need $\tilde{n}(p) = \Theta(p)$

- The isoefficiency function is then $\tilde{Q}(p) = \Theta(p^2)$
- Memory footprint grows in the same fashion $\tilde{M}(p) = \Theta(p^2)$
- Further, we would have $T_p = \Theta(pT_1)$
- Both the memory footprint per processor and the execution time must grow linearly with the number of processors to maintain constant efficiency

Cost Analysis: 3-D Grid, 2-D Agglomeration

- Next consider 2-D agglomeration along both horizontal dimensions of 3-D grid, with subgrid of size $(n_x/\sqrt{p}) \times (n_y/\sqrt{p}) \times n_z$ assigned to each coarse-grain task
- For simplicity, we assume $n_x = n_y = n$, which is consistent with the scaling of input size of interest
- Each task exchanges a total of $2n_xn_z/\sqrt{p}+2n_yn_z/\sqrt{p}=4nn_z/\sqrt{p}$ points with its four neighbors, so

$$T_p = \alpha 4 + \beta 4nn_z/\sqrt{p} + \gamma n^2 n_z/p$$

Efficiency Analysis: 3-D Grid, 2-D Agglomeration

2-D agglomeration gives
$$E_p(n,n_z)=1/\Big(1+rac{lpha}{\gamma}rac{4p}{n^2n_z}+rac{eta}{\gamma}rac{4\sqrt{p}}{n}\Big)$$

• Setting $E_{p_s}(n,n_z)=\Theta(1)$ shows strong scalability to

$$p_s = \Theta(\min[(\gamma/\alpha)n^2n_z, (\gamma/\beta)^2n^2])$$
 processors

- Meaning 2-D agglomeration will strong scale until each processor owns a constant-sized subgrid of vertical fibers (where the constant depends on relative values of α, β, γ)
- Observing $E_p(n\sqrt{p},n_z)=\Theta(1)$ for any p, shows the algorithm is weakly scalable to an arbitrary number of processors!
- Since efficiency is maintained unconditionally when work increases at the same rate as the number of processors, the isoefficiency function is $\tilde{Q}(p) = \Theta(p)$

Network Topology Mapping: 3-D Grid

We consider mapping 1-D and 2-D agglomeration onto ideal choices of mesh networks

- 1-D mesh, 1-D agglomeration
 - For 1-D agglomeration, we can map blocks of agglomerated tasks onto each processor
 - Only neighboring processors communicate, so there is no network contention
 - Any network that can embed a 1-D mesh is as good
- 2-D mesh, 2-D agglomeration
 - For 2-D agglomeration, we can map 2-D blocks of agglomerated tasks onto each processor
 - Again only neighboring processors communicate, so there is no network contention
 - Any network that can embed a 2-D mesh is as good

Network Topology Mapping with Contention

The effect of network contention is evident when trying to map 2-D agglomeration onto a 1-D mesh

- Map block-columns of agglomerated tasks to each processor, effectively yielding 1-D agglomeration, and avoiding network contention
- Map a 2-D block of agglomerated tasks to each processor
 - One dimension can be mapped continuously, preserving near-neighbor communication
 - The other dimension would correspond to communication between processors \sqrt{p} hops away from each other, yielding $\Theta(\sqrt{p})$ slow-down due to network contention
 - Our execution time then becomes

$$T_p \approx \alpha 2\sqrt{p} + \beta 2nn_z + \gamma n^2 n_z/p$$

same bandwith cost as 1-D agglomeration, but more msgs

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