Outline

- Scalable parallel execution
- Parallel execution models
- Isoefficiency
- Parallel machine models
- Parallel performance engineering
Scalable Parallel Computing

- Scalability in parallel architecture
  - Processor numbers
  - Memory architecture
  - Interconnection network
  - Avoid critical architecture bottlenecks

- Scalability in computational problem
  - Problem size
  - Computational algorithms
    - Computation to memory access ratio
    - Computation to communication ratio

- Parallel programming models and tools

- Performance scalability
Performance Metrics and Formulas

- $T_1$ is the execution time on a single processor
- $T_p$ is the execution time on a $p$ processor system
- $S(p)$ ($S_p$) is the speedup
  \[ S(p) = \frac{T_1}{T_p} \]
- $E(p)$ ($E_p$) is the efficiency
  \[ \text{Efficiency} = \frac{S_p}{p} \]
- $Cost(p)$ ($C_p$) is the cost
  \[ Cost = p \times T_p \]
- Parallel algorithm is cost-optimal
  - Parallel time = sequential time ($C_p = T_1$, $E_p = 100\%$)
**Amdahl’s Law (Fixed Size Speedup)**

- Let $f$ be the fraction of a program that is sequential
  - $1-f$ is the fraction that can be parallelized
- Let $T_1$ be the execution time on 1 processor
- Let $T_p$ be the execution time on $p$ processors
- $S_p$ is the **speedup**
  
  \[ S_p = \frac{T_1}{T_p} = \frac{T_1}{(fT_1 + (1-f)T_1/p)} = \frac{1}{(f + (1-f)/p)} \]

- As $p \to \infty$
  \[ S_p = \frac{1}{f} \]
Amdahl’s Law and Scalability

- **Scalability**
  - Ability of parallel algorithm to achieve performance gains proportional to the number of processors and the size of the problem

- When does Amdahl’s Law apply?
  - When the problem size is fixed
  - *Strong scaling* ($p \to \infty$, $S_p = S_\infty \to 1 / f$)
  - Speedup bound is determined by the degree of sequential execution time in the computation, not # processors!!
  - Uhh, this is not good … Why?
  - Perfect efficiency is hard to achieve

- See original paper by Amdahl on webpage
Gustafson-Barsis’ Law (Scaled Speedup)

- Often interested in larger problems when scaling
  - How big of a problem can be run (HPC Linpack)
  - Constrain problem size by parallel time

- Assume parallel time is kept constant
  - \( T_p = C = (f + (1-f)) \times C \)
  - \( f_{seq} \) is the fraction of \( T_p \) spent in sequential execution
  - \( f_{par} \) is the fraction of \( T_p \) spent in parallel execution

- What is the execution time on one processor?
  - Let \( C=1 \), then \( T_s = f_{seq} + p(1 - f_{seq}) = 1 + (p-1)f_{par} \)

- What is the speedup in this case?
  - \( S_p = T_s / T_p = T_s / 1 = f_{seq} + p(1 - f_{seq}) = 1 + (p-1)f_{par} \)
Gustafson-Barsis’ Law and Scalability

- Scalability
  - Ability of parallel algorithm to achieve performance gains proportional to the number of processors and the size of the problem

- When does Gustafson’s Law apply?
  - When the problem size can increase as the number of processors increases
    - Weak scaling \( S_p = 1 + (p-1)f_{par} \)
    - Speedup function includes the number of processors!!!
    - Can maintain or increase parallel efficiency as the problem scales

- See original paper by Gustafson on webpage
Why Aren’t Parallel Applications Scalable?

- Sequential performance
- Critical Paths
  - Dependencies between computations spread across processors
- Bottlenecks
  - One processor holds things up
- Algorithmic overhead
  - Some things just take more effort to do in parallel
- Communication overhead
  - Spending increasing proportion of time on communication
- Load Imbalance
  - Makes all processor wait for the “slowest” one
  - Dynamic behavior
- Speculative loss
  - Do A and B in parallel, but B is ultimately not needed
Critical Paths

- Long chain of dependence
  - Main limitation on performance
  - Resistance to performance improvement

- Diagnostic
  - Performance stagnates to a (relatively) fixed value
  - Critical path analysis

- Solution
  - Eliminate long chains if possible
  - Shorten chains by removing work from critical path
Bottlenecks

- How to detect?
  - One processor A is busy while others wait
  - Data dependency on the result produced by A

- Typical situations:
  - N-to-1 reduction / computation / 1-to-N broadcast
  - One processor assigning job in response to requests

- Solution techniques:
  - More efficient communication
  - Hierarchical schemes for master slave

- Program may not show ill effects for a long time
- Shows up when scaling
Algorithmic Overhead

- Different sequential algorithms to solve the same problem
- All parallel algorithms are sequential when run on 1 processor
- All parallel algorithms introduce addition operations (Why?)
  - Parallel overhead
- Where should be the starting point for a parallel algorithm?
  - Best sequential algorithm might not parallelize at all
  - Or, it doesn’t parallelize well (e.g., not scalable)
- What to do?
  - Choose algorithmic variants that minimize overhead
  - Use two level algorithms
- Performance is the rub
  - Are you achieving better parallel performance?
  - Must compare with the best sequential algorithm
What is the maximum parallelism possible?

- Depends on application, algorithm, program
  - Data dependencies in execution

- Remember MaxPar
  - Analyzes the earliest possible “time” any data can be computed
  - Assumes a simple model for time it takes to execute instruction or go to memory
  - Result is the maximum parallelism available

- Parallelism varies!

512-point FFT parallel signature

CIS 410/510: Parallel Computing, University of Oregon, Spring 2015
**Embarrassingly Parallel Computations**

- No or very little communication between processes
- Each process can do its tasks without any interaction with other processes

**Examples**
- Numerical integration
- Mandelbrot set
- Monte Carlo methods
Calculating \( \pi \) with Monte Carlo

- Consider a circle of unit radius
- Place circle inside a square box with side of 2 in

The ratio of the circle area to the square area is:

\[
\frac{\pi \times 1 \times 1}{2 \times 2} = \frac{\pi}{4}
\]
Monte Carlo Calculation of $\pi$

- Randomly choose a number of points in the square
- For each point $p$, determine if $p$ is inside the circle
- The ratio of points in the circle to points in the square will give an approximation of $\pi/4$
Analytical / Theoretical Techniques

- Involves simple algebraic formulas and ratios
  - Typical variables are:
    - data size ($N$), number of processors ($P$), machine constants
  - Want to model performance of individual operations, components, algorithms in terms of the above
    - be careful to characterize variations across processors
    - model them with max operators
  - Constants are important in practice
    - use asymptotic analysis carefully

- Scalability analysis
  - Isoefficiency (Kumar)
**Isoefficiency**

- Goal is to quantify scalability
- How much increase in problem size is needed to retain the same efficiency on a larger machine?

### Efficiency

- \[ \frac{T_1}{(p \cdot T_p)} \times 100\% \]
- \( T_p = \text{computation} + \text{communication} + \text{idle} \)

### Isoefficiency

- Equation for equal-efficiency curves
- If no solution
  - problem is not scalable in the sense defined by isoefficiency

- See original paper by Kumar on webpage
Scalability of Adding $n$ Numbers

- Scalability of a parallel system is a measure of its capacity to increase speedup with more processors.
- Adding $n$ numbers on $p$ processors with strip partition:

\[ T_{\text{par}} = \frac{n}{p} - 1 + 2 \log p \]

\[ \text{Speedup} = \frac{n - 1}{\frac{n}{p} - 1 + 2 \log p} \approx \frac{n}{\frac{n}{p} + 2 \log p} \]

\[ \text{Efficiency} = \frac{S}{p} = \frac{n}{n + 2p \log p} \]
Problem Size and Overhead

- Informally, problem size is expressed as a parameter of the input size.
- A consistent definition of the size of the problem is the total number of basic operations \( T_{seq} \).
  - Also refer to problem size as “work” \( W = T_{seq} \).
- Overhead of a parallel system is defined as the part of the time (cost) NOT in the best serial algorithm.
- Denoted by \( T_O \), it is a function of \( W \) and \( p \):
  \[
  T_O(W,p) = pT_{par} - W \quad (pT_{par} \text{ includes overhead})
  \]
  \[
  T_O(W,p) + W = pT_{par}
  \]
**Isoefficiency Function**

- With a fixed efficiency, $W$ is a function of $p$

$$T_{par} = \frac{W + T_o(W, p)}{p}$$

$$W = T_{seq}$$

**Speedup**

$$\text{Speedup} = \frac{W}{T_{par}} = \frac{Wp}{W + T_o(W, p)}$$

**Efficiency**

$$\text{Efficiency} = \frac{S}{p} = \frac{W}{W + T_o(W, p)} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{T_o(W, p)}{W}}$$

$$E = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{T_o(W, p)}{W}} \rightarrow T_o(W, p) = \frac{W}{E} = 1 - E$$

$$W = \frac{E}{1 - E} T_o(W, p) = KT_o(W, p) \quad \text{Isoefficiency Function}$$
Isoefficiency Function of Adding n Numbers

- Overhead function:
  \( T_0(W,p) = pT_{par} - W = 2p \log(p) \)

- Isoefficiency function:
  \( W = K \cdot 2p \log(p) \)

- If \( p \) doubles, \( W \) needs also to be doubled to roughly maintain the same efficiency

- Isoefficiency functions can be more difficult to express for more complex algorithms

\[
T_{par} = \frac{n}{p} - 1 + 2 \log p
\]

\[
Speedup = \frac{n - 1}{\frac{n}{p} - 1 + 2 \log p}
\]

\[
\approx \frac{n}{\frac{n}{p} + 2 \log p}
\]

\[
Efficiency = \frac{S}{p} = \frac{n}{n + 2p \log p}
\]
More Complex Isoefficiency Functions

- A typical overhead function $T_O$ can have several distinct terms of different orders of magnitude with respect to both $p$ and $W$

- We can balance $W$ against each term of $T_O$ and compute the respective isoefficiency functions for individual terms
  - Keep only the term that requires the highest grow rate with respect to $p$
  - This is the asymptotic isoefficiency function
Isoefficiency

- Consider a parallel system with an overhead function

\[ T_o = p^{3/2} + p^{3/4}W^{3/4} \]

- Using only the first term

\[ W = Kp^{3/2} \]

- Using only the second term

\[ W = Kp^{3/4}W^{3/4} \]
\[ W^{1/4} = Kp^{3/4} \]
\[ W = K^4 p^3 \]

- \( K^4 p^3 \) is the overall asymptotic isoeficiency function
Parallel Computation (Machine) Models

- PRAM (parallel RAM)
  - Basic parallel machine
- BSP (Bulk Synchronous Parallel)
  - Isolates regions of computation from communication
- LogP
  - Used for studying distribute memory systems
  - Focuses on the interconnection network
- Roofline
  - Based in analyzing “feeds” and “speeds”
**PRAM**

- Parallel Random Access Machine (PRAM)
- Shared-memory multiprocessor model
- Unlimited number of processors
  - Unlimited local memory
  - Each processor knows its ID
- Unlimited shared memory
- Inputs/outputs are placed in shared memory
- Memory cells can store an arbitrarily large integer
- Each instruction takes unit time
- Instructions are synchronized across processors (SIMD)
PRAM Complexity Measures

- For each individual processor
  - Time: number of instructions executed
  - Space: number of memory cells accessed

- PRAM machine
  - Time: time taken by the longest running processor
  - Hardware: maximum number of active processors

- Technical issues
  - How processors are activated
  - How shared memory is accessed
**Processor Activation**

- $P_0$ places the number of processors ($p$) in the designated shared-memory cell
  - Each active $P_i$, where $i < p$, starts executing
  - $O(1)$ time to activate
  - All processors halt when $P_0$ halts

- Active processors explicitly activate additional processors via FORK instructions
  - Tree-like activation
  - $O(\log p)$ time to activate
PRAM is a Theoretical (Unfeasible) Model

- Interconnection network between processors and memory would require a very large amount of area
- The message-routing on the interconnection network would require time proportional to network size
- Algorithm’s designers can forget the communication problems and focus their attention on the parallel computation only
- There exist algorithms simulating any PRAM algorithm on bounded degree networks
- Design general algorithms for the PRAM model and simulate them on a feasible network
Classification of PRAM Models

- **EREW (Exclusive Read Exclusive Write)**
  - No concurrent read/writes to the same memory location

- **CREW (Concurrent Read Exclusive Write)**
  - Multiple processors may read from the same global memory location in the same instruction step

- **ERCW (Exclusive Read Concurrent Write)**
  - Concurrent writes allowed

- **CRCW (Concurrent Read Concurrent Write)**
  - Concurrent reads and writes allowed

**Order of Performance:**

- \( CRCW > (ERCW, CREW) > EREW \)
CRCW PRAM Models

- **COMMON**: all processors concurrently writing into the same address must be writing the same value
- **ARBITRARY**: if multiple processors concurrently write to the address, one of the competing processors is randomly chosen and its value is written into the register
- **PRIORITY**: if multiple processors concurrently write to the address, the processor with the highest priority succeeds in writing its value to the memory location
- **COMBINING**: the value stored is some combination of the values written, e.g., sum, min, or max
- **COMMON-CRCW** model most often used
## Complexity of PRAM Algorithms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problem</th>
<th>EREW</th>
<th>CRCW</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Search</td>
<td>$O(\log n)$</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List Ranking</td>
<td>$O(\log n)$</td>
<td>$O(\log n)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefix</td>
<td>$O(\log n)$</td>
<td>$O(\log n)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tree Ranking</td>
<td>$O(\log n)$</td>
<td>$O(\log n)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finding Minimum</td>
<td>$O(\log n)$</td>
<td>$O(1)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**BSP Overview**

- Bulk Synchronous Parallelism
- A parallel programming model
- Invented by Leslie Valiant at Harvard
- Enables performance prediction
- SPMD (Single Program Multiple Data) style
- Supports both direct memory access and message passing semantics
- BSPlib is a BSP library implemented at Oxford
Components of BSP Computer

- A set of processor-memory pairs
- A communication point-to-point network
- A mechanism for efficient barrier synchronization of all processors
BSP Supersteps

- A BSP computation consists of a sequence of supersteps.
- In each superstep, processes execute computations using locally available data, and issue communication requests.
- Processes synchronized at the end of the superstep, at which all communications issued have been completed.
**BSP Performance Model Parameters**

- \( p \) = number of processors
- \( l \) = barrier latency, cost of achieving barrier synchronization
- \( g \) = communication cost per word
- \( s \) = processor speed
- \( l, g, \) and \( s \) are measured in FLOPS
- Any processor sends and receives at most \( h \) messages in a single superstep (called \( h \)-relation communication)
- Time for a superstep = max number of local operations performed by any one processor + \( g \times h + l \)
The LogP Model (Culler, Berkeley)

- **Processing**
  - Powerful microprocessor, large DRAM, cache $\Rightarrow P$

- **Communication**
  - Significant latency (100's of cycles) $\Rightarrow L$
  - Limited bandwidth (1 – 5% of memory) $\Rightarrow g$
  - Significant overhead (10's – 100's of cycles) $\Rightarrow o$
    - on both ends
    - no consensus on topology
    - should not exploit structure
  - Limited capacity

- **No consensus on programming model**
  - Should not enforce one
LogP

- **P** (processors)
- **L** (latency) - Latency in sending a (small) message between modules
- **o** (overhead) - Overhead felt by the processor on sending or receiving message
- **g** (gap) - Gap between successive sends or receives (1/BW)
- **P** (processors)

**Interconnection Network**

Limited Volume (\( L/g \) to or from a processor)
LogP "Philosophy"

- Think about:
  - Mapping of N words onto P processors
  - Computation within a processor
    - its cost and balance
  - Communication between processors
    - its cost and balance

- Characterize processor and network performance

- Do not think about what happens in the network

- This should be enough
## Typical Values for g and l

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>System</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>g</th>
<th>l</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Multiprocessor Sun</td>
<td>2-4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>50-100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SGI Origin 2000</td>
<td>2-8</td>
<td>10-15</td>
<td>1000-4000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IBM-SP2</td>
<td>2-8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2000-5000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOW (Network of Workstations)</td>
<td>2-8</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>5000-20000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Parallel Programming

- To use a scalable parallel computer, you must be able to write parallel programs
- You must understand the programming model and the programming languages, libraries, and systems software used to implement it
- Unfortunately, parallel programming is not easy
Parallel Programming: Are we having fun yet?
Parallel Programming Models

- Two general models of parallel program
  - Task parallel
    - problem is broken down into tasks to be performed
    - individual tasks are created and communicate to coordinate operations
  - Data parallel
    - problem is viewed as operations of parallel data
    - data distributed across processes and computed locally

- Characteristics of scalable parallel programs
  - Data domain decomposition to improve data locality
  - Communication and latency do not grow significantly
Shared Memory Parallel Programming

- Shared memory address space
- (Typically) easier to program
  - Implicit communication via (shared) data
  - Explicit synchronization to access data
- Programming methodology
  - Manual
    - multi-threading using standard thread libraries
  - Automatic
    - parallelizing compilers
    - OpenMP parallelism directives
  - Explicit threading (e.g. POSIX threads)
Distributed Memory Parallel Programming

- Distributed memory address space
- (Relatively) harder to program
  - Explicit data distribution
  - Explicit communication via messages
  - Explicit synchronization via messages
- Programming methodology
  - Message passing
    - plenty of libraries to choose from (MPI dominates)
    - send-receive, one-sided, active messages
  - Data parallelism
Parallel Programming: Still a Problem?
Parallel Computing and Scalability

- Scalability in parallel architecture
  - Processor numbers
  - Memory architecture
  - Interconnection network
  - Avoid critical architecture bottlenecks

- Scalability in computational problem
  - Problem size
  - Computational algorithms
    - computation to memory access ratio
    - computation to communication ratio

- Parallel programming models and tools

- Performance scalability
Parallel Performance and Complexity

- To use a scalable parallel computer well, you must write high-performance parallel programs.
- To get high-performance parallel programs, you must understand and optimize performance for the combination of programming model, algorithm, language, platform, ...
- Unfortunately, parallel performance measurement, analysis and optimization can be an easy process.
- Parallel performance is complex.
Parallel Performance Evaluation

- Study of performance in parallel systems
  - Models and behaviors
  - Evaluative techniques

- Evaluation methodologies
  - Analytical modeling and statistical modeling
  - Simulation-based modeling
  - Empirical measurement, analysis, and modeling

- Purposes
  - Planning
  - Diagnosis
  - Tuning
Parallel Performance Engineering and Productivity

- Scalable, optimized applications deliver HPC promise
- Optimization through *performance engineering* process
  - Understand performance complexity and inefficiencies
  - Tune application to run optimally on high-end machines
- How to make the process more effective and productive?
- What performance technology should be used?
  - Performance technology part of larger environment
  - Programmability, reusability, portability, robustness
  - Application development and optimization productivity
- Process, performance technology, and its use will change as parallel systems evolve
- Goal is to deliver effective performance with high productivity value now and in the future
Motivation

- Parallel / distributed systems are complex
  - Four layers
    - application
      - algorithm, data structures
    - parallel programming interface / middleware
      - compiler, parallel libraries, communication, synchronization
    - operating system
      - process and memory management, IO
    - hardware
      - CPU, memory, network
- Mapping/interaction between different layers
Performance Factors

- Factors which determine a program's performance are complex, interrelated, and sometimes hidden

- Application related factors
  - Algorithms dataset sizes, task granularity, memory usage patterns, load balancing. I/O communication patterns

- Hardware related factors
  - Processor architecture, memory hierarchy, I/O network

- Software related factors
  - Operating system, compiler/preprocessor, communication protocols, libraries
Utilization of Computational Resources

- Resources can be under-utilized or used inefficiently
  - Identifying these circumstances can give clues to where performance problems exist
- Resources may be “virtual”
  - Not actually a physical resource (e.g., thread, process)
- Performance analysis tools are essential to optimizing an application's performance
  - Can assist you in understanding what your program is "really doing”
  - May provide suggestions how program performance should be improved
Performance Analysis and Tuning: The Basics

- Most important goal of performance tuning is to reduce a program's wall clock execution time
  - Iterative process to optimize efficiency
  - Efficiency is a relationship of execution time
- So, where does the time go?
- Find your program's hot spots and eliminate the bottlenecks in them
  - **Hot spot**: an area of code within the program that uses a disproportionately high amount of processor time
  - **Bottleneck**: an area of code within the program that uses processor resources inefficiently and therefore causes unnecessary delays
- Understand what, where, and how time is being spent
**Sequential Performance**

- Sequential performance is all about:
  - How time is distributed
  - What resources are used where and when
- “Sequential” factors
  - Computation
    - choosing the right algorithm is important
    - compilers can help
  - Memory systems and cache and memory
    - more difficult to assess and determine effects
    - modeling can help
  - Input / output
Parallel Performance

- Parallel performance is about sequential performance AND parallel interactions
  - Sequential performance is the performance within each thread of execution
  - “Parallel” factors lead to overheads
    - concurrency (threading, processes)
    - interprocess communication (message passing)
    - synchronization (both explicit and implicit)
  - Parallel interactions also lead to parallelism inefficiency
    - load imbalances
Sequential Performance Tuning

- Sequential performance tuning is a time-driven process
- Find the thing that takes the most time and make it take less time (i.e., make it more efficient)
- May lead to program restructuring
  - Changes in data storage and structure
  - Rearrangement of tasks and operations
- May look for opportunities for better resource utilization
  - Cache management is a big one
  - Locality, locality, locality!
  - Virtual memory management may also pay off
- May look for opportunities for better processor usage
Parallel Performance Tuning

- In contrast to sequential performance tuning, parallel performance tuning might be described as *conflict-driven* or *interaction-driven*

- Find the points of parallel interactions and determine the overheads associated with them

- Overheads can be the cost of performing the interactions
  - Transfer of data
  - Extra operations to implement coordination

- Overheads also include time spent waiting
  - Lack of work
  - Waiting for dependency to be satisfied
Interesting Performance Phenomena

- Superlinear speedup
  - Speedup in parallel execution is greater than linear
  - $S_p > p$
  - How can this happen?

- Need to keep in mind the relationship of performance and resource usage

- Computation time (i.e., real work) is not simply a linear distribution to parallel threads of execution

- Resource utilization thresholds can lead to performance inflections
Parallel Performance Engineering Process