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ABSTRACT

[C] In this paper, we study the problem of scheduling a set of tasks on a set of processors. The tasks are represented by a directed acyclic graph (DAG) where the nodes represent the tasks and the edges represent the dependencies between them. The processors are represented by a set of nodes. The goal is to assign each task to a processor such that the dependencies are satisfied and the total execution time is minimized. We propose a new scheduling algorithm called "Greedy Scheduling" which assigns tasks to processors in a greedy manner. We prove that our algorithm is optimal for a certain class of DAGs. We also provide experimental results showing that our algorithm performs well on a wide range of DAGs.

CCS CONCEPTS

Algorithms and Complexity Theory → Scheduling algorithms; Graph algorithms; Complexity theory

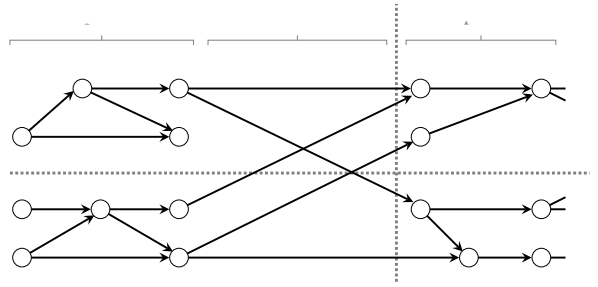
KEYWORDS

Task scheduling; Directed acyclic graphs; Greedy algorithms; Complexity theory

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36th ACM Symposium on Parallelism in Algorithms and Architectures (SPAA 2024), <https://doi.org/10.1145/3626183.3659972>.

In this paper, we study the problem of scheduling a set of tasks on a set of processors. The tasks are represented by a directed acyclic graph (DAG) where the nodes represent the tasks and the edges represent the dependencies between them. The processors are represented by a set of nodes. The goal is to assign each task to a processor such that the dependencies are satisfied and the total execution time is minimized. We propose a new scheduling algorithm called "Greedy Scheduling" which assigns tasks to processors in a greedy manner. We prove that our algorithm is optimal for a certain class of DAGs. We also provide experimental results showing that our algorithm performs well on a wide range of DAGs.



$$C_{work}(s) = \max_{p \in \{1, \dots, P\}} \sum_{\substack{\pi(v)=p \\ \tau(v)=s}} w(v) .$$

$$\bigwedge_{\substack{(v, p_1, p_2, s_1) \in \Gamma \\ p_1 = p \\ s_1 = s}} c(v) ,$$

$$\bigwedge_{\substack{(v, p_1, p_2, s_1) \in \Gamma \\ p_2 = p \\ s_1 = s}} c(v) ,$$

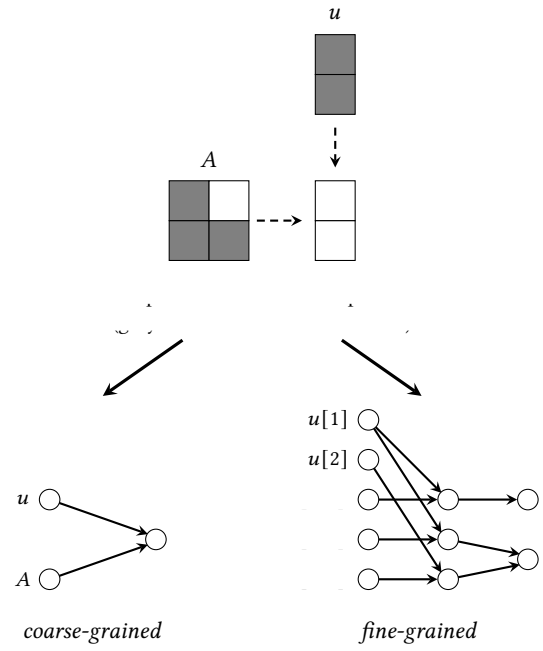
$$C_{comm}(s) = \max_{p \in \{1, \dots, P\}} \max (C_{send}(p, s), C_{rec}(p, s)) .$$

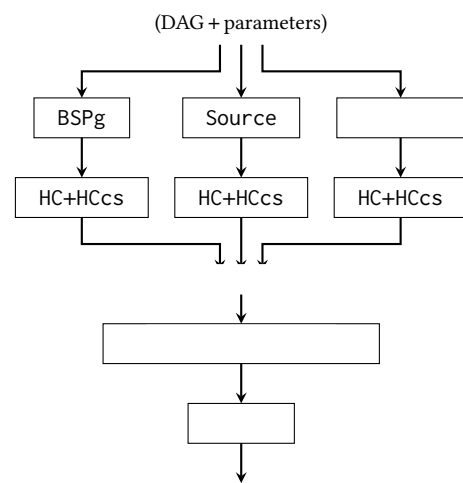
$$C(s) = C_{work}(s) + g \cdot C_{comm}(s) + \ell ,$$

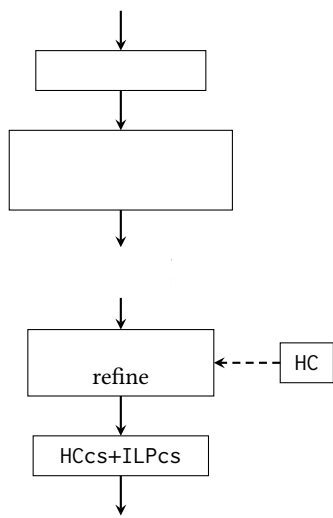
future. Once we cannot assign further nodes to at least half

- Source: A different greedy approach that in each step forms a new source. The algorithm uses a simple rule to cluster the original source round-robin-based approach to assign the current source work costs between processors. Besides the current source successors to the current superstep, if this requires no extra

4.4 ILP-based approach



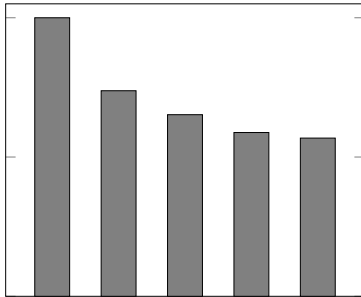
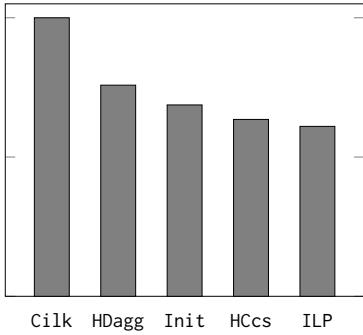
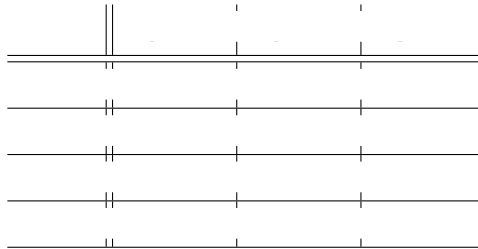
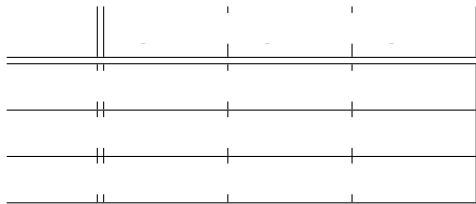




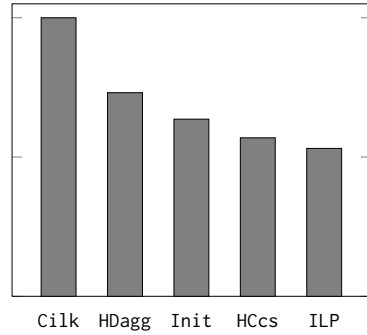
datasets, for $P \in \{4, 8, 16\}$, $q \in \{1, 3, 5\}$ and $\ell = 5$, without NUMA.

schedules separately (see Appendix C for details). Our experiments

all the parameters $P \in \{8, 16\}$ and $\Delta \in \{2, 3, 4\}$, our method provides



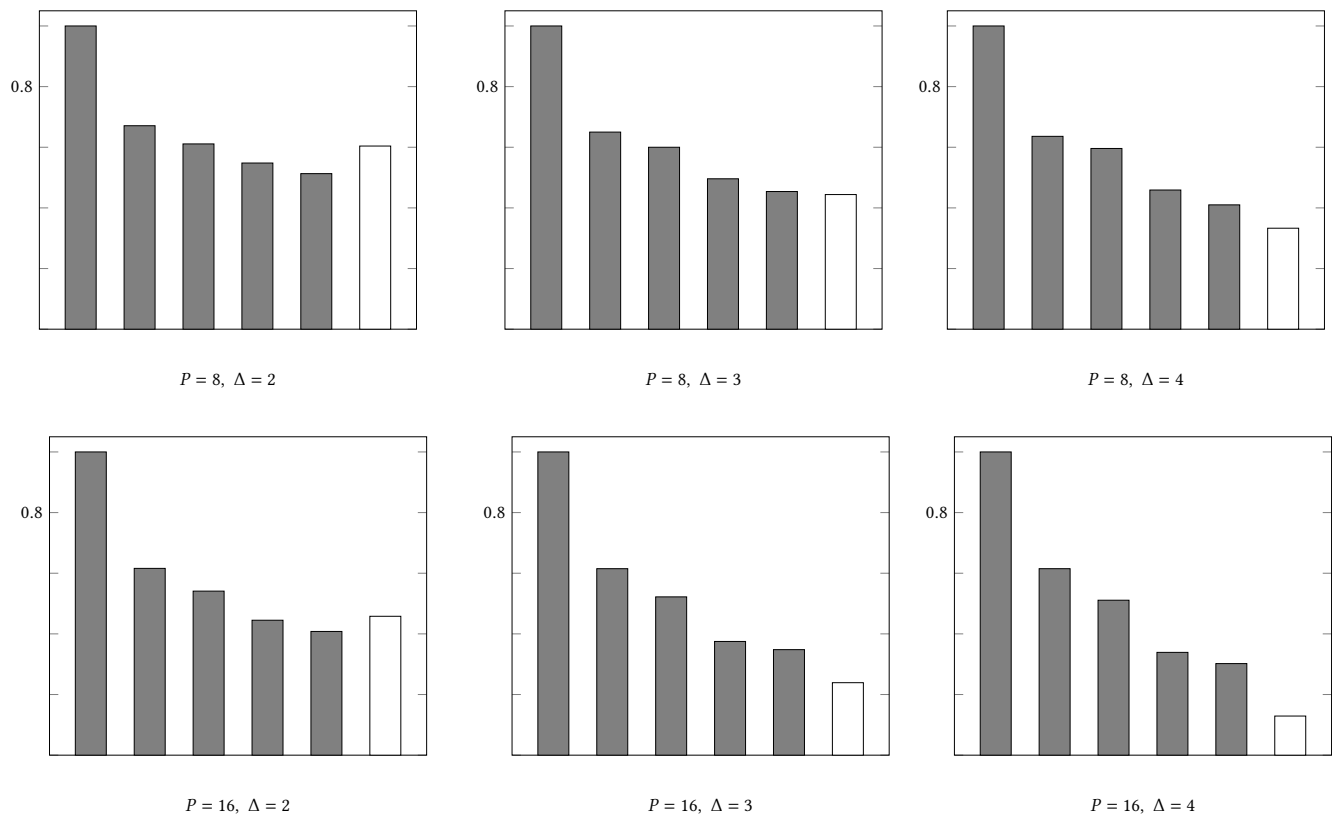
$g = 3$



$P = 8$	48% / 27%	55% / 35%	61% / 42%
$P = 16$	57% / 36%	67% / 51%	71% / 58%

be able to provide significantly better schedules for many relevant applications.

(e.g. if we have $\Delta=4$, or if we only have $\Delta=3$ but $P=16$, and hence



and different NUMA increase factors $\Delta \in \{2, 3, 4\}$. The multilevel approach (ML) is shown separately at the end. This specific figure only covers the small, medium and large datasets, since tiny is too small to coarsify with ML; however, in general, our improvement factors in Section 7.2 and Appendix C also include tiny.

work, the same approach could become an efficient tool for any

8 CONCLUSION

$P = 16$	54% / 26%	76% / 61%	87% / 79%

method is indeed a specialized tool, which is useful mostly when

time-consuming: HC+HCcs and Multi typically take between 1-2

still be reduced significantly, in general, it is inevitable that this

- when the computation can be captured in a coarse-grained way by relatively small DAGs, but possibly still with large

suboptimal.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We would like to thank Benjamin Lozes for his valuable help with

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<https://github.com/Algebraic-Programming/OneStopParallel>.

Python scripts.

an external dependency [46].

processors become idle (it finishes computing a node), it takes the

phase can last at most until time t ; hence we assign all nodes that

putations, i.e. solving sparse linear systems defined by a triangular

available, we directly apply this in our experiments: we convert

end if

$free[\pi(v)] \leftarrow True$

$ready \leftarrow ready \cup \{u\}$

if $\forall (u_0, u) \in E$ we have either $\pi(u_0) = \pi(v)$ or $\tau(u_0) <$

end while

```

superstep  $\leftarrow 0$ 

sources  $\leftarrow$  all unassigned  $v \in V$  with  $\text{indeg}(v) = 0$ 

if  $v$  shares an out-neighbor with another  $u \in \text{sources}$ 

     $\pi(v) \leftarrow p, \tau(v) \leftarrow \text{superstep}$ 

     $p \leftarrow (p + 1) \text{ modulo } P$ 

     $\pi(v) \leftarrow p, \tau(v) \leftarrow \text{superstep}$ 

     $p \leftarrow (p + 1) \text{ modulo } P$ 

for all edges  $(v, u) \in E$  with  $v \in \text{sources}$  do

     $\pi(u) \leftarrow \pi(v), \tau(u) \leftarrow \text{superstep}$ 
end if

superstep  $\leftarrow \text{superstep} + 1$ 

```

schedule.

Our hill climbing methods take an initial solution (BSP schedule)

node v . In particular, if we currently have $\pi(v) = p$ and $\tau(v) = s$, we consider all the solutions for where we have $\pi(v) \in \{1, \dots, P\}$ (i.e. v on any processor) and $\tau(v) \in \{(s - 1), s, (s + 1)\}$ (i.e. v in the

$(s - 1)$ (unless $p = \pi(v)$). This ensures that whenever we consider

predecessors/successors.

move option, also updating our data structures efficiently.

ules with $(v, \pi(v), p, s) \in \Gamma$ for different possible $s \in [\tau(v), s_0 - 1]$.

For both hill climbing methods, there are two possible variants:

u can potentially be even larger than $|V_0|$, hence if we add

the constraint $|u| \leq |V_0|$, we can ensure that u is not too large. This constraint can be added to the ILP formulation. The ILP solver will then find a solution that satisfies all constraints, including the new one. This ensures that the size of u is bounded by $|V_0|$.

solution.

munication steps (v, p_1, p_2, s) where v was computed before S_0 , it is only required on p_2 after S_0 , but our Γ still just hap-

pened. This is because the communication steps are only required on p_2 after S_0 , but our Γ still just happened. This is because the communication steps are only required on p_2 after S_0 , but our Γ still just happened.

As mentioned before, we use the CBC open-source solver [7] for solving the ILP problems described above. Since ILPfull tries

5 minutes, similarly to HC+HCs. We select an even shorter time

limit. This is because the communication steps are only required on p_2 after S_0 , but our Γ still just happened. This is because the communication steps are only required on p_2 after S_0 , but our Γ still just happened.

the ILP solver will then find a solution that satisfies all constraints, including the new one. This ensures that the size of u is bounded by $|V_0|$. The ILP solver will then find a solution that satisfies all constraints, including the new one. This ensures that the size of u is bounded by $|V_0|$.

step that satisfy this property. In particular, an edge $(u, v) \in E$ can

be used to compute the value of $c(u)$. This is because the communication steps are only required on p_2 after S_0 , but our Γ still just happened. This is because the communication steps are only required on p_2 after S_0 , but our Γ still just happened.

largest $c(u)$ value.

This is because the communication steps are only required on p_2 after S_0 , but our Γ still just happened. This is because the communication steps are only required on p_2 after S_0 , but our Γ still just happened.

(possibly many) original nodes contracted into u , maybe only a few

based on summed weights $c(u)$, then this is only an upper bound

on the number of original nodes contracted into u . This is because the communication steps are only required on p_2 after S_0 , but our Γ still just happened. This is because the communication steps are only required on p_2 after S_0 , but our Γ still just happened.

(u', v') such that there is a long directed path from u to v' , and

However, this difference is only relevant from a theoretical modelling perspective, to emphasize the fact that even if a node v has needs to be sent to p once; due to this, for partitioning problems, it containing v and all its out-neighbors. For our work, this is simply DAG, and hence it has no effect. In fact, all of our algorithms begin

B.1 Coarse-grained DAGs

[45], and extended this with a so-called HyperDAG backend. The BLAS algorithm and gather meta-data during this run, which is then

solvers (e.g. Conjugate Gradient for positive definite systems, or

We note that while larger containers (matrices, vectors) are easy

represents combining $\text{indeg}(v)$ distinct values, $\text{indeg}(v) - 1$ is a

$A^k \cdot u$, by executing k distinct spmv operations. This compu-

- CG: the well-known conjugate gradient method for finding a

iterations.

ILPinit: 1	ILPinit: 0	ILPinit: 0
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Table 6: Improvement achieved by our scheduler (without NUMA) for each combination of g , P and dataset, with respect to Cilk

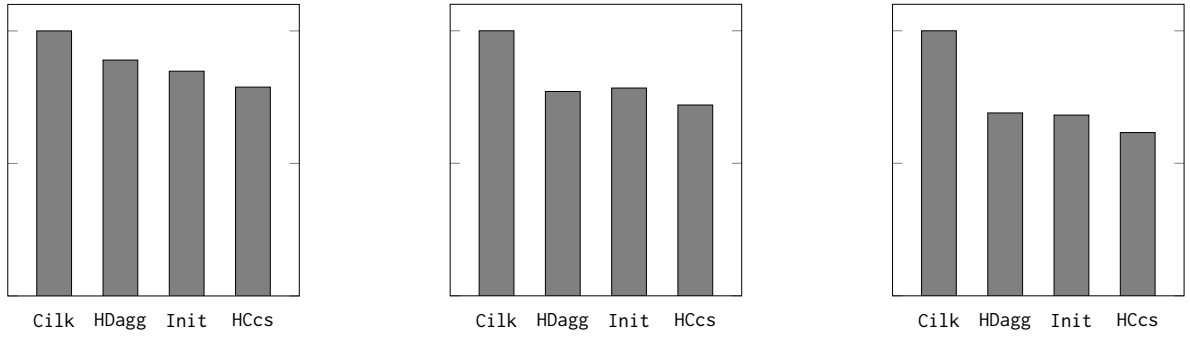
	$P = 4$	$P = 8$	$P = 16$	$P = 4$	$P = 8$	$P = 16$	$P = 4$	$P = 8$	$P = 16$
tiny	41%/34%	33%/28%	20%/16%	49%/43%	40%/36%	28%/26%	54%/49%	30%/36%	33%/32%
small	33%/23%	41%/25%	39%/20%	40%/28%	46%/31%	46%/30%	43%/30%	46%/32%	49%/35%
medium	31%/14%	43%/17%	53%/20%	38%/16%	47%/20%	56%/27%	42%/18%	47%/20%	58%/31%
large	27%/ 9%	41%/13%	53%/16%	34%/ 8%	46%/12%	56%/21%	38%/ 7%	46%/12%	58%/13%

	BL-EST	ETF	Cilk	HDagg	Init	HCcs	ILPpart	ILPcs
tiny	1.126	0.883	1	0.943	0.728	0.619	0.57	0.569
small	1.54	1.073	1	0.791	0.66	0.579	0.556	0.539
medium	1.896	1.254	1	0.658	0.592	0.542	0.529	0.506
large	2.142	1.517	1	0.609	0.591	0.547	0.542	0.521

$P = 8$	33%	31%	32%
$P = 16$	22%	27%	28%

$\ell = 2$	$\ell = 5$	$\ell = 10$	$\ell = 20$
38% / 16%	43% / 17%	50% / 19%	58% / 21%

margin.



C.4 Experiments with NUMA

tree, $P = 4$ gives a very shallow hierarchy with only two levels. Similarly, we only considered $a = 1$, since with $P = 16$ and $\Delta = 4$,

Init+HC+HCcs provides an improvement of 11%, 7% and 11% (for

reduction compared to Cilk (for $P = 4, 8, 16$, respectively). The local search methods then further improve this by 7%, 8% and 10%

these much larger DAGs, without applying our ILP-based methods,

	$\Delta = 2$	$\Delta = 3$	$\Delta = 4$	$\Delta = 2$	$\Delta = 3$	$\Delta = 4$
tiny	43% / 39%	57% / 54%	66% / 64%	45% / 45%	68% / 68%	77% / 78%
small	48% / 31%	55% / 40%	60% / 47%	55% / 38%	66% / 52%	71% / 59%
medium	50% / 23%	55% / 30%	58% / 35%	61% / 34%	67% / 44%	69% / 49%
large	49% / 14%	54% / 18%	57% / 20%	61% / 28%	67% / 38%	69% / 42%

$P = 4$	15% / 9%	22% / 12%	26% / 13%
$P = 8$	24% / 7%	30% / 6 %	30% / 7%
$P = 16$	35% / 9%	39% / 11%	41% / 13%

$P = 8$	30% / 7%	34% / 7%	37% / 7%
$P = 16$	41% / 12%	45% / 16%	48% / 21%

Our multilevel algorithm answers this question, demonstrating that with NUMA costs ($P \in \{8, 16\}$, $\Delta \in \{2, 3, 4\}$), there were as many as 39% cases that could not find a solution with lower than trivial cost; however, with $P = 8$ and $\Delta = 2$, the success rate was only 8 out of 396. These numbers are understood over all datasets except tiny (where multilevel scheduling was not applied,

algorithm (separately for $P \in \{8, 16\}$, $\Delta \in \{2, 3, 4\}$) are shown in

approach clearly remains inferior when $\Delta = 2$, it is approximately equally strong when $\Delta = 2$ and $P = 8$, and is clearly superior when

and $q = 1$ (still understood over all datasets except tiny). While

itself (intuitively, to decide if coarsification is even necessary, or in

	$\Delta = 2$	$\Delta = 3$	$\Delta = 4$	$\Delta = 2$	$\Delta = 3$	$\Delta = 4$

	$\Delta = 2$	$\Delta = 3$	$\Delta = 4$	$\Delta = 2$	$\Delta = 3$	$\Delta = 4$
C ₁₅	1.353	1.136	0.912	1.291	0.813	0.506
C ₃₀	1.195	1.014	0.871	1.141	0.774	0.502
C _{opt}	1.179	0.979	0.812	1.122	0.711	0.429