Parallel Computing - Notes - v0.2.0-dev 260236

October 2024

Preface

Every theory section in these notes has been taken from the sources:

• Course slides. [1]

About:

GitHub repository

These notes are an unofficial resource and shouldn't replace the course material or any other book on parallel computing. It is not made for commercial purposes. I've made the following notes to help me improve my knowledge and maybe it can be helpful for everyone.

As I have highlighted, a student should choose the teacher's material or a book on the topic. These notes can only be a helpful material.

Contents

1	\mathbf{PR}	PRAM					
	1.1	Prerequisites	4				
	1.2		4				
	1.3	How it works	5				
		1.3.1 Computation	5				
		1.3.2 PRAM Classificiation	5				
		1.3.3 Strengths of PRAM	6				
		1.3.4 How to compare PRAM models	6				
	1.4	MVM algorithm	8				
	1.5	SPMD sum	10				
	1.6	MM algorithm	14				
	1.7	PRAM variants and Lemmas	15				
Ind	lex	-	17				

1 PRAM

1.1 Prerequisites

Before we introduce the PRAM model, we need to cover some useful topics.

- A Machine Model describes a "machine". It gives a value to the operations on the machine. It is necessary because: it makes it easy to deal with algorithms; it achieves complexity bounds; it analyses maximum parallelism.
- A Random Access Machine (RAM) is a model of computation that describes an abstract machine in the general class of register machines. Some features are:
 - Unbounded number of local memory cells;
 - Each memory cell can hold an integer of **unbounded** size;
 - Instruction set includes simple operations, data operations, comparator, branches;
 - All operations take **unit time**;
 - The definition of time complexity is the number of instructions executed:
 - The definition of space complexity is the number of memory cells used.

1.2 Definition

Definition 1: PRAM

A parallel random-access machine (parallel RAM or PRAM)s a shared-memory abstract machine. As its name indicates, the PRAM is intended as the parallel-computing analogy to the random-access machine (RAM) (not to be confused with random-access memory). In the same way that the RAM is used by sequential-algorithm designers to model algorithmic performance (such as time complexity), the PRAM is used by parallel-algorithm designers to model parallel algorithmic performance (such as time complexity, where the number of processors assumed is typically also stated).

The PRAM model has many interesting features:

- Unbounded collection of RAM processors $(P_0, P_1, \text{ and so on})$;
- Processors don't have tape;
- Each processor has unbounded registers;
- Unbounded collection of share memory cells;
- All processors can access all memory cells in unit time;
- All communication via shared memory.

1 PRAM 1.3 How it works

1.3 How it works

1.3.1 Computation

A single **processor** of the PRAM, at each computation, is **composed of 5 phases** (carried out in parallel by all the processors):

- 1. Reads a value from one of the cells $X\left(1\right),\ldots,X\left(N\right)$
- 2. Reads one of the shared memory cells $A(1), A(2), \ldots$
- 3. Performs some internal computation
- 4. May write into one of the output cells $Y(1), Y(2), \ldots$
- 5. May write into one of the shared memory cells $A(1), A(2), \ldots$

1.3.2 PRAM Classificiation

During execution, a subset of processors may remain idle. Also, some processors can read from the same cell at the same time (not really a problem), but they could also try to write to the same cell at the same time (**write conflict**). For these reasons, PRAMs are classified according to their read/write capabilities (realistic and useful):

- Exclusive Read (ER). All processors can simultaneously read from distinct memory locations.
- Exclusive Write (EW). All processors can simultaneously write to distinct memory locations.
- Concurrent Read (CR). All processors can simultaneously read from any memory location.
- Concurrent Write (CW). All processors can write to any memory location.

? But what value is ultimately written?

It depends on the mode we choose:

- Priority Concurrent Write. Processors have priority based on which value is decided, the highest priority is allowed to complete write.
- Common Concurrent Write. All processors are allowed to complete write if and only if all the value to be written are equal.
 Any algorithm for this model has to make sure that this condition is satisfied. Otherwise, the algorithm is illegal and the machine state will be undefined.
- Arbitrary/Random Concurrent Write. One randomly chosen processor is allowed to complete write.

1 PRAM 1.3 How it works

1.3.3 Strengths of PRAM

PRAM is attractive and important model for designers of parallel algorithms because:

- It is **natural**. The number of operations executed per one cycle on P processors is at most P (equal to P is the ideal case).
- It is **strong**. Any processor can read/write any shared memory cell in unit time.
- It is simple. It abstracts from any communication or synchronization overhead, which makes the complexity and correctness of PRAM algorithm easier.
- It can be used as a **benchmark**. If a problem has no feasible/efficient solution on PRAM, it has no feasible/efficient solution for any parallel machine.

1.3.4 How to compare PRAM models

Consider two generic PRAMs, models A and B. Model A is **computationally stronger** than model B ($A \ge B$) **if and only if any algorithm** written for model B will **run unchanged** on model A in the **same parallel time** and with the **same basic properties**.

However, there are some useful metrics that can be used to compare models:

• Time to solve problem of input size n on <u>one</u> processor, using best sequential algorithm:

$$T^*\left(n\right) \tag{1}$$

• Time to solve problem of input size n on p processors:

$$T_{p}\left(n\right)$$
 (2)

• Speedup on p processors:

$$SU_{p}(n) = \frac{T^{*}(n)}{T_{p}(n)}$$
(3)

• Efficiency, which is the work done by a processor to solve a problem of input size n divided by the work done by p processors:

$$E_{p}(n) = \frac{T_{1}(n)}{pT_{p}(n)}$$

$$\tag{4}$$

• Shortest run time on any process p:

$$T_{\infty}\left(n\right)$$
 (5)

1 PRAM 1.3 How it works

• Cost, equal to processors and time:

$$C(n) = P(n) \cdot T(n) \tag{6}$$

• Work, equal to the total number of operations:

$$W\left(n\right) \tag{7}$$

Some properties on the metrics:

• The time to solve a problem of input n on a single processor using the best sequential algorithm is not equal to the time to solve a problem of input n in parallel using one of the p processors available. In other words, the problem should not be solvable on a single processor on a parallel machine (otherwise, what would be the point of using a parallel model?)

$$T^* \neq T_1$$

- $SU_P \le P$
- $SU_P \le \frac{T_1}{T_{\infty}}$
- $E_p \leq 1$
- $T_1 \ge T^* \ge T_p \ge T_\infty$
- $T^* \approx T_1 \Rightarrow E_p \approx \frac{T^*}{pT_p} = \frac{\mathrm{SU}_p}{p}$
- $E_p = \frac{T_1}{pT_p} \le \frac{T_1}{pT_\infty}$
- $T_1 \in O(C), T_p \in O\left(\frac{C}{p}\right)$
- $\bullet \ W \leq C$
- $p \approx \text{AREA}$ $W \approx \text{ENERGY}$ $\frac{W}{T_p} \approx \text{POWER}$

1.4 MVM algorithm

The Matrix-Vector Multiply (MVM) algorithm consists of four steps:

- 1. Concurrent read of vector X(1:n) (transfer N elements);
- 2. Simultaneous reads of different sections of the general matrix A (transfer $\frac{n^2}{p}$ elements to each processor);
- 3. Compute $\frac{n^2}{p}$ operations per processor;
- 4. Simultaneous writes (transfer $\frac{n}{p}$ elements from each processor).

Let i be the processor index, so the MVM algorithm is simply written as:

```
GLOBAL READ (Z \leftarrow X)

GLOBAL READ (B \leftarrow A_i)

COMPUTE (W := BZ)

GLOBAL WRITE (W \rightarrow y_i)
```

Algorithm 1: Matrix-Vector Multiply (MVM)

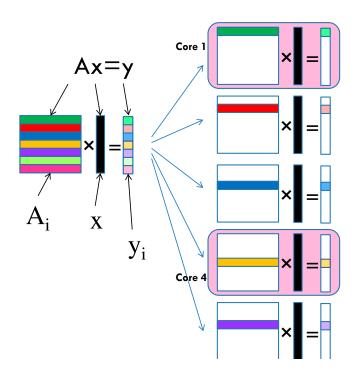


Figure 1: Example of MVM algorithm.

The performance of the MVM algorithm is as follows:

• The **time to solve** a problem of size n^2 is equal to the big O of the squared size of the problem as input divided by the number of processors available:

$$T_p\left(n^2\right) = O\left(\frac{n^2}{p}\right)$$

• The **cost** is equal to the number of processors and the time it takes to solve the problem. So it is quite trivial:

$$C = O\left(\cancel{p} \cdot \frac{n^2}{\cancel{p}} \right) = O\left(n^2\right)$$

• The work is equal to the cost, and the linear power P is equal to the ratio of work and time to solve the problem on p processors:

$$W = C \qquad \frac{W}{T_p} = P$$

• The **perfect efficiency** is equal to:

$$E_p = \frac{T_1}{pT_p} = \frac{n^2}{p\frac{n^2}{p}} = 1$$

1.5 SPMD sum

The Single Program Multiple Data (SPMD) is a term that has been used to describe computational models for exploiting parallelism, where multiple processors work together to execute a program to get results faster.

In this section, we will see an SPMD approach on a Parallel Random Access Machine (PRAM). We will introduce one of the most common and simple mathematical operations: the sum.

The following pseudocode takes as **input an array** of size $n = 2^k$. In this case, n is a power of 2 because it ensures that the array can be evenly divided at each step of the computation. The value k is the number of iterations or levels of the summation process.

```
GLOBAL READ (A \leftarrow A(I))
2
        GLOBAL WRITE (A 
ightarrow B(I))
3
        FOR H = 1 : K
             IF i \leq n \div 2^h THEN BEGIN
                   GLOBAL READ (X \leftarrow B(2i -
                   GLOBAL READ (Y \leftarrow B(2i))
                   Z := X + Y
                   GLOBAL WRITE (Z \rightarrow B(i))
9
              END
        IF I = 1 THEN
11
              GLOBAL WRITE (Z \rightarrow S)
12
13 END
```

Algorithm 2: Single Program Multiple Data (SPMD) sum

- First, read the entire input array A and copy the read data to another array B.
- Loop over h (1 to k). In each iteration, for each index i less than or equal to $n \div 2^h$, read values from array B at positions 2i 1 and 2i; sum these values (and store the result in Z) and store the result (Z) back into B(i).
- Once all iterations are complete, the final sum is stored in a variable S.

For example, if n = 8, then k would be 3, meaning that the algorithm will run for 3 iterations to sum all the elements in parallel.

\overline{h}	i	adding
	1	1,2
1	2	3,4
1	3	5,6
	4	7,8
2	1	1,2
2	2	3,4
3	1	1,2



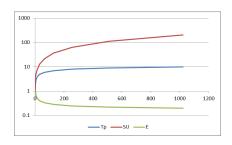
Figure 2: Computation of the sum of eight elements on a PRAM with eight processors. Each internal node represents a sum operation. The specific processor executing the operation is indicated below each node.

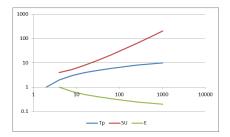
Performance of sum

When the size of the array is equal to the number of processors (N = P), the speedup and efficiency decrease:

- $\bullet \ T^*\left(N\right) = T_1\left(N\right) = N$
- $\bullet \ T_{N=P}(N) = 2 + \log N$
- $SU_P = \frac{N}{2 + \log N}$
- $T^*(N) = P \cdot (2 + \log N) \approx N \log N$

$$\bullet \ E_p = \frac{T_1}{pT_p} = \frac{N}{N\log N} = \frac{1}{\log N}$$





If the size of the array is much larger than the number of processors $(N \gg P)$, the speedup and power are linear, the cost is fixed and the efficiency is maximum (equal to 1):

•
$$T^*(N) = T_1(N) = N$$

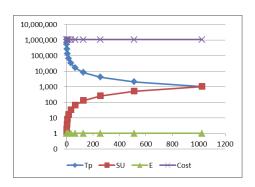
•
$$T_p(N) = \frac{N}{p} + \log p$$

•
$$SU_P = \frac{N}{\frac{N}{p} + \log p} \approx P$$

• COST =
$$p\left(\frac{N}{p} + \log p\right) \approx N$$

• WORK =
$$N + P \approx N$$

•
$$E_p = \frac{T_1}{pT_p} = \frac{N}{p\left(\frac{N}{p} + \log p\right)} \approx 1$$



n = 1'000'000

Example 1

Refer to Figure 2 (page 11), the performance metrics are:

- $T_8 = 5$
- $C = 8 \cdot 5 = 40$ (could do 40 steps)
- W = 2n = 16 (16 on 40, wasted 24)
- $E_p = \frac{2}{\log n} = \frac{2}{3} = 0.67$
- $\frac{W}{C} = \frac{16}{40} = 0.4$

There is also the **Prefix Sum**, which takes **advantage of idle processors in the sum**. It computes all prefix sums:

$$S_i = \sum_{1}^{i} a_j$$
 a_1 , $a_1 + a_2$, $a_1 + a_2 + a_3$

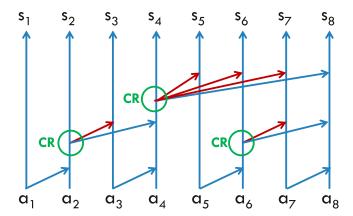


Figure 4: Prefix sum.

1.6 MM algorithm

The Matrix Multiply (MM) algorithm consists of three steps:

- 1. Compute the two matrices $A_{i,l}$ and $B_{l,j}$, so use the concurrent read.
- 2. Make the **sum**.
- 3. **Store** the result using exclusive write.

```
BEGIN  T_{i,j,l} = A_{i,l}B_{l,j} \\ T_{i,j,l} = A_{i,l}B_{l,j} \\ FOR = H = 1 : K \\ IF \ l \leq n \div 2^h \ \text{THEN} \\ T_{i,j,l} = T_{i,j,2l-1} + T_{i,j,2l} \\ IF \ l = 1 \ \text{THEN} \\ C_{i,j} = T_{i,j,1} \\ END
```

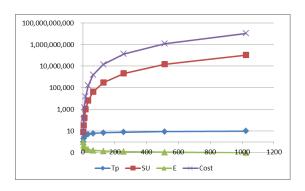
Algorithm 3: Matrix Multiply (MM)

Performance of MM

- $T_1 = n^3$
- $\bullet \ T_{p=n^3} = \log n$

•
$$SU = \frac{n^3}{\log n}$$

- $Cost = n^3 \log n$
- $\bullet \ E_p = \frac{T_1}{pT_p} = \frac{1}{\log n}$



1.7 PRAM variants and Lemmas

The PRAM model presented here is one of the most commonly used. However, there are other important variants:

- PRAM model with a **limited number of shared memory cells** (small memory PRAM). If the input data set exceeds the capacity of the shared memory, the I/O values can be evenly distributed among the processors.
- PRAM model with **limited number of processors** (small PRAM). If the number of execution threads is higher, processors can interleave multiple threads.
- PRAM model with **limited size of one machine word**.
- PRAM model with access conflicts handling. These are restrictions on simultaneous access to shared memory cells.

Lemma 1. Assume P' < P and same size of shared memory. Any problem that can be solved for a P processor PRAM in T steps can be solved in a P' processor PRAM in:

$$T' = O\left(\frac{TP}{P'}\right) \tag{8}$$

Proof. Partition P is simulated processors into P' groups of size $\frac{P}{P'}$ each. Associate each of the P' simulating processors with one of these groups. Each of the simulating processors simulates one step of its group of processors by:

- Executing all their read and local computation substeps first;
- Executing their write substeps then.

QED

Lemma 2. Assume M' < M. Any problem that can be solved for a P processor and M-cell PRAM in T steps can be solved on a $\max(P, M')$ -processors M'-cell PRAM in $O\left(\frac{TM}{M'}\right)$ steps.

Proof. Partition M simulated shared memory cells into M' continuous segments S, of size $\frac{M}{M'}$ each. Each simulating processor P'_I ($1 \le I \le P$), will simulate processor P_I of the original PRAM. Each simulating processor P'_I ($1 \le I \le M'$), stores the initial contents of S_I into its local memory and will use M'[I] as an auxiliary memory cell for simulation of accesses to cell of S_I . Simulation of one original read operation:

```
EACH P_I' (I=1,\ldots,\max(P,M')) REPEATS FOR K = 1, ..., \frac{M}{M'} WRITE THE VALUE OF THE K-TH CELL OF S_I INTO M'[I] (I=1,\ldots,M') READ THE VALUE WHICH THE SIMULATED PROCESSOR P_I (I=1,\ldots,P) WOULD READ IN THIS SIMULATED SUBSTEP, IF IT APPEARED IN THE SHARED MEMORY
```

The local computation substep of P_I $(I=1,\ldots,P)$ is simulated in one step by P_I' . Simulation of one original write operation is analogous to that of read. QED

References

[1] Ferrandi Fabrizio. Parallel computing. Slides from the HPC-E master's degree course on Politecnico di Milano, 2024.

Index

A Arbitrary Concurrent Write	5
C Common Concurrent Write Concurrent Read (CR) Concurrent Write (CW)	5 5 5
E Exclusive Read (ER) Exclusive Write (EW)	5 5
I i	4
M Machine Model Matrix Multiply (MM) algorithm Matrix-Vector Multiply (MVM) algorithm	4 14 8
Parallel Random-Access Machine (parallel RAM or PRAM) Prefix Sum Priority Concurrent Write	$4 \\ 13 \\ 5$
R Random Access Machine (RAM) Random Concurrent Write	4 5
Single Program Multiple Data (SPMD)	10