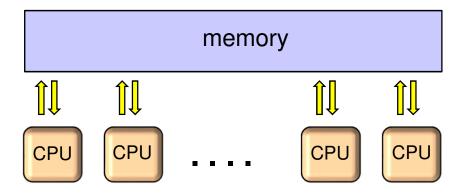
#### PRAM 1 Model and basic algorithms

CS121 Parallel Computing Fall 2021



#### PRAM



- Parallel Random Access Machine, generalizes von Neumann model for sequential computing.
  - ☐ Given input of size n, we have f(n) processors accessing a shared memory.
    - f(n) can be very large, even larger than n.
  - □ All processors execute in synchronized steps.
  - □ In each step, each processor reads a memory location, computes, then writes a memory location.



#### **PRAM**

- Theoretically interesting model, but not practical.
  - □ Assumes unrealistically large number of processors.
  - □ Also assumes all processors can communicate every time step; ignores memory latency and bandwidth.
- PRAM's main use is as a simple, clean model to develop parallel algorithms.
  - ☐ First maximize parallelism inherent in problem using PRAM.
  - □ Then simulate the algorithm with real hardware, i.e. map it onto hardware with limited processors / communication.
  - Ex Some GPU algorithms are adaptations of PRAM algorithms.



#### Memory conflicts

- What if processors read / write to the same memory location in same time step?
- EREW Exclusive read exclusive write.
  - ☐ Most restrictive model. Algorithm returns error if processors read/write same location simultaneously.
- CREW Concurrent read exclusive write.
  - Several processors can read same location simultaneously, but error if they write.
- ERCW Exclusive read concurrent write.
  - □ Uncommon.
- CRCW Concurrent read concurrent write.
  - □ If multiple writes to same location, can either
    - Let an arbitrary write succeed.
    - Choose a write according to some priority to succeed.



#### Work and depth

- Depth is the number of (parallel) steps till a PRAM algorithm terminates.
  - Polylogarithmic depth means the algorithm terminates in O(log(n)<sup>k</sup>) steps, where n is input size and k is constant.
  - Goal for PRAM algorithms is often polylog depth using O(n<sup>k</sup>) number of processors.
- Work is total number of steps taken by the algorithm.
  - □ Work of parallel algorithm ≥ O(work of best sequential algorithm).
  - If the work is equal, the parallel algorithm is workefficient.
- In practice, minimizing work of PRAM algorithm is more important than minimizing depth.

- Suppose we want to add two n-digit binary numbers, but we can only add a single digit at a time and compute its carry.
  - □ This is what's provided by full adders in a CPU.
- If we add digit by digit using the grade school method, it takes O(n) time.
  - $\square$  For n=32 or n=64, this is much too slow.
- Each digit in the sum depends on the digit from the summands, but also a carry bit from the previous digit.
  - The summand digits can be added in parallel, but it seems the carry bits must be computed sequentially.

a <sub>i</sub>	b <sub>i</sub>	Ci	s <sub>i</sub>	C <sub>i+1</sub>
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1	0
0	1	0	1	0
0	1	1	0	1
1	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	1
1	1	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1

#### b/A

- We'll show how to compute all the carry bits in parallel in O(log n) time using n processors.
- After this, all the sum bits can be computed in O(1) parallel time, since  $s_i = a_i \oplus b_i \oplus c_i$ .
- Denote bitwise AND and OR by · and +.
- Define  $g_i = a_i b_i$  as i'th "carry generate" bit.
  - $\square$  If  $a_i=b_i=1$ ,  $c_{i+1}=1$  no matter what  $c_i$  is.
- Define  $p_i = a_i \oplus b_i$  as i'th "carry propagate" bit.
  - $\square$  If  $p_i=1$ , then  $c_{i+1}=c_i$ .



- We have  $c_{i+1} = g_i + c_i p_i$ .
- Carry the i+1'st bit if
  - □ i'th bit of a and b generate a carry, OR
  - We carried the i'th bit, and this was propagated by a and b's i'th bit.
- We can also verify  $c_{i+1} = g_i + c_i p_i$  directly.

a <sub>i</sub>	b <sub>i</sub>	Ci	g <sub>i</sub>	p <sub>i</sub>	C <sub>i+1</sub>
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	1	0
0	1	1	0	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	1	1
1	1	0	1	0	1
1	1	1	1	0	1

- Observation Can write  $\begin{bmatrix} p_i & g_i \\ F & T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_i \\ T \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_i p_i + g_i \\ T \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_{i+1} \\ T \end{bmatrix}$ 
  - □ Recall · and + represent AND and OR.
  - □ Boolean matrix multiplication done same way as for reals.
- Applying this repeatedly, we get

$$\begin{bmatrix} c_{i+1} \\ T \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} p_i & g_i \\ F & T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_i \\ T \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} p_i & g_i \\ F & T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} p_{i-1} & g_{i-1} \\ F & T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_{i-1} \\ T \end{bmatrix} = \cdots$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} p_i & g_i \\ F & T \end{bmatrix} \cdots \begin{bmatrix} p_1 & g_1 \\ F & T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ T \end{bmatrix}$$

- Since all the p<sub>i</sub> and g<sub>i</sub> values are known, the final product can be computed using prefix sum in O(log n) time with n processors.
- This algorithm or variants are implemented in most real CPUs.

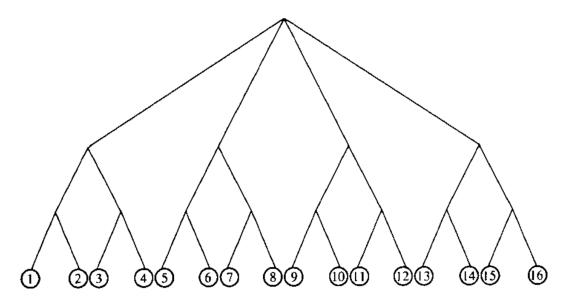
## Constant time max finding

- Using a balanced binary tree we can find the max of n numbers in  $O(\log n)$  time and O(n) work.
- We show how to find max in  $O(\log \log n)$  time using O(n) work on a min priority CRCW PRAM.
  - □ I.e. when multiple Boolean values are written to same location, the min value wins.
- First, we can find the max of p numbers  $x_1, ..., x_p$  in O(1) time and  $O(p^2)$  work on the CRCW PRAM.
  - □ For  $1 \le i, j \le p$ , in parallel set B(i, j) = 1 if  $x_i \ge x_j$ , and B(i, j) = 0 otherwise.
    - Uses  $p^2$  processors.
  - □ For  $1 \le i \le p$ , in parallel set  $M_i = B(i, 1) \land B(i, 2) \land \cdots \land B(i, p)$ .
    - $M_i = 1$  iff  $x_i$  is the max value.
    - This requires that when 0's and 1's are written to the same  $M_i$ , the minimum value (i.e. 0) gets written.



#### Doubly logarithmic tree

- Create a tree with the  $x_i$ 's at the leaves.
- For each internal node u, let  $n_u$  be the number of leaves in the subtree rooted at u. Make the degree of u be  $\lceil \sqrt{n_u} \rceil$ .
  - $\square$  For simplicity, assume  $n=2^{2^k}$ . Then the tree has  $k=\log\log n$  levels.
  - □ The root of the tree has degree  $2^{2^{k-1}} = \sqrt{n}$ .
  - $\square$  Each child of the root has degree  $2^{2^{k-2}}$ .
  - □ In general, at level  $0 \le i \le k-1$ , each node has degree  $2^{2^{k-i-1}}$ , and there are  $2^{2^{k-2^{k-i}}}$  nodes total at the level.



Source: Introduction to Parallel Algorithms, Jaja

#### Superfast max finding

- Suppose each node computes the max of all its children.
  - □ Then each node has the max of all the leaf nodes in its subtree, and the root has the overall max value.
  - $\square$  To compute the max of p children takes  $O(p^2)$  work.
- Total time for algorithm is  $O(\log \log n)$ .
- Total work per level is  $O\left(\left(2^{2^{k-i-1}}\right)^2 \cdot 2^{2^k-2^{k-i}}\right) = O\left(2^{2^k}\right) = O(n).$ 
  - $\square$  Total overall work is  $O(n \log \log n)$ . So the algorithm isn't work efficient.

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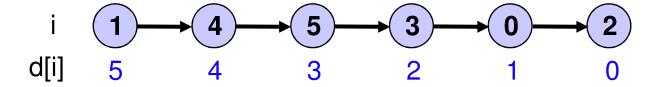
#### Superfast max finding

- To make the previous algorithm work efficient, we use a technique called accelerated cascading.
  - Start with an optimal algorithm until problem size is sufficiently small.
  - □ Then switch to fast but nonoptimal algorithm.
- First, partition the n values into  $n' = n/\log \log n$  blocks of size  $\log \log n$  each.
  - □ Use  $n/\log\log n$  processors. Each processor sequentially finds the max of one block of values.
  - $\square$  This takes  $O(\log \log n)$  time and does O(n) work.
  - $\square$  Then use the doubly logarithmic tree on the n' values.
    - This runs for  $O(\log \log n') = O(\log \log n)$  time.
    - It does  $O(n' \log \log n') = O(n)$  work.

#### List ranking

- Given a linked list, compute the distance of each node to the end.
  - Linked list is represented by an array next, where next[i] initially points to node following node i.
  - □ next[i]=NULL for the last node.
- Let d[i] be i's estimate of its distance to the end.
  - □ Initially d[i]=0 for the last node, and d[i]=1 for all other nodes.

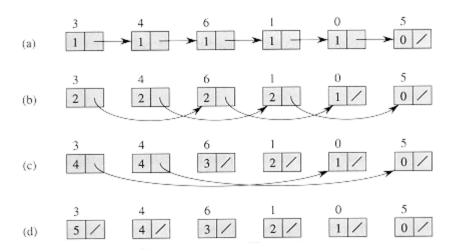




# List ranking

- Repeatedly apply pointer jumping.
  - $\square$  If currently  $i \rightarrow j$  and  $j \rightarrow k$ , set  $i \rightarrow k$ .
- Let k be a node that's distance m away from the end, for some m.
  - $\square$  After i steps, d[k]=min(m,2<sup>i</sup>), and next[k] points min(m,2<sup>i</sup>) distance away.
- Since  $d[*] \le n$ , algorithm terminates in  $O(\log n)$  steps.
- Work is O(n log n).
  - □ Not efficient, since sequential list ranking takes O(n) work.
- List ranking has many applications, including Euler tour technique, connected components, expression tree evaluation, ear decomposition, etc.

```
while next[i]≠NULL for some i
  do parallel for all i
    if next[i]≠NULL
    d[i]=d[i]+d[next[i]]
    next[i]=next[next[i]]
```

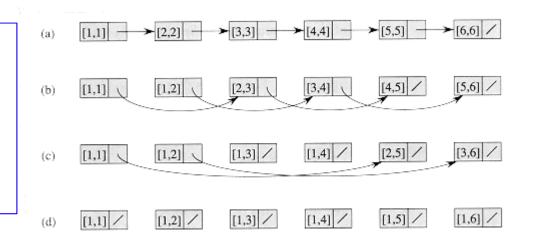




#### Prefix sum on linked list

- We've seen how to do prefix sum on an array.
- Using pointer jumping, can also do prefix sum on a linked list.
  - □ Initially each node i has a value x[i].
  - □ The output, i.e. prefix sum of node i is stored in d[i].
  - Only difference with list ranking is update d[next[i]] instead of d[i].
- After i steps, first 2<sup>i</sup> nodes have correct prefix sum, and other nodes have the sum of the preceding 2<sup>i</sup> values.
- Takes O(log n) time, does O(n log n) work.

```
do parallel for all i
  d[i]=x[i]
while next[i]≠NULL for some i
  do parallel for all i
    if next[i]≠NULL
     d[next[i]]=d[i]+d[next[i]]
     next[i]=next[next[i]]
```



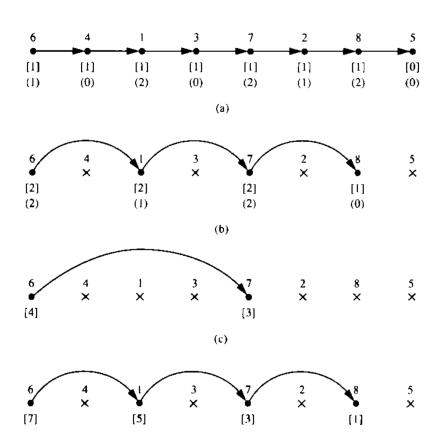
#### Work efficient list ranking

- List ranking using pointer jumping does  $O(n \log n)$  work.
- To make list ranking efficient, we can
  - $\square$  Shrink the list until only  $O(n/\log n)$  nodes remain.
  - □ Apply pointer jumping to remaining nodes.
  - □ Restore the removed nodes and determine their ranks.
- Assume first and third steps take O(n) work.
- Then second step takes  $O(\frac{n}{\log n}\log(\frac{n}{\log n})) = O(n)$  work, so total work is O(n).

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#### Work efficient list ranking

- To shrink the list, we repeatedly remove an independent set of nodes.
  - □ A set of nodes I is independent if  $\forall i \in I$ :  $(prev(i) \notin I) \land (next(i) \notin I)$ .
  - □ Suppose we have a set of n nodes. We show next lecture how find  $\Omega(n)$  independent nodes in  $O(\log n)$  time and O(n) work.
- Given an independent set I, for each  $i \in I$  set dist[prev[i]] = dist[prev[i]] + dist[i].
- To compute distance of a removed node i, set dist[i] = dist[i] + dist[next[i]].



- values in parentheses are used to find independent set.
- dist values are shown in brackets.

#### Work efficient list ranking

- Since each round we remove  $\Omega(n)$  number of remaining nodes, it takes  $O(\log \log n)$  rounds to shrink the list to size  $O(n/\log n)$ .
  - $\square$  After this the pointer jumping takes  $O(\log n)$  time.
- Each round takes  $O(\log n)$  time to find the independent set.
- So total time is  $O(\log n \log \log n)$ .
  - $\square$  Time can be reduced to  $O(\log n)$  using more efficient algorithm.
- In round k, number of remaining nodes is  $O(c^k n)$  for some c < 1.
- So total work to find independent sets in all rounds is  $\sum_{k=0}^{\log \log n} O(c^k n) = O(n)$ .
- Pointer jumping does O(n) work, so total work is O(n).