COL380

Introduction to Parallel & Distributed Programming

Agenda

- Formal Models of Parallel Computational
 - → Actor model
 - → PRAM model

Formal Models of Computation

- · Simplify specifying, reasoning, analyzing algorithms
- Must abstract away many details
 - → Should predict computability
- Should track performance
- General classes
 - → Shared Memory vs Distributed Memory
 - → Synchronous vs Asynchronous

Concurrent/Parallel Computation Models

- Actors
- Communicating Sequential Processes
- Parallel Random Access Machine
- Bulk Synchronous Parallel computation

Actors Model

- Actors: autonomous computing agents
 - → No shared state; interact with each other using messages
 - Asynchronous, Lossless, Unordered
 - Have a (addressed) mailbox for communication (allows buffering)
- Actors process messages in their mailbox, in response:
 - → sends zero or more messages
 - creates zero or more new actors
 - changes its own local state (impacts the next message, 'local computation')

[See: Hewitt, Bishop, Steiger, "A Universal Modular Actor Formalism for Artificial Intelligence," IJCAI 1973]

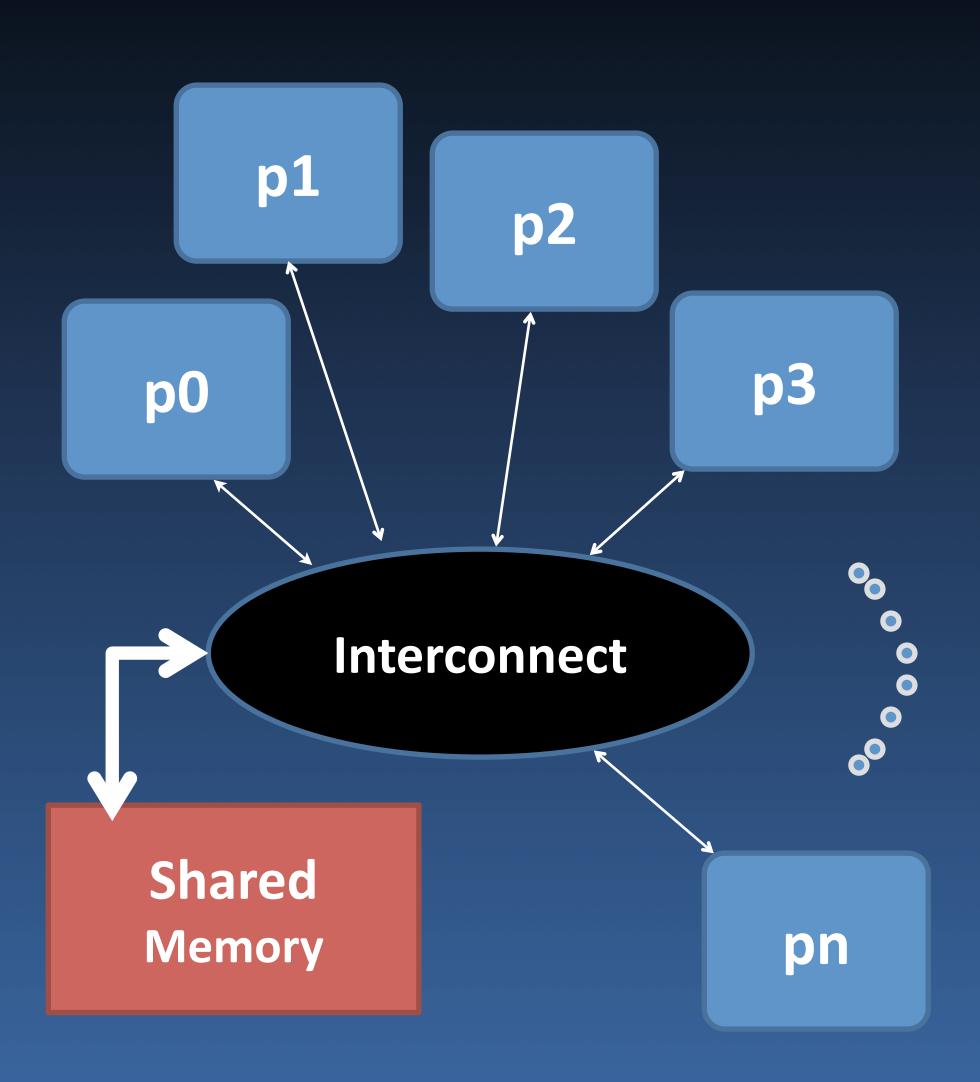


- Compose sequential processes passing messages
 - → Synchronous: send completes when message received (and vice versa)
 - Processes names known to senders (used for send and receive)
- Sender?gotvalue II Recipient!somevalue
- Guard; sender?P -> {post arrival code}
 - → Wait for predicate to become true (or fail if it becomes false)

```
[ Sender1? msg -> process(msg, Q) ||
Sender2? msg -> process(msg, R)) ||
Sender3? msg -> process(msg, S) |
```

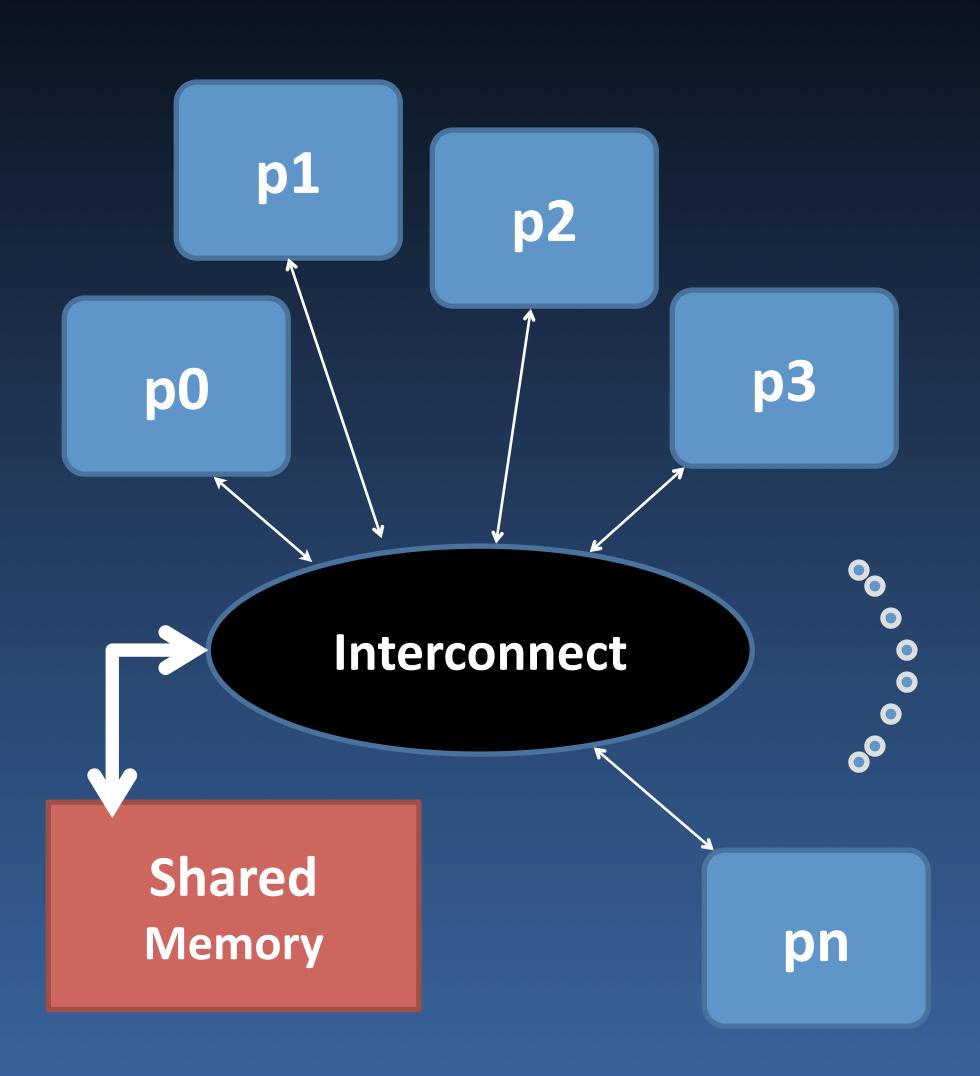
[See Hoare, "Communicating sequential processes," CACM 21 (8), 1978]

PRAM Model



- · Synchronous, Shared Mem
 - → Arbitrary number of cells
- Arbitrary number of processors, each:
 - → has local memory (*Arbitrary* number of cells)
 - → knows its ID
 - can access a shared memory location in constant time

PRAM Model

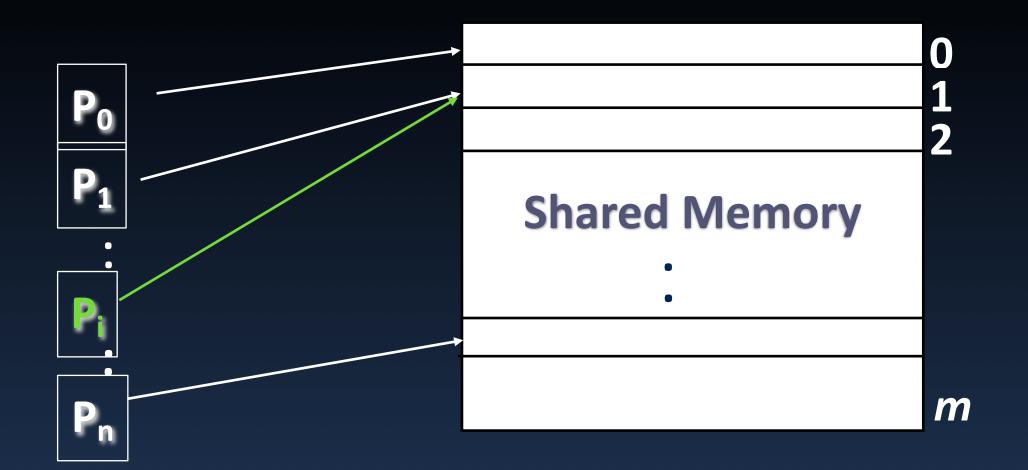


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Unrealistic?

Can be often simulated

PRAM Model Steps



- At each time-step each P_i can:
 - 1. read some memory cell
 - 2. perform a local computation step
 - 3. write a memory cell (Read and write are in two phases)
 - → Co-access may be restricted
- Thus, a pair of processors P_i and P_j can communicate in two steps
 - → constant time

More about PRAM

- Inputs/Outputs are placed at designated addresses
 - Technically also a 'start' protocol to activate processors
- Each instruction takes O(1) time
- Processors are synchronous
 - → Asynchronous PRAM models exist as well
- Cost analysis:
 - Cost, Work, Time (taken by the longest running processor)
 - → Maximum number of active processors and memory cells

Shared-Memory Access Models

- EREW (Exclusive Read Exclusive Write)
 - Only one processors may read or write any given location in a step
- CREW (Concurrent Read Exclusive Write)
 - → Many processors can simultaneously read a location, but only one may write
- CRCW (Concurrent Read Concurrent Write)
 - → Many processors can read/write the same memory location
- ERCW (Exclusive Read Concurrent Write)
 - → Not commonly used

Concurrent Write (CW)

Priority CW

Higher priority processor (normally lower index) wins

Common CW

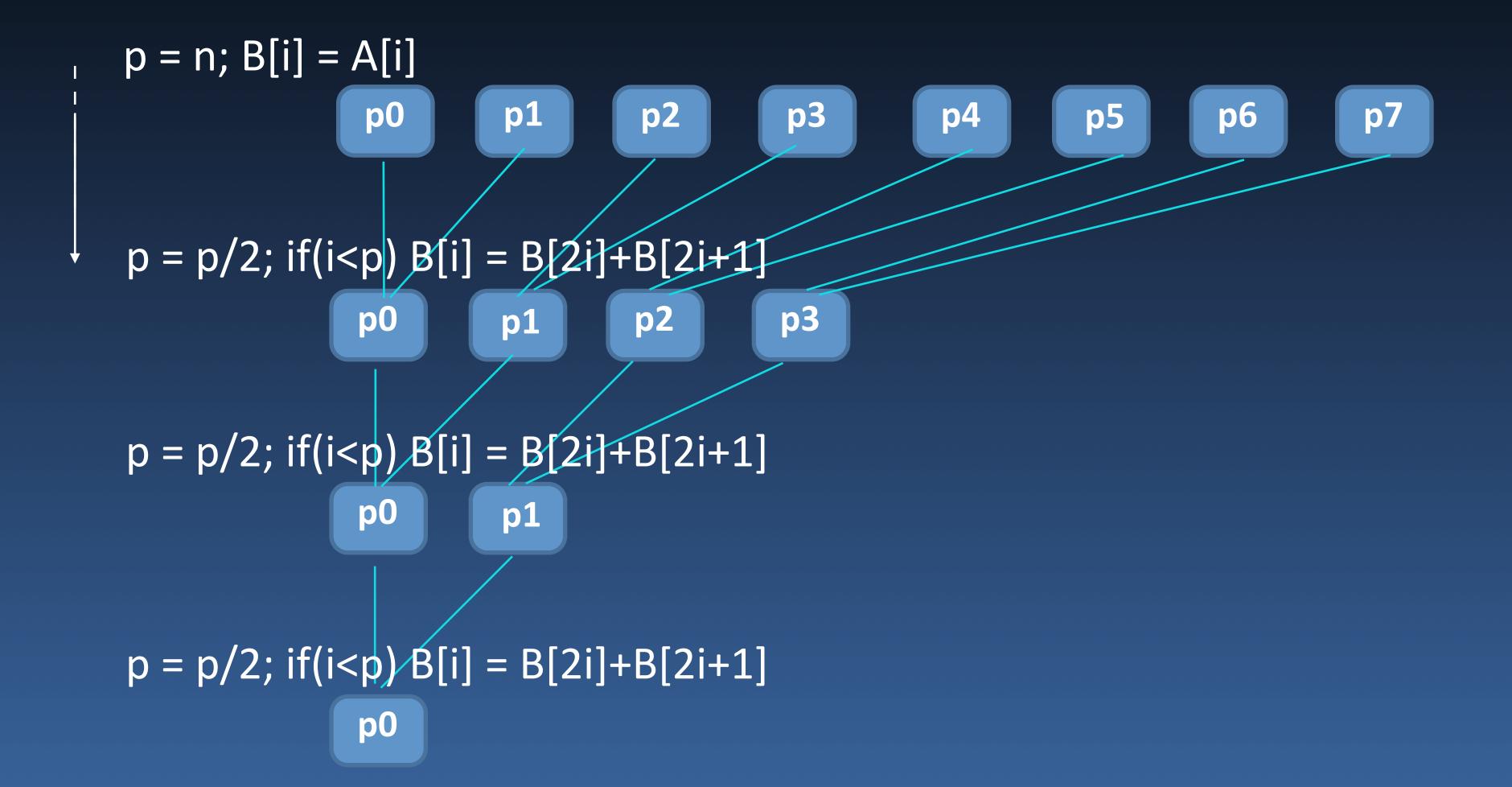
Succeeds only if all writes have the same value

Arbitrary/Random CW

→ One of the values is randomly chosen

EREW ≤ CREW ≤ Common ≤ Arbitrary ≤ Priority

Parallel Addition



Parallel Addition

```
p = n; B[i] = A[i]
                                       p3
                                                                 p6
              p0
                      p1
                               p2
                                                 p4
p = p/2; if(i<p) B[i] = B[2i] + B[2i+1]
                                       p3
                              p2
              p0
                      p1
                                                p = n/2
                                                 forall i < n
p = p/2; if(i<p) B[i] = B[2i]+B[2i+1]
                                                   B[i] = A[i]
              p0
                      p1
                                                 while (p > 0) {
                                                    for all i < p
p = p/2; if(i<p) B[i] = B[2i]+B[2i+1]
                                                       B[i] = B[2i] + B[2i+1]
              p0
                                                   p = p/2;
```

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p = p/2; if(i<p) B[i] = B[2i]+B[2i+1]
```

```
p = n/2

forall i < n

B[i] = A[i]

while(p > 0) {

forall i < p

B[i] = B[2i] + B[2i + 1]

p = p/2;

}
```

p6

p7

p4

- processors: n
- time: O(log n)
- Speed-up: n/(log n)
- Efficiency: 1/log(n)
- Cost: n log n
- Work: n

Linear Search p<n

- n input integers in n memory cells
- Does x exist in the input?
 - → x is initially stored in a known shared memory location

Algorithm

		\bigcirc I $\stackrel{\square}{}$ L $\stackrel{\square}{}$ V	
step1: If p_0 , answer = 0; broadcast n,x	• log(p)	• 1	• 1
step2: $\forall p_i$: search in i th [n/p-size] block and {set flag f_i }	• n/p	• n/p	• n/p
step3: If p ₀ , check if {any} flag is 1, and print answer	• log(p)	• log(p)	• 1

Performance Evaluation

- Two parameters
 - \rightarrow p(n), t(n)
- · Generally, use work, W(n)
- If W(n) similar, use t(n)
- · Speedup/Scalability
 - → Absolute: over best sequential algorithm
 - → Relative: over the 1-processor implementation of the same algorithm

Performance Evaluation

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- Speedup/Scalability

- → Work-optimal => work = O(serial complexity)
- → p(n) is hidden but important
 - \blacktriangleright W₁(n) = O(n); t₁(n) = O(n)
 - ▶ $W_2(n) = O(n \log n)$ and $t_2(n) = O(\log n)$
- → Absolute: over best sequential algorithm
- → Relative: over the 1-processor implementation of the same algorithm

Design algorithm in terms of

Work Time Scheduling Principle

- \rightarrow Total work done per 'time step': $W_i(n)$
- \rightarrow t(n) steps
- Total work done $W(n) = \sum W_i(n)$
- For each time step i:
 - \rightarrow divide the work $W_i(n)$ among p processors
 - Time $\langle = \sum \lceil (W_i(n)/p) \rceil \langle = \lfloor W(n)/p) \rfloor + t(n)$
- Cost = t(n,p) * p

Work <= Cost. Cost optimality is more stringent.

Brent's Theorem

· Time taken by p processors:

$$\rightarrow t(n,p) = O(W(n)/p + t(n))$$

• Cost =
$$p * t(n,p) = O(W(n) + p * t(n))$$

Work = Cost if:

$$\rightarrow W(n) + p * t(n) = O(W(n))$$

$$\rightarrow$$
 Or, $p = O(W(n)/t(n))$

- If sequentially optimal algorithm is O(t'(n))
 - → Work done by Work-optimal parallel algorithm:
 - ightharpoonup O(t'(n)) (with time t(n)).
 - → Work-scheduling on p processors takes time:
 - t(n,p) = O(t'(n)/p + t(n))
 - → Optimal speed-up: $t'(n)/t(n,p) = \theta(p)$, if
 - $\blacktriangleright [p^*t'(n)]/[t'(n)+p^*t(n)] = \Theta(p)$
- Work-time optimal if:
 - \rightarrow t(n) cannot be improved

Notions of Optimality

Why PRAM?

- · Easy to design, specify, analyze algorithms
 - → Independent of machine details
- Fidelity of predicted performance
 - → Not many surprises for shared-memory architecture
 - Partly successful for distributed memory
 - Memory-access and message latency can often be bounded
- Strong model
 - → Possible to simulate on a wide variety of hardware
 - → Poor PRAM solution often implies a hard problem

Why PRAM?

- · Easy to design, specify, analyze algorithms
 - → Independent of machine details
- Fidelity of predicted performance

- Fine-grained synchronization
- → Not many surprises for shared-memory architecture
- Partly successful for distributed memory
 - Memory-access and message latency can often be bounded
- Strong model
 - → Possible to simulate on a wide variety of hardware
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Review

- PRAM model
 - → EREW, CREW, CRCW variants
- Work-Time scheduling principle
- Work and Work-time optimality