# Parallel Algorithms and Programming Performance and Challenges

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#### In this lecture

- Measuring performance of parallel programs
  - Beyond execution time
- Challenges of parallel programming
  - 100% efficiency is not always achievable

#### References

- The lecture notes of F. Desprez
- The lecture notes of K. Fatahalian
  - CS149: Parallel Computing @Standford
  - 15418: Parallel Computer Architecture and Programming @CMU
- The teaching material of the eduWRENCH project
  - Pedagogic modules

# Performance of parallel programs

# **Execution time of non-interactive programs**

#### Non-interactive programs

- We consider programs whose main purpose is not to interact with a user
  - It implies that the execution time does not depend on the user activity
  - Simplify reasoning about performance

#### **Execution time**

- Work: The amount of computation to be executed by a program
- **Compute speed**: The amount of work that can be executed by the hardware per unit of time

$$Execution \ time = \frac{Work}{Compute \ Speed}$$

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**How to measure Work and Compute Speed?** 

# Measuring the Work (FLOP)

#### Multiple possible ways of measuring the work

- Application specific (can be high level)
  - Number of images to process
  - Number of items to sort
  - etc.
- At the level of instructions
  - Number of instructions to execute
  - Problems:
    - All instructions do not have the same cost
    - Not all instructions are useful (for the final result)

#### Floating-point operations (FLOP)

- Most compute-intensive programs are manipulating floating point numbers
- The FLOP represent the *useful* work

# Measuring the compute speed (FLOPS)

#### Floating-point operation per seconds (FLOP/s or FLOPS)

- Can be used to evaluate the capacity of the hardware
  - Defines the peak performance of a computing system

#### Back to the execution time

- A program requires executing 1 TFlop
- A system can execute 10 GFlop/s
- We can estimate its execution time:

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- We can estimate its execution time:

$$Execution~time = rac{1 imes 10^{12}}{10 imes 10^9} = 100s$$

#### Other usage of FLOPS

- FLOPS can also be used to evaluate the efficiency of an algorithm on a given hardware
  - Through measurements + comparison with the theoretical value

# **CPI (Cycles per instruction)**

#### **Definition:**

$$CPI = \frac{execution \ time}{total \ number \ of \ instructions}$$

- Another metric that can give an idea of how well a program is behaving on a given hardware:
  - Measures how often a processor stalls
  - For instance, can indicate a bad use of the caches

#### **Question:**

- Is it possible to achieve CPI < 1 on one processor core?
  - Remember ILP

# Performance of parallel programs

- The execution time measures the absolute performance
  - Does not tell us if a parallel program is good
- Other metrics need to be introduced
  - Speedup
  - Efficiency
  - Scalability

# Speedup

#### Speedup

For a sequential execution time  $T_s$ , and a parallel execution time  $T_p$ :

$$Speedup = rac{T_s}{T_p}$$

- When executing on N computing resources, we would like that the speedup to be N
  - This is in general not going to be the case

#### Question: Can the speedup be more than N?

•

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#### Question: Can the speedup be more than N?

- Super-linear speedup
- May happen in different cases:
  - Less instruction executed in the parallel version of the code (search)
  - Better usage of the cache/memory/storage hierarchy

#### **Amdahl's law**

The speedup of parallel code is limited by the sequential part of the code

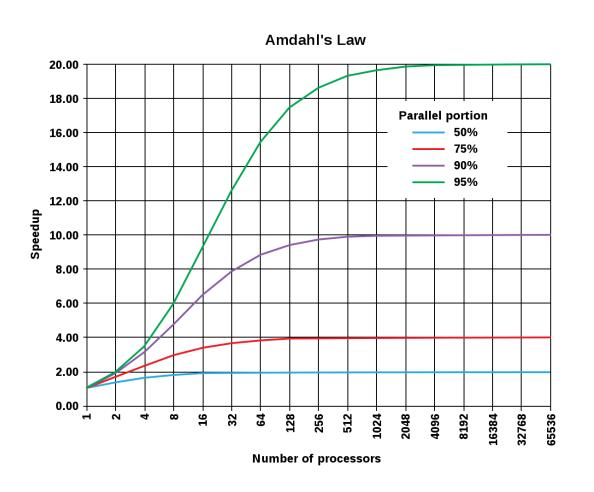
• For a program running on N computing resources, where a fraction P of the code is parallel and S = 1-P is the serial fraction:

$$Speedup(N) = rac{1}{rac{P}{N} + S}$$

• Hence, the maximum speedup is:

$$Speedup_{max} = rac{1}{S} = rac{1}{1-P}$$

# **Amdahl's law**



# **Efficiency**

- The efficiency measures how efficiently the computing resources are used.
- For a program running on N computing resources:

$$Efficiency(N) = rac{Speedup(N)}{N}$$

• Ideally an efficiency of 100% would be achieved

# **Scalability**

```
*Scalability* measures the evolution of the efficiency when
the number of processors used increases.

*Strong scaling*: Compute a problem N times **faster** using N
computing resources

*Weak scaling*: Compute a problem N times **bigger** in the same
amount of time using N computing resources
```

#### What limits strong scaling?

What limits weak scaling?

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- Achieving strong scaling implies minimizing the serial work

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#### What limits strong scaling?

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#### What limits weak scaling?

• Achieving weak scaling implies ensuring that the amount of serial work and the amount of communication remains constant when the problem size increases

# Some comments about scalability and speedup

- Speedup should be computed based on the most efficient sequential algorithm
  - A parallel algorithm might not perform well sequentially
- The algorithm that performs the best at small scale is not necessary the one that scales best
  - ullet An algorithm that has a synchronization/communication cost that increases linearly with the number of computing resources: 10 imes N
  - Another algorithm that has a synchronization/communication cost that increases
    quadratically:  $2 imes N^2$

#### At the end the most important is the absolute performance

• A very slow algorithm that scales well is not interesting

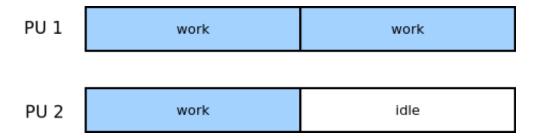
# Challenges for the Performance of parallel programs

## Idle time

- We saw that in general, a parallel efficiency of 100% is not achievable
  - One of the main reason is **Idle time**
- Reasons for idle time:
  - Load imbalance
  - Management of I/Os
  - Task dependencies

# Load imbalance

Load imbalance describes a situation where the work is not equally distributed among the processing units



• In this situation, the efficiency can be computed as a function of the idle time:

$$Efficiency(N) = 1 - rac{\sum idle \ times}{N} \ execution \ time$$

- Explanation:
  - We compute the average idle time per processing unit
  - We compute a ratio to the total execution time

## Load imbalance

#### Case of *identical* tasks

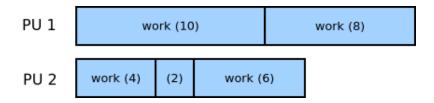
- Load imbalance can appear when the number of tasks to execute is not a multiple of the number of processing units
  - Example: 2 PUs -- 3 tasks
  - See example on the previous slide
- Here identical = takes same amount of time to execute

#### Case of *non-identical* tasks

- In practice, it happens often that not all tasks take the same amount of time to execute
  - In this case, load imbalance is almost unavoidable



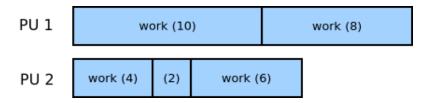
# **Exercises on load imbalance**



• Compute the parallel efficiency in this scenario

• Can we assign the tasks differently to the processing units to achieve a better efficiency?

# **Exercises on load imbalance**

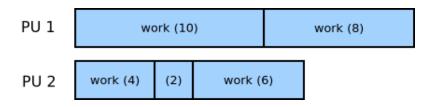


• Compute the parallel efficiency in this scenario

$$Efficiency = 1 - rac{rac{6}{2}}{18} = 1 - 0.166 = 0.83$$

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# **Exercises on load imbalance**



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• Can we assign the tasks differently to the processing units to achieve a better efficiency?

$$Efficiency = 1 - rac{rac{2}{2}}{16} = 0.9375$$

#### More on load imbalance

- When the number of tasks is small, it is possible to compute the optimal solution
  - Assuming that we are able to accurately evaluate the time to execute each task
- When the number of big, it becomes too costly to try computing the optimal solutions
- Alternative solutions to static scheduling can be implemented:
  - Dynamic scheduling
    - The PUs get new tasks when they are idle
  - Work stealing
    - The PUs *steal* tasks from busy PUs when they are idle

- Tasks might need to perform I/O operations to the storage system
  - Read input data
  - Write results
- Operating systems (together with the hardware) implement a set of mechanisms to limit the impact of I/O operations on performance
  - The idea is to overlap I/O operations and computation
    - Interrupts
    - DMA engine for data transfers
- Assuming that I/O time is less than compute time, it can make I/O almost invisible with a sequential program

#### **Example**

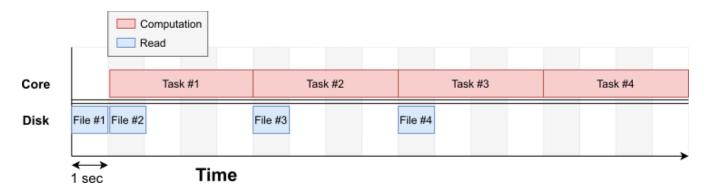
- A 4-task parallel program
  - Each task read a 10-MB file before starting computing
    - Takes 1 second on the target platform
  - Each task performs 400 GFlop of computation
    - A core can perform 100 GFlops
    - 4 seconds per task

#### **Execution with a single core**

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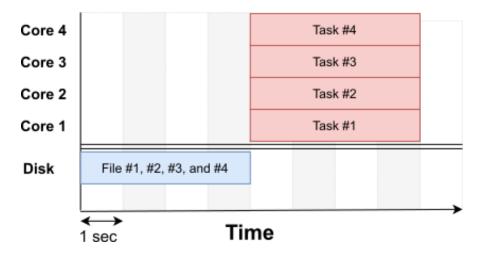
#### **Execution with a single core**



Credits: figure from eduWRENCH

#### What happens if we use multiple cores?

- Execution on a 4-core processor
- Worst-case scenario: We do all reads before starting processing

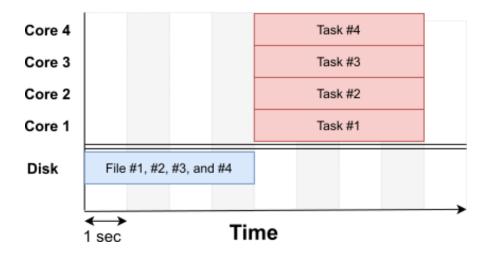


#### **Speedup and efficiency**

Note that here computing the efficiency based on idle time would give a different result. This is because the sequential execution was already including idle time.

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#### Speedup and efficiency

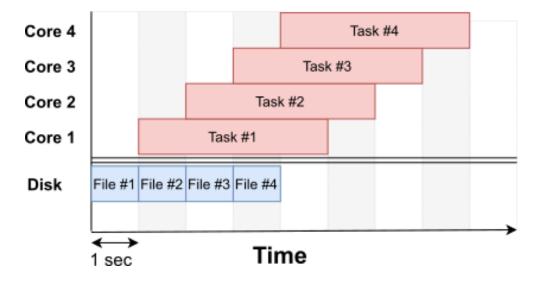
$$Speedup = 17/8 = 2.125$$

$$Efficiency == rac{2.125}{4} = 0.53$$

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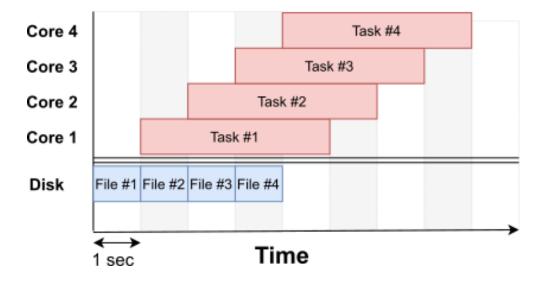
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#### What happens if we use multiple cores?

• To improve performance we can still try to overlap I/O operations and computations



There is no performance improvement compared to the previous solution

Credits: figure from eduWRENCH

# **Exercise about I/Os**

- A parallel program consists of 2 tasks:
  - Task 1 reads 20 MB of input, computes 500 Gflop, writes back 100 MB of output
  - Task 2 reads 100 MB of input, computes for 500 Gflop, writes back 100 MB of output
- We execute this program on a computer with two cores that compute at 100 Gflop/sec and with a disk with 100 MB/sec read and write bandwidth.

#### Is it better to run Task 1 or Task 2 first?

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Running Task 1 first allows starting computing earlier

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#### Is it better to run Task 1 or Task 2 first?

- Running Task 1 first allows starting computing earlier
- T1 first -- Exec time = 7.2 s
- T2 first -- Exec time = 8 s

## Task dependencies

- Until now, we have assumed that tasks can be executed in any order
  - It is not always the case

#### **Definitions**

There is a dependency between task A and task B, if B cannot starts executing until A is done

• The typical reason for having task dependencies is that Task B needs the output of task A

#### **DAG** of tasks

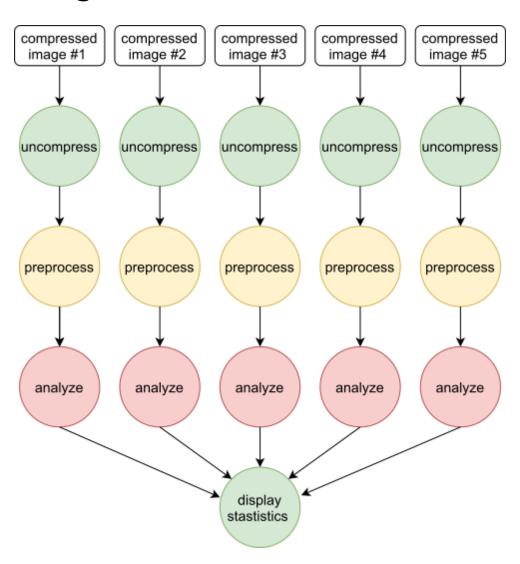
- It can be convenient to represent dependencies between tasks using a **Directed Acyclic Graph** 
  - Vertices are tasks
  - Edges are dependencies

## **Example of DAG**

- Program that counts the number of car objects in a set of compressed street images.
- It includes the following steps:
  - Each image needs to be uncompressed
  - Each image is pre-processed to remove noise
  - Each image is analyzed to find cars
  - Car count statistics are displayed

## **Example of DAG**

#### **DAG** assuming 5 images



## Some concepts related to DAGs

#### **DAG** level

```
A task is on *level n* of the DAG if the *longest path from the entry task(s) to this task is of length n*
```

- The entry tasks are the tasks that do not depend on any other tasks
- The path length is measured in number of traversed vertices

#### Maximum level width

The maximum level width of a DAG the \*maximum number of tasks in one DAG level\*

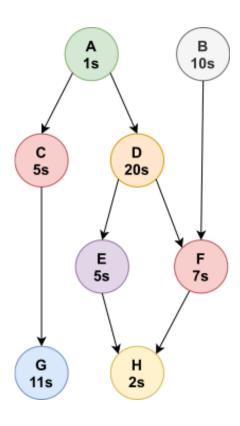
- Helps determining the maximum number of PUs to use
- If the maximum level width is 4
  - Using 4 PUs should provide a speedup compared to using 3 PUs
  - It does not necessarily implies that 5 PUs would not improve performance
    - We do not have to wait for all tasks from one level to terminate before starting the tasks from the next level

## Some concepts related to DAGs

#### Critical path

The critical path is \*the longest path in the DAG from the entry task(s) to the exit task(s) \*

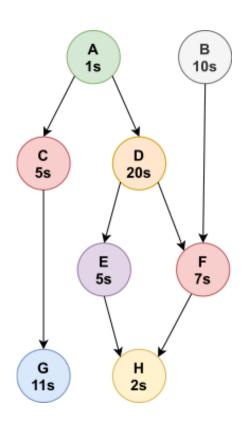
- The path length is measured in task duration, including the entry and the exit task(s)
- Allows evaluating the maximum performance that can be obtained
  - No matter the number of PUs, the program cannot execute faster than the length of the critical path



• Task level of each task:

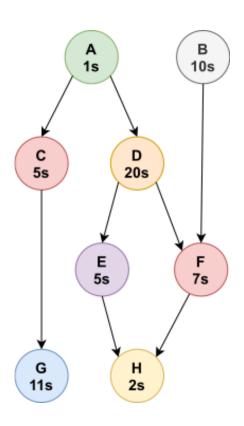
• Maximum width:

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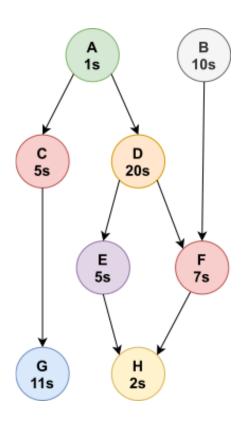


- Task level of each task:
  - Level 0: A, B
  - Level 1: C, D
  - Level 2: E, F, G
  - Level 3: H
- Maximum width:

• Critical path:



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  - Level 2 has 3 tasks
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- Maximum width:
  - Level 2 has 3 tasks
- Critical path:
  - A-D-F-H
  - $\blacksquare$  1 + 20 + 7 + 2 = 30s

## Chosing which task to run

- Choose a task that is ready to run
  - All parents tasks are finished
  - What if multiple tasks are ready to run?

Multiple strategies are possible

## Chosing which task to run

- Choose a task that is ready to run
  - All parents tasks are finished
  - What if multiple tasks are ready to run?

#### Multiple strategies are possible

- Task on the critical path first (in general a good strategy)
- Task with the largest work first
- task with the smallest work first

#### No strategy is always best

# Other constraint on the execution of tasks: Memory

- Each task comsumes memory space
  - Load input data
  - Write output data
- Comsuming more memory that the total physical memory space is not recommended
  - Induces swapping memory pages from/to disk
  - **Very slow**, to be avoided

Memory constraints should be taken into account when scheduling tasks

## Conclusion

## **Take-away points**

#### Several metrics to measure the performance of parallel programs

- Execution time
- Speedup
- Efficiency
- Scalability

#### Amdahl's law implies that infinite scalability is impossible

#### Problems that impair performance/scalability

- Load imbalance
- I/O operations
- Task dependencies