Lecture 6:

Programming for Performance: Part I

Work Distribution

Parallel Computer Architecture and Programming
CMU 15-418, Spring 2013
But first... let’s finish up the solver discussion from lecture 4...
Steps in creating a parallel program

- Problem to solve
- Decomposition
- Assignment
- Orchestration
- Mapping
- Execution on parallel machine

Subproblems (a.k.a. "tasks", "work to do")
Parallel Threads **
Parallel program (communicating threads)

** I had to pick a term
Recall basic 2D grid solver
Review: data-parallel solver implementation

- **Synchronization:**
  - `forall` loop iterations are independent (can be parallelized)
  - Implicit barrier at end of outer `forall` loop body

- **Communication**
  - Implicit in loads and stores (like shared address space)
  - Special built-in primitives: e.g., reduce

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Example from: Culler, Singh, and Gupta

```c
10. procedure Solve(A) /*solve the equation system*/
11. float **A;
12. begin
13. int i, j, done = 0;
14. float mydiff = 0, temp;
14a. DECOMP A[BLOCK,*, nprocs];
15. while (!done) do /*outermost loop over sweeps*/
16.   mydiff = 0;
17.   /*initialize maximum difference to 0*/
17.   for_all i ← 1 to n /*sweep over non-border points of grid*/
18.     for_all j ← 1 to n do /*save old value of element*/
19.       temp = A[i,j];
22.       mydiff += abs(A[i,j] - temp);
23.   end for_all
24. end for_all
24a. REDUCE (mydiff, diff, ADD);
25. if (diff/(n*n) < TOL) then done = 1;
26. end while
27. end procedure
```
Solver implementation in two programming models

- **Data-parallel programming model**
  - **Synchronization:**
    - forall loop iterations are independent (can be parallelized)
    - Implicit barrier at end of outer forall loop body
  - **Communication**
    - Implicit in loads and stores (like shared address space)
    - Special built-in primitives: e.g., reduce

- **Shared address space**
  - **Synchronization:**
    - Locks (for mutual exclusion) and barriers (to separate phases of computation) are used to express dependencies
  - **Communication**
    - Implicit in loads/stores to shared variables
Today: message passing model

- No shared address space abstraction (i.e., no shared variables)
- Each thread has its own address space
- Threads communicate & synchronize by sending/receiving messages

One possible message passing machine implementation:
a cluster of workstations (recall lecture 3)
Review: assignment in a shared address space

- Grid data resided in a single array in shared address space
  - Array was accessible to all threads

- Each thread manipulated the region it was assigned to process
  - Assignment decisions impacted performance
  - Different assignments could yield different amounts of communication
Message passing model

- Grid data stored in four separate address spaces (four private arrays)
Replication required to perform computation

Required for correctness

Example:
Thread 1 and 3 send row to thread 2 (otherwise thread 2 cannot update its local cells)

“Ghost cells”:
Grid cells replicated from remote address space. It’s common to say that ghost cells are “owned” by another thread.

Thread 2 logic:

```
cell_t ghost_row_top[N+2]; // ghost row storage
cell_t ghost_row_bot[N+2]; // ghost row storage
int bytes = sizeof(cell_t) * (N+2);
recv(ghost_row_top, bytes, pid-1, TOP_MSG_ID);
recv(ghost_row_bot, bytes, pid+1, BOT_MSG_ID);
```

// Thread 2 now has data necessary to perform // computation
Message passing solver

Note similar structure to shared address space solver, but now communication is explicit in sends and receives

```c
1. int pid, n, b;
2. float **myA;
3. main()
4. begin
5.  read(n);  read(nprocs);
6.  CREATE(nprocs-1, Solve);
7.  Solve();
8.  WAIT_FOR_END(nprocs-1);
9.  end main
10. procedure Solve()
11.  begin
12.   int i, j, pid, n' = n/nprocs, done = 0;
13.   float temp, tempdiff, mydiff = 0; /*private variables*/
14.   myA ← malloc(a 2-d array of size [n/nprocs + 2] by n+2);
15.   /*my assigned rows of A*/
16.   initialize(myA);
17.   /*initialize my rows of A, in an unspecified way*/
18.   while (!done) do /*set local diff to 0*/
19.     mydiff = 0;
20. 16a. if (pid != 0) then SEND(&myA[1, 0], n*sizeof(float), pid-1, ROW);
21a. if (pid != nprocs-1) then
22a. SEND(&myA[n', 0], n*sizeof(float), pid+1, ROW);
23. 16c. if (pid != 0) then RECEIVE(&myA[0, 0], n*sizeof(float), pid-1, ROW);
24c. if (pid != nprocs-1) then
25c. RECEIVE(&myA[n'+1, 0], n*sizeof(float), pid+1, ROW);
26. /*border rows of neighbors have now been copied into myA[0, 1] and myA[n'+1, 0]*/
27. for i ← 1 to n' do /*for each of my (nonghost) rows*/
28.   for j ← 1 to n do /*for all nonborder elements in that row*/
29.     temp = myA[i, j];
31.     myA[i+1, j];
32.     myA[i, j] += abs(myA[i, j] - temp);
33.   endfor
34. endfor
35. /*communicate local diff values and determine if done; can be replaced by reduction and broadcast*/
36. if (pid != 0) then
37.   SEND(mydiff, sizeof(float), 0, DIFF);
38. else /*pid 0 does this*/
39. for i ← 1 to nprocs-1 do /*for each other process*/
40.   RECEIVE(done, sizeof(int), 0, DONE);
41. mydiff += tempdiff; /*accumulate into total*/
42. endfor
43. if (mydiff/(n*n) < TOL) then done = 1;
44. for i ← 1 to nprocs-1 do /*for each other process*/
45.   for j ← 1 to nprocs-1 do /*for each other process*/
46.     SEND(done, sizeof(int), i, DONE);
47. endfor
48. endwhile
49. end procedure
```

Example from: Culler, Singh, and Gupta
Notes on message passing example

- **Computation**
  - Array indexing is relative to local address space (not global grid coordinates)

- **Communication:**
  - Performed through messages
  - Communicate entire rows at a time (not individual elements)

- **Synchronization:**
  - Performed through sends and receives
  - Think of how to implement mutual exclusion, barriers, flags using messages

- For convenience: message passing libraries often include higher-level primitives (implemented using send and receive)

```
REDUCE(0, mydiff, sizeof(float), ADD);
if (pid == 0) then
    if (mydiff/(n*n) < TOL) then done = 1;
endif
    BROADCAST(0, done, sizeof(int), DONE);
```

Alternative solution using reduce/broadcast constructs
Variants of send and receive messages

- **Synchronous:**
  - **SEND:** call returns when sender receives acknowledgement message data resides in address space of receiver
  - **RECV:** call returns when data from message copied into address space of receiver and acknowledgement sent back to sender

Sender:

- Call SEND(foo)
- Copy data from sender’s address space buffer ‘foo’ into network buffer
- Send message
- Receive ack
- SEND() returns

Receiver:

- Call RECV(bar)
- Receive message
- Copy data into receiver’s address space buffer ‘bar’
- Send ack
- RECV() returns
As implemented on the prior slide, if our message passing solver uses blocking send/recv it would deadlock!

Why?

How can we fix it?
(while still using blocking send/recv)
Message passing solver

Example from: Culler, Singh, and Gupta

```
1. int pid, n, b;
2. float **myA;
3. main()
4. begin
5.  read(n);  read(nprocs); /*read input matrix size and number of processes*/
8a.  CREATE(nprocs-1, Solve);
8b.  Solve();
8c.  WAIT_FOR_END(nprocs-1);
9.  end main

10. procedure Solve()
11.  begin
13.  int i, j, pid, n' = n/nprocs, done = 0;
14.  float temp, tempdiff, mydiff = 0; /*private variables*/
6.  myA ← malloc(a 2-d array of size [n/nprocs + 2] by n+2); /*my assigned rows of A*/
7.  initialize(myA); /*initialize my rows of A, in an unspecified way*/
15.  while (!done) do /*set local diff to 0*/
16a. if (pid != 0) then SEND(&myA[1, 0], n*sizeof(float), pid-1, ROW);
16b. if (pid == nprocs-1) then
    SEND(&myA[n', 0], n*sizeof(float), pid+1, ROW);
16c. if (pid != 0) then RECEIVE(&myA[0, 0], n*sizeof(float), pid-1, ROW);
16d. if (pid == nprocs-1) then
    RECEIVE(&myA[n'+1, 0], n*sizeof(float), pid-1, ROW);
/*border rows of neighbors have now been copied into myA[0,0] and myA[n'+1,0]*/
17.  for i ← 1 to n' do /*for each of my (nonghost) rows*/
18.      for j ← 1 to n do /*for all nonborder elements in that row*/
19.          temp = myA[i, j];
21.            myA[i, j+1] + myA[i+1, j]);
22.          mydiff += abs(myA[i, j] - temp);
23.      endfor
24.  endfor
/*communicate local diff values and determine if done; can be replaced by reduction and broadcast*/
25a. if (pid != 0) then
    SEND(mydiff, sizeof(float), 0, DIFF);
25b. if (pid == nprocs-1) then
    RECEIVE(done, sizeof(int), 0, DONE);
25c. else /*pid 0 does this*/
25d. for i ← 1 to nprocs-1 do /*for each other process*/
    RECEIVE(tempdiff, sizeof(float), *, DIFF);
    mydiff += tempdiff; /*accumulate into total*/
25e. for i ← 1 to nprocs-1 do /*for each other process*/
25f.    if (mydiff/(n*n) < TOL) then done = 1;
25g. for i ← 1 to nprocs-1 do /*for each other process*/
25h.    SEND(done, sizeof(int), i, DONE);
25i. endfor
25m. endif
26. endwhile
27. end procedure
```
Asynchronous blocking:
- **SEND**: call copies data from address space into system buffers, then returns
  - Does not guarantee message has been received (or even sent)
- **RECV**: call returns when data copied into address space, but no ack sent

**Sender:**
- Call SEND(foo)
  - Copy data from sender’s address space buffer ‘foo’ into network buffer
  - SEND(foo) returns, calling thread continues execution

**Receiver:**
- Receive message
  - Copy data into receiver’s address space buffer
  - RECV(bar) returns
Variants of send and receive messages

**Send/Recv**

- **Synchronous**
  - Blocking async
  - Non-blocking async

**Asynchronous non-blocking: ("non-blocking")**

- **SEND**: call returns immediately. Buffer provided to SEND cannot be modified by calling thread since message processing occurs concurrently with thread execution.
- **RECV**: call posts intent to receive, returns immediately.
- Use SENDPROBE, RECVPROBE to determine actual send/receipt status.

**Sender:**
- Call `SEND(foo)`
  - SEND(foo) returns handle h1
- Copy data from ‘foo’ into network buffer
- Send message
- Call SENDPROBE(h1) // if message sent, now safe for thread to modify ‘foo’

**Receiver:**
- Call `RECV(bar)`
  - RECV(bar) returns handle h2
- Messaging library copies data into ‘bar’
- Call RECVPROBE(h2) // if received, now safe for thread to access ‘bar’

*RED TEXT = executes concurrently with application thread*
Variants of send and receive messages

The variants of send/recv provide different levels of programming complexity / opportunity to optimize performance
Solver implementation in THREE programming models

1. **Data-parallel model**
   - Synchronization:
     - `forall` loop iterations are independent (can be parallelized)
     - Implicit barrier at end of outer `forall` loop body
   - Communication
     - Implicit in loads and stores (like shared address space)
     - Special built-in primitives: e.g., reduce

2. **Shared address space model**
   - Synchronization:
     - Locks used to ensure mutual exclusion
     - Barriers used to express dependencies (between phases of computation)
   - Communication
     - Implicit in loads/stores to shared variables

3. **Message passing model**
   - Synchronization:
     - Implemented via messages
     - Mutual exclusion exists by default: no shared data structures
   - Communication:
     - Explicit communication via send/recv needed for parallel program correctness
     - Bulk communication for efficiency: e.g., communicate entire rows, not single elements
     - Several variants of send/recv, each has different semantics
Optimizing parallel program performance

( how to be l33t )
Programming for high performance

- Optimizing the performance of parallel programs is an iterative process of refining choices for decomposition, assignment, and orchestration...

- Key goals (that are at odds with each other)
  - Balance workload onto available execution resources
  - Reduce communication (to avoid stalls)
  - Reduce extra work performed to increase parallelism, manage assignment, etc.

- We are going to talk about a rich space of techniques
  - TIP #1: Always do the simplest thing first, then measure/analyze
  - “It scales” = it scales as much as you need it too
Balancing the workload

Ideally all processors are computing all the time during program execution (they are computing simultaneously, and they finish their portion of the work at the same time).

Recall Amdahl’s Law:
Only small amount of load imbalance can significantly bound maximum speedup.

P4 does 20% more work → P4 takes 20% longer to complete.

→ 20% of parallel program runtime is essentially serial execution.

(clarification: work in serialized section here is about 5% of a sequential program’s execution time: \( S = 0.05 \) in Amdahl’s law eqn.)
Static assignment

- Assignment of work to threads is pre-determined
  - Not necessarily compile-time (assignment algorithm may depend on runtime parameters such as input data size, number of threads, etc.)

- Recall solver example: assign equal number of grid cells to each thread
  - We discussed blocked and interleaved static assignments

- Good properties: simple, essentially zero runtime overhead
  (in this example: extra work to implement assignment is a little bit of indexing math)
Static assignment

- When is static assignment applicable?

- When the cost (execution time) of work and the amount of work is predictable

- Simplest example: it is known that all work has the same cost
Static assignment

When is static assignment applicable?
- Example 2: predictable, but not all jobs have same cost (see example below)
- Example 3: When statistics about execution time are known (e.g., same cost on average)

Jobs have unequal, but known cost: assign to processors to ensure overall good load balance
Semi-static assignment

- Cost of work predictable for near-term future
  - Recent past good predictor of near future
- Periodically profile application and re-adjust assignment
  - Assignment is static during interval between re-adjustment

Particle simulation:
Redistribute particles as they move over course of simulation
(if motion is slow, redistribution need not occur often)

Adaptive mesh:
Mesh is changed as object moves or flow over object changes, but changes occur slowly (color indicates assignment of parts of mesh to processors)
Dynamic assignment

- Assignment is determined at runtime to ensure a well distributed load. (The execution time of tasks, or the total number of tasks, is unpredictable.)

Sequential program
(independent loop iterations)

```c
int N = 1024;
int* x = new int[N];
bool* prime = new bool[N];

// initialize elements of x
for (int i=0; i<N; i++)
{
    // unknown execution time
    is_prime[i] = test_primality(x[i]);
}
```

Parallel program
(SPMD execution of multiple threads, shared address space model)

```c
LOCK counter_lock;
int counter = 0; // shared variable (assume
                // initialization to 0)

int N = 1024;
int* x = new int[N];
bool* is_prime = new bool[N];

// initialize elements of x
while (1) {
    int i;
    lock(counter_lock);
    i = counter++;
    unlock(counter_lock);
    if (i >= N)
        break;
    is_prime[i] = test_primality(x[i]);
}
```

atomic_incr(counter);
Dynamic assignment using work queues

Sub-problems (aka “tasks”, “work”)

Shared work queue: a list of work to do (for now, let’s assume each piece of work is independent)

Worker threads:
Pull data from shared work queue
Push new work to queue as it’s created
What constitutes a piece of work?

- What is a potential problem with this implementation?

```
LOCK counter_lock;
int counter = 0;       // shared variable (assume
                        // initialization to 0)
const int N = 1024;
float* x = new float[N];
bool* prime = new bool[N];

// initialize elements of x
while (1) {
    int i;
    lock(counter_lock);
    i = counter++;
    unlock(counter_lock);
    if (i >= N)
        break;
    is_prime[i] = test_primality(x[i]);
}
```

Fine granularity partitioning:
Here: 1 “task” = 1 element

Likely good workload balance (many small tasks)
Potential for high synchronization cost
(serialization at critical section)

Time in task 0

Time in critical section

This is overhead that does not exist in serial program

And.. it’s serial execution
Recall Amdahl’s law:
What is S here?

So... IS this a problem?
Increasing task granularity

Coarse granularity partitioning:
1 “task” = 10 elements

Decreased synchronization cost
(Critical section entered 10 times less)

So... have we done better?
Rule of thumb

- **Useful to have many more tasks** than processors
  (many small tasks enables good workload balance via dynamic assignment)
  - Motivates small granularity tasks

- **But want as few tasks as possible to minimize overhead of managing the assignment**
  - Motivates large granularity tasks

- Ideal granularity depends on many factors
  (Common theme in this course: must know your workload, and your machine)

** I had to pick a term. Here I’m using “task” generally: it’s a piece of work, a sub-problem, etc.
Decreasing synchronization overhead

- **Distributed work queues**
  - Replicate data to remove synchronization

Subproblems
(a.k.a. “tasks”, “work to do”)

Set of work queues
(In general, one per worker thread)

Worker threads:
- Pull data from OWN work queue
- Push work to OWN work to queue
  
  When own work queue is empty...
  STEAL work from another work queue
Distributed work queues

- **Costly synchronization/communication occurs during stealing**
  - But not every time a thread takes on new work
  - Stealing occurs only when necessary to ensure good load balance

- **Leads to increased locality**
  - Common case: threads work on tasks they create (producer-consumer locality)

- **Implementation challenges**
  - Who to steal from?
  - How much to steal?
  - How to detect program termination?
  - Ensuring local queue access is fast (while preserving mutual exclusion)
Smarter task scheduling

Consider dynamic scheduling via a shared work queue

What happens if the system assigns these tasks to workers in left-to-right order?
Smarter task scheduling

What happens if scheduler runs the long task last? Potential for load imbalance!

One possible solution to imbalance problem:

Divide work into a larger number of smaller tasks
  — Hopefully “long pole” gets shorter relative to overall execution time
  — May increase synchronization overhead
  — May not be possible (perhaps long task is fundamentally sequential)
Smarter task scheduling

Schedule long task first to reduce “slop” at end of computation

Another solution: smarter scheduling

Schedule long tasks first

- Thread performing long task performs fewer overall tasks, but approximately the same amount of work as the other threads.
- Requires some knowledge of workload (some predictability of cost)
Work in task queues need not be independent

A task is not removed from queue and assigned to worker thread until all task dependencies are satisfied.

Workers can submit new tasks (with optional explicit dependencies) to task system.
Summary

- **Challenge: achieving good workload balance**
  - Want all processors working at all times
  - But want low cost to achieve this balance
    - Minimize computational overhead (e.g., scheduling/assignment logic)
    - Minimize synchronization costs

- **Static assignment vs. dynamic assignment**
  - Really, it’s not an either/or decision, there’s a continuum of choices
  - Use up-front knowledge about workload as much as possible to reduce load imbalance and task management/synchronization costs (in the limit, if the system knows everything, use fully static assignment)

- **Issues discussed today span decomposition, assignment, and orchestration**