Multi-BSP computing: the next step?





3rd of December 2014 Albert-Jan Yzelman



Outline

1 The Multi-BSP model

Philosophy

3 Algorithm design



The Multi-BSP model

1 The Multi-BSP model

2 Philosophy

3 Algorithm design



Three concepts

- The Bulk Synchronous Parallel
 - computer,
 - 2 algorithm,
 - ost model.



BSP computer CPUs, memory, network.



A BSP computer (p, g, l).



BSP algorithm

- computations are grouped into phases,
- no communication during computation,
- communication is only allowed **between** computation phases.



BSP cost model

The cost of computation during the *i*th superstep is

$$T_{{ t comp},i} = \max_s w_i^{(s)}.$$

The total cost of communication during the *i*th superstep is

 $T_{\text{comm,i}} = h_i g.$

Adding up superstep costs, separated by the latency l, yields the **full BSP cost**:

$$T = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \left(T_{\mathsf{comp},i} + T_{\mathsf{comm},\mathsf{i}} + l
ight) = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \left(\max w_i^{(s)} + h_i g + l
ight),$$



Multi-BSP

Multi-BSP is the recursive application of the BSP model.

- **BSP**: a computer consists out of *p* CPUs/processors/cores/...
- Multi-BSP: a computer consists out of
 - 1 p other Multi-BSP subcomputers (recursively), or
 - **2** p units of execution (leaves).
- Each Multi-BSP computer:

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- · connects its subcomputers or leaves via a network, and
- provides local memory.

Reference:

Valiant, Leslie G. "A bridging model for multi-core computing." Journal of Computer and System Sciences 77.1 (2011): 154-166.

Multi-BSP computer model CPUs, memory, network.





Multi-BSP computer model CPUs, memory, network.





Multi-BSP computer model CPUs, memory, network.





Multi-BSP computer model

CPUs, memory, network.





Multi-BSP computer model



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Multi-BSP computer model



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Multi-BSP algorithm model

This change of computer model changes the algorithmic model:

- only local communication allowed using the local (l_k, g_k) ,
- local memory requirements do not exceed the **local memory** M_k ,
- 'local' is given by the **current tree level** k.



Multi-BSP cost model

We require extra notation:

- L: number of levels in the tree,
- $-N_i$: number of **supersteps** on the *i*th level,
- $h_{k,i}$: the **maximum of all h-relations** within the *i*th superstep on level k,
- $-w_{k,i}$: the **maximum of all work** within the *i*th superstep on level *k*.

The decomposability of Multi-BSP algorithms, just as with the 'flat' BSP model, again results in a **transparent cost model**:

$$T=\sum_{k=0}^{L-1}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{N_k-1}w_{k,i}+h_{k,i}g_k+l_k
ight).$$



Half-time summary

- Multi-BSP is a better model for modern parallel architectures. It closely resembles
 - contemporary shared-memory multi-socket machines,
 - multi-level shared and private cache architectures, and
 - multi-level network topologies (e.g., fat trees).
- Hierarchical modeling also has drawbacks. It is more difficult to
 - prove optimality of hierarchical algorithms, and
 - portably implement hierarchical algorithms.
- Would you like to:
 - prove optimality of an algorithm in 16 parameters?
 - develop algorithms for a four-level machine?



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- Hierarchical modeling also has drawbacks. It is more difficult to
 - prove optimality of hierarchical algorithms, and
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- Would you like to:
 - prove optimality of an algorithm in 16 parameters?
 - develop algorithms for a four-level machine?
- Multi-BSP can actually simplify these issues!



Philosophy

The Multi-BSP model

Philosophy

Algorithm design



Motivation

Reasons for parallel computing:

- 1 to speed up a long computation, or
- **2** to split up a **huge computation**.

That is,

we wish to scale in time and memory.



Speedup

Definition (Speedup)

Let T_{seq} be the sequential running time required for solving a problem. Let T_p be the running time of a parallel algorithm using p processes, solving the same problem. Then the **speedup** is given by

 $S=T_{
m seq}/T_p.$

Scalable in time:



Speedup

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m seq}/T_p.$

Scalable in time:

 $\begin{array}{ll} \mbox{Ideally,} & S = p; \\ \mbox{if we are lucky,} & S > p; \\ \mbox{realistically,} & 1 \ll S < p; \\ \mbox{if we do very badly,} & S < 1. \end{array}$

But what is a good speedup?



Maximum attainable speedup

Consider a graph G = (V, E) of a given algorithm, e.g.,

- Nodes correspond to data, edges indicate which data is combined to generate a certain output.
- **Question**: If we had an infinite number of processors, how fast would we be able to run the algorithm shown on the right?

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Maximum attainable speedup

Consider a graph G = (V, E) of a given algorithm, e.g.,

- Nodes correspond to data, edges indicate which data is combined to generate a certain output.
- **Question**: If we had an infinite number of processors, how fast would we be able to run the algorithm shown on the right?
- Answer: $T_{seq} = |V| = 9$, while the critical path length T_{∞} equals 4.
- The maximum speedup hence is:

$$T_{
m seq}/T_{\infty}=9/4.$$





What is parallelism?

Definition (Parallelism)

The **parallelism** of a given algorithm is its maximum attainable speedup:

 $T_{
m seq}/T_{\infty}.$

 T_{∞} is known as the critical path length or the algorithmic span.

This leads to a theoretical upper bound on speedup:

 $S=T_{
m seq}/T_p\leq T_{
m seq}/T_\infty.$

This type of analysis forms the basis of

fine-grained parallel computation.



Fine-grained parallel computing

Decompose a problem into many small tasks, that run **concurrently** (as much as possible). A **run-time scheduler** assigns tasks to processes.

- What is small? Grain-size.
- Performance model? Parallelism.

Algorithms can be implemented as graphs either explicitly or implicitly:

- Intel: Threading Building Blocks (TBB),
- OpenMP,

. . .

- Intel / MIT / Cilk Arts: Cilk,
- Google: Pregel,

By contrast, BSP computing is coarse-grained.



Example via SpMV multiplication. Assuming a Hilbert nonzero ordering:

$$A=\left(egin{array}{cccccc} 4&1&3&0\ 0&0&2&3\ 1&0&0&2\ 7&0&1&1\end{array}
ight)$$



COO (triplet) storage:

$$A = \begin{cases} V & [7 \ 1 \ 4 \ 1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 3 \ 2 \ 1 \ 1] \\ J & [0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 2 \ 2 \ 3 \ 3 \ 3 \ 2] \\ I & [3 \ 2 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 3] \end{cases}$$

for k = 0 to nz - 1 do add $V_k \cdot x_{J_k}$ to y_{I_k}



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COO (triplet) storage:
$$T_{seq}/T_{\infty} = 2nz..?$$

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#omp parallel for private(k) schedule(**dynamic**, 8) for k = 0 to nz - 1 do

add $V_k \cdot x_{J_k}$ to y_{I_k}

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Example via SpMV multiplication. Assuming a Hilbert nonzero ordering:

$$A=\left(egin{array}{ccccc} 4&1&3&0\ 0&0&2&3\ 1&0&0&2\ 7&0&1&1 \end{array}
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COO (triplet) storage: data race! (concurrent writes to the same y_i) $A = \begin{cases} V & [7 \ 1 \ 4 \ 1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 3 \ 2 \ 1 \ 1] \\ J & [0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 2 \ 2 \ 3 \ 3 \ 3 \ 2] \\ I & [3 \ 2 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 3] \end{cases}$

#omp parallel for private(k) schedule(**dynamic**, 8) for k = 0 to nz - 1 do add $V_k \cdot x_{J_k}$ to y_{I_k}

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Example via SpMV multiplication. Assuming row-major nonzero ordering:

$$A = \left(\begin{array}{rrrrr} 4 & 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 7 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{array}\right)$$

CRS storage:

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$$A = egin{cases} V & [4 \ 1 \ 3 \ 2 \ 3 \ 1 \ 2 \ 7 \ 1 \ 1] \ J & [0 \ 1 \ 2 \ 2 \ 3 \ 0 \ 3 \ 0 \ 2 \ 3] \ \hat{I} & [0 \ 3 \ 5 \ 7 \ 10] \end{cases}$$

 $\begin{array}{l} \text{for } i=0 \text{ to } m-1 \text{ do} \\ \text{for } k=\hat{I}_i \text{ to } \hat{I}_{i+1}-1 \text{ do} \\ \text{ add } V_k \cdot x_{J_k} \text{ to } y_i \end{array}$

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ight)$$

CRS storage:
$$T_{seq}/T_{\infty} = nz/\max_i |a_{i:}|$$
 (with $a_{i:}$ the *i*th row of *A*)

$$A = \begin{cases} V & [4 \ 1 \ 3 \ 2 \ 3 \ 1 \ 2 \ 7 \ 1 \ 1] \\ J & [0 \ 1 \ 2 \ 2 \ 3 \ 0 \ 3 \ 0 \ 2 \ 3] \\ \hat{I} & [0 \ 3 \ 5 \ 7 \ 10] \end{cases}$$

#omp parallel for private(i, k) schedule(dynamic, 8)

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Cilk Only two parallel programming primitives:

- (binary) fork, and
- (binary) join.

Definition (Overhead)

The **overhead** of parallel computation is any extra effort expended over the original amount of work $T_{\rm seq}$

$$T_o = pT_p - T_{seq}.$$

The parallel computation time can be expressed in T_o :



Only two parallel programming primitives:

- (binary) fork, and
- (binary) join.

Spawned function calls are assigned to one of the available processes by the Cilk **run time scheduler**.

Cilk

The Cilk scheduler **guarantees**, under some assumptions on the determinism of the algorithm, that

 $T_o = \mathcal{O}(pT_\infty),$

resulting in a parallel run-time T_p bounded by

 $\mathcal{O}(T_1/p+T_\infty).$



MapReduce

Google Pregel is a successor of **MapReduce**, a parallel framework that operates on **large data sets** of key-value pairs

 $S \subseteq K \times V$,

with K a set of possible keys and V a set of values.

MapReduce defines two operations on S:

map: $K \times V \rightarrow K \times V$;

 $\mathsf{reduce}(k)$: $\mathcal{P}(\{k\} \times V) \to K \times V, \quad k \in K.$

 The map operation is embarrasingly parallel: every key-value pair is mapped to a new key-value pair, an entirely local operation.


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- The map operation is embarrasingly parallel: every key-value pair is mapped to a new key-value pair, an entirely local operation.
- The reduction reduces all pairs in S that have the same key k, into one single key-value pair: global communication.



MapReduce

Calculating $\alpha = x^T y$ using MapReduce:

Let $S = \{(0, \{x_0, y_0\}), (1, \{x_1, y_1\}), \ldots\}.$

- **1** Map: for each pair $(i, \{a, b\})$ write (partial, $a \cdot b$). Applying this map adds {(partial, x_0y_0), (partial, x_1y_1), ...} to *S*.
- 2 Reduce: for all pairs with key 'partial', combine their values by addition and store the result using key α . Applying this reduction adds $(\alpha, \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} x_i y_i)$ to *S*.
- **③** Done: *S* contains a single entry with key α and value $x^T y$.

The set S is safely stored on a **resilient file system** to cope with hardware failures.



Pregel

Consider a graph G = (V, E). Graph algorithms may be phrased in an SPMD fashion as follows:

- For each vertex $v \in V$, a thread executes a user-defined SPMD algorithm;
- each algorithm consists of successive local compute phases and global communication phases;
- during a communication phase, a vertex v can only send messages to N(v), where N(v) is the set of neighbouring vertices of v; i.e., $N(v) = \{w \in V \mid \{v, w\} \in E\}.$
- MapReduce and Pregel are variants of the BSP algorithm model!
 - a type of fine-grained BSP.

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parallelism in Pregel is slightly odd to think about;
 e.g., what does its compute graph look like?

Optimisation targets and performance metrics:

- Optimise algorithms to maximise **parallelism** and (thus) minimise the **algorithmic span**;
- run-time scheduler with **bounded overhead** (e.g., pT_{∞} for Cilk).

Questions:

- 1 does this account for all realistic overheads, in your experience?
- 2 does more parallelism always mean better performance?
- 3 we wrote Cilk bounded the parallel run-time by $\mathcal{O}(T_1/p + T_\infty)$. Is there a difference between T_{seq} and T_1 ?



Answers:

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- Q: does this account for all realistic overheads, in your experience?
- A: no. Not accounted for are: memory overhead, and, most importantly, the costs of data movement!

Definition (Memory overhead)

Let M_{seq} be the memory requirement of a sequential algorithm, and let M_p be the memory requirement of a parallel algorithm that solves the same problem. Then the parallel overhead in memory is

$$M_o = pM_p - M_{seq}$$
, or, rewritten:

$$M_p = rac{M_{ ext{seq}} + M_o}{p}.$$

(Cilk bounds M_o , whereas other fine-grained schemes may not.)

Answers:

- Q: does more parallelism always mean better performance?
- A: No; for starters, we typically have less than ∞ processors. Also: maximum speedup is relative to the chosen algorithm; other algorithms that solve the same problem may be preferable!

Example:

- Consider the naive $\Theta(n^2)$ Fourier transformation; its span is $\Theta(\log n)$, so its parallelism is $\Theta(n^2/\log n)$. Lots of parallelism!
- The FFT formulation has work $\Theta(n \log n)$, also with span $\Theta(\log n)$ resulting in $\Theta(\frac{n \log n}{\log n}) = \Theta(n)$ parallelism. Less parallelism...
- Question: how many processors do you need to achieve a theoretical parallel processing time equal to the span, for both the naive and the fast algorithm?



Answers:

- Q: does more parallelism always mean better performance?
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- Question: how many processors do you need to achieve a theoretical parallel processing time equal to the span, for both the naive and the fast algorithm? Answer: naive $\Theta(n^2)$ processors, FFT $\Theta(n)$ processors.



Answers:

- Q: is there a difference between considering T_{seq} or T_1 ?
- A: definitely; there may be multiple sequential algorithms to solve the same problem. When comparing, always compare to the best. For parallel sorting:

 $S^{ ext{odd-even sort}} = T_{ ext{seq}}^{ ext{qsort}}/T_p^{ ext{odd-even sort}}.$

In some cases, however, using T_1 does make sense; for instance, when measuring T_o to see if the implementation behaves as expected from a theoretical analysis:

 $T_o^{\text{odd-even sort}} = pT_p^{\text{odd-even sort}} - T_{\text{seq}}^{\text{odd-even sort}}.$



Questions

Regarding the Cilk parallelisation of $x_n = x_{n-1} + x_{n-2}$, $x_0 = x_1 = 1$:

```
int f( int n ) {
    if( n == 0 || n == 1 ) return 1;
    int x1 = cilk_spawn f( n-1 ); //fork
    int x2 = cilk_spawn f( n-2 ); //fork
    cilk_sync; //join
    return x1 + x2;
}
```

Questions:

- what is T_1 (asymptotically)?
- what is T_∞ (asymptotically)?
- what is T_{seq}?
- is this trivial parallelisation a good idea?



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}
```

```
- T_1 = \Theta(2^n), T_\infty = \Theta(n), but
```

- $T_{seq} = n!$ This parallelisation makes no sense.



Questions

In the bulk synchronous parallel setting, how do the concepts such as span and overhead translate?

Question:

– how do the computation graph, T_{∞} , and T_o look for BSP?



Q: what is the BSP computation graph, span, and overhead? Graph:

- Sequential part, SPMD (supersteps), sequential part.
- The SPMD part is coarse-grained over *p* processors.



Q: what is the BSP computation graph, span, and overhead?

Span:

- Critical path follows compute phases with maximum work $w_i^{(s)}$, and
- communication phases with cost proportional to h_i ;

$$-T_{\infty} = T_p = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} (\max_{i} w_i^{(s)} + h_i g + l).$$

- The span is the BSP cost!



Q: what is the BSP computation graph, span, and overhead?

Overhead (as in
$$T_p = rac{T_{ ext{seq}} + T_o}{p}$$
): $T_o = p\left(\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \max_s w_i^{(s)} + h_i g + l\right) - T_{ ext{seq}}.$

Data movement, latency costs, and extra computations on top of the bare minimum required, all add up to the overhead.



Definition (Efficiency)

Given T_{seq} , p, and T_p , the **efficiency** E of the parallel algorithm is

$$E=S/p=rac{T_{\mathsf{seq}}}{pT_p}.$$

An algorithm is **scalable** (in time) if *E* is constant as $p, T_{seq} \rightarrow \infty$.

Question:

- Express E in terms of T_{seq} and T_o



Express *E* in terms of T_{seq} and T_o , answer:

$$E^{-1} = rac{pT_p - T_{ ext{seq}}}{T_{ ext{seq}}} + 1 = rac{T_o}{T_{ ext{seq}}} + 1.$$

The efficiency only depends on T_{seq} and T_o :

$$E(T_{ ext{seq}},p) = rac{1}{1+rac{T_o(T_{ ext{seq}},T_p)}{T_{ ext{seq}}}}.$$

An algorithm is scalable if T_o/T_{seq} is kept constant. This principle is known as **iso-efficiency** (as advocated by Grama et al.).



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An algorithm is scalable if T_o/T_{seq} is kept constant. This principle is known as **iso-efficiency** (as advocated by Grama et al.).

Questions: how is iso-efficiency affected when considering

1 strong scalability, i.e., $S = \frac{T_{seq}}{T_p} = \Omega(p)$ as $p \to \infty$ while T_{seq} is assumed constant.

2 weak scalability, i.e., $S = \mathcal{O}(1)$ as $T_{\mathsf{seq}} \to \infty$ while p is constant.

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- 1 strong scalability, i.e., $S = \frac{T_{seq}}{T_p} = \Omega(p)$ as $p \to \infty$ while T_{seq} is assumed constant.
- ② weak scalability, i.e., $S = \mathcal{O}(1)$ as $T_{\mathsf{seq}} \to \infty$ while p is constant.

Answers:

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strong scalability:

$$E \sim S/p = rac{\Omega(p)}{p} = \Omega(1).$$

2 weak scalability,

$$E\sim rac{\mathcal{O}(1)}{p}=\mathcal{O}(1).$$

That is, both strong and weak scalability induce iso-efficiency.

Question: Is a BSP algorithm with $T_p = O(T_{seq}/p + p)$ strongly scalable? How about weakly? What is its iso-efficiency?



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I.e., when $T_p = \mathcal{O}(T_{\mathsf{seq}}/p + p),$ there is no strong scalability.

Question: for a small constant c, do we have strong scalability if

1 $T_p = T_{seq}/p + cT_{seq},$ 2 $T_p = T_{seq}/p + c,$ 3 $T_p = T_{seq}/p + c/p.$



Question: Is a BSP algorithm with $T_p = O(T_{seq}/p + p)$ strongly scalable? How about weakly? What is its iso-efficiency? **Answer**: no, yes, and p^2/T_{seq} . (T_{seq} grows quadratically w.r.t. p.)

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Answers:

- 1 No: $T_o = cpT_{seq}$,
- **2** No: $T_o = cp$,

3 Yes: $T_o = c$; strong scalability means constant overhead.



For non-embarrasingly parallel applications, **strong scalability does not exist**. But is that a bad thing?

Definition (Amdahl's Paradox)

Given an algorithm with a serial part of size c and a parallel part of size (1-c), then the maximum speedup of that algorithm is given by

$$S=\frac{T_{\mathrm{seq}}}{T_{\mathrm{seq}}(c+(1-c)/p)}=\frac{1}{1/p-c/p+c}$$

Note that for $p \to \infty$, $S \to \frac{1}{c}$, 'and therefore parallel computing is of extremely limited use' (paraphrased from Amdahl).

If $c = 10^{-2}$ (one percent), the maximum speedup is 100. For $c = 10^{-6}$, $S \le 10^{6}$, etc.



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If $c = 10^{-2}$ (one percent), the maximum speedup is 100. For $c = 10^{-6}$, $S \le 10^{6}$, etc. So to scale, we need **a lot more** parallelisable work than non-parallelisable work. 'This naturally happens when $T_{seq} \to \infty$ ' (paraphrased from Gustavson); this is what led to **weak scalability**.

Recall that for BSP algorithms:

$$T_o = p\left(\sum_{i=0}^{N-1}\max_s w_i^{(s)} + h_i g + l
ight) - T_{ ext{seq}}.$$

Iso-efficiency then requires that the following expression be kept constant:

$$E^{-1} = 1 + T_o/T_{ ext{seq}} = p\left(\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} rac{\max_s w_i^{(s)} + h_i g + l}{T_{ ext{seq}}}
ight).$$

For BSP, usually $T_p > T_{seq}/p + g + l$; we never expect strong scalability; but like always, making sure that $T_p \sim T_{seq}$ gets us weak scalability.



Algorithm design

The Multi-BSP model

2 Philosophy

3 Algorithm design















Question: can we do better?



- Question: can we do better?
- Perform more balanced communication, two phases:
 - 1 communicate value upwards only (until the root node has it);
 - 2 broadcast values downwards.



Question: can we do better?

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Perform more balanced communication, two phases:

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Due to the imposed Multi-BSP computer model, each node **must** be visited, even in this minimal example.

For any non-trivial Multi-BSP algorithm,

$$T_o \geq 2p\sum_{k=0}^{L-1}(g_k+l_k).$$

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For any non-trivial Multi-BSP algorithm,

$$T_o \geq 2p\sum_{k=0}^{L-1}(g_k+l_k).$$

Question: is **storing** the broadcast value 2p - 1 times mandatory?


Memory embedding (shared address space):



Memory requirements are now bounded from below as $M_p \ge M_{seq}/p + p$.



Optimal algorithm with embedding (shared address space):



Start SPMD section, entry at leaf level, leaf 6 is source.



Optimal algorithm with embedding (shared address space):



On this local BSP computer, communicate *val* to PID 0 and **move up**.



Optimal algorithm with embedding (shared address space):



On this upper level, send *val* to PID 0, **broadcast**, and **move down**.



Optimal algorithm with embedding (shared address space):



On this level, only PID 0 has *val*; **broadcast**, and done.



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On this level, only PID 0 has *val*; **broadcast**, and done.



Input: val (a value or \emptyset), Output: the value that was broadcast. if $val \neq \emptyset$ then set source = true else set source = falsewhile not on the Multi-BSP root do if *source* and *bsp* $pid() \neq 0$ then send val to PID 0 move upwards in the Multi-BSP tree while not on a leaf node do if bsp pid() = 0 then for k = 1 to bsp nprocs() do send val to PID k move downwards in the Multi-BSP tree return val



New Multi-BSP primitives

To control the flow up and down the Multi-BSP tree:

- bsp_up(), and
- bsp_down().

These are **synchronising** primitives, like bsp_sync().

To inspect Multi-BSP tree information:

- bsp_lid(), the leaf ID of this SPMD program;
- bsp_leaf(), whether this SPMD program runs on a leaf;
- bsp_sleaves(), the number of leaf nodes in this subtree;
- bsp_nleaves(), the total number of leaf nodes in the full tree.

That's it!



- Non-trivial Multi-BSP algorithms require that

$$T_p = \Omega(T_{\mathsf{seq}}/p + \sum_{k=0}^{L-1} (g_k + l_k));$$

If each node in the tree runs an SPMD program and is non-trivial, then

- leaf nodes distribute the sequential work,
- internal nodes communicate at least one word and synchronise once while going up the Multi-BSP computer tree, and
- synchronise again while going down the tree.
- The minimal non-trivial parallel cost thus is as given above.



- non-trivial Multi-BSP algorithms require that

$$pM_p = \Omega(M_{seq} + p), \text{ i.e., } M_o = \Omega(p);$$

Each Multi-BSP node is represented in memory, together with at least the M_{seq} data required for the entire problem, from which the above follows.



- communication can still be done using 'horizontal' primitives.
- Algorithm data does not need to be replicated by using **memory embedding**. This also enables **horizontal communication**, just like what we are used to from 'flat' BSP.



- in general, **no compute** on **non-leaf** nodes.
- In principle, the leaf node with PID 0 could handle the computation of its parent Multi-BSP node. Higher-level nodes can choose a representative in a recursive fashion, similar to memory embedding.
- Distributing part of the computational cost over non-leaf nodes in this fashion, necessarily uses less than p processors. Doing so leaves the remaining processes idle, thus contributing unnecessary overhead.



we have demonstrated a Multi-BSP broadcasting algorithm with cost

$$egin{aligned} T_p^{ ext{multibsp-bcast}} &= \sum_{k=0}^{L-1} \left(g_k + l_k + oldsymbol{T}_k^{ ext{bsp-bcast}}
ight), ext{ with } \ T_k^{ ext{bsp-bcast}} &= \min_{b \in \{2,...,p\}} ((b-1)g_k + l_k) \log_b p_k. \end{aligned}$$

The Multi-BSP broadcast traverses the Multi-BSP tree a minimal number of times; only once up, and once down.

- we can still use known BSP algorithms within Multi-BSP algorithms;
- only a few additional primitives enable writing portable codes.



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- communication can still be done using 'horizontal' primitives;
- in general, no compute on non-leaf nodes;
- we have demonstrated a Multi-BSP broadcasting algorithm and determined its Multi-BSP cost;
- we can still use known BSP algorithms within Multi-BSP algorithms;
- only a few additional primitives enable writing portable codes.

