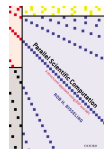


Parallel Inner Product Computation **(PSC §1.3)**

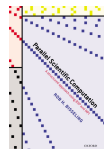


Inner product of two vectors

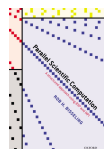
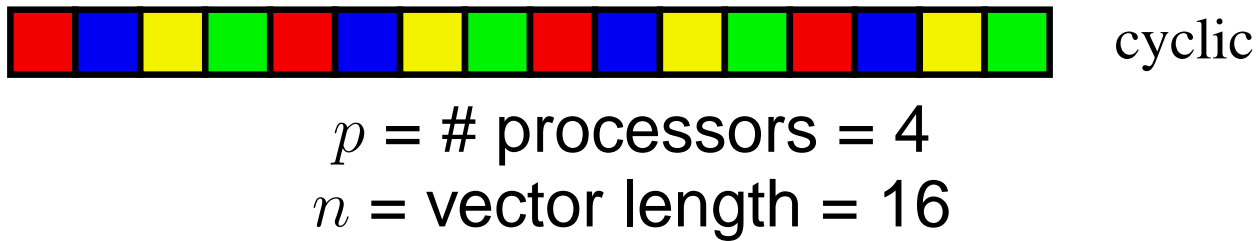
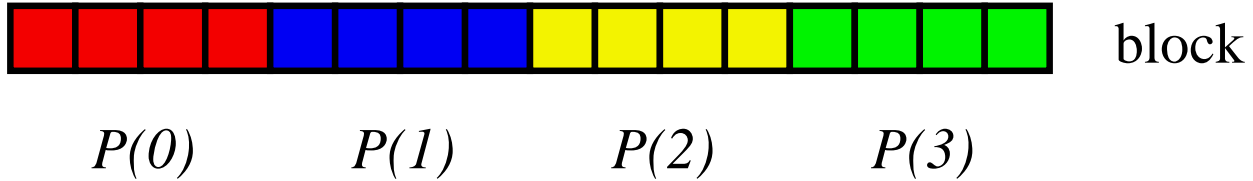
The **inner product** of two vectors $\mathbf{x} = (x_0, \dots, x_{n-1})^T$ and $\mathbf{y} = (y_0, \dots, y_{n-1})^T$ is defined by

$$\alpha = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} x_i y_i.$$

Here, 'T' denotes transposition. All vectors are column vectors.



Data distributions for vector



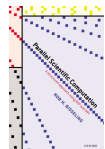
Block distribution

- The **block distribution** is defined by

$$x_i \longmapsto P(i \operatorname{div} b), \text{ for } 0 \leq i < n.$$

Here the div operator stands for dividing and rounding down: $i \operatorname{div} b = \lfloor i/b \rfloor$.

- The **block size** is $b = \lceil \frac{n}{p} \rceil = \frac{n}{p}$ rounded up.
- For $n = 9$ and $p = 4$, this assigns 3, 3, 3, 0 vector components to the processors, respectively. You may blink at an empty processor, but this distribution is just as good as 3, 2, 2, 2. Really!



Cyclic distribution

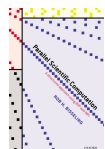
The **cyclic distribution** is defined by

$$x_i \longmapsto P(i \bmod p), \text{ for } 0 \leq i < n.$$

This distribution is easiest to compute. Note the advantage of starting to count at zero: the formula becomes very simple.



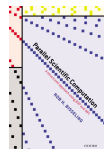
Some kids have been raised to start counting at zero.



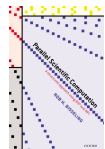
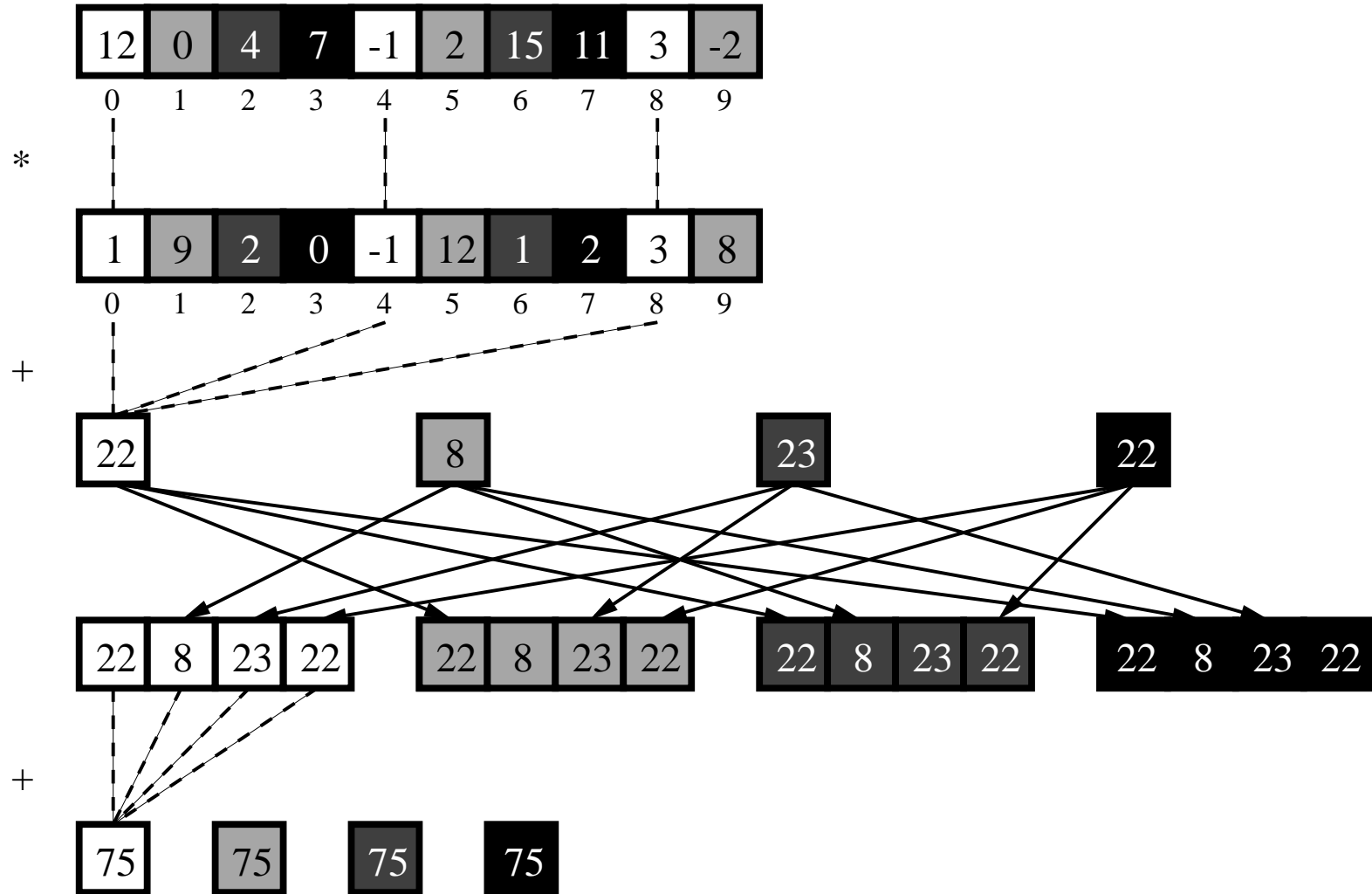
Parallel inner product computation

Design decisions:

- Assign x_i and y_i to the **same processor**, for all i .
This makes computing $x_i \cdot y_i$ a local operation.
Thus $\text{distr}(\mathbf{x}) = \text{distr}(\mathbf{y})$.
- Choose a distribution with an **even spread** of vector components. Both block and cyclic distributions are fine.
We choose cyclic, following the way card players deal their cards.
- The data distribution naturally leads to a work distribution and a parallel algorithm.



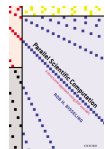
Example for $n = 10$ and $p = 4$



Parallel inner product algorithm for $P(s)$

input: \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} : vector of length n ,
 $\text{distr}(\mathbf{x}) = \text{distr}(\mathbf{y}) = \phi$,
 with $\phi(i) = i \bmod p$, for $0 \leq i < n$.
output: $\alpha = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y}$.

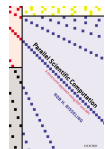
(0) $\alpha_s := 0$;
 for $i := s$ **to** $n - 1$ **step** p **do**
 $\alpha_s := \alpha_s + x_i y_i$;



Parallel inner product algorithm for $P(s)$

input: \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} : vector of length n ,
 $\text{distr}(\mathbf{x}) = \text{distr}(\mathbf{y}) = \phi$,
with $\phi(i) = i \bmod p$, for $0 \leq i < n$.
output: $\alpha = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y}$.

```
(0)   $\alpha_s := 0$ ;  
      for  $i := s$  to  $n - 1$  step  $p$  do  
         $\alpha_s := \alpha_s + x_i y_i$ ;  
  
(1)  for  $t := 0$  to  $p - 1$  do  
        put  $\alpha_s$  in  $P(t)$ ;
```



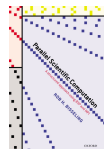
Parallel inner product algorithm for $P(s)$

input: \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} : vector of length n ,
 $\text{distr}(\mathbf{x}) = \text{distr}(\mathbf{y}) = \phi$,
with $\phi(i) = i \bmod p$, for $0 \leq i < n$.
output: $\alpha = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y}$.

(0) $\alpha_s := 0$;
for $i := s$ **to** $n - 1$ **step** p **do**
 $\alpha_s := \alpha_s + x_i y_i$;

(1) **for** $t := 0$ **to** $p - 1$ **do**
 put α_s in $P(t)$;

(2) $\alpha := 0$;
for $t := 0$ **to** $p - 1$ **do**
 $\alpha := \alpha + \alpha_t$;



Single Program, Multiple Data (SPMD)

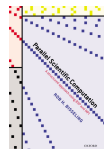
- Only one program text needs to be written. All processors run the same program, but on their own data.
- The program text is parametrised in the **processor number** s , $0 \leq s < p$, also called **processor identity**. The actual execution of the program depends on s .
- Processor $P(s)$ computes a partial inner product

$$\alpha_s = \sum_{0 \leq i < n, i \bmod p = s} x_i y_i.$$

This computation is completely local.

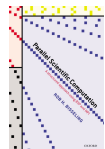
- The corresponding computation superstep (0) costs

$$2 \left\lceil \frac{n}{p} \right\rceil + l.$$



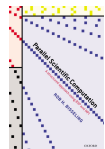
Result needed on all processors

- The partial inner products must be added. This could have been done by $P(0)$, i.e. processor 0.
- Sending the α_s to $P(0)$ is a $(p - 1)$ -relation. Sending them to $P(*)$, i.e., to all the processors, costs the same. The cost is $(p - 1)g + l$.
- Computing α on $P(0)$ costs the same as computing it on all the processors **redundantly**, i.e. in a replicated fashion. The cost is $p + l$.
- Often, the result is needed on all processors. An example is iterative linear system solvers. The algorithm does just this.



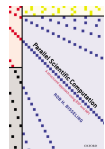
Total BSP cost of inner product

$$T_{\text{inprod}} = 2 \left\lceil \frac{n}{p} \right\rceil + p + (p - 1)g + 3l.$$



One-sided communication

- The 'put' operation involves an active sender and a passive receiver. We assume all puts are accepted. Thus we can define each data transfer by giving only the action of one side.
- No clutter in programs: shorter and simpler texts.
- No danger of the dreaded **deadlock**. What happens if both processors want to receive first? Deadlock can easily occur in **message passing**, with an active sender and an active receiver that must shake hands, or kiss. This may cause lots of problems.
- Another one-sided communication is the 'get'. The name says it all.
- One-sided communications are more efficient.



Summary

- We design algorithms in **Single Program, Multiple Data** style. Each processor runs its own copy of the same program, on its own data.
- The **block** and **cyclic distributions** are commonly used in parallel computing. Both are suitable for an inner product computation.
- The BSP style encourages **balancing the communication** among the processors. Sending all data to one processor is discouraged. Better: all to all.
- One-sided communications such as **puts** and **gets** are easy to use and efficient.

