Introduction to Scheduling

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- Modeling Applications, General Notions
 - Introducing Fundamental Notions Through the Matrix Product Example
 - Adaptive Parallel Programs
 - Task Graphs and Parallel Tasks From Outer Space
- Defining a Scheduling Problem
 - Rules of the Game
 - Criteria: How Do You Win the Game?
 - Analysis Method
 - Graham Notation
- 3 Batch Scheduling
 - Principles
 - Theoretical results
 - Basic idea: FCFS + Backfilling
 - EASY
 - How Good is the Schedule?
- Gang Scheduling as an Alternative
 - Principles

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```
1 { To compute C \leftarrow C + A \times B }
2 for i=1 to n do
3 for j=1 to n do
4 for k=1 to n do
5 C_{i,j} \leftarrow C_{i,j} + A_{i,k} \times B_{k,j}
```

$B_{1,1}$	$B_{1,2}$
$B_{2,1}$	$B_{2,2}$

$A_{1,1}$	$A_{1,2}$
$A_{2,1}$	$A_{2,2}$

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline C_{1,1} & C_{1,2} \\ \hline C_{2,1} & C_{2,2} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\mathbf{2} | C_{1,1} \leftarrow C_{1,1} + A_{1,1} \times B_{1,1}$$

$$|C_{1,1} \leftarrow C_{1,1} + A_{1,2} \times B_{2,1}|$$

6
$$C_{1,2} \leftarrow C_{1,2} + A_{1,1} \times B_{1,2}$$

$$\mathbf{8} | C_{1,2} \leftarrow C_{1,2} + A_{1,2} \times B_{2,2}$$

9 . .

$B_{1,1}$	$B_{1,2}$
$B_{2,1}$	$B_{2,2}$

CPU 2 4 6 8

$$\begin{array}{c|c} A_{1,1} & A_{1,2} \\ \hline A_{2,1} & A_{2,2} \\ \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline C_{1,1} & C_{1,2} \\ \hline C_{2,1} & C_{2,2} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

1 Load
$$C_{1,1}$$
, $A_{1,1}$, $B_{1,1}$

$$\mathbf{2} | C_{1,1} \leftarrow C_{1,1} + A_{1,1} \times B_{1,1}$$

3 Unload $A_{1,1}$, $B_{1,1}$. Load $A_{1,2}$, $B_{2,1}$

$$\mathbf{4} \mid C_{1,1} \leftarrow C_{1,1} + A_{1,2} \times B_{2,1}$$

5 Unload $C_{1,1}$, $A_{1,2}$, $B_{2,1}$. Load $C_{1,2}$, $A_{1,1}$, $B_{1,2}$

$$\mathbf{6} \mid C_{1,2} \leftarrow C_{1,2} + A_{1,1} \times B_{1,2}$$

7 Unload $A_{1,1}$, $B_{1,2}$

$$\mathbf{8} | C_{1,2} \leftarrow C_{1,2} + A_{1,2} \times B_{2,2}$$

9 . . .

$B_{1,1}$	$B_{1,2}$
$B_{2,1}$	$B_{2,2}$

CPU		2		4		6		8	
I/O	1		3		5		7		

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|} \hline A_{1,1} & A_{1,2} \\ \hline A_{2,1} & A_{2,2} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline C_{1,1} & C_{1,2} \\ \hline C_{2,1} & C_{2,2} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

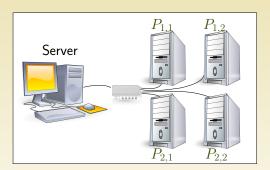
- 1 Load $C_{1,1}$, $A_{1,1}$, $B_{1,1}$
- $\mathbf{2} | C_{1,1} \leftarrow C_{1,1} + A_{1,1} \times B_{1,1}$
- 3 Unload $A_{1,1}$, $B_{1,1}$. Load $A_{1,2}$, $B_{2,1}$
- 4 $C_{1,1} \leftarrow C_{1,1} + A_{1,2} \times B_{2,1}$
- 5 Unload $C_{1,1}$, $A_{1,2}$, $B_{2,1}$. Load $C_{1,2}$, $A_{1,1}$, $B_{1,2}$
- **6** $C_{1,2} \leftarrow C_{1,2} + A_{1,1} \times B_{1,2}$
- 7 Unload $A_{1,1}, B_{1,2}$
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$B_{1,1}$	$B_{1,2}$
$B_{2,1}$	$B_{2,2}$

Sequential Programs

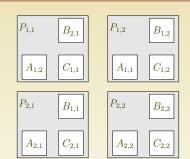
Sequential programs are generally a succession of CPU burst and I/O burst.

Matrix Product: Parallel Version (1/2) Setting

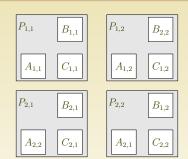


- ▶ A, B, and C are initially located on the server.
- ▶ We will distribute A, B, and C on $P_{1,1}$, $P_{1,2}$, $P_{2,1}$, $P_{2,2}$.
- ▶ We will make use of all four processors to compute $C \leftarrow C + A \times B$.
- ► Such a parallel program could be written using for example MPI. We want a SPMD algorithm.

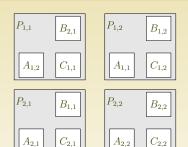
- 1 $\{P_{i,j} \text{ is responsible for computing } C_{i,j}.\}$
- 2 Load $C_{i,j}$, $A_{i,(i+j)\%2}$, $B_{(i+j)\%2,j}$ from the server
- $|C_{local} \leftarrow C_{local} + A_{local} \times B_{local}|$
- 4 Exchange A_{local} with horizontal neighbor
- 5 Exchange B_{local} with vertical neighbor
- 6 $C_{local} \leftarrow C_{local} + A_{local} \times B_{local}$
- 7 Unload $C_{i,j}$ to the server

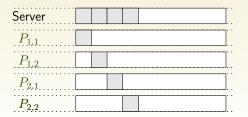


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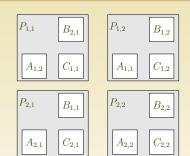


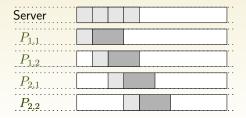
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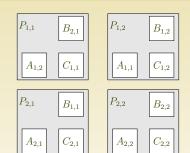


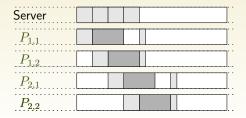
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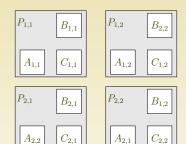


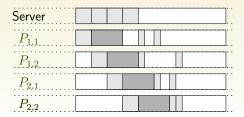
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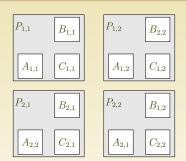


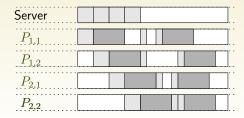
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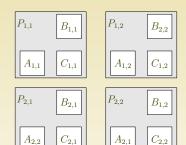


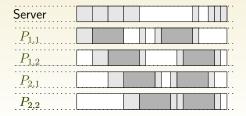
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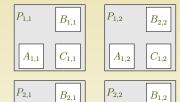
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Algorithm

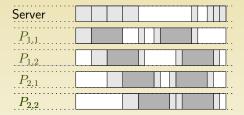
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Parallel Programs

Parallel programs are generally a succession of CPU burst and communication burst. The synchronization pattern generally incurs idle time. This is the parallelization overhead.



Server					
$P_{1,1}$				Ш	
$P_{1,2}$					
$P_{2,1}$					
$P_{2,2}$					

Definition: Work.

The work is the amount of computation performed (the surface of the pink area).

In the previous parallel Matrix Multiplication example, the work is the same as in the sequential Matrix Multiplication example.

However, parallel algorithms generally do not do the same operations as the sequential ones. They often have to do more. Therefore, the work W(p) generally depends on the number of processors that are alloted!

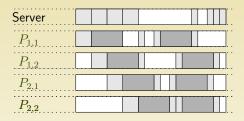
Server	
$P_{1,1}$	
$P_{1,2}$	
$P_{2,1}$	
$P_{2,2}$	

Definition: Cost.

$$C(p) = p \times \mathsf{TotalTime}(p).$$

It is the total surface.

The cost accounts for the idle time of the processing units.

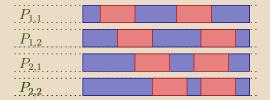


Definition: **Speed-up and Efficiency**.

- $\blacktriangleright \ \mathsf{Speed\text{-up:}} \ s(p) = \frac{\mathsf{SequentialTime}}{\mathsf{TotalTime}(p)}.$
- ► Efficiency: $e(p) = \frac{s(p)}{p} = \frac{\text{SequentialTime}}{p \times \text{TotalTime}(p)}$.

Speed-up

We have SequentialTime $\leqslant C(p) \leqslant p \times \mathsf{TotalTime}(p)$.



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Hence,
$$s(p) = \frac{\mathsf{SequentialTime}}{\mathsf{TotalTime}(p)} \leqslant p \text{ and } e(p) = \frac{\mathsf{SequentialTime}}{p\mathsf{TotalTime}(p)} \leqslant 1.$$

The speed-up is bounded by the number of processors and the efficiency is thus in [0,1].

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Efficiency

TotalTime(p) does not necessarily decrease with p due to the parallelization overhead.

Using more processors may hurt and may be particularly inefficient!

Parallel Matrix Algorithm

Block Version of the Outer-Product Algorithm

```
1 \mid \text{var } A, B, C: \text{array}[0..m-1,0..m-1] \text{ of real}
 2 | var \ buffer A, buffer B: array [0..m-1,0..m-1] of real
 3 \mid q \leftarrow \mathsf{SRQT}(\mathsf{Num\_Procs}())
4 \mid myrow \leftarrow M_{Y\_}P_{ROC\_}Row()
 5 \mid mycol \leftarrow My_Proc_Col()
6 for k = 0 to q - 1 do
       for i=0 to m-1 do
                                                 { Broadcast A along rows }
7
8
           BroadcastRow(i, k, A, bufferA, m \times m)
       for j = 0 to m - 1 do { Broadcast B along columns }
9
           BroadcastCol(k, j, B, bufferB, m \times m)
10
11
                                                   { Multiply matrix blocks }
       if (myrow = k) And (mycol = k) then
12
        MATRIX MULTIPLY ADD (C, A, B, m)
13
       else if (myrow = k) then Matrix Multiply Add (C, buffer A, B, m)
14
       else if (mycol = k) then MatrixMultiplyAdd(C, A, bufferB, m)
15
       else Matrix Multiply Add (C, buffer A, buffer B, m)
16
```

Parallel Matrix Algorithm

Block Version of the Outer-Product Algorithm

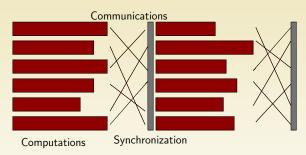
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  Two Comments
     Many parallel programs take the number of processors as an input
        and adapt to it.

    Many parallel programs use collective communication operations and

        synchronization.
10
11
                                                    { Multiply matrix blocks }
       if (myrow = k) And (mycol = k) then
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```

The BSP model

Bulk Synchronous Parallel is a programming paradigm whose principle is a series of independent steps of computations and communication/synchronization.



The cost of a superstep is determined as the sum of three terms:

$$T = \max_{i} w(i) + \max_{i} h(i)g + l$$

Scheduling under BSP is about finding a tradeoff between load-balancing and number of communication/synchronizations.

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Moldable Parallel Programs

Remember the previous "Block Version of the Outer-Product Algorithm".

```
1 q \leftarrow \text{SRQT}(\text{Num\_Procs}())

2 myrow \leftarrow \text{My\_Proc\_Row}()

3 mycol \leftarrow \text{My\_Proc\_Col}()

4 for k = 0 to q - 1 do

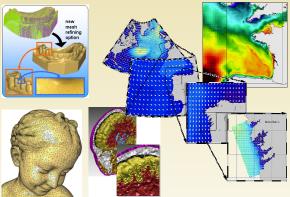
5 \lfloor \dots
```

This q is not hard-coded. The algorithm adapts to the number of available processors at the beginning of the execution.

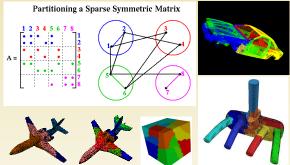
It uses this number to distribute the data and organize the communications.

Such programs are called moldable.

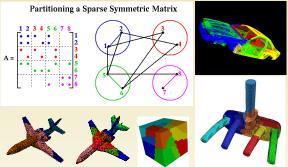
Code Coupling and Adaptive Mesh-Refining



Mesh Partitioning

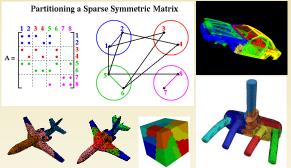


Code Coupling and Adaptive Mesh-Refining



When using adaptive mesh-refining, load imbalance occurs. Coupling code makes it worse.

Code Coupling and Adaptive Mesh-Refining



When using adaptive mesh-refining, load imbalance occurs. Coupling code makes it worse. Recomputing a good partition and redistributing the data is not necessarily a good option. However adding computing resources on the fly is often very efficient.

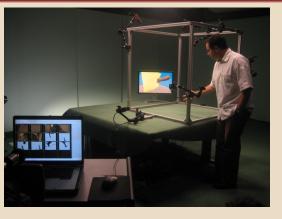
 \sim The resource requirements vary over the time.

This kind of program is called dynamic.



Adaptive Programs

FlowVR: Adaptive Interactive Rendering



These programs can adapt to the resource they are alloted over the time.

This kind of program is called malleable.

Adaptive Programs

KAAPI: Adaptive, Asynchronous Parallel and Interactive Computing

KAAPI is based on work-stealing algorithms and contains non-blocking and scalable algorithms.

KAAPI/Taktuk won the 4th and 5th International Challenge GRIDS@WORK (2007, 2008).

2007 N-queens

2008 Super Quant Monte-Carlo, pricing application.

- ▶ 3609 cores used between France and Japan during one hour.
- ► The KAAPI/Taktuk team was able to price 988 actions on the 1000 of the challenge and was scored 8760/18000.
- ► The second team was able to price 177 actions using 4329 and was scored 1459/18000.

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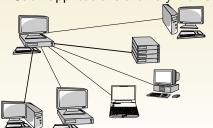
Parallelizing generally has a price. There is a computation overhead and a communication/synchronization overhead.

Some applications however have a very low computation overhead and can be very easily divided.

- Pattern Searching
- Database Computation

- Video encoding
- Image processing

Such applications are very well suited to master-slave computing.



Computation times and communication times are linear with the fraction of alloted load.

This kind of program is called divisible.

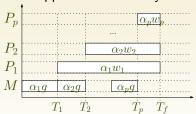
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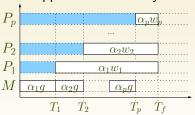
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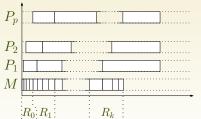
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- Database Computation

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- ► Image processing

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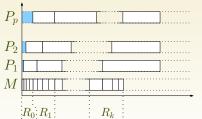
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Analyzing a Simple Code

Solving A.x = B where A is lower triangular matrix

$$\quad \text{for } i=1 \text{ to } n \text{ do}$$

Task
$$T_{i,i}$$
: $x(i) \leftarrow b(i)/a(i,i)$



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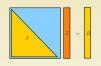


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 $<_{seq}$ is the sequential order :

$$T_{1,1} <_{seq} T_{1,2} <_{seq} T_{1,3} <_{seq} \dots <_{seq} T_{1,n} <_{seq} T_{2,2} <_{seq} T_{2,3} <_{seq} \dots <_{seq} T_{n,n}$$
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However, some independent tasks could be executed in parallel.

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In the previous example, we have :

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Definition.

Two tasks T and T' are not independent ($T\bot T'$) whenever they share a written variable:

$$T\bot T' \Leftrightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{c} In(T)\cap Out(T')\neq \emptyset \\ \text{or} \quad Out(T)\cap In(T')\neq \emptyset \\ \text{or} \quad Out(T)\cap Out(T')\neq \emptyset \end{array} \right..$$

Those conditions are known as Bernstein's conditions [Bernstein66].

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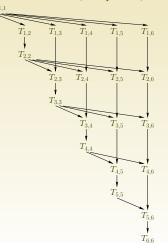
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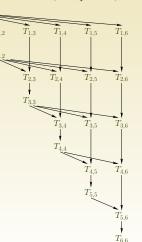
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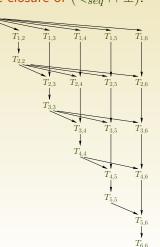
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Transitivity arcs are generally omitted.



From Coarse-grain Task Graphs...

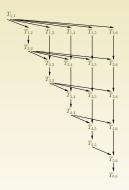
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It probably makes little sense to do a parallel implementation with MPI with such a low task granularity.

Can totally make sense with OpenMP.

Such task graphs can also be used by compilers to do code optimization by exploiting multiple functional units, pipelines functional units, etc.

With blocking these tasks could become MPI (parallel) tasks.



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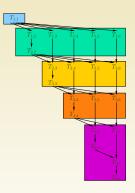
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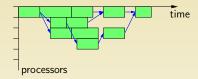
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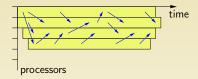
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Hide applications' complexity



Rigid Tasks



The execution time *generally* decreases with the number of processors but the penalty incurred by communications and synchronizations increases.



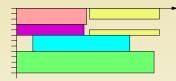
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3 versions:

- Rigid Tasks
- ► Moldable Tasks



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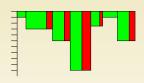


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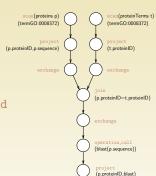
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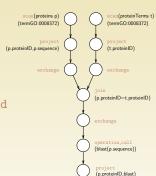
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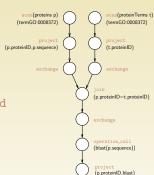
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► Each task may be a parallel job...

Workflow

Task-graph do not necessarily come from instruction-level analysis.



- ► Each task may be a parallel job...
- ► Each edge depicts a dependency i.e. most of the times some data to transfer.

Conclusion

I have presented you a few different parallel program models:

- rigid jobs
- moldable jobs
- dynamic jobs
- malleable jobs

- divisible jobs
- ▶ BSP jobs
- ► DAGs of the previous jobs

The rationale behind all these models is:

- the diversity and the complexity of parallel programs;
- the level of details we need/wish to expose to the one in charge of the execution.

Modeling is an art.

You have to know your application to know what is negligible and what is important. Even if your model is imperfect, you may still derive interesting results.



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Some questions you need to answer

Preemption Are we allowed to suspend a program and resume it later?

- Resumed from the beginning or from where it was stopped?
- ▶ May be resumed on another machine or not (migration)?
- ▶ Does preemption/migration has a cost or not?

Release dates Are all tasks available at the very beginning or not?

Deadlines Are the tasks associated to a deadline before which they should complete? What happens when the deadline is missed?

Dependencies Are there dependencies between tasks (DAGs)?

Users Are there many users and should this be taken into account?

Long-term vs. short-term What kind of constraints do you have on the time needed to take your scheduling decisions?

Online vs. Off-line, clairvoyance

What kind of of information do you have to make your scheduling choices?

Off-line You know everything (release dates and processing time of each task) at the very beginning.

It is the "simplest" setting and will give you insights on your scheduling problem even though these hypothesis do not really hold in practice. This kind of problem should thus be studied *before everything else*.

On-line/clairvoyant You do not know in advance when tasks arrive. However, once a new task are available, you know its computation time.

On-line/non clairvoyant You know nothing!

Sometimes (often?), reality is in between:

- ▶ We could have "informations" about the task arrival (e.g., periodic creation, random process, use the past to predict the future).
- ▶ We could have "informations" about the task computation requirement (e.g., mix of short tasks and long tasks).

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Criteria: Intuitive Notion

- CPU utilization (max) percent usage of CPU. Only useful computations (mix CPU, I/O; preemption overhead).
- Throughput (max) average number of tasks that complete their execution per time-unit.
- Makespan (min) Completion time of the last finishing task.
- Load (min) Completion time of the last finishing task for a given processor.
- Turnaround Time/Response Time/Flow (min) amount of time it takes between the task arrival and its completion.
- Waiting Time (min) amount of time spent waiting for being executed.
- Slowdown/Stretch (min) slowdown factor encountered by a task relative to the time it would take on an unloaded system.

The previous quantities are task- or CPU-centric and need to be aggregated into a single objective function.

- max (the worst case)
- average: arithmetic (i.e. sum) or something else...
- variance (to be "fair" between the tasks).

A given task T_i is defined by:

- ightharpoonup processing time p_i
- ▶ release date r_i
- ightharpoonup completion time C_i

- ▶ (number of required processors q_i)
- ightharpoonup (deadline d_i)

Completion Time

- Makespan: $C_{\max} = \max_i C_i$ This metric is the most classical and is relevant when scheduling a *single* application.
- ▶ Total Completion Time: $SC = \sum_i C_i$



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Response Time

$$F_i = C_i - r_i$$

- ▶ Maximum Flow Time: $F_{\max} = \max_i F_i$
- ▶ Total Completion Time: $SF = \sum_i F_i = SC \sum_i r_i$

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Waiting Time

$$W_i = C_i - r_i - p_i$$

- ▶ Maximum Waiting time: $W_{\max} = \max_i W_i$
- ▶ Total Waiting Time: $SW = \sum_i W_i = SF \sum_i p_i$

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Slowdown

$$S_i = \frac{C_i - r_i}{p_i}$$

- ▶ Maximum Stretch: $S_{\max} = \max_i S_i$
- ▶ Total Stretch: $SS = \sum_{i} S_{i}$



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NP-completeness

Most scheduling problem are NP-complete but you may be lucky. . . So the first question to answer is: P or NP-hard?

For a given objective function Obj:

Definition: **Decision and Optimization**.

Dec(M): Is there a schedule σ such that $Obj(\sigma) \leqslant M$?

Opt: Find M^* such that $M^* = \min_{\sigma} Obj(\sigma)$.

If Dec can be solved in polynomial time, then so can Opt (using a dichotomy). And conversely. . .

Note that since $SW(\sigma) = SF(\sigma) - \sum_i p_i = SC(\sigma) - \sum_i r_i - \sum_i p_i$, all these problem are equivalent on a complexity point of view.



Worst-Case Analysis: *Q*-approximation

Your scheduling problem is NP-hard so you need to propose a heuristic and compare it to the best possible solution. Consider a given objective function Obj.

Definition: ρ -approximation.

An algorithm $\mathcal A$ is a ϱ -approximation iff for any instance I, $Obj(\mathcal A(I))\leqslant \varrho.Obj^*(I).$

The approximation ratio of A is:

$$\varrho(\mathcal{A}) = \max_{I} \frac{Obj(\mathcal{A}(I))}{Obj^{*}(I)}$$

Note that even though $SW(\sigma) = SF(\sigma) - \sum_i p_i = SC(\sigma) - \sum_i r_i - \sum_i p_i$, these problem are **not** equivalent on an approximation point of view.



Worst-Case Analysis: *Q*-competitive

What is the best solution to an online problem (where the heuristic doesn't know in advance the jobs arrival) ?

We keep comparing to the best possible solution, i.e. the one that knows everything.

Definition: *q*-competitive.

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The approximation ratio of \mathcal{A} is:

$$\varrho(\mathcal{A}) = \max_{I} \frac{Obj(\mathcal{A}(I))}{Obj^{*}(I)}$$

It is the same definition except that it applies to online algorithms. For such a pessimistic evaluation, one commonly uses an adversary.

Average-Case Analysis

If we have a probability distribution over the set of instances, Obj can thus be seen as a random variable. We can define the expectation of Obj.

$$\mathbb{E}[Obj(\mathcal{A})] = \int_{I} Obj(\mathcal{A}(I))p(I).dI = \sum_{I} Obj(\mathcal{A}(I))p(I)$$

People often try to evaluate at (at least through experiments)

$$\varrho(\mathcal{A}) = \int_{I} \frac{Obj(\mathcal{A}(I))}{Obj^{*}(I)} p(I).dI \text{ or }$$

$$\varrho(\mathcal{A}) = \frac{\mathbb{E}[Obj(\mathcal{A})]}{\mathbb{E}[Obj^{*}]} = \frac{\int_{I} Obj(\mathcal{A}(I)) p(I).dI}{\int_{I} Obj^{*}(I) p(I).dI}$$

However, in the literature, there are many different ways of comparing random variables (and thus to compare and evaluate algorithms). These techniques will be presented in much more details later.

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- d: deadlines;
- $ightharpoonup \gamma$ denotes the optimization criterion (a few examples):
 - $ightharpoonup C_{\max}$: makespan;
 - $ightharpoonup \sum C_i$: average completion time;
 - $\triangleright \sum w_i C_i$: weighted A.C.T;

- L_{max}: maximum lateness $(\max C_i d_i);$
- · . . .

Graham Notation: Exercise

Understand the following problems and propose a practical situation to illustrate them:

- $ightharpoonup \langle P|prec|C_{\rm max}\rangle$
- $ightharpoonup \langle P|q_i, prec|C_{\max}\rangle$
- $ightharpoonup \langle P|q_i|F_{\rm max}\rangle$
- $ightharpoonup \langle 1|r_i; pmtn|S_{\max}\rangle$
- $ightharpoonup \langle 1|r_i; pmtn, d_i|L_{\max}\rangle$

Scheduling...

Scheduling is a very generic word that encompass a very wide range of situations, problems and analysis techniques.

Scheduling is generally about deciding who, where and when.

It is thus almost everywhere and when you start looking at a given scheduling problem, with very high probability, many people already worked on it.

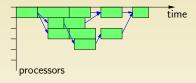
Doing a serious and thorough bibliographical study is thus of uttermost importance!

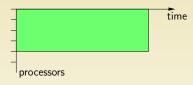
Outline

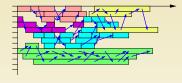
- 1 Modeling Applications, General Notions
 - Introducing Fundamental Notions Through the Matrix Product Example
 - Adaptive Parallel Programs
 - Task Graphs and Parallel Tasks From Outer Space
- 2 Defining a Scheduling Problem
 - Rules of the Game
 - Criteria: How Do You Win the Game?
 - Analysis Method
 - Graham Notation
- Batch Scheduling
 - Principles
 - Theoretical results
 - Basic idea: FCFS + Backfilling
 - EASY
 - How Good is the Schedule?
 - Gang Scheduling as an Alternative
 - Principles

Outline

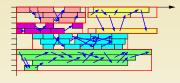
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- When one purchases a cluster, typically many users want to use it.
 - ▶ One cannot let them step on each other's toes
 - Every user wants to be on a dedicated machine
 - Applications are written assuming some amount of RAM, some notion that all processors go at the same speed, etc.



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 Parallel Tasks from Scientific Computations (simulation, medical)



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Batch Scheduling

 Parallel Tasks from Scientific Computations (simulation, medical)



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The Job Scheduler is the entity that prevents them from stepping on each other's toes

The Job Scheduler gives out nodes to applications

Batch Scheduling

Each job is defined as a Number of nodes (q_i) and a Time (p_i) :

I want 6 nodes for 1h

Typically users are "charged" against an "allocation": e.g. "You only get 100 CPU hours per week".

A batch scheduler is a central middleware to manage resources (e.g. processors) of parallel machines:

- accept jobs (computing tasks) submitted by users
- decide when and where jobs are executed
- start jobs execution

They take into account:

- unavailability of some nodes
- users jobs mutual exclusion
- specific needs for jobs (memory, network, ...)

While trying to:

- maximize resources usage
- be fair among users



Batch Scheduling

Typical wanted features:

- Interactive mode
- ► Batch mode
- Parallel jobs support
- Multi-queues with priorities
- Admission policies (limit on usage, notions of user groups, power users)

- Resources matching
- File staging
- Jobs dependences
- Backfilling
- Reservations
- Best effort jobs
- Environment reconfiguration

There are many existing batch schedulers: LSF, PBS/Torque, Maui scheduler, Sun Grid Engine, EASY, OAR, ...

These are complex systems with many config options!



Main Batch Schedulers Features

	OpenPBS	SGE	Maui Scheduler (+ OpenPBS)	OAR
Interactive mode	×	×	×	×
Batch mode	×	×	×	×
Parallel jobs support	×	×	×	×
Multi-queues with priorities	×	×	×	×
Resources matching	×	×	×	×
Admission policies	×	×	×	×
File staging	×	×	×	
Jobs dependences	×	×	×	
Backfilling			×	×
Reservations			×	×
Best effort jobs				×
Environment reconfiguration				×
Fair sharing			×	×

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List Scheduling

When simple problems are hard, we should try to find good approximation heuristics. A ϱ -approximation is an algorithm whose output is never more than a factor ϱ times the optimum solution.

Natural idea: using greedy strategy like trying to allocate the most possible task at a given time-step. However at some point we may face a choice (when there is more ready tasks than available processors).

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Any strategy that does not let on purpose a processor idle is efficient [Coffman76]. Such a schedule is called list-schedule.

Theorem 1: Coffman.

Let G=(V,E,w) be a DAG of sequential tasks, p the number of processors, and σ_p a list-schedule of G on p processors.

$$C_{\max}(\sigma_p) \leqslant \left(2 - \frac{1}{p}\right) C_{\max}^*(p)$$
.

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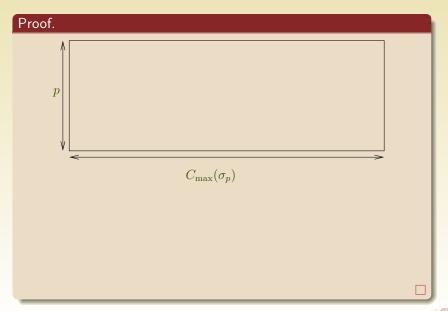
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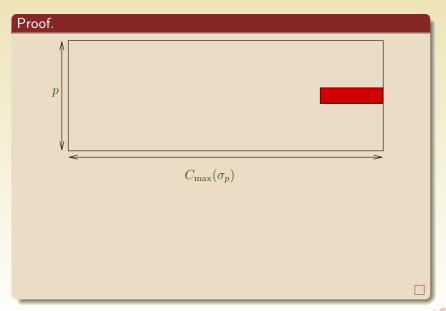
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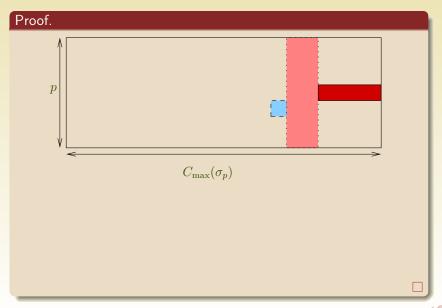
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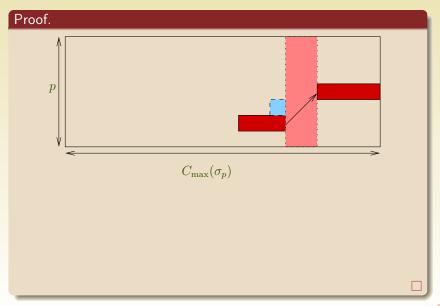
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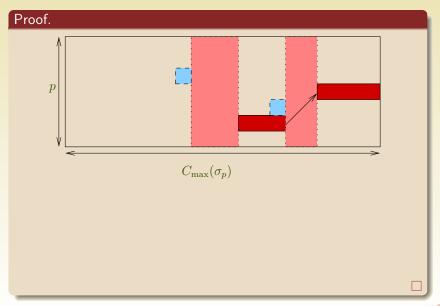
Most of the time, list-heuristics are based on the critical path.

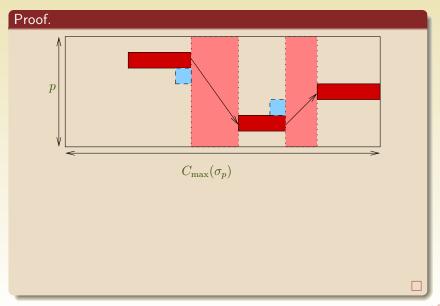


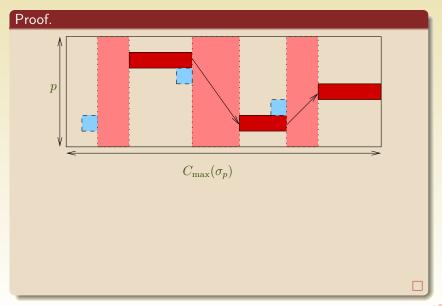


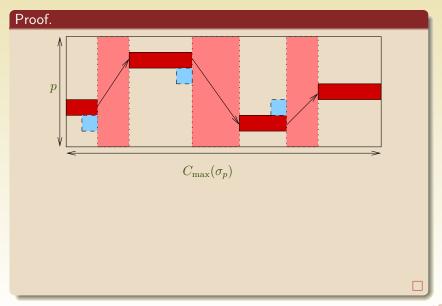


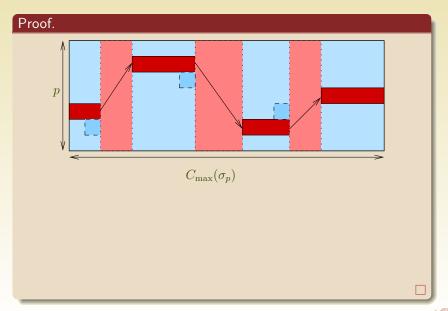




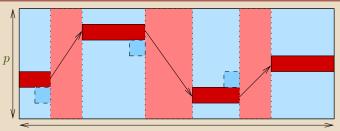








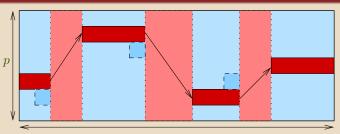




$$C_{\max}(\sigma_p)$$

Therefore, $Idle \leqslant (p-1).w(\Phi)$ for some Φ

Proof.

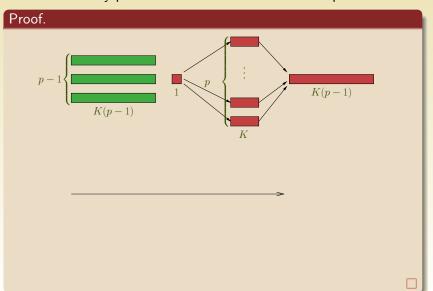


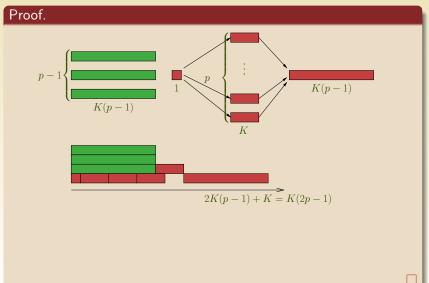
$$C_{\max}(\sigma_p)$$

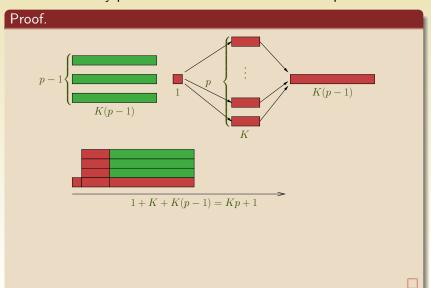
Therefore, $Idle \leqslant (p-1).w(\Phi)$ for some Φ Hence,

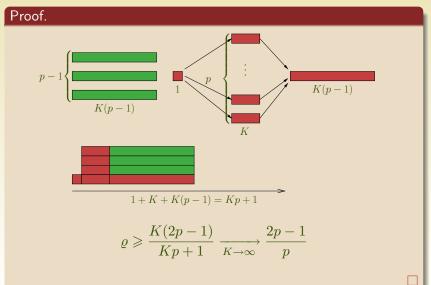
$$p.C_{\max}(\sigma_p) = Idle + Seq \leq (p-1)w(\Phi) + Seq$$

 $\leq (p-1)C_{\max}^*(p) + p.C_{\max}^*(p) = (2p-1)C_{\max}^*(p)$

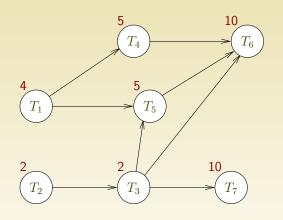








List scheduling Anomalies

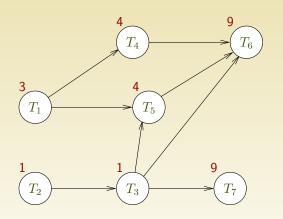


1	L	4	6	
2	3	5	7	

MS = 19



List scheduling Anomalies



1	4	5	6
2 3	7		

$$MS = 20$$



Let us assume we have n independent rigid jobs $J_1=(p_1,q_1),\ldots,J_n=(p_n,q_n)$ and m machines.

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Let us consider a list schedule of makespan T. Let us denote by q(t) the number of active processors at time t.

We have $\forall t_1, t_2 \in [0, T]: t_1 \leq t_2 - T^* \Rightarrow q(t_1) + q(t_2) > m$ (otherwise, the tasks running at time t_2 could have been run at time t_1).

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Let us assume that $T > 2T^*$. Then we have:

$$\begin{split} mT^* \geqslant \sum_i q_i p_i &= \int_0^T q(t) = \int_0^{2T^*} q(t) + \int_{2T^*}^T q(t) \\ \geqslant \underbrace{\int_0^{T^*} q(t) + q(t+T^*)}_{>mT^*} + \underbrace{\int_{2T^*}^T q(t)}_{\geqslant 0}, \text{which is absurd.} \end{split}$$

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Theorem 2.

List-scheduling has an approximation factor of 2 for minimizing the Cmax of Parallel Rigid Tasks.

How can we use the previous result when going online?

Theorem 3: [Shmoys91].

Let $\mathcal A$ be a polynomial-time ϱ -approximation for $\langle P|size_j|C_{\max}\rangle$. Based on $\mathcal A$, we can build a 2ϱ -competitive polynomial-time online clairvoyant algorithm for $\langle P|size_j, r_j|C_{\max}\rangle$.



Let us look at the schedule produced by ${\mathcal A}$ on an instance ${\mathcal I}.$ $_{\text{release of}}$



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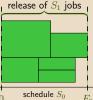
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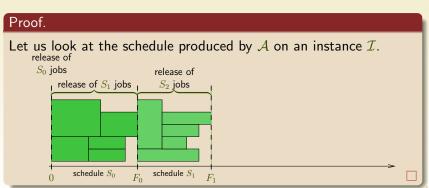
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 S_0 jobs



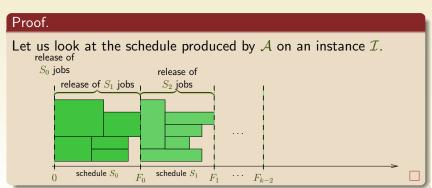
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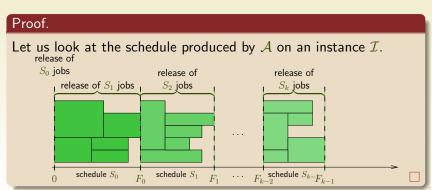
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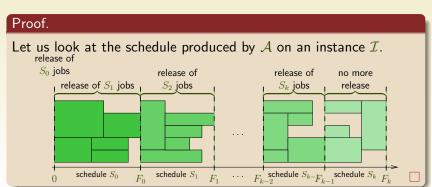
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Proof.

Consider \mathcal{I}' where S_k jobs are released at time F_{k-2} . We have:

$$C_{\max}^*(\mathcal{I}') \leqslant C_{\max}^*(\mathcal{I}).$$



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 $F_{k-2} + F_k - F_{k-1} \leqslant \varrho C_{\max}^*(\mathcal{I}')$



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release of S_0 jobs

release of S_1 jobs

 S_2 jobs

schedule $S_0 = F_0$ schedule $S_1 = F_1 = \cdots = F_{k-2}$ schedule $S_k = F_k$ schedule $S_k = F_k$

Proof.

Consider \mathcal{I}' where S_k jobs are released at time F_{k-2} . We have:

$$C^*_{\max}(\mathcal{I}') \leqslant C^*_{\max}(\mathcal{I}).$$

- $F_{k-2} + F_k F_{k-1} \leqslant \varrho C_{\max}^*(\mathcal{I}')$
- $ightharpoonup F_{k-1} F_{k-2} \leqslant \varrho C_{\max}^*(\mathcal{I}')$



no more

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release of S_0 jobs

release of S_1 jobs

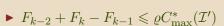
 S_2 jobs

schedule S_0 F_0 schedule S_1 F_1 ... F_k schedule S_{k-E_k} schedule S_k F_k

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$$F_{k-1} - F_{k-2} \leqslant \varrho C_{\max}^*(\mathcal{I}')$$

Hence $F_k \leqslant 2\varrho C_{\max}^*(\mathcal{I}') \leqslant 2\varrho C_{\max}^*(\mathcal{I})$

no more

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▶ There is a PTAS for $\langle Q||C_{\rm max}\rangle$. Hence, there is an $(2+\varepsilon)$ -competitive online clairvoyant algorithm for $\langle Q|r_j|C_{\rm max}\rangle$.

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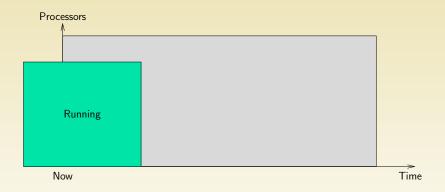
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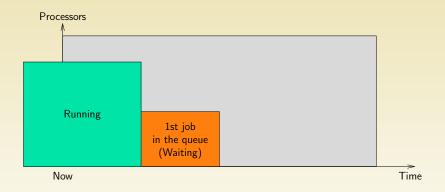
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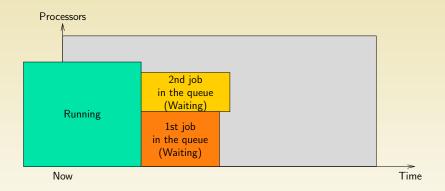
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- ▶ There is a 2 approximation $\langle P|size_j|C_{\max}\rangle$. Hence, there is an 4-competitive online clairvoyant algorithm for $\langle Q|size_j|C_{\max}\rangle$.
- ▶ Actually, by doing a slightly finer analysis, on can show that the list-scheduling algorithm is a (2-1/m)-competitive non-clairvoyant algorithm for $\langle P|r_i|C_{\rm max}\rangle$.

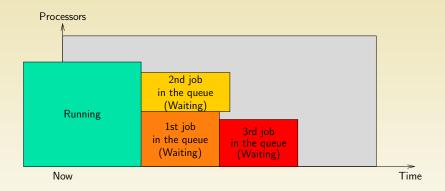
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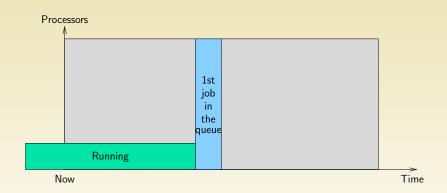






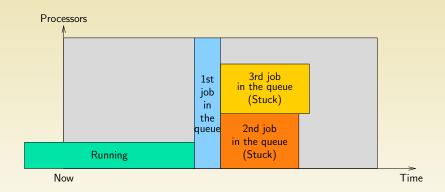


First Come First Served



- ► FCFS = simplest scheduling option
- ► Fragmentation ~> need for backfilling

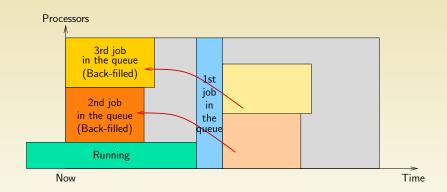
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First Come First Served



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Backfilling: Question

- Which job(s) should be picked for promotion through the queue?
- Many heuristics are possible
- ► Two have been studied in detail
 - EASY
 - Conservative Back Filling (CBF)
- ▶ In practice EASY (or variants of it) is used, while CBF is not.
- Although, OAR, a recently proposed batch scheduler implements CBF.

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EASY Backfilling

Extensible Argonne Scheduling System

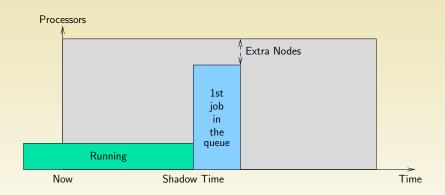
Maintain only one *reservation*, for the first job in the queue.

Definitions:

Shadow time at which the first job in the queue starts execution

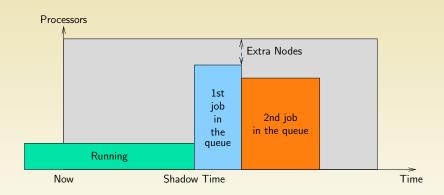
Extra nodes number of nodes idle when the first job in the queue starts execution

- Go through the queue in order starting with the 2nd job.
- ② Backfill a job if it will terminate by the shadow time, or it needs less than the extra nodes.



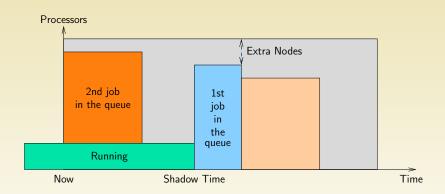
Property:





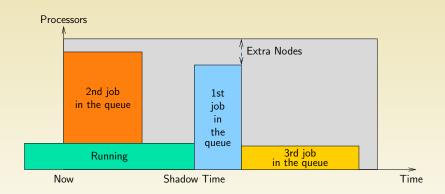
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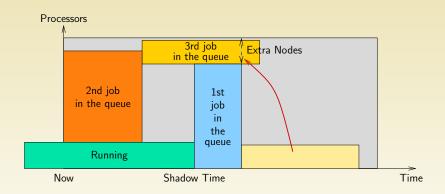
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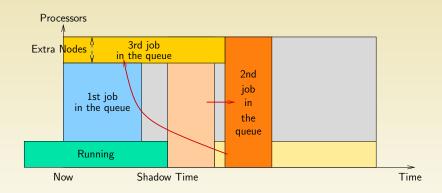
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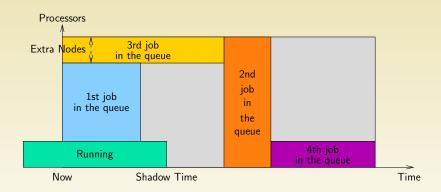
- ► The first job in the queue will never be delayed by backfilled jobs
- BUT, other jobs may be delayed infinitely!





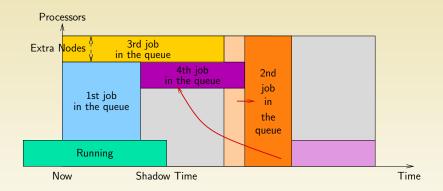
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EASY Properties

- Unbounded Delay. ► The first job in the queue will never be delayed by backfilled jobs
 - ▶ BUT, other jobs may be delayed infinitely!
- No Starvation. Delay of first job is bounded by runtime of current jobs
 - ▶ When the first job finishes, the second job becomes the first job in the queue
 - ▶ Once it is the first job, it cannot be delayed further
- Other approach. Conservative Backfilling. EVERY job has a reservation. A job may be backfilled only if it does not delay any other job ahead of it in the queue.
 - ▶ Fixes the unbounded delay problem that EASY has. More complicated to implement (The algorithm must find holes in the schedule) though.
 - ► EASY favors small long jobs and harms large short jobs.

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- provide a conservative estimate: you goes through the queue faster (may be backfilled)
- provide a loose estimate: your job will not be killed



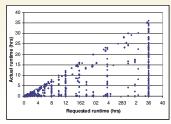
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Are estimates accurate?



All of this is great, but how do we know what a "good" schedule is? FCFS, EASY, CFB, Random?

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 Job 1 asks for 1 nodes and waits 1 h
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 Again, Job 1 is unhappy while Job 2 is probably sort of happy.
 We need a metric that represents happiness for small, large, short, long jobs.

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 We need a metric that represents happiness for small, large, short, long jobs.
- Slowdown or Stretch (turn-around time divided by turn- around time if alone in the system)
 Doesn't really take care of the small/large problem. Could think of some scaling, but unclear!

Now What?

Now we have a few metrics we can consider

We can run simulations of the scheduling algorithms, and see how they fare.

We need to test these algorithms in representative scenarios Supercomputer/cluster traces. Collect the following for long periods of time:

- ▶ Time of submission
- How many nodes asked
- How much time asked
- How much time was actually used
- ▶ How much time spent in the queue

Uses of the traces:

- Drive simulations
- 2 Come up with models of user behaviors



Sample Results

A type of experiments that people have done: replace user estimate by f times the actual run time

Possible to improve performance by multiplying user estimates by 2!

	EASY	CBF
Mean Slowdown		
KTH	-4.8%	-23.0%
CTC	-7.9%	-18.0%
SDSC	+4.6%	-14.2%
Mean Response time		
KTH	-3.3%	-7.0%
CTC	-0.9%	-1.6%
SDSC	-1.6%	-10.9%

Message

- These are all heuristics.
- ► They are not specifically designed to optimize the metrics we have designed.
- ▶ It is difficult to truly understand the reasons for the results.
- But one can derive some empirical wisdom.
- One of the reasons why one is stuck with possibly obscure heuristics is that we're dealing with an *on-line* problem: We don't know what happens next.
- We cannot wait for all jobs to be submitted to make a decision. But we can wait for a while, accumulate jobs, and schedule them together.

Summary

Batch Schedulers are what we're stuck with at the moment. They are often hated by users.

- ▶ I submit to the queue asking for 10 nodes for 1 hour.
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A completely different approach is gang scheduling, which we discuss next.



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Gang Scheduling: Basis

- ▶ All processes belonging to a job run at the same time (the term gang denotes all processors within a job).
- Each process runs alone on each processor.
- ▶ BUT: there is rapid coordinated context switching.
- ▶ It is possible to suspend/preempt jobs arbitrarily

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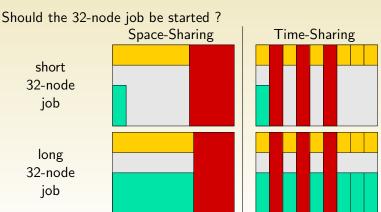
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- ▶ If processing times are not known in advance (or grossly erroneous), preemption can help short jobs that would be "stuck" behind a long job.
- Should improve machine utilization.



Gang Scheduling: an Example

- ► A 128 node cluster.
- A running 64-node job.
- ► A 32-node job and a 128-node job are queued.



More uniform slowdown, better resource usage.

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That is why there is more and more demand for reservation support. Users build (badly?) the schedule by themselves.



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Other issues:

- File Staging ?
- Load Balancing between sites ?



A set unrelated processors P_1, \ldots, P_n and a set of sequential jobs J_1, \ldots, J_n (processing time $p_{i,j}$).

Let's try a few natural scheduling strategies. We denote by a_i the time at which P_i is available (at the beginning $a_i = 0$ for all P_i):

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Problem: How do you get an estimate of $p_{i,j}$?

So Where are we?

- ▶ Batch schedulers are complex pieces of software that are used in practice.
- A lot of experience on how they work and how to use them.
- ▶ But ultimately everybody knows they are an imperfect solution.
- ▶ Many view the lack of theoretical foundations as a big problem.
- ► Some just don't care...

Fools ignore complexity. Pragmatists suffer it. Some can avoid it. Geniuses remove it.

 "Epigrams in Programming", by Alan J. Perlis of Yale University.

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