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high-performance library for
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Abstract

The Bulk Synchronous Parallel (BSP) model, as well as parallel programming interfaces based on BSP, classically target distributed-memory parallel architectures. In earlier work, Yzelman and Bisseling designed a MulticoreBSP for Java library specifically for shared-memory architectures. In the present article, we further investigate this concept and introduce the new high-performance MulticoreBSP for C library. Among other features, this library supports nested BSP runs. We show that existing BSP software performs well regardless whether it runs on distributed-memory or shared-memory architectures, and show that applications in MulticoreBSP can attain high-performance results. The paper details implementing the Fast Fourier Transform and the sparse matrix-vector multiplication in BSP, both of which outperform state-of-the-art implementations written in other shared-memory parallel programming interfaces. We furthermore study the applicability of BSP when working on highly non-uniform memory access (NUMA) architectures.

Keywords : high-performance computing, bulk synchronous parallel, shared-memory parallel programming, software library, fast Fourier transform, sparse matrix-vector multiplication

MSC : Primary : 65Y05, Secondary : 65T50, 65F50, 68W10, 68N15.

MULTICOREBSP FOR C: A HIGH-PERFORMANCE LIBRARY FOR SHARED-MEMORY PARALLEL PROGRAMMING

A. N. YZELMAN, R. H. BISSELING, D. ROOSE, AND K. MEERBERGEN

ABSTRACT. The Bulk Synchronous Parallel (BSP) model, as well as parallel programming interfaces based on BSP, classically target distributed-memory parallel architectures. In earlier work, Yzelman and Bisserling designed a MulticoreBSP for Java library specifically for shared-memory architectures. In the present article, we further investigate this concept and introduce the new high-performance MulticoreBSP for C library. Among other features, this library supports nested BSP runs. We show that existing BSP software performs well regardless whether it runs on distributed-memory or shared-memory architectures, and show that applications in MulticoreBSP can attain high-performance results. The paper details implementing the Fast Fourier Transform and the sparse matrix–vector multiplication in BSP, both of which outperform state-of-the-art implementations written in other shared-memory parallel programming interfaces. We furthermore study the applicability of BSP when working on highly non-uniform memory access (NUMA) architectures. high-performance computing and bulk synchronous parallel and shared-memory parallel programming and software library and fast Fourier transform and sparse matrix–vector multiplication

1. INTRODUCTION

The Bulk Synchronous Parallel (BSP) model [Val90], introduced by Valiant, describes a powerful abstraction of parallel computers. It enables the design of theoretically optimal parallel algorithms, and inspired many interfaces for parallel programming. The BSP model consists of three parts: (1) an abstraction of a parallel computer, (2) an abstraction of a parallel algorithm, and (3) a cost model. A BSP computer has p homogeneous processors, each with access to local memory. They cannot access remote memory, but may communicate through a black-box network interconnect. Preparing the network for all-to-all communication while synchronising the p processors at the start and end of communication costs l units; sending a data word during the all-to-all communication costs g units. Measuring l and g in seconds does not directly relate to any work done; instead, if the speed r of each processor is measured in floating-point operations per second (flop/s), we express l and g in flops as well. The four parameters (p, r, l, g) completely define a BSP computer.

A BSP algorithm runs on a BSP computer and adheres to the Single Program, Multiple Data (SPMD) paradigm. Each BSP process consists of alternating computation and communication phases. During computation, each process executes sequential code and cannot communicate with other BSP processes; during communication all processes are involved in an all-to-all data interchange and cannot perform any computations. BSP synchronises all processors in-between phases. We define one superstep as one computation phase combined with the communication phase that directly follows it.

This definition of a BSP computer and a BSP algorithm immediately yields the BSP cost model. If the algorithm consists of T supersteps, and if process s has $w_i^{(s)}$ work to perform in superstep i , then the total computation cost is $\sum_{i=0}^{T-1} \max_s w_i^{(s)}$. We assume that the network allows the simultaneous sending and receiving of messages, and that the sending and the receiving of messages form the bottleneck of the communication. Writing $r_i^{(s)}$ for the number of words received by process s during superstep i , $t_i^{(s)}$ for the number of words transmitted (sent), and $h_i = \max\{\max_s r_i^{(s)}, \max_s t_i^{(s)}\}$ for the h -relation of the i th superstep, the communication cost is $g \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{T-1} h_i$. Accounting for the $T - 1$ latency costs of synchronisation and network initialisation results in the full BSP cost:

$$(1) \quad C = \sum_{i=0}^{T-1} \left(\max_s w_i^{(s)} + g \cdot h_i \right) + (T-1)l.$$

Here, we express C in flops; C/r yields the time taken in seconds.

The h -relation is a central concept of BSP. Just as it is natural to induce load balance (minimise $\max_s w_i^{(s)}$), minimising the h -relation induces low communication requirements while also providing an incentive to balance the communication among the processes; i.e., all processes should send and receive roughly the same amount of data.

To illustrate, consider a one-to-all broadcast involving all p processes. One process transmits $p-1$ words and receives none, while all other processes transmit none and receive one word. This is an unbalanced $(p-1)$ -relation in the BSP model; the source of the broadcast is the bottleneck. An all-to-all broadcast where each process sends and receives $(p-1)$ words is a balanced $(p-1)$ -relation. A situation where each process sends and receives exactly 1 word (e.g., a pairwise swap or a one-directional ring exchange), corresponds to a perfectly balanced 1-relation independent of p .

The present work presents a new shared-memory interface for bulk synchronous parallel programming in C, called MulticoreBSP for C. Previous work on BSP programming interfaces include BSP++ [HFE10], a hybrid library targeting systems with both shared and distributed memory such as clusters of symmetric multiprocessors. It is object-oriented and its performance on inner product, FFT, and LU decomposition benchmarks is demonstrated to be similar to that of BSPedupack [Bis04], with a gain of 7% on the LU decomposition of a matrix of size 4096. BSML [LGB05] is a library that combines the BSP model with the functional programming language Objective Caml. A combination of the high-level Python language and BSP is provided by the Python BSP package [Hin03], part of ScientificPython, which can run on top of BSPlib [HMS⁺98] (an MPI version is also available); thus the Python BSP package can also be run on top of our MulticoreBSP for C library. The Orléans Skeleton Library [JL09] provides BSP algorithmic skeletons in C++, built on top of MPI. Implementations of the 1D heat equation and the FFT test favourably compared to other skeleton-based implementations.

2. THE MULTICOREBSP PROGRAMMING INTERFACE

The MulticoreBSP for C programming interface adheres to the ANSI C99 standard, directly derives from the BSPlib [HMS⁺98] interface by Hill et al., and is inspired by the Java MulticoreBSP library by Yzelman and Bisseling [YB12]. Compared to BSPlib, MulticoreBSP for C adds two new high-performance primitives and updates the interface of existing primitives. A compatibility mode ensures full support for existing BSPlib programs. For maximum portability, the library depends on only two established standards: POSIX threads (PThreads) and the POSIX realtime extension [IEE08]. The new library is freely available via <http://www.multicorebsp.com>.

While MulticoreBSP targets shared-memory computing specifically and thus employs thread-based parallelisation, BSPlib and its implementations aim at distributed-memory supercomputing and thus explicitly start separate processes on supercomputer nodes. We keep the process terminology for the remainder of the paper, but the use of threading does have implications on the user level; Section 2.3 discusses these.

The updated interface consists of 22 primitive function calls. For each primitive, we now state the interface declarations¹ and the asymptotic run-time complexity. Readers unfamiliar with the original BSPlib interface may find brief descriptions of each primitive in Appendix A. The reported time complexities are attained by MulticoreBSP for C and may help users to better understand what to expect when calling BSP primitives. Those in big-Theta notation indicate that a lower asymptotic bound is not possible, while those in big-Oh notation leave room for improvement. Section 2.3 highlights the differences with respect to the original BSPlib interface. For brevity, we still refer to the updated interface as the BSPlib interface.

¹for brevity, we omit the `const` and `restrict` keywords.

First, we list primitives that control the flow of the SPMD sections of BSP programs. MulticoreBSP does not add new primitives in this category.

- `void bsp_init(void (*spmd)(void), int argc, char **argv);` $\Theta(1)$.
- `void bsp_begin(unsigned int P);` $\mathcal{O}(P)$.
- `void bsp_end();` $\mathcal{O}(l)$.
- `unsigned int bsp_nprocs();` $\Theta(1)$.
- `unsigned int bsp_pid();` $\Theta(1)$.
- `void bsp_sync();` $\Theta(l + g \cdot h_i)$, see Eq. 1.
- `void bsp_abort(char *error, ...);` $\Theta(1)$.
- `double bsp_time();` $\Theta(1)$.

The MulticoreBSP ‘hello-world’ program in Algorithm 1 illustrates the use of the first five primitives. Note that it consists of a single computation phase; in BSPLib all SPMD code is part of a computation phase. Communications, either in the form of direct remote memory access (DRMA) or bulk synchronous message passing (BSMP), are initiated through calls during a computation phase. Thus BSPLib communication primitives do not immediately execute communication, but instead queue the communication requests. These are processed at the end of the current superstep, as indicated by `bsp_sync`.

Algorithm 1 A ‘hello world’ example program in MulticoreBSP

```
#include <mcbbsp.h> //the MulticoreBSP for C header file
#include <stdio.h>

void spmd() {
    bsp_begin( bsp_nprocs() );
    printf( "Hello world from process %d!\n", bsp_pid() );
    bsp_end();
}

int main( int argc, char **argv ) {
    bsp_init( &spmd, argc, argv );
    spmd();
    return 0;
}
```

BSPLib provides DRMA communication via ‘put’ and ‘get’ primitives. When a process issues a put, it copies data from a local memory area into remote memory. The ‘get’ does the inverse; it retrieves data from a remote memory area and copies it to local memory. If an SPMD program defines a local variable, each of the p processes has its own memory area associated with that variable. To make DRMA work, processes must become aware of which memory address relates to which variable. BSPLib defines two primitives to facilitate this registration process:

- `void bsp_push_reg(void *address, size_t size);` $\Theta(1)$.
- `void bsp_pop_reg(void *address);` $\Theta(1)$.

Registration and deregistration necessitate one all-to-all broadcast during synchronisation per call, in the worst case. These should be taken into account when calculating the BSP h -relations for estimating the execution time of the `bsp_sync`. Registration enables using the following communication primitives:

- `void bsp_put(unsigned int pid, void *source, void *destination, size_t offset, size_t size);` $\Theta(\text{size})$.
- `void bsp_get(unsigned int pid, void *source, size_t offset, void *destination, size_t size);` $\Theta(1)$.

Algorithm 2 illustrates the use of DRMA primitives in the computation of an inner product of two vectors. Each process has local vectors x, y of size `np` (which equals the global problem

size n divided by p). It calculates the local contribution $\alpha = \langle x, y \rangle$, and then uses `bsp_put` to broadcast α to all other processes. Note the use of offsets to write to unique positions in the p local `ip_buffer` arrays (each of length p). The second computation phase redundantly computes the global inner product and returns the final result. To initialise and register the buffer used in broadcasting α , one call to `ip_init` must precede one or more calls to `ip`; a single initialisation superstep of a BSPlib program typically contains several such initialisation calls.

Algorithm 2 A BSP inner-product algorithm using DRMA

```

#include <mcbasp.h>
#include <iostream>

//initialisation function for ip
void ip_init( double **ip_buffer ) {
    const size_t size = bsp_nprocs() * sizeof(double);
    *ip_buffer = malloc( size );
    bsp_push_reg( *ip_buffer, size );
}

//calculates the inner-product from the local vectors
double ip( double *x, double *y, double *ip_buffer, size_t np ) {
    double alpha = 0.0;
    for( size_t i = 0; i < np; ++i )
        alpha += x[ i ] * y[ i ];
    for( unsigned int k = 0; k < bsp_nprocs(); ++k ) {
        bsp_put( k, &alpha, ip_buffer,
                bsp_pid() * sizeof(double), sizeof(double) );
    }
    bsp_sync();
    for( unsigned int k = 1; k < bsp_nprocs(); ++k )
        ip_buffer[ 0 ] += ip_buffer[ k ];
    return ip_buffer[ 0 ];
}

//example usage
void spmd() {
    bsp_begin( bsp_nprocs() );
    double *ip_buffer, *x, *y;
    size_t np;
    ip_init( &ip_buffer );
    ... //more initialisation calls to set x, y, np, and others
    bsp_sync();
    ... //calculations, until we need alpha=(x,y):
    double alpha = ip( x, y, ip_buffer, np );
    ... //calculations using alpha
    bsp_end();
}

```

BSMP enables the sending of messages to remote processes. Messages have two parts: (1) a fixed-size tag that may describe the purpose of the message, and (2) a payload of arbitrary size. Calling the BSP ‘send’ primitive constructs and queues a BSMP message, which is sent during the next `bsp_sync`. Received messages end up in a local BSMP queue. BSPlib allows querying the number of in-queue messages, allows reading the tag of the first in-queue message, and allows moving the payload of that message into user-managed memory. Moving a message removes it from

the queue. No registration process is required for BSMP communication, and the full interface is as follows:

- `void bsp_set_tagsize(size_t *size);` $\Theta(1)$.
- `void bsp_send(unsigned int pid, void *tag, void *payload, size_t size);` $\Theta(\text{size})$.
- `void bsp_qsize(unsigned int *packets, size_t *accumulated_size);` $\mathcal{O}(\text{packets})$.
- `void bsp_get_tag(size_t *status, void *tag);` $\Theta(1)$.
- `void bsp_move(void *payload, size_t max_copy_size);` $\Theta(\text{size})$.

2.1. High-performance variants. BSPlib defines high-performance (**hp**) variants of DRMA and BSMP primitives. These are `bsp_hput`, `bsp_hpget`, and the new `bsp_hpsend`. They allow communication to occur immediately after calling the **hp**-primitive, but still ensure communication to have occurred after the next `bsp_sync`. The gains over non-**hp** primitives are two-fold: **hp**-primitives allow for overlap of computation and communication whenever possible, and they avoid the inefficiency in time and memory of buffering communication. Users must guarantee that the source and destination memory areas remain unchanged until the end of the current computation phase. Errors in the use of **hp**-variants may cause non-deterministic behaviour that cannot be caught by the BSP run-time system; users should consider the added costs of ensuring correctness of their applications when considering **hp**-primitives.

Although the `bsp_hpsend` avoids buffering-on-send, messages still enter a buffer upon receipt: the BSMP queue. Instead of copying messages from this buffer, the following **hp**-primitive avoids copying by directly returning pointers to the tag and payload in the receive buffers:

- `size_t bsp_hpmove(void **p_tag, void **p_payload);` $\Theta(1)$.

The primitive also returns the payload size in bytes, or the largest possible value (`SIZE_MAX`) if the queue is empty. This is the only **hp**-primitive for which the interface differs from its non-**hp** version.

To exploit the shared-memory architecture and avoid synchronisations where possible, Yzelman and Bisseling introduced the `bsp_direct_get` primitive [YB12, Section 2]. Its semantics is exactly that of the `bsp_hpget`, but the primitive immediately starts communication and waits for completion thereof. Like with the `bsp_hpget`, the user must ensure that the remote data remains unchanged during the current computation phase. Using the direct-get allows this superstep to be merged with the next one if no other communication primitives were called, thus saving a BSP synchronisation. The `bsp_direct_get` is the only **hp**-primitive that runs in $\Theta(\text{size})$ time instead of $\Theta(1)$ time.

2.2. Hierarchical execution. MulticoreBSP for C supports hierarchical execution of BSP programs. This means that BSP processes may call `bsp_init` and `bsp_begin` within SPMD sections. A BSP process doing this is considered the initialising process for the upcoming nested BSP run, and must adhere to the same rules as a regular initial process that starts a BSP run. After a `bsp_begin`, the initialising process will spawn the processes required for the nested BSP run, and will itself continue as (nested) process 0. Nested processes have no knowledge of the BSP processes that spawned them; previous variable registrations are no longer valid, and all BSP primitives only relate to the sibling processes corresponding to the nested BSP run.

It is thus possible to create c groups of p/c BSP processes by first starting a BSP run with c processes, after which each process starts its own BSP run using p/c processes. An example use-case is avoiding global synchronisations: a `bsp_sync` in the nested run will involve only p/c processes, while one on the top level involves only c processes; nowhere will BSP synchronise over all p processes. When process 0 in a nested run exits by a `bsp_end`, its ID will reset to its original ID and the parent SPMD program continues as normal. All BSP primitives called now again correspond to the original run over c processes. All previous data is retained, and earlier variable registrations are again valid. This concept is not new for BSP: Valiant allows for nested BSP

computers with Multi-BSP [Val11], as earlier also investigated by de la Torre and Kruskal [TK96]. The PUB library [BJOR03] and NestStep [Keß00] implement similar functionality.

2.3. Changes with respect to BSPlib. BSP primitives that existed in the original BSPlib take the same arguments, but their data types have been updated. Values that reflect byte-sizes now have type `size_t`, while values that reflect process IDs and that count incoming BSMP messages now are of type `unsigned int`. These choices can be adapted at compile-time, and compiling in compatibility mode resets all types to those defined in the original BSPlib.

One of the new primitives that MulticoreBSP for C defines, the `bsp_hpsend`, is expected to be of use in a distributed-memory setting as well. The `bsp_direct_get` specifically targets shared-memory architectures, however. Both additions are in the spirit of the BSPlib standard `hp`-variants; they allow for communication inside computation phases to gain in practical performance. The BSP cost model then remains an upper bound on performance of the algorithm. Just as with the BSPlib `bsp_hpput` and `bsp_hpget`, both new primitives should be applied with care.

MulticoreBSP for C employs POSIX threads within its run-time system. The threading model implies that all globally declared variables are visible from all threads; all BSP processes thus share global variables in MulticoreBSP for C. Variables used locally by functions in an SPMD area thus must be declared within functions in the SPMD area. Programs usually already follow this principle: e.g., all applications in BSPedupack [Bis04] run without modification under MulticoreBSP for C (with compatibility mode enabled).

The C language was chosen for this high-performance implementation of MulticoreBSP as it enables BSP programming in both C and C++. We do provide a C++-specific header that includes all BSP primitives described above, and additionally defines a `BSP_program` class that wraps the C interface. The full object-oriented approach of the Java MulticoreBSP library [YB12] has not been ported. Communicating arbitrary C++ objects often requires explicit marshalling, thus incurring a performance penalty.

A class of type `BSP_program` is an SPMD program, and each class instance corresponds to a single BSP process. It defines three functions:

- `virtual void BSP_program::spmd()`
- `virtual BSP_program *BSP_program::newInstance()`
- `void BSP_program::begin(unsigned int P = bsp_nprocs())`

The latter function starts a BSP run corresponding to its class, and replaces calls to `bsp_init`, `bsp_begin`, and `bsp_end`. It spawns $P - 1$ sibling processes and creates a new class instance for each. The first function is the entry-point of the SPMD section, while the second enables MulticoreBSP to create a new class instance. Both functions are purely virtual and must be implemented by the user. Algorithm 3 contains a brief example that is functionally equivalent to the C code in Algorithm 1. Using this wrapper has the advantage that all class-local variables remain local to the BSP processes².

3. TWO APPLICATIONS IMPLEMENTED IN BSP

To demonstrate that MulticoreBSP for C performs well on existing BSP software written according to the BSPlib standard, we consider the BSP Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) program described by Bispling [Bis04, Chapter 3]. To attain performance comparable to that of state-of-the-art parallel implementations, we modify the algorithm to use optimised sequential FFT kernels. The resulting BSP FFT is run on a modern distributed-memory cluster using BSPonMPI [Sui], and on a shared-memory machine using MulticoreBSP for C.

To show that the library enables writing high-performance parallel codes, we create two BSP versions of the 2D sparse matrix–vector (SpMV) multiplication described in Yzelman and Roose [YR13]. Their performance is compared against the best-performing state-of-the-art methods considered in the same paper. The following two sections briefly discuss the implementation of both BSP algorithms.

²global variables defined outside of classes remain visible by all BSP processes, however.

Algorithm 3 A BSP ‘hello world’ in the MulticoreBSP C++ wrapper

```
#include "mcbasp.hpp" //The C++ wrapper for MulticoreBSP
#include <iostream>

class Hello_World: public mcbasp::BSP_program {

    //The SPMD section each BSP process executes from its own class instance
    virtual void spmd() {
        std::cout << "Hello world from process " << bsp_pid() << "!\n";
    }

    //Used by MulticoreBSP to spawn P-1 other Hello_World instances
    virtual BSP_program *newInstance() { return new Hello_World(); }

    Hello_World() {} //A simple constructor
};

int main() {
    Hello_World p; //Construct the Hello_World instance for BSP process 0
    p.begin();     //Spawn bsp_nprocs()-1 sibling processes, execute spmd()
    return 0;     //All sibling processes have exited; process 0 terminates
}
```

3.1. Fast Fourier Transformation. Given a complex vector x of length $n = 2^m$ (for integer m), the matrix–vector formulation of the Fourier transform reads as $F_n x$. A radix-2 decimation-in-time FFT splits this computation in two:

$$(2) \quad F_n = B_n (I_2 \otimes F_{n/2}) S_n,$$

with B_n the butterfly matrix

$$B_n = \begin{pmatrix} I_{n/2} & \Omega_{n/2} \\ I_{n/2} & -\Omega_{n/2} \end{pmatrix},$$

I_n the $n \times n$ identity matrix, and ‘ \otimes ’ the Kronecker matrix product commonly used for expressing FFT computations. The even-odd sorting matrix S_n , when applied to a vector x , permutes all the even-indexed elements of the vector to the top and all odd-indexed elements to the bottom. The diagonal weights-matrix $\Omega_{n/2}$ contains $n/2$ Fourier weights $\{e^{-2\pi i k/n}\}$, $0 \leq k < n/2$. The FFT exploits the symmetry in the Fourier weights by recognising $e^{-2\pi i (n/2+k)/n} = -e^{-2\pi i k/n}$, thus saving half of the multiplications needed for computation: the first $n/2$ weights need only be multiplied by a constant -1 (a sign change). Further exploitation of symmetry yields higher-radix formulations of the FFT, but the effectiveness deteriorates exponentially fast while the involved constants become increasingly costly to use.

Repeated application of the decomposition in Eq. 2 leads to the full matrix–vector FFT formulation:

$$F_n = \prod_{i=0}^{m-1} (I_{2^i} \otimes B_{n/2^i}) \prod_{i=1}^m (I_{n/2^i} \otimes S_{2^i}) = U_n R_n,$$

with $U_n = \prod_{i=0}^{m-1} (I_{2^i} \otimes B_{n/2^i})$ the unordered FFT (UFFT) of size n and R_n the bit-reversal permutation. The order of the product notation \prod is left-to-right for increasing index i .

Applying $R_{n/p}$ to the local elements of a cyclically distributed input vector of size n (over $p = 2^q$ processes, q integer), results in a globally bit-reversed vector that is block-distributed over the same p processes, but with the process IDs themselves in bit-reverse. If $p \leq \sqrt{n}$, we have that

$q \leq m - q$, and a block distribution for x suffices to calculate

$$H_n x = \prod_{i=m-q}^{m-1} (I_{2^i} \otimes B_{n/2^i}) x$$

without communicating with other processes. For $i < q$, the butterfly matrix $B_{n/2^i}$ requires multiplication of Fourier weights with input vector elements that are not all process-local in the block distribution. If the vector were distributed cyclically, however, computing

$$G_n x = \prod_{i=0}^{m-q-1} (I_{2^i} \otimes B_{n/2^i}) x$$

would become an entirely process-local operation.

A scheme where the input vector x initially is distributed cyclically, then locally bit-reversed, then multiplied with H_n , then re-distributed again to a cyclic distribution (while repairing the bit-reversed process IDs), and finally multiplied with the remainder computation G_n , is the base idea of this BSP FFT algorithm. Note that the vector distribution is cyclic at input and cyclic at output.

The matrix H_n corresponds to n/p UFFTs of length p ; these are all processor-local UFFTs if x is block distributed. The global operation $G_n x$ with x distributed cyclically, translates to p process-local computations $G_n^{(s)} x^{(s)}$, $0 \leq s < p$. The $(n/p) \times (n/p)$ matrix $G_n^{(s)}$ has its elements $g_{jk}^{(s)}$ equal to $g_{s+jp, s+kp}$ from G_n , and can be succinctly written as

$$G_n^{(s)} = \prod_{i=0}^{m-q-1} I_{2^i} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} I_{2^{m-i-q-1}} & \Omega_{2^{m-i-q-1}}^{s/p} \\ I_{2^{m-i-q-1}} & -\Omega_{2^{m-i-q-1}}^{s/p} \end{pmatrix}.$$

The matrix $\Omega_{r/2}^\alpha$ is a diagonal matrix of size $r/2$ with entries $\{e^{-2\pi i(k+\alpha)/r}\}$, $0 \leq k < r/2$. In our case, $\alpha = s/p$ and $r = 2^{m-i-q} = n/(2^i p)$, so that $(k+\alpha)/r = (s+kp)2^i/n$. The $\Omega_{r/2}^\alpha$ matrix corresponds to the regular matrix-formulation of an α -shifted generalised FFT (GFFT) of length r , defined as

$$y_k = \sum_{j=0}^{r-1} x_j e^{-2\pi i j(k+\alpha)/r}.$$

This may be implemented as a regular FFT with modified Fourier weights. Alternatively, a regular FFT preceded by an extra ‘twiddling’ step, i.e., $y = \text{FFT}(T_n^\alpha x)$, can emulate a GFFT:

$$(3) \quad y_k = \sum_{j=0}^{r-1} (x_j e^{-2\pi i \alpha j/r}) e^{-2\pi i j k/r},$$

with T_r^α a diagonal matrix with entries $\{e^{-2\pi i \alpha j/r}\}$, $0 \leq j < r$. Hence $G_n x$ can be calculated in parallel using unordered GFFTs (UGFFTs) with shifts dependent on the unique process IDs:

$$G_n^{(s)} x^{(s)} = U_{n/p} R_{n/p} T_{n/p}^{s/p} R_{n/p} x^{(s)}.$$

The BSP FFT algorithm can handle $p > \sqrt{n}$ as well, by decomposing $G_n^{(s)}$ into multiple UGFFTs and introducing extra communication phases that redistribute x to group-cyclic distributions with increasing cycles. We refer to Inda and Bissegling [IB01, Bis04] for details.

The above factorisation of $G_n^{(s)}$ adds n/p complex multiplications, but enables the use of highly optimised sequential UFFT codes. However, state-of-the-art FFT libraries such as FFTW [Fri99] or Spiral [PFV11] do not provide such kernels by default, instead exposing only kernels that compute the regular FFT $F_n x$. Since $R_n = R_n^{-1}$, computing $U_n x$ may then be replaced by computing $F_n R_n x$; this enables the use of FFTW at the cost of additional bit-reversals. Algorithm 4 sketches the resulting BSP FFT implementation for $p \leq \sqrt{n}$; the code we used in experiments handles $p > \sqrt{n}$ as well. This approach always outperforms using the straightforward sequential UFFT kernel from the original BSPedupack implementation³.

³see <http://www.math.uu.nl/people/bisseling/Software/software>.

Algorithm 4 A BSP FFT algorithm using FFTW

```

void bspfft( double *x, unsigned long int n, signed char sign, double *tw,
            size_t *rho_k1, size_t *rho_p, fftw_plan consec, fftw_plan one ) {
//x is a complex vector of length n; this is both the input and output vector,
//sign      (1 or -1) indicates a forward or backward (inverse) FFT,
//tw        are the pre-computed weights for the twiddling (Eq. 3),
//rho_p, rho_np the bit-reversal permutation of length p and n/p, respectively.
//consec, one the FFTW plans for computing n/(p*p) consecutive FFTs of
//          length p on x and for computing one FFT of length n/p on x,
//          respectively. Both plans depend on the given sign.
    const unsigned int p = bsp_nprocs();
    const unsigned int s = bsp_pid();
    const size_t np = n / p; //local vector size

    permute( x, np, rho_np ); //perform local bit-reversal

    for( size_t r = 0; r < np/p; ++r ) //partial undo of bit-reversal,
        permute( x + r, p, rho_p ); //to enable the use of regular
        fftw_execute( consec ); //FFTs instead of UFFTs

    //Go from block to cyclic distribution
    const size_t size = np / p; //send a complex vector of
    const size_t SZCPL = 2 * sizeof(double); //length np/p to all other
    double *tmp = malloc( size * SZCPL ); //processes
    for( unsigned int j = 0; j < p; j++ ) {
        //get index of the j-th local element in a block distribution
        const size_t jglob = rho_p[ s ] * np + j;

        //get location in cyclic distribution
        const unsigned int destproc = jglob % p;
        const size_t destindex = jglob / p;

        //buffer all local complex elements at distance p
        for( size_t r = 0; r < size; r++ ) {
            tmp[ 2*r ] = x[ 2*(j+r*p) ];
            tmp[2*r+1] = x[2*(j+r*p)+1];
        }

        //put at destination vector
        bsp_put( destproc, tmp, x, destindex*SZCPL, size*SZCPL );
    }

    bsp_sync(); //perform the redistribution,
    free( tmp ); //and free the buffer

    //Perform remaining UGFFT (Eq. 3)
    twiddle( x, np, sign, tw ); //twiddle reduces the UGFFT to an UFFT
    permute( x, np, rho_np ); //undo of bit-reversal reduces the
    fftw_execute( one ); //UFFT to an optimised regular FFT

    //Apply scaling in case of backward transform
    if( sign == -1 )
        for( size_t r = 0; r < 2 * np; ++r )
            x[ r ] /= (double)n;
}

```

3.2. Sparse matrix–vector multiplication. Yzelman and Roose [YR13] show the benefit of explicitly distributing an $m \times n$ sparse matrix A when parallelising the SpMV product $y = Ax$ for shared-memory architectures. They consider various one-dimensional methods that distribute A row-wise. One of these is a fine-grained parallelisation scheme implemented in Cilk, the Compressed Sparse Blocks (CSB) [BFF⁺09] scheme. They also introduce a new 1D method which distributes rows of A in exactly p contiguous parts. Greedily balancing the number of nonzeros in each part induces load-balance during parallel computation, assuming p equals the number of cores of the target machine. Since each processor core handles exactly one part, that part of A with the corresponding part of the output vector y can be allocated within the fast processor-local memory. This is relevant to multi-socket NUMA architectures, where on-socket data movement (using local memory banks) is faster than inter-socket data movement. The resulting method furthermore applies cache-oblivious optimisation strategies, and is implemented in PThreads. Both 1D methods do not require inter-process communication, nor do they require barrier synchronisations to complete a multiplication. These methods were tested as the two best performing state-of-the-art algorithms [YR13].

The same paper considers two-dimensional methods, in which individual nonzeros of A and elements of the vectors x and y are distributed amongst the available processes. As a result, rows and columns of A may become shared amongst these processes, causing explicit communication. Sparse matrix partitioning software such as Mondriaan [VB05] partitions A into p disjoint parts, while minimising the cost μ of inter-process communication. The partitioner allows a maximum load imbalance $\epsilon \cdot nz/p$, with $\epsilon > 0$ a user-defined parameter and nz the number of nonzeros in A . The benefit of applying this distributed-memory approach on shared-memory architectures, is that local parts of A can be allocated within processor-local memory, together with their corresponding parts of x and y ; no data elements need to be accessible from all processes, and slow inter-socket data movement only occurs on inter-process communication, which is explicitly minimised during partitioning.

The 2D parallel multiplication itself proceeds in three supersteps [Bis04, Chapter 4]. First, input elements required but not locally available are requested from remote processes (fan-in). The second superstep consists of a local SpMV multiplication, after which locally computed output elements that should be stored at remote processes are sent out (fan-out). The final step adds all incoming remote contributions to the local output vector. By using the MulticoreBSP `bsp_direct_get`, only two supersteps are required [YB12]. Both versions incur $\Theta(m + n)$ additional data movement to cope with the fan-in and fan-out steps. Yzelman and Roose reduce this overhead to $\Theta(\mu)$ [YR13] by exploiting doubly Separated Block Diagonal (SBD) forms of sparse matrices [YB11]. Reordering of A to obtain doubly SBD forms can be done simultaneously with partitioning. We obtain the MulticoreBSP for C implementation in Algorithm 5 by performing the local SpMV multiplication using the Compressed BICRS data structure [YR13] with nonzeros in a row-major ordering. We further reduce data movement during the fan-in and fan-out steps by transferring ranges of input and output vector elements (instead of communicating element-by-element). Note the use of the new `bsp_hpsend` function as an additional improvement, and that this example is written in pure C++.

4. EXPERIMENTS

For experiments on distributed-memory architectures, we use a cluster named Lynx, located at the ExaScience Lab in Leuven, Belgium. Lynx has 32 nodes, connected by a two-switch Infiniband network, with each node containing two 6-core Intel Xeon X5660 processors. For experiments on shared-memory architectures, we use two machines: (1) a 64-core, 8-socket HP DL980 with eight 8-core Intel Xeon E7-2830 processors, and (2) a 40-core, 4-socket HP DL580 with four 10-core Intel Xeon E7-4870 processors. When the number of BSP processes requested is lower than the actual number of cores, processes may be allocated on as few sockets as possible (compact affinity), or evenly spread over all sockets instead (scattered affinity). Compact affinity minimises inter-socket data movement, while scattered affinity maximises the total available bandwidth. MulticoreBSP for C also supports manual affinity strategies.

Algorithm 5 The BSP 2D cache-oblivious $z = Ax$ SpMV multiplication

```

#include <mcbsp.hpp> //The header file for the C++ wrapper (Sec. 2.3)

struct fanQuadlet {
    //Encodes a single fan-in or fan-out message: remote process ID,
    //local start index, remote start index, and the message length
    unsigned long int remoteP, localI, remoteI, length;
};

void BSP_SpMV_2D::mv() {
    //fan-in step; fanIn is a vector containing fanQuadlet structs
    for( size_t i = 0; i < fanIn.size(); ++i ) {
        bsp_direct_get( fanIn[i].remoteP, x,
            fanIn[i].remoteI * sizeof(double), x + fanIn[i].localI,
            fanIn[i].length * sizeof(double) );
    }

    //local optimised SpMV; A is stored in Compressed BICRS form
    if( A != NULL ) A->zax( x, z ); //‘zax’ stands for z=Ax

    //fan-out step; the tag contains two unsigned long ints: the remote
    //      start index (remoteI), and the message length.
    //      fanOut is a vector containing fanQuadlet structs
    for( unsigned long int i = 0; i < fanOut.size(); ++i ) {
        bsp_hpsend( fanOut[i].remoteP, &( fanOut[i].remoteI ),
            z + fanOut[i].localI, fanOut[i].length * sizeof(double) );
    }

    //sync to ensure fan-out is done
    bsp_sync();

    //collect remote contributions
    double *msg_payload;
    unsigned long int *msg_tag;
    while( bsp_hpmove((void**)&msg_tag, (void**)&msg_payload) != SIZE_MAX )
        for( unsigned long int i = 0; i < msg_tag[ 1 ]; ++i )
            z[ msg_tag[ 0 ] + i ] += msg_payload[ i ];
}

```

The FFT experiments in Section 4.1 are set up to run with both the MulticoreBSP for C and the BSPonMPI communication libraries; the computational kernels used do not vary. This enables comparison between shared-memory and distributed-memory systems (the DL980 and Lynx, respectively). By running both variants on the DL980, the communication libraries themselves may be compared as well. Experiments for the SpMV multiplication in Section 4.2 compare different algorithms on various parallelisation frameworks. This checks whether the BSP 2D SpMV indeed attains state-of-the-art performance. We also provide a PThreads implementation of the same 2D SpMV algorithm, derived from the original code from Yzelman and Roose [YR13]. The 1D PThreads and all 2D methods employ the same sequential kernel for local SpMV multiplication.

All software used in the experiments is freely available. The 1D and 2D PThreads SpMV multiplication codes are included with the Sparse Library⁴, and the updated BSP FFT and the BSP

⁴see <http://albert-jan.yzelman.net/software/#SL>.

TABLE 1. Speedups of the BSP FFT on a vector of length $n = 2^{26}$ relative to a sequential FFTW time of 3.4 (Lynx) or 3.9 (DL980) seconds. For the DL980, the table also compares BSPonMPI versus MulticoreBSP for C (McBSP), as well as the two affinity strategies.

Machine	$p = 1$	$p = 2$	$p = 4$	$p = 8$	$p = 16$	$p = 32$	$p = 64$
Lynx (BSPonMPI)	0.6	0.8	1.7	3.4	7.2	15.2	24.4
DL980 (BSPonMPI)	0.5	0.7	1.1	1.7	3.3	6.2	10.5
DL980 (McBSP compact)	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.2	2.6	6.3	13.1
DL980 (McBSP scattered)	0.5	0.7	1.3	2.6	5.1	10.8	13.7

2D SpMV multiplication codes are available stand-alone⁵. The BSP FFT code can be compiled with support for FFTW 3 [Fri99] and Spiral [PFV11]. The MulticoreBSP for C library and BSPonMPI library are freely available as well⁶. All code was compiled using GCC 4.4.3. We use the 2011 Cilk CSB code⁷ and compiled it with ICC 13.0.1.

4.1. Fast Fourier Transformation. We perform 300 forward and backward FFTs and average the execution time. We compare this result against a sequential FFT using FFTW 3.3.3⁸. All backward FFTs are performed without scaling, since this is not done automatically within FFTW. Table 1 shows the speedups for $n = 2^{26}$ on both Lynx and the DL980. We use BSPonMPI 0.3 with MVAPICH 1.8.1 [LWP04] on both architectures. MulticoreBSP for C is used on the shared-memory DL980 only. We also compare the effect of compact and scattered affinity strategies. Figure 1 shows results for $2^9 \leq n \leq 2^{26}$ with $p = 64$ on the DL980. Note that there is no difference between a scattered or a compact affinity in this case.

The case of $p = 1$ in Table 1 shows the factor-two overhead of the multiple bit-reversals in our BSP FFT implementation; using a sequential UFFT kernel would completely eliminate this initial slowdown. For $p = 2$, the overhead of synchronisation and data-redistribution tempers the initial speedup. Higher values of p incur no additional overheads and may scale up freely.

Lynx demonstrates a superlinear relative speedup for $4 \leq p \leq 32$ each time the number of processes doubles. For $p = 64$ this reduces because a single node then contains two BSP processes. The relative speedups of the DL980 with compact affinity are superlinear for $16 \leq p \leq 64$. With $p = 4$ and 8, the shared memory hierarchy slows down execution; threads contend with each other for caches and for the available bandwidth. After $p = 8$, processes start to use other sockets. They communicate through the slower inter-socket interconnect, retain the relative local efficiency of the computation phases, and make use of the additionally available caches. Scattered affinity behaves similarly with a sublinear relative speedup when doubling p from 32 to 64; this coincides with doubling the number of processes per socket from 4 to 8 in the compact affinity. For $4 \leq p \leq 32$ good relative speedups are attained, which are but a constant factor apart from those attained on Lynx.

Figure 1 indicates that this BSP algorithm requires large problem sizes before parallelisation with $p = 64$ becomes efficient. For small n , BSPonMPI performs better than MulticoreBSP for C, while for larger n MulticoreBSP performs best. Small vectors fit into cache and benefit from the corresponding higher bandwidths, resulting in high compute speeds. As the lower-bandwidth L3 cache is referenced more often (i.e., as n increases), the calculation speed decreases until most of the vector is streamed from main memory. Lynx has a combined L3 cache size of $64 \cdot 12 = 768$ MB, while the DL980 has $8 \cdot 24 = 192$ MB. These caches can store vectors of length 2^{25} and 2^{23} , respectively⁹, but no larger powers of two. Figure 1 indeed shows that the speed stabilises for

⁵see <http://albert-jan.yzelman.net/software/#HPBSP>.

⁶via <http://www.multicorebsp.com> and bsponmpi.sourceforge.net, respectively.

⁷see <http://gauss.cs.ucsb.edu/~aydin/software.html>.

⁸auto-tuning proceeds in the FFTW_PATIENT mode.

⁹ 2^{26} complex values take 16 bytes each, resulting in 2^{30} bytes of storage. This equals 1 GB of data. A 2^{24} -length vector thus takes 256 MB.

FIGURE 1. Speed of the BSP FFT for $p = 64$ and varying n . Note that both axes are in logarithmic scale; the highest measured speed is 112 Gflop/s on Lynx for $n = 2^{22}$.

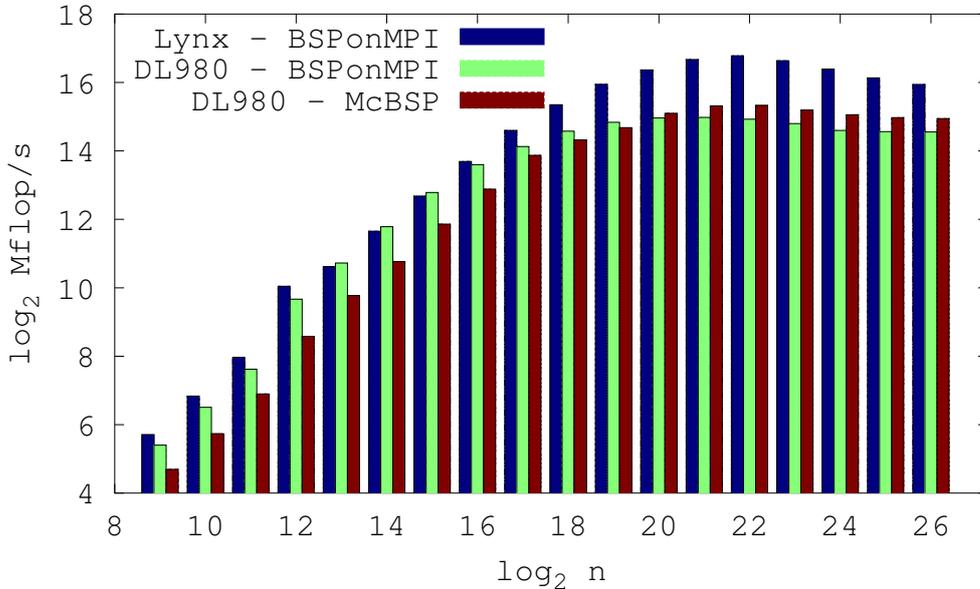


TABLE 2. Sparse matrices used in SpMV multiplication

Matrix	Rows	Columns	Nonzeroes	Origin
Freescall1	3 428 755	3 428 755	17 052 626	Semiconductor industry
ldoor	952 203	952 203	42 493 817	Structural engineering
cage15	5 154 859	5 154 859	99 199 551	DNA electrophoresis
adaptive	6 815 744	6 815 744	27 248 640	Numerical simulation
road_usa	23 947 347	23 947 347	57 708 624	Road network
wiki2007	3 566 907	3 566 907	45 030 389	Link matrix

Lynx and the DL980, as the values of n exceed their respective L3 vector lengths. Although our current BSP FFT implementation performs more bit-reversals than theoretically optimal, it still outperforms the parallel shared-memory FFT provided by FFTW¹⁰ for $32 \leq p \leq 64$ and $2^{15} \leq n \leq 2^{26}$ on the DL980.

4.2. Sparse matrix–vector multiplication. We use a subset of large matrices from Yzelman and Roose [YR13] to test the performance of two implementations of the BSP 2D SpMV multiplication. One implementation uses the new `bsp_hpsend` and `bsp_direct_get` primitives, while the other uses the regular BSP primitives. Both are experimented with on the DL580 and DL980 machines. Table 2 shows the sparse matrices we use, which are preprocessed using Mondriaan [VB05] version 3.11 with $\epsilon = 0.03$ and SBD reordering enabled. We compare with the Cilk CSB and PThreads 1D SpMV multiplication methods discussed in Section 3.2, and with a PThreads implementation of Algorithm 5.

¹⁰FFTW 3.3.3 linked against `fftw3_threads`.

TABLE 3. Maximum speedups for the SpMV multiplication on a 40-core HP DL580 and a 64-core HP DL980 using Cilk, PThreads, and BSP implementations. The number of processes for which the reported maxima are attained appears in parenthesis. The speed of sequential SpMV multiplication in plain CRS is added for reference.

	Seq. speed	Cilk CSB	PThreads 1D	PThreads 2D	BSP 2D	BSP (hp) 2D
<i>DL580</i>						
Freescale1	396 Mflop/s	12.2 (30)	16.7 (40)	16.3 (32)	17.3 (40)	18.3 (40)
ldoor	298 Mflop/s	24.3 (40)	18.5 (40)	15.9 (40)	16.1 (40)	16.2 (40)
cage15	482 Mflop/s	12.9 (40)	14.6 (40)	12.6 (40)	13.0 (40)	13.8 (40)
adaptive	124 Mflop/s	28.7 (40)	13.8 (40)	19.5 (30)	22.3 (40)	23.3 (40)
road_usa	95 Mflop/s	26.0 (40)	14.5 (40)	23.0 (32)	25.3 (40)	25.9 (40)
wiki2007	191 Mflop/s	22.8 (40)	22.1 (40)	22.0 (40)	19.2 (40)	22.8 (40)
<i>DL980</i>						
Freescale1	435 Mflop/s	16.4 (64)	15.8 (64)	14.6 (56)	20.7 (64)	22.7 (64)
ldoor	341 Mflop/s	20.2 (64)	15.3 (64)	15.2 (64)	17.6 (64)	18.8 (64)
cage15	540 Mflop/s	17.7 (64)	16.1 (64)	9.3 (56)	13.8 (56)	13.5 (56)
adaptive	123 Mflop/s	18.0 (64)	19.2 (64)	23.3 (40)	34.5 (64)	36.3 (64)
road_usa	93 Mflop/s	15.1 (64)	19.2 (64)	31.2 (56)	43.4 (64)	46.6 (64)
wiki2007	178 Mflop/s	21.6 (64)	27.7 (64)	25.1 (64)	23.5 (64)	29.7 (64)

We take the average execution time of 1000 SpMV multiplications for each matrix while varying the number of threads on the DL580 and DL980 machines. For each matrix and machine, we compare timings with a sequential SpMV multiplication using the standard Compressed Row Storage (CRS) scheme. To maximise bandwidth use, we employ a scattered affinity in all experiments. The results in Table 3 show significantly higher speedups for the 2D methods compared to the competing methods. The *cage15* matrix is a notable exception, but this matrix is known to be hard to partition [YR13].

Note that the non-hp BSP code usually outperforms the 2D PThreads implementation. While the fan-out step is similar and the local SpMV multiplication step uses the same computational kernel, the fan-in step does contain a major implementation difference. In the BSP implementation, processes ‘put’ non-local contributions into remote BSMP queues in one phase, and add remote contributions locally in the following phase. In the PThreads implementation, processes synchronise once, and then ‘get’ remote contributions from remote memory and immediately add the value locally. The results indicate that BSP programming accelerates computation as it induces greater data locality.

On the highly-NUMA DL980 machine, the parallel efficiencies¹¹ of 1D methods are lower compared to those obtained on the DL580, while those of the 2D methods remain similar. Consider for example the *road_usa* matrix. The parallel efficiency of the 1D PThreads method decreases from 36 percent to 30 percent as we move from the DL580 to the more highly NUMA DL980. The 2D hp-BSP version attains a higher efficiency of 64 percent on the DL580, which furthermore increases to 72 percent on the DL980. Yzelman and Roose already noted that as the NUMA complexity of architectures increases, 2D methods will outperform 1D methods [YR13]. We now indeed achieve these predicted results, due to the improved scalability of barrier synchronisation; MulticoreBSP for C uses spin-locks instead of mutex-based synchronisation since version 1.1, as do the updated 1D and 2D PThreads implementations.

5. CONCLUSION

We propose an update to the BSPlib standard, which includes two new high-performance primitives. The proposed interface has been implemented in MulticoreBSP for C, written specifically

¹¹The parallel efficiency of an algorithm is defined as $\frac{\text{speedup}}{p}$.

for shared-memory architectures. We ran an existing distributed-memory BSP algorithm for the Fast Fourier Transform on a shared-memory machine, and showed that the algorithm behaves similarly as on a distributed-memory cluster. Differences were explained by comparing the compact and scattered affinities on a highly-NUMA architecture. The algorithm exceeded the performance of shared-memory parallel FFTW code for large vectors and a large number of processors. We demonstrated the use of the new high-performance primitives by extending a state-of-the-art 2D sparse matrix-vector multiplication algorithm. The BSP 2D implementation exceeded the performance of a PThreads implementation, and that of other state-of-the-art SpMV multiplication kernels as well.

5.1. Future work. While we only investigated two problems here, the ratio of flops per data element for the FFT and the SpMV multiply is low; hence the communication library has a great impact on algorithm performance. Nevertheless, future research should involve a wider scope of applications. Further optimisation of the MulticoreBSP for C library is warranted as well, as it was outperformed by BSPonMPI for the FFT on small input vectors.

The FFT algorithm can be further improved by using an optimised sequential kernel for the unordered FFT. A comparison with techniques for multi-threaded FFT [FPV⁺09] may suggest further improvements, or indicate whether there are limits to the applicability of BSP in high-performance shared-memory computing. The SpMV algorithms used here are high-level and would benefit from known low-level optimisations for the SpMV multiplication [BWOD11].

NUMA issues demand a good strategy for distributing BSP processes over the available hardware. This does not fit into the BSP model since the processor interconnect is assumed uniform. Since MulticoreBSP for C supports nested BSP runs, the exploration of algorithms designed in the Multi-BSP model [Val11] is a next logical step. The FFT algorithm is an especially good candidate to re-implement using nested SPMD sections; instead of calling sequential UFFT (or FFTW) kernels, we can recursively call the same BSP FFT implementation. In this fashion, we may first distribute the computation over the available sockets of a machine, upon which each top-level BSP process delegates its local UFFTs to a parallel BSP FFT that runs within its assigned socket.

Although this increases the number of synchronisations and data redistributions to at least three, the top-level and bottom-level values for g and l are typically lower than the (g, l) corresponding to the entire machine. Depending on these machine parameters, and on the input vector length, the BSP cost model can furthermore decide when a Multi-BSP FFT is preferred over a flat BSP version.

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APPENDIX A. SEMANTICS OF BSP PRIMITIVES

This appendix briefly describes each BSP primitive listed in Section 2.

- `bsp_init(void (*spmd)(void), int argc, char **argv)`. Indicates which function is the entry-point of the parallel SPMD part of the program; new processes spawned by `bsp_begin` will start at the function pointed to by the `spmd` parameter. This function must be called before `bsp_begin`, unless the SPMD section is the C main-function itself. The `spmd` function should have `bsp_begin` as its first executable statement, and `bsp_end` as its last. The parameters `argc` and `argv` should correspond with those supplied to the C main function. MulticoreBSP does not require them for successful initialisation, but other BSP libraries might; the arguments are retained for portability.
- `bsp_begin(unsigned int P)`. Indicates the start of an SPMD section using `P` processes. This should be the first executable statement of the function designated as the SPMD entry-point. The process that initially calls this function spawns `P – 1` sibling processes with BSP IDs in $\{1, 2, \dots, P - 1\}$, and then joins the same SPMD group with BSP ID 0; the calling process will thus retain all its process-local data. Only code between `bsp_begin` and `bsp_end` may call the DRMA or BSMP communication primitives listed in Section 2.

- `bsp_end()`. The last statement of a parallel SPMD section, thus necessarily following a `bsp_begin`. Threads with BSP ID larger than 0 will terminate after calling this function. The process with ID 0 will continue sequentially with any remaining statements. Subsequent calls to `bsp_init` and `bsp_begin` can be used to start other parallel SPMD sections.
- `bsp_nprocs()`. When called outside an SPMD environment, `bsp_nprocs()` returns the number of hardware-supported processes. When called within an SPMD environment, it returns the number of processes involved with the current parallel SPMD run.
- `bsp_pid()`. Returns the BSP ID of the current process. The process-unique integer returned is between 0 (inclusive) and `bsp_nprocs` (exclusive). Calling `bsp_pid` outside an SPMD section raises a run-time error.
- `bsp_sync()`. Signals the end of the current computation phase and starts a global synchronisation. It then starts a BSP communication phase which executes all communication requests made prior to calling `bsp_sync()`. The communication phase is then followed by another global synchronisation. This guarantees that all communication requested in the previous computation phase is executed before starting the next computation phase, which starts with code following this `bsp_sync`. All processes should issue an equal number of `bsp_syncs`; otherwise, a mismatched `bsp_end` and `bsp_sync` will raise a run-time error.
- `bsp_abort(char *error, ...)`. This will halt parallel execution at the earliest opportunity, which may be earlier than the end of the current computation phase. The format of the `error` message equals that of the standard C `printf` function, and takes a variable number of parameters.
- `bsp_time()`. Returns the elapsed time since the start of the current process within the current SPMD section. The time returned is in seconds and is in high precision. Timers among the various SPMD processes need not be synchronised. MulticoreBSP depends on the POSIX realtime extension to deliver high-resolution timers.
- `bsp_push_reg(void *address, size_t size)`. Registers the memory area defined by its starting `address` and its `size` (in bytes) for DRMA communications, after the next `bsp_sync`. The order of registration of variables must be the same across all SPMD processes, but the `size` parameter may differ across processes. Registering a NULL pointer indicates that the current process will never communicate using the registered remote addresses. Multiple registrations of the same addresses are allowed; newer ones will (temporarily) replace the older registrations.
- `bsp_pop_reg(void *address)`. Removes the registration of a variable previously registered using `bsp_push_reg`. Like registration, this only takes effect in the next superstep. The order of deregistration has to match across all SPMD processes. If the same variable was registered several times (while, e.g., using different values for the `size` parameter), `bsp_pop_reg` removes the last registration only.
- `bsp_put(unsigned int pid, void *source, void *destination, size_t offset, size_t size)`. Copies the local data from address `source` up to and including `source + size - 1` into the memory of process `pid`. The destination address is determined by the previously registered `destination` variable, at the given `offset` (with the size and offset in bytes). Changing the source memory area after a `bsp_put` will not affect the communication request. Communication occurs during the next `bsp_sync`, ensuring remote availability upon exiting the synchronisation.
- `bsp_get(unsigned int pid, void *source, size_t offset, void *destination, size_t size)`. Requests `size` bytes of data from the previously registered `source` variable at process `pid`, at the given `offset` (in bytes). The communication remains queued until the next `bsp_sync`, after which the requested data is locally available at address `destination`. Unlike `bsp_put`, the `bsp_get` does not (and cannot) buffer the requested data when called; the communicated data corresponds to the source memory area at the time the next `bsp_sync` was entered at process `pid`.

- `bsp_set_tagsize(size_t *size)`. Each BSMP message has a tag to help receiving processes discern the purpose of that message. The amount of memory reserved for message tags is constant during supersteps, but can be changed from one superstep to the next by using this primitive. The new `size` of the BSMP tags is in bytes. All SPMD processes should request identical tag sizes, or BSP will abort. On function exit, `size` will be set equal to the old tag size.
- `bsp_send(unsigned int pid, void *tag, void *payload, size_t size)`. Combines `size` bytes of data starting at the local address `payload` with the given `tag`, and sends this message to process `pid`. A `bsp_send` buffers the tag and payload; like `bsp_put`, the contents of the tag and payload may change after issuing a `bsp_send` without affecting the queued message. Processes receive BSMP messages in an unspecified order.
- `bsp_qsize(unsigned int *packets, size_t *accumulated_size)`. Queries the size of the local BSMP queue, and sets `packets` to the number of messages received during the last communication phase. If `accumulated_size` is not NULL, it will be set to the combined size of all message payloads (in bytes).
- `bsp_get_tag(size_t *status, void *tag)`. Retrieves the tag value from the first message in the BSMP queue and stores it in `tag`. Does not modify the BSMP queue. The variable corresponding to `status` will be set to the payload size of the first message. If there are no messages in the queue, it will instead be set to the highest possible value `size_t` can take. (In the original BSPLib interface -1 was returned instead.)
- `bsp_move(void *payload, size_t max_copy_size)`. Removes the first message from the local BSMP queue, while copying the data into `payload`. At most `max_copy_size` bytes are copied.

See Section 2.1 for the semantics of the high-performance variants. There are five such variants: the `bsp_hpget`, `bsp_hpput`, `bsp_hpmove`, `bsp_hpsend`, and `bsp_direct_get`.

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