ABSTRACT

Performance outcomes for numerical codes involving large data manipulation depend on efficient access of memory. We introduce the ArrayChannels.jl library for manipulation of distributed array data with considerations for cache utilisation patterns. In contrast to communication constructs implemented by Julia’s remotecall, communication in the library occur entirely in-place, improving temporal locality. We evaluate the performance of ArrayChannels.jl constructs relative to comparable MPI and Distributed.jl implementations of the Intel PRK, yielding improvements of up to 150%.

Keywords

Distributed, Access Locality, HPC

1. Introduction

The Julia language offers many conveniences to the development of numerical codes that are geared towards performance. Julia favours rapid prototyping by adopting a highly optimised JIT compilation approach to program execution, as well as the convenience of dynamic dispatch for user-made functions. The implicit vectorisation of codes massively accelerates the performance of user-defined array access codes. The suitability of the language for HPC applications will nonetheless continue to hang on the ability of programmers to deliver strong parallel performance with relative ease. Throughout this article, the particular form of parallelism that we refer to is distributed computing. While multiprocessors provide a high degree of parallelism, distributed clusters can provide extremely high performance scalability. Targeting many-core systems can serve to increase the impact of the Julia language for HPC.

We produce the ArrayChannels.jl library, covering a variety of parallelism patterns operating on arrays in a distributed computing context, all while guaranteeing the programmer improved access locality over default Julia constructs. Much like how a RemoteChannel will reference a channel residing at a particular process, ArrayChannel constructs reference persistent data buffers to facilitate cache-aware communication. All communication primitives between these constructs occur synchronously and in-place. In-place communication causes the manipulation of message contents following arrival to be more efficient by increasing cache locality and so reducing the impact of memory latency. We briefly discuss the ramifications of access locality in § 2.1. We evaluate the performance outcomes of using ArrayChannels.jl relative to the Julia Distributed.jl library and equivalent MPI constructs. We use a subset of the Intel Parallel Research Kernels to obtain performance readings for both many-core and many-node trials on HPC hardware.

In addition to performance benefits, in § 3 we demonstrate how ArrayChannels.jl may be used to effectively generate distributed codes concerning array-manipulation with a higher degree of productivity than current Julia primitives.

2. Background

Here we discuss the underlying mechanisms that lead to differences in distributed performance outcomes between ArrayChannels.jl and Distributed.jl, and provide a brief introduction to our evaluation benchmarks. The mechanisms that we refer to involve access locality for processor caches, as well as discussion on the various modes of message passing in distributed environments.

We discuss our evaluation benchmarks, including a subset of the Intel Parallel Research Kernels.

2.1 Access Locality

Access locality refers to the likelihood for memory access patterns to target the same or adjacent memory regions repeatedly during execution. We describe two aspects of access locality: temporal and spatial locality. Temporal locality refers to the proximity in terms of timing of multiple accesses to the same memory region, while spatial locality refers to the proximity in terms of location of relevant data entries to one another in memory.

2.1.1 Temporal Locality. Essentially, temporal locality in part determines the maximum amount of time for which program data may remain at readily-accessible regions of the memory hierarchy. When a greater proportion of the computational effort can be performed on data currently residing in processor cache, the total effect of memory latency is mitigated. Alternatively, poor temporal locality can lead to cache misses, scenarios where cache is prematurely flushed, and program data must be re-fetched prior to use, leading to more memory latency. Intuitively, programmers will wish to ensure when possible that data structures under perpetual use within the program remain within processor cache, so that all modifications to this data may incur less overhead. In § 3 we discuss how in a message-passing context, how retaining a single message buffer for repeat communication events can lead to improved parallel performance.

2.1.2 Spatial Locality. Spatial locality represents the condition whereby relevant program data is situated close-by in memory. Higher spatial locality increases the effectiveness of cache prefetching, as a larger proportion of cache lines will contain the necessary program data. Spatial locality can be improved by storing program data contiguously in memory. While array representations provide a high degree of spatial locality, programmers must be aware of the effects of striding on multidimensional arrays.
2.2 Message Passing Models

Message passing provides a mode for both synchronisation and the communication of data between processes in a parallel computation. This methodology is particularly useful when there is no notion of shared memory between processes, as in the case of distributed computing. Julia implements message passing through its Distributed.jl module in the standard library. The two main primitives available to the user are the remote call, as well as Future objects. Processes may message one another by means of a remote procedure call, whereby arguments to the remote call and other captured variables are communicated to the recipient process. A Future fulfills the synchronising role of a remote call, encapsulating the completion state of function in execution at another process.

A combination of these two primitives form the RemoteChannel, which is a sort of handle to a Channel construct appearing at another worker process. While a RemoteChannel may provide both synchronous and asynchronous communication, both forms will invoke an eager communication model. We provide a description of two different modes of point-to-point message passing in play in both Distributed.jl and ArrayChannels.jl.

2.2.1 Eager Communication. In eager message passing, processes will immediately attempt to send messages \([2, 5]\), without needing to first wait for the approval of the recipient process. Eager message passing permits expensive communication operations to be initiated prior to the arrival of a ‘ready to receive’ notification. In various MPI implementations such as OpenMPI, this is facilitated by the short message protocol, which causes the message to be copied to an output buffer when the receiving process has signalled that it is ready to accept the message. In the case of Julia, this memory copy is not required, as each message that arrives will have a new output buffer allocated for immediate use.

![Fig. 1. The eager communication model](image)

The Distributed.jl framework causes messages to be sent in an eager manner, even on synchronous channel constructs. While access to a RemoteChannel may be synchronised, any attempt to put! (or initiate sending) a reference type will fully transfer the referenced data, but only depositing the reference pointer in the recipient’s channel when it is signalled as able to do so. In § 4.3, we discuss how eager message passing can provide performance advantages under pathological examples.

2.2.2 Rendezvous Communication. Rendezvous communication involves both sender and recipient synchronising over either mutual acknowledgement of messaging, or on the completion of the data transfer \([2, 5]\). In the rendezvous mode, data will not begin to be transferred until both sender and receiver have each confirmed by means of a handshake their intent to begin. While rendezvous communication requires that message transfer occur at a particular time (namely, following a successful handshake), the receiving process may offer in their intention to receive a preferred buffer which may be written to directly after synchronisation. In this way, rendezvous message passing may be used to avoid an extraneous memory copy, at the cost of additional synchronisation. While frameworks such as Distributed.jl that utilise eager message passing may omit the memory copy step, this mode will reduced temporal locality, as new buffers must be selected between communication events.

![Fig. 2. The rendezvous communication model](image)

An ArrayChannel construct will require rendezvous message passing to ensure that the same output buffer is used for each successive communication instance. We discuss how the differences between these two modes affect the behaviour of the ArrayChannels.jl library in § 5.

2.3 Evaluation Techniques

To evaluate differing performance outcomes between Distributed.jl and ArrayChannels.jl communication nodes, we provide performance comparison on a series of benchmarks. For analysis of maximum obtainable data-transfer rate, we provide the results of a two-process ping-pong benchmark. As a projection of performance outcomes on more realistic use cases, we compare performance readings on a subset of the Intel Parallel Research Kernels, providing readings for a variety of core-counts to indicate the effect of ArrayChannels.jl communication primitives on scalability. Our scalability results are given in terms of weak-scaling, whereby problem size increases roughly linearly with core-count, to enable each parallel entity to operate on the same amount of local data.

2.3.1 Intel Parallel Research Kernels. The Intel PRK \([6]\) are a series of HPC kernels that serve to predict the performance of parallel environments and frameworks for realistic computation tasks. We provide performance measurements on three of these kernels, namely Reduce, Transpose and Stencil, due to their emphasis on array computing which is a strength of the Julia language. Moreover, these kernels represent real data-parallelism workloads, which are commonplace in the numerical computing applications of the language.

2.3.2 The Reduce Kernel. The reduce kernel reduces a series of large vectors by accumulating their vector sum into an output vector at each iteration. For each additional core provided to the kernel, two vectors of equal size are provided so as to provide each core with some local computation. In a distributed context, this is accomplished by allocating two large vectors at each locale, computing the local sum and then performing a distributed reduction on the resultant vector. In figure 3, reduction occurs in stages occurring at different compute nodes for improved parallelism. In MPI, this is facilitated directly by the MPI_Reduce directive, which causes the MPI runtime to conduct the parallel reduction with a single destination rank using whichever topology it deems most suitable. As the MPI Reduce...
implementation performs its work in place, our equivalent implementations in Julia attempt to duplicate this behaviour by implementing the tree topology using point-to-point communication. In §3.2 we comment on the utility of language directives for directly addressing parallelism patterns.

2.3.3 The Transpose Kernel. The transpose kernel will at each iteration transform the memory representation of a dense matrix so that columns are stored in the row format and vice versa. In a distributed context, where the matrix is fragmented among different locales, the transpose of a pair of indices may belong to a different locale, and as such data communication is required. In practise, the matrices are distributed into "column blocks", with one column block given to each process. Figure 4 demonstrates how off-diagonal regions of column blocks must be communicated with other processes at each iteration. The colours represent the distribution of data between workers. Arrows connecting differently-coloured regions indicate that communication must occur between the owners of the regions.

At each iteration, the total amount of data that must be communicated increases quadratically with the order of the matrix, and each worker must communicate with every other worker. This kernel provides an intense stress on the efficiency of the communication model, while providing minimal arithmetic intensity.

2.3.4 The Stencil Kernel. The stencil kernel involves repeatedly applying a point-wise operator to each element of a dense matrix, where the point-wise operator depends on the value of neighbouring data points. For a distributed context, this kernel may be parallelised by decomposing the source matrix into square blocks and distributing each block to a different worker process. Applying the stencil operator to indices that border the divisions will require the acquisition of data from neighbouring processes, as depicted in figure 5. In the diagram, colours are used to represent the distribution of matrix data, and green subregions represent the communication boundaries.

The regions of data dependencies that lie on the borders between locales are known as "ghost regions". A parameter known as the “stencil radius” determines the width of these ghost regions, and so total amount of data to be communicated increases linearly with respect to the order of the matrix. Unlike the transpose kernel, the stencil kernel requires the communication of only relatively small amounts of data, while providing a high arithmetic intensity.

3. The ArrayChannels.jl Library

The ArrayChannels.jl library provides synchronous, in-place communication options for message passing, utilising rendezvous message passing. This is achieved by providing an ArrayChannel construct encapsulating a template for the forms of array communication that must occur. Constructing an ArrayChannel will require specification of the processes that must participate in relevant communication events. Each participating process will allocate a buffer of the same fixed size that will be reused for all communication tasks.

In distributed computation tasks that depend on data to be received as messages from other processes, reuse of the same message buffers improves temporal locality. This in turn causes the receiving of new messages and actions upon message contents to be more likely to occur in cache and with fewer cache misses.

3.1 Point-to-Point

For point-to-point communication, we provide two commands, put! and take!, which allows processes to send messages to, or receive from, a specified process. In code snippet each worker must communicate with every other worker. This kernel provides an intense stress on the efficiency of the communication model, while providing minimal arithmetic intensity.

At each iteration, the total amount of data that must be communicated increases quadratically with the order of the matrix, and
I creates an \texttt{ArrayChannel} to facilitate communication between worker processes. By using a remote call, the programmer may initiate communication by passing the \texttt{ArrayChannel} as arguments to an invocation of either \texttt{put!} and \texttt{take!}. \texttt{ArrayChannel} constructs associate with different data buffers depending on which process interacts with the reference.

```julia
# 10 x 10 buffer
AC = ArrayChannel(Float64, workers(), 10, 10)
@sync begin
  @spawnat 2 begin
    fill!(AC, 1.0)
    put!(AC, 3)
  end
  @spawnat 3 begin
    take!(AC, 2)
    assert AC[1,1] == 1.0
  end
end
```

Fig. 6. Message of 10 \times 10 matrix of ones sent via point-to-point messaging

\texttt{put!} and \texttt{take!} operations will block until all buffer contents have been communicated and written at the recipient’s buffer. \texttt{ArrayChannels.jl} will then simply take the contents of the input buffer and deposit them in the output buffer at the recipient process, using the same buffer for each successive communication operation for improved temporal locality.

### 3.2 Reduction

All participants in the underlying \texttt{ArrayChannel} must signal their intent on initiating a reduction by calling \texttt{reduce!} on the remote channel reference, supplying the reduction operator and ‘root’ process which will receive the resultant data. In figure 7, the master process initiates an \texttt{ArrayChannel} for the worker processes, and then causes each participating process to signal for a sum reduction on their local data, directing the result towards process 2. After this reduction has taken place, only process 2’s data will be modified. \texttt{reduce!} will block so long as the calling process is still required to facilitate the reduction under the current topology.

```julia
AC = ArrayChannel(Int64, workers(), 10)
@sync for proc in workers()
  @spawnat proc begin
    fill!(AC, 1)
    reduce!(\(+\), AC, 2)
  end
end
assert @fetchfrom 2 AC[1,1] == nworkers()
```

Fig. 7. Sum reduce of vectors residing on five worker processes

We implement the tree topology for \texttt{reduce!}, targeting hierarchical network topologies for distributed clusters. The \texttt{reduce!} function is defined itself in terms of point-to-point communication, where processes determine their position in the reduction topology depending on their process identifier. Since the method is only intended to alter data residing at the root process, we retain two buffers in addition to the main \texttt{ArrayChannel} buffer for use in reduction operations in storing intermediate results.

#### 3.3 Scatter / Gather

The scatter / gather pattern differs from point-to-point communication and reduction in that all processes, not just those participating in the \texttt{ArrayChannel} may receive and send messages through this mode. Within a \texttt{scatter!} operation, a master node will allocate disjoint regions of its local data for communication with some specified worker processes. Every invocation of \texttt{scatter!} will block the caller until the processes have completed receiving the data. Conversely, a \texttt{gather!} operation causes the master process to wait for workers to send back regions of array data that match the specified directions.

```julia
X = ArrayChannel(Int64, [1], 10, 10)
dim_map = x -> (x-1)*2+1 : x*2
assert nworkers() == 5
@sync begin
  @sync begin
    scatter!(X, workers(), dim_map)
    gather!(X, workers(), dim_map)
  end
  for proc in workers()
    @spawnat proc begin
      # Specify who to accept a scatter from
      local_data = scatter_accept(X, 1)
      local_data[1] = myid()
      gather_back(X, local_data)
    end
  end
  @assert X[1, 2*(proc-1)] == workers()[i]
end
```

Fig. 8. Both scatter and gather patterns at work

In code snippet 8, the master process initiates both a \texttt{scatter!} to each of its five worker processes, giving to each process two columns of a matrix. Each worker will receive its local portion, and then write into it their process identifier. Finally, the master process will receive back each worker’s array data, and assert that the anticipated changes have been made.

### 4. Results

As a preliminary benchmark, we begin by determining the maximum obtainable throughput through message passing available in \texttt{Distributed.jl} and \texttt{ArrayChannels.jl}, compared to an OpenMPI 4.0.0 baseline\footnote{Ping-pong implementations for evaluation are available in the project repository: https://github.com/rohanmclure/ArrayChannels.jl/tree/master/example. Reference implementations for MPI are obtained from https://github.com/ParRes/Kernels/tree/master/MP1, and built with default parameters but with -O3 enabled.}. Afterwards we assess the performance of the \texttt{ArrayChannels.jl} communication model on the data parallelism benchmarks contained in the Intel PRK. The Intel PRK
implementations accommodated arbitrary numbers of cores, and we obtain results for core counts ranging between one and fourteen. Results were obtained on a single compute node with two 8-core Intel Xeon Gold 6134 (@ 3.20GHz) sockets. Each CPU featured dual-lane Hyper-Threading and 24.75MB of last-level cache. We took the average performance reading after evaluating the benchmarks a number of times for each problem size / core count. During evaluation, each kernel is executed under 1000 iterations with an additional warm-up iteration. This reduces the impact of runtime events such as JIT compilation on performance readings to indicate eventual performance outcomes.

### 4.1 Ping-Pong Results

In figure 9, we provide a profile of the maximum obtainable throughput that can be achieved for messages of a certain size. The MPI and Distributed.jl implementations feature a steep drop-off in throughput for messages greater than 8MB in size, suggesting that the maximum communication bandwidth has been obtained. For larger message sizes, both implementations yield deteriorated performance readings, which gradually improve as message sizes increase. The communication model presented in OpenMPI consistently outperforms Distributed.jl, with MPI yielding up to 162% increased performance.

Fig. 9. Two-process Ping-Pong performance profile

In spite of ArrayChannels.jl being written using Julia serialisation constructs, we still see generally improved performance over Distributed.jl for larger message sizes, due to improved cache utilisation. The largest difference in performance is attained for 40MB messages, with 150% improvement over Distributed.jl. For messages below 100kB in size, eager message passing in Distributed.jl yields improved performance due to the cost of synchronisation in the rendezvous model outweighing the benefits of improved access locality. For message sizes up to 16MB, MPI significantly outperforms ArrayChannels.jl due its highly optimised messaging model. Interestingly, ArrayChannels.jl provides up to 18% improved performance over MPI for message sizes ranging between 40MB and 4GB, with deteriorating performance for 8GB messages, while MPI performance continues to increase.

### 4.2 Reduce Results

In the distributed reduce kernel, each process is allocated two large vectors so that a local reduction can be performed. For our testing purposes, each of these vectors was 8MB in size, providing 16MB to each process. We selected these problem sizes such that in all trials with parallel computation, the size of program memory will exceed last-level cache, and so highlight the effects of access locality.

The reduce kernel’s performance readings depicted in figure 10 demonstrate the effect of parallelisation on overall throughput (measured in flops per second) of the reduction operation. In MPI, performance increases steeply with parallelisation only for core counts above four, with only a slight increase between three and four cores. The provision of fourteen cores in the case of MPI provides 91% over the sequential reading, however in both Julia implementations (each targeting the tree topology) provide deteriorated performance with the addition of parallelism, with fourteen cores obtaining 84% (with ArrayChannels.jl) and 46% (with Distributed.jl) of the sequential performance.

Fig. 10. Weak scaling on Distributed Reduction

MPI implementations are able to target a wide variety of network topologies in their approach to operations such as reduction, and may even adopt different behaviour depending on the input size. By comparison, we implement the Reduce kernel targeting exactly one topology. In § 4.1, we observe that on a shared-memory environment such as the testing environment, the MPI implementation delivers far higher data throughput for 8MB messages than either communication model in Julia. While the cost of communication in Julia prohibits speedup due to parallelism on this kernel, this performance degradation is mitigated by improved temporal locality in ArrayChannels.jl. Performance when utilising ArrayChannels.jl is roughly double that of performance in Distributed.jl, with improvements between 68% for 7 cores and 152% for 3 cores.

### 4.3 Transpose Results

In the distributed transpose kernel, all process operate on separate portions of a large square matrix. We describe the data distribution method in § 2.3. Each process is allocated 2MB of this matrix, however will retain a copy of their local portion for computation. In figure 11, we see that parallel performance under Julia for the transpose kernel is greatly diminished compared to the sequential reading and reference C-MPI code. Under Distributed.jl, using parallelism obtains at most 61% of the sequential performance,
As depicted in figure 12, all three implementations feature typically higher performance than ArrayChannels.jl with only 50% under Distributed.jl. Distributed.jl obtains typically higher performance than ArrayChannels.jl with execution under eight cores yielding 24% performance improvement.

In the stencil kernel, messages sizes are small compared to that of transpose or reduce, and the arithmetic intensity is high. The ghost regions (matrix regions that must be shared between processes) have the potential to be stored entirely in last-level cache, and as such ArrayChannels.jl provides improved performance by reissuing the same storage location when receiving the contents of these regions at each iteration. Communication in Distributed.jl will instead generate a new buffer for each incoming message, increasing memory latency as the memory region must be fetched into processor cache prior to use.

5. Conclusion

In this article we presented the ArrayChannels.jl library, providing in-place communication for array data to the Julia language. The library supports a number of parallelism patterns, such as point-to-point communication, parallel reduction and the gather / scatter pattern. We evaluated the performance of both ArrayChannels.jl and Distributed.jl on a number of benchmarks to demonstrate how improved temporal locality can significantly improve the performance scalability of numerical codes. Our evaluation revealed that while tasks involving large, overlapping communication events may still favour the eager communication model in Distributed.jl, however many realistic computation efforts perform better when messages are transferred in-place. By using ‘ArrayChannels.jl’ constructs improved total throughput obtainable by message passing by up to 150%, and on realistic benchmarks with up to 71% for the stencil kernel and up to 152% improvement on vector reduction.

6. References

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