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Off-line and on-line scheduling on heterogeneous master-slave platforms

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Abstract

In this paper, we deal with the problem of scheduling independent tasks on heterogeneous master-slave platforms. We target both off-line and on-line problems, with several objective functions (makespan, maximum response time, total completion time). On the theoretical side, our results are two-fold: (i) For off-line scheduling, we prove several optimality results for problems with release dates; (ii) For on-line scheduling, we establish lower bounds on the competitive ratio of any deterministic algorithm. On the practical side, we have implemented several heuristics, some classical and some new ones derived in this paper, on a small but fully heterogeneous MPI platform. Our results show the superiority of those heuristics which fully take into account the relative capacity of the communication links.

Keywords: scheduling, master-slave platforms, heterogeneous computing, on-line, release dates.

1. Introduction

In this paper, we deal with the problem of scheduling independent tasks on a heterogeneous master-slave platform. We assume that this platform is operated under the one-port model, where the master can communicate with a single slave at any time-step. This model is much more realistic than the standard model from the literature, where the number of simultaneous messages involving a processor is not bounded. However, very few complexity results are known for this model (see Section 7 for a short survey). The major objective of this paper is to assess the difficulty of off-line and on-line scheduling problems under the one-port model.

We deal with problems where all tasks have the same size. Otherwise, even the simple problem of scheduling with two identical slaves, without paying any cost for the communications from the master, is NP-hard [12]. Assume that the platform is composed of a master and m slaves $P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_m$. Let $c_j$ be the time needed by the master to send a task to $P_j$, and let $p_j$ be the time needed by $P_j$ to execute a task. Our main results are the following:

- When the platform is fully homogeneous ($c_j = c$ and $p_j = p$ for all $j$), we design an algorithm which is optimal for the on-line problem and for three different objective functions (makespan, maximum response time, total completion time).

- When the communications are homogeneous ($c_j = c$ for all $j$, but different values of $p_j$), we design an optimal makespan minimization algorithm for the off-line problem with release dates. This algorithm generalizes, and provides a new proof of, a result of Simons [28].

- When the computations are homogeneous ($p_j = p$ for all $j$, but different value of $c_j$), we failed to derive an optimal makespan minimization algorithm for the off-line problem with release dates, but we provide an efficient heuristic for this problem.

- For these last two scenarios (homogeneous communications and homogeneous computations), we show that there does not exist any optimal on-line algorithm. This holds true for the previous three objective functions (makespan, maximum delay, total completion time). We even establish lower bounds on the competitive ratio of any deterministic algorithm.

The main contributions of this paper are mostly theoretical. However, on the practical side, we have implemented several heuristics, some classical and some new ones derived in this paper, on a small but fully heterogeneous MPI platform. Our (preliminary) results show the superiority of those heuristics which fully take into account the relative capacity of the communication links.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we state some notations for the scheduling problems under consideration. Section 3 deals with fully homogeneous platforms. We
study communication-homogeneous platforms in Section 4, and computation-homogeneous platforms in Section 5. We provide an experimental comparison of several scheduling heuristics in Section 6. Section 7 is devoted to an overview of related work. Finally, we state some concluding remarks in Section 8.

Due to lack of space, several proofs are omitted. See the extended version [22] for further details.

2. Framework

To be consistent with the literature [16, 9], we use the notation $\alpha \mid \beta \mid \gamma$ where:

$\alpha$: the platform— As in the standard, we use $P$ for platforms with identical processors, and $Q$ for platforms with different-speed processors. We add $MS$ to this field to indicate that we work with master-slave platforms.

$\beta$: the constraints— We write on-line for on-line problems, and $r_j$ when there are release dates. We write $c_j = c$ for communication-homogeneous platforms, and $p_j = p$ for computation-homogeneous platforms.

$\gamma$: the objective— We let $C_i$ denote the end of the execution of task $i$. We deal with three objective functions:

- the makespan (total execution time) $\max C_i$;
- the maximum response time (or maximum flow) $\max C_i - r_i$; indeed, $C_i - r_i$ is the time spent by task $i$ in the system;
- the total completion time $\sum C_i$, which is equivalent to the sum of the response times $\sum (C_i - r_i)$.

3. Fully homogeneous platforms

For fully homogeneous platforms, we are able to prove the optimality of the Round-Robin algorithm which processes the tasks in the order of their arrival, and which assigns them in a cyclic fashion to processors:

**Theorem 1.** The Round-Robin algorithm is optimal for the problem $P, MS \mid \text{online}, r_j, p_j = p, c_j = c \mid \sum (C_i - r_i)$, as well as for the makespan and the maximum response time.

The proof is available in [22]. First we show that the greedy algorithm (that assigns a new task to the first idle processor) is optimal, and then we show that the Round-Robin algorithm starts tasks at the same time-steps as the greedy algorithm. We point out that the complexity of the Round-Robin algorithm is linear in the number of tasks and does not depend upon the platform size.

4. Communication-homogeneous platforms

In this section, we have $c_j = c$ but different-speed processors. We order them so that $P_1$ is the fastest processor ($p_1$ is the smallest computing time $p_i$), while $P_m$ is the slowest processor.

4.1. On-line scheduling

**Theorem 2.** There is no scheduling algorithm for the problem $Q, MS \mid \text{online}, r_j, p_j, c_j = c \mid \max C_i$ with a competitive ratio less than $\frac{5+3\sqrt{5}}{10}$.

**Proof.** Suppose the existence of an on-line algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ with a competitive ratio $\rho = \frac{5+3\sqrt{5}}{10} - \epsilon$, with $\epsilon > 0$. We will build a platform and study the behavior of $\mathcal{A}$ opposed to our adversary. The platform consists of two processors, where $p_1 = 2$, $p_2 = \frac{1+3\sqrt{5}}{2}$, and $c = 1$.

Initially, the adversary sends a single task $i$ at time $0$. $\mathcal{A}$ sends the task $i$ either on $P_1$, achieving a makespan at least equal to 3, or on $P_2$, with a makespan at least equal to $\frac{5+3\sqrt{5}}{2}$. At time-step 1, we check if $\mathcal{A}$ made a decision concerning the scheduling of $i$, and the adversary reacts consequently:

1. If $\mathcal{A}$ did not begin the sending of the task $i$, the adversary does not send other tasks. The best makespan is then 4. As the optimal scheduling is 3, we have a competitive ratio of $\frac{4}{3} > \frac{5+3\sqrt{5}}{10}$. This refutes the assumption on $\rho$. Thus the algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ must have scheduled the task $i$ at time 1.

2. If $\mathcal{A}$ scheduled the task $i$ on $P_2$ the adversary does not send other tasks. The best makespan is then equal to $\frac{3+3\sqrt{5}}{2}$, which is even worse than the previous case. Consequently, the algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ does not have another choice than to schedule the task $i$ on $P_1$.

At time-step 1, the adversary sends another task, $j$. In this case, we look, at time-step 2, at the assignment $\mathcal{A}$ made for $j$:

1. If $j$ is sent on $P_2$, the adversary does not send any more task. The makespan is then $\frac{5+3\sqrt{5}}{2}$, whereas
optimal scheduling is 5. The competitive ratio is then \( \frac{5+3\sqrt{3}}{10} > \rho \).

2. If \( j \) is sent on \( P_1 \) the adversary sends a last task at time-step 2. Best makespan is then \( 7+3\sqrt{3} \), whereas the optimal is \( \frac{5+3\sqrt{3}}{10} \). The competitive ratio is still \( \frac{5+3\sqrt{3}}{10} \), higher than \( \rho \).

\[ \square \]

Remark 1. Similarly, we can show that there is no on-line scheduling for the problem \( Q, MS \mid online, r_i, p_j, c_j = c \mid \sum C_i \) whose competitive ratio \( \rho \) is strictly lower than \( \frac{2+4\sqrt{3}}{9} \), and that there is no on-line scheduling for the problem \( Q, MS \mid online, r_i, p_j, c_j = c \mid \max (C_i - r_i) \) whose competitive ratio \( \rho \) is strictly lower than \( \frac{7}{6} \).

4.2. Off-line scheduling

In this section, we aim at designing an optimal algorithm for the off-line version of the problem, with release dates. We target the objective max \( C_i \). Intuitively, to minimize the completion date of the last task, it is necessary to allocate this task to the fastest processor (which will finish it the most rapidly). However, the other tasks should also be assigned so that this fastest processor will be available as soon as possible for the last task. We define the greedy algorithm SLJF (Scheduling Last Jobs First) as follows:

 Initialization—Take the last task which arrives in the system and allocate it to the fastest processor (Figure 1(a)).

 Scheduling backwards—Among the not-yet-allocated tasks, select the one which arrived latest in the system. Assign it, without taking its arrival date into account, to the processor which will begin its execution at the latest, but without exceeding the completion date of the previously scheduled task (Figure 1(b)).

 Memorization—Once all tasks are allocated, record the assignment of the tasks to the processors (Figure 1(c)).

 Assignment—The master sends the tasks according to their arrival date, as soon as possible, to the processor which they have been assigned to in the previous step (Figure 1(d)).

Theorem 3. SLJF is an optimal algorithm for the problem \( Q, MS \mid r_j, p_j, c_j = c \mid \max C_i \).

Proof. The first three phases of the SLJF algorithm are independent of the release dates, and only depend on the number of tasks which will arrive in the system. The proof proceeds in three steps. First we study the problem without communication costs, nor release dates. Next, we take release dates into account. Finally, we extend the result to the case with communications. The second step is the most difficult.

For the first step, we have to minimize the makespan during the scheduling of identical tasks with heterogeneous processors, without release dates. Without communication costs, this is a well-known load balancing problem, which can be solved by a greedy algorithm [6]. The “scheduling backwards” phase of SLJF solves this load balancing problem optimally. Since the problem is without release dates, the “assignment” phase does not increase the makespan, which thus remains optimal.

Next we add the constraints of release dates. To show that SLJF is optimal, we proceed by induction on the number of tasks. For a single task, it is obvious that the addition of a release date does not change anything about the optimality of the solution. Let us suppose the algorithm optimal for \( n \) tasks, or less. Then look at the behavior of the algorithm to process \( n+1 \) tasks. If the addition of the release dates does not increase the makespan compared to that obtained during the “memorization” step, then an optimal scheduling is obtained. If not, let us look once again at the problem starting from the end. Compare the completion times of the tasks in the scheduling of the “memorization” phase (denoted as \( (C_n - C_i)_{mem} \)), and in the “assignment” phase (denoted as \( (C_n - C_i)_{final} \)). If both makespans are equal, we are done. Otherwise, there are tasks such that \( (C_n - C_i)_{mem} < (C_n - C_i)_{final} \). Let \( j \)
be the last task satisfying this property. In this case, the scheduling of the \((n - j - 1)\) last tasks corresponds to SLJF in the case of \((n - j - 1)\) tasks, when the first task arrives at time \(r_j + 1\) (see Figure 2). And since \(j\) is the last task satisfying the above property, we are sure that the processors are free at the expected times. Scheduling is thus optimal from \(r_j\), and task \(j\) cannot begin its computation earlier. The whole scheduling is also optimal. Finally, SLJF is optimal to minimize the makespan in the presence of release dates.

Taking communications into account is now easy. Under the one-port model, with a uniform communication time for all tasks and processors, the optimal policy of the master consists in sending the tasks as soon as they arrive. Now, we can consider the dates at which the tasks are available on a slave, and consider them as release dates for a problem without communications.

**Remark 2.** It should be stressed that, by posing \(c = 0\), our approach allows to provide a new proof to the result of Barbara Simons [28].

5. Computation-homogeneous platforms

In this section, we have \(p_j = p\) but processor links with different capacities. We order them, so that \(P_1\) is the fastest communicating processor (\(c_1\) is the smallest computing time \(c_i\)).

5.1. On-line scheduling

Just as in Section 4, we can bound the competitive ratio of any deterministic algorithm (but the proof is much more technical, see [22]):

**Theorem 4.** There is no scheduling algorithm for the problem \(P, MS|\) online, \(r_i, p_j = p, c_j | \max C\) whose competitive ratio \(\rho\) is strictly lower than \(\frac{6}{5}\).

5.2. Off-line scheduling

In the easy case where \(\sum_{i=1}^{m'} c_i \leq p\), and without release dates, Round-Robin is optimal for makespan minimization. But in the general case, not all slaves will be enrolled in the computation. Intuitively, the idea is to use the fastest \(m'\) links, where \(m'\) is computed so that the time \(p\) to execute a task lies between the time necessary to send a task on each of the fastest \(m' - 1\) links and the time necessary to send a task on each of the fastest \(m'\) links. Formally,

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{m'-1} c_i < p \leq \sum_{i=1}^{m'} c_i
\]

With only \(m'\) links selected in the platform, we aim at deriving an algorithm similar to Round-Robin. But we did not succeed in proving the optimality of our approach. Hence the algorithm below should rather be seen as a heuristic.

The difficulty lies in deciding when to use the \(m'\)-th processor. In addition to be the one having the slowest communication link, its use can cause a moment of inactivity on another processor, since \(\sum_{i=2}^{m' - 1} c_i + c_{m'} \geq p\). Our greedy algorithm will simply compare the performances of two strategies, the one sending tasks only on the \(m' - 1\) first processors, and the other using the \(m'\)-th processor “at the best possible moment”.

Let \(RRA\) be the algorithm sending the tasks to the \(m' - 1\) fastest processors in a cyclic way, starting with the fastest processor, and scheduling the tasks in the reverse order, from the last one to the first one. Let \(RRB\) be the algorithm sending the last task to processor \(m'\), then following the \(RRA\) policy. We see that \(RRA\) seeks to continuously use the processors, even though idle time may occur on the communication link, and on the processor \(P_m\). On the contrary, \(RRB\) tries to continuously use the communication link, despite leaving some processors idle.

The global behavior of the greedy algorithm, \(SLJFWC\) (Scheduling the Last Job First With Communication) is as follows:

**Initialization:** Allocate the \(m' - 1\) last tasks to the fastest \(m' - 1\) processors, from the fastest to the slowest.

**Comparison:** Compare the schedules \(RRA\) and \(RRB\). If there are not enough tasks to enforce the following stop and save condition, then keep the fastest policy (see Figure 3).

**Stop and save:** After \(k(m' - 1) + 1\) allocated tasks
When the last task is treated, keep the fastest processor, for “free”, i.e. without delaying the treatment of the next tasks to come on the other processors.

6. MPI experiments

6.1. The experimental platform

We build a small heterogeneous master-slave platform with five different computers, connected to each other by a fast Ethernet switch (100 Mbit/s). The five machines are all different, both in terms of CPU speed and in the amount of available memory. The heterogeneity of the communication links is mainly due to the differences between the network cards. Each task will be a matrix, and each slave will have to calculate the determinant of the matrices that it will receive. Whenever needed, we play with matrix sizes so as to achieve more heterogeneity in the CPU speeds or communication bandwidths.

Below we report experiments for the following configuration:

- $c_1 = 0.011423$ s, and $p_1 = 0.052190$ s
- $c_2 = 0.012052$ s, and $p_2 = 0.019685$ s
- $c_3 = 0.016808$ s, and $p_3 = 0.101777$ s
- $c_4 = 0.043482$ s, and $p_4 = 0.288397$ s

6.2. Results

Figure 5 shows the makespan obtained with classical scheduling algorithms, such as SRPT (Shortest Remaining Processing Time), List Scheduling, and several variants of Round-Robin, as well as with SLJF and SLJFWC.
7. Related work

We classify several related papers along the following four main lines:

**Models for heterogeneous platforms**— In the literature, one-port models come in two variants. In the unidirectional variant, a processor cannot be involved in more than one communication at a given time-step, either a send or a receive. In the bidirectional model, a processor can send and receive in parallel, but at most to a given neighbor in each direction. In both variants, if $P_u$ sends a message to $P_v$, both $P_u$ and $P_v$ are blocked throughout the communication.

The bidirectional one-port model is used by Bhat et al [7, 8] for fixed-size messages. They advocate its use because “current hardware and software do not easily enable multiple messages to be transmitted simultaneously”. Even if non-blocking multi-threaded communication libraries allow for initiating multiple send and receive operations, they claim that all these operations “are eventually serialized by the single hardware port to the network”. Experimental evidence of this fact has recently been reported by Saif and Parashar [25], who report that asynchronous MPI sends get serialized as soon as message sizes exceed a few megabytes. Their results hold for two popular MPI implementations, MPICH on Linux clusters and IBM MPI on the SP2.

The one-port model fully accounts for the heterogeneity of the platform, as each link has a different bandwidth. It generalizes a simpler model studied by Banikazemi et al. [1], Liu [19], and Khuller and Kim [15]. In this simpler model, the communication time only depends on the sender, not on the receiver; in other words, the communication speed from a processor to all its neighbors is the same.

Finally, we note that some papers [2, 3] depart from the one-port model as they allow a sending processor to initiate another communication while a previous one is still on-going on the network. However, such models insist that there is an overhead time to pay before being engaged in another operation, so there are not allowing for fully simultaneous communications.

**Task graph scheduling**— Task graph scheduling is usually studied using the so-called **macro-dataflow** model [20, 27, 10, 11], whose major flaw is that communication resources are not limited. In this model, a processor can send (or receive) any number of messages in parallel, hence an unlimited
number of communication ports is assumed (this explains the name macro-dataflow for the model). Also, the number of messages that can simultaneously circulate between processors is not bounded, hence an unlimited number of communications can simultaneously occur on a given link. In other words, the communication network is assumed to be contention-free, which of course is not realistic as soon as the processor number exceeds a few units. More recent papers [30, 21, 24, 4, 5, 29] take communication resources into account.

Hollermann et al. [13] and Hsu et al. [14] introduce the following model for task graph scheduling: each processor can either send or receive a message at a given time-step (bidirectional communication is not possible); also, there is a fixed latency between the initiation of the communication by the sender and the beginning of the reception by the receiver. Still, the model is rather close to the one-port model discussed in this paper.

**On-line scheduling**—A good survey of on-line scheduling can be found in [26, 23]. Two papers focus on the problem of on-line scheduling for master-slaves platforms. In [17], Leung and Zhao proposed several competitive algorithms minimizing the total completion time on a master-slave platform, with or without pre- and post-processing. In [18], the same authors studied the complexity of minimizing the makespan or the total response time, and proposed some heuristics. However, none of these works take into consideration communication costs.

### 8. Conclusion

In this paper, we have dealt with the problem of scheduling independent, same-size tasks on master-slave platforms. We enforce the one-port model, and we study the impact of the communications on the design and analysis of the proposed algorithms.

On the theoretical side, we have derived several new results, either for on-line scheduling, or for off-line scheduling with release dates on computation-homogeneous platforms.

On the practical side, we have to widen the scope of the MPI experiments. A detailed comparison of all the heuristics that we have implemented needs to be conducted on significantly larger platforms (with several tens of slaves). Such a comparison would, we believe, further demonstrate the superiority of these heuristics which fully take into account the relative capacity of the communication links.

### References


