Parallel Monte Carlo Trials

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SUMMARY

The best results of Monte Carlo methods are generally obtained by performing the same computation many times with different random numbers. We develop a generic algorithm for parallel execution of Monte Carlo trials on a multicomputer. The generic algorithm has been adapted for simulated annealing and primality testing by simple substitutions of data types and procedures. The performance of the parallel algorithms was measured on a Computing Surface.

KEY WORDS  Multicomputer algorithms  Monte Carlo trials
Simulated annealing  Primality testing
Computing Surface

INTRODUCTION

Monte Carlo methods are algorithms that use random number generators to simulate stochastic processes. Probabilistic algorithms have been applied successfully to combinatorial problems, which cannot be solved exactly because they have a vast number of potential solutions.

The most famous example is the problem of the traveling salesman who must visit \( n \) cities. No computer will ever be able to find the shortest tour through 100 cities by examining all the \( 5 \times 10^{150} \) possible tours. For practical purposes, the problem can effectively be solved by simulated annealing [1, 2]. This Monte Carlo method has a high probability of finding a near-optimal tour of 100 cities after examining a random sample of one million tours. The chance of finding a good solution can be increased by selecting the shortest tour found in, say, 10 annealing runs.

Another example is primality testing of large integers. It is not feasible to determine whether or not a 150-digit integer is a prime by examining all the \( 10^{75} \) possible divisors. In practice, this problem can also be solved by Monte Carlo trials. The
Miller-Rabin algorithm tests the same integer many times using different random numbers \([3, 4]\). If any one of the trials shows that a number is composite, then this is the correct answer. However, if all trials fail to prove that a number is composite, then it is almost certainly prime. The probability that the algorithm gives the wrong answer after, say, 40 trials is less than \(10^{-24}\).

Simulated annealing and primality testing illustrate a general characteristic of Monte Carlo methods: Due to the probabilistic nature of the algorithms, the best results are obtained by performing the computation many times with different random numbers.

The advantage of using a multicomputer for Monte Carlo trials is obvious \([5]\). When the same problem has been broadcast to every processor, the trials can be performed simultaneously without any communication between the processors. Consequently, the processor efficiency is very close to 1 for nontrivial problems.

We will develop a generic algorithm for parallel Monte Carlo trials on a multicomputer. We will then show how the generic algorithm can be adapted for simulated annealing and primality testing by simple substitutions of data types and procedures. The performance of the parallel algorithms has been measured on a *Computing Surface*.

**SEQUENTIAL PARADIGM**

We assume that a Monte Carlo method is defined by a Pascal procedure of the form

```pascal
procedure solve(a: problem; var b: solution;
               seed: integer)
```

The procedure parameters define a problem \(a\) of some type, a solution \(b\) of some type, and an initial seed of a random number generator. Since the procedure and its parameter types vary from one Monte Carlo method to another, we deliberately leave them unspecified at this point.

Algorithm 1 is a sequential paradigm for Monte Carlo trials. The same problem is solved \(m\) times using the trial numbers \(1, 2, \ldots, m\) as distinct initial seeds. The \(m\) solutions are collected in a table.

```pascal
const m = \ldots \{trials\};
type table = array [1..m] of solution;

procedure compute(a: problem; var b: table);
var trial: integer;
begin
  for trial := 1 to m do
    solve(a, b[trial], trial)
end
```

Algorithm 1
PARALLEL PARADIGM

We will rewrite Algorithm 1 for a multicomputer. In theory this is an easy task: First, we broadcast the same problem to \( p \) processors. Each processor then performs \( m/p \) trials. Finally, we collect \( m \) solutions from the processors. To simplify things a bit we will assume that the number of trials \( m \) is divisible by the number of processors \( p \). The local quota \( q = m/p \) is the number of trials per processor.

A straightforward implementation of this scheme requires a master processor that communicates directly with \( p \) server processors. Unfortunately, present multicomputers only permit each processor to communicate with a few neighboring processors. For \( p \) larger than, say 4, the data must be transmitted through a chain of processors. The simplest way to do this is to use a pipeline with \( p \) nodes controlled by a master process (Fig. 1).

![Pipeline Diagram](image)

Fig. 1 Master and pipeline.

The parallel processes will be programmed in Pascal extended with statements for parallel execution and message communication.

The execution of \( k \) statements \( S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_k \) as parallel processes is denoted

\[
\text{parbegin } S_1 | S_2 | \ldots | S_k \text{ end}
\]

The parallel execution continues until every one of the \( k \) processes has terminated.

The parallel for statement

\[
\text{parfor } i := 1 \text{ to } k \text{ do } S(i)
\]

is equivalent to

\[
\text{parbegin } S(1) | S(2) | \ldots | S(k) \text{ end}
\]

We assume that parallel processes run on separate processors without shared memory. Parallel processes communicate through synchronous channels only.
Each process has an input channel and an output channel. The input and output of a value $a$ are denoted $\text{inp}a$ and $\text{out}a$.

The master process outputs a problem $a$ to the pipeline and inputs $m$ solutions from the pipeline (Algorithm 2).

```
procedure master(a: problem; var b: table; inp, out: channel);
var trial: integer;
begin
  out!a;
  for trial := 1 to m do inp?b[trial]
end
```

Algorithm 2

The $m$ trials are distributed as follows among the $p$ nodes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>node</th>
<th>first trial</th>
<th>last trial</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>$q$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>$q+1$</td>
<td>$2q$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$i$</td>
<td>$(i-1)q+1$</td>
<td>$iq$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$p$</td>
<td>$(p-1)q+1$</td>
<td>$pq (=m)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pipeline node number $i$ goes through two major phases:

1) **Broadcasting phase**: The node inputs a problem $a$. If the node is followed by another node, it outputs the problem to its successor:

   - $\text{inp}a$;
   - if $i < p$ then $\text{out}a$

2) **Trial phase**: The node solves the same problem $q$ times:

   - $q := m \div p$;
   - for $j := 1$ to $q$ do
     - begin
       - solve($a, b, (i - 1)q + j$);
       - collection phase
     - end

After every iteration each node holds a single solution. The nodes now go through a minor phase:

2.1) **Collection Phase**: Each node outputs its most recent solution $b$ and copies the most recent solutions produced by its predecessors in the pipeline:
out!b;
for k := 1 to i - 1 do
begin inp?b; out!b end

In short, the pipeline outputs $p$ solutions at a time to the master.
Together these pieces define the complete algorithm for a pipeline node (Algorithm 3).

```latex
procedure node(i: integer; inp, out: channel);
var a: problem; b: solution; j, k, q: integer;
begin
inp?a;
if i < p then out!a;
q := m div p;
for j := 1 to q do
begin
solve(a, b, (i - 1)*q + j);
out!b;
for k := 1 to i - 1 do
begin inp?b; out!b end
end
end
```

Algorithm 3

Algorithm 4 defines the parallel network shown in Fig. 1.

```latex
const m = ... \{trials\};
p = ... \{processors\};
type table = array [1..m] of solution;

procedure compute(a: problem; var b: table);
type net = array [0..p] of channel;
var c: net; i: integer;
begin
parbegin
master(a, b, c[p], c[0]) |
parfor i := 1 to p do
node(i, c[i - 1], c[i])
end
end
```

Algorithm 4

We have developed a generic algorithm for parallel execution of Monte Carlo trials on a multicomputer (Algorithms 2–4). We will now use this paradigm to solve two different problems.
SIMULATED ANNEALING

The first Monte Carlo method we will consider is simulated annealing. In [2] we discussed simulated annealing and illustrated the method by a sequential Pascal algorithm for the traveling salesperson’s problem:

```pascal
procedure anneal(var a: tour;
    Tmax, alpha: real; steps,
    attempts, changes: integer)
```

This procedure replaces an initial random tour of \( n \) cities by a near-optimal tour.

Parallel annealing trials can be implemented by making the following substitutions in Algorithms 2–4:

1. The problem and solution types are both replaced by

   ```pascal
   const n = ... {cities};
   type city = record x, y: real end;
   tour = array [1..n] of city;
   ```

2. The solution procedure is replaced by

   ```pascal
   procedure solve(a: tour; var b: tour;
       seed: integer);
   begin
       initialize(seed); b := a;
       anneal(b, sqrt(n), 0.95,
           trunc(20*ln(n)), 100*n, 10*n)
   end
   ```

The programming details are explained in [2].

We reprogrammed simulated annealing trials in occam for a Computing Surface with T800 transputers. Table I shows the run time \( T_p \) for parallel computation of 10 different tours of 400 cities on 1, 5, and 10 transputers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( p )</th>
<th>( T_p ) (s)</th>
<th>( E_p )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>8367.2</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1674.8</td>
<td>0.9992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>838.3</td>
<td>0.9981</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The processor efficiency \( E_p = T_1/(pT_p) \) is very close to 1.
PRIMALITY TESTING

Our second Monte Carlo method is primality testing of a large integer \( p \). (This integer should not be confused with the number of processors, which is also called \( p \)).

We discussed the Miller-Rabin algorithm in [4] and illustrated it by a sequential Pascal function

\[
\text{function} \ \text{witness}(x, p: \text{integer}): \text{boolean}
\]

The boolean value of this function defines whether or not an integer \( x \) is a witness to the compositeness of the integer \( p \).

Parallel primality trials can be implemented by making the following substitutions in Algorithms 2-4:

1. The problem type is replaced by type integer.
2. The solution type is replaced by type boolean.
3. The solution procedure is replaced by

\[
\text{procedure} \ \text{solve}(p: \text{integer}; \ \text{var} \ \text{sure}: \text{boolean};
\]

\[
\text{seed}: \text{integer})
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{begin} & \\
\text{initialize}(\text{seed}); & \\
\text{sure} := \text{witness}(\text{random}(1, p - 1), p)
\end{align*}
\]

end

In practice, the procedure must be reprogrammed to perform multiple-length arithmetic on large integers represented by arrays of digits:

\[
\text{type} \ \text{number} = \text{array} [... \text{of integer}}
\]

Parallel primality trials were also tested on a Computing Surface. Table II shows the run time \( T_p \) for 40 primality tests of a random integer with 160 decimal digits. (Here \( p \) denotes the number of processors.) The trials were performed in parallel on 1, 10, 20, and 40 transputers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( p )</th>
<th>( T_p )</th>
<th>( E_p )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1503.3</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>150.4</td>
<td>0.9995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>75.2</td>
<td>0.9995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>37.7</td>
<td>0.9969</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The processor efficiency \( E_p \) is practically 1.
FINAL REMARKS

This is one of several papers that demonstrate the benefits of writing generic parallel algorithms, which can be adapted to different applications [6, 7, 8]. In this case, we developed a generic algorithm for parallel execution of Monte Carlo trials on a multi-computer. We then modified this algorithm to solve two different problems: Finding a near-optimal tour of \( n \) cities by simulated annealing, and testing the primality of an \( n \)-digit integer by the Miller-Rabin method [2, 4]. The parallel algorithms were implemented in occam for a Computing Surface. The processor efficiency was very close to 1.

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REFERENCES