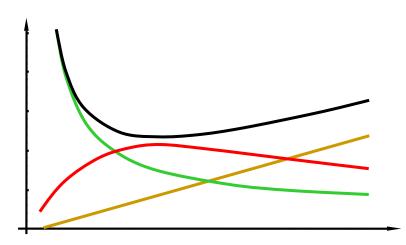
### Chapter 3

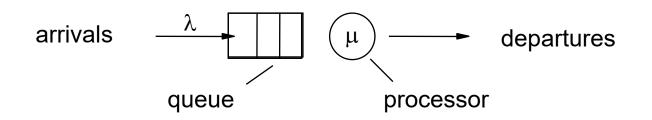
Performance Aspects



## 3.1 Multicomputer and Multiprocessor Systems



- Using queuing theory, computer systems can be modeled as stochastic processes.
- A single computer is considered as a service station at which "jobs" (or customers) arrive, are serviced and leave the system.



- If the processor is occupied, arriving jobs are queued in a FIFO.
- The time between successive arrivals and the service times are stochastic variables.
- In the most simple case, the times follow an exponential distribution with parameter λ (arrival rate) or parameter μ (service rate), respectively. The following must hold: λ < μ.</li>
- The mean time between two arrivals is  $1/\lambda$ , the mean service time is  $1/\mu$ .

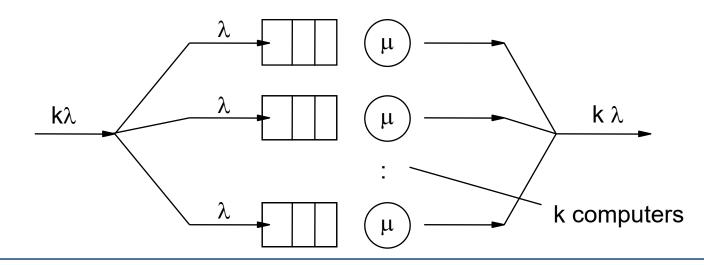
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- The basic model is called "M|M|1"-system, with the first parameter indicating the type of distribution of the arrivals, the second parameter characterizing the distribution of the service time and the third parameter indicating the number of processors. M stands for "Markov" and means exponentially distributed.
- For the **stationary behavior** (steady state) the following can be derived (see e.g. L. Kleinrock: Queuing Theory, Vol.1)
- Utilization U (Prob that service station is not idle):  $U = \lambda/\mu$
- *Throughput TP* (Number of jobs serviced per time):  $TP = \lambda$
- Mean response time R (time between arrival and departure ):  $R = 1 / (\mu - \lambda)$
- Mean number N (Jobs at station):  $N = \lambda / (\mu \lambda)$
- Between number, response time and arrival rate there exists a relation called *Little's law*:

$$N = \lambda R$$

"Mean number of jobs = arrival rate x mean response time "



- A distributed system can approximately be modeled as a set of k such M|M|1- service stations.
- All have the same service rate  $\mu$  and are fed by a job arrival stream with a joint rate of  $\lambda$ .
- Regarding the complete set, we get :
- Throughput:  $TP = k \lambda$
- Response time:  $R_1 = 1 / (\mu \lambda)$



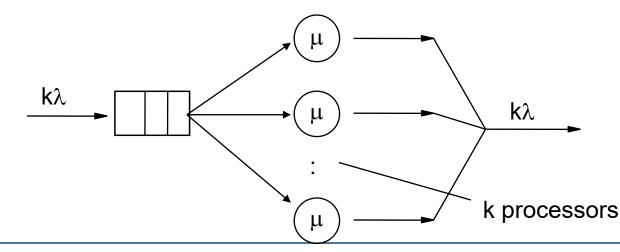
#### Multiprocessor System

- A multiprocessor on the opposite provides a shared memory and therefore a shared single copy of an operating system instance. All ready threads are kept in a joint ready queue.
- Throughput  $TP = k \cdot \lambda$
- Response time  $R_2 = \frac{1}{\mu} + \frac{(k\lambda/\mu)^k}{k!(1-\lambda/\mu)^2} \cdot \frac{1}{\mu} \cdot p_0$

with

$$\boldsymbol{p}_{0} = \left(\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \left(\frac{k\lambda}{\mu}\right)^{i} \frac{1}{i!} + \left(\frac{k\lambda}{\mu}\right)^{k} \frac{1}{k!(1-\lambda/\mu)}\right)^{-1}$$

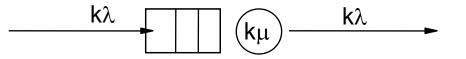
as the "idle probability"





#### Fast Monoprocessor System

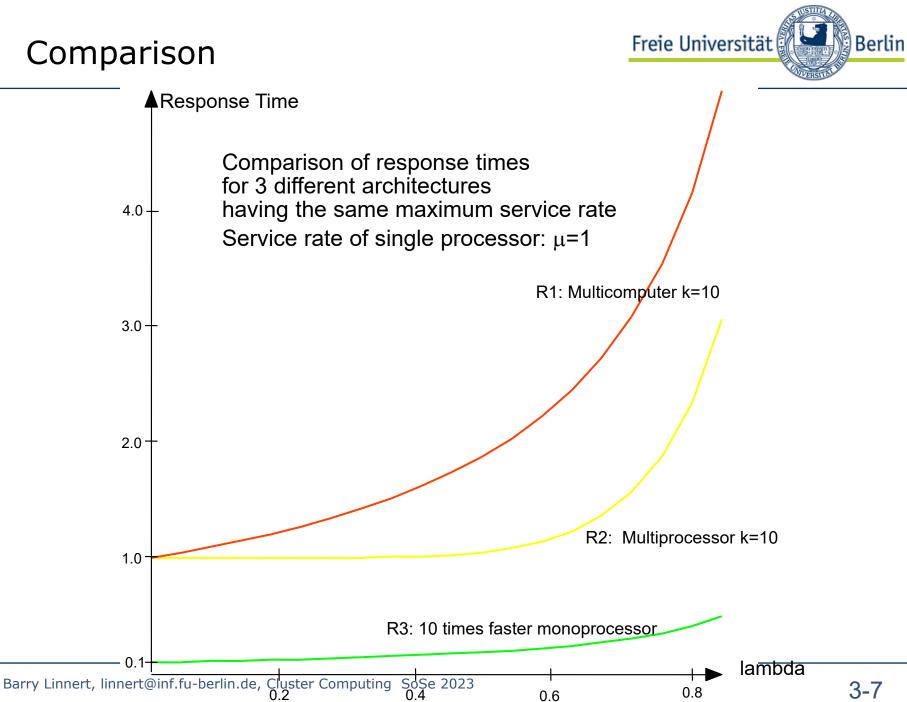
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- For comparison, we present the monoprocessor system that has the same peak performance as the parallel one, i.e. a service rate of kµ.



• Throughput  $TP = k \lambda$ 

• Response time  $R_3 = 1 / (k\mu - k\lambda)$ 

#### Comparison



#### Explanation:



• Multicomputer and multiprocessor system are close together for light load (small  $\lambda$ ) :

In both cases an arriving job will find an idle processor with high probability.

• At higher loads the missing load balancing in multicomputers shows some effect:

Due to the random distribution of jobs to processor nodes it can happen that at some nodes jobs are queuing up while other nodes stay idle.

It is therefore the goal of load balancing mechanisms to achieve the same performance as in multiprocessor systems.

• The k-fold faster monoprocessor can display its speed even when less than k jobs are present. Each job is executed at a k-fold speed.

Conclusion:

• A k-fold faster monoprocessor is better than a parallel system with the same peak service rate with regard to the mean response time.



- Let be *T(1)* the execution time on one processor *T(p)* the execution time on a p processor system
- The gain by parallel computing is expressed by

S(p) := T(1) / T(p) Speed-up

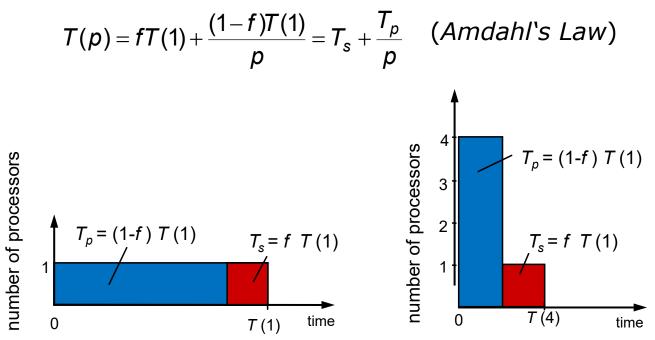
 Normalizing the Speed-up by dividing by the number p of processors is defined as the *efficiency*:

E(p) := S(p) / p Efficiency



- Parallel programs also contain sequential parts.
- Splitting the execution time into a sequential and a parallelizable part yields:

 $T(1) = T_s + T_p$ 





• Using Amdahl's approach we get for the speed-up

$$S(p) = \frac{T(1)}{T(p)} = \frac{p}{fp + (1-f)} = \frac{1}{f + \frac{1-f}{p}}$$

• and for the efficiency

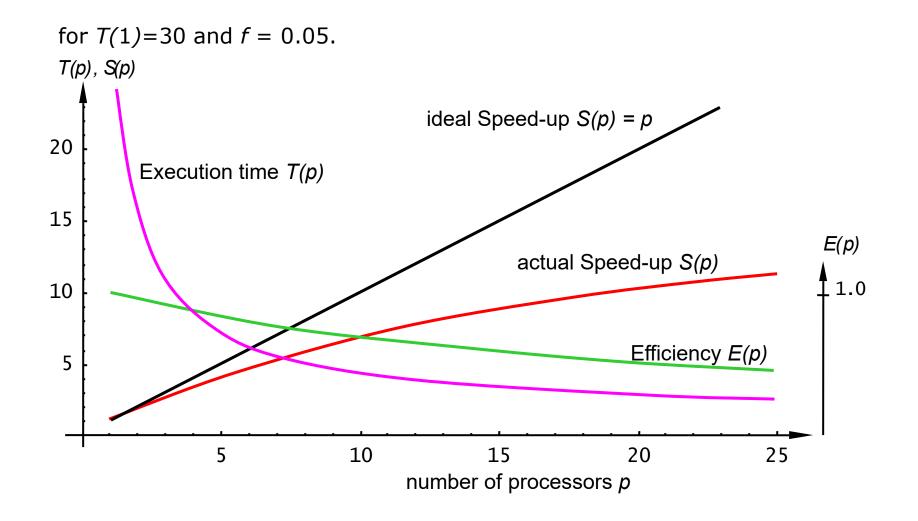
$$E(p) = \frac{S(p)}{p} = \frac{1}{fp+1-f}$$

• We also get:  $T(\infty) := \lim_{p \to \infty} T(p) = fT(1) = T_s$ 

$$S(\infty) := \lim_{p \to \infty} S(p) = 1/f$$

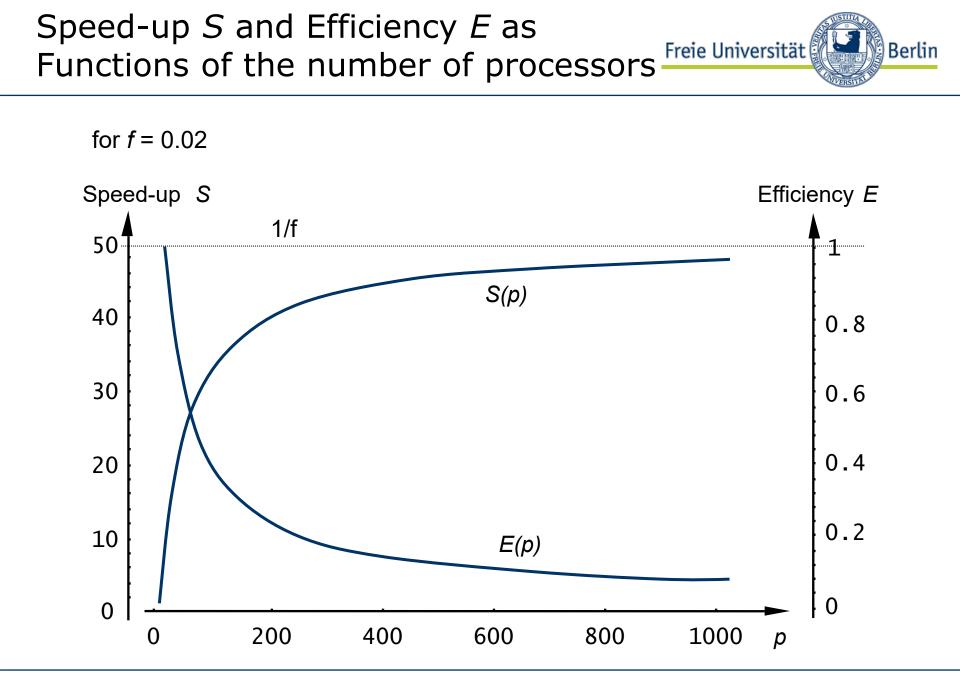
$$E(\infty) \coloneqq \lim_{p \to \infty} E(p) = 0$$

## Behavior of different Quantities using Amdahl's Model



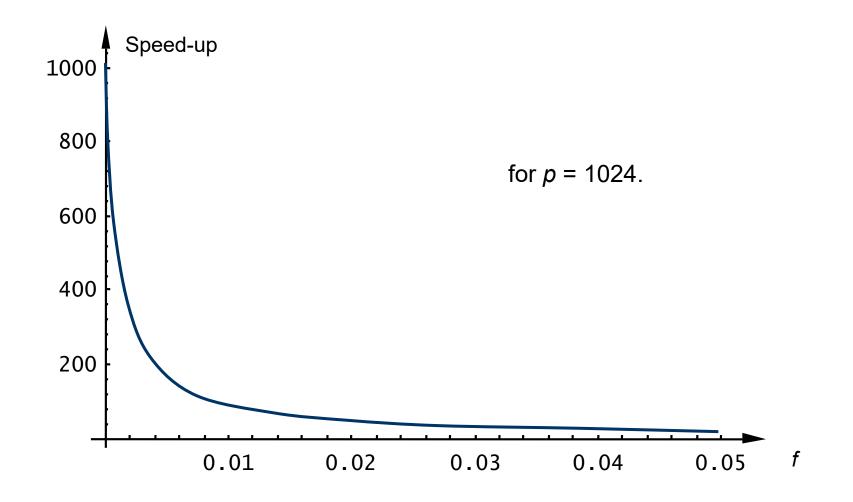
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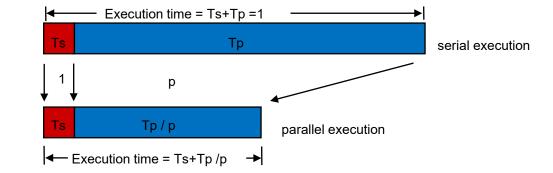






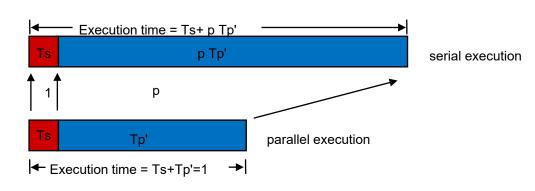
#### Speed-up:

How much faster can a given problem be solved with *p* processors?



#### Scale-up (scaled Speed-up):

How much larger can a problem be and still be solved in the same time by *p* processors ?



Scale-up



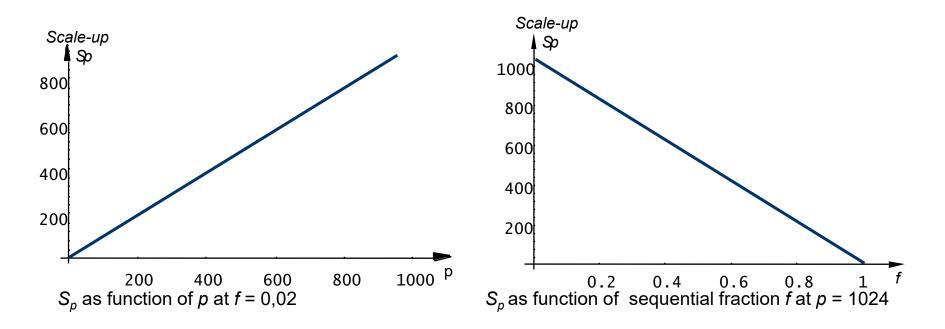
We assume for the scale-up an execution time that is normalized to 1:

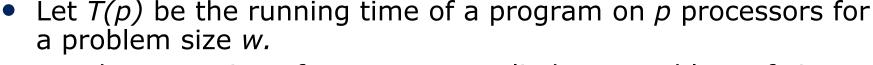
T(p) = f + (1 - f) = 1

Using only 1 processor, the parallel fraction must be executed sequentially and we obtain T(1) = f + (1 - f) p

Thus, we get a scale-up (or scaled speed-up)  $S_p(p)$  :

$$S_{p}(p) = T(1)/T(p) = f + (1 - f) p = p - (p - 1) f$$





- For the execution of a program applied to a problem of size w on p processors a total work of p T(p) is being done.
- Only a fraction of this work is useful work, the rest is ", overhead"  $T_{o}$ .

 $T_{0}(p) = p T(p) - T(1)$  or  $T(p) = (T(1) + T_o(p)) / p$ , respectively



#### Size of the problem

a problem size w.

- When executing a program we solve a problem of some size.
- The **problem size w** can be regarded as the total number of instructions to be executed (function of size of input data n).
- Let be t<sub>c</sub> the time needed to execute one instruction. Then we  $w t_{c} = T(1)$ qet:



#### Problem size

• The speed-up is then

$$S(p) = \frac{T(1)}{T(p)} = \frac{pT(1)}{T(1) + T_o(p)}$$

• The efficiency:

$$E(p) = \frac{S(p)}{p} = \frac{T(1)}{T(1) + T_o(p)} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{T_o(p)}{T(1)}}$$

- The efficiency depends on the ratio of parallel overhead to the sequential execution time.
- It is decreasing for an increasing number of processors and increasing with the problem size.

Also known as *Gustafson's law*.

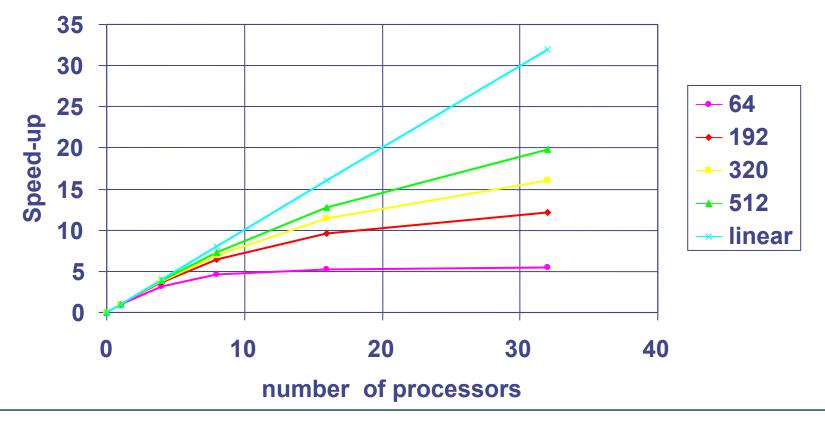
### Scalability



- Scalability means the performance capability for a growing number processors
- Intuitively, we can call a system scalable, if its performance increases with a simultaneous increase of problem size and number of processors.
- Speed-up and scale-up try to measure the scalability of a specific parallel program on a specific parallel machine.
- The discussion of the scale-up has shown that we can increase the efficiency of the system by increasing the problem size.
- The speed-up curve characterizes the scalability of a program at a particular input.
- Usually the speed-up curve flattens out, but the limit grows with the problem size.



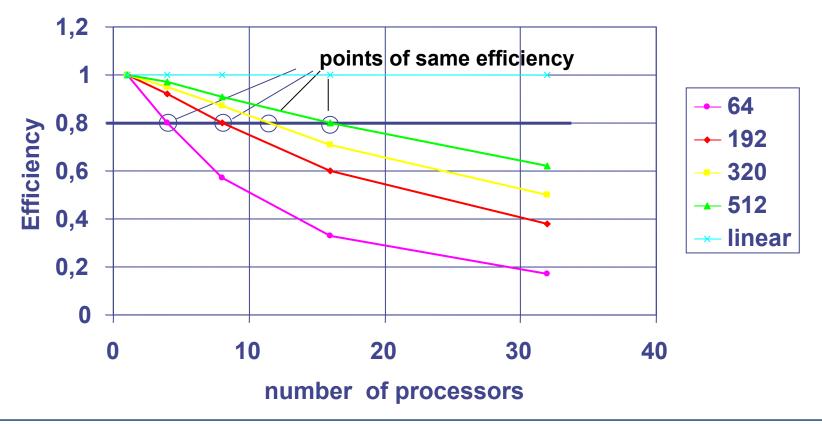
Parallel summation of n=64, 192, 320, 512 numbers in a hypercube with p=1, 4, 8, 16, 32 processors



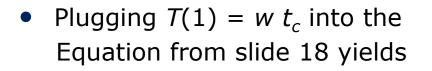
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How much bigger must the problem become so that a specific efficiency (e.g. 0.8) is maintained?



### Isoefficiency



$$E(p) = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{T_o(p)}{T(1)}} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{T_o(p)}{w t_c}}$$

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• Solving for w results in

$$w = \frac{1}{t_c} \left( \frac{E(p)}{1 - E(p)} \right) T_o(p)$$

• Defining  $K_E = E / (t_c (1 - E))$  as a constant depending on a specific efficiency level, we obtain:

$$w = K_E T_o(p)$$

- This establishes a functional relation between problem size w and number of processors p.
- The function is called **Isoefficiency** and indicates how much the problem size has to grow in order to maintain a given efficiency level for an increasing number of processors.

#### Properties of Isoefficiency

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- If e.g. w(p) = Ø(p log p) holds and we want to increase the number of processors from p to p', we have to increase the problem size w by a factor (p' log p') / (p log p) to achieve the same efficiency.
- The smaller the asymptotic complexity of the isoefficiency function, the better the scalability, e.g.:
  - linear growth good scalability
  - exponential growth very poor scalability
- Examples:

Algorithm

Factorization of scarce matrices All-pairs-shortest Path (Dijkstra) All-pairs-shortest Path (Dijkstra) IsoefficiencyArchitecture $\Theta(p \log^2 p)$ Clique $O(p \log p)^{3/2}$ Hypercube $O(p^{9/5})$ Grid

#### Limitation of degree of parallelism

- Programs can usually not be parallelized arbitrarily.
- For each program there is a maximum degree of parallelism/parallelization:

$$T(p) = \begin{cases} T_s + \frac{T_p}{p} & \text{for } p < p_{max} \\ T_s + \frac{T_p}{p_{max}} & \text{for } p \ge p_{max} \end{cases}$$

In this case we get

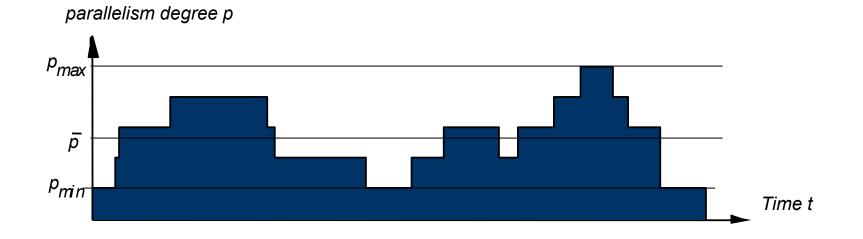
$$T(\infty) = \lim_{p \to \infty} (T(p)) = T_s + \frac{T_p}{p_{max}}$$



# Parallelism profile of a parallel program



• Plotting the parallelism degree over the time we obtain the parallelism profile:



*p(t)* can be interpreted as the number of processors that are active during the execution of the program – under the assumption that arbitrarily many processors are available.





• We get 
$$\int_{0}^{T(\infty)} p(t) dt = T(1)$$

i.e. the area under p(t) indicates the amount of computation needed and corresponds to the execution time in the monoprocessor case.

• The average *degree of parallelism can be defined as* 

$$\overline{\rho} = \frac{1}{T(\infty)} \int_{0}^{T(\infty)} \rho(t) dt$$

• Thus we obtain:

$$\overline{p} = \frac{T(1)}{T(\infty)} = S(\infty) = \lim_{p \to \infty} S(p)$$

i.e. the asymptotic speed-up is equal to the average parallelism degree.

Since S(p) is increasing monotonically, using Amdahl's law we can also write :

$$S(p) \leq \min \left\{ \overline{p}, \frac{1}{f+(1-f)/p} \right\}$$

#### Overhead due to thread interaction

- Threads as parts of a parallel program need to interact.
- The temporal overhead T<sub>C</sub>(p) (index "C" for "communication") for such interactions is a strictly monotonically increasing function of p.
- Using this, we obtain a new, extended approach for the overall execution time:

 $T(\rho) = T_{\chi}(\rho) + T_{C}(\rho)$ 

with 
$$T_C(1) = 0$$
 and  $T_x(p) = \begin{cases} T_s + T_p / p & \text{for } p < p_{max} \\ T_s + T_p / p_{max} & \text{for } p \ge p_{max} \end{cases}$ 

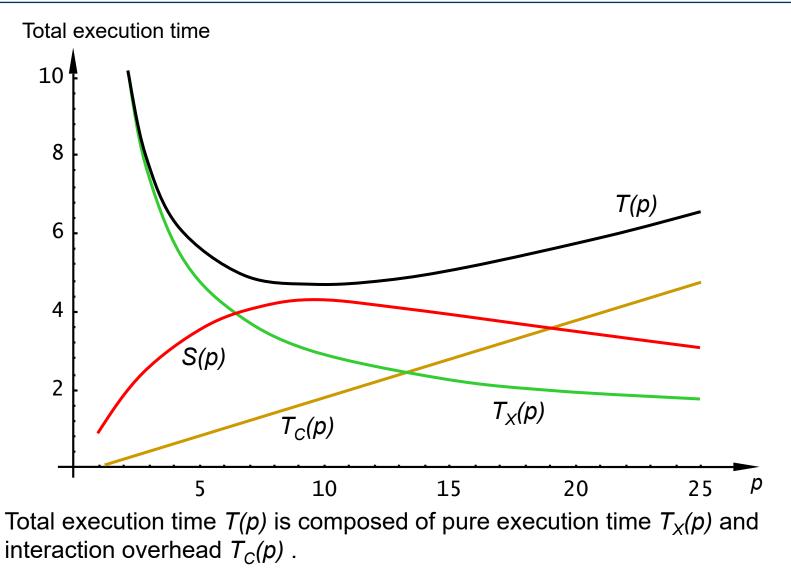
as pure execution time of the program (index "x" for "execution").

- $T_x$  is a monotonically decreasing function which is bounded below.
- Is  $T_C$  strictly monotonically increasing and not bounded above, then T(p) necessarily increases beyond some p.

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## 3.3 Impact of the Communication Overhead

- Let a parallel program consist of *m* threads, each of which needs *R* time units of computation time.
- The *m* threads are distributed onto *p* processors :

## $\sum_{i=1}^{p} m_i = m$

where  $m_i$  denotes the number of threads assigned to processor *i*.

- Each thread communicates with each other thread taking C time units in total.
- If the two communicating threads are assigned to the same processor the communication costs can be neglected (C=~0).
- Assuming random distribution of the *m* threads, we obtain a total computation time  $T_x(p)$  of

$$T_x(p) = R \max_i(m_i)$$

and a total communication time of

$$T_{C}(p) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{p} m_{i}(m-m_{i}) C = \frac{C}{2} \left( m^{2} - \sum_{i=1}^{p} m_{i}^{2} \right)$$





• Both parts together yield a total execution time

$$T(p) = T_x(p) + T_c(p) = R \max_i(m_i) + \frac{C}{2} \left( m^2 - \sum_{i=1}^p m_i^2 \right)$$

• If we distribute the threads evenly across the processors  $(m_i = m/p)$ , the expression simplifies to

$$T(p) = R \frac{m}{p} + \frac{C}{2} m^2 (1 - \frac{1}{p})$$

• The question now is:

Does parallel computing pay off, i.e. is T(p) < T(1)?

$$T(p) < T(1)$$

$$R\frac{m}{p} + \frac{C}{2}m^{2}(1-\frac{1}{p}) < Rm$$

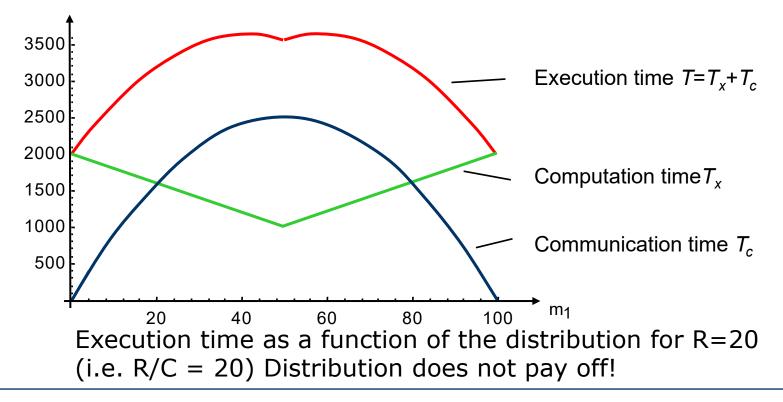
$$\frac{C}{2}m^{2}(1-\frac{1}{p}) < Rm(1-\frac{1}{p})$$

$$\frac{m}{2} < \frac{R}{C}$$

### **Communication Overhead**

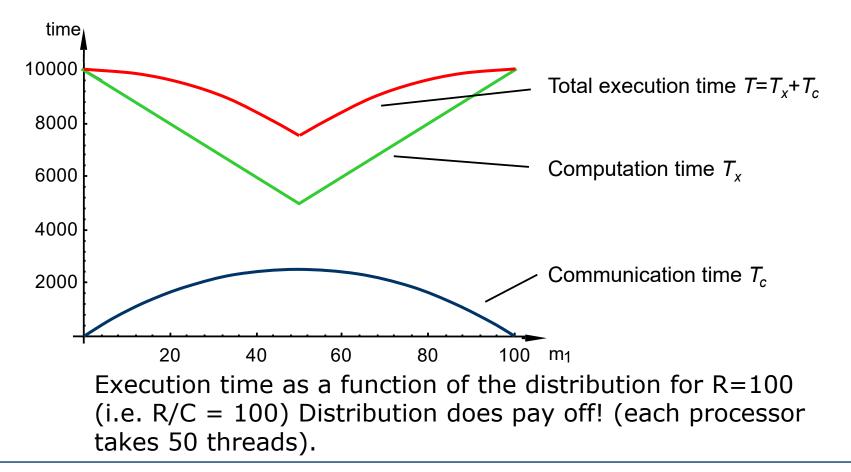


- A distribution and thus real parallelism only pays off if the ratio of computation time *R* to communication time *C* is greater than *m*/2.
- The ration *R/C* represents a critical quantity and indicates the *granularity* of parallel processing.
- Example (p = 2 processors, m = 100 threads, C= 1 (communication time))



#### **Communication Overhead**







Given a set of parallel programs. Parallelism can be

- (a) external, i.e. between the programs (*Inter*program parallelism) and/or
- (b) internal, i.e. within a program (*Intra*program parallelism)

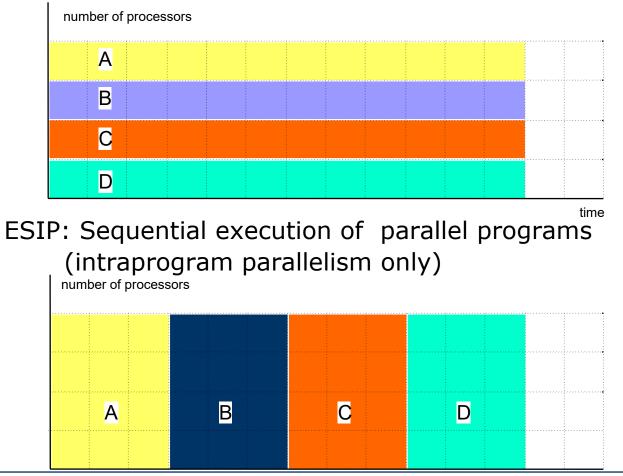
Therefore we get four combinations, with the ESIS variant irrelevant for parallel machines due to lacking parallelism

	internal sequential (Process level)	internal parallel (Process level)
external sequential (Program level)	ESIS	ESIP
extern parallel (Program level)	EPIS	EPIP

### Multiprogramming



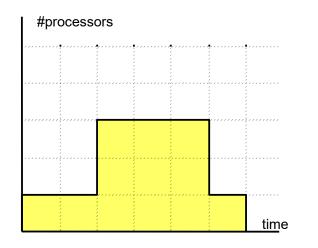
 EPIS: Parallel execution of sequential programs (interprogram parallelism only)



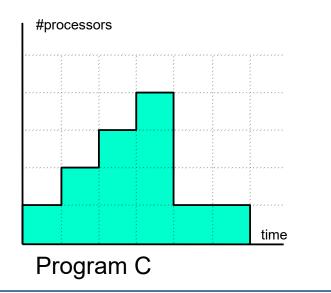
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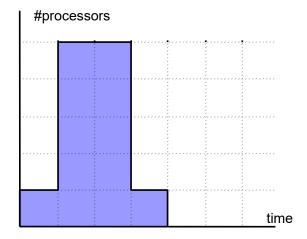
### **External and Internal Parallelism**



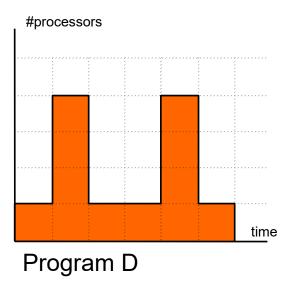


#### Program A

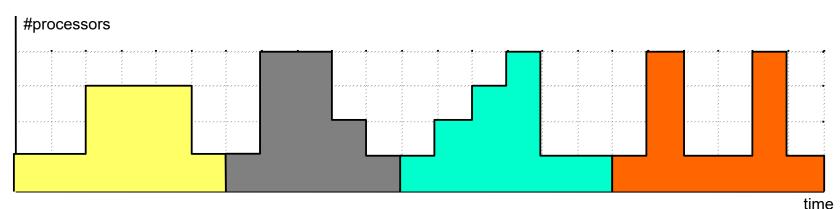




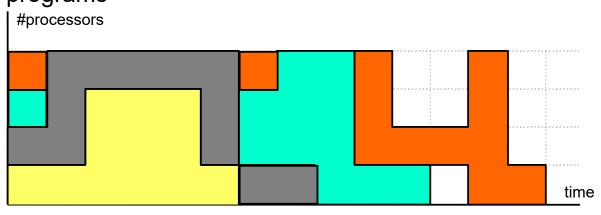
#### Program B



### External and Internal Parallelism



ESIP: Prolongation of total execution time due to insufficient parallelism in the programs

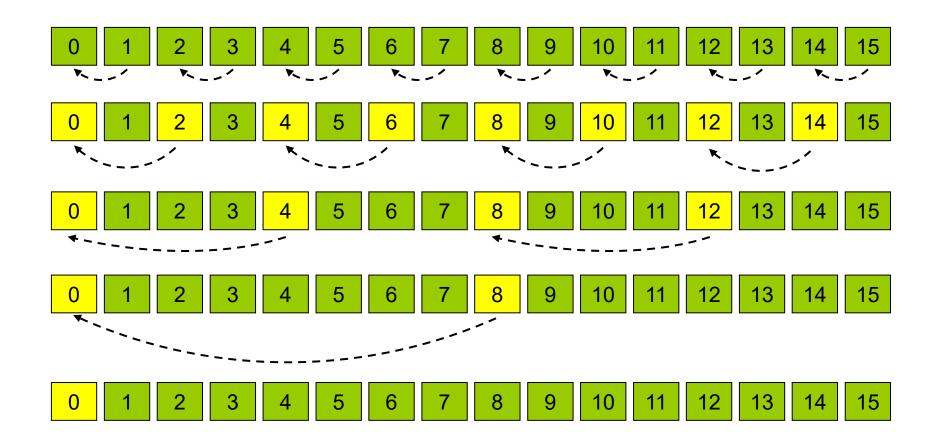


EPIP: External and internal parallelism: possible separation in time and space

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