2.5 Quantifying parallelism

Given:

- A p-processor parallel computer
- A problem (e.g., linear system) and an algorithm to solve it (e.g., Gaussian elimination)
- 13 \Diamond Definition: Let T(p) denote the time taken by the parallel algorithm on p processors.

$$S(p) := rac{T(1)}{T(p)}$$
 is the **speed-up** and

$$E(p) \,:=\, rac{S(p)}{p}$$
 is the **efficiency**

of the algorithm w.r.t. itself.

Let T' denote the time taken by the **fastest** known (serial) algorithm to solve the problem.

$$S'(p) \,:=\, rac{T'}{T(p)}$$
 is the **true speed-up** and

$$E'(p) := \frac{S'(p)}{p}$$
 is the true efficiency

of the parallel algorithm.

Let #ops(p) denote the number of operations $(+, -, *, often also /, \sqrt{})$.

$$R(p) = \frac{\# ops(p)}{T(p)}$$
 is the (compute) performance

of the algorithm on p processors (in Flop/s: floating-point operations per second).

Note: By Definition 13,

$$\begin{split} S(p) \; &= \; \frac{\# \mathsf{ops}(1)}{R(1)} \cdot \frac{R(p)}{\# \mathsf{ops}(p)} \\ &\approx \; \frac{R(p)}{R(1)} \; \text{ if } \# \mathsf{ops}(p) \approx \# \mathsf{ops}(1) \; . \end{split}$$

More detailed analysis: Let n denote the "characteristic size" of the problem (e.g., matrix dimension for linear systems). Then

$$T(p) \rightsquigarrow T(p,n), \quad S(p) \rightsquigarrow S(p,n), \quad \text{etc.}$$

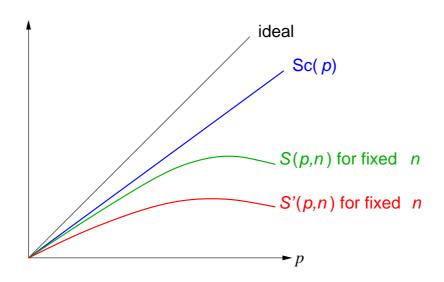
14 \Diamond Definition: Given a p-processor parallel computer, the scaleup for a variable-size problem is given by

$$\mathsf{Sc}(p) := \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} S(p, n) \ .$$

(In practice, n can be limited to problems that fit into the available memory.)

Note: $Sc(p) \ge S(p, n) \ge S'(p, n)$ for any n.

Typical behavior:



15 Definition: A parallel algorithm for solving a problem **scales** iff

$$\liminf_{p\to\infty}\frac{\operatorname{Sc}(p)}{p}>0$$

(i.e., the quotient $\frac{\mathrm{Sc}(p)}{p}$ is bounded from below by some $\varepsilon>0$).

16 \Diamond **Theorem:** (Amdahl's law) Let $q \in [0,1]$ denote the fraction of those operations in an algorithm, which cannot be parallelized. Then

$$S(p) \leq \frac{1}{q}$$
, no matter how large p is.

Proof: $T(p) \ge q \cdot T(1)$.

17 \Diamond Example: If q=0.01 (i.e., 99% of all operations can be parallelized) then

$$S(p) \le 100.$$

2.6 Communication instructions

send(D **) to** P_i : send the data D to processor P_i

receive(D **) from** P_j : receive the data D from processor P_j

broadcast(D **)** : send the data D to all processors (perhaps only to those of a specified group)

reduce: see Section 2.7.1

- **18** \Diamond **Remark:** Sending data from one processor to another one typically involves
 - setting up a connection between them (e.g., determining a suitable path through the network)
 - transmitting the data
 - \Rightarrow communication time for sending a length- ℓ message is

$$T_{\text{comm}}(\ell) = \alpha + \beta \cdot \ell,$$

where

- α is the **latency** or start-up time,
- β is the transmission time per byte (reciprocal of the **communication bandwidth**), and
- ullet *l* is the length of the message in bytes.

Realistic values: $\alpha \sim 2\mu s$, $\beta \sim 0.1 ns/B$ ($\hat{=} 10 GB/s$).

Check your understanding. You should know . . .

- \bullet Speed-up $S(p)\mbox{, efficiency }E(p)\mbox{, scale-up }Sc(p)$
- What does Amdahl's law tell?
- What are the four basic communication routines?

2.7 Basic parallelization schemes

2.7.1 The fan-in principle for reduction operations

Problem: Given $a_0, \ldots, a_{n-1} \in \mathbb{R}$, compute

$$s:=\sum_{j=0}^{n-1}a_j.$$

19 ♦ **Algorithm:** Serial sum

$$s^{(-1)}:=0$$
 for $i=0:n-1$
$$\{ ext{ assume that } s^{(i-1)}=\sum_{j=0}^{i-1}a_j \ \}$$

$$s^{(i)}:=s^{(i-1)}+a_i$$

$$\{ \ s^{(n-1)}=s \ \}$$

Dependence graph:

Nodes represent intermediate quantities, (directed) edges represent dependences (e.g., $s^{(0)}$ and $a^{(1)}$ must be available to compute $s^{(1)}$),

the "+" are optional, specifying the computations.

Different approach (here for $n = 8 = 2^3$):

$$a_{0} \xrightarrow{+} a_{0}^{(1)} \xrightarrow{+} a_{0}^{(2)} \xrightarrow{+} a_{0}^{(3)} = s$$

$$a_{1} \xrightarrow{+} a_{1}^{(1)}$$

$$a_{2} \xrightarrow{+} a_{1}^{(1)}$$

$$a_{3} \xrightarrow{+} a_{2}^{(1)} \xrightarrow{+} a_{1}^{(2)}$$

$$a_{6} \xrightarrow{+} a_{3}^{(1)}$$

$$a_{7} \xrightarrow{+} a_{1}^{(1)}$$

{ to fan out: to spread out in the shape of a fan }

20 \Diamond **Algorithm:** Serial **fan-in summation**, assumes $n=2^N$

$$\{ \text{ let } a_j^{(0)} \equiv a_j, \ j=0:n-1 \ \}$$
 for $k=1:N$

{ assume that for $i=0:2^{N-(k-1)}-1$, $a_i^{(k-1)}$ is the sum of the ith length- 2^{k-1} subsequence of a, i.e.,

$$a_i^{(k-1)} = \sum_{j=i2^{k-1}}^{(i+1)2^{k-1}-1} a_j \; \}$$
 for $i=0:2^{N-k}-1$

$$a_i^{(k)} := a_{2i}^{(k-1)} + a_{2i+1}^{(k-1)}$$
 { $a_0^{(N)} = s$ }

Potential for parallelism: The i loop can be done in parallel.

Let
$$p=2^N$$
, processors P_0 , ..., P_{p-1} .

For each "stage index" k, choose 2^{N-k} of the processors (labelled $P_i^{(k)}$, $i=0:2^{N-k}-1$), such that

- $\begin{array}{l} \bullet \ \ P_i^{(k)} \ \text{computes the partial sum} \ a_i^{(k)} := a_{2i}^{(k-1)} + a_{2i+1}^{(k-1)} \\ \left\{ \ a_{2i}^{(k-1)} \ \text{is available in} \ P_{2i}^{(k-1)} \ , \ a_{2i+1}^{(k-1)} \ \text{is in} \ P_{2i+1}^{(k-1)} \ \right\} \end{array}$
- **21** \Diamond **Algorithm:** Fan-in summation with $p=2^N$ processors; all processors run the same pseudocode

22 \Diamond Remark: To add $n=q\cdot 2^N$ numbers with $p=2^N$ processors $(q,N\in\mathbb{N})$, start with the partial sums

$$a_{ ext{local}} := \sum_{j=iq}^{(i+1)q-1} a_j \quad \text{in } P_i^{(0)}, \ i = 0:2^N-1.$$

Computation of $a_{\rm local}$: E.g., with Algorithm 19

- 23 ♦ Definition: A deadlock in a parallel algorithm occurs when a processor wants to receive data that are never sent.
- 24 \(\rightarrow \) Remark: Depending on the implementation, even a send operation may terminate only when the corresponding receive of the partner is completed (blocking send).

This does not happen if outgoing data are buffered ⇒ **send** completes when data are in the buffer (unless buffer overflows).

Problem: Algorithm 21 is deadlock-free (for blocking sends) only if all $P_i^{(k-1)}$, $i=0:2^{N-(k-1)}-1$, are different from all $P_i^{(k)}$, $i=0:2^{N-k}-1$; otherwise deadlocks may occur.

This condition cannot be fulfilled for k=1!

Solution: Careful selection of the processors eliminates a (critical) part of the communication.

More precisely, let

$$P_i^{(k)} := P_{i,2k}, \quad k = 0: N, \ i = 0: 2^{N-k} - 1.$$
 (2.1)

Then

$$P_{2i}^{(k-1)} = P_{2i \cdot 2^{k-1}} = P_{i \cdot 2^k} = P_i^{(k)} ,$$

i.e., the receive(summand $_1)$ and the first case for send can be skipped because the processor would send to itself.

25 ♦ **Algorithm:** Improved fan-in summation

```
\begin{aligned} &\text{for } k=1:N\\ &\text{for } i=0:2^{N-k}-1\\ &\text{if me}=P_{2i+1}^{(k-1)}\;\{=P_{i2^k+2^{k-1}}\;\}\\ &\quad \{\text{ I have the summand }a_{2i+1}^{(k-1)}\text{ that is needed in }P_i^{(k)}\text{ to compute }a_i^{(k)}\;\}\\ &\text{ send( }a_{\mathrm{local}}\;)\text{ to }P_i^{(k)}\;\{=P_{i2^k}\;\}\\ &\text{ if me}=P_i^{(k)}\\ &\quad \{\text{ I am computing }a_i^{(k)}\;\}\\ &\text{ receive( summand_2 ) from }P_{2i+1}^{(k-1)}\\ &a_{\mathrm{local}}:=a_{\mathrm{local}}+\mathrm{summand_2}\end{aligned}
```

- **26** \Diamond Remark: With the logical to physical mapping $P_i^{(k)} = P_{i \cdot 2^k}$, the indices of the communication partners in Algorithms 25 differ by 2^{k-1} , i.e., only in bit k-1
 - \Rightarrow in a N-dimensional hypercube all communication is between directly connected processors.

27 \(\rightarrow \text{Remark:} \] In Algorithm 25, each processor performs

$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{i=0}^{2^{N-k}-1} \mathcal{O}(1) = \mathcal{O}(n)$$

operations, mostly for finding out, which rôle the processor plays in stage k (in the majority of cases, none).

In practice, this must be done without a loop.

28 \Diamond **Algorithm:** Fan-in summation

 \Rightarrow only $\mathcal{O}(N) = \mathcal{O}(\log n)$ operations per processor.

29 \Diamond Theorem: Let $a_i \in \mathbb{R}$, i=0:n-1 $(n=q\cdot 2^N)$ and $p=2^N$.

Neglecting communication, running Algorithm 28 to com-

pute
$$s:=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1}a_i$$
 yields
$$S(p)\ =\ \frac{q\cdot 2^N-1}{(q-1)+N}\ ,$$

$$E(p)\ =\ \frac{q-\frac{1}{2^N}}{(q-1)+N}\ .$$

Proof: Let T_+ denote the time for a (serial) addition

$$\Rightarrow T(1) = (n-1) \cdot T_+ \;, \\ \{ \; N = 0, \, q = n \; \text{means serial summation} \; \}$$

$$T(p) = (q-1) \cdot T_+ \;, \\ \{ \; \text{serial addition} \; a_i^{(0)} := \sum_{j=iq}^{(i+1)q-1} a_j \; \text{of} \; q \; \}$$

$$\text{numbers in each processor} \; P_i^{(0)} \; \}$$

$$+ N \cdot T_+ \;, \\ \{ \; \text{at most one add per processor in each pass of the} \; k \; \text{loop} \; \}$$

$$\Rightarrow S(p) = \frac{T(1)}{T(p)} = \frac{q \cdot 2^N - 1}{(q - 1) + N},$$

$$E(p) = \frac{1}{2^N} \cdot S(p).$$

30 \Diamond Example:

$$q=1 \ \Rightarrow \ E(p)=\frac{1-\frac{1}{2^N}}{N}\approx \frac{1}{N}=\frac{1}{\log_2 p} \quad \{ \ p=2^N \ \}$$

$$q\to \infty \ \Rightarrow \ E(p)\to 1 \quad \{ \ \text{unrealistic!} \ \}$$

Realistic: $q \leq C$ (limited memory per processor):

$$E(p) = rac{q - rac{1}{2^N}}{(q-1) + N}$$
 $\leq rac{C}{N}$
 $ightarrow 0 ext{ as } p o \infty ext{ (i.e., } N o \infty ext{)}$

 \Rightarrow the fan-in algorithm does not scale.

31 \Diamond **Remark:** Since communication is expensive, the real speedup is much lower.

With the communication model from Remark 18, the overall time for 8-byte (IEEE double precision) computations is

$$T(p) = (q-1) \cdot T_{+} + N \cdot (\alpha + 8B \cdot \beta + T_{+}),$$

where T_+ is the time for one addition, α is the start-up time for communication, and β is the transmission time per byte.

Using $q=n/2^N$ and the $\{$ JUQUEEN $\}$ values $T_+=1/(4\cdot 1.6 {\rm GHz})\sim 0.156 {\rm ns},$ $\alpha=2.5\mu{\rm s},$ and $\beta=0.025 {\rm ns/B},$ one obtains

$$\begin{split} T(p) \; &= \; \left(\frac{n}{2^N} - 1\right) \cdot 0.156 \mathrm{ns} \\ &+ N \cdot (2.5 \mu \mathrm{s} + 8 \mathrm{B} \cdot 0.025 \mathrm{ns/B} + 0.156 \mathrm{ns}) \\ &= \; \left(\frac{n}{2^N} - 1\right) \cdot 0.156 \mathrm{ns} + N \cdot 2500.356 \mathrm{ns} \; . \end{split}$$

For $n = 2^{20}$,

$$T(p=1) \approx 163.6 \mu s$$
, $T(p=n) \approx 50.0 \mu s$,

and the time is minimized for N=6, i.e., adding $1\,048\,576$ numbers is fastest on $2^6=64$ processors, yielding

$$S_{\text{max}} = S(64) = \frac{T(1)}{T(64)} \approx \frac{163.6\mu\text{s}}{17.56\mu\text{s}} \approx 9.3 .$$

Adding more processors slows down the computation.

- **32** \Diamond **Remark:** The fan-in principle applies to any expression $a_0 \circ a_1 \circ \ldots \circ a_{n-1}$ $(n = 2^N)$, where \circ is an **associative** operation, e.g.,
 - $\bullet \max_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i \qquad (a \circ b = \max\{a, b\})$
 - $\min_{i=1}^{n-1} a_i$
 - $\bullet \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i$
 - $gcd(m_0, \ldots, m_{n-1})$ { greatest common divisor }
 - $lcm(m_0, \ldots, m_{n-1})$ { least common multiple }
 - $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} A_i$ { matrices }
 - $\bullet \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} A_i$
- **33** ♦ **Definition:** In a reduction operation,

$$reduce(a_0,\ldots,a_{n-1}; \circ; res; P_i, i \in I; P_k)$$
,

the processors P_i , $i \in I$, work together to compute the result res $= a_0 \circ \ldots \circ a_{n-1}$, where \circ is an associative operation. The result is made available in P_k .

34 ♦ **Theorem:** (Backward stability of summation)

If the sum $s:=\sum_{j=0}^{n-1}a_j$ of n floating-point numbers a_j is computed with a floating-point arithmetic satisfying

$$\underbrace{x+y}_{\text{computed result}} = \underbrace{(x+y)}_{\text{exact result}} \cdot (1+\delta) \quad \text{with } |\delta| \le \varepsilon \tag{2.2}$$

for all floating-point numbers x, y and some fixed $0 < \varepsilon \ll 1$ (machine precision) then

$$\overline{\underline{s}} = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \widetilde{a}_j$$
 computed sum} perturbed summands

with

$$\widetilde{a}_j = a_j \prod_{\ell=j}^{n-1} (1+\delta_\ell)$$
 if Algorithm 19 is used (2.3)

or

$$\widetilde{a}_j = a_j \cdot \prod_{\nu=1}^N (1+\delta_{j\nu})$$
 for $n=2^N$ and Alg. 20, (2.4)

where $|\delta_{\ell}|, |\delta_{i\nu}| \leq \varepsilon$.

35 ♦ Remarks:

- a) IEEE arithmetic quarantees (2.2), unless an under-/overflow occurs.
- b) To first order,

$$|\widetilde{a}_j - a_j| \lessapprox (n-j) \cdot \varepsilon \cdot |a_j|$$
 for Alg. 19, and $|\widetilde{a}_j - a_j| \lessapprox \log_2 n \cdot \varepsilon \cdot |a_j|$ for Alg. 20.

Therefore, if no information on the magnitude of the a_j is available, Algorithm 20 gives smaller **bounds** for the errors.

Proof for Theorem 34:

For (2.3), rewrite Algorithm 19 in floating-point arithmetic:

$$\overline{\underline{s^{(-1)}}} := 0 \qquad \qquad \{ \text{ no rounding error } \}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{for } i=0:n-1 \\ \{ \text{ assume } \overline{\underline{s^{(i-1)}}} = \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} \underline{a_j} \cdot \prod_{\ell=j}^{i-1} (1+\delta_\ell), \\ \text{where } |\delta_\ell| \leq \varepsilon \ \} \end{array}$$

$$\overline{s^{(i)}} := \overline{s^{(i-1)}} \underbrace{\oplus}_{a_i} a_i$$
 floating-point addition

$$\overline{s^{(i)}} = (\overline{s^{(i-1)}} + a_i) \cdot (1 + \delta_i) \quad \text{for some } |\delta_i| \le \varepsilon \quad \text{by (2.2)}$$

$$= \left(\sum_{j=0}^{i-1} a_j \prod_{\ell=j}^{i-1} (1 + \delta_\ell) + a_i\right) \cdot (1 + \delta_i)$$

$$= \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} a_j \prod_{\ell=j}^{i} (1 + \delta_\ell) + a_i (1 + \delta_i)$$

$$= \sum_{j=0}^{i} a_j \prod_{\ell=j}^{i} (1 + \delta_\ell)$$

$$\{ ext{ Therefore } \overline{s} = \overline{s^{(n-1)}} = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} a_j \prod_{\ell=j}^{n-1} (1+\delta_\ell) \}$$

This proves (2.3).

For (2.4), rewrite Algorithm 20 in floating-point arithmetic:

for k = 1:N

$$\{ \text{ assume that } \overline{a_i^{(k-1)}} = \sum_{j=i2^{k-1}}^{(i+1)\cdot 2^{k-1}-1} a_j \prod_{\nu=1}^{k-1} (1+\delta_{j\nu})$$

holds for $i = 0: 2^{N-(k-1)} - 1$ }

for
$$i=0:2^{N-k}-1$$

$$\overline{a_i^{(k)}}:=\overline{a_{2i}^{(k-1)}}\oplus \overline{a_{2i+1}^{(k-1)}}$$

{ Thus

$$\overline{a_i^{(k)}} = \begin{bmatrix} i2^k + 2^{k-1} - 1 & k-1 \\ \sum_{j=i2^k} a_j \prod_{\nu=1}^{k-1} (1 + \delta_{j\nu}) \\ + \sum_{j=i2^k + 2^{k-1}} a_j \prod_{\nu=1}^{k-1} (1 + \delta_{j\nu}) \end{bmatrix} \cdot (1 + \delta_{ik})$$

for some $|\delta_{ik}| \leq \varepsilon$ by (2.2)

$$=\sum_{j=i2^k}^{(i+1)\cdot 2^k-1}a_j\prod_{\nu=1}^k(1+\delta_{j\nu})$$
 with $\delta_{jk}=\delta_{ik}$ for all $j=i2^k:(i+1)2^k-1\}$

$$\{ ext{ Therefore }\overline{a_0^{(N)}}=\sum_{j=0}^{2^N-1}a_j\prod_{
u=1}^N(1+\delta_{j
u})\;\}$$

This proves (2.4).

Check your understanding. You should know . . .

- How does the fan-in principle work?
- How fan-in works when p < n.
- Whether fan-in scales and why not.
- What a "global reduce" is.
- There is an issue regarding numerical round-off errors. What is it, exactly?
- What is a deadlock, and how can we avoid these?
- That we distinguish between blocking and non-blocking communications
- Assume that you have to compute the inner product of two vectors x and y, which are distributed over the processors. (This is a very common task!) How can we perform this using fan-in?

2.7.2 Parallel matrix multiplication

Given $A=(a_{ik})\in\mathbb{R}^{n imes m}$ and $B=(b_{kj})\in\mathbb{R}^{m imes q}$,

compute $C=(c_{ij})=A\cdot B\in\mathbb{R}^{n\times q}$, where

$$c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{m} a_{ik} b_{kj} , \quad i = 1:n, \ j = 1:q .$$

Motivation: Stochastic models are often described by a **state change matrix** A, where a_{ij} is the probability that an object moves from state j to state i.

For a given initial distribution $s^{(0)}$ of the objects to the states, a new distribution $s^{(1)}$ is obtained by $s^{(1)}=A\cdot s^{(0)}$.

Analogously, for the nth distribution we have $s^{(n)}=A\cdot s^{(n-1)}=\ldots=A^n\cdot s^{(0)}$, and thus the state change matrix from $s^{(0)}$ to $s^{(n)}$ is $A^n=A\cdot\ldots\cdot A$.

Such models are also used in telecommunication and for search engines.

- **36** \Diamond **Definition:** A **partitioning** of a set I is a system of sets, $\{I_r: r=1:R\}$, such that
 - (i) $I_r \neq \emptyset$ for all r,
 - (ii) $I_r \cap I_s = \emptyset$ for all $r \neq s$, and
 - (iii) $\bigcup_{r=1}^{R} I_r = I$.

Let the parallel computer contain $p=R\cdot S\cdot T$ processors $P_{r,s,t}$, $r=1:R,\ s=1:S,\ t=1:T$, and let

$$\{\,I_r\,,\;r=1:R\,\}$$
 be a partitioning of $\{1,\ldots,n\},$ $\{\,K_s\,,\;s=1:S\,\}$ be a partitioning of $\{1,\ldots,m\},$ and $\{\,J_t\,,\;t=1:T\,\}$ be a partitioning of $\{1,\ldots,q\}.$

Each processor $P_{r,s,t}$ is assumed to hold the submatrices ("blocks")

$$A_{rs}:=(a_{ik})_{i\in I_r,k\in K_s}$$
 and $B_{st}:=(b_{kj})_{k\in K_s,j\in J_t}$.

Then each block $C_{rt}:=(c_{ij})_{i\in I_r,j\in J_t}$ of C is given by

37 \Diamond **Algorithm:** Parallel matrix–matrix multiplication; code for all $P_{r,s,t}$

 $\{ \mbox{ each processor } P_{r,s,t} \mbox{ computes the product of the "local" subblocks } \}$

$$\widetilde{C}_{rt} := A_{rs} \cdot B_{st}$$

 $\{$ the sum of these products gives C_{rt} $\}$

$$ext{reduce}(\ \widetilde{C}_{rt}\ ;\ +\ ;\ C_{rt}\ ;\ P_{r,\sigma,t}:\sigma=1:S\ ;\ P_{r,?,t}\)$$

any of the processors participating in the reduction

38 \(\rightarrow \text{Remarks:} \)

- a) Each processor participates in only one reduction
 ⇒ no deadlock.
- b) The workload is balanced iff

$$\underbrace{|I_r|\cdot |K_s|\cdot |J_t|}_{ ext{work for local multiplikation}}$$
 is roughly equal for all $P_{r,s,t}$.

(This implies that
$$\underbrace{|I_r|\cdot |J_t|}_{\text{local work for reduction}}$$
 is balanced, too.)

In general, one can achieve

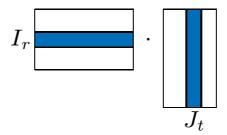
$$||I_r| - |I_{r'}|| \le 1, \qquad r, r' = 1 : R,$$
63

$$|K_s| - |K_{s'}| \le 1, \quad s, s' = 1 : S,$$

 $|J_t| - |J_{t'}| \le 1, \quad t, t' = 1 : T.$

39 ♦ Example: (Special cases)

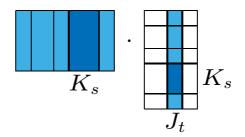
1.
$$S = 1$$
, i.e., $K_1 = \{1, \ldots, m\}$



Each processor holds complete rows of ${\cal A}$ and complete columns of ${\cal B}$

 $\Rightarrow P_{rt}$ computes C_{rt} locally, no communication at all

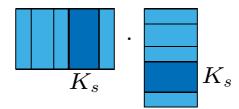
2.
$$R = 1$$
, i.e., $I_1 = \{1, \ldots, n\}$



Processors hold complete columns of A (and, perhaps, of C)

 $\Rightarrow T$ reduction operations with n-by- $|J_t|$ matrices, each involving S processors

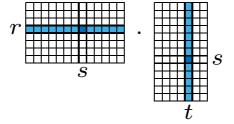
3. R = T = 1



Processors hold complete columns of ${\cal A}$ and complete rows of ${\cal B}$

 \Rightarrow only one reduction operation with $n\mbox{-by-}q$ matrices involving all S processors

4.
$$R = n, S = m, T = q$$



Each of the $n\cdot m\cdot q$ processors holds a singly entry of A and a single entry of B

 $\Rightarrow n \cdot q$ reduction operations with real numbers, each involving m processors

 \Rightarrow total time

$$T(p = n \cdot m \cdot q) = \mathcal{O}(\log m)$$
,

but not practical due to huge p.

40 \Diamond **Remark:** Algorithm 37 is "wasting" memory.

On a serial machine, we need nm+mq+nq elements to hold $A,\,B$, and C.

In Algorithm 37, processor $P_{r,s,t}$ holds A_{rs} , B_{st} , and \widetilde{C}_{rt} :

$$|I_r| \cdot |K_s| + |K_s| \cdot |J_t| + |I_r| \cdot |J_t|$$

⇒ total memory required:

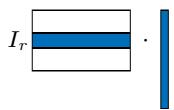
$$\sum_{r=1}^{R} \sum_{s=1}^{S} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (|I_r| \cdot |K_s| + |K_s| \cdot |J_t| + |I_r| \cdot |J_t|)$$

$$= T \cdot nm + R \cdot mq + S \cdot nq$$

41 \Diamond **Remark:** Matrix–vector multiplication is a special case with q=1, i.e., T=1.

Special cases:

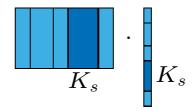
1.
$$S = 1$$



inner product

 \Rightarrow no communication

2.
$$R = 1$$



"column sweep", outer product

 \Rightarrow one reduction with length- n vectors involving all S processors

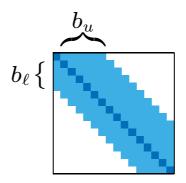
For both variants, the memory requirements are

$$\sum_{r=1}^{R} \sum_{s=1}^{S} (|I_r| \cdot |K_s| + |K_s| + |I_r|) = nm + R \cdot m + S \cdot n$$

 \Rightarrow not much higher than in the serial algorithm (nm+m+n), if $R\ll n$, $S\ll m$.

42 \Diamond **Definition:** $A=(a_{ij})\in\mathbb{R}^{n\times n}$ is banded with lower bandwidth b_ℓ and upper bandwidth b_u if

$$a_{ij} = 0$$
 whenever $i > j + b_{\ell}$ or $j > i + b_{u}$.



43 \(\rightarrow \text{Remarks:} \)

- a) Banded matrices are often stored by diagonals: In an n-by- $(b_\ell+1+b_u)$ array, each column holds a non-zero diagonal of A.
- b) The product of two banded matrices is again banded.
- c) Using the "storage by diagonals" scheme, a parallel (banded) matrix-matrix multiplication is possible analogously to Algorithm 37,

and the matrix-vector multiplication carries over as well. In contrast to the dense case, the blocks A_{rs} , etc., stored in different processors do **overlap**.

Check your understanding. You should know . . .

- What is a partitioning?
- Arithmetic work for matrix-matrix multiplication
- The general parallel matrix-matrix multiplication algorithm using three partitionings for $\{1,\ldots,n\}$, $\{1,\ldots,m\}$, and $\{1,\ldots,q\}$
- Work per processor?
- How many reduction operations do we perform?
- Special cases when one of the partitionings is just one set.
- ullet Special case when we have nmq processors
- The inner and outer product form of parallel matrix-vector multiplication
- Storage requirements
- Why banded matrices are special