



Parallel and Distributed Computing

CS3006

Lecture 2

Amdahl's Law

21th February 2022

Dr. Rana Asif Rehman

(With additions by Abdul Qadeer for Spring 2024)

Outline



- Amdahl's Law of Parallel Speedup
- Karp-Flatt Metric
- Types of Parallelism
 - Data-parallelism
 - Functional-parallelism
 - Pipelining
- Multi-processor vs Multi-computer
- Cluster vs Network of workstations

Amdahl's Law

- Amdahl's was formulized in 1967
- It shows an upper-bound on the maximum speedup that can be achieved
- Suppose you are going to design a parallel algorithm for a problem
- Further suppose that ***fraction*** of total **time** that the algorithm must consume in **serial executions** is '**F**'
- This implies ***fraction*** of parallel portion is (1- F)
- Now, Amdahl's law states that

$$\text{Speedup}(p) = \frac{1}{F + \frac{1-F}{P}}$$

- Here 'p' is total number of available processing nodes.

Amdahl's Law

Derivation

- Let's suppose you have a sequential code for a problem that can be executed in total **$T(s)$** time.
- **$T(p)$** be the parallel time for the same algorithm over p processors.

Then speedup can be calculated using:-

$$\text{Speedup}(p) = \frac{T(s)}{T(p)}$$

- $T(p)$ can be calculated as:

$$T(p) = \text{serial comput. time} + \text{Parallel comp. time}$$

$$T(p) = F \cdot T(s) + \frac{(1-F) \cdot T(s)}{p}$$

[This is weighted average]

Amdahl's Law

Derivation

➤ Again

$$\text{Speedup}(p) = \frac{T(s)}{T(p)} \Rightarrow \frac{T(s)}{F \cdot T(s) + \frac{(1-F) \cdot T(s)}{P}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Speedup}(p) = \frac{1}{F + \frac{1-F}{P}}$$

- What if you have infinite number of processors?
- What if some program does not have any serial portion? (the concept of linear speedup)
- **Food for thought:** From lecture 1 when we saw huge speedup on a matrix multiplication---How that fit with Amdahl's law?

Amdahl's Law

- **Example 1:** Suppose 70% time of a sequential algorithm is parallelizable portion. The remaining part must be calculated sequentially. Calculate maximum theoretical speedup for parallel variant of this algorithm using i). 4 processors and ii). infinite processors.
- $F = 0.30$ and $1 - F = 0.70$ use Amdahl's law to calculate theoretical speedups.

Amdahl's Law

- **Example 2:** Suppose 25% of a sequential algorithm is parallelizable portion. The remaining part must be calculated sequentially. Calculate maximum theoretical speedup for parallel variant of this algorithm using 5 processors and infinite processors.
- ???
- **Little challenge:** Determine, according to Amdahl's law, how many processors are needed to achieve maximum theoretical speedup while sequential portion remains the same?
- The answer may be surprising?
- That's why we say actual achievable speedup is always less-than or equal to theoretical speedups.

Amdahl's law is applicable at many places

Amdahl's Law in [Chapter 1](#) reminds us that neglecting I/O in this parallel revolution is foolhardy. A simple example demonstrates this.

Impact of I/O on System Performance

Suppose we have a benchmark that executes in 100 seconds of elapsed time, of which 90 seconds is CPU time, and the rest is I/O time. Suppose the number of processors doubles every 2 years, but the processors remain at the same speed, and I/O time doesn't improve. How much faster will our program run at the end of 6 years?

We know that

$$\text{Elapsed time} = \text{CPU time} + \text{I/O time}$$

$$100 = 90 + \text{I/O time}$$

$$\text{I/O time} = 10 \text{ seconds}$$

The new CPU times and the resulting elapsed times are computed in the

Amdahl's law is applicable at many places

After n years	CPU time	I/O time	Elapsed time	% I/O time
0 years	90 seconds	10 seconds	100 seconds	10%
2 years	$\frac{90}{2} = 45$ seconds	10 seconds	55 seconds	18%
4 years	$\frac{45}{2} = 23$ seconds	10 seconds	33 seconds	31%
6 years	$\frac{23}{2} = 11$ seconds	10 seconds	21 seconds	47%

The improvement in CPU performance after 6 years is

$$\frac{90}{11} = 8$$

Amdahl's law is applicable at many places

However, the improvement in elapsed time is only

$$\frac{100}{21} = 4.7,$$

and the I/O time has increased from 10% to 47% of the elapsed time.

Hence, the parallel revolution needs to come to I/O as well as to computation, or the effort spent in parallelizing could be squandered whenever programs do I/O, which they all must do.



Karp-Flatt Metric

Karp-Flatt Metric

- The metric is used to calculate serial fraction for a given parallel configuration.
 - i.e., if a parallel program is exhibiting a speedup **S** while using **P** processing units then experimentally determined serial fraction **e** is given by :-

$$e = \frac{1/s - 1/p}{1 - 1/p}$$

- **Example task:** Suppose in a parallel program, for 5 processors, you gained a speedup of 1.25x, determine sequential fraction of your program.

Karp-Flatt Metric Value

- experimentally determined serial fraction e may either **stay constant** with respect to p (meaning that the parallelization overhead is negligible) or **increase** with respect to p (meaning that parallelization overhead dominates the speedup)
 - [Credit: <https://www3.nd.edu/~zxu2/acms60212-40212/Lec-07.pdf>)]

Solution: Compute $e(n, p)$ corresponding to each data point:

p	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
$\Psi(n, p)$	1.82	2.50	3.08	3.57	4.00	4.38	4.71
$e(n, p)$	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1

Since the experimentally determined serial fraction $e(n, p)$ is not increasing with p , the primary reason for the poor speedup is the 10% of the computation that is inherently sequential. Parallel overhead is not the reason for the poor speedup.

Benchmarking a parallel program on 1, 2, ..., 8 processors produces the following speedup results:

p	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
$\Psi(n, p)$	1.87	2.61	3.23	3.73	4.14	4.46	4.71

What is the primary reason for the parallel program achieving a speedup of 4.71 on 8 processors?

Solution:

p	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
$\Psi(n, p)$	1.87	2.61	3.23	3.73	4.14	4.46	4.71
e	0.07	0.075	0.08	0.085	0.09	0.095	0.1

Since the experimentally determined serial fraction e is steadily increasing with p , parallel overhead also contributes to the poor speedup.

Be mindful of assumptions

- Both Amdahl's and Karp-Flatt Metrics assume that the workload (data to be processed via parallelization) does not change.
- The thing that changes are number of processing elements
- Other laws (for example: Gustafson-Barsis's law) are applicable where we increase data as well as we increase processing elements
 - **strong scaling**: Speedup achieved on a multiprocessor without increasing the size of the problem.
 - **weak scaling**: Speedup achieved on a multiprocessor while increasing the size of the problem proportionally to the increase in the number of processors.



Types of Parallelism

Types of Parallelism

1. Data-parallelism

- When there are independent tasks applying the same operation to different elements of a data set

- Example code

for i=0 to 99 do

a[i] = b[i] + c[i]

Endfor

- Here same operation addition is being performed on first 100 of 'b' and 'c'
- All 100 iterations of the loop could be executed simultaneously.

Types of Parallelism

2. Functional-parallelism

➡ When there are independent tasks applying different operations to different data elements

➡ Example code

1) $a=2$

2) $b=3$

3) $m = (a+b)/2$

4) $s = (a^2 + b^2)/2$

5) $v = s - m^2$

➡ Here third and fourth statements could be performed concurrently.

Types of Parallelism



3. Pipelining

- Usually used for the problems where single instance of the problem can not be parallelized
- The output of one stage is input of the other stage
- Dividing whole computation of each instance into multiple stages provided that there are multiple instances of the problem
- An effective method of attaining parallelism on the uniprocessor architectures
- Depends on pipelining abilities of the processor

Types of Parallelism

3. Pipelining

- Example:
Assembly line analogy

Time	Engine	Doors	Wheels	Paint
5 min	Car 1			
10 min		Car 1		
15 min			Car 1	
20 min				Car 1
25 min	Car 2			
30 min		Car 2		
35 min			Car 2	
40 min				Car 2

Sequential Execution

Types of Parallelism

3. Pipelining

- Example:
Assembly line analogy

Time	Engine	Doors	Wheels	Paint
5 min	Car 1			
10 min	Car 2	Car 1		
15 min	Car 3	Car 2	Car 1	
20 min	Car 4	Car 3	Car 2	Car 1
25 min		Car 4	Car 3	Car 2
30 min			Car 4	Car 3
35 min				Car 4

Pipelining

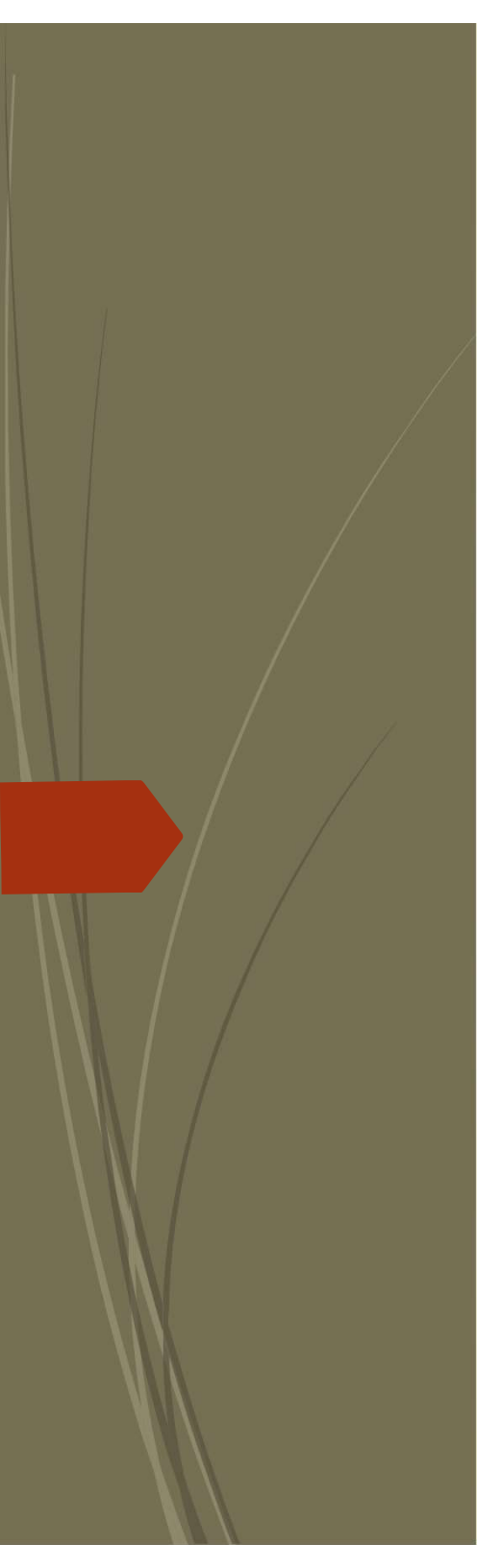
Types of Parallelism

3. Pipelining

- ➡ Example:
Overlap instructions in a single instruction cycle to achieve parallelism

Cycles	Fetch	Decode	Execute	Save
1	Inst 1			
2	Inst 2	Inst 1		
3	Inst 3	Inst 2	Inst 1	
4	Inst 4	Inst 3	Inst 2	Inst 1
5		Inst 4	Inst 3	Inst 2
6			Inst 4	Inst 3
7				Inst 4

4-stage Pipelining



Multi-processor vs Multi-Computer

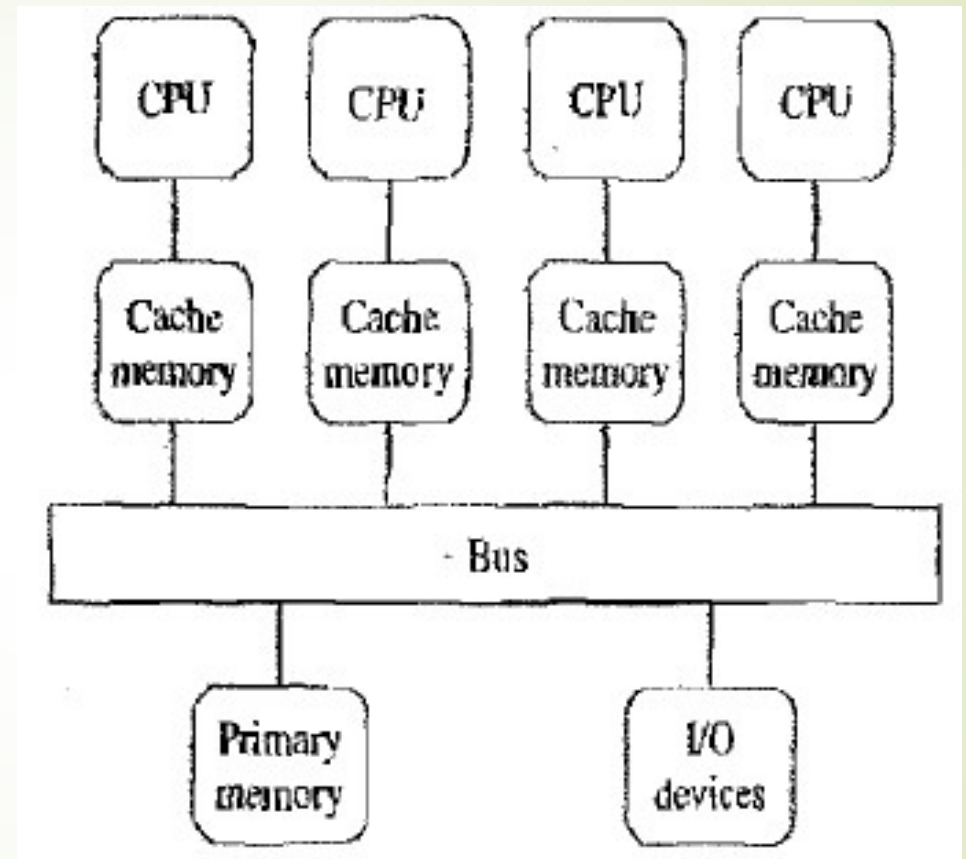
Multi-Processor

- Multiple-CPU's with a shared memory
- The same address on two different CPU's refers to the same memory location.
- **Generally two categories:-**
 1. Centralized Multi-processors
 2. Distributed Multi-processor

Multi-Processor

i. Centralized Multi-processor

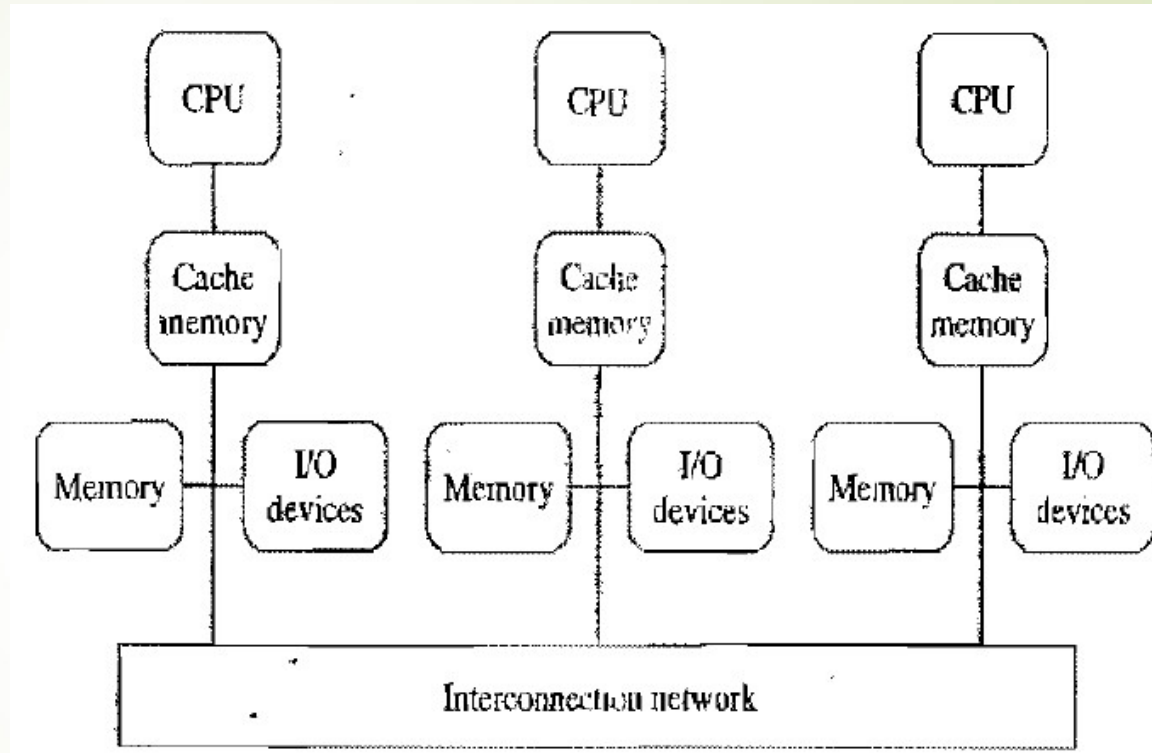
- Additional CPUs are attached to the system bus, and all the processors share the same primary memory
- All the memory is at one place and has the same access time from every processor
- Also known to as **UMA** (Uniform Memory Access) multi-processor or **SMP** (symmetrical Multi-processor)



Multi-Processor

ii. Distributed Multi-processor

- Distributed collection of memories forms one logical address space
- Again, the same address on different processors refers to the same memory location.
- Also known as non-uniform memory access (**NUMA**) architecture
- Because, memory access time varies significantly, depending on the physical location of the referenced address



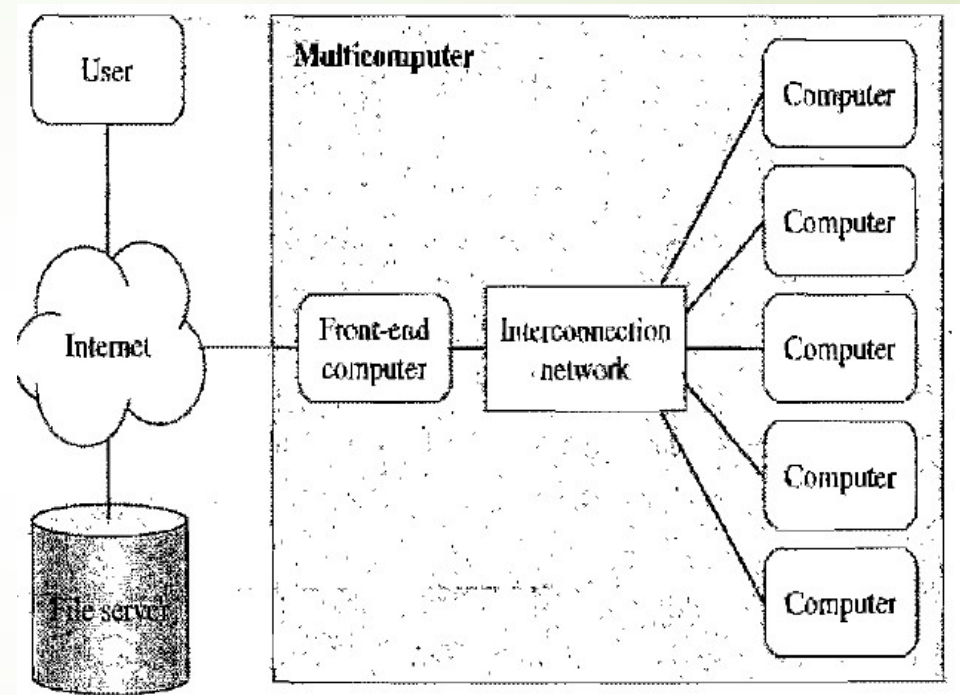
Multi-Computer

- Distributed-memory, multi-CPU computer
- Unlike **NUMA** architecture, a multicomputer has **disjoint local address spaces**
- Each processor has direct access to their local memory only.
- The same address on different processors refers to two different physical memory locations.
- Processors interact with each other through **passing messages**

Multi-Computer

Asymmetric Multi-Computers

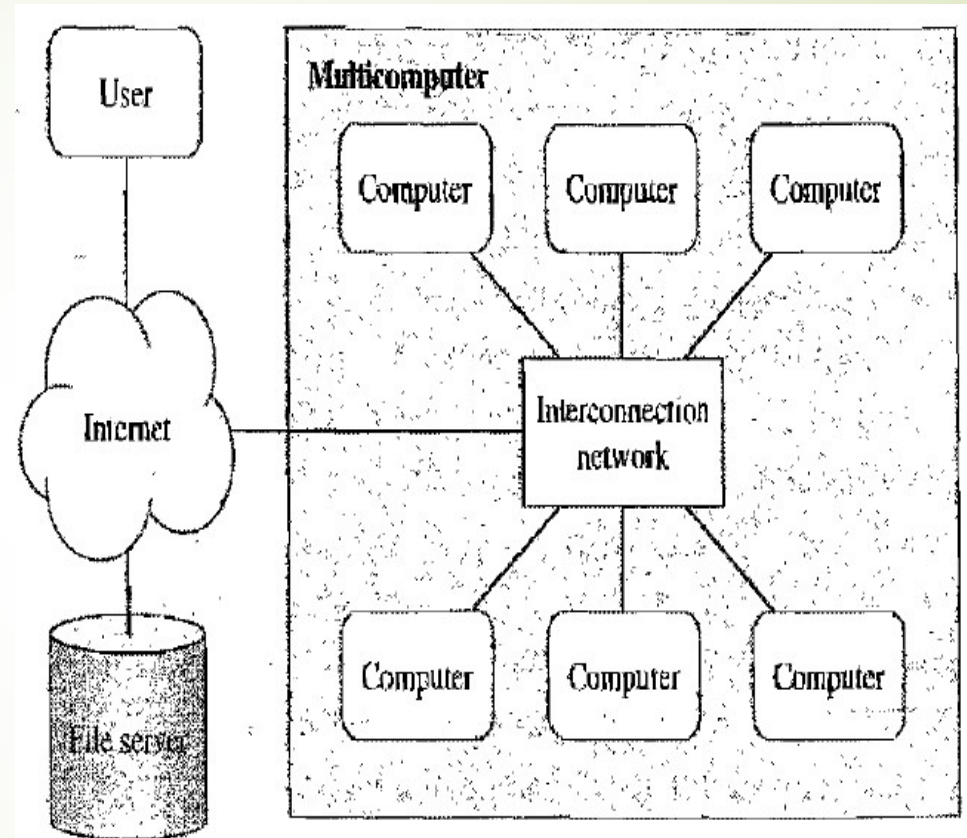
- A front-end computer that interacts with users and I/O devices
- The back-end processors are dedicatedly used for “number crunching”
- Front-end computer executes a full, multiprogrammed OS and provides all functions needed for program development
- The backends are reserved for executing parallel programs

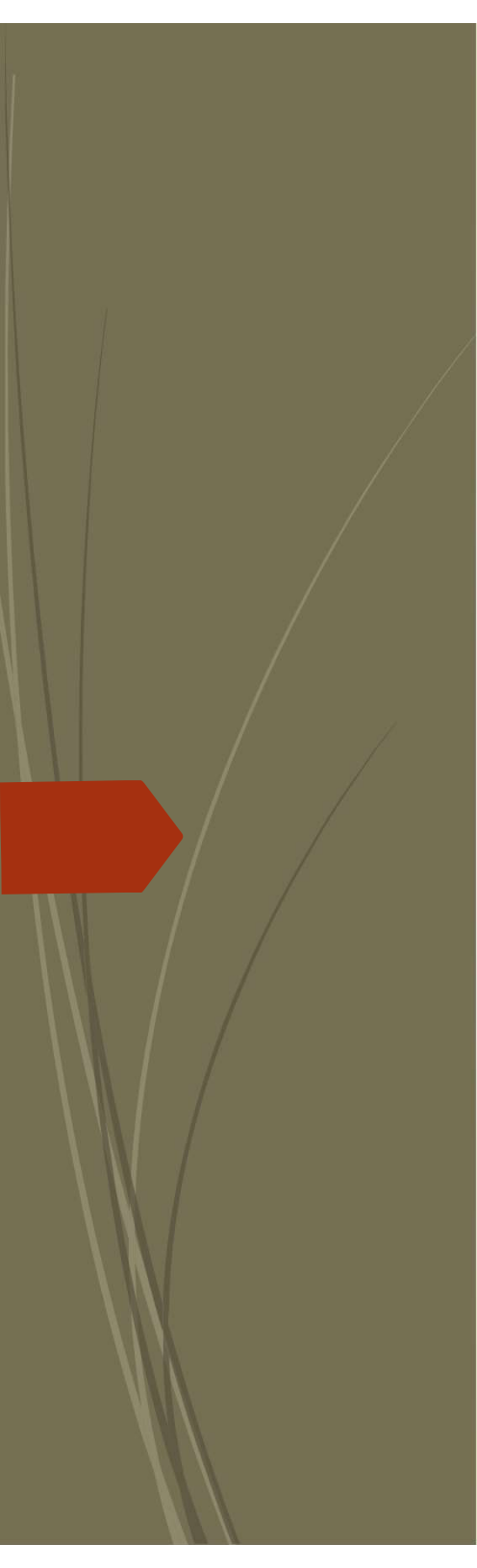


Multi-Computer

Symmetric Multi-Computers

- Every computer executes same OS
- Users may log into any of the computers
- This enables multiple users to concurrently login, edit and compile their programs.
- All the nodes can participate in execution of a parallel program





Network of Workstations vs Cluster

Cluster	Network of workstations
Usually a co-located collection of low-cost computers and switches, dedicated to running parallel jobs. All computer run the same version of operating system.	A dispersed collection of computers. Individual workstations may have different Operating systems and executable programs
Some of the computers may not have interfaces for the users to login	User have the power to login and power off their workstations
Commodity cluster uses high speed networks for communication such as fast Ethernet@100Mbps, gigabit Ethernet@1000 Mbps and Myrinet@1920 Mbps.	Ethernet speed for this network is usually slower. Typical in range of 10 Mbps



Reading Assignment

- Cache Coherence and Snooping
- Branch prediction and issues while pipelining the problem

Assigned reading pointers:

➤ Cache Coherence:

- When we are in a distributed environment, each CPU's cache needs to be consistent (continuously needs to be updated for current values), which is known as cache coherence.

➤ Snooping:

- Snoopy protocols achieve data consistency between the cache memory and the shared memory through a bus-based memory system. Write-invalidate and write-update policies are used for maintaining cache consistency.

➤ Branch Prediction:

- Branch prediction is a technique used in CPU design that attempts to guess the outcome of a conditional operation and prepare for the most likely result.

Questions



