## Performance

martes, 22 de marzo de 2022 07:00 a.m.

Example 2: Assume that you want to write a program that should achieve a speedup of 100 on 128 processors.

(i) What is the maximum sequential fraction of the program when this speedup should be achieved under the assumption of strong scalability?

We start with Amdahl's law and then isolate f as follows:

Thus, only less than 1% of your program can be serial in the strong scaling scenario!

(ii) What is the maximum sequential fraction of the program when this speedup should be achieved under the assumption of weak scalability whereby the ratio vessels linearly?

under the assumption of weak scalability whereby the ratio y scales linearly? Y scales linearly? Y scales linearly?

Thus, in this weak scaling scenario a significantly higher fraction can be serial!

YENP

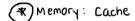
i) done

ii) Gustafsonis Law: Weak scalability, n=np\*n

Plugging into the Law,

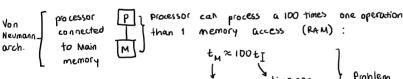
$$a = 28 = 0.12 \rightarrow 12\%$$
 of Time

Speedup -> acceleration



Cache: small memory since we want quick access big memory: bigger distances, electrons take more time to travel = slow

Let's analyze with 1 processor (Von Neumann's Architecture)



time per froblem mem cucess instruction

Von Neumann's Bottle Neck

Solution to this: Cache Memory

Another memory close to the small memory

processor, commonly inside its

chip

More cost
than RAM

EAM memory looks for a value the Pasks, if it's not on cache, it copies it to cache so that the processor access it from cache. the advantage is—

His based in a principle divided in two

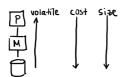
a) Temporal: if x is accessed now it is probable that x is needed later

b) Spatial: if x is accessed now, it is probable that x's surroundings are needed too.

Therefore you copy to cache the space around x

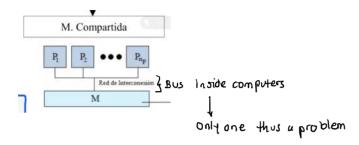
(other variables) in case the processor needs it.

If hard drive speed was faster, we wouldn't need RAM Memory:

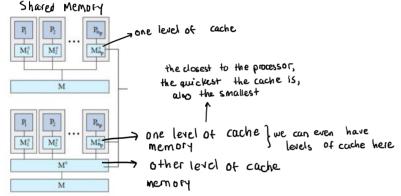


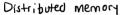
- -> RAM Memory is the cache of the hard orive.
- → The source program is distributed into pieces between RAM and cache.

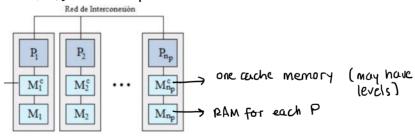
## -> For the case of & processors:



Solution: cache memory, in two ways

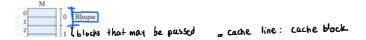


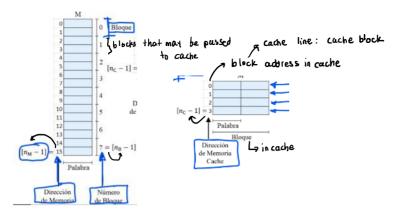




How is memory organized? For a processor:

Memory usually is organized in words, which is a block with a number that is the address (locality number to respect the spatial principle: we copy please of ram to the cache, and this means we need to divide RAM into blocks sets of lalso receive an address words





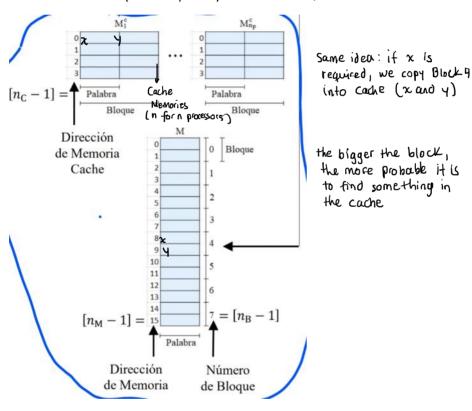
Now the cache memory has also lines, but each line is a block: the y are usually called cache lines.

Let in this case has two words space.

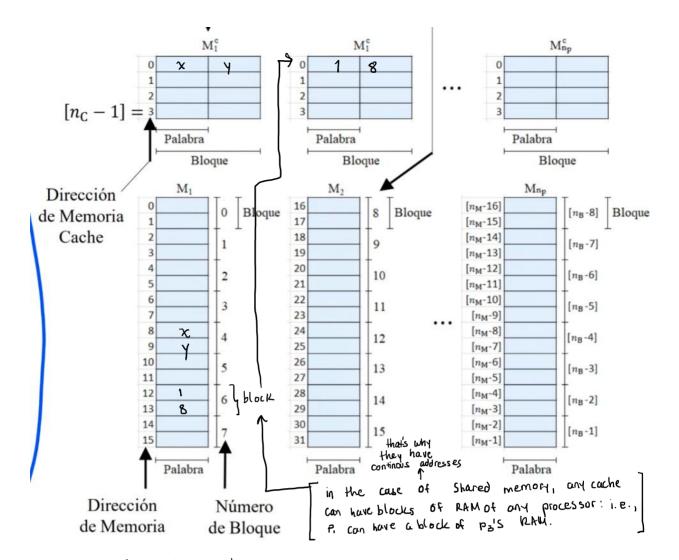
Let ram block yoes to one block / cache line.

If x data value is required by the processor, RAM copies that x word's block to cache.

In the case of processors, i.e., Shared Memory



In distributed Memory:

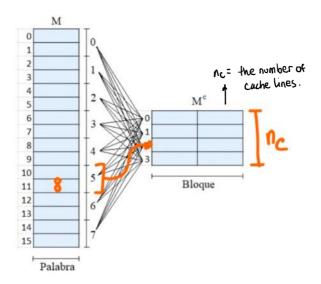


- We have one RAM and one cache per processor.
- If py wants address 8 data, say x. It is in block 4, so It is copied to cache (the block) into its cache, the processor's cache (pi's cache, in this case)
- -> What happens if the cache gets full? We delete the cache block that has the most time inside the cache. In this way, we are allowing each cache block, to be there.
- → The loca of a distributed memory system the idea is to make memory look like one:
  that's why they have continous memory addresses, and that's why we can copy to any
  processor's cache.

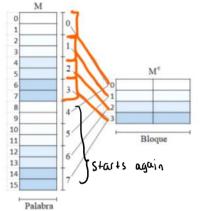
## Memory mappings

Mapping: defines in which cache address will a Pam address be copied in

Above, we used the Completely Associative Mapping, where n = no The other extreme is: Associative 64 1 via



In the direct case and its intermediate case: the first RAM block always goes to the first cache line, and so on. When the cache is full the following RAM address start again in cache line  $\emptyset$ .



As we go further, the electronics and cost increase towards Completely Associative