Contents

1	PR.	$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{M}$	7
	1.1	Prerequisites	7
	1.2	Definition	7
	1.3	How it works	8
		1.3.1 Computation	8
		1.3.2 PRAM Classificiation	8
		1.3.3 Strengths of PRAM	9
		1.3.4 How to compare PRAM models	9
	1.4	MVM algorithm	11
	1.5	SPMD sum	13
	1.6	MM algorithm	17
	1.7	PRAM variants and Lemmas	18
	1.8	PRAM implementation	19
	1.9	Amdahl's and Gustafson's Laws	21
2	Fun		24
	2.1	Introduction	24
		2.1.1 Simplest processor	24
		2.1.2 Superscalar processor	25
		2.1.3 Single Instruction, Multiple Data (SIMD) processor	26
		2.1.4 Multi-Core Processor	26
	2.2	Accessing Memory	27
		2.2.1 What is a memory?	27
		2.2.2 How to reduce processor stalls	29
		2.2.2.1 Cache	29
		2.2.2.2 Multi-threading	29
9	D		32
3		gramming models	32
	3.1	Implicit SPMD Program Compiler (ISPC)	
	3.2	Shared Address Space Model	36
	3.3	Message Passing model of communication	37
	3.4	Data-Parallel model	38
4	Par	allel Programming Models and pthreads	40
	4.1	How to create parallel algorithms and programs	40
	4.2	Analyze parallel algorithms	42
	4.3	Technologies	45
	4.4	Threads	48
		4.4.1 Flynn's taxonomy	48
		4.4.2 Definition	48
		4.4.3 pthreads API	50
		4.4.3.1 Creation	50
		4.4.3.2 Termination	51
		4.4.3.3 Joining	52
		4.4.3.4 Detaching	53
		4.4.3.5 Joining through Barriers	54
		4.4.3.6 Mutexes	55
		4.4.3.7 Condition variables	55
		1.1.0.1 Condition (analysis)	55

5 Op	enMP v5.2	56
5.1	Introduction	. 56
5.2	Basic syntax	. 58
5.3	Work sharing	. 61
	5.3.1 For	. 61
	5.3.1.1 Reduction	. 66
	5.3.2 Sections	. 68
	5.3.3 Single/Master	. 69
	5.3.4 Tasks	. 70
	5.3.4.1 Task dependences	. 73
5.4	Synchronization	. 77
5.5	Data environment	. 80
5.6	Memory model	. 88
5.7	Nested Parallelism	. 91
5.8	Cancellation	
5.9	SIMD Vectorization	. 98
	NT A 10	101
	PU Architecture	101
6.1	Introduction	
6.2	GPU compute mode	
6.3	CUDA	
	6.3.1 Basics of CUDA	
	6.3.2 Memory model	
	6.3.3 NVIDIA V100 Streaming Multiprocessor (SM)	
	6.3.4 Running a CUDA program on a GPU	
	6.3.5 Implementation of CUDA abstractions	
	6.3.6 Advanced thread scheduling	
	6.3.7 Memory and Data Locality in Depth	
	6.3.8 Tiling Technique	
	6.3.8.1 Tiled Matrix Multiplication	
	6.3.8.2 Implementation Tiled Matrix Multiplication .	
	6.3.8.3 Any size matrix handling	
	6.3.9 Optimizing Memory Coalescing	. 154
$\mathbf{C}\mathbf{U}$	JDA .	163
7.1	Introduction	
7.2	CUDA Basics	
	7.2.1 GPGPU Best Practices	
	7.2.2 Compilation	
	7.2.3 Debugging	
	7.2.4 CUDA Kernel	
7.3	Execution Model	
7.4	Querying Device Properties	
7.5	Thread hierarchy	. 183
7.6	Memory hierarchy	. 186
7.7	Streams	
7.8	CUDA and OpenMP or MPI	. 198
	7.8.1 Motivations	
	7.8.2 CUDA API for Multi-GPUs	. 203
	7.8.3 Memory Management with Multiple GPUs	. 206

		7.8.4	Batch Processing and Cooperative Patterns with OpenMP 21	2
		7.8.5	OpenMP for heterogeneous architectures 21	
		7.8.6	MPI-CUDA applications	7
8	Mer	nory (donsistency 22	21
O	8.1	-	nce vs Consistency	_
	8.2		ion	
	8.3		tial Consistency Model	
	8.4	-	y Models with Relaxed Ordering	
	0.4	8.4.1	Allowing Reads to Move Ahead of Writes	
		8.4.2	~	
		8.4.3	Allowing writes to be reordered	
	0 =	-	Allowing all reorderings	
	8.5 8.6	_	ages Need Memory Models Too	
	0.0	8.6.1	nenting Locks	
			Introduction	
		8.6.2	Test-and-Set based lock	
		8.6.3	Test-and-Test-and-Set lock	E)
9	Hete	erogen	eous Processing 24	9
	9.1		Constrained Computing	51
	9.2	Compi	te Specialization	52
	9.3		nges of heterogeneous designs	
	9.4	Reduci	ng energy consumption	69
	.		0-	
10	Patt		27 lencies	
		-		
	10.2		l Patterns	
			Nesting Pattern	
			Parallel Control Patterns	
			Serial Data Management Patterns	
			Parallel Data Management Patterns	
	10.2		Other Parallel Patterns	
	10.5	_	attern	
			What is a Map?	
		10.3.2	Optimizations	
			10.3.2.1 Sequences of Maps	
			10.3.2.2 Code Fusion	
		10 9 9	10.3.2.3 Cache Fusion	
			Related Patterns	_
	10.4		Scaled Vector Addition (SAXPY)	
	10.4		ives operations	
			Reduce (or Reduction) Pattern	
	10 5		Scan Pattern	
	10.5		Pattern	
			What is a Gather?	
			Shift	
			Zip	
	10.6		Unzip	
	10.6	Scatter	Pattern	64

1	0.6.1 What is a Scatter?	334
1	10.6.2 Avoid race conditions	337
	10.6.2.1 Atomic Scatter	337
	10.6.2.2 Permutation Scatter	339
	10.6.2.3 Merge Scatter	341
	10.6.2.4 Priority Scatter	343
10.7 F	Pack Pattern	344
1	10.7.1 What is a Pack?	344
1	10.7.2 Split	347
1	10.7.3 Unsplit	348
1	10.7.4 Bin	349
1	10.7.5 Expand	350
10.8 I	Partitioning Data	351
10.9 A	AoS vs. SoA	352
10.108	Stencil Pattern	357
1	10.10.1 What is a Stencil?	357
1	10.10.2 Implementing stencil with shift	358
1	10.10.3 Cache optimizations	360
1	0.10.4 Communication optimizations	362
11 Paral	lel Patterns in OpenMP and CUDA	364
11.1 (OpenMP	364
11.2 H	Histogram Pattern	366
11.3 F	Reduction Pattern	375
11.4 \$	Scan Pattern	379
12 Heter	rogeneous Computing - DSLs and HLS	383
12.1 I	introduction to Heterogeneous Computing	383
	Heterogeneous parallel programming	
	OSLs and Halide	
Index		384

12 Heterogeneous Computing - DSLs and HLS

12.1 Introduction to Heterogeneous Computing

Heterogeneous Computing (or Heterogeneous Processing) refers to systems that use multiple types of processors or accelerators to handle different workloads more efficiently.

- In contrast to traditional homogeneous systems (which only use CPUs), heterogeneous systems combine different processing units such as CPUs, GPUs, DSPs, and FPGAs.
- The goal is to match the right processor to the right task, achieving higher performance and energy efficiency.

Example 1: Heterogeneous Processing

A self-driving car requires CPUs for decision-making, GPUs for image recognition, and FPGAs for real-time sensor fusion.

22 Energy-Efficient Computing Strategies

When designing a heterogeneous system, performance isn't the only goal; energy efficiency is just as critical. Given a fixed power budget, simply increasing performance without considering power constraints is inefficient. Specialized hardware (e.g., FPGAs, ASICs) achieves better performance per watt than general-purpose processors.

There are two main strategies for improving energy efficiency:

1. Use Specialized Processors. CPUs are not energy-efficient due to instruction decoding, branch handling, and pipeline management overhead. Specialized hardware (FPGAs, ASICs) reduces overhead, leading to more computations per joule.

$$\mathrm{Power} = \frac{\mathrm{Op}}{\mathrm{second}} \times \frac{\mathrm{Joules}}{\mathrm{Op}}$$

2. Minimize Data Movement. Memory access consumes more energy than computation! Optimizing data locality reduces power consumption. For example, moving computation closer to memory (e.g., using tensor core inside GPUs) significantly reduces energy cost.

12.2 Heterogeneous parallel programming

A Challenges of Writing Portable and Efficient Parallel Code

Writing parallel programs for heterogeneous systems is difficult due to the following reasons:

- 1. Diverse Hardware Architectures. A CPU, GPU, and FPGA all have different programming models. Code written for one hardware type may not perform well on another.
- 2. Performance vs. Productivity Trade-offs.
 - **Performance**: Low-level programming (e.g., CUDA, OpenCL, Verilog) allows fine-tuned optimizations but **is hard to program**.
 - **Productivity**: High-level abstractions (e.g., OpenMP, DSLs) improve productivity but may introduce performance overhead.
- 3. Memory Management. Different memory models (shared vs. distributed) require different optimizations. Data movement between CPU and GPU memory can be costly if not handled efficiently.
- 4. Scalability Issues. Some programs scale well on GPUs but poorly on CPUs due to synchronization and memory bandwidth limitations.

♥ The Ideal Parallel Programming Language

An ideal parallel programming model should provide a balance of:

- ✓ Performance. Optimized execution across different hardware.
- ✓ **Productivity**. Easy to use and develop.
- ✓ Generality. Works across different architectures.

However, most existing languages optimize only one or two of these factors, leading to trade-offs.

Approach	Performance	Productivity	Generality
$\overline{ ext{CUDA/OpenCL}}$	✓ High	× Low	X Low
OpenMP (CPU)	✓ High	✓ Medium	X Low
MPI (Distributed)	✓ High	X Low	✓ High
${\bf FPGA/Verilog/VHDL}$	✓ Very High	× Very Low	× Low
High-Level Synthesis	✓ High	✓ Medium	× Low

? Why is this important?

If we want **portable parallel programs**, we need **new high-level abstractions** like Domain-Specific Languages (DSLs), which will be covered in the next section.

12.3 DSLs and Halide

What are Domain-Specific Languages (DSLs)?

A Domain-Specific Language (DSL) is a specialized programming language designed for a specific application domain. The main characteristics of DSLs are:

- Restricted expressiveness (focused on a single domain)
- High-level, declarative syntax (easier than general purpose languages)
- Optimized performance for the target domain
- May be standalone or embedded in another language

DSL Name	Target Domain	Key Benefits
Halide	Image Processing	Separates algorithm from scheduling for optimized execution.
TensorFlow	Machine Learning	Optimized computation graphs for AI workloads.
SQL	Databases	Declarative queries for efficient data retrieval.
$\begin{array}{c} {\rm Verilog/VHDL} \\ - \end{array}$	Hardware Design	Describes digital circuits for synthesis.

Table 11: Examples of DSLs.

△ Embedded vs. External DSLs

DSLs can be classified as:

- External DSLs:
 - Have their own syntax and compiler/interpreter.
 - **?** Example: SQL, Halide, Verilog.
 - Advantages: can be more optimized but require custom compilers.
- Embedded DSLs:
 - Built inside another general-purpose language.
 - **?** Example: TensorFlow (embedded in Python).
 - Advantages: benefit from integration with the host language

DSL Use Case: Halide for Image Processing

Halide is a Domain-Specific Language (DSL) for high-performance image processing.

- ? Why does image processing need DSLs?
 - **1** Image processing is **data-intensive** and **requires high performance**.
 - Traditional solutions (C++, CUDA, OpenCV) require manual optimizations.
 - ② Optimizing code for **parallelism and memory efficiency** is **difficult**.

? Why Halide?

- X Separates "what" is computed from "how" it is executed.
- **Expresses computations at a high level**, leaving optimizations to the compiler.
- **Portable** across CPUs, GPUs, and FPGAs.

X How Halide Works: Separating Algorithm from Schedule

In Halide, a **key feature is the separation** of **what** a program computes (*computation/algorithm*) from **how** it executes (*schedule*). This means:

- The algorithm specifies what operations should be performed. In other words, specifies what to compute (like a mathematical formula).
- The schedule defines how those operations should be executed efficiently on the hardware. In other words, specifies how to execute the computation (parallelism, memory layout, vectorization).

Now we see the difference between the traditional approach we have always used and the halide approach:

• Traditional Approach (C++, CUDA, OpenCV). In traditional programming languages (e.g., C++, OpenCV, CUDA), the algorithm and execution strategy are mixed together. This means that if we want to change parallelization or memory access optimizations, we must rewrite parts of the algorithm itself. This makes it hard to experiment with different optimizations.

A Problems with the Traditional Approach

- 1. **If we want to optimize** for vectorization, parallel execution, or memory layout, we **must modify the algorithm itself**.
- 2. The same code cannot easily be reused for different architectures (e.g., CPU, GPU, FPGA).

Example 2: Problems with the Traditional Approach

```
void box_blur(const Image &in, Image &out) {
  for (int y = 1; y < in.height() - 1; y++) {
    for (int x = 1; x < in.width() - 1; x++) {
      out(x, y) = (
            in(x-1, y) + in(x, y) + in(x+1, y)
            ) / 3;
    }
}
</pre>
```

The problem here is that we need to specify the "what", i.e. what operations should be performed, but also "how" these operations should be performed.

- Halide's Approach: Separate Algorithm from Execution. Halide splits the computation into two parts:
 - 1. Computation (Algorithm) What to Compute
 - Defines the mathematical computation.
 - Remains unchanged across different hardware targets.
 - 2. Schedule How to Execute Efficiently
 - Controls memory layout, parallelization, and optimization.
 - Can be changed without modifying the algorithm.

Example 3: Box Blur in Halide

The computation part is separated from the scheduling! So a change in the algorithm can be made without affecting the control of the execution. Therefore, we define simply:

1. Computation (Algorithm), stays the same:

This part only describes the math, <u>not how</u> it should run.

2. Schedule, controls execution (can be changed easily):

```
blury.tile(x, y, xi, yi, 256, 32)

// Vectorized execution for SIMD

vectorize(xi, 8)

// Parallel execution over y-dimension

parallel(y);
```

```
blurx.compute_at(blury, x) // Compute blurx only
when needed by blury
vectorize(x, 8);
```

This part controls execution strategy but does <u>not</u> modify the algorithm. The same algorithm can now run efficiently on different hardware architectures just by changing the schedule.

♥ Why DSLs Matter for Performance and Productivity: Advantages

- ✓ Performance Optimization. A Halide program can be better than hand-optimization C++ code. Scheduling decisions affect parallel execution, memory locality, and vectorization.
- ✓ Productivity. Instead of manually optimizing, Halide allows rapid exploration of different schedules. Easier to port to different architectures (CPU, GPU, FPGA).

In conclusion, DSLs like Halide **automate low-level optimizations**, enabling faster and more efficient code for specialized domains.